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6 Selective copying of the majority suggests children are broadly 'optimal-' rather than

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'over-' imitators

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24 cultural transmission, social learning

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Research Highlights

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- Children are frequently cast as ‘over-imitators,’ yet previous studies have typically overlooked many real-world learning dynamics. Here we take a cultural evolutionary approach, focusing on a key learning strategy: majority-biased copying.

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- We show that children flexibly and adaptively adopt a majority-biased learning strategy: Copying does not extend to majorities who perform irrelevant actions.

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- Our results suggest that the presence of causally irrelevant actions might substantially alter the operation of adaptive learning biases.

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- Our findings support a highly functional and selective integration of social and causal information in children, rather than accounts of ‘over-imitation’ that imply unselective copying or causal misunderstanding.

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Abstract

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Human children, in contrast to other species, are frequently cast as prolific ‘over-

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imitators.’ However, previous studies of ‘over-imitation’ have overlooked many

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important real-world social dynamics, and may thus provide an inaccurate account of

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this seemingly puzzling and potentially maladaptive phenomenon. Here we investigate

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this topic using a cultural evolutionary approach, focusing particularly on the key

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adaptive learning strategy of majority-biased copying. Most ‘over-imitation’ research

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has been conducted using consistent demonstrations to the observer, but we

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systematically varied the frequency of demonstrators that 4- to 6-year-old children

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observed performing a causally irrelevant action. Children who ‘over-imitate’ inflexibly

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should copy the majority regardless of whether the majority solution omits or includes

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a causally irrelevant action. However, we found that children calibrated their tendency

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to acquire the majority behavior, such that copying did not extend to majorities that

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performed irrelevant actions. These results are consistent with a highly functional,

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adaptive integration of social and causal information, rather than explanations implying

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unselective copying or causal misunderstanding. This suggests that our species might

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be better characterized as broadly ‘optimal-’ rather than ‘over-’ imitators.

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69 Selective copying of the majority suggests children are broadly ‘optimal-’ rather than
70 ‘over-’ imitators

71 Compared with other animals, humans show an exceptional ability to learn
72 through the high-fidelity copying of others’ actions (Dean, Kendal, Schapiro, Thierry, &
73 Laland, 2012). This propensity to engage in faithful copying is thought to play a crucial
74 role in facilitating cumulative cultural improvement: a hallmark of human culture
75 (Tomasello, 1999). However, human imitation has also been described as ‘surprisingly
76 unselective’ or ‘mindless’ (Whiten, McGuigan, Marshall-Pescini, & Hopper, 2009), and
77 susceptible to behavioral ‘inefficiency’ or ‘cost’ (Lyons, Young, & Keil, 2007), following
78 numerous reports that both children and adults often blanket copy even those parts of
79 an action sequence that are manifestly causally irrelevant to obtaining the instrumental
80 goal (e.g., Horner & Whiten, 2005; Kenward, Karlsson, & Persson, 2011; Lyons et al.,
81 2007; McGuigan, Makinson, & Whiten, 2011; McGuigan, Whiten, Flynn, & Horner, 2007;
82 Nielsen & Tomaselli, 2010). This phenomenon, dubbed ‘over-imitation’ (Lyons et al.,
83 2007), has received much attention in recent years, being replicated in several cultures
84 (Nielsen, Mushin, Tomaselli, & Whiten, 2015; Nielsen & Tomaselli, 2010), and, reported
85 to increase with age into adulthood (McGuigan et al., 2011; Nielsen & Tomaselli, 2010)
86 and to be impervious to cues of prestige or success (Chudek, Baron, & Birch, 2016).

87 The seemingly counterintuitive nature of ‘over-imitation’, which has not been
88 observed in other species (Horner & Whiten, 2005), has led some to propose
89 explanations grounded in causal cognition, suggesting the demonstration leads
90 individuals to imitate actions automatically, despite an understanding of the necessary
91 causal mechanisms (Lyons, Damrosch, Lin, Macris, & Keil, 2011; Lyons et al., 2007).
92 Such high-fidelity blanket copying, it is argued, might serve to promote facets of cultural
93 learning that are causally opaque (Lyons et al., 2011, 2007), but may also occasionally

94 malfunction, leading to irrelevant actions being copied blindly, and behavior that
95 manifests as causal misunderstanding (Whiten et al., 2009).

96 Others have argued that the phenomenon results instead from more social
97 processes (Kenward et al., 2011; Nielsen & Blank, 2011; Over & Carpenter, 2012).
98 Indeed, the term ‘over-imitation’ is misleading if copying of the causally irrelevant
99 actions encompasses socially relevant pressures and functions. For example,
100 individuals might copy causally irrelevant actions in order to be like, and share
101 experiences with, the demonstrator, or to affiliate with and encourage the demonstrator
102 to like them (Meltzoff, 2007; Nielsen & Blank, 2011; Over & Carpenter, 2013). Likewise,
103 the unanimity and pedagogical context inherent in most experimental demonstrations
104 of irrelevant actions might lead participants to believe they are expected by the
105 experimenter to perform the irrelevant action (Lyons et al., 2011), or that the
106 demonstration is normative, and they ought to conform to its performance, despite its
107 social or causal function being unclear (Kenward et al., 2011; Keupp, Behne, Zachow,
108 Kasbohm, & Rakoczy, 2015).

109 The critiques levelled at hypotheses based solely on assumptions about causal
110 understanding resonate with findings that imitation in both adults and children can be
111 selective and strategic. Even young children are able to imitate rationally, adjusting
112 imitative fidelity flexibly in response to a number of contextual factors, including
113 demonstrator competency (Birch, Vauthier, & Bloom, 2008) and intentionality
114 (Carpenter, Akhtar, & Tomasello, 1998), constraints upon demonstrators (Gergely,
115 Bekkering, & Király, 2002), signs of pedagogical engagement (Csibra & Gergely, 2006),
116 and the perceived task goal (Carpenter, Call, & Tomasello, 2005; Legare & Nielsen,
117 2015).

