THE EFFECT OF EMOTION ON ASSOCIATIVE MEMORY: ANGER VERSUS FEAR

by

MELISSA ADLER

A THESIS

Presented to the Department of Human Physiology and the Robert D. Clark Honors College in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Bachelor of Science

June 2020

An Abstract of the Thesis of

Melissa Adler for the degree of Bachelor of Science in the Department of Human Physiology to be taken June 2020

Title: The Effect of Emotion on Associative Memory: Anger Versus Fear

Approved: <u>Dasa Zeithamova</u>
Primary Thesis Advisor

Studies show that emotion enhances memory for individual items but weakens memory for associations between items. One explanation for this associative memory impairment is that emotional stimuli capture attention, causing enhanced encoding of the emotional item but reduced encoding of the surrounding environment. This hypothesis generates the prediction that emotional information always impairs associative memory. Alternatively, it may be that emotion orients attention towards threats in the environment, thus suggesting anger and fear have different effects on memory for associated information. For example, seeing an angry face constitutes a direct threat, potentially capturing attention and reducing memory for associated information. In contrast, seeing a fearful face indicates a threat elsewhere in the environment, potentially enhancing encoding of associated information. To adjudicate betweenthese hypotheses, subjects studied sets of three images, consisting of two objects and a face with either a neutral, angry, or fearful expression. Subjects were later tested on their memory for the associations between the three items. Supporting the first hypothesis, memory for both angry and fearful associations was worse than memory for neutral associations. Contrary to the second hypothesis, there were no differences in

memory for angry versus fearful associations. Thus, emotional information itself seems to capture attention, weakening memory for related information.

Acknowledgements

I would like to thank Dr. Zeithamovafor providing me the opportunity to delve into the brain and the fascinating complexities of memory. A special debt of gratitude is owed to my amazing mentor, Caitlin Bowman, for her patience and unwavering support throughout this entire process. I am immensely grateful for the other members of the Brain and Memory lab who fostered a supportive and enriching learning environment where I could hone my research skills and develop cherished friendships. The guidance and invaluable insight provided to me by my lab-mates has played an instrumental role in my success as both a researcher and as a student. This has been a strenuous but rewarding experience and I am sincerely grateful for having the privilege to work with and get to know each and every one of the "BamLab" members. Many thanks to Professors Jon Runyeon and Elizabeth Raisanen for serving on my thesis committee. Finally, a huge thank you to my family for always pushing me to be my best self and to reach my goals. Your unparalleled support, love, and profound belief in me are some of my greatest motivation in my academic and career aspirations, and more importantly, in life.

Table of Contents

Introduction	1
Defining Memory	1
Emotion Effects	2
Research Questions and Hypotheses	4
Methods	6
Subjects	6
Stimuli	6
Experimental Design	7
Study Phase	7
Recognition Phase	8
Testing Phase	9
Questioning	10
Results	12
Training	12
Recognition	13
Association Test	14
Proportion Correct	14
Proportion of Emotion-Consistent Errors	16
Discussion	18
Negative Emotion Inhibits Associative Memory Formation	18
Associative Impairment Present for Both Fear and Anger	19
Differential Effects of Associative and Item Memory	21
Amygdala Involvement	21
Arousal State Influences Encoding and Retrieval	22
Broader Impacts	23
Future Directions	24
Conclusions	25
Bibliography	26

List of Figures

Figure 1: Potential Hypotheses for How Emotion Affects Associative Memory	5
Figure 2: Study Phase	8
Figure 3: Recognition Phase	S
Figure 4: Association Test Phase	10
Figure 5: Mean Ratings During Training	13
Figure 6: Proportion of "Old" Responses During Recognition	14
Figure 7: Proportion Correct During Association Test	16
Figure 8: Proportion of Emotion-Consistent Errors During Association Test	17

Introduction

Defining Memory

Memory is involved in many aspects of our everyday lives, from events as simple as remembering to put a foot on the break when starting a car, to events as complicated as remembering the steps to an intricateheart surgery. We constantly rely on our memories to inform our thoughts, actions, and relationships, and therefore often trust it as an absolute truth; however, our memory is not always reliable. Emotion affects memory in various ways and can decrease the accuracy of certain types of memory, impacting our day-to-daylives.

There are many forms of memory, with only some types of memory- declarative memories- being accessible to conscious report. Two declarative memory functions have been especially highlighted in the context of emotion influence; item memory and associative memory. Item memory refers to the ability to remember specific, individual items. For example, one could have memories of a specific dog they pass on the street walking home from work every day. Another form of memory is associative memory, which involves the ability to learn and remember the relationships between two or more items. An example would be if the same person not only remembered the specific dog, but remembered it with contextual details such as what its collar looks like, who its owner is, etc.

