Selection of goal-consistent acoustic environments by adults and preschool-aged children

Rondeline M. Williams (rondeline.williams@stanford.edu) and **Michael C. Frank (mcfrank@stanford.edu)**
Department of Psychology, Stanford University, Stanford, CA 94305 USA

Abstract

Children are navigating a world with massive amounts of auditory input, sometimes relevant while other times purely noise, and must somehow make sense of it all. The early auditory environment is critical for speech perception and recognition, auditory discrimination, and word learning, all of which support language outcomes. What strategies do children use to learn in noisy environments? One potential strategy is environmental selection, which allows children to seek environments that align with particular goals. In the current paper, we examined whether children and adults make decisions about their environments by integrating auditory information and goal-states. While 3- and 4-year olds struggle with discrmininating the level of noise in noisy speech streams (and likely do not use this information for environmental selection), 5-year-old children and adults can. Further, we show initial evidence that they can use this information to reason about acoustic environments that are consistent with specific goals.

Keywords: active learning; auditory discrimination; auditory noise; cognitive development

Introduction

Children's auditory environment supports language development, but this environment can also be noisy and chaotic. Acoustic noise is ubiquitous and unavoidable, from sounds as low as a whisper (30dB) to as high as crowded restaurants (90dB) (Erickson & Newman, 2017). Children struggle with speech perception and word recognition in noisy environments, and often require signal-to-noise (SNR) levels of 5-7dB higher than adults listening to the same stimulus (Bjorklund & Harnishfeger, 1990; Klatte, Bergström, & Lachmann, 2013). Despite this, children manage to make sense of such a noisy world.

More than 20 million children living in the United States are exposed to dangerous noise levels daily, and 5 million of those children suffer from noise-induced hearing loss as a result (Viet, Dellarco, Dearborn, & Neitzel, 2014). Unfortunately, children of color living in urban regions are over-represented in these numbers (Casey et al., 2017). Chronic exposure to noise has been correlated with poorer reading performance, reduced short term and episodic memory, and smaller expressive vocabularies in elementary school children (Clark, Sörqvist, & others, 2012; Hygge, 2019; Riley & McGregor, 2012). Yet despite suboptimal conditions, language acquisition, cognitive development, and full engagement with the environment is still possible, albeit more difficult. What strategies do children use in these conditions?

One observation is that children's attention or discrimination abilities may shift when faced with suboptimal auditory patterns, even if this causes deleterious long- term outcomes. For example, Cohen, Glass, & Singer (1973) measured the sound pressure levels in and around a noisy Manhattan high-rise apartment complex where 8- and 9-year-old middle class students lived, and then asked how this chronic noise exposure related to reading performance. Auditory discrimination mediated the relationship between reading comprehension/ability and auditory noise, such that children exposed to higher levels of auditory noise in the home not only filtered out the noise, but also filtered out important information that may support reading ability. Because children were indiscriminately filtering out both acoustic signal and noise, this strategy might be considered maladaptive over time- one that primarily affects children exposed to chronic noise.

It is possible, however, that children can and do make use of adaptive strategies under acoustic constraints. Consider a problem space in which children learn to optimize their auditory environments to successfully complete certain goals. For example, a child might find that reading is best done in a library, not just because of its convention (because libraries function as places to read/check out books), but because it is a quiet space. Such a strategy might allow children to exploit environmental variation in noise to maximize their ability to learn in suboptimal or variable conditions. In the current paper, we asked whether preschool children can reason about their auditory environment and how it relates to specific goals.

Environmental selection of this type is a type of active learning, in which an agent makes choices to shape its own learning. The dominant approach to studying active learning has emphasized how learners approach individual stimuli (e.g., Settles, 2009). When faced with uncertainty, both human and machine systems can learn actively by choosing new stimuli to query that are informative with respect to the learner's current knowledge state (Castro et al., 2008). Infants, too, have been shown to use active learning strategies (Ruggeri, Swaboda, Sim, & Gopnik, 2019; see Xu, 2019 for review).

Although most active learning research has focused on stimulus selection, perhaps children and adults are engaging in active learning by also making decisions about the environments in which they learn. In practice, this behavior may

present itself as moving to a different room to study for an upcoming exam or playing in a room with other children who seem to be having the kind of fun you desire. We might expect humans to seek out environments that best support their goals, and observe this strategy even in young children.