118 Here we take a cultural evolutionary approach to investigate whether children
119 are better characterized as ‘over-’ or broadly ‘optimal-’ imitators. Cultural evolutionary
120 theory predicts that social learning decisions should be strategic regarding whom and
121 when individuals copy (Boyd & Richerson, 1985), and guided by adaptive learning
122 biases promoting the emergence, stability and evolution of cultural traits (Boyd &
123 Richerson, 1985; Laland, 2004). Evidence that learning biases are involved in guiding
124 the use of social information has been provided using both theoretical (Boyd &
125 Richerson, 1985; Kandler & Laland, 2013) and empirical approaches (Rendell et al.,
126 2011; see Wood, Kendal, & Flynn, 2013b for a review in children). These biases should
127 be especially tuned to decisions regarding the adoption of causally sub-optimal
128 behavior, yet they have been little considered in investigations of ‘over-imitation’ (see
129 McGuigan, 2013; Wood, Kendal, & Flynn, 2012 for initial evidence).

130 Most previous ‘over-imitation’ research has involved the demonstration of a
131 single sequence of behavior (i.e., the target behavior is performed unanimously) to an
132 observer (for exceptions see, e.g., Chudek et al., 2016; McGuigan & Robertson, 2015;
133 Nielsen & Blank, 2011). However, real-world learning often involves observing multiple
134 individuals behaving differently. Thus, comparing the operation of learning biases in
135 situations that include, exclude, or vary the degree of irrelevant action performance, by
136 multiple demonstrators, will be particularly informative regarding (i) the robustness of
137 children’s propensity to ‘over-imitate’ outside of unanimous conditions, and (ii) the
138 evaluation of competing explanations of ‘over-imitation.’

139 Here we consider one type of learning bias that has been a major focus for
140 cultural evolutionists and psychologists alike: majority-biased copying. The majority
141 behavior represents the behavior that the greatest proportion of group members have
142 converged upon, and there is empirical evidence that majority or consensus behavior

143 informs copying in both children (Corriveau, Fusaro, & Harris, 2009; Haun, Rekers, &
144 Tomasello, 2012; Morgan, Laland, & Harris, 2015) and adults (Coultas, 2004; Morgan,
145 Rendell, Ehn, Hoppitt, & Laland, 2012). Majority behavior is expected to signal a
146 relatively safe, reliable, and adaptive behavioral response (Boyd & Richerson, 1985;
147 Wolf, Kurvers, Ward, Krause, & Krause, 2013), making it a particularly suitable
148 transmission bias for testing hypotheses about the adoption of causally irrelevant
149 information.

150 In the current study, we showed 4- to 6-year-old children a video demonstration
151 in which we had all four demonstrators perform a causally relevant action, but
152 systematically varied the number of demonstrators who additionally performed a
153 causally irrelevant action while retrieving a reward from a puzzle box. Either all, the
154 majority (3 of 4), the minority (1 of 4), or none of the demonstrators, performed the
155 causally irrelevant action.

156 In the first experimental condition, we examined whether children were more
157 likely to adopt the majority over the minority solution when faced with alternative, but
158 equivalent, *causally relevant* task solutions. In line with previous findings (Haun et al.,
159 2012), we expected that children would demonstrate a bias towards copying the
160 majority's solution.

161 Importantly, we then investigated whether majority-biased copying in children
162 extends to majorities who perform a causally irrelevant action. If children copy
163 inflexibly – if 'over-imitation' is robust outside of unanimous demonstrations – they
164 might be expected to copy the solution used by the majority regardless of whether it
165 omits or includes causally irrelevant actions. Instead, we predicted that when
166 presented with a majority performing the irrelevant action and a minority omitting it,
167 the instrumental framing of our task, coupled with children's rational and selective

168 imitation (Gergely et al., 2002; Want & Harris, 2001), would counter their tendency to
169 copy the majority, and majority-biased copying would not be detected. In contrast, in a
170 condition in which the majority *omits* the irrelevant action and the minority performs it,
171 we predicted majority-biased copying. We compared these results to those from a
172 condition representing the paradigm typically used in ‘over-imitation’ research:
173 unanimous demonstration of the irrelevant action. Here we predicted that the
174 unanimity of the demonstration would result in irrelevant action copying at similarly
175 high levels as previously reported (e.g., Horner & Whiten, 2005; Lyons et al., 2007). A
176 final condition, with no demonstration, provided the baseline level of irrelevant action
177 production. Thus, when demonstration of the irrelevant action was unanimous, we
178 expected it to be copied at high levels, but with anything less than unanimity we did not
179 expect high levels of ‘over-imitation.’

180 Participants were provided with multiple (three) attempts at solving the puzzle
181 box, permitting an evaluation of children’s initial tendency to copy and their tendency to
182 ‘stick with’ performing the demonstrated actions after their own initial experience with
183 the task. We tested 4- to 6-year-olds, as children within this age range have developed
184 sensitivity to demonstrator frequency in other learning contexts (Haun et al., 2012;
185 Morgan et al., 2015; Wilks, Collier-Baker, & Nielsen, 2015), as well as an ability to
186 engage in rational and selective imitation (Gergely et al., 2002; Want & Harris, 2001),
187 and are considered prolific ‘over-imitators’ (Kenward, 2012; Lyons et al., 2007; Nielsen
188 & Tomaselli, 2010).

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Method

191 Participants and Materials

192 Two hundred and fifty-two 4- to 6-year-old children visiting UK science centers
193 (128 males; 4-year-olds: $M = 4;5$, range = 4;0 - 4;11; 5-year-olds: $M = 5;6$, range = 5;0 -
194 5;11; 6-year-olds: $M = 6;5$, range = 6;0 - 6;11) were included in the final sample. Eight
195 additional children were tested but excluded due to experimenter error (2), apparatus
196 failure (3), parental interference (2), and refusal to interact with the apparatus (1).

