Velocity Tuned Mechanisms in Human Motion Processing

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Abstract. We determined two-dimensional motion discrimination contours in the spatio-temporal frequency plane to characterize the mechanisms underlying velocity perception. In particular, we wanted to determine whether there exist mechanisms tuned specifically to velocity, rather than separable mechanisms tuned to spatial and temporal frequency. A 4-AFC paradigm was used to determine spatio-temporal frequency discrimination thresholds for sinewave gratings defined by luminance contrast. Three of the gratings patches used were defined by the same spatial and temporal frequency (standard), the other (test) differed by a fixed proportional change in spatial and temporal frequency. Subjects had to indicate which grating differed most from the others and the thresholds determined for varying proportions of change in spatial and temporal frequency were used to trace out complete threshold contours in the plane spanned by these attributes. Some of the contours, primarily at speeds above 1 deg/s, were noticeably oriented along lines of constant velocity. To further isolate these mechanisms, spatio-temporal noise was added to the standard stimuli either along a line of constant velocity or in the direction orthogonal to it. When spatio-temporal noise of constant velocity was added to the standard stimuli, threshold contours became elongated only along the direction of the noise. The same amount of noise in the orthogonal direction produced an overall increase in thresholds without changing the shape of the contour, presenting clear evidence for velocity tuned mechanisms. In further experiments we discovered that velocity tuned mechanisms interact with separable mechanisms to produce optimal discriminability. Analogous experiments with isoluminant stimuli failed to exhibit evidence for velocity tuning, supporting the notion that the human color vision system is impaired in its coding of stimulus speed, despite excellent sensitivity to direction of motion.

1. Introduction

Research on motion perception has produced important insights at the psychophysical, computational, and neurophysiological level. The activity of individual neurons in the middle temporal area (MT) of macaque monkeys has been closely linked to perceptual performance in direction-of-motion discrimination tasks (Newsome, Britten & Movshon 1989; Salzman, Britten & Newsome, 1990; Newsome, Britten, Salzman & Movshon, 1990; Salzman, Murasugi, Britten & Newsome, 1992; Britten, Shadlen, Newsome & Movshon, 1992ab; Britten, Newsome, Shadlen, Celebri & Movshon, 1996; Newsome, 1997). Furthermore, there are several similar models of motion sensing that closely resemble the underlying neural circuitry and make accurate predictions of psychophysical performance (Reichardt, 1961; Van Santen & Sperling, 1984; Adelson & Bergen, 1985; Watson & Ahumada, 1985; Heeger, 1987; Grywacz & Yuille, 1990; Smith & Edgar 1994; Heeger, Simoncelli & Movshon, 1996). However, most research has concentrated on the estimation of direction of motion. In contrast, the mechanisms responsible for the computation of object speed are still largely unknown.

The elementary components of all motion models are receptive fields selectively responsive to spatial and temporal frequency (Hubel & Wiesel, 1962; Campbell, Cleland, Cooper & Enroth-Cugell, 1968; Hubel & Wiesel, 1968; Campbell, Cooper & Enroth-Cugell, 1969; Tolhurst & Movshon, 1975; Movshon, Thompson & Tolhurst, 1978a-c, DeValois, Albrecht & Thorrell, 1982; DeValois & DeValois, 1988). The outputs of these spatio-temporal filters are then combined, either through correlation or through quadrature, to construct mechanisms that respond to one direction of motion, independently of stimulus contrast or polarity. Since the components of these motion detectors are receptive fields independently tuned to spatial and temporal frequency, the detectors as a whole are also separable in space and time along their preferred direction of motion. That is, the response at any velocity is the
product of the response at the spatial and the temporal frequency of the stimulus. Receptive fields with properties mimicking the behavior of these elementary motion detectors (EMDs) have been observed in layer 4B of area V1 (Hubel & Wiesel, 1968; Dow, 1974; Livingstone & Hubel, 1984; Orban, Kennedy & Bullier, 1986; Hawken, Parker & Lund, 1988) and most frequently in area MT (Dubner & Zeki, 1971; Newsome, Gizzi & Movshon, 1983; Albright, 1984; Movshon, Newsome, Gizzi & Levitt, 1988; Britten, Shadlen, Newsome & Movshon, 1992ab).

Since the EMDs respond only over the part of the spatio-temporal frequency domain to which its low level receptive fields are tuned to, it is possible in theory to recover stimulus velocity through the simply relationship \( v = tf/sf \), i.e. velocity is the ratio of temporal and spatial frequency. That approach is used in several of the common models (Watson & Ahumada 1985; Heeger, 1987; Heeger, Simoncelli & Movshon, 1996; Simoncelli & Heeger, 1998). The question remains whether such velocity tuned mechanisms specifically exist in the human visual system. There is indirect psychophysical evidence pointing towards the existence of velocity tuned mechanisms (McKee, Silverman & Nakayama, 1986). Our goal in the present experiments was to characterize the tuning of these mechanisms, to see how they are distributed over different velocities, whether they are contrast-independent, and whether similar mechanisms exist for the chromatic channels.

