

1 Detecting social information in a dense database of infants' natural visual experience

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## Abstract

7

8 The faces and hands of caregivers and other social partners offer a rich source of social and  
9 causal information that may be critical for infants' cognitive and linguistic development.  
10 Previous work using manual annotation strategies and cross-sectional data has found  
11 systematic changes in the proportion of faces and hands in the egocentric perspective of  
12 young infants. Here, we examine the prevalence of faces and hands in a longitudinal  
13 collection of nearly 1700 headcam videos collected from three children along a span of 6 to 32  
14 months of age—the SAYCam dataset (Sullivan, Mei, Perfors, Wojcik, & Frank, under  
15 review). To analyze these naturalistic infant egocentric videos, we first validated the use of a  
16 modern convolutional neural network of pose detection (OpenPose) for the detection of faces  
17 and hands. We then applied this model to the entire dataset, and found a higher proportion  
18 of hands in view than previous reported and a moderate decrease the proportion of faces in  
19 children's view across age. In addition, we found variability in the proportion of faces/hands  
20 viewed by different children in different locations (e.g., living room vs. kitchen), suggesting  
21 that individual activity contexts may shape the social information that infants experience.

22 *Keywords:* social cognition; face perception; infancy; head cameras; deep learning

23 Word count: 3444

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25 **Introduction**

26 Infants are confronted by a blooming, buzzing onslaught of stimuli (James, 1890) which  
27 they must learn to parse to make sense of the world around them. Yet they do not embark  
28 on this learning process alone: From as early as 3 months of age, young infants follow overt  
29 gaze shifts (Gredeback, Theuring, Hauf, & Kenward, 2008), and even newborns prefer to  
30 look at faces with direct vs. averted gaze (Farroni, Csibra, Simion, & Johnson, 2002), despite  
31 their limited acuity. As faces are likely to be an important conduit of social information that  
32 scaffolds cognitive development, psychologists have long hypothesized that faces are  
33 prevalent in the visual experience of young infants.

34 Yet until recently most hypotheses about infants' visual experience have gone untested.  
35 Though parents and scientists alike have strong intuitions about what infants see, even the  
36 viewpoint of a walking child is not easily predicted by these intuitions (Clerkin, Hart, Rehg,  
37 Yu, & Smith, 2017; Franchak, Kretch, Soska, & Adolph, 2011). By equipping infants and  
38 toddlers with head-mounted cameras, researchers have begun to document the infant's  
39 egocentric perspective on the world. Using these methods, a growing body of work now  
40 demonstrates that the viewpoints of very young infants (less than 4 months of age) are  
41 indeed dominated by frequent, persistent views of the faces of their caregivers (Jayaraman &  
42 Smith, 2018; Jayaraman, Fausey, & Smith, 2015; Sugden, Mohamed-Ali, & Moulson, 2014).

43 Beyond these early months, infants' motor and cognitive abilities mature, leading to  
44 vastly different perspectives on the world. For example, crawlers see fewer faces and hands  
45 than do walking children (Franchak, Kretch, & Adolph, 2017; Kretch, Franchak, & Adolph,  
46 2014; Sanchez, Long, Kraus, & Frank, 2018) as well as different views of objects (Smith, Yu,  
47 & Pereira, 2011). Further, as infants learn to use their own hands to act on the world, they  
48 seem to focus on manual actions taken by their social partners, and their perspective starts

49 to capture views of hands manipulating objects (Fausey, Jayaraman, & Smith, 2016). In  
50 turn, caregivers may also start to use their hands with more communicative intent, directing  
51 infants' attention by pointing and gesturing to different events and objects during play (Yu  
52 & Smith, 2013).

