

## **UC Merced**

# **Proceedings of the Annual Meeting of the Cognitive Science Society**

### **Title**

Alternation as a Relational Category

### **Permalink**

<https://escholarship.org/uc/item/50d0v7cf>

### **Journal**

Proceedings of the Annual Meeting of the Cognitive Science Society, 45(45)

### **Authors**

Glass, Josh C  
Longo, Alexis S  
Kurtz, Kenneth

### **Publication Date**

2023

Peer reviewed

# Alternation as a Relational Category

Joshua Glass (jglass4@binghamton.edu)

Alexus Longo (alongo8@binghamton.edu)

Kenneth Kurtz (kkurtz@binghamton.edu)

Department of Psychology, Binghamton University  
Binghamton, NY 13905 USA

## Abstract

Key questions in the study of categorization are how individuals form categories from experience and extend that knowledge to assess membership of novel examples. Popular accounts predict generalization to be based on either similarity to reference points or the application of rules or bounds. However, recent data show that some categorization behavior defies the predictions of leading accounts. Expanding on these findings, in the present study participants learned a one or two dimensional alternating category structure and were then tested on near and far transfer tasks. Findings reveal that individuals can extend a learned alternating category structure across multidimensional spaces and increasingly distant generalization regions. Additionally, subjects readily invoke alternation during the far transfer task (a task which does not involve classification), providing critical evidence that learning of the alternating category structure was driven by relational rather than feature-based similarity.

**Keywords:** Categorization; Classification Learning; Relational Categories; Generalization of Learning

## Introduction

The way in which individuals determine the category membership of new items is a question of persistent and profound interest in the field of categorization. Individuals may decide by comparing new items to previously stored category members (e.g., Nosofsky, 1984), to a representation of the average category member (drawing on prototype theory, e.g., Rosch & Mervis, 1975), or by employing a rule that explicitly separates items into different categories. However, there is recent evidence that not all generalization behavior can be comprehensively captured by currently held theories of categorization.

Kurtz and Wetzel (2021) trained participants on a one-dimensional alternating category structure (e.g., A B A B) and found that a majority of participants generalized new test items according to the overarching alternating pattern during an unsupervised test phase and only a minority of participants generalized based on distance in similarity space. Specifically, the untrained region most proximal to the training region represented a critical test: items in this region are close in feature space to the B items at the extreme of the alternated training set, but they would be considered A items if extrapolating the alternation pattern into the untrained region. In a second experiment testing an alternating structure based on one diagnostic dimension embedded in a two-dimensional domain, the researchers found a decrease in the proportion of participants that generalized the alternation, but still a notable level and clearly more than would be expected from chance.

These findings indicate that some generalization strategies are not captured by proximity (i.e., adjacency in similarity space) based descriptions of generalization.

A potential non-proximity, or similarity, based description may lie in the relational category literature. Members of relational categories do not necessarily exhibit feature-based similarity, but are instead unified by fulfilling the same core relationship – having relational similarity (Gentner, 1983; Gentner & Kurtz, 2005; Gentner & Markman, 1995). Since relational category members need not share feature-based similarity, a relational account is proposed as a contending explanation of the generalization behavior observed in Kurtz and Wetzel (2021). This is intriguing and novel territory in that that a relational category does not take individual items in the categorization domain as examples; instead the totality of the categorization domain represents a singular example of the relational category of alternating systems (that includes checkerboards, striped patterns, the day/night cycle, opportunities for competitors to score points in games, etc.).

