A 2D Gabor-wavelet baseline model out-performs a 3D surface model in scene-responsive cortex

Anna Shafer-Skelton[1,2], Timothy F. Brady[1], & John T. Serences[1,3]

[1] Department of Psychology, University of California, San Diego, La Jolla, USA
[2] Department of Psychology, University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia, USA
[3] Neurosciences Graduate Program, University of California, San Diego, La Jolla, USA

Correspondence:
Anna Shafer-Skelton
ashafers@upenn.edu

Short title: 2D Gabor-wavelet model out-performs 3D surface model in scene-responsive cortex)

Abstract

Understanding 3D representations of spatial information, particularly in naturalistic scenes, remains a significant challenge in vision science. This is largely because of conceptual difficulties in disentangling higher-level 3D information from co-occurring features and cues (e.g., the 3D shape of a scene image is necessarily defined by "low-level" spatial frequency and orientation information). Recent work has employed newer models and analysis techniques that attempt to mitigate these in-principle difficulties. For example, one such study reported 3D-surface features were uniquely present in areas OPA, PPA, and MPA/RSC (areas typically referred to as 'scene-selective'), above and beyond a Gabor-wavelet baseline ("2D") model. Here, we tested whether these findings generalized to a new stimulus set that, on average, dissociated static Gabor-wavelet baseline ("2D") features from 3D scene-surface features. Surprisingly, we found evidence that a Gabor-wavelet baseline model better fit voxel responses in areas OPA, PPA and MPA/RSC compared to a model with 3D-surface information. This raises the question of whether previous findings of greater 3D information could have been due to a baseline condition that didn't model some potentially critical low-level features (e.g., motion). Our findings also emphasize that much of the information in "scene-selective" regions—potentially even information about 3D surfaces—may be in the form of spatial frequency and orientation information often considered 2D or low-level, highlighting the fundamental conceptual challenges associated with disentangling the contributions of low-level vs. high-level features in visual cortex.

Author summary:

To gain a more complete picture of human visual processing, it is critical to understand the precise format of representations of naturalistic visual scenes. Recent work has approached this challenge by quantifying how much of our brain activity might be due to hypothesized characteristics of the stimuli being viewed. Here, we followed up on work finding that activity in scene-responsive regions of the brain is well predicted by information about the 3D configurations of major surfaces in viewed scenes, like walls and floors. In contrast to previous work, we found that our baseline condition—commonly thought of as "low-level" visual information—accounted for these regions' responses better than both of the 3D surface models we tested. First, we argue that this difference in results could be due to differences in the baseline conditions used across studies. However, our findings do not necessarily argue against the importance of 3D surface information. Instead, they highlight the possibility that baseline models can perform well by virtue of covariation between low-level features like orientation and spatial frequency with higher-level properties like depth information. This motivates future work and/or new analysis frameworks to better characterize the interplay between hypothesized model features and the specific techniques used to quantify their relationship to neural representations.

Introduction

A large body of evidence in vision science argues that anatomically distinct regions of cortex are selective for images of natural scenes as opposed to discrete visual objects [1,2]. In particular, early work suggested that these "scene areas" were especially sensitive to configurations of major surfaces like walls and floors that define the 3D shape of a space [2–4]. However, studying the content of this scene information is challenging because it is difficult to disambiguate representations of scene surfaces per se both from representations of more global scene properties (like "openness" or "navigability") and from low-level features (like orientation or spatial-frequency information). Three well-studied regions of cortex are fruitful targets to investigate the contributions of each of these factors (surfaces, global properties, low-level features): the occipital place area (OPA), parahippocampal place area (PPA), and retrosplenial complex/medial place area (RSC/MPA). All are characterized by higher responses to scene images compared to other stimuli, and they seem to contain information relevant to navigating through the 3D world [5–7].

To this end, we focus here on assessing whether these areas contain information about surfaces and 3D spatial layout per se rather than other visual properties of scenes. One important challenge is differentiating low- to mid-level visual features from the 3D information that they ultimately support. Scene-selective cortical areas could be responsive to configurations of 3D surfaces per se, but these tend to co-occur in the natural world with cues such as patterns of orientations and spatial frequencies. Foundational work on scene areas has employed hypothesis-driven stimulus conditions such as preserving the same surfaces in a scene while selectively disrupting their configuration [2]. These manipulations cannot (and don't pretend to) completely remove the influence of orientation and spatial frequency, since these basic features are the

building blocks of all more complex images. Instead, they focus on finding a theoretically interesting level of tolerance to low-level feature variation: after finding higher PPA responses even for unfurnished rooms compared to isolated objects from those rooms, they sought to test whether the presence of a coherent configuration of surfaces was the critical aspect of the stimulus driving responses. They created two conditions: (1) fractured images (surfaces cut apart and separated by white space) vs. (2) fractured + re-arranged surfaces: the same fractured surfaces but re-arranged within the image to prevent them being perceived as a 3D space. Fractured surfaces, which still had a recognizable 3D structure, drove PPA responses similarly to the empty scenes – at least in terms of overall univariate magnitude averaged over the entire region. In contrast, univariate responses to the fractured + re-arranged surfaces were significantly lower than both real scenes and fractured scenes. While low-level features were not perfectly teased apart from the features of interest – e.g., the fractured rooms still contained edges oriented the same way in similar parts of the image – these features have a close relationship to surface information in everyday life. Thus, this comparison was taken as a powerful demonstration that PPA cares about configurations of surfaces, insofar as intact 3D structure – even without the walls being connected – led to greater univariate activity in PPA than a scrambled version that broke 3D structure. Notably, however, this study and similar early work [8] did not attempt to understand the representation of the stimuli in individual voxels or patterns of voxels, instead examining only which stimuli tended to lead to higher overall activation.

More recent studies have investigated what aspects of the 3D structure of scenes is contained in more fine-grained patterns across cortex. These studies compared spatial information of interest with patterns of orientation and spatial frequency information captured by a GIST baseline model [9]. For example, Henriksson, Mur, & Kriegeskorte [10] found evidence for an

OPA representation of 3D surfaces of a scene beyond GIST features. Bonner & Epstein [6] found that OPA in particular captures information about navigational affordances in scenes. A notable aspect of both of the above findings was the surprising amount of information corresponding to GIST features (even more than the affordance features in [6]), perhaps reflecting the close relationship observed between GIST features and spatial and/or category information that may be important for scene-selective areas [9,11,12]. Given this close relationship, considering GIST features to be a "low-level" baseline may result in some meaningful information about the 3D shape of a scene being discounted—a possibility that complicates interpretations by "counting against" models of interest, specifically when GIST features perform well.

This in-principle issue might be side-stepped, however, if a model of the 3D structure of a scene performed decisively better than a set of high-performing baseline models. Lescroart & Gallant [13] constructed 3D models that captured spatial characteristics of major surfaces (distance and orientation in 3D space) in videos of moving scenes (see Figure 1 for stimulus example). The best-performing 3D model was compared against the best-performing of three baseline models, each capturing static information about orientation and spatial frequency that was computed from stills of the videos. The high performance of the 3D vs. baseline models appeared to resolve the theoretical issues described above: while the GIST model had performed close to or better than the models of interest in the previous studies [6,10], Lescroart & Gallant's 3D model performed decisively better than even a Gabor wavelet baseline model, which itself performed more than twice as well as the GIST baseline model. Gabor wavelet models have previously been successful at predicting neurophysiological and fMRI data from early visual cortex (EVC), and they have also served as baseline models for higher-level visual cortical

representations of static image stimuli [14]. However, the combination of *moving* stimuli with a *static* Gabor baseline model also raises concerns: while the video stimuli contain motion parallax as a depth cue, this baseline model did not model low-level motion cues correlated with motion parallax (e.g., horizontal motion in the lower plane of the screen that covaries with surfaces closer in space). This leaves open the possibility that the dominance of 3D model that was observed in OPA/PPA/RSC does not demonstrate evidence of 3D information *per se*, but instead may reflect variance that is attributable to un-modeled low-level motion information that co-varies with 3D scene-surface features. Note that this possibility would not by itself argue against the presence of 3D information in these regions—instead, it further highlights the importance of building a more nuanced picture of covariation between "3D" and "2D" feature sets (for a more detailed explanation, see *Discussion: Implications for the visual system)*.

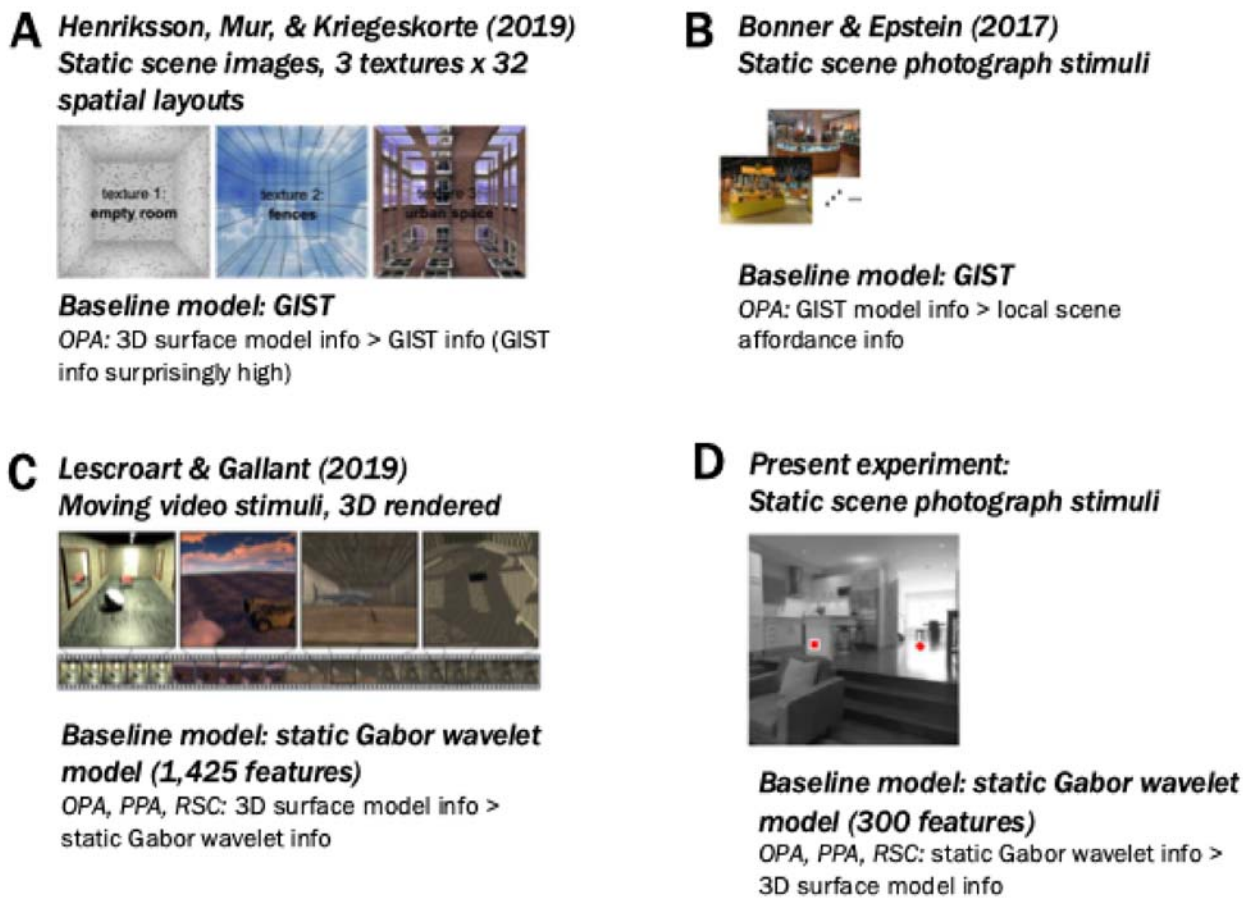

Figure 1: Stimuli and baseline models used in 3 related studies (A-C) as well as in the present experiment. (A) Henriksson, Mur, & Kriegeskorte (2019) used 3D-rendered static scene image stimuli and a GIST baseline model. In OPA, they found greater 3D surface model info, along with surprisingly high GIST information. (B) Bonner & Epstein (2017) found evidence for local scene affordance information, which may be related to the 3D-surface information discussed here. They used static scene photograph stimuli, a GIST (static) baseline model, and in OPA found greater GIST than local scene affordance information as well as some information uniquely attributable to local scene affordances. (C) Lescroart & Gallant (2019) used 3D-rendered moving video stimuli, used a static gabor wavelet baseline model, and in OPA, PPA, and RSC found 3D information beyond their baseline model. (D) The present experiment uses static scene photograph stimuli, a static Gabor baseline model, and found in OPA, PPA, and RSC that a Gabor-wavelet baseline model accounts for more variance than a 3D surface-model.

