

1 **Distinct role of flexible and stable encoding in sequential working memory**

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8 **Abstract**

9 The serial-position effect in working memory is considered important for studying how a
10 sequence of sensory information can be retained and manipulated simultaneously in neural
11 memory circuits. Here, via a precise analysis of the primacy and recency effects in human
12 psychophysical experiments, we propose that stable and flexible coding take distinct roles of
13 retaining and updating information in working memory, and that their combination induces
14 serial-position effects spontaneously. We found that stable encoding retains memory to
15 induce the primacy effect, while flexible encoding used for learning new inputs induces the
16 recency effect. A model simulation based on human data, confirmed that a neural network
17 with both flexible and stable synapses could reproduce the major characteristics of serial-
18 position effects. Our new prediction, that the control of resource allocation by flexible-stable
19 coding balance can modulate memory performance in sequence-specific manner, was
20 supported by pre-cued memory performance data in humans.

21

22 **Introduction**

23 The brain receives various types of sensory information from the external environment and
24 encodes them as a form of working memory¹⁻⁴. This enables short-term storage of received
25 information and manipulation of it at the same time, which is crucial to cognitive processes
26 such as visual and auditory perception of sequential information⁵⁻⁷.

27 Early studies reported that the capacity of working memory is limited^{3,7,8}. Conceptual
28 models suggested that working memory has a fixed number of slots, such as Miller's magical
29 number seven⁹ or Cowan's number four¹⁰. More recently, psychophysical observations of
30 working memory in multi-item tasks revealed that human working memory can be better

31 described by the resource model where a limited memory resource is flexibly allocated to the
32 information of each item so that the amount of allocated resource determines the memory
33 resolution^{3,11–14}. However, these conceptual models simply describe a relationship between
34 memory performance and resource allocation, but do not account for the underlying principle
35 of memory resource allocation that enables retaining and updating information in working
36 memory.

37 One important observation in the sequential working memory task is that performance
38 for each item varies by the order of presentation, referred to as the serial-position effect<sup>5,15–
39 20</sup>. The performance curves of subjects typically appear U-shaped in consequence, because
40 most subjects better memorize items presented first and last in the sequence than the others
41 in the middle. These are often referred to as the primacy^{17,18,21} and recency effects^{5,17,18,21},
42 respectively, and are considered to reflect a key mechanism of how neural resource is utilized,
43 specifically in sequential memory coding.

44 Various models have been proposed to explain the underlying mechanism of this
45 serial-position effect^{18–20}, but a complete accounting of the observed results has not yet been
46 achieved. For instance, one model suggested that the serial-position effects arise from the
47 processes of temporal decay and restoration of memory^{22,23}, but other studies claimed that a
48 variation of retention time alone could not regenerate the observed profile of memory
49 performance^{5,24}. Similarly, another model suggested that the recency effect is explained by
50 assuming a specific type of resource reallocation to recent items^{3,5}, but the primacy effect
51 could not be addressed together in this model. It also has been suggested that the primacy
52 and recency effects could arise from declining encoding strength accompanied by response
53 suppression during memory recall^{24,25}, but the neural mechanism of this conceptual memory
54 processes is not yet fully understood.

55 Here, we propose that the serial-position effect arises from two distinct types of neural
56 encoding that are indispensable for working memory function. Stable encoding of information
57 allows retaining of previous memory and results in the primacy effect; while flexible encoding
58 enables update of recent memory and results in the recency effect. Our results not only
59 explain the origin of the serial-position effects, but also suggest that coexistence of flexible
60 and stable coding is required to form working memory.

61 First, we performed a human psychophysical experiment and precisely investigated

62 the serial-position effect. Based on the quantitative analysis of order-dependent memory
63 performance, we suspected that the primacy and the recency effect could arise from two
64 different mechanisms. With a model neural network simulation of controlled synaptic plasticity,
65 we found that stable synapses could retain old information, while flexible synapses could
66 encode new information. Taken together, we could reproduce the observed serial-position
67 effect by balancing the contribution of flexible and stable synapses in a model neural network.
68 Our model also predicted that modulation of the flexible/stable synapse ratio would change
69 the strength of the recency/primacy effects, and also modulate memory performance in an
70 order-specific manner. Our prediction was validated by human psychophysical experiments,
71 in which a pre-cue of stimulus information altered subjects' performance order- specifically
72 as predicted.

73 In summary, we propose that the serial-position effect of human sequential memory
74 reflects distinct roles of flexible and stable neural encodings, and that this enables storage
75 and instantaneous manipulation of information in working memory.

76

77 **Results**

78 *Serial-position effects of sequential working memory*

79 To quantify the serial-position effects of sequential working memory, we designed a human
80 psychophysical experiment using non-semantic visual patterns of smoothed white noises to
81 minimize any correlation between items (see Methods for details). Subjects were asked to
82 memorize visual patterns presented sequentially and to recall the memorized sequence freely
83 (Fig. 1a and Supplementary Fig. S1). As expected, a strong serial-position effect was
84 observed in most subjects, in which memory performance for the first and last items in a
85 sequence was higher than that for the other items (Fig. 1b and c).

86 According to the resource model^{3,5,26}, the amount of memory resource allocated to
87 each item determines the performance (Fig. 1d). In this view, more resources need to be
88 allocated to the first and last items to reproduce the serial-position effect in our observation.
89 However, the U-shaped memory performance cannot be regenerated by assuming a simple
90 form of resource allocation that monotonically increases or decreases. Instead, we
91 hypothesized that the primacy and recency effects might arise from two distinct mechanisms

92 of resource allocation (Fig. 1e): one with increasing amount of resources by order, and the
93 other with decreasing. We observed that the primacy effect was well fitted to an exponential
94 function decreasing by order, while the recency effect was to an increasing one. This
95 suggests that two distinct types of resource allocation model are required to reproduce a
96 complete profile of the serial-position effect.

97 In the primacy effect, decreasing performance suggests that the amount of resources
98 allocated to each item decreases by order (Fig. 1f, left). This phenomenon can be explained
99 if we introduce a scenario of “stable” coding of information, in which the resource used by an
100 old item is very stable, so that it cannot be shared by a new item received. Then, an old item
101 is better retained than a new one, the amount of resource decreases by order in this instance.
102 On the other hand, increasing performance in the recency effect can arise from a “flexible”
103 coding of information, in which the resource allocated to an old item can be readily overwritten
104 by the information of a new item (Fig. 1f, right). Thus, old items are better retained than a new
105 one in the stable coding scenario, while the memory of a previous item is degraded when a
106 new item is memorized in the flexible coding scenario. Under these assumptions, we
107 supposed that stable encoding would induce the primacy effect, while flexible encoding would
108 induce the recency effect, and that the serial-position effect reflects a collaboration of the
109 flexible and stable encodings in working memory. Thus, we modeled how memory resource
110 is allocated under flexible and stable encoding schemes, by quantitatively analyzing the
111 recency effect and primacy effect, respectively.

112

113 *Recency effect by flexible encoding*

114 To model the profile of resource allocation by flexible encoding, we first examined how the
115 performance for previous items was altered when a new item was introduced (Fig. 2a). For
116 instance, we investigated how performance (or presumably the amount of allocated resource)
117 for the previous three items is modulated by a new (fourth) item, by measuring difference
118 between two performance curves (Δ Performance) of which the number of total item is $N = 4$
119 vs. $N = 3$ (Fig. 2b). We found that performance for previous items was decreased by a new
120 item, in a way that the correct ratio for more recent items was decreased more. Interestingly,
121 the trend of memory degradation was observed to be similar in different cases ($N = 6$ vs. $N =$
122 5 , $N = 5$ vs. $N = 4$ and $N = 4$ vs. $N = 3$) (Fig. 2c). This common trend of the performance

123 change, normalized to the performance of the last item, was well fitted to a single power-law
124 function ($y = -\gamma^{|x|}$; $\gamma = 0.55$), suggesting that the memory resource for previous items was
125 taken by a new item with a constant ratio (γ).

