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The Representation of Location in Visual Images

by

Kyle R. Cave

B. A., Psychology and Social Relations Harvard College (1983)

Submitted to the Department of
Brain and Cognitive Sciences
in partial fulfillment of the requirements
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Abstract

Three experiments explored the encoding of location information in visual image representations. All of these experiments used a mental rotation task in which subjects decided whether stimuli were mirror-reversed, and the location of the test stimulus was always irrelevant to the correct response. Experiment 1 demonstrated that subjects were able to use visual image representations effectively without knowing where the stimulus would appear, raising the possibility that image representations might be coded independently of location. In Experiment 2, however, distance between the stimulus location and the image location was varied systematically, and response time increased with distance. Therefore image representations appear to be location-specific. The increase in response time with distance was small, however, and thus represented location must be adjusted quickly. In Experiment 3, a saccade was introduced between the image cue and the test stimulus, in order to test whether subjects responded more quickly when the test stimulus appeared at the same retinotopic location or same spatiotopic location as the cue. The results suggest that location is coded retinotopically in image representations. This finding has implications not only for visual imagery but also for visual processing in general, because it suggests that there is no spatiotopic transform in the early stages of visual processing.

Thesis Supervisor: Steven Pinker

Title: Associate Professor of Cognitive Science

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don't see how this department would run without her. Pat Claffey has always been as helpful and as friendly as humanly possible. Shari Berkenblit Zagorski and Karen Lewis were smarter, more energetic, and more organized than I ever expected research assistants to be. I think that they can both do just about anything they decide they want to do. All of the graduate students in cognition have been helpful and thought-provoking, and I hope that I am fortunate enough to be among such a talented crowd in the future. Mike Tarr and Jess Gropen have been especially close friends, as was David Plotkin. John Gabrieli has been a source of much good advice and many interesting insights. Shimon Ullman provided important advice as I was starting out, and I was very happy to be able to work with him. Michael Van Kleeck and Kris Kirby have answered many important questions for me, and have asked many other important questions themselves. A special thanks goes to the students and tutors of Leverett House for all they have done.

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The Representation of Location in Visual Images

No explanation of visual information processing will be complete without an account of visual imagery: The ability to recall visual and spatial information from memory and to mentally recombine, transform, compare, and evaluate this information. Subjects can perform a number of complex visual processing tasks in the absence of the relevant visual stimuli, and over a period of years an enormous number of experiments have been designed to elucidate the nature of the mental representations used in these tasks. (For reviews, see Kosslyn, 1980; Shepard & Cooper, 1982; Pinker, 1984; Finke & Shepard, 1986. For discussions of the sharp disagreements that persist over the basic properties of these representations, see Kosslyn, 1981; Pylyshyn, 1981; Pylyshyn, 1984).

A number of visual image experiments have demonstrated that certain spatial properties play an important role in the organization of image representations. It is because of their spatial organization that these representations are called "images," and the nature of their organization has been an important question in the study of mental representations. While other studies have investigated the importance of orientation and size in image representations, the experiments described here will be concerned with another spatial property, namely location, that has not yet been thoroughly explored. There are good theoretical reasons for expecting that image representations might be encoded independently of location, and other empirical reasons for concluding that location information is included in the representation. If we find that image representations are location-specific, then we can test whether location is encoded in a retinal reference frame or in some other coordinate system. If, instead, image representations are location-independent, then we can

ask why this particular spatial property is factored out of these representations and others are not.

Our experiments to explore location representation draw heavily on earlier experiments exploring the representation of orientation and size. These experiments were designed to measure how the processing of a stimulus changes when its orientation or size changes. The logic behind these experiments is that if the time to perform a particular shape discrimination task depends on the orientation or size of a stimulus, then the shape representations used in this discrimination task must vary in some important way when the orientation or size of the stimulus varies. In other words, the representation of shape must in some way be intertwined with the representation of orientation or size, so that shape cannot be represented independently of these spatial properties (Pinker, 1984).

Well-known examples of experiments measuring the importance of a spatial property come from studies of mental rotation by Shepard and his colleagues (Shepard & Metzler, 1981; Cooper & Shepard, 1983). In these experiments, subjects were asked to determine whether a visual stimulus matched another stimulus that was either presented simultaneously or remembered by the subject. On different trials, the stimuli appeared at different orientations, and over the course of the experiment the difference between the orientations of the two shapes to be compared was systematically varied. The time necessary for subjects to compare the shapes increased as the difference in their orientations increased. Thus, even though orientation was irrelevant to the shape matching task, it exerted a strong effect on the response time. The response time depends on the absolute difference between the two orientations. In general, the response time for a stimulus that has been rotated in one

direction will be about the same as the response time for a stimulus that has been rotated an equal amount in the other direction.

Other experiments have used similar methods to demonstrate that the time to compare two shapes can vary with the difference between their sizes as well as the difference between their orientations (Bundesen and Larsen, 1975; Bundesen, Larsen, and Farrell, 1981; Cave & Kosslyn, 1989; Kubovy and Podgorny, 1981; Larsen, 1985; Larsen and Bundesen, 1978; Sekuler and Nash, 1972). These size and orientation experiments do not always produce a strong relationship between the spatial properties and response time; response time varies with size or orientation difference only when certain shape discrimination tasks are used. Apparently the image representations, in which shape is encoded integrally with orientation or size, are only used for some shape discrimination tasks. Examining the nature of these tasks can help determine the sort of processing for which these representations are best suited.

For instance, the stimuli in Cooper & Shepard's experiment were familiar letters or numerals, and subjects had to judge whether or not they had been mirror-reversed. Any shape and its mirror-reversal will share the same set of basic visual features, and thus they cannot be discriminated simply on the presence or absence of one of those features. The mirror-reversal judgment forces subjects to detect subtle differences in the spatial arrangement of a shape's components. Not all of the experiments in which the response time varies with spatial properties require mirror-reversal judgments, but they all do require subjects to detect subtle differences between shapes that share the same general features.

Not only are the shape discriminations used in these tasks very subtle, but they are also discriminations that the subjects have not practiced. In Shepard & Metzler's experiment, subjects compared two different drawings of threedimensional shapes that were presented simultaneously. The subjects were not familiar with the shapes before the experiment, so they had no experience with the required discriminations. Cooper & Shepard used a different method in a later experiment. They presented only a single letter or digit on each trial. The orientation of these stimuli varied, and subjects presumably compared them against memory representations of those characters at their standard orientations. Even though subjects are very familiar with these shapes, they do not normally encounter them at nonstandard orientations, and they almost certainly never need to distinguish these misoriented shapes from their mirror reversals. Therefore, they do not have stored in memory the information necessary to readily identify these shapes at nonstandard orientations. Instead, subjects appear to perform the shape comparison by first deriving the necessary information from the information they have available. Either the memory information can be transformed to match the stimulus information, or the

From these studies it seems that subjects use image representations when they must find subtle shape or configurational differences that they do not normally need to detect. Obviously, the representations used in these tasks must be orientation-specific: Because of the wide response time differences with different orientations, the same shape at different orientations must be represented differently. Also, because the response time increases steadily with orientation differences, the represented orientation must be adjusted gradually, either continuously or in small discrete steps.

Cooper and Shepard provided additional evidence as to the nature of image representations in other conditions of their experiment. Although the regular condition showed that extra time was necessary to process stimuli at nonstandard orientations, subjects could save most of this extra time if they

knew the shape and the orientation of the upcoming stimulus before it appeared. They were able to use shape and orientation information together to prepare for the stimulus, and then respond quickly once it appeared. Apparently subjects prepared for an stimulus by creating an image representation of the stimulus at the cued location, because they could not prepare if they knew only the shape or only the orientation; in either of these cases, response times once again rose sharply with orientation difference. Response time also increased sharply with orientation difference if the stimulus appeared too soon after the cue giving the shape and orientation. Subjects required a certain amount of time to prepare for the stimulus. Most importantly, the time necessary to prepare generally increased with the orientation difference. In other words, the variation in the time necessary to prepare was similar to the variation in response time when the cue was not present.

Because a similar pattern appears in the response times without the cue and in the preparation times with the cue, a similar sort of transformation might be occurring in both cases. Without the cue, subjects might adjust the represented orientation of the stimulus until it matches the standard orientation, and then compare it to the memory representation. When subjects know shape and orientation in advance, they might adjust the representation of the shape in memory so that it matches the upcoming stimulus. Once the stimulus appears, they can quickly compare shapes without taking time for orientation adjustment. The fact that subjects cannot prepare effectively when they know only the shape or only the orientation suggests that orientation is represented integrally with shape. For the representations used in the mirror-reversal task, it is apparently not possible to represent a particular orientation without representing a specific shape at that orientation.

Knowing something about the nature of the image representations used in this task allows us to investigate the role they play in visual information processing. Let us first consider the broad course of visual processing, in order to see where these representations might fit. The input provided by the retina at the beginning of visual processing is organized spatially: Shape information is intertwined with information about spatial properties such as location, size, and orientation. The visual system must identify objects by comparing patterns within the input with patterns stored in memory. This categorization task is complicated by variations in spatial properties such as location, orientation, and size that are irrelevant to an object's identity. The final product of visual processing must be an abstract representation that can be used in higher-level reasoning and problem solving, and this abstract representation must include information about both the identity of the represented objects and their spatial properties. However, because the spatial properties will often be irrelevant in these higher-level processing tasks, information about these properties is probably factored apart and represented separately from identity information at this level.

If this characterization of visual processing is correct, and if the mirror-reversal task relies on a representation in which shape is represented integrally with orientation, then the comparisons between shapes in the mirror-reversal task must be done within the spatially-organized representation at the precategorical level, before objects have been identified and coded abstractly, and before spatial properties have been factored out. Within the spatially-organized representation, it is impossible to represent a shape without representing it at a particular orientation, just as it is impossible to draw a picture of a shape without drawing it a a particular orientation. Likewise, at this level it is impossible to represent an orientation abstractly without having an associated shape. Thus

subjects are unable to prepare an adequate representation when they know only the shape or the orientation beforehand.

Of course, this characterization of visual processing is too simple in many respects. There are undoubtedly a number of stages between the spatiallyorganized representation from the retina and the abstract representation used by nonvisual cognitive systems. Therefore we can ask more detailed questions about the level of representations used in the mirror-reversal and other imagery tasks. For instance, if there are many different processing levels, then variations in location might be controlled at an earlier level of processing than variations in orientation. Thus there could be some level of representation that is locationindependent but orientation-specific. This type of representation might be useful, because the location at which an object appears has little impact on recognition (barring differences in surroundings and acuity). The same is not true for orientation, however, because some objects can be very difficult to recognize when they are upside-down (Rock, 1983). Luckily, this is rarely a problem in everyday visual processing. As we move or as objects in the environment move, the locations of the objects relative to our location can vary over a wide range, and we have to be able to recognize them no matter where they appear. However, as we move we generally maintain a constant orientation relative to the environment, and most of the other moving objects we encounter do the same. Therefore we generally view objects at a standard orientation, and rarely find it necessary to recognize them at other orientations.

Because visual objects are likely to occur at almost any location, the visual system may factor out location differences early in processing, either by normalizing all representations to a standard representation of location, or by transforming the input in a way that removes location information entirely. However, the visual system will often not need to adjust an object's orientation

before identifying it. Thus the system that corrects for orientation differences may may not act until a later stage of processing, and it probably does not work as thoroughly or completely as the system that corrects for location differences. Therefore, even though the representations used in mental rotation are orientation-specific, they may not be location-specific.

This possibility raises a more general issue about mental representations in imagery. Mental rotation experiments suggest that shape and orientation information are not factored apart in these representations. However, from the orientation experiments alone we cannot assume that *every* spatial property is integrated with shape information in image representations. In other words, these experiments by themselves do not imply that these representations are "analog" or "depictive" in every sense (Kosslyn, 1980). Visual information can be transformed in numerous ways so that shape and orientation information are still coupled but other spatial properties are changed or eliminated. To completely determine the nature of these representations, we must specifically determine how each type of spatial property is encoded in them, and whether or not it is factored apart from the representation of shape.

One potential example of the elimination of a spatial property involves the coding of size or scale. Size is a spatial property that is analogous to location in that a particular visual object can appear at many different sizes, depending on its distance from the viewer. The visual system must be able to identify the object regardless of these wide variations in size, and therefore size information may be factored out and separated from shape information at an early stage. If size is factored out of shape representations at an early stage, then response times for shape discrimination tasks should not depend on the size of the stimuli. However, the numerous size experiments cited previously have tested this notion using a methodology similar to that used by Cooper & Shepard. For

certain shape discrimination tasks these experiments show a pattern of increasing response time with increasing size adjustment that is very similar to the pattern of orientation adjustment in Cooper & Shepard's experiment. Therefore these experiments suggest that size is treated similarly to orientation in image representations.

Given that orientation and size appear to be represented integrally with shape in visual image representations, it might seem reasonable to conclude that all spatial properties are represented integrally with shape in these representations. However, neuroanatomical and neurophysiological studies indicate that one region of visual cortex is dedicated to processing location and a separate region is dedicated to processing shape (Ungerleider & Mishkin 1982). If location is processed in a separate brain region from shape, then its representation is probably separate from the representation of shape. Because the representations used in mental rotation must include shape information, they might reside in the region that specializes in shape, and thus location information is likely to be factored out of them.

However, other evidence from imagery experiments suggests that location is important in image representations, and thus is probably not factored out. Farah (1985) asked subjects to image a large shape while performing a visual detection task. She found that subjects were better at detecting a stimulus if it appeared within the region covered by the imaged shape. If the location of an image affects the perception of a stimulus, then location must be part of the image representation. However, Farah's task is very different from the mental rotation task. She instructs her subjects to use imagery, and the shape they are imaging covers a large area. In following these instructions, her subjects might also be focusing visual attention on the area covered by the shape, thus enhancing their responses to stimuli that fall within this area. Farah and others

(Cave & Kosslyn, 1989) would argue that there is a crucial link between imagery and attention, and that the presence of attentional effects suggests that imagery is involved. Nevertheless, for the question of location specificity we need a demonstration that cannot be explained by attention.

Further evidence for the use of location in image representations comes from experiments demonstrating that the time to scan from one location to another increases with the distance scanned (Kosslyn, 1973; Kosslyn, Ball, & Reiser, 1978). If at any given time a subject is "examining" a particular location in an image, then it seems that location must be specifically encoded in an image representation. Perhaps instead, though, images are coded in a location-independent representation, and when subjects are instructed to focus on one end of an imaged object and then scan to the other end, they are successively loading information from different locations into the image representation, starting at one end and ending at the other. The increase in response time with longer distances would reflect the time necessary to load and unload more information to and from the image representation, and not the time to adjust location within the representation.

There is also a possibility that these different imagery tasks rely on different mental representations. One way in which the mental rotation task differs from Farah's experiment and the scanning experiments is that subjects in mental rotation experiments are not explicitly instructed to generate images. They devise their strategy spontaneously, without instructions or encouragement from the experimenter. Consciously generating an image of a scene might rely on different representations than spatial transformations required for normal visual recognition.

Other experiments have demonstrated that the time necessary for image scanning depends on the distance scanned, even if subjects are not specifically

instructed to use images (Finke & Pinker, 1982; Finke & Pinker, 1983; Pinker, Choate, & Finke, 1984). In these experiments, subjects remembered a configuration of dots, and then judged whether the line extended from an arrow would intersect any of the dots. This task was designed to require the use of mental images, but it also specifically required the use of location information, because the location of each dot was crucial in determining the correct response. Thus, even if subjects had available a representation in which shape was coded independently of location, they would not have been able to use it in this task. One possibility is that in visual images, the representation of each visual object includes information about the relative locations of its different parts, but that the location of the object as a whole is not represented. In this case, Finke & Pinker's subjects might represent the entire dot pattern as a single object, so that the location of each dot would be preserved.

We need an experiment that tests whether location-independent image representations exist but that does not have the problems associated with these earlier experiments. Such an experiment must use a task in which subjects are not instructed to use images, and in which the location of a stimulus is not relevant to the response. For these reasons, Experiment 1 was designed to explore the importance of location information using a modification of Cooper & Shepard's basic mental rotation paradigm.

Experiment 1

Cooper & Shepard concluded that subjects can only generate the necessary mental representation to compare with the stimulus if they know all the necessary properties of the stimulus. The logic behind Experiment 1 relies on that conclusion. In Cooper & Shepard's experiments, the stimulus always

appeared in the center of the display, so subjects always knew its location before it appeared. If location is coded in these representations in the same manner as orientation, then withholding location information should make it impossible for them to construct the representation beforehand. Without the representation, subjects will not be able to respond quickly to misoriented stimuli, even if they know the orientation and shape.

Method

Subjects. 17 subjects from the M. I. T. Department of Brain and Cognitive Sciences subject pool were tested and were paid for their services. Most were M. I. T. undergraduates, and their vision was normal or corrected to normal. One subject was rejected after being tested for reasons described later.

Apparatus. The experiment was controlled by an IBM PC/XT computer. Stimuli were displayed using EGA graphics on an NEC Multisync monitor. Subjects' responses were recorded with two microswitches, one for each hand, and a foot pedal.

Stimuli. Each test stimulus consisted of a single character, either the letter J, the letter R, or the numeral 4. These characters were chosen because they are distinct from their mirror-images, they are fairly complex, and they have few curved parts and thus are easily generated on the computer display. The stimuli were made with straight line segments, and gave the appearance of a bold, sans serif type. The stimuli appeared in eight different rotations and in both normal and mirror-reversed form. Each character was about 1.4 cm (1.6° of visual angle) in height. Figure 1 displays the characters used.

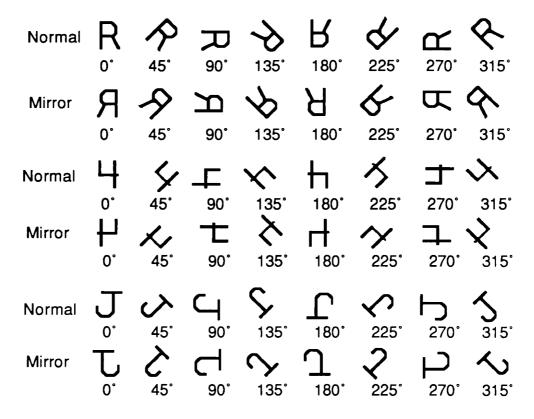


Figure 1: Stimuli, both normal and mirror-reversed, for all the orientations used in Experiment 1.

