

Orientation-Tuned fMRI Adaptation in Human Visual Cortex

Fang Fang,¹ Scott O. Murray,² Daniel Kersten,¹ and Sheng He¹

¹*Department of Psychology, University of Minnesota, Minneapolis, Minnesota; and* ²*Department of Psychology, University of Washington, Seattle, Washington*

Submitted 13 April 2005; accepted in final form 14 August 2005

Fang, Fang, Scott O. Murray, Daniel Kersten, and Sheng He.

Orientation-tuned fMRI adaptation in human visual cortex. *J Neurophysiol* 94: 4188–4195, 2005. First published August 24, 2005; doi:10.1152/jn.00378.2005. Adaptation is a general property of almost all neural systems and has been a longstanding tool of psychophysics because of its power to isolate and temporarily reduce the contribution of specific neural populations. Recently, adaptation designs have been extensively applied in functional MRI (fMRI) studies to infer neural selectivity in specific cortical areas. However, there has been considerable variability in the duration of adaptation used in these experiments. In particular, although long-term adaptation has been solidly established in psychophysical and neurophysiological

ties for detecting the test stimulus following adaptation. We also failed to find orientation-tuned fMRI adaptation in V1 with a short-term adaptation paradigm, which replicated Boynton and Finney's (2003) finding and ruled out other potential explanations (e.g., transient attention and apparent motion) of the long-term fMRI adaptation effect.

METHODS

Subjects

A total of five healthy subjects (2 female, 3 male; YJ, WL, PT, FF, and SM) were involved in these experiments. YJ, WL, FF, and SM participated in the long-term psychophysical and fMRI adaptation experiments. YJ, WL, FF, and PT participated in the short-term psychophysical and fMRI adaptation experiments. All were right-handed and ranged in age from 25 to 33 yr. They had normal or corrected-to-normal vision and gave written, informed consent in accordance with procedures and protocols approved by the subjects review committee of the University of Minnesota.

fMRI experiments

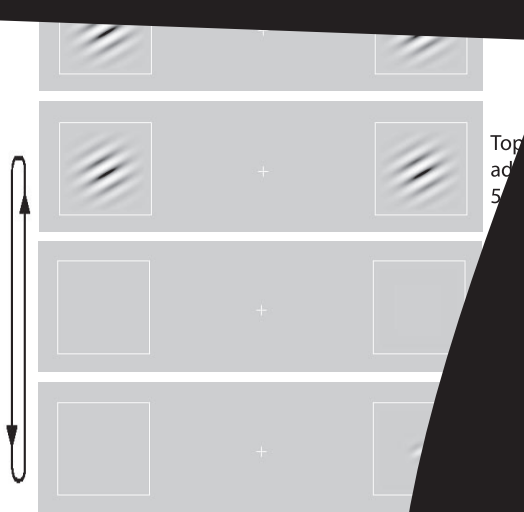
The adapting and test stimuli consisted of 16 Gabor patches arranged in two concentric annuli, with an inner diameter of 4.5° (Fig. 1). Each of the eight patches in the inner annulus had a diameter of 1.9° ($\sigma = 0.38^\circ$) and a spatial frequency of 2.5 cycles/degree. The eight outer annulus patches each had a diameter of 2.8° ($\sigma = 0.70^\circ$) and a spatial frequency of 1.5 cycles/degree. The Gabor patch in the adapting stimulus

was presented in each adaptation condition. The test stimuli were generated by rotating the individual Gabor patches in the stimulus by $\pm 0^\circ, \pm 7.5^\circ, \pm 30^\circ, \pm 45^\circ, \pm 90^\circ$. The Gabor patch was randomly rotated either clockwise or counterclockwise.

For the long-term adaptation experiment, each subject completed a scan (total of 8) consisting of 10 s of preadaptation, 10 s of four test stimuli, and 10 s of the Gabor patch. The test stimuli were performed in a random order. The press of a button indicated the detection of the test stimulus.