197 The 'Sweep-Drawer Box' (Wood, Kendal, & Flynn, 2013a; see Figure 1), a two-
198 action transparent apparatus, was used with minor modifications. Retrieval of a capsule
199 containing a sticker was dependent upon the capsule being moved to a sliding black
200 opaque door by one of two spatially separated and functionally independent
201 manipulandi: a silver sweeper with blue handle (Figure 1a), or a blue drawer with red
202 handle (Figure 1b). In some demonstrations, a causally irrelevant action (see Figure 1c),
203 involving the demonstrator twice sliding the black door open and closed, preceded use
204 of the sweep/drawer manipulandum.

205

206 Design and Procedure

207 In a between-groups design, participants were randomly allocated to one of five
208 conditions (C1-C5). There were no significant differences in the distribution of age ($F(4,$
209 $246)=0.26, p=.91$) and approximately equal numbers of boys and girls in each condition.
210 In four experimental conditions (C1-C4, $N=201$), children watched a video showing four
211 female demonstrators (distinguished by colored shirts) retrieving the sticker capsule
212 from the apparatus in turn, before attempting capsule retrieval themselves three times.

213 The fifth condition (C5, N=51) served as a non-social, baseline control in which
214 participants received no video demonstration.

215 The first experimental condition (*relevant actions only*: C1, N=51) investigated
216 whether children displayed majority-biased copying when choosing between two
217 causally relevant actions: sweep versus drawer retrieval. Children in this condition saw
218 the majority (three demonstrators) perform the alternate relevant action to the
219 minority person. In the remaining three experimental conditions, each child saw all four
220 demonstrators perform the *same* causally relevant action (i.e., sweep *or* drawer), but
221 the number of demonstrators who additionally performed the irrelevant action varied
222 between one (i.e., *minority irrelevant*: C2), three (i.e., *majority irrelevant*: C3), and four
223 (i.e., *all irrelevant*: C4) across conditions (see Table 1). The identity of the minority
224 demonstrator, order in which the minority and majority performed, and use of sweep
225 and drawer methods were counterbalanced within and between conditions. The
226 majority demonstrators always appeared consecutively, with the minority individual
227 demonstrating her method immediately before or after them. To control for
228 demonstration frequency, the three majority demonstrators retrieved the capsule once
229 each, while the minority individual demonstrated her method three times.

230 Children were tested individually in a screened-off area at the science center,
231 with parents sat at a distance. Each child chose a sticker, which the experimenter placed
232 inside the reward capsule before dropping it into the puzzle box. The child was told that
233 they had to get the capsule out of the box and then could keep the sticker. For the
234 experimental conditions (C1-4), the child was then shown a picture of the four
235 demonstrators and asked to watch a video showing them retrieving the sticker (see
236 supporting information S1 for a detailed procedural script).

237 Children were next told it was their turn to try to get the sticker out and were
238 free to approach the apparatus and interact with it until (i) the capsule had been
239 retrieved, (ii) 2 minutes had elapsed, or (iii) the child refused to continue. Participants
240 who retrieved the sticker at T1 were offered two further attempts (T2 and T3); between
241 trials the experimenter reset the apparatus out of sight while the child chose a new
242 sticker.

243 Children assigned to the *baseline* condition (C5) received the same initial
244 instructions and prompts as children in the experimental groups but watched no video.
245 All children who participated in the study received a sticker reward.

246

247 **Coding and Analysis**

248 Each participant was scored for three measures on each response trial: (i)
249 successful removal of the capsule, (ii) number of times they performed the irrelevant
250 action (sliding the door open and closed prior to operating the manipulandi), and (iii)
251 the manipulandum used during retrieval (sweep or drawer). The experimenter coded
252 100% of the sample from video records. An independent observer, blind to condition
253 and hypotheses, coded a random sample of 25%. Inter-observer reliability was
254 excellent: Chronbach's alpha = 0.99 for the number of irrelevant actions performed, and
255 Cohen's kappa = 1.00 for the two other measures.

256 All analyses were carried out in R version 3.1.3. Significance testing of main
257 effects in regression models was undertaken using Likelihood-ratio (χ^2) tests, and
258 Tukey post-hoc comparisons were performed using the package *multcomp*.
259 Conventional binomial tests were used to assess whether copying was biased towards
260 the majority or minority behavior during a single response trial (i.e, differed from
261 chance level at e.g., T1). To assess whether children demonstrated an overall copying

262 bias across all response trials combined (i.e., data pooled across T1-T3), we adopted the
263 option-bias method (Kendal, Kendal, Hoppitt, & Laland, 2009), to account for within-
264 individual correlations in responses across trials (see supporting information S4). For
265 analyses of persistence in copying across trials, we computed a binary (yes/no)
266 measure of copying persistence to indicate whether children consistently reproduced
267 the demonstrated action in every response trial (i.e., performed it in T1, T2, *and* T3).
268 Two-tailed p values are reported throughout.

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Results

271 We present the results in three sections. First, we examine children's copying of
272 unanimous demonstrators. We then investigate the influence of the majority on
273 children's tendency to copy. Finally, we additionally examine the effect of demonstrator
274 unanimity on children's initial decisions to copy, and their tendency to persist with
275 performing the demonstrated actions across all trials. A descriptive overview of
276 irrelevant and relevant action copying for each trial in each condition can be found in
277 the supporting information; see Table S1. Throughout, preliminary analyses were
278 conducted to test for age, sex, and primacy effects (where applicable), and in most cases
279 no significant effects were found; the few exceptions are reported below.

