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2	Evidence for the role of inhibition in numerical comparison: a
3	negative priming study in 7-8-year-olds and adults
4	Arnaud Viarouge ^{1,*} , Olivier Houdé ^{1,2} , Grégoire Borst ^{1,2}
5	
6	¹ Université de Paris, LaPsyDÉ, CNRS, F-75005 Paris, France.
7	² Institut Universitaire de France
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15	*Corresponding author
16	Dr. Arnaud Viarouge
17	Université de Paris
18	Laboratory for the Psychology of Child Development and Education (LaPsyDÉ, UMR8240)
19	46 Rue Saint Jacques
20	75005 Paris, France
21	E-mail address: arnaud.viarouge@parisdescartes.fr
22	Phone : +33 1.40.46.29.95

1 Introduction

2 Research on numerical cognition has identified basic systems of numerical processing 3 (Feigenson, Dehaene, Spelke, 2004). One of them, the approximate number system (ANS) 4 (Halberda & Feigenson, 2008), allows us to estimate the number of objects in a set, providing us with a sense of discrete quantity (Dehaene, 1997). Many studies have investigated the 5 6 characteristics of numerical estimation and its development (Dehaene, 2003; Cantlon, Brannon, Carter, & Pelphrey 2006; Halberda & Feigenson, 2008). In general, these studies 7 8 use the non-symbolic numerical comparison task, whereby participants perform numerical 9 comparative judgments between two rapidly presented dot arrays. In such a comparison task, performance depends on the ratio between the two presented numerosities (i.e., the quantity 10 represented by a set of objects), the ANS following Weber's law (Piazza, Izard, Pinel, Le 11 12 Bihan, & Dehaene, 2004). One difficulty researchers face when using this task resides in the continuous, non-numerical dimensions of magnitude (size, total surface area, density, etc.) 13 that one can perceive in the stimuli. These continuous dimensions can affect numerical 14 judgments throughout development (Rousselle, Palmers, & Noël, 2004; Szücs, Nobes, 15 Devine, Gabriel, & Gebuis, 2013; Tokita & Ishiguchi, 2013) and adulthood (Gebuis & 16 Reynvoet, 2012a, 2012b; Gebuis, Cohen Kadosh, & Gevers, 2016). 17

18

19 Inhibiting the irrelevant dimensions to focus on number

One of these continuous dimensions is spatial extent. Since Piaget's seminal work on the
influence of length on numerical abilities in children (Piaget, 1952), behavioral and brain
imaging studies have shown evidence of interactions between number and spatial extent that
are present very early in infancy (de Hevia, Izard, Coubart, Spelke, & Streri, 2014; Pinel,
Piazza, Le Bihan, & Dehaene, 2004; see Hubbard, Piazza, Pinel, & Dehaene 2005, for a
review). These interactions have been reported in various studies in adults. For instance,

26 perceiving Arabic digits can bias estimation of sizes (de Hevia, Girelli, Bricolo, & Vallar, 2008; Viarouge & de Hevia, 2013) and relative conceptual size (e.g., pictures of an elephant 27 vs. a dog) can affect parity judgments (Gabay, Leibovich, Henik, & Gronau, 2013). 28 29 Several studies have investigated the impact of size on symbolic numbers using the size congruity (or numerical Stroop) task (Arend & Henik, 2015; Henik & Tzelgov, 1982; 30 Leibovich, Diesendruck, Rubinsten, & Henik, 2013; Pavese & Umiltà, 1999; Schwarz & 31 Ischebeck, 2003), in which the participants' performances decrease when a numerical 32 comparison is made between two Arabic digits with incongruent sizes (e.g., 6 vs 9). 33 The number/size congruency effect has also been found in non-symbolic numerical 34 comparison tasks (Nys & Content, 2012; Hurewitz, Gelman, & Schnitzer, 2006). For 35 instance, Hurewitz and collaborators (2006) reported lower performances in adults when the 36 sizes of the presented items were incongruent with their number (i.e, the set with larger dots 37 was less numerous), than when they were congruent or neutral. Similar congruency effects 38 have been observed in the context of non-symbolic numerical comparison tasks in 39 preschoolers and school-aged children (Defever, Reynvoet, & Gebuis, 2013; Fuhs & McNeil, 40 2013; Fuhs, McNeil, Kelley, O'Rear, & Villano, 2016; Gilmore, Cragg, Hogan, & Inglis, 41 42 2016; Szücs, Nobes, Devine, Gabriel, & Gebuis, 2013). While most studies in preschoolers report congruency effects on accuracy rates (Fuhs & McNeil, 2013; Fuhs et al., 2016), studies 43 in early primary school years report both less accurate and slower responses on incongruent 44 trials whereby dot area and/or total surface area of the dots were among the manipulated non-45 numerical dimensions (Gilmore et al., 2013; Szücs et al., 2013). 46 Several studies have investigated the development of these congruency effects with age, 47 showing that age influences the amplitude of the difference in performance between 48 congruent and incongruent trials in non-symbolic numerical comparison tasks (Defever et al., 49 2013; Gebuis, Herfs, Kenemans, de Haan, & van der Smagt, 2009; Soltész, Szücs, & Szücs, 50

