

Evidence Against Associative Blocking as a Cause of Cue-Independent Retrieval-Induced Forgetting

Justin C. Hulbert,^{1,2} Geeta Shivde,³ and Michael C. Anderson¹

¹MRC Cognition and Brain Sciences Unit, Cambridge, UK, ²University of Cambridge, UK, ³West Chester University, PA, USA

Abstract. Selectively retrieving an item from long-term memory reduces the accessibility of competing traces, a phenomenon known as *retrieval-induced forgetting* (RIF). RIF exhibits cue independence, or the tendency for forgetting to generalize to novel test cues, suggesting an inhibitory basis for this phenomenon. An alternative view (Camp, Pecher, & Schmidt, 2007; Camp et al., 2009; Perfect et al., 2004) suggests that using novel test cues to measure cue independence actually engenders associative interference when participants covertly supplement retrieval with practiced cues that then associatively block retrieval. Accordingly, the *covert-cueing hypothesis* assumes that the relative strength of the practiced items at final test – and not the inhibition levied on the unpracticed items during retrieval practice – underlies cue-independent forgetting. As such, this perspective predicts that strengthening practiced items by any means, even if not via retrieval practice, should induce forgetting. Contrary to these predictions, however, we present clear evidence that cue-independent forgetting is induced by retrieval practice and not by repeated study exposures. This dissociation occurred despite significant, comparable levels of strengthening of practiced items in each case, and despite the use of Anderson and Spellman's original (1995) independent probe method criticized by covert-cueing theorists as being especially conducive to associative blocking. These results demonstrate that cue-independent RIF is unrelated to the strengthening of practiced items, and thereby fail to support a key prediction of the covert-cueing hypothesis. The results, instead, favor a role of inhibition in resolving retrieval interference.

Keywords: memory, retrieval-induced forgetting, inhibition, cue independence, retrieval specificity, covert cueing, associative blocking, cognitive control

People are often reminded of past experiences with seemingly little effort. Automatic retrieval is considerably less useful, however, whenever one seeks to recall something other than the very first thing that comes to mind given a reminder. In fact, when a cue is linked to many different memories, activation of these alternatives is known to interfere with retrieval of a particular trace (Anderson, 1974; Watkins, 1978). Thus, automatic retrieval often threatens to undermine our goals when selective retrieval of a particular experience is required, demanding an explanation as to how we manage to successfully recall particular memories. According to one perspective, the retrieval of a target memory can be advanced by reducing the activation of competing memories through inhibition, thereby limiting the interference those competitors beget. Once inhibited, it follows that those items should remain less accessible even on later occasions when they are required.

Evidence in favor of the inhibition view comes, in part, from a well-established behavioral aftereffect of selective retrieval: *retrieval-induced forgetting* (hereinafter RIF). RIF refers to the phenomenon whereby selectively retrieving a desired memory impairs access to related memories on a

later test (Anderson, Bjork, & Bjork, 1994; see Anderson, 2003; Levy & Anderson, 2002 for reviews), an effect thought to be produced by inhibition. The inhibitory control interpretation of RIF is supported by the tendency for this form of memory impairment to be observable even when measured with novel test cues designed to bypass non-inhibitory sources of forgetting, such as associative interference. Concerns have been raised, however, about whether the novel test cues, termed *independent probes*, truly eliminate associative interference, or might instead prompt participants to covertly generate additional cues that cause interference. Here we test a key prediction of this *covert-cueing hypothesis* to distinguish it from an inhibition view by examining whether cross-category RIF arises from a process specific to the act of recall, a property of RIF known as *retrieval specificity* (Anderson, 2003).

Evidence for Inhibitory Processes in RIF

To investigate the role of inhibitory processes in episodic retrieval, Anderson et al. (1994) developed the

Table 1. Final recall accuracy for the *Retrieval Practice* (RP) and *Extra Presentation* (EP) groups, by condition, with examples of each in parentheses and standard deviations in brackets. Measures of within-category facilitation and inhibition involved the comparison of *Unrelated P+* or *P-* items to *Unrelated NP-Dissimilar* or *-Similar* items, respectively. Overall cross-category inhibition was computed by comparing the *Unrelated NP-Combined* result to the *Related NP-Combined* score, within each group. The data for the critical interaction between group (RP or EP) and cross-category inhibition are highlighted in gray

Category relatedness	Retrieval practice (RP) condition				
	Practiced category (RED)		Unpracticed category (FOOD)		
	RP+ (BLOOD)	RP- (TOMATO)	NRP-similar (STRAWBERRY)	NRP-dissimilar (CRACKERS)	NRP-combined
Unrelated	65% [23]	22% [25]	35% [28]	42% [26]	38% [19]
Related	65% [27]	25% [22]	24% [26]	37% [29]	30% [21]
Category relatedness	Extra presentations (EP) condition				
	Practiced category (RED)		Unpracticed category (FOOD)		
	EP+ (BLOOD)	EP- (TOMATO)	NEP-similar (STRAWBERRY)	NEP-dissimilar (CRACKERS)	NEP-combined
Unrelated	69% [29]	28% [27]	30% [25]	39% [27]	34% [20]
Related	63% [20]	26% [23]	28% [26]	42% [27]	35% [20]

68 retrieval-practice paradigm. In this procedure, participants
 69 first encode a list of category-exemplar pairs (e.g., FRUITS-
 70 BANANA, DRINKS-SCOTCH, and FRUITS-ORANGE).
 71 Participants are then prompted to retrieve half of the exem-
 72 plars from half of the categories a number of times each, given
 73 category and word-stem cues (e.g., FRUITS-OR_). Of key
 74 interest is the effect this selective retrieval practice has on
 75 the retention of the remaining unpracticed members of prac-
 76 ticed categories (FRUITS-BANANA) relative to the retention
 77 of items from baseline categories that were also studied but for
 78 which no members received retrieval practice (DRINKS-
 79 SCOTCH). To measure these effects, a category-cued recall
 80 test for all studied items is administered following a short
 81 delay. As one might expect, participants' recall performance
 82 is enhanced for practiced items (hereinafter referred to as
 83 *RP+* items, like ORANGE), compared to performance on
 84 *NRP* items whose categories received no retrieval practice,
 85 such as SCOTCH. More interestingly, unpracticed items from
 86 practiced categories (labeled *RP-* items, e.g., BANANA) are
 87 recalled more poorly than are the baseline *NRP* items.

88 Forgetting under these circumstances is consistent with
 89 an inhibitory control process that resolves interference during
 90 retrieval practice. These basic findings could also be
 91 explained by non-inhibitory mechanisms, however. Consider
 92 McGeoch's (1942) response competition theory and the later
 93 relative-strength/ratio-rule models it has inspired (e.g.,
 94 Anderson, 1983; Mensink & Raaijmakers, 1988). From such
 95 perspectives, strengthening a cue-target association should
 96 make it harder to recall other associates of that cue because
 97 the stronger associate is recalled persistently, blocking
 98 weaker ones. In this way, *associative blocking* (see Anderson
 99 & Bjork, 1994 for a discussion) can account for impaired
 100 recall of *RP-* items without appealing to inhibition.

101 Clearly, retrieval strengthens practiced memories; never-
 102 theless, other data suggest that RIF is not directly linked to
 103 biasing effects of strengthening. For instance, RIF has been

104 observed in the absence of any significant facilitation effects
 105 for practiced items (Gomez-Ariza, Lechuga, Pelegrina, &
 106 Bajo, 2005; Veling & van Knippenberg, 2004) and under con-
 107 ditions in which retrieval-based strengthening is rendered
 108 impossible (Storm, Bjork, Bjork, & Nestojko, 2006; Storm
 109 & Nestojko, 2009). Conversely, strengthening *RP+* items
 110 has failed to induce RIF when *RP-* items have weak preexist-
 111 ing associations to the shared cue (Anderson et al., 1994;
 112 Bäuml, 1998; Shivde & Anderson, 2001), when participants
 113 are induced into a negative mood (Bäuml & Kuhbandner,
 114 2007), are placed under stress (Kössler, Engler, Reither, &
 115 Kissler, 2009) or divided attention (Román, Soriano,
 116 Gomez-Ariza, & Bajo, 2009) during retrieval practice, or
 117 when procedural manipulations lessen the interference of
 118 *RP-* items prior to retrieval practice (Storm, Bjork, & Bjork,
 119 2007). Together, these findings suggest that strengthening
 120 practiced items is neither necessary nor sufficient to produce
 121 RIF, contrary to predictions of an associative blocking
 122 hypothesis.

