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The Components of Working Memory Updating: An Experimental Decomposition and Individual Differences

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Working memory updating (WMU) has been identified as a cognitive function of prime importance for everyday tasks and has also been found to be a significant predictor of higher mental abilities. Yet, little is known about the constituent processes of WMU. We suggest that operations required in a typical WMU task can be decomposed into 3 major component processes: retrieval, transformation, and substitution. We report a large-scale experiment that instantiated all possible combinations of those 3 component processes. Results show that the 3 components make independent contributions to updating performance. We additionally present structural equation models that link WMU task performance and working memory capacity (WMC) measures. These feature the methodological advancement of estimating interindividual covariation and experimental effects on mean updating measures simultaneously. The modeling results imply that WMC is a strong predictor of WMU skills in general, although some component processes—in particular, substitution skills—were independent of WMC. Hence, the reported predictive power of WMU measures may rely largely on common WM functions also measured in typical WMC tasks, although substitution skills may make an independent contribution to predicting higher mental abilities.

Keywords: working memory, memory updating, structural equation modeling, individual differences

Working memory (WM) can be characterized as a mechanism, or collection of mechanisms, dedicated to holding selected representations available for further cognitive processing. For example, mental arithmetic would be impossible without storage of intermediate sums in WM (Fürst & Hitch, 2000). One implication of the involvement of WM in many cognitive tasks is that the content of WM must be continuously updated. For instance, a simple task like counting sheep in a paddock consists of updating a number in WM with each new object counted (Garavan, 1998). If one is counting ewes and rams separately, then two numbers must be continuously updated and retained, and that number rises to three if one is also keeping track of lambs. Likewise, when reading a story, the reader follows the unfolding course of events by building a situation model that is updated according to the events described

(Morrow, Greenspan, & Bower, 1987). While driving, every glance into the rearview mirror updates the driver's representation of the surrounding traffic, thus providing "situational awareness" (Gugerty, 1997, p. 42). Language comprehension also depends on rapid updating of syntactic representations, for instance, when encountering garden-path sentences, such as "While the scientists explored the cave remained undiscovered" (Christianson, Hollingworth, Halliwell, & Ferreira, 2001).

Updating of WM has long been recognized as an important topic of study in cognitive psychology and the neurosciences. One of the first experiments on WM updating was conducted by Yntema and Mueser (1962), who presented subjects with a long list of words and asked people to remember the last exemplar in each of a varying number of categories. In the related running memory task, subjects are asked to recall the last *n* items of a long list. This task has been used by Morris and Jones (1990) to study updating within the "central executive" of Baddeley's (1986) WM model. It should be noted, however, that the utility of the running memory task as a tool to investigate updating (e.g., Postle, 2003) has recently been questioned (e.g., Bunting, Cowan, & Saults, 2006; see also Geiger & Lewandowsky, 2008).

WM updating has also been identified as one of three correlated factors that capture individual differences in executive functions (Miyake et al., 2000). Indeed, the "updating" factor has been found to be the only executive function that predicts fluid intelligence (Chen & Li, 2007; Friedman et al., 2006). Accordingly, difficulties in WM updating—especially the inability to inhibit information that is no longer relevant—have been proffered as the cause of poor comprehension skills (Carretti, Cornoldi, De Beni, &

Romano, 2005; Palladino, Cornoldi, De Beni, & Pazzaglia, 2001). In the neurosciences, Donchin and Coles (1988) proposed that one of the most prominent event-related potential components, the P300, reflects updating of WM.

The obvious and acknowledged importance of WM updating stands in contrast to our limited understanding of the underlying processes (for similar arguments, see Kessler & Meiran, 2008; Oberauer & Kliegl, 2001). Kessler and Meiran (2008) argued that updating must involve distinct subprocesses because WM needs to be stable and flexible at the same time. Specifically, when updating information, WM must be protected against interference by outdated information, but it must also allow for the modification of memorial content when appropriate. Those two competing demands are unlikely to be met by a single unitary process, although at present nothing is known about what constituent processes might govern WM updating. In our study, we sought to make the first step toward filling this void by (a) experimentally manipulating the components involved in a comprehensive updating task and (b) considering how those components relate to individual differences in WM capacity.

WM Updating and Individual Differences

The consideration of individual differences has a long history in WM research (Daneman & Carpenter, 1980; Fry & Hale, 1996; Just & Carpenter, 1992), and the pattern of correlations between tasks can address issues relating to the number or nature of processes or components involved in WM. For instance, Oberauer and colleagues (Oberauer, Süß, Schulze, Wilhelm, & Wittmann, 2000; Oberauer, Süß, Wilhelm, & Wittman, 2003) have used such an approach to decompose the WM capacity construct into functional components (simultaneous storage and processing, relational integration/coordination, and supervision/speed) and content facets (verbal/numerical vs. spatial WM), which were then used to investigate the relations between functional WM components and higher cognitive functions such as reasoning (Oberauer, Süß, Wilhelm, & Wittmann, 2008) or attention (Buehner, Krumm, & Pick, 2005).

We already noted that WM updating (WMU from here on) has been found to predict fluid intelligence (Friedman et al., 2006); however, the issue is far from settled. For instance, in their studies of individual differences in executive functions, Miyake et al. (2000) and Friedman et al. (2006) measured two kinds of executive functions—task shifting and inhibition—by subtracting an experimental condition requiring those functions from a control condition not requiring them. WMU, in contrast, was measured simply by the accuracy on WM tasks that required updating, such as a running memory task (termed *letter task* in their article). These tasks obviously do not supply a pure measure of WMU but additionally involve other WM functions such as memory maintenance. Therefore, we do not know whether the correlation between the "updating" factor and fluid intelligence (Friedman et al., 2006) reflects a relation between intelligence and the ability to update WM or simply a correlation between intelligence and WM capacity (WMC from here on). Recently, Schmiedek, Hildebrandt, Lövdén, Wilhelm, and Lindenberger (in press) have argued that common WM abilities underlie performance in both WMC (e.g., complex span tasks) and WMU tasks and that hence both types of task are strongly related and predict higher cognitive abilities to a similar degree.

In contrast, some researchers have claimed that there is only a weak link between WMU and WMC; for instance, Radvansky and Copeland (2001) reported that the ability to update the situational representation of a verbally described unfolding event was unrelated to WMC. Moreover, it has been suggested that WMU abilities (as opposed to WMC abilities) are relatively preserved in old age (Radvansky & Dijkstra, 2007) but disproportionately affected in schizophrenia (Van Raalten, Ramsey, Jansma, Jager, & Kahn, 2008).

Hence, the relation between WMU and WMC remains to be examined: On the one hand, prominent theories of WM that assume a tight link between WMC and executive functions (Baddeley, 1986; Engle, Kane, & Tuholski, 1999; Kane et al., 2004) should predict that updating processes are closely related to measures of WMC because updating is regarded as one executive function (Miyake et al., 2000). This has been supported by recent evidence (Schmiedek et al., in press). On the other hand, WMU and WMC may be dissociable dimensions of mental ability, as suggested, for instance, by the results of Radvansky and colleagues (Radvansky & Copeland, 2001; Radvansky & Dijkstra, 2007).

To address this issue in addition to the main updating task we describe, we included three different WM tasks in our study, thus permitting a reliable estimate of each participant's WMC. These WMC estimates could then be statistically related to the individual component processes of WMU[1] that were isolated by our experimental manipulations.

Components of WMU

In the absence of any relevant precedent or prior theorizing, we began our examination of the components of WMU by conducting a task analysis of previously used experimental updating paradigms. This task analysis identified three putative subprocesses: retrieval, transformation, and substitution. Our experiment orthogonally manipulated these three components, thus permitting their empirical identification and assessment of their interrelationship.

First, updating may or may not involve the requirement to retrieve information. For example, suppose a restaurant manager is told, "20 patrons are expected tonight." This information would need to be updated when the new information—"Actually, it will be five patrons more than the initially expected 20"—becomes available; however, in this instance, no retrieval of the initial information is required because it is present in the updating prompt. By contrast, the prompt "Actually, it will be five patrons more than initially expected" requires retrieval of the initial number to ensure accurate updating.[2]

Second, updating may or may not involve transformation. Both of the examples just given involved transformation of information—adding 5 to 20 in order to arrive at the final result of 25.

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[1] Whenever we refer to the term *component processes of WMU*, it would be more formally correct to use the phrase *component processes potentially required for performance in WMU tasks*, as not all updating necessarily involves all three subprocesses described in the following paragraph.

[2] We use the term *retrieval* in a theoretically neutral manner to refer to whatever cognitive processes are required to use information that is not presented. In some models, the actual process may be more accurately described as *access* to already-retrieved information; we will take up those theoretical nuances after all the data have been presented.

However, the need for transformation is not inevitable; for example, the prompt "Actually, it will be 25 patrons" permits updating without the need to transform earlier information.

Finally, updating may or may not involve a substitution of information. The three preceding examples all replaced information (25 instead of 20 patrons), but again this is not inevitable. For example, one may receive the information "Actually, we are expecting five groups of four patrons," or "Three patrons canceled their reservation, but we got three new bookings." Although these prompts will likely elicit some transformative processing (e.g., multiplying 4 by 5), the result does not require a substitution of the old information.

The various WMU tasks used in the literature employ these three processes to varying degrees. Some of the most commonly used updating tasks are summarized in Table 1. For each task, we have identified the extent to which it involves the three distinct subprocesses just discussed. For example, the *n*-back task, in which people are presented with a series of items and have to judge whether each one is identical to the item presented *n* steps before, clearly involves a retrieval component—because one has to remember at least the last *n* items and retrieve the *n*th one back at every step—but it does not involve any transformation because the information must be retrieved in a form that is identical to the form in which it was presented. By contrast, the memory updating (MU) task involves both retrieval and transformation. In the MU task, people have to hold in memory a set of items (typically single digits), each presented in a separate frame, and are then presented with a prompt (e.g., "? + 1") directing them to retrieve the content of one particular frame and transform this information as per the prompt and from then on to retain the result of that transformation in memory.

The table clarifies that there is considerable cognitive heterogeneity among updating tasks. Some tasks involve all three pro-cesses, whereas others require only a subset of processes. Moreover, these three component processes are not necessarily unique to updating tasks; for instance, retrieval by definition obviously plays a role in virtually all tests of memory. It follows that the heterogeneity in the observed relationship between updating and WMC may partially stem from differences between the various WMU tasks. In particular, the different tasks may tap the proposed underlying subprocesses of updating in different ways or to different extents. In order to shed more light on these component processes and their relations to higher cognitive functioning, we aimed to decompose the processes involved in a single updating task and to investigate their contribution to updating performance and also their covariation with general WMC.

The Present Study

The present study investigated the three component processes potentially required for performance in WMU tasks—retrieval, transformation, and substitution. Our goal was to isolate these components from other processes and variables and to observe their interactions. To this end, we used a variant of the MU task previously used by Salthouse, Babcock, and Shaw (1991) and Oberauer et al. (2000). Subjects memorized three letters and then performed a sequence of operations that selectively required updating of one of the memoranda and that variously did or did not require retrieval, transformation, and substitution. Hence, this task—described later in detail—involved multiple processes. In order to assess the interplay among the processes, we used a multilevel regression approach.

