

1  
2  
3  
4  
5  
6  
7  
8  
9  
10  
11  
12  
13  
14  
15  
16  
17  
18  
19  
20  
21  
22  
23  
24  
25

Circumscribed Interests in Autism: Can Animals Potentially Re-engage Social Attention?

Georgitta J. Valiyamattam<sup>1\*</sup>

Harish Katti<sup>2</sup>

Vinay K. Chaganti<sup>3</sup>

Marguerite E. O’Haire<sup>4</sup>

Virender Sachdeva<sup>5</sup>

\*-corresponding author, [georgial1felicity@gmail.com](mailto:georgial1felicity@gmail.com)

<sup>1</sup>Department of Psychology, Andhra University, Visakhapatnam, India

<sup>2</sup>Centre for Neuroscience, Indian Institute of Science, Bengaluru, India

<sup>3</sup>Department of Commerce, Osmania University, Hyderabad, India

<sup>4</sup>Department of Comparative Pathobiology, Purdue University College of Veterinary Medicine, West Lafayette, IN, United States

<sup>5</sup>Child Sight Institute, Nimmagadda Prasad Children’s Eye Care Centre, L V Prasad Eye Institute, GMRV Campus, Visakhapatnam, India

## Abstract

26  
27  
28  
29  
30  
31  
32  
33  
34  
35  
36  
37  
38  
39  
40  
41  
42  
43  
44  
45  
46  
47  
48  
49  
50

A prominent subtype of restricted and repetitive behaviour or interests (RRBs) in autistic children comprises circumscribed interests (CI). CIs occur in 75-95% of children on the autism spectrum, are highly fixated and repetitive interests and generally center on non-social and idiosyncratic topics. The increased salience of CI objects for autistic children also results in a decreased attention to social stimuli and can interfere with social interactions, relations and activities. A parallel line of robust evidence points to greater social engagement and lesser social anxiety in autistic children in the presence of animals with impacts on crucial biomarker indices including skin conductance and salivary cortisol. Neuroimaging evidence also reports a greater activation of reward systems in the brain in response to animal stimuli in autistic individuals, whereas a similar activation is not present for human faces. Behavioral evidence as seen in studies using an eye tracking of visual gaze patterns also reveal a comparatively higher preference for animal stimuli in autistic individuals. The potentially greater social reward attached to animals in ASD, puts forward the interesting and yet unexplored possibility of the presence of competing animal stimuli reducing the disproportionately high visual preference to CI objects.

We examined this possibility through a paired preference study using images of human and animal faces paired with CI and non-CI objects, within an eye tracking paradigm. 32 children (ASD n=16; TD n=16) participated in the study (3391 valid observations). Autistic children showed a significantly greater visual attention to CI objects across their pairings with non-CI objects and social images. Within typical controls, a significantly higher visual attention was seen for social images regardless of their pairing with CI or NCI objects. A key finding was that, while pairing with a CI object reduced the overall amount of social attention elicited in the ASD group, the reduction in attention was not similar for human and animal faces. When paired with CI objects, animal faces elicited greater social attention than

51 human faces from autistic children.

52           These results thus suggest that social attention deficits in ASD may not be uniform  
53 across human and animal stimuli. Animals may comprise a potentially powerful stimulus  
54 category modulating visual attention in ASD.

55

56 ***Key words:*** *animals, animal assisted intervention; autism spectrum disorder; circumscribed*  
57 *interests; restricted and repetitive behaviour; eye tracking; children*

58

59

60

61

62

63

64

65

66

67

68

69

70

71

72

73

74

75

76 **Introduction**

77 Social attention deficiencies in ASD have been well documented from an early age  
78 (e.g., Jones & Klin, 2013; Tegmark, 2016; Papagiannopoulou et al., 2014). Potential  
79 explanations have included either a reduced reward perception from viewing social stimuli  
80 (Scott-Van Zeeland et al., 2010; Schultz, et al., 2000) or an active avoidance of eye gaze as a  
81 regulatory mechanism for the potential hyper arousal and/or threat experienced in the process  
82 (Dalton et al., 2005; Kylliäinen & Hietanen, 2006; Bradley et al., 2001). Social attention  
83 deficits are also often accompanied by a relatively greater interest in inanimate stimuli (e.g.,  
84 Klin et al., 2002; Pierce et al., 2016 and 2011; Klin et al., 2009) These inanimate stimuli may  
85 comprise objects with circumscribed interests which form a powerful component attracting a  
86 disproportionately high amount of attention in ASD (American Psychological Association,  
87 2013). Circumscribed interests (CIs) are a prominent subtype of restricted and repetitive  
88 behavior or interests (RRBs) and form an integral part of the ASD symptom profile. They  
89 occur in 75-95% of autistic children (Turner-Brown et al., 2011; South et al., 2005) and are  
90 intense, inflexible and repetitive interests observed across autism severity levels (Turner-  
91 Brown et al., 2011; Lam et al., 2008; Freeman et al., 1981). They may also be related to the  
92 deficits in attentional disengagement that children on the autism spectrum display (Landry &  
93 Bryson, 2004; Zwaigenbaum et al., 2005), emerging from possible impairments in  
94 subcortical systems (Posner & Dehaene, 1994) and resulting in an abnormal perseveration  
95 with certain elements. This atypical prioritization also suggests a greater activation of neural  
96 reward circuits in response to CI objects (Casco et al., 2014; Dichter et al., 2012).

97

98 CIs differ in content across individuals diagnosed with ASD and generally center on  
99 non-social and idiosyncratic topics (Anthony et al., 2013; Parsons et al., 2017). Baron- Cohen  
100 and Wheelwright (1999), divided commonly observed areas of CIs into 15 categories

101 including physics, mathematics, crafts, people and sports/games among others, with certain  
102 categories of CIs being more powerful than others. Exemplars of CIs include animations,  
103 dinosaurs, space/physics, vehicles such as trains/planes, blocks, clocks, aliens, traffic signs,  
104 famous people, sports schedules and skyscrapers among others (Sasson et al., 2011; Sasson et  
105 al., 2008; South et al., 2005, Klin et al., 2007). While many of these interests may also be  
106 shared by typical individuals, the narrow areas of these preoccupations and the intensity in  
107 their pursuit act as key distinguishing factors in ASD. The increased salience of CI objects  
108 can result in a decreased attention to social stimuli and interfere with peer interactions, social  
109 norms and daily chores. For instance, eye tracking research by Sasson and Touchstone (2014)  
110 using a paired preference paradigm showed that visual attention to human faces reduced  
111 significantly in individuals with ASD when the images were paired with high interest CI  
112 objects. Similar results were also reported in earlier research. Individuals with ASD were less  
113 likely to explore social images when presented alongside images of CI objects (Sasson et al.,  
114 2008).

115           Studies in the past two decades have also challenged the largely negative  
116 conceptualization of CIs and pointed out their potentially functional aspects in certain cases.  
117 These include their capacity to provide a sense of comfort, enthusiasm and identity. The  
118 presence of CI objects may also act as motivators for social relationships with peers who  
119 share similar interests and lead to enhanced eye contact and joint attention skills (Gass, 2013;  
120 Boyd et al., 2007; Winter-Messiers, 2007). While such a positive incorporation of CIs into the  
121 intervention process is encouraging and merits attention, the intensity of CIs and their  
122 capacity to dominate other experiences continue to be legitimate concerns. In particular, the  
123 atypical pattern of social attention that the presence of CI objects trigger can have important  
124 developmental consequences. By significantly reducing the precedence to and opportunities  
125 for social experiences, it may trigger a further consolidation of the social functioning deficits

126 that characterize autism.

127           While existing research has compared visual attention to social stimuli comprising  
128 human images versus CI objects, a similar comparison has not been extended so far to social  
129 stimuli comprising animals. Popular and anecdotal accounts of the social functioning benefits  
130 of animals for autistic children have been further consolidated in recent years with robust  
131 empirical evidence. Improvements have been seen on crucial biomarker indices including  
132 reduced skin conductance and cortisol awakening responses in the presence of animals  
133 indicating lesser arousal and enhanced social functioning (O’Haire et al., 2015; Viau et al.,  
134 2010). Studies using rigorous observational models describe significantly greater social  
135 motivation, positive moods and vocalizations such as laughing and smiling along with a  
136 greater social engagement in autistic children in the presence of animals (e.g. Byström &  
137 Persson, 2015; Stevenson et al., 2015; Funahashi et al., 2014; O’Haire et al., 2013; Ajzenman  
138 et al., 2013; Gabriels et al., 2012; Silva et al., 2011; Martin & Farnum 2002). Neuroimaging  
139 evidence further reports a greater activation of neural reward systems in ASD in response to  
140 animal stimuli (Whyte et al., 2016). A preference for animal stimuli in ASD has also been  
141 reported through eye tracking (Valiyamattam et al., 2020; Grandgeorge et al., 2016; Muszkat  
142 et al., 2015) and other experimental studies (Prothman et al., 2009; Celani, 2002).

143           The possibly greater social reward attached to animal faces posits an interesting  
144 question- Can the presence of competing animal stimuli reduce the disproportionate visual  
145 preference to CI objects? The present study aims to assess this possibility using a paired  
146 preference paradigm involving both human and animal faces paired with CI and non-CI  
147 stimuli. To ensure that human and animal faces represented a class of social stimuli rather  
148 than an element of circumscribed interest, this study was conducted on a sample of children  
149 who did not report people or animals as an area of circumscribed interest (*see Table 3 for a*  
150 *description of the circumscribed interests reported in the study sample*).

151 **Methods**

152 **Ethics.** All implemented protocols received necessary ethical approvals from the  
153 institutions participating in the study. Written informed consent (in English/Telugu) was  
154 obtained from school authorities and caregivers. Verbal assent was obtained from the  
155 participants where applicable.

156

157 **Participants.**

158 **Recruitment and Eligibility.** Three special education schools and one regular school  
159 in the city of Visakhapatnam, India participated in the study. Inclusion criteria for participants  
160 with ASD were: a) age between 5-12 years b) parent and/or teacher reported diagnosis of  
161 ASD c) normal or corrected to normal vision as certified by an optometrist and d) a score of  
162  $\geq 11$  on the Social Communication Questionnaire (SCQ) and  $\geq 70$  on the Social  
163 Responsiveness Scale-2 to indicate a diagnosis of ASD. Exclusion criteria for ASD  
164 participants were a) a comorbid diagnosis of congenital deafness, intellectual disability,  
165 seizure disorder and any acute medical, genetic conditions or psychiatric conditions such as  
166 schizophrenia b) an inability to follow instructions and c) an inability to achieve eye tracker  
167 calibration. Inclusion criteria for typically developing (TD) participants were a) age between  
168 5-12 years b) no parent and/or teacher reported diagnosis of ASD c) normal or corrected to  
169 normal vision as certified by an optometrist and d) score of  $\leq 10$  on the Social Communication  
170 Questionnaire (SCQ) and  $\leq 69$  on the Social Responsiveness Scale-2, to indicate the absence  
171 of an ASD diagnosis and social deficits.

172 **Sample Characteristics.** A total of 54 autistic children and 47 TD children joined the  
173 study. Of these, 33 children were excluded as -a) 2 children did not meet the ASD diagnostic  
174 criteria on the SCQ and SRS-2 b) 26 children with ASD did not meet the criteria for normal

175 or corrected to normal vision c) 3 children were unable to follow experiment instructions d) 2  
176 children could not achieve eye tracker calibration and e) 5 children did not give verbal assent  
177 for participation. Similarly, 24 TD children were excluded as they did not meet the criteria  
178 for normal or corrected to normal vision. The final sample of ASD participants consisted of  
179 16 children (M= 13, F=3; Mage 9.94yrs). Out of the TD sample consisting of 23 children, 13  
180 males and 3 females were randomly selected so as to match the ASD and TD groups on  
181 gender in line with previous research (Sasson & Touchstone, 2014), considering evidence of  
182 gender differences in interests with respect to social stimuli and CI objects (e.g., DeLoache et  
183 al., 2007). The final sample of TD participants therefore consisted of 16 children (M= 13,  
184 F=3; Mage 9.10yrs) (*Table 1 shows the demographic details of the participants*).

