

The Effects of Payoff Manipulations on Temporal Bisection Performance

by

Başak Akdoğan

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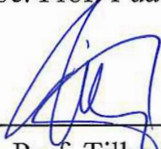
Başak Akdoğan

and have found that it is complete and satisfactory in all respects,
and that any and all revisions required by the final
examining committee have been made.

Committee Members:



Assoc. Prof. Fuat Balci



Asst. Prof. Tilbe Göksun



Asst. Prof. Mustafa Zeki

Date:

14/09/2015

STATEMENT OF AUTHORSHIP

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Başak Akdoğan

ABSTRACT

There is growing evidence that alterations in reward rates modify timing behavior demonstrating the role of motivational factors in interval timing. This study aimed to investigate the effects of manipulations of rewards and penalties on temporal bisection performance in humans. Participants were trained to classify experienced time intervals as short or long based on the reference durations. Two groups of participants were tested under three different bias conditions in which either the relative reward magnitude or penalty associated with correct or incorrect categorizations of short and long reference durations was manipulated. Participants adapted their choice behavior (i.e., psychometric functions shifted) based on these payoff manipulations in directions predicted by reward maximization. The signal detection theory-based analysis of the data revealed that payoff contingencies affected the response bias parameter (B'') without altering participants' sensitivity (A') to temporal distances. Finally, the response time (RT) analysis showed that short categorization RTs increased, whereas long categorization RTs decreased as a function of stimulus durations. However, overall RTs did not exhibit any modulation in response to payoff manipulations. Taken together, this study provides additional support for the effects of motivational variables on temporal decision-making.

Keywords: interval timing, motivation, optimality, temporal bisection

ÖZET

Ödül oranlarındaki değişimlerin zamanlama davranışını etkilediğine yönelik bulgular motivasyonel faktörlerin aralık zamanlama fonksiyonundaki önemini ortaya koymaktadır. Bu çalışma kayıp ve kazanç manipülasyonlarının insanların süre ayırıştırması performansı üzerindeki etkilerini incelemeyi amaçlamıştır. Katılımcılara deneyimledikleri süre aralıklarını, belirli referans sürelerle olan benzerliklerine göre kısa ve uzun olarak ayırıştırmaları öğretilmiştir. İki grup katılımcı, kısa ve uzun referans sürelerle dair yapılan doğru ayırıştırmalar ile elde edilen kazancın veya yanlış ayırıştırmaların yol açtığı ödül kaybının değiştirildiği üç farklı durumda test edilmiştir. Psikometrik fonksiyonlarda meydana gelen değişimler ile katılımcıların karar oranlarını kazanç manipülasyonlarına bağlı olarak ve ödül maksimizasyonu tarafından tahmin edilen yönlerde uyarladıkları bulunmuştur. Sinyal tespit teorisi (signal detection theory) çerçevesinde yapılan analizler, kazanç manipülasyonlarının yanıt eğilimi parametresinde (B') değişikliğe yol açarken katılımcıların zamansal mesafeleri ayırıştırmalarına ilişkin hassasiyet seviyelerini (A') etkilemediğine işaret etmektedir. Son olarak, tepki sürelerinin (TS) uyaran süresine bağlı gösterdiği değişime bakıldığında, kısa ayırıştırmaları ile ilişkili TS'lerin geçen süreyle arttığı, uzun ayırıştırmaları ile ilişkili TS'lerin azaldığı bulunmuştur. Buna karşın, tepki sürelerinde kazanç manipülasyonlarına bağlı olarak genel bir değişim gözlenmemiştir. Bu çalışma bütünüyle motivasyonel faktörlerin zamansal karar-verme süreçleri üzerindeki etkilerini destekler niteliktedir.

Anahtar Sözcükler: aralık zamanlama, motivasyon, optimalite, süre ayırıştırması

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Organisms are equipped with a mechanism that enables the timing of intervals across timescales of seconds and minutes, which is denoted as interval timing (Buhusi & Meck, 2005). Research on interval timing suggests that the characteristics of timed response patterns are sensitive to experimental manipulations that presumably affect the motivational states of subjects (e.g., Balçı, 2014; Galtress, Marshall, & Kirkpatrick, 2012). For instance, changes in the payoff structures can yield facilitatory effects on timing behavior (Avlar, Kahn, Jensen, Kandel, Simpson, & Balsam, 2015; Çavdaroğlu, Zeki, & Balçı, 2014), expected reward magnitude can modulate the time to initiate anticipatory responding as evidenced by shifts in the timed response curves (e.g., Ludvig, Balçı, & Spetch, 2011; Galtress & Kirkpatrick, 2009; Ludvig, Conover, & Shizgal, 2007), or pre-feeding might lead to the flattening of the timed response curves (Ward & Odum, 2007). However, since previous research investigating motivational factors on timing performance was mostly carried out with nonhuman animals (also see Bizo & White, 1994, 1995; Grace & Nevin, 2000; Guilhardi, MacInnis, Church, & Machado, 2007), how the same factors (e.g., payoff) affect human timing performance remains relatively unclear (but see Balçı, Freestone, & Gallistel, 2009; Balçı, Wiener, Çavdaroğlu, & Coslett, 2013; Çavdaroğlu et al., 2014; Wearden & Grindrod, 2003). This study aims to fill this gap by investigating the changes in the temporal discrimination performance of humans as a function of either the reward or penalty attributed differentially to correct and incorrect categorizations of durations.

A common procedure for studying interval timing performance is the temporal bisection task (e.g., Church & Deluty, 1977). This method requires the classification of a set of time intervals as short and long based on their subjective temporal similarity to previously

acquired reference durations. Temporal categorizations in this task rely on both retrospective and prospective decision dynamics (Balçı & Simen, 2014), and yield a variety of measures including choice proportions, the imprecision characteristics of temporal judgments as well as the response times associated with different temporal judgments (a relatively more recently appreciated behavioral endpoint of temporal bisection). Given the advantages of this versatile method, the present study aimed to fill the empirical gap that relates to the lack of studies investigating payoff effects on temporal bisection performance of humans. In addition, as recent research conducted with nonhuman animals produced evident but inconsistent biasing effects of reward magnitude on the shifts in choices and noise characteristics of timed responses in the temporal bisection task (e.g., Avlar et al., 2015; Galtress & Kirkpatrick, 2010), we were further motivated to delineate the adjustments in temporal choice behavior under asymmetrical payoff matrices.

