

The death of recency: Relationship between end-state comfort and serial position effects in serial recall: Logan and Fischman (2011) revisited

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1 The death of recency: Relationship between end-state comfort and serial position effects

2 in serial recall: Logan and Fischman (2011) revisited

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Abstract

Two experiments examined the dynamic interaction between cognitive resources in short-term memory and bimanual object manipulation by extending recent research by Logan and Fischman (2011). In Experiment 1, 16 participants completed a bimanual end-state comfort task and a memory task requiring serial recall of 12 words or pictures. The end-state comfort task involved moving two glasses between two shelves. Participants viewed the items, performed the end-state comfort task, and then serially recalled the items. Recall was evaluated by the presence or absence of primacy and recency effects. The end-state comfort effect (ESCE) was assessed by the percentage of initial hand positions that allowed the hands to end comfortably. The main findings indicated that the ESCE was disrupted; the primacy effect remained intact; and the recency effect disappeared regardless of the type of memory item recalled. In Experiment 2, 16 participants viewed six items, performed an end-state comfort task, viewed another six items, and then serially recalled all 12 items. Results were essentially the same as in Experiment 1. Findings suggest that executing a bimanual end-state comfort task, regardless of when it is completed during a memory task, diminishes the recency effect irrespective of the type of memory item.

Key words: Motor processes; Learning & Memory

47 1. Introduction

48 The end-state comfort effect (ESCE) is defined as the preference of individuals to
49 maximize comfortable hand and arm positions at the completion of object transport tasks,
50 rather than at the beginning. The ESCE has been studied for over 25 years, beginning
51 with the pioneering work of Rosenbaum et al. (1990), as a way to investigate the
52 relationship between the cognitive and physical components of motor behavior. See
53 Rosenbaum, Chapman, Weigelt, Weiss, and van der Wel (2012) for a comprehensive
54 review of the ESCE. The effect has been observed for unimanual and bimanual bar-
55 transport tasks (Fischman, Stodden, & Lehman, 2003; Rosenbaum et al., 1990; Short &
56 Cauraugh, 1999) as well as the overturned glass task (Breslin & Fischman, 2015). For
57 this task, the planning constraint of end-state comfort is apparent when adults reach for
58 an overturned glass to turn it right side up. Typically, initial contact with the glass is
59 made with an awkward pronated grip (thumb-down), followed by supination of the hand
60 at the end of the movement, which ensures a comfortable thumb-up ending posture
61 (Breslin & Fischman, 2015). The overturned glass task is also a simple and functional
62 task that is ecologically relevant (Hughes & Franz, 2008).

63 Memory performance has received extensive investigation in the field of
64 psychology. **Working memory includes processes required for holding and manipulating**
65 **information while performing cognitive tasks (Baddeley, 2000).** A consistent finding of
66 studies examining working memory performance is the serial position effect (Glanzer &
67 Cunitz, 1966; Murdock, 1962). When individuals must recall a sequence of items recall is
68 better for information presented at the beginning (primacy effect) and at the end of the

69 sequence (recency effect), with much lower recall of information towards the middle of
70 the sequence.

71 Research indicates that the primacy and recency effects can be disrupted through
72 various task manipulations. Recall of primacy and middle items of a sequence can be
73 affected by item presentation rate (Glanzer & Cunitz, 1966), frequency (Raymond, 1969),
74 and list length (Murdock, 1962). The recency effect can be disrupted if participants
75 perform an intervening task after item presentation but before recall of the items. The
76 intervening task does not disrupt the primacy effect. This finding has been demonstrated
77 with an intervening task of mental arithmetic (Glanzer & Cunitz, 1966; Postman &
78 Philips, 1965) and a backward counting task (Bjork & Whitten, 1974). The most common
79 interpretation of this result is that the intervening task clears items from short-term
80 memory (recency items) but items that have already been transferred to long-term
81 memory (primacy items) are unaffected.

82 Evidence suggests that memory performance is influenced by the level of
83 processing of stimuli (Craik & Tulving, 1975; Paivio, 1969; 1976). Research has
84 demonstrated that in general, pictures are remembered better than words in free recall
85 (Madigan, McCabe, & Itatani, 1972), associative recognition (Hockley & Bancroft,
86 2011), and item recognition tasks (Defeyter, Russo, & McPartlin, 2009). This finding is
87 known as the picture superiority effect. An explanation of the effect includes the dual-
88 coding hypothesis that holds that pictures are coded at the visual and verbal levels, thus
89 increasing the depth of processing (Paivio, 1969; 1976).

90 Recently, a line of research has emerged that examined the end-state comfort and
91 serial position effects in the same study (Logan & Fischman, 2011; Weigelt, Rosenbaum,

92 Huelshorst, & Schack, 2009). Participants in Weigelt et al. (2009) used free or serial
93 recall of a memory task (recalling 11 letters) while simultaneously performing the end-
94 state comfort task of opening drawers of different heights. End-state comfort was
95 measured by whether the dominant hand was used and if participants used a “palms up”
96 or “palms down” grip, which should vary according to drawer height. Weigelt et al.’s
97 (2009) results provided partial support for a motor interference hypothesis that stated the
98 serial position effect, including both the primacy and recency aspects, may be affected by
99 performing an intervening motor task. The end-state comfort and primacy effects
100 remained intact and the recency effect disappeared in serial and free recall. Weigelt et al.
101 (2009) suggested that proactive interference might account for the disappearance of the
102 recency effect. Proactive interference suggests that the motor task was sufficiently
103 demanding to influence memory performance and that recall of primacy letters was not
104 influenced because there was not much motor activity yet. However, as the participants
105 continued to open drawers to reveal letters, proactive interference disrupted recall of
106 recency items.

107 Logan and Fischman (2011) extended the work of Weigelt et al. (2009) by
108 examining the relationship between unimanual and bimanual end-state comfort tasks and
109 memory performance in serial and free recall. The purpose was to determine if the
110 findings of Weigelt et al. (2009) could be replicated during both more complex (bimanual
111 overturned glass task) and simpler (unimanual cylinder task) motor tasks that were
112 completed after all information of the memory task had been presented. In Experiment 1,
113 participants viewed 11 letters, performed the bimanual overturned glass task, and then
114 recalled the letters using serial or free recall. Similar to Weigelt et al. (2009), results

115 indicated that the ESCE remained salient and the recency effect disappeared in serial and
116 free recall, but with greater disruption for serial recall. These results provided partial
117 support for the motor interference hypothesis. Logan and Fischman hypothesized that the
118 results could be due to retroactive interference from the competition between cognitive
119 resources needed for motor planning of the intervening end-state comfort task and mental
120 rehearsal of items for memory recall.