In addition, we combined those experimental manipulations with psychometric analysis methods to isolate the variance of each of these components of WMU and relate them to WMC. To do so, we had the subjects also complete a battery of WM measures in a

Table 1

Processes Involved in Common Working Memory Updating Tasks

Task/source	Retrieval	Transformation	Substitution
n-back	+	—	+
Kirchner (1958)			
McElree (2001)			
Yntema (1963)			
Keep-track	+	—	+
Miyake et al. (2000)			
Morris & Jones (1990)			
Running memory: Friedman et al. (2006)	+	—	+
Memory updating	+	+	+
Salthouse et al. (1991)			
Oberauer et al. (2000)			
Tone-repetition detection: Galletly et al. (2007)	—	—	+
Deviant-tone counting: Van Raalten et al. (2008)	—	+	+
Matrix updating: Chen & Li (2007)	+	—	+

Note. In the keep-track task, subjects are given a number of categories (e.g., tools, animals) and are then presented with a series of exemplar words (e.g., hammer, dog); the task is to always remember the most recently presented exemplar for each category. In the running-memory task, subjects are presented with an item list of unpredictable length and have to remember the last *n* items of the list. The tone-repetition detection is a simple task in which subjects monitor a series of tones and respond whenever a target tone is immediately repeated. The deviant-tone counting task involves keeping a running count of rarely occurring tones in a sequence. The matrix updating task requires subjects to mentally move memorized dots across the cells of a matrix. The *n*-back and memory updating tasks are explained in the text. Task labels are not necessarily those used in the cited studies. Dash = no involvement; plus symbol = involvement.

separate session. The covariation of WMU components and WMC was investigated with structural equation models.

Method

Subjects

One hundred and four third-year psychology students from the University of Western Australia participated in the two experimental sessions for partial course credit. Data from seven subjects were discarded either due to technical failure (two subjects) or because their performance in the WMU experiment was classified as an outlier (five subjects; see later section for details). The analyses therefore are based on the data from the remaining 97 subjects (13 men and 84 women; age range, 19–41 years; mean age, 21.2 years).

Apparatus

Both experimental sessions were controlled by a Matlab program designed using the Psychophysics Toolbox (Brainard, 1997; Pelli, 1997). Subjects were tested individually in sound-attenuated booths. Subjects sat about 70 cm from a 17-in. (43.18-cm) thin-film transistor monitor.

WMC Measures

Design. The first experimental session lasted 30 min and involved measurement of each participant's WMC with a battery of three tasks.

Stimuli and procedure. The three WMC tasks were taken with slight modifications from Oberauer (2005). The tasks were the operation span (OS), sentence span (SS), and spatial short-term memory (SSTM) tasks, and they were always administered in this order.[3]

Operation span (OS). This task was originally designed by Turner and Engle (1989). On each trial, subjects saw an alternating sequence of arithmetic equations (e.g., $3 + 2 = 5$) and the to-be-remembered consonants (all consonants were used except "Q" and "Y," but subjects were not made aware of this additional constraint). Subjects had to judge the correctness of each equation and encode the following consonant for later serial recall.

Commencement of a trial was indicated by a fixation cross presented for 1.5 s. Then, the first equation appeared in the center of the screen. It disappeared when subjects made a response or after the maximum response time of 3 s had elapsed. Subjects used the "?/" and "Z" keys to make "Yes, this is correct" and "No, this is not correct" responses, respectively. Keys were labeled with "Y" and "N" accordingly.

After the equation disappeared, a consonant was presented centrally for 1 s. After a 100-ms blank interval, the next equation appeared. This sequence repeated between four and eight times, depending on list length. Following list presentation, recall of the letters was prompted with a question mark and a blinking underscore. Subjects then typed the remembered series of letters in their order of presentation; all letter keys were accepted, but nonletter keys were blocked. Every typed letter appeared next to the question mark for 200 ms. Subjects had to type as many letters as were actually presented in the trial. They were informed that the order

of letters mattered and were hence instructed to guess if necessary rather than skip letters they could not remember. There was no timing constraint for recall. The intertrial interval was 500 ms; there was a self-paced break after every three trials.

List length (i.e., the number of equations and letters) ranged from four to eight. There were 15 trials altogether, three trials per list length. The first equation operand was randomly drawn from the 1 to 10 range, and the second operand was drawn from the -9 to $+10$ range (excluding 0), and results ranged from $+1$ to $+20$. Half of the equations were correct. Three practice trials (with list lengths of three, four, and five) preceded the experimental trials.

Letter sequences, equations, and trial order were placed in one random order that remained the same for all subjects. The consonant lists for each trial contained no repetitions, and the random generation of lists was repeated until no common acronyms (such as "JFK") occurred.

Sentence span (SS). This task was a variant of the task originally designed by Daneman and Carpenter (1980) and was very similar to the OS task just described, except that the processing task was to judge the meaningfulness of sentences. There was an equal number of meaningful and meaningless sentences, and regardless of meaningfulness, there were three types of sentence structures. About a third of the meaningful sentences were so-called garden-path sentences that required updating of an initial parsing solution within the sentence (e.g., "As Toby sang a song played on the radio"). They were paired with structurally analogous sentences that were meaningless regardless of how they were parsed (e.g., "As Dan drank the milk rolled over the hill"). Another third of the sentences had the same structure but were disambiguated early by an additional pronoun with reference to the object, thus avoiding the garden path (e.g., "While Susan wrote the letter it fell off the table" vs. "As the chef stirred the soup it veered into the ditch"). In the remaining third of the sentences, the pronoun referred to the subject ("While Lisa drank the water she drove down the street" vs. "As the man walked the poodle he slept calmly").

All sentences contained between eight and 11 words, and sentence length, use of "while" vs. "as," and use of concrete first names were broadly counterbalanced across sentence categories. Because this processing task was more difficult than processing of equations, the maximum response time to sentences was set to 5 s, and list lengths ranged only from three to seven. The practice phase comprised three trials of set sizes two, three, and four. In all other respects, the SS and OS tasks were identical.

Spatial short-term memory (SSTM). This task followed closely the original version by Oberauer (1993). Subjects had to remember the location of a number of dots in a 10 × 10 grid. Following central presentation of an "Alert!" message for 1 s, the grid was shown, and a variable number of solid dots appeared, one by one, in individual cells of the grid for 900 ms each (interstimulus interval 100 ms).

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[3] The WMC task battery in fact also included a fourth task—the original version of the memory updating task as used by Oberauer (e.g., Oberauer, 2002; Oberauer et al., 2000). However, as this task served as a blueprint for our experimental task (explained later), we do not consider it further; including it into the estimation of WMC would not substantially alter our conclusions.

Subjects were instructed to remember the spatial relations between the dots. That is, absolute dot positions were irrelevant; only the overall pattern of dots was to-be-remembered. After all dots were presented, subjects were cued to reproduce the pattern of dots. The cue was presented with a pattern mask that was the same size as the grid.

Subjects reproduced the remembered pattern of dots by clicking the cells using a standard computer mouse. Clicking on a dot again made it disappear, and subjects were allowed to correct the generated dots until they were satisfied with their response. They proceeded to the next trial by clicking a "Next" button at the bottom of the screen. No feedback was given.

The number of to-be-remembered dots varied from two to six, and there were two spatial distance conditions. In the "near" condition, all dots of a trial occurred within a 5×5 area (i.e., a quarter of the grid); in the "far" condition, dots could be placed anywhere in the grid. There were three trials for each combination of set size and spatial distance condition and hence 30 trials altogether. Dot positions were generated at random, with the constraint that no dots appeared in corner positions to prevent verbal coding. Again, the order of trials and dot sequences were fixed for all subjects.

WMU

The aim of the second experimental session was to disentangle the three presumed updating processes: retrieval (R), transformation (T), and substitution (S).

Design and stimuli. We modified the memory updating (MU) task that was originally designed by Salthouse et al. (1991) and adapted for psychometric purposes by Oberauer et al. (2000). In this task, subjects encode an initial set of items and subsequently update them repeatedly. Hence, each MU trial consists of an encoding phase, an updating phase, and typically a final recall phase. We created eight experimental conditions by fully crossing the three factors R, T, and S while keeping other variables constant.

On each trial, subjects were presented with an initial set of three letters (ranging from A to Z), each presented in a separate rectangular frame on the screen (in a single row). To avoid re-use of the same letter during updating, we chose five as the minimal alphabetic distance between the three input letters (i.e., with "A" in Frame 1, the closest Frame 2 and 3 letters were "V" and "F," "F" and "K," or "V" and "Q"; "A" and "Z" were considered neighbors because the alphabet "wrapped around"; see later section).

Thus, subjects always had to remember (and then update) three items. Previous research (cf. Oberauer et al., 2000) has shown this set size to provide an intermediate difficulty level ideal for the study of individual differences, as floor or ceiling effects are avoided. Oberauer (2002) additionally showed that the latency of individual updating steps is affected by whether they involve switching from one element in WM to another. Because we were not interested in those effects here, we held switching constant by moving to a new (randomly chosen) item on each step.

All updating operations were cued by the display of the appropriate prompt in the frame that was to be updated. Each trial involved six updating steps. Subjects typed the result of the update (i.e., by pressing the corresponding letter on the keyboard) at every updating step. The six updating steps were followed by a recall test of the final contents of all frames.[4]

There were eight different updating conditions. From these conditions, all possible subsets of six were implemented across trials, resulting in 28 $[\binom{8}{6}]$ trials. This implies that no updating condition was repeated within a trial and that each condition occurred 21 (28 * 6/8) times in total. The conditions were created by fully crossing the three factors R, T, and S in a within-subjects design. We identify conditions by referring to these three letters; for example, the experimental condition involving all three processes is labeled R-T-S; the condition featuring only a transformation is labeled r_{no}-T-s_{no}, and so forth. The experimental conditions are summarized in Table 2, which presents the stimuli shown on a given updating step assuming that the letter "C" is the currently remembered content of the targeted frame.

Conditions involving *retrieval* required subjects to retrieve the most recent letter of the cued frame from memory to perform the current operation. In contrast, this letter was provided with the cue in the no-retrieval conditions, meaning that the operation could be executed without retrieval of the previous content of the frame. *Transformation* conditions involved a transformation of the selected letter by alphabet arithmetic. Only positive operations of $+ 1$ and $+ 2$ were used (with equal probability), and the alphabet wrapped around such that $Z + 1 = A$. *Substitution* conditions resulted in the replacement of memory content with new information, whereas the outcome of no-substitution steps was identical to the information already held in memory.[5]

Condition r_{no}-t_{no}-s_{no} involved none of the three processes, and the currently remembered letter was simply presented again. This condition can be regarded as a baseline. Condition r_{no}-t_{no}-S was identical to baseline except that a different letter was presented, which replaced the one in memory (pure S without R or T). In condition R-t_{no}-s_{no}, a "?" prompted subjects to retrieve the currently held letter and report it (pure R without T or S). Conditions R-T-S, r_{no}-T-S, and r_{no}-T-s_{no} involved standard alpha-arithmetic operations. For instance, in R-T-S, subjects had to add a number to whatever they currently remembered for that particular frame. In r_{no}-T-s_{no}, there was a transformation, but because its result was

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[4] Because our focus was exclusively on updating, we do not report the final recall data. The recall test was included only to ensure that people remembered all three items until after the last updating step.