In the current paper, we took a first step towards investigating whether children and adults actively select their auditory environment to achieve their goals. We conducted two experiments with both children and adults. Although our primary interest is whether and how children engage in environmental selection, we also collected adult samples to offer comparisons of how cognitively mature individuals might respond to these tasks. To ensure that the stimuli we use can be discriminated by children in our target ages, Experiments 1a and 1b investigate children and adults' auditory discrimination of noise in long speech streams. Experiments 2a and 2b then examine whether children and adults can select auditory environments that match a goal.

Experiment 1a

Previous research has consistently shown that adults can discriminate when two different sounds are at or below 5db apart, and children as young as four perform similarly to adults in discriminating contrasts as low as 5db (Jensen & Neff, 1993). However, the stimuli commonly used to measure intensity discrimination tend to be short tonal bursts. These differ considerably from children's real-world auditory experiences, which are not always transient and can reflect more sustained noise. Additionally, noise exposure is not limited to non-speech noise (e.g., white noise). Multi-talker noise is one initial example of a kind of noise that occurs in children's natural environments and that has been used across other studies as a more ecological noise stimulus (Fallon, Trehub, & Schneider, 2000; McMillan & Saffran, 2016). Thus, in our first experiment, we aimed to build on previous discrimination studies by creating a intensity discrimination and preference paradigm that used longer audio streams (up to 25s) and naturalistic multi-talker noise. This experiment (and its counterpart with children, Experiment 1b) sets the stage for further experiments on environmental selection.

Methods

Participants   A total of 40 adults (mean age = 27.68 years; 52.5% Caucasian/White) living in the United States at the time of test were recruited to participate via the online platform Prolific. Testing was restricted to a laptop, desktop, or tablet. All participants were fluent in English and had no severe visual or cognitive impairments. To preserve the quality of the data, participants also completed two attention check questions and were excluded if they failed one or more of the attention checks. For this reason, an additional 6 participants were excluded from analysis. Informed consent was collected from each participant before the experiment began.

Materials and Procedure   Participants were told that they would watch 25s animated videos from each of the ten class-

Figure 1: One of 10 animated classrooms participants viewed during the session.

rooms in The Alphabet School, a fictional preschool program in which each class learns one letter of the alphabet from A–J. Classrooms were created with Vyond animation software. Each classroom was depicted in the videos as having 5–6 preschool children and one adult teacher with stereotypical male or female presentation. The wall colors of each classroom identified which classroom participants were viewing. In each video, the teacher would tell the students which letter of the alphabet they would be learning, followed by three images on a whiteboard of animals or objects that begin with that letter. Figure 1 illustrates one of the ten classrooms shown during the session.

Participants viewed two videos per trial, for a total of five trials. Importantly, the classrooms differed in their signal-to-noise ratios (SNR), which ranged from 5–25dB. Each teacher's speech was registered at 65dB, and the background noise, a recording of live preschool classrooms collected by the first author, were equalized on speech subtracting any silence in the clips, and ranged from 35–60dB. The two videos for each trial differed from each other in noise level by 5–25dB. At the end of each trial, participants indicated which classroom was the louder of the two. To understand how participants evaluated the referent of the question, we also asked at the end of the experiment whether the term "louder" [in the question, "Which room was louder- Room (X) or Room (Y)"] referred to the loudness of the speaker or the loudness of the background noise, but was not an exclusion criteria. The majority of participants – 33/40 – indicated the loudness of the background noise as the referent of the question. Additionally, to reduce participant inattention in the data, we included two attention check questions and excluded participants who answered at least one question incorrectly. SNR levels of each classroom were counterbalanced across trials and conditions. Because SNR is a relative measure, the relative intensity between stimuli was standardized across participants. While we do recognize potential differences in absolute intensity between participants, this difference alone likely has no significant bearing on the results presented here.

