

# Measuring the development of the shape bias in early word learning across methodological variations

Anonymous CogSci submission

## Abstract

Young children tend to generalize the meanings of new object categories based on their shape, a tendency known as the “shape bias.” The mechanisms driving this bias and its variability remain controversial, however. Here, we explore methodological factors contributing to heterogeneity in shape bias studies, including task format, stimuli design. In two experiments, we systematically manipulated object properties—shape, material, function, and affordances—and examined their effects on 2–5 year-old children’s generalization. Preliminary findings indicate a robust preference for shape, even when function is made salient, suggesting that children may prioritize shape as a proxy for category membership. However, nuanced interactions between stimuli design, task structure, and prior experiences highlight the role of methodological decisions in shaping children’s behavior. Cross-linguistic and theoretical debates about the origins of shape bias underscore the need for unified methodologies to reconcile conflicting evidence.

**Keywords:** word learning; language acquisition; shape bias

What does “dog” mean to a 2-year-old? This old question reflects the evolving nature of our understanding of early label categorization. For young children, a dog might initially be identified by a set of general features that expands with experience. For example, The semantic features hypothesis (Clark (1973)) suggests that categorization begins with schemas of basic perceptual attributes, such as [four legs, tail, fur] for dog, hence we see overextensions of the word “dog” to beings that share these set of features like cats for example. Over time, deeper attributes, such as its internal composition, behavior and interaction with the world, or sound, may also become relevant. In contrast, the functional core hypothesis (Nelson, 1974) posits that children extract relationships among features to identify future category members without treating these features as defining. In this view, perceptual attributes like [four legs, tail, fur] act as identifiers rather than encapsulating the category’s essence. Both frameworks agree, however, that shared perceptual features facilitate identification and labeling, forming the foundation for the well-studied shape bias Larissa K. Samuelson & Smith (2000).

What does “hammer” mean to a toddler? One possibility is that “hammer” refers to other hammer-shaped objects. The *shape bias* is the tendency to generalize objects names by their shape, rather than other properties. The presence of a shape bias is argued to facilitate early noun acquisition, to be an important route to vocabulary growth, and to be weaker in children with language delay (Susan S. Jones, 2003; JONES & SMITH, 2005; Smith, Jones, Landau, Gershkoff-Stowe, &

Samuelson, 2002; Tek, Jaffery, Fein, & Naigles, 2008; Tek & Naigles, 2017). The shape bias is typically measured using word extension tasks, in which children are taught a novel label for an object and then tested on their ability to extend it to other objects. Yet although the shape bias is found robustly in such tasks, there is still substantial variation in when, and at what magnitude, the shape bias is detected (Abdelrahim & Frank, 2024; Kucker et al., 2019). This variation plays a key role in differentiating between theoretical accounts of the origins of this bias.

Although one possibility is that the shape bias is a universal constraint on generalization, robust evidence suggests cross-cultural variation, casting doubt on this explanation. For example, speakers of East Asian languages like Mandarin and Japanese demonstrate less reliance on shape when extending nouns compared to English speakers in the United States (Gathercole & Min, 1997; Imai & Gentner, 1997; Larissa K. Samuelson & Smith, 1999; Smith, Colunga, & Yoshida, 2003; Nancy N. Soja, Carey, & Spelke, 1991; Subrahmanyam & Chen, 2006; Yoshida & Smith, 2003b). Two key hypotheses attempt to explain these differences. First, differences in linguistic structure, such as count-mass syntax in English versus classifier systems in East Asian languages, might influence the prevalence of the shape bias (Imai & Gentner, 1997; Larissa K. Samuelson, Horst, Schutte, & Dobbertin, 2008; Nancy N. Soja et al., 1991; Nancy N. Soja, Carey, & Spelke, 1992). Second, variations in lexical and environmental statistical regularities tunes attention toward features like shape. This hypothesis emphasizes the role of existing vocabulary and environmental exposure in guiding category organization (Colunga & Smith, 2000; Gershkoff-Stowe & Smith, 2004; Jara-Ettinger, Levy, Sakel, Huanca, & Gibson, 2022; Perry, Samuelson, Malloy, & Schiffer, 2010; Larissa K. Samuelson, 2002, 2005; Larissa K. Samuelson & Smith, 1999; Yoshida & Smith, 2003a).