[5] We stress that we define substitution as the replacement of memorized information (which is bound to a frame location) by the result of an updating step in that frame. One could argue that our r_{no}-T conditions (additionally) involved a second type of substitution, namely replacing the memory content with the operand of the transformation before actually beginning the transformation. We do not agree with this for two reasons. First, in that case, our r_{no}-T-S condition would involve another substitution process and should hence be slower than our R-T-S condition—which it was not. Second, we conducted an additional experiment with 25 subjects in which we compared two conditions, both of which required transformation and substitution but no retrieval. One condition exactly replicated the r_{no}-T-S condition of the present experiment (i.e., the operand of the transformation differed from the current memory content, so when remembering the letter "C," the transformation was either A + 1 or B + 2); the other used the current memory content as the transformation operand (i.e., when remembering "C," the transformation was either C + 1 or C + 2). These two conditions differed neither in RT (difference 13 ms) nor accuracy (difference .01 accuracy units). Hence, if there was no retrieval involved, it did not matter whether subjects used the letter they kept in memory or a newly presented letter when performing the transformation.

Table 2
Conditions Used in the Working Memory Updating Session, With Examples of Updating Prompts

	T		t_{no}	
Variable	R	r_{no}	R	r_{no}
S	? + 1 or ? + 2	A + 1 or B + 2	→	X
S_{no}	? + 0	A + 2 or B + 1	?	C

Note. Examples of prompts assume that the letter "C" is currently memorized in the frame being updated. R = retrieval involved; T = transformation involved; S = substitution involved; r_{no} = retrieval not involved; t_{no} = transformation not involved; s_{no} = substitution not involved.

identical to the remembered letter, there was no substitution. Condition R-T-s_{no} was designed as a transformation that does not involve substitution and hence does not change memory content ("? + 0"). In condition R-t_{no}-S, subjects were presented with an arrow that linked one frame with another, indicating that they should retrieve and then copy the letter from one frame to the other as indicated by the arrow, thus requiring a retrieval and a substitution but no transformation (other than a spatial "relocation"). Note that conditions R-t_{no}-S and R-T-s_{no} were required to permit the orthogonal combination of all three experimental variables, although this mandated the use of operations that differed from those in the other conditions (e.g., "+0" to avoid a substitution). We deal with the implications of these design decisions during data analysis.

Procedure. The trial sequence (of two sample trials) is illustrated in Figure 1: Each trial was initiated by a key press. The starting letters were presented in their frames, all at once, for 2 s. Then the frames were cleared, and the first updating instruction (as summarized in Table 2) was displayed in a randomly selected frame. Subjects had to carry out the operation required by the instruction, type the result within a specified time limit (explained later), and remember the result as the new content of that frame from there on. If no response was detected within the time limit, an error was recorded and the next step commenced with display of a new instruction in a new frame. No feedback was given after a response, and responses were not echoed on the screen. The instruction for each step was presented immediately after the response of the previous step. After six such steps, final recall was signaled by pink question marks presented one by one in each of the frames in random order, and subjects were required to type the remembered content for that frame.

The timing constraint for recall was 5 s per frame. Feedback was provided after the final memory test at the end of each trial, showing subjects the number of correct responses they obtained out of a total of three. The intertrial interval was 2.5 s.

Before the experimental trials began, subjects were given a number of practice trials (three with only one frame, three with two, and four with three frames). All eight conditions were covered in the practice trials. There was a break after the practice phase and also halfway through the session. The session took approximately 25 min.

To account for individual differences in typing speed, we calculated time limits for typing of the results of individual updating steps on an individual basis. The time limit was three times the median of reaction times (RTs) in the three-frame practice trials, calculated separately for conditions involving and not involving transformation

(pilot testing suggested that transformation would have a significant impact on RT). Mean deadlines were 7.94 s and 4.91 s for transformation and no-transformation steps, respectively. This manipulation ensured that all subjects were given sufficient time to complete the operations during the experiment, without however providing them with excess slack time during which to rehearse.

Results

WMC Measures

Dependent measures in all WMC tasks were final correct-in-position recall scores (with the exception of the span-task processing components, where the dependent measure was simply the rate of correct responses). We scored all WM tasks using partial credit scoring (cf. Conway et al., 2005). For instance, a subject correctly remembering five out of six letters in a span-task trial would score 5/6 on that trial, and the total score would be calculated as the mean of these partial scores across trials. Chance performance level in all tasks was close to zero (e.g., 1/21 = .05 in the span tasks, as no vowels were used). Descriptive results of the WMC battery are summarized in Table 3. The task intercorrelations are given in Table 4.

WMU

As mentioned earlier, data from five subjects were excluded from all analyses because they failed to comply with updating instructions in condition R-T-S of the WMU session, as revealed by an updating performance of below 0.2 in that condition (no such problems occurred in the other conditions). The mean performance of the five eliminated subjects was 0.191, which was 2.7 standard deviations below the condition mean.

Descriptive data. Mean updating performance and RTs are shown in Table 5. RT data are based on correct updating steps only. Responses with RTs below 300 ms were excluded from consideration.

Regression analyses. We first analyzed the data via multilevel regression. Multilevel regression (also known as *hierarchical regression* or *mixed-effects modeling*; see, e.g., Pinheiro & Bates, 2000) permits an aggregate analysis of data from all subjects without confounding within- and between-subject variability and has been used previously to analyze data in short-term memory (for details, see, e.g., Lewandowsky, Brown, Wright, & Nimmo, 2006). We used the lmer function of the R programming language (Bates, 2007; R Development Core Team, 2008) for the multilevel regressions; we obtained *p* values via Markov Chain Monte Carlo
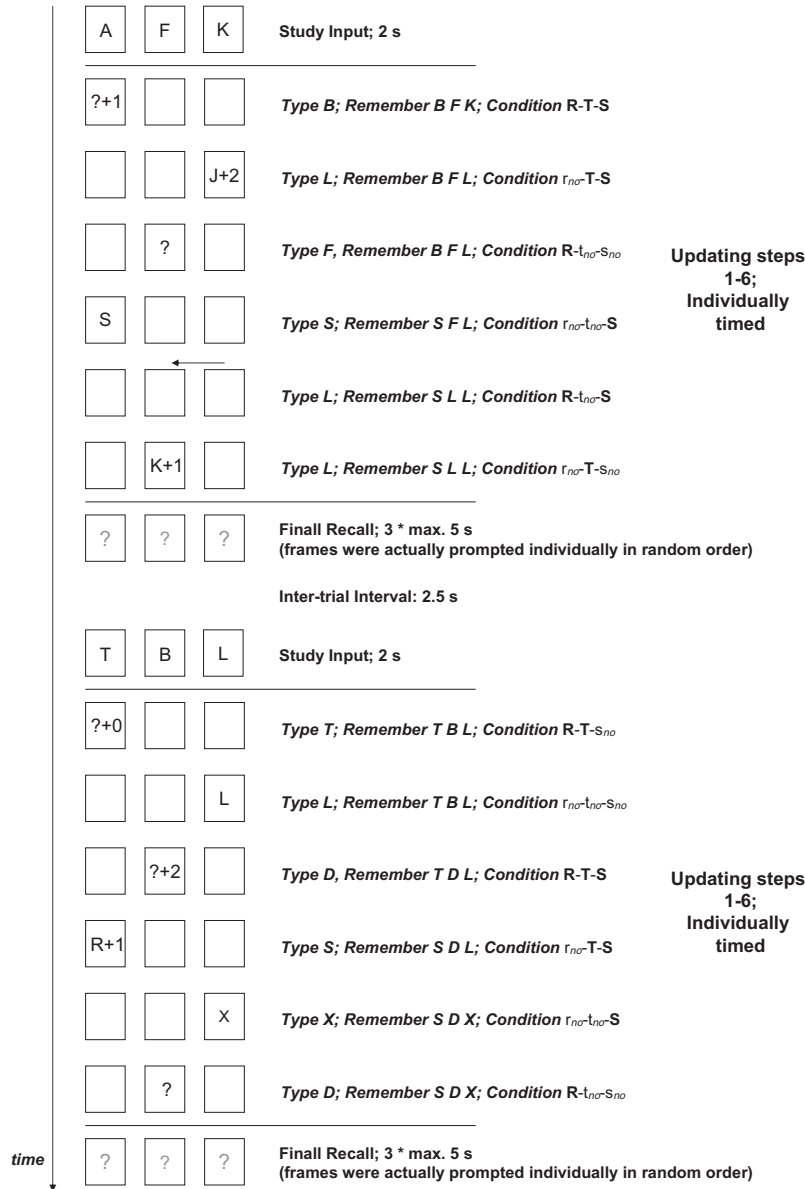
Figure 1. Sample trial sequence for the working memory updating task.

simulations (5,000 samples) using the mcmcpvalue function (Plummer, Best, Cowles, & Vines, 2008).

In both accuracy and RT analyses, the independent variables (R, T, and S) were dummy coded (e.g., 0 and 1 for absence and presence, respectively, of a substitution). The variable T, however, was further decomposed. First, we used dummy variables T1 and T2 to accommodate the fact that the difficulty of a transformation varies with the size of the operand (Zbrodof, 1999). We used T1 as the baseline, so all transformation conditions were dummy coded with T1 = 1, and all remaining (nontransformation) conditions were set to T1 = 0. Transformations involving a + 2 operation were additionally coded as T2 = 1. That is, T1 and T2 were coded incrementally, so a + 2 operation would be coded as 1 on both T1 and T2 factors whereas a + 1 operation would be coded as 1 and

0, respectively. For the zero-transformation (? + 0) condition R-T-s_{no}, we further introduced a dummy-coded variable T0. Although technically involving a transformation, this condition required little more than retrieval of the current frame content and therefore is likely to take less time, and incur fewer errors, than adding 1. T0 was set to 1 for condition R-T-s_{no} and was 0 for all other conditions (so a + 0 operation was coded 1, 1, and 0 on T0, T1, and T2).

Finally, condition R-t_{no}-S involved not only retrieval and substitution, but also—unlike the other conditions—an attentional shift from one frame to another. Therefore, a switch parameter SW was incorporated to account for these extra frame switching costs. Similar to T0, this parameter was dummy coded 1 for condition R-t_{no}-S but was 0 for all others.

