

dering fuzzy subsets of unit interval.

linguistic variable and its application  
*tion Sciences*, 8(Pt. 1), 199-249; 8(Pt.

erical processing of subjective prob-  
*decision making under uncertainty* (pp.  
land.

## Incubation and the persistence of fixation in problem solving

STEVEN M. SMITH and STEVEN E. BLANKENSHIP  
Texas A&M University

Extra work on unsolved problems may lead to more improvement if the new work is delayed rather than undertaken immediately after initial solution attempts. Such a result constitutes incubation in problem solving. "Unconscious work" on a problem, commonly assumed to be responsible for incubation effects, may not be necessary to observe the phenomenon. We hypothesize that fixation, a block to successful problem solving, may develop during initial solution attempts and persist, interfering with immediate extra work more than with delayed extra work. Five experiments are reported in which fixation was induced to prevent optimal performance on the initial test of Remote Associates Test (RAT) problems (e.g., Mednick, 1962). After the fixation manipulation in three of the experiments, the effects of incubation intervals were examined by retesting the fixated problems. Both fixation (poorer initial problem-solving performance) and incubation (more improvement after a delayed retest than an immediate retest) were found in all the experiments which tested for the effects. In Experiments 1, 2, and 3, misleading distractors were presented alongside the RAT problems during the initial test of the problems to cause fixation. In Experiment 4, a block of paired associates—pairing the RAT words with the misleading distractors prior to problem solving—successfully induced fixation, indicating that the distractors affected memory retrieval. In Experiment 5, a trial-by-trial technique allowed fixation and incubation to be induced and tested separately for each item. All of our findings of incubation effects appear to have depended upon the initial induction of fixation. Although the experiments may not be representative of all naturally occurring cases of incubation, they provide a methodology for the study of fixation and incubation effects in problem solving in the laboratory.

When initial attempts at solving a problem fail, the problem may be temporarily put aside, during which time a little-understood stage of problem solving known as *incubation* may occur. A period of incubation may result in insight, in which the problem solver becomes suddenly and unpredictably aware of the solution to a problem. The time in which the unsolved problem has been put aside refers to the *incubation period* or *incubation time*; if insight occurs during this time, the result is referred to as an *incubation effect*. Although the idea of incubation

effects has appeal to common personal experience, it has not enjoyed great empirical support in controlled laboratory studies of problem solving. Commonly cited discussions of incubation effects often appear in the literature not as reports of empirical studies, but rather as textbook discussions (Anderson, 1975; Posner, 1973; Woodworth & Schlosberg, 1954).

Several empirical studies have tested incubation effects in problem solving (Dominowski & Jenrick, 1972; Driestadt, 1969; Fulgosi & Guilford, 1968; Gall & Mendelsohn, 1967; Gick & Holyoak, 1980; Murray & Denny, 1969; Olton & Johnson, 1976; Patrick, 1986; Smith & Blankenship, 1989). A few of these experiments found incubation effects (Dreistadt, 1969, one experiment; Fulgosi & Guilford, 1968, one experiment; Murray & Denny, 1969, one experiment; Patrick, 1986, one experiment; Smith & Blankenship, 1989, four experiments). Of these studies, the only replicated findings of incubation effects are those reported by Smith and Blankenship, which employed a paradigm similar to that used in the present experiments. Of the remaining experiments, findings of incubation have been unreliable. Neither Dominowski and Jenrick (1972), Olton and Johnson (1976), Gall and Mendelsohn (1967), nor Gick and Holyoak (1980) found any incubation effects. Fulgosi and Guilford (1968) found an incubation effect after a 20-min but not after a 10-min interruption. Olton and Johnson (1976) reported failures to replicate effects by Fulgosi and Guilford (1968), Dreistadt (1969), and Silveira (1971, cited in Olton & Johnson, 1976). Murray and Denny (1969) reported a single effect, restricted to high ability subjects, and Patrick's (1986) one finding of an effect occurred only for low ability subjects. In sum, these studies provide neither a strong base of empirical support for the putative phenomenon of incubation nor a reliable means of observing the phenomenon in the laboratory. Clearly, a reliable method for observing and studying incubation effects in the laboratory is needed if we are to extend our knowledge beyond anecdotal accounts and speculation.

Perhaps one of the greatest obstacles to research on incubation effects is an adherence to the common assumption that incubation must be the result of unconscious problem solving. Authors writing about incubation routinely cite the introspections of the French mathematician Henri Poincaré. Poincaré's self-described insights into the nature of a set of mathematical functions claimed that "the role of this unconscious work in mathematical invention appears to me incontestable" (quoted in Perkins, 1981, p. 49). Unfortunately, consensual ways of observing and inducing such putative unconscious processes are not known. Even if such processes could be studied empirically, it is not clear that all incubation effects result from the

same causes. Furthermore, the unconscious work hypothesis is plausible, and which have some support. These issues will be treated in greater depth in a future paper. Although we hope even if we find various alternative explanations, our goal the reliable induction of incubation effects in a controlled setting.

The key to observing incubation effects is to temporarily thwart solution attempts. Problems that are solved immediately after a break from intractable problems which cannot be solved will not be influenced by incubation. Incubation in problem solving, which we will discuss in detail in Woodworth and Schlosberg (1954), is "When the thinker makes a fixation on a particular groove and may not be able to escape the inescapability of fixated thinking, the fixation thus creates the possibility of an incubation effect. Problem solving following some time away from the problem, to Woodworth and Schlosberg, 'allows the thinker time for an erroneous set to disintegrate and to take a fresh look at his problem.' The effect of incubation effects has also been reported by Anderson (1975).

One of the most creative and effective experimental mental set has been carried out by Anderson (1970). The paradigm induced *Einstellung* by presenting several problems in sequence, each requiring a specific algorithm. After this method, a critical problem which could be solved by a simple solution, or with the *Einstellung* solution, relying instead on a different mental set. Such was often the case even when the problem could be solved with the *Einstellung* solution preceding experience with the set. The effect of successful problem solving.

Another approach to the issue of incubation is *functional fixedness* (e.g., Duncker, 1945). Many subjects have in thinking of a problem. In the now famous two-string problem, thinking of using pliers or an elephant's tusk to hold a problem.

u

nal experience, it has not enjoyed  
 ed laboratory studies of problem  
 of incubation effects often appear  
 empirical studies, but rather as  
 1975; Posner, 1973; Woodworth &  
 sted incubation effects in problem  
 1972; Driestadt, 1969; Fulgosi &  
 n, 1967; Gick & Holyoak, 1980;  
 nson, 1976; Patrick, 1986; Smith  
 ese experiments found incubation  
 iment; Fulgosi & Guilford, 1968,  
 , 1969, one experiment; Patrick,  
 kenship, 1989, four experiments).  
 d findings of incubation effects are  
 nship, which employed a paradigm  
 t experiments. Of the remaining  
 n have been unreliable. Neither  
 Olton and Johnson (1976), Gall and  
 Holyoak (1980) found any incu-  
 (1968) found an incubation effect  
 n interruption. Olton and Johnson  
 e effects by Fulgosi and Guilford  
 a (1971, cited in Olton & Johnson,  
 reported a single effect, restricted  
 k's (1986) one finding of an effect  
 cts. In sum, these studies provide  
 support for the putative phenom-  
 eans of observing the phenomenon  
 method for observing and studying  
 is needed if we are to extend our  
 ants and speculation.  
 stacles to research on incubation  
 nmon assumption that incubation  
 problem solving. Authors writing  
 introspections of the French math-  
 é's self-described insights into the  
 nctions claimed that "the role of  
 atical invention appears to me in-  
 1981, p. 49). Unfortunately, consen-  
 ng such putative unconscious pro-  
 such processes could be studied  
 incubation effects result from the

same causes. Furthermore, there are several alternative explanations to the unconscious work hypothesis, many of which are at least as plausible, and which have some empirical basis. These alternatives will be treated in greater depth in the general discussion of the present paper. Although we hope eventually to discover the efficacy of the various alternative explanations, in the present study we have set as our goal the reliable induction and observation of incubation effects in a controlled setting.

The key to observing incubation effects in the laboratory, we believe, is to temporarily thwart solutions to otherwise tractable problems. Problems that are solved immediately require no incubation, and intractable problems which cannot be solved even with unlimited time will not be influenced by incubation time. A preliminary block to problem solving, which we will refer to as *fixation*, was described by Woodworth and Schlosberg (1954) in their discussion of incubation: "When the thinker makes a false start, he slides insensibly into a groove and may not be able to escape at the moment" (p. 841). The inescapability of fixated thinking in initial problem-solving attempts thus creates the possibility of an incubation effect, or successful problem solving following some time away from the problem. According to Woodworth and Schlosberg, "[T]he incubation period simply allows time for an erroneous set to die out and leave the thinker free to take a fresh look at his problem" (p. 841). This "set-breaking" view of incubation effects has also been noted by Posner (1973) and Anderson (1975).

One of the most creative and extensive treatments of fixation as mental set has been carried out by Luchins and Luchins (e.g., 1959, 1970). The paradigm induced *Einstellung*, or mental set, by presenting several problems in sequence, all of which could be solved using a specific algorithm. After this mental set induction, subjects received a critical problem which could be solved with a very simple and obvious solution, or with the *Einstellung* solution. Very few subjects saw the simple solution, relying instead on the previously encountered mental set. Such was often the case even when the critical problem could not be solved with the *Einstellung* solution. Thus, the immediately preceding experience with the set solution caused fixation, a block to successful problem solving.

Another approach to the issue of fixation has been studies of *functional fixedness* (e.g., Duncker, 1945; Maier, 1931), an inability that many subjects have in thinking of unusual uses for familiar objects. In the now famous two-string problem, subjects have difficulty in thinking of using pliers or an electronic device as a pendulum to solve a problem.

