

30 **Abstract**

31 This study assessed relations between white matter microstructure at one month of age
32 and visuospatial processing abilities at six months of age. Participants included ninety-
33 one infants (n=48 female) born after singleton non-complicated pregnancy. The infants
34 underwent MRI at one month of age and a behavioral assessment at six months of age.
35 Results revealed that the intensity of toy play was associated with fractional anisotropy
36 (FA) of the right (t=3.002, adjusted p=0.038) and left superior cerebellar peduncle
37 (t=2.799, adjusted p=0.038) and right cingulate gyrus (t=2.908, adjusted p=0.0038)
38 while Gaze Shifting was associated with mean diffusivity and axial diffusivity of the right
39 superior cerebellar peduncle (t=3.099, adjusted p=0.048). No other correlations,
40 including those studied interactions with biological sex, were significant after adjusting
41 for multiple comparisons. The findings support the notion that developing white matter
42 microstructure, as measured by diffusion MRI metrics, plays a role in the development
43 of visuospatial processing. Future studies should explore how these relationships
44 develop and predict visuospatial ability and working memory later in life.

45 **Keywords:** Visuospatial processing, cerebellum, biological sex, diffusion MRI, DTI,
46 NODDI.

47 INTRODUCTION

48 Visuospatial processing is a fundamental nonverbal cognitive ability that involves
49 interpreting perceptual stimuli and manipulating mental images, allowing individuals to
50 understand spatial relationships and interact effectively with their environments. This
51 ability is intricately linked to motor function, as it involves integrating various forms of
52 spatial information necessary for motor responses, thereby playing a critical role in
53 motor coordination¹. As such, visuospatial processing is vital for performing various
54 everyday tasks that require hand-eye coordination, such as picking up objects, writing,
55 driving, and participating in sports.

56
57 Research indicates that visuospatial processing at one year of age can serve as a
58 predictor of cognitive development later in life², and difficulties in visual processing are
59 directly associated with academic and professional outcomes^{3,4}. Unfortunately, delays
60 in the development of visuospatial processing often remain undetected until school age,
61 despite cognitive skills being more malleable during early childhood. The so-called
62 “brain growth spurt” from 32 weeks of gestation to two years of age⁵ is a critical period
63 during which early intervention may lead to more positive developmental outcomes⁶.
64 For instance, a recent meta-analysis found that early developmental interventions
65 initiated before 12 months in preterm infants may improve cognitive outcomes in infancy
66 and at preschool age but not at school age⁷. Despite the critical relevance of early
67 visuospatial processing and developmental outcomes, as well as the significant impact
68 of early intervention, there is no screening tool that can reliably predict or track the
69 development of visuospatial processing in infancy. Notably, links between infant visual
70 alertness and white matter microstructure have been associated with visuospatial
71 processing at 6.5 years of age⁸, highlighting the importance of identifying neural
72 markers that could potentially serve as visuospatial processing outcome measures and
73 inform relevant intervention or support strategies early in life.⁵⁻⁷

74
75 Previous work in both animal studies and with older children and adults has elucidated
76 gray and white matter regions associated with visuospatial processing. In macaque
77 monkeys, for instance, the fornix is associated with rapid visuospatial learning^{9,10}. In
78 adults born very preterm, a reduction in the volume of the fornix and cingulum is
79 associated with a decline in visuospatial memory^{11,12}, while research on typically
80 developing school-aged children suggests that an increase in fractional anisotropy (FA)
81 of the corpus callosum and the superior longitudinal fasciculus positively correlates with
82 visuospatial cognition after controlling for age^{13,14}. Moreover, the corpus callosum plays
83 an important role in unconscious visuomotor adaptation in individuals with unilateral
84 damage to the primary visual cortex via recruitment from the intact hemisphere¹⁵. In
85 another study of children with sensory processing dysfunction, the anterior limb of the
86 internal capsule, superior longitudinal fasciculus, and cerebellar peduncle were
87 associated with visuomotor processing¹⁶. However, limited data is available on
88 neurobiological associations underlying visuospatial processing abilities¹⁷ and even less
89 is known about how these relationships emerge in the developing brain.