A second key question is the mechanism or representation underlying the shape bias. While the tendency to extend nouns based on shape may be influenced by syntax or statistical regularities, its precise cognitive basis has been controversial [Smith et al. (2002); Smith, Colunga, & Yoshida (2010); Smith, Jones, & Landau (1996); Brady & Chun, 2007; Chun & Jiang, 1998; Larissa K. Samuelson & Perone (2010); Ware & Booth (2010); A. Booth & Waxman (2006) ; Susan S. Jones & Smith (1993); L. Samuelson & Horst (2008);

Bruner (1964)]. Two competing perspectives attempt to explain this mechanism. One possibility is that the shape bias is an associative (non-strategic) mechanism, driven by perceptual features that guide children to perceptual attributes associated with category labels [Smith et al. (2002); Smith et al. (2010); Smith et al. (1996); Brady & Chun, 2007; Chun & Jiang, 1998]. Alternatively, the shape bias may be a strategic and conceptually-controlled mechanism, governed by general world knowledge and conceptual understanding; on this (A. E. Booth & Waxman, 2002; A. Booth, Waxman, & Huang, 2005). In this view, the bias is a heuristic whose magnitude might vary when the context of the generalization requires the child to attend to other features, such as the object's function or material.

Thus, variability in the shape bias is a key source of constraint on theories of its origins. However, the sources of this variability remain unclear. A recent study used statistical meta-analysis to estimate the effect size of the shape bias across 40 studies, finding a large average effect (0.8 standard deviations) (Abdelrahim & Frank, 2024). However, effects varied widely across seemingly similar studies, and the vast majority of the variance in the data remained unexplained by moderators such as age or language. One possibility is that methodological differences across studies contribute to the observed variation. For example, task format, stimuli design, and participant characteristics might influence the magnitude of the shape bias. In this paper, we explore the role of methodological factors in shaping the shape bias, using a series of experiments that systematically manipulate object properties and examine their effects on children's generalization.

Word extension studies typically teach children a novel label for a novel object, and then test them on the ability to extend it to other objects that share features like shape, or material with the target object. But these tasks vary in their dependent measure and their stimuli. With respect to dependent measures, children are typically either asked to make a forced choice between possible extensions, requiring a choice of the best generalization, or are asked to perform yes/no endorsement of different possible extensions, allowing multiple exemplars to be judged similar to the target (Landau et al., 1988). Some paradigms also allow children to reject all options. It is not yet clear how different tasks affect performance. For example, allowing children to select "none of those" reduces shape bias, especially with complex objects (Cimpian & Markman, 2005).

The second major methodological variation in the word extension findings comes from differences in stimuli. The key dimension of variation is the alternative possible dimensions of generalization beyond shape. Some studies contrast shape and other perceptual features, such as color or material, using stimuli designed to highlight these attributes. On the other hand, studies investigating conceptual understanding often include cues related to animacy, such as eyes, shoes, or other salient features, and use test objects that share multiple dimensions with the exemplar instead of only one (Susan S. Jones

& Smith, 1998; Yoshida & Smith, 2003b). When functionality is emphasized, stimuli are often paired with demonstrations of an affordance, stories, or narratives to contrast shape with function. Children aged 2 to 5 years are found to prioritize shape, even when provided with functional information (Centner, 2003; Graham, Williams, & Huber, 1999; Landau & Jones, 1998; Merriman, Scott, & Marazita, 1993). However, conflicting evidence shows children sometimes prioritize function or other cues (Kemler Nelson, 1995; Gelman & Medin, 1993; etc.). In addition, some studies use pictures or drawings, while others use physical objects (cite).

Our goal in the current study is to evaluate procedural sources of variability as part of a larger scale assessment of word generalization across age groups and languages. We used a within-subject design to maximize precision in estimating condition differences. We also aim to measure developmental change by recruiting a sample size large enough to estimate age-related change. In Experiment 1, we began by measuring developmental change in the shape bias. In Experiment 2, we manipulated the presence of alternative generalization items that shared function but not shape with the target object. Across both studies, we observed a robust shape bias that increased with age; preliminary data from Experiment 2 yielded no evidence that function information reduced the shape bias.

