

1 Three-dimensional motion perception: comparing speed and speed change discrimination for
2 looming stimuli

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13

Abstract

14 Judging the speed of objects moving in three dimensions is important in our everyday lives,
15 because we interact with objects in a three-dimensional world. However, speed perception
16 has been seldom studied for motion in depth, particularly when using monocular cues such as
17 looming. Here, we compared speed discrimination, and speed change discrimination, for
18 looming stimuli, to better understand what visual information is used for these tasks. For the
19 speed discrimination task, we manipulated the distance and duration information available, to
20 investigate if participants were specifically using speed information. For speed change
21 discrimination, total distance and duration were held constant, hence they could not be used
22 to successfully perform that task. We found speed change discrimination thresholds were
23 consistently higher than those for speed discrimination. Evidence suggested that participants
24 used a variety of cues to complete the speed discrimination task, not always solely relying on
25 speed. Further, our data suggested that participants may switch between cues on a trial to trial
26 basis. We conclude that speed change discrimination for looming is more difficult than speed
27 discrimination, and that naïve participants may not always exclusively use speed for speed
28 discrimination.

29 Key words: Looming, Motion in depth, Speed discrimination, Speed change discrimination

30

Introduction

31 Perceiving the speed of objects moving towards us in the world is important in our daily
32 lives, for example when safely crossing a road. Of particular importance is the ability to
33 judge the speed, and speed changes, of objects approaching in three dimensions. There are
34 both monocular and binocular sources of visual information we can use to judge these
35 movements. Speed discrimination using binocular cues to motion in depth has been well
36 studied (Brooks, 2002; Brooks & Mather, 2000; Brooks & Stone, 2004, 2006; Harris &
37 Watamaniuk, 1995, 1996; Wardle & Alais, 2013). Perhaps more overlooked recently is the
38 contribution of monocular cues to motion in depth, such as looming. Looming is usually
39 defined as the change in retinal size that occurs when an object moves towards or away from
40 an observer (e.g. Sekuler, 1992). The first evidence for the existence of mechanisms
41 specifically sensitive to such change in size, that could be used for the perception of motion-
42 in-depth, came from motion adaptation studies demonstrating that adaptation to size-change
43 was separable to that for lateral motion (Beverley & Regan, 1979; Regan & Beverley, 1978).

44

45 In this study we investigate speed and speed change discrimination for looming stimuli, and
46 we explore the strategies that naïve participants may be using for speed discrimination. We
47 define looming as the expansion of the image of an object on the retina as it approaches,
48 while the object in the world remains a constant size. When an object approaches or moves
49 away from an observer at a constant speed in the world, the image of that object on the retina
50 accelerates or decelerates respectively. The closer the object gets to the eye, the greater the
51 acceleration. Therefore, to emulate real-world motion, our looming stimuli moved at a
52 constant world speed, which resulted in an accelerating retinal speed (see Lee, Ales, &
53 Harris, 2019).

54

55 Looming is thought to play a role in judging the speed of objects moving towards us. Speed
56 discrimination for looming can be as sensitive as that for 2D motion, and is superior to that
57 using other 3D motion cues. Speed discrimination thresholds for looming stimuli can be as
58 low as 5% (Sekuler, 1992) similar to those for 2D motion (de Bruyn & Orban, 1988;
59 Heidenreich & Turano, 1996; McKee, 1981; McKee, Silverman, & Nakayama, 1986; McKee
60 & Welch, 1985; Orban, de Wolf, & Maes, 1984; Snowden & Braddick, 1991). By
61 comparison, speed discrimination thresholds when using binocular cues to motion in depth
62 are often much higher than that reported for looming and for 2D motion stimuli (Brooks &
63 Stone, 2004, 2006, Harris & Watamaniuk, 1995, 1996). The higher sensitivity for looming
64 cues over binocular cues suggests that looming is a critical cue for 3D motion perception.

65

66 However, speed discrimination tasks can be problematic to interpret. In traditional speed
67 discrimination designs, it is impossible to be certain that participants judge speed, rather than
68 distance or duration. Typically, if distance is kept constant, a participant could use speed or
69 duration to make judgements. Conversely, if duration is held constant, participants can use
70 speed or distance to make their judgements (for a review see McKee & Watamaniuk, 1994).
71 To avoid this problem, speed change discrimination tasks have been developed (Monen &
72 Brenner, 1994; Snowden & Braddick, 1991). In these tasks, observers are asked to
73 discriminate a change in speed occurring during one interval, allowing total duration and
74 distance to be held constant. In the standard interval, a stimulus travels at a constant speed. In
75 the test interval, the stimulus travels slower and then an equal amount faster than the standard
76 interval speed. Thus, the mean speed, and therefore the duration and distance, are kept
77 constant whilst speed is varied. There is evidence from studies that explore 2D motion, and

78 several types of 3D motion, that speed change discrimination is much more difficult than
79 speed discrimination (e.g. Lee et al., 2019; Monen & Brenner, 1994; Snowden & Braddick,
80 1991).