90
91 Diffusion magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) non-invasively provides insights into the
92 microstructural organization of the brain and is a powerful tool for investigating early
93 brain development and associated behavioral outcomes¹⁸. Diffusion tensor imaging
94 (DTI) is the most used method of diffusion MRI and provides quantitative metrics that
95 describe tissue microstructure, including FA, and mean, axial, and radial diffusivity (MD,
96 AD, and RD, respectively). These metrics can be used to probe neurodevelopment. FA
97 is an index that describes the anisotropic properties of the diffusion tensor and provides
98 information about the degree of directional dependence of the local water diffusion
99 process. FA is a sensitive metric to white matter microstructure and tissue organization,
100 with FA values increasing with age and within highly organized tracts^{19,20}. AD and RD
101 quantify properties of water diffusion parallel and perpendicular, respectively, to the
102 axonal fibers and are often utilized as complementary measures of tissue
103 microstructure^{21,22}, while MD represents the average diffusion occurring within a voxel.
104 More recently, advanced biophysical diffusion MRI methods have been developed,
105 including neurite orientation dispersion and density imaging (NODDI)²³ that allow for the
106 estimation of more biologically meaningful metrics compared to those derived from DTI.
107 NODDI metrics provide a more specific characterization of microstructural changes and
108 estimates three microstructural metrics: the intracellular volume fraction (FICVF),
109 reflecting axonal and dendritic packing density; the orientation dispersion index (ODI),
110 quantifying angular variation of neurites; and the isotropic volume fraction (FISO),
111 representing free water such as cerebrospinal fluid. In white matter, ODI quantifies the
112 bending and fanning of axons. Fanning refers to axons diverging from a common origin
113 (e.g., corona radiata), while bending describes axons curving along their trajectory. Both
114 configurations increase ODI as neurites assume multiple orientations within a
115 voxel^{18,23,24}.

116
117 In our previous study by Dowe et al., we investigated the association of DTI (FA, RD)
118 and NODDI (FICVF) metrics at one month of age with infant's orienting and sustained
119 attention using a dynamic puppet task²⁵ at six months of age and found that infants with
120 higher FA in the corpus callosum and anterior cingulum had increased orienting
121 behaviors²⁶. The current study builds upon this previous work on orienting attention to
122 examine behaviors that require visuospatial processing of objects within their immediate
123 environment (the intensity of toy manipulation, changes in toy play, and gaze shifting) to
124 infer the essential role of visuospatial processing in interpreting visual information,
125 determining spatial orientation, and coordinating motor movements.

126
127 In this study, we examine the association between DTI and NODDI measures of early
128 (one-month) infant microstructure and behavioral measures of later (six-month)
129 visuospatial processing inferred from motor and attention tasks. We further investigate
130 the role of biological sex in this association, as differences in visuospatial processing
131 based on biological sex have been reported in multiple studies²⁷⁻²⁹. Sociocultural and
132 biological explanations have been proposed for these differences³⁰; however, the age at
133 which these differences emerge, as well as the underlying neurobiological and

134 environmental etiologies driving these differences, remain unclear^{30,31}. Existing literature
 135 suggests conflicting findings regarding biological sex-based differences in the
 136 development of visuospatial processing. This has prompted us to investigate the role of

	Total (n = 91)	Male (n = 43)	Female (n = 48)	p-value of mean sex differences.
Infant characteristics				
Gestational age at birth, weeks	39.5 (1.4)	39.4 (1.4)	39.6 (1.4)	0.498
Age at imaging, days	32.9 (6.1)	32.7 (5.7)	33.1 (6.4)	0.7548
Birthweight, pounds	7.7 (1.2)	7.6 (1.2)	7.7 (1.1)	0.6793
Birth length, inches	20.3 (1.2)	20.3 (1.1)	220.3 (1.2)	>0.9999
Head circumference, inches	13.7 (0.6)	13.8 (0.6)	13.6 (0.6)	0.1159
APGAR score at 1 min	8 (2)	8 (1)	8 (2)	>0.9999
APGAR score at 5 min	9 (1)	9 (1)	9 (1)	>0.9999
Maternal characteristics				
Maternal age, years	32.9 (3.8)	32.5 (4.1)	33.2 (3.5)	0.3821
Maternal education, years	17.6 (3.0)	17.9 (2.6)	17.3 (3.4)	0.3512
Race:				0.6128
White	83	40	43	
Black	1	0	1	
Other	7	3	4	
Family income at the time of birth, \$:				0.1572
<40,000	4	2	2	
40,001-60,000	13	9	4	
60,001-80,000	16	10	6	
80,001-100,000	18	6	12	
100,001-200,000	33	14	19	
>200,000	6	1	5	
Marital status:				0.1966
Married to the child's biological parent	80	36	44	
Married to the child's stepparent	2	2	0	
Single and never married	2	2	0	
Separated/Divorced/Widowed/Other	7	3	4	

137 biological sex as a moderator in brain-behavior associations. We hypothesize that early
 138 developing white matter microstructure supports the development of visuospatial
 139 processing behaviors in infancy, which could be different between biological sex groups.