Each test stimulus was preceded by a cue appearing at the center of the screen. The cue was one of two types, as depicted in Figure 2. One type consisted of one of the three characters at one of the eight possible orientations. This type of cue informed the subject of both the shape and the orientation of the upcoming test stimulus. (Cooper & Shepard presented shape and orientation separately, to demonstrate that subjects could combine the two types of information. For the purposes of this experiment, it is not necessary to demonstrate that combination again. Therefore, we made the task easier for the subjects by presenting shape and orientation combined.) These cues were never mirror-reversed, and gave the subject no information about whether or not the test stimulus would be mirror-reversed. The second type of cue consisted of an arrow at one of the eight orientations. It revealed the orientation of the

upcoming stimulus, but not its shape. The information provided by either type of cue was always correct: The orientation and shape never deviated from the values cued.

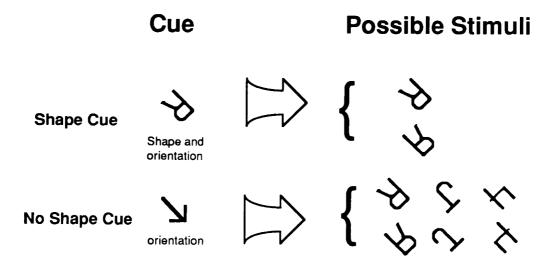


Figure 2: Examples of the two types of cue used in Experiment 1, along with the possible stimuli that could appear after them.

Procedure. The subject was seated in front of the CRT in a dimly lit room.

A chin rest was used to maintain a constant viewing distance of about 50 cm.

The subject was instructed to keep one hand on each of the response keys.

Each trial began with the presentation of a cue at the center of the screen. The subject was asked to study the cue and to press the foot pedal when ready to proceed. When the subject pressed the pedal, the cue immediately disappeared and the test stimulus appeared at one of four locations, as shown in Figure 3. Each of the four locations was 5.6 cm (6.4°) from the center of the screen. The test stimulus was one of the three characters, either normal or mirror reversed, at one of the eight possible orientations. The computer synchronized the onset of the test stimulus with the beginning of a video cycle, waited 120 msec, and removed it at the beginning of the next video cycle. This display time was too short to allow eye movements to the stimulus before it disappeared. The

stimulus was a black figure on a white background, and when it disappeared the display was completely white, so that no residual image of the stimulus would persist on the display after it had been removed.

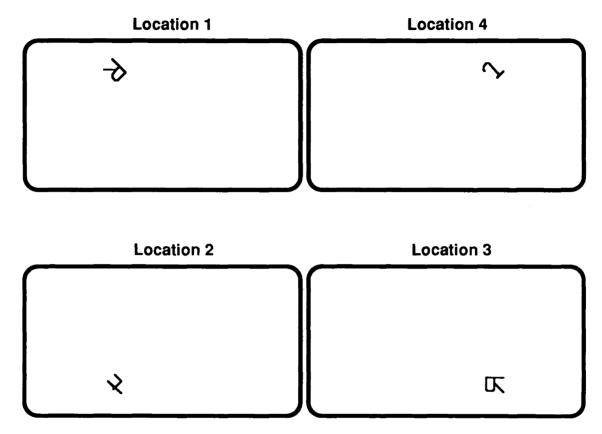


Figure 3: Examples of test stimuli at the four locations at which they could appear in Experiment 1.

The subject's task was to press the key under the dominant hand if the test stimulus was normal, and to press the other key if it was mirror-reversed. If the subject gave an incorrect response, the screen briefly flashed red and a buzzer sounded. The computer made a record of the error trials, and repeated each of them once at the end of the session.

Each possible combination of the two cue conditions, three shapes, eight orientations, four locations, and two response conditions (normal and mirror-reversed) was used, giving a total of 384 different types of trial. There were four

instances of each type for each subject, not including those that were repeated because of errors. For each subject, the 1536 trials were arranged in a different random order, with all the different trial types intermixed. Each subject required three different testing sessions to complete all the trials, with each session lasting between 40 and 60 minutes.

Results

During the testing of one of the subjects, the experimenter noticed that the subject was often pressing the foot pedal immediately after the cue appeared. When questioned, the subject claimed that she was not using the cues at all. We thus decided to omit her data from the analyses, leaving a total of 16 subjects.

Response times. The response time data were submitted to an analysis of variance (ANOVA) with cue type (shape or no-shape), orientation, handedness (normal or mirror-reversed), location, and shape (R, J, or 4) as factors. Subjects made incorrect responses on 4% of the trials (including those repeated because of earlier errors), and all of these trials were excluded from the analysis. The response times from both cue conditions are presented in Figure 4 as a function of orientation. In general, subjects responded much more quickly when the shape was cued, F(1,15) = 31.8, p < .001. If subjects are able to prepare images only when they know the shape beforehand, then moving the orientation further from upright should not increase response times in the shape cue condition in the way that it does in the no-shape cue condition. A contrast revealed that the linear increase with orientation difference was indeed much stronger in the no-shape cue condition than in the shape cue condition, F(1,105) = 135.9, p < .001. The difference between the two conditions is clear in Figure 4, and is very similar to that found by Cooper & Shepard. Thus subjects appear to be able to generate

and use images in this task, even without knowing the correct location in advance.

Because subjects were apparently able to prepare an image in the shape cue condition and not in the the no-shape cue condition, we used two other ANOVAs to examine the results of the two conditions separately. Not surprisingly, a contrast in the no-shape cue analysis established a strong linear increase in response time with the deviation of the orientation from upright , F(1,105) = 285.9, p < .001. Responses were slower when the stimulus was mirror-reversed, F(1,15) = 22.3, p < .001, probably in part because these responses were made with the nondominant hand. The shape R elicited particularly fast responses, F(2,30) = 6.0, p < .01. There were no apparent overall differences among responses to the stimuli at the four different locations, F < 1.

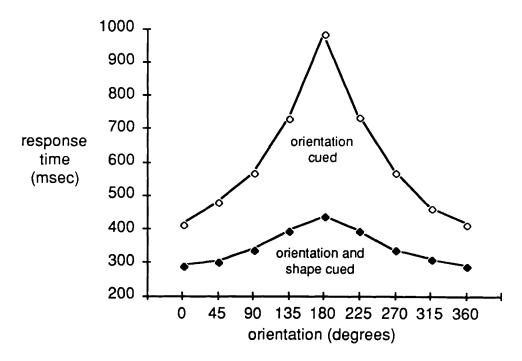


Figure 4: Response times from the shape cue and no-shape cue conditions of Experiment 1.

The no-shape cue condition also produced an unexpected but interesting result. In this condition, the cue was always an arrow at the center of the screen. Because the four possible stimulus locations surrounded the location of the the arrow, whenever the arrow was at one of the four diagonal orientations it pointed directly at one of the four possible locations. Subjects were told that this arrow represented the orientation of the upcoming stimulus, and the arrow gave no useful information about the stimulus location. Nevertheless, subjects responded more quickly when the stimulus appeared at the location pointed to by the arrow, F(21,315) = 2.5, p < .001. For instance, when the arrow was at 45°, it pointed toward location 4. Once the main effect of orientation is removed from the data, response times for stimuli at location 4 tend to be faster when the orientation is near 45°, and then to be slower when the orientation is 180° away, at 225°. This pattern can clearly be seen in Figure 5. In this figure, the main effect of orientation has been removed, and the data for each of the four locations have been shifted so that in each case the mean for those trials in which the arrow was pointing directly at that location is at the center of the graph, and the mean for those trials in which the arrow was pointing directly away from that location is at either edge of the graph. For each of the four locations, the response times are generally lower at the center point, and higher at the edges, illustrating that the response time increases as the arrow points farther away from the stimulus location. Perhaps the large arrow is suggestive enough that subjects allocate visual attention according to its direction. A second unexpected result from the no-shape cue ANOVA was that responses to the shape J were generally slower for orientations near 180°, F(14.210,) = 3.0, p < .001.

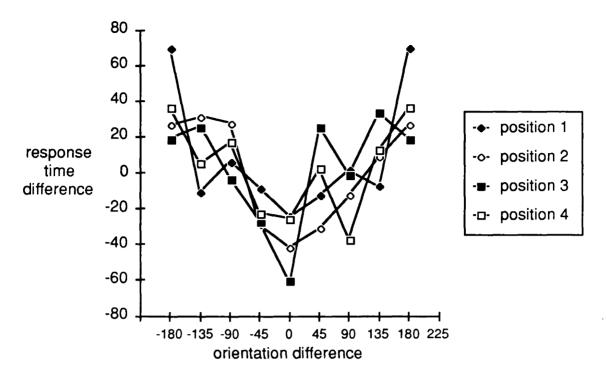


Figure 5: Response times organized by difference between cued orientation and orientation of stimulus location in relation to fixation.

Main effect of orientation has been removed.

The overall analysis showed that the linear increase in response time with orientation difference was much smaller when the shape was cued than when it was not. Nevertheless, a contrast in the shape cue ANOVA showed that the increase was still significant, F(1,105) = 113.8, p < .001. This rise is apparent at the bottom of Figure 4. As with the no-shape cues, responses were slower to mirror-reversed stimuli, F(1,15) = 59.3, p < .001.

The shape cue analysis also produced a handful of unexpected results. Responses to mirror-reversed stimuli were especially long for orientations near 180° , F(7,105) = 3.0, p < .01. The shape 4 seemed to elicit slower responses, F(2,30) = 11.0, p < .001, at least when the stimulus was mirror-reversed, and the shape R apparently produced faster responses among the normal stimuli, F(2,30) = 15.8, p < .001. The shape cue condition did not show the relationship between cued

orientation and location found in the no-shape cue condition, F < 1, presumably because the shape cue was always a letter or digit, and not an arrow. However, the advantage for normal over mirror-reversed stimuli tended to increase when either end of the stimulus shape axis pointed toward the fixation cross, especially if the stimulus appeared in one of the two locations above the fixation cross, F(21,315) = 3.2, p < .001. There were no other significant interactions in either the shape cue or the no-shape cue analysis (p > .05 in all cases).

The overall analysis reiterated that subjects responded relatively quickly to the shape R when they did not know the shape in advance, and responded relatively slowly to the shape 4 when they did know the shape, F(2,30) = 3.8, p < .05. As mentioned before, responses to the shape J were particularly slow for orientations near 180° when the shape was not known, F(14.210) = 2.9, p < .001. The advantage that comes when the cue is oriented towards the stimulus occurred only when the cue was an arrow, and not when it was a letter or digit, F(21,315) = 1.9, p < .01. There were no other significant effects in the overall analysis that did not also appear in one of the two smaller analyses (p > .05 in all cases).

An examination of the data from the one rejected subject revealed that she generally responded faster after shape cues than after no-shape cues. However, with both types of cue her response times increased substantially with orientation, suggesting that she was not using the shape cue to form an image, and was therefore forced to rotate every stimulus. This pattern is consistent with her description of her strategy.

Testing for hemispheric differences. Farah (1986) demonstrated an advantage for the left hemisphere over the right at using an image in a visual discrimination task. Because the stimuli in Experiment 1 were presented on either side of the visual field and were presented too quickly for a saccade, we can

perform contrasts to test for a left-hemisphere advantage in this mental rotation task. In the shape cue analysis, response times were significantly faster for the two right-hemifield (left-hemisphere) locations, F(1,45) = 4.9, p < .05. There was no hint of an advantage with the no-shape cues, F < 1, just as would be expected if the advantage were due entirely to imagery. However, in the overall analysis, the advantage for the right-hemifield locations was not significantly larger with the shape cues than with the no-shape cues, F(1,45) = 1.6, p > .2. Thus, altogether these results suggest that the left hemisphere enjoys an advantage for this mental rotation task, but the evidence that this advantage is entirely due to imagery is not particularly strong.

Note that Farah (1984, 1986) claims that the left hemisphere should be better at *generating* visual images. In this task, the shape cue consists of the correct shape at the correct orientation. If subjects can retain an image of the cue and adjust its location after the stimulus appears, then they do not need to generate an image from memory. The same is true for Farah's (1986) experiment in which she originally demonstrated the left-hemisphere advantage. More work is necessary to determine whether the left hemisphere enjoys an advantage for generating images, adjusting their location, or both.

Error rates. To test whether any of the critical results described above could be attributed to speed/accuracy trade-offs, we analyzed the error rates from Experiment 1. Data from both the shape cue and no-shape cue conditions were submitted to an ANOVA using the same factors as in the combined analysis of response times. Everything found in the error rates was consistent with the response time data. Subjects made more errors as the orientation difference increased, F(1,105) = 103.4, p < .001, especially with no-shape cues, F(1,105) = 39.6, p < .001. Subjects made fewer errors when the shape was cued beforehand, F(1,15) = 27.8, p < .001. They made fewer errors with the letter R, and more with

the numeral 4, F(2,30) = 6.5, p < .01. As with the response times, the normal stimuli enjoyed an advantage over the mirror-reversed stimuli when either end of the stimulus shape axis pointed toward the fixation cross, F(21,315) = 2.1, p < .005. No other main effects or interactions were significant in the error rate analysis (p > .05 in all cases). Because all of these effects correspond to effects in the response time data, there is no evidence of any speed/accuracy trade-off.

Discussion

The results from this experiment are strikingly similar to those from Cooper & Shepard's experiment. Note also that the peaks of the response time distributions in this experiment are also about the same as Cooper & Shepard's: In both experiments, response times for 180° stimuli are just over 400 msec when both shape and orientation are known, and about 1000 msec when only orientation is known. The similarity between the results from Experiment 1, in which subjects do not know the location of the stimulus in advance, and those from Cooper & Shepard's experiment, in which subjects do know the location, leads to the conclusion that knowing the location of a stimulus makes at most a small difference in using an image to make a mirror-reversal judgment. Perhaps the fact that location is not more important in these representations should not be surprising, because this property makes these representations much more useful in a world in which objects can often appear at any location in the visual field.

The large difference in the effect of orientation between the shape cue and no-shape cue conditions makes it clear that the stimuli are processed very differently in the two conditions. Nevertheless, the increase in response time with orientation difference in the shape cue condition is also significant, even

though it is much smaller than in the no-shape cue condition. Subjects are likely to be occasionally rotating stimuli in this condition even when they know the shape, either because they have forgotten the cue or because they want to perform an additional test to be sure of their response. If the stimulus is mirror-reversed, it will not match the image representation that the subject has prepared beforehand. We might expect that subjects would be more likely to perform an extra test in this case, and the data are in accordance with this suggestion.

In this experiment, we used only half the number of shapes that Cooper & Shepard used in their experiment. Because our results are so similar to theirs, it appears that this variation had little effect on the general outcome of the experiment. Obviously, if only a single shape were used, subjects would always know the shape before the stimulus appeared, and once the orientation was cued they would generally be able to prepare an image in advance. Using three different shapes, however, appears to be adequate for demonstrating mental rotation.

Experiment 1 demonstrates that location differences can be handled quickly and easily in mental rotation, but it does not give a definitive answer to the question of location-specificity in the mental representations that are used in this task. Location differences could be handled in two different ways. In the shape cue condition, the stimulus might be normalized or otherwise recoded into a location-independent form, and then compared against a location-independent image representation. On the other hand, when the mental image is prepared before the stimulus appears, it might be represented at a particular location, probably corresponding to the center of the display. Once the stimulus appears, the location of the image could then be adjusted so that it matches the stimulus location, and it could then be compared with the stimulus. Because each of the four stimulus locations in Experiment 1 is the same distance from the

center, the time necessary to move the image to each location would be the same. We cannot compare our results and those of Cooper & Shepard with enough precision to measure whether our subjects required extra time to adjust the represented location. However, the similarity between the two sets of results suggests that if location adjustment is necessary, it must be done very quickly.

Experiment 2

Experiment 2 is designed to determine whether the representations used in mental rotation are in fact location-independent. Testing for location effects is somewhat more complicated than testing for orientation effects. Measuring orientation adjustment is relatively easy because the shapes have a standard orientation associated with them. Whenever a stimulus appears at a nonstandard orientation, an adjustment will be necessary, unless the subject knows the shape and the orientation long enough in advance to prepare an image representation for comparison. However, objects do not have standard locations associated with them, and thus many of the types of circumstances that require orientation adjustment may not require location adjustment. To measure location adjustment, therefore, we must induce subjects to create the appropriate image by telling them the shape and orientation of the upcoming stimulus, and by leading them to believe that it will appear at a particular location. Then we can measure the "movement" of the image to another location.

There are other complications in measuring location adjustment. In order to maximize the possible distance between cue and test stimulus, these shapes will be positioned at the far sides of the display. Thus, they will be subject to less thorough processing because of the decrease of acuity with retinal eccentricity.

As in Experiment 1, all stimuli will appear the same distance from the fixation cross so that there are no substantial acuity differences. Additionally, by presenting stimuli at different locations, we run the risk of introducing eye movements, which would add to the response times and obscure the important effects. Eye movements were not a problem in Experiment 1, because the cue always appeared at the center of the screen. The subjects did not know where the stimulus would appear, and it disappeared too quickly for them to make a saccade. In this experiment, subjects must know in advance where the stimulus is likely to appear; therefore we must prevent them from saccading to that location.

Cooper and Shepard showed that the amount of time necessary to adjust orientation varied with the amount of adjustment necessary. The current experiment will test for a similar pattern in location adjustments by varying the amount of adjustment necessary from trial to trial. Looking for processing differences at different locations will be complicated by the allocation of visual attention. Attention experiments have shown that subjects respond more quickly to stimuli that appear at an expected location (Posner, Nissen, & Ogden, 1978; Posner, Snyder, & Davidson, 1980), and that, at least in come circumstances, response time tends to increase with larger distances between the expected location and the actual location (Downing & Pinker, 1985; Rizzolatti, Riggio, Dascola, & Umiltá, 1987). To ensure that any distance effect is due to the adjustment of image representations and not to general attentional factors, we must compare response times with and without image representations. Because subjects cannot create an image without knowing the shape, Experiment 2 will have two different conditions, with the same sort of shape cues and no-shape cues used in Experiment 1. For clarity, the condition with shape cues will now be referred to as the image condition, and the condition with no-shape cues will be called the no-image condition.

Method

Subjects. This experiment required subjects to fixate at one location on the display while attending to a stimulus at a distant location. Additionally, because a pupil tracker was monitoring eye position, subjects were required to keep their eyes open from the beginning to the end of each trial. When they began the first session, most subjects were not able to successfully complete many trials. Most of them, however, improved with practice, and a total of 15 successfully completed the entire experiment. A similar number of subjects began the experiment but quit after a significant amount of practice, either on their own or at the suggestion of the experimenter. All subjects were from the M. I. T. Department of Brain and Cognitive Sciences subject pool, and all were paid for their time, whether or not they completed the experiment. Most were M. I. T. undergraduates, and their vision was normal or corrected to normal. These subjects did not participate in the previous experiment.