The present investigation seeks to expand on the findings of Kurtz and Wetzel (2021) by replicating the single dimension findings and expanding on the two-dimensional findings with a modified two-dimensional structure in which both dimensions are category-relevant. We created a two dimensional category structure with a partially diagnostic non-alternating dimension, and a fully diagnostic alternating dimension. This was intended to evaluate whether subjects remain sensitive to the alternating dimension when given a non-alternating dimension that can inform category membership. This category structure also allowed us to evaluate whether the alternating structure would be generalized to regions which would not explicitly be continuations of the alternating pattern of the training items. Further, in order to test the potential applicability of relational categories, a transfer task was administered to evaluate the proportion of alternating responses in an unsupervised environment with stimuli visually entirely distinct from that used in training and near transfer. Given the importance of relational similarity in the accurate application of analogies during far (superficially distinct) transfer tasks (Gentner & Kurtz, 2005; Gentner & Markman, 1995), evidence of successful far transfer from individuals who learned the alternating category structure would suggest that alternation-based generalization behavior may be best understood in terms of activation and application of a relational category.

## Method

### Subjects

160 undergraduates at SUNY Binghamton participated in the experiment for partial fulfillment of a participation requirement for a psychology course.

### Stimuli

There were two types of tasks used in the experiment: classification tasks (the training phase and near transfer phase were classification tasks) and non-classification tasks (the far transfer phase was a non-classification task). The stimuli for the far transfer (non-classification) task consisted of eight marbles differing only in color (four red and four blue), which were displayed in a random initial configuration prior to being arranged by the participant.

There were two sets of stimuli for the categorization task corresponding to two between-subjects conditions. One stimuli set varied along a single dimension (1D condition), while the other stimuli set varied along two dimensions (2D condition). The one dimensional stimuli consisted of a gray circle with a red line anchored to the center of the circle and protruding outward at a certain angle (Figure 1). The angle of this red line in relation to the circle was the dimension that was varied. These 1D stimuli followed an alternating category structure, such that as the values along the variable dimension increased, the category labels corresponding to those feature values alternated



Figure 1: Sample Stimulus.

systematically. Training stimuli ranged from a line angle of 20 degrees to 179.5 degrees. Within this range, category exemplars were clustered in groups of three. Within a given cluster, items were all of the same category and were buffered by 5 degrees of angle difference. Between two consecutive clusters, there was an angle difference of 51.5 degrees. The alternation of category labels happen at the level of the cluster (all items within a cluster were of the same category, while all items of the immediately preceding cluster were of the contrasting category). The line angle of the near-transfer test items ranged from 226 degrees to 334 degrees distributed in a pattern in keeping with that of the training items (see Figure 2).

The two-dimensional stimuli were of the same type as shown in Figure 1; however, these stimuli varied both in terms of line angle and in terms of circle diameter. These stimuli alternated with respect to category labels along the angle dimension (similar to the 1D stimuli), and were partially distinguishable based on the diameter – if

classification judgments were made based only on diameter, then accuracy would be 50% (see Figure 3).

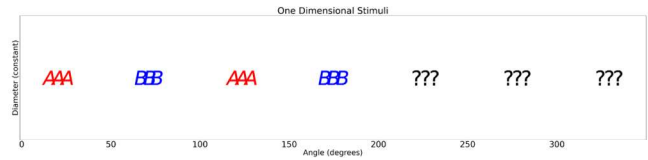


Figure 2: Representation of the single dimension category space. Stimuli had consistent diameter but varied in line angle. “A” and “B” indicate training items that are “Alpha” or “Beta,” respectively. Each “?” refers to a stimulus item shown during the test phase. The leftmost group of “?” indicates testing region 1.

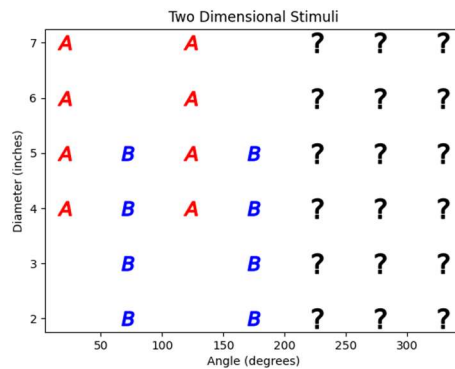


Figure 3: Representation of the two dimension category space. Stimuli varied in diameter and line angle. “A” and “B” indicate training items that are “Alpha” or “Beta” respectively. Each “?” refers to a stimulus item shown during the test phase. The leftmost column of “?” indicates testing region 1.