51 2010; Szücs et al., 2013). In particular, studies have reported larger congruency effects between school-aged children and adults. For instance Szücs and colleagues (2013) found a 52 larger congruency effect in 7-year-olds compared to adult participants, in a non-symbolic 53 numerical comparison task whereby numerosity could be either congruent or incongruent 54 with several non-numerical dimensions including dots' average size and total surface area. 55 Consistent with studies suggesting that congruency effects could reflect the role of inhibition 56 in numerical comparison tasks (Fuhs & McNeil, 2013; Fuhs et al., 2016; Rousselle & Noël, 57 2008), Szücs and colleagues propose that larger congruency effect in children could be due to 58 lower inhibitory control abilities (see also Defever et al., 2013 for a similar account). This is 59 consistent with the protracted development of inhibitory control from childhood to late 60 adolescence (Luna, Padmanabhan, & O'Hearn, 2010). 61 62 Recently, several authors have gone so far as proposing that inhibitory control is necessary for numerical development (Clayton & Gilmore, 2015; Leibovich, Katzin, Harel, & Henik, 63 2017, Szücs et al., 2013), either to develop numerical representations from a general sense of 64 magnitude (Leibovich et al., 2017) or to handle the interference between an innate sense of 65 number and the continuous dimensions of magnitude at all ages (Clayton & Gilmore, 2015; 66 see Cappelletti, Didino, Stoianov, & Zorzi, 2014 for a study in aging). 67 However, a few studies have failed to observe congruency effects, casting doubt on the 68 critical causal role of inhibitory control in non-symbolic numerical comparison. For instance, 69 70 Odic, Libertus, Feigenson, & Halberda (2013), and Odic, Hock, & Halberda (2014) failed to observe lower performance in trials in which number was incongruent with total cumulative 71 area, than in trials in which it was congruent, in children or in adults. 72

73 In order to clarify the role of inhibition in numerical development, it is crucial to precisely

evaluate the impact of inhibitory control processes in numerical comparison tasks. So far, the

rs efficiency to block irrelevant dimensions of magnitude in the stimuli has been assessed either

through a posteriori analyses of performances in incongruent trials (Fuhs & McNeil, 2013;

Gilmore et al., 2013) or via correlational analyses using seminal inhibitory control tasks (e.g.,

the inhibition subtest of the NEPSY-II, Keller & Libertus, 2015).

