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A tilt after-effect for images of buildings:

Evidence of selectivity for the orientation of everyday scenes

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Abstract

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The tilt after-effect (TAE) is thought to be a manifestation of gain control in mechanisms selective for spatial orientation in visual stimuli. It has been demonstrated with luminance-defined stripes, contrast-defined stripes, orientation-defined stripes, and even with natural images. Of course, all images can be decomposed into a sum of stripes, so it should not be surprising to find a TAE when adapting and test images contain stripes that differ by 15° or so. We show this latter condition is not necessary for the TAE with natural images: adaptation to slightly tilted and vertically filtered houses produced a “repulsive” bias in the perceived orientation of horizontally filtered houses. These results suggest gain control in mechanisms selective for spatial orientation in natural images.

Keywords: natural images, global orientation, tilt after-effect, spatially non-specific

Introduction

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Gibson and Radner [1] demonstrated that adapting to a line tilted between 2.5° and 45° from vertical makes a vertical "test" stimulus, presented in the same retinal location, appear tilted in a direction opposite to that of the adaptor. This repulsive effect on perceived orientation is known as the tilt after-effect (TAE). Most contemporary theories commonly attribute the TAE to suppression of responses in neurons tuned to the adaptor's orientation [2], either via fatigue of the adapted neurons [3] or lateral inhibition between neurons with similar orientation preferences [4, 5], although other accounts have been proposed [6]. The TAE is a natural consequence of orientation-selective suppression, which effectively skews neural responses away from the adapting orientation.

Any repulsive after-effect can be considered as evidence for the existence of neural populations selectively encoding a specific stimulus feature. Consequently, after-effects have earned a reputation for being "the psychophysicist's micro-electrode" [7]. Using after-effects, psychophysicists have inferred the existence of neural selectivity for such complex attributes as shape, glossiness, and facial expression [8]. There is even an after-effect of adaptation to heavily masculine or feminine features [9]. However, it must be acknowledged that some of these after-effects might be the result of adaptation in "low-level" visual mechanisms, tuned to stimulus values that have nothing to do with faces *per se*. For example, if adapting to a thick, masculine eyebrow suppresses a few neurons that prefer (low spatial frequency) shapes like that, then a subsequently viewed, androgynous eyebrow (with a slightly higher spatial frequency) will appear much thinner, making the face it is on appear more feminine. Thus, inferring neural mechanisms from perceptual after-effects is not always as straightforward as one might hope.

61 Inferring neural selectivity from psychophysics is complicated, not only because after-effects
62 can reflect adaptation by low-level mechanisms, but also because many conventional
63 measurements of appearance are susceptible to contamination from non-perceptual sources of
64 bias (e.g., expectation effects and response biases; [10]). In this study, we minimize the
65 influence of low-level adaptation by restricting adaptor and tests to different regions of the
66 visual field and / or different regions of frequency space. We minimize the influence of non-
67 perceptual sources of bias by adopting the recently developed, two-alternative, forced-choice
68 (2AFC) comparison-of-comparisons paradigm, with roving pedestals [11, 12].

69

70 The after-effect we have studied is the recently reported TAE for natural scenes [13]. Global
71 scene orientation is important for a number of reasons. Firstly, perceived orientation of a
72 scene provides information about the direction of gravity, which in turn informs self-
73 orientation relative to gravity. This is particularly relevant when information provided by
74 other sensory sources is discordant [14]. Secondly, judgements of subjective visual vertical
75 are affected by the orientation of background scenes, which serve as a global frame of
76 reference for perceptual judgements [15, 16]. Finally, it has been reported that scene
77 orientation affects how people deploy overt attention within a scene, where scene-centric
78 directional asymmetries of eye movements always remain aligned with the orientation of the
79 scene [17].

