

# Binary climate data heightens perceived impact of climate change

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## ABSTRACT

For much of the global population, climate change appears as a slow, gradual shift in daily weather. This leads many to perceive its impacts as minor and results in apathy (the “boiling frog” effect). How can we convey the urgency of the crisis when its impacts appear so subtle? Here, through a series of large-scale behavioral experiments, we show that presenting people with binary climate data (e.g., lake freeze history) significantly heightens the perceived impact of climate change compared to continuous data (e.g., mean temperature). Computational modeling and follow-up experiments suggest that binary data elevates perceived impact because it creates an “illusion” of sudden shifts. This effect is robustly confirmed through multiple replications and an experiment with real-world freeze and temperature data. These findings provide a cognitive basis for the “boiling frog” effect and offer a novel approach for policymakers and educators to better communicate the urgency of climate change.

1 Human-caused climate change is already resulting in significant social, economic, and ecological losses<sup>1</sup>. However,  
2 these impacts are not felt uniformly across society. On the one hand, many regions are facing severe climate extremes  
3 daily—such as intense flooding, rampant wildfires, and widespread droughts<sup>2–5</sup>. On the other hand, a significant  
4 portion of the global population is currently experiencing only *slow* and *gradual* changes due to climate change,  
5 such as incrementally rising temperatures or sporadic climate-related disasters<sup>6,7</sup>.

6 The apparent mundanity of these gradual changes is leading to perhaps one of the most troubling outcomes related  
7 to climate change: growing indifference toward the crisis. Since most people’s climate change judgments are  
8 significantly shaped by their personal experiences<sup>8–14</sup>, and because most local climates are becoming unstable only  
9 at a gradual pace, societies are adjusting to worsening environmental conditions disturbingly fast<sup>6,15–17</sup>. For instance,  
10 a recent survey of Floridians found that many people were unable to detect five-year temperature increases, with  
11 their risk perceptions more strongly influenced by personal beliefs and political affiliation than by actual temperature  
12 changes<sup>18</sup>. This widespread inability to perceive gradual climate trends is often referred to as the “boiling frog”  
13 effect, and is giving a false sense of security to the public and lowering collective motivation to act<sup>19,20</sup>.

14 The slow burn of climate change raises an important question: how can we convey the urgency of the climate crisis  
15 when many of its effects seem so subtle and gradual? While the field has made significant strides in understanding  
16 the causes and consequences of the “boiling frog” effect, finding ways to break through the indifference remains a  
17 significant challenge.

18 In this article, we use a cognitive science lens to explore the psychological processes underlying the “boiling frog”  
19 effect and understand how to counteract it. We conduct a systematic investigation using large-scale behavioral  
20 experiments and computational modeling to explore how gradually changing climate data influences perceptions of  
21 climate change and identify which data patterns can counteract this effect.

22 To preview our findings, using a pre-registered behavioral experiment ( $N = 799$ ), we show that people perceive

climate change as having a greater impact when presented with binary climate data (e.g., historical trend of lake freeze) compared to continuous climate data (e.g., historical trend of mean winter temperature), even with matched correlation levels. This finding is robust and reproducible, as confirmed by multiple replication studies. A follow-up experiment ( $N = 398$ ) reveals that binary data enhances perceived impact because it creates an “illusion” of sudden changes, even when the underlying data shifts incrementally. To provide a cognitive basis for this illusion, we employ computational modeling and show that gradual shifts in binary data are more likely to be perceived as rate changes, while shifts in continuous data are attributed to variance. Finally, a follow-up experiment with real-world lake freeze and temperature data ( $N = 247$ ) shows that participants consistently perceive climate change as more severe with lake freeze data than with temperature data.

Together, these results suggest that binary climate data can amplify the perceived impact of climate change, in part by creating an illusion of sudden shifts, even when changes are gradual. These findings enhance our understanding of the “boiling frog” effect and offer a novel approach to making the gradual effects of climate change more salient to the public.

## Results

### Experiment 1: Climate change is more salient in binary climate data

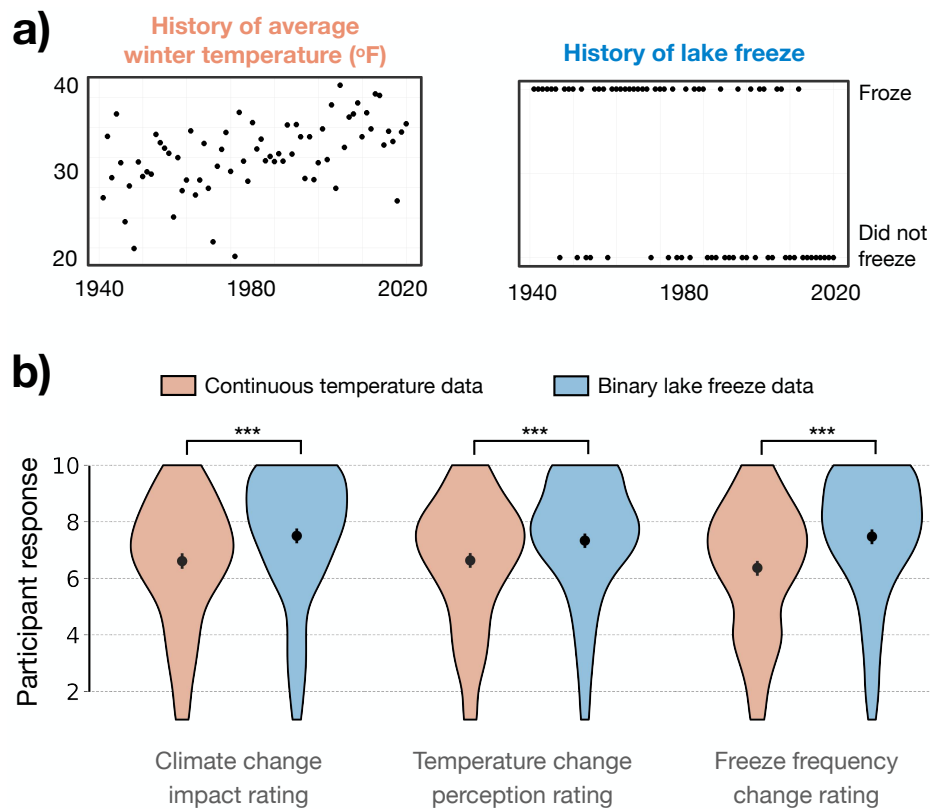
To investigate how gradual changes can be made more salient, we conducted a large-scale, pre-registered behavioral experiment ( $N = 799$ ), examining how binary and continuous climate data influence people’s perception of climate change. The pre-registration included the data collection protocol, stimuli, and the data analysis plan (<https://osf.io/75mp8>).

