**Acute stress alters probabilistic reversal learning in healthy participants**

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**Introduction** Stressful situations can improve or impair flexibility of reward learning. Reversal learning requires flexible adaptation to sudden changes in reward contingencies. Acute stress effects on reversal learning are highly relevant for psychiatric disorders but have rarely been investigated. Here, we employed functional MRI informed by computational modeling in a within-subject design with healthy participants to investigate the effect of acute social on flexible behavioral adaptation

**Methods** Healthy participants (n=28) underwent MRI during a reversal learning task, once after the Trier Social Stress Test (ST) and after a control condition (CT) in separate sessions. During the task participants chose between two stimuli with anti-correlated reward contingencies in order to obtain rewards in three phases with different levels of volatility. Effects of stress on choice behavior were investigated using generalized linear mixed-effects models and a set of computational models describing different learning processes that might have generated the data (hybrid Pearce-Hall and Rescorla-Wagner). Models were fitted using a hierarchical Bayesian approach (Piray, 2019) with reward prediction errors (RPE) as a parametric first-level regressor for fMRI.

**Results** Cortisol responses demonstrated that stress induction was successful. Stress significantly albeit subtly increased correct responses. Model comparison revealed that a Rescorla-Wagner model with individual scaling of the inverse decision temperature best explained the observed behavior under stress. On the neural level, RPE signals were coded in striatum and vmPFC, but we did not observe whole-brain correctable effects of stress on RPE representation.

**Discussion** Our study shows that acute social stress has an impact on reversal learning with high interindividual variability.

**1. Background** (1028 words)

Decision-making under stress is an everyday-life situation, for example when choosing an efficient and cheap commute to work. Different choice options, such as taking the car, bike or train, are associated with relatively stable levels of cost and reward. In contrast, the weather forecast of the day, a congestion on the preferred route or a train delay, are more volatile factors. Both, stable and volatile factors interact, in that cycling to work may be rewarding on a sunny but not rainy day. Stress will affect individuals' physiological responses and consequently their cognitive capacities for effective decision-making in a constantly changing environement.

**1.1. Psychiatric relevance**

While healthy individuals can adapt to a certain level of stress and even find it beneficial (Lighthall et al., 2013), decision-making frequently goes awry in psychiatric disorders (Cáceda et al., 2014; Voon et al., 2017). Stress is an important factor in causing and maintaining psychiatric illness (McEwen, 2004) and health-related behavior in general (Cohen et al., 2016). Understanding the impact of stress on decision-making is essential to develop a mechanistic understanding of psychiatric disorders and necessitates a model of how healthy individuals make decisions under stress. So far small sample sizes, heterogenous subdomains in the operationalization of decision-making and methodological considerations with regard to the type of stressor have complicated the picture (Porcelli and Delgado, 2017).

**1.2 Stress and learning**

In operationalizing decision-making under stress, it is crucial to evaluate which behavior constitutes optimal decision-making in different paradigms. Flexible decision-making requires several subdomains such as goal implementation, risk-taking, reward and loss sensitivity, task switching or learning from feedback. Across paradigms the effects of stress on these different types of learning are beneficial sometimes and detrimental other times (Goldfarb et al., 2015; Plessow et al., 2012, 2011). In a meta-analysis, acute stress had a small negative impact on tasks in which reward seeking and risk taking was disadvantageous (*d* = .26 and *d* = .44), but no effect if this was not the case. (Starcke and Brand, 2016). Similarly, a meta-analysis investigating the effects of acute stress on cognitive flexibility in a smaller study set concluded that stress had an impairing effect (Shields et al., 2016). Both meta-analyses predominantly focussed on older paradigms such as the Wisconsin card sorting test or task-switching tests. While providing valuable insight into overall cognitive flexibility these paradigms mostly rely on averaged outcome measures. In contrast, novel tasks designed for computational modeling provide a more fine-grained measure of underlying processes, as will become clear in the next section. Further variance is introduced by different types of standardized stressors, which are commonly used in behavioral experiments. They can be physiological as in the Cold Pressor Task, psychosocial as in the Trier Social Stress Test (TSST) or both as in the Socially Evaluated Cold Pressor Test (Starcke and Brand, 2016). The physiological paradigms lead to more immediate stress during learning, whereas the psychosocial paradigms release their full physiological effect 10-20 mins after stress induction.

**1.3 Stress and learning (computational)**

In the last decade computational approaches combined with cognitive neuroscience gained traction in clinical application (Huys et al., 2016; Maia and Frank, 2011). A useful dichotomy in differentiating decision-making is habitual versus goal-directed behavior and its respective neural correlates (Balleine and O’Doherty, 2010). Both types of learning find their computational equivalent in reinforcement learning (RL) model. Generally, learning results from so-called reward prediction errors (RPE), signalling the difference between an observed and expected reward. RPE are used to update choice values of available choice options in order to maximise rewards. When behaving habitually or model-free, a learner is guided by model-free RPE in seeking rewards without taking the environmental structure into account. The respective neural signature is found in the ventral striatum. Goal-directed behavior on the other hand is also called model-based because a model of the environment is necessary. A model-based RPE incorporates knowledge about higher-order task structure, such as interdependent choice options. On the neural level, the medial prefrontal cortex (mPFC) is a key network for model-based learning. In general, learners presumably use a mixture of both types for learning depending on their cognitive resources (Dolan and Dayan, 2013). As stress is a key factor impacting cognitive resources, both processes should be prone to interruption by stress (Schwabe and Wolf, 2011, 2009). Experimental attempts to disentangle model-free and model-based learning show that stress affects both types of learning in different ways (Cremer et al., 2021; Otto et al., 2013).

