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2 Foveal feedback supports peripheral perception of both object
3 color and form

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21 **Abstract**

22 Evidence from neuroimaging and brain stimulation studies suggest that visual
23 information about objects in the periphery is fed back to foveal retinotopic cortex in a separate
24 representation that is essential for peripheral perception. The characteristics of this phenomenon
25 has important theoretical implications for the role fovea-specific feedback might play in
26 perception. In this work, we employed a recently developed behavioral paradigm to explore
27 whether late disruption to central visual space impaired perception of color. First, participants
28 performed a shape discrimination task on colored novel objects in the periphery while fixating
29 centrally. Consistent with the results from previous work, a visual distractor presented at fixation
30 ~100ms after presentation of the peripheral stimuli impaired sensitivity to differences in
31 peripheral shapes more than a visual distractor presented at other stimulus onset asynchronies. In
32 a second experiment, participants performed a color discrimination task on the same colored
33 objects. In a third experiment, we further tested for the foveal distractor effect with stimuli
34 restricted to a low-level feature by using homogenous color patches. These two latter
35 experiments resulted in a similar pattern of behavior: a central distractor presented at the critical
36 stimulus onset asynchrony impaired sensitivity to peripheral color differences, but, importantly,
37 the magnitude of the effect depended on whether peripheral objects contained complex shape
38 information. These results taken together suggest that feedback to the foveal confluence is a
39 component of visual processing supporting perception of both object form and color.

40 **Introduction**

41 Visual object recognition is traditionally thought to conform to a bottom-up, feedforward
42 model of processing that begins with the extraction of low-level object information in early
43 visual areas [1,2]. From there, visual information proceeds along a hierarchy of cortical regions
44 representing increasingly complex information. In addition, feedback connections from higher to
45 lower visual areas also have an important role in visual perception, such that feedback modulates
46 or attunes feedforward information [3–5]. Williams et al. [6] used multi-voxel pattern analysis of
47 fMRI data to demonstrate that information about the category of novel objects [7] presented in
48 the observer’s periphery could be decoded in cortical regions that corresponded to central, foveal
49 visual space, an area far removed from the stimulus input. The authors attributed this to a
50 feedback process, as the fovea remained unstimulated throughout the experiment. The results
51 from Williams et al. [6] suggested a new type of feedback mechanism - one that is capable of
52 constructing a new and separate representation of peripheral object information. Critically,
53 stronger representation of peripheral object category in foveal retinotopic cortex correlated with
54 better behavioral performance on the task, implying an important role for this representation in
55 perception.

56 A follow-up transcranial magnetic stimulation (TMS) study by Chambers, Allen, Maizey,
57 and Williams [8] showed that integrity of the foveal region at a timeframe consistent with
58 feedback is essential for peripheral perception. In that study, observers performed a task similar
59 to that in Williams et al. [6]. Observers fixated centrally while discriminating between novel
60 objects that briefly appeared in the observer’s periphery. A TMS pulse applied to the occipital
61 pole selectively impaired perceptual discrimination sensitivity of peripheral objects when applied
62 ~350ms *after* stimulus onset compared to a TMS pulse applied at other points in the course of a
63 trial. TMS applied at stimulus onset asynchronies (SOAs) from 150ms prior to stimulus onset to

64 250ms post-stimulus onset, as well as beyond 400ms post-stimulus onset, did not have the same
65 disruptive effect on discrimination sensitivity. Taken together, these studies suggest a form of
66 feedback that constructs a representation of objects removed from the associated visual input
67 and, further, that this feedback is behaviorally relevant.

68 To date, studies examining the foveal feedback phenomenon have largely employed a
69 relatively difficult behavioral task where the participants discriminate between briefly-presented
70 novel greyscale objects [9,10]. However, in Williams et al. [6], the authors included one
71 experiment where participants performed a color discrimination task on colored objects
72 presented in the periphery. In that experiment, unlike the shape discrimination task, the authors
73 did not find information about object form at the fovea, raising the possibility that foveal
74 feedback is related to the task at hand. The authors did not, however, test whether color
75 information could be decoded in foveal retinotopic cortex. Therefore, it is unknown whether
76 foveal feedback is limited to carrying general shape information of visual stimuli, or if it may
77 function for any one object characteristic related to the task being performed.

78 We have previously reported a behavioral measure of foveal feedback [10]. In brief,
79 participants perform a discrimination task on achromatic novel objects briefly presented
80 (~100ms) in their periphery while fixating centrally. An achromatic visual distractor presented at
81 fixation impairs discrimination sensitivity when it appears 117ms after target onset, after the
82 targets have disappeared from the display. This disruption in discrimination sensitivity at
83 +117ms post-stimulus onset reliably occurs when a central distractor is presented to the observer
84 at a time entirely disparate from the target presentation, and is more pronounced compared to
85 distractor onsets at other stimulus onset asynchronies (SOAs), including SOAs later in a trial
86 (e.g., more than 250ms). In a previous paper, we termed this temporally-specific disruption of

87 peripheral discrimination sensitivity the “foveal distractor effect”. We [10] also demonstrated
88 spatial specificity of this effect: discrimination sensitivity was not similarly impaired when a
89 visual distractor was presented in the periphery at the critical SOA. This behavioral paradigm
90 demonstrates the spatial and temporal specificity of foveal feedback and is an efficient method
91 for investigating how feedback influences peripheral perception (see also 6, 7).

92 In the present set of experiments, we used the paradigm described in [10] to test whether
93 the foveal distractor effect is specific to perceptual discrimination between object shapes, or if it
94 also occurs during tasks requiring discrimination of another object characteristic, in this case,
95 color. Color is a useful characteristic to use with these stimuli as its manipulation does not
96 interfere with the fine spatial details of the novel objects. Further, it is unknown whether color
97 information about peripheral objects can be decoded from foveal retinotopic cortex during a
98 color discrimination task [6], but, in light of evidence from electrophysiology research in
99 monkeys suggesting cortical layers receiving feedback connections from higher visual areas may
100 be selective for chromatic information [12], such an outcome is feasible. If feedback to foveal
101 retinotopic cortex contains behaviorally-relevant information about peripheral objects, then
102 disruption to foveal visual space should disrupt discrimination sensitivity of objects in the
103 viewer’s periphery when they perform both shape and color-discrimination tasks. In Experiment
104 1 we replicate the foveal distractor effect using colored novel objects (as opposed to achromatic
105 objects) in a task where participants discriminate between the objects’ shapes, while ignoring
106 their colors. A central distractor presented 117ms after the onset of the targets impaired
107 discrimination sensitivity of object shape in the periphery compared to distractors presented at
108 SOAs very early or later in the trial. In Experiment 2 we used the same stimuli used in
109 Experiment 1 but altered the task: participants were required to discriminate between the target

110 colors while ignoring their shapes. To pre-empt our results, a visual distractor presented at
111 fixation impaired peripheral discrimination sensitivity of color in the periphery, again only at the
112 critical SOA.

