

1 **Forgot what you like? Evidence for hippocampal dependence of**
2 **value-based decisions**

3 Abbreviated title: Hippocampal dependence of value-based decisions

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19

20

Abstract

21 Consistent decisions are intuitively desirable and theoretically important for utility
22 maximization. Neuroeconomics has established the neurobiological substrate of value
23 representation, but brain regions that provide input to the value-processing network is less
24 explored. The constructed-preference tradition within behavioral decision research gives a
25 critical role to cognitive processes that rely on associations, suggesting a role for the
26 hippocampus in making decisions and to do so consistently. We compared the performance of
27 31 patients with mediotemporal lobe (MTL) epilepsy and hippocampal lesions, 30 patients
28 with extratemporal lobe epilepsy, and 30 healthy controls on two tasks: binary choices
29 between candy bars based on their preferences and a number-comparison control task where
30 the larger number is chosen. MTL patients make more inconsistent choices than the other two
31 groups for the value-based choice but not the number-comparison task. These inconsistencies
32 increase with the volume of compromised hippocampal tissue. These results suggest a critical
33 involvement of the MTL in preference construction and value-based choices.

34

Significance

35 Our days are full of choices that reflect our preferences. Economics lays out models of
36 how to optimally make these decisions. Neuroeconomics has identified a cortical value-
37 processing network whose activity correlates with constructs related to valuation and choice
38 in economic models. However open questions remain: How are these value signals formed,
39 and what regions might be necessary for retrieving and computing these value signals?
40 Inspired by cognitive models calling on associative processes in value-based decisions, this
41 paper uses unique neuropsychological data to establish the critical role of the medial temporal
42 lobe in making consistent choices and further informs our understanding of the value-
43 processing network.

44 Keywords

45 Value representation, neuroeconomics, hippocampus, neuropsychology

46 **Introduction**

47 Decision neuroscience made significant progress in identifying neurobiological correlates
48 of value representations using paradigms involving simple choices between two stimuli based
49 on underlying preferences (Hare, Camerer, & Rangel, 2009; Plassmann, O’Doherty, &
50 Rangel, 2007). A value network involving a fronto-striatal circuit including the ventral
51 striatum (VS) and the ventromedial prefrontal cortex (vmPFC), and posterior cingulate cortex
52 (PCC) has been proposed (Bartra, McGuire, & Kable, 2013; Haber & Knutson, 2010). An
53 unsolved question is where the value signals processed by this network come from,
54 particularly for complex stimuli.

55 One influential conceptualization of preference construction proposes multiple steps
56 including retrieval of relevant experiences with stimuli in the choice set, comparison of
57 relevant attributes to reach a decision value, imagining future consequences of potential
58 choices, that can be categorized as memory-related processes (retrospective or prospective)
59 (Rangel, Camerer, & Montague, 2008; Weber and Johnson, 2009)

60 A long line of work in cognitive neuroscience shows the importance of the medial
61 temporal lobe (MTL) in these processes (Squire, Stark, & Clark, 2004). The involvement and
62 interaction of the MTL with the value network only recently attracted attention (Shadlen and
63 Shohamy, 2016). Wimmer and Shohamy (2012) show MTL involvement in the value transfer
64 of rewarded stimuli by associative learning that biases later decisions on non-rewarded
65 stimuli. Barron, Dolan, and Behrens (2013) show activity in the hippocampus, in addition to
66 medial prefrontal cortex, when subjects were asked to indicate preferences for novel food
67 items based on familiar, but previously uncombined tastes. Gluth et al. (2015) show that
68 choices are limited by memory constraints, which is associated with functional connectivity
69 between the hippocampus and vmPFC (Gluth, Sommer, Rieskamp, & Büchel, 2015). Work
70 motivated by the hippocampus’ involvement in imagining future experiences (Hassabis,
71 Kumaran, Vann, & Maguire, 2007; Schacter, Addis, & Buckner, 2007) find that participants

72 asked to imagine future events make more patient value-related decisions across time, which
73 correlates with stronger activity in a set of brain regions including the hippocampus (Peters &
74 Büchel, 2010). Impairment of these structures relates to more impatient choices, as shown in
75 patients with subjective cognitive impairments regarded as a pre-stage of neurodegenerative
76 disorders (Hu et al., 2017).

