
Title	Children with more uncertainty in their intuitive theories seek domain-relevant information
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5 **Children with more uncertainty in their intuitive theories seek domain-relevant**
6 **information**
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Abstract

How do changes in learners' knowledge influence information seeking? We showed preschoolers (N = 100) uncertain outcomes for events and let them choose which event to resolve. We found that children who were at immature stages of their intuitive theories were more likely to seek information to resolve uncertainty about an outcome in the related domains, but children with more mature knowledge were not. This result was replicated in a second experiment, but with the nuance that children at intermediate stages of belief development--where the causal outcome would be most ambiguous--were the most motivated to resolve the uncertainty. This effect was not driven by general uncertainty at the framework level, but rather the impact framework knowledge has in accessing uncertainty at the model level. These results are the first to show the relationship between a learning preference and the developmental stage of a child's intuitive theory.

Keywords

Cognitive Development, Active Learning, Information Gain, Intuitive Theories

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3 Statement of Relevance:
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5 Built upon the traditions of information theory and developmental science, our study
6 looks at information gain in the context of children’s beliefs – specifically, whether children who
7 are transitioning between beliefs are more motivated to seek information that could support
8 learning. We found that, consistent with the uncertainty reduction account, children with more
9 uncertain beliefs in a domain were more likely to seek information about an outcome in that
10 domain, compared to children with less uncertain beliefs. This work highlights the role of prior
11 beliefs on information seeking, sets the stage for future research using quantitative modeling to
12 provide a comprehensive account of information seeking behavior, and adds to the broader
13 literature on curiosity and theory change.
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Contrary to the folk belief that children are passive learners, absorbing information that others select for them, a growing body of research has demonstrated that children are drivers of their epistemic development (Schulz, 2012; Saylor & Ganea, 2018). But this picture of active learning poses a critical developmental question: given that there are essentially an infinite number of possible learning opportunities, how does a learner choose what to learn? Here we suggest that one important factor that shapes informational choices is uncertainty in a learner's intuitive theories.

Drivers of children's exploration

Many factors have been proposed to explain children's information seeking preferences. One (unlikely) possibility is that choices about what to learn are essentially random, with all learning opportunities evaluated and sampled with equal probability. Other possibilities point to fairly simple drivers of attention, such as stimulus salience (Berlyne, 1950) or novelty (Mendel, 1965), which might drive learning decisions by low-level attraction to the salient items. Other accounts necessitate more sophisticated representations and faculties of the learner, pointing towards uncertainty reduction as a driver of exploratory preference.

Uncertainty accounts of information seeking require a method to quantify said uncertainty. Recent computational approaches to cognitive development quantitatively describe the learning system in terms of Bayesian Probabilistic models (e.g. Gopnik & Bonawitz, 2015; Gopnik & Wellman, 2012; Tenenbaum et al, 2007; Gopnik & Schulz, 2004). The probabilistic nature of the computational approach quantifies uncertainty in terms of how confidence in hypotheses is distributed. High posterior probability in a single hypothesis reflects less

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3 uncertainty than more evenly distributed probability across multiple hypotheses. The uncertainty
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5 reduction account predicts that learners' actions are driven by an intrinsic desire to seek
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7 information to reduce uncertainty (Gottlieb, Oudeyer, Lopes, & Baranes, 2013).
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10 Uncertainty thus reflects the distribution of belief across different hypotheses. There are
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12 two well established empirical cases in which, following some evidence, a learner finds
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14 themselves in high states of uncertainty. One source of uncertainty is surprise: when observed
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16 evidence conflicts with expectations given a strongly held belief, infants and children explore
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18 and learn more (Bonawitz, van Schjndel, Friel, & Schulz, 2012; Legare, Gelman, & Wellman,
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20 2010; Stahl & Feigenson, 2015). Bayesian surprise reflects uncertainty because the probability of
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22 the observed evidence was very low under a previously strongly held mental model, and this
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24 “balances out” with alternative hypotheses that the evidence supports but were not as likely,
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26 which leads to uncertainty across these alternative hypotheses¹. A different source of uncertainty
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28 comes from evidence that fails to disambiguate between a priori equally-likely hypotheses, or
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30 “ambiguous evidence”. For example, when presented with confounded evidence for the cause
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32 and effect in a novel toy where multiple causes are equally likely, children are more likely to
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34 engage in exploratory behavior to disambiguate the possible causes (Gweon & Schulz, 2008;
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36 Schulz & Bonawitz, 2007).
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42 How might children recognize uncertainty in their own mental model? Even though
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44 previous research suggests that explicit meta-cognitive skills do not emerge until later school
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46 years, recent research suggests that even preschool-aged children have an internal sense of
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48 uncertainty that reflects the subjective difficulty of various tasks, such as judging numerical
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50 quantities or emotional expressions (Baer, Gill, & Odic, 2018; Vo, Li, Kornell, Pouget, &
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56 ¹ The same holds for a distribution of beliefs.
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3 Cantlon, 2014). Taken together, this past work suggests that children are sensitive to the
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5 uncertainty in observed evidence, and are motivated to explore when evidence is surprising or
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7 ambiguous with respect to their beliefs. However, less work has investigated how children might
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9 choose to explore in the absence of evidence -- when outcomes are left to be predicted. This kind
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11 of implicit, internal sense of uncertainty may thus also drive children's exploratory decisions
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13 when it comes to choosing what kind of evidence to seek to discern among competing models.
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19 ***Distinguishing between model and framework levels of uncertainty***