113 Research on the cortical processing of color suggests that the neural computations related
114 to form and color are strongly linked in early visual areas [for a review, see 13] . Early coupling
115 of chromatic signals with other visual object characteristics such as orientation [14–16] and
116 figure-ground segregation [17] have been well documented. Multi-voxel pattern analysis of
117 fMRI data shows that object representation in early visual cortex does include information about
118 the conjunction of color and object shape information [18]. Taking this into account, it is unclear,
119 based on the results from Experiment 2, whether the foveal distractor effect is occurring due to
120 the disruption of task-relevant color information in and of itself, or if the effect is occurring as a
121 result of bound color information to complex object form. We addressed this question in
122 Experiment 3 by removing complex shape information from the targets and requiring
123 participants to discriminate between circular patches restricted to low-level color information.
124 Our results indicate that the disruption of peripheral color discrimination sensitivity in the
125 absence of complex shape information remains temporally-specific; on the other hand, the
126 strength of that disruption is flexible and task-dependent.

127 **Experiment 1: Discriminating Form**

128 **Materials and methods**

129 **Participants**

130 Twenty participants, screened for normal or corrected-to-normal visual acuity as well as
131 normal color vision using Ishihara color plates, were recruited for Experiment 1. One
132 participant's data were not used in the analysis due to chance-level performance, leaving the
133 datasets of 19 participants (15 female, 4 male; mean age = 23.3 ± 4.55 years) for analysis.
134 Participants received either course credit or \$15 for their participation and gave informed
135 consent. All experiments in this study were approved by the Macquarie University Human
136 Research Ethics Committee.

137 **Stimuli and apparatus**

138 Sixteen stimuli were selected from a set of 1296 pre-generated “smoothie” stimuli [7].
139 These 16 exemplars were selected to represent the most extreme variations in the larger set.
140 Using Matlab (Mathworks), each of the 16 exemplars was covered with a colored, transparent
141 mask created in CIE L*c*h color space. Every colored mask had a luminance value of 85 and a
142 chroma value of 38. The colored masks varied in hue angle from 0° (red) to 200° (blue) in steps
143 of five degrees, resulting in a full stimulus set of 656 objects. We used a large range of colors to
144 mimic the variability in the shapes of the exemplars. A further smoothie stimulus, which was not
145 one of the 16 main exemplars, was selected for use as a visual distractor. This distractor was
146 covered with a colored mask that had a hue value of 63, which was not one of the possible target
147 colors. In this way, it was possible for the distractor object to vary in degree of similarity, to the
148 color and/or shape of either target while never being identical to either characteristic. Each
149 stimulus subtended $\sim 1.5^\circ$ of visual angle.

150 Experimental sessions took place in a dimly-lit, windowless laboratory at Macquarie
151 University, Sydney. Stimuli were presented on an sRGB-calibrated 27in Samsung SyncMaster

152 AS950 monitor at a resolution of 1920x1080 pixels and a refresh rate of 120Hz. We tracked
153 fixation of the right eye with an Eyelink 1000 remote eye-tracker at 500Hz. The camera and
154 infrared illuminator were mounted in front of the participant below the desktop display so that
155 the screen was not obscured.

156 **Training procedure**

157 Prior to the experiment, participants were trained on a basic discrimination task (with no
158 central distractor). First, a white fixation cross was displayed for 315ms. Then, two colored
159 target objects were displayed for 417ms in the upper left and lower right quadrants of the screen.
160 The targets were presented in these same locations throughout the training tasks and the
161 experiments (Fig. 1). Participants were instructed to maintain fixation on the central cross
162 throughout each trial and determine if the two targets in the array were different shapes or if they
163 were identical in shape as quickly and accurately as possible, while ignoring the color of the
164 targets. In “same” trials, the targets were always presented in the same orientation. In half of the
165 trials, these target stimuli were different shapes, chosen at random from the larger set of 16, and
166 in the other half they were identical shapes. The targets, regardless of whether they were the
167 same or different shapes, always differed in color by a hue angle of 60°. The degree of color
168 difference was selected based on pilot data, such that participants’ performance on a shape
169 discrimination task would be similar to their performance in a color discrimination task using the
170 same stimuli (see Experiment 2). Participants had 2000ms to respond with their right index
171 finger or middle finger on the keyboard to indicate a “same” or “different” judgment,
172 respectively. Following each response, participants were given onscreen accuracy feedback.
173 After a 2000ms interstimulus interval, the next trial commenced automatically. Trials where the

174 participant's eye gaze drifted more than 2° from the center of the display were coded as incorrect
175 during training.

176

177

178 **Fig 1. Schematic of an example “same” trial in the Experiment 1 training task.** Targets were
179 presented for decreasing durations (Δ : 417ms, 267ms, then 117ms) during training. Participants
180 were instructed to ignore the color of the targets and judge only if the shapes of the targets are
181 identical. In this example, the two targets are different colors but the same shape, requiring a
182 “same” response. Training continued until the participant was able to perform above 70%
183 accuracy with a 117ms presentation time across a single block of ten trials.

184

185 Trials were presented in blocks of ten. Once participants could perform the discrimination
186 task with >70% accuracy across a single block with a target display duration of 417ms, the
187 presentation time of the targets decreased to 267ms. Participants repeated the training procedure
188 until they were able to perform the task with >70% accuracy in a block. Then, the presentation
189 time of the targets further decreased to 117ms, which reflected the timing conditions in the
190 experiment. Training continued until participants were able to make at least 70% correct
191 discriminations when the target array was displayed for 117ms, while maintaining fixation
192 throughout the block. In general, participants were able to complete the training within 20
193 minutes.

194 **Experimental procedure**

195 The procedure for Experiment 1 was similar to the training procedure with two major
196 changes: there was a fixed target presentation duration of 117ms and a distractor object appeared

197 at fixation once during each trial (Fig. 2). At the beginning of each trial, a white central cross
198 was displayed for 567ms. In each target display, two colored targets were displayed for 117ms in
199 opposite diagonal locations (upper left and lower right-hand quadrants of the screen), each at
200 6.5° eccentricity. The targets were identical shapes in half the trials and different shapes in the
201 other half, randomly selected from the set of 16 exemplars. As in the training trials the colors of
202 the two targets, in both “same” and “different” trials, always differed by a hue angle of 60°.

203

204 **Fig 2. Schematic of 3 example trials in Experiment 1 with a colored distractor.** Participants
205 judged whether the peripheral targets were the same shape, ignoring their colors, which were
206 always different. The targets and the distractor were displayed for 117ms regardless of SOA. The
207 central distractor appeared either (a) 267ms or 117ms prior to target onset, (b) simultaneously
208 with target onset, or (c) 117ms or 267ms after target onset. In the examples shown, the targets
209 are different colors but identical shapes and the correct response is “same”. (In Experiment 2,
210 participants judged whether the targets were the same color, ignoring their shapes; for these
211 displays in Experiment 2 the correct response would be “different”.)