In the experiment, participants were first introduced to a fictional town called Townsville, known for its chilly winters and ice-skating activities on the local lake during the holiday months. Participants were then randomly assigned to one of two conditions: the “continuous” condition or the “binary” condition (see Methods for details).

In the “continuous” condition, participants viewed one of 18 graphs showing Townsville’s average winter temperature history from 1939 to 2019. In the “binary” condition, they viewed one of 18 graphs depicting whether the lake froze completely during the same period. Crucially, the graphs for both conditions were generated in pairs with matched correlations, ranging from 0.1 to 0.7 (see Methods). Figure 1a shows an example of a matched correlation pair (correlation = 0.47). After viewing the graphs, participants rated, on a scale of 1 – 10, their perceived impact of climate change on the fictional town, the extent of change in the town’s temperature, and their perception of change in the frequency of lake freeze.

Figure 1b plots the ratings of the participants in both conditions. We first found that the perceived impact of climate change was significantly higher amongst participants in the “binary” condition (mean ( $M$ ) = 7.5, s.d. = 2.3) compared to participants in the “continuous” condition (mean ( $M$ ) = 6.6, s.d. = 2.2;  $t(764) = 5.52, p < 0.0001$ ). This result was consistently observed across graphs of all correlation levels (see SI for details). Additionally, participants in the “binary” condition ( $M = 7.3$ , s.d. = 2.1), who viewed the lake freeze graphs, counter-intuitively perceived a stronger trend in increasing temperatures than those in the “continuous” condition, who viewed the temperature graphs ( $M = 6.6$ , s.d. = 2.2;  $t(764) = 4.48, p < 0.0001$ ). Finally, participants in the “binary” condition ( $M = 7.5$ , s.d. = 2.2) perceived the lake freeze frequency to have changed more significantly compared to those in the “continuous” condition ( $M = 6.4$ , s.d. = 2.3;  $t(764) = 6.86, p < 0.0001$ ).

To ensure the robustness of these effects, we conducted a replication study ( $N = 440$ ) and found that the perceived impact of climate change was again amplified in the “binary” condition compared to the “continuous” condition (refer to SI). To rule out a potential confound that participants might be failing to identify the increasing trend in the continuous data, we conducted a control experiment ( $N = 301$ ) where the scatterplot of the continuous data also included a trendline. Again, the perception of the impact of climate change was higher in the “binary” condition (see SI for details).



**Figure 1. Binary data elevates perceived impact of climate change** (a) Examples of graphs presented to participants in Experiment 1, showing the “continuous” condition (left) and the “binary” condition (right). Both graphs have the same correlation ( $= 0.47$ ). (b) Participants in the “binary” condition rated the perceived impact of climate change, temperature change, and freeze frequency change significantly higher than those in the “continuous” condition. The violin plots (colored areas) are kernel density estimations; the means are indicated by black dots, and vertical lines represent standard errors.

