

# 1      **Local temporal regularities in child-directed speech in Spanish**

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## 9                    **Abstract**

10      **Purpose:** To characterize the local (utterance-level) temporal regularities of child-directed speech  
11      (CDS) that might facilitate phonological development in Spanish, classically termed a syllable-timed  
12      language.

13      **Method:** 18 female adults addressed their 4-year-old children versus other adults spontaneously and  
14      also read aloud (CDS versus ADS). We compared CDS and ADS speech productions using a spectro-  
15      temporal model (S-AMPH, Leong & Goswami, 2015), obtaining three temporal metrics: 1) distribution  
16      of modulation energy, 2) temporal regularity of stressed syllables, and 3) syllable rate.

17      **Results:** CDS was characterized by 1) significantly greater modulation energy in the lower frequencies  
18      (0.5-4 Hz), 2) more regular rhythmic occurrence of stressed syllables, and 3) a slower syllable rate than  
19      ADS, across both spontaneous and read conditions.

20      **Discussion:** CDS is characterized by a robust local temporal organization (i.e., within utterances) with  
21      amplitude modulation bands aligning with delta and theta electrophysiological frequency bands  
22      respectively showing greater phase synchronization than in ADS, facilitating parsing of stress units and  
23      syllables. These temporal regularities, together with the slower rate of production of CDS, might support

24 the automatic extraction of phonological units in speech and hence support the phonological  
25 development of children.

## 26 **Introduction**

27 Under typical listening conditions, humans effortlessly process and comprehend speech as it unfolds  
28 over time. Several theories suggest that cortical oscillations (the relatively regular synchronous firing  
29 of neuronal populations) in the auditory and broader language regions synchronize to the speech signal  
30 at several timescales (Ghitza, 2011; Giraud & Poeppel, 2012). Such synchronization mechanisms allow  
31 the temporal processing of speech and facilitate its comprehension. Neurophysiological research  
32 corroborates this view by showing cortical tracking of speech acoustic cues that map onto linguistic  
33 syllables and prosodic patterns (e.g., Ding & Simon, 2012; Doelling et al., 2014; Molinaro & Lizarazu,  
34 2018; Peelle et al., 2013). Moreover, there is direct evidence that links an efficient cortical tracking of  
35 prosodic (Rimmele et al., 2021; delta band oscillations, 0.5 – 4 Hz) and syllabic (Doelling et al., 2014;  
36 theta band oscillations, 4 – 8 Hz) acoustic cues in the speech signal with speech comprehension. While  
37 most of the evidence about the oscillatory mechanisms for tracking acoustic regularities in speech  
38 comes from proficient adult populations, infants' and children's abilities to track the temporal cues of  
39 speech have also been studied (e.g. Attaheri et al., 2022; Gervain & Werker, 2013; Ríos-López et al.,  
40 2017; Tallal, 1980). However, there is currently little evidence concerning whether the temporal  
41 regularities of child-directed speech (CDS) are enhanced (as compared to adult-directed speech, ADS)  
42 in order to support and guide the emergence of a phonological system. There is also little evidence  
43 concerning which statistical forms this temporal enhancement may take. Answering this question is  
44 crucial for a comprehensive developmental framework that considers how the brains of infants and  
45 children exploit the temporal regularities of the speech they are typically addressed with to achieve  
46 proficient language comprehension.

47 Several studies have highlighted the presence of temporal regularities within the prosodic and syllabic  
48 timescales, which inform the aims of the present study. At the syllabic level, the rate of approximately  
49 5 syllables per second (5 Hz) is common across languages (Ding et al., 2017; Greenberg et al., 2003).

50 At the prosodic stress level, Tilsen and Arvaniti (2013) showed that amplitude envelope-based methods  
51 (similar to those used in the present study) could capture stress regularities in spontaneous utterances.  
52 In the same vein, Inbar et al., (2020) found that prosodic units (termed ‘intonation units’ in their study)  
53 produced by adult speakers appear at a roughly constant rate of ~1 Hz. Interestingly, Stehwien and  
54 Meyer (2021) analyzed an annotated corpus of radio newscasts in German to show that the prosody of  
55 intonational phrases (mapping onto utterances) determined the periodicity of their nested subordinate  
56 phrases, suggesting that prosody could have a determining role in shaping the local temporal regularities  
57 of adult-directed speech. Overall, the evidence suggests that there is a close overlap between the  
58 rhythms of quasi-regular speech units such as stressed syllables and syllables and the timescales at  
59 which neurophysiological mechanisms operate to subserve their processing (see Poeppel & Assaneo,  
60 2020 for a comprehensive review on the rhythms of speech production and perception).

61 While it is well established that human neurocognitive abilities subtending the extraction and  
62 segmentation of phonological units in speech fine-tune and gain language specificity during the early  
63 years of life (for reviews see Kuhl, 2004; Skeide & Friederici, 2016; Werker & Hensch, 2015), it is still  
64 unclear how the speech inputs directed to infants and children provide them with robust temporal  
65 statistics that can support this phonological tuning. Of particular interest for the present study are the  
66 low-frequency temporal statistics present in the amplitude envelope of the speech signal, governed by  
67 amplitude modulations (AMs) centered at different temporal rates. AMs are systematic intensity  
68 changes in the speech signal, mainly taking place at the delta (~2 Hz) and theta (~5 Hz) rate bands of  
69 AM, that help to signal the occurrence of linguistic units like prosodic phrasing (~1000 ms) and  
70 syllables (~200 ms) respectively (Ding, Patel, et al., 2017; Greenberg, 2006; Greenberg et al., 2003).  
71 Such temporal fluctuations in the amplitude envelope of the speech signal, particularly the AM rise  
72 times (rates of change for these AM bands), provide salient acoustic markers relevant to extracting  
73 prosodic and syllabic phonological units, while faster modulations (~35 Hz) are thought to contribute  
74 to the extraction of phonemic information (Poeppel et al., 2008). The identification of phonological  
75 units in the speech signal is crucial for phonological and reading development (Ziegler & Goswami,  
76 2005). Behavioral evidence, in line with the evidence on the cortical tracking of speech (e.g., Doelling

77 et al., 2014; Rimmele et al., 2021), highlights the functional role of tracking delta and theta AMs in  
78 sentence segmentation and syllabic parsing respectively (Ghitza, 2012, 2017). A key functional role for  
79 delta and theta AMs is also in line with the Temporal Sampling (TS) Framework (Goswami, 2011), a  
80 developmental framework for language acquisition centered on phonology. TS theory proposes that the  
81 automatic alignment of endogenous brain rhythms with AM-governed rhythm patterns in speech is  
82 critical for linguistic and phonological development, and that this unconscious neural alignment (or  
83 sampling) process may be atypical in developmental dyslexia, which is characterized by both  
84 phonological and amplitude rise time difficulties.

85 Coherent with the TS hypothesis, two bodies of evidence attest the key role of tracking low frequency  
86 speech AMs for phonological development. Firstly, multiple studies across languages have shown that  
87 impairments in AM sensitivity accompany the atypical phonological development characteristic of  
88 developmental dyslexia (e.g., Goswami et al., 2002, 2010; Leong & Goswami, 2014; Surányi et al.,  
89 2009; see Hämäläinen et al., 2012 for a systematic review). Secondly, sensitivity to AMs during the  
90 first years of life is a predictor of outcomes in fundamental language domains, such as phonological  
91 awareness (Goswami, Wang, et al., 2010; Vanvooren et al., 2017), vocabulary (Kalashnikova et al.,  
92 2019), and reading abilities (Vanvooren et al., 2017). In addition, recent longitudinal studies show that  
93 cortical oscillatory tracking of prosodic information is present in infants from 4 months, and increases  
94 during early childhood (Ríos-López et al., 2020; Attaheri et al., 2022), suggestive of the relevance of  
95 delta-band speech tracking for language development. Ríos-López et al., (2021) show that a bigger  
96 delta-band cortical tracking of speech in pre-reading children indeed predicts better reading skills one  
97 year later, after the beginning of formal reading instruction.

