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# Working Memory Capacity and Redundant Information Processing Efficiency

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Modeling individual differences in perceptual decision making

## 2 ABSTRACT

3 Working memory capacity (WMC) is typically measured by the amount of task-relevant  
4 information an individual can keep in mind while resisting distraction or interference from task-  
5 irrelevant information. The current research investigated the extent to which differences in  
6 WMC were associated with performance on a novel redundant memory probes (RMP) task that  
7 systematically varied the amount of to-be-remembered (targets) and to-be-ignored (distractor)  
8 information. The RMP task was designed to both facilitate and inhibit working memory search  
9 processes, as evidenced by differences in accuracy, response time, and Linear Ballistic  
10 Accumulator (LBA) model estimates of information processing efficiency. Participants ( $N = 170$ )  
11 completed standard intelligence tests and dual-span WMC tasks, along with the RMP task.  
12 As expected, accuracy, response-time, and LBA model results indicated memory search and  
13 retrieval processes were facilitated under redundant- target conditions, but also inhibited under  
14 mixed target/distractor and redundant-distractor conditions. Repeated measures analyses also  
15 indicated that, while individuals classified as high ( $n = 85$ ) and low ( $n = 85$ ) WMC did not differ  
16 in the magnitude of redundancy effects, groups did differ in the efficiency of memory search and  
17 retrieval processes overall. Results suggest that redundant information reliably facilitates and  
18 inhibits the efficiency or speed of working memory search, and these effects are independent of  
19 more general limits and individual differences in the capacity or space of working memory.

20 **Keywords:** working memory capacity, Systems Factorial Technology, Linear Ballistic Accumulator, individual differences, memory  
21 retrieval

## 1 INTRODUCTION

22 Working memory can be described as a multifaceted limited-capacity information processing system,  
23 comprising interrelated attention and memory subsystems that govern the controlled processing of  
24 goal-relevant information over short periods of time and in light of interference or distraction from

25 goal-irrelevant information (**Baddeley and Hitch**, 1974; **Baddeley**, 1986; **Baddeley and Logie**, 1999;  
26 **Baddeley**, 2000). Complex or dual span tasks have been typically used to measure the processing  
27 “capacity” of working memory, quantifying the total “amount” of to-be-remembered information that  
28 can be accurately held in mind while resisting distraction from to-be-ignored information (**Conway et al.**,  
29 2005; **A. and Engle**, 1994). Researchers have consistently shown dual span task performance decreases  
30 as a function of increases in to-be-remembered and ignored information, supporting the hypothesis that  
31 working memory is limited capacity in nature. Although this work has provided strong evidence that  
32 working memory capacity is limited, little is yet understood about the effect that redundant information  
33 has on working memory processing capacity and efficiency. The current research used an extreme groups  
34 approach and a novel redundant memory probes (RMP) task to investigate (a) the extent to which  
35 the “efficiency” or “speed” of working memory visual-search processes were affected by redundancies  
36 in target and distractor information, and (b) whether such redundancy effects depend on individual  
37 differences in “capacity” or “amount” of working memory resources. Here, a simplified linear ballistic  
38 accumulator (LBA) model (**Brown and Heathcote**, 2008; **Donkin et al.**, 2009) of RMP task accuracy  
39 and response time was used to characterize working memory efficiency, while working memory capacity  
40 was characterized by performance on standard dual span tasks.

41 The redundant-target paradigm has been commonly used to investigate the efficiency or workload  
42 capacity of visual-search processes in divided-attention and short-term memory. In such experiments,  
43 participants are presented with stimuli containing 2, 1, or 0 target features. The participant’s task  
44 is to decide whether or not stimuli contain at least 1 target feature as quickly and as accurately as  
45 possible. Redundancy gain effects are demonstrated by decreases in reaction time (RT) performance  
46 under redundant-target conditions relative to single-target conditions, indicating increases in the amount  
47 of target information facilitates processing efficiency or workload capacity (e.g. **Townsend and Eidels**,  
48 2011) or potentially statistical facilitation (**Raab**, 1962). Conversely, increases in RT performance under  
49 no-target or distractor conditions relative to all others, indicating increases in the amount of distractor  
50 information inhibits processing efficiency or workload capacity (e.g. **Townsend and Eidels**, 2011), or  
51 potentially statistical inhibition (cf. **Townsend and Wenger**, 2004). This work has shown redundant  
52 target information facilitates speed, and in some cases the accuracy, of visual-search processes while  
53 distractor identification is inhibited because it is defined based on the conjunction of multiple properties.  
54 Although redundancy effects have been reliably shown in tasks that index divided attention or short-term  
55 memory processes, little work has been done to characterize redundancy effects in tasks designed to  
56 measure working memory processes. The present research assumed that if working memory governs the  
57 interaction between divided attention and short-term memory processes, then tasks that tap both processes  
58 index more general working memory resources. Following from this assumption, it was hypothesized  
59 that redundant target and distractor information presented during short-term memory search would yield  
60 classic redundancy gain and loss effects on decision-making accuracy and RT that can be attributed to  
61 facilitation and inhibition of working memory information processing efficiency or workload capacity

62 Recently, **Eidels et al.** (2010) used an LBA model to quantify the efficiency and workload capacity  
63 of cognitive processes underlying redundant-target effects in a divided-attention experiment. Results  
64 showed that the LBA model was sensitive to the redundancy gain effects observed for choice accuracy  
65 and RT, such that model estimates of internal evidence accumulation or drift-rates showed greater  
66 efficiency in divided attention under redundant-target conditions relative to single-target conditions.  
67 Model simulations of participant drift-rate data also predicted individual differences in workload capacity  
68 as indicated by Townsend and colleagues’ capacity coefficient (e.g., **Townsend and Nozawa**, 1995;  
69 **Townsend and Wenger**, 2004; **Houpt and Townsend**, 2012; **Burns et al.**, 2013; **Houpt et al.**, 2014)  
70 which characterized participant’s divided attention as super, unlimited, or limited capacity. Crucially,  
71 results showed participants with larger differences between redundant-target and single- target drift-  
72 rates showed super capacity in divided attention, whereby redundant targets facilitated or increased  
73 the workload capacity of target recognition. In contrast, participants with smaller drift-rate differences  
74 tended to show limited capacity in divided attention, whereby redundant targets inhibited or decreased  
75 the workload capacity of target recognition. In sum, drift-rate efficiency and workload capacity measures  
76 showed convergent evidence that suggested individuals can differ in the magnitude of redundancy gain

77 effects on divided attention, whereby some individuals show facilitation in processing efficiency, and  
78 others experience inhibition. The present research builds from this work by using the LBA model to  
79 (a) investigate redundancy gain and loss effects using a novel working memory experiment, and (b)  
80 determine the extent to which such effects differ between individuals classified as having low or high  
81 working memory capacity on dual span tasks.

