

Drawings as a window into developmental changes in object representations

Bria Long

bria@stanford.edu
Department of Psychology
Stanford University

Judith E. Fan

jefan@stanford.edu
Department of Psychology
Stanford University

Michael C. Frank

mcf Frank@stanford.edu
Department of Psychology
Stanford University

Abstract

How do children's representations of object categories change as they grow older? As they learn about the world around them, they also express what they know in the drawings they make. Here, we examine drawings as a window into how children represent familiar object categories, and how this changes across childhood. We asked children (age 3-10 years) to draw objects on an iPad, and analyzed their semantic properties. Across this age range, we found large and consistent gains in how well children could produce drawings that are recognizable to adults. We hypothesized that this improvement reflects increasing convergence between children's representation of object categories and that of adults. To measure this, we extracted features of drawings made by children and adults using a pre-trained deep convolutional neural network, allowing us to visualize the representational layout of object categories across age groups using a common feature basis. We found that the organization of object categories in older children's drawings were more similar to that of adults than younger children's drawings. This correspondence was especially strong for higher layers of the neural network, showing that older children's drawings tend to capture high-level perceptual features critical for adult recognition. Broadly, these findings point to drawing as a rich source of insight into how children represent object concepts.

Keywords: object representations; drawings; child development

Introduction

As humans, we have many powerful tools to externalize what we know, including language and gesture. One tool that has been particularly transformative for human cognition and culture is graphical representation, which allows people to encode their thoughts in a visible, durable format. Drawing is an important case study in graphical representation, being a technique that dates back at least 40,000 years (Pike et al., 2012), well before the emergence of symbolic writing systems (Clottes, 2008), and is practiced in many cultures (Gombrich, 1989).

In modern times, drawings are produced prolifically by children from an early age (Kellogg, 1969), providing a rich source of potential insight into their emerging understanding of the visual world. For example, as children learn the diagnostic properties of objects they encounter, they might express this knowledge in the drawings they make. How can we leverage this natural behavior to understand how they learn abstractions over their perceptual experience, such as object categories?

We know that children quickly reach a remarkable degree of sophistication in forming abstract perceptual representations of the objects they frequently encounter, leveraging shape information (in conjunction with linguistic cues) to learn about invariant properties of object categories (Smith,

Jones, Landau, Gershkoff-Stowe, & Samuelson, 2002). Typically, such learning is measured using discrete choices between stimuli that vary along dimensions chosen by the experimenter; by contrast, drawing tasks permit children to include any information they consider relevant for conveying information about an object. For example, when presented with a target object to draw in which a prominent feature is occluded (e.g., the handle of a mug is turned away), children as young as 5 years of age frequently include the occluded object part in their drawing anyway, displaying the robustness of their internal representation to variation in viewpoint (Davis, 1983).

We also know that important developmental changes in perceptual processing continue throughout childhood (for reviews, see Nishimura, Scherf, & Behrmann (2009); Juttner, Wakui, Petters, & Davidoff (2016)). For example, young children tend to categorize novel objects on the basis of part-specific information, whereas older children additionally recruit information about relationships between object parts (Mash, 2006). This is resonant with evidence from the drawings they make: drawings by children between 4-8 years of age reveal rapid changes in how they encode semantically relevant information in their drawings: younger children tend to include fewer cues in their drawings to differentiate between target concepts (e.g., adult vs. child) than older children, who enrich their drawings with more diagnostic part (Sitton & Light, 1992) or relational (Light & Simmons, 1983) information, especially when they know their goal is to make their drawings recognizable to someone else. However, while large numbers of discrimination trials are required to yield reliable estimates of perceptual performance along a constrained set of pre-defined stimulus dimensions, even a single drawing provides richly high-dimensional information about the content and structure of children's perceptual representations of semantically relevant information.

