The influence of the visual modality on language structure and language conventionalization: Insights from sign language and gesture

Pamela Perniss¹, Asli Özyürek² & Gary Morgan³

¹University of Brighton, Brighton, United Kingdom
²MPI for Psycholinguistics & Radboud University Nijmegen, Nijmegen, Netherlands
³Deafness, Cognition and Language Research Centre & City University London, London, United Kingdom

Introduction

For humans, the ability to communicate and use language is instantiated not only in the vocal modality but also in the visual modality. The main examples of this are sign languages and (co-speech) gestures. Sign languages, the natural languages of Deaf communities, use systematic and conventionalized movements of the hands, face, and body for linguistic expression (Brentari 2010; Emmorey 2002; Klima & Bellugi 1979; Stokoe 1960). Co-speech gestures, though non-linguistic, are produced in tight semantic and temporal integration with speech and constitute an integral part of language together with speech (McNeill 1992, 2005; Kendon 2004). As such, language – in its primary instantiation as a system of communication in contexts of face-to-face interaction – is a multimodal phenomenon (Vigliocco et al. 2014). Thus, to understand language, our models of language need to take these visual modes of communication into account, and provide a unified framework for how the semiotic and expressive resources of the visual modality are recruited in both spoken and sign languages.

This issue brings together researchers who work at the interface of sign and gesture and whose research illuminates two main areas of current debate and interest: (1) How and to
what extent is gesture (with or without speech) similar or different from signed language?; and (2) How can the process of conventionalization from gesture to sign be characterized, both with respect to emerging linguistic/communicative systems and in learning an established sign language? In this introduction we first situate the debates about the relationship between sign and gesture in a historical context. We then outline the state-of-art on this topic related to the two guiding questions. We also provide brief descriptions of how each of the papers in this issue contributes to these areas of research before ending with some theoretical discussion as to why these questions are interesting.

Relationship between sign language and gesture: Historical context

Since the linguistic study of sign languages began in earnest about half a century ago, a primary concern has been to show that sign languages, while exploiting forms and constructions that are visually similar to co-speech gestures, are clearly more than sequences of gestures. Sign languages are fully-fledged natural languages that exhibit linguistic structure at all levels of formal description (phonological, morphological, and syntactic), and whose organization is supported by a similar neural architecture as is found for spoken languages. Partially, as a result of the need to establish the status of sign languages as natural human languages, most of the research to date, as well as much of the gesture research, has emphasized the differences between signs and gestures with respect to linguistic and semiotic properties and conventionalization of form (Özyürek 2012). In parallel with this, research has emphasized the similarities between sign language and speech, both in terms of linguistic structure and language processing (see Emmorey 2007 for an overview).

However, more recently, attention has shifted to an interest in understanding the extent to which affordances of the visual modality may give rise to similar representations by signers and gesturers. This shift aims to understand more about the role of modality in
shaping communication, in general, and in shaping sign language and gesture use, in particular. In both signing and gesturing, the use of the hands allows visually motivated, iconic representations of objects, events, and spatial relations, which can exhibit a high degree of resemblance between form and meaning. The possible similarities between signs and gestures in these types of representations have important implications for questions about shared event conceptualization and underlying mental imagery (Liddell 2003; Schembri, Jones & Burnham 2005), and for theoretical questions about the involvement of sensory-motor systems in language processing (Barsalou, Simmons, Barbey & Wilson 2003; Hostetter & Alibali 2008, 2010), and about the role of iconicity in language emergence, development, and processing (Perniss, Thompson & Vigliocco 2010; Perniss & Vigliocco 2014).

In a second major domain of interest, the affordances of the visual modality have been studied with respect to the emergence of linguistic/communicative systems, as found in homesign systems (Goldin-Meadow 2003) and new sign languages like Nicaraguan Sign Language (NSL) (Senghas, Kita & Özyürek 2004) or Al-Sayyid Bedouin Sign Language (ABSL) (Sandler, Meir, Padden, & Aronoff 2005). Sign languages are thought to have evolved out of non-linguistic gestural communication, and in the emergence of linguistic/communicative systems, the conventionalisation of gesture into sign is a documentable process.