Results and Discussion

Given prior data, we expected that across SNR levels, adults would correctly identify relative differences in the auditory environments presented in this experiment (which served primarily as a comparison for Experiment 1b with children). We
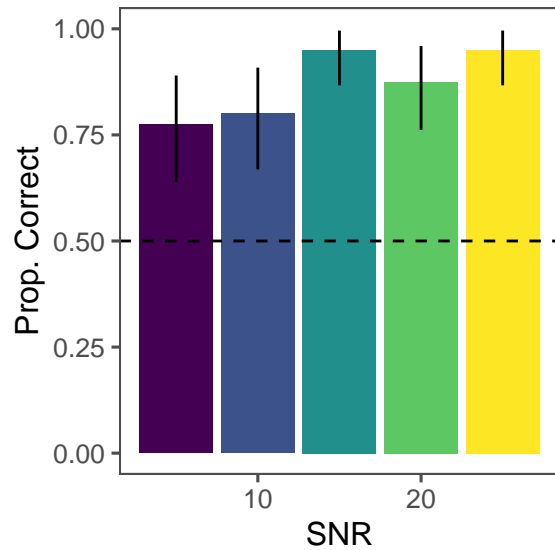
Figure 2: Results from Experiment 1a. Proportion of responses correctly indicating the stimuli with the greatest sound pressure level. Participants were presented with a binary choice and had a 50% chance of correctly responding. SNR levels on the x-axis ranged from (left to right) 5, 10, 15, 20, and 25dB. Error bars show 95% confidence intervals.

Figure 3: Experiment 1b. Proportion of correct responses across SNR levels from 5–25dB. Error bars show 95% confidence intervals.

preregistered [https://osf.io/tqay9] a Bayesian mixed-effects logistic regression predicting correct responding as a function of SNR, with a maximal random effect structure (random slopes by SNR and a random intercept by participant). SNR level was centered at 15 dB. In this and subsequent models, we used the package default of weakly informative priors (normal distributions on coefficients with SD=2.5, scaled to predictor magnitudes).

On average, adults were above chance across all five SNR levels (intercept: $\beta = 2.15$, 95% Crl = [1.66 - 2.88]), and there was a modest effect of SNR on performance (intercept: $\beta = 0.08$, 95% Crl = [0.01 - 0.16]). Data are shown in Figure 2.

This finding is both a replication of previous studies which have found similar performance levels in adults, as well as an extension that revealed these findings hold even with more complex stimuli. These results affirm adults' auditory discrimination skills are fully mature, and that they possess the cognitive resources necessary to successfully complete this task.

Experiment 1b

In Experiment 1b, we reran the same experiment with 3–5-year-old-children.

Methods

Participants   36 children (3;0 years-5;11 years, mean age = 4 years, 12 children per age group, 41.7% Caucasian/White) completed the same task as adults in Experiment 1a with a few notable differences. An additional 7 children were ultimately excluded from analysis because their caregivers indi-
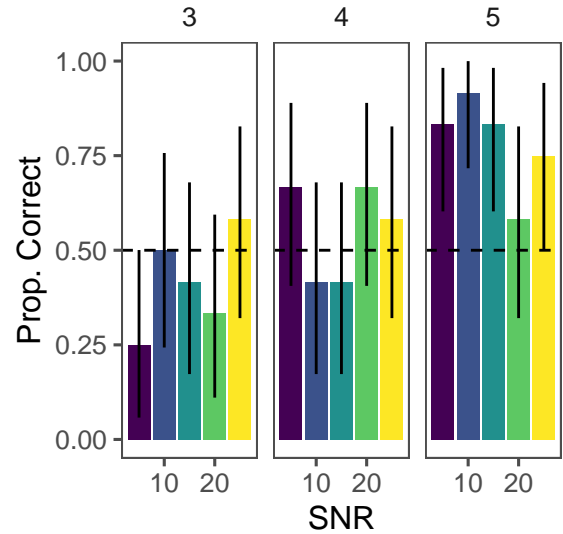
cated they heard English less than 75% of the time. Participants were recruited through online advertisements on social media and through direct sign-ups on a multi-lab developmental research website.