121 Therefore, Logan and Fischman (2011) conducted a second experiment and
122 hypothesized that simpler motor tasks might “bring back” the recency effect because
123 fewer cognitive resources would be needed for motor planning. In Experiment 2,
124 participants completed a bimanual or unimanual motor task that involved moving one or
125 two plain, non-descript cylinder(s) from an upper shelf to a lower shelf. Participants
126 viewed 11 letters, performed the motor task, and used serial or free recall. Similar to
127 Experiment 1, the primacy effect remained intact and the recency effect disappeared for
128 serial and free recall. Again, the disappearance of the recency effect was more prominent
129 for serial recall. Logan and Fischman suggested that the disruption of the recency effect
130 may have been due to a basic concurrence cost which holds that performance of a
131 primary task is diminished due to the simple awareness of an upcoming secondary task
132 (Navon & Gopher, 1979; Noble, Sanders, & Trumbo, 1981).

133 A recent series of systematic studies by Spiegel and colleagues (Spiegel, Koester,
134 & Schack, 2013, 2014; Spiegel, Koester, Weigelt, & Schack, 2012) further investigated
135 Logan and Fischman’s (2011) concurrence cost hypothesis within a broader theoretical
136 framework. We briefly review their work next. Spiegel et al. (2012) manipulated high-
137 precision and low-precision movements during the retention phase of a working memory

138 task requiring the recall of 9 random English consonants presented in a 3 x 3 matrix.
139 They found that having to replan high-precision movements produced greater reduction
140 in memory performance than replanning low-precision movements, with the locus of the
141 effect occurring in the planning phase rather than the execution phase. There were no
142 effects of replanning on movement execution time.

143 Spiegel et al. (2013) conducted three experiments in which the working memory
144 tasks involved the recall of 8 English consonants or 8 symbols (triangles, circles, or
145 squares). The goal of these experiments was to clarify what kind of working memory
146 processes (verbal, spatial, or both) are recruited during movement planning and
147 movement execution. The movement task required high precision. Results showed that
148 movement execution disrupted spatial memory more than verbal memory, regardless of
149 the difficulty of the working memory task (Experiments 1 and 2). However, when a new
150 motor plan had to be implemented during a retention phase (Experiment 3), performance
151 was reduced equally in both types of working memory tasks. Spiegel et al. (2013)
152 interpreted their findings as evidence for distinct roles of working memory in motor
153 actions, where motor execution requires mainly modality-specific capacities, but action
154 replanning requires modality-general memory resources.

155 Spiegel et al. (2014) also used a spatial working memory task, similar to Spiegel
156 et al. (2013), involving recall of 8 triangles, circles, or squares appearing in a 4 x 4
157 symbol matrix. This was combined with a grasp-to-place task that required a shift in
158 spatial attention during a retention phase. The shift in spatial attention involved
159 manipulating the spatial compatibility of the tasks. Results showed that preparing a
160 leftward movement produced better memory performance when the stimulus appeared on

161 the left side of the display, while the preparation of a rightward movement resulted in
162 better memory performance for the right stimulus side.

163 Taken together, the recent work by Spiegel and colleagues (Spiegel et al., 2013,
164 2014; Spiegel et al., 2012) suggests that there are complex interactions among processes
165 involved in movement planning, spatial attention, and visuospatial working memory. To
166 be sure, their work extends our knowledge of concurrence costs in combined motor and
167 memory tasks. However, there are important differences between their work and the
168 research reported here. First, the current experiments required the recall of 12 items
169 (words or pictures), with recall in a serial order. This allowed us to again investigate
170 primacy-recency effects. Second, our motor task is a bimanual end-state comfort task,
171 which is considerably different than the grasp-to-place tasks used by Spiegel and
172 colleagues.

173 The purpose of the present experiments was to extend the work of Logan and
174 Fischman (2011) by presenting two different types of items during the memory task
175 (Experiment 1 and 2) and presenting the information using a different format
176 (Experiment 2). Because Logan and Fischman found the recency effect disappeared more
177 dramatically during serial recall than free recall, we used only serial recall in the current
178 study. Also, since they were unable to ‘bring back’ the recency effect using a unimanual
179 task, only the bimanual task was used here.

180 In Experiment 1, participants were presented a sequence of words or pictures,
181 completed the bimanual overturned glass task, and then recalled the items in serial order.
182 Based on previous research (Logan & Fischman, 2011; Weigelt et al., 2009), we expected
183 to find partial support for the motor interference hypothesis. Specifically, three

184 hypotheses were created: 1) the ESCE would remain salient; 2) the primacy effect would
185 remain intact; and 3) the recency effect would remain intact for pictures but not words.

186 Experiment 1

187 *2. Method*

188 *2.1. Participants*

189 Participants were 16 undergraduate students (4 male and 12 female) from Auburn
190 University. All participants were self-reported right-handers and reported no disabilities
191 that could impair performance. They were naïve to the hypotheses being tested.
192 Participants were randomly assigned to one type of information (words or pictures), with
193 the restriction that each condition included two males and six females. All participants
194 completed a bimanual end-state comfort task. Participants provided informed consent
195 before being tested.

196 *2.2. Apparatus, materials, and conditions*

197 The metal shelving unit consisted of two shelves (see Logan & Fischman, 2011
198 for a picture of the apparatus). The upper shelf was 139.7 cm and the lower shelf was
199 92.7 cm from the floor. The two drinking glasses were the same size (14.6 cm high, 7.1
200 cm diameter) and had a band of blue tape (2.6 cm wide) around the bottom for clear
201 identification of glass orientation. At the start of each trial, the glasses were placed 27.9
202 cm apart on the upper shelf. The lower shelf contained two taped locations for the glasses
203 to be placed, also spaced 27.9 cm apart. Centered midway between the tape marks was a
204 2½-cup plastic measuring cup containing about ½ cup of water, with the cup's handle
205 facing the participant. Below the two tape marks and cup of water was a rectangular piece

206 of paper (3.8 cm height x 21.6 cm width) divided into 12 equal squares. Participants used
207 this as an aid to recall each item in serial order.

208 There were two conditions of the bimanual end-state comfort task: (1) Left glass
209 upright, right glass overturned, and (2) Left glass overturned, right glass upright (see
210 Figure 1). The hands were expected to end up symmetrically (i.e., thumbs up) in both
211 conditions because the goal of the task was to ensure that water could be poured into the
212 glasses. Logan and Fischman (2011) analyzed the ESCE by comparing across glass
213 orientations that required symmetrical initial hand positions versus asymmetrical hand
214 positions to satisfy end-state comfort. In the present study, only the two asymmetrical
215 glass orientations were used to allow a different analysis of the ESCE.