80

81 In Experiment 1 we confirm that the TAE for natural scenes can be obtained with different
82 (and differently sized) adapting and test images, which are presented in a partially
83 overlapping spatial configuration and share minimal spatial frequency components. In
84 Experiment 2, the specific question we address is whether the TAE for natural scenes arises
85 because of interactions between mechanisms selective for natural scenes, or whether it is

86 simply a by-product of suppression between more lower-level mechanisms, selective for
87 spatial orientation in general. To disentangle these possibilities, we use orientation-filtered
88 and phase-scrambled stimuli. Vertically filtered images are designed to have a negligible
89 effect on the responsivity of low-level mechanisms tuned to near-horizontal orientations.
90 Phase-scrambled stimuli are designed to have a similarly negligible effect on the responsivity
91 of mechanisms selective for natural scenes.

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93

Methods

94 **Participants**

95 A total of 23 observers (18 – 46 years of age), each having a unique two-character set of
96 initials (see figures 2 and 3), from Queen Mary University of London with normal or
97 corrected-to-normal visual acuity took part in the experiments. Procedures were approved by
98 the Queen Mary University of London research ethics committee and written informed
99 consent was obtained from all participants. The number of participants for each experimental
100 condition was determined based on previous studies investigating higher-level visual after-
101 effects, which involved from 5 to 10 observers per condition [18-20].

102

103 **Experimental set-up and apparatus**

104 Observers were seated in a dark room, and were instructed to keep their head upright and
105 maintain the same distance from the screen throughout the experiment. Stimuli were
106 presented on a 20" Iiyama CRT monitor with a 1600×1200 screen resolution and a refresh
107 rate of 60 Hz. The viewing distance was 57 cm, such that each pixel subtended 1.5
108 arcminutes. A black mask with a circular aperture (diameter = 24.5°) was overlaid on the
109 monitor to eliminate the use of monitor edges as cues to vertical or horizontal. Stimulus
110 presentation and data collection used Matlab (Mathworks) and Psychtoolbox [21].

111

112 **Stimuli**

113 Images of 5 different houses (figure 1B), in their frontal views, appearing to be at eye level
114 from a standing position, were obtained from an archive of the Caltech Computational Vision
115 Group (available online at <http://www.vision.caltech.edu/archive.html>). We used images of
116 houses because: 1) scene orientation of man-made scenes is judged with better discrimination
117 precision than non-man-made scenes [16] and 2) houses have a clear frontal facade and cover
118 limited depth, resulting in minimal linear perspectives. The images were initially cropped to a
119 square aspect ratio and then resized to 300×300 pixels using bicubic interpolation. Cropped
120 images were converted to grayscale by independently weighting and summing the red, green
121 and blue channels of the image according to the CIE procedure ($0.299 \times R + 0.587 \times G +$
122 $0.114 \times B$). These images were presented as adaptors within a hard-edged circular aperture
123 (diameter = 7.5° ; figure 1A). The test images were resized to 75% of the adaptor's size and
124 presented within a hard edged window of diameter 5.7° .

125

126 Images of houses were tilted and, in some cases, filtered. Filtering was a 7-step procedure. In
127 step 1 the mean graylevel of a tilted image was subtracted, creating a difference image with
128 no DC component. In step 2 this difference image was multiplied with a 2-dimensional,
129 separable cosine window of the same size. In step 3 the windowed image was Fourier
130 transformed (applying the cosine window before Fourier transformation helps to reduce
131 wrap-around artefacts). In step 4 the transformed image was multiplied by one of the filters
132 described below. In step 5 the product was inverse-Fourier transformed. In step 6 the image
133 was scaled such that adaptors would have a root mean square (RMS) contrast of 0.10 and
134 tests would have an RMS contrast of 0.18. Finally, in step 7, a graylevel of 0.50 was added to
135 each image. This matched the graylevel of the screen background.

136

137 **Procedure**

138 Trials were blocked by condition (there were three conditions in Experiment 1 and two
139 conditions in Experiment 2) and adaptor orientation: either -15° or $+15^\circ$. By convention, we
140 consider tilts clockwise (CW) from vertical to be negative and tilts counter-clockwise (CCW)
141 from vertical to be positive. Each condition in Experiment 1 and 2 was also associated with a
142 "baseline block," in which no adaptor was shown.