Table 3
Descriptive Statistics of the Working Memory Tasks

Task	Mean	SE	Range	Skewness	Kurtosis
Operation span					
Memory task	.69	.013	.23–.94	−1.10	2.03
Processing task	.91	.006	.71–1.00	−0.87	0.45
Sentence span					
Memory task	.63	.018	.25–.96	−0.22	−0.78
Processing task	.79	.009	.47–.92	−1.22	1.81
Spatial short-term memory	.85	.004	.73–.94	−0.24	−0.24

From our task analyses, the most straightforward and parsimonious assumption regarding the three processes of retrieval, transformation, and substitution would be to assume "chained independence": a serial chain of principally independent processes. That is, one needs to retrieve information before one can transform it, and one needs to await the result of the transformation before one can use this result to substitute outdated information. Despite this "chaining" due to obvious sequential constraints, we assumed the processes per se to be independent. In terms of RT, such independence would be reflected in an additive regression model with no interactions. If one process takes x ms and another process takes y ms, then the two together should take $x + y$ ms. In contrast, in terms of updating accuracy, independence would best be captured in a multiplicative model. If one process has a success probability of x and another process has a success probability of y, the probability that both will succeed is $x * y$. The probability of completing the whole step accurately is the product of the success probabilities of all component processes involved.

In the RT model, the beta weights of R, S, and T1 represent the estimated durations of retrieval, substitution, and the + 1 transformation, respectively. In the accuracy model, these beta weights represent the estimated success probabilities of the same processes. The T2 and T0 codes require a somewhat different interpretation because they do not represent processing steps but rather serve to modify T1. In the RT model, T2 represents the additional time it takes to add 2 over and above adding 1, and T0 represents how much less time + 0 takes compared with + 1. Therefore, we expected the beta weight of T0 to be negative, whereas all other beta weights should be positive.

Likewise, in the accuracy model, T2 represents the proportional decrease of success probability for adding 2 relative to the success probability of adding 1, whereas T0 represents the proportional increase of success probability for the + 0 transformation relative to the success probability of + 1. Hence, T0 was expected to have a beta weight > 1, whereas all other beta weights were expected to be < 1.[6]

No interaction terms were included into the regression models initially. In all models, the independent variables were coded as both fixed and random effects, where the former represent the overall effects of those manipulations in the experiment (hence fixed effects estimate the group mean of each experimental effect and the intercept) and the latter represent individual variation in responsiveness to the experimental manipulations (hence random effects estimate individual differences in the size of experimental effects and of the intercept, expressed as standard deviations). We only report the fixed effects here because individual variation is examined later, in the section on structural equation modeling.

The updating accuracy (UpdAcc) model was as follows: $UpdAcc = 0.992 * 0.886^R * 0.914^{T1} * 1.065^{T0} * 0.934^{T2} * 0.972^S * 0.965^{SW}$. Note that the dummy variables are exponents in this case; thus, a process not involved, coded as 0, figures as 1 in the chain of products and thereby has no effect on the predicted accuracy; an involved process is coded as 1 and hence contributes to the extent specified by the beta weight. This is particularly important to understand the effects of + 0, + 1, and + 2 transformations: A "standard" + 1 transformation will reduce baseline accuracy by the factor 0.91 according to the model (T0 and T2 drop out of the equation); a + 2 transformation would reduce accuracy by the factor 0.85 (0.91 * 0.93; T0 drops out), and a + 0 "transformation" would reduce accuracy only by 0.97 (0.91 * 1.07; T2 drops out).[7] This model yielded Akaike's information criterion (AIC) = −638.9, Bayesian information criterion (BIC) = −464.9, log-likelihood (logLik) = 354.5, coefficient of determination (squared correlation of fitted and observed values across all data points, CoD) = 0.76. The analysis revealed a significant contribution of R ($t = −8.74$, $p < .001$), T1 ($t = −6.12$, $p < .001$), T0 ($t = 2.39$, $p < .01$), T2 ($t = −4.28$, $p < .01$), and S ($t = −3.10$, $p < .01$), but not SW ($t = −1.36$, $p = .08$).

Table 4
Working Memory Tasks Intercorrelations

Task	1	2	3	4	5
1. Operation span	—				
2. Operation span processing task	.41	—			
3. Sentence span	.50	.31	—		
4. Sentence span processing task	.12	.36	.21	—	
5. Spatial short-term memory	.30	.37	.27	.09	—

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[6] Technically, for the accuracy model, we used an additive regression model but first log-transformed the accuracy data so that multiplicative factors were transformed into additive factors. After the regression, the estimated weights were then retransformed via an exponential transformation to facilitate interpretation. It is those retransformed estimates that are presented in the regression model.

[7] Coding each type of transformation with such an incremental combination of variables has the advantage that the significance of each variable's effect over and above the others can be assessed—for example, whether a + 2 transformation significantly reduces accuracy over and above a + 1 transformation—although a discrete estimation of each transformation type would also be possible and equally appropriate.

Table 5
Accuracy of Updating and Reaction Times in the Working Memory Updating Task

| | T | | | | t_{no} | | | |
| | R | | r_{no} | | R | | r_{no} | |
Variable	Mean	SE	Mean	SE	Mean	SE	Mean	SE
S								
Accuracy	.76	.016	.87	.011	.82	.014	.98	.005
RT (ms)	3115	63	3009	69	2141	50	1642	37
S_{no}								
Accuracy	.85	.013	.89	.011	.87	.012	.99	.005
RT (ms)	1599	35	2803	69	1297	24	1272	29

Note. Scale for accuracy measures is from 0 to 1. R = retrieval involved; T = transformation involved; S = substitution involved; r_{no} = retrieval not involved; t_{no} = transformation not involved; s_{no} = substitution not involved; RT = reaction time.

For the RT model, instead of estimating a switch parameter (SW) for condition R-t_{no}-S, we maximized parsimony by using an existing empirical estimate of the time taken to switch attention from one location to another, provided by Garavan (1998). We subtracted this estimate of 483 ms from the R-t_{no}-S condition mean of each subject before fitting the RT model, thus saving a free parameter that otherwise would have been required for SW.

The resulting updating RT (UpdRT) model was as follows: UpdRT = $1.300 + 0.039^{*}R + 1.201^{*}T1 - 0.941^{*}T0 + 0.579^{*}T2 + 0.296^{*}S$. Here, the dummy variables can be interpreted as factors; again, they are 1 if the process is involved in a certain condition, and 0 otherwise. The multilevel analysis with AIC = 1357, BIC = 1491, logLik = −651.4, CoD = 0.91 revealed a significant contribution of T1 ($t = 29.02$, $p < .001$), T0 ($t = -13.32$, $p < .001$), T2 ($t = 14.77$, $p < .001$), and S ($t = 12.11$, $p < .001$), but no effect of R ($t < 1$).

We next examined whether the fit of these models could be improved by adding pairwise interactions between the three experimental variables R, S, and T1.[8] Using likelihood ratio tests, we determined that for both the accuracy and the RT model, there was no case in which the addition of interactions (we added between one and three interaction terms) improved the fit of the model, all $\chi^2 < 3.4$, $p > .05$, suggesting that our three experimental variables were independent.

To summarize, we fit regression models to both accuracy and response times. The analyses revealed that the effects of transformation, retrieval, and substitution were independent and showed no sign of interaction for either accuracy or RT. In terms of updating accuracy, the largest effect was associated with retrieval, which introduced errors, leading to a drop in performance by more than 10% whenever information had to be retrieved. Perhaps surprisingly, this performance drop was not mirrored in response latency, as we found that the requirement to retrieve information from memory did not slow people at all.

By contrast, the requirement to substitute information in memory was a time-consuming process, taking about 300 ms irrespective of whether the new letter was generated by a transformation or simply presented. Unlike retrieval, substitution of information had only a small effect on the accuracy of updating. The fact that substitution did not affect accuracy much is perhaps not surprising when we consider that errors in substitution primarily affect the accuracy on future steps, not necessarily on the present step. People can enter the correct letter and then fail to establish that letter as the new content of the current

frame in their memory, which would lead to an error on the next time they retrieve the content of the same frame.

Finally, as expected, transformations had a large impact on RT—the more demanding the transformation of memory content, the more time it required. Transformations also contributed to errors, especially when the transformation involved moving two steps up in the alphabet. We defer further discussion of these results until all analyses have been presented.

Linking WMC and WMU

To investigate the relation between WMC and WMU, we used structural equation modeling (SEM). SEM is typically used to capture individual differences and correlational dependencies between latent variables, without regard to experimental manipulations or differences between means. In the present case, we extended this standard approach by also modeling mean RT and accuracy for each experimental condition. We thus constructed an SEM model that concurrently captured both interindividual variation *and* experimental effects. The general approach has been outlined in Oberauer, Wilhelm, and Schmiedek (2005).

On the basis of the preceding regression analyses, we initially focused on models that preserved the independent (additive) structure among experimental variables as far as possible (note that, again, a technically additive model was applied to log-transformed accuracies to capture the multiplicative relationship).

The SEM models for accuracy and RT are depicted in Figures 2 and 3 respectively. For increased readability, the figures show all significant *standardized* weights between latent variables (in bold, drawn next to the appropriate links) and all estimated *unstandard-*

