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- 1 Investigating the Interaction of Direct and Indirect Relation on Memory Judgments and
- Retrieval
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Abstract

This study examined the interactive relationship between direct and indirect relation 13 strength in the prediction of item judgments and cued-recall performance. Participants were 14 recruited from Amazon's Mechanical Turk and were given word pairs of varying relatedness 15 to judge for their semantic, thematic, and associative strength. After completing a distractor task, participants then completed a cued recall task. First, we sought to expand previous work on judgments of associative memory (JAM) to include semantic and thematic based 18 judgments, while also replicating bias and sensitivity findings. Next, we tested for an 19 interaction between direct and indirect association when predicting participant judgments while also expanding upon previous work by examining that interaction when predicting 21 recall. The interaction between direct and indirect association was significant for both judgments and recall. For low indirect association, direct association was the primary 23 predictor of both judgment strength and recall proportions. However, this trend reversed for 24 high indirect association, as higher levels of indirect relation decreased the effectiveness of 25 direct relation as a predictor. Overall, our findings indicate the degree to which the 26 processing of associative, semantic, and thematic information impacts cognitive processes 27 such as retrieval and item judgments, while also examining the underlying, interactive 28 relationship that exists in language used to represent concept information.

Keywords: judgments, memory, association, semantics, thematics

Investigating the Interaction of Direct and Indirect Relation on Memory Judgments and
Retrieval

The study of cognition has a rich history of exploring the way in which associations 33 affect human memory. One key finding is that associations between items influence cognitive 34 processing and play a critical role in how well an individual retains learned information. 35 Throughout the mid-20th century, researchers investigated this notion, particularly through the use of paired-associate learning (PAL). In this paradigm, participants are presented with a pair of items and are asked to make connections between them so that the presentation of one item (the cue) will in turn trigger the recall of the other (the target). Early studies of this nature focused primarily on the effects of meaning and imagery on recall performance. For example, Smythe and Paivio (1968) found that noun imagery played a crucial role in PAL performance; subjects were much more likely to remember word-pairs that were low in meaning similarity if imagery between the two was high. Subsequent studies in this area focused on the effects of mediating variables on PAL tasks as well as the effects of imagery and meaningfulness on associative learning (Richardson, 1998), with modern studies shifting 45 their focus towards a broad range of applied topics such as how PAL is affected by aging (Hertzog, Kidder, Powell-Moman, & Dunlosky, 2002), its impacts on second language 47 acquisition (Chow, 2014), and even in evolutionary psychology (Schwartz & Brothers, 2013).

Early PAL studies routinely relied on stimuli generated from word lists that focused extensively on measures of word frequency, concreteness, meaningfulness, and imagery (Paivio, 1969). However, the word pairs in these lists were typically created due to their apparent relatedness or frequency of occurrence in text. While lab self-generation appears face valid, one finds that this method of selection lacks a decisive method of defining the underlying relationships between the pairs (Buchanan, 2010), as these variables only capture psycholinguistic measurements of an individual concept (i.e., how concrete is *cat* and word occurrence). PAL is, by definition, used on word pairs, which requires examining concept

relations in a reliable manner. As a result, free association norms have become a common means of indexing associative strength between word pairs (Nelson, McEvoy, & Dennis, 2000).

Measuring Association

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Within cognitive psychology, word associations have been conceptualized differently 61 across various lines of research (i.e., direct word associations, mediated associates, etc.; see 62 De Devne et al. (2013b) for a review). For the present study, we focus on two types of 63 associations: direct associations and indirect associations. Direct word associations are traditionally viewed as the context-based relation between concepts, usually found in text or 65 popular culture (Nelson et al., 2000). Within this framework, word associations are thought to arise in several different ways. Such associations may develop through their co-occurrence 67 together in either written or spoken language. The terms peanut and butter have become associated over time through their joint use to depict a particular type of food, though separately, the two concepts share very little overlap in terms of meaning. However, this separation is not the case for all associative pairs. For example, word associations capture the knowledge that fish live in water (e.g., fish - swim) and that dogs and cats share many similar features. To generate norms measuring direct associations, participants engage in a free association task, in which they are presented with a cue word and are asked to list the first related target word that comes to mind. The probability of producing a given response to a particular cue word (i.e., the pair's normed forward strength, FSG) can then be determined by dividing the number of participants who produced the response in question by the total number of responses generated for that word (Nelson et al., 2000). Thus, the free association process can be thought of as generating an index that contains the relative 79 accessibility of related words in memory (Nelson, McEvoy, & Schreiber, 2004). 80

Using this technique, researchers have developed databases of associative word norms

that can be used to generate stimuli, generally with a high degree of reliability (e.g., The University of South Florida Free Association Norms; Nelson et al., 2004). However, this 83 reliability becomes questionable for weak associates. Because the traditional free association 84 task focuses only the first word that is provided the cue, target items that are more weakly 85 associated may become underrepresented in the dataset, as the inclination to respond with stronger associates may disrupt access to weaker associates (i.e., the availability heuristic). 87 Recently, The Small World of Words project (SWOW, De Devne et al., 2013b; De Devne, Navarro, Perfors, Brysbaert, & Storms, 2019) has sought to correct for this sampling issue by employing a multiple response free association task. In this modified free association task, subjects are asked to generate three target items in response to the cue. The updated 91 SWOW association norms provide several advantages when compared to other collections of free association norms. First, this norm set is the largest to date, consisting of approximately 12,000 cue items (for comparison, the USF norms consist of 5,400 cue items). Because of its large size, the SWOW norms provide a better approximation of natural language. Second, the use of a multiple response technique allows for greater reliability of weak associates, resulting in more weak associations being captured by the network, as weak associates are rarely given as the first response and thus may be under represented when only one response is elicited (De Deyne et al., 2013b).

