Online supplementary material: A memory-based judgment account of expectancy-liking dissociations in evaluative conditioning

Frederik Aust¹, Julia Haaf², & Christoph Stahl¹

¹ University of Cologne, Germany ² University of Missouri, MO

Reanalysis 1

⁸ Here we report an exploratory set of analyses of our Experiment 3 with different ⁹ exclusion criteria. The analyses replicate those reported in the main text but we included ¹⁰ participants who made no more than one incorrect response in the intermittent US identifi-¹¹ cation task—some participants reported accidentally clicking the wrong button—but we ¹² excluded the three participants who responded with the scale mid-point in CS pleasantness ¹³ ratings to all CSs.

Participants. For Experiment 3, we recruited 273 new participants. We excluded 17 14 participants who performed the category recognition task at chance level, that is, participants 15 who respond correctly to 25% or less of all category recognition questions, 25 participants 16 who gave more than one incorrect response to the identification task, three participants who 17 invariably responded with the scale mid-point in CS pleasantness ratings to all CSs, and one 18 participant who aborted the experiment. Thus, we stopped collecting data after 229 valid 19 participants. Participants mean age was 23.39 years (SD = 6.23), 164 were female, and 32 20 studied psychology or media psychology. 8 participants reported vision impairments; five 21 were red-green color blind, one had astigmatism and another had a blind eye. 82 participants 22 reported to have prior knowledge about the CS pictures. 23

On average, participants took 49.62 minutes (SD = 12.71) to complete the study.

25 **Results**

1

2

3

4

5

6

7

US expectancy. End-of-study US expectancy ratings were consistent with the intermittent ratings that we observed in Experiment 2. As in the previous experiments, we analyzed expectancies of the correct US but show a difference score between expectancy of positive and negative US in Figure 1. As predicted, we found strong evidence that the changes in expectancy of the correct US category across experimental contexts differed between acquisition and extinction learning schedules, $BF_{10} = 3.98 \times 10^{31}$. We observed

Correspondence concerning this article should be addressed to Frederik Aust, Department Psychology, Herbert-Lewin-Str. 2, 50931 Cologne, Germany. E-mail: frederik.aust@uni-koeln.de

this pattern irrespective of US valence (BF₀₁ = 451.78) and of whether US expectancy was assessed before or after CS pleasantness, BF₀₁ = 13.58. We, thus, analyzed all data and averaged across positively and negatively paired CS.

As predicted, expectancy for the correct US category increased from the first to the 35 second experimental context in the acquisition learning schedule (BF₁₀ = 19.42, one-tailed) 36 but decreased in the extinction learning schedule, $BF_{10} = 1.64 \times 10^4$, one-tailed. We found 37 strong evidence that participants expected USs despite the previous extinction procedure, 38 $BF_{10} = 3.54 \times 10^8$, one-tailed. Comparisons of US expectancy between participants whom 39 we asked to take into account both contexts versus only the second context provided only 40 weak evidence for a difference in both acquisition ($BF_{10} = 3.78$, one-tailed) and extinction 41 schedules, $BF_{10} = 3.47$ (one-tailed). There was no conclusive evidence to suggest that 42 there was any other effect of our manipulations, $BF_{01} \ge 1.66$. To conclude, participants 43 end-of-study US expectancies corresponded to CS-US contingencies and the intermittent 44 momentary ratings observed in Experiment 2 when we referenced and reinstated the learning 45 contexts. 46

Because we found no conclusive evidence for or against integrative judgments in 47 the preregistered between-participant comparisons of the second and the new contexts 48 we additionally compared the differences between acquisition and extinction schedules in 49 each context. In the first experimental context participants expressed markedly higher 50 US expectancies in the extinction than in the acquisition schedule, $BF_{10} = 1.33 \times 10^7$ 51 (one-sided). This pattern was reversed in the second experimental context. Participants 52 expressed markedly higher US expectancies in the acquisition than in the extinction schedule, 53 $BF_{10} = 9.91 \times 10^3$ (one-sided). Critically, we found some—albeit weak—evidence indicating 54 that US expectancies across both experimental contexts did not differ between acquisition 55 and extinction learning schedules, $BF_{01} = 4.53$. These additional analyses indicate that, like 56 the EC effect, US expectancy appeared to be resistant to extinction when we referenced 57 both learning contexts. Hence, we successfully elicited integrative US expectancy judgments. 58

