

1                   Category-based and location-based volitional covert  
2                   attention affect memory at different timescales

3                   Kirsten Ziman<sup>1,2</sup>, Madeline R. Lee<sup>1</sup>, Alejandro R. Martinez<sup>1</sup>,  
4                   Ethan D. Adner<sup>1</sup>, and Jeremy R. Manning<sup>1,\*</sup>

<sup>1</sup>Dartmouth College

<sup>2</sup>Princeton University

\*Address correspondence to jeremy.r.manning@dartmouth.edu

4                   March 26, 2023

5                   **Abstract**

6                   Our ongoing subjective experiences, and our memories of those experiences, are shaped by our prior  
7                   experiences, goals, and situational understanding. These factors shape how we allocate our attentional  
8                   resources over different aspects of our ongoing experiences. These attentional shifts may happen overtly  
9                   (e.g., when we change where we are looking) or covertly (e.g., without any explicit physical manifestation).  
10                  Additionally, we may attend to what is happening at a specific spatial location (e.g., because we think  
11                  something important is happening there) or we may attend to particular features irrespective of their  
12                  locations (e.g., when we search for a friend's face in a crowd versus a location on a map). We ran a covert  
13                  attention experiment with two conditions that differed in how long they asked participants to maintain the  
14                  focus of the categories and locations they were attending. Later, the participants performed a recognition  
15                  memory task for attended, unattended, and novel stimuli. Participants were able to shift the location of  
16                  their covert attentional focus more rapidly than they were able to shift their focus of covert attention to  
17                  stimulus categories, and the effects of location-based attention on memory were longer-lasting than the  
18                  effects of category-based attention.

19                  **Keywords:** **covert attention, volitional attention, location-based attention, category-based attention,**  
20                  **recognition memory**

## 21 Introduction

22 Our brains' cognitive systems detect and exploit patterns in our prior and ongoing experiences, enabling  
23 us to function and adapt in an ever-changing world. However we do not attend to or treat all types of  
24 remembered or incoming information equally, and our ability to flexibly adapt our thinking and behaviors  
25 can vary markedly with the specific set of concepts or tasks relevant to a given setting or situation (Adam  
26 & deBettencourt, 2019; Aly & Turk-Browne, 2017; Chun & Turk-Browne, 2007; deBettencourt et al., 2021;  
27 Hakim et al., 2020; Hardt & Nadel, 2009; Hirschstein & Aly, 2022; Jayakumar et al., 2023; Keene et al., 2022;  
28 Ranganath & Ritchey, 2012). There is also substantial variability across people with respect to which aspects  
29 of experience (sensory, social, emotional, etc.) are noticed, discriminated between, and acted upon (E. Hunt  
30 et al., 1989). This implies that the same physical (objective) experience may give rise to very different  
31 perceived (subjective) experiences across people (Chang et al., 2021; Freeman & Simoncelli, 2011).

32 The aspects of our experience we attend may be under our volitional control or may be unconscious  
33 or automatic (Jacoby et al., 1992). Both volitional and unconscious attention may be expressed overtly, for  
34 example through intentional eye movements (Hoffman & Subramaniam, 1995) or covertly, without any  
35 volitional physical change (Engbert & Kliegl, 2003). Prior work has explored the similarities and differences  
36 in the neural basis of overt versus covert attention (A. R. Hunt & Kingstone, 2003; Posner et al., 1987) as well  
37 as the behavioral and neural underpinnings of volitional versus unconscious attention (Dijksterhuis & Aarts,  
38 2010) and their differential effects on memory. There is a general consensus that sustained volitional attention  
39 enhances memory relative to unconscious attentional processes (Turk-Browne et al., 2013; Uncapher et al.,  
40 2011). However, volitional attention takes many forms, such as attention to particular spatial locations  
41 or attention to particular visual features or other stimulus properties. How different *types* of volitional  
42 attention combine (or compete) to enhance memory remains an open question. Volitional covert attention is  
43 of particular interest in that it allows us to dynamically and intentionally manipulate our experience, even  
44 when our sensory input remains largely static (i.e., constant physical stimulus, retinal image, etc.; O'Craven  
45 et al., 1999; Yi et al., 2006).

46 Here we examine the ways two different types of volitional covert attention interact to affect memory.  
47 We designed an experimental paradigm (following Posner, 1980) that asked participants to attend to a  
48 series of presented composite image pairs while keeping their gaze fixed on a central point. The image  
49 pairs comprised a left and right image, each constructed by blending an image of a face and place (indoor  
50 or outdoor scene). The stimuli and presentation durations were held constant across the two experimental  
51 conditions, but the conditions differed in how often we asked participants to change the focus of their  
52 attention with respect to image category (face versus place) and image location (left versus right). After the

53 participants attended to a series of images, we used a recognition memory test to assess which aspects of the  
54 presented images had been encoded into memory. In both conditions we found that the images participants  
55 covertly attended to were better recognized than other images, supporting the notion that attention enhances  
56 memory encoding (i.e., they rated attended images as more familiar than unattended images; Yonelinas,  
57 2002). To a lesser extent, participants in both conditions also recognized partially attended images (e.g.,  
58 images from the attended category but unattended location, or images at the attended location but from  
59 the unattended category). However, the ways the category-based and location-based attention affected  
60 participants' memories for these partially attended stimuli differed across the two experimental conditions.  
61 These partial attention differences suggest that different forms of attention affect memory encoding on  
62 different timescales.

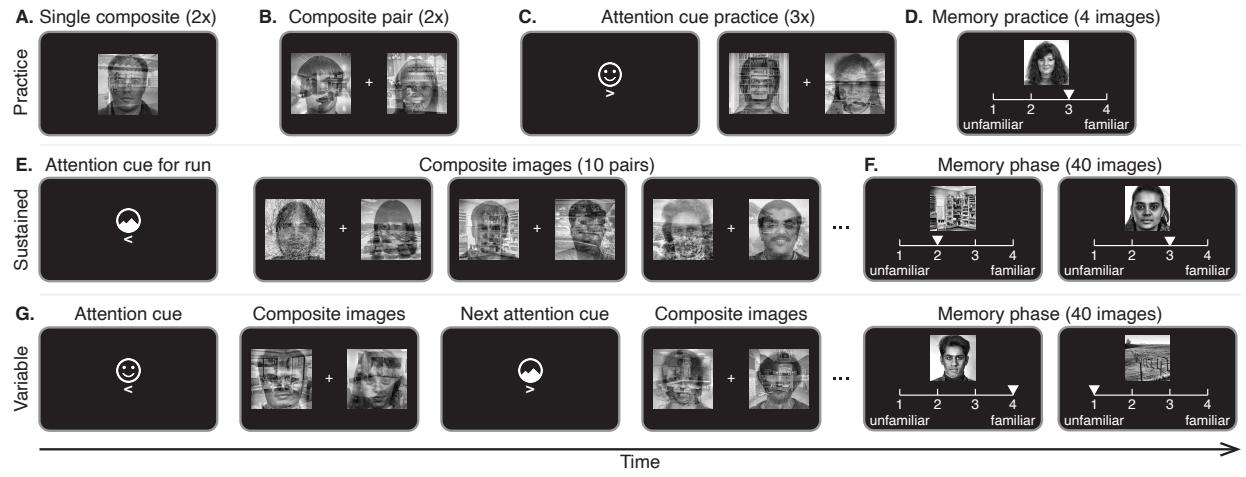
## 63 Materials and methods

64 We ran a total of 53 participants in across two experimental conditions (Fig. 1). The two conditions differed in  
65 how often we cued participants to change the focus of their attention. All code and documentation pertaining  
66 to our experiment and analyses, along with the experimental stimuli and data, may be downloaded from  
67 <http://www.github.com/ContextLab/attention-memory-task>.