123 Failures to identify correlations between behavioral
 124 strengthening and forgetting (e.g., Aslan & Bäuml, in press;
 125 Staudigl, Hanslmayr, & Bäuml, 2010) have been comple-
 126 mented by recent functional neuroimaging and electrophysio-
 127 logical findings that demonstrate correspondences between
 128 the reduction in the neural markers of competition and greater
 129 levels of forgetting that are dissociable from the effects of
 130 target facilitation (Kuhl, Dudukovic, Kahn, & Wagner,
 131 2007; Spitzer, Hanslmayr, Opitz, Mecklinger, & Bäuml,
 132 2009; Staudigl et al., 2010; Wimber et al., 2008; Wimber,
 133 Rutschmann, Greenlee, & Bäuml, 2009). Such evidence sug-
 134 gests that common neural processes do not support the
 135 strengthening of practiced items and forgetting of
 136 competitors.

137 A further source of evidence favoring the inhibition view
 138 is the observation that RIF occurs even when associative
 139 interference processes ought to be ruled out by the testing

140	conditions of the experiment. According to the inhibition	199
141	view, inhibition reduces the level of activation of the competing	200
142	item itself, rather than influencing the associative	201
143	bonds linking it to the original category. In contrast, the associative	202
144	blocking perspective holds that difficulty recalling	203
145	<i>RP</i> — exemplars arises because the category cue used to perform	204
146	retrieval practice (FRUIT) reappears during the final	205
147	test and overwhelmingly elicits the exemplar that had been	206
148	practiced with that category (ORANGE) during the retrieval	207
149	practice phase. Thus, if a final test is constructed so that the	208
150	accessibility of the unpracticed competitor (BANANA) is	209
151	measured with a novel cue unrelated to practiced items	210
152	(MONKEY-B_), retrieval should progress unimpeded by	211
153	the stronger FRUIT-ORANGE association. Inhibition, on	212
154	the other hand, predicts that RIF should be cue independent	213
155	and generalize to novel test cues.	214
156	The cue-independence property of RIF has been demonstrated	215
157	numerous times. Anderson and Spellman (1995) found, for	216
158	example, that when participants performed retrieval	217
159	practice on some members of a category (e.g., RED-	218
160	BLOOD), it not only caused <i>within-category RIF</i> of other	219
161	members studied under that category (RED-TOMATO), but	220
162	also of other red things that happened to be studied and	221
163	tested under an entirely different category cue (FOOD-STRAW-	222
164	BERRY; hereinafter, first-order inhibition). Moreover, the	223
165	memory impairment extended to cross-category items that	224
166	were merely similar to unpracticed competitors without being	225
167	members of the practiced category (CRACKERS studied	226
168	under the FOOD category, which is similar to TOMATO	227
169	studied under the RED category, in that both exemplars are	228
170	foods; hereinafter, second-order inhibition).	229
171	Both types of <i>cross-category inhibition</i> (first- and second-	230
172	order) indicate that RIF is observable even when recall is	231
173	tested with a different cue from that used during retrieval	232
174	practice. Likewise, a broad base of empirical studies has	233
175	identified cue independence under a variety of conditions in	234
176	both episodic and semantic memory and for materials ranging	235
177	from homographs to propositions, orthographic representations,	236
178	phonological information, and taxonomic categories (e.g.,	237
179	Anderson & Bell, 2001; Anderson, Green, & McCulloch,	238
180	2000; Aslan, Bäuml, & Grundgeiger, 2007; Camp, Pecher,	239
181	& Schmidt, 2005; Levy, McVeigh, Marful, & Anderson,	240
182	2007; MacLeod & Saunders, 2005; Saunders & MacLeod,	241
183	2006; Shivde & Anderson, 2001; see, however, Camp,	242
184	Pecher, & Schmidt, 2007; Perfect et al., 2004; Williams &	243
185	Zacks, 2001 for exceptions). More generally, converging	244
186	evidence for cue independence comes from the observation of	245
187	RIF on tests involving item-specific cues designed to circum-	246
188	vent associative blocking, including item recognition tests	247
189	(e.g., Ford, Keating, & Patel, 2004; Gomez-Ariza et al.,	248
190	2005; Hicks & Starns, 2004; Román et al., 2009; Soriano,	249
191	Jiménez, Román, & Bajo, 2009; Spitzer & Bäuml, 2007;	
192	Starns & Hicks, 2004; Veling & van Knippenberg, 2004;	
193	Verde, 2004; but see Koutstaal, Schacter, Johnson, &	
194	Galluccio, 1999; and also Butler, Williams, Zacks, & Maki,	
195	2001; Perfect, Moulin, Conway, & Perry, 2002 for potential	
196	distinctions), fragment completion (Bajo, Gomez-Ariza, Fer-	
197	nandez, & Marful, 2006), and lexical decision (Veling & van	
198	Knippenberg, 2004). Hence, retrieval practice appears to	
	induce forgetting that reflects changes to the state of the item	199
	itself, consistent with an inhibitory underpinning.	200
	Although the property of cue independence enjoys broad	201
	support, some authors have questioned whether evidence for	202
	cue-independent forgetting might reflect blocking rather	203
	than inhibition. Of key concern is the extent to which	204
	putatively independent test cues intended to circumvent	205
	associative blocking are truly independent. For instance,	206
	the presumed independence of category cues in Anderson	207
	and Spellman's (1995) cross-category inhibition paradigm	208
	has been disputed by Perfect et al. (2004) in addition to	209
	Camp and colleagues (2007, 2009). They argue that in trying	210
	to recall a target item (e.g., FOOD-STRAWBERRY),	211
	participants may supplement the explicitly presented category	212
	cue (FOOD) with additional cues, like the practiced	213
	category (RED). In so doing, they may unintentionally instigate	214
	blocking from the strong, practiced items (e.g., RED-	215
	BLOOD) even though the overtly provided cue (FOOD)	216
	is not related to the practiced item (RED-BLOOD). By this	217
	view, when trying to recall FOOD-STRAWBERRY, partic-	218
	ipants should persistently intrude BLOOD to the exclusion	219
	of STRAWBERRY.	220
	In fact, it has been argued that the cross-category inhibition	221
	procedure, in which cue independence was first estab-	222
	lished, is especially ripe for covert cueing. In this	223
	procedure, independent probes are studied in relation to	224
	multiple exemplars (e.g., FOOD-STRAWBERRY; FOOD-	225
	RADISH) that are implicitly related to other cross-category	226
	exemplars (RED-TOMATO). Thus, the FOOD category	227
	may become associated with RED because they contain	228
	similar exemplars. Indeed, when the cross-category semantic	229
	probes of Anderson and Spellman (1995) are replaced with	230
	item-specific, episodic, independent probes designed to	231
	minimize covert cueing, RIF has sometimes been eliminated	232
	(Camp et al., 2007; Perfect et al., 2004; but see, however,	233
	Anderson & Bell, 2001; Anderson, Green, et al., 2000;	234
	Aslan, Bäuml, & Pastotter, 2007; Saunders & MacLeod,	235
	2006; Shivde & Anderson, 2001 for examples of item-	236
	specific episodic or semantic independent probes that, nev-	237
	ertheless, reveal cue-independent forgetting). If associative	238
	blocking instigated by covert cueing contributes to cue-inde-	239
	pendent forgetting in the cross-category inhibition procedure	240
	(and perhaps more generally), one cannot clearly attribute	241
	these findings to inhibition. But if associative blocking	242
	causes cross-category inhibition, one would have to predict	243
	that strengthening the practiced items by any means – not	244
	just retrieval practice – should also give rise to blocking	245
	and, in turn RIF. This underlying premise – that strengthen-	246
	ing causes blocking – is inconsistent with findings indicating	247
	that RIF is specifically induced by competitive retrieval	248
	practice, to which we next turn our attention.	249
	Evidence for Inhibition Processes Specific	250
	to Retrieval	251
	According to inhibition accounts, the need to isolate a target	252
	trace in the face of interference from highly active competi-	253
	tors triggers inhibition. Consequently, competitive retrieval	254

255 should place disproportionate demands on inhibitory mech-
 256 anisms and drive the memory deficits observed in RIF.