While figurative drawing tasks have long provided inspiration for scientists investigating the representation of object concepts in early life (Minsky & Papert, 1972), a major barrier to understanding has been the lack of principled, quantitative measures of high-level semantic information in drawings. As such, previous studies employing drawing tasks have typically relied on qualitative assessments (Kosslyn, Heldmeyer, & Locklear, 1977) or ad hoc quantitative criteria (Goode-nough, 1963). Recent work in computational vision has validated the use of pre-trained deep convolutional neural network (DCNN) models to quantitatively measure semantic information in adult drawings (Fan, Yamins, & Turk-Browne, 2015). Higher layers of these models, in addition to pre-

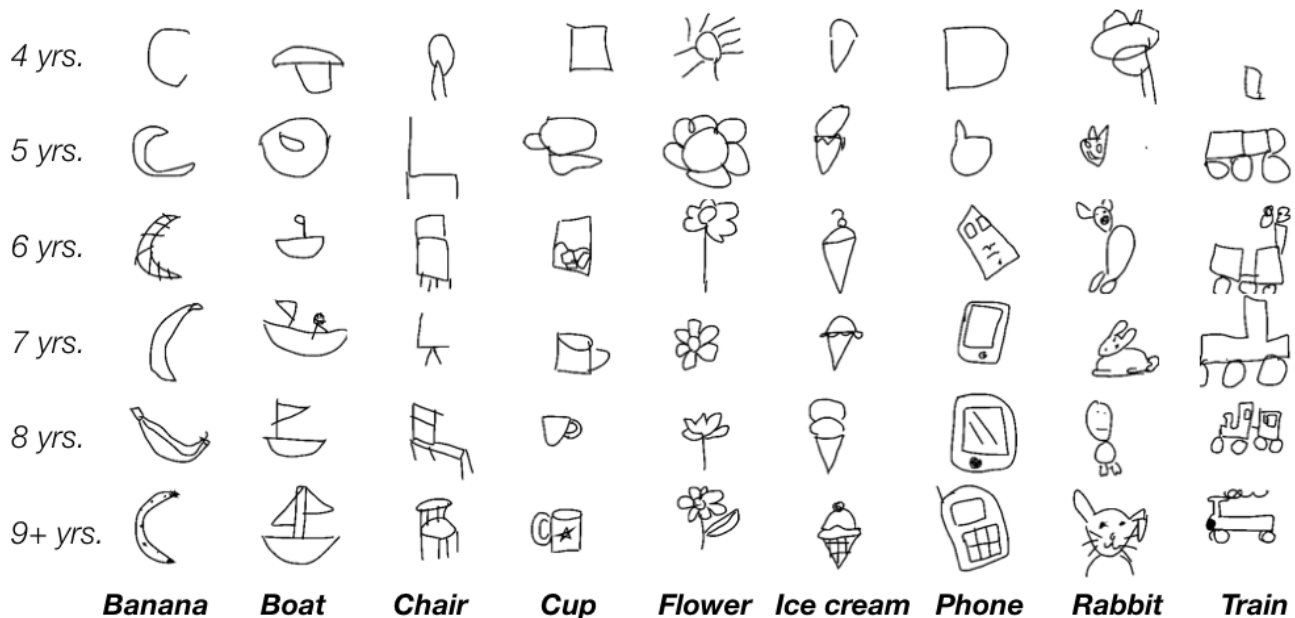


Figure 1: Example drawings made by children ages 4-10 of several object categories.

dicting neural population responses in object-selective cortex (Yamins et al., 2014), capture adult perceptual judgments of object shape similarity (Kubilius, Bracci, & Beeck, 2016). Together, this prior work suggests that features learned by these models provide a principled choice of high-level perceptual feature basis for extracting semantic information, including object identity, from children’s drawings.

Here we examine children’s drawings as a window into how they represent familiar visual object categories, and how this representation changes across childhood. We ask children to draw a variety of object categories on a digital tablet. Then, we examine how semantic information in children’s drawings changes with age, after factoring out low-level covariates related to motor production, such as how long they spend drawing and how many strokes they use. Second, we compare the perceptual features of child and adult drawings by comparing their representations in a pre-trained DCNN model, allowing us to visualize the representational layout of object categories across age groups using a common feature basis.

Part 1: Adult recognition of children’s drawings

How do children’s ability to convey semantically relevant information in their drawings change across childhood? Our approach was to collect multiple drawings across several object categories across a broad age range. First, children (ages 3-10 years) produced drawings of 16 common object categories in a simple drawing game. Then, other participants (naïve adults) attempted to recognize these drawings in a forced-choice recognition task.

Methods

Participants For the drawing task, children ($N = 41$, $M = 6.9$ years, range 4-10 years) were recruited at the San Jose Children’s Discovery Museum. Either the child or their parents verbally reported the child’s age. For the recognizability experiment, 14 naïve adults with US IP addresses were recruited from Amazon Mechanical Turk and provided labels for all drawings.