140 RESULTS

141 Demographics

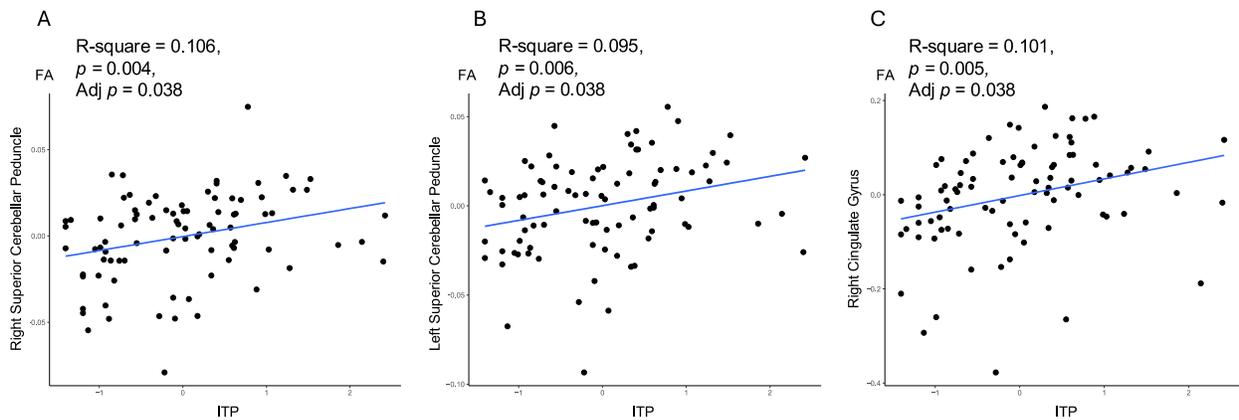
142 Infant and maternal demographic and clinical characteristics are presented in Table 1.
 143 The majority of the sample was White (83%) and belonged to the upper-middle
 144 socioeconomic class (\$100-200K median household income). Demographic and clinical
 145 characteristics were evenly distributed between infant biological sex groups. Additional
 146 participant information can be found elsewhere^{24,26,32-34}.

147 Table 1. Infant and maternal demographic and clinical characteristics. Data presented
148 as mean (standard deviation) and number of infants. *P*-value indicates non-significant
149 differences between male and female infants.
150

151 Associations of white matter microstructure with visuospatial processing

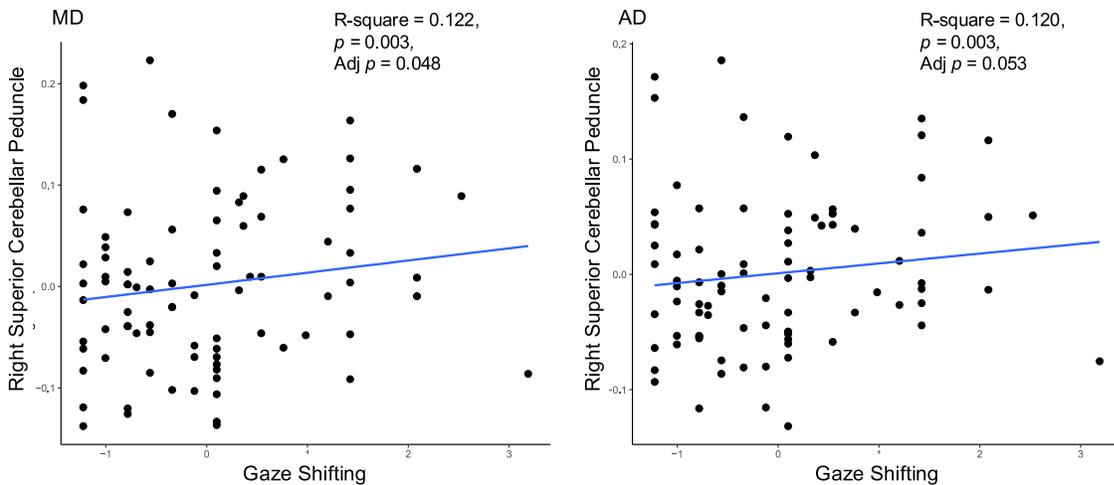
152
153 The results of the main effect of the associations of DTI and NODDI metrics in different
154 brain regions with ITP and Gaze Shifting that were not affected by biological sex are
155 illustrated in Figures 1-2 and Supplemental Table 1.
156