82 In our current work, we deviate from the Eidels et al. approach by using the average of the single  
83 conditions processing rates as the baseline for comparison to the dual conditions. The advantage to our  
84 approach was that it did not require additional complexity and model development beyond the standard  
85 LBA. The disadvantage of our approach compared to the Eidels et al. approach is that the baseline model  
86 does not match the traditional unlimited-capacity, independent parallel model baseline (cf. **Townsend**  
87 **and Nozawa**, 1995; **Houpt et al.**, 2014); instead, our baseline is essentially a fixed-capacity coactive  
88 model because the baseline model uses the summed rates of each individual process (cf. **Houpt and**  
89 **Townsend**, 2011). While we do not have a strong argument for a fixed-capacity coactive baseline over an  
90 unlimited-capacity parallel model, our focus is not to determine whether individual participants exhibit  
91 super, unlimited, or limited workload capacity in the RMP task. Rather, our focus is on the extent to  
92 which redundancy effects in the RMP task vary as a function of individual differences in performance  
93 on other well-established working memory span tasks. This focus minimizes the issue of specifying a  
94 baseline model because redundancy effects are operationalized experimentally, as given by the magnitude  
95 of differences between performance indicators obtained under redundancy and singleton conditions.

96 As in Figure 1, the current LBA model had 5 parameters ( $t_0$ ,  $A$ ,  $b$ ,  $v$ , and  $s = 1$ ) that were assumed to  
97 govern the process of scanning short-term memory and deciding whether a given memory probe contained  
98 target (match) or distractor (non-match) information. Although alternative sequential sampling models  
99 are capable of characterizing RMP task performance (e.g., **Ratcliff**, 1978), these models tend to lead to  
100 similar conclusions (**Donkin et al.**, 2011). The current LBA model used full RT distributions for correct  
101 and incorrect choices to estimate the rate at which evidence for target and distractor responses accumulate  
102 during the memory search process. A decision is made whenever the first accumulation process reaches an  
103 internal threshold criterion for sufficient evidence. In Figure 1, the  $b$  parameter represents the threshold of  
104 sufficient evidence for a response. High  $b$  values reflect a preference for more information before making a  
105 decision. The  $A$  parameter represents the amount of evidence in each accumulator at the beginning of the  
106 trial. Higher values of  $A$  reflect a preference for responding fast. The  $t_0$  parameter represents elements of  
107 the RT distribution that are not associated with the decision-making process, such as perceptual encoding  
108 or motor execution latencies. Higher values of  $t_0$  reflect slower perceptual encoding and response  
109 execution. The  $v$  parameter represents the average rate of evidence accumulation for either the target  
110 ( $v_T$ ) or distractor ( $v_D$ ). High values of  $v$  reflect steeper or faster rates of evidence accumulation. The  $s$   
111 parameter represents the standard deviation of the  $v$  parameter estimate, and is set to 1. Here, an accuracy  
112 adjusted drift rate, denoted ( $V$ ), operationalized the process of accumulating accurate evidence for target  
113 and distractor decisions. The  $V$  measure was calculated by subtracting  $v$  obtained on incorrect trials from  
114  $v$  on correct trials ( $V = v_{\text{correct}} - v_{\text{incorrect}}$ ). In terms of LBA parameters, our baseline prediction was  
115 formalized as  $V_{\text{RedundantProbe}} = .5(V_{\text{SingleProbe1}} + V_{\text{SingleProbe2}})$ . Specifically, redundancy effects were  
116 evaluated as the inequality resulting from contrasting  $V$  obtained under redundancy conditions versus the  
117  $V$  obtained under singleton conditions, e.g.,  $V_{\text{RedundantTarget}}$  versus  $.5(V_{\text{ColorTarget}} + V_{\text{LetterTarget}})$ .

118 The present research investigated two main aims. The first was to examine the effects of redundancy  
119 on performance in a novel task designed to study the interaction between divided-attention and short-  
120 term memory processes in working memory, which we call the redundant memory probes (RMP) task.  
121 Illustrated in Figure 2, and described in greater detail later, the RMP task systematically varied the  
122 amount of to-be-remembered (target) and to-be-ignored (distractor) information present during short-  
123 term memory search. Consistent with previous research, choice accuracy, mean response time (mRT),  
124 and LBA model drift-rate measures were used to quantify redundancy effects in the RMP task. Based on  
125 previous research, it was hypothesized that a redundant-target (RT) condition would yield higher accuracy,  
126 faster mean reaction time (mRT), and larger LBA model drift-rates when contrasted against single-target  
127 (ST) conditions ( $V_{\text{RT}} > V_{\text{ST}}$ ). A redundant-distractor condition also was hypothesized to yield lower

128 accuracy, slower mRT, and smaller drift-rates when contrasted against the single-distractor (SD) condition  
129 ( $V_{RD} < V_{SD}$ ). Mixed-target and distractor (TD and DT) conditions also were included to investigate the  
130 effects of overlapping target-distractor information on choice accuracy, mRT, and drift-rates, although we  
131 did not have any a priori predictions about the ordering of those drift rates relative to the other trial types  
132 ( $V_{TD}, V_{DT}, V_{ST}$ ).

133 The second aim was to examine whether individuals classified as having high or low working memory  
134 capacity (WMC), as determined by performance on traditional dual span tasks, differed in the magnitude  
135 of redundancy gain and loss effects on the RMP task. This extreme groups approach was used to determine  
136 whether individuals who are known to differ on well-established measures of WMC also differ with  
137 regard to their sensitivity to redundancy gain and loss effects and overall efficiency in working memory  
138 visual search. Based on previous working memory individual differences research, it was hypothesized  
139 that individuals with low WMC would show lower accuracy, slower mRT, smaller drift-rates, and be  
140 more susceptible to distractor information while processing target information than those with high  
141 WMC. We also expected to find an interaction between experimentally driven redundancy effects and  
142 WMC individual differences. Specifically, we hypothesized that the magnitude of redundancy effects  
143 would depend on WMD individual differences, such that individuals with low WMC would show less  
144 redundancy gain and loss effects.

## 2 MATERIALS & METHODS

### 2.1 PARTICIPANTS

145 *2.1.1 Sample characteristics* The sample consisted of 170 young adults (96 men, 74 women;  $\chi^2 =$   
146  $2.85, p > .05$ ) ranging in age from 18 to 30 (mean =  $20.89 \pm 2.31$ ). The sample was 77% White, 8%  
147 African American, 6% Asian, Indian, or Middle Eastern, 6% Hispanic or Latino, and 3% multiple  
148 ethnicities. Men were older than women ( $t_{168} = 1.96, p < .05$ ). However, gender was not associated  
149 with differences on any other study variable.

150 *2.1.2 Study recruitment* Participants were recruited from a subject pool of participants who completed  
151 a larger study on the personality, cognitive, and decision making correlates of substance use and antisocial  
152 behavior problems in young adults. Participants in the larger study were recruited using advertisements  
153 posted around the campus and surrounding community of a large Midwestern university. Advertisements  
154 were also placed in local and student newspapers. Advertisements were designed to attract individuals  
155 with varying degrees of lifetime problems with substance use and impulse control. This approach has been  
156 effective in attracting responses from individuals who vary in performance on cognitive tasks assessing  
157 intelligence, associative learning, short-term memory, working memory, and approach-avoidance decision  
158 making (Endres et al., 2011; Finn et al., 2002, 2009).