Materials and Procedure   Children were tested synchronously over the Zoom platform by an undergraduate research assistant. The researcher first collected informed consent from the caregiver, who was often present but instructed not to engage during the session, followed by assent from the child. Children whose caregivers pointed to the computer screen or provided answers during the session were excluded from analysis. Due to the age range of interest, the experiment was presented strictly though images and videos, and the research assistant verbally explained each slide to the children. Between trials, children were given virtual gold stars, which served to pace the experiment and to maintain engagement. Children were not provided any feedback on their performance. Unlike adults, children were not asked to identify whether the speaker or the background was the referent of "louder."

Results and Discussion

We anticipated that, while the strength of the effect would increase with age, all children would correctly identify relative differences in SNRs from 10–25dB, and that only three-year-old children would be unable to correctly identify this difference at 5dB. We ran the same Bayesian logistic regression presented in Experiment 1a, but added age (centered at the mean) as a main effect. Figure 3 demonstrates a similar, though weaker, pattern of auditory discrimination skills in preschool children. In the aggregate, 3–5-year-old children showed some discrimination ability on the current paradigm (intercept : $\beta = -4.52$, Crl = [-6.77 - -2.42]), but independent

of SNR (intercept : β = 0.14, Crl = [-0.14 - 0.42]).

Age played a larger role in children's performance than we anticipated. To explore this effect, we binned the data by the child's age in years [3;0-3;11, 4;0-4;11, and 5;0-5;11 years] and reran the same analysis. Older children were more likely to correctly discriminate auditory signals than younger children (intercept : β = -3.14, Crl = [-4.94 - -1.47]).

Our findings differed from prior results in that only 5 year olds appeared to be robustly above chance in discrimination. There are several possible reasons for this disparity. First, as described earlier, this task is much more challenging than prior rapid discrimination tasks: it requires assessing the level of noise in a video, remembering it, and comparing it to another over the course of almost a minute. Additionally, the type of stimuli presented here differs from the tonal bursts or other non-speech sounds used in earlier work.

Experiment 2a

If 5-year-old participants can successfully discriminate between sound pressure levels, can they then use this information to reason about which goals are most appropriate in these environments? In our next set of experiments, we assessed this hypothesis. Participants watched a video of a third-person character with several goals and were asked to select the environment in which he should complete these goals. As in Experiment 1, we began by assessing performance in a convenience sample of adults.

Methods

Participants 128 adults (mean age = 27.82 years; 69.5% Caucasian/White) living in the United States at the time of test were recruited to participate via the online platform, Prolific. An additional 19 participants were excluded from analysis for failing one or more of the attention checks. Testing was restricted to a laptop, desktop, or tablet. All participants were fluent in English and had no severe visual or cognitive impairments. Informed consent was collected from each participant before the experiment began.

Materials and Procedure Participants were introduced to a preschool-aged character named Ryan with eight goals to complete throughout the experiment: (1) to read a book, (2) to build a tower out of blocks, (3) to learn the letters of the alphabet, (4) to paint a picture, (5) to dance to his favorite music, (6) to learn a new language called Zerpie, (7) to talk to a friend, and (8) to eat lunch. All activities had relatively simple explanations with the exception of (6). For this trial, participants were told that Ryan's new neighbor, Logan, speaks a rare language called Zerpie, a language he doesn't speak. Ryan wants to learn Zerpie so he can communicate with Logan.

In each of the eight trials, participants watched a video in which Ryan stood in between two closed doors labeled "A" and "B", respectively. Before the video began, participants were told to watch and listen carefully to decide which of the two rooms Ryan should go to in order to complete his goal.
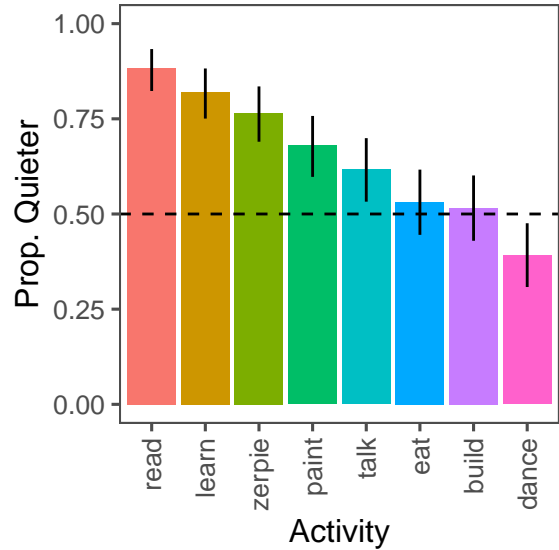

Figure 4: Experiment 2a. Proportion of participants selecting the quiet room based on activity, with activities sorted by response level.