81

82 No study has previously explored whether speed change discrimination for the monocular 3D
83 motion cue of looming is more difficult than speed discrimination, and if so, why this may
84 be. However, it is possible that speed discrimination may be an easier task because
85 participants are able to use additional distance or duration cues to give their responses. We
86 therefore had two aims:

87 (1) To determine if speed change discrimination for looming is a more difficult task than
88 speed discrimination.

89 (2) To determine if participants use distance or duration information, rather than speed
90 information, when it is available in speed discrimination tasks, and if this could
91 explain the apparent difficulty of speed change discrimination judgements where
92 these cues cannot be used.

93

94

Methods

95 **Participants**

96 Participants were required to have normal or corrected-to-normal vision and a stereoacuity of
97 at least 120 arcseconds, as measured by the TNO test (16th edition). For the speed change
98 discrimination task, 15 participants were recruited. Two participants had a stereoacuity of
99 over 120 arcseconds, 1 participant was unable to do the task, and 1 participant stopped
100 attending the testing sessions, leaving 11 participants who completed the experiment (8
101 female, 3 male, aged between 18-34). For the speed discrimination tasks, 9 new naive
102 participants were recruited, as the participants from the speed change discrimination task
103 could not be recalled in line with our ethical approval requirements. One participant from this
104 new group had a stereoacuity of over 120 arcseconds, whilst another participant did not pass
105 the training, leaving 7 participants who completed the experiment (5 female, 2 male, aged
106 between 18-28). Participants gave informed consent before beginning the experiment and all
107 procedures were approved by the University of St Andrews University Teaching and
108 Research Ethics Committee (UTREC; Approval code: PS11904). All experiments adhered to
109 the tenets of the Declaration of Helsinki.

110

111 **Materials**

112 Stimuli were presented on an Iiyama MM904UTA Vision Master Pro 455 cathode ray tube
113 screen with a refresh rate of 85Hz and a resolution of 1280x1024 using a MacPro. A
114 Cambridge Research Systems ColorCal MK II colorimeter was used to calibrate screen
115 luminance, and an accurate pixel per centimetre conversion was obtained by measuring lines
116 on the screen by hand. The screen was viewed through a four-mirror stereoscope (because the
117 set-up was also used for concurrent binocular vision experiments). However, here, the right
118 and left eyes views were always identical (zero binocular disparity). Including the distances
119 between the stereoscope mirrors, the screen was viewed from a distance of 97cm.

120

121 **Experiment Design**

122 *Stimulus Design*

123 All stimuli were viewed from a distance of 97cm created using MATLAB R2014b (The
124 MathWorks Inc, Natick, MA, USA) and Psychtoolbox 3 (Brainard, 1997; Kleiner, Brainard,
125 & Pelli, 2007; Pelli, 1997). Stimuli were presented on a grey background with a luminance of
126 29.9 cd/m². The stimulus used in the main experimental conditions consisted of a pair of
127 white horizontal lines that were 6.96 degrees long and had a luminance of 59.9cd/m² (see
128 Figure 1). The horizontal lines in the stimulus expanded away from one another to deliver the
129 looming cue. Sekuler (1992) suggests that looming is encoded by the pooling of
130 unidirectional motion signals. Each of the two horizontal lines in the stimulus can be
131 considered an independent set of pooled unidirectional motion signals. The two lines have
132 opposing motion directions, generating a looming signal. Horizontal lines were used as they
133 create no horizontal disparity, so that there would be no conflict between the looming cues

134 and the lack of changing binocular disparity. The pair of lines simulates a very wide object
135 approaching the observer (whose left and right edges are outside the field of view). Each line
136 remained a constant 0.95 arcmin wide on the screen. The separation between the lines varied
137 over time to simulate motion towards the observer, but at the plane of fixation (the screen
138 distance of 97cm) the separation between the two lines was 2cm. The starting separation of
139 the two lines was therefore 2cm for the speed discrimination conditions where line movement
140 began at the plane of fixation, and 1.66 cm for the speed change discrimination condition
141 where line movement began from 20cm behind the plane of fixation.

