

1 **Mask-Wearing Affects Infants' Selective Attention to Familiar and Unfamiliar Audiovisual**
2 **Speech**

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14
15 **ABSTRACT**

16
17 This study examined the immediate effects of mask-wearing on infant selective visual attention
18 to audiovisual speech in familiar and unfamiliar languages. Infants distribute their selective
19 attention to regions of a speaker's face differentially based on their age and language experience.
20 However, the potential impact wearing a face mask may have on infants' selective attention to
21 audiovisual speech has not been systematically studied. We utilized eye tracking to examine the
22 proportion of infant looking time to the eyes and mouth of a masked or unmasked actress
23 speaking in a familiar or unfamiliar language. Six-month-old and 12-month-old infants (n=42,
24 55% female, 91% White Non-Hispanic/Latino) were shown videos of an actress speaking in a
25 familiar language (English) with and without a mask on, as well as videos of the same actress
26 speaking in an unfamiliar language (German) with and without a mask. Overall, infants spent
27 more time looking at the unmasked presentations compared to the masked presentations.
28 Regardless of language familiarity or age, infants spent more time looking at the mouth area of
29 an unmasked speaker and they spent more time looking at the eyes of a masked speaker. These
30 findings indicate mask-wearing has immediate effects on the distribution of infant selective
31 attention to different areas of the face of a speaker during audiovisual speech.

32 **1. INTRODUCTION**

33

34 Faces are ubiquitous in the daily life of infants, accounting for up to 25% of their looking
35 time during waking hours in early infancy (Sudgen et al., 2014). Infants typically experience
36 faces in multimodal contexts during face-to-face interactions involving audiovisual speech. Past
37 research has examined the influence of several factors, including language familiarity, on the
38 distribution of infants' selective attention to audiovisual speech (see review, Bastianello et al.,
39 2022). A relatively consistent trend has been identified across studies with monolingual infants
40 showing that, from around 4 to 8 months of age, infants shift from primarily focusing on the eyes
41 to focusing more on the mouth of a speaker regardless of language familiarity (Lewkowicz &
42 Hansen-Tift, 2012; Pons et al., 2015). This trend is followed by a shift at around 12 months of
43 age toward a more even distribution of looking to the eyes and mouth for a familiar language
44 while a greater focus on the mouth is maintained for an unfamiliar language (Hillairet de
45 Boisferon et al., 2017; Lewkowicz & Hansen-Tift, 2012; Morin-Lessard et al., 2019; Pons et al.,
46 2015, 2019).

47 The *language expertise hypothesis* (Hillairet de Boisferon et al., 2017; Lewkowicz &
48 Hansen-Tift, 2012; Morin-Lessard et al., 2019; Pons et al., 2015) proposes that the shift back
49 toward the eyes that occurs at around 12 months of age for a familiar language (but not for
50 unfamiliar language) reflects less reliance on the mouth for language processing due to further
51 development of expertise in the familiar language. However, some studies have found that 12-
52 month-olds continue to focus more on the mouth of familiar language speakers (Roth et al.,
53 2022; Tenenbaum et al., 2015; Tsang et al., 2018). Consistent with the proposal that infants focus
54 on the mouth in more demanding language contexts, bilingual infants have been found to shift

55 their focus to the mouth at an earlier age than monolingual infants (Morin-Lessard et al., 2019)
56 and maintain focus on the mouth beyond 12 months of age (Pons et al., 2015).

57 Infants' patterns of selective attention to audiovisual speech are associated with later
58 language development (Pascalis et al., 2014; Pons et al., 2019; Santapuram et al., 2022).
59 Sensitivity to temporal synchrony in audiovisual speech (but not in non-social stimuli) at 6
60 months of age is linked with language outcomes at 18, 24, and 36 months of age (Edgar et al.,
61 2023). Greater looking to the eyes at 5.5 months of age correlates with expressive and receptive
62 language in toddlerhood (Lozano et al., 2022). However, greater looking to the mouth relative to
63 the eyes of a speaker between the ages of 6 to 12 months is linked with higher expressive
64 language skills, and greater looking to the eyes at 12 months is linked with higher scores on
65 social and communication subsets of the Bayley Scales of Infant and Toddler Development
66 (Lozano et al., 2022; Morin-Lessard et al., 2019; Pons et al., 2019; Tennebaum et. al., 2019;
67 Tsang et al., 2018; Young et. al., 2009). Overall, patterns of selective attention to audiovisual
68 speech are complex and vary depending on many factors, including: language (Birulés et al.,
69 2019; Sekiyama et al., 2021), monolingualism/bilingualism (Morin-Lessard et al., 2019),
70 prosody (Roth et al., 2022), likelihood of autism (Lozano et al., 2024), sex (Lozano et al., 2022),
71 and term status (Berdasco-Muñoz et al., 2019).