53 Here, we examine the social information present in the infant visual perspective—the  
54 presence of faces and hands—by analyzing a longitudinal collection of nearly 1700 headcam  
55 videos collected from three children along a span of 6 to 32 months of age—the SAYCam  
56 dataset (Sullivan et al., under review). In addition to its size and longitudinal nature, this  
57 dataset is more naturalistic than those previously used in two key ways. First, recordings  
58 were taken under a large variety of activity contexts (Bruner, 1985; B. C. Roy, Frank,  
59 DeCamp, Miller, & Roy, 2015) encompassing infants' viewpoints during both activities  
60 outside and inside the home. Even in other naturalistic datasets, the incredible variety in a  
61 typical infant's experience has been largely underrepresented (see examples in Figure 1; e.g.,  
62 riding in the car, gardening, watching chickens during a walk, browsing magazines, nursing,  
63 brushing teeth). Second, the head-mounted cameras used in the SAYCam dataset captured a  
64 larger field of view than those typically used, allowing a more complete picture of the infant  
65 perspective. While head-mounted cameras with a more restricted field of view do represent  
66 where infants are foveating most of the time (Smith, Yu, Yoshida, & Fausey, 2015; Yoshida  
67 & Smith, 2008), they may fail to capture short saccades to either faces or hands in the  
68 periphery, as the timescale of head movements is much longer.

69 With hundreds of hours of footage (>40M frames), however, this large dataset  
70 necessitates a shift to an automated annotation strategy. Indeed, annotation of the frames  
71 extracted from egocentric videos has been prohibitively time-consuming, meaning that most  
72 frames are typically not inspected, even in the most comprehensive studies. For example,  
73 Fausey et al. (2016) collected a total of 143 hours of head-mounted camera footage (15.5  
74 million frames), of which one frame every five seconds was hand-annotated (by four coders),

75 totalling 103,383 frames (per coder)—an impressive number of annotations but nonetheless  
76 only 0.67% of the collected footage. To address this challenge, we use a modern computer  
77 vision model of pose detection to automatically detect the presence of hands and faces from  
78 the infant egocentric viewpoint. Specifically, we use OpenPose (Cao, Hidalgo, Simon, Wei, &  
79 Sheikh, 2018), a model optimized for jointly detecting human face, body, hand, and foot  
80 keypoints that operates well on scenes including multiple people, even if they are  
81 partially-occluded (see Figure 1). In prior work examining egocentric videos, OpenPose  
82 performed comparably to other modern face detection models (Sanchez et al., 2018).

83 In this paper, we first describe the dataset and validate the use of this model by  
84 comparing face and hand detections to a human-annotated set of 24,000 frames. Next, we  
85 report how the proportion of faces and hands changes with age in each of the three children  
86 in the dataset. We then investigate sources of variability in our more naturalistic dataset  
87 that may explain differences from prior work, including both the field-of-view of the head  
88 cameras as well as a diversity of locations in which videos were recorded.

## 89 Method

### 90 Dataset

91 The dataset is described in detail in Sullivan et al. (under review); we summarize these  
92 details here. Children wore Veho Muvi miniature cameras mounted on a custom camping  
93 headlamp harness (“headcams”) at least twice weekly, for approximately one hour per  
94 recording session. One weekly session was on the same day each week at a roughly constant  
95 time of day, while the other(s) were chosen arbitrarily at the participating family’s discretion.  
96 At the time of the recording, all three children were in single-child households. Videos  
97 captured by the headcam were 640x480 pixels, and a fisheye lens was attached to the camera  
98 to increase the field of view to approximately 109 degrees horizontal x 70 degrees vertical.

99 Videos<sup>1</sup> with technical errors or that were not taken from the egocentric perspective were  
100 excluded from the dataset. While data collection for the third child (Y) is still ongoing, here  
101 we analyze 1698 videos, with a total duration of 374.88 hours (>40 million frames).

## 102 **Detection Method**

103 To automatically annotate the millions of frames in SAYCam, we used a pose detector,  
104 OpenPose<sup>2</sup> (Cao et al., 2018; Simon, Joo, Matthews, & Sheikh, 2017), which provided the  
105 locations of 18 body parts (ears, nose, wrists, etc.). To do so, a convolutional neural network  
106 was used for initial anatomical detection, and part affinity fields were subsequently applied  
107 for part association to produce a series of body part candidates. Once these body part  
108 candidates were matched to a single individual in the frame, they were finally assembled into  
109 a pose. Thus, while we only made use of the outputs of the face and hand detections, the  
110 entire set of pose information from an individual was used to determine the presence of a  
111 face/hand, making the process more robust to occlusion than methods optimized to detect  
112 only faces or hands. Note, however, that these face/hand detections are reliant on the  
113 detection of at least a partial pose, so some very up-close views of faces/hands may go  
114 undetected.