In the present study, we sought to characterize the performance of 3D scene-surface models [13] and their relationship to the orientation and spatial-frequency features they covary with in natural images. First, we wanted to ensure that our baseline model encompassed the full set of low-level features we wished to discount. We could have done this by either A) using an

expanded baseline model to account for the low-level motion features present in video stimuli or B) using static photograph stimuli instead of video stimuli so that it was unnecessary to include low-level motion information in our baseline model. We chose to use static image stimuli with a static gabor-wavelet model (capturing orientation and spatial-frequency information), in part to maintain more contact with prior work that used static orientation and spatial-frequency features as a baseline [e.g., 9, 11, 12]. In addition, using photographs allowed us to characterize the performance of 3D scene-surface models using natural images, as opposed to the computer-rendered stimuli used in prior work. While this choice sacrifices one aspect of "naturalness" of the stimulus set (motion), the photographs appear more "natural" in another sense in that they are more lifelike than stills from a computer-rendered video. We then compared the static Gabor-wavelet baseline model with two 3D surface models in OPA/PPA/RSC, each capturing the distance to and 3D directions of surfaces in each image: (1) a model capturing summaries of these 3D characteristics across the entire image (as in Lescroart & Gallant, 13; "3D-global model"), and (2) a model summarizing these 3D features within each quadrant of the image, preserving more fine-grained spatial information ("3D-quadrant-based model"). Importantly, we used an algorithmic stimulus selection procedure based on ground-truth 3D scene properties to select a set of images that could maximally differentiate between the 3D-global- and the 3D-quadrant-based-models. We verified that this procedure also minimized the relationship between Gabor-wavelet baseline features and each 3D model.

Thus our modeling approach, coupled with the use of static images, allowed us to investigate the generalizability of previous 3D scene information in OPA/PPA/RSC in two key ways. First, because our stimuli consisted of static images, our baseline Gabor wavelet pyramid model included the key types of static low-level features to be discounted. Second, because the

stimuli were photographs rather than computer-rendered, the image statistics and the environments depicted were consistent with what participants might encounter in the real world.

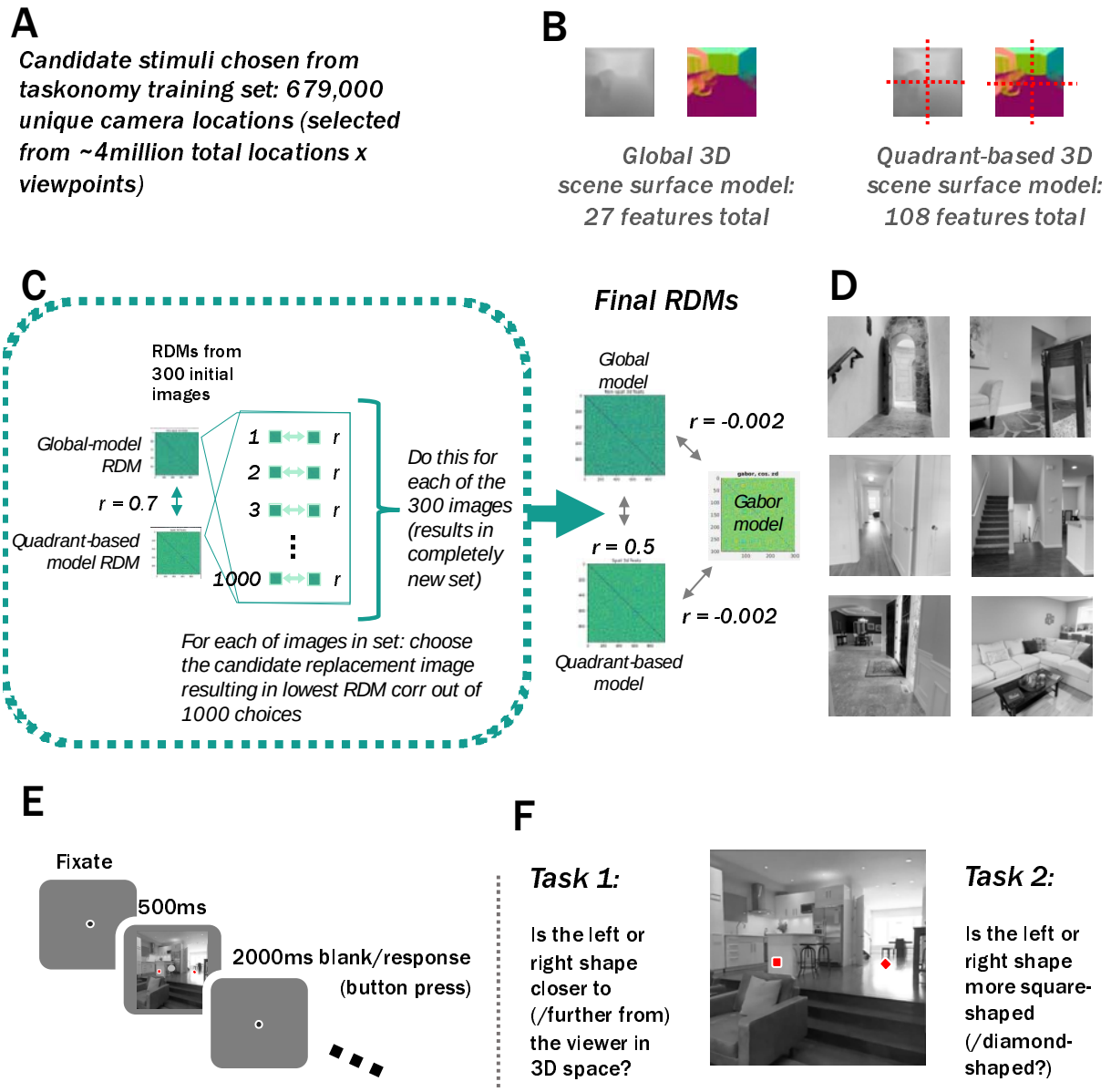

Figure 2. Methods. (A) Candidate stimuli were drawn from the Taskonomy [15] training set, consisting of one image from each of 679,000 unique camera locations. (B) Feature sets were computed similarly to Lescroart & Gallant (2019), from Euclidean-distance and surface-normal annotations included in the Taskonomy [15] training set. (C) The 300 stimulus images were chosen to minimize 3D-global- vs. 3D-quadrant-based-model RDMs. First, an initial set of stimulus images was chosen iteratively (similarly to Groen et al., [16]), from a pool of images with maximally different depth information in the image's 4 quadrants. The resulting initial image set had an RDM correlation of 0.7 between the quadrant-based and global 3D models. Next, we replaced each of the 300 stimulus images with the image from 1000 random choices

that resulted in the lowest RDM correlation. This stimulus selection procedure incidentally yielded a low correlation between the Gabor-wavelet baseline model and each of the two 3D models. While our main analyses used voxelwise encoding models, we used RDMs for our stimulus selection to quantify feature variation across images. (D) Example stimulus images. (E) Example trial. (F) Tasks. On alternating runs, participants either answered 1) whether the left or right shape was closer to (farther from) the viewer in 3D space or 2) whether the left or right shape was more square-shaped (diamond-shaped). Note that in the main analysis we collapse across these two task types, but the results are similar when each condition is considered individually.

Results

Figure 3 shows the cross-validated prediction performance of each voxelwise encoding model in each visual region, as well as variance partitioning results.

As expected based on prior work in other labs, we observed that a Gabor-wavelet baseline model [17] and a model capturing distances to and orientations of surfaces in 3D space ("3D-global model") predicted voxel-wise activity above chance [10,13] in early visual areas (all *p*s < 0.0003, uncorrected; Table S2A). We also found similar magnitudes of cross-validated prediction performance [13]. Note that none of our results are normalized to a noise ceiling, so we cannot compare absolute magnitudes with noise-ceiling-normalized results.

While we found that prediction performance was significantly above chance for all three models in areas OPA/PPA/RSC (all *p*s < 0.014; see Figure 3A and Table S2A), we surprisingly observed that the Gabor-wavelet-baseline model outperformed the 3D models (Figure 3A; all ps < 0.0026). This result prompted us to apply a 3D-vs.-Gabor-wavelet-baseline variance-partitioning analysis in these areas to determine the unique contributions of each set of features [13]. We adopted this approach because the small amount of 3D information we found could either be due to 3D features per se, or it could be due to imperfect separability of 3D vs. Gabor-wavelet-baseline features in our stimulus set, which would mean that information that is genuinely Gabor-wavelet related could contribute to a small degree to the fit of the 3D model.

Surprisingly, we only found evidence that the *Gabor-wavelet baseline* features uniquely predicted responses in these regions (unique Gabor-wavelet-baseline info in variance partitioning vs. 3D-quadrant-based features: OPA: $p = 0.0006$; PPA: $p = 0.0002$; RSC: $p = 0.026$; unique Gabor-wavelet-baseline info in variance partitioning vs. 3D-global features: OPA: $p = 0.0018$; PPA: $p = 0.0005$; RSC: $p = 0.053$). In this analysis, shared variance represents information not uniquely attributable to either model. In each area, there was significant *shared* 3D-quadrant-based/Gabor-wavelet-baseline (OPA: $p = 0.0019$; PPA: $p = 0.0004$; RSC: $p = 0.026$) and *shared* 3D-global/Gabor-wavelet-baseline (OPA: 0.0069; PPA: 0.0018; RSC: 0.0048) representations, with no significant evidence for uniquely 3D representations (3D-global model: all *p*s > 0.13; 3D-quadrant-based model: all *p*s > 0.41; Figure 3B and C and Table S2 B and C). Note that RSC results follow the same pattern as the OPA/PPA results (significant unique-Gabor and shared variance, without significant unique-3D variance) but are not as robust, consistent with previous work. In OPA and PPA, the unique variance explained by the Gabor-wavelet-baseline model was significantly greater than either the 3D-quadrant-based model (ps < 0.0008) or the 3D-global model (ps < 0.004). In addition, unique Gabor-wavelet-baseline model variance was greater than the shared variance not uniquely attributable to either model: unique Gabor > shared variance between Gabor-wavelet-baseline and the 3D-quadrant-based model (ps < 0.0027) and unique Gabor-wavelet baseline > shared variance between the 2D gabor-wavelet model and the 3D-global model (ps < 0.0061). Again, RSC showed a similar pattern of greater Gabor-wavelet-baseline performance but was less reliable overall (Figure 3B and C and Table S2 B and C).

Next, we investigated whether these results were robust to methodological decisions such as voxel selection. First, it could have been the case that by including up to 200 voxels in each category-selective ROI (possibly a less stringent cutoff than other studies, e.g., [13]), we might

have ended up including voxels with more selectivity to lower-level vs. category-selective features. If this were the case, it might account for the higher responses we found to the Gabor-wavelet baseline model than to the 3D scene-surface features. In Figure 4C, we plot variance partitioning results as a function of selecting different numbers of voxels in each ROI (the N voxels with the highest scene > object functional-localizer activation). This plot demonstrates a strikingly consistent pattern of relative model performance across voxel counts, arguing that our results are not an artifact of our voxel selection decisions (see *Methods: Regions of Interest*). We also note that, in hindsight, our decision to include up to 200 voxels in each ROI may have lowered the *overall magnitude* of performance for all models. However, the baseline Gabor-wavelet model is also strikingly dominant for the voxel counts that maximize overall model performance.

