Limited evidence of test-retest reliability in infant-directed speech preference in a large 1 preregistered infant experiment 2 Melanie S. Schreiner^{1,2}, Martin Zettersten^{3,4}, Christina Bergmann⁵, Michael C. Frank⁶, Tom Fritzsche⁷, Nayeli Gonzalez-Gomez⁸, Kiley Hamlin⁹, Natalia Kartushina¹⁰, Danielle J. Kellier¹¹, Nivedita Mani^{1,2}, Julien Mayor¹⁰, Jenny Saffran³, Mohinish Shukla¹², Priya Silverstein^{13, 14}, Melanie Soderstrom¹⁵, & Matthias Lippold^{1,2} ¹ University of Goettingen ² Leibniz Science Campus PrimateCognition ³ University of Wisconsin-Madison ⁴ Princeton University 10 ⁵ Max Planck Insitute for Psycholinguistics 11 ⁶ Stanford University 12 ⁷ University of Potsdam 13 ⁸ Oxford Brookes University ⁹ University of British Columbia ¹⁰ University of Oslo ¹¹ University of Pennsylvania 17 ¹² Università di Padova 18 ¹³ Institute for Globally Distributed Open Research 19

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41 Abstract

Test-retest reliability — establishing that measurements remain consistent across multiple testing sessions — is critical to measuring, understanding, and predicting individual differences in infant language development. However, previous attempts to establish 44 measurement reliability in infant speech perception tasks are limited, and reliability of frequently-used infant measures is largely unknown. The current study investigated the test-retest reliability of infants' preference for infant-directed speech (hereafter, IDS) over adult-directed speech (hereafter, ADS) in a large sample (N=158) in the context of the ManyBabies1 collaborative research project (hereafter, MB1; Frank et al., 2017; ManyBabies Consortium, 2020). Labs of the original MB1 study were asked to bring in participating infants for a second appointment retesting infants on their IDS preference. This approach allows us to estimate test-retest reliability across three different methods used to investigate preferential listening in infancy: the head-turn preference procedure, 53 central fixation, and eye-tracking. Overall, we find no consistent evidence of test-retest 54 reliability in measures of infants' speech preference (overall r = .09, 95% CI [-.06,.25]). 55 While increasing the number of trials that infants needed to contribute for inclusion in the analysis revealed a numeric growth in test-retest reliability, it also considerably reduced the 57 study's effective sample size. Therefore, future research on infant development should take into account that not all experimental measures may be appropriate for assessing 59

61 Keywords: language acquisition; speech perception; infant-directed speech; 62 adult-directed speech; test-retest reliability

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individual differences between infants.

Limited evidence of test-retest reliability in infant-directed speech preference in a large

preregistered infant experiment

Obtaining a quantitative measure of infants' cognitive abilities is an extraordinarily difficult endeavor. The most frequent way to assess what infants know or prefer is to track overt behavior. However, measuring overt behavior at early ages presents many challenges: participants' attention span is short, they do not follow instructions, their mood can change instantly, and their behavior is often inconsistent. Therefore, most measurements are noisy and the typical sample size of an infant study is small (around 20 infants per group), resulting in low power (Oakes, 2017). In addition, there is individual and environmental variation that may add even more noise to the data (e.g., Johnson & Zamuner, 2010). Despite these demanding conditions, reliable and robust methods for assessing infants' behavior are critical to understanding development.

In order to address these challenges, the ManyBabies collaborative research 76 consortium was formed to conduct large-scale, conceptual, consensus-based replications of 77 seminal findings to identify sources of variability and establish best practices for 78 experimental studies in infancy (Frank et al., 2017). The first ManyBabies collaborative research project (hereafter, MB1, ManyBabies Consortium, 2020) explored the reproducibility of the well-studied phenomenon that infants prefer infant-directed speech 81 (hereafter, IDS) over adult-directed speech (hereafter, ADS, Cooper & Aslin, 1990). Across 82 many different cultures, infants are commonly addressed in IDS, which typically is characterized by higher pitch, greater pitch range, and shorter utterances, compared to the language used between interacting adults (Fernald et al., 1989). A large body of behavioral studies finds that infants show increased looking times when hearing IDS compared to ADS stimuli across ages and methods (Cooper & Aslin, 1990; see Dunst, Gorman, & Hamby, 2012 for a meta-analysis). This attentional enhancement is also documented in neurophysiological studies showing increased neural activation during IDS compared to

