

## Background

The human brain has tripled in size over the past 3MYA, but brain size alone does not explain differences in human and non-human intelligence. The new functions afforded by increased human brain size are unclear.

Domain-specific hypotheses claim humans are unique in adaptation to specific skills, such as social competition (Byrne & Whiten, 1988), recursive thought (Ferrigno et al., 2020), relational reasoning (Penn et al., 2008), and cultural transmission (Herrmann et al, 2007).

Dominant theories do not address the learning differences across species and domain-specific tasks; an alternative hypothesis is that general information-processing capacity explains performance differences across domains.

Information processing capacity could describe differences in learning across tasks — both developmentally and evolutionarily.

## Methods

### Subjects

Human Children: (N=20)  
Age 3-4 (N=8)  
Age 4-5 (N=12)

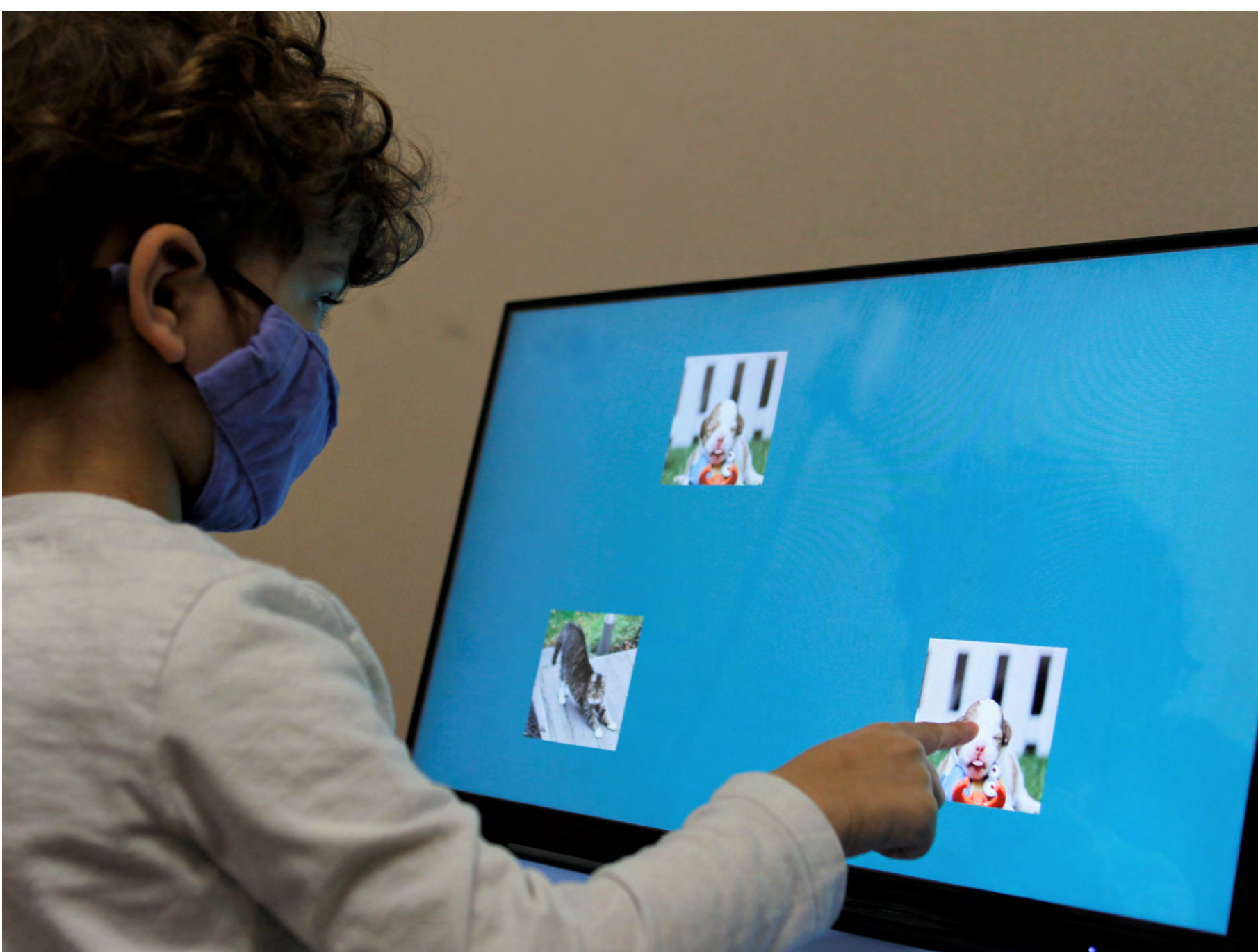
Monkeys: (N=6)  
*Macaca mulatta* (N=3)  
*Papio anubis* (N=3)

A simple matching task was presented to all subjects. without explanation of the rule. Correct trials were reinforced with a positive tone and purple screen, and incorrect trials caused a time out of 300ms. Monkeys also recieved a bioserv pellet upon completing a trial correctly.