185

## 186 ***Measures.***

### 187 *Screening Measures.*

188 Two standardized measures namely the Social Communication Questionnaire  
189 (SCQ)-Lifetime version and the Social Responsiveness Scale (SRS-2) were used for the  
190 purpose of autism screening. The SCQ is completed by the parent or caregiver and  
191 corresponds with the Autism Diagnostic Interview-Revised (ADI-R) (Lord et al., 1994;  
192 Norris & Lecavalier, 2010; Le Couteur et al., 2003). A brief measure, it comprises 40  
193 “yes/no” items, scored as 0 or 1, with 1 ratifying the presence of the autism symptom  
194 (Rutter et al., 2003). A cut-off score of  $\geq 11$  was used for ASD screening (Norris &  
195 Lecavalier, 2010). The Social Responsiveness Scale (SRS-2) (Constantino & Gruber,  
196 2012), is a 65-item rating scale completed by a parent/teacher/other adult informant.  
197 Symptom severity is measured on a 4-point Likert scale scored from 0 to 3, with a higher  
198 score indicating greater social impairment. In addition to full-scale scores, the SRS-2



199 provides scores on five subscales namely social awareness, social motivation, social  
200 communication and interaction, social cognition and restricted and repetitive behaviours  
201 (RRB) (Constantino & Gruber, 2014). A cut-off score of  $\geq 70$  on the SRS-2 was used for  
202 ASD screening (Constantino & Gruber, 2014).

203 Raven's Colored Progressive Matrices (RCPM) was used for IQ assessment. It  
204 consists of 36 items spread across three sets of 12 items each. While its routine applicability  
205 is for children (4 to 11 years), its use can also be broadened to include the elderly and those  
206 with mental/physical functioning deficits (Raven et al., 1996).

207 The total score on the Repetitive Behavior Scale –Revised (RBS-R) was used to  
208 assess the presence of restricted and repetitive behaviors in the study sample. The RBS-R  
209 comprises 43 items subsumed within six subscales namely Stereotypic Behavior, Self-  
210 Injurious Behavior, Compulsive Behavior, Ritualistic Behavior, Sameness Behavior and  
211 Restricted Behavior that examine the presence and severity of a repetitive behavior based  
212 on information provided by parents or caregivers (Bodfish et al., 1999, 2000). The  
213 Cambridge Obsessions questionnaire (Baron-Cohen & Wheelwright, 1999) was used to  
214 collect broad information regarding the content of obsessions among the participants which  
215 was then classified according to the categorization provided by Baron- Cohen and  
216 Wheelwright (1999) (*See Table 3*).

217

218 *Visual Gaze Fixation Measure.* The Tobii X3-120 eye tracker and the Tobii Pro  
219 Studio Software (Tobii, Stockholm, Sweden) were used to collect visual data. Due to the  
220 high freedom from head movement rate (19.7" x 15.7" - width x height) and precise data  
221 that the Tobii X3-120 provides (Tobii, Stockholm, Sweden; [www.tobii.com](http://www.tobii.com)), it has found  
222 extensive use in research on developmental disabilities (e.g., Pierce et al., 2016; Sasson et  
223 al., 2011)

224

225           *Visual Stimuli.* Participants were shown 60 paired color photographs. The pairings  
226 were as follows: *humans and animals*= 10 images; *humans and CI objects* =10 images;  
227 *humans and non-CI objects* =10 images; *animals and CI objects* =10 images; *animals and*  
228 *non-CI objects* =10 images; *CI objects and non-CI objects* =10 images. The human images  
229 consisted of adult Indian male and female faces drawn from the IISCIFD Indian face  
230 dataset (Katti & Arun, 2017), whereas the animal and object images were acquired from  
231 internet sources. Object images consisted of CI and NCI object categories used in earlier  
232 research and reported to be of high and low autism interest respectively (South et al. 2005;  
233 Sasson et al., 2008, 2011; Sasson et al., 2012; Unruh et al., 2016). CI object categories  
234 consisted of vehicles, airplanes, trains, clocks, and blocks, whereas NCI object categories  
235 consisted of tools, musical instruments, furniture, clothes and plants (Sasson & Touchstone,  
236 2014) with two exemplars from each category included in the stimulus set. All images were  
237 edited using Adobe Photoshop 7.0 for a uniform gray background and to control for light  
238 intensity. During preliminary piloting, brightness was regulated to permit comfortable  
239 viewing by children and the same was maintained throughout the experiment.

240

241           *Data capture procedures.* The images were presented on a 21.5" high-definition  
242 LCD monitor (1920×1080 pixel) using Tobii Pro studio© software. Participants were  
243 seated on a height adjustable chair either individually or in the lap of a caregiver or a  
244 research assistant, at an approximate distance of 60cm from the screen. A manual five-point  
245 infant calibration was used where the child had to follow an animated cartoon around the  
246 screen. If calibration was unsuccessful, recalibration was performed and only those  
247 participants who achieved a successful calibration as verified by the Tobii X3-120 were  
248 retained. Each image pair was presented for 5 seconds. After each image-pair presentation,

249 an interstimulus interval jittered at 1, 1.5 or 2 seconds, was introduced, so as to reorient  
250 attention (*see Fig 1*). The image-pairs were presented in a randomized order to  
251 counterbalance possible sequence effects. The total experiment had a run time of  $390 \pm 30$   
252 seconds and all participants completed the testing procedures in the same setting, free from  
253 distracters and with optimal illumination. Two research assistants facilitated the  
254 implementation of the experimental protocols.

255

## 256 **Data Analysis**

257 Regions of interest (ROIs) were drawn using interfaces provided by Tobii Studio©. ROI  
258 boxes encompassed the face including hairline (for human images) as well ear tips as  
259 applicable and consisted of closely contoured ellipses along the boundaries of object  
260 images. Images were resized using Adobe Photoshop 7.0 so that ROI boxes were as near as  
261 possible to 600 x 850 pixels which would then roughly correspond to 26.87 x 18.81  
262 degrees of visual angle. Post-hoc raw data was exported using Tobii Studio ©software  
263 (Tobii, Stockholm, Sweden). This included a fixation classification step detecting fixations  
264 based on the velocity of directional shifts of the eye (I-VT algorithm implemented in Tobii  
265 Studio). As in our previous studies, custom MATLAB© scripts were utilized to extract and  
266 tabulate fixation related statistics. ROI-wise fixation statistics were tabulated in custom  
267 data structures as were dwell statistics obtained by collating fixations at different locations  
268 within an ROI, over a single presentation of an image. Image presentations, for which no  
269 fixation was made in any ROI, were not used for further analysis.

270 Anderson-Darling test of normalcy computed on all array-wise data subsets revealed  
271 a non-normal distribution ( $p \leq 0.05$ ). In line with previous research in the area (e.g., Sasson  
272 & Touchstone, 2014), the study examined visual attention in terms of the three dependent  
273 variables of preference, prioritization and duration. Preference was measured in terms of the

274 total fixation time allocated by a subject to a stimulus in an array. Prioritization was  
275 measured in terms of the latency of first fixation to any one member of the paired stimuli in  
276 an array. Duration was measured in terms of fixation time per visit to a stimulus in an array  
277 before a shift in attention occurred. The final data set comprised 3391 observations. With  
278 reference to preference, an observation was defined as the total dwell time within an ROI of  
279 an image shown to the participant. With reference to prioritization, an observation was  
280 defined as the first fixation latency within an ROI of an image shown to the participant.  
281 With reference to duration, an observation was defined as the average fixation duration per  
282 visit, within an ROI of an image shown to the participant (*See Supplementary files for a*  
283 *detailed count of observations*).

284 Accounting for the characteristics of the data, separate Wilcoxon-sign rank tests  
285 were computed for the three dependent variables to assess the impact of the within-subjects  
286 independent variable of object type (CI, NCI, Human, Animal) and between-groups  
287 independent variable of diagnosis (ASD, TD) in terms of all possible effects within and  
288 across the arrays in which the images were presented. Data was analyzed using the R 3.4.3,  
289 Partykit version 3.2-2.

290

## 291 **Results**

292 An array-wise description of within and between groups differences between ASD  
293 and TD participants is reported. *Table 2* shows the Mean values and SDs on preference,  
294 prioritization and duration indices across arrays.

295

296 **CI-NCI Array.** (*see Figs. 2 & 3*) Results indicated a significant effect of diagnosis  
297 and object category. Within autistic children, there was a significantly greater sustained  
298 fixation time per visit ( $p \leq 0.05$ ) and total fixation time ( $p \leq 0.01$ ) to CI objects when paired

299 with NCI objects. Within TD participants, shorter first fixation latency was observed for CI  
300 objects ( $p \leq 0.001$ ) indicating greater prioritization than NCI objects. Between groups  
301 comparisons revealed that for NCI objects, autistic children had significantly lesser  
302 sustained fixation per visit and total fixation time ( $p \leq 0.01$ ) than TD children. No  
303 differences were observed between the two groups with respect to CI objects.

304

305 ***Animal-Human Array.*** (see Fig. 4) Within autistic children, significantly higher  
306 total fixation duration ( $p \leq 0.01$ ) and sustained fixations per visit ( $p \leq 0.001$ ) were reported to  
307 animal images when paired with human images. Within TD children significantly shorter  
308 first fixation latency ( $p \leq 0.05$ ) greater sustained attention and higher fixation durations (both  
309 p values  $\leq 0.001$ ) were observed for animal images as compared to human images. Between  
310 groups comparisons revealed that TD children reported higher total fixation durations and  
311 better sustained attention to both animal and human images (all p values  $\leq 0.001$ ) when  
312 compared to autistic children.

313

314 ***Animal-CI arrays and Human-CI arrays.*** (see Figs. 5 & 6) Within autistic  
315 children, the focus on CI objects was the highest across all presentations. However, when  
316 paired with CI objects, animal images attracted significantly greater sustained fixations per  
317 visit as compared to human images ( $p \leq 0.05$ ). Between groups analysis revealed that TD  
318 children reported significantly greater sustained attention and total fixation durations to all  
319 social stimuli (both animals and humans) than autistic children when paired with CI objects  
320 (all p values  $\leq 0.001$ ). TD children also showed a quicker latency to fixate on human images  
321 when paired with CI objects as compared to the ASD group ( $p \leq 0.001$ ).

322

323

324 *Animal-NCI arrays and Human-NCI Arrays.* Within group comparisons for  
325 autistic children did not reveal a strong preference for NCI objects unlike CI objects. When  
326 paired with NCI objects, animal images drew significantly higher sustained fixations per  
327 visit and total fixation durations than human images ( $p \leq 0.05$ ). Between groups analysis  
328 revealed that TD children reported significantly greater sustained attention, higher total  
329 fixation durations (all p values  $\leq 0.001$ ) and quicker first fixation latencies (animal:  
330  $p \leq 0.001$ ; human:  $p \leq 0.01$ ) to all social stimuli when paired with NCI objects as compared to  
331 the ASD group.

332

333 *Social Images-CI and Social Images-NCI Arrays.* Within the ASD group, a  
334 significantly lesser total fixation duration was seen to social images when paired with CI  
335 objects ( $p \leq 0.05$ ) and greater sustained attention per visit, quicker latencies and higher total  
336 fixation duration to social images when paired with NCI objects (all p values  $\leq 0.001$ ). TD  
337 children reported a significantly greater sustained attention per visit, quicker latencies and  
338 significantly higher total fixation duration for social images regardless of whether they were  
339 paired with CI or NCI objects (all p values  $\leq 0.001$ ).

340 *(See Supplementary files for a visualization of results across all arrays)*

341

342

### 343 **Discussion**

344 The present study examined the dynamics of visual attention to human and animal stimuli  
345 when paired with CI and non-CI objects. Comparisons both within the ASD group and  
346 between ASD and TD revealed that autistic children showed a significantly greater visual  
347 interest to CI objects across all the pairings (with NCI objects, human images and animal  
348 images) as revealed by a significantly greater preference, prioritization and sustained

349 attention. Typical children however did not report a similar inclination towards CI objects.

