Limited evidence of test-retest reliability in infant-directed speech preference in a large pre-registered infant sample 2 Melanie S. Schreiner<sup>1,2</sup>, Christina Bergmann<sup>3</sup>, Michael C. Frank<sup>4</sup>, Tom Fritzsche<sup>5</sup>, Nayeli Gonzalez-Gomez<sup>6</sup>, Kiley Hamlin<sup>7</sup>, Natalia Kartushina<sup>8</sup>, Danielle J. Kellier<sup>4</sup>, Nivedita Mani<sup>1</sup>, Julien Mayor<sup>8</sup>, Jenny Saffran<sup>9</sup>, Melanie Soderstrom<sup>10</sup>, Mohinish Shukla<sup>11</sup>, Priya Silverstein<sup>12,13</sup>, Martin Zettersten<sup>9,14</sup>, & Matthias Lippold<sup>1</sup> <sup>1</sup> University of Goettingen <sup>2</sup> Leibniz Science Campus PrimateCognition <sup>3</sup> Max Planck Insitute for Psycholinguistics <sup>4</sup> Stanford University 10 <sup>5</sup> University of Potsdam 11 <sup>6</sup> Oxford Brookes University 12 <sup>7</sup> University of British Columbia 13 <sup>8</sup> University of Oslo 14 <sup>9</sup> University of Wisconsin-Madison <sup>10</sup> University of Manitoba <sup>11</sup> Università di Padova 17 <sup>12</sup> Lancaster University 18 <sup>13</sup> Center for Open Science

<sup>14</sup> Princeton University

19

Author Note

21

Acknowledgements. This work was supported in part by Leibniz ScienceCampus
Primate Cognition seed funds awarded to MS and ML, and grants from XXXX awarded to
XXXX and from the NSF awarded to MZ (NSF DGE-1747503).

- Open Practices Statement. All code for reproducing the paper is available at https://github.com/msschreiner/MB1T. Data and materials are available on OSF (https://osf.io/zeqka/).
- CRediT author statement. Outside of the position of the first and the last
  author, authorship position was determined by sorting authors' last names alphabetical
  order. An overview of authorship contributions following the CRediT taxonomy can be
  viewed here: https://docs.google.com/spreadsheets/d/
  1jDvb0xL1U6YbXrpPZ1UyfyQ7yYK9aXo002UaArqy35U/edit?usp=sharing.
- Correspondence concerning this article should be addressed to Melanie S. Schreiner,
  Gosslerstr. 14, 37073 Göttingen. E-mail: melanie.schreiner@psych.uni-goettingen.de

35 Abstract

Test-retest reliability – establishing that measurements remain consistent across multiple testing sessions – is critical to measuring, understanding, and predicting individual 37 differences in infant language development. However, previous attempts to establish 38 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 infant speech preference in a large sample (N=158) in the context of the ManyBabies1 collaborative research project (hereafter, MB1; Frank et al., 2017; ManyBabies Consortium, 2020) of infant-directed speech preference (hereafter, IDS) over adult-directed speech (hereafter, ADS; Cooper & Aslin, 1990). 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, central fixation, and eye-tracking. Overall, we find no 48 consistent evidence of test-retest reliability in measures of infants' speech preference 49 (overall r = .09, 95% CI [-.06,.25]). While increasing the number of trials that infants 50 needed to contribute for inclusion in the analysis revealed a numeric growth in test-retest 51 reliability, it also considerably reduced the study's effective sample size. Therefore, future research on infant development should take into account that not all experimental 53 measures might be appropriate to assess individual differences between infants, and hence, the interpretation of findings needs to be treated with caution. 55

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

Word count: 4040

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

pre-registered infant sample

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 can often be described as unstable and volatile. 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 infant development.