The two types of memory, associative memory and item memory, are believed to be supported by different brain regions. Associative memory is a distinct form of memory due to its heavy reliance on the hippocampus. The hippocampus is a region of the brain that assists in the formation, organization, and storage of memories, as well as

connecting them to certain sensations and emotions; it plays a large role in remembering relationships between multiple pieces of information (Cohen & Eichenbaum, 1993; O'Keefe & Nadel, 1978). In contrast, item memory can be supported by regions other than the hippocampus, including the perirhinal cortex as part of the cortical medial temporal lobe(Stark, Bayley, & Squire, 2002). Due to the different mechanisms underlying item memory versus associative memory, the two may be influenced by contextual factors in distinct ways.

Emotion Effects

Not all events are remembered, and some are remembered more strongly than others. One factor known to influence memory is emotion. The amygdalaplays an integral role in our emotional responses to events. It is located near and often interacts with the hippocampus, affecting the processes of memory formation. It helps determine what and where memories are stored and allows for appropriate responses to dangerous situations (Dolcos, LaBar, & Cabeza, 2004). The amygdala modulates emotionally influenced memories and works with the hippocampus and other regions of the brain involved in memory to determine what individual elements of the memory are consolidated and stored (Adolphs, Cahill, Schul, & Babinsky, 1997; Phelps, 2004). It is likely that emotional events are coded differently than neutral events, such as the amygdala being responsible for encoding rather than the hippocampus, which is what results in qualitatively different memories.

For a long time, it was believed that emotion enhanced memory, but the studies from which that conclusion was based mostly focused on memory for individual emotional items, such as angry faces(Bradley, Greenwald, Petry, & Lang, 1992; Brown

& Kulik, 1977; Chiu, Dolcos, Gonsalves, & Cohen, 2013). More recent work shows that associative memory for emotionally related information may be impaired compared to those for neutral information. For example, following the events of 9/11, people remembered the first plane striking the first tower, yet forgot where it hit, how long it took for the tower to collapse, and even where they saw/heard about the event- the majority of people incorrectly claimed that they had witnessed the first strike on video, though it was not televised (Pezdek, 2003). This is likely due to the way that the amygdalaaffects the hippocampus, weakening and impairing the encoding process for associative memories; this can be seen by low hippocampal activityin the presence of negative emotion, corresponding to reduced associative memory (Bisby & Burgess, 2017). However, increased activation of the amygdala in the presence of negative emotion improvesspecific item memory. Because of this, a person may remember individual elements of an event yet be unable to form a relationship between multiple elements.

Memory also relies on attention, the more limited studies on this topic indicating that emotional stimuli often capture attention, which causes surrounding information to be ignored. As a result, memory increases for the emotional stimuli while it decreases for the contextual details (Schupp, Junghöfer, Weike, & Hamm, 2003). Attention may also be captured by the presence of threat. Past research indicates that attention is driven by physiological arousalvia the subsequent activation of the amygdala; threats evoke emotional arousal and thus capture attention (Öhman, Flykt, & Esteves, 2001). Furthermore, item memory involves focusing on a single, independent item, leading to strong memory of it, while associative memory places a different demand on

attention. With associative memory, attention is required to be spread across multiple items to ensure encoding of their relationships, which divides attention into various directions and subsequently decreases memory for individual items.

Research Questions and Hypotheses

Studies show that specific item memory (e.g., remembering a face or object) is typically enhanced in the presence of emotion; however, associative memory is weakened in the presence of emotional content (Bisby & Burgess, 2017). Therefore, if an angry face is seen paired with an object, a person is more likely to remember the face but less likely to remember the associated object. One explanation for this is that emotional stimuli capture a person's attention which causes the surrounding environment to be ignored(Schupp et al., 2003). Since attention is what drives encoding, this would lead to a lack of encoding of the surrounding environment. In this case, all emotional stimuli should elicit a deficit in the formation of associative memories. Another explanation is that a person's attention is oriented towards threats in the environment, which may lead to differences in associative memory based on the type of emotional content depicted (Öhman et al., 2001). Angry faces might lead people to forget the surroundings because the threat is the angry face itself. However, if the face is instead fearful, people may direct their attention towards the items in the surrounding environment to locate the source of the threat.

This study compares these two explanations of how emotion affects associative memory, specifically testing whether perception of anger and fear have different effects on memory for associated information. We tested the competing hypotheses, that emotional faces, both angry and fearful ones, would inhibit associative memory

compared to neutral faces, as well as the hypothesis that fearful faces would allow subjects to form better associative memories than angry faces (Figure 1). This is because, with the fearful stimuli, participants' attention would likely transfer from such stimuli to the objects, the potential sources of the threat, while the angry stimuli would act as the sources of the threat themselves and would hold the subjects' attention. These results would provide new evidence about the cognitive mechanisms underlying emotional effects on memory.