100 Measuring Relatedness

Whereas direct associations focus on the relationships between individual words,
indirect associations focus on how a concept fits into the overall structure of the semantic
network (De Deyne et al., 2013b; Deese, 1965). Because indirect associations capture
information derived from the overall structure of the semantic network, these norms can also
be used to represent semantic properties of item pairs and can be used to approximate links
between concepts within semantic memory networks. This includes mediated associates (i.e.,

lion – stripes is mediated through tiger; see Huff and Hutchison (2011) for a review of 107 mediated associates) and is one of the underlying factors behind distributional models of 108 semantic memory (e.g., Latent Semantic Analysis, Landauer & Dumais, 1997; Hyperspace 109 Analogue to Language Model, Lund & Burgess, 1996). These models posit that semantic 110 representations are created through the co-occurrences of words together within a body of 111 text and suggest that words with similar meanings will appear together in similar contexts 112 (Riordan & Jones, 2011). On the other hand, connectionist models of semantic memory (e.g., 113 Rogers & McClelland, 2006; Rumelhart, McClelland, & PDP Research Group, 1986) portray 114 the semantic network as a system of interconnected units representing concepts, which are 115 linked together by weighted connections representing knowledge. By triggering the input 116 units, activation will then spread throughout the system activating or suppressing connected 117 units based on the weighted strength of the corresponding unit connections (Jones, Willits, & Dennis, 2015). 119

Semantic overlap between concepts can measured in several ways. Feature production 120 tasks (Buchanan, Holmes, Teasley, & Hutchison, 2013; Buchanan, Valentine, & Maxwell, 121 2019; McRae, Cree, Seidenberg, & McNorgan, 2005; Vinson & Vigliocco, 2008) provide one 122 means of generating semantic word norms. In such tasks, participants are shown the name of 123 a concept and are asked to list what they believe the concept's most important features to 124 be (McRae et al., 2005). Several statistical measures have been developed which measure the 125 degree of feature overlap between concepts. First, similarity between any two concepts can 126 be measured by representing them as vectors and calculating the cosine value (COS) between 127 them (Maki, McKinley, & Thompson, 2004), with COS values ranging from 0 (completely unrelated) to 1 (perfectly related). For example, the pair hornet - wasp has a COS of .88, indicating a high degree of overlap between the two concepts. Feature overlap can also be measured by JCN, which involves calculating both the information content value of each 131 concept and the lowest super-ordinate shared by each concept using an online dictionary, 132 such as WordNET (Miller, 1995). The JCN value is then computed by summing together the 133

difference of each concept and its lowest super-ordinate (Jiang & Conrath, 1997; Maki et al., 2004). The advantage to using COS values over JCN values is the limitation of JCN being tied to a somewhat static dictionary database, while a semantic feature production task can be used on any concept to calculate COS values. However, JCN values are less time consuming to obtain if both concepts are in the database (Buchanan et al., 2013).

Finally, indirect associations computed from a large dataset can also be used as a 139 measure semantic overlap, and indeed may provide a better measure semantic relatedness 140 relative to feature production norms. De Devne et al. (2013b) constructed a semantic 141 network based on the distributions of associations (e.g., indirect associates) by converting 142 free association data taken from the SWOW project into a weighted semantic network. 143 Computing the cosine overlap between the distribution of free association answers on any 144 two concepts within this network provides a useful measure of meaning. Discussion of these 145 measures then leads to the question of whether each one is truly assessing some unique 146 concept or if they simply tap into various elements of our overall linguistic knowledge. Previous clustering and factor analyses by Maki and Buchanan (2008) indicates that there 148 are potentially three separate latent structures represented by these various measures of 149 similarity: associative, semantic, and thematic types of relatedness. However, another 150 interpretation of their results is that the data collection of the measurement matters – variables that are based on participant responses to cued stimuli grouped together, while text-corpora based and WordNET based similarity measures separated into separate factors. 153 By using the participant responses from SWOW to measure indirect association, we draw 154 from a larger, newer set of data and resolve a potential confound of conflating measurement 155 techniques. 156

57 Application to Judgment Studies

Traditional judgment of learning tasks (JOL) can be viewed as an application of the 158 PAL paradigm; participants are given pairs of items and are asked to judge how accurately 159 they would be able to correctly respond with the target with the cue on a recall task. 160 Judgments are typically made out of 100, with a participant response of 100 indicating full 161 confidence in recall ability. In their 2005 study, Koriat and Bjork examined overconfidence in 162 JOLs by manipulating associative relations (forward strength from Nelson et al. (2004)) 163 between word-pairs and found that subjects were more likely to overestimate recall for pairs with little or no associative relatedness. Additionally, this study found that when accounting 165 for associative direction, subjects were more likely to overestimate recall for pairs that were 166 high in backwards strength (i.e., the likelihood of the target when shown the cue) but low in 167 forward strength. To account for this finding, the authors suggested that JOLs may rely more 168 heavily on overlap between cue and target with the direction of the associative relationship 169 being secondary. For example, the pair bird - feather in the SWOW norms appears to have a 170 low forward strength (.031) and a higher backward strength (.199). However, the indirect 171 relation between bird and feather is .063. Therefore, it is important to investigate what may 172 lead to the perceived relatedness between the item pairs and resulting in inflated JOLs. 173

The JOL task can then be manipulated to investigate perceptions of word pair relation 174 by having participants judge how related they believe the cue and target items to be (Maki, 175 2007a, 2007b). The judged values generated from this task can then be compared to the 176 normed databases to create a similar accuracy function or correlation as is created in JOL studies. When presented with the item pair, participants are asked to estimate the number 178 of people out of 100 who would provide the target word when shown only the cue (Maki, 2007b), which mimics how association word norms are created through free association tasks. 180 Maki (2007a) investigated such judgments within the context of associative memory by 181 having participants rate how much associative overlap was shared between normed item 182

pairs and found that responses were greatly overestimated relative to the actual normed overlap strength for pairs that were weak associates, while underestimated for strong associates, thus replicating the Koriat and Bjork (2005) findings for relatedness judgments based upon associative memory, rather than judgments based on learning.