In order to address these challenges, the ManyBabies collaborative research 71 consortium was formed to conduct large-scale conceptual, consensus-based replications of 72 seminal findings to identify sources of variability and establish best practices for 73 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 76 (hereafter, IDS) over adult-directed speech (hereafter, ADS, Cooper & Aslin, 1990). Across 77 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
Thiessen, Hill, & Saffran (2005) and their learning of word-object associations (Graf Estes & Hurley, 2013; Ma, Golinkoff, Houston, & Hirsh-Pasek, 2011) seems to be enhanced in the context of IDS. In sum, IDS seems to be beneficial for early language development.

Within MB1, altogether 67 labs contributed data of 2,329 infants showing that babies 90 generally prefer to listen to IDS over ADS. Nevertheless, the overall effect size d=0.35 was 91 much smaller than the meta-analytic effect size of d = 0.67 reported by Dunst et al. (2012). 92 The results revealed a number of additional factors that influenced the effect size. First. older infants showed a larger preference of IDS over ADS. Second, the stimulus language was linked to IDS preference, with North American English learning infants showing a larger IDS preference than infants learning other languages. Third, comparing the different methods employed, the head-turn preference procedure yielded the highest effect size, while the central fixation paradigm and eye-tracking methods revealed smaller effects. Finally, exploratory analyses assessed the effect of different inclusion criteria. Across methods, using stricter inclusion criteria led to an increase in effect sizes despite the larger 100 proportion of excluded participants (see also Byers-Heinlein, Bergmann, & Savalei, 2021). 101

However, there is a difference between a result being reliable in a large sample of 102 infants and the individual measure of an individual infant being reliable. In studies 103 tracking individual differences, the measured behavior during an experimental setting is 104 often used to predict a cognitive function or specific skill later in life. Individual differences 105 research of this kind often has substantial implications for theoretical and applied work. For example, research showing that infants' behavior in speech perception tasks can be 107 linked to later language development (see Cristia, Seidl, Junge, Soderstrom, & Hagoort, 2014 for a meta-analysis) has the potential to identify infants at risk for later language 109 delays or disorders. However, a necessary precondition for this link to be observable is that 110 individual differences between infants can be measured with high reliability at these earlier 111

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 are either limited to 115 adult populations (Hedge, Powell, & Sumner, 2018), or have been conducted with small 116 sample sizes (e.g., Houston, Horn, Qi, Ting, & Gao, 2007). For example, Colombo, 117 Mitchell, and Horowitz (1988) used a paired comparison task, in which infants were 118 familiarized with a stimulus and for the test trials presented with the familiarized and a novel stimulus side-by-side. Results indicated that infants' novelty preference was extremely variable from task to task. Assessing infants' performance from one week to 121 another revealed that infants' attention measures were moderately reliable. However, 122 reliability seemed to increase with the number of tasks infants were able to complete in the 123 younger age group, suggesting that reliability is influenced by the number of assessments. 124 In addition, infants' performance from 4 to 7 months was longitudinally stable but 125 somewhat smaller than the week-to-week reliability. Cristia, Seidl, Singh, and Houston 126 (2016) also retested infant populations by independently conducting 12 different 127 experiments on infant speech perception at three different labs with different 128 implementations of the individual studies. Hence, it was only after completed data 120 collection that the data was pooled together by the different labs revealing potential 130 confounds. Nevertheless, the results showed that reliability was extremely variable across 131 the different experiments and labs and overall low (meta-analytic r = .07). 132

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 aim to address whether time between test and retest or infants' language background influences the reliability of the preference measure.

Our study was faced with a critical design choice: what stimulus to use to assess 138 test-retest reliability. A first constraint of our study was that, since it was a follow-on to 139 MB1, any stimulus we used would always be presented after the MB1 stimuli. One option 140 would be simply to bring back infants and have them hear exactly the same stimulus 141 materials. A weakness of this design would be the potential for stimulus familiarity effects, 142 however, since infants would have heard the materials before. Further complicating 143 matters, infants might show a preference for or against a familiar stimulus depending on 144 their age (Hunter & Ames, 1988). The ideal solution then would be to create a brand new 145 stimulus set with the same characteristics. Unfortunately, because of the process how MB1 146 stimuli were created, we did not have enough normed raw recordings available to make 147 brand new stimulus items that conformed to the same standards as the MB1 stimuli. 148

