1 The rapid synthesis of integral stimuli

2 C. E. R. Edmunds[1], Fraser Milton[2], & Andy J Wills[3]

3 [1] Bath Spa University

4 [2] University of Exeter

5 [3] University of Plymouth

6 Author Note

11 Correspondence concerning this article should be addressed to C. E. R. Edmunds,

12 School of Psychology, Bath Spa University, Newton St Loe, Bath. BA2 9BN United

13 Kingdom. E-mail: ceredmunds@gmail.com

Abstract

Integral stimuli (e.g. colours varying in saturation and brightness) are classically considered to be processed holistically (i.e. as undifferentiated stimulus wholes); people analyze such stimuli into their consistent dimensions only with substantial time, effort, training, or instruction (Foard & Kemler Nelson, 1984). In contrast, Combination Theory (Wills, Inkster, & Milton, 2015) argues that the dimensions of integral stimuli are quickly combined. Through an investigation of the effects of stimulus presentation time, we support Combination Theory over the classical holistic-to-analytic account. Specifically, using coloured squares varying in saturation and brightness, we demonstrate that the prevalence of single-dimension classification increases as stimulus presentation time is reduced. We conclude that integral stimuli are not slowly analyzed, they are quickly synthesized.

<p style="text-align:center">The rapid synthesis of integral stimuli</p>

Even the simplest of laboratory-based stimuli tend to vary across more than one stimulus attribute. Monochromatic squares are presented at different sizes and brightnesses (J. D. Smith & Kemler, 1984); pure sine waves at different pitches and intensities (Grau & Kemler Nelson, 1988). For many decades, there has been consensus that one of the ways in which multi-attribute stimuli differ from each other is in the level of separability of their dimensions (Garner, 1976). For highly separable stimulus dimensions, such as size and brightness, adults find it easy to attend to one of the stimulus dimensions while ignoring the other. In contrast, for integral stimulus dimensions such as pitch and loudness, selective attention is difficult (Garner, 1976). Nonetheless, the stimulus dimensions of integral stimuli have psychological reality, as shown by the fact that it is even harder to selectively attend along an arbitrary dimension in stimulus space. For example, for coloured squares of a fixed hue but varying in saturation and brightness, it is easier to classify on the basis of saturation, or brightness, than it is to classify on the basis of arbitrary dimensions that are a 45-degree rotation of the saturation-brightness axes (Foard & Kemler Nelson, 1984). Thus, integral dimension pairs, such as saturation and brightness, are both difficult to selectively attend, and are considered as primary or 'privileged' stimulus dimensions.

The study of integral stimuli seems to have been key to the development of a class of theories of processing order in stimulus classification (Lockhead, 1972 et seq.); this class of account being subsequently described as Differentiation Theory (Wills et al., 2015). Under Differentiation Theory, integral stimuli are initially perceived as undifferentiated wholes, or "blobs". If the task at hand cannot be completed with this holistic stimulus representation then, with time and effort, people can analyze the stimulus into its constituent dimensions.

The domain of Differentiation Theory was widened by subsequent investigators, who argued that even stimuli that were separable for adults under conditions of intentional unspeeded classification (e.g. grey squares varying in size and brightness) were classified

holistically by children (L. B. Smith & Kemler, 1977), by adults under time pressure (J. D. Smith & Kemler, 1984; Ward, 1983) or cognitive load (J. D. Smith & Shapiro, 1989), and by adults who classified under incidental rather than intentional conditions (Kemler Nelson, 1984). Thus, Differentiation Theory was considered to apply quite broadly; people start with an undifferentiated stimulus whole, which they break down into its constituent components if they have the time and mental resources to do so. Under this account, separable and integral stimuli differ in the time or effort required to analyze the stimulus into its component dimensions; with integral and separable stimuli seen as the two poles of a continuum of analyzability.

The application of Differentiation Theory to separable stimuli turned out to be an over-extension made on the basis of flawed analyses. In correcting these flaws, Wills et al. (2015) demonstrated that increased time pressure (in terms of stimulus presentation time and limited response time), cognitive load, and incidental training conditions, *increased* the likelihood that people would classify separable stimuli on the basis of a single stimulus dimension (rather than decrease it as Differentiation Theory would predict). This pattern of results is predicted by a class of accounts starting with Neisser (1967), which were subsequently described as Combination Theory (Wills et al., 2015).