ADS exposure (Naoi et al., 2012; Zangl & Mills, 2007). IDS has also been identified as facilitating early word learning. In particular, infants' word segmentation abilities (Floccia et al., 2016; Schreiner & Mani, 2017; Singh, Nestor, Parikh, & Yull, 2009; Thiessen, Hill, & Saffran, 2005) and their learning of word-object associations (Graf Estes & Hurley, 2013; Ma, Golinkoff, Houston, & Hirsh-Pasek, 2011) are enhanced in the context of IDS. In sum, several lines of evidence suggest that IDS is beneficial for early language development.

Within MB1, 67 labs contributed data from 2,329 infants showing that babies 96 generally prefer to listen to IDS over ADS. Nevertheless, the overall effect size of d=0.3597 was smaller than a previously reported meta-analytic effect size of d = 0.67 (Dunst et al., 98 2012). The results revealed several additional factors that influenced the effect size. First, 99 older infants showed a larger preference of IDS over ADS. Second, the stimulus language 100 was linked to IDS preference, with North American English learning infants showing a 101 larger IDS preference than infants learning other languages. Third, comparing the different 102 methods employed, the head-turn preference procedure yielded the highest effect size, while 103 the central fixation paradigm and eye-tracking methods revealed smaller effects. Finally, 104 exploratory analyses assessed the effect of different inclusion criteria. Across methods, 105 using stricter inclusion criteria led to an increase in effect sizes despite the larger proportion of excluded participants (see also Byers-Heinlein, Bergmann, & Savalei, 2021). 107

However, there is a difference between a result being reliable in a large sample of 108 infants and the measurement of an individual infant being reliable. In studies tracking 109 individual differences, the measured behavior during an experimental setting is often used 110 to predict a cognitive function or specific skill later in life. Individual differences research of this kind often has substantial implications for theoretical and applied work. For example, 112 research showing that infants' behavior in speech perception tasks can be linked to later 113 language development (see Cristia, Seidl, Junge, Soderstrom, & Hagoort, 2014 for a 114 meta-analysis) has the potential to identify infants at risk for later language delays or 115 disorders. However, a necessary precondition for this link to be observable is that 116

individual differences between infants can be measured with high reliability at these earlier stages, in order to ensure that measured inter-individual variation mainly reflects differences in children's abilities rather than measurement error. How reliable are the measures used in infancy research?

Previous attempts to address the reliability of measurements have typically been 121 limited to adult populations (Hedge, Powell, & Sumner, 2018), or have been conducted 122 with small sample sizes (e.g., Houston, Horn, Qi, Ting, & Gao, 2007). For example, 123 Colombo, Mitchell, and Horowitz (1988) used a paired-comparison task, in which infants 124 were familiarized with a stimulus and presented with the familiarized and a novel stimulus 125 side-by-side at test. Results indicated that infants' novelty preference was extremely 126 variable from task to task. Assessing infants' performance from one week to another 127 revealed that infants' attention measures were moderately reliable. However, reliability 128 seemed to increase with the number of tasks infants completed in the younger age group, 129 suggesting that reliability is influenced by the number of assessments. In addition, infants' 130 performance from 4 to 7 months was longitudinally stable but somewhat smaller than 131 week-to-week reliability. Cristia, Seidl, Singh, and Houston (2016) also retested infant 132 populations by independently conducting 12 different experiments on infant speech perception at three different labs with different implementations of the individual studies. Hence, it was only after completed data collection that the data was pooled together by the different labs revealing potential confounds. Nevertheless, the results showed that 136 reliability was extremely variable across the different experiments and labs and low overall 137 (meta-analytic r = .07). 138

Against this background, the current study investigates test-retest reliability of infants' performance in a speech preference task. Within MB1, a multi-lab collaboration, we examine whether infants' preferential listening behavior to IDS and ADS is reliable across two different test sessions. We also investigate the influence of various moderators on the reliability of IDS preference (e.g., time between test and retest; infants' language

background).

