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# Consistency of perceptual response variability in size estimation and reproduction tasks

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## ABSTRACT

Measuring perceptual uncertainty is important for understanding how perception influences post-perception behavior, while it remains unknown whether measured perceptual responses in behavioral tasks reflect true perceptual uncertainty or methodological artifacts. This study compared two size perception approaches: a visual analogue scale (VAS) estimation task and a reproduction task. We recruited 180 participants who completed both tasks by estimating circle diameters on a VAS and adjusting circle sizes to match specified diameters. Our analysis used two Bayesian multilevel models—a variance decomposition model computing intraclass correlation coefficients (ICCs) for overall response consistency, and a generative psychophysical model to characterize perceptual response patterns. Results revealed high overall response consistency across tasks, but detailed variance component analysis uncovered systematic method differences. Participant, stimulus, and interaction variances were consistently higher in the estimation task, indicating greater individual differences and more idiosyncratic responses. Psychophysical analyses further showed that the estimation task produced a steeper perceptual slope and a lower intercept compared to reproduction. Notably, while overall task-level perceptual uncertainty was nearly identical, the scaling of uncertainty with stimulus size was markedly stronger in estimation. These findings suggest that much of the observed variability reflects genuine perceptual uncertainty rather than measurement error, though distinct cognitive demands shape its expression. Our results confirm that both VAS and reproduction tasks yield consistent measures of perceptual variability, underscoring their value in behavioral research and the need for future studies to disentangle intrinsic perceptual processes from task-specific noise.

## Introduction

1 Much of human behavior is guided by perception, as we depend on the processing of sensory inputs to inform our actions. For  
2 example, when navigating through a forest, we use visual perception to identify potential threats, allowing us to avoid danger.  
3 The relationship between visual perception and behavior is a central focus in various domains of psychology and behavioral  
4 science, including categorization<sup>1-3</sup>, generalization<sup>4-6</sup>, avoidance<sup>7-9</sup>, social behavior<sup>10,11</sup>, motor behavior<sup>12,13</sup>, and decision  
5 making<sup>14,15</sup>. Understanding how perception influences behavior requires a precise measurement of perceptual patterns, as these  
6 patterns are fundamental to accurately capturing the nuances of how sensory information is processed and acted upon.

7 In measuring visual perception and subsequent behavior, the alternative forced-choice (AFC) task is one of the most  
8 widely employed techniques. In this task, participants are sequentially or simultaneously presented with a set of stimuli  
9 and are required to either identify the target stimulus (i.e., detection)<sup>16-20</sup>, determine which stimulus differs from the others  
10 (i.e., discrimination)<sup>21-24</sup>, or both<sup>19,25-27</sup>. A key advantage of the AFC task is that it minimizes response biases by requiring  
11 participants to choose between discrete options, thereby providing a clear measure to isolate specific perceptual aspects.  
12 Researchers use participant responses in these tasks to derive measures of perceptual sensitivity, which can then be analyzed in  
13 relation to the targeted behavior under investigation. However, the AFC task also has limitations. It may not capture subtle  
14 gradations in perception, can be less sensitive to small perceptual changes over time, and may not reflect naturalistic perceptual  
15 judgments in some contexts.

16 While the AFC task is widely used in visual perception research, alternative methods provide distinct advantages in other  
17 research contexts. This study highlights two such approaches: perceptual estimation using a visual analogue scale (VAS) and  
18 perceptual reproduction. The VAS method requires participants to indicate their perceptual judgment of a stimulus feature

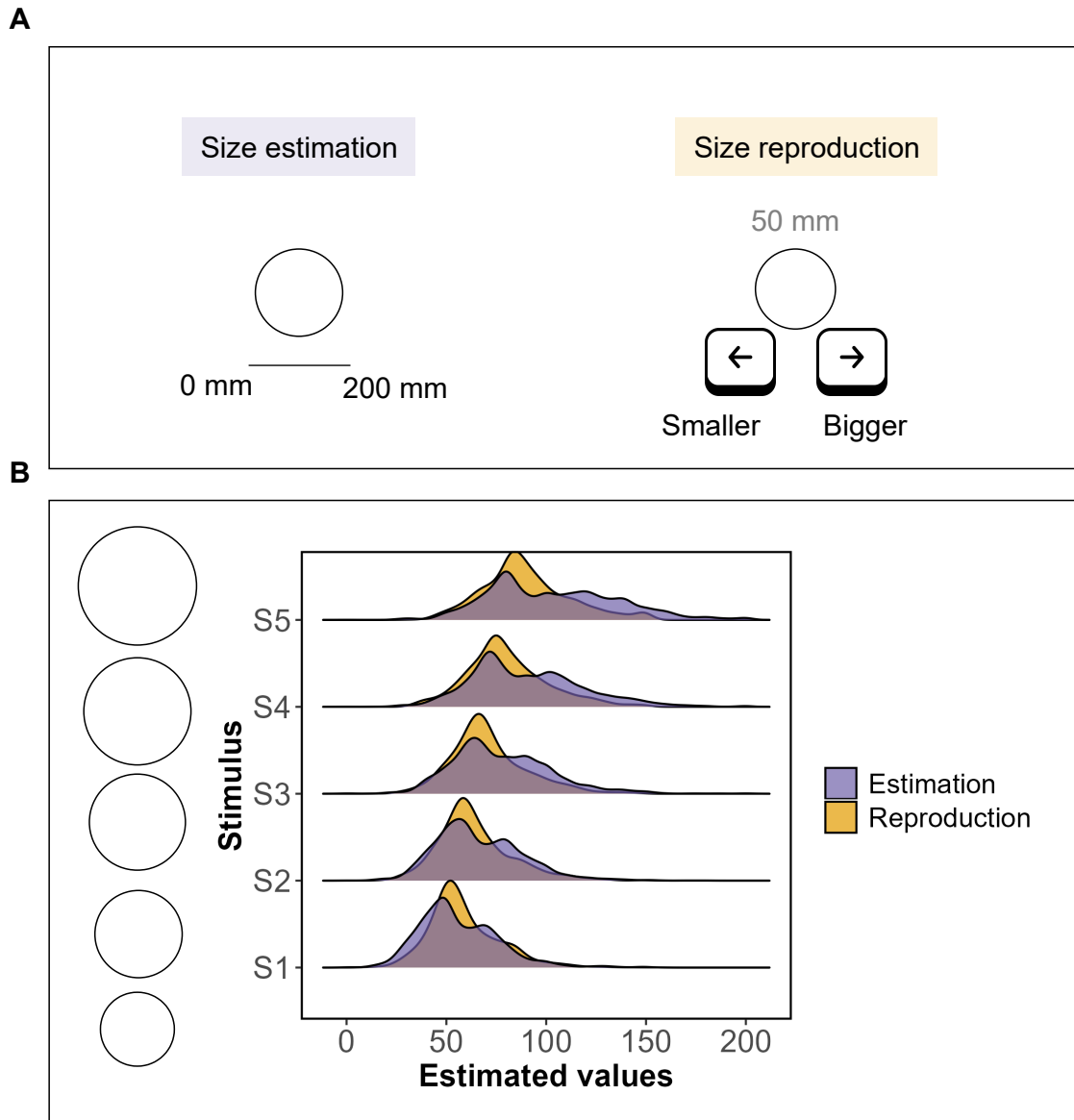
19 on a continuous scale, allowing for a nuanced measurement of perceptual judgments. This makes the VAS suited to reveal  
20 subtle perceptual shifts over time. For instance, in fear generalization studies, the VAS has been used to measure temporal  
21 subjective perceptual estimations of stimuli, such as circle diameters<sup>28,29</sup> and colors<sup>6</sup>, before assessing generalized response.  
22 Similarly, VAS has proven effective in pain research for gauging subjective intensity<sup>30,31</sup>, and in color perception studies to  
23 capture a detailed continuum of responses, such as degrees of blueness or greenness, compared to categorical judgments<sup>32</sup>.  
24 This approach enables researchers to track how perceptual changes evolve and influence subsequent behaviors.