126 Based on this observation that a new item overwrites the memory resource of older
127 items, we proposed a sequential overwriting model as a revision of the resource model
128 previously suggested^{3,5,26} (Fig. 2d). First, following the resource model, we assumed that an
129 item is memorized in the memory resource allocated to each item and that the memory
130 performance for each item is proportional to the amount of resource allocated. Next, we
131 hypothesized that memory resource (or performance) for previous items are degraded by a
132 new item with an overwriting ratio, γ (Fig. 2c and d), so that the memory resource decreases
133 as a power of γ by the item order, as observed in our experiment. In this model, the amount
134 of performance change in previous items by sequential overwriting can be estimated
135 mathematically. After sequential overwriting of every item, memory performance was
136 estimated by the amount of resource remaining (see Methods for details). In this scenario,
137 the profile of the memory performance curve only varied by overwriting ratio, γ (Fig. 2e, left).
138 For non-zero γ , memory performance for a recent item was always better than for previous
139 items, signifying the recency effect. In addition, performance for the last item was not affected
140 by resource overwriting (Fig. 2e, right). We found that our sequential overwriting model could
141 not only reproduce the profile of the observed recency effect, but could also predict the
142 degree of resource overwriting (estimated parameter $\gamma = 0.47$) that matches the observed
143 profile of performance curve (Fig. 2f). Overall, our model implies that the recency effect might
144 be a result of flexible encoding of sequential information.

145

146 *Primacy effect by stable encoding*

147 Flexible encoding model alone cannot explain the other face of sequential working memory.
148 The primacy effect reveals that allocated memory resource seems to decrease by order (Fig.
149 3a). To model the mechanism of declining memory resources, we introduced the concept of
150 stable encoding of information, in which the resource allocated to an old item is very stable,
151 so that it is not affected by a new item received (Fig. 3b). In this scenario, the amount of
152 allocated resource decreases by order, because the total resource available is limited. Thus
153 old items are better retained than a new one. To investigate this issue in the data, we

154 questioned how the amount of allocated memory resource is determined when there is no
155 influence of resource overwriting. For this, we investigated memory performance for the last
156 items in various set sizes, because they are not affected by the next item in the sequence,
157 even under flexible encoding scenarios (Fig. 3c). We observed that memory performance for
158 the last item in an experiment decreases as set size increases (Fig. 3d). Thus, we inferred
159 that the profile of memory performance unaffected by resource overwriting is a monotonously
160 decreasing curve and that more resource is allocated for earlier items if there is no resource
161 overwriting, consistent with our stable encoding scenario. From this profile of memory
162 performance for the last items, we could estimate the relative amount of resource allocated
163 to each item, which well fit an exponential function ($y = a + be^{-c(x-d)}$; $a = 0.45$, $b = 1.30$,
164 $c = 0.50$, $d = 0.16$).

165 Based on these two scenarios of increasing and declining resource profiles, we
166 hypothesized that working memory has both stable and flexible types of coding scheme. To
167 model this idea, we performed a simulation to achieve a memory performance curve to which
168 stable and flexible resources contributed together. We started from the observed profile of
169 declining memory resources by stable encoding in Fig. 3d (only the primacy effect observed)
170 and then added the flexible encoding component by allowing resource overwriting ($\gamma > 0$), as
171 modeled in Fig. 2e. We confirmed that both the primacy and recency effects can be observed
172 only when flexible encoding (non-zero resource overwriting) was added to stable encoding
173 (Fig. 3e). To reproduce quantitatively the serial-position effects observed in the experimental
174 data, we performed a parameter search for the overwriting ratio by minimizing the error
175 between the performance curves of model and data (Fig. 3f; see Methods for details). The
176 model performance curve fitted ($\gamma = 0.52$) to the experimental observations suggested that
177 the observed serial-position effect can arise when approximately half the memory resource
178 of a new item affects previous items. Taken together, our model suggests that both flexible
179 and stable encoding are required to generate the observed serial-position effect, both of
180 which are also required, in principle, for working memory.

181 182 *Working memory simulation with flexible-stable model synapses*

183 We further assumed that the memory performance curve for sequential information could be
184 altered by the balance between the relative amount of stable and flexible resources in neural

185 memory circuits (Fig. 4a). Our model predicted that if the whole resource performs flexible
186 encoding only, a new item always overwrites old items. Thus, there would be the recency
187 effect only (Fig. 4a, left). In the same way, if the whole resource was of the stable type, old
188 items would always be better retained than a new item and strong primacy effect would be
189 observed (Fig. 4a, middle). Therefore, to induce the serial-position effect, both sequential
190 overwriting and declining resources must contribute together through the performance of
191 flexible and stable encoding, respectively (Fig. 4a, right).

192 So far, we have shown that collaboration of flexible and stable encoding can generate
193 the serial-position effect, using a conceptual model only. If so, then what kind of neural factors
194 can implement two distinct encoding schemes in a neural circuit? Previously, the conventional
195 and predominant view has been that sustained activity of neurons during the delay periods
196 is the neuronal basis of working memory representation^{4,27-31}. However, more recent studies
197 have suggested a dynamic coding scenario, in which short-term retention of information is
198 patterned in neural activities via synaptic plasticity³²⁻³⁶. It was reported that neurons in rat
199 prefrontal cortex (PFC) exhibit large heterogeneity in their intrinsic temporal stability so that
200 some neurons retain stimulus information while others code more transient selectivity
201 functions. This enables reconciling of persistent and dynamic coding of the working memory³⁷.
202 Similarly, we assumed that information processing achieved by the combination of stable-
203 flexible encoding might be a key mechanism for understanding the neural basis of sequential
204 working memory.

205 To propose a possible neural basis of the serial-position effect in working memory, we
206 studied to determine if our conceptual model of stable-flexible encoding could be realized in
207 a model neural circuit, by simply introducing stable/flexible components of synaptic plasticity.
208 For this, we adapted a particular form of synaptic plasticity recently found, the labile long-
209 term potentiation (LTP) (Fig. 4b)³⁸, which can switch between stable and flexible encoding
210 depending on conditions. This synapse potentiated by high frequency stimulation can be
211 either maintained (stable) or depotentiated (flexible), depending on background activity
212 frequencies. By adapting the dynamics of this labile LTP, we introduced two types of synapses
213 into the model network: flexible and stable ones (Fig. 4c). The strength (weight) of the flexible
214 synapse is allowed to continuously change during learning, so that the synapses can learn
215 new information by sacrificing old information. In contrast, a stable synapse was set not to

216 change its synaptic weight, once it was potentiated or depotentiated enough to a certain
217 threshold value (see Methods for details).

218 Under this model condition, we expected that flexible and stable synapses could
219 induce the recency and primacy effects, respectively, and that a mixed population of them
220 could reproduce the observed serial-position effect. To test this idea, we made a model neural
221 network that received random spike trains as input, and for which the feedforward wirings
222 between input and output layers could be trained using the spike-timing-dependent plasticity
223 (STDP) learning rule (Fig. 4d and Supplementary Fig. S2a)³⁹. Performance (Memory index)
224 of the trained network was defined as the consistency of response activity of the network to
225 each trained input pattern, and was measured by the average pairwise cross-correlations
226 between the binary output firing patterns of response activity, similar to those in hippocampal
227 engram studies of fear memory^{40,41} (see previous Methods³⁹ for details, and Supplementary
228 Fig. S2b). Thus, with '1' as the memory index, if the neural output pattern for a particular input
229 pattern was always the same for that input, it would mean that this pattern was completely
230 memorized. On the other hand, if the memory index were '0', it would mean that the network
231 did not memorize an input pattern so that it generated a random response pattern. Using this
232 simplified model, we compared the memory performance of the neural populations under
233 three conditions at different rates of flexible synapses, λ : when the neural wirings consist of
234 (1) flexible synapses only ($\lambda = 1$), (2) stable synapses only ($\lambda = 0$), and (3) both flexible and
235 stable synapses ($0 < \lambda < 1$) (Fig. 4e and f).