212

213

214 At one point in each trial, a distractor object appeared at fixation for 117ms. There were
215 ten trial conditions that dictated the timing and the type of the distractor presented. First, the
216 onset of the distractor object occurred at one of five possible SOAs: 267ms prior to target onset
217 (-267ms), 117ms prior to target onset (-117ms), simultaneously with target onset (0ms), 117ms
218 after target onset (+117ms), or 267ms after target onset (+267ms). Second, the distractor was
219 either greyscale or colored with a hue angle of 63°, a color that did not occur in any of the

220 targets. There were 80 trials for each of the ten conditions (40 “same”, 40 “different”) for a total
221 of 800 trials in a session. All of the trial types were randomly intermingled, fully crossed, and
222 blocked so that participants would have a chance to rest every 100 trials.

223 Participants were given 3s to respond after the completion of the trial before the next trial
224 automatically commenced. As in the training task, participants used their right index finger to
225 indicate a “same” judgment or their right middle finger to indicate a “different” judgment.
226 Following each response, participants were given onscreen accuracy feedback.

227 As in training, participants were instructed to maintain fixation on the central cross
228 throughout each trial and respond as quickly and accurately as possible. The eye-tracker was
229 unavailable for six participants. However, given the short duration of the target display as well as
230 the disparate peripheral target locations, any eye-movements towards the peripheral stimuli are
231 likely to have impaired behavioral performance on the task, as only a single target would be able
232 to be fixated (if that) during the display, which would make the second target further from
233 fixation, making it more difficult to compare the two stimuli. In the cases of eye-tracked
234 participants, we had to discard only 0.08% of completed trials from analysis due to eye-
235 movements. Participants were able to complete the experimental task in ~45 minutes.

236 We did not include a non-distractor condition in the main experiment because the training
237 task was effectively the discrimination task without a distractor. Additionally, a non-distractor
238 condition differs from the experimental distractor-present condition. Thus, a ‘no-distractor’
239 condition would not be a good baseline as performance could be better due simply to practice or
240 the other changes. Instead, we used performance in the -267ms SOA condition as a baseline for
241 comparison as it is matched the experimental conditions in all key aspects with the only
242 difference being the onset time of the distractor.

243 Results

244 Our dependent variable was d' as a measure of discrimination sensitivity for comparing the
245 targets. The hit rate was defined as the proportion of correct “same” responses on “same” trials,
246 and the false alarm rate was defined as the proportion of “same” responses on “different” trials
247 (see Table in S1 Table). We ran a two-way repeated measures ANOVA on d' with the factors of
248 SOA (-267ms, -117ms, 0ms, +117ms, +267ms) and distractor type (grey, colored). We applied a
249 Greenhouse-Geisser correction to the main effect of SOA in order to correct for violated
250 sphericity found using Mauchly's Test of Sphericity ($\chi^2(9) = 21.215, p = 0.012$). There was a
251 significant main effect of SOA ($F(2.75, 49.56) = 20.258, p < 0.001, \eta_p^2 = 0.530$), no main effect
252 of distractor type ($F(1, 18) = 0.042, p = 0.841, \eta_p^2 = 0.002$), and no interaction ($F(4, 72) < 1, p =$
253 $0.970, \eta_p^2 = 0.007$; Fig. 3). This result demonstrates that discrimination sensitivity varies with
254 SOA, and whether the distractor object was colored or greyscale has little effect on the
255 participants' ability to discriminate between peripheral colored objects.

256

257

258 **Fig 3. The effect of a central distractor on peripheral color discrimination (mean d') in**
259 **Experiment 1.** A distractor appearing 117ms after target onset disrupted target discrimination
260 sensitivity more than distractors appearing at every other SOA. Error bars represent 95%
261 confidence intervals. Significant differences are discussed in text.

262

263

264 A Bonferroni correction for multiple comparisons ($\alpha = 0.05/10 = 0.005$) was applied to
265 post hoc analyses following up the main effect of SOA (data collapsed over distractor type). For

266 our key SOA of +117ms, discrimination sensitivity (d') was impaired compared to our relative
267 baseline -267ms ($p < 0.001$), as well as compared to -117ms ($p < 0.001$), 0ms SOA ($p < 0.001$)
268 and +267ms SOA ($p < 0.001$; Fig. 3). The only other significant difference was that
269 discrimination sensitivity was significantly lower at 0ms SOA than -267ms SOA ($p < 0.001$). No
270 other comparisons approached significance after correction ($p > 0.005$; see Table in S2 Table).
271 Taken together, these results show that a central distractor appearing 117ms after target onset
272 disrupted participants' ability to discriminate between the peripheral targets more than a
273 distractor appearing at other SOAs. This is an important replication of the foveal distractor effect
274 [10] with stimuli that have different features.

275 **Experiment 2: Discriminating color**

276 Most studies investigating the temporally-specific disruption of peripheral discrimination
277 sensitivity have used a task requiring discrimination of fine spatial details [8,10,11, but see 9]
278 The aim of Experiment 2 was to determine whether this foveal distractor effect would occur
279 when participants attend to and perform a discrimination task on an object characteristic other
280 than shape, in this case, color. Color is an object characteristic that is easily manipulated while
281 avoiding changes to spatial details of the visual stimuli. We used the stimuli from Experiment 1
282 in order to minimize differences between the two experiments.

283 **Materials and methods**

284 **Participants**

285 A naïve group of 20 participants was recruited for Experiment 2. One participant's dataset
286 was discarded due to chance-level performance, leaving 19 full datasets for analysis (15 female,

287 4 male; mean age = 21.34 ± 5.06 years). Participants reported normal or corrected-to-normal
288 visual acuity, were screened for normal color vision using Ishihara color plates, and gave
289 informed consent. Each received course credit or \$15 for their participation.

290 **Procedure**

291 The stimuli and apparatus were the same as in Experiment 1. Prior to taking part in the
292 experiment, participants were trained on a basic discrimination task similar to the training for
293 Experiment 1, except that in Experiment 2, participants discriminated between the colors rather
294 than the shapes of the objects. The shapes of the target objects in Experiment 2 were always
295 different, randomly chosen from the set of 16 exemplars. Participants were instructed to ignore
296 the shapes of the targets and make a judgement on whether the colors of the targets were
297 identical or different. In each trial, one color was chosen at random between the hue angles of 0°
298 and 200° . In “same” trials, the objects’ colors were identical. In “different” trials, the second
299 target’s color always differed by a hue angle of 60° . The degree of difference was determined
300 based on pilot data such that participants would be able to discriminate between the two colors
301 with a similar accuracy as when doing the shape task described in Experiment 1, and the range of
302 colors was chosen to complement the variability in the shapes of the exemplars. The parameters
303 of the training task were the same as in Experiment 1 (see Fig. 1). Participants were trained until
304 they were able to make at least 70% correct discriminations when the target array was displayed
305 for 117ms, while maintaining fixation throughout the block.

306 Experiment 2 was carried out in a similar way to Experiment 1 (see Fig. 2), but the
307 required task was different: participants were asked to judge whether the two colored objects
308 were the same *color* while ignoring their shapes.

309 The eye-tracker was unavailable for seven of the participants in Experiment 2. In the cases
310 of eye-tracked participants, we discarded 0.08% of completed trials from analysis.