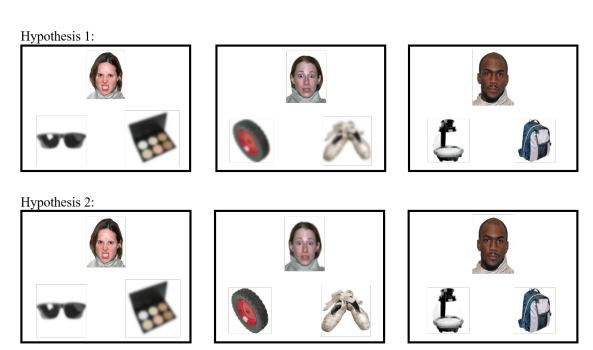


Figure 1: Potential Hypotheses for How Emotion Affects Associative Memory

Hypothesis 1: emotion itself captures attention- both angry and fearful faces will disrupt associative memory. Hypothesis 2: emotion signals where to direct attention- angry faces (threats themselves) disrupt associative memory while fearful faces (threats in environment) do not.

Methods

Subjects

Forty University of Oregon undergraduate students participated for course credit (age range = 18-27, mean age = 19.85, standard deviation = 2.48;30 females and 10 males). All subjects provided informed consent in accordance with regulation set by the University of Oregon and the Institutional Review Board prior to participation and were given a debriefing following their study completion.

Stimuli

Face stimuli were taken from a pool of 125 face images consisting of 18 male-appearing and 18 female-appearing faces. Face stimuli were taken from a database, NimStim,(Tottenham et al., 2009), which is composed of images from New York University actors/actresses in the theater department. Each face was photographed with three emotional expressions: neutral, angry, and fearful, though each subject was randomly assigned only one of the three facial expression provided by the same actor. There were an equal number of male-appearing and female-appearing faces in each of the three emotion conditions.

Each face was paired with two objects to form an associative triad, with the face at the top of the screen and the two objects at the bottom. There were 108 object stimuli that were all categorized as neutral by experimenter judgment and were taken from the internet. The pairings between faces and objects were random for each subject so they viewed different triads, though every subject viewed all stimuli over the course of the experiment.

Not all objects were presented in triads; some objects were used individually in a different experimental phase to represent "new" items, as in previously unstudied, as a means of assessing subjects' recognition. The 36object stimuli that remained after creating the face-object triads were used as "new" items during the recognition phase.

Experimental Design

The study was entirely computer-based and was coded using MATLAB Psychtoolbox software (https://www.mathworks.com/products/matlab.html). There were three experimental phases: study, recognition, and testing. The experiment lasted approximately one hour for each subject. Instructions for each of the phases were given to the subjects before the tasks began. Subjects completed practice rounds for the study and testing phases, consisting of the same 14 object stimuli and the same 7 face stimuli taken from the entire experimental pool of stimuli, for all subjects. The practice face and object stimuli were not used in the actual experiment. The directions provided and the practice rounds completed did not inform subjects of the emotion manipulation, so subjects were unaware of the specific focus of the study to maintain unbiased results.

Study Phase

For each study trial, subjects saw a single triad and were asked to create a mental image or story connecting all three items so they could more likely remember the images' connections in the future (e.g., the angry woman wore sunglasses as she put on her makeup) (Figure 2). Triads were always presented with the face at the top of the screen and the two objects on the bottom. Each triad was present on the screen for six seconds, during which time subjects ranked the quality of their stories on a scale of one

to four, one meaning that they were unable to come up with a story to help them remember the relationships between the images, and four meaning that their story was of high quality. Between each triad, a fixation cross was present for two seconds. There were 36 triads that were studied for this phase, 12 of each emotion condition (e.g., of neutral, angry, and fearful facial expressions).



Figure 2: Study Phase

Each box represents the computer screen during one trial of the study phase. Each trial consisted of one face at the top of the screen with two objects underneath, called triads. Subjects studied these triads, either with a neutral, angry, or fearful face, for six seconds, during which time they came up with stories connecting the three items and ranked the quality of those stories using the rankings provided across the bottom of the screen.

Recognition Phase

Subjects then completed the recognition phase of the experiment, consisting of solely object stimuli (Figure 3). For each round, one object appeared in the middle of the screen and subjects determined if the object was one that they had been shown before, in the previous phase, or if it was onethat they had not been shown before. Each image was present on the screen for six seconds, during which time subjects pressed one, indicating that the image was "old", or two, indicating that the image was

"new."This round consisted of 108 trials. There were 36 "new" and 72 "old" stimuli for each subject.

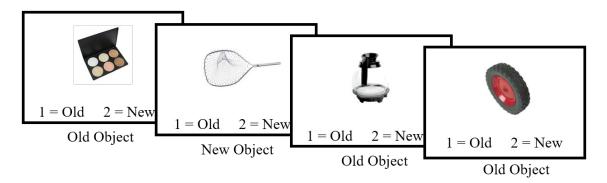


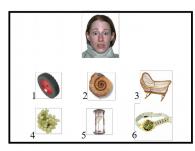
Figure 3: Recognition Phase

Each box represents the computer screen during one trial of the recognition phase. Each trial consisted of a single object that remained on the screen for six seconds, during which time subjects determined if the object was "old", being one that they had studied during the prior phase, or if the object was "new", being one that they had not studied during the prior phase.