## 68 Participants

69 A total of 53 Dartmouth College undergraduate students enrolled in our study (30 in the sustained attention  
70 condition and 23 in the variable attention condition). Following a pilot study using a similar experimental  
71 design, we had aimed to enroll 30 participants in each condition. However, we fell short of our enrollment  
72 target in the variable attention condition when in-person testing was discontinued at our institution due to  
73 the COVID-19 pandemic. We nonetheless chose to analyze and report on our findings from this smaller-  
74 than-anticipated cohort of participants using all of the viable data we were able to collect. All participants  
75 in our study had self-reported normal or corrected-to-normal vision, memory, and attention. Participants  
76 gave written consent to enroll in the study under a protocol approved by the Committee for the Protection  
77 of Human Subjects at Dartmouth College.

78 We used a voluntary pre-experimental survey to collect self-reported demographic information about  
79 each participant. All 53 participants elected to fill out the survey. Participants ranged in age from 18–21  
80 years old (mean: 18.7 years; standard deviation: 0.8 years). Participants reported their genders as female  
81 (34 participants), male (18 participants), and gender non-binary (1 participant). Participants reported their



**Figure 1. Experimental paradigm. A.–D. Practice phase.** **A.** Composite face/place image. **B.** A single pair of composite images and a central fixation cross. **C.** One attention cue practice trial. **D.** Familiarity judgement practice trial. **E. Sustained attention condition.** Participants receive an attention cue, followed by a sequence of 10 composite image pairs (Panel E), and then they make of familiarity judgements on each of 40 face and place images, presented in sequence (Panel F). **G. Variable attention condition.** Participants study a succession of 10 composite image pairs, each preceded by an attention cue. After studying the images, they make a series of 40 familiarity judgements about face and place images, as in the sustained attention condition (Panel F). Note: illustrations are not drawn to scale; see the main text for sizing information.

82 ethnicities as Not Hispanic or Latino (44 participants), Hispanic or Latino (7 participants), or declined to  
83 respond (2 participants). Participants reported their race as White (37 participants), Asian (13 participants),  
84 American Indian or Alaska Native (4 participants), Black or African American (2 participants), and Other  
85 (1 participant). Note that each participant could report one or more racial categories, as they deemed  
86 appropriate.

87 Forty-nine participants reported having no reading impairments, and 4 participants reported having  
88 reading impairments such as mild dyslexia. Fifty participants reported having normal color vision and  
89 3 reported having abnormal color vision such as colorblindness. Fifty participants reported taking no  
90 medications and having no recent injuries. One participant reported that they had recently "hit [their] head  
91 very hard." Another reported having taken concerta (methylphenidate) in the past, but mentioned they  
92 had not taken it recently. One participant reported using amphetamines regularly, but also clarified that  
93 they had not used amphetamines on their testing day.

94 We also asked participants to self-report on their sleep, alertness, and coffee consumption. Participants  
95 reported having gotten between 4 and 9 hours of sleep on the night prior to testing (mean: 6.9 hours;  
96 standard deviation: 1.3 hours). Participants reported their alertness at the time of testing, and we converted  
97 their responses to point values as follows: "Very alert" (5 points), "A little alert" (4 points), "Neutral" (3  
98 points), "A little sluggish" (2 points), and "Very sluggish" (1 point). Across all participants, the full range of  
99 alertness values were used (maximum: 5 points; minimum: 1 point; mean: 3.4 points; standard deviation:  
100 1.0 point). Participants reported having consumed between 0 and 2 cups of coffee so far on their testing day  
101 (mean: 0.3 cups; standard deviation: 0.5 cups).

## 102 **Stimulus selection and presentation**

103 Participants viewed photographs of faces, places, and composite images each comprising an equal blend  
104 of one face image and one place image. The pool of 360 face images included photographs of adult human  
105 male and female faces selected from the FERET database (Phillips et al., 1998). The pool of 360 place  
106 images included photographs of indoor and outdoor places selected from the SUN database (Xiao et al.,  
107 2010). The images we used from both databases came from a stimulus subset that was manually curated by  
108 Megan deBettencourt (personal communication). All images were resized to  $256 \times 256$  pixels, converted to  
109 greyscale, and processed so that every image was matched for mean contrast and intensity. We selected 20  
110 face images and 20 place images from the stimulus pool to use in the instructional and practice phases of  
111 the experiment (Fig. 1A–D).

112 In addition to the face and place images, we presented (in white) attention cues to direct the participant's

113 focus of attention. The attention cues comprised a stylized icon of a face or mountain peaks, directing  
114 attention to the face or place component of the images, respectively; and a left- or right-facing angled  
115 bracket, directing attention to the left or right image, respectively (e.g., Figs. 1C, E, and G).

116 Our experiment was conducted in a sound- and light-attenuated testing room containing a chair, desk,  
117 and 27-inch iMac desktop computer (display resolution:  $2048 \times 1152$ ). The participant sat in the chair and  
118 rested their chin on a chin rest located 60 cm from the display. The active portion of the display screen  
119 occupied  $52.96^\circ$  (width) and  $31.28^\circ$  (height) of the participant's field of view from the chin rest. Stimuli were  
120 sized to occupy  $6.7^\circ$  (width and height) of the participant's field of view from the chin rest. We maintained  
121 a black background (with any text or cues displayed in white) throughout the experiment.

## 122 Eye-tracking

123 We recorded participants' eye gaze positions using a desk-mounted video-based eye tracker with a spatial  
124 resolution of  $0.1^\circ$  visual angle root mean squared error and a sampling rate of 30 Hz (Eye Tribe, The Eye  
125 Tribe, Copenhagen, Denmark). We calibrated the eye tracker using a 9-point gaze pattern. As described  
126 below, we re-calibrated the eye tracker at regular intervals throughout the experiment to protect against  
127 camera drift.

128 We used the eye-tracking data to home in specifically on behavioral effects related to *covert* attention,  
129 as opposed to overt looking effects. Specifically, we excluded from further analysis any images from trials  
130 where participants shifted their gaze (for any non-zero amount of time) to any part of the attended composite  
131 image during a presentation trial (see Figs. S1, and S2).

## 132 Experimental paradigm

133 Our experiment comprised two testing conditions: a *sustained* attention condition and a *variable* attention  
134 condition. Both experimental conditions comprised a practice phase followed by a series of eight task  
135 blocks. Each task block was in turn comprised of a presentation phase and a memory phase. The practice  
136 and presentation phases differed across the two conditions, and the memory phases were identical across  
137 the two conditions. We implemented (coded) the experiment using PsychoPy (Peirce et al., 2019).

## 138 Practice phase

139 Several participants in pilot versions of our experiment reported that they found it difficult to modulate the  
140 focus of their attention quickly on command without moving their eyes. We therefore designed a practice  
141 sequence to orient the participant to the process of quickly modulating their focus of covert attention. The

<sup>142</sup> experimenter remained in the testing room throughout the practice phase and answered any questions  
<sup>143</sup> about the experiment. The practice sequence builds up incrementally to provide a gradual on-ramping for  
<sup>144</sup> the participant prior to beginning the main experimental tasks that we focused on in our analyses.

