Protracted development in children of perceptual segregation of competing talking faces in the multisensory cocktail party problem

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Abstract

Successful communication with our social partners requires binding, integrating, and perceptually segregating the audible and visible attributes of the multiple talking faces that we often encounter in social situations, a challenge known as the multisensory cocktail party problem (MCPP). Although audiovisual (AV) temporal synchrony is a powerful cue for binding speech signals, how children develop the ability to use this cue to segregate a target talker remains unclear. Here, we examined the development of gaze dynamics supporting multisensory segregation in 3-7-year-old children (N = 149) and adults (N = 37) viewing four talking faces accompanied by a single auditory utterance synchronized with one of the faces (i.e., target). Using metrics of gaze dynamics from information theory, namely proportion of total looking time, stationary entropy, transition entropy, and transition rates, we show that even though sensitivity to AV synchrony is present by age 3 , it is insufficient for efficient target segregation. It is not until ages 5-6, following a qualitative shift in dynamic gaze control and more structured distractor transitions, that target selection becomes more efficient, but still not as efficient as it is in adults. We interpret these developmental changes as reflecting a shift from early detection of multisensory cues to later-emerging strategies that organize visual sampling in relation to auditory information in a task-dependent manner. Together, they demonstrate that solving complex multisensory challenges depends on AV integration as well as on the development of dynamic gaze organization that supports efficient multisensory perceptual segregation over time.

Significance Statement

Social communication requires segregating one talker from others, a challenge known as the multisensory cocktail party problem. Although adults solve this efficiently, how this ability develops remains unclear. Using dynamic gaze measures derived from information theory, we show that multisensory segregation in childhood depends not only on detecting audiovisual synchrony but also on the emergence of structured gaze strategies. Only by ages 5-6 do children combine sustained target fixation with organized sampling of competing talkers. Even by age 7, these audiovisually guided strategies remain immature relative to adults. These findings reveal probabilistic sampling mechanisms through which gaze supports multisensory segregation, offering a mechanistic account of how children learn to navigate complex social environments, with implications for language development and education.

In everyday social settings, communication requires identifying one talker among other, competing talkers, a challenge known as the multisensory cocktail party problem (MCPP) (1–3). Solving the MCPP requires binding and integrating auditory and visual speech cues originating from a single talker and segregating them from those of competing talker. Because AV speech signals co-vary continuously over time, successful segregation depends on dynamic multisensory processes rather than static sensory cues.

Temporal coherence between auditory and visual speech provides a powerful cue for AV binding (4–7), rendering integrated AV objects and events perceptually more salient than their unisensory counterparts (8–10) and thus facilitating their perceptual segregation (11–14). Eye movements offer a unique window into these processes, as gaze reflects how perceivers sample, prioritize, and update information over time. Previous work has shown that eye movements track perceptual organization in vision (15, 16), prioritize relevant auditory speech features (17), and index AV speech integration in both infants (18) and adults (19, 20). Together, these findings show that gaze reflects the sampling of multisensory information during AV speech perception.

Using a paradigm specifically designed to study the MCPP, Lewkowicz et al. (2021, 2022) showed that both adults and 3- to 7-year-old children preferentially look at an audiovisually synchronized target talking face compared with competing distractors (i.e., audiovisually desynchronized talking faces), and that this preference increases with age. These findings were based on proportion of total looking time (PTLT), a widely used aggregate measure of gaze allocation. While informative, PTLT provides no insight into how gaze is dynamically structured within trials as participants exploit multisensory cues to

identify the target. Understanding how gaze sampling is organized across successive fixations is critical because solving the MCPP requires accumulating information over multiple gaze samples rather than relying on static cues.

Here, we address this limitation by employing measures of gaze dynamics derived from information theory, including stationary and transition entropy (21), to eye-tracking data from adults and children who participated in Experiment 1 of the Lewkowicz et al. (2021) and (2022) studies. Our goal was to determine whether and how dynamic gaze organization changes across development and to identify the mechanisms underlying the emergence of efficient multisensory segregation. We expected that the multisensory binding and integration processes necessary for successful perceptual segregation gradually improve during early childhood. Moreover, we hypothesized that sensitivity to AV synchrony is necessary but not sufficient for efficient target segregation and, thus, that the developmental emergence of an efficient AV gaze exploration strategy is also essential to solving the MCPP.

Methods

Participants

We analyzed eye-tracking data from 37 adults (Experiment 1 in Lewkowicz et al., 2021) and from 177 children aged 3–7 years (Experiment 1 in Lewkowicz et al., 2022). All participants had normal or corrected-to-normal vision and hearing. Detailed inclusion criteria and demographics are provided in the Methods section of the SI Appendix. All participants and their caretakers gave their informed consent. This study was approved by the IRB at Northeastern University (#14-04-12).

Apparatus and Stimuli

Child and adult participants were seated approximately 60 cm from a remote video-based eye tracker (REDn SensoMotoric Instruments, SMI), sampling at 60 Hz. Visual stimuli were presented on a laptop computer 11 × 13-inch screen (Dell Precision M4800), while the instructions and auditory stimuli were presented through headphones.

During the practice and test trials, participants saw composite videos depicted in Figure 1. These consisted of four equally sized videos of the same female face presented in each quadrant of the screen. During each test trial, all four faces articulated the same utterance and the accompanying audible utterance was the same as the visible utterance.

During half the test trials (i.e., the Sync condition), the audible utterance was temporally synchronized with the visible articulations of one of the four talking faces (the target) but desynchronized with the articulations of the other three talking faces (the distractors). During the other half of the trials (i.e., the Async condition), the audible utterance was desynchronized from the visible articulations of all four talking faces. The

procedure used to create the composite videos is detailed in the Methods section of the SI Appendix.

Procedure and Design

Measures of gaze were acquired from the right eye. A calibration phase was followed by age-appropriate instructions (see SI Appendix). There were two 15 s practice trials in which the female actor who was not the same as the actors in the test trials (see SI Appendix) was seen and heard. Then, children were given 4 pairs of trials consisting of one synchronous and one asynchronous trial according to Latin a Square design (for details see SI Appendix). Adults were given 32 test trials in one of 4 random orders. Immediately after each test trial, participants were instructed to either point (children) or press a key (adults) corresponding to the face that they thought was the talking face and were not given any feedback. Pointing responses were not recorded as they were intended as incentives.

Data Pre-Processing and Analyses

Preprocessing and computation of dependent variables were performed in Python, and statistical analyses were conducted in SPSS. In the raw fixation data, saccades were identified using the Identification by Two Moving Windows (I2MW) (Hooge et al., 2022). No further processing of fixations was employed. Procedures and parameters are detailed in the Methods section of the SI Appendix. Fixations were labeled according to the dynamic AOI coordinates of each face in each video stimulus. Dependent variables described in Table 1 were computed over each trial (see SI Appendix for details). The corresponding hypotheses are outlined in *Supplementary Table 1* (see SI Appendix).

Throughout the analyses, we conducted separate repeated-measures analyses of variance (rm-ANOVAs) for children and adults (see *Supplementary Tables 3-11* for the complete report of main effects and interactions). Age was included as a between-subjects factor in all rm-ANOVAs of children's data, but not in the analysis of adults' data (see summary in Table 1 below). Target Quadrant was included as a within-subjects factor in all

analyses of fixation-based metrics (Latency, Target PTLT, STE) to investigate vertical asymmetries in dwell-time, but it was not included in the analyses of transition-based metrics (mGTE, GTE and Transition Rate) for which we had no *a priori* spatial asymmetry hypotheses (see Supplementary Table 1 in the Methods section of the SI Appendix for all hypothesis). Post-hoc comparisons were Bonferroni-corrected for multiple comparisons.