### Procedure

Participants were randomly assigned to one of three groups: The single dimension condition (1D,  $n = 54$ ), two dimension condition (2D,  $n = 55$ ), or control ( $n = 51$ ). Control participants only experienced the far transfer task.

**Training Phase.** Participants were told they would be trained to evaluate “instrument readouts.” Stimuli were displayed individually on each trial. Participants were instructed to indicate category membership by selecting the “Alpha” or “Beta” button. Corrective feedback was provided after each response. During a training block each stimulus was evaluated once, in random order, for a maximum of ten blocks. Participants progressed to the near transfer component of the testing phase after correctly evaluating twelve consecutive training stimuli.

**Near Transfer Phase.** In random order, a single training or test stimulus was shown, and participants indicated category membership by selecting the “Alpha” or “Beta” button. Each item was evaluated once and no feedback was provided.

Upon completion, participants continued on to the far transfer phase. Only individuals that scored 90% or higher on the training items during this test phase were included in the analyses; this learning criterion is the same as that implemented by Kurtz and Wetzel (2021).

Amount of alternation extension was operationalized via *testing regions*. The right half of each categorization space comprises the entire testing region for each structure (see Figures 2, and 3 for a general visualization, and Figures 4, and 5 for a visualization including test data). Each third of the entire testing space is its own *test region*, with the region closest to the training stimuli designated the *first testing region*, or *region 1* (testing regions explicitly indicated in Figures 4 and 5).

**Far Transfer Phase.** We note again that this component was the entire experiment for Control group participants. Experimental participants were informed that they were moving on to the next part of the experiment. This was somewhat ambiguous since the participants were completing multiple separate studies within a one-hour experimental session; therefore it could have been viewed on one extreme as an extension of the learning task with the instrument panels or on the other extreme as entirely unrelated. Participants were shown eight marbles (four red and four blue) in a random arrangement. Horizontally, along the bottom of the screen, there were eight empty boxes. Participants were given the following instructions “These marbles are currently in random positions. Please arrange them along a line into an ordering of your choice. Press the finished button when you are done.” Participants received no feedback. A successful alternation outcome on the far transfer test was operationalized as comprehensively and consistently alternating across the sequence of marbles either by 1’s (rbrbrbrb), by 2’s (rbbrrbb), or by flanking (rbbbbbrr). A successful alternation was awarded a score of “1” while any other arrangement was assigned a value of “0.”

## Results

28 subjects were removed from the one dimension (1D) condition and 33 subjects were removed from the two-dimension (2D) condition for failure to meet learning criteria during training. All analyses were performed on participants that met learning criteria during training (1D: n = 26; 2D: n = 22). There were 55 subjects in the control condition (only exposed to the far transfer task).

Participants were considered proximity classifiers if 100% of items in the first testing region (*Region 1*) extended the value of the adjacent training region. Participants were considered to have extended the alternation pattern into the testing region *once* if 100% of items in the testing region closest to the training region (*Region 1*) extended the alternation pattern (Alpha, Beta, Alpha, etc.). Participants were considered to have extended the alternation pattern throughout the *entire* testing region if 100% of the items in each group of test stimuli properly extended the alternation pattern (i.e., throughout *Region 2* and *Region 3*). Testing

regions are indicated in Figures 4 and 5. This criterion is consistent with that of Kurtz and Wetzel (2021).

61.5% of 1D subjects and 63.6% of 2D subjects extended the alternation pattern into at least the first testing region (*Region 1* in Figures 4 and 5 for the 1D and 2D conditions respectively). 23.1% of all 1D participants, and 31.8% of all 2D participants extended the alternation pattern throughout the entire testing region (aggregate near transfer categorization decisions for each condition visualized in Figures 4 and 5).

