Title: Confirmation bias is adaptive when coupled with efficient metacognition

Authors: Max Rollwage[1, 2*], Stephen M. Fleming[1,2,3]

Affiliations:

[1] Wellcome Centre for Human Neuroimaging, University College London, London WC1N 3BG, United Kingdom

[2] Max Planck University College London Centre for Computational Psychiatry and Ageing Research, London WC1B 5EH, United Kingdom

[3] Department of Experimental Psychology, University College London, London WC1H 0AP, United Kingdom

*Correspondence to: Max Rollwage (max.rollwage.16@ucl.ac.uk)

Keywords
confirmation bias; metacognition; belief updating; adaptive rationality; selective information

processing

Abstract

Biases in the consideration of evidence can reduce the chances of consensus between people with different viewpoints. While such altered information processing typically leads to detrimental performance in laboratory tasks, the ubiquitous nature of confirmation bias makes it unlikely that selective information processing is universally harmful. Here we suggest that confirmation bias is adaptive to the extent that agents have good metacognition, allowing them to downweight contradictory information when correct but still able to seek new information when they realise they are wrong. Using simulation-based modelling, we explore how the adaptiveness of holding a confirmation bias depends on such metacognitive insight. We find that the behavioural consequences of selective information processing are systematically affected by agents' introspective abilities. Strikingly, we find that selective information processing can even improve decision-making when compared to unbiased evidence accumulation, as long as it is accompanied by good metacognition. These results further suggest that interventions which boost people's metacognition might be efficient in alleviating the negative effects of selective information processing on issues such as political polarisation.

Introduction

Polarization between opposing viewpoints is increasingly prevalent in discussions surrounding political and societal issues (Kohut et al., 2012). An important cognitive driver of this polarization is the human tendency to discount evidence against one's current position (Del Vicario et al., 2017; Lilienfeld et al., 2009; Rollwage et al., 2018, 2019), a phenomenon known as confirmation bias (Nickerson, 1998). Confirmation bias has been reported in a variety of settings (Klayman, 1995), including the formation of clinical diagnosis (Groopman, 2008), inference about people's character (Snyder & Swann, 1978), investment decisions (Park et al., 2010), views about societal issues such as capital punishment (Lord et al., 1979) and climate change (Sunstein et al., 2016). Perhaps most prominently, confirmation bias has been reported in relation to politically charged beliefs, such that people are generally prone to process information in line with their political convictions (Kaplan et al., 2016; Nyhan & Reifler, 2010; Redlawsk, 2002; Taber et al., 2009; Taber & Lodge, 2012). On a societal level, such skewed information intake might lead to entrenched beliefs, and, in turn, the prevalence of dogmatic groupings and widespread polarization (Zmigrod, 2020; Rollwage et al., 2019). In line with this hypothesis, people who show a resistance to belief updating are also more likely to show extreme political beliefs (Zmigrod, Rentfrow, et al., 2019b), aggression towards opposing political views (Zmigrod, Rentfrow, et al., 2019a), and authoritarian (Sinclair et al., 2019) or dogmatic traits (Rollwage et al., 2018; Zmigrod, Zmigrod, et al., 2019).

Recent cognitive neuroscience studies have identified the selective integration of choice-consistent information as a key mechanism underpinning this cognitive bias (Palminteri et al., 2016; Rollwage et al., 2020; Talluri et al., 2018). For instance, we recently showed that dogmatic participants were characterized by two cognitive alterations in the context of a perceptual decision-making task (Rollwage et al., 2018). First, dogmatic participants showed a reduction in metacognitive ability, manifesting as a selective overconfidence after making

errors. Second, metacognitive ability (i.e. the accuracy of confidence judgments) was predictive of post-decision evidence integration, where people with poorer metacognition showed less sensitivity for corrective information.

These results indicate that confidence may act as an internal control signal that guides future information processing (Atiya et al., 2019; Balsdon et al., 2020; Desender et al., 2018; Meyniel & Dehaene, 2017; Murphy et al., 2015). In studies using magnetoencephalography (MEG), we found evidence for this hypothesis, with confidence strongly modulating the extent of neural post-decision processing. Evidence accumulation was largely unbiased after low confidence decisions but displayed a confirmation bias after high confidence decisions (Rollwage et al., 2020). In other words, people appear especially resistant to corrective information when they are highly confident about a wrong decision. However, when confidence is well aligned with performance – when metacognitive ability is high – weighting post-decisional integration by confidence is likely to be less problematic, as people will tend to be less confident after making errors, and therefore also open to corrective information. This line of reasoning suggests that people's metacognitive ability might be a crucial driver of the degree to which selective information processing leads to negative behavioural outcomes.

Here we test a hypothesis that selective information integration might be adaptive when coupled with high metacognitive ability. Our proposal is in line with a broader hypothesis that the ubiquitous nature of selective evidence integration makes it unlikely that this cognitive characteristic is always maladaptive (Gigerenzer, 2008; Klayman & Ha, 1987). For instance, others have interpreted confirmation bias as a heuristic that reduces computational complexity (Evans, 1989) or allows for robustness against noise (Lefebvre et al., 2020; Tsetsos et al., 2016). Here we offer an alternative perspective: that confirmation bias is adaptive to the extent it is accompanied by a metacognitive ability to effectively monitor and recognise when we might be wrong (Fleming & Dolan, 2012). We use simulation-based modelling to compare

different evidence integration strategies and test their respective performances. Specifically,

we compared unbiased evidence integration with a simple confirmation bias as well as with a

confidence-driven confirmation bias (as observed empirically in Rollwage et al., 2020). Since

we expected the performance of a confidence-weighted confirmation bias to depend on the

reliability with which confidence judgments indicate choice accuracy, we also investigated the

influence of metacognitive ability on the adaptiveness of confirmation bias.