Our study was faced with a critical design choice: what stimuli to use to assess 145 test-retest reliability. One constraint on our study was that, since it was a follow-on to 146 MB1, any stimulus we used would always be presented after the MB1 stimuli. One option 147 would be simply to bring back infants and have them hear exactly the same stimulus 148 materials. A weakness of this design would be the potential for stimulus familiarity effects, 149 however, since infants would have heard the materials before. Further complicating 150 matters, infants might show a preference for or against a familiar stimulus depending on 151 their age (Hunter & Ames, 1988). The ideal solution then would be to create a brand new 152 stimulus set with the same characteristics. Unfortunately, because of the process of how 153 MB1 stimuli were created, we did not have enough normed raw recordings available to 154 make brand new stimulus items that conformed to the same standards as the MB1 stimuli. 155 We therefore chose an intermediate path: we reversed the ordering of MB1 stimuli. 156 Average looking times in MB1 were always lower than 9s per trial, even for the youngest 157 children on the earliest trials (the group who looked the longest on average), so most 158 children in MB1 did not hear the second half of most trials. Thus, by reversing the order, 159 we had a perfectly matched stimulus set that was relatively unfamiliar to most infants. The disadvantage of this design was that infants who looked longer might be more likely to hear a familiar clip heard in the previous study. If infants then showed a familiarity 162 preference — an assumption which might not be true — the end result could be to inflate 163 our estimates of test-retest reliability slightly, since longer lookers would on average look 164 longer at retest due to their familiarity preference. We view this risk as relatively low, but 165 do note that it is a limitation of our design. 166

The current study also explores whether there are any differences in test-retest reliability between three widely used methods: central fixation (CF), eye-tracking (ET), and the head-turn preference procedure (HPP). Exploring differences in CF, ET, and HPP, Junge et al. (2020) provide experimental and meta-analytic evidence in favor of using the

HPP in speech segmentation tasks. Similarly, the MB1 project reported an increase in the effect size for HPP compared to CF and ET (ManyBabies Consortium, 2020). HPP 172 requires gross motor movements relative to other methods, such as CF and ET paradigms, 173 for which subtle eye movements towards a monitor located in front of the child are 174 sufficient. One possible explanation for the stronger effects with HPP may be a higher 175 sensitivity to the contingency of the presentation of auditory stimuli and infants' head 176 turns away from the typical forward-facing position. While these findings suggest that 177 HPP may be a more sensitive index of infant preference, they do not necessarily imply 178 higher reliability for individual infants' performance using HPP. For example, Marimon 179 and Höhle (2022) found no evidence for test-retest reliability when testing infants' prosodic 180 preferences using the HPP method. It remains an open question whether the same 181 measures that produce larger effect sizes at the group-level also have higher test-retest reliability for individual infants (Byers-Heinlein, Bergmann, et al., 2021). Therefore, 183 assessing the test-retest reliability of the different preference measures is crucial, so that 184 researchers can make informed decisions about the appropriate methods for their particular 185 research question. Critically, only measures with high test-retest reliability should be used 186 for studies of individual differences.

188 Method

¹⁸⁹ Preregistration

We preregistered the current study on the Open Science Framework

(https://osf.io/v5f8t). Section S1 in the Supplementary Materials contains additional notes

on the preregistration decisions and any deviations from the preregistered analytic plan.

93 Data Collection

A call was issued to all labs participating in the original MB1 study on January 24th,
2018 (ManyBabies Consortium, 2020). The collection of retest session data was initially set
to end on May 31st, 2018, one month after the end date of the original MB1 project. Due
to the fact that the original MB1 project extended the time frame for data collection and
the late start of data collection for the MB1 test-retest study, we also allowed participating
labs to continue data collection past the scheduled end date.

200 Participants

Contributing labs were asked to re-recruit their monolingual participants between the 201 ages of 6 to 12 months who had already participated in the MB1 project. If participating 202 labs had not committed to testing either of these age groups, they were also allowed to 203 re-recruit participants from the youngest age group of 3- to 6-month-olds and/or the oldest 204 age group of 12- to 15-month-olds. Labs were asked to contribute half (n=16) or full 205 samples (n=32); however, a lab's data was included in the study regardless of the number 206 of included infants. The study was approved by each lab's respective ethics committee and 207 parental consent was obtained for each infant prior to participation in the study. 208

Our final sample consisted of 158 monolingual infants from 7 different labs (Table 1).