CS pleasantness. We were able to replicate our findings from Experiment 2 without 59 repeated assessment of CS pleasantness. Referring to and reinstating specific experimental 60 contexts had the predicted effect on the EC effect dependent on the learning schedule, 61 $BF_{10} = 2.73 \times 10^3$, Figure 1. We observed this pattern irrespective of whether CS pleasantness 62 was assessed before or after US expectancy $(BF_{01} = 7.80)$ and, thus, analyzed all data. When 63 participants rated CS pleasantness in the new context at the end of the experiment, we found 64 evidence for an EC effect in the extinction conditions, $BF_{10} = 11.85$ (one-tailed). Moreover, 65 we found evidence that this EC effect in the extinction schedule was comparable to the EC 66 effect in the acquisition schedule, $BF_{01} = 7.06$ (one-tailed). When we compared participants 67 CS pleasantness ratings for the first and second context, we observed, both, the predicted 68 increase in the EC effect in the acquisition, $BF_{10} = 52.24$ (one-tailed), and the predicted 69 decrease in the extinction schedule, $BF_{10} = 20.84$ (one-tailed). In the extinction schedule, we 70 found some evidence indicating that the EC effect was not reduced when participants rated 71 CS pleasantness in the context of CS-alone trials compared to the new context, $BF_{01} = 6.24$ 72 (one-tailed). Participants' ratings in the second context provided some evidence, however, 73 that our learning procedure did not extinguish the EC effect completely, $BF_{10} = 72.51$. In 74 this experiment, we did find evidence indicating that the EC effect was larger in the context 75 of CS-US pairing trails than in the new context, $BF_{10} = 79.97$. Similarly, in the acquisition 76

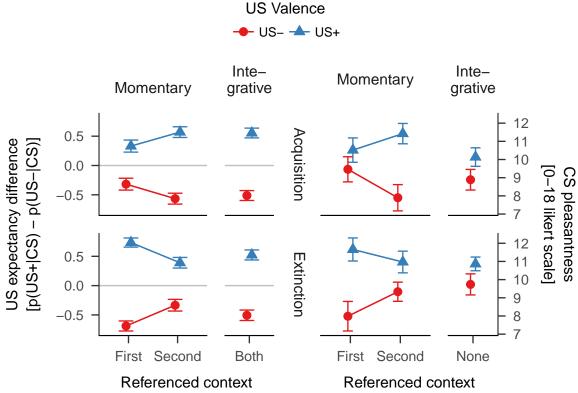


Figure 1. US expectancy and perceived CS pleasantness at the end of Experiment 3. The left plot shows observed differences in mean US expectancy for acquisition (top) and extinction (bottom) learning schedules. Expectancy for positive and negative USs is indicated by positive and negative values, respectively. The right plot shows observed mean CS pleasantness ratings for each learning schedule. Error bars represent 95% within-subject confidence intervals.

schedule, the EC effect was larger in the second context, in which CS were paired with US, 77 than in the new context, $BF_{10} = 19.29$. The comparison between the EC effect in the first 78 context (in which CSs were presented alone) and the new context, however, was inconclusive, 79 $BF_{01} = 1.70$ (one-tailed). We found no noteworthy evidence for any other effects of our 80 manipulations, $BF_{10} \leq 1.06$. In sum, we found comparable EC effects in the acquisition and 81 extinction procedures when participants rated CS pleasantness in a new context at the end 82 of the learning procedure. We did, however, also observe the predicted extinction effects on 83 nondefault momentary CS pleasantness judgments: the EC effect was larger in the context 84 of CS-US pairing trials than in the context of CS-alone trials. 85

In the first experimental context, participants exhibited a larger EC effect in the extinction than in the acquisition schedule, $BF_{10} = 84.68$ (one-sided). In the second experimental context, this pattern reversed: Participants exhibited a larger EC effect in the acquisition than in the extinction schedule, $BF_{10} = 10.54$ (one-sided). In this betweenparticipant design, the data were uninformative as to whether participants' prior knowledge about CSs affected these findings, $BF_{01} = 1.31$.