77 These studies suggest the involvement of the hippocampus and memory processes in
78 value-related decision-making, but do not provide conclusive evidence that these processes
79 are needed for such decisions. Such evidence requires comparing value-related decision-
80 making abilities in the absence or impairment of these brain regions. Finding such differences
81 would substantiate psychological models of decision-making involving memory processes and
82 extend our understanding of the neural value network and the origins of value signals for
83 complex options. Work that established the role of the ventromedial frontal region as crucial
84 in the value network used this method: Patients with damage in these areas performed poorly
85 in value-related decisions compared both to healthy controls, as well as patients with lesions
86 elsewhere in the frontal cortex (Camille, Griffiths, Vo, Fellows, & Kable, 2011; Fellows &
87 Farah, 2007).

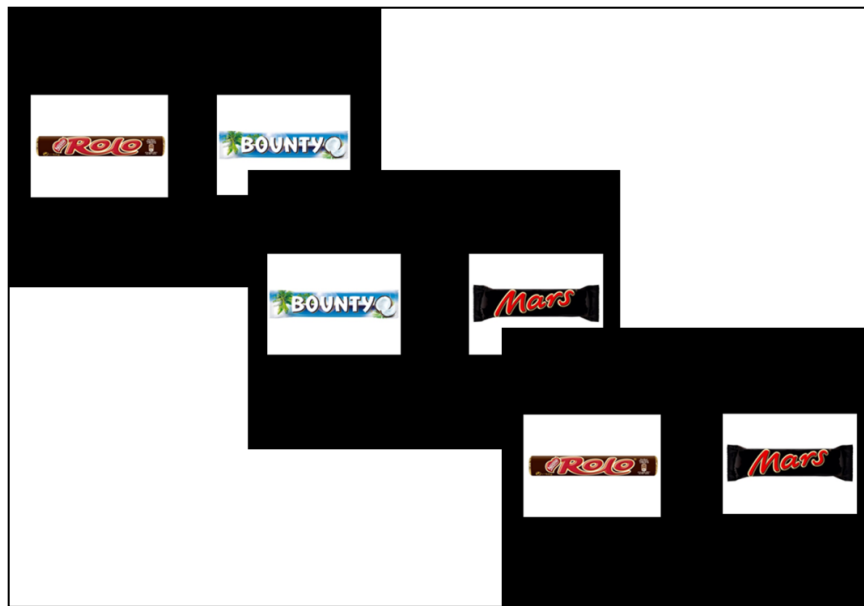
88 Given these findings, we ask whether patients with hippocampal sclerosis are impaired in
89 making consistent value-based decisions. Hippocampal sclerosis is a key neuropathological
90 feature in patients with mesial temporal lobe epilepsy (Berkovic et al. 1991), with
91 neurosurgical removal of the medial temporal lobe showing a high seizure-free rate. These
92 patients show neuropsychological deficits mainly in the memory domain (Lin, Mula &
93 Hermann, 2012; Hoppe, Elger, & Helmstaedter, 2007). To control for other epilepsy-related
94 factors, like anticonvulsive medication or social effects of having seizure, we included in
95 addition to healthy controls, a control group of patients with lesions outside of the temporal
96 lobe. We test the affection of value-based decisions with binary choices among familiar food
97 products. Our measure of choice quality is transitivity, the degree to which preferences are

98 internally consistent. If a person chooses (Fig. 1.) Rolo over Bounty, and Bounty over Mars,
99 choice transitivity requires they pick Rolo over Mars (Samuelson, 1938). Decision
100 neuroscience uses this metric to quantify choice quality (Camille et al., 2011; Fellows &
101 Farah, 2007; Fellows, 2006a; Kalenscher, Tobler, Huijbers, Daselaar, & Pennartz, 2010). As
102 in this previous research, we included a pairwise judgment (rather than preference) task as a
103 control, presenting respondents with pairs of numbers and asking them to judge which of the
104 two is larger. This protocol is similar to that used to establish the necessary role of the vmPFC
105 in value-related decisions (Fellows & Farah, 2007). Thus, selective differences in patients
106 with MTL damage in value-based choices compared to numerical decisions should provide
107 strong evidence for the involvement of the hippocampus, and thereby mnemonic processes, in
108 value-based decision-making.