Numerous physiological studies have shown that cells in cat and monkey visual cortex can be tuned to velocity (Movshon, 1975; Ikeda & Wright, 1975; Holub & Morton-Gibson, 1981; Orban, Kennedy & Maes, 1981; Maunsell & Van Essen, 1983; Bisti, Carmignoto, Galli & Maffei 1985; Burkhalter & Van Essen, 1986; Morrone, DiStefano & Burr, 1986; Orban, Kennedy & Bullier, 1986; Movshon, Newsome, Gizzi & Levitt, 1988). However, in most of these experiments broadband stimuli such as random dot kinematograms have been used, which do not allow to distinguish between velocity tuned and space-time separable mechanisms. We will pursue this issue further in the discussion part of this paper. In the few experiments where sinusoidal grating stimuli were used, no evidence for velocity tuning could be found for neurons in macaque areas V2 or MT (Foster, Gaska, Nagler & Pollen, 1985; Newsome, Gizzi & Movshon, 1983; Movshon, Newsome, Gizzi, & Levitt, 1988, Levitt, Kiper & Movshon, 1994).

Psychophysically, McKee, Silverman & Nakayama (1986) showed that velocity discrimination was not much affected by random changes in the temporal frequency of moving sinusoidal gratings. They concluded that velocity is the primary source of information for motion discrimination and that temporal frequency has to be derived from velocity. However, later experiments by Smith & Edgar (1991) showed that temporal frequency discriminations are also affected very little by random changes in velocity. Therefore, the two quantities seem to be processed rather independently of each other.

We performed a direct test for separability suggested by McKee, Silverman & Nakayama (1986). In our initial experiment, we determined discrimination threshold contours in the spatio-temporal frequency plane to test whether the resulting contours could be described as the product of independent mechanisms tuned to spatial and temporal frequency. This type of analysis has been used extensively in the past to determine the mechanisms underlying color discrimination (Nielsen & Wandell, 1989; Poirson, Wandell, Varner & Brainard, 1990; Krauskopf & Gegenfurtner, 1992; Gegenfurtner & Hawken, 1995).

Since the results of measuring discrimination contours were not entirely conclusive, we performed further experiments using noise masking techniques that have been successfully used in the past to isolate mechanisms of spatial vision (Pelli, 1981; Henning, Hertz & Hinton, 1981; Wilson, McFarlane & Philpps, 1983; Legge, Kersten & Burgess, 1987; Derrington & Henning, 1989) and color vision (Switkes, Bradley & De Valois, 1988; D’Zmura, 1990; Gegenfurtner & Kiper, 1992; Losada & Mullen, 1994, 1995; Sankeralli & Mullen, 1997). The noise masking experiments provide conclusive evidence that velocity tuned mechanisms exist in the human visual system. However, under normal circumstances velocity tuned mechanisms seem to act together with space-time separable mechanisms. We performed a third experiment in which we determined psychometric functions for different directions in the spatio-temporal frequency plane to investigate the possible interactions between the three mechanisms more thoroughly.

Finally, we repeated the whole series of experiments using stimuli defined exclusively by color contrast (isoluminant stimuli). Under these conditions no evidence for velocity tuning was found, which further supports the notion that the perception of stimulus speed is severely impaired at isoluminance (Cavanagh, Tyler & Favreau, 1984; Mullen & Boulton, 1992; Teller & Lindsey, 1993; Hawken, Gegenfurtner & Tang, 1994; Gegenfurtner &

Preliminary reports of these data have been presented in Reisbeck & Gegenfurtner (1997).

2. Experiment 1: Threshold contours in the spatiotemporal frequency plane

Discrimination thresholds were measured in the two-dimensional space spanned by spatial and temporal frequency. For a certain standard stimulus of a given spatial and temporal frequency, we determined the just noticeable difference at which a test stimulus in a certain direction away from the standard could be reliably discriminated. Standard stimuli covered a range of velocities from about 0.05 deg/s up to about 15 deg/s. Figure 1 illustrates the potential outcomes of such an experiment. If the mechanisms of motion discrimination are space-time separable, then we would expect discrimination contours that are aligned to the axes of the spatio-temporal frequency plane, as in Fig. 1A. If velocity tuned mechanisms exist, we would expect the discrimination contours to be aligned along lines of constant velocities through the standard stimuli, as in Fig. 1B. This plot also shows how such a velocity tuned mechanism might be built by pooling lower-level space-time separable mechanisms.

2.1 Methods

Equipment. The stimuli were displayed on a BARCO (CCID 7351B) color television monitor that was driven by a Cambridge Research VSG 2/3 graphics board with a refresh rate of 120 Hz non-interlaced. The images were generated on the monitor by reading through the picture memory in a raster scan and then interpreting the numbers in each location as a color defined in a 256-element color lookup table. Two 8-bit-digital-to-analog converters, which were combined to produce an intensity resolution of 12 bits, were used to control the intensity of each of the three monitor phosphors. The luminances of each of the phosphors was measured at various output voltage levels using a Graseby Optronics Model 370 optometer with a model 265 photometric filter. A smooth function was used to interpolate between the measured points and lookup tables were generated to linearize the relationship