## Experiment 1

### Methods

**Participants** Twenty four typically developing English speaking participants (2-5 years old, mean=44.05, SD=15.29) were recruited from a local nursery school and children's museum in the US (preregistration link).

**Materials** To investigate children's reasoning about objects' properties and functions, a series of object sets were designed, each containing one exemplar, a material match, a shape match, a function match (used in Experiment 2), and a distractor (e.g., dax, fep, blicket, gorp, zimbo, wap, blint). Example objects are shown in Figure 1.

To investigate children's reasoning about objects' properties and functions, a series of object sets were designed, each containing one exemplar, a material match, a shape match, a function match, and a distractor (e.g., dax, fep, blicket, gorp, zimbo, wap, blint). These sets allowed for systematic manipulation of object features to assess various cognitive processes related to word learning and category generalization. In Experiment 1, the shape match was contrasted with a material match. This served as a baseline check and replication of prior findings regarding shape bias in categorization tasks. In Experiment 2, the same exemplar was used, but the shape match was contrasted with a function match.

The function test object was modified in a way that preserved its shape but altered its functionality (e.g., an object wrapped entirely vs. one that could clearly open). Color was excluded across all objects to ensure that visual similarity was driven solely by shape, material, and functional cues.

Exemplar	Shape match	Function (fx)	fx involves:
		holds small toys	whole structure
		scoops sand	part of the structure
		makes a heart	part of the structure
		holds water	reasoning about material
		grabs toys	reasoning about material

Figure 1: Examples of stimuli objects used in both experiments

Objects were crafted to explore how children reason about similarity based on whole-object vs. part-based features (e.g., whether specific parts afford a function). Some objects, such as the “fep,” “blint,” and “wap,” were designed with material-critical functions (e.g., holding water while made of a paper towel). This design tested whether children could prioritize material when reasoning about function and to capture the developmental changes. The degree to which object affordances were visually apparent varied across designs. For example, the “zimbo” was designed to afford functionality only through a specific part, while the overall structure was irrelevant. The “gorp” was modeled to resemble objects familiar to slightly older children, like scissors, allowing exploration of prior experiences’ influence on categorization.

**Procedure** On each trial, the child was shown an object, which was labeled with the phrase “this is a [X]”. The object was moved away from the child remained in view, and both test objects and the distractor were displayed simultaneously while asking the child “can you find another [X] by pointing to it?”. The child gets to hear the label 3 times while viewing it without touching it. Each child saw seven trials.

## Results

Participants showed an overall shape bias across all trials (shape: 61%, material: 30%, distractor: 9%). Figure 2 shows a developmental shift to choose by shape by age 3, replicating what is seen previously in the literature.

To quantify these trends, we fit a generalized logistic mixed

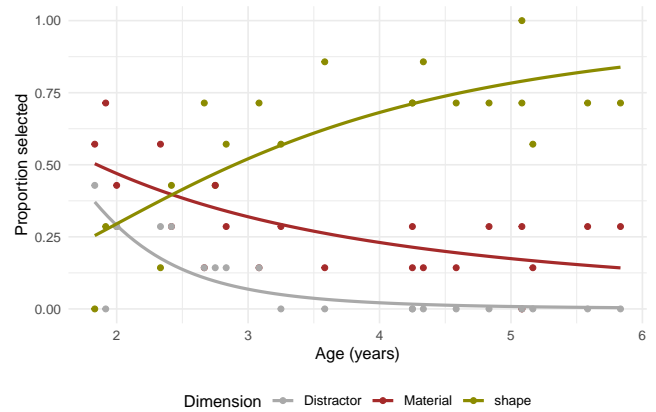


Figure 2: Developmental trend of choosing by each dimension. Smoothed lines are standard error