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21 In these aforementioned studies of children's exploration to resolve uncertainty, events
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23 were uncertain in the context of a particular causal model. However, in addition to the
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25 uncertainty at the model level brought directly by the observed evidence, uncertainty can also
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27 occur at "higher" levels of representation which have been referred to as intuitive theories or
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29 framework theories (Carey 1985; Gopnik & Wellman, 1994; Keil, 1991; Wellman & Gelman,
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31 1992).
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35 Intuitive theories play an essential role in organizing children's basic knowledge about
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37 the world, and support the learning of new causal structures (Dunbar & Klahr, 1988). Coherent
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39 and abstract intuitive theories afford consistent predictions about the world, and they have been
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41 proposed to have a broad explanatory power that other types of knowledge do not have (Gopnik
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43 & Wellman, 1994). However, the abstractness of intuitive theories may postulate a special
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45 challenge for children's learning, as evidenced by their prolonged learning trajectory compared
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47 to the learning of factual outcomes (Carey, 2009; though see Goodman, Tenenbaum, & Ullman,
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49 2011; Bonawitz et al, 2019 for how abstractness may foster learning at the theory level).
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3 Intuitive theories have been formalized in generative computational models (Tenenbaum et al,
4 2011), guiding the probability of particular causal models under them (e.g. see Schulz,
5 Bonawitz, & Griffiths, 2007). Thus, children can not only have uncertainty at the model level
6 (e.g. whether a particular event caused an outcome), but also at the theory level (e.g. whether
7 types of events in general can even lead to those kinds of outcomes in general).
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15 Evidence can thus help inform different causal models, but will also, in turn, inform the
16 higher level theories at the framework level. An open question is whether children are capable of
17 representing uncertainty at the *theory level* -- whether they (implicitly) recognize the limits of
18 their current frameworks. If given the choice between informing just a causal model versus
19 informing both a causal model and the theory above it, do children prefer the option that informs
20 the theory level as well? Such a preference would only be seen when there was more uncertainty
21 at the theory level, as in less developed knowledge domains.
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31 32 33 **Theories and models in guiding exploration**

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35 Here we ask whether children who are at different transitional stages of understanding in
36 a knowledge domain also differ in their interest in acquiring information in the corresponding
37 domain. Development provides a natural testbed for this potential role of intuitive theory in
38 guiding children's information seeking. There is evidence that children's intuitive theories
39 undergo important growth in the preschool years in numerous domains including biological
40 transmission and contagion (e.g., how people catch a cold; Blacker & LoBue, 2016; Keil et al,
41 1999), psychosomatic events (e.g., how being scared can cause a stomach ache; Schulz,
42 Bonawitz, & Griffiths, 2007; Bonawitz, Fisher, & Schulz, 2012), and other people's mental
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3 states (Theory of Mind; e.g., how other people can have different beliefs from us; Wellman,
4 Fang, & Peterson, 2011).

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8 In the first stage of the study, we measured children's existing knowledge in these three
9 domains, allowing us to classify children as having more immature theories (with higher
10 uncertainty) or more mature theories (with less uncertainty). In the second stage, a few days later,
11 we gave children a "choose-your-own-adventure" storybook that offered each child a forced
12 choice opportunity to learn more about just one outcome. They could receive more information
13 either about the target domain (such as whether one character became ill after prolonged contact
14 with another, contagiously-sick character), or about a domain-irrelevant outcome that does not
15 provide information about a broad, conceptually rich domains of knowledge (such as what of two
16 options the character had for breakfast).

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19 If uncertainty at the model level is influenced by the uncertainty at the theory level,
20 having more uncertainty at the theory level (children with immature theories) should show a
21 preference for the domain-relevant information. This is, because it provides evidence at both
22 levels, making it a more interesting option than the domain-irrelevant outcome that holds
23 uncertainty only at the model level.