How does (co-speech) gesture resemble or not sign languages?

As outlined above, gestures and sign language share the same modality and thus share access to the possibilities of visual representation afforded by the use of the hands in a visible space. Recent research, including papers in this issue, attempts to answer broader questions regarding how access to these affordances of visual-spatial representation shapes expression
including reference to objects, actions, and the relations between them, either in single forms or in more complex constructions. However, it is also clear that sign language and gesture are produced within linguistic/communicative contexts that differ in important respects. While gestures are used in conjunction with the linguistic structure of speech, the visual signal in sign languages is the sole channel of expression and the signs themselves are part of a complex grammar. Does this difference result in mere quantitative differences in how the visual-spatial modality is used for communicative expression or in more profound qualitative differences (see e.g. Brentari, Coppola, Mazzoni & Goldin-Meadow 2012 on phonological development)? The comparison of sign language and co-speech gesture can provide important insights into the role of modality in shaping language structure in different communicative contexts (e.g., bimodal or unimodal) and the possible shared cognitive basis for communication using visual modality.

As originally proposed by McNeill (1992), the comparison of sign language and co-speech gesture can shed light on the interplay of gestural (imagistic) and linguistic forms in communicative expression (see McNeill 1992 on the shared contribution of gradient/imagistic and discrete/morphological content to language). In spoken language, gestural and linguistic forms constitute a tightly integrated unit (as research on both speech-gesture production and comprehension has shown, e.g. Kelly, Özyürek & Maris 2010; Kita & Özyürek 2003; McNeill 2005), but they remain clearly separable from each other by virtue of being produced in different channels. Sign languages are similarly characterized by the use of both gestural and linguistic forms, but the fact that all of sign language expression takes place in the visual modality has interesting consequences for how these elements may co-occur. On the one hand, signers may intersperse the stream of (linguistic) signs with gestures (Emmorey 1999). On the other hand, many morphologically complex signs (e.g. classifier predicates,
directional verbs) have been argued to combine both gestural and linguistic elements (Liddell 2003).

However, the extent to which these kinds of comparisons between sign and gesture can be made has also been questioned. Kendon (2008) has cautioned against too readily deriving conclusions about the “gestural” nature of (certain domains of) sign language and has emphasized the need for separate evaluation of co-speech gestures and signs in their respective contexts of use (i.e. a composite system with speech in the case of gesture and a fully visual system in the case of sign). Note that this does not argue against the notion that shared cognitive systems supporting representations in the visual modality may give rise to similarities between sign and gesture, nor does it suggest that comparisons between sign and gesture should be abandoned altogether. Rather it encourages careful consideration of the different semiotic contexts in which visual representations occur in the signed and spoken language modalities (Kendon 2014; Green & Wilkins 2014).

A number of the papers in the current issue address the question of similarities and differences between visual representations used by signers and speakers. In the contributions by Quinto-Pozos & Parrill and Perniss & Özyürek, comparisons are made between signs and co-speech gestures in two core domains of discourse: event representation and reference tracking. Quinto-Pozos and Parrill find strong similarities in the use of viewpoint-taking strategies in sign and co-speech gesture in a comparison of narratives in American Sign Language (ASL) and English. They demonstrate the existence of consistent correspondences between the strategy for viewpoint encoding and the type of event encoded in signers and co-speech gesturers. The implications of their findings are discussed in terms of indicating shared conceptualization of space and shared generation of mental and motor imagery for the purposes of communication, despite the different constraints on how the visual modality is used in a sign language vs. co-speech gesture. Perniss and Özyürek describe features for
maintaining referential cohesion in the visual modality in a comparison of narratives in German Sign Language (DGS) and German co-speech gesture. They find that both signers and co-speech gesturers use spatial modification to mark referential context by associating referents with certain locations in space. However, they show that the two systems differ markedly in the nature and type of spatial modification exhibited. The differences are discussed in terms of the different semiotic contexts of sign and co-speech gesture: Whereas gesturers can rely on speech to carry the burden of reference tracking, signers must rely fully on the visual modality and make more use of its spatial affordances for maintaining discourse cohesion.

