

Frequency and phase contributions to the detection of temporal luminance modulation

James P. Thomas

Department of Psychology, University of California, Los Angeles, Box 951563, Los Angeles, California 90095-1563

Kenneth Knoblauch

Institut National de la Santé et de la Recherche Médicale, INSERM U371, Cerveau et Vision, Department of Cognitive Neurosciences, IFR19, UCB-Lyon 1, 18 avenue du Doyen Lépine, 69500 Bron, France

Received December 14, 2004; revised manuscript received March 19, 2005; accepted March 20, 2005

Observers detected a temporally modulated luminance pattern embedded in dynamic noise. A Gabor function with a carrier frequency, in separate conditions of 0, 1.56, or 3.12 Hz, modulated signal contrast. Classification images were constructed in the time, temporal frequency, and temporal phase domains. As stimulus frequency increased, amplitudes of the phase images decreased and amplitudes of the frequency images increased, indicating a corresponding shift in the observers' criteria. The reduced use of phase attenuated time-domain images from signal-absent trials, but physical interactions between signal and noise components tended to preserve time-domain images from signal-present trials. The results illustrate a frequency-dependent strategy shift in detection that may reflect a degree of stimulus uncertainty in the time domain. © 2005 Optical Society of America

OCIS codes: 330.1880, 330.4060, 330.6790.

1. INTRODUCTION

The visual system does not simply generate a neural replica of a stimulus, but codes and separately represents various components of it. DeValois and his students took a leading role in characterizing the neural mechanisms underlying such separate representations. Chromatic and luminance differences are coded early in segregated pathways,^{1,2} and neurons in primary visual cortex are selectively sensitive or tuned with respect to a variety of spatial and temporal properties.^{3–5} Such selectivities provide the basis for separate representations and processing of the information coded in the neural responses.^{3–8} One goal of psychophysics is to understand how these different representations are weighted and combined in the performance of various perceptual tasks. In this research, we exploit classification images to understand better how observers employ different temporal properties in a visual detection task.

Confusions have long been a source of information about the stimulus properties important to the performance of perceptual tasks. Ahumada^{9,10} refined this approach by embedding auditory signals in noise and comparing the noise profiles that increased the probability of “present” responses with the noise profiles that increased the probability of “absent” responses. He termed the difference between these two types of profiles, which he analyzed in the temporal frequency domain, as the classification image. More recently, Ahumada and others have used the technique to investigate the stimulus properties used in a variety of visual tasks (see Ref. 11 for a recent overview). We describe here the classification images found for the task of detecting a temporally modulated luminance pattern in temporally dynamic luminance noise, with par-

ticular attention to how the images change with the rate of signal modulation. A preliminary report was presented at the 1999 meeting of the Association for Research in Vision and Ophthalmology.¹²

Our observers detected a temporal Gabor signal embedded in temporally dynamic noise. In different conditions, the carrier signal of the Gabor varied from 0 to 3.12 Hz. We formed classification images in the time, temporal frequency, and temporal phase domains. The forms and amplitudes of the images changed with the carrier frequency in a way that suggested that temporal phase information became less important and temporal frequency information more important as the carrier frequency increased. The results demonstrate the utility of constructing images in all relevant domains.

2. METHODS

The stimulus setup has previously been described in detail.¹³ In brief, all stimuli were presented on an Eizo FlexScan T562-T color monitor driven by software on a PC under the control of a Cambridge Research Systems (CRS) VSG/2 color graphics card that provides 12 bits of resolution for each phosphor of the 800 × 600 pixel display. The screen was run at a field rate of 100 Hz, noninterlaced. The voltage–phosphor luminance relationship was linearized with look-up tables. Calibration of the screen was performed with a Minolta CS-100 chromameter and a silicone photodiode used with the OPTICAL software (CRS). The screen was set to a steady background with luminance 65 cd/m² and chromaticity (0.294, 0.303) for the CIE 1931 standard observer.