216

217 Insert Figure 1 About Here

218

219 The memory task had two conditions containing either 12 words or 12 pictures.
220 For both conditions, items were presented on a personal computer located on a desk
221 adjacent to the end-state comfort shelves. Participants faced the computer and the shelves
222 were located next to and behind them, out of view. As the items were presented, an
223 experimenter placed the glasses on the upper shelf according to the condition being
224 tested. The words and pictures were presented in one of the following two sequences (see
225 Figure 2):

226 (1) Shirt, Frog, Clock, Star, Heart, Flag, Truck, Hose, Flute, Tent, Phone, Cake

227 (2) Flute, Tent, Heart, Frog, Truck, Flag, Shirt, Cake, Phone, Hose, Clock, Star

228

229 Insert Figure 2 About Here

230

231 The information was presented using Microsoft PowerPoint. The words were presented in
232 capital letters, on a white background, in bolded black text, using Times New Roman font
233 (size 120), and centered in the middle of the screen. The pictures were presented in color,
234 on a white background, and were similar in size as the words. The pictures were found
235 through a Google search of clip art images.

236 The words we used, and the order in which they were presented, met the
237 following characteristics: First, they contained only one syllable. Serial recall
238 performance is influenced by word length (i.e., number of syllables and phonemes;
239 Baddeley, Thomson, & Buchanan, 1975). This is because the amount of time needed for
240 participants to articulate the information during recall influences memory performance
241 (Hulme, Maughan, & Brown, 1991). Second, we arranged the two different sequences of
242 items so that words with phonological similarity were not adjacent to each other (e.g.,
243 Flag and Flute were not presented consecutively). Third, no words could be combined to
244 form a compound word and the words did not rhyme. Previous research has indicated that
245 recall for items that rhyme (i.e., phonologically confusable) is worse compared to non-
246 similar phonological items (Baddeley, 1966a, b, 1968; Conrad & Hull, 1964). Fourth, we
247 chose words that were common in the English language and could be easily recognized as
248 pictures.

249 2.3. *Design and procedure*

250 A verbal and written description of the task was provided to participants prior to
251 the start of the experiment. Instructions included the following: “1) *You will be presented*

252 *with 12 words or pictures (according to the condition being tested) on a computer screen*
253 *and each item will remain on the screen for three seconds before advancing to the next*
254 *item, 2) At the end of the presentation of items you will turn to the shelves and there will*
255 *be two drinking glasses placed on the upper shelf, 3) Grasp both drinking glasses around*
256 *the middle at the same time and move them to the tape marks on the lower shelf, 4) On*
257 *the lower shelf, there will be a measuring cup of water and you are to fill each glass with*
258 *about an inch of water, 5) You will recall the items that had been presented to you in the*
259 *same order in which they were presented.”*

260 Participants completed the end-state comfort task for both glass orientations and
261 both of the item sequences (total two trials). The sequences of memory presentation and
262 glass orientation were tested in a balanced order using the same combinations within each
263 condition, with participants randomly assigned to a particular order.

264 Twelve boxes were printed horizontally on a small, rectangle-shaped piece of
265 paper to aid participants with the serial recall of items. The participants pointed to a box
266 as they recalled each item in order and said the word “something” if that particular item
267 could not be recalled. Participants performed the motor task at a comfortable speed,
268 while trying to remember as many items as possible in order. The items were recalled
269 verbally to the researcher who recorded the responses. At the conclusion of the
270 experiment, participants were asked to describe what, if any, strategies they used to help
271 remember the items. Also, participants were asked if there were any specific aspects of
272 the study that were difficult.

273 *2.4. Performance Measures*

274 The ESCE was evaluated by the percent of initial hand positions that allowed the
275 hands to end up comfortably. For example, in Condition 1, when the right glass is
276 overturned, the initial grasps should be a “thumb down” position in the right hand, and a
277 “thumb up” position in the left hand. This would ensure when the glasses are turned over
278 and placed on the lower shelf, both hands end up in the comfortable “thumbs up”
279 position. It is important to note that in both end-state comfort conditions, the hands were
280 expected to end up symmetrically (thumbs up). In both conditions, the glasses were
281 oriented in opposite positions. Thus, to satisfy end-state comfort, the initial grasps of the
282 hands should be asymmetrical.

283 The following measures of memory performance were calculated: number of total
284 items recalled in any order, in the correct serial order, and items of the primacy positions
285 (first three items to evaluate the primacy effect) and recency positions (last three items to
286 evaluate the recency effect).

287 3. Results

288 *3.1. End-State Comfort Effects*

289 Results indicated the following percentages of participants that demonstrated
290 initial hand positions that satisfied the ESCE for condition (1) Left glass upright (100%),
291 right glass overturned (68.75%), and (2) Left glass overturned (68.75%), right glass
292 upright (93.75%). These percentages are similar to those reported in Logan and Fischman
293 (2011): 100% (left hand) and 75% (right hand) for Condition 1 and 66.7% (left hand) and
294 91.7% (right hand) for Condition 2. However, as mentioned, their analyses did not
295 statistically compare these two conditions.

296 A 2 (glass orientation) x 2 (hand) ANOVA with hand as a repeated measures
297 factor revealed no significant main effect of glass orientation ($F(1, 30) = .13, p = .72,$
298 $\text{partial } \eta^2 = .004$) or hand ($F(1, 30) = .11, p = .74, \text{partial } \eta^2 = .004$), but a significant
299 interaction between the factors ($F(1, 30) = 9, p = .005, \text{partial } \eta^2 = .23$). This suggests
300 that depending upon glass orientation, the left and right hands did not always act in
301 conjunction with each other to satisfy end-state comfort. All participants were self-
302 reported right-handers and it appears that condition 2 (left glass overturned, right glass
303 upright) was more difficult for participants, suggesting that when the non-dominant hand
304 must plan for end-state comfort, planning of the dominant hand is also affected.

305 *3.2. Memory*

306 Participants reported that the amount of information and the requirement to recall
307 items in serial order were difficult aspects of the experiment. Also, participants reported
308 several common strategies to aid recall of the words such as mental repetition, attempting
309 to group words together by sound or category, making sentences, creating a story, or
310 visually imagining the object the word represented. Similar strategies were reported by
311 participants to aid in recall of pictures, with the exception of using visual imagery.