The paper by Marshall & Morgan shows that studying the forms that hearing speakers use in the early stages of learning a new sign language can reveal what “gestural” structures can be brought to the learning situation and how this gestural repertoire can scaffold learning to use linguistic structures in a sign language. Specifically, Marshall and Morgan compare spatial descriptions by hearing, English-speaking adult learners of British Sign Language (BSL) to those by Deaf adult native signers of BSL. The study examines the role of gestural representation in learning iconic classifier morphology in sign language, providing insight into the challenges of learning the conventionalized structure of these iconic forms. The aspects of the sign language that were more easily learned were those that bore similarities to gesture use, notably location representation. The aspects that were harder to learn were those that were rarely used by gesturers, that is, the use of distinct handshapes used to represent different object types. Thus, where possible, learners of a sign language recruited those aspects of spatial expression that are shared between sign and gesture.

Another approach to understanding how the visual modality shapes language structure is to compare signs and gestures made without speech, or in silent gesturing. The term “gesture” is sometimes used in reference to either co-speech gesture or silent gesturing, but it
is important to distinguish between the two, as they denote very different contexts of use and imply the engagement of different processes. Co-speech gestures are a natural accompaniment to speech, and are made by speakers unwittingly while speaking. Silent gesturing, on the other hand, removes the expressive dominance and the influence of speech and has been shown to differ in its patterning of expression from co-speech gestures (Goldin-Meadow, McNeill & Singleton 1996). When gestures are used without speech, they take on structure that resembles that found in many sign languages, for example in the order of event constituents (Goldin-Meadow, So, Öyürek & Mylander 2008).

In the present issue, two papers (the contributions by Padden, Hwang, Lepic & Seegers and Brentari, Di Renzo, Keane & Volterra) compare silent gestures used by speakers in different cultures to signed expressions by signers in the same cultures to address this issue. Silent gesturing allows researchers to understand the visual strategies that speakers resort to in order to convey meaning when the visual modality becomes their only expressive resource. In this way, the use of silent gesturing constitutes an approximation of an important factor that contributes to the emergence of sign languages, namely use of the visual modality as the primary means of communication.

Padden, Hwang, Lepic & Seegers describe the use of two iconic strategies in ASL signs for man-made tools: a handling strategy, where the hands depict holding or grasping an object, and an instrument strategy, where the hands represent the shape or a dimension of an object. They show that hearing non-signers use the same iconic strategies when asked to name man-made tools using gestures only. Moreover, they show that signers and (silent) gesturers alternated between the handling and instrument strategies for describing objects displayed in pictures vs. in action videos, pointing to a common cognitive basis for differentiating objects from actions. However, signers’ choice of iconic strategy was more systematic compared to gesturers, suggesting that “patterned iconicity” can be exploited for
grammatical purposes, in this case, for marking the distinction between nouns and verbs.

The paper by Brentari, Di Renzo, Keane, and Volterra investigates handshapes used in agentive vs. non-agentive event descriptions across American Sign Language (ASL) and Italian Sign Language (LIS) in adults and children as well as the corresponding groups of gesturers in each country using gesture without speech. The findings parallel findings by Padden et al. (this issue) in that both signers and gesturers, and across languages, exhibit the use of handling handshapes to describe agentive events (in which an agent is acting on an object), but use an object handshape to describe non-agentive events. They discuss this similar pattern in terms of shared cognition driving the conventionalization of a handshape type distinction. The also find influences of culture: they find the handshape distinction to be more pronounced in Italian gesturers compared to American gesturers, suggesting a higher sensitivity to gestural form-meaning pairings in Italian gesturers due to the gesture-rich culture. Finally, differences between LIS signers and ASL signers in marking the distinction are explained by linguistic effects.