159 Advertisement respondents were telephone screened for inclusion criteria of being between 18 and 30  
160 years of age, able read/speak English, at least 6th grade education, and without a history of psychosis  
161 or head trauma. On the day of testing subjects were further screened to ensure participants did not use  
162 alcohol or drugs in the past 12 hours, were not experiencing symptoms of withdrawal or fatigue, and had  
163 a breath alcohol content of 0.0%.

164 Participants in the current sub-study were recruited based on a stratified random sample of main study  
165 participants (N=507). Participants who completed the entire main study protocol were categorized as  
166 having low, moderate, or high histories of substance use and antisocial behavior based on an unsupervised  
167 cluster analysis of participant self-reported history with alcohol, drugs, childhood conduct problems, and  
168 adult antisocial behavior. A total of 180 participants (60 from each of the three groups) were solicited for  
169 participation in the present study with a final response rate of 94.44%. Based on previous research noting a  
170 negative association between executive cognitive functioning (e.g., intelligence, associative learning, and  
171 working memory) and individual's history of substance use and antisocial behavior (Finn et al., 2009),

172 participants in the current stratified sample also were expected to vary greatly with respect to working  
173 memory and executive decision-making ability.

174 *2.1.3 Dual span tasks* Working memory capacity (WMC) was assessed using two different complex-  
175 span tests, the Operation-Word Span test (OW; **A. and Engle**, 1994) and a modified version of the  
176 Auditory Consonant Trigram test (AC; **Brown**, 1958; **Endres et al.**, 2011; **Finn et al.**, 2009). These tasks  
177 operationalize WMC as the total number of primary memory items that can be correctly recalled after  
178 performing a second unrelated cognitive task. The OW test was experimenter based and assessed the total  
179 number of words that were correctly recalled after performing a mathematical operation. For example,  
180 participants were asked to determine whether a mathematical operation was correct and presented with a  
181 word to-be-remembered ( $2 \times 5 = 12?$  DOG). After a series of operation-word trials, participants were  
182 asked to recall the words in their correct order of presentation in the series. The AC test also was  
183 experimenter based and assessed the total number of consonant letters, from a string of letters (e.g., r,  
184 d, t, and l), that could be remembered after counting backwards by 3's from a random three-digit number  
185 (e.g., 379) for a pre-determined length of time (e.g., 18 or 36 seconds) Several studies indicated that  
186 the OW and AC tests are valid indicators of the limited capacity nature of working memory, wherein  
187 accuracy decreases as a function of increases in primary memory items and secondary cognitive loads  
188 (**Endres et al.**, 2011; **Engle et al.**, 1999). Consistent with previous research, a composite WMC factor  
189 score was created by estimating the covariance among the total number of items correctly recalled on  
190 the OW and AC tasks using maximum likelihood extraction (**Endres et al.**, 2011; **Engle et al.**, 1999;  
191 **Finn et al.**, 2009). This WMC factor score variable was eventually dichotomized to reflect individual  
192 differences in high and low WMC in repeated measure analyses. Individuals were classified as having  
193 low or high WMC based on a median split (median=.03) of maximum likelihood estimated WMC factor  
194 scores (Cronbach's Alpha = .67, mean=0, SD=.88, skew=-.34, kurtosis=-.36).

195 *2.1.4 Redundant memory probe tasks* The redundant memory probes (RMP) task was designed to  
196 study the interaction between divided- attention and short-term memory processes in working memory.  
197 The task used basic study-test (**Sternberg**, 1966) and varied response mapping (**Schnieder and Shiffrin**,  
198 1977) procedures embedded within a double-factorial design **Townsend and Wenger** (2004) to examine  
199 the effects of redundant target and distractor information on the processes of searching short-term memory  
200 for color and letter information.

201 The study-test procedure (Figure 3) involved the initial rehearsal of memory lists varying in length  
202 and composition of color and letter items (Factor 1), followed by the serially matching of 16 memory-  
203 test probes with and without redundant target and distractor features (Factor 2). During the study phase,  
204 participants rehearsed memory lists containing either 1 or 3 color items and 1 or three letter items for a  
205 period of time lasting 1 second per memory list item. Memory lists were 2, 4, or 6 items in length, and  
206 there were 4 list types (1-color/1-letter, 1-color/3-letter, 3-color/1-letter, and 3- color/3-letter) each with 6  
207 different memory sets, totaling 24 lists in the task.

208 During the test phase, participants were briefly shown memory-test probes. Each probe was a single  
209 character. Probes that were colored (non-white) letters are referred to as dual probes. Probes that were  
210 either a white letter or a colored hash symbol are referred to as single probes. Probes could have 0, 1,  
211 or 2 target or distractor features. There were 8 probe types (Figure 2): redundant dual targets (RT) or  
212 distractors (RD), mixed color and letter dual targets and distractors (TD and DT), single color or letter  
213 targets (ST), and single color or letter distractors (SD).

214 Note that the participants were asked to say yes if either the color or letter of the probe was in the  
215 memory set. Hence, the dual probes to which the participants should have responded no (distractors) were  
216 defined by the conjunction of the color being outside of the memory set and the letter being outside of  
217 the memory set. The probes for which both color and letter were in the memory set had redundant target  
218 information. Memory test probes representing targets in a given study-test procedure could be distractors

219 in other study-test sets (varied response mapping procedure), which was assumed to generate proactive  
220 interference.

221 *2.1.5 Dependent measures* Consistent with previous research, choice accuracy, mRT, and LBA model  
222 drift-rate estimates, which incorporates both accuracy and RT information, were used to investigate  
223 redundancy effects on test-phase performance by contrasting RT and RD with ST and SD, respectively.  
224 Performance estimates were aggregated across Factor 1, study set size, because memory probe  
225 redundancies were manipulated during the test phase (Factor 2). As in Figure 2, performance estimates  
226 also were aggregated across the mixed TD and DT, as well as single target (ST) and single distractor  
227 (SD) test probe types, because the task was designed so that (a) color and letter elements had equal a  
228 priori stimulus presentation probabilities across the 24 study lists and 8 test probe types, and (b) target-  
229 distractor discriminability was held constant for the different color and letter elements of study lists and  
230 test probes.

## 2.2 DATA ANALYSES

231 Separate 2x2 repeated measures ANOVAs were used to examine the within-subjects effects of redundant  
232 information on RMP task performance measures as a function of between-subjects differences in WMC  
233 on dual span tasks. Based on previous research, the within-subjects factor in repeated measures analyses  
234 reflected planned comparisons for redundancy gain (RT vs. ST conditions), loss (RD vs. SD), and mixed  
235 (TD vs. ST) effects. Planned comparisons were conducted separately for gain, loss and mixed effects.  
236 Based on subject recruitment, the dichotomized (median split) WMC factor score variable was used  
237 as the between-subjects factor in all repeated measures analyses. Analyses were conducted separately  
238 for choice accuracy (percent correct), mRT (on correct trials), and accuracy adjusted LBA drift-rate  
239 performance measures. Within-subjects and between-subjects effect sizes were examined with partial  
240 eta-square estimates.