![Figure 1: Mechanisms responsible for the processing of stimulus velocity. The abscissa of each plot denotes spatial and the ordinate temporal frequency. The broken lines indicate locations of equal velocity since they are given by the slopes of the lines, e.g. the ratio of temporal to spatial frequency. The crosses mark the centers of hypothetical receptive fields for a space-time separable (A) and a velocity tuned mechanism (B). Space-time separable mechanisms are realized by receptive fields of cells in V1 of macaque monkeys (heavy ellipse) and cover a certain area in this spatiotemporal frequency plane. The important point is that the maximal activation of such a cell to its optimal spatial frequency is independent of the temporal frequency of the presented stimulus and vice versa, e.g. the receptive field’s main axes are aligned with the coordinate axes. To construct a velocity tuned mechanism as the one presented in B (heavy ellipse) on a later processing stage, information from cells of the former stage that are tuned to the same velocity (thin ellipses) has to be combined. In this case the contour of the receptive field is tilted with respect to the coordinate axes. Therefore, the maximal activation of the cell is only elicited for covarying spatial and temporal frequencies such that the formula \( v = tf/sf \) holds true. Maximal activation depends on the velocity of the stimulus that is being processed.](image-url)
between voltage output and luminance. All the stimuli in the present experiments had a space-time averaged luminance of 26.25 cd/m². We also made sure that additivity of the three phosphors held over the range of intensities used in these experiments (Brainard, 1989). A Photo Research PR 650 spectroradiometer was used to measure the spectra of the red, green and blue phosphor at their maximum intensity setting. The spectra were multiplied with Judd’s 1951 color matching functions to derive x, y chromaticity coordinates and the luminance Y of the phosphors (Irtel, 1992). All further references to luminance and photometric luminance refer to the V(λ) curve as modified by Judd. The matrix equations given by MacLeod & Boynton (1979) were used to calculate cone absorptions (Smith & Pokorny, 1975) from the X, Y, and Z values.

Procedure. Subjects were seated at a distance of 172 cm from the monitor. Their heads were resting on a chin rest and they viewed the scene binocularly through natural pupils. At a distance of 65 cm from the monitor a panel 200x200 cm in size with an aperture of 20x15 cm was placed in the frontoparallel plane. The area that was visible on the screen therefore subtended 10.7x8 degrees of visual angle. The panel and the monitor were connected by a tube of 50x40 cm side length. In this way no illuminating light from above could reach the monitor screen on a direct path. Its interior was coated with black felt such that there was no reflection of light entering the tube. The color of the panel was chosen to match the monitor screen both with respect to the uniform gray background color and its mean luminance of 26.25 cd/m². This was done to give the impression of a continuous screen on which the stimuli were presented. At the center of the monitor a black fixation square of 8 min side length was displayed.

Subjects. Three subjects (TR, SH, KL), one of which was the first author (TR), participated in the first experiment. All subjects had normal or corrected to normal visual acuity and normal color vision.

Stimuli. The stimuli in experiment 1 were vertically oriented sinewave gratings of different spatial and temporal frequencies, defined by luminance contrast. We used a 4-AFC paradigm to determine discrimination thresholds in the spatio-temporal frequency plane for sinewave gratings defined by 50% luminance contrast. Configuration of the stimuli can be seen in Figure 2A.

The stimuli consisted of four discs each 1° in diameter. The centers of the discs were located 0.75° eccentric on the corners of an imaginary square that was symmetrically arranged around the fixation spot. During each presentation three of the discs showed the same sinewave gratings (standard stim-
and the fourth showed a grating that differed in spatial frequency, temporal frequency or simultaneously in both stimulus attributes (test stimulus in Figure 2A: lower left). For sixteen test directions, which differed by the proportion of change in spatial and temporal frequency with respect to the standard, we determined the just noticeable differences. These directions are depicted by the arrows in Figure 2B, where the location of the standard stimulus is represented by the cross in the center of the plot. The starting spatial phase was randomly chosen for each grating and during each trial all stimuli moved randomly either to the left or to the right. Presentation time was 500 ms and stimulus contrast was ramped on and off during the first and last 50 ms. Subjects had to indicate which one of the discs was different from the others. They did so by pressing one of four keypad buttons representing the locations of the discs on the screen. An adaptive staircase procedure defined by an up-down method (Levitt, 1971) controlled the magnitude of the difference between standard and test stimuli. The difference between the test and standard stimuli was decreased after three consecutive correct responses and increased after an incorrect response. Threshold estimates were then determined from the mean of the six reversal points of the staircase. This was done at least three times for each of the different directions. The average values of these measurements were used as the final estimates for the thresholds. The sixteen individual thresholds were used to trace out a complete two-dimensional threshold contour in the spatio-temporal frequency plane. For observer TR, fourteen threshold contours were determined which covered a range of spatial frequencies from 0.5 to 8 c/deg and a range of temporal frequencies from 0.5 to 8 Hz. For the other observers only 7 or 5 threshold contours were determined, thereby covering the same range of temporal but a smaller range of spatial frequencies (0.5 to 4 c/deg).

2.2 Results

Figure 3 shows the threshold contours for subjects TR, SH and KL. We determined fourteen (subject TR), seven (subject SH) or five (subject KL) threshold contours for the standard stimuli given by the crosses in the different plots. The lines of constant velocity, which all run through the origin in a linear plot, are parallel at 45° in this log-log plot. This makes it easier to evaluate the orientation of the ellipse for speeds that are represented close to the axes. The abscissas denote spatial frequency and the ordinates temporal frequency. The closed curves through the data points are the best fitting ellipses.
The methods used for the fitting are described in great detail in Gegenfurtner & Hawken (1995).