Total Images: 343 Trials per child: 40-280 Trials per monkey: 4k-22k

CMU Children's School

The Primate Portal (Seneca Park Zoo)



## Model & Analyses

### Logistic Growth: Stages

Initial learning, low accuracy  
Improvement, reaching threshold  
Plateau, peak performance

### Parameters

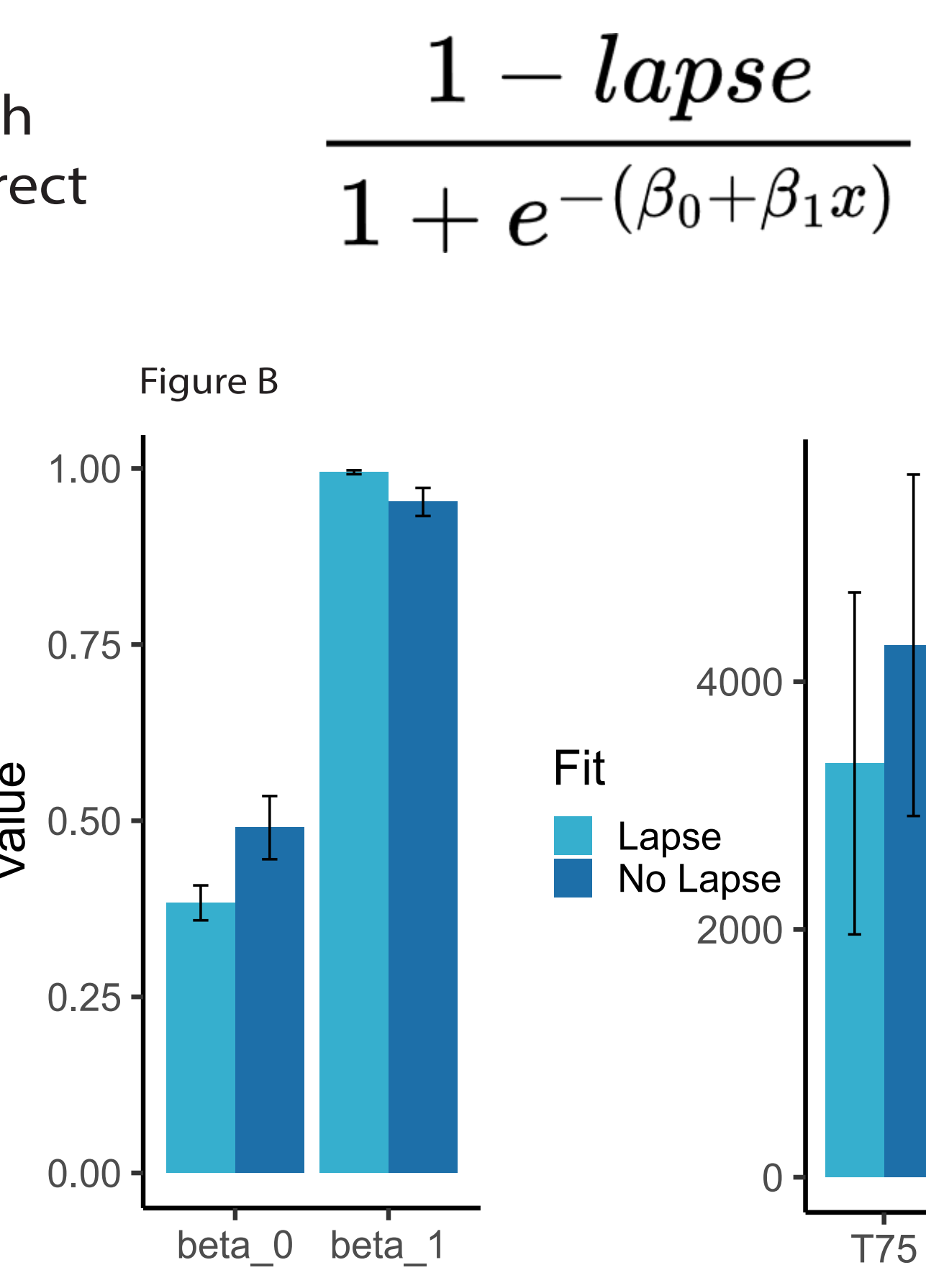
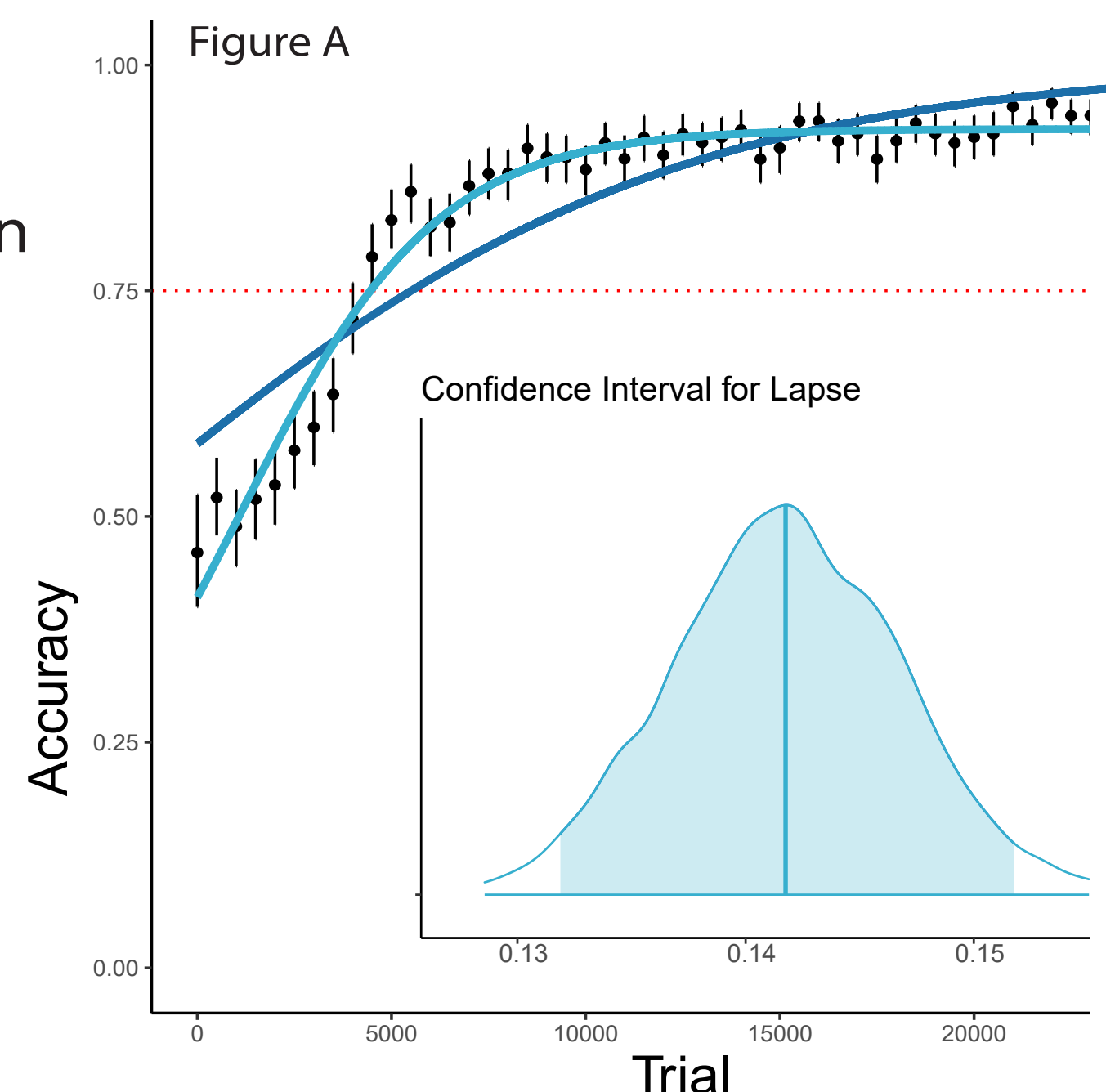
Prior understanding -  $\beta_0$   
Learning rate -  $\beta_1$   
Limit on peak accuracy - lapse

