

Title TBD

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Abstract

Child-directed speech (CDS) features words such as *doggy*, *night-night*, and *tummy* that are rarely used in adult-directed speech (ADS). Characteristics of CDS word forms, such as reduplication and diminutivization, explain why they may be learned and produced earlier by children. However, it is not yet clear how or when children switch to using ADS equivalents—*dog*, *goodnight*, *stomach*. Through analysis of transcripts from CHILDES and the Language Development Project corpus, we show that children significantly increase their production of ADS word forms across age, with the average CDS-to-ADS transition point at 2.5 years. Many of the linguistic features that distinguish CDS vs. ADS registers (e.g., speech rate, lexical complexity, etc.) similarly differentiate the local speech contexts surrounding CDS vs. ADS word forms. To test whether these patterns in children's input... classifier details... Learners may therefore be able to capitalize on these cues to support their discovery of context-appropriate CDS/ADS pair use.

Keywords: child-directed speech; word production; linguistic input; social register; corpus analysis; developmental change

Introduction

Across many cultures and languages, speech that is addressed to children sounds remarkably different from speech that is addressed to adults (REFs). When communicating with young children, adults (and even older children; REFS) often modify their speech in ways that draw children's attention and support their several aspects of their language learning (e.g., Nencheva, Piazza, & Lew-Williams, 2021; Rowe, 2008; Shneidman & Goldin-Meadow, 2012; Weisleder & Fernald, 2013). As a result, child-directed speech (CDS) is differentiated from adult-directed speech (ADS) at multiple linguistic levels, including prosodic, lexical, and syntactic (Soderstrom, 2007).

Linguistic features of child-directed speech

CDS is associated with higher overall pitch as well as greater variability in pitch contours (Fernald, 1989; Vosoughi & Roy, 2012). Vowels (REF) and words (REF) in CDS are often lengthened, creating utterances that are produced more slowly (REF) and that also include more pauses (REF). At the lexical level, CDS typically includes more repetition (**henning2005maternal?**), more words that children already know (Foushee, Griffiths, & Srinivasan, 2016), and many register-specific words (e.g., in English, *doggy*, *night-night*, and *tummy*, REFS). Syntactically, CDS is characterized as

less complex than ADS. CDS utterances are typically shorter (REF) and feature simpler constructions (check and REF).

[connecting sentence here]. Even very young infants appear to pick up on differences between CDS and ADS, as evidenced by their reliable preference for listening to CDS over ADS (Cooper & Aslin, 1990; ManyBabies, 2020). In addition to this overall preference for CDS, accumulating evidence points to children's ability to distinguish individual linguistic features (REFS).

Social context of child-directed speech

Linguistic cues are not the only distinguishing features between CDS and ADS. For instance... examples like acoustic, maybe affective (if there's a ref that separates this from prosodic), and, most notably, social (Golinkoff, Can, Soderstrom, & Hirsh-Pasek, 2015). BLABLABLA kids are linking linguistic and social information. Infants as young as 12 to 20 months show an emerging understanding of the relationship between registers and addressees (**soley2020infants?**; **iked2018sensitivity?**). Put simply, CDS should be directed to young children, not adults [possibly a few other examples here]

The current study

Here, we focus on the question of whether children may also be able to learn more subtle associations between words and registers. We return to examination of a specific lexical modification of CDS: the inclusion of register-specific words. [add stuff about why 2 labels initially seem counterintuitive but then characteristics of CDS forms that explain away the learnability issue]. Existing research does well to provide evidence for why CDS forms make up a large proportion of directed input and why they may be learned and produced earlier by children. However, conventions of adult speech require children to eventually transition to using ADS forms—a learning problem that has not yet received empirical attention. [connecting sentence here]

First, we analyze existing speech corpora for children up to age 7 to determine if and when we can detect a shift from CDS to ADS vocabulary [explain what we mean by this]. After establishing that a shift towards production of ADS forms (over CDS forms) occurs in early childhood, we next explore what information in children's linguistic input could support this shift. We investigate whether many of the linguistic fea-

tures that distinguish *between* CDS and ADS at the register level also differentiate CDS and ADS words at the utterance level. [classifier details here].

Method

Corpora

We analyzed 8251 transcripts in the North American English collection of the Child Language Data Exchange System (CHILDES) database (MacWhinney, 2000). The included transcripts were drawn from 52 individual corpora and featured 980 children up to 7 years of age (range = 1–84 months, $M = 33.5$ months).

Child production data from the Language Development Project (LDP) longitudinal corpus were also analyzed. These included XX transcripts from XX children recorded every 4 months for approximately one hour from age 14 to 58 months.

Target words

Fifteen CDS/ADS word pairs (30 total target words) were selected based on the appearance of at least one form on the MacArthur-Bates Communicative Development Inventory (Fenson et al., 1994) and their frequency of occurrence in CHILDES (at least 100 child-produced tokens and 100 other-produced tokens per form; see Table 1). Test items were chosen such that the same object, animal, or routine could be reasonably labeled with either form in the pair in typical communicative interactions with young children (e.g., *doggy* or *dog*).