236 When the network consisted of flexible synapses only, the memory index of newer
237 items was higher than that of previous ones, regardless of the length of sequence (Fig. 4e,
238 left). As in our previous conceptual model, flexible synaptic connections that encoded the
239 information of the old items could be altered by information about new items in this case
240 (sequential overwriting); thus this model condition generated the recency effect of working
241 memory (Fig. 4f, left). In contrast, when the network consisted of stable synapses only, the
242 memory index of newer items was lower than the old ones (Fig. 4e, middle). Stable synaptic
243 connections that encoded the information of old items were unchanged during the learning
244 of new items, thus later items had smaller numbers of synapses available for encoding
245 (declining resources), leading to the primacy effect (Fig. 4f, middle).

246 When the network consisted of both types of synapses, characteristics of flexible and
247 stable encoding were observed simultaneously (Fig. 4e, right). Old items were better retained
248 than newer ones (primacy effect) early in the sequence, while newer items were better
249 memorized than old ones (recency effect) later in the sequence. To match quantitatively the
250 profile of human data, we performed a parameter search for a ratio between flexible and
251 stable synapses in the network that would minimize the error between the model and data
252 performance curves ($\lambda = 0.51$). As a result, the model could successfully generate both the
253 primacy and recency effects observed in human data (Fig. 4f, right and Supplementary Fig.
254 S3).

255 Our results show that the primacy and recency effects in sequential working memory
256 can be generated from the cooperation of stable and flexible encodings of a neural circuit. In
257 addition, stable and flexible encodings can be achieved simply from stable/flexible types of
258 synaptic plasticity. Interestingly, stable and flexible encodings are two essential components
259 among the working memory characteristics needed to retain and update information
260 simultaneously. This implies that the serial-position effect reflects the most fundamental
261 aspects of functional circuits for working memory.

262

263 *Working memory modulation by flexible/stable encoding balance*

264 We observed that the coexistence of flexible and stable synapses generates the
265 characteristic profile of sequential memory performance (Fig. 4). Furthermore, our model
266 predicted that controlling the ratio of flexible/stable components would alter memory
267 performance differentially by item order in the sequence (Fig. 5a); that is, stronger primacy
268 effect would be observed when the ratio of stable synapse was increased (small λ), thus
269 memory performance for early items would be improved (Fig. 5b). In contrast, weaker
270 primacy effect would be generated when the ratio of flexible synapse was increased (large
271 λ), thus memory performance would be worsened for early items. Therefore, memory
272 performance could be altered item-order specifically by modulation of the flexible/stable
273 synaptic balance. Specifically, average performance modulation by flexible/stable ratio
274 control is predicted to be more significant for early-presented items (1st ~ N-1st items) than
275 for the last item (Nth item) (Fig. 5c). This sequence-specific memory modulation effect is a key

276 prediction of our sequential overwriting scenario with flexible and stable encodings.

277 With this hypothesis, we examined if this sequence-specific performance modulation
278 could be observed in human data. Our hypothesis was that the flexible/stable encoding
279 balance, could be altered if the degree of resource overwriting were changed, as shown in
280 our model simulation (Fig. 2e and Fig. 3e). We might achieve this condition of overwriting
281 variation by contrasting optimal/non-optimal allocation of memory resource. For this, we
282 designed a human psychophysical experiment of memory allocation control. We
283 hypothesized that memory allocation could be optimized if the total amount of information (or
284 number of items) to memorize was given to the subjects prior to the test. For instance, if it
285 were announced that “Four items will be given in the test”, then the subject could pre-estimate
286 the size of resource allocation for each item that optimizes the degree of overlap between
287 neural resources for different items. This pre-cue would effectively reduce the sequential
288 overwriting in flexible coding and would increase the performance of early items in the
289 sequence (Fig. 2e and Fig. 3e). On the contrary, if a wrong pre-cue were given so that the
290 subject attempted non-optimal allocation of memory resource, the effect might be reversed
291 and performance for early items degraded.

292 To test this idea, we performed a memory task with three pre-cue conditions: the total
293 number of items was (1) correctly given (correct information), (2) not given (no information),
294 or (3) wrongly given (wrong information), prior to item presentation (Fig. 5d). For wrong
295 information, the number $N - 1$ was shown before N items were presented. Actually, N
296 was varied from 4 to 6. As expected, memory performance was highest when the correct
297 information was given and was lowest when the wrong information was given (Fig. 5e). In
298 addition, performance difference was more noticeable in early items in the sequence. To
299 estimate quantitatively the degree of flexible encoding from the experimental data, we
300 simulated memory performance in the model network by varying the ratio of flexible synapses
301 (λ) and by minimizing the mean squared error of performance between the model and data
302 (Number of items = 4–6). As a result, the case of memory performance with correct
303 information was well described by low flexibility conditions ($\lambda = 0.48$), while that of the wrong
304 information case was well described by high flexibility conditions ($\lambda = 0.53$) (Fig. 5e and
305 Supplementary Fig. S4). In addition, memory performance was largely altered in early
306 presented items compared to the last items, as the model simulated (Fig. 5c and f). These

307 results suggest that sequence-specific memory modulation by pre-cue could be described by
308 manipulation of the flexible-stable encoding balance in the neural circuit.

309

310 **Discussion**

311 In this work, we investigated a characteristic profile of the serial-position effect in sequential
312 working memory, and proposed that the primacy and recency effects reflect stable and
313 flexible encodings of neural circuits, both of which are required to retain and update
314 information for working memory function. We also showed that flexible and stable memory
315 function could be implemented by different types of synapses in a model neural network and
316 that balance modulation of flexible/stable encoding could alter memory performance in a
317 sequence-specific way.

318 Our new concept of sequential overwriting of memory resource provides a simple
319 explanation for previous observations on working memory performance for simultaneous and
320 sequential presentation of stimuli⁴²⁻⁴⁴, where memory performance is worse when stimulus
321 information is presented sequentially than when it is presented simultaneously. This result
322 has not been addressed by a simple resource model, because the total amount of allocated
323 resources must be different across the presentation conditions, even though the number of
324 stimuli was identical. Thus, the total amount of resource seems to vary for simultaneous and
325 sequential presentations, which is controversial to the basic assumption of the resource
326 model. Our sequential overwriting model, however, suggests that such a difference could
327 arise from various conditions of resource overwriting. If there existed a resource overwriting,
328 such that the resources for old items were degraded by a new item, the effect of overwriting
329 would be noticeable only under the condition of sequential presentation, but not for
330 simultaneous presentation. Thus, the observed difference between sequential and
331 simultaneous presentation conditions was naturally understandable in our view. Another
332 observation, that memory performance for the last item in sequential presentation is not
333 different from that for simultaneous presentations⁵, also supports memory resource
334 overwriting. In our model, the last item in a sequence is not affected by overwriting, and the
335 performance must be the same as that in simultaneous presentation. Therefore, this
336 experimental result is consistent with the prediction of our model (Fig. 2e).

337 From the fact that the last item in a sequence is not affected by resource overwriting,
338 we were able to achieve another important finding directly from the observed human data:
339 there is a profile indicative of memory resource allocation without resource overwriting (Fig.
340 3d). In this case, the amount of allocated resources decreases exponentially; thus we could
341 investigate this primacy effect separately from the recency effect. Interestingly, this
342 observation of declining resources is similar to the conceptual idea in previous models^{18,25},
343 in which decreasing activation level or novelty-based encoding were suggested. The models
344 assumed that early presented items are more strongly encoded than recent ones, consistent
345 with the view of a stable coding scheme. Thus, our model suggests that the stable coding
346 model provides a plausible mechanism for previous ideas of decreasing memory resources.

347 To provide an example of a neural circuit in which flexible and stable encodings
348 contribute together, we simulated a model network with flexible and stable synapses (Fig. 4c
349 and d). However, it is notable that collaboration of flexible and stable encodings can be
350 achieved in numerous ways by other neural mechanisms, too. For instance, one study
351 showed that intrinsic temporal stability of neuronal activity can be heterogeneous in a
352 population, which may determine whether each neuron encodes information stably or
353 dynamically³⁷. In general, any neural parameters that modulate the stability of synaptic
354 connection or activity could induce the combination of flexible and stable encodings at
355 population level. It is also notable that distinct roles of flexible and stable coding have been
356 observed in the memory function of flexible and stable values. A previous study reported that
357 cells in the caudate nucleus encode values in two distinct forms⁴⁵: neurons in the caudate
358 head code flexible values while those in the caudate tail code stable values. Thus, the
359 flexibility of encoding may vary by location, and probably by distinct types of neurons. Taken
360 together, the collaboration of flexible and stable encodings could be generated by a variety
361 of factors.