25 Similarly, perceptual reproduction tasks have emerged as a powerful methodology for investigating perceptual information  
26 encoding, maintenance, and retrieval processes. Unlike recognition-based paradigms, these tasks require participants to  
27 actively reconstruct stimuli properties, providing continuous measurements that capture both systematic biases and precision  
28 in perceptual memory. This approach has proven particularly valuable in quantifying the fidelity of internal representations  
29 across individuals. In fear generalization research, studies employing reproduction tasks have demonstrated that variability  
30 in perceptual memory precision directly predicts the extent of fear generalization gradients, establishing a mechanistic link  
31 between memory uncertainty and defensive responding<sup>33,34</sup>. Additionally, contemporary work in working memory using  
32 perceptual reproduction tasks has revealed that memory precision functions as a parametrically tunable property, systematically  
33 modulated by multiple interacting cognitive constraints. These include set size-dependent resource allocation mechanisms,  
34 temporal parameters of encoding and maintenance, and the distribution of attentional resources across different perceptual  
35 dimensions<sup>35,36</sup>. These findings collectively illuminate how reproduction paradigms can quantify the computational architecture  
36 and constraints of perceptual memory systems, offering mechanistic insights into how representational uncertainty shapes  
37 behavior across contexts.

38 These continuous measurement approaches—VAS-based perceptual estimation and perceptual reproduction—mark a  
39 paradigm shift in how we conceptualize and study perception, moving beyond static perceptual behavior to uncover the  
40 dynamic, inferential nature of perceptual processes. Unlike traditional methods that reduce perception to discrete snapshots,  
41 these methods capture rich, continuous perceptual information. This makes them uniquely suited to reflect modern theoretical  
42 frameworks like predictive coding and Bayesian inference, which view perception as a probabilistic synthesis of incoming  
43 information and existing knowledge<sup>37–40</sup>. By providing continuous response formats, estimation and reproduction tasks enable  
44 researchers to quantify perceptual uncertainty, evaluate representational precision, and examine how predictive mechanisms  
45 adapt perception across diverse contexts.

46 Yet, to date, limited research has evaluated the reliability of both estimation and reproduction approaches to measuring  
47 visual perception. The reliance on VAS in other fields has uncovered several potential sources of measurement error, including  
48 difficulties in translating subjective experiences into precise numerical values, which may introduce unwanted variability  
49 into the data<sup>41</sup>, as well as challenges related to the physical act of making accurate markings on the scale<sup>30</sup>. Reproduction  
50 tasks are not without their own potential sources of error. These may include motor control limitations affecting the accuracy  
51 of reproductions, individual differences in spatial abilities, and biases introduced by the specific reproduction method (e.g.,  
52 adjusting line length vs. drawing a shape). Additionally, anchoring effects, where individuals overly rely on an initial reference  
53 point or context when making judgments, can systematically skew reproduction responses<sup>42,43</sup>.

54 Consequently, the variability observed in data from both estimation and reproduction tasks may not reflect true perceptual  
55 differences but could instead be an artifact of inconsistencies in how participants engage with these measurement tools.  
56 This, in turn, could lead to misleading conclusions regarding the nature and extent of perceptual variability. For instance,  
57 an overestimation of variability might suggest greater individual differences in visual perception than actually exist, while  
58 underestimation could obscure real differences. Moreover, the sources of error may differ between the two methods, potentially  
59 leading to systematic differences in results that are not reflective of underlying perceptual processes but rather of the measurement  
60 methods themselves.



**Figure 1.** The size estimation and reproduction tasks and the observed perceptual response patterns.

61 This study takes an initial step toward evaluating the reliability of two methods for measuring visual perceptual variability:  
 62 the VAS-based estimation and the reproduction tasks, with a focus on circle size perception. Circle size perception is a widely  
 63 studied dimension in research exploring how perception influences generalization behavior<sup>4,5,28,29,44-47</sup>. We recruited 180  
 64 participants to complete two distinct perceptual tasks. In the size estimation task, participants viewed circles of varying sizes  
 65 and estimated their diameters using a VAS, a continuous response scale. In the size reproduction task, participants were given  
 66 specific diameter values and adjusted a circle to match, relying on mental representation and motor skills. Notably, these tasks  
 67 differ in their response modalities—direct estimation versus active reproduction—which may introduce distinct measurement  
 68 errors.

69 Our analysis proceeded in two interconnected stages, both grounded in a multilevel framework to capture the hierarchical  
70 structure of our data. First, we employed intraclass correlation coefficient (ICC) analysis—akin to generalizability theory—to  
71 assess the reliability of perceptual responses across the VAS-based estimation and the size reproduction tasks. The ICC  
72 decomposes total response variance into components attributable to participants, stimuli, and their interactions, thereby  
73 providing a measure of response consistency both within individuals (across stimuli) and across individuals (for identical  
74 stimuli). To deepen our understanding and further refine this analysis, we developed a multilevel Bayesian generative model  
75 that not only estimates these variance components but also captures specific perceptual response trends, such as how perceptual  
76 responses scale with stimulus size. This approach enabled us to quantify perceptual uncertainty while comparing task- and  
77 stimulus-specific patterns, offering mechanistic insights into the processes underlying perception that extend beyond traditional  
78 variance metrics. Our primary objective was to determine whether the variability observed in perceptual responses is consistent  
79 between the two tasks. If this variability primarily reflects true perceptual uncertainty—an intrinsic characteristic of the  
80 cognitive process—rather than task-specific measurement errors (i.e., methodological noise), we would expect to observe  
81 consistent patterns across both methods. Such findings would support the reliability of these approaches for capturing visual  
82 perceptual variability and lay a foundation for future research into the interplay between perception and behavior.

## 83 **Methods**

84 The study was pre-registered on the Open Science Framework (<https://osf.io/c9mkz>), which includes the experiment  
85 design and the analysis plan for the generative model. However, the intraclass correlation coefficients analysis was not  
86 pre-registered. All relevant materials, including experiment scripts, data, analysis scripts, and supplementary information for  
87 prior sensitivity analysis and posterior predictive checks—are available at <https://osf.io/f97rz/>. Ethical approval  
88 was obtained from KU Leuven’s Social and Societal Ethics Committee (G-2024-8083).

## 89 **Experiment**

90 The experiment was conducted online, with 180 participants recruited through the Prolific platform. The sample size was  
91 determined based on a planned budget and simulations designed to ensure convergence and obtain narrow posterior distributions  
92 for the perceptual response variability parameters. Participants were excluded from the analysis if they had more than 20%  
93 missing data in either of the perceptual tasks or if over 50% of their responses in either task fell within a 10% range. After  
94 applying these exclusion criteria, the final sample included 167 participants (49% female, mean age = 28, SD = 6.4). Participants  
95 were compensated €6 for their participation. The experiment lasted for about 40 minutes.

## 96 **Visual stimuli**

97 In the experiment, participants were presented with five circles, each varying in diameter from 50.800 mm to 81.296 mm, with  
98 a consistent difference of 7.624 mm between consecutive circles. These circles, designated as S1 through S5, were displayed as  
99 white outlines on a black background. This specific range of circle sizes has been extensively utilized in the investigation of the  
100 relationship between perception and generalization behavior<sup>4,28,44–47</sup>.

## 101 **Procedure**

102 At the start of the experiment, participants were instructed to align a physical credit card with a virtual one displayed on their  
103 screen and adjust the virtual card’s size to match the physical card. This calibration process ensured that the circles were  
104 displayed at the correct sizes, regardless of variations in screen sizes across participants. Following calibration, participants  
105 provided their consent to participate in the experiment. The experiment included two perceptual tasks, the order of which was  
106 fixed across participants. Before each task, participants were presented with interactive instructions. These instructions allowed  
107 participants to practice the tasks, ensuring they understood what was required before commencing the tasks.

108 The first perceptual task was a size estimation task. In each trial, participants were presented with a circle on the screen for  
109 7 seconds, during which they were required to estimate the circle’s diameter in millimeters using a visual analogue scale (VAS).  
110 A fixation cross appeared during the 1.5-second intertrial interval (ITI) between trials. The task comprised 75 trials, divided  
111 into three blocks of 25 trials each, with each of the five circles being presented 5 times per block. A 20-second break separated  
112 each block. The size estimation task is illustrated in the left side of Panel A of Figure 1.

113 The second perceptual task was a size reproduction task, where participants were tasked with constructing a circle to match  
114 a specific diameter provided as an instruction. These target diameters matched the circle sizes presented in the size estimation  
115 task, ensuring consistency across the two tasks. The trial structure mirrored that of the size estimation task: each trial began with  
116 participants seeing either a very small circle (1 mm) or a very large one (150 mm), which they then adjusted to the instructed  
117 size using the left button to decrease the diameter, the right button to increase it, and the down button to confirm their final  
118 adjustment. To keep the experiment efficient and prevent the use of external tools like rulers, participants had 12 seconds to  
119 complete each reproduction. As in the size estimation task, a fixation cross appeared during the 1.5-second inter-trial interval  
120 (ITI). Participants were debriefed at the experiment’s end. This task is illustrated on the right side of Panel A of Figure 1.