Table 1. Dependent Variables Used in the Data Analyses.

Measure	*Description*	*Interpretation*	*Subdivision*	*rm-ANOVA Factors*[1]
Latency	Time to onset of first target fixation.	Captures the first interaction with the target.	-	Age in children Target Quadrant
Target PTLT	Proportion of time spent fixating on the target, over all face fixations.	Captures preferential looking at target vs. distractors.	-	Age in children Condition Target Quadrant
Stationary Entropy (STE)	Normalized distribution score of fixations across pertinent faces, based on PTLT.	A score of 0 indicates that fixations are on one face. A score of 1 indicates the same amount of time is spent on each face.	**All faces**	Age in children Condition Target Quadrant
			Distractors (D)	Age in children Condition Target Quadrant
Modified Gaze Transitions Entropy (mGTE)	Normalized distribution score of transitions, based on probabilities of transitions from an origin face to a different destination face.	A score of 0 characterizes fully predictable transitions, while a score of 1 is for random transitions, independently of spent on each face.	**Distractors (D<->D)**	Age in children Condition
			Target (T->D)	Age in children Condition
Gaze Transitions Entropy (GTE)	Normalized distribution score of transitions, as above, weighted by dwell-times on each face.	A score of 0 characterizes fully predictable transitions, while a score of 1 is for random transitions.	**All faces**	Age in children Condition
Rate of Transitions	Number of transitions between faces over the duration of all pertinent face fixations.	Characterizes the frequency of transitions.	**Distractors (D-D)**	Age in children Condition
			to/from Target (D->T, T->D)	Age in children Condition

[1] Age was included as a within-subjects factor in rm-ANOVAs of the children's data only. All other factors listed were between-subjects factors. Adults' data were analyzed separately, using the same between-subjects factors.

Results

Latency (Time to Onset of First Target Fixation)

In children, latency decreased as a function of Age (see *Supplementary Table 3*). In children and adults, latency differed across Target Quadrants, with targets in the upper quadrants detected faster than those in the lower quadrants (lower vs. upper difference mean, ± s.e.m.: children = 1.1 ± 0.2 s; adults = 0.9 ± 0.1 s).

Target PTLT

Overall, children and adults spent significantly more time fixating the target in the Sync than in the Async condition (see *Supplementary Table 4*). In children, the significant Condition x Age interaction was due to the Sync minus Async difference reaching significance only from age 4 onward (age 3: $p = .055$; ages ≥4: all p's < .001).

Target-PTLT also varied by Target Quadrant and, for children, this effect interacted with Condition and Age (see *Supplementary Table 4).* Children (all p's < .001) and adults (all p's < .001) fixated the upper-quadrant target longer than the lower-quadrant target. Cross-condition comparisons indicated that the Sync > Async difference was significant when the target was in the lower quadrants (all p's<= .028) but not when it was in the upper quadrants (all p's>= .283) at 3 years of age and that, starting at 4 years of age, children spent significantly more time fixating the target in Sync than Async regardless of its location (all p's <= .027).

Stationary Entropy (STE)

Stationary Entropy of Fixations of all Faces. Synchrony condition affected children's and adults' responsiveness differentially and, its effects also interacted with Age in children (see *Supplementary Table 5*). As shown in Figure 1B, from 5 years of age, STE was lower in

the Sync than the Async condition (<5-year-olds, all p's => .09, >5-year-olds all p's <= .01) and this difference increased with age.

Stationary entropy also varied by Target Quadrant in children and adults, and this interacted with Condition in adults only (see *Supplementary Table 5*). Specifically, in children, STE was lower when the target appeared in the upper vs. the lower quadrants regardless of synchrony condition (all p's <= .019). No other quadrant comparisons reached significance. In adults, STE was lower in Sync than in Async regardless of target quadrant (all p's <= .001).

Stationary Entropy of Fixations of Distractors (D). We observed a Condition x Age interaction in children and a significant main effect of Condition in adults (see *Supplementary Table 6*). As can be seen in Figure 1C, 3- and 4-year-olds' STE on distractors was lower in the Async than in Sync (all p's <= .045). This was not the case from age 5 onwards, with no difference in distractors STE across conditions (all p's >= .094). In adults, STE on distractors was lower in the Sync than Async condition and the difference between conditions was larger than in children.

Stationary entropy also varied by Target Quadrant in children and adults, and this interacted with Condition in adults only (see *Supplementary Table 6*). In children, STE on distractors was lower when the target appeared in the upper vs. lower quadrants (all p's <= .019) and this was independent of condition. No other quadrant comparisons reached significance. In adults, STE on distractors was lower in the Sync than the Async condition for all target quadrants (all p's <= .001).

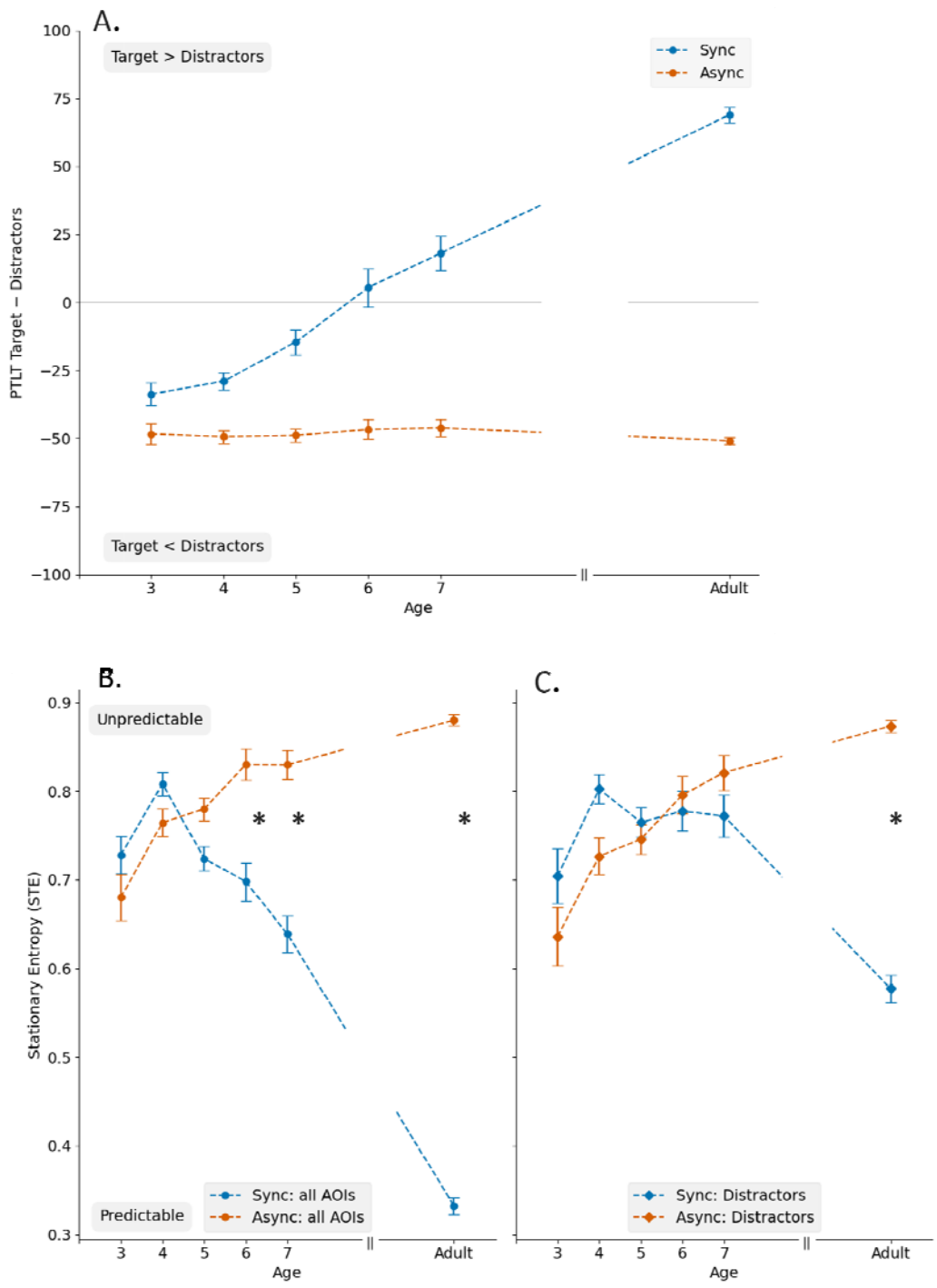

Figure 1. (A) Difference between target-PTLT and distractor-PTLT in Sync and Async. (B) Stationary entropy across all face AOIs. (C) Stationary entropy across distractors. Error bars are standard errors of the mean and asterisks indicate statistically significant differences.