### Analyses

Model coded in Stan, assessed using RStan  
Individual parameters computed by converging 4 chains of Bayesian analysis over 5000 iterations  
Average 95% CI range - Lapse (0.24)  $\beta_0$  (0.24)  $\beta_1$  (0.47)

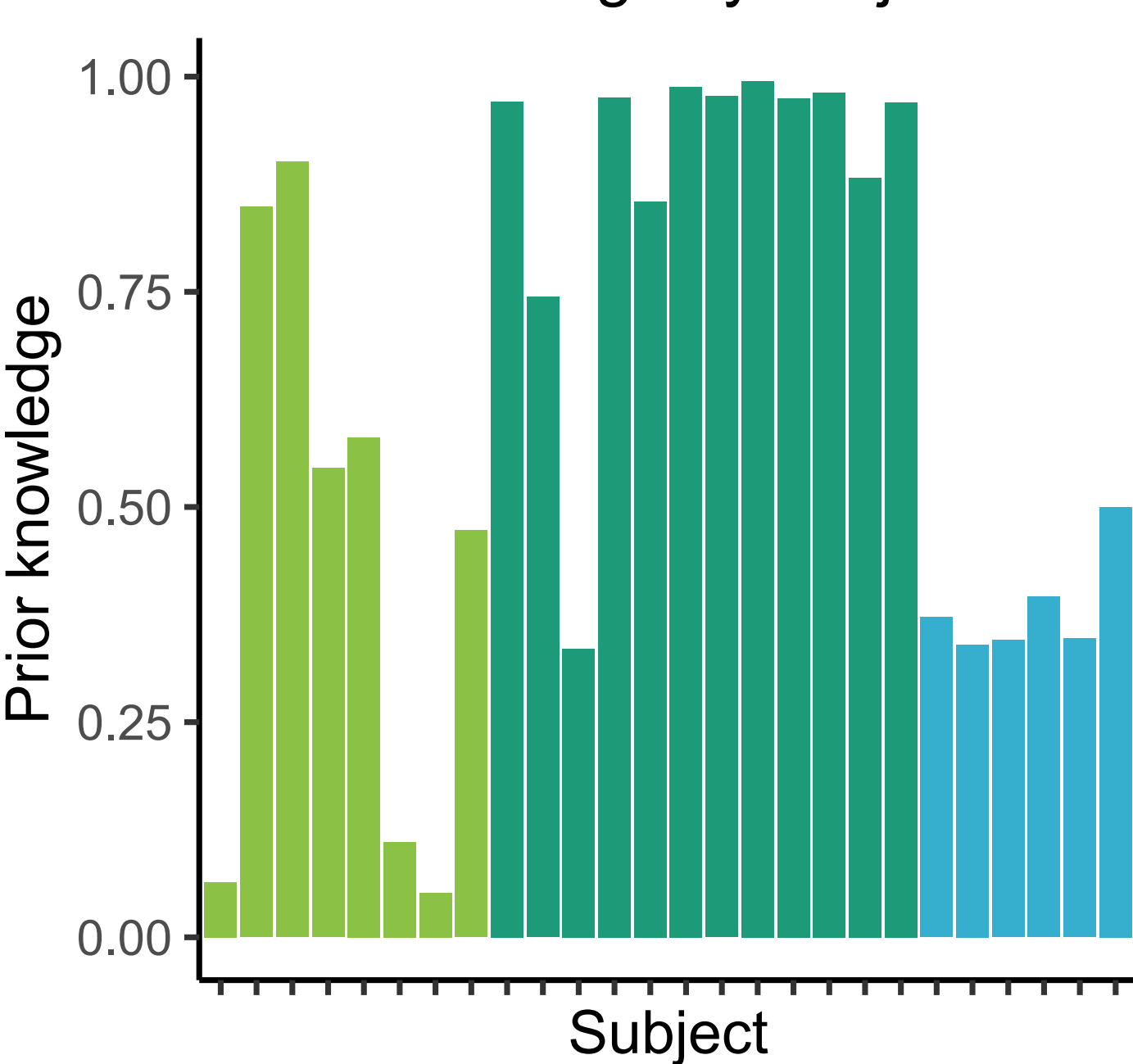
Figure A is a comparison of the logistic fit to individual data with and without lapse, the probability a trial response will be incorrect due to executive function constraints alone.