Psychophysical experiments

Psychophysical contrast adaptation experiments were performed outside the scanner under adaptation conditions designed to match those in the fMRI experiments. Two adapting Gabor patches (diameter: 2.8°; spatial frequency: 1.5 cycles/degree; mean radii: 4.5°; $\sigma = 0.70^\circ$; 1-H counterphase flickering), which were the same as those in the outer annulus in the fMRI experiments, were presented on opposite sides of the fixation point. Like the long-term fMRI adaptation experiments, 20 s of preadaptation was also used. Then, after 5-s of preadaptation and a 0.5-s blank gap, a low-contrast, 1.5-cycle Gabor patch whose center and spatial frequency were identical to the adapting stimuli was presented for 200 ms on either the left or right side. A 250-ms auditory beep preceding each test stimulus 250 ms alerted the subject to the ensuing presentation of the test stimulus. Subjects were asked to press a button to make a two-alternative forced-choice (2-AFC) to indicate the location of the test stimulus (left or right of fixation, Fig. 2). Contrast thresholds of test stimuli (82% correct rate to judge their location) after adaptation were estimated by Quest staircases (Watson and Pelli 1983), four times for each subject and test stimulus type. Each staircase consisted of 50 trials, with fixed orientations of adapting and test Gabor patches that



were randomized at the beginning of the study to minimize psychophysical short-term contrast adaptation. Prior to the fMRI experiments, adaptation time was 20 s. All other parameters were equivalent to the long-term adaptation scan, that there was no 20-s preadaptation in the test condition experiment. The stimuli were presented on a Sanyo 19-in scan G420 19-in monitor, with a spatial resolution of 1024 × 768 and refresh rate of 100 Hz. The viewing distance was 57 cm, background luminance was 43 cd/m², and luminance of the monitor ranged from 0 to 86 cd/m².

fMRI data acquisition

In the scanner, the stimuli were back-projected using a video projector (60 Hz) onto a translucent screen placed inside the scanner bore. Subjects viewed the stimuli through a mirror located above their eyes. fMRI data were collected using a 3-T Siemens Trio scanner with a high-resolution eight-channel head array coil. Blood oxygen level-dependent (BOLD) signals were measured with an echo-planar imaging (EPI) sequence (TE: 30 ms, TR: 1,000 ms, FOV: 22 × 22 cm², matrix: 64 × 64, flip angle: 60°, slice thickness: 5 mm, number of slices: 14, slice orientation: axial). The bottom slice was positioned at the bottom of the temporal lobes. T2-weighted structural images at the same slice locations and a high-resolution three-dimensional (3-D) structural data set (3D MPRAGE; 1 × 1 × 1-mm³ resolution) were collected in the same session before the functional runs. The scans for retinotopic mapping were run in a different session in the same scanner.