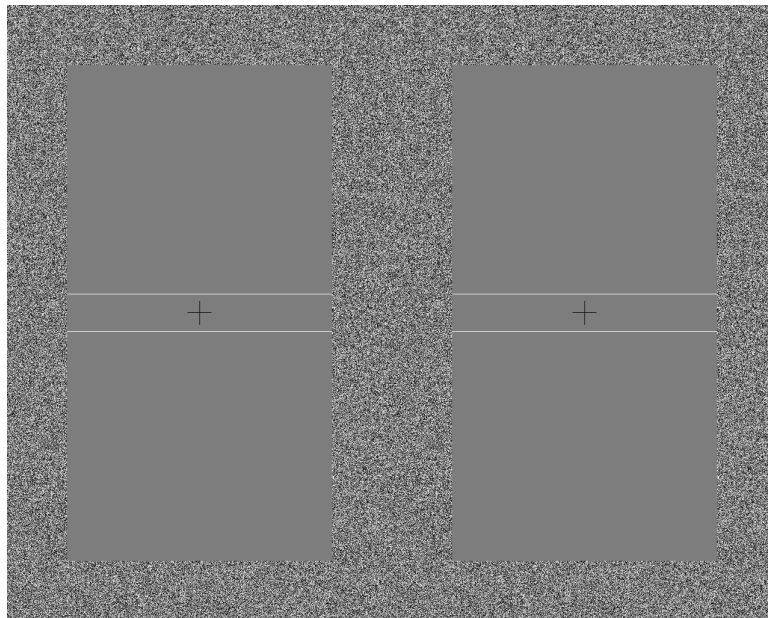


Figure 1. The looming stimulus used for all experimental conditions. The bottom lines moved downwards and the top lines moved upwards to simulate looming motion towards the observer. The left and right halves of the screen were delivered to each eye separately via a 4-mirror stereoscope to deliver a fused percept, but there was no binocular disparity displayed in the stimulus.

142

143 Stimuli were presented with a central black fixation cross with a luminance of 0.09 cd/m².
144 This was 37.9 long by 37.9 arcmin wide. To indicate when a response was required, a black
145 56.9 by 56.9 arcmin box of the same luminance appeared around the fixation cross. The
146 fixation cross and box had line widths of 0.95 arcmin. Throughout each trial, an aperture
147 frame of approximately uniformly distributed luminance noise, with individual pixels
148 randomly assigned grey levels, was displayed around all stimuli. The aperture frame was 1.58
149 degrees wide, had a minimum luminance of 0.09 cd/m² and a maximum luminance of 59.9
150 cd/m². The half-screen visible through the stereoscope used was 10.1 degrees wide and 16.2
151 degrees tall. Within the aperture frame a rectangle 6.96 degrees wide and 13.0 degrees tall
152 was used for stimulus presentation.

153

154 *Main Experiment Conditions*

155 The stimulus used contained constant world speed (accelerating retinal speed) for three main
156 experimental conditions:

- 157 (I) *Speed change discrimination* containing no useful distance or duration
158 information. The task was to judge which interval contained a speed change.
- 159 (II) *Duration (speed discrimination)*, containing duration and speed information. The
160 task was to discriminate which interval contained faster motion.
- 161 (III) *Distance (speed discrimination)* containing distance and speed information. The
162 task was to again discriminate which interval contained faster motion.

163

164 *Determining which cue is used for speed discrimination with catch trials*

165 For each of the two speed discrimination conditions (*Distance* and *Duration*), we included a
166 total of 30 ‘catch trials’ designed to reveal what cues participants were using to perform the
167 task. These trials contained standard and catch *intervals*. The catch intervals contained the
168 same speed as the standard interval but had increased distance and duration (something
169 travelling for longer at the same speed travels further). The duration of the catch interval was
170 always 1.070s, and the standard interval duration was the same as for the main experimental
171 trials in that block (0.717s for *Duration* and 0.506 for *Distance*). This difference results in
172 catch intervals that should be easily discriminable if the participants are using the distance
173 and/or duration cues.

174

175 We coded a participant’s response as “correct” if they chose the catch interval and
176 “incorrect” if they chose the standard. Because the catch trials contained the same speed in
177 both intervals, if participants used speed only we would expect performance to be at 50%.
178 However, the catch intervals contained increased distance travelled and duration compared to
179 the standard. Increased distance travelled might be associated with an object appearing to
180 travel faster. If so, participants should choose the catch interval more often. An increased
181 duration might be associated with an object appearing to travel slower. If using duration,
182 participants would choose the standard interval more often. No matter what rule the
183 participant used, if either distance or duration was used in addition to, or instead of speed to
184 perform the task, we would expect performance to be different from 50% for these catch
185 trials.

186

187 We made a simple assumption: that participants would use only one cue (duration, distance
188 or speed), and they would attempt to use the same cue across all trials. Here, we had a null

189 hypothesis that if people are using solely speed information, they would be picking the catch
190 trial 50% of the time, because the catch and the standard intervals contain the same speed.
191 We can use the binomial test to determine if we can reject the null hypothesis. To do this we
192 use the binomial distribution to find which values were outside of the 95% confidence
193 interval for the null hypothesis. Values outside of the confidence intervals indicate that we
194 reject the null hypothesis, and suggest that participants were using a cue other than speed to
195 complete the task. For our 30 catch trials per condition, the 95% binomial proportion
196 confidence interval for 50% performance is between 30% and 70%. Thus, if people picked
197 the catch 21 or more times (70% of occasions or more), we can reject the null hypothesis and
198 infer that participants were not only using speed. If the catch interval was picked 9 or less
199 times (30% of occasions or less), participants were again not only using speed.