Combination Theory is the inverse of Differentiation Theory. It argues that cognition begins with the stimulus attributes (e.g. saturation, brightness), and that these attributes are combined if time and mental resources allow. It provides a sufficient account of the effects of time pressure, cognitive load and incidental training on the classification of separable stimuli (Wills et al., 2015). However, it makes a striking and untested prediction concerning integral stimuli. It predicts that sufficient increases in time pressure will increase the prevalence of single-dimension classification of integral stimuli. Thus, despite the difficulty people have in selectively attending to one dimension of an integral stimulus under unspeeded conditions, under sufficiently speeded conditions their classification will

77 nonetheless be more likely to be on the basis of a single stimulus dimension, because they

78 have not yet combined the dimensions. In other words, the properties of integral stimuli

79 under unspeeded conditions come not from the difficulty of differentiating the holistic 'blob'

80 into its constituent dimensions (as Differentiation Theory would predict) but from the

81 rapidity with which the stimulus dimensions are combined. In order to explain performance

82 under unspeeded conditions, Combination Theory must further assume that, once combined,

83 selective attention of dimensions is effortful. This is an existing assumption of Combination

84 Theory, already employed to explain other phenomena (Wills et al., 2015). In summary,

85 Combination Theory predicts that reducing the stimulus presentation time will increase the

86 prevalence of single-dimension classification of integral stimuli, while Differentiation Theory

87 predicts the opposite, or the absence of an effect.

The current experiments

89   A key experimental procedure employed in support of Differentiation Theory is the

90 restricted classification (or "triad") task (Garner, 1976; J. D. Smith & Kemler, 1984; Ward,

91 1983). Participants are presented with three stimuli, for example the stimuli labelled 6 to 8

92 in Figure 1. Stimuli 7 and 8 are identical in brightness but quite dissimilar in saturation

93 ('chroma'). Stimuli 6 and 8 are similar on both dimensions, but identical on neither. The

94 task is to pick the two stimuli that 'go together' (or to pick the odd one out). No feedback is

95 given.

96   A defining characteristic of integral stimuli is that people have a strong preference to

97 group stimulus 6 and 8 together in this task, i.e., the stimuli that are similar, but not the

98 same, on both dimensions. This is known as an *overall similarity* (OS) response. For

99 separable stimuli, under full attention and unspeeded conditions, there is a strong preference

100 for adults to group stimulus 7 and 8 together, i.e., the stimuli that are identical on one

101 stimulus dimension but not the other. This is sometimes called a 'dimensional' response, but

102 we prefer the less ambiguous term *identity* (ID) response (Wills et al., 2015). For separable

stimuli, stimulus 7 and 8 are grouped together because the identity on one dimension

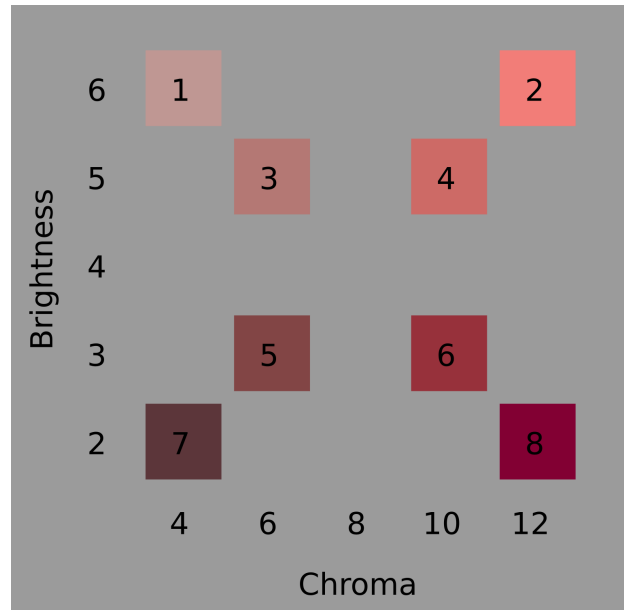overwhelms the fact that stimuli 6 and 8 are more similar overall.

Figure 1. The eight stimuli employed in the current experiments, along with their Munsell Chroma and Brightness values. The text and numbers in this Figure are for reference; only the coloured squares themselves were presented to participants.

An important thing to appreciate about the triad task is that while there is always one dimension on which two stimuli are identical, which dimension that is varies unpredictably from trial to trial. For example, while the first trial might involve stimulus triad 6-7-8 in Figure 1, the next might involve triad 1-3-7. In this case, the identity is on the saturation dimension, and an Identity response involves classifying stimuli 1 and 7 together. Thus, in order to classify on the basis of Identity, the participant must be sensitive to both stimulus dimensions, and weigh more heavily the dimension on which there is an identity.