**1.4 Probabilistic reversal learning**

Probabilistic reversal learning is a central concept in the realm of reward-related decision-making because it operationalizes cognitive flexibility in a volatile environment. Successful performance in this task is subsumed under model-based learning. Paradigms tapping at this type of learning require participants to choose between two stimuli with anti-correlated reward contingencies. Contingencies are reversed several times throughout the task unannounced and therefore require flexible adaptation to a volatile environment. Optimal learning necessitates that the anti-correlated task structure is understood and taken into consideration. In this case probabilistic losses should still lead to stay-behavior and probabilistic wins should lead to switch-behavior. The task enables analysis of correct performance, adaptive win-stay and lose-switch behavior and computational modeling of the RPE. Meta-analytically, neural correlates of reversal learning could be expected to be represented in two major neural networks: Whereas the RPE is typically encoded in human reward circuitry, such as the ventral striatum and the ventromedial prefrontal cortex (vmPFC), surprise is usually represented in the anterior cingulate cortex, anterior insula and dorsal striatum (Fouragnan et al., 2018).

**1.5 Limitations of previous studies**

However, it is less clear how stress affects the neural correlates of probabilistic reversal learning and previous studies rely on between-subject designs. The few studies using within-subject designs (Radenbach et al., 2015) to investigate learning, are either purely behavioral or employ electroencephalograph lacking the possibility of precise localization (Cavanagh et al., 2011). Additionally, few studies in the realm of cognitive flexibility use computational modeling to elucidate underlying cognitive mechanisms. Applying a state-of-the-art hierarchical Bayesian modeling approach (Piray et al., 2019), allowed us to model the impact of stress. To our best of knowledge probabilistic reversal learning has not been investigated after a psychosocial stress intervention in a within-subject design before.

**2. Methods** (1642 words)

2.1. Study Design:

Employing a within-subject design, participants performed a probabilistic reversal learning task during fMRI in two separate sessions seven days apart. During the stress condition participants were exposed to a mock interview and calculus in front of a socially unresponsive committee in white lab coats, following the standard Trier Social Stress Test (TSST) protocol (Kirschbaum et al., 1993). During the control condition participants read a neutral text without presence of the committee. Session type (stress vs. control) was counter-balanced across participants. In order to prevent confounding effects of circadian rhythm on cortisol levels both experimental sessions were scheduled at exactly the same time of the day (Kudielka et al., 2004). Acute stress response was assessed at physiological (cortisol and α-amylase) and subjective (self-report VAS scales) level at six timepoints throughout the session (see Figure 3).

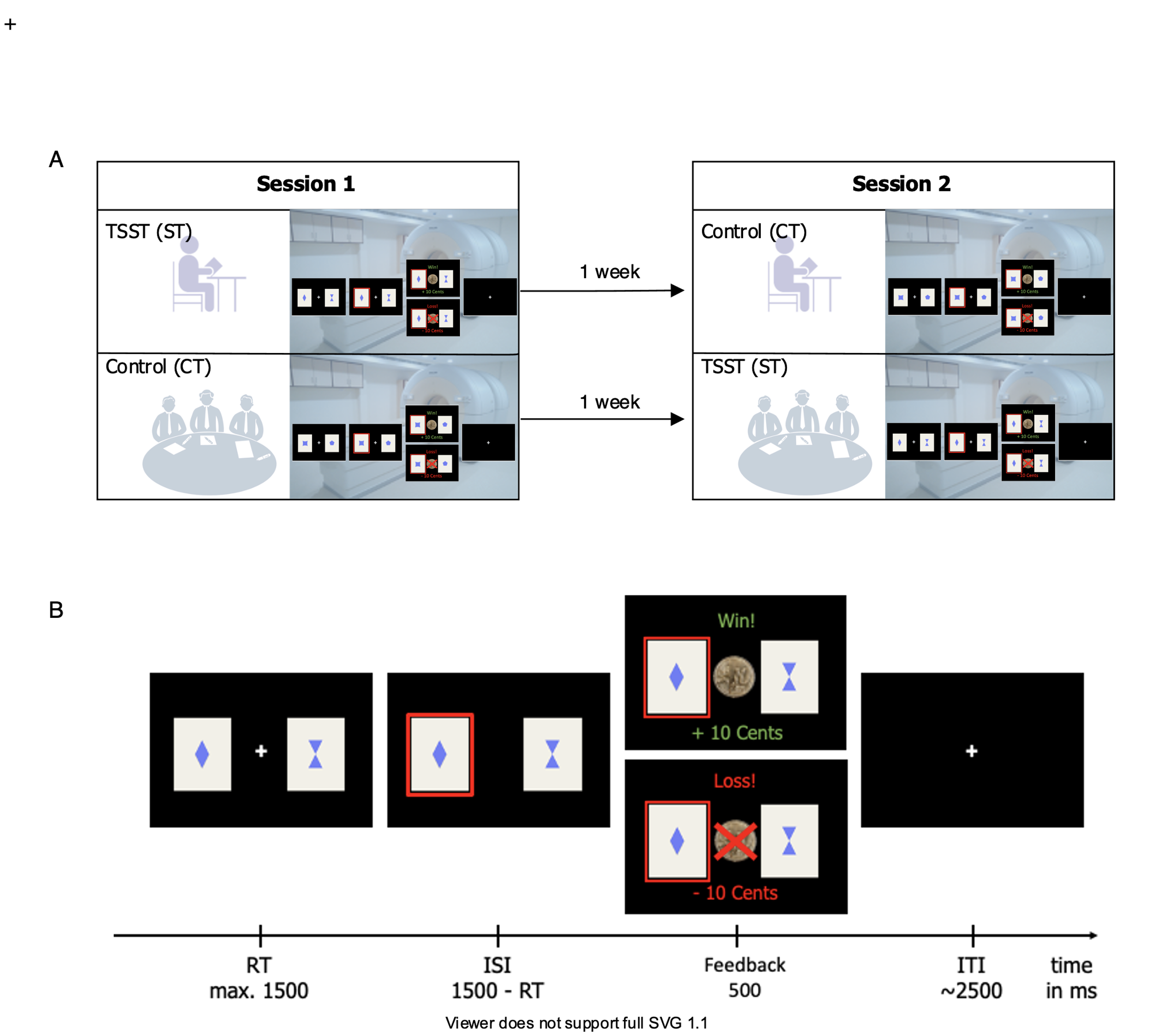


Figure 1 Study design (A) and task design (B)