Over a range of spatial and temporal frequencies, the size of the threshold contours is fairly constant in this log-log plot. This means that, as expected from predictions of Weber’s law for spatial and temporal frequency discriminations, threshold contours became larger with increasing spatial or temporal frequency. Additionally, many of the contours are severely tilted away from the axes of the coordinate system. This does not conform with the prediction based on separable mechanisms for spatial and temporal frequency (see Figure 1A). Rather, the contours are tilted at angles close to 45˚. In the linear coordinate system these contours would point towards the origin, indicating non-separable, velocity tuned mechanisms (see Figure 1B). The quality of the prediction based on velocity tuned mechanisms can be evaluated by looking at the angles the major axes of the ellipses form with the coordinate axes. Velocity tuning predicts that the major axes of all ellipses should be aligned to a line through the origin and the standard stimulus, resulting in an angle of inclination of 45˚ in the log-log plot shown in Figure 3. Figure 4 shows this angle of inclination as a function of the velocity of the standard stimulus. For velocities above 1 deg/s, most of the ellipses are oriented at 45˚, indicating velocity tuned mechanisms. At slower speeds, the ellipses tend to be oriented at 90˚, in line with the prediction based on separable mechanisms.

Fitting ellipses amounts to finding a linear transformation of the coordinate space which transforms the ellipse into a unit circle. Since we found small asymmetries in the detection of increments and decrements in some cases, we allowed in the fits the center of the ellipse to vary as well. The quality of the ellipse fit can then be determined by calculating the deviations of the transformed points from the unit circle (Poirson, Wandell, Varner & Brainard, 1990). These deviations, for the data shown in Figure 3, ranged from 0.2% up to 2.2% with a mean of 0.8%. This can be considered an excellent fit, especially when compared to typical goodness of fit values of around 5% obtained in other domains (Nielsen & Wandell, 1989; Poirson, Wandell, Varner & Brainard, 1990; Krauskopf & Gegenfurtner, 1992; Gegenfurtner & Hawken, 1995). In contrast, when we fitted the data with ellipses aligned to the coordinate axes, the average fit was much worse with an average deviation of 4.2%, and a range of deviations between 0.6% and 10.2%. The later fits show clear and systematic deviations of the data from the predictions. We therefore reject the hypothesis that the discrimination contours are solely due to separable mechanisms tuned to spatial and temporal frequency.

2.3 Discussion

The results provide strong direct evidence for velocity tuned mechanisms in human visual motion processing. The thresholds shown in Figure 3 are smallest in directions orthogonal to lines of constant velocity. Presumably, these discriminations are based on the activity of velocity tuned mechanisms. Thresholds are elongated along lines of constant velocity, since velocity tuned mechanisms cannot be used for discrimination along such lines. Discrimination of stimuli of equal velocity has to be based on differences in spatial and temporal frequency. The data in Figure 3 indicate that the difference in threshold along directions of constant velocity and of changing velocity are not very dramatic. This implies that mechanisms selective to spatial and temporal frequency might affect at least part of the discrimination contour. We therefore devised a second experiment that would allow us to investigate the velocity tuned mechanism in more detail, without the interference of spatial and temporal mechanisms.
3. Experiment 2: Influence of spatio-temporal noise

A technique widely used to isolate mechanisms underlying certain aspects of spatial vision (Pelli, 1981; Henning, Hertz & Hinton, 1981; Wilson, McFarlane & Philpps, 1983; Legge, Kersten & Burgess, 1987; Derrington & Henning, 1989) or color vision (Switkes, Bradley & De Valois, 1988; D’Zmura, 1990; Gegenfurtner & Kiper, 1992; Losada & Mullen, 1994, 1995; Sankeralli & Mullen, 1997) is noise masking. The basic idea is that adding stimulus noise to a visual channel will decrease its signal-to-noise ratio and therefore the psychophysical detection performance based on this channel will deteriorate. When several mechanisms are at work interactively, noise can be added differentially to each of them, thereby selectively decreasing detection or discrimination thresholds within that channel. By doing so we can expose a larger part of the detection or discrimination contour that depends upon the other mechanisms. Of course, at a more basic level, it also allows an assessment of whether more than one such mechanism is present.

In the experiment described here we added two different types of spatio-temporal noise to the three standard stimuli used in the discrimination task. Noise could be a modulation along a line of constant velocity. That is, we added or subtracted amounts of spatial and temporal frequency to each of the three standards, such that the resulting ratio of temporal to spatial frequency (i.e. velocity) was unchanged. To a velocity tuned mechanism this kind of noise will be invisible. Under a second condition, we used noise with the same magnitude of spatial and temporal frequency modulations, but with reverse signs, as illustrated in Figure 5. Therefore, the second type of noise will perturb velocity tuned mechanisms in the same way it affects mechanisms tuned to spatial and temporal frequency.

The reasoning behind this experiment was first to strengthen the evidence in favor of the existence of velocity tuned mechanisms, and second to uncover the parts of the threshold contours that are based on velocity tuned mechanisms exclusively.

3.1 Methods

Methods were identical to the ones used in Experiment 1, except that we applied two different kinds of spatio-temporal noise to the standard stimuli, as can be seen in Figure 5B. The thick bar with positive slope indicates noise along a line of con-
stant velocity. Noise with varying velocity was chosen along a line that resulted from vertically reflecting the line of constant velocity around the location of the standard stimulus. This is indicated by the thick bar with negative slope. In both experiments, we used the same absolute amount of spatio-temporal noise and its maximal extent equalled twice the noise-free discrimination threshold that was determined in Experiment 1 for the constant velocity direction. Application of noise resulted in three different standard sinewave gratings that were randomly picked from the line of constant (first condition, bar with positive slope) or variable velocity (second condition, bar with negative slope). Under both conditions the spatial and temporal frequencies of all stimuli were different. In the first case, however, the standards had the same velocity and the test could therefore be discriminated by its velocity difference. In the second case, the velocity also varied for all stimuli. Test stimuli were again chosen along 16 directions around the standard stimulus. The subjects had to indicate the patch which differed most from the others. Figure 5A shows a typical stimulus configuration with four grating patches all differing in spatial and temporal frequency. Measurements for both types of noise were performed in different experimental sessions, while the individual contours were randomly split up into two consecutive experimental sessions. Threshold contours for both directions of noise and the condition without noise were determined for five observers, three of whom already participated in the first experiment.