In addition to overall similarity and identity responding, another possible response pattern in the triad task is that the participant's classifications are made on the basis of a single dimension. In other words, a *unidimensional* (UD) strategy. For example, a participant might classify on the basis of stimulus brightness. In this case, they would

classify stimulus 7 and 8 together in the triad 6-7-8, and stimulus 1 and 3 together in triad 1-3-7. Thus, the classification of any single triad supports at least two hypotheses about the participant's behavior. For example, classifying 1 and 3 together from triad 1-2-3 supports both an Overall Similarity hypothesis, and a single-dimension (brightness) hypothesis. It is thus crucial that the participant's responses are considered as a set across multiple trials, some trials involving brightness-identical triads and others saturation-identical triads. It was the lack of a full appreciation of this point that led to the over-extension of Differentiation Theory to separable stimuli, and the adoption of response-set analysis that resolved this issue (Raijmakers, Jansen, & Maas, 2004; Thompson, 1994; Wills et al., 2015).

In the current experiments, we apply response-set analysis of the triad task to the effects of stimulus presentation time on classification of integral stimuli varying in brightness and saturation. Combination Theory predicts an increase in the prevalence of single-dimension classification with a decrease in stimulus presentation time. Differentiation Theory predicts the opposite. A strong preference for overall similarity classification in integral stimuli under low time pressure is already well established, and the application of time pressure makes classification data more 'noisy' (Wills et al., 2015). Here, 'noisy' means being either more erratic in the application of a strategy, or more inconsistent in the selection of a strategy in the first place. Wills et al. measured this using the proxy of the number of responses that fit the winning strategy. For both these reasons, we tested about twice as many participants in our short-stimulus-presentation-time conditions than in our long-stimulus-presentation-time conditions.

Experiment 1

Method

Participants.   Forty-six psychology students from XXX University participated for partial course credit; the sample size was determined by the number of course credits available at the time of testing. Our experiment had sufficient (80%) power to detect

142 medium-to-large effects ($w = 0.40$) in a chi-squared test. An effect size of approximately

143 similar magnitude ($w = 0.33$) had previously been observed when applying more subtle time

144 pressure to squares varying in size and brightness (Wills et al., 2015). Hence, the sample size

145 provided an initial test of our hypothesis within the resources available. Power calculations

146 were performed using the R package `pwr` (Champely, 2020). The University of XXX

147 Psychology Ethics Committee approved all reported experiments.

148   **Stimuli and apparatus.** Eight coloured squares, 8mm on a side, were used (see

149 Figure 1). The stimuli were of a red hue (Munsell 5R), and varied in chroma (4-12) and

150 brightness (2-6); this is similar to the colour space employed in Nosofsky (1987). Note that,

151 in the Munsell system, two units of chroma are psychologically equivalent to one unit of

152 brightness (Nickerson, 1936; Nosofsky, 1987; Shepard, 1958). The positioning of the stimuli

153 within stimulus space followed our previous experiments (Milton, Longmore, & Wills, 2008;

154 Wills et al., 2015). Eight stimulus triads are possible within this stimulus set (1-3-7, 1-5-7,

155 2-4-8, 2-6-8, 1-2-3, 1-2-4, 5-7-8, 6-7-8). There are six different ways in which three stimuli

156 can be placed in three spatial locations (e.g., for the 1-3-7 triad, these would be 1-3-7, 1-7-3,

157 3-1-7, 3-7-1, 7-1-3, 7-3-1). Thus, each of the eight triads had six different instantiations,

158 resulting in 48 physically different triads per experiment. The three stimuli in each triad

159 were presented simultaneously in a horizontal line, with each square separated from the next

160 by an edge-to-edge distance of 8 mm. Stimuli were presented on a 22-inch Philips LED

161 monitor, against a mid-grey background, using E-prime 2; responses were collected using a

162 standard PC keyboard. Participants sat approximately 50cm from the screen; the whole

163 stimulus triad thus subtended approximately five degrees of visual angle horizontally, and

164 one degree vertically.

165   **Procedure.** Participants were arbitrarily assigned to one of two conditions, short

166 presentation time or long presentation time. The stimulus presentation times used were 100

167 ms and 2000 ms. At the beginning of each trial, the screen displayed the message "Ready?"

168 and the participant pressed a key to continue. After this, a small fixation cross was

169 presented in the centre of the screen, for 500 ms. The stimulus triad was then presented for

170 the appropriate duration, and then immediately replaced by the message "Odd one out?"

171 The participant pressed the number key 1, 2 or 3 to indicate the left, middle, or right

172 stimulus, respectively. The next trial began immediately upon detection of a response.