Pair	CDS tokens by speaker		ADS tokens by speaker	
	Child	Other	Child	Other
1 <i>doggy/dog</i>	2249	2644	3519	5113
2 <i>kitty/cat</i>	1552	3309	2779	4443
3 <i>tummy/stomach</i>	435	623	112	360
4 <i>daddy/dad</i>	9603	10048	2313	1031
5 <i>mommy/mom</i>	20294	17070	7616	2552
6 <i>bunny/rabbit</i>	1237	2597	1060	1397
7 <i>duckie/duck</i>	307	647	1933	3003
8 <i>blankie/blanket</i>	174	224	825	874
9 <i>froggy/frog</i>	154	434	970	1846
10 <i>potty/bathroom</i>	511	786	161	270
11 <i>night night/goodnight</i>	149	153	102	446
12 <i>dolly/doll</i>	745	1054	674	2697
13 <i>horsey/horse</i>	1149	1034	1749	2575
14 <i>piggy/pig</i>	405	1212	1276	2139
15 <i>birdie/bird</i>	399	588	1879	3358

Table 1: CHILDES frequency for 15 CDS/ADS word pairs. Child-produced counts include tokens produced only by the target child. All other speakers’ productions are included in the other-produced counts.

Linguistic predictors

All analyses were conducted over individual utterances. We quantified prosodic, lexical, and syntactic information to describe each utterance containing one of the 30 target words.

Prosodic level We measured three types of prosodic information: mean pitch (Hz), pitch range (Hz), and speaking rate

(words per second). These measures were calculated over all timestamped utterances in CHILDES (41.4% of child-produced and 42.3% of other-produced utterances). Utterances shorter than 58 ms were excluded from analysis. This lower bound was set by identifying the the shortest possible duration of an utterance containing at least one word in four manually annotated North American English corpora in HomeBank (Bergelson, 2016; McDivitt & Soderstrom, 2016; VanDam et al., 2016; VanDam, 2016; Warlaumont & Pretzer, 2016). Pitch information was extracted using Praat software (Boersma & Weenink, 2016).

Lexical level We measured two types of lexical information: complexity and rarity. Lexical complexity was defined as the negative log proportion of known words in each utterance (consistent with Foushee, Griffiths, & Srinivasan, 2016; Kidd, Piantadosi, & Aslin, 2012). A word was considered ‘known’ if the age of acquisition (AoA) estimate (Fenson et al., 1994; Frank, Braginsky, Yurovsky, & Marchman, 2017) was less than or equal to the age of the target child when they heard or produced the utterance. Utterances with proportionally fewer known words are more lexically complex. Lexical rarity was determined based on overall frequency in CHILDES. For all words with at least XX tokens¹, we calculated a rarity score as the negative log proportion of other-produced tokens in CHILDES (i.e., number of tokens for a given word/sum of all tokens in the full corpus), and then averaged for rarity scores for all target utterances. Utterances with more low-frequency words are considered more lexically rare.

Syntactic level Syntactic measures included both the length of the utterance (in words) and the number of verb phrases. The number of words per utterance was automatically extracted using the `chilidesr` package (Braginsky, Sanchez, & Yurovsky, 2021). The number of verb phrases per utterance was determined using `spaCy3`, an automatic syntactic parser (Honnibal, Montani, Van Landeghem, & Boyd, 2020).

Results

Measuring production: At what ages do children use CDS vs. ADS forms?

We first asked when CDS forms are replaced by ADS forms in children’s own speech. We fit a mixed-effects binomial logistic regression model predicting children’s production of CDS vs. ADS forms, with target child age (in months, scaled) as a single fixed effect. Random slopes and intercepts for word pairs were also included. For each target word token, the form was coded as either 0 (CDS) or 1 (ADS). Thus, the model captures, for each age, the relative proportion of CDS vs. ADS forms in children’s own speech.

Children’s production of ADS forms increased across age

¹Manual checks revealed that many or XX% of the lowest-frequency words included idiosyncratic or erroneous transcriptions and/or repetitions of children’s babbling.

($\beta = 0.54$, $SE = 0.11$, $t = 4.92$, $p < 0.001$; Figure 1). That is, with increasing age, children increasingly produced ADS forms over CDS forms. The average CDS-to-ADS transition point across all words (i.e., the point at which ADS forms were produced $>50\%$ of the time) was between 24 and 36 months of age.

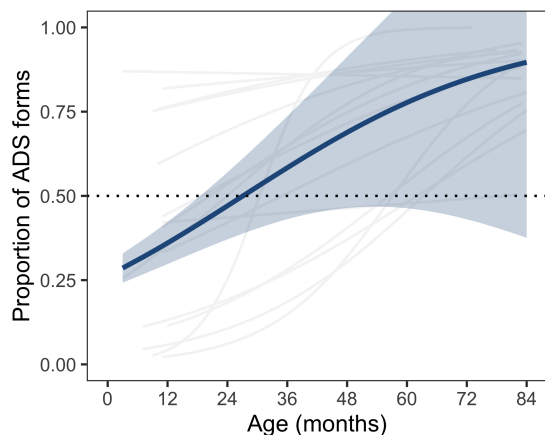


Figure 1: Model-predicted increase in production of ADS forms with age. Gray lines depict raw individual word-pair trajectories.