311 **Results**

312 Our dependent variable was again d' for target discrimination sensitivity. The hit and false
313 alarm rates (see Table in S3 Table) were defined as in Experiment 1. We ran a two-way repeated
314 measures ANOVA on d' with the factors of SOA (-267ms, -117ms, 0ms, +117ms, +267ms) and
315 distractor type (grey, colored). There was a significant main effect of SOA ($F(4, 72) = 7.328, p <$
316 $0.001, \eta_p^2 = 0.289$), no main effect of distractor type ($F(1, 18) = 1.045, p = 0.32, \eta_p^2 = 0.55$), and
317 no interaction ($F(4, 72) = 1.918, p = 0.117, \eta_p^2 = 0.096$; Fig. 4). This result suggests that target
318 discrimination sensitivity on the color task varied with distractor SOA, and whether the distractor
319 object was colored or grey had little effect on performance.

320

321 **Fig 4. The effect of a central distractor on peripheral color discrimination (mean d') in**
322 **Experiment 2.** Error bars represent 95% confidence intervals. Significant differences are
323 discussed in text.

324

325 A Bonferroni correction for multiple comparisons ($\alpha = 0.05/10 = 0.005$) was applied to
326 post hoc analyses following up the main effect of SOA (data collapsed over distractor type).
327 Target discrimination sensitivity was significantly impaired for +117ms SOA compared to that at
328 -267ms SOA ($p = 0.001$), -117ms SOA ($p = 0.003$), and +267ms SOA ($p < 0.001$). No other
329 comparisons survived correction ($p > 0.021$; see Table in S4 Table). Although the pattern is less
330 clear for this experiment, these significant results are similar to the pattern of results from

331 Experiment 1, where a central distractor appearing 117ms after target onset disrupted
332 participants' ability to discriminate between the peripheral targets more than a target appearing at
333 other non-simultaneous SOAs. The main discrepancy is the lack of a difference between 0ms
334 SOA and +117ms SOA, which does not come out in this experiment; being a null effect, we will
335 not interpret this further.

336 **Experiment 3: Color discrimination with simple shapes**

337 In Experiment 2, participants discriminated between the colors of novel objects. A
338 distractor object in central vision at 117ms post-stimulus onset impaired target discrimination
339 sensitivity relative to most of the other SOAs (except 0ms). This result suggests that feedback to
340 foveal retinotopic cortex carries task-relevant information (in this case, color). However, the
341 targets in Experiment 2, being novel objects, still contained complex shape information. It is
342 therefore possible that it is not the relevance of color that drove the result, *per se*, but instead the
343 link between the shape and color [13,14,18]. The aim of Experiment 3 was to see whether the
344 effect at the critical SOA remained when the stimuli were restricted to a single low-level feature
345 (color) and participants therefore did not have to ignore any aspect of the targets.

346 **Materials and methods**

347 **Participants**

348 A naïve group of 20 participants was recruited for Experiment 3 (11 female, 9 male; mean
349 age = 21.5 ± 3.99 years). Participants received either course credit or \$15 for their participation.
350 All participants were screened for normal color vision, and normal or corrected-to-normal visual
351 acuity and gave informed consent.

352 **Stimuli and apparatus**

353 All aspects of the apparatus were the same as Experiments 1 and 2. The stimuli were a set
354 of color patches, presented on a black background, using the same luminance (85), chroma (38),
355 and hue values (0°-200°) from Experiments 1 and 2. Using Matlab, the original circles ($r = 125$
356 pixels) were filtered with a rotationally symmetric Gaussian low-pass filter of size 100 x 100
357 with a standard deviation of 10 (Fig. 5). In the experiment, the targets were sized to subtend
358 $\sim 1.5^\circ$ visual angle as in the previous experiments.

359

360 **Fig 5. Examples of stimuli used as targets in Experiment 3.** Exemplars differed by 60° , so
361 that, for example, (a) and (b), (b) and (c), or (c) and (d) could be used as pairs. Only hue angle
362 varied; luminance and saturation remained constant.

363

364 **Procedure**

365 In Experiment 3, participants were asked to judge whether the two target circles were the
366 same or different colors. This meant that unlike in the previous experiments, they were no longer
367 required to ignore any feature of the targets. Otherwise, the training and experimental procedures
368 were the same as in Experiment 2. Three participants were not eye-tracked due to technical
369 problems with the eye-tracker. For the other participants, we discarded 0.06% of the eye-tracked
370 trials from the analysis due to fixation failures.

371 **Results**

372 The dependent variable was again d' for target discrimination sensitivity. The hit and false alarm
373 rates (see Table in S5 Table) were defined as in Experiments 1 and 2. A two-way repeated
374 measures ANOVA on d' with the factors of SOA (-267ms, -117ms, 0ms, +117ms, +267ms) and
375 distractor type (greyscale, colored) showed a significant main effect of SOA ($F(4, 76) = 4.373, p$
376 $= 0.003, \eta_p^2 = 0.187$), no effect of distractor type ($F(1, 19) = 0.117, p = 0.736, \eta_p^2 = 0.006$), and a
377 significant interaction ($F(4, 76) = 4.075, p = 0.005, \eta_p^2 = 0.177$; Fig. 6).

378

379 **Fig 6. The effect of a central distractor on peripheral color discrimination (mean d') in**
380 **Experiment 3.** Error bars represent 95% confidence intervals. Significant differences are
381 discussed in text.

382

383 We followed up the interaction with a repeated measures ANOVA on the distractor type
384 conditions separately (Fig. 6). There was a main effect of SOA for both the colored distractor
385 ($F(4, 72) = 9.659, p < 0.001, \eta_p^2 = 0.349$) and greyscale distractor ($F(4, 72) = 13.026, p < 0.001,$
386 $\eta_p^2 = 0.42$; Fig. 6) conditions. A Bonferroni correction for multiple comparisons ($\alpha = 0.05/20 =$
387 0.0025) was applied to the post hoc analyses. For the colored distractor condition, target
388 discrimination sensitivity was impaired with the distractor was presented at +117ms SOA
389 compared to a distractor presented at 0ms SOA ($p = 0.002$; Fig. 6). The difference in mean d'
390 values for +117ms and -267ms ($p = 0.058$), -117ms ($p = 0.013$), and +267ms ($p = 0.003$) did not
391 reach significance after correction but suggest a pattern of results similar to that demonstrated in
392 Experiments 1 and 2 (Table in S6 Table). No other comparisons approached significance ($p >$
393 0.05).

394 For the greyscale condition, discrimination sensitivity was significantly impaired for 0ms
395 SOA compared to -267ms SOA ($p = 0.001$). Mean d' values for +117ms SOA were numerically
396 lower than mean d' values at -267ms SOA ($p = 0.019$), -117ms SOA ($p = 0.007$), and +267ms
397 SOA ($p = 0.019$) but these differences did not reach significance after correction (Fig. 6).

398 We also followed up the interaction of SOA and distractor type by examining the effect of
399 distractor type at each SOA separately. Post-hoc analyses of the interaction using a Bonferroni
400 correction ($\alpha = 0.05/10 = 0.005$) showed that distractor color affected discrimination accuracy
401 when presented simultaneously with the targets, with a grey distractor impairing target
402 discrimination sensitivity relative to a colored distractor ($p = 0.004$; Fig. 6). At all other SOAs,
403 there was no significant effect of the color of the distractor type ($p > 0.05$; Table in S7 Table).