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[8] Interactions involving T0 and T2 could not be assessed because they were not fully crossed with S and R, respectively. We regard T1 as the baseline that represents the effect of a typical transformative operation (incrementing the letter by one), whereas T0 and T2 only reflect savings or costs, respectively, involved in specific deviations from that baseline; therefore, we regard interactions involving T0 and T2 as less important. We also could not assess the three-way interaction of R, S, and T1 because that interaction is redundant with T0 (i.e., the three-way interaction term captures a deviation of a single cell from the pattern expected by the full model without the three-way, and T0 captures exactly the same), thereby making the model unidentifiable.
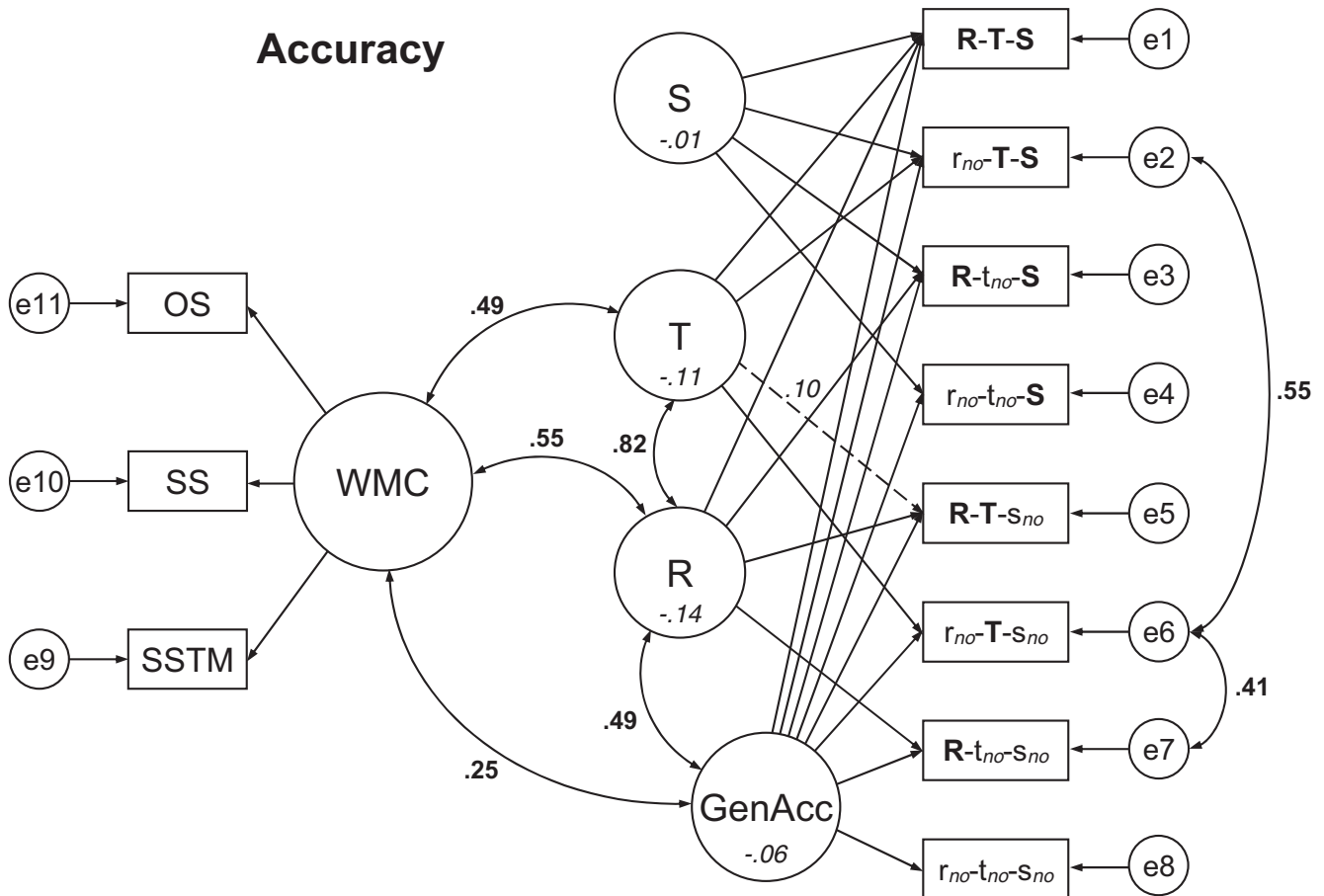
Figure 2. Graphical representation of the structural equation model for accuracy, showing the prediction of latent updating factors GenAcc (general accuracy), R (retrieval), T (transformation), and S (substitution) by a latent working memory capacity (WMC) factor. Manifest accuracy variables reflect log-transformed accuracy data referring to the eight respective experimental conditions. WMC-related manifest variables reflect mean performance in WMC tasks OS (operation span), SS (sentence span), and SSTM (spatial short-term memory). Estimated standardized weights (correlations, in boldface) are presented adjacent to latent connections. Estimated unstandardized means (in log-accuracy units, italicized) are shown inside the latent factors. Means of latent factors that are not given in the figure (error variables and WMC factor) were fixed at 0. Regression weights in the working memory updating (WMU) measurement model were fixed at 1, with the exception of the link between T and the R-T-s_{no} variable, which was freely estimated (dashed arrow with unstandardized estimate in italics). All estimated covariances provided in the figure are (marginally) significant, $p < .051$ (see upper panel of Table 8); all estimated means are significantly different from 0, $p < .001$. e1–e11 = error variables.

ized means of the latent variables (in italics, drawn inside the variables themselves; note that latent means not shown in the figure were set to 0). To prevent clutter, no other estimates are shown in the figures. Those remaining estimates are instead presented in Tables 6, 7, and 8.

The models consisted of two measurement models—one for the WMC part and one for the updating part. The WMC part had three manifest (i.e., observed) variables—one for each task of the WMC test battery—which were linked to a single WMC latent factor. The updating part had eight observed variables—one corresponding to each of the eight experimental conditions—that were connected to latent factors corresponding to the experimental variables R, T, and S, and a general factor accounting for the general level of performance (this corresponds to the intercept in regression).

Measurement Models

Measurement model for WMC. In the WMC measurement model, the mean of WMC was set to 0 and its variance to 1 to provide a scale for the factor and allow for identification. This also made the unstandardized solution more interpretable, which we were particularly interested in as it provides intercept and slope estimates on the original scale of measurement (further details provided later).

Measurement model for WMU. Models with the same basic structure were applied to the mean RTs and log-transformed accuracies, as well as their variances and covariances, in the eight design cells. In Figures 2 and 3, these eight manifest variables are labeled by the experimental condition code to which they refer (e.g., R-T-s_{no}).
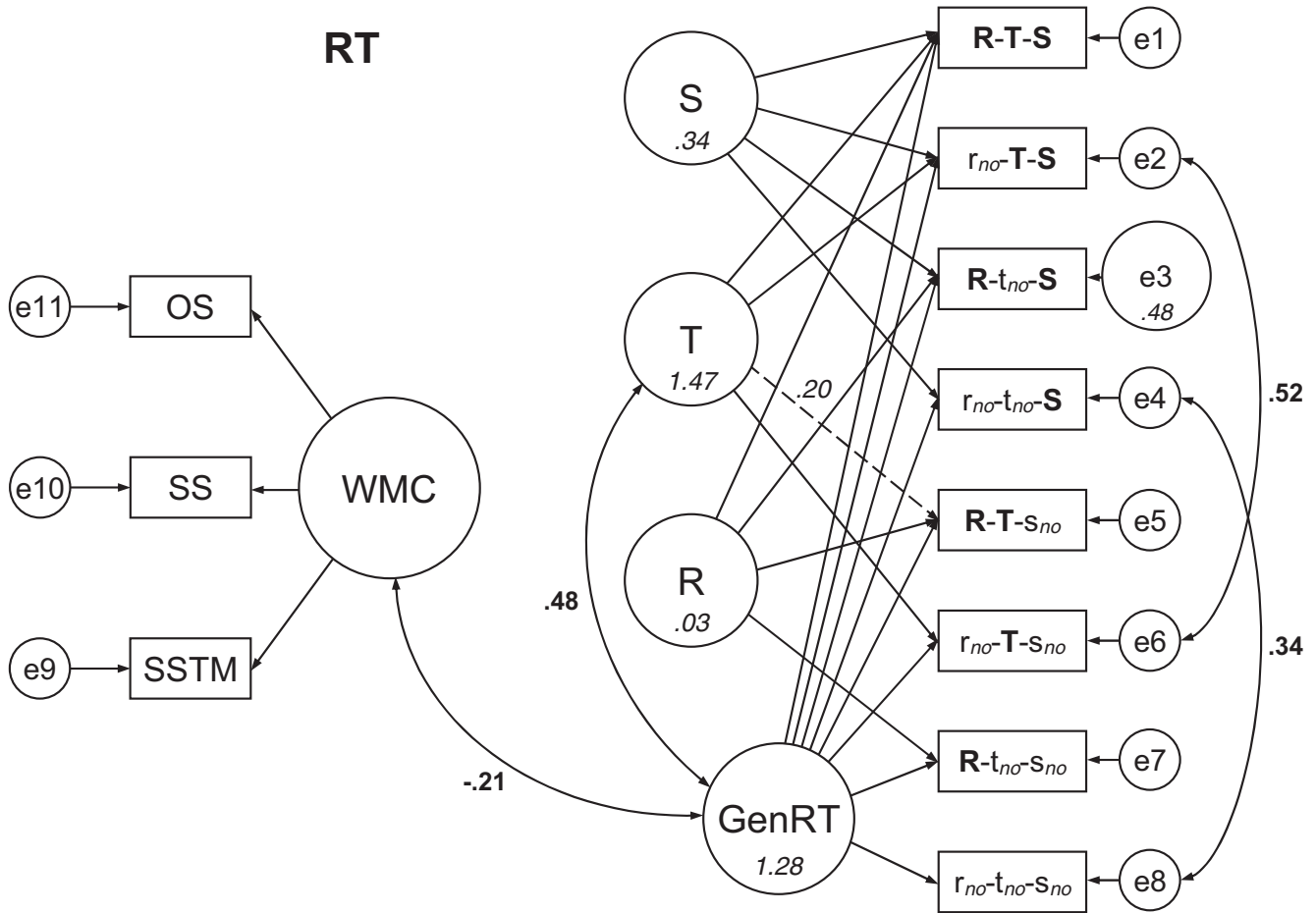
Figure 3. Graphical representation of the structural equation model for reaction time (RT), showing the prediction of latent updating factors GenRT (general RT), R (retrieval), T (transformation), and S (substitution) by a latent working memory capacity (WMC) factor. Manifest RT variables reflect RT data referring to the eight respective experimental conditions. WMC-related manifest variables reflect mean performance in WMC tasks OS (operation span), SS (sentence span), and SSTM (spatial short-term memory). Estimated standardized weights (correlations, in boldface) are presented adjacent to latent connections. Estimated unstandardized means (in seconds, italicized) are shown inside the latent factors. Means of latent factors that are not given in the figure (error variables and WMC factor) were fixed at 0. Regression weights in the working memory updating (WMU) measurement model were fixed at 1, with the exception of the link between T and the R-T-s_{no} variable, which was freely estimated (dashed arrow with unstandardized estimate in italics). Error term e3 was fixed to an independently derived estimate. All estimated covariances provided in the figure are at least marginally significant, $p < .08$ (see lower panel of Table 8); all estimated means are significantly different from 0, $p < .001$, except the estimated mean of R, $p = .16$. e1–e11 = error variables.

To confirm the reliability of measures obtained from the experimental WMU task, we split the 28 trials into four sets of seven and calculated Cronbach's alpha on the means of each subset of trials. This revealed an alpha of 0.96 for the RT data and an alpha of 0.89 for the accuracy data, showing high internal reliability.

There were four latent variables. One of them reflected baseline performance common to all design cells, and therefore all manifest variables had loadings on it. The remaining three factors reflected the experimental manipulations (R, T, and S). The factor R received loadings from the four manifest variables representing performance in conditions that required retrieval (i.e., conditions R-T-S, R-t_{no}-S, R-T-s_{no}, and R-t_{no}-s_{no}) but not from the remaining

four manifest variables representing conditions without retrieval (implying that their loadings were fixed to 0). In the same way, variables reflecting conditions with transformations received loadings on factor T and variables with substitution received loadings on factor S.

Constraints on the Models

We imposed a number of strong constraints on our models that are typically absent in SEM applications. First, all loadings between manifest and latent variables in the WMU measurement models were fixed to 1. In addition, the intercepts of the manifest

Table 6
Standardized Weights of Working Memory Updating Measurement Models

Factor	R-T-S	r_{no}-T-S	R-t_{no}-S	r_{no}-t_{no}-S	R-T-s_{no}	r_{no}-T-s_{no}	R-t_{no}-s_{no}	r_{no}-t_{no}-s_{no}
				Accuracy				
GenAcc	.21	.36	.25	.82	.29	.35	.30	.88
R	.49		.58		.68		.70	
T	.30	.51			.04	.49		
S	0	0	0	0				
				Reaction time				
GenRT	.36	.34	.49	.62	.65	.33	.90	.81
R	.13		.17		.23		.32	
T	.66	.61			.24	.60		
S	.28	.25	.37	.47				

Note. R-T-S codes refer to log-accuracy measures (upper panel) or reaction time (RT) measures (lower panel) of respective experimental conditions (manifest variables). The only unstandardized weights that were not fixed were the accuracy and reaction time weights linking T and the R-T-s_{no} manifest variable. These were estimated as .10 (accuracy) and .20 (RT), respectively. GenAcc = general accuracy (latent factor); R = retrieval (latent factor); T = transformation (latent factor); S = substitution (latent factor); GenRT = general RT (latent factor).

variables were fixed to 0, as were the means of the error terms associated with them.