362 In summary, we found that the serial-position effect in sequential memory reflects
363 distinct roles of flexible and stable encodings in neural memory circuits for working memory
364 function. Our findings explain the origin of the serial-position effect and suggest that an
365 association of flexible and stable encodings enables characteristic functions of working
366 memory for retaining and updating information simultaneously. Our model provides a
367 theoretical basis for understanding neural circuits for human working memory.

368 **Methods**

369 **Subjects**

370 Twenty-eight subjects (14 males, 14 females; 20 to 29 years old; all with normal or corrected
371 normal vision) participated in the experiments after agreeing by written informed consent
372 approved by the Institutional Review Board (IRB) of KAIST (KH2017-05). All procedures were
373 carried out in accordance with approved guidelines.

374

375 **Sequential memory task and visual stimulus**

376 Non-semantic visual patterns were used as a stimulus in the sequential memory task. Visual
377 stimuli were blob-like patterns of within a $1.5^\circ \times 1.5^\circ$ colored ring (bandwidth 0.1° , in visual
378 space), and the pattern was generated as follows⁴⁶:

379
$$S(x, y) = \iint N(x, y) DG(x - \tau_1, y - \tau_2) d\tau_1 d\tau_2$$

380 where $N(x, y)$ is white noise and $DG(x, y)$ is the difference between two 2D Gaussian filters
381 ($\sigma_1 = 0.4^\circ, \sigma_2 = 0.8^\circ$, in visual space)(Supplementary Fig. S1a). A circular part of the pattern
382 was normalized by z-scoring, and its absolute value was upper bounded by '3'. Subjects were
383 positioned 160 cm away from the monitor and the visual patterns were presented on an LCD
384 monitor (DELL U3014, 29.8 inch, resolution of 2560×1600 , 60 Hz).

385 During the task, visual patterns (Number of items = 3–6) were presented sequentially
386 at the center of the screen and subjects were asked to memorize their shape and order (Fig.
387 1a). A fixation cross at the center was presented in black (500 ms), red (1000 ms) and black
388 (500 ms) in sequence, to inform the trial start. After a fixation screen (2000 ms), a stimulus
389 was presented for 400 ms and an inter-stimulus-interval was given for 200 ms. After a 1000
390 ms delay, candidate patterns consisting of the presented stimuli and the same number of not-
391 presented stimuli were given in a test session (Supplementary Fig. S1b). On the test screen,
392 subjects were asked to recall freely the memorized sequence from the candidate patterns
393 with a mouse click. They had to choose a sequential position and the item corresponding to
394 that position.

395 Three conditions were tested in the pre-cued memory tasks (Fig 5d). Prior to the
396 sequential presentation, the number of items to memorize was (1) correctly given, (2) not

397 given, and (3) wrongly given to subjects to provide different conditions of pre-allocation of
398 resources. In the wrong information case, a number that was one less than the actual number
399 of presented items was given to subjects to induce miss-allocation of resource (e.g., '3' was
400 given as a pre-cue before '4' items were presented). Twenty five percent of the pre-cue trials
401 were under wrong information conditions. Three to six items were presented in the correct
402 information and no information cases, and four to six items were presented in the wrong
403 information case in random order. The ratio of trials for each condition was set as follows:

404
$$\text{Correct info. : No info. : Wrong info.} = 3 : 2 : 1$$

405 Subjects performed a training session (60 trials/session) and ten experimental sessions (72
406 trials/session). All codes for the experiment were generated with the MATLAB Psychtoolbox.

407

408 **Calculation of sequential memory performance**

409 From the repetition of the sequential memory task sessions, the memory performance of each
410 subject was measured. If the subjects chose both the item and order that matched the
411 presented sequence, it was counted as correct. The performance in each order was then
412 calculated. The response time of all trials was also measured, and its distribution for each
413 condition was fitted with a log-normal function. The trials in which the response time lay
414 outside of the 2σ (standard deviation) of the response time distribution were excluded from
415 the analysis.

416

417 **Sequential overwriting model and memory resources**

418 To model quantitatively the memory performance of the sequential memory task, we assumed
419 that the amount of allocated resource R_i determined the performance of the item positioned
420 in order i as follows:

421
$$\text{Performance for item } i = \begin{cases} 0, & R_i \leq 0 \\ R_i, & 0 < R_i \leq 1 \\ 1, & R_i > 1 \end{cases}$$

422 where R_i is the amount of resource allocated for item i .

423 We also assumed that the previously allocated resources were overwritten when a

424 new item was added as follows:

$$425 \quad \begin{cases} R_i = R_i, & \text{for item } i \\ R_{i-k} = R_{i-k} - \gamma^k R_i, & k = 1, \dots, i - 1 \end{cases}$$

426 where γ is the overwriting ratio (Fig. 2) and k is the sequential distance between previous
427 item and new item. Here, R_i can be either identical (Fig. 2) or declining (Fig. 3) by order. To
428 estimate the amount of allocated resources from the observed data (Fig. 3d), the
429 performance for the last item was obtained from the average memory performance curve of
430 the no-information condition, and fitted by

$$431 \quad CR_{last} = a + b \exp(-c(\text{order} - d))$$

432 where ‘*order*’ varies from three to six.

433

434 **Data fitting with sequential overwriting model**

435 To reproduce quantitatively the observed sequential memory performance, we fitted the
436 model by minimizing the mean squared errors between the data and simulated curves. The
437 amount of allocated resources at each order was estimated from the average memory
438 performance of the last item. The fitted sequential overwriting ratio (γ^*) was searched from
439 error minimization, using the “fmincon” function in MATLAB:

$$440 \quad \gamma^* = \operatorname{argmin} \left(\frac{\sum_i |data_i - model_i|^2}{N} \right)$$

441 where $data_i$ ($model_i$) is the performance for order i in the data (model), respectively. N is
442 the total number of items in a sequence (Fig. 3f).

443

444 **Neural network model**

445 To study the neural basis of the serial-position effect, we used a model neural network that
446 could learn and store sequential input patterns, adapted from a previous study³⁹. The model
447 network consisted of two layers: input and output layers (50 neurons each) of integrate-and-
448 fire model neurons. Each input and output neuron was connected with a probability 0.2. In
449 training sessions, six input patterns (10 Hz spike train for 100 ms) were given sequentially

450 (50 times) and synaptic weights were updated using a STDP rule as follows:

$$451 \quad \Delta w_{ij} = \begin{cases} k_+(w_{max} - w_{ij}) \exp\left(-\frac{\Delta t}{\tau_+}\right) & \Delta t \geq 0, LTP \\ k_-(w_{ij} - w_{min}) \exp\left(-\frac{\Delta t}{\tau_-}\right) & \Delta t < 0, LTD \end{cases}$$

452 where $\Delta t = t_{post} - t_{pre}$ represents a spike timing interval. The other parameters set, were
453 $k_+ = 0.6$, $k_- = -0.9$, $\tau_+ = 3$ ms, and $\tau_- = 15$ ms. Performance of the trained network
454 (Memory index) was measured as the consistency of binary output spike patterns for the
455 same inputs repeatedly given. A binary pattern was defined from the output firings: a number
456 for each output neuron was set as '1' if the neuron fired at least once during the repetitions,
457 while it was set as '0' if there was no response spike. Consistency was measured by
458 averaging pairwise cross-correlations between all patterns of the repeated trials as follows
459 (see previous Methods³⁹ for details):

$$460 \quad \text{Memory Index (MI)} = \frac{1}{N_{pair}} \sum_{i,j \in [1:20]} \frac{S_i \cdot S_j}{N_{firing}}$$

461 where S_i represents the i^{th} binary pattern of output firing, N_{pair} denotes the number of all
462 pairs, and N_{firing} is the total number of fired output neurons. To rescale a memory index into
463 memory performance, we applied a sigmoid function to memory index as a response transfer
464 function (Supplementary Figure S2c), based on the observation that behavior results could
465 be described by a logistic function of neural activity⁴⁷. We used the sigmoid function as follows:

$$466 \quad \text{Performance} = 1/(1 + \exp(-a(\text{Memory Index} - b)))$$

467 Each constant was estimated by minimizing the mean squared error of the sequential
468 memory performance between data and model using the MATLAB function 'fmincon' ($a =$
469 6.78 , $b = 0.34$ for flexible synapse only case; $a = 14.92$, $b = 0.59$ for stable synapse only
470 case; $a = 17.5$, $b = 0.46$ for both flexible and stable synapse case). For learning, we
471 defined two types of synapses: flexible and stable synapses. For the flexible one, synaptic
472 weight was allowed to change continuously during the entire learning event. In contrast, for
473 a stable one, the synaptic weight was set to remain unchanged when the weight saturated to
474 99% of the maximum or minimum value.