CS-US pairing memory. Again, US category recognition was quite accurate. As 92 predicted, we found that US category memory varied with referenced context and learning 93 schedule, $BF_{10} = 5.16 \times 10^{12}$. Unlike in Experiment 2, we found evidence indicating that the 94 recognition advantage for US absence was dependent on the learning schedule, $BF_{10} = 348.86$. 95 Participants best remembered that a US was absent in the acquisition learning schedule 96 (M = .87, SD = .28); however, memory for US absence in the extinction learning schedule 97 (M = .77, SD = .35) was comparable in magnitude to the memory for the correct category 98 when a CS had been paired with a US (M = .76, SD = .32, and M = .73, SD = .33 for 99 acquisition and extinction, respectively). We found no evidence on whether collecting US 100 expectancy or CS pleasantness first affected memory for CS-US pairings, $BF_{01} = 1.26$; we no 101 noteworthy evidence for any other effects of our experimental manipulations, all $BF_{01} \ge 1.26$. 102 US identity recognition, too, was quite accurate in both acquisition (M = .85, SD = .29) 103

and extinction learning schedule (M = .84, SD = .29). We found some evidence suggesting that memory for negative USs (M = .86, SD = .27) was better than for positive USs (M = .81, SD = .31) but there was no conclusive evidence indicating that any other experimental manipulation affected US identity recognition, all BF₀₁ ≤ 0.85 .

As in the previous experiments, end-of-study pleasantness ratings of US categories indicated that participants remembered the valence of the US categories, $BF_{10} = 1.63 \times 10^{165}$. Without any exemplars available, participants rated the animal category as more pleasant than the object category, $BF_{10} = 1.40 \times 10^{35}$, and human category as less pleasant than object category, $BF_{10} = 2.10 \times 10^{88}$. Thus, recognition memory for US categories may be indicative or participants US valence memory.

As in the previous experiments, memory for CS-US pairings was too accurate to test whether the observed changes in CS pleasantness across contexts in the two learning schedules was contingent on memory for CS-US pairs.

117

Reanalysis 2

Here we report a second exploratory set of analyses of our Experiment 3 with different exclusion criteria. The analyses replicate those reported in the main text but we included participants who respond correctly to 25% or less of all category recognition questions.

Participants. For Experiment 3, we recruited 273 new participants. We excluded 57 participants who gave more than one incorrect response to the identification task and one participant who aborted the experiment. Thus, we stopped collecting data after 215 valid participants. Participants mean age was 23.72 years (SD = 6.56), 154 were female, and 32 studied psychology or media psychology. 7 participants reported vision impairments; five were red-green color blind, one had astigmatism and another had a blind eye. 79 participants reported to have prior knowledge about the CS pictures.

128

On average, participants took 49.62 minutes (SD = 12.71) to complete the study.

129 **Results**

US expectancy. End-of-study US expectancy ratings were consistent with the intermittent ratings that we observed in Experiment 2. As in the previous experiments, we analyzed expectancies of the correct US but show a difference score between expectancy of positive and negative US in Figure ??. As predicted, we found strong evidence that the changes in expectancy of the correct US category across experimental contexts differed between acquisition and extinction learning schedules, $BF_{10} = 2.03 \times 10^{31}$. We observed this pattern irrespective of US valence ($BF_{01} = 230.24$) and of whether US expectancy was assessed before or after CS pleasantness, $BF_{01} = 32.85$. We, thus, analyzed all data and averaged across positively and negatively paired CS.