Apparatus. The computer, video display, and response keys used in this experiment were the same types used in Experiment 1. An ISCAN model RK-416 pupil tracker was used to monitor eye movements. The eye tracker received an image of the subject's left eye from an RCA TC2000 video camera with a close-focus lens and an infrared filter. A table light fitted with an infrared filter illuminated the subject's eye, and a chin rest and forehead restraint held the subject's head in place.

The pupil tracker received a video image of the subject's left eye from the camera 60 times each second. In each video image, the pupil tracker used an

algorithm implemented in hardware to locate the pupil by identifying a large dark region. It then calculated the center of this region, and transmitted the horizontal and vertical coordinates of the center's location within the video image to the computer. When the subject steadily fixated on a single location, there was a small amount of variation in the coordinates from the pupil tracker, due mainly to small changes in the video image from cycle to cycle. The program controlling the experiment recorded the eye position once at the beginning of each trial, and then monitored the eye position continuously until the subject responded. If the distance between the original recorded position and the current eye position ever exceeded a threshold, the trial was aborted. Before subjects were tested, we determined the lowest level at which we could set the threshold without producing an inordinate number of false alarms. The threshold value we used generally allowed for the detection of eye movements of 2.5° of visual angle or greater.

Stimuli. As in Experiment 1, each stimulus consisted of a single character, either the letter J, the letter R, or the numeral 4. As before, the characters could be normal or mirror-reversed. This experiment required that a number of different factors be varied and thus required a large number of different types of trials. Therefore, only four orientations were used, 45°, 135°, 225°, and 315°.

As in Experiment 1, each test stimulus was preceded by either a shape cue or a no-shape cue. Each shape cue consisted of a character at a particular orientation. In this experiment, we did not use a large arrow as the no-shape cue as we did in Experiment 1, so that subjects would be less likely to shift attention in the direction of the arrow, as they seemed to do in that experiment. Instead, each no-shape cue was a rectangle the same size as the characters, with a small arrow indicating its top, as shown in Figure 6. As with the shape cue, the

orientation of the box corresponded to the orientation of the upcoming test stimulus.



Figure 6: The no-shape cue used in Experiment 2.

For the duration of each trial, a small fixation cross occupied the center of the screen. Each of the cue and test stimuli was positioned on an imaginary circle that was centered on the fixation cross, so that they were all 5.6 cm (6.4°) from the fixation cross. The cue could appear at one of two locations, either to the far left or the far right of the display. (We used only two different cue locations because of the large number of different types of trials necessary for this experiment.) The cue was not vertically aligned with the fixation cross; instead, its vertical location was slightly higher, as shown at the top of Figure 7. (A line connecting the cue and the fixation cross would intersect a horizontal line with an angle of 12°.) This displacement was to ensure that test stimuli appearing at the cued location would not receive any benefit or cost that might come from being aligned with the fixation cross. The test stimulus could occur at the same location as the cue, or at one of the locations 20°, 95°, or 160° around the imaginary circle in either direction from the cued location, yielding distances of 1.9 cm, 8.3 cm, and 11.0 cm between cue and test stimulus.

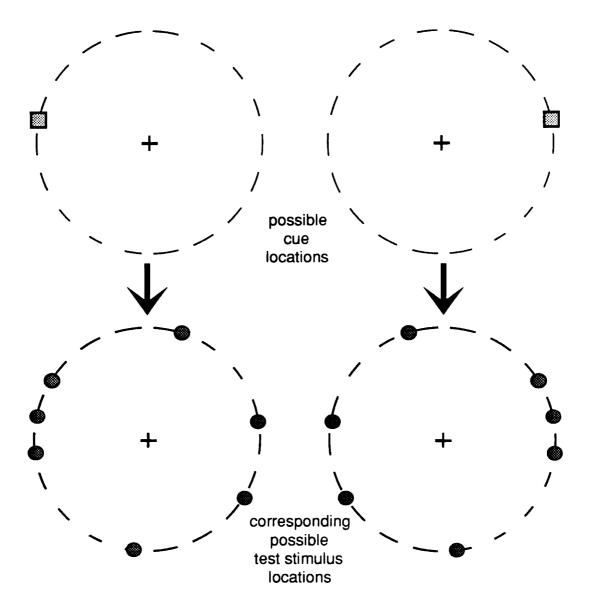


Figure 7: The top two figures illustrate the two possible cue locations relative to the fixation cross. The bottom two figures illustrate the seven possible test stimulus locations that correspond to each of the cue locations.

Procedure. As in Experiment 1, the subject was seated in front of the CRT in a dimly lit room. The subject was instructed to keep one hand on each of the response keys.

Each trial began with the presentation of the small fixation cross at the center of the display. The cross remained on the screen until the end of the trial, and subjects were instructed to keep their eyes fixed on it until then. The eye position was recorded 1500 msec after the fixation cross appeared, and it was monitored for the rest of the trial. If the computer detected a substantial eye movement at any time during the trial, a buzzer sounded, the screen flashed red, and the trial was aborted.

The cue appeared just after the eye position was recorded. Because subjects did not know where the cue would appear until after the eye monitoring began, they could not begin the trial with their eyes fixed on the cue. The cue remained on the screen for 700 msec, and then disappeared. In the image condition, the cue provided information about the shape, orientation, and location of the test stimulus that would appear soon afterwards; in the no-image condition, the cue provided information about only the orientation and location. The shape information (when it was available) and the orientation information were always accurate. The location information, however, was only accurate on half the trials. In the other half of the trials, the location was evenly distributed over the other six possible locations. Because of the disproportionately large number of stimuli at the cued location, subject were better off to position images at the cued location than at any other location. The instructions stated that the cue would often occur at the same location as the test stimulus, but there was no mention of imagery or image position.

The test stimulus appeared 1500 msec after the cue disappeared. As in Experiment 1, the computer waited for the beginning of a video cycle, presented the test stimulus, waited for an interval of 120 msec, and then removed it at the beginning of the next video cycle. As before, subjects pressed the key under the dominant hand if the test stimulus was normal, and the other key if it was

mirror-reversed. If the subject pressed the wrong key, the screen flashed blue and a buzzer sounded (using a different tone than that used to indicate an eye movement). Error and eye movement trials were saved and were repeated at the end of each block of 128 trials, and this process continued until all trials in that block had been completed correctly. After every 32 trials, the computer stopped presenting trials and the subject was allowed to take a break.

With two cue types, three shapes, four orientations, two responses (normal and mirror-reversed), there were a total of 48 trial types for each location. For each cue location, six stimuli occurred at the same location as the cue, and one appeared at each of the six possible uncued locations. Because there were two different cue locations, there were a total of 1152 trials for each subject, not including those that were repeated because of errors. A new random order was generated for each subject, with all the different trial types intermixed. Each of these subjects generally required about four testing sessions, each lasting for an hour or less.

Results

Response times. The response time data were submitted to an ANOVA with cue type, orientation, handedness (normal or mirror-reversed), shape (R, J, or 4), distance, cue hemifield (left or right), and placement around the circle (clockwise or counterclockwise, which was irrelevant for stimuli at the cued location) as factors. Subjects made incorrect responses on 2% of the trials. As described above, incorrect trials were repeated at the end of the block, and only response times from correct trials were included in the analysis.

The main purpose of Experiment 2 was to measure the effects of distance on the use of images. A contrast revealed that response times generally

increased with the distance between cue and test stimulus, F(1,42) = 96.6, p < .001. More importantly, a second contrast showed that this increase was greater in the image (shape cue) condition than in the no-image (no-shape cue) condition, F(1,42) = 12.3, p < .005. Figure 8 shows the data from these two conditions, along with the best-fitting regression line for each. In the no-image condition, the increase with distance probably reflects the attentional effects described earlier. The slope in the image condition is almost twice as large, suggesting that subjects are moving the image from the cued location to the stimulus location.

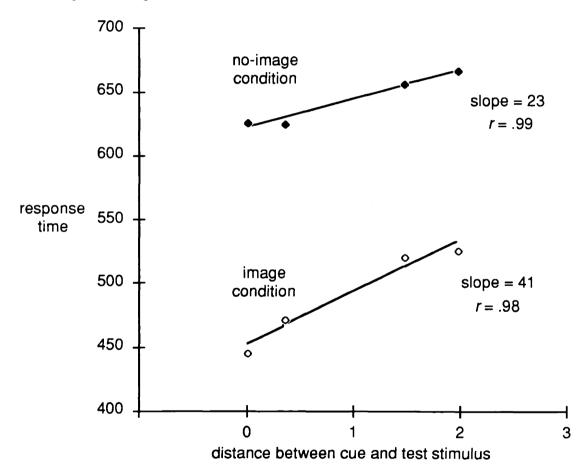


Figure 8: Response time as a function of distance between cue and test stimulus for both image and no-image conditions. The unit of distance is the radius of the imaginary circle on which the test stimuli fell. The r values give the correlation between mean response time and distance for each of the two conditions.

As in Experiment 1, subjects responded more quickly when they knew the shape of the stimulus beforehand, F(1,14) = 129.0, p < .001. As expected, contrasts showed that responses were faster for the two orientations near 0° than for the two near 180°, F(1,42) = 160.8, p < .001, and that the advantage for the easier orientations was greater when the shape was unknown, F(1,42) = 54.2, p < .001. These results indicate that subjects were using the shape information to make images, and that these images helped them with the more difficult orientations, just as in Experiment 1.

If subjects always move an image to the stimulus location, wherever it might be, then once the image is in place, subjects should be able to respond quickly to any orientation, regardless of the distance the image has moved. When we tested this claim, however, we found an interesting result. For each distance in both the image and no-image conditions, we calculated the response time difference between the two easy orientations and the two orientations. The results are shown in Figure 9. A contrast confirms what is clear in the figure: There is a linear increase in the orientation difference that is limited to the image condition, F(1,126) = 4.3, p < .05. This pattern is not necessarily inconsistent with the claim that subjects move images to the stimulus location. The presence of a small but significant orientation effect in the shape cue condition of Experiment 1 indicates that even when subjects have enough information to create an image in advance, they sometimes decide to rotate the stimulus. Perhaps they occasionally lose the image before they can compare it against the stimulus. The longer the distance from the cue to the stimulus, the farther the image must be moved before it can be compared with the stimulus. Thus with longer distances, the image must be maintained longer is is more likely to be lost. Additionally, the longer distance means that the subject must work harder to use the image, and it is therefore more attractive to abandon the

image and rotate the stimulus instead. Therefore, subjects are likely to rotate the stimulus more often with longer distances, and when the response times are averaged there will be a larger orientation effect with longer distances.

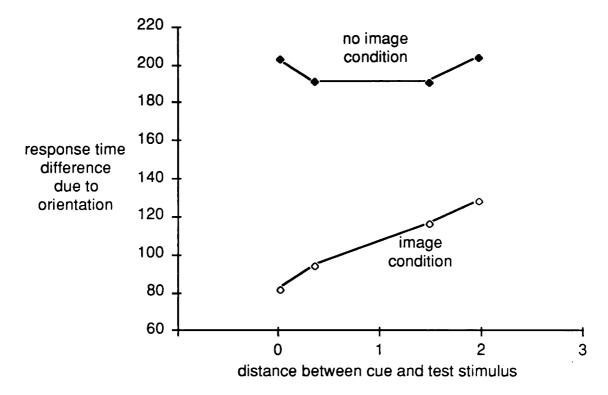


Figure 9: The difference between the mean response times for the two difficult orientations (near 180°) and the two easy orientations (near 0°).

Once again, subjects responded more slowly to mirror-reversed stimuli, F(1,14) = 29.3, p < .001. Responses were faster for the shape R and slower for the shape 4, F(2,28) = 16.3, p < .001, much as they were before. Neither cue hemifield nor placement direction (clockwise or counterclockwise) exerted a measurable influence on response time, F < 1 in both cases.

The analysis produced a number of additional results that are not directly relevant to location adjustment in image representations, but may be interesting for what they reveal about other aspects of these representations. Responses to mirror-reversed stimuli were impeded more by the difficult orientations than

were responses to normal stimuli, F(3,42) = 7.5, p < .001, but only if the shape was known, F(3.42) = 4.4, p < .01. A similar pattern appeared in the shape cue ANOVA of Experiment 1, but not in the no-shape cue ANOVA. Tarr & Pinker (1989) provide a possible explanation for this pattern, based on the fact that subjects have little experience viewing mirror-reversed characters, but a huge amount of experience viewing normal characters. Usually the normal characters appear at the standard orientation, but subjects probably see them often enough at other orientations near the standard to form mental representations of them at those orientations. These representations allow subjects to recognize tilted characters directly, without rotating them. Because they encounter mirrorreversed characters less often, they almost never see them at nonstandard orientations, and therefore only form representations of them at the standard orientation. When a tilted mirror-reversed character appears, subjects cannot recognize it directly, and must rotate it. An alternative explanation is based on the idea that subjects always rotate stimuli when they are not given the shape, and occasionally rotate stimuli as an extra check when they are given the shape. When subjects use the shape information to prepare an image beforehand, a mirror-reversed stimulus will not match the image. If subjects are more inclined to perform an extra check after a mismatch than after a match, then when response times are averaged there will be a larger orientation effect for the mirror-reversed stimuli than for the normals. When the shape is unknown, all stimuli are rotated, and the orientation effect is equally large for normal and mirror-reversed stimuli.

For some reason, the variation in response time across different distances was generally greater for mirror-reversed stimuli than for normal stimuli, F(3,42) = 7.7, p < .001. There were ten other significant interactions (p < .05), which is not surprising. Given that there are seven factors in this analysis and

127 main effects and interactions, there are that number of chances for spurious significant effects. None reached the significance level of the effects reported here (p > .01 in all cases), and none appeared directly relevant to the questions at hand.

Crossing the Vertical and Horizontal Meridians. Before going on, we must investigate an alternative explanation for the response time differences that are attributed to distance between the cued location and the stimulus location. Experiments in visual attention have demonstrated that response times are raised when a stimulus is located on the opposite side of the vertical or horizontal meridian from the cue that precedes it (Downing & Pinker, 1985; Hughes & Zimba, 1987; Rizzolatti, Riggio, Dascola, & Umiltá, 1987). Perhaps stimuli that are farther from the cued location require more time only because they are more likely to be in a different quadrant than the cued location. Although this experiment was not specifically designed to test this hypothesis, we can test it by first comparing response times for pairs of locations that are in different quadrants but at the same distance from the cued location, and then by comparing location pairs that are in the same quadrant but at different distances from the cued location.

To test whether response time increases with meridian crossings in imagery, we must identify one stimulus location that is on the same side of a meridian as the cue, and a corresponding location on the other side of the meridian that is the same distance away from the cue. Two such location pairs are illustrated in Figure 10. In both cases, one stimulus is on each side of the horizontal meridian. Configurations with the cue on the left of the display are used as examples in Figure 10, although in half the trials the cue was on the right. There was another location pair that was not used because one location was on the opposite side of the horizontal meridian from the cue and the other

was on the opposite side of the vertical meridian. If we are to be sure that any effect of meridian crossing in these comparisons is due to imagery and not attention, then we must test not just the difference associated with the two locations, but rather the variation in this location difference between the image and no-image conditions.

Pairs of Stimulus Locations at the Same Distance from the Cued Location but Within Different Quadrants

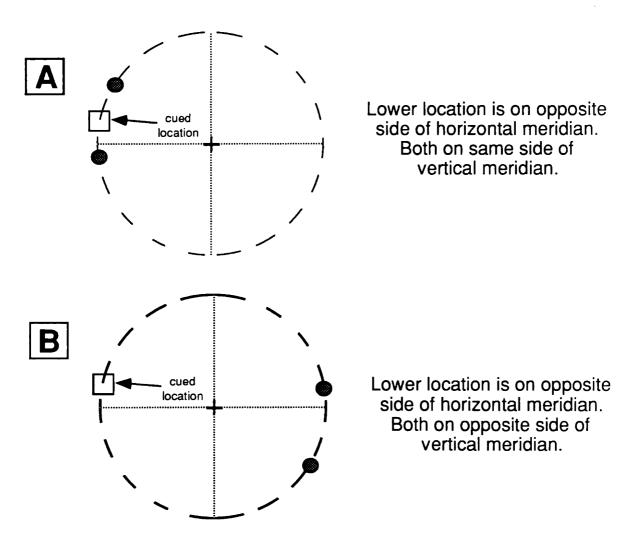


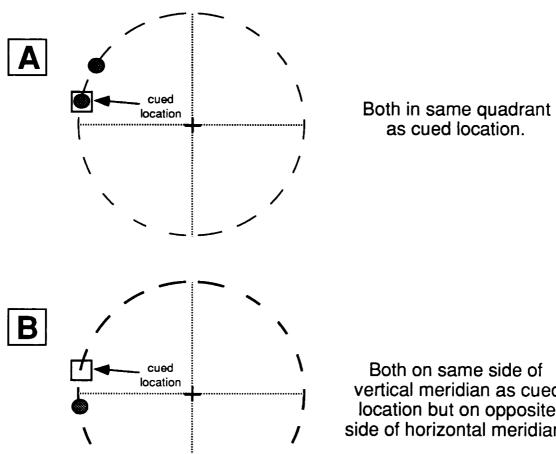
Figure 10: In order to test whether response time increases when an image must cross the horizontal or vertical meridian, we compared

response times for the two pairs of locations illustrated above. For each pair, the two locations are in different quadrants of the visual field, but are both at the same distance from the cued location.

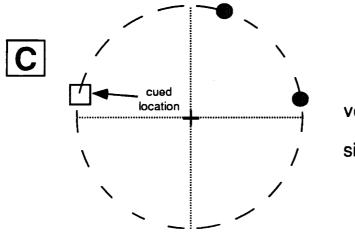
For the first location pair, presented in Figure 10a, the response time was no higher when the stimulus occurred on the opposite side of the horizontal meridian from the stimulus. (The response time was very slightly less, in both image and no-image conditions.) For the second pair, presented in Figure 10b, response time increased by 14 msec in the image condition when the stimulus occurred on the opposite side of the horizontal meridian. However, the no-image condition yielded a difference of 15 msec, and thus the response time difference must be due to something other than the movement of an image. The difference might be due to the attentional factors demonstrated by Downing & Pinker, Hughes & Zimba, and Rizzolatti et. al. Given that there was no difference in the first location pair, however, it is perhaps more prudent to attribute the difference to the fact that one location is almost aligned horizontally with the cued location, while the other is not.