173   Each of the 48 physically different stimulus triads were presented twice, with order of

174 presentation randomized for each participant. The randomization was constrained such that

175 each block of eight trials contained exactly one of the eight logical triads (1-3-7, 1-5-7, etc.).

176 At the end of each block, the participants received an on-screen reminder of the instructions,

177 and pressed a key when they were ready to continue.

178   **Strategy analysis.**   To determine the strategy used by each participant, the

179 participants responses were compared to each of the three categorisation strategies

180 mentioned in more detail above: unidimensional (UD), overall similarity (OS), and identity

181 (ID). Additionally, we checked to see whether any participants were best described by a

182 Response Bias strategy (Bias), where they always pressed the same key. To do this, we first

183 determined for each of the 48 possible triad stimuli what the response should be given each

184 of these strategies. We then counted, for each strategy and participant, how many of the

185 participant's responses matched the predicted response of that strategy. Then, the

186 participant's strategy was the strategy that best matched the participant's responses.

187 **Results and discussion**

188   Table 1 shows, as expected, that there was a strong preference for overall similarity

189 classification at 2000 ms. However, shortening the presentation time to 100 ms appeared to

190 have little effect. One participant was best fit by a response-bias model (i.e., always pressing

191 the same key), one by the assumption they were responding on the basis of a single

192 dimension. All the other participants remained best fit by an overall similarity account.

193 Bayesian analysis, conducted with the `BayesFactor` R package (Morey & Rouder, 2022),

Table 1

Number of participants best fit by a unidimensional (UD), overall similarity (OS), identity (ID), or response bias (Bias) model, as a function of stimulus presentation time, in Experiment 1.

Time	UD	OS	ID	Bias
100 ms	1	27	0	1
2000 ms	0	17	0	0

indicated that the ratio of unidimensional to overall similarity classifiers was unaffected by our time pressure manipulation, $BF_{10} = 0.14$. This result is not diagnostic between Combination Theory and Differentiation Theory. Differentiation Theory can attribute the lack of increase in overall-similarity classification to a ceiling effect, and Combination Theory can attribute it to the manipulation being insufficiently potent to produce a detectable effect.

In a further, exploratory, analysis we fitted the same response models to each eight-trial block of responses separately, deriving the number of blocks which, for each participant, were best fit by each model. Although this analysis is a novel one for the triad task, we have employed it in previous experiments using the match-to-standards procedure (Wills, Milton, Longmore, Hester, & Robinson, 2013). We speculated that this analysis might be more sensitive to low levels of unidimensional classification, assuming that, due to both internal and external noise, participants sometimes successfully classified on the basis of both dimensions but other times did not have time to combine both dimensions and hence responded on the basis of a single dimension. This analysis was conducted on 45 participants, as one participant had been found to best fit a response-bias model. Response-bias models can only be fit at a whole-participant level, not an individual-block level, because it is only at the participant level that the physical position of the stimuli on the screen is counterbalanced.

Table 2

Mean proportion of unidimensional (UD), overall similarity (OS), and identity (ID) blocks, as a function of stimulus presentation time, in Experiment 1.

Time	UD	OS	ID
100 ms	0.119	0.881	0.000
2000 ms	0.018	0.975	0.007

On 13% of blocks, models tied for first place; these blocks were removed from further analysis. Table 2 shows the results of this by-block analysis. The crucial result is that participants in the 100 ms condition produce more classification blocks best fit by a unidimensional response model than participants in the 2000 ms condition, $BF_{10} = 4.92$. Hence reducing the stimulus presentation time increased unidimensional responding, even for these integral stimuli. This result is predicted by Combination Theory, and disconfirms Differentiation Theory.

One obvious criticism of this conclusion is that it is based on a post-hoc analysis which, despite having precedents in the literature, was only engaged after our a priori analysis failed to reveal conclusive results. For this reason, we conducted a direct replication.

Experiment 2

Method

Fifty psychology students from XXX University participated for partial course credit; this sample size has sufficient (84%) power to detect the medium-to-large effect observed in the by-blocks analysis of the previous experiment (d = 0.83). The stimuli, apparatus, and procedure, were identical to the previous experiment.

Table 3

Mean proportion of unidimensional (UD), overall similarity (OS), and identity (ID) blocks,
as a function of stimulus presentation time, in Experiment 2.

