

Age-related changes in children’s real-time American Sign Language comprehension

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Abstract

Extensive research with children learning spoken language shows that the ability to interpret speech in real time with high efficiency is critical to language development (Fernald & Marchman, 2012). But no studies have investigated real time language comprehension in young children learning American Sign Language (ASL). ASL is expressed with the hands, arms and face, and comprehended with the eyes, differences that could have potential consequences for how linguistic information is processed. This cross-sectional study develops the first measures of ASL-learners’ real-time language comprehension skills, and explores links between these skills and children’s vocabulary development. 29 native ASL-learners (16-53 mos) and 19 fluent adult signers completed measures of language processing efficiency. Children’s ASL processing skills improved with age, and adult signers were more efficient than children. Importantly, children’s processing skills strongly correlated with their vocabulary size, providing evidence that the ability to efficiently establish reference in real time is linked to meaningful linguistic outcomes. These novel findings show that visual language learners, like children learning spoken languages, make impressive gains in the efficiency of language interpretation over the first few years of life as they progress towards adult-like levels of fluency.

Introduction

Understanding language rapidly and accurately is central to our ability to function effectively in daily life. One fundamental component of language understanding is linking abstract symbols (i.e. words and signs) to concrete objects in the world (i.e., establishing reference).¹ While children learning spoken languages can simultaneously look at objects and listen to their caregivers, children learning American Sign Language (ASL) must rely on vision to both look at objects and to process linguistic information. This dual functionality requires children to disengage from the source of language to seek out the named object, increasing the likelihood of a mapping error or possibly creating a situation where subsequent information is missed. Thus it is critical to understand how young ASL-learners establish reference during fluent, real-time language understanding. In the current work, we aim to develop the first measures of young ASL-learners' real-time language comprehension skills, and explore links between these skills and children's linguistic outcomes.

Studies of spoken language comprehension

To follow a typical conversation, skilled listeners must rapidly apprehend meaning in combinations of words from moment to moment as the speech signal unfolds at rates of 10-15 phonemes/second. Extensive research with adults using online measures² shows that skilled listeners can identify spoken words before their acoustic offset, evaluating hypotheses about word identity incrementally based on what they have heard up to that moment, typically within 150 ms of word onset (Marslen-Wilson & Zwitserlood, 1989). Moreover, adults are adept in the parallel processing of multiple streams of information, rapidly integrating the acoustic speech signal as it unfolds in time with information from the visual scene to derive intended meaning (Dahan & Tanenhaus, 2004; Tanenhaus et al., 1995; Altmann & Kamide, 1999, 2004).

Over the past fifteen years, research with infants and young children has incorporated the same high-resolution measures of language processing (Fernald, Pinto, Swingley, Weinberg, & McRoberts, 1998; Snedeker & Trueswell, 2004), making it possible to obtain continuous measures of speed and accuracy that enable sensitive assessment of efficiency in spoken language processing even by very young children. Using these procedures, researchers have found systematic age-related changes in the speed and accuracy of responses to familiar words (Fernald et al., 1998), and that efficiency in word recognition is correlated with both individual differences in vocabulary knowledge (Fernald, Swingley, & Pinto, 2001; Zangl, Klarman, Thal, Fernald, & Bates, 2005) as well as faster rates of vocabulary growth across the second year (Fernald, Perfors, & Marchman, 2006). While studies have also found associations between faster word recognition and more advanced linguistic development in both English (Fernald et al., 2001; Zangl & Fernald, 2007) and Spanish (Hurtado, Marchman, & Fernald,

¹This problem is also known as the problem of referential uncertainty (Quine, 1960): that a speaker's utterance could refer to many possible objects in the visual scene, to parts of those objects, or even to something that is not present.

²Here online measures refer to measuring participants' eye movements during language comprehension in order to provide a rapid and detailed metric for determining the target of their visual attention.

2008; Lew-Williams & Fernald, 2007), this is the first study to adapt these online processing efficiency measures to be used with children learning ASL.

Psycholinguistics of ASL comprehension

ASL is a visual-gestural language expressed with hands, arms and face, a modality difference with substantial consequences for how linguistic information is processed. A central question in psycholinguistic studies of sign language processing with adults has been which aspects of processing are universal across spoken and signed languages and which are modality-dependent. In many ways, language processing appears to be parallel in spoken and manual modalities. Signers show effects of: (a) lexicality, response times to identify non-signs are slower than for actual signs (Corina & Emmorey, 1993), (b) frequency, high frequency signs are recognized faster than low frequency signs (Carreiras et al., 2008), and (c) phonological parameters, the sublexical units of sign – handshape, location, and movement – influence sign recognition (Corina & Emmorey, 1993; Corina & Hildebrandt, 2002; Carreiras et. al., 2008).