In order to be included in the study, infants needed a minimum of 90% first language

exposure, to be born full term with no known developmental disorders, and normal hearing
and vision. We excluded 18 additional participants (see Data Exclusion section for details).

The mean age of infants included in the study was 245 days (range: 108 – 373 days;

approximately 8.06 months).

Materials

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The visual stimuli and instructions were identical to MB1. For the 216 CF paradigm and ET, labs used a multicolored static checkerboard as the fixation stimulus 217 as well as a multicolored moving circle with a ringing sound as an attention-getter between 218 trials. For the HPP method, labs used their standard procedure, as in MB1. 219

We used the identical training stimuli of piano music from MB1. Speech stimuli. 220 A second set of naturalistic IDS and ADS recordings of mothers either talking to their 221 infant or to an experimenter was created for the retest session by reversing the order of 222 clips within each sequence of the original study. This resulted in eight new sequences of 223 natural IDS and eight new sequences of natural ADS with a length of 18 seconds each. 224

Infants were retested using the identical procedure as during the first Procedure. 225 testing day: CF, HPP, or ET. Participating labs were asked to schedule test and retest sessions 7 days apart with a minimum number of 1 day and a maximum number of 31 days. However, infants whose time between test and retest exceeded 31 days were still included in the analyses (n = 3). The mean number of days between test and retest was 10 (range: 1 - 49).

A total of 18 trials, including two training, eight IDS, and eight ADS trials, were 231 presented in one of four pseudo-randomized orders. Trial length was either infant-controlled 232 or fixed depending on the lab's standard procedure: a trial stopped either if the infant 233 looked away for 2 seconds or after the total trial duration of 18 seconds. The online coding 234 experimenter and the parent listened to music masked with the stimuli of the study via 235 noise-cancelling headphones. If the experimenter was in an adjacent room separate from 236 the testing location, listening to masking music was optional for the experimenter. 237

Data exclusion. In total, 18 participants were excluded from the analysis. 4 238 participants were excluded for being preterm (defined as a gestation time of less than 37 239 weeks). 6 participants were excluded due to session errors involving an experimenter error 240

Table 1
Statistics of the included labs. n refers to the number of infants included in the final analysis.

Lab	Method	Language	Mean age (days)	N
InfantCog-UBC	central fixation	English	147	7
babylab-potsdam	HPP	German	227	22
babyling-oslo	eye-tracking	Norwegian	249	10
brookes-babylab	central fixation	English	267	18
infantll-madison	HPP	English	230	30
lancslab	eye-tracking	English	236	16
wsi-goettingen	HPP	German	242	16
wsi-goettingen	central fixation	German	280	39

(e.g., inaccurate coding or presentation of retest stimuli on the first test session).

Individual trials were excluded if they were marked as trial errors (5.45% of remaining trials), i.e., if the infant was reported as fussy, an experimental or equipment error occurred, or there was parental interference during the task (e.g., if the parent spoke with the infant during the trial). Trials were also excluded if the minimum looking time of 2 s was not met (12.60% of the remaining trials). If a participant was unable to contribute at least one IDS and one ADS trial for either test or retest after trial-level exclusions, all data of that participant was excluded from the test-retest analyses (12 additional participants).

 Trial type
 Session 1 Mean
 Session 1 SD
 Session 2 Mean
 Session 2 SD

 ADS
 7.71
 2.77
 6.96
 2.92

 IDS
 8.76
 2.84
 7.75
 2.75

Table 2

Average looking times (in seconds) for each session and condition

Results

250 IDS preference

First, we conducted confirmatory analyses examining infants' preference for IDS in 251 both sessions. Two-samples t-tests comparing the difference in average looking time 252 between IDS and ADS to zero revealed that infants showed a preference of IDS over ADS 253 in Session 1, t(157) = 6.47, p < .001, and Session 2, t(157) = 4.19, p < .001, replicating the 254 main finding from MB1 (Table 2). 68.35% of infants in Session 1 and 63.29% of infants in 255 Session 2 showed a preference for IDS. In order to test whether there was a difference in 256 the strength of the preference effect across sessions, we fit a linear mixed-effects model predicting infants' average difference in looking time between IDS and ADS from test 258 session (1 vs. 2), including by-lab and by-participant random intercepts. There was no significant difference in the magnitude of infants' preference between the two sessions, 260 β =-0.30, SE=0.24, p=.208. 261