As predicted, expectancy for the correct US category increased from the first to the 139 second experimental context in the acquisition learning schedule (BF₁₀ = 10.40, one-tailed) 140 but decreased in the extinction learning schedule, $BF_{10} = 3.89 \times 10^3$, one-tailed. We found 141 strong evidence that participants expected USs despite the previous extinction procedure. 142 $BF_{10} = 3.49 \times 10^5$, one-tailed. Comparisons of US expectancy between participants whom 143 we asked to take into account both contexts versus only the second context provided only 144 weak evidence for a difference in both acquisition ($BF_{10} = 1.79$, one-tailed) and extinction 145 schedules, $BF_{10} = 1.65$ (one-tailed). There was no conclusive evidence to suggest that 146 there was any other effect of our manipulations, $BF_{01} \ge 1.61$. To conclude, participants 147 end-of-study US expectancies corresponded to CS-US contingencies and the intermittent 148 momentary ratings observed in Experiment 2 when we referenced and reinstated the learning 149 contexts. 150

Because we found no conclusive evidence for or against integrative judgments in 151 the preregistered between-participant comparisons of the second and the new contexts 152 we additionally compared the differences between acquisition and extinction schedules in 153 each context. In the first experimental context participants expressed markedly higher 154 US expectancies in the extinction than in the acquisition schedule, $BF_{10} = 8.68 \times 10^6$ 155 (one-sided). This pattern was reversed in the second experimental context. Participants 156 expressed markedly higher US expectancies in the acquisition than in the extinction schedule, 157 $BF_{10} = 4.72 \times 10^3$ (one-sided). Critically, we found some—albeit weak—evidence indicating 158 that US expectancies across both experimental contexts did not differ between acquisition 159 and extinction learning schedules, $BF_{01} = 5.35$. These additional analyses indicate that, like 160 the EC effect, US expectancy appeared to be resistant to extinction when we referenced 161 both learning contexts. Hence, we successfully elicited integrative US expectancy judgments. 162

CS pleasantness. We were able to replicate our findings from Experiment 2 without 163 repeated assessment of CS pleasantness. Referring to and reinstating specific experimental 164 contexts had the predicted effect on the EC effect dependent on the learning schedule, 165 $BF_{10} = 587.34$, Figure ??. We observed this pattern irrespective of whether CS pleasantness 166 was assessed before or after US expectancy $(BF_{01} = 8.19)$ and, thus, analyzed all data. When 167 participants rated CS pleasantness in the new context at the end of the experiment, we found 168 evidence for an EC effect in the extinction conditions, $BF_{10} = 11.60$ (one-tailed). Moreover, 169 we found evidence that this EC effect in the extinction schedule was comparable to the EC 170 effect in the acquisition schedule, $BF_{01} = 7.03$ (one-tailed). When we compared participants 171 CS pleasantness ratings for the first and second context, we observed, both, the predicted 172 increase in the EC effect in the acquisition, $BF_{10} = 33.83$ (one-tailed), and the predicted 173 decrease in the extinction schedule, $BF_{10} = 11.87$ (one-tailed). In the extinction schedule, we 174 found some evidence indicating that the EC effect was not reduced when participants rated 175 CS pleasantness in the context of CS-alone trials compared to the new context, $BF_{01} = 3.75$ 176 (one-tailed). Participants' ratings in the second context provided some evidence, however, 177 that our learning procedure did not extinguish the EC effect completely, $BF_{10} = 7.13$. In 178

this experiment, we did find evidence indicating that the EC effect was larger in the context 179 of CS-US pairing trails than in the new context, $BF_{10} = 10.48$. Similarly, in the acquisition 180 schedule, the EC effect was larger in the second context, in which CS were paired with US, 181 than in the new context, $BF_{10} = 15.56$. The comparison between the EC effect in the first 182 context (in which CSs were presented alone) and the new context, however, was inconclusive, 183 $BF_{01} = 1.80$ (one-tailed). We found no noteworthy evidence for any other effects of our 184 manipulations, $BF_{10} \leq 2.35$. In sum, we found comparable EC effects in the acquisition and 185 extinction procedures when participants rated CS pleasantness in a new context at the end 186 of the learning procedure. We did, however, also observe the predicted extinction effects on 187 nondefault momentary CS pleasantness judgments: the EC effect was larger in the context 188 of CS-US pairing trials than in the context of CS-alone trials. 189