312 For analysis, memory performance was combined across both end-state comfort
313 conditions. See Table 1 for the mean number of items recalled in any order, in serial
314 order, and of the primacy and recency positions. See Figure 3 for a graphical
315 representation of the serial position curves. The curves suggest a primacy effect, but no
316 recency effect. A 2 (memory type) x 2 (serial position items) ANOVA with primacy and
317 recency items as a repeated measures factor confirmed this suggestion. There was a
318 significant difference between primacy and recency items ($F(1, 30) = 102.8, p < .001,$

319 partial $\eta^2 = .77$) indicating that recall for primacy items was significantly higher than
320 recency items. There was no significant main effect of memory type ($F(1, 30) = .02, p =$
321 $.88, \text{partial } \eta^2 = .001$) or interaction effect ($F(1, 30) = .65, p = .43, \text{partial } \eta^2 = .02$).
322 Thus, memory performance was similar across words and pictures.

323

324 Insert Table 1 and Figure 3 About Here

325

326 4. Discussion

327 The main findings of Experiment 1 include: 1) the ESCE was disrupted; 2) the
328 primacy effect remained intact; and 3) the recency effect disappeared regardless of the
329 type of memory item used.

330 The disruption we found in the ESCE indicates that depending on the glass
331 orientation, the left and right hands did not act together to satisfy end-state comfort. This
332 finding lends support to the cognitive interference hypothesis that suggests the mental
333 rehearsal of items of a memory task may influence motor planning. This result also
334 supports other research that found motor planning difficulties under bimanual conditions
335 (Hughes et al., 2011; Janssen et al., 2010), especially for the non-dominant hand (Janssen
336 et al., 2009; Seegelke et al., 2012).

337 Each of the previous studies that examined the relationship between end-state
338 comfort and serial position effects presented letters during the memory task (Logan &
339 Fischman, 2011; Weigelt et al., 2009). Logan and Fischman speculated that perhaps the
340 serial position curve was susceptible to disruption because only a low level of processing
341 was required to recall letters. Thus, we wanted to determine if an intervening motor task

342 disrupts the serial position curve for different types of information, such as words and
343 pictures, which is thought to require a deeper level of processing. Our hypothesis that the
344 primacy effect would remain intact was supported but our hypothesis that the recency
345 effect would remain intact for pictures but not words was not. Thus, it appears that an
346 intervening motor task diminishes the recency effect similar to cognitive intervening
347 tasks across different types of memory items (Bjork & Whitten, 1974; Glanzer & Cunitz,
348 1966; Postman & Philips, 1965). This suggests motor planning and physical movement
349 clears items from short-term memory and disrupts recall of recency items, but long-term
350 memory is not affected, as evidenced by the presence of the primacy effect.

351 Navon & Gopher (1979) showed that the performance of a primary task might be
352 affected by the mere presence of a secondary task because each will draw upon shared
353 cognitive resources. This phenomenon is known as a concurrence cost (Navon & Gopher,
354 1979) and is supported by research on performance of motor tasks (Fischman, McAlister,
355 & Kinley, 2005; Hart, Dornier, & Reeve, 2006; Noble, Sanders, & Trumbo, 1981). Logan
356 and Fischman (2011) suggested that the awareness of the upcoming motor task might
357 have affected typical recall performance, which supports the notion of a concurrence cost.
358 However, neither Weigelt et al. (2009), Logan and Fischman (2011), nor Experiment 1 of
359 the current study presented the memory task items *after* completion of the end-state
360 comfort task. Thus, previous research on the end-state comfort and serial position effects
361 has not directly tested the concurrence cost hypothesis (Also see work by Spiegel et al.,
362 2013, 2014, and Spiegel et al., 2012 for another perspective on concurrence costs, but for
363 different motor and memory tasks than those used here).

364 The purpose of Experiment 2 was to determine the effect of performing an
365 intervening motor task halfway through item presentation on the serial position curve
366 during serial recall. Since this experiment presented six of the memory items before and
367 six after performance of the end-state comfort task, the definition of primacy and recency
368 items were modified to include four variables: Primacy₁ (Items 1-3), Recency₁ (Items 4-
369 6), Primacy₂ (Items 7-9), and Recency₂ (Items 10-12). This modification allowed primacy
370 and recency items to be defined for each half of the items according to whether they were
371 presented before or after the end-state comfort task.

372 We tested two hypotheses: 1) the ESCE would be disrupted (based on results
373 from Experiment 1); 2) recall of Primacy₁ and Recency₁ would be lower compared to
374 Primacy₂ and Recency₂. Participants were aware of a secondary motor task during the
375 presentation of the first six items. After completion of the motor task, the next six items
376 were presented with no additional secondary motor task. Thus, we expected typical
377 memory performance of the last six items presented.

378 Experiment 2

379 5. Method

380 *5.1. Participants*

381 Participants were 16 undergraduate students (4 male and 12 female) from Auburn
382 University. All participants were self-reported right-handers and reported no disabilities
383 that could impair performance. They were naïve to the hypotheses being tested.
384 Participants were randomly assigned to one type of information (words or pictures), with
385 the restriction that each condition included two males and six females. All participants

386 completed a bimanual end-state comfort task. Participants provided informed consent
387 before being tested.

388 *5.2. Apparatus and materials*

389 These were the same as in Experiment 1.

390 *5.3. Design and procedure*

391 All design and procedure aspects of Experiment 2 were the same as those in
392 Experiment 1, with one exception. In Experiment 2, the memory items (words or
393 pictures) were presented six items at a time. The first six items were presented,
394 participants completed the end-state comfort task, the last six items were presented, and
395 then the 12 words or pictures were recalled in serial order.

396 A verbal and written description of the task was provided to participants prior to
397 the start of the experiment. Instructions included the following: “1) *You will be presented*
398 *with 6 words or pictures (according to the condition being tested) on a computer screen*
399 *and each item will remain on the screen for three seconds before advancing to the next*
400 *item, 2) At the end of the presentation of the first 6 items you will turn to the shelves and*
401 *there will be two drinking glasses placed on the upper shelf, 3) Grasp both drinking*
402 *glasses around the middle at the same time and move them to the tape marks on the lower*
403 *shelf, 4) On the lower shelf, there will be a measuring cup of water and you are to fill*
404 *each glass with about an inch of water, 5) Turn back to the computer screen and press*
405 *the right arrow on the keyboard to start the presentation of the next 6 items, 6) After all*
406 *the information has been presented, you will recall the items that had been presented to*
407 *you in the same order in which they were presented.” The sequences of memory*

408 presentation and glass orientation were tested in a balanced order using the same

409 combinations within each condition, with participants randomly assigned to a particular
410 order.

411 *5.4. Performance Measures*

412 All performance measures were the same as in Experiment 1, with one exception.
413 Since this experiment presented six of the memory items before and six after the end-
414 state comfort task, the definition of primacy and recency items were modified to include
415 four variables: Primacy₁ (Items 1-3), Recency₁ (Items 4-6), Primacy₂ (Items 7-9), and
416 Recency₂ (Items 10-12). Alpha level was set to .05 a priori.