157 FA of the Right and Left Superior Cerebellar Peduncle and Right Cingulate Gyrus at
158 one month were positively associated with ITP scores at six months of age (Figure 1).
159 Other associations of DTI and NODDI metrics with ITP did not withstand FDR correction
160 (Supplemental Table 1).



161
162 Figure 1. Associations of fractional anisotropy (FA) of Right and Left Superior Cerebellar
163 Peduncle and Right Cingulate Gyrus at one month with Intensity of Toy Play (ITP) at six
164 months of age.

165 MD of the Right Superior Cerebellar Peduncle at one month was significantly and
166 positively associated with Gaze Shifting scores at six months of age, and this
167 association withstood FDR correction. While other associations of Gaze Shifting did not
168 survive FDR correction (Supplemental Table 1), the association of AD of the Right
169 Superior Cerebellar Peduncle and Gaze Shifting was positive and close to maintaining
170 significance after FDR corrections.



171

172 Figure 2. Associations of mean diffusivity (MD) and axial diffusivity (AD) of Right
 173 Superior Cerebellar Peduncle at one month with Gaze Shifting at six months of age.

174 **Biological sex differences in associations between white matter microstructure**
 175 **and behavioral tests of visuospatial processing**

176 Significant microstructure-by-sex interactions observed during the initial analysis did not
 177 withstand FDR correction. However, based on non-adjusted analyses, lower RD and
 178 MD of the Left Superior Cerebellar Peduncle and ODI of the Right Cingulate Gyrus were
 179 observed in one-month-old male infants with higher ITP scores at six months of age,
 180 which was not the case for female infants (Supplemental Figure 1). Additionally, one-
 181 month-old male infants with higher FICVF of the Left Superior Cerebellar Peduncle had
 182 higher ITP scores, which again was not true for female infants. One-month-old female
 183 infants with higher AD of the Right and Left Superior Cerebellar Peduncle had higher
 184 ITP scores at six months of age, which was not observed in male infants. Higher AD of
 185 the Right Superior Cerebellar Peduncle and AD of the Left Superior and Left Inferior
 186 Cerebellar Peduncle were identified in one-month-old male infants who had higher
 187 Gaze Shifting scores at six months of age, which was not the case for female infants.
 188 One-month-old male infants with lower FICVF of the Fornix had higher Gaze Shifting
 189 scores at six months of age, an association, which was again not observed in female
 190 infants. The uncorrected significance levels for the interactions with sex are provided in
 191 Supplemental Table 1.

192 **DISCUSSION**

193 This study investigated the association between white matter microstructure at one
 194 month of age and visuospatial processing behaviors at six months of age, as well as the
 195 role of biological sex in these associations. Our findings reveal significant associations
 196 of right and left superior cerebellar peduncle and right cingulate gyrus with ITP and right

197 superior cerebellar peduncle with Gaze Shifting, suggesting that early white matter
198 development plays a role in supporting visuospatial abilities.

199 **Early White Matter Microstructure Predicts Later Visuospatial Processing** 200 **Behaviors in Infancy**

201 Visuospatial processing is an essential component of infants' engagement with their
202 environment, operationalized here using ITP, a synthesis of the amount and intensity of
203 toy play. An infant's engagement with toys depends on their perception of the visual
204 stimuli from toys, assessment of spatial orientation in the quilt and eye-hand
205 coordination to reach the toy. However, one might argue that while visuospatial
206 processing is a crucial cognitive skill involved in toy play activities and gaze shifting after
207 analyzing an object in space, individual differences in ITP and Gaze Shifting may not
208 solely stem from variations in visuospatial processing and instead could result from a
209 combination of skills including motor development and attention.