72 Children born within the COVID-19 cohort (2020-2021) lacked the level of social
73 engagement and learning opportunities available to children born in non-pandemic times (Deoni
74 et al., 2021). Increased use of face masks created a unique problem for infants and children who
75 gather information from faces for social and emotional processing. While mask-wearing is
76 currently not as prevalent in most settings, the potential need for widespread mask-wearing and

77 social distancing during future pandemic outbreaks remains a strong possibility. There is a
78 growing body of research on effects of mask-wearing on face processing in infants and children.

79 In 2021, Yates and Lewkowicz tested 4-,5-, and 6-year-old children to examine the
80 potential impact of mask-wearing on the developmental timeline of holistic face processing. All
81 three age groups showed evidence of holistic processing, suggesting exposure to segregated
82 visual faces did not disrupt their normal face processing abilities (Yates & Lewkowicz, 2023).
83 However, Ruba and Pollak (2020) found that children 7-11 years of age perform at chance levels
84 at determining the emotion of masked faces. Kammermeier and Paulus (2023) found 14-month-
85 olds are more likely to show an appropriate change in affect when interacting with an unmasked
86 person in comparison to when interacting with a masked person. In adults, mask-wearing leads to
87 an increased use of eye cues to gauge emotions between faces (Barrick et al., 2021). DeBolt and
88 Oakes (2023) explored the impact of mask-wearing on infant memory of faces. Regardless of
89 whether they were familiarized with a masked or unmasked face, 6- and 9-month-olds only
90 demonstrated memory for unmasked faces during testing. This suggests that the effects of mask-
91 wearing on infant face processing are complex and multifaceted. However, the potential effect of
92 mask-wearing on infant attention to audiovisual speech has not been systematically studied.

93 We designed the current study to examine immediate effects of an adult speaker's mask-
94 wearing on 6- and 12-month-old infants' selective attention to familiar and unfamiliar
95 audiovisual speech. We utilized eye tracking to explore whether infants' proportion of looking
96 time to the eyes and mouth on talking faces varies depending on whether they are masked or
97 unmasked and whether they are speaking a familiar or unfamiliar language. We selected 6 and 12
98 months as the age groups for this study based on studies showing that infants shift the

99 distribution of their selective attention from primarily focusing on the eyes, or showing
100 equivalent looking to the eyes and mouth at 6 months regardless of language, to a greater focus
101 on the mouth at 12 months for an unfamiliar language but not for a familiar language (Berdasco-
102 Muñoz et al., 2019; Birulés et al., 2019; Hillairet de Boisferon et al., 2017; Lewkowicz &
103 Hansen-Tift, 2012; Lozano et al., 2022; Sekiyama et al., 2021).

104 Based on the *language expertise hypothesis*, across mask-wearing and language
105 conditions, we expected 6-month-olds to primarily focus their visual attention on the eyes of the
106 speaker relative to the mouth regardless of language familiarity or mask-wearing (H1). We
107 expected 12-month-olds to show differences in proportion of looking time to the eyes and mouth
108 based on language and mask-wearing. We predicted 12-month-olds in the unmasked condition
109 would focus more on the eyes in the familiar language condition in comparison to the unfamiliar
110 language condition (H2) and more on the mouth for the unfamiliar language in comparison to
111 familiar language (H3). In the masked condition, we predicted, regardless of language
112 familiarity, infants would primarily focus their visual attention on the eyes of the speaker relative
113 to the mouth (H4).