Because subjects' fixating experiences occurred prior to their participation in the experiment, functional fixedness may be seen as more long-lasting than the mental set induced after a few moments in the *Einstellung* studies. On the other hand, functional fixedness has been shown to be manipulable within an experimental session (e.g., Adamson, 1952; Adamson & Taylor, 1954). After performing a task in which either a switch or a relay was used in completing an electric circuit, subjects were given the choice of using one of the two objects as the pendulum in the two-string problem. Subjects have been found to avoid using the object recently involved in the circuitry problem, whether it was the switch or the relay (e.g., Birch & Rabinowitz, 1951). Subjects apparently had difficulty thinking of an object as a pendulum if it had just been used as a piece of electronic equipment, indicating that functional fixedness can be situationally induced. Furthermore, Adamson and Taylor (1954) found that the likelihood that the fixation procedure caused this effect to be observed was a negative function of the time between the circuit problem (the fixation procedure) and the two-string problem, observing performance after a delay of 30 min, 1 hr, 1 day, or 1 week.

A more recent approach to fixation has been taken by Jones (1989) and Jones and Langford (1987), working with the tip-of-the-tongue (TOT) phenomenon. They found that cases of TOT experiences increased if interlopers (words which sound or mean something like the target word) were read to subjects along with the definitions of rare words used to induce TOT states. The interlopers apparently blocked access to the correct targets, thus inducing a kind of fixation in memory retrieval. This accessibility approach to fixation will be considered more extensively in a later discussion.

The present set of experiments was partly intended to study and control fixation, the first part of this hypothetical pattern of cognition which leads to incubation. Inducing fixation during initial problem solving might more consistently provide the opportunity to observe incubation, which should occur as the initial induced fixation dissipates. The present studies were concerned with finding materials and techniques for inducing both fixation and incubation in problem solving.

The problems used in the present experiments were Remote Associate Test (RAT) items (e.g., Mednick, 1962). Each problem consisted of three words (e.g., ARM COAL PEACH). The solution is a single word which forms a common word or phrase with each of the three RAT test words. For example, the solution "Pit" makes the common word or phrase ARMPIT, COAL PIT, and PEACH PIT. In the present experiments, problem solving was fixated by priming information

inappropriate to correct solution. Priming ARM with LEG, COAL with PEACH, and PEACH with ARM should have primed inappropriate information. Appropriate information should have been primed by target information, thus making

The present experiments were designed to study these effects. Incubation effects were tested by retesting unsolved RAT problems after a period of incubation. Demanding tasks were used during the intervals so that subjects would not be able to solve the problems during the period of incubation. Incubation was defined as greater improvement in performance when retesting occurs after a delay compared to the initial test.

In a study by Patrick (1986), the role of ability in incubation effects was studied. Denny (1969) had found incubation effects in high ability subjects, ability being measured by SAT scores. Patrick used subjects' performance on RAT problems to assess ability more directly. Incubation effects were limited to high ability subjects (the median on the initial test), and no incubation was found. Therefore, the importance of ability in incubation effects was assessed in

## EXPERIMENT 1

In Experiment 1, fixation was induced by priming associates in italics on the page along with the words of the RAT words. Subjects were told that the words were associates of the RAT words. No associate was used in the control group. It was hypothesized that incubation effects would be observed in the problems (i.e., problems with inappropriate information) and that performance on nonfixation problems would be similar to color-word and picture-word problems (e.g., Klein, 1964; Lupker, 1979). Incubation may be thwarted or delayed by a task during the interval which elicit retrieval of responses which are correct but which are also incorrect.

Incubation periods were manipulated by inserting interpolated activities between an initial RAT problem and a retest RAT problem. All groups should

ences occurred prior to their personal fixedness may be seen as more reduced after a few moments in the hand, functional fixedness has within an experimental session (e.g., for, 1954). After performing a task was used in completing an electric circuit of using one of the two objects problem. Subjects have been found involved in the circuitry problem, relay (e.g., Birch & Rabinowitz, difficulty thinking of an object as a piece of electronic equipment, can be situationally induced. Fur (1954) found that the likelihood that effect to be observed was a negative circuit problem (the fixation problem, observing performance after a week. Attention has been taken by Jones (1989) working with the tip-of-the-tongue that cases of TOT experiences which sound or mean something like objects along with the definitions of states. The interlopers apparently is, thus inducing a kind of fixation ability approach to fixation will be later discussion.

was partly intended to study and a hypothetical pattern of cognition during fixation during initial problem provide the opportunity to observe the initial induced fixation dissipated concerned with finding materials and fixation and incubation in problem

ent experiments were Remote Associates (Mednick, 1962). Each problem contained (e.g., COAL PEACH). The solution is a single word or phrase with each of the three words. The solution "Pit" makes the common word, and PEACH PIT. In the present experiment, subjects were fixed by priming information

inappropriate to correct solutions of problems. For example, associating ARM with LEG, COAL with FURNACE, and PEACH with PEAR should have primed inappropriate information. The primed inappropriate information should have been more accessible than the correct target information, thus making each problem more difficult to solve.

The present experiments were also concerned with incubation effects. Incubation effects were tested in the present experiments by retesting unsolved RAT problems either immediately or after a period of incubation. Demanding tasks were inserted in the incubation intervals so that subjects would not continue to work on unsolved problems during the period of incubation. An incubation effect is herein defined as greater improvement in solving initially unsolved problems when retesting occurs after a delay rather than immediately following the initial test.

In a study by Patrick (1986), RAT problems were used to examine the role of ability in incubation effects. A prior study by Murray and Denny (1969) had found incubation effects only for "low ability" subjects, ability being measured by a Gestalt Transformation Test. Patrick used subjects' performance on an initial test of the RAT problems to assess ability more directly. He found that incubation effects were limited to high ability subjects (i.e., those scoring above the median on the initial test), in contrast to Murray and Denny's finding. Therefore, the importance of subjects' ability in findings of incubation effects was assessed in the present experiments.

## EXPERIMENT 1

In Experiment 1, fixation was induced by presenting misleading associates in italics on the page alongside each of the three RAT words. Subjects were told that the words in italics were examples of associates of the RAT words. No associates were presented in the nonfixation control group. It was hypothesized that performance on fixation problems (i.e., problems with inappropriate priming) would be worse than performance on nonfixation problems. This method is conceptually similar to color-word and picture-word (Stroop) interference paradigms (e.g., Klein, 1964; Lupker, 1979). In both cases, performance may be thwarted or delayed by accompanying stimuli which tend to elicit retrieval of responses which are similar to the correct response, but which are also incorrect.

Incubation periods were manipulated by inserting demanding interpolated activities between an initial and later attempt at solving an RAT problem. All groups should show overall improvement in prob-



extra work should provide extra of incubation concerns the amount late retest compared with a delayed effect is observed when incubation improvements at the retest relative condition.

effects would be found for fixation may persist through an immediate ions, it should be more likely to , allowing greater improvements. fixation group should have less of retest. Thus, it was predicted that ation group would not significantly incubation conditions.

volunteered to fulfill part of an intro- ent. Subjects were randomly assigned /incubation group; 11 in the fixation/ ation/incubation group; and 8 in the

(RAT) items used as experimental prob- RAT item contains three words. The d which is an associate of each of the he example explained to subjects was answer is "window").

olution) was printed in parentheses in misleading associates are also shown in t the distractors were examples of the lutions.

ion) were given simultaneous fixation ot (nonfixation). The RAT retest was e groups (no incubation), and after a half (incubation). Thus, a 2 (Fixation) sign was used.

ven twice (RAT-1 and retest). In the es were presented simultaneously with

RAT items. Four RAT problems (with or without misleading associates) appeared on each of five pages in the experimental test booklets, and subjects were allowed 2 min/page.

For the groups given a period of incubation, a science fiction short story was given to subjects to study for 5 min (ostensibly, for a later test) following RAT-1. The incubation groups were not informed of the subsequent retest. The no-incubation groups were given the retest immediately after the last page of RAT-1.

Booklets with the same 20 RAT problems in the original order were issued to subjects for the retest, either after no interval, or after the 5-min short story. No associates were presented at the retest. Subjects were allowed 4 min for each page of 4 problems on the retest.

## RESULTS

### Fixation

Nonfixation subjects solved more than twice as many problems as fixation subjects on the initial test (Table 1). A  $t$  test was computed comparing fixation and nonfixation groups, using proportion correct on the first test (RAT-1) as the dependent measure. Fixation significantly<sup>1</sup> decreased performance on RAT-1,  $t(37) = 3.69$ .

### Incubation

The proportion of problems not solved on the initial test that were solved at retest defined the improvement score. An incubation effect was found for the fixation groups. At retest, incubation subjects who had been fixated solved .41 of the initially unsolved problems, whereas the fixated no-incubation subjects solved only .19 of the unsolved items (Table 2). The effect of incubation was significant for the fixated group,  $t(19) = 3.88$ .

No incubation effect was found for nonfixation subjects. Incubation subjects in the nonfixation condition solved .32 of the unsolved problems, compared with .22 improvement for the nonfixation/no-incubation condition (Table 2). The effect of incubation was not significant for the nonfixation group,  $t(16) = 1.23$ .

Table 1. Mean proportions correct on RAT-1 in Experiment 1 for fixation and nonfixation groups

Group		Fixation effect
Fixation	Nonfixation	
.10	.25	.15

Note. There were 20 problems on RAT-1. Fixation effect = (nonfixation RAT-1 proportion correct) - (fixation RAT-1 proportion correct).

Table 2. Mean improvement in Experiment 1 for incubation vs. no-incubation groups

Condition	Group		Incubation effect
	Incubation	No incubation	
Fixation	.41	.19	.22
Nonfixation	.32	.22	.10

Note. Improvement = (no. newly solved at retest)/(20 - no. solved on RAT-1). Incubation effect = (incubation improvement) - (no-incubation improvement).