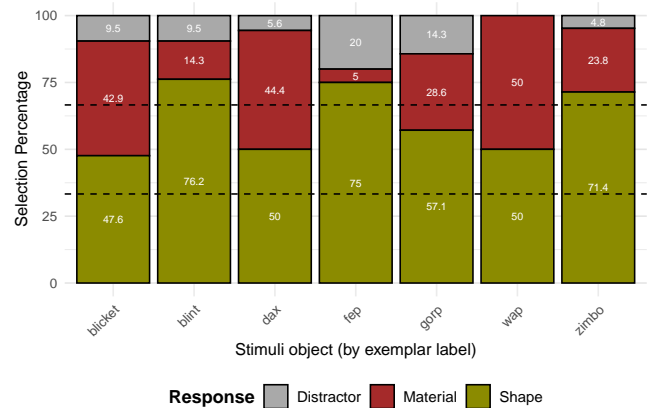


Figure 3: Percentage of choosing by dimension per stimuli item, indicated by its novel label (aggregate across participants). Dashed line is chance level = 33.3%

effects model predicting the binary outcome of choosing by shape for each trial by each child. We included random intercepts at the level of both participants and stimuli objects. The average intercept odds of choosing by shape were 0.11 (odds of 0.11:1 at the mean age,  $p = < .001$ ), with a significant increase in odds of 1.06 per unit increase in age ( $p = < .001$ ). The model also shows variability at the item-level intercept (variance = 0.11, SD = 0.32) across 7 unique items (standardlabel groups).

## Discussion

Even in a small sample of children between 2 and 5 years of age, data from this experiment confirmed the robustness of the shape bias. Although it is not clear why children below age 3 chose more by material, there was variability at the item level such that for three objects we saw above chance material choices when collapsing across ages.

## Experiment 2

After replicating the shape bias effect using our stimulus set, our next experiment explores the role of functional explanations in moderating the shape bias. We compared two conditions: first, where shape is only contrasted with material without any additional information; second, where shape is contrasted with function after demonstrating the function for the exemplar. We also substantially increased our planned sample size for this study.

### Methods

**Participants** 31 (target  $n=96$ , 24 per each age group) participants between 2-5 years old (mean=48.22,  $SD=5.54$ ,  $n$  per age group) were recruited from a local nursery school in the US.

**Procedure** A within subject manipulation with two conditions: material or function. The material condition is identical to the first experiment. In the function condition, the experimenter introduce the exemplar object “this is a dax”, gives the child 15 seconds to play with it, provides functional information “the dax grapes toys”, gives another 15 seconds to play with it, and puts the toy away but within view, before introducing the test objects and asks for a response.

### Preliminary results and discussion

Similar to what is conveyed in Figure 4, a generalized logistic mixed-effects model (GLMM) showed a lower baseline odds of the shape bias in the material condition compared to the function, and the odds ratio increases with age. In addition, random effects indicate variability in intercepts across participants ( $SD = 0.22$ ) and across items ( $SD = 1.38$ ) for 31 participants and 7 items as in Figure 5. (Notably, the confidence intervals show uncertainty “include 0”, however data collection is still ongoing.)

### General Discussion

The word extension and category organization literature is highly heterogeneous. Studies in this domain lack an integrative and commensurable design, which hinders our ability to draw consistent conclusions. To achieve a more accurate measurement of category organization and concept learning, we need a reliable and valid range set of stimuli objects, consistent task formats and test designs, as well as multi-site cross-cultural experiments unified across laboratories to maximally account for the variability. Our evaluation of the word extension literature reveals that making procedural decisions, which we think are likely a primary source of unexplained variability, is unattainable without running a series of controlled experiments that would allow us to systematically assess how different designs and stimuli covary with response patterns.