417 6. Results

418 *6.1. End-state comfort*

419 Results indicated the following percentages of participants that satisfied the ESCE
420 for condition (1) Left glass upright (87.50%), right glass overturned (56.25%), and (2)
421 Left glass overturned (68.75%), right glass upright (87.50%). Similar percentages were
422 found as those reported by Logan and Fischman (2011) with one exception. For
423 Condition 1, 56.25% of participants initially grasped the glass with the right hand with a
424 thumb position that satisfied the ESCE. This percentage is somewhat lower than
425 previously reported in the same condition of the bimanual overturned glass task (Logan
426 & Fischman, 2011). A 2 (glass orientation) x 2 (hand) ANOVA with left and right hands
427 as a repeated measures variable was conducted. Results indicated no significant main
428 effect of glass orientation ($F(1, 30) = .38, p = .54, \text{partial } \eta^2 = .01$) or hand ($F(1, 30) =$
429 $.32, p = .58, \text{partial } \eta^2 = .01$) but a significant interaction between the factors ($F(1, 30)$
430 $= 5.1, p = .03, \text{partial } \eta^2 = .14$). This suggests that depending upon glass orientation, the

431 left and right hands did not always act in conjunction with each other to satisfy end-state
432 comfort.

433 6.2. *Memory*

434 Participants reported similar difficult aspects of the study and strategies to aid
435 memory recall of words and pictures as those reported in Experiment 1. Several reported
436 that completing the motor task in the middle of the memory task was difficult. Memory
437 performance was combined across both trials of each end-state comfort task for analysis.
438 See Table 2 for the mean number of items recalled in each condition. See Figure 4 for a
439 graphical representation of the serial position curves.

440

441 Insert Table 2 and Figure 4 About Here

442

443 A 2 (memory type) x 4 (serial position items) ANOVA with Primacy₁, Recency₁,
444 Primacy₂, Recency₂ as repeated measures variables was calculated. Results indicated a
445 significant main effect of serial position items ($F(1, 30) = 71.4, p < .001, \text{partial } \eta^2 =$
446 $.7$). There was no significant main effect of memory type ($F(1, 30) = .07, p = .8, \text{partial}$
447 $\eta^2 = .002$) or interaction effect ($F(1, 30) = .49, p = .49, \text{partial } \eta^2 = .02$). Planned
448 contrasts were calculated for all pairwise comparisons across serial position items.
449 Results indicated that recall for Primacy₁ was significantly higher compared to Recency₁,
450 Primacy₂, and Recency₂ ($p < .001$). Recall of Primacy₂ was also significantly higher
451 compared to Recency₂ ($p = .03$). No other significant differences were found.

452

A Cochran's Q test was calculated to determine if a significant difference in recall

453

existed between item 6 and item 7. Cochran's Q is a non-parametric test for repeated

454 measures of a binary variable (yes/no item recall). Cochran's Q indicated a significant
455 difference in recall of item 6 and item 7, suggesting higher recall for item 7 ($Q(1) = 14.2$,
456 $p < .001$).

457 7. Discussion

458 The main findings of Experiment 2 include: 1) the ESCE was disrupted, as in
459 Experiment 1; 2) there was no concurrence cost. It appears that the ESCE was disrupted
460 to the same extent regardless of the number of items being rehearsed.

461 The concurrence cost hypothesis states that the mere awareness of an upcoming
462 secondary task may draw upon shared cognitive resources required for successful
463 completion of a primary task (Navon & Gopher, 1979). Based on this hypothesis, we
464 predicted that recall of Primacy₁ and Recency₁ would be diminished compared to
465 Primacy₂ and Recency₂. However, we did not find this result. In fact, items of Primacy₁
466 were recalled significantly better compared to all other portions of the sequence,
467 suggesting a strong primacy effect regardless of when the end-state comfort task was
468 completed. We thought that awareness and performance of the motor task would clear the
469 six items from participants' working memory, thus freeing up cognitive resources for
470 better recall performance of items presented after the motor task. Furthermore, recall of
471 Recency₁ items was significantly better than Recency₂ items. Again, the Primacy₂ and
472 Recency₂ items of the current experiment were presented after completion of the
473 secondary motor task. Thus, there was no awareness of an upcoming task. Yet, recall of
474 these items suffered. It appears that our results do not support a concurrence cost
475 hypothesis.

476 Logan and Fischman's (2011) explanation for the disappearance of the recency
477 effect included the retroactive interference hypothesis which holds that the completion of
478 an intervening task affects previously presented items of a memory task (Glanzer &
479 Cunitz, 1966). However, during Experiment 2 the items were presented *before* and *after*
480 the intervening motor task. Thus, retroactive interference cannot account for the current
481 results because recall of Primacy₁ items was better compared to other portions of the
482 sequence.

483 Perhaps a better explanation of the current results is a traditional one. Primacy and
484 recency effects have been attributed to the relative contribution of long-term memory
485 (LTM) and short-term memory (STM), respectively, to memory recall (Glanzer &
486 Cunitz, 1966). We suggest that the primacy effect may be due to contributions of LTM
487 because participants have more time to rehearse items presented at the beginning of the
488 sequence (Hockey, 1973; Rundus, 1971; Tam & Ward, 2000). The recency effect may be
489 due to retrieval of items that are still present in STM since a limited amount of time
490 passed between item presentation and recall. This explanation accounts for the salience of
491 recall of Primacy₁. It is possible that simply too much time elapsed from the presentation
492 of Recency₂ items to recall for STM to contribute to the recency effect.

493 Between-Experiments Analyses

494 Based on our results, we created two hypotheses: Recall might be higher for
495 Experiment 2 because participants may treat each half of the list separately, thereby 1)
496 recalling more total items; and 2) recall of item 7 may be higher due to the emergence of
497 a second primacy effect for the second half of the list.

498 Based on similar recall performance for both words and pictures, results were
499 combined for each type of memory items. An independent samples t-test was calculated
500 to determine if overall serial recall was different between Experiment 1 and 2. Results
501 indicated no significant difference in serial recall between experiments ($t(62) = -1.5, p =$
502 $.77$). After visual inspection of the serial position curves, a post-hoc independent samples
503 t-test was calculated to determine specifically if recall of item 7 was different between
504 Experiment 1 and 2. Results indicated significantly better recall of item 7 for Experiment
505 2 (54.7%) compared to Experiment 1 (7.8%; $t(62) = -5.69, p < .001$).

