

Carryover effects in free recall reveal how past experiences influence memories of future experiences

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Abstract

We perceive, interpret, and remember ongoing experiences through the lens of our prior experiences. Inferring that we are in one type of situation versus another can lead us to interpret the same physical experience differently. In turn, this can affect how we focus our attention, form expectations about what will happen next, remember what is happening now, draw on our prior related experiences, and so on. To study these phenomena, we asked participants to perform simple word list learning tasks. Across different experimental conditions, we held the set of to-be-learned words constant, but we manipulated the orders in which the words were studied. We found that these order manipulations affected not only how the participants recalled the ordered lists, but also how they recalled later randomly ordered lists. Our work shows how structure in our ongoing experiences can exert influence on how we remember unrelated subsequent experiences.

17 Introduction

18 Experience is subjective: different people who encounter identical physical experiences
19 can take away very different meanings and memories. One reason is that our subjective
20 experiences in the moment are shaped in part the idiosyncratic prior experiences, mem-
21 ories, goals, thoughts, expectations, and emotions that we bring with us into the present
22 moment. These factors collectively define a *context* for our experiences (Manning, 2020).

23 The contexts we encounter help us to construct *situation models* (Manning et al., 2015;
24 Ranganath and Ritchey, 2012) or *schemas* (Baldassano et al., 2018; Masís-Obando et al.,
25 2022) that describe how experiences are likely to unfold based on our prior experiences
26 with similar contextual cues. For example, when we enter a sit-down restaurant, we might
27 expect to be seated at a table, given a menu, and served food. Priming someone to expect a
28 particular situation or context can also influence how they resolve potential ambiguities in
29 their ongoing experiences, including ambiguous movies and narratives (Yeshurun et al.,
30 2017).

31 Our understanding of how we form situation models and schemas, and how they
32 interact with our subjective experiences and memories, is constrained in part by substantial
33 differences in how we study these processes. Situation models and schemas are most often
34 studied using “naturalistic” stimuli such as narratives and movies (Nastase et al., 2020;
35 Zwaan et al., 1995; Zwaan and Radvansky, 1998). In contrast, our understanding of how
36 we organize our memories has been most widely studied using more traditional paradigms
37 like free recall of random word lists (Kahana, 2012, 2020). In free recall, participants study
38 lists of items and are instructed to recall the items in any order they choose. The orders
39 in which words come to mind can provide insights into how participants have organized
40 their memories of the studied words. Because random word lists are unstructured by
41 design, it is not clear if or how non-trivial situation models might apply to these stimuli.

42 Nevertheless, there are *some* commonalities between memory for word lists and memory
43 for real-world experiences.

44 Like remembering real-world experiences, remembering words on a studied list re-
45 quires distinguishing the current list from the rest of one's experience. To model this
46 fundamental memory capability, cognitive scientists have posited a special context repre-
47 sentation that is associated with each list. According to early theories (e.g. Anderson and
48 Bower, 1972; Estes, 1955) context representations are composed of many features which
49 fluctuate from moment to moment, slowly drifting through a multidimensional feature
50 space. During recall, this representation forms part of the retrieval cue, enabling us to
51 distinguish list items from non-list items. Understanding the role of context in memory
52 processes is particularly important in self-cued memory tasks, such as *free recall*, where the
53 retrieval cue is "context" itself. Conceptually, the same general processes might be said
54 to describe how real-world contexts evolve during natural experiences. However, this is
55 still an open area of study (Manning, 2020, 2021).

56 Over the past half-century, context-based models have enjoyed impressive success at
57 explaining many stereotyped behaviors observed during free recall and other list-learning
58 tasks (Estes, 1955; Glenberg et al., 1983; Howard and Kahana, 2002; Kimball et al., 2007;
59 Polyn and Kahana, 2008; Polyn et al., 2009; Raaijmakers and Shiffrin, 1980; Sederberg et al.,
60 2008; Shankar and Howard, 2012; Sirotin et al., 2005). These phenomena include the well-
61 known recency and primacy effects (superior recall of items from the end and, to a lesser
62 extent, from the beginning of the study list), as well as semantic and temporal clustering
63 effects (Kahana et al., 2008). The contiguity effect is an example of temporal clustering,
64 which is perhaps the dominant form of organization in free recall. This effect can be
65 seen in the tendency for people to successively recall items that occupied neighboring
66 positions in the study list (Kahana, 1996). There are also striking effects of semantic

67 clustering (Bousfield, 1953; Bousfield et al., 1954; Jenkins and Russell, 1952; Manning and
68 Kahana, 2012; Romney et al., 1993), whereby the recall of a given item is more likely to be
69 followed by recall of a similar or related item than a dissimilar or unrelated one. In general,
70 people organize memories for words along a wide variety of stimulus dimensions. As
71 formalized by models like the *Context Maintenance and Retrieval Model* (Polyn et al., 2009),
72 the stimulus features associated with each word (e.g. the word’s meaning, font size, font
73 color, location on the screen, size of the object the word represents, etc.) are incorporated
74 into the participant’s mental context representation (Manning, 2020; Manning et al., 2015,
75 2011, 2012; Smith and Vela, 2001). During a memory test, any of these features may serve
76 as a memory cue, which in turn leads the participant to recall in succession words that
77 share stimulus features.

78 A key mystery is whether (and how) the sorts of situation models and schemas that
79 people use to organize their memories of real-world experiences might map onto the
80 clustering effects that reflect how people organize their memories for word lists. On
81 one hand, situation models and clustering effects both reflect statistical regularities in
82 ongoing experiences. Our memory systems exploit these regularities when generating
83 inferences about the unobserved past and yet-to-be-experienced future (Bower et al., 1979;
84 Momennejad et al., 2017; Ranganath and Ritchey, 2012; Schapiro and Turk-Browne, 2015;
85 Xu et al., 2022). On the other hand, the rich structure of real-world experiences and other
86 naturalistic stimuli that enable people to form deep and meaningful situation models and
87 schemas have no obvious analog in simple word lists. Often lists in free recall studies are
88 explicitly *designed* to be devoid of exploitable temporal structure, for example by sorting
89 the words in a random order (Kahana, 2012).

90 We designed an experimental paradigm to explore how people organize their mem-
91 ories for simple stimuli (word lists) whose temporal properties change across different

102 “situations,” analogous to how the content of real-world experiences change across dif-
103 ferent real-world situations. We asked participants to study and freely recall a series
104 of word lists (Fig. 1). Across the different conditions in the experiment, we varied the
105 lists’ presentation orders in different ways across lists. The studied items (words) were
106 designed to vary along three general dimensions: semantic (word *category*, and physical
107 *size* of the referent), lexicographic (word *length* and *first letter*), and visual (font *color* and
108 the onscreen *location* of each word). In our main manipulation conditions, we asked par-
109 ticipants to study and recall eight lists whose items were sorted by a target feature (e.g.,
110 word category). Next, we asked them to study and recall an additional eight lists whose
101 items had the same features, but that were sorted in a random temporal order. We were in-
102 terested in how these order manipulations affected participants’ recall behaviors on early
103 (sorted) lists, as well as how order manipulations on early lists affected recall behaviors
104 on later (unsorted) lists. We used a series of control conditions as a baseline; in these
105 control conditions all of the lists were sorted randomly, but we manipulated the presence
106 or absence of the visual features. Finally, in an *adaptive* experimental condition we used
107 participants’ recall behaviors on early lists to manipulate, in real-time, the presentation
108 orders of subsequent lists. In this adaptive condition we varied the agreement between
109 how participants preferred to organize their memories of the studied items versus the
110 orders in which the items were presented.

111 **Materials and methods**

112 **Participants**

113 We enrolled a total of 491 Dartmouth undergraduate students across 11 experimental
114 conditions. The conditions included two primary controls (feature rich, reduced), two

115 secondary controls (reduced (early), reduced (late)), six order manipulation conditions
116 (category, size, length, first letter, color, and location), and a final adaptive condition. Each
117 of these conditions are described in the *Experimental design* subsection below.

118 Participants received course credit for enrolling in our study. We asked each partic-
119 ipant to fill out a demographic survey that included questions about their age, gender,
120 ethnicity, race, education, vision, reading impairments, medications or recent injuries,
121 coffee consumption on the day of testing, and level of alertness at the time of testing. All
122 components of the demographics survey were optional. One participant elected not to fill
123 out any part of the demographic survey, and all other participants answered some or all
124 of the survey questions.

125 We aimed to run (to completion) at least 60 participants in each of the two primary
126 control conditions and in the adaptive condition. In all of the other conditions we set a
127 target enrollment of at least 30 participants. Because our data collection procedures en-
128 tailed the coordinated efforts of 12 researchers and multiple testing rooms and computers,
129 it was not feasible for individual experimenters to know how many participants had been
130 run in each experimental condition until the relevant databases were synchronized at the
131 end of each working day. We also over-enrolled participants for each condition to help
132 ensure that we met our minimum enrollment targets even if some participants dropped
133 out of the study prematurely or did not show up for their testing session. This led us to
134 exceed our target enrollments for several conditions. Nevertheless, we analyze all viable
135 data in the present paper.

136 Participants were assigned to experimental conditions based loosely on their date of
137 participation. (This aspect of our procedure helped us to more easily synchronize the
138 experiment databases across multiple testing computers.) Of the 490 participants who
139 opted to fill out the demographics survey, reported ages ranged from 17 to 31 years

140 (mean: 19.1 years; standard deviation: 1.356 years). A total of 318 participants reported
141 their gender as female, 170 as male, and two participants declined to report their gender.
142 A total of 442 participants reported their ethnicity as “not Hispanic or Latino,” 39 as
143 “Hispanic or Latino,” and nine declined to report their ethnicity. Participants reported
144 their races as White (345 participants), Asian (120 participants), Black or African American
145 (31 participants), American Indian or Alaska Native (11 participants), Native Hawaiian or
146 Other Pacific Islander (four participants), Mixed race (three participants), Middle Eastern
147 (one participant), and Arab (one participant). A total of five participants declined to report
148 their race. We note that several participants reported more than one of racial category.
149 Participants reported their highest degrees achieved as “Some college” (359 participants),
150 “High school graduate” (117 participants), “College graduate” (seven participants), “Some
151 high school” (five participants), “Doctorate” (one participant), and “Master’s degree”
152 (one participant). A total of 482 participants reported no reading impairments, and eight
153 reported having mild reading impairments. A total of 489 participants reported having
154 normal color vision and one participant reported that they were red-green color blind.
155 A total of 482 participants reported taking no prescription medications and having no
156 recent injuries; four participants reported having ADHD, one reported having dyslexia,
157 one reported having allergies, one reported a recently torn ACL/MCL, and one reported
158 a concussion from several months prior. The participants reported consuming 0 – 3 cups
159 of coffee prior to the testing session (mean: 0.32 cups; standard deviation: 0.58 cups).
160 Participants reported their current level of alertness, and we converted their responses
161 to numerical scores as follows: “very sluggish” (-2), “a little sluggish” (-1), “neutral” (0),
162 “a little alert” (1), and “very alert” (2). Across all participants, the full range of alertness
163 levels were reported (range: -2 – 2; mean: 0.35; standard deviation: 0.89).