Despite discrepancies in the reported outcomes of reward manipulations in the temporal bisection procedure, motivation-mediated changes in temporal choices implicate an important role for non-temporal factors in time-based responses. Probabilistic information regarding the occurrence of different standard durations is another such parameter that has been shown to shape temporal bisection performance by leading participants to prefer one temporal choice over another (Akdoğan & Balçı, 2015; Çoşkun et al., 2015; Jozefowicz et al., 2014). Although similar payoff and stimulus probability manipulations have been shown to produce biasing effects in perceptual decision-making (e.g., Hanks, Mazurek, Kiani, Hopp, & Shadlen, 2011; Leite & Ratcliff, 2011; Mulder, Wagenmakers, Ratcliff, Boekel, & Forstmann, 2012; Noorbaloochi, Sharon, & McClelland, 2015; Simen et al., 2009), several studies posited systematic differences in the integration of these two sources of information into choices which led to varying degrees of bias (e.g., Lynn & Barrett, 2014; Maddox & Bohil, 1998; Mulder et al., 2012). Therefore, the investigation of whether unbalanced payoffs yield similar

adaptive changes in temporal decisions and associated response times as those manifested due to stimulus probabilities (Akdoğan & Balcı, 2015; Çoşkun et al., 2015; Jozefowicz, 2014) is useful in understanding how these exogenous factors impact temporal judgments.

Temporal decision-making is also susceptible to substantial internal temporal uncertainty (for review see Balcı et al., 2011). An integral component of interval timing ability is indeed the imprecision exhibited in timing behavior despite the, on average, high accuracy in timed responses. The scalar property of interval timing defines this feature, and assumes that the standard deviation of time estimates grows proportionally to their mean as indicated by constant coefficient of variations (CVs) within individual subjects (Gibbon, 1977). Therefore, the investigation of the effects of rewards and penalties on timing behavior should also incorporate timing uncertainty (as indexed by CV values) to understand how payoff contingencies and internal timing imprecision produce concomitant changes in temporal choice behavior.

One such framework that is based on the statistical decision theory evaluates the optimality of timing performance when it is essential to assess (1) the presentation probability of standard durations (stimulus probabilities), (2) gains and losses attributed to different response outcomes, and (3) the levels of internal timing uncertainty to achieve reward maximization (Balcı et al., 2009, 2011). In light of the previous work showing both humans and nonhuman animals are indeed able to adopt reward-maximizing temporal strategies (e.g., Akdoğan & Balcı, 2015; Balcı et al., 2009; Çavdaroğlu et al., 2014; Çoşkun et al., 2015; Kheifets & Gallistel, 2012; Jazayeri & Shadlen, 2010), we also evaluated the optimality of temporal decisions under varying payoff structures in the temporal bisection task.

Specifically, we manipulated either the relative reward or penalty associated with correct and incorrect short and long categorizations, respectively. In one group of participants we altered the gain for correct categorizations of the reference durations and in another group,

we manipulated the loss associated with incorrect categorizations of reference durations across three different experimental sessions. We expected the participants to be biased towards the temporal options associated with higher reward magnitude for correct categorizations or with higher penalty for incorrect categorizations. The effects of these critical manipulations were quantified in terms of changes in the choice proportions, the sensitivity and response bias parameters of the signal detection theory (SDT; Green & Swets, 1966), and in relation to optimality.

Finally, since temporal bisection task performance has been shown to involve evidence accumulation process (e.g., Balci & Simen, 2014), we also analyzed the response times (RTs) associated with temporal categorizations (also see Akdoğan & Balci, 2015; Çoşkun et al., 2015; Lindbergh & Kieffaber, 2013; Rodríguez-Gironés & Kacelnik, 1998; Tipples, 2015). Based on the sequential drift-diffusion model of temporal bisection (Balci & Simen, 2014), we expected the short categorization RTs to increase and long categorization RTs to decrease as stimulus durations grow longer. Furthermore, previous research on the biasing effects of the alternations in the frequency of temporal referents presented in the temporal bisection task substantiated the presumed asymmetry between short and long decisions in terms of the pre-commitment to these decisions before the end of stimulus duration presentation (Akdoğan & Balci, 2015; Çoşkun et al., 2015). These studies supported the assumption that participants can commit to long but not to short decisions before the termination of the stimulus duration presentation, and showed that short categorization RTs were more sensitive to probabilistic manipulations. In a similar vein, we predicted the similar relations to hold true for the biasing effects of unequal rewards and penalties, and expected specifically the short categorization RTs to be modulated as a function of the changes in the payoff structures.

CHAPTER 2

METHODS

2.1. Participants

A total of 40 adults (28 females, $M_{\text{age}} = 21.6$, $SD_{\text{age}} = 2.9$ yrs), studying or working at Koç University, were recruited for the experiment. Participation was compensated with a maximum of 45 TRY (~16 USD) depending on the task performance. Participants had no history of neurological or psychiatric disorder, and they provided informed consent prior to their participation in the study. All experimental procedures were approved by the Institutional Review Board at Koç University.

2.2. Stimuli and apparatus

Participants were seated at a distance of approximately 60 cm from the monitor. Stimulus durations were signaled with a blue square (100 x 100 pixels) centered on a dark gray background. Experimental stimuli were generated using Matlab (Mathworks, Natick, MA) supported by the Psychophysics toolbox extension (Brainard 1997; Pelli, 1997). Responses were collected via standard iMac keyboard.

2.3. Procedure

2.3.1. Duration discrimination training. Prior to each experimental session, participants were presented with two reference durations (i.e., 1000 vs. 1500 ms) four times in an alternating order with a text display indicating whether they were short or long reference durations. After the familiarization trials, participants were asked to categorize these durations as *short* and *long* by pressing the “V” and “N” keys, respectively. Feedback was provided for each correct categorization by a text display of “Correct” lasting for a second, whereas incorrect categorizations immediately terminated the trial. The inter-trial interval

(ITI) was 1.75 s. The duration discrimination training lasted for a minimum of 25 trials, and continued until participants achieved a 90% discrimination accuracy level in the last 20 trials.

2.3.2. Temporal bisection testing. In the test phase, participants were presented with intermediate durations along with the reference durations, and asked to classify all durations as short or long according to their subjective temporal proximity to the reference durations. Prior to testing, participants were instructed to respond as accurately and quickly as possible for indicating their temporal judgments. In total, they were tested with nine durations that were spaced at logarithmically equal distances (i.e., 1000, 1052, 1107, 1164, 1225, 1288, 1355, 1426, 1500 ms). The overall proportion of reference durations (defined over all trials) was set to .36 in all sessions.

The gains and losses associated with duration categorizations were manipulated across two payoff groups. In the *reward* group ($n = 20$, 15 females), correct categorizations of reference durations were differentially rewarded, whereas in the *penalty* group ($n = 20$, 13 females), incorrect categorizations of reference durations were differentially penalized. Both groups were tested separately under three bias conditions in separate sessions, and the order for bias conditions was randomized across participants. Prior to each testing phase, participants were informed about the payoff structure in the upcoming session, and were reminded of the payoff structure prior to each test block within a session.

