Child language experience in a Tseltal Mayan village

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Abstract

We analyzed 9–11-hour at-home audio recordings from 10 Tseltal Mayan children between 0;2 and 3;0 to investigate how often they engaged in verbal interaction with others and

whether their speech environment changed with age, time of day, household size, and number

of speakers present. We found that Tseltal children are not often directly spoken to, that

most directed speech comes from adults, and that directed speech does not increase with age.

13 Most of children's directed speech came in the mornings or early evenings, particularly with

14 younger children, and high interactional peaks tended to occur in bursts of turn taking that

lasted approximately one minute. With some exceptions, these findings support previous

characterizations of Mayan caregiver-child talk. An initial analysis of children's vocal

development suggests that, despite relatively little directed speech, these children develop

early language skills on a similar timescale to WEIRD children. Given these findings, we

discuss multiple proposals for how Tseltal children might be efficient learners.

20 Keywords: Child-directed speech, linguistic input, non-WEIRD, vocal maturity, turn
21 taking, interaction, Mayan

22 Word count: X

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Introduction

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A great deal of work in developmental language science revolves around one central 25 question: What linguistic evidence is needed to support first language acquisition? In 26 pursuing this topic, many researchers have fixed their sights on the quantity and characteristics of speech addressed to children; that is, speech designed for young recipients who may have limited attention and understanding (e.g., Golinkoff, Can, Soderstrom, & Hirsh-Pasek, 2015; Hoff, 2006). In several languages, child-directed speech (CDS<sup>1</sup>) has been demonstrated to be distinct from adult-directed speech (ADS) in that it is linguistically 31 adapted for young listeners (Cristia, 2013; Soderstrom, 2007), interactionally rich (Bruner, 1983; Butterworth, 2003; Estigarribia & Clark, 2007; Masataka, 2003), and preferred by infants (Cooper & Aslin, 1990; ManyBabies Collaborative, 2017; Segal & Newman, 2015). In those same linguistic communities, these properties of CDS have been found to facilitate 35 early word learning (e.g., Cartmill et al., 2013; Hirsh-Pasek et al., 2015; Hoff, 2003; Hurtado, Marchman, & Fernald, 2008; Rowe, 2008; Shneidman & Goldin-Meadow, 2012; Shneidman, 37 Arroyo, Levine, & Goldin-Meadow, 2012; Weisleder & Fernald, 2013). However, ethnographic reports from a number of traditional, non-Western communities suggest that children easily acquire their community's language(s) even when they are only infrequently directly addressed (P. Brown, 2011). If so, frequent CDS may not be essential for learning language; just useful for facilitating certain aspects of language development. In this paper we investigate the language environment and early development of 10 Tseltal Mayan children growing up in a community where caregivers have been reported to infrequently directly address speech to infants and young children (P. Brown, 1998, 2011, 2014).

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>Throughout this article, we use "child-directed speech" and "CDS" in the most literal sense: speech designed for and directed toward a child recipient.