98 Previous evidence shows that adults adapt their speech complexity to children's linguistic abilities and  
99 communicative feedback, in order to facilitate comprehension (Kalashnikova et al., 2020; Lam &  
100 Kitamura, 2012; Smith & Trainor, 2008). There is abundant evidence concerning the spectral (pitch)  
101 characteristics of infant-directed speech (IDS), which are exaggerated to make it a phonetically-salient  
102 and engaging register to address language-learning individuals (Dilley et al., 2020; Fernald, 1985; Kuhl  
103 et al., 1997; Trainor & Desjardins, 2002; Werker et al., 2007; Werker & McLeod, 1989; see Fernald,

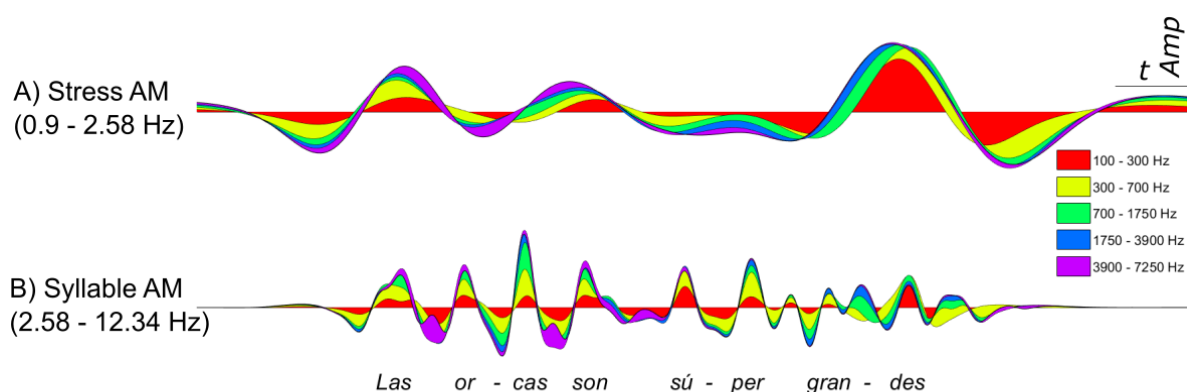
2000 for a review). The enhanced spectral characteristics of IDS are well-established, however less is known regarding potential temporal adaptations that may take place when addressing infants and children. Two well-known temporal features of IDS are a slower speech rate and shorter utterances (Fernald et al., 1989; Fernald & Simon, 1984; Leong et al., 2017). It may be the case that CDS could also provide especially regular temporal statistics to facilitate identification of and access to phonological units in speech and thereby to facilitating the emergence of a proficient phonological system. Such a hypothesis was initially explored by Leong and Goswami (2015) in relation to the AM organization of CDS in English, typically regarded as a stress-timed language (i.e., a language characterized by certain regularity in the timing of stressed syllables); and further tested by contrasting IDS and ADS in English (Leong et al., 2017). In the latter study, Leong et al. (2017) showed that IDS differed from ADS in its temporal organization, especially regarding two critical aspects. One was the higher prominence of delta band modulation energy in IDS compared to ADS: the modulation spectrum revealed relatively more power in the delta band for IDS than for ADS. This feature is likely linked to enhanced prosody in IDS, providing more salient temporal information relevant to extracting phonological information at slower timescales (e.g., intonation phrases, words, and stressed syllables) to a learning individual. The second feature was that stressed syllables were more regularly spaced in IDS than ADS, shown by significantly greater phase synchronization (rhythmic alignment) of delta-rate and theta-rate AMs (~2Hz and ~5 Hz respectively) in IDS. This was interpreted as providing a predictable temporal skeleton to facilitate the infant's attentional and perceptual access to syllables during early stages of language learning.

However, to date, there is no study concerning the potential benefit that the temporal organization of CDS (in contrast to ADS) could provide during pre-school years, nor to what extent such temporal organization is present in non-stress timed languages like Spanish. Languages like Spanish are characterized by salient syllabic timing, and thus have been traditionally categorized as syllable-timed languages, (see Ramus et al., 1999, and Varnet et al., 2017, for instances of supporting evidence; but also Arvaniti, 2009; Turk & Shattuck-Hufnagel, 2013 for opposing views). Here we focus on kindergarten, a stage in which phonological abilities (e.g., phonological awareness and phonological

131 short-term memory) are explicitly taught, as they will support later reading acquisition (e.g., Caravolas  
132 et al., 2001; Muter et al., 2004). We investigated whether the temporal regularities of CDS differed from  
133 those of ADS in Spanish, by directly contrasting the temporal statistics of the two speech registers  
134 within the same study for the first time. If CDS shows similar salient temporal features to English, in  
135 principle this could signal the presence of language-universal temporal statistics that may facilitate  
136 learning, particularly regarding an emergent phonological system. To this purpose, we focused on three  
137 temporal features of speech: the modulation spectrum, the temporal regularity of the placement of  
138 stressed syllables and syllable rate. We studied the two features —modulation spectrum and the  
139 temporal regularity of the placement of stressed syllables—that Leong et al., (2017) already found  
140 distinctive in IDS in English, a stress-timed language. The modulation spectrum for each speech register  
141 was computed and the area under the curve (AUC) was compared in delta versus theta bands for CDS  
142 and ADS respectively. Our aim was to discern whether in Spanish, the two speech registers can be  
143 differently categorized as more prosody-salient (greater AUC in the delta-rate AM band) or syllable-  
144 salient (greater AUC in the theta-rate AM band). To characterize the regularity with which syllables  
145 were stressed in CDS in contrast to ADS, we analyzed the temporal alignment between delta and theta  
146 AM bands in terms of AM phase alignment (rhythmic synchronicity). To this purpose, we used the  
147 spectral-amplitude modulation phase hierarchy (S-AMPH) model developed by Leong and Goswami  
148 (2015). The S-AMPH model allows us to decompose the amplitude envelope of the speech signal and  
149 measure the temporal alignment between different AM bands nested within the signal in different words  
150 and phrases in terms of their phase synchronization (see Figure 1 for a phrasal example). Of particular  
151 interest for our study, delta-theta phase alignment plays a crucial role in the perception of prosodic  
152 patterns in English and has been proposed as a novel statistic for the language-learning brain (Leong &  
153 Goswami, 2015). Greater delta-rate to theta-rate AM phase synchronization is thought to help to identify  
154 prosodic patterning by specifying strong versus weak syllables (Leong et al., 2014). When both AM  
155 bands peak together, a strong syllable is heard. When a trough in the slower delta-rate AM band  
156 (centered on ~2 Hz in the speech materials used by Leong et al., 2014) coincides with a peak in the  
157 faster theta-rate AM band (centered on ~4 Hz in Leong et al., 2014), a weak syllable is heard. Whether  
158 the same is true in Spanish is currently unknown. Finally, we analyzed syllable rate. Our goal was to

159 extend previous findings of CDS being more slowly paced than ADS (Biersack et al., 2005; Sjons et  
 160 al., 2017), and to investigate the potential links between a putative slower speech rate in CDS and its  
 161 expected enhanced temporal regularities. In summary, the role of sensitivity to AM information for  
 162 efficient speech processing and language development is well supported. In the present study, we take  
 163 a step further and explore whether specific AM regularities in the acoustic signal of CDS in Spanish  
 164 (AUC in delta versus theta AM bands, delta-rate to theta-rate AM phase synchronization, and speech  
 165 rate) are enhanced in comparison to ADS, with the assumption that developing an emergent  
 166 phonological system should benefit from the presence of salient temporal statistics in the input. By  
 167 testing Spanish, classically considered to be a syllable-timed language, our results should provide  
 168 developmental evidence regarding the possibly universal relevance of AM phase relations to extracting  
 169 phonological grain sizes in language learning. Further, our data can offer a comprehensive link between  
 170 the cumulative knowledge from the cognitive neuroscience of language about cortical tracking of  
 171 speech and universal processes in language acquisition.

172



173

174 **Figure 1.** Example of S-AMPH model’s spectro-temporal decomposition of an utterance (“*Las orcas*  
 175 *son súper grandes*”, *Whales are super big*). **A)** Stress AM band (delta range, 0.9 – 2.58 Hz). **B)** Syllable  
 176 AM band (theta range, 2.58 – 12.34 Hz). To estimate prosodic and syllabic salience, amplitude  
 177 modulation is extracted from Stress (A) and Syllable (B) bands respectively. To estimate the regularity  
 178 of stressed syllables, we calculated the phase alignment between 1 cycle of Stress (A) and 2 cycles of  
 179 Syllable (B) AMs.