200

201 As the distance and duration were greater in the catch interval, we could infer which cue
202 participants were using to complete the speed discrimination task. We can do this if we
203 assume participants are using a rule that is consistent with speed judgments.

204 *Speed:* If participants used only speed, not duration or distance, to make their judgement, they
205 would pick the catch interval on 50% of occasions (as we used a forced-choice task and the
206 speeds in each interval were identical). In this scenario we would accept the null hypothesis
207 and performance would be consistent with participants using only speed information.

208 *Distance:* If participants used the distance cue to make their judgement, they would pick the
209 catch interval significantly more than 50% of the time (because the distance travelled in the
210 catch interval was further, and something that travels further may be thought of as travelling
211 faster). In this scenario we would reject the null hypothesis that the participant is using only
212 speed information.

213 *Duration:* If participants used the duration cue to make their judgement, they would pick the
214 catch interval significantly less than 50% of the time (because the standard interval had the
215 shorter duration, and something that travels the same distance in a shorter duration may be
216 thought of as travelling faster). Again in this scenario we would reject the null hypothesis that
217 the participant is using only speed information.

218

219 *Training*

220 Two further stimuli were used only for training purposes before the main experiment began:
221 Training I: a square drifting grating with a spatial frequency of 1 cycle per degree which
222 moved from left to right at a constant retinal speed. The grating was 4 degrees tall and 4
223 degrees wide. Training II: a pair of white vertical lines with a luminance of 59.9 cd/m² that
224 moved from left to right at a constant retinal speed. These lines were each 13.0 degrees tall
225 and 0.95 arcmin wide. All the code used in this experiment is available online at
226 <https://osf.io/xvs5n/>.

227

228 **Procedure**

229 *Speed Change Discrimination*

230 For the speed change discrimination condition, participants completed a 2-interval forced
231 choice task, with a 7-level method of constant stimuli design. One interval contained an
232 instantaneous speed change from a slower to a faster speed, the other contained motion at a
233 constant speed. Participants were asked to identify the interval that contained the speed
234 change. Each interval began with the stimulus appearing and remaining stationary for 250ms,
235 before moving for 1 second. If the interval contained a change in speed, it occurred after

236 500ms of motion. There was a gap of 1s between the two intervals. Before the first interval
237 participants heard one beep; before the second they heard two beeps. A run consisted of 210
238 trials divided into three blocks, each with 10 trials per level, giving 70 trials per block. These
239 blocks were presented in a random order amongst those for a different study, with other
240 speed change blocks containing either binocular or binocular and looming cues to motion in
241 depth.

242

243 A standard speed of 40 cm/s towards the observer was used, which translated to a speed
244 range of 20.1- 46.3 arcmin/s on the retina over the full interval. In each successive level of
245 the condition, the speed before the speed change decreased by 5 cm/s, and the speed after the
246 change increased by 5 cm/s in the world. This meant that the test speeds were (speed before
247 change-speed after change): 40cm/s-40cm/s, 35cm/s-45cm/s, 30cm/s-50cm/s, 25cm/s-
248 55cm/s, 20cm/s-60cm/s, 15cm/s-65cm/s, and 10cm/s-70cm/s. In the maximum speed change
249 level, from 10cm/s-70cm/s, this translates into a range of retinal speeds between 5.02-5.48
250 arcmin/s for the period before the instantaneous speed change, and a range of retinal speeds
251 between 38.4-80.9 arcmin/s after the change.

252

253 All participants were required to complete three training blocks prior to the main experiment,
254 which used the same task, but different stimuli. The Training I stimulus, a drifting grating,
255 was used first in a speed change discrimination task like that used in the main experiment,
256 and participants received audio feedback on their responses. The second block was identical,
257 except participants no longer received feedback. The third block used the Training II stimulus
258 (two vertical lines) in a speed change discrimination task with no feedback. Stimuli in these 3
259 training blocks all used constant retinal speed and contained the same two speed change

260 levels. Participants compared a standard stimulus moving at 283.4 arcmin/s to a step speed
261 change from 212.6 to 354.1 arcmin/s, or from 70.9 to 495.3 arcmin/s. The purpose of the
262 training blocks was to introduce participants to the task by first using a commonly-used
263 motion stimulus undergoing lateral motion (Training I), then a stimulus more similar to that
264 used in the main experiment (Training II).