<sup>145</sup> **Practice shifting the focus of category-based attention to elements of a single composite image.** At the  
<sup>146</sup> start of the practice phase, we instructed the participant to look at a single composite (face-place blend)  
<sup>147</sup> image at the center of the screen, and to try to bring the face component of the image into greater focus  
<sup>148</sup> by attending to it (Fig. 1A). After pressing a button on the keyboard to indicate that they had done so, we  
<sup>149</sup> displayed a second composite image and instructed the participant to bring the place component of the new  
<sup>150</sup> composite image into focus. Again, they pressed a button to indicate that they had done so.

<sup>151</sup> **Practice shifting the focus of category-based and location-based attention while viewing two composite  
152 images.** Next, we asked the participant to stare at a fixation cross presented in the center of the screen  
<sup>153</sup> while two composite images were displayed on the left and right side of the screen, respectively (Fig. 1B). We  
<sup>154</sup> first instructed the participant to attend to the place component of the left image without moving their eyes.  
<sup>155</sup> Participants practiced shifting their attention, and they pressed a button on the keyboard to indicate that  
<sup>156</sup> they had done so. We then displayed a second pair of composite images and instructed the participant to  
<sup>157</sup> attend to the face component of the right image. Again, the participant shifted their attention in a self-paced  
<sup>158</sup> manner, and pressed a button to indicate when they had successfully done so.

<sup>159</sup> **Practice sustaining category-based and location-based attention over a series of composite image pairs.**  
<sup>160</sup> We asked participants in the sustained attention condition to practice holding their focus of category-based  
<sup>161</sup> and location-based attention constant (to the face component of the right image) while viewing a series of  
<sup>162</sup> three composite image pairs presented in succession (Fig. 1C).

<sup>163</sup> **Practice varying category-based and location-based attention over a series of composite image pairs.**  
<sup>164</sup> We asked participants in the variable attention condition to practice varying their focus of category-based  
<sup>165</sup> and location-based attention while viewing a series of three composite image pairs, each presented after a  
<sup>166</sup> different attention cue (Fig. 1C).

<sup>167</sup> **Practice reaction time probe.** After practicing modulating their focus of attention to a series of composite  
<sup>168</sup> image pairs, we introduced a reaction time probe after each image presentation, whereby we presented  
<sup>169</sup> either an  $\times$  or  $\circ$  on either the left or the right of the screen (not shown). We asked the participant to press the  
<sup>170</sup> 1 key as quickly as possible when they saw an  $\times$ , or the 3 key as quickly as possible when they saw an  $\circ$ . We

171 did not impose a time limit on their responses, other than asking participants to respond as quickly as they  
172 were able. Participants practiced three trials of modulating their focus of attention to a pair of composite  
173 images (3 s), and reacting as quickly as possible to the × or ◦ symbol presented after each composite image  
174 pair. The reaction time probe was intended to keep participants continually engaged in modulating the  
175 focus of their attention.

176 **Practice recognition memory task.** Finally, we asked the participant to practice reporting familiarity on  
177 a recognition memory task (Fig. 1D). We presented a single face or place image at the center of the screen,  
178 and asked them to press a button to indicate how “familiar” the image seemed: 1 (very confident they had  
179 not seen the image), 2 (somewhat confident they had not seen the image), 3 (somewhat confident they had  
180 seen the image), or 4 (very confident that they had seen the image). We instructed the participant to go with  
181 their “gut reaction” in the event that they were unsure of how to respond. We allowed the participant up to  
182 2 s to provide their response. We gave participants a total of four practice images to rate.

183 After completing the practice phase of the experiment, the participant read the instructions for the task  
184 blocks (described next). The experimenter gave participants a chance to ask any remaining questions about  
185 the experiment. After answering the participant’s questions, the experimenter calibrated the eye tracker  
186 and exited the testing room.

187 **Task blocks**

188 During each task block we asked the participant to modulate their attention while viewing a series of  
189 10 composite image pairs (each followed by a reaction time probe), and then we tested the participant’s  
190 memory using 40 familiarity judgements. Each participant completed a total of eight task blocks.

191 **Sustained attention condition: presentation phase (Fig. 1E).** Participants viewed an attention cue (1.5 s)  
192 instructing them to attend to either the face or place component of either the left or right images in each  
193 to-be-viewed composite pair. Next we displayed 10 composite images in succession (each preceded by a  
194 fixation cross and proceeded by a reaction time probe). All possible attention cue pairs appeared exactly  
195 twice across the eight task blocks.

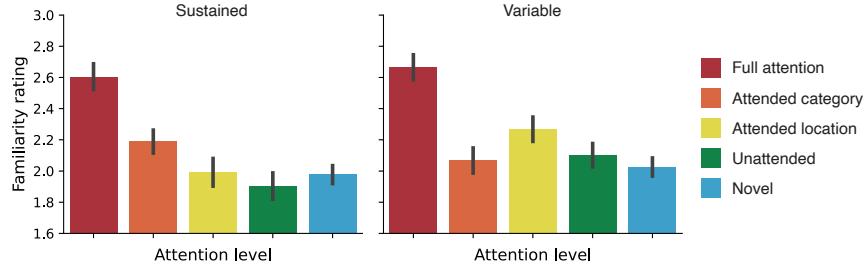
196 **Variable attention condition: presentation phase (Fig. 1G).** Participants viewed a succession of 10 atten-  
197 tion cues (1.5 s), each followed by a fixation cross (1 s), composite image (3 s), and a reaction time probe.  
198 The attention cues were selected randomly across trials within each block.

199 **Memory phase (Fig. 1F).** After the presentation phase of each task block, we asked the participant to rate  
200 the familiarity (on a 1–4 scale, as during the practice phase) of a succession of face and place images. Each  
201 image was preceded by a 1 s fixation cross, and participants had up to 2 s to input their rating of each  
202 image. Participants made a total of 40 familiarity judgements, about 20 face images and 20 place images. Of  
203 these, 20 of the images (10 faces and 10 places) were drawn randomly from the (attended and unattended)  
204 composite images that the participant had viewed during the presentation phase. The remaining 20 images  
205 (10 faces and 10 places) were novel images that the participant had not encountered during any part of the  
206 experiment. At the end of each memory phase, the participant was given the opportunity to take a short  
207 break. When they were ready to continue with the next task block, they indicated their readiness to the  
208 experimenter. The experimenter then entered the testing room, re-ran the eye tracker calibration sequence,  
209 and exited the testing room prior to the next task block.

## 210 **Results**

211 We ran a volitional covert attention experiment with two conditions; in the sustained attention condition  
212 we asked participants to *sustain* the focus of their attention over a succession of 10 stimulus presentations  
213 per block whereas in the variable attention condition we asked participants to *vary* their focus of attention  
214 with each new stimulus (also for a total of 10 stimulus presentations per block). Each stimulus comprised  
215 a pair of composite images (one on the left and one on the right side of the display), where each composite  
216 comprised an equal blend of a unique face and a unique place image. We followed the presentation phases  
217 of each experimental block with a memory phase, where participants performed a recognition memory  
218 task by rating the familiarity of previously experienced and novel face and place images (see *Experimental*  
219 *paradigm*, Fig. 1).

220 We first wondered whether (and how) shifts in covert attention might affect participants' ratings during  
221 the recognition memory task (Fig. 2). To ensure that our findings were not conflated with where people  
222 were physically looking, we excluded from further analysis any images presented during trials where the  
223 participant's gaze touched on any part of the attended composite image (see *Eye-tracking*, Figs. S1 and S2).  
224 For the remaining trials, the participants kept their gaze focused on a fixation cross at the center of the  
225 screen while *covertly* shifting the focus of their attention to the cued category component of the composite  
226 image at the cued location. In other words, during these remaining trials, participants' physical (external)  
227 experiences of the face and place components of every presented composite image remained relatively  
228 constant across trials (up to our ability to accurately measure where participants were looking using the eye  
229 tracker).