404 Discussion

405 The aim of this study was to test whether the foveal distractor effect is limited to form-
406 related information or extends to other visual features. In Experiment 1 we used colored novel
407 objects to replicate the effect first demonstrated with achromatic stimuli in Weldon et al. [10].
408 When participants were asked to discriminate two peripheral target objects on shape while
409 ignoring their color, a distractor presented at fixation at +117ms SOA impaired perceptual
410 discrimination more than a distractor presented at SOAs very early or late in the trial. At the
411 critical SOA, the targets are no longer present onscreen and the distractor appears in an entirely
412 different location from that of the target array.

413 We followed up Experiment 1 by asking whether we would see the same pattern in the data
414 if participants were asked to discriminate color, rather than shape, on the same set of stimuli. We
415 demonstrated the foveal distractor effect in Experiment 2, where participants were required to

416 ignore the targets' shapes (which were always different), and discriminate object color. Although
417 the results were not as clear as in Experiment 1, this is the first demonstration of the foveal
418 distractor effect during a color discrimination task. Although this result might indicate that
419 feedback to foveal retinotopic cortex carries task-relevant information that is not limited to
420 object shape (in this case, color), our targets in Experiment 2 still contained complex shape
421 information. It is possible that the feedback of bound color-shape information rather than the
422 feedback of color in and of itself might be driving the behavioral effect. We addressed this in
423 Experiment 3 by minimizing shape information in the stimuli and presenting homogenous color
424 patches as targets.

425 In Experiment 3, we found that the delayed disruption of peripheral discrimination
426 sensitivity to be somewhat diminished. This result is consistent with evidence that foveal
427 feedback is selectively employed for tasks that involve spatial detail [9]. Foveal vision, in
428 contrast with peripheral vision, is highly specialized and ideal for tasks involving stimuli with
429 fine spatial details. One explanation of the function of a foveal feedback mechanism is that
430 foveal cortex acts as a high-resolution buffer [19,20], or visual “scratchpad”, for storing task-
431 relevant information [6,9]. This specialized region of cortex may be recruited for the purpose of
432 resolving perceptual decisions during difficult perceptual tasks with peripheral stimuli. If this is
433 the case, foveal feedback would be less engaged for a task that requires discrimination of objects
434 with fewer spatial details (as in Experiment 3), even when the task is similarly challenging for
435 observers. Our behavioral result here supports this explanation, but converging evidence from
436 fMRI studies that take advantage of MVPA techniques is necessary to compare foveal
437 retinotopic cortex content during different types of tasks.

438 Experiment 3 also had an interaction of distractor type and SOA, unlike in Experiment 1
439 and 2 where we found only a main effect of target SOA. A greyscale distractor was more
440 disruptive to discrimination sensitivity than a colored distractor when it was presented
441 simultaneously with the targets (and only then), which suggests the disruption is a result of a
442 grey distractor causing some differential interference with *feedforward* processing (as opposed to
443 feedback) of color stimuli. Although central distractors that are irrelevant to targets have been
444 shown to cause more interference in visual search tasks than when the central distractor is
445 identical to the target [21], this finding differs somewhat from previous work where participants
446 performed a discrimination task on achromatic versions of the stimuli used in this paper. A
447 central, inconsistent distractor (an angular, “cubie” version of the target stimuli, [7]) did not
448 interfere with peripheral discrimination sensitivity more than a distractor that was consistent with
449 the targets (an object from the same shape category) [10]. The different effect is perhaps driven
450 by computational differences related to the chromaticity of the distractor [22], the requirement to
451 discriminate between a feature with low spatial frequency rather than complex spatial
452 information [9], or some combination of these possibilities. Although this finding is intriguing,
453 any distractor appearing on the display simultaneously with the distractors could reasonably be
454 expected to interfere with peripheral perception simply because there is more information present
455 in the visual field. Furthermore, this finding at 0ms SOA is not directly relevant to our main
456 investigation regarding feedback at later SOAs, so we will not speculate more here.

457 The timecourse of the effect described in this paper for this particular paradigm has been
458 consistent across multiple experiments (see 5). The ~40ms discrepancy between the timecourse
459 demonstrated here and Yu and Shim [11], though they target a similar effect, may be due to the
460 difference in perceptual task. Fan et al. [9] showed that foveal interference occurs around 450ms

461 SOA for trials involving an additional mental rotation task. The difficulty of a task and/or
462 specific task demands may determine the time at which feedback to the foveal cortex occurs, and
463 thus, the time at which our foveal distractor effect would be evident.

464 Another possible explanation for these discrepancies may be due to the differences in
465 temporal relationship between the offset of the target and the onset of the distractor on the visual
466 display. In the studies presented here, the *offset* of the target array coincides with the *onset* of the
467 distractor at the critical SOA of +117ms. Although there is no overlap between the display time
468 of the target array and the display time of the distractor at 117ms SOA, we cannot be sure based
469 on the limited amount of literature using this paradigm. The behavioral paradigm designed to
470 target this effect is still new; further experiments are necessary to map out the timecourse of the
471 effects reported here and elsewhere [9–11].

472 Overall, the present experiments demonstrate that the foveal distractor effect is not specific
473 to object shape information, but that feedback to the foveal confluence is also important for the
474 peripheral discrimination of color, especially when discriminating between colored complex
475 shapes. The more subtle effect of a central distractor at +117ms during discrimination of
476 homogenous color patches suggests that the foveal feedback signal is flexible and may be related
477 to tasks involving discrimination between fine spatial detail [9]. In Williams et al. [6], object
478 information in foveal cortex was present only when participants performed the object
479 discrimination task, but not when they performed a color discrimination task on the same stimuli.
480 It will be important to employ neuroimaging studies to determine whether color information is
481 likewise present at foveal retinotopic cortex only during a behavioral task requiring color
482 discrimination. Such studies would also be able to address the question of whether irrelevant
483 information is fed back to foveal cortex (which is more difficult to measure behaviorally). That

484 said, the evidence from the present set of experiments, namely, that perception of peripheral
485 object form and color is affected by disruption of foveal representations at a timepoint consistent
486 with feedback to foveal cortex, lends credence to the proposal that foveal retinotopic cortex
487 serves to store or compute task-relevant visual information during difficult perceptual tasks.