2.2. Physiological stress response:

We assessed physiological stress response via salivary cortisol, which were assessed six times throughout the experiment ﻿at the following time points relative to the start of intervention (stress or control): t1: -30 minutes; t2: -2 minutes; t3: +10 minutes; t4: +15 minutes; t5: +30 minutes; t6: +45 minutes. For collection and extraction of saliva we used Salivette saliva sampling tubes (SalivetteCortisol®, Sarstedt, Nuembrecht, Germany) (see Supplement). Individual cortisol reactivity was determined by calculating the area under the curve with respect to ground (AUCg-stress and AUCg-control, according to Pruessner et al., 2003) separately for both conditions and subtracting AUCg-control from AUCg-stress. The AUC was calculated based on individualized subjectwise time points, taking into account slight dispersion in the testing protocol. We further applied a criterion of 1.5nmol per liter (nmol/l, Miller et al., 2013) from post-stress (T3 through T6) above the pre-stress level (T1/2) during the stress condition (Goodman et al., 2017) to define stress-responders vs. non-responders. Using this method three participants were classified as non-responders. However, excluding these participants did not change our behavioral findings and therefore they remained in the final sample.

2.3. Subjective stress response:

Three different visual analogue scales (VAS) ranging from 0 to 100 were used to assess subjective arousal, valence and stress at all time points (T1-T6). Arousal was rated on the scale "Do you feel active or sleepy?" from 0 (sleepy) to 100 (active), valence on the scale "Do you feel happy or unhappy?" from 0 (unhappy) to 100 (happy) and stress on the scale "Do you feel stressed or not stressed?" from 0 (not stressed) to 100 (stressed).

2.4. Task Design

Participants performed a probabilistic reversal learning task, which included 160 trials and comprised around 15 minutes. The task was programmed in Matlab (The MathWorks, Natick, MA) with Psychtoolbox. On every trial, participants had to decide between two cards, depicting a different geometric stimulus. The underlying reward structure was not explicitly instructed but could be inferred: reward probabilites associated with the two choice options were anticorrelated (i.e. whenever card A was rewarded, card B was a loss and vice versa). Furthermore, Participants were informed on the probabilistic nature of the task: the respective winning card was only rewarded in 80% of all trials. Right-side versus left-side location of the stimulus was randomized. After a fixed number of trials, contingencies reversed and these reversals repeated over the middle experimental phase (see Figure 2). Participants were instructed to win as much money as possible and paid out a monetary bonus at the end of the experiment. Participants in both groups were matched on differences in proportion of the number of informative and misleading events between the two sessions because feedback was drawn probabilistically. Therefore, another 8 participants were not included in the final sample.