In the *long-bias* condition, the *reward* group received 8 points for correctly categorizing the long reference duration as long, and 2 points for correctly categorizing the short reference duration as short. On the other hand, the *penalty* group had 8 points deducted after incorrectly categorizing the long reference duration as short, and 2 point after incorrectly categorizing the short reference duration as long. Conversely in the *short-bias* condition, the *reward* group gained respectively 8 and 2 points after correct, whereas the *penalty* group lost respectively 8 and 2 points after incorrect categorizations of short and long reference

durations. In both bias conditions, the *reward* group was penalized by 5 points after incorrect categorizations, whereas the *penalty* group gained 5 points for correct categorizations of each reference duration. In the *unbiased* condition, the payoff structures were symmetrical and identical in both the *reward* and *penalty* groups. Participants gained 5 points and lost 5 points for correctly and incorrectly categorizing each reference duration, respectively.

Participants were informed about the accuracy of their categorizations of reference durations after each trial. On the other hand, neither feedback nor reward was provided for the categorizations of intermediate durations in order to capture the perceptual aspects of temporal information processing. The ITIs were sampled from a uniform distribution ranging between 1.5 to 2 s. Each experimental session contained 495 trials divided into five test blocks, and lasted approximately 50 min.

2.4. Data Analysis

Cumulative Gaussian distribution functions were fit to choice proportions which were produced by plotting the proportion of long responses as a function of stimulus durations. We used the best-fit mean parameter to compute the point of subjective equality (PSE) which represents the stimulus duration that yields 50% of long responses. Moreover, in order to obtain an estimate of trial-to-trial variability in temporal judgments, we computed the coefficient of variation (CV) by taking the ratio between the best-fit standard deviation and mean parameters. Additionally, we analyzed the response times (RTs) associated with short and long categorizations. For the RT analyses, trials with RTs below 0.15 s and above 2.5 s were excluded (1.18% of trials in the *reward* group, and 0.99% of trials in the *penalty* group).

These measures were then submitted to separate mixed ANOVAs with bias condition as the within-subjects factor (long-bias, unbiased, and short-bias) and the type of payoff manipulation as the between-subjects factor (reward and penalty). When necessary,

Greenhouse-Geisser correction was applied to account for the violation of sphericity assumption, and Holm-Bonferroni correction was used to adjust for multiple comparisons. For all statistical analyses, an alpha level of .05 (two-tailed) was used.

2.4.1. Signal detection theory-based analysis. In order to further investigate how payoff manipulations shaped temporal choices, we evaluated the *short* and *long* responses within the SDT framework (Green & Swets, 1966) according to different possible response categories. The “signal” and “noise” were arbitrarily defined as short and long durations, respectively (see also the Bayet et al. (2015) study for a similar approach in a two-alternative forced choice paradigm). The first four stimulus durations (1000, 1052, 1107, 1164 ms) and the last four stimulus durations (1288, 1355, 1426, 1500 ms) composed the short (signal) and long (noise) durations, respectively. We excluded the fifth stimulus duration (1225 ms) from the SDT-based analysis, as the PSE is assumed to be near the geometric mean of the reference durations when the spacing of test intervals is logarithmic (e.g., Wearden & Ferrara, 1995). With the remaining eight durations, we then quantified the hit rate (*HR*) and false alarm rate (*FAR*).

Since the scalar property of interval timing assumes that the standard deviation of temporal estimates will grow in proportion to their mean, thus resulting in constant CV values for different stimulus durations (Gibbon, 1977), we used the nonparametric indices of sensitivity, A' , and response bias, B'' (Stanislaw & Todorov, 1999). When $HR \geq FAR$, $A' = .5 + [(HR - FAR)(1 + HR - FAR)/4HR(1 - FAR)]$, and $B'' = [HR(1 - HR) - FAR(1 - FAR)]/[HR(1 - HR) + FAR(1 - FAR)]$. When $HR < FAR$, $A' = .5 - [(FAR - HR)(1 + FAR - HR)/4FAR(1 - HR)]$, and $B'' = [FAR(1 - FAR) - HR(1 - HR)]/[FAR(1 - FAR) + HR(1 - HR)]$. A' ranges from 0 to 1, in which .5 corresponds to the discrimination performance at chance-level and 1 indicates perfect discrimination between short and long durations. B'' ranges from -1 to 1, and negative values provide an indication

of participants' tendency to report the experienced duration as *short* (i.e., liberal criterion). A' and B'' were calculated for each individual separately for three bias conditions and both payoff groups, and were then submitted to mixed ANOVAs. Note that, we also computed the d' and c parameters, parametric measures of sensitivity and response bias, and obtained very similar results.

2.4.2. Optimality analysis. We evaluated the optimal temporal strategy in the temporal bisection task (Akdoğan & Balçı, 2015; Çoşkun et al., 2015). For each individual, we calculated the expected gain for different hypothetical PSEs (\hat{t}) given the CV estimate ($\hat{\omega}$), payoff matrix, and the probability of short and long reference duration. Since the presentation probability of each reference duration was fixed at .5, we excluded the stimulus probabilities from the expected gain function and used the following equation (for the generalized form of the function, refer to Balçı et al. 2009).

$$EG(\hat{t}) = g(\sim T_S)\Phi(T_S, \hat{t}, \hat{\omega}\hat{t}) + g(T_S)(1 - \Phi(T_S, \hat{t}, \hat{\omega}\hat{t})) \\ + g(T_L)\Phi(T_L, \hat{t}, \hat{\omega}\hat{t}) + g(\sim T_L)(1 - \Phi(T_L, \hat{t}, \hat{\omega}\hat{t}))$$

where $\hat{\omega}$ is the ratio of the standard deviation ($\hat{\sigma}$) to the PSE (\hat{t}) which are obtained from the best-fit cumulative Gaussian distribution function. Short and long reference durations are denoted as T_S and T_L , respectively. The payoff matrix is represented with g , such that $g(T_S)$ and $g(T_L)$ are the gains associated with correct categorizations, and $g(\sim T_S)$ and $g(\sim T_L)$ are the losses associated with incorrect categorizations of the short and long reference durations, respectively. The normal cumulative distribution function, $\Phi = 0.5[1 + erf((x - \hat{t})/(\sqrt{2}\hat{\omega}\hat{t}))]$ with mean \hat{t} and standard deviation $\hat{\omega}\hat{t}$, is evaluated for various hypothetical \hat{t} s at T_S and T_L . As a consequence, given the level of timing uncertainty and task parameters, the

optimal PSE can be defined for each participant as the \hat{t} that maximizes the expected gain function, thus yields the maximum possible expected gain (MPEG).