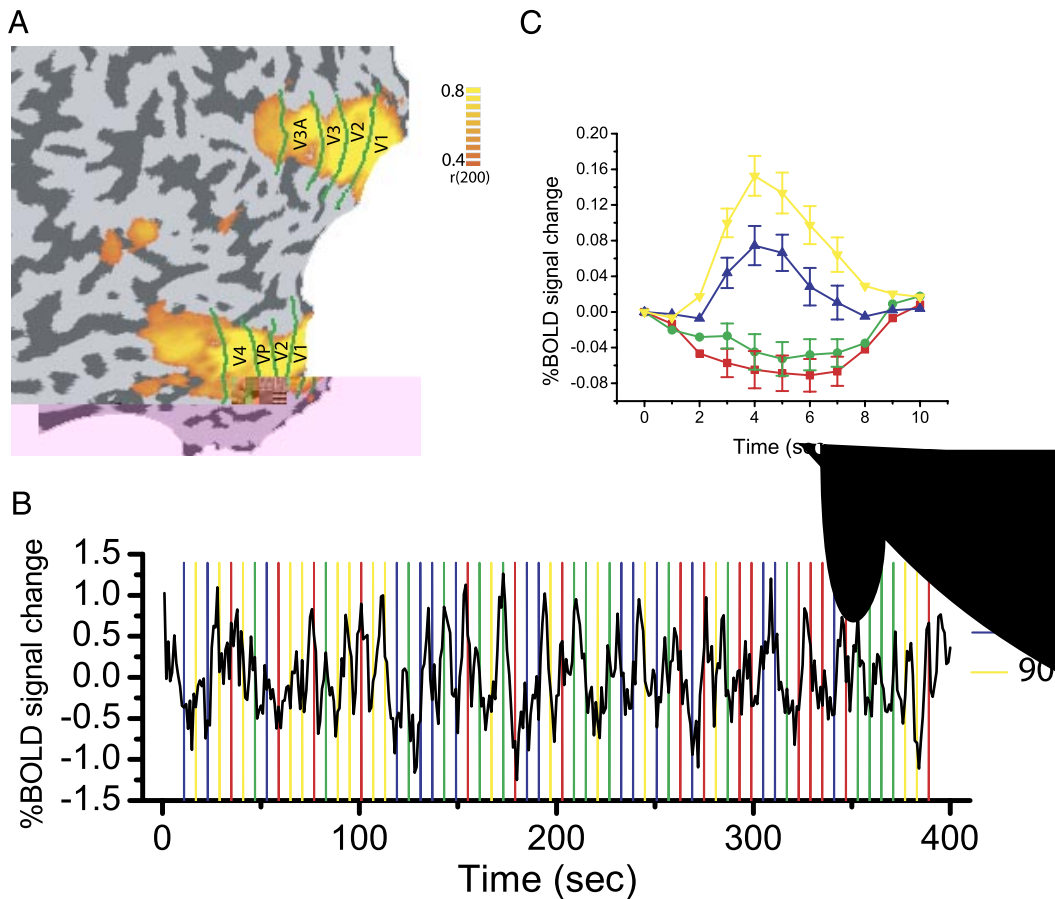
fMRI data analysis

The anatomical volumes were transformed into a brain space that was common for all subjects (Talairach and Tournoux 1988) and registered using BrainVoyager 2000. Functional volumes for each subject were preprocessed, which included 3-D motion correction using SPM99, slice scan time correction, linear trend removal, and high-pass (0.015 Hz) (Smith et al. 1999) filtering using BrainVoyager 2000. Correlation analysis was performed on the localizer data to define the

501 (0.03) and 90° (0.03) and 0° (0.03) and 45° (0.03) and 90° (0.03) and 135° (0.03) and 180° (0.03) and 225° (0.03) and 270° (0.03) and 315° (0.03) adaptation experiment. Subjects' general attentional state did not differ between different test conditions.

fMRI results

Figure 3B shows a time-course of BOLD signal in V1 from a long-term adaptation scan. Figure 3C shows event-related averages in V1 evoked by the four test stimuli (0, 7.5, 30, and 90° angular difference from the adaptor) averaged across four subjects. Test stimuli were presented at time 0. The fMRI signals show a monotonic increase from 0 to 90° test conditions. This response pattern was consistently observed in all four subjects. A one-way ANOVA shows a significant main effect of the test-adapt angular difference in V1 [$F(3,15) = 28.252, P < 0.001$]. It is interesting to note that only the 30 and 90° test stimuli elicited a significant positive peak at a latency of 4 s. The BOLD signals evoked by the 0 and 7.5° test stimuli



are negative and kept decreasing until time-points 5 and 6. This may be attributed to the overlapping neural populations tuned to 0 and 7.5°. The fMRI signals evoked by the 0 and 7.5° test stimuli began to increase after time-point 6 because of the presentation of the next test stimulus.