109 **Methods**

110 The study was approved by the local ethics committee of the University of Bonn and the
111 Institutional Review Board at Columbia University (IRB-AAAB1301) and all subjects gave
112 their written informed consent.

113 A total of 91 respondents participated. Thirty-one patients (15 female; mean age 47.74
114 with SD 2.56) suffering from mesial temporal lobe epilepsy with clinically diagnosed uni-
115 lateral (left:n=14;right:n=8) or bilateral (n=9) hippocampal sclerosis from the presurgical
116 program at the Department of Epileptology in Bonn were included in the study (here on
117 referred to as MTL group). Different from patients with lesions in the vmPFC (Fellows &
118 Farrah, 2007), the lesion locations in MTL patients are very similar. This makes lesion
119 volume a better individual difference marker, as described below. Two control groups
120 consisted of thirty patients with extratemporal lobe epilepsy (14 female; mean age 43.10 with
121 SD 2.60; ETL group) and thirty healthy control subjects (15 female; mean age 51.40 with SD
122 2.60; CON group), respectively.



123

124 **Fig. 1.** Three trials of the binary choice experiment. Subject indicated their preferred candy
125 bar on each trial. Stimulus presentation and choice was self-paced, with a maximum length of
126 5 seconds.

127

128 Each respondent made a series of choices between pairs of 20 candy bars, presented
129 pictorially on a computer as in Figure 1. Each pairwise combination was presented once,
130 resulting in $(20 \times 19) / 2 = 190$ choices for each participant, with a different random order. In a
131 control task, subjects were presented with pairs of numbers, drawn from the range of one to
132 twenty, and had to judge which number was larger. We computed judgment inconsistency
133 across triplets of comparison identically for the two tasks. Subjects knew that they would
134 receive their candy bar of choice from one randomly selected choice trial, in addition to a
135 participation fee of 10 €.

136 Our focal dependent measure was the proportion of intransitive choices. A triplet is
137 intransitive if (i) A was chosen over B and B was chosen over C, yet C was chosen over A or
138 (ii) if B was chosen over A and C was chosen over B, yet A was chosen over C. (Fig 1. E.g. A
139 can be Rolo, B, Bounty and C, Mars as described in the Introduction).

140 The proportion of intransitive choices was obtained by dividing the number of intransitive
141 triplets by the total number of triplets. Analytically, it can be shown that the maximum level
142 of intransitivities (those produced by a random responder) is 25% of all triplets. Below we

143 report the results of simulations that demonstrate the non-linear relationship between number
144 of intransitive choices and response error.

145 We also obtained, for a random subgroup of the patients with unilateral hippocampal
146 sclerosis (n=16), a 3D-T1 weighted high-resolution data set (MP-RAGE, voxel size
147 1x1x1mm, repetition time 1570ms, echo time 3.42ms, flip angle 15°, field of view 256mm x
148 256mm) for volumetric measurement of the hippocampus. This was done in a fully automated
149 manner by means of the FreeSurfer image analysis suite (Version 5.1.0, Martinos Center,
150 Harvard University, Boston, MA, USA.; FreeSurfer, RRID:SCR_001847) (Fischl et al.,
151 2002, 2004). Because of the high variance in total hippocampal volume between individuals,
152 we used a lateral damage index of hippocampal volume to express the extent of unilateral
153 hippocampal damage in our MTL group:

$$LDI = abs\left(\frac{V_{Hippol} - V_{HippoR}}{V_{Hippol} + V_{HippoR}}\right)$$

154

155 This lateral damage index can obviously be only assessed for subjects with unilateral
156 hippocampal sclerosis.

157 **Experimental Design and Statistical Analysis**

158 Our sample size was constrained by the availability of MTL patients with the
159 appropriate lesion. Still, a power analysis based on effect sizes for healthy participants in the
160 literature suggested we were well powered. Assuming a base proportion of 3% of
161 intransitivities for healthy controls (Lee, Amir, & Ariely, 2009) and the same for ETL patients
162 in contrast to twice this amount for the MTL patients, a large (and therefore conservative)
163 estimate (i.e. an effect size of $f = 0.4$), we would need a total of 60 participants for a power
164 level of 0.95. Our sample with at least 30 subjects per group was well above this.