However, differences in linguistic structure and surface features of lexical forms in the spoken vs. manual modality have consequences for the efficiency with which signs are understood (Carreiras, 2010, Corina & Knapp, 2006). Using a gating procedure, Emmorey and Corina (1990) found that deaf participants identified monomorphemic signs after approximately 35% of the sign form had been seen; in contrast, in spoken English approximately 83% of a word must be heard before words are uniquely identified (Grosjean, 1980). Thus, there is strong evidence that signs, like spoken words, are processed incrementally by adults, but we know very little about how young ASL-learners process signs in real-time.

In sum, this study will be the first to explore the early development of real-time processing of signs by very young children learning ASL. First, we adapt a well established paradigm for measuring spoken language processing efficiency to be used with young children learning ASL. Next, we ask whether the development of early ASL comprehension follows a similar developmental trajectory as that of spoken language. Finally, we test whether individual variation in ASL processing skills show similar concurrent relations to children’s vocabulary size.

Method

Participants

16 deaf and 13 hearing children with native exposure to ASL (17 females, 12 males, Mage = 28.5, range = 16-53months) and 19 fluent adults were recruited from several locations by bicultural/bilingual researchers fluent in ASL. All children were exposed to ASL at birth from at least one fluent ASL caregiver and currently used ASL as their primary mode of communication at home. The majority of children attended a center-based early childhood education program in which ASL was the primary mode of instruction. Thus, children were immersed in ASL early in life, both at home and in the daycare setting. An additional 20

participants were tested, but not included in the analyses due to fussiness ($n = 5$), being too far outside the target age range ($n = 3$), and not receiving enough ASL exposure ($n = 12$). For visualization purposes, children were divided into two groups using a median split by age: Younger (< 26.5 Months), Older (> 26.5 Months), but we conducted all analyses on individual-level data.

Table 1: Participant background information. All children were exposed to ASL from one caregiver from birth.

| Age Group | n | Mean age | Min age | Max age | Female | Male | Deaf | Hearing |
|-----------------|----|----------|---------|---------|--------|------|------|---------|
| < 26.5 Months | 14 | 20.8 | 16 | 26 | 8 | 6 | 7 | 7 |
| > 26.5 Months | 15 | 35.7 | 27 | 53 | 9 | 6 | 9 | 6 |

Measures

Parent report of vocabulary size: Parents completed a 90-item vocabulary checklist designed to be culturally and linguistically appropriate for children learning ASL. Vocabulary size was computed as the number of reported signs produced.

ASL Processing: Efficiency in online comprehension was assessed using a version of the looking-while-listening procedure (LWL) (Fernald et al., 2006; Fernald, Zangl, Portillo & Marchman, 2008) adapted for ASL-learners, which we call the Visual Language Processing (VLP) task. Since this was the first study to measure online ASL processing efficiency in young signers, several critical modifications were made, which we describe below.

Apparatus

A portable version of the VLP was created to facilitate recruitment of participants. Stimuli were presented on a portable 27" monitor using a Macbook Pro laptop. Video of the child's eye gaze was recorded using a digital camcorder set up behind the monitor. To minimize visual distractions, children sat on their caregivers' laps inside of a portable 5' by 5' tent with opaque walls.

Trial Structure

On each trial, children saw pictures of two familiar objects and a signer naming one of them. Figure 1 shows an example of the stimuli and the timeline of one trial in the VLP task. Each trial lasted approximately 7-8 secs.

Linguistic and visual stimuli

The linguistic stimuli were designed to be comparable to those used in previous research and to allow for generalization beyond characteristics of a specific signer and sentence structure.

Coding and reliability

Children's gaze patterns were videotaped and coded frame-by-frame, yielding a high-resolution record of eye movements aligned with target noun onset. 25% of videos were re-coded to assess coder reliability – agreement within a single frame averaged 98% on these reliability assessments.

Calculating linguistic processing efficiency

Correct looking is a function of the child's tendency to shift quickly away from the central signer to the target picture in response to the target sign, and also to remain fixated on the target picture. To determine the degree to which participants fixated the appropriate picture across trials, mean proportion looking to target was calculated for each participant at each 33 ms frame from the onset of the target noun. Accuracy was defined as the mean proportion of time spent looking at the target picture out of the total time spent on either the target picture, the distracter picture, or the signer from 500 to 2000 ms from target noun onset. Importantly, the VLP task includes a central signer, which functions as a central fixation point similar to adult psycholinguistic experiments. Thus children could produce four different types of responses on a given trial: (1) signer-to-target shift, (2) signer-to-distracter shift, (3) signer-to-away shift, (4) no-shift. All four trial types contribute to accuracy analyses.