143

144 The general procedure is outlined in figure 1A. Observers were instructed to fixate a centrally
145 presented white circle (diameter = 0.2°) for the duration of each block. All blocks (except
146 baseline blocks) began with an initial adaptation phase of 20 s. Following this, each test trial
147 started with a "top-up" adaptation phase of 5 s. During adaptation phases, the adaptor was
148 jittered every 0.5 s by recentering it on a random pixel within a predefined jitter area of 0.25°
149 $\times 0.25^\circ$ surrounding fixation. Top-up adaptors were followed, after 0.25 s, by two test houses,
150 presented immediately to the left and right of fixation, for 0.05 s. One of the test houses was
151 the "pedestal," with one of two fixed tilts: -3° or $+3^\circ$. The other test was the "comparison,"
152 with an offset added to the fixed tilt, randomly selected from the set $\{-15^\circ, -12^\circ, -9^\circ, -6^\circ, -$
153 $3^\circ, 0^\circ, +3^\circ, +6^\circ, +9^\circ, +12^\circ, +15^\circ\}$. Each combination of pedestal and comparison tilt was
154 tested 10 times, resulting in 220 trials per block. The spatial positions (left and right of
155 fixation) of the pedestal and comparison were randomized on every trial. Observers chose
156 which of the two test houses appeared more upright, using keys "1" (for left) and "2" (for
157 right). Observers were told that an upright house is how they would imagine it to appear, if
158 they stood in front of it with their head held straight.

159

160 As is evident from figure 1A, there was a small amount of spatial overlap between the
161 adaptor and tests. However, the overlapping parts of the images were not the same (e.g., the
162 right half of the adaptor overlapped with the left half of one test) and were of different sizes
163 to reduce retinotopic adaptation [22].

164

165 **Methods specific to Experiment 1**

166 In the *same house* condition image H1 was used for both adaptor and test stimuli. In the
167 *different house* condition image H2 was the adaptor and image H3 was used for the tests
168 (figure 1B). In the *different SF house* condition the adaptor and test stimuli were images of
169 the same house, but filtered to separate them for their spatial frequency (SF) content (figure
170 2B). In this condition, three different house images were used (H2, H4 & H5; figure 1B).
171 Two observers were tested with H2, two with H4 and two with H5.

172

173 Log-normal filters were used for the *different SF house* condition. The filter used for adaptors
174 had a peak SF of 10 cycles / degree. The filter used for the tests had a peak SF of 1.25 cycles
175 / degree. Both filters had a half-bandwidth at half-height of 1.5 octaves.

176

177 **Methods specific to Experiment 2**

178 All 10 observers participated in both the *orthogonal house* condition and the *phase-*
179 *scrambled house* condition. In both conditions adaptors were first tilted (either CW or CCW)
180 and then filtered to retain Fourier energy close to vertical orientations (figure 3). Tests were
181 upright images of the same house, initially filtered horizontally and then tilted by different
182 amounts in each trial, as in Experiment 1. Five observers were tested using H1; the other five
183 were tested using H2. For each observer, the adapting and test stimuli were differently
184 filtered versions of the same house image. In the orientation domain, each filter was a

185 Gaussian function of angle, centred on 0° (for the vertically filtered adaptors) or 90° (for the
186 horizontally filtered tests); with a half-bandwidth at half-height of 23.5° and was clipped at \pm
187 40° from the peak, resulting in zero gain at orientations beyond the clip. In the *phase-*
188 *scrambled* condition, tilted adaptors were phase-scrambled prior to orientation filtering, by
189 adding a uniform distribution of random phase offsets (between $-\pi$ and $+\pi$) to the Fourier
190 phases of the image. The power spectra and RMS contrast of adaptors in the *phase-scrambled*
191 *house* condition matched the power spectra and RMS contrast of adaptors in the *orthogonal*
192 *house* condition. Identical (unscrambled), horizontally filtered, tilted tests were used in both
193 conditions.