A second follow-up analysis is related to work demonstrating that scene-selective regions occupy regions of cortex that overlap with retinotopically defined visual regions [18,19]. Since the relationships between response properties of these overlapping regions have not yet been fully characterized, it is in theory possible that the dominance of the Gabor-wavelet baseline model could have been due to voxels from meaningfully distinct but overlapping brain regions influencing our results in scene-selective cortex. While our main analysis (Figure 4) excluded any voxels from scene regions that were also included in V1-V3, we performed an additional analysis that also excluded any voxels that were identified as part of regions potentially overlapping with scene regions: V3AB, IPS0, hV4, or LO. This version of the analysis, including individual-subject data points, is almost indistinguishable from our main results (Figure S2).

Next, it is possible that the high performance of the Gabor-wavelet baseline model showed an earlier peak in time than the scene-surface model, and that we had by chance chosen

too early of a time window for our analyses to detect 3D scene-surface information. Figure 4B shows a sliding window analysis in which model performance is compared across different ranges of TRs. All timepoints show the same pattern of dominant performance by the Gabor-wavelet model.

Finally, while we collapse across two tasks in our main analyses (one for which the 3D structure is relevant and one for which it is not), each task alone shows an almost identical pattern of model performances in all ROIs (Figure 4A).

Together, these results show a pattern of higher Gabor-wavelet-baseline performance compared to 3D scene-surface models in scene-selective cortical regions OPA, PPA, and RSC. This pattern of results was robust to changes in several methodological decisions, participants' task, and the variation of the 3D model that we chose.

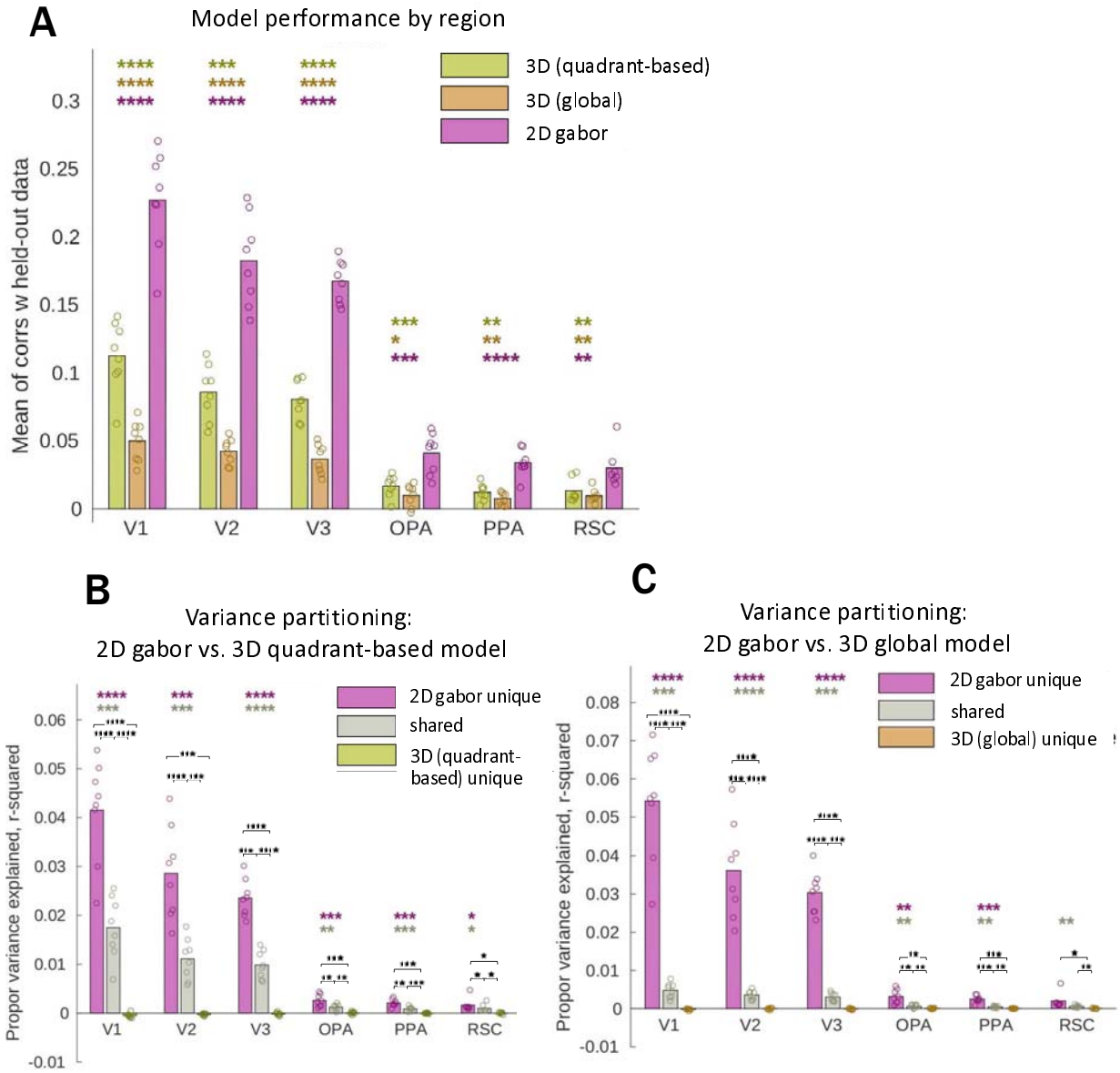

Figure 3. Performance and variance partitioning of voxelwise encoding models. Dots represent individual participant data. Stars denote significant two-tailed effects in the positive direction (**** = p<0.0001; *** = p<0.001; ** = p<0.01; * = p<0.05, uncorrected). Colored stars correspond to individual tests, and brackets indicate paired tests. We report raw correlations and variance explained, without normalizing to a noise ceiling. Note that magnitudes across ROIs are not interpretable, but patterns within ROIs are. (A) Results collapsed across all task data. (B) Variance partitioning results for "2D" Gabor-wavelet-baseline model vs. 3D-quadrant-based model. (C) Variance partitioning results for "2D" Gabor-wavelet-baseline model vs. 3D-global model.

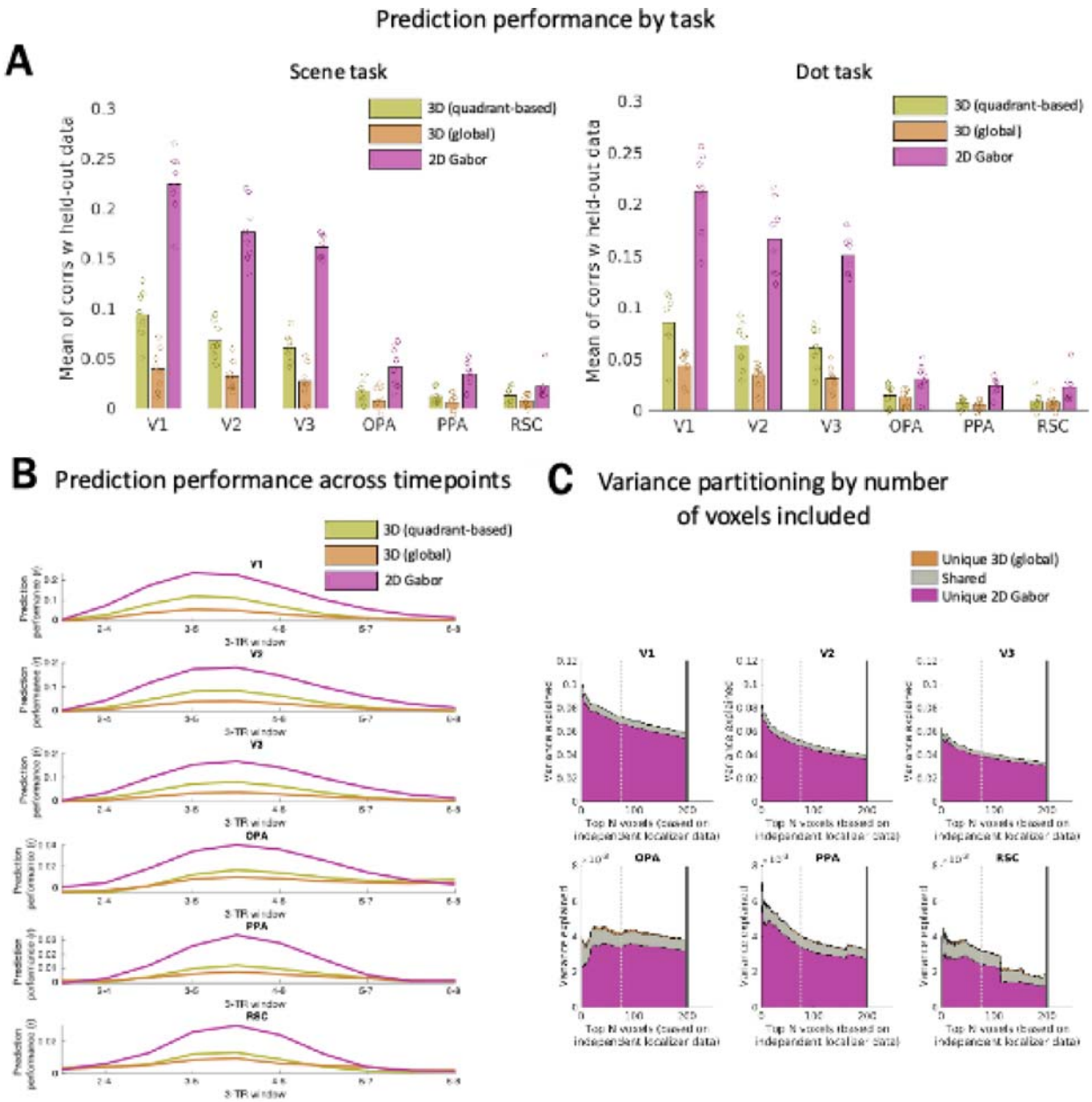

Figure 4. A) Models' prediction performances split according to task. "Scene task": participants responded which dot was closer to the viewer in 3D space. "Dot task": participants responded which dot was a square/diamond. Tasks varied across separate runs. B) Models' prediction performances calculated across ten 3-TR windows. C**)** Variance partitioning results for the 3D-global vs. 2D-Gabor-wavelet baseline models plotted as a function of number of voxels included in each ROI. Voxels were ordered by independent-localizer activation: scrambled > baseline for EVC ROIs, top row; scenes > objects for scene-selective ROIs, bottom row. Then, results were plotted as though we'd defined a 1-voxel ROI, a 2-voxel ROIs, etc. The downward slopes of many plots indicate that our ROI sizes may have caused us to find a smaller magnitude of effects than in other studies that used a stricter cutoff. ROIs could include up to 200 voxels, with a minimum of 75 voxels required required for an ROI to be included in the analysis.

