

1 **Young Infants Process Prediction Errors at the Theta Rhythm**

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3 Moritz Köster<sup>a,b,\*</sup>, Miriam Langeloh<sup>a,c</sup>, Christine Michel<sup>a,d</sup>, & Stefanie Hoehl<sup>a,e</sup>

4

5 <sup>a</sup> Max Planck Institute for Human Cognitive and Brain Sciences, Stephanstrasse 1A, 04103  
6 Leipzig, Germany

7 <sup>b</sup> Freie Universität Berlin, Institute of Psychology, Habelschwerdter Allee 45, 14195 Berlin,  
8 Germany

9 <sup>c</sup> Heidelberg University, Department of Psychology, Hauptstraße 47 – 51, 69117 Heidelberg,  
10 Germany

11 <sup>d</sup> Leipzig University, Faculty of Education, Marschnerstrasse 31, 04109 Leipzig

12 <sup>e</sup> University of Vienna, Faculty of Psychology, Liebiggasse 5, 1010 Vienna, Austria

13

14 **Corresponding author:**

15 Moritz Köster

16 Freie University Berlin

17 Institute of Psychology

18 Habelschwerdter Allee 45

19 14195 Berlin

20 Germany

21 E-mail: moritz.koester@fu-berlin.de

22 **Abstract**

23 Examining how young infants respond to unexpected events is key to our understanding of  
24 their emerging concepts about the world around them. From a predictive processing  
25 perspective, it is intriguing to investigate how the infant brain responds to unexpected events  
26 (i.e., prediction errors), because they require infants to refine their predictive models about the  
27 environment. Here, to better understand prediction error processes in the infant brain, we  
28 presented 9-month-olds ( $N = 36$ ) a variety of physical and social events with unexpected  
29 versus expected outcomes, while recording their electroencephalogram. We found a  
30 pronounced response in the ongoing 4 – 5 Hz theta rhythm for the processing of unexpected  
31 (in contrast to expected) events, for a prolonged time window (2 s) and across all scalp-  
32 recorded electrodes. The condition difference in the theta rhythm was not related to the  
33 condition difference in infants' event-related activity on the negative central (Nc) component  
34 (.4 – .6 s), which has been described in former studies. These findings constitute critical  
35 evidence that the theta rhythm is involved in the processing of prediction errors from very  
36 early in human brain development, which may support infants' refinement of basic concepts  
37 about the physical and social environment.

38 **Keywords:** infant cognition, theta rhythm, predictive processing, violation of  
39 expectation, electroencephalography

40 From early on, human infants develop basic concepts about their physical and social  
41 environment (Spelke and Kinzler, 2007). This includes a basic understanding of numbers  
42 (Wynn, 1992), the properties of objects (Baillargeon et al., 1985; Spelke et al., 1992), and  
43 others' actions (Gergely et al., 2002; Reid et al., 2009). Taking a predictive processing  
44 perspective on infant brain development (Köster et al., 2020), it has been argued that infants  
45 develop basic concepts by forming predictive models about their environment and draw  
46 inferences about physical and social events. To optimize their predictive models about the  
47 environment and to reduce uncertainties, infants are thought to continuously integrate novel  
48 and unexpected information in response to prediction errors (Köster et al., 2020; cf. Clark,  
49 2013; Friston, 2011; Schubotz, 2015). Yet, prediction error processes in the infant brain are  
50 not fully understood.