Thus these comparisons yield no evidence that response time increases when an image and stimulus are in different hemifields. We can now look for evidence that the response time differences are due to distance and not meridian crossings by comparing location pairs that are in the same quadrant but are at different distances from the cued location. There are three different pairs of stimulus locations in this experiment that meet these criteria. They are illustrated in Figure 11. As before, because we are interested in the effects of image location rather than visual attention, we must compare differences between image and no-image conditions.

Pairs of Stimulus Locations Within the Same Quadrant but **Differing in Distance from the Cued Location**



Both on same side of vertical meridian as cued location but on opposite side of horizontal meridian.



Both on opposite side of vertical meridian from cued location but on same side of horizontal meridian.

Figure 11: In order to test whether the response time increase in Experiment 2 could be attributed to distance, we compared response times for the three pairs of locations illustrated above. For each pair, the two locations are in the same quadrant of the visual field, but at different distances from the cued location.

In the location pair depicted in Figure 11a, both locations are in the same quadrant as the cue, and one location is the cued location itself. With this pair, there was a difference of 27 msec in the image condition, and almost no difference in the no-image condition: Response times were higher when an image must be moved from one location to another, F(1,98) = 3.4, p < .05.1 However, there might be a special advantage when the test stimulus occurs at exactly the same location as the image. A better test would use two locations such as those depicted in Figure 11b, neither of which is the cued location. In this pair, both locations are in the quadrant below the quadrant occupied by the cue. Thus, they are both on the opposite side of the horizontal meridian from the cue, but on the same side of the vertical meridian. In this case, there was a 50

¹ In these contrasts we are specifically testing for an increase that was greater in the image condition, and thus we can use a one-tailed test. The *p* values will be half as large as for a two-tailed test. Additionally, because these contrasts involve a combination of different factors and interactions from the overall analysis with different error terms, the error terms used in the contrasts were obtained by pooling the error terms from the relevant interactions in the overall ANOVA, according to the procedure described by Rosenthal & Rosnow (1985) chap. 6.

msec difference in the image condition, and only a 24 msec difference in the noimage condition. As with the first pair, this interaction was significant, F(1,84) =2.9, p < .05, and thus adds additional weight to the claim that response time increases with distance, regardless of the relative location of the meridians. In the final pair, depicted in Figure 11c, both locations are on the opposite side of the vertical meridian from the cue, but are on the same side of the horizontal meridian. In this case, there was no measurable increase in response time with distance in either the image or no-image conditions. (In both cases the response time was very slightly lower for the longer distance.) Because of the geometry of the imaginary circle, the distance between each of these locations and the cued location is much less than for the second pair, and thus if response time depends on distance between image and stimulus, we would expect the difference between these two locations to be smaller and more difficult to measure. Therefore the lack of a detectable difference between these two locations is not too surprising.

Obviously, these tests are less than perfect. A firm conclusion would require another experiment using a different set of stimulus locations. Ideally, vertical and horizontal crossings should be tested independently, distance should be tested within a quadrant without using exactly the same location as the cue, and none of the stimuli should be positioned too near a meridian. Nevertheless, these comparisons generally point to a single consistent result. Neither of the meridian comparisons shows any hint of an increase in response time with meridian crossing. Two of the three distance comparisons show increases with increasing distance, and the third involves a difference in distances that is too small to elicit a measurable effect. Taken together, the results from these comparisons make it unlikely that the response time differences in Experiment 2

could be due to meridian crossings and not to the distance between the image and the stimulus.

Testing for hemispheric differences. This experiment, like the previous one, presents an opportunity to test for hemispheric differences in the use of image representations. To begin with, we performed separate analyses for the image and no-image conditions, using only data from trials in which the stimulus appeared at the cued location, on either the left or right side of the visual field. Surprisingly, in the image condition subjects responded more quickly to the left-hemifield (right-hemisphere) stimuli, F(1,14) = 4.7, p < .05. This difference probably has little to do with imagery, however, because there was an even larger advantage for the left-hemifield stimuli in the no-image condition, although it did not reach significance, F(1,14) = 2.4, p > .1. A third analysis combining the shape cue and no-shape cue data for the cued location showed that the overall right-hemisphere advantage was significant, F(1,14) =5.1, p < .05, but that it did not differ between the two conditions, F < 1. Thus, when the stimulus is at the cued location, this experiment shows no advantage in imagery for either hemisphere, although it does suggest a general (perhaps attentional) advantage for the right hemisphere.

In Experiment 1 the cue always occurred at the center of the display, away from the stimulus locations, and there was at least some evidence for a left-hemisphere advantage in the imagery condition. Perhaps the left-hemisphere imagery advantage only appears when the location must be adjusted in the image. If so, then there should be a left-hemisphere advantage in Experiment 2 for those stimuli at the shortest distance away from the cued location. These stimuli require movement of the image, but they are still located in the same hemifield as the image. Unfortunately, there is no hint of a left-hemisphere imagery advantage in these trials either. In both the image and no-image

conditions, responses are faster for the left hemifield (right hemisphere), but the difference is not significant in either, F(1,14) = 1.8, p > .2 for the no-image condition, F(1,14) = 3.7, p > .07 for the image condition. When both conditions were combined in a single analysis, the overall right-hemisphere advantage was significant, F(1,14) = 11.1, p < .01. Although the advantage was slightly larger in the image condition, the difference between the two conditions was not significant, F < 1. As with the cued location, there appears to be a general right-hemisphere advantage, but no imagery advantage for either hemisphere. Therefore, Experiments 1 and 2 taken together shed little light on the question of hemispheric advantages in image generation or location adjustment.

Error rates. We subjected the error rates to an ANOVA analogous to that used for the response times, and for each of the important response time effects we examined the corresponding effect in the error rates. In no case did we find any evidence of a speed/accuracy trade-off. As expected, subjects made more errors when the shape was not cued, F(1,14) = 10.4, p < .01. There were more errors for the two orientations near 180° than for the two orientations near 0°, F(1,42) = 45.9, p < .001, and this difference was more pronounced when the shape was not cued, F(1,42) = 16.8, p < .001. The letter R elicited the fewest errors, F(2,28) = 4.6, p < .02. Normal stimuli tended to produce fewer errors than mirror-reversed, but the trend was not significant, F(1,14) = 3.7, p < .08. There were no significant error differences due to distance, F(3,42) = 2.2, p > .1, cue hemifield, F < 1, or placement direction, F(1,14) = 1.1, p > .3.

The error analysis revealed other interesting findings. Error rates were higher for mirror-reversed stimuli than for normal stimuli if the shape was cued, F(1,14) = 16.7, p < .002. This pattern is consistent with the idea that all stimuli are rotated when the shape is unknown, and a few stimuli, especially those that are mirror-reversed, are rotated when the shape is known. In

addition, there were more errors with the no-shape cue than with the shape cue for the letter J, F(2,28) = 8.2, p < .005, and there were more errors for the number 4 when the stimulus was mirror-reversed than when it is not, F(2,28) = 5.4, p < .02. Although error rates were generally higher for the two orientations near 180° , there was little difference between orientations with the letter R, F(6,84) = 2.8, p < .02. There a single additional interaction for which p < .01, and eight for which p < .05. None of these interactions appeared directly relevant to the questions at hand.

Discussion

Although Experiment 2 uses a procedure that is different from Cooper & Shepard's, it leads to similar conclusions. In both experiments, adjustments of spatial properties require an amount of time proportional to the size of the adjustment, and in both experiments the need for this adjustment time varies depending on whether or not subjects know the shape of the stimulus in advance. The results from both experiments seem to reflect a shape-specific representation in which spatial properties are represented integrally with shape and in which these spatial properties are adjusted gradually.

If there is no linkage between the representation of shape and the representation of orientation or location, then it is difficult to explain why the time necessary to compensate for a change in one of these spatial properties should depend on knowledge of the shape. The data presented in Figure 8 illustrate this point for location adjustments. The pattern in these data is counterintuitive in that the condition with the faster response times also exhibits the larger slope. Overall, subjects were faster when they could prepare an image. When they did, however, they had relatively more trouble with

stimuli that were farther from the cued location. Cave & Kosslyn (1989) found a very similar pattern in a size scaling experiment. In that case, responses were generally faster when subjects prepared for the correct shape to appear than when they prepared for the incorrect shape. With the correct shape, however, response time increased more sharply with the ratio between expected and actual size than it did with the incorrect shape. Together these two results suggest that images can generally be used in visual perception to speed certain shape processing tasks, but that in doing so they make visual processing more susceptible to irrelevant differences in spatial properties. For an image representation to be optimally useful in a comparison with a visual stimulus, it must be encoded at the right location. By demonstrating this fact, Experiment 2 underscores once again that the organization of the image representation corresponds in many ways to the organization of the visual input. It also demonstrates a correspondence between mental rotation and other imagery paradigms, such as Farah's (1985) and the image scanning experiments, in which location plays a role.

The data from the no-image condition of Experiment 2 also show an increase in response time with distance, although it is smaller than in the image condition. Presumably this increase reflects differences in the allocation of attention to different locations in the visual field. If for some reason attention were allocated in a more focussed manner in the image condition than the no-image condition, then the entire distance effect might be due to attention, and not the adjustment of an image representation. The plausibility of this explanation, however, depends on the definition of attention. If attention is a general facilitation of processing that applies to any stimulus within a general region of the visual field, then it is difficult to understand why the allocation of this facilitation would vary between the image and no-image conditions. In both conditions, the test stimuli are exactly the same. The task is the same as well, in

the sense that in each condition the subject must decide whether a rotated character is mirror-reversed. The only thing that varies between the conditions is the subject's knowledge of the shape. There is no apparent reason why the allocation of this general facilitation would vary with the knowledge of shape, and thus it is more plausible to attribute the distance effect to image adjustment.

Note that Cooper & Shepard's data are subject to the same sort of attentional explanation. Subjects may set themselves for stimuli at a particular orientation, and their ability to select an orientation may vary with their knowledge of the shape. However, there is no reason to expect selection by orientation to differ with knowledge of shape, just as there is no reason to expect selection by location to differ with knowledge of shape. Therefore the attention explanation seems less plausible than the image adjustment explanation for the orientation case, just as it does for the location case.

Additionally, an account based entirely on general attentional differences will have trouble accounting for the data in Figure 9. These data show that the difference between easy and difficult orientations increases with larger distances, suggesting that at the larger distances subjects are more likely to rotate the stimulus after it appears. A general decrease in attentional facilitation should not make rotation any more necessary. However, these data fit well with an image explanation if we assume that image representations "fade" over time, as explained earlier. Because more time is necessary to adjust image location over longer distances, the image is more likely to fade, forcing the subject to rotate the stimulus when it appears. Therefore, these data support an explanation based on image location adjustment over one based on a change in general attentional facilitation.

On the other hand, attention might be a more specific sort of facilitation. It is conceivable that subjects can set themselves to expect a particular shape at a

particular location, and that when they do they respond more quickly to this shape at this location than to any other shape or to the same shape at any other location. However, there seems to be little difference between setting oneself to see a particular shape at a particular location and imaging that shape at that location. This sort of attention seems to have much in common with visual imagery, and if the distance effect is due to this sort of attention, then it might very well be considered the result of imagery.

Rate of location adjustment. Experiment 1 demonstrated that if location adjustments in image representations take any time at all, it is a very small amount of time, and thus not easy to measure. Nevertheless, Experiment 2 succeeded in measuring that adjustment time, and it is indeed fast enough to account for the similarity between the results of Experiment 1 and those of Cooper & Shepard. From the slope displayed in Figure 8, we can conclude that subjects in Experiment 1 probably required an extra 40 msec or so to respond to each stimulus in the shape cue condition because they did not know where it would appear. Of course, part of this extra time may be due to the allocation of attention rather than to image location adjustment. From these results, we conclude that the representations used in mental rotation are not location-independent, but they are the next best thing. The representation is coded for a specific location, but that represented location can be adjusted quickly and easily when necessary.

The results from Experiment 2 can be compared specifically with results from image scanning experiments by comparing the rate at which location is adjusted. To determine the rate at which images "move" in this experiment, we can use the slope for the image condition depicted in Figure 8. However, determining the adjustment rate is complicated in this experiment. The image and the focus of visual attention will be at the same location, and thus part of the

slope for the image condition might be due to attentional factors. The no-image condition demonstrates that responses are slower when the stimulus is at an unexpected location. If the extra processing necessary for unexpected locations can be done concurrently with the movement of the image, then the entire slope in the image condition should reflect location adjustment. If instead, the extra processing must be done before or after the location adjustment, then the location adjustment slope is only the difference between the slopes in the image and no-image conditions. Of course, if there is only a partial overlap between the extra processing and the image overlap, then the image adjustment slope will be somewhere between these two extremes.

If we cannot be certain of the image adjustment rate from the data for Experiment 2, we can at least determine upper and lower bounds. Assuming the slope in the image condition reflects only image adjustment time, then images in this experiment "move" at about 6.3 msec per degree of visual angle. If attention plays as big a role in the slope of the no-image condition as it does in the image condition, then the image adjustment rate is about half that amount. The maximum rate of 6.3 msec/degree is faster than the 17 msec/degree found by Kosslyn (1978) when he specifically instructed subjects to scan across images, and is also faster than the 19.8 msec/degree found by Finke & Pinker (1982) in their dots task. This difference in rates does not necessarily mean that different types of location adjustments are used in these different experiments. In the experiments by Kosslyn and by Finke & Pinker, subjects must maintain images of multiple distinct visual objects, and especially in the Finke & Pinker experiment they must be careful to accurately preserve the distances between objects. In our experiment, there is no spatial configuration of different objects to maintain. Because this task is simpler, subjects may be able to adjust location more rapidly.

The results from Experiment 2 demonstrate some of the similarities between the representation of orientation and location in visual images, and in doing so they shed new light on the nature of image representations in general. Location information, like orientation information, is encoded integrally with shape information. As with location, the adjustment of represented location is accomplished either continuously or in small steps. Because objects do not generally appear at a single standard location, however, location adjustments may not be necessary as often as orientation adjustments. In many circumstances, location adjustments may also be unnecessary because of eye movements. If a stimulus to be compared with an image appears at an unexpected orientation, the subject must either rotate the image or the stimulus representation, or else tilt the head. In most situations, however, if a stimulus appears at an unexpected location, subjects will first saccade to it to gain maximum acuity. If the image is located at the fovea, then it may not be necessary to adjust the image location. This possibility raises questions about the frame of reference used in image representations, which Experiment 3 is designed to address.

Experiment 3

If location is in fact encoded in these mental representations, then we can ask what sort of coordinate frame is used. The visual input is necessarily organized according to location on the retina. In order to navigate through space and manipulate physical objects, some stage of visual processing must include an integration of information from different fixations using a single (spatiotopic) frame of reference. Therefore, we can ask whether location is encoded retinotopically or spatiotopically in these image representations.

Up to this point we have emphasized the implications of these experiments for the nature of visual image representations. However, the subjects in these experiments were not instructed to use imagery; they were simply told to decide whether or not the shapes were mirror-reversed. Therefore, the task used here is in some sense a perceptual task as well as an imagery task, and understanding more about how this task is done will lead to a better understanding of at least one aspect of shape discrimination. By determining the coordinate frame used in these mental representations, we will gain another piece of evidence that can be helpful in ascertaining the level at which these representations are used in regular visual processing. Of course, in order for this evidence to be useful, we must have some idea of where in the stream of visual processing the retinal coordinates are converted to a more useful reference frame.

There are good reasons for expecting the coordinate shift to occur early in visual processing, and Feldman (1985a) uses this strategy in his Four Frames Model. In this model, visual information in the retinotopic frame is transferred to a part of the stable feature frame. The location within the stable feature frame for each fixation is determined by eye position. Thus multiple fixations can be integrated into a single, complete representation. The stable feature frame is still spatially organized: Shape properties are still an integral part of the representation of each shape. Instead of coding location in terms of retinal position, however, the stable feature frame codes location in relation to head position². Virtually all high level visual processing is then based on the stable feature frame, and not the retinotopic frame.

² Once coordinates are coded in a head-centered reference frame, another transform is necessary to produce coordinates coded in a reference frame based on the environment. This transform must take into account head and body position relative to the environment. For the

Feldman (1985a, 1985b) cites a number of reasons for implementing an early coordinate shift in his model. First, the early shift makes it easy to integrate information across fixations. Even when the viewer is too close to an object to see it all in a single fixation, it is possible to assemble all the parts together into a single coherent representation. He also feels that the stable feature frame can serve as a necessary "substrate" for our subjective experience of a visual world that is unified across fixations. He also states that it can be used for imagery, although he does not elaborate on the disadvantages of implementing imagery in the retinotopic rather than the spatiotopic frame. Finally, he lists perceptual experiments that are consistent with the presence of the stable feature frame. Among these experiments was one by Davidson, Fox, & Dick (1973). They presented subjects with an array of letters, had the subjects move their eyes, and then presented a mask at one of the letter locations. When the subjects were asked to report the location of the mask, they usually reported its correct spatiotopic location.

If the coordinate shift occurs as early in visual processing as Feldman claims, then image representations are almost certainly not coded retinotopically. In spite of his evidence, however, there are other reasons to believe that the coordinate shift occurs later in processing; perhaps *after* stimuli are compared with these image representations. One reason arises from the Davidson, Fox, & Dick's data. Although subject reports linked the mask with its spatiotopic location, it interfered with the letter at the same retinotopic location. Using a

present purposes, we will ignore the distinction between head-centered and spatiotopic reference frames. The question we are pursuing concerns when coordinates are transformed from a retinotopic frame to a more useful reference frame, regardless of whether the new frame is head-centered or spatiotopic. In all the experiments described here, there were no head movements, and thus a transform from retinotopic to head-centered coordinates would be indistinguishable from a

transform from retinotopic directly to spatiotopic coordinates.

similar methodology, Irwin, Brown, & Sun (1988) also found that mask interference depended on retinotopic location. They then tested the integration of information across saccades more carefully by replacing the mask with a small bar, and asking subjects to report the letter that occurred at the same location as the bar. As long as the delay between the letter array and the bar was short, subjects reported the letter at the same retinotopic location more often than the letter at the same spatiotopic location, even though in many trials they could also correctly report the spatiotopic location of the bar. With a longer delay, they more often reported the letter at the same spatiotopic location, but they also reported a different visual experience, with the stimuli before and after fixation no longer fused together as they were with the shorter delay. In their final experiment, Irwin, Brown, & Sun used a task that required the fusion of two dot patterns into a single form. Performance on this task was better when the two patterns occupied the same retinotopic location than when they occupied the same spatiotopic location.