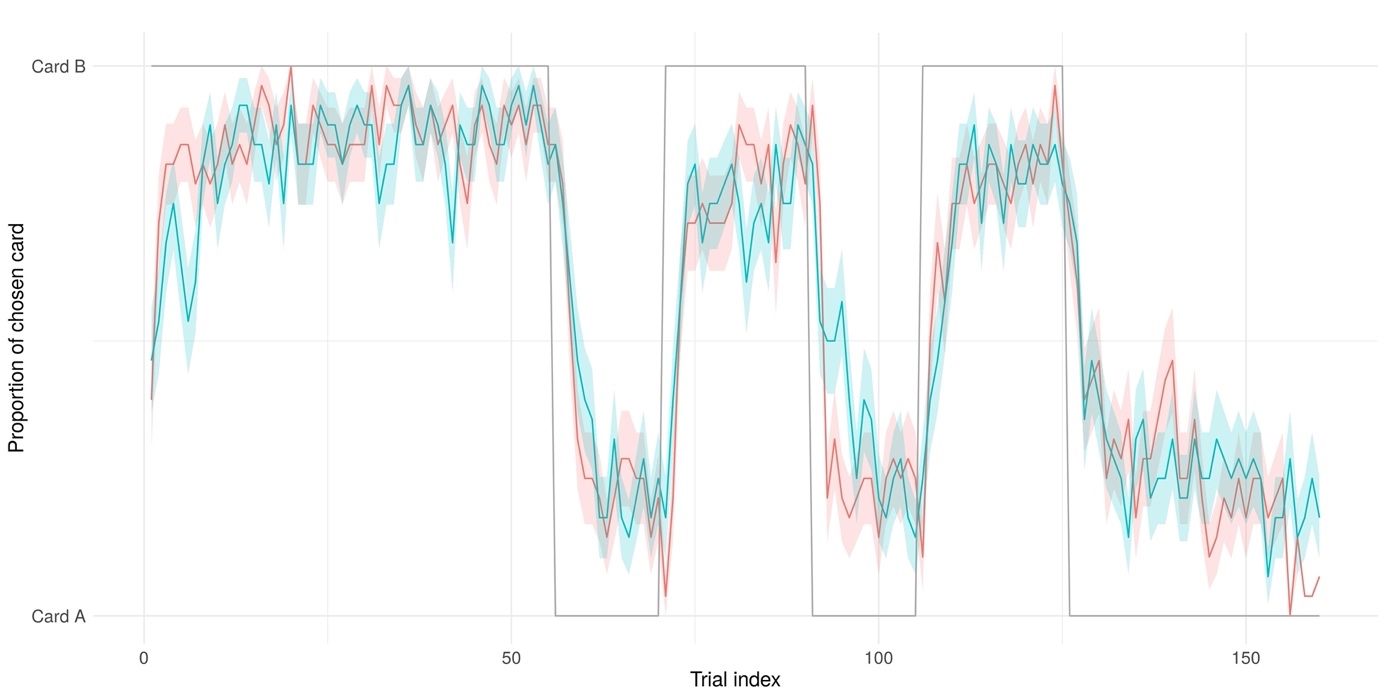


Figure 2 Empirical choice behavior in both conditions with underlying task structure in grey

2.5. Analyses

*2.5.1. Stress response analyses*

Cortisol and the three subjective VAS scales were asssessed using paired-samples *t*-tests.

*2.5.2. Behavioral data*

Single-trial mixed effects logistic regressions were conducted using the lme4 package (Bates et al., 2015) in R (Version 3.1.X). Results were considered significant at p≤.05. We analyzed trial-by-trail correct responses, win-stay and lose-switch behavior with factors *stress condition* (CT vs. ST, effect coding as -0.5 and 0.5) and *experimental phase* (pre, reversal, post) as fixed effects, allowing for a random subject intercept. For the factor *experimental phase* we specified a custom centered contrast, testing the null hypothesis of performance differences between first stable vs. reversal and late stable vs. reversal phase using the hypr package (Rabe et al., 2020). Main effects of condition and phase, as well as an interaction effect were added incrementally in two steps. They were also compared to the null model, which predicted outcome variables with the random subject intercept only, using Aikaike information criterion (AIC) and Bayesian information criterion (BIC). For the winning model Odd's Ratio was computed to assess effect size. The same analysis was conducted with cortisol AUC instead of stress condition. Participants were excluded when their performance was below chance (correct responses < 50%). This was the case for one participant. Across all trials, participants missed a relatively low number of trials (0.71%).

*2.5.3 Computational models*

In order to describe different learning processes that might have generated the data under stress and control condition we followed a two-step procedure: First, we fit our model space to the behavioral data of the control condition. Then, the best fitting model from the control condition was used for modelling behavior under stress now with additional ‘stress weights’ on the free parameters. The model space comprised Rescorla-Wagner (RW), Pearce-Hall (PH; Diederen et al., 2016) models and a no-learning model. In the RW and PH models, the expected value of an action at trial is updated via the RPE (eq. 1), which is defined as the difference between received reward and previously expected reward value for the chosen stimulus (eq. 2):

In RW models, we accounted for learning about the unchosen option as indicated by the implicit anti-correlated task structure in different sub-models (eq. 3,for single update (SU), for full double update (DU) and freely fitted for individually weighted double update (iDU)). We further varied whether learning rates differed for wins and losses. The PH model encompasses eq. 1 and 2 with a dynamic learning rate depending on a decay over time as and the absolute prediction error (see Supplement or Diederen et al., 2016). In the no-learning model, a stable bias towards one of the stimuli was implemented (Supplement). For all learning models, trial-wise q-action values are transformed into choice probabilities by a softmax response model with different inverse decision noise temperatures following wins and losses:

The free softmax temperature parameter reflects choice stochasticity with higher values equating more deterministic and lower values equating more stochastic choices. Taken together, the ‘step 1 model space’ consisted of 8 models for learning under the control condition: RW-SU-1al, RW-SU-2al, RW-DU-1al, RW-DU-2al, RW-iDU-1al, RW-iDU-1al, PH and no-learning. We applied Bayesian model comparison (Piray et al., 2020) to find out which of these models explained the data best (see protected exceedance probabilities (PXP) in Figure X).

To model learning under the stress condition, we added stress weights to the free parameters of the best-fitting model from the first step (RW-DU-2al). The ‘step 2 model space’ included the DU-2al model without stress effects (RW-DU-2al-NoStress), one with stress weights affecting only the learning parameters and (RW-DU-2al-StressBetas) one model with stress only affecting the temperature parameters and , (RW-DU-2al-StressLearning) and a full model with stress affecting all free parameter (RW-DU-2al-StressAll). This model space was fitted to combined data from both conditions: trials were collapsed across control and stress conditions within subjects, with the stress parameters only applying to those trials from the stress condition (see Supplement). As in step 1, model fits were then compared between models.

*2.5.4. Model fitting*

Models from both steps were fitted under the hierarchical Bayesian inference approach as implemented in the cbm toolbox (Piray et al., 2020) run in in Matlab R2018a. This procedure allowed for concurrent model comparison and parameter estimation. Thereby, the latter also follows a mixed effects approach: the group mean parameter affects individual parameter estimation and vice versa, but the relationship is scaled by how (relatively) well the model explains the individual subject’s behavior.