We therefore chose an intermediate path: we reversed the ordering of MB1 stimuli. 149 Average looking times in MB1 were always lower than 9s per trial, even for the youngest 150 children on the earliest trials (the group who looked the longest on average), so most 151 children in MB1 did not hear the second half of most trials. Thus, by reversing the order, 152 we had a perfectly matched stimulus set that was relatively unfamiliar to most infants. 153 The disadvantage of this design was that infants who looked longer might be more likely to hear a familiar clip that they had heard in the previous study. If infants then showed a 155 familiarity preference – an assumption which might not be true – the end result could be to inflate our estimates of test-retest reliability slightly, since longer lookers would on average 157 look longer at retest due to their familiarity preference. We view this risk as relatively low, 158 but do note that it is a limitation of our design. 159

The current study also explores whether there are any differences in test-retest reliability between the three widely used methods: central fixation (hereafter, CF), eye-tracking, and the head-turn preference procedure (hereafter, HPP). Exploring differences in CF, eye-tracking, 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 165 eye-tracking (ManyBabies Consortium, 2020). HPP requires gross motor movements 166 relative to other methods, such as CF and eye-tracking paradigms, for which subtle eye 167 movements towards a monitor located in front of the child are sufficient. One possible 168 explanation for the stronger effects with HPP may be a higher sensitivity to the 169 contingency of the presentation of auditory stimuli and infants' head turns away from the 170 typical forward-facing position. While these findings suggest that HPP may be a more 171 sensitive index of infant preference, they do not necessarily imply higher reliability for 172 individual infants' performance using the different methods. Hence, it remains an open 173 question whether the same measures that produce larger effect sizes at the group-level also 174 have higher test-retest reliability for individual infants (Byers-Heinlein, Bergmann, et al., 175 2021). Therefore, assessing the test-retest reliability of the different preference measures is crucial, so that researchers can make informed decisions about the appropriate methods for their particular research question. Critically, only measures with high test-retest reliability should be used for studies of individual differences.

180 Method

#### 181 Preregistration

Prior to the start of data collection, we preregistered the current study on the Open Science Framework (https://osf.io/v5f8t; see S1 in the Supplementary Materials for further details).

### 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.

## 192 Participants

Contributing labs were asked to re-recruit their monolingual participants between the 193 ages of 6 to 12 months who had already participated in the MB1 project. If participating 194 labs had not committed to testing either of these age groups, they were also allowed to 195 re-recruit participants from the youngest age group of 3- to 6-month-olds and/or the oldest 196 age group of 12- to 15-month-olds. Labs were asked to contribute half (n=16) or full 197 samples (n=32); however, a lab's data was included in the study regardless of the number 198 of included infants. The study was approved by each lab's respective ethics committee and 199 parental consent was obtained for each infant prior to participation in the study. 200

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 11 participants due to session errors and 11 participants who did

not have at least one valid trial per condition (IDS and ADS) at their first or second

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

days).

#### 208 Materials

Visual stimuli. The visual stimuli and instructions were identical to MB1. For the
central fixation paradigm and eye-tracking, labs used a multicolored static checkerboard as
the fixation stimulus as well as a multicolored moving circle with a ringing sound as an
attention-getter between trials. For the HPP method, labs used their standard procedure,

213 as in MB1.

Speech stimuli. We used the identical training stimuli of piano music from MB1.

A second set of naturalistic IDS and ADS recordings of mothers either talking to their

infant or to an experimenter was created for the retest session by reversing the order of

clips within each sequence of the original study This resulted in eight new sequences of

natural IDS and eight new sequences of natural ADS with a length of 18 seconds each.