## Analysis

We conducted two complementary analyses using a multilevel Bayesian framework to evaluate perceptual response variability in size estimation and reproduction tasks. First, we employed a variance decomposition model to compute intraclass correlation coefficients (ICCs) and assess the consistency of perceptual measurements. This model systematically partitioned response variability into participant-specific effects, stimulus-induced variations, participant-stimulus interactions, and residual noise, providing a structured framework for evaluating response consistency across repeated trials. Second, we applied a generative psychophysical model to characterize response patterns and quantify perceptual uncertainty at multiple levels, including individual, stimulus-specific, and group-level variations. This approach revealed systematic differences in perceptual variability between tasks, complementing the insights from the ICC analysis and offering a more comprehensive understanding of how perceptual uncertainty manifests across different measurement methods.

### Intraclass Correlation Coefficient

We denoted the task type as  $t \in T = \{\text{size estimation, size reproduction}\}$ , where size estimation involved participants viewing a stimulus circle and reporting its estimated diameter using a visual analog scale (VAS), and size reproduction required participants to construct a circle by adjusting its size to match a specific diameter provided as an instruction.

For participant  $i = 1, \dots, N$  responding to stimulus  $s = 1, \dots, S$  at replication  $k = 1, \dots, K$  in task  $t$ , the observed response  $y_{t,i,s,k}$  was modeled as:

$$y_{t,i,s,k} = \mu_t + P_{t,i} + S_{t,s} + PS_{t,i,s} + \varepsilon_{t,i,s,k}, \quad (1)$$

where  $\mu_t$  was the task-specific overall mean,  $P_{t,i}$  represented the participant-specific effect for participant  $i$  in task  $t$ ,  $S_{t,s}$  denoted the stimulus effect for stimulus  $s$  in task  $t$ ,  $PS_{t,i,s}$  captured the interaction between participant  $i$  and stimulus  $s$  in task  $t$ , and  $\varepsilon_{t,i,s,k}$  was the residual measurement noise. These random effects followed normal distributions with zero mean and task-specific variances:

$$P_{t,i} \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma_{P_t}^2) \quad (2)$$

$$S_{t,s} \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma_{S_t}^2) \quad (3)$$

$$PS_{t,i,s} \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma_{PS_t}^2) \quad (4)$$

$$\varepsilon_{t,i,s,k} \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma_{\varepsilon_t}^2) \quad (5)$$

The total variance of responses for task  $t$  was decomposed as:

$$\sigma_{y_t}^2 = \sigma_{P_t}^2 + \sigma_{S_t}^2 + \sigma_{PS_t}^2 + \sigma_{\varepsilon_t}^2. \quad (6)$$

The ICC for task  $t$ , denoted  $ICC_t$ , measured the correlation between repeated responses within the same participant-stimulus combination, reflecting response consistency. It was calculated as the ratio of systematic variance (due to participant, stimulus, and their interaction) to total variance:

$$ICC_t = \frac{\sigma_{P_t}^2 + \sigma_{S_t}^2 + \sigma_{PS_t}^2}{\sigma_{P_t}^2 + \sigma_{S_t}^2 + \sigma_{PS_t}^2 + \sigma_{\varepsilon_t}^2}. \quad (7)$$

An  $ICC_t$  near 1 indicated high consistency (most variance was systematic), whereas a value close to 0 suggested low consistency (dominated by unexplained variability). However, it is important to note that the residual measurement noise term,  $\sigma_{\varepsilon_t}^2$ , does not represent purely random measurement errors but rather the remaining variance not accounted for by the specified components (participant, stimulus, and interaction). This residual term may contain both actual measurement noise and other unmodeled influences, such as response variability due to cognitive factors or trial-specific effects.

We specified non-informative to weakly informative priors for the ICC model parameters to ensure that the data primarily drove the estimation, given our limited prior knowledge about the variance components. These priors were detailed in Table 1.

To compare response consistency between tasks, we calculated the difference in ICCs:

$$ICC_{\text{diff}} = ICC_{\text{reproduction}} - ICC_{\text{estimation}}. \quad (8)$$

A positive  $ICC_{\text{diff}}$  indicated greater response consistency in the size reproduction task, while a negative value suggested higher consistency in size estimation, highlighting task-specific differences in the reliability of perceptual responses.

By decomposing total variance into participant, stimulus, interaction, and residual components, the ICC analysis clarified the relative contributions of these sources to perceptual response variability. However, the residual measurement noise component should not be strictly interpreted as pure measurement error; instead, it encompasses all unaccounted sources of variability, including trial-specific fluctuations, cognitive effects, and other uncontrolled influences. This distinction is crucial for correctly interpreting ICC values and assessing the reliability of perceptual measurements across tasks.

**Table 1.** Prior specifications for the ICC model parameters

Parameter	Prior Distribution	Description
$\mu_t$	$\mathcal{N}(0, 1000)$	Task-specific overall mean
$\sigma_{Pt}$	Uniform( $10^{-9}, 50$ )	SD of participant effects
$\sigma_{St}$	Uniform( $10^{-9}, 50$ )	SD of stimulus effects
$\sigma_{PSt}$	Uniform( $10^{-9}, 50$ )	SD of interaction effects
$\sigma_{Et}$	Uniform( $10^{-9}, 50$ )	SD of residual variance (unmodeled noise and variability)

**Perceptual response variability**

We analyzed data from  $i = 1, \dots, 180$  participants and  $s = 1, \dots, 5$  stimuli, where each stimulus  $s$  corresponded to a circle with diameter  $X_s$  ranging from  $X_1 = 50.80$  mm to  $X_5 = 81.30$  mm, with equal intervals of 7.624 mm. The observed perceptual response  $y_{t,i,s}$  for participant  $i$  to stimulus  $s$  in task  $t$  was modeled as:

$$y_{t,i,s} \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu_{t,i,s}, \sigma_{t,i,s}^2) \quad (9)$$

Here,  $\mu_{t,i,s}$  represents the expected perceptual response, and  $\sigma_{t,i,s}^2$  is the variance of responses, our key measure of perceptual variability (Panel A, Figure 2). To reflect the nested nature of our data—responses varying across tasks, participants, and stimuli—we used a multilevel structure for  $\sigma_{t,i,s}$ , the standard deviation of responses, broken down into stimulus-level and group-level components:

$$\sigma_{t,i,s} \sim \text{LogNormal}(\mu_{\sigma_{t,s}}, \sigma_{\sigma_{t,s}}^2) \quad (10)$$

$$\mu_{\sigma_{t,s}} \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu_{\sigma_t}, \sigma_{\mu_{\sigma_t}}^2) \quad (11)$$

$$\sigma_{\sigma_{t,s}} \sim \text{Gamma}(a_{\sigma_t}, b_{\sigma_t}) \quad (12)$$

This multilevel setup works as follows:  $\sigma_{t,i,s}$  varies for each participant  $i$  within a task  $t$  and stimulus  $s$ , drawn from a log-normal distribution with a mean  $\mu_{\sigma_{t,s}}$  specific to that task and stimulus. Then,  $\mu_{\sigma_{t,s}}$  itself varies across stimuli within each task, following a normal distribution centered at  $\mu_{\sigma_t}$ , the task-wide average uncertainty. Finally,  $\sigma_{\sigma_{t,s}}$ , the spread of variability at the stimulus level, follows a gamma distribution, allowing flexibility across tasks. This structure captures individual differences while linking them to broader task and stimulus effects.