257 The most straightforward evidence for this prediction
 258 comes from studies that contrast the effects of retrieval prac-
 259 tice with those of repeated reexposure to the same stimuli.
 260 Here all aspects of the retrieval-practice paradigm are matched
 261 across two groups of participants, except for the events during
 262 the practice phase. One group performs *Retrieval Practice*
 263 trials, as usual (e.g., recalling ORANGE given FRUITS-
 264 OR_), whereas the *Extra Presentations* group is instead pro-
 265 vided with the intact category-exemplar pair for additional
 266 study (FRUITS-ORANGE). Importantly, the inhibition
 267 account predicts that, to the extent that reexposure poses very
 268 few demands on interference resolution, additional presenta-
 269 tions should not induce forgetting. In contrast, non-inhibitory
 270 explanations, such as blocking, predict that forgetting should
 271 occur regardless of how the practiced items are strengthened.

272 Studies pitting these predictions against each other have
 273 generally found RIF after *Retrieval Practice* but not after
 274 *Extra Presentations*, provided that output interference is
 275 controlled (Bäuml, 1996, 1997, 2002; Saunders, Fernandes,
 276 & Kosnes, 2009). The dependency of RIF on active retrieval
 277 generalizes to retrieval of visuospatial information (Ciranni
 278 & Shimamura, 1999), homograph meanings (Shivde &
 279 Anderson, 2001), propositions (Anderson & Bell, 2001),
 280 and arithmetic facts (Campbell & Phenix, 2009), suggesting
 281 that it is a general attribute of RIF (see, however, Verde,
 282 2009, for a case in which repeated study exposures appear
 283 to induce impairment, with unrelated pairings). This pattern
 284 of behavioral findings converges with event-related potential
 285 (Johansson, Aslan, Bäuml, Gabel, & Mecklinger, 2007),
 286 oscillatory (Staudigl et al., 2010), and functional magnetic
 287 resonance imaging (Wimber et al., 2009) indicators that
 288 RIF is tied to neural processes other than those involved
 289 in simple reexposure and strengthening.

290 Just as *Extra Presentations* typically circumvent RIF by
 291 reducing or eliminating the rivalry between competitors,
 292 *Retrieval Practice* should produce inhibitory forgetting only
 293 to the extent it involves competition between associates.
 294 Indeed, Anderson, Bjork, and Bjork (2000) discovered that
 295 asking their participants to recall a category name, given an
 296 intact exemplar (FR_-ORANGE), fails to induce forgetting
 297 of related but unpracticed FRUITS, despite engaging retrieval.
 298 This and other methods of manipulating the degree of
 299 competition (e.g., Bajo et al., 2006) have uncovered signif-
 300 icant differences in forgetting, despite nearly identical
 301 amounts of retrieval-based strengthening on practiced
 302 items.

303 Despite the evidence for the retrieval specificity of
 304 within-category RIF, no study has yet examined whether
 305 retrieval specificity generalizes to cue-independent forget-
 306 ting. Generalizing retrieval specificity to cue-independent
 307 forgetting is of fundamental import to understanding RIF.
 308 Because the inhibition and covert-cueing accounts make
 309 starkly different predictions on this matter, we endeavored
 310 to replicate cue-independent forgetting and test whether or
 311 not the forgetting is retrieval specific using a paradigm that
 312 critics have suggested produces RIF largely on the basis of
 313 covert cueing.

The Current Study

314 Prior evidence for retrieval specificity and strength indepen-
 315 dence is at odds with the covert-cueing account of RIF, inas-
 316 much as this theory presupposes that strengthening underlies
 317 RIF, as Camp et al. (2007) acknowledged. Nevertheless, the
 318 present study sought to explicitly address the ongoing
 319 debate over whether associative blocking underlies
 320 cue-independent forgetting. To do so, we adopted the very
 321 paradigm that has been identified in discussions of covert
 322 cueing as being among the most likely to incite covert cue-
 323 ing: The cross-category paradigm used in Experiment 1 of
 324 Anderson and Spellman (1995). As such, we aimed to pro-
 325 vide fertile ground for testing whether the covert-cueing
 326 hypothesis is tenable as the driving mechanism behind
 327 cue-independent RIF.

328 In the current experiment, half of our participants per-
 329 formed the standard *Retrieval Practice* task. A separate
 330 group was given an equal number of opportunities to restu-
 331 dy the intact to-be-practiced pairings. Assuming that
 332 *Retrieval Practice* and *Extra Presentations* strengthen the
 333 to-be-practiced items to similar degrees, then the associative
 334 blocking hypothesis predicts that cross-category RIF should
 335 occur for both groups. This prediction follows because there
 336 is no reason to suppose these two groups would differ in
 337 how often they use covert cueing during the final test and
 338 because strong practiced items are present in each case. If,
 339 however, cross-category RIF is caused by inhibition, this
 340 effect should be specific to the retrieval practice group,
 341 wherein competition needs to be resolved, despite the fact
 342 that both methods of practice strengthen practiced items.

343 On our final test, we retained the original, category-cued
 344 recall test used by Anderson and Spellman (1995) and sim-
 345 ilarly opted against the inclusion of item-specific word
 346 stems. Notably, word stems previously have been employed
 347 expressly to reduce the tendency for subjects to use covert
 348 cueing (e.g., Anderson, Green, et al., 2000). Because we
 349 wanted to encourage this process, if it occurs, we omitted
 350 stem cues, thus helping us to avoid prejudicing our ability
 351 to detect forgetting in the *Extra Presentations* condition.
 352 Likewise, the recall test remained unpaced to encourage suf-
 353 ficient time to use more elaborate covert-cueing strategies
 354 (Anderson, 2003).
 355

Method

356 The design, stimuli, and procedures used in the present
 357 study were adopted, in full, from Experiment 1 of Anderson
 358 and Spellman (1995), except where noted.
 359

Participants

360 Ninety-six undergraduates participated in partial fulfillment
 361 of a requirement for an introductory psychology course. Half
 362 were randomly assigned to each of the two practice
 363 conditions.
 364

365

Design and Procedure

366 All participants initially studied six exemplars from each of
 367 four categories (two *Related* and two *Unrelated*) on a pseu-
 368 dorandom learning schedule for 5 s each. Several filler categories
 369 were also included. In the *Related* condition, each
 370 category contained three exemplars that, while studied under
 371 only one category, were cross-categorizable under the other
 372 heading (e.g., RED-CHERRY; FOOD-STRAWBERRY)
 373 and three that were not (e.g., RED-BLOOD; FOOD-
 374 CRACKERS). In the *Unrelated* condition, the categories
 375 were entirely discrete. The stimulus set included three pairs
 376 of *Related* categories (RED and FOOD; FLY and ANIMAL;
 377 LOUD and TOOL). To manipulate category relatedness, any
 378 given participant studied only one interconnected pair of cate-
 379 gories forming the *Related* condition and one category
 380 from each of the other related pairs (such as FLY and
 381 LOUD), forming the *Unrelated* condition. Inclusion of
 382 a given category in the *Related* or *Unrelated* conditions
 383 was counterbalanced across participants.