**Figure 2. Familiarity by attention level.** The bars display the average familiarity ratings participants gave to images from the same category and location as the attention cue (fully attended), the same category (but opposite location) as the attention cue (attended category), the same location (but opposite category) as the attention cue (attended location), the opposite category and location as the attention cue (unattended), or novel images. The left panel displays familiarity ratings from the sustained attention condition and the right panel displays familiarity ratings from the variable attention condition. All error bars denote across-participant bootstrap-estimated 95% confidence intervals. For results sub-divided by stimulus category, see Figure S3.

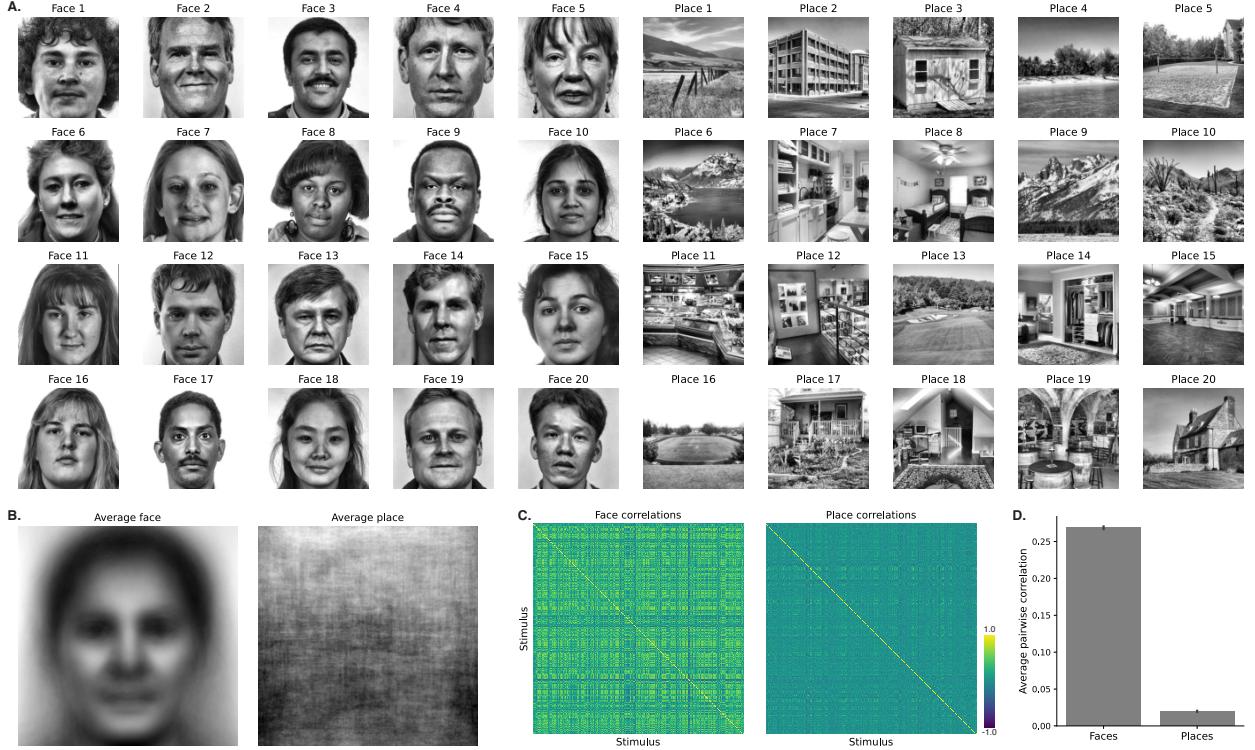
Simply by encoding their prior experiences into memory, we reasoned that participants should rate *any* presented images as more familiar than novel images, regardless of whether they were following the attention cues. We confirmed that this prediction held in both the sustained ( $t(29) = 8.856, p < 0.001$ ) and variable ( $t(22) = 5.144, p < 0.001$ ) conditions. In addition, to the extent that participants were following the attention cues, their *internal* experiences of each image should depend on their internal focus of attention during each image presentation. For example, we expected that the attended-category component of the composite image at the attended location might be better recognized than the other composite image components. Indeed, participants in both experimental conditions rated these “fully attended” images as more familiar than category-matched image components from unattended locations (sustained:  $t(29) = 6.893, p < 0.001$ ; variable:  $t(22) = 6.938, p < 0.001$ ), location-matched images from the unattended category (sustained:  $t(29) = 6.710, p < 0.001$ ; variable:  $t(22) = 7.633, p < 0.001$ ), unattended images that were neither from the attended category nor the attended location (sustained:  $t(29) = 8.470, p < 0.001$ ; variable:  $t(22) = 7.256, p < 0.001$ ), or novel images they had never seen before (sustained:  $t(29) = 10.259, p < 0.001$ ; variable:  $t(22) = 7.874, p < 0.001$ ).

We also wondered whether the ways participants attended to or remembered the images might depend on image-specific properties like the images’ categories. We repeated the analysis displayed in Figure 2 separately for face and place images (Fig. S3). The same general patterns reported above also held for each stimulus category individually. For example, fully attended face and place images were both rated

as more familiar than the category-matched images from the unattended location (sustained:  $ts(29) \geq 3.366, ps \leq 0.002$ ; variable:  $ts(22) \geq 4.773, ps \leq 0.001$ ), attended-location images from the unattended category (sustained:  $ts(29) \geq 5.886, ps \leq 0.001$ ; variable:  $ts(29) \geq 4.277, ps \leq 0.001$ ), images from the unattended category and location (sustained:  $ts(29) \geq 6.628, ps \leq 0.001$ ; variable:  $ts(29) \geq 5.624, ps \leq 0.001$ ), and novel images (sustained:  $ts(29) \geq 5.987, ps \leq 0.001$ ; variable:  $ts(29) \geq 5.132, ps \leq 0.001$ ). Taken together, the above results suggest that what we remember is guided in part by what we attended to, even after accounting for where we look or what specifically we are looking at.

Splitting participants' responses to face versus place images also revealed that participants often rated attended (and partially attended) place images as more familiar than attention-matched face images (compare dark versus light bars in Fig. S3). We hypothesized that this might be explainable by some property of the relevant cognitive processes or by properties of the stimuli themselves. To help elucidate this distinction, we examined individual exemplars of the face and place images used in our paradigm (Fig. 3A). By design, the face images had consistent head sizes, viewing angles, expressions, and so on. In contrast, the place images varied more substantially across images. For example, some place images depicted human-made structures; others depicted natural scenes; some depicted indoor views; others depicted outdoor views; etc. This can also be seen by averaging the pixel intensity values across images, separately for the face and place stimuli (Fig. 3B). Whereas the average face image retains many of the landmarks characteristic of most faces (e.g., clearly defined hair, eyes, nose, mouth, head shape, etc.), the average place image does not show place-specific features as clearly, aside from a general tendency for the tops of place images to be lighter than the bottoms of place images. We also computed the pairwise similarities across images from each stimulus category (Fig. 3C) and found that face images tended to be much more similar to each other than place images (Fig. 3D;  $t(115258) = 254.764, p < 0.001$ ). This analysis indicated to us that our experimental paradigm was not well-suited to identifying cognitively meaningful stimulus category differences, since participants' category-specific judgements may be confounded with within-category image similarity differences.