194

195 **Psychophysical model**

196 Data were analysed within the context of signal-detection theory, as described by Morgan,
197 Grant, Melmoth, & Solomon [23]. Within this model, the appearances of pedestal (S) and
198 comparison (C) are normally distributed, i.e., $S \sim N(p + \mu, \sigma^2/2)$ and $C \sim N(p + \mu +$
199 $t, \sigma^2/2)$, where σ^2 is the variance of the performance-limiting noise, p is the pedestal tilt, t is
200 the offset added to the comparison, and μ is the perceptual bias specific to each test block. If
201 there were no perceptual bias, then the distributions for pedestal and comparison would have
202 means of p and $p + t$ respectively. The observer chooses the pedestal as closer to upright
203 when it appears less tilted than the comparison. Accordingly, the probability of this choice
204 $P("S") = P(|S| < |C|) = P(S^2/C^2 < 1)$, has a doubly non-central F distribution. This
205 distribution's denominator's noncentrality parameter is $2(p + \mu + t)^2 / \sigma^2$, its numerator's
206 noncentrality parameter is $2(p + \mu)^2 / \sigma^2$, and both denominator and numerator have 1
207 degree of freedom.

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Results

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From each block of trials (baseline, CCW and CW), we obtained maximum-likelihood estimates of bias μ and the variance of performance-limiting noise σ^2 . Negative biases with CCW adaptors and positive biases with CW adaptors are indicative of the repulsive TAE. Non-parametric bootstrapping (with bias-correction [24]) was used to quantify the reliability of our parameter estimates. The error bars shown in figures 2 and 3 contain the resultant 95% confidence intervals.

We also fit each observer's data from CCW-adaptor and CW-adaptor blocks simultaneously, forcing the bias parameter μ to be the same in both cases, but allowing σ to vary. The ratio L , between the likelihood of this nested model fit and the joint likelihood of the aforementioned separate fits to the same data is necessarily no greater than 1. To evaluate the "null" hypothesis of no significant TAE in individual observers, we compare the criteria $\alpha = 0.05$ and $\alpha = 0.001$ to the value $1 - F(-2 \ln L)$, where F is the cumulative chi-square distribution, with 1 degree of freedom. This is known as the generalized likelihood-ratio test (see [25] p.440–441).

To evaluate null hypotheses at the group level, we performed one-sample t -tests using estimates of repulsion, which can be quantified either in degrees of tilt or in terms of the "just-noticeable difference" (JND). A single value for repulsion, in degrees of tilt, can be obtained by subtracting one maximum-likelihood estimate of μ (the one obtained with CCW adaptors) from the complimentary estimate (obtained with CW adaptors), and dividing the difference by 2. The "conspicuousness" of repulsion can be quantified by further dividing this quotient by the JND. For the latter, we use the root-mean-square of the maximum-likelihood estimates of σ . Results of the group-level t -tests appear in tables 1 and 2.

235

236 **Experiment 1**

237 Estimates of bias (μ) from Experiment 1 are plotted in figure 2A. For the majority of
238 observers, adaptation to a house tilted 15° (CCW of upright) produced a negative bias
239 (relative to the baseline's bias) in subsequently viewed test houses, and adaptation to a house
240 tilted -15° produced a positive bias. Generalized likelihood ratio tests suggest after-effects
241 significant at the $\alpha = 0.05$ level for repulsion in the data from 5 of the 7 observers in the *same*
242 *house* condition, 5 of the 6 observers in the *different house* condition, and all 6 of the 6
243 observers in the *different SF house* condition. Group-level statistics appear in tables 1 and 2.

244

245 **Experiment 2**

246 Estimates of bias from Experiment 2 are plotted in figure 3. Generalized likelihood ratio tests
247 suggest after-effects significant at the $\alpha = 0.05$ level for repulsion in the data from 8 of the 10
248 observers in the *orthogonal house* condition and none of the (same) 10 observers in the
249 *phase-scrambled house* condition. Group-level statistics appear in tables 1 and 2. At the
250 group level, both conditions produced mean repulsion and conspicuousness significantly
251 larger than zero. However, a comparison using a paired-samples *t*-test between the means of
252 the two conditions revealed that the *orthogonal house* condition produced a significantly
253 larger repulsion compared to the *phase-scrambled house* condition (tables 1 & 2).