The judgment of associative memory (JAM) function provides one means of visualizing 187 the influence various cognitive biases have on associative memory judgments. By plotting 188 the judged values against the word pair's normed associative strength, a fit line can be 189 calculated which displays the calibration of JAM ratings relative to normed associative strength. When plotted, these judgments characteristically have a high intercept (an overestimation bias) along with a shallow slope (low sensitivity to changes in normed pair strength). Figure 1 illustrates this function. Overall, the JAM function has been shown to 193 be highly reliable and generalizes well across multiple variations of the study, with item 194 characteristics such as word frequency, cue set size (QSS), and semantic similarity all having 195 a minimal influence on it (Maki, 2007b). Furthermore, an applied meta-analysis of more 196 than ten studies on JAM indicated that bias and sensitivity are nearly unchangeable, often 197 hovering around 40-60 points for the intercept and .20-.30 for the slope (Valentine & 198 Buchanan, 2013). Additionally, the Valentine and Buchanan (2013) study extended this 199 research to include judgments of semantic memory with the same results. Finally, De Devne 200 et al. (2013a) found that JAM ratings for weak and moderate associates are best predicted 201 by continuous response association norms relative to traditional free association norms. 202

The discrepancy between direct association strength and JAM ratings is noteworthy
because on the surface, the two tasks should each be tapping into the same concept of
associative overlap. One explanation for this provided by Maki (2007a) is that judgment
tasks are more easily influenced by outside factors such as the availability heuristic. Thus, it
may be that the act of viewing the cue-target pair together at the time of judgment
interferes with individuals' ability to consider other target words that are related to the cue,

thereby inflating (or reducing) the perceived relatedness between the items (Maki, 2007a).

Indeed, work by (Nelson & Dunlosky, 1991) has shown this to be the case when eliciting
judgments of learning, as JOLs made after a delay tend to be more accurate relative to those
made immediately in the presence of the studied information. Further, the influence of
indirect relations and their potential interaction on judgments have not been investigated.

The present study expanded upon previous JAM studies by examining recall and judgments for three types of judgments of relatedness (JORs) with the goal of exploring the underlying memory network that is used for each of these cognitive processes as described above. To date, no study has investigated the how three types of concept information affect these judgment and recall processes within the context of one unified study. As such, we tested four hypotheses, which were based upon previous research on JAM and semantic memory models.

First, we sought to expand upon previous Maki (2007a), Maki (2007b), Buchanan 221 (2010), and Valentine and Buchanan (2013) research by including three types of JORs in one 222 experiment, while replicating JAM bias and sensitivity findings. We used the SWOW norms 223 calculating direct and indirect relations to best capture the continuum of similarity between 224 concepts. These values were used to predict each type of JOR, and we calculated average 225 slope and intercept values for each participant. We expected to find slope and intercept 226 values that were significantly different from zero. Though the three types of word relations 227 are distinct from one another, we should expect to find slopes and intercepts for semantic 228 and thematic JORs to be within the range of previous JAM findings if these memory systems are interconnected. We also examined the frequency of each predictor being the 230 strongest variable to predict an individual judgment condition. Thus, we are interested in 231 exploring whether judgment findings replicate across judgment type and with new 232 measurement variables available through SWOW (rather than each individually, as tested in 233 previous JOL and JAM publications), which expands our knowledge on how the judgment

process taps into the underlying memory network.

Next, we explored the predictions from semantic network models that the relation
between associations and semantics would be bidirectional in nature (i.e., both types of
knowledge interconnected in memory). Therefore, we expected to find an interaction
between direct and indirect association norms when predicting JORs. We used multilevel
modeling to examine the interaction of these norms in relation to participant judgments.

We then extended these analyses to include recall as the dependent variable of interest. 241 We tested for the interaction of database norms in predicting recall by using a multilevel 242 logistic regression, while controlling for judgment condition and rating. We expected to find 243 that database norms would show differences in recall based on the levels of other variables 244 (the interaction would be significant), and that ratings would also positively predict recall 245 (i.e., words that participants thought were more related would be remembered better). 246 Because judgment and recall are different cognitive processes, we used this hypothesis to 247 examine how memory networks may be differently interactive for memory in comparison to judgment.

Finally, we examined if the judgment slopes from Hypothesis 1 would be predictive of recall. Whereas the recall model used to test our third hypothesis examined the direct relationship of word relatedness on recall, the goal of this analysis was to explore whether participant sensitivity to word relatedness was could also be used to predict recall. For this analysis, we used a multilevel logistic regression to control for multiple judgment slope conditions. This hypothesis combines both cognitive processes into one analysis, to explore how judgment ability (i.e., slopes) would impact the memory process.

