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**The Influence of Shyness on Language Assessment**

Liesl Melnick and Sarah C. Kucker

Department of Psychology, Oklahoma State University, Stillwater, OK

**Author Note**

Sarah C. Kucker  <https://orcid.org/0000-0003-2210-3599>

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Correspondences should be addressed to Sarah C. Kucker, 116 Psychology Building, Stillwater, OK 74075. Email: [sarah.kucker@okstate.edu](mailto:sarah.kucker@okstate.edu)

23 **Abstract**

24 **Purpose:** One understudied component that can influence children's performance on  
25 language assessments is shyness. The goal of this study is to examine how shyness affects a  
26 child's performance on language assessments which vary in sociability. We hypothesized that  
27 accuracy on language tasks would be driven by shyness such that shy children would perform  
28 better on non-sociable tasks compared to sociable tasks.

29 **Methods:** The procedures followed a quasi-experimental design. 122 participants, ages  
30 17-to-42 months, varied in their temperament and each underwent a series of language tasks. The  
31 order of tasks was randomized and included three different language tasks that varied in the  
32 social interaction required: a looking task, pointing task, and production task. Parents reported  
33 their child's shyness level via the ECBQ. Data was collected via Zoom.

34 **Results:** Shyness was compared with participant's accuracy across the three tests while  
35 controlling for age and vocabulary percentile. There were significant differences in children's  
36 performance across the tasks, with respect to shyness. Shyer children performed much worse on  
37 the production task compared to less shy children ( $\beta = -.05, p = .033$ ). For the pointing task,  
38 shyness interacted with age to impact performance ( $\beta = -.37, p = .042$ ). Shyness had no impact  
39 on performance on the looking task ( $\beta = .03, p = .10$ ).

40 **Conclusions:** As shown by these results, shy children and less shy children respond  
41 differentially to three methods of language assessment. It is important for clinicians to  
42 acknowledge shyness when choosing an appropriate assessment of children's language. Future  
43 direction includes examining in-person effects of shyness on language assessment.

## 44 **Introduction**

45 Children's temperament drives their responses to the environment around them, including  
46 what they interact with and the nature of their interaction. Temperament also influences what and  
47 how people learn, and how to assess that learning. At the same time, children's behavior and  
48 learning are shaped by the environment. This is especially true in language assessment where the  
49 style of tasks and settings may vary widely. By the time children are nearly two years old, they  
50 have a robust vocabulary. However, in order to demonstrate they know a word, the child's own  
51 temperament, the environment, and task at hand together must support a child's ability to bring  
52 that knowledge to bear in a given moment.

53 The current study probes how temperament influences children's response to a series of  
54 language assessment tasks. Specifically, unique types of vocabulary and methodological tasks  
55 have different demands, especially in the amount of social interaction they require (i.e. if they  
56 require talking, gesturing, and other interactions). This variability in tasks may differentially  
57 impact performance, leading to incongruent conclusions about a child's vocabulary. The key  
58 question here is to what extent a child's temperament, in combination with the task constraints,  
59 ought to be considered to obtain a valid and reliable measure of vocabulary.

## 60 **Relationship between language and shyness**

61 Shyness, a facet of temperament, can be defined as feelings of distress and tension within  
62 social situations, specifically apprehension, awkwardness, or self-consciousness (Buss & Plomin,  
63 1984). Researchers refer to shyness as an "approach-avoidance conflict." That is, shy children  
64 want social interaction, but at the same time, they are inhibited by their social fear (Asendorpf,  
65 1990). Unlike broader dimensions of temperament like effortful control or surgency, shyness  
66 specifically encompasses a child's approach/avoidance to their surroundings, especially social

67 interaction. It is also important to note that shyness differs from both social anxiety and  
68 introversion, such that social anxiety is an extreme form of shyness that also includes high  
69 elements of neuroticism (Hofmann & DiBartolo, 2010) and shyness manifests as a combination  
70 of both introversion and neuroticism (Briggs, 1988). Additionally, there are several factors that  
71 influence the development of shyness, including environmental factors such as parental  
72 interactions, peers, sex differences, and other experiences (Eggum et al., 2009).

73 Shyness begins to develop at a very young age. In infancy, shyness manifests as anxiety,  
74 discomfort, and fearfulness of novel or uncertain scenarios, including strangers (Buss & Plomin,  
75 1984, Putnam et al, 2006), developing to be more about behavioral inhibition in social situations  
76 by the time children hit adolescence (Putman & Rothbart, 2006). During their second year of life,  
77 children develop a sense of self and an understanding of social behavioral standards, allowing  
78 them to experience self-conscious emotions and anxiety over other people's evaluation (Emde et  
79 al., 2001).

80 The same period in which shyness begins to emerge, children's language skills are  
81 rapidly developing, so it is not surprising that the two are related. For instance, temperament  
82 types such as positive emotionality, attention, and social orientation are related to a larger  
83 vocabulary size (Usai et al., 2009 & Dixon & Shore, 1997). Additionally, shyness is related to  
84 poorer language skills (Evans 1993, Slomkowski et al 1992, Spere et al, 2004). The interaction  
85 of shyness and language is a fundamental part of the definition of shyness, such that an element  
86 of shyness includes talking less or being generally quieter (Buss & Plomin, 1984, Crozier, 1995,  
87 Coplan & Evans, 2009). Not surprisingly, research has supported this phenomenon,  
88 demonstrating that shy children tend to speak less in unfamiliar situations (Asendorpf & Meier,

89 1993). In particular, shyness is relevant for language because it could hinder a child's ability to  
90 effectively interact with others.