475 **Statistical test**

476 The type of statistical test and corresponding p-values used in the analysis were given in
477 figure captions and the main text. One-way ANOVA with Bonferroni correction was used to
478 examine performance differences across the pre-cue conditions.

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581

582 **Supplementary information**

583 Supplementary figures and legends are available in **Supplementary Information**.

584

585 **Acknowledgements**

586 This work was supported by the National Research Foundation of Korea (NRF) grant
587 funded by the Korea government (MSIT) (No. NRF-2016R1C1B2016039, NRF-
588 2017R1E1A2A02080940) (to S.P.).

589

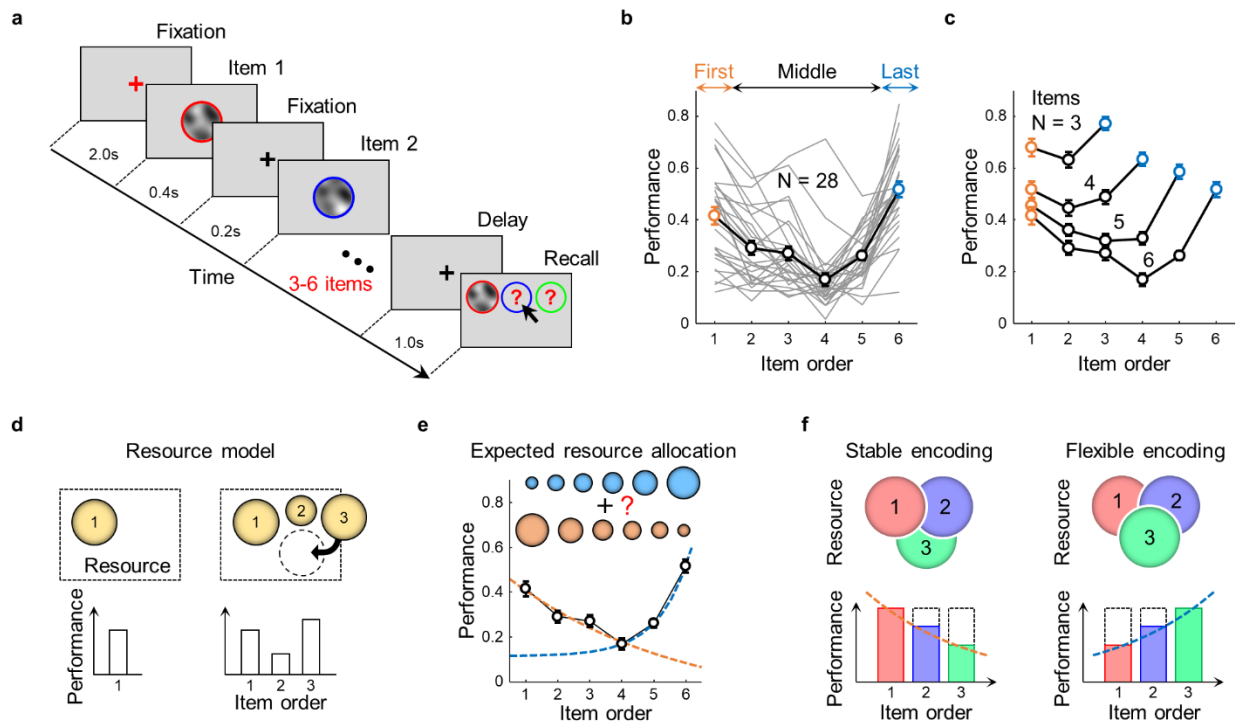
590 **Author contributions**

591 H.L. designed and performed the psychophysics experiments, analyzed data, and wrote the
592 manuscript. W.C. and Y. P. analyzed data. S.P. conceived the project, directed the
593 experiments and wrote the manuscript. All authors discussed, commented on and revised the
594 manuscript.

595

596 **Competing interest declaration**

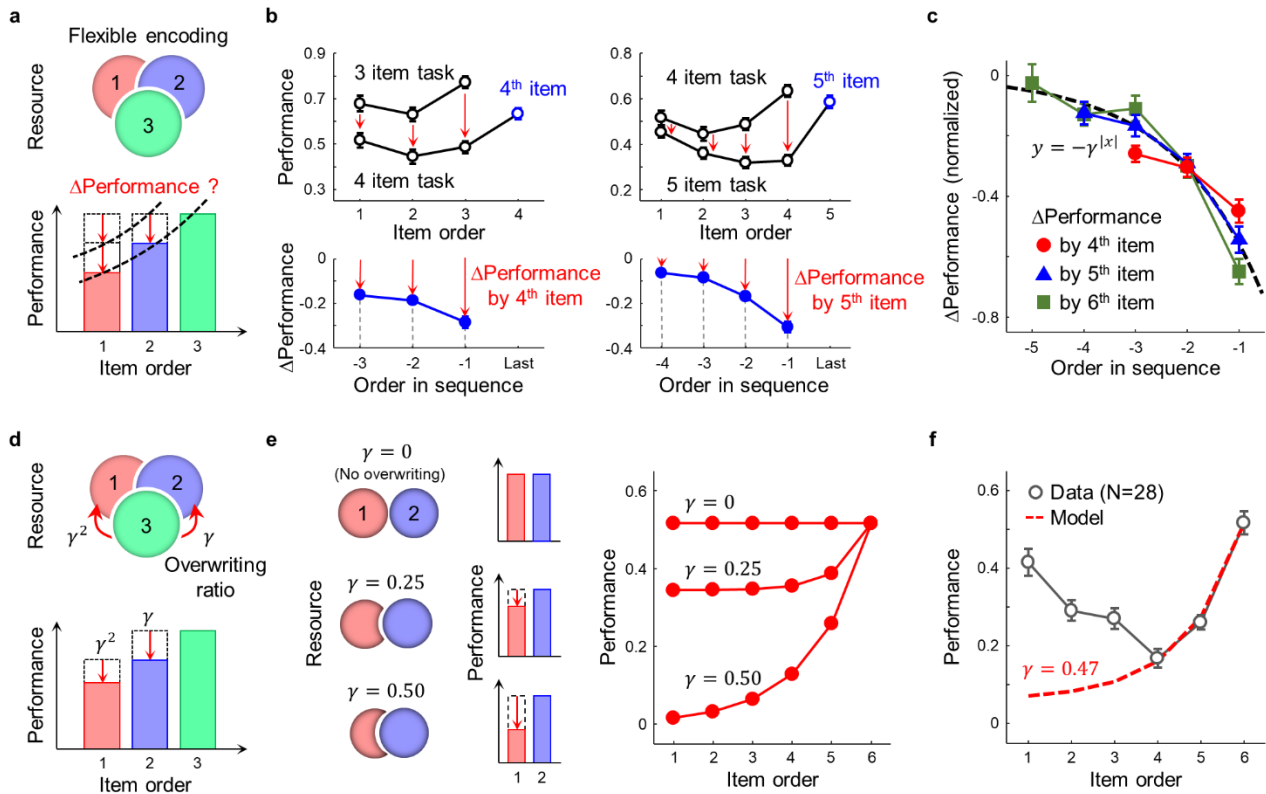
597 Authors declare no competing interests.