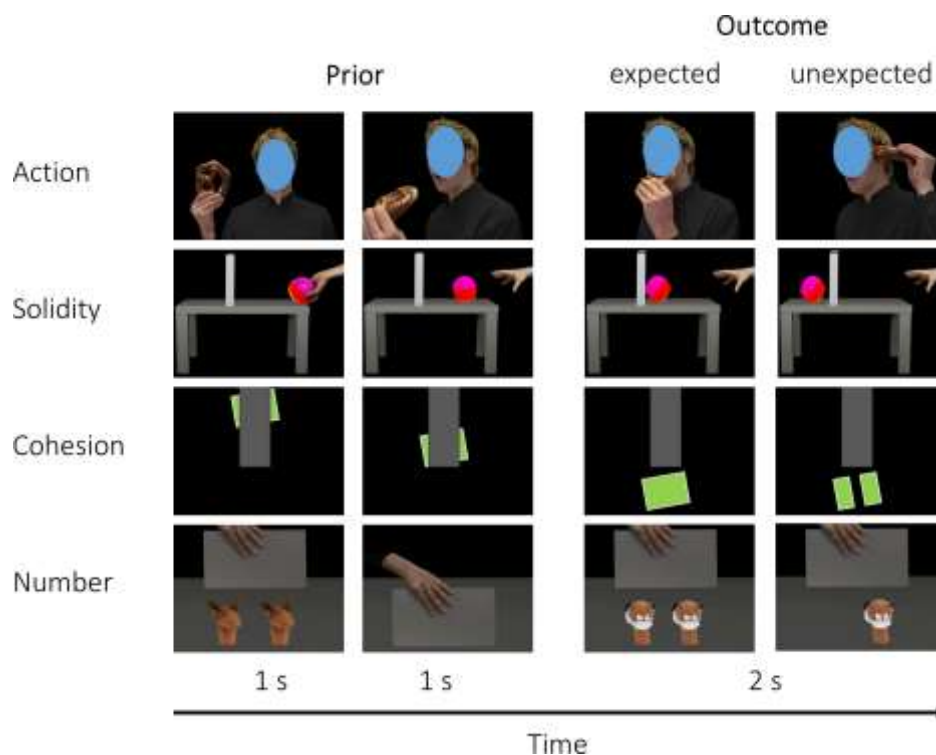
51 Our understanding of infants' early concepts about their environment is based, to a  
52 large extent, on violation of expectation (VOE) paradigms. In VOE paradigms infants are  
53 shown unexpected events, which violate their basic concepts, in contrast to expected events.  
54 For example, infants are shown a change in the number of objects behind an occluder (Wynn,  
55 1992), a ball falling through a table (Spelke et al., 1992), or an unusual human action (Reid et  
56 al., 2009). These unexpected events (in contrast to expected events) commonly increase  
57 infants' attention, indicated by longer looking times, and motivate infants to learn about their  
58 environment, indexed by an increased exploration and hypothesis testing of objects that  
59 behaved unexpectedly (Stahl and Feigenson, 2015). From a predictive processing point of  
60 view, the response to VOE events corresponds to the processing of prediction errors: events  
61 that violate basic expectations elicit a prediction error and require infants to refine their  
62 predictions (Köster et al., 2020). Therefore, the neural response in VOE paradigms is highly  
63 suitable to investigate the neural brain dynamics involved in prediction error processing in the  
64 infant brain.

65           Infants' neural processing of unexpected events has formerly been investigated in  
66 terms of evoked neural responses (i.e., event-related potentials; ERPs) in the scalp-recorded  
67 electroencephalogram (EEG). This research has centered around the negative component  
68 (Nc), which emerges around 400-600 ms after stimulus onset at central recording sites, and  
69 which has been associated with attention processes (for a review, see Reynolds, 2015).  
70 However, unexpected events have been associated with an increased Nc (Kayhan et al., 2019;  
71 Langeloh et al., 2020; Reynolds and Richards, 2005; Webb et al., 2005) as well as a reduced  
72 Nc (Kaduk et al., 2016; Reid et al., 2009), when contrasted to the brain activity elicited by  
73 expected events. Therefore, the neural mechanisms reflected in the Nc are not yet entirely  
74 understood. Former studies have also investigated the spectral properties of the Nc component  
75 and linked this component to an increase in 1 – 10 Hz activity in infants and adults (Berger et  
76 al., 2006) or the 4 – 7 Hz activity for toddlers and adults (Conejero et al., 2018).