Modelling behavioural impact of selective evidence integration strategies
91

We model a simple situation in which agents make a binary decision between two choice

options based on noisy information drawn from a world state that is unknown to the agent. This

situation is easily accommodated by existing frameworks for characterising belief updating

(Bronfman et al., 2015; Fleming et al., 2018; Talluri et al., 2018), and closely resembles

common perceptual decision-making paradigms. This setting also acts as a minimal framework

within which more complex decision problems can be modelled. For instance, to reach an

opinion about whether human activity causes global warming (the ground truth), we have to

form beliefs based on multiple noisy evidence samples (e.g. scientific publications and

newspaper articles). Importantly, this process requires the updating of pre-existing beliefs

whenever more evidence becomes available. In such a situation, Bayesian belief updating is

often used as benchmark model (Mathys et al., 2011; O'Reilly et al., 2013). Thus, we

incorporated a Bayesian updater as our "unbiased agent" against which other evidence

integration strategies can be compared. A Bayesian agent keeps track of its graded belief that

one or other choice option is correct by calculating the probability of the chosen option, given

the evidence, compared to the alternative: $\dfrac{P(choice|evidence)}{P(alternative|evidence)}$

For simplicity, we simulate a situation in which participants only receive two samples of

information: X_{pre} represents the initial information and X_{post} represents the additional (or post-

decision) evidence. Both X_{pre} and X_{post} are sampled from normal distributions:

110
$$X_{pre} \sim N(\mu, \sigma_{pre}^2)$$

111
$$X_{post} \sim N(\mu, \sigma_{post}^2)$$

112
$$\mu = [-1, 1]$$

where the common mean (μ) of these distributions corresponds to the actual world state that

needs to be inferred. While pre- and post-decision evidence distributions have the same mean

(i.e. indicate the same underlying world state), they might differ in their variance. The variance

represents the reliability of the information, with higher variances indicating less reliable

information. We simulate different reliabilities of pre- and post-decision evidence as the

consequences of a confirmation bias are likely to depend on this balance.

After receiving initial information, agents make an initial decision ($decision_{initial}$) which

depends solely on X_{pre}. If X_{pre} has a positive value ($X_{pre} > 0$), $decision_{initial} = 1$, whereas if X_{pre} has

a negative value ($X_{pre} < 0$), $decision_{initial} = -1$. An estimate of confidence in this initial decision is

derived by calculating the log-odds in favour of the chosen world state:

123
$$LogDir_{pre} = \frac{2 * \mu * X_{pre}}{\sigma_{pre}^2}$$

124   These log-odds can be transformed into a probability of being correct (between 0 and 1) as

125   follows:

126
$$confidence_{initial} = \frac{e^{LogDir_{pre}}}{(1 + e^{LogDir_{pre}})}$$

127   After the initial decision the agent receives additional information in the form of X_{post}. In order

128   to reach a final decision, both evidence samples can be integrated in an unbiased Bayesian

129   fashion by simply summing the log-odds:

130
$$LogDir_{final} = LogDir_{pre} + LogDir_{post}$$

Note that by summing the log-odds of pre- and post-decision evidence, the certainty/reliability

of these two evidence samples is implicitly considered, i.e. evidence is combined in line with

Bayesian principles. The final decision depends on the sign of the posterior log-odds

($LogDir_{final}$). If the final decision corresponds to the actual state of the world, the agent can be

said to have formed an accurate belief and performs the task correctly. We refer to this unbiased

decision-maker as a Bayesian agent.

A confirmation bias can be modelled within this framework as an altered incorporation of post-

decision evidence dependent on whether this new information confirms or disconfirms the

initial decision:

If sign(X_{post}) = sign ($decision_{initial}$):

141
$$LogDir_{final} = LogDir_{pre} + (1 + confirmation\ bias) * LogDir_{post}$$

142   Else if sign(X_{post}) ≠ sign ($decision_{initial}$):

143
$$LogDir_{final} = LogDir_{pre} + (1 - confirmation\ bias) * LogDir_{post}$$

This form of confirmation bias can range from 0 (no bias) to 1 (where processing of

disconfirmatory information is abolished).

In line with empirical observations, we also modelled a situation in which confirmation bias is

modulated by confidence (Rollwage et al., 2020), such that participants were relatively

unbiased in their use of new evidence when less confident, but showed an enhanced

confirmation bias after high confidence decisions. To mimic these signatures, we simulated a

"metacognitive" agent which shows a confirmation bias when it is confident in an initial choice

(confidence=1), but remains unbiased when unsure (confidence=.5):

If sign(X_{post}) = sign (*decision*$_{initial}$):

$$LogDir_{final} = LogDir_{pre} + (1 + (confirmation\ bias * ((confidence - .5) * 2))$$

$$* LogDir_{post}$$

Else if sign(X_{post}) ≠ sign (*decision*$_{initial}$):

$$LogDir_{final} = LogDir_{pre} + (1 - (confirmation\ bias * ((confidence - .5) * 2))$$

$$* LogDir_{post}$$

We note that a metacognitive agent differs from a Bayesian agent in that its initial confidence

directly modulates the extent to which post-decision evidence is incorporated. For a Bayesian

agent there is of course also a sense in which confidence "weights" the subsequent

incorporation of evidence, in that a highly confident decision will require more disconfirming

evidence to be overturned. Such updates, however, are in keeping with the linear accumulation

of the log-odds of one or other hypothesis. In contrast, our metacognitive agent downweights

the processing of disconfirmatory evidence when it is confident, representing a non-linear

effect of confidence on the incorporation of post-decisional log-odds. Thus, our metacognitive

agent shows similarities with circular inference models (Bouttier et al., 2019; Jardri et al.,

2017), in which prior beliefs directly alter sensitivity to new evidence.