Stimuli Stimuli were words referring to 16 common object categories: banana, boat, car, carrot, cat, chair, couch, cup, flower, foot, frog, ice cream, phone, rabbit, shoe, train. These categories were chosen such that they were: (1) likely to be familiar to children, (2) spanned the animate/inanimate distinction, and (3) intuitively spanned a wide range of difficulty (for example, flowers seem easier to draw than couches). We also choose items that were present in the Google QuickDraw database, a large dataset containing drawings made by adults in under 20 seconds, so that we could eventually compare children’s drawings with ones made by adults.

Drawing Task Procedure We implemented a web-based drawing game in HTML/Javascript using the paper.js library and collected drawings using a touchscreen tablet on the floor of the museum. At the beginning of each session, to familiarize children with the task and touch interface, they were prompted to draw a circle and a triangle. After completing these two practice trials, they were cued to draw a randomly selected object. On each trial, a text cue would appear (i.e., “Can you draw a [flower]?”) that the experimenter would read out, (“What about a [flower]? Can you draw a [flower]?”). Then, a drawing canvas appeared (600 x 600 pixels) and chil-

dren had 30 seconds to make a drawing before moving onto the next trial; pilot testing suggested that 30 seconds was enough for many children to complete their drawings. After each trial, the experimenter asked the child whether they wanted to keep drawing or whether they were all done. In all, we collected 268 drawings across the 16 categories.

Recognizability Task Procedure After collecting children’s drawings, we presented them to naïve adults to measure their recognizability. On each trial, participants saw a drawing, and were asked “What does this look like?”, and responded by typing their response into a text box. Only labels from a restricted set of 21 options were accepted, comprising the 16 drawn categories, 4 foil categories (bean, arm, person, rock), and “cannot tell at all.” Drawings were presented in a random order, and participants were not informed that these drawings were produced by children or the context in which they were produced.

Model Fitting Our goal was to measure how children’s ability to convey semantically relevant information in their drawings changes with age. We anticipated that their drawings may also vary along other dimensions more directly related to the motor production demands of the task, such as the amount of time spent drawing, the number of strokes used, and amount of ink (i.e., mean pixel intensity of sketch). See Figure 3.

In order to assess whether children’s ability to produce recognizable drawings increased with age, independent of these low-level covariates, we fit a generalized linear mixed-effects model, with age (specified in years), drawing duration, amount of ink used, and number of strokes as fixed effects, and with random intercepts for each individual child drawer and object category. The dependent variable was whether the proportion of adults that recognized a given drawing. This was specified in the lme4 R package as: `glmer(correct ~ scale(age) + scale(draw_duration) + scale(mean_intensity) + scale(num_strokes) + (1|session.id) + (1|category), family = “binomial”)`.

Results

We found that recognizability of drawings generally increased with age (see Figure 3), although there was substantial variability across categories in how well children could produce recognizable drawings. For example, children of all ages produced drawings of cats that were readily recognizable as “cats”, but few children of any age produced drawings that were recognizable as “shoes” (see Figure 2).

Was this increase due to an increase in high-level semantic properties of older children’s drawings, or to the possibility that older children may have put more time and effort into their drawings? To address this question, we fit a generalized linear mixed-effects model that included various low-level covariates related to time and effort: drawing duration, number of strokes, and amount of ink used.

This analysis revealed that recognizability of drawings reli-

ably increased when controlling for these low-level covariates — the amount of time spent drawing, the number of strokes, and total ink used ($b = 0.96$, $SE = 0.17$, $Z = 5.5$), and accounting for variation across object categories and individual children. All model coefficients can be seen in Table 1. Adding interaction terms between age and these low-level covariates did little to decrease the effect of age on recognizability ($b = 0.94$, $SE = 0.18$, $Z = 5.4$).

	Estimate	Std. Error	z value	Pr(> z)
(Intercept)	0.861	0.321	2.680	0.007
Age	0.956	0.174	5.497	0.000
Drawing time	0.338	0.109	3.105	0.002
Amount of ink	0.014	0.080	0.179	0.858
Num. strokes	-0.289	0.098	-2.959	0.003

Table 1: Model coefficients of a GLMM predicting the recognizability of each drawing.