164 We dropped from our dataset the one participant who reported having abnormal color

vision, as well as 39 participants whose data were corrupted due to technical failures while running the experiment or during the daily database merges. In total, this left usable data from 452 participants, broken down by experimental condition as follows: feature rich (67 participants), reduced (61 participants), reduced (late) (41 participants), reduced (early), (42 participants), category (30 participants), size (30 participants), length (30 participants), first letter (30 participants), color (31 participants), location (30 participants), and adaptive (60 participants). The participant who declined to fill out their demographic survey participated in the location condition, and we verified verbally that they had normal color vision and no significant reading impairments.

Experimental design

Our experiment is a variant of the classic free recall paradigm that we term *feature-rich free recall*. In feature-rich free recall, participants study 16 lists, each comprised of 16 words that vary along a number of stimulus dimensions (Fig. 1). The stimulus dimensions include two semantic features related to the *meanings* of the words (semantic category, referent object size), two lexicographic features related to the *letters* that make up the words (word length in number of letters, identity of the word’s first letter), and two visual features that are independent of the words themselves (text color, presentation location). Each list contains four words from each of four different semantic categories and two object sizes; all other stimulus features are randomized. After studying each list, the participant attempts to recall as many words as they can from that list, in any order they choose. Because each individual word is associated with several well-defined (and quantifiable) features, and because each list incorporates a diverse mix of feature values along each dimension, this allows us to estimate which features participants are considering or leveraging in organizing their memories.



Figure 1: Feature-rich free recall. After studying lists comprised of words that vary along several feature dimensions, participants verbally recall words in any order (microphone icon). Each experimental condition manipulates word features and/or presentation orders within and/or across lists. The rows display representative (illustrated) examples of the first lists participants might encounter in each condition. The rectangles during the “Presentation phase” show illustrated screen captures during a series of word presentations. Each word appeared onscreen for 2 seconds, followed by 2 seconds of blank screen. The red microphone icons during the “Recall” phase denote the one minute verbal recall interval. The labels on the right (and corresponding groupings on the left) denote experimental condition labels.

189 Stimuli

190 The stimuli in our paradigm were 256 English words selected in a previous study (Ziman
191 et al., 2018). The words all referred to concrete nouns, and were chosen from 15 unique se-
192 mantic categories: body parts, building-related, cities, clothing, countries, flowers, fruits,
193 insects, instruments, kitchen-related, mammals, (US) states, tools, trees, and vegetables.
194 We also tagged each word according to the approximate size of the object the word re-
195 ferred to. Words were labeled as “small” if the corresponding object was likely able to
196 “fit in a standard shoebox” or “large” if the object was larger than a shoebox. Semantic
197 categories varied in how many object sizes they reflected (mean number of different sizes
198 per category: 1.33; standard deviation: 0.49). The numbers of words in each semantic
199 category also varied from 12 – 28 (mean number of words per category: 17.07; standard
200 deviation number of words: 4.65). We also identified lexicographic features for each word,
201 including the words’ first letters and lengths (i.e., number of letters). Across all categories,
202 all possible first letters were represented except for ‘Q’ (average number of unique first
203 letters per category: 11; standard deviation: 2 letters). Word lengths ranged from 3 – 12
204 letters (average: 6.17 letters; standard deviation: 2.06 letters).

205 We assigned the categorized words into a total of 16 lists with several constraints.
206 First, we required that each list contained words from exactly 4 unique categories, each
207 with exactly 4 exemplars from each category. Second, we required that (across all words
208 on the list) at least one instance of both object sizes were represented. On average, each
209 category was represented in 4.27 lists (standard deviation: 1.16 lists). Aside from these
210 two constraints, we assigned each word to a unique list. After random assignment, each
211 list contained words with an average of 11.13 unique starting letters (standard deviation:
212 1.15 letters) and an average word length of 6.17 letters (standard deviation: 0.34 letters).

213 The above assignments of words to lists was performed once across all participants,

214 such that every participant studied the same set of 16 lists. In every condition we random-
215 ized the study order of these lists across participants. For participants in some conditions,
216 on some lists, we also randomly varied two additional visual features associated with each
217 word: the presentation font color, and the word’s onscreen location. These attributes were
218 assigned independently for each word (and for every participant). These visual features
219 were varied for words in all lists and conditions except for the “reduced” condition (all
220 lists), the first eight lists of the “reduced (early)” condition, and the last eight lists of the
221 “reduced (late)” condition. In these latter cases, words were all presented in black at the
222 center of the experimental computer’s display.

223 To select a random font color for each word, we drew three integers uniformly and
224 at random from the interval 0,255, corresponding to the red (r), green (g), and blue (b)
225 color channels for that word. To assign random presentation locations to each word, we
226 selected two floating point numbers uniformly at random (one for the word’s horizontal
227 x coordinate and the other for its vertical y coordinate). The bounds of these coordinates
228 were selected to cover the entire visible area of the display without cutting off any part of
229 the words. The words were shown on 27 in (diagonal) Retina 5K iMac displays (resolution:
230 5120×2880 pixels).

231 Most of the experimental manipulations we carried out entailed presenting or sorting
232 the presented words differently on the first eight lists participants studied (which we call
233 *early* lists) versus on the final eight lists they studied (*late* lists). Since every participant
234 studied exactly 16 lists, every list was either “early” or “late” depending on its order in
235 the list study sequence.

236 Real-time speech-to-text processing

237 Our experimental paradigm incorporates the Google Cloud Speech API speech-to-text en-
238 gine (Halpern et al., 2016) to automatically transcribe participants’ verbal recalls into text.
239 This allows recalls to be transcribed in real time– a distinguishing feature of the experi-
240 ment; in typical verbal recall experiments the audio data must be parsed and transcribed
241 manually. In prior work, we used a similar experimental setup (equivalent to the “re-
242 duced” condition in the present study) to verify that the automatically transcribed recalls
243 were sufficiently close to human-transcribed recalls to yield reliable data (Ziman et al.,
244 2018). This real-time speech processing component of the paradigm plays an important
245 role in the “adaptive” condition of the experiment, as described below.

246 Random conditions (Fig. 1, top four rows)

247 We used four “control” conditions to evaluate and explore participants’ baseline behaviors.
248 We also used performance on these control conditions to help interpret performance in
249 other “manipulation” conditions. Two control conditions served as “anchorpoints.” In the
250 first anchorpoint condition, which we call the *feature rich* condition, we randomly shuffled
251 the presentation order (independently for each participant) of the words on each list. In
252 the second anchorpoint condition, which we call the *reduced* condition, we randomized
253 word presentations as in the feature rich condition. However, rather than assigning each
254 word a random color and location, we instead displayed all of the words in black and at
255 the center of the screen.

256 In the *reduced (early)* condition, we followed the “reduced” procedure (presenting each
257 word in black at the center of the screen) for early lists, and followed the “feature rich”
258 procedure (presenting each word in a random color and location) for late lists. Finally, in
259 the *reduced (late)* condition, we followed the feature rich procedure for early lists and the

260 reduced procedure for late lists.

261 **Order manipulation conditions (Fig. 1, middle six rows)**

262 Each of six *order manipulation* conditions used a different feature-based sorting procedure
263 to order words on early lists, where each sorting procedure relied on one relevant feature
264 dimension. All of the irrelevant features varied freely across words on early lists, in
265 that we did not consider irrelevant features in ordering the early lists. However, some
266 features were correlated— for example, some semantic categories of words referred to
267 objects that tended to be a particular size, which meant that category and size were not
268 fully independent. On late lists, the words were always presented in a randomized order
269 (chosen anew for each participant). In all of the order manipulation conditions, we varied
270 words’ font colors and onscreen locations, as in the feature rich condition.

271 **Defining feature-based distances.** Sorting words according to a given relevant feature
272 requires first defining a distance function for quantifying the dissimilarity between each
273 pair of features. This function varied according to the type of features. Semantic features
274 (category and size) are *categorical*. For these features, we defined a binary distance function:
275 two words were considered to “match” (i.e., have a distance of 0) if their labels are the
276 same (i.e., both from the same semantic category or both of the same size). If two words’
277 labels were different for a given feature, we defined the words to have a distance of 1
278 for that feature. Lexicographic features (length and first letter) are *discrete*. For these
279 features we defined a discrete distance function. Specifically, we defined the distance
280 between two words as either the absolute difference between their lengths, or the absolute
281 distance between their starting letters in the English alphabet, respectively. For example,
282 two words that started with the same letter would have a “first letter” distance of 0, and
283 words starting with ‘J’ and ‘A’ respectively would have a first letter distance of 9. Because

284 words' lengths and letters' positions in the alphabet are always integers, these discrete
 285 distances always take on integer values. Finally, the visual features (color and location) are
 286 *continuous* and *multivariate*, in that each "feature" takes on multiple (positive) real values.
 287 We defined the "color" and "location" distances between two words as the Euclidean
 288 distances between their (r, g, b) color or (x, y) location vectors, respectively. Therefore the
 289 color and location distance measures always take on positive real values (upper-bounded
 290 at 441.67 for color, or 27 in for location, reflecting the distances between the corresponding
 291 maximally different vectors).

292 **Constructing feature-sorted lists.** Given a list of words, a relevant feature, and each
 293 word's value(s) for that feature, we developed a stochastic algorithm for (noisily) sorting
 294 the words. The stochastic aspect of our sorting procedure enabled us to obtain unique
 295 lists for each participant. First, we choose a word uniformly at random from the set of
 296 candidates. Next, we compute the distances between the chosen word's feature(s) and
 297 the corresponding feature(s) of all yet-to-be-presented words. Third, we convert these
 298 distances (between the previously presented word's feature values, a , and the candidate
 299 word's feature values, b) to similarity scores:

$$\text{similarity}(a, b) = \exp\{-\tau \cdot \text{distance}(a, b)\}, \quad (1)$$

300 where $\tau = 1$ in our implementation. We note that increasing the value of τ would amplify
 301 the influence of similarity on order, and decreasing the value of τ would diminish the
 302 influence of similarity on order. Also note that this approach requires $\tau > 0$. Finally, we
 303 computed a set of normalized similarity values by dividing the similarities by their sum:

$$\text{similarity}_{\text{normalized}}(a, b) = \frac{\text{similarity}(a, b)}{\sum_{i=1}^n \text{similarity}(a, i)}, \quad (2)$$

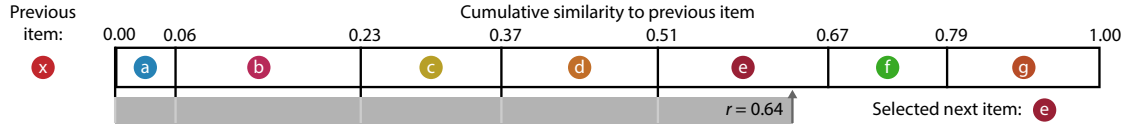


Figure 2: Generating stochastic feature-sorted lists. For a given feature dimension (e.g., color), we compute the similarity (Eqn. 1) between the feature value(s) of the previous item, x , and all yet-to-be-presented items ($a - g$). Next, we normalize these similarity scores so that they sum to one. We lay, in sequence, a set of “sticks,” one for each candidate item, whose lengths are equal to these normalized similarity scores. Note that the combined lengths of these sticks is one. To select the next to-be-presented item, we draw a random number, r , from the uniform distribution bounded between 0 and 1 (inclusive). The identity of the next item is given by the stick adjacent to an indicator that moves distance r (starting from 0) along the sequence of sticks. In this case, the next to-be-presented item is e . Note that each item’s chances of selection is proportional to its similarity to the previous item, along the given feature dimension.