Irwin, Brown, & Sun's results indicate that, at least over short time intervals, information across saccades is integrated within a retinotopic coordinate frame, rather than within a spatiotopic or head-centered system as it would be in the stable feature frame. They conclude that when the delay is longer and the information from different fixations is integrated spatiotopically, this integration is not done within the early stages of visual processing that are the basis for visual persistence. More recently, Irwin, Zacks, & Brown (1989) have collected additional evidence by testing for a spatial-frequency-specific priming effect. Normally, subjects are less accurate at detecting a grating stimulus when another grating of the same spatial frequency has just appeared at the same location. When Irwin, Zacks, & Brown's subjects moved their eyes

between the cue and the test gratings, there was no decrease in performance, even though the two gratings occupied the same spatiotopic location.

More serious doubts about the early coordinate shift arise from neuroanatomical and neurophysiological studies of the visual system. Although these studies have discovered numerous brain regions devoted to different aspects of visual processing, the receptive fields of the cells in almost all of these regions appear to be retinotopically organized. One partial exception is in posterior parietal cortex, where Andersen, Essick, & Siegel (1985) found individual units that responded to stimuli at a particular retinotopic location, but only for particular eye positions. These units could be part of a distributed representation that encodes location in head-centered coordinates (Zipser & Andersen, 1988). This area of the brain, however, appears to be devoted to the processing of location, while working in conjunction with another system in the temporal lobes that processes identity (Ungerleider & Mishkin, 1982). Lesions in this area interfere with monkeys' ability to detect the location of a stimulus, but not to identify visual patterns. Thus, the role of posterior parietal cortex in visual processing is much later than Feldman's stable feature frame. When Kosslyn, Flynn, Amsterdam, & Wang (in press) constructed a model of higherlevel visual processing, the accumulated evidence from neuroanatomy and neurophysiology led them to omit an early spatiotopic frame. In their model the spatiotopic transform occurs in the location subsystem, after location information has been factored apart from shape information. The shape information that is matched against memory representations and categorized by the identity subsystem has not been transformed into spatiotopic coordinates.

Experiment 3 is designed to test whether the representations used in mental rotation are coded retinotopically or spatiotopically. The answer to this question is important in determining how these representations are used in

visual processing. It could also have general implications for the coding of location in all types of visual processing, and for the way that information is integrated across fixations. If retinotopic representations are used in mental rotation, then a coordinate shift is unlikely to occur early in visual processing.

The general strategy in Experiment 3 is to measure the response time advantage that occurs when the image occupies the stimulus location, as was demonstrated in Experiment 2. By introducing a saccade in between the image cue and the test stimulus, we can measure whether this advantage is associated with the retinotopic or the spatiotopic location. Given that image location can be adjusted so quickly, measuring the location advantage will be difficult in this experiment. The difficulty will be confounded somewhat by the layout of the display, which requires that the maximum distance between cue and test stimulus be smaller than in Experiment 2.

Method

Subjects. As in Experiment 2, we used a pupil tracker in this experiment to monitor eye movements. Most subjects required practice before they could respond to a stimulus in the periphery without moving their eyes, and some were unable to finish the experiment or chose to quit early. Once the data for a subject were collected, all values that were more than three standard deviations from the mean for that subject were removed. By removing outlying data points in this fashion, we hoped to eliminate extraordinarily long response times that can occur when subjects lose concentration or miss a briefly-presented stimulus. After the outliers were removed, a few subjects did not have data for every combination of conditions. In all, a total of 75 subjects completed the experiment with a full set of data, and another 44 subjects did not. All subjects were from the

M. I. T. Department of Brain and Cognitive Sciences subject pool, and all were paid for their time, whether or not they completed the experiment. Most were M. I. T. undergraduates, and their vision was normal or corrected to normal. These subjects did not participate in the earlier experiments.

Apparatus. The computer, display, pupil tracker, and video camera used in Experiment 2 were all used in this experiment.

Stimuli. The test stimuli were the same three characters, either normal or mirror-reversed, displayed at the same four orientations, 45°, 135°, 225°, and 315°. The two types of cues were also the same: Each shape cue was a normal character oriented appropriately, and each no-shape cue was a rectangle with a small arrow indicating the top, also oriented appropriately.

In this experiment, there were three possible locations at which the cue and test stimulus could appear, as shown in Figure 12: One at the center, one at the far left, and one at the far right. The fixation cross could appear at one of two locations: Either between the center and left stimulus locations, or between the center and right locations. A cue or test stimulus could only occur in one of the two locations next to the current fixation cross. The distance between each fixation cross and each of the two neighboring stimulus positions was 4.8 cm (5.5°). With this arrangement, a test stimulus occurring to the right of the left fixation cross would occupy the same location on the screen as a stimulus to the left of the right fixation cross.

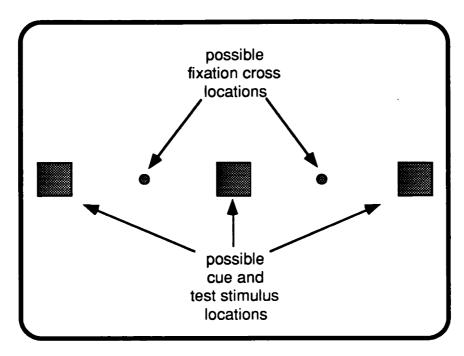


Figure 12: The two locations at which a fixation cross could appear, and the three locations at which a cue or test stimulus could appear.

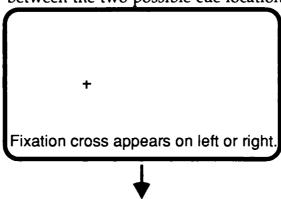
Suppose that a subject fixates on the left fixation cross and then views a cue to the right of the fixation cross (in the center of the screen). The subject then saccades to the right fixation cross. If a test stimulus now appears to the left of the new fixation cross, it will be in the same spatiotopic location as the cue. If it instead appears to the right of the fixation cross, it will be in the same retinotopic location as the cue. In this experiment, the cue and test stimulus always appeared at one of the two locations next to the current fixation cross. Therefore, the distance of the cue and test stimulus from the fovea was always constant.

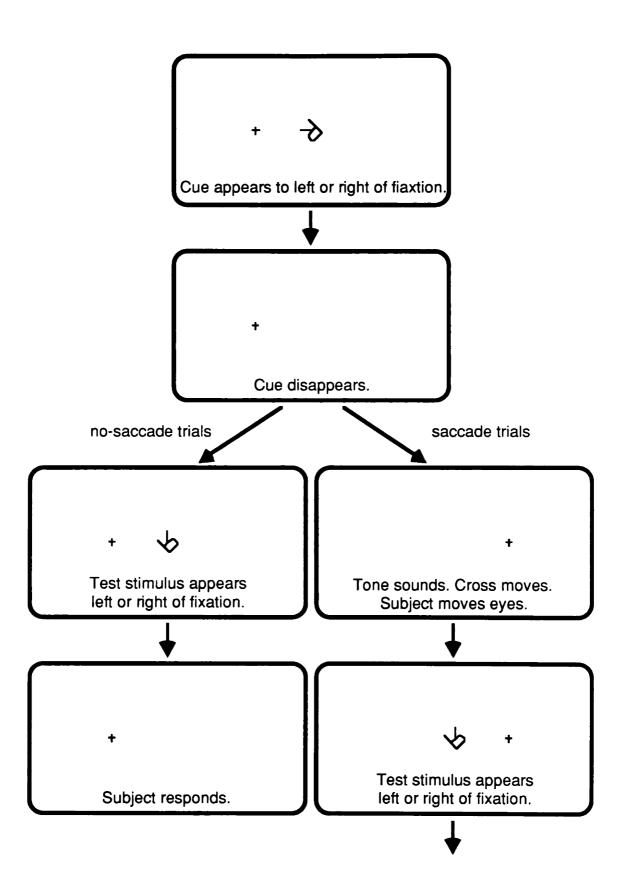
Procedure. As in the previous experiments, the subject was seated in front of the CRT in a dimly lit room. A chin rest and forehead restraint were used to maintain a constant viewing distance and prevent head movements. The subject was instructed to keep one hand on each of the response keys.

Because the eye tracker was used to monitor saccades in this experiment, a short calibration procedure was necessary for each subject prior to testing.

During this procedure, the eye tracker monitored eye position while the subject performed a simple visual task that required saccades back and forth between two points on the screen. The calibration program calculated the median difference between the pupil locations before and after each saccade, and this value was used in the regular experiment to predict the correct eye position after a saccade was cued. This calibration procedure was repeated at the beginning of each testing session.

Figure 13 illustrates the various steps of the experiment itself. Each trial began with the appearance of a fixation cross at one of the two possible locations. The subject was instructed to fixate on the cross when it appeared. After the cross had been visible for 1500 msec, the eye position was recorded and the cue appeared, either to the left or the right of the fixation cross. The cue was present for 700 msec, and then disappeared, leaving only the fixation cross for another 1500 msec. The subject was instructed to remain fixated on the cross during this entire time, and if the computer detected a substantial eye movement the trial was aborted, as in Experiment 2. Note that once the fixation cross appeared, the cue was equally likely to appear 4.8 cm to the left or to the right of the cross. Therefore the subject's best strategy was to follow the instructions and to fixate on the cross, half way between the two possible cue locations.





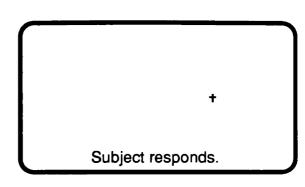


Figure 13: The sequence of events for no-saccade trials and saccade trials in Experiment 3.

The next step in the procedure varied between the two different types of trial. In the no-saccade trials, the test stimulus was presented for 120 msec, either at the cued location on one side of the fixation cross or at the uncued location on the other side. The subject then responded as in the previous experiments. In the saccade trials, however, a tone sounded, and the fixation cross moved to the other fixation location on the other side of the display. This was the subject's cue to shift fixation to the new location. At this point, the computer no longer compared the eye position to the standard eye position measured at the beginning of the trial. Instead, it calculated a new standard position by adjusting the old position according to the values from the calibration procedure. It then began comparing the eye position against the new standard, using the same threshold as before. If the eye position did not come within the threshold range of the new standard within 2000 msec, the trial was aborted. Once the eye position came within the threshold range, it was compared for an two additional pupil tracker cycles (approximately an additional 34 msec) to ensure that the eye was no longer moving.

After this third eye position comparison, the current eye position was taken as the new standard for the rest of the trial. The test stimulus then appeared on either side of the new fixation cross, and the subject responded appropriately. The test stimulus was equally likely to occur 4.8 cm to the left or

right of the new fixation cross. Thus, as before, once the new fixation cross appeared, the subject's best strategy is to follow the instructions and to fixate on the cross, half way between the two possible stimulus locations.

After an incorrect response, the screen flashed blue and a long tone sounded. In both types of trials, eye movements were monitored until the subject responded. If an uncued saccade occurred at any stage of the trial, the screen flashed red and a long tone sounded. Using the same procedure as in Experiment 1, trials with incorrect responses or incorrect eye movements were repeated after each block of 96 trials, and this process continued until all trials in the block had been completed correctly. Subjects were given an opportunity for a break after every 20 trials.

In this experiment, half the trials were saccade trials and half were not. Within each type, half were shape cue trials and half were not. The fixation could be either to the left or right of center, and the cue could be to the left or right of fixation. The test stimulus could be at the cued or uncued location, it could be one of three shapes, it could be at one of four orientations, and it could be either normal or mirror-reversed. All the different combinations produce a total of 768 trials for each subject. A different random order was generated for each. Most of the 75 subjects who completed the entire set of trials required four or five sessions, each lasting about an hour.

Given that subjects can adjust represented location in images so quickly, they might be able to produce either retinotopic or spatiotopic results by "moving" their images as they move their eyes. Assuming for the moment that images are coded spatiotopically, if the subject believes that the image should always be in the same retinotopic location as the cue, then after a saccade the subject could shift the image to the spatiotopic location that now corresponds to the retinotopic location of the cue. Likewise, if images are coded retinotopically,

subjects could move the image to the correct spatiotopic location after the saccade. To investigate this possibility, we randomly split the 75 subjects into three groups of 25 each, and gave each group slightly different instructions. All three groups were instructed to prepare for the test stimulus at the location occupied by the cue. Subjects in the retinotopic group were told that on saccade trials, they should expect the test stimulus at the same location relative to the fixation cross as the cue. Those in the spatiotopic group were told to expect the test stimulus at the same location on the screen as the cue. Those in the neutral group received no instructions either way. In all three trials, there was an equal number of trials at the cued and the uncued locations. As in the previous experiments, none of the instructions mentioned anything about imagery. If subjects are able to adjust image location before the stimulus appears, then the location for which subjects respond more quickly should vary with the instructions they receive.

Results

To determine whether the image representations used in this task are retinotopic or spatiotopic, we must look at those trials in which the test stimulus could occur at either the same retinotopic location or the same spatiotopic location as the cue. Therefore, we discarded data from all trials in which the cue appeared at the far left or right of the screen, because after a saccade the test stimulus could never occur at the same spatiotopic location in these trials. These trials were included in the experiment to ensure that subjects fixated at the appropriate location.

Response times. The trials without saccades serve as a control condition to test whether the location-specificity found in Experiment 2 can be measured in

the current experiment. These trials demonstrated that subjects responded more quickly in this task when the test stimulus occurred at the same location as the cue. The response time data for trials with and without saccades were submitted to separate ANOVAs, with cue, orientation, location, handedness, shape (R, J, or 4), and type of instructions as factors. Subjects made incorrect responses on 2% of the trials, and these trials were excluded from the analyses. Because the results from Experiments 1 and 2 indicated that any retinotopic or spatiotopic advantage would be very subtle, we wanted to ensure that any small effects were not obscured by long response times from trials in which subjects lost their concentration. Therefore we excluded trials with response time values more than three standard deviations from the subject's mean. (On the average, only 7 of the 768 correct-response trials for each subject were excluded). In the results described below, the values F_f and p_f are from the analysis of trials in which the eyes remained fixed, and the values F_s and p_s are from the analysis of trials in which there was a saccade.

In both saccade and no-saccade trials, the results indicated that subjects were using images when possible, as they had in the previous experiments. Responses were faster when subjects knew the shape beforehand, $F_f(1,72) = 170.9$, $p_f < .001$, $F_s(1,72) = 167.4$, $p_s < .001$. Contrasts indicated that they were also faster for the two orientations near 0° than for the two near 180° , $F_f(1,216) = 761.2$, $p_f < .001$, $F_s(1,216) = 712.7$, $p_s < .001$, and that the advantage for the easier orientations was greater when subjects knew the shape, $F_f(1,216) = 48.0$, $p_f < .001$, $F_s(1,216) = 30.4$, $p_s < .001$, suggesting once again that knowledge of the shape allowed subjects to form images. As before, responses were slower when stimuli were mirror-reversed than when they were normal, $F_f(1,72) = 128.9$, $p_f < .001$, $F_s(1,72) = 92.5$, $p_s < .001$, and as before they were generally faster for R and slower for 4,

 $F_f(2,144) = 14.9$, $p_f < .001$, $F_s(2,144) = 8.0$, $p_s < .01$. The three different instruction sets had no significant overall effect on response times, $F_f < 1$, $F_s < 1$.

When the eyes remained fixed, subjects responded more quickly when the test stimulus occurred at the same location as the cue, $F_f(1,72) = 74.4$, $p_f < .001$. This advantage is no doubt due at least partly to attentional factors, and therefore it is important to test whether this location advantage is stronger in the image (shape cue) than in the no-image (no-shape cue) condition. In fact, it was stronger in the image condition, $F_f(1,72) = 33.7$, $p_f < .001$, as can be seen in Figure 14, confirming the finding from Experiment 2 that image representations include information about location.

all groups combined no saccade

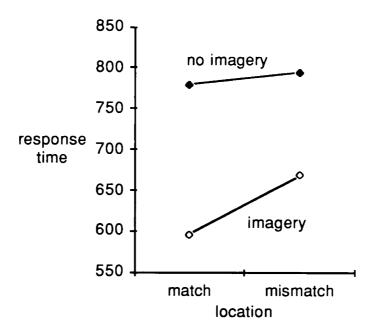


Figure 14: Mean response time for no-saccade trials when test stimulus location matched the cued location and when it did not. Responses were faster when the stimulus appeared at the cued location, but the advantage was much greater in the image condition.

The results from the no saccade trials confirm that this particular task can be used to measure the advantage that comes from having an image in the right location. Thus we should be able to use the data from the saccade trials to answer whether location information in images is encoded retinotopically or spatiotopically. Overall, subjects responded faster to stimuli in the same retinotopic location as the cue than to those in the same spatiotopic location as the cue, $F_s(1,72) = 7.7$, $p_s < .01$. More importantly, the retinotopic advantage was stronger in the image condition than in the no image condition, $F_s(1.72) = 5.9$, $p_s < .02$, as is shown in Figure 15. From this difference we conclude that image representations are encoded in a retinotopic coordinate system.

all groups combined saccade

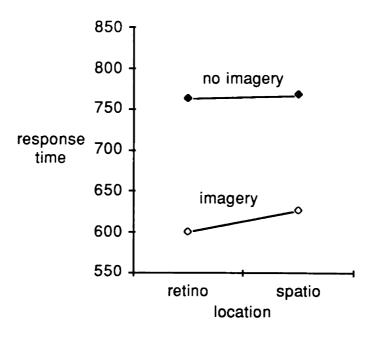


Figure 15: Mean response time for saccade trials when test stimulus location matches the retinotopic location and when it matches the spatiotopic location. Responses were faster when the stimulus

appeared at the retinotopic location, and the advantage was much greater in the image condition.

This experiment yielded a number of other results that are not directly relevant to the question of retinotopic representation, but may be interesting nonetheless. These effects tended to appear more often in the trials without eye movements. Forcing the subject to make a saccade between the cue and the test stimulus probably produces a certain amount of interference that may obscure some effects. This interference could explain why some effects reached significance only in the trials without saccades.