24 25 26 27 28 29 30 31 32 33 34 35 36 37 38 39 40 41 42 **Experiment 1**

43 44 45 Method

46 47 *Participants*

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49 Fifty children ($M_{\text{age}} = 4.95$ years, $SD = 0.62$, 24 females) participated in this study. A
50 power analysis with an assumed effect size of 0.5 yielded that $N = 32$ would be sufficient for
51 detecting a significant effect of intuitive theory level (mature vs. immature) with $\alpha = 0.05$,

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4 two-tailed, with a power of 0.8. Eleven additional children were excluded from the analyses due
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6 to inattention (two children) or a bias to give “yes” or “no” answers (9 children; exclusion
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8 criterion: more than 95% of all answers were uniformly “yes” or “no”). Children were recruited
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10 from local preschools. Parental consents were acquired prior to children’s participation.
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14 15 *Stimuli*

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17 **Knowledge Assessment.** Children’s existing knowledge in each of the three knowledge
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19 domains (Biological Transmission, Psychosomatic Events, and Theory of Mind) were assessed.
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21 All questions were adapted from previous assessments of children’s knowledge in each domain
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23 (Blacker & LoBue, 2016; Schulz, et al., 2007; Wellman, Fang, & Peterson, 2011). For example,
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25 for the Biological Transmission domain, children heard descriptions of scenarios where a
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27 character had symptoms of a contagious illness (such as sneezing), and then made contact with a
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29 second character. Then children were asked whether the second character would also have the
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31 illness. For each question, pictures or puppets were used to facilitate understanding. Additionally,
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33 we included attention-check questions that clearly violated basic notions that should have fully
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35 developed at the preschool stage, such as asking the child whether someone could just float in
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37 mid-air as long as they want without falling down (e.g., Needham & Baillargeon, 1993). These
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39 questions allowed us to differentiate children who were not paying attention or were biased to
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41 give the same answer to all the questions. The assessment included six questions for each domain
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43 and three check questions, resulting in a total of 21 questions. (See SOM-U and OSF: [https://
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45 osf.io/4nfmk/?view_only=77bc3ecb0d214a809580466b64420a08](https://osf.io/4nfmk/?view_only=77bc3ecb0d214a809580466b64420a08) for additional details.)
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3 **Information Seeking task.** The Information Seeking task was based on a “choose-your-
4 own-adventure” paradigm. For each domain, children heard stories about a character
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6 experiencing a similar scenario as in the Knowledge Assessment task, intermixed with a domain-
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8 irrelevant scenario.
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12 We designed the books to investigate children’s preference to learn about future
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14 outcomes (where such predictions have some uncertainty). The books were designed such that
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16 the two alternative domain-irrelevant event outcomes were a priori equally likely and the details
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18 in the storybook failed to provide any clues as to what the outcome might be. Because this option
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20 was domain irrelevant, resolving the uncertainty at the model level would not provide additional
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22 evidence to inform children’s developing theories.
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26 The alternative option for the child was to learn more about the domain-relevant event.
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28 This event was, in principle, designed similarly to disambiguate between two outcomes that were
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30 a priori equally likely based on the content of the storybook. Because this option was domain
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32 relevant, resolving uncertainty at the model level (what happened to this particular character)
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34 would also serve to provide additional evidence at the theory-level (e.g. a data-point that
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36 confirms or denies a theory of contagion). However, children’s interest in the provided evidence
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38 in this target domain may differ based on the development of their intuitive theory in the domain.
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40 For example, compared to children who are still developing an understanding of contagion and
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42 illness and may have more uncertainty at the theory-level, children with a mature understanding
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44 may have less uncertainty about the relation between encountering someone sick and becoming
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46 sick oneself, and are therefore less interested in uncovering the domain-relevant outcome in the
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48 specific context of the book.
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3 For the Biological Transmission domain, a character with a cold (Harper) played with a
4 friend (Devin) (domain-relevant), and also talked about what to have for breakfast the next
5 morning (domain-irrelevant). At the end of the storybook, participants were asked to make a
6 choice about what they wanted to find out, either domain-relevant information, (i.e., whether
7 Devin caught a cold - yes or no), or domain-irrelevant information, (i.e., what - of two options -
8 they had for breakfast).

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11 For the Theory of Mind domain, a character's sister moved one of his toys in secret
12 (domain-relevant), and the doorbell rang (domain-irrelevant). At the end of the storybook,
13 participants were asked to choose whether they wanted to find out where (of two locations) the
14 character would look for his toy, or whether they wanted to find out who (of two possible
15 friends) was at the door.