384 In the phase that directly followed study, participants
 385 practiced exemplars from half of the experimental categories
 386 and all of the filler categories. Within each critical *Practiced*
 387 category, participants practiced three of its six exemplars,
 388 three times each (hereinafter referred to as *P+* items; e.g.,
 389 RED-BLOOD), with the remaining three items serving as
 390 unpracticed competitors (hereinafter, *P-*, e.g., RED-
 391 TOMATO). In *Unpracticed* categories, no items were prac-
 392 ticed; however, three exemplars (hereinafter, *NP-Similar*;
 393 e.g., FOOD-STRAWBERRY) were cross-categorizable with the
 394 *Practiced* category and, thus, were similar to the *Prac-*
 395 *ticed* items; the remaining three were dissimilar (hereinafter,
 396 *NP-Dissimilar* items, such as FOOD-CRACKERS).¹ See
 397 Figure 1 for a schematic of the general design.

398 *Practice Type* was manipulated between participants.
 399 During the practice phase, participants randomly assigned
 400 to the *Retrieval Practice* (RP) group were allowed 7 s to
 401 try to remember the exemplar they had studied when given
 402 the studied category and two-letter-stem as cues. Specifi-
 403 cally, they were to write both words of the pair to the right
 404 of the provided cue. The *Extra Presentations* (EP) group
 405 was afforded the same length of time to copy both the cate-
 406 gory and exemplar from the supplied, intact word pair and
 407 to use any remaining time to continue studying that pairing.
 408 We refer to items studied by the *Retrieval Practice* group as
 409 *RP+*, *RP-*, *NRP-Similar*, and *NRP-Dissimilar*, with items
 410 studied by the *Extra Presentations* group being designated
 411 *EP+*, *EP-*, *NEP-Similar*, and *NEP-Dissimilar*.

412 After a 16-min distractor phase, during which partici-
 413 pants completed an unrelated questionnaire, a test booklet
 414 was distributed with a single category name appearing at
 415 the top of each page. Participants were asked to write down
 416 as many exemplars as they could remember having studied
 417 together with that category cue. A beep sounded every 30 s,
 418 signaling participants to turn the page.

¹ Of course, this between-category similarity only existed in the *Related* condition; in the *Unrelated* condition, the *Practiced* and *Unpracticed* categories were dissimilar. Nevertheless, we retain the names, *NP-Similar* and *NP-Dissimilar* in the *Unrelated* condition, to highlight that these items provide baselines with matching, counterbalanced items against which we compare performance of the corresponding conditions in the *Related* condition.

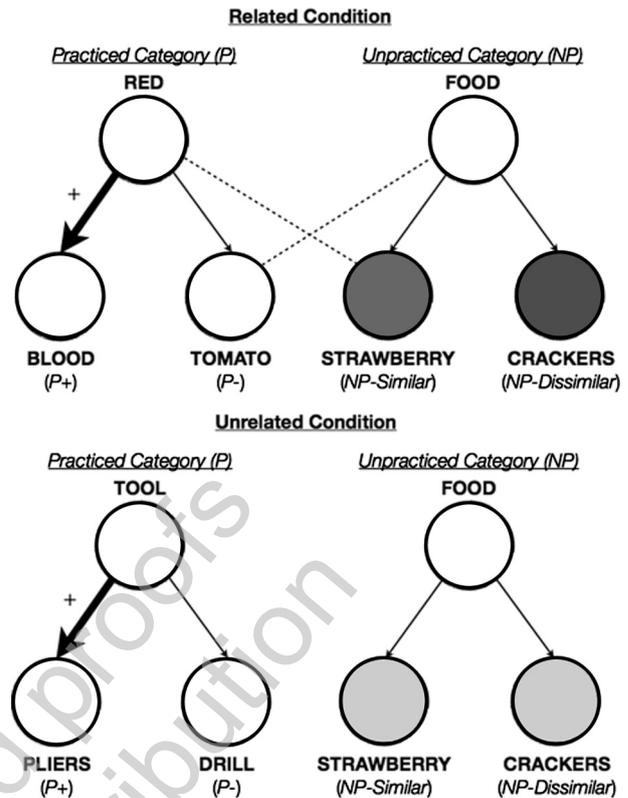


Figure 1. General design of the cross-category retrieval practice procedure, originally developed by Anderson and Spellman (1995). Solid lines indicate studied category-exemplar pairs; heavier lines indicate the subset of those pairs that received practice; thin dashed lines indicate a preexisting, semantic relationship between a particular category cue and an exemplar originally studied under another category. The dark shaded circles (representing *Related* items from nonpracticed categories) are averaged and then compared to the mean of the light gray circles (representing *Unrelated* items from nonpracticed categories) to quantify the overall level of cross-category RIF.

The percentage of critical items correctly recalled on the final category-cued recall test was assessed off-line. Crucially, we employed the measures of within- and cross-category inhibition established by Anderson and Spellman (1995). It is worth highlighting that, in this design, *P-* and *NP-Similar* items were identical across counterbalancing conditions, as are *P+* and *NP-Dissimilar* items. Thus, for a clean assessment of within-category inhibition, it is necessary to compare *Unrelated P-* items to the *Unrelated NP-Similar* condition, which bypasses the confounding effects of *Relatedness* and intrinsic item differences. Using a similar logic to assess facilitation of practiced items, we contrasted *P+* with *Unrelated NP-Dissimilar* items, which were not linked

to any practiced exemplars and involve the same items, across participants.

First-order cross-category inhibition is measured by comparing *NP-Similar* items (STRAWBERRY, for instance) in the *Related* condition to the same set of items (including STRAWBERRY) in the *Unrelated NP-Similar* condition.² In order to capture both first- and second-order cross-category inhibition, in the analyses that follow we combined *Related NP-Similar* and *Related NP-Dissimilar* together for each participant and tested that value against their *Unrelated NP* composite score, thereby comparing the same sets of items that differ only in their semantic relatedness to a practiced category.

Analogous comparisons were applied to the *Retrieval Practice* and *Extra Presentations* conditions. To test whether cross-category RIF is specific to retrieval, we analyzed whether the hypothesized difference between *Related NRP-Similar* and *Unrelated NRP-Similar* conditions reliably interacted with practice type (*RP* or *EP*).

Results

Analyses included learning list, retrieval practice, and final test order counterbalancing as between-participants factors in a repeated-measures, mixed analysis of variance (ANOVA). These factors did not interact with any comparisons of interest.

Retrieval practice success rate. No reliable differences in retrieval practice success were found between *Related* categories ($M = 76\%$, $SD = 21$) and *Unrelated* categories ($M = 71\%$, $SD = 22$), $F(1, 24) = 2.05$, $MSE = .03$, $p = .165$.

Facilitation of practiced items on the final recall test. Performing *Retrieval Practice* facilitated final recall of practiced items relative to the *Unrelated NRP-Dissimilar* baseline ($M = 42\%$) in both the *Unrelated RP+* ($M = 65\%$), $F(1, 48) = 20.76$, $MSE = .12$, $p < .001$, and in the *Related RP+* conditions, ($M = 65\%$), $F(1, 48) = 26.27$, $MSE = .10$, $p < .001$. *Extra Presentations* also facilitated final recall of practiced items when compared to the *Unrelated NEP-Dissimilar* baseline ($M = 39\%$) in the *Unrelated EP+* ($M = 69\%$), $F(1, 48) = 36.88$, $MSE = .12$, $p < .001$, and *Related EP+* conditions ($M = 63\%$), $F(1, 48) = 26.27$, $MSE = .10$, $p < .001$. We found no evidence that the amount of facilitation (on either the *Related* or the *Unrelated* measure) reliably interacted with *Practice Type* (*RP* or *EP*), p values $> .28$. With comparable degrees of strengthening across groups, we were well positioned to ascertain whether the type of influences whether cross-category forgetting is observed.