Based on this analysis, the proportions of MPEG (obtained by comparing the actual amount of gain that the participants attained to the MPEG) were subjected to a mixed ANOVA. Furthermore, we conducted paired-samples t -tests for the PSEs obtained from the best-fitting cumulative Gaussian distribution (denoted hereafter as empirical PSEs) and optimal PSEs in each bias condition separately for payoff groups. For these pairwise comparisons, we integrated the framework of Bayesian inference to be able to provide evidence for the theoretically critical null hypothesis regarding the equivalence of the empirical and optimal strategies (Rouder, Speckman, Sun, Morey, & Iverson, 2009; Wetzels et al., 2011). Following Rouder et al. (2009), we used a Cauchy prior distribution with a scaling factor $r = 1$, and calculated the Jeffreys, Zellner and Siow (JZS) Bayes factor using the R package “BayesFactor” (Morey, Rouder, & Jamil, 2015). A Bayes factor (BF_{01}) represents the likelihood of data under null hypothesis (H_0) relative to the likelihood of data under alternative hypothesis (H_1). Therefore, $BF_{01} = 1$ is interpreted as favoring neither the H_1 nor H_0 , whereas, for instance, BF_{01} between 3-10 provides substantial evidence in favor of the H_0 , and BF_{01} between 1/10-1/3 provides substantial evidence in favor of the H_1 (Jeffreys, 1961; see also Wetzels et al. 2011).

CHAPTER 3

RESULTS

3.1. Choice Proportions

Figure 1A and 1B depict the average choice proportions separately for three bias conditions along with the best-fit cumulative Gaussian distribution functions for the *reward* and *penalty* groups, respectively. All R^2 values for the average fits were over .99 in both the

reward and *penalty* groups. The mean R^2 values for the individual fits were over .96 in both payoff groups.

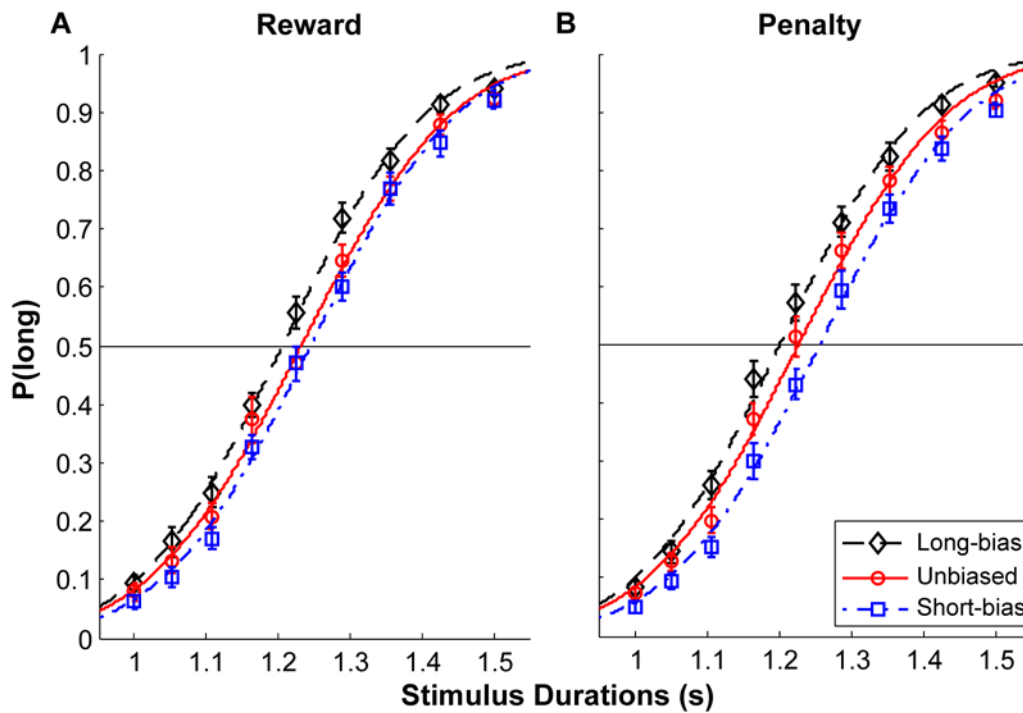


Figure 1. Choice proportions as a function of stimulus durations separately for different bias conditions for the reward (A) and penalty groups (B). Curves represent the best-fit cumulative Gaussian distribution functions to average choice proportions. Error bars represent *SEM*.

Figure 1 reveals that participants modulated their temporal categorizations with respect to the changes in payoff structures. Specifically, psychometric functions shifted leftward with the increasing gain associated with correct and loss associated with incorrect categorizations of the long reference duration in the *reward* and *penalty* groups, respectively. Visual inspection of Figure 1 further suggests that, decreasing the gain associated with correct long categorizations (*reward* group) and the loss associated with incorrect long categorizations (*penalty* group) led to an increase in the empirical PSEs (points of intersection between horizontal straight lines and psychophysical curves). The average empirical PSEs

obtained from the cumulative Gaussian distribution fits to choice proportions can be found in Table 1.

The comparison of empirical PSEs revealed a main effect of the bias manipulation, $F(2, 76) = 14.97, p < .001, \eta_p^2 = .28$. There was not a main effect of the type of payoff manipulation (rewards or penalties), $F(1, 38) = 0.07, p = .80$, or a significant interaction, $F(2, 76) = 0.39, p = .68$. Pairwise comparisons revealed that the empirical PSE estimates differed significantly between all bias condition pairs (all $ps < .02$) and were higher in the *short-bias* condition ($M = 1.25$) than those in both the *unbiased* ($M = 1.23$) and the *long-bias* ($M = 1.20$) conditions. These results suggest that altering the gain associated with correct temporal categorizations, or the loss associated with incorrect temporal judgments had biasing effects in participants' preference of one temporal choice over another.

We also investigated whether there was a change in participants' trial-to-trial variability in different bias conditions by using the CV estimates obtained from the best-fit cumulative Gaussian distribution (Table 1). Our findings showed no significant (a) main effect of bias, $F(2, 76) = 0.24, p = .79$, (b) main effect of the type of payoff manipulation, $F(1, 38) = 0.37, p = .55$, or (c) interaction between bias and payoff, $F(2, 76) = 0.15, p = .86$. Taken together, these findings indicate that the reward/penalty contingencies had biasing effects on choice proportions but no effect on the trial-to-trial variability exhibited in temporal choices.