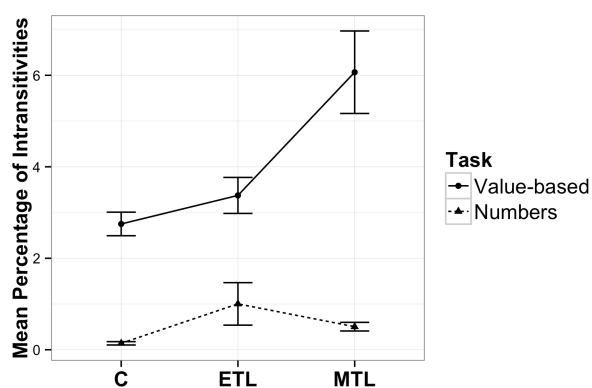
165 To perform statistical analysis on our focal behavioral dependent measure, the
166 intransitivity proportions were log transformed to avoid non-normal distributions and unequal
167 variances between the tasks. Based on model comparisons, a linear mixed model was deemed

168 the appropriate analysis having compared it to simpler models with no random effects. The
169 contrasts of this model were orthogonalized to allow a direct comparison of the ETL group to
170 the healthy controls and of the MTL group to both control groups together.

171 Statistical analyses were performed using R (Version 3.3.2; R Project for Statistical
172 Computing, RRID:SCR_001905) for Mac. We use a two-tailed p-value of 0.05 as our
173 criterion for statistical significance. The details of multilevel models are reported in the
174 Results section.

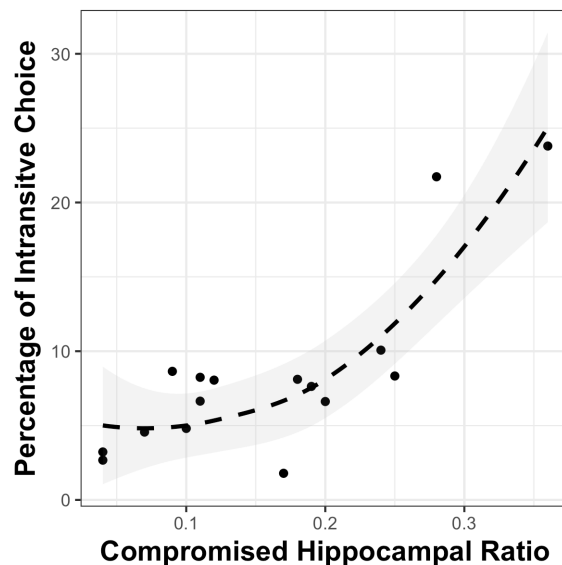
175 Results

176 As shown in Figure 2, MTL patients showed a greater percentage of intransitive
177 choices compared to the two control groups in the preference task, but not in the control task
178 (mean percentages for the preference task: MTL: 6.07%; ETL: 3.37%; CON: 2.75%; median
179 percentages: MTL: 4.56%; ETL 2.72%; CON: 2.94%; mean percentages for the control task:
180 MTL: 0.50 %; ETL: 1.00%; CON: 0.14%, median percentages: MTL: 0.36%; ETL: 0.00%;
181 CON: 0.04%. This analysis used a linear mixed model regressing log transformed
182 intransitivity percentages on an interactive model of group and task factors with orthogonal
183 contrasts. The MTL-group task interaction was $b = -0.06$, $t(91) = -2.98$, $p = 0.004$). The
184 difference between degree of intransitivity between the preference and control task did not
185 differ significantly between the two control groups (linear mixed model with orthogonal
186 contrasts ETL-group task interaction $b = -0.04$, $t(91) = 0.97$, $p = 0.333$).