Cue-independent forgetting on the final test. The central question in this experiment concerned whether cross-category RIF varied with the method of practice. We found that *Retrieval Practice* impaired *NRP* items in the *Related* condition ($M = 30\%$) compared to *NRP* items in the *Unrelated* condition ($M = 38\%$), $F(1, 48) = 7.90$, $MSE = .04$, $p = .007$, reflecting a robust 8% cross-category RIF effect that replicates prior work (Anderson & Spellman, 1995). In striking contrast, participants who received *Extra Presentations* showed no evidence of impairment on *Related NEP* items ($M = 35\%$) compared to *Unrelated NEP* items ($M = 34\%$), $F < 1$. This apparent difference in the level of cross-category inhibition between these two groups was supported by a significant interaction of cross-category inhibition by *Practice Type*, $F(1, 48) = 4.34$, $MSE = .02$, $p = .04$, establishing that cross-category inhibition reliably depends on method of practice. *Extra study exposures* did not induce RIF.

Other findings. Based on the abundance of prior work demonstrating that within-category impairment is retrieval specific, we expected to replicate this widely established result. Indeed, *Retrieval Practice* impaired the recall of *Unrelated RP-* items ($M = 22\%$) compared to their corresponding baseline (*Unrelated NRP-Similar*, $M = 35\%$), demonstrating robust within-category RIF, $F(1, 48) = 7.37$, $MSE = .11$, $p = .009$. *Extra Presentations*, by contrast, did not impair the later recall of *EP-* items ($M = 28\%$) compared to baseline (*Unrelated NEP-Similar*, $M = 30\%$), $F < 1$.³ The interaction of within-category RIF across these two groups did not reach significance, $F(1, 48) = 2.37$, $MSE = .11$, $p = .13$, potentially because we opted for a category-cued recall test that did not constrain recall order. Though motivated, this decision also allowed for early retrieval of some *EP+* items to induce some level of output interference in the *Extra Presentations* group.

Relation between strengthening and forgetting. In the *Extra Presentations* condition, we observed no correlation between strengthening of *EP+* items and, either within-category RIF ($r = .14$, $p = .34$) or cross-category RIF ($r = .12$, $p = .42$). Similarly, in the *Retrieval-Practice* condition, strengthening of *RP+* items failed to correlate significantly with within-category RIF ($r = .12$, $p = .42$) or with cross-category RIF ($r = .11$, $p = .46$). The failure to observe a relationship between strengthening and RIF is unlikely to be due to a restricted range of strengthening, as facilitation above baseline in the *Extra Presentations* group grew to as high as 67% for 11 subjects, who nevertheless showed no reliable RIF (within- and cross-category RIF effects were 3% and 8% facilitation, respectively). Similarly, even those 13 participants in the *Retrieval-Practice* condition who exhibited the greatest facilitation (67%) relative to baseline

² Readers will note that the *Related NP-Dissimilar* condition does not represent a valid baseline for the *Related NP-Similar* items because (1) the conditions are made up of intrinsically different items that can be neither cross-categorized nor counterbalanced with items in the *Related Practiced* category; and (2) retrieval inhibition is known to yield second-order forgetting of *Related NRP-Dissimilar* items (defined in relation to an *Unrelated NRP-Dissimilar* baseline) by way of semantic generalization from the associated *Related NRP-Similar* item (Anderson & Spellman, 1995).

³ The 5% numerical difference in *NRP-Similar* baseline recall across groups, likely due to random variation in our samples, was found to be nonsignificant, $t(94) = .89$, $p = .38$.

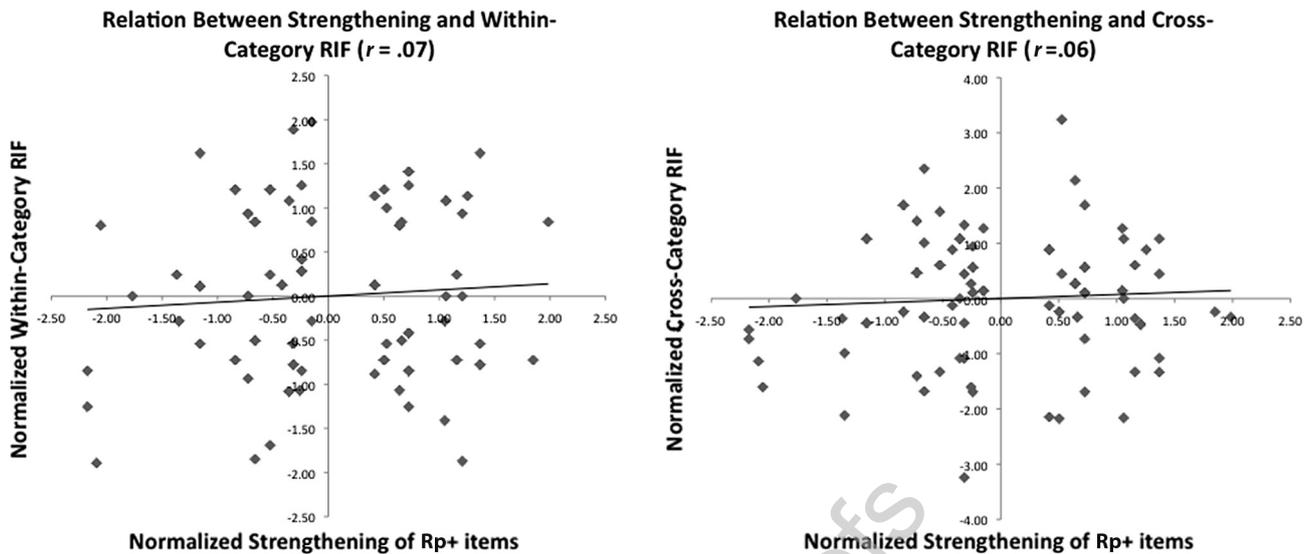


Figure 2. Correlations between the normalized strengthening of practiced items (combined across *Retrieval Practice* and *Extra Presentations*, $N = 96$) and our z-normalized measures of within- and cross-category RIF.

showed RIF (10% and 13% for within- and cross-category RIF, respectively) that was no greater than it was on average, across all participants.

In an effort to further improve our power to detect a possible relationship between strengthening and forgetting, we then normalized our measures of facilitation, within-, and cross-category RIF in a manner that accounted for variability due to item counterbalancing, which could otherwise mask such a correspondence. Specifically, we expressed each individual participant's facilitation or inhibition score in z-units, with respect to all scores in that counterbalancing condition and entered them into a common analysis with all 96 participants. Thus, each z-normalized score represents a measure of how unusual a participant's facilitation (or inhibition) effect was with respect to a perfectly matched cohort of individuals who received identical items under the same conditions. As can be seen in Figure 2, which plots the normalized inhibition and facilitation scores of all 96 participants, we still failed to detect any evidence of a relationship between strengthening and RIF. Despite a relatively high level of statistical power, the overall correlations of strengthening with within-category RIF ($r = .07$, $p = .5$) and cross-category RIF ($r = .06$, $p = .56$) were still not reliable.

Thus, the failure to observe a relationship between strengthening and RIF is extremely unlikely to be due to an inadequate range of facilitation values, special retrieval-based strengthening, a failure to consider item variability, or a lack of statistical power. In the present study, at least, strengthening did not appear to predict forgetting, converging with the conclusions evident in the experimental comparison of *Retrieval Practice* and *Extra Presentations*.

Discussion

In the current experiment, we tested a critical prediction of the covert-cueing hypothesis of cue-independent forgetting: That cross-category inhibition should be fundamentally related to the strengthening of to-be-practiced items. If so, cross-category inhibition should be observed regardless of whether strengthening stems from retrieval practice or extra study, and the size of this effect should be related to the degree of strengthening. Conversely, an inhibition account maintains that cross-category forgetting should, in fact, be specific to the process of competitive retrieval.

The present findings strongly favor the view that both within- and cross-category RIF exhibit the retrieval specificity predicted by inhibition models. Specifically, whereas *Retrieval Practice* on some category members (e.g., RED-BLOOD) impaired the later recall of both within-category competitors (e.g., RED-TOMATO) and cross-category items tested under a different retrieval cue (e.g., FOOD-STRAWBERRY), *Extra Presentations* induced no measurable forgetting. As such, these findings build upon abundant evidence of retrieval specificity observed in many prior RIF studies (Anderson & Bell, 2001; Bäuml, 2002; Blaxton & Neely, 1983; Campbell & Phenix, 2009; Ciranni & Shimamura, 1999; Johansson et al., 2007; Saunders et al., 2009; Shivde & Anderson, 2001; Wimber et al., 2009) and generalize this property to cue-independent forgetting. Importantly, cross-category forgetting only occurred as a result of *Retrieval Practice*.