Table 1

The Mean Empirical PSEs, CVs, A's, and B''s Depicted Separately for Bias Conditions and Payoff Groups

Bias condition	Reward				Penalty			
	PSE	CV	A'	B''	PSE	CV	A'	B''
<i>Long-bias</i>	1.20 (0.04)	.13 (.04)	.70 (.06)	.16 (.27)	1.20 (0.04)	.12 (.02)	.69 (.04)	.18 (.26)
<i>Unbiased</i>	1.23 (0.04)	.13 (.04)	.69 (.06)	-0.03 (.28)	1.23 (0.05)	.13 (.03)	.69 (.05)	0.01 (.29)
<i>Short-bias</i>	1.25 (0.04)	.13 (.03)	.70 (.06)	-0.09 (.23)	1.26 (0.04)	.13 (.03)	.70 (.05)	-0.18 (.33)

Note. The values in parentheses are standard deviations.

3.2. Sensitivity and Response Bias

A mixed ANOVA was conducted to investigate whether payoff manipulation altered sensitivity (Table 1). We found that A's did not differ across bias conditions, $F(2, 76) = 0.26$, $p = .78$, or between payoff groups, $F(1, 38) = 0.02$, $p = .89$. We also did not find a significant interaction between bias condition and type of payoff manipulation, $F(2, 76) = 0.04$, $p = .96$. As can be visualized in Figure 2A, these results indicate that participants were able to discriminate stimulus durations with high accuracy in all test conditions and their sensitivity levels did not differ as a function of the alterations in the reward or penalty structures.

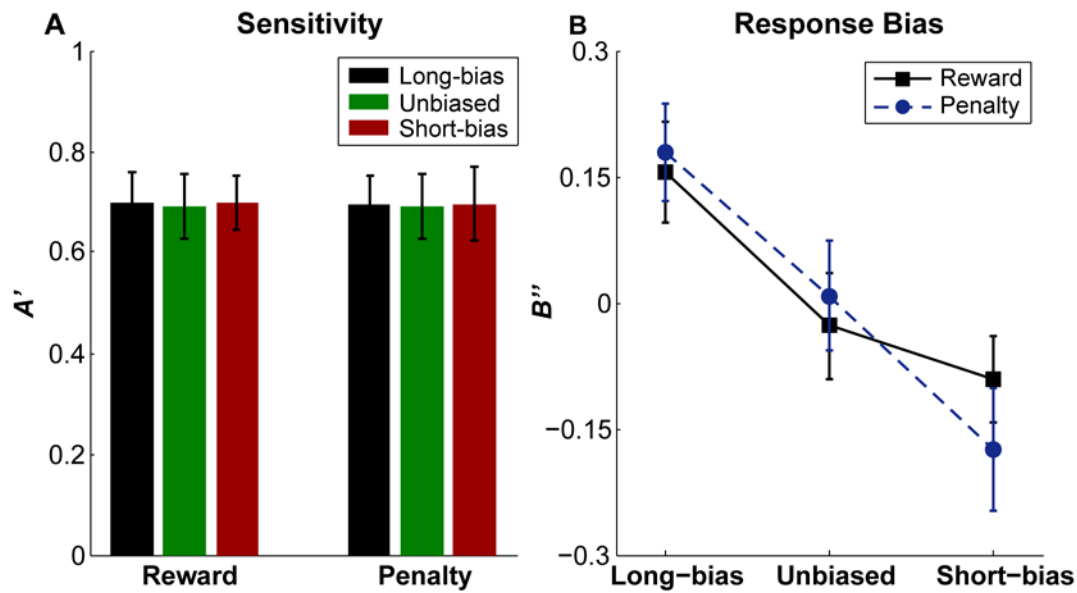


Figure 2. SDT-based analysis of temporal choices. A 's (A) and B 's (B) are depicted as a function of bias conditions separately for two payoff groups. Error bars represent SEM .

In order to further evaluate how bias was manifested in participants' subjective temporal estimates, we also computed the response bias parameter (B'' ; Table 1). The visual inspection of Figure 2B suggests that the change in the B'' 's had a decreasing trend as a function of the increase in the gain or loss associated with the correct or incorrect categorizations of the short reference duration, respectively (liberal criterion). The mixed ANOVA results indicated a main effect of bias on B'' 's, $F(2, 76) = 15.70, p < .001, \eta_p^2 = .29$. Pairwise comparisons revealed that B'' 's in the *long-bias* condition ($M = .17$) were higher than those in both the *unbiased* ($M = -.01$) and the *short-bias* ($M = -.13$) conditions, and the differences between all three bias condition pairs were significant (all $ps < .04$). There was no main effect of the type of payoff manipulation, $F(1, 38) = 0.02, p = .89$, or significant bias-payoff interaction, $F(2, 76) = 0.74, p = .48$.

When B'' 's in each bias condition were compared to 0 (no response bias) with one-sample t -tests, B'' 's in the *long-bias* condition indeed differed from 0, $t(19) = 2.62, p = .02, d = 0.59$, in the *reward* group, and $t(19) = 3.05, p = .01, d = 0.68$ in the *penalty* group. In the

short-bias condition, B' 's in the *reward* group did not differ significantly from 0, $t(19) = -1.74$, $p = .10$, whereas the short response bias in the *penalty* group reached significance, $t(19) = -2.38$, $p = .03$, $d = 0.53$. As expected, no response bias was exhibited in the *unbiased* conditions, $t(19) = -0.43$, $p = .67$ in the *reward* group, and $t(19) = 0.13$, $p = .90$ in the *penalty* group. These SDT-based analysis results collectively suggest that testing under unequal rewards or penalties caused participants to be inclined to exhibit response biases without affecting their sensitivity in discriminating between different stimulus durations.

3.3. Expected Gains

The expected gain calculated for hypothetical PSEs and the localization of the average empirical PSE on the expected gain curve in each bias condition can be visualized in Figure 3 both for the *reward* (A) and the *penalty* (B) groups. When we compared the expected gain values with the MPEGs, we found that the *reward* group gained 98.7 ($SD = 0.02$), 98.5 ($SD = 0.02$), and 98.7% ($SD = 0.01$) of the MPEG for increasing reward associated with correct categorizations of the short reference duration. Similarly, the *penalty* group gained 98.3 ($SD = 0.02$), 98.2 ($SD = 0.02$), and 98.8% ($SD = 0.02$) of the MPEG for increasing loss associated with incorrect categorizations of the short reference duration. The proportions of MPEG did not vary as a function of bias, $F(2, 76) = 0.62$, $p = .54$, or the type payoff manipulation, $F(1, 38) = 0.36$, $p = .55$. The interaction between bias and payoff also was not significant, $F(2, 76) = 0.22$, $p = .80$. In another set of analyses, we adopted a more conservative approach by integrating the minimum gain associated with random responding into the computation of proportion of MPEG (i.e., Expected gain – Minimum gain)/(MPEG – Minimum gain), and found that the average proportions of MPEG were over 98.2% and 97.9% in the *reward* group and *penalty* group, respectively.