114 **2. METHODS**

115 *2.1 Participants*

116 Fifty-two infants were recruited from the Knoxville, TN area between 2022-2023. Ten
117 infants were excluded from the final data set due to fussiness ($n=4$), failure to calibrate ($n=2$),
118 and failure to have data on a minimum number of trials ($n=4$). The final sample ($N=42$) included
119 a group of 6-month-old infants ($n=22$, $Mage=179.33$ days, $SD=7.09$ days, 12 females) and a
120 group of 12-month-old infants ($n=20$, $Mage=358.41$ days, $SD = 8.27$ days, 11 females). The
121 racial distribution of the final sample was 38 White, 1 Black, and 3 mixed-race infants. All

122 infants were born full-term (at least 37 weeks of gestation) with no known visual or hearing
123 difficulties. Participants were monolingual, English-learning infants. Participants' caregivers
124 reported exposure to German in their household or elsewhere was little to none (<10%). All
125 infants were tested within plus or minus two weeks before or after their 6- or 12-month birthdate.
126 The guardians received a certification of participation, an infant sized t-shirt, and a small cash
127 payment for participation. Only infants that provided useable data for a minimum of one
128 presentation of each condition (see Audiovisual Stimuli below) were included in the analysis.

129 *2.2 Apparatus*

130 Participants sat in their guardian's lap, with the position of their eyes centered vertically
131 and horizontally on the display monitor. The infants were positioned approximately 55 cm away
132 from the display monitor (17" Dell UltraSharp 1704FPV color LCD monitor). Speakers were
133 placed behind the monitor, hidden from view of the infants, to play the accompanying
134 soundtrack to the video clips. Testing took place in a sound attenuated room with black curtains
135 surrounding the testing area. A remote eye-tracker (SR Research Ltd., Eye-Link 1000 plus) was
136 placed under the LCD monitor facing the infant. Infants' gaze was recorded at a sampling rate of
137 500 Hz.

138 *2.3 Audiovisual Stimuli*

139 The stimuli were 30-second continuous audiovisual video clips of the same actress
140 speaking in either German or English with the audio presented at 60 dB at the position where the
141 infant was seated during testing. The actress had her hair pulled back, wore a plain black t-shirt,
142 and was filmed against a plain background. All four videos included the same actress (White,
143 unbalanced bilingual with primary language being English, aged 28) in the same filming

144 location, reciting the same script (See Figure 1 for examples of the masked and unmasked
145 actress). For the familiar language condition, the actress spoke in English. For the unfamiliar
146 language condition, the actress recited the same script as the familiar condition, but in German.
147 The English and German script were both spoken in infant directed speech (IDS). For the
148 masked conditions, the actress recited the script wearing a blue surgical mask. Infants viewed
149 two blocks for each of the four conditions (i.e., English unmasked, English masked, German
150 unmasked, and German masked).

151 *2.4 Procedure*

152 Informed consent was completed with the participants' guardian prior to the start of
153 testing. The infant was placed in the guardian's lap facing the monitor with their eyes level with
154 the center of the monitor. The guardian was asked to refrain from talking to or moving the infant
155 during the study. A bullseye tracking sticker was placed on the infant's forehead to aid the eye
156 tracker in pupil localization. Curtains were drawn around the infant with the lights dimmed. A 5-
157 point calibration routine was then performed to ensure accurate eye tracking. A random selection
158 of a donut or geometric shape with sound moved from the bottom-right, bottom-left, top-left,
159 top-right, and center of the screen, subtending a visual angle of 2.32°. These calibration points
160 were repeated until the infant attended to all five of these points and a validation each point
161 ensured adequate tracking of the infants' pupils. Successful calibration was determined by the
162 infants attending all five points within one visual degree of the calibration point. After
163 calibration, an animated cartoon was played continuously in the center of the screen as an
164 attention-getter until the infant was centrally fixated for the start of the trial. Test stimuli were
165 not presented until the experimenter pressed a button, after judging the infant to be centrally

166 fixated. Stimuli consisted of eight trials, each composed of a 30-second video clip, with an
167 attention-getter shown between each trial. Order of presentation (masked or unmasked and
168 German or English first) was randomized between participants to counterbalance for potential
169 order effects (see Figure 1 for a diagram of a trial block).

170 *2.5 Measurement*

171 The stimuli included areas of interest (AOIs): one around the bottom half of the speaker's
172 face (defined as mouth AOI, 44095 pixels), and one around the top half of the speaker's face
173 (defined as eyes AOI, 44096 pixels) (see Panel B on Figure 1). When viewed from 55cm away,
174 test stimuli subtended a visual angle of approximately $28.49^\circ \times 32.10^\circ$. These AOIs were defined
175 using DataViewer (SR Research, Ltd) to equally split the speaker's face from the center up to
176 include the eyes, and the center down to include the mouth. Looks that occurred outside these
177 AOIs were discarded from analysis during data processing. We analyzed total dwell time to the
178 face as an index of level of attention. Total dwell time was defined as the amount of time in
179 milliseconds (ms) the infant spent looking anywhere within the face region. We also analyzed
180 the proportion of total looking time (PTLT) to each of the AOIs. PTLT was defined as the dwell
181 time to a specific AOI (mouth or eyes) divided by the overall dwell time to the entire face. To
182 derive our primary dependent variable, PTLT difference scores, we subtracted PTLT to the
183 mouth from PTLT to the eyes for each condition. This approach allowed us to quantify a relative
184 preference for gaze allocation with a positive PTLT difference indicating greater proportion of
185 looking time to the eyes and a negative score indicating greater proportion of looking time to the
186 mouth. Any participant who failed to contribute looking data (i.e., at least two fixations with