210
211 The cerebellum consists of a wide neural network that richly interconnects various parts
212 of the brain and plays a crucial role in controlling movements, including visuomotor
213 integration. The anatomy and functional connectivity of the visuomotor cerebellum has
214 been previously described³⁵⁻³⁷. Although previously known for its role in motor functions,
215 there is increasing scientific and clinical evidence of the cerebellum's importance for
216 cognition. Evidence suggests that neuronal networks responsible for attention, as well
217 as emotional, and sensorimotor regulation, map onto the cerebellum with topographic
218 specificity. Posterior cerebellar lesions are associated with the cerebellar cognitive
219 affective syndrome, which includes impairment in visuospatial processing and executive
220 functioning.³⁸ A study of preterm-born adolescents revealed a significant association
221 between fine motor skills, visual-motor integration, and the white matter microstructure
222 of the cerebellar peduncle,³⁹ supporting our results. ³⁹Another study of children older
223 than 7 years of age who underwent cerebellar resection due to low-grade astrocytoma
224 demonstrated impairment in complex visuospatial processes, such as mental rotation of
225 objects, visuospatial orientation, and planning, with no changes to sensory processing
226 and perception⁴⁰. A study using reversible inactivation of cerebellar regions in male
227 monkeys highlighted the role of the posterior lateral cerebellum in learning new
228 visuomotor tasks⁴¹. Additionally, a study examining neuronal activity in the cingulate
229 motor area of monkeys during a behavioral task—specifically, reaching for a designated
230 target with the instructed arm—revealed that the neurons in this area are involved in
231 every phase of the activity. However, they demonstrate only modest selectivity
232 regarding the spatial features of the visual signal⁴².

233
234 Gaze shifting, operationalized as the frequency with which infants shift their gaze away
235 from the presented object (i.e., the puppet), is an essential component of infant
236 development (latency of gaze shifting was studied in our previous work²⁶). It reflects the
237 infant's ability to flexibly redirect attention in response to changes in the environment
238 and indicates on infant's broadened interest and exploration. A longitudinal study of 20

239 infants between 6 and 26 weeks of age revealed that 6-week-old infants rarely looked
240 away from the central to peripheral stimuli⁴³. Gaze shifting was more likely to occur
241 when the central stimulus was a video of the infant's mother's face with an abstract
242 video as a peripheral stimulus, compared to the reverse condition, suggesting an
243 infant's ability to recognize the mother's face and a shorter processing latency. This
244 frequency of gaze shifting increased with age, and at 22 weeks, infants reliably shifted
245 their gaze from central to the peripheral target under all stimulus combinations. These
246 findings are consistent with another study of typically developing infants aged 1 to 9
247 months, which demonstrated significantly faster disengagement from central to
248 peripheral targets in infants older than 4 months⁴⁴. In contrast, visual fixation ability—
249 rather than gaze shifting—has been linked to white matter maturation. Stjerna et al.
250 found that newborn visual fixation, assessed at term-equivalent age in extremely
251 preterm and full-term infants, correlated with widely increased FA across extensive
252 white matter networks, suggesting that better visual fixation reflects more advanced
253 brain microstructural development and predicts favorable long-term neurocognitive
254 outcomes⁴⁵. In our study FA of the right superior cerebellar peduncle was positively
255 associated with ITP, while AD and MD of the same region were positively associated
256 with Gaze Shifting. Since higher FA typically reflects more advanced white matter
257 maturation, whereas elevated AD and MD indicate less mature microstructure, our
258 findings suggest that Gaze Shifting is associated with earlier stages of brain
259 development. Specifically, Dubois et al. hypothesized three stages of white matter
260 development and showed that in earliest premyelination stage of white matter
261 development, FA and AD can both increase together as axonal fibers become more
262 directionally organized, before myelination begins⁴⁶. The positive association between
263 diffusivity measures (AD and MD) and Gaze Shifting demonstrated in our study may
264 reflect the developmental stage at which this visual behavior emerges. In early infancy,
265 gaze shifting relies predominantly on subcortical pathways which matures earlier than
266 cortical attention networks.⁴⁷ The ability to disengage attention and shift gaze to a new
267 target—particularly under competitive conditions—requires inhibitory cortical input from
268 the frontal eye fields, a capacity that develops progressively during the first months of
269 life⁴⁴. Thus, newborns who demonstrate more frequent gaze shifting may be at a
270 transitional developmental stage where subcortical-to-cortical connectivity is still
271 maturing, reflected by higher diffusivity values indicative of less myelinated white matter.

