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**Computational rationality and developmental neurodivergence**

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**Abstract**

The role of behaviour – choices, actions, and habits – in shaping neurodivergent development remains unclear. Here, we introduce computational rationality as a framework for understanding dynamic feedback between brain and behavioural development, and neurodevelopmental variation.

*Keywords:* computational rationality, developmental neurodivergence, decision theory, ontogenetic niche construction, probabilistic epigenesis

## Computational rationality and developmental neurodivergence

The search for the neurocognitive bases of conditions like **dyslexia** (see Glossary), **dyscalculia**, and **developmental language disorder (DLD)** is a central focus in developmental science. Despite the lessons of the transdiagnostic revolution, which highlights the complexity inherent in neurodevelopmental conditions and the limitations of **core-deficit hypotheses**, this literature remains fundamentally divided between causal accounts centred, for instance, on either auditory or visual perception, working memory, or statistical learning, each associated with a candidate neural substrate [1]. In contrast, behavioural contributions to neurodevelopmental differences remain understudied. There is, of course, acknowledgement that phenotypic variation is the product of **probabilistic epigenesis**, that is, the dynamic interaction between genetics, neural activity, behaviour, and the environment [2]. However, how a child's behaviour – their choices, actions, and habits – shapes neurodivergent development remains hard to define.

One way to understand how behaviour is not only influenced by but also influences neurodivergent child development is through **computational rationality**, which assumes that behaviours are optimized for achieving the highest expected utility subject to neurocognitive resource constraints [3]. Computational rationality inherits from a long tradition in **decision theory** that incorporates constraints to explain deviations from axiomatic rational behaviour (e.g., **bounded rationality**). It is this core theoretical focus on what best to do when faced with constraints, combined with a novel focus on neurocognitive information processing, that makes the computational rationality paradigm well suited to determining behavioural contributions to neurodevelopmental variation.

### The rational analysis of neurodivergent child behaviour

The description of neurodivergent child behaviour as 'rational' might appear counterintuitive. While neurotypical children tend to engage with stimuli about which they are uncertain, seemingly to maximise learning and reward, neurodivergent children often disengage from stimuli about which they are characteristically uncertain, or engage with them unconventionally. For a child with dyslexia, this might mean relying on whole-word recognition rather than letter-by-letter phonological decoding when reading [4]. For a child with dyscalculia, it might mean relying on counting rather than 'subitizing', including using visual aids like their fingers, to determine the number of items (e.g., dots) in a set [5]. And for a child with DLD it might mean relying on situational cues such as peer behaviour in order to decode spoken instructions, for instance those from a teacher [6]. These heuristics, which are sometimes termed **compensatory strategies**, may appear suboptimal because they do not always generalise well, perhaps leading to worse outcomes. Sight reading, for instance, may not support the accurate pronunciation of a novel word, and strategies used in a familiar environment (e.g., in parent-child interactions at home) might not be as effective elsewhere.

102           The computational rationality paradigm nevertheless interprets such behaviours not –  
103 as is common – in terms of ‘deficiency’ or ‘demotivation’, but instead as adaptive efforts to  
104 maximize utility given the individual’s neurocognitive makeup and the environment in which  
105 they find themselves. The claim here is that optimal decision-making about which information  
106 sources to attend to and which action policies to pursue occurs in the context of a limited-  
107 capacity attentional system and perceptual experience that is imprecise due to both exogenous  
108 noise and endogenous neurocognitive noise on a continuum from typical to severe [7,8] (Figure  
109 1A-B). When the expected cost of information processing is high, an implicit cost-benefit  
110 analysis may bias the child towards inferences and the selection of action policies with high  
111 prior probability and likewise towards heuristics that the child associates with relatively low  
112 information processing cost given their experience (Box 1; Figure 1C-F). Disengagement or  
113 unconventional engagement with text in dyslexia, numeric stimuli in dyscalculia, and speech  
114 in DLD may be understood as the outcomes of an implicit resource-rational trade-off of this  
115 kind – a trade-off that becomes increasingly habitual during early development.

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117           Computational rationality may explain hallmark neurodivergent behaviours including  
118 disengagement and defaulting to common visual or situational cues or frequent structures (e.g.,  
119 spellings, words, or syntax) and similarly to high probability action policies and heuristics  
120 when reading, using numbers, or listening to or producing speech [4–6]. Adaptive  
121 disengagement should also be considered in the context of **learning by thinking**, which plays  
122 a crucial role in early cognitive development [9]. That is, high expected information processing  
123 cost may reduce the likelihood of the child experimenting with a given class of stimuli (e.g.,  
124 numbers or language) through mental analogy and simulation in the absence of direct input,  
125 providing an additional obstacle to developing proficiency. Importantly, computational  
126 rationality is indifferent to diagnostic labels and to the broader neurotypical and neurodivergent  
127 distinction – the neurodivergent child is doing exactly what any rational agent would do:  
128 optimizing their finite resources to maximise expected utility within a limited time horizon [7].