As in Experiment 1, we manipulated the sound level of each room, but removed any classroom stimuli, including the teacher, and only depicted one child opening and standing in front of each door. As such, participants did not have access to any visual information about the room, and could only rely on auditory information, as well as any information provided by the character who opened the door. Each character's voice was equalized to 65dB and, unlike in Experiment 1, all characters shared the same voice. All characters except Ryan were preschool girls but differed in appearance. The same background noise in Experiment 1 was used for the current experiment. For each trial, the difference in SNR between the two rooms was randomly selected to be either 5, 10, 15, 20, or 25dB such that on average participants heard a range of smaller and larger intensity differences.

During the video, each character would open their respective door beginning with Room A. The character in Room A always said, "You can [goal] in this room", while the character in Room B always said, "Or you can [goal] in this room." While the room on the left was always labeled "A" and the room on the right was always labeled "B", the characters from and sound levels of each room, as well as goal order were counterbalanced across conditions.

For each trial, participants were told which goal Ryan wanted to complete and were asked to select the room that he should complete his goal. After making a selection, they were then asked to briefly explain their choice. Responses for the quieter room (relative to the other and based on the actual sound pressure level) were given a 1, while responses for the louder room were given a 0.

Results and Discussion

We expected that adults would select the quieter room when the goal was (1) to read a book, (2) to learn the new language called Zerpie, and (3) to learn the letters of the alphabet. We were uncertain but thought that some adults might be more likely to select the louder room when the goal was (1) to dance to his favorite music, (2) to talk to a friend, and (3) to build a tower out of blocks because these are more social activities and louder rooms might imply more people being present. Additionally, we expected participants to have no sound level preference for (1) eating lunch and (2) painting a picture because the goals are unconnected with the auditory environment.

As in Experiments 1a and 1b, we preregistered [https://osf.io/hjqys] a Bayesian mixed-effects logistic regression predicting environmental preference as a function of activity type. Figure 4 depicts adult participants' preferences for quieter environments based on the chosen activity. Coefficients for the read, learn, Zerpie, paint, and dance activities all had 95% credible intervals that did not overlap with zero. Interestingly, only for the dance activity did adults choose the louder room more than 50% of the time, likely reflecting some ambivalence about whether someone might want to, e.g., eat in a loud room.

In sum, these findings suggests adults can reason about the match between acoustic environments and activity goals.

Experiment 2b

In the next next study, we asked about whether children could also evaluate the match between acoustic environments and activity goals. Following the results of Experiment 1b, we conducted this experiment with 5-year-olds only.

Methods

Participants 30 5-year-old children (69.5% Caucasian/White) completed a truncated version of Experiment 2a to both prevent testing fatigue and to maximize any response differences based on the presented goals.

Participants were initially recruited and tested at a local Bay Area preschool but due to COVID restrictions, recruitment moved exclusively online. In total, 8 participants were tested in-person and 22 were tested online. The in-person testing was conducted with both caregiver consent and participant assent. As with the online testing, participants were included only if they heard English at home at least 75% of the time and had no known cognitive, visual, or neurological impairments, which led to an exclusion of an additional 8 children.

Materials and Procedure We tested children on the four activities with the widest differences observed in Experiment 2a: (1) to read a book, (2) to learn the letters of the alphabet, (3) to build a tower out of blocks, and (4) to dance to music, for a total of four trials. Additionally, participants in this experiment were only shown videos in which the two rooms had
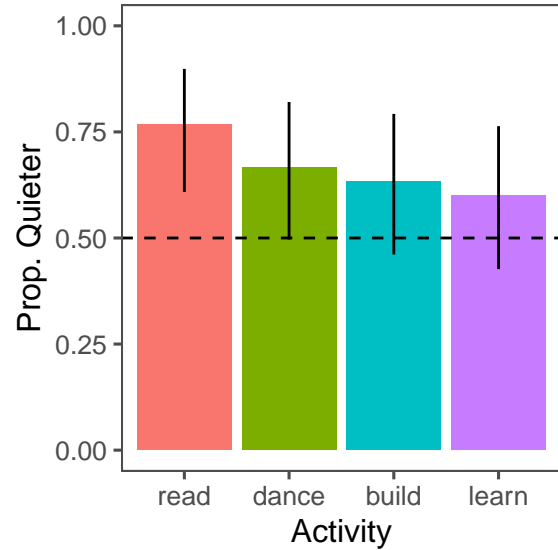

Figure 5: Experiment 2b. Proportion of participants selecting the quieter room by activity.