How can the process of conventionalization from gesture to sign be characterized?

The discovery of communities using emergent sign languages (differing in number of generations of signers and varying in community size) as well as of homesigning individuals in different parts of the world have provided new insights into the emergence of language (Goldin-Meadow 2003; Sandler et al. 2005). Specifically, these cases can provide insight into the conventionalization of linguistic structure in the visual modality from non-linguistic gestural origins, where gesture is a substrate for sign (Janzen & Shaffer 2002; Wilcox, Rossini, & Pizzuto 2010). Factors explored with respect to the process of conventionalization from gesture to sign include the age of exposure to and the amount of time spent using the visual modality as the primary modality of communication, and the influence of number and
kind of communication partners (i.e. large vs. small community of users and deaf-deaf vs. deaf-hearing interactions). In addition, the existence of multiple generations of language learners/users, where conventionalized structure is passed from one generation to the next, is an important factor in the emergence of a sign language.

In comparing sign and (co-speech) gesture from the perspective of conventionalization from gesture to sign, investigation of the degree of conventionalization can reveal new insights into the lexicalization, linguisticization, and grammaticalization processes. Papers in this section look at the emergence and conventionalization of sign language structure from “gestural origins”. Haviland, on a homesign community in highland Chiapas, Mexico, and de Vos, on a village sign language in Bali, describe how co-speech gestures – summoning and pointing gestures, respectively – used by the surrounding speaking community take on grammatical properties in the sign language. Goldin-Meadow provides a window on language creation by observing manual forms used to describe actions over three time spans of use of the visual modality: hearing speakers asked to use gesture only, homesigners, and signers of an established sign language.

Haviland investigates the emergence of a new sign language (Zinacantec Family Homesign) across two generations of a single family in a remote Mayan Indian village. Haviland demonstrates a grammaticalization path from a co-speech gesture meaning “come”, commonly used in the surrounding Tzotzil-speaking community, to a turn-taking marker in the emergent sign language. The data show how interactive and communicative constraints converge to drive the conventionalization of a holophrastic gesture to grammaticalized linguistic elements.

De Vos examines pointing signs in spontaneous conversations in Kata Kolok, a village sign language in Bali. She argues that pointing signs may become an intrinsic aspect of sign language grammars through two mechanisms: morphemization and syntactic
integration. The analysis provides an understanding of the mechanisms of conventionalization from gesture to sign that may contribute to the emergence of rural sign languages such as Kata Kolok. In addition, the analysis suggests the possibility of grammaticality in highly systematized pointing systems used in some speaking communities.

Finally, the paper by Goldin-Meadow draws a general and unifying picture of the topic of gesture to sign conventionalization. The paper contrasts manual forms for actions produced by silent gesturers who are asked to invent gestures on the spot; by homesigners who have created gesture systems over their lifespans; and by signers who have learned a conventional sign language from other signers. She finds that properties of the predicate (particularly, the use of location to establish co-reference, the representation of path and manner components, and the use of handshape distinctions) differ across these three time spans. These findings offer unique insight into the creation of language from gestural input and argue for the importance of a community of users who provide linguistic input and of the transfer of conventional systems over generations of users.

Conclusions

Taken together, by examining linguistic/communicative expression in the visual modality, the papers in this issue contribute to our understanding of how the visual modality shapes language and the emergence of linguistic structure in newly developing systems. Studying the relationship – the similarities and differences – between signs and gestures provides a new window onto the human ability to recruit multiple levels of representation (e.g. categorical, gradient, iconic, abstract) in the service of using or creating conventionalized communicative systems. This research clearly demonstrates that no matter which channel of transmission is dominant or preferred in different systems of communication, our human language capacity is multimodal in nature and conveys information at different semiotic and representational
levels.