*2.5.5. fMRI data*

Scans were acquired on a Siemens 3 T high-resolution PRISMA MR-System with a 20-channel head coil (Siemens, Erlangen, Germany). Covering the whole brain, 40 slices were acquired in oblique orientation at 20﻿° to the anterior commissure-posterior commissure line and in ascending order with the following parameters: T2\*-weighted gradient-echo echo-planar imaging (EPI) (TR: 2.09 s;TE: 22 ms; flip angle: 90°; 3 × 3 mm2 in plane voxel resolution, 0.5 mm gap between slices, voxel size, 3 × 3 × 5 mm) . The scanning procedure (A) comprised a T1-weighted MPRAGE recorded within seven days before the first test session, (B) before/after the task a field map was collected to account for individual homogeneity differences of the magnetic field. Functional imaging data analyses were performed using SPM12 in Matlab. ﻿

Reward prediction errors (RPE) were included as a parametric first-level regressors for stress and control conditions separately and the six realignment parameters were added as additional regressors. Contrast images for 2-back and 0-back were computed for control and stress condition and subsequently submitted to random-effects group statistics (second level). A paired t-test was used with condition (stress/control). To control for multiple comparisons, family-wise error correction (*pFWE*) was applied at the whole-brain level. The association of RPE BOLD signal with behavioral learning performance was tested as following: ﻿A flexible factorial design was used with condition (stress/control) as within-subject factor and learning (median split on percentage of correct responses resulting in two groups: improved vs. impaired learners under stress) and subject as random effect (see Supplement: Exploratory fMRI analyses)

**3. Results**

3.1. Sample characteristics

Our sample consisted of n = 28 healthy male adults with a mean age of 26.93 (*SD* = 5.70) and a mean of 12.18 (*SD* = 1.21) educational years and a mean verbal intelligence of 103.8 (*SD* = 10.07)

3.2. Physiological and subjective results

The stress intervention significantly increased subjective stress response (arousal, valence and subjective stress), as well as physiological response (cortisol levels). For detailed statistics refer to the supplement and Figure 3.

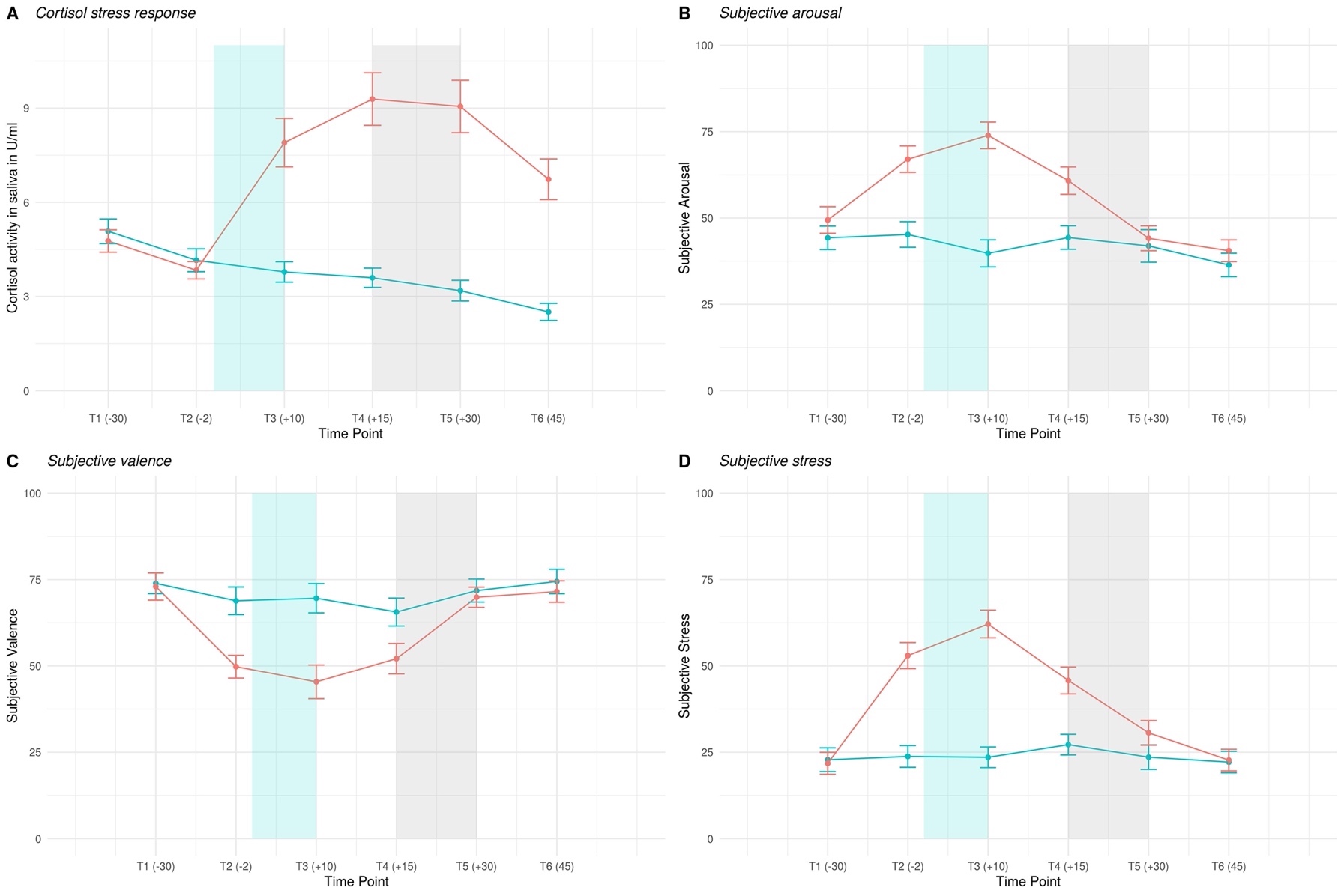


Figure 3 Physiological (cortisol) (A) and subjective stress response (B-D) over the course of the session. Blue shaded area: stress induction (TSST) and control intervention respectively, grey shaded area: reversal learning task was administered in the MR scanner.

