Effect of Discrete Emotions on Eyewitness Memory and Helping Behavior

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Abstract

Many studies have shown that how we are feeling effects what we remember. However, few have addressed how specific, discrete emotions (happiness, fear, disgust, etc.) effect memory. This project examined the effect of discrete emotional states on memory of events, and the effect of discrete emotional states on helping behavior. One of five emotional states (happiness, amusement, fear, disgust, and sadness) was induced by watching a video. Participants were then tested with three questions on their memory of the video, to determine if one type of question had higher accuracy across emotion categories. Based on previous research, we predicted that memory for central details would be improved for negative affect conditions, whereas memory for the event overall would be best for the positive affect conditions. We also conducted exploratory analysis into how discrete emotions would effect this data. We did not find any significant effects of affect, of discrete emotion in this study, likely due to our small participant pool. Helping behavior was recorded as willingness to participate in a later experiment, and also did not yield any significant results between the emotion conditions.

*Importance of Eyewitness Research*

Suppose a young man is questioned by the police as an eyewitness to a murder. He felt personally in danger as the crime occurred, and was terrified. The assailant had a knife, and the young man was very focused on this during the attack. However, he feels fairly confident he has given the police an accurate description of the criminal. How sure can we be that his memory is correct? He was very afraid, and focused on the knife, so how can we know his memory of the aggressor was encoded as well as he believes it to be? Some studies indicate that eyewitness testimony is much less reliable than people assume, but few have dealt with the effect of discrete emotions. One goal of this research was to expand the literature regarding emotion and its effect on memory, specifically as it pertains to eyewitness accounts.

Eyewitness testimony has been an area of interest for psychology for over 40 years. Elizabeth Loftus was a pioneer of the scientific study of eyewitness testimony, and began to examine why witnesses were unreliable at a time when most studies were still concerned with merely demonstrating witness unreliability, Loftus (1975) showed that the simple phrasing of questions about an event could affect the event itself, by leading the witness to accept as true the information included in the question. By using the article “the” instead of “a”, Loftus could convince a significant portion of participants that they had seen something that had not in fact been present in the event they witnessed. For instance, asking “Did you see *the* broken taillight” instead of “Did you see *a* broken taillight” increased false recollections of a broken taillight in the event (Loftus, 1975). These findings demonstrated not only that eyewitness testimony was unreliable, but that even something as simple as the phrasing of a recall question could influence recall.

Loftus conducted research on many different factors that could affect eyewitness memory, including the effect of negative affect. In one study, she asked participants with a fear of snakes to watch a video (Loftus, 1980). Some of the participants were in the room with a stuffed cobra, others with a teddy bear. Those who watched the film with a cobra in the room performed significantly worse on a later test of memory for the video than those who had been exposed to a teddy bear. Although it is reasonable to wonder if some of the participant’s attention may have been taken away from the video and focused instead on the snake, these findings provided the foundation for later research into how emotions effects eyewitness memory.

A later study by Houston et. al. (2013) examined the effect of emotion on eyewitness testimony in a way that addressed the issue of divided attention. Rather than eliciting the negative affective state separately from the video to be remembered, this study staged two situations. One was neutral, a conversation between two people, the other was a mugging scene with the same two people. Participants were shown one of the videos, and then given a memory test. Participant accuracy was measured for several categories of information, including description of the persons in the scene and the actions that occurred. It was found that while the description of the persons in the scene was more complete for the negative affect participants, while description of what actions occurred was more complete for the neutral participants. This suggests that participants experiencing emotional distress focus on the central details of an incident, specifically the participants involved. Although this would imply that eyewitness description of a perpetrator may be more accurate when the witness is emotional, it leaves another category of information open to more errors. If a witness is asked to recall specifics of what occurred during a crime, their report of what the persons involved did (was one the aggressor and the other simply defending himself?) could be vital to the outcome of a trial.