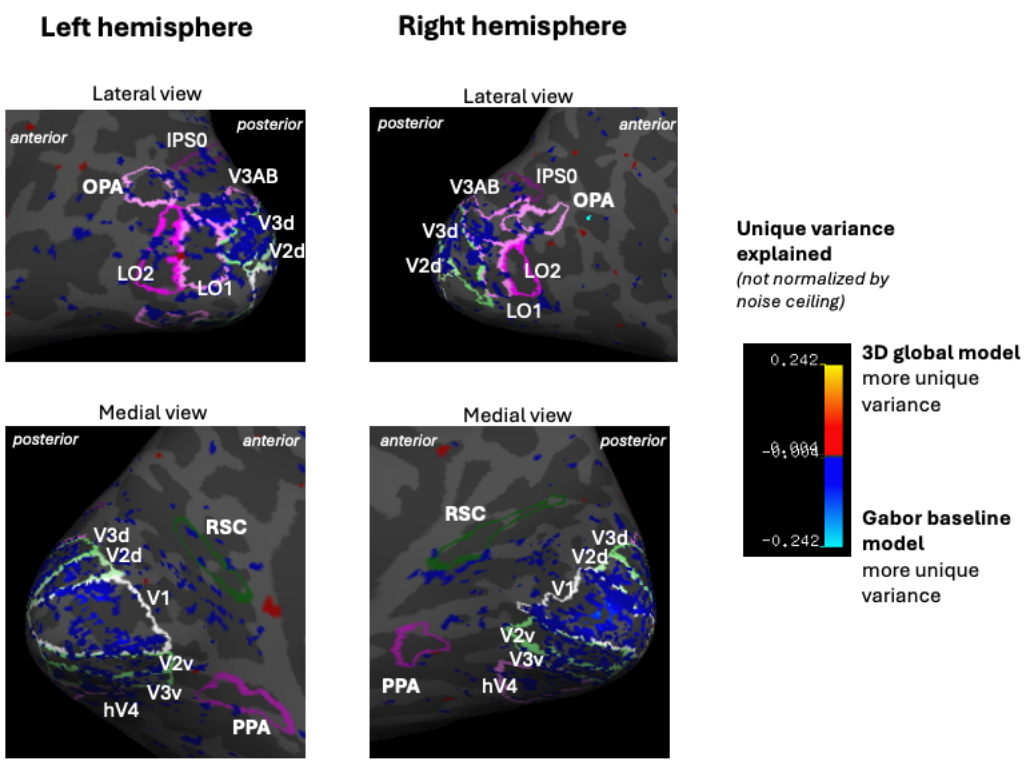

Figure 5. Variance-partitioning results for an example participant (S01) across the cortical surface (see supplemental figure S3 for other subjects). Cool colors denote more unique variance explained by the Gabor-wavelet baseline model, and warm colors denote more unique variance explained by the 3D-global model.

Discussion

The present work investigated whether 3D scene-surface information in OPA, PPA, and RSC (e.g., Lescroart & Gallant, [13]) is robust to comparisons with a baseline model that includes the relevant types of low-level information (in this case, static orientation and spatial frequency info) present in the stimuli (in this case static scene photographs). We included two variations of a 3D scene-surface model: *3D-global* (summarizing across the entire image) and *3D-quadrant-based* (summarizing across quadrants of the image), comparing each against a baseline *Gabor-wavelet model* capturing orientation and spatial-frequency information. We found higher prediction performance for the Gabor-wavelet-baseline model compared to each of the 3D-scene-surface models in scene-responsive cortical areas. In each of these areas, we also

found evidence for unique Gabor-wavelet-baseline representations (representations uniquely attributable to this model in a variance partitioning analysis) but not unique 3D representations. These results appear contrary to the dominant claim about OPA in particular [5–7,13], as well as findings across all three regions [13].

No significant evidence for representations uniquely attributable to 3D scene surface information: Our variance partitioning analysis revealed no evidence that 3D scene surface features uniquely explained activity in scene-selective cortex. These results stand in contrast with the conclusions reached by Lescroart & Gallant [13], who examined responses to moving videos of scenes. As suggested in the introduction, the higher performance of the 3D-surface model in their work could be partially attributable to contributions from low-level motion cues that could not be accommodated by the static Gabor-wavelet model they use as a baseline. This is because, just like the static Gabor information Lescroart & Gallant [13] discounted, motion information can also correlate with 3D surface information present in stimulus videos. Our use of static photographs removed motion information from the stimulus set, allowing us to use a static Gabor-wavelet baseline model that accounted for the low-level information in the images (orientation and spatial frequency). With this change, we observed that the Gabor-wavelet-baseline model generally outperformed the 3D model, even in OPA/PPA/RSC. To be clear, each stimulus set has advantages and disadvantages: 3D-rendered movies preserve one element of naturalism (motion), while static photographs include another (a more lifelike appearance). While our use of static images likely simplified our choice of baseline model, future work could use video stimuli with a baseline model that also captures low-level motion information. This complementary set of findings would lead to a better understanding of how different types of 3D information and corresponding lower-level features are represented in scene-responsive cortex.

In addition to including motion information, the stimuli used by Lescroart & Gallant [13] also employed lighting and texture differences that may disrupt the across-stimuli relationship between low-level visual features and 3D surfaces. The importance of this issue is illustrated by imagining that, across images, rightward-facing surfaces usually co-occur with down-right oriented lines in one part of the image, and/or up-right orientations in a different part of the image (etc. for other surface orientations). The more of these types of co-occurrence, the more difficult it would be for regression models to disentangle the variance explained by the Gabor and the 3D-surface models. By rendering their scenes using a 3D modeling software, Lescroart & Gallant [13] sought to introduce high-contrast shadows and other visual features to disrupt this co-occurrence between 3D surfaces and low-level visual features (i.e., oriented edges). We took a different approach: algorithmically selecting a set of naturalistic scene photographs from a large image database. Two aspects of our data argue that our differing results were not due to a failure to reduce co-variation between feature sets—perhaps because our stimulus selection procedure capitalized on naturally occurring disruptions in these co-variations. First, we find lower shared variance between these models (variance not uniquely attributable to either model) compared to Lescroart & Gallant [13]. Second, even if we imagined all shared variance being attributed uniquely to the 3D surface model, the Gabor-wavelet baseline model would still explain more variance than the 3D surface model. (It is possible to visualize this by seeing that for OPA/PPA/RSC in Figures 3C and 3D, the heights of the “unique Gabor” bars are higher than the height that would be seen by stacking the corresponding “3D unique” and “shared” bars).

We also investigated the robustness of our results to several different methodological decisions. First, when varying ROI size, we still see greater Gabor-wavelet performance than 3D-model performance, even within individual participants (Figure S4). While our main results

investigate voxel responses within a narrower time window than Lescroart & Gallant's [13] and without the added flexibility of FIR features, our pattern of results is consistent across a wide range of timepoints (Figure S3). Finally, we see the same pattern for each of our two tasks (Figure S2) as we do using data collapsed across tasks (main results).

It is also worth noting that both the present study and Lescroart & Gallant [13] fit models using cross-validation, making the results robust to overfitting. Further, while one of our 3D models was smaller than Lescroart & Gallant's due to the selection of fewer distance bins (9 vs. 3; resulting in 27 and 108 features in our 3D-global- vs. 3D-quadrant-based-models vs. 91 features in Lescroart & Gallant's 3D-global model), it seems unlikely that this change could be a major factor in the reversal of results, since Lescroart & Gallant's data [13] showed that their surface-orientation model, without any distance information, performed nearly as well as their full 3D model. In addition, we also reduced the number of features in our Gabor-wavelet-baseline model to 300 (vs. 1,425 in Lescroart & Gallant's). Another difference is that our stimuli consisted primarily of indoor scenes, which contain an abundance of the oriented surfaces captured by the 3D models. While these stimuli allowed us to use ground-truth distance measurements to create 3D-surface features, this also meant that neither of our 3D models contained a sky channel, due to inherent limits in measuring large ground-truth distances (see Methods and [15]). While we cannot completely rule out a critical role of the sky channel in driving the success of Lescroart & Gallant's 3D models, the first two PC's of their voxel responses [13; Figure 6] do not appear to trivially capture the presence of sky pixels. Thus, we don't believe this is a likely reason for the difference in results. Different stimulus sets may also contain different distributions of global properties (e.g., openness [12]), which could

differentially covary with each model. This possibility motivates future work investigating the impact of stimulus sets, performance metrics, and model details on these findings.

While our conclusions may at first seem at odds with the field's present understanding of scene-responsive cortex, two prior studies also used a baseline model capturing spatial frequency and orientation information (a GIST model [9]) and found results compatible with ours. First, Bonner & Epstein [6] investigated local scene affordances, or representations of the parts of a visual scene that a viewer could traverse within the depicted 3D space. They found higher performance for GIST features than for local-affordance (arguably 3D) information. Note that while this work did not explicitly test the presence of 3D surface information, local-affordance information is related to 3D surface information since configurations of surfaces within a scene constrain where humans are able to walk. While they also found a small amount of unique local-affordance information, the presence of this information is also compatible with our results, especially considering Lescroart et al.'s [13] data showing a Gabor wavelet model performing over twice as well in OPA/PPA/RSC as a GIST baseline model. Similarly, Henriksson et al. [10] also used a GIST model as their baseline for quantifying 3D scene surface information. A higher-performing Gabor-wavelet baseline model might be expected to out-perform the 3D information in this data set as well. In light of this converging pattern of results, it is important to note that the consistently high (and sometimes higher) performance of "2D" vs. "3D" features doesn't necessarily argue that these regions don't represent the "3D" features in a meaningful way (see "*Implications for the visual system*", below).

Overall, we believe that when performing model comparisons between higher-level models (like 3D surfaces and affordances) and "low-level" models (like GIST or Gabor wavelet models), it is critical that baseline models include all relevant types of low-level information

(e.g., motion energy when using videos)—especially low-level information that could provide cues to the higher-level features. This may be simpler to accomplish when using static image stimuli, such as those employed in the present study. However, future work could leverage the advantages of stimuli that include more diverse types of low-level features, such as the motion cues in the videos employed by Lescroart and Gallant [13]. This could achieve even greater insight by beginning to build successively more complex models to account for different aspects of 3D processing.

Implications for the visual system: Do our results argue that "low-level" or "2D" information is dominant in scene-selective cortex? The present pattern of results, in combination with prior work, highlights the dominance of orientation and spatial-frequency information—often considered 2D, or low-level—in scene-selective cortex. However, this doesn't mean that scene areas can't still be *for* representing 3D information in scenes. Importantly, there is evidence that patterns of orientation and spatial frequency may actually serve a critical role in processing scene information: first, the distinction between "2D" and "3D" is not as binary as it may seem from these labels— 2D orientation/spatial-frequency information is computationally sufficient to infer global scene properties related to 3D layout [20], and human behavior does indeed seem to rely on these features for higher-level scene processing tasks [11]. While it is hard to argue that a *single* oriented Gabor patch could support processing of higher-level features, the above results [11, 20] are possible because the *combination* of enough such features can serve as a cue to higher-level information. Indeed, preserving all "low-level" orientation and spatial-frequency features of a grayscale image would result in a perfect copy of the image, which would of course also preserve all mid- and higher-level properties. Broadening the set of naturalistic features included in our stimuli (e.g., to include color, motion,

or binocular disparity) would not escape this problem since the new “low-level” features now also encompass the entire set of features available to be combined into cues to these higher-level properties. Thus, the variance explained by these low-level feature baseline models as a whole is not necessarily capturing just the “low-level” versions of the individual features’ verbal descriptions (orientation, e.g.).

Indeed, if all relevant types of low-level features are included in the baseline model, a baseline model could out-perform other models of interest because the possible combinations of features available in the baseline model captures the higher-level information in the comparison models with more flexibility than allowed for in the higher-level models. For the models used here, this possibility could have played out as combinations of orientation and spatial frequency that covary with and/or serve as cues to the orientation of/distance to surfaces in 3D space. This is especially true when using a model-selection procedure in which the final baseline model is chosen as the best-performing of multiple candidate models (as in [13]).

Our results also touch on the relationship between response properties of these regions and partially overlapping retinotopically defined maps [18,19]. This overlap could be taken to suggest that scene regions contain subparts with different functions—or even that category-selective regions may not be the most meaningful units of organization across cortex. While our results did not noticeably change when excluding these retinotopic regions from our scene ROIs, future work could conduct a more fine-grained examination of the precise format of visual information across scene-responsive cortex.