We modeled the expected perceptual response  $\mu_{t,i,s}$  using a sigmoid function:

$$\mu_{t,i,s} = \frac{200}{1 + e^{-(\beta_{0,t,i} + \beta_{1,t,i} X_s)}} \quad (13)$$

where  $X_s$  represents the physical stimulus size. Traditional psychophysical functions, like Stevens' power law<sup>48</sup>, aim to explain group-averaged data by enforcing rigid scaling relationships between physical and perceived magnitudes, often overlooking individual variations. In contrast, we opted for a flexible sigmoid function, with parameters  $\beta_{0,t,i}$  and  $\beta_{1,t,i}$  controlling the curve's shift and slope, respectively. This allowed our model to adapt to diverse individual response patterns across tasks without assuming a uniform scaling rule. By leveraging the flexibility of  $\beta_{0,t,i}$  and  $\beta_{1,t,i}$ , we captured a broad spectrum of perceptual sensitivities among participants, including deviations from classical psychophysical norms. Previous studies have effectively used this approach to explore human visual perception of circle sizes<sup>28,29,34</sup>. The sigmoid function has also been effective in other perceptual domains using VAS data<sup>31,49</sup>. Accounting for individual differences in response patterns enabled us to isolate the remaining variability, captured by  $\sigma_{t,i,s}$ , as true perceptual uncertainty. These parameters adhered to a multilevel structure:

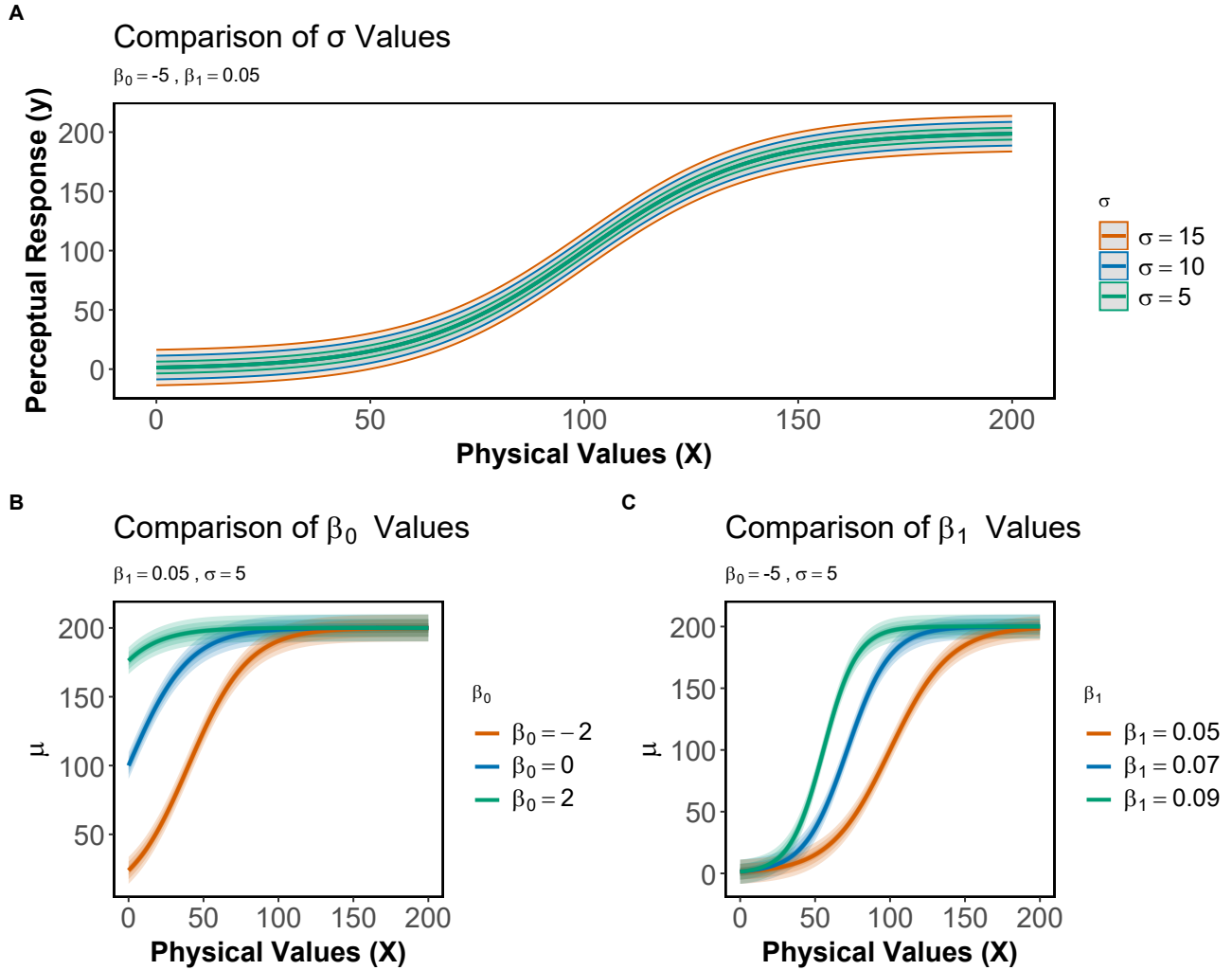
$$\beta_{0,t,i} \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu_{\beta_{0,t}}, \sigma_{\beta_{0,t}}^2) \quad (14)$$

$$\beta_{1,t,i} \sim \text{LogNormal}(\mu_{\beta_{1,t}}, \sigma_{\beta_{1,t}}^2) \quad (15)$$

To compare perceptual response variability between tasks, we defined:

$$\delta_{\sigma} = \mu_{\sigma_{\text{estimation}}} - \mu_{\sigma_{\text{reproduction}}} \quad (\text{group-level difference}) \quad (16)$$

$$\delta_{\sigma_s} = \mu_{\sigma_{\text{estimation},s}} - \mu_{\sigma_{\text{reproduction},s}} \quad (\text{stimulus-level difference}) \quad (17)$$



**Figure 2.** Parameter effects. **Panel A:** The effect of  $\sigma_{t,i,s}$ , our primary parameter of interest, illustrating how it captured response variability while keeping other parameters fixed. **Panel B:** The effect of  $\beta_{0,t,i}$ . **Panel C:** The effect of  $\beta_{1,t,i}$ .

185 We specified non-informative to weakly informative priors for all model parameters to ensure that the data primarily drove  
 186 the parameter estimation, given our limited prior knowledge about the perceptual phenomena. These priors were detailed in  
 187 Table 2.

**Table 2.** Prior specifications for the perceptual scaling model parameters

Parameter	Prior Distribution	Description
$\mu_{\beta_{1,t}}$	$\mathcal{N}(-3, 2^2)$	Mean of log-slope parameter
$\sigma_{\beta_{1,t}}$	$\text{Gamma}(2, 1)T(10^{-9}, \infty)$	SD of log-slope parameter
$\mu_{\beta_{0,t}}$	$\mathcal{N}(0, 5^2)$	Mean of intercept parameter
$\sigma_{\beta_{0,t}}$	$\text{Gamma}(2, 1)T(10^{-9}, \infty)$	SD of intercept parameter
$\mu_{\sigma_t}$	$\mathcal{N}(0, 5^2)$	Group-level mean of log-SD
$\sigma_{\mu_{\sigma_t}}$	$\text{Gamma}(2, 1)T(10^{-9}, \infty)$	Group-level SD of log-SD
$a_{\sigma_t}, b_{\sigma_t}$	$\text{Gamma}(2, 1)T(10^{-9}, \infty)$	Shape and rate for stimulus-level SD

188 Additionally, we extended the model to assess whether perceptual uncertainty scaled with stimulus magnitude, a phenomenon

189 known as scalar variability in psychophysics<sup>50–53</sup>. This relationship was expressed as:

$$\sigma_{t,i,s} = \sigma_{0,t,i} + \eta_{t,i} \ln(X_s) \quad (18)$$

190 Here,  $\sigma_{0,t,i}$  represented the baseline perceptual uncertainty for participant  $i$  in task  $t$  (i.e., the uncertainty for the smallest  
191 stimulus), and  $\eta_{t,i}$  was an individual- and task-specific scaling factor that determined how rapidly perceptual uncertainty  
192 increased with stimulus magnitude. The logarithmic transformation  $\ln(X_s)$  reflected the principle of scalar variability, where  
193 uncertainty grows with stimulus magnitude at a diminishing rate, consistent with psychophysical evidence that perceptual  
194 sensitivity decreases as stimulus size increases<sup>50</sup>. These parameters also followed a multilevel structure:

$$\sigma_{0,t,i} \sim \text{LogNormal}(\mu_{\sigma_t}, \sigma_{\sigma_t}^2) \quad (19)$$

$$\eta_{t,i} \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu_{\eta_t}, \sigma_{\eta_t}^2) \quad (20)$$

195 For this extension, we introduced additional priors for  $\sigma_{0,t,i}$  and  $\eta_{t,i}$ , specified as:

$$\mu_{\sigma_t} \sim \mathcal{N}(0, 5^2) \quad (21)$$

$$\sigma_{\sigma_t} \sim \text{Gamma}(2, 1)T(10^{-9}, \infty) \quad (22)$$

$$\mu_{\eta_t} \sim \mathcal{N}(0, 10^2) \quad (23)$$

$$\sigma_{\eta_t} \sim \text{Gamma}(2, 1)T(10^{-9}, \infty) \quad (24)$$

## 196 Statistical inference

197 The estimation of the models was performed using Gibbs sampling via JAGS<sup>54</sup>, utilizing the Markov chain Monte Carlo  
198 (MCMC) method. The analysis involved running four MCMC chains, each with a total of 50,000 iterations. To ensure stability  
199 in the sampling process, we incorporated a burn-in period of 25,000 iterations and applied a thinning factor of 10. This resulted  
200 in 10,000 samples being retained per parameter ( $\frac{50000-25000}{10} \times 4$ ).