More accurate measures of learning, such as when 75% threshold is met, are made with this model (Figure B).

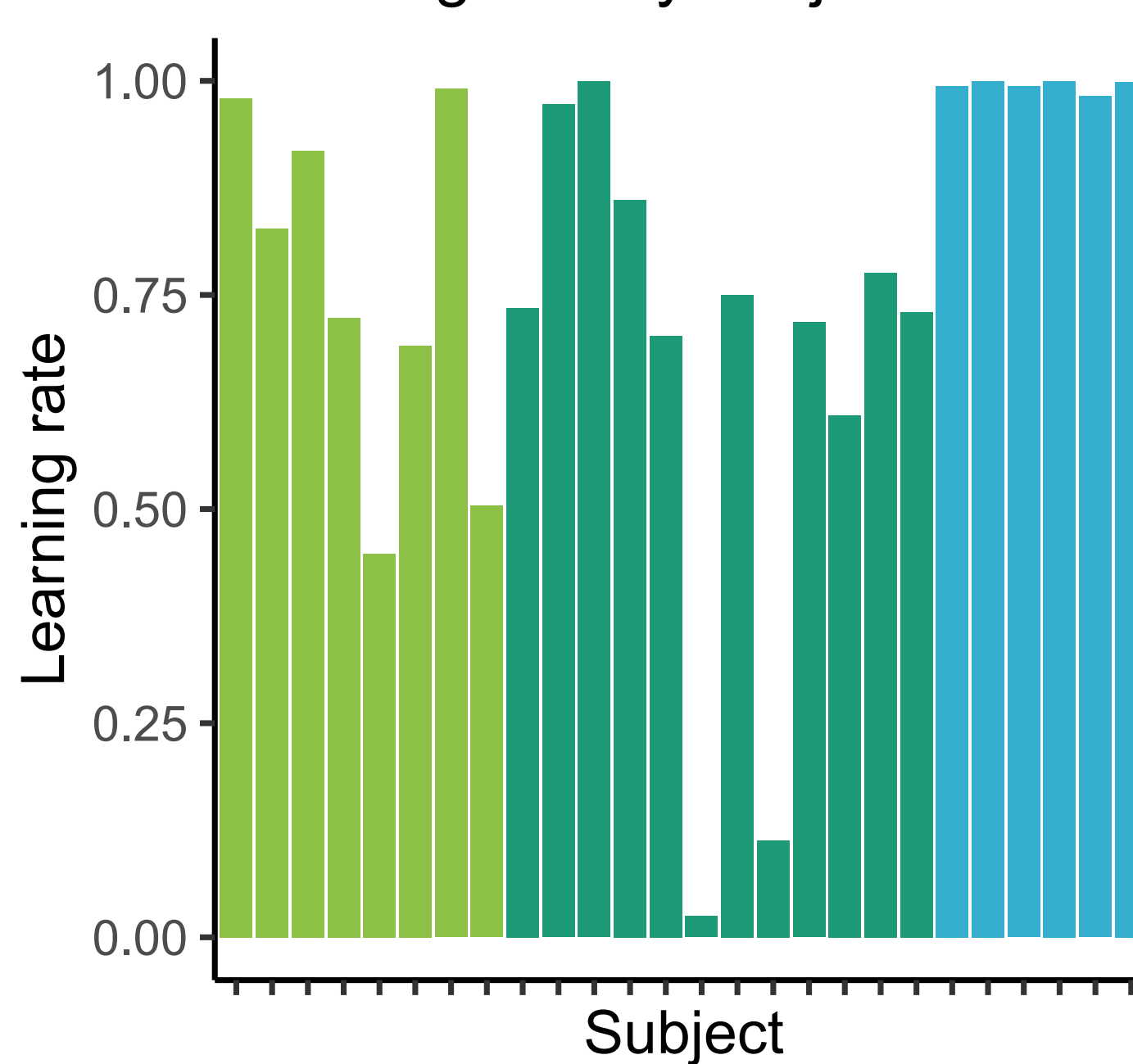


## Within-Group Comparison