How can we meaningfully characterize the format of higher-level visual information? The inability to use verbal descriptions of individual features as a proxy for the level of information each feature captures makes it challenging to meaningfully tease apart the

different types of information represented across cortex. Classical work [e.g., 2] addressed this challenge with painstakingly constructed custom stimulus sets that aimed to visually embody the most theoretically meaningful distinctions between information of interest and less interesting baseline information. Univariate contrasts between stimulus conditions could then quantify the difference in response strength between these conditions. More recent work has even incorporated carefully balanced stimulus conditions with newer analysis methods such as RSA (Figure 4 of Henriksson et al. [7], Figure S2C-D of Bonner & Epstein [6]), leveraging the explanatory power of this earlier approach.

Newer analysis techniques have emphasized more precise quantification of the *degree* to which different types of information are present across the brain, without the need to design custom stimulus conditions and collect a new data set for each new hypothesis (e.g., [13]). For example, using scene photograph stimuli supports the comparison of multiple candidate models to quantify unique and shared variance. This approach has allowed a rapid explosion of work analyzing large data sets, e.g., natural scene photographs [21,22]. However, the present work demonstrates that to draw conclusions based on the *degree* of success of different models, we need a better understanding of the information captured by each model and an understanding of how the models relate to each other. This highlights that even for models like Gabor-wavelet pyramids, whose *individual features* are interpretable, further investigations are still needed to better understand the information captured by the model *as a whole*, as applied to a particular image set where these feature covary in particular ways with higher-level features. The status of the captured information as “low-level” depends on specific details of the model and stimulus set. Without a more thorough understanding of what is captured by each model, a variance

partitioning approach is unable to effectively quantify the relative amounts of information across cortex.

Moving beyond carefully controlled stimulus sets and binary questions to a more holistic understanding based on rich models remains a necessary next step for understanding scene processing in the brain. This is because quantifying the *amount* of different types of scene information has several important benefits, including investigating how brain representations change under a wider range of behaviors. For example, the present study sought to use a task manipulation to gain insight into a special characteristic of scene representations: the reduced attention with which some types of scene information can apparently be processed [23,24]. Developing new techniques to quantify scene information of interest would yield key markers for investigating this and other questions about how the format of information changes across tasks and regions of cortex.

Conclusion: The present work examines the strength of 2D and 3D representations in scene-responsive regions of cortex (PPA/OPA/RSC) while participants viewed naturalistic scene-photograph stimuli. In contrast to some previous work, we find that a Gabor-wavelet baseline ("2D") model compares favorably to explicit models of 3D information in scene-responsive cortex, even when accounting for potentially shared variance. This work highlights the difficulty in drawing conclusions about separability of 3D (or higher-level) representations from the patterns of orientation and spatial frequency that underlie them. This motivates future, more targeted investigations of exactly which information is "3D" or meaningfully related to higher-level properties of scenes.

Methods

Participants: 8 participants (6 female, 2 male) between the ages of 25 and 31 participated in the experiment. The protocol was approved by the Institutional Review Board of UCSD, and all participants gave informed written consent. Each participant completed a behavioral training session lasting approximately 1.5 hours, followed by a retinotopic mapping session and three fMRI sessions where they performed the main task. Each scanning session lasted approximately 2 hours. Participants were compensated $15/hr for the behavioral session and $25/hr for each of the three scanner sessions.

fMRI data acquisition and pre-processing: fMRI data collection was completed at the UC San Diego Keck Center for Functional Magnetic Resonance Imaging, on a General Electric (GE) Discovery MR750 3T scanner. Functional echoplanar imaging (EPI) data were collected using a Nova 32-channel head coil (NMSC075-32-3GE-MR750) and the Stanford Simultaneous Multi-Slice (SMS) EPI sequence (MUX EPI), with a multiband factor of 8. This resulted in 9 axial slices per band (72 slices total; 2mm^3 isotropic voxels; 0mm gap; matrix = 104x104; FOV = 20.8cm; TR=800ms; TE = 35ms; flip angle = 52°; in-plane acceleration = 1).

We acquired a high-res T1 anatomical scan in the same session (GE ASSET on a FSPGR T1-weighted sequence; 1x1x1 mm^3 voxel size; 8136ms TR; 3172ms TE; 8° flip angle; 172 slices; 1mm slice gap; 256x192cm matrix size), corrected for inhomogeneities in signal intensity using GE's Phased array uniformity enhancement (PURE) method. This was used for segmentation, flattening, and delineation of retinotopic visual areas.

Preprocessing was completed using Freesurfer and FSL (available at https://surfer.nmr.mgh.harvard.edu and http://www.fmrib.ox.ac.uk/fsl). We used Freesurfer's

recon-all utility [25] to perform cortical surface gray-/white-matter segmentation of each subject's anatomical scan. These segmentations were then used to define cortical surfaces on which we delineated retinotopic ROIs used for subsequent analyses in EVC (see *Regions of Interest*). We used Freesurfer's manual and automatic boundary-based registration tools [26] to generate transformation matrices that were then used by FSL FLIRT [27,28] to co-register the first volume of each functional run into the same space as the anatomical image. Motion correction was performed using FSL MCFLIRT [28], without spatial smoothing, with a final sinc interpolation stage, and with 12 degrees of freedom. Finally, slow drifts in the data were removed using a high-pass filter (1/40 Hz cutoff). No additional spatial smoothing was performed for main task runs. After pre-processing, we z-scored each voxel's timeseries within each run and epoched the data based on the start time of each trial. Because of the short ITI and fast event-related design, we averaged responses between 2.4 and 4.8 seconds after stimulus onset to use as each trial's data for our main analyses, unless specified otherwise.

Procedure and experimental conditions: For all task runs described here, stimuli were projected onto a semi-circular screen 21.3cm wide and 16cm high, fixed to the inside of the scanner bore just above the participant's chest. The screen was viewed through a mirror attached to the head coil, from a viewing distance of 49 cm. After taking into account the shape of the screen and the square stimuli, this resulted in a vertical extent of approximately 18.1° (max vertical eccentricity of 18.1°/2). The background was a mid-gray color, with a darker gray placeholder outline marking the location of the square stimuli between stimulus presentations. The fixation point was a black rounded square of 0.2° with a white outline and was on the screen throughout each run.

We collected a total of 12 experimental runs (514 TRs each; 6 minutes 52 seconds long) in each of the three sessions, for a total of 36 runs per participant. Runs alternated between two tasks (see *Tasks* section below), with task order counterbalanced across participants. Within each run, three mini-blocks corresponded to narrow, medium, or broad regions of the scene ("spatial spread") that target shapes could appear in (see *Dot Selection* below). The order of mini-blocks within each run was counterbalanced within participants to minimize order effects of spatial-spread conditions. Four combinations of response mappings were counterbalanced across participants along with task order, for a total of one combination per participant.

We used a fast event-related design, with each stimulus presented for 500ms on each trial, with a 2000-ms un-jittered response window/ITI.

Stimuli and Tasks: *Main task:* On each trial, a pair of red shapes (one square and one diamond) was superimposed on a grayscale scene photograph. In *distance judgment* runs, participants were instructed to respond whether the left or the right shape was on the part of the scene that would be closer to (/farther from) the viewer in three-dimensional depth if viewed in real life [29,30]. In *shape judgment* runs, the participant was instructed to respond whether the left or right shape was a square (/diamond). Participants responded "left" (square/diamond/closer/farther) using their index finger and "right" using their middle finger. All responses were made with their right (dominant) hand. Response mappings were consistent throughout the entire session for each participant, including during the 90-minute behavioral practice session. To ensure that any task differences were not due to different difficulties of tasks, the diamond and square could be parametrically adjusted to be more rounded, allowing us to continuously adjust the difficulty of the task to match the distance judgment task. Dot pairs

were selected to keep participants off ceiling in the distance judgment runs so that difficulty could be accurately matched. (See Figure S1 for participant performances across task.) By choosing two tasks that depended on judgments of two dots, we aimed to avoid task effects that could be trivially explained by small eye movements or covert spatial attention. While not analyzed here, each image could appear with one of three different pairs of dot locations with varying spatial extent. (See "Procedure and experimental conditions" for details.)

Functional localizer task: During the localizer task, participants viewed blocked presentations of images of scenes, objects, faces, bodies, scrambled images (images divided into small square pieces and randomly re-arranged), as well as a fixation baseline condition. They pressed a button when they detected trials in which the same image was identical to the image immediately previous (one-back task). Stimulus presentation code was adapted from code from the Grill-Spector Lab.

Stimulus selection: We include 300 stimulus images from the Taskonomy training set [15] selected to maximally differentiate between the 3D-global and 3D-quadrant-based scene-surface models. The Taskonomy training set is made up of 4.5 million scene images from hundreds of unique buildings, with a range of different camera locations in each building. We first subsetted this data set by selecting one image from almost all unique camera locations, resulting in 679,000 images in our starting set. We began with an iterative approach similar to Groen et al.'s [16], creating representational similarity matrices (RDMs) based on the cosine distance between features of each image, starting from a pool of images with maximally different depth information in each of the image's 4 quadrants. Iterating through randomly chosen stimulus *sets* resulted in a plateaued correlation of ~0.7 between 3D-global and 3D-quadrant-

based feature RDMs. We next iterated through each of the 300 images in this initial set, testing RDM correlations for 1000 potential replacement images and using the replacement that resulted in the lowest RDM correlation of the set. After replacing each of the 300 images once, we were left with a correlation of 0.5 between 3D-global and 3D-quadrant-based feature RDMs. Although this procedure did not explicitly orthogonalize either 3D feature set against gabor features, we incidentally ended up with smaller RDM correlations (3D-global vs. gabor: -0.002) than Lescroart et al.'s [13] validation data set (0.274). This pattern was robust to the choice of distance metric (see Table S1). While our main analyses used voxelwise encoding models, we used RDMs for our stimulus selection to quantify feature variation across images.

Dot selection: For each stimulus image, we chose locations of 3 pairs of superimposed dots (the square- and diamond-shaped dots described in the *Tasks* section above): one each within a narrow, medium, and broad spread of potential dot locations. We did this using a semi-automated Matlab script, indicating the allowed region of the image for each spatial spread condition and prompting the selector to (if possible) select via mouse click one potential set in which the correct answer was "left closer" and one in which the correct answer was "right closer". Feedback was given in the command window after each selection to help the selector choose dot locations with roughly similar average differences in distance across dot pairs in the narrow, medium, and broad spatial spread conditions. To choose the final set from these manually selected options, a Matlab script chose from these options to contain an equal number of left-correct and right-correct dot pairs and verified that the narrow, medium, and broad conditions didn't differ substantially in the depth difference between pairs of dots.

Feature sets: Gabor wavelet baseline model: The *Gabor-wavelet model* contained 300 features. Each feature had one of 5 spatial frequencies (0, 2, 4, 8, and 16 cycles per image), and non-zero spatial frequencies had one of 4 orientations (0, 45, 90, or 135 degrees). The stimulus image was tiled by a grid of gabor wavelets for each spatial frequency. We also compared fitting success in one pilot subject using a 1,425-feature gabor model, achieving similar results as with the 300-feature model. Thus, we opted to use the smaller model for all main analyses. These features were generated using code from https://github.com/gallantlab/motion_energy_matlab.

Feature sets: 3D scene surface models: 3D-g*lobal* and 3D-*quadrant-based scene surface features* were computed using the corresponding ground-truth distance and surface-normal (surface direction) image maps included with our stimulus images, which were selected from the training set for the Taskonomy [15] neural networks. These distance and surface-normal image maps were generated from images taken with RGB-depth sensors. Information from multiple camera rotations and viewpoints of the same indoor space was used to improve the accuracy of these individual measurements. To generate features from these maps, we adapted code from Lescroart & Gallant [13], first grouping pixels in the distance maps into 3 bins, spaced so that distance bins were roughly equally represented across images. Using the surface-normal maps, we grouped each pixel into one of 9 surface-direction bins: forward, upward, downward, leftward, rightward, up-left, up-right, down-left, and down-right. In the *3D-global scene-surface model*, we counted the proportion of pixels in each image falling into each combination of the 3 distance and 9 surface-direction bins for a total of 27 features. In the *3D-quadrant-based scene-surface model,* we next divided the image into 4 quadrants, with each of the 108 resulting features corresponding to a combination of image quadrant x surface direction x distance bin. Before model fitting, features were z-scored.