187 each fixation exceeding a minimum duration of 66ms) for at least one presentation of each
188 condition (English, English Masked, German, German Masked) was excluded from analysis.

189 3. RESULTS

190
191 This study utilized a 2x2x2 mixed design with age (6- and 12-months) as a between-
192 subjects factor and language familiarity (familiar or unfamiliar), and mask-wearing condition
193 (masked or unmasked) as within-subjects factors. Repeated measures ANOVA (Analysis of
194 Variance) were used to identify significant experimental effects. Using Bonferroni's correction,
195 post-hoc analyses using one-way ANOVAs and paired sample t-tests were conducted with alpha
196 levels set to 0.05. To examine whether infants demonstrated a preference for the eyes or the
197 mouth based on experimental factors, single-sample t-tests were carried out across conditions to
198 determine if greater proportion of looking time to an AOI exceeded a chance value (0.0).

199 Using PTLT difference to examine differences in infants' PTLT to each AOI, a repeated
200 measures ANOVA was conducted with Age as a between-subjects factor (6 and 12 months) and
201 Language Familiarity (German and English) and Mask-Wearing (Masked and Unmasked) as
202 within-subject factors. Means and individual participant scores on PTLT difference for all
203 conditions are shown in Figure 2 and means with standard deviations for all conditions are
204 shown in Table 1. The ANOVA table for the full factorial ANOVA is presented in Table 2 for
205 the interested reader (see Supplemental Material).

206 There was a significant main effect for Mask-Wearing, $F(1, 40) = 57.478$, $p < 0.001$, η_p^2
207 $= 0.590$ (see Figures 2 and 3). As shown by a one-sample t-test comparing PTLT difference to
208 chance (0.0), infants looked more to the mouth than the eyes of the unmasked speaker ($M = -$
209 0.201 , $SD = .429$; $t(41) = -3.033$, $p < .01$, $d = -0.468$). In contrast, in the masked condition,

210 infants looked more to the eyes than the mouth of the speaker ($M = 0.247$, $SD = .481$; $t(41) =$
211 3.336 , $p < .001$, $d = 0.515$) regardless of age or language. There were no other significant main
212 effects or interactions between factors (all $ps > .10$, all $\eta_p^2 < .10$).

213 To further examine whether the infants' PTLT difference represented a significant
214 preference for an AOI (e.g., Morin-Lessard et al., 2019), one-sample t-tests were carried out for
215 each condition and age group comparing PTLT difference to chance (0.0). At 6 months of age,
216 PTLT difference in the unmasked conditions did not differ from chance; however, in the masked
217 conditions, PTLT difference exceeded chance with greater proportion of looking to the eyes for
218 both familiar language, $t(21) = 2.411$, $p < .05$, $d = 0.592$, and unfamiliar language, $t(21) = 3.987$,
219 $p < .001$, $d = 0.850$. At 12 months of age, PTLT difference for the unmasked, unfamiliar
220 language condition was the only condition that exceeded chance levels with greater proportion of
221 looking to the mouth, $t(19) = -2.638$, $p < .01$, $d = -0.590$.

222 Total dwell time, defined as the total amount of time in ms spent looking at the entire
223 face, was analyzed to determine if there were any differences in level of attention between the
224 familiar and unfamiliar language conditions as well as the masked and unmasked conditions. No
225 difference in total dwell time was found between familiar language ($M = 10993.17$ ms, $SD =$
226 7003.00) and unfamiliar language trials ($M = 10381.83$ ms, $SD = 6416.62$), $t(41) = 1.341$, $p =$
227 $.094$. However, infants had higher total dwell times on unmasked speaker trials ($M = 11854.29$
228 ms, $SD = 7397.63$) compared to masked speaker trials ($M = 9520.71$ ms, $SD = 6245.12$), $t(41) = -$
229 3.811 , $p < .001$, $d = 0.588$.