The rationales for these constraints were as follows. First, the additivity suggested by the regression is captured by the fixed loadings because they imply that each factor has the same effect on all conditions that load on it—for instance, substitution increases RT by the same amount in all four design cells involving substitution. Second, fixing the intercepts of manifest variables and their error means to 0 implies that no individual condition had a mean higher or lower than that predicted from the additive model.

Thus, the estimated mean of the general factor represents the baseline level of performance (i.e., the intercept of the additive model) and the estimated means of the three factors that represent components of updating reflect the mean effect of each experimental manipulation. Correspondingly, the estimated variances of the factors reflect the individual differences in baseline performance and in the magnitude of the experimental effects, respectively. For both RTs and accuracies, we had to relax these strong constraints of the purely additive model at a few points, either based on theoretical considerations or, on a few occasions, based on deviations of the data from the additive model, as we will detail later.

Table 7
Standardized and Unstandardized Weights of Working Memory Capacity Measurement Models

WMC weight	OS	SS	SSTM
		Accuracy	
Standardized	.72	.72	.36
Unstandardized	.09	.12	.02
		Reaction time	
Standardized	.73	.69	.40
Unstandardized	.09	.12	.02

Note. WMC = working memory capacity (latent factor); OS = operation span (manifest variable); SS = sentence span (manifest variable); SSTM = spatial short-term memory (manifest variable).

Finally, in the overall structural models presented in the following sections, the covariances between the latent updating variables and the latent WMC variable reveal the extent to which individual variation in WMC relates to variation among individuals' responses to our experimental updating manipulations.

The Accuracy Model

For the accuracy model, the link between T and the manifest R-T-s_{no} variable was allowed to vary freely, reflecting the assumption that the "zero-transform" condition R-T-s_{no} entailed a smaller effect of T than the other three conditions involving a transformation. This represented a slight departure from a strict additive structure. Moreover, to achieve an acceptable model fit, we introduced correlations between error terms that arose from highly similar experimental conditions e2 and e6, and also e6 and e7. Finally, we set the variance of S to 0 because when it was freely estimated, the variance was slightly (and nonsignificantly) negative. The implication of a zero variance estimate is that S contributed a constant effect to performance without accounting for any interindividual variability.

We first fit the updating measurement model to the experimental data to ensure model identification (identification of the WMC measurement model was trivial because that model had 0 degrees of freedom). The fit of the updating measurement model was acceptable, $\chi^2(24) = 43.59$; comparative fit index (CFI) = .96; root-mean-square error of approximation (RMSEA) = .09; standardized root-mean-square residual (SRMR) = .052. After this was established, the measurement models were combined to yield the structural model.

Initially, WMC was linked to all updating-component factors, and links were then removed if they were insignificant and did not contribute to the model fit. Likewise, new links that were theoretically and empirically justifiable were added to improve the overall fit. The fit of the final accuracy model—depicted in Figure 2—was acceptable, $\chi^2(45) = 65.27$; CFI = .97; RMSEA = .068; SRMR = .051. The unstandardized coefficients of the accuracy model are summarized in the top panel of Table 8. To evaluate model fit correcting for nonnormality of the data, we performed a

Table 8

Unstandardized Covariances of Latent Factors in Accuracy and Reaction Time Structural Equation Models

Factors	Estimate		Confidence intervals	p
	Mean	SE		
			Accuracy	
WMC–GenAcc	.012	.006	[−.001, .041]	.051
WMC–R	.062	.014	[.034, .095]	<.001
WMC–T	.033	.012	[.010, .060]	.005
GenAcc–R	.003	.001	[.000, .009]	<.001
R–T	.006	.001	[.003, .011]	<.001
e2–e6	.006	.002	[.001, .016]	<.001
e6–e7	.003	.001	[.001, .006]	<.001
			Reaction time	
WMC–GenRT	−.05	.03	[−.107, .008]	.077
GenRT–T	.04	.01	[.017, .069]	<.001
e2–e6	.07	.02	[.037, .105]	.002
e4–e8	.01	.01	[.002, .025]	.031

Note. In the reaction time (RT) model, the marginally significant WMC–GenRT covariance was significant with $p < .05$ before removing the nonsignificant WMC–T link and was thus retained; 95% bias-corrected confidence intervals were derived from 1,000 bootstrap samples. WMC = working memory capacity; GenAcc = general accuracy; R = retrieval; T = transformation; GenRT = general RT; e2, e4, e6, e7, and e8 = error terms of conditions r_{no}-T-S, r_{no}-t_{no}-S, r_{no}-T-s_{no}, R-t_{no}-s_{no}, and r_{no}-t_{no}-s_{no} performance variables.

Bollen–Stine bootstrap (with $N = 1,000$ samples), which indicated a good model fit.

We first consider the pattern of correlations among latent variables (shown in Figure 2). WMC was found to correlate positively with overall updating accuracy (GenAcc), implying that people with high WMC have higher baseline performance on the WMU task. WMC also correlated positively with R and T. This implies that the accuracy cost incurred by the need to retrieve or transform information declined with increasing WMC. Furthermore, R was positively correlated with T and GenAcc. Hence, higher costs of retrieval were typically accompanied by higher transformation costs and lower levels of baseline performance. Although S contributed significantly to mean WMU accuracy, it had no variance and therefore could not correlate with WMC.[9]

Now consider the pattern of estimated means for the latent variables (shown inside the variables in Figure 2) that permit reconstruction (i.e., prediction from the model) of all observed performance variables. For example, if an operation involves T and S but not R, we can calculate the estimated updating accuracy by adding the (negative) contributions of T and S to the baseline performance variable GenAcc—any additional need for processing is assumed to reduce both accuracy (toward 0) and log-accuracy (toward ∞). Hence, we can calculate the log-accuracy in this case as $−.06 + (−.11) + (−.01) = −.18$. We can then retransform the log-value into an accuracy estimate of $\exp(−.18) = .84$ (alternatively, one could first retransform each log-operand and then multiply the resulting variables as in the corresponding regression analysis)—which corresponds closely to the observed level of performance (which was .87 in this case; see Table 5). The mean absolute deviation of the SEM estimates from the observed values across all conditions was less than .05 accuracy units, suggesting that the SEM model captured mean performance in all eight cells with good precision.

The RT Model

The principal architecture of this model was identical to that of the accuracy model. Again, the link between T and the manifest R-T-s_{no} RT variable (i.e., the T0 transformation) was freely estimated.

Error terms associated with the manifest variables were fixed to have a mean of 0, with the exception of e3, which was set to .483—the estimate of attentional-shift cost provided by Garavan (1998) that was used earlier in the regression analysis.[10] Again, in order to achieve an acceptable model fit, we introduced correlations between error terms that arose from highly similar experimental conditions, namely, e4 and e8, and also e2 and e6.

Again, the memory-updating measurement model was fit to the data first, and the fit was found to be acceptable, $\chi^2(24) = 63.28$; CFI = .94; RMSEA = .131; SRMR = .075. After this was established, the measurement models were combined to yield the structural model. The fit of the final RT model—depicted in Figure 3—was acceptable, $\chi^2(47) = 87.23$; CFI = .94; RMSEA = .094; SRMR = .084. The unstandardized coefficients of the RT

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[9] We confirmed this pattern by a "reverse" path model that predicted WMC from the WMU components. We calculated this with paths (instead of correlations) going from R, T, S, and GenAcc to WMC. We found that R accounted for most of the variance in WMC, T accounted only for an insignificant amount, and S accounted for none (the weight from GenAcc to WMC was also nonsignificant; variance of the disturbance variable on WMC was significant, implying that there was unexplained variance left in WMC). This corroborated our finding that retrieval but not substitution is related to WMC, while the relationship between transformation and WMC seems to straddle the statistical detection boundary.

[10] If this parameter was freely estimated, the estimate was .514.

model are summarized in the lower panel of Table 8. A Bollen–Stine bootstrap ($N = 1,000$) again indicated good model fit.

Latent correlations are shown in Figure 3. A positive correlation was found between GenRT and T. Hence, longer transformation times were associated with longer baseline performance latencies. WMC correlated negatively with overall latency (GenRT; this covariance was marginally significant after we removed the nonsignificant link between WMC and T but was significant before removal), implying that people with higher WMC had lower baseline RTs. Although S contributed significantly to WMU mean latency and had a significant variance term, this experimental effect did not covary with WMC.

The estimated means shown in the figure again permit accurate reconstruction of all observed data. For example, if an operation involves T and S but not R, the RT predicted by the model is calculated as the GenRT mean plus T and S means, or $1.275 + 1.470 + 0.335 = 3.08$—the observed level of performance was 3.01 s (see Table 5). The mean absolute deviation of the SEM estimate from the observed values across all conditions was 232 ms. The only conditions whose estimates deviated considerably from the data were conditions R-t$_{no}$-S and R-T-s$_{no}$. The mean deviation across the remaining six conditions was only 30 ms.

Summary of SEM Modeling

Our SEM models are readily summarized: First, they confirmed the independence of experimental variables that was suggested by the regression analyses. At the level of means, they provided an excellent fit of the data from the updating session. With the exception of RT estimates for conditions R-t$_{no}$-S and R-T-s$_{no}$, SEM mean predictions were close to the observed condition means, with average deviations of 30 ms and less than .05 accuracy units, respectively. Mirroring the regression analyses, we again found that transformations had a strong impact on both accuracy and especially RT, whereas substitutions had small but reliable effects, and retrieval had a large effect on accuracy but no effect on RT.

Second, the models captured the variance among individuals' WMC and related it to the variation in the magnitude of the experimental effects. That is, in the accuracy model, WMC correlated positively with overall accuracy on the updating task (GenAcc) as well as retrieval success (R, and also transformation success reflected in T, although this relation was apparently less reliable). In the RT model, a relation between GenRT and T could be observed, such that the higher the baseline RT reflected in GenRT, the larger the impact of T. The RT model additionally showed that WMC correlated negatively with overall updating latency GenRT. In both models, S contributed significantly to WMU performance but did not covary with WMC.

A possible criticism of our SEM models might be that the fit statistics reported did not always satisfy the criteria for a "good" fit (e.g., the requirement that RMSEA < .06; Hu & Bentler, 1999). In response, we emphasize that in order to capture both the interindividual (co-) variation in WMC and WMU *and* the effects of our experimental manipulations, we made use of novel and highly constrained models (e.g., loadings for the S, T, and R latent variables were fixed at 1). This reduces the number of degrees of freedom; hence, heuristics for "good fits," which are obtained from Monte Carlo simulations involving models of variance–covariance

matrices with unconstrained loadings, cannot be directly transferred to our study.

Nonetheless, with the aid of modification indices, the fit of both models could be improved considerably, to the point where they met fairly stringent goodness-of-fit criteria, via introduction of additional covariance links between error terms in the WMU measurement model.[11] None of those modifications altered the basic psychological structure of the models; in all cases, the relevant weights between latent variables retained their significance. These changes did, however, come at the cost of losing parsimony and interpretability, and therefore we do not focus on those best-fitting models. We conclude that our models capture the relations between experimental variables and individual differences in a highly parsimonious way while achieving acceptable fit.