For each agent and each combination of evidence strength (see below) we simulated 200,000

trials, with the average decision accuracy across these simulated trials forming our measure of

the agent's performance. In what follows we describe in detail how these simulations were

conducted.

Methods

Pre- and post-decision evidence strength

As the performance of the different agents might depend on the reliabilities of pre- (X_{pre}) and post-decisional (X_{post}) information, we simulated different information strengths defined as z-scores ($\frac{\mu}{\sigma}$). We fixed $\mu=1$ (or -1 respectively) and changed σ_{pre} and σ_{post} to vary information strength. We modelled all combinations of pre-decision ($\frac{\mu}{\sigma_{pre}}=[.3\text{-}1.2]$) and post-decision ($\frac{\mu}{\sigma_{post}}=[.3\text{-}1.2]$) information strengths. In Figures 1A, B and D analyses of the joint effects of these two evidence strengths are presented, whereas in Figures 1C and 2A, C performance is averaged over all evidence strength conditions.

Generative model of metacognitive abilities

The correspondence between confidence and performance can be formally quantified as the ratio of *meta-d'/d'* (known as metacognitive efficiency), where *meta-d'* reflects metacognitive sensitivity and *d'* reflects primary task performance within a signal detection theoretic framework (Maniscalco & Lau, 2012). Several reasons for a dissociation between *meta-d'* and *d'* have been suggested. For instance, confidence may reflect a noisy read-out of the decision evidence or a decline of decision evidence in working memory prior to a confidence judgment (Maniscalco & Lau, 2012), leading to a *meta-d'/d'* ratio of less than 1. On the other hand, confidence might be informed by evidence that was not available at the time of decision (Moran et al., 2015; Moreira et al., 2018; Pleskac & Busemeyer, 2010), or on correlated evidence that is accumulated in parallel (Fleming & Daw, 2017), both of which may lead *meta-d'/d'* ratios to surpass 1.

To model different degrees of metacognitive ability, we relaxed our assumption that confidence is directly derived from the evidence informing the initial decision (see Figure 2A). Instead, the evidence informing decisions (X_{pre}) and confidence estimates (X_{conf}) were modelled as

197   distinct but correlated, and we allowed the reliability of the confidence (σ^2_{conf}) and decision

198   (σ^2_{pre}) samples to differ. Specifically, X_{pre} and X_{conf} were sampled from a bivariate normal

199   distribution with mean μ and covariance Σ:

200
$$\begin{bmatrix} X_{pre} \\ X_{conf} \end{bmatrix} \sim N(\mu, \Sigma)$$

201
$$\Sigma = \begin{bmatrix} \sigma^2_{pre} & \rho * \sigma_{pre} * \sigma_{conf} \\ \rho * \sigma_{pre} * \sigma_{conf} & \sigma^2_{conf} \end{bmatrix}$$

202   Σ parameterises the relationship between X_{pre} and X_{conf}, with ρ representing the correlation

203   between these variables. As described by Fleming & Daw (2017), in this situation confidence

204   can be inferred based on a combination of X_{conf}, the initial decision, and the covariance of X_{conf}

205   and X_{pre} (see the Appendix of Fleming & Daw, 2017, for further details on this calculation):

206
$$Confidence = P(decision_{initial} = \mu | X_{conf}, decision_{initial}, \Sigma)$$

Importantly, modelling separate samples of X_{conf} and X_{pre} allows for dissociations between

meta-d' and *d'*, thus making it possible to simulate varying degrees of metacognitive efficiency.

For instance, a decrease in the reliability of the evidence informing the confidence rating

($\sigma^2_{conf} > \sigma^2_{pre}$) naturally reduces metacognitive efficiency and leads confidence judgments to

be less reliable predictors of choice accuracy. For simulating lower metacognitive abilities

(*meta-d'/d'*<1) we fixed ρ=.8 and varied σ^2_{conf} (however, we note that our findings are not

dependent on the specific value of ρ or σ^2_{conf} ; see Figure S1). σ^2_{conf} was defined by multiplying

σ^2_{pre} by the set of coefficients [2.04, 1.56, 1.23], which were selected to result in ratios of *meta-*

d'/d' of [.4 .6 .8]. We also modelled a situation in which confidence and decision information

have the same reliability ($\sigma^2_{pre} = \sigma^2_{conf}$), but the evidence samples have a variable degree of

correlation (ρ=[.1, .3, .5, .65]), resulting in values of *meta-d'/d'* of [1.4, 1.3, 1.2, 1.1]. Such

decorrelations in evidence samples result in increased metacognitive efficiency because there

is additional information on which to base an evaluation of the decider (Fleming & Daw, 2017).

Assessment of metacognitive efficiency
To assess whether manipulations in our generative model of confidence had the intended

influence on agents' metacognitive efficiency, we calculated the *meta-d'/d'* ratio for each agent

(Maniscalco & Lau, 2012) based on their simulated behaviour, using the MLE toolbox of

Maniscalco and Lau (http://www.columbia.edu/~bsm2105/type2sdt/). Model fits were conducted

separately for each level of evidence strength and then averaged over all evidence strengths for

each agent.