As in Experiment 2, this analysis suggests that even when subjects know the shape, they occasionally rotate the stimulus before responding, especially if it is mirror-reversed. With no saccade, the gap between normal and mirror-reversed response times was larger when the shape was known than when it was not, $F_f(1,72) = 19.8$, $p_f < .001$. Additionally, when the shape was known, response time differences between easy and difficult orientations were larger for mirror-reversed than for normal stimuli; when the shape was not known, orientation differences actually seemed to be *smaller* for the mirror-reversed stimuli than for the normals, $F_f(3,216) = 7.0$, $p_f < .001$. The same was true for the saccade trials, $F_s(3,216) = 6.7$, $p_s < .001$.

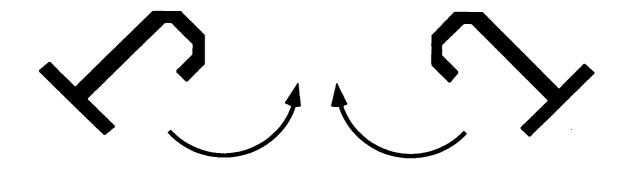


Figure 16: The data from the no-saccade condition suggest that subjects sometimes rotate in the direction of the top front of the character, even if the shorter path is in the other direction.

In addition, with or without saccades there are large differences in response times for the two difficult orientations, depending on the handedness of the stimulus, $F_f(3,216) = 9.2$, $p_f < .001$, $F_s(3,216) = 4.8$, $p_s < .01$. These interactions, along with the ones just described, reflect another effect that was not anticipated. The data suggest that subjects tend to rotate in the direction of the top front of the letter, even if rotating in this direction requires more time than rotating in the other direction. This method of rotation is illustrated in Figure 16. Thus, if a mirror-reversed stimulus is oriented at 225°, at least some of the subjects apparently rotated it counter-clockwise on at least some of the trials, even though they could save 90° of rotation by rotating it clockwise. Similarly, normal stimuli at 135° tended to rotate clockwise, even though the path of rotation would be shorter for a counterclockwise rotation. The evidence for this pattern is presented in Figure 17.

In the no image condition, response times for normal stimuli at 135° were greater than times for those at 225°, whereas the opposite pattern held for the mirror-reversed stimuli. This rotation towards the front seems most likely to occur with the shape J, $F_f(6,432) = 5.0$, $p_f < .001$, $F_s(6,432) = 2.8$, $p_s < .02$. The same pattern of rotating towards the front appeared in a weaker form in the image condition, as would be expected if subjects occasionally rotated stimuli in this condition. A hint of the same pattern also appeared in the data from Experiment 2, although it was less clean and not significant. An alternative explanation is that rotating a character towards the top back is more difficult than rotating it towards the top front.

no saccade

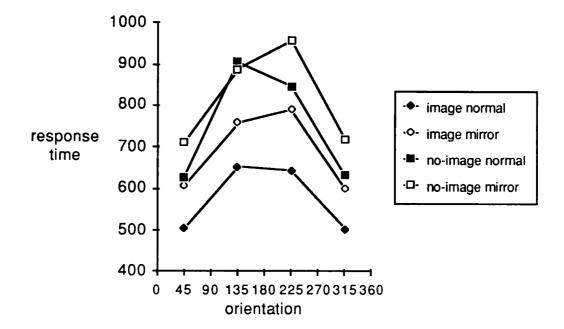


Figure 17: Data illustrating the tendency to rotate towards the top front of the character. For normal stimuli in the no-image condition, response time was elevated for 135°. For mirror-reversed stimuli, response time was higher for 225°.

Responses to stimuli in the cued and uncued locations in the trials without saccades provided more evidence that subjects occasionally rotated stimuli in the image condition. When the shape was cued, there was a greater response time difference between easy and difficult orientations for stimuli that appeared at the uncued location than for those that appeared at the cued location; without the shape cue, the orientation difference was not greater for the uncued location, and may actually have been less, $F_f(3.216) = 4.3$, $p_f < .01$. This pattern suggests that when subjects know the shape, they are more likely to rotate the stimulus if it occurs at the uncued location. This is the same sort of pattern seen in Figure 9 in Experiment 2. If the stimulus is at the uncued location, then the image that was prepared beforehand must be moved to the new location before it

can be used, and thus subjects are more likely to abandon the image and rotate the stimulus.

Also in the no-saccade trials, subjects responded slowly to the shape J when it appeared at one of the two difficult orientations (135° and 225°); however, their responses were faster for the 135° J's if they knew the shape beforehand, $F_f(6,432) = 2.9$, $p_f < .01$. There were three other significant interactions (p < .05) in the no-saccade ANOVA, and three in the saccade ANOVA. None reached the significance level of the effects reported here (p > .01 in all cases), and none appeared directly relevant to the questions at hand.

Spatiotopic advantage. The main analysis tested whether there was an advantage for the retinotopic location over the spatiotopic location, but it did not test whether the spatiotopic location had any advantage over other locations that did not match either the retinotopic or spatiotopic cue location. We tested for this advantage with another analysis that included two sets of saccade trials: those in which the test stimulus appeared at the spatiotopic cue location, and those in which the stimulus did not appear at the same retinotopic or spatiotopic location as the cue. In this second set of trials, the cue appeared at one edge of the display and the test stimulus appeared on the other. The other factors in this analysis (cue, orientation, handedness, shape, and type of instructions) were the same used in the main analysis.

As before, the important question is whether there is an advantage for the spatiotopic location in the image condition that does not exist in the no-image condition. The interaction shows a trend in that direction that is not quite significant, F(1,66) = 3.9, p < .06. Response times were no faster for the spatiotopic location than for the nonspatiotopic location in the no-image condition, but they were 17 msec faster in the image condition. If there is in fact an advantage for stimuli at the spatiotopic location over those at other locations, it may be because

some subjects occasionally move their image to the spatiotopic location when they move their eyes. Another possibility is that subjects sometimes lose their image during the saccade and try to reconstruct it. If so, they are probably at least as likely to place it at the spatiotopic location as at the retinotopic location. If subjects do occasionally move an image to the spatiotopic location, we might expect that they would be more likely to do so when they are instructed to expect the stimulus at the spatiotopic location. However, the differences in the spatiotopic image advantage across the different instruction groups were not significant, F < 1.

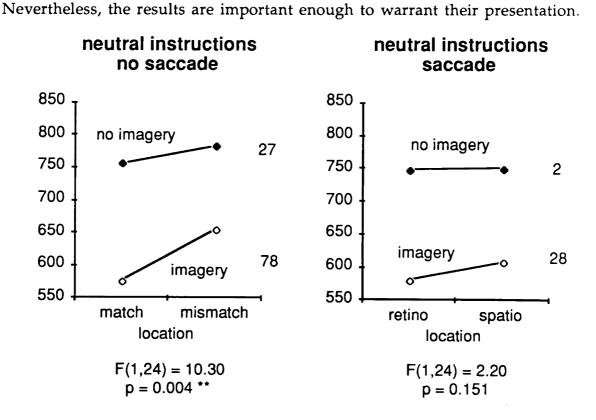
Error rates. To test for possible speed/accuracy trade-offs, we performed two analogous ANOVAs using the error rates from the no-saccade trials and from the saccade trials, and in each we examined the main effects and interactions that corresponded to those we examined in the response time analyses. In both analyses, subjects made more errors when they did not know the shape, $F_f(1,72) = 13.6$, $p_f < .001$, $F_s(1,72) = 28.6$, $p_s < .001$. They also made more errors for the two orientations near 180°, $F_f(1,216) = 103.7$, $p_f < .001$, $F_s(1,216) = 103.7$ 109.0, $p_s < .001$. In the saccade trials, they made relatively more errors for orientations near 180° when they did not know the shape, $F_s(3,216) = 6.3$, $p_s <$.025, as would be expected if they used images when they knew the shape. This effect did not reach significance in the no-saccade trials, $F_f < 1$, although the trend was in the right direction. In the saccade trials, the letter R elicited fewer errors than the other two shapes, $F_s(2,144) = 4.8$, $p_s < .02$, although this effect was not significant in the no-saccade trials, $F_f < 1$. In neither the saccade or the nosaccade trials was there any significant difference in error rates due to handedness, $F_f(1,72) = 1.3$, $p_f < .2$, $F_s < 1$, or instructions, $F_f(2,72) = 1.2$, $p_f > .3$, $F_s < 1$ 1.

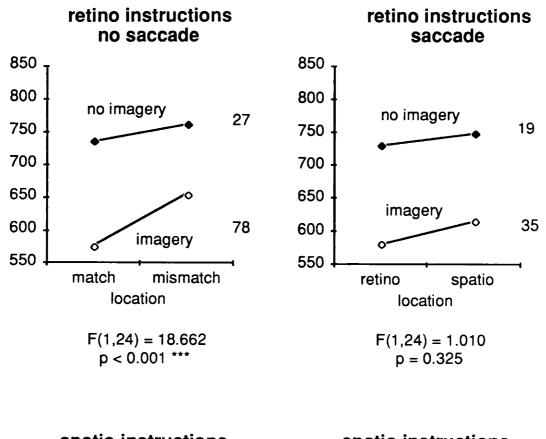
There was no significant overall difference between the error rates for stimuli at cued and uncued locations, either with or without saccades, $F_f < 1$, $F_s(1,72) = 1.1$, $p_s > .25$. In the no-saccade trials, however, there was an advantage for the cued location in the image condition that was balanced by an advantage for the uncued location in the no-image condition, $F_f(1,72) = 6.4$, $p_f < .02$. Performance in the no-image condition was only slightly better at the uncued location than at the cued location, but it raises the possibility that the faster response times at the cued location might be due in part to a speed/accuracy trade-off rather than to the allocation of visual attention, as suggested earlier. Whatever the explanation for the no-image data, there is no hint of a speed/accuracy trade-off in the image condition: When subjects knew the shape beforehand, they responded faster to stimuli at the cued location and they made fewer errors. Thus there is no reason to doubt the conclusion that performance improves when the stimulus appears at the same location as the visual image. In the saccade trials, there was no interaction between cue and retinotopic/spatiotopic location, F(1,72) = 1.4, p > .2, and thus there is no reason to believe that the retinotopic advantage in the response times is due to a speed/accuracy trade-off.

These two analyses produced some other results as well. As with the response time data, there were fewer significant effects in the saccade trials than in the no-saccade trials, probably because of the disruption associated with a saccade. In the saccade trials, there were a relatively large number of errors for the numeral 4 at 135° and for the letter J at 225°, $F_s(6,432) = 2.7$, $p_s < .02$. A similar pattern appeared in the no-saccade trials, but only for mirror-reversed stimuli, $F_f(6,432) = 2.1$, $p_f < .05$. These two shapes at these two orientations appear similar, and subjects probably confused them on some trials. In both analyses, the advantage for normal stimuli over mirror-reversed was strong in

The difference in error rates between stimuli at easy and difficult orientations varied across different types of stimuli in the no-saccade trials, suggesting once again that subjects' rotation strategies varied across conditions. In the image condition, the difficult orientations produced relatively more errors when the stimulus was mirror-reversed than when it was not, whereas there was no such difference in orientation gaps between normal and mirror-reversed stimuli in the no-image condition, $F_f(3,216) = 5.1$, $p_f < .005$. If anything, the orientation gap in the no-image condition was larger for normal than for mirrorreversed stimuli. In general, the orientation gap was fairly large in the no-image condition; in the image condition, the gap was small for normal stimuli, larger for mirror-reversed stimuli, and larger still for mirror-reversed stimuli at the uncued location, $F_f(3,216) = 3.2$, $p_f < .025$. If we assume that subjects are more likely to make errors when they are forced to rotate the stimulus, then this pattern is generally consistent with the idea that subjects usually (or always) rotate in the no-image condition, but only rotate occasionally in the image condition, generally when the stimulus differs from the image in handedness or location. There were no other significant interactions in either the saccade or the no-saccade analysis (p < .05 in all cases).

Varying the instructions. For both the saccade and the no-saccade data, separate response time ANOVAs were computed for the three types of instructions used. Each instruction group included 25 of the 75 subjects who participated in this experiment. Our purpose in manipulating the instructions was to determine whether subjects had the option of either moving their images with their eyes or attaching them to a point in space. Therefore our main concern is with the effects of location in the image and no-image condition for each type of instructions. Because there are a relatively small number of subjects in each instruction group, some of the effects described here did not achieve statistical significance, and firm conclusions are therefore inadvisable.





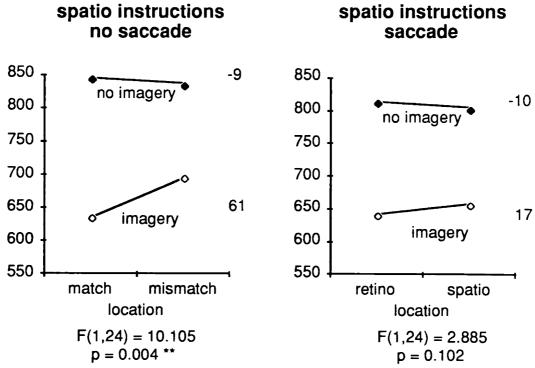


Figure 18: Response times presented separately for the three instruction groups. The numbers to the right of each graph are the

differences between the two location conditions. Below each graph is the result of the statistical test for the interaction of cue type and test stimulus location.

Figure 18 displays means from both no-saccade and saccade trials for the three instruction groups. The values to the right of each graph are the differences between response times for location mismatch and location match, or between spatiotopic and retinotopic location. When there is no saccade, the retinotopic and spatiotopic locations are the same, and thus there should be little difference between the three groups. In fact, the results for no-saccade trials with neutral instructions and retinotopic instructions were almost identical. As discussed earlier, there was in both cases an advantage for the cued location over the uncued location in the no-image condition, which probably stemmed mainly from attentional effects. The larger advantage in the image condition presumably reflects the savings that comes from having the image in the right location. The spatiotopic instructions produced a somewhat different result. In the no-image condition, there was no advantage associated with the cued location, and perhaps there was a slight disadvantage. It almost seems as if subjects were focussing their attention on the retinotopic location that would correspond to the correct spatiotopic location *if* there was an eye movement. Whatever the subjects were doing in this condition, there was still a strong cuedlocation advantage in the image condition, although it might have been somewhat less than in the other two conditions. In all three groups, the location advantage in imagery is highly significant, as indicated below each graph.

When a saccade occurred, the differences were all diminished somewhat, probably because of the disruption that the saccade introduced. The results in the no-image condition seem to reflect the instructions: responses to the retinotopic location were faster with retinotopic instructions, responses to the spatiotopic location were faster with spatiotopic instructions, and response times were

almost equal for the two locations with neutral instructions. This pattern suggests that subjects took note of the instructions and followed them, even though there were always equal numbers of stimuli at each location. In the image condition, the results also varied according to the instructions, but with one important difference: In every case, responses were faster when the stimulus appeared at the retinotopic location. The retinotopic advantage was greater with retinotopic instructions and less with spatiotopic instructions, but it was always in the same direction.

Because of the small number of subjects, this interaction failed to reach significance when the three instruction groups are analyzed individually. This interaction is significant, however, in the overall analysis, as described above. Additionally, in each of the three groups the trend is in the retinotopic direction. Taken together, these results make a strong case for the retinotopic coding of location in the image representations used in mental rotation, regardless of instructions and the allocation of attention.

These results also have implications for the conclusions from Experiment 2. We raised the possibility that the difference between the image and no-image conditions of Experiment 2 might be explained by differences in the allocation of attention between those conditions, and then concluded that such an explanation was not plausible. In the saccade trials of Experiment 3, subjects receiving spatiotopic instructions show a hint of a spatiotopic advantage in the no-image condition and a retinotopic advantage in the image condition. The no-image pattern suggests that subjects are allocating their attention more to the spatiotopic location, in accordance with the instructions. If there is indeed a retinotopic advantage in the imagery condition, then it appears to reflect image location adjustment, and not attention.

General Discussion

From the data in Experiment 3 we conclude that the visual image representations used in mental rotation interact with stimulus representations at a level before a spatiotopic coordinate transform. At this point it is difficult to guess the processing level at which imagery interacts with normal visual perception, but it is probably not not one of the earliest levels. Thus the results from Experiment 3, along with those of Irwin, Brown, & Sun and from the neurophysiology of visual cortex, suggest that the spatiotopic transform does not occur at one of the very early stages of processing, as Feldman suggests. If not, then at what processing stage could we expect the shift to occur?

It might be useful to try to place the coordinate shift in relation to another landmark on the visual processing pathway: The point at which shapes in the visual input are matched against memory representations and categorized. Assuming that there is a single such stage in visual processing, it is the stage at which spatial properties such as location, size, and orientation are factored out and represented separately from shape. In other words, this stage marks the point at which spatially-organized representations are converted to abstract representations. (Note that "spatially-organized" does not mean "spatiotopically-organized." Spatially-organized representations can be coded retinotopically or spatiotopically.) Thus we can ask whether the spatiotopic transform occurs before or after the shift to abstract representations.

As mentioned earlier, the results from Cooper & Shepard's experiment and from numerous other imagery experiments indicate that the representations used in mental rotation are spatially-organized. (Although that claim is fiercely debated. See Pylyshyn, 1973, 1981, & 1984). Likewise, the dot pattern task used by Irwin, Brown, & Sun seems to rely on a spatially-organized representation as

well. In this task, subjects must determine the single position in a 3 \times 3 grid that is not occupied by a dot in either of two patterns. When the two patterns are superimposed, this task is trivially easy. The task is much more difficult when the two patterns appear at different locations. Presumably in this case subjects rely more on abstract representations of the dot patterns. The form of these abstract representations probably emphasizes general shape properties of the pattern formed by each collection of dots. If so, these shape descriptions cannot easily be combined to determine the one unfilled position.

If the mirror-reversal task and the dots task are both done with retinotopic representations, then are all spatially-organized representations coded retinotopically? The alternative is that a representation that is spatially-organized and spatiotopic exists somewhere in the visual processing stream after the representations used in mental rotation and before the abstract coding. In Feldman's terms, there would be a retinotopic frame and a stable feature frame, but for some reason the stable feature frame would not be the basis for visual imagery (or at least for mental rotation), even though it would be spatially organized. If the spatiotopic transform is postponed until after the level of image representations, then is there much to be gained by doing it before object identification, or might it be postponed until the level of abstract coding?

This question is best considered in relation to Ungerleider & Mishkin's (1982) hypotheses about separate processing streams in the visual system. They present extensive evidence that there is one subsystem in the temporal lobe to identify shapes and a separate subsystem in the posterior parietal lobe to process locations. If a dedicated subsystem is handling location information, then this subsystem probably performs the spatiotopic transform. One advantage would be that the representations that this subsystem employs would be specialized for recording location and would not be complicated by the presence of complex

shape information, making the spatiotopic transform that much simpler. Therefore, the representations that contained spatiotopic location coordinates would not include shape information, and the representations in the identity subsystem that included shape information would not be spatiotopically coded. There would be no spatially-organized representation that included shape information and was encoded spatiotopically.