Testing Phase

Finally, subjects were tested on their abilities to form associative memories between the faces and the objects they studied in the first phase (Figure 4). Seven images were present on the screen, the image on top acting as the cue image, and the six images acrossthe bottom acting as answer choices, referred to as "targets". The six images acrossthe bottom consisted of two images from neutral triads, two images from angry triads, and two images from fearful triads, with the two stimuli from each condition being arranged in columns so that there were three columns of two stimuli; this allowed us to not only test how often people selected the correct pairings, but also, if/when incorrect responses were made, it allowed us to discern any patterns of mistakes. Subjects indicated which one of the six images was originally paired with the

cue image by typing the number assigned to their chosen answer choice. Each triad was tested in every possible cue-target combination, meaning that every triad was tested 6 different ways: face cue-object 1 target, face cue-object 2 target, object 1 cue-face target, object 1 cue-object 2 target, object 2 cue-face target, object 2 cue-object 1 target. This phase was self-paced and consisted of 216 trials. All answer choices were images that had been studied prior; there were no "new" images.





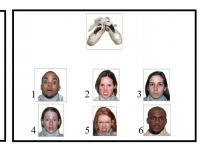


Figure 4: Association Test Phase

Each box represents the computer screen during one trial of the association test phase. Each trial consisted of one item at the top of the screen, representing the cue item, and six items underneath the cue item, representing the target items. Subjects determined which one of the six target items was in a triad with the cue item during the study phase. Each triad from the study phase was testing in every possible way. This phase was self-paced.

Questioning

After the three phases were completed, subjects were asked two questions to determine if their emotional arousals were affected by the study. The first question asked if the subjects had any particular feelings while they were completing the study phase of the experiment. The second question asked if the study phase made the subjects feel more negative, neutral, or positive overall. The first question was openended so as not to influence the subjects' responses, while the second question was meant to direct the subjects' responses to specific emotional states.

Answers were recorded on each subjects' corresponding line on the sign-in sheet, along with any concerns regarding technical issues that came up during the study, or if they had a medical condition/were in a state of mind that may have influenced their results and affected the data.

Results

Training

In training, our dependent measure of interest was the ratings of story quality. For each subject, we computed a mean rating separately for each of the three emotion conditions (Figure 5). We then submitted these mean ratings to a one-way, repeated-measures ANOVA. The effect of emotion condition on training rating was not significant ($F_{(2,98)} = 2.12$, p = 0.13). Though no overall emotion effect was confirmed, we ran exploratory, pairwise comparisons between the fearful triads and the neutral and angry triads. Ratings were numerically higher for faces from fearful triads than faces from angry (t(49) = 1.70, p = 0.10) or neutral triads(t(49) = 1.66, p = 0.10); however, differences among conditions did not reach significance.

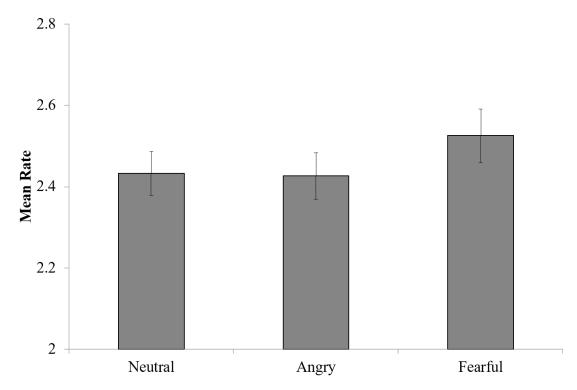


Figure 5: Mean Ratings During Training

The meanquality of story ratings in each emotion condition (e.g., neutral, angry, and fearful). Error bars represent across-subject standard error of the mean. Although fearful triads were rated higher numerically, differences among conditions were not statistically reliable.

Recognition

It is possible that attention is captured by emotion itself, which may lead to a lack of encoding of the paired objects in angry and fearful triads. Thus, to determine if emotion influenced object recognition, our dependent measure of interest was the mean proportions correct for identifying old objects when they were in fact old (Figure 6). We submitted these values to one-way, repeated measures ANOVA. Data show no effect of emotion, with subjects performing comparably across all conditions ($F_{(2,98)} = 0.26$, p = 0.77).

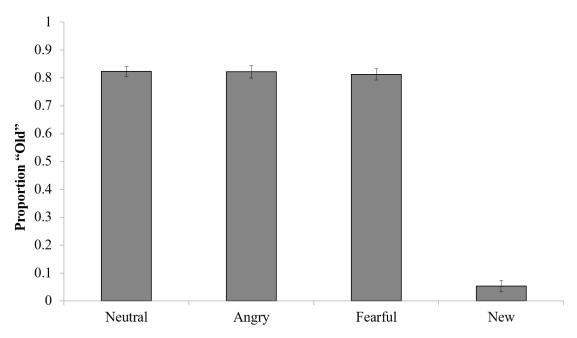


Figure 6: Proportion of "Old" Responses During Recognition

The mean proportion of times subjects responded "old" during recognition for each of the emotion conditions. Error bars represent across-subject standard error of the mean. Responses were not dependent on emotion condition.