91         Certain contexts may hinder shy children's language use more than others due to their  
92 reticence in novel situations, especially those that are social in nature and directly tap traits of  
93 shyness (see also Smith Watts et al., 2014). Research supports this idea, suggesting that shyness  
94 negatively influences children's performance on language assessments or tests in a variety of  
95 settings. Hilton and Westermann (2017) show that in an experimental setting, children who are  
96 shy are less likely to identify the correct novel object as a referent of a novel label when  
97 compared to less shy children. Additionally, shy children tend to score lower on receptive and  
98 expressive language tasks compared to sociable children (Spere et al, 2004). Furthermore, there  
99 is evidence that shy children typically speak less, with shorter utterances, and perform poorly  
100 on language assessments, especially in expressive language assessments (Evans, 1993).  
101 However, research is unclear if these findings stem from the socially demanding circumstances  
102 of the language assessment (e.g., the constraints of the task or environment), or from poorer  
103 language skills since no studies have examined multiple types of assessments with social  
104 interaction as the key element of examination. Additionally, while most temperament work has  
105 been done with children in preschool or older, language learning begins occurring much earlier,  
106 and examining younger populations may be beneficial.

107         One hypothesis, attempting to explain the relationship between shyness and language, is  
108 called the "I know it but won't say it" model (Coplan & Evans, 2009). This hypothesis states that  
109 the reason shy children struggle to perform on language tasks is not because they are  
110 linguistically incapable, but rather because their shyness inhibits them from demonstrating their  
111 knowledge. In support of this theory is the anxiety-performance hypothesis. The anxiety-

112 performance hypothesis is based on evidence that shyness occurs frequently in novel  
113 environments, in evaluative settings, and among unfamiliar individuals (Asendorpf, 1989). That  
114 is, the conditions of language assessment, such as social demands, may heighten children's  
115 shyness and thus influence performance on language tests (Crozier & Hostettler, 2003). Crozier  
116 and Hostettler (2003) tested this phenomenon and found that shy children performed much better  
117 on vocabulary tests in a group environment rather than in a one-on-one, face-to-face condition.  
118 This evidence – as well as evidence that shy children perform better on receptive language tasks  
119 compared to expressive language tasks (Hilton & Westermann, 2017; Spere et al, 2004; Evans  
120 1993, Spere & Evans, 2009) – indicates that less social tasks may lead to better performance for  
121 shy children. Thus, it is possible that shyness does not inhibit language development, but rather  
122 that social elements prevent them from demonstrating their linguistic abilities within the frame of  
123 assessments and tests.

#### 124 **Variability across types of language assessments**

125         Accurate assessment of speech and communication disorders is vital to an individual's  
126 success and clinician's work. However, assessments vary greatly in the degree of social  
127 interaction required, which may differentially impact performance and the validity of such  
128 assessments. For instance, current standardized language assessments and tests can range from  
129 measurement of expressive language skills (e.g. EVT; Williams, 2019) to receptive language  
130 skills (e.g. PPVT; Dunn, 1997) to reports of vocabulary size (e.g. MCDI; Fenson et al., 1994), or  
131 even novel word learning abilities (e.g. QUILS; Golinkoff et al., 2017). In addition, language  
132 assessment in the clinic and lab often utilize speech samples and naturalistic conversations to  
133 support their assessment. Some of these formats require lots of social interaction (i.e., talking,  
134 reaching, and more) between the child and administrator which likely interact with a child's

135 temperament and thus, could affect that child's performance on the task. That is, since shy  
136 children feel apprehensive towards unfamiliar situations (Putnam et al, 2006), they may be less  
137 likely to socially interact with the administrator of a language assessment to respond to the  
138 prompt, even if they have strong language skills. A child's shyness (not just their vocabulary  
139 knowledge) may interact with the social demands of a task at hand to predict performance.

140         One method that is particularly low in social demands (and thus, possibly less influenced  
141 by shyness) are looking-based tasks. The most well-known example of this is the Intermodal  
142 Preferential Looking procedure (IPLP; Golinkoff et al., 1987). The IPLP assesses the emergence  
143 of vocabulary without requiring children to indicate their understanding through a purposeful  
144 action. In the IPLP, children are shown two images side-by-side and are told a word which  
145 matches one of the images. Then, their eye movement is recorded to determine which image they  
146 looked at for a longer period of time. This method measures language comprehension without  
147 requiring the child to speak or interact with the administrator (Golinkoff et al., 1987). Several  
148 studies demonstrate that IPLP and similar looking-based tasks reliably measures vocabulary  
149 comprehension across a variety of ages and demographic groups (Golinkoff et al, 2013; Behrend,  
150 1990; Houston-Price et al 2007; Robinson et al, 2000). However, there are still some concerns  
151 about drop-out rates of children (Segal et al, 2021; Klein-Radukic & Zmyj, 2015). Indeed, Frank  
152 et al (2016) found that significantly more trials were dropped when children were tested in an  
153 eye-tracker compared to a storybook condition. This suggests that testing children's known  
154 comprehension, especially in looking-based tests, is far from a perfect metric. Importantly, little  
155 is known about how temperament might influence performance.

156         Many methods of vocabulary tests require more social interaction from the children  
157 compared to looking-based tasks. For example, a pointing or reaching method requires children

158 to point to or select an item from a variety of options that matches the linguistic stimulus, or a  
159 word. An example of this is the Peabody Picture Vocabulary Test (PPVT), (PPVT-R; Dunn,  
160 1997), which requires children to point to images in a booklet. Many standardized lab-based  
161 word learning tasks also require similar pointing or selecting behaviors (Heibeck and Markman,  
162 1987; Stelmachowicz et al, 2004). Because shy children struggle with interactive behaviors  
163 (Putnam et al, 2006), receptive language tasks or assessments may be more difficult for them  
164 compared to less shy children (see also Hilton & Westerman, 2017). Indeed, Gurteen and  
165 colleagues (2011) tested children ages 13- to 17-month-year-olds in two different tasks,  
166 preferential looking versus preferential reaching, in word comprehension and novel word  
167 learning and found that children performed well at the preferential looking measure, but more  
168 poorly at the preferential reaching task. This suggests that the type of task matters, though how  
169 temperament plays into such differences is unknown.