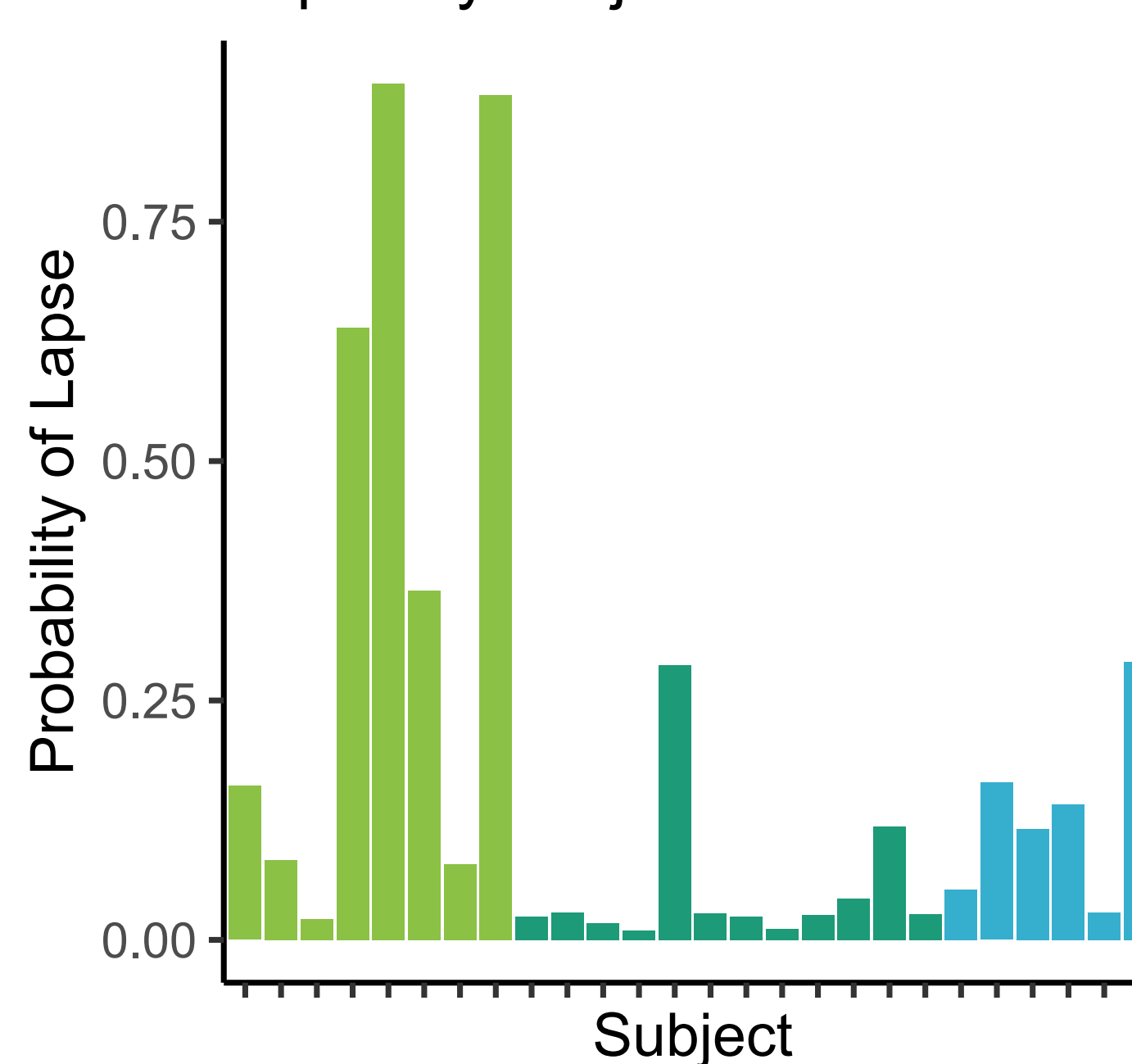
### Prior knowledge by subject



### Learning rate by subject

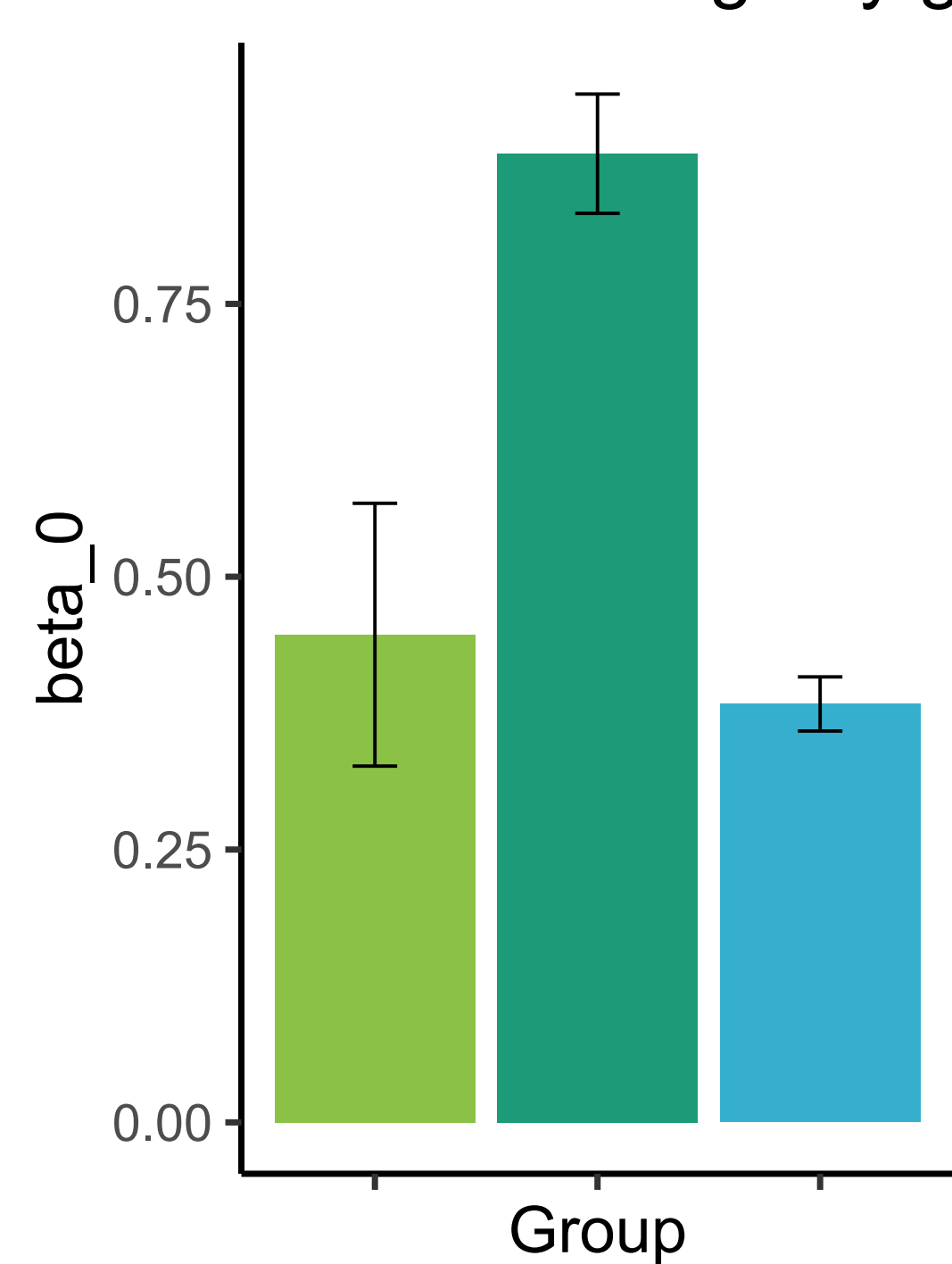


### Lapse by subject

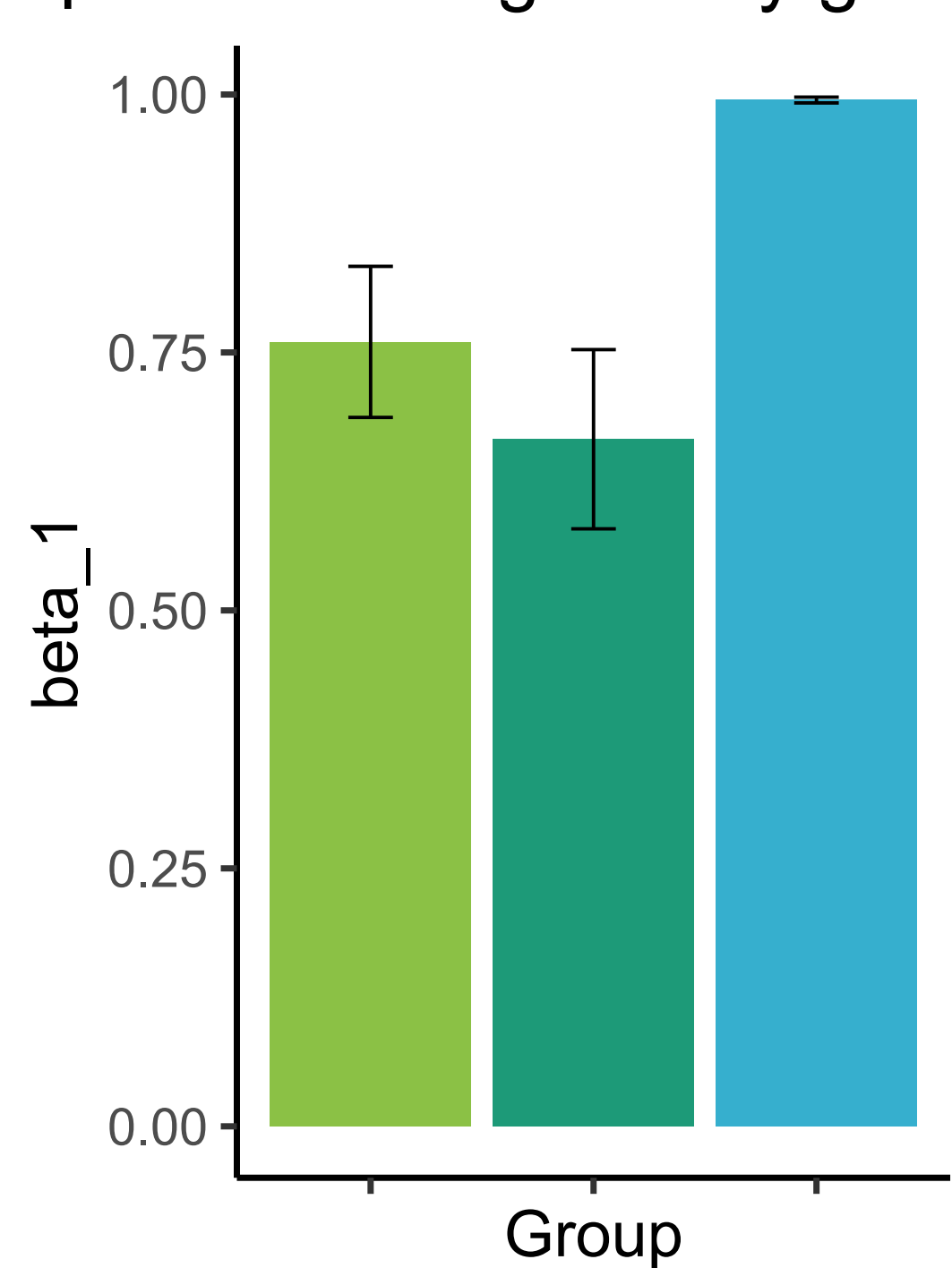