Association Test

Proportion Correct

We calculated mean proportion correctto assess associative test performance foreachemotion condition, separated by cue-target trial type (Figure 7). A 3 (emotion condition: neutral, angry, fearful) x 3 (cue-target type: face-object, object-object, object-face) repeated measures ANOVA was completed to assess the effects of emotion and test type, along with the interaction between them. Results showed a significant overall effect of emotion ($F_{(2,98)} = 7.13$, p = 0.001). Subjects were better at remembering neutral triads (mean = 0.50, SE = 0.18) compared to both angry (mean = 0.45, SE = 0.17; t(49) = 3.40 , p = 0.001) and fearful triads (mean = 0.47, SE = 0.19; t(49) = 2.58, (p = 0.01). Although the accuracy for fearful trials was numerically higher than for angry triads, the

difference was not statistically significant (t(49) = -1.23, p = 0.22). Results also indicated a significant overall effect of test type ($F_{(2,98)}$ = 125.05, p<0.001). Subjects performed significantly better for the object cue/object targettrials than the face cue/object targettrials (p = 0.001) and the object cue/face targettrials (p = 0.000). Subjects had significantly greater accuracy when tested with the object cue/face targetformat than with the face cue/object targetformat (p = 0.002). The interaction between test type and emotion condition was not significant ($F_{(4,196)}$ = 1.18 , p = 0.321). Subjects' associative memories were similarly inhibited by negative emotion across all test types.

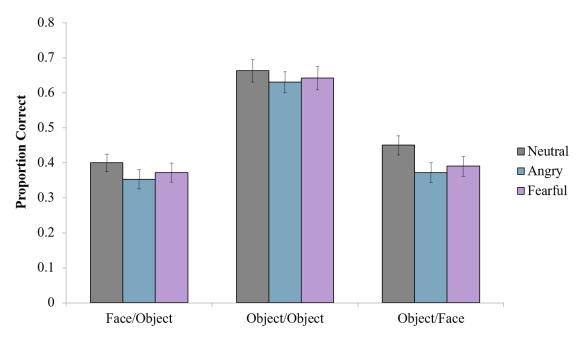


Figure 7: Proportion Correct During Association Test

Theeffect of emotion on associative memory performance, represented by mean proportion correct, separated by test type. Error bars represent across-subject standard error of the mean. Subjects exhibited higher performance for neutral triads compared to emotional triads, with fearful triad performance being numerically higher than angry triad performance. Subjects performed highest for the object cue-object target testing condition. No interaction between emotion condition and testing condition were found.

Proportion of Emotion-Consistent Errors

One possibility is that, if emotion itself captures attention, individuals might remember the emotion itself but not the specific face. To test whether subjects had emotion memory but not memory for specific faces, we measured the proportion of incorrect responses where subjects chose the wrong items but where such items were from triads with the correct emotion conditions (Figure 8). Although participants showed a numerical tendency to select the wrong item from the correct emotion condition for angry or fearful faces more so than neutral faces, the effect of condition

did not reach significance (one-way, repeated measures ANOVA ($F_{(2,98)}$ = 2.08, p = 0.13).

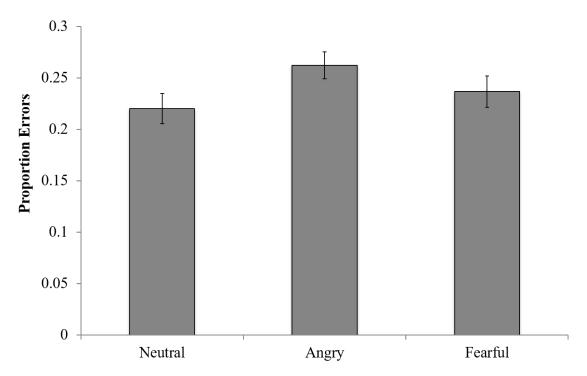


Figure 8: Proportion of Emotion-Consistent Errors During Association Test

The effect of emotion on subjects' abilities to recognize the correct emotion instances when they did not identify the correct, specific face. Error bars represent across-subject standard error of the mean. No overall significance of emotion condition was found.

Discussion

The goal of this study was to better understand how emotion modulates memory. We investigated how the presence of negative emotion affects the formation of associative memories, and if different types of negative emotions cause varying effects. Two competinghypotheses for how negative emotion influences associative memory were tested. The first hypothesis is that the presence of negative emotion, regardless of specific type, would attract attention to the emotional stimulus at the expense of memory for associated information. The second hypothesis is that fear would lead to stronger associative memory formation compared to anger because fear would direct attention to potential threats in the environment. To test these hypotheses, subjects studied three-item pairings consisting of two neutral objects and a face displaying either a neutral, angry, or fearful expression. Subjects were tested on their memory for individual objects as well as associative memories for the three item pairings they studied originally. Although there was no difference in memory for individual items, neutral triads were better remembered. There was no significant difference between the two negative emotions, anger and fear, in terms of subjects' recognition of individual items or associative test performance. Based off this information, our data support thefirst hypothesis, indicating that negative emotion inhibits associative memory formation independent of specific type.

Negative Emotion Inhibits Associative Memory Formation

Our results support the typical findings of prior research investigating this topic.