Time	UD	OS	ID
100 ms	0.142	0.850	0.008
2000 ms	0.012	0.988	0.000

Results and discussion

One participant was excluded due to being best fit by a response-bias model. On 10% of blocks, models tied for first place; these blocks were removed from further analysis. Table 3 shows the key results, which are similar to the previous experiment. Crucially, shorter presentation times (compared to longer presentation times) once again increased the prevalence of unidimensional classification of these integral stimuli, $BF_{10} = 1047$. This Bayesian calculation makes use of a prior based on the size of the effect in the previous experiment. Specifically, following Dienes (2011), we used a normally-distributed prior of effect sizes, centered on the observed difference in the previous experiment, and with a standard deviation of half that observed difference. There is also Bayesian evidence for the effect of stimulus presentation time on unidimensional responding if one entirely ignores the prior provided by the previous experiment and uses a non-directional test against a non-informative prior, as performed in the previous experiment, $BF_{10} = 3.50$.

Experiment 3

Our final experiment had two purposes. First, we wished to confirm that the stimuli as presented in the first two experiments met a standard Garner definition of integrality, i.e. the pairwise similarity ratings were better fit by a Euclidean than a city-block multidimensional scaling (MDS) solution (Garner, 1976). Second, we wished to assess the closeness of the resulting MDS solution to the solution provided by the Munsell colour codes attributed to

these stimuli. If differences were to be found, we would then use the MDS solution in a re-analysis of the triad data that represents the stimuli in terms of a psychological, rather than physical, stimulus space.

Method

Participants, apparatus and stimuli. Twenty-four participants were tested in this experiment; the sample size was determined by the number of course credits available at the time of testing and is similar to past experiments Shin & Nosofsky (1992). PsychoPy software (Pierce, 2007), version 1.83, was used to present the stimuli and to collect responses via a standard PC keyboard and mouse. The stimuli were the same as in the two previous experiments.

Procedure. After some initial instructions explaining the task, the experiment began. On each trial, two square stimuli were shown in the centre of the screen, arranged horizontally, and placed 2cm apart as measured from their centres. Participants were asked to rate the similarity of each pair of stimuli using a 1-9 scale. The scale was visually presented on the screen, below the square stimuli, along with text specifying that "1 = not very similar" and "9 = very similar". The number 5 was also indicated on the scale, but not further labelled. A moveable rectangular slider was present on this scale. Initially placed above the number 5, participants moved this slider to one of the nine available ratings using the mouse and indicated their response with a mouse click. The screen cleared immediately after the participant's response, and the next trial began one second later.

The experiment had two blocks of 56 trials. A block comprised two presentations of each possible pair of the eight stimuli, with left-right position of the stimulus pair counterbalanced across those two presentations. Trial ordering was randomized separately for each block and participant.

Table 4

Pairwise similarity ratings.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	4.32						
3	7.68	4.54					
4	5.03	7.12	6.38				
5	4.47	3.07	5.90	4.28			
6	3.78	3.33	4.79	4.65	6.60		
7	3.81	2.36	4.71	3.27	7.66	5.66	
8	3.57	2.97	3.92	3.95	5.61	7.34	5.33

Results and discussion

The average pairwise similarity ratings for the eight stimuli are shown in Table 4. Two-dimensional, non-metric multidimensional scaling (Kruskal, 1964) was applied to these data, using the `isoMDS` function of the R package `MASS` (Ripley, 2023). The stress of the Euclidean solution (0.04) was lower than the city-block solution (3.19), implying that these stimuli are better considered as integral than separable by Garner's operational definition.

Figure 2 shows the Euclidean MDS solution, scaled and Procrustean rotated for best fit to the co-ordinates of the stimuli in the Munsell colour system; these rigid transformations do not affect the distance relationships in a Euclidean MDS solution. The `procrustes` function of the R package `vegan` (Oksanen et al., 2022) was used for this part of the analysis. Following standard practice, we assumed that, in the Munsell system, two units of chroma are psychologically equivalent to one unit of brightness (Nickerson, 1936; Nosofsky, 1987; Shepard, 1958).