170         A third, more socially demanding, approach for capturing children's linguistic abilities is  
171 through productive or expressive means that require children to verbalize their response.  
172 Expressive language skills can be measured through assessments such as the Test of Auditory  
173 Analysis Skills (TAAS; Rosner, 1979), Expressive One Word Picture Vocabulary Test  
174 (EOWPVT; Expressive One Word Picture Vocabulary Test, 2018), or through naturalistic  
175 observation of children's conversation and speech with adults. Comparatively, research shows  
176 that shy children tend to perform worse on expressive language tasks than receptive language  
177 tasks (Hilton & Westermann, 2017; Spere et al, 2004; Evans 1993, Spere & Evans, 2009).

178         Because linguistic tests are usually performed face-to-face and require social interaction  
179 with people unfamiliar to a child, the social nature of the environment could interact with  
180 children's shyness to hinder their performance. Thus, when interpreting the results of language



181 tasks, it is essential to differentiate between measuring children's competence and performance  
182 (Crozier, 1997). To understand this problem, Crozier (1997) recommends examining  
183 performance across a variety of situations or testing conditions that vary in social demands.  
184 Thus, the aim of the current study is to address this concern.

### 185 **Current Study**

186         The goal of this study is to examine the influence of shyness on performance on language  
187 assessment tasks that vary in degrees of social interaction, but are nearly identical in stimuli,  
188 setting, and cognitive demands. To do this, children's degree of shyness was compared with their  
189 accuracy across three different language tasks that vary in the social interaction required: a  
190 looking task, pointing task, and production language task. The hypothesis was that even after  
191 accounting for age effects, accuracy on language tasks will be driven by shyness. That is, that  
192 there will be a negative correlation between shyness and accuracy on all tasks, but the strength of  
193 the correlation will vary based on the task such that the relationship will be stronger for more  
194 socially demanding tasks (i.e., require children to verbally interact with the experimenter) and  
195 weaker for looking/reaching tasks. In addition, the prediction was that less shy children will be  
196 equally accurate across all tasks.

## 197 **Methods**

### 198 **Participants**

199         Participants were parents and their children, ages 17-to-42 months, who were recruited  
200 online. 122 monolingual English-speaking children participated and were primarily from the  
201 central southern United States. See Table I for demographic information. Each participant was  
202 compensated with a \$20 Amazon gift card. An additional 5 children were dropped from the  
203 analysis for being bilingual ( $n = 3$ ) or due to internet connectivity issues ( $n = 2$ ).

**204 Materials/Stimuli****205 *Word/item list***

206 A list of 24 nouns were used for the vocabulary tests, all taken from “Wordbank” (Frank  
207 et al, 2017). The words selected had the highest probability of being known by children at 17  
208 months and had a typical or universal image which corresponded with it (e.g., the word  
209 “Momma” does not have a universal image, while “shoe” might). Approximately five images of  
210 each target word were found online. These images were normed by members of the lab (n = 14)  
211 blind to the study goals, who were instructed to select the closest image to the target word,  
212 keeping in mind that the pictures were for children, or note none of the options and explain why.  
213 Images with mixed responses were then re-assessed to ensure that they were “normal” for that  
214 target word and appropriate for children. These word-image pairs were then used in the final data  
215 sheets. Final images can be found in Appendix 1 and on OSF:

216 [https://osf.io/hwrma/?view\\_only=905f836347114826a54e57d6d1c10cf1](https://osf.io/hwrma/?view_only=905f836347114826a54e57d6d1c10cf1) .

**217 *Temperament***

218 The Early Child Behavior Questionnaire (ECBQ) - short form (Putnam et al, 2006) was  
219 used to measure temperament. The ECBQ is designed to capture parent-reported temperament  
220 for children from 12-36 months old. The questions ask parents to rate how often their children  
221 perform a certain behavior on a scale of 1 to 7. Responses are clustered according to three  
222 temperament dimensions: effortful control (EC), negative affect (NA), and surgency (S).  
223 Additionally, within these dimensions, 18 sub-dimensions are measured: activity level/energy  
224 (S), attentional shifting (EC), attentional focusing (EC), cuddliness (EC), discomfort (NA), fear  
225 (NA), frustration (NA), high-intensity pleasure (S), impulsivity (S), inhibitory control (EC), low-  
226 intensity pleasure (EC), motor activation (NA), perceptual sensitivity (NA), positive anticipation

227 (S), sadness (NA), shyness (NA), sociability (S), and soothability (NA). The sub-dimension of  
228 shyness was the focus for the current study. The ECBQ-short form includes a total of 107 items,  
229 of which 5 correspond to the shyness subscale. An example of an item on the ECBQ is: “when  
230 approached by an unfamiliar person in a public place, how often did your children pull back and  
231 avoid the person?” (Putnam et al, 2006). Research scored the questionnaire according to the  
232 standard practice (Putnam et al, 2006) and children were given a score from 1 to 7, with 1 being  
233 the least shy and 7 being the shyest. Data from the other dimensions can be found on OSF.

### 234 *Vocabulary*

235 The MacArthur-Bates Communicative Development Inventory (MCDI) (Fenson et al.,  
236 1994) was used to assess children’s vocabulary. Caregivers completed either the Words and  
237 Sentences (for children 17-30-months; Fenson et al., 1994) or MCDI-III (for children 30-37-  
238 months; Dale & Fenson, 1996) depending on their child’s age. Because different vocabulary  
239 metrics were used because of the wide age range and each has their own norms, instead of raw  
240 vocabulary size, each child’s normative vocabulary percentile score was used in the analyses.  
241 Because vocabulary percentile is also used to assess children’s language delays, such as if they  
242 are a late talker (< 20<sup>th</sup> percentile), the inclusion here can also give insight on how relative  
243 vocabulary abilities for one’s age impact performance on these tasks.

### 244 **Procedure**

245 Parents first completed the consent form, the ECBQ (Putnam et al, 2006), the MCDI, and  
246 demographic information via a web link within a few days of the language tasks (M = 1.45 days,  
247 SD = 3.77). The language tasks were conducted via Zoom through a PowerPoint presentation.  
248 The Zoom meeting was recorded, and children’s responses were coded offline by research  
249 assistants blind to the hypothesis and child’s temperament. Children were seated in their parent’s

250 lap or on their own and parents were instructed to adjust the camera as needed to center on the  
251 child. Parents were instructed to remain silent and only offer neutral redirection if needed.