In our preliminary results, we see a tendency to generalize by shape, even in conditions designed to make function salient. This suggests that, even with a potential saliency effect, where the trials highlighted functional information, it

failed to override the preference for shape-based choices. In addition, many children explored whether their chosen test object could perform the intended function after selecting it based on shape. This behavior implies that the shape-based selection might not reflect a disregard for functional information but rather a hypothesis that objects sharing shape might also share functionality (for example, in the case of the dax, which is a box with lid that you can use to store small toys, kids choose another box that is wrapped all over to indicate impossibility to open, and they still try to open it afterwards). Meanwhile, in the case of the (gorp), for which the function wasn't as ambiguous (scooping sand requires the structure of the object to have two parts that can split and then close to hold sand inside), in this case the test object was designed in a way that makes it very clear to not open, hence they went for the function test choice (see supplementary material). For evaluating the children's ability to reason about intrinsic affordances, we created the “Fep” in a way such that the material itself is very critical for performing the function “holding water while being made of paper towel”. We believe all these structural differences between objects can explain part of the variation when we have enough data to fit the model.

As we mentioned in the introduction, procedural variation observed in the literature have followed theoretical debates and in fact reinforced by them. We think this endeavor is one step towards achieving validity and reliability in word extension tasks, as well as discussing theoretical implications that follow (Madole & Oakes (1999)). To illustrate, the definition of the shape bias construct as a word extension strategy has been ambiguous and it is also influenced by theoretical framing. For example, if it is a product of different contingencies and statistical regularities, it would make sense from a signal detection point of view, to predict that it will have a graded degree between population, individuals, and items. Hence, analyzing data on an aggregate level across all these dimensions hasn't helped advancing our understanding of cross cultural differences at a theoretical level. We believe, providing a quantifiable assessment of data across items, individuals, and building upon that across cultures, will be the only way to resolve these issues.

### References

- Abdelrahim, S., & Frank, M. C. (2024, September). Examining the robustness and generalizability of the shape bias: A meta-analysis. PsyArXiv. <https://doi.org/10.31234/osf.io/3by54>
- Baldwin, D. A. (1992). Clarifying the role of shape in children's taxonomic assumption. *Journal of Experimental Child Psychology*, 54 3, 392–416. Retrieved from <https://api.semanticscholar.org/CorpusID:29725812>
- Booth, A. E., & Waxman, S. R. (2002). Word learning is “smart”: Evidence that conceptual information affects preschoolers' extension of novel words. *Cognition*, 84(1), B11–B22. <https://doi.org/10.1016/>