## 3 RESULTS

### 3.1 DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS

241 The low ( $n = 85$ ) and high ( $n = 85$ ) WMC groups did not differ in gender composition ( $\chi^2 = 2.16, p >$   
242  $.05$ ) or average age ( $t_{168} = 1.06, p > .05$ ). However, groups did differ in average IQ ( $t_{167} = -3.66, p <$   
243  $.001$ ) and years of education ( $t_{168} = -3.66, p < .001$ ).

### 3.2 INDIVIDUAL LBA MODEL FITS

244 Model fit was examined by using subject's LBA model parameters to simulate accuracy and RT data,  
245 and then comparing these simulations to subject's actual accuracy and RT data. For example, Figure 4  
246 shows one subject's LBA model simulated defective cumulative density functions (CDF) plotted against  
247 that subject's actual defective CDFs. In Figure 2, LBA model simulated CDFs for correct and incorrect  
248 responses in RT, TD, ST, RD, and SD test-probe conditions showed consistent overlap with actual CDFs  
249 collected in these respective conditions.

### 3.3 EFFECTS OF WMC ON LBA MODEL NON-DECISION TIME, STARTING POINT, AND THRESHOLD

250 No WMC group differences were found for LBA model parameters  $t_0$  ( $t_{168} = .67, p > .05$ ),  $A$  ( $t_{168} =$   
251  $-.16, p > .05$ ), or  $b$  ( $t_{168} = -1.36, p > .05$ ). For the High EMW capacity group, mean non-decision time,  
252 starting point, and threshold were  $73.01 \pm 65.4$ ,  $7.30 \pm 1.28$  and  $8.66 \pm 0.22$  respectively. For the low EMW  
253 capacity group, mean non-decision time, starting point, and threshold were  $67.12 \pm 48.38$ ,  $7.33 \pm 1.28$ , and

254  $8.65 \pm 0.23$  respectively. These results suggest working memory individual differences are not involved  
255 in RMP task decision-making processes related to early perceptual coding and later response execution  
256 latencies, nor setting preferences for response types or sufficient evidence for responding.

### 3.4 EFFECTS OF REDUNDANT TARGET INFORMATION AND WMC ON RMP TASK PERFORMANCE

257 **3.4.1 Accuracy** Figure 5, Panel A, hit rates were facilitated by redundant-target information. These  
258 effects did not depend on WMC differences, even though those with high WMC were generally better  
259 at recognizing targets than those with low WMC. Within subjects tests showed target PC was higher  
260 for redundant color and letter targets, relative to single color targets or single letter targets ( $RT > ST$ ,  
261  $F_{168} = 7.14, p < .01$ , partial  $\eta^2 = .04$ ). Between subjects tests showed those classified as high WMC  
262 had higher overall target PC than those classified as low WMC ( $F_{168} = 6.67, p < .01, \eta^2 = .04$ ). No  
263 interaction between redundant targets and WMC differences was found for target PC ( $F_{168} = .38, p >$   
264  $.05, \eta^2 < .01$ ).

265 **3.4.2 Correct trials mRT** Figure 5, Panel B, shows mRT on for hits were facilitated by redundant  
266 target information, and these effects did not depend on WMC differences. Although those with high  
267 WMC tended to be faster at recognizing targets than those with low WMC, these differences did not reach  
268 statistical significance.

269 Within subjects tests showed mRT was shorter for redundant color and letter targets, relative to single  
270 color targets or single letter targets ( $RT < ST, F_{168} = 116.65, p < .001$ , partial  $\eta^2 = .41$ ). Between  
271 subjects tests showed those classified as high WMC did not differ in mRT from those classified as low  
272 WMC in overall mRT for targets ( $F_{168} = 2.46, p > .05$ , partial  $\eta^2 = .01$ ). No interaction between  
273 redundant targets and WMC differences was found for mRT ( $F_{168} = .99, p > .05$ , partial  $\eta^2 = .01$ ).

274 **3.4.3 LBA drift-rates** Figure 6 shows accuracy adjusted drift-rates ( $V$ ) were facilitated by redundant-  
275 target information; and, these effects did not depend on WMC differences, even though those with high  
276 WMC were generally more efficient in target recognition than those with low WMC. Within subjects  
277 tests showed  $V$  was larger for redundant color and letter targets, relative to single color targets or single  
278 letter targets ( $V_{RT} > V_{ST}, F_{168} = 25.03, p < .001$ , partial  $\eta^2 = .13$ ). Between subjects tests showed  
279 those classified as high WMC had larger overall  $V$  for targets than those classified as low WMC ( $F_{168} =$   
280  $5.41, p < .05$ , partial  $\eta^2 = .03$ ). No interaction between redundant targets and WMC differences was  
281 found for  $V$  ( $F_{168} = .36, p > .05$ , partial  $\eta^2 < .019$ ).

### 3.5 EFFECTS OF REDUNDANT DISTRACTOR INFORMATION AND WMC ON RMP TASK PERFORMANCE

282 **3.5.1 Accuracy** Figure 5, Panel A, shows redundant-distractor information had an inhibitory effect on  
283 correct rejection rates, but these effects did not reach statistical significance. However, those with high  
284 WMC were generally better at recognizing distractors than those with low WMC. Within subjects tests  
285 showed PC for redundant color and letter distractors was not significantly different from PC for single  
286 color distractors or single letter distractors ( $RT = ST, F_{168} = 3.27, p > .05$ , partial  $\eta^2 = .02$ ). Between  
287 subjects tests showed those classified as high WMC had higher distractor PC than those classified as low  
288 WMC ( $F_{168} = 9.25, p < .01$ , partial  $\eta^2 = .05$ ). No interaction between conjunctive distractors and WMC  
289 differences was found for PC ( $F_{168} = .57, p > .05$ , partial  $\eta^2 < .01$ ).

290 **3.5.2 Correct trials mRT** Figure 5, Panel B, shows mRT on correct trials was inhibited for redundant  
291 distractors, and these effects did not depend on WMC differences. Those with high WMC were generally

292 faster at recognizing distractors than those with low WMC, but these effects did not reach statistical  
293 significance. Within subjects tests showed mRT was longer for redundant color and letter distractors,  
294 relative to single color distractors or single letter distractors ( $RD < SD$ ,  $F_{168} = 273.75$ ,  $p < .001$ , partial  
295  $\eta^2 = .62$ ). Between subjects tests showed those classified as high WMC did not differ from those classified  
296 as low WMC in distractor mRT ( $F_{168} = 3.26$ ,  $p > .05$ ,  $\eta^2 = .02$ ). No interaction between conjunctive  
297 distractors and WMC differences was found for mRT ( $F_{168} = 3.26$ ,  $p > .05$ , partial  $\eta^2 < .01$ ).