An ANOVA tested incubation effects as a function of ability, as defined by RAT-1 performance. Subjects were divided into three groups according to the number correctly solved on the initial RAT: above the median, at the median, and below the median. Because there was a main effect of fixation, the medians for the fixation and nonfixation groups were computed independently such that, for example, high-scoring fixation subjects were classified with high-scoring nonfixation subjects in the high ability group.

The 2 × 3 (Incubation × Ability) ANOVA used improvement (i.e., the proportion of initially unsolved problems that were solved at the retest) as the dependent measure. Ability was low, median, or high. There was a significant Ability × Incubation interaction,  $F(2, 33) = 3.88$ ,  $MS_e = .02$ . Participants who scored low or at the median had greater incubation effects than those with high ability (findings for Experiments 1, 2, and 5 appear in Table 9).

## DISCUSSION

A clear, robust effect of fixation was observed as a result of the distractors presented with the RAT problems in Experiment 1. Subjects in the nonfixation condition solved more than twice the number of problems solved by the fixation subjects on the initial RAT. This fixation resulted not from the repeated use of an algorithm, as in the water-jar problem series of Luchins and Luchins (1959), nor was it caused by long-term preexperimentally induced fixation, as in Maier's (1931) 2-string (functional fixedness) problem. Rather, the fixation effect appeared to be caused by presenting misleading distractors that were related to the target solution.

Incubation effects were also observed in Experiment 1. The effect of incubation was significant in the condition in which subjects were first given a fixation treatment, but not in the nonfixation condition. Thus, support was evidenced for the idea that incubation may result

from the dissipation of fixation to say that there are no other. Rather, we claim to have demonstrated in the laboratory.

Ability, as measured by performance to incubation effects in Experiment 1 for low ability subjects whose incubation effects with high ability subjects.

## EXPERIMENT 2

Experiment 1 showed that performance from appropriate solutions. In Experiment 2, the effects of fixation using a different set of problems in a way that made the problems were presented in a way that misleading associates were flashed. This fixator spoke the misleading associates.

Experiment 2 also tested the effects of incubation in measuring fixation. It was hypothesized that if a problem is solved, fixation might prolong the time to solve. Therefore, solutions as well as solutions were provided for the subjects. In Experiment 2, in some treatment conditions, answers were provided for the subjects. It was expected that the problem would be solved, but that it would require more time to solve in the nonfixation condition. Because the two-letter problems were near the ceiling for performance, the ceiling effect would be observed. In Experiment 1, it was predicted that the following fixation, but not in the nonfixation condition.

## METHOD

### Subjects

Participants were 79 students who were in a introductory psychology course requiring a grade of C or better. They were divided into two groups: 10 in the nonfixation/no hints condition and 9 in the nonfixation/no hints condition.

### Materials

Of the 20 RAT problems listed in Experiment 1, 10 were used in Experiment 2. The RAT words were



Experiment 1 for incubation vs. no-

Group	Incubation effect
No incubation	
.19	.22
.22	.10

(no. solved at retest)/(20 - no. solved on RAT - improvement) - (no-incubation improve-

effects as a function of ability, as

Subjects were divided into three groups: above, at, and below the median. Because of the distribution, the medians for the fixation and incubation conditions were determined independently such that, for each group, subjects were classified with high-scoring subjects in the high-ability group.

A 2 (Incubation) x 3 (Ability) ANOVA used improvement (i.e., number of problems that were solved at the second attempt) as the dependent variable. Ability was low, median, or high. A significant Incubation x Ability interaction,  $F(2, 33) = 3.12, p < .05$ . Subjects who scored low or at the median had no improvement with high ability (findings for Experiment 1 are in Table 9).

Incubation was observed as a result of the RAT problems in Experiment 1. Subjects solved more than twice the number of problems on the initial RAT. This was due to the repeated use of an algorithm, as in the Luchins and Luchins (1959), nor was it initially induced fixation, as in Maier's (1931) (Towers) problem. Rather, the fixation was induced by presenting misleading distractors that were not present in the nonfixation condition.

Incubation was observed in Experiment 1. The effect was observed in the condition in which subjects were not in the nonfixation condition. This supports the idea that incubation may result

from the dissipation of fixation, a problem-solving block. This is not to say that there are no other possible causes of incubation effects. Rather, we claim to have demonstrated one way to observe incubation in the laboratory.

Ability, as measured by performance on the initial RAT, was related to incubation effects in Experiment 1. The finding of greater incubation for low ability subjects contradicts the findings of Patrick (1986), whose incubation effects with RAT problems were limited to high ability subjects.

## EXPERIMENT 2

Experiment 1 showed that problem solving can be diverted away from appropriate solutions. In Experiment 2 we tried to maximize the effects of fixation using a method of presenting the misleading associates in a way that made them essentially unavoidable. The RAT problems were presented individually on a computer screen while misleading associates were flashed on the screen and a voice synthesizer spoke the misleading associates aloud.

Experiment 2 also tested the usefulness of a solution time metric in measuring fixation. It was hypothesized that even when a problem is solved, fixation might prolong the problem-solving process. Therefore, solutions as well as solution times were recorded in Experiment 2. In some treatment conditions, the first two letters of the correct answer were provided for the subject, making the problems very easy. It was expected that the problems with hints would be easy to solve, but that it would require more time to find solutions in the fixation condition. Because the two-letter hints were expected to keep performance near the ceiling for the initial RAT, we expected that incubation would be observed only in the no-hints condition. As in Experiment 1, it was predicted that incubation effects would occur following fixation, but not in the condition with no initial fixation.

## METHOD

### Subjects

Participants were 79 students who volunteered to fulfill part of an introductory psychology course requirement. Subjects were randomly assigned to treatment groups: 10 in seven of the eight experimental treatment groups, and 9 in the nonfixation/no hints/incubation group.

### Materials

Of the 20 RAT problems listed in the Appendix, 10 were used in Experiment 2. The RAT words were presented in all uppercase letters with

the three words arranged vertically on the screen of an Amiga 1000 computer. In the conditions in which hints were presented simultaneously with the three RAT words, 2-letter hints (the first two letters of the correct solution) were shown near the bottom of the screen. In the conditions in which fixation was induced, each distractor appeared on the screen next to its related RAT word. The misleading distractors, printed in lowercase letters, flashed on and off at a 1-s rate, and a voice synthesizer spoke aloud each RAT word-distractor pair. A message, which remained at the top of the screen during all of the RAT problems, stated that the solutions were for only the words printed in uppercase letters. On the retest, all problems appeared with 2-letter hints. The incubation material consisted of the same story used in the incubation task in Experiment 1. The story was printed on the screen such that subjects could page forward through the story using the return key on the Amiga keyboard.

### Design

On the initial RAT (RAT-1), subjects received either hints or no hints, and fixation (i.e., misleading distractors) or no fixation. The retest occurred either immediately after the last problem of RAT-1 or after a period of incubation.

### Procedure

Subjects participated individually. After being familiarized with the computer screen and keyboard, subjects were given instructions about the RAT problems and, if appropriate, the hints and distractors (referred to by the experimenter as "associates"). As in Experiment 1, subjects were told that the distractors were examples of the kind of associates that are the correct solution. Subjects were shown the example problem along with the solution; they were instructed to type the solution on the keyboard and then to press the return key. Subjects were requested to type their answers as quickly as possible because it was a timed test. The time from the presentation of a RAT problem until the first keystroke was recorded for each trial. The specific keystrokes were also recorded. The subject had 1 min to respond, after which the next problem appeared.

In the no-incubation condition, an instruction to press the return key appeared on the screen immediately after the 10th problem. The first problem, with a 2-letter hint, appeared on the screen 2 s after the key was pressed (the first retested item). The remaining RAT items were also retested in the same order and manner as the first presentations. In the incubation condition, an instruction to read a story carefully appeared after the 10th RAT problem. To advance through the story on the screen, subjects pressed the return key; 5 min was allowed to read the story. After 5 min, the 10 RAT problems were retested as in the no-incubation condition.

## RESULTS

### Fixation

A  $2 \times 2$  (Fixation  $\times$  Hints) ANOVA was computed using number correct on RAT-1 as the dependent measure. There was a significant

## FIXATION AND INCUBATION

effect of fixation,  $F(1, 73) = 2.69$ ,  $p < .10$ . Subjects solved more problems on RAT-1 when there was no fixation. There was also a significant effect of hints,  $F(1, 73) = 2.69$ , indicating that performance was better when subjects were given the 2-letter hints.

Another  $2 \times 2$  (Fixation  $\times$  Hints) ANOVA was computed on solution response time (RT). There was a significant effect of fixation,  $F(1, 73) = 23.48$ , indicating that the presence of fixation on RAT-1 delayed problem solutions considerably (mean RT in the no-fixation condition (Table 3). The effect of hints was also significant,  $F(1, 73) = 30.98$ ,  $MS_e = 23.48$ , again indicating that 2-letter hints improved performance.

### Incubation

Two  $2 \times 2$  (Incubation  $\times$  Hints) ANOVAs were computed on the dependent measure were computed on the proportion correct and one for the nonfixation condition.

For the fixation condition, there was a significant effect of incubation on improvement,  $F(1, 34) = 10.0$ ,  $p < .01$ . There was also a significant effect of hints on improvement in the incubation condition (Table 4). There was also a significant effect of hints on superior performance in the no-incubation condition, the nonfixation condition, the effect of hints was significant,  $F < 1.0$ , or of hints,  $F(1, 30) = 10.0$ ,  $p < .01$ .

A  $2 \times 2$  (Incubation  $\times$  Hints) ANOVA was computed on improvement as the dependent measure.

Table 3. Mean proportions correct and mean RTs for Experiment 2 for fixation and no-fixation conditions.