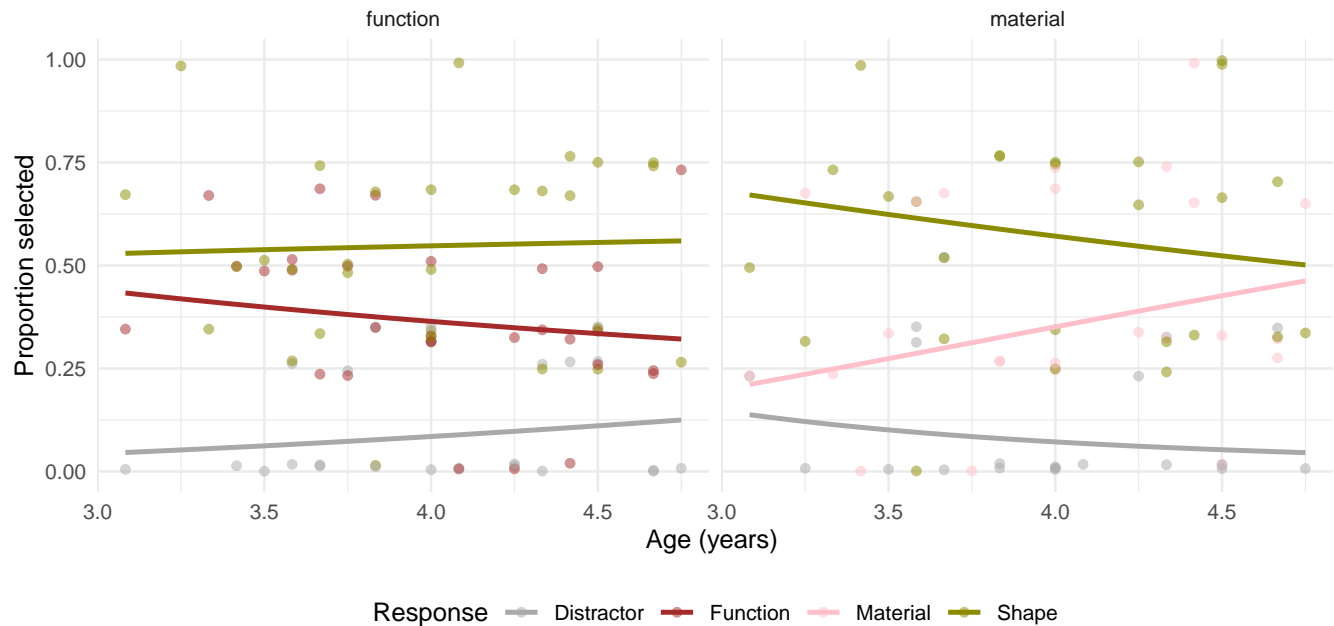


Figure 4: Experiment 2, function vs. no function condition. Smoothed lines are standard error. Distractor is no match at all. Data points are individual participants. Children choose by shape more, even when function information is made salient.

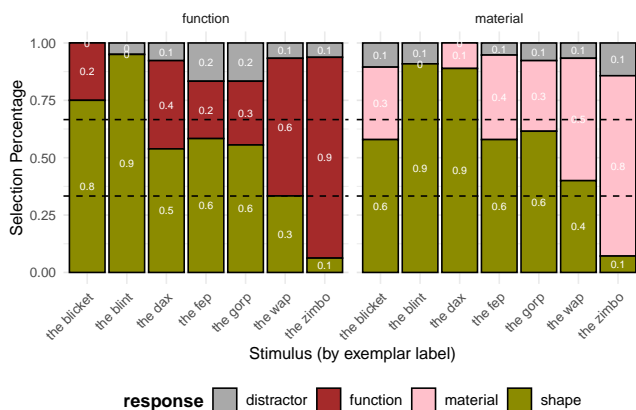


Figure 5: Experiment 2, proportion of choosing by each dimension per exemplar item, indicated by its novel label (aggregate across participants). Dashed line is chance level = 33.3%. We note variability across items.

S0010-0277(02)00015-X

- Booth, A., & Waxman, S. (2006). Déjà vu all over again: Re-visiting the conceptual status of early word learning: Comment on smith and samuelson (2006). *Developmental Psychology*, 42, 1344–6. <http://doi.org/10.1037/0012-1649.42.6.1344>
- Booth, A., Waxman, S., & Huang, Y. (2005). Conceptual information permeates word learning in infancy. *Developmental Psychology*, 41(3), 491–505. <http://doi.org/10.1037/0012-1649.41.3.491>

- Bruner, J. S. (1964). The course of cognitive growth. *American Psychologist*, 19, 1–15. Retrieved from <https://api.semanticscholar.org/CorpusID:145196722>
- Centner, D. (2003). On relational meaning : The acquisition of verb meaning. In. Retrieved from <https://api.semanticscholar.org/CorpusID:7539638>
- Cimpian, A., & Markman, E. M. (2005). The absence of a shape bias in children's word learning. *Developmental Psychology*, 41(6), 1003.
- Clark, E. V. (1973). WHAT'S IN a WORD? ON THE CHILD'S ACQUISITION OF SEMANTICS IN HIS FIRST LANGUAGE. In. Retrieved from <https://api.semanticscholar.org/CorpusID:60874322>
- Colunga, E., & Smith, L. B. (2000). Learning to learn words: A cross-linguistic study of the shape and material biases. In *Proceedings of the 24th annual boston university conference on language development* (Vol. 1, pp. 197–207).
- Gathercole, V. C. M., & Min, H. (1997). Word meaning biases or language-specific effects? Evidence from English, Spanish and Korean. *First Language*, 17(51), 031–56. <http://doi.org/10.1177/014272379701705102>
- Gershkoff-Stowe, L., & Smith, L. B. (2004). Shape and the first hundred nouns. *Child Development*, 75(4), 1098–1114.
- Graham, S. A., & Diesendruck, G. (2010). Fifteen-month-old infants attend to shape over other perceptual properties in an induction task. *Cognitive Development*, 25(2), 111–123. <http://doi.org/10.1016/j.cogdev.2009.06.002>
- Graham, S. A., & Poulin-Dubois, D. (1999). Infants' reliance on shape to generalize novel labels to animate and