350

351 The results obtained also revealed a significantly lesser visual prioritization to social images  
352 in autistic children when compared to typical controls across pairings with CI and NCI  
353 objects. Thus, unlike earlier findings (Sasson & Touchstone, 2014), the differences in visual  
354 attention to social stimuli between the ASD and TD groups did not absolutely level out in  
355 the absence of CI pairings. Typical controls showed a significantly higher attention to social  
356 images regardless of their pairing with CI or NCI objects.

357

358 While overall social attention was lesser in autistic children, social attention patterns within  
359 the ASD group varied across CI and NCI pairings. Social attention declined significantly  
360 in the presence of CI objects whereas a similar pattern was not seen for NCI objects.

361 Comparable results have been reported in earlier studies which indicate that a decline in the  
362 focus on social stimuli in autistic children may be context-dependent and modulated by  
363 stimulus salience in competing stimuli as seen with objects of high autism

364 interest/circumscribed interests (Sasson & Touchstone, 2014; Sasson, et al., 2008). The  
365 findings in the present study thus add to existing evidence of overall social attention deficits  
366 in autism and the powerful influence that objects with circumscribed interests may exercise  
367 in modulating visual attention. Unruh et al. (2016) explain this phenomenon as the effects  
368 of “motivational toxicity” (Bozarth, 1994), a term referring to a complex neurobiological  
369 mechanism emerging from the field of addictions and compulsive behavior and implicating  
370 the reward circuitry and associated systems such as the limbic system. Motivational toxicity  
371 refers to a decreased motivation for one activity or stimulus due to an increased preference  
372 for another and may provide the key connecting link between seemingly varied phenotypic  
373 manifestations of autism such as reduced social motivation and restricted and repetitive

374 interests and their expressions in various behavioral preferences and preoccupations (Unruh  
375 et al., 2016). The capacity of CI stimuli in drawing attention away from social stimuli can  
376 have harmful ramifications for the development and consolidation of social attention biases,  
377 social information processing and corresponding neural specificities and may further  
378 strengthen the existing non-social bias in the ASD neural reward circuitry.

379

380 While studies comparing attention to social versus CI stimuli have so far focused on social  
381 stimuli comprising human faces, the present study extended the social stimulus category to  
382 include both human and animal faces as animate categories that elicit social responses,  
383 affect and interaction. A key finding observed was the significantly greater sustained  
384 attention per visit to animal faces as compared to human faces when paired with CI objects.

385 While pairing with a CI object reduced the overall amount of social attention elicited, the  
386 reduction in attention was not similar for human and animal faces. Animal faces prompted  
387 lesser attention reductions in autistic children than human faces. Animal faces also elicited  
388 more social attention from autistic children as compared to human faces when paired with  
389 NCI objects. Animals also received significantly greater visual attention than human images  
390 when animal and human images were paired together in both autistic children and typical  
391 controls indicative of an overall greater preference for animal stimuli in children,  
392 irrespective of diagnosis.

393

394 The findings in this study cumulatively indicate that social attention deficits may not be  
395 uniform across human and animal stimuli and animals may comprise a potentially powerful  
396 stimulus category modulating visual attention in children with ASD. Possible explanatory  
397 paradigms for the greater attention to animal stimuli include the biophilia hypothesis  
398 indicating an inherent desire in humans to connect with other forms of life and life-like



399 processes in nature (Wilson, 1984) and particularly animals (Beck, 2014). Several studies  
400 reveal this preference for animal stimuli. For instance, New et al. (2007) reported an  
401 animate monitoring bias in humans. When presented with complex natural scenes and their  
402 duplicates with alterations, individuals were faster at detecting the changes in animals when  
403 compared to other inanimate objects. On similar lines, greater amygdala activation was seen  
404 in response to photographs of animals among photographs of famous persons, landmarks or  
405 objects indicating a categorical selectivity for animal pictures (Mormann et al., 2011). The  
406 preference to animal stimuli has also been explained in terms of the possible effects of  
407 neoteny or the preservation of the morphological and behavioural juvenile traits in several  
408 domesticated animals through selective breeding. The resultant infant-like features and  
409 behaviour in terms of a greater playfulness and lesser aggressiveness, can be attractive to  
410 humans from an evolutionary point of view triggering a lesser perception of threat and  
411 greater approach and nurturance behaviours (Beck, 2014; Lorenz, 1943). Animal presence  
412 has also been linked to a greater secretion of oxytocin – a hormone key to social attention,  
413 eye-contact, bonding and behaviours (Beetz et al., 2012; Kosfeld et al., 2005; Odendaal &  
414 Meintjes, 2003; Uvnäs- Moberg et al., 2000). Considering that individuals with autism  
415 experience similar social benefits and elicit a comparable preference for animals as their  
416 neurotypical counterparts, biophilia and the effects of neoteny and oxytocin secretion can  
417 be hypothesized as possible explanatory factors for the greater visual attention to animals.  
418 In fact, animals have been found to elicit a heightened social awareness in autistic children  
419 (Martin & Farnum, 2002) which may also suggest consequent social attention benefits.  
420  
421 The findings of this study thus add to the existing neural and biomarker evidence base of a  
422 greater preference towards animal stimuli in children on the autism spectrum. Similar  
423 findings have been reported in behavioural and neuroimaging research, with animal stimuli

424 eliciting preferential attention from children with ASD (Valiyamattam et al. 2020; Celani,  
425 2002; Prothman et al., 2009; Grandgeorge et al., 2016; Muszkat et al., 2015; Whyte et al.,  
426 2016) perhaps modulated by greater reward (Whyte et al., 2016).

427

## 428 **Limitations and Recommendations**

429 The present study used non-individualized CI object categories that have been found  
430 by previous research to engage disproportionately preferential attention in autistic children  
431 (South et al. 2005; Sasson et al., 2008, 2011; Sasson & Touchstone, 2014). While some  
432 previous studies examining circumscribed interests in autism have used non-individualized  
433 CI images (e.g., Sasson & Touchstone, 2014), others have used individualized stimuli (e.g.,  
434 Foss- Feig et al., 2016). While the object categories in the present study represented areas  
435 of circumscribed interests for the participants (*See Table 3*), it could not be determined  
436 whether they reflected each participant's unique/most salient circumscribed interest.  
437 However, across all study participants, the CI object categories consistently commanded a  
438 disproportionately greater amount of visual attention than other daily living objects or  
439 social stimuli that they were paired with, indicative of their status as high autism interest  
440 objects.

441

442 The use of static images in a paired preference paradigm instead of dynamic stimuli  
443 may also be considered a potential limitation. However, the use of static stimuli has been  
444 justified on several grounds in previous research (Unruh et al., 2016; Sasson & Touchstone,  
445 2014). These include firstly, a better experimental control in terms of matching the stimulus  
446 pairs on low level visual properties that attract attention in autistic children as seen in  
447 detail-oriented tasks (Motttron et al., 2006; O'Riordan et al., 2001). Such a matching would  
448 be extremely difficult to achieve in the case of complex dynamic stimuli. Also, the use of

449 static stimuli in eye tracking paradigms with ASD individuals have been found to elicit the  
450 same attentional atypicalities though with differing intensities (e.g., Sasson & Touchstone,  
451 2014; Sasson et al., 2008, 2011; Elison et al., 2012). Further researchers like Parish-Morris  
452 et al., (2013) argue that as seen in their study, children across diagnostic groups may be  
453 overwhelmed by the properties of dynamic stimuli related to circumscribed interests thus  
454 making group differences between ASD and typical controls incomprehensible.

455

456 A small number of outliers to the total gaze time of 5 seconds or 5000 milliseconds  
457 were observed. These may have been triggered by several factors. In the Tobii software,  
458 fixation events were counted if they started when the stimulus was still present although  
459 some part of it may have extended into the duration of the interstimulus interval resulting in  
460 outliers emerging from such transition effects. Inadvertent interferences in errorless eye  
461 tracker functioning beyond the control of the experimenter may also been seen as a  
462 potential cause. Examples include unidentified background applications or other  
463 technological irregularities such as the computer being able to detect an eye tracker whereas  
464 Tobii studio being unable to (Error Codes, Tobii, n.d.). The proportion of outliers were  
465 however very minor when compared to the valid observations obtained.

466

467 While this study offers possible explanations for the greater preference for animal  
468 stimuli over human stimuli across pairings, it is limited in its capacity to identify the exact  
469 factors that may trigger this phenomenon. The participants in the present study were aged  
470 between 6-12 years (late childhood), with a diagnosis of moderate to severe autism.  
471 Whether effects seen in the present study can be replicated in a downward extension of the  
472 sample comprising toddlers and younger children would be a potential area of further  
473 research. It would also be interesting to see whether these effects persist across other

474 autism severity and cognitive levels.

475

## 476 **Conclusion**

477 Overall results from this study add to the existing evidence across experimental  
478 methodologies that point to a greater preference for animals in children with autism. The  
479 capacity of animals to potentially redirect attention to social stimuli, away from inanimate  
480 stimuli particularly those that “trap” attention (Sasson et al., 2008) can be an interesting  
481 evidence base for the use of animals in intervention plans for autistic children and deserves  
482 further exploration.

483

## 484 **References**

485 Ajzenman, H. F., Standeven, J. W., & Shurtleff, T. L. (2013). Effect of hippotherapy on  
486 motor control, adaptive behaviors, and participation in children with autism  
487 spectrum disorder: A pilot study. *The American Journal of Occupational*  
488 *Therapy*, 67(6), 653-663.

489 American Psychiatric Association. (2013). Diagnostic and statistical manual of mental  
490 disorders (5th ed.).

491 Anthony, L. G., Kenworthy, L., Yerys, B. E., Jankowski, K. F., James, J. D., Harms, M. B.,  
492 ... & Wallace, G. L. (2013). Interests in high-functioning autism are more intense,  
493 interfering, and idiosyncratic than those in neurotypical development. *Development*  
494 *and psychopathology*, 25(3), 643-652.

495 Baron-Cohen, S., & Wheelwright, S. (1999). ‘Obsessions’ in children with autism or  
496 Asperger syndrome: Content analysis in terms of core domains of cognition. *The*  
497 *British Journal of Psychiatry*, 175(5), 484-490.

- 498 Beck, A. M. (2014). The biology of the human–animal bond. *Animal Frontiers*, 4(3), 32-36.
- 499 Beetz, A., Uvnäs-Moberg, K., Julius, H., & Kotrschal, K. (2012). Psychosocial and  
500 psychophysiological effects of human-animal interactions: the possible role of  
501 oxytocin. *Frontiers in psychology*, 3, 234.
- 502 Bodfish, J.W., Symons, F.J., Parker, D.E., & Lewis, M.H. (2000). Varieties of repetitive  
503 behavior in autism. *Journal of Autism and Developmental Disabilities*, 30, 237-  
504 243.
- 505 Bodfish, J.W., Symons, F.J., Lewis, M.H. (1999). The Repetitive Behavior Scale. Western  
506 Carolina Center Research Reports.
- 507 Boyd, B. A., Conroy, M. A., Mancil, G. R., Nakao, T., & Alter, P. J. (2007). Effects of  
508 circumscribed interests on the social behaviors of children with autism spectrum  
509 disorders. *Journal of autism and developmental disorders*, 37(8), 1550-1561.
- 510 Bozarth, M. A. (1994). Pleasure systems in the brain. *Pleasure: The politics and the reality*,  
511 5-14.
- 512 Bradley, M. M., Codispoti, M., Cuthbert, B. N., & Lang, P. J. (2001). Emotion and  
513 motivation I: defensive and appetitive reactions in picture  
514 processing. *Emotion*, 1(3), 276.
- 515 Byström, K. M., & Persson, C. A. L. (2015). The meaning of companion animals for  
516 children and adolescents with autism: The parents' perspective. *Anthrozoös*, 28(2),  
517 263-275.
- 518 Cascio, C. J., Foss-Feig, J. H., Heacock, J., Schauder, K. B., Loring, W. A., Rogers, B. P.,

519 ... & Bolton, S. (2014). Affective neural response to restricted interests in autism  
520 spectrum disorders. *Journal of Child Psychology and Psychiatry*, 55(2), 162-171.

521 Celani, G. (2002). Human beings, animals and inanimate objects: what do people with  
522 autism like?. *Autism*, 6(1), 93-102.