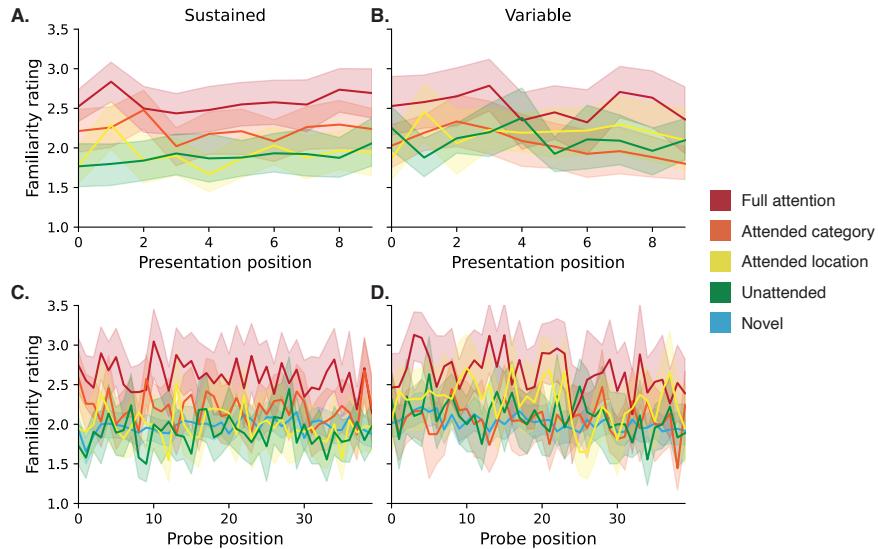
Next, we turned to identifying potential differences in participants' behaviors across the two experimental conditions. The main difference between the conditions' procedures was in how long participants were asked to maintain the same focus of category-based and location-based attention, across successive image presentations. Therefore, differences in participants' behaviors across the two conditions might reflect differences in the timescales of the relevant cognitive processes. We compared participants' familiarity ratings for images at each attention level across the two conditions. We saw no evidence that people rated fully attended images ( $t(51) = -0.649, p = 0.519$ ), attended-category (but not location) images ( $t(51) = 1.163, p = 0.250$ ), or novel images ( $t(51) = -0.435, p = 0.665$ ) differently across the two conditions. However, participants in



**Figure 3. Stimulus examples and properties.** **A. Example images from each stimulus category.** Randomly chosen subsets of 20 face images (left) and 20 place images (right) are displayed. **B. Across-image averages.** Each panel displays the average image, taken across all 360 face images (left) and 360 place images (right). **C. Pairwise correlations.** Each row and column of the matrices displays the correlation (across pixels) in intensity values for one pair of face images (left) or place images (right). **D. Average pairwise correlations.** The bar heights denote the average pairwise correlations between face and place images. Error bars denote across-pair bootstrap-estimated 95% confidence intervals.

the variable attention condition rated attended-location (but unattended category) images as more familiar than participants in the sustained attention condition ( $t(51) = 2.174, p = 0.034$ ). We found a trending effect for unattended category and location images, whereby participants in the variable attention condition tended to rate these images as more familiar than participants in the sustained attention condition ( $t(51) = 1.600, p = 0.116$ ). We also observed some within-condition differences in how participants rated partially attended versus novel images. In the sustained attention condition, participants rated attended-category images at the unattended location as more familiar than novel images ( $t(29) = 6.205, p < 0.001$ ), but participants in the variable attention condition did not show this pattern ( $t(22) = 1.042, p = 0.309$ ). On the other hand, whereas participants in the sustained attention condition showed no reliable differences in familiarity between attended-location images from the unattended category and novel images ( $t(29) = 0.165, p = 0.870$ ), participants in the variable attention condition rated attended-location images as more familiar than novel images ( $t(22) = 3.026, p = 0.006$ ). Taken together, our analyses highlight several familiarity differences in partially attended images from the attended category or at the attended location across the two experimental conditions. These differences suggest that the aspects of category-based versus location-based attention that affect how people remember what they attend operate over different timescales.

Given the above results suggesting potential differences in the timescales of category-based and location-based attention, we carried out two additional exploratory analyses aimed at identifying other timing effects. First, we wondered whether participants' familiarity ratings might show serial position effects analogous to those reported in classic recognition memory studies (e.g., McElree & Dosher, 1989; Neath, 1993; Wickelgren & Norman, 1966). For each participant, for each composite image pair (presented in each trial during the study phase of the experiment), we labeled each composite's face and place image component according to whether it matched the cued category and/or location. We discarded any face or place images that did not appear in the participants' memory phase. We tagged the remaining (probed) images with the familiarity ratings that participants would later give the images during the memory phase and plotted these ratings against the images' presentation positions (Figs. 4A and B). Across both experimental conditions and across all serial positions, we generally found that the average ordering of familiarity ratings by attention level (Fig. 2) were preserved. This suggests that the encoding-related affects of attention on subsequent recognition memory are relatively stable over time (e.g., we did not observe clear primacy or recency effects during the study phase of the experiment). Second, we carried out an analogous analysis to identify potential serial position effects of recall order. For each probed item a participant rated during the memory phase, we assigned the image a label according to whether the participant's attention cue (at the time the image was presented as part of its composite pair) matched the image's category and/or location, or



**Figure 4. Familiarity ratings by serial positions and attention level.** **A. Subsequent familiarity ratings by presentation position (sustained attention condition).** The curves' colors denote the attention levels of each presented image. The *x*-axis denotes the presentation positions of each image within the sequence of 10 composite image pairs during the run when it was presented. The *y*-axis denotes the average familiarity ratings later given to the corresponding items. **B. Subsequent familiarity ratings by presentation position (variable attention condition).** This panel is in the same format as Panel A, but displays ratings for the variable attention condition. **C. Familiarity ratings by memory probe position (sustained attention condition).** The curve's colors denote the attention levels (or novelty) of each probe image. The *x*-axis denotes the position of each probed image within the sequence of 40 images that participants judged during the memory phase of the experiment. The *y*-axis denotes the average familiarity ratings given to the corresponding probes. **D. Familiarity ratings by memory probe position (variable attention condition).** This panel is in the same format as Panel C, but displays ratings for the variable attention condition. All panels: error ribbons denote across-participant bootstrap-estimated 95% confidence intervals.

314 whether the image was novel (i.e., not presented during the study phase). Again, we found that (across  
315 both experimental conditions and all probe positions) in general the average ordering of familiarity ratings  
316 by attention level (Fig. 2) were preserved. This suggests that the retrieval-related affects of attention on  
317 subsequent recognition memory are relatively stable over time (e.g., we did not observe clear primacy or  
318 recency effects during the memory phase of the experiment).

319 Our finding that location-attended items appear to receive a familiarity boost in the variable attention  
320 condition but not the sustained attention condition is consistent with two possible interpretations. One  
321 possibility is that focusing attention requires just a brief trigger (in this case, an attention cue), but different  
322 forms of attention (in this case, category-based attention versus location-based attention) require different  
323 amounts of time to “ramp up” to full efficacy such that they begin to affect memory encoding. For example,  
324 if category-based attention ramps up more slowly than location-based attention, this might explain why the  
325 relative ordering of category-matched versus location-matched unattended images changes between the  
326 sustained attention and variable attention conditions (orange and yellow bars in Fig. 2). A second possibility  
327 is that each attention cue provides a “boost” to memory encoding for the relevant aspects of one’s experience  
328 (e.g., image categories, spatial locations), but the size of the boost varies across different forms of attention.  
329 If so, the *number* of successive attention cues one receives should predict how effectively the attended and  
330 partially attended images are encoded. We developed a sequence length analysis to distinguish between  
331 these possibilities. For each probed (target) image that had been presented as a composite image pair, we  
332 computed the number of matching attention cues the participant had received by the time the given images  
333 were presented (up to and including the image’s composite pair). We computed these sequence lengths by  
334 defining “matching” cues in three ways: (a) a match means the cues are for the same category *and* location,  
335 (b) a match means that the cues are for the same category, and (c) a match means that the cues are for the  
336 same location. This yielded, for each target image, an associated count of how many matching attention cues  
337 the participant had received up to and including that image’s presentation. As shown in Figure S4, we used  
338 linear regressions of familiarity ratings on sequence lengths to identify potential sequence length effects.  
339 For both experimental conditions, all attention levels, and for all three approaches to defining matching cue  
340 sequence lengths, we found virtually no reliable associations between cue sequence length and familiarity.  
341 This finding is most parsimonious with the first possibility mentioned above—i.e., that attention may be  
342 guided by a brief trigger, but that different forms of attention may take differently long to affect memory  
343 encoding.