- inanimate objects. *Journal of Child Language*, 26, 295–320. Retrieved from <https://api.semanticscholar.org/CorpusID:43424185>
- Graham, S. A., Williams, L. D., & Huber, J. F. (1999). Preschoolers' and adults' reliance on object shape and object function for lexical extension. *Journal of Experimental Child Psychology*, 74(2), 128–151. <http://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1006/jecp.1999.2514>
- Imai, M., & Gentner, D. (1997). A cross-linguistic study of early word meaning: Universal ontology and linguistic influence. *Cognition*, 62(2), 169–200.
- Imai, M., Gentner, D., & Uchida, N. (1994). Children's theories of word meaning: The role of shape similarity in early acquisition. *Cognitive Development*, 9(1), 45–75. [http://doi.org/10.1016/0885-2014\(94\)90019-1](http://doi.org/10.1016/0885-2014(94)90019-1)
- Jara-Ettinger, J., Levy, R., Sakel, J., Huanca, T., & Gibson, E. (2022). The origins of the shape bias: Evidence from the tsimane'. *Journal of Experimental Psychology: General*.
- Jones, Susan S. (2003). Late talkers show no shape bias in a novel name extension task. *Developmental Science*, 6(5), 477–483. <http://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1111/1467-7687.00304>
- Jones, Susan S., & Smith, L. B. (1993). The place of perception in children's concepts. *Cognitive Development*, 8(2), 113–139. [http://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1016/0885-2014\(93\)90008-S](http://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1016/0885-2014(93)90008-S)
- Jones, Susan S., & Smith, L. B. (1998). How children name objects with shoes. *Cognitive Development*, 13(3), 323–334. [http://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1016/S0885-2014\(98\)90014-4](http://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1016/S0885-2014(98)90014-4)
- JONES, S. S., & SMITH, L. B. (2005). Object name learning and object perception: A deficit in late talkers. *Journal of Child Language*, 32(1), 223–240. <http://doi.org/10.1017/S0305000904006646>
- Kucker, S. C., Samuelson, L. K., Perry, L. K., Yoshida, H., Colunga, E., Lorenz, M. G., & Smith, L. B. (2019). Reproducibility and a unifying explanation: Lessons from the shape bias. *Infant Behavior & Development*, 54, 156–165. Retrieved from <https://api.semanticscholar.org/CorpusID:53045726>
- Landau, B., & Jones, S. (1998). Object shape, object function, and object name. *Journal of Memory and Language - J MEM LANG*, 38, 1–27. <http://doi.org/10.1006/jmla.1997.2533>
- Landau, B., Smith, L. B., & Jones, S. S. (1988). The importance of shape in early lexical learning. *Cognitive Development*, 3(3), 299–321. [http://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1016/0885-2014\(88\)90014-7](http://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1016/0885-2014(88)90014-7)
- Madole, K. L., & Oakes, L. M. (1999). Making sense of infant categorization: Stable processes and changing representations. *Developmental Review*, 19(2), 263–296. <http://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1006/drev.1998.0481>
- Merriman, W. E., Scott, P. D., & Marazita, J. (1993). An appearance-function shift in children's object naming. *Journal of Child Language*, 20(1), 101–118. <http://doi.org/10.1017/S0305000900009144>
- Nelson, K. (1974). Concept, word, and sentence: Interrelations in acquisition and development. *Psychological Review*, 81, 267–285. Retrieved from <https://api.semanticscholar.org/CorpusID:143965074>
- Perry, L. K., Samuelson, L. K., Malloy, L. M., & Schiffer, R. N. (2010). Learn locally, think globally: Exemplar variability supports higher-order generalization and word learning. *Psychological Science*, 21(12), 1894–1902.
- Samuelson, Larissa K. (2002). Statistical regularities in vocabulary guide language acquisition in connectionist models and 15-20-month-olds. *Developmental Psychology*, 38(6), 1016–1037. <http://doi.org/10.1037/0012-1649.38.6.1016>
- Samuelson, Larissa K. (2005). Statistical regularities in vocabulary guide language acquisition in connectionist models and 15-20-month-olds. *Developmental Psychology*, 38(6), 1016–1037. <http://doi.org/10.1037/0012-1649.38.6.1016>
- Samuelson, Larissa K., Horst, J. S., Schutte, A. R., & Dobbertin, B. N. (2008). Rigid thinking about deformables: Do children sometimes overgeneralize the shape bias? *Journal of Child Language*, 35(3), 559–589.
- Samuelson, Larissa K., & Perone, S. (2010). Rethinking conceptually-based inference — grounding representation in task and behavioral dynamics: Commentary on “fifteen-month-old infants attend to shape over other perceptual properties in an induction task,” by s. Graham and g. Diesendruck, and “form follows function: Learning about function helps children learn about shape,” by e. Ware and a. booth. *Cognitive Development*, 25(2), 138–148. <http://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cogdev.2010.02.002>
- Samuelson, Larissa K., & Smith, L. B. (1999). Early noun vocabularies: Do ontology, category structure and syntax correspond? *Cognition*, 73(1), 1–33.
- Samuelson, Larissa K., & Smith, L. B. (2000). Children's attention to rigid and deformable shape in naming and non-naming tasks. *Child Development*, 71(6), 1555–1570.
- Samuelson, L., & Horst, J. (2008). Shape bias special section: Confronting complexity: Insights from the details of behavior over multiple timescales. *Developmental Science*, 11, 209–15. <http://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-7687.2007.00667.x>
- Smith, L. B., Colunga, E., & Yoshida, H. (2003). Making an ontology: Cross-linguistic evidence. In. Retrieved from <https://api.semanticscholar.org/CorpusID:195941919>
- Smith, L. B., Colunga, E., & Yoshida, H. (2010). Knowledge as process: Contextually cued attention and early word learning. *Cognitive Science*, 34(7), 1287–1314. <http://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1551-6709.2010.01130.x>