180

181 **Method**

## 182 Participants and conditions

183 We recorded the CDS and ADS speech productions of 18 female Spanish-speaking adults (*mean age* =  
184 39.06 years; *SD* = 5.39). All participants had attained higher education and lived in urban areas of the  
185 Basque Country. 16 participants can be considered monolinguals (exposed to Spanish more than 70%  
186 of their time) and 2 participants can be considered Spanish-Basque bilinguals (exposed to their second  
187 language, Basque, at least 30% of their time). We selected them based on Spanish being the language  
188 they used to address others in the vast majority of interactions (*mean use of Spanish* = 87.5 %; *SD* =  
189 9.20). For CDS speech productions, participants were accompanied by their 4 year-old children (*N* =  
190 18, 6 females, *mean age* = 4.1 years; *SD* = .35), with the aim of generating as ecologically valid CDS  
191 productions as possible, like those that could happen in everyday life (Lam & Kitamura, 2012; Smith  
192 & Trainor, 2008). The purpose of having 4-year-old children as addressees of CDS was to ensure that  
193 children were mature enough to understand the purpose and, therefore, be attentive and quiet during the  
194 CDS recordings (~20 minutes). In the ADS productions, participants addressed one of the experimenters  
195 (*N* = 2, 1 female, *mean age* = 28.1 years; *SD* = .4). For each speech register, participants were asked to  
196 (i) address their child or the adult interlocutor in spontaneous speech monologues—the critical  
197 spontaneous CDS and ADS conditions—, and (ii) read to their interlocutors—baseline reading CDS  
198 and ADS conditions. Although our main purpose was to study spontaneous speech, we added baseline  
199 reading conditions to control for potential participant variability in their spontaneous productions (see  
200 Hirose & Kawanami, 2002) as well as for discerning whether CDS shows boosted temporal regularities  
201 regardless of its production context. Each participant thus took part in four speaking conditions:  
202 spontaneous CDS, read CDS, spontaneous ADS, and read ADS. Participants were provided with several  
203 topics to facilitate their spontaneous productions to children (e.g., animals and pets, family trips,  
204 anecdotes that their children liked, etc.) and adults (e.g., participant's studies, working life, how they  
205 spent their leisure and family time, etc.). Elicitation instructions were minimal in order to generate  
206 speech productions as ecologically valid as possible, and were the following: “please, talk/read to the



207 child/adult about any of the mentioned topics in an engaging way. Let us know if you run out of ideas,  
208 and we will suggest a few new topics.” We recorded each participant during between 9 and 10 minutes  
209 per speaking condition, to get at least 8 minutes of analyzable continuous speech signal (i.e., after  
210 removing noisy and silent segments) per condition.

## 211 Speech recordings

212 Speech was recorded in a soundproof room while participants and addressees were seated in front of  
213 each other, with a cardioid microphone (Sennheiser e 840) at approximately 10 centimeters from each  
214 speakers’ head. Continuous speech (single channel, 44.1 kHz, 16-bit PCM) was segmented into  
215 utterances based on their terminal intonation contour, and at the start of pauses longer than 2 seconds  
216 between productions, according to widely used standard criteria (Miller, 1981). Additionally, utterances  
217 with more than two coordinate clauses were segmented before the second conjunction (i.e., “and”), to  
218 avoid spuriously lengthening due to clausal chaining (Rice et al., 2006). Utterances containing false  
219 starts, repetitions and reformulations were either excluded or trimmed to their correct formulation to  
220 limit the impact of those factors in our temporal metrics (Tree, 1995). In total, participants provided  
221 5070 utterances. We excluded from further analyses 645 utterances (12.72 % of the data set) shorter  
222 than 2 seconds, as they do not provide enough information for reliable low-frequency (~1 Hz) AM  
223 estimations. Thus, the final dataset was composed of 1084 spontaneous CDS, 1400 read CDS, 1067  
224 spontaneous ADS, and 874 read ADS utterances. After segmentation, the volume levels of each  
225 utterance were z-scored prior to our temporal analyses.

## 226 Temporal analyses

227 We used a spectro-temporal acoustic model (S-AMPH, Leong & Goswami, 2015) that allowed us to  
228 characterize the multiscale temporal hierarchy of amplitude modulation information in speech. To  
229 achieve this, the S-AMPH model reduces the dimensions of the speech signal into three AM bands in  
230 two main steps. First, band-pass filtering the z-scored utterances into 5 spectral bands (band edge  
231 frequencies: 100, 300, 700, 1,750, 3,900, and 7,250 Hz) through a series of adjacent zero-phase finite  
232 impulse response (FIR) filters. Second, each spectral band signal was Hilbert filtered, and subsequently

233 band-pass filtered through an additional series of 3 AM bands: delta (0.9 – 2.58 Hz), theta (2.58 – 12.34  
234 Hz) and beta/low-gamma (12.34 – 40 Hz). The ranges of our AM bands, determined by the signal-  
235 driven model construction of S-AMPH for English, map closely onto the frequency bands typically  
236 linked with prosodic (delta, 0.5 – 4 Hz), syllabic (theta, 4 – 7 Hz) and phonemic (beta/low gamma, 12  
237 – 50 Hz) timescales respectively (e.g., Giraud & Poeppel, 2012). These timescales were mapped for  
238 each of the 5 different spectral bands, which are color coded in Figure 1. Figure 1 depicts the output of  
239 the model for the delta and theta bands for a single phrase. Visual inspection of Figure 1 shows that  
240 some peaks in the delta band correspond to peaks in the theta band. In these cases, phase synchronization  
241 indices (PSI values) would be larger, indicating the likely presence of a stressed syllable. The figure  
242 also shows that typically the S-AMPH modeling produces one theta band peak per syllable in a given  
243 utterance.

244 We estimated both the modulation (AM) spectrum and the phase synchronization between AM bands  
245 to test whether CDS and ADS differed in the distribution of their modulation rates and in their phase  
246 relations regarding delta-rate and theta-rate AMs. The modulation spectrum analysis approximately  
247 indicates whether we can categorize each register as more prosody-prominent versus syllable-prominent  
248 respectively. Since utterances that were too long, too short, or that contained long pauses could bias  
249 modulation rate estimates, we limited the modulation spectrum analyses to utterances in the range of 2  
250 to 6 seconds and excluded utterances with silences longer than 1 second. To characterize the modulation  
251 spectra of our speech materials, we Hilbert filtered each utterance's 5 bands resulting from the first S-  
252 AMPH step and passed them through a FIR filterbank with 24 log-spaced channels ranging from 0.9 to  
253 40 Hz. We then computed mean power across modulation channels for each frequency band, followed  
254 by the power difference from the mean (in dB) for each modulation channel. We used the average power  
255 difference from the mean of the 5 spectral bands for further statistical analyses of the modulation  
256 spectrum.

257 The phase synchronization index (PSI) estimates the rhythmic relations between the adjacent delta-rate  
258 and theta-rate AM bands (A and B respectively in Figure 1). Cross-frequency PSI quantifies phase  
259 alignment between two oscillators of different frequencies (Tass et al., 1999; see S1). This is achieved

260 by adjusting the  $n:m$  ratio, in which  $n$  and  $m$  are the number of cycles of the lower (delta in this study)  
261 and higher (theta) frequency oscillators, respectively. PSI values range between 0 (no phase  
262 synchronization) and 1 (perfect phase synchronization). The  $n:m$  ratio that best accommodated delta-  
263 theta PSI for our Spanish materials was 1:2 (see S2). Therefore, PSI results are computed using the 1:2  
264 ratio. S-AMPH model also extracts a beta/low gamma (12.34 – 40 Hz) AM band, mapping onto  
265 phonemes/onset-rime units. Given that the hypotheses of the present study address low frequency (< 12  
266 Hz) modulations, we did not further analyze such higher frequency beta/low gamma AM band.  
267 However, it is noteworthy that 1:2 was also the ratio that best suited theta-beta/low gamma phase  
268 alignment, which is in line with a previous S-AMPH analysis of IDS and ADS in English (Leong et al.,  
269 2017). Since we obtained 5 delta-theta PSIs per utterance (one per spectral band), we averaged them  
270 and conducted our statistical analyses on mean PSI.

271 We computed syllable rate to assess whether CDS is slower paced than ADS, as well as whether the  
272 speed at which utterances are produced contributes to their temporal regularity. Syllable rate was  
273 semiautomatically computed in Praat (Boersma & Weenink, 2021), based on the acoustic algorithm  
274 developed by de Jong and Wempe (2009). Volume parameters were adapted to the decibel (dB) levels  
275 of each participant's recording to obtain reliable syllable rate estimates regardless of between-  
276 participant loudness and pitch differences. We validated a subset of 1584 (38 % of all utterances) of  
277 automatic syllable rate metrics with their corresponding manually annotated syllable rate indexes,  
278 estimated by trained native speakers, showing indeed a high correlation between manually annotated  
279 and automatically detected syllable rate ( $r(1582) = .95, p < .001$ ; S3).