298 **3.5.3 LBA drift-rates** Figure 6 shows accuracy adjusted drift-rates ( $V$ ) reduced for redundant-distractor  
299 information. These effects did not depend on WMC differences, even though those with high WMC  
300 were generally more efficient at recognizing distractors than those with low WMC. Within subjects tests  
301 showed  $V$  was smaller for redundant color and letter distractors, relative to single color distractors or  
302 single letter distractors ( $V_{RD} < V_{SD}$ ,  $F_{168} = 9.86$ ,  $p < .01$ , partial  $\eta^2 = .06$ ). Between subjects tests  
303 showed those classified as high WMC had larger overall  $V$  for distractors than those classified as low  
304 WMC ( $F_{168} = 6.40$ ,  $p < .05$ , partial  $\eta^2 = .04$ ). No interaction between conjunctive distractors and WMC  
305 differences was found for  $V$  ( $F_{168} = .69$ ,  $p > .05$ , partial  $\eta^2 < .01$ ).

### 3.6 EFFECTS OF MIXED TARGET/DISTRACTOR INFORMATION AND WMC ON RMP TASK PERFORMANCE

306 **3.6.1 Accuracy** Figure 5, Panel A, shows mixed target-distractor information had an inhibitory effect  
307 on hit rates, and these effects did not depend on WMC differences. Those with high WMC were better at  
308 recognizing targets while ignoring distractors than those with low WMC, but these effects did not reach  
309 statistical significance. Within subjects tests showed PC was lower for mixed color and letter targets and  
310 distractors, relative to single color targets or single letter targets ( $TD < ST$ ,  $F_{168} = 76.32$ ,  $p < .001$ , partial  
311  $\eta^2 = .31$ ). Between subjects tests showed those classified as high WMC did not significantly differ from  
312 those classified as low WMC in PC for mixed color and letter targets and distractors ( $F_{168} = 3.47$ ,  $p >$   
313  $.05$ ,  $\eta^2 = .02$ ). No interaction between mixed color and letter targets and distractors and WMC differences  
314 was found for PC ( $F_{168} = .34$ ,  $p > .05$ , partial  $\eta^2 < .01$ ).

315 **3.6.2 Correct trials mRT** Figure 5, Panel B, shows mRT on correct trials was inhibited by mixed  
316 target-distractor information, and these effects did not depend on WMC differences. Those with high  
317 WMC were generally faster at recognizing targets while ignoring distractors than those with low WMC,  
318 but these effects did not reach statistical significance. Within subjects tests showed mRT was longer for  
319 mixed color and letter targets and distractors, relative to single color targets or single letter targets ( $TD >$   
320  $ST$ ,  $F_{168} = 513.49$ ,  $p < .001$ , partial  $\eta^2 = .75$ ). Between subjects tests showed those classified as high  
321 WMC did not differ from those classified as low WMC in mRT for mixed color and letter targets and  
322 distractors ( $F_{168} = 3.05$ ,  $p > .05$ ,  $\eta^2 = .02$ ). No interaction between mixed color and letter targets and  
323 distractors and WMC differences was found for mRT ( $F_{168} = 2.74$ ,  $p > .05$ ,  $\eta^2 = .02$ ).

324 **3.6.3 LBA drift-rates** Figure 6 shows accuracy adjusted drift-rates ( $V$ ) were inhibited by mixed target-  
325 distractor information. These effects did not depend on WMC differences, even though those with high  
326 WMC were generally more efficient at recognizing targets while ignoring distractors than those with low  
327 WMC. Within subjects tests showed  $V$  was smaller for mixed color and letter targets and distractors,  
328 relative to single color targets or single letter targets ( $V_{TD} < V_{ST}$ ,  $F_{168} = 175.79$ ,  $p < .001$ , partial  
329  $\eta^2 = .51$ ). Between subjects tests showed those classified as high WMC had larger  $V$  for mixed color and  
330 letter targets and distractors than those classified as low WMC ( $F_{168} = 6.38$ ,  $p < .05$ , partial  $\eta^2 = .04$ ).  
331 No interaction between mixed color and letter targets and distractors and WMC differences was found for  
332  $V$  ( $F_{168} = .37$ ,  $p > .05$ , partial  $\eta^2 < .01$ ).



## 4 DISCUSSION

333 The main findings of the present study were twofold. First, working memory visual search processes  
334 were found to be both facilitated and inhibited under a novel redundant memory probes (RMP) task  
335 using accuracy, RT, and LBA measures of “how much” (i.e., capacity) and “how fast” (i.e., efficiency)  
336 information is processed. Second, although individuals classified as having high or low WMC with  
337 traditional dual span tasks differed in accuracy, RT, and rates of evidence accumulation on the RMP task,  
338 groups did not differ in the magnitude of facilitation (redundancy gain) and inhibition (redundancy loss)  
339 effects observed under the RMP task. When taken together, these results suggest individual differences in  
340 the efficiency or speed of working memory visual-search processes may be orthogonal to, or statistically  
341 independent from, individual differences in the total capacity or amount of working memory resources.

### 4.1 REDUNDANCY EFFECTS ON WORKING MEMORY VISUAL SEARCH

342 Consistent with previous research, results showed that memory probes with redundant-target features  
343 significantly improved or facilitated the accuracy and mean RT of working memory visual search relative  
344 to memory probes with only one target feature (i.e., redundancy gains). In contrast, results showed that  
345 memory probes with redundant-distractor features significantly reduced or inhibited the accuracy and  
346 mean RT of working memory visual search relative to memory probes with only one distractor feature  
347 (i.e., redundancy gains). Similarly, inhibition effects also were found for memory probes with mixed  
348 target and distractor features relative to memory probes with one distractor feature. These results also were  
349 confirmed with an LBA model of decision-making accuracy and RT that implicitly assumed a coactive  
350 mental architecture with fixed-capacity drove the rate or efficiency in which internal evidence accumulates  
351 (drift-rates) during working memory visual search. For this model, drift-rates were (i) larger (facilitated)  
352 for redundant target probes than for single target probes, (ii) smaller (inhibited) for redundant distractor  
353 probes than for single distractor probes, and (iii) smaller (inhibited) for mixed target and distractor probes  
354 than for single target probes.

355 In the context of **Eidels et al.** (2010)’s findings, the current evidence of redundancy gains in LBA  
356 model drift-rates suggest that the RMP task facilitated participant’s workload efficiency to that of “super-  
357 capacity”, such that increases in the amount of to-be-processed target information lead to an increase in  
358 the rate at which evidence accumulated during working memory visual-search process. This interpretation  
359 of the current findings is inconsistent with the dominant conceptualization of working memory processes  
360 being limited capacity in nature (**Baddeley**, 2000). Crucially, the expectation for limited capacity would  
361 be that of inhibition or a decrease in workload efficiency, such that redundant target conditions lead to  
362 reduced accuracy, RT, and drift-rates relative to single target conditions. Therefore, the limited-capacity  
363 assumption did not hold in the present study, because evidence of “super capacity” processing was  
364 found via significant redundancy gain effects. However, the limited-capacity assumption did hold under  
365 distractor probe conditions, such that accuracy, RT, and drift-rates were impeded when contrasting (i)  
366 redundant-distractor versus single-distractor conditions, and (ii) mixed target/distractor conditions versus  
367 single-target conditions (see Figure 6).