252         Three different types of tasks were given to the participants, each which measured  
253 vocabulary but varied in social elements. From requiring the most sociability to requiring the  
254 least sociability, the three tasks were: production task, a pointing task, and a looking task. In the  
255 production task, the experimenter directly asked the child to verbally name objects by showing a  
256 single image on the screen, and asking, “what is this?” In the pointing task, the child was  
257 instructed to point or reach for an image on the screen. Here, each trial contained two different  
258 images on either side of the screen, and the experimenter asked, “Can you point to the (target  
259 word)?” In the looking task, the child was instructed to simply look at the correct object. Each  
260 trial contained two images on either side of the screen and the experimenter prompted, “Look at  
261 the (target word).” Prompts were given immediately after the image appeared on the screen.

262         The order of tasks was randomized, and each participant was given each task once. Each  
263 task began with 1-2 warm-up trials in which children were offered correction and praise as  
264 needed: 1 trial for the production task and two warm-up trials for pointing and looking (one  
265 warm-up target per side of the screen). This was followed with six test trials with no  
266 praise/correction. Additionally, for each trial, experimenters only prompted the participant twice  
267 and then moved on, even if they did not respond. Orders of words and word pairs as well as task  
268 order were randomized.

### 269 **Coding**

270         Different coding was used for each task. For each task, research assistants were blind to  
271 the hypothesis and child’s temperament and achieved 90% reliability on a set of practice children  
272 prior to beginning to code. In all cases, children whose response matched the target were coded

273 as correct. Any response that was not to the target was marked as “not correct”; this could  
274 include a choice to the foil item, an ambiguous answer, or a lack of a response all together. The  
275 latter no responses were included in the analysis (vs. being dropped from analysis) as would be  
276 done in standard language assessments as a lack of response may also indicate shyness (i.e. a  
277 reticence to reply).

### 278 *Production*

279 The production task was coded for the correct number of phonemes that the children used  
280 per response to the prompt. To do this, coders recorded which phonemes were said correctly or  
281 incorrectly (or not at all) within their prompt. Misarticulation or accent variations of the correct  
282 phoneme was still considered correct. For example, if the correct response was “bee” and child’s  
283 response was a southern-accented “beh”, it was marked as correct, but if the child produced  
284 “bug” then the response would be considered 50% correct. A lack of a response was marked as  
285 0% correct. Only 8.6% of the not-correct responses were from non-responses rather than  
286 incorrect phonemes. 68% of children were reliability coded with 92.47% agreement between  
287 coders. Any discrepancies were settled by a 3rd coder.

### 288 *Pointing*

289 To code the pointing trials, research assistants determined children’s response by  
290 indicating which item they pointed to in response to the prompt. While some children pointed to  
291 a single item, other children’s points were ambiguous or appeared to have changed their mind.  
292 Therefore, children’s final response was taken as their choices. If the choice was to the foil or it  
293 was unclear which item was the children’s final choice, it was marked as not correct. 57% of  
294 trials marked as not correct were due to an ambiguous point or lack of response. 69% of children

295 were reliability coded with 89.96% agreement between coders. Any discrepancies were settled  
296 by a 3rd coder.

### 297 ***Looking***

298 For the looking trials, a frame-by-frame coding was used using ELAN. Starting at the end  
299 of the final word of the prompt, the coders recorded the direction of the participant's gaze for  
300 each frame (every 33ms). That is, they recorded if the participant's gaze was to the left, to the  
301 right, in between the two, or looking away from the screen. Two metrics were extracted from  
302 this: total looking time to the target on each trial and moment-to-moment gaze trajectories across  
303 each time bin (each 33ms frame segment) within a trial. The percentage of total time a child  
304 spent looking at the target on each trial was calculated for their overall accuracy. For moment-to-  
305 moment looking, average time children looked to the target in each time bin (each 33ms frame  
306 segment) were averaged across all 6 trials. 13% of children were reliability coded with 85.31%  
307 agreement between coders. Any discrepancies were settled by a 3rd coder.

### 308 **Analysis**

309 This study sought to understand the differences between children's performance on three  
310 language tasks which differed in their methodological design (e.g., level of sociability required)  
311 and their degree of shyness. The hypothesis was that accuracy across tasks would depend on  
312 children's degree of shyness; that is, shyness would predict children's performance such that  
313 shyer children performed more poorly on social tasks than non-social tasks. To test this  
314 hypothesis, two sets of analyses were run. All children who completed at least one trial in a task  
315 were included, and all trials in which the child was visibly present and/or could be heard were  
316 included in the analysis. First, bivariate correlations between shyness, age, vocabulary percentile,  
317 and task accuracy were run to give an overview of relations between variables. Second and most

318 importantly, mixed model regressions were used to assess trial-by-trial accuracy as predicted by  
319 a child's shyness, age, and normative vocabulary. Trial number was included as a co-variate to  
320 account for possible changes in accuracy as shy children warmed up to the task and  
321 experimenter. The first model included "task" as a predictor in order to determine if there were  
322 differences across the tasks. As described below, this was significant and thus, follow-up models  
323 examined the tasks individually. Fixed factors in both regressions included shyness score as  
324 measured on the ECBQ (centered), age (in days, centered), vocabulary percentile (normative  
325 vocabulary rank), and trial number. Possible random intercepts included participant and item; the  
326 best fitting model in most cases included both random effects. For visualization purposes only,  
327 participants were separated into a shy and non-shy group based on a median split of shyness  
328 score (median = 3.75). All analyses were preregistered and completed as planned here with  
329 additional analysis noted as exploratory. A priori power analyses estimated the sample collected  
330 here would be sufficient to detect a small-medium effect size.

### 331 **Results**

332 Overall, children were able to complete the tasks easily despite the virtual modality. In  
333 the production task, all children were presented with all six trials and across all children, were  
334 accurate 54.4% of the time (SD = .47, range = 0 - 1). In the pointing task, two children were  
335 dropped for being out of view and unable to be coded; the rest of the children were largely  
336 accurate (77.1%, SD = .32, range = 0 - 1). In the looking task, eight children were out of frame  
337 and thus, visibility of their eyes was limited. All children for whom eyes were visible were  
338 presented with all six trials. However, as further explained below, children performed rather  
339 poorly in this task with an overall accuracy of looking to the target 51.1% of the time on each  
340 trial (SD = .42, range = 0 - 1).