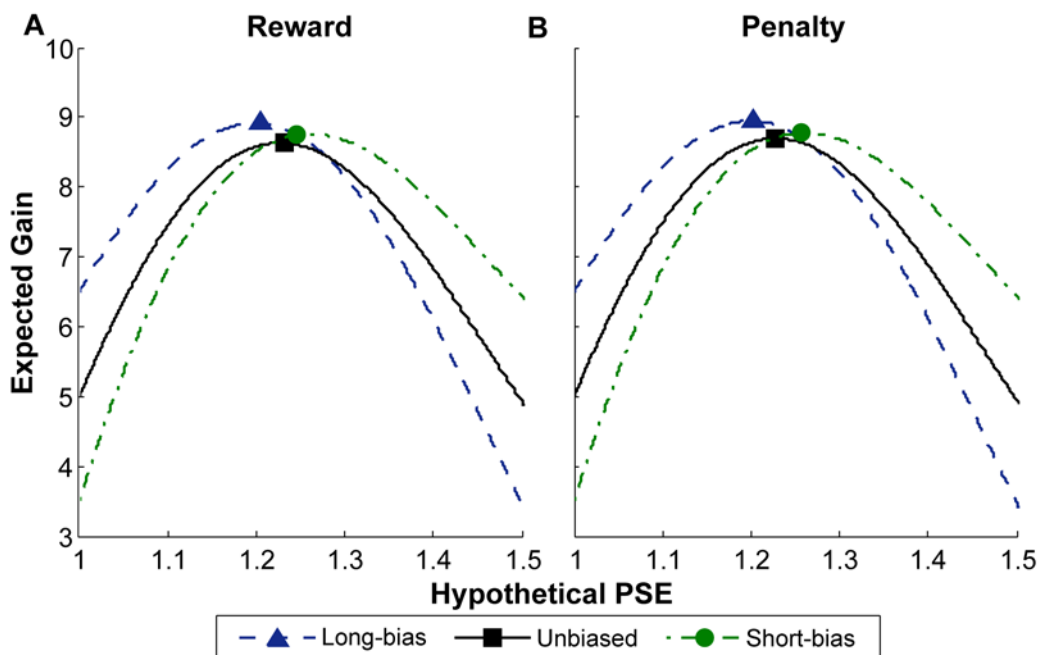


Figure 3. Expected gain as a function of hypothetical PSEs in different bias conditions depicted separately for the reward (A) and penalty (B) groups. Expected gains were calculated with average empirical CV estimates obtained from the corresponding bias conditions in each payoff group. Filled symbols represent the average empirical PSEs obtained in the corresponding bias conditions and payoff groups.

These results suggest a high correspondence between the empirical and optimal PSEs. To elucidate this relationship, we first investigated the change in the optimal PSEs as a function of bias conditions. Optimal PSEs increased with gain associated with correct short categorizations in the *reward* group. The mean optimal PSEs were 1.20 ($SD = 0.03$) in the *long-bias*, 1.23 ($SD = 0.01$) in the *unbiased*, and 1.26 ($SD = 0.01$) in the *short-bias* condition. These changes were supported with a one-way repeated-measures ANOVA, $F(1.19, 22.70) = 58.31, p < .001, \eta_p^2 = .75$, and with the follow-up pairwise tests showing that optimal PSEs differed significantly between all three pairs of bias conditions (all $ps < .001$). A similar relation in the optimal PSEs were observed in the *penalty* group in which the mean optimal PSEs were 1.20 ($SD = 0.02$) in the *long-bias*, 1.23 ($SD = 0.01$) in the *unbiased*, and 1.26 (SD

= 0.01) in the *short-bias* condition. We found a significant change in the optimal PSEs as a function of bias conditions, $F(1.34, 25.47) = 150.76, p < .001, \eta_p^2 = .89$, and the follow-up pairwise tests revealed that the differences in the optimal PSEs across all three pairs of bias conditions were significant (all $ps < .001$).

We also compared the slope values obtained from the orthogonal regression of each individual's empirical PSE on the optimal PSE in the corresponding bias condition. In the *reward* group, the mean slope value ($M = .60, SD = 2.09$) did not differ, either from 0, $t(19) = 1.30, p = .21$, or from 1, $t(19) = -0.85, p = .41$. In the *penalty* group, the mean slope value ($M = 1.41, SD = 1.73$) differed significantly from 0, $t(19) = 3.64, p = .002, d = 0.81$, but not from 1, $t(19) = 1.05, p = .31$. The correspondence between the empirical and optimal PSEs was substantiated by paired-samples t -tests of empirical and optimal PSEs in each bias condition which did not reveal any significant differences, either in the *reward* group (all $ps > .10$) or in the *penalty* group (all $ps > .70$). Additionally, in order to assess the evidence for the null hypothesis which predicts no difference between empirical and optimal PSEs, we conducted Bayesian t -tests (Rouder et al., 2009). The JZS Bayes factor BF_{01} ranged from 1.65 to 5.46 in the *reward* group and from 5.46 to 5.86 in the *penalty* group. Except for the BF_{01} of 1.65 (anecdotal evidence in favor of the null hypothesis) obtained in the *reward* group, these values provide strong evidence for the null hypothesis. Taken together, our optimality analysis of the adjustments in temporal choices as a function of payoff contingencies revealed that both payoff groups were able to maximize their gain to a great extent in all of the bias conditions.

3.4. Response Times

To further investigate the modulation of timing performance as a function of unequal rewards and penalties, we also analyzed the response times associated with short and long judgments. We first examined the RTs for short and long categorizations made for each

stimulus duration in different bias conditions. Visual inspection of Figure 4 reveals that short categorization RTs slowed down, whereas long categorization RTs speeded up with elapsing time. In order to quantify this change in the RTs as a function of stimulus durations, we conducted linear regressions of short and long categorization RTs on stimulus durations in different bias conditions. The statistical results of the linear regression analyses corroborated our observations in all cases for both payoff groups (all $ps < .01$; Table 2).