230 **4. DISCUSSION**

231 This study explored whether infants’ selective attention to facial features differs between
232 audiovisual speech from a familiar or unfamiliar language spoken by a masked or unmasked
233 talking face. There was a main effect of mask-wearing. Infants looked proportionately more to
234 the mouth of the speaker in the unmasked condition and more to the eyes of the speaker in the
235 masked condition. We predicted (H1) 6-month-old infants would look proportionately more to
236 the eyes of the speaker compared to the mouth, regardless of language familiarity or mask-
237 wearing condition. In contrast, we found that 6-month-olds only looked more to the eyes of a
238 masked speaker. In the unmasked condition, 6-month-olds’ proportion of looking time did not
239 differ significantly between the eyes and the mouth. This finding is somewhat unexpected for the
240 unmasked condition given that past work has found that 5- to 6-month-olds look longer to the
241 eyes of familiar and unfamiliar language speakers (e.g., Berdasco-Muñoz et al., 2019; Hillairet
242 de Boisferon et al., 2017; Lozano et al., 2022; Sekiyama et al., 2021). However, some studies
243 have also found that 5- to 6-month-olds show equivalent looking to the eyes and mouth of a
244 speaker (Lewkowicz & Hansen-Tift, 2012; Morin-Lessard et al., 2019) indicating that proportion
245 of looking time to the eyes and mouth is likely influenced by multiple factors at this age. To
246 equate the size of AOIs for our mask-wearing conditions, we defined the AOIs for the eyes and
247 mouth as the upper and lower half of the face, respectively. Most studies have used AOIs
248 covering more narrow regions of the face specific to each of these facial features. Thus, the
249 larger AOIs used in the current study may have contributed to the equivalent looking to the eyes
250 and mouth AOIs for 6-month-olds.

251 Based on prior work and the *language expertise hypothesis* (Hillairet De Boisferon et al.,
252 2017; Lewkowicz & Hansen-Tift, 2012; Pons et al. 2015), we predicted 12-month-olds in the

253 unmasked condition would focus more on the eyes in the familiar language condition in
254 comparison to the unfamiliar language condition (H2) and more on the mouth for the unfamiliar
255 language in comparison to familiar language (H3). Comparisons across conditions did not
256 support these predictions. There were no differences in PTLT difference between the familiar
257 and unfamiliar language conditions. However, when comparing PTLT difference with chance to
258 examine preference for the mouth or eyes within each condition, the only PTLT difference that
259 was significantly greater than chance at 12 months of age was the greater looking to the mouth
260 than the eyes of the unmasked, unfamiliar language speaker. This finding, combined with the
261 lack of language familiarity effects on PTLT difference at 6 months of age, is consistent with the
262 *language expertise hypothesis* (Hillairet De Boisferon et al., 2017; Lewkowicz & Hansen-Tift,
263 2012; Pons et al. 2015), and indicates 12-month-olds rely heavily on the mouth of an unmasked
264 speaker when being spoken to in an unfamiliar language.

265 We used German as the unfamiliar language and English as the familiar language. Given
266 that English is a Germanic language, English is structurally and prosodically close to German. It
267 is possible that the closeness between the two languages used for the current study accounts for
268 the lack of significant differences *between* language familiarity conditions on proportion of
269 looking time to the eyes and mouth. Prior research has shown that 15-month-old close-language
270 learning bilingual infants attend more to the mouth of speakers than 15-month-old distant-
271 language learning bilingual infants (Birulés et. al., 2019), indicating that language-closeness does
272 influence the distribution of infant selective attention to the mouth of a speaker. Further, using a
273 balanced bilingual for future studies would be ideal. The actress used for this study was not a

274 native German speaker which may have resulted in greater similarity in speech across the
275 familiar and unfamiliar languages.