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17 For the Psychosomatic domain, children learned about a character doing different kinds
18 of activities during the day, and ended up having both a tummy-ache (domain-relevant) and a
19 sore foot (domain-irrelevant). At the end of the book, children could choose to learn about what
20 caused the character's tummy-ache (whether being worried or eating tofu caused the tummy-
21 ache), or sore foot (whether running on a hard surface or tight shoes caused the sore foot).

22 23 24 25 26 27 28 29 30 31 32 33 34 35 36 37 38 39 40 41 42 *Procedure*

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44 The Knowledge Assessment and Information Seeking task were administered on two
45 separate visits, between two and nine days apart ($M_{\text{interval}} = 4.39$ days). During each visit, children
46 were individually tested in a quiet classroom in their preschool. The order of the question/answer
47 options was counterbalanced across participants.
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Results

Overall, children showed similar performance on the Knowledge Assessment as in previous research for each domain. Children on average answered 3.74 ($SD = 2.01$) out of six questions correctly for Biological Transmission, 2.86 ($SD = 1.57$) for Psychosomatic Events, and 2.12 ($SD = 1.94$) for Theory of Mind. Paired t-tests revealed significant differences in performance across the three knowledge domains, $t_s > 2$, $p_s < .02$, suggesting that questions in different domains differ in difficulty significantly.

Because questions in different domains differ in difficulty on average, we analyzed children's knowledge level categorically by performing a median-split on children's Knowledge Assessment Performance for each knowledge domain. This produced a group of children with more mature theories and a group of more immature theories for each domain (Figure 1).

Overall, children with mature intuitive theories showed no preference for the two alternative choices in the Information Seeking question (48% choosing domain-relevant information, CI: [40%, 62%]). Critically, we predicted that children with more immature theories -- who stand to learn something at the theory-level from the domain-relevant events -- might thus prefer domain-relevant events. Indeed, results revealed that 67% of children with immature intuitive theories preferred the domain-relevant information over the domain-irrelevant information (CI: [54%, 78%]).

Next, we asked what factors contributed to children's choice patterns in the Information Seeking question. We used the lme4 package in R (Bates et al., 2012) to perform a generalized linear mixed-effects model (GLMM) of the relationship between Theory Level and Information Seeking choice (with a logistic link). As fixed effects, we entered Theory Level, Knowledge Domain, and Age (without interaction term) into the model. As random effects, we had

intercepts for participants. P-values were obtained by likelihood ratio tests of the full model with the effect in question against the model without the effect in question. This analysis revealed a significant effect of Theory Level, $\chi^2(1) = 4.54, p = .033, \beta = -.77$. There was no effect of Knowledge Domain ($\chi^2(1) = .35, p = .55, \beta = .13$) or Age ($\chi^2(1) = .16, p = .69, \beta = -.12$).

Discussion

The current results showed that children who were at an immature stage of understanding showed more interest in domain-relevant information, compared to children who reached a more mature understanding of each respective domain. What is driving this exploratory preference: is it theory-level immaturity or theory-level uncertainty? The Knowledge Assessment measure used in Experiment 1 was designed to roughly categorize children based on whether they had more developed theories of each domain. However, the questions did not differentiate children with a lack of theory from children with uncertainty in their intuitive theory. It is possible that children only start to recognize the limits in their framework knowledge after establishing a baseline understanding of the causal relations in the domain, which help to highlight ambiguous contexts as they are encountered. A related possibility is that children may develop from confidence in an incorrect earlier theory to confidence in a later correct theory -- critically passing through a stage where there is uncertainty between the two (e.g. Goodman et al, 2006). This account also suggests that there will be a time of maximal uncertainty when the alternative theories are approximately equally likely; this “liminal” stage is in fact when learners will most benefit from additional data. To ask whether theory-immaturity or theory-uncertainty drove children’s information seeking behavior, we need a finer measure of theory development.

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3 The current results also raised a second question: How does theory change influence
4 information seeking behavior? Specifically, are children's preferences for domain-relevant
5 information driven by a general motivation to learn about the domain or by a more specific
6 sensitivity to context-dependent uncertainty²? One possibility is that children's information
7 seeking was driven by a *general* interest in the domain (which might support refining their
8 developing intuitive theories). This predicts that children with more immature/uncertain
9 understanding in each knowledge domain would not only prefer domain-relevant information in
10 specific story contexts, but also prefer domain-relevant information in general, even when it does
11 not relate to uncertainty about a specific situation. Alternatively, children's information seeking
12 may be driven by their motivation to resolve uncertainty that arises in specific contexts. This
13 motivation to explore may thus be triggered by observing uncertainty at the model level, which
14 then highlights uncertainty at the theory-level. This suggests that causal ambiguity that arises in
15 specific contexts may be a necessary motivating factor for such rational information seeking to
16 support theory change.