368 One explanation for the present findings could be that the locus of working memory limited capacity is  
369 specific to short-term memory processes, and not necessarily divided-attention processes. That is, perhaps  
370 domain-specific short-term memory space is limited in capacity and can hold only a certain amount of  
371 contents, while controlled divided-attention speed is not limited in efficiency or workload capacity and can  
372 be facilitated or inhibited by the stimulus-context. Toward this end, a key limitation of the present research  
373 was that we did not take into account variability in performance as a function of variability in memory-set  
374 size (i.e., Factor 1). Specifically, RMP task memory lists varied in size from 4 to 6, and thus, it could be  
375 that facilitation and inhibition effects on workload capacity during working memory visual search depend  
376 on memory list or set size. Future work with the RMP task should attempt to disentangle the interactive  
377 effects of memory set size (short-term memory) and memory probe redundancy (divided-attention search).

378 Another possible explanation for the present finding of “super capacity” processing under redundant-  
379 target conditions is that these effects were simply an artifact of implicitly selecting a fixed-capacity  
380 coactive process as a baseline for our LBA model. Perhaps fitting an LBA model that assumed a more  
381 conservative UCIP baseline would not yield evidence of facilitation. Therefore, the present findings are  
382 limited by questions concerning LBA model specification, and the exact configuration of mental processes  
383 driving performance in the RMP task. Future work with the RMP task might attempt to identify the best  
384 fitting baseline model at the individual subjects level, and/or use the standard UCIP model to determine  
385 the extent to which model derived differences in workload capacity (i.e., super, unlimited, or limited  
386 capacity classifications) correspond with differences in working memory capacity on dual span tasks.

## 4.2 WORKING MEMORY CAPACITY EFFECTS ON WORKING MEMORY VISUAL SEARCH

387 Consistent with previous research, results showed that individuals classified as high WMC on traditional  
388 dual span tasks had generally more accurate and faster RMP task performance than those classified as  
389 low WMC. These results also were confirmed with the LBA model of performance that indicated higher  
390 WMC was associated with higher drift-rates. Evidence of a link between WMC and RMP task drift-rates  
391 is consistent with previous research demonstrating that WMC individual differences are predicted by  
392 drift-rates obtained under other simple reaction time tasks (Schmiedek et al., 2007). Our findings also  
393 could be interpreted to suggest that capacity and efficiency measurements of working memory processing  
394 could stem from the same underlying source of individual differences, such that greater working memory  
395 “capacity” or processing “space” is associated with greater working memory “efficiency” or processing  
396 “speed”.

397 However, our results also suggest an important caveat in that redundancy gain and loss effects were not  
398 dependent on WMC. Specifically, both high and low WMC individuals showed comparable redundancy  
399 gains (facilitation) and losses (inhibition) effects in the RMP task. In fact, low and high WMC groups  
400 showed comparable evidence of “super-capacity” processing for redundant targets and “limited capacity”  
401 processing for mixed and redundant-distractors. This could be interpreted to mean that the efficiency with  
402 which individuals integrate information in working memory (i.e., workload capacity) may not depend  
403 on individual differences in working memory capacity or space limitations. However, it is important to  
404 point out that our sample recruitment and extreme groups approach may limit the generalizability of the  
405 present findings. Mainly, the use of a dichotomized WMC variable and categorical analysis (i.e., repeated  
406 measures) method limited the statistical power of the current results. Perhaps other dimensional or  
407 factor analytic methods might reveal an interaction between WMC individual differences and redundancy  
408 effects. However, it is suspected that any potential interaction effects revealed by dimensional or factor  
409 analytic approaches would be weak at best, given that the current analyses did not reveal statistical trends  
410 in favor of rejecting the null hypothesis of an interaction between WMC differences and redundancy  
411 effects.

412 Finally, limitations in analytic approach notwithstanding, the results of the current study have broader  
413 implications for clinical research, because working memory impairments are known to characterize  
414 individuals with a history of substance use and antisocial behavior (Endres et al., 2011, 2014; Finn  
415 et al., 2009). Current results using the extreme group approach revealed that individuals with low WMC  
416 showed poorer RMP task performance than those with high WMC. Indeed, these effects could be largely  
417 due to clinical problems, given that individuals with low WMC also tend to have a greater history of  
418 chronic, severe, and co-occurring substance abuse and antisocial behavior than those with high WMC. In  
419 this regard, another study limitation was that participants were recruited based on individual differences  
420 in clinical history, but such individual differences were not included as covariates in repeated measures  
421 analyses. Perhaps redundancy gain and loss effects are more or less apparent in those with a history of  
422 substance use and antisocial behavior. This has important clinical implications because, to the extent  
423 that the RMP task could be used to disentangle the interaction between working memory subsystems, it  
424 would be interesting to know whether the source of working memory impairments stems from deficits  
425 in divided attention, short-term memory, or both. To our knowledge, research has yet to identify the

426 exact psychological processes and mechanisms driving working memory impairments in substance use  
427 and antisocial behavior. It is also unclear whether individuals with such conditions are more or less  
428 sensitive to redundancy information in working memory tasks. Such knowledge and specificity could  
429 provide valuable information to emerging treatment models for substance use and antisocial behavior  
430 problems that utilize working memory training or remediation as a means to improve self-regulation and  
431 impulse control. Future research with the RMP task should examine the effects of individual differences  
432 in externalizing disorders on performance, and attempt to uncover the latent psychological mechanisms  
433 driving the known working memory impairments associated with this condition.

### 4.3 LINEAR BALLISTIC ACCUMULATOR MODEL OF THE REDUNDANT MEMORY PROBES TASK

434 Lastly, results from the current study added to the growing body of research applying quantitative  
435 modeling approaches to the study of individual differences (Endres et al., 2011, 2014; Neufeld et al.,  
436 2002; Yechiam et al., 2005; Johnson et al., 2010). Here, evidence showed that measures of performance  
437 accuracy and RT were not always sensitive to differences in RMP task condition and dual span task related  
438 WMC. Specifically, for the 3 possible RMP task effects: RT vs. ST, RD vs. SD, and TD vs. ST, the  
439 accuracy (percent correct) measure detected 2 of 3, the RT (mean) measure detected 2 of 3, and the LBA  
440 drift-rates (accuracy adjusted) measure detected 3 of 3. For the 3 group effects that were possible for  
441 each RMP task effect, the accuracy (percent correct) measure detected 2 of 3, the RT (mean) measure  
442 detected 0 of 3, and the LBA drift-rates (accuracy adjusted) measure detected 3 of 3. There were no  
443 significant interaction effects between task and group for any of the 3 contrasts. These comparisons could  
444 be interpreted to mean that LBA model drift-rates were more psychometrically reliable than accuracy  
445 and RT measures, showing the greatest sensitivity to task and group main effects, while being equally  
446 selective at ruling out task by group interactions. However, it is important to note that a key limitation with  
447 the current LBA model was its specification. Specifically, we implicitly assumed that a fixed-capacity,  
448 coactive mental architecture drove visual search processes for all subjects, rather than taking steps to  
449 identify exactly which mental architecture was driving visual-search processes in the RMP task. Future  
450 quantitative modeling work should investigate this issue of model specification and identify whether RMP  
451 visual search is best represented by a coactive, parallel or serial mental architecture.