304 where in the demoniator, i takes on each of the n feature values of the to-be-presented
 305 words. The resulting set of normalized similarity scores sums to one.

306 As illustrated in Figure 2, we use these normalized similarity scores to construct a
 307 sequence of “sticks” that we lay end to end in a line. Each of the n sticks corresponds
 308 to a single to-be-presented word, and the stick lengths are proportional to the relative
 309 similarities between each word’s feature value(s) and the feature value(s) of the just-
 310 presented word. We choose the next to-be-presented word by moving an indicator along
 311 the set of sticks, by a distance chosen uniformly at random on the interval $[0, 1]$. We
 312 select the word associated with the stick lying next to the indicator to be presented next.
 313 This process continues iteratively (re-computing the similarity scores and stochastically
 314 choosing the next to-be-presented word using the just-presented word) until all of the
 315 words have been presented. The result is an ordered list that tends to change gradually
 316 along the selected feature dimension.

317 **Adaptive condition**

318 We designed the *adaptive* experimental condition to study the effect on memory of lists
319 that matched (or mismatched) the ways participants “naturally” organized their memories.
320 Like the other conditions, all participants in the adaptive condition studied a total of 16
321 lists, in a randomized order. We varied the words’ colors and locations for every word
322 presentation, as in the feature rich and order manipulation conditions.

323 All participants in the adaptive condition began the experiment by studying a set of
324 four *initialization* lists. Words and features on these lists were presented in a randomized
325 order (computed independently for each participant). These initialization lists were used
326 to estimate each participant’s “memory fingerprint,” defined below. At a high level,
327 a participant’s memory fingerprint describes how they prioritize or consider different
328 semantic, lexicographic, and/or visual features when they organize their memories.

329 Next, participants studied a sequence of 12 lists in three batches of four lists each. These
330 batches came in three types: *random*, *stabilize*, and *destabilize*. The batch types determined
331 how words on the lists in that batch were ordered. Lists in each batch were always
332 presented consecutively (e.g., a participant might receive four random lists, followed
333 by four stabilize lists, followed by four destabilize lists). The batch orders were evenly
334 counterbalanced across participants: there are six possible orderings of the three batches,
335 and 10 participants were randomly assigned to each ordering sub-condition.

336 Lists in the random batches were sorted randomly (as on the initialization lists and in
337 the feature rich condition). Lists in the stabilize and destabilize batches were sorted in ways
338 that either matched or mismatched each participant’s memory fingerprint, respectively.
339 Our procedures for estimating participants’ memory fingerprints and ordering the stabilize
340 and destabilize lists are described next.

341 **Feature clustering scores (uncorrected).** Feature clustering scores describe participants’
342 tendencies to recall similar presented items together in their recall sequences, where
343 “similarity” considers one given feature dimension (e.g., category, color, etc.). We base
344 our main approach to computing clustering scores on analogous temporal and semantic
345 clustering scores developed by Polyn et al. (2009). Computing the clustering score for
346 one feature dimension starts by considering the corresponding feature values from the
347 first word the participant recalled correctly from the just-studied list. Next, we sort all
348 not-yet-recalled words in ascending order according to their feature-based distance to the
349 just-recalled item (see *Defining feature-based distances*). We then compute the percentile rank
350 of the observed next recall. We average these percentile ranks across all of the participant’s
351 recalls for the current list to obtain a single uncorrected clustering score for the list, for the
352 given feature dimension. We repeated this process for each feature dimension in turn to
353 obtain a single uncorrected clustering score for each list, for each feature dimension.

354 **Temporal clustering score (uncorrected).** Temporal clustering describes a participant’s
355 tendency to organize their recall sequences by the learned items’ encoding positions. For
356 instance, if a participant recalled the lists’ words in the exact order they were presented
357 (or in exact reverse order), this would yield a score of 1. If a participant recalled the words
358 in random order, this would yield an expected score of 0.5. For each recall transition (and
359 separately for each participant), we sorted all not-yet-recalled words according to their
360 absolute lag (that is, distance away in the list). We then computed the percentile rank of
361 the next word the participant recalled. We took an average of these percentile ranks across
362 all of the participant’s recalls to obtain a single (uncorrected) temporal clustering score for
363 the participant.

364 **Permutation-corrected feature clustering scores.** Suppose that two lists contain unequal
365 numbers of items of each size. For example, suppose that list *A* contains all “large” items,
366 whereas list *B* contains an equal mix of “large” and “small” items. For a participant
367 recalling list *A*, any correctly recalled item will necessarily match the size of the previous
368 correctly recalled item. In other words, successively recalling several list *A* items of the
369 same size is essentially meaningless, since *any* correctly recalled list *A* word will be large.
370 In contrast, successively recalling several list *B* items *could* be meaningful, since (early in
371 the recall sequence) the yet-to-be-recalled items come from a mix of sizes. However, once
372 all of the small items on list *B* have been recalled, the best possible next matching recall
373 will be a large item. And all subsequent correct recalls must also be large items– so for
374 those later recalls it becomes difficult to determine whether the participant is successively
375 recalling large items because they are organizing their memories according to size, or
376 (alternatively), whether they are simply recalling the yet-to-be-recalled items in a random
377 order. In general, the precise order and blend of feature values expressed in a given list,
378 the orders and numbers of correct recalls a participant makes, the number of intervening
379 presentation positions between successive recalls, and so on, can all affect the range of
380 clustering scores that are possible to observe for a given list. An uncorrected clustering
381 score therefore conflates participants’ actual memory organization with other “nuisance”
382 factors.

383 Following our prior work (Heusser et al., 2017), we used a permutation-based cor-
384 rection procedure to help isolate the behavioral aspects of clustering that we were most
385 interested in. After computing the uncorrected clustering score (for the given list and
386 observed recall sequence), we compute a “null” distribution of n additional clustering
387 scores after randomly shuffling the order of the recalled words (we use $n = 500$ in the
388 present study). This null distribution represents an approximation of the range of cluster-

ing scores one might expect to observe by “chance,” given that a hypothetical participant was *not* truly clustering their recalls, but where the hypothetical participant still studied and recalled exactly the same items (with the same features) as the true participant. We define the *permutation-corrected clustering score* as the percentile rank of the observed uncorrected clustering score in this estimated null distribution. In this way, a corrected score of 1 indicates that the observed score was greater than any clustering score one might expect by chance; in other words, good evidence that the participant was truly clustering their recalls along the given feature dimension. We applied this correction procedure to all of the clustering scores (feature and temporal) reported in this paper.

Memory fingerprints. We define each participant’s *memory fingerprint* as the set of their permutation-corrected clustering scores across all dimensions we tracked in our study, including their six feature-based clustering scores (category, size, length, first letter, color, and location) and their temporal clustering score. Conceptually, a participant’s memory fingerprint describes their tendency to order in their recall sequences (and, presumably, organize in memory) the studied words along each dimension. To obtain stable estimates of these fingerprints for each participant, we averaged clustering scores across lists. We also tracked and characterized how participants’ fingerprints changed across lists (e.g., Figs. 6, S8).

Online “fingerprint” analysis. The presentation orders of some lists in the adaptive condition of our experiment (see *Adaptive condition*) were sorted according to participants’ *current* memory fingerprint, estimated using all of the lists they had studied up to that point in the experiment. Because our experiment incorporated a speech-to-text component, all of the behavioral data for each participant could be analyzed just a few seconds after the conclusion of the recall intervals for each list. We used the Quail Python package (Heusser

et al., 2017) to apply speech-to-text algorithms to the just-collected data, aggregate the data for the given participant, and estimate the participant’s memory fingerprint using all of their available data up to that point in the experiment. Two aspects of our implementation are worth noting. First, because memory fingerprints are computed independently for each list and then averaged across lists, the already-computed memory fingerprints for earlier lists could be cached and loaded as needed in future computations. This meant that our computations pertaining to updating our estimate of a participant’s memory fingerprint only needed to consider data from the most recent list. Second, each element of the null distributions of uncorrected fingerprint scores (see *Permutation-corrected feature clustering scores*) could be estimated independently from the others. This enabled us to make use of the testing computers’ multi-core CPU architectures by elements of the null distributions in batches of eight (i.e., the number of CPU cores on each testing computer). Taken together, we were able to compress the relevant computations into just a few seconds of computing time. The combined processing time for the speech-to-text algorithm, fingerprint computations, and permutation-based ordering procedure (described next) easily fit within the inter-list intervals, where participants paused for a self-paced break before moving on to study and recall the next list.

Ordering “stabilize” and “destabilize” lists by an estimated fingerprint. In the adaptive condition of our experiment, the presentation orders for *stabilize* and *destabilize* lists were chosen to either maximally or minimally (respectively) comport with participants’ memory fingerprints. Given a participant’s memory fingerprint and a to-be-presented set of items, we designed a permutation-based procedure for ordering the items. First, we dropped from the participant’s fingerprint the temporal clustering score. For the remaining feature dimensions, we arranged the clustering scores in the fingerprint into a template vector, f . Second, we computed $n = 2500$ random permutations of the to-be-presented

438 items. These permutations served as candidate presentation orders. We sought to select
 439 the specific order that most (or least) matched f . Third, for each random permutation, we
 440 computed the (permutation-corrected) “fingerprint,” treating the permutation as though
 441 it were a potential “perfect” recall sequence. (We did not include temporal clustering
 442 scores in these fingerprints.) This yielded a “simulated fingerprint” vector, \hat{f}_p for each
 443 permutation p . We used these simulated fingerprints to select a specific permutation, i ,
 444 that either maximized (for stabilize lists) or minimized (for destabilize lists) the correlation
 445 between \hat{f}_i and f .

446 **Computing low-dimensional embeddings of memory fingerprints**

447 **JRM NOTE: REMINDER TO CHECK THIS PARAGRAPH AGAINST ANALYSIS**
 448 **CODE FOR ACCURACY...** Following some of our prior work (Heusser et al., 2021,
 449 2018), we use low-dimensional embeddings to help visualize how participants’ memory
 450 fingerprints change across lists (Figs. 6A, S8A). To compute a shared embedding space
 451 across participants and experimental conditions, we concatenated the full set of finger-
 452 prints (across all lists, participants, and experimental conditions) to create a large matrix
 453 with number-of-lists \times number-of-participants rows and seven columns (one for each
 454 feature clustering score, plus an additional temporal clustering score column). We used
 455 principal components analysis to project the seven-dimensional observations into a two-
 456 dimensional space (using the two principal components that explained the most variance
 457 in the data). For two visualizations (Figs. 6B, and S8B) we computed an additional set of
 458 two-dimensional embeddings for participants’ *average* fingerprints (i.e., across lists within
 459 a given group of lists— early or late). For those visualizations we averaged across the rows
 460 (for each condition and group of lists) in the combined fingerprint matrix prior to pro-
 461 jecting it into the shared two-dimensional space. This yielded a single two-dimensional

coordinate for each *list group*, rather than for each individual list. We used these embeddings solely for visualization. All statistical tests were carried out in the original (seven-dimensional) feature spaces.