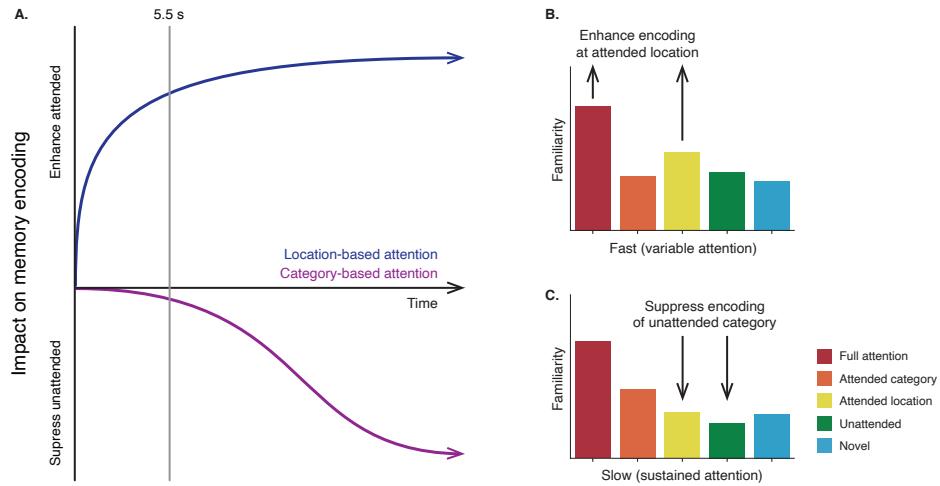
344 Finally, we wondered whether participants’ familiarity ratings might be influenced in part by response  
345 bias effects. For example, a participant who had recently received an “attend to face images” cue might rate  
346 even a novel face image as more “familiar” if they leveraged their memory of the attention cue (as opposed

347 to solely relying on their memories of the composite images they studied) to help guide their familiarity  
348 ratings. Indeed, participants in the sustained attention condition do show some response biases. For  
349 example, participants tended to rate novel images as more familiar if they came from the just-cued category  
350 (Fig. S5A;  $t(29) = 4.371, p < 0.001$ ). Response biases are more difficult to evaluate in the variable attention  
351 condition. For example, should cue recency be defined as the number studied composite image pairs that  
352 came between the image whose familiarity the participant is judging and the most recent same-category  
353 cue (i.e., distance to the nearest same-category attention cue)? Or might response biases instead arise when  
354 a given category is cued more often near the end of the just-studied list? We assigned each probed image  
355 a label based on these two measures of category-matched cue recency. We then used linear regressions of  
356 familiarity ratings on these recency measures to identify potential response biases (Fig. S5B). Altogether  
357 we found no evidence that participants in the variable attention condition tended to rate images as more  
358 familiar solely due to how recently they had received a same-category attention cue.

## 359 Discussion

360 We ran a covert attention experiment with two conditions that asked participants to sustain or vary the  
361 focus of their covert attention, respectively. We then administered recognition memory tests that asked  
362 participants to rate the “familiarity” of attended, unattended, and novel images. In our analyses, we used  
363 eye-tracking data to focus in on trials where participants were specifically varying their focus of *covert*  
364 attention (i.e., with no change in where they were looking), as opposed to simply moving their eyes to look  
365 at the to-be-attended images. In both conditions, we found that participants recognized images from the  
366 attended category and location more readily than unattended or novel images. This effect was substantial  
367 and robust (in both conditions) and also held for individual image categories. Whereas prior work has  
368 focused primarily on *overt* changes in attention (e.g., changes in eye movements associated with attention  
369 cues), we show that what people *covertly* attend to also affects how they remember their ongoing experiences.  
370 Specifically, covert attention appears to boost memory encoding such that the focus of covert attention is  
371 recognized more readily later on.

372 We also found that partially attended images (e.g., from the attended category but unattended location,  
373 or at the attended location but unattended category) were rated as more familiar than novel images.  
374 However, these encoding benefits differed across the two experimental conditions. In the sustained attention  
375 condition, attended-category images from the unattended location were rated as more familiar than novel  
376 images, but attended-location images from the unattended category were not. Participants in the variable  
377 attention condition showed the opposite pattern. The variable attention participants rated attended-*location*



**Figure 5. How do covert location-based and category-based attention affect memory encoding?**

**A. Hypothesized time courses of the impact of location-based and category-based attention on memory encoding.** Shifting the focus of location-based attention increases memory encoding at the attended locations (blue curve). This increase can be observed after 5.5 s (the duration of one presentation from the variable attention condition). Shifting the focus of category-based attention suppresses memory encoding for the unattended category. However, this suppression effect occurs relatively slowly (longer than the duration of a single image presentation in the experiment).

**B. Location-based attention.** Focusing covert attention on one *location* enhances encoding of stimuli at the attended location (red and yellow bars), regardless of stimulus category. (This panel is based on the variable attention results presented in Fig. 2.)

**C. Category-based attention.** Focusing covert attention on one *category* suppresses encoding of stimuli from the unattended category (yellow and green bars), regardless of spatial location. (This panel is based on the sustained attention results presented in Fig. 2.)

378 images from the unattended category as more familiar than novel images, but they rated attended-category  
379 images from the unattended location similarly to novel images. Because the primary difference between  
380 the sustained and variable attention conditions was the duration of participants' focus of attention, our  
381 analyses of partially attended images suggest that the effects of different aspects of attention on memory  
382 may unfold over different timescales (Fig. 5). Specifically, location-based attention appears to affect memory  
383 encoding relatively quickly, which would explain why attended-location images from both the attended  
384 *and* unattended category receive a memory encoding benefit in the variable attention condition. In contrast,  
385 category-based attention appears to affect memory encoding more slowly, and it appears to operate in a  
386 "suppressive" manner (i.e., suppressing encoding of the unattended category, as opposed to enhancing  
387 encoding of the attended category). This would explain why unattended-category images at the attended  
388 location are rated as *less* familiar in the sustained attention condition.

389 The notion that location-based attention operates at a faster timescale than category-based attention  
390 is supported by prior work on the deployment of visual attention (Soto & Blanco, 2004; Stoppel et al.,  
391 2007). Our findings that location-based attention enhances the processing of attended stimuli whereas  
392 category-based attention suppresses the processing of unattended stimuli is also consistent with prior work  
393 on location-based attention (e.g., Itti & Koch, 2001) and category-based attention (e.g., Moher et al., 2014).  
394 Our finding that people better remember attended stimuli also follows prior work on interactions between  
395 attention and memory (Aly & Turk-Browne, 2016, 2017; Balestrieri et al., 2021; Chun & Turk-Browne, 2007;  
396 Morrison et al., 2014; Paller & Wagner, 2002; Wittig et al., 2018). Whereas much of this prior work focused  
397 on elucidating the neural basis of these interactions, our work extends these prior studies by elucidating  
398 the specific and separable behavioral impacts of location-based attention (enhancement with a fast onset)  
399 and category-based attention (inhibition with a slow onset) and on subsequent recognition memory. Both  
400 of these effects persisted throughout the 2 min memory phases of both conditions. Therefore future work is  
401 needed to elucidate the longevity of these effects beyond 2 minutes.