Procedure. Infants were retested using the identical procedure as during the first testing day: central fixation, HPP, or eye-tracking. Participating labs were asked to schedule test and retest session 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
presented in one of four pseudo-randomized orders. Trial length was either infant-controlled
or fixed depending on the lab's standard procedure, that is a trial stopped either if the
infant looked away for 2 seconds or after the total trial duration of 18 seconds. The online
coding experimenter and the parent listened to music masked with the stimuli of the study
via noise-cancelling headphones. If the experimenter was in an adjacent room separate
from the testing location, listening to masking music was optional for the experimenter.

Data exclusion. A child was excluded if they had a session error, i.e., an
experimenter error (e.g., inaccurate coding, or presentation of retest stimuli on the first
test session), or equipment failure (visual stimuli continued to play after the end of a trial).
Trials were excluded if they were marked as trial errors, 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. If a participant was unable to

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
babylab-potsdam	HPP	German	227	22
babyling-oslo	Eyetracking	Norwegian	249	10
brookes-babylab	central fixation	English	267	18
InfantCog-UBC	central fixation	English	147	7
infantll-madison	HPP	English	230	30
lancslab	Eyetracking	English	236	16
wsi-goettingen	central fixation	German	280	39
wsi-goettingen	HPP	German	242	16

contribute at least one IDS and one ADS trial for either test or retest, all data of that participant was excluded from the test-retest analyses.

Results

## IDS preference

First, we examined infants' preferences for IDS in both sessions. Two two-samples t-tests revealed that the children in Session 1, t(157) = 6.47, p < .001, and in Session 2, t(157) = 4.19, p < .001, showed a preference of IDS over ADS (see Table 2 for the average looking times in each session), replicating the main finding from MB1. In the first session, 68.35% of infants showed a preference for IDS, and in the second session, 63.29% of infants showed a numerical preference for IDS. In order to test whether there was a difference in the strength of the preference effect across sessions, we fit a linear mixed-effects model

Trial type	Session 1 Mean	Session 1 SD	Session 2 Mean	Session 2 $SD$
ADS	7.72	2.77	6.96	2.92
IDS	8.76	2.85	7.75	2.75

Table 2

Looking times in s for each session and condition

predicting infants' average difference in looking time between IDS and ADS from test 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,  $\beta$ =-0.30, SE=0.24, p=.208.

### 254 Reliability

267

268

We assessed test-retest reliability in two ways. First, we fit a linear mixed-effects 255 model predicting IDS preference in Session 2 from IDS preference in Session 1, including a 256 by-lab random intercept. The results revealed no significant relationship between IDS 257 preference in Session 2 and Session 1 (Table 2). Second, we calculated the Pearson 258 correlation coefficient. While a simple correlation coefficient might overestimate the 259 test-retest reliability in our sample because it does not control for the differences between 260 different labs and methods (HPP, CF, and eye-tracking), we felt it was important to also 261 conduct a Pearson correlation as it is commonly used to assess reliability. The size of the 262 correlation coefficient was not statistically different from zero and the estimate was small, 263 r = .09, 95% CI [-.06, .25], t(156) = 1.19, p = .237. 41.77 percent of the infants reversed 264 their direction of preference for IDS versus ADS from the test to the retest session. 265 To test whether the results were different for a specific method, we calculated the 266

Pearson correlation coefficients and the multilevel analyses for HPP, central fixation and

eye-tracking separately (see Table 4). There was no evidence that method moderated

Table 3

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

	Estimate	SE	t	р
Intercept	0.874	0.456	1.920	0.102
Session One	0.035	0.085	0.414	0.679

test-retest reliability. Neither the Pearson correlation coefficients nor the coefficients of the multilevel analysis were significant, all p-values > .286. In planned secondary analyses, we found that participant age, language background, and time between test sessions also did not moderate the relationship between IDS preference in session 1 and session 2 (see Suppmentary Materials, S2). Taken together, we find no significant evidence of test-retest reliability across our preregistered analyses.