262 Reliability

We assessed test-retest reliability in two planned, confirmatory analyses. First, we fit
a linear mixed-effects model predicting IDS preference in Session 2 from IDS preference in
Session 1, including a by-lab random intercept. The results revealed no significant
relationship between IDS preference in Session 1 and 2 (Table 3). Second, we calculated

Table 3

Coefficient estimates from a linear mixed effects model predicting IDS preference in Session 2.

	Estimate	SE	t	р
Intercept	0.87	0.46	1.92	0.10
IDS Preference Session 1	0.04	0.09	0.41	0.68

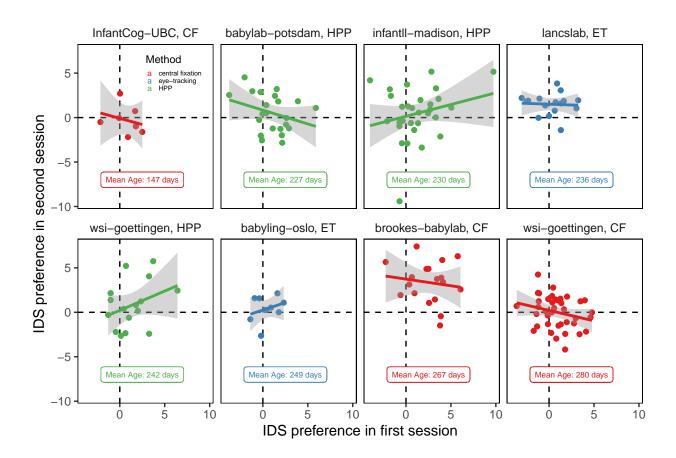


Figure 1. Correlation between IDS Preference in Session 1 and Session 2 in each lab and method. Dots indicate individual participants. Error bands represent 95 percent confidence intervals. The dashed line indicates no preference (i.e., a value of zero) for the first and second session, respectively.

Table 4

Coefficient estimates from a linear mixed effects

model predicting IDS preference in Session 2 and

Pearson correlation coefficient for each method

separately.

Method	beta	SE	p	Pearson r
central fixation	-0.20	0.12	0.12	0.08
HPP	0.15	0.14	0.28	0.13
eye-tracking	0.03	0.16	0.84	0.02

the Pearson correlation coefficient. While a simple correlation coefficient might overestimate the test-retest reliability in our sample because it does not control for the 268 differences between different labs and methods (HPP, CF, and ET), we felt it was 269 important to also conduct a Pearson correlation as it is commonly used to assess reliability. 270 The size of the correlation coefficient was not statistically different from zero and the 271 estimate was small, r = .09, 95% CI [-.06, .25], t(156) = 1.19, p = .237. Moreover, no 272 significant correlations emerged in each sample considered separately (Figure 1; see 273 Supplementary Materials S3 for a meta-analytic approach). 41.77% of the infants reversed 274 their direction of preference for IDS versus ADS from the test to the retest session.

To investigate the test-retest reliability of each specific method, we computed Pearson correlation coefficients and the same mixed-effects model described above for HPP, CF, and ET separately (Table 4) in additional exploratory analyses. None of the three methods showed evidence of test-retest reliability. Neither the Pearson correlation coefficients nor the coefficients of the multilevel analysis were significant, all *p*-values > 0.12. In planned secondary analyses, we found that time between test sessions, participant age, and language background did not moderate the relationship between IDS preference in session

²⁸³ 1 and session 2 (see Supplementary Materials S2). Taken together, we find no significant evidence of test-retest reliability across our preregistered analyses.