3.2 Results

The results for three subjects (TR, KH, DU) are shown in Figure 6. The results for two other naive observers did not differ in any systematic way. The abscissa of each plot denotes spatial frequency and the ordinate temporal frequency. The cross in the center of each plot shows the location of the standard stimulus which had a spatial frequency of 2 c/deg and a temporal frequency of 1.875 Hz. The small filled diamonds represent the threshold contour that has been determined for this standard in Experiment 1 for the respective subjects.

The plots upper (A-C) show the threshold contours for spatio-temporal noise of constant velocity. The maximal amount of noise is given by the length of the two arrows which lie along a line through the origin. The thresholds that were determined for this condition are given by the filled circles in Figures 6A-C. The resulting contours show a clear elongation along the constant velocity axis, whereas thresholds increase only slightly for directions of variable velocity. For all subjects the long flanks of the threshold contours lie along lines of constant velocity, indicating that velocity tuned mechanisms form the basis of the subjects’ discrimination judgments.

The lower plots (D-F) show the threshold contours for the same subjects when noise was applied along a direction of variable velocity. Again, the maximal amount of noise is given by the two arrows. It is important to note that the same absolute amount of spatial and temporal noise was introduced as in the above condition. The resulting threshold contours are given by the filled squares in Figures 6D-F. Here, an overall increase of thresholds by a factor of 2 to 3 occurred as a result of the noise that had been added to the standard stimuli.

3.3 Discussion

These results prove the existence of velocity tuned mechanisms in human motion perception. Furthermore, they clarify the special role played by velocity, since no mechanisms selective to the reverse combination of spatial and temporal frequency was found. Selective masking occurred only for noise along the line of constant velocity. When noise of variable velocity is introduced, all three potential mechanisms are equally affected and thresholds increase uniformly in all directions.

4. Experiment 3: Psychometric functions

The previous two experiments show clear evidence for velocity tuned mechanisms. However, the thresholds determined in these experiments were rather high when compared to conditions of optimal discriminability. The Weber fractions for velocity discrimination thresholds can be as low as 5% (McKee, 1981; McKee & Nakayama, 1984; Orban, DeWolf & Maes, 1984; DeBruyn & Orban, 1988; Snowden & Bradick, 1991). In the previous experiments we observed typical Weber fractions of 10% to 20%. This was the case, because the conditions used in these experiments were far from ideal. Four patches, presented in the perifovea, had to be monitored at the same time. Changes within each session could be along many different directions in the spatio-temporal frequency plane and comparisons be made across different regions of the visual field. We therefore performed a third experiment using a memory matching task that is known to produce highly accurate velocity discrimination (McKee, Silverman & Nakayama, 1986) with optimal Weber
fractions. This should allow us to answer the question whether velocity tuned mechanisms contribute to perceptual discriminations of small velocity differences.

4.1 Methods

A method of constant stimuli was used to determine just noticeable differences for simultaneous changes in spatial and temporal frequencies for sinewave gratings defined by 50% or 6.25% luminance contrast. To measure psychometric functions we determined the proportion of correct responses for 11 test stimuli that were symmetrically placed along each of two directions around the standard stimulus. Each stimulus, including the standard, was presented 80-120 times. The two directions in which comparison stimuli could be placed were chosen in the same way as in Experiment 2. One set of comparison stimuli lay on a line of velocity equal to that of the standard. The other set of points had the same changes in spatial and temporal frequency, but with the reverse polarity (see Figure 5). Note that the only difference between the two sets is that in the first case the standard and comparison stimuli are of equal velocity, while in the later case there is a velocity difference.

One stimulus patch, 8° in diameter, was presented for 500ms on each trial. It was oriented vertically and moved randomly to the right or to the left. Between stimulus presentations a fixation square of 8 min side length was displayed at the center of the monitor screen. The experiments consisted of two parts. In the preparatory part the standard stimulus was presented repeatedly to allow subjects to familiarize themselves with it. During the second part, the standard stimulus was presented randomly on 10% of all trials, accompanied by a tone to identify it to the subjects. After presentation of the com-
parison stimuli, subjects had to decide whether the test stimulus had a higher or lower spatial frequency or moved faster or slower than the standard stimulus, depending on which set of stimuli was tested. They did so by pressing one of two buttons on a keypad. In all experiments the standard stimulus was also used as one of the comparison stimuli. The data points were fitted by a cumulative normal distribution and the standard deviation of the Gaussian was used as a measure of discriminability. Generally, the psychometric functions were centered closely at the standard. The experiments were performed by six observers, five of which already served as subjects in the previous experiments.

4.2 Results

Figure 7 shows example psychometric functions for three subjects (TR, KL & KH) and three different standard stimuli with 50% luminance contrast. The abscissas denote spatial frequency of the standard and the ordinates the proportion of responses of either higher spatial frequency or higher velocity. Filled circles indicate the proportion of “higher spatial frequency/higher temporal frequency” responses to stimuli of constant velocity whereas the filled squares represent the proportion of “lower spatial frequency/higher temporal frequency” (velocity) responses to stimuli of variable velocity. The continuous solid lines are the best fitting psychometric functions to the data points. In all three cases the psychometric functions for stimuli of variable velocity are steeper than those for stimuli of constant velocity. For each of the standard conditions indicated in the lower right hand corner of the plots discriminability was higher for stimuli containing an additional velocity component.