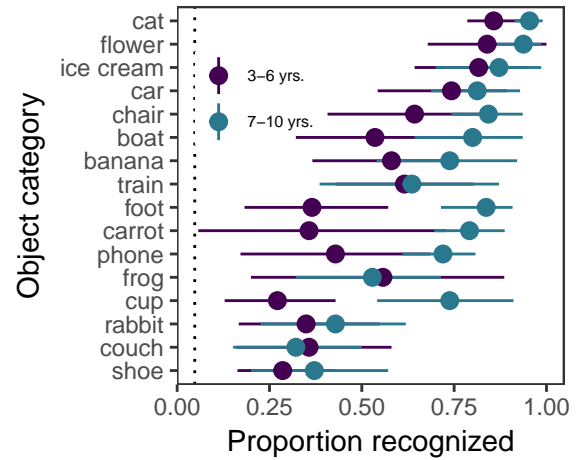


Figure 2: Proportion of drawings recognized in each object category. The dashed line represents chance performance. Error bars represent non-parametric 95 percent confidence intervals, estimated using the langcog R package.

Taken together, these results show large and consistent gains in how well children can produce recognizable drawings across this age range, although younger children still produced drawings that could be recognized well above chance by adult viewers.

Part 2: Model-based feature analyses of children’s drawings

In the previous section, we found that children’s drawings generally contained sufficient semantic information to support recognition by adult viewers, although older children’s drawings were consistently more recognizable. How might their drawings provide a window into children’s perceptual representations of these objects, and the nature of the developmental changes in these representations that might under-

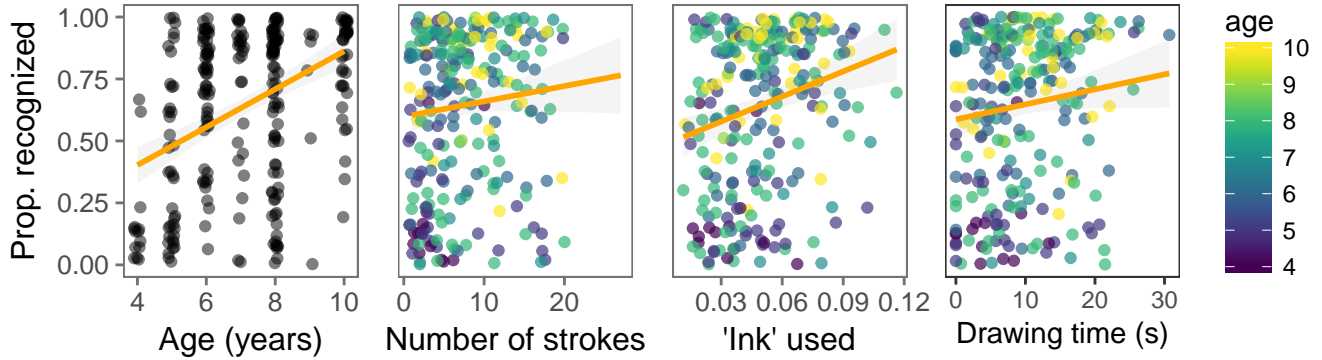


Figure 3: The proportion of adults who recognized each drawing is plotted as a function of child’s age, the number of strokes, amount of ink used, and the time spent creating each drawing. Each dot represents an individual drawing; dots in the right three plots are colored by the age of the drawer.

lie older children’s enhanced ability to produce recognizable drawings (at least to adult viewers)?

We hypothesized that this improvement may reflect increasing convergence between children’s perceptual representation of object categories and that of adults over the course of development. To measure this, we extracted high-level perceptual features of drawings made by children and adults using a pre-trained deep convolutional neural network (Simonyan & Zisserman, 2014), allowing us to visualize the representational layout of object categories across age groups using a common perceptual feature basis from which semantic information can be easily derived (Kriegeskorte, Mur, & Bandettini, 2008). Our approach is to evaluate how similar the layout of object categories is between children and adults using this high-level feature representation. Insofar as they are more similar for older children than younger children, this could explain why adults are more accurate in recognizing their drawings.

To evaluate whether such high-level features are necessary to capture semantically-relevant perceptual information, we also analyze lower-level visual features of drawings using features from earlier layers of the model, which capture local image statistics, including edges. Insofar as recognition of drawings is purely driven by these low-level features, we would instead predict similarity to peak in earlier layers.

Methods

Participants Participants included those who participated in the first round of data collection, as well as an additional 37 children recruited in the same way as in Part 1.