## 115 **Detection Validation**

116 To test the validity of OpenPose’s hand and face detections, we compared the accuracy  
117 of these detections relative to human annotations of 24,000 frames selected uniformly at  
118 random from videos of two children (S and A). Frames were jointly annotated for the  
119 presence of faces and hands by one author. A second set of coders recruited via AMT

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<sup>1</sup>All videos are available at <https://nyu.databrary.org/volume/564>

<sup>2</sup><https://github.com/CMU-Perceptual-Computing-Lab/openpose>

120 (Amazon Mechanical Turk) additionally annotated 3150 frames; agreement with the primary  
121 coder was >95%.

122 As has been observed in other studies on automated annotation of headcam data  
123 (Bambach, Lee, Crandall, & Yu, 2015; e.g. Frank, Simmons, Yurovsky, & Pusiol, 2013;  
124 Sanchez et al., 2018), detection tasks that are easy in third-person video can be quite  
125 challenging in egocentric videos, due to difficult angles and sizes as well as substantial  
126 occlusion. For example, the infant perspective often contains non-canonical viewpoints of  
127 faces (e.g., looking up at a caregiver’s chin) as well as partially-occluded or oblique  
128 viewpoints of both faces and hands. Further, hand detection tends to be a harder  
129 computational problem than face detection (Bambach et al., 2015; Simon et al., 2017). We  
130 thus expected overall performance to be lower in these naturalistic videos than on either  
131 photos taken from the adult perspective or in egocentric videos in controlled, laboratory  
132 settings (e.g., Sanchez et al., 2018).

133 To evaluate OpenPose’s performance, we compared its detections to the  
134 manually-annotated gold set of frames, calculating precision (hits / hits + false alarms),  
135 recall (hits / hits + misses), and F-score (the harmonic mean of precision and recall). In our  
136 data, for faces, the F-score was 0.59, with a precision of 0.65 and recall of 0.54. For hands,  
137 the F-score was 0.49, with a precision of 0.70 and recall of 0.38. While face and hand  
138 detections showed moderately good precision, face detections were overall slightly more  
139 accurate than hand detections. In general, hand detections suffered from fairly low recall,  
140 indicating that OpenPose likely underestimated the proportion of hands in the dataset.

141 We suspected that this was in part because children’s own hands were often in view of  
142 the camera and unconnected to a pose—a notoriously challenging detection problem  
143 (Bambach et al., 2015). To assess this possibility, we obtained human annotations for the  
144 entire subsample of 9051 frames in which a hand was detected; participants (recruited via  
145 AMT) were asked to draw bounding boxes around children’s and adult’s hands. Overall, we

146 found that 42% of missed hand detections were of child hands. When frames with children’s  
147 hands were removed from the gold set, recall did improve somewhat to 0.54. We also  
148 observed that children’s hands tended to appear in the lower half of the frames; heatmaps of  
149 the bounding boxes obtained from these annotations can be seen in Figure 2.

150 Finally, we examined whether the precision, recall, and F-score for hands and faces  
151 varied with age or child, and did not find substantial variation. Thus, while OpenPose was  
152 trained on photographs from the adult perspective, this model still generalized relatively well  
153 to the egocentric infant viewpoint with no fine-tuning or post-processing of the detections.  
154 As these detections were imperfect compared to human annotators, fine-tuning these models  
155 to better optimize for the infant viewpoint remains an open avenue for future work.  
156 Standard computer vision models are rarely trained on the egocentric viewpoint, and we  
157 suspect that training these models on more naturalistic data may lead to more robust,  
158 generalizable detectors.