Robustness and significance
We simulated many trials per condition (200,000 trials for each combination of pre- and post-

decision evidence strength) to ensure robustness to noise perturbations. We also sought to

provide a statistical test of the modulation of performance by metacognitive efficiency. We

simulated 100 agents per metacognitive efficiency setting (with confirmation bias=1) and

compared their performance to an unbiased agent (also simulated 100 times) using a t-test. We

also evaluated the magnitude of effects of metacognition on post-decision performance at

intermediate pre-decision evidence $\frac{\mu}{\sigma_{pre}}$=[.8] and post-decision evidence $\frac{\mu}{\sigma_{pre}}$=[.5] strengths,

which are similar to those commonly used in previous laboratory experiments.

Results
Depending on the different reliabilities of X_{pre} and X_{post}, an unbiased Bayesian observer

achieves different final performances (see Figure 1A), with more reliable information yielding

better performance. In addition to an unbiased observer, we also modelled agents with

gradually increasing levels of confirmation bias (see Figure 1C). As hypothesized, selectively

accumulating confirmatory information results in detrimental performance, with higher levels

of confirmation bias leading to a more pronounced detriment. At higher levels of confirmation

bias, a detriment in performance from 85% correct to ~77% correct was observed, which is

notable in a 2AFC choice scenario where performance can only vary between 50 and 100%

and evidence strength is adjusted to be of intermediate difficulty. As expected, this effect was

most noticeable when the agent received relatively weak initial information but reliable post-

decision evidence (see Figure 1B), as the bias prevents the incorporation of more reliable

corrective information.

*Figure 1 Comparison of agents' performance with different biases in information processing. A
Performance of an unbiased agent that integrates initial and additional information in a Bayesian
manner. Depending on the evidence strength, this agent shows different levels of accuracy, with better
performance when both evidence samples are strong/reliable. B Difference in performance between an
unbiased agent and a confirmation-biased agent as a function of the reliability of the initial and
additional evidence. A confirmation bias has especially detrimental effects when initial evidence is
relatively weak. C Comparison of unbiased, confirmation-biased and metacognitive (confidence-
weighted) agents as a function of confirmation bias strength. Performance is averaged over all
combinations of initial and additional evidence strengths. The vertical line indicates the strength of*

*confirmation bias used in panels B and D. **D** Difference in performance between an unbiased agent and*
a metacognitive agent as a function of the reliability of initial and additional evidence. Overall, the
metacognitive agent shows only a relatively small disadvantage in comparison to an unbiased agent.
In comparison to a simple confirmation bias, the metacognitive agent suffers less performance
*detriment in situations with weak initial evidence. **B&D** Dark colours indicate more detrimental*
performance of confirmation bias strategies when compared to unbiased evidence integration.

We next examined the performance of a metacognitive agent with a confidence-weighted

confirmation bias. Notably, a metacognitive agent outperforms a simple confirmation bias in

all settings and only shows slight impairments in relation to an unbiased agent (see Figure 1C).

We also found that a metacognitive agent clearly outperforms a simple confirmation bias in

situations when the initial evidence is weak (see Figure 1D). While a simple confirmation bias

has the strongest decrement in performance in these situations, a metacognitive agent "realizes"

it is dealing with weak initial evidence (by assigning lower confidence to these decisions) and

thus shows a more equal sensitivity to confirming and disconfirming information.

Up until now we have assumed that agents calculate confidence in an initial choice by directly

evaluating the reliability of evidence that informed the decision, resulting in a fixed

metacognitive efficiency (*meta-d'/d'*=1). However, empirical evidence shows that people

differ in their metacognitive ability (Ais et al., 2016; Fleming et al., 2010; Rollwage et al.,

2018). Thus, we next assessed the degree to which metacognitive efficiency influences the

performance of our metacognitive agent.

We found that reduced metacognitive efficiency (*meta-d'/d'*<1) leads metacognitive agents to

show impaired performance compared to unbiased agents (all p-values<.0001, see cooler

colours in Figure 2B), as the weighting of new information by confidence becomes less

effective. Conversely, when metacognitive efficiency is high (*meta-d'/d'*>1) we found that a

metacognitive agent can even outperform an unbiased agent (all p-values<.0001, see hotter

colours in Figure 2B). This result is striking as it suggests that a selective integration of

information is not necessarily a "bias" but represents an advantageous strategy for achieving

optimal performance in the context of a realistic cognitive architecture (i.e. one in which

metacognition is particularly efficient). Figure 2C displays the effect of metacognitive

efficiency on the performance of a metacognitive agent at a fixed level of intermediate evidence

strength, relative to an unbiased agent. While the magnitude of these differences might appear

relatively small (of the order of 2-3% correct), individual differences between human

participants performing a similar task cover a similar range (e.g. in Rollwage et al. 2020 the

standard deviation of performance across participants was 3.7% correct decisions).

Figure 2 Performance of a metacognitive agent as function of metacognitive efficiency. *A Illustration*
of different decision and confidence models. The left panel shows a model in which the same evidence
(X_{pre}) informs both the initial decision and the initial confidence, resulting in a ratio of meta-d'/d'=1.
The right panel shows a situation in which meta-d' and d' can differ as the initial decision and
confidence rely on separate, though correlated, evidence samples (X_{pre} & X_{conf}). The final decision is
determined by a combination of the initial (X_{pre}) and the additional (X_{post}) information. The coloured
arrows indicate the way in which either an initial decision (confirmation bias) or an initial decision in
combination with confidence (confidence-weighted confirmation bias, as in our metacognitive agent)
modulate the incorporation of post-decision evidence. ***B*** *Performance difference for a metacognitive*