598

599 **Figure 1.** Recency and primacy effect of sequential working memory task

600 **a**, Experimental design for a sequential memory task. Subjects were asked to memorize
 601 visual patterns ($N_{\text{items}} = 3-6$) presented sequentially and to recall freely. **b**, Sample memory
 602 performance curve by item order ($N_{\text{items}} = 6$). Performance for the first (orange) and last (blue)
 603 items was higher than for the others (mean \pm s.e.m.). Gray lines represent individual
 604 performance curves. **c**, Average memory performance curves. The serial-position effect was
 605 observed regardless of the number of items in a sequence (mean \pm s.e.m.; $N_{\text{items}} = 3-6$). **d**,
 606 Illustration of the resource model. The model assumes that the amount of allocated resources
 607 determines the memory performance for each item. **e**, Two types of resource allocation. The
 608 serial-position effect can be described with a decreasing (orange) and increasing (blue)
 609 resource allocation model. The primacy and recency effects were fitted with exponential
 610 functions, respectively ($y = a \exp(bx) + c$; $a = 0.64, b = -0.19, c = -0.12$ for primacy effect,
 611 $a = 9.37 \times 10^{-4}, b = 1.01, c = 0.12$ for recency effect). **f**, Model hypotheses of stable and
 612 flexible encoding. We hypothesized that stable encoding would induce the primacy effect and
 613 that flexible encoding would induce the recency effect.



614

615 **Figure 2.** Flexible encoding induces the recency effect with resource overwriting

616 **a**, Illustration of flexible encoding. Under flexible encoding scheme, performance for old items
 617 (red and blue) is degraded by a new item (green). **b**, Estimation of resource overwriting by
 618 flexible encoding in data. Performance for previous items decreased when the last item was
 619 given (top; mean \pm s.e.m.), and Δ Performance was better in recent items (bottom). **c**,
 620 Universality in performance change. Performance differences (normalized to performance for
 621 the last item) were well fitted with a single exponential function ($R^2 = 0.91$, $y = -\gamma^{|x|}$, $\gamma =$
 622 0.55). **d**, Concept of sequential overwriting model. When a new item (green) is given, a new
 623 item overwrites memory resources of old items (red and blue) by a constant overwriting ratio
 624 (γ). Overwriting was assumed to follow a power-law function, following the observation in **c**.
 625 **e**, Performance curve simulated by a model. The recency effect, higher performance of recent
 626 items than for older items, was strengthened as the overwriting ratio increased. **f**, A fitted
 627 recency effect curve with sequential overwriting model. Memory performance for the last
 628 three items was fitted by error minimization ($\gamma = 0.47$). All error bars represent s.e.m.

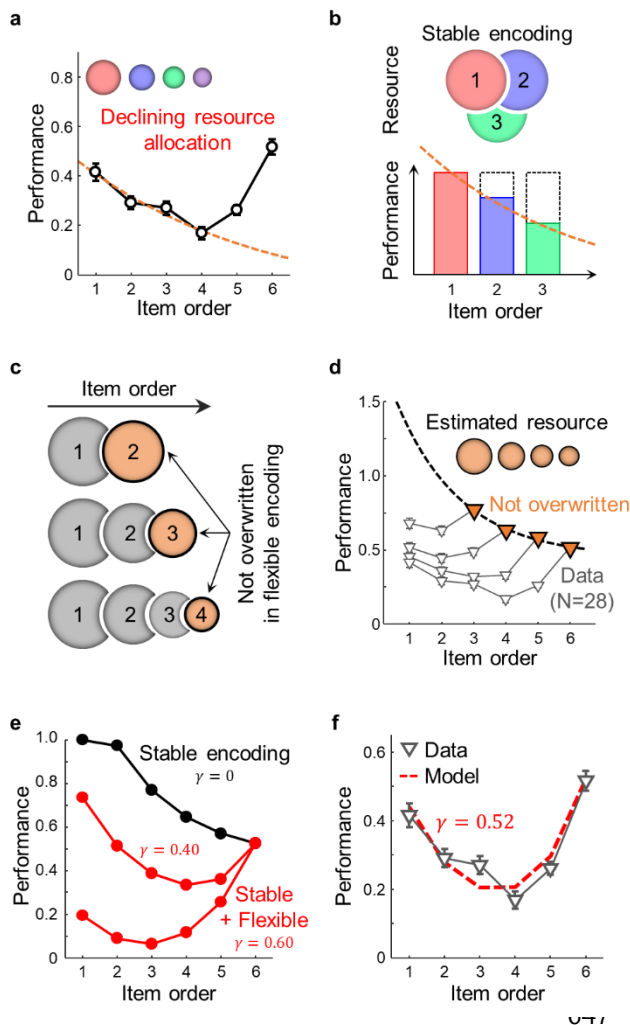


Figure 3. Stable encoding induces the primacy effect and coexistence of stable and flexible encoding generates the observed serial-position effect

a, Prediction for primacy effect. To induce the primacy effect, the amount of allocated resources needs to decrease by order (Inset). More resources are allocated to early-presented items. **b,** Illustration of stable encoding. Old items (red and blue) are better retained than a new item (green), because more resource is occupied by old items. **c,** Estimation of resources not affected by resource overwriting. Even in flexible encoding scheme, the last item is not overwritten by the other items (orange). **d,** Estimation of resource amount from data. The amount of resource allocated with no overwriting effect was estimated from

648 memory performance of the last items (orange triangles), fitted to an exponential function
 649 ($R^2 = 0.99$, $y = a + b \exp(-c(x - d))$, $a = 0.45$, $b = 1.30$, $c = 0.50$, $d = 0.16$). **e,**
 650 Performance curves modeled with both stable and flexible encodings. Both primacy and
 651 recency effect were generated if both stable and flexible encoding contributed (red). **f,** Serial-
 652 position effect in sequential overwriting model fitted to data. The degree of overwriting was
 653 estimated by minimizing the mean squared error between the performance curves of model
 654 and data ($\gamma = 0.52$; mean \pm s.e.m.).