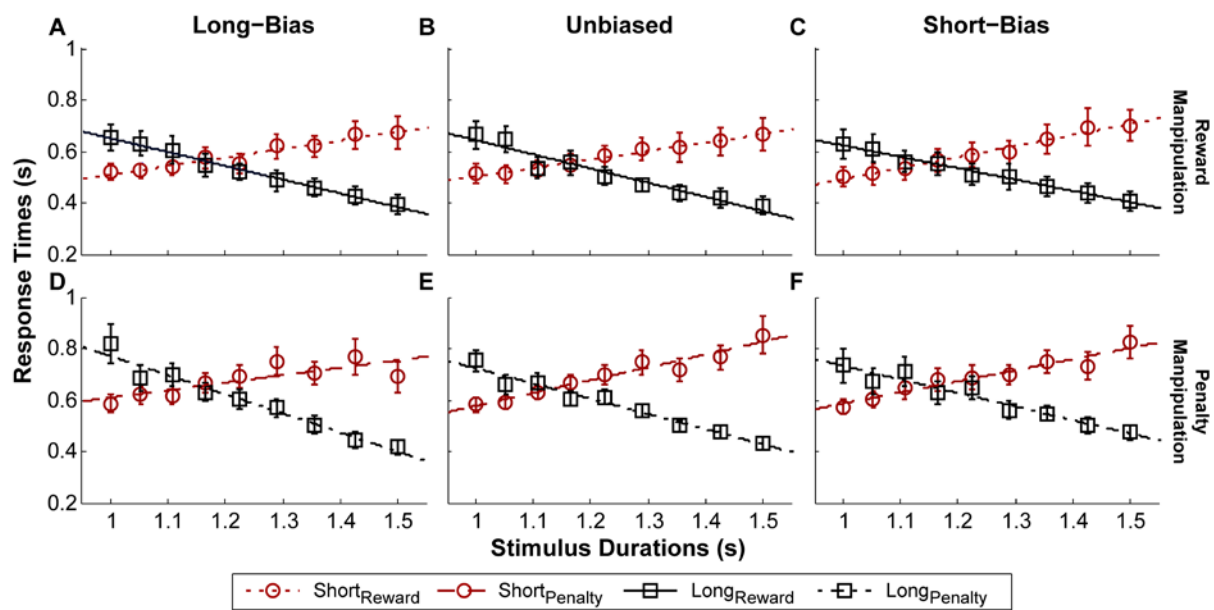


Figure 4. Average short and long categorization response times as a function of stimulus durations separately for three bias conditions for the reward (A-C) and penalty (D-F) groups. Lines are best-fit linear regression lines. Error bars represent *SEM*.

Table 2

The Statistical Results of Linear Regression of Short and Long Categorization RTs on Stimulus Durations

	Reward			Penalty		
	<i>t</i> (7)	β	R^2	<i>t</i> (7)	β	R^2
<i>Long-bias</i>						
Short RT	10.23***	.97	.94	3.69**	.81	.66
Long RT	-23.77***	-.99	.99	-12.94***	-.98	.96
<i>Unbiased</i>						
Short RT	19.57***	.99	.98	10.84***	.97	.94
Long RT	-9.84***	-.97	.93	-13.62***	-.98	.96
<i>Short-bias</i>						
Short RT	17.74***	.99	.98	9.97***	.97	.93
Long RT	-21.49***	-.99	.99	-10.67***	-.97	.94

Note. β s are the standardized coefficient estimates

** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$

In the *reward* group, the mean RTs for short categorizations were 0.59 ($SD = 0.17$), 0.58 ($SD = 0.19$), and 0.59 s ($SD = 0.21$), and the mean RTs for long categorizations were 0.52 ($SD = 0.18$), 0.51 ($SD = 0.16$), and 0.51 s ($SD = 0.18$) with the increasing gain associated with correct categorizations of the short reference duration. In the *penalty* group, the mean RTs for short categorizations were 0.68 ($SD = 0.17$), 0.69 ($SD = 0.15$), and 0.69 s ($SD = 0.17$), and the mean RTs for long categorizations were 0.59 ($SD = 0.15$), 0.58 ($SD = 0.11$), and 0.60 s ($SD = 0.16$) with the increasing loss associated with incorrect categorizations of the short reference duration.

Differences in the RTs were investigated with a three-factor mixed ANOVA. The within-subjects factors were the bias condition (long-bias, unbiased, and short-bias) and categorization type (short and long), the between-subjects factor was the type of payoff manipulation (reward or penalty). We found a main effect of categorization type on response times, $F(1, 38) = 47.99, p < .001, \eta_p^2 = .56$. Pairwise comparisons revealed that long categorization RTs were significantly faster than short categorization RTs, $p < .001$. There

were not any significant changes in the RTs as a function of the bias conditions, $F(2, 76) = .10, p = .90$, or they did not differ between payoff groups, $F(1, 38) = 3.44, p = .07$.

Collectively, these RT patterns indicate that, although RTs associated with short and long responses showed a systematic relation to the timing stimulus, altering the reward or penalty associated with temporal categorizations had no effect on average response times.

CHAPTER 4

DISCUSSION

This experiment aimed to investigate the payoff effects on the temporal bisection performance by manipulating the differential reward and penalty associated with correct and incorrect categorizations of reference durations, respectively. Our results indicated that participants were biased towards the response options associated with the higher reward rate for correct categorizations or with the higher penalty for incorrect categorizations. Specifically, participants made more frequent *short* choices with the increasing gain or loss associated with correct or incorrect categorizations of the short reference duration, respectively. Conversely, participants were inclined to report more frequent *long* choices when correct categorizations of the long reference duration yielded more gain, or incorrect categorizations of the long reference duration resulted in greater loss.

The changes in the choice behavior were illustrated with two sets of findings. The first one was based on the psychometric functions, and it revealed that payoff manipulations led to shifts in the PSEs. Moreover, these adaptive changes in choices were not accompanied by alterations in timing precision, as indicated by no modulation of CVs as a function of payoff structures, which is in line with the scalar property of interval timing (Gibbon, 1977). In addition to the quantification of the shifts observed in psychometric functions, in a second set of analyses, we integrated the signal detection theory framework (Green & Swets, 1966) to

understand how the sensitivity and response bias parameters changed as a function of reward or penalty configurations. Consistent with our analysis of the PSE and CV estimates, we found that the sensitivity levels of participants to discriminate between time intervals did not differ across test conditions. On the other hand, the participants exhibited propensity to favor the response option that yielded higher gain (for correct categorizations) or imposed greater penalty (for incorrect categorizations), which were illustrated by the adjustments in the decision criterion placement. Taken together, the use of both the conventional measures of temporal bisection performance and the signal detection theory-based analysis rendered a more thorough assessment of the temporal choice behavior under unequal rewards or penalties.

Time-based decision-making implicates an important role also for the integration of inherent uncertainty characteristics of interval timing. Therefore, in order to elucidate how payoff structures and internal timing uncertainty collectively govern temporal decisions, we also assessed the adaptive changes in choice behavior within the optimality framework based on the statistical decision theory. Our participants were able to maximize their gain to a great extent in all bias conditions by taking normative account of their timing uncertainty as well as monitoring changes in the payoff contingencies. These findings not only corroborated previous studies illustrating the optimal temporal performance of humans and nonhuman animals in a variety of interval timing tasks (e.g., Akdoğan & Balcı, 2015; Balcı et al., 2009; Çavdaroglu et al., 2014; Jazayeri & Shadlen, 2010; Kheifets & Gallistel, 2012), but also substantiated the optimality of temporal decisions in experimental scenarios where differential gain or loss was attributed to correct or incorrect temporal categorizations.