agent compared to an unbiased agent. The performance of a confidence-weighted confirmation bias is sensitive to metacognitive efficiency (i.e. the accuracy of confidence ratings), with the greatest benefits obtained when metacognitive ability is high. When the ratio of meta-d'/d' is above 1, a metacognitive agent outperforms an unbiased agent. Hotter colours indicate better performance of the metacognitive agent. **C** *Performance of an unbiased agent compared to metacognitive agents differing in their metacognitive efficiency. Here we fix the pre- and post-decision evidence strengths to an intermediate level (see Methods) in order to reveal differences between different decision strategies. We simulated 100 agents for each setting and present group means ± SEM. Metacognitive agents with lower metacognitive efficiencies (meta-d'/d'<1) show significantly lower performance than an unbiased agent (all p<.0001), whereas metacognitive agents with higher metacognitive efficiencies (meta-d'/d'>1) show significantly better performance than an unbiased agent (p<.0001). An agent with meta-d'/d'=1 yields performance that is not significantly different from that of an unbiased agent (p=.32).*

Discussion

Here we investigated the effects of confirmation bias on the accuracy of belief formation. Our central proposal is that when confirmation bias is a feature of a self-aware (metacognitive) agent, it ceases to be detrimental, and may even become adaptive. We used simulation-based modelling to compare the performance of agents with different forms of confirmation bias against an unbiased agent. A simple (non-metacognitive) confirmation bias showed detrimental effects compared to an unbiased agent in all settings. In comparison, a metacognitive agent which modulates the degree of confirmation bias by confidence (as documented empirically in human observers; Rollwage et al., 2020) outperformed a simple confirmation bias agent, and was in many cases not substantially worse than an unbiased agent. The benefit of weighting a confirmation bias by confidence is that when confidence is low, and errors are more likely, the system becomes open to new and potentially corrective information.

In turn, by simulating varying degrees of metacognitive efficiency, we found that the performance of our metacognitive agent was sensitive to its level of self-awareness. Strikingly, a metacognitive agent with high self-awareness could in some cases even outperform an unbiased agent, indicating that selective information processing might be particularly adaptive when coupled with good metacognitive abilities. These results are in accordance with a view that cognitive biases may have originally evolved for good evolutionary reasons and are often

adaptive when considered in the context of the agent's environment, including its broader

mental toolkit (Gigerenzer, 2008).

Why should high degrees of metacognitive efficiency be advantageous in this case? The core

mechanism appears to be the capacity of a confidence estimate to provide a "second look" on

a decision, similarly to how an external adviser might give us a separate view on a topic. The

benefit of this mechanism depends on the agent's metacognitive ability – as agents with good

metacognition provide the most effective "internal" advisory signals. Interestingly, however, a

confidence-weighted confirmation bias outperformed a simple confirmation bias in all settings,

even when metacognitive ability was relatively low (see Figure S2), suggesting that the mere

presence of confidence-weighting, rather than acute metacognition per se, may be sufficient to

avoid the most deleterious effects of confirmation bias.

While these advantages for metacognitive agents were relatively small in size, they were robust

and similar in magnitude to individual differences in performance on comparable laboratory

tasks (e.g. Rollwage et al., 2020). We note that here we modelled a situation in which only two

consecutive samples of evidence had to be integrated. Even in this minimal paradigm, increases

in metacognitive efficiency could lead to a 2-3% increase in the number of correct decisions.

Such a bias towards higher performance on individual, isolated judgments is likely to be

magnified in situations requiring the integration of multiple information samples over time. In

such situations, even small alterations in information processing might summate over time and

lead to substantial changes in belief accuracy.

By incorporating confirmation bias as part of a broader cognitive architecture in which different

mental processes can interact with each other (e.g. decisional and metacognitive processes),

selective information processing may become adaptive when compared to the same "bias"

considered in isolation. In the same spirit, it has been argued that heuristics that may appear as

biases in simple and constrained laboratory tasks become beneficial in more complex environments (Pleskac & Hertwig, 2014). More broadly, our study indicates that considering cognitive biases in isolation from other mental processes might lead to the wrong conclusions about the impact of a particular cognitive feature on behaviour.

We note that a behavioural benefit for confirmation bias was only present when simulating agents with "hyper" metacognitive efficiency (i.e. *meta-d'/d*>1), such that metacognition became more acute than first-order task performance. This might seem odd at first glance, as it implies that the system is not using all the information available to it at the time of making an initial choice, and only afterwards becomes more sensitive to whether it was right or wrong. However, this kind of pattern is commonly observed in empirical data (Fleming & Daw, 2017; Moreira et al., 2018), and is thought to be driven either by additional post-decisional processing, differences in the variance of signal compared to noise (Miyoshi & Lau, 2020) or (as simulated here) parallel streams of information processing that allows the system to detect and correct its errors (Moreira et al., 2018). The capacity for rapid error detection is well established in human studies (Murphy et al., 2015; Rabbitt, 1966; Resulaj et al., 2009; Van Den Berg et al., 2016; Yeung & Summerfield, 2012) and thus it is reasonable to assume that hyper metacognitive efficiency may be common in the healthy population.

Importantly, a metacognitive system does not need to be more reliable than the decision-maker to achieve high metacognitive ability: it needs only to incorporate partially independent information (as used here; see Figure S1 for simulations using a wider set of parameters). In this respect, our results also contribute to a debate over why it might be useful for the brain to encode a confidence signal separately from representations of decision evidence (Maniscalco et al., 2016; Meyniel et al., 2015). A metacognitive agent that can realize its own mistakes (and assign low confidence to these decision) will tend to become more open to new information due to the confidence weighting applied to selective information processing (interestingly our

model predicts that when confidence falls below 0.5 in a two-choice scenario, metacognitive

agents should even show a "disconfirmation" bias, and be more prone to seek out information

contradicting their current position). Our results suggest that this benefit is only accrued when

metacognition is partly independent of first-order cognition.