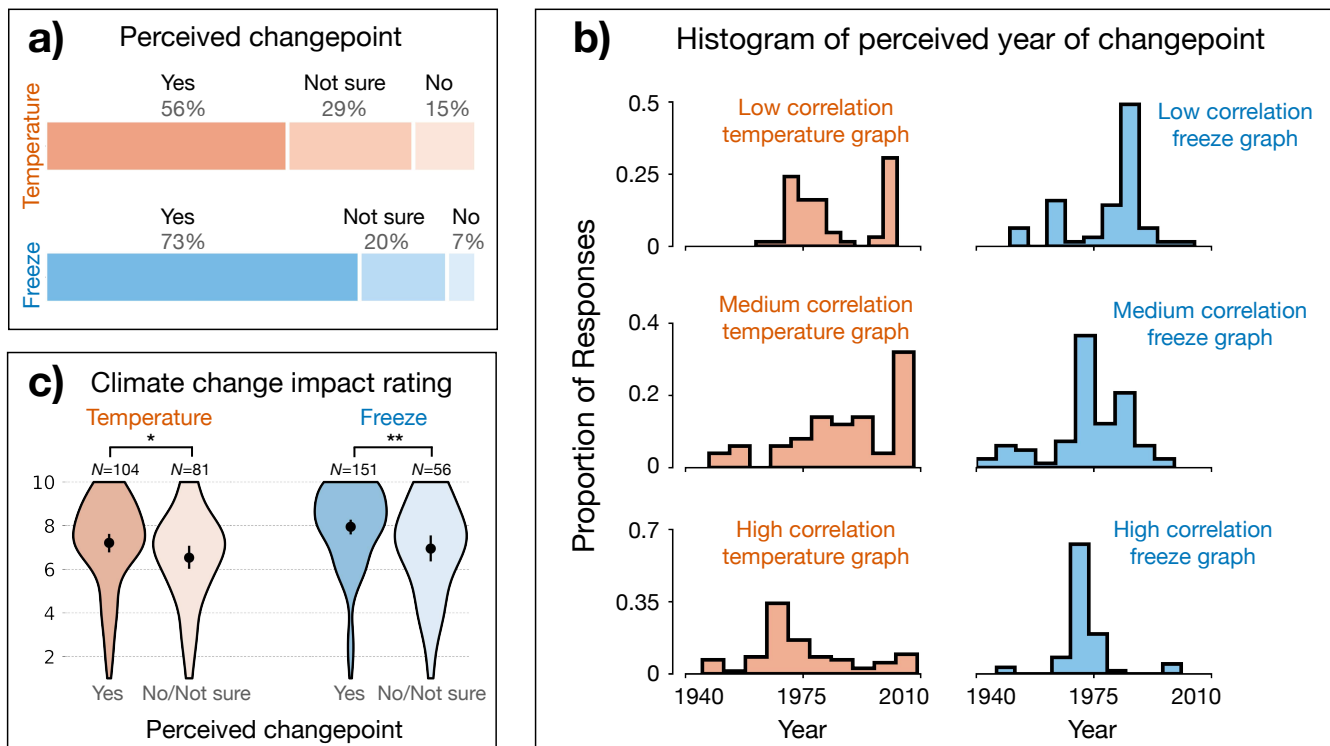
67 The above findings highlight the core takeaway of this study – people’s perception of climate change impact is  
 68 significantly heightened when viewing binary data compared to continuous data. This effect extends to both concrete  
 69 changes (i.e., increasing winter temperatures) and less tangible climate change impacts.

## 70 Experiment 2: Binary data creates an illusion of a changepoint

71 What might be causing people to perceive a greater climate impact in binary data? Various explanations exist,  
 72 including reduced mental effort<sup>21</sup> and increased emotional valence<sup>22</sup>, which we explore further in the Discussion.  
 73 In addition to these explanations, we propose that binary data may be further heightening perceptions of climate  
 74 change by creating an “illusion” of sudden shifts. This perceived abrupt change in binary data can make the impact  
 75 of climate events seem more pronounced.

76 Formally, a changepoint is defined as a point in a time series where there is a sudden shift in the parameters of the  
 77 data distribution, often marked by abrupt changes or jumps<sup>23,24</sup>. In our experiments, both binary and continuous  
 78 data were generated with a constant rate of change, meaning there were no actual changepoints or sudden shifts (see  
 79 Methods). We hypothesized, however, that people might perceive the binary data as having sudden shifts, which  
 80 could influence their perception of climate change impact.

81 To test this, we conducted a pre-registered behavioral experiment ( $N = 398$ ) to examine how people perceive  
 82 changepoints in binary and continuous climate data (pre-registration link: <https://osf.io/2sxer>). Similar  
 83 to Experiment 1, participants were introduced to a fictional winter town and randomly assigned to either the  
 84 “continuous” or “binary” condition (see Methods for details). In the “continuous” condition, participants viewed one



**Figure 2. Results of Experiment 2.** (a) Proportion of participants who responded Yes, Not Sure, and No to the question of whether a changepoint exists, shown for the “continuous” condition (top) and the “binary” condition (bottom). (b) Histograms displaying the frequency with which each year was identified as a changepoint across the three different graphs used in the two conditions. Participants had greater consensus regarding the changepoint locations in the “binary” condition. (c) Violin plots depicting participants’ ratings of climate change impact, separated by whether they identified a changepoint (Yes) versus those who did not or were unsure (No + Unsure), across both continuous and binary conditions. Means are marked by black dots, and vertical lines represent standard errors. The number of participants in each group is shown at the top of the plots.

85 of three graphs depicting the town’s average winter temperature. In the “binary” condition, they viewed one of three  
 86 graphs showing whether the lake froze completely over time. After viewing the graphs, participants first answered a  
 87 multiple-choice question on whether they observed a changepoint, defined as “any point which has a pronounced  
 88 deviation from the typical pattern of temperature/freeze data.” They then used a slider to select the year in which  
 89 they believed the data had undergone the most significant shift. Finally, participants rated their perceived impact  
 90 of climate change on the town, the extent of temperature change, and the frequency of lake freezing on a scale of  
 91 1 – 10.

92 Figure 2a shows the participants’ responses regarding whether they detected a changepoint in the data. Participants  
 93 in the “binary” condition (proportion = 0.73) were more likely to perceive a changepoint compared to those in the  
 94 ‘continuous’ condition (proportion = 0.56), as confirmed by a two-sample Z-test of proportions ( $z = -3.47, p <$   
 95  $0.0001$ ). Additionally, a higher proportion of participants did not perceive a changepoint in the “continuous”  
 96 condition (proportion = 0.15) compared to the “binary” condition (proportion = 0.07,  $z = 2.53, p = 0.011$ ). The  
 97 proportion of participants who were unsure about the existence of a changepoint was also higher in the “continuous”  
 98 condition (proportion = 0.29) than in the “binary” condition (proportion = 0.20,  $z = 2.05, p = 0.041$ ).