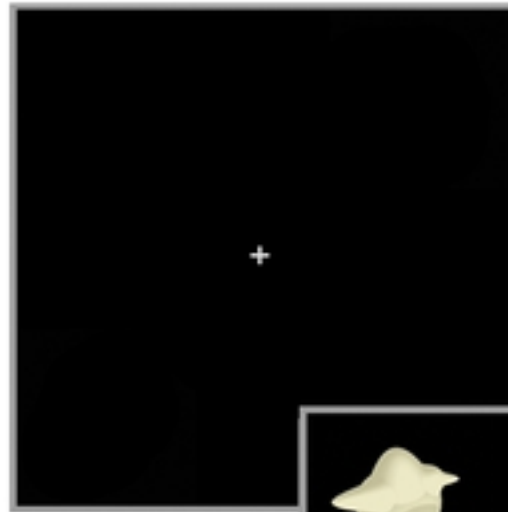
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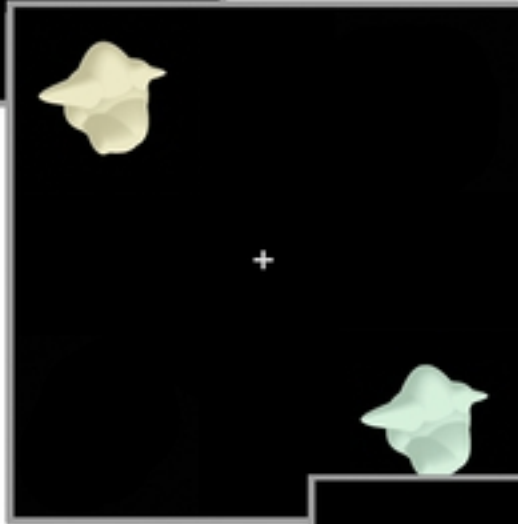
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Fixation
317ms



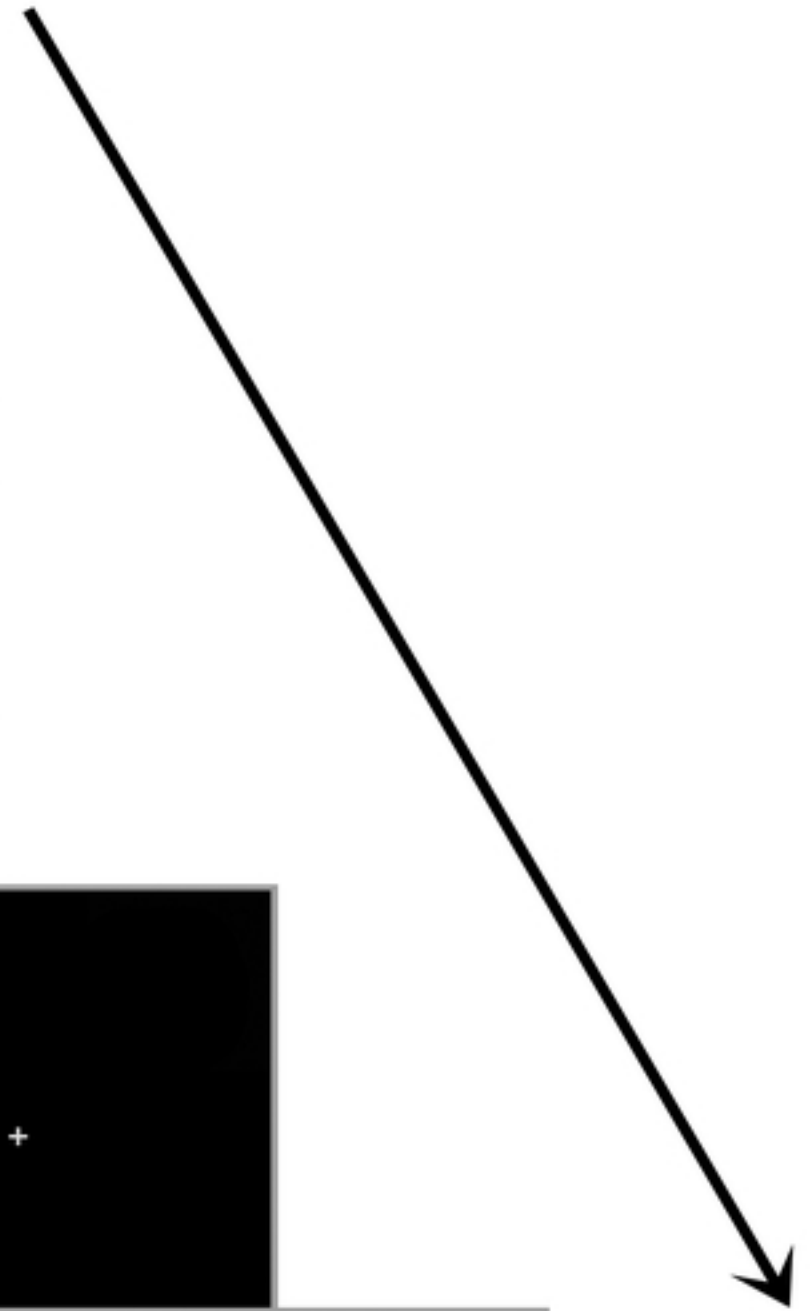
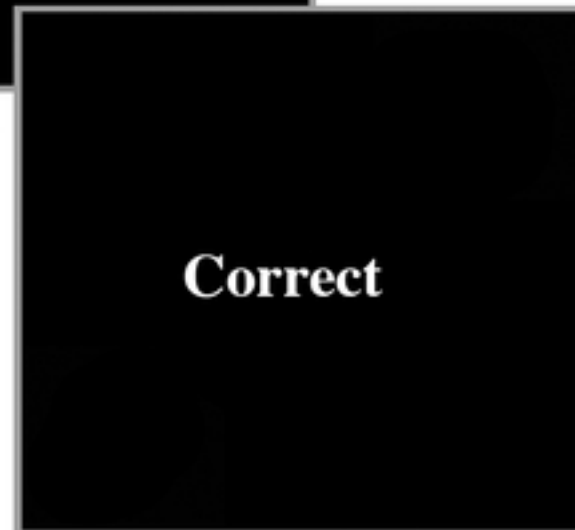
Target
 Δ ms