Selective information processing has been assumed to lead to skewed, entrenched and

potentially inaccurate beliefs about a range of societal and political issues (Rollwage et al.,

2019; Zmigrod, 2020). However, the current results suggest that the detrimental effects of

selective information processing depend on people's broader self-awareness. In turn,

metacognitive deficits might represent core drivers of polarised or radical beliefs, due to their

consequence for maladaptive confirmation bias. Interestingly, this hypothesis is in line with

empirical observations (Rollwage et al., 2018), showing that more dogmatic participants show

reduced metacognitive sensitivity which in turn is predictive of reduced post-decision evidence

processing.

Recognising metacognition as a central driver of belief polarisation may make it possible to

develop new strategies for debiasing decision-making (Rollwage et al., 2019). The contributors

to confirmation bias in any given setting are likely to be multifactorial, with more proximal

causes (such as measures of cognitive style) having large effect sizes, but providing more

limited mechanistic insight. In contrast, identifying small, reliable effect sizes associated with

underlying mechanisms (such as the impact of confidence weighting) may bring us closer to

the potential for targeted intervention. Excitingly, there are existing interventions that have

been shown to boost people's metacognitive ability (Baird et al., 2014; Carpenter et al., 2019).

Our results indicate that cognitive training which improves domain-general self-awareness and

metacognitive efficiency may help to alleviate the negative behavioural outcomes of selective

information processing, and foster resilience against misinformation and belief polarisation.

Acknowledgements

We thank Prof. Ralph Hertwig for insightful conversations regarding the potential adaptiveness of cognitive biases. M.R. is a predoctoral Fellow of the International Max Planck Research School on Computational Methods in Psychiatry and Ageing Research. The participating institutions are the Max Planck Institute for Human Development and University College London (UCL). The Wellcome Centre for Human Neuroimaging is supported by core funding from the Wellcome Trust (203147/Z/16/Z). S.M.F. is supported by a Sir Henry Dale Fellowship jointly funded by the Wellcome Trust and the Royal Society (206648/Z/17/Z).

Author Contributions

M.R. and S.M.F. conceived the study and wrote the paper. M.R. developed the methodology and ran the simulations with input from S.M.F.

References

Ais, J., Zylberberg, A., Barttfeld, P., & Sigman, M. (2016). Individual consistency in the accuracy and distribution of confidence judgments. *Cognition, 146*, 377–386. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cognition.2015.10.006

Atiya, N. A. A., Rañó, I., Prasad, G., & Wong-Lin, K. (2019). A neural circuit model of decision uncertainty and change-of-mind. *Nature Communications, 10*(1), 1–12.

Baird, B., Mrazek, M. D., Phillips, D. T., & Schooler, J. W. (2014). Domain-specific enhancement of metacognitive ability following meditation training. *Journal of Experimental Psychology: General, 143*(5), 1972.

Balsdon, T., Wyart, V., & Mamassian, P. (2020). Confidence controls perceptual evidence accumulation. *Nature Communications, 11*(1), 1–11.

Bouttier, V., Deneve, S., & Jardri, R. (2019). Confirmation Bias is explained by Descending Loops in the Cortical Hierarchy. *Conference on Cognitive Computational Neuroscience.*

Bronfman, Z. Z., Brezis, N., Moran, R., Tsetsos, K., Donner, T., & Usher, M. (2015). Decisions reduce sensitivity to subsequent information. *Proceedings of the Royal Society B: Biological Sciences, 282*(1810), 20150228. https://doi.org/10.1098/rspb.2015.0228

Carpenter, J., Sherman, M. T., Kievit, R. A., Seth, A. K., Lau, H., & Fleming, S. M. (2019). Domain-general enhancements of metacognitive ability through adaptive training. *Journal of Experimental Psychology: General, 148*(1), 51.

Del Vicario, M., Scala, A., Caldarelli, G., Stanley, H. E., & Quattrociocchi, W. (2017). Modeling confirmation bias and polarization. *Scientific Reports, 7*, 40391.

Desender, K., Boldt, A., & Yeung, N. (2018). Subjective confidence predicts information

seeking in decision making. *Psychological Science*.

https://doi.org/10.1177/0956797617744771

Evans, J. S. B. T. (1989). *Bias in human reasoning: Causes and consequences.* Lawrence

Erlbaum Associates, Inc.

Fleming, S. M., & Daw, N. D. (2017). Self-evaluation of decision-making: A general

bayesian framework for metacognitive computation. *Psychological Review*, *124*(1), 91–

114. https://doi.org/10.1037/rev0000045

Fleming, S. M., & Dolan, R. J. (2012). The neural basis of metacognitive ability. *Phil. Trans.*

R. Soc. B, *367*(1594), 1338–1349.

Fleming, S. M., van der Putten, E. J., & Daw, N. D. (2018). Neural mediators of changes of

mind about perceptual decisions. *Nature Neuroscience*, 1–8.

https://doi.org/10.1038/s41593-018-0104-6

Fleming, S. M., Weil, R. S., Nagy, Z., Dolan, R. J., & Rees, G. (2010). Relating introspective

accuracy to individual differences in brain structure. *Science*, *329*(5998), 1541–1543.

Gigerenzer, G. (2008). Why heuristics work. *Perspectives on Psychological Science*, *3*(1),

20–29.

Groopman, J. (2008). *How doctors think*. Houghton Mifflin Harcourt.