*Memory, Attention, and Their Faults*

A key finding from later research is that negative affect narrows focus of attention, which has an effect on the details that research participants remember. For instance, participants remember central details of a crime- such as a description of the perpetrator and the action that occurred-more so than peripheral information- such as accomplices in the background, or what others were doing- (Kensinger, 2007, Rimmele et al. 2011). A study by Rimmele et al. (2011) suggests that participants were attending more to the central details of negative images than to the central details of neutral ones. In a second experiment in this study it was shown that participants in a negative-affect condition had more trouble remembering the peripheral information than participants in a neutral-affect condition. Levine and Edelstein (2009) found similar results in a nearly identical study, and interpreted these results to indicate that this narrowing of focus could be due to neglect of the peripheral information.

Studies on general affect provide a critical framework for my study, but do not provide many specific predictions for discrete emotions. Very few studies have looked at the role of discrete emotions, so we are still unsure what effect they have on memory. The effect of emotions on memory could be vital to the treatment of eyewitness testimony, for example if we know that frightened witnesses are more likely to misjudge an attackers appearance than witnesses who were experiencing disgust, we would be able to better evaluate which testimony about an attacker’s appearance was more likely to be correct. One study by Levine and Burgess (1997) did move past the affect-focused nature of previous studies, and provided a foundation for what we can expect from participants’ performance in specific, discrete, emotional conditions. This study found that happiness led to an overall better recall for information, while anger led for a better memory for goals and consequences.

Further evidence about general affect supports the finding that negative affect narrows attentional focus. In one study by Fredrickson and Branigan (2005) participants watched videos that induced a certain discrete emotion. Those who had watched videos that induced negative emotions had a local attentional focus (more detail oriented) in a subsequent test, while those who had watched positive videos had a more global attentional focus-“big picture” oriented. Because negative affect causes attention to be focused on local rather than global details, these details are what are more likely to be stored in memory. Therefore, in negative-affect conditions, the central details are remembered, while in positive affect conditions the “big picture” is better remembered.

Kensinger (2007) also found that negative affect narrows focus, but with the interesting additional result that negative emotions convey a benefit to memory for focal details. This study was concerned with the way that subjects processed negative or positive material and how it was remembered. He also found that negative emotions led information to be processed in a more analytical and detailed way than positive emotions, whereas positive emotions led information to be processed in a broader and thematic way. While the results of this study suggest that differences in the processing of information may be the reason for differences in memory accuracy, other studies suggest alternative explanations for why these differences may exist (Levine and Edelstein, 2009, Fredrickson & Branigan, 2005).

While these studies have shown a difference in central versus peripheral information remembered, the study discussed earlier by Houston et al. (2013) specified the type of information remembered in different affective states. Because participants in a negative- affect condition have better memory for central details (Kensinger 2007, Levine and Edelstein, 2009), negative- affect participants provide a better description of the perpetrator than neutral-affect participants (Houston et al. 2013). In contrast, neutral-affect participants have a better memory for peripheral information and a better “big-picture” memory of what occurred; therefore, neutral-affect participants provide a better description of the incident than negative-affect participants (Houston et al., 2013).

Although the effect of generalized affect on memory has been fairly well studied, it has been less studied in the specific context of eyewitness testimony. The typical structure of memory studies has been to induce an emotion, expose the participant to material for later recall, and then to test the participant’s memory of the material (Kensinger, 2007, Levine & Burgess, 1997, Storbeck, 2007, Yegiyan and Yonelinas, 2010). Because most studies are not focused specifically on eyewitness testimony, the ecological validity of separating the test from the emotion-eliciting material is seldom addressed. Houston et al (2013) is one of the few studies that has addressed this issue of validity by combining test and emotion-eliciting material, such that the event that elicits the emotion is also what will be recalled later in the experiment. In a real eyewitness situation, the crime will be both the emotion trigger and the information that will need to be remembered.