187

188 **Fig. 2.** Mean percentage of intransitive choices per group in each task ($n_{\text{MTL}} = 31$, $n_{\text{C}} = 30$,
 189 $n_{\text{ETL}} = 30$). Error bars represent SEM.
 190



191
 192 **Fig. 3.** Relationship between hippocampal lesion volume and intransitive choices.
 193 Scatterplot of compromised hippocampal volume (as a ratio of total volume) against
 194 percentage of intransitive choices. Smoothing is done with locally with $\alpha = 2$. The observed
 195 robust nonparametric rank order correlation $\rho=0.676$, $p=0.004$.
 196

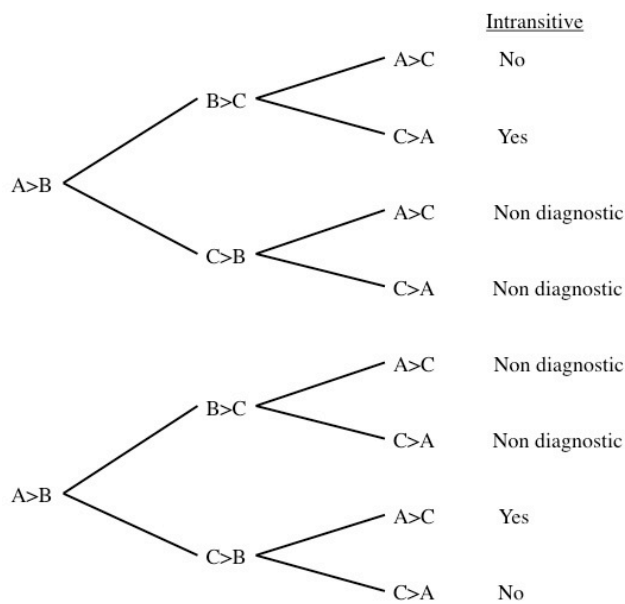
197 For a subset of patients with available MRIs we determined the ratio of compromised
 198 hippocampal volume to total volume and correlated this individual difference variable with
 199 the percentage of intransitive choices observed for these participants. We used a non-
 200 parametric correlation coefficient that is insensitive to outliers because it is calculated using
 201 rank order. We found a strong and significant relationship between these two variables, as
 202 shown in Figure 3 (Spearman- $\rho = 0.676$; $F(1, 14) = 11.78$, $p=0.004$; $n=16$), such that the
 203 larger the lesion volume, the less consistent were the value-based choices.

204 To provide context for interpreting the observed frequencies of intransitivity, we
 205 conducted a series of simulations that use a random utility model with a stochastic term added
 206 to the utility of the options, such that the probability of choosing option A ($p(A)$) in a
 207 decision between A and B is:

$$p(A) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{((1-\alpha)u(B) + \alpha\varepsilon) - ((1-\alpha)u(A) + \alpha\varepsilon)}}$$