99 Participants who viewed the binary data also exhibited greater consensus on the location of the changepoints.  
 100 Figure 2b shows how frequently each year was identified as a changepoint in the different graphs for the two  
 101 conditions. The distribution of perceived changepoint years in the “binary” condition had lower entropy ( $H = 3.15$ )  
 102 compared to the “continuous” condition ( $H = 3.56$ ), indicating that responses in the “binary” condition were more  
 103 concentrated around specific years. A follow-up Levene’s test for equality of variances confirmed that the two

104 samples had different variances,  $F(390) = 31.91, p < 0.0001$ , with the ratio of the empirical variances being 0.489.  
105 This result suggests that there was greater agreement among participants regarding changepoint locations in the  
106 “binary” condition.

107 Participants’ perception of changepoints also influenced their reported impact of climate change (Figure 2c).  
108 Across both conditions, those who perceived a changepoint reported a higher impact of climate change ( $M = 7.65$ ,  
109  $s.d. = 1.96$ ) compared to those who did not perceive a changepoint or were unsure ( $M = 6.7, s.d. = 2.1; t(390) = 4.4$ ,  
110  $p < 0.0001$ ). This effect was evident in both conditions: In the “continuous” condition, perceiving a changepoint  
111 was associated with a higher reported impact ( $M = 7.21, s.d. = 2.0$ ) compared to those who did not perceive a  
112 changepoint or were unsure ( $M = 6.53, s.d. = 2.1; t(183) = 2.24, p = 0.026$ ). Similarly, in the “binary” condition,  
113 those who perceived a changepoint reported a higher climate impact ( $M = 7.95, s.d. = 1.9$ ) compared to those who  
114 did not perceive a changepoint or were unsure ( $M = 6.95, s.d. = 2.1; t(183) = 2.2, p = 0.013$ ).

115 These results suggest that when people perceive climate data as having undergone sudden shifts, then they are more  
116 likely to perceive greater climate impact. Binary data, in particular, is more likely to create the impression of abrupt  
117 changes, even when the underlying data shifts gradually. This tendency to perceive sudden shifts in binary data helps  
118 explain why people may perceive a greater impact of climate change compared to continuous data.

### 119 **Simulation 1: Simulating changepoint detection in binary and continuous data**

120 Why do people perceive sudden shifts in gradual binary data? Here, we develop a Bayesian model of changepoint  
121 detection and show that this optimal model is also prone to exhibiting this illusion. This is because gradual shifts in  
122 binary data are often attributed to changes in the underlying data distribution, while similar shifts in continuous  
123 data are attributed to the distribution’s variance. This suggests that the changepoint illusion is perhaps an inherent  
124 property of gradual binary data.

#### 125 ***An optimal Bayesian model of changepoint detection***

126 Consider the task of identifying where a pattern changes in a sequence of events. In binary data (e.g., coin flips), a  
127 shift might involve changing the probability of heads versus tails. In continuous data (e.g., temperature readings), it  
128 could mean a change in the average temperature. Using Bayesian modeling, we estimate these shifts by calculating  
129 the probability of a changepoint at each position.

130 Formally, let  $\mathbf{X}$  be a series of observations of length  $N$ . The decision-maker’s objective is to identify changepoints,  
131 where the statistical properties of the data alter. A changepoint  $\delta$  at position  $i$  indicates that the data before  $i$  follows  
132 a distribution with parameters  $\theta_1$ , and the data after follows a different distribution with parameters  $\theta_2$ <sup>25</sup>.

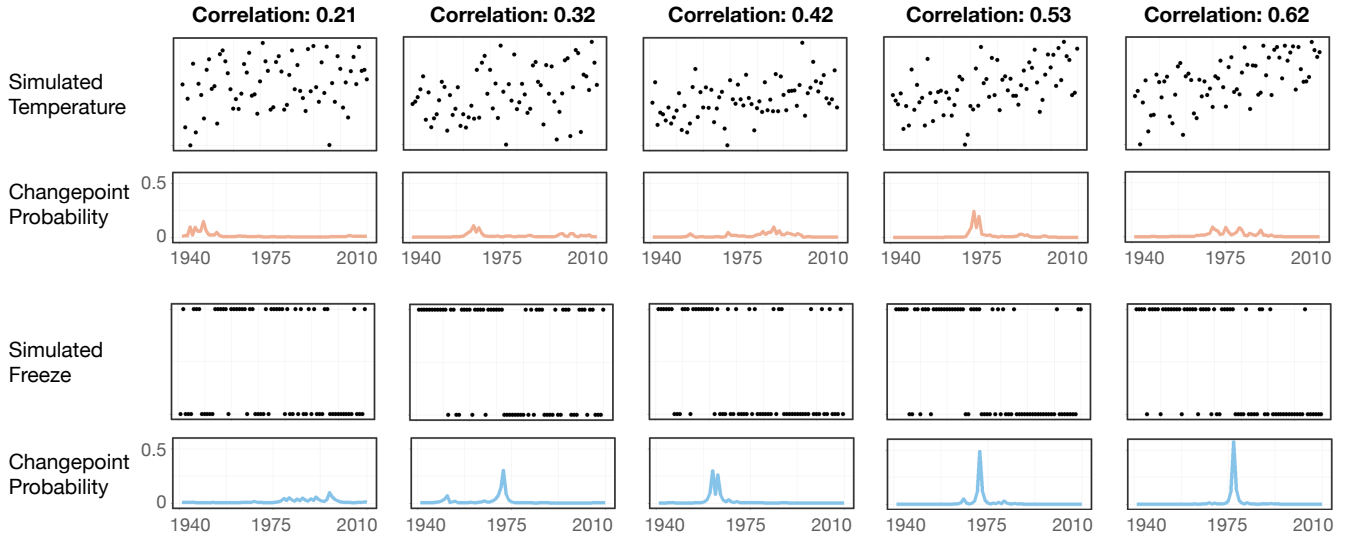
133 Given the observed data  $\mathbf{X}$ , the probability of a changepoint at  $i$  i.e.,  $P(\delta = i|\mathbf{X})$ , can be computed using Bayes’  
134 rule:

$$P(\delta = i|\mathbf{X}) \propto P(\mathbf{X}|\delta = i)P(\delta = i), \quad (1)$$

135 where  $P(\mathbf{X}|\delta = i)$  is the likelihood of the data given a changepoint at index  $i$ , and  $P(\delta = i)$  is the prior probability  
136 of a changepoint at index  $i$  before observing the data. Equation 1 allows the decision-maker to update their belief  
137 about the presence of a changepoint by considering both the evidence from the data and any prior assumptions about  
138 where changepoints might occur.