Modified Gaze Transition Entropy (mGTE)

mGTE of transitions away from the target (T -> D). This measure varied with Age in children and as a function of synchrony condition in adults (see *Supplementary Table 7*). As can be seen in Figure 2A, mGTE away from the target was lower in 5- to 7-year-olds than in 3-year-olds (3- vs. 5-, 6- and 7-year-olds: all p's<= .010) across conditions. No other pairwise age comparisons reached significance (all p's>=.061). In adults, T->D mGTE was lower in the Sync than in the Async condition (T->D: p < .001).

mGTE of transitions between distractors (D<->D). D<->D mGTE differed as a function of synchrony condition in children and adults and it also interacted with Age in children (see *Supplementary table 8*). In children (see Figure 2B) the D<->D mGTE was lower in the Sync than the Async condition from 6 years of age (Age > 6 years of age: all p's =<.025, Age < 6 years of age: all p's>=.187). This reflected an increase in D<->D mGTE in the Async condition as a function of age (3 vs. 5-6-7 years of age: p <= .035, , 4 vs. 7 years of age: p < .001, 5 vs. 7 years of age: p < .016; all other age comparisons: p's >= .155) while remaining stable with age in the Sync condition (p's >= .370). In adults, like in children from 6 years of age, D<->D mGTE was lower in Sync than Async.

Gaze Transitions Entropy (GTE)

In children, we observed a significant main effect of Age (see *Supplementary Table 9).* As can be seen in Figure 2C, GTE was lower at 3 years of age than at all other ages (3-year-olds vs. 4-, 5-, 6-, and 7-year-olds, respectively: p's <= .006, all other age comparisons p's >= .157). In adults, we observed a main effect of Condition (see *Supplementary Table 8)*, where GTE was lower in Sync than Async.

Rate of Transitions

Rate of transitions to and from target over target fixation time. For children and adults we observed a significant Condition effect and a Direction × Age interaction for children (see *Supplementary Table 10*). As shown in Figure 2D, for children and adults transitions involving the target (T-D or D-T) were more frequent in the Async than the Sync condition (Sync minus Async < 0). D-T transitions were significantly more frequent than T-D transitions in the 3-year-olds ($p = <.001$) only.

Rate of transitions between distractors (D-D) over distractors fixation time. We observed a significant main effect of Condition in both children and adults (see *Supplementary Table 11*). The D-D transitions were more frequent in the Sync than in the Async condition and while the difference between conditions remained stable across age in the children, they were smaller than the difference in the adults (Figure 2D).

Results for all rm-ANOVAs are summarized in Table 2 and represented in Figure 3.

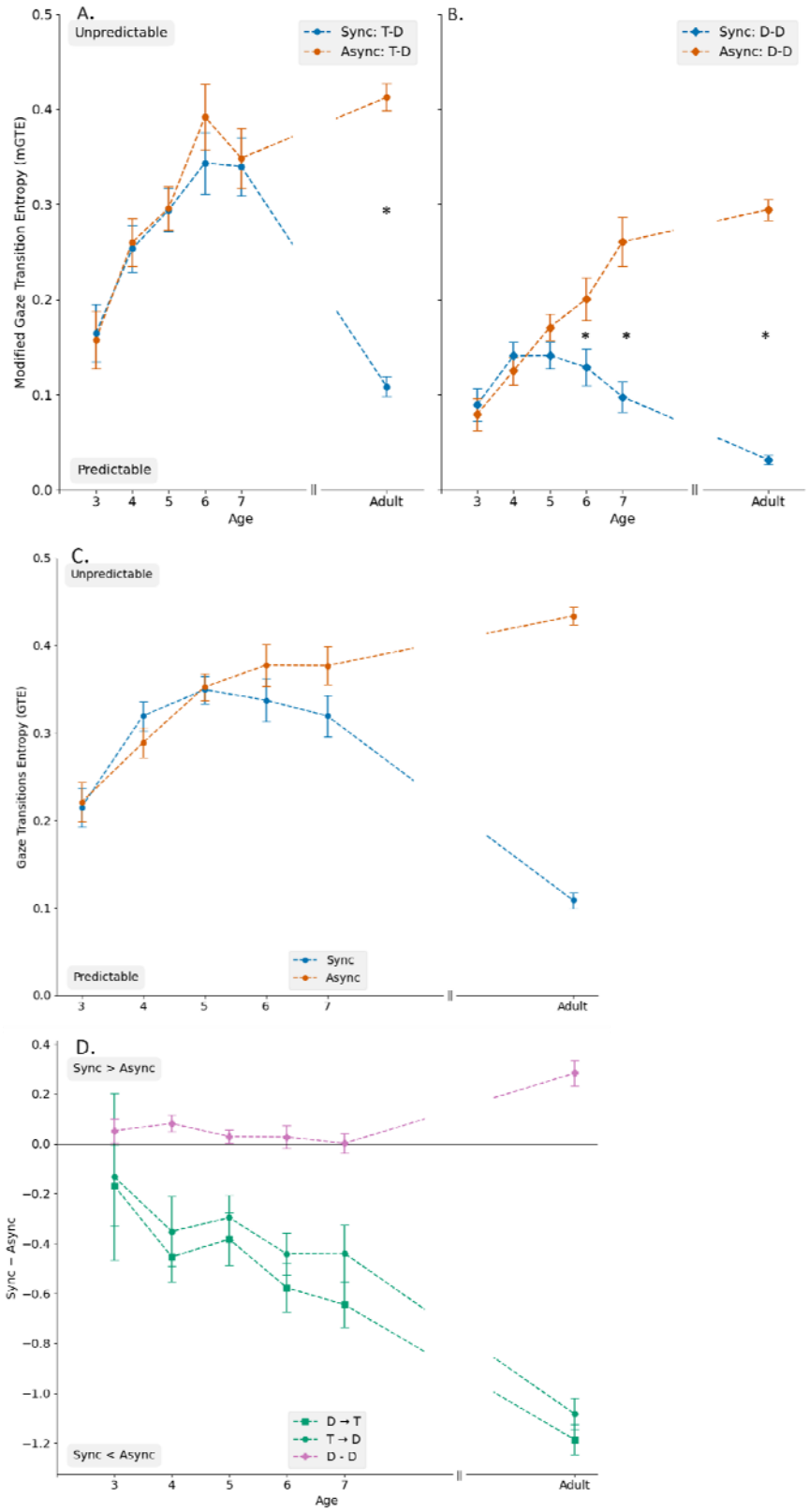

Figure 2. Modified Gaze Transition Entropy in Sync and Async (A) from target to distractors and (B) between distractors. (C) Gaze Transition Entropy in the Sync and

Table 2. Summary of Significant Sync vs. Async Differences by Age and Dependent Measures (DVs). Cells marked with x and highlighted in blue indicate positive condition effects in the direction hypothesized and reported in the DVs column. Cells marked -x and highlighted in grey indicate a significant negative effect. Cells marked n.s. indicate non-significant effects.