276 Our final prediction (H4) was that 12-month-olds would look more to the eyes than the
277 mouth of a masked speaker regardless of language familiarity. The main effect of mask-wearing
278 supported this prediction; regardless of language familiarity, infants looked longer to the mouth
279 than the eyes of the speaker when unmasked (similar to, Roth et al., 2022; Tenenbaum et al.,
280 2015; Tsang et al., 2018) and longer to the eyes than the mouth of the speaker when masked.
281 Although this study was focused on the immediate effects of mask-wearing on infant selective
282 attention to audiovisual speech, the current findings could have important implications for
283 infants raised during an active pandemic with widespread mask-wearing. The 6-to-12-month age
284 range is a formative period in language development. Research links infants' increased attention
285 to the mouth of a communicative partner with higher expressive communication, higher vocal
286 complexity, and higher scores on the BSID-II in toddlerhood (Santapuram et al., 2022; Pons et
287 al., 2019; Tsang et al., 2018). Attentional preference to the mouth of a communicative partner
288 between the ages of 6- and 12-months of age is positively associated with expressive language
289 skills, and an attentional preference to the eyes at 12 months of age is positively associated with
290 social and communication subsets of the BSID-III (Pons et al., 2019; Tsang et al., 2018).
291 Sensitivity to temporal synchrony in audiovisual speech at 6 months of age is linked with
292 language outcomes at 18-, 24-, and 36-months of age (Edgar et al., 2023). Furthermore, research
293 indicates infants only show evidence of facial recognition when the faces are unmasked during
294 testing (DeBolt & Oakes, 2023). Further research is needed to examine the potential impact of

295 the effects of wearing masks on infants' selective attention to audiovisual speech on early
296 language learning and social development.

297 In addition to looking proportionately less to the mouth of a masked speaker in
298 comparison to an unmasked speaker, our analysis of total dwell time to the entire face revealed
299 that infants paid less attention overall to a masked speaker in comparison to an unmasked
300 speaker. Across 6 to 12 months of age, infants pay greater attention to more complex and
301 dynamic stimuli than to more basic and static stimuli (e.g., Courage et al., 2006; Reynolds et al.,
302 2013). Thus, the lower overall attention in the masked conditions was likely due to the reduced
303 complexity (i.e., fewer internal elements) and reduced motion associated with occlusion of the
304 mouth and nose.

305 There were some notable limitations to the current study. Recruitment constraints
306 resulted in a relatively homogenous (i.e., primarily White) racial/ethnic distribution for the final
307 sample. Future research is needed to examine these research questions across a larger and more
308 diverse sample of participants. We utilized a cross-sectional design to examine immediate effects
309 of mask-wearing on infant attention to audiovisual speech. Under the appropriate context, a
310 longitudinal design could highlight developmental effects of mask-wearing on selective attention
311 to audiovisual speech as well as examining other outcome measures. Additionally, we did not
312 collect mask exposure information. The infants tested in this study were born after lifting of
313 mask mandates tied to COVID-19 and mask-wearing had become relatively uncommon in the
314 local community. The current findings reflect immediate effects of mask-wearing on selective
315 attention to audiovisual speech for infants who likely had relatively little prior exposure to

316 masked faces. Thus, any implications of these findings for potential developmental effects of
317 long-term exposure to masked faces in infancy are purely speculative.

318 *4.2 Conclusions*

319 The current study is an initial step in understanding how infants shift their selective
320 attention to facial features in real-time when exposed to either masked or unmasked speakers of a
321 familiar or unfamiliar language. Infants looked proportionately more at the eyes and less at the
322 mouth of a masked speaker, which is the opposite of the pattern of selective attention shown in
323 response to an unmasked speaker. Infants were also less attentive overall to audiovisual speech
324 when the speaker was wearing a mask. Past research highlights the importance of attending to
325 the mouth during language development in mid- to late-infancy as well as the importance of
326 distributing selective attention to the eyes for later social development (e.g., Pons et al., 2019;
327 Santapuram et al., 2022; Schwarzer et al., 2007; Tsang et al., 2018). Developmental implications
328 of these effects under conditions of widespread face mask usage during a pandemic remain
329 speculative but may warrant consideration of the use of transparent face masks that do not
330 occlude the view of the mouth in early childcare and educational settings.

331 Conflict of Interest

332 The authors declare that the research was conducted in the absence of any commercial or
333 financial relationships that could be construed as a potential conflict of interest.

334

335 Author Contributions

336 LS was primarily responsible for data collection and contributed to study design, analysis, and
337 writing of the manuscript. KC contributed to data collection and analysis. GR provided oversight
338 for the execution of the project and contributed to study design, analysis, and writing of the
339 manuscript.