139 In the simplest case, the decision-maker *a priori* assumes that each point in time is equally likely to be a changepoint  
140 and uses a uniform prior for  $P(\delta = i)$ . The likelihood  $P(\mathbf{X}|\delta = i)$  depends on assumptions about the data’s underlying  
141 distribution.

For binary data, we assume a Bernoulli distribution, modeling outcomes with two possible values, such as success or failure. We further assume that each observation is independent and identically distributed (i.i.d.) within segments. If there is a changepoint at  $i$ , then  $\{x_1, \dots, x_i\}$  are sampled from a Bernoulli distribution with parameter  $\theta_1$ , and



**Figure 3. Simulation results.** An illustration of how gradual changes are perceived as sudden changes in binary data. The top panel shows the changepoint probability output of the Bayesian model for various correlation levels in temperature data. In most graphs, there is a somewhat uniform distribution of changepoint probabilities, with no specific concentration at any point. In contrast, the bottom panel shows that binary data results in more pronounced peaks in the changepoint probability distribution, particularly as correlation increases. Note that these are example illustrations and do not represent all graphs used in the simulation experiment.

$\{x_{i+1}, \dots, x_N\}$  are sampled from a Bernoulli distribution with parameter  $\theta_2$ . Using Equation 1, the probability for a changepoint at  $i$  in the binary setting can be calculated as follows:

$$P(\delta = i | \mathbf{X}) \propto P(\delta = i) \cdot \prod_{t=1}^i P(x_t | \theta_1) \cdot \prod_{t=i+1}^N P(x_t | \theta_2), \quad (2)$$

142 where  $\prod_{t=1}^i P(x_t | \theta_1)$  is the likelihood of the data  $\{x_1, \dots, x_i\}$  being generated from a Bernoulli distribution with  
 143 parameter  $\theta_1$  and  $\prod_{t=i+1}^N P(x_t | \theta_2)$  is the likelihood of the data  $\{x_{i+1}, \dots, x_N\}$  being generated from a different  
 144 Bernoulli distribution with parameter  $\theta_2$ .

For continuous data, we assume a Normal distribution, which is suitable for modeling continuously varying data like temperature readings. If a changepoint is present at  $i$ , the data before the changepoint is modeled by a Normal distribution with mean  $\mu_1$  and variance  $\sigma^2$ , and the data after  $i$  follows a Normal distribution with a different mean  $\mu_2$  and the same variance  $\sigma^2$ . The probability for a changepoint is calculated as follows:

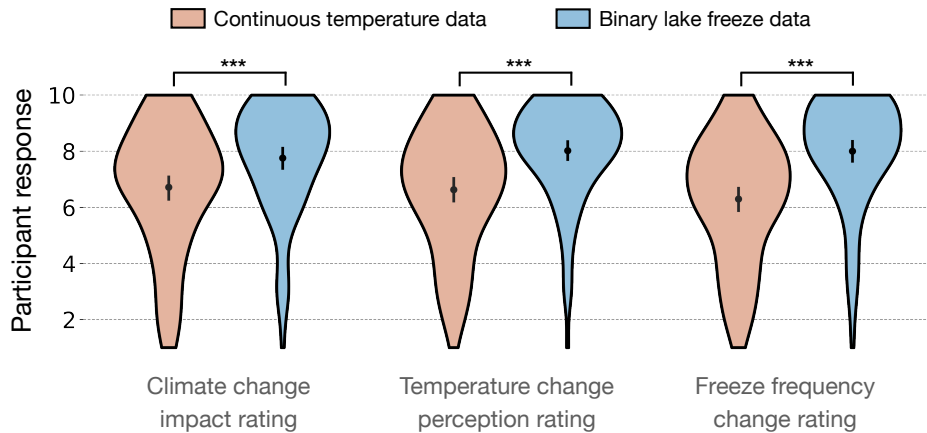
$$P(\delta = i | \mathbf{X}) \propto P(\delta = i) \cdot \prod_{t=1}^i \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}} \exp\left(-\frac{(x_t - \mu_1)^2}{2\sigma^2}\right) \cdot \prod_{t=i+1}^N \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}} \exp\left(-\frac{(x_t - \mu_2)^2}{2\sigma^2}\right). \quad (3)$$

145 Equations 2 and 3 enable us to calculate the probability of a changepoint at any point  $i$  for both binary and continuous  
 146 settings (refer to the SI for detailed derivations and final equations).

### 147 **Explaining the illusion of changepoints in binary data**

148 To simulate changepoint detection in binary and continuous data, we first generated 30 pairs of gradually changing  
 149 time series data (both binary and continuous) across various matched correlation levels, ranging from 0.1 to 0.7. We  
 150 then computed the changepoint probability for the different points in the data (using Equations 2 and 3).

151 Similar to the results of Experiment 2, we found that the entropy of the changepoint probability distributions for  
 152 the binary time series (mean Entropy = 2.9, s.d. = 0.8) was lower compared to the entropy of the changepoint  
 153 probability distributions for the continuous time series (mean Entropy = 3.3, s.d. = 0.5;  $t(58) = -2.79, p = 0.01$ ).