272 **Biological Sex Differences in the Relationship between White Matter** 273 **Microstructure and Visuospatial Processing in Infancy**

274 Numerous studies have demonstrated sex differences in brain development. In a study
275 of children and adolescents, females exhibited slower age-related developmental brain
276 changes compared to males, as evidenced by a decrease in gray matter volume and an
277 increase in white matter and corpus callosum volume⁴⁸. Additionally, in a study of
278 adults, males showed greater parietal surface area, which was advantageous, while
279 females showed greater gray matter volume in the parietal lobe, which was
280 disadvantageous for spatial abilities⁴⁹. Moreover, extensive research on the effects of

281 prematurity on brain development indicate that these effects are less severe and have a
282 more significant impact on white matter tissue in female infants compared to males⁵⁰,
283 This finding suggests that the male brain may be more vulnerable to developmental
284 abnormalities caused by prematurity^{50,51}. Our analyses examining biological sex as a
285 moderator of brain-behavior associations did not survive FDR correction; however,
286 uncorrected results suggested that associations were more pronounced in male infants.
287 These preliminary findings are consistent with prior work demonstrating that middle
288 cerebellar peduncle and cingulum FA predict cognitive outcomes in preterm infants^{52,53},
289 and that cerebellar white matter tracts exhibit significant sex-by-age interactions during
290 development, with males showing prolonged maturation compared to females^{54,55}. Such
291 sexually dimorphic developmental patterns may contribute to the observed differences
292 in brain-behavior relationships. Larger studies are warranted to further elucidate
293 potential sex-specific effects.

294

295 **Limitations**

296 This work is not without limitations. First, we employed two behavioral tasks that tap into
297 visuospatial processing, which are also used to assess motor and attentional abilities.
298 Thus, we infer effects on visuospatial processes but are unable to pinpoint specific
299 visual processes. Second, our sample was not highly powered for the study of
300 interactions, and many interactions lost significance after correcting for multiple
301 comparisons. This lack of statistical power would be remedied by studying a larger
302 sample. Finally, although we benefit from using two time points to infer developmental
303 association (one-month MRI and six-month behavior), true longitudinal designs that
304 incorporate multiple repeated assessments would provide a more accurate
305 understanding of the neurobehavioral development of visuospatial processing in infancy
306 and childhood.

307

308 **Future Directions/Implications**

309 Research is needed to investigate further neuroradiographic differences between male
310 and female infant white matter tracts and how these differences evolve with age.
311 Additionally, future studies could incorporate additional methods, such as eye tracking,
312 which enables highly precise quantification of spatial and temporal gaze patterns and
313 provides a direct window into visual perception and attention, offering complementary
314 insights to behavioral data on visuospatial processing. Still, findings from our sample
315 suggest that diffusion MRI methods early in infancy may provide limited evidence for
316 early recognition of neurocognitive development differences as early as one month of
317 age. With additional support, these tools could be a valuable component of screening
318 for early risk. Thus, future investigations are sorely needed to identify risk factors
319 associated with visuospatial processing differences at an early age.

320

321 **METHODS**

322

323 **Ethics approval**

324 All methods and experimental protocols used in this study were approved by the
325 Institutional Review Board (IRB) of the University of Wisconsin (ID: 2013-1537, PI:
326 Richard Davidson) and carried out in accordance with relevant guidelines and
327 regulations. The work was adherent to the tenets of the Declaration of Helsinki. Parental
328 consent was obtained at each assessment occasion.

329 **Participants**

330 Data were collected from 2014 to 2018 as part of a longitudinal study on early brain and
331 behavioral development. Enrollment criteria are detailed in our previously published
332 studies, which had different goals and hypotheses from those of the current paper^{26,33}.
333 Briefly, pregnant women between 18 and 40 years of age expecting a singleton birth
334 after a non-complicated pregnancy were recruited for this study at <28 weeks of
335 gestation. We conducted statistical analyses on a subset ($N = 91$) of the full sample,
336 which provided DTI/NODDI metrics and completed behavioral tasks for visuospatial
337 processing, including the “Quilt” and “Attention Puppet” tasks. Institutional review board
338 approval was obtained.
339