340

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351

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453 Figure Legends

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455 Figure 1: Panel A: presentation sequence of a trial block beginning with an attention getter
 456 followed by each of the 4 video presentations for each condition. Each mask-wearing condition
 457 was presented for one of the languages, followed by each mask-wearing condition for the other
 458 language. Order of language and mask-wearing condition was counterbalanced across
 459 participants. Each participant viewed two blocks of the same sequence of presentations. Panel B
 460 shows displays screengrabs from presentations of each mask-wearing condition. Orange outlines
 461 represent location of facial AOIs used for the analysis of PTLT. Shaded area denotes “mouth”
 462 AOI, and the unshaded area represents the “eyes” AOI.

463

464 Figure 2: PTLT (proportion of total looking time) Difference Scores by Age as a Function of
 465 Language and Mask-Wearing Condition. The y-axis represents AOI difference scores with
 466 positive scores indicating greater proportion of looking time to the eyes and negative scores
 467 indicating greater proportion of looking time to the mouth. Age is represented on the x-axis.
 468 Language and masking-wearing conditions are represented as separate color bars.

469

470 Figure 3: Heatmaps displaying aggregated raw gaze across stimulus types. The heatmaps are
 471 averaged across age groups. English presentations (masked & unmasked) are represented within
 472 the left panel while German presentations (masked & unmasked) are represented within the right
 473 panel.

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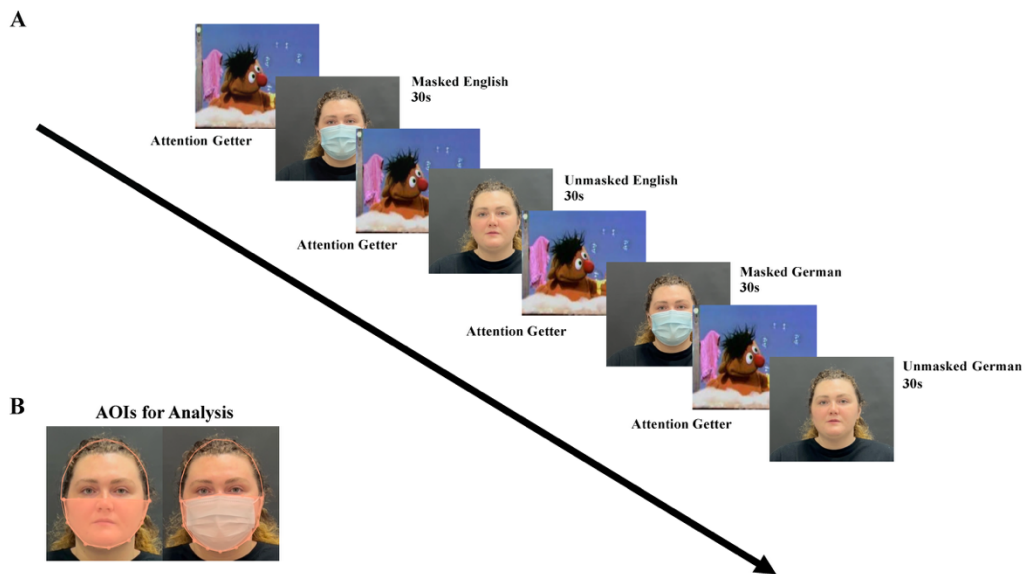
Table 1. Means and Standard Deviations of PTLT Difference Scores by Function of Age, Language, and Mask-Wearing Condition

	Age	Mean	Std. Deviation
English Unmasked	6	-.1257	.49419
	12	-.1949	.57637
	Average	-.1587	.52940
English Masked	6	.3041	.59170
	12	.0737	.48895
	Average	.1944	.55107
German Unmasked	6	-.1884	.53913
	12	-.3031	.51382
	Average	-.2430	.52401
German Masked	6	.4070	.47878
	12	.1831	.51236
	Average	.3004	.50188