We also examined the evoked BOLD signals in extrastriate areas (V2, V3/VP, V3A, and V4). As shown in Fig. 5A, extrastriate areas also consistently exhibited a monotonic increase in signal from the 0 to 90° test conditions, which was confirmed by ANOVAs [V2: $F(3,15) = 29.768$, $P < 0.001$; V3/VP: $F(3,15) = 31.494$, $P < 0.001$; V3A: $F(3,15) = 52.41$, $P < 0.001$; V4: $F(3,15) = 81.681$, $P < 0.001$]. Also, there was a progressive increase in the magnitude of the adaptation effect through the hierarchy of visual retinotopic areas from V1 to V4.

Figures 4B and 5B show the results from the short-term adaptation experiment. To compare the fMRI adaptation effect between the long-term and short-term adaptation experiments, the BOLD signal evoked by the 0° test stimulus served as baseline and was subtracted from those evoked by the 7.5°, 30°, and 90° test stimuli (Fig. 4B). The BOLD signals from the short-term adaptation experiment in V1, unlike the long-term one, did not show a monotonic increase from 0 to 90° test conditions, which indicates no (or very weak) short-term adaptation effects in V1. However, as shown in Fig. 5B, extrastriate areas gradually exhibited an adaptation effect, and the

main ANOVA effect of angular difference reached significance in V3A and V4 [V1: $F(3,15) = 0.557$, $P = 0.653$; V2: $F(3,15) = 2.112$, $P = 0.152$; V3/VP: $F(3,15) = 2.673$, $P = 0.095$; V3A: $F(3,15) = 5.976$, $P = 0.01$; V4: $F(3,15) = 6.859$, $P = 0.006$].

Psychophysical results

The elevation of contrast detection thresholds after adaptation as a function of the angular difference between adapting and test orientations has been widely used to show orientation-selective adaptation in the visual system. Here, we measured the minimum Michelson contrast required to detect the presence of a Gabor patch at the adapted location after 5-s top-down adaptation and 1-s short-term adaptation.

For the long-term adaptation experiment, the psychophysical results (Fig. 6A, square) clearly show that visual system is well adapted, and the contrast threshold is proportional to the angular difference between adapting and test orientations. However, in the short-term adaptation experiment, the magnitude of contrast threshold elevation (Fig. 6B, circle) is much weaker than that in the long-term one. To compare the psychophysical and fMRI results after long-term adaptation, we plotted the contrast detection threshold against peak fMRI signal values in V1 for each subject (Fig. 6B). Linear functions provided a good fit of the data (S1: $y = 0.11007 - 0.29666x$,

Test	Blank
1 sec	2 sec

old test stimuli, and loss of perceived contrast for supra-threshold test stimuli are both tuned to the adapting orientation (but see also, Snowden and Hammett 1992). Because both contrast threshold elevation and fMRI adaptation reflect measured neural activities of different orientation-selective neurons, and the comparison is more of a qualitative one, we feel it is reasonable to compare the psychophysical and fMRI results.

Our result of orientation-selective adaptation is consistent with the findings of Tootell et al. (1996). However, from the brief description of their task, it is unclear whether attention, which may have been a confounding factor, changed between the adapting and test periods. This is an important control because it has been established that attention modulates the response in V1 (e.g., in Yee 1999; Somers et al. 1997; Tootell et al. 1995). The present task in our study not only helped to equate attention in condition 1 and 2, but also allowed us to determine the important to the task. The results show that the contrast threshold elevation was elevated during the adapting period, and the adaptation was more pronounced for the test period.

When at the subjects.

DISCUSSION

and fMRI data show similar patterns in human V1 cortex. In condition 1 and 5-s top-down adaptation, the presentation of a test stimulus after the adapting stimulus resulted in a difference between the adapting and test periods, as observed in V1 contrast threshold elevation.

adaptation was observed in V1 cortex. In condition 1 and 5-s top-down adaptation, the presentation of a test stimulus after the adapting stimulus resulted in a difference between the adapting and test periods, as observed in V1 contrast threshold elevation.

in the present study. In condition 1 and 5-s top-down adaptation, the presentation of a test stimulus after the adapting stimulus resulted in a difference between the adapting and test periods, as observed in V1 contrast threshold elevation.