523 Chita-Tegmark, M. (2016). Social attention in ASD: A review and meta-analysis of eye-  
524 tracking studies. *Research in developmental disabilities*, 48, 79-93.

525 Constantino, J. N., & Gruber, C. P. (2012). The social responsiveness scale (2nd ed.).  
526 Western Psychological Services.

527 Dalton, K. M., Nacewicz, B. M., Johnstone, T., Schaefer, H. S., Gernsbacher, M. A.,  
528 Goldsmith, H. H., ... & Davidson, R. J. (2005). Gaze fixation and the neural  
529 circuitry of face processing in autism. *Nature neuroscience*, 8(4), 519-526..

530 DeLoache, J. S., Simcock, G., & Macari, S. (2007). Planes, trains, automobiles--and tea  
531 sets: extremely intense interests in very young children. *Developmental*  
532 *psychology*, 43(6), 1579.

533 Dichter, G. S., Felder, J. N., Green, S. R., Rittenberg, A. M., Sasson, N. J., & Bodfish, J. W.  
534 (2012). Reward circuitry function in autism spectrum disorders. *Social cognitive*  
535 *and affective neuroscience*, 7(2), 160-172.

536 Elison, J. T., Sasson, N. J., Turner-Brown, L. M., Dichter, G. S., & Bodfish, J. W. (2012).  
537 Age trends in visual exploration of social and nonsocial information in children  
538 with autism. *Research in autism spectrum disorders*, 6(2), 842-851.

539 Foss-Feig, J. H., McGugin, R. W., Gauthier, I., Mash, L. E., Ventola, P., & Cascio, C. J.

540 (2016). A functional neuroimaging study of fusiform response to restricted  
541 interests in children and adolescents with autism spectrum disorder. *Journal of*  
542 *neurodevelopmental disorders*, 8(1), 1-12.

543 Freeman, B. J., Ritvo, E. R., Schroth, P. C., Tonick, I. L. L. E. N. E., Guthrie, D. O. N. A.  
544 L. D., & Wake, L. I. N. D. A. (1981). Behavioral characteristics of high-and low-  
545 IQ autistic children. *The American Journal of Psychiatry*, 138(1), 25-29.

546 Funahashi, A., Gruebler, A., Aoki, T., Kadone, H., & Suzuki, K. (2014). Brief report: the  
547 smiles of a child with autism spectrum disorder during an animal-assisted activity  
548 may facilitate social positive behaviors—quantitative analysis with smile-detecting  
549 interface. *Journal of autism and developmental disorders*, 44(3), 685-693.

550 Gabriels, R. L., Agnew, J. A., Holt, K. D., Shoffner, A., Zhaoxing, P., Ruzzano, S., ... &  
551 Mesibov, G. (2012). Pilot study measuring the effects of therapeutic horseback  
552 riding on school-age children and adolescents with autism spectrum  
553 disorders. *Research in Autism Spectrum Disorders*, 6(2), 578-588.

554 Gass, D. S. (2013). *Understanding circumscribed interests in individuals with autism-*  
555 *spectrum disorders and how they relate to families* (Doctoral dissertation,  
556 Laurentian University of Sudbury).

557 Grandgeorge, M., Degrez, C., Alavi, Z., & Lemonnier, E. (2016). Face processing of animal  
558 and human static stimuli by children with autism spectrum disorder: a pilot  
559 study. *Human-Animal Interaction Bulletin*, 4(2), 39-53.

560 Jones, W., & Klin, A. (2013). Attention to eyes is present but in decline in 2–6-month-old  
561 infants later diagnosed with autism. *Nature*, 504(7480), 427-431.

- 562 Katti, H., & Arun, S. P. (2019). Are you from North or South India? A hard face-  
563 classification task reveals systematic representational differences between humans  
564 and machines. *Journal of Vision*, 19(7), 1-1.
- 565 Klin, A., Danovitch, J. H., Merz, A. B., & Volkmar, F. R. (2007). Circumscribed interests in  
566 higher functioning individuals with autism spectrum disorders: An exploratory  
567 study. *Research and Practice for Persons with Severe Disabilities*, 32(2), 89-100.
- 568 Klin, A., Jones, W., Schultz, R., Volkmar, F., & Cohen, D. (2002). Visual fixation patterns  
569 during viewing of naturalistic social situations as predictors of social competence  
570 in individuals with autism. *Archives of general psychiatry*, 59(9), 809-816.
- 571 Klin, A., Lin, D. J., Gorrindo, P., Ramsay, G., & Jones, W. (2009). Two-year-olds with  
572 autism orient to non-social contingencies rather than biological  
573 motion. *Nature*, 459(7244), 257-261.
- 574 Kosfeld, M., Heinrichs, M., Zak, P. J., Fischbacher, U., & Fehr, E. (2005). Oxytocin  
575 increases trust in humans. *Nature*, 435(7042), 673-676.
- 576 Kylliäinen, A., & Hietanen, J. K. (2006). Skin conductance responses to another person's  
577 gaze in children with autism. *Journal of autism and developmental*  
578 *disorders*, 36(4), 517-525.
- 579 Lam, K. S., Bodfish, J. W., & Piven, J. (2008). Evidence for three subtypes of repetitive  
580 behavior in autism that differ in familiarity and association with other  
581 symptoms. *Journal of Child Psychology and Psychiatry*, 49(11), 1193-1200.
- 582 Landry, R., & Bryson, S. E. (2004). Impaired disengagement of attention in young children  
583 with autism. *Journal of Child Psychology and Psychiatry*, 45(6), 1115-1122.



- 584 Le Couteur, A., Lord, C., & Rutter, M. (2003). *The Autism Diagnostic Interview—Revised*  
585 *(ADI-R)*. Los Angeles, CA: Western Psychological Services.
- 586 Lord, C., Rutter, M., & Le Couteur, A. (1994). Autism Diagnostic Interview-Revised: a  
587 revised version of a diagnostic interview for caregivers of individuals with possible  
588 pervasive developmental disorders. *Journal of autism and developmental*  
589 *disorders*, 24(5), 659-685.
- 590 Lorenz, K. (1943). Die angeborenen formen möglicher erfahrung. *Zeitschrift für*  
591 *Tierpsychologie*, 5(2), 235-409.
- 592 Martin, F., & Farnum, J. (2002). Animal-assisted therapy for children with pervasive  
593 developmental disorders. *Western journal of nursing research*, 24(6), 657-670.
- 594 Mormann, F., Dubois, J., Kornblith, S., Milosavljevic, M., Cerf, M., Ison, M., ... & Koch, C.  
595 (2011). A category-specific response to animals in the right human  
596 amygdala. *Nature neuroscience*, 14(10), 1247-1249.
- 597 Mottron, L., Dawson, M., Soulières, I., Hubert, B., & Burack, J. (2006). Enhanced  
598 perceptual functioning in autism: an update, and eight principles of autistic  
599 perception. *Journal of autism and developmental disorders*, 36(1), 27-43.
- 600 Muszkat, M., De Mello, C. B., Muñoz, P. D. O. L., Lucci, T. K., David, V. F., Siqueira, J.  
601 D. O., & Otta, E. (2015). Face scanning in autism spectrum disorder and attention  
602 deficit/hyperactivity disorder: Human versus dog face scanning. *Frontiers in*  
603 *psychiatry*, 6, 150.
- 604 New, J., Cosmides, L., & Tooby, J. (2007). Category-specific attention for animals reflects  
605 ancestral priorities, not expertise. *Proceedings of the National Academy of*

606                   *Sciences, 104(42), 16598-16603.*

607       Norris, M., & Lecavalier, L. (2010). Screening accuracy of level 2 autism spectrum disorder  
608                   rating scales: A review of selected instruments. *Autism, 14(4), 263-284.*

609       O'Haire, M. E., McKenzie, S. J., Beck, A. M., & Slaughter, V. (2013). Social behaviors  
610                   increase in children with autism in the presence of animals compared to toys. *PloS*  
611                   *one, 8(2), e57010.*

612       O'Haire, M. E., McKenzie, S. J., Beck, A. M., & Slaughter, V. (2015). Animals may act as  
613                   social buffers: Skin conductance arousal in children with autism spectrum disorder  
614                   in a social context. *Developmental psychobiology, 57(5), 584-595.*

615       O'riordan, M. A., Plaisted, K. C., Driver, J., & Baron-Cohen, S. (2001). Superior visual  
616                   search in autism. *Journal of Experimental Psychology: Human Perception and*  
617                   *Performance, 27(3), 719.*

618       Odendaal, J. S., & Meintjes, R. A. (2003). Neurophysiological correlates of affiliative  
619                   behaviour between humans and dogs. *The Veterinary Journal, 165(3), 296-301.*

620       Papagiannopoulou, E. A., Chitty, K. M., Hermens, D. F., Hickie, I. B., & Lagopoulos, J.  
621                   (2014). A systematic review and meta-analysis of eye-tracking studies in children  
622                   with autism spectrum disorders. *Social neuroscience, 9(6), 610-632.*

623       Parish-Morris, J., Chevallier, C., Tonge, N., Letzen, J., Pandey, J., & Schultz, R. T. (2013).  
624                   Visual attention to dynamic faces and objects is linked to face processing skills: a  
625                   combined study of children with autism and controls. *Frontiers in psychology, 4,*  
626                   185.

- 627 Parsons, O. E., Bayliss, A. P., & Remington, A. (2017). A few of my favorite things:  
628 circumscribed interests in autism are not accompanied by increased attentional  
629 salience on a personalized selective attention task. *Molecular autism*, 8(1), 1-12.
- 630 Pierce, K., Courchesne, E., & Bacon, E. (2016). To screen or not to screen universally for  
631 autism is not the question: Why the task force got it wrong. *The Journal of*  
632 *pediatrics*, 176, 182-194.
- 633 Posner, M. I., & Dehaene, S. (1994). Attentional networks. *Trends in neurosciences*, 17(2),  
634 75-79.
- 635 Prothmann, A., Ettrich, C., & Prothmann, S. (2009). Preference for, and responsiveness to,  
636 people, dogs and objects in children with autism. *Anthrozoös*, 22(2), 161-171.
- 637 Raven, J. C., & John Hugh Court. (1998). *Raven's progressive matrices and vocabulary*  
638 *scales* (Vol. 759). Oxford: Oxford psychologists Press.
- 639 Rutter, M., Le Couteur, A., & Lord, C. (2003). Autism diagnostic interview-revised. *Los*  
640 *Angeles, CA: Western Psychological Services*, 29(2003), 30.
- 641 Sasson, N. J., & Touchstone, E. W. (2014). Visual attention to competing social and object  
642 images by preschool children with autism spectrum disorder. *Journal of autism and*  
643 *developmental disorders*, 44(3), 584-592.
- 644 Sasson, N. J., Dichter, G. S., & Bodfish, J. W. (2012). Affective responses by adults with  
645 autism are reduced to social images but elevated to images related to circumscribed  
646 interests.
- 647 Sasson, N. J., Elison, J. T., Turner-Brown, L. M., Dichter, G. S., & Bodfish, J. W. (2011).

648 Brief report: Circumscribed attention in young children with autism. *Journal of*  
649 *autism and developmental disorders*, 41(2), 242-247.

650 Sasson, N. J., Turner-Brown, L. M., Holtzclaw, T. N., Lam, K. S., & Bodfish, J. W. (2008).  
651 Children with autism demonstrate circumscribed attention during passive viewing  
652 of complex social and nonsocial picture arrays. *Autism Research*, 1(1), 31-42.

653 Schultz, R. T., Gauthier, I., Klin, A., Fulbright, R. K., Anderson, A. W., Volkmar, F., ... &  
654 Gore, J. C. (2000). Abnormal ventral temporal cortical activity during face  
655 discrimination among individuals with autism and Asperger syndrome. *Archives of*  
656 *general Psychiatry*, 57(4), 331-340.

657 Scott-Van Zeeland, A. A., Dapretto, M., Ghahremani, D. G., Poldrack, R. A., &  
658 Bookheimer, S. Y. (2010). Reward processing in autism. *Autism Res.* 3, 53–67.