280 First, to confirm the utility of social information to naïve children attempting the
281 task, we note that children who received a social demonstration (C1-4) were
282 significantly more successful at retrieving the reward at T1 (success rate = 100%) than
283 those (C5) who did not (six participants failed in C5: success rate = 88.2%; Fisher's
284 Exact Test, $p < 0.001$). All but three participants who retrieved the reward at T1 also did
285 so in T2 and T3.

286

287 Copying When the Demonstrators Were Unanimous

288 **(i) Causally relevant actions.** We pooled data across the three conditions in
289 which children saw all four demonstrators performing the same causally relevant action
290 (i.e., sweep *or* drawer retrieval, C2-C4 combined, N=150). Despite successful children in
291 the *baseline* condition showing a bias towards retrieval using the sweep manipulandum
292 (78% of all retrievals used sweep: Fisher's Exact Test, $p < .001$), children who saw a
293 unanimous demonstration showed a strong tendency to copy the relevant action they
294 had witnessed (92% copying across all trials combined [91% sweep, 93% drawer]:
295 Fisher's Exact Test, $p < .001$). A logistic generalized linear mixed model (GLMM) revealed
296 no significant effect of the method demonstrated (sweep vs. drawer), experimental
297 condition (C2-C4), trial number, or whether the child copied the irrelevant action, on
298 whether the relevant action was copied (see supporting information, Table S2).

299 **(ii) Causally irrelevant action.** Only 16% of children in the *baseline* condition
300 performed the irrelevant action on their first retrieval attempt (T1). By contrast, when
301 irrelevant actions were demonstrated unanimously (*all irrelevant* condition: C4), a
302 significantly larger percentage of children copied the irrelevant action at T1 (86%;
303 $\chi^2(1) = 51.60$, $p < .001$), consistent with our predictions and the high levels of irrelevant
304 action copying in previous studies (Horner & Whiten, 2005; Lyons et al., 2007).
305 Similarly, across all trials (T1-T3) combined, the percentage of children's responses in
306 the *all irrelevant* condition that included production of the irrelevant action (81%) was
307 significantly greater than in the *baseline* (9%; $\chi^2(1) = 167.83$, $p < .001$).

308

309 Majority-Biased Copying

310 **(i) Causally relevant actions.** Consistent with our predictions, Figure 2
311 demonstrates that at T1 children in the *relevant actions only* condition (C1: N=51)

312 copied the majority significantly above chance when faced with demonstrations of two
313 different, yet causally equivalent, relevant actions (binomial test: 76% copied majority,
314 $\pm 95\%$ CI [62% – 87%], $p < .001$). Likewise, children in this condition continued to
315 demonstrate majority-biased copying when all responses across T1-T3 combined were
316 considered (*option bias test statistic* = 4.39; $p < .001$; majority: 73%, minority: 27%).

317 **(ii) Causally irrelevant action.** Participants were scored as demonstrating a
318 majority bias if they copied the majority's behavior with regard to omitting (*minority*
319 *irrelevant*; C2) or performing (*majority irrelevant*; C3) the irrelevant action. As expected,
320 there was a strong preference for the efficient majority solution in the *minority*
321 *irrelevant* condition at T1 (binomial test: 84% copied the majority, 95% CI [71%, 93%],
322 $p < .001$), that remained across T1-T3 combined (*option bias test statistic* = 7.70; $p < .001$;
323 majority: 85%, minority: 15%; see Figure 2).

324 In contrast, but in line with predictions, majority-biased copying was not
325 observed in the *majority irrelevant* condition at T1, where most children copied the
326 minority's omission of the irrelevant action (binomial test: 41% copied the majority,
327 95% CI [27% – 56%], $p = .25$). Majority-biased copying was also not observed across T1-
328 T3 combined, where most children continued to copy the minority person's more
329 efficient solution (*option bias test statistic* = 1.82; $p < .08$; majority: 39.5%, minority:
330 60.5%). Children in the *majority irrelevant* condition were influenced by the order in
331 which the majority and minority performed: they more often copied the demonstration
332 witnessed first (64% of all responses matched the solution demonstrated first: Fisher's
333 Exact Test, $p < 0.001$).

334

335 Demonstrator Unanimity and Copying Persistence Across Trials

336 Previous research suggests children persist with performing an irrelevant action
337 at high levels after observing a single demonstrator, despite hands-on experience of
338 task mechanics (Lyons et al., 2007; Wood et al., 2012). Children also typically persist in
339 performing a demonstrated relevant solution, even when other equally efficacious
340 solutions are discoverable (Wood et al., 2013a). Here we additionally examined the
341 effects of demonstrator unanimity on both initial copying (in T1), and on children's
342 persistence with the demonstrated method across all trials (T1-T3; i.e., children
343 performed this action in each of the three response trials).

344 **(i) Unanimous demonstrators.** Within the *all irrelevant* condition (C4), where
345 both causally relevant and irrelevant actions were demonstrated unanimously, the level
346 of irrelevant action copying (86%) did not differ significantly from the high level of
347 causally relevant action copying (96%) at T1 (McNemar Test: $\chi^2(1) = 1.78, p = .18$).
348 However, in contrast, children were less likely to persist with the irrelevant action in
349 each of the three trials (T1-T3) (70%) than the relevant action (92%; McNemar Test:
350 $\chi^2(1) = 5.88, p = .02$), suggesting that fidelity erodes more quickly for irrelevant actions.

351 **(ii) Causally relevant actions.** We compared the behavior of children who
352 witnessed a unanimous demonstration of the causally relevant action (i.e., sweep *or*
353 drawer retrieval, C2-C4 combined, N=150) with that of children who witnessed a less-
354 than-unanimous majority (*causal actions only*, C1, N=51). Children were significantly
355 more likely to adopt the relevant action at T1 when it was unanimously demonstrated
356 than when it was demonstrated by a less-than-unanimous majority (Unanimous=96%,
357 Not Unanimous= 76%: $\chi^2(1) = 8.32, p < .004$), and were also more likely to persist with
358 copying the unanimous demonstration across T1-T3 (Unanimous=89%, Not
359 Unanimous= 63%: $\chi^2(1) = 16.91, p < .001$). Thus, children were more likely to both

360 adopt and persist with the majority action when the demonstration was unanimous
361 compared to when it was not unanimous.