## 280 **Results**

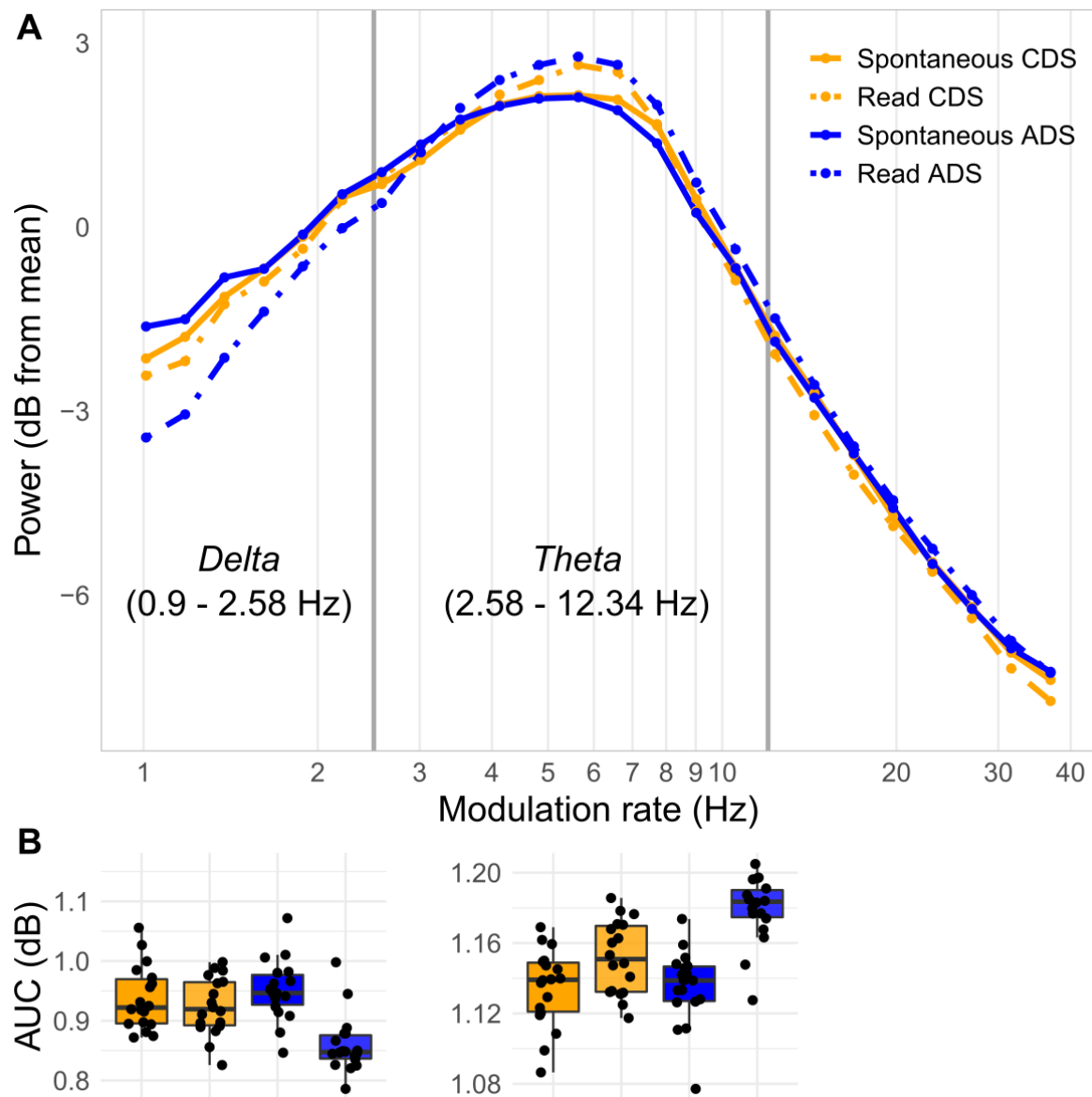
281 In order to assess the influence of speech register (CDS, ADS), and speaking condition (spontaneous  
282 speech, read speech) on each of our temporal measures (distribution of modulation energy, phase  
283 synchronization, and syllable rate), we used linear mixed effect (LME) models. Given the within-  
284 participant structure of our study, we included each participant as a random intercept in the model. We

285 used the *lmer* function of lme4 package (v.1.1.28, Bates et al., 2015) as well as *anova* function to test  
 286 the omnibus main effects and interactions of our predictors.

### 287 **Modulation Spectrum (Prosodic salience)**

288 To operationalize our planned analyses concerning the peak locations of the modulation spectra (Figure  
 289 2A), we calculated the area under the curve (AUC), defined as the linear transformation of each  
 290 frequency band's difference in dBs from mean power. Delta and theta segments of the modulation  
 291 spectrum differed greatly in their AUC (Figure 2), as previously shown by other studies (e.g., Ding,  
 292 Patel, et al., 2017). Overall (i.e., across registers and conditions), AUC was significantly bigger in theta  
 293 than in delta,  $t(36) = 25.62$ ,  $p < 0.001$  ( $\beta = 0.260$ ,  $SE = 0.010$ ,  $CI [0.240\ 0.280]$ ). Therefore, we  
 294 circumscribed our planned analyses to each of the AM bands separately. LME showed that, within  
 295 **delta**, there were significant effects of speaking register,  $F(1, 54) = 11.45$ ,  $p = 0.001$ , condition,  $F(1,$   
 296  $54) = 51.43$ ,  $p < .001$ , and an interaction between register and condition,  $F(1, 54) = 23.39$ ,  $p < 0.001$ .  
 297 This pattern of results reveals a bigger delta AUC in CDS than in ADS,  $t(54) = 5.81$ ,  $p < 0.001$  ( $\beta =$   
 298  $0.066$ ,  $SE = 0.011$ ,  $CI [0.043\ 0.089]$ ), as well as in spontaneous than in read speech,  $t(54) = 8.49$ ,  $p <$   
 299  $0.001$  ( $\beta = 0.097$ ,  $SE = 0.011$ ,  $CI [0.074\ 0.120]$ ). In the **theta** segment of the modulation spectrum, LME  
 300 also yielded a significant effect of speaking register,  $F(1, 54) = 20.51$ ,  $p < 0.001$ , condition,  $F(1, 54) =$   
 301  $98.07$ ,  $p < 0.001$ , as well as an interaction between both factors,  $F(1, 54) = 18.79$ ,  $p < 0.001$ . However,  
 302 the theta segment of the modulation spectrum was characterized by the inverse pattern relative to delta,  
 303 namely ADS showing a bigger theta AUC than CDS,  $t(54) = 6.27$ ,  $p < 0.001$  ( $\beta = 0.027$ ,  $SE = 0.004$ ,  $CI$   
 304  $[0.019\ 0.036]$ ), as well as read speech showing a bigger theta AUC than spontaneous speech,  $t(54) =$   
 305  $10.07$ ,  $p < 0.001$  ( $\beta = 0.044$ ,  $SE = 0.004$ ,  $CI [0.035\ 0.052]$ ). Indeed, for **theta**, the modulation spectrum  
 306 of all conditions peaked at around 5 – 6 Hz, corresponding to the syllable rate (as previously shown  
 307 across languages; Ding, Patel, et al., 2017; Greenberg et al., 2003).

308



309

310 **Figure 2.** A) Modulation spectra of the four speaking conditions. The vertical grey lines divide the  
 311 signal-derived modulation rates of the S-AMPH model that we used to define delta and theta bands, to  
 312 which we subset our PSI and AM spectrum analyses. B) Area under the curve (AUC) of the delta (left)  
 313 and theta (right) bands of spontaneous CDS, read CDS, spontaneous ADS, and read ADS respectively  
 314 from left to right. The horizontal lines between conditions represent significant differences in AUC,  
 315 adjusted for multiple comparisons (\*\*  $p < .01$ ; \*\*\*\*  $p < .0001$ ). C) AUC of canonical theta band (4 - 7  
 316 Hz). Significant differences between speaking conditions are represented as in section B. Dots in Panels  
 317 B and C represent mean AUC values per participant.