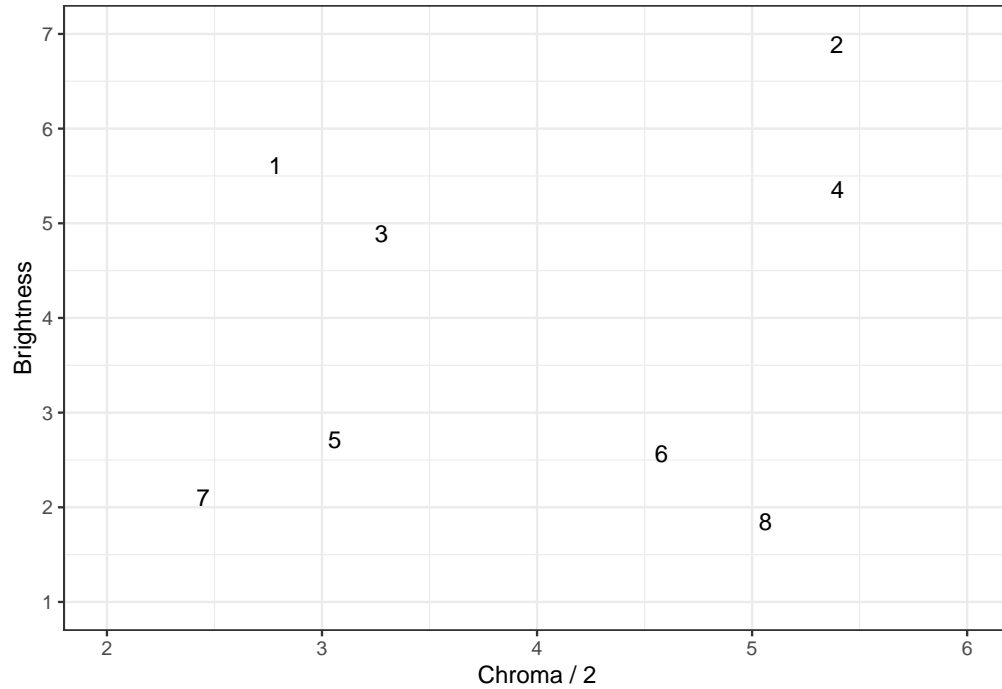Inspection of Figure 2 indicates that, for six of the eight stimuli, the MDS solution

Figure 2. Multidimensional scaling solution

shows similarity relations comparable to those in the Munsell co-ordinates. The exceptions
are stimuli 2 and 4, which would appear to have been perceived as somewhat brighter and
more saturated than their Munsell co-ordinates would indicate. This may have been a
function of our use of commodity hardware for screen display.

Given these moderate discrepancies between the Munsell co-ordinates and the
multidimensional scaling solution, we re-analyzed the data from the previous two
experiments, combining the two datasets and using the MDS co-ordinates as the inputs to
our response models, rather than the Munsell co-ordinates.

Two participants were excluded due to being best fit by a response-bias model. On
25% of blocks, models tied for first place; these blocks were removed from further analysis.
Table 5 shows the results of our re-analysis. Using the MDS co-ordinates for these stimuli
approximately doubled the magnitude of the effect observed with the Munsell co-ordinates;
unidimensional responding rose from 9% at 2000 ms to 32% at 100 ms. Bayesian analysis,

Table 5

*Mean proportion of unidimensional (UD), overall similarity (OS), and identity (ID) blocks,
as a function of stimulus presentation time.*

Time	UD	OS	ID
100 ms	0.319	0.681	0
2000 ms	0.086	0.914	0

employing a non-informative prior, provides very strong support for an effect of stimulus

presentation time on the prevalence of unidimensional responding, $BF = 892$. Hence, overall,

the three experiments presented in the current paper provide strong evidence for the effect

predicted by Combination Theory, and disconfirm Differentiation Theory.

Further inspection of Figure 2 reveals that no stimulus is identically placed on either

dimension (this is true even for stimuli 2 and 4 on the chroma dimension). As a consequence,

the Identity response model can never predict participants' responses, leading to reported

zero prevalence of Identity responding in Table 5. It would in principle be possible to

generalize the Identity response model such that it could deal with near-identity (such as

stimuli 2 and 4 on chroma) effectively, and the work of L. B. Smith (1989) suggests a way in

which this could be done. However, given the very low prevalence of ID classification

observed for these stimuli in our earlier analysis, where the use of Munsell co-ordinates

would have made such responding detectable if it had occurred, such a generalization of the

Identity model would be unlikely to change the conclusions of the current work.

General Discussion

As stimulus presentation time increases, the prevalence of single-dimension

classification of multi-attribute stimuli increases (Wills et al., 2015). This phenomenon is

well established for separable stimuli (e.g. squares varying in size and brightness), but the

current experiments are the first demonstration for integral stimuli (specifically, for squares

varying in saturation and brightness). Intuitively, this effect of stimulus presentation time on

integral stimuli may seem surprising. After all, under unspeeded conditions, it is well

established that selectively attending to integral stimulus dimensions requires effort (Garner,

1976). Such observations have led some to conclude that cognition begins with an

undifferentiated stimulus whole, which is analyzed into its components only with effort

(Lockhead, 1972 et seq.); a view subsequently described as Differentiation Theory (Wills et

al., 2015). However, our results support an approximately opposite account - cognition

begins with stimulus attributes, which are combined if time and mental resources allow

(Neisser, 1967 et seq.); an account subsequently described as Combination Theory (Wills et

al., 2015). Once attributes are combined, selective attention is somewhat effortful, and that

effort is greater for integral than for separable stimuli. Under a Combination Theory account

synthesis, rather than analysis, is the more appropriate chemical metaphor. Integral stimuli,

rather than being slowly analyzed, are quickly synthesized.