77           In a recent study, infants' neural oscillatory dynamics were rhythmically entrained at 4  
78 Hz or 6 Hz, and the presentation of unexpected events led to a specific increase in the  
79 entrained 4 Hz but not in the 6 Hz activity (Köster et al., 2019). Critically, 4 Hz oscillatory  
80 activity corresponds to the neural theta rhythm, a frequency which plays an essential role in  
81 prediction error processing in adults (Cavanagh and Frank, 2014) as well as learning  
82 processes in adults (Friese et al., 2013; Köster et al., 2018), children (Köster et al., 2017), and  
83 infants (Bergus et al., 2015; Bergus and Bonawitz, 2020). However, it has not been investigated  
84 how the ongoing oscillatory activity (i.e., not entrained or evoked upon stimulus onset)  
85 responds to unexpected events in the infant brain and, specifically, whether the ongoing theta  
86 rhythm marks infants' processing of prediction errors. It is critical to understand the ongoing  
87 theta dynamics because they are fundamentally different from evoked oscillatory responses  
88 (Tallon-baudry and Bertrand, 1999) and play a critical role in mnemonic processes and the  
89 integration of novel information into existing representations in particular (Friese et al., 2013;  
90 Hanslmayr et al., 2009; Klimesch et al., 1997; Köster et al., 2018; Osipova et al., 2006).

91 Here, we tested infants' neural processing of prediction errors, by presenting them a  
92 series of different physical and social events with expected versus unexpected outcomes  
93 across various domains, from physics about objects to numbers and actions (see Figure 1),  
94 while recording their EEG. In particular, we used four different stimulus categories  
95 representing well-established paradigms from the VOE literature (testing infants' concepts of  
96 action, solidity, cohesion, and number; see Figure S1 for the full stimulus set) to obtain a  
97 more generalized prediction error response, independent from a specific knowledge domain.  
98 Because of its pivotal role in prediction error processing and learning in adults, we expected  
99 higher ongoing 4 Hz theta activity for unexpected versus expected events. Furthermore, based  
100 on previous ERP studies in infants, we expected a differential Nc response (400 – 600 ms, at  
101 central electrodes) for expected versus unexpected events.

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103

104 **Figure 1.** Examples of the violation of expectation events presented to participants. Infants  
105 saw the events of four basic knowledge domains (action, solidity, cohesion, and number). In  
106 each trial, the first two pictures initiated an event (prior; 1 s each) and the third picture

107 showed the outcome (2 s), which could be expected or unexpected. (Please note that the  
108 outcome picture was shown for 5 s but we included all trials, in which infants watched for 2 s;  
109 see Stimuli and Procedure.)

110

## 111 **Materials and Methods**

### 112 **Participants**

113 The final sample consisted of 36 9-month-old infants (17 girls,  $M = 9.7$  months,  $SD =$   
114 0.5 months). Participants were healthy full-term infants, from Leipzig, Germany. Informed  
115 written consent was obtained from each participant's parent before the experiment and the  
116 experimental procedure was approved by the local ethics committee. Thirteen additional  
117 infants were tested but excluded from the final sample, due to fussiness ( $n = 2$ ) or because  
118 fewer than 10 artifact-free trials remained in each condition ( $n = 11$ ). This attrition rate is  
119 rather low for visual EEG studies with infants (Stets et al., 2012).

120 We selected this age group, because previous studies indicated VOE responses for the  
121 domains tested here by the age of 9 months or even earlier (Reid et al., 2009; Spelke et al.,  
122 1992; Wynn, 1992). The sample size was oriented at a former study with a very similar study  
123 design (Köster et al., 2019) and ultimately determined by the number of families with infants  
124 in the in the targeted age-range, which were available in the period of the data assessment.

### 125 **Stimuli and Procedure**

126 Stimuli were based on four classical VOE paradigms for the four core knowledge  
127 domains action, number, solidity, and cohesion, with four different stimulus types (variants)  
128 each, resulting in 16 different stimuli, which could be presented with an expected or  
129 unexpected outcome (Figure 1 and Figure S1, for the complete stimulus set). Each sequence  
130 consisted of three static images which, shown in sequence, depicted a scenario with a clearly  
131 expectable outcome.