340 **Imaging Acquisition and Processing**

341 At one month of age (corrected to a 40-week gestation length), infants underwent MRI
342 during natural, non-sedated sleep^{20,56}. A 3.0 Tesla General Electric MR750 Discovery
343 scanner equipped with a 32-channel receive-only head RF array coil was used to obtain
344 imaging data (Nova Medical, Wakefield, MA). Diffusion-weighted images (DWIs) were
345 acquired using a three-shell diffusion-weighted pulse-gradient spin-echo sequence.
346 Parallel imaging was used to reduce image acquisition time and distortions from
347 magnetic field inhomogeneities. Sixty-nine DWIs were acquired, including 6 with no
348 diffusion encoding (i.e., b -value=0 s/mm²), 9 directions with b =350 s/mm², 18
349 directions with b =800 s/mm², and 36 directions with b =1500 s/mm². Additional imaging
350 parameters consisted of the following: repetition time [TR]=8400 ms, echo time [TE]=94
351 ms, and bandwidth=3906 Hz/pixel, imaging field of view [FOV]=25.6 cm×25.6 cm, and
352 2mm×2mm in-plane resolution. Coverage across the whole brain was achieved using
353 60 sagittal-oriented contiguous slices with a slice thickness of 2.0 mm. Total acquisition
354 time using strategies to reduce acoustic noise was approximately 10 minutes.²⁴
355

356 DWIs were processed using an in-house processing pipeline that included manual
357 assessment of individual images, denoising⁵⁷, Gibbs ringing removal⁵⁸, eddy current
358 and motion correction⁵⁹ and skull-stripping (3dSkullStrip tool;
359 http://afni.nimh.nih.gov/pub/dist/doc/program_help/3dSkullStrip.html). Diffusion tensor
360 imaging (DTI) and neurite orientation dispersion and density imaging (NODDI) models
361 were subsequently fit to the diffusion-weighted data. Maps were normalized to a
362 population-specific template created using DTI-TK and a representative subset of the
363 study sample⁶⁰. Given the known high specificity of NODDI metrics to white matter
364 microstructural changes, we studied both DTI and NODDI metrics. The Johns Hopkins
365

366 University neonatal atlas⁶¹ was used to delineate the infant brain into white matter
367 regions by spatially aligning the atlas to the population specific template using ANTs
368 and nearest neighbor interpolation. The normalized neonatal atlas was then
369 transformed into the native space of each subject by applying the inverse of the spatial
370 transformation. Alignment of atlas to native space FA maps was manually assessed. A
371 total of 10 white matter tracts (Genu of the Corpus Callosum, Fornix, Superior
372 Cerebellar Peduncle, Inferior Cerebellar Peduncle, Anterior Limb of the Internal
373 Capsule, Posterior Limb of the Internal Capsule, Sagittal Striatum, Cingulate Gyrus,
374 Superior Longitudinal Fasciculus, and Uncinate Fasciculus) are involved in visual and
375 sensorimotor functioning, as previously shown in the literature^{9-13,16,62-66}.

376

377 **Behavioral Assessment of Visuospatial Processing**

378 At six months of chronological age, infants participated in two observational paradigms
379 designed to assess their interest and attention by simulating everyday scenarios they
380 might encounter: (a) the “Quilt” task from the Prelocomotor version of the *Laboratory*
381 *Temperament Assessment Battery* (Lab-TAB⁶⁷, and (b) the “Attention Puppets” task
382 adapted from Cuevas et al²⁵. These tasks were selected due to the known role of
383 visuospatial processing in motor functions, such as skilled reaching, grasping, eye
384 movements, and other motor response⁶⁸. The tasks were recorded and later coded for
385 attentional salience.

386

387 During the “Quilt” task, the infant was placed in a prone position at the center of a quilt,
388 within arm’s reach of several colorful, textured, and enticing toys. The experimenter
389 directed the infant’s attention to the toys and then left the room for 3 minutes. Two
390 behaviors were scored from this task: bouts of toy play and the intensity of toy
391 manipulation. For bouts of toy play, the number of toys the infant touched during the
392 task, which indicates interest and the ability for visuospatial orientation, planning, and
393 eye-hand coordination, was counted. The infant’s intensity of manipulating the toys was
394 scored on a 5-point Likert scale (0 = No manipulation to 4 = extremely high
395 manipulation) every 10 seconds. Scores were then averaged across the entire task to
396 reflect the Intensity of Toy Manipulation. The approximate total duration of the “Quilt”
397 task was 3 minutes. Originally designed to assess activity level and interest, this task
398 was included as an indicator of the visuospatial processing necessary to engage with,
399 find, and manipulate toys. The processing streams involved in motor responses depend
400 on different classes of spatial information. For example, motor responses like skilled
401 reaching and grasping require precise coordinate computations to locate visual targets
402 relative to the body or its parts, known as allocentric-egocentric spatial processing^{68,69}.