Observers detected a temporally modulated luminance signal embedded in dynamic luminance noise. The stimulus presented on each trial was the product of a spatial modulation function and a temporal modulation function. The spatial function was a two-dimensional Gaussian with a standard deviation (σ) of 2.4 deg. On signal-present trials, the temporal function was the sum of a Gabor function and a noise vector, both sampled at 50 Hz. On signal-absent trials, only the noise vector modulated the target. The Gabor function was the product of a positive-going Gaussian window and a sinusoid. The window had a σ of 160 ms and was truncated at plus and minus two σ 's, yielding a stimulus duration of 640 ms. In different conditions, the temporal frequency of the sinusoid was 0 (i.e., the window multiplied by a positive dc shift), 1.56, or 3.12 Hz. These Gabor functions are shown in the upper left corner images of Figs. 1–3, respectively. Each noise vector consisted of 32 independent samples from a uniform random distribution varying symmetrically about zero. The stimuli were viewed binocularly from 57 cm.

Each session comprised 224 trials, evenly divided between signal-present and signal-absent trials. At the end of each stimulus presentation the observer indicated that the Gabor signal was present or absent by pressing a key. Auditory feedback followed the response. Each observer completed 16 sessions, distributed over at least four days, in each condition. All sessions in one condition were completed before proceeding to the next condition. For both observers, the order of conditions was 0, 1.56 and 3.12 Hz.

Noise power ($1/3$ contrast²) was 0.03 for all conditions. Signal contrast, measured at the peak of the envelope, was separately set for each observer and condition to yield a d' near 1.0. The contrasts for the 0, 1.56, and 3.12 conditions, respectively, were 0.07, 0.15, and 0.15 for observer KK and 0.08, 0.21, and 0.18 for observer JPT. Hit

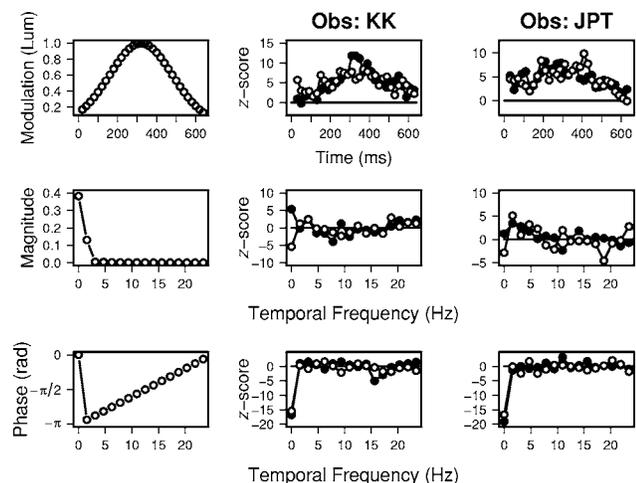


Fig. 1. Classification images for the 0 Hz condition. The first row shows images in the time domain; the second row shows images in the temporal frequency domain; and the third row shows images in the temporal phase domain. Column 1 shows the luminance modulation profile and spectra of the Gabor signal. Columns 2 and 3 show the classification images for observers KK and JPT, respectively. Each data point is a z score, calculated as described in Section 2. Open circles are calculated from signal-present trials; solid circles are calculated from signal-absent trials.

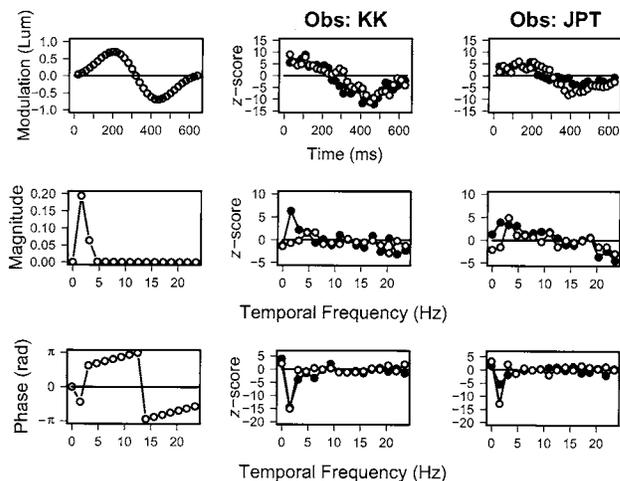


Fig. 2. Classification images for the 1.56 Hz condition. Other details are the same as in Fig. 1.