We found that both *Retrieval Practice* and *Extra Presentations* produced highly reliable and substantial facilitation effects on practiced items as measured by the delayed recall

560

561

562

563

564

565

566

567

568

569

570

571

572

573

574

575

576

577

578

579

580

581

582

583

584

585

586

587

588

589

590

test. Indeed, the facilitatory effects of practice were comparable across both conditions.⁴ Thus, retrieval specificity cannot be attributed to a failure of repeated study exposures to strengthen items in memory. Simply stated, the presence of cross-category RIF does not appear to be contingent on the degree the practiced items are strengthened. This conclusion was further supported by the lack of a reliable correlation between the degree of strengthening and either within- or cross-category RIF in the present experiment, adding to the growing array of published noncorrelations between measures of facilitation and forgetting (Aslan & Bäuml, in press; Staudigl et al., 2010).

The specificity of RIF to retrieval follows from the perspective that an inhibitory process contributes to the ability to resolve retrieval interference (Anderson, 2003) and is also consistent with an oscillating-inhibition model of RIF (Norman, Newman, & Detre, 2007). Because practiced associates in our *Extra Presentations* condition were fully specified, the chance that competitors would interfere with target processing and summon inhibitory mechanisms was minimized. In contrast, *Retrieval Practice* requires participants to access a particular trace based on partial cues, a process which is not guaranteed to succeed. If related exemplars are activated, retrieval interference may ensue, hindering target access and triggering inhibition to resolve interference. To the extent that inhibition persists beyond the retrieval attempt, aftereffects of this process should materialize as forgetting even when memory is tested later from a different cue than the one used to perform retrieval practice.

The present findings provide little support for the possibility that associative blocking induced by covert cueing contributes to cue-independent RIF. Such an argument entails that cross-category items (e.g., FOOD-STRAWBERRY) would suffer RIF because people use the independent category cue (here FOOD) to covertly generate the practiced category (RED), and, in so doing, inflict upon themselves associative blocking from practiced items (RED-BLOOD). Fundamentally, this hypothesis rests on a broader view of forgetting in which items strongly linked to a retrieval cue block access to weaker items. The most straightforward implication of this hypothesis received no support, as strengthening items with extra study exposures failed even to produce within-category RIF, despite the objective cueing conditions on the final test strongly favoring blocking. Furthermore, we found no cross-category impairment in the *Extra Presentations* condition, under which the circumstances again should have been ideal to foster apparent forgetting due to covert cueing, given that (a) the practiced category cues were strongly elevated in accessibility relative to baseline categories and (b) the practiced items were demonstrably strengthened. Thus, our findings indicate that covert cueing did not occur in this

paradigm, or if it did, it was insufficient to generate RIF through blocking mechanisms. The present data thus suggest that covert cueing does not play an important role in causing cue-independent forgetting.

Nonetheless, there may be cases in which covert cueing contributes to performance when using the independent probe method. As discussed elsewhere (Anderson, 2003), when extra-list cues are only weakly related to the target, participants are more likely to supplement their recall through covert cueing, especially when time limits are overly generous and no item-specific cues are utilized (e.g., word stems). Such cueing has, in fact, been identified in a recall study (Anderson, Green, et al., 2000). Yet in this case, those participants reporting the least covert cueing, if anything, showed *more* evidence of cue-independent forgetting, contrary to associative blocking explanations.

The provision of item-specific, episodic independent probes has, on some occasions, been known to eliminate RIF effects (Camp et al., 2007; Perfect et al., 2004). Though the methodologies in those instances were designed to reduce covert cueing, in neither case was the use of the strategy actually measured or manipulated. The reasons underlying these failures to produce cue-independent RIF, therefore, require further investigation, especially as there have been numerous reports of cue-independent RIF with item-specific episodic and semantic probes (Anderson & Bell, 2001; Anderson, Green, et al., 2000; Aslan et al., 2007; Saunders & MacLeod, 2006; Shivde & Anderson, 2001). It remains possible that the outcome is somehow related to peculiarities in the stimuli or the degree of match between the retrieval practice and the final test phases (Perfect et al., 2004), described by Anderson (2003, p. 431) as “masking through transfer inappropriate testing effects.”⁵ Currently, the best evidence that covert cueing may sometimes affect the independence of nominally independent probes comes from a markedly distinct procedure that does not measure RIF (Camp et al., 2009). Going forward, it would be desirable to directly manipulate covert cueing within the retrieval-practice paradigm. Nevertheless, although this strategy may sometimes occur, there is no empirical indication that it produces cue-independent forgetting.

The present evidence for retrieval specificity extends the generality of this property to cue-independent RIF. Still, there are some cases in which certain types of study re-exposures may induce high amounts of retrieval. Anderson and Bell (2001) noted that some participants engaged in covert retrieval practice during extra study exposures, essentially “quizzing themselves” and creating competition (as well as RIF) when there would otherwise be none. The relatedness of the pairings may also be of relevance. Whereas extra study exposures of category-exemplar pairings, in which the

⁴ The beneficial effects of retrieval on memory are well documented (e.g., Bjork, 1975), but *Retrieval Practice*, in contrast to *Extra Presentations*, is not guaranteed to end in successfully bringing the target associate to mind. Thus, the similar level of facilitation observed across our two methods of practice most likely reflects this trade-off between the added benefit of *Retrieval Practice* and its increased potential of failure, compared to *Extra Practice*. Still, the comparable facilitation in these groups is convenient in that the two groups can be said, based on objective criteria, to have undergone similar degrees of strengthening.

⁵ In fact, it should be noted that, despite our best efforts to equate the *Retrieval Practice* and *Extra Presentation* conditions, the match between the practice conditions and the final test was unavoidably higher for the former than for the latter.

categorical relation is always the same, place few demands on interference control, pairs composed of entirely unrelated words may engage more demanding semantic generation processes known to induce inhibition of competitors (Bäuml, 2002; Johnson & Anderson, 2004; Storm & Nestojko, 2009; Storm et al., 2007). For instance, asking participants to generate mental imagery to help link otherwise disparate associates may account, in part, for the rare instances in which *Extra Presentations* has yielded forgetting (Saunders et al., 2009; Verde, 2009).

Finally, the present findings should not be taken to indicate that item strengthening is incapable of producing blocking. Indeed, we have argued elsewhere that strength-dependent competition slows retrieval of target items and plays a role in a range of special conditions (Anderson, 2003; Anderson & Levy, 2007). Indeed, on category-cued recall tests that lack item-specific information, blocking and inhibition may jointly contribute to within-category RIF to a degree that varies with the participants' inhibitory control abilities. For example, individuals with excellent inhibitory functioning who successfully inhibit competitors during retrieval practice should be better equipped to later inhibit the dominant practiced items on the final test and avert blocking when faced with the need to recall unpracticed items. Thus, for high-functioning individuals, blocking may be negligible. On the other hand, individuals who are less able to inhibit competitors during retrieval practice (e.g., frontal patients) should be relatively more susceptible to blocking from the practiced items on the final test, as well. In both of these populations, within-category RIF should be observed, though for different reasons. To disentangle these components, independent probe measurements are helpful in reducing contributions of blocking (Anderson & Levy, 2007).

Indeed, recent attempts to mitigate blocking on the final test by controlling output interference or by using item recognition as a type of independent probe have greatly improved the ability to detect inhibitory control deficits arising either when attention is divided (Román et al., 2009), or when RIF is measured in ADHD patients (Storm & White, 2010), young children (Aslan & Bäuml, 2010), or schizophrenics (Soriano et al., 2009). Thus, the present results do not indicate that blocking never occurs; rather, they underscore that it has a limited role in determining recall probability in young adults.