265

266 *Speed Discrimination with Duration or Distance*

267 For the speed discrimination conditions containing either duration or distance cues (*Duration*
268 and *Distance*), participants viewed two temporal intervals both containing stimuli travelling
269 at a constant world speed. The task was to pick the interval in which the stimulus moved
270 faster. Participants were told to judge the speed, but were not given any instructions about use
271 of distance or duration information. For each condition two consistent cues were available
272 (either speed and duration, or speed and distance). Our aim was to test whether performance
273 was better for one condition or the other and compare these speed discrimination conditions
274 to the *Speed Change* condition (where only speed could be used). A 7-level method of
275 constant stimuli design was used. Each interval began with the stimulus appearing and
276 remaining stationary for 0.250s. The *Distance* condition, where duration was fixed but
277 distance information was available, contained 0.506s of motion in both the standard and test
278 intervals. The distances presented ranged between 20 cm in depth in the standard speed level
279 and 35 cm in depth in the maximum speed level and 42.8 cm in the catch interval. The
280 *Duration* condition, where distance was fixed but duration information was available,
281 consisted of a test interval containing a range of durations to keep the distance travelled
282 constant at 28.7cm towards the observer. The durations ranged between 0.412s of motion for
283 the maximum speed level, and 0.717s of motion for the minimum speed level. The standard

284 interval in the *Duration* condition was presented for 0.717s. There was a gap of 1s between
285 intervals, and before the first interval participants heard one beep; before the second they
286 heard two beeps. The duration of the catch interval was always 1.070s, and the standard
287 interval duration was the same as for the main experimental trials in that block (0.717s for
288 *Duration* and 0.506 for *Distance*). The *Duration* and *Distance* conditions each consisted of
289 210 main experiment trials, which were randomly interleaved with the catch trials presented
290 in 3 blocks with 10 trials per level, to provide participants with breaks. Blocks contained
291 either only *Duration* or only *Distance* trials, but blocks of each condition were presented in a
292 random order.

293

294 In both speed discrimination conditions, the standard stimulus had a speed of 40 cm/s in the
295 world. Successive test levels increased in speed by 5 cm/s, to a maximum speed of 70 cm/s.
296 This meant that test levels had speeds of: 40cm/s, 45cm/s, 50cm/s, 55cm/s, 60cm/s, 65cm/s
297 and 70cm/s. We chose these speeds so that they would be matched to the second speeds used
298 in the test intervals of the speed change discrimination condition (see above). In the *Distance*
299 conditions, these translated into retinal speeds of 29.2 – 46.3 arcmin/s in the standard level,
300 and 51.2-125.0 arcmin/s in the maximum speed level. In the *Duration* conditions, these world
301 speeds translated into retinal speeds of 29.2-58.8 arcmin/s in the standard level, and 51.2-
302 103.7 arcmin/s in the maximum speed level. In the catch trials, the speed of stimuli in the
303 catch and standard intervals was 40 cm/s in the world, which translates differently into
304 accelerating retinal speeds depending on the duration of the interval. In the *Duration*
305 condition, the standard interval speeds ranged between 29.2 – 58.8 arcmin/s, and the catch
306 interval speeds ranged between 29.2 – 93.4 arcmin/s. In the *Distance* condition, the speeds in
307 the standard interval ranged between 29.2 – 46.6 arcmin/s, while the catch interval speeds
308 ranged between 29.2 – 93.4 arcmin/s.

309

310 Prior to the experiment start, participants completed two speed discrimination training blocks,
311 one *Duration* and one *Distance*, using the horizontal line stimulus used in the main
312 experiment. Participants received audio feedback on their responses and two levels of speed
313 difference were used. The standard stimulus moved towards the observer at 40 cm/s, whilst
314 the test stimulus had a speed of 50 cm/s or 70 cm/s in the world.

315

316 **Analysis**

317 We measured 75% thresholds for speed change discrimination and speed discrimination by
318 fitting cumulative normal psychometric functions using MATLAB R2014b (The MathWorks
319 Inc, Natick, MA, USA) and the Palamedes toolbox (Prins & Kingdom, 2009). With this we
320 found the speed change required to respond correctly on 75% of occasions, or the difference
321 in speed required to respond correctly on 75% of occasions, both as a function of world speed
322 (cm/s). This method was the most appropriate method of analysing the data from the speed
323 change discrimination and speed discrimination tasks to avoid bias. We also considered
324 analysing our data in terms of the proportion speed difference or speed change, as we have
325 done previously (see Lee et al., 2019), and in terms of the arcmin/s difference or change in
326 speed. However, these methods introduced bias to the results because the arcmin/s changes in
327 speed were not identical between conditions, and consequently the proportion speed changes
328 and differences that were based on these arcmin/s values were also not identical between
329 conditions. Example psychometric functions are shown in Figure 2. All data, experimental
330 code and analysis code is available online at <https://osf.io/xvs5n/>.