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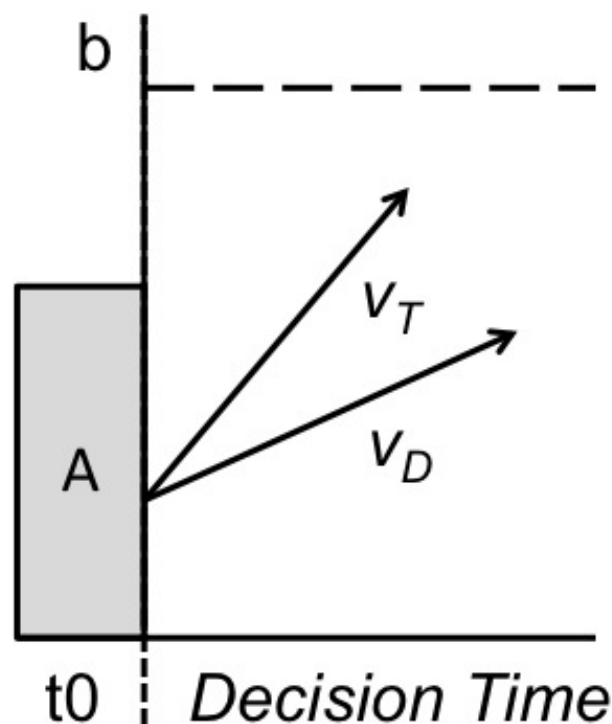
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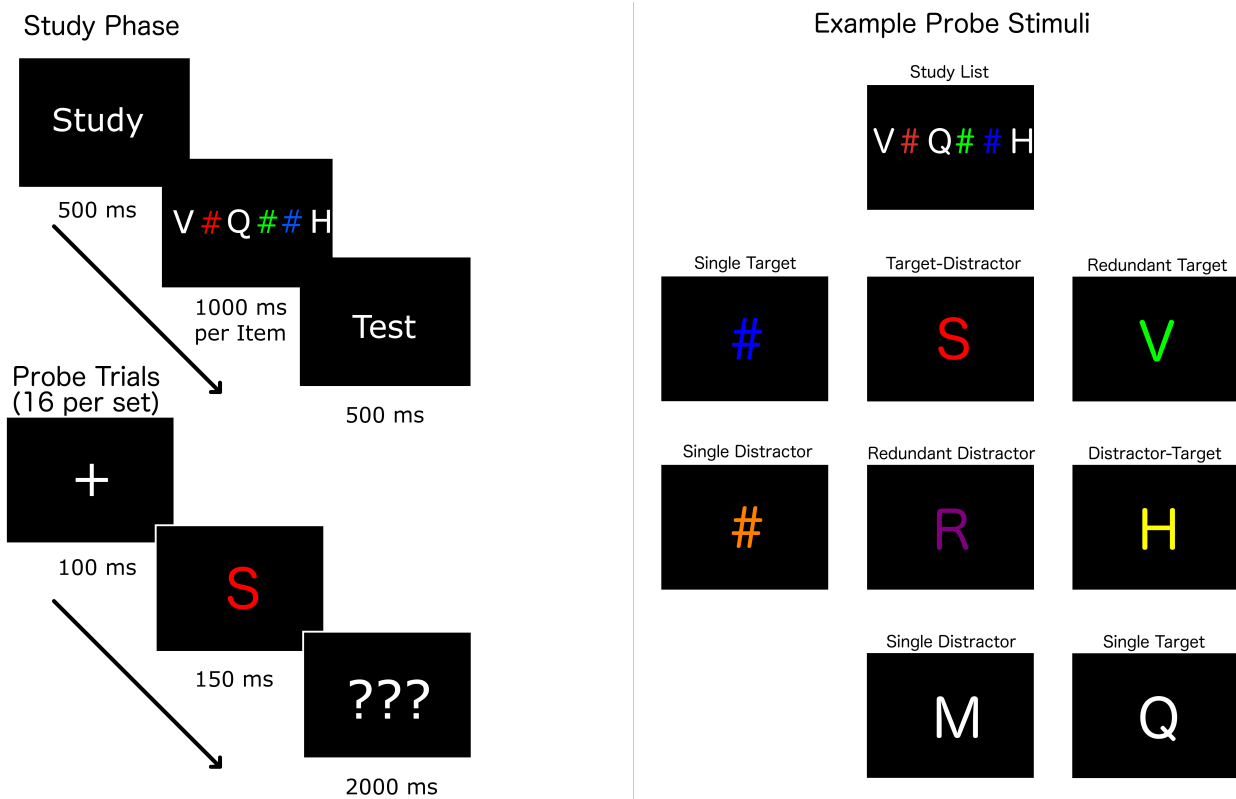
## FIGURES