SNR differences of 25dB because there were no differences in performance across SNR levels in Experiment 1b.

Rooms and characters depicted in the videos remained consistent with Experiment 2a, with one exception: the room labels, "A" and "B", were replaced with one black circle for Room 1 and two black circles for Room 2. This change was implemented after finding that several participants in the pilot study seemed to favor the letter A over B, and because these letter labels may interfere with responses when the goal is to learn the letters of the alphabet. Black circle labels, on the other hand, are more abstract and may reduce this bias. As done previously, the characters, sound pressure levels, and goal order were counterbalanced across conditions.

Whether testing online or in-person, participants were shown the same set of videos and a research assistant (for online testing) or the first author (for in-person testing) verbally explained each slide and video to participants. After watching each video, participants were asked to select the room Ryan should complete his goal and to briefly explain their response. As in Experiment 2a, responses for the quieter room (relative to the other and based on the actual sound pressure level) were given a 1, while responses for the louder room were given a 0.

Results and Discussion

We expected to see a similar, though weaker, response pattern as adult participants in Experiment 2a. Figure 5 depicts children's preferences for quieter environments based on the chosen activity. We ran the same logistic regression as in Experiment 2a. Children were more likely than chance to select the quieter room for book reading (which was set to the intercept: $\beta = 1.56$, Crl = [0.49 - 3]), but credible intervals for the other activities overlapped zero, suggesting that they could not individually be differentiated from those for the read ac-

tivity. Overall, children appeared to have a preference for the quieter room across activities.

Children's preference across activities appeared different from those of adults. For example, adults strongly preferred to learn in a quiet room while children had numerically the lowest quiet preference for the learning activity. We speculate that children's associations with these activities may differ from those of adults: for example, many children may think of learning as something to be done in a noisy classroom setting.

As an exploratory analysis, we asked whether the inclusion of activity predictors as a whole improved model fit over an intercept-only model by using bridge sampling to compare between models with and without activity as a predictor. This comparison revealed a Bayes Factor of 27.64 in favor of the activity model, suggesting that as a whole these predictors did substantially improve model fit and hence children showed some sensitivity to goal in their room selections, despite their bias for the quieter room.

General Discussion

We asked here whether adults and children can reason about how acoustic noise changes their environment. We found that both 5-year-old children and adults could discriminate noise levels differing by 5dB in long-form auditory stimuli. On the other hand, 3- and 4-year-old children were unable to do so. We then asked whether 5-year-olds and adults would reason about which acoustic environments best matched a particular activity goal. Adults showed clear and graded sensitivity, choosing quieter environments for reading and learning and louder environments for dancing. Five-year-olds were more likely to select the quieter room overall but showed initial evidence that they differentiated between activities as well.

In other research, children in the age ranges we studied show evidence that they learn actively (Ruggeri et al., 2019; Xu, 2019), pursue ways to reduce uncertainty when faced with a possible reward (Feldstein & Witryol, 1971), and search for additional information on a particular topic when their intuitive theories are less informative (Wang, Yang, Macias, & Bonawitz, 2021). Yet we found that younger children struggled even to differentiate environments with different levels of noise, and even 5-year-olds showed only modest sensitivity to the congruence between acoustic environments and goals. Each of these tasks may have been challenging for children for reasons unrelated to their sensitivity to the underlying constructs, however. The discrimination task required encoding and comparing noise levels across two different 25s videos, which might have been challenging for reasons of attention and memory. And the environmental selection task required noticing that the rooms differed in noise levels and encoding their noise levels as well as associating different noise levels with particular activities. Thus, in future work we intend to explore simpler and more naturalistic paradigms for evaluating children's environmental selection abilities.