Figure 8 presents the thresholds obtained in this way for 25 (subject TR) or five (subjects KL and NP) different standard stimuli. The abscissas denote spatial frequency and the ordinates represent the temporal frequency of the stimuli. The length of the lines represent the magnitude of discrimination thresholds which are, in this case, five times enlarged for better visibility. Longer lines correspond to higher thresholds. The lines of positive slope represent thresholds for directions of constant velocity and those with negative slope directions of variable velocity. Their intersections indicate the locations of the standard stimuli. For all standard stimuli the threshold was higher for directions of constant velocity than for directions of variable velocity. The overall increase in thresholds with spatial and temporal frequency is similar to the one...
observed in Experiment 1, even though it appears different in this linear plot.

Figure 9A shows a direct comparison of thresholds for directions of variable against directions of constant velocity for stimuli that were characterized by a luminance contrast of 50%. The ratio of thresholds for directions of constant velocity to thresholds for directions of variable velocity is plotted as a function of standard velocity. The broken horizontal line indicates a ratio of 1, the prediction based on spatial and temporal frequency tuned mechanisms alone, namely no difference between the two directions. However, all data points do lie above this line thereby indicating that thresholds for directions of variable velocity are generally lower than those for directions of constant velocity. This is the case for all velocities investigated.

Since motion based mechanisms are typically ascribed a high contrast sensitivity (Sclar, Maunsell & Lennie, 1990) we hypothesized that the facilitatory effect of velocity differences might be even larger when stimuli of lower contrast are used. We therefore repeated the above experiment using stimuli of 6.25% luminance contrast. The results are shown in Figure 9B. In this case we did not observe the advantage for stimuli containing an additional velocity component. Thresholds were equal irrespective of whether a direction of constant velocity or one of variable velocity was tested.

4.3 Discussion

The conditions in this experiment were chosen to produce optimal velocity discrimination thresholds. Weber fractions in this experiment were generally on the order of 5%. Under these conditions we also found clear evidence that thresholds were at least partly mediated by velocity tuned mechanisms, but only at high contrasts. This later finding comes as a surprise, since we expected velocity tuned mechanisms to possess the high contrast sensitivity typically ascribed to the motion pathway and especially area MT. However, there is no physiological evidence to date that neurons in area MT are actually tuned to velocity. Preliminary findings reported by two studies (Newsome, Gizzi, & Movshon, 1983; Movshon, Newsome, Gizzi, & Levitt, 1988) point to a majority of separable cells in area MT. Therefore, areas higher up in the motion processing hierarchy might be responsible for the extraction of stimulus velocity, and their contrast sensitivity could well be lower than at the preceding stages. These results reiterate the fact that contrast plays an important role in motion processing. They agree with results showing a linear effect of
contrast on perceived speed over the whole range of contrasts (Thompson, 1982; Stone & Thompson, 1992; Hawken, Gegenfurtner & Tang, 1994; Gegenfurtner & Hawken, 1996a). This is vastly different from the results of experiments on the perception of direction of motion, where a saturation is observed at rather modest levels of about 10% contrast (Nakayama & Silverman, 1984), in agreement with an early saturation of MT neurons (Sclar, Maunsell & Lennie, 1990).

5. Experiment 4: Isoluminant gratings

In the recent past perceived speed has been studied extensively in the context of a possible segregation between motion and color processing (Livingstone & Hubel, 1987). Stimuli defined by chromatic information alone, so called iso- or equi-luminant stimuli, appear to move slower than stimuli defined by luminance (Cavanagh, Tyler & Favreau, 1984; Mullen & Boulton, 1992; Teller & Lindsey, 1993; Hawken, Gegenfurtner & Tang, 1994). While this was often interpreted as a general impairment of motion perception at isoluminance, it has been shown recently that the sensitivity for direction of motion is excellent at isoluminance (Stromeyer, Eskew & Kronauer, 1990; Cavanagh & Anstis 1991; Derrington & Henning, 1993; Metha, Vingrys & Badcock, 1994; Stromeyer, Kronauer, Ryu, Chaparro & Eskew, 1995; Gegenfurtner & Hawken, 1996b for a recent review).

The question whether there exist velocity tuned mechanisms for stimuli defined by color only is therefore of big interest to further resolve the question of chromatic motion processing. Consequently, we repeated some of the earlier experiments using isoluminant red-green stimuli.

5.1 Methods

Methods were identical to the ones described earlier for Experiments 1 and 3. The same subjects as in Experiment 3 served in this experiment. Now, rather than stimuli defined by luminance contrast we used red-green isoluminant stimuli.

Stimuli. All modulations were symmetric around a neutral white point (xyY = 0.34, 0.35, 26.25) along a red-green axis, which was chosen to differentially excite the putative L-M color-opponent mechanism as defined by Krauskopf, Williams & Heeley (1982). The maximum stimulation along the L-M axis went from (0.42,0.31) to (0.22, 0.39) and produced a Weber contrast of 7.96% in the L-cones and 18.29% in the M-cones. To define the effectiveness of chromatic stimuli we calculated the rooted-mean-squared contrast in the L- and M-cones: \[ \text{RMS} = \sqrt{0.5 (l^2 + m^2)}, \] where l and m are the Weber...
contrasts in the L- and M-cones, respectively, calculated using the cone fundamentals proposed by Smith & Pokorny (1975). The maximally achievable RMS-cone-contrast under conditions of photometric isoluminance was 14.1%.