Analyses

Probability of n^{th} recall curves

Probability of first recall curves (Atkinson and Shiffrin, 1968; Postman and Phillips, 1965; Welch and Burnett, 1924) reflect the probability that an item will be recalled first, as a function of its serial position during encoding. To carry out this analysis, we initialized (for each participant) a number-of-lists (16) by number-of-words-per-list (16) matrix of zeros. Then, for each list, we found the index of the word that was recalled first, and we filled in that position in the matrix with a 1. Finally, we averaged over the rows of the matrix to obtain a 1 by 16 array of probabilities, for each participant. We used an analogous procedure to compute probability of n^{th} recall curves for each participant. Specifically, we filled in the corresponding matrices according to the n^{th} recall on each list that each participant made. When a given participant had made fewer than n recalls for a given list, we simply excluded that list from our analysis when computing that participant's curve(s).

Lag-conditional response probability curve

The lag-conditional probability (lag-CRP) curve (Kahana, 1996) reflects the probability of recalling a given item after the just-recalled item, as a function of their relative encoding positions (lag). In other words, a lag of 1 indicates that a recalled item was presented immediately after the previously recalled item, and a lag of -3 indicates that a recalled item came three items before the previously recalled item. For each recall transition (following

the first recall), we computed the lag between the just-recalled word's presentation position and the next-recalled word's presentation position. We computed the proportions of transitions (between successively recalled words) for each lag, normalizing for the total numbers of possible transitions. In carrying out this analysis, we excluded all incorrect recalls and successive repetitions (e.g., recalling the same word twice in a row). This yielded, for each list, a 1 by number-of-lags (-15 to +15; 30 lags in total, excluding lags of 0) array of conditional probabilities. We averaged these probabilities across lists to obtain a single lag-CRP for each participant.

Serial position curve

Serial position curves (Murdock, 1962) reflect the proportion of participants who remember each item as a function of the items' serial positions during encoding. For each participant, we initialized a number-of-lists (16) by number-of-words-per-list (16) matrix of zeros. Then, for each correct recall, we identified the presentation position of the word and entered a 1 into that position (row: list; column: presentation position) in the matrix. This resulted in a matrix whose entries indicated whether or not the words presented at each position, on each list, were recalled by the participant (depending on whether the corresponding entries were set to one or zero). Finally, we averaged over the rows of the matrix to yield a 1 by 16 array representing the proportion of words at each position that the participant remembered.

Identifying event boundaries

We used the distances between feature values for successively presented words (see *Defining feature-based distances*) to estimate "event boundaries" where the feature values changed more than usual (DuBrow and Davachi, 2016; Ezzyat and Davachi, 2011; Manning et al.,

2016; Radvansky and Copeland, 2006; Swallow et al., 2011, 2009). For each list, for each feature dimension, we computed the distribution of distances between the feature values for successively presented words. We defined event boundaries (e.g., Fig. 3B) as occurring between any successive pair of words whose distances along the given feature dimension were greater than one standard deviation above the mean for that list. Note that, because event boundaries are defined for each feature dimension, each individual list may contain several sets of event boundaries, each at different moments in the presentation sequence (depending on the feature dimension of interest).

Results

While holding the set of words (and the assignments of words to lists) constant, we manipulated two aspects of participants' experiences of studying each list. We sought to understand the effects of these manipulations on participants' memories for the studied words. First, we added two additional sources of visual variation to the individual word presentations: font color and onscreen location. Importantly, these visual features were independent of the meaning or semantic content of the words (e.g., word category, size of the referent, etc.) and of the lexicographic properties of the words (e.g., word length, first letter, etc.). We wondered whether this additional word-independent information might facilitate recall (e.g., by providing new potential ways of organizing or retrieving memories of the studied words) or impair recall (e.g., by distracting participants with irrelevant information). Second, we manipulated the orders in which words were studied (and how those orderings changed over time). We wondered whether presenting the same list of words with different appearances (e.g., by manipulating font size and onscreen location) or in different orders (e.g., sorted along one feature dimension versus another) might serve to influence how participants organized their memories of the words. We also

532 wondered whether some order manipulations might be temporally “sticky” by influencing
533 how *future* lists were remembered.

534 To obtain a clean preliminary estimate of the consequences on memory of randomly
535 varying the font colors and locations of presented words (versus holding the font color
536 fixed at black, and holding the display locations fixed at the center of the display) we
537 compared participants’ performance on the *feature rich* and *reduced* experimental condi-
538 tions (see *Random conditions*, Fig. S1). In the feature rich condition the words’ colors and
539 locations varied randomly across words, and in the reduced condition words were always
540 presented in black, at the center of the display. Aggregating across all lists for each par-
541 ticipant, we found no difference in recall accuracy for feature rich versus reduced lists
542 ($t(126) = -0.290, p = 0.772$). However, participants in the feature rich condition clustered
543 their recalls substantially more along every dimension we examined (temporal clustering:
544 $t(126) = 10.624, p < 0.001$; category clustering: $t(126) = 10.077, p < 0.001$; size clustering:
545 $t(126) = 11.829, p < 0.001$; word length clustering: $t(126) = 10.639, p < 0.001$; first let-
546 ter clustering: $t(126) = 7.775, p < 0.001$; see *Permutation-corrected feature clustering scores*
547 for more information about how we quantified each participant’s clustering tendencies.)
548 Taken together, these comparisons suggest that adding new features changes how par-
549 ticipants organize their memories of studied words, even when those new features are
550 independent of the words themselves and even when the new features vary randomly
551 across words. We found no evidence that those additional uninformative features were
552 distracting (in terms of their impact on memory performance), but they did affect partici-
553 pants’ recall dynamics (measured via their clustering scores).

554 We also wondered whether adding these irrelevant visual features to later lists (after
555 the participants had already studied impoverished lists), or removing the visual features
556 from later lists (after the participants had already studied visually diverse lists) might affect

memory performance. In other words, we sought to test for potential effects of changing the “richness” of participants’ experiences over time. All participants studied and recalled a total of 16 lists; we defined *early* lists as the first eight lists and *late* lists as the last eight lists each participant encountered. To help interpret our results, we compared participants’ memories on early versus late lists in the above feature rich and reduced conditions. Participants in both conditions remembered more words on early versus late lists (feature rich: $t(66) = 4.553, p < 0.001$; reduced: $t(60) = 2.434, p = 0.018$). Participants in the feature rich (but not reduced) conditions exhibited more temporal clustering on early versus late lists (feature rich: $t(66) = 2.318, p = 0.024$; reduced: $t(60) = 0.929, p = 0.357$). And participants in both conditions exhibited more semantic (category and size) clustering on early versus late lists (feature rich, category: $t(66) = 3.805, p < 0.001$; feature rich, size: $t(66) = 2.190, p = 0.032$; reduced, category: $t(60) = 2.856, p = 0.006$; reduced, size: $t(60) = 2.947, p = 0.005$). Participants in the reduced (but not feature rich) conditions exhibited more lexicographic clustering on early versus late lists (feature rich, word length: $t(66) = 0.161, p = 0.872$; feature rich, first letter: $t(66) = 0.410, p = 0.683$; reduced, word length: $t(60) = 3.528, p = 0.001$; reduced, first letter: $t(60) = 2.275, p = 0.026$). Taken together, these comparisons suggest that even when the presence or absence of irrelevant visual features is stable across lists, participants still exhibit some differences in their performance and memory organization tendencies for early versus late lists.

With these differences in mind, we next compared participants’ memories on early versus late lists for two additional experimental conditions (see *Random conditions*, Fig. S1). In a *reduced (early)* condition, we held the irrelevant visual features constant on early lists, but allowed them to vary randomly on late lists. In a *reduced (late)* condition, we allowed the irrelevant visual features to vary randomly on early lists, but held them constant on late lists. Given our above findings that (a) participants tended to remember more

words and exhibit stronger clustering effects on feature rich (versus reduced) lists, and (b) participants tended to remember more words and exhibit stronger clustering effects on early (versus late) lists, we expected these early versus late differences to be enhanced in the reduced (early) condition and diminished in the reduced (late) condition. However, to our surprise, participants in *neither* condition exhibited reliable early versus late differences in accuracy (reduced (early): $t(41) = 1.499, p = 0.141$; reduced (late): $t(40) = 1.462, p = 0.152$), temporal clustering (reduced (early): $t(41) = 0.998, p = 0.324$; reduced (late): $t(40) = 1.099, p = 0.278$), nor feature based clustering (reduced (early), category: $t(41) = 0.753, p = 0.456$; reduced (early), size: $t(41) = 0.721, p = 0.475$; reduced (early), length: $t(41) = 0.493, p = 0.625$; reduced (early), first letter: $t(41) = 0.780, p = 0.440$; reduced (late), category: $t(40) = -0.086, p = 0.932$; reduced (late), size: $t(40) = 0.746, p = 0.460$; reduced (late), length: $t(40) = 1.476, p = 0.148$; reduced (late), first letter: $t(40) = 0.966, p = 0.340$). We hypothesized that adding or removing the irrelevant features was acting as a sort of “event boundary” between early and late lists. In prior work, we (and others) have found that memories formed just after event boundaries can be enhanced (e.g., due to less contextual interference between pre- and post-boundary items; Manning et al., 2016).

We found that *adding* irrelevant visual features on later lists that had not been present on early lists (as in the reduced (early) condition) served to enhance recall performance relative to conditions where all lists had the same blends of features (accuracy for feature rich versus reduced (early): $t(107) = -2.230, p = 0.028$; reduced versus reduced (early): $t(101) = -2.045, p = 0.043$; also see Fig. S3A). However, *subtracting* irrelevant visual features on later lists that *had* been present on early lists (as in the reduced (late) condition) did not appear to impact recall performance (accuracy for feature rich versus reduced (late): $t(106) = -0.638, p = 0.525$; reduced versus reduced (late): $t(100) = -0.407, p = 0.685$). These comparisons suggest that recall accuracy has a directional component (i.e., accu-

607 racy is affected differently by removing features later that had been present earlier versus
608 adding features later that had *not* been present earlier). In contrast, we found that partic-
609 ipants exhibited more temporal and feature-based clustering when we added irrelevant
610 visual features to *any* lists (comparisons of clustering on feature rich and reduced lists
611 are reported above; temporal clustering in reduced versus reduced (early) and reduced
612 versus reduced (late) conditions: $ts \leq -9.780$, $ps < 0.001$; feature based clustering in re-
613 duced versus reduced (early) and reduced versus reduced (late) conditions: $ts \leq -5.443$, ps
614 < 0.001). Temporal and feature-based clustering were not reliably different in the feature
615 rich, reduced (early), and reduced (late) conditions (temporal clustering in feature rich
616 versus reduced (early) and feature rich versus reduced (late) conditions: $ts \geq -1.434$, ps
617 ≥ 0.154 ; feature based clustering in feature rich versus reduced (early) and feature rich
618 versus reduced (late) conditions: $ts \geq -1.359$, $ps > 0.177$).