79

80 *The current study*

In the current study, we took a different approach to provide evidence for or against the role 81 of inhibitory control in numerical comparison tasks in 7-8-year-olds and adults, by devising a 82 negative priming paradigm. The logic of the negative priming paradigm is as follows: if one 83 84 needs to inhibit irrelevant information or distractors on a given incongruent item (i.e., the prime), the processing of that information (or distractor) on a subsequent congruent item (i.e., 85 the probe) should be impaired (i.e., longer response times or higher error rates) as compared 86 87 to a control condition in which the information to process on the probe is not related to the one to process (or to inhibit) on the prime (see Tipper, 2001). This paradigm, initially used by 88 Tipper (1985) to study inhibitory control processes at play in selective attention, was later 89 90 adapted to demonstrate the role of inhibition in various tasks, from classic color-word Stroop tasks (Dalrymple-Alford & Budayer, 1966; Pritchard & Neumann, 2009) to logico-91 mathematical reasoning tasks such as Piaget's number-conservation task (Borst, Moutier, & 92 Houdé, 2013; Houdé & Guichart, 2001). To provide evidence that a non-numerical 93 dimension of magnitude (i.e., size) needs to be inhibited to process numerosity in both 7-8-94 95 year-olds and adults, we adapted a numerical comparison task to a negative priming paradigm. Previous studies have shown that, in experimental contexts with such explicit 96 congruence/incongruence between number and non-numerical dimensions of magnitude, 97 98 preschoolers' performance could be very low on incongruent trials (Soltész et al., 2010). Given that negative priming effects can only be observed if incongruent prime trials are 99 performed correctly, we chose to test primary school children. This also ensured that we 100

101 would be able to base our analyses of negative priming on both accuracy levels and reliable reaction times, as is usually the case in the negative priming literature (Tipper, 2001; Neill, 102 Valdes, & Terry, 1995; Borst, Poirel, Pineau, Cassotti, & Houdé 2013). If both 7-8 year-olds 103 104 and adults need to inhibit the irrelevant dimension of size when comparing numerosities in incongruent items (i.e., dot array with more dots is smaller than the dot array with less dots 105 and thus size interferes with number), they should require more time and commit more errors 106 when congruent items (i.e., dot array with more dots is larger than the dot array with less 107 dots) are preceded by incongruent items than by neutral items (i.e., the two dot arrays have 108 109 identical size).

Given the protracted development of inhibitory control until late childhood and adolescence 110 (Luna et al., 2010), and following our hypothesis of a causal link between inhibitory control 111 and numerical comparison abilities, we should observe differences in the amplitude of the 112 negative priming effects in the context of the non-symbolic numerical comparison task 113 between our two age groups. Previous studies have shown that the amplitude of the negative 114 priming effect could reveal the efficiency of the inhibitory control processes at play in a 115 given context, by comparing primary school children and adults (e.g., Aïte et al., 2016; Borst, 116 Poirel, et al., 2013). In other words, if numerical comparison abilities are rooted in part on the 117 ability to inhibit an irrelevant non-numerical dimension of size, then the amplitude of the 118 negative priming effect should be smaller in 7-8-year-olds than in adults, due to lower 119 120 inhibitory control abilities in children than adults.

121

122 Method

123 Participants

124 Fourty-seven primary school children (23 girls and 24 boys, mean age = 7.92 years, SD =

125 .87) and thirty-two adults (21 females and 11 males, mean age = 27.86 years, SD = 6.13) with

126 normal or corrected-to normal vision, participated in this study. The proportion of males to 127 females did not differ between the two groups, $\chi^2(1) = 2.15$, p = .21. Children were recruited 128 in primary schools, and participated voluntarily after their parents gave informed consent. 129 Adult participants were recruited through a mailing list. They gave informed consent and 130 received 5 euros for their participation to the study. All participants were tested in accordance 131 with national and international norms that govern the use of human participants.

132

133 *Materials and Procedure*

134 Numerical Comparison Task Adapted to a Negative Priming Paradigm

The task stimuli were pairs of dot arrays, generated using Matlab and presented on the left 135 and right side of the computer screen. The participants were seated approximately 50 cm 136 137 from the screen. Each array of black dots was presented on a white circle (diameter visual angle of 8°) at a visual angle of 5.3° from a central-fixation cross. The sets of dots were 138 generated using the Number, Size and Spacing dimensions as defined by DeWind and 139 colleagues (DeWind, Adams, Platt, & Brannon, 2015). This allowed us to manipulate the 140 congruency between *Number* and *Size* while keeping the *Spacing* dimension constant. *Size* in 141 both arrays were either identical (neutral item), congruent (congruent items) or incongruent 142 with the number of dots (incongruent items). We used a 1:2 numerical ratio (8 vs. 16 or 9 vs. 143 18 dots) in prime items (i.e., neutral and incongruent items) to ensure a high level of 144 145 performance which is needed to run the analyses of the negative priming effects on the probe items. We presented 4:5 (12 vs. 15 dots) and 5:6 (10 vs. 12 dots) numerical ratios on the 146 probe items (i.e., congruent items). These ratios were chosen so that the difficulty level would 147 148 vary across the trials while keeping the total duration of the experiment acceptable for children (~5 min). For the incongruent and congruent items, following Salti, Katzin, Katzin, 149 Leibovich, & Henik (2017), we controlled the saliency of the non-numerical dimension 150