In addition to the assessment of temporal choices, the speed with which those judgments are made or reported also provides valuable information about temporal decision-making in various temporal discrimination settings (e.g., Balcı & Simen, 2014; Klapproth &

Wearden, 2011). To better characterize the nature of temporal decisions, we analyzed the RTs associated with choices. As expected, short categorization RTs slowed down, whereas long categorization RTs speeded up as stimulus durations grew longer in all bias conditions. Moreover, overall RT patterns revealed that RTs associated with short judgments were slower than the RTs associated with long judgments. These results lend further evidence for a temporal decision-making process that evolves over the course of a trial, and consolidates the presumed asymmetry in short and long temporal judgments (see Balçı & Simen, 2014 for a detailed discussion).

However, even though we expected the modulation of RT patterns as a function of reward and penalty manipulations to resemble the biasing effects of stimulus probabilities (modulation of short categorization RTs; Akdoğan & Balçı, 2015; Çoşkun et al., 2015), we failed to find such an effect. In one of the previous studies that manipulated probabilistic information in the temporal bisection task, it was argued that one of the indicators of diminished response biases caused by testing under high overall reinforcement rate was the lack of RT modulation (Akdoğan & Balçı, 2015). Although there was no change in the overall reinforcement rate in the current study, the absence of changes in the overall RTs under unequal reward or penalty conditions might simply indicate that our experimental protocol have not been influential enough also to bias the response times associated with choices. One approach to enhance the biasing effects of payoffs in the temporal bisection task might include increasing the absolute point difference and/or the ratio between the amount of gain (or loss) attributed to the correct (or incorrect) categorization of one reference duration relative to the other. Future studies, especially those with more distinct gain and loss parameterizations, are thus needed to delineate whether and how payoffs affect response times and processing dynamics underlying temporal choices.

Additionally, the differences in the biasing effects of probabilistic manipulations and unequal payoffs might indicate that two sources of response bias might operate differently in shaping decision outputs. Previous studies utilizing a variety of decision-making scenarios suggest that reward and penalty structures, when compared to the effects of probabilistic information, create less pronounced biases in accuracy and the RTs associated with choices (e.g., Leite & Ratcliff, 2011; Mulder et al., 2012). One possible explanation is that when probabilistic information varies in neutral payoff conditions, adjustments in choice behavior occur more readily as alterations in the accuracy performance result in parallel changes in the amount of gain earned (Lynn & Barrett, 2014). On the other hand, under payoff manipulations, the accuracy and reward attained are not as tightly related together as in the case of probabilistic manipulations. Specifically, unequal payoff structures induce a tradeoff between reward and accuracy maximization (Bohil & Maddox, 2001; Maddox & Bohil, 1998) and require an estimation of the payoff parameters to gauge the bias in behavior (Lynn & Barrett, 2014). These, in turn, might also interact with decision-makers' sensitivity to reward or accuracy (Mulder et al., 2012), and thus result in distinct biasing effects of probabilistic and payoff manipulations.

Payoff manipulations alone might also exert different amounts of influence on choice behavior. Even though the expected gain was identical in both payoff groups, a number of our findings suggest that the biasing effects of unbalanced payoffs on choices were more pronounced in the *penalty* group than in the *reward* group. For instance, the SDT-based analyses revealed that, compared to the *penalty* group, alterations in decision criterion (indexed by B 's) were less evident in the *short-bias* condition of the *reward* group. Moreover, the close inspection of the relation between the empirical and optimal PSEs revealed by the orthogonal regression fits and pairwise comparisons suggests that the correspondence was less obvious in the *reward* group. The differences in the amount of shifts

in the psychometric curves across bias conditions in both payoff groups (Figure 1) also corroborates these indications, suggesting that manipulating the relative loss associated with incorrect categorizations resulted in more marked adjustments in the choices than the relative gain associated with correct categorization of reference durations. These findings are in line with previous research demonstrating the importance of framing effects, and implicate that individuals' inclination to avoid loss might have led the penalty manipulations to engender greater impact on the adaptations in their decisions than reward manipulations (Kahneman & Tversky, 1979; Tversky & Kahneman, 1981).

These presumed differences in the payoff effects indicate that motivation itself is a multifaceted concept. Therefore, it is not surprising that previous manipulations of payoff structures (without changing the stimulus probabilities) in different temporal discrimination tasks yielded inconsistent results (e.g., Avlar et al., 2015; Galtress & Kirkpatrick, 2010; Wearden & Grindrod, 2003). In the Wearden and Grindrod (2003) study, human participants received differential incentive to emit a specific type of temporal response in the temporal generalization procedure. The adjustments in the decision processes were evidenced by the shifts in the frequency of reporting different types of responses but not in the trial-to-trial variability of temporal judgments. On the other hand, Galtress and Kirkpatrick (2010) reported that changes in the reward magnitude led to an increase in timing imprecision of rats as evidenced by the flattening of psychophysical curves without revealing consistent effects on the location of PSEs. Additional research has recently depicted that in control mice, both the PSEs and precision in timing were modulated by the reward magnitude manipulation (Avlar et al., 2015). Collectively, studies comparing timing performance under different payoff contingencies indeed point at the link between motivation and temporal processing. However, contradictory findings regarding the locus of motivational effects, which could be simply due to species differences, necessitate further investigation of how payoff

manipulations affect the interval timing behavior and temporal decision-making. Such studies in turn would also increase our understanding of the interaction between payoffs and other sources of bias in shaping timing behavior.

CONCLUSION

This study contributes to the growing body of evidence indicating that motivational factors as investigated by manipulating the differential gain or loss associated with temporal choices alter temporal processing. As revealed by the shifts in temporal choices and the response bias parameter of the signal detection theory (Green & Swets, 1966), participants exhibited a clear tendency to report the temporal judgment that produced more gain or incurred higher loss. In addition, these adaptations in the choice data were nearly optimal; Participants not only monitored the payoff contingencies, but were also able to assess their levels of internal timing uncertainty, which enabled them to maximize their gain to a great extent. Although response times associated with short and long categorizations exhibited a systematic change throughout the presentation of the timing stimulus, the lack of modulation in the response times as a function of payoff structures might necessitate more distinct biasing conditions where the differentiation between rewards and penalties is more apparent. Furthermore, future studies investigating motivational effects by providing neurophysiological evidence would be particularly useful in enhancing our understanding of the brain circuitry of both interval timing and motivation given the assumed overlap in the neural underpinnings of these cognitive phenomena (e.g., Avlar et al., 2015; Balci, 2014; Kirkpatrick, 2014).

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