Condition	Nonfixation	Fixation
Hints		
Proportion correct	0.75	0.85
RT (s)	30.98	23.48
No hints		
Proportion correct	0.65	0.75
RT (s)	30.98	23.48

Note. There were 10 problems on RAT-1. The proportion correct for the no-fixation condition = [(nonfixation RAT-1 proportion correct)  $\times$  10]. For the fixation condition, the proportion correct = [(fixation RAT-1 proportion correct)  $\times$  10]. For the no-incubation condition, the mean RT = (nonfixation RAT-1 RT) - (nonfixation RAT-1 RT).

on the screen of an Amiga 1000 computers were presented simultaneously with distractors (the first two letters of the correct solution) at the top of the screen. In the conditions in which distractors appeared on the screen next to the solution, printed in lowercase letters, and a voice synthesizer spoke aloud the solution message, which remained at the top of the screen. In the conditions in which distractors were not present, the solutions were printed in lowercase letters. On the retest, all problems in the incubation condition consisted of the same material as in Experiment 1. The story was printed on the screen and subjects read the story using a mouse to advance the page forward through the story using a mouse button.

Subjects received either hints or no hints, fixation or no fixation. The retest occurred after a problem of RAT-1 or after a period of 5 min.

After being familiarized with the computer, subjects were given instructions about the RAT items, hints and distractors (referred to by the experimenter in Experiment 1, subjects were told that the kind of associates that are the correct solution to a sample problem along with the solution; the correct solution on the keyboard and then to press the correct key on the keyboard as quickly as possible. The time from the presentation of a problem to the response was recorded for each trial. The subject had 1 min to respond, and the correct solution was displayed.

After an instruction to press the return key was given, the first problem was presented after the 10th problem. The first problem was presented on the screen 2 s after the key was pressed. The first 10 RAT items were also retested in the conditions in which distractors were not present. In the incubation condition, the solutions were carefully appeared after the 10th RAT item. In the no-incubation condition, the solutions were not presented on the screen, subjects pressed the return key to advance the story. After 5 min, the 10 RAT items were retested in the no-incubation condition.

A 2 × 2 ANOVA was computed using number of correct solutions as the dependent measure. There was a significant

effect of fixation,  $F(1, 73) = 6.27$ ,  $MS_e = 2.69$ ; nonfixation subjects solved more problems on RAT-1 than did fixation subjects (Table 3). There was also a significant effect of hints,  $F(1, 73) = 159.36$ ,  $MS_e = 2.69$ , indicating that performance on RAT-1 was far superior when subjects were given the 2-letter hints.

Another 2 × 2 (Fixation × Hints) ANOVA was computed using solution response time (RT) on RAT-1 as the dependent measure. There was a significant effect of fixation,  $F(1, 73) = 18.96$ ,  $MS_e = 23.48$ , indicating that the presentation of the distractors with the RAT problems considerably delayed solution times relative to the nonfixation condition (Table 3). The effect of hints was also significant,  $F(1, 73) = 30.98$ ,  $MS_e = 23.48$ , again showing faster solution times with hints.

### Incubation

Two 2 × 2 (Incubation × Hints) ANOVAs using improvement as the dependent measure were computed, one for the fixation condition, and one for the nonfixation condition.

For the fixation condition, there was a significant effect of incubation on improvement,  $F(1, 34) = 4.63$ ,  $MS_e = .09$ , indicating greater improvement in the incubation than in the no-incubation condition (Table 4). There was also an effect of hints,  $F(1, 34) = 7.93$ , with superior performance in the condition in which hints were given. For the nonfixation condition, there was no effect either of incubation,  $F < 1.0$ , or of hints,  $F(1, 30) = 2.63$ ,  $MS_e = .12$ .

A 2 × 2 (Incubation × Ability) ANOVA was computed using improvement as the dependent measure. Ability was low, median, or

Table 3. Mean proportions correct and response times (RTs) on RAT-1 in Experiment 2 for fixation and nonfixation groups

Condition	Group		Fixation effect
	Nonfixation	Fixation	
<b>Hints</b>			
Proportion correct	.86	.75	.11
RT (s)	7.68	14.19	6.51
<b>No hints</b>			
Proportion correct	.37	.29	.08
RT (s)	15.53	18.67	3.14

*Note.* There were 10 problems on RAT-1. For the proportion correct score, fixation effect = [(nonfixation RAT-1 proportion correct) - (fixation RAT-1 proportion correct)] × 10. For the RT score, fixation effect = (fixation RAT-1 RT) - (nonfixation RAT-1 RT).

Table 4. Mean improvement scores in Experiment 2 as a function of hints and fixation

Condition	Group		Incubation effect
	Incubation	No incubation	
Fixation			
Hints	.57	.27	.30
No hints	.21	.08	.13
Nonfixation			
Hints	.36	.38	-.02
No hints	.16	.20	-.04

Note. Improvement = (no. newly solved at retest)/(10 - no. solved on RAT-1). Incubation effect = incubation improvement - no incubation improvement.

high for subjects scoring below, at, or above the median on RAT-1. Separate medians were used for the hints + fixation; hints + nonfixation; no hints + fixation; and no hints + nonfixation conditions. Although somewhat greater incubation effects were found for the low group than for the high and median groups (Table 9), the Incubation  $\times$  Ability interaction did not approach significance,  $F < 1.0$ .

## DISCUSSION

The fixation manipulation in Experiment 2, with flashing and spoken-aloud distractors, was clearly an effective detriment to problem solving. The solution time measure was even more sensitive to fixation manipulations than was the accuracy measure. This effect was particularly noteworthy in the condition in which 2-letter hints were provided on RAT-1; more than an additional 6 s of solution time was needed for the fixation group, compared with the nonfixation group, even though good hints were provided on RAT-1.

Incubation was found only in the group that was initially fixated on RAT-1. This finding of an incubation effect following fixation is similar to the incubation effect in Experiment 1, which was also found only in the fixation condition.

Incubation effects appeared to be somewhat greater for low ability subjects, although the interaction was not significant. As in Experiment 1, however, it is clear that high ability subjects did not show the greatest incubation effects, in contrast to Patrick's (1986) study.

## EXPERIMENT 3

Misleading associates were problems in Experiments 1 and 2. One problem with this procedure is that it cannot be known whether the incubation effects were caused by the presence of the distractors or whether they were caused by the relatedness of the distractors. In Experiment 3, the fixation condition was used to control for the relatedness of the distractors. The distractors were either related or unrelated to the problem. In Experiment 3, as in Experiment 1, the distractors were presented simultaneously with the problem. The relatedness of the distractors was a source of variation. In Experiments 1 and 2, then, performance on related or unrelated distractors should be affected by the relatedness of the distractors. It is also possible that both

## METHOD

### Subjects

Participants were 120 students in a introductory psychology course required for all students in treatment groups.

### Design, procedure, and materials

The design, procedure, and materials were similar to those used in Experiment 1, with the exception of more than two levels of fixation, as in Experiment 1. The related (related associates printed on the problem) and unrelated (unrelated paired distractors), and no distractors conditions were not used in this experiment. Thus, the experiment manipulated

## RESULTS

A one-way ANOVA was computed for the dependent variable (related vs. unrelated vs. none) and the independent variable (incubation vs. no incubation). The analysis found a significant effect of incubation,  $F(1, 117) = 6.40$ . Subjects with no distractors scored mid-range, those with related distractors scored mid-range, and those with unrelated distractors scored mid-range.

Experiment 2 as a function of hints

no incubation	Incubation effect
.27	.30
.08	.13
.38	-.02
.20	-.04

(d at retest)/(10 - no. solved on RAT-  
improvement - no incubation improve-

t, or above the median on RAT-1.  
the hints + fixation; hints + nonfix-  
no hints + nonfixation conditions.  
ation effects were found for the low  
an groups (Table 9), the Incubation  
reach significance,  $F < 1.0$ .

Experiment 2, with flashing and  
ly an effective detriment to problem  
e was even more sensitive to fixation  
racy measure. This effect was par-  
ition in which 2-letter hints were  
n additional 6 s of solution time was  
mpared with the nonfixation group,  
vided on RAT-1.

the group that was initially fixated  
ubation effect following fixation is  
Experiment 1, which was also found

be somewhat greater for low ability  
n was not significant. As in Experi-  
high ability subjects did not show  
contrast to Patrick's (1986) study.

### EXPERIMENT 3

Misleading associates were presented simultaneously with RAT problems in Experiments 1 and 2. A potential limitation of this procedure is that it cannot be known how much of the observed fixation effects were caused by the presence of the distractors and how much was caused by the relatedness of the distractors to the target solutions. In Experiment 3, the fixation effect was examined as a function of the relatedness of the distractors to the RAT problems. Distractors were either related or unrelated to the RAT problems (see Appendix). In Experiment 3, as in Experiments 1 and 2, the distractors were presented simultaneously with RAT problems. If the physical presence of the distractors was a source of the observed fixation effects in Experiments 1 and 2, then problem solving with any distractors, related or unrelated, should be worse than with no distractors. If the relatedness of the distractors is a factor, then related distractors should cause worse performance on RAT problems than unrelated distractors. It is also possible that both factors may have an effect.

### METHOD

#### Subjects

Participants were 120 students who volunteered to fulfill part of an introductory psychology course requirement. They were randomly assigned to treatment groups.

#### Design, procedure, and materials

The design, procedure, and materials used in Experiment 3 were identical to those used in Experiment 1, with the following exceptions: (a) Rather than two levels of fixation, as in Experiment 1, there were three levels—related (related associates printed next to RAT problems), unrelated (unrelated paired distractors), and none (no distractors); (b) the unrelated distractors were drawn from the related distractors of RAT problems which were not used in this experiment; and (c) participants were not retested. Thus, the experiment manipulated one between-subjects variable, fixation.

### RESULTS

A one-way ANOVA was computed examining the effect of fixation (related vs. unrelated vs. none) on number of problems solved. The analysis found a significant effect of fixation,  $F(2, 117) = 31.41$ ,  $MS_e = 6.40$ . Subjects with no distractors solved the most RAT problems, those with related distractors solved the fewest, and those with unrelated distractors scored midway between the other two groups

(Table 5). Newman-Keuls pairwise comparisons ( $\alpha = .05$ ) indicated that related distractors caused significantly worse performance than did unrelated distractors or no distractors, and that unrelated distractors caused worse performance than did no distractors (critical difference for  $r = 2$  was .11; for  $r = 3$ , critical difference was .13).