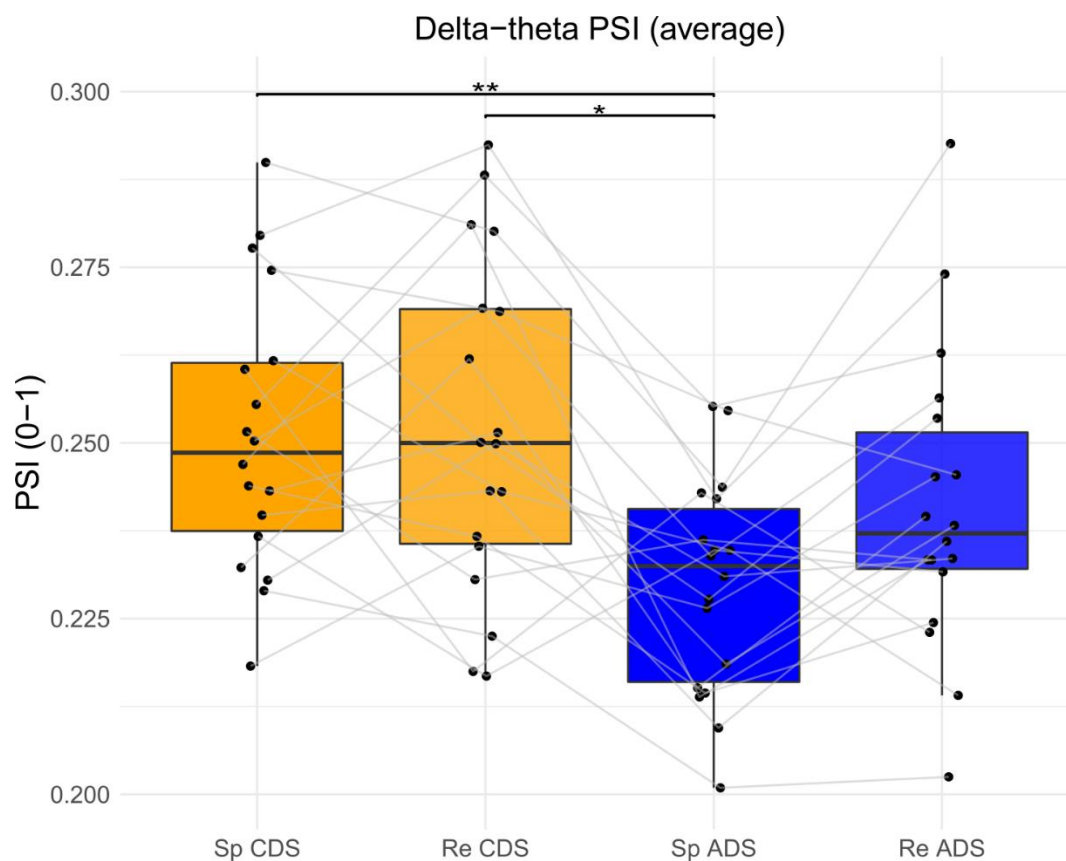
318 Thus, CDS spontaneous and read speech had significantly greater modulation energy (i.e., bigger delta  
 319 AUC) than ADS spontaneous and read speech respectively, suggestive of more salient prosodic

320 structure in CDS. The results for spontaneous speech are in line with the IDS-ADS prosodic differences  
321 in IDS in English demonstrated by Leong et al. (2017). The data for read CDS are completely novel.  
322 Moreover, and in line with the differences between read and spontaneous materials that have been  
323 reported with respect to prosody (e.g., Hirose & Kawanami, 2002; Howell & Kadi-Hanifi, 1991), our  
324 results suggest that when reading to or spontaneously addressing adults in a syllable-timed language, a  
325 greater syllabic salience (i.e., bigger theta AUC) is found.

### 326 **Regularity of stressed syllables (delta-theta phase synchronization, PSI)**

327 Delta-theta PSI values in the different spectral bands demonstrated a similar pattern across speech  
328 registers (S4). Therefore, we first computed an LME model with mean PSI values as the dependent  
329 variable. The LME yielded a significant effect of speaking register,  $F(1, 54) = 26.82, p < .001$ , showing  
330 that CDS is characterized by higher delta-theta phase synchronization than ADS,  $t(54) = 2.49, p = 0.016$   
331 ( $\beta = 0.011, SE = 0.004, CI [0.002\ 0.020]$ ) (Figure 3). There was no significant effect of speaking  
332 condition (spontaneous vs. read) nor interaction between register and condition ( $p > .05$ ).

333



334

335 **Figure 3.** Mean delta-theta PSI. Gray lines connect participants' mean PSI across conditions. Horizontal  
 336 lines within each box represent median PSI. Upper and lower hinges mark the first and third quartile,  
 337 and whiskers show 1.5 \* inter-quartile range. Bonferroni-corrected significant differences are  
 338 represented with \* ( $p < .05$ ) and \*\* ( $p < .01$ ).

339

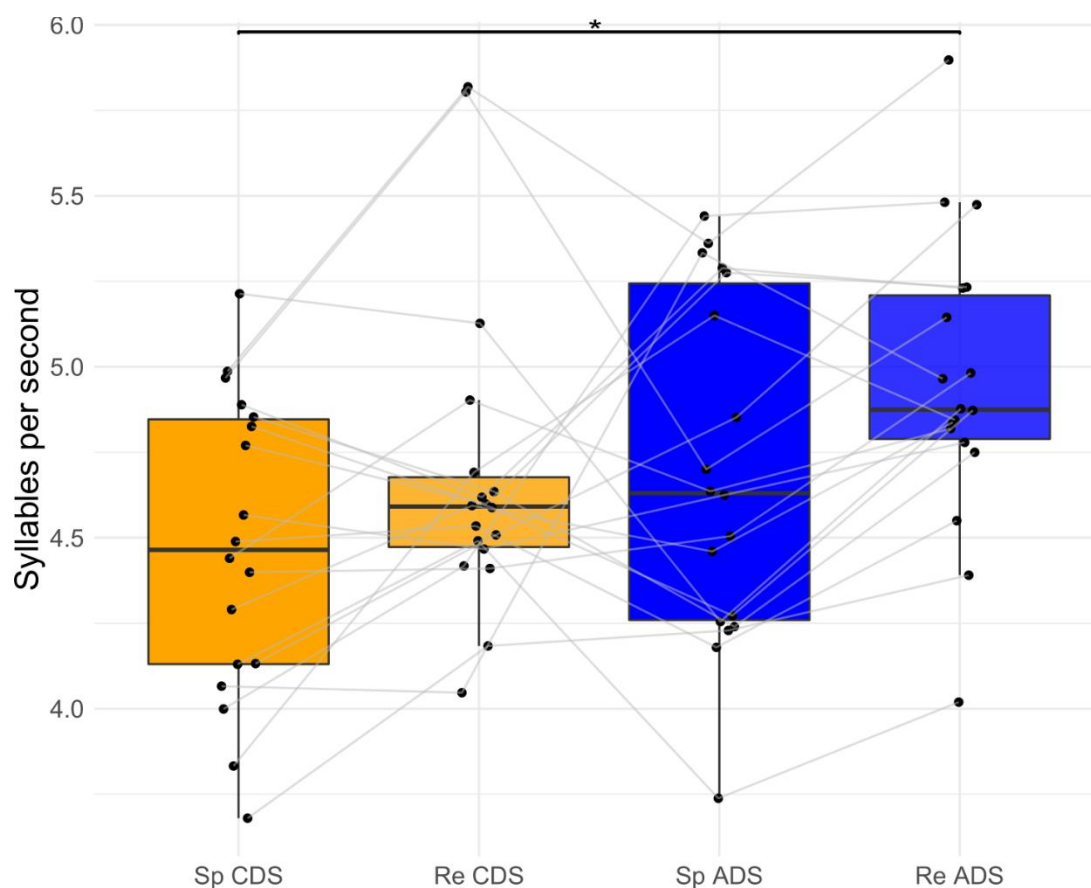
### 340 Syllable rate

341 The LME model on syllable rate yielded significant effects of speech register ( $F(1, 54) = 8.32, p =$   
 342  $.006$ ) and condition ( $F(1, 54) = 7.93, p = .007$ ), but no interaction between these factors ( $p > 0.05$ ).  
 343 These main effects are visible in Figure 4, which shows the higher syllable rate of ADS relative to CDS,  
 344  $t(54) = 2.203, p = 0.032$  ( $\beta = 0.262, SE = 0.119, CI [0.025 0.499]$ ), and of read speech relative to  
 345 spontaneous speech,  $t(54) = 2.155, p = 0.036$  ( $\beta = 0.256, SE = 0.119, CI [0.019 0.493]$ ). Figure 4 also  
 346 shows that there is much less variability in the speech rate of read speech, and interestingly, particularly  
 347 of speech read to children (CDS). This suggests that readers spontaneously adapt their speech when  
 348 reading to children to make it highly predictable. It should be noted that the method we used to calculate

349 syllable rate yields slightly smaller values than manual annotation or other typically used calculations.  
 350 Accordingly, we multiplied our syllable rate values by 1.28 as stated in the method's manuscript (de  
 351 Jong & Wempe, 2009). This confirmed an overlap with the peak of the modulation spectrum in the theta  
 352 band for each register and condition (Figure 2).