17
18 To test these possibilities, we designed Experiment 2 with several goals in mind. First,
19 we sought to replicate the findings from Experiment 1. Second, we aimed to distinguish between
20 an account that points to mere immaturity as a driver of information seeking from an account
21 that more clearly points to uncertainty. Third, we aimed to test whether children's information
22 seeking is driven by a general interest in domain-relevant information, regardless of its context.

23 24 25 26 27 28 29 30 31 32 33 34 35 36 37 38 39 40 41 42 43 44 45 46 47 48 49 **Experiment 2**

50 51 52 53 54 55 56 57 58 59 60 Method

² We thank an anonymous reviewer for raising this question.

Participants

Fifty children ($M_{\text{age}} = 4.82$ years, $SD = 1.03$, 26 females) participated in this study. Two additional children were excluded from the analyses due to sibling interference during the testing session. Children were recruited through online platforms including a lab database and the platform ChildrenHelpingScience.com. All participants were tested online via video conferencing. Parental consents were acquired through an online consent form prior to children's participation.

Stimuli

Knowledge Assessment. We sought to better characterize children's pre-existing intuitive theory by including more questions overall as well a more diverse set of questions. We chose to focus on the domain of Biological Transmission for Experiment 2, because it best afforded a diverse range of questions probing children's causal understanding. In addition to sickness prediction questions similar to Experiment 1, we also included questions that measure children's avoidance preference and their knowledge about causal mechanisms of contagion. Children's understanding of Biological Transmission was assessed by a battery of seven questions. Each question was described with pictures and animations to facilitate comprehension. Two of these questions were similar to the prediction questions in Experiment 1. Children were read descriptions of a character with flu symptoms, and then were asked whether hugging or playing with this character can make someone sick. Two additional questions probed children's avoidance preference to a sick character (e.g., whether they should hug or wave them). For each question, children had two alternative choices, and they were scored either as 1 (correct) or 0 (incorrect).

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3 Three additional questions assessed children's understanding of the causal mechanism of
4 biological transmission. Children were read descriptions of a character with flu symptoms. But
5 critically, this sick character interacted with three originally healthy characters. The degree of
6 interaction between the sick character and the healthy characters varied along the following
7 dimensions: 1) duration of exposure (i.e., how long they stay together in the same closed space),
8 2) physical proximity (i.e., how far they sit next to each other), and 3) number of potential germ
9 transfers (i.e., how many intermediate contacts are between the contaminated hand and the
10 individual). For each of these questions, children were asked which of the three originally
11 healthy characters was most likely to be sick later following each type and degree of exposure.
12 For each question, one of the characters always had no actual contact with the sick character
13 (scored as 0), another one had moderate contact with the sick character (scored as 1), and the
14 third character had the most contact with the sick character (scored as 2).
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31 The total score ranges from 0 to 10 for the entire Knowledge Assessment. (See SOM-U
32 and OSF: https://osf.io/4nfmk/?view_only=77bc3ecb0d214a809580466b64420a08 for additional
33 details.)
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38 **Information Seeking task.** The Information Seeking task was similarly designed as the
39 Biological Transmission domain in Experiment 1. A character with a cold (Jesse) played
40 volleyball with another character (Max). At the end of the storybook, participants were asked to
41 make a choice about what they wanted to find out, either domain-relevant information, (i.e.,
42 whether Max caught a cold), or domain-irrelevant information, (i.e., whether Max made the
43 volleyball team).
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3 *General Information Question.* Additionally, children were asked which domain they
4 wanted to learn more about in general, either domain-relevant (i.e., how all kinds of people get
5 sick), or domain-irrelevant (i.e., how all kinds of people play volleyball).
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10 11 12 *Procedure*

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14 The Knowledge Assessment and Information Seeking task were administered on the same
15 day, with the Knowledge Assessment preceding the Information Seeking task. The order of the
16 question/answer options was counterbalanced across participants.
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23 24 **Results**

25 26 *Median split results*

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28 First we asked whether we replicated the findings from Experiment 1, that children with
29 mature intuitive theories showed no preference for the two alternative choices in the Information
30 Seeking question, whereas children with more immature theories prefer domain-relevant events.
31 Children on average scored 7.42 ($SD = 2.34$) out of 10 on the Knowledge Assessment. We
32 performed a median-split based on children's Knowledge Assessment scores. Results revealed
33 that only 58% of children with mature intuitive theories chose the domain-relevant information
34 (binomial exact test $p = .65$, CI: [33%, 80%]), whereas 68% of children with immature intuitive
35 theories preferred the domain-relevant information over the domain-irrelevant information
36 (binomial exact test $p = .07$, CI: [49%, 83%]). Although these results are not statistically
37 significant, they broadly replicated the findings of Experiment 1.
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51 Next, we asked whether a similar pattern of preference exists in children's interest in the
52 knowledge domain in general. We analyzed children's preference for the final follow-up general
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3 information question (how all kinds of people get sick vs. how all kinds of people play
4 volleyball). Neither group showed any preference for the domain-relevant information (mature:
5 63%, $p = .36$, CI: [42%, 78%]; immature: 61%, $p = .28$, CI: [38%, 84%]).
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10 11 12 *Exploring “liminal” children* 13