506 We also found four categories of participants across the two experiments ($n = 32$)
507 in terms of demonstrating end-state comfort: Participants that showed (1) end-state
508 comfort for both hands across both glass sequences ($n = 10$), (2) end-state comfort for
509 both hands across only one glass sequence ($n = 18$), (3) end-state comfort only for the
510 hand that moved the upright glass of both glass sequences ($n = 3$), and (4) end-state
511 comfort only for the hand that moved the upright glass during one glass sequence ($n = 1$).
512 These individual differences in sensitivity to end-state comfort in bimanual tasks have
513 also been reported in other studies. For example, Hughes, Seegelke, Reißig, and Schütz
514 (2012) found that 40% of their participants used an overhand grip in all conditions and
515 thus were insensitive to end-state comfort (also see Fischman et al., 2003; Janssen et al.,
516 2010; and Rosenbaum et al., 1990 for additional examples). Janssen et al. (2010)
517 speculated that such a subset of individuals may have impaired motor planning abilities.
518 This is certainly a question worthy of further research.

519 8. General Discussion

520 This study builds upon previous work by presenting two different types of items
521 during the memory task (Experiment 1 and 2) and presenting the information using a
522 different format (Experiment 2). Regardless of the type of information presented (i.e.,
523 words or pictures) or presentation format, the primacy effect remained intact, but the
524 recency effect was disrupted. The number of primacy and recency items recalled is
525 strikingly similar between experiments and the pattern is similar to that found by Logan
526 and Fischman (2011). The present study demonstrates that performing an intervening
527 motor task yields similar results to performing an intervening cognitive task (Logan &
528 Fischman, 2011; Weigelt et al., 2009). Our results suggest that there was sufficient
529 competition between cognitive resources that led to a decrease in performance on each
530 task. This lends further support to the dynamic interaction between cognition, action, and
531 object manipulation (see Rosenbaum et al., 2012 for a review). One potential explanation
532 for “death” of the recency effect may be due to how technology has changed the way
533 people use working memory in the rehearsal and recall of information. Technology, in
534 particular ‘smart’ phones, provides instant access to the ability to record and access
535 information. It is possible that traditional rehearsal and recall patterns are changing.
536 Recent work by Barr, Pennycook, Stolz, and Fugelsang (2015), who studied a large
537 sample of individuals ($N = 398$ across two studies; $M_{\text{age}} = 35$ years) provides an
538 interesting negative perspective on the use of smartphones, and their position certainly
539 warrants further investigation.

540 Our hypothesis that total serial recall would be greater in Experiment 2 compared
541 to Experiment 1 was not upheld. Chunking of information is a common strategy that aids
542 recall performance. We thought that perhaps in Experiment 2 serial recall would be

543 higher because presentation of the 12 items was already separated into two “chunks”,
544 thereby providing an additional aid for recall. However, no difference was found. Two
545 interesting findings include the “bumps” in memory performance of item 7 of Experiment
546 2 compared to item 7 of Experiment 1 and item 7 compared to item 6 in Experiment 2.
547 Because item 7 is the first item presented after the completion of the motor task, this
548 result can potentially be accounted for by the traditional interpretation that performance
549 of an intervening activity “clears” items from STM, resulting in a disruption of recall of
550 recency items, but not primacy items. It is possible that by performing the motor task,
551 items of Recency₂ were somewhat cleared and allowed item 7 to be recalled. It is also
552 possible that not enough time elapsed from presentation of item 7 to recall in order for
553 this item to be cleared from STM.

554 Our findings suggest that the physical execution of an end-state comfort task,
555 regardless of when it is completed during a memory task, disrupts the end-state comfort
556 and recency effects. This suggests that there was sufficient competition between
557 cognitive resources that led to a decrease in performance on each task. However, a
558 limitation of the present study is the lack of control conditions in which participants
559 performed the end-state comfort task and the memory task in isolation of other tasks.
560 This is important to keep in mind and our results should be interpreted with caution.
561 Future research should continue examining the relationship between end-state comfort
562 and memory. One potential research direction would be to determine if serial position
563 effects exist for physical movements. That is, if participants perform a sequence of end-
564 state comfort movements and are then asked to recall those movements using serial

565 recall, are serial position effects present? This experiment is currently underway in our
566 laboratory.
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- 680

681 Table 1. Mean (\pm SD) number of items recalled for each condition (Experiment 1).

<u>Item Type</u>	<u>Total (no order)</u>	<u>In Order</u>	<u>Primacy</u>			<u>Recency</u>
			<u>Items 1-3</u>	<u>Items 4-6</u>	<u>Items 7-9</u>	<u>Items 10-12</u>
Words	6.6 (1.9)	3.1 (2.5)	2.1 (1.2)	.5 (.97)	.31 (.6)	.25 (.45)
Pictures	6.9 (1.2)	3.8 (1.8)	2.2 (.9)	1.3 (1.1)	.25 (.45)	.06 (.25)

682

683 Table 2. Mean (\pm SD) number of items recalled for each condition (Experiment 2).

<u>Item Type</u>	<u>Total (no order)</u>	<u>In Order</u>	<u>Primacy₁</u>	<u>Recency₁</u>	<u>Primacy₂</u>	<u>Recency₂</u>
			<u>Items 1-3</u>	<u>Items 4-6</u>	<u>Items 7-9</u>	<u>Items 10-12</u>
Words	6.1 (1.5)	4.1 (1.9)	2.3 (.78)	.81 (.98)	.88 (1)	.19 (.4)
Pictures	7.7 (2.2)	4.3 (2.2)	2.3 (1.1)	.69 (.95)	.94 (1)	.44 (.73)

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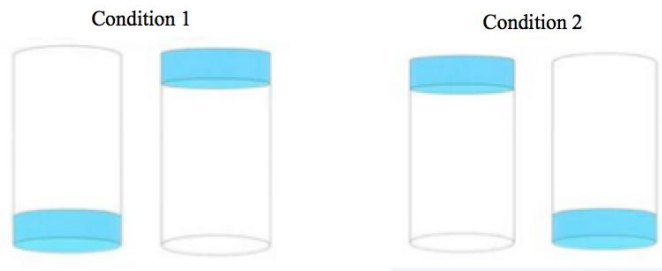
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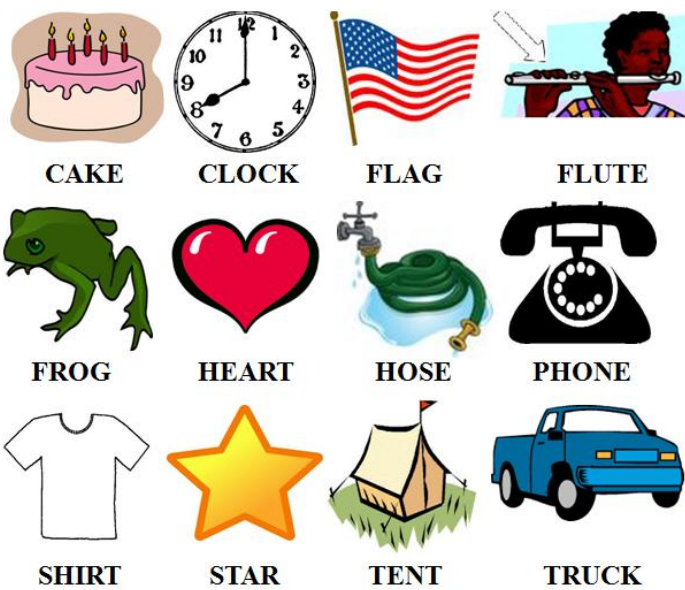


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701 Figure 1. Representation of each bimanual end-state comfort task condition. Blue tape
 702 was placed around the bottom of each glass. This allowed clear distinction of the top and
 703 bottom of the glass.