11.5% of 1D subjects classified items in the first testing region according to the closest training region (proximity classifiers; i.e., If the training items most adjacent to the testing items are “beta” then *Region 1* was also classified as “beta” in proximity classifiers). No 2D participants were considered proximity classifiers.

In the far transfer task of arranging the marbles, 53.8% of 1D participants and 72.7% of 2D participants produced an alternation outcome. 45.1% of control participants produced an alternation outcome. A majority of successful transfer responses alternated the sequence of marbles by 1’s (rbrbrbrb; 1D: n = 14; 2D: n = 15; Control: n = 19); very few alternated by 2’s (rbbrrbb; 1D: n = 0; 2D: n = 1; Control: n = 2) or by flanking (rbbbbbrr; 1D: n = 0; 2D: n = 0; Control: n = 2). Far transfer performance was evaluated via goodness of fit tests using the proportion of successful vs. unsuccessful transfer in the control condition as expected values. There was no significant difference in proportion of successful transfer found between the 1D condition (n = 26, M = 0.54) and control (n = 51, M = 0.45;  $\chi^2(1, N = 77) = 0.822, p = .37$ ). However, there was a significant difference between the 2D condition (n = 22, M = 0.73) and control ( $\chi^2(1, N = 73) = 6.83, p < .01, w = 0.56$ ; Figure 6). Phi (w) indicates a large effect size.

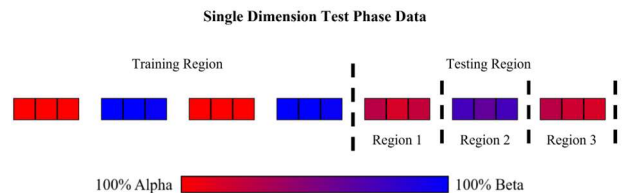


Figure 4: All 1D near transfer responses (n = 26). A single stimulus item is represented by a single square; color represents the proportion of participants that selected Alpha or Beta. The three rightmost groups indicate the three near transfer testing regions. Region 1 is the testing region most adjacent to the training region, with region 3 being the farthest away in the stimulus space.

### Two Dimension Test Phase Data

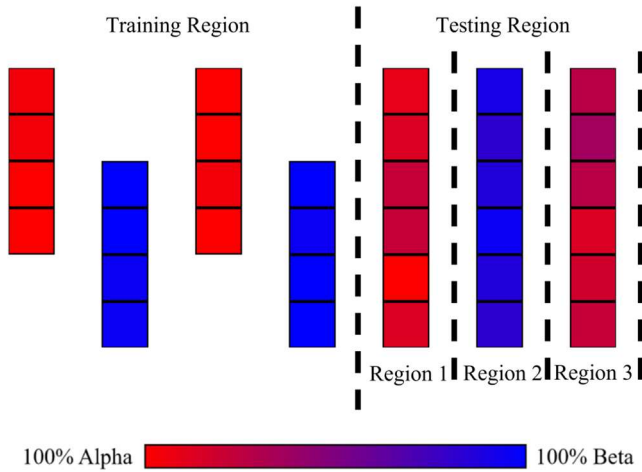


Figure 5: All 2D near transfer responses ( $n = 22$ ). A single stimulus item is represented by a single square; color represents the proportion of participants that selected Alpha or Beta. The three rightmost groups indicate the three near transfer testing regions. Region 1 is the testing region most adjacent to the training region, with region 3 being the farthest away in the stimulus space.