331

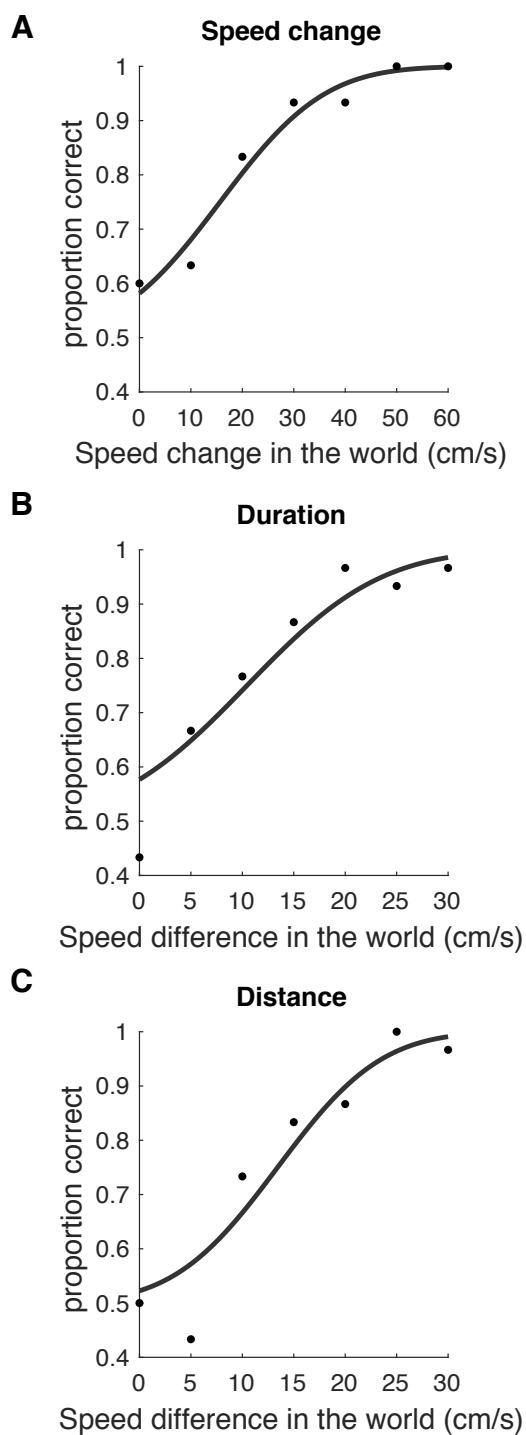


Figure 2. Example psychometric functions in the speed change discrimination condition (A), the *Duration* speed discrimination condition (B), and the *Distance* speed discrimination condition (C). (B) and (C) are data from the same participant.

333 JASP (Version 0.9.1; JASP Team, 2018) was used to conduct a pair of two-sample t-tests.
334 Threshold values between the *Speed Change* discrimination condition and the *Duration* speed
335 discrimination condition, and the *Speed Change* discrimination condition and the *Distance*
336 speed discrimination condition were compared. This was done to determine if there was a
337 difference in threshold between the speed change discrimination condition and the two speed
338 discrimination conditions. A paired t-test was then used to compare thresholds between the
339 *Distance* and *Duration* speed discrimination conditions, to investigate if thresholds varied
340 depending on whether duration or distance information were available respectively. The
341 significance level for all t-tests was taken as 0.0167 (Bonferroni correction for 3
342 comparisons). We also measured Pearson's correlation coefficient between the catch trial
343 results for each participant in each speed discrimination condition to observe whether
344 individual participants consistently used the same cue to complete the catch trials in both the
345 *Duration* and *Distance* conditions.

346

347

Results

348 *Comparing speed discrimination and speed change discrimination*

349 Speed change discrimination was more difficult than speed discrimination when duration or
350 distance information was available (Figure 3). *Speed change discrimination* thresholds were
351 significantly higher than those for *speed discrimination* with a fixed distance and variable
352 duration (*Duration* condition; $t(16) = 4.180$, $p < 0.001$) and also were higher than for *speed*
353 *discrimination* with a fixed duration and variable distance (*Distance* condition; $t(16) = 3.009$,
354 $p = 0.008$). There was no significant difference in thresholds between the *Duration* and
355 *Distance* conditions ($t(6) = -0.381$, $p = 0.716$). It appears that speed change discrimination is
356 a more difficult task than speed discrimination irrespective of the cues available to
357 distinguish between the speeds.