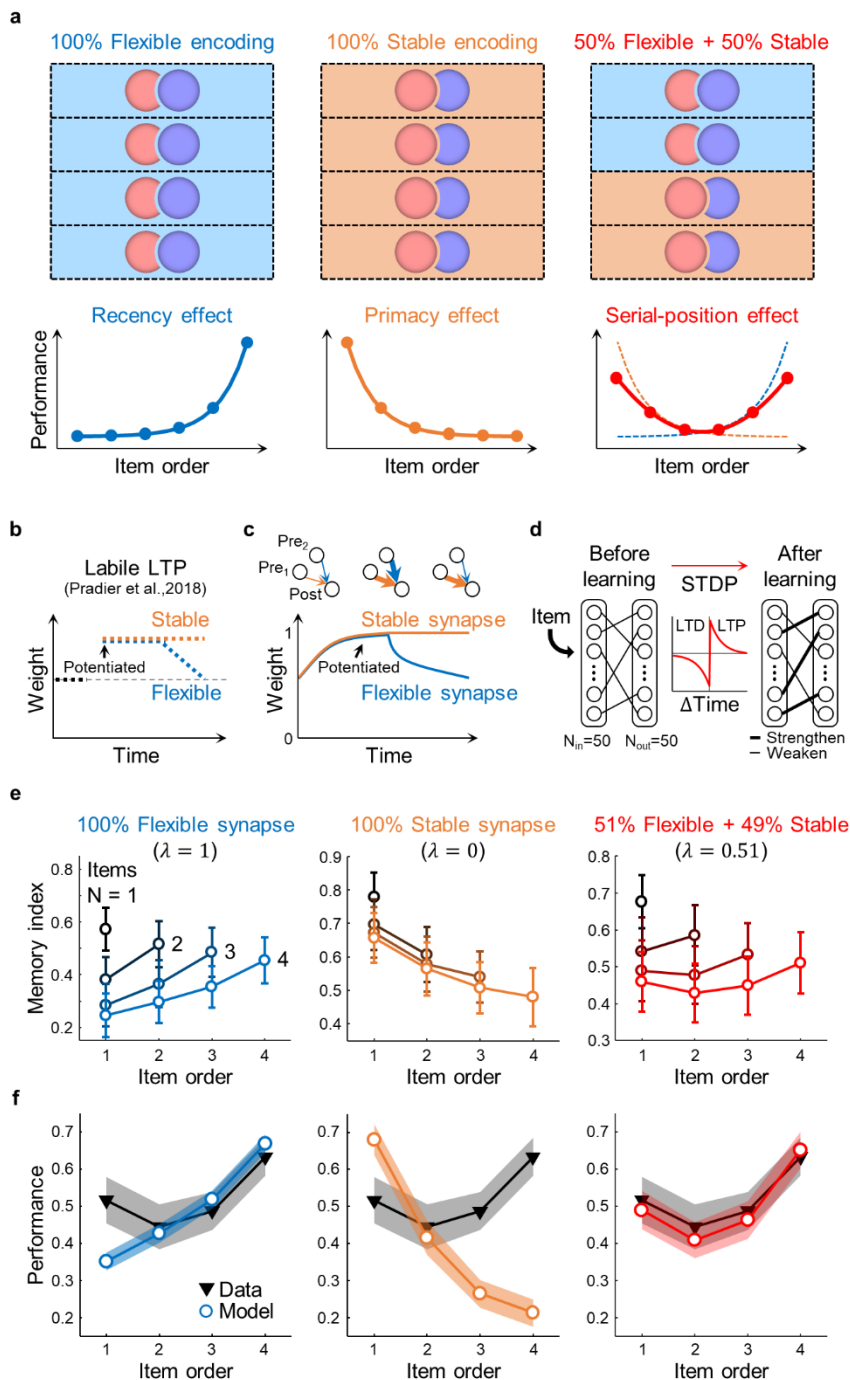


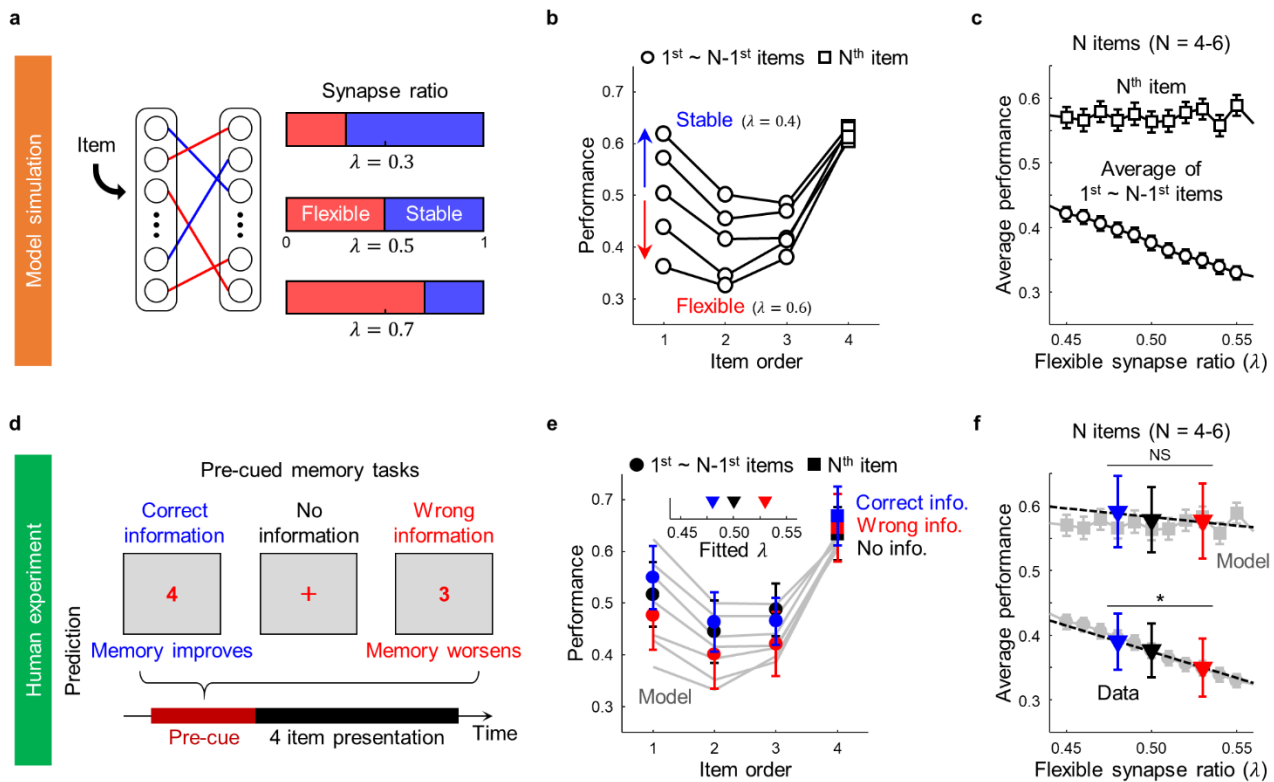
Figure 4. Flexible and stable synapses in model network induce flexible and stable encoding

a, Population model of stable and flexible encoding. (top) Each dashed box represents sub-regions of memory space where memory resource can be allocated. When an item is encoded, the memory resource for that item is allocated in memory space either flexibly (blue) or stably (orange). (bottom) Predicted memory performance of models in each condition. **b**, Illustration of the input frequency-dependent synaptic plasticity (labile LTP³⁸). Potentiation remains stable (orange) or is reset rapidly (blue).

c, Design of stable and flexible synapses.

680 Synaptic weight of connection can be either increased (LTP) or decreased (LTD) during
 681 learning. For stable synapse (orange), its weight maintains stable after the weight is saturated.
 682 For flexible synapse (blue), its weight continuously changes during learning. **d**, Design of a
 683 feedforward neural network for memory simulation. The network consists of two-layers: input
 684 layer and output layer (50 neurons, each). Synaptic weights of connections can be updated
 685 using the STDP learning rule. **e**, Memory index change for sequentially given inputs. Four

686 items (temporal spike patterns) were sequentially encoded to the network. The networks
687 consist of flexible synapse only (left), stable synapse only (middle), or both flexible and stable
688 synapses (right). **f**, Simulated memory performance. The recency and primacy effects were
689 observed under the flexible and stable synapse cases, respectively (left, middle). A complete
690 serial-position effect is observed only when both flexible and stable synapses coexist (right).
691 Shaded area represents 95% confidence intervals.



692

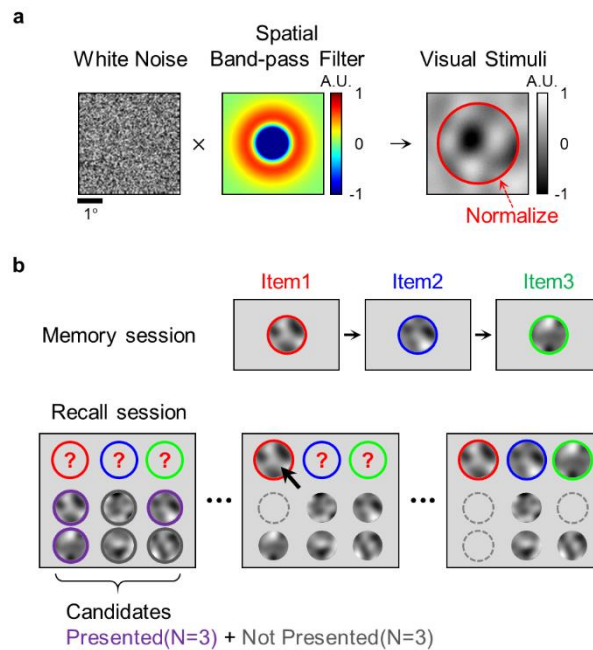
693 **Figure 5.** Change of flexible/stable synapse ratio modulates memory performance in
 694 sequence-specific way

695 **a**, Illustration of flexibility modulation in neural network model. **b**, Model simulation results of
 696 altered synaptic stability. Memory performance of early presented items (white circles) is
 697 improved if the network consists of more stable synapses (small λ), or worsened with more
 698 flexible ones (large λ). **c**, Memory performance changes with the flexible synapse ratio. The
 699 larger performance difference is observed in early presented items (white circles) rather than
 700 last items (white squares). **d**, Paradigm for pre-cued memory tasks. The three types of pre-
 701 cues given: correct, no, and wrong information of the total number of items in a sequence. In
 702 the wrong information case, “N-1” is given before N items are presented. **e**, Sample result of
 703 a pre-cued memory task. Memory performance improves when the correct information is
 704 given (blue), while it worsens when the wrong information is given (red). Model performance
 705 with a different degree of flexibility (line) fit the observed performance (marker). (inset)
 706 Estimated flexibility from model fitting. **f**, Observed memory performance difference with
 707 estimated flexibility. As simulated in the model (gray markers), performance difference across
 708 conditions is better in early presented items than in the last item (for N-1 items, repeated

709 measures ANOVA with Bonferroni post hoc correction, $F(2,54) = 26.01$, $*P = 1.23 \times 10^{-8}$;
710 for Nth item; $F(2,54) = 1.30$, $P = 0.28$). All error bars represent 95% confidence intervals.