*Emotions and Helping Behavior*

My study was also interested in examining the effect of discrete emotions on helping behavior. As with memory research, my study attempted to move research away from the “positive-negative” dichotomy and towards an examination of effects of discrete emotions for helping behavior. In studying what motivates others to help, psychologists hope to find a way to encourage prosocial behavior. There have been several studies that have examined the effect of positive versus negative mood on participant’s helping behaviors (Aderman 1972, Batson et al. 1979, Isen and Simmonds 1978). These studies typically involve mood induction, then providing participants with the opportunity to help the experimenter or a confederate (Aderman 1972, Batson et al. 1979, Isen and Simmonds 1978). Mood is induced by either providing a serendipitous reward (finding a coin in a slot) or by reading of statements that simulate bad moods (Aderman 1972, Batson et al. 1979, Isen and Simmonds 1978). These studies have found evidence to support the hypothesis that positive mood increases helping behavior, although there is some debate as to the ultimate cause of this increase in helping as well as whether helping behavior generalizes to all types of tasks (Aderman 1972, Batson et al. 1979, Isen and Simmonds 1978). While this research has focused on positive or negative mood, a few studies have looked at the effect of discrete emotions on helping behavior (Zemack-Rugar et al 2007, Lamy et al. 2012).

Studies of unconsciously primed discrete emotions are some of the only studies that have examined how discrete emotions relate to helping behavior. A study by Zemack-Rugar (2007) found that unconsciously primed emotions effected helping behavior, but only in those high in guilt proneness (GP). Unfortunately, this study was more interested in whether emotions of which the participant were unaware could influence emotions, and less interested in the helping behavior itself. The finding that helping was influenced only in populations high in one personality characteristic is meaningful to my research, however. If my experiment fails, and there is no main effect of emotion state on helping behavior, it could be due to personality differences in the individuals in each emotion condition. This study also provides a basis for the hypothesis that discrete emotions could affect helping behavior, something that other studies have failed to do because of their focus on positive and negative mood.

*Current Study*

The limitations in the memory studies discussed above were addressed in my research. Rather than focusing on positive and negative affect, my study focused on discrete emotions. We selected happiness and amusement for our positive emotions, and disgust and fear for our negative emotions. These emotions were selected based on a pilot study, which showed that these emotions were effectively elicited by the selected videos. To address the ecological validity of separating the test material from the emotion eliciting material, we picked videos to be recalled that also elicited the target emotion.

Previous studies have shown that negative affect leads to narrowing of focus, and better memory for central information as opposed to peripheral details. Based on these findings, I predicted that specific negative emotions (fear, anger, sadness etc.) would lead to more errors in describing the general events of the incident, and more errors in peripheral information about the incident. The effect of positive emotions on memory has not been as extensively studied. However, based on research that has shown a broadening effect of positive emotions on memory, I predicted that positive emotions would lead to more complete and accurate recall. There would likely be fewer errors about the incident itself, but possibly more errors (as compared with negative-emotions states) with the recall of the people involved in the incident. I also hoped to find exploratory data regarding the effect of discrete emotions on memory. If these predictions were supported, they could have lasting implications for how the legal system handles eyewitness testimony.

Because there has been so little research into discrete emotions and helping behavior, it was difficult to hypothesize which emotion conditions would promote helping. However, I hypothesized that happiness would show the highest level of helping, and disgust would have the lowest level of helping. It is already established that positive moods often promote helping, and happiness is more likely to promote than amusement. Disgust seemed to be the least likely to encourage helping, because fear can promote a sense of need for others more so than disgust.

**Video Pilot**

Videos were piloted in order to ensure that they would elicit the desired emotions without eliciting too many confounding emotions. Six videos were piloted, amused, neutral, happiness, disgust, sadness, and fear.

**METHODS**

*Participants:*

A total of 11 freshmen undergraduates were tested. These participants were recruited from a list of participants too young to participate in SONA studies, and received the equivalent of participation credits for volunteering.

*Apparatus and Measures:*

Participants used a computer for all stages of this study. The surveys and videos were administered using a survey created by Vanderbilt University’s Redcap tool (Harris et al, 2009).

The survey used to assess the self-reported emotional states of participants was the FEEL measure (Kirby, Yih, and Smith, 2013). This survey is meant to assess emotionality based on responses to 32 Likert scale questions (0-9; Not at all-extremely). For the pilot test, a modified version of the FEEL containing 8 emotions, 3 of which were control variables and were not meant to be elicited (curiosity, disappointment and embarrassment) and 5 pertinent variables which were meant to be elicited (disgust, fear, sadness, happiness, and amusement) (Appendix A).