132 In a within-subjects design, each of the 16 sequences was presented two times in each  
133 condition (expected or unexpected). This resulted in a total of 64 distinct trials, presented in  
134 16 blocks. The order of the core knowledge domains, outcomes and the specific stimulus  
135 variations (four in each domain) were counterbalanced between blocks and across infants. We  
136 decided to present a high diversity of stimulus types from different domains to reduce transfer  
137 effects and keep infants' attention high throughout the experiment. It should be noted that  
138 infants may get used to the stimuli and that this may reduce their surprise for unexpected  
139 outcomes over time. However, this would reduce, but not increase, the difference in the neural  
140 activity between expected and unexpected events.

141 Every trial began with an attention getter (a yellow duck with a sound, 1 s), followed  
142 by a black screen (variable duration of .5 – .7 s) and the three stimulus pictures. The first two  
143 pictures showed the initiation of an event or action (0 – 2 s, 1 s each picture), followed by the  
144 picture presenting the expected or the unexpected outcome (see Figure 1). The final picture  
145 was presented for 5 s, for a companion eye-tracking study. Specifically, while we initially  
146 planned to assess and compare both infants' gaze behavior and EEG response, the concurrent  
147 recording (EEG and eye-tracking) only worked for a limited number of infants and trials.  
148 Therefore, a match between the two measures was not feasible and we decided to collect more  
149 eye-tracking data in an independent sample, as a companion study. For the present study and  
150 analyses, we included all trials in which infants looked at the screen for at least 2 s of the final  
151 picture, coded from video (see below). The stimuli showing the outcome, namely the  
152 expected or unexpected outcome, were counterbalanced in case of the cohesion and the  
153 number stimuli (i.e., in the cohesion sequences outcome stimuli showed connected or  
154 unconnected objects and for number sequences the outcome showed one or two objects) and  
155 were matched in terms of luminance and contrast in case of the action and solidity stimuli (all  
156  $ps > .30$ ). Stimuli were presented via Psychtoolbox (version 0.20170103) in Matlab (version

157 9.1). The full set of the original stimuli can be downloaded from the supplemental material of  
158 (Köster et al., 2019).

159 Infants sat on their parent's lap at a viewing distance of about 60 cm from the stimulus  
160 monitor. Sequences were presented at the center of a 17-inch CRT screen at a visual angle of  
161 approximately  $15.0^\circ \times 15.0^\circ$  for the focal event. We presented all 64 trials, but the session  
162 ended earlier when the infant no longer attended to the screen. A video-recording of the infant  
163 was used to exclude trials in which infants did not watch the first 4 s of a trial. Gaze behavior  
164 was coded offline.

### 165 **Electroencephalogram (EEG)**

166 **Apparatus.** The EEG was recorded continuously with 30 Ag/AgCl ring electrodes  
167 from 30 scalp locations of the 10-20-system in a shielded cabin. Data were recorded with a  
168 Twente Medical Systems 32-channel REFA amplifier at a sampling rate of 500 Hz.

169 Horizontal and vertical electrooculograms were recorded bipolarly. The vertex (Cz) served as  
170 an online reference. Impedances were controlled at the beginning of the experiment, aiming  
171 for impedances below 10 k $\Omega$ .

172 **Preprocessing.** EEG data were preprocessed and analyzed in MATLAB (Version  
173 R2017b). EEG signals were band-pass filtered from 0.2 Hz to 110 Hz and segmented into  
174 epochs from -1.5 to 3 s, around to the onset of the outcome picture. Trials in which infants did  
175 not watch the complete 4 s sequence (2 s during the initiation of the event and 2 s of the  
176 outcome picture) were excluded from the analyses. Furthermore, noisy trials were identified  
177 visually and discarded (approx. 10 % of all trials) and up to three noisy electrodes were  
178 interpolated based on spherical information. Eye-blinks and muscle artifacts were detected  
179 using an independent component procedure (ICA) and removed after visual inspection. To  
180 avoid any bias in the ICA removal, the ICAs were determined and removed across the whole  
181 data set, including all experimental conditions (both frequencies, both outcome conditions, all  
182 stimulus categories). Prior to the analyses, the EEG was re-referenced to the average of the