619 Taken together, our findings thus far suggest that adding item features that change
620 over time, even when they vary randomly and independently of the items, can enhance
621 participants' overall memory performance and can also enhance temporal and feature-
622 based clustering. To the extent that the number of item features that vary from moment
623 to moment approximates the "richness" of participants' experiences, our findings sug-
624 gest that participants remember "richer" stimuli better and organize richer stimuli more
625 reliably in their memories. Next, we turn to examine the memory effects of varying the
626 temporal ordering of different stimulus features while holding the features themselves
627 constant. We hypothesized that changing the order in which participants were exposed
628 to the words on a given list might enhance (or diminish) the relative influence of different
629 features. For example, presenting a set of words alphabetically might enhance partici-
630 pants' attention to the studied items' first letters, whereas sorting the same list of words by
631 semantic category might instead enhance participants' attention to the words' semantic

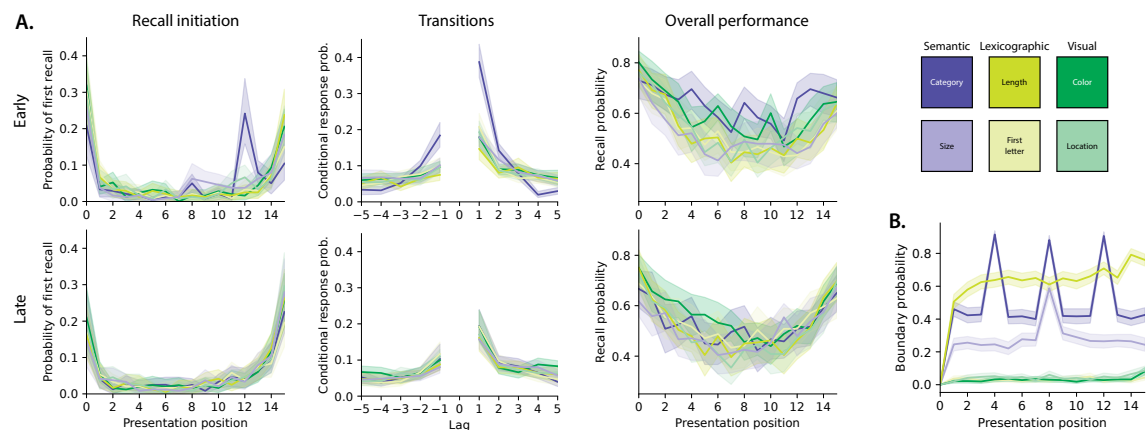


Figure 3: Recall dynamics in feature rich free recall (order manipulation conditions). **A.** Behavioral plots. **Left panels.** The probabilities of initiating recall with each word are plotted as a function of presentation position. **Middle panels.** The conditional probabilities of recalling each word are plotted as a function of the relative position (Lag) to the words recalled just-prior. **Right panels.** The overall probabilities of recalling each word are plotted as a function of presentation position. **All panels.** Error ribbons denote bootstrap-estimated 95% confidence intervals (calculated across participants). Top panels display the recall dynamics for early (order manipulation) lists in each condition (color). Bottom panels display the recall dynamics for late (randomly ordered) lists. See Figures S1 and S2 for analogous plots for the random (control) and adaptive conditions. **B.** Proportion of event boundaries (see *Identifying event boundaries*) for each condition's feature of focus, plotted as a function of presentation position.

632 attributes. Importantly, we expected these order manipulations to hold even when the
 633 variation in the total set of features (across words) was held constant across lists (e.g.,
 634 unlike in the reduced (early) and reduced (late) conditions, where visual features were
 635 added or removed from a subset of the lists participants studied).

636 Across six order manipulation conditions, we sorted early lists by each feature dimen-
 637 sion but randomly ordered the items on late lists (see *Order manipulation conditions*; features:
 638 category, size, length, first letter, color, and location). Participants in the category-ordered
 639 condition showed an increase in memory performance on early lists (accuracy, relative to
 640 early feature rich lists; $t(95) = 3.034, p = 0.003$). Participants in the color-ordered condition
 641 also showed a trending increase in memory performance on early lists (again, relative to
 642 early feature rich lists: $t(96) = 1.850, p = 0.067$). Participants' performance on early lists

643 in all of the other order manipulation conditions was indistinguishable from performance
 644 on the early feature rich lists ($|t|$ s < 1.013 , p s > 0.314). Participants in both of the se-
 645 mantically ordered conditions exhibited stronger temporal clustering on early lists (versus
 646 early feature rich lists; category: $t(95) = 8.508$, $p < 0.001$; size: $t(95) = 2.429$, $p = 0.017$).
 647 Participants in the length-ordered condition tended to exhibit *less* temporal clustering
 648 on early lists relative to early feature rich lists ($t(95) = -1.666$, $p = 0.099$), whereas par-
 649 ticipants in the first letter-ordered condition exhibited stronger temporal clustering on
 650 early lists ($t(95) = 2.587$, $p = 0.011$). Participants in the visually ordered conditions ex-
 651 hibited more similar performance on early lists, relative to early feature rich lists (color:
 652 $t(96) = -1.064$, $p = 0.290$; we found a trending enhancement for participants in the location-
 653 ordered condition: $t(95) = 1.682$, $p = 0.096$). We also compared feature-based clustering
 654 on early lists across the order manipulation and feature rich conditions. Since results were
 655 similar across both semantic conditions (category and size), both lexicographic conditions
 656 (length and first letter), and both visual conditions (color and location), here we aggre-
 657 gate data from conditions that manipulated each of these three feature groupings in our
 658 comparisons to simplify the presentation. On early lists, participants in the semantically
 659 ordered conditions exhibited stronger semantic clustering relative to participants in the
 660 feature rich condition (category: $t(125) = 2.524$, $p = 0.013$; size: $t(125) = 3.510$, $p = 0.001$),
 661 but showed no reliable differences in lexicographic (length: $t(125) = 0.539$, $p = 0.591$; first
 662 letter: $t(125) = -0.587$, $p = 0.558$) or visual (color: $t(125) = -0.579$, $p = 0.564$; location:
 663 $t(125) = -0.346$, $p = 0.730$) clustering. Similarly, participants in the lexicographically or-
 664 dered conditions exhibited stronger (relative to feature rich participants) lexicographic
 665 clustering (length: $t(125) = 3.426$, $p = 0.001$; first letter: $t(125) = 3.236$, $p = 0.002$) on early
 666 lists, but showed no reliable differences in semantic (category: $t(125) = -1.078$, $p = 0.283$;
 667 size: $t(125) = -0.310$, $p = 0.757$) or visual (color: $t(125) = -0.209$, $p = 0.835$; location:

668 $t(125) = -0.004, p = 0.997$) clustering. And participants in the visually ordered condi-
 669 tions exhibited stronger visual clustering (again, relative to feature rich participants, and
 670 on early lists; color: $t(126) = 2.099, p = 0.038$; location: $t(126) = 4.392, p = 0.000$), but
 671 showed now reliable differences in semantic (category: $t(126) = 0.204, p = 0.839$; size:
 672 $t(126) = -0.093, p = 0.926$) or lexicographic (length: $t(126) = 0.714, p = 0.476$; first letter:
 673 $t(126) = 0.820, p = 0.414$) clustering. Taken together, these order manipulation results sug-
 674 gest several broad patterns (Figs. 3A, 4). First, most of the order manipulations we carried
 675 out did *not* reliably affect overall recall performance. Second, most of the order manipula-
 676 tions increased participants' tendencies to temporally cluster their recalls. Third, all of the
 677 order manipulations enhanced participants' clustering of each condition's target feature
 678 (i.e., semantic manipulations enhanced semantic clustering, lexicographic manipulations
 679 enhanced lexicographic clustering, and visual manipulations enhanced visual clustering)
 680 while leaving clustering along other feature dimensions roughly unchanged (i.e., semantic
 681 manipulations did not affect lexicographic or color clustering, and so on).

682 When we closely examined the sequences of words participants recalled in early order
 683 manipulated lists (Fig. 3A, top panel), we noticed several differences from the dynamics of
 684 participants' recalls of randomly ordered lists (Figs. S1, S7). One striking difference is that
 685 participants in the category condition (dark purple curves, Fig. 3) most often initiated recall
 686 with the fourth-from-last item (*Recall initiation*, top left panel), whereas participants who
 687 recalled randomly ordered lists tended to initiate recall with either the first or last list items
 688 (Fig. S1, top left panel). We hypothesized that the participants might be "clumping" their
 689 recalls into groups of items that shared category labels. Indeed, when we compared the
 690 positions of feature changes in the study sequence (Fig. 3B; see *Identifying event boundaries*)
 691 with the positions of items participants recalled first, we noticed a striking correspondence
 692 in both semantic conditions. Specifically, on category-ordered lists, the category labels

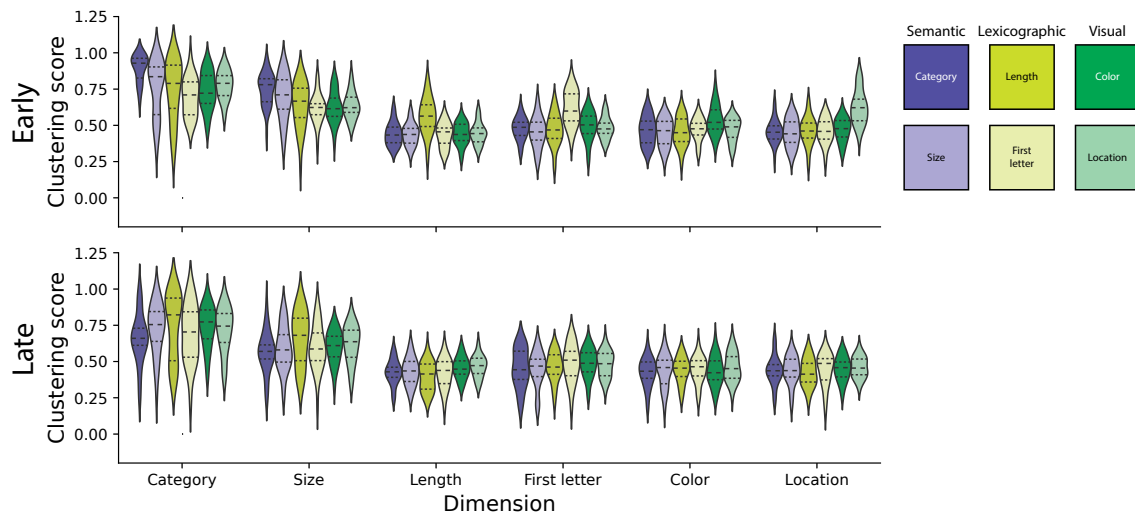


Figure 4: Memory “fingerprints” (order manipulation conditions). The across-participant distributions of clustering scores for each feature type (x -coordinate) are displayed for each experimental condition (color), separately for order manipulation (early, top) and randomly ordered (late, bottom) lists. See Figures S5 and S6 for analogous plots for the random (control) and adaptive conditions.