Reaction time (RT) corresponds to the latency to shift away from the signer to the target picture, measured from the onset of the target sign. Responses prior to 500 ms from noun onset were excluded because very few responses occurred before this cut point, presumably because the child did not have enough time to process sufficient linguistic input and to mobilize an eye movement; responses slower than 2000 ms were excluded because these delayed looks are less likely to reflect a response to the target sign (see Fernald, Swingley & Pinto, 2001). This window was selected such that 90% of all trials with a signer-to-target shift were included in the analysis. In addition, 8% of trials were excluded because children never shifted off the signer. Note that RT can be calculated only on those trials on which the child is looking at the signer at the onset of the noun and shifts within the designated time window. Since children vary in the likelihood that they will shift on a given trial, mean RTs are based on different numbers of trials across participants ($M=13.4$ trials, range=3–25). All children had at least three RTs within the appropriate window and were included in the analyses.

Bayesian data analysis

TODO: explain why we chose to use latent mixture model

Results

First we present analyses of performance on the VLP task, showing that children become faster and more accurate at comprehending familiar signs as they get older and progress towards adult levels of language fluency. Then we present an analysis of the links between children’s real time ASL processing skills and productive ASL vocabulary.

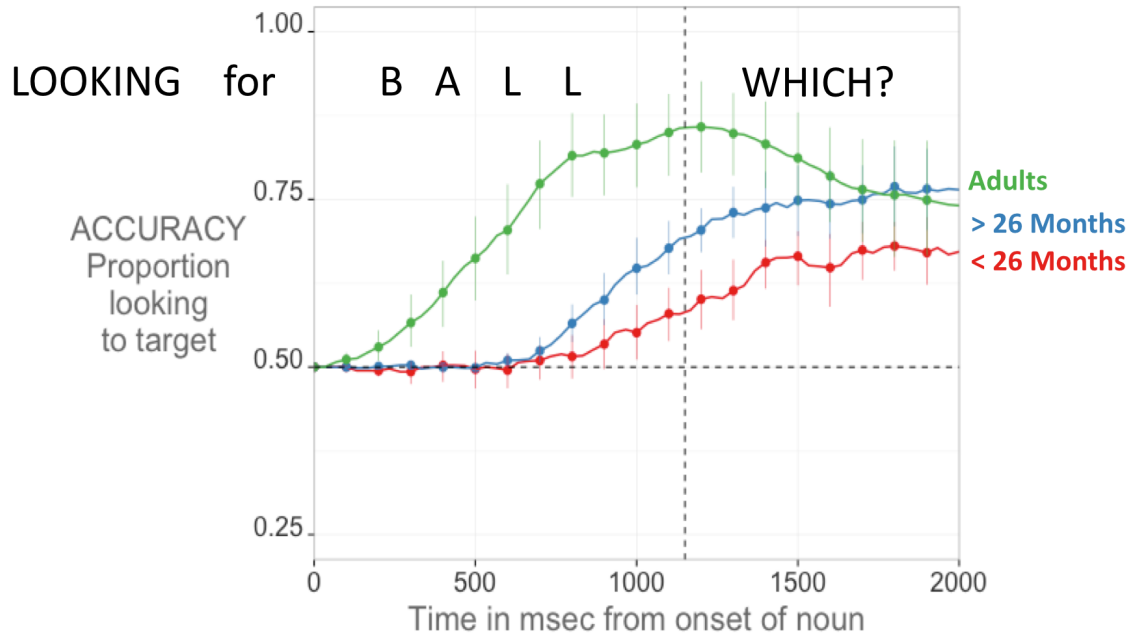


Figure 2: The accuracy of participants’ looking to target picture as a function of age group (Younger children, Older children, and Adults). Curves show changes over time in the mean proportion looking to the correct picture, measured in ms from noun onset; error bars represent \pm 95% CI computed by non-parametric bootstrap. The dashed vertical line indicates mean offset of target noun (TODO ms). Mean accuracy scores were computed over a window from 500–2000 ms from noun onset.