183 scalp electrodes (Fz, F3, F4, F7, F8, FC5, FC6, Cz, C3, C4, T7, T8, CP5, CP6, Pz, P3, P4, P7,  
184 P8, Oz, O1, O2). Infants with a minimum of 10 artifact-free trials in each condition were  
185 included in the statistical analyses. Twenty-two to 52 trials ( $M = 32.2$ ,  $SD = 7.3$ ) remained for  
186 the infants in the final sample, with no significant differences in the number of trials between  
187 conditions (expected, unexpected),  $t(35) = 0.63$   $p = .530$ . We also plotted the data split by  
188 conditions, on subsamples with at least one trial for both the expected and the unexpected  
189 outcome condition. The respective size of subsamples and number of trials were action:  $n =$   
190  $35$ ,  $M = 10.3$ ,  $SD = 3.2$ , solidity:  $n = 35$ ,  $M = 6.9$ ,  $SD = 2.7$ , cohesion:  $n = 32$ ,  $M = 6.1$ ,  $SD =$   
191  $3.6$ , and number:  $n = 36$ ,  $M = 8.5$ ,  $SD = 3.0$ .

192 **ERP Analysis.** For the analyses of event-related potentials (ERPs), we averaged the  
193 neural activity, separately for the trials of both conditions (expected, unexpected). We focused  
194 on the NC as a classical component associated with infants' processing of expected versus  
195 unexpected events (Reynolds, 2015). Specifically, we averaged the ERPs across central  
196 electrodes (Cz, C3, C4), and between 400 – 600 ms, with regard to a -100 – 0 ms baseline.  
197 We chose a baseline just before the onset of the outcome picture. Because it was shown as  
198 part of a picture sequence, each picture elicited a neural response, and this response (4 – 5 Hz  
199 and ERP) decayed towards the beginning of the next stimulus. The ERP power was averaged  
200 for each participant and condition and the power between expected and unexpected trials was  
201 then contrasted by means of a dependent  $t$ -test. We band-pass filtered the ERPs from 0.2 – 30  
202 Hz for displaying purposes.

203 **Spectral Analysis.** To obtain the trial-wise spectral activity elicited by the outcome  
204 pictures we subjected each trial to a complex Morlet's wavelets analysis (Morlet parameter  $m$   
205  $= 7$ , at a resolution of 0.5 Hz). We then averaged the spectral power across trials, separately  
206 for conditions (expected, unexpected). We focused on the frequencies from 2 to 15 Hz across  
207 the whole analyzed time window 0 – 2000 ms, with regard to a -100 – 0 ms baseline, to make  
208 the results directly comparable to the ERP analysis in this and former studies. We did not

209 analyze higher frequencies due to muscle and ocular artifacts in the infant EEG (e.g., Köster,  
210 2016).

211 Because this was the first study to look at the trial-wise neural oscillatory response to a  
212 series of unexpected versus expected events (i.e., not tightly locked to the stimulus onset; cf.  
213 Berger et al., 2006), in a first step, we looked at the grand mean spectral activity, separated by  
214 conditions (unexpected, expected), and the difference between both conditions (unexpected -  
215 expected). Conservatively and because we did not have a specific hypothesis about the  
216 topography or temporal evolution of the theta rhythm across all domains, we analyzed the  
217 neural oscillatory activity averaged across the whole time-range of the outcome stimulus (0 –  
218 2000 ms) and all scalp-recorded electrodes (Fz, F3, F4, F7, F8, FC5, FC6, Cz, C3, C4, T7,  
219 T8, CP5, CP6, Pz, P3, P4, P7, P8, Oz, O1, O2). Note that, a multiple comparison correction  
220 was not feasible here as we analyzed the whole electrode space and time range,. While our  
221 initial proposal was to look at the difference in the 4 Hz theta rhythm between conditions  
222 (Köster et al., 2019), we found the strongest difference between 4 – 5 Hz (see lower panel of  
223 Figure 3). Because this was very close to our initial hypothesis, in particular for being the first  
224 study looking at infants’ ongoing theta activity in a VOE paradigm, we analyzed this  
225 frequency range.