Ridge regression: We fit models using ridge regression, with nine cross-validation folds. For the analyses collapsing across task, each of the 9 left-out sets was made up of 4 of the 36 runs (two from each task). For the scene-task-only results, each of the left-out sets was made up of 2 of the 18 same-task runs. To choose ridge parameters, we nested 10 inner cross-validation folds within the training data of each main fold and chose the lambda predicting the highest r-squared among the inner cross-validation folds. This lambda was then used to fit all of the data in the training portion of the main fold. There were 13 possible ridge parameters: 0, as well as 12 values logarithmically spaced between 10^{-2} and 10^{5}. Early analyses on pilot data showed that this ridge parameter selection matched performance using a more extensive set of ridge parameter choices.

Our main analyses report prediction performance, first averaged across the 9 main cross-validation folds, then averaged across all voxels in an ROI. We did not normalize by a noise ceiling for any of the values reported here. This means that magnitudes of effects *across* ROIs may vary due to factors like SNR across ROIs. Because of this, we focus on reliability of effects *within* regions. Statistical significance was computed via permutation tests, shuffling the test data 10,000 times relative to the predicted data before completing the same process of averaging prediction performance across cross-validation folds and across voxels in each ROI. This generated permuted values corresponding to each ROI and participant, which we then used to calculate a null distribution of t-statistics across participants. We tested individual model performances against zero by calculating a t-statistic from the actual data and comparing that to the null distribution. We report two-tailed uncorrected p-values without assuming a symmetrical null distribution.

Regions of interest: For regions V1, V2, and V3, we followed previously established retinotopic mapping protocols [31–33]. Initial masks for areas V1, V2, and V3 were manually drawn based on retinotopic mapping data collected in a separate session, and candidate voxels were selected for further analyses based on a scrambled > baseline contrast (see Stimuli & Tasks: Functional Localizer Task, above), using a false discovery cutoff of $q < 0.05$. We used a combination of localizer runs from past experiments in our lab and the present experiment (stimuli from Grill-Spector lab), for a total of 4-10 functional localizer runs per subject. For OPA, PPA, and MPA/RSC, initial masks were manually drawn around contiguous clusters of voxels in each subject's native space, including voxels with $q < 0.05$ for a scenes > objects contrast. ROI definitions were mutually exclusive, and any voxels included in V1-V3 were excluded from scene ROIs. For a supplementary analysis (Figure SN), voxels included in any of 5 additional regions—V3AB, hV4, IPS0, LO1, and LO2—were additionally excluded from scene ROIs. To ensure that any differences in performance across ROIs were not due to averaging over dramatically different numbers of voxels, we capped our main analyses to the 200 voxels with the strongest localizer signal in each bilateral ROI; we included ROIs with >= 75 voxels bilaterally, resulting in 7/8 participants with all ROIs defined and one with all defined except MPA/RSC (see Figure S4 for main analysis results as a function of number of voxels included). This participant is omitted from the MPA/RSC analyses.

Acknowledgements:

We thank Mark Lescroart for sharing data and code from his 2019 paper, as well as helpful discussion and feedback on pilot analyses. We thank members of the Serences Lab for help with data collection and helpful discussion.

References

[1] Dilks DD, Julian JB, Paunov AM, Kanwisher N. The occipital place area is causally and selectively involved in scene perception. J Neurosci 2013;33:1331–6a. https://doi.org/10.1523/JNEUROSCI.4081-12.2013.

[2] Epstein R, Kanwisher N. A cortical representation of the local visual environment. Nature 1998;392:598–601. https://doi.org/10.1038/33402.

[3] Landau B, Lakusta L. Spatial representation across species: geometry, language, and maps. Current Opinion in Neurobiology 2009;19:12–9. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.conb.2009.02.001.

[4] Hermer L, Spelke ES. A geometric process for spatial reorientation in young children. Nature 1994;370:57–9. https://doi.org/10.1038/370057a0.

[5] Park J, Park S. Coding of navigational distance and functional constraint of boundaries in the human scene-selective cortex. Journal of Neuroscience 2020;40:3621–30. https://doi.org/10.1523/JNEUROSCI.1991-19.2020.

[6] Bonner MF, Epstein RA. Coding of navigational affordances in the human visual system. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A 2017;114:4793–8. https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.1618228114.

[7] Henriksson L, Mur M, Kriegeskorte N. Rapid invariant encoding of scene layout in human OPA. BioRxiv 2019:577064. https://doi.org/10.1101/577064.

[8] Epstein R. The cortical basis of visual scene processing. Vis Cogn 2005.

[9] Oliva A, Torralba A. Modeling the Shape of the Scene: A Holistic Representation of the Spatial Envelope. Int J Comput Vis 2001;42:145–75. https://doi.org/10.1023/A:1011139631724.

[10] Henriksson L, Mur M, Kriegeskorte N. Rapid Invariant Encoding of Scene Layout in Human OPA. Neuron 2019;103:161-171.e3. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.neuron.2019.04.014.

[11] Brady TF, Shafer-Skelton A, Alvarez GA. Global ensemble texture representations are critical to rapid scene perception. Journal of Experimental Psychology: Human Perception and Performance 2017;5:0–17. https://doi.org/10.1037/xhp0000399.

[12] Oliva A, Torralba A. Building the gist of a scene: the role of global image features in recognition. Prog Brain Res 2006;155:23–36. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0079-6123(06)55002-2.

[13] Lescroart MD, Gallant JL. Human Scene-Selective Areas Represent 3D Configurations of Surfaces. Neuron 2019;101:178-192.e7. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.neuron.2018.11.004.

[14] Ratan Murty NA, Bashivan P, Abate A, DiCarlo JJ, Kanwisher N. Computational models of category-selective brain regions enable high-throughput tests of selectivity. Nat Commun 2021;12:5540. https://doi.org/10.1038/s41467-021-25409-6.

[15] Zamir A, Sax A, Shen W, Guibas L, Malik J, Savarese S. Taskonomy: Disentangling task transfer learning. IJCAI International Joint Conference on Artificial Intelligence, vol. 2019-Augus, 2019, p. 6241–5. https://doi.org/10.24963/ijcai.2019/871.

[16] Groen II, Greene MR, Baldassano C, Fei-Fei L, Beck DM, Baker CI. Distinct contributions of functional and deep neural network features to representational similarity of scenes in human brain and behavior. Distinct Contributions of Functional and Deep Neural Network Features to Representational Similarity of Scenes in Human Brain and Behavior 2017:207530. https://doi.org/10.1101/207530.

[17] Kay KN, Naselaris T, Prenger RJ, Gallant JL. Identifying natural images from human brain activity. Nature 2008;452:352–5. https://doi.org/10.1038/nature06713.

[18] Silson EH, Groen II, Kravitz DJ, Baker CI. Evaluating the correspondence between face-, scene-, and object-selectivity and retinotopic organization within lateral occipitotemporal cortex. J Vis 2016;16:14. https://doi.org/10.1167/16.6.14.
[19] Arcaro MJ, McMains SA, Singer BD, Kastner S. Retinotopic Organization of Human Ventral Visual Cortex. J Neurosci 2009;29:10638–52. https://doi.org/10.1523/JNEUROSCI.2807-09.2009.
[20] Ross MG, Oliva A. Estimating perception of scene layout properties from global image features. Journal of Vision 2010;10:2.1-25. https://doi.org/10.1167/10.1.2.
[21] Chang N, Pyles JA, Marcus A, Gupta A, Tarr MJ, Aminoff EM. BOLD5000, a public fMRI dataset while viewing 5000 visual images. Sci Data 2019;6:49. https://doi.org/10.1038/s41597-019-0052-3.
[22] Allen EJ, St-Yves G, Wu Y, Breedlove JL, Prince JS, Dowdle LT, et al. A massive 7T fMRI dataset to bridge cognitive neuroscience and artificial intelligence. Nat Neurosci 2022;25:116–26. https://doi.org/10.1038/s41593-021-00962-x.
[23] Alvarez G a., Oliva A. Spatial ensemble statistics are efficient codes that can be represented with reduced attention. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America 2009;106:7345–50. https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.0808981106.
[24] Groen II, Ghebreab S, Lamme VAF, Scholte HS. The time course of natural scene perception with reduced attention. Journal of Neurophysiology 2016;115:931–46. https://doi.org/10.1152/jn.00896.2015.-Attention.
[25] Dale AM, Fischl B, Sereno MI. Cortical Surface-Based Analysis. NeuroImage 1999;194:179–94.
[26] Greve DN, Fischl B. Accurate and robust brain image alignment using boundary-based registration. NeuroImage 2009;48:63–72. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.neuroimage.2009.06.060.
[27] Jenkinson M, Smith S. A global optimisation method for robust affine registration of brain images. Medical Image Analysis 2001;5:143–56. https://doi.org/10.1016/S1361-8415(01)00036-6.
[28] Jenkinson M, Bannister P, Brady M, Smith S. Improved Optimization for the Robust and Accurate Linear Registration and Motion Correction of Brain Images. NeuroImage 2002;17:825–41. https://doi.org/10.1006/nimg.2002.1132.
[29] Sanocki T. Representation and perception of scenic layout. Cognitive Psychology 2003;47:43–86. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0010-0285(03)00002-1.
[30] Shafer-Skelton A, Brady TF. Scene layout priming relies primarily on low-level features rather than scene layout. J Vis 2019;19:14. https://doi.org/10.1167/19.1.14.
[31] Wandell BA, Dumoulin SO, Brewer AA. Visual field maps in human cortex. Neuron 2007;56:366–83. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.neuron.2007.10.012.
[32] Sereno AMI, Dale AM, Reppas JB, Kwong KK, Belliveau JW, Brady TJ, et al. Borders of Multiple Visual Areas in Humans Revealed by Functional Magnetic Resonance Imaging. Science 1995;268:889–93.
[33] Engel SA, Glover GH, Wandell BA. Retinotopic organization in human visual cortex and the spatial precision of functional MRI. Cerebral Cortex 1997:181–92.