- Smith, L. B., Jones, S. S., & Landau, B. (1996). Naming in young children: A dumb attentional mechanism? *Cognition*, 60, 143–171. Retrieved from <https://api.semanticscholar.org/CorpusID:18659784>
- 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. <http://doi.org/10.1111/1467-9280.00403>
- Soja, Nancy N., Carey, S., & Spelke, E. S. (1991). Ontological categories guide young children's inductions of word meaning: Object terms and substance terms. *Cognition*, 38(2), 179–211.
- Soja, Nancy N., Carey, S., & Spelke, E. S. (1992). Perception, ontology, and word meaning. *Cognition*, 45(1), 101–107. [http://doi.org/10.1016/0010-0277\(92\)90025-D](http://doi.org/10.1016/0010-0277(92)90025-D)
- Subrahmanyam, K., & Chen, H.-H. N. (2006). A crosslinguistic study of children's noun learning: The case of object and substance words. *First Language*, 26(2), 141–160. <http://doi.org/10.1177/0142723706060744>
- Tek, S., Jaffery, R., Fein, D., & Naigles, L. (2008). Do children with autism show a shape bias in word learning? *Autism Research : Official Journal of the International Society for Autism Research*, 1, 208–22. <http://doi.org/10.1002/aur.38>
- Tek, S., & Naigles, L. (2017). The shape bias as a word-learning principle: Lessons from and for autism spectrum disorder. *Translational Issues in Psychological Science*, 3, 94–103. <http://doi.org/10.1037/tps0000104>
- Ware, E. A., & Booth, A. E. (2010). Form follows function: Learning about function helps children learn about shape. *Cognitive Development*, 25(2), 124–137. <http://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cogdev.2009.10.003>
- Yoshida, H., & Smith, L. B. (2003a). Known and novel noun extensions: Attention at two levels of abstraction. *Child Development*, 74(2), 564–577.
- Yoshida, H., & Smith, L. B. (2003b). Shifting ontological boundaries: How japanese- and english-speaking children generalize names for animals and artifacts. *Developmental Science*, 6(1), 1–17. [http://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1111/1467-7687.00247/\\_1](http://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1111/1467-7687.00247/_1)