Although the current experiments concern the presentation of simple stimuli in the

laboratory, the distinction between Differentiation and Combination Theory is of broader

relevance. The terms 'analytic' and 'nonanalytic' (or 'holistic') are broadly applied in

psychology as theories of modes of thought. Such terms seem to assume the correctness of

Differentiation Theory (otherwise terms such as 'synthetic' would be more appropriate).

Given that Differentiation Theory seems to be largely the wrong theory for the classification

of simple stimuli, an investigation of the extent to which the predictions of Differentiation

Theory are correct across psychology more generally seems worthy of further examination.

For example, a form of Differentiation Theory seems to underlie the proposal that the

training of radiologists could be improved by distracting them with a secondary task

(Filoteo, Lauritzen, & Maddox, 2010), while Combination Theory predicts that this is likely

to be harmful (Newell, Moore, Wills, & Milton, 2013). A second example - one of the key

ways WEIRD (Western Educated Industrialized Rich and Democratic) populations are

343 described as differing from some other cultures is in the unusual extent to which WEIRD

344 thought is characteristically 'analytic' rather than 'holisitic' (Henrich, Heine, & Norenzayan,

345 2010). Such a description presupposes a form of Differentiation Theory.

346   Returning to the experiments reported in the current paper, the same-lab replication of

347 our results reduces the chances that we are reporting a false positive, but replication by an

348 independent lab would further increase confidence, and we are keen to support such efforts.

349 Our materials and analysis methods are publicly available. One crucial aspect for successful

350 replication of our results is the well-controlled presentation of precisely-defined stimuli; the

351 logic of the experiment requires, for example, that the location of stimuli in physical stimulus

352 space (Figure 1) corresponds reasonably closely to their position in psychological stimulus

353 space. Investigations of our own stimuli (reported in Experiment 3) support the conclusion

354 that, in our case, the correspondence was sufficiently close that our conclusions remain valid

355 (in fact, use of a psychological stimulus space strengthens the support for our conclusions).

356 Nonetheless, future investigators may wish to take further steps towards tight stimulus

357 control (for example, the use of more specialist hardware for stimulus presentation). Future

358 research might also consider extending to other integral stimulus sets, with pure tones

359 differing in pitch and loudness probably the other most-validated integral set to date (Grau

360 & Kemler Nelson, 1988). Finally, it would be interesting to see which formal process models

361 of classification can accommodate the current results. EGCM (Lamberts, 1995) seems a

362 likely candidate, as does any other model that explicitly combines stimulus dimensions over

363 time (Cohen & Nosofsky, 2003). In contrast, theories such as COVIS (Ashby, Alfonso-Reese,

364 Waldron, et al., 1998), in which responding on the basis of a single dimension is a function of

365 the effortful use of the rule-based system, seem conceptually closer to Differentiation Theory,

366 and hence may require some modification in order to accommodate the present results.

References

Ashby, F. G., Alfonso-Reese, L. A., Waldron, E. M., et al. (1998). A neuropsychological theory of multiple systems in category learning. *Psychological Review, 105*(3), 442–481.

Champely, S. (2020). *Pwr: Basic functions for power analysis.* Retrieved from https://github.com/heliosdrm/pwr

Cohen, A. L., & Nosofsky, R. M. (2003). An extension of the exemplar-based random-walk model to separable-dimension stimuli. *Journal of Mathematical Psychology, 47*(2), 150–165.

Dienes, Z. (2011). Bayesian versus orthodox statistics: Which side are you on? *Perspectives on Psychological Science, 6*(3), 274–290.

Filoteo, J. V., Lauritzen, S., & Maddox, W. T. (2010). Removing the frontal lobes: The effects of engaging executive functions on perceptual category learning. *Psychological Science, 21*(3), 415–423.

Foard, C. F., & Kemler Nelson, D. G. (1984). Holistic and analytic modes of processing: The multiple determinants of perceptual analysis. *Journal of Experimental Psychology: General, 113*(1), 94–111.

Garner, W. R. (1976). Interaction of stimulus dimensions in concept and choice processes. *Cognitive Psychology, 8*(1), 98–123.

Grau, J. W., & Kemler Nelson, D. K. (1988). The distinction between integral and separable dimensions: Evidence for the integrality of pitch and loudness. *Journal of Experimental Psychology: General, 117*(4), 347–370.