201 Convergence of parameter sampling was evaluated through visual inspection for irregular chain patterns and by checking  
202 the  $\hat{R}$  value, which was required to be below 1.1, based on Gelman and Rubin diagnostics<sup>55,56</sup>. For all post-sampling analyses,  
203 the statistical computing language R<sup>57</sup> was utilized, along with the R package *jagsUI*<sup>58</sup> to interface with JAGS in R.

204 To assess whether differences in perceptual response variability from the first analysis and ICC from the second analysis  
205 significantly differ from 0, we calculated Bayes factors (BF) using the Savage-Dickey method<sup>59,60</sup>. We compared these against  
206 the null hypothesis of no difference (i.e., difference = 0). Following the scale proposed by Kass and Raftery (1995)<sup>61</sup>, BF  
207 values between  $10^{-1}$  and  $10^{-0.5}$  indicate substantial evidence in favor of no difference in perceptual uncertainty, while BF  
208 values between  $10^{-2}$  and  $10^{-1}$  indicate strong evidence for this conclusion. On the other hand, BF values between  $10^{0.5}$  and  
209  $10^1$ , and between  $10^1$  and  $10^2$ , provide substantial and strong evidence, respectively, supporting the conclusion that differences  
210 in perceptual uncertainty differ from 0.

## 211 Results

212 We present the results of our Bayesian multilevel analyses of the variance decomposition model and the psychophysical  
213 generative model, which assessed the consistency of perceptual responses and elucidated the psychophysical mechanisms  
214 underlying variability in size estimation and reproduction tasks. In both models, we employed non-informative to weakly  
215 informative priors to account for our limited prior knowledge of the perceptual phenomena under investigation. To evaluate  
216 the influence of these priors, we conducted sensitivity analyses using alternative weakly informative priors, confirming the  
217 robustness of our results (see Supplementary Figures 1-2). These analyses demonstrated that our findings remained consistent  
218 across prior specifications, indicating minimal dependence on prior assumptions. Additionally, posterior predictive checks  
219 assessed the generative model's fit and predictive accuracy (see Supplementary Figures 3-4), showing strong alignment with  
220 empirical data.

### 221 Intraclass Correlation Coefficient

222 The ICC analysis revealed high response consistency in both tasks (Table 3). For the estimation task, the ICC was 0.89 (95% CI  
223 [0.83, 0.95]), and for the reproduction task, it was 0.85 (95% CI [0.77, 0.95]), indicating that 89% and 85% of the total variance,  
224 respectively, stem from systematic differences between participants and stimuli. In this model, ICC is defined as the proportion  
225 of variance due to participant effects ( $\sigma_P^2$ ), stimulus effects ( $\sigma_S^2$ ), and their interaction ( $\sigma_{PS}^2$ ) relative to the total variance, which  
226 includes measurement error ( $\sigma_E^2$ ). While these ICC values suggest strong consistency, no standardized benchmarks exist for  
227 perceptual tasks, necessitating further research to establish interpretive guidelines.

Parameter	Condition	Mean (SD)	Median [95% CI]
$\mu$	Estimation	68.35 (12.90)	70.05 [38.16, 89.63]
	Reproduction	67.04 (9.94)	68.47 [43.18, 82.85]
$\sigma_P$	Estimation	21.49 (1.24)	21.44 [19.23, 24.11]
	Reproduction	16.59 (0.93)	16.54 [14.89, 18.52]
$\sigma_S$	Estimation	26.57 (9.68)	24.75 [12.36, 47.42]
	Reproduction	19.10 (9.05)	16.58 [8.17, 42.89]
$\sigma_{PS}$	Estimation	8.06 (0.25)	8.05 [7.57, 8.57]
	Reproduction	4.37 (0.17)	4.37 [4.05, 4.71]
$\sigma_E$	Estimation	11.73 (0.08)	11.73 [11.58, 11.88]
	Reproduction	10.13 (0.07)	10.13 [10.00, 10.26]
ICC	Estimation	0.89 (0.04)	0.89 [0.83, 0.95]
	Reproduction	0.85 (0.05)	0.85 [0.77, 0.95]

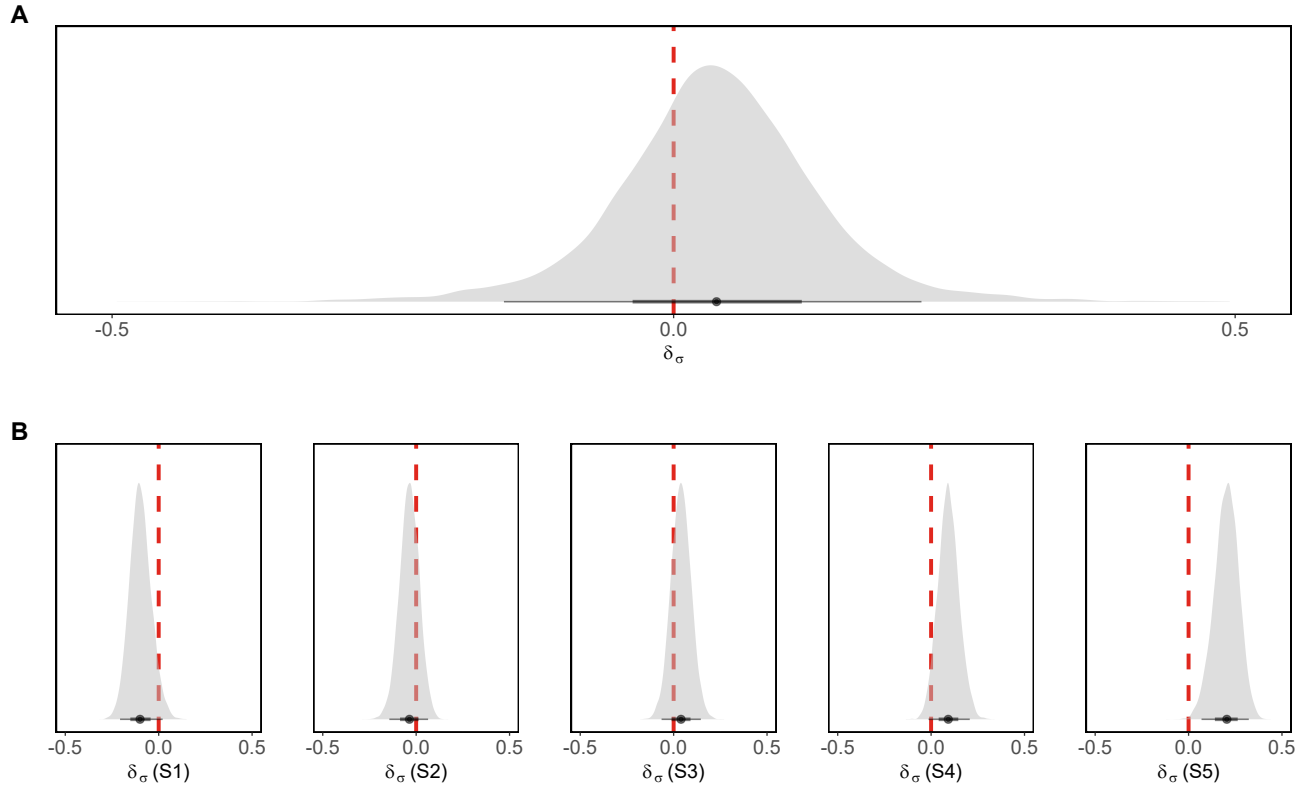
**Table 3.** Comparison of variance components and ICC across tasks, derived from 10,000 MCMC posterior samples.

228 In the estimation task, an ICC of 0.89 implies that only 11% of the variance reflects measurement error or inconsistency  
229 within participant-stimulus pairs. Similarly, the reproduction task's ICC of 0.85 indicates 15% unexplained variance. A Bayes  
230 factor of 0.205 supports the null hypothesis of no meaningful difference between the ICCs, suggesting comparable consistency  
231 across tasks.