## 159 Results

### 160 Access to social information across age

161 We analyzed the social information in view across the entire dataset, looking  
162 specifically at the proportions of faces and hands that were in view for each child.<sup>3</sup> Data  
163 from videos were binned according to the age of the child (in weeks). First, we saw that the  
164 proportion of faces in view showed a moderate decrease across this age range (see Figure 3);  
165 in contrast, we did not observe an increase in the proportion of hands in view, but rather a  
166 slight decrease. These effects were quantified with two separate linear mixed-models (see

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<sup>3</sup>All analyses and preprocessed data files for this paper are available at <https://tinyurl.com/detecting-social-info>



167 Tables 1 & 2).<sup>4</sup>

168         However, the most striking result from these analyses is a much overall greater  
169 proportion of hands in view than have previously been reported (Fausey et al., 2016). We  
170 found this to be true across all ages, in all three children, and regardless of whether we  
171 analyzed human annotations (on the 24K random subset, see dotted lines in Figure 3) or  
172 OpenPose annotations on the entire dataset (see solid lines in Figure 3). This is notable  
173 especially given that OpenPose showed relatively low recall for hands, indicating that this  
174 may be an underestimate of the proportion of hands in view. Nonetheless, one reason this  
175 could be the case is the much larger field of view that was captured by the cameras used in  
176 this study: These cameras were outfitted with a fish-eye lens in an attempt to capture as  
177 much of the children’s field of view as possible, leading to a larger field of view (109 degrees  
178 horizontal x 70 degrees vertical) than in many previous studies; for example, in Fausey et al.  
179 (2016) the FOV was 69 x 41 degrees. This larger FOV may have allowed the SAYCam  
180 cameras to capture not only the presence of a social partner’s hands interacting with objects  
181 or gestures, but also the children’s own hands, leading to more frequent hand detections.

182         As children’s hands tended to occur in the lower visual field (see Figure 2), we thus  
183 re-analyzed the entire dataset while restricting our analysis to the center field of view,  
184 decreasing the proportion of hand detections from 24% to 16%, but only decreased face  
185 detections from 18% to 10%. This cropping likely removed both the majority of detections of  
186 children’s own hands but also some detections of adult hands (see Figure 2), especially as  
187 OpenPose was biased to miss children’s hands when they were in view. Nonetheless, within  
188 this modified field of view, we still observed more hand detections than face detections (see  
189 dashed lines in Figure 3).

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<sup>4</sup>Face/hand detections were binned across each week of filming. Participant’s age was converted into months and centered for these analyses. Random slopes for the effect of age by child led to a singular fit and were removed from both analyses; see full model specification in accompanying codebase.

## 190 Access to social information in different locations

191 How does variability across different contexts influence the social information in the  
192 infant view? Intuitively, some activities in different contexts may be characterized by a much  
193 higher proportion of faces (e.g., diaper changes in bedrooms) than others (e.g., playtime in  
194 the living room). We thus next examined variation in presence of hands and faces across  
195 different locations. Of the 1698 videos, 639 were annotated (Sullivan et al., under review) for  
196 the location they were filmed in. Of these, 296 videos were filmed in single location,  
197 representing 17 percent of the dataset and over 5 million frames. Activities varied somewhat  
198 predictably by these contexts: for example, eating tended to occur in the kitchen, whereas  
199 playtime was the dominant activity in the living room. Overall, we found that the  
200 proportion of faces vs. hands varied across filming locations, and, to some extent, across  
201 children; separate chi-squared tests for each child and detection type revealed significant  
202 variability in detections by location in each case.<sup>5</sup> For example, while both A and S saw a  
203 relatively similar proportion of faces vs. hands in the bedroom, they saw quite different  
204 amounts of faces vs. hands in kitchens (see Figure 4).

205

## General Discussion

206 Here, we analyzed the social information in view in a dense, longitudinal dataset,  
207 applying a modern computer-vision model to quantify the proportion of hands and faces seen  
208 from each of three children’s egocentric perspective from 6 to 32 months of age. This  
209 analysis has yielded a better understanding of infants’ evolving access to social information.  
210 We found a moderate decrease across age in the proportion of faces in view in the videos, in  
211 keeping with previous work (Fausey et al., 2016). This finding is particularly notable given  
212 that, in previous cross-sectional data, this effect seems to be most strongly driven by infants

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<sup>5</sup>all  $p < .001$ , see accompanying codebase

213 younger than 4 months of age (e.g., Fausey et al., 2016; Jayaraman et al., 2015; Sugden et  
214 al., 2014) who see both more frequent and more persistent faces (Jayaraman & Smith, 2018).