**341 Correlation Analysis**

342 First, bivariate correlations between accuracy on each task were compared to the child's  
343 age, vocabulary percentile, and shyness score. Most importantly, shyness was correlated with  
344 pointing accuracy, and production accuracy, but not target looking. See Table 2.

**345 Regression: all tasks together**

346 Logistic mixed model regressions were used to assess trial-by-trial accuracy across tasks.  
347 The first full model included fixed factors of shyness (centered) and task (sum coded), which  
348 interacted with age, trial number, and vocabulary percentile (all centered). The best fitting model  
349 included random intercepts of both subject and item. There were significant effects of task, age,  
350 and vocabulary percentile. There were also significant interactions. See Table 3.

351 Overall, shyer children tended to perform worse on the production task, while shyness  
352 did not impact performance on the looking task (see Figure 1). Importantly, age impacted each  
353 task differently (see Figure 2) such that older children performed much better on production, and  
354 slightly better on pointing, but relatively the same as younger children on looking. Finally,  
355 children with a higher normative vocabulary tended to perform much better on production, and  
356 slightly better on pointing, but relatively the same as children with lower vocabulary percentile  
357 on looking (see Figure 3). Because of these task effects, each task was further analyzed  
358 individually.

**359 Regression: Production**

360 A linear mixed model was used to assess the proportion of correct phonemes on each trial  
361 in the production task. Fixed factors included shyness score (centered), age (centered),  
362 vocabulary percentile (centered), and trial. Shyness was allowed to interact with the other  
363 factors. The best fitting model included a random intercept of both subject and item. There were



364 no significant interactions, but there were significant main effects - all children increased  
365 performance with age, with lower shyness children consistently performing better than the higher  
366 shyness children (Table 4, Figure 4). All shyness levels increased performance with vocabulary  
367 percentile, with low shyness children consistently performing better than high shyness  
368 individuals (see Figure 5). Likewise, as shyness increased, performance on production decreased  
369 (see Figure 1). The majority of “not correct” responses on these trials were incorrect phonemes.  
370 Interestingly, however, while only 8.6% of “not correct” trials were No-Responses (NR;  
371 compared to incorrect phonemes) ( $n = 68$ ), 35% ( $n = 24$  trials) of those NR trials were from less-  
372 shy children while 64.7% ( $n = 44$ ) were more shy children.

### 373 **Regression: Pointing**

374 A logistic mixed model regression was used to assess trial by trial performance on the  
375 pointing task. Fixed factors included shyness score (centered), age (centered), and vocabulary  
376 percentile (centered). Shyness was allowed to interact with the other factors. The best fitting  
377 model included a random intercept of both subject and item. There was a significant effect of  
378 age, vocabulary percentile, and an interaction of shyness and age (See Table 5). The low shyness  
379 children increased accuracy with age, and children higher in shyness increased accuracy  
380 minimally across different ages (see Figure 6). Importantly, overall children were generally good  
381 at the task with most children showing above average performance.

### 382 **Regression: Looking**

383 To assess looking performance, two analyses were conducted – an overall percentage  
384 looking at the target on each trial, and a moment-by-moment analysis across each time bin. First,  
385 a linear mixed model was used to assess percent looking to the target on each trial. Fixed factors  
386 included shyness score, age, vocabulary percentile, and trial number (all centered). Shyness was



410 the current study tested young children (ages 17-37 months) at an early, crucial period in their  
411 language development. Our original hypothesis predicted that shyness would be negatively  
412 associated with accuracy on all tasks, but that shyer children would also be worse at more social  
413 tasks compared to non-social tasks. This was not entirely supported by our results; specifically,  
414 all children's performance (regardless of shyness) on the looking task (least social) was generally  
415 the lowest of all three. However, the results demonstrated that for the pointing task (middle  
416 social) and the production task (most social), the interaction of the social task element and  
417 shyness may have impacted children's performance. Each task is further discussed below.

#### 418 **Production**

419 The findings suggest that, even after accounting for effects of age and vocabulary  
420 knowledge, shyness negatively impacts accuracy on the production task. Age and vocabulary  
421 knowledge significantly affected children's performance, such that older children/children with a  
422 higher vocabulary were much better than younger children/children with lower vocabulary  
423 (Figure 4, Figure 5). Even when accounting for these factors, it was evident that shyer children  
424 were significantly less accurate than less shy children on the production task, possibly because of  
425 the high level of social interaction requiring the child to speak. While shyer children seemed  
426 slightly more likely to give a no response compared to an incorrect word, no response trials  
427 constituted a low percentage of the "not correct" trials. Thus, the low error rate makes it difficult  
428 to draw firm conclusions.

#### 429 **Pointing**

430 The results demonstrate that the children participating in the study generally performed  
431 well on the pointing task, regardless of shyness, age, or vocabulary percentile. Most  
432 significantly, high shyness children did well across development, at all ages. However, younger

433 children were impacted if they were lower in shyness, but shyness did not impact older children  
434 as much. That is, as children develop and get older, even the shyest children did not appear to  
435 view pointing as overly anxiety-inducing. This suggests that age may interact with temperament  
436 to predict vocabulary and that medium-social tasks may still be appropriate for slightly older  
437 children regardless of temperament.

#### 438 **Looking**

439         The findings suggest that all participants struggled with the looking task, generally  
440 performing about 50% accurate regardless of shyness, age, or vocabulary percentile (Figure 1,  
441 Figure 2, Figure 3). That is, shyness did not have an impact on children's performance. This  
442 could be an indicator that the low level of interaction (i.e. no social interaction was required of  
443 the children, besides switching their gaze) did not create anxiety in shy children and thus inhibit  
444 their performance. Although all children performed poorly, shy children did not perform *more*  
445 poorly (in fact, shy children even performed slightly better). Perhaps this was because there  
446 was no social interaction to distract them. Instead, the low performance must have another cause.