403

404 For the “Attention Puppets” task, the infant sat in the mother’s lap while the
405 experimenter stood behind a divider, wearing puppet gloves on their hands. The puppet
406 gloves featured bells, glitter, and fun faces for the infant to see above the dividing wall.
407 The experimenter’s face and body were not visible to the infant. A loud handclap
408 prompted the infant to attend to the puppet on 4 different occasions. The number of
409 times the infant looked away from the puppets for more than three seconds, or gaze

410 shifting, was coded for each of the 4 administrations of this task, and the average
 411 number of times the infant looked away was counted. The approximate total duration of
 412 the “Attention Puppets” task was 4-5 minutes. Gaze shifting, when an infant redirects
 413 attention from an object, is a key aspect of visuospatial processing, crucial for
 414 developing visual attention and spatial awareness^{68 68,69}

415

416 **Statistical Analyses**

417 Correlations among variables from behavioral tasks for visuospatial processing
 418 (Intensity of Manipulation, Toy Play, and Gaze Shifting) are presented in Table 3. A
 419 positive correlation between “Intensity of Manipulation” and “Toy Play” led to these two
 420 variables being standardized and then averaged into an “Intensity of Toy Play (ITP)”.

421

422 Table 2. Correlation among three variables from behavioral tasks for visuospatial
 423 processing ("Quilt" and "Attention Puppets" tasks).

	Toy Play	Intensity of Manipulation
Intensity of Manipulation	0.624 (<.001)	
Gaze Shifting for <3 sec.	-0.004 (.974)	0.100 (.364)

Note. Spearman correlation computed using listwise deletion to handle missing data. Variables converted to Z-scores for comparison.

424

425 To determine whether to examine the left and right hemispheric regions of interest
 426 independently, we first compared hemispheric differences between 8 bilateral white
 427 matter tracts (Superior and Inferior Cerebellar Peduncle, Anterior and Posterior Limb of
 428 the Internal Capsule, Sagittal Striatum, Cingulate Gyrus, Superior Longitudinal
 429 Fasciculus, and Uncinate Fasciculus), while controlling for multiple comparison via the
 430 Benjamini-Hochberg procedure (Supplemental Table 2). Fornix and Genu of the Corpus
 431 Callosum were analyzed without lateralization due to their anatomical midline
 432 orientation and the DTI and NODDI mapping templates used for the study. Significant
 433 left and right lateralization was demonstrated for nearly all analyzed white matter tracts
 434 across DTI and NODDI metrics. Consequently, the right and left hemispheric white
 435 matter tracts were analyzed separately.

436

437 To address our aims, a series of multiple regressions examined whether the
438 microstructure of the selected white matter tracts at one month of age, measured via
439 DTI and NODDI metrics, would predict the behavioral outcomes of visuospatial
440 processing at six months of age, measured by ITP and Gaze Shifting. To enhance
441 comparability among variables of different measurement units, all continuous variables
442 (DTI and NODDI metrics and behavioral test scores) were standardized via mean-
443 centering. In addition, we examined the potential interaction effect of infant biological
444 sex and controlled for age at the time of imaging. For nonsignificant microstructure-by-
445 sex interactions, the main effect model was tested. Correction for multiple comparisons
446 was performed via the Benjamini-Hochberg procedure to control the false discovery rate
447 (FDR; $p < 0.05$). All analyses were conducted using R and RStudio, R version 4.3.3
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470 study are available from the corresponding author on reasonable request.

471 **Figure Legends:**

472 **Figure 1.** Scatter plot showing the interactions of the median Fractional Anisotropy (FA)
473 of Right and Left Superior Cerebellar Peduncle and R Cingulate Gyrus and Intensity of
474 Toy Play (ITP) scores while controlling for age at the time of imaging. Vertical axis
475 shows diffusion tensor imaging (DTI) metrics, horizontal axis behavioral tests. Both
476 variables were mean-centered. Values presented on top of each panel are t-value, p-
477 value and p-value FDR adjusted for multiple comparison.

478 **Figure 2.** Scatter plot showing the interactions of the median Mean (MD) and Axial
479 Diffusivity (AD) of Right Superior Cerebellar Peduncle and Gaze Shifting while
480 controlling for age at the time of imaging. Vertical axis shows diffusion tensor imaging
481 (DTI) metrics, horizontal axis behavioral tests. Both variables were mean-centered.
482 Values presented on top of each panel are t-value, p-value and p-value FDR adjusted
483 for multiple comparison.

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