DVs		Age 3	4	5	6	7	Adults
Target PTLT *Sync >Async*	-	x	x	x	x	x	x
STE *Sync <Async*	All faces	*n.s.*	*n.s.*	x	x	x	x
	Distractors	-x	-x	*n.s.*	x	x	x
mGTE *Sync <Async*	D <-> D	*n.s.*	*n.s.*	*n.s.*	x	x	x
	T -> D	*n.s.*	*n.s.*	*n.s.*	*n.s.*	*n.s.*	x
GTE *Sync < Async*	All faces	*n.s.*	*n.s.*	*n.s.*	*n.s.*	*n.s.*	x
Rate of Transitions *Sync <Async*	T -> D	x	x	x	x	x	x
	D -> T	x	x	x	x	x	x
	D-D	-x	-x	-x	-x	-x	-x

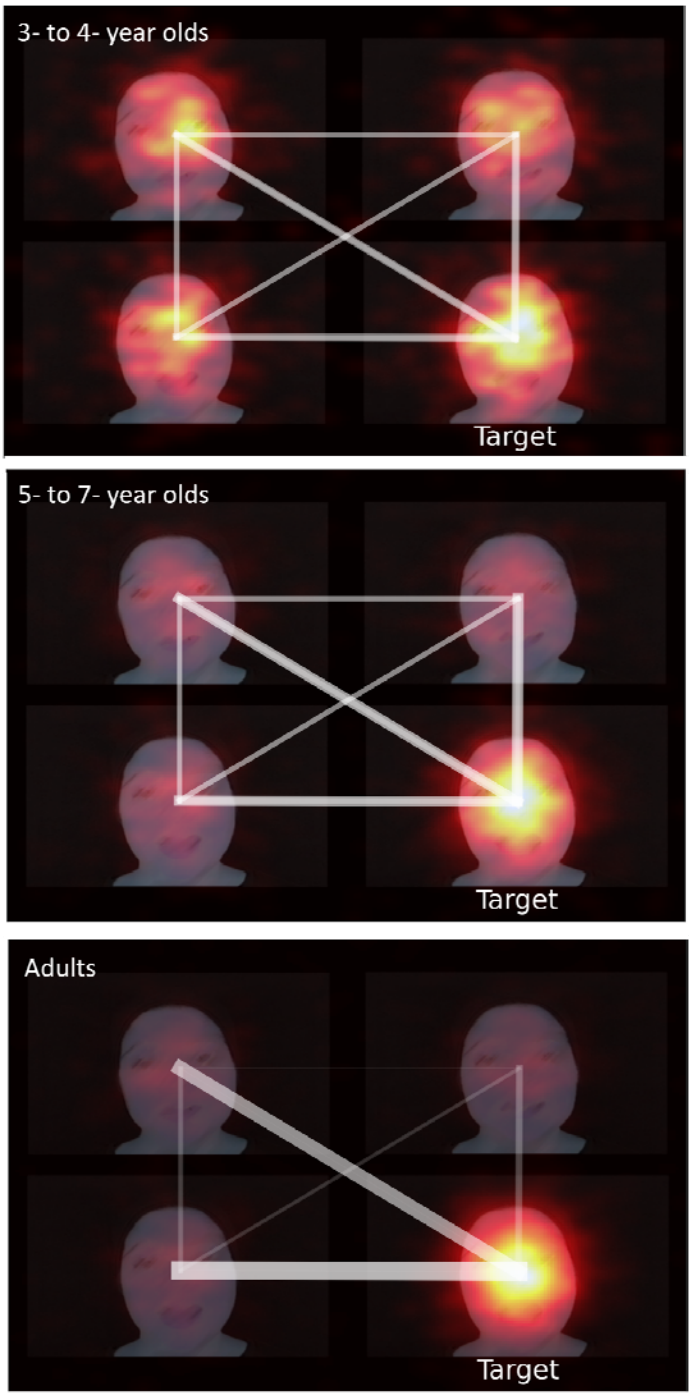

Figure 3. Summary cartoon depicting changes in gaze patterns in Sync vs. Async, for a lower right quadrant Target in 3- to 4-year-olds (top panel), 5- to 7-year-olds (middle panel) and Adults (bottom panel). Heatmaps represent the distribution of gaze on each AOI, with warmer colors being associated with greater PTLT and lower static entropy. Lines represent transitions between AOIs, with thicker lines being associated with lower mGTE or GTE as well as more frequent

Discussion

We examined when and how the types of efficient gaze dynamics that are necessary for solving the MCPP emerge during early childhood and how they compare to those observed in adults. Although children as young as 3–4 years were sensitive to AV temporal synchrony, measures of fixation and gaze transition revealed a protracted developmental trajectory in the ability to segregate a target talking face from competing talkers. Concentration of gaze on the target increased reliably only from 5–6 years of age, while structured sampling of distractors emerged at 6 years of age and further increased into adulthood. Notably, differences between synchrony conditions in transitions away from the target were observed only in adults. Together, these findings show that early sensitivity to AV temporal synchrony is not sufficient for efficient target segregation and that the gradual emergence of dynamic gaze organization is also a necessary precondition for solving the MCPP.

Multisensory integration at 3 and 4 years of age is not sufficient for target segregation

Using target-PTLT measures, Lewkowicz et al. (2022) found that 3- and 4-year-old children relied on AV temporal synchrony cues to identify the target talking face. In contrast, our entropy measures showed that sensitivity to AV temporal synchrony in this age range did not translate into successful fixation of the target over distractors. Instead, fixation patterns at 3 and 4 years old remained broadly distributed as shown by stationary entropy results, with no evidence of structured sampling dynamics. Selective concentration of gaze on the target talking face only emerged at 5 years of age.

The findings from the 3- and 4-year-olds are consistent with those from studies of responsiveness to AV temporal synchrony in infants (6, 7, 23–25) and from studies of synchrony-based lip reading in infancy (26, 27). Together, the evidence from infants and

children demonstrates that temporal synchrony plays a major role as a multisensory binding and integration cue in early childhood (10, 24, 26–30). Importantly, however, our results show that an early-emerging sensitivity to AV temporal synchrony is not sufficient for effective perceptual segregation of a multi-talker scene. Indeed, the shift in gaze behavior observed at 5 years of age can be understood as reflecting both the emergence of multisensory binding and integration as well as the ability to flexibly weigh perceptual salience cues in accordance with task demands.

Spatial biases in gaze sampling constrain target segregation at 3 to 4 years of age

The developmental shift in the ability to flexibly weigh salience cues is further revealed by the spatial analysis results. Thus, at 3 years of age, a strong upper vertical bias inflated target-PTLT, resulting in reduced stationary entropy even in the absence of AV synchrony cues. By 4 years of age, AV synchrony cues allowed children to overcome this spatial bias and led to a significant increase in target-PTLT and a decrease in stationary entropy for the synchronous target at all locations. Interestingly, such spatial biases in preschoolers' gaze allocation have been previously reported in free-viewing of complex scenes (31, 32) and natural viewing behavior (33, 34). Our results add to this evidence and support the Linka et al. (2023, 2025) view that local, low-level features and spatial biases wane in their importance for gaze behavior as development progresses. Critically, we show that before the age of 5, gaze behavior in the context of the MCPP is constrained by spatial biases to such an extent that multisensory cues, though powerful for audiovisual integration from infancy, are not yet sufficient to organize gaze sampling in accordance with the demands of this socially-relevant task.