In light of the division of labor between the identity and location subsystems, the findings from Experiments 2 and 3 have important implications for the role of image representations in visual processing. If the identity subsystem specializes in recognizing shapes regardless of location, then it probably utilizes representations that are location-independent. If the representations used in mental rotation are location-specific, as Experiment 2 demonstrated, and if these representations are coded in a retinotopic reference frame, as Experiment 3 demonstrated, then these representations are probably situated at a level of processing before the identity processing stream and the location processing stream diverge.

One way in which visual imagery might be implemented at this processing level is illustrated in a model of high-level visual processing by Kosslyn, Flynn, Amsterdam, & Wang (in press). This model also demonstrates how the spatiotopic shift might be implemented in a system with separate subsystems for identity and location. The first stage of their model uses retinotopically coded representations of the input at a number of different scales. An "attention window" acts to select select a particular area within one of these representations. The selected area is normalized to produce a location-independent and size-independent representation that is then passed on to the identity subsystem. In this process, the retinotopic location of the selected area is passed on to the location subsystem. This subsystem also receives information

about head and body position and uses it to transform retinotopic coordinates to spatiotopic coordinates. The abstract representation produced by the identity subsystem is recombined with the spatiotopic location information to make a complete, abstract representation of the visual input. Information can be fed backwards through both the identity and location subsystems to form visual images within the original retinotopic representations.

If there is no spatially-organized representation that is coded spatiotopically, then we must conclude that information from different fixations is not integrated at the level of spatially-organized representations, as Feldman claimed, but instead at the level of abstract representations. This point is also well-illustrated in the model by Kosslyn, Flynn, Amsterdam, & Wang. As the eyes move from position to position, and also as the attention window moves within each fixation, different abstract shape representations produced by the identity subsystem accumulate in an associative memory, each coupled with the appropriate spatiotopic coordinates provided by the location subsystem. Together they form an abstract representation of the environment, coded in spatiotopic coordinates.

In Feldman's view, the lack of a spatially-organized, spatiotopic representation leaves us without a viable substrate for our subjective visual experience. This is a very difficult issue to address. Even though we would describe the visual objects and scenes that we experience as "spatially-organized," we have little basis for concluding that these experiences must be grounded in spatially-organized representations, and not abstract recodings of spatially-organized information. Ultimately it seems more prudent to question the nature of the visual experience than the nature of the mental representation that is suggested by the experimental evidence.

In conclusion, the empirical results presented here provide evidence that subjects engaged in a mental rotation task utilize representations in which location information is coupled with shape information. The represented location can be adjusted, but these adjustments are performed gradually, either smoothly or in small steps. Thus location in these representations appears to be adjusted in a manner similar to that used for size and orientation adjustments. Location adjustments, however can be performed quickly, while orientation adjustments are relatively slow. These representations are coded retinotopically, but it makes little difference in everyday processing, because represented location can be adjusted quickly and easily whenever necessary.

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Appendix 1

Overall analysis from Experiment 1

This appendix contains the results from the analysis of variance including both the shape and no-shape cue trials that was reported in Experiment 1. Included are the means from each main effect and from every interaction that was significant (p < .05). Listed below are the factors used in this analysis and the labels associated with them.

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cue - type of cue presented before stimulus
      orient - no-shape cue, giving information only about orientation
      both - shape cue, giving information about both shape and orientation
test - character used for test stimulus
      numfour - the digit 4
      letterr - the letter R
      letterj - the letter J
orient - orientation of cue and test stimulus
      (The number in each label gives the orientation in degrees. 0° is the
      standard orientation, and the value increases as the shape rotates
      clockwise.)
      ort000
      ort045
      ort090
      ort135
      ort180
      ort225
      ort270
      ort315
hand - handedness of test stimulus
      nor - normal
      mir - mirror reversed
pos - location of test stimulus
      pos1 - upper left
      pos2 - lower left
      pos3 - lower right
      pos4 - upper right
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	22.0345	14.4107	13.0870	19.0408	37.3713		SE	23.9306	12.6505	17 1562	12.0815	12.7288	13.4895	23.4981	18.2805	11.0/24	12.8113	10.6202	12.8712	12.9448	25.7711	16.5999	11.4075	19.8006	17.3016	14.3117	14.8244	20.9331	37.6132	25.8690	22.8217	22.7934	25.8969	31.5973	45.9357	23 5741	32.7105	24.6359	19.9932	29.9208	24.9133	14.3389	27.7247	48.3757	21.3637	22.3455	34.63//	58.3716			SE 7 0587	5.4595	,	;	SE 23.1385	
	352.5514	230.5708	209.3926	304.6521	597.9401		SD	270.7434	143.1243	194 0500	136.6869	144.0103	152.6157	265.8505	206.8205	156.9214	144.9429	120.1543	145.6213	146.4534	291.5671	187.8069	129.0608	224.0181	133.7473	161.9179	167.7191	236.8312	425.5445	292.6741	258.1976	257.8780	292.9901	357.4827	519.7031	533.2/44	370.0776	278.7228	226.1969	338.5152	281.8616	388.5005	313.6694	547,3087	241.7022	252.8108	354.8814	660.3997	,		SD 501	302.5944		1	SD 453.4194	
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200.445.2 206.4655 344.1913 344.1913 345.2014 355.2014 355.2014 355.2016 355.2016 270.276 270.	96 313, 6653 206, 2647 206 315, 6558 4948 144, 1863 266 513, 6653 266, 2647 265 318, 6653 266, 2647 265 316, 6559 267 319, 4665 266, 2647 265 267, 2991 267,	383 96 3146.026.7 384 96 3146.039.2 384 96 3146.039.2 381 96 3146.039.2 382 36 336.039.2 382 36 337.3 382 36 337.3 383 36 314.0 384 36 314.0 385 36 319.0 384 36 461.657.0 384 36 447.567.7 384 36 447.567.7 384 36 447.567.7 384 36 447.567.7 384 36 446.423.2 384 36 447.567.7 384 36 446.423.2 384 36 446.423.2 384 36 447.567.7 384 36 447.567.7 384 36 447.567.7 384 36 447.567.7 384 36 <	nor ppss1 384 38 <t< td=""></t<>
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441.2189 444.2189 104.0495 104.0495 105.099 10		3 8 8 8 9 6 9 9 9 9 9 9 9 9 9 9 9 9 9 9 9	MIT POSS 384 96 96 96 96 96 96 96 96 96 96 96 96 96
			December December

Exper	Experiment 1 analysis	alysis		Thu M	Thu May 11 15:31:08 1989	1989
thp thps/	154296.0732 2410952,0117	9 06	25716.0122 26788.3557	0.960	0.457	
cthp cthps/	170193,9078	9 06	28365.6513 19615.9091	1.446	1.446 0.206	
ohp ohps/	1642658.8723 9779467.2551	21 315	78221.8511 31045.9278	2.520	2.520 0.000 ***	
cohp cohps/	409320.4854 10534763.0998	21 315	19491.4517 33443.6924	0.583	0.929	
tohp tohps/	1206519.8106 17215313.4494	42	28726.6622 27325.8944	1.051	0.386	
ctohp ctohps/	1452673.3562 16985383.7088	42	34587.4609 26960.9265	1.283	0.113	

Appendix 2

Overall analysis from Experiment 2

This appendix contains the results from the analysis of variance reported in Experiment 2. Included are the means from each main effect and from every interaction that was significant (p < .05). Listed below are the factors used in this analysis and the labels associated with them.

```
cue - type of cue presented before stimulus
      orient - no-image (no-shape) cue
      both - image (shape) cue
shape - character used for test stimulus
      numfour - the digit 4
      letterr - the letter R
      letterj - the letter J
horz - location of cue
      0 - on left
      1 - on right
orient - orientation of cue and test stimulus in degrees
      45
      135
      225
      315
mirr - handedness of test stimulus
      0 - normal
      1 - mirror reversed
```

dis - distance between cue and stimulus

0 - same location as cue

1 - 1.9 cm from cue

2 - 8.3 cm from cue

3 - 11.0 cm from cue

vert - placement of stimulus in relation to cue

hi - in the direction towards the top of the imaginary circle

lo - in the direction towards the bottom

Experiment 2 anal	analysis		Thu May		11 15	:19:40	1989	Э										
									orient			2 -	2 E	180	180 672.9444 180 659.3333	44 249.9823	23 18.6326 58 19.1777	326 777
CE: orient		į	1	,	2	24 43	G	S.	orlent				Jo	180	654			362
cue snape note otte	ם שדוו	2	hi hi	1080	720	463.9556	218.2101	8.1322	orient			m r	Z .	180	692		`	3.3772
315	0		10	1080	720	441.9810	165.2983	6.1603	orlent	c	- 0	n 0	2 72	540	579			169
315	٦.		7 .	1080	720	524.6551	212.4339	F. 7760	orient	. 0	0	0	Jo	540				15.7394
225	- 0		2 1	1080	720	575.2704	251.6528	9.3785	orient	0	0	7	귣 .	180	200			152
225	0		lo.	1080	720	583.2148	72.6137	10.1597	orient	0 6		7 1	2 7	180	180 584.62	22 260.9995		19.4538
225			귣 5	1080	720	696.5639	355.5086	11.3307	orlent	0 0		1	Jo	180	584.			1564
45	۰ 0		2 7	1080	720	451.2282	170.7469	6.3634	orient	0	0 0	۰,	Z .	180	621.	7167 290.45		1234
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45			72.	1080	720	532.5407	290.0466	10.8094	orient	> 0	٠.	• •	2	540	656.			18.6958
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135	۰ -		2 2	1080	720	691.5861	362.5898	13.5129	orient	0 6			걸 드	180	180 648.016/ 180 666.2667	2667 278,4080		20.7513
135	-		10	1080	720	700.9130	295.5393	11.0141	orlent	o e		- m	2 7	180				41.0683
correct and and an article									orient		1	ı	10	180			۳,	31.4487
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		ì	Į	240	360	504.6833	175.9695	9.2744	both	,	0 0	0 (9 7	940			_	8752
	0		lo	540	360	490.2472	189.4510	9.9849	both			v ~	: 2	180		89 243.7258		18.1662
	н.		7.	240	360	574.6435	222.1895	12 8219	both		0	1	'n	180	•			13.4776
orient 313	٦ ۵		9 7	540	360	672.0333	260.3889	13.7237	both	,	0	1	의 :	180	•			14.4707
			10	540	360	695.7806	292.5763	15.4201	both		0	m	걸 .	180	180 457.0944	-		10.1947
	-		Ħ	540	360	800.4343	415.6922	21.9089	both		0 -	ტ (9 7	240				3.4345
			의 :	540	360	761.4194	273.2260	14.4003	both hoth				2 2	540		122 166.3037	-	2.3955
	0 0		11.	240	360	514.1713	126.5109	17.2086	both		-	2	귣	180				15.8671
orient 45	о п		2 7	540	360	590.9111	371.7353	19.5922	both	٦,	٦,	۰ -	2 7	180	180 553.3000			14.3466
	-		lo	240	360	583.8519	303.4171	15.9915	both	- -			# A	180			25.	.1677
orient 135	0 0		Z -	540	360	729.2463	338.6461 284.6199	15.0008	both		-	e	겉	180			٦.	9825
	۰ -		2 2	240	360	786.8102	401.4913	21.1604	both		- 0	e e	27	180	180 602.7556	56 265.3162	1	9.7751
	-		9	540	360	782.7593	289.1730	15.2408	both	o e	- 0	. 0	1 2	540		105		8503
both 315	0 0		Z .	540	360	423.2278	247.1273	6.2715	both	. 0	0	2	Ŧ	180				5.3689
	o -		2 7	540	360	474.6667	189.7425	10.0003	both	o	0	. 2	2 7	180	-	133 157.7962	; ;	9797
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both 225	0 -		9 7	540	360	592,6935	242.2529	12.7679	both	0	0	е .	요 :	180		3278 206.1528	5. 15.	3657
			. a	540	360	637.7222	320,6341	16.8989	both	0 (0 0	2 5	540		159	11.	9730
	0		핕.	540	360	398.2852	117.7072	6.2037	both both	9 0		8 0	H	180		268	20.	0484
both 45	o -		9 7	540	360	474.1704	153.1929	8.0740	both	o	1	7	의 :	180	180 610.6722	722 346.7657	25.	2294
	-		Jo	540	360	467.9741	147.8648	7.7932	both	D C			2 2	160		216	16.	1216
both 135	0 0		Z .	540	360	477.7963	221.2163	11.6591	both	. 0	-	е	7	180	180 582.5	287	9444 21.	4621
both 135			Z	540	360	596.3620	289.7032	15.2687	both	0	-	m	10	180	290	7 23		
			o I	540	360	619.0667	279.0596	14.7077	FACTOR:	[qne	cne	shape	horz	orient	mirr	et b	vert	
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shape horz or		etb	vert	= 5	2 5	MEAN COST	SD 256 2544	SE 1001.001	TYPE :	RANDOM WILHIN					i			
orient 1	> c		E 2	540	180	604.1222	238.6359	17.7869	FACTOR:	DATA								
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orient 1	0 1	7	약 :	180	180	594.9444	264.3455	27 9923		4								
orient 1	0 0		<u> </u>	180	180	592,5611	242.8558	18.1014	SOURCE	SS	đ	¥	MS	D.				
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orlent 1	٥.	n (27	180	180	648.6778	513.1429	38.2474	mean 9/	3708779082.26U5 149382616.9434	1 7	10670186.9245						
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Exper	Experiment 2 analys	lysi	S	Thu May	ay 11 15:19:40 1989	4				
/60	7287360.1046	14	520525.7218			ом от э /	879583.8554 1647535.5054	3	293194.6185 39227.0358	7.474 0.000 ***
shape 99/	11959253.9989 10286514.8600	28	5979626.9995 367375.5307	16.277	0.000	COM COMS/	838038.4304 2667349.6562	3	279346.1435 63508.3251	4,399 0.009 **
C38/	1171289.4681 3160249.4172	28	585644.7341 112866.0506	5.189	0.012 *	mos /seos	229382.1526 5193798.0386	9 2	38230.3588 61830.9290	0.618 0.715
horz hs/	35560,5588 2022765,6597	14	35560.5588 144483.2614	0.246	0.628	CSOMS/	399085.3213	9 78	66514.2202 53836.4097	1.235 0.297
ch chs/	19314.8417 677866,8314	1 14	19314.8417 48419.0594	0.399	0.538	mod /seod	40202.9052	£ 2	13400.9684 34733.8908	0.386 0.764
ah Shs/	81076.3929 1572821.2149	2 28	40538.1965 56172.1862	0.722	0.495	chom choma/	232602.6692	3	77534.2231	1.225 0.313
csh cshs/	21885.4224 687923.2842	2 8 2 8	10942.7112 24568.6887	0.445	0.645	Eode Perode	235685.9536	% 2	39280.9923 37437.7107	1.049 0.400
orient os/	66322955.1115 17293741.7258	42	22107651.7038 411755.7554	53.691	0.000 ***	cshom cshoms/	102437,2768	9 2	17072.8795	0.391 0.883
00	6360493.8734 4584508.4707	42	2120164.6245 109154.9636	19.423	0.000 •••	dis ds/	7531944.7863 3229304.2948	3	2510648.2621 76888.1975	32.653 0.000 ***
06	532900.6720 11255091.9565	9 8	88818.1120 133989.1900	0.663	0.680	po po	812060.2106 2025550.6931	3	270686.7369 48227.3975	5.613 0.002 **
C909/	1107457.4798 6476744.3750	۵.5	184576.2466 77104.0997	2.394	0.035 •	be sds/	633313.2737	9 °	105552.2123	2.048 0.068
ho hos/	154965.1622 1996098.7287	3	\$1655.0541 47526.1602	1.087	0.365	csd /spsc	188158.7246 1930096.1478	9 6	31359.7874	1,365 0.238
cho chos/	84712.2028 1318594.6956	42	28237.4009 31395.1118	0.899	0.450	bd /sbu	788831.7490 2903463.1465	3	262943.9163 69130.0749	3.804 0.017 *
sho shos/	161182.5355 4285863.3232	e 4	26863.7559 51022.1824	0.527	0.787	chd chds/	73186.3196	3	24395.4399 55669.6688	0.438 0.727
csho cshos/	99461.8953 4964680.0587	9 4	16576.9826 59103.3340	0.280	0.945	bhe shds/	19587.2229 3257509.0352	9 4	3264.5371 38779.8695	0.084 0.998
mirr ms/	24503998.7953 11722264.8644	14	24503998.7953 837304.6332	29.265	0.000 .0	cshd cshds/	899648.1335 4768269.7229	9 6	149941.3556 56765.1157	2.641 0.021 *
Cm Cm3/	340837.0297 2208561.3335	14	340837.0297 157754.3810	2.161	0.164) o o	498118.0179	9	55346.4464 36301.8250	1.525 0.146
9m 9ms/	223688.9465 4545301.6341	2 8 3 8	111844.4732	0.689	0.510	poo	599691.2596	9	66632.3622 50834.5405	1.311 0.238
CSM CSMS/	67412.0937 2194576.5429	2 28	33706.0468 78377.7337	0.430	0.655	pos	968250.3400	18	53791.6856 40897.8459	1.315 0.178
hm hms/	200205.6116 2176314.4227	14	200205.6116 155451.0302	1.288	0.275	boes csods/	1107510.2223	18	61528.3457	1.473 0.100
chm chms/	371250.9705 1282587.9325	1 4	371250.9705 91613.4238	4.052	0.064	bod bods/	711869.4164	9	79096.6018 39619.2401	1.996 0.045
shm shms/	328467.8051 1551996.5437	2 8	164233.9026 55428.4480	2.963	0.068	chod chods/	88186.4773 5203370,7039	9	9798.4975 41296.5929	0,237 0.988
cshm cshms/	7488.8617 951086.3003	28	3744.4309 33967.3679	0.110	968.0	shod shods/	832183.0077 11570117.5140	18	46232.3893 45913.1647	1.007 0.452