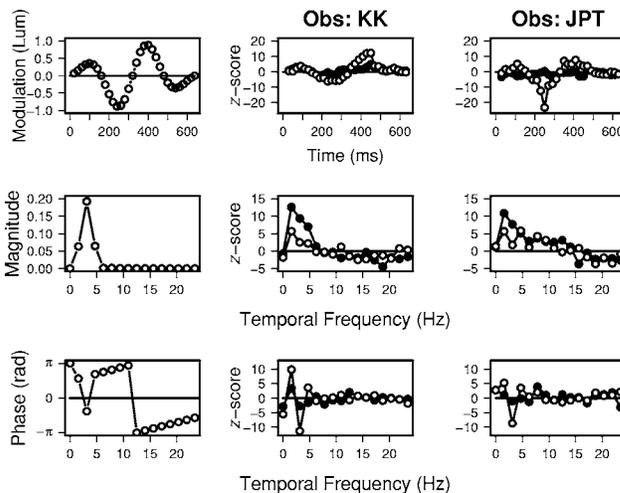


Fig. 3. Classification images for the 3.12 Hz condition. Other details are the same as in Fig. 1.

rates varied between 0.71 and 0.75, and false-alarm rates varied between 0.28 and 0.37.

The two authors served as observers but remained naive as to the results until data collection from both observers was completed. KK is emmetropic and JPT was corrected for the viewing distance.

A. Classification Images

The noise vector from each trial was labeled as to type of trial (signal present or signal absent) and the observer's response (present or absent) and then stored. During analysis, the noise records were segregated into four groups: hits (signal present; response present); misses (signal present; response absent), false alarms (noise only; response present), and correct rejections (signal absent; response absent). The classification images were constructed from these noise records.

B. Time-Domain Images

Each noise record was smoothed by averaging each entry, beginning with the second, with the previous entry. For

each session, a mean vector was computed for each of the four groups: hits, misses, false alarms, and correct rejections. Two session images were computed for each session. A signal-present image was computed by subtracting the mean vector for misses from the mean vector for hits, and a signal-absent image was computed by subtracting the mean vector for correct rejections from the mean vector for false alarms. These two types of session image were then averaged over sessions and standard errors of the resulting mean images computed from the variability over sessions. Individual points in the images were converted to z scores by dividing each mean by its standard error. Columns 2 and 3 of the first row of Figs. 1–3 display the z -score images.

Analyses of variance were conducted on session images computed without the initial smoothing. A within-subject analysis was conducted on the 16 sets of session images for each subject and each condition. The factors were time and trial type (signal present or signal absent). The presence of a reliable image was tested by the main effect for time. The difference between signal-present and signal-absent images was tested by the time-by-trial-type interaction. When a difference was found, each image was separately tested for the presence of a signal component. When the analysis found a reliable image, the agreement between the image and the luminance profile of the stimulus was quantified by a correlation coefficient.

C. Temporal Frequency and Phase-Domain Images

Each noise record was fast-Fourier transformed using the Matlab `fft` function. The temporal frequency spectrum of the record was extracted from the `fft` output using the `MATLAB abs` function, and the phase spectrum was extracted with the `angle` function. The transformed records of each type were segregated into groups corresponding to hits, misses, false alarms, and correct rejections. Session means were computed as described above, and session images were calculated by subtracting the mean spectrum for misses from the mean spectrum for hits, in the case of signal-present trials, and by subtracting the mean spectrum of correct rejections from the mean spectrum for false alarms, in the case of signal-absent trials. These two types of session images were then averaged over sessions, and standard errors of the resulting mean images were computed from the variability over sessions. Individual points in the images were converted to z scores by dividing each mean by its standard error. Columns 2 and 3 of the bottom two rows of Figs. 1–3 display the z -score images.

The computation of z scores for phase preserves sign, but the scores are not constrained to lie between $\pm\pi$. Thus it is the relative profile of the z -score images, particularly with respect to modulations above and below zero, that is meaningful. For example, if an observer used the dot product between the phase spectrum of the signal and the phase spectrum of the stimulus (either noise only or noise plus signal) as the decision variable, the z -score image would mirror the sign of the spectrum of the signal, but not match its values. More generally, reliable modulation of the z -score phase image indicates that the observer used phase information in the decision process.