257 Method

258 Participants

A power analysis was conducted using the sim R package in R (Green & MacLeod, 250 2016). This package uses simulations to generate power estimates for mixed linear models 260 created from the *lme4* package in R (Bates, Mächler, Bolker, & Walker, 2015). The results 261 of this analyses suggested a minimum of 35 participants would be required to detect an 262 effect. However, because power often tends to be underestimated, we extended participant recruitment as funding permitted. The data in this experiment was collected in two waves recruiting from Amazon's Mechanical Turk, which is a website that allows individuals to host projects and connects them with a large pool of respondents who complete them for small 266 amounts of money (Buhrmester, Kwang, & Gosling, 2011). In the first wave, a total of 112 267 participants were recruited, and in the second wave, 221 participants were recruited. 268 Participant responses were screened for a basic understanding of the study's instructions. 269 Responses were rejected for participants who entered related words when numerical 270 judgment responses were required, and for participants who responded to the cue words 271 during the recall phase with sentences or phrases instead of individual words. Those that 272 completed the study correctly were compensated \$1.00 for their participation in wave one, 273 and \$2.00 for their participation in wave two. The second wave of participants was sponsored 274 by graduate thesis funding provided by the Missouri State University Graduate College. 275

276 Materials

The stimuli used were 126 words pairs of varying relatedness which were created from
the Buchanan et al. (2013) word norm database and website. These pairs were evenly split
into sixty-three for wave one and wave two of the study. Pairs were originally selected by
using forward strength (FSG; Nelson et al., 2004), semantic feature overlap cosine values

(COS) from Buchanan et al. (2013), and Latent Semantic Analysis cosine values (Landauer & Dumais, 1997; Landauer, Foltz, & Laham, 1998) based on previous research on how word pair psycholinguistic variables overlap (Maki & Buchanan, 2008). The selected stimuli included a range of values for each variable. Table 1 displays stimuli averages, SD, and ranges. A complete list of stimuli can be found at http://osf.io/y8h7v.

The stimuli were arranged into three blocks for each judgment condition described 286 below wherein each block contained 21 word pairs. Due to limitations of the available 287 stimuli, blocks were structured so that each one contained seven word pairs of low (0-.33), 288 medium (.34-.66), and high (.67-1.00) COS relatedness. Pairs with low, medium, and high 280 FSG and LSA were then selected, when available. Given the measurement questions raised 290 in the introduction, the direct association from the SWOW norms will be used as the 291 measure of first order association. Based on De Devne et al. (2013a)'s work on continuous 292 association, the response set from all three responses were used. The direct association 293 provided in these norms is calculated as the number of participants who provided the target 294 to the cue divided by the number of possible answers (i.e., participants \times responses). This 295 calculation, therefore, has an upper limit of approximately ~33%, even if every participant listed a target word to a cue. The JOR task assumes the range of direct association is 0 to 100 (or 0-1 proportion), and the SWOW direct association (DA) was normalized using:

$$\frac{DA - Min(DA)}{Max(DA) - Min(DA)}$$

Indirect association (IA) was calculated by comparing the distribution of responses for each concept. Therefore, if the concepts were *bird* and *feather*, the two association sets were combined and the cosine between the response frequencies was calculated. Cosine indicates a measure of overlap in the response distributions, where 0 indicates no overlapping responses, while 1 indicates perfectly overlapping response frequencies (see Buchanan et al., 2019 for more on cosine feature overlap). DA and IA averages are provided in Table 1. The study was
built online using Qualtrics, and three surveys were created to counter-balance the order in
which judgment conditions appeared. Each word pair appeared counter-balanced across each
judgment condition, and stimuli were randomized within each block.

308 Procedure

The present study was divided into three phases. In the first phase, JORs were elicited 309 by presenting participants with word pairs and asking them to make judgments of how 310 related they believed the words in each pair to be. This judgment phase consisted of three 311 blocks of 21 word pairs which corresponded to one of three types of described word pair 312 relationships: associative, semantic, or thematic. Each block was preceded by a set of 313 instructions explaining one of the three types of relationships, and participants were 314 provided with examples which illustrated the type of relationship to be judged. Participants 315 were then presented with the word pairs to be judged. The associative block began by 316 explaining associative memory and the role of free association tasks. Participants were 317 provided with examples of both strong and weak associates. For example, lost and found 318 and were presented as an example of a strongly associated pair, while article was paired with 319 newspaper, the, and clothing to illustrate that words can have many weak associates. The 320 semantic judgment block provided participants with a brief overview of how words are 321 related by meaning and showed examples of concepts with both high and low feature overlap. 322 Tortoise and turtle were provided as an example of two concepts with significant overlap. Other examples were then provided to illustrate concepts with little or no overlap. For the thematic judgments, participants were provided with an explanation of thematic relatedness. Tree is explained to be related to leaf, fruit, and branch, but not computer. In each judgment, 326 participants were then given three concepts (lost, old, article) and were asked to come up 327 with words that they felt were related to that type of relation. 328

After viewing the examples at the start of the block, participants completed the JOR 329 task. Each block contained a set of instructions which were contingent upon the type of JOR 330 being elicited. For example, instructions in the associative block asked participants to 331 estimate how many individuals out of 100 they expect would respond to the cue word with a 332 given target, instructions for semantic JORs asked participants to indicate the percent of 333 features shared between two concepts, and instructions for the thematic JOR task asked 334 participants to base ratings on how likely to words would be used together in the same story. 335 The complete experiment can be found at http://osf.io/y8h7v, which contains the exact 336 instructions given to participants for each block and displays the structure of the study. All 337 instructions were modeled after Buchanan (2010) and Valentine and Buchanan (2013). 338