232 Variance components highlight task-specific differences (Table 3). Participant variance ( $\sigma_P$ ) was higher in estimation  
233 (median = 21.44, 95% CI [19.23, 24.11]) than in reproduction (median = 16.54, 95% CI [14.89, 18.52]), reflecting greater  
234 individual variability in size judgments. Stimulus variance ( $\sigma_S$ ) followed a similar pattern, with estimation (median = 24.75, 95%  
235 CI [12.36, 47.42]) exceeding reproduction (median = 16.58, 95% CI [8.17, 42.89]), indicating more diverse stimulus responses  
236 in estimation. The participant-stimulus interaction ( $\sigma_{PS}$ ) was also elevated in estimation (median = 8.05, 95% CI [7.57, 8.57])  
237 compared to reproduction (median = 4.37, 95% CI [4.05, 4.71]), suggesting greater stimulus-specific idiosyncrasies. Finally,  
238 error variance ( $\sigma_E$ ) was slightly higher in estimation (median = 11.73, 95% CI [11.58, 11.88]) than in reproduction (median =  
239 10.13, 95% CI [10.00, 10.26]), pointing to increased trial-to-trial variability in estimation.

240 These results indicate that while both tasks exhibit high consistency, the estimation task shows greater variability across  
241 all components, particularly in individual and stimulus effects. The reproduction task, though slightly less consistent overall,  
242 demonstrates more stable response patterns, with reduced variance across participants and stimuli.

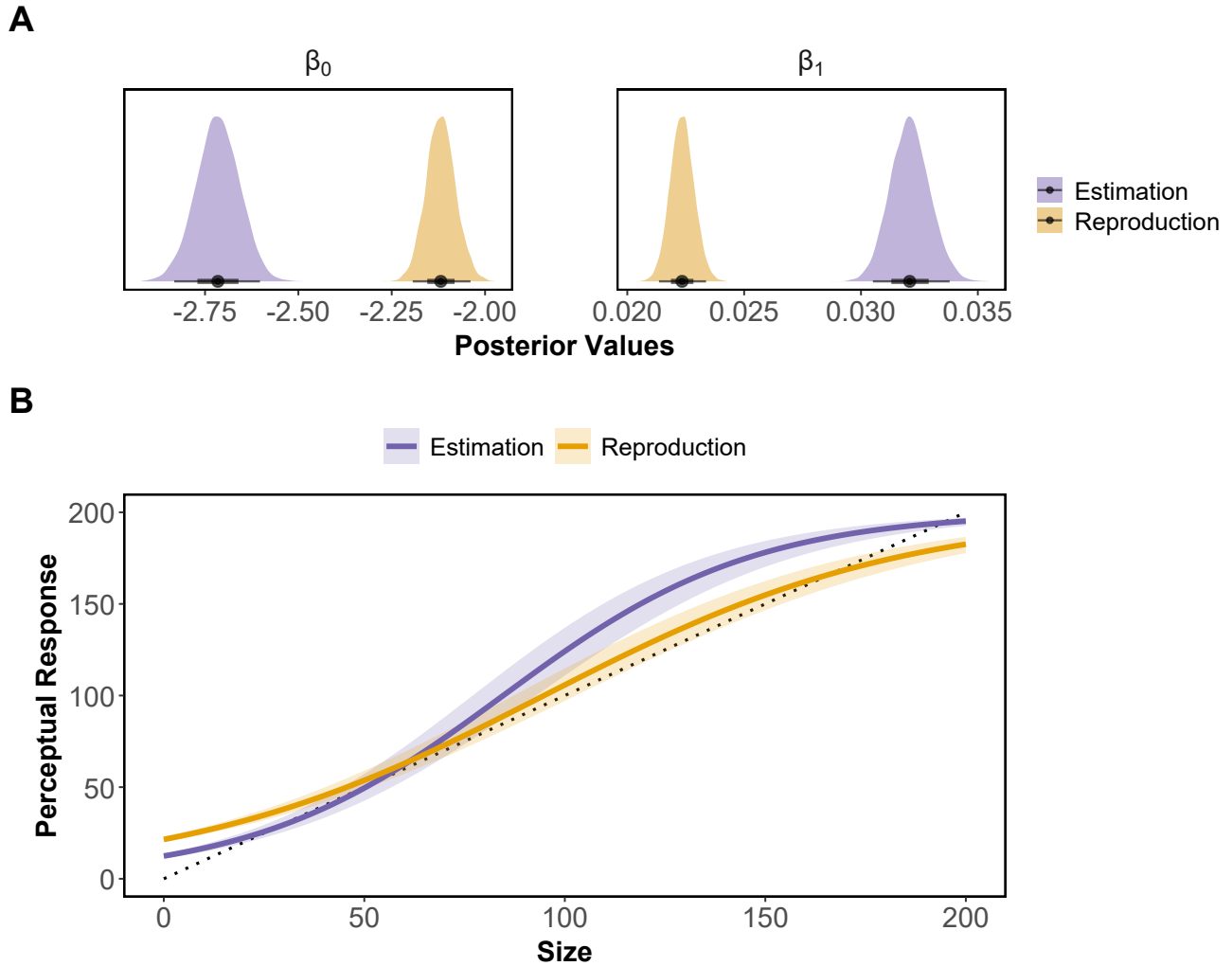
### 243 Perceptual uncertainty



**Figure 3.** Difference in perceptual response variability between size estimation and size reproduction tasks. Panel A: Posterior distributions based on 10,000 MCMC samples for the difference in mean task-level perceptual response variability. Panel B: Posterior distributions based on 10,000 MCMC samples for the difference in mean stimulus-level perceptual response variability. All parameters are presented on a logarithmic scale.

244 The multilevel generative model showed that perceptual response variability patterns were largely consistent across size  
 245 estimation and reproduction tasks (Panels A and B, Figure 3). We modeled perceptual variability, expressed as  $\ln(\sigma)$ , at  
 246 individual, stimulus, and task levels, estimating all parameters on a logarithmic scale (see Table 2). At the task level,  $\ln(\sigma)$   
 247 values were nearly identical for size estimation (2.118, 95% CI [1.938, 2.292]) and size reproduction (2.081, 95% CI [2.018,  
 248 2.137]), with a minimal difference ( $\delta_\sigma = 0.038$ , 95% CI [-0.152, 0.221]). A Bayes factor of 0.22 reinforced the lack of a  
 249 significant task-related difference in log variability.

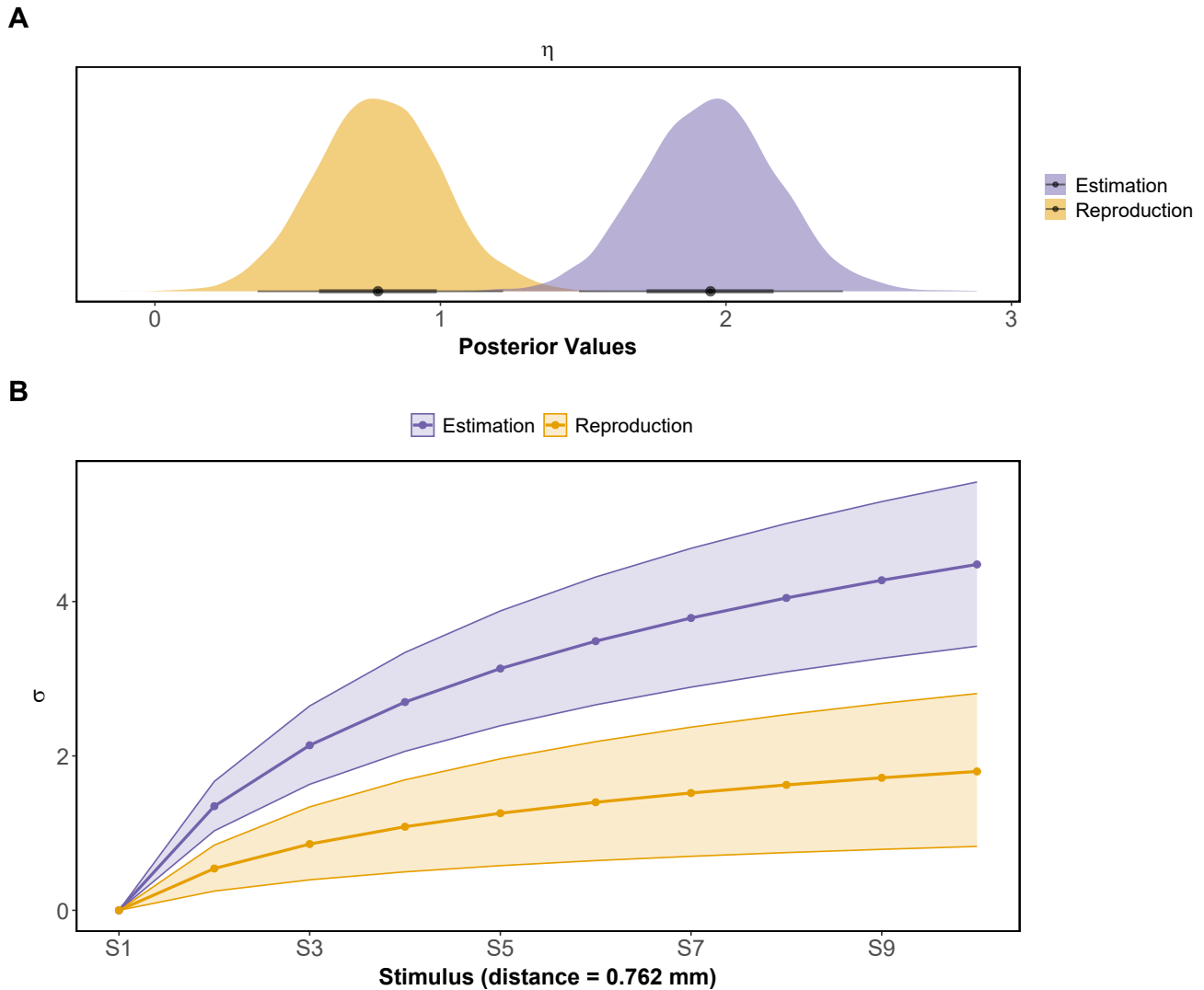
250 At the stimulus level, the largest differences in perceptual variability, measured as  $\ln(\sigma)$ , occurred at the extremes: the  
 251 smallest stimulus (S1: -0.099, 95% CI [-0.207, 0.021]) and the largest (S5: 0.205, 95% CI [0.069, 0.322]). Intermediate stimuli  
 252 showed smaller differences (S2: -0.036, 95% CI [-0.143, 0.063]; S3: 0.039, 95% CI [-0.064, 0.145]; S4: 0.091, 95% CI [-0.014,  
 253 0.206]). Bayes factors for these differences were 0.62 (S1), 0.16 (S2), 0.18 (S3), 0.60 (S4), and 12.61 (S5). Except for S5,  
 254 where evidence supported a reliable difference, these Bayes factors indicated that the perceptual response variability was  
 255 generally consistent across tasks.