### 129 130 **Adaptive disengagement as developmental niche construction**

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132           Collectively, adaptive disengagement behaviours attributable to neurocognitive  
133 constraints reflect the construction of a **developmental niche** that regulates pressures on the  
134 child because it is shaped to their abilities, needs, and preferences [10]. A consequence of this  
135 is that although disengagement behaviours may be optimal within a specific setting and short  
136 time horizon, they may not promote effective and generalisable long-term learning, and so may  
137 reinforce learning differences over time. Active disengagement or unconventional engagement  
138 with text, numeric stimuli, or speech, for instance, may contribute to the reinforcement of  
139 learning delays in dyslexia, dyscalculia, and DLD by precluding regular exposure to and  
140 practice with relevant stimuli (Figure 1C-E).

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142           Formalising this idea, we recently showed that an active agent-based model with a  
143 precision deficit – a proxy for primary neurocognitive constraints, the nature of which was  
144 bracketed out – adaptively disengaged from subjectively noisy stimuli [11] (Figure 1C-D). This

145 resulted in worse learning of stimuli affected by the precision deficit over time compared to a  
146 control model which had the same perceptual precision deficit, but which was programmed to  
147 engage equally with all of the information sources in its environment (Figure 1E). The capacity  
148 for variable engagement to shape a learning trajectory in this way has been described in terms  
149 of a Matthew effect [4] (because ‘the rich get richer’, and vice versa), and our treatment here  
150 in terms of computational rationality lends traction to this idea and highlights its transdiagnostic  
151 importance (Matthew effects have commonly been studied in dyslexia). However, though  
152 complementary, these frameworks are somewhat different. Literature citing the Matthew effect  
153 often centres on affective disengagement due to repeated failures to learn, in contrast to the  
154 idea developed here that adaptive disengagement may be an optimal policy.

155  
156 There is an important link here with the **perceptual narrowing** literature, which  
157 indicates that infants gradually lose sensitivity to perceptual distinctions outside of their  
158 experience (e.g., to non-frequent language sounds) [12]. Our account argues that an analogous  
159 effect is seen because of the developmental niche shaped by optimal moment-to-moment  
160 decision making under neurocognitive constraints. The parallel is that information outside of  
161 the child’s niche – defined in terms of modes of passive learning, action policy selection, inter-  
162 personal experiences, and mental simulation – is subject to attenuated encoding in memory,  
163 itself explaining learning delay. This feedback cycle can be inferred from the formalism  
164 presented in Box 1 (see also Figure 1), where perceptual imprecision or processing constraints  
165 bias the rational agent to make inferences and select action policies with high prior probability,  
166 inhibiting exploration and learning [7,8]. Considering non-linear dynamics, saddle points, and  
167 the notion of sensitivity to initial conditions, a cycle like this may in principle be set in motion  
168 by relatively small perturbations in precision and capacity, in contrast to the gross, discrete  
169 deficits commonly assumed under dominant core-deficit hypotheses. This includes very subtle  
170 neurological variation attributable to a constellation of genetic and environmental risk factors  
171 and in itself difficult to reliably detect through neuroimaging and neurophysiological  
172 assessment. Resource rational decision-making may be an essential behavioural mechanism  
173 linking different forms and severities of neurological variability to common  
174 neurodevelopmental phenotypes.

175

## 176 **Concluding remarks**

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178 In its search for core neurocognitive deficits, developmental science has overlooked the  
179 potential for adaptive disengagement behaviours to amplify individual differences and play a  
180 formative, transdiagnostic role in conditions including but not limited to dyslexia, dyscalculia,  
181 and DLD. Computational rationality builds on established frameworks examining decision-  
182 making under constraints and points to formal mathematical and computational tools that can  
183 help to determine how a child’s behaviour – their choices, actions, and habits – shapes  
184 neurodevelopmental variation. In contrast to dominant core-deficit approaches, these  
185 formalisms are characteristically multivariate – they view behaviour and learning as the  
186 product of dynamic interactions between factors including perceptual integrity, processing  
187 bandwidth, policy selection, and developing long-term knowledge. This perspective enriches

188 our understanding of probabilistic epigenesis and our capacity to respond to individual  
189 differences effectively when required. Future research should pursue the application of  
190 computational rationality to neurodevelopmental variation, validating existing formalisms  
191 developed to explain adult behaviour against child data.

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219 **Box 1**

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221 *A normative Bayesian model of computational rationality*

222

223 Agents infer a parameter such as the identity of a spoken or written word,  $\mu$ , from an exemplar,  
 224  $x$ , where the posterior inference,  $P(\mu | x)$ , depends on perceptual experience,  $P(x | \mu)$ , and  
 225 prior experience,  $P(\mu)$ :

226

227

$$P(\mu | x) \propto P(x | \mu)P(\mu)$$

228

229 Learning is driven by the relative precision (inverse variance) of the perceptual experience,  $\lambda$ ,  
 230 and prior,  $\lambda_0$ . High perceptual precision supports effective learning (updating  $\mu_0$  to  $\hat{\mu}$ ), while  
 231 low precision leads agents to default to their priors:

232

233

$$\hat{\mu} = \mu_0 + \frac{\lambda}{\lambda + \lambda_0} (x - \mu_0)$$

234

235 Reward,  $U$ , is inversely proportional to prediction error,  $\epsilon = (\mu - \hat{\mu})^2$ , and dependent,  
 236 therefore, on perceptual precision. Agents can increase perceptual precision,  $\lambda$ , by increasing  
 237 attention. However, the critical feature of computational rationality is that attention is bounded,  
 238 as expressed by:

239

240

$$C = B \log_2 \left( 1 + \frac{S}{N} \right)$$

241

242 Where  $C$  is capacity,  $B$  is bandwidth, and  $\frac{S}{N}$  is signal-to-noise ratio. Mutual information,  
 243  $I(\mu; x)$ , formalises how attention reduces uncertainty. The optimisation problem agents face  
 244 balances reward procurement with attentional cost,  $\kappa$ :

245

246

$$\lambda^* = \arg \max_{\lambda} U - \kappa I(\mu; x)$$

247

248 With high exogenous or endogenous noise, attentional disengagement and reliance on priors  
 249 may be optimal. This formalism can be extended to policy selection with similar conclusions:  
 250 noisy state knowledge results in the avoidance of action policies with low prior probability  
 251 [7,8].



252 **Figure 1**

253

254 *Computational rationality and neurodevelopmental variation*

255

256 *Note.* (A) Numeric, text, and speech information sources and states ( $\mu$ ,  $s$ ), with low precision  
257 ( $\lambda$ ) indicating neurocognitive constraints. (B) Abstract encoder-decoder communication  
258 channels for perception (top) and action (bottom).  $p(m)$  indicates encoding,  $\epsilon$  is error,  $a$  is  
259 action, and  $\pi$  is policy (see [7,8]). (C) Engagement with numbers and text (high precision) and  
260 speech (low precision) over time [11]. Engagement is initially symmetrical across information  
261 sources, but engagement with speech declines over time due to low precision limiting learning  
262 and reward. (D) Engagement-related error rates over time. Low engagement with speech is  
263 associated with a high error rate for this information source. (E) Error rates for two agents with  
264 the precision deficit illustrated in (A): the ‘active’ agent engages adaptively with numeric, text,  
265 and speech information sources as per computational rationality; the ‘clamped’ agent is  
266 programmed to engage symmetrically with all three information sources (i.e., this agent cannot  
267 disengage from speech). Clamping results in better learning for speech stimuli, illustrating that  
268 resource rational behaviour (or ‘rational inattention’) can deepen learning delays over time [11].  
269 (F) Resource-rational trade-off between heuristic and direct computation strategies in advanced,  
270 delayed, and restricted agents. Direct computation is most effective in advanced agents,  
271 mimicking a neurotypical profile. Direct computation progresses more slowly in delayed  
272 agents, and asymptotes early in restricted agents, mimicking plausible neurodivergent profiles.  
273 Direct computation by each agent may be compared to the fast-and-frugal heuristic strategy.  
274 At  $t_1$ , the heuristic strategy is universally optimal due to insufficient time for direct computation  
275 (i.e., inference refinement and complex action policy planning). At  $t_2$ , the heuristic remains  
276 optimal for the delayed and restricted agents, but direct computation is optimal for the advanced  
277 agent. By  $t_3$ , all agents benefit more from direct computation than from the heuristic strategy,  
278 though this gain is relatively small for the restricted agent.

279 **Glossary**

280

281 **Bounded rationality:** a decision-making framework emphasising that agents rely on heuristics  
282 and satisficing to navigate cognitive, temporal, and informational constraints effectively.

283

284 **Compensatory strategies:** adaptive techniques and heuristics used by individuals with  
285 neurodevelopmental difficulties to work around specific challenges to achieve a goal.

286

287 **Computational rationality:** framework in which behaviour is understood as the outcome of  
288 decision-making optimized to maximize expected utility under constraints in a given  
289 environment. The word *computational* highlights a novel focus on biological and artificial  
290 neural processing.

291

292 **Core-deficit hypothesis:** assumption that symptoms of a developmental condition arise from  
293 a single, discrete cognitive or neurological cause.

294

295 **Decision theory:** classically models rational decision-making under uncertainty using  
296 expected utility and probability.

297

298 **Developmental language disorder (DLD):** neurodevelopmental condition affecting spoken  
299 language acquisition and use.

300

301 **Dyscalculia:** neurodevelopmental condition affecting the ability to understand and use  
302 numbers and arithmetic.

303

304 **Dyslexia:** neurodevelopmental condition characterized by reading difficulties, typically  
305 involving phonological processing.

306

307 **Learning by thinking:** the use of mental simulation, synthesis, and reasoning to solve  
308 problems or develop knowledge in the absence of direct input.

309

310 **Developmental niche construction:** framework proposing that organisms actively modify  
311 their environments in ways that shape their development.

312

313 **Perceptual narrowing:** developmental process in which the ability to perceive stimuli  
314 becomes more specialized, reducing sensitivity to less frequently encountered information.

315

316 **Probabilistic epigenesis:** idea that development results from the dynamic interaction of  
317 genetic, neural, behavioural, and environmental factors.