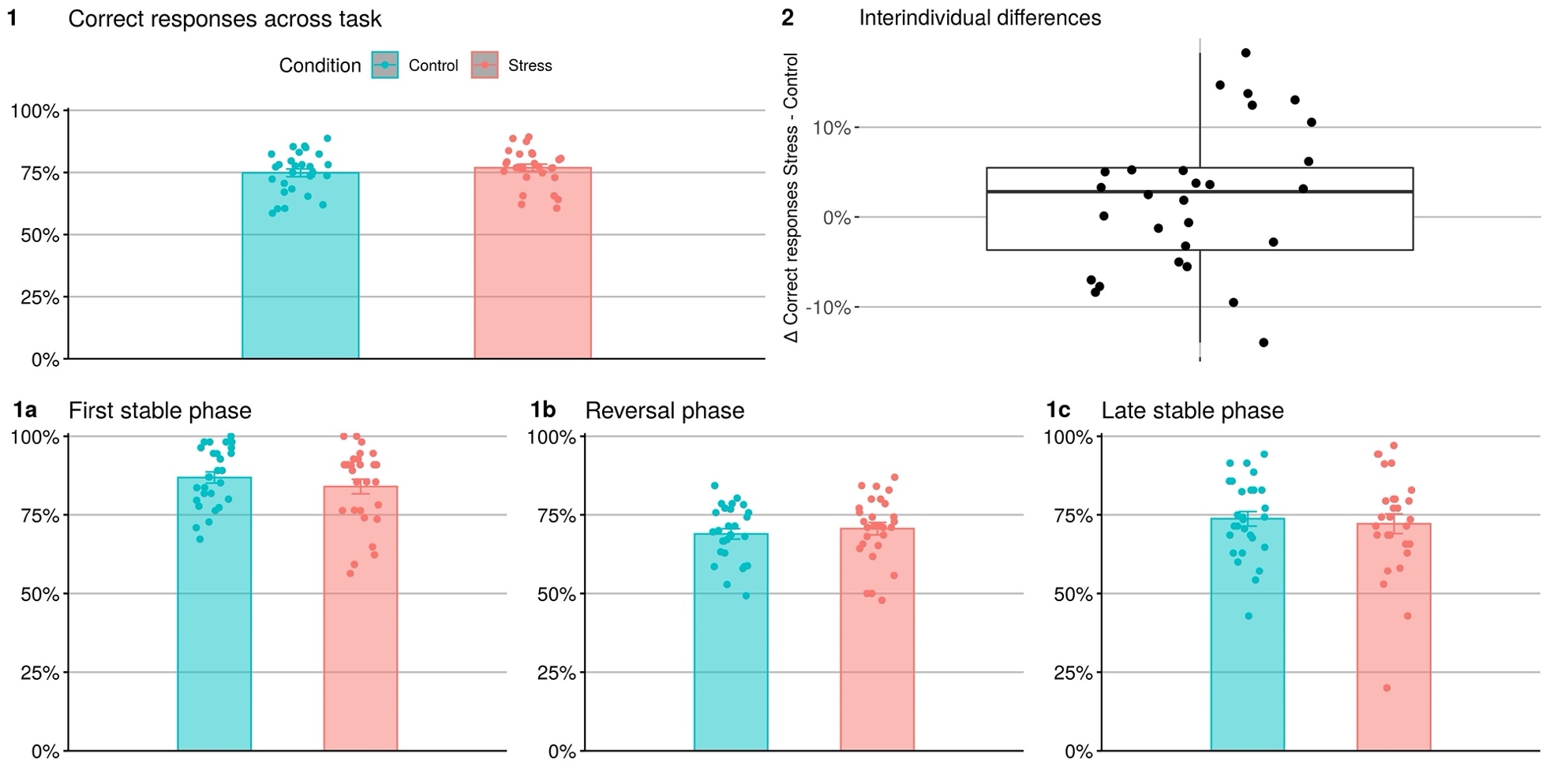


Figure 4 Correct responses across task (1), as well as phases (1a-c) and interindividual differences between conditions (2)

3.3. Behavioral results

Predicting correct responses on a single-trial basis with generalized mixed effects modeling indicated the expected task effect under reversal ﻿(*p* < 0.001) and in the second stable phase ﻿(*p* < 0.001). For both phases, correct responses decreased with respect to the first reference phase. Furthermore, there was a main effect of condition (*p* = 0.020), suggesting that participants' correct responses subtly increased with a 1.13 higher chance for correct responses under stress (see Figure 5). These results were supported by a significant main effect (*p* = 0.030) of stress when physiological stress level (AUC) was used as a continuous predictor instead of experimental condition (see Figure S1). In this model task effects were again significant for the reversal phase ﻿(*p* < 0.001) as well as the stable phase ﻿(*p* < 0.001).

Regarding win-stay behavior, task effects of reversal phase ﻿(*p* < 0.001) and stable phase ﻿(*p* < 0.001) were significant, but not experimental condition (*p* = 0.22). Similarly, lose-switch behavior resulted in significant task effects of reversal phase (*p* < 0.001) and stable phase ﻿(*p* < 0.001), but not experimental condition (*p* = 0.73).