362 **(iii) Causally irrelevant actions.** Logistic regression models, including
363 participants' sex and age, were used to examine the effect of demonstrator unanimity on
364 children's copying of the irrelevant action. The *baseline* condition was included for
365 comparison in analyses of children's initial copying of irrelevant actions in T1 (C2-C5,
366 N=201), but dropped from analyses of their persistence in copying the irrelevant action
367 across trials (T1-T3; C2-C4, N=150) as it lacked the variation required to fit a logistic
368 regression (i.e., no children in the *baseline* condition performed the irrelevant action in
369 all trials).

370 The frequency of demonstrators performing the irrelevant action strongly
371 influenced both children's initial copying of it in T1 (GLM: $\chi^2(3) = 81.20, p < .001$), and
372 their persistence with it across T1-T3 (GLM: $\chi^2(2) = 51.19, p < .001$). Pairwise
373 comparisons between conditions (see Figure 3 and Table 2) revealed that levels of
374 initial and persistent irrelevant action copying decreased sharply from unanimous
375 demonstration (*all irrelevant*: T1: 86%, T1-T3: 70%) to non-unanimous demonstration
376 of the irrelevant action, including when the irrelevant action was demonstrated by the
377 majority (*majority irrelevant*: T1: 41%, T1-T3: 21%). There was a further sharp
378 reduction in children's initial (T1) copying of the irrelevant action when the number of
379 demonstrators performing the irrelevant action dropped from three (*majority*
380 *irrelevant*: 41%) to just one (*minority irrelevant*: 14%) out of four, although this initial
381 difference did not remain significant when we considered children's persistence in
382 performing the irrelevant action across T1-T3. Thus, when the demonstrators were not
383 unanimous, children were influenced by the number of demonstrators who performed
384 the irrelevant action at T1, but this did not translate into differences in persistence with

385 the causally irrelevant behavior across trials. Comparisons of irrelevant action
386 production with the *baseline* condition (16%) revealed that the percentage of children
387 who performed the irrelevant action at T1 did not increase when it was demonstrated
388 by the minority (*minority irrelevant*), but increased sharply when demonstrated by a
389 non-unanimous (*majority irrelevant*) or unanimous majority (*all irrelevant*).

390 Across conditions (C2-C5) children's age correlated negatively with irrelevant
391 action performance at T1, such that older children produced fewer irrelevant actions
392 (Table 2; supporting information Figure S1). However, the negative effect of age on
393 irrelevant action *copying* (in conditions C2-C4) in T1 was confined to conditions in
394 which the irrelevant action was not unanimously demonstrated (i.e., the *majority*
395 *irrelevant* and *minority irrelevant* conditions), and was still significant following
396 removal of the *all irrelevant* and *baseline* conditions from the analysis (C2-C3, $Z = -2.04$,
397 Odds ratio = 0.95, $p = .041$, $N = 100$). By contrast, children's age had no significant effect
398 on persistence in copying the irrelevant action across T1-T3, even when the analysis
399 was confined to conditions with non-unanimous demonstration of the irrelevant action.
400 Thus the initial (T1) tendency for increased copying of the efficient solution in older
401 children was not maintained across repeated trials.

402 Although there was no effect of sex on children's initial performance of the
403 irrelevant action (T1), boys were less likely to persist with the irrelevant action (T1-T3)
404 than girls (Table 2). Follow-up analysis revealed no interaction effect between sex and
405 age.

406

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Discussion

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The results presented here contribute an important new perspective to our understanding of human cultural transmission, and in particular to work on both 'over-

410 imitation' and majority-biased copying. The findings provide direct evidence that
411 adaptive learning biases are implemented more flexibly than previously thought, and
412 are substantially altered by both the social context (unanimity of demonstrators) and
413 the type of actions demonstrated (causally relevant vs. irrelevant). As expected, we
414 found that the previously reported pervasiveness of 'over-imitation' (Chudek et al.,
415 2016; Horner & Whiten, 2005; Lyons et al., 2007; McGuigan et al., 2011; Nielsen &
416 Tomaselli, 2010) is substantially diminished in the more real-world situation of non-
417 unanimous demonstrations, and that majority-biased copying did not extend to
418 majorities who performed irrelevant actions, despite being detected in all instances
419 where the majority performed a causally efficient task solution. Rather than
420 representing a 'puzzling' and 'mindless' peculiarity of human imitation, or a "copy-all,
421 correct-later" strategy (Chudek et al., 2016; Whiten et al., 2009), our data suggest that
422 the occurrence of so-called 'over-imitation' instead fits with the operation of a highly
423 flexible, selective, and adaptive high-fidelity copying mechanism in our species.

424

425 **Irrelevant Action Copying**

426 In line with previous research (Horner & Whiten, 2005; Lyons et al., 2007),
427 children copied the irrelevant action at high levels when it was demonstrated
428 unanimously, despite the instrumental framing of our task. Our experimental design
429 offers some insight regarding the competing hypotheses proposed to explain why
430 children and adults copy irrelevant information at such high levels in this context. For
431 instance, it is unlikely that children in the *all irrelevant* condition blindly copied the
432 irrelevant action as causally necessary (Lyons et al., 2011, 2007), as explanations based
433 solely on assumptions about causal understanding imply that once the redundancy of
434 the irrelevant action has been demonstrated (i.e., at least one demonstrator omits the

435 irrelevant action), children should not show sensitivity to the relative frequency of
436 demonstrators performing or omitting the irrelevant actions. However, demonstrator
437 frequency did influence children's irrelevant action copying in our study: children were
438 more likely to perform the irrelevant action in the *majority irrelevant* than *minority*
439 *irrelevant* condition. The low level of irrelevant action production in the *baseline*
440 condition further implies that causal understanding of what was and was not required
441 to extract the reward was not problematic for participants in any of the age groups.
442 Considered together, these findings suggest that children's copying was influenced not
443 by causal understanding but by demonstrator behavior.