## 6 Child-directed speech

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Prior work on CDS in Western contexts has shown that the amount of CDS children
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   hear influences their language development; more CDS is associated with larger and
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   faster-growing receptive and productive vocabularies (e.g., Hart & Risley, 1995; Hoff, 2003;
   Hurtado et al., 2008; Peter, Durrant, Bidgood, Pine, & Rowland, in preparation;
   Ramírez-Esparza, García-Sierra, & Kuhl, 2014, 2017; Shneidman & Goldin-Meadow, 2012;
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   Shneidman et al., 2012; Weisleder & Fernald, 2013). CDS has also been linked to young
   children's speed of lexical retrieval (Hurtado et al., 2008; Weisleder & Fernald, 2013; but see
   Peter et al., in preparation) and syntactic development (Huttenlocher, Waterfall, Vasilyeva,
   Vevea, & Hedges, 2010). The conclusion drawn from much of this work is that speech
   directed to children is well designed for learning words—especially concrete nouns—because
   it is optimized for a child's attention in the moment the words are uttered. Indeed, infants
   and young children prefer listening to attention-grabbing CDS over ADS, even outside of
   first-person interaction (ManyBabies Collaborative, 2017). There are, however, a few
   significant caveats to this body of work relating CDS quantity to language development.
        First, while there is overwhelming evidence linking CDS quantity to vocabulary size,
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   links to grammatical development are more scant (e.g., Brinchmann, Braeken, & Lyster,
   2019; Frank, Braginsky, Marchman, & Yurovsky, in preparation; Huttenlocher et al., 2010).
   While the advantage of CDS for referential word learning is clear, it is less obvious how CDS
   facilitates syntactic learning. For example, utterance length (a proxy for syntactic
   complexity; Wasow, 1997) doesn't appear to increase with child age (Newport, Gleitman, &
   Gleitman, 1977), and parents may be less likely to directly correct their children's syntactic
   errors than their semantic ones (R. Brown, 1977; but see Chouinard & Clark,
   2003)—sometimes themselves producing ungrammatical utterances to make individual words
   salient (Aslin, Woodward, LaMendola, & Bever, 1996). On the other hand, there is a wealth
   of evidence that syntactic knowledge is lexically specified (e.g., Arnold, Wasow, Asudeh, &
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   Alrenga, 2004; Goldberg, 2003; Lieven, Pine, & Baldwin, 1997), and that, crosslinguistically,
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children's vocabulary size is one of the most robust predictors of their early syntactic
development (Bates & Goodman, 1997; Frank et al., in preparation; Marchman,
Martínez-Sussmann, & Dale, 2004). In short, what is good for the lexicon may also be good
for syntax. For now, however, the direct link between CDS and grammatical development
still needs further exploration (see also Yurovsky, 2018).

A second caveat is that most work on CDS quantity uses summary measures that 78 average over the ebb and flow of interaction (e.g., proportion CDS). In both child and adult 79 interactions, verbal behaviors are highly structured: while some occur at fairly regular 80 intervals ("periodic"), others occur in shorter, more intense bouts separated by long periods 81 of inactivity ("bursty"; Abney, Dale, Louwerse, & Kello, 2018; Fusaroli, Razczaszek-Leonardi, & Tylén, 2014). For example, Abney and colleagues (2017) found that, across multiple time 83 scales of daylong recordings, both infants' and adults' vocal behavior was clustered. Focusing specifically on lexical development, Blasi and colleagues (in preparation) found that nouns and verbs were used burstily in child-proximal speech across all six of the languages in their typologically diverse sample. Infrequent words were somewhat more bursty overall, leading them to propose that burstiness may play a key and universal role in acquiring otherwise-rare linguistic units. Experiment-based work also shows that two-year-olds learn novel words better from a massed presentation of object labels versus a distributed presentation (Schwab & Lew-Williams, 2016; but see Ambridge, Theakston, Lieven, & Tomasello, 2006 and Childers & Tomasello, 2002). These structured temporal characteristics in children's language experience imply new roles for attention and memory in language development. Ideally, then, we should be investigating how CDS is distributed over children's daily experiences (Soderstrom & Wittebolle, 2013).

Finally, prior work has typically focused on Western (primarily North American)
populations, limiting our ability to generalize these effects to children acquiring language
worldwide (P. Brown & Gaskins, 2014; Henrich, Heine, & Norenzayan, 2010; Lieven, 1994;
Nielsen, Haun, Kärtner, & Legare, 2017). While we do gain valuable insight by looking at

within-population variation (e.g., different socioeconomic or sub-cultures), we can more 100 effectively find places where our assumptions break down by studying new populations. 101 Linguistic anthropologists working in non-Western communities have long reported that 102 caregiver interaction styles vary immensely from place to place, with some caregivers using 103 little child-directed speech with young children (P. Brown & Gaskins, 2014; Gaskins, 2006; 104 Lieven, 1994; Ochs & Schieffelin, 1984). Children in these communities reportedly acquire 105 language with "typical"-looking benchmarks. For example, they start pointing and talking 106 around the same time we would expect for Western middle-class infants (P. Brown, 2011, 107 2014; P. Brown & Gaskins, 2014; Liszkowski, Brown, Callaghan, Takada, & De Vos, 2012; 108 but see Salomo & Liszkowski, 2013). These findings have had little impact on mainstream 109 theories of word learning and language acquisition, partly due to a lack of directly 110 comparable measures (P. Brown, 2014; P. Brown & Gaskins, 2014). If, however, children in these communities do acquire language without delay, despite infrequent CDS, we must 112 reconsider what kind of linguistic evidence is necessary for children to learn language. 113