151 relative to the numerical dimension, i.e. the level of participants' reliance on non-numerical dimensions across trials, by equating the non-numerical ratio between two sets of dots to their 152 numerical ratio. Specifically, the *Size* ratio was always in a 1:3 ratio with the numerical ratio 153 (e.g. when the sets of dots are in a 1:2 numerical ratio, the Sizes in each set are in a 1:6 ratio, 154 and when the numerical ratio is 4:5, the Size ratio is 4:15). For neutral prime items, Size was 155 approximately halfway between the *Size* of the less numerous and more numerous arrays 156 across the congruent and incongruent items. Across all the items, the dot array pairs were 157 generated so that the percent difference in the occupied field area (defined by the minimum 158 159 bounding circle) between the two arrays was less than 10%. Each trial consisted in a primeprobe item pair. Incongruent prime items followed by a congruent probe item will be further 160 referred to as the test trials, whereas neutral prime items followed by a congruent probe item 161 162 will be referred to as the control trials. Each trial type (test and control) was presented 24 times (12 per numerical ratio). We added 8 filler trials consisting of the following 163 combinations of prime and probe items (one for each of the two numerical ratios used on the 164 probe items: congruent /incongruent, incongruent /incongruent, incongruent /neutral and 165 neutral/incongruent) to prevent the participants from noticing the pattern of incongruent, 166 neutral and congruent items between the prime and probe. Thus, participants performed 56 167 experimental trials (112 items) presented in a random order. 168

169

The participants were instructed to press one of two keyboard keys ("D" or "K") on the side of the more numerous array as quickly and accurately as possible. Each trial started with a gray screen (500 ms), followed by a fixation cross and two white circles (500 ms). The arrays of dots from the prime item were then presented in the white circles until the participant gave a response, for a maximum duration of 1000 ms, at which time they were replaced by a gray screen. As soon as the participant gave their response, the same series of events occurred for

- the probe item. A mask was presented for 2000 ms as soon as the participants provided a
- 177 response on the probe item to prevent transfer of processes between the probe and the prime
- 178 of the next trial (Figure 1).





183 The total duration of the task was approximately 5 minutes. The experiment started with 4

training trials (2 test and 2 control trials), using 1:2 numerical ratios for all of the items

185 presented and a feedback on the accuracy of the participants' response was provided.

186

187

188 **Results**

189 The data for one child was removed due to technical failure. We first removed individual

trials with RTs differing by two standard deviations from the average individual RT on either

- 191 the prime or probe items of the control or test trials, which corresponded to 6.7% of the total
- number of trials across all participants in the children group, and 7.9% of the total number of
- trials across all participants in the adults group. For each participant, we averaged the

194	proportion of correct responses and the response times (RTs) on items correctly performed,
195	separately on the prime and the probes of the control and the test trials. The data from three
196	additional children and two adults were removed due to overall accuracy rates (ARs) more
197	than two standard deviations below their age group's average, leading to a final analyzed
198	sample of 43 children and 30 adults. We verified that all the analyses described below
199	remained identical when including these participants back into the sample. We then
200	combined RTs and ARs by computing an inverse efficiency score (IES, Townsend & Ashby,
201	1978; 1983), i.e. by dividing participants' average RTs by their average ARs on the prime
202	and the probe items of the control and test trials. Note that in accordance with the logic of the
203	Negative priming paradigm, we only analyzed ARs, RTs and IES on the probe items
204	preceded by prime items performed correctly.
205	
206	Congruency Effects on the Prime items
207	In order to test for the presence of a congruency effect in the prime items, we first ran a 2 age
208	group (Children vs. Adults) x 2 congruency (Incongruent vs. Neutral) repeated measures
209	ANOVA on the IES (see Table 1 for descriptive statistics on the prime items).
210	
211	
212	
213	Table 1