693 changed every four items on average (dark purple peaks in Fig. 3B), and participants
 694 also seemed to display an increased tendency (relative to other order manipulation and
 695 random conditions) to initiate recall of category-ordered lists with items whose study
 696 positions were integer multiples of four. Similarly, for size-ordered lists, the size labels
 697 changed every eight items on average (light purple peaks in Fig. 3B), and participants
 698 also seemed to display an icnreased tendancy to initiate recall of size-ordered lists with
 699 items whose study positions were integer multiples of eight. A second striking difference
 700 is that participants in the category condition exhibited a much steeper lag-CRP (Fig. 3A,
 701 top middle panel) than participants in other conditions. (This is another expression of
 702 participants’ increased tendencies to temporally cluster their recalls on category-ordered
 703 lists, as we reported above.) Taken together, these order-specific idiosyncracies suggest
 704 a hierarchical set of influences on participants’ memories. At longer timescales, “event

705 boundaries” (to use the term loosely) can be induced across lists by adding or removing
706 irrelevant visual features. At shorter timescales, “event boundaries” can be induced across
707 items (within a single list) by adjusting how item features change throughout the list.

708 The above comparisons between memory performance on early lists in the order ma-
709 nipulation versus feature rich conditions highlight how sorted lists are remembered differ-
710 ently from random lists. We also wondered how sorting lists along each feature dimension
711 influenced memory relative to sorting lists along the other feature dimensions. Participants
712 trended towards remembering early lists that were sorted semantically better than lexico-
713 graphically sorted lists ($t(118) = 1.936, p = 0.055$). Participants also remembered visually
714 sorted lists better than lexicographically sorted lists ($t(119) = 2.145, p = 0.034$). However,
715 participants showed no reliable differences in recall performance on semantically versus
716 visually sorted lists ($t(119) = 0.113, p = 0.910$). Participants temporally clustered semanti-
717 cally sorted lists more strongly than either lexicographically ($t(118) = 5.572, p < 0.001$) or
718 visually ($t(119) = 6.215, p < 0.001$) sorted lists, but did not show reliable differences in tem-
719 poral clustering on lexicographically versus visually sorted lists ($t(119) = 0.189, p = 0.850$).
720 Participants also showed reliably more semantic clustering on semantically sorted lists
721 than lexicographically (category: $t(118) = 3.492, p = 0.001$, size: $t(118) = 3.972, p < 0.001$)
722 or visually (category: $t(119) = 2.702, p = 0.008$, size: $t(119) = 4.230, p < 0.001$) sorted
723 lists; more lexicographic clustering on lexicographically sorted lists than semantically
724 (length: $t(118) = 3.112, p = 0.002$; first letter: $t(118) = 3.686, p = 0.000$) or visually (length:
725 $t(119) = 3.024, p = 0.003$; first letter: $t(119) = 2.644, p = 0.009$) sorted lists; and more visual
726 clustering on visually sorted lists than semantically (color: $t(119) = -2.659, p = 0.009$;
727 location: $t(119) = -4.604, p = 0.000$) or lexicographically (color: $t(119) = -2.366, p = 0.020$;
728 location: $t(119) = -4.265, p < 0.001$) sorted lists. In summary, sorting lists by different
729 features appeared to have slightly different effects on overall memory performance and

730 temporal clustering, and people tended to cluster their recalls along a given feature di-
731 mension more when the studied lists were (versus were not) sorted along that dimension.

732 Beyond affecting how we process and remember *ongoing* experiences, what is happen-
733 ing to us now can also affect how we process and remember *future* experiences. Within
734 the framework of our study, we wondered: if early lists are sorted along different feature
735 dimensions, might this affect how people remember later (random) lists? In exploring this
736 question, we considered both group-level effects (i.e., effects that tended to be common
737 across individuals) and participant-level effects (i.e., effect that were idiosyncratic across
738 individuals).

739 At the group level, there seemed to be almost no lingering impact of sorting early
740 lists on memory for later lists. To simplify the presentation, we report these null results
741 in aggregate across the three feature groupings. Relative to memory performance on
742 late feature rich lists, participants' memory performance in all six order manipulation
743 conditions showed no reliable differences (semantic: $t(125) = 0.487, p = 0.627$; lexico-
744 graphic: $t(125) = 0.878, p = 0.382$; visual: $t(126) = 1.437, p = 0.153$). Nor did we observe
745 any reliable differences in temporal clustering on late lists (relative to late feature rich
746 lists; semantic: $t(125) = 0.146, p = 0.884$; lexicographic: $t(125) = 0.923, p = 0.358$; visual:
747 $t(126) = 0.525, p = 0.601$). Aside from a slightly increased tendency for participants to
748 cluster words by their length on late visual order manipulation lists (more than late fea-
749 ture rich lists; $t(126) = 2.199, p = 0.030$), we observed no reliable differences in any type of
750 feature clustering on late order manipulation condition lists versus late feature rich lists
751 ($|t|s \leq 1.234, ps \geq 0.220$).

752 We also looked for more subtle group-level patterns. For example, perhaps sorting
753 early lists by one feature dimension could affect how participants cluster *other* features (on
754 early and/or late lists) as well. We defined participants' *memory fingerprints* as the set of

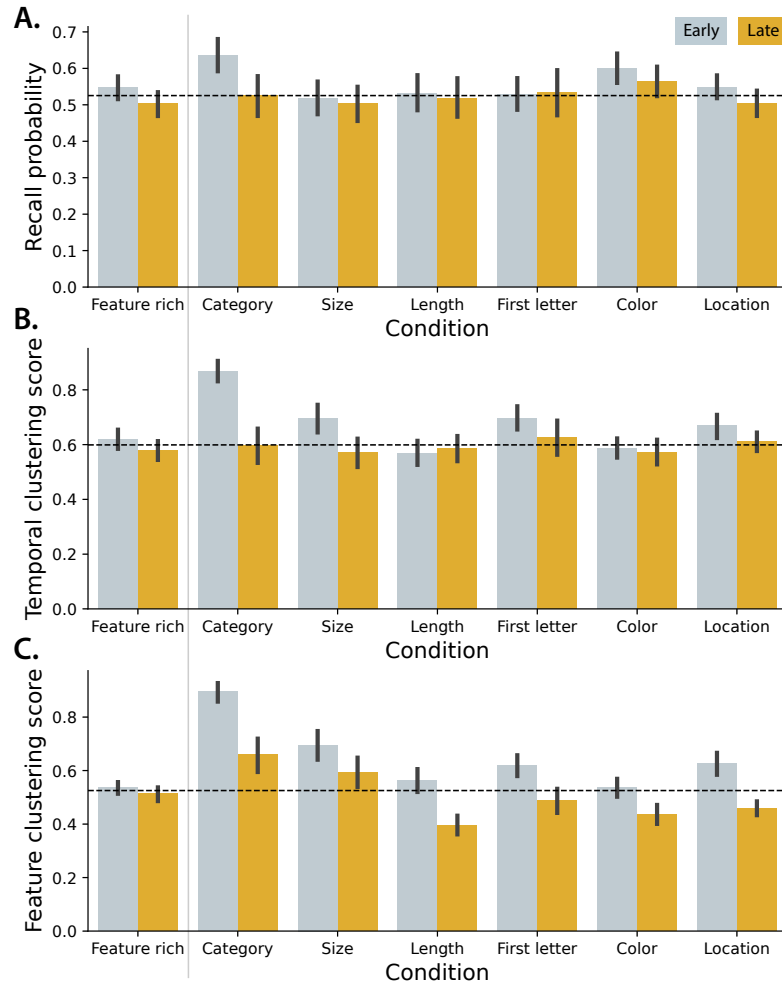


Figure 5: Recall probability and clustering scores on early and late lists. The bar heights display the average (across participants) recall probabilities (A.), temporal clustering scores (B.), and feature clustering scores (C.) for early (gray) and late (gold) lists. For the feature rich bars (left), the feature clustering scores are averaged across features. For the order manipulation conditions, feature clustering scores are displayed for the focused-on feature for each condition (e.g., category clustering scores are displayed for the category condition, and so on). All panels: error bars denote bootstrap-estimated 95% confidence intervals. The horizontal dotted lines denote the average values (across all lists and participants) for the feature rich condition.

temporal and feature clustering scores. A participant's memory fingerprint describes how they tend to retrieve memories of the studied items, perhaps searching through several feature spaces (or along several representational dimensions). To gain insights into the dynamics of how participants' clustering scores tended to change over time, we computed the average (across participants) fingerprint from each list, from each order manipulation condition (Fig. 6). We projected these fingerprints into a two-dimensional space to help visualize the dynamics (top panels; see *Computing low-dimensional embeddings of memory fingerprints*). We found that participants' average fingerprints tended to remain relatively stable on early lists, and exhibited a "jump" to another stable state on later lists. The sizes of these jumps varied somewhat across conditions (the Euclidean distances between fingerprints in their original high dimensional spaces are displayed in the bottom panels). We also averaged the fingerprints across early and late lists, respectively, for each condition (Fig. 6B). We found that participants' fingerprints on early lists seem to be influenced by the order manipulations on those lists (see the locations of the circles in Fig. 6B). There also seemed to be some consistency across different features within a broader type. For example, both semantic feature conditions (category and size; purple markers) diverge in a similar direction from the group; both lexicographic feature conditions (length and first letter; yellow markers) diverge in a similar direction; and both visual conditions (color and location; green) also diverge in a similar direction. But on late lists, participants' fingerprints seem to return to a common state that is roughly shared across conditions (i.e., the stars in that panel are clumped together).

When we examined the data at the level of individual participants (Figs. 7 and 8), a clearer story emerged. Within each order manipulation condition, participants exhibited a range of feature clustering scores, on both early and late lists (Fig. 7A, B). Across every order manipulation condition, participants who exhibited stronger feature clustering (for



Figure 6: Memory fingerprint dynamics (order manipulation conditions). **A.** Each column (and color) reflects an experimental condition. In the top panels, each marker displays a 2D projection of the (across-participant) average memory fingerprint for one list. Order manipulation (early) lists are denoted by circles and randomly ordered (late) lists are denoted by stars. All of the fingerprints (across all conditions and lists) are projected into a common space. The bar plots in the bottom panels display the Euclidean distances of the per-list memory fingerprints to the list 0 fingerprint, for each condition. Error bars denote bootstrap-estimated 95% confidence intervals. The dotted vertical lines denote the boundaries between early and late lists. **B.** In this panel, the fingerprints for early (circle) and late (star) lists are averaged across lists and participants before projecting the fingerprints into a (new) 2D space. See Figure S8 for analogous plots for the random (control) conditions.