254

255

Discussion

256 Our results (Experiment 1) demonstrate that the TAE for natural scenes (houses) can be
257 obtained with partially overlapping, yet different (and differently sized) adapting and test
258 images, widely separated in spatial frequency content. Similar results have been obtained
259 with sinusoidal gratings [18, 26] and circular / radial patterns [19]. When after-effects survive

260 manipulations of image, size and spatial frequency, their origin cannot be attributed to low-
261 level visual mechanisms [22]. Our results extend Dekel & Sagi's [13] findings of TAEs with
262 natural images as adaptors and sinusoidal gratings as tests, by showing that adaptation to
263 global orientation can occur between adaptors and tests that are natural images. However, it is
264 unclear from Experiment 1 whether the TAE for natural scenes arises because of interactions
265 between high-level mechanisms selective for natural scenes, or whether it is simply a by-
266 product of suppression between mid-level mechanisms, selective for spatial orientation in
267 general.

268

269 To distinguish between these alternatives, in Experiment 2 we applied perpendicular filters to
270 our stimuli, widely separating the orientation contents of adaptor and tests. Our finding of a
271 repulsive TAE in this condition qualitatively differs from the assimilative "indirect effect"
272 found when retinally overlapping lines or gratings are separated between 60° and 87.5° [1].
273 We attribute this repulsion to our images' recognisability as slightly tilted scenes, rather than
274 their Fourier image components. In support of this viewpoint, we found no after-effect at the
275 individual observer level when the Fourier phases of our adaptors were scrambled. However,
276 the group level analyses did reveal a relatively small but significant TAE (tables 1 & 2), with
277 phase-scrambled adaptors. This must be attributed to Fourier image components. A possible
278 reason for this is that since man-made images are usually dominated by cardinal orientations,
279 a sense of global tilt is still apparent in the images even after randomizing Fourier phase
280 information (see figure 3B, where randomized images might appear tilted CW).

281

282 Our most interesting finding is that vertically filtered houses induce repulsive TAEs. These
283 TAEs were not only evident in most observers, but they were also much larger than the TAEs
284 from phase-scrambled adaptors at the group level. Although our orientation-filtered houses

285 are not as easily recognizable as their unfiltered counterparts, they possess clear higher-order
286 structure, which is lacking in the phase-scrambled versions used for adaptation. Textures with
287 similar higher-order (meaningless) structure are also more effective than phase-scrambled
288 scenes as backward masks of 'scene gist' [27]. This suggests that textures with higher-order
289 structure are fundamentally different from phase-randomized stimuli with similar orientation
290 statistics. Nonetheless, the after-effect of adapting to tilted buildings is different from the
291 after-effect elicited by the perception of a global form contained in meaningless textures.
292 Whereas our Experiment 2 showed that the former can survive large differences between the
293 orientation contents of adaptor and test, the latter cannot [19].

294

295 Our results are unique in the literature on the appearance of uprightness, because they show
296 that the global orientation of a scene can be encoded separately from its local feature content.
297 It is assumed that information about scene orientation is embedded in the early global percept
298 of scene layout, a property which is rapidly extracted when looking at a scene [17, 28]. Based
299 on this assumption, at present, we can only speculate regarding where selectivity for the
300 orientation of natural scenes arises in the brain. One possible candidate is the
301 Parahippocampal Place Area, which is thought to encode scene layout rather than object
302 content [29]. In support of this, such scene selective regions are known to be responding
303 similarly to scenes containing only close-to-vertical or close-to-horizontal orientations [30],
304 akin to the stimuli we used here. Different local feature content can therefore lead to the
305 encoding of similar global spatial layout in scenes, which presumably is what led to a
306 repulsive TAE from vertically filtered adaptors on horizontally filtered tests.

307

308 As noted in the introduction, the TAE is routinely invoked as a manifestation of the mutual
309 inhibition between visual mechanisms selective for orientation. Consequently, the natural

310 conclusion to draw from our results is that there must be mechanisms selective for the
311 orientations of images with meaningful, higher-order structure. Of course, we cannot say
312 whether those mechanisms are mutually inhibitory, or whether the TAE for natural scenes
313 should be attributed to their modulation of lower-level mechanisms. Indeed, other authors
314 have invoked pre-saccadic remapping in space [18], top-down modulation of low-level
315 feature detectors through feedback from form processing regions [19] and selective attention
316 [26] in attempts to explain how the TAE can survive the spatial separation of adaptor and
317 tests.