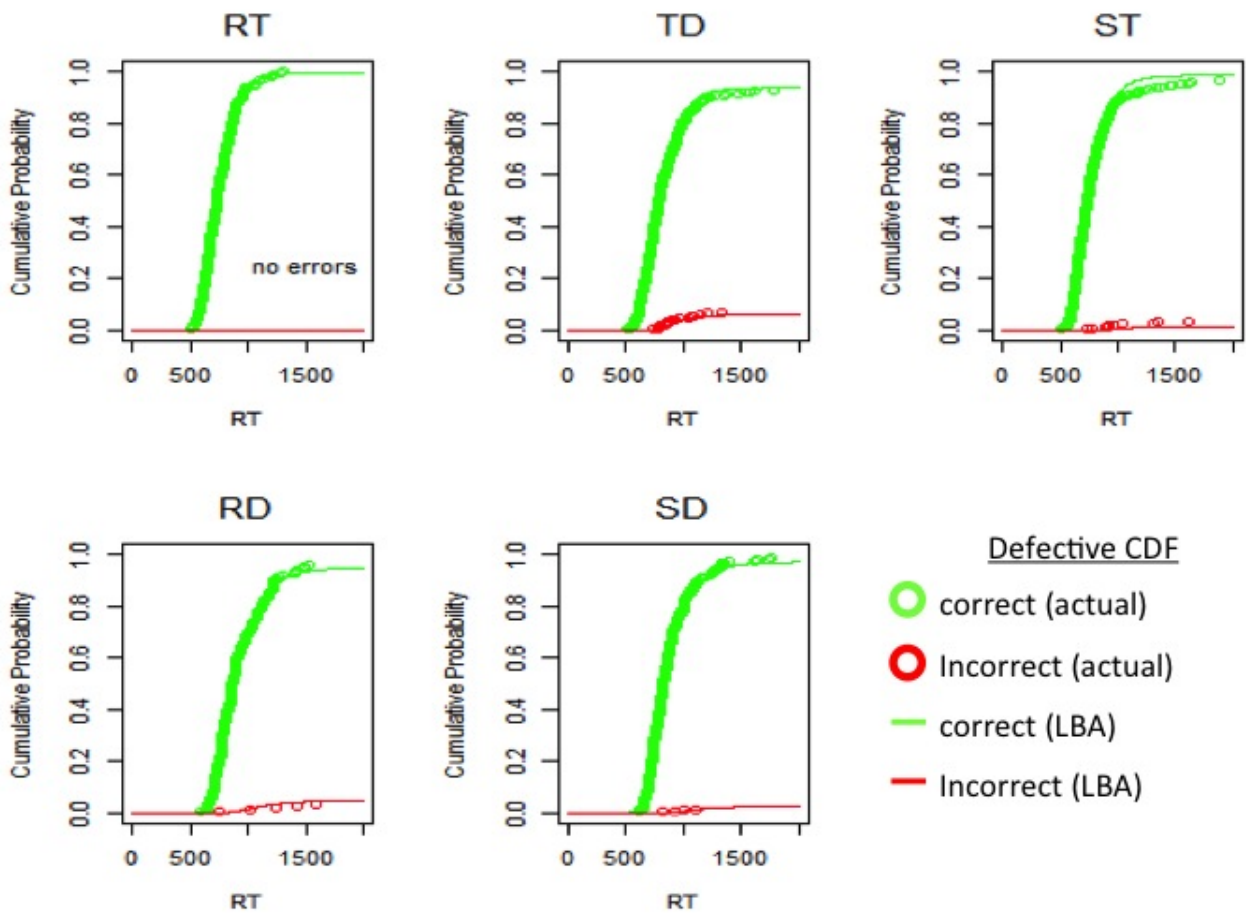
**Figure 1.** Linear ballistic accumulator (LBA) model of working memory search and decision-making process assuming an underlying coactive mental architecture. On any given trial, this LBA unit governs the time taken to execute a target (T) or distractor (D) response in the presence of some memory probe stimulus. Working memory search and decision-making process begins and ends with some non-decision time ( $t_0$ ) related to sensory input and motor response output. A decision is determined by the rate at which evidence accumulates for target ( $V_T$ ) and distractor ( $V_D$ ), with drift-rates initiating from some starting point (A) and racing one another towards some threshold for sufficient evidence (b). Whichever drift-rate crosses threshold first governs the response. Evidence accumulates according to a standard normal distribution with mean 0 and unit variance.

<i>Color</i>	Target	ST	TD	RT
	Distractor	SD	RD	DT
	Empty	∅	SD	ST
		Empty	Distractor	Target
			<i>Letter</i>	

**Figure 2.** Double-factorial redundant memory probes task factor 2 manipulation of target and distractor memory probe redundancy. Memory probe stimuli vary in the amount of to-be-remembered (target) or to-be-ignored (distractor) color and letter features. RT=redundant target; TD=target & distractor; DT=distractor & target; RD=redundant distractor; ST=single target; SD=single distractor. For simplicity, TD and DT were combined to form a single two-dimensional target/distractor condition, and one-dimensional color and letter stimuli were combined to form separate SD and ST conditions.

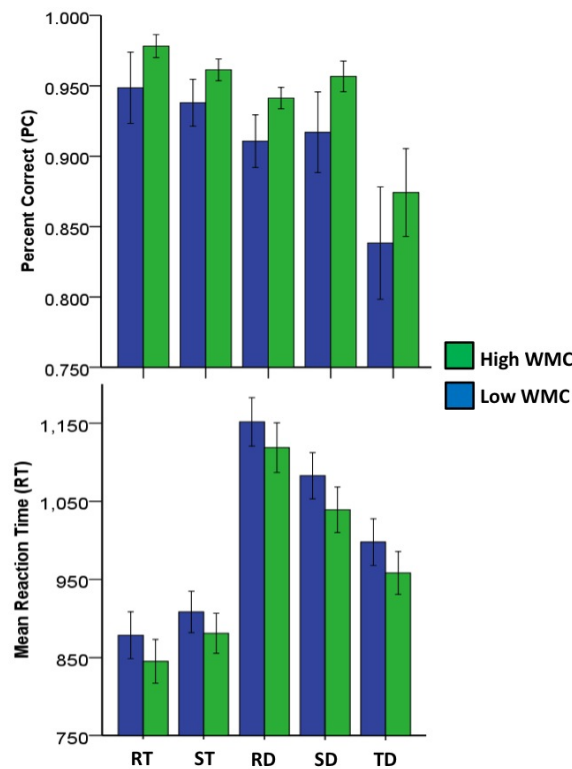


**Figure 3.** Redundant memory probe (RMP) task example of a block with a 6 item (3 color and 3 letter) memory list and potential memory probes. The left side indicates the task flow within a block: The participants are first exposed to a study list for 1000 ms per item in the list then the test phase begins. The test phase consists of 16 trials where the probe on each trial is one of the types indicated on the right side. Redundant target probes are letters from the study list with one of the study list colors. Target-distractor trials contain a color from the study list but a letter that was not on the list. Distractor-target trials contain a letter from the study list but a color that was not on the list. Redundant distractor trials have a letter and a color that were both not on the study list. Single color targets were a hash mark with a color from the list. Single letter targets were a letter from the list in white. Single color distractors were colored hash marks with colors that were not on the list. Single letter letter distractors trials were white letters that were not on the list.

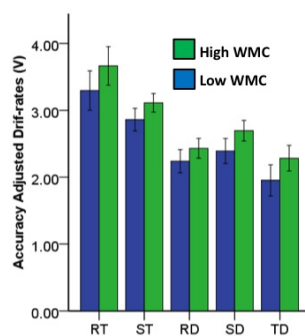


**Figure 4.** Example subject’s defective cumulative density functions illustrating the probability of observing correct (green font) and incorrect (red font) responses on or before some time (T). Subject’s actual (open circles) data LBA simulated (lines) data plotted against each other for redundant target (RT), mixed target/distractor (TD), redundant distractor (RD), single target (ST), and single distractor (SD) conditions.





**Figure 5.** Bar graphs with 95% confidence intervals for mean accuracy (Upper Panel) and response time (Lower Panel) by redundancy condition and working memory capacity (WMC) groupings. RT=redundant target; TD=target & distractor; DT=distractor & target; RD=redundant distractor; ST=single target; SD=single distractor.



**Figure 6.** Bar graphs with 95% confidence intervals for mean LBA model accuracy adjusted drift-rates by redundancy condition and working memory capacity (WMC) groupings. RT=redundant target; TD=target & distractor; DT=distractor & target; RD=redundant distractor; ST=single target; SD=single distractor.