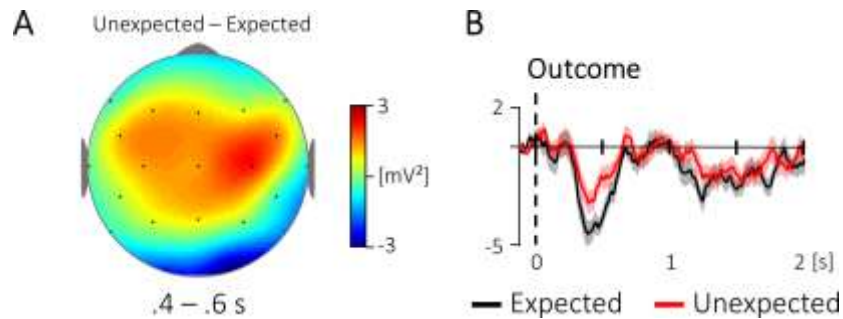
## 226 Results

227 Infants’ event-related responses upon the onset of the outcome picture revealed a clear  
228 Nc component between 400 – 600 ms over central electrodes. The Nc was more pronounced  
229 for expected in contrast to unexpected events,  $t(35) = -2.62$ ,  $p = .013$  (Figure 2).

230 Furthermore, across all scalp recorded electrodes and the whole 0 – 2000 s time  
231 window, we observed an increase in neural oscillatory activity in the 4 – 6 Hz range for  
232 unexpected events and an increase at 6 Hz for expected events,  $t(35) = 4.77$ ,  $p < .001$ , and,  
233  $t(35) = 4.01$ ,  $p < .001$  (Figure 3). This resulted in higher 4 – 5 Hz activity for unexpected

234 compared to expected events across all scalp-recorded electrodes and throughout the whole 0  
235 – 2000 s time-window,  $t(35) = -2.33$ ,  $p = .025$ .

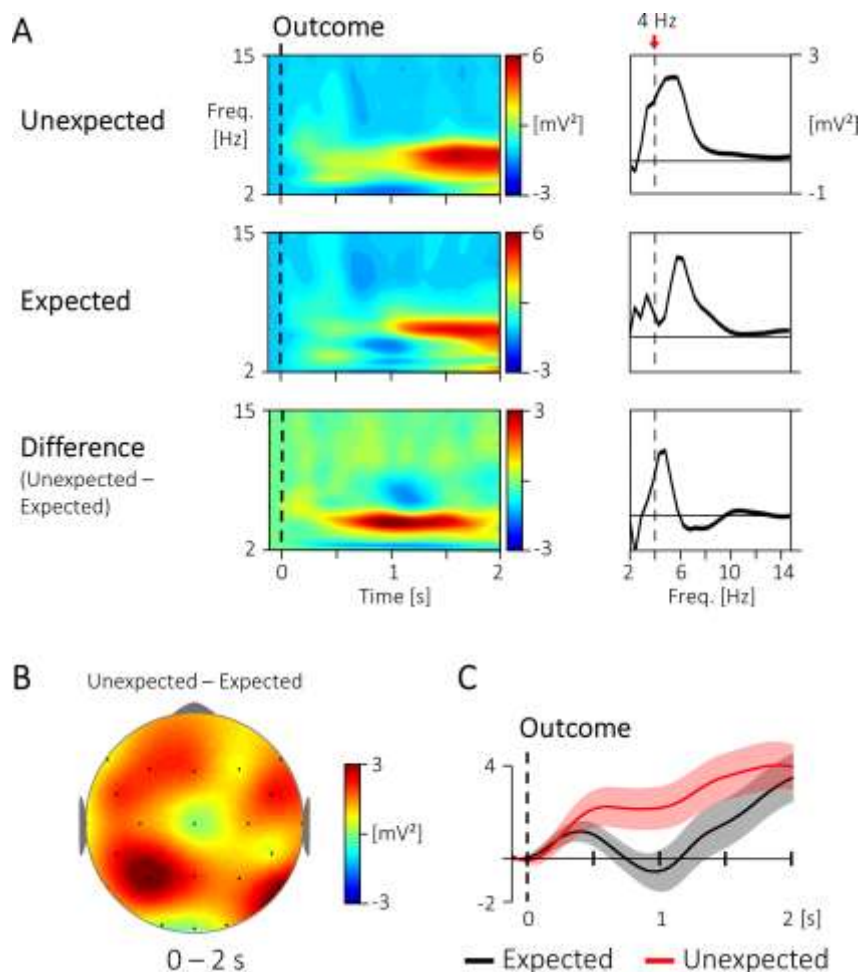
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237

238 **Figure 2.** The topography and time course of the Nc for the outcome pictures. (A) The  
239 difference between unexpected and expected events for 400 – 600 ms, in contrast to a -100 –  
240 0 ms baseline. (B) The corresponding time course at central electrodes (Cz, C3, C4), with a  
241 significant difference between 400 – 600 ms,  $p = .013$ .