402 Another important area for future study concerns how the flow of information between different brain  
403 structures is modulated according to the focus of volitional attention—particularly with respect to pathways  
404 from primary sensory regions (e.g., V1, A1) to regions implicated in encoding ongoing experiences into  
405 memory (e.g., medial temporal lobe structures such as the hippocampus and entorhinal cortex, prefrontal  
406 cortex, etc.). For example, several studies suggest that attention serves to modulate the *gain* of specific  
407 neural circuits (Chance et al., 2002; Eldar et al., 2013; Salinas & Thier, 2000; Treue & Trujillo, 1999), effectively  
408 facilitating or inhibiting the flow of specific neural representations (LaRocque et al., 2014; Vartanian et al.,  
409 2007). Prior work suggests that category-based attention may be supported by changes in connectivity  
410 with the thalamus (Schneider, 2011), whereas location-based attention may be supported by changes in

411 connectivity with primary visual cortex (Noudoost et al., 2010). That category-based and location-based  
412 attention are mediated by different brain structures may explain why these different aspects of attention  
413 operate on different timescales and affect memory differently. A strong test of this hypothesis would entail  
414 directly measuring neural activity patterns as people modulate their focus of attention (e.g., using functional  
415 magnetic resonance imaging or electroencephalography), and then using neural decoding approaches (e.g.,  
416 Haxby et al., 2001; Manning et al., 2018; Norman et al., 2006; Owen et al., 2021) to follow how neural  
417 representations of attended (or unattended) stimuli are transferred from primary sensory regions, to higher  
418 order sensory regions, to memory areas. If the effects of attention on memory are mediated by changes in  
419 network dynamics, the transmission rates of the representations of attended stimuli from primary sensory  
420 regions to memory areas should be facilitated relative to the transmission rates of unattended stimuli.  
421 Further, variability in these neural changes (e.g., as a participant focuses their attention with more or less  
422 success) should track with behavioral measures of memorability.

423 Which aspects of our ongoing experiences we choose to attend affects how we process and remem-  
424 ber those experiences later. Different forms of attention—e.g., to specific stimulus categories or spatial  
425 locations—operate and affect memory at different timescales, and are likely mediated by different brain  
426 networks. Elucidating the behavioral and neural consequences of volitional changes in attention is central  
427 to discovering how our thoughts, feelings, goals, and situational understanding fluctuate from moment to  
428 moment.

## 429 **Author Contributions**

430 JRM and KZ developed the concept for this study. Experiment code was written by KZ and ARM, and  
431 testing and data collection were conducted by MRL and KZ. KZ, MRL, ARM, and JRM analyzed the data.  
432 JRM supervised the project. All authors contributed to writing and editing the manuscript.

## 433 **Data and code availability**

434 All of the data analyzed in this manuscript, along with all of the code for running our experiment and  
435 carrying out the analyses may be found at <http://www.github.com/ContextLab/attention-memory-task>.

436 **Acknowledgements**

437 This work was supported in part by NSF EPSCoR Award Number 1632738 to JRM and by NSF CAREER  
438 Award Number 2145172 to JRM. The content of this manuscript is solely the responsibility of the authors  
439 and does not necessarily represent the official views of our supporting organizations. We are grateful  
440 for useful discussions with the EPSCoR Attention Consortium, particularly with Marian Berryhill, Gideon  
441 Caplovitz, Patrick Cavanagh, Theresa Desrochers, and Peter Tse. We thank Megan deBettencourt for useful  
442 discussions, pointers to our experimental stimuli, and for providing code to facilitate stimulus preparation.  
443 We also appreciate useful discussions with Paxton Fitzpatrick, Kevin Hartstein, Talia Manning, Lucy Owen,  
444 and Michael Ziman. Finally, we thank Christina Liu and Eowyn Pak for their help running pilot versions  
445 of the experiment reported here.

446 **References**

- 447 Adam, K. C. S., & deBettencourt, M. T. (2019). Fluctuations of attention and working memory. *Journal of*  
448 *Cognition*, 2(33), 1–4.
- 449 Aly, M., & Turk-Browne, N. (2016). Attention promotes episodic encoding by stabilizing hippocampal  
450 representations. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences, USA*, 113(4), 420–429.
- 451 Aly, M., & Turk-Browne, N. B. (2017). How hippocampal memory shapes, and is shaped by, attention. In  
452 *The hippocampus from cells to systems* (pp. 369–403). Springer.
- 453 Balestrieri, E., Ronconi, L., & Melcher, D. (2021). Shared resources between visual attention and visual  
454 working memory are allocated through rhythmic sampling. *European Journal of Neuroscience*, 55(11),  
455 3040–3053.
- 456 Chance, F. S., Abbott, L. F., & Reyes, A. D. (2002). Gain modulation from background synaptic input.  
457 *Neuron*, 35(4), 773–782.
- 458 Chang, L. J., Jolly, E., Cheong, J. H., Rapuano, K., Greenstein, N., Chen, P.-H. A., & Manning, J. R. (2021). En-  
459 dogenous variation in ventromedial prefrontal cortex state dynamics during naturalistic viewing reflects  
460 affective experience. *Science Advances*, 7(17), doi.org/10.1126/sciadv.abf7129.
- 461 Chun, M. M., & Turk-Browne, N. B. (2007). Interactions between attention and memory. *Current Opinion in*  
462 *Neurobiology*, 17(2), 177–184.

- 463 deBettencourt, M. T., Williams, S. D., Vogel, E. K., & Awh, E. (2021). Sustained attention and spatial attention  
464 distinctly influence long-term memory encoding. *Journal of Cognitive Neuroscience*, 33(10), 2132–2148.
- 465 Dijksterhuis, A., & Aarts, H. (2010). Goals, attention, and (un)consciousness. *Annual Review of Psychology*,  
466 61, 467–490.
- 467 Eldar, E., Cohen, J. D., & Niv, Y. (2013). The effects of neural gain on attention and learning. *Nature  
468 Neuroscience*, 16(8), 1146.
- 469 Engbert, R., & Kliegl, R. (2003). Microsaccades uncover the orientation of covert attention. *Vision Research*,  
470 43(9), 1035–1045.
- 471 Freeman, J., & Simoncelli, E. P. (2011). Metamers of the ventral stream. *Nature Neuroscience*, 14, 1195–1201.
- 472 Hakim, N., deBettencourt, M. T., Awh, E., & Vogel, E. K. (2020). Attention fluctuations impact ongoing  
473 maintenance of information in working memory. *Psychonomic Bulletin and Review*, 27(6), 1269–1278.
- 474 Hardt, O., & Nadel, L. (2009). Cognitive maps and attention. *Progress in Brain Research*, 176, 181–194.
- 475 Haxby, J. V., Gobbini, M. I., Furey, M. L., Ishai, A., Schouten, J. L., & Pietrini, P. (2001). Distributed and  
476 overlapping representations of faces and objects in ventral temporal cortex. *Science*, 293, 2425–2430.
- 477 Hirschstein, Z., & Aly, M. (2022). Long-term memory and working memory compete and cooperate to  
478 guide attention. *Attention, Perception, and Psychophysics*, doi.org/10.3758/s13414-022-02593-1.
- 479 Hoffman, J. E., & Subramaniam, B. (1995). The role of visual attention in saccadic eye movements. *Perception  
480 and Psychophysics*, 57(6), 787–795.
- 481 Hunt, A. R., & Kingstone, A. (2003). Covert and overt voluntary attention: linked or independent? *Cognitive  
482 Brain Research*, 18(1), 102–105.
- 483 Hunt, E., Pellegrino, J. W., & Yee, P. L. (1989). Individual differences in attention. *Psychology of Learning and  
484 Motivation*, 24, 285–310.
- 485 Itti, L., & Koch, C. (2001). Computational modelling of visual attention. *Nature Reviews Neuroscience*, 2,  
486 194–203.
- 487 Jacoby, L. L., Lindsay, D. S., & Toth, J. P. (1992). Unconscious influences revealed: attention, awareness, and  
488 control. *American Psychologist*, 47(6), 802–809.
- 489 Jayakumar, M., Balusu, C., & Aly, M. (2023). Attentional fluctuations and the temporal organization of  
490 memory. *Cognition*, 235(105408), 1–32.