In sum, the retrieval specificity of cue-independent RIF not only speaks strongly against the plausibility of the covert-cueing hypothesis, but also favors the broad idea that inhibitory processes are engaged to help people confront the influence of undesirable accessibility. RIF may reflect the enduring outcome of a trade-off, orchestrated through executive control, between the potential that a competitor may once again become relevant and the threat that it may continue to hamper recall of a target repeatedly proven contextually appropriate in the past. Retrieval specificity is consistent with the existence of functional forgetting that, while inconvenient at times, represents an adaptive feature of a flexible cognitive system (Bjork, 1988; see also Anderson & Levy, 2010; Benjamin, 2010; Levy & Anderson, 2002).

References

- Anderson, J. R. (1974). Retrieval of propositional information from long-term memory. *Cognitive Psychology*, 6, 451–474. 755
- Anderson, J. R. (1983). *The architecture of cognition*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press. 756
- Anderson, M. C. (2003). Rethinking interference theory: Executive control and the mechanisms of forgetting. *Journal of Memory and Language*, 49, 415–445. 757
- Anderson, M. C., & Bell, T. (2001). Forgetting our facts: The role of inhibitory processes in the loss of propositional knowledge. *Journal of Experimental Psychology: General*, 130, 544–570. 758
- Anderson, M. C., & Bjork, R. A. (1994). Mechanisms of inhibition in long-term memory: A new taxonomy. In D. Dagenbach & T. Carr (Eds.), *Inhibitory processes in attention, memory and language* (pp. 265–326). Academic Press. 759
- Anderson, M. C., Bjork, R. A., & Bjork, E. L. (1994). Remembering can cause forgetting: Retrieval dynamics in long-term memory. *Journal of Experimental Psychology: Learning, Memory, and Cognition*, 20, 1063–1087. 760
- Anderson, M. C., Bjork, E. L., & Bjork, R. A. (2000). Retrieval-induced forgetting: Evidence for a recall-specific mechanism. *Psychonomic Bulletin & Review*, 7, 522–530. 761
- Anderson, M. C., Green, C., & McCulloch, K. C. (2000). Similarity and inhibition in long-term memory: Evidence for a two-factor model. *Journal of Experimental Psychology: Learning, Memory, and Cognition*, 26, 1141–1159. 762
- Anderson, M. C., & Levy, B. J. (2010). On the relationship between interference and inhibition in cognition. In A. S. Benjamin (Ed.), *Successful remembering and successful forgetting: Essays in honor of Robert A. Bjork*. North-Holland: Elsevier. 763
- Anderson, M. C., & Levy, B. J. (2007). Theoretical issues in inhibition: Insights from research on human memory. In D. Gorfein & C. M. MacLeod (Eds.), *Inhibition in cognition*. 764
- Anderson, M. C., & Spellman, B. A. (1995). On the status of inhibitory mechanisms in cognition: Memory retrieval as a model case. *Psychological Review*, 102, 68–100. 765
- Aslan, A., & Bäuml, K.-H. T. (2010). Retrieval-induced forgetting in young children. *Psychonomic Bulletin & Review*, 17, 704–709. 766
- Aslan, A., & Bäuml, K. H. (in press). Individual differences in working memory capacity predict retrieval-induced forgetting. *Journal of Experimental Psychology: Learning, Memory, and Cognition*. 767
- Aslan, A., Bäuml, K.-H., & Grundgeiger, T. (2007). The role of inhibitory processes in part-list cuing. *Journal of Experimental Psychology: Learning, Memory, and Cognition*, 33, 335–341. 768
- Aslan, A., Bäuml, K.-H., & Pastotter, B. (2007). No inhibitory deficit in older adults' episodic memory. *Psychological Science*, 18, 72–78. 769
- Bajo, M. T., Gomez-Ariza, C. J., Fernandez, A., & Marful, A. (2006). Retrieval-induced forgetting in perceptually driven memory tests. 32, 1185–1194. 770
- Bäuml, K.-H. (1996). Revisiting an old issue: Retroactive interference as a function of the degree of original and interpolated learning. *Psychonomic Bulletin & Review*, 3, 380–384. 771
- Bäuml, K.-H. (1997). The list-strength effect: Strength-dependent competition or suppression? *Psychonomic Bulletin & Review*, 4, 260–264. 772
- Bäuml, K.-H. (1998). Strong items get suppressed, weak items do not: The role of item strength in output interference. *Psychonomic Bulletin & Review*, 5, 459–463. 773