## DISCUSSION

The results of Experiment 3 support both the hypothesis that the words presented alongside the RAT problems deterred problem-solving performance and the hypothesis that the relatedness of the distractors to the correct target solution caused fixation. That unrelated distractors caused worse performance than the condition with no distractors suggests that distraction from attention may have blocked performance. The finding that related distractors caused significantly worse performance than unrelated distractors, however, suggests a different cause of fixation, such as a memory retrieval block. These conclusions hold not only for Experiment 3, but for Experiments 1 and 2 as well.

This description of fixation in problem solving is analogous to output interference, that is, a retrieval block which accrues during free recall, or which is induced by part-list cuing (e.g., Rundus, 1973). According to this model, memory is searched using sampling-with-replacement (e.g., Shiffrin, 1970). During the recall process, each retrieved item, whether retrieved by the subject or provided by the experimenter, is incremented in strength and replaced within the current search set. Thus, after a number of retrievals from a search set have occurred, the set of already-retrieved items is more accessible than the not-yet-retrieved items, thus causing a temporary retrieval block. The part-list cues provided by the experimenter in these memory studies are analogous to the fixating distractors employed in the present experiments to block retrieval of the correct target information.

The accessibility hypothesis suggested somewhat different tech-

Table 5. Mean proportion correct in Experiment 3 for related vs. unrelated vs. no-distractor conditions

	Type of distractor		
	Related	Unrelated	None
	.13	.24	.35

*Note.* There were 20 problems on the test.

## FIXATION AND INCUBATION

niques for inducing initial fixation than inducing fixation with simply primed misleading information. These techniques were examined in Expe-

## EXPERIMENT 4

To avoid the interpretive problems, as in Experiments 1, 2, and 3, was accomplished before the RAT condition in Experiment 4. The PAL task was used with members of each pair and the members. This manipulation was intended to block the associations of RAT-words with the retrieval of the solution would be blocked. Associates Test. It was hypothesized that the RAT would be worse following the PAL task with no fixation task.

## METHOD

### Subjects

Participants were 38 students who had completed a psychology course required for graduation. They were divided into three treatment groups: two of 10 subjects each, and the fixation group of 8 subjects.

### Materials

The same RAT problems used in Experiments 1, 2, and 3 were used in Experiment 4, except that the 20 problems were presented on a single page. The PAL task consisted of the 60 words and their associates printed in italics next to each word. The misleading associates used in Experiments 1, 2, and 3 were not used in Experiment 4.

### Design and procedure

For subjects given PAL (fixation task), subjects were given the PAL task in anticipation of a subsequent RAT task. The stimulus member (i.e., a RAT word) and the (italicized) member of the pair. Subjects were given the 60 words and their associates on a single page next to each word, with 5 min allow-



test, subjects were given the original study list and were asked to write in any associates on their test that they had missed. This procedure was intended to strengthen all associations between the RAT words and the misleading associates.

The RAT problems followed the PAL task for fixation groups, or comprised the only task for nonfixation groups. The 20 RAT items were presented on a single page with instructions printed at the top. Subjects were given 5 min to complete as many of the RAT problems as they could.

## RESULTS

The fixation group scored 37% less than the nonfixation group on RAT-1 (Table 6). A *t* test comparing fixation and nonfixation conditions was computed using scores on RAT-1 as the dependent measure. Fixation significantly decreased performance on RAT-1,  $t(36) = 3.12$ .

## DISCUSSION

A robust effect of fixation was found, even though the fixating distractors were not presented at the same time as the initial RAT problems. Fixation was induced in the paired associates task, and the detrimental interfering effect apparently persisted into the problem-solving phase of the experiment. Thus, this fixation effect was not caused by distracted attention, as could have occurred in the previous experiments, but rather by temporary activation or priming of the incorrect solutions.

## EXPERIMENT 5

Although the block of paired associates learned before the RAT problems caused fixation in Experiment 4, the fixating events and the initial attempts to solve the problems were somewhat remote, poten-

Table 6. Mean proportion correct in Experiment 4 for fixation vs. nonfixation groups

Group		Fixation effect
Fixation	Nonfixation	
.24	.39	.15

*Note.* There were 20 problems on the test. Fixation effect = (nonfixation proportion correct) - (fixation proportion correct).

tially allowing unknown processes. Furthermore, Smith and Blankenship (1987) found that the effects in problem solving, demonstrated by the retesting of problems. To better understand the effects of fixating event, an initial problem was presented, then a RAT problem, we used a paired associates task.

In Experiment 5, fixation was induced by a paired associates task. A RAT problem via a paired associates task was presented and tested. The paired associates were presented, each paired with its related word, unrelated to the subsequent RAT problem. Experiment 5 included an initial test of a RAT problem, followed by a retest of a RAT problem (or 2 min), and finally a retest of a RAT problem (or 2 min).

It was predicted that improvement would be greater for more delayed retests. It was also predicted that improvement following nonfixation would be greater of the delay of retest. That is, improvement was expected for the fixated items, but not for the nonfixated items.

## METHOD

### Subjects

Participants were 69 students who had completed a introductory psychology course requiring a minimum grade of C.

### Design and materials

A subset of 12 of the RAT problems were used in Experiment 5. Half of the problems were in the nonfixation condition. The other half were in the third of the nonfixation items were retested after 0.5 min of free associations. Thus, the design was a (2 x 2 x 2) within-subjects design (2 x 2 x 2 = Incubation) within-subjects design.

The paired associates consisted of a word and a related word next to each word. The associates were presented in Experiment 1, and were presented in Experiment 5. The associates of the paired associates were related to the RAT problem.



al study list and were asked to write in  
had missed. This procedure was intended  
en the RAT words and the misleading

PAL task for fixation groups, or com-  
n groups. The 20 RAT items were pre-  
ctions printed at the top. Subjects were  
f the RAT problems as they could.

% less than the nonfixation group on  
aring fixation and nonfixation con-  
es on RAT-1 as the dependent mea-  
eased performance on RAT-1,  $t(36)$

as found, even though the fixating  
at the same time as the initial RAT  
in the paired associates task, and the  
parently persisted into the problem-  
. Thus, this fixation effect was not  
could have occurred in the previous  
porary activation or priming of the

associates learned before the RAT  
riment 4, the fixating events and the  
lems were somewhat remote, poten-

in Experiment 4 for fixation vs. nonfix-

Fixation effect
.15

the test. Fixation effect = (nonfixation  
portion correct).

tially allowing unknown processing to influence problem solving. Fur-  
thermore, Smith and Blankenship (1989), in observing incubation  
effects in problem solving, demonstrated the importance of immediate  
retesting of problems. To better observe the relationship between the  
fixating event, an initial problem-solving attempt, and a retest of a  
problem, we used a procedure that would allow item-by-item tests.

In Experiment 5, fixation was induced immediately before each  
RAT problem via a paired associates trial. A set of three paired  
associates was presented and tested immediately before each RT prob-  
lem. The paired associates were either the three subsequent RAT  
words, each paired with its related distractor, or three paired associates  
unrelated to the subsequent RAT problem. The procedure used in  
Experiment 5 included an initial test and a retest of each RAT prob-  
lem. The retest of a problem occurred either immediately after the  
initial test of a RAT problem, or after 30 s or 2 min of a free association  
task. Thus, each trial consisted of three paired associates (related or  
unrelated to the subsequent RAT problem) which were presented and  
then tested, then a RAT problem, then a free association task (0, 0.5,  
or 2 min), and finally a retest of the RAT problem.

It was predicted that improvement following fixation would be  
greater for more delayed retests than for an immediate retest, but  
that improvement following nonfixation would not vary as a function  
of the delay of retest. That is, incubation was predicted for the fixated  
items, but not for the nonfixated problems.

**METHOD**

**Subjects**

Participants were 69 students who volunteered to fulfill part of an intro-  
ductory psychology course requirement.

**Design and materials**

A subset of 12 of the RAT problems used in Experiment 1 was used in  
Experiment 5. Half of the problems were in the fixation condition and half  
were in the nonfixation condition. One-third of the fixation items and one-  
third of the nonfixation items were retested after no delay, one-third were  
retested after 0.5 min of free associations, and one-third were retested after  
2 min of free associations. Thus, Experiment 5 used a 2 x 3 (Fixation x  
Incubation) within-subjects design.

The paired associates consisted of RAT words with an associate printed  
next to each word. The associates were the same misleading associates used  
in Experiment 1, and were presented in sets of three paired associates. Half  
of the paired associates were related to the critical RAT test words, and half

u

were not related. There were 12 sets of paired associates, one set preceding each initial RAT problem.

The free association stimuli were one-syllable common English nouns, none of which appeared as a test word or solution to a RAT problem. They were presented as a single word on each slide.

The two response pages consisted of rows of blanks for the subjects' responses. For each trial there were three spaces for the paired associates, a space for the initial solution to a RAT problem, six spaces for each free associate, and another single space for the retest of the same RAT item.

### Procedure

Subjects were told to memorize the paired associates in pairs for the immediate paired associates test. For free association slides, they were asked to use the 15 s to generate six free associates to each free association stimulus word. Subjects were instructed on the RAT as in the previous experiments. After subjects had been told what to do on the paired associates test, the Remote Associates Test, and the free association tests, they were shown the test slides at a rate of 15 s/slide. Subjects wrote their responses in the appropriate spaces on the response page as the slides appeared.

## RESULTS

### Fixation

Performance for nonfixation items was better than for fixation problems on RAT-1 (Table 7). A *t* test was computed to compare performance on fixation items versus nonfixation items on the initial test of each RAT problem. The effect of fixation was significant,  $t(68) = 2.38$ .