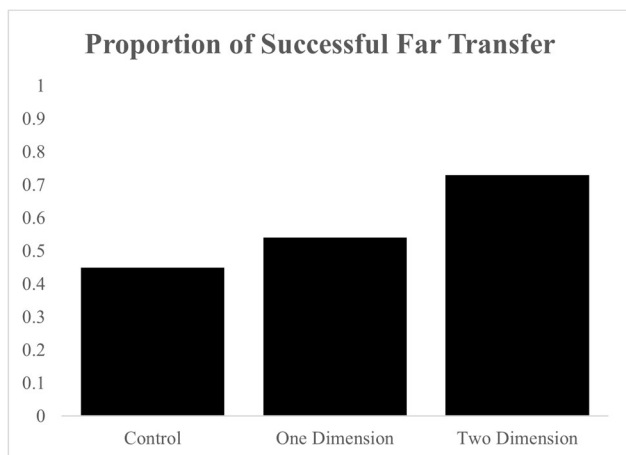


Figure 6: Proportion of alternation outcomes observed for each condition in the far transfer task. There was only a significant difference observed between the two-dimension and control conditions.

### Simulation

As a possible explanation of the learning and generalization of alternating category structures, Kurtz and Wetzel (2021) report a simple neural-network model that simulates the qualitative patterns of human performance on a 1D alternating category structure; which, may suggest that the ability to learn and generalize an alternating category structure can emerge as simple inputs progress through a connectionist system.

Employing the connectionist principle of error driven learning (Rumelhart, Hinton, & Williams, 1986) and recreating the architecture described in Kurtz and Wetzel (2021), we constructed a simple neural network model to see if such a model could simulate the current behavioral observations. The model can be described as a multilayer perceptron (MLP): its architecture consisted of an input layer, a hidden layer with a single input node, and an output layer with a single output node. At the hidden node, a sine function was used, and at the output node a linear activation function was used. Kurtz and Wetzel found that a periodic activation such as a sine function was able to simulate various forms of alternation behavior. The model had two free parameters: learning rate (0.1) and initial weight range (a range from 6.0 to 6.1). The model was trained on data that represented alternating structures incorporating either a single dimension or two dimensions; and was trained for 2000 epochs with random item presentation. The data used as input was scaled between 0 and 1, and was of the same structure types as those given to human subjects. The model was not quantitatively fit to the human behavioral data, rather the model was trained on an alternating structure to see if it could produce various human-like qualitative outcomes. Therefore, this model is not posited as a mechanistic account of the observed behavioral data; instead, the model is simply a proof-of-concept that a simple connectionist system is able to replicate similar types of behavior. In the 1D case it was found that the model produced response probabilities that would appropriately predict item labels in the case of alternation, a unidimensional rule, and a partial alternation (Figure 7). However, when the input incorporates two features (such as our 2D condition), the model poorly simulated the human capacity to learn an alternating category.

The model was able to predict item labels appropriately for the case of a unidimensional rule and partial alternation, but in the case of the full alternation the model fails. The model's hyperparameters were then adjusted in an attempt to better produce alternating behavior. It was found that when the number of hidden nodes in the model was increased to five, the model was able to perfectly output response probabilities that predict alternating item labels (Figure 8).

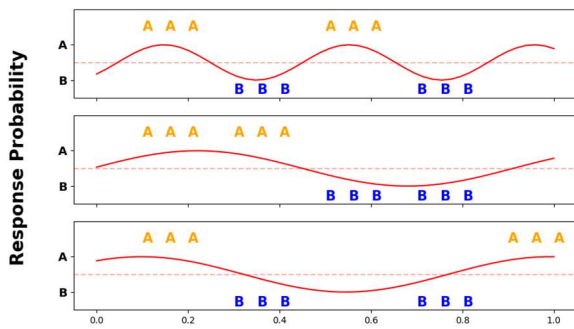


Figure 7: Given one dimensional input, an MLP using a sine function as hidden node activation is able to simulate various behaviors exhibited by humans when faced with an alternating category structure. The red line represents response probability along the single alternating dimension. The x-axis corresponds to the feature space, and the y-axis corresponds to response probability.