## Group Comparison

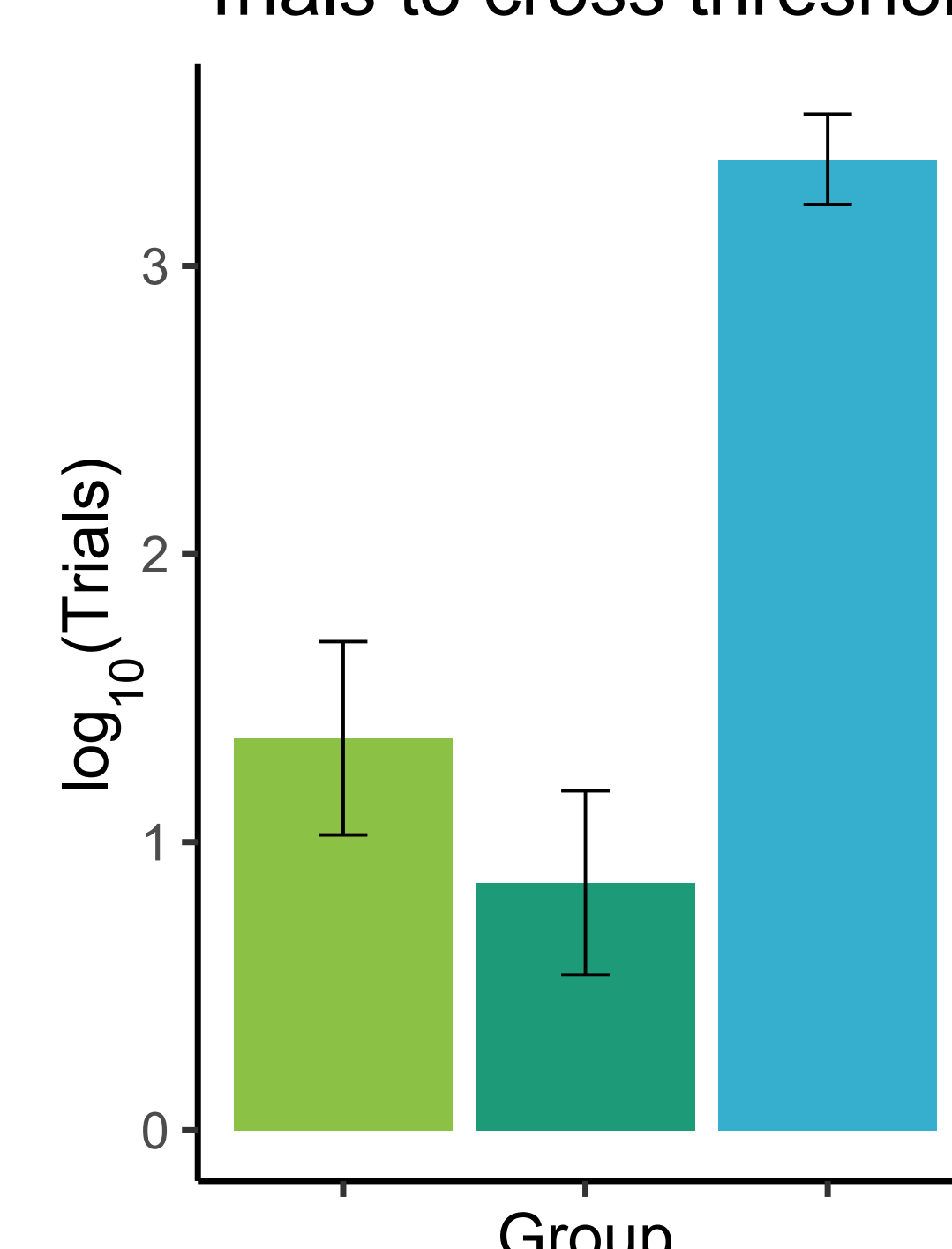
### Prior knowledge by group



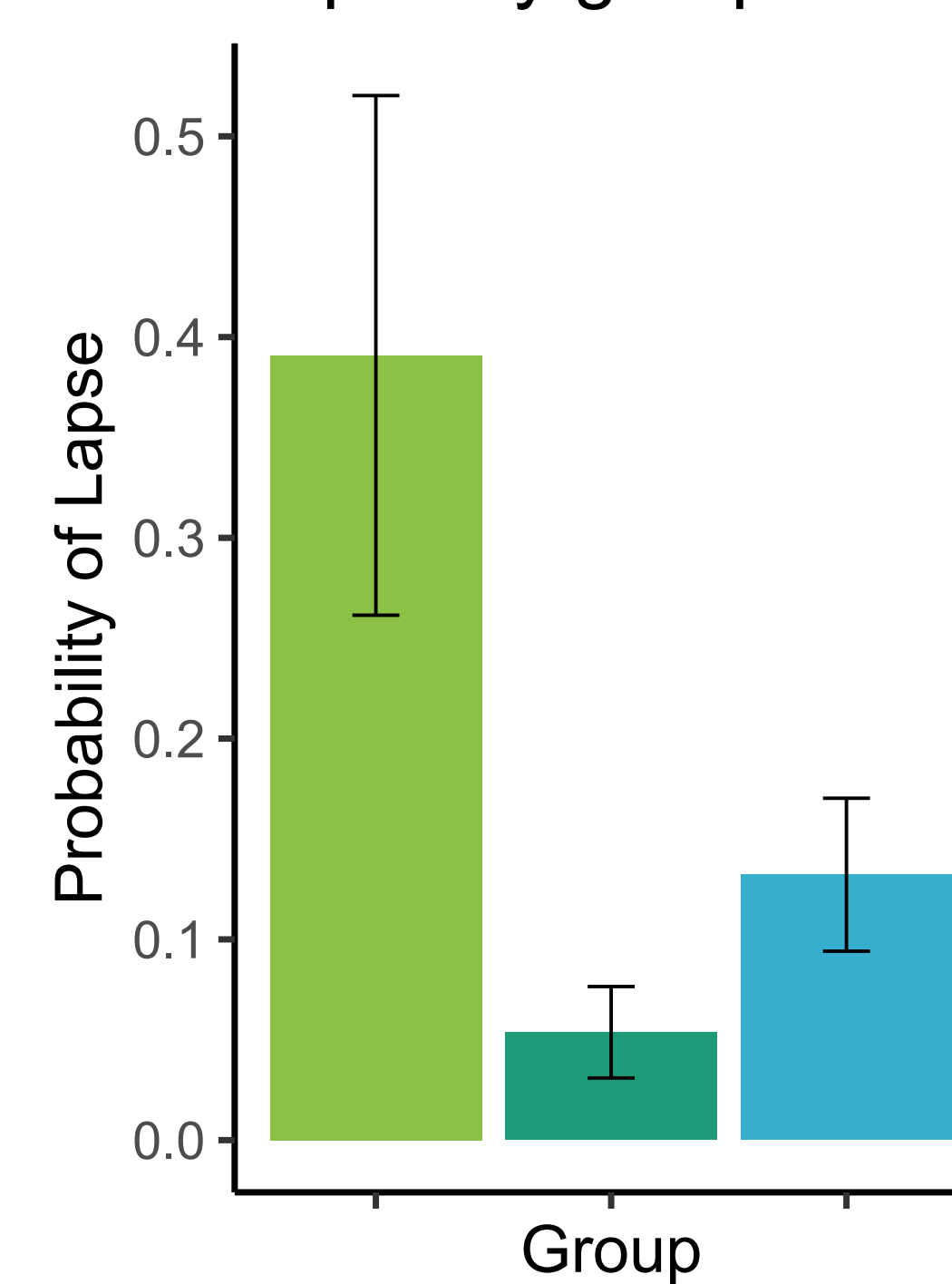
### Learning rate by group



### Trials to cross threshold by group



### Lapse by group



## Conclusions

Lapse models account for learning better than non-lapse models across species and age groups.