Participants watched 6 videos, intended to elicit disgust, fear, sadness, happiness, amusement, or no emotional change. Participants watched the videos in a randomized order, so no emotional carry-over could confound the results. Disgust was elicited by a video of young men smelling bottled farts and vomiting (1.54), fear by a short film about a little girl being replaced by a monster (2.19), sadness by a clip from *Turner & Hooch* (2.45), happiness by the end of *Homeward Bound* (2.48), amusement by a clip from *Monty Python and the Holy Grail* (2.56), and no emotional change by a clip from the deposition of Bill Gates (2.30).

*Procedure:*

Participants were told they were helping select materials for a later study. The participants were then shown the videos and given the FEEL after each. After viewing the videos, participants were also asked for any feedback they felt might be helpful, as well as whether or not they were familiar with the videos they had viewed. This last question was aimed at determining whether past familiarity with a video would effect recall during the actual study by providing familiarity with the video already.

*Results:*

The happiness, amusement, neutral, fear, and disgust videos were shown to effectively induce the desired emotions, without any confounding emotions. The sadness video did not have as much of an effect as the other videos tested, so this video was cut from the study and we choose instead to focus on happiness, amusement, fear, and disgust. The neutral video was not used as a test condition, but was used as a control to compare the emotional videos.

**Main Study**

**METHODS**

*Participants:*

Participants were drawn from undergraduates at Vanderbilt University. These participants received course credit for their participation in the study, and were aged 18-23. A total of 67 participants were tested, with a greater number of women than men based on the gender composition of most psychology courses (Men=18, women=49). One participant became uncomfortable, and withdrew during the video, however this was prior to data collection so no data needed to be discounted.

*Apparatus and Measures:*

The same apparatus and measures were used as were used in the pilot study: administered on a computer and created using Redcap (Harris et. al, 2009).

The videos used in this study were the same as those tested during the pilot study, with the exception of the sadness video, which was cut from the study (See Video Pilot Study).

Both the distractor task and the memory task were free-response style Redcap questions. The distractor task consisted of 4 questions, asking participants to list as many of the 50 states as they could remember in alphabetical order, starting with different letters for each question (Appendix B). The memory task consisted of three questions, asking about three different categories of information (Appendix C).

All participants received the same request for help on a future study. This request can be seen under Helping Behavior in Appendix D.

Participant responses to the recall questions were coded once data collection was complete. Discrete statements were counted and then put into one of three categories: correct, incorrect, or uncodable. A discrete statement gives a single piece of information. For example, the sentence “the boy had blue eyes and brown hair” would be coded as 3 statements; that there was a boy, he had blue eyes, and he had brown hair. If information was correct, but written in the wrong question response box, it was noted, and coded as correct for the correct question. Therefore, if correct information about the events in the video was written under the question regarding description of the characters in the video, this information would be discounted from the character description section and coded as correct for the action description section.

Uncodeable statements were statements that could not be proven correct or incorrect based on the video participants had watched. These included speculations about the characters, settings, or events, or descriptions that were subjective and therefore could not be verified. Examples of these kinds of statements include “the mother looked like she worked in an office” (speculation) and “they were stereotypically white” (subjective).

*Procedure:*

When participants entered the lab, they were told that we were looking at how emotions induced from watching TV affected performance on a cognitive task. They were first given a survey to assess their emotional state upon entering the lab, to ensure that their starting state did not unduly effect their emotions after witnessing the video. The FEEL survey was used to measure participants’ emotions (Appendix A).

Once the initial emotion measure was taken, participants were shown one of five videos: a happy video, amused video, neutral video, disgust video, or a fear video. Participants were randomly assigned to an emotion condition, such that there were equal numbers of participants in each category. Videos were carefully selected so that no one video had salient features that might make it more memorable than another video.

After watching the video, the participant engaged in a distractor task for five minutes (Appendix B). Because none of the participants could do this task very quickly, we ensured that each participant had the same amount of time between witnessing the video and finishing the distractor task. This task was unlikely to introduce confounding information to alter the memory of the participant, but provided enough of a distraction that the participant was not able to rehearse any information from the video just seen.