**Figure 4.** The estimates of the task-level perceptual scaling parameters and a simulation of psychophysical curves for the size estimation and reproduction tasks. Panel A: Posterior distributions based on 10,000 MCMC samples for the task-level perceptual intercept ( $\beta_0$ ) and perceptual slope ( $\beta_1$ ) parameters. Panel B: Simulated psychophysical curves for stimulus sizes ranging from 0 to 200, with the main curve generated using the median estimates of the task-level  $\beta_0$  and  $\beta_1$ , and the shaded region representing the 2.5th and 97.5th quantiles of the estimates.

256 Analysis of the group-level perceptual scaling parameters ( $\beta_0$  and  $\beta_1$  in Equation 13) revealed distinct differences between  
 257 the size estimation and size reproduction tasks. The group-level perceptual slope ( $\mu_{\beta_{1,t}}$ ) was higher for size estimation (0.032,  
 258 95% CI [0.031, 0.034]) than for size reproduction (0.022, 95% CI [0.021, 0.023]), indicating greater sensitivity to changes in  
 259 stimulus size in the estimation task. In contrast, the group-level perceptual intercept ( $\mu_{\beta_{0,t}}$ ) was lower for size estimation (-2.715,  
 260 95% CI [-2.832, -2.603]) compared to size reproduction (-2.118, 95% CI [-2.194, -2.039]), suggesting a shift in the sigmoid  
 261 function. These findings highlighted systematic task differences: size estimation exhibited a steeper perceptual response curve  
 262 with a lower baseline compared to size reproduction.

263 As shown in Figure 4, the higher  $\mu_{\beta_{1,t}}$  for size estimation indicated a sharper increase in perceptual response per unit  
 264 of stimulus size ( $X_s$ ) compared to size reproduction. The more negative  $\mu_{\beta_{0,t}}$  in size estimation shifted the sigmoid curve's  
 265 midpoint to a larger stimulus size relative to size reproduction. Consequently, participants displayed greater sensitivity to  
 266 smaller stimulus sizes in the reproduction task, with this difference diminishing at larger stimulus sizes.



**Figure 5.** The estimates of the group-level parameter  $\eta$ , which determines the effect of scalar variability, and a simulation of scalar variability for the size estimation and reproduction tasks. Panel A: Posterior distributions based on 10,000 MCMC samples for the group-level  $\eta$ . Panel B: Simulated scalar variability effect for 10 stimuli (increment: 7.624 mm), with the main curve generated using the median estimates of  $\eta$ , and the shaded region representing the 2.5th and 97.5th quantiles of the estimates.

267 The scalar effect model tested whether perceptual variability increased proportionally with stimulus magnitude in the size  
 268 estimation and size reproduction tasks. The group-level parameter  $\mu_{\eta_i}$ , which measures the rate at which variability scales  
 269 with the logarithm of stimulus size ( $\ln(X_s)$ ), was positive and credibly different from zero for both tasks: size estimation  
 270 ( $\mu_{\eta_i} = 1.946$ , 95% CI [1.483, 2.421]) and size reproduction ( $\mu_{\eta_i} = 0.781$ , 95% CI [0.352, 1.207]). These estimates confirmed  
 271 that perceptual variability ( $\sigma_{iis}$ ) grew with increasing stimulus size in both tasks, supporting the principle of scalar variability  
 272 wherein larger magnitudes exhibit greater variability. The effect was stronger in size estimation than in size reproduction, as  
 273 illustrated in Figure 5.

## 274 Discussion

275 In this study, we investigated perceptual response patterns in two distinct tasks: size estimation using a Visual Analogue  
 276 Scale (VAS) and size reproduction, each employing a fundamentally different measurement approach. Our primary aim was  
 277 to evaluate the consistency of response variability across these tasks. We found that individuals displayed highly consistent  
 278 variability patterns in both, suggesting that task-specific measurement noise, while present, is unlikely to be the primary driver of

279 the observed differences. Instead, a substantial portion of this variability likely arises from genuine, stimulus-specific perceptual  
280 processes shared across both tasks. However, as our analysis did not directly distinguish perceptual from measurement errors,  
281 this interpretation remains preliminary. Nevertheless, the consistent variability patterns observed across these disparate tasks  
282 bolster the validity of both VAS-based estimation and size reproduction as reliable methods in perceptual research.

283 Methodologically, our study advances the understanding of perceptual uncertainty by employing intraclass correlation  
284 coefficient (ICC) analysis alongside multilevel Bayesian generative models. ICC analysis serves as a foundational step in  
285 evaluating the reliability of perceptual responses, systematically decomposing response variance into components attributable  
286 to participants, stimuli, and their interactions. This decomposition provides a quantitative measure of response consistency  
287 by partitioning variance into components attributable to systematic differences between participants, systematic differences  
288 between stimuli, their interactions, and unexplained variance. This allowed us to assess the relative contribution of these  
289 different sources to overall measurement variability. However, it is important to note that the residual noise component in  
290 ICC does not directly represent true measurement noise. Rather, it reflects the residual variance that remains unexplained  
291 by the specified components—participant, stimulus, and their interaction. As such, this component may contain a mix of  
292 actual measurement errors and unmodeled systematic influences rather than purely random noise. Building on this foundation,  
293 we employed multilevel Bayesian generative models to further elucidate the latent perceptual processes underlying these  
294 tasks. These models offer a mechanistic perspective by explicitly characterizing how perceptual responses are shaped by both  
295 stimulus properties and task demands. By modeling psychophysical functions—including parameters such as slope, intercept,  
296 and uncertainty—our approach captures systematic differences in perceptual scaling and response variability. Together, ICC  
297 analysis and generative modeling provide a complementary framework for assessing perceptual reliability, demonstrating their  
298 utility for future research across diverse perceptual and cognitive domains.

299 Our exploration of perceptual response variability in size estimation and reproduction tasks reveals an intricate blend of  
300 consistency and divergence. The ICC analysis demonstrated high response consistency in both tasks (estimation: ICC = 0.89;  
301 reproduction: ICC = 0.85). However, an examination of the individual variance components revealed systematic differences  
302 in how variability manifested across tasks. All variance components were consistently higher in estimation compared to  
303 reproduction. Participant variance ( $\sigma_P$ ) was greater in estimation (median = 21.44) than in reproduction (median = 16.54),  
304 indicating more pronounced individual differences in size judgments. Similarly, stimulus variance ( $\sigma_S$ ) was higher in estimation  
305 (median = 24.75) than in reproduction (median = 16.58), reflecting more diverse responses to different stimulus sizes. Notably,  
306 the participant-stimulus interaction variance ( $\sigma_{PS}$ ) was nearly twice as high in estimation (median = 8.05) as in reproduction  
307 (median = 4.37), suggesting that participants exhibited more idiosyncratic responses to specific stimuli in the estimation task.  
308 These findings indicate that while both tasks exhibit similar overall consistency, the estimation task elicits greater variability  
309 across all measured components.