Drawing dataset In our second round of data collection, our goal was to expand the number of categories included in our model-based feature analyses, so we included an additional 22 categories. Across both rounds of data collection, we recorded 387 drawings from 78 children across a broad age range. However, due to the limited amount of data in each category for each age, in subsequent analyses we group drawing data into two coarse age categories: younger chil-

dren (aged 3-6 years) and older children (aged 7-10 years). At this intermediate stage in data collection, we restrict our analyses to the 16 categories where we had at least 3 drawings in both younger and older age groups, yielding 118 drawings by younger children and 161 drawings by older children. By including a minimum number of drawings per class and age category, this ensured robust estimates of category-level feature information in drawings.

To complement the children’s drawing dataset, we additionally obtained a random sample of 100 adult drawings from each of the drawn categories above from the Google Quickdraw dataset (<https://quickdraw.withgoogle.com/data>). Prior to analysis, we cropped all sketch images to contain only the sketch, applied uniform padding (10px), and rescaled them to the same size (3x224x224).

Deep convolutional neural network model We used a standard, pre-trained implementation of the popular VGG-19 architecture (Simonyan & Zisserman, 2014) to extract features from sketches at layers across several depths in the network. Specifically, we analyzed feature activations in the first five pooling layers, as well as the first two fully-connected layers. Each image elicits a pattern of feature activations at every layer in the model, each pattern being equivalent to a vector in a feature space with the same number of dimensions as units in that layer. The earliest layers of this network tend to capture similarities in low-level features (e.g., orientation, spatial frequency), while intermediate and higher layers tend to capture similarities in mid- to high-level visual features, including overall object shape and the presence of diagnostic object parts (e.g., legs, handles) (Gucclu & Gerven, 2015) and predict neural responses in object-selective cortex (Yamins et al., 2014).

Representational Similarity Analyses Separately for the younger-children, older-children, and adult drawing datasets, we averaged the feature vectors within each object category for a given layer of VGG-19 and then computed a layer-specific matrix of the Pearson correlation distances between

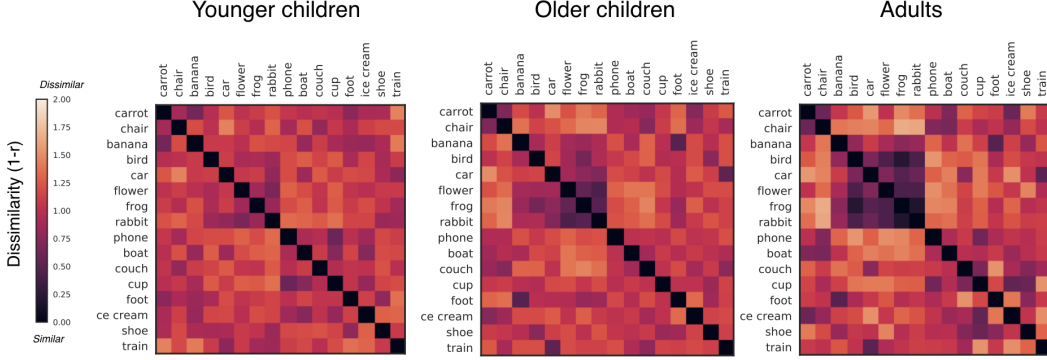


Figure 4: Representational dissimilarity matrices (RDMs) in the highest layer of VGG-19 (FC7) for drawings made by younger children (3-6 years of age), older children (7-10 years of age), and adults (Google QuickDraw database). Each square in one of these matrices represents the correlation distance between two categories (e.g., chair and couch) in this layer of the network; lighter colors indicate pairs of categories that generated dissimilar feature representations; darker colors indicate pairs of categories that generated more similar feature representations. Categories are grouped to reveal the inherent similarity structure.

these average vectors across categories (Kriegeskorte et al., 2008). Formally, this entailed computing:

$$RDM(R)_{ij} = 1 - \frac{cov(\vec{r}_i, \vec{r}_j)}{\sqrt{var(\vec{r}_i) \cdot var(\vec{r}_j)}}$$

, where \vec{r}_i and \vec{r}_j are the mean feature vectors for the i th and j th object categories, respectively, where R represents the correlation between two categories (e.g., rabbits and shoes). Each of these 16x16 representational dissimilarity matrices (RDMs, shown in Figure 4) provides a compact description of the layout of objects in the high-dimensional feature space inherent to each layer of the model. Following Kriegeskorte et al. (2008), we measured the similarity between object representations in different layers by computing the Spearman rank correlations between the RDMs for those corresponding layers.