The continued development of multisensory integration from 5 years of age supports sustained target fixation

Concentration of gaze on the synchronized target increased, as reflected by target PTLT and stationary entropy, between 5 and 7 years of age. Crucially, however, it did not reach adult levels. This is consistent with evidence that, in general, multisensory integration develops gradually into late childhood (35–37) and that, in particular, children's performance in an AV integration speech task improves between early childhood and adolescence (38, 39). The protracted developmental timeline of increasing target dwell-times observed here closely parallels the types of changes in multisensory integration reported in prior studies.

The emergence of structured distractor sampling marks a developmental transition at 6 years of age

Our results point to a qualitative shift in gaze dynamics at 6 years of age, marked by increasingly structured sampling of distractors even though they were visually and audiovisually identical. Efficient sampling of the distractors did not depend on discrimination among them but on mapping and updating uncertainty over possible locations as evidence for the target accumulated. Thus, effective segregation required structuring exploration probabilistically, according to the remaining uncertainty about the target's location. In adults, gaze behavior is shaped by task demands that reduce the influence of sensory salience (11, 40–43). Computational models of visual search similarly show that optimal performance depends on representing the distribution of distractors to enhance target over distractor signals (11, 44–46). This closely resembles the perceptual segregation process used for solving the MCPP, where signals from the target's multisensory features are progressively upweighted against signals from the distractors' features.

Transition metrics provide a dynamic behavioral signature of this segregation process. Consistent with greater dwell-time on the target, both children and adults

increased their overall rate of distractor–distractor transitions when AV cues were synchronous. Despite this, however, it was not until 6 years of age that AV synchrony leads to more predictable distractor sampling (i.e., lower D<->D mGTE), although still not as pronounced as in adults. Interestingly, and in contrast, predictability of departures from the target (T→D mGTE) did not differ across the synchrony conditions at any age in children and was only evident in adults. These results reveal that a key developmental transition, marked by the emergence of structured distractor sampling, occurs at 6 years of age. This age-related pattern suggests that the development of multisensory target segregation depends on the detection of synchrony as well as the ability to update a probabilistic representation of the scene based on accumulating evidence of AV temporal synchrony.

Dynamic gaze transitions reveal probabilistic segregation mechanisms beyond preferential looking

Theoretically, fixation and transition measures can be framed in terms of a Bayesian approach in which participants are assumed to sample the stimulus array to assess the consistency and reliability of AV temporal synchrony cues embedded in the MCPP task. In the Sync condition, evidence can be thought of as accumulating, until posterior probabilities reach a peak and exceed a putative decision criterion. Thus, differences in dwell-time metrics (PTLT, STE) across the two synchrony conditions are related to differences in the amplitude of these posterior peaks (which are directly attributable to multisensory integration). At any one moment, the posterior distribution defines the relative probability of selecting the next face to sample, such that variations in posterior shape over time are mapped onto gaze transitions. As a result, transition entropy and transition rates represent indices of the stability and efficiency of evidence accumulation over time.

Crucially and most importantly, our gaze transition measures provide direct evidence of the development of perceptual segregation dynamics. Optimization of gaze sampling under uncertainty has previously been explored with ideal observer models. For instance, in visual search tasks designed to maximize accuracy, an ideal observer tends to fixate regions with higher uncertainty (47) and the informativeness of each fixation made by an adult human observer resembles that of an ideal observer (48). In addition, adults retain metacognitive information about previously sampled objects, allowing them to continuously assess the reliability of accumulated evidence (49). Consistent with this framework, we observed that AV temporal synchrony only coincided with more predictable departures from the target, faster and more regular sampling of distractors, and more efficient transitions across all AOIs in adults. This suggests that the ability to dynamically segregate a multisensory target embedded in a multi-talker scene, via gaze transitions under uncertainty, continues to develop beyond 7 years of age. Overall, our findings provide novel insights into the multisensory perceptual mechanisms underlying the development of social communication in early childhood.

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Data Availability Statement

The protocol and composite videos are available at DOI: dx.doi.org/10.17504/protocols.io.n2bvj1pdxvk5/v1

Experimental data and analytic code are available at: https://osf.io/am7x4/overview?view_only=431236bbb8624d748e861f31c7935db2

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Supporting Information for

competing talking faces in the multisensory cocktail party problem
Protracted development in children of perceptual segregation of

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This PDF file includes:

Supporting Methods and Results text

Tables S1 to S11

SI References

Other supporting materials for this manuscript include the following:

Movies S1 to S32

Supporting Information Text

Methods

Participants. *Children*. A total of 177 children, comprising separate groups of 3- (n=23), 4- (n=41), 5- (n=55), 6- (n=27), and 7-year-old (n=31) children, contributed data in this study. Data from 5 participants were excluded because they did not complete all 8 experimental trials. Therefore, the analyses reported here were based on data from 173 children. For all comparisons involving Target Quadrants, however, data from an additional 29 participants were excluded (ten 3-year-olds; four 4-year-olds; twelve 5-year-olds; two 6-year-old; and two 7-year-olds) because they did not fixate the target stimulus in one or more Sync trials (i.e., test trials in which one of the 4 talking faces was temporally synchronized with the audible utterance).

Adults. A total of 38 adults, who completed all experimental trials, contributed data in this study. For the analysis of response latency as well as the effects of phase, data from 1 participant were excluded due to a failure to fixate the target stimulus in one Sync trial. As a result, this analysis was based on data from 37 adults.

Apparatus and Stimuli

Procedure to Create the Composite Videos. A crucial point to note with respect to the desynchronization of fluent audiovisual speech is that it leads to the disruption of the zero-lag temporal correlation between the continuous dynamic variations in a talker's visible mouth movements and the accompanying audible vocalizations. This means that the temporal desynchronization of fluent audiovisual speech results in multiple points of audiovisual discordance between the visual and auditory speech streams. Also, another crucial point to note is that the movements of the vocal tract normally precede phonation by 100 to 300 ms (1) and, as a result, the onset of the auditory component of a synchronized AV speech utterance is normally delayed relative to the onset of the visual component of the utterance. This means that the visual and auditory speech streams of a fluent AV speech stream must be temporally separated by more than 300 ms if they are to be perceived as desynchronized. Accordingly, to ensure that participants perceived audiovisual desynchronization, the visual and auditory speech streams for each distractor talking face were jittered by more than 300 ms with respect to one another.

To produce the composite videos, we filmed each of the two test-phase female actors uttering two different sets of two different utterances.[1] This resulted in four different videos representing the four different actor/utterance combinations. We then used each of these four videos to construct four pairs of test trials. Each pair consisted of a synchrony and an asynchrony test trial (Movies S1 to S32). The two types of test trials that made up each pair were the same except that the utterance spoken by the target face was temporally synchronized with the auditory utterance in the synchrony

[1] The four utterances consisted of the following: (1) "But your favorite will be the elephants. They're big and gray and have large floppy ears. Maybe we'll see a baby elephant too? What do you think about that? If not, we could go to story time at the library. All your friends will be there"; (2) "They like to ice skate, right? But, before we can go anywhere, what do we have to do? Change your clothes and eat breakfast, of course. It's cold outside, so you need to wear a sweater. How about the green one with the duck? For breakfast, you can have oatmeal with blueberries."; (3) "Good morning, get up, come on now. If you get up right away, we'll have an hour to play in the house. I love these long mornings, don't you. I wish they could last all day."; (4) "We can hang around all day Saturday. Except, of course, for the party. Are you going to help me fix up the house? Are you? We need to buy flowers, prepare the food, vacuum the house, dust."

test trial but desynchronized with it in the asynchrony test trial. This made it possible to directly compare selective attention to a particular talking face in a particular quadrant as a function of synchrony condition.