**Figure 4. Results of Experiment 3 with real-world temperature and freeze data.** Violin plots display participants’ ratings of climate change impact, temperature change, and freeze frequency change for the two conditions. Means are indicated by black dots, and vertical lines represent standard errors. Participants in the “binary” condition again rated the impact of climate change higher compared to the “continuous” condition.

154 That is, similar to the human participants, the Bayesian model is also more likely to detect changepoints in binary  
 155 data, as evidenced by higher probabilities and sharper peaks at specific points, alongside generally lower entropy.  
 156 As an illustration, Figure 3 plots the changepoint probability output of the Bayesian model for different binary  
 157 and continuous graphs across various correlation levels. The changepoint probability distribution exhibits more  
 158 pronounced peaks in binary data, and the model is more likely to detect changepoints in binary data, particularly as  
 159 correlation increases.

160 One key reason why the probability of changepoints is lower in continuous data is that gradual shifts are often  
 161 “absorbed” by the variance of the normal distribution. To further investigate this, we conducted an additional  
 162 simulation where we fitted the continuous data using a normal distribution with a variance significantly smaller  
 163 than the true variance of the data (we used  $\sigma^2 = 1$ , which is 2.6 times lower than the true variance). Here, the  
 164 model became more sensitive to subtle changes and resulted in a more peaked posterior distribution of changepoint  
 165 locations (refer to SI for details). This suggests that the apparent changepoints in binary data may be an inherent  
 166 feature of binary patterns, whereas continuous data, with its implicit variance, naturally smoothes out gradual  
 167 changes.

### 168 Experiment 3: The binary climate effect extends to real-world climate data

169 So far, to study people’s perception of climate change in binary and continuous data, we have used simulated data in  
 170 our experiments. To increase the ecological validity of our findings, we next conducted a replication of Experiment 1  
 171 with real-world lake freeze and temperature data.

172 We first gathered time series data on lake freeze and mean winter temperature for five intermittently-freezing lakes  
 173 that are at high risk of ice loss. To identify these lakes, we selected the five lakes with the strongest correlations in  
 174 lake freeze over time from a global database of intermittently freezing lakes<sup>26,27</sup>. We then extracted historical mean  
 175 winter temperatures for these lakes from the Berkeley Earth gridded temperature database<sup>28</sup>, matching each lake’s  
 176 latitude and longitude coordinates with the corresponding temperature grid box (see Methods).

177 Participants ( $N = 247$ ) then took part in an experiment similar to Experiment 1. In the “binary” condition, participants  
 178 viewed one of the five graphs depicting lake freeze history, while in the “continuous” condition, they saw one of the  
 179 five graphs showing winter temperature history. Unlike Experiment 1, where participants were informed that the  
 180 data came from a fictional town, this time, they received contextual information about the actual lake, including its  
 181 location and recreational activities offered in the lake (e.g., ice skating, ice fishing, or boating).

182 As shown in Figure 4, the perceived impact of climate change was significantly higher amongst participants in the  
183 “binary” condition (mean ( $M$ ) = 7.76, s.d. = 2.0) compared to participants in the “continuous” condition ( $M$  = 6.71,  
184 s.d. = 2.3;  $t(233) = 3.76, p < 0.0001$ ). Further, there was a significant difference in the perception of change  
185 in temperature between participants in the “binary” condition ( $M$  = 8.0, s.d. = 1.8) and “continuous” condition  
186 ( $M$  = 6.6, s.d. = 2.2;  $t(233) = 5.36, p < 0.0001$ ). Similarly, participants in the “binary” condition ( $M$  = 8.0, s.d.  
187 = 1.9) perceived the lake freeze frequency to have changed more significantly compared to those in the “continuous”  
188 condition ( $M$  = 6.3, s.d. = 1.7;  $t(233) = 6.28, p < 0.0001$ ). These results extend our findings to real-world lake  
189 freeze and temperature data, orienting our findings toward practical climate communication applications. We also  
190 refer the readers to the SI for a replication of this experiment.

## 191 Discussion

192 For a long time, many scientists, including the authors of this study, held onto the hope that when the impacts of  
193 climate change became undeniable, people and governments would finally act decisively<sup>7</sup>. Perhaps a devastating  
194 hurricane, heat wave, or flood—or even a cascade of disasters—would make the severity of the problem impossible  
195 to ignore, spurring large-scale action. Yet, our response continues to resemble the fate of the proverbial boiling  
196 frog, failing to notice the creeping danger until it’s too late<sup>19</sup>. The most unsettling possibility is that we might  
197 continue sleepwalking into disaster; the atmosphere will keep growing unstable, but not dramatically or fast enough  
198 to command sustained attention, allowing climate change to be treated as a gradual background noise.

199 Here, through multiple behavioral studies, we demonstrate that presenting climate data in binary terms can make  
200 the impacts of climate change more salient compared to continuous data. Gradual shifts in binary data often create  
201 the perception of sudden changes, amplifying the perceived impact. While our study shows how progress can be  
202 made in enhancing the salience of climate change—an essential first step toward more meaningful engagement and  
203 response—future work should investigate how this work can be extended to drive concrete action.

204 There are immediate practical applications to these findings, particularly in the design and visualization of climate  
205 data. An extensive body of research has studied the cognitive processes underlying effective visualizations<sup>29–32</sup>  
206 and highlighted the importance of effective climate data visuals<sup>33–38</sup>. Our study contributes to this literature by  
207 emphasizing the value of binary climate graphs and suggesting key research directions for improving climate  
208 communication.