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15 We next explored the possibility that findings in Experiment 1 were driven by
16 uncertainty at the theory-level, rather than mere immaturity of the theory. The more sensitive
17 Knowledge Assessment measure in Experiment 2 was designed to allow us to detect more subtle
18 changes in children’s theory-development. Specifically, we looked at whether the above results
19 could be better accounted for a model where children are split into three theory groups instead of
20 two. We used children’s performance on the Knowledge Assessment as a proxy for their actual
21 theory level. Children were categorized into three (roughly) equal-sized groups based on their
22 Knowledge Assessment scores (using the `cut_number` function in the `ggplot2` package in R,
23 Wickham, 2016). Children that scored between 1 and 6 were categorized as the earlier theory
24 group (N=17), children that scored 7 or 8 were the liminal group (N=20), and children that
25 scored 9 or 10 were the later theory group (N=13). The prediction is that if information seeking
26 is driven by uncertainty, then, in fact, the group that should most prefer to learn about the
27 domain-relevant outcome are the children at the intermediate stage, who are in the process of
28 transitioning between pre- and post-mature theories and thus have greatest uncertainty between
29 the two. As illustrated in Figure 2, this analysis revealed that neither children in the early theory
30 group (53%; binomial exact test $p = 1$, CI: [28%, 77%]) nor the later theory group (53%;
31 binomial exact test $p = 1$, CI: [25%, 81%]) showed any preference for the domain-relevant
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3 option. In contrast, 80% children in the liminal group chose the domain-relevant option
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5 (binomial exact test $p = .01$, CI: [56%, 94%]).
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8 To explore the second question of whether liminal children's choices are driven by a
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10 general preference to seek out domain-general information or whether interest is triggered by
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12 uncertainty from a specific context, we looked at children's responses on the final, follow-up
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14 general information question. We did not find any significant preference in children's response
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16 for this general information question, $ps > .26$ (Figure 2). When categorizing children into three
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18 age groups, we did not find any preference for the domain-relevant option in any age group, ps
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20 $> .21$. While a null result must be interpreted with caution, this result provides tentative support
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22 for the claim that children were choosing the domain relevant option to resolve uncertainty at the
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24 model level (though mediated by their theories) rather than because they have some general
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26 interest in the domain-relevant content, independent of context.
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33 General Discussion