214 Average and range of ARs and RTs (ms) for the incongruent and neutral prime items of the

215 *non-symbolic numerical comparison task*

	7-8-year-old	S	Adults	
	M (SD)	Range	M (SD)	Range
Incongruent prime items				
Ars	0.88 (0.12)	0.54 - 1	0.99 (0.04)	0.77 - 1

RTs	784 (223)	493 - 1661	492 (74)	349 - 685
Neutral prime items				
Ars	0.97 (0.05)	0.72 - 1	0,99 (0.02)	0.88 - 1
RTs	710 (175)	479 - 1397	475 (62)	358 - 633

216	
217	The analysis showed a main effect of age group, $F(1, 71) = 49.02$, $p < .0001$, $\eta_p^2 = 0.41$, with
218	lower IES in the adult group (M = 487, SD = 204) than in the children group (M = 827, SD = $(M = 827, SD $
219	204). The analysis also revealed a main effect of congruency, $F(1, 71) = 17.48$, $p < .0001$, η^2_p
220	= 0.2, with lower IES for the neutral items (M = 607, SD = 147) than for the incongruent
221	items (M = 708, SD = 292). We also observed a significant interaction between congruency
222	and age group, $F(1, 71) = 11.17$, $p = .001$, $\eta^2_{p} = 0.14$.
223	We then ran paired t-tests between the incongruent and neutral trials on both age groups
224	separately. IES was significantly higher for the incongruent condition than for the neutral
225	condition both for children (incongruent: $M = 918$, $SD = 368$; neutral: $M = 736$, $SD = 181$),
226	t(42) = 4.55, p < .0001, d = 0.934, and adults (incongruent: M = 498, SD = 76.2; neutral: M =
227	477, SD = 63), $t(29) = 2.64$, $p = .01$, $d = 0.523$. Finally, we computed a percentage change in
228	IES between neutral and incongruent items to compare the congruency effect between
229	children and adults while controlling for overall difference in IES. A t-test confirmed that the
230	congruency effect was larger in children (M = 23.8%, SD = 28.1%) than in adults (M =
231	4.25%, SD = 8.03%), $t(71) = 3.7$, $p < .001$, $d = 0.89$ (Figure 2).



Figure 2: Congruency Effect in children and adults. IES percentage change between the neutral
 and incongruent prime items of the non-symbolic numerical comparison task in children and adults.
 Error bars represent ± one standard error of the mean.

238 Negative Priming Effects: Analyses of the Probe Items

239 We conducted 2 age group (children vs. adults) x 2 trial type (test vs. control) repeated

240 measures ANOVA on the probe IES (see Table 2 for descriptive statistics on the probe

- 241 items).

- 251 Table 2

252 Average and range of ARs and RTs (ms) for the congruent test and control probe items of the

253 non-symbolic numerical comparison task.

	7-8-year-olds		Adults	
	M (SD)	Range	M (SD)	Range
Test probe items				
Ars	0.62 (0.23)	0.14 - 1	0.82 (0.12)	0.55 - 1
RTs	907 (260)	470 - 1871	681 (201)	435 - 1340
Control probe items				
Ars	0.79 (0.13)	0.5 - 1	0,85 (0.13)	0.52 - 1
RTs	819 (228)	412 - 1514	635 (173)	413 - 1224

²⁵⁴

The analysis revealed a significant effect of age group, with adults (M = 822, SD = 535) 256 showing overall lower IES than children (M = 1406, SD = 535), F(1, 71) = 20.99, p < .0001, 257 $\eta^2_p = 0.23$. Importantly, we observed a significant main effect of the type of trial (test vs. 258 control) with a smaller IES in the control (M = 924, SD = 330) than in the test (M = 1305, SD259 = 857) trials, F(1, 71) = 21.09, p < .0001, $\eta^2_{p} = 0.23$. There was a significant interaction 260 between age group and trial type, F(1, 71) = 12.45, p = .001, $\eta^2_{p} = 0.15$. 261 When performing paired t-tests looking at both age groups separately, we observed a 262 significant negative priming effect on IES for both children (test: M = 1743, SD = 1057, 263 264 control: M = 1069, SD = 355), t(42) = 4.91, p < .0001, d = 1.039, and adults (test: M = 867, SD = 352, control: M = 778, SD = 273), t(29) = 3.4, p = .002, d = 0.748. In addition, we 265 found that the amplitude of the negative priming effect computed as a percent change of IES 266 between the control and the test trials was larger in children (M = 61.8%, SD = 75.7%) than 267 in adults (M = 10.8%, SD = 15.4%), t(71) = 3.63, p = .001, d = 0.87 (Figure 3). 268