Results with different inclusion criteria

To this point, all analyses were performed using the inclusion criteria from MB1, 286 which required only that infants contribute at least one trial per condition for inclusion 287 (i.e., one IDS and one ADS trial). However, more stringent inclusion criteria yielded larger 288 effect sizes in MB1. We therefore conducted exploratory analyses assessing test-retest 289 reliability after applying progressively stricter inclusion criteria, requiring two, four, six, 290 and eight valid trials per condition. Applying stricter criteria — and thereby increasing the 291 number of test trials — increased reliability numerically from r = 0.07 to r = 0.34 (Figure 292 2). In part due to a decrease in sample size, only one of these correlations was statistically 293 significant (when requiring six trial pairs): two valid trial pairs, t(152) = 0.90, p = .367; 294 four valid trial pairs, t(143) = 1.03, p = .306; six valid trial pairs, t(98) = 2.23, p = .028; 295 eight valid trial pairs — all trials in both sessions — t(22) = 1.68, p = .108. The analyses provide tentative evidence that stricter inclusion criteria may lead to higher test-retest reliability, but at the cost of substantial decreases in sample size (see Supplementary Materials S5 for additional analyses).

Correlations between sessions for number of trials contributed and overall looking time

In exploratory analyses, we also investigated whether there were stable individual
differences in (a) the number of trials an infant contributed across the two test sessions and
low (b) infants' overall looking times.

Number of trials contributed. We found a strong positive correlation between number of trials contributed during the first and the second session r = .58, 95% CI



Figure 2. IDS preferences of both sessions plotted against each other for each inclusion criterion. n indicates the number of included infants, r is the Pearson correlation coefficient as the indicator for reliability.

[.47, .67], t(160) = 9.00, p < .001 (Figure 3A). In other words, if infants contributed a higher number of trials in one session, compared to other infants, they were likely to contribute a higher number of trials in their next session. This finding is consistent with the hypothesis that how attentive infants are throughout an experiment (and hence how many trials they contribute) is a stable individual difference, at least for some infant looking time tasks.

Overall looking times. To what extent are participants looking times between the 312 two sessions related? To test this question, we investigated whether participants' overall 313 looking times — irrespective of condition — were correlated between the first and second 314 session. There was a robust correlation between average looking time in Session 1 and 315 Session 2: infants with longer looking times during their first session also tended to look longer during their second session, r = .45, 95% CI [.31, .57], t(156) = 6.28, p < .001317 (Figure 3B). This relationship held even after controlling for number of trials (b = 0.42, 318 95% CI [0.27, 0.58], t(154) = 5.52, p < .001) and participants' average age (b = 0.44, 95% 319 CI [0.30, 0.59], t(155) = 6.16, p < .001) across the two test sessions in linear regression 320 models. Finally, we found similar correlations in average looking time to IDS stimuli in 321 Session 1 and 2, r = .38, 95% CI [.24, .51], t(156) = 5.19, p < .001, and ADS stimuli in 322 Session 1 and 2, r = .40, 95% CI [.26, .53], t(156) = 5.49, p < .001 (Figure 3C; see 323 Supplementary Materials S9 and S10 for further details, including an investigation of 324 item-level correlations). 325

General Discussion

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The current study investigated the test-retest reliability of infants' preference for IDS over ADS. As part of the original MB1 project, we tested the IDS preference of infants in two separate test sessions to assess the extent to which their pattern of preference would remain consistent. While we replicated the original effect of infants' speech preference for IDS over ADS for both the test and retest session on the group-level, we found that infants' speech preference measures showed no evidence of test-retest reliability. In other