444 Older children (age 6) were less likely to copy irrelevant actions at T1 than
445 younger children (age 4), but only where irrelevant actions were not demonstrated
446 unanimously. Previous studies in which the irrelevant action was demonstrated
447 unanimously have found that irrelevant action copying increases with age (McGuigan et
448 al., 2011, 2007; Nielsen & Tomaselli, 2010). A plausible explanation for these combined
449 findings is that unanimous demonstrations generate normative pressures to copy
450 behavior as the 'way it is done,' despite the child's knowledge that it is causally
451 unnecessary, which increases with age (Moraru, Gomez, & McGuigan, 2016). (Note that
452 this amounts in effect to a sort of group-level rational imitation: If everyone does it this
453 way, there must be a good reason for it.) However, when demonstrators vary in their
454 performance of the irrelevant action, as in our study, the pressure to conform is
455 substantially reduced and becomes increasingly undermined by age-related increases in
456 discarding the majority behavior for more accurate or reliable behavior (Einav, 2014;
457 Seston & Kelemen, 2014).

458

459 **Majority-Biased Copying**

460 These results provide strong evidence that while young children do use majority
461 behavior as a heuristic to guide instrumental learning, they are able to do so flexibly,
462 calibrating their decision-making according to additional cues, such as the majority's
463 perceived efficiency. Wilks et al. (2015) found that children were more likely to copy a
464 successful minority than an unsuccessful majority, despite being more likely to copy the
465 majority when both the majority and minority solutions were equally successful. Here
466 we extended Wilks and colleagues' investigation to superfluous behavior that did not
467 result in goal failure, using a different measure of majority copying that allows us to
468 make additional inferences about the cultural evolution of so-called 'over-imitation'.
469 Majority-biased copying (regarded as a key strategy for acquiring safe and effective
470 behavior; Boyd & Richerson, 1985; Wolf et al., 2013) was strongest when the majority
471 demonstrated the inefficiency of the minority's irrelevant action, and did not extend to a
472 majority that performed irrelevant actions. Thus, children do not blindly follow the
473 crowd.

474 While some evidence for majority-biased transmission has been observed in
475 other species (notably non-human primates; Haun et al., 2012), it remains untested
476 whether nonhuman animals are able to calibrate majority-biased copying according to
477 additional cues such as the efficiency of the majority's behavior. It is plausible that
478 humans' ability to adjust adaptive learning heuristics flexibly and selectively – such as
479 their tendency to follow the crowd – in concert with their remarkable ability to engage
480 in high-fidelity copying, has played a major evolutionary role in the generation of our
481 species' remarkable cultural prowess relative to nonhuman animals.

482

483 **Implications for Cultural Evolution**

484 Cultural evolutionary theory states that a behavioral trait must be copied at
485 levels proportional to the trait in the population if the trait is to be maintained at its
486 current levels (Boyd & Richerson, 1985). Our data therefore suggest that majority-
487 biased copying could potentially stabilize functionally relevant behaviors within a
488 population over time, but not behaviors that contain functionally redundant
489 information. That is, most participants who witnessed the majority perform an
490 irrelevant action copied the minority's more efficient solution, both at T1 and across all
491 three trials combined. Additionally, participants who saw the majority performing the
492 irrelevant action were not more likely to persist in performing it across trials than those
493 who saw it performed by the minority. Moreover, there was a strong bias towards
494 copying a majority who demonstrated greater behavioral efficiency over a minority, and
495 children showed a greater tendency to reproduce the causally relevant than causally
496 irrelevant action across trials following unanimous demonstration.

497 Taken together, our findings imply that without additional reinforcement of the
498 irrelevant action (e.g., sanctions, punishments, explicit teaching, or other normative or
499 social pressures), majority behavior containing functionally redundant information will
500 rapidly evolve to a more efficient solution (i.e., irrelevant action omission), which would
501 likely continue to increase towards fixation. However, by adding ritualistic or normative
502 contextual cues (Clegg & Legare, 2016; Fusaro & Harris, 2008; Herrmann et al., 2013;
503 Legare & Nielsen, 2015) or providing clear social functions (Nielsen & Blank, 2011; Over
504 & Carpenter, 2012) to causally irrelevant actions in unanimous and non-unanimous
505 demonstrations, a different pattern of results, and possibly majority-biased copying of

506 irrelevant actions, might emerge, clarifying further what triggers causally irrelevant
507 action copying.

508 We also anticipate that had the causally irrelevant action in our study
509 encompassed more substantial efficiency costs, we would have observed lower rates of
510 irrelevant action copying and faster rates of erosion over time; a suggestion consistent
511 with the findings of Keupp et al. (2016). Varying the ratio of majority versus minority
512 demonstrators who performed the irrelevant action (for example 25:1 instead of 3:1),
513 would also plausibly affect the rate of erosion, as would manipulating the relative age
514 (Wood et al., 2012), group membership (Oostenbroek & Over, 2015), or status
515 (McGuigan, 2013; though see Chudek et al., 2016) of the demonstrators. Examining the
516 interaction of different types of learning biases in irrelevant action copying is an area
517 ripe for future research.