Many studies have shown that the presence of negative emotion decreases the

associative binding of items within their proper context, leading to fragmented associative memories (Bisby & Burgess, 2014, 2017; Madan, Caplan, Lau, & Fujiwara, 2012; Mather & Knight, 2008; Rimmele, Davachi, Petrov, Dougal, & Phelps, 2011). Although the reason behind this is not entirely understood, it has been theorized that negative emotion disrupts associative binding of peripheral information (Touryan, Marian, & Shimamura, 2007), or that negative emotion disrupts associative encoding by impairing pattern completion- a series of neural connections that, if triggered, fire one another and lead to memory recall- and therefore the event as a whole (Bisby, Horner, Bush, & Burgess, 2018). Regardless of the reasoning behind such theories, based off the consistent results and since anger and fear caused similar effects, we can conclude that negative emotion in general inhibits associative memory formation.

Associative Impairment Present forBoth Fear and Anger

Though our second hypothesis predicted associative memory differences between angry and fearful triads due to their varying sources of threat, this was not the case as both types of emotional triads produced comparable levels of impairment. Prior work has shown that selective attention enhances encoding of highly relevant stimuli, with the most emotional stimuli being ofthe greatest importance and therefore being encoded the strongest(Schupp et al., 2003). Fearful faces themselves might be less relevant compared to the environments around them since the cause of the emotion must be located in the surroundings. Alternatively, attention may also be captured by the presence of threat. Prior research has shown that people automatically turn their attention towards stimuli that pose a threat, a potential evolutionary trait acquired to alert us to danger (Öhman et al., 2001). Based off this information, one would predict

that angry stimuli would capture one's focus and lead to decreased encoding of the surrounding environment, while fearful stimuli would redirect focus towards the surrounding environment and therefore increase encoding of the paired items. Our results instead indicate that the angry and fearful triads did not differentially recruit this selective attention mechanism. This information leads us to believe that it is emotion in general that influences attention, and that anger and fear may not be discriminated in terms of their emotional significance and encoding, leading to the similar associative memory results that our data show. However, it is possible that fearful faces sometimes do direct attention toward the environment, but that our stimuli did not pose any degree of real threat. In future studies, we could use physiological measures of arousal to test for evidence of threat associated with fearful and angry faces. However, presently, our data are more consistent with the hypothesis that selective attention is modulated via emotional significance, rather than by threat.

An alternative hypothesis to that of the selective attention mechanism for how associative memory is inhibited via negative emotion is that negative emotion causes anxiety, which then causes poor associative encoding. Studies indicate that the feeling of anxiety in the presence of an angry, or threatening, face inhibits processing efficiency, which leads to decreased encoding and poorer associative memory(Derakshan & Koster, 2010). Increased anxiety may also be present in the fear condition; rather than viewing the face itself as threatening, the threat stems from the environment, causing a similar feeling of anxiousness, though from a different source. Our data show similar associative memory effects from angry and fearful triads,

indicating that emotional arousal leads to a poor state for encoding. So, our data could be the result of anxiety as a response to the presence of threat.

Differential Effects of Associative and Item Memory

Our results also support prior work showing that negative emotion affects associative memory differently from item memory. A long line of research has shown that portions of the medial temporal lobe (MTL) are critical for forming memories(Stark et al., 2002). One subregion, the hippocampus, is especially important for forming associative memories, while others support memory for individual items(Bisby & Burgess, 2014). Specifically, our data show associative memory deficits without differences in item recognition between conditions. This provides further support for the idea that the two types of memory, associative and specific item, are supported by different mechanisms. Recognition relies upon MTL structures other than the hippocampus, and retrieval of a single item does not necessarily rely on contextual details or item associations and mainly requires extra-hippocampal support (Montaldi & Mayes, 2010), while associative memory relies heavily upon those factors and requires hippocampal involvement (O'Keefe & Nadel, 1978). This may explain why we found differences in how negative emotion affected associative memory versus item memory. However, we did not test item memory for the faces, so it is possible that the conditions differed in terms of how well the faces were remembered.

Amygdala Involvement

Located near the hippocampus, the amygdala, which is involved in emotion regulation, has been shown to play a role in memory. Via connectivity with the

MTL, the amygdala can enhance encoding of relevant information. Some work suggests that amygdala activation indexes fear (Davis, 1992; LeDoux, 2007), whereas later work shows that it responds to salient stimuli more broadly(Cunningham & Brosch, 2012). Our behavioral finding is more in line with this latter account of amygdala processing. While no neural measures of amygdala activation were available in this study, we show that negative emotion affects behavior similarly, without a special role for fear in emotional memory.