Jardri, R., Duverne, S., Litvinova, A. S., & Denève, S. (2017). Experimental evidence for

circular inference in schizophrenia. *Nature Communications*, *8*, 14218.

Kaplan, J. T., Gimbel, S. I., & Harris, S. (2016). Neural correlates of maintaining one's

political beliefs in the face of counterevidence. *Scientific Reports*, *6*(December), 1–11.

https://doi.org/10.1038/srep39589

Klayman, J. (1995). Varieties of confirmation bias. *Psychology of Learning and Motivation*,

32, 385–418.

Kohut, A., Doherty, C., Dimock, M., & Keeter, S. (2012). Partisan Polarization Surges in

Bush, Obama Years. *Pew Research Center for the People and the Press RSS*.

Lefebvre, G., Summerfield, C., & Bogacz, R. (2020). A normative account of confirmatory

biases during reinforcement learning. *BioRxiv*.

Lilienfeld, S. O., Ammirati, R., & Landfield, K. (2009). Giving debiasing away: Can

psychological research on correcting cognitive errors promote human welfare?

Perspectives on Psychological Science, *4*(4), 390–398.

Lord, C. G., Ross, L., & Lepper, M. R. (1979). Biased assimilation and attitude polarization:

The effects of prior theories on subsequently considered evidence. *Journal of*

Personality and Social Psychology, *37*(11), 2098.

Maniscalco, B., & Lau, H. (2012). A signal detection theoretic approach for estimating

metacognitive sensitivity from confidence ratings. *Consciousness and Cognition*, *21*(1),

422–430.

Maniscalco, B., Peters, M. A. K., & Lau, H. (2016). Heuristic use of perceptual evidence

leads to dissociation between performance and metacognitive sensitivity. *Attention,*

Perception, & Psychophysics, *78*(3), 923–937.

Mathys, C., Daunizeau, J., Friston, K. J., & Stephan, K. E. (2011). A Bayesian foundation for

individual learning under uncertainty. *Frontiers in Human Neuroscience*, *5*, 39.

Meyniel, F., & Dehaene, S. (2017). Brain networks for confidence weighting and hierarchical

inference during probabilistic learning. *Proceedings of the National Academy of*

Sciences, *114*(19), E3859–E3868.

Meyniel, F., Sigman, M., & Mainen, Z. F. (2015). Confidence as Bayesian Probability: From

Neural Origins to Behavior. *Neuron*, *88*(1), 78–92.

https://doi.org/10.1016/j.neuron.2015.09.039

Moran, R., Teodorescu, A. R., & Usher, M. (2015). Post choice information integration as a

causal determinant of confidence: Novel data and a computational account. *Cognitive*

Psychology, *78*, 99–147. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cogpsych.2015.01.002

Moreira, C. M., Rollwage, M., Kaduk, K., Wilke, M., & Kagan, I. (2018). Post-decision

wagering after perceptual judgments reveals bi-directional certainty readouts. *Cognition*,

176, 40–52.

Murphy, P. R., Robertson, I. H., Harty, S., & O'Connell, R. G. (2015). Neural evidence

accumulation persists after choice to inform metacognitive judgments. *ELife*,

4(DECEMBER2015), 1–23. https://doi.org/10.7554/eLife.11946

Nickerson, R. S. (1998). Confirmation bias: A ubiquitous phenomenon in many guises.

Review of General Psychology, *2*(2), 175–220. https://doi.org/10.1037/1089-

2680.2.2.175

Nyhan, B., & Reifler, J. (2010). When corrections fail: The persistence of political

misperceptions. *Political Behavior*, *32*(2), 303–330. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11109-010-

9112-2

O'Reilly, J. X., Schuffelgen, U., Cuell, S. F., Behrens, T. E. J., Mars, R. B., & Rushworth, M.

F. S. (2013). Dissociable effects of surprise and model update in parietal and anterior

cingulate cortex. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences*, *110*(38), E3660–

E3669. https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.1305373110

Palminteri, S., Lefebvre, G., Kilford, E. J., & Blakemore, S. (2016). Confirmation bias in

human reinforcement learning. *BioRXiv*, 1–21.

https://doi.org/http://dx.doi.org/10.1101/090654

Park, J., Konana, P., Gu, B., Kumar, A., & Raghunathan, R. (2010). Confirmation bias, overconfidence, and investment performance: Evidence from stock message boards. *McCombs Research Paper Series No. IROM-07-10*.

Pleskac, T. J., & Busemeyer, J. R. (2010). Two-stage dynamic signal detection: A theory of choice, decision time, and confidence. *Psychological Review*, *117*(3), 864–901. https://doi.org/10.1037/a0019737

Pleskac, T. J., & Hertwig, R. (2014). Ecologically rational choice and the structure of the environment. *Journal of Experimental Psychology: General*, *143*(5), 2000.

Rabbitt, P. M. (1966). Errors and error correction in choice-response tasks. *Journal of Experimental Psychology*, *71*(2), 264.

Redlawsk, D. P. (2002). Hot cognition or cool consideration? Testing the effects of motivated reasoning on political decision making. In *Journal of Politics* (Vol. 64, Issue 4, pp. 1021–1044). https://doi.org/10.1111/1468-2508.00161

Resulaj, A., Kiani, R., Wolpert, D. M., & Shadlen, M. N. (2009). Changes of mind in decision-making. *Nature*, *461*(7261), 263–266. https://doi.org/10.1038/nature08275

Rollwage, M., Dolan, R. J., & Fleming, S. M. (2018). Metacognitive failure as a feature of those holding radical beliefs. *Current Biology*, *28*(24), 4014–4021.