Estimates of standard error for the Spearman correlation between RDMs (i.e., between domains or between layers) were generated by jackknife resampling of the 16 object categories. This estimate of standard error allows us to construct 95% confidence intervals and compute two-sided p-values for specific comparisons (Efron, 1979; Tukey, 1958). This entails iterating through each of the 16 subsamples that exclude a single class, computing the correlation on each iteration, then aggregating these values. Specifically, the jackknife estimate of the standard error can be computed as: $s.e.(jackknife) = \sqrt{\frac{n-1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (\bar{x}_i - \bar{x}_{(.)})^2}$, where \bar{x}_i is the correlation based on leaving out the i th object class and $\bar{x}_{(.)} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \bar{x}_i$, the mean correlation across all subsamples (of size 15).

Results

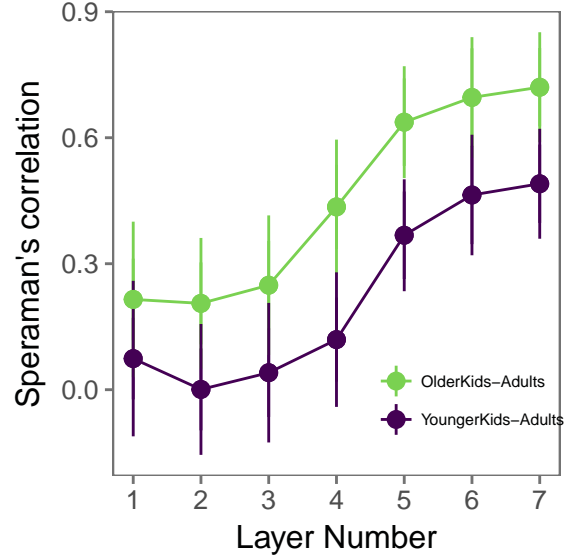


Figure 5: Spearman's correlation between representational dissimilarity matrices (RDMs) of drawings produced by adults vs. other adults, adults vs. older children, and between adults vs. younger children at each layer of VGG-19. Error bars represent standard error of the mean obtained by a jackknife re-sampling procedure (see Methods).

Layer-wise feature similarity We first examined the feature similarities between sketches produced by adults and children at each layer of VGG-19. We found that the similarity between older children and adults' drawings increased in each subsequent layer of the network, reaching a peak in the final layers of the network (see Figure 5). For younger children, we found a similar pattern of results, though similarity to adult drawings was lower overall. The RDMs for the

final layer of the network (where similarity was the highest; FC7) are shown in Figure 4. Thus, these results suggest that suggesting that children and adults drawings share many of the high-level perceptual features useful for object recognition.

General Discussion

What do children’s drawings reveal about their object representations? We approached this question by analyzing the semantic and perceptual content of children’s drawings across childhood. We found that the capacity to quickly produce drawings that communicate category information improves with age, even when factoring out low-level motor covariates. Similarly, we found that drawings from older vs. younger children were more similar to adult drawings in high-level layers of a deep convolutional neural network trained to recognize objects, suggesting that older children’s drawings also contain more of the perceptual features relevant for recognition. Children and adults may be accessing somewhat similar category representations when asked to “draw a chair” which manifest in these perceptual feature similarities.

Here, we deliberately selected a set of words that children of all ages were likely to understand, whereas children are continuously learning about new object categories and their properties. How might this learning affect children’s internal representations (and drawings) of different object categories? One possibility is that the bulk of the development change revolves around building more detailed representations: children may be learning the suite of visual features and object parts that are diagnostic of various object categories. On this account, learning what tigers tend to look like doesn’t change children’s perceptual representations of cheetahs—or how they draw them. A second possibility is that learning about new categories actually changes the similarity structure of children’s visual object concepts (Goldstone, Lippa, & Shiffrin, 2001). Finally, as children learn about the hierarchical structure of object categories (i.e., living thing–animal–mammal–dog) and their typical properties (e.g., all mammals have four legs) this might differentially change which visual features take precedence in their internal representations. Future work that links childrens’ categorization abilities with drawing behaviors will help to explore these possibilities.

Nevertheless, a natural question is how any age-related differences are related to children’s ability to control and plan their hand movements. While drawing recognizability increased with age when accounting for the overall time spent drawing and the number of strokes, these measures likely only partially estimate children’s motoric abilities. In future work, we thus plan to measure both children and adult’s ability to perform orthogonal fine motor tasks (e.g., tracing a complex shape) to understand how motoric developments influence the drawings that children produce.