711 **Supplementary information**

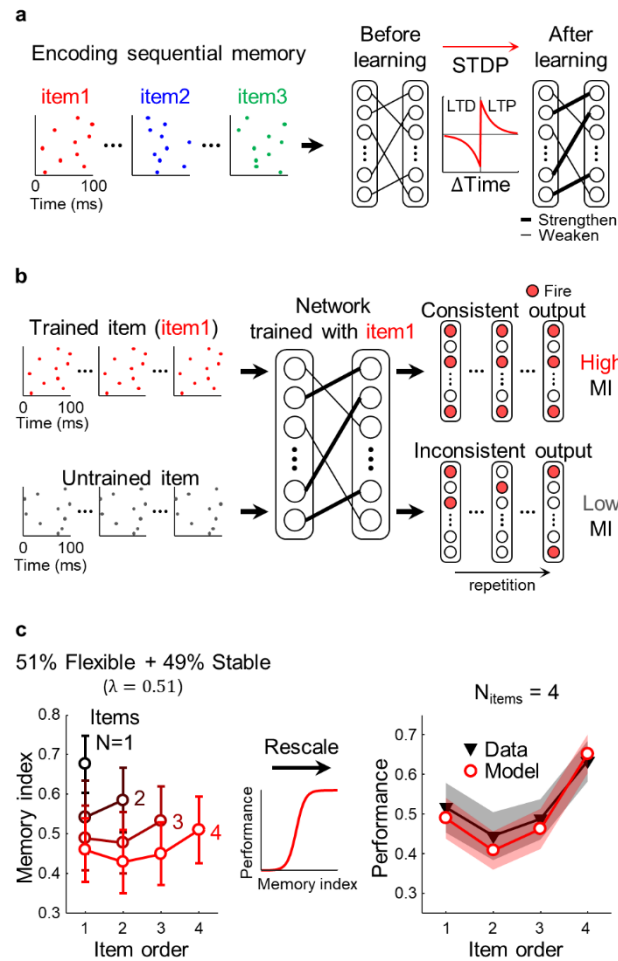
712



713

714 **Supplementary Figure S1. Stimulus generation and paradigm of sequential memory task**

715 **a**, Design of visual stimuli. Visual stimuli are generated by filtering a two-dimensional white
716 noise with a spatial band-pass filter. The filter is designed with a difference between two
717 Gaussian distributions ($\sigma_1 = 0.4^\circ, \sigma_2 = 0.8^\circ$, in visual space; see Methods for details). **b**,
718 Design of sequential memory task. Subjects memorize sequentially presented items ($N_{\text{items}} =$
719 3–6) during memory session. In recall session, subjects choose the presented items and their
720 presented order among candidates. Items presented during the memory session (purple
721 circle) and the same number of not-presented ones (gray circle) were given as candidates.

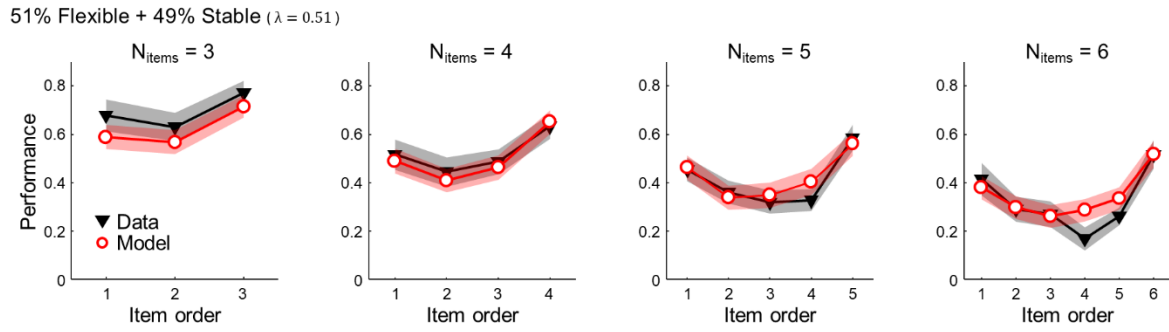


722

723 **Supplementary Figure S2. Paradigm of neural network simulation**

724 **a**, Scheme of memory encoding. Sequential spike trains are encoded in a neural network
 725 using an STDP learning rule. Each spike train (item) consists of a spike at random timing
 726 within 100 ms and is fed into a network 50 times, for 5 s. **b**, Scheme of memory test. The
 727 consistency of output firing patterns is measured for the repeatedly given items and defined
 728 as a memory index (see Methods for details). The memory index is high for the trained items
 729 (top), while it is low for the untrained items. **c**, Simulated results of the model (bottom). (left)
 730 Memory index by item order. Four memory index curves show how the network responds to
 731 trained items, as the number of items in a sequence increase (from $N_{\text{items}} = 1-4$). The U-
 732 shaped memory performance curves are observed after four items are encoded. (middle) To
 733 rescale the memory index into memory performance, a sigmoid function is applied. (right)
 734 Comparison of performance between the experimental data and model ($N_{\text{items}} = 4$). Our model

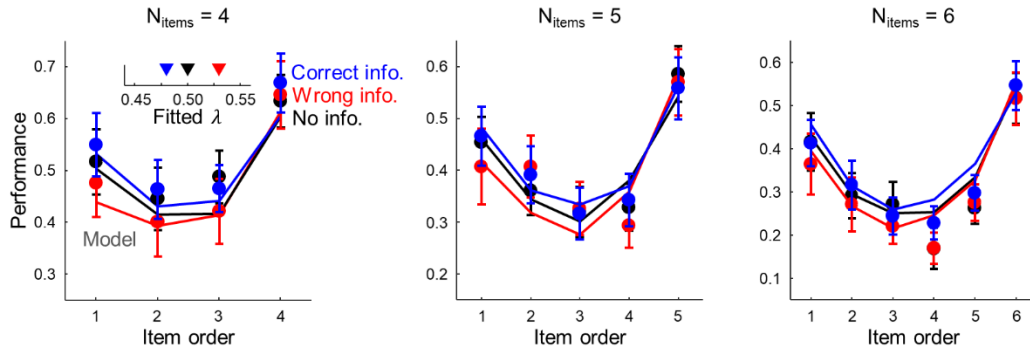
735 generates the serial-position effect observed in the experiment. Shaded area represents 95%
736 confidence intervals.



737

738 **Supplementary Figure S3.** Results of model fitting for different numbers of items

739 The neural network regenerates the serial-position effects observed in the human
740 psychophysical experiments. The red line represents the simulated results of the model, while
741 the black line represents the experimental data. Shaded area represents 95% confidence
742 intervals.



743

744 **Supplementary Figure S4.** Results of pre-cued memory task and model fitting

745 A neural network with low flexible synapse ratio is able to generate the memory performance
746 of the correct information case (blue), while that with a high flexible synapse ratio is able to
747 generate the performance of the wrong information case (red). Error bars represent 95%
748 confidence intervals.