318

319 One further possibility is normalization. Extensive real-world experience with close-to-
320 upright scenes (canonical orientation) may have resulted in the establishment of upright
321 as a norm against which other orientations are compared. Exposure to tilted scenes may
322 simply shift the subjective norm of upright towards the tilted direction, which then results
323 in an objectively upright scene seen as tilted away. Indeed, Asch and Witkin [15] report that
324 tilted scenes eventually appear upright over extended viewing, implying normalizing towards
325 upright.

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335 **Data accessibility:**

336 Raw behavioural data from both experiments in the study can be accessed at datadryad.org:

337 doi:10.5061/dryad.h630v

338

339 **Competing interests:**

340 We declare that we have no competing interests.

341

342 **Authors' Contributions:**

343 All four authors developed the concept and contributed to the study design. AMHI performed
344 data collection. AMHI, JAS and IM were involved in the analysis and interpretation of
345 results. AMHI wrote the manuscript and JAS, MH and IM edited it. All authors gave final
346 approval for publication.

347

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453 Table 1. Group level statistics for repulsion in Experiment 1 and 2

		Repulsion (R)							
	Condition	N	mean R ($^{\circ}$)	t - statistic ($R > 0$)	p - value	Cohen's d	paired t - statistic	p - value	Cohen's d
Experiment 1	<i>Same house</i>	7	1.13	2.25	0.066*	0.85			
	<i>Different house</i>	6	1.31	3.62	0.015	1.48			
	<i>Different SF house</i>	6	1.31	4.90	0.004	2.00			
Experiment 2	<i>Orthogonal house</i>	10	0.65	4.11	0.003	1.30			
	<i>Phase-scrambled house</i>	10	0.20	2.68	0.025	0.85	2.42	0.039	1.16

454 Notes: N denotes the number of observers in each condition. The asterisk (*) denotes that the
 455 p value was approaching significance. Removing observer IM from analysis makes the p =
 456 0.002.
 457

458 Table 2. Group level statistics for conspicuousness in Experiment 1 and 2

		Conspicuousness (CI)							
	Condition	N	mean CI (JND)	t - statistic ($CI > 0$)	p - value	Cohen's d	paired t - statistic	p - value	Cohen's d
Experiment 1	<i>Same house</i>	7	0.26	2.42	0.052*	0.91			
	<i>Different house</i>	6	0.27	4.24	0.008	1.73			
	<i>Different SF house</i>	6	0.33	5.84	0.002	2.38			
Experiment 2	<i>Orthogonal house</i>	10	0.21	4.36	0.002	1.38			
	<i>Phase-scrambled house</i>	10	0.06	2.45	0.037	0.77	2.88	0.018	1.30

459 Notes: N denotes the number of observers in each condition. The asterisk (*) denotes that the
 460 p value was approaching significance. Removing observer IM from analysis makes the p =
 461 0.003.
 462

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465 **Table and figure captions**

466

467 Table 1. Group level statistics for repulsion in Experiment 1 and 2

468

469 Table 2. Group level statistics for conspicuousness in Experiment 1 and 2

470

471 Figure 1. (A) Stimulus configuration and timeline of a sample trial from Experiment 1. (B)

472 Five different house scenes used across the different conditions in the study.

473

474 Figure 2. (A) Maximum likelihood estimates of perceptual bias for baseline (brown), CW

475 (green) and CCW (blue) blocks from the 3 conditions in Experiment 1. Error bars are

476 bootstrapped 95% confidence intervals. Single asterisks (*) denote after-effects significant at

477 the $\alpha = 0.05$ level for repulsion. Double asterisks (**) denote after-effects also significant at

478 the $\alpha = 0.001$ level for repulsion. (B) Examples of adaptors and test stimuli used in each of

479 the conditions tested (where necessary, contrast has been amplified for visibility).

480

481 *Figure 3.* Maximum likelihood estimates of perceptual bias for baseline (brown), CW (green)

482 and CCW (blue) blocks from (A) the *orthogonal house* and (B) the *phase-scrambled house*

483 conditions in Experiment 2. Error bars are bootstrapped 95% confidence intervals. Single

484 asterisks (*) denote after-effects significant at the $\alpha = 0.05$ level for repulsion. Double

485 asterisks (**) denote after-effects also significant at the $\alpha = 0.001$ level for repulsion.