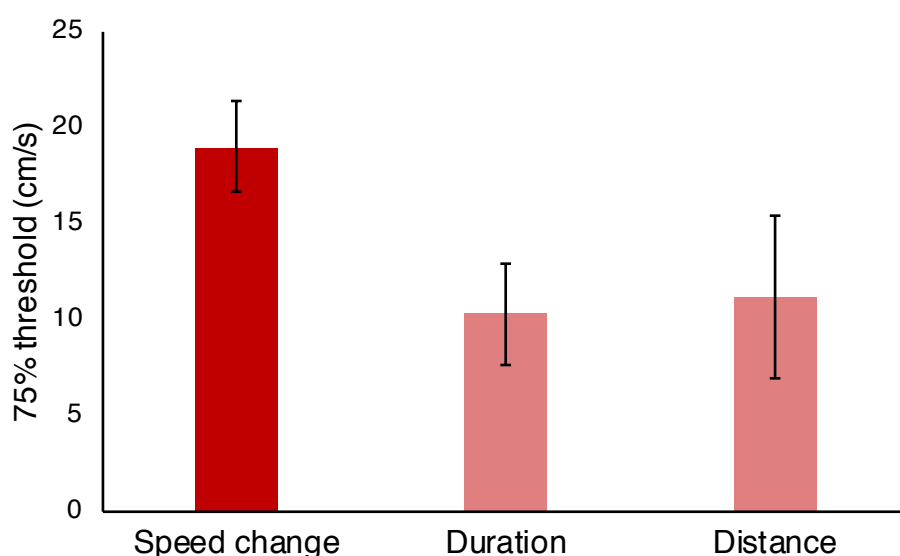


Figure 3. 75% thresholds for the *Speed change* discrimination condition ($n = 11$) and the *Duration* and *Distance* speed discrimination conditions, both $n = 7$. Error bars are 95% confidence intervals.

358

359 *Cue usage in catch trials*

360 Our catch trial analysis showed that participants used a variety of strategies to complete the
361 task (Figure 4). We categorised the catch trial results into 3 groups based on binomial
362 proportion confidence intervals:

- 363 (I) 0-30% catch interval picked – we reject the null hypothesis that participants used
364 only speed. Participant was using duration as a cue.
- 365 (II) 70-100% catch interval picked – we reject the null hypothesis that participants
366 used only speed. Participant was using distance as a cue.
- 367 (III) 31-69% catch interval picked – we do not reject the null hypothesis. Participant
368 was primarily using speed to make their judgements in the catch trials.

369 From the pattern of data in Figure 4A, it appeared that in the *Duration* speed
370 discrimination condition, 1 participant used the shorter duration information, 3
371 participants used speed information and 3 participants used the longer distance
372 information to complete the task. In the *Distance* speed discrimination condition, 2
373 participants used the shorter duration, 2 participants used speed information and 3
374 participants used the longer distance information to complete the task (see Figure 4B).

375 Our data suggest that different participants used different cues to complete speed
376 discrimination tasks.

377

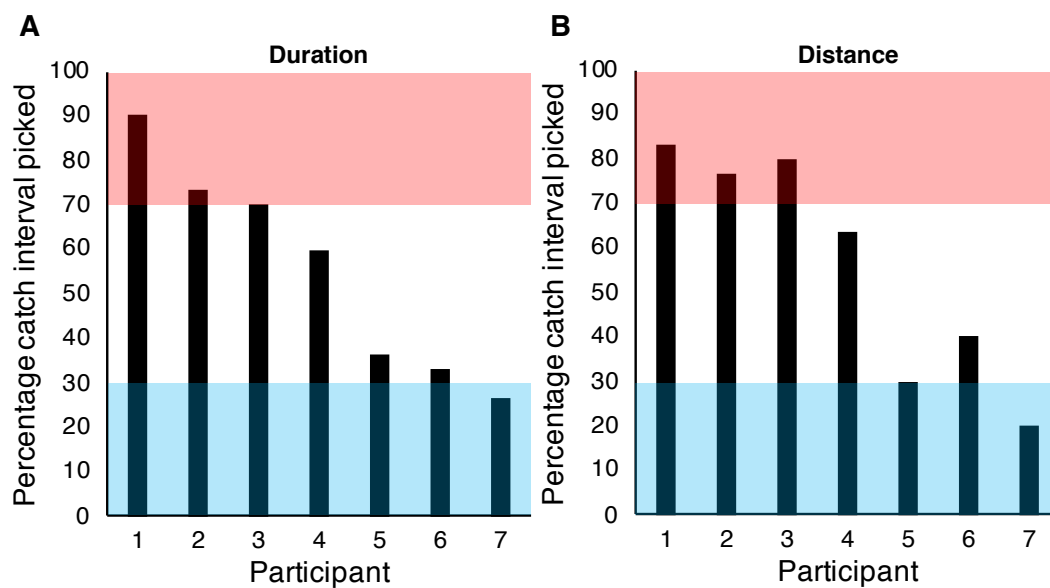


Figure 4. The percentage of occasions the catch interval was picked over the standard interval in the catch trials for (A), the *Duration* speed discrimination condition and (B), the *Distance* speed discrimination condition. Participants whose data lie in the pink region used distance cues. Within the blue region, participants used duration information. Data in the white region suggest participants used speed.