Supplement:

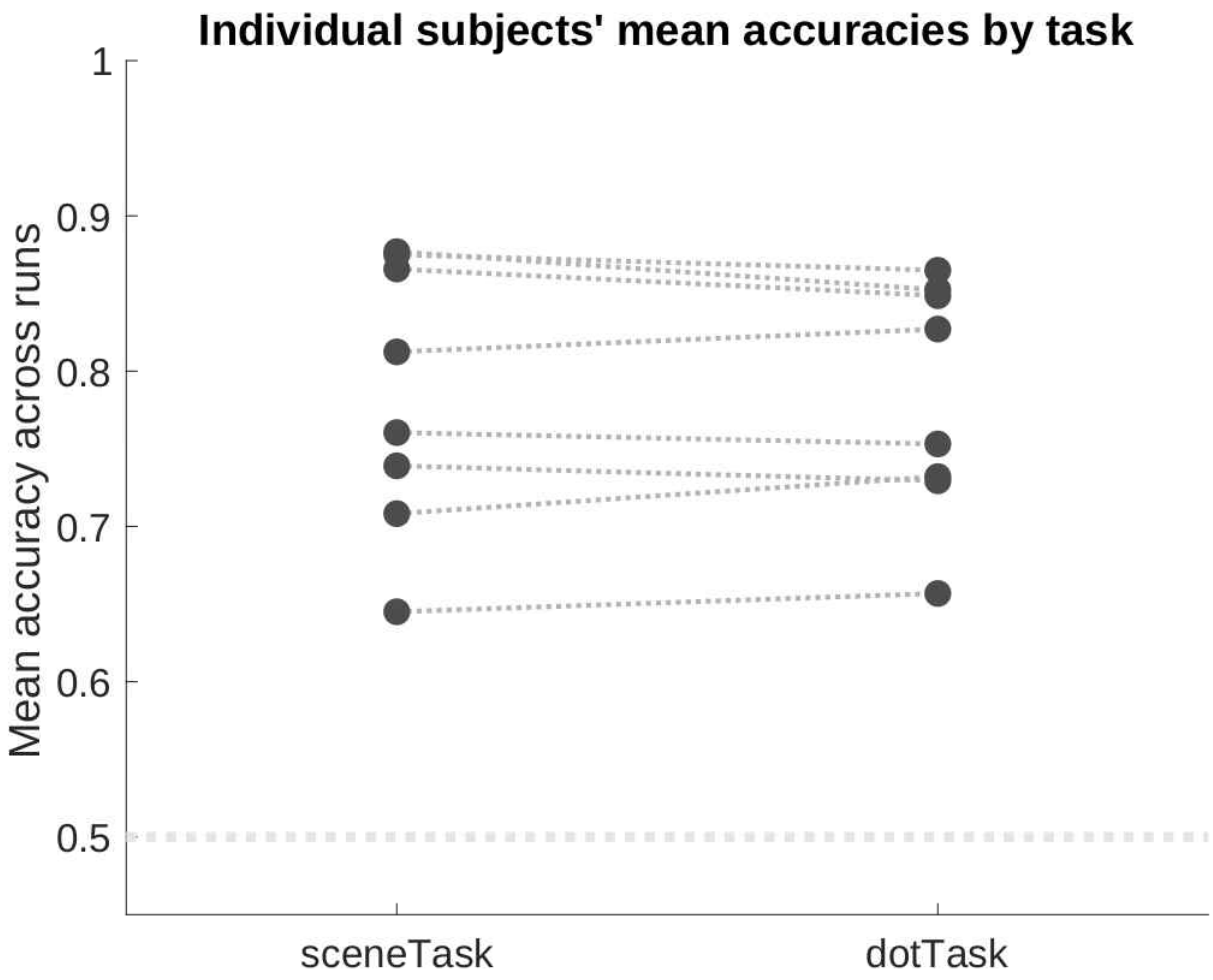

Figure S1. Participants' performance was well above chance, with no obvious outliers. The difficulty of the scene task was fixed because it depended on pre-determined placement of dots on the scene. We chose these placements with the goal of keeping participants off of ceiling. We were able to staircase performance in the dot task to match the scene task, avoiding large differences in performance across runs and enabling us to determine that participants were remaining alert.

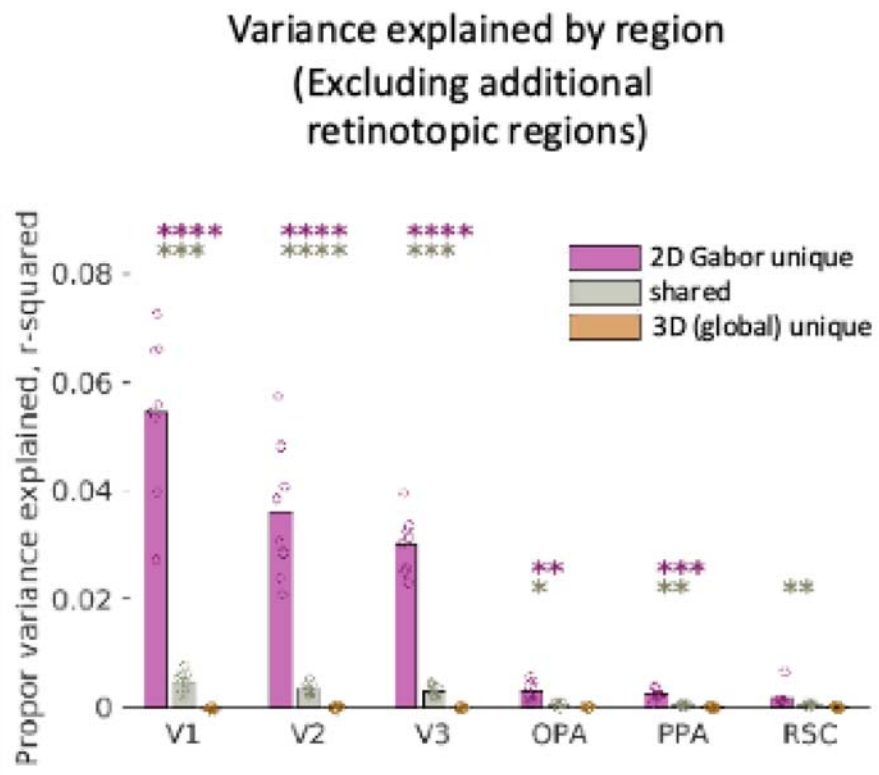

Figure S2. Main variance partitioning results, additionally excluding V3AB, IPS0, LO1, LO2, and hV4. Results are almost identical to main results, including individual data points.

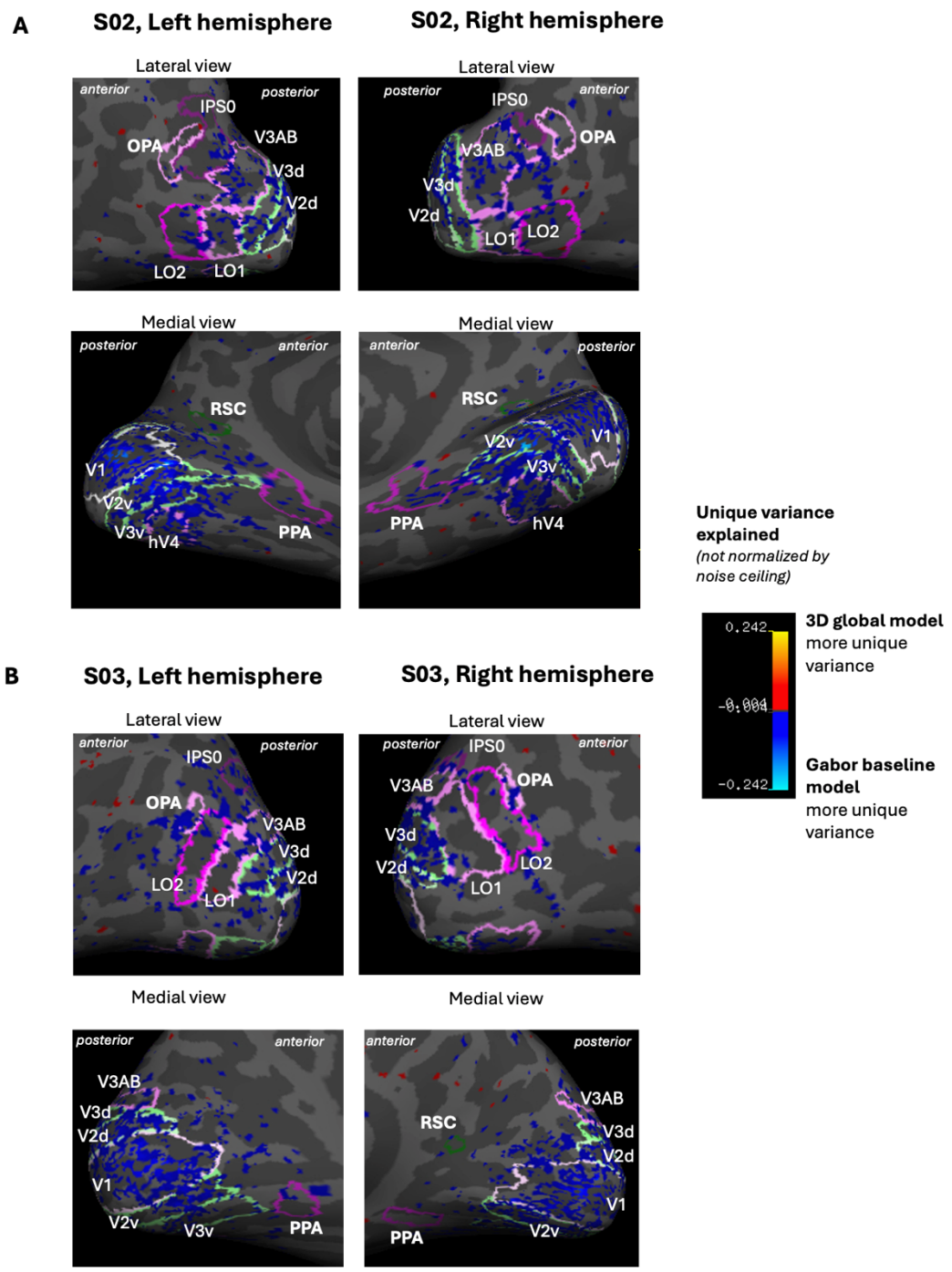

Figure S3: Surface maps of individual participants' variance partitioning results for the 3D global model vs. the Gabor baseline model. Main analyses were done in volume space, and surface-space maps are for visualization purposes only. Color bar depicts the difference between the unique variance explained by the 3D global model (positive, warm colors) and the Gabor-wavelet baseline model (negative, cool colors). Panels A-G include surface maps for each of the 7 subjects not included in the main-text Figure 5 (S02-S08).

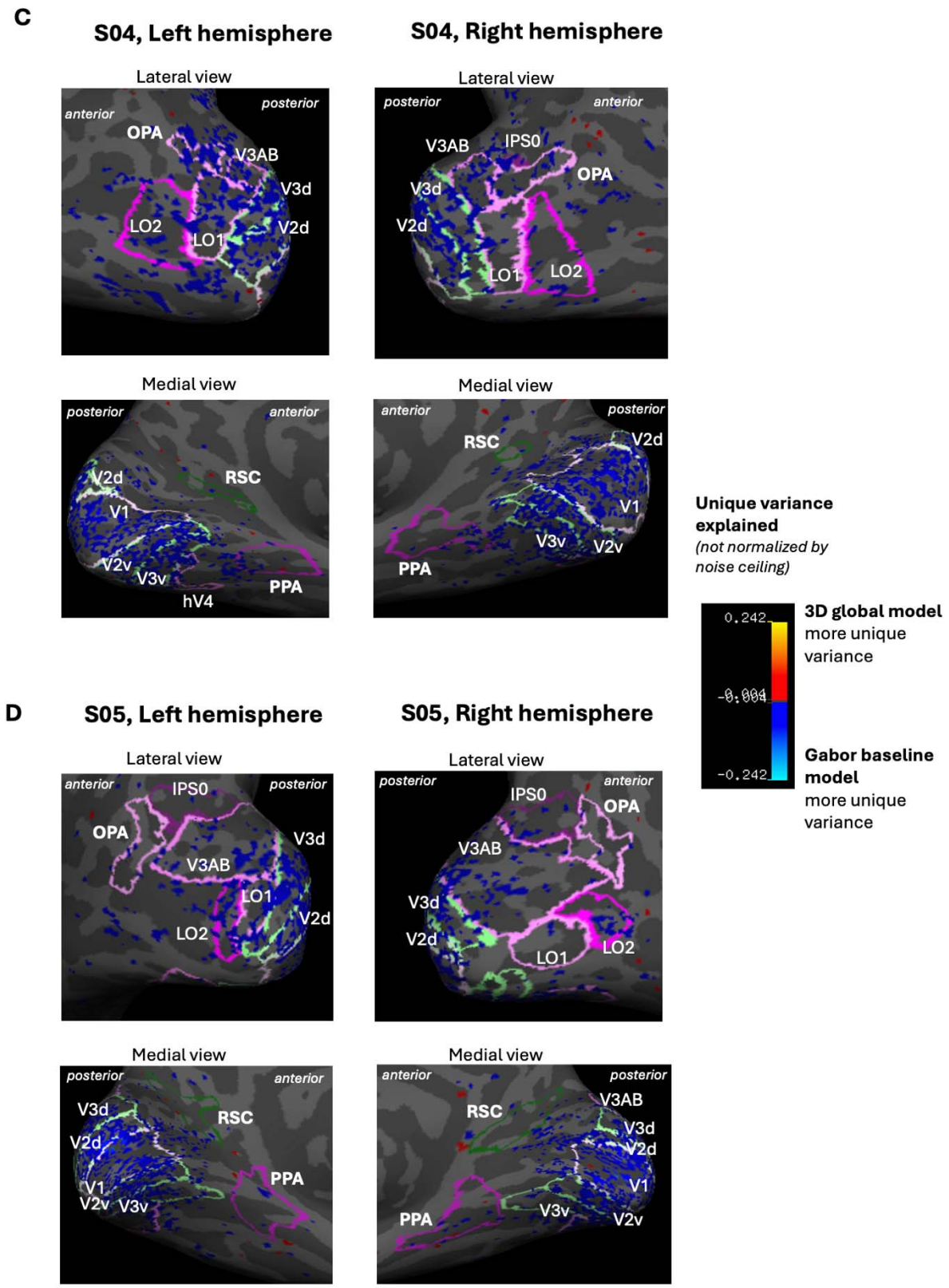

Figure S3 (cont'd): Surface maps of individual participants' variance partitioning results for the 3D global model vs. the Gabor baseline model.