518

519 **Conclusions**

520 To our knowledge, we present the first evidence that young children flexibly and
521 adaptively adopt a majority-biased learning strategy when faced with an instrumental
522 learning goal and the opportunity to integrate social information from multiple
523 individuals. Majority-biased copying did not extend to causally inefficient and irrelevant
524 actions, despite these being copied at high levels when demonstrated unanimously.
525 Akin to the findings of Asch (1956) with adults, when just one individual dissented from
526 the majority, 'over-imitation' plummeted. Thus, our data suggest that the presence of
527 causally irrelevant actions might substantially alter the operation of adaptive learning
528 biases. This finding has obvious implications for cultural evolutionary theory; namely
529 that causally irrelevant, and potentially costly, actions are unlikely to be maintained in
530 causal or instrumental real-world contexts where behavioral traits are often not

531 exhibited unanimously. Rather, in many – perhaps most – circumstances, socially-
532 transmitted behavior is expected to evolve towards efficient solutions.

533 An easily envisaged exception to this expectation is when instances of copying
534 causally irrelevant actions serve social, ritualistic or normative purposes. As children
535 showed sensitivity to the degree of unanimity in demonstrator behavior, our findings
536 provide support for the operation of socially-driven motivations, and explanations, in
537 causally irrelevant action copying. However, we suggest that the term ‘over-imitation’ is
538 inaccurate and misleading when copying of causally irrelevant actions encompasses
539 socially functional properties, as their performance in this instance no longer
540 represents puzzling or irrational behavior. To the contrary, our findings illustrate a
541 flexible, and highly functional, integration of social learning strategies, through which
542 individuals combine social and non-social sources of information to home in rapidly on
543 the relevant actions in instrumental tasks, while remaining sensitive to the social
544 functions of imitation. This suggests that our species might more accurately be cast as
545 broadly ‘optimal’ rather than ‘over’-imitators.

546

547 **Ethics statement.** Full ethical approval for this study was provided by UTREC of the
548 University of St Andrews, and informed consent was obtained for all participants.

549

550 **Author contributions.** CLE conceived and designed the study, carried out the data
551 collection, analyses, and drafted the manuscript. RLK participated in the design of the
552 study. RLK, KNL and MC helped interpret the data and revise the manuscript. All
553 authors gave final approval for publication.

554

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556

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- 704

Tables and figures**Table 1.** *Overview of the Demonstration and Baseline Conditions*

Condition	Majority solution (3 demonstrators)	Minority solution (1 demonstrator)	N
(C1) Causal actions only	All retrieve using the same relevant action (sweep OR drawer)	Retrieves using the alternate relevant action	51
(C2) Minority irrelevant	All retrieve using the same relevant action (sweep OR drawer) only	Performs irrelevant action then retrieves using the same relevant action as the majority	51
(C3) Majority irrelevant	All perform the irrelevant action before retrieval. All use the same relevant action (sweep OR drawer)	Retrieves using the same relevant action as the majority, without performing the irrelevant action	49
(C4) All irrelevant	All demonstrators perform the irrelevant action before retrieval. All use the same relevant action (sweep OR drawer)		50
(C5) Baseline	No demonstration		51

Table 2. *The Effects of Experimental Condition and Age on Whether the Irrelevant Action was Performed at T1 (C2 - C5), and Persistently Across T1-T3 (C2-C4)*

Model parameters	Pairwise comparisons	Estimate (S.E.)	Odds ratio
<u>Model T1</u>			
Intercept		0.66(1.21) ^{NS}	
	All (C4) – Majority (C3)	2.25(0.51) ^{***}	9.49
	All (C4) – Minority (C2)	3.81(0.60) ^{***}	45.15
Condition^a	All (C4) – Baseline (C5)	3.81(0.60) ^{***}	45.15
	Baseline (C5) – Minority (C2)	-0.005(0.58) ^{NS}	1.00
	Majority (C3) – Minority (C2)	1.56(0.51) [*]	4.76
	Majority (C3) – Baseline (C5)	1.56(0.51) [*]	4.76
Participant's age^b		-0.04(0.02) [*]	0.96
Participant's sex^c		-0.33(0.37) ^{NS}	0.72
Total model:	$R^2 = 0.46$ (Nagelkerke), $\chi^2(5) = 84.41$, $p < .001$		
<u>Model T1-T3</u>			
Intercept		-0.71(1.48) ^{NS}	
Condition^a	All (C4) – Minority (C2)	3.48(0.63) ^{***}	32.57
	All (C4) – Majority (C3)	2.18(0.48) ^{***}	8.87
	Majority (C3) – Minority (C2)	1.30(0.63) ^{NS}	3.67
Participant's age^b		-0.02(0.02) ^{NS}	0.98
Participant's sex^c		-1.01(0.44) [*]	0.37
Total model:	$R^2 = 0.43$ (Nagelkerke), $\chi^2(4) = 55.76$, $p < .001$		

^a Categorical variable (see Table 1); ^b Numeric variable (age in months); ^c Dichotomous variable (0 = female, 1 = male); ^{NS} $p > .05$; ^{*} $p < .05$; ^{***} $p < .001$

List of figure legends

Figure 1a – c. *The Sweep-Drawer Box. Demonstrator Releasing the Capsule by Pushing the Sweep Manipulandum (a), or Pulling the Drawer Manipulandum (b). Demonstrator Performing the Irrelevant Action on the Door Prior to Capsule Release (c).*

Figure 2. *Percentage of Participants Copying the Majority Behavior (Chance Level Copying Indicated by Dashed Line) at T1 and Across All Three Trials Combined (Collapsed Across Age Groups, C1- C3)*