### Incubation

As in Experiments 1 and 2, incubation effects were computed independently for the fixation and nonfixation conditions. Improvement, again defined as the proportion of initially unsolved items that were solved at the retest, was used as the dependent measure. Cases in which subjects solved

Table 7. Mean proportion correct on RAT-1 in Experiment 5 for fixation vs. nonfixation conditions

Condition		Fixation effect
Fixation	Nonfixation	
.15	.19	.04

*Note.* There were 6 fixation and 6 nonfixation items on RAT-1. Fixation effect = (nonfixation RAT-1 proportion correct) - (fixation RAT-1 proportion correct).

all the initial problems in a condition, all the initial problems in a condition from those subjects were deleted.

An incubation effect was found in the immediate retest condition in the condition in which the retest of incubation was significant for .03. There was no effect of incubation on scores as the dependent measure.

A  $3 \times 3$  (Incubation  $\times$  Ability) ANOVA was computed for scores below, at, and above the median on the RAT problems. The Incubation  $\times$  Ability interaction was significant,  $F(2, 66) = 2.81$ ,  $MS_e = .10$ ; incubation effects were greater for subjects than for the median or below the median.

## DISCUSSION

The item-by-item test procedure used in this experiment was successful in revealing incubation effects. In Experiment 4, the fixation manipulation was more effective than by distracting attention, but only if it occurred prior to the initial test of the problem. It can be concluded that simply preceding a problem with a test serves to fixate problem solving. Problems were preceded by a paired associates test in the condition. A fixation effect was found on solving performance following a paired associates test. Performance following unrelated paired associates was also better than performance following a paired associates test.

Incubation effects appeared on the retest, consistent with the findings of Experiment 5. The results over the presentation orders in Experiment 5 may have been influenced by the interaction between fixation and incubation effects.

Even though improvement scores were higher on incubation effects (i.e., greater improvement scores),

Table 8. Mean improvement scores on RAT-1 for 0-min, 0.5-min, and 2-min incubation conditions

Condition	Incubation	
	0 min	0.5 min
Fixation	.02	.02
Nonfixation	.14	.14

*Note.* Improvement = (no. newly solved items at retest) / (no. items initially unsolved). Incubation effect = (2-min improvement) - (0-min improvement).

s of paired associates, one set preceding  
 e one-syllable common English nouns,  
 rd or solution to a RAT problem. They  
 each slide.  
 ed of rows of blanks for the subjects'  
 e three spaces for the paired associates,  
 RAT problem, six spaces for each free  
 for the retest of the same RAT item.

the paired associates in pairs for the  
 r free association slides, they were asked  
 associates to each free association stimulus  
 he RAT as in the previous experiments.  
 to do on the paired associates test, the  
 ee association tests, they were shown the  
 Subjects wrote their responses in the  
 page as the slides appeared.

items was better than for fixation  
 A *t* test was computed to compare  
 ersus nonfixation items on the initial  
 effect of fixation was significant,  $t(68)$

ubation effects were computed indepen-  
 tion conditions. Improvement, again de-  
 unsolved items that were solved at the  
 measure. Cases in which subjects solved

on RAT-1 in Experiment 5 for fixation

Condition	Fixation effect
Nonfixation items on RAT-1. Fixation proportion correct) - (fixation RAT-1 pro-	.04

all the initial problems in a condition allowed for no improvement; data from those subjects were deleted from the incubation analyses.

An incubation effect was found for the fixation condition; improvement in the immediate retest condition averaged only 2%, compared with 13% in the condition in which the retest was most delayed (Table 8). The effect of incubation was significant for the fixation items,  $F(2, 92) = 6.99, MS_e = .03$ . There was no effect of incubation for the nonfixation items,  $F < 1.0$ .

A  $3 \times 3$  (Incubation  $\times$  Ability) ANOVA was computed using improvement scores as the dependent measure. Ability was low, median, or high for those scoring below, at, and above the median, respectively, on the initial tests of the RAT problems. The Incubation  $\times$  Ability interaction was significant,  $F(2, 66) = 2.81, MS_e = .10$ ; incubation effects were smaller for the low ability subjects than for the median or high ability subjects.

**DISCUSSION**

The item-by-item test procedure for testing fixation and incubation effects was successful in revealing both phenomena. As in Experiment 4, the fixation manipulation operated by diverting memory rather than by distracting attention, because each fixation manipulation occurred prior to the initial test of a RAT item. Furthermore, it cannot be concluded that simply preceding the RAT problems with a memory test serves to fixate problem solving; in Experiment 5 all problems were preceded by a paired associates task, regardless of the fixation condition. A fixation effect was observed by comparing problem-solving performance following related paired associates with performance following unrelated paired associates.

Incubation effects appeared only for the fixation condition, a result consistent with the findings of Experiments 1 and 2. The fine control over the presentation orders and times for the RAT problems in Experiment 5 may have been important for observing this relationship between fixation and incubation.

Even though improvement scores were worse for the fixated items, incubation effects (i.e., greater improvement at retest following a delay

Table 8. Mean improvement and incubation effects in Experiment 5 for 0-min, 0.5-min, and 2-min incubation conditions

Condition	Incubation time			Incubation effect
	0 min	0.5 min	2 min	
Fixation	.02	.00	.13	.11
Nonfixation	.14	.13	.20	.06

Note. Improvement = (no. newly solved at retest)/(2 - no. solved on RAT-1). Incubation effect = (2-min improvement) - (0-min improvement).

compared with an immediate retest) were greater following fixated trials (Table 8). Thus, it appears that the fixation effect was strong enough to carry over to the retest of the RAT problems, and that relief from this persistent fixation did not occur except perhaps for the longest incubation periods.

Ability was related to incubation effects in Experiment 5, with the greatest effect seen in the high ability subjects. This differs from the effect of ability on incubation in Experiment 1 in which low ability subjects showed the greatest incubation effect, and in Experiment 2 in which ability was not related to incubation effects.

## GENERAL DISCUSSION

The five experiments demonstrate very clearly that performance on RAT problems can be made to suffer by introducing misleading information either prior to or during the test of RAT problems. All fixation manipulations were effective at decreasing initial RAT scores.

Incubation effects were found in all three experiments which tested incubation, and occurred only following fixation manipulations. Although the results do not demonstrate that fixation is necessary or sufficient for producing the type of incubation effects observed in common everyday experience, they do show a way that reliable incubation effects can be observed in the laboratory. Furthermore, the pattern of incubation following a problem-solving block is consistent with anecdotal accounts of incubation in which the problem solver first "slides insensibly into a groove and may not be able to escape at the moment [after which] the incubation period simply allows time for an erroneous set to die out and leave the thinker free to take a fresh look at his problem" (Woodworth & Schlosberg, 1954, p. 841).

The present experiments demonstrated a variety of techniques, all of which were effective at inducing fixation (i.e., decreased initial problem-solving performance). The Stroop-like effects of the simultaneous distractors may suggest a methodology for observing interference in problem solving, similar to color-word or picture-word interference effects observed in relatively simple naming tasks. The manipulations that may affect attention (Experiments 1, 2, and 3), however, may not be as methodologically clean for inducing a memory retrieval block as techniques that prime memory but cannot cause perceptual distraction at the time of the problem-solving task (Experiments 4 and 5).

Several hypotheses about the cause(s) of incubation have been advanced in the literature on the subject. The set-breaking hypothesis

discussed earlier (e.g., Woodworth & Schlosberg, 1954) offered explanation, but certain hypotheses (e.g., Woodward & Schlosberg, 1954) suggest that mental fatigue thwarts initial problem solving and that more energy can be given to an incubation period. It has it that intermittent consciousness occurs during the incubation period; this allows the solver to work on problems. Both the fatigue hypothesis and the energy hypothesis assume that the subject is active during the incubation period, allowing the solver to work on the unfilled time. Although these hypotheses are not critically test these hypotheses, the present experiments used filler tasks used in Experiment 1, which were more demanding, and they were stronger than the problem-solving task.

Another hypothesis was offered by Smith and Blankenship (1981) using a modified tip-of-the-tongue effect (e.g., McNeill, 1966) to investigate a tip-of-the-tongue effect in subjects a definition of a rare word (i.e., subjects felt that they knew the word). Yaniv and Meyer collected a list of words and nonwords in a lexical decision task (Yaniv & Meyer, 1971). Priming of initially unretrieved words by performance on the lexical decision task was interpreted this as evidence in support of the tip-of-the-tongue hypothesis, which states that the information is initially unsuccessful retrieval attempt is not accessible to subsequent attempts. The present study tested this hypothesis by hypothesizing (a) that the information is sensitized via the initial retrieval attempt (data), and (b) that with increased incubation opportunities for encounters with the information to this explanation, as time goes on, the solver will "stumble across" the information and be eventually sensitive to recognizing it.