- 491 Keene, P. A., deBettencourt, M. T., Awh, E., & Vogel, E. K. (2022). Pupilometry signatures of sustained  
492 attention and working memory. *Attention, Perception, and Psychophysics*, 84(8), 2472–2482.
- 493 LaRocque, J. J., Lewis-Peacock, J. A., & Postle, B. R. (2014). Multiple neural states of representation in  
494 short-term memory? it's a matter of attention. *Frontiers in Human Neuroscience*, 8, 5.
- 495 Manning, J. R., Zhu, X., Willke, T. L., Ranganath, R., Stachenfeld, K., Hasson, U., . . . Norman, K. A. (2018).  
496 A probabilistic approach to discovering dynamic full-brain functional connectivity patterns. *NeuroImage*,  
497 180, 243–252.
- 498 McElree, B., & Dosher, B. A. (1989). Serial position and set size in short-term memory: the time course of  
499 recognition. *Journal of Experimental Psychology: General*, 118, 346–373.
- 500 Moher, J., Lakshmanan, B. M., Egeth, H. E., & Ewen, J. B. (2014). Inhibition drives early feature-based  
501 attention. *Psychological Science*, 25(2), 314–324.
- 502 Morrison, A. B., Conway, A. R. A., & Chein, J. M. (2014). Primacy and recency effects as indices of the focus  
503 of attention. *Frontiers in Human Neuroscience*, 8(6), 1–14.
- 504 Neath, I. (1993). Distinctiveness and serial position effects in recognition. *Memory and Cognition*, 21, 689–698.
- 505 Norman, K. A., Polyn, S. M., Detre, G. J., & Haxby, J. V. (2006). Beyond mind-reading: multi-voxel pattern  
506 analysis of fMRI data. *Trends in Cognitive Sciences*, 10(9), 424–430.
- 507 Noudoost, B., Chang, M. H., Steinmetz, N. A., & Moore, T. (2010). Top-down control of visual attention.  
508 *Current Opinion in Neurobiology*, 20(2), 183–190.
- 509 O'Craven, K. M., Downing, P. E., & Kanwisher, N. (1999). fMRI evidence for objects as the units of attentional  
510 selection. *Nature*.
- 511 Owen, L. L. W., Chang, T. H., & Manning, J. R. (2021). High-level cognition during story listening is  
512 reflected in high-order dynamic correlations in neural activity patterns. *Nature Communications*, 12(5728),  
513 doi.org/10.1038/s41467-021-25876-x.
- 514 Paller, K. A., & Wagner, A. D. (2002). Observing the transformation of experience into memory. *Trends in  
515 Cognitive Sciences*, 6(2), 93–102.
- 516 Peirce, J. W., Gray, J., Simpson, S., MacAskill, M. R., Höchenberger, R., Sogo, H., . . . Lindeløv, J. (2019).  
517 PsychoPy2: experiments in behavior made easy. *Behavior Research Methods*, 51(1), 195–203.

- 518 Phillips, P. J., Wechsler, H., Huang, J., & Rauss, P. J. (1998). The feret database and evaluation procedure for  
519 face-recognition algorithms. *Image and Vision Computing*, 16(5), 295–306.
- 520 Posner, M. I. (1980). Orienting of attention. *Quarterly Journal of Experimental Psychology*, 32(1), 3–25.
- 521 Posner, M. I., Walker, J. A., & adn R D Rafal, F. A. F. (1987). How do the parietal lobes direct covert attention.  
522 *Neuropsychologia*, 25(1), 135–145.
- 523 Ranganath, C., & Ritchey, M. (2012). Two cortical systems for memory-guided behavior. *Nature Reviews  
524 Neuroscience*, 13, 713–726.
- 525 Salinas, E., & Thier, P. (2000). Gain modulation: A major computational principle of the central nervous  
526 system. *Neuron*, 27(1), 15–21.
- 527 Schneider, K. A. (2011). Subcortical mechanisms of feature-based attention. *The Journal of Neuroscience*,  
528 31(23), 8643–8653.
- 529 Soto, D., & Blanco, M. J. (2004). Spatial attention and object-based attention: a comparison within a single  
530 task. *Vision Research*, 44(1), 69–81.
- 531 Stoppel, C. M., Boehler, C. N., Sabelhaus, C., Heinze, H.-J., Hopf, J. M., & Shoenfeld, M. A. (2007). Neural  
532 mechanisms of spatial- and feature-based attention: a quantitative analysis. *Brain Research*, 1181(21),  
533 51–60.
- 534 Treue, S., & Trujillo, J. C. M. (1999). Feature-based attention influences motion processing gain in macaque  
535 visual cortex. *Nature*, 399(6736), 575–579.
- 536 Turk-Browne, N. B., Golomb, J. D., & Chine, M. M. (2013). Complementary attentional components of  
537 successful memory encoding. *NeuroImage*.
- 538 Uncapher, M. R., Hutchinson, J. B., & Wagner, A. D. (2011). Dissociable effects of top-down and bottom-up  
539 attention during episodic encoding. *The Journal of Neuroscience*.
- 540 Vartanian, O., Martindale, C., & Kwiatkowski, J. (2007). Creative potential, attention, and speed of infor-  
541 mation processing. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 43(6), 1470–1480.
- 542 Wickelgren, W. A., & Norman, D. A. (1966). Strength models and serial position in short-term recognition  
543 memory. *Journal of Mathematical Psychobiology*, 3, 316–347.
- 544 Wittig, J. H., Jang, A. I., Cocjin, J. B., Inati, S. K., & Zaghloul, K. A. (2018). Attention improves memory  
545 by suppressing spiking-neuron activity in the human anterior temporal lobe. *Nature Neuroscience*, 21,  
546 808–810.

- 547 Xiao, J., Hays, J., Ehinger, K., Oliva, A., & Torralba, A. (2010). SUN database: large-scale scene recognition  
548 from abbey to zoo. In *IEEE conference on computer vision and pattern recognition*.
- 549 Yi, D. J., Kelley, T. A., Marois, R., & Chun, M. M. (2006). Attentional modulation of repetition attenuation  
550 is anatomically dissociable for scenes and faces. *Brain Research*.
- 551 Yonelinas, A. P. (2002). The nature of recollection and familiarity: A review of 30 years of research. *Journal*  
552 *of Memory and Language*, 46, 441–517.