780 their condition's manipulated feature) recalled more words. This trend held overall across
 781 conditions and participants (early: $r(179) = 0.537, p < 0.001$; late: $r(179) = 0.492, p = 0.000$)
 782 as well as for each condition individually for early ($r_s \geq 0.386$, all $p_s \leq 0.035$) and late
 783 ($r_s \geq 0.462$, all $p_s \leq 0.010$) lists. We found no evidence of a condition-level trend; for
 784 example the conditions where participants tended to show stronger clustering scores
 785 were not correlated with the conditions where participants remembered more words
 786 (early: $r(4) = 0.526, p = 0.284$; late: $r(4) = -0.257, p = 0.623$; see insets of panels A and
 787 B). We observed carryover associations between feature clustering and recall performance
 788 (Fig. 7C, D). Participants who showed stronger feature clustering on early lists tended to
 789 recall more items on late lists (across conditions: $r(179) = 0.492, p < 0.001$; all conditions
 790 individually: $r_s \geq 0.462$, all $p_s \leq 0.010$). Participants who recalled more items on early lists
 791 also tended to show stronger feature clustering on late lists (across conditions: $r(179) =$

792 0.280, $p < 0.001$; all non-visual conditions: $r_s \geq 0.445$, all $p_s \leq 0.014$; color: $r(29) = 0.298, p =$
 793 0.103; location: $r(28) = 0.354, p = 0.055$). Neither of these effects showed condition-level
 794 trends (early feature clustering versus late recall probability: $r(4) = -0.299, p = 0.565$;
 795 early recall probability versus late feature clustering: $r(4) = 0.400, p = 0.432$). We also
 796 looked for associations between feature clustering and temporal clustering. Across every
 797 order manipulation condition, participants who exhibited stronger feature clustering also
 798 exhibited stronger temporal clustering. For early lists (Fig. ??E), this trend held overall
 799 ($r(179) = 0.924, p < 0.001$), for each condition individually (all $r_s \geq 0.822$, all $p_s < 0.001$),
 800 and across conditions ($r(4) = 0.964, p = 0.002$). For late lists (Fig. ??F), the results were
 801 more variable (overall: $r(179) = 0.348, p = 0.000$; all non-visual conditions: $r_s \geq 0.382$, all p_s
 802 ≤ 0.037 ; color: $r(29) = 0.453, p = 0.011$; location: $r(28) = 0.190, p = 0.314$; across-conditions:
 803 $r(4) = -0.036, p = 0.945$). While less robust than the carryover associations between feature
 804 clustering and recall performance, we also observed some carryover associations between
 805 feature clustering and temporal clustering (Fig. 7G, H). Participants who showed stronger
 806 feature clustering on early lists trended towards showing stronger temporal clustering
 807 on later lists (overall: $r(179) = 0.301, p < 0.001$; for individual conditions: all $r_s \geq 0.297$,
 808 all $p_s \leq 0.111$; across conditions: $r(4) = 0.107, p = 0.840$). And participants who showed
 809 stronger temporal clustering on early lists trended towards showing stronger feature
 810 clustering on later lists (overall: $r(179) = 0.579, p < 0.001$; all non-visual conditions: r_s
 811 ≥ 0.323 , all $p_s \leq 0.082$; visual conditions: $r_s \geq 0.089$, all $p_s \leq 0.632$; across conditions:
 812 $r(4) = 0.916, p = 0.010$). Taken together, the results displayed in Figure 7 show that
 813 participants who were more sensitive to the order manipulations (i.e., participants who
 814 showed stronger feature clustering for their condition's feature on early lists) remembered
 815 more words and showed stronger temporal clustering. These associations also appeared
 816 to carry over across lists, even when the items on later lists were presented in a random

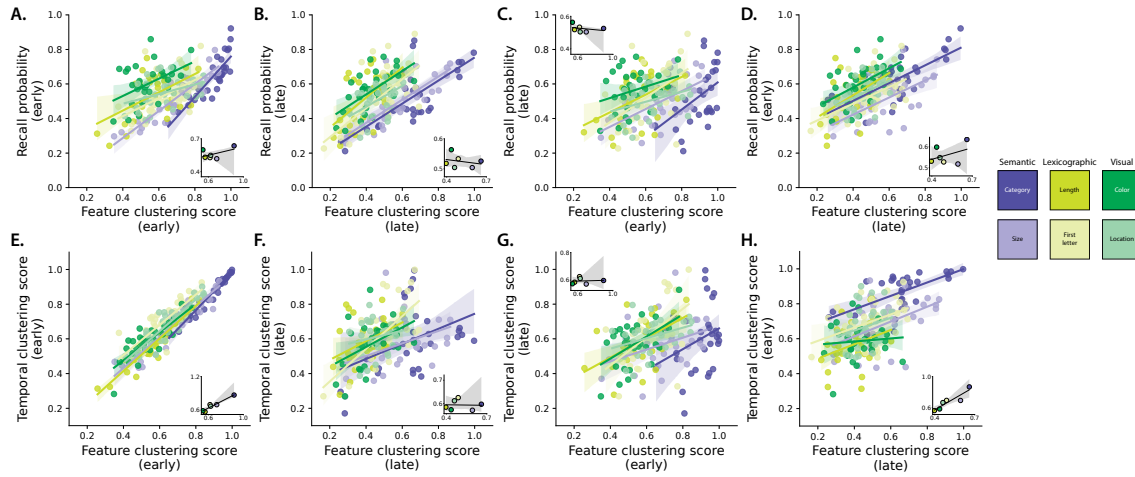


Figure 7: Interactions between feature clustering, recall probability, and contiguity. **A.** Recall probability versus feature clustering scores for order manipulation (early) lists. **B.** Recall probability versus feature clustering for randomly ordered (late) lists. **C.** Recall probability on late lists versus feature clustering on early lists. **D.** Recall probability on early lists versus feature clustering on late lists. **E.** Temporal clustering scores (contiguity) versus feature clustering scores on early lists. **F.** Temporal clustering scores versus feature clustering scores on late lists. **G.** Temporal clustering scores on late lists versus feature clustering scores on early lists. **H.** Temporal clustering scores on early lists versus feature clustering scores on late lists. **All panels.** Each dot in the main scatterplots denotes the average scores for one participant. The colored regression lines are computed across participants. The inset displays condition-averaged results, where each dot reflects a single condition and the regression line is computed across experimental conditions. All error ribbons denote bootstrap-estimated 95% confidence intervals.

817 order.

818 If participants show different sensitivities to order manipulations, how do their be-
819 haviors carry over to later lists? We found that participants who showed strong feature
820 clustering on early lists often tended to show strong feature clustering on late lists (Fig. 8A;
821 overall across participants and conditions: $r(179) = 0.592, p < 0.001$; non-visual feature
822 conditions: all $r_s \geq 0.350$, all $p_s \leq 0.058$; color: $r(29) = -0.071, p = 0.704$; location:
823 $r(28) = 0.032, p = 0.868$; across conditions: $r(4) = 0.934, p = 0.006$). Although participants
824 tended to show weaker feature clustering on late lists (Fig. 6) on *average*, the associations
825 between early and late lists for individual participants suggests that some influence of

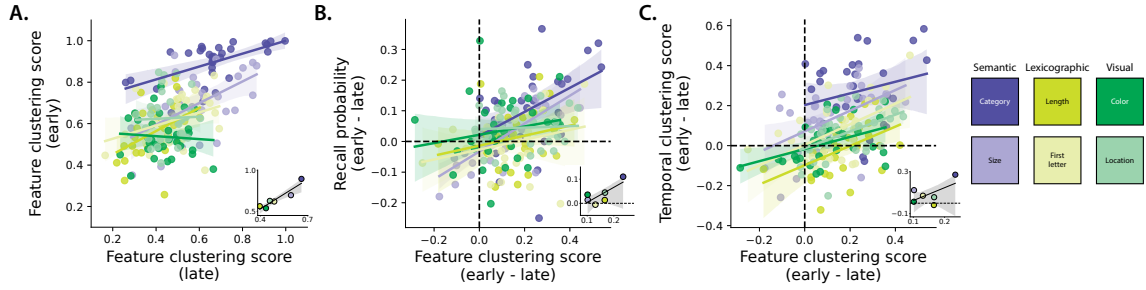


Figure 8: Feature clustering carryover effects. **A.** Feature clustering scores for ordered manipulation (early) versus randomly ordered (late) lists. **B.** Accuracy differences (on early versus late lists) versus feature clustering “carryover” (defined as the differences between the average clustering scores on early and late lists). **C.** Temporal clustering differences (on early versus late lists) versus feature clustering carryover. **All panels.** Each dot in the main scatterplots denotes the average scores for one participant. The colored regression lines are computed across participants. The inset displays condition-averaged results, where each dot reflects a single condition and the regression line is computed across experimental conditions. All error ribbons denote bootstrap-estimated 95% confidence intervals.

early order manipulations may linger on late lists. We found that participants who exhibited larger carryover in feature clustering (i.e., continued to show strong feature clustering on late lists) for the semantic order manipulations (but not other manipulations) also tended to show a larger improvement in recall (Fig. 8B; overall: $r(179) = 0.378, p < 0.001$; category: $r(28) = 0.419, p = 0.021$; size: $r(28) = 0.737, p < 0.001$; non-semantic conditions: all $rs \leq 0.252$, all $ps \geq 0.179$; across conditions: $r(4) = 0.773, p = 0.072$) on late lists, relative to early lists. Participants who exhibited larger carryover in feature clustering also tended to show stronger temporal clustering on late lists (relative to early lists) for all but the category condition (Fig. 8C; overall: $r(179) = 0.434, p < 0.001$; category: $r(28) = 0.229, p = 0.223$; all non-category conditions: all $rs \geq 0.448$, all $ps \leq 0.012$; across conditions: $r(4) = 0.598, p = 0.210$).

We suggest two potential interpretations of these findings. First, it is possible that some participants are more “malleable” or “adaptable” with respect to how they organize incoming information. When presented with list of items sorted along *any* feature dimen-

sion, they will simply adopt that feature as a dominant dimension for organizing those items and subsequent (randomly ordered) items. This flexibility in memory organization might afford such participants a memory advantage, explaining their strong recall performance. An alternative interpretation is that each participant comes into our study with a “preferred” way of organizing incoming information. If they happen to be assigned to an order manipulation condition that matches their preferences, then they will appear to be “sensitive” to the order manipulation and also exhibit a high degree of carryover in feature clustering from early to late lists. These participants might demonstrate strong recall performance not because of their inherently superior memory abilities, but rather because the specific condition they were assigned to happened to be especially easy for them, given their pre-experimental tendencies. To help distinguish between these interpretations, we designed an *adaptive* experimental condition (see *Adaptive condition*). The primary manipulation in the adaptive condition is that participants each experience three key types of lists. On *random* lists, words are ordered randomly (as in the feature rich condition). On *stabilize* lists, the presentation order is adjusted to be maximally similar to the current estimate of the participant’s memory fingerprint (see *Online “fingerprint” analysis*). Third, on *destabilize* lists, the presentation is adjusted to be *minimally* similar to the current estimate of the participant’s memory fingerprint (see *Ordering “stabilize” and “destabilize” lists by an estimated fingerprint*). The orders in which participants experienced each type of list were counterbalanced across participants to help reduce the influence of potential list order effects. Because the presentation orders on stabilize and destabilize lists are adjusted to best match each participant’s (potentially unique) memory fingerprint, the adaptive condition removes uncertainty about whether participants’ assigned conditions might just “happen” to match their preferred ways of organizing their memories.