215 We also found an unexpectedly high proportion of hands in the view of infants, even  
216 when restricting the field-of-view to the center field of view the videos to make the  
217 viewpoints comparable to those of headcams used in previous work (Fausey et al., 2016).  
218 Why might this be the case? One idea is that these videos contain the viewpoints of children  
219 not only during structured interactions (e.g., play sessions at home or in the lab) but during  
220 everyday activities when children may be playing by themselves or simply observing the  
221 actions of caregivers and other people in their environment. During these less structured  
222 times, caregivers may move about in the vicinity of the child but not interact with them as  
223 directly—leading to views where a person and their hands are visible from a distance, but  
224 this person’s face may be turned away from the infant or occluded (see examples in Figure  
225 1). Indeed, using the same pose detector on videos from in-lab play sessions, Sanchez et al.  
226 (2018) found the opposite trend: slightly fewer hand detections than face detections from  
227 8-16 months of age. Work that directly examines the variability in the social information in  
228 view across more vs. less structured activity contexts could further test this idea.

229 A coarse analysis based on the location the videos were filmed in further highlights the  
230 variability of the social information in view during different activities, showing differences  
231 across locations and between individual children. Within a given, well-defined context—e.g.,  
232 mealtime in kitchens—S saw more faces than A, and S saw more faces in the kitchen than in  
233 other locations. This variability likely stems from the fact that there are at least three ways  
234 to feed a young child: 1) sitting in front of the child, facing them as they sit in a high chair;  
235 2) sitting behind the child, holding them as they face outward, and 3) sitting side by side.  
236 Each of these positions offer the child differing degrees of visual access to faces and hands.  
237 While the social information in view may be variable across children in different activity  
238 contexts, these analyses suggest they could be stable within a given child’s day-to-day

239 experience.

240 Overall, these analyses underscore the importance of how, when, from whom, and what  
241 data we sample; these choices become central when we attempt to draw conclusions about  
242 the regularities of experience. Indeed, while unprecedented in size, this dataset still has  
243 many limitations. These videos only represent a small portion of the everyday experience of  
244 these three children, all of whom come from relatively privileged households in western  
245 societies and thus are not representative of the global population. Any idiosyncrasies in how  
246 and when these particular families chose to film these videos also undoubtedly influences the  
247 variability seen here. And without eye-tracking data, we do not know if children are  
248 attending to the social information in their visual field.

249 Nonetheless, we believe that these advances in datasets and methodologies represent a  
250 step in the right direction. The present paper demonstrates the feasibility of using a modern  
251 computer vision model to annotate the entirety of a very large dataset (here, >40M million  
252 frames) for the presence and size of people, hands, and faces, representing orders of  
253 magnitude more data relative to prior work. We propose that the large-scale analysis of  
254 dense datasets, collected with different fields of view, cameras and from many different  
255 laboratories, will lead to generalizable conclusions about the regularities of infant experience  
256 that scaffold learning.

## 257 **Acknowledgements**

258 Thanks to the creators of the SAYCam dataset who made this work possible and to  
259 Alessandro Sanchez for his contributions to the codebase. This work was funded by a Jacobs  
260 Foundation Fellowship to MCF, a John Merck Scholars award to MCF, and NSF #1714726  
261 to BLL.

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	Estimate	Std. Error	df	t value	Pr(> t )
(Intercept)	0.100	0.014	1.955	7.049	0.021
Age	-0.002	0.001	386.972	-4.461	0.000