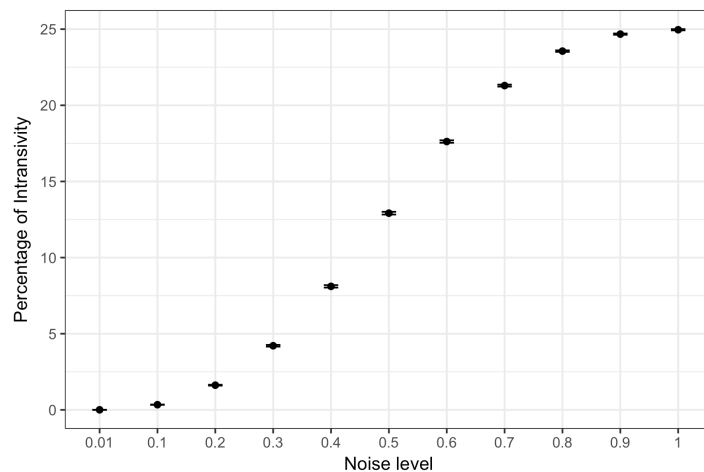
208 Equation 1

209 where $u(A)$ and $u(B)$ represent the utilities of options A and B , α represents the proportion
210 (between 0 and 1) of the observed utility due to random error, and ϵ is the random error. It can
211 be shown analytically that the maximum proportion of intransitive triples is .25 (Figure 4, also
212 see the discussion section of Tversky, 1969). Our question of interest is the effect of α , the
213 proportion of random error upon intransitivity. Our hypothesis is that the degree of MTL
214 patients' hippocampal sclerosis increases α , since access to past experiences that would
215 normally be called on to make a choice is impaired. We simulated how the proportion of
216 intransitive triples increases as noise in utilities increases. The effect is non-linear (Figure 5),
217 and the observed intransitivities in the MTL group correspond to an α of .3, i.e., the level
218 expected if random error represented approximately 30 percent of the utility values in
219 Equation 1.



220

221 **Figure 4:** Tree diagram indicating possible intransitive paths from three binary choices.



222

223 **Figure 5:** Mean percentage of intransitivities at different noise levels (α), based on 1000
224 simulations at each noise level. Error bars indicate standard errors.

225 We can test several alternative explanations to our account of random error in value
226 construction for our data. One alternative explanation is that respondents retain explicit
227 episodic memory of previous value comparisons during the task, and do not perform value
228 construction for the two options of each pairwise choice. Under this account, non-MTL
229 respondents may have better memory for their choices made earlier in the task, and this better
230 episodic memory prevents intransitive choices. This account would suggest that the rate of
231 intransitivities declines over time, as previous choices are remembered and used to avoid
232 intransitive later choices. We might expect this decline in intransitivities over choice trials
233 would differ for the MTL and non-MTL groups. We tested this hypothesis by regressing
234 whether or not a triplet was intransitive on the trial number of the last seen trial in that triplet.
235 We found no increase in the probability of a triplet being intransitive depending on when the
236 subjects saw the last trial in that triplet ($b = 0.027$, $z = 0.79$, $p = 0.427$) nor was this trend
237 different for the MTL group ($b = 0.032$, $z = -0.78$, $p = 0.434$).

238 An account emphasizing episodic memories of previous choices during the task makes a
239 more specific hypothesis: It would predict that the probability of intransitivity depends on the
240 delay (number of trials) between the choices involving the items that define
241 an intransitive triplet. To test this we checked whether a triplet was more likely to be

242 intransitive depending on the variance in the trial numbers involved in that triplet. We found
243 that the further apart from each other the three choices in a triplet were made the more likely
244 they were to be intransitive ($b = 0.109$, $z = 3.40$, $p = 0.007$). Crucially, however, this pattern
245 was not different for the MTL group ($b = -0.049$, $z = 1.25$, $p = 0.213$). That is, the group
246 differences in intransitivity cannot be explained by impairments of episodic memories *during*
247 the task.

248 Another alternative explanation involves group differences in speed-accuracy tradeoff. To
249 test this, we examined response latencies of the choices, and the relationship between
250 responses latencies and intransitivities for MTL and non-MTL groups. Contrary to a speed-
251 accuracy tradeoff, we found that slower (rather than faster) trials were more likely to be
252 involved in intransitive triplets ($b = 0.441$, $t(16985) = 4.40$, $p = 0.00001$) for all groups, and
253 that this did not differ for the MTL group (i.e., no interaction with this group: $b = -0.0846$,
254 $t(16985) = -0.62$, $p = 0.535$, though there was a quadratic effect of time for the ETL group $b =$
255 -0.382 , $t(16985) = -2.69$, $p = 0.007$). Moreover, the MTL group actually had a significantly
256 slower average response time per trial ($b = 0.301$, $t(88) = 2.11$, $p = 0.038$). Together, these
257 results suggest that intransitive triplets accompany more effortful and longer responding,
258 eliminating the possibility of a speed-accuracy tradeoff.

259 Notably both the speed accuracy tradeoff and the effect of the trial number of the last trial
260 in a triplet on intransitivity is the same for the numbers task as it is for the choice task,
261 suggesting that the two tasks share some similarities. Finally, we examined whether there
262 were any idiosyncratic effects on preference intransitivity associated with specific stimuli
263 (candy bars). We found no significant differences in the average number of intransitive
264 triplets each candy bar was involved in ($F(1, 90) = 0.003$, $p = 0.955$).