	368678.0475	1216334.2908 28 43440.5104	v 67046.7534 2 33523.3767 0.706 0.502	41065.6460 3	2098069.6154	1987187.9420 42 47313.9986	187953.3413 6 31325.5569 0.634 0.702	300367,4088	2291836.7012 84 27283.7703	189782-4205 3 63260.8068 1.735 0.174 8/ 1531510.7395 42 36464.5414	61530.0084 3	1031283.3216 42 24554.3648	shov 343536,9493 6 57589,4915 1.056 0.396 shovs/ 4581994,2839 84 54547,5510	cshov 444652.3793 6 74108.7299 1.241 0.294 cshovs/ 5016187.9062 84 59116.5227	55706.9424 1 927358.6067 14		18232.7200 2 977065.1044 28	Camv 88722.5116 2 44361.2558 0.878 0.427 camvs/ 1414415.9904 28 50514.8568	13334.3085 1 13334.3085 0.566 0.464 s/ 33073.6135 14 23576.6867	chmv 19472.2662 1 19472.2662 0.436 0.520 chmvs/ 624886.2634 14 44634.7331	bhw 127430.0635 2 63715.0318 1.635 0.213 shmvs/ 1090856.0820 28 38959.1458	cahmy 6977_2974 2 3488_6487 0.128 0.880 cahmwa/ 763504.7754 28 27268.0277	. 234347.0504 3 78115.6835 3.190 0.033 9 s/ 1028448.1239 42 24486.8601	comv 198709.5209 3 135903.1736 3.762 0.018 comvs/ 1483855.2652 42 35329.8873	somvs 344097.7954 6 57349.6326 1.166 0.332 somvs/ 4131854.1259 84 49188.7356	450264.7409 6
Thu May 11 15:19:40 1989 5	1.292 0.193 chvs/	9nv 9hvs/	7.708 0.000 *** cahv	0.861 0.469	2.494 0.029	/6AO	1.351 0.244 90v	2.100 0.115 csov		0.162 U.921 hove/	1.380 0.232 chov		2.063 0.066 shov	1.002 0.442 cshov	0.763 0.650 mv	0.798 0.702 CHW (CHV 9)	U.890 0.591 VAR.8		0.244 0.997 hmvs/	0.321	0.567 0.921 shmv		0.452 0.512 onto	0.195	0.127 0.881 somv	0.646 0.435 Caomy
	69084.7413	53487.6120	155500,2065 20172,8761	33678.7399 39107.2067			99561.8747 1 73671.5883	94514.2530 2		6721.9616 41507.2686	92885.4793 1		90055.1984 2 43650.1103	43128.9719 43030.6038	29955.8312 39238.7383	34737.7575 43518.0080	43199.7020 48515.0914	65179.9277 1 48282.6839	12256.7327 50205.0833		29	2.6889 0 62896.3228		54892.7468 1 31620.0143	8824.0719 0 69277.7575	24228.5293 0 37495.2572
lment 2 analysis	1243525.3440 18		466500.6195 3 847260.7958 42	101036.2198 3 1642502.6801 42	908295.8297	5099507.0688 84	597371.2479 6 6188413.4203 84	263542.7591 3		20165.8848 3 1743305.2803 42	557312.8758 6	,	540331,1907 6 3666609,2634 84	388160.7471 9 5421856.0780 126	269602.4806 9 4944081.0256 126	625279,6354 18 10966538,0224 252	777594.6359 18 12225803.0204 252	586619.3496 9 6083618.1733 126	110310,5945 9 6325840.4909 126	833842.5243 18 10312294.0426 252	382765.6258 18 9457541.1155	2.6889 1 880548.5194 14		109785,4935 2 885360.4011 28	17648.1438 2 1939777.2104 28	24228.5293 1 524933.6014 14
Experiment	cahod	cshods/	md mds/	cmd cmds/	pws	/spms	camd camds/	bmd bmd		chmds/	shmd shmds/		cshmda/ cshmda/	/spwo	comds/	somds/	csomds/	homd homds/	chomd chomds/	shomd shomds/	cshomd cshomds/	vert vs/	CV CV3/	9V 8V9/	/8/80 C3/8/	hv hvs/

3.686 0.019 0.335 0.800

1.455 0.204

64486.5270 44305.4737

386919.1620 3721659.7947 40053.4086 1671735.2517 580348,8076 2204323,3357 313262.5953 4396549.4862

13351.13**62** 39803.2203 193449.6025 52483.8889 0.998 0.433

52210.4326 52339.8748

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463863.8968 687657.6795 5137420.0929

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76406.4088 40773.1753

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285467.0800 9 7089684.3864

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61053.3643 1.499 0.090 252 40742.8820 62544.1946 1.490 0.159 41980.4658

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25771.3436 0.757 0.750 252 34064.8363

50908.8300 1.224 0.242 252 41602.2545

916358.9391 18 10483768.1377 463884.1852 18 8584338.7566

Appendix 3

No-Saccade and Saccade analyses from Experiment 3

This appendix contains the results from the two analyses of variance for the saccade and no-saccade trials in Experiment 3. Included for both analyses are the means from each main effect and from every interaction that was significant in either analysis (p < .05). Listed below are the factors used in these two analyses and the labels associated with them.

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cue - type of cue presented before stimulus
       sh0 - no-image (no-shape) cue
      sh1 - image (shape) cue
dir - type of instructions given to subject
       noi - neutral instructions, no suggestion of retino or spatio results
       ret - when eyes move, suggest image be in same retinotopic location
       spt - when eyes move, suggest image be in same spatiotopic location
pm - position match
       In no-saccade trials:
              pm1 - cue in same location as stimulus
              pm0 - cue in different location than stimulus
       In saccade trials:
              pm1 - cue in same retinotopic location as stimulus
              pm0 - cue in same spatiotopic location as stimulus
hm - handedness of test stimulus
       hm1 - normal
       hm0 - mirror reversed
shape - character used for test stimulus
        numfour - the digit 4
        letterr - the letter R
        letterj - the letter J
 ior - orientation of cue and test stimulus
        ior0 - 45°
        ior1 - 135°
        ior2 - 225°
        ior3 - 315°
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dsci	366440.3136	3136	12	30536	30536.6928	0.799	0.651	
scis/d	16500840.0327	.0327	432	38196	38196.3890			
paci	290426.1858	1858	9	48404	48404.3643	1.232	0.289	
psc1s/d	16975898.5898	5898	432	39296	39296.0616			
dpscl	143753.8650	.8650	12	11979	11979.4888	0.305	0.988	
psc1s/d	16975898.5898	5898	432	39296	39296.0616			
haci	253836.9714	9714	9	42306	42306.1619	1.052	0.391	
hsc1s/d	17372880.2856	2856	432	40215	40215.0007			
dhaci	315260.4878	4878	12	26271	26271.7073	0.653	0.796	
hsc1s/d	17372880.2856	2856	432	4021	40215.0007			
phaci	133168.3361	3381	ø	22198	22198.0563	0.579	0.747	
phacis/d		16559596.8694	.8694	432	38332.4002	.4002		
dphsci	350208.0269	0269	12	29184	29184.0022	0.761	0.690	
phacia/d	1	16559596.8694	. 8694	432	38332.4002	4002		

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		593.4400	625.7500	627.5300	735.8425	012.6100	751.2150	682.1950	708.6900	691.1150	763.8650	779.3500	784.4650	649.5700	687.9850	695.5250		7467	614.1742	765.7564		2462	627.3864	767.8411	600.9619	763.6717		MEAN	660.5600	804.2806	567.7883	121.6362		MEAN	774 8261	596.8236	601.6108		NYAM	845.0694	806.4350	635.0028	643.1739	728.1317	743.2172	560.0478				765.3517	564.9400	595.0667	790.8542	786.9892	629.0242	625.0383	803.5958	779.9000
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Ē.	shape cue	lor	c	z	MEAN	SD	SE	hml		shcl	loro				9.8005	
0 E C	letterr	lor2	594	300	808.4050	327.9080	18.9318	E 3		shc1	1013		50 502.2033	44 321.4107	15.1514	
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Dmd	letterr	Lor3	594	300	637.4233	240.1327	13.8641	In.d		3hc0	loro				12.7062	
OMU O	numfour	lor2	579	300	847.9200	351.4824	20.2928	let.		shc0	lor3		0 617.8922	22 288.2231	13.38/0	
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017	numfour	lor3	597	300	668.2167	285.3897	16.4770	E.	shape	cue	ior			AN SD	SE	
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	letterj	1010	166	000	626.9700	231 6022	16.4720		letterr	ahe!	ior3				13.0624	
LEG TEN	letterr	1012	591	300	722.2983	320.7815	18.5203		letterr	9hc0	1or2				19.9810	
1 mg	letterr	lor1	591	300	713.9900	304.7554	17.5951		letterr	9hc0	lorl		300 838.8667		19.2178	
hml	letterr	lor0	965	300	531.5100	230.1162	13.2858		letterr	shc0	lor0		00 611.0500	00 248.3801	14.3402	
led i	letterr	1013	965	300	552.7100	258.8345	14.9438		letterr	anco anco	lor3				17.5020	
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Lm1	numfour	lor3	597	300	581.8600	262.1695	15.1364		numfour	shcl	1or3		269	67 220.9304	12.7554	
hml	letterj	1or2	290	300	728.3083	307.0816	17.7294		numfour	ahc0	lor2		8 6		20.3695	
[E]	letterj	10rl	592	300	761.2400	351.9473	20.3197		numfour	טטע פּ	lori		300 703.2533	33 321.6085	18.5681	
IEC .	letter j	lors	665	300	545.5733	254.0339	14.6667		nomina	ahc0	1or3		89		18.1652	
			,						letter	shcl	1or2		719.		17.4072	
SOURCE: cue tor									letter	shc1	lori				16.6852	
dir pm hm	shape cue	lor	G	2	MEAN	SD	35		letter	shc1	lor0		300 529.6867	17 199 7519	12.3328	
	she1	1or2	1773	006	699.5922	295.2448	9.8415		letter	shc0	lor3	577 3	_		19.8864	
	shc1	loro	1793	900	534.4372	199.2566	6,6419		letter	shc0	iori				19,3034	
	shel	1or3	1797	900	541,5689	216.6401	7,2213		letter	shc0	loro		300 663.3267		18.1837	
	ahc0	1or2	1744	006	873.6089	347.6826	11.5894		letterj	9hc0	lor3	595 3	00 644.5433	33 272.3389	15.7235	
	טטמפ פרילפ	1011	1784	000	656.5539	241.0214	11,36/4	FACTOB.	1.0	E		ž	shape	cue	ior tin	1me
	shco	for 1	1780	006	661.6528	283.9216	9.4641									7200
1								TYPE : RANDOM	BETWEEN	WITHIM				NIHLIM NIHLIM		ATA
dir om bm	shape cue	tor	c	z	MEAN	SD	SE	SOURCE	SS df		æ	ía,	Ω.			
0 110		1or2	18	450	717.6289	312.2743	14.7208	۱	l				1			
OMG	9hc1	tori	888	450	698.8300	297.1689	14.0087	dir 5364391.7342	1.7342 2	26821	2682195.8671	277.0	0.466			
O MEL	Shot Lode	1010		450	549.9267	214.8618	9.8309	3/d 2/06/2019		1	11771.					
O Med	shco	1or2	998	450	884.4156	358.2176	16.8865		421193.7168 1	4211	421193.7168	7.661	0.007			
0 Ed.	ahc0	lori	876	450	862.8867	352.3470	16.6098	ps/d 3958517.9237		549	79.4156					
owd owd	shc0	lor3	6 90	450	665.4767	287.7596	13.5651	dp 167738	3.0313 2	838	83869.0157	1.525	0.224			
Let.	shc1	lor2	889	450	681.5556	276.3436	13.0270	ps/d 3958517.9237		549	9.4156				,	
E E	she!	lor1	988	450	525.7144	189.3438	12.3688	hm 12977474.5800	1.5800	129774	74.5800	92.530	0.000			
e e	shc1	tor3	668	450	533.2111	218.3226	10.2918	P,	1.1796 72	1402	140252.0580					
Ē. Ī	Shc0	10r2	878	450	862.8022	336.8704	15.8802	db 125366.5581		626	62683.2791	0.447	0.641			
TEG	ahc0	1ord	894	450	659.8344	280.3869	13.2176	,d 10	3.1796 72	1402	140252.0580					
pm1	9hc0	1or3	893	450	657.8289	280.2992	13.2134					,,,				
SOURCE: hm cue lor								ph 54863.2813 phs/d 1693867.7329	1.2813 I 7.7329 72	235:	23525.9407	755.7	0.131			
EG	shape cue	1or	-	z	MEAN	SD	SE			,			244			
0md 0md	shc1 shc1	10r2 10r1	980	450	730.8922	296.8899 294.2118	13.9955 13.8693	dph 67621.9702 phs/d 1693867.7329	67621.9702 2 93867.7329 72	235.	23525.9407	<u>.</u>				
0mg	shc1 shc1	lor0	895	450	562.7878	186.1764	8.7764 10.1970		7.7480 2		834738.8740	8.010	0.001			
DEA	shco	lor2	966	450	922.5133	365.9738	17.2522	3s/d 15007065.9875			15.7360					
Omd	9 pp	1010	889	450	707.2178	318.7513	15.0261	d9 775(7750.6603 4	19	1937.6651	0.019	666.0			

Exper	Experiment 3 Sa	Saccade	analysis		Fri May 12 14:26:46 1989		e			
p/ss	15007065.9875	144	104215.7360			lor	59438908.5619	ъ	19812969.5206	238.139 0.000 ***
p) b)sed	278631.7634	2 144	139315.8817 39641.3821	3.514	0.032 •	19/d	17971042.9138		83199.2727	0 905 0 492
dps pssq	125971.0216	7	31492.7554	0.794	0.531	1s/d	17971042.9138	216	B3199.2727	
2 E	41930.6515	2 4	20965.3257	285	2,7	pi pis/d	114965.3996 7297059,3829	3 216	38321.7999 33782.6823	1.134 0.336
b/ss/d dhs	6226778.6742	144	43241.5186	600		dpi pis/d	69237,6290 7297059,3829	216	11539.6048 33782.6823	0.342 0.914
p/664	6226778.6742	144	43241.5186	7.8.0	710.0	hi his/d	707689.9425	3 216	235896.6475	4.781 0.003 **
b/ssyd	3652.8794 5520359.3133	144	1826.4397 38335.8286	0.048	0.953	dhi	313473.4810	٠	52245.5802	1.059 0.388
dphs phss/d	452701.6823 5520359.3133	144	113175.4206 38335.8286	2.952	0.022 •	his/d phi	10656589.8837 52248.8618	216	49336.0643	0.400 0.753
cue cs/d	41358906.1689 17789532.8271	1 72	41358906.1689	167.393	0.000 ***	phis/d dphi	9402061.1354	216	43528.0608	1.731 0.115
dc cs/d	87661.8009 17789532.8271	272	43830.9005	0.177	0.838	phis/d	9402061.1354	216	43528.0608	
S.	222878.2613		222878.2613	5.888	0.018	als/d	22830857.2025	432	52849.2065	
pcs/d dpc	2725458.9546	27 2	37853.5966	0 163		dat als/d	920279.2313 22830857.2025	12 4 32	76689.9359 52849.2065	1.451 0.140
pcs/d	2725458.9546	27	37853.5966			psi psis/d	175321.8310 15332720.1108	432	29220.3052 35492.4077	0.823 0.552
hcs/d	3024336.6329	72	42004.6755	2.649	0.108	dpsi	624305.4123	12	52025.4510	1.466 0.134
dhc hcs/d	38895,7815 3024336.6329	27	19447.8907 42004.6755	0.463	0.631	para/a hat	606873.1069	432	33492.4077	2.776 0.012 *
phc phcs/d	15129.3012 3089046.9579	1 72	15129.3012 42903.4300	0.353	0.554	hsis/d dhsi	15739736,1075	432	36434.5743	0,656 0,793
dphc phcs/d	100733.6419	2 27	50366.8209	1.174	0.315	hais/d	15739736.1075	432	36434.5743	
. છ	101781.6892	. 2	50890.8446	1.416	0.246	phsi phsis/d	107118.5734 13018094.9633	432	17853.0956 30134.4791	0.592 0.736
scs/d dsc	5176148.0542 69891.9753	144	35945.4726			dphsl phsis/d	279478.2133 13018094.9633	12 432	23289.8511 30134.4791	0.773 0.679
scs/d	5176148.0542	144	35945.4726			ci cis/d	1575491.2453 10849666.4846	3 216	525163.7484 50229.9374	10.455 0.000 ***
pscs/d	3959768.3192	144	27498.3911		0./31	dci cis/d	374711.5566	516	62451.9261	1.243 0.285
dbac baca/d	208553.5002 3959768.3192	144	52138.3751 27498.3911	1.896	0.114	pc1	95590.1646	315	31863.3882	0.998 0.394
haca/d	82891.5944 3725980.8583	144	41445.7972 25874.8671	1.602	0.205	dpci	178148.6973		29691.4495	0.930 0.474
dhac haca/d	62993.7660 3725980.8583	144	15748.4415 25874.8671	0.609	0.657	pcis/d hei	6892884.1121	216	31911.5005	000.0
phac	16280.4140	~ ;	8140.2070	0.262 (0.770	hcis/d	8939025.8204	216	41384.3788	
dphsc	164389.9823	₽ ₽ ₽	31048.8006	707	776	dhci hcis/d	284787.1416 8939025.8204	6 216	47464.5236	1.147 0.336
phaca/d	4471027.2808	144	31048.8006			phci phcis/d	29742.7357 8223872.3637	3 216	9914.2452 38073.4832	0.260 0.854

Experiment	ന	Saccade	analysis		Fri	Fri May 12	H
dphci phcis/d	211312.7912 8223872.3637	6 216	35218.7985 38073.4832	0.925	0.478		
sci scis/d	357717.6908 15988384.8392	432	59619,6151 37010,1501	1.611	0.142		
dsci scis/d	350568.5430 15988384.8392	12	29214.0452 37010.1501	0.789	0.662		
psci pscis/d	178306.7498 16435500.2392	432	29717.7916 38045.1394	0.781	0.585		
dpsci pscis/d	782235.2715 16435500.2392	12	65186.2726 38045.1394	1.713	0.061		
hsci hscis/d	240934.0762 15712945.9233	432	40155.6794 36372.5600	1.104	0.359		
dheci hecis/d	432542.3651 15712945.9233	12	36045.1971 36372.5600	0.991	0.456		
phsc1 phsc1s/d	208671.1466 208281	.1466 6 20828173.3525	34778.5244 0.7 432 48213.3642	0.721	0,633		
dphaci phacis/d	889637.2822 208281	.2822 12 20828173.3525	74136.4402 1.5 432 48213.3642	1.538	0.108		

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