Discussion

The present study makes the following three principal contributions:

1. At the level of methodology, we have utilized SEM in a novel way by modeling individual differences as well as experimental manipulations simultaneously. Both interindividual variability and experimental effects on performance measures (RT and accuracy) were described by parsimonious models.

2. At an empirical level, we presented the first examination of the basic component processes that govern performance in common WMU tasks. We tested our putative decomposition of WMU task processes into three distinct components—retrieval (R), transformation (T), and substitution (S)—by examining every possible combination of these three components. The data indicate that these component processes make distinct and independent contributions to WMU performance.

3. Finally, we used the decomposition of WMU to analyze the relation between these processing components and WMC. As noted at the outset, both the view that WMC and WMU are strongly related and the view that they form dissociable dimensions of mental ability have been represented in the literature (e.g., Friedman et al., 2006; Radvansky & Copeland, 2001). Our study may help resolve this inconsistency because while we found that WMC did predict performance in the experimental WMU task to some degree, we also found that some processing components involved in that task were independent of WMC. We now take up those principal issues in turn.

Modeling Experimental Outcomes With SEM

The vast majority of SEM applications focus on capturing individual variation alone. That is, conventional SEM models seek to describe the variance–covariance structure among a number of measured (manifest) variables by postulating one or more unobserved (latent) variables, each of which captures variance that is shared by several manifest variables. One often-cited benefit of

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[11] Specifically, we could improve the accuracy model's fit by adding a covariance link between error terms e1 and e8, $\chi^2(44) = 59.94$; CFI = .97; RMSEA = .061; SRMR = .052; the RT model's fit could be improved by linking e2–e6, e3–e4, e3–e8, e4–e8, and e6–e8, $\chi^2(44) = 64.04$; CFI = .97: RMSEA = .069.

SEM is that latent variables are free of measurement error that besets interpretation of pairwise correlations (cf. Blunch, 2008).

Although data collection for those studies often involves computer-controlled laboratory tasks, these studies typically are not experiments in the strict sense because no independent variables are manipulated. Recently, Oberauer et al. (2005) suggested that SEM constitutes a powerful tool also in an experimental context, because it permits modeling of the experimental effects not only at the level of means (as in the conventional analysis of variance [ANOVA]) but also at the level of variances and covariances.

The present study takes up this suggestion, and we therefore highlight one more conclusion from our analysis that became possible only because of our use of SEM. At the outset, we conducted a task analysis that putatively identified three potential component processes of WMU. We then sought to examine those processes by manipulating independent variables that selectively tapped each putative component. The unique contribution of the SEM analysis is that it allowed us to identify those putative components as valid latent constructs—that is, notwithstanding the strong constraint that all loadings (barring the necessary exceptions noted earlier) were set to unity, our SEM models fit the data well. Because the models, unlike conventional ANOVA, also captured the individual variation and covariation of the effects of our experimental variables, the models support the psychological reality of our putative constructs with greater confidence than would be possible with a conventional means-only analysis. In a nutshell, the factors S, T, and R in our SEM models represent psychological processes rather than just independent variables in an experiment. We can therefore now turn to a characterization of those component processes.

Component Processes

The analyses revealed specific costs associated with each component of WMU. Retrieval, transformation, and, to a lesser degree, substitution affected the accuracy of processing steps in our WMU task. In contrast, transformation and—again to a lesser degree—substitution, but not retrieval, determined WMU response times. Hence, transformation of memory contents seems to be the main determinant of processing in a generic WMU paradigm, retrieval seems to be error prone but not time consuming, and substitution also has a significant, albeit smaller, impact on WMU task performance.

As the fit of both the linear regression models and the SEMs was good without including any interactions among components, we suggest that the contributions of retrieval, transformation, and substitution to WMU are orthogonal and independent. This observation has considerable theoretical implications.

A priori, there are three possible scenarios describing the relations among component processes. First, the processes can run completely in parallel, starting at the same time. For our updating paradigm, this scenario can be ruled out on logical grounds: Information must first be retrieved before it can be transformed or used for substitution, and it must be transformed before the result of the transformation can be used for substitution. The second scenario is that processing stages are strictly serial—meaning that the next process does not start before the preceding one is completed. This scenario implies that the time used by one component

does not influence the time required for subsequent processing components, so that their contributions to RTs are additive (and their accuracies multiplicative). The third scenario is a cascade of processing such that later stages can be initiated before the completion of earlier stages (cf. McClelland, 1979; Meyer, Irwin, Osman, & Kounois, 1988; Ratcliff, 1978; Townsend & Fific, 2004). Many cognitive operations likely run in cascades (for instance, naming and speech production; Navarrete & Costa, 2005; Roelofs, 2008).

The additivity of the three experimental variables on RTs favors a strict serial model over a cascade model. If processes are cascaded, interactions between corresponding parameters are more likely to occur (although this need not *necessarily* be the case; cf. McClelland, 1979). For example, if both transformation and substitution are required for a particular WMU operation, and substitution could start significantly before transformation is completed (i.e., partial information delivered by transformation is already fed into the substitution process), then T and S should interact underadditively: Both together should take less time than the sum of the time taken to transform and to substitute separately, because part of the substitution would already be completed during transformation. No such interactions were observed.

Our conclusions must be tempered by two potential problems: First, the additivity among updating components was based on a limited set of experimental conditions (eight in total), including two that required special consideration during analysis owing to their unique properties (conditions R-t_{no}-S and R-T-s_{no}). It is possible that other sets of operations will yield different outcomes; nonetheless, until it is shown otherwise, we propose that the components of WMU operate in a strictly sequential, stage-like manner.

Second, one could argue that our decomposition of WMU processes is too coarse. Indeed, it is plausible to further deconstruct some of the components identified here. For example, the substitution process may in turn involve the *removal* of old information followed by the *addition* of new information. Precedents for this possibility exist; for example, Postle (2003) described "discarding" as a potential memory-updating process. Instantiations of such a targeted removal process can be found in models that embody the notion of response suppression (e.g., Lewandowsky & Farrell, 2008). Similarly, Oberauer and Vockenberg (2009) suggested that binding processes—that is, binding a piece of information to a certain position in a spatial or temporal mental "map"—lie at the heart of memory updating. If a chunk of information is bound to a particular position in mental space (e.g., this could be an actual spatial location, a temporal position, or some idiosyncratic marker), a substitution would thus require "unbinding" of old information followed by renewed binding of new information.

Likewise, our transformation process can be further analyzed into a retrieval component (albeit from long-term memory), which provides the next letter(s) of the alphabet, plus a counting component that signals when to stop retrieving more letters. We therefore expect that the component processes identified here will be subject to further examination and refinement; nonetheless, the fact that our data conformed to a purely additive model suggests that any further decomposition of processes would only take place within the proposed components (e.g., substitution being partitioned into removal and addition).

Instantaneous Retrieval?

One perhaps surprising aspect of the data is that the retrieval component did not affect processing times. This finding seems to imply that retrieval from memory is as fast as the visual encoding of new information. It is worth noting that this finding replicates previous research that found no effect of retrieval on latency of WMU (Bialkova & Oberauer, in press).

What does this result tell us about the structure and representations of WM? Clearly, the R conditions of our task require selective access to the letter in a particular frame, and given that each updating step used a different frame from the one preceding it, access to a new letter is required on every step. Of course, no process can be instantaneous. Hence, the fact that our retrieval manipulation did not incur a time cost implies that access to a new letter occurs not only when the new letter is needed as input for processing, as in the R conditions, but also in the r_{no} conditions when the letter is not required as input. This conclusion suggests that objects in WM are tightly bound composites of content elements (in our case, letters) and the context by which they can be retrieved or accessed (in our case, the spatial location of the frames), such that retrieving or accessing one piece of information involves obligatory retrieval of, or access to, the whole object. As a consequence, all conditions in our experiment induced access to a new object merely by bringing a new context into the focus of attention. We now discuss two models that can accommodate this finding.

Oberauer (2002, 2003, 2006) proposed that there are three functionally distinct layers of representation in WM: (a) the activated part of long-term memory, which holds information that is likely to be relevant for the current task, (b) the region of direct access, which holds a limited set of representations for ongoing processing, and (c) the focus of attention, which holds the one piece of information already selected for the next cognitive operation. In this model, the focus of attention can select only an item from the region of direct access. Making a representation available for processing therefore involves two steps. The first is to retrieve a representation from (activated) long-term memory, thereby bringing it into the region of direct access; the second step is accessing one representation among several candidates in the direct-access region. Within this model, we can explain our results as follows: All three letters are continuously held in the direct-access region. Every updating step involves presentation of a stimulus in a frame different from the preceding frame, and the new frame serves as an automatic trigger for the focus of attention to focus on that frame. Shifting the focus incurs a time cost, as reported by Garavan (1998), but this time is a constant in our experiment because all conditions involved a shift to a new frame. The critical assumption is that moving the focus of attention to a new frame means not merely moving visual attention to a new location in space (a process that would require an order of magnitude less than the 500 ms for a focus switch in WM) but rather involves focusing on a new object in WM. That object is a composite consisting of the spatial location of the frame and the letter currently bound to it; hence, it is immaterial whether that letter has to be retrieved for the next processing step as it is already in the focus of attention.

An alternative model proposed by McElree was based mainly on examination of the time course of retrieval (McElree, 2001, 2006;

McElree & Dosher, 1989). This model postulates that there are only two representational states: (a) passive representations and (b) a single item in the focus of attention. The latter item can be processed quickly, whereas items outside of attention are retrieved in a time-consuming fashion with constant retrieval speed. Similar to Oberauer's model, this model can also explain the present data by assuming that whenever people shift their focus of attention to a new frame (as they had to at all steps in our experiment), they automatically retrieve the corresponding letter (whether needed or not).

The difference between the models is that whereas Oberauer's model assumes that all three items are in the direct-access region (hence requiring access rather than retrieval), in McElree's model each updating step involves retrieval from long-term memory rather than access to an object in WM. Because retrieval in McElree's model is from long-term memory, it follows that in order to accommodate our results, retrieval of object-location bindings from long-term memory must be automatic and obligatory. Although this stance has been taken—for instance, Logan (1988, 2002) has argued that attending to a specific object in space and retrieving information about it rely on the same basic process—we argue that there is ample evidence that associative retrieval from long-term memory is not automatic.