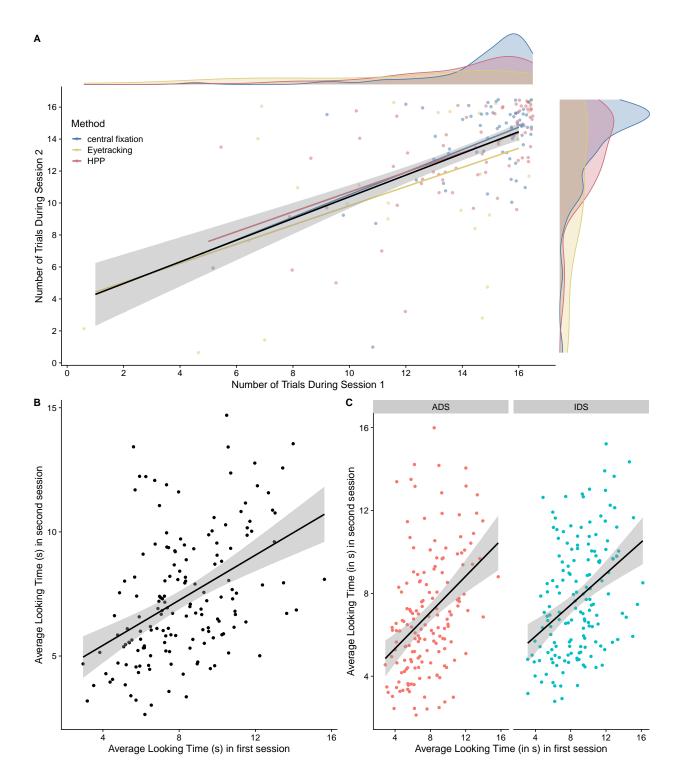


Figure 3. (A) Correlation between the number of trials contributed in Session 1 and Session 2. Each data point represents one infant. Colored lines represent linear fits for each method. (B) Overall correlations in average looking time (in s) between Session 1 and 2. (C) Correlations in average looking time (in s) between sessions, split by IDS/ADS condition.

words, we were unable to detect stable individual differences in infants' preference for IDS.

This finding is consistent with past research suggesting low test-retest reliability in other

infant paradigms (Cristia et al., 2016). Given that most experimental procedures

conducted in infant research are interested in the comparison of groups, individual

differences between participants within a specific condition are usually minimized by the

experimental procedure while differences between conditions are maximized. Therefore,

infant preference measures may be a good approach for capturing group-level phenomena,

but may be less appropriate for examining individual differences in development.

Consistent with general psychometric theory (e.g., DeBolt, Rhemtulla, & Oakes, 341 2020), stricter inclusion criteria — and consequently a larger number of included test trials 342 per participant — tended to increase the magnitude of the correlation between test 343 sessions. However, this association was based on exploratory analyses and was in part only 344 observed descriptively, and hence should be interpreted with caution. A similar effect on 345 the group-level was found in the MB1 project, where a stricter inclusion criterion led to 346 bigger effect sizes (ManyBabies Consortium, 2020). As in MB1, higher reliability through 347 strict exclusions came at a high cost. In particular, with the strictest criterion, only a small 348 portion of the original sample size (24 out of 158 infants) could be included in the final 340 sample. In other words, applying stricter criteria leads to a higher drop-out rate and can 350 dramatically reduce the sample size. In the case of studies in the field of developmental 351 science, where there are many practical restrictions in collecting large samples of infants 352 (e.g., birth rate in the area, restricted lab capacities, budget restrictions), a strict drop-out 353 criterion may often be difficult to implement. Note that studies in developmental science already have above-average drop-out rates (Miller, 2017). In addition, drop out may not be random, and so having high drop-out rates can further limit the generalizability of a study. In fact, the number of trials individual infants contributed was highly correlated between 357 test sessions in the current study (see Supplementary Materials S6). Particularly in the 358 context of turning individual differences measures into diagnostic tools, high drop-out rates 359

have an additional limitation of not being broadly usable.

Even under best-case scenarios, reliability remained quite low. For example, when 361 restricting the sample to infants contributing at least 6 trials in each condition in both 362 sessions, we obtained a correlation of r=0.22 and an intra-class correlation coefficient of α 363 = 0.36. As Byers-Heinlein, Bergmann, et al. (2021) outline, low measurement reliability 364 severely restricts power for detecting relationships between measures. Using the same 365 approach as Byers-Heinlein, Bergmann, et al. (2021), we estimate that over 682 infants 366 would be needed to have at least 80% power to observe a true correlation of r = .3 between 367 two measurements, assuming an intra-class correlation coefficient as large as that observed 368 in our restricted sample ($\alpha = 0.36$). Even a very large true correlation of r = .7 would 360 require a sample size of over 120 infants. In other words, even under optimistic estimates of 370 reliability based on strict inclusion criteria, the low reliability of IDS preference measures 371 would severely limit the feasibility of individual difference and longitudinal research using 372 current methods. 373