Analyses of individual word-pair trajectories revealed significant increases in production of ADS forms with age for 13 of 15 pairs. Exploratory analyses of item effects also yielded evidence for three distinct shift trajectory types (Figure 2). For some pairs (e.g., *birdie/bird*), ADS forms dominated in children’s speech from the earliest ages sampled. For other pairs, CDS forms were initially more prominent and were then replaced by ADS forms early on (e.g., *doggy/dog* and *night-night/goodnight* by 24 to 36 months) or later in development (e.g., *bunny/rabbit* and *tummy/stomach* after 48 months).

Characterizing the input: In what linguistic contexts do children hear CDS vs. ADS forms?

We used mixed-effects binomial logistic regression models to predict the appearance of CDS vs. ADS forms in given utterance on the basis of target child’s age, several linguistic properties of the utterance, and interactions between each property and age. Models included random slopes and intercepts for individual word pairs and speakers and were fitted to all utterance data from speakers other than the target child.

Main effects and interactions with age are shown in Figure 2.

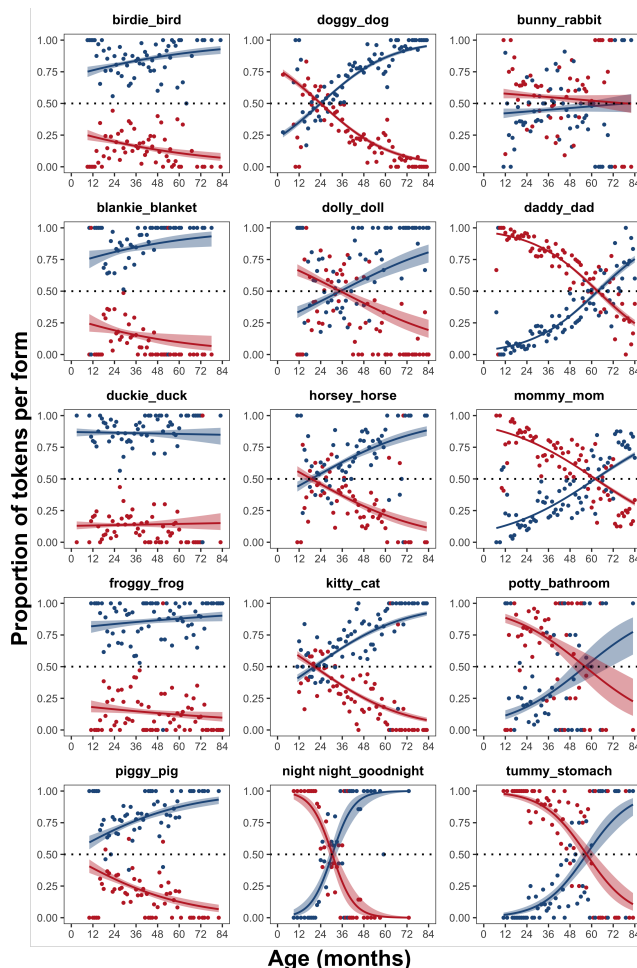


Figure 2: Individual word-pair trajectories for increasing production of ADS forms (blue) and decreasing production of CDS forms (red) with age. Columns indicate categorically different shift trajectory types: (1) items for which ADS forms appear to dominate in children’s speech from the start, (2) items whose CDS forms are replaced by ADS forms early on, and (3) items whose ADS forms become dominant later in development.

Modeling learning: What linguistic information is most useful for distinguishing CDS vs. ADS contexts?

Discussion

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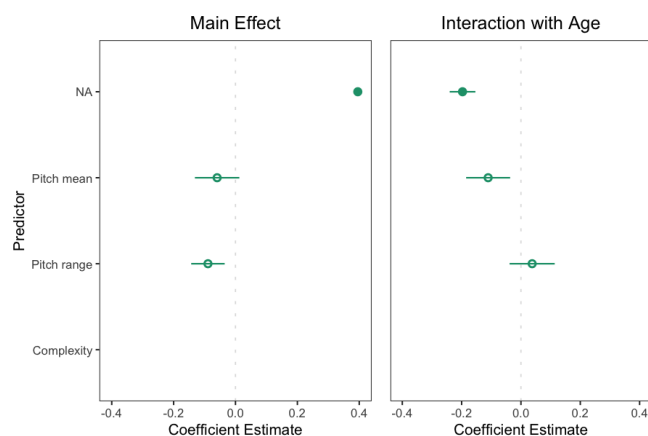


Figure 3: Coefficient estimates for linguistic predictors of form. Positive main effects indicate that utterances are more likely to contain ADS forms when they have higher values for the predictor (e.g., faster speech rates). Positive age interactions indicate an increasing effect of the predictor with age. Error bars depict standard errors of the coefficient estimates, and filled circles represent significant effects ($p < 0.05$).

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