suggesting that subjects' attention was evenly distributed throughout the adaptation scans. Third, although sustained attention is very effective in modulating V1 BOLD signal, there is little evidence supporting that BOLD signals in V1 can be affected by transient attention (Liu et al. 2005) and apparent motion (Clayson et al. 2003; Liu et al. 2004). Fourth and most importantly, the short- and long-term fMRI adaptation experiments were identical except for the duration of adaptation. If transient attention and/or apparent motion were the source of the effect in the long-term experiment, we should have also observed a monotonic increase from the 0 to 90 test conditions in the short-term experiment. However, we did not observe any differences between orientation conditions with short adaptation durations. Similar evidence against transient attention and apparent motion explanation can also be found in the long-term adaptation study of Engel (2005).

Unlike our finding of orientation-tuned adaptation in V1 with the long-term adaptation paradigm, Boynton and Finney (2003) did not observe orientation-dependent adaptation in V1 despite showing elevated orientation-specific contrast detection thresholds. Their study used short (1 s) adaptation durations and examined responses to 1-s parallel and orthogonal test stimuli. Our results with short-term adaptation replicated Boynton and Finney's (2003) failure to observe orientation-dependent adaptation in V1. The critical factor for observing

orientation-tuned adaptation effects in V1 measured with fMRI is the duration of adaptation. The use of tens of seconds of adaptation is prevalent in the neurophysiological adaptation literature and influences nearly all dependent variables, including the strength of the aftereffect (Boynton et al. 1991; Mather et al. 1998), the magnitude of adaptation (Greenlee et al. 1991), the proportion of responsive neurons (Movshon and Sapiro 1991) and the shift magnitude of tuning curves (Muller et al. 1999). The failure to observe orientation-dependent adaptation in V1 in the study of Boynton and Finney (2003) and ours with short-term adaptation is likely contributed to V1 neurons not being sufficiently activated to be detected with fMRI. Our psychophysical results showing much larger elevations in contrast detection thresholds for long-term adaptation, also support this interpretation. The validity of long-term fMRI adaptation paradigms (Boynton et al. 2002; Heintze et al. 2002; Boynton et al. 2003) is supported by the fact that they produce much larger elevations in contrast detection thresholds (Boynton et al. 2002; Heintze et al. 2002; Boynton et al. 2003) and our results with short-term adaptation.

Given that fMRI is an indirect measure of neural activity, it is important to consider the potential source of our signals. Logothetis et al. (2001) suggested that the BOLD signal reflects the input and intracortical processing of a given area rather than its spiking output. The majority of input to V1 is from the lateral geniculate nucleus (LGN) and neurons in LGN are known to have little or no orientation selectivity (Hubel and Wiesel 1961). We can therefore speculate that one source of the orientation-specific signal we observed is from intracortical processing in V1, possibly from orientation-specific synaptic activity between simple and complex cells (Alonso and Martinez 1998). One reason to attribute our results in V1 partially to simple cell activity is that previous neurophysiological studies have shown that complex cells exhibit stronger orientation-specific adaptation to low-contrast than to high-contrast test stimuli (and we used a high-contrast test stimulus). Simple cells, on the other hand, are much less affected by test-stimulus contrast (Movshon and Lennie 1979; Sclar et al. 1989). Other sources could be horizontal connections linking neurons within V1 (Callaway 1998) and feedback from high-level cortical areas (Lamme et al. 1998). Certainly, more studies are needed to better understand the complex relationship between BOLD signals (released from adaptation) and neuronal activities.

Because the effects of long-term adaptation are known to be relatively long-lasting, it is possible that some of the previous scans' adaptation is still present during the successive scan. That is, the cortical areas responsive to a given oriented patch might have reduced responses on the following scan to the orientation that was adapted at that location on the previous scan. In our study, subjects had at minimum 1-min break between adaptation scans. Previous studies (e.g., Greenlee et al. 1991) have shown that adaptation recovery time is approximately equal to the duration of adaptation (20-s preadaptation and 5-s topping-up adaptation in our studies), suggesting that lingering adaptation likely had very small effects on our results. However, it could be possible that larger adaptation effects would have been found if we had not randomly adapted orientations in each adaptation scan.