D. Simulated Observer

An observer who bases his judgments on only magnitude information was simulated using the R statistical computing environment.¹⁴ A set of 3584 stimuli (16 sessions of 224 trials) was generated with the same characteristics as those used to test the human observers. Each stimulus was composed of 32 samples. Half of the trials were composed of only noise, the others of signal plus noise. The noise was drawn from a uniform distribution with power of 0.03, and the signal was a Gabor whose Gaussian envelope had a σ equal to eight samples and a sinusoidal carrier with a frequency equal to $(2\sigma)^{-1}$. The contrast of the Gabor was set at 0.15. The magnitude spectrum of each stimulus was extracted using the `fft()` function of R. The decision variable was calculated from the dot product of the magnitude spectrum of the stimulus with that of the signal. When the decision variable was greater than a criterion value of 0.45, the trial was classified by the observer as present, otherwise as absent. These conditions generated a $d' = 1.3$ with the proportion of hits and false alarms equal to 0.8 and 0.3, respectively. The time-domain samples (not their magnitude spectra) were sorted into response categories (hits, misses, false alarms, correct rejections), averaged, and combined to obtain present and absent classification images.

3. RESULTS

Figure 1 presents the classification images from the 0 Hz condition. Both subjects have well-defined images in the time domain, with images derived from signal-present trials and from signal-absent trials agreeing closely. KK's images resemble the luminance profile of the signal, although they are somewhat skewed toward higher values in the latter half, whereas JPT's images are oppositely skewed, with higher values in the first half of the stimulus epoch. The correlations between the luminance profile of the signal and the individual images range from 0.71 to 0.78.

In the Fourier domains, both observers have sharply defined phase images consisting of a single, negative-going lobe. Relative to the phase spectrum of the signal, the lobe is shifted toward lower temporal frequencies. The images derived from signal-present and from signal-absent trials agree closely. In the magnitude domain, however, the images are less clear-cut. At the lowest temporal frequency, the signal-present images for both observers are negative. Since magnitudes are positive, the negative values mean that the presence of noise components at this frequency biased the observers toward an "absent" response. When the signal was absent, these same components biased KK toward a "present" response and had little effect on the response of JPT. At higher frequencies, the data points of KK's image hover around zero, and those of JPT suggest low-amplitude peaks at 1.56 Hz.

Figure 2 presents the images from the 1.56 Hz condition. Again, both observers have well-defined images in the time domain. The images from signal-present and signal-absent trials resemble each other, but the slight differences are statistically significant ($p < 0.01$ for KK, $p < 0.05$ for JPT). The images derived from the signal-

present trials correlate more closely with the luminance profile of the signal (0.81 versus 0.80 for KK, 0.94 versus 0.78 for JPT).

In the Fourier domains, both observers have sharply defined phase images consisting of single, negative-going lobes at the peak temporal frequency of the stimulus. The signal-present and signal-absent images of KK are essentially coincident, but the signal-absent image of JPT has less amplitude than his signal-present image. In the magnitude domain, the signal-absent image of KK peaks at the temporal frequency of the signal, but his signal-present image is essentially flat. The signal-present image of JPT has a single peak that occurs at a higher temporal frequency than the signal. His signal-absent image is broad and of lower amplitude.

Figure 3 presents images from the 3.12 Hz condition. The time-domain images of KK differ between signal-present and signal-absent ($p < 0.001$). The signal-present image is skewed toward higher amplitude in the second half of the stimulus epoch, but the correlation with the signal profile remains high (0.83). The signal-absent image is nearly flat, but does contain a significant signal component (correlation of 0.63). The signal-present and signal-absent images of JPT also differ from each other ($p < 0.001$). The correlation between the luminance profile of the signal and the signal-present image is 0.87. The signal-absent image is flat and does not contain a significant signal component.

In the Fourier domains, the magnitude images of both observers have greater amplitudes than in the other two conditions. The present images are broadly tuned and peak at a lower temporal frequency than the peak frequency of the signal. For both observers, the signal-absent image has greater amplitude than the signal-present image. Just the opposite relationship occurs in the phase images: For both observers, the phase image from signal-present trials has greater amplitude and more closely resembles the profile of the phase spectrum of the signal than the image derived from signal-absent trials. The signal-absent phase image for JPT is essentially flat.

4. DISCUSSION

The presence of a classification image, particularly from signal-absent trials, indicates that the property represented plays a significant role in the observer's decision process. Since performance levels were constant across conditions, changes in the classification images from one condition to another reflect changes in the observer's use of stimulus information.