Table 1

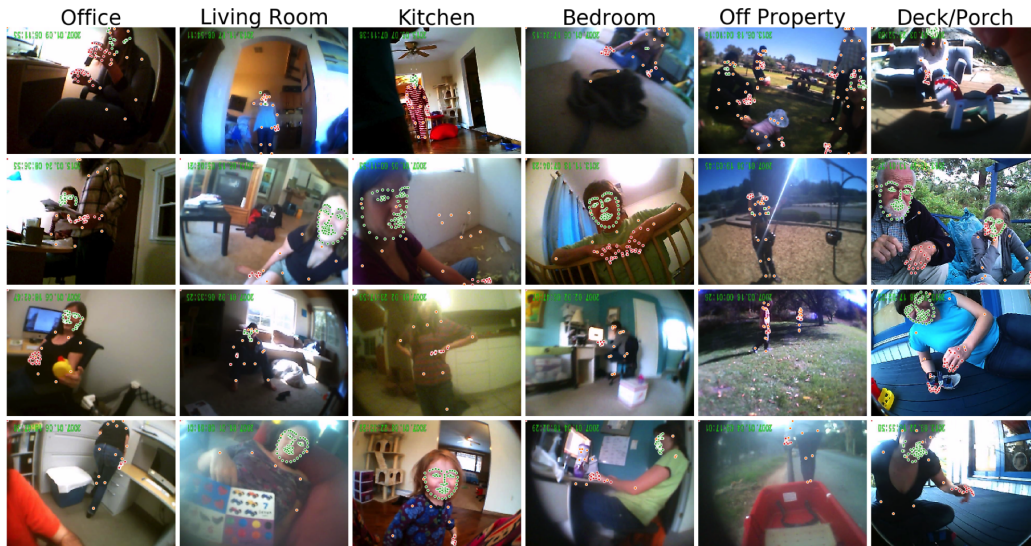
*Model coefficients from a linear mixed model predicting the proportion of faces seen by infants in the center FOV.*



	Estimate	Std. Error	df	t value	Pr(> t )
(Intercept)	0.166	0.011	2.082	15.340	0.004
Age	-0.002	0.001	380.308	-3.114	0.002

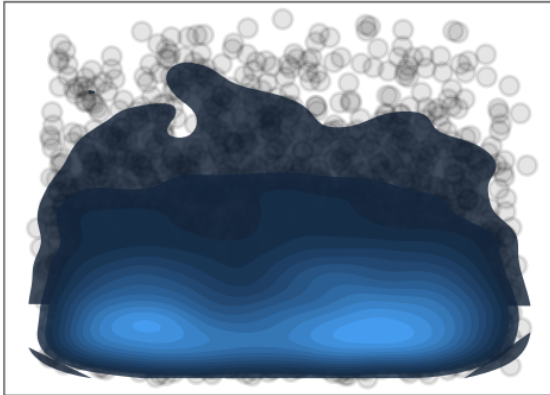
Table 2

*Model coefficients from a linear mixed model predicting the proportion of hands seen by infants in the center FOV.*

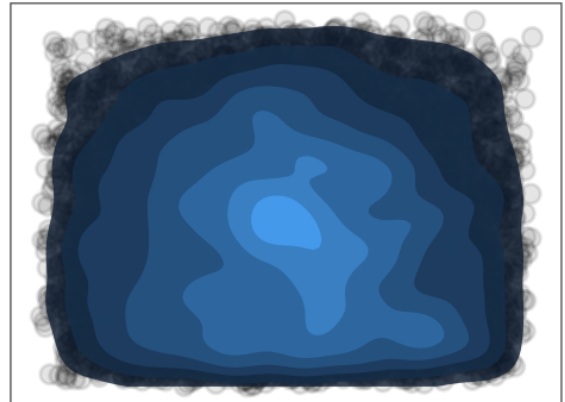


*Figure 1.* Example frames taken from the dataset, illustrating variability in the infant perspective across different locations. OpenPose detections are shown overlaid on these images (green dots = face, red dots = hands, orange dots = pose).