Together, this work integrates novel methods to investigate children’s internal representations of object categories and how they are linked to their developing perceptual, cognitive,

and motor abilities. We propose that a full understanding of how we come to produce visual abstractions will help uncover the primary factors that shape adult object representations.

All data and code for these analyses are available at
<https://github.com/brialorelle/kiddraw>

Acknowledgements

We thank Jacqueline Quirke for help with piloting and data collection. We thank members of Stanford Language and Cognition lab. This work was partially funded by an NSF SPRF-FR (1714726) grant to BLL. We also gratefully acknowledge those who made the Google QuickDraw database available.

References

- Clottes, J. (2008). *Cave art*. Phaidon London.
- Davis, A. M. (1983). Contextual sensitivity in young children’s drawings. *Journal of Experimental Child Psychology*, 35(3), 478–486.
- Efron, B. (1979). 1977 Rietz Lecture - Bootstrap Methods - Another Look at the Jackknife. *Annals of Statistics*, 7(1), 1–26.
- Fan, J. E., Yamins, D., & Turk-Browne, N. B. (2015). Common object representations for visual recognition and production. In *CogSci*.
- Goldstone, R. L., Lippa, Y., & Shiffrin, R. M. (2001). Altering object representations through category learning. *Cognition*, 78(1), 27–43.
- Gombrich, E. (1989). *The story of art*. Phaidon Press, Ltd.
- Goodenough, F. L. (1963). *Goodenough-harris drawing test*. Harcourt Brace Jovanovich New York.
- Gucclu, U., & Gerven, M. A. van. (2015). Deep neural networks reveal a gradient in the complexity of neural representations across the ventral stream. *Journal of Neuroscience*, 35(27), 10005–10014.
- Juttner, M., Wakui, E., Petters, D., & Davidoff, J. (2016). Developmental commonalities between object and face recognition in adolescence. *Frontiers in Psychology*, 7.
- Kellogg, R. (1969). *Analyzing children’s art*. National Press Books Palo Alto, CA.
- Kosslyn, S. M., Heldmeyer, K. H., & Locklear, E. P. (1977). Children’s drawings as data about internal representations. *Journal of Experimental Child Psychology*, 23(2), 191–211.
- Kriegeskorte, N., Mur, M., & Bandettini, P. (2008). Representational similarity analysis—connecting the branches of systems neuroscience. *Frontiers in Systems Neuroscience*, 2.
- Kubilius, J., Bracci, S., & Beeck, H. P. O. de. (2016). Deep neural networks as a computational model for human shape sensitivity. *PLoS Computational Biology*, 12(4), e1004896.
- Light, P., & Simmons, B. (1983). The effects of a communication task upon the representation of depth relationships in

- young children's drawings. *Journal of Experimental Child Psychology*, 35(1), 81–92.
- Mash, C. (2006). Multidimensional shape similarity in the development of visual object classification. *Journal of Experimental Child Psychology*, 95(2), 128–152.
- Minsky, M., & Papert, S. A. (1972). Artificial intelligence progress report.
- Nishimura, M., Scherf, S., & Behrmann, M. (2009). Development of object recognition in humans. *F1000 Biology Reports*, 1.
- Pike, A. W., Hoffmann, D. L., Garcia-Diez, M., Pettitt, P. B., Alcolea, J., De Balbin, R., ... others. (2012). U-series dating of paleolithic art in 11 caves in Spain. *Science*, 336(6087), 1409–1413.
- Simonyan, K., & Zisserman, A. (2014). Very deep convolutional networks for large-scale image recognition. *ArXiv Preprint ArXiv:1409.1556*.
- Sitton, R., & Light, P. (1992). Drawing to differentiate: Flexibility in young children's human figure drawings. *British Journal of Developmental Psychology*, 10(1), 25–33.
- Smith, L. B., Jones, S. S., Landau, B., Gershkoff-Stowe, L., & Samuelson, L. (2002). Object name learning provides on-the-job training for attention. *Psychological Science*, 13(1), 13–19.
- Tukey, J. W. (1958). Bias and confidence in not-quite large samples. *Annals of Mathematical Statistics*.
- Yamins, D., Hong, H., Cadieu, C. F., Solomon, E. A., Seibert, D., & DiCarlo, J. J. (2014). Performance-optimized hierarchical models predict neural responses in higher visual cortex. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences*, 111(23), 8619–8624.