One such shift is in the balance between the use of temporal frequency and temporal phase information. In the 0 Hz condition, the phase-domain images are narrowly defined and of high amplitude, while the temporal frequency-domain images are less well defined and of lower amplitude. In the 3.12 Hz condition, on the other hand, it is the frequency images that are more clearly defined and of higher amplitude, particularly on signal-absent trials. These changes support a conclusion that decision processes emphasized phase in the low-frequency condition, but that flicker rate, perhaps without regard to

phase, was emphasized in the high-frequency condition. The results should not be taken to mean that observers totally ignored temporal frequency information in the lower modulation conditions: The narrowness of the phase images on the frequency axis indicates that the selective use of phase information was restricted to the frequency region of the signal.

The reduced use of phase information provides one reason for the difference between time-domain images from signal-present and signal-absent trials in the 3.12 Hz condition. When the signal is present, any noise component similar in temporal frequency and phase to the signal will increase the effective contrast of the signal and strengthen the representations of both temporal frequency and phase information. As a result, the decision process is biased toward responding "present" even if only frequency information is used and phase information is ignored. However, if the noise component is out of phase with the signal, the effective contrasts of the signal and the noise components are reduced, as are the representations of frequency and phase, and the decision is biased toward "absent." As a result of this interaction, the time-domain image from signal-present trials tends to mirror the signal, and a phase-domain image may appear even though the decision processes ignore phase *per se*. When the signal is absent, on the other hand, the strength of the temporal frequency representation depends only on the frequency content of the noise and not on the phase. Because the phase relationships in the noise vary randomly, averaging the noise profiles over trials tends to produce flat images in the time and phase domains. Figure 4 presents the time-domain classification images of a simulated observer who uses only frequency information, i.e., who uses the dot product between the magnitude spectra of the signal and of the stimulus (noise only or noise plus signal) as the decision variable. Consistent with the argument just given, there is a clear difference between the simulated signal-present and signal-absent images: The signal-present image mirrors the temporal profile of the signal whereas the signal-absent image is flat.

Solomon¹⁵ obtained analogous results in spatial domains. When observers sought to detect a peripherally presented spatial grating, signal-present trials yielded a space-domain classification image, but signal-absent trials did not. However, both types of trial yielded images in the spatial-frequency domain. Solomon inferred that observers used information about spatial frequency, but not about spatial phase, in their decision processes. In a separate condition, Solomon found evidence that the effect of

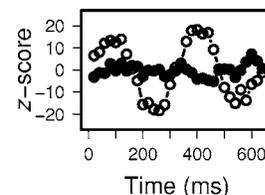


Fig. 4. Simulated time-domain images in the 3.12 Hz condition for an observer who uses only frequency information. The decision variable is the dot product between the magnitude spectrum of the signal and the magnitude spectrum of the stimulus. Open circles are calculated for signal-present trials; solid circles represent calculations for signal-absent trials.

noise components on signal contrast was a major determinant of observers' responses on signal-present trials.

Several investigators have noted and discussed differences between classification images derived from signal-present and signal-absent trials,^{9,16–20} and the consensus is that such differences argue against completely linear decision models. Stimulus uncertainty, in the spatial or temporal domain, has been proposed as one possible source of the differences, and this suggestion has been supported by modeling results.^{18,21} With respect to the present findings, temporal uncertainty may underlie the changing roles of temporal phase and temporal frequency information as signal frequency is increased. A given uncertainty in the time domain translates into a phase uncertainty that increases in proportion to signal frequency. Thus a temporal uncertainty that might have little effect on phase information in the 0 Hz condition might have a substantial effect in the 3.12 Hz condition, leading observers to place more emphasis on frequency information.

These and other results, such as those of Solomon, illustrate the potential of classification images to increase our understanding of the manner in which the visual system abstracts information about separate stimulus properties and about how decision processes use the representations of these properties in perceptual judgment.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

J. P. Thomas's participation was supported by a visiting professorship from the Université Jean Monnet, Saint Étienne, France.

The corresponding author is Kenneth Knoblauch, INSERM U371, Cerveau et Vision, Department of Cognitive Neurosciences, 18 avenue du Doyen Lépine, 69500 Bron, France; knoblauch@lyon.inserm.fr.