447         Across the span of the looking trial, children generally started off by looking towards the  
448 target stimuli approximately 65% of the time, and then began to look away from the target  
449 quickly thereafter (See Figure 7). This provides evidence that children may have known the  
450 correct answer, but actively chose not to focus on the target for the duration of the trial, perhaps  
451 from boredom or presence of more interesting objects elsewhere. Interestingly, Frank (2016)  
452 found that for eye-tracking experiments, children ages 1- to 2-years-old generally did not  
453 complete all the trials due to asking to stop early or by other methods of refusing to continue  
454 participation. Therefore, looking-based trials may be difficult for children to remain attentive and  
455 thus responsible for children's low accuracy. Unfortunately, due to the web-based approach,

456 fine-grained looking behaviors beyond side of screen were not able to be coded. Additionally,  
457 there may be some stimuli and trial impacts that could be important to examine in future work.

### 458 **Production and pointing**

459 Shy children's accuracy on pointing is significantly greater than shy children's accuracy  
460 on production. While the shyest children (score 6 or lower on the ECBQ) generally performed  
461 approximately 27% accurate on production, they generally performed approximately 70%  
462 accurate on the pointing task (see Figure 1). There are several important notes about this  
463 disparity. First, shyer children consistently underperformed compared to less shy children on  
464 production at all ages (Figure 4). Second, the stimuli (i.e. pictures with corresponding words)  
465 chosen for the tasks were straightforward such that typically developing children, at least 17  
466 months of age, had a high probability of knowing the answer (Fenson et al., 1994; Frank et al,  
467 2017). Further, most children were well above chance on the pointing task, suggesting that they  
468 were able to understand words at that level of difficulty. Although evidence suggests that  
469 children knew the words, the shyer children were still less likely to verbally produce the correct  
470 responses.

471 There are other studies which demonstrate similar results: at two years old, shy children  
472 were less likely to verbal request or identify novel objects, although they had normal receptive  
473 language (Hilton & Westermann, 2017), and at four years old, shyer children scored much lower  
474 on expressive language tasks compared to less shy children (Spere at al, 2004). Most  
475 significantly, Spere and Evans (2009), found that at the kindergarten grade level, children with  
476 extreme levels of shyness were more strongly correlated with poor literacy and reading skills.  
477 The current study found a similar effect in Figure 1, suggesting that shyness impacts expressive  
478 language even at 17 months.

479           One possible theoretical explanation of these findings is the “I know it but won’t say it”  
480 model (Coplan & Evans, 2009). In the current study, shy children performed well on the pointing  
481 task, but were unable to *produce* the correct word, this demonstrates that they were not incapable  
482 of answering due to their knowledge, but rather, they were likely inhibited (i.e. by shyness) to  
483 produce the word. Since the production task required the child to talk to the experimenter, rather  
484 than simply gesture, this socially interactive component may have triggered their anxiety and  
485 thus inhibited them from producing the correct response (Asendorpf, 1989). The results are also  
486 consistent with other theories, including the hypothesis that shy children are less likely to take  
487 risks (Coplan & Evans, 2009) and the anxiety-performance hypothesis (Asendorpf, 1989). The  
488 “bold is better” model suggests that higher sociability gives children a linguistic advantage rather  
489 than shyness inhibiting them. However, this theory does not explain why shy children performed  
490 significantly low on production tasks (Figure 1, Figure 4, Figure 5).

#### 491 **Limitations**

492           This study has some potential limitations. Firstly, the study was conducted over Zoom.  
493 Virtual interactions could have differential effects on attention (McClure et al, 2017) and  
494 responsiveness from the experimenter (Strouse et al, 2018) compared to in-person testing.  
495 Therefore, these other factors could influence children’s performance alongside shyness.  
496 However, there is some evidence that using teletherapy in speech-language therapy can have  
497 positive outcomes for individuals with language and communication disorders, although the  
498 evidence is mainly based on particular intervention programs (Constantinescu et al., 2014,  
499 Grogan-Johnson, 2010, Lee, Hall, & Sancibrian, 2017). According to the study by Tambyraja  
500 and colleagues (2021), 60% of responding SLPs used teletherapy during the COVID-19  
501 pandemic, and most of them used Zoom as a virtual platform. Although more research needs to

502 be done about teletherapy and its efficacy, there is promising evidence suggesting it can have  
503 positive outcomes for children (Wales et al, 2017). As such, examining the efficacy of language  
504 assessment online is relevant.

505 Another potential limitation of this study is that the participants could have been more  
506 diverse. In our sample, 72% of the participants were white, and the average income of families  
507 was \$75,000. Additionally, most of the participants were from the south-central US, and all of  
508 them were from the US. Children of lower SES tend to score lower on language assessments  
509 testing a variety of different language skills (Noble et al. 2005), as well children of minority  
510 ethnicities (Basit et al, 2015). Thus, it is important to have a diverse sample of participants to  
511 account for these potential differences.

512 Another note regarding the study is that the different methodologies used in the three  
513 language tasks had additional differences outside of the amount of sociability required between  
514 the experimenter and participant. Mainly, the production task measured expressive language,  
515 while the pointing and looking tasks measured receptive language. That is, there were also  
516 different cognitive demands. Therefore, this difference in methodology may have affected  
517 children's performance. Nonetheless, such differences in cognitive demands are impossible to  
518 dissect from the social elements of the task and would likely have impacted children equally  
519 despite their degree of shyness.

## 520 **Conclusion**

521 Overall, our results suggest that shyness does, in fact, impact children's performance on  
522 different language tasks. Because of this, speech pathologists, psychologists, educators,  
523 researchers, and others assessing language skills might take each individual child's shyness into  
524 consideration. These professionals should be aware that shy children may exceptionally struggle

525 with production assessments. In this study, shyness minimally impacted the pointing task, except  
526 for the youngest, shyest participants who performed below chance. Therefore, the results  
527 demonstrate that pointing assessments are the least biased against shy children and easier for  
528 them despite their social deficit.