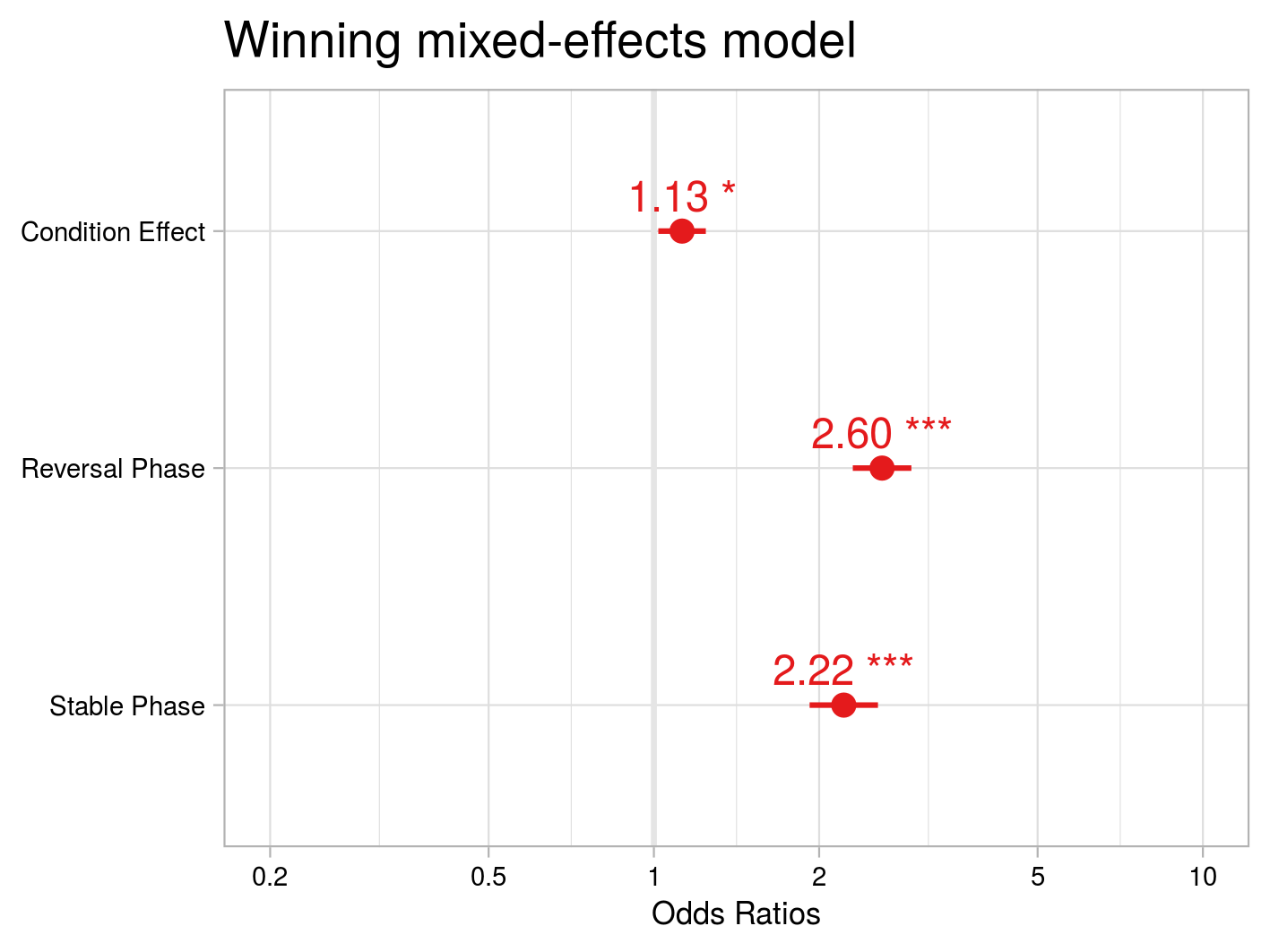


Figure 5 Odd's Ratio of condition (CI: 1.02-1.24), reversal phase (CI: 2.30-2.94) and stable phase (CI:1.92-2.56) contrasts from fixed-effects model.

Table 1 Mixed-effects modeling results

|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
|  | **Correct Responses** | | | | |  |
| **Predictors** | | *Estimate (SE)* | *CI* | *Z* | *p* |  |
| Intercept | | 1.23 (0.07) | 1.08-1.38 | 17.13 | < 0.001 |  |
| Condition | | 0.12 (0.05) | 0.01-0.22 | 2.32 | 0.020 |  |
| Reversal Phase | | 0.96 (0.06) | 0.83-1.07 | 15.27 | < 0.001 |  |
| Stable Phase | | 0.8 (0.07) | 0.65-0.94 | 10.89 | < 0.001 |  |
| ICC | | 0.04 |  |  |  |  |
| N subject | | 28 |  |  |  |  |
| Observations | | 8893 |  |  |  |  |
| Marginal R2 / Conditional R2 | | 0.053/0.088 |  |  |  |

3.4. Computational modeling results

In the ‘step 1 model space’, the RW-DU-2al model fit best across all participants with a PXP = 0.62 (see Figure 6) to explain behavior in the control condition. Subsequently, the ‘step 2 model space’ resulted in a best fit for RW-DU-2al-StressBetas (PXP = 0.92), only affecting the temperature parameter and (see Table 2 for parameter estimates and Figure S2/3 for violin plots of distributions). Model selection resulted in protected exceedance probabilities (PXP) < 0.1 for all other models (see Figure 6).

Table 2 Parameter mean estimates of the winning model

|  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **Variable** | *M* | *SD* |  |
|  | 0.19 | 0.11 |  |
|  | 0.36 | 0.17 |  |
|  | 6.01 | 3.99 |  |
|  | 3.21 | 2.52 |  |
|  | 5.61 | 4.68 |  |
|  | 3.08 | 3.33 |  |



Figure 6 Protected exceedance probability - 'step 1' and 'step 2' model spaces

fMRI results

﻿We found a main effect of both conditions in the network of the vmPFC, bilateral striatum, posterior cingulate cortex (PCC) and bilateral insula (thresholded at FWE-corrected p > 0.05 for the whole brain, see Table 1).