659 Silva, K., Correia, R., Lima, M., Magalhães, A., & de Sousa, L. (2011). Can dogs prime  
660 autistic children for therapy? Evidence from a single case study. *The journal of*  
661 *alternative and complementary medicine*, 17(7), 655-659.

662 South, M., Ozonoff, S., & McMahon, W. M. (2005). Repetitive behavior profiles in  
663 Asperger syndrome and high-functioning autism. *Journal of autism and*  
664 *developmental disorders*, 35(2), 145-158.

665 Stevenson, K., Jarred, S., Hinchcliffe, V., & Roberts, K. (2015). Can a dog be used as a  
666 motivator to develop social interaction and engagement with teachers for students  
667 with autism?. *Support for Learning*, 30(4), 341-363.

668 Turner-Brown, L. M., Lam, K. S., Holtzclaw, T. N., Dichter, G. S., & Bodfish, J. W.  
669 (2011). Phenomenology and measurement of circumscribed interests in autism

670 spectrum disorders. *Autism*, 15(4), 437-456.

671 Unruh, K. E., Sasson, N. J., Shafer, R. L., Whitten, A., Miller, S. J., Turner-Brown, L., &  
672 Bodfish, J. W. (2016). Social orienting and attention is influenced by the presence  
673 of competing nonsocial information in adolescents with autism. *Frontiers in*  
674 *neuroscience*, 10, 586.

675 Uvnäs-Moberg, K., Eklund, M., Hillegaard, V., & Ahlenius, S. (2000). Improved  
676 conditioned avoidance learning by oxytocin administration in high-emotional male  
677 Sprague-Dawley rats. *Regulatory peptides*, 88(1-3), 27-32.

678 Valiyamattam, G. J., Katti, H., Chaganti, V. K., O’Haire, M. E., & Sachdeva, V. (2020). Do  
679 animals engage greater social attention in autism? An eye tracking  
680 analysis. *Frontiers in Psychology*, 11, 727.

681 Viau, R., Arsenault-Lapierre, G., Fecteau, S., Champagne, N., Walker, C. D., & Lupien, S.  
682 (2010). Effect of service dogs on salivary cortisol secretion in autistic  
683 children. *Psychoneuroendocrinology*, 35(8), 1187-1193.

684 Whyte, E. M., Behrmann, M., Minshew, N. J., Garcia, N. V., & Scherf, K. S. (2016).  
685 Animal, but not human, faces engage the distributed face network in adolescents  
686 with autism. *Developmental science*, 19(2), 306-317.

687 Wilson, E. O. (1984). *Biophilia*. Harvard University Press.

688 Winter-Messiers, M. A. (2007). From tarantulas to toilet brushes: Understanding the special  
689 interest areas of children and youth with Asperger syndrome. *Remedial and Special*  
690 *Education*, 28(3), 140-152.

691 Zwaigenbaum, L., Bryson, S., Rogers, T., Roberts, W., Brian, J., & Szatmari, P. (2005).  
692 Behavioral manifestations of autism in the first year of life. *International journal of*  
693 *developmental neuroscience*, 23(2-3),143-152.

694

695

696

697

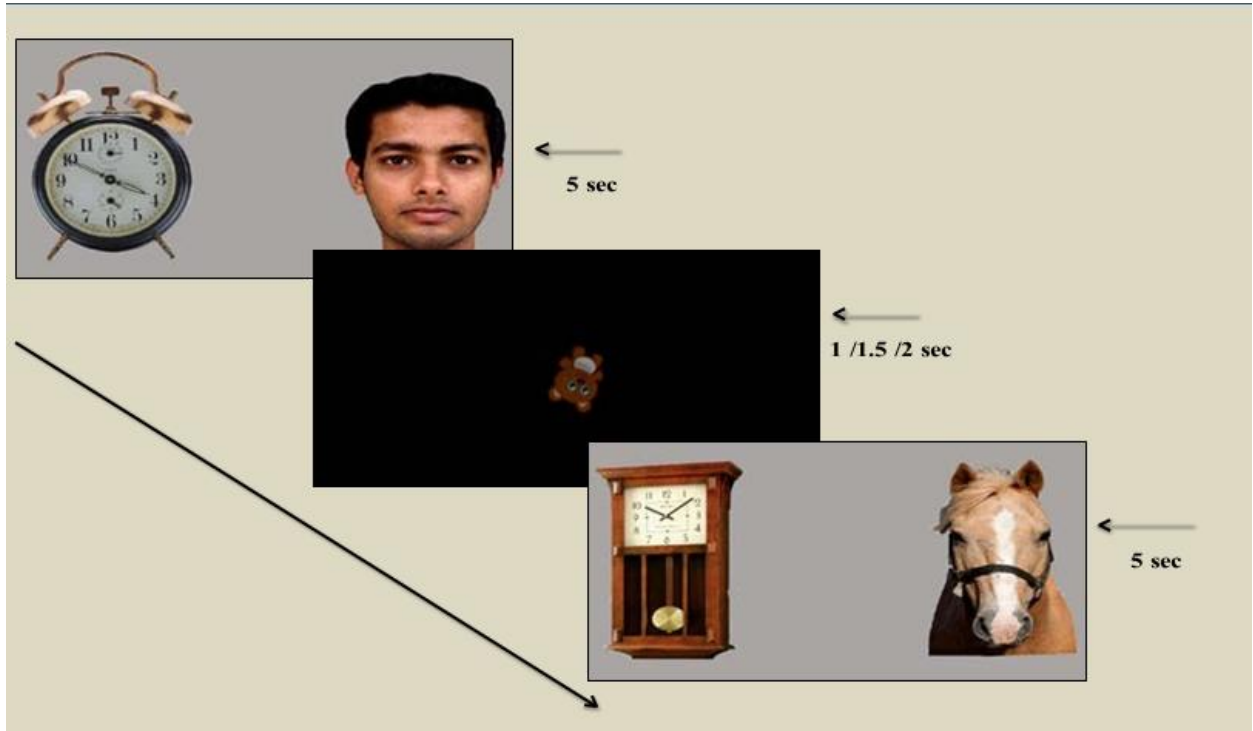
**Table.1**  
**Demographic details of the participants**

Characteristic	ASD (n=16)	TD (n=16)	t-value (p-value)
Age	9.94 (1.34)	9.10 (1.70)	1.55
Gender	13M/3F	13M/3F	-
<b>Social Communication Questionnaire (SCQ)</b>			
Total	14.33 (6.02)	3.92 (1.16)	5.88**
<b>Social Responsiveness Scale (SRS)</b>			
T-score (Full-Scale)	69.19(16.20)	48.18 (4.51)	4.18**
<b>Repetitive Behavior Scale (Revised)</b>			
Total Score	34.43(18.91)	4.25(1.36)	5.48**
<b>Raven's Colored Progressive Matrices (CPM)</b>			
Percentile description	<b>ASD (n=16)</b> <i>Between 10<sup>th</sup>-25<sup>th</sup> percentile (n=11) Grade IV At or below 10<sup>th</sup> percentile- Grade IV- (n=05) Below Average Intellectual Capacity</i>	<b>TD (n=16)</b> <i>Between 25<sup>th</sup> and 50<sup>th</sup> percentiles (n=16) Grade III- Intellectually Average</i>	

ASD, Autism Spectrum Disorder; TD, Typically Developing; n, Sample Size; Scores in the cells represent means and standard deviations unless otherwise noted. \*  $p \leq 0.05$  \*\*  $p \leq 0.01$

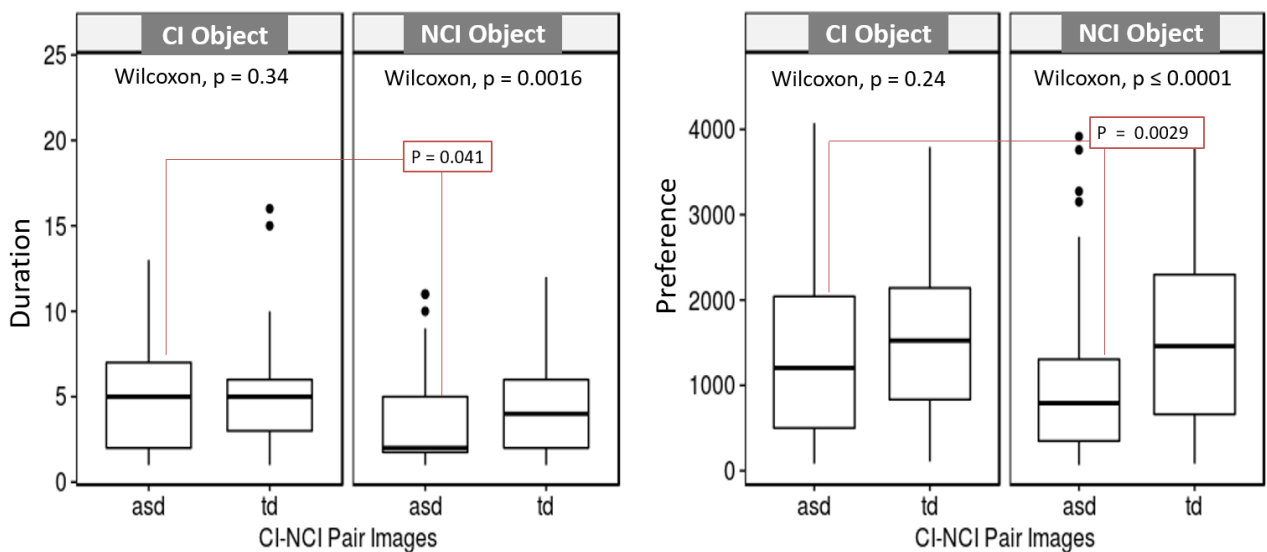
**Figure. 1**

**Diagram illustrating the stimulus presentation within the eye tracking paradigm. Each target stimulus was displayed for a period of 5 seconds (5000ms) followed by an inter- stimulus image displayed for a variable period of 1, 1.5 or 2 seconds.**



**Figure. 2**

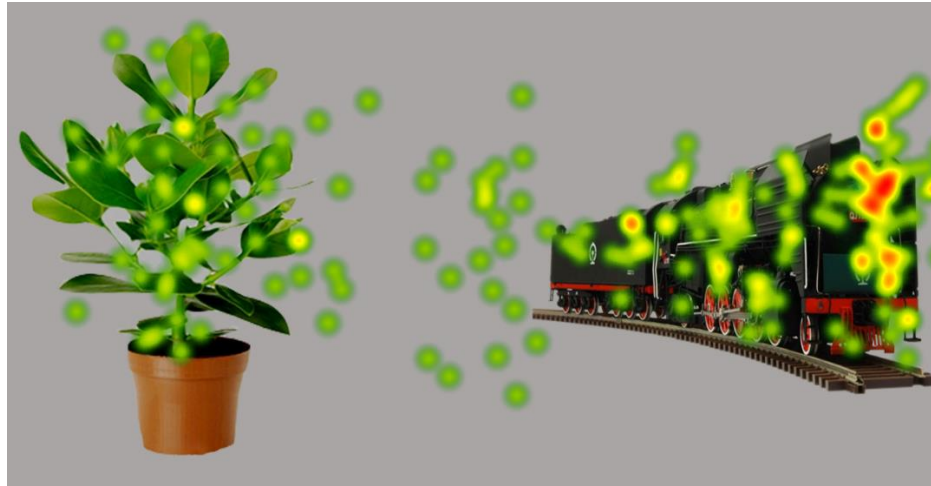
**Differences in visual attention within and between ASD and TD participants on arrays pairing CI and NCI objects -(Total number of Observations= 3391)**