242



243

244 **Figure 3.** The grand mean spectral characteristics for unexpected versus expected events for  
245 the outcome picture. (A) The left panels show the time-frequency response across all scalp-  
246 recorded electrodes for unexpected and expected events and the difference (unexpected –  
247 expected), with regard to a -100 – 0 ms baseline. The right panels show the frequency  
248 response between 2 and 15 Hz, averaged over time. The dotted line highlights the activity at 4  
249 Hz, which was expected to increase for unexpected events (Köster et al., 2019). (B) The  
250 topography shows the unexpected - expected difference in 4 – 5 Hz activity across the whole  
251 time window of analysis (0 – 2000 ms, baseline: -100 – 0 ms). (C) The corresponding time  
252 course for the 4 – 5 Hz response across all scalp-electrodes and the whole 0 – 2000 ms time  
253 window shows a significant difference between unexpected versus expected events,  $p = .025$ .

254 To investigate the relation between the effects which we found in the ERP and the  
255 ongoing 4 – 5 Hz theta activity, we tested the spectral characteristics of the evoked oscillatory  
256 activity (i.e., by applying a wavelet transform to the ERP) and its relation to the ongoing  
257 oscillatory activity at central electrodes (Cz, C3, C4) between 400 – 600 ms (Figure S2). We  
258 did not find a significant condition difference in the evoked activity,  $t(35) = 1.57$ ,  $p = .126$ ,  
259 nor the ongoing activity,  $t(35) = -1.26$ ,  $p = .218$ , at these electrodes. The condition effects  
260 (unexpected - expected) were also not correlated between the evoked and the ongoing  
261 response, neither for the difference in the actual ERP,  $r = -.07$ ,  $p = .675$ , nor its spectral  
262 characteristics,  $r = .23$ ,  $p = .169$ .

263 Although the present study was designed to investigate infants' prediction error  
264 processes across domains, to get an impression about the consistency of the differences in the  
265 central Nc and the 4 – 5 Hz activity, we plotted the data split by domains (action, solidity,  
266 continuity, number). The overall time course of the ERP and the 4 – 5 Hz effect was  
267 somewhat consistent across conditions, however, the condition differences (Figure 1 and 2)  
268 were driven to a large degree by the stimuli of the action and the number domain (see Figure  
269 S3 and S4). Interestingly, the peak in the unexpected – expected difference was in the 4 – 5

270 Hz range across all four domains (Figure S4 A). Critically, we did not test these domain-  
271 specific differences statistically due to the low trial numbers within each domain and the main  
272 focus of the study being on prediction error processing in the infant brain more generally,  
273 across different domains.

## 274 **Discussion**

275 Our results show a clear increase in the ongoing 4 – 5 Hz power in response to  
276 unexpected events, in contrast to expected events. This effect was distributed across all scalp-  
277 recorded electrodes and for a prolonged time window of 2 s after the onset of unexpected  
278 outcome pictures. Thus, the theta rhythm was substantially increased for the processing of  
279 prediction errors in the infant brain. Furthermore, in the ERP response we found a stronger Nc  
280 for expected events, in contrast to unexpected events, at central electrodes.

281 As revealed by a direct comparison at central electrodes the effects of the ongoing  
282 theta response were not related to the ERP nor the spectral characteristics of the ERP (cf.  
283 Tallon-baudry and Bertrand, 1999). Thus, the theta response analyzed here reflects a distinct  
284 neural signature compared to those reported in former studies, which focused on evoked  
285 responses (Berger et al., 2006; Conejero et al., 2018; Kayhan et al., 2019; Langeloh et al.,  
286 2020; Reynolds and Richards, 2005; Webb et al., 2005).