ASL processing efficiency

Figure 3 provides an overview of the time course of correct orienting to the referent in response to the target sign. The three curves show changes in the mean proportion of trials on which participants in each age group fixated the correct referent at every 33 ms interval as the target sign unfolded. Before seeing the target sign, all participants fixated on the signer. Both adults and children began to increase their looking to the target picture before the offset of the target noun. But children remained at chance for approximately 700 milliseconds longer than adults, with the youngest children taking the longest to look to the target over the trial. Differences in asymptote reflect the higher levels of accuracy achieved by older children and the adults.

Accuracy: Mean accuracy scores, computed over the 500–2000 ms window from noun onset, were examined as a function of age. Accuracy was strongly correlated with age ($r(27) = 0.64$), indicating that older ASL-learners were significantly more reliable than younger children in fixating the target picture.

Reaction Time: Mean reaction times were negatively correlated with age ($r(22) = -0.38$), indicating that older ASL-learning children were faster to shift to the target picture than younger ones. Mean reaction times were also negatively correlated with mean accuracy scores ($r(22) = -0.59$) such that those children who were faster to shift to the target were also more likely to stick on the target image throughout the analysis window.

Links between processing efficiency and ASL vocabulary

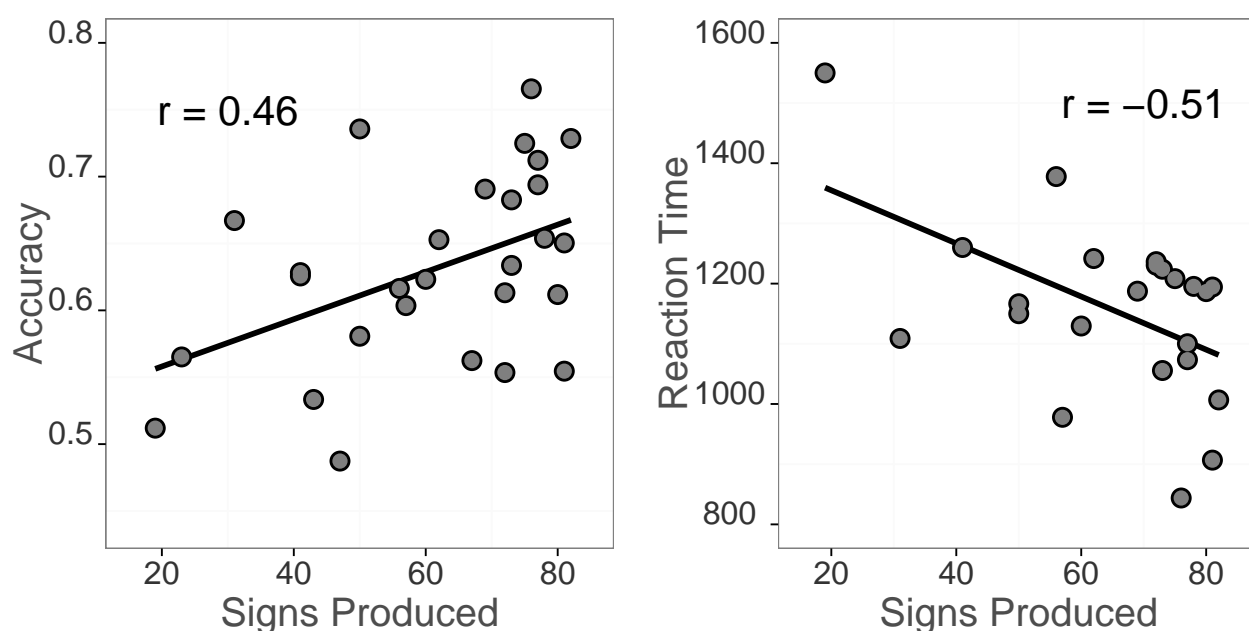


Figure 3: Relationship between VLP measures and productive ASL vocabulary. Each data point is an individual child. Panel A shows the positive relationship between accuracy and vocabulary. Panel B shows the negative relationship between RT and vocabulary

Figure 4 shows the relationships between both VLP processing measures and children's productive ASL vocabulary. Mean accuracy was positively related to vocabulary size ($r(26) = 0.46$) such that children with higher accuracy scores also had larger productive vocabularies. Mean reaction times were negatively correlated with vocabulary ($r(21) = -0.51$) indicating that children who were faster to recognize ASL signs also had larger vocabularies.

It is important to point out that age and vocabulary were strongly intercorrelated in our sample ($r(21) = 0.72$). In a multiple regression analysis... (TODO: figure out how to talk about regression analysis)

Discussion

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