Rollwage, M., Loosen, A., Hauser, T. U., Moran, R., Dolan, R. J., & Fleming, S. M. (2020). Confidence drives a neural confirmation bias. *Nature Communications*, *11*(1), 1–11.

Rollwage, M., Zmigrod, L., de-Wit, L., Dolan, R. J., & Fleming, S. M. (2019). What underlies political polarization? A manifesto for computational political psychology.

Trends in Cognitive Sciences, *23*(10), 820–822.

Sinclair, A. H., Stanley, M., & Seli, P. (2019). *Closed-Minded Cognition: Right-Wing Authoritarianism is Negatively Related to Belief Updating*.

Snyder, M., & Swann, W. B. (1978). Hypothesis-testing processes in social interaction. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *36*(11), 1202.

Sunstein, C. R., Bobadilla-Suarez, S., Lazzaro, S. C., & Sharot, T. (2016). How people update beliefs about climate change: Good news and bad news. *Cornell L. Rev.*, *102*, 1431.

Taber, C. S., Cann, D., & Kucsova, S. (2009). The motivated processing of political arguments. *Political Behavior*, *31*(2), 137–155. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11109-008-9075-8

Taber, C. S., & Lodge, M. (2012). Motivated skepticism in the evaluation of political beliefs (2006). *Critical Review*, *24*(2), 157–184. https://doi.org/10.1080/08913811.2012.711019

Talluri, B. C., Urai, A. E., Tsetsos, K., Usher, M., & Donner, T. H. (2018). Confirmation bias through selective overweighting of choice-consistent evidence. *Current Biology*, *28*(19), 3128–3135.

Tsetsos, K., Moran, R., Moreland, J., Chater, N., Usher, M., & Summerfield, C. (2016). Economic irrationality is optimal during noisy decision making. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences*, *113*(11), 3102–3107.

Van Den Berg, R., Anandalingam, K., Zylberberg, A., Kiani, R., Shadlen, M. N., & Wolpert, D. M. (2016). A common mechanism underlies changes of mind about decisions and confidence. *ELife*, *5*(FEBRUARY2016), 1–21. https://doi.org/10.7554/eLife.12192

Yeung, N., & Summerfield, C. (2012). Metacognition in human decision-making: confidence

and error monitoring. *Phil. Trans. R. Soc. B*, *367*(1594), 1310–1321.

Zmigrod, L. (2020). The role of cognitive rigidity in political ideologies: theory, evidence,

and future directions. *Current Opinion in Behavioral Sciences*, *34*, 34–39.

Zmigrod, L., Rentfrow, P. J., & Robbins, T. W. (2019a). Cognitive inflexibility predicts

extremist attitudes. *Frontiers in Psychology*, *10*, 989.

Zmigrod, L., Rentfrow, P. J., & Robbins, T. W. (2019b). The partisan mind: Is extreme

political partisanship related to cognitive inflexibility? *Journal of Experimental*

Psychology: General.

Zmigrod, L., Zmigrod, S., Rentfrow, P. J., & Robbins, T. W. (2019). The psychological roots

of intellectual humility: the role of intelligence and cognitive flexibility. *Personality and*

Individual Differences, *141*, 200–208.

Code availability

Code of all simulations for this study is available at a dedicated Github repository
(https://github.com/MaxRollwage/ConfirmationBias_simulation)

574 Supplementary material

In the main text we focussed on the influence of metacognitive efficiency on the performance

of a confidence-weighted confirmation bias, showing that this information processing strategy

can outperform an unbiased agent when metacognitive efficiency is high. However, when

sampling X_{pre} and X_{conf} from separate but correlated distributions, metacognitive efficiency can

be influenced by either ρ, σ_{conf} or both. Within such a model, metacognitive abilities are known

to increase when the correlation (ρ) between X_{pre} and X_{conf} is reduced, as well as when X_{conf} is

more reliable, i.e. σ_{conf} is small (Fleming & Daw, 2017; see Figure S1A). Here we show that

independently of how these boosts in metacognitive efficiency are achieved, the results we

obtain on the benefits for post-decision processing are maintained (Figure S1B). In other words,

the performance of a metacognitive agent compared to an unbiased agent is determined by its

metacognitive efficiency, but not the particular parameters of the confidence model used to

generate variation in metacognitive efficiency. This inference is supported by a very high

correlation between variation in metacognitive efficiency and post-decision integration

performance when both are computed as a function of both ρ and σ_{conf} (r=.97, Figure S1C).

Figure S1. Relationship between metacognitive efficiency and post-decision integration performance.
A *The agent's metacognitive efficiency (meta-d'/d') is determined by the settings of σ_{conf} and ρ. Lower*
values of σ_{conf} indicate that confidence relies on more reliable evidence samples, whereby lower values
of ρ mean that the evidence for the decision and confidence are only weakly correlated, i.e. both provide
independent information. ***B*** *Performance difference of a metacognitive agent compared to an unbiased*
agent, as a function of σ_{conf} and ρ. These parameters have very similar influences on both metacognitive
efficiency and post-decision evidence integration (compare panels A and B). This indicates that,

independently of how a specific metacognitive ability is achieved, it has the same influence on post-
*decision evidence integration. **C** Support for a link between metacognition and post-decision processing*
benefit is obtained by computing the correlation between these statistics across all values of σ_{conf} and
ρ, i.e. the correlation between panels A and B ($\pm$ 95% confidence interval).

Figure S2 Performance difference of a metacognitive agent compared to a simple confirmation
bias. Hotter colours indicate better performance of the metacognitive agent compared to a
simple confirmation bias. The metacognitive agent shows superior performance in all settings,
even when metacognitive efficiency is low.

609