Procedure and Design

Instructions. The instructions were as follows: “Today, we are going to play a game. The game will only continue if you are looking at the screen. If you look away, it will stop. You will see four people talking but you will only hear one person talking. Watch carefully and see if you can match the face to the voice. Then, point to the face that you thought was talking. Sometimes it will be easy and sometimes hard. Watch carefully!” During these instructions, children saw a still and silent image of four identical faces. For adults, the instructions were to indicate “the talking face” by pressing one of the keys on the numerical keypad that corresponded spatially to that talking face.

Practice Trials. During the first practice trial, they saw the four faces articulating the same utterance and they heard a temporally synchronized audible version of the same utterance with one of the talking faces. During the second practice trial, participants saw the same four talking faces again except that here the auditory utterance was desynchronized from all four talking faces. After each practice trial, participants saw a composite video of the four faces seen in the previous composite video except that now the faces were still and blinked occasionally. Children were instructed to point to the face that matched the voice whereas adults were instructed to press a key on the keyboard corresponding to the face that they perceived as the talking face in the preceding composite video. No feedback regarding accuracy was given after the participants pointed. Once the practice trials were completed, the participants were asked if they had any questions and, if they had none, the experiment continued.

Latin-Squares Design for Children. The Quadrant groups differed in terms of the location of target-face presentation for each unique pair of synchrony/asynchrony test trials, with two constraints. The first was that, within each group, the quadrant of target-face presentation for each pair of synchrony/asynchrony test trials had to be counterbalanced across the four quadrants. The second constraint was that, across the four groups, the specific quadrant in which the targets in a given pair of test stimuli were presented had to be counterbalanced. Assignment to one of the four Quadrant

groups was randomly determined. For the adults, the 32 test trials were presented in one of 4 randomly generated test trial orders where, in contrast to children, synchronous and asynchronous trials were not presented in pairs. The adult participants were randomly assigned to one of the 4 orders.

Data Pre-Processing and Analyses

Preprocessing. The I2MW algorithm consists of two rolling windows which track non-linearities in Euclidian coordinates. The windows were separated by one sample and each window computes the median of the gaze position in Euclidian coordinates. If the difference between the medians computed by each window exceeds a 0.1 deg threshold, the sample between the window is considered a saccade. The labeling of saccades was manually verified, trial-by-trial, with no changes made to the output of the algorithm. The remaining traces were labeled as fixations.

Dependent Variables: Latency. For each trial in the Sync condition, the first fixation on the target face AOI was identified and the duration from the onset of the trial to the onset of this fixation defined the latency of the response time to the target face. In the Async condition, response latency was measured to the virtual target face, namely the face in the same quadrant where the target face was presented during the Sync trial.

Dependent Variables: Target PTLT. We used the same method as Lewkowicz et al. (2021; 2022) to calculate the PTLT scores for looking at the target but a different method to calculate the scores for looking at the distractors (for calculations identical to those used by Lewkowicz et al., (2021; 2022) see *Supplementary Table 1)*. Here, to calculate the PTLT for the target, we divided the total amount of looking at the target face AOI by the total amount of looking at the four face AOIs for each participant and trial. To calculate the PTLT for the distractors, we summed the total amount of looking time at the distractors and then divided by the total amount of looking time at the four face AOIs for each participant and trial. As a result, the Distractors PTLT was equivalent to formula 1 – target PTLT. Given that our method for calculating the Distractors PTLT resulted in this measure being a complement to Target PTLT, we did not include it in the repeated-measures (rm)-ANOVA.

Dependent Variables: Stationary Entropy (STE). To characterize the spatial distribution of fixations across the 4 talking faces, we computed stationary entropy as described in Shiferaw et al. (2019). We did so both across all faces and across distractors only, where for each relevant face *i*, we

computed the probability of fixation as the total duration of fixation on *i* divided by the total duration of fixations on all faces or on distractors respectively.

$$H = -\sum_{i=1}^{n} (p_i) log2(p_i)$$

We then normalized the entropy (*H)* by the maximum possible entropy for a system with states and no self-transitions, where = 4 for all faces and = *3* for distractors, as . It yielded values between 0 (minimal entropy), when all fixation time was on one face, and 1 (maximal entropy), when equal amounts of time were spent on all relevant faces.

Dependent Variables: Modified Gaze Transitions Entropy (mGTE). Because participants were tasked with identifying a target among multiple competing distractors, we sought to explore the structure of gaze transitions from target to distractors (T->D) and between distractors (D-D), independently of the stationary gaze distribution. We thus computed a variant of gaze transition entropy in which only the transitions between the relevant subset of AOIs (T->D or D-D) were considered. In doing so we did not assess the overall gaze transition complexity (see classical GTE below) but instead asked how predictable were gaze transitions that originated from the target face or from distractor faces, regardless of how often each face was visited. For each trial we removed self-transitions and constructed a 4x4 transition count matrix . Each row was normalized , with values ranging from 0 to 1, representing the probability of transitioning to a destination face *j* given an origin face. We calculated this measure separately for transitions involving the target and the distractors (T-D) and transitions among distractors only (D-D). For T-D transitions, all four faces were retained in the matrix, but only transitions in which either the source or destination was the target were counted. Similarly, for D-D transitions, only transitions in which the target was not present were counted. We then calculated row-wise conditional entropy, .

$$H_i = -\sum_{i \neq j} p(i,j)\ log2\ p(i,j)$$

Rows with no outgoing transitions and rows with only one possible outgoing transition contributed 0 bits. For T-D entropy, this meant that only transitions originating from the target could contribute more than 0 bits, effectively representing the predictability of transitions departing from the target (T->D). For D-D entropy, this meant that transitions originating from any of the three distractors could contribute more than 0 bits, representing the predictability of all D<->D transitions. The transition entropy (*H*) for the subset (*S)* (T->D or D<->D) in a given trial was then defined as the weighted mean of the row entropies (using as uniform weights 1/ , where *k* was the number of possible origin AOIs (*k*=1 for T-D, *k*=3 for D-D).

$$H = \frac{1}{k} \sum_{i \in S} H_i$$

We report this quantity normalized by log2(*k*-1), which equals the maximum possible entropy between *k* states when self-transitions are excluded (log2(2) for T-D and log2(3) for D-D), to obtain values on a 0–1 scale. Effectively, the T-D transition entropy here represents how much structure is in the transitions from the target to the distractor, independently of dwell times on target. In turn, D-D transitions represent how represents how much structure is in the transitions between distractors, independently of dwell-times on each distractor.

Dependent Variables: Gaze Transition Entropy (GTE). To quantify how gaze dynamics varied as a combination of the spatial distribution of fixations and the structure of transitions, we computed transition entropy as in Shiferaw et al. (2019) across all faces. For each trial we removed self-transitions, so that only transitions between faces remained. Row-wise entropy was calculated as above, yielding a 4x1 vector .

$$H_i = -\sum_{i \neq j} p(i,j)\ log2\ p(i,j)$$

Rows with no outgoing transitions contributed 0 bits. The transition entropy for the trial was then defined as the weighted mean of the row entropies, where weights were dwell-times on each

origin face divided by total dwell-time on all faces – i.e. the probability of fixation p_i on each AOI, in a 4x1 vector. We report this quantity normalized by log2(3) to obtain a 0–1 scale.

Dependent Variables: Rate of transitions. Transitions were defined as consecutive fixations on different faces. Transitions between faces and non-AOI coordinates and consecutive fixations on the same face were excluded from this count. We calculated this measure for transitions involving the target and a distractor (T-D), and transitions among distractors only (D-D). Counts of transitions between distractors were not directional and were divided by the total duration of fixations on distractors during the trial. In contrast, counts of transitions between target and distractors were directional, differentiating between transitions from target to distractors (T-D) and transitions from distractors to target (D-T), and divided by the total duration of fixation on the target. Dependent variables and their associated hypothesis are listed in Supplementary Table 1.