529 Altogether, it may be important for future studies to continue to examine how to best  
530 close the gap between more shy children and less shy children's language skills. Examining how  
531 shyness impacts children's performance on standardized language assessments may be important  
532 to demonstrate specific language assessments which are most suitable for shy children.  
533 Specifically, shyness may affect children's language abilities and development, and it is  
534 important to continue to investigate how and why.

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537 Lab and Psychology Department at Oklahoma State University for providing support for this  
538 project. I would also like to acknowledge my friends and family who continuously encouraged  
539 me throughout the process.

#### 540 **Data Availability Statement**

541 All materials and data for the study can be found on OSF:

542 [https://osf.io/hwrma/?view\\_only=905f836347114826a54e57d6d1c10cf1](https://osf.io/hwrma/?view_only=905f836347114826a54e57d6d1c10cf1)

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691 **Tables**

692 **Table 1**  
 693 *Demographic characteristics of the sample.*

	Mean	SD	Range
Child Age (Mo; Days)	28; 6	6; 14	17; 2 - 43; 4
Child Gender	N = 63 female		
Child Vocab			
MCDI-WS (n = 75)	197	184	679
MCDI-III (n = 46)	50.3	27.7	99
ECBQ - shyness facet	3.6	1.4	6.7
Parent Education <sup>a</sup>	6.5	3	9
Parent Income <sup>a</sup>	8.5	1	17
Race			
White	n = 88		
Black	n = 1		
Native American	n = 0		
Asian	n = 4		
Mixed race/Not listed	n = 27		
Hispanic	n = 1		

694 Note: Education was rank ordered with 1 as less than 7th grade and 8 as Doctoral degree; a score  
 695 of 6 indicated a 4-year college degree. Income was also rank ordered with a 1 as “less than  
 696 \$10,000” and 9 as “more than \$100,000.”

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701 **Table 2.**702 *Correlations between each variable and task performance*

	<b>Age</b>	<b>Vocabulary percentile</b>	<b>Shyness</b>	<b>Target Looking</b>	<b>Pointing Accuracy</b>	<b>Production Accuracy</b>
<b>Age</b>						
<b>Vocabulary percentile</b>	.101					
<b>Shyness</b>	-.182*	-.136				
<b>Target Looking</b>	-.038	-.105	.146			
<b>Pointing Accuracy</b>	.385***	.291**	-.192*	.154		
<b>Production Accuracy</b>	.610***	.386***	.296**	.078	.327***	

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704 Note: Correlations between variables and task accuracy.

705 \*p &lt; 0.05 (2-tailed), \*\* p &lt; 0.01 (2-tailed), \*\*\*p &lt; .001 (2-tailed)

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718 **Table 3.**719 *Accuracy across tasks by shyness*

Variable	X2	df	p
Shyness	.61	1	.437
Task	106.81	2	<.001 ***
Age	54.46	1	<.001***
Vocabulary Percentile	20.56	1	<.001***
Trial	.13	1	.715
Shyness * Task	9.76	2	.008**
Shyness * Age	.12	1	.734
Shyness * Vocab Percentile	.40	1	.526
Shyness*Trial	1.18	1	.276
Task * Age	93.4	2	<.001***
Task * Vocab Percentile	40.83	2	<.001***
Task*Trial	.46	2	.796
Shyness*Task*Age	4.44	2	.109
Shyness*Task*Vocab Percentile	5.46	2	.066 <sup>m</sup>
Shyness*Task*Trial	2.77	2	.251

720 <sup>m</sup>p < .10 \* p < .05, \*\*p < .01, \*\*\*p < .001

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728 **Table 4.**729 *Regression of Trial-by-Trial Accuracy on Production*

<b>Variable</b>	<b><math>\beta</math></b>	<b>t</b>	<b>p</b>
Shyness	-.05	-2.16	.033*
Age	.19	8.35	<.001***
Vocabulary Percentile	.11	5.17	<.001***
Trial	-.00	-.08	.941
Shyness*Age	.01	.22	.824
Shyness*Vocab Percentile	-.00	-.17	.869
Shyness*Trial	-.02	-1.48	.139

730 \*p &lt; .05, \*\*\*p &lt; .001

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745 **Table 5.**746 *Regression of trial-by-trial accuracy on Pointing*

<b>Variable</b>	<b><math>\beta</math></b>	<b><math>z</math></b>	<b><math>p</math></b>
Shyness	-.16	-.90	.365
Age	.846	4.91	< .001***
Vocabulary Percentile	.576	3.21	.001**
Trial	.05	45	.650
Shyness * Age	-.37	-2.04	.042*
Shyness*Vocabulary percentile	.18	.98	.325
Shyness*Trial	-.13	-1.26	.207

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748 \* $p < .05$ , \*\* $p < .01$ , \*\*\* $p < .001$ 

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762 **Table 6.**763 *Regression of Trial-by-Trial Accuracy on Looking*

<b>Variable</b>	<b><math>\beta</math></b>	<b>t</b>	<b>p</b>
Shyness	.03	1.66	.10 <sup>m</sup>
Age	-.00	-.12	.908
Vocabulary Percentile	.01	-.69	.492
Trial	.00	.11	.919
Shyness*Age	.01	-.37	.714
Shyness*Vocab	.01	.56	.577
Shyness*Trial	.01	.92	.357

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765 <sup>m</sup>p < .10

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779 **Table 7.**

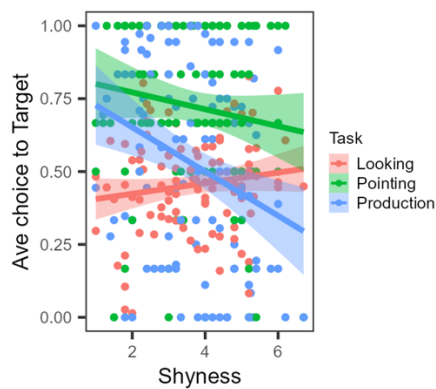
780 *Accuracy across time bins in Looking*