Children age 4-5 exhibited highest prior knowledge (Mean  $\beta_0 = 0.89$ ), followed by children age 3-4 (Mean  $\beta_0 = 0.45$ ), and monkeys (Mean  $\beta_0 = 0.39$ )

Monkeys had the highest learning rate (Mean  $\beta_1 = 0.99$ ), followed by children age 3-4 (Mean  $\beta_1 = 0.76$ ), with children age 4-5 learning most slowly (Mean  $\beta_1 = 0.67$ )

Children reached 75% threshold far before monkeys (Mean difference = 3205 trials)

Lapse rate in humans quickly decreased with age, (3-4 Mean = 0.39, 4-5 Mean = 0.05) and monkeys exhibited a moderate lapse rate in comparison (Mean = 0.13)

Information processing capacity could distinguish human learning from non-human learning early in development.

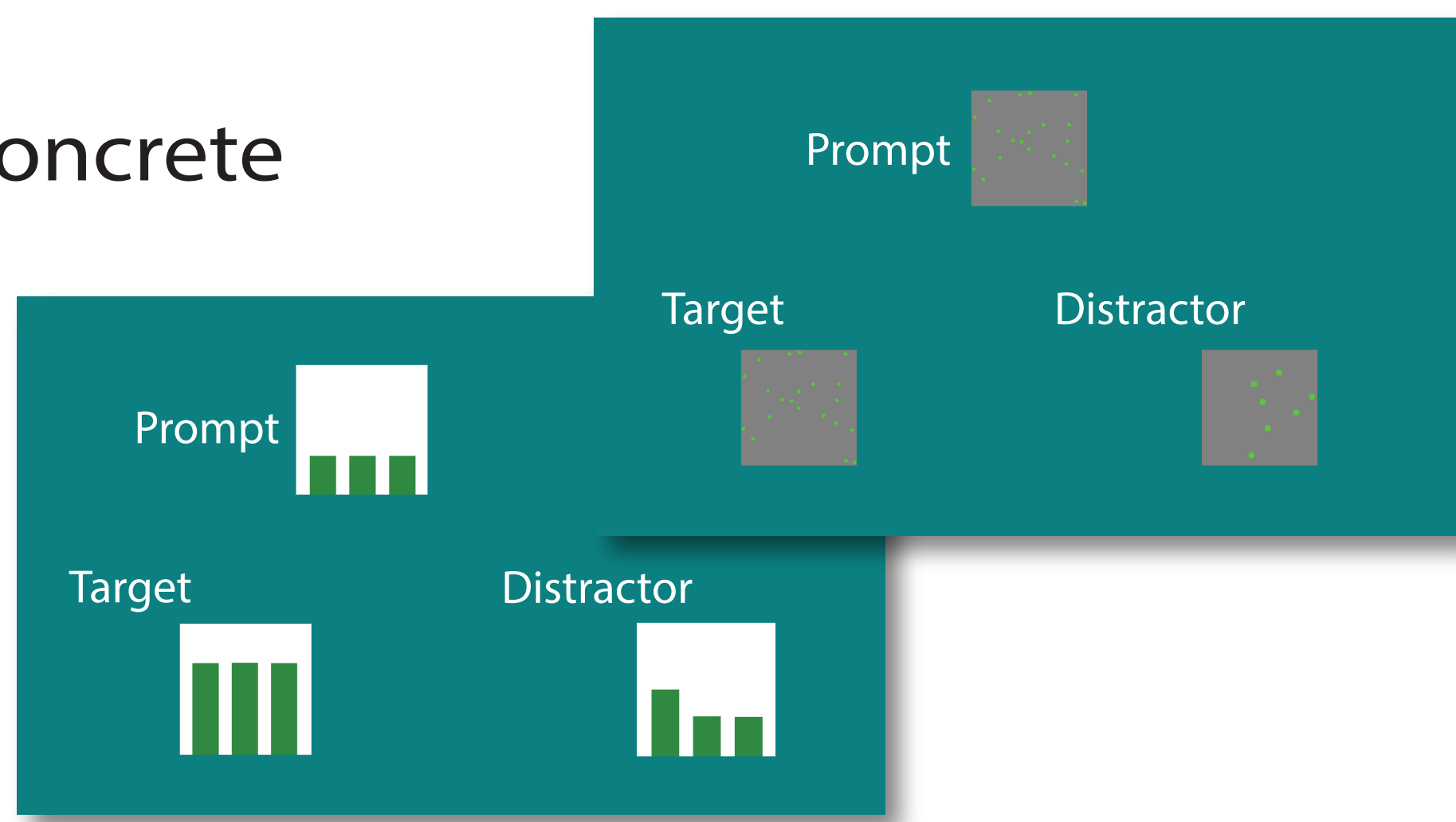
## Future Directions

To better understand how general learning capacity impacts the learning of logically complex tasks, we are presenting novel stimuli that will allow for direct comparison of similarities between target and distractor.

Numerosity - Comparison of ratios and visual noise between stimuli

Relational - Comparisons of patterns or concrete measures within and between stimuli

In this stage we will parameterize relational complexity within the preexisting lapse model.



## Acknowledgments

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