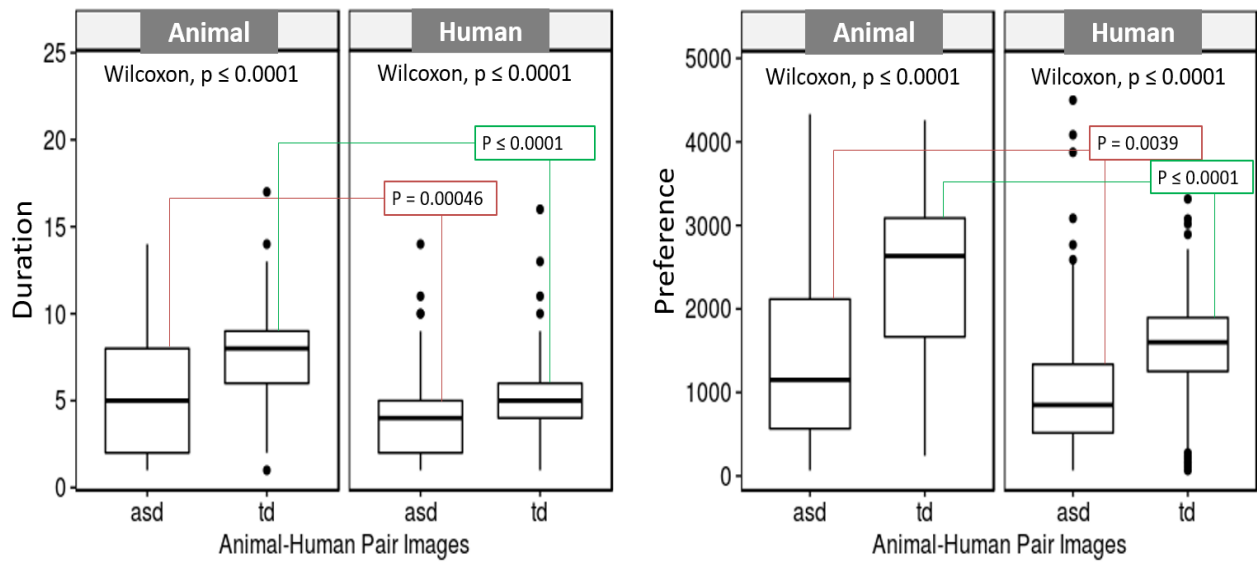
**Figure. 3**

**Heat Diagram illustrating the most attended areas of the image by ASD participants and the disproportionately greater attention to CI objects (train) in ASD. (Gradients of most attended areas on the heat maps range from red through yellow to green)**



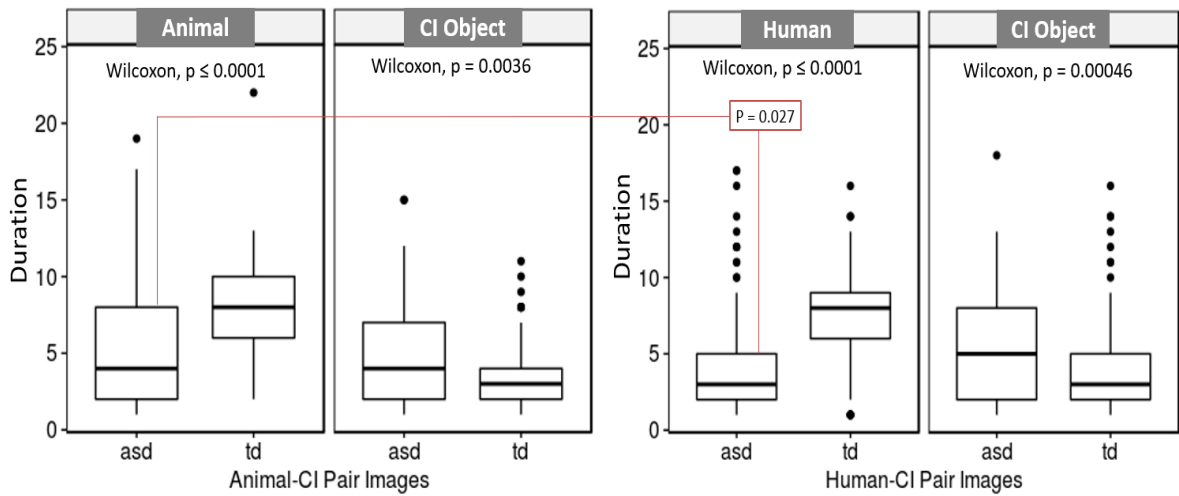
**Figure. 4**

**Differences in visual attention within and between ASD and TD participants on arrays pairing Animal and Human Face Images-(Total number of Observations= 3391)**



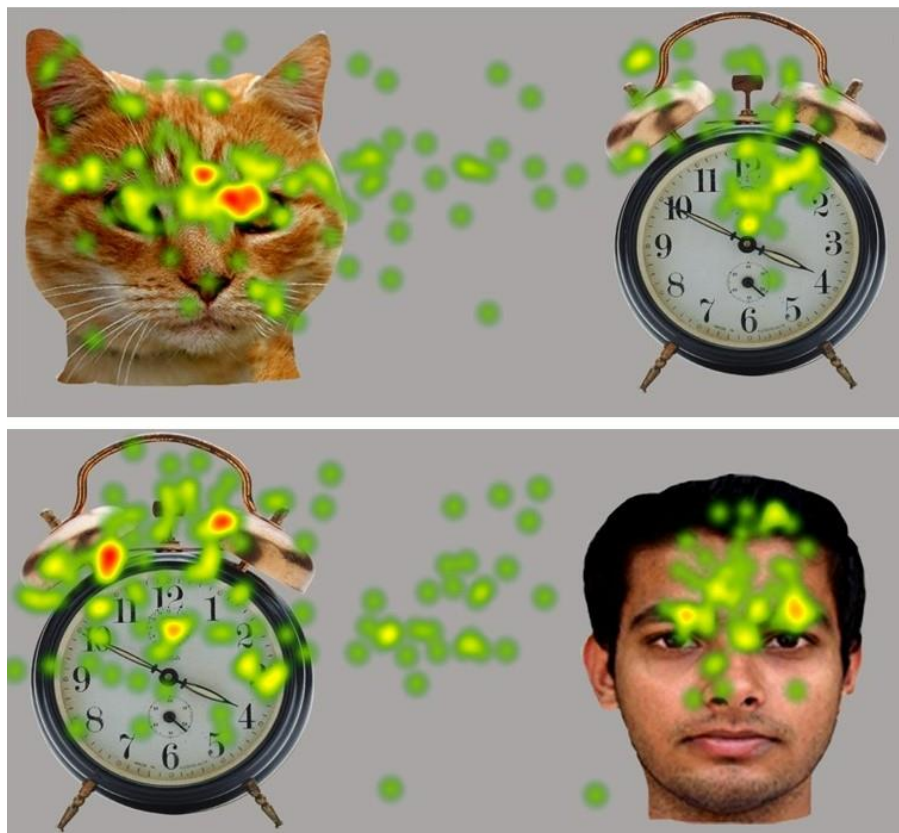
**Figure. 5**

**Differences in visual attention within and between ASD and TD participants on arrays pairing Animal and Human Face Images with CI objects -(Total number of Observations= 3391)**



**Figure. 6**

**Heat Diagram illustrating the most attended areas of the image by ASD participants and the greater visual attention to animal images as compared to human images when paired with CI objects (clock) in ASD. (Gradients of most attended areas on the heat maps range from red through yellow to green)**



**Table. 2**

**Mean and SD values on Preference (Total Fixation Duration), Prioritization (Latency of Fixation) and Duration (Sustained fixation duration per visit) indices of visual attention across stimulus arrays.**

<b>Arrays</b>	<b>Mean (Total Fixation Duration)</b>	<b>SD (Total Fixation Duration)</b>	<b>Mean (Latency of Fixation)</b>	<b>SD (Latency of Fixation)</b>	<b>Mean (Sustained fixation duration per visit)</b>	<b>SD (Sustained fixation duration per visit)</b>
<b>Animal-CI</b>	<b>1618.00</b>	<b>1171.78</b>	<b>1504.22</b>	<b>2352.26</b>	<b>5.28</b>	<b>3.38</b>
<b>ASD</b>	<b>1390.77</b>	<b>1116.07</b>	<b>1632.42</b>	<b>2958.05</b>	<b>4.97</b>	<b>3.52</b>
O1	1416.44	1172.90	1471.58	2744.92	5.21	3.69
O2	1361.82	1051.96	1813.81	3182.11	4.69	3.30
<b>TD</b>	<b>1833.79</b>	<b>1184.39</b>	<b>1382.46</b>	<b>1570.60</b>	<b>5.57</b>	<b>3.22</b>
O1	2651.21	1037.32	994.52	1460.74	7.63	2.78
O2	959.61	522.59	1797.35	1582.70	3.36	1.93
<b>Animal-Human</b>	<b>1623.25</b>	<b>1012.45</b>	<b>1553.12</b>	<b>3029.75</b>	<b>5.59</b>	<b>2.95</b>
<b>ASD</b>	<b>1232.23</b>	<b>969.26</b>	<b>1959.03</b>	<b>4086.10</b>	<b>4.65</b>	<b>2.95</b>
O1	1416.14	1049.41	1978.65	4172.83	5.32	3.25
O2	1047.08	845.09	1939.27	4011.05	3.97	2.46
<b>TD</b>	<b>1991.77</b>	<b>910.06</b>	<b>1170.56</b>	<b>1350.22</b>	<b>6.48</b>	<b>2.67</b>
O1	2425.89	911.62	986.41	1372.61	7.76	2.54
O2	1543.57	657.74	1360.70	1304.00	5.16	2.10
<b>Animal-NCI</b>	<b>1634.37</b>	<b>1132.11</b>	<b>1762.29</b>	<b>3376.56</b>	<b>5.31</b>	<b>3.44</b>
<b>ASD</b>	<b>1355.83</b>	<b>1105.87</b>	<b>2326.96</b>	<b>4655.62</b>	<b>4.95</b>	<b>3.52</b>
O1	1609.25	1207.26	2338.87	4845.61	5.92	3.73
O2	1033.12	864.15	2311.79	4422.45	3.72	2.79
<b>TD</b>	<b>1882.16</b>	<b>1098.79</b>	<b>1259.94</b>	<b>1328.78</b>	<b>5.63</b>	<b>3.35</b>
O1	2613.94	939.39	576.13	740.23	7.84	2.73
O2	1062.14	546.55	2026.19	1422.96	3.17	1.97
<b>CI-NCI</b>	<b>1382.70</b>	<b>967.76</b>	<b>1405.98</b>	<b>2264.24</b>	<b>4.39</b>	<b>2.72</b>
<b>ASD</b>	<b>1245.68</b>	<b>1033.89</b>	<b>1730.37</b>	<b>3081.12</b>	<b>4.30</b>	<b>2.91</b>
O1	1461.30	1131.71	1392.18	3150.32	5.11	2.95
O2	996.12	846.31	2121.80	2965.48	3.37	2.57
<b>TD</b>	<b>1504.10</b>	<b>889.63</b>	<b>1118.60</b>	<b>1050.39</b>	<b>4.47</b>	<b>2.53</b>
O1	1492.17	839.35	922.40	978.97	4.73	2.58
O2	1517.07	944.48	1331.93	1087.09	4.19	2.45
<b>Human-CI</b>	<b>1653.49</b>	<b>1227.58</b>	<b>1722.72</b>	<b>2920.37</b>	<b>5.39</b>	<b>3.46</b>
<b>ASD</b>	<b>1396.57</b>	<b>1177.57</b>	<b>2280.05</b>	<b>3960.21</b>	<b>4.94</b>	<b>3.57</b>
O1	1147.07	990.65	2082.99	3318.55	4.36	3.52
O2	1646.08	1294.88	2477.12	4515.63	5.52	3.55
<b>TD</b>	<b>1882.79</b>	<b>1227.73</b>	<b>1225.30</b>	<b>1283.34</b>	<b>5.80</b>	<b>3.32</b>
O1	2633.95	1230.07	793.73	938.03	7.49	2.92
O2	1096.58	542.81	1677.01	1435.08	4.03	2.74
<b>Human-NCI</b>	<b>1554.8</b>	<b>1183.61</b>	<b>1627.42</b>	<b>2692.38</b>	<b>5.01</b>	<b>3.46</b>
<b>ASD</b>	<b>1263.39</b>	<b>1170.52</b>	<b>2050.34</b>	<b>3618.77</b>	<b>4.41</b>	<b>3.49</b>
O1	1512.19	1349.19	1980.94	3673.85	5.22	3.95
O2	945.36	789.75	2139.05	3561.16	3.37	2.45
<b>TD</b>	<b>1811.15</b>	<b>1136.60</b>	<b>1255.59</b>	<b>1356.05</b>	<b>5.55</b>	<b>3.35</b>
O1	2565.73	992.10	752.02	1078.69	7.72	2.78
O2	982.17	563.14	1808.82	1416.15	3.16	2.04
<b>Grand Total</b>	<b>1582.91</b>	<b>1124.76</b>	<b>1599.40</b>	<b>2811.54</b>	<b>5.18</b>	<b>3.27</b>