353 Next, we analyzed the relationship between syllable rate and the temporal regularity of the utterances.  
 354 The negative correlations between syllable rate and delta-theta PSI were significant (Figure 5). This  
 355 shows that the slower paced utterances were the most temporally organized utterances in our dataset.

356

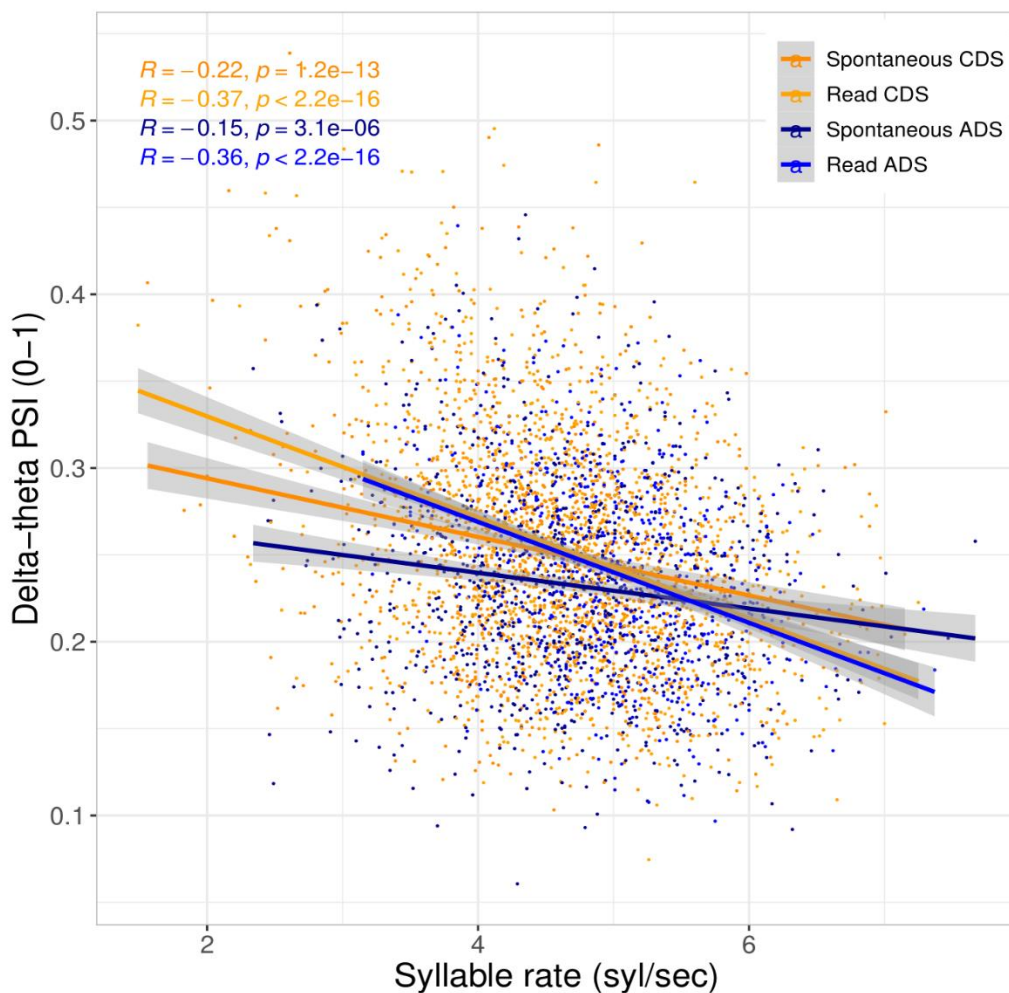


357

358 **Figure 4.** Syllable rate across speaking conditions. Gray lines connect participants' mean syllable rates  
 359 across conditions. Horizontal lines within each box represent median syllable rate. Upper and lower  
 360 hinges mark the first and third quartile, and whiskers show 1.5 \* inter-quartile range. Bonferroni-  
 361 corrected significant differences are represented with \* ( $p < .05$ ).

362





363

364 **Figure 5.** Correlation between syllable rate and delta-theta PSI. The four lines indicate the slopes of  
 365 fitted linear models for each speaking condition. Top left: Pearson correlation coefficients and p-values  
 366 for each speaking condition.

367

## 368 Discussion

369 In the present study, we investigated both spontaneous and read CDS and ADS in Spanish with the  
 370 objective of contrasting them in terms of temporal regularities. Our within-participant design allowed  
 371 us to investigate whether adults flexibly adapt their spontaneous speech productions to boost speech  
 372 temporal regularities when addressing 4-year-old children rather than other adults. Using three temporal  
 373 metrics, we found that CDS in Spanish carries more regular temporal statistics than ADS. First, CDS  
 374 has significantly more modulation energy in the delta band than ADS, whether it is spoken

375 spontaneously or whether the adult is reading to the child. Second, CDS contains more regularly stressed  
376 syllables than ADS, as shown by the greater phase alignment of the delta-rate and theta-rate AM bands  
377 in the CDS registers. Third, CDS shows a slower syllable rate relative to ADS. Adults slow down when  
378 speaking to children, as might be expected when addressing language-learning individuals. Indeed, read  
379 CDS also showed a notably narrower range than the other registers regarding syllable rate, suggesting  
380 that when reading to young children, temporal information becomes highly predictable. This may help  
381 to explain why early story reading is such an important contributor to language development (Attig &  
382 Weinert, 2020).

383 The modulation spectrum analyses (Figure 2) for CDS suggested that it has significantly more  
384 modulation energy in the delta band than ADS. This is in line with prior IDS data in English (Leong et  
385 al., 2017), classically considered a stress-timed language. The fact that we also found enhanced prosodic  
386 salience in CDS in Spanish, typically termed a syllable-timed language, is consistent with the idea that  
387 IDS and CDS boost suprasegmental information to aid the mapping of phonological units by language-  
388 learning individuals (Fernald, 2000). Neurophysiological studies show that infants and children rely  
389 more on suprasegmental/prosodic than syllabic information for tracking and segmenting continuous  
390 speech (Attaheri et al., 2022; Ríos-López et al., 2020), which may help to explain the enhanced delta  
391 band modulation energy in Spanish CDS. Despite this enhancement of delta-band modulations, and as  
392 expected, the modulation spectrum for this syllable-timed language peaked in the theta band for both  
393 Spanish CDS and ADS, as has previously been reported across languages for ADS (e.g., Ding, Patel, et  
394 al., 2017; Greenberg et al., 2003). However, ADS showed significantly more modulation energy in the  
395 theta band compared to CDS. This might indicate that the temporal regularities of ADS are more  
396 systematic at the syllabic timescale, either because syllables are a fundamental temporal landmark for  
397 adult neurocognitive speech processing abilities (Doelling et al., 2014; Ghitza, 2012), or because the  
398 receivers and producers of ADS are literate (Araujo et al., 2018), or both.