Table 1 Main effects of task on RPE representation across conditions

|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **Main Effect of Task across Conditions (CT and ST)** | | | | | | | | |
| Region | Side | Cluster size | MNI - peak coordinate | | | *T value* | *puncorrected* | *pFWE* |
| corrected |
|  |  |  | x | y | z |  |  |  |
| Middle frontal gyrus  Precuneus | L/R  L | 401  222 |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| -10 | 42 | -12 | 9.48 | < .001 | < .001 |
| -8 | -52 | 32 | 9.05 | < .001 | < .001 |
| Ventral striatum  Insula | R | 16 | 10 | 2 | 12 | 8.62 | < .001 | < .001 |
| L | 56 | -36 | 2 | 12 | 8.08 | < .001 | .001 |
| Inferior frontal gyrus | L | 39 | -22 | -32 | -12 | 8.05 | < .001 | .001 |
| Precentral gyrus | R | 85 | 32 | -20 | 58 | 7.69 | < .001 | .002 |
| Superior frontal gyrus | L | 19 | -18 | 38 | 44 | 7.59 | < .001 | .003 |
| Postcentral gyrus | R | 75 | 38 | -26 | 46 | 7.56 | < .001 | .003 |
| Rolandic operculum | R | 11 | 46 | 2 | 10 | 7.35 | < .001 | .005 |
| Median cingulate gyri | R | 11 | 16 | -14 | 46 | 7.17 | < .001 | .007 |
| Paracentral lobule | L | 12 | -4 | -26 | 50 | 7.00 | < .001 | 0.010 |
| Postcentral gyrus | L | 21 | -34 | -30 | 48 | 6.81 | < .001 | 0.015 |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |

*Note*. Uncorrected as well as whole-brain corrected fMRI results (T-values, cluster sizes, side) with all clusters > 10 voxels from the main task effect across conditions in n = 28 participants are illustrated above. Abbreviations: fMRI = functional magnetic resonance imaging, FWE = family-wise error correction, L = left, MNI = Montreal Neurological Institute, R = right.

**Discussion** (552 words)

The present study investigated the behavioral and neural effects of acute psychosocial stress on reversal learning. In healthy male participants we found that probabilistic reversal learning improves slightly under acute psychosocial stress. Win-stay, as well as lose-switch behavior was not affected. Choice behavior under stress was best explained by a model with altered choice stochasticity but unchanged learning rate under stress. Neurally, a network of vmPFC, bilateral ventral striatum, posterior cingulate cortex and insula represented reward-based learning across conditions with no whole-brain correctable effect of stress.

The existing literature on decision-making is unclear regarding the directional impact of stress on learning. While meta-analyses on older studies found that stress slightly impairs learning (Shields et al., 2016; Starcke and Brand, 2016), more recent studies using cognitive computational modeling found a shift in the balance of model-free and model-based learning (Cremer et al., 2021; Otto et al., 2013; Raio et al., 2020). High interindividual variability and a variety of paradigms and stressors used possibly obscured effects in previous studies and call for further investigation. Our neural findings are in line with previous studies using the same paradigm (Katthagen et al., 2020; Andrea M.F. Reiter et al., 2016; Reiter et al., 2017). Using intraindividual cortisol levels instead of condition (stress vs. control) as predictor confirmed our results. Future studies should always consider interindividual differences in the reactivity to stress. The neural finding of no whole-brain correctable effect of stress is not suprising, considering the subtlety of behavioral stress effects uncovered by linear mixed-effects modeling as well as computational modeling.

**Moderator variables**

A further potential explanation for the inconsistent impact of acute stress on learning are moderating variables, such as chronic stress exposure, cognitive capacities or personality traits. For instance, a high working memory capacity seems to hold a protective function against the attenuation of model-based learning (Otto et al., 2013), while trait impulsivity interacts with different aspects of learning differentially, but particularly seems to increase perseveration (Raio et al., 2017).

**Limitations**

Considering the gender differences in decision-making (Shields et al., 2016) which may be amplified by stress (Mather and Lighthall, 2012) and potential impact of cyclical changes in female individuals we decided to investigate an exclusively male sample. Furthermore, our sample was homogenously young and highly educated. Therefore, our findings cannot be generalized to the general population or patient samples.

**Reversal learning and psychiatric relevance**

Our results suggest that it might be worthwhile to assess decision-making under acute stress in at-risk populations to reveal how stress is involved in maladaptive decision-making. Identification of altered choice behavior and relevant neural networks in healthy individuals make it possible to disentangle how stress affects healthy decision-making and what might be a maladaptive psychiatric alteration. As an operationalization of cognitive flexibility, reversal learning is a construct with high relevance for several psychiatric disorders. For instance, in patients with alcohol use disorder (Andrea M F Reiter et al., 2016), anorexia nervosa (Bernardoni et al., 2017), binge-eating disorder (Reiter et al., 2017), ADHD (Hauser et al., 2021) or schizophrenia (Katthagen et al., 2020) cognitive flexibility and its neural correlates are impaired.

**Conclusion**

Our study combines the advantages of a within-subject design and fine-grained computational measures to investigate the effect of acute psychosocial stress on healthy male adults. Several lines of analysis showed altered choice stochasticity and slightly improved performance under stress.

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**Disclosure Statement**

The Authors have declared that there are no conflicts of interest in relation to the subject of this study.

**Data availability**

Data and analysis scripts are available via https://github.com/agschlagenhauf/SALAD

**Author Contributions**

ZS, FS; Conceptualization.   
LL, ZS; Data curation.  
LW, CE, TK, FS; Formal analysis.   
LW; Roles/Writing - original draft.  
CE, TK, ZS, FS, LL, MP, AH; Writing - review & editing.

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