#### 275 Results with different inclusion criteria

To this point, all analyses were performed using the inclusion criteria from MB1, 276 which required only that infants contribute at least 1 trial per condition for inclusion (i.e., 277 one IDS and one ADS trial). However, more stringent inclusion criteria yielded larger 278 effect sizes in MB1. We therefore conducted exploratory analyses assessing test-retest 279 reliability after applying progressively stricter inclusion criteria, requiring 2, 4, 6, and 8 280 valid trials per condition. Applying stricter criteria - and thereby increasing the number of test trials - increased reliability numerically from r = 0.07 to r = 0.34 (Figure 1). In part due to a decrease in sample size, only one of these correlations was statistically significant 283 (namely when requiring a minimum of 6 trial pairs): 2 valid trial pairs, t(152) = 0.90, 284 p = .367; 4 valid trial pairs, t(143) = 1.03, p = .306; 6 valid trial pairs, t(98) = 2.23, 285 p = .028; 8 valid trial pairs - all trials in both sessions - t(22) = 1.68, p = .108. The

Table 4

Coefficient estimates from a linear mixed effects model predicting IDS preference in Session 2 for each method separately.

Method	estimate	SE	pvalue	cor	pvalue2
НРР	0.151	0.137	0.276	0.134	0.276
Eyetracking	0.034	0.162	0.835	0.021	0.919
central fixation	-0.195	0.125	0.125	0.080	0.530

287 analyses provide tentative evidence that stricter inclusion criteria may lead to higher 288 test-retest reliability, but at the cost of substantial decreases in sample size.

280

#### General Discussion

The current study investigated the test-retest reliability of infants' preference for IDS 290 over ADS. Infants of the original MB1 project were retested on a reversed order of stimuli 291 in order to assess if their listening pattern would be similar to that of their initial 292 assessment. While we replicated the original effect of infants' speech preference for IDS over 293 ADS in the current MB1 follow-up study for both test and retest session on the group-level 294 using the same MB1 protocol, we found that infants' speech preference measures had no 295 test-retest reliability. In other words, we were unable to detect any stable individual differences of infants' speech preference. This finding is in line with other research indicating a rather low test-reliability for different developmental paradigms (Cristia et al., 2016). Given that most experimental procedures conducted in developmental research are interested in the comparison of groups, individual differences between participants within a 300 specific condition are usually minimized by the experimental procedure while differences 301 between conditions are maximized. Therefore, the infant preference measure may be a 302

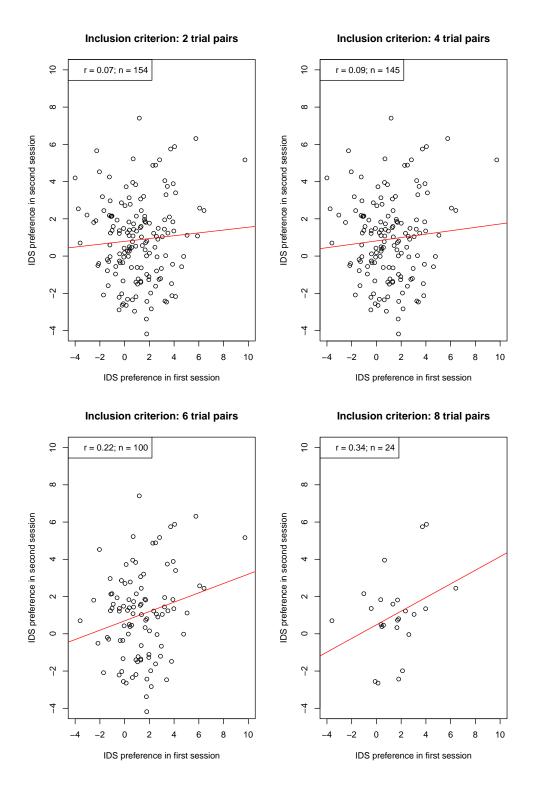


Figure 1. IDS preferences of both sessions plotted against each other for each inclusion criterion. n indicates the number of included infants, r is the Pearson correlation coefficient as the indicator for reliability.

good approach to capture universal phenomena but does not seem to be appropriate for examining factors that may lead to individual differences in development.

Consistent with general psychometric theory (e.g., DeBolt, Rhemtulla, & Oakes, 2020) a larger number of included test trials was associated with higher reliability.