Isoluminance. Some of the observers (TR, KL, DU) had already participated in a different set of experiments (Reisbeck & Gegenfurtner, 1998), for which we had determined their subjective isoluminant points at several different temporal frequencies. Since these observers ran the experiments initially, and since no experimental effect was found under conditions of isoluminance, we simply chose to define isoluminance with respect to the human photopic spectral luminosity function $V(\lambda)$, including Judd’s correction, for the other observers (SH, KH, NP).

5.2 Results

Experiment 1 revealed velocity tuning for stimuli defined by luminance contrast. This is indicated by the tilt of the elliptical threshold contours such that the main axes of the contours lie on parallel lines with an inclination of 45° (Figure 3). Figure 10 shows the threshold measurements for stimuli defined by isoluminant contrast, together with the best fitting ellipses. As in Figure 3, a 5 parameter model for the ellipses provided excellent fits to the observed contours. The mean deviation was 0.7%. It is apparent in Figure 10 that all of the ellipses are nearly perfectly aligned to the axes of the coordinate system.

Figure 11 shows this more quantitatively by plotting the angle major axes of the ellipses form with the x-axis as a function of standard stimulus velocity. For the isoluminant stimuli, most ellipses are oriented at 90°, indicating a space-time separable tuning.

Similar results were obtained when we repeated Experiment 3 with isoluminant stimuli. Figure 12 shows the discrimination thresholds determined either along lines of constant velocity, or along lines of varying velocity, analogously to Figure 9 for luminance defined stimuli. All the data points closely fall closely to the broken horizontal line, indicating that thresholds under these two conditions were identical.

5.3 Discussion

The results for the isoluminant gratings show that subjects can not use the additional information about stimulus velocity in these kind of stimuli to
enhance discrimination performance. From this we can conclude that velocity tuned mechanisms either do not exist for isoluminant stimuli, or that their sensitivity is very low. The contrast of the isoluminant stimuli is about one tenth of the contrast of the luminance stimuli, namely 7.05%. Figure 9B showed that discrimination performance for stimuli defined by 6.25% luminance contrast was the same for conditions of constant and variable velocity. Contrast can therefore play an essential role in this experiment. However, the contrasts used were at half of the maximum possible on our display monitor, and it is hard to imagine what any such mechanism would be useful for if its sensitivity was even lower. Therefore we can safely conclude that velocity tuned mechanisms do not contribute to the perception of velocity for isoluminant stimuli.

6. General Discussion

6.1 Summary

Our results provide direct evidence for the existence of velocity tuned mechanisms in human motion processing. Such mechanisms can add discriminative power to other mechanisms tuned separably to spatial and temporal frequency. Interestingly, the contrast sensitivity of velocity tuned mechanisms seems to be relatively low when compared to separable mechanisms. Furthermore velocity tuned mechanisms seem to be implemented in the luminance domain only. Motion defined by chromatic contrast lacks velocity tuned mechanisms.

6.2 Relationship to other psychophysical experiments

By far the most extensive psychophysical investigation of velocity tuned mechanism has been the work of McKee, Silverman & Nakayama (1986). They found that practiced observers could make reliable judgments of velocity discrimination, even though the stimuli had variable temporal frequency and contrast. Observers had to compare the velocity of a set of comparison stimuli to a memorized standard stimulus, identical to the procedure we used in Experiment 3. In their experiment, the spatial and temporal frequency of the comparison stimuli was randomly varied. The resulting Weber fractions for velocity discrimination were only modestly increased from 5% to about 7%. They interpreted the results as evidence that “temporal frequency is only known indirectly through motion.
mechanisms whose fundamental dimension is velocity”.

While these experiments showed that velocity judgments are possible independently of temporal frequency and contrast, they do not conclusively prove the existence of low-level velocity detectors. Rather, what is shown by these results is there is not a single temporal frequency selective mechanism that forms the basis of velocity judgments. The results do not rule out the possibility that the elementary detectors are spatio-temporally separable and velocity mediated by a population code of these separable mechanisms. Another basic result of the McKee, Silverman & Nakayama (1986) study was that velocity discrimination was better than temporal frequency discrimination in terms of lower Weber fractions. This aspect has been challenged recently, Smith & Edgar (1991) and Derrington & Henning (1993) found that with practice Weber fractions for temporal frequency discrimination could be as low or lower than for velocity discrimination. Furthermore, Smith & Edgar (1991) showed that temporal frequency discrimination was not much affected by random changes in velocity. All these results point to the conclusion that there are indeed three sets of mechanisms tuned to spatial frequency, temporal frequency and velocity, and that the visual system uses all the information available to make reliable and optimal discrimination judgments. This idea is strongly supported by our experiments.

The fact that Weber fractions for velocity discrimination depend on velocity only, and not on spatial and temporal frequency, is also illustrated by the results of Experiment 3. Figure 13 shows the velocity differences \( \Delta v \) necessary for reliable discrimination at each spatial and temporal frequency. \( \Delta v \) is only dependent on velocity, and the Weber fraction \( \Delta v/v \) is relatively constant at around 5%. This could easily be interpreted as evidence for velocity tuned mechanisms underlying this task. However, this is not the case. Exactly the same pattern of thresholds can be produced by spatio-temporally separable mechanisms with constant Weber fractions of 5% for spatial frequency and temporal frequency, respectively.