Henrich, J., Heine, S. J., & Norenzayan, A. (2010). The weirdest people in the world? *Behavioral and Brain Sciences, 33*(2-3), 61–83.

Kemler Nelson, D. G. (1984). The effect of intention on what concepts are acquired. *Journal of Verbal Learning and Verbal Behavior, 23*(6), 734–759.

Kruskal, J. B. (1964). Nonmetric multidimensional scaling: A numerical method.

Psychometrika, 29(2), 115–129.

Lamberts, K. (1995). Categorization under time pressure. *Journal of Experimental Psychology: General, 124*(2), 161–180.

Livingston, K. R., Andrews, J. K., & Harnad, S. (1998). Categorical perception effects induced by category learning. *Journal of Experimental Psychology: Learning, Memory, and Cognition, 24*(3), 732.

Lockhead, G. R. (1972). Processing dimensional stimuli: A note. *Psychological Review, 79*(5), 410–419.

Milton, F., Longmore, C. A., & Wills, A. J. (2008). Processes of overall similarity sorting in free classification. *Journal of Experimental Psychology: Human Perception and Performance, 34*(3), 676–692.

Morey, R. D., & Rouder, J. N. (2022). *BayesFactor: Computation of bayes factors for common designs.* Retrieved from https://richarddmorey.github.io/BayesFactor/

Neisser, U. (1967). *Cognitive psychology.* Prentice Hall.

Newell, B. R., Moore, C. P., Wills, A. J., & Milton, F. (2013). Reinstating the frontal lobes? Having more time to think improves implicit perceptual categorization: A comment on filoteo, lauritzen, and maddox (2010). *Psychological Science, 24*(3), 386–389.

Nickerson, D. (1936). The specification of color tolerances. *Textile Research, 6*(12), 505–514.

Nosofsky, R. M. (1987). Attention and learning processes in the identification and categorization of integral stimuli. *Journal of Experimental Psychology: Learning, Memory, and Cognition, 13*(1), 87–108.

Oksanen, J., Simpson, G. L., Blanchet, F. G., Kindt, R., Legendre, P., Minchin, P. R., . . . Weedon, J. (2022). *Vegan: Community ecology package.* Retrieved from https://github.com/vegandevs/vegan

Pierce, J. W. (2007). PsychoPy - psychophysics software in python. *Journal of*

Neuroscience Methods, *162*(1-2), 8–13.

Raijmakers, M. E., Jansen, B. R., & Maas, H. L. van der. (2004). Rules and development in triad classification task performance. *Developmental Review*, *24*(3), 289–321.

Ripley, B. (2023). *MASS: Support functions and datasets for venables and ripley's MASS*. Retrieved from http://www.stats.ox.ac.uk/pub/MASS4/

Shepard, R. N. (1958). Stimulus and response generalization: Tests of a model relating generalization to distance in psychological space. *Journal of Experimental Psychology*, *55*(6), 509–523.

Shin, H. J., & Nosofsky, R. M. (1992). Similarity-scaling studies of dot-pattern classification and recognition. *Journal of Experimental Psychology: General*, *121*(3), 278.

Smith, J. D., & Kemler, D. G. (1984). Overall similarity in adults' classification: The child in all of us. *Journal of Experimental Psychology: General*, *113*(1), 137–159.

Smith, J. D., & Shapiro, J. H. (1989). The occurrence of holistic categorization. *Journal of Memory and Language*, *28*(4), 386–399.

Smith, L. B. (1989). A model of perceptual classification in children and adults. *Psychological Review*, *96*(1), 125–144.

Smith, L. B., & Kemler, D. G. (1977). Developmental trends in free classification: Evidence for a new conceptualization of perceptual development. *Journal of Experimental Child Psychology*, *24*(2), 279–298.

Thompson, L. A. (1994). Dimensional strategies dominate perceptual classification. *Child Development*, *65*(6), 1627–1645.

Ward, T. B. (1983). Response tempo and separable-integral responding: Evidence for an integral-to-separable processing sequence in visual perception. *Journal of Experimental Psychology: Human Perception and Performance*, *9*(1), 103–112.

Wills, A. J., Inkster, A. B., & Milton, F. (2015). Combination or differentiation? Two

448   theories of processing order in classification. *Cognitive Psychology, 80*, 1–33.

449   Wills, A. J., Milton, F., Longmore, C. A., Hester, S., & Robinson, J. (2013). Is

450   overall similarity classification less effortful than single-dimension classification?

451   *Quarterly Journal of Experimental Psychology, 66*(2), 299–318.