In accordance with previous work on JOLs and JAM, participants made JOR ratings 339 using a scale of zero to one hundred, with zero indicating no relationship, and one hundred 340 indicating a perfect relationship. Participants typed their responses into the survey. Once 341 completed, participants then completed the remaining judgment blocks in the same manner. 342 Each subsequent judgment block changed the type of JOR being made. Three versions of 343 the study were created, which counter-balanced the order in which the judgment blocks 344 appeared, and participants were randomly assigned to a survey version. This resulted in each 345 word pair receiving a relatedness judgments on each of the three types relationships. 346

After completing the judgment phase, participants were then presented with a short
distractor task to account for recency effects. In this section, participants were presented
with a randomized list of the fifty U.S. states and were asked to arrange them in alphabetical
order. This task was timed to last two minutes. Once time had elapsed, participants
automatically progressed to the final phase, which consisted of a cued-recall task.
Participants were presented with each of the sixty-three cue words from the judgment phase
and were asked to complete each word pair by responding with the correct target word.
Participants were informed that they would not be penalized for guessing. The cued-recall

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task included all stimuli in a random order.

356 Results

77 Data Processing and Descriptive Statistics

First, the results from the recall phase of the study were coded as zero for incorrect 358 responses, one for correct responses, and NA for participants who did not complete the recall 359 section (all or nearly all responses were blank). All word responses to judgment items were 360 deleted and set to missing data. The final dataset was created by splitting the initial data 361 file into six sections (one for each of the three experimental blocks and their corresponding 362 recall scores). Each section was individually melted using the reshape package in R 363 (Wickham, 2007) and was written as a csv file. The six output files were then combined to 364 form the final dataset. Code is available on our OSF page embedded inline with the 365 manuscript in an R markdown document written with the papaja package (Aust & Barth, 2017). With 333 participants, the dataset in long format included 20979 rows of potential 367 data (i.e., 333 participants \times 63 JORs). 15 out of range JOR data points (> 100) were 368 corrected to NA. Missing data for JORs or recall were then excluded from the analysis, 369 which included word responses to judgment items (i.e., responding with cat instead of a 370 number when prompted to provide a JOR). These items usually excluded a participant from 371 receiving Amazon Mechanical Turk payment, but were included in the datasets found online. 372 In total, data points 2266 were excluded (679 JOR only, 1019 recall only, 568 both), leading to a final N of 18713 observations. Recall and JOR values were then screened for outliers using Mahalanobis distance at p < .001, and no outliers were found (Tabachnick & Fidell, 375 2012). To screen for multicollinearity, we examined correlations between judgment items, DA, and IA. All correlations were rs < .26. 377

The mean JOR for the associative condition (M = 59.40, SD = 29.52) was lower than

the semantic (M = 64.15, SD = 29.74) and thematic (M = 69.50, SD = 28.20) conditions. A 379 multilevel model was examined to determine if these JOR values were significantly different 380 using participants as a random factor. Multilevel models were used to retain all data points 381 (rather than averaging over items and conditions) while controlling for correlated error due 382 to participants, which makes these models advantageous for multiway repeated measures 383 designs (Gelman, 2006). Associative judgments were lower than both semantic (t(19407) =384 10.40, p < .001), and thematic judgments (t(19407) = 22.25, p < .001). Semantic judgments 385 in turn were lower than thematic judgments (t(19407) = 11.85, p < .001). 386

Recall averaged around 60% for all three conditions: associative M = 59.04, SD = 49.18; semantic M = 62.57, SD = 48.40; thematic M = 60.12, SD = 48.97. A separate multilevel model indicated that associative recall was lower than semantic recall (t(19064) = 4.63, p < .001), but not thematic recall (t(19064) = 1.37, p = .169). Semantic recall scores were higher than thematic recall scores (t(19064) = -3.25, p = .001).

392 JAM Slope Bias and Sensitivity

First, we sought to replicate bias and sensitivity findings from previous research while 393 expanding the JAM function to include judgments based on three types of memory. DA and IA were used to predict each type of relatedness judgment. JOR values were divided by 100, 395 so as to place them on the same scale as the direct and indirect association. Slopes and 396 intercepts were then calculated for each participant's ratings for each of the three JOR 397 conditions, as long as they contained at least nine data points out of the twenty-one that were possible. Single sample t-tests were then conducted to test if slope and intercept values significantly differed from zero. See Table 2 for means and standard deviations. Slopes were then compared to the JAM function, which is characterized by high intercepts (between 40 401 and 60 on a 100 point scale) and shallow slopes (between 20 and 40). Because of the scaling 402 of our data, to replicate this function, we should expect to find intercepts ranging from .40 to 403

404 .60 and slopes in the range of 0.20. to 0.40. Intercepts for associative, semantic, and
405 thematic JORs were each significant, and all fell within or near the expected range. Overall,
406 thematic JORs had the highest intercept at .61, while JORs elicited in the semantic
407 condition had the lowest intercept at .52.

The JAM slope was successfully replicated for DA in all three conditions with slopes 408 falling in the expected range of 0.20 to 0.40. For associative judgments, the indirect relation -409 which is thought to be representative of semantic relatedness - did not predict judgments. In 410 the thematic judgment condition, the indirect values were positive, indicating contribution of 411 both direct and indirect values to the judgments, which were described as a mix of both 412 relation types. Last, the semantic judgment condition showed that both direct and indirect 413 relations were important with the highest indirect contribution of the three judgment types, 414 indicating differences in focus of judgment tap different relations to meet task demands. 415 Overall, JAM slopes were successfully replicated in each JOR condition, the high intercepts 416 and shallow slopes present across conditions were indicative of overconfidence and 417 insensitivity in participant JORs.