287 The ongoing theta rhythm has been associated with learning processes in human adults  
288 (Friese et al., 2013; Hanslmayr et al., 2009; Klimesch et al., 1997; Köster et al., 2018;  
289 Osipova et al., 2006), children (Köster et al., 2017), and infants (Bergus et al., 2015). Our  
290 findings highlight that the theta rhythm promotes the processing of novel, unexpected  
291 information, in the sense of prediction errors, already in early infancy. This is particularly  
292 interesting because the theta rhythm is usually associated with neural processes in prefrontal  
293 and medio-temporal structures, which are still immature in the infant brain (Gilmore et al.,  
294 2012). Furthermore, the theta rhythm has long been associated with cognitive control  
295 processes in adults (Cavanagh and Frank, 2014; Hanslmayr et al., 2008) and children (Adam

296 et al., 2020), and infants' ongoing theta oscillations at 6 months were predictive for their  
297 cognitive ability at 9 months (Braithwaite et al., 2020).

298         Embedding the role of the theta rhythm in a broader theoretical framework, from  
299 animal models we know that the theta rhythm promotes predictive processes (i.e., such as the  
300 activation of future locations in a labyrinth; O'Keefe and Recce, 1993) and facilitates Hebbian  
301 learning (Tort et al., 2009). Based on these findings, the theta rhythm has been described as a  
302 neural code for the sequential representation and the integration of novel information into  
303 existing concepts (Lisman and Jensen, 2013). We would like to add to this that the theta  
304 rhythm may implement a computational mechanism that compresses real time events onto a  
305 faster neural time-scale, to advance with cognitive processes ahead of real time and to  
306 facilitate the integration of new events into existing networks. This is critical to predict future  
307 events and integrate novel events as they happen in real time. While former studies have  
308 demonstrated that this computational mechanism may be phylogenetically preserved in the  
309 mammalian lineage (Cavanagh and Frank, 2014; Lisman and Jensen, 2013), here we report  
310 first evidence that the ongoing theta rhythm supports the processing of unexpected events  
311 already from very early in human ontogeny.

312         We also identified differences between unexpected and expected events in the Nc, a  
313 classical visual ERP component associated with infants' processing of unexpected events. As  
314 expected from former studies, the Nc and the condition difference was pronounced between  
315 400 – 600 ms, and was specific to central electrodes (Cz, C3, C4). However, the condition  
316 difference pointed in the opposite direction than most (Kayhan et al., 2019; Langeloh et al.,  
317 2020; Reynolds and Richards, 2005; Webb et al., 2005), though not all (Kaduk et al., 2016;  
318 Reid et al., 2009), previously reported Nc effects (namely, the more common findings of a  
319 higher negativity for unexpected events). It is currently not clear, why unexpected events  
320 induce enhanced Nc amplitudes in some studies, but a decreased Nc compared to expected  
321 events in others. Because the amplitude of the Nc has been associated with the extent of

322 attentional engagement with a visual stimulus (Reynolds, 2015; Reynolds and Richards,  
323 2005), in our study infants' initial orienting response may have been more pronounced for the  
324 more familiar and expected outcomes. This is in line with previous studies using partly similar  
325 stimuli (in particular the action events; Kaduk et al., 2016; Reid et al., 2009) and with the  
326 notion that infants show familiarity preferences (i.e., the preference for events consistent with  
327 their experience) when they are still in the process of building stable cognitive representations  
328 of their environment (Nordt et al., 2016). While we did not have sufficient statistical power  
329 (and it was also not the main purpose) in the present study to test the differential neural  
330 responses to the events in different domains, this remains an intriguing question for future  
331 research.

332 To conclude, our findings make a strong case that the theta rhythm is present from very early  
333 in ontogeny, associated with the processing of prediction errors and, putatively, the  
334 refinement of the emerging concepts of the physical and social environment. This marks an  
335 essential step towards a better understanding of the neural oscillatory dynamics that underlie  
336 infants' brain development and their emerging models of the world around them. **Conflict of**  
337 **interest:** There are no conflicts of interest.

338

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