399 Our findings of higher delta-theta PSIs in CDS utterances suggest that stressed syllables are temporally  
400 more regularly placed in CDS than in ADS. Indeed, prior speech modelling work has shown that delta-  
401 theta AM phase relationships underpin speech rhythm perception (Leong et al., 2014), with AM peak

402 synchronization helping to determine the perceived metrical patterning of utterances such as trochaic  
403 versus iambic. Given the syllable-timed nature of Spanish, the greater predictability of syllable stress  
404 may help the phonological mapping of Spanish by language-learning individuals. Our data thus  
405 contribute to the current evidence on continuous speech rhythmicity, by showing that, at utterance level,  
406 CDS is more rhythmic than ADS. Our findings concerning rhythmicity are also in line with previous  
407 adult studies that have contextualized the temporal regularities of speech within local (utterance level)  
408 stress patterns (Arvaniti, 2009; Nolan & Jeon, 2014; Tilsen & Arvaniti, 2013). Indeed, there is recent  
409 evidence for local prosodic stress regularities in ADS in different languages (e.g., Inbar et al., 2020;  
410 Stehwien & Meyer, 2021). The slower syllable rate in CDS relative to ADS is also of relevance when  
411 comparing temporal statistics. In summary, CDS appears to offer a continuous speech stream that is  
412 easier to segment via slower speech rate (fewer syllables per second), greater rhythmicity (predictability  
413 of occurrence of stressed syllables), and the enhancement of delta-band speech information. In line with  
414 this interpretation, previous evidence shows that while adult neurocognitive mechanisms adapt to  
415 different speech rates within the 4 – 7 Hz range (e.g., Foulke & Sticht, 1969; Ghitza, 2011; Lizarazu et  
416 al., 2019), children’s comprehension abilities benefit from slower speech rates (Berry & Erickson, 1973;  
417 Haake et al., 2014; Montgomery, 2004; Riding & Vincent, 1980). The adapted temporal statistics in  
418 Spanish CDS demonstrated here could thus aid comprehension by children as well as facilitating the  
419 development of a phonological system. The enhanced local (utterance-level) temporal regularities of  
420 CDS, whether it is read or spoken, provide a set of temporal statistics that can be exploited by children’s  
421 neurocognitive mechanisms for statistical (Romberg & Saffran, 2010) and distributional learning (see  
422 Banai & Ahissar, 2018 for a review). Sensitivity to these AM-related statistics would enable a listening  
423 child to build increasingly more robust phonological representations at word and syllable level. Indeed,  
424 the mapping of speech temporal statistics is known to be inefficient in individuals with phonological  
425 deficits such as dyslexia (Ahissar et al., 2006; Banai & Ahissar, 2018; Goswami, 2011; Leong &  
426 Goswami, 2017). Previous studies with adults have also shown prosodic (Inbar et al., 2020) and syllabic  
427 (Ding, Patel, et al., 2017) regularities across languages. However, our results highlight that greater  
428 temporal synchronization between delta-rate and theta-rate AMs may be a specific characteristic of

429 CDS (in contrast to ADS). This finding is consistent with an ‘acoustic-emergent’ perspective regarding  
430 phonological development from infancy onwards (Leong & Goswami, 2015).

431 Regarding potential cross-language universality, it is notable that Leong et al., (2017) found the same  
432 enhanced delta-rate to theta-rate AM synchronisation as found here in English IDS when compared to  
433 English ADS, hence in a stress-timed language. This may imply that there are certain key AM statistics  
434 that are universal concerning the temporal regularities present in the amplitude envelope of speech  
435 directed to young learners. As these two languages are typically grouped into two different rhythmic  
436 categories (i.e., English, stress-timed; and Spanish, syllable-timed), the current findings may point in  
437 principle towards an enhanced rhythmic organization of speech when addressing language learners,  
438 regardless of the rhythmic timing of a specific language. We propose that at the very early stages of  
439 language development, infants are presented with speech inputs that contain higher pitch (Fernald,  
440 2000), enhanced delta-band modulation energy and prominent rhythm (delta-theta AM phase  
441 synchronization), the latter providing temporal landmarks to begin the task of speech segmentation in  
442 the form of identifying and predicting the placement of stressed syllables (Leong et al., 2017; Cutler &  
443 Norris, 1988). Thus, infants can rely on salient spectro-temporal information that is boosted in IDS to  
444 orient their attention to acoustic cues relevant to extracting phonological information. As lexical  
445 knowledge develops and children progress in their word segmentation skills, the temporal regularity in  
446 CDS is exploited to parse the stress patterns characterizing whole-word phonological forms. This may  
447 be of particular relevance in languages that, like Spanish, have a greater proportion of multi-syllabic  
448 words than English. Once an efficient language processing system has developed, ADS can then contain  
449 less regular temporal statistics, as such regular statistics are not required to aid segmentation. Indeed,  
450 adults can adapt their linguistic processing via the over-learned temporal predictions of proficient  
451 language models (e.g., Molinaro et al., 2021; Ten Oever & Martin, 2020).

452 However, additional cross-linguistic evidence in languages belonging to other rhythmic categories (e.g.,  
453 the mora-timed rhythms of Japanese), as well as in languages in which lexical stress is completely  
454 predictable (e.g., French), or has different degrees of unpredictability (e.g., Basque) is required to test  
455 this cross-language developmental hypothesis. Such studies could help to further our understanding of

456 the possible enhancement of delta-theta phase synchronization in CDS and its potential role in  
457 phonological development. In addition to cross-linguistic evidence, cross-cultural investigations are  
458 needed to contextualize these findings regarding the temporal regularities of child-adapted speech, as  
459 there are also cultural and socioeconomic factors that shape the quantity and quality of IDS and CDS  
460 (Cristia et al., 2019; Schick et al., 2022; see Cristia, 2022 for a systematic review). Although there is  
461 evidence of the maturation of cortical tracking of delta-rate versus theta-rate AMs in infants (Attaheri  
462 et al., 2021) and children (Ríos-López et al., 2020), as well as about the potential role that it has for  
463 phonological development and reading acquisition (Ríos-López et al., 2021), further studies are needed  
464 to fill the gap regarding the emergence of cortical tracking of syllables from infancy and during  
465 childhood, and how this may be aided by the temporal regularities of IDS and CDS.

466 In closing, our data are also relevant to evaluating the Temporal Sampling hypothesis of developmental  
467 dyslexia, which suggests that there is a specific link between delta- and theta-rate AM sensitivity and  
468 phonological development during the first years of life across languages (Goswami, 2011; Goswami et  
469 al., 2016; Goswami, Wang, et al., 2010; Vanvooren et al., 2017). Longitudinal neurophysiological  
470 evidence in Spanish shows that cortical tracking of speech in children relies mainly on prosodic (delta  
471 band) acoustic information (Ríos-López et al., 2020, 2021), and a similar pattern is found longitudinally  
472 for infants in English (Attaheri et al., 2022). Indeed, a recent study by Menn et al. (2022) in Dutch found  
473 that the cortical tracking of the delta AM rate in infants predicted their later vocabulary knowledge. Our  
474 findings are consistent with such evidence, showing that enhanced temporal regularities within the delta  
475 frequency band (0.5-2.5 Hz, the timescale of stressed syllables) occur more reliably in CDS (as  
476 previously shown in English IDS, Leong et al., 2017) than in ADS. Moreover, our results are broadly  
477 in line with the Temporal Sampling hypothesis from the perspective of the importance of temporal AM  
478 statistics <10 Hz for phonological development. Future studies that directly compare IDS, CDS and  
479 ADS could help to delineate the developmental sequence of the temporal regularities that an emerging  
480 phonological system needs to map in order to aid comprehension and language learning.

## 481 **CRedit authorship contribution statement**

482 **Jose Pérez-Navarro:** Conceptualization, Formal Analysis, Investigation, Software, Visualization,  
483 Writing – original draft, Writing – review & editing. **Marie Lallier:** Conceptualization, Writing –  
484 original draft, Writing – review & editing. **Catherine Clark:** Investigation. **Sheila Flanagan:** Formal  
485 Analysis, Methodology, Software, Visualization, Writing – review & editing. **Usha Goswami:**  
486 Conceptualization, Writing – original draft, Writing – review & editing.

## 487 **Declaration of competing interest**

488 The authors do not have known competing financial interests or personal relationships that can influence  
489 the investigation reported in this article.

## 490 **Data availability statement**

491 All code used for processing, analysis and visualization is available at the [Open Science Framework](#)  
492 [project's repository](#). Given that participants provided personal information in their speech recordings,  
493 we only share some audio snippets that do not compromise their anonymity. Nonetheless, all  
494 preprocessed files are available at the project's repository to ensure the reproducibility of our analyses.