Arousal State Influences Encoding and Retrieval

Finally, the associative memory deficit was present throughout the various ways the information was tested(e.g., the cue vs. targetlayouts). When subjects were tested on object-object associations (e.g., there was no face and therefore no emotion present during the test trial), the deficit for negative emotion remained. The presence of emotion increases arousal during memory encoding, leading to the release of neurotransmitters that modulate memory strength(Cahill & McGaugh, 1996). When retrieving an emotional event, the amygdala and related brain structures may become re-activated, causing one to be in a similar state of arousal as to when the memory was formed. If this re-activation is too weak or fails to occur, retrieval is suboptimal and memory accuracy decreases (Buchanan, 2007). Thus, it seems that it was not the emotional item capturing subjects' attention during the test, but the subjects' differing states of arousal during encoding and retrieval that led to ourresult; the strength of the negative arousal that was present during encoding was likely absent or too weak during retrieval, hindering subjects' abilities to recall the item pairings.

Broader Impacts

Eyewitness testimonies play an important role in the criminal justice system.

These testimonies depend upon witnesses' abilities to remember not only individual elements of events (e.g., having seen a specific person before), but remember how the elements of the event are associated with one another (e.g., having seen the person and the gun together). The events involved are usually emotionally charged but past studies on the influence of emotion on memory have focused primarily on how people remember individual elements rather than associations between multiple elements.

When witnesses provide their testimonies, it is important for them to remember not only the faces of the perpetrators, but the clothes the perpetrators were wearing along with other associated details that may help identify them.

It has been shown that eyewitness testimonies are often unreliable as emotional stress leads to the weakening of memories; negative emotion present during an event or period of recall significantly hinders one's ability to remember details about the event (Kassin, Ellsworth, & Smith, 1989). This is believed to be due to the idea that there is a decreased capacity to process information in a state of heightened emotional arousal. Therefore, these testimonies are filled with gaps that the brain attempts to fill in with information based off other surrounding pieces of evidence, as well as biases due to personal experiences.

Results from my thesisdemonstrate challenges involving eyewitness testimonies.

Data show that emotion in general, both anger and fear, disrupt associative memory processes, thus the validity of eyewitness testimonies falls further into question. Data also reveal that anger and fear do not have different effects on associative memory,

which implies that witness testimonies involving different types of emotional events provide similar amounts of unreliability. Furthermore, results from this study, along with future variations of it, could provide potential clinical applications involving victims of traumatic experiences, specifically in eyewitness situations. If we understand the mechanisms of how negative emotion influences associative memory, we may discover methods of counteracting the impairment via various memory-improving techniques. This could lead to increased memory accuracy for emotional events and thus increased accuracy and reliability of eyewitness testimonies.

Future Directions

Although current data indicate that fearful and angry stimuli cause similar associative memory effects, it is possible that the fearful faces did not elicit enough threat perception to orient participants towards the environment. Future research would likelyinvolve the use of stimuli of higher emotional valence toachieve the desired direction of attention. It would also be beneficial touse Galvanic Skin Response (GSR) to monitor subjects' states of emotional arousal via changes in their sweat gland activity. With GSR we could ensure that subjects do not merely view emotional stimuli but become emotionally aroused themselves. With their electrodermal activity being measured, we could also test whether fear and anger cause varying states of arousal. Furthermore, we could utilize Functional Magnetic Resonance Imaging (fMRI) to measure subjects' amygdala activation; thus, we could determine if anger and fear cause varying levels of amygdala activationand we could monitor the relationship between associative memory formation and amygdala activation.

Conclusions

The purpose of this experiment was to study two different types of negative emotion and their potential differing effects on associative memory. Overall, our data found the same effect for both emotion conditions, indicating emotional content captures attention, reducing resources available to encode related information. Our results also indicate that the source of threat, whether it be the stimuli themselves if angry or the surrounding environment if fearful, does not influence the strength of associative memories. With this contribution, we further support the idea that negative emotion inhibits associative memory formation and are brought closer tounderstanding how the effect is modulated.

Bibliography

- Adolphs, R., Cahill, L., Schul, R., & Babinsky, R. (1997). Impaired declarative memory for emotional material following bilateral amygdala damage in humans. *Learning and Memory*, *4*(3), 291–300. https://doi.org/10.1101/lm.4.3.291
- Bisby, J. A., & Burgess, N. (2014). Negative affect impairs associative memory but not item memory. *Learning and Memory*, *21*(1), 21–27. https://doi.org/10.1101/lm.032409.113
- Bisby, J. A., & Burgess, N. (2017, October 1). Differential effects of negative emotion on memory for items and associations, and their relationship to intrusive imagery. *Current Opinion in Behavioral Sciences*, Vol. 17, pp. 124–132. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cobeha.2017.07.012
- Bisby, J. A., Horner, A. J., Bush, D., & Burgess, N. (2018). Negative emotional content disrupts the coherence of episodic memories. *Journal of Experimental Psychology: General*, *147*(2), 243–256. https://doi.org/10.1037/xge0000356
- Bradley, M. M., Greenwald, M. K., Petry, M. C., & Lang, P. J. (1992). Remembering Pictures: Pleasure and Arousal in Memory. *Journal of Experimental Psychology: Learning, Memory, and Cognition*, *18*(2), 379–390. https://doi.org/10.1037/0278-7393.18.2.379
- Brown, R., & Kulik, J. (1977). Flashbulb memories. *Cognition*, *5*(1), 73–99. https://doi.org/10.1016/0010-0277(77)90018-X
- Buchanan, T. W. (2007). Retrieval of Emotional Memories. *Psychological Bulletin*, *133*(5), 761–779. https://doi.org/10.1037/0033-2909.133.5.761
- Cahill, L., & McGaugh, J. L. (1996). Modulation of memory storage. *Current Opinion in Neurobiology*, *6*(2), 237–242. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0959-4388(96)80078-X
- Chiu, Y. C., Dolcos, F., Gonsalves, B. D., & Cohen, N. J. (2013). On opposing effects of emotion on contextual or relational memory. *Frontiers in Psychology*, Vol. 4. https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2013.00103
- Cohen, N. J., & Eichenbaum, H. (1993). *Memory, amnesia, and the hippocampal system*. MIT Press.
- Cunningham, W. A., & Brosch, T. (2012). Motivational salience: Amygdala tuning from traits, needs, values, and goals. *Current Directions in Psychological Science*, *21*(1), 54–59. https://doi.org/10.1177/0963721411430832