*ASD, Autism Spectrum Disorder; TD, Typically Developing; CI, Circumscribed Interest Objects; NCI, Non-Circumscribed Interest Objects; O1, Object 1- refers to first stimulus name in the array, O2, Object 2- refers to second stimulus name in the array e.g., Animal –CI Array- O1-Animal, O2-CI object.*

**Total number of Observations, 3391**

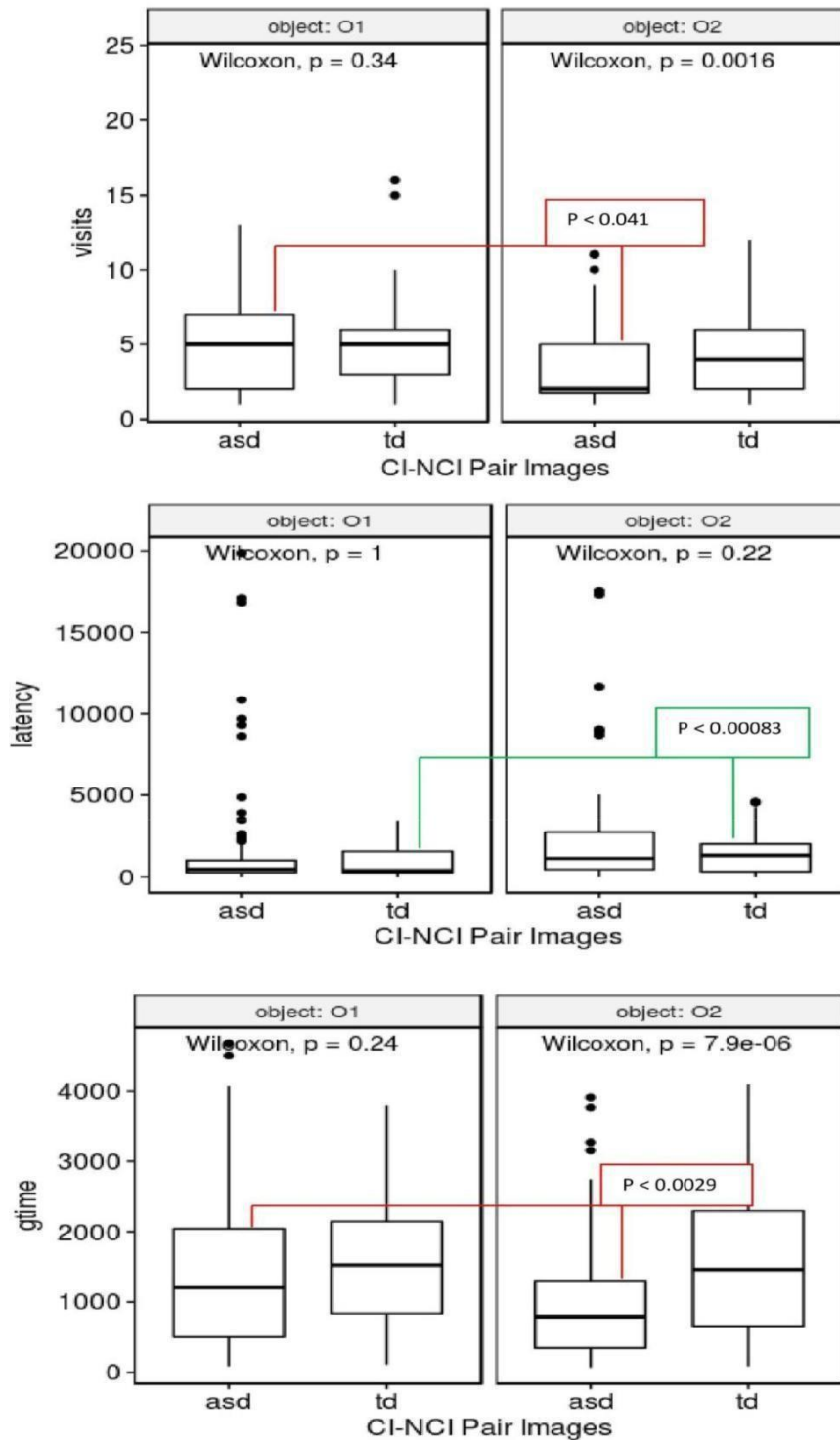
**Table. 3**

**Content of Circumscribed Interests in the sample of participants as seen on the Cambridge University Obsessions Questionnaire and classified according to the categorization by Baron- Cohen and Wheelwright (1999).**

<b>Category of Circumscribed interest</b>	<b>Number of children displaying the Circumscribed interest</b>	<b>Examples of Circumscribed interest areas</b>
Folk Physics	16 (100%)	Vehicles (Trains, buses, cars, motorcycles), fairy lights, clocks, Jenga blocks.
Language	7 (43.5%)	Echoing words, repeating phrases or monosyllables.
Attachments	13 (81.25%)	Toy vehicles, digital watches, stuffed toys.
Food	5 (31.25%)	Particular foods [e.g., Idly (rice cake), Orange cream biscuits], Food related preferences (e.g., same tiffin box, yellow plate and spoon)
Sports/Games	6 (37.5%)	Cricket, Tennis/Badminton.
Television/audio	14 (87.5%)	Cartoon network Fast paced movie songs Mythological television series
Sensory	15 (93.75%)	Likes moving objects (vehicles, spinning or rotating objects- fan blades, tops), insists on sniffing deeply on certain smells (shampoo, petrol, tea/coffee powder)

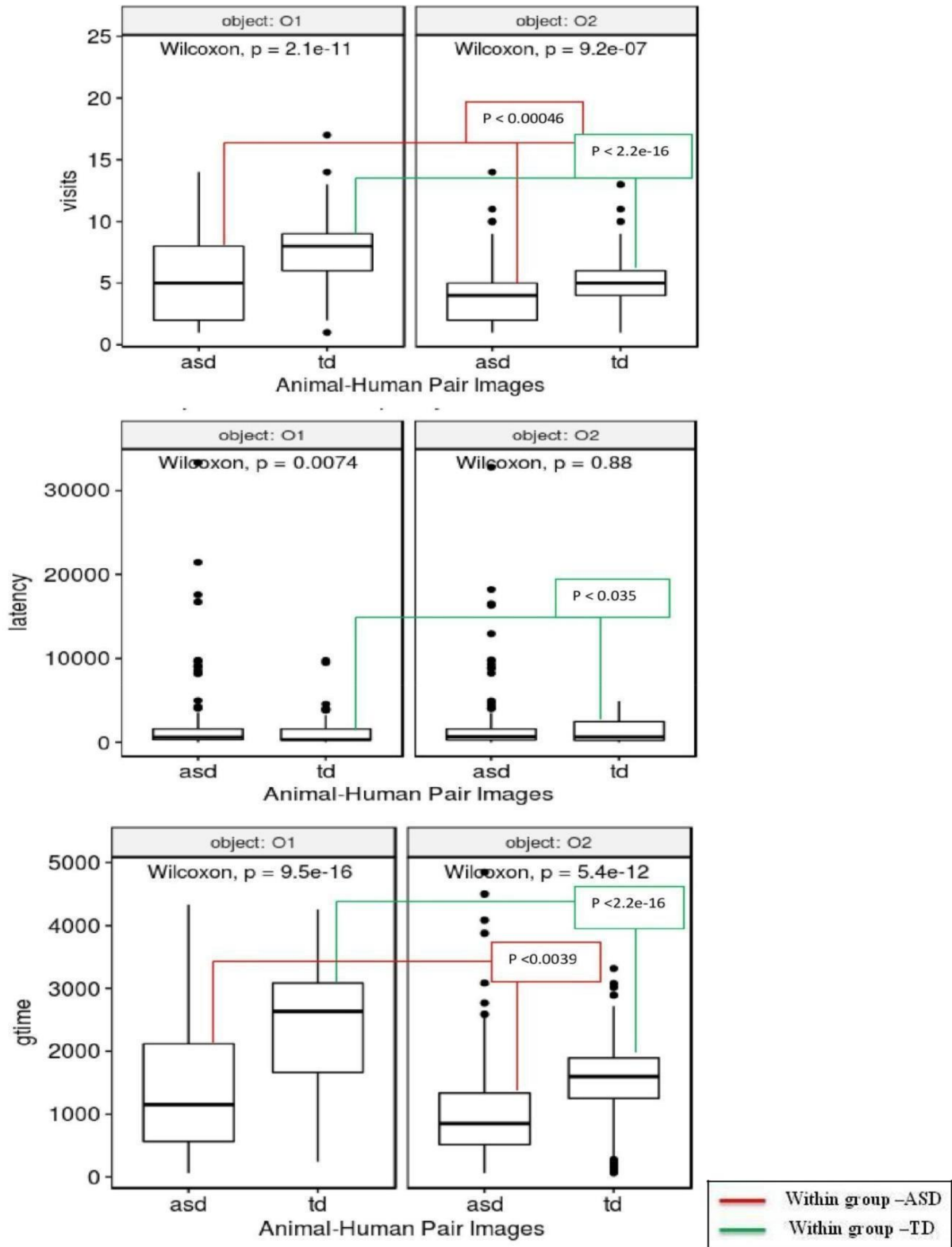
SUPPLEMENTARY FILES

**Fig. 1 Differences in visual attention with respect to duration (top), prioritization (middle) and preference (bottom), within and between ASD and TD participants on arrays pairing CI and NCI objects- (Total number of Observations= 3391)**



ASD, Autism Spectrum Disorder; TD, Typically Developing; CI, Circumscribed Interest object, NCI, Non-Circumscribed Interest object; O1, CI object; O2, NCI object; Visits, sustained attention per visit; Latency, time to first fixation; gtime, total fixation duration.

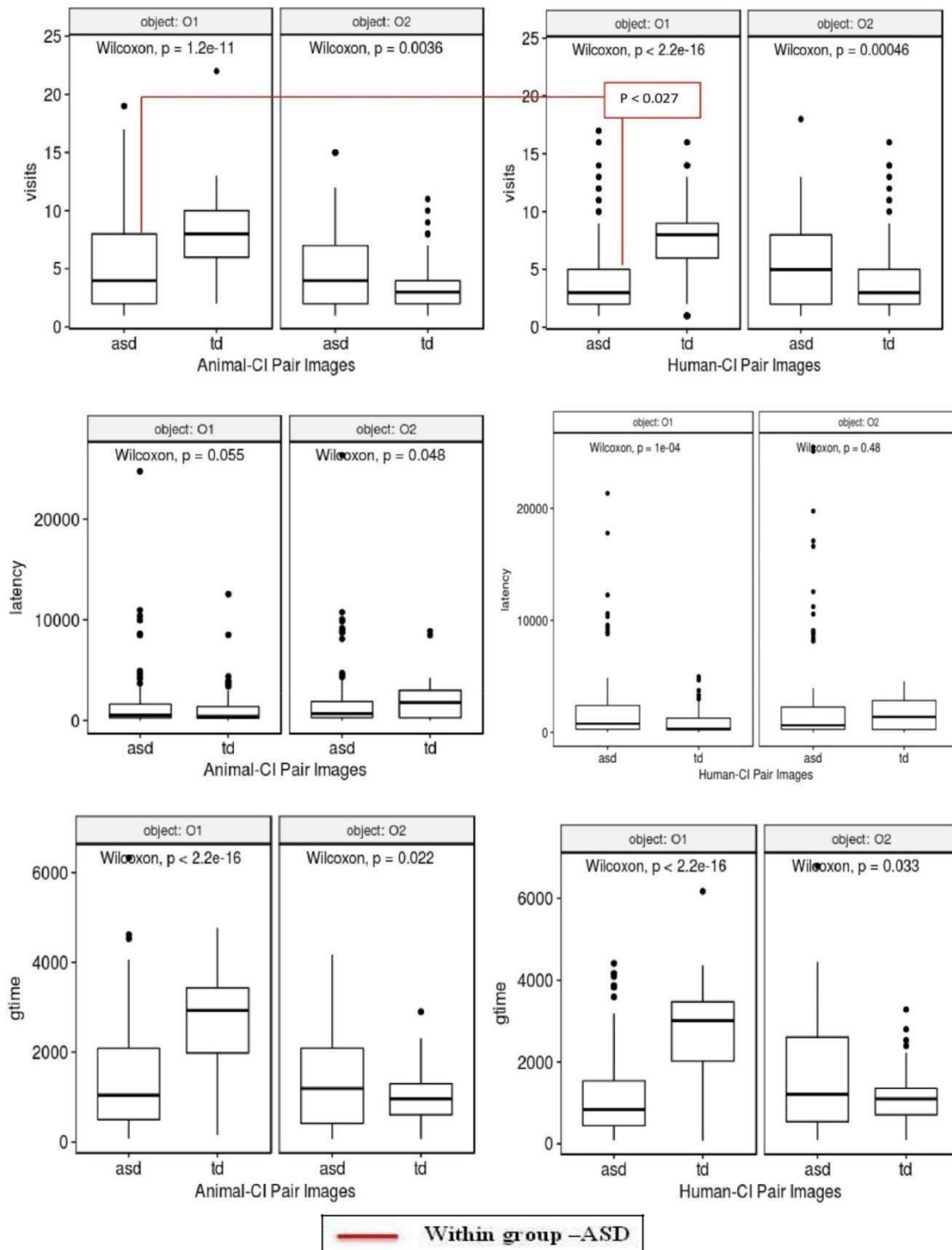
**Fig.2 Differences in visual attention with respect to duration (top), prioritization (middle) and preference (bottom), within and between ASD and TD participants on arrays pairing Animal and Human Face Images-(Total number of Observations= 3391)**