Once the experimenter stopped the distractor task, the participant was asked about the video they viewed (Appendix C). There was a question about the persons involved in the video, the setting where the video took place, and the actions that occurred in this video. Free-response questions were used rather than closed-ended questions, because research has shown that free-response questions are more likely to elicit accurate information than closed questions (Ginet and Verkampt, 2007). Closed-ended questions have been shown to introduce more errors, therefore free-response questions were used to try and avoid biasing participants with question phrasing (Ginet and Verkampt, 2007). Participants were given two minutes to write down as much information as they could remember for all three questions about the types of information listed above.

Once the two minutes were up, the experimenter would stop the participant, and inform them that the experiment was over. The experimenter would then ask the participant if they were interested in volunteering for a later experiment (Appendix D). Responses to this request was recorded, and participants were then debriefed about the deception in the experiment.

**RESULTS**

*Memory Data:*

Average accuracy was calculated for each emotion condition, and then the data from both positive (aumusement+happiness), and both negative emotions (fear+disgust) were compared to the neutral condition. A Kruskal-Wallis test was used, as my data was not normally distributed (P<0.05). There was no significant effect of positive or negative affect on memory for persons in the video (H=0.0013, P>0.05), the scene in which the video took place (H=0.007, P>0.05), or actions that occurred in the video found in this study (H=0.174, P>0.05).

*Exploratory Analysis*

Once comparison of positive and negative affect to the neutral condition was completed, each discrete emotion condition was compared to the neutral condition for each question. This comparison was performed with another Kruskal-Wallis test. No significant effect was found for any of the three questions (p>0.005).

1=Happiness

2= Amusement

3= Neutral

4=Fear

5=Disgust

*Figure 1:* Average accuracy for Question 1 (description of individuals)

1=Happiness

2= Amusement

3= Neutral

4=Fear

5=Disgust

*Figure 2:* Average accuracy for Question 2 (description of scene)

1=Happiness

2= Amusement

3= Neutral

4=Fear

5=Disgust

*Figure 3:* Average accuracy for Question 3 (description of actions that occurred)

*Helping Behavior Data:*

Helping behavior data was compiled into charts, and a Chi-square test was used to determine whether helping was significantly different in the emotion conditions than in the neutral condition. After each emotion condition was compared to the neutral condition, it was found that in this experiment emotion did not affect helping behavior (p>0.05).

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| **Condition** | **Helped** | **Did Not Help** |
| Happiness | 4 | 10 |
| Amusement | 1 | 12 |
| Neutral | 2 | 11 |
| Fear | 1 | 12 |
| Disgust | 2 | 11 |

*Table 1*: Helping data based on emotion condition

**DISCUSSION**

This study was interested in how emotions affect both memory and helping behavior, and especially in providing exploratory research into how discrete emotions might have different effects than positive or negative affect. We did not replicate the data of earlier studies, which indicate that positive emotion improves memory for bigger picture information, while negative affect improves memory for central details. This is likely due to the number of participants that were recruited. Due to time constraints, and the number of conditions in my study we were not able to recruit a large number of participants. More data could reveal greater variance in accuracy rates and elicit results that would parallel previous studies.

Another explanation for the lack of results could be due to ceiling effects. Participants performed perfectly, or almost perfectly across conditions. It is possible that in the amount of time participants were given they were only able to recall and record information of which they were sure of. By providing participants with more time to answer the questions, they would have time to record all the information they were sure of, as well as information that would require more speculation. This could reveal more differences in the data across conditions. Future studies hoping to examine this effect should allot more time for participants to answer the recall questions.

Another explanation for why we did not find a decrease in accuracy for negative affect with peripheral information (the description of the scene) could be explained by research conducted by Yegiyan and Yonelinas (2010). They found that increasing the negativity of material actually increases memory for peripheral details up to a point. As the negativity of the material increases, the memory for peripheral details increases until a certain critical point of negativity is reached, at which point memory for peripheral detail begins to decrease (Yegiyan and Yonelinas, 2010). If test materials are not “negative enough”, a relationship between negativity and decreased memory for peripheral details may be missed.

When examining the effects of discrete emotions on memory, we found that none of the 4 test emotions was significantly different for any of the questions. Like the data for general affect, this could be due to the issue of number of participants. As with the affective aspect of this study, greater number of participants and a greater amount of time to answer questions could help show the variances in accuracy that simply cannot be seen with such a small sample.