For example, Nobel and Shiffrin (2001) made a strong point that both associative recognition and cued recall differ from single-item recognition in that they involve a slow, nonautomatic search process. Using a response deadline procedure, Gronlund and Ratcliff (1989) have shown that item information is usually available before associative information can be accessed, arguing for a different time course of retrieval for items and bound information, such as pairs of items. The neuropsychology literature has corroborated these assumptions and suggests that automatic retrieval from long-term memory is limited to the recognition of single items (or highly unitized chunks). By contrast, associative retrieval of arbitrary bindings, such as object–location, word–temporal position, or face–name pairings, rests on slower retrieval processes that have been shown to be strategically controlled (Ecker, Zimmer, & Groh-Bordin, 2007; Herron & Rugg, 2003; Mecklinger, 2000; Meiser, Sattler, & Weißer, 2008). For instance, Ecker et al. (2007) have shown that only intrinsic item features (such as an object's color or font) but not context features (such as background or location information) automatically affect object recognition, whereas contextual information is selectively retrieved via controlled recollection if relevant for the task. These controlled binding processes draw on distinct brain activity in the hippocampus and prefrontal cortex (Aggleton & Brown, 1999; Cansino, Maquet, Dolan, & Rugg, 2002; Rugg, Fletcher, Chua, & Dolan, 1999), and in line with this, Van Petten, Senkfor, and Newberg (2000) showed that recognition of objects in locations—as compared with mere object recognition—elicits additional late prefrontal brain activity, interpreted as controlled retrieval and evaluation of source information. Moreover, damage to hippocampal or prefrontal brain areas leads to impairments in memory that require controlled across-domain integration—including recall, source memory, and associative recognition—but typically spare single-item recognition (Janowsky, Shimamura, & Squire, 1989; Kessels, Hendriks, Schouten, Asselen, & Postma, 2004; Mayes et al., 2004; Vargha-Khadem et al., 1997).

To conclude, we suggest that in order to explain our finding of obligatory retrieval of location-bound information at each updating step, the McElree model needs to make assumptions about associative long-term memory retrieval that are difficult to reconcile with research in that area. By contrast, the Oberauer model avoids these issues by means of the intermediate stage of direct access. We therefore consider the latter model to be more in line with our results than is McElree's model: People can apparently hold and directly access three pieces of information in WM. One prediction following from the Oberauer model but not the McElree model is that a substantial time cost of R should emerge once retrieval from long-term memory is required. This could be achieved by working with memory sets far exceeding the capacity of the direct-access region or by having people retrieve information that has already been removed from the direct-access region (Oberauer et al., 2005).

If three items are available in the direct-access region, why did our R conditions incur a cost in accuracy? If a focus shift entails obligatory retrieval of an item, whether needed or not, why is responding so much more accurate when the item is (re-)presented? The reason is simple: Memorized representations of the three letters are not always accurate—either because a previous updating step went wrong, because the incorrect letter is accessed (e.g., the Frame-1 letter instead of the Frame-2 letter), or because the object, which was previously outside the focus of attention, has been degraded by the time it is accessed. Recent research suggests that any degrading is most likely caused by interference rather than temporal decay (cf. Lewandowsky, Oberauer, & Brown, 2009). As a consequence, when an item is placed in the focus of attention by the obligatory process just discussed, it may simply be the wrong letter, or people might be unable to recall a letter at all. In the R conditions, this would lead to an error, whereas in the r_{no} conditions all required information is presented on the screen, so that failure to access the correct object in WM has no consequences for the accuracy of the response entered.

The Role of WMC for WMU

One main aim of this study was to examine the relationship between WMC and WMU component processes, using structural equation models. Not surprisingly, WMC was related to the latent factors that represented baseline performance in the WMU task (i.e., GenRT and GenAcc); these factors simply represent performance on a WM task. Hence, people with a high WMC generally perform better and faster on a WMU task because performance on any WM task reflects variance due to sources that are common to WMC tasks and all conditions of our WMU task, such as generic processing speed or memory maintenance and protection from interference. Of greater theoretical interest is the relation between WMC and the specific factors representing experimental effects; we discuss these in turn.

Transformation.   Transformation had the strongest impact on WMU performance overall; conditions featuring a transformation were significantly slower and less accurate than conditions without transformation requirements. The size of this impact varied consistently with the size of the transformative operation, replicating the known effects of problem size with alpha-arithmetic operations in untrained subjects (e.g., Logan, 1988).

WMC and T covaried significantly in the accuracy model (but not the RT model). It could thus be concluded that WMC predicts the accuracy (but not the speed) of manipulating representations in WM and that it is this variance that primarily underpins the relation between WMC and any updating task that involves transformation.

In our view, transformation is a process that is not specifically related to WMU or WMC. Rather, transformation might primarily reflect general processing speed, a generic and well-established individual-differences factor (cf. Chen & Li, 2007). This conclusion is supported by the significant correlation between T and GenRT in the RT model. It is therefore likely that the WMC–T relation in the accuracy model in part reflected individual differences in general processing efficiency.[12]

Retrieval.   WMC strongly predicted the accuracy cost of retrieval, such that people with lower WMC were more likely to fail in retrieving the correct item. This finding echoes recent reports that WMC predicted the accuracy of retrieval in an updating task (Unsworth & Engle, 2008). These authors argued that low-span subjects have difficulties in correctly selecting items from outside the focus of attention during retrieval. An alternative interpretation is that people with low WMC experience more interference between representations in WMC already during encoding, for instance, through overlaying distributed representations in a common weight matrix (Lewandowsky & Farrell, 2008) or feature overwriting (Oberauer & Kliegl, 2006).

Given that the retrieval component was associated with a zero mean time cost, the null covariation between R and WMC in the RT model is not unexpected. As argued earlier, retrieval of, or access to, a new memory item is likely to be involved in all experimental conditions, and therefore, individual differences in retrieval time or access time are captured in our generic GenRT factor (among other processing aspects).

Substitution.   Finally, substitution had a small but reliable impact on WMU performance. Moreover, individual differences in the S factor were not correlated with WMC. In the accuracy model, the variance in S was too small for a covariance with WMC to become significant. For the RT model, however, the nonsignificant correlation is more informative because the variance of the S latent variable was significant (.03, $SE = .01$, $p < .001$). This could imply that—along the lines of a possible further decomposition of the substitution process as described earlier—both the encoding of a new letter into WM and the implied removal of a previous letter from WM may be unrelated to WMC.

This conclusion would be consistent with previous research. Using a visual short-term recognition task, Vogel, McCollough, and Machizawa (2005) found that individuals with high and low capacity on that task did not differ in their efficiency of encoding items but rather differed in the ability to prevent irrelevant input from being encoded. Likewise, Oberauer (2005) found that WMC was uncorrelated with the speed of removing a partial list from WM in a verbal recognition task. We therefore conclude that

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[12] The assumption that the variance in T is general variance is consistent with the nonsignificant WMC–T relation in the supplementary directional path model, because in this model the different WMU components compete with each other as WMC predictors, and apparently T and GenAcc share the same variance with WMC.

unlike the other two components (transformation and especially retrieval), substitution (as measured in our study) uniquely contributes variance to WMU independent of WMC.

However, we must note that our measure of S may not reflect all subprocesses involved in substitution. S reflects the difference between an updating step that changes the memory content and one that does not. It is conceivable that in both conditions people actively replace their old representations with a new representation, except that in the no-substitution condition the new representation happens to have the same content as the old one. In that case, the active replacement process would not be reflected in S. Rather, S would reflect the cost of having to establish a new representation and overcoming the proactive interference from a different old representation or, in other words, the benefit from having an old representation that matches perfectly with the new one. We stress here that the mechanism generating proactive interference is not necessarily the same that disrupts retrieval. For instance, retrieval failures could be mostly due to gradual degradation of representations through feature overwriting. Proactive interference, in contrast, comes about because old features that should be removed from WM are difficult to eliminate at will.

Despite this limitation, our finding that substitution is unique to WMU may shed some light on the ambivalent outcomes mentioned at the outset, which variously did or did not report an association between WMC and WMU. Specifically, if WMU tasks are utilized that draw heavily upon substitution (as opposed to retrieval and transformation) skills, then updating performance should be more likely to be independent of WMC than if the WMU tasks draw on retrieval and transformation.

For example, there is evidence that updating, compared with WMC, is disproportionately more impaired in schizophrenia (Galletly, MacFarlane, & Clark, 2007; Van Raalten et al., 2008). These results were based on tone-detection tasks that involved the counting of a specific tone or the detection of immediate tone repetition. Counting a single tone requires no retrieval because the current counter value is always in the focus of attention, and transformation likewise contributes little variance because counting is highly overlearned. The main determinant of updating success therefore is likely to have been the substitution component. Thus, in light of our results, we suggest that substitution—as opposed to WMU more generally—is impaired in schizophrenia more than is general WMC.

In a related finding, Oberauer (2005) found that removing items from WM was not reliably affected by age, whereas WMC in general decreases with age (e.g., Gilchrist, Cowan, & Naveh-Benjamin, 2008). Thus, one subprocess likely to be involved in substitution (viz., removal from memory) appears to be spared by healthy aging, whereas general WMC is not. Both results are consonant with the idea that substitution (which can be further differentiated into removal followed by encoding, as noted earlier) is independent of other measures of WMC.

Conversely, many previous studies that reported correlations between updating and other indicators of cognitive performance (Carretti et al., 2005; Chen & Li, 2007; Friedman et al., 2006; Palladino et al., 2001) utilized updating measures that drew heavily upon retrieval. In fact, in those four studies, WMU was measured almost exclusively with running memory and keep-track tasks. The former requires retrieval of the last x items from an ongoing list with unknown list length, and the latter requires the retrieval of the most recently presented exemplars of a finite number of categories (see also Table 1). Although these tasks involve substitutions, they depend on retrieval. It follows that their correlation with WMC is not unexpected and likely due to the retrieval demands entailed by those tasks. It also follows that the power of WMU tasks to predict higher cognitive function (e.g., fluid intelligence) may rest partially or completely on the involvement of regular WM processes such as retrieval in the updating task.

Concluding remarks on the WMC–WMU relation.   To conclude, after we decomposed performance in a WMU task, we identified substitution as the only process that unequivocally contributes variance that is unique to WMU. Retrieval is part and parcel of every WMC measure, and consequently our retrieval factor correlated with the WMC factor. The correlation of WMC and transformation skills was more ambiguous and may reflect individual differences in generic processing efficiency, although transformation may also play a more specific role in measures of WMC that require simultaneous maintenance and processing (Oberauer, 2002). Thus, with the exception of substitution, performance on updating tasks can largely be explained on the basis of component processes—transformation and especially retrieval—that are known attributes of WMC or processing speed (cf. Schmiedek et al., in press).

It follows that if researchers want to establish updating of WM as a construct that reflects moderately general and stable individual differences in an executive process that is distinguishable from other WM and speed-related processes (i.e., retrieval, transformation, and perhaps some processes involved in WM maintenance such as refreshing, distractor inhibition, and so on), they will have to focus on the component of variance reflected in our substitution factor and control for all other components. Future research could look at more heterogeneous samples—where there could be more interindividual variance in substitution performance—and should also determine the potential power of substitution performance to predict higher cognitive functions (e.g., fluid intelligence) in itself.

Conclusions

In summary, we reported the first study in which processes in a typical WMU task were decomposed systematically into constituent processes. Our results suggest that the processes of retrieval, transformation, and substitution make distinct and independent contributions to performance on updating tasks.

We further found a selective relationship between WMC and processes involved in WMU tasks, whereby only the process of substitution seems to be unique to paradigms for investigating updating. This potentially reconciles inconsistencies in the literature, as some studies may have conflated updating measures with more capacity-related factors.

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