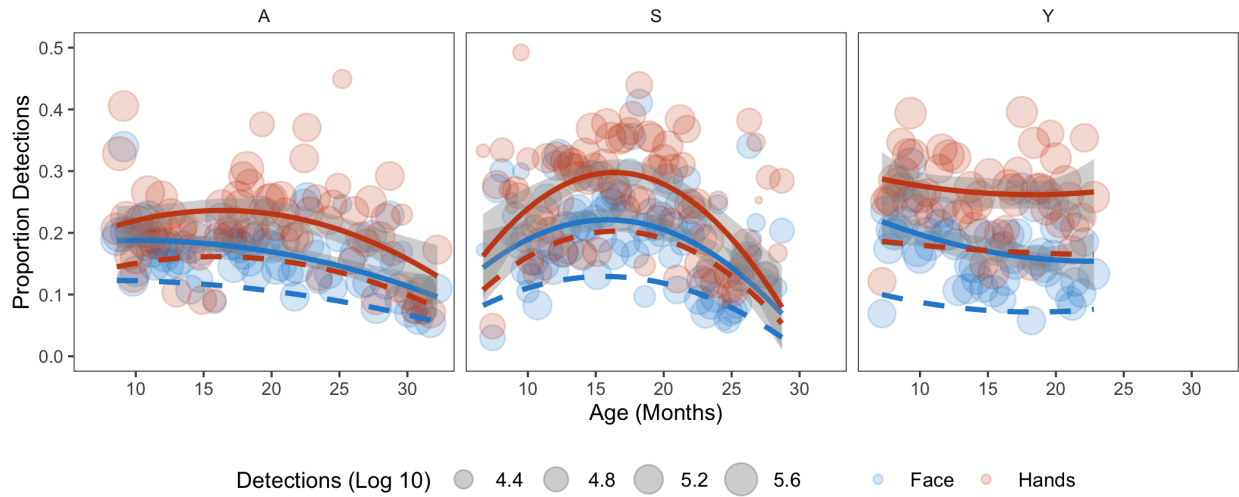
A. Child hand density



B. Adult hand density



*Figure 2.* Density estimates for the child (left) and adult (right) hands that were detected in the 24K frame random gold set; each dot represents the center of a bounding box made by an adult participant. Brighter values indicate more detections.



*Figure 3.* Proportion of faces and hands seen as a function of age for each child in the dataset. Data are binned by each week that the videos were filmed and scaled by the number of frames in that age range. Dashed lines show estimated trend lines from proportion of faces/hands in view when detections are restricted to the center FOV, reducing the contribution of children's own hands.

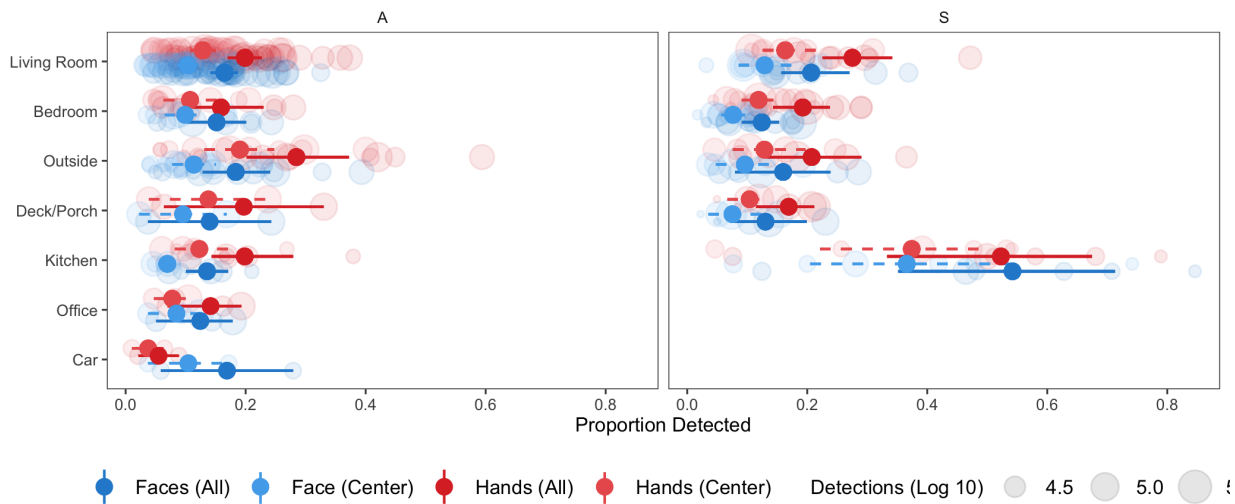


Figure 4. Proportion of faces and hands by location in which egocentric videos were filmed; each panel represents data from an individual child (location annotations were not yet available for Y). Each dot represents data from a week in which videos were filmed and are scaled by the number of frames.