However, in our dataset, this association was based on exploratory analyses and was only found descriptively, hence, a replication is warranted. A similar effect on the group-level was found in the MB1 project, where a stricter inclusion criterion led to bigger effect sizes (ManyBabies Consortium, 2020).

In our study, as in the MB1 original study, higher reliability through strict exclusions 311 came at a high cost. In particular, with the strictest criterion, only a small portion of the 312 original sample size, that is 24 out of 158 infants, could be included in the final sample for 313 this particular analysis. In other words, applying a stricter criterion leads to a higher drop 314 out rate and reduces the actual sample size enormously. In the case of studies in the field 315 of developmental science, where there are many practical restrictions in collecting large 316 samples of infants (e.g., birth rate in the area, restricted lab capacities, budget 317 restrictions), a strict drop out criterion might not be easy - if even possible at all - to 318 implement. Note that studies in developmental science already have above average drop 319 out rates (Miller, 2017). In addition, drop out may not be random, and so having high drop out rates can further limit the generalisability of a study. Particularly in the context 321 of turning individual differences measures into diagnostic tools, high drop-out rates have an additional limitation of not being broadly usable. 323

An alternative approach to increase the number of valid trials might be to also increase the number of collected trials. In this case, a participant can have a high number/proportion of invalid trials and still be included into the final sample as the absolute number of trials is high and thereby decreasing trial-to-trial variability (DeBolt et al., 2020; see Silverstein, Feng, Westermann, Parise, & Twomey, 2021 for an example).

While this approach might sound promising, it must be seen if this is realistic, because the attention span of a typical participant of a developmental study is rather short. Therefore, 330 prolonging the experimental procedure to maximize the absolute number of trials might 331 also be practically challenging. Further potential attempts in obtaining higher numbers of 332 valid trials may include changes in the procedure (e.g., Egger, Rowland, & Bergmann, 333 2020) or implementing multi-day test sessions (Fernald & Marchman, 2012). As our results 334 are only based on the particular phenomenon of IDS preference (albeit, with three widely 335 used methods: HPP, central fixation; eye-tracking) it is essential to further assess the 336 underlying reliability of these measures within other areas of speech perception. While 337 most infants prefer IDS over ADS (Dunst et al., 2012), predicting a pattern of preference, 338 for instance, within speech segmentation tasks, i.e. familiar versus novel words, seem not 339 that straightforward (Bergmann & Cristia, 2016). Especially in the context of relating a direction of preference to later language development, there seem to be controversial findings. That is, both familiarity and novelty responses have been suggested to be predictive of infants' later linguistic abilities (DePaolis, Vihman, & Keren-Portnoy, 2014; R. S. Newman, Rowe, & Ratner, 2016; R. Newman, Ratner, Jusczyk, Jusczyk, & Dow, 2006). In light of findings from the current study, researchers conducting longitudinal studies with experimental data from young infants predicting future outcomes should be 346 cautious as there may be inter-individual variability affecting their preferences. 347

# 348 Limitations

While we had an above average sample size for a study in developmental research, we were unable to reach the number of participants collected within the original MB1 study.

In addition to a delayed call, the extra effort of having to schedule a second lab visit for each participant and the fact that there were already other collaborative studies taking place simultaneously (MB1B, Byers-Heinlein, Tsui, Bergmann, et al., 2021; MB1G,

Byers-Heinlein, Tsui, Van Renswoude, et al., 2021), might have contributed to the rather

low turnout. A higher sample size and a larger number of participating labs from different countries might have enabled us to test for possible differences of the test-retest reliability of the different methods (HPP, central fixation, eye-tracking) and NAE versus non-NAE language backgrounds. Further, a larger sample size might have enabled us to conduct meaningful tests of moderators such as age of the child on the test-retest reliability.