<insert Figure 2 >

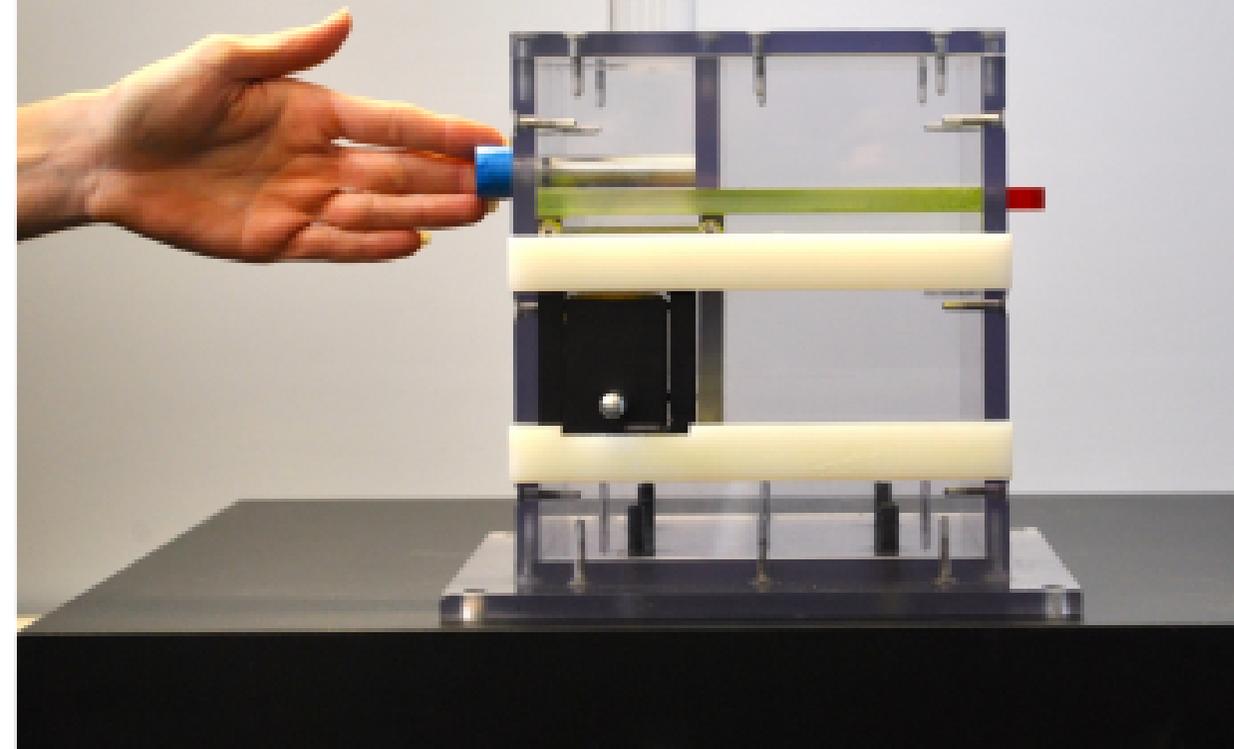
*** $p < .001$

Figure 3. *Percentage of Participants Performing the Irrelevant Action at T1 and Persistently Across T1-T3 (Collapsed Across Age Groups, C2-C5)*

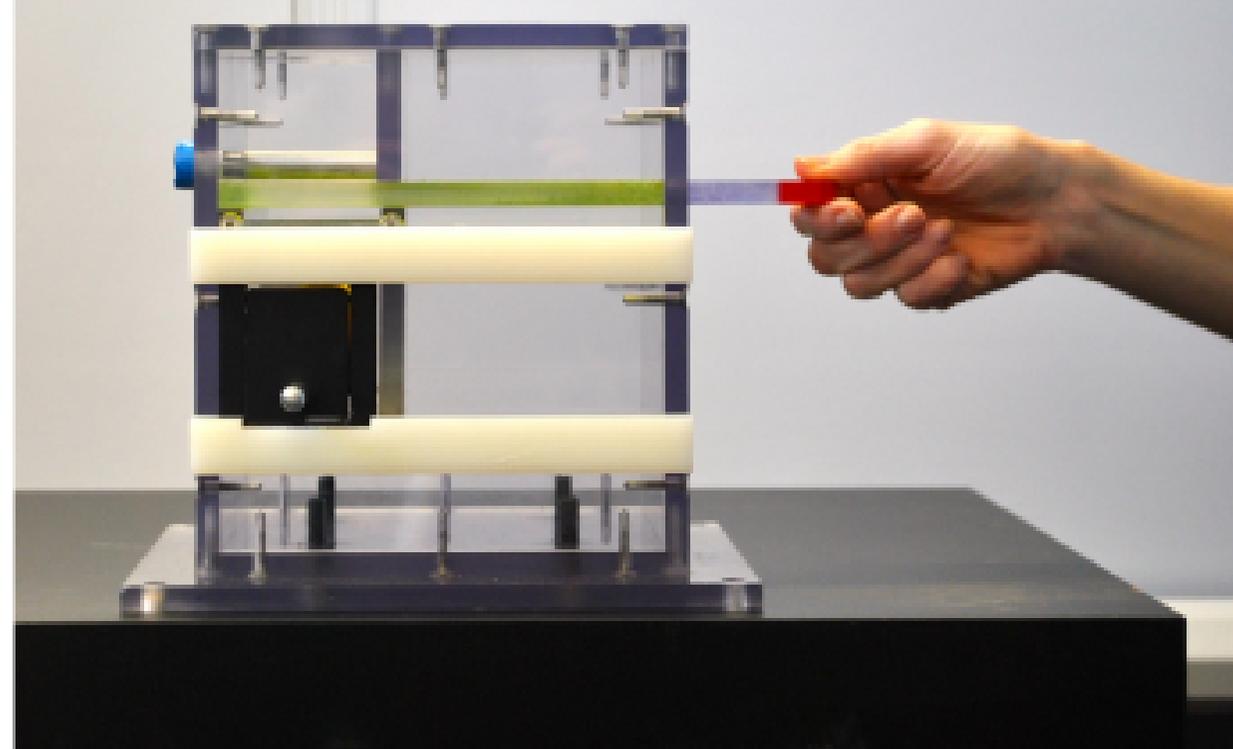
<insert Figure 3>

*** $p < .001$, * $p < .05$, ^{NS} $p > .05$. Comparisons with baseline were made at T1 only. Binomial standard errors.

(a)



(b)



(c)