²⁵⁵



Figure 3: Negative Priming Effect in children and adults. IES percentage change on the probe
between the control and test trials of the non-symbolic numerical comparison task in children and
adults. Error bars represent ± one standard error of the mean.

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275 Discussion

276 Using a negative priming paradigm, we provided additional evidence for the role of

277 inhibitory control processes in non-symbolic numerical comparison tasks. First, consistent

with previous studies (Hurewitz et al., 2006; Szücs et al., 2013), we observed a congruency

effect on the prime items. Both 7-8-year-olds and adults performed significantly worse when

comparing two dot arrays in a 1:2 numerical ratio when Size was incongruent with

numerosity than when *Size* was constant across the two arrays.

282 Second, we observed significant negative priming effects both in 7-8 year-olds and in adults:

283 When comparing two arrays of dots in which numerosity was congruent with Size, the

284 performances were lower when the preceding item showed a conflict between number and

- 285 Size than when Size was identical in the two arrays of the preceding item. These negative
- priming effects provide evidence that 7-8-year-olds and adults inhibited Size to process
- numerosity in the incongruent prime items of the non-symbolic numerical comparison task.

Hence, our results demonstrate, first, that inhibitory control processes are required to block 288 irrelevant dimensions of magnitude during numerical comparison, impacting both the 289 performance on the current and the following item, in children at the beginning of primary 290 291 school and even in adults with a precise numerical acuity (adults can accurately perceive the difference between two numerosities in a numerical ratio up to 9:10). Second, we observe 292 that, for a given level of numerical difficulty, the amplitude of the negative priming effect 293 decreases between 7-8-year-olds and adults, supporting the idea that the ability to compare 294 numerosities could be rooted at least in part on the growing ability to inhibit an irrelevant 295 296 non-numerical dimension of Size, in line with a more general protracted development of inhibitory control (Dempster & Corkill, 1999; Harnishfeger & Bjorklund, 1994). This 297 decrease in the amplitude of the negative priming effect is consistent with the one reported in 298 previous developmental negative priming studies including negative priming adaptation of 299 logico-mathematical tasks (Borst, Moutier, & Houdé, 2013; Borst, Poirel, et al., 2012, 2013; 300 Houdé & Guichart, 2001). This is, however, in contrast with other studies having found either 301 302 no difference in negative priming between children and adults (Pritchard & Neumann, 2009), or smaller if not an absence of negative priming in children compared to adult participants 303 (Tipper et al., 1989). These discrepant findings could be accounted for by the different 304 inhibitory control processes involved in different experimental contexts. For instance, 305 Lechuga and colleagues (2006) have argued that a distinction should be drawn between 306 307 intentional and automatic inhibitory control. In our study, it is possible that the inhibitory control required to block the irrelevant, non-numerical dimensions of magnitude in the 308 numerical comparison task, is an automated process in adults, but not yet automatized in 7-8-309 310 year-olds, consistent with the idea of a development of numerical representation relying on a progressive ability to abstract number from non-numerical dimensions (Piazza, De Feo, 311 Panzeri, & Dehaene, 2018). In a study investigating the development of negative priming 312

313	effects between children, adolescents and adults, Pritchard and Neumann (2009) recommend
314	to correct reaction time data for age-related differences in overall response speed. We did so
315	in the present study by performing our analyses on a percentage change in IES, rather than on
316	absolute difference. Thus, our observed differences in the amplitude of the negative priming
317	effect cannot be accounted for by overall differences in reactions times between children and
318	adults. However, further studies investigating multiple age ranges between the ones reported
319	in the current study need to be conducted in order to fully describe the developmental
320	trajectory of the role played by inhibitory control in non-symbolic numerical comparison
321	judgements.
322	One limit of using negative priming paradigm is its applicability to very young population.