265 In combination, these analyses suggest that the observed increase in transitivity violations
266 for respondents with MTL lesions in the preference task but not number-comparison task, in a

267 way that is related to the volume of hippocampal lesions, suggests a failure in value-related
268 associations in this group.

269 **Discussion**

270 We provide support that brain regions associated with memory-related associative
271 processes play a critical role in value-based decision-making. Hippocampal lesions are
272 associated with an increase in intransitive value-based choices, and the degree of intransitivity
273 is related to magnitude of the damage to the hippocampus. A control task not involving value-
274 based processes does not show these effects, nor do respondents who have lesions outside of
275 the medial temporal lobe. These dissociation results implicate a crucial role for the
276 hippocampal areas in preference construction (Lichtenstein & Slovic, 2006), a
277 conceptualization in behavioral decision research that contrasts with standard theories of
278 rational choice that implicitly assume stable utility functions and choice options with
279 preexisting values.

280 Two conceptual clarifications are in order. Our central dependent measure, the frequency
281 of intransitive preferences has been used before to examine the inability of decision makers to
282 produce a stable representation of the value of choice options, with other patient groups
283 (Camille et al., 2011; Fellows & Farah, 2007). Earlier work, however, using choice
284 intransitivity as a dependent measure did so to identify choice heuristics incompatible with
285 utility maximization (Tversky, 1969). This resulted in a debate on the correct probabilistic
286 model of transitivity that would account for errors in experimental data and whether that was
287 evidence for a particular mechanism (Birnbaum & Gutierrez, 2007; Regenwetter, Dana,
288 Davis-Stober, & Guo, 2011; Regenwetter & Davis-Stober, 2008). Our use of the term
289 pairwise “transitivity” is not based on these frameworks and our design with two alternatives
290 per choice does not employ such model comparison. We use intransitivity counts, as in other
291 decision neuroscience research, instead, to examine error associated with the construction of
292 value representations.

293 Second, our use of the term “transitivity” is only marginally related to the extensive
294 literature measuring transitive inference, where a set of premises are learned in the experiment
295 and participants are asked to generalize these learned rules to novel contexts and combinations
296 of stimuli. Transitive inference tasks have been instrumental in establishing the role of the
297 hippocampus in representing organizations of stimulus relations (Eichenbaum & Cohen,
298 2001). Animal lesion studies established the necessity of the hippocampus for transitive
299 inference (Bunsey & Eichenbaum, 1996; Dusek & Eichenbaum, 1997), and data from humans
300 has confirmed the involvement of this region (Heckers, Zalesak, Weiss, Ditman, & Titone,
301 2004; Nagode & Pardo, 2002). However transitive inference paradigms differ from ours,
302 critically, because our respondents are stating their preferences, not learned premises. We do
303 not present participants with transitive relations and ask them to reason following this rule.
304 We ask for their preference between two candy bars. We do *not* hypothesize that if a
305 participant chooses Snickers over Mars and Mars over Bounty they would also choose
306 Snickers over Bounty because they are instructed that these choices must follow a given
307 transitive relationship. Instead, their transitive choice reflects an anticipation that they will
308 enjoy Snickers more. That is, while a transitive inference task implies a strict ordinal
309 relationship between stimuli thereby recruiting working memory, transitivity of choice as
310 measured by our design relies on values learned over time and presumably relies on the
311 recruitment of associative facilities (Halford, 2005).

312 Despite the evidence for the involvement of the hippocampus in consistent value-based
313 decisions, the delineation of specific cognitive and neural mechanisms provide multiple
314 avenues for future research.