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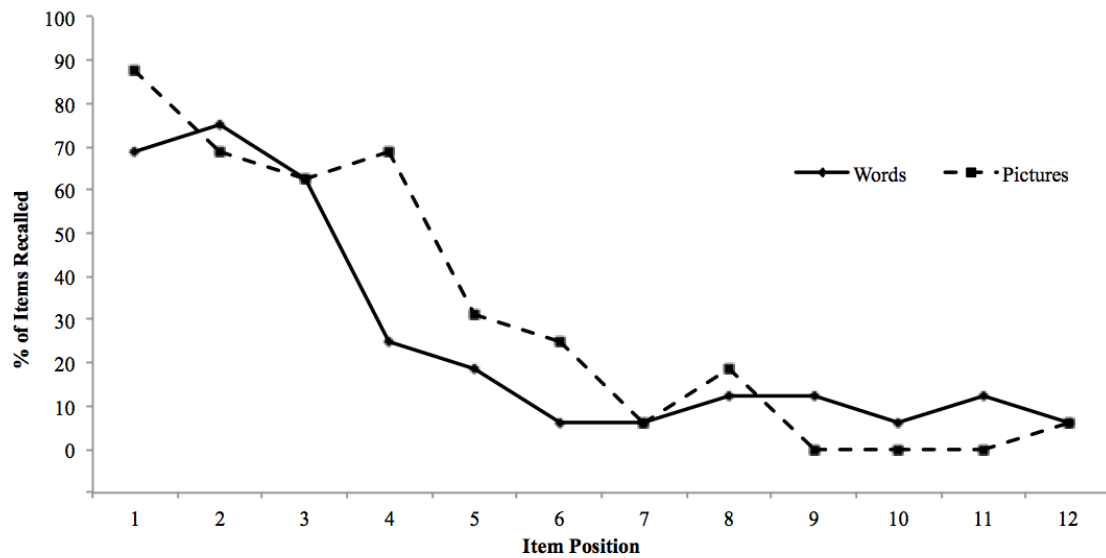
707 Figure 2. Visual representation of the words and pictures used in the present study.

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713 Figure 3. Serial position curves for Experiment 1. Separate lines are provided for each
714 combination type of memory items. Percentages of items recalled for positions 1 to 12 in
715 the random sequence of items.

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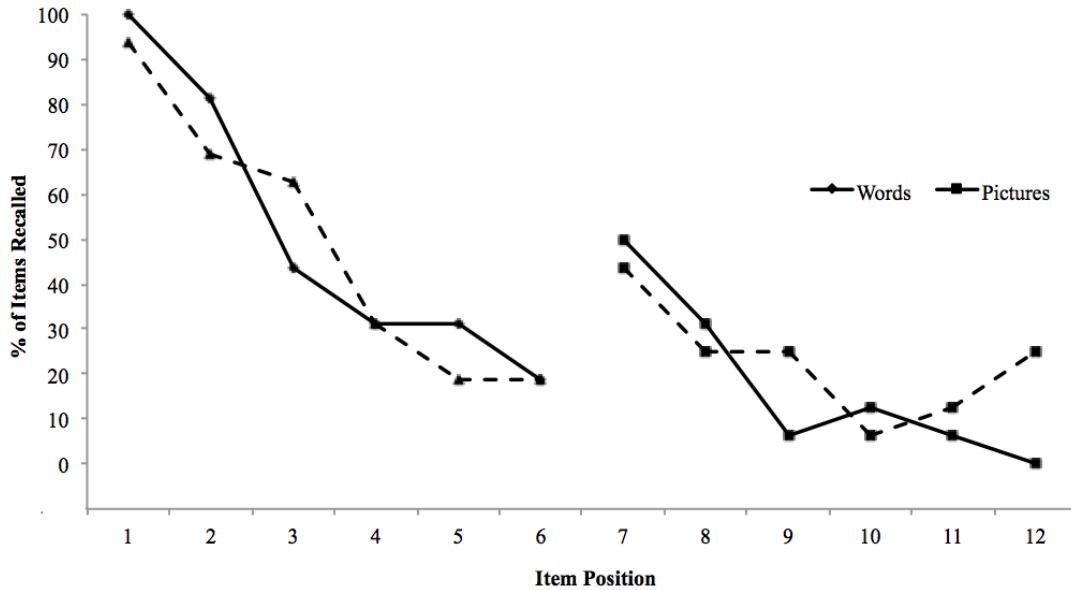
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728 Figure 4. Serial position curves for Experiment 2. Separate lines are provided for each
729 type of memory items. Percentages of items recalled for positions 1 to 12 in the random
730 sequence of items.

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Table 1. Mean (\pm SD) number of items recalled for each condition (Experiment 1).

<u>Item Type</u>	<u>Total (no order)</u>	<u>In Order</u>	<u>Primacy</u>			<u>Recency</u>
			<u>Items 1-3</u>	<u>Items 4-6</u>	<u>Items 7-9</u>	<u>Items 10-12</u>
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Pictures	6.9 (1.2)	3.8 (1.8)	2.2 (.9)	1.3 (1.1)	.25 (.45)	.06 (.25)

Table 2. Mean (\pm SD) number of items recalled for each condition (Experiment 2).