Results

PTLT as calculated Lewkowicz et al. (2021, 2022), where Distractor PTLT corresponds to the average PTLT of all distractors. Comparisons between Stimulus Type (Target or Distractors) for each Age and Condition confirmed that, as reported in Lewkowicz et al. (2021, 2022), children from 3y.o. and adults selectively attended more to the target than to the distractors in the Sync condition (all ps=<.01), but not in the Async condition (all ps>= .215) (see Table S2). In Sync, the difference between Target and Distractors PTLT increased from 3-year-olds (mean ± s.e.m Target: 33.1±3.1%, Distractors: 22.3±1.8%) to 7-year-olds (mean ± s.e.m Target: 59±2.7%, Distractor: 13.6±.9%), without however reaching adult levels (mean ± s.e.m Target PTLT: 77.7± .8% , Distractor PTLT: 4.35± .2%).

Tables

Table S1. Dependent variables and their corresponding working hypothesis.

Measure	***Subivisions***	***Hypothesis***
Latency		Decreases with age
Target PTLT		Sync > Async, Sync-Async difference increases with age
Stationary Entropy (STE)	**All faces**	Async > Sync, Async - Sync difference increases with age
	Distractors (D)	Async = Sync, no age variation
Modified Gaze Transition Entropy (mGTE)	**Distractors (D<->D)**	Async > Sync, no age variation
	Target (T->D)	Async > Sync, Async – Sync difference increases with age
Gaze Transition Entropy (GTE)	**All faces**	Async < Sync, Async-Sync difference increases with age
Rate of Transitions	**Distractors (D-D)**	Async = Sync, no age variation
	to/from Target (D->T, T->D)	Async > Sync, Sync: D->T > T->D

Table S2. rm-ANOVA of PTLT as calculated Lewkowicz et al. (2021, 2022), where Distractor PTLT corresponds to the average PTLT of all distractors.

	Children			**Adults**		
	F	*p*	ηp^2	*F*	*p*	ηp^2
Age	F(4,172)=14.26	<.001	.25	-	-	-
Condition	F(1,172)=167.98	<.001	.49	F(1,37)=1002.83	<.001	0.96
Condition x Age	F(4,172)=9.87	<.001	.19	-	-	-
Stimulus Type	F(1,172)=235.37	<.001	.58	F(1,37)=855.35	<.001	0.95
Condition x Stimulus Type	F(1,172)=167.98	<.001	.49	F(1,37)=1096.24	<.001	0.97
Stimulus Type x Age	F(4,172)=14.26	<.001	.25	-	-	-
Condition x Stimulus Type x Age	F(4,172)=9.87	<.001	.19	-	-	-

Table S3. rm-ANOVA of PTLT as calculated Lewkowicz et al. (2021, 2022), where Distractor PTLT corresponds to the average PTLT of all distractors[1]

	Children			**Adults**		
	F	*p*	ηp^2	*F*	*p*	ηp^2
Age	*F*(3,147)=3.24	.014	.082	-	-	-
T Quadrant	*F*(3,147)=22.57	< .001	.336	*F*(3,45)=35.89	<. 001	.50
Age × T Quadrant	F(12,147)=1.49	.196	.038	-	-	-

1. For children and adults, rm-ANOVAs included Target Quadrant as a within-subjects factor with data from 143 children and 37 adults. Participants were excluded if they produced no fixation on the target in a Sync trial (see *Participants* in SI Appendix).

Table S4. ANOVA of Target PTLT Scores. [1]

	Children			Adults		
	F	***p***	***ηp²***	***F***	***p***	***ηp²***
Age	F(172,4)=14.26	.001	.25	-	-	-
Condition	F(1,172)=167.98	<.001	.49	F(1,37)=1448.30	< .001	.97
Condition x Age	F(4,172)=9.87	<.001	.19	-	-	-
T Quadrant	F(3,170)=25.5	<.001	.31	F(3,111)=10.27	< .001	0.21
T Quadrant x Age	F(12,516)=1.32	.205	.03	-	-	-
T Quadrant x Condition	F(3,170)=3.97	.009	.07	F(3,111)=1.67	0.17	0.04
T Quadrant x Condition x Age	F(12,516)=2.32	.007	.05	-	-	-

1. As noted in the Methods section of this SI Appendix, our PTLT calculation differed from Lewkowicz et al. (2021; 2022), resulting in a summed target and distractors PTLT of 100%. Given that the distractor PTLT was a complement of target PTLT, we only included the latter measure in the initial ANOVA analyses. Therefore, the within-subjects factors in the rm-ANOVAs were Condition (Sync, Async) and Target Quadrant.

Table S5. ANOVA of Stationary Entropy (STE) across all faces. [1]

	Children			**Adults**		
	F	*p*	*ηp²*	***F***	***p***	***ηp²***
Age	F(4,172) = 18.76	.049	.05	-	-	-
Condition	F(1,172) = 18.76	<.001	.10	F(1,37) = 410.46	< .001	0.91
Condition x Age	F(4,172) = 12.12	<.001	.22	-	-	-
T Quadrant	F(3,170) = 8.35	<.001	.13	F(3,37) = 16.74	< .001	0.31
T Quadrant x Condition	F(3,170) = 2.24,	.085	.04	F(3,37) = 15.35	< .001	0.29
T Quadrant x Age	F(12,516) = 1.71	.060	.038	-	-	-
T Quadrant x Condition x Age	F(12,516) = 1.48	.128	.033	-	-	-

1. To determine whether the differences in PTLT observed across the synchrony conditions and across age reflected changes in fixation dispersion, we computed normalized Shannon's stationary entropy for fixations on all AOIs. Here, the within-subjects factors in the rm-ANOVAs were Condition, Stimulus Type, and Target Quadrant.

Table S6. ANOVA of Stationary Entropy (STE) on distractors. [1]

	Children			Adults		
	F	***p***	***ηp²***	***F***	***p***	***ηp²***
Age	F(4,172)=3.16	.015	.07	-	-	-
Condition	F(1,172)=2.26	.134	.01	F(1,37)=117.52	< .001	0.76
Condition x Age	F(4,172)=3.50	.009	.07	-	-	-
T Quadrant	F(3,170)=14.9	<.001	.21	F(3,37)=12.20	< .001	0.25
T Quadrant x Condition	F(3,170)=.46	.710	.01	F(3,37)=13.94	< .001	0.27
T Quadrant x Age	F(12,516)=1.50	.120	.01	-	-	-
T Quadrant x Condition x Age	F(12,516)=1.45	.143	.03	-	-	-

1. To determine whether the differences in PTLT observed across the synchrony conditions and across age reflected changes in fixation dispersion, we computed stationary entropy on distractors. Here, the within-subjects factors in the rm-ANOVAs were Condition, Stimulus Type, and Target Quadrant. normalized Shannon's stationary entropy for fixations on all distractors only.

Table S7. ANOVA of Modified Gaze Transitions (mGTE) from Target to Distractors.[1]

	Children			Adults		
	F	***p***	***ηp²***	***F***	***p***	***ηp²***
Age	F(4,172)=6.55	<.001	.13	-	-	-
Condition	F(1,172)=.48	.488	.00	F(1,35)= 123.59	<0.001	0.78
Condition x Age	F(4,172)=.27	.898	.01	-	-	-

1. To characterize the predictability of departure from the target (T->D) and transitions between distractors (D<->D), we computed the modified transitions entropy for these AOIs. Although these measures do not represent the overall transition dynamics, they provide insights into the differences between dynamics of T->D vs. D<->D transitions. The within-subjects factor in this rm-ANOVAs was Condition.