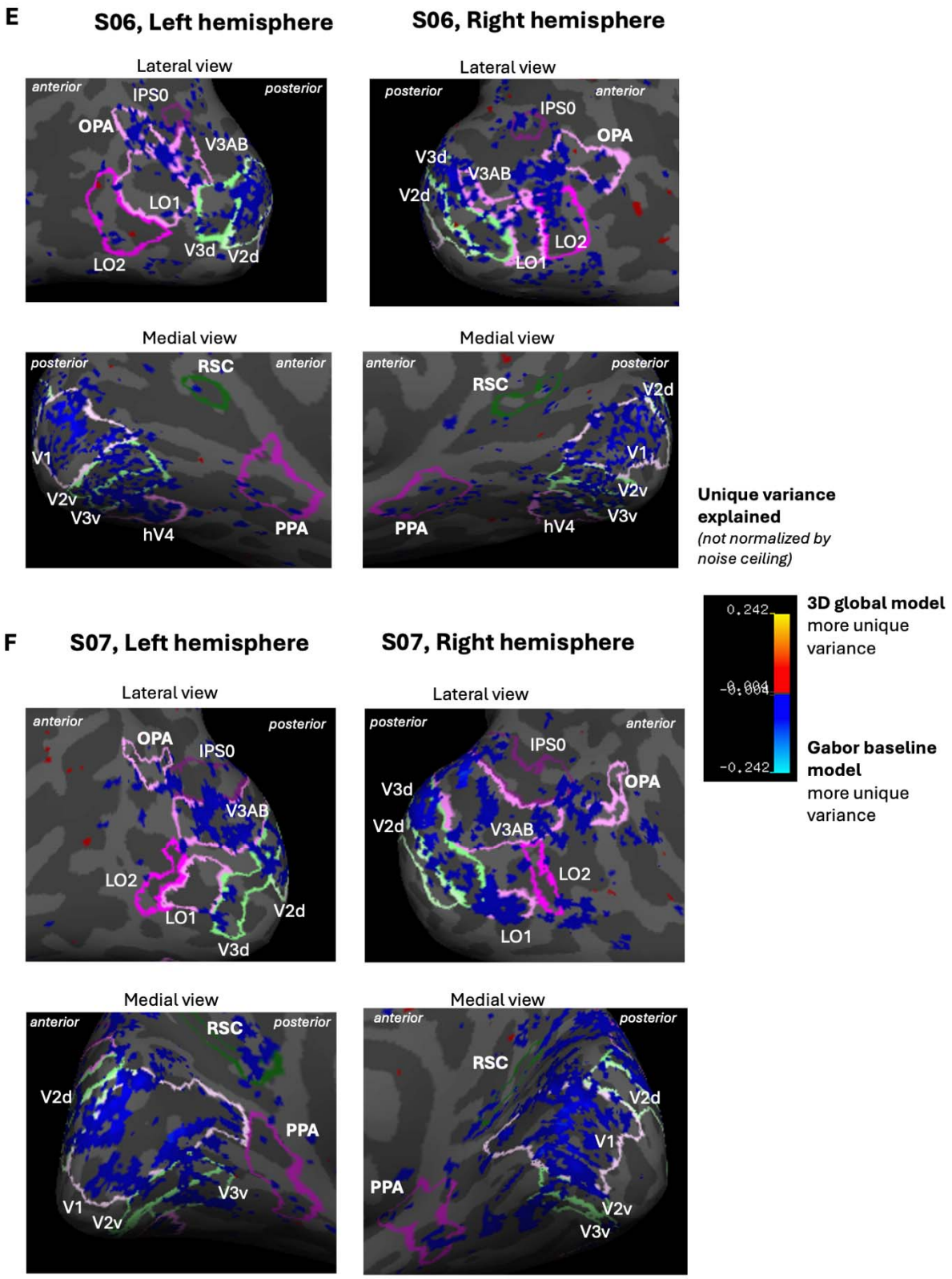

Figure S3 (cont'd): Surface maps of individual participants' variance partitioning results for the 3D global model vs. the Gabor baseline model.

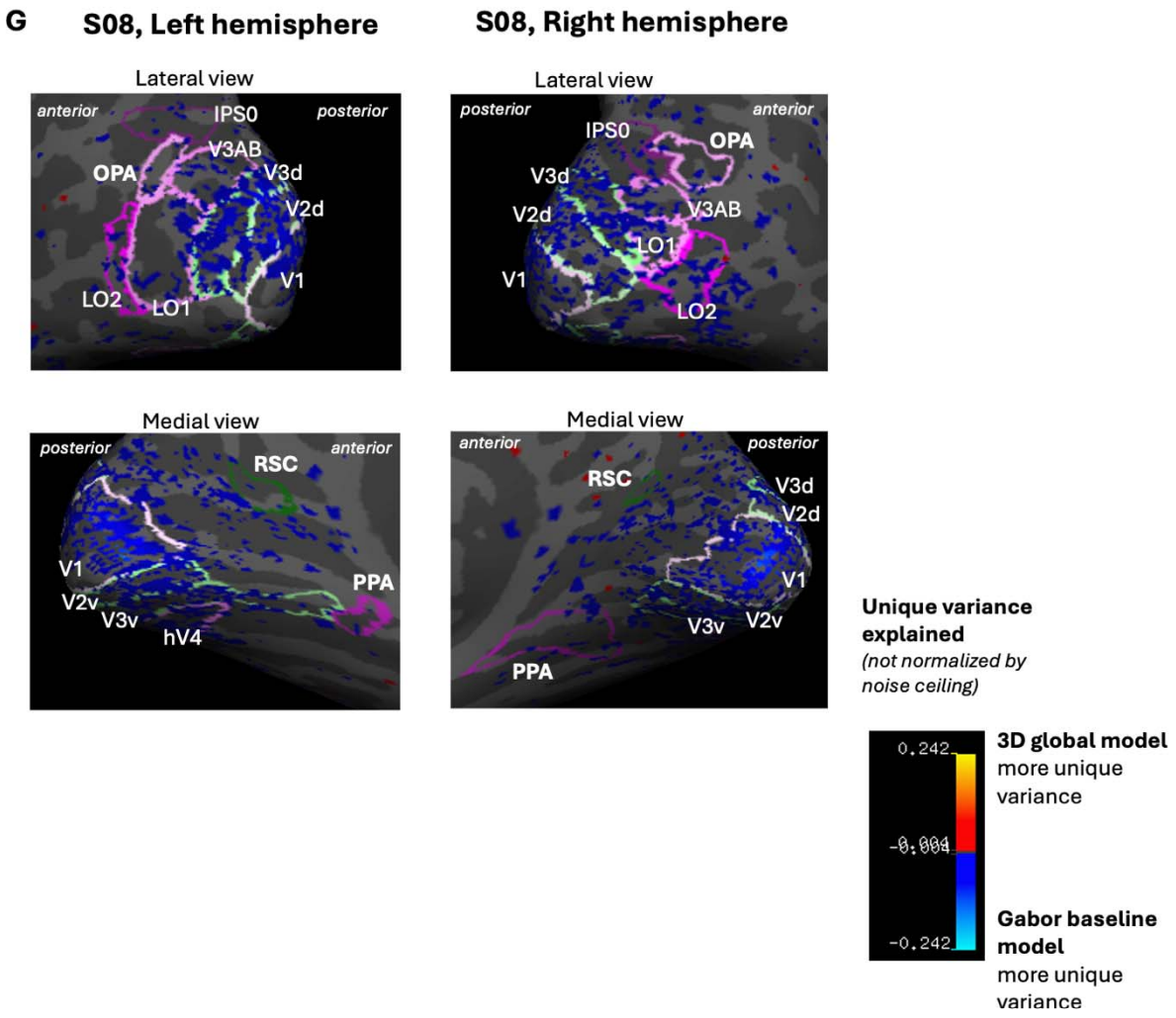

Figure S3 (cont'd): Surface maps of individual participants' variance partitioning results for the 3D global model vs. the Gabor baseline model.

Table S1. RDM-correlations between 2D gabor-wavelet model and 3D-global scene-surface models are reliable within stimulus sets across 3 distance metrics. For the present stimuli, only the 3D-global scene-surface model was included, as it most closely corresponded to Lescroart & Gallant's (2019) model.

Distance metric	**Present stimuli**	**Lescroart & Gallant (2019)**
Cosine distance	-0.002	0.274
Spearman's rho	-0.001	0.191
Pearson correlation	-0.003	0.277

Table S2A: Two-tailed p-values corresponding to permutation tests for each model compared to 0, as well as comparisons of performance for each.

	spat3d	nonSpat3d	gabor
V1	0.0001	0.0001	0.0001
V2	0.0002	0.0001	0.0001
V3	0.0001	0.0001	0.0001
OPA	0.0009	0.0132	0.0002
PPA	0.0016	0.0019	0.0001
RSC	0.0099	0.004	0.0018

	spat3dVsNonSpat3d	spat3dVsGabor	nonSpat3dVsGabor
V1	0.0001	0.0001	0.0001
V2	0.0002	0.0001	0.0001
V3	0.0001	0.0001	0.0001
OPA	0.0342	0.0002	0.0008
PPA	0.0221	0.0001	0.0001
RSC	0.1638	0.0005	0.0025

Table S2B: Variance partitioning, two-tailed p-values corresponding to permutation tests for 3D-quadrant-based ("spat3d") and gabor models.

	gabor unique	shared	spat3d unique
V1	0.0001	0.0002	0.0261
V2	0.0002	0.0002	0.0088
V3	0.0001	0.0001	0.1662
OPA	0.0006	0.0019	0.6623
PPA	0.0002	0.0004	0.4103
RSC	0.0257	0.0259	0.8987

	gaborUniqueVsShared	gaborUniqueVsSpat3dUnique	sharedVsSpat3dUnique
V1	0.0001	0.0001	0.0001
V2	0.0001	0.0002	0.0002
V3	0.0002	0.0001	0.0001
OPA	0.0027	0.0008	0.002
PPA	0.0011	0.0002	0.0002
RSC	0.0367	0.0155	0.0193

Table S2C Variance partitioning, two-tailed p-values corresponding to permutation tests for 3D-global ("nonSpat3d") and gabor models.

	gabor unique	shared	nonSpat3d unique
V1	0.0001	0.0007	0.0262
V2	0.0001	0.0001	0.7131
V3	0.0001	0.0003	0.3412
OPA	0.0018	0.0069	0.2607
PPA	0.0005	0.0018	0.1288
RSC	0.0526	0.0048	0.2874

	gaborUniqueVsShared	gaborUniqueVsNonSpat3dUnique	sharedVsNonSpat3dUnique
V1	0.0001	0.0001	0.0007
V2	0.0002	0.0001	0.0001
V3	0.0001	0.0001	0.0002
OPA	0.0061	0.0016	0.004
PPA	0.0002	0.0003	0.0015
RSC	0.0793	0.0297	0.001