A further limitation concerns the stimuli. While the order of the clips within trials 360 presented to the participating children in the second session was different than in the first session, the exact same stimulus material as in MB1 was used in both sessions. In 362 particular, all children heard the exact same voices in Session 1 and in Session 2. From a 363 practical point of view, it was the easiest solution. However, familiarity effects might have influenced infants' looking behavior. Assuming that only infants with longer looking times 365 in Session 1 might have had the chance to recognize the voices in Session 2 from their 366 session a week ago as familiar clips would only be towards the end of trials, infants with 367 shorter looking times might not have had the opportunity to listen to the voices from their 368 first session. Therefore, for some children, familiarity with the stimulus material might 369 have led to artificially lowering test-retest reliability. 370

371 Conclusion

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

378 References

395

- Bergmann, C., & Cristia, A. (2016). Development of infants' segmentation of words from native speech: A meta-analytic approach. *Developmental Science*, 19(6), 901–917.
- Byers-Heinlein, K., Bergmann, C., & Savalei, V. (2021). Six solutions for more reliable infant research. *Infant and Child Development*, e2296.
- Byers-Heinlein, K., Tsui, A. S. M., Bergmann, C., Black, A. K., Brown, A.,

  Carbajal, M. J., et al.others. (2021). A multilab study of bilingual infants:

  Exploring the preference for infant-directed speech. Advances in Methods and

  Practices in Psychological Science, 4(1), 2515245920974622.
- Byers-Heinlein, K., Tsui, R. K.-Y., Van Renswoude, D., Black, A. K., Barr, R.,

  Brown, A., et al.others. (2021). The development of gaze following in

  monolingual and bilingual infants: A multi-laboratory study. *Infancy*, 26(1),

  4–38.
- Colombo, J., Mitchell, D. W., & Horowitz, F. D. (1988). Infant visual attention in
  the paired-comparison paradigm: Test-retest and attention-performance
  relations. *Child Development*, 1198–1210.
  - Cooper, R. P., & Aslin, R. N. (1990). Preference for infant-directed speech in the first month after birth. *Child Development*, 61(5), 1584–1595.
- Cristia, A., Seidl, A., Junge, C., Soderstrom, M., & Hagoort, P. (2014). Predicting individual variation in language from infant speech perception measures. *Child Development*, 85(4), 1330–1345.
- Cristia, A., Seidl, A., Singh, L., & Houston, D. (2016). Test–retest reliability in infant speech perception tasks. *Infancy*, 21(5), 648–667.
- DeBolt, M. C., Rhemtulla, M., & Oakes, L. M. (2020). Robust data and power in infant research: A case study of the effect of number of infants and number of trials in visual preference procedures. *Infancy*, 25(4), 393–419.

- DePaolis, R. A., Vihman, M. M., & Keren-Portnoy, T. (2014). When do infants 405 begin recognizing familiar words in sentences? Journal of Child Language, 41(1), 406 226-239.407 Dunst, C., Gorman, E., & Hamby, D. (2012). Preference for infant-directed speech 408 in preverbal young children. Center for Early Literacy Learning, 5(1), 1–13. 409 Retrieved from 410 http://www.earlyliteracylearning.org/cellreviews/cellreviews v5 n1.pdf 411 Egger, J., Rowland, C. F., & Bergmann, C. (2020). Improving the robustness of 412 infant lexical processing speed measures. Behavior Research Methods, 52(5), 413 2188-2201.414 Fernald, A., & Marchman, V. A. (2012). Individual differences in lexical processing 415 at 18 months predict vocabulary growth in typically developing and late-talking 416 toddlers. Child Development, 83(1), 203–222. 417 Fernald, A., Taeschner, T., Dunn, J., Papousek, M., Boysson-Bardies, B. de, & 418 Fukui, I. (1989). A cross-language study of prosodic modifications in mothers' 419 and fathers' speech to preverbal infants. Journal of Child Language, 16(3), 420 477-501.421 Floccia, C., Keren-Portnoy, T., DePaolis, R., Duffy, H., Delle Luche, C., Durrant, 422 S., ... Vihman, M. (2016). British english infants segment words only with 423 exaggerated infant-directed speech stimuli. Cognition, 148, 1–9. 424 Frank, M. C., Bergelson, E., Bergmann, C., Cristia, A., Floccia, C., Gervain, J., ... 425 Yurovsky, D. (2017). A collaborative approach to infant research: Promoting 426
- reproducibility, best practices, and theory-building. Infancy, 22(4), 421–435.