Additionally, we examined the frequency that each predictor variable was the strongest 419 predictor for each of the three JOR conditions. For the associative condition, the direct 420 association was the strongest predictor for 67.3% of the participants. This distinction was 421 less pronounced when examining the semantic and thematic JOR conditions. In the 422 semantic condition, DA was 52.1% of participants, and in the thematic condition, DA was 423 54.1% of participants. These results mirror the slope values, such that direct association is 424 strongest when asked to judge associative relations, while a more even split between direct 425 and indirect predictors was found when asked to consider semantic and thematic relations. 426

27 Interaction between Relation when Predicting Judgments of Relatedness

The goal of next analysis was to test for an interaction between direct and indirect 428 association when predicting participant JORs. First, the database norms were mean centered 429 aide in interpretation. The nlme package and lme function were used to calculate these analyses (Pinheiro, Bates, Debroy, Sarkar, & R Core Team, 2017). A maximum likelihood multilevel model was used to test the interaction between DA and IA when predicting JOR 432 values, with participant number used as the random intercept factor. The type of JOR being elicited was controlled for, so as to better assess the impact of each word overlap measure regardless of JOR condition. This analysis resulted in a significant interaction between DA 435 and IA (β = -0.19, p < .001), which is examined below in a simple slopes analysis. Table 3 436 includes values for main effects, two-way interaction, and the simple slopes. 437

To investigate this interaction, simple slopes were calculated for low, average, and high levels of indirect association. This variable was chosen for to show the effects of direct associations across levels of indirect association. At low levels of indirect relation, and thus low levels of the semantic network, we found the largest β for direct association, 0.33. As indirect relation increases, we found decreasing predictiveness of direct relation, average direct $\beta = 0.29$, and high direct $\beta = 0.25$. Figure 2 displays the two-way interaction with this seesaw type effect, indicating that higher semantic network relation results in lower usefulness of direct associative relation.

Interaction between Relation when Predicting Recall

Given the results of Hypothesis 2, we then sought to extend the analysis to participant recall scores. A multilevel logistic regression was used with the *lme4* package and *glmer()* function (Bates et al., 2015), testing the interaction between DA and IA when predicting participant recall. As with the previous hypothesis, we controlled for JOR condition and,

additionally, covaried JOR ratings. Participants were used as a random intercept factor.

Judged values were not a significant predictor of recall, ($\beta = 0.04$, p = .512). A significant interaction was detected between direct and indirect relations ($\beta = -1.30$, p = .008). See

Table 4 for main effects, interaction, and simple slopes.

The same moderation process used in Hypothesis 2 was then repeated, with simple slopes calculated at low, average, and high levels of indirect association. The same pattern of results emerged where low levels of indirect association resulted in the largest contribution of direct association $\beta = 1.90$. As indirect association increased, direct association coefficients decreased, average direct $\beta = 1.63$, and high direct $\beta = 1.37$. Thus, the cognitive processes of recall and judgment appear to operate similarly on the memory network.

Predicting Recall with JAM Slopes

In our fourth and final hypothesis, we investigated whether the JOR slopes and 462 intercepts obtained in Hypothesis 1 would be predictive of recall ability. Whereas Hypothesis 463 3 indicated that word relatedness was directly related to recall performance, this hypothesis 464 instead looked at whether or not participants' sensitivity and bias to word relatedness could 465 be used a predictor of recall (Maki, 2007b). This analysis was conducted with a multilevel logistic regression, as described in Hypothesis 3, where each direct and indirect slope and 467 intercept was used as predictors of recall using participant as a random intercept factor. These analyses were separated by judgment condition, so that each set of JOR slopes and intercepts were used to predict recall. The separation controlled for the number of variables in the equation, as all slopes and intercepts would have resulted in overfitting. These values 471 were obtained from Hypothesis 1 where each participant's individual slopes and intercepts were calculated for associative, semantic, and thematic JOR conditions. Table 2 shows average slopes and intercepts for recall for each of the three types of memory, and Table 5 474 portrays the regression coefficients and statistics. 475

In the associative condition, the direct association slope significantly predicted recall (b 476 = 1.168, p = < .001), while the indirect association did not predict recall (b = -0.098, p =477 .673). However, in both of the semantic and thematic conditions, the direct and indirect 478 relations are both predictors, along with the intercepts (see Table 5). In each of these 479 judgment conditions, the direct and indirect association predictors have similar coefficients, 480 showing equal weight in the prediction of recall. Therefore, higher levels of sensitivity in 481 judgments contribute to higher recall, and higher bias in judgments also leaders to more 482 recall. These results mimic the results from across our hypotheses, wherein the associative 483 condition was predicted by direct associations, while the semantic and thematic conditions 484 were predicted by both direct and indirect associations. This analysis indicated the extent to 485 which the cognitive processes are related to each other as part of the memory network (i.e., 486 judgment sensitivity predicting recall), furthering the previous two analyses, which illustrated 487 the nature of those cognitive processes' relationship with the underlying memory network. 488

489 Discussion

This study investigated the relationship between direct (associative) and indirect 490 (semantic) relations and their effect on participant JORs and recall performance through the 491 testing of four hypotheses. In our first hypothesis, we show that bias and sensitivity findings 492 first proposed by Maki (2007a) successfully replicated in all three judgment conditions. 493 Participants displayed high intercepts and shallow slopes, suggesting overconfidence in 494 judgment making and an insensitivity to changes in strength between pairs. Additionally, 495 when looking at the frequency that each predictor was the strongest in making JORs, direct association was the strongest predictor for the associative condition, with a nearly even split between direct and indirect association for the semantic and thematic conditions. In contrast to De Deyne et al. (2013a), we found bias in judgments for pairs with no direct relation 499 across all three judgment conditions (average judgment = 50.36); however, only 5 pairs were 500

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⁵⁰¹ available for comparison to their results.