There are several further limitations that point the way towards new experiments. First, our research relied on convenience samples and so our specific estimates are not broadly generalizable to other populations. Second, the paradigm used third-party scenarios where participants assisted someone else with achieving certain goals; it is still unknown whether children would make similar decisions if they themselves were given goals to complete. Finally, there is a possibility that participants' familiarity with the context of particular activities (e.g., that they have typically danced in a noisy preschool classroom) influenced their environmental preferences. Future work should explore novel activities where participants cannot rely on their current knowledge about which auditory environments are most optimal for each activity. By understanding the strategies children use to learn in noisy auditory environments, we might offer better solutions for those exposed to chronic noise, thereby mitigating some of its negative effects. Such mitigation is becoming more and more critical as cities become more populated (bringing construction with it) and auditory noise becomes even more unavoidable. Future studies will need to (1) explore the developmental trajectory of environmental selection, and (2) examine the boundaries of environmental selection by probing these questions with other goals and in other contexts (e.g. first-person settings). Investigating how children learn in noise will ultimately bring us closer to understanding how children can thrive across a wide range of environments.

References

Bjorklund, D. F., & Harnishfeger, K. K. (1990). The resources construct in cognitive development: Diverse sources of evidence and a theory of inefficient inhibition. *Developmental Review*, *10*(1), 48–71.

Casey, J. A., Morello-Frosch, R., Mennitt, D. J., Fristrup, K., Ogburn, E. L., & James, P. (2017). Race/ethnicity, socioeconomic status, residential segregation, and spatial variation in noise exposure in the contiguous united states. *Environmental Health Perspectives*, *125*(7), 077017.

Castro, R. M., Kalish, C., Nowak, R., Qian, R., Rogers, T., & Zhu, X. (2008). Human active learning. In *Advances in neural information processing systems* (pp. 241–248). Citeseer.

Clark, C., Sörqvist, P., & others. (2012). A 3 year update on the influence of noise on performance and behavior. *Noise and Health*, *14*(61), 292.

Cohen, S., Glass, D. C., & Singer, J. E. (1973). Apartment noise, auditory discrimination, and reading ability in children. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology*, *9*(5), 407–422.

Erickson, L. C., & Newman, R. S. (2017). Influences of background noise on infants and children. *Current Directions in Psychological Science*, *26*(5), 451–457.

Fallon, M., Trehub, S. E., & Schneider, B. A. (2000). Children's perception of speech in multitalker babble. *The Journal of the Acoustical Society of America*, *108*(6), 3023–3029.

Feldstein, J. H., & Witryol, S. L. (1971). The incentive value of uncertainty reduction for children. *Child Development*, 793–804.

Hygge, S. (2019). Noise and cognition in children.

Jensen, J. K., & Neff, D. L. (1993). Development of basic auditory discrimination in preschool children. *Psychological Science*, *4*(2), 104–107.

Klatte, M., Bergström, K., & Lachmann, T. (2013). Does noise affect learning? A short review on noise effects on cognitive performance in children. *Frontiers in Psychology*, *4*, 578.

McMillan, B. T., & Saffran, J. R. (2016). Learning in complex environments: The effects of background speech on early word learning. *Child Development*, *87*(6), 1841–1855.

Riley, K. G., & McGregor, K. K. (2012). Noise hampers children's expressive word learning.

Ruggeri, A., Swaboda, N., Sim, Z. L., & Gopnik, A. (2019). Shake it baby, but only when needed: Preschoolers adapt their exploratory strategies to the information structure of the task. *Cognition*, *193*, 104013.

Settles, B. (2009). Active learning literature survey.

Viet, S. M., Dellarco, M., Dearborn, D. G., & Neitzel, R. (2014). Assessment of noise exposure to children: Considerations for the national children's study. *Journal of Pregnancy and Child Health*, *1*(1).

Wang, J., Yang, Y., Macias, C., & Bonawitz, E. (2021). Children with more uncertainty in their intuitive theories seek domain-relevant information. *Psychological Science*, *32*(7), 1147–1156.

Xu, F. (2019). Towards a rational constructivist theory of cognitive development. *Psychological Review*, *126*(6), 841.