We observed orientation-specific adaptation in other retinotopic areas including V2, V3/VP, V3A, and V4. One of the perceptual consequences of orientation adaptation is the tilt aftereffect, which can be induced not only by luminance defined stimuli, but also by illusory contours (Paradiso et al. 1989), equiluminous and colored stimuli (Elsner 1978), and random dot stereograms (Tyler 1975). It has been shown that neurons in V2, V4, and V3A are sensitive to these visual properties (Tsao et al. 2003; von der Heydt and Peterhans 1989; Zeki and Marini 1998). Our finding of orientation adaptation across multiple levels of the early visual hierarchy supports the notion that orientation processing is ubiquitous in early areas of the visual system. Future application of our experimental design to other stimulus dimensions and other cortical areas will help understand neural coding at multiple stages of the human visual system.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

We thank B. Tjan, Y. Jiang, J. Liu, and three anonymous reviewers for helpful comments.

GRANTS

This research was supported by the National Geospatial-Intelligence Agency (NGA HM1582-05-C-0003), the James S. McDonnell Foundation, and

National Institutes of Health Grants R01 EY-015261-01 and NCRR P41 RR-008079. F. Fang was also supported by the Eva O. Miller Fellowship from the University of Minnesota.

REFERENCES

- Alonso J and Martinez LM.** Functional connectivity between simple cells and complex cells in cat striate cortex. *Nat Neurosci* 1: 395–403, 1998.
- Blakemore C, Muncey JP, and Ridley RM.** Stimulus specificity in the human visual system. *Vision Res* 13: 1915–1931, 1973.
- Blakemore C and Nachmias J.** The orientation specificity of two visual after-effects. *J Physiol* 213: 157–174, 1971.
- Boynton G and Finney E.** Orientation-specific adaptation in human visual cortex. *J Neurosci* 23: 8781–8787, 2003.
- Brefczynski JA and DeYoe EA.** A physiological correlate of the 'spotlight' of visual attention. *Nat Neurosci* 2: 370–374, 1999.
- Buracas GT and Boynton GM.** Efficient design of event-related fMRI experiments using M-sequences. *Neuroimage* 15: 801–813, 2002.
- Callaway EM.** Local circuits in primary visual cortex of the macaque monkey. *Annu Rev Neurosci* 21: 47–74, 1998.
- Carandini M, Movshon JA, and Ferster D.** Pattern adaptation and cross-orientation interactions in the primary visual cortex. *Neuropharmacology* 37: 501–511, 1998.
- Clayton KG, IG,**