Another explanation of incubation is that the information for a problem is initially inaccessible but that at one point it emerges into consciousness as a solution to a problem. This type of explanation is the idea that retrieval or problem solving occurs at an unconscious or tacit level after the information is retrieved (1981) referred to this as the

test) were greater following fixation than that the fixation effect was strongest of the RAT problems, and that it did not occur except perhaps for

on effects in Experiment 5, with the ability subjects. This differs from the Experiment 1 in which low ability subjects showed an incubation effect, and in Experiment 2 no incubation effects.

strate very clearly that performance can suffer by introducing misleading information during the test of RAT problems. All subjects were able to solve the problems more quickly at decreasing initial RAT scores. This was true in all three experiments which tested the effects of following fixation manipulations. All subjects demonstrated that fixation is necessary for the occurrence of incubation effects observed in the laboratory. They do show a way that reliable information can be introduced in the laboratory. Furthermore, the presence of a problem-solving block is consistent with the incubation in which the problem solver is stuck and may not be able to escape the block during the incubation period simply allows time to pass and leave the thinker free to take a break (Woodworth & Schlosberg, 1954, p. 841). The present study demonstrated a variety of techniques, all of which produced a decrease in initial RAT scores. The Stroop-like effects of the simultaneous presentation methodology for observing interference in relatively simple naming tasks. The present study was methodologically clean for inducing a memory block at prime memory but cannot cause a block of the problem-solving task (Ex-

periment 5). The cause(s) of incubation have been addressed in the present subject. The set-breaking hypothesis

discussed earlier (e.g., Woodworth & Schlosberg, 1954) is a commonly offered explanation, but certainly not the only one. The fatigue hypothesis (e.g., Woodward & Schlosberg, 1954, p. 838) states that mental fatigue thwarts initial problem solving, and that after a rest more energy can be given to an unsolved problem. Another hypothesis has it that intermittent conscious work on the problem continues during the incubation period; thus, incubation results from extra work on problems. Both the fatigue hypothesis and the extra work hypothesis assume that the subject is not busily engaged in work during the incubation period, allowing either a rest or extra work during the unfilled time. Although the present set of experiments did not critically test these hypotheses, it should be noted that the incubation filler tasks used in Experiments 1, 2, and 5 were very difficult and demanding, and they were stressed to the subjects as being no less important than the problem-solving tasks.

Another hypothesis was offered by Yaniv and Meyer (1987), who used a modified tip-of-the-tongue (TOT) paradigm (e.g., Brown & McNeill, 1966) to investigate a type of incubation effect. After reading subjects a definition of a rare word which induced the TOT state (i.e., subjects felt that they knew the word but could not name it), Yaniv and Meyer collected a feeling-of-knowing judgment for the word. The unretrieved word was then inserted among other words and nonwords in a lexical decision task (e.g., Meyer & Schvaneveldt, 1971). Priming of initially unretrieved words was found, as evidenced by performance on the lexical decision task. Yaniv and Meyer interpreted this as evidence in support of the memory sensitization hypothesis, which states that the partial activation resulting from the initial unsuccessful retrieval attempt makes the activated target more accessible to subsequent attempts. Yaniv and Meyer explained incubation by hypothesizing (a) that targets for initially unsolved problems are sensitized via the initial retrieval attempts (as evidenced by their data), and (b) that with increased incubation times there are more opportunities for encounters with the relevant target. Thus, according to this explanation, as time goes by it is more likely that the problem solver will "stumble across" the correct target, and will be exceptionally sensitive to recognizing the target as a solution.

Another explanation of incubation effects is that the relevant target information for a problem increases in accessibility over time such that at one point it emerges into consciousness, thus providing the solution to a problem. This type of explanation is consistent with the idea that retrieval or problem solving continues to occur at some unconscious or tacit level after the initial failed attempts. Perkins (1981) referred to this as the "still-waters theory," which states that



h quiet on the surface, or quiet at  
erest is concerned. Active thinking,  
iously, proceeds unconsciously for a  
son rests or attends to other matters”  
nber of alternative explanations of  
g “physical refreshment, forgetting  
or noticing clues in unexpected cir-  
ving a number of anecdotal cases of  
personal experiences to the insights  
uded that “deferring a troublesome  
r occasionally helps for reasons that  
ed unconscious thinking” (p. 57).

nism by which the accessibility of a  
after the initial failed attempts at a  
not depend upon the occurrence of  
ur hypothesis is based upon the pos-  
ttempts at solving a problem result  
milar to output interference (e.g.,  
n or a memory probe for which a  
is a blocking piece of information  
een temporarily increased), it should  
ponses, including the correct target,  
d in accessibility.<sup>2</sup> This situation op-  
pock (e.g., Roediger & Neely, 1982),  
target is prevented. As more time  
mpts, the retrieval block may “wear  
may decrease in accessibility, making  
e accessible. Thus, this explanation  
ypoththesized progressive increase in  
ieved target.

sibility approach to incubation effects  
s by Smith and Blankenship (1989).  
e similar to that used in the present  
ormation presented at the initial test.  
xating effects of the misleading in-  
was found that memory of the mis-  
y related to incubation effects. That  
s, there was greater problem-solving  
of the misleading distractors.

ility of the target solution was de-  
licated in at least two of the present  
r than retrieval blocks, however, are  
sibility and, therefore, fixation and

incubation. For example, increased sensitivity to a solution may also affect target accessibility, as suggested by Yaniv and Meyer (1987). Encountering the target solution or associates of the target during the incubation period will probably increase the accessibility of the solution. Variations in the way that memory is probed may affect target accessibility. Temporary mental fatigue might also result in a momentary block to problem solving. A retrieval block is, however, a reasonable hypothetical cause of failures in initial problem solving, especially because early incorrect retrievals can induce such a block.

Ability, as measured by performance on the initial problem-solving tasks, was not obviously or reliably related to incubation effects in the present experiments (Table 9). Numerically, the largest incubation effects occurred for the group scoring high on the initial RAT in one experiment (5), for the median group in one experiment (2), and for the low scoring group in one experiment (1). Thus, the present results dispute both the conclusion of Murray and Denny (1969) that incubation is restricted to low ability subjects, and of Patrick (1986) that incubation occurs only in high scoring subjects. Instead, we propose that incubation may be most likely to occur when easy-to-solve problems are initially thwarted by fixation. What makes a problem easy in a control (nonfixated) condition may relate, for example, to the subject's problem-solving ability, practice, the presence of useful hints, or the normative difficulty of the problem. In terms of accessibility, this means that when problems with highly accessible solutions (under control conditions) are fixated during or prior to initial problem-solving attempts, the increase over time in accessibility of the temporarily blocked solutions will be great, thus causing incubation.

Because incubation effects have not enjoyed much support in past laboratory studies, finding incubation effects in three of the present

Table 9. Incubation effects as a function of ability

Experiment	Ability		
	High	Median	Low
1	.02 (15)	.13 (3)	.29 (18)
2	.00 (23)	.19 (29)	.02 (27)
5	.70 (5)	.18 (14)	.06 (17)

*Note.* Ability was determined by scores on RAT-1, above, at, or below the median for the high, median, and low ability groups. Numbers in parentheses indicate the number of subjects in each group. For Experiments 1 and 2, incubation = (incubated improvement) - (nonincubated improvement). For Experiment 5, incubation effect = (2-min improvement) - (0-min improvement).

experiments adds considerably to the empirical foundation of incubation effects in the laboratory. In all three of those findings, incubation was detected only following the fixation manipulation. In no comparison was a reliable incubation effect found without a prior fixation manipulation. These results support the contention that incubation in problem solving can be observed as fixation loses its potency.

**Appendix:** RAT test items shown in uppercase, distractors in lowercase (related associate/unrelated associate), and solutions in boldface

	Problems		Solutions
1. LICK tongue/pupil	SPRINKLE rain/square	MINES gold/plaza	<b>salt</b>
2. WIDOW woman/pail	BITE chew/page	MONKEY wrench/church	<b>spider</b>
3. TYPE style/world	GHOST goblin/school	STORY tale/ankle	<b>writer</b>
4. SURPRISE trick/town	LINE angle/pond	BIRTHDAY cake/top	<b>party</b>
5. WHEEL tire/child	ELECTRIC cord/coat	HIGH low/letter	<b>chair</b>
6. CAT nap/mind	SLEEP might/vegetable	BOARD wood/pump	<b>walk</b>
7. SHIP ocean/police	OUTER inner/soap	CRAWL floor/money	<b>space</b>
8. BALL soccer/tea	STORM tornado/file	MAN boy/carrot	<b>snow</b>
9. FAMILY mother/step	APPLE pie/worship	HOUSE home/errand	<b>tree</b>
10. ATTORNEY lawyer/nail	SELF me/herd	SPENDING shopping/scar	<b>defense</b>
11. WORM bug/diaper	SCOTCH whiskey/farm	RED green/empty	<b>tape</b>
12. WATER bath/win	PICK choose/milk	SKATE board/calf	<b>ice</b>
13. RIVER lake/omen	NOTE music/April	BLOOD wound/grouch	<b>bank</b>
14. ROUGH smooth/holster	RESISTOR circuit/nude	BEER bottle/sole	<b>draft</b>
15. FOOD eat/in-law	CATCHER pitcher/pail	HOT cold/harbor	<b>dog</b>
16. HEARTED broken/bottle	FEET inches/hem	BITTER sweet/rifle	<b>cold</b>

17. DARK light/seam	SHOT gun/desk
18. SANDWICH jelly/sentence	GOLF course/r
19. GRAVY potato/baseball	SHOW movie/st
20. ARM leg/election	COAL furnace/

### Notes

This research was supported by N01 RO1 MH44730-01 to Steven M. Smith. We express our gratitude to Edward Vela, whose comments led to Allison Cohen, Susan Costin, and John Stakes, and John Williamson, who provided the stimulus. Also thank Donelson Dulany and Robert Shiffrin for an earlier form of this manuscript.

Correspondence concerning this article should be addressed to Steven M. Smith, Department of Psychology, University of Texas at Austin, TX 77843. Received for publication, June 6, 1990.

1. Significance levels were fixed at .05. Two-tailed tests were used for all comparisons.

2. Theoretically, this decrease in performance in a number of ways, including the possibility that incorrect target inhibits other responses. In the present model (e.g., Rundus, 1973; Shiffrin, 1977), the overall probability of retrieving an item is the probability of retrieving an item plus the probability of retrieving other responses.