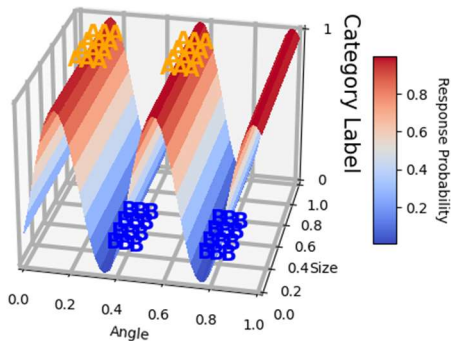


Figure 8: Given two dimensional input, an MLP using a sine function as hidden node activation successfully learns an alternating category structure. The surface in the figure represents response probability in terms of the ‘A’ category. The x-axis corresponds to the feature 1 (angle), the y-axis corresponds to feature 2 (size), and the z-axis corresponds to category label.

## Discussion

### Near Transfer

**One Dimension.** Kurtz and Wetzel (2021) found that 67.8% of their participants extended the alternation into the first testing region while 25.0% of participants extended the alternation throughout all three testing regions (one-dimensional stimuli). The present study found that a comparable proportion of 1D participants extended the alternation pattern into the first region (61.5%) and throughout all three testing regions (23.1%). However, more proximity classifiers were observed (11.5%) than previously

reported (Kurtz & Wetzel, 2021; 3.5%) on single dimension alternating stimuli.

The exact same one-dimensional structure, stimuli, feature values, and criteria from Kurtz and Wetzel (2021) were used in our 1D condition. Given the similar proportion of alternation behaviors observed between the two studies, the one-dimensional findings of Kurtz and Wetzel (2021) were successfully replicated.

**Two-Dimension.** When testing the alternating structure on two-dimensional stimuli, Kurtz and Wetzel (2021) found that 34.8% of participants extended the alternation (only one testing region used). The present study observed a higher proportion of alternation extension (63.6% of 2D participants extended alternation into at least the first region). Interestingly the two-dimensional space employed by Kurtz and Wetzel (2021) had only one diagnostic dimension; the two-dimensional space used here had one diagnostic and one partially diagnostic dimension. Despite the addition of a partially diagnostic dimension, a higher proportion of this study’s participants extended into testing region 1 than observed in Kurtz and Wetzel (2021).

Building off the single testing region findings of Kurtz and Wetzel (2021), we used three testing regions and observed that 31.8% of 2D participants extended the alternation throughout all three testing regions. No 2D participants categorized such that a majority of final training region responses matched the majority of responses in the first testing region (i.e., no proximity classifiers). This is much less than previously reported (Kurtz & Wetzel, 2021; 26.1% proximity classifiers) for two dimensional alternating stimuli.

The two dimensional category space used was arranged such that only a middle portion of the space alternated while very high diameter values were diagnostic of Alpha items and very low diameter values were diagnostic of Beta items (Figure 3). No 2D participants alternated items with middle diameter values while simultaneously maintaining the diagnostic separation of high and low diameter values.

Overall, it has been shown that a reasonable proportion of individuals will extend an alternation pattern in both a one and two dimensional category space. This generalization pattern is not explained by proximity-based theories of categorization and therefore remains a point of considerable interest.

### Far Transfer

Since generalization via an alternating pattern of category membership does not depend on proximity or feature-based similarity, a far transfer task was used to evaluate whether alternation as a relational category could explain the generalization. Given the importance of structural alignment of relational information during analogical transfer (Gentner, 1983; Gentner & Kurtz, 2005; Gentner & Markman, 1995) it was reasoned that successful transfer of the alternation pattern from the training/testing stimuli to the marbles would indicate that alternation was at least supported by relational knowledge of the structure. It was found that a much higher