Variable	$\beta$	$z$	$p$
Shyness	.13	.73	.464
Age	-.09	-.52	.606
Vocab Percentile	-.07	-.41	.680
Trial	.06	.77	.440
Time Bin	-.18	-18.26	<.001***
Shyness*Age	.23	1.34	.181
Shyness*Vocab	-.10	-.61	.540
Shyness*Trial	.01	1.50	.134
Shyness*Bin	-.02	-1.51	.131

781 \*\*\* $p < .001$

783 **Figure legends**

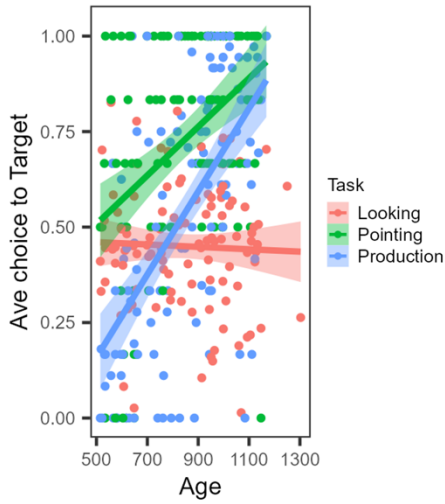
784 **Figure 1:** *Relation between accuracy and shyness, according to task*



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786 Note: Linear regression lines shown for visualization purposes only

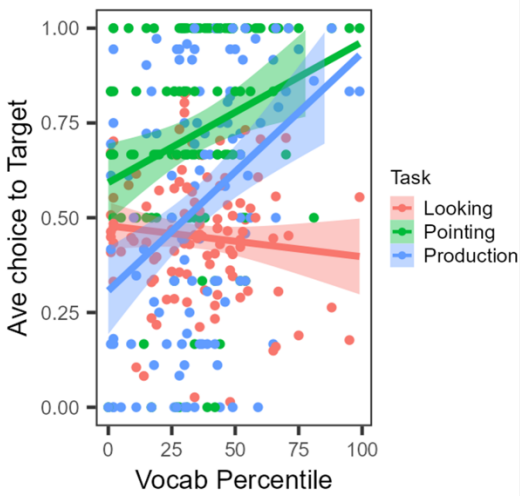
787 **Figure 2:** *Accuracy across tasks by age*



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789 Note: Linear regression lines shown for visualization purposes only.

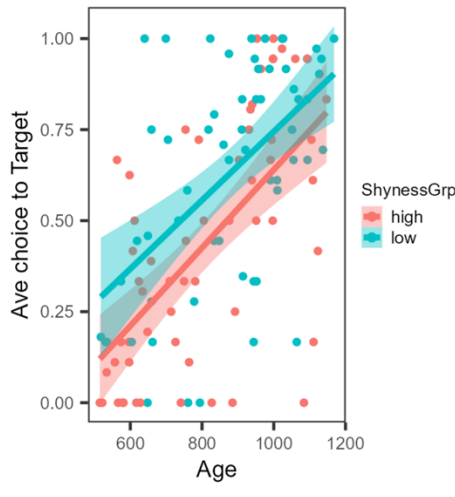
790 **Figure 3:** Accuracy on tasks by vocabulary percentile



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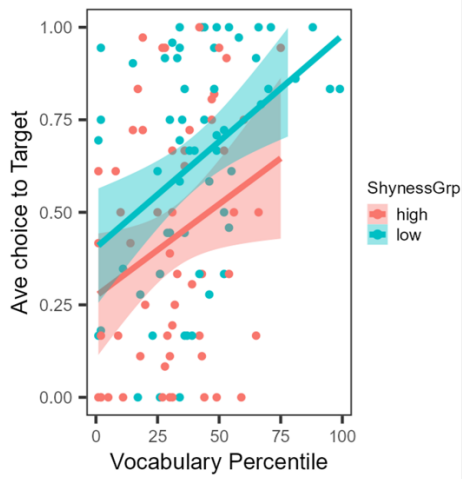
792 Note: Linear regression lines shown for visualization purposes only

793 **Figure 4:** Accuracy on production by age



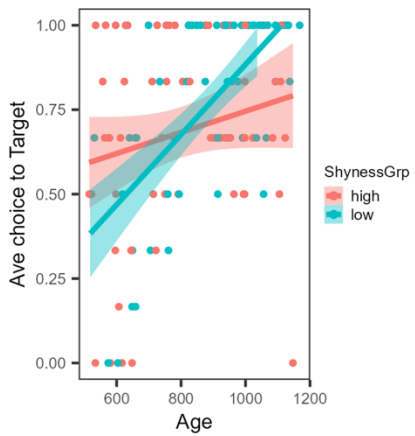
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795 **Figure 5:** Accuracy on production by vocabulary percentile



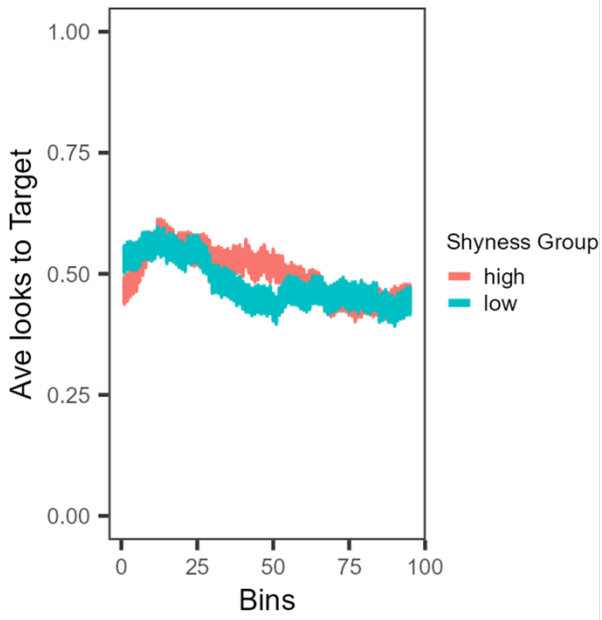
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797 **Figure 6:** Accuracy on pointing by age



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799 **Figure 7:** *Moment-by-moment looking patterns across time bin*



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