Response:
Same or Different **SHAPE**?
up to 2000ms



Feedback



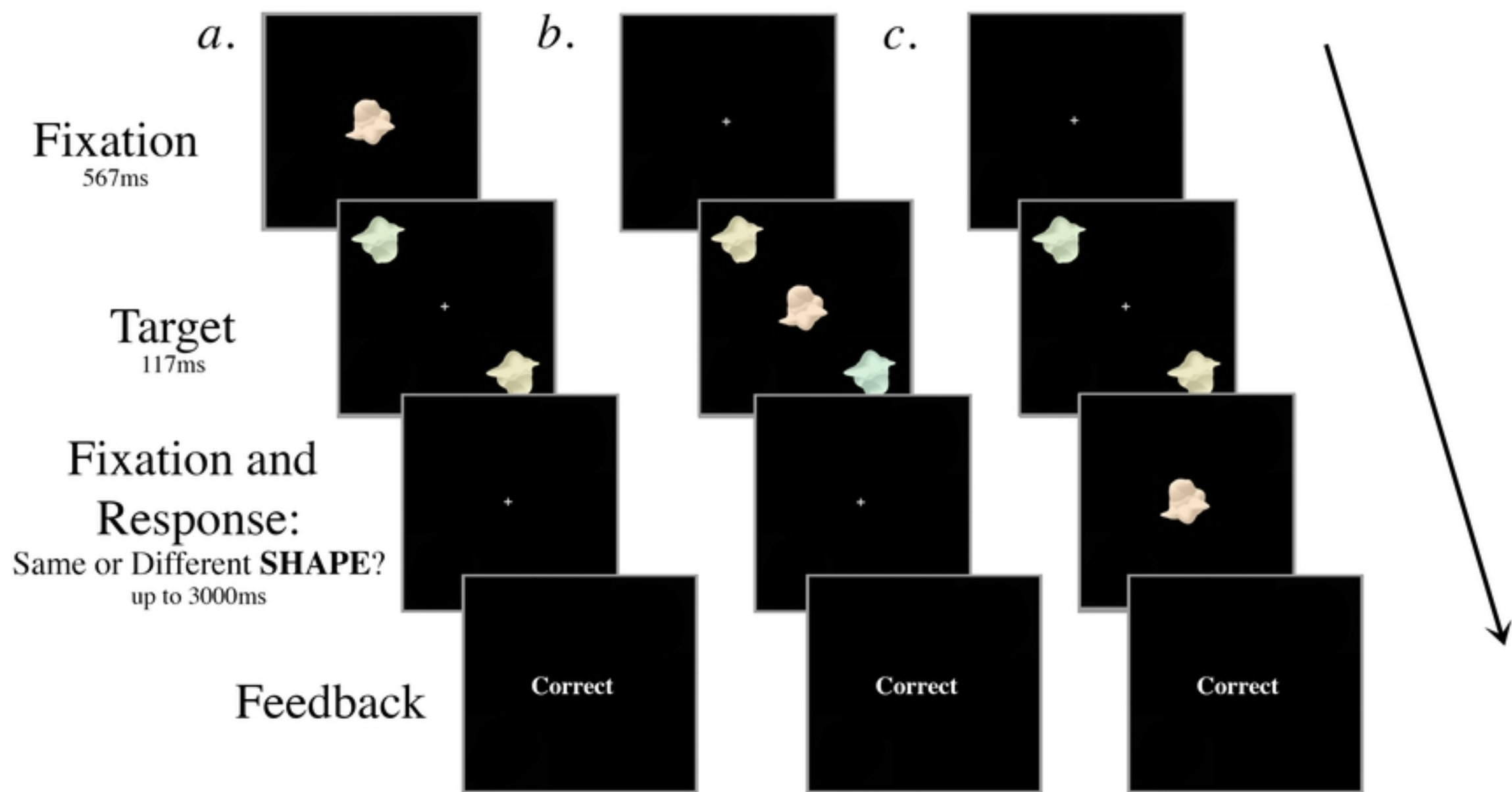


fig2

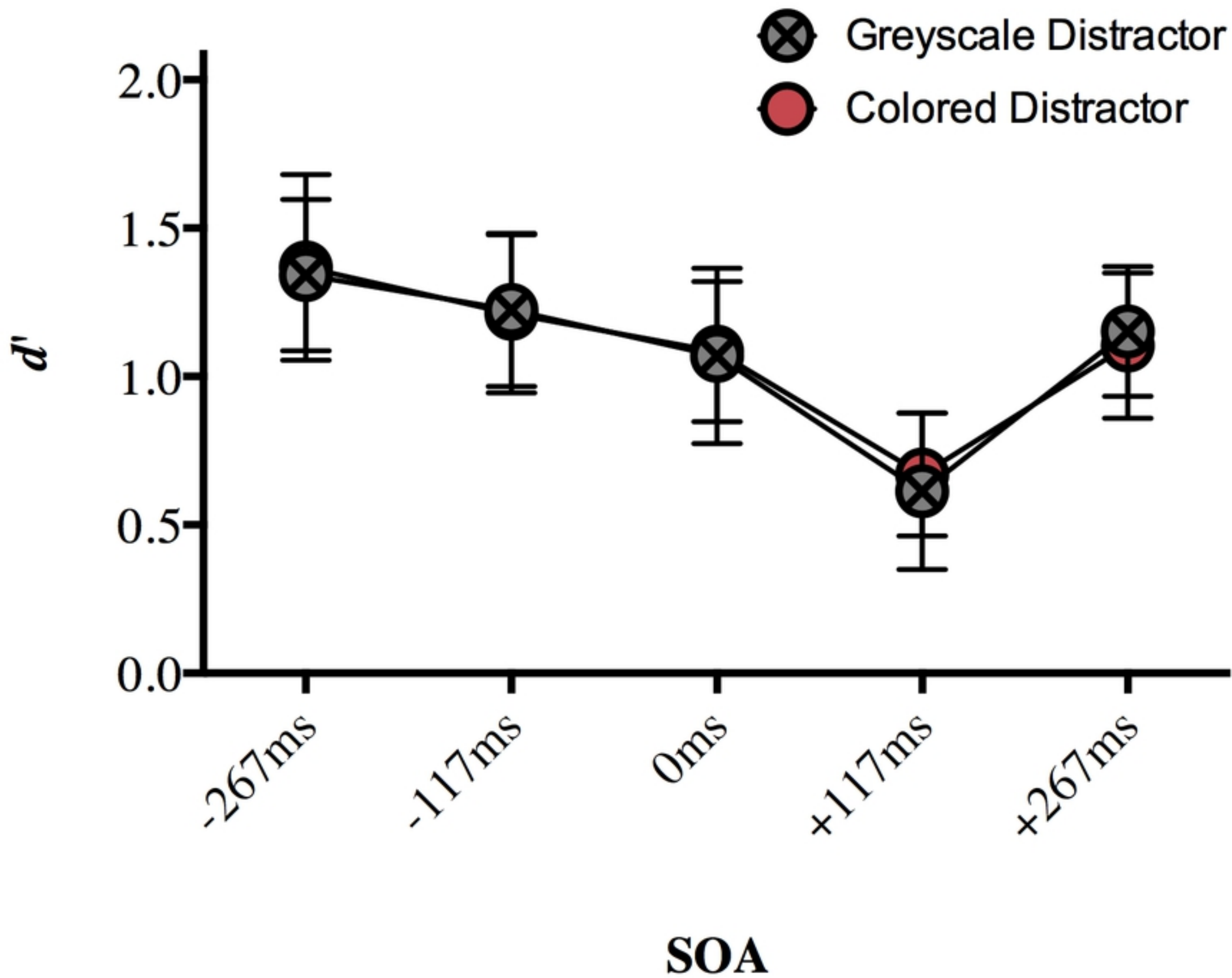


fig3