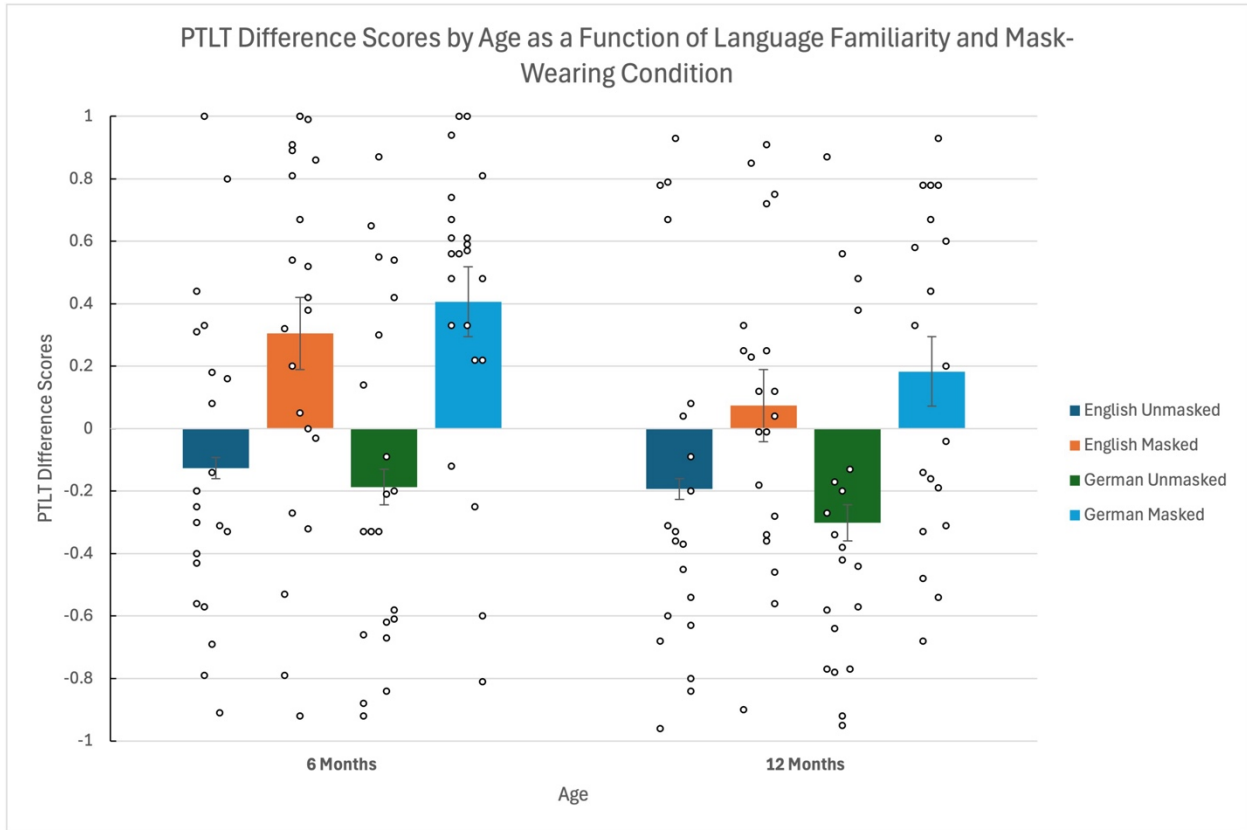
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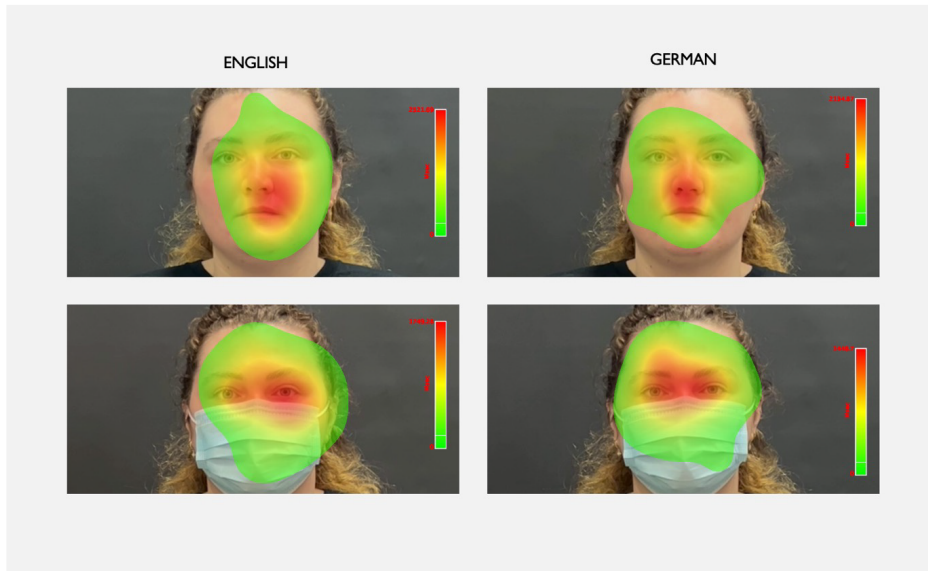
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