209 Beyond its practical implications, our work also makes significant theoretical contributions, particularly in under-  
210 standing how people reason about change. Detecting and responding to changes is crucial for decision-making, and  
211 psychologists have extensively studied how people identify changes in data patterns and when they tend to underreact  
212 or overreact<sup>24,39–43</sup>. These studies typically involve detecting changes in non-stationary environments—where data  
213 suddenly shifts from one distribution to another. In contrast, our study examined data that gradually shifted over  
214 time without sudden changes. In doing so, we uncovered a novel bias: people perceive sudden shifts in gradual  
215 binary data more readily than in continuous data. This phenomenon is somewhat analogous to the “hot hand” fallacy,  
216 where people tend to see patterns in random sequences<sup>44</sup>. However, unlike the “hot hand” studies, which explore  
217 perceptions of randomness<sup>45,46</sup>, our study used clear, gradually increasing patterns and still found that people  
218 perceived abrupt changes in binary data. By focusing on how people interpret slowly changing data and identifying  
219 key biases in these patterns, our study enhances the understanding of change detection and response, complementing  
220 prior research focused on more abrupt or dramatic changes.

221 While our study primarily focused on how perceptions of changepoints might amplify the perceived impacts  
222 of climate change in binary data, it’s important to recognize that there are several other factors that could be  
223 contributing to this heightened perception. One reason may be that binary data graphs require less mental effort and  
224 are computationally easier to parse due to fewer value comparisons<sup>21,47–50</sup>. Another possibility is that lake freeze  
225 graphs might elicit stronger emotional responses than temperature graphs (e.g., people might relate more to the  
226 consequences of decreased freeze, such as fewer opportunities for ice-skating). This is consistent with research



227 showing that emotional valence affects climate judgments<sup>22,51–53</sup> as well as perceptions of changes and tipping  
228 points<sup>54,55</sup>. To investigate this further, we conducted an additional experiment ( $N = 200$ ; see SI for details) where  
229 we varied the emotional valence of binary graphs by using high valence (“Froze” vs. “Did not Freeze”) versus low  
230 emotional labels (“Above 29° F” versus “Below 29° F”) for the same binary data. We found that valence partially  
231 explains our results when trends were unclear. However, when trends were more evident, participants exposed to  
232 both high and low valence graphs perceived climate change impacts similarly. This suggests that, in cases of clear  
233 trends, the illusion of changepoints may play a more prominent role in driving the amplified perception of climate  
234 change.

235 One reason why perceiving changepoints in binary data might enhance the perception of climate change is that  
236 these changepoints can signal a tipping point, leading people to believe that significant changes have occurred<sup>54–56</sup>.  
237 Additionally, recent research shows that people have a “binary bias”, where they tend to categorize continuous  
238 data into binary terms, which then biases their decision-making<sup>57,58</sup>. Our study contributes to this literature by  
239 documenting a specific bias within the context of binary data perception.

240 While our study focused on how different formats of climate data affect perceptions of climate change impacts, it is  
241 also crucial to examine how people respond to these changes over time. A significant barrier to climate action is that  
242 people tend to rapidly adapt and habituate to worsening environmental conditions<sup>59,60</sup>. This tendency to adjust to  
243 new “normals,” whether positive or negative, is a pervasive aspect of human behavior<sup>61,62</sup>. Future research should  
244 explore how sensitivity to persistent environmental changes evolves and whether binary data patterns could help  
245 mitigate such adaptation. For instance, would people be less likely to become accustomed to a lake that has abruptly  
246 stopped freezing or a town that has suddenly become much hotter?

247 Another limitation of our study is that participants observed the data in a single sitting and processed it retrospec-  
248 tively. In real-world settings, people experience climate change not only retrospectively (e.g., via graphs or media  
249 communications) but also through their direct, lived experiences, encountering data incrementally over time rather  
250 than all at once. Future research should investigate climate change perception when data is presented sequentially, as  
251 this approach could more accurately reflect how individuals encounter and process climate information in their daily  
252 lives.

253 Combating climate change apathy is a vital step towards slowing the progression of warming. We posit that building  
254 a comprehensive understanding of how people reason about change is key to overcoming this apathy. Given that  
255 climate impacts are often non-linear and threshold-bound<sup>63,64</sup>, we need more strategic communication. Rather than  
256 warning the frog that the water is warming gradually, we should define a clear threshold for unacceptable conditions.  
257 It’s a straightforward binary variable.

## 258 **Methods**

### 259 **Generation of binary and continuous climate data**

260 For our experiments, we generated paired time series with 80 data points each across a correlation range of 0.1 to  
261 0.7. Each pair included a binary and a continuous time series with matched correlations.

262 To generate the binary data with the desired correlation, we employed an iterative algorithm that adjusted the slope  
263 and intercept of a linear model until the correlation fell within the specified range. The slope was determined  
264 through a linear search, and the y-intercept was set so that the probability of freezing was 0.5 at the midpoint of  
265 the time series, ensuring a smooth, gradual change in probability over time (refer to the SI for the algorithm’s  
266 pseudo-code).

267 For each binary time series, we generated the corresponding continuous data by applying a linear transformation to  
268 exactly match the correlation level (refer to SI for details). The transformed continuous data was then adjusted to  
269 match the mean and variance of winter temperatures from the Berkeley Earth dataset<sup>28</sup> for 31 intermittently freezing  
270 lakes<sup>26</sup>. All experiment stimuli and the code to generate them are publicly available here: <https://github.com>

271 [om/graliuce/climate\\_change\\_detection/tree/main/experiment\\_stimuli](https://github.com/graliuce/climate_change_detection/tree/main/experiment_stimuli)

## 272 **Experiment 1**

273 For the experiment, we first generated 18 paired time series across the correlation range of (0.1 – 0.7) for a total of  
274 36 time series. We then recruited 799 US-based participants from the online research platform Prolific and paid them  
275 US\$0.40 for participation (our study took approximately 2 minutes to complete). All experiments were approved by  
276 Princeton’s Institutional Review Board. For this and the following experiments, informed consent was obtained  
277 from all participants before the experiments began.