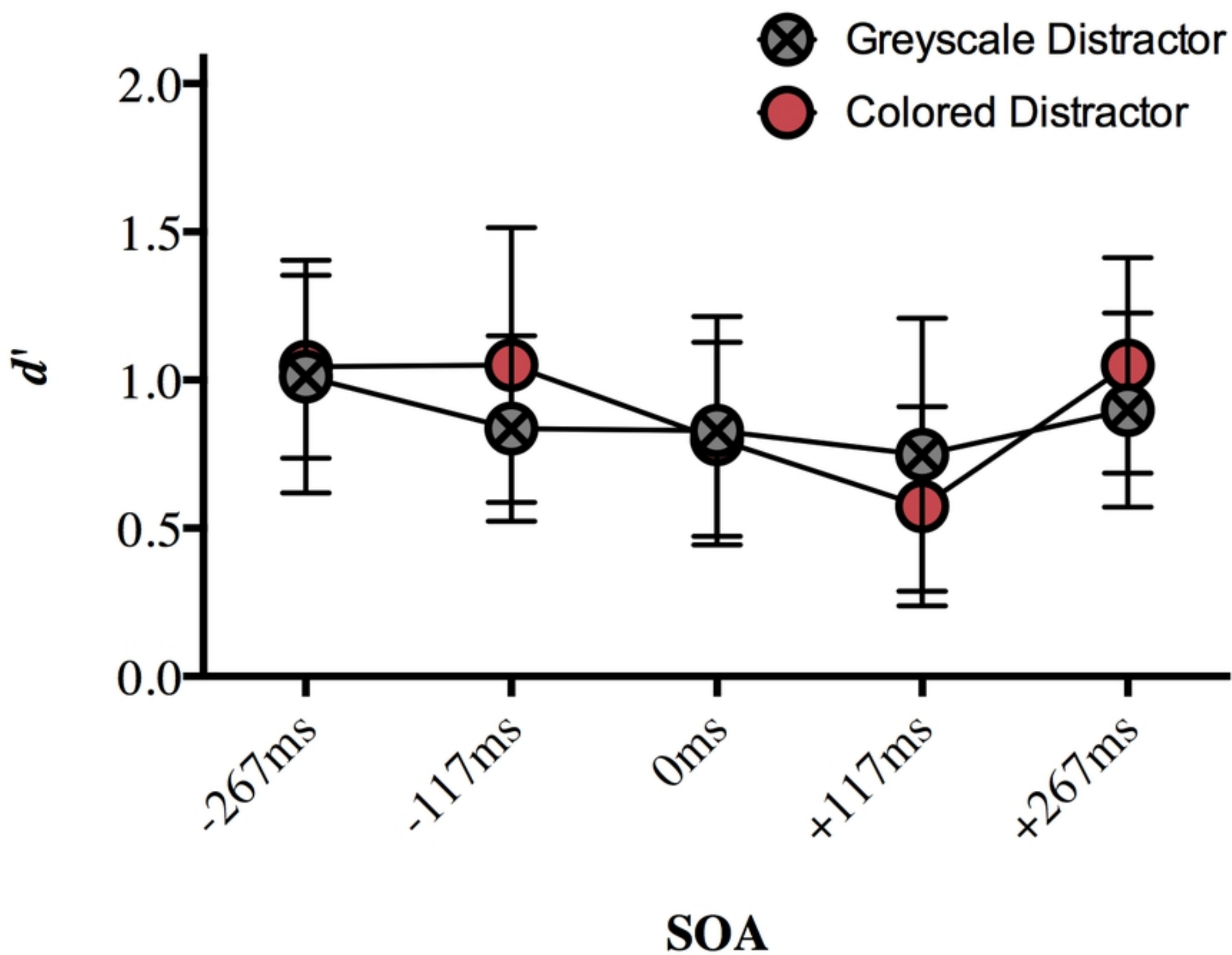


fig4

a



$H = 0^\circ$

b



$H = 30^\circ$

c



$H = 60^\circ$

d



$H = 90^\circ$

fig5

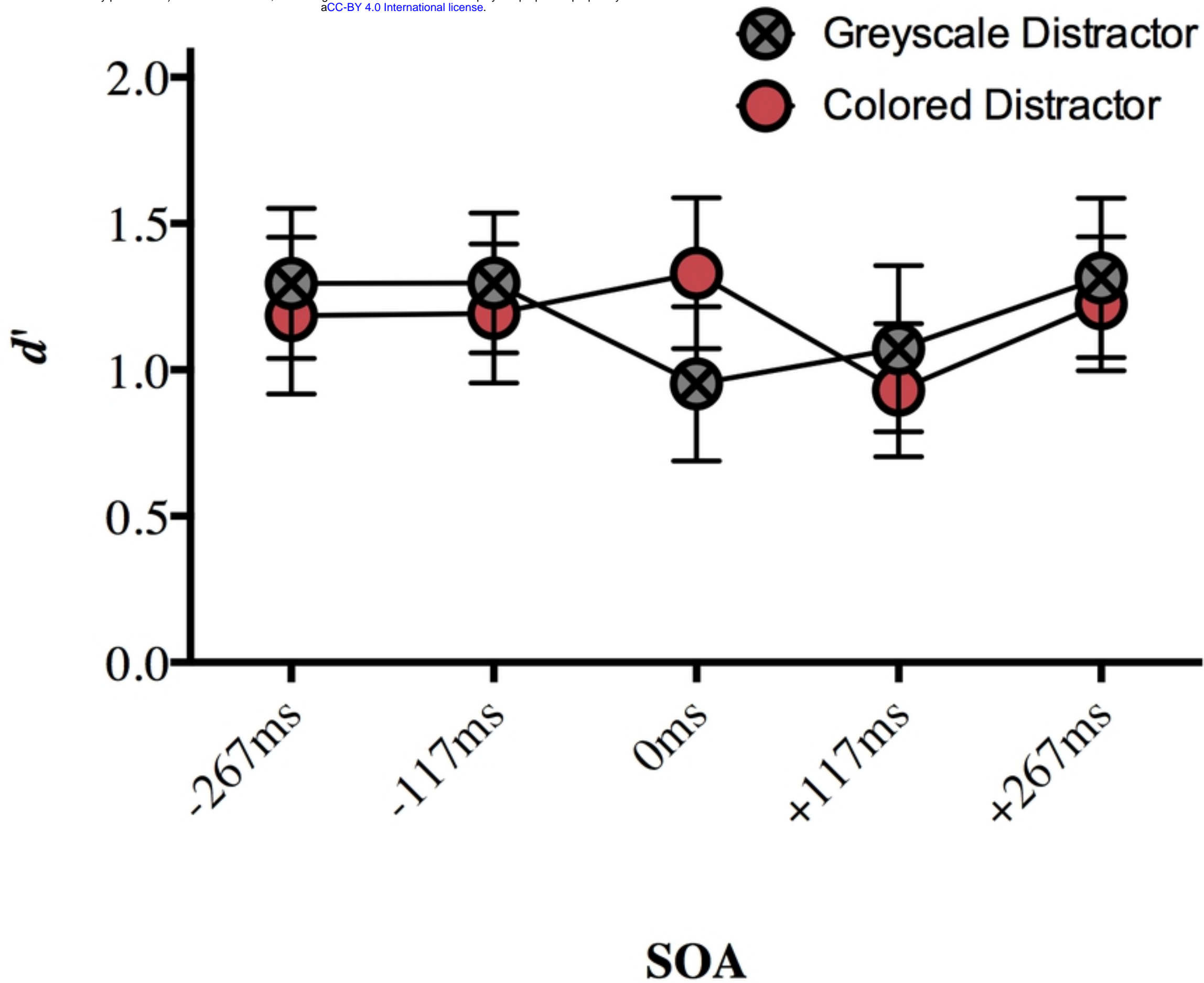


fig6