An alternative approach to increasing the number of valid trials is to increase the 374 number of experimental trials. This approach seeks to increase the likelihood that 375 participants will contribute sufficient trials (after trial-level exclusions) to allow for precise 376 individual-level estimates (DeBolt et al., 2020; see also Silverstein, Feng, Westermann, Parise, & Twomey, 2021). While this approach is promising, it may not always be feasible, 378 because the attention span of a typical infant participant is limited. Therefore, prolonging the experimental procedure to maximize the absolute number of trials is often challenging 380 in practice. Other avenues for obtaining higher numbers of valid trials may include changes 381 in the procedure (e.g., Egger, Rowland, & Bergmann, 2020) or implementing multi-day test 382 sessions (Fernald & Marchman, 2012). 383

As our results are only based on the phenomenon of IDS preference (albeit, with three widely used methods: HPP, CF, ET) it is essential to further assess the underlying

reliability of preferential looking measures within other areas of speech perception 386 (Marimon & Höhle, 2022). While most infants prefer IDS over ADS (Dunst et al., 2012), 387 patterns of preferential looking in other tasks (e.g., speech segmentation) are often 388 inconsistent and difficult to predict (Bergmann & Cristia, 2016). These inconsistencies in 389 looking behavior are especially important to consider in the context of relating a direction 390 of preference to later language development, and can sometimes lead to seemingly 391 contradictory findings. That is, both familiarity and novelty responses have been suggested 392 to be predictive of infants' later linguistic abilities (DePaolis, Vihman, & Keren-Portnoy, 393 2014; Newman, Ratner, Jusczyk, Jusczyk, & Dow, 2006; Newman, Rowe, & Ratner, 2016). 394 In light of our findings, researchers conducting longitudinal studies with experimental data 395 from young infants predicting future outcomes should be cautious, as there may be large 396 intra-individual variability affecting preference measurement.

$_{398}$ Limitations

While we had an above-average sample size for a study in infant research, we were 399 unable to approach the number of participants collected within the original MB1 study. In 400 addition to a delayed call, the extra effort of having to schedule a second lab visit for each 401 participant and the fact that there were already other collaborative studies taking place 402 simultaneously (MB1B, Byers-Heinlein, Tsui, Bergmann, et al., 2021; MB1G, 403 Byers-Heinlein, Tsui, Van Renswoude, et al., 2021), might have contributed to a low 404 participation rate. A higher sample size and a larger number of participating labs from 405 different countries would have enabled us to conduct a more highly-powered test of 406 differences in test-retest reliability across different methods, language backgrounds, and 407 participant age. 408

A further limitation concerns the stimuli. While the order of the audio recording clips
presented to infants within a given trial differed between the first and second session, the
exact same stimulus material as in MB1 was used in both sessions. In particular, all

children heard the exact same voices in Session 1 and in Session 2. From a practical point 412 of view, this was the most straightforward solution for coordinating the experiment within 413 the larger MB1 project. However, familiarity effects might have influenced infants' looking 414 behavior. Infants with longer looking times in their first session might have had more 415 opportunity to recognize familiar audio clips in their second session. For infants with short 416 looking times, familiar audio clips would only occur towards the end of second-session 417 trials, thus offering infants less opportunity to recognize voices from their first session. 418 Therefore, inconsistent familiarity with the stimulus material in the second session across 419 infants might have artificially lowered test-retest reliability. Moreoever, infants' experience 420 with a testing paradigm has been found to systematically affect looking time to familiar 421 stimuli (Santolin, Garcia-Castro, Zettersten, Sebastian-Galles, & Saffran, 2021), further 422 complicating the interpretation of infant familiarity preferences in retest sessions. On the other hand, one factor that mitigates this concern is that infants' looking times generally declined in session 2 compared to session 1 (consistent with past work, e.g. Marimon & Höhle, 2022), limiting opportunities for infants to encounter previously experienced 426 stimulus material. 427

428 Conclusion

Following the MB1 protocol, the current study could not detect test-retest reliability
in measures of infants' preference for IDS over ADS. Subsequent analyses provided
tentative evidence that stricter criteria for the inclusion of participants may enhance
test-retest reliability at the cost of high drop-out rates. Developmental studies relying on
stable individual differences between their participants need to consider the underlying
reliability of their measures, and we recommend a broader assessment of test-retest
reliability in infant research.

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