315 First, the hippocampus is just one part in a larger network of relevant brain areas involved
316 in the retrieval and processing of choice values. A recent review (Shohamy & Turk-Browne,
317 2013) suggests hippocampal involvement in a variety of cognitive functions outside of the
318 domain of declarative memory providing two different hypotheses of hippocampal function:

319 The memory modulation hypothesis proposes that representations within the hippocampus
320 may transiently bias other cognitive functions e.g. value computations in our task. The
321 adaptive function hypothesis, in contrast, highlights the hippocampus as a central processing
322 unit with specific computations carried out in the hippocampal networks, depending on the
323 task at hand.

324 Our hippocampal patients produce patterns of intransitivity of value-based choice that are
325 similar to those observed in ventromedial prefrontal cortex (vmPFC) patients, suggesting that
326 the associations and memories stored in the hippocampus may serve as inputs to value
327 calculation occurring elsewhere (Barron et al., 2013), potentially in line with the memory
328 modulation hypothesis. The hippocampus is one of the most highly interconnected brain areas
329 (Cole, Pathak, & Schneider, 2010; Godsil, Kiss, Spedding, & Jay, 2013). In addition to being
330 directly and monosynaptically connected to the prefrontal cortex, animal work suggests a
331 topographically specific hippocampal projections map on functionally distinct prefrontal
332 regions (Cole et al., 2010; Godsil et al., 2013).

333 This possibility calls for a nuanced investigation of the interactions between
334 hippocampal and prefrontal regions in value-based decision-making. For example, Ranganath
335 and Ritchey (2012) propose a division of the MTL into two systems for memory-guided
336 behavior: the anterior (AT) and posterior-medial (PM) system. The AT, which is comprised of
337 the perirhinal cortex and anterior parts of the hippocampus and amygdala has strong
338 interconnections with the frontal cortex, has been argued to be involved in familiarity-based
339 cognition, social behavior and saliency. This is also the part of the hippocampus which is most
340 affected in patients with hippocampal sclerosis (Woermann, Barker, Birnie, Meencke, &
341 Duncan, 1998). Ranganath & Ritchey (2012) suggest that the AT system could facilitate the
342 use of past experiences to inform inferences about the personality and intentions of others.
343 Our results suggest such inferential abilities specific to distinct regions in the MTL along with
344 the connection to the ventromedial prefrontal cortex may play a role in value-based decisions.

345 On the other hand, in line with an adaptive function hypothesis, deficits in consistent
346 choices might be due to hippocampus-specific computations. For example, Fellows, (2006b)
347 showed that vmPFC lesioned patients differ from normal controls in their external information
348 search, in ways that could be attributed to diminished planning capacity. Perhaps this planning
349 capacity relies on hippocampus-specific computations. An interesting topic of research would
350 be whether vmPFC patients exhibit deficits in different mnemonic processes.

351 A second future research topic are potential compensation mechanisms in patients with
352 chronic hippocampal lesions. It is well-known that chronic brain lesions may lead to
353 compensatory shifts in neural processes, e.g. in the domain of language processing (Weber et
354 al., 2006). The application of neuroimaging methods during a value-based decision task in
355 these patients could provide answers to this question.

356 Third, although patients with temporal lobe epilepsy and hippocampal sclerosis do show
357 neuropsychological deficits especially in the domain of declarative memory, the amount to
358 which these deficits occur varies strongly between patients (Hoppe, Elger, & Helmstaedter,
359 2007). Future research combining in-depth neuropsychological testing together with value-
360 based choice tasks may shed light on the specific cognitive components underlying the
361 observed range of decision deficits.

362 Our results suggest a critical role for the hippocampus in the construction of the value of
363 choice options. Most decisions require the construction of value based on past experience.
364 Even a previously experienced option, like a favorite dish in a familiar restaurant, requires us
365 to compare recollections of the value of that option to newly available options such as
366 tonight's specials. A better understanding of both internal and external inputs to preference
367 construction processes and their aggregation and comparison will allow us to comprehend and
368 model how the brain calculates value and makes consistent choices.

369 **Author contribution statements**

370 BW, EJJ and EUW designed the experiment and wrote the manuscript, EJJ and AZE
371 analyzed the behavioral data and wrote the manuscript, IZ performed experiments, JW
372 analyzed the MRI data. CEE provided clinical data of the patients. All authors approved the
373 final version of the manuscript for submission.

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