Using a noise masking paradigm, Burr, Ross & Morrone (1986) also presented evidence for spatio-temporal coupling. However, they measured contrast thresholds for the detection of gratings superimposed with a counterphase flickering masking grating. The spatio-temporal filters reconstructed from these data show nonseparable profiles, but they are not elongated along lines of constant velocity. Rather, the filters have high sensitivity at high spatial and low temporal frequencies, and at low spatial and high temporal frequencies. The filters are therefore responsive over a broad range of velocities, whereas the mechanisms revealed by our experiments integrate over only a small range of velocities. The difference in results is certainly caused by the difference in paradigms. In the Burr, Ross & Morrone (1986) study, only the activity of the most sensitive detectors contributed.

6.3 Relationship to physiology

Spatially broadband stimuli, such as random dots or bars, are widely used in physiology to address the question of velocity tuning (see, for example, Orban, Kennedy & Maes, 1981). The drawback of these stimuli is, however, that they can not provide unequivocal evidence concerning the nature of the velocity sensitivity. With the use of broadband stimuli alone it is impossible to decide whether separable mechanisms for spatial and temporal frequency (see Figure 1A) or velocity tuned mechanisms (Figure 1B) are realized. For example, the Fourier representation of a random dot stimulus moving at a fixed velocity covers a line of constant velocity through the origin of the spatiotemporal frequency plane, whereas a drifting sinewave grat-
ing is represented by a single point on this line. The use of sinewave gratings allows the determination of threshold contours in this plane the shape of which indicates the underlying processing mechanisms (see Experiment 1). However, using spatially broadband random dot stimuli leads to velocity tuning in both cases, whether the underlying filters are velocity tuned or separable.

Figure 14A shows the hypothetical spatio-temporal frequency tuning profile of two hypothetical mechanisms, one of them separable (dotted contour) and the other one velocity tuned (continuous contour). The peak of both profiles is at a spatial frequency of 4 c/deg and a temporal frequency of 3.75 Hz (cross). The activation profiles of the tuning curves are given by a two-dimensional Gaussian distribution. Both extend equally in spatial and temporal frequency. Figure 14B shows the corresponding hypothetical velocity tuning functions obtained with random dot stimuli. The functions were normalized to the cell’s maximal response. The dotted line gives the cell’s tuning for the separable mechanism and the continuous line the response for the velocity tuned receptive field. The two tuning curves are nearly indistinguishable. The important point is that on the basis of these velocity tuning functions no information can be obtained, whether the underlying mechanisms are separable or tuned to velocity. This restriction can be overcome by the use of sinewave gratings which allow a direct test of the nature of these mechanisms.

There have been only few physiological experiments in which sinewave gratings were used to address the issue of velocity tuned versus separable mechanisms. Levitt, Kiper & Movshon (1994) and Foster, Gaska, Nagler & Pollen (1985) both showed that receptive fields for most single neurons in area V2 are spatio-temporally separable. It has long been hypothesized that neurons in area MT would show velocity tuning. The only data so far testing this idea critically have only been published in abstract form (Newsome, Gizzi & Movshon, 1983, Movshon, Newsome, Gizzi, & Levitt, 1988) and support the notion that the majority of MT neurons is spatiotemporally separable.

### 6.4 Stimulus contrast

The results of Experiment 3 showed that contrast has a profound influence on the discrimination performance of our subjects (see Figure 9B). Under conditions of low (6.25%) stimulus contrast subjects could not use the additional information about stimulus velocity to achieve lower discrimination thresholds as compared to stimuli that differ only in

![Figure 14](image-url)
spatial and temporal frequency from the standard grating. What is intriguing, however, is the fact that thresholds remained the same with respect to spatial frequency at both contrast levels. Only the velocity tuned mechanisms were affected by the reduction in contrast, and not the spatio-temporally separable mechanisms. This finding is at odds with our earlier speculations about the location where velocity information might be processed. MT neurons have high contrast sensitivity (Albright, 1984; Sclar, Maunsell & Lennie, 1990) and we would therefore expect that a reduction in stimulus contrast would produce little effect in our data. Therefore the current results point to the possibility that velocity is extracted at a stage of the motion pathway that is situated higher than MT. Other results on the contrast dependence of perceived velocity for contrasts of 50% and higher support this notion.

6.5 Color and motion

The results for isoluminant stimuli showed that the discrimination of test against standard stimuli depended in a separable manner on spatial and temporal frequency. This holds for the results of Experiment 1 where we determined threshold contours as well as for Experiment 3 where psychometric functions were obtained under conditions of best discriminability. In both experiments velocity components of the test stimuli could not be used by our subjects to enhance discrimination performance. This is in agreement with a large number of earlier psychophysical results showing that perception of velocity is impaired under conditions of isoluminance (Cavanagh, Tyler & Favreau, 1984; Mullen & Boultou, 1992; Teller & Lindsey, 1993; Hawken, Gegenfurtner & Tang, 1994; Gegenfurtner & Hawken, 1996a), even though directional sensitivity is excellent under those conditions (Stromeyer, Eskew & Kronauer, 1990; Cavanagh & Anstis 1991; Fiorentini, Burr & Morrone, 1991; Derrington & Henning, 1993; Metha, Vingrys & Badcock, 1994; Stromeyer, Kronauer, Ryu, Chaparro & Eskew, 1995; Gegenfurtner & Hawken, 1996b).

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