## Language development in non-WEIRD communities

A growing number of researchers are using methods from developmental 115 psycholinguistics to describe the language environments and linguistic development of 116 children growing up in traditional and/or non-Western communities (see also Barrett et al., 117 2013; Demuth, Moloi, & Machobane, 2010; Fortier, Kellier, Fernández Flecha, & Frank, 118 under review; Ganek, Smyth, Nixon, & Eriks-Brophy, 2018; Garcia, Roeser, & Höhle, 2018; 119 Hernik & Broesch, 2018). We briefly highlight two recent efforts along these lines, but see 120 Cristia and colleagues' (2017) and Mastin and Vogt's work (2016; 2015) for similar examples. 121 Scaff, Cristia, and colleagues (2017; in preparation) have used a number of methods to 122 estimate how much speech children hear in a Tsimane forager-horticulturalist population in 123 the Bolivian lowlands. From daylong audio recordings, they estimate that Tsimane children 124 between 0;6 and 6;0 hear maximally ~4.8 minutes of directly addressed speech per hour, 125

regardless of their age (Cristia et al., 2017; Scaff et al., in preparation). For comparison,
children from North American homes between ages 0;3 and 3;0 are estimated to hear ~11
minutes of CDS per hour in daylong recordings (Bergelson et al., 2019). Note however, that
these estimates from from a non-random sample of clips that were selected based on the
presence of adult speech.

Shneidman and colleagues (2010; 2012) analyzed speech from one-hour at-home video 131 recordings of children between ages 1:0 and 3:0 in two communities: Yucatec Mayan (Southern Mexico) and North American (a major U.S. city). Their analyses yielded four 133 main findings: compared to the American children, (a) the Yucatec children heard many 134 fewer utterances per hour, (b) a much smaller proportion of the utterances they heard were 135 child-directed, (c) the proportion of utterances that were child-directed increased 136 dramatically with age, matching U.S. children's CDS proportion by 3:0, and (d) most of the 137 added CDS came from other children (e.g., older siblings and cousins). They also 138 demonstrated that the lexical diversity of the CDS they hear at 24 months—particularly 139 from adult speakers—predicted children's vocabulary knowledge at 35 months. 140

## 141 The current study

We examine the early language experience of 10 Tseltal Mayan children under age 3;0.

Prior ethnographic work suggests that Tseltal caregivers do not frequently directly speak to their children until the children themselves begin to actively initiate verbal interactions (P. Brown, 2011, 2014). Nonetheless, Tseltal children develop language with no apparent delays. Tseltal Mayan language and culture has much in common with the Yucatec Mayan communities Shneidman (2010; 2012) reports on.<sup>2</sup> We provide more details on this community and dataset in the Methods section.

We analyzed basic measures of Tseltal children's language environments including: (a) the quantity of speech directed to them, (b) the quantity of other-directed speech they could

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup>For a review of comparative work on language socialization in Mayan cultures, see Pye (2017).

vocalizations, (d) the rate of their contingent responses to others' vocalizations, and (e) the 152 duration of their interactional dyadic sequences. We link these findings to prior work on 153 speech environment and development, and roughly estimated the number of minutes per day 154 children spent in "high turn-taking" interaction. We also outline a basic trajectory for early 155 vocal development (i.e., from non-canonical babbles to multi-word utterances). 156 Based on prior work, we predicted that Tseltal Mayan children are infrequently directly 157 addressed, that the amount of CDS and contingent responses they hear increases with age, 158 that most CDS comes from other children, and that, despite this, their early vocal 159 development is on par with Western children. We additionally predicted that children's 160

language environments would be bursty—that high-intensity interactions would be brief and

sparsely distributed throughout the day, accounting for the majority of children's daily CDS.

potentially overhear from nearby speakers, (c) the rate of contingent responses to their

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