In the first experimental context, participants exhibited a larger EC effect in the extinction than in the acquisition schedule, $BF_{10} = 9.62$ (one-sided). In the second experimental context, this pattern reversed: Participants exhibited a larger EC effect in the acquisition than in the extinction schedule, $BF_{10} = 45.05$ (one-sided). In this between-participant design, the data were uninformative as to whether participants' prior knowledge about CSs affected these findings, $BF_{10} = 1.69$.

CS-US pairing memory. Again, US category recognition was quite accurate. As 196 predicted, we found that US category memory varied with referenced context and learning 197 schedule, $BF_{10} = 1.34 \times 10^9$. Unlike in Experiment 2, we found evidence indicating that the 198 recognition advantage for US absence was dependent on the learning schedule, $BF_{10} = 247.78$. 199 Participants best remembered that a US was absent in the acquisition learning schedule 200 (M = .84, SD = .32); however, memory for US absence in the extinction learning schedule 201 (M = .74, SD = .37) was comparable in magnitude to the memory for the correct category 202 when a CS had been paired with a US (M = .73, SD = .33, and M = .71, SD = .34 for 203 acquisition and extinction, respectively). We found no evidence on whether collecting US 204 expectancy or CS pleasantness first affected memory for CS-US pairings, $BF_{01} = 11.34$; 205 we no noteworthy evidence for any other effects of our experimental manipulations, all 206 $BF_{01} > 5.75.$ 207

US identity recognition, too, was quite accurate in both acquisition (M = .81, SD = .32)and extinction learning schedule (M = .81, SD = .31). We found some evidence suggesting that memory for negative USs (M = .83, SD = .30) was better than for positive USs (M = .79, SD = .32) but there was no conclusive evidence indicating that any other experimental manipulation affected US identity recognition, all BF₀₁ ≤ 1.33 .

As in the previous experiments, end-of-study pleasantness ratings of US categories indicated that participants remembered the valence of the US categories, $BF_{10} = 6.08 \times 10^{160}$. Without any exemplars available, participants rated the animal category as more pleasant than the object category, $BF_{10} = 2.35 \times 10^{38}$, and human category as less pleasant than object category, $BF_{10} = 2.00 \times 10^{83}$. Thus, recognition memory for US categories is indicative or participants US valence memory.

As in the previous experiments, memory for CS-US pairings was too accurate to test whether the observed changes in CS pleasantness across contexts in the two learning schedules was contingent on memory for CS-US pairs.

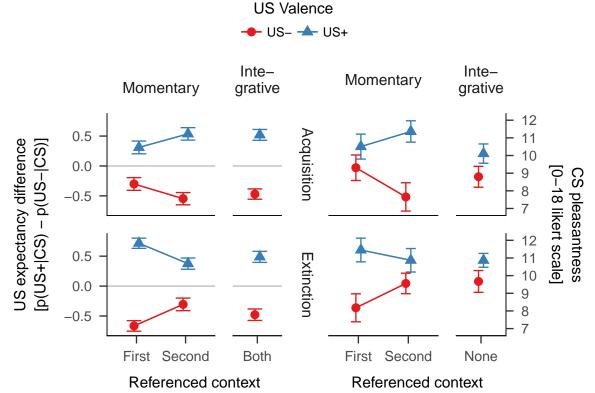


Figure 2. US expectancy and perceived CS pleasantness at the end of Experiment 3. The left plot shows observed differences in mean US expectancy for acquisition (top) and extinction (bottom) learning schedules. Expectancy for positive and negative USs is indicated by positive and negative values, respectively. The right plot shows observed mean CS pleasantness ratings for each learning schedule. Error bars represent 95% within-subject confidence intervals.