Part two of this study examining helping behavior also did not return any significant results. I had hypothesized that happiness would show the highest level of helping, and disgust the lowest. Unfortunately, all emotion conditions showed similar rates of helping (Table 1), so no conclusions could be drawn. One potential cause for this is likely the task participants were asked to help with. Although the task was not described as taxing, participants were told it would take approximately 2 hours. I believe this caused floor effects, in that virtually no participants were willing to undergo such a long task. Future studies wishing to gather helping behavior data should be sure to select a less inconvenient request, while still ensuring the request is not so easy that all participants will agree to help.

There are a few limitations to this study that can be improved upon in future research. One of these limitations is number of participants, as I have described above. Another limitation is the amount of time given to participants to respond to the questions. Giving participants two minutes for three questions allows most participants enough time to write a fair amount of material, however a small number of participants did not budget time to write for one of the questions. Additionally, these two minutes may have only given participants enough time to recall and record the information they were sure of, while more time might allow them to recount some details of which they are not certain, which would demonstrate more variance in accuracy.

According to the Innocence Project, over 75% of wrongful convictions are the result of inaccurate eyewitness testimony (Hill, 2008). If we can understand how these false identifications are made, and better understand how to treat eyewitness testimony, then there is the potential to save innocent men and women from prison. Although my study may not have returned significant findings, future research with more participants and a slightly altered design could have the potential to change lives.

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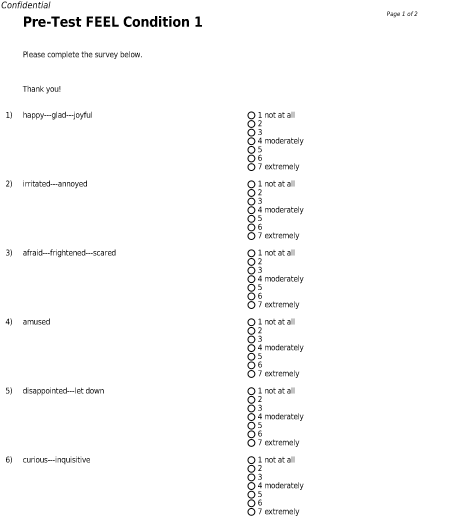
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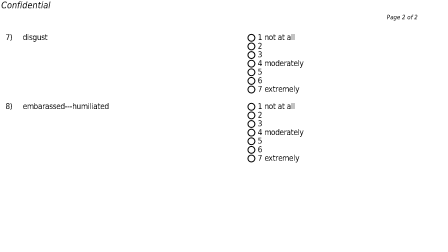
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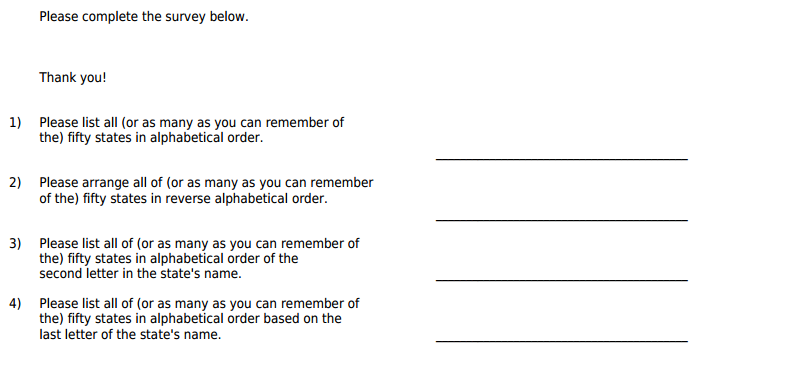
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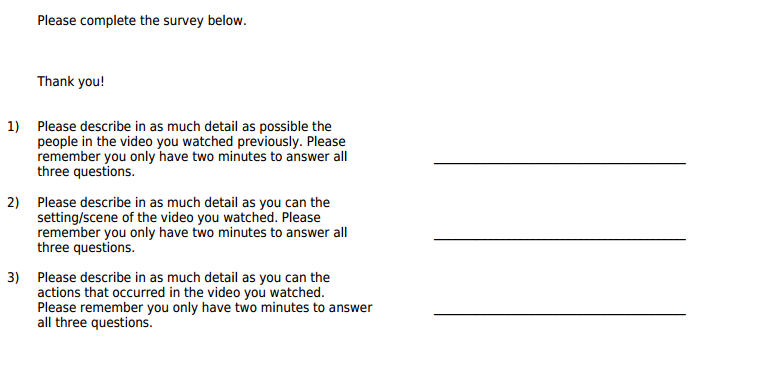
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**Appendix A**