### References

- Adamson, R. E. (1952). Functional fixation: A repetition of three experiments. *Journal of Experimental Psychology*, 45, 288-291.
- Adamson, R. E., & Taylor, D. W. (1954). Elapsed time and to set. *Journal of Experimental Psychology*, 47, 1-10.
- Anderson, B. F. (1975). *Cognitive Psychology*. New York: Holt, Rinehart, & Winston.
- Birch, H. G., & Rabinowitz, H. S. (1975). Experience on productive thinking. *Journal of Experimental Psychology*, 104, 121-125.
- Brown, R., & McNeill, D. (1966). The effect of fixation on the recall of words. *Journal of Verbal Learning and Verbal Behavior*, 5, 1-10.
- Dominowski, R. L., & Jenrick, R. (1977). The effect of fixation on the recall of words. *Journal of Verbal Learning and Verbal Behavior*, 16, 1-10.



the empirical foundation of incubation all three of those findings, including the fixation manipulation. In no condition was the fixation effect found without a prior incubation effect. These results support the contention that incubation can be observed as fixation loses its

in uppercase, distractors in lowercase letters, and solutions in boldface

17. DARK	SHOT	SUN	<b>glasses</b>
light/seam	gun/desk	moon/crank	
18. SANDWICH	GOLF	CANADIAN	<b>club</b>
jelly/sentence	course/robin	Montreal/neon	
19. GRAVY	SHOW	TUG	<b>boat</b>
potato/baseball	movie/stitches	pull/profit	
20. ARM	COAL	PEACH	<b>pit</b>
leg/election	furnace/belly	pear/football	

	Solutions
MINES	<b>salt</b>
gold/plaza	
MONKEY	<b>spider</b>
wrench/church	
STORY	<b>writer</b>
tale/ankle	
BIRTHDAY	<b>party</b>
cake/top	
HIGH	<b>chair</b>
low/letter	
BOARD	<b>walk</b>
wood/pump	
CRAWL	<b>space</b>
floor/money	
MAN	<b>snow</b>
boy/carrot	
HOUSE	<b>tree</b>
home/errand	
SPENDING	<b>defense</b>
shopping/scar	
RED	<b>tape</b>
green/empty	
SKATE	<b>ice</b>
board/calf	
BLOOD	<b>bank</b>
wound/grouch	
BEER	<b>draft</b>
bottle/sole	
HOT	<b>dog</b>
cold/harbor	
BITTER	<b>cold</b>
sweet/rifle	

### Notes

This research was supported by National Institute of Mental Health Grant 1 RO1 MH44730-01 to Steven M. Smith. The authors wish to express their gratitude to Edward Vela, whose help on the project was very valuable, and to Allison Cohen, Susan Costin, Michele Grossman, Jay Laengrich, Jesse Stakes, and John Williamson, who collected the reported data. The authors also thank Donelson Dulany and Janet Metcalfe, whose comments on an earlier form of this manuscript were very helpful.

Correspondence concerning this article should be addressed to Steven M. Smith, Department of Psychology, Texas A&M University, College Station, TX 77843. Received for publication July 19, 1989; revision received March 6, 1990.

1. Significance levels were fixed at  $p < .05$  for all statistical tests reported. Two-tailed tests were used for all  $t$  tests reported.

2. Theoretically, this decrease in target accessibility could be accomplished in a number of ways, including lateral inhibition (i.e., activation of the incorrect target inhibits other related targets), or a probabilistic retrieval model (e.g., Rundus, 1973; Shiffrin, 1970). In the probabilistic model, the overall probability of retrieving an item remains at 1.0; therefore, increasing the probability of retrieving an item necessarily decreases the probability of retrieving other responses.

### References

- Adamson, R. E. (1952). Functional fixedness as related to problem solving: A repetition of three experiments. *Journal of Experimental Psychology*, *44*, 288-291.
- Adamson, R. E., & Taylor, D. W. (1954). Functional fixedness as related to elapsed time and to set. *Journal of Experimental Psychology*, *47*, 122-126.
- Anderson, B. F. (1975). *Cognitive psychology*. New York: Academic Press.
- Birch, H. G., & Rabinowitz, H. S. (1951). The negative effect of previous experience on productive thinking. *Journal of Experimental Psychology*, *41*, 121-125.
- Brown, R., & McNeill, D. (1966). The "tip of the tongue" phenomenon. *Journal of Verbal Learning and Verbal Behavior*, *5*, 325-337.
- Dominowski, R. L., & Jenrick, R. (1972). Effects of hints and interpolated

activity on solution of an insight problem. *Psychonomic Science*, 26, 335-337.

Dreistadt, R. (1969). The use of analogies and incubation in obtaining insights in creative problem solving. *Journal of Psychology*, 71, 159-175.

Duncker, K. (1945). On problem solving. *Psychological Monographs*, 58(5, Whole No. 270).

Fulgosi, A., & Guilford, J. P. (1968). Short-term incubation in divergent production. *American Journal of Psychology*, 81, 241-246.

Gall, M., & Mendelsohn, G. A. (1967). Effects of facilitating techniques and subject/experimenter interactions on creative problem solving. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 5, 211-216.

Gick, M. L., & Holyoak, K. J. (1980). Analogical problem solving. *Cognitive Psychology*, 12, 306-355.

Jones, G. V. (1989). Back to Woodworth: The role of interlopers in the tip of the tongue phenomenon. *Memory & Cognition*, 17, 69-76.

Jones, G. V., & Langford, S. (1987). Phonological blocking in the tip of the tongue state. *Cognition*, 26, 115-122.

Klein, G. S. (1964). Semantic power measured through the interference of words with color naming. *American Journal of Psychology*, 77, 576-588.

Luchins, A. S., & Luchins, E. H. (1959). *Rigidity of behavior*. Eugene: University of Oregon Press.

Luchins, A. S., & Luchins, E. H. (1970). *Wertheimer's seminars revisited: Problem solving and thinking* (Vol. 3). Albany: Faculty-Student Association, State University of New York.

Lupker, S. J. (1979). The semantic nature of response competition in the picture-word interference task. *Memory & Cognition*, 7, 485-495.

Maier, N. R. F. (1931). Reasoning in humans. II. The solution of a problem and its appearance in consciousness. *Journal of Comparative Psychology*, 12, 181-194.

Mednick, S. A. (1962). The associative basis of the creative process. *Psychological Review*, 69, 220-232.

Meyer, D. E., & Schvaneveldt, R. W. (1971). Facilitation in recognizing pairs of words: Evidence of a dependence between retrieval operations. *Journal of Experimental Psychology*, 90, 227-234.

Murray, H. G., & Denny, J. P. (1969). Interaction of ability level and interpolated activity (opportunity for incubation) in human problem solving. *Psychological Reports*, 24, 271-276.

Olton, R. M., & Johnson, D. M. (1976). Mechanisms of incubation in creative problem solving. *American Journal of Psychology*, 89, 617-630.

Patrick, A. S. (1986). The role of ability in creative "incubation." *Personality & Individual Differences*, 7, 169-174.

Perkins, D. N. (1981). *The mind's best work*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

Posner, M. I. (1973). *Cognition: An introduction*. Glenview, IL: Scott, Foresman.

Roediger, H. L., III, & Neely, J. H. (1982). Retrieval blocks in episodic and semantic memory. *Canadian Journal of Psychology*, 36, 213-242.

Rundus, D. (1973). Negative effects of Verbal Learning and Verbal

Shiffrin, R. M. (1970). Memory search in human memory (pp. 375-447).

Smith, S. M., & Blankenship, S. E. (1973). *Psychonomic Society*, 27, 311-316.

Woodworth, R. S., & Schlosberg, H. (1946). *Psychology of human learning*. New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston.

Yaniv, I., & Meyer, D. E. (1987). Access to stored information: Potential for problem solving. *Journal of Experimental Psychology*, 13, 187-205.

- problem. *Psychonomic Science*, 26, 335-344.
- analogies and incubation in obtaining insight. *Journal of Psychology*, 71, 159-175.
- analogical problem solving. *Psychological Monographs*, 58(5), 311-324.
- 6). Short-term incubation in divergent thinking. *Psychology*, 81, 241-246.
- 7). Effects of facilitating techniques and incubation on creative problem solving. *Journal of Experimental Psychology*, 5, 211-216.
- 8). Analogical problem solving. *Cognitive Psychology*, 17, 69-76.
- 9). Phonological blocking in the tip of the tongue. *Journal of Experimental Psychology*, 77, 576-588.
- 10). *Rigidity of behavior*. Eugene: University of Oregon Press.
- 11). *Wertheimer's seminars revisited: Problem solving*. Faculty-Student Association, State University of New York at Stony Brook.
- 12). The nature of response competition in the tip-of-the-tongue effect. *Memory & Cognition*, 7, 485-495.
- 13). Problem solving in humans. II. The solution of a problem by analogy. *Journal of Comparative Psychology*, 65, 1-10.
- 14). The cognitive basis of the creative process. *Psychological Review*, 78, 187-205.
- 15). (1971). Facilitation in recognizing pairs of items: Implications for the relationship between retrieval operations. *Journal of Experimental Psychology*, 89, 227-234.
- 16). Interaction of ability level and incubation in human problem solving. *Journal of Experimental Psychology*, 89, 617-630.
- 17). Mechanisms of incubation in creative problem solving. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 17, 174-184.
- 18). *Incubation of ideas*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.
- 19). *Introduction*. Glenview, IL: Scott, Foresman.
- 20). (1982). Retrieval blocks in episodic and semantic memory. *Journal of Psychology*, 36, 213-242.
- 21). Rundus, D. (1973). Negative effects of using list items as recall cues. *Journal of Verbal Learning and Verbal Behavior*, 12, 43-50.
- 22). Shiffrin, R. M. (1970). Memory search. In D. A. Norman (Ed.), *Models of human memory* (pp. 375-447). New York: Academic Press.
- 23). Smith, S. M., & Blankenship, S. E. (1989). Incubation effects. *Bulletin of the Psychonomic Society*, 27, 311-314.
- 24). Woodworth, R. S., & Schlosberg, H. (1954). *Experimental psychology* (rev. ed.). New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston.
- 25). Yaniv, I., & Meyer, D. E. (1987). Activation and metacognition of inaccessible stored information: Potential bases for incubation effects in problem solving. *Journal of Experimental Psychology: Learning, Memory, and Cognition*, 13, 187-205.