310 Similarly, at the task level, the generative model showed that perceptual uncertainty estimates were nearly identical between  
311 size estimation (median  $\ln(\sigma) = 2.118$ ) and reproduction (median  $\ln(\sigma) = 2.081$ ). However, beneath this surface similarity, key  
312 distinctions emerged in how uncertainty scaled with stimulus size. Both tasks exhibited scalar variability<sup>50–53</sup>, where uncertainty  
313 increased with stimulus magnitude. This effect was stronger in size estimation (median  $\mu_{\eta_I} = 1.946$ ) than in reproduction  
314 (median  $\mu_{\eta_I} = 0.781$ ) (Figure 5). Psychophysical analysis further revealed systematic differences in how participants processed  
315 stimulus magnitudes across tasks. Size estimation exhibited greater sensitivity to size changes, as reflected in a steeper  
316 perceptual slope (median  $\mu_{\beta_{I_t}} = 0.032$ ) compared to reproduction (median  $\mu_{\beta_{I_t}} = 0.022$ ) (Figure 4). Additionally, estimation  
317 showed a lower perceptual intercept, suggesting a fundamental difference in how stimulus magnitudes were mapped in each  
318 task.

319 These findings highlight the dynamic interplay between task-specific cognitive processes and stimulus properties in shaping  
320 perceptual variability. Size estimation, which requires mapping stimuli to a numerical scale, appears more susceptible to  
321 individual differences, stimulus-specific effects, and heightened scalar variability. In contrast, size reproduction, which integrates  
322 visual feedback, motor planning, and comparative judgment, exhibits reduced variance components and a tempered scalar effect,  
323 suggesting stabilizing mechanisms that limit variability growth—aligning with findings in visual mental imagery research<sup>62–64</sup>.  
324 This distinction underscores that perceptual variability arises not only from external stimuli but also from the unique cognitive  
325 demands of each task. Psychophysical curves for size estimation and reproduction revealed subtle but significant differences,  
326 pointing to distinct perceptual mapping processes. While size estimation likely involves transforming physical stimuli into  
327 mental representations, reproduction entails converting mental representations back into physical dimensions. Both tasks are  
328 widely used to study visual perception<sup>6,28</sup> and perceptual memory<sup>33,34</sup> in perception-guided behavior. Our results showed a  
329 steeper curve for size estimation than reproduction, with a lower intercept for estimation. This pattern suggests that similar  
330 response profiles across tasks do not necessarily indicate identical perceptual or memory processes but rather stem from  
331 task-specific cognitive mechanisms. This interpretation is supported by studies demonstrating varied psychophysical curves  
332 across perceptual contexts<sup>65–67</sup>. Consequently, caution is warranted when using these tasks to infer relationships among  
333 perception, memory, and behavior, as their distinct underlying processes may lead to divergent conclusions.

334 This investigation establishes a foundation for quantifying perceptual uncertainty through both VAS-based size estimation  
335 and size reproduction methodologies. A central finding of this study—the good consistency in perceptual variability patterns  
336 across distinct measurement approaches—bolsters confidence in using continuous methods to accurately measure perceptual  
337 uncertainty, paving the way for deeper insights into post-perception behavior. While this consistency suggests that both methods  
338 may be capturing a shared underlying perceptual signal, it does not fully disentangle intrinsic perceptual uncertainty from  
339 measurement-related artifacts. Specifically, the observed consistency could, in part, reflect common sources of measurement  
340 error inherent to both tasks rather than purely perceptual variability. Consequently, future research must prioritize the  
341 development of methods to isolate task-specific measurement errors, potentially through multi-method approaches or by  
342 incorporating known error structures into analytical models. This critical distinction is necessary to determine whether the  
343 measured variability genuinely reflects fundamental perceptual noise or is confounded by methodological constraints. Extending  
344 this analytical framework to encompass diverse perceptual paradigms—such as identification tasks<sup>16–18</sup> and discrimination  
345 procedures<sup>21,22</sup>—via a comprehensive joint modeling approach could help unify these insights. Such integration could yield a  
346 consistent, cross-contextual measure of perceptual uncertainty while accounting for task-specific sources of variability.

347 While generative models provide a powerful lens for uncovering the intricacies of perceptual processes, offering detailed  
348 insights into how sensory inputs are transformed into perceptual judgments, their effectiveness rests critically on the empirical  
349 grounding of the psychophysical functions they incorporate. These functions, which define the relationship between physical  
350 stimuli and perceived responses, must accurately reflect the underlying perceptual mechanisms to ensure the models' predictions  
351 hold across diverse scenarios. Further research is essential to rigorously validate and refine these functions, testing their  
352 robustness across varied experimental contexts—such as different sensory modalities or task demands—and perceptual domains,  
353 from simple detection to complex discrimination. Future studies should prioritize a systematic approach: validating the  
354 assumed psychophysical relationships against empirical data, exploring alternative functional forms to capture a broader range  
355 of perceptual behaviors, and assessing how well these models generalize across diverse perceptual tasks, such as size estimation,  
356 motion perception, or texture discrimination. By strengthening these empirical foundations through such comprehensive efforts,  
357 researchers can not only bolster the reliability of generative modeling but also enhance its applicability, making it a more  
358 versatile and trustworthy tool for advancing perceptual science.

## 359 Limitations

360 The experiment was conducted in an online setting, and while we calibrated the screen sizes for participants to ensure uniform  
361 presentation of circle sizes, several inherent limitations associated with online studies persisted. A primary challenge was the  
362 inability to control certain variables that could potentially affect the perceptual experiences of the participants. For example,  
363 variations in head position and viewing distance may have influenced the perceived size of the stimuli, thereby introducing  
364 inconsistencies into the data. Furthermore, environmental factors, including ambient lighting conditions and screen resolution,  
365 likely contributed to additional perceptual bias that was beyond our control.

366 To prevent the experiment from becoming excessively long and to minimize the likelihood of participants using measurement  
367 tools during the tasks, we imposed a maximum response time for both perceptual tasks. The time limits for each task were  
368 determined based on pilot studies and previous similar experiments, ensuring that most participants could respond within the  
369 allotted time. However, it is important to note that the time required for these perceptual responses can vary significantly  
370 between individuals, particularly in the size reproduction task. In the study, we observed that perceptual response variability  
371 was greater for the smallest and largest stimuli. A potential explanation for this finding is that adjusting the circle size to match  
372 the smallest or largest target circle may require more effort and time, especially when the initial circle size is at the opposite end  
373 of the spectrum (e.g., starting with a very large circle when reproducing the smallest target, or vice versa). This increased effort  
374 and time demand could contribute to the observed variability in responses for these extreme stimulus sizes.

375 The findings of the current study are specific to the dimension of size magnitudes. Since the VAS requires participants to  
376 translate their subjective estimations into numerical values, it is plausible that the measurement errors associated with the VAS  
377 may vary depending on how familiar participants are with converting the target perceptual constructs into numeric form. Future  
378 research should explore the use of the VAS across different perceptual dimensions to better understand how familiarity with the  
379 perceptual domain influences measurement accuracy.

## Declarations

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## Conflicts of interest

The authors declare no conflicts of interest.

## Ethics approval

Ethical approval for this research was obtained from KU Leuven's Social and Societal Ethics Committee (G-2024-8083).

## Consent to participate

Informed consent to participate in the study was obtained from all participants.

## Consent for publication

All participants consented to the publication of their data.

## Data availability

The raw and processed data for the experiment in this study can be accessed at the following Open Science Framework (OSF) repository: <https://osf.io/f97rz/>.

## Code availability

The code for the computational model and analysis can be found at the same repository as the data: <https://osf.io/f97rz/>. The Bayesian sampling is conducted with JAGS (version 4.3.1), and the post-sampling analysis and visualization are conducted with R (version 4.3.0).

## Authors' contributions

Conceptualization, K.Y., T-Y.L., J.Z., F.T., N.V.; Methodology, K.Y., T-Y.L., N.V.; Software, K.Y.; Formal Analysis, K.Y., T-Y.L.; Investigation, K.Y.; Resources, K.Y.; Data Curation, K.Y.; Writing - Original Draft, K.Y.; Writing - Review & Editing, K.Y., T-Y.L., J.Z., F.T., N.V.; Visualization, K.Y.; Funding Acquisition, F.T. and J.Z.

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