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771 **Supplemental materials**

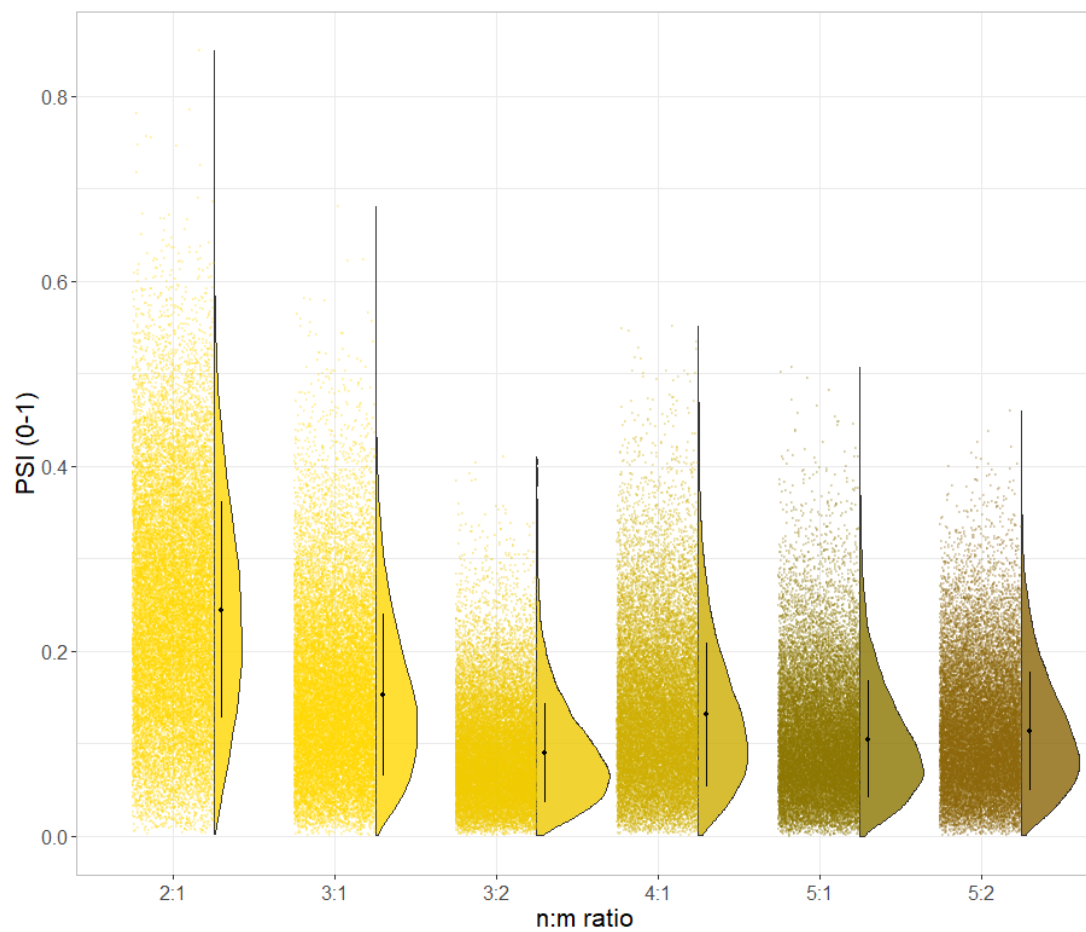
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$$\text{PSI} = | \langle e^{i(n\theta_1 - m\theta_2)} \rangle |$$

774 **S1.** Formula of cross-frequency phase synchronization index (PSI).

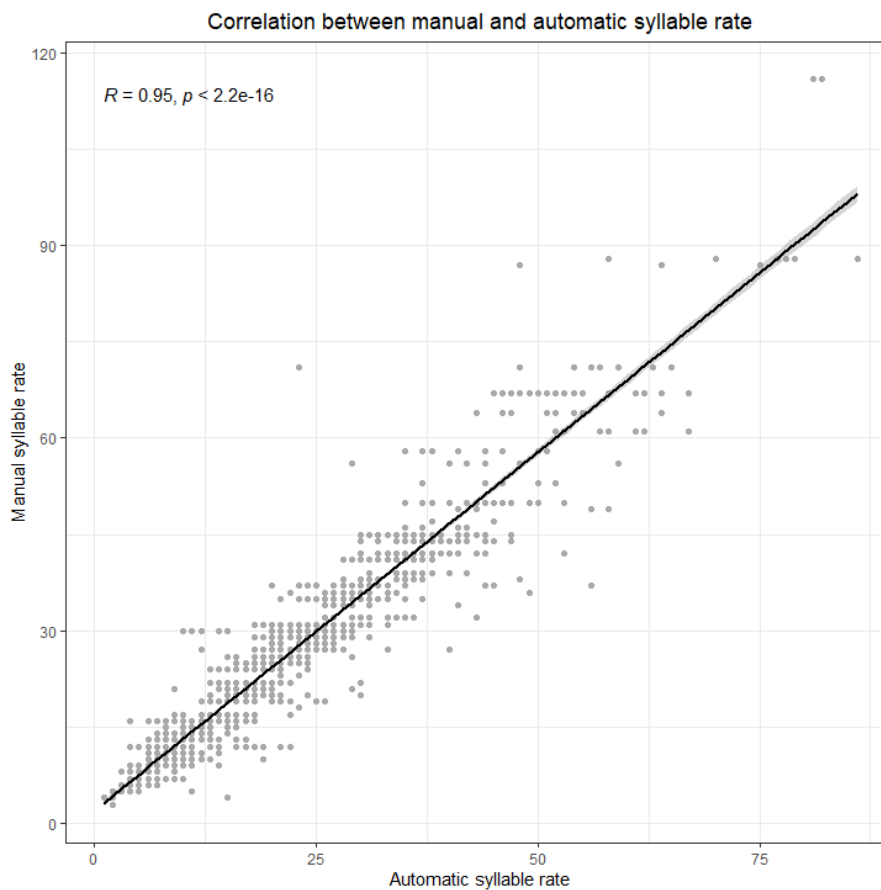
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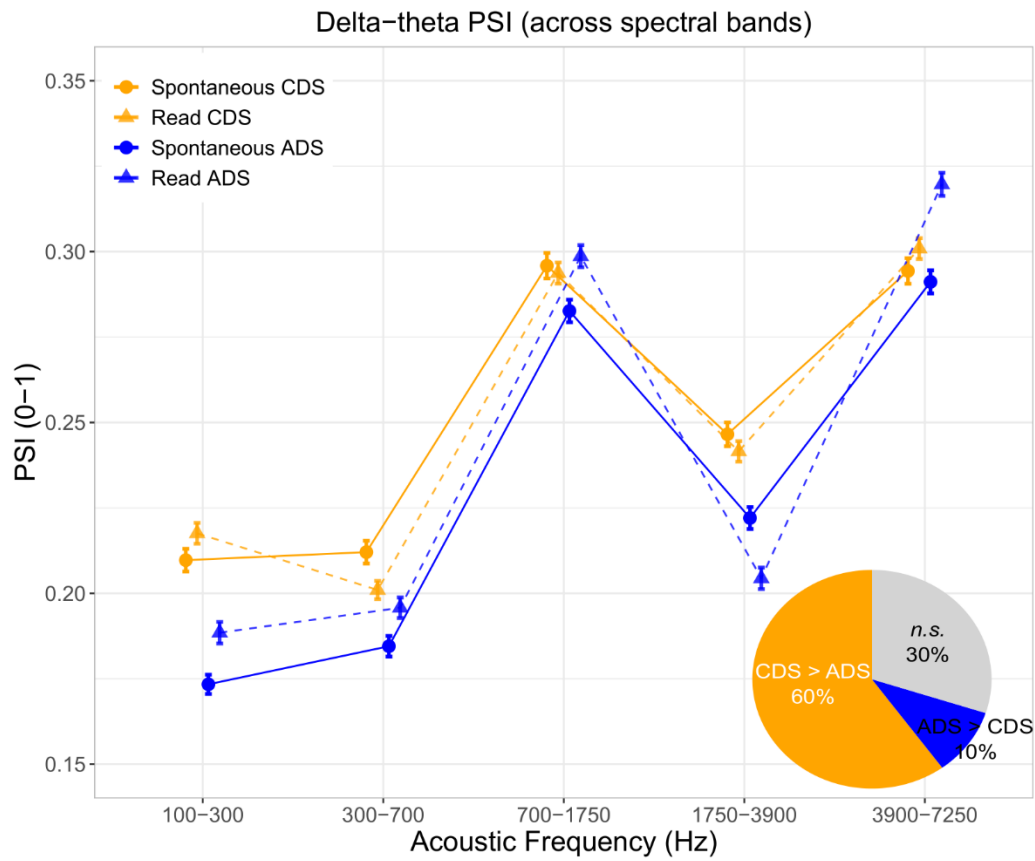
777 **S2.** Delta-theta PSI values across different n:m ratios. The point within each distribution represents the  
 778 mean, and the bars represent standard deviations.

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781 **S3.** Pearson correlation between manual and automatic syllable rate computation. Correlation index at  
782 the top left corner.



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784 **S4.** Delta-theta PSI across speaking conditions and spectral bands. Error bars represent standard error  
 785 of the mean. Pie plot in the bottom right corner represents the percentage of Tukey HSD contrasts for  
 786 which PSI is higher for CDS (orange), ADS (blue), or resulted in a non-significant difference (gray,  
 787 adjusted p-threshold = .05).