In further specifying the interplay of these multiple levels of representations in speakers’ and signers’ recruitment of the visual modality for linguistic/communicative expression, the papers in this issue demonstrate that gesture (with or without speech) and sign exhibit similarities in the visual representation of information, possibly due to shared conceptualizations of space and shared mental and motor imagery of events. The papers in this issue also show that the differences between sign and gesture, on the other hand, are attributable to use of the visual modality as the sole modality of expression carrying the full burden of communication (as in sign) or as part of a composite system together with speech (as in gesture). The current collection of papers is notable in the range of data that is represented: from different established sign languages (including urban and rural varieties), emerging sign systems, homesign systems, different spoken languages, as well as gestures with and without speech from different communities. In addition, the papers investigate a range of core domains of communication and aspects of representation, including reference tracking, event representation, pointing, use of viewpoint, action and object representation, and turn-taking in conversational interactions.

The studies in this volume make clear that further careful research is required to understand the role that the visual modality plays in sign versus spoken languages and to further our insights into the cognitive influences on language structure and language emergence. We hope that this collection of papers will help to facilitate further fruitful exchanges between gesture and sign language researchers, taking both similar and different theoretical standpoints (see also Green, Kelly & Schembri 2014). Finally, it is important to note that the field of gesture and sign language research is still in its initial stages and that more research on different sign languages and on the co-speech gestures used by speakers of
different spoken languages is needed to understand the fundamental features of our language faculty in its multimodal form.

References


events: How speakers of different languages represent events nonverbally. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences* 105(27), 9163-9168.


and speaking. Journal of Memory and Language 48(1), 16-32.


The Cognitive Science Society, Inc.

Publication Agreement

The undersigned authors agree that the manuscript entitled _The influence of the visual modality on language structure and language conventionalization: Insights from sign language and gesture_ has been accepted for publication in the journal *Cognitive Science*, or *topiCS*, is now the property of the Cognitive Science Society, Inc. Specifically, the author(s) transfer(s) to the Society the exclusive rights comprised in the copyright of said manuscript, except that the author(s) retain(s) the following:

1) All proprietary rights, other than copyright.
2) The right to make oral presentations of the material.
3) The right to use, after publication, all or part of the material in any book authored or edited by the author(s).
4) Authors are entitled to distribute copies of the article for personal use, either on paper or electronically, through their own personal mailing or website, or through the website of an agency by which they are employed, but permission of the Cognitive Science Society is required to reproduce published papers in other sources, including electronic archives.

It is understood, in relation to Item 4, that the author(s) is/are required to obtain permission in writing from the Cognitive Science Society for all or a substantial part of the article to be reproduced for distribution by a commercial publisher or an agency in which the author(s) is/are not employed.

In the case of works prepared by employees or contractors of the U.S. Government, the U.S. Government will retain a non-exclusive, royalty-free license to use any or all of the material for any government purpose.

The author(s) warrant(s) that the manuscript is the original work of the author(s), contains no libelous or unlawful statements, and does not infringe any legal rights of any other party. In the case of an employee work for hire, both the author and a representative authorized to bind the owner of the work have signed below.

Cognitive Science and topiCS prefer all co-authors of jointly authored papers to sign the copyright transfer. In the event where only the principle co-author signs, Cognitive Science and topiCS will assume that the signing co-author does so with the authorization of the remaining co-author(s).

Intending to be legally bound, and understanding that the Society will grant specific license for republication of this manuscript without charge when agreed to by the authors and upon written request of the prospective licensee, the author(s) has/have subscribed below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Author’s Signature &amp; Date</th>
<th>Printed Name</th>
<th>Institution or Organization</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pamela Perniss</td>
<td>31 October 2014</td>
<td>University of Brighton</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aslı Özyürek</td>
<td>MPI for Psycholinguistics &amp; Radboud University Nijmegen</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gary Morgan</td>
<td></td>
<td>City University London</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Return this form to: Caroline Verdier, Cognitive Science Program, Indiana University, Eigenmann 812, 1901 E. 10th St., Bloomington IN 47406-7512, USA. It can also be faxed to Caroline Verdier at 1-812-855-1086.