Our second hypothesis examined the interaction between direct and indirect
association when predicting participant JORs. The interaction was present as a seesaw effect
wherein increasing levels of indirect association lead to decreasing predictiveness of direct
association. Therefore, as semantic connections become stronger in the memory network, the
direct associative connections become less useful for judgments. This finding was extended
to recall in Hypothesis 3, supporting the notion that recall and judgment cognitive processes
draw in similar ways on the memory network.

Finally, our fourth hypothesis used the JOR slopes and intercepts calculated in Hypothesis 1 to investigate whether participants' bias and sensitivity to word relatedness could be used to predict recall. For the associative condition, the only the direct association slope significantly predicted recall. In the semantic and thematic conditions, both direct and indirect associations, along with their intercepts, predicted recall. These results mirror results from Hypothesis 1 suggesting that task demands from the judgment instructions carry over into recall processes.

Overall, our findings indicated the degree to which the processing of direct and indirect 516 word-pair network information impacts retrieval and judgment making tasks. Previous 517 research has shown the effects of direct associations on priming (Buchanan, 2010; Hutchison, 518 2003), cued-recall (Nelson, Bennett, & Leibert, 1997; Nelson, Zhang, & McKinney, 2001), 519 judgments of associative memory (De Deyne et al., 2013a; Maki, 2007b, 2007a; Valentine & 520 Buchanan, 2013) and response latencies (De Devne et al., 2013b) to name a few. Our results suggest a competitive network based on task-demand. When directed to focus on direct association, direct association was a strong, and often only, predictor of judgment or recall. 523 When directed to focus on semantic or thematic type relations, both indirect and direct 524 association play a role in judgments and recall. Further, this effect was interactive, wherein 525 different levels of indirect semantic strength lead to different activation of the direct 526

associative network. As indirect strength increases, the effect of direct strength decreases, albeit does not completely diminish.

Finally, future studies may wish to consider the effect of each concept's linguistic 529 features (frequency, orthography, part of speech, etc.), as these properties have been shown 530 to influence judgments and recall. The type, or ontology (Wu & Barsalou, 2009), of the 531 relation may provide clues as to judgments and recall. De Deyne, Navarro, Perfors, and 532 Storms (2016) illustrated how a spreading activation model with random walks can account 533 for participant's understanding of similarity, even when word-pair relation would be 534 considered very weak. These models provide future avenues for application to judgment and 535 recall processes, as we have shown they are related to the same direct and indirect network 536 of association. 537

538 Compliance with Ethical Standards

The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest. The study was approved by
the Institutional Review Board at Missouri State University. Participants filled out an
informed consent at the beginning of the study, after accepting the HIT on Mechanical Turk.
The complete study with consent form can be found on our OSF page: http://osf.io/y8h7v.

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Table 1 $Summary\ Statistics\ for\ Stimuli$

	Semantic Feature Overlap COS				
Variable	Low	Average	High		
Semantic Feature Overlap COS	.09 (.10)	.45 (.09)	.75 (.05)		
Forward Strength FSG	.08 (.11)	.15 (.17)	.19 (.24)		
Latent Semantic Analysis LSA	.25 (.17)	.39 (.18)	.47 (.18)		
Direct Association DA	.12 (.16)	.23 (.23)	.27 (.29)		
Direct Association IA	.10 (.14)	.25 (.17)	.39 (.18)		

Note. Standard deviation values are in parentheses.

Table 2 $Summary\ Statistics\ for\ Hypothesis\ 1\ t\mbox{-} Tests$

Variable	M	SD	t	df	p	d	95%CI
Associative Intercept	.52	.20	45.90	311	< .001	2.60	2.36 - 2.83
Associative DA	.33	.30	19.27	311	< .001	1.09	0.95 - 1.23
Associative IA	.03	.29	1.62	311	.105	0.09	-0.02 - 0.20
Semantic Intercept	.52	.21	44.64	312	< .001	2.52	2.29 - 2.75
Semantic DA	.31	.30	18.47	312	< .001	1.04	0.91 - 1.18
Semantic IA	.24	.32	13.31	312	< .001	0.75	0.63 - 0.88
Thematic Intercept	.61	.18	59.25	315	< .001	3.33	3.05 - 3.61
Thematic DA	.28	.27	18.54	315	< .001	1.04	0.91 - 1.18
Thematic IA	.14	.28	8.65	315	< .001	0.49	0.37 - 0.60

 $\it Note.$ Confidence interval for $\it d$ was calculated using the non-central $\it t$ -distribution.

Table 3 $MLM\ Statistics\ for\ Hypothesis\ 2$

Statistic	Coefficient	SE	t	p
Intercept	0.59	0.01	77.47	< .001
Semantic Judgment	0.05	0.00	10.73	< .001
Thematic Judgment	0.10	0.00	23.11	< .001
Z Direct	0.29	0.01	38.98	< .001
Z Indirect	0.14	0.01	15.92	< .001
Z Interaction	-0.19	0.05	-3.86	< .001
Z Direct Low	0.33	0.01	26.40	< .001
Z Direct High	0.25	0.01	20.58	< .001

Note. Direct and indirect association were mean centered. The table shows main effects and interactions predicting participant judgments. df=19404

Table 4 $MLM\ Statistics\ for\ Hypothesis\ 3$

Statistic	Coefficient	SE	Z	p
Intercept	0.42	0.08	5.09	< .001
Semantic Judgment	0.18	0.04	4.38	< .001
Thematic Judgment	0.05	0.04	1.10	.270
Judged Value	0.04	0.07	0.66	.512
Z Direct	1.63	0.08	20.32	< .001
Z Indirect	0.32	0.09	3.71	< .001
Z Interaction	-1.30	0.49	-2.67	.008
Z Direct Low	1.90	0.13	14.58	< .001
Z Direct High	1.37	0.12	11.09	< .001

Note. Direct and indirect association were mean centered. The table shows main effects and interactions predicting recall.