  https://doi.org/10.1111/infa.12182

  Graf Estes, K., & Hurley, K. (2013). Infant-directed prosody helps infants map sounds to meanings. Infancy, 18(5), 797–824.

https://doi.org/10.1111/infa.12006

- Hedge, C., Powell, G., & Sumner, P. (2018). The reliability paradox: Why robust cognitive tasks do not produce reliable individual differences. *Behavior Research Methods*, 50(3), 1166–1186.
- Houston, D. M., Horn, D. L., Qi, R., Ting, J. Y., & Gao, S. (2007). Assessing speech discrimination in individual infants. *Infancy*, 12(2), 119–145.
- Hunter, M. A., & Ames, E. W. (1988). A multifactor model of infant preferences for novel and familiar stimuli. *Advances in Infancy Research*, 5, 69–95.
- Johnson, E., & Zamuner, T. (2010). Using infant and toddler testing methods in language acquisition research.
- Junge, C., Everaert, E., Porto, L., Fikkert, P., Klerk, M. de, Keij, B., & Benders, T.

  (2020). Contrasting behavioral looking procedures: A case study on infant

  speech segmentation. Infant Behavior and Development, 60, 101448.
- Ma, W., Golinkoff, R. M., Houston, D. M., & Hirsh-Pasek, K. (2011). Word learning in infant-and adult-directed speech. Language Learning and Development, 7(3), 185–201.
- ManyBabies Consortium. (2020). Quantifying sources of variability in infancy
  research using the infant-directed-speech preference. Advances in Methods and
  Practices in Psychological Science, 3(1), 24–52.
- Miller, S. A. (2017). Developmental research methods. Sage publications.
- Naoi, N., Minagawa-Kawai, Y., Kobayashi, A., Takeuchi, K., Nakamura, K.,
  Yamamoto, J., & Shozo, K. (2012). Cerebral responses to infant-directed speech
  and the effect of talker familiarity. *Neuroimage*, 59(2), 1735–1744.
- Newman, R. S., Rowe, M. L., & Ratner, N. B. (2016). Input and uptake at 7
  months predicts toddler vocabulary: The role of child-directed speech and infant
  processing skills in language development. *Journal of Child Language*, 43(5),
  1158–1173.
- Newman, R., Ratner, N. B., Jusczyk, A. M., Jusczyk, P. W., & Dow, K. A. (2006).

- Infants' early ability to segment the conversational speech signal predicts later language development: A retrospective analysis. Developmental Psychology, 42(4), 643.

  Oakes, L. M. (2017). Sample size, statistical power, and false conclusions in infant looking-time research. Infancy, 22(4), 436–469.

  Schreiner, M. S., & Mani, N. (2017). Listen up! Developmental differences in the impact of IDS on speech segmentation. Cognition, 160, 98–102.
- Silverstein, P., Feng, J., Westermann, G., Parise, E., & Twomey, K. E. (2021).

  Infants learn to follow gaze in stages: Evidence confirming a robotic prediction.

  Open Mind, 1–15.
- Singh, L., Nestor, S., Parikh, C., & Yull, A. (2009). Influences of infant-directed speech on early word recognition. *Infancy*, 14(6), 654–666.
- Thiessen, E. D., Hill, E. A., & Saffran, J. R. (2005). Infant-directed speech facilitates word segmentation. *Infancy*, 7(1), 53–71. https://doi.org/10.1207/s15327078in0701\_5
- Zangl, R., & Mills, D. L. (2007). Increased brain activity to infant-directed speech in 6-and 13-month-old infants. *Infancy*, 11(1), 31–62.
- https://doi.org/10.1207/s15327078in1101\_2