278 Following the pre-registered exclusion criteria, we removed participants who did not pass a simple attention check  
279 question or those who viewed the graphs for less than two seconds. This led to the exclusion of 33 participants,  
280 leaving a final sample of 766 participants ( $N = 379$  in the “continuous” condition and  $N = 387$  in the “binary”  
281 condition). Code for reproducing the results of all experiments is available here: [https://github.com/graliuce/climate\\_change\\_detection/tree/main](https://github.com/graliuce/climate_change_detection/tree/main)  
282

283 Participants were randomly assigned to either the “continuous” or “binary” condition. In the “continuous” condition,  
284 they viewed one of 18 continuous graphs, randomly sampled, with the y-axis labeled as mean winter temperature  
285 and the x-axis representing years (1939 – 2019). In the “binary” condition, participants saw one of 18 binary graphs,  
286 randomly sampled, with the y-axis indicating whether the lake froze and the x-axis showing years (1939 – 2019).  
287 After viewing the graphs, participants in both conditions were asked to provide, on a scale of 1 – 10, their subjective  
288 rating in response to the following questions:

- 289 1. In your view, how much do you think Townsville has been affected by climate change? (where 1 indicates  
290 “not affected at all” and 10 indicates “extremely affected”).
- 291 2. In your view, how much do you think the temperature of Townsville has changed in the last 50 years? (where  
292 1 indicates “remained the same” and 10 indicates “changed a lot”).
- 293 3. In your view, how much do you think the frequency at which the lake freezes has changed in Townsville in the  
294 last 50 years? (where 1 indicates “remained the same” and 10 indicates “changed a lot”).

295 Question 1 measured perceptions of the overall impact of climate change, while Questions 2 and 3 evaluated  
296 perceptions of changes in temperature and lake freezing frequency.

## 297 **Experiment 2**

298 For the experiment, we generated 3 pairs of time series, totaling 6 time series. Each pair covered a distinct correlation  
299 range: one with low correlation (0.1–0.3), one with medium correlation (0.3–0.5), and one with high correlation  
300 (0.5–0.7). We then recruited 398 US-based participants from the online research platform Prolific, paying US\$0.40  
301 for participation (the study took approximately 2 minutes to complete). Following our pre-registered exclusion  
302 criteria, we removed participants who failed a simple attention check or viewed the graphs for less than two seconds,  
303 resulting in the exclusion of 8 participants. This left a final sample of 392 participants ( $N = 185$  in the “continuous”  
304 condition and  $N = 207$  in the “binary” condition).

305 Participants then took part in an Experiment similar to Experiment 1, with two additional questions. First, after  
306 viewing the “binary” or “continuous” graph, participants were asked whether they observed a changepoint, choosing  
307 from “Yes,” “No,” or “Not sure.” A changepoint was defined as “a point showing a pronounced deviation from the  
308 typical pattern of temperature or freeze data.” Second, after answering this question, participants were then asked to  
309 use a slider to indicate the year where they noticed the most pronounced shift from the typical pattern.

## 310 **Simulation 1**

311 For the simulation, we generated 30 pairs of time series data across the correlation range [0.1, 0.7], with 5 pairs per  
312 interval of 0.1 correlation increase, for a total of 60 time series. We then used our model to compute the changepoint

313 probability for each point in every time series and evaluated changepoint detection performance between continuous  
314 and binary data.

### 315 **Experiment 3**

316 We recruited 247 US-based participants from the online research platform Prolific, paying US\$0.40 for participation  
317 (the study took approximately 2 minutes to complete). We removed participants who failed a simple attention check  
318 or viewed the graphs for less than two seconds, resulting in the exclusion of 12 participants. This left a final sample  
319 of 235 participants ( $N = 119$  in the “continuous” condition and  $N = 116$  in the “binary” condition).

320 This experiment aimed to replicate Experiment 1 using real-world lake freeze and temperature data. We first obtained  
321 publicly available ice-on and ice-off records for 31 intermittently freezing lakes across the Northern Hemisphere<sup>26</sup>,  
322 including freeze records for Lake Vattern from the NSIDC Global Lake and River Ice Phenology Database<sup>27</sup>. We  
323 then filtered the data to include only lakes with more than five no-freeze years in the 20th century, leaving 20 lakes.  
324 From these, for our experiment, we selected the five lakes with the highest correlations in freeze trends over time.  
325 Historical mean winter temperatures (December, January, February) for these lakes were extracted from the Berkeley  
326 Earth gridded temperature database<sup>28</sup>, matched to the lakes’ latitude and longitude coordinates.

327 Participants took part in a similar experiment to Experiment 1 but were given additional information about the lake  
328 relevant to the stimulus, including details about the location and recreational activities offered in the lake.

### 329 **Data Availability**

330 Anonymized participant data for all our experiments is available at: [https://github.com/graliuce/climate\\_change\\_detection/](https://github.com/graliuce/climate_change_detection/)  
331

### 332 **Code Availability**

333 The code to run the analyses and reproduce the figures is available on GitHub: [https://github.com/graliuce/climate\\_change\\_detection/](https://github.com/graliuce/climate_change_detection/)  
334

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