Table S8. ANOVA of Modified Gaze Transitions (mGTE) between Distractors. [1]

	Children			Adults		
	F	***p***	***ηp²***	***F***	***p***	***ηp²***
Age	F(4,172)=6.13	<.001	.13	-	-	-
Condition	F(1,172)=13.40	<.001	.07	F(1,35)= 133.52	<0.001	0.79
Condition x Age	F(4,172)=6.26	<.001	.13	-	-	-

1. To characterize the predictability of departure from the target (T->D) and transitions between distractors (D<->D), we computed the modified transitions entropy for these AOIs. Although these measures do not represent the overall transition dynamics, they provide insights into the differences between dynamics of T->D vs. D<->D transitions. The within-subjects factor in this rm-ANOVAs was Condition.

Table S9. ANOVA of Gaze Transition Entropy (GTE) across all faces. [1]

	Children			Adults		
	F	***p***	***ηp²***	***F***	***p***	***ηp²***
Age	F(4,172)=3.63	.007	.08	-	-	-
Condition	F(1,172)=3.77	.054	.021	F(1,35)=177.84	<.001	.84
Condition x Age	F(4,172=.53	0.716	.01	-	-	-

1. To characterize the overall dynamics underlying the stationary distribution of gaze (Target and Distractor PTLT as well as Stationary Entropy), we computed the transitions entropy for transitions between all faces, weighted by dwell-time on each face. Condition was the within-subjects factor in the rm-ANOVAs.

Table S10. ANOVA of Rate of Transitions between Distractors over Total Distractors Fixation Time.[1]

	Children			Adults		
	F	***p***	***ηp²***	***F***	***p***	***ηp²***
Age	F(4,167)=2.38	.60	.02	-	-	-
Condition	F(1,167)=4.96	.027	.028	F(1,35)=29.41	<.001	.456
Condition x Age	F(4,167)=.69	0.596	.02	-	-	-

1. To assess the likelihood of transitioning between distractors, we divided the number of such transitions by the summed duration of fixations on distractors. The rm-ANOVAs included only Condition as within-subjects factor.

Table S11. ANOVA of Rate of Transitions between Target and Distractors Transitions over Total Target Fixation Time.[1]

	Children			Adults		
	F	***p***	***ηp²***	***F***	***p***	***ηp²***
Age	F(4,172)=.96	.430	.02	-	-	-
Condition	F(1,172)=57.20	<.001	.25	F(1,33)= 390.76	<.001	.92
Condition x Age	F(4,172)=10.30	.201	.03	-	-	-
Direction	F(1,172)=.20	.081	.02	F(1,33)=3.17	.08	.09
Direction x Condition	F(1,172)=2.88	.091	.02	F(1,33)=2.51	.12	.07
Direction x Age	F(4,172)=4.03	.004	.09	-	-	-
Direction x Condition x Age	F(4,172)=.16	.958	.00	-	-	-

1. To assess the likelihood of transitioning between distractors, we divided the number of such transitions by the summed duration of fixations on distractors. The rm-ANOVAs included Condition as the only within-subjects factor.

Movie S1 (separate file). Actor: Alyssa, Condition: Sync, Target Quadrant: Left Bottom, Utterance: "We can...".

Movie S2 (separate file). Actor: Alyssa, Condition: Sync, Target Quadrant: Left Bottom, Utterance: "Good morning.".

Movie S3 (separate file). Actor: Alyssa, Condition: Sync, Target Quadrant: Left Top, Utterance: "Good morning.".

Movie S4 (separate file). Actor: Alyssa, Condition: Sync, Target Quadrant: Left Top, Utterance: "We can...".

Movie S5 (separate file). Actor: Alyssa, Condition: Sync, Target Quadrant: Right Bottom, Utterance: "Good morning.".

Movie S6 (separate file). Actor: Alyssa, Condition: Sync, Target Quadrant: Right Bottom, Utterance: "We can...".

Movie S7 (separate file). Actor: Alyssa, Condition: Sync, Target Quadrant: Right Top, Utterance: "Good morning.".

Movie S8 (separate file). Actor: Alyssa, Condition: Sync, Target Quadrant: Right Top, Utterance: "We can...".

Movie S9 (separate file). Actor: Alyssa, Condition: Async, Target Quadrant: Left Bottom, Utterance: "Good morning.".

Movie S10 (separate file). Actor: Alyssa, Condition: Async, Target Quadrant: Left Bottom, Utterance: "We can...".

Movie S11 (separate file). Actor: Alyssa, Condition: Async, Target Quadrant: Left Top, Utterance: "Good morning.".

Movie S12 (separate file). Actor: Alyssa, Condition: Async, Target Quadrant: Left Top, Utterance: "We can...".

Movie S13 (separate file). Actor: Alyssa, Condition: Async, Target Quadrant: Right Bottom, Utterance: "Good morning.".

Movie S14 (separate file). Actor: Alyssa, Condition: Async, Target Quadrant: Right Bottom, Utterance: "We can...".

Movie S15 (separate file). Actor: Alyssa, Condition: Async, Target Quadrant: Right Top, Utterance: "Good morning.".

Movie S16 (separate file). Actor: Alyssa, Condition: Async, Target Quadrant: Right Top, Utterance: "We can...".

Movie S17 (separate file). Actor: Megan, Condition: Sync, Target Quadrant: Left Bottom, Utterance: "But...".

Movie S18 (separate file). Actor: Megan, Condition: Sync, Target Quadrant: Left Bottom, Utterance: "They like to ice...".

Movie S19 (separate file). Actor: Megan, Condition: Sync, Target Quadrant: Left Top, Utterance: "But...".

Movie S20 (separate file). Actor: Megan, Condition: Sync, Target Quadrant: Left Top, Utterance: "They like to ice...".

Movie S21 (separate file). Actor: Megan, Condition: Sync, Target Quadrant: Right Bottom, Utterance: "But...".

Movie S22 (separate file). Actor: Megan, Condition: Sync, Target Quadrant: Right Bottom, Utterance: "They like to ice...".

Movie S23 (separate file). Actor: Megan, Condition: Sync, Target Quadrant: Right Top, Utterance: "But...".

Movie S24 (separate file). Actor: Megan, Condition: Sync, Target Quadrant: Right Top, Utterance: "They like to ice...".

Movie S25 (separate file). Actor: Megan, Condition: Async, Target Quadrant: Left Bottom, Utterance: "But...".

Movie S26 (separate file). Actor: Megan, Condition: Async, Target Quadrant: Left Bottom, Utterance: "They like to ice...".

Movie S27 (separate file). Actor: Megan, Condition: Async, Target Quadrant: Left Top, Utterance: "But...".

Movie S28 (separate file). Actor: Megan, Condition: Async, Target Quadrant: Left Top, Utterance: "They like to ice...".

Movie S29 (separate file). Actor: Megan, Condition: Async, Target Quadrant: Right Bottom, Utterance: "But...".

Movie S30 (separate file). Actor: Megan, Condition: Async, Target Quadrant: Right Bottom, Utterance: "They like to ice...".

Movie S31 (separate file). Actor: Megan, Condition: Async, Target Quadrant: Right Top, Utterance: "But...".

Movie S32 (separate file). Actor: Megan, Condition: Async, Target Quadrant: Right Top, Utterance: "They like to ice...".

SI References

1. C. Chandrasekaran, A. Trubanova, S. Stillittano, A. Caplier, A. A. Ghazanfar, The natural statistics of audiovisual speech. PLoS Comput Biol 5, e1000436 (2009).
2. B. Shiferaw, L. Downey, D. Crewther, A review of gaze entropy as a measure of visual scanning efficiency. Neurosci Biobehav Rev 96, 353–366 (2019).