- 820 Bäumli, K.-H. (2002). Semantic generation can cause episodic
821 forgetting. *Psychological Science*, *13*, 356–360.
- 822 Bäumli, K.-H., & Kuhbandner, C. (2007). Remembering can
823 cause forgetting: But not in negative moods. *Psychological*
824 *Science*, *18*, 111–115.
- 825 Benjamin A. S. (Ed.). (2010). *Successful remembering and*
826 *successful forgetting: Essays in honor of Robert A. Bjork*.
827 North-Holland: Elsevier.
- 828 Bjork, R. A. (1975). Retrieval as a memory modifier. In R. Solso
829 (Ed.), *Information processing and cognition: The Loyola*
830 *symposium* (pp. 123–144). Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.
- 831 Bjork, R. A. (1988). *Retrieval practice and the maintenance of*
832 *knowledge*. Oxford, UK: Wiley.
- 833 Blaxton, T. A., & Neely, J. H. (1983). Inhibition from
834 semantically related primes: Evidence of a category-specific
835 inhibition. *Memory & Cognition*, *11*, 500–510.
- 836 Butler, K. M., Williams, C. C., Zacks, R. T., & Maki, R. H.
837 (2001). A limit on retrieval-induced forgetting. *Journal of*
838 *Experimental Psychology: Learning, Memory, and Cogni-*
839 *tion*, *27*, 1314–1319.
- 840 Camp, G., Pecher, D., & Schmidt, H. G. (2005). Retrieval-
841 induced forgetting in implicit memory tests: The role of
842 test awareness. *Psychonomic Bulletin & Review*, *12*, 490–
843 494.
- 844 Camp, G., Pecher, D., & Schmidt, H. G. (2007). No retrieval-
845 induced forgetting using item-specific independent cues:
846 Evidence against a general inhibitory account. *Journal of*
847 *Experimental Psychology: Learning, Memory, and Cogni-*
848 *tion*, *33*, 950–958.
- 849 Camp, G., Pecher, D., Schmidt, H. G., & Zeelenberg, R. (2009).
850 Are independent probes truly independent? *Journal of*
851 *Experimental Psychology: Learning, Memory, and Cogni-*
852 *tion*, *35*, 934–942.
- 853 Campbell, J. I. D., & Phenix, T. L. (2009). Target strength and
854 retrieval-induced forgetting in semantic recall. *Memory &*
855 *Cognition*, *37*, 65–72.
- 856 Ciranni, M. A., & Shimamura, A. P. (1999). Retrieval-induced
857 forgetting in episodic memory. *Journal of Experimental*
858 *Psychology: Learning, Memory, and Cognition*, *25*, 1403–
859 1414.
- 860 Ford, R. M., Keating, S., & Patel, R. (2004). Retrieval-induced
861 forgetting: A developmental study. *British Journal of Devel-*
862 *opmental Psychology*, *22*, 585–603.
- 863 Gomez-Ariza, C. J., Lechuga, M., Pelegrina, S., & Bajo, M.
864 (2005). Retrieval-induced forgetting in recall and recognition
865 of thematically related and unrelated sentences. *Memory &*
866 *Cognition*, *33*, 1431–1441.
- 867 Hicks, J. L., & Starns, J. J. (2004). Retrieval-induced forgetting
868 occurs in tests of item recognition. *Psychonomic Bulletin &*
869 *Review*, *11*, 125–130.
- 870 Johansson, M., Aslan, A., Bäumli, K.-H., Gabel, A., &
871 Mecklinger, A. (2007). When remembering causes forget-
872 ting: Electrophysiological correlates of retrieval-induced
873 forgetting. *Cerebral Cortex*, *17*, 1335–1341.
- 874 Johnson, S. K., & Anderson, M. C. (2004). The role of inhibitory
875 control in forgetting semantic knowledge. *Psychological*
876 *Science*, *15*, 448–453.
- 877 Kössler, S., Engler, H., Reiether, C., & Kissler, J. (2009). No
878 retrieval-induced forgetting under stress. *Psychological*
879 *Science*, *20*, 1356–1363.
- 880 Koutstaal, W., Schacter, D. L., Johnson, M. K., & Galluccio, L.
881 (1999). Facilitation and impairment of event memory
882 produced by photograph review. *Memory & Cognition*, *27*,
883 478–493.
- 884 Kuhl, B. A., Dudukovic, N. M., Kahn, I., & Wagner, A. D.
885 (2007). Decreased demands on cognitive control reveal the
886 neural processing benefits of forgetting. *Nature Neurosci-*
887 *ence*, *10*, 908–914.
- 888 Levy, B. J., & Anderson, M. C. (2002). Inhibitory processes and
889 the control of memory retrieval. *Trends in Cognitive*
890 *Sciences*, *6*, 299–305.
- 891 Levy, B. J., McVeigh, N. D., Marful, A., & Anderson, M. C.
892 (2007). Inhibiting your native language: The role of retrieval-
893 induced forgetting during second language acquisition.
894 *Psychological Science*, *18*, 29–34.
- 895 MacLeod, M. D., & Saunders, J. (2005). The role of inhibitory
896 control in the production of misinformation effects. *Journal*
897 *of Experimental Psychology: Learning, Memory, and Cog-*
898 *nition*, *31*, 964–979.
- 899 McGeoch, J. A. (1942). *The psychology of human learning: An*
900 *introduction*. New York, NY: Longmans.
- 901 Mensink, G.-J., & Raaijmakers, J. G. (1988). A model for
902 interference and forgetting. *Psychological Review*, *95*, 434–
903 455.
- 904 Norman, K. A., Newman, E. L., & Detre, G. (2007). A neural
905 network model of retrieval-induced forgetting. *Psychological*
906 *Review*, *114*, 887–953.
- 907 Perfect, T. J., Moulin, C. J., Conway, M. A., & Perry, E. (2002).
908 Assessing the inhibitory account of retrieval-induced forget-
909 ting with implicit-memory tests. *Journal of Experimental*
910 *Psychology: Learning, Memory, and Cognition*, *28*, 1111–
911 1119.
- 912 Perfect, T. J., Stark, L.-J., Tree, J. J., Moulin, C. J., Ahmed, L., &
913 Hutter, R. (2004). Transfer appropriate forgetting: The cue-
914 dependent nature of retrieval-induced forgetting. *Journal of*
915 *Memory and Language*, *51*, 399–417.
- 916 Román, P., Soriano, M. F., Gomez-Ariza, C. J., & Bajo, M. T.
917 (2009). Retrieval-induced forgetting and executive control.
918 *Psychological Science*, *20*, 1053–1058.
- 919 Saunders, J., Fernandes, M., & Kosnes, L. (2009). Retrieval-
920 induced forgetting and mental imagery. *Memory & Cogni-*
921 *tion*, *37*, 819–828.
- 922 Saunders, J., & MacLeod, M. D. (2006). Can inhibition resolve
923 retrieval competition through the control of spreading
924 activation? *Memory & Cognition*, *34*, 307–322.
- 925 Shivde, G., & Anderson, M. C. (2001). The role of inhibition in
926 meaning selection: Insights from retrieval-induced forgetting.
927 In D. Gorfein (Ed.), *On the consequences of meaning*
928 *selection: Perspectives on resolving lexical ambiguity* (pp.
929 175–190). Washington, DC: American Psychological
930 Association.
- 931 Soriano, M. F., Jiménez, J. F., Román, P., & Bajo, M. T. (2009).
932 Inhibitory processes in memory are impaired in schizophre-
933 nia: Evidence from retrieval induced forgetting. *British*
934 *Journal of Psychology*, *100*, 661–673.
- 935 Spitzer, B., & Bäumli, K.-H. (2007). Retrieval-induced forgetting
936 in item recognition: Evidence for a reduction in general
937 memory strength. *Journal of Experimental Psychology:*
938 *Learning, Memory, and Cognition*, *33*, 863–875.
- 939 Spitzer, B., Hanslmayr, S., Opitz, B., Mecklinger, A., & Bäumli,
940 K.-H. (2009). Oscillatory correlates of retrieval-induced
941 forgetting in recognition memory. *Journal of Cognitive*
942 *Neuroscience*, *21*, 976–990.
- 943 Starns, J. J., & Hicks, J. L. (2004). Episodic generation can cause
944 semantic forgetting: Retrieval-induced forgetting of false
945 memories. *Memory & Cognition*, *32*, 602–609.
- 946 Staudigl, T., Hanslmayr, S., & Bäumli, K.-H. T. (2010). Theta
947 oscillations reflect the dynamics of interference in episodic
948 memory retrieval. *Journal of Neuroscience*, *30*, 11356–
949 11362.
- 950 Storm, B. C., Bjork, E. L., & Bjork, R. A. (2007). When intended
951 remembering leads to unintended forgetting. *Quarterly*
952 *Journal of Experimental Psychology*, *60*, 909–915.
- 953 Storm, B. C., Bjork, E. L., Bjork, R. A., & Nestojko, J. F. (2006).
954 Is retrieval success a necessary condition for retrieval-
955 induced forgetting? *Psychonomic Bulletin & Review*, *13*,
956 1023–1027.

957	Storm, B. C., & Nestojko, J. F. (2009). Successful inhibition, unsuccessful retrieval: Manipulating time and success during retrieval practice. <i>Memory</i> , <i>18</i> , 99–114.	982
958		983
959	Storm, B. C., & White, H. A. (2010). ADHD and retrieval-induced forgetting: Evidence for a deficit in the inhibitory control of memory. <i>Memory</i> , <i>18</i> , 265–271.	984
960		985
961		986
962		987
963	Velting, H., & van Knippenberg, A. (2004). Remembering can cause inhibition: Retrieval-induced inhibition as cue independent process. <i>Journal of Experimental Psychology: Learning, Memory, and Cognition</i> , <i>30</i> , 315–318.	988
964		989
965		990
966	Verde, M. F. (2004). The retrieval practice effect in associative recognition. <i>Memory & Cognition</i> , <i>32</i> , 1265–1272.	991
967		992
968	Verde, M. F. (2009). The list-strength effect in recall: Relative-strength competition and retrieval inhibition may both contribute to forgetting. <i>Journal of Experimental Psychology: Learning, Memory, and Cognition</i> , <i>35</i> , 205–220.	993
969		994
970		
971	Watkins, M. J. (1978). Engrams as cuegrams and forgetting as cue-overload: A cueing approach to the structure of memory. In C. R. Puff (Ed.), <i>The structure of memory</i> (pp. 347–372). New York, NY: Academic Press.	995
972		996
973		
974		MRC Cognition and Brain Sciences Unit
975		15 Chaucer Road
976		Cambridge
977	Williams, C. C., & Zacks, R. T. (2001). Is retrieval-induced forgetting an inhibitory process? <i>American Journal of Psychology</i> , <i>114</i> , 329–354.	Cambridgeshire
978		CB2 7EF
979		UK
980	Wimber, M., Bäuml, K.-H., Bergstrom, Z., Markopoulos, G., Heinze, H.-J., & Richardson-Klavehn, A. (2008). Neural markers of inhibition in human memory retrieval. <i>Journal of Neuroscience</i> , <i>28</i> , 13419–13427.	E-mail jch68@cam.ac.uk
981		
		1003
		1004

Received September 12, 2010
Revision received January 19, 2011
Accepted March 20, 2011

Justin Hulbert

MRC Cognition and Brain Sciences Unit
15 Chaucer Road
Cambridge
Cambridgeshire
CB2 7EF
UK
E-mail jch68@cam.ac.uk

Uncorrected proofs
- not for distribution