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35 The current study investigated how children's existing intuitive theory influences their
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37 information seeking behavior. Across two experiments, we found that children who were at
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39 immature stages of understanding showed more interest in domain-relevant information,
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41 suggesting that children are sensitive to uncertainty at the theory level and use it to guide their
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43 information seeking spontaneously. The more sensitive measures employed in Experiment 2
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45 further reveal that results are best explained by an uncertainty account: children at an
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47 intermediate stage of intuitive theory were most motivated to explore domain-relevant
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49 information. Such a finding is consistent with a rational account of information seeking -- with
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51 learners driving additional data under maximum uncertainty.
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3 What drives the relation between children’s theory level and their information seeking
4 behavior? Children with a more uncertain intuitive theory may be interested in any domain-
5 relevant information that can inform their theory development. Alternatively, information
6 seeking may be triggered by uncertainty at the model level, which is influenced by children’s
7 theory-level uncertainty. Our follow-up experiment suggests that when there is no immediate
8 model-level uncertainty to resolve, children’s general interest in a knowledge domain cannot be
9 accounted for by their theory level. These results, combined with the main results, suggest that
10 children’s information seeking is not driven by a context-independent general interest to refine
11 their intuitive theory. Instead, children seek information the most when it helps resolve their
12 uncertainty in a specific context, which informs learning at both the model and theory levels.
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26 The exploratory analysis in Experiment 2 is consistent with a Goldilocks’s Effect of
27 information seeking behavior (Kidd, Piantadosi, & Aslin, 2012; 2014), but importantly
28 demonstrates the role of intuitive theories. All children evaluated the same stories and outcomes,
29 but we found that only children with intermediate levels of understanding preferred to learn
30 more about the domain-relevant information. This highlights the important role of theory
31 development in our models of active learning and information seeking.
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40 Our research also connects to a broader literature on curiosity, and our results dovetail
41 with a celebrated “knowledge-gap” account of curiosity, which has been proposed to arise from
42 the “perception of a gap in knowledge and understanding” (Loewenstein, 1994). The increased
43 information seeking in children with early knowledge state suggests that children may recognize
44 the gap in their own knowledge and be more curious about relevant content that can help them
45 close this gap, as has been demonstrated for learning at the model level (e.g. see Ruggeri,
46 Lombrozo, Griffiths, & Xu, 2016). This kind of recognition and curiosity may facilitate the slow
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3 and difficult process of theory change in childhood, but it remains to be shown whether
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5 children's information seeking behavior is causally related to actual learning outcomes. The
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7 current results are consistent with the idea that a gap in knowledge can drive exploration in
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9 general. However, children differ in their metacognitive skills (Baer Gill, & Odic, 2018) and
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11 their rate of learning and conceptual change (Zaitchik, Iqbal, & Carey, 2014). Therefore, it
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13 remains unknown what role children's ability to monitor the uncertainty in their own knowledge,
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15 versus the amount of gap (or rate of change) in their knowledge, plays in children's information
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17 seeking behavior.
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21 Inspired by information processing theories of learning the current study presented a
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23 novel demonstration of how a learner's knowledge state at the theory-level influences
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25 information seeking in the relevant domain. Quantitative modeling of expected information gain,
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27 quantification of uncertainty in a learner's intuitive theories, and the relationship with children's
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29 actual behavior would be an important next step to provide a comprehensive account of
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31 children's information seeking behavior. Fortunately, we can recognize our own theories of
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33 learning are incomplete, and so, like the children in our studies, we are driven to continue to
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35 explore them.
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Action Editor

Marc J. Buehner

Editor

D. Stephen Lindsay

Author Contributions

EB developed the study concept. JW, YY, EB contributed to the study design. Testing and data collection were performed by JW, YY, CM. JW performed the data analysis and interpretation under the supervision of EB. JW and EB drafted the manuscript, and YY and CM provided critical revisions. All authors approved the final version of the manuscript for submission.