323 First, negative priming effects are usually reported on the basis of analyses of reaction times, 324 which are less easily collectable in preschoolers. Most studies investigating numerical comparison abilities in preschool children report analyses on accuracy levels, rather than 325 reaction times, which are often derived from button presses performed by the experimenters 326 themselves. Second, the logic of the negative priming paradigm requires to restrict the 327 analyses of performance on probe items preceded by correctly performed incongruent prime 328 items. Low accuracy scores on incongruent trials in preschoolers could have precluded the 329 analysis of a negative priming effect in this population. In the current study, we were able to 330 report negative priming effects calculated on the basis of IES in 7-8 year old children and in 331 332 adults having performed the same numerical comparison task, both in terms of presentation times and numerical ratios. 333

334

One could argue that participants are less efficient to compare numerosities in congruent items preceded by incongruent than neutral ones (i.e., negative priming effect) not because they need to inhibit *Size* in incongruent items but because neutral items are easier to perform

than incongruent ones which could in turn affect the level of internal confidence of the 338 participant (Odic et al., 2014). However, these hysteresis effects have been observed after 339 prolonged exposure to difficult trials, and not from one trial to the next, as in our task. 340 Moreover, our participants were not given any feedback on their performance, which has 341 been shown to be crucial to evoke such hysteresis effect during numerical judgment tasks 342 (Odic et al., 2014; Experiment 3). Additionally, negative priming effects have been observed 343 initially in the Color-Word Stroop task (Dalrymple-Alford & Budayer, 1966; Pritchard & 344 Neumann, 2009) in which test and control trials were equivalent in terms of the difficulty of 345 346 the primes (both items were incongruent), and differed solely by the color to be activated in the following probe items (either identical or different than the color inhibited in the prime). 347 Although the negative priming effects reported in the present study suggest that item size 348 349 must be inhibited in incongruent items to process numerosities in children and adults, further studies are needed to determine whether (a) other irrelevant dimensions must be inhibited too 350 and (b) whether the amplitude of the negative priming effect would also decrease with age 351 especially for irrelevant dimensions that remain highly salient throughout development. 352 Convex hull might be a good candidate to test this hypothesis given that its impact remains 353 relatively stable throughout development, unlike the impact of item size which decreases with 354 age (Gilmore et al., 2016). 355

356

357 *Conclusion*

Our study reports the first evidence of negative priming effects in numerical estimation tasks in 7-8-year-olds and adults, and thus provides an additional piece of evidence for the role of inhibitory control processes involved in basic numerical intuitions. Together with the observed developmental effect, our findings support the role of executive functions, and in particular of inhibitory control, in numerical development, by using a different 363 methodological approach. This is in line with recent accounts of numerical development (Gebuis et al., 2016, Leibovich et al., 2017), as well as with recent evidence showing that the 364 development of numerical skills relies on the ability to filter irrelevant dimensions of quantity 365 (Piazza et al., 2018). 366 Consistent with these accounts of numerical development, some studies have reported that 367 the association between numerical estimation and math could be explained by inter-368 individual differences in inhibitory control efficiency (Fuhs & McNeil, 2013; Gilmore et al., 369 2013; Merkley, Thompson, & Scerif, 2016; but see Keller & Libertus, 2015, for contradictory 370 results). Adapting numerical estimation tasks to a negative priming paradigm such as 371 described in our study allows measuring the ability to inhibit a specific irrelevant dimension 372 of magnitude (i.e. the dimension which is incongruent with numerosity in the prime items). 373 374 Adapting such method in preschool children (in particular, by ensuring high accuracy levels on the incongruent prime items) could provide an alternative way of measuring children's 375 inhibitory control abilities for specific irrelevant dimensions, allowing to subsequently 376 377 determine their respective predictive value for the development of more general mathematics skills. Our findings thus have important implications for the current debates regarding the 378 predictive value of numerical intuitions vs. executive functions for math achievement, by 379 providing tentative evidence for the latter. 380

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383 **References**

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