Participants’ fingerprints on stabilize and random lists tended to become (numerically)

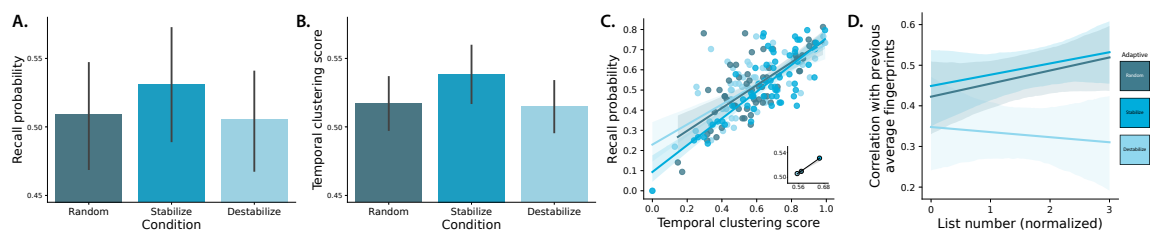


Figure 9: Adaptive free recall. **A.** Average probability of recall (taken across words, lists, and participants) for lists from each adaptive condition. **B.** Average temporal clustering scores for lists from each adaptive condition. **C.** Recall probability versus temporal clustering scores by participant (main panel; each participant contributes one dot per condition) and averaged within condition (inset; each dot represents a single condition). **D.** Per-list correlations between the current list's fingerprint and the average fingerprint computed from all previous lists. The normalized list numbers (x -axis) denote the number of lists of the same type that the participant had experienced at the time of the current list. All panels: Colors denote the sorting type (condition) for each list. Error bars and ribbons denote bootstrap-estimated 95% confidence intervals. For additional details about participants' behavior and performance during the adaptive conditions, see Figure S2.

slightly more similar to their average fingerprints computed from the previous lists they had experienced, and their fingerprints on destabilize lists tended to become numerically less similar (Fig. 9D). Overall, we found that participants tended to be better at remembering words on stabilize lists relative to words on random ($t(59) = 1.740, p = 0.087$) or destabilize ($t(59) = 1.714, p = 0.092$) lists (Fig. 9A). Participants showed no reliable differences in their memory performance on destabilize versus random lists ($t(59) = -0.249, p = 0.804$). Participants also exhibited stronger temporal clustering on stabilize lists, relative to random ($t(59) = 3.554, p = 0.001$) and destabilize ($t(59) = 4.045, p < 0.001$) lists (Fig. 9B). We found no reliable differences in temporal clustering for items on random versus destabilize lists ($t(59) = -0.781, p = 0.438$).

As in the other experimental manipulations, participants in the adaptive condition exhibited substantial variability with respect to their overall memory performance and their clustering tendencies (Fig. 9C). We found that individual participants who exhibited strong temporal clustering scores also tended to recall more items. This held across subjects, aggregating across all list types ($r(178) = 0.721, p < 0.001$), and for each list type

880 individually (all $r_s \geq 0.683$, all $p_s \leq 0.001$). Taken together, the results from the adaptive
881 condition suggest that each participant comes into the experiment with their own unique
882 memory organization tendencies, as characterized by their memory fingerprint. When
883 participants study lists whose items come pre-sorted according to their unique preferences,
884 they tend to remember more and show stronger temporal clustering.

885 Discussion

886 We asked participants to study and freely recall word lists. The words on each list (and
887 the total set of lists) were held constant across participants. For each word, we considered
888 (and manipulated) two semantic features (category and size) that reflected aspects of the
889 *meanings* of the words, along with two lexicographic features (word length and first letter),
890 which reflected aspects of the words' *letters*. These semantic and lexicographic features
891 are intrinsic to each word. We also considered and manipulated two additional visual
892 features (color and location) that affected the *appearance* of each studied item, but could be
893 varied independently of the words' identities. Across different experimental conditions,
894 we manipulated how the visual features varied across words (within each list), along with
895 the orders of each list's words. Although participants' task (verbally recalling as many
896 words as possible, in any order, within one minute) remained constant across all of these
897 conditions, and although the set of words they studied on each list remained constant,
898 our manipulations substantially affected participants' memories. The impact of some of
899 the manipulations also affected how participants remembered *future* lists that were sorted
900 randomly.

901 **Recap: visual feature manipulations**

902 We found that participants in our feature rich condition (where we varied words' ap-
903 pearances) recalled similar proportions of words to participants in a reduced condition
904 (where appearance was held constant across words). However, varying the words' ap-
905 pearances led participants to exhibit much more temporal and feature-based clustering.
906 This suggests that even seemingly irrelevant elements of our experiences can affect how
907 we remember them.

908 When we held the within-list variability in participants' visual experiences fixed across
909 lists (in the feature rich and reduced conditions), they remembered more words on early
910 versus late lists. On feature rich lists, they also showed stronger clustering on early versus
911 late lists. However, when we *varied* participants' visual experiences across lists (in the
912 "reduced (early)" and "reduced (late)" conditions), these early versus late accuracy and
913 clustering differences disappeared. Abruptly changing how irrelevant visual features
914 change across words seems to act as a sort of "event boundary" that partially resets
915 how participants process and remember post-boundary lists. Within-list clustering also
916 increases in these manipulations, suggesting that the "within-event" words are being more
917 tightly associated with each other.

918 When we held the visual features constant on early lists, but then varied words'
919 appearances on later lists (i.e., the reduced (early) condition), this improved participants'
920 overall memory performance. However, this impact was directional: when we *removed*
921 visual features on late lists that had been present on early lists (i.e., the reduced (late)
922 condition), we saw no memory improvement.

923 **Recap: order manipulations**

924 When we (stochastically) sorted early lists along different feature dimensions, we found
925 several impacts on participants' memories. Sorting early lists semantically (by word cat-
926 egory) enhanced participants' memories for those lists, but the effects on performance of
927 sorting along other feature dimensions were inconclusive. However, each order manipu-
928 lation substantially affected how participants *organized* their memories of words from the
929 ordered lists. When we sorted lists semantically participants displayed stronger semantic
930 clustering; when we sorted lists lexicographically they displayed stronger lexicographic
931 clustering; and when we sorted lists visually they displayed stronger visual clustering.
932 Clustering along the unmanipulated feature dimensions in each of these cases was un-
933 changed.

934 The order manipulations we examined also appeared to induce, in some cases, a
935 tendency to "clump" similar words within a list. This was most apparent on semantically
936 ordered lists, where the probability of initiating recall with a given word seemed to follow
937 groupings defined by feature changepoints.

938 We also examined the impact of early list order manipulations on memory for late
939 lists. At the group level, we found little evidence for lingering "carryover" effects of
940 these manipulations; participants in the order manipulation conditions showed similar
941 memory performance and clustering on late lists to participants in the corresponding
942 control (feature rich) condition. At the level of individual participants, however, we
943 found several meaningful patterns.

944 Participants who showed stronger feature clustering on early (order manipulated) lists
945 tended to better remember late (randomly ordered) lists. Participants who remembered
946 early lists better also tended to show stronger feature clustering (along their condition's
947 feature dimension) on late lists (even though the words on those late lists were presented

948 in a random order). We also observed some (weaker) carryover effects of temporal cluster-
949 ing. Participants who showed stronger feature clustering (along their condition's feature
950 dimension) on early lists tended to show stronger temporal clustering on late lists. And
951 participants who showed stronger temporal clustering on early lists also tended to show
952 stronger feature clustering on late lists. Essentially, these order manipulations appeared
953 to affect each participant differently. Some participants were sensitive to our manipula-
954 tions, and those participants showed stronger impacts on their memory performance for
955 the ordered lists as well as future (random) lists. Other participants appeared relatively
956 insensitive to our manipulations, and those participants showed little carryover effects on
957 late lists.

958 These results at the individual participant level suggested to us that either (a) some
959 participants were more sensitive to *any* order manipulation, or (b) some participants
960 might be more (or less) sensitive to manipulations along *particular* (e.g., preferred) feature
961 dimensions. To help distinguish between these possibilities, we designed an adaptive
962 manipulation whereby we attempted to manipulate whether participants studied words
963 in an order that matched (or mismatched) our estimate of how they would cluster or orga-
964 nize the studied words in memory (i.e., their idiosyncratic memory fingerprint). We found
965 that when we presented words in orders that were consistent with participants' memory
966 fingerprints, they remembered more words overall and showed stronger temporal clus-
967 tering. This comports well with the second possibility described above. Specifically, each
968 participant seems to bring into the experiment their own idiosyncratic preferences and
969 strategies for organizing the words in their memories. When we presented the words in
970 an order consistent with each participant's idiosyncratic strategies, their memory perfor-
971 mance improved. This might indicate that the participants were spending less cognitive
972 effort "reorganizing" the incoming words on those lists, which freed up resources to devote

973 to encoding processes instead.

974 **Context effects on memory performance and organization**

975 In everyday experience, each moment's unique blend of contextual features (where we are,
976 who we are with, what else we are thinking of at the time, what else we experience nearby
977 in time, etc.) plays an important role in how we interpret, experience, and remember that
978 moment, and how we relate it to our other experiences (e.g., for review see Manning,
979 2020). What are the analogues of real-world contexts in laboratory tasks like the free
980 recall paradigm employed in our study? In general, modern formal accounts of free
981 recall (Kahana, 2020) describe context as comprising a mix of (a) features pertaining to or
982 associated with each item and (b) other items and thoughts experienced nearby in time,
983 e.g., that might still be "lingering" in the participant's thoughts at the time they study
984 the item. Item features can include semantic properties (i.e., features related to the item's
985 meaning), lexicographic properties (i.e., features related to the item's letters), sensory
986 properties (i.e., feature related to the item's appearance, sound, smell, etc.), emotional
987 properties (i.e., features related to how meaningful the item is, whether the item evokes
988 positive or negative feelings, etc.), utility-related properties (e.g., features that describe
989 how an item might be used or incorporated into a particular task or situation), and more.
990 Essentially any aspect of the participant's experience that can be characterized, measured,
991 or otherwise described can be considered to influence the participant's mental context at
992 the moment they experience that item. Temporally proximal features include aspects of
993 the participant's internal or external experience that are *not* specifically occurring at the
994 moment they encounter an item, but that nonetheless influence how they process the item.
995 Thoughts related to percepts, goals, expectations, other experiences, and so on that might
996 have been cued (directly or indirectly) by the participant's recent experiences prior to the

997 current moment all fall into this category. Internally driven mental states, such as thinking
998 about an experience unrelated to the experiment, also fall into this category.

999 Contextual features need not be intentionally or consciously perceived by the partic-
1000 ipant to affect memory, nor do they need to be relevant to the task instructions or the
1001 participant's goals. Incidental factors such as font color (Jones and Pyc, 2014), background
1002 color (Isarida and Isarida, 2007), inter-stimulus images (Chiu et al., 2021; Gershman et al.,
1003 2013; Manning et al., 2016), background sounds (Beaman and Jones, 1998; Sahakyan and
1004 Smith, 2014), secondary tasks (Masicampto and Sahakyan, 2014; Polyn et al., 2009), and
1005 more can all impact how the participant remembers, and organizes in memory, lists of
1006 studied items.

1007 Consistent with this prior work, we found that participants are sensitive to task-
1008 irrelevant visual features. We also found that changing the dynamics of those task-
1009 irrelevant visual features (in the reduced (early) and reduced (late) conditions) *also* affects
1010 participants' memories. This suggests that it is not only the contextual features themselves
1011 that affect memory, but also the *dynamics* of context– i.e., how the contextual features
1012 associated with each item change over time.

1013 **Priming effects on memory performance and organization**

1014 **Expectation, event boundaries, and situation models**

1015 **Theoretical implications**

1016 **Potential applications**

1017 **Concluding remarks**

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