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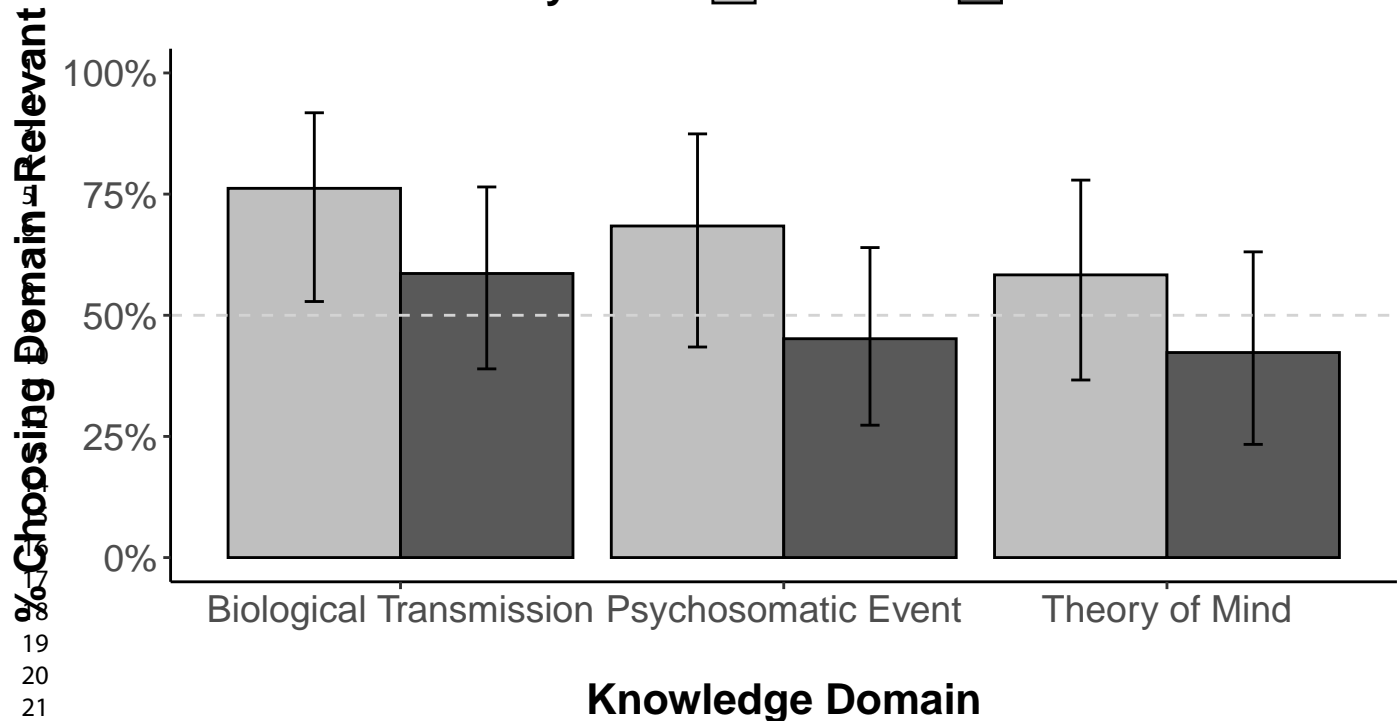
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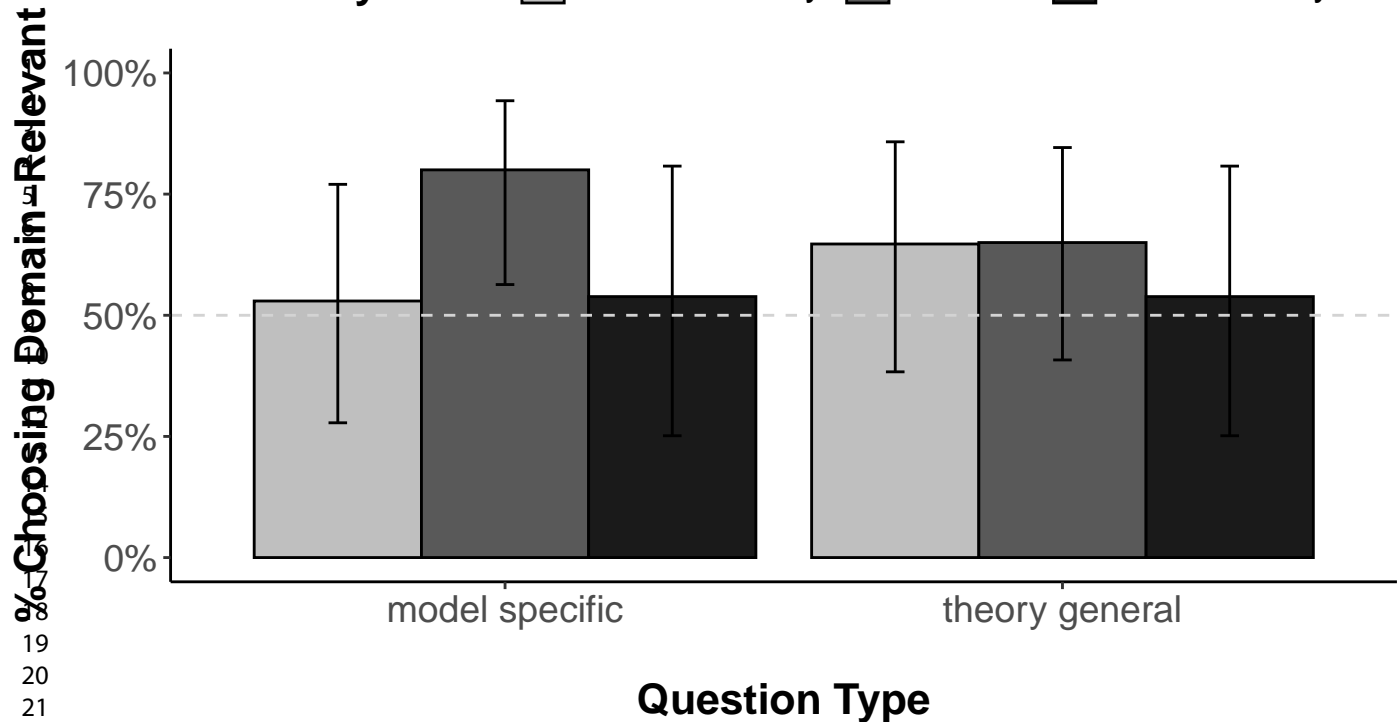
Figure Captions

Figure 1. Percentage of children choosing to seek information in the target domain in the Information Seeking task for each knowledge domain, grouped by their theory level based on the Knowledge Assessment. Error bars represent confidence intervals of proportions based on exact binomial tests.

Figure 2. Percentage of children choosing to seek information in the target domain at the model-level (i.e., find out whether Max was sick or made the team) and theory-level (i.e., learn more about germs or volleyball in general) Information Seeking task in Experiment 2, grouped by their theory level based on the Knowledge Assessment. Error bars represent confidence intervals of proportions based on exact binomial tests.



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