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**Appendix B**

**Appendix C**



**Appendix D**

**Memory and Helping Behavior Script**

**Study Name:** Effect of Discrete Emotions on Eyewitness Testimony and Helping Behaviors

**Location:** Wilson 212

**Study Contact:** Forrest Edens, (931) 308 7730, forrest.e.edens@vanderbilt.edu

*Set up (to be done before participant arrives)*

1. Make sure door is ajar (while in the lab)
2. Refer to participant sheet to find participant ID number, and condition. Put a check mark next to the condition column to confirm you saw it.
3. Turn on the computer, open the pre-test FEEL survey in one tab. Be sure to select the correct emotion condition that corresponds to the participant you will be running.
4. When finished, open a new tab so the participants will not see the survey when they sit down.

CONSENT

*When participant arrives, welcome them and ask them to have a seat at the computer.*

**“This study is interested in how watching television effects performance on a simple cognitive task. You will first be asked to take a brief survey, after which you will watch a video. After the video, you will complete the same survey, a simple cognitive task, and then complete a brief writing task.”**

*Present them with consent form and ask them to read through and sign it. After Participant has signed the consent form, please sign it and lock it in the top drawer of the file cabinet (?).* **“Do you have any questions?”**

FEEL Measure (2 min)

**“To begin, we would like to gather information on how you are currently feeling as you come into the lab. Please fill out this survey and let me know when you are finished.”**

*Experimenter should leave the room, close the door almost all the way, and wait in the central room until the participant indicates they are finished.*

VIDEO WATCHING (3 min)

**“You will now watch a brief video. In order to accurately simulate television watching, we ask that you pay attention to the video. You may find the video somewhat distressing, so if at any point you wish to stop watching and discontinue the study you may pause the video and come get me. You will still receive SONA credits for this study if you choose to leave it. Do you have any questions?**

**I will be in the next room. Please open the door when the video is complete and I will give you further instructions. You may begin.**

POST-TEST FEEL (2 min)

**“Would you like to continue?”**

**“Please fill out the following survey with how you are feeling in the current moment. Open the door when you are finished.”**

COGNITIVE TASK (5 min)

**“You will now work on a simple cognitive task for five minutes. I will come get you when the time is up. Your responses will not be scored, and will only be reviewed for completion. Please work on this task for the duration of the five minutes.”**

WRITING TASK (2 min)

**“You will now be asked to complete a brief writing task. You will have two minutes to write as much as you can for each of three questions, I will stop you when time is up. Please try and keep writing for the duration of the time.”**

HELPING BEHAVIOR (1 min)

**“That concludes the study. Before we finish the debriefing, I would like to know if you would be interested in participating in another study in this lab. You can schedule it for whenever you want, but it’ll take a couple of hours, and you won’t be eligible for any SONA credit. Would you be interested in participating?”**

*Note and record participant’s answer. If participant agrees to volunteer, proceed with the script and include the text within parentheses. If not, omit parentheses.*

DEBRIEFING (1 min)

**“Okay. (Thank you for volunteering, but) In actuality, there is no study in need of volunteers. This experiment was not examining the effect of television on performance of a cognitive task, but was looking at the effect of discrete emotion on both memory and helping behavior. You were in the <happiness/amusement/neutral/disgust/fear> condition.**

**Do you have any questions? Thank you for your participation, I will assign your SONA credits shortly. Have a great day!”**

*Leaving the Lab*

If no one is scheduled to come in after you please:

1. Remove the knock sign from the door
2. Shut down the computer
3. Turn of the lights before leaving
4. Remember to lock the lab door (to room D) as well as the two locks on the 212 door

NOTE: The “comments” section on the participant sheet is for anything unusual that may have happened during the study. Also, the first couple of times you run a participant please indicate how long the entire session took.