486 Examples of CW-tilted adaptors with untilted test stimuli used in each condition are

487 illustrated to the right. The image number used for each observer is given below their initials.

488

Adaptor (20 s)

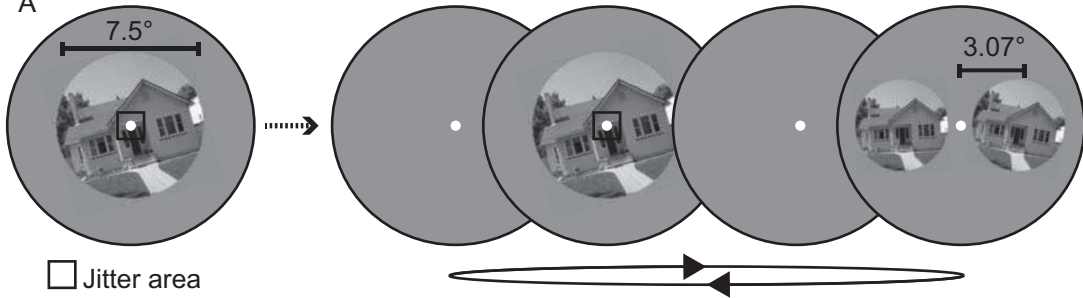
Fixation (1 s)

Top-up (5 s)

ISI (0.25 s)

Test (0.05 s)

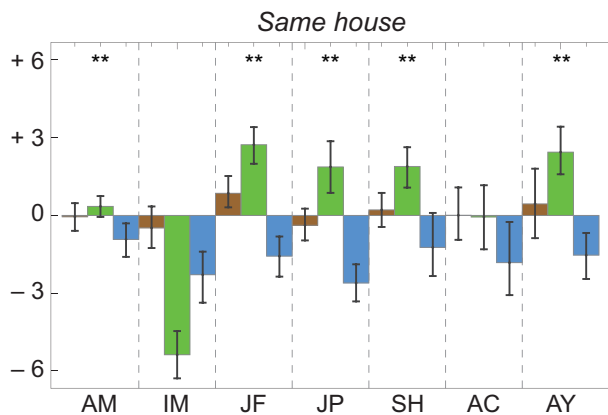
A



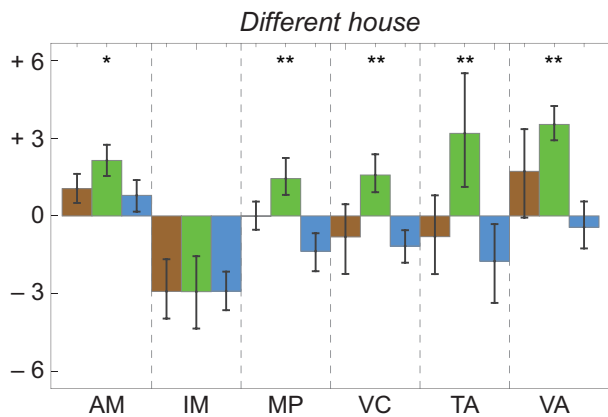
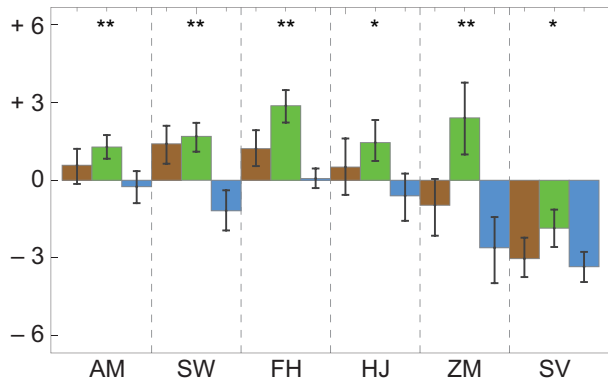
B



A



Perceptual Bias (degrees)

*Different SF house*

B

Adaptor

Test