<u>Item Type</u>	<u>Total (no order)</u>	<u>In Order</u>	<u>Primacy₁</u>	<u>Recency₁</u>	<u>Primacy₂</u>	<u>Recency₂</u>
			<u>Items 1-3</u>	<u>Items 4-6</u>	<u>Items 7-9</u>	<u>Items 10-12</u>
Words	6.1 (1.5)	4.1 (1.9)	2.3 (.78)	.81 (.98)	.88 (1)	.19 (.4)
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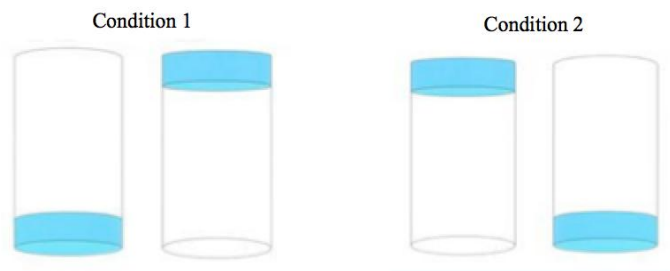


Figure 1. Representation of each bimanual end-state comfort task condition. Blue tape was placed around the bottom of each glass. This allowed clear distinction of the top and bottom of the glass.

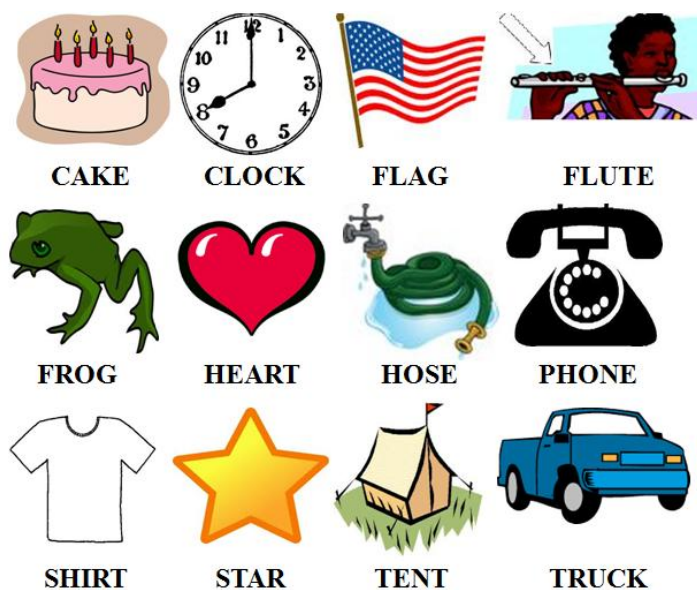


Figure 2. Visual representation of the words and pictures used in the present study.

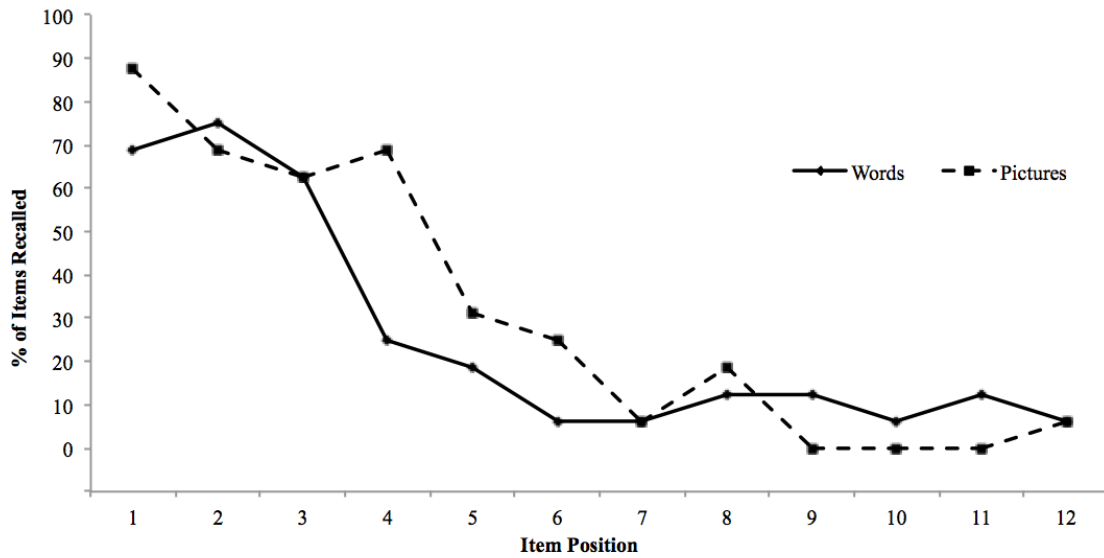


Figure 3. Serial position curves for Experiment 1. Separate lines are provided for each combination type of memory items. Percentages of items recalled for positions 1 to 12 in the random sequence of items.

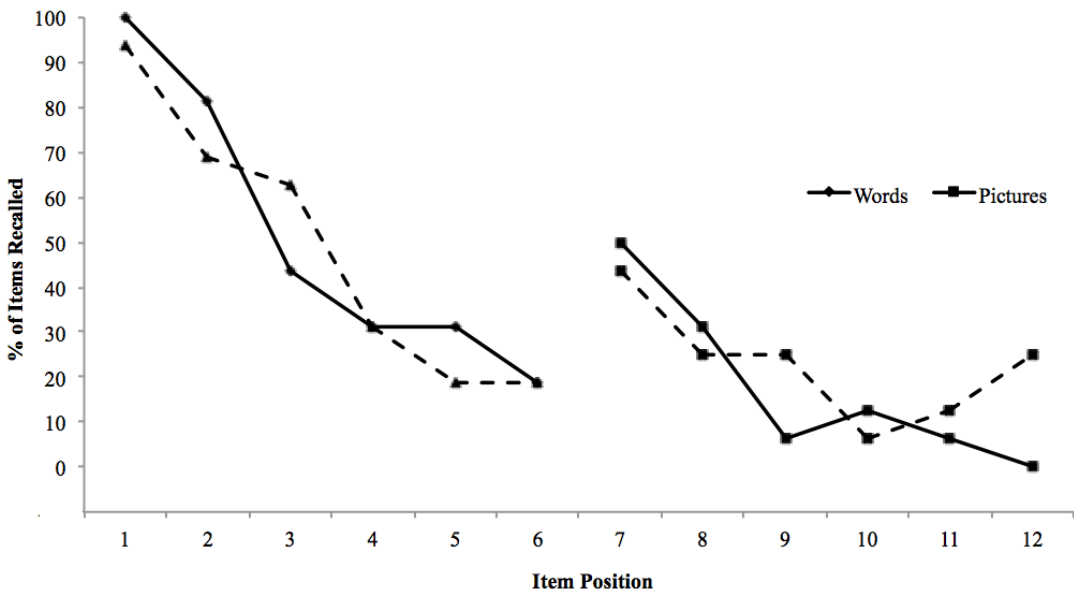


Figure 4. Serial position curves for Experiment 2. Separate lines are provided for each type of memory items. Percentages of items recalled for positions 1 to 12 in the random sequence of items.