proportion of individuals in the 2D experimental condition produced a successful alternation of the marbles compared to the control subjects. This supports the notion that a relational category may underlie the observed extension of alternating category membership. However, it is not clear why those in the experimental 1D condition did not produce evidence of transfer to the far transfer task (i.e., were not found to perform significantly differently from control participants). It could be the case that the 2D condition exposes subjects to the relation of alternation in a way that provides them with progressive alignment (Kotovsky & Gentner 1996). In the 1D case, subjects have seen direct evidence (in the form of training items) that the two contrast categories alternate across feature space. However, the partial diagnosticity set up in the 2D structure requires the subject to invoke alternation in portions of feature space where there is no direct evidence of alternation. In the training set, alternation only occurred along the angle dimension when the diameter size dimension was of a medium magnitude- this is what made diameter size partially diagnostic. In the test set, subjects generalized alternation not only beyond the training items, but also beyond the feature space suggested by these items; for example, subjects applied the alternating label to items that had very large or small diameters even though alternation was not observed on these types of items at training. This departure from specific training items may create progressive alignment for the relation of alternation, allowing subjects to depart even farther and apply the relation to a completely different domain and task.

### General Discussion

The current work replicates and extends the findings of Kurtz and Wetzel (2021). Exemplar theory, prototype theory, and rule based theories all fail to predict the ability to learn and generalize an alternating category structure. Kurtz and Wetzel (2021) offered two possible explanations for which the current results provide important evaluation. The first possible explanation was that this complicated pattern of categorization could emerge as simple neural-level data is propagated through a connectionist system. We replicated the simulation results of Kurtz and Wetzel (2021) for the one dimensional case, and extended this model performance to 2 dimensional inputs simply by increasing the number of hidden nodes in the model. This demonstrates that a simple connectionist model is able to learn an alternating category structure. However, how these simulation results relate to the psychological mechanism that underlie the human capacity to learn and generalize alternating category structures is ambiguous.

The second possible explanation was that subjects may accomplish the learning and generalization of an alternating category structure through relational reasoning. This would mean that rather than learning something just about the specific attributes of trained items, subjects are abstracting the relational category of alternation from the mapping between feature inputs and category labels. This explanation

is lent support by far transfer task data: in the 2D condition subjects given classification training were significantly more likely to invoke alternation during the far transfer task than were subjects in the 1D condition or subjects who did not receive classification training at all. This strongly suggests either transfer or priming of an activated relational category given that there was no similarity between the two tasks or stimuli.

### References

- Gentner, D. (1983). Structure-mapping: A theoretical framework for analogy. *Cognitive Science*, 7, 155–170. [http://dx.doi.org/10.1207/s15516709cog0702\\_3](http://dx.doi.org/10.1207/s15516709cog0702_3)
- Gentner, D., & Kurtz, K. J. (2005). Relational categories. In W. Ahn, R. L. Goldstone, B. C. Love, A. B. Markman, & P. Wolff (Eds.), *Categorization inside and outside of the lab: Festschrift in honor of Douglas L. Medin* (pp. 151–175). Washington, DC: American Psychological Association. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/11156-009>
- Gentner, D., & Markman, A. B. (1995). Similarity is like analogy: Structural alignment in comparison. In C. Cacciari (Ed.), *Similarity in language, thought, and perception* (pp. 111–147). Brussels, Belgium: BREPOLs.
- Kotovsky, L., & Gentner, D. (1996). Comparison and categorization in the development of relational similarity. *Child Development*, 67(6), 2797–2822
- Kurtz, J. K., & Wetzel, T. M. (2021). On the generalization of simple alternating category structures. *Cognitive Science*, 45. <https://doi.org/10.1111/cogs.12972>
- Nosofsky, R. M. (1984). Choice, similarity, and the context theory of classification. *Journal of Experimental Psychology: Learning, Memory, and Cognition*, 10(1), 104–114.
- Rosch, E., & Mervis, C. B. (1975). Family resemblances: Studies in the internal structure of categories. *Cognitive Psychology*, 7(4), 573–605.
- Rumelhart, D. E., Hinton, G. E., & Williams, R. J. (1986). Learning representations by back-propagating errors. *Nature*, 323(6088), 533–536.