ASD, Autism Spectrum Disorder; TD, Typically Developing; O1, Animal Image; O2, Human Image; Visits, sustained attention per visit; Latency, time to first fixation; gtime, total fixation duration.

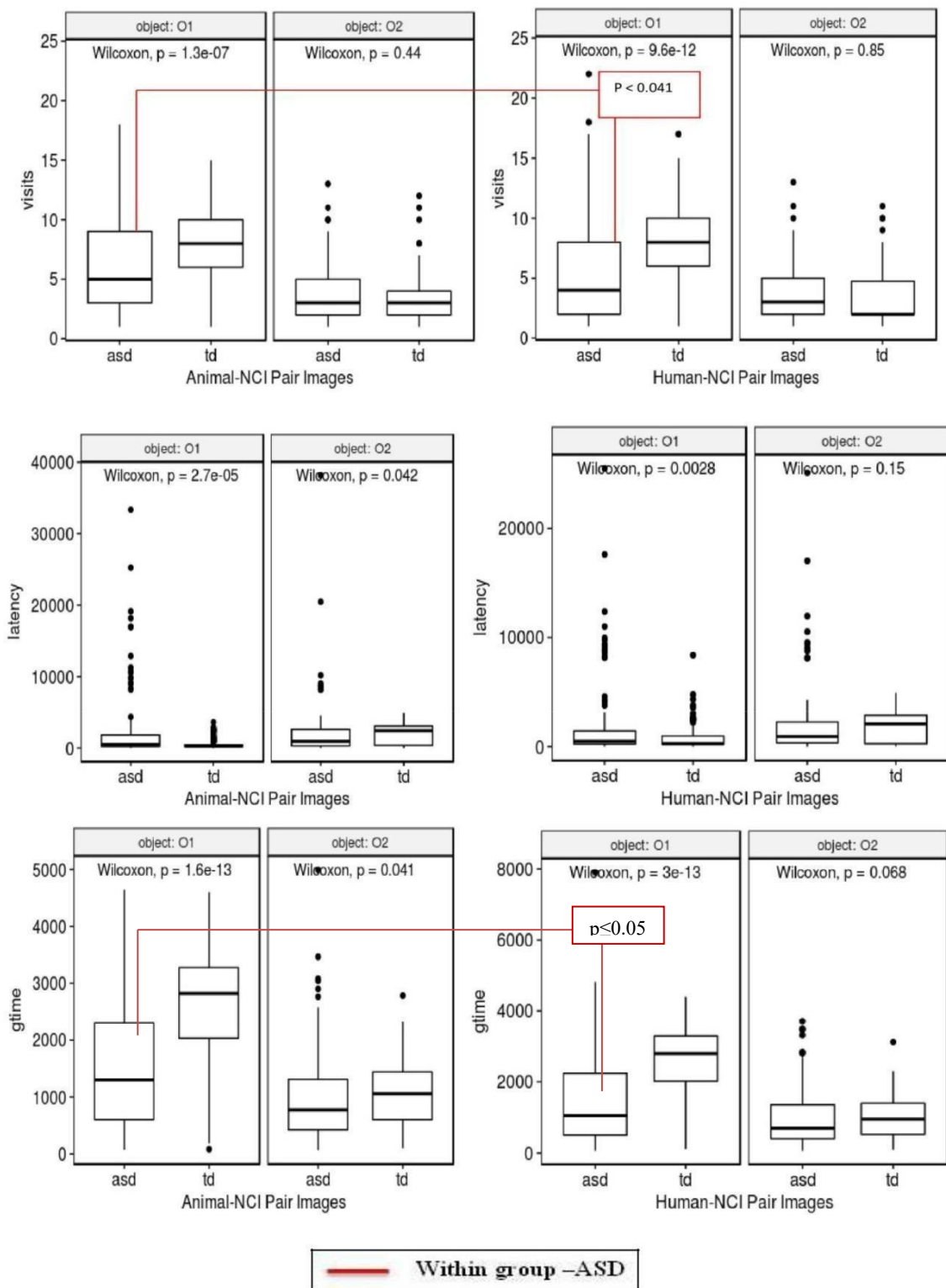


**Fig. 3 Differences in visual attention with respect to duration (top), prioritization (middle) and preference (bottom), within and between ASD and TD participants on arrays pairing Animal and Human Face Images with CI objects-(Total number of Observations= 3391)**



ASD, Autism Spectrum Disorder; TD, Typically Developing; CI, Circumscribed Interest object; O1, Animal/Human Face; O2, CI object; Visits, sustained attention per visit; Latency, time to first fixation; gtime, total fixation duration.

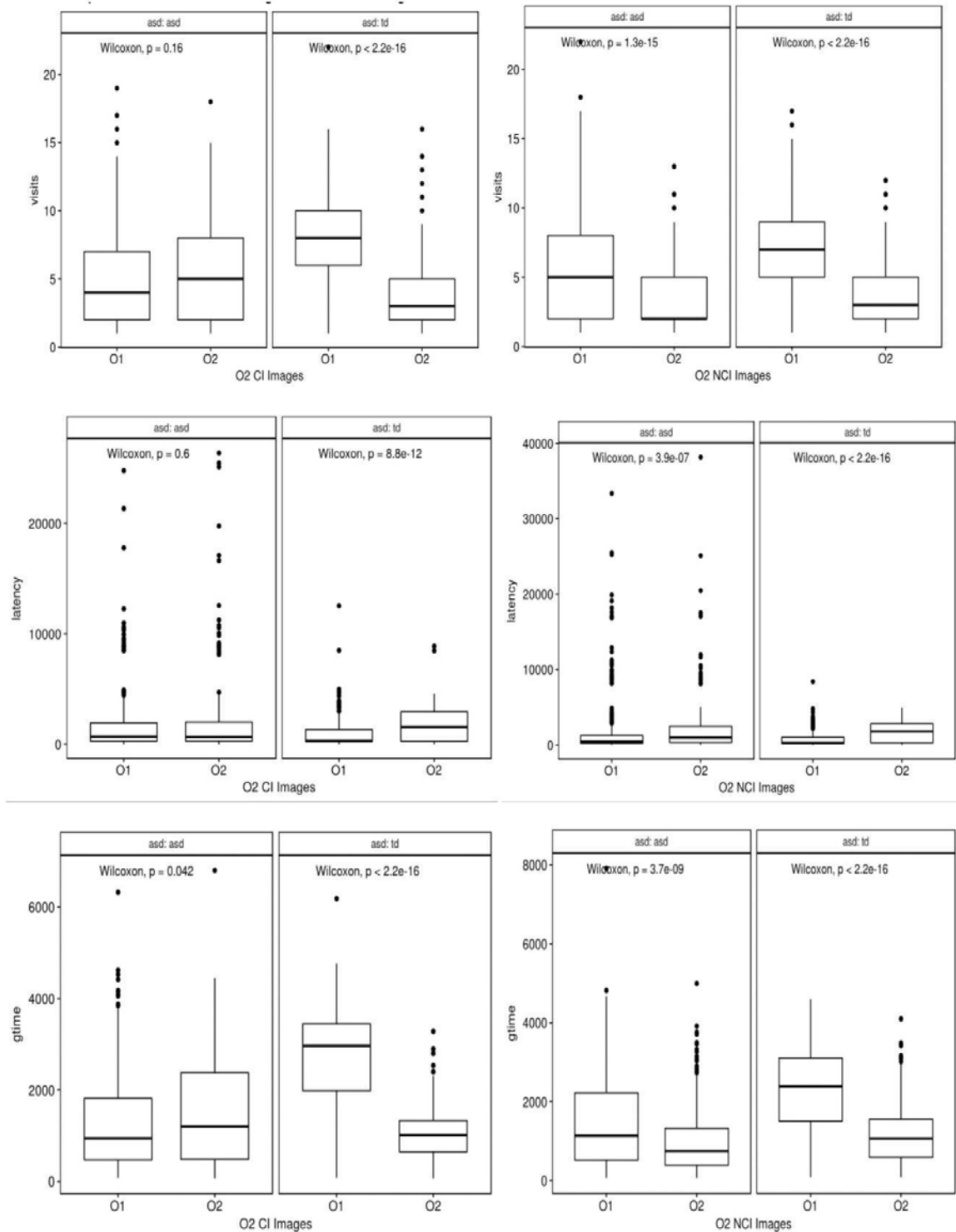
**Fig. 4 Differences in visual attention with respect to duration (top), prioritization (middle) and preference (bottom), within and between ASD and TD participants on arrays pairing Animal and Human Face Images with NCI objects-(Total number of Observations= 3391)**



ASD, Autism Spectrum Disorder; TD, Typically Developing; NCI, Non-Circumscribed Interest object; O1, Animal/Human Face; O2, NCI object; Visits, sustained attention per visit; Latency, time to first fixation; gtime, total fixation duration.



**Fig. 5 Differences in visual attention with respect to duration (top), prioritization (middle) and preference (bottom), within and between ASD and TD participants on arrays pairing Social Images (Human and Animal) with CI or NCI objects-(Total number of Observations= 3391)**



ASD, Autism Spectrum Disorder; TD, Typically Developing; CI, Circumscribed Interest object; NCI, Non-Circumscribed Interest object; O1, Social Image; O2, CI or NCI object; Visits, sustained attention per visit; Latency, time to first fixation; gtime, total fixation duration.

**Table. 1 Observation Counts of Expected and Obtained Observations**

<b>Participants</b>	<b>COUNTA of subj (gtime and latency)</b>	<b>SUM of visits</b>
asd1	99	362
asd2	112	515
asd3	119	676
asd4	110	537
asd 5	116	719
asd6	95	265
asd7	99	407
asd8	110	636
asd9	98	433
asd10	69	245
asd11	104	488
asd12	96	291
td10	116	657
td12	114	639
td13	115	631
td17	102	435
td4	117	657
td5	117	734
td7	116	661
td8	118	690
td1	200	1173
td11	115	645
td14	99	491
td2	106	708
td4	112	608
td6	117	672
td9	114	589
asd13	105	481
asd14	118	581
asd15	81	481
asd16	82	492
<b>Grand Total</b>	<b>3391</b>	<b>17599</b>
	Expected observations =3840	
	Obtained observations=3391 (88.3%)	