- Davis, M. (1992). The Role of the Amygdala in Fear and Anxiety. *Annual Review of Neuroscience*, *15*(1), 353–375. https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev.ne.15.030192.002033
- Derakshan, N., & Koster, E. H. W. (2010). Processing efficiency in anxiety: Evidence from eye-movements during visual search. *Behavior Research and Therapy*, 1180–1185. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.brat.2010.08.009
- Dolcos, F., LaBar, K. S., & Cabeza, R. (2004). Interaction between the amygdala and the medial temporal lobe memory system predicts better memory for emotional events. *Neuron*, *42*(5), 855–863. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0896-6273(04)00289-2
- Kassin, S. M., Ellsworth, P. C., & Smith, V. L. (1989). The "General Acceptance" of Psychological Research on Eyewitness Testimony: A Survey of the Experts. *American Psychologist*, *44*(8), 1089–1098. https://doi.org/10.1037/0003-066X.44.8.1089
- LeDoux, J. (2007, October 23). The amygdala. *Current Biology*, Vol. 17. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cub.2007.08.005
- Madan, C. R., Caplan, J. B., Lau, C. S. M., & Fujiwara, E. (2012). Emotional arousal does not enhance association-memory. *Journal of Memory and Language*, 66(4), 695–716. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jml.2012.04.001
- Mather, M., & Knight, M. (2008). The Emotional Harbinger Effect: Poor Context Memory for Cues That Previously Predicted Something Arousing. *Emotion*, *8*(6), 850–860. https://doi.org/10.1037/a0014087
- Montaldi, D., & Mayes, A. R. (2010). The role of recollection and familiarity in the functional differentiation of the medial temporal lobes. *Hippocampus*, *20*(11), 1291–1314. https://doi.org/10.1002/hipo.20853
- O'Keefe, J., & Nadel, L. (1978). *The Hippocampus as a Cognitive Map*. New York: Clarendon Press.
- Öhman, A., Flykt, A., & Esteves, F. (2001). Emotion drives attention: Detecting the snake in the grass. *Journal of Experimental Psychology: General*, *130*(3), 466–478. https://doi.org/10.1037/0096-3445.130.3.466
- Pezdek, K. (2003). Event memory and autobiographical memory for the events of September 11, 2001. *Applied Cognitive Psychology*, *17*(9), 1033–1045. https://doi.org/10.1002/acp.984
- Phelps, E. A. (2004, April). Human emotion and memory: Interactions of the amygdala and hippocampal complex. *Current Opinion in Neurobiology*, Vol. 14, pp. 198–202. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.conb.2004.03.015

- Rimmele, U., Davachi, L., Petrov, R., Dougal, S., & Phelps, E. A. (2011). Emotion Enhances the Subjective Feeling of Remembering, Despite Lower Accuracy for Contextual Details. *Emotion*, *11*(3), 553–562. https://doi.org/10.1037/a0024246
- Schupp, H. T., Junghöfer, M., Weike, A. I., & Hamm, A. O. (2003). Emotional facilitation of sensory processing in the visual cortex. *Psychological Science*, *14*(1), 7–13. https://doi.org/10.1111/1467-9280.01411
- Stark, C. E. L., Bayley, P. J., & Squire, L. R. (2002). Recognition memory for single items and for associations is similarly impaired following damage to the hippocampal region. *Learning and Memory*, 9(5), 238–242. https://doi.org/10.1101/lm.51802
- Tottenham, N., Tanaka, J. W., Leon, A. C., McCarry, T., Nurse, M., Hare, T. A., ... Nelson, C. (2009). The NimStim set of facial expressions: Judgments from untrained research participants. *Psychiatry Research*, *168*(3), 242–249. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.psychres.2008.05.006
- Touryan, S. R., Marian, D. E., & Shimamura, A. P. (2007). Effect of negative emotional pictures on associative memory for peripheral information. *Memory*, *15*(2), 154–166. https://doi.org/10.1080/09658210601151310