- Larsson J, Landy MS, and Heeger DJ.** Orientation-selective adaptation in human V1 revealed by event-related fMRI. *Soc Neurosci* 986.8, 2004.
- Leopold DA, Wilke M, Maier A, and Logothetis NK.** Stable perception of visually ambiguous patterns. *Nat Neurosci* 5: 605–609, 2002.
- Liu T, Pestilli F, and Carrasco M.** Transient attention enhances perceptual performance and fMRI response in human visual cortex. *Neuron* 45: 469–477, 2005.
- Liu T, Slotnick SD, and Yantis S.** Human MT+ mediates perceptual learning-in during apparent motion. *Neuroimage* 21: 1772–1780, 2004.
- Logothetis NK, Pauls J, Augath M, Trinath T, and Oeltermann A.** Neurophysiological investigation of the basis of the fMRI signal. *Nature* 412: 150–157, 2001.
- Mather G, Verstraten F, and Anstis S.** The motion aftereffect: a modern perspective. Cambridge, MA: MIT Press, 1998.
- Moradi F, Koch C, and Shimojo S.** Face adaptation depends on seeing the face. *Neuron* 45: 169–175, 2005.
- Movshon JA and Lennie P.** Pattern-selective adaptation in visual cortical neurones. *Nature* 278: 850–852, 1979.
- Muller JR, Metha AB, Krauskopf J, and Lennie P.** Rapid adaptation in visual cortex to the structure of images. *Science* 285: 1405–1408, 1999.
- Murray SO and Wojciulik E.** Attention increases neural selectivity in the human lateral occipital complex. *Nat Neurosci* 7: 70–74, 2004.
- Nelson SB.** Temporal interactions in the cat visual system. I. Orientation-selective suppression in the visual cortex. *J Neurosci* 11: 344–356, 1991.
- Paradiso MA, Shimojo S, and Nakayama K.** Subjective contours, tilt aftereffects and visual cortical organization. *Vision Res* 29: 1205–1213, 1989.
- Ress D and Heeger DJ.** Neuronal correlates of perception in early visual cortex. *Nat Neurosci* 6: 414–420, 2003.
- Sclar G, Lennie P, and DePriest DD.** Contrast adaptation in striate cortex of macaque. *Vision Res* 29: 747–755, 1989.
- Sereno MI, Dale AM, Reppas JB, Kwong KK, Belliveau JW, Brady TJ, Rosen BR, and Tootell RBH.** Borders of multiple visual areas in humans revealed by functional magnetic resonance imaging. *Science* 268: 889–893, 1995.
- Smith AM, Lewis BK, Ruttimann UE, Ye FQ, Sinnwell TM, Yang Y, Duyn JH, and Frank JA.** Investigation of low frequency drift in fMRI signal. *Neuroimage* 9: 526–533, 1999.
- Snowden RJ and Hammett ST.** Subtractive and divisive adaptation in the human visual system. *Nature* 355: 248–250, 1992.
- Somers DC, Dale AM, Seiffert AE, and Tootell RBH.** Functional MRI reveals spatially specific attentional modulation in human primary visual cortex. *Proc Natl Acad Sci USA* 96: 1663–1668, 1999.
- Talairach J and Tournoux P.** *Co-Planar Stereotaxic Atlas of the Human Brain*. New York: Thieme Medical Publishers, 1988.
- Tootell RB, Hadjikhani NK, Hall EK, Marrett S, Vanduffel W, Vaughan JT, and Dale AM.** The retinotopy of visual spatial attention. *Neuron* 21: 1409–1422, 1998a.
- Tootell RB, Hadjikhani NK, Vanduffel W, Liu AK, Mendola JD, Sereno MI, and Dale AM.** Functional analysis of primary visual cortex (V1) in humans. *Proc Natl Acad Sci USA* 95: 811–817, 1998b.
- Tsao DY, Vanduffel W, Sasaki Y, Fize D, Knutsen TA, Mandeville JB, Wald LL, Dale AM, Rosen BR, Van Essen DC, Livingstone MS, Orban GA, and Tootell RB.** Stereopsis activates V3A and caudal intraparietal areas in macaques and humans. *Neuron* 39: 555–568, 2003.
- Tyler CW.** Stereoscopic tilt and size aftereffects. *Perception* 4: 187–192, 1975.
- von der Heydt R and Peterhans E.** Mechanisms of contour perception in monkey visual cortex. I. Lines of pattern discontinuity. *J Neurosci* 9: 1731–1748, 1989.
- Watanabe T, Harner AM, Miyauchi S, Sasaki Y, and Nielsen M.** Task-dependent influences of attention on the activation of human primary visual cortex. *Proc Natl Acad Sci USA* 95: 11489–11492, 1995.
- Watson AB and Pelli DG.** QUEST: a Bayesian adaptive psychometric method. *Percept Psychophys* 33: 113–120, 1983.
- Zeki S and Marini L.** Three cortical stages of colour processing in the human brain. *Brain* 121: 1669–1685, 1998.