REFERENCES

1. R. L. DeValois, I. Abramov, and G. H. Jacobs, "Analysis of response patterns of LGN cells," *J. Opt. Soc. Am.* **56**, 966–977 (1966).
2. R. L. DeValois, "Some transformations of color information from lateral geniculate nucleus to striate cortex," *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA* **97**, 4997–5002 (2000).
3. R. L. DeValois, E. W. Yund, and N. Hepler, "The orientation and direction selectivity of cells in macaque visual cortex," *Vision Res.* **22**, 531–544 (1982).
4. R. L. DeValois, D. G. Albrecht, and L. G. Thorell, "Spatial frequency selectivity of cells in macaque visual cortex," *Vision Res.* **22**, 545–559 (1982).
5. R. L. DeValois, N. P. Cottaris, L. E. Mahon, S. D. Elfar, and J. A. Wilson, "Spatial and temporal receptive fields of geniculate and cortical cells and directional selectivity," *Vision Res.* **40**, 3685–3702 (2000).
6. J. A. Movshon, E. H. Adelson, M. S. Gizzi, and W. T. Newsome, "The analysis of moving visual patterns," in *Pattern Recognition Mechanisms*, C. Chagas, R. Gattass, and C. Gross, eds. (Springer, 1985), pp. 117–151.
7. L. A. Olzak and J. P. Thomas, "Neural recoding in human pattern vision: model and mechanism," *Vision Res.* **39**, 231–256 (1999).
8. S. Magnussen and M. W. Greenlee, "The psychophysics of perceptual memory," *Psychol. Res.* **62**, 81–92 (1999).
9. A. J. Ahumada, Jr., "Detection of tones masked by noise: a comparison of human observers with digital-computer-simulated energy detectors of varying bandwidths," Ph.D. thesis (University of California, Los Angeles, 1967).
10. A. J. Ahumada, Jr., and J. Lovell, "Stimulus features in signal detection," *J. Acoust. Soc. Am.* **49**, 1751–1756 (1971).
11. M. P. Eckstein and A. J. Ahumada, Jr., "Classification images: a tool to analyze visual strategies," *J. Vision* **2**, doi:10.1167/2.1.i (2002), <http://journalofvision.org/2/1/i/>.
12. K. Knoblauch, J. P. Thomas, and M. D'Zmura, "Feedback, temporal frequency, and stimulus classification," *Invest. Ophthalmol. Visual Sci.* **40**, S792 (1999).
13. M. D'Zmura and K. Knoblauch, "Spectral bandwidths for the detection of color," *Vision Res.* **38**, 3117–3128 (1998).
14. R Development Core Team, "R: a language and environment for statistical computing" (R Foundation for Statistical Computing, Vienna, Austria), <http://www.R-project.org>.
15. J. A. Solomon, "Noise reveals visual mechanisms of detection and discrimination," *J. Vision* **2**, 105–120 doi:10.1167/2.1.7 (2002), <http://journalofvision.org/2/1/7/>.
16. B. L. Beard and A. J. Ahumada, Jr., "A technique to extract relevant image features for visual tasks," *Proc. SPIE* **3299**, 79–85 (1998).
17. A. J. Ahumada, Jr., and B. L. Beard, "Classification images for detection," *Invest. Ophthalmol. Visual Sci.* **40**, S572 (1999).
18. E. Barth, B. L. Beard, and A. J. Ahumada, Jr., "Nonlinear features in vernier acuity," *Proc. SPIE* **3644**, 88–96 (1999).
19. A. J. Ahumada, Jr., "Classification image weights and internal noise level estimation," *J. Vision* **2**, 121–131, doi:10.1167/2.1.8 (2002), <http://journalofvision.org/2/1/8/>.
20. C. K. Abbey and M. P. Eckstein, "Classification image analysis: estimation and statistical inference for two-alternative forced-choice experiment," *J. Vision* **2**, 66–78, doi:10.1167/2.1.5 (2002), <http://journalofvision.org/2/1/5/>.
21. R. F. Murray, P. J. Bennett, and A. B. Sekuler, "Classification images predict absolute efficiency," *J. Vision* **5**, 139–149, doi:10.1167/5.2.5 (2005), <http://journalofvision.org/5/2/5/>.