Table 5 $MLM\ Statistics\ for\ Hypothesis\ 4$

Variable	b	SE	z	p
(Intercept)	-0.108	0.270	-0.399	.690
A-Direct	1.168	0.257	4.543	< .001
A-Indirect	-0.098	0.232	-0.423	.673
A-Intercept	0.487	0.392	1.241	.214
(Intercept)	-1.159	0.313	-3.709	< .001
S-Direct	1.313	0.253	5.185	< .001
S-Indirect	1.266	0.230	5.497	< .001
S-Intercept	1.799	0.428	4.199	< .001
(Intercept)	-1.004	0.319	-3.149	.002
T-Direct	1.089	0.265	4.109	< .001
T-Indirect	1.054	0.253	4.170	< .001
T-Intercept	1.738	0.424	4.094	< .001

Note. Each judgment-database bias and sensitivity predicting recall for corresponding judgment block. A: Associative, S: Semantic, T: Thematic.

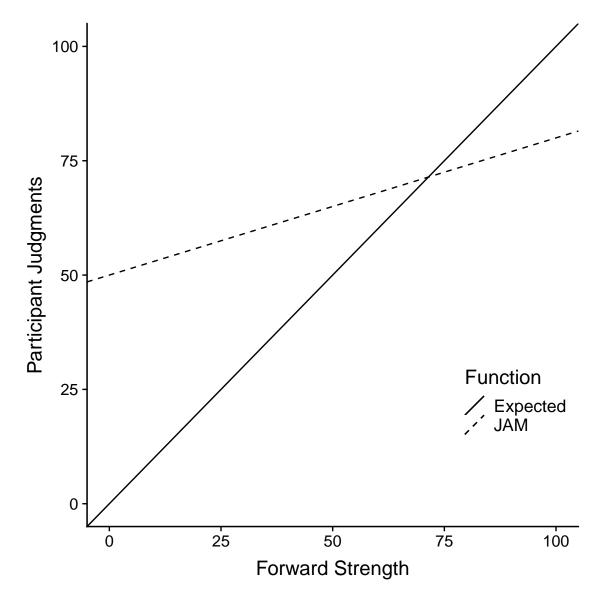


Figure 1. JAM slope findings from Maki (2007a). JAM is characterized by a high intercept (between 40 and 60) and a shallow slope (between 0.20 and 0.40). The solid line shows expected results if judgment ratings are perfectly calibrated with association norms.

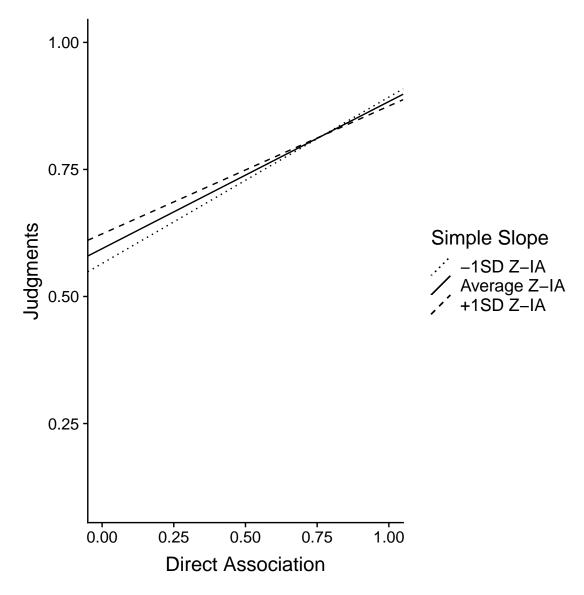


Figure 2. Simple slopes graph displaying the slope of direct association when predicting JORs at low, average, and high indirect association. All variables were mean centered.

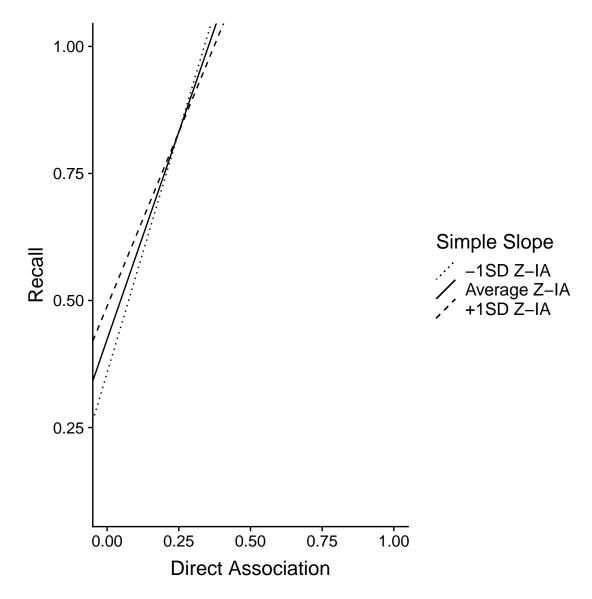


Figure 3. Simple slopes graph displaying the slope of direct association when predicting recall at low, average, and high indirect association. All variables were mean centered.