378

379 *Individual participant data*

380 Given that some individual participants appear to use cues other than speed in the catch trials,
381 we might expect that individual participants may perform better in the main experiment
382 condition where they could use the cue they favoured in the catch trials. For example, we
383 would expect that Participant 1 in Figure 4, who appeared to use distance information to
384 make their catch trial judgements, would have improved performance in the *Distance*
385 condition of the main experiment, because they could use the cue their favoured cue from the
386 catch trials. In the *Duration* condition of the main experiment, we would expect worse
387 performance from Participant 1, because there was no distance information available for them
388 to use.

389

390 There were marked individual differences in performance, as has been found previously in
391 experiments involving speed discrimination that have used naïve observers (Manning,
392 Thomas, & Braddick, 2018). However, individual participants did not show a pattern of
393 thresholds in the main experiment that would be predicted from their behaviour during the
394 catch trials. Figure 5 illustrates that there was very little difference in threshold between the
395 two speed discrimination conditions in the main experiment, for all participants.

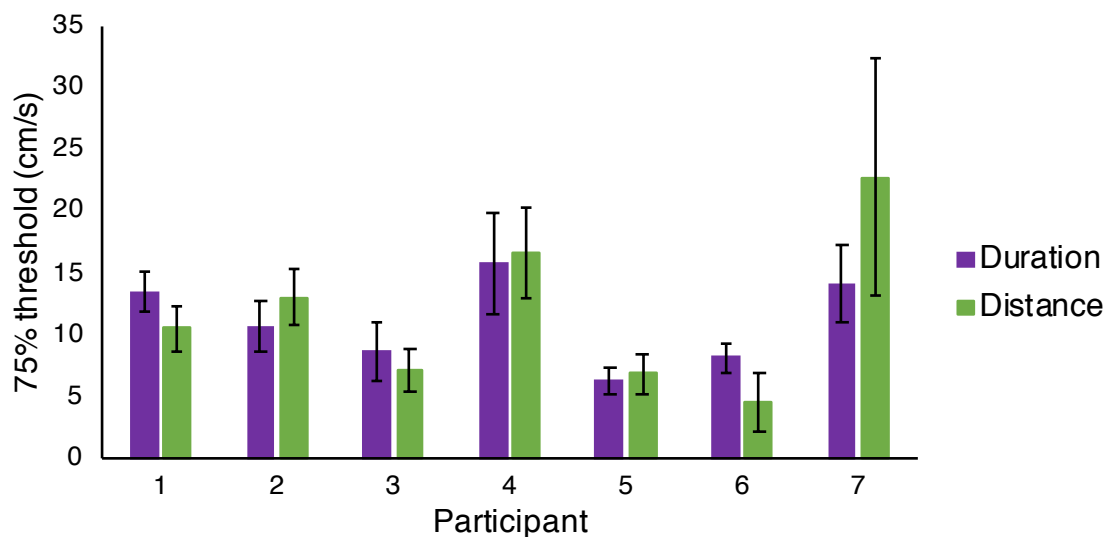


Figure 5. Individual 75% thresholds for each participant in the two speed discrimination conditions (*Duration* and *Distance*, $n = 7$). Error bars are standard error of the mean.

396

397 *Do participants use the same cues in the catch and main experiment trials?*

398 Notice that individual participants were consistent in their choice of catch trial cue usage
399 between the two catch conditions (figure 4). A significant strong correlation of percentage
400 catch interval picked per participant was found between the two catch conditions ($r = 0.963$, n
401 $= 7$, $p < 0.001$). This suggests participants may have been using cues to perform the task in

402 the catch trials that would not be helpful if used in the main experimental trials. For example,
403 3 participants appeared to use distance information in the catch trials that were included as
404 part of the *Duration* speed discrimination condition (see Figure 4A). In this *Duration*
405 condition, speed and duration cues were available but the distance travelled was fixed. This
406 means those participants used distance information in the catch trials despite it being
407 impossible to successfully use distance to make judgements in the main experiment trials of
408 this condition. As the catch trials were interleaved with the main experimental trials, this
409 suggests that participants may have been changing between using different cues from one
410 trial to the next when completing the speed discrimination task.

411

Discussion

412 The aims of this work were to first determine if speed change discrimination for looming
413 stimuli is a more difficult task than speed discrimination, and second, to investigate if
414 participants use distance or duration information, instead of speed information, when it is
415 available in speed discrimination tasks. If so, this might explain the apparent difficulty of
416 speed change discrimination judgements. To do this we measured discrimination thresholds
417 for the two different tasks and included manipulations of the speed discrimination stimuli in
418 the form of ‘catch trials’, which were designed to reveal the use of distance, duration, or
419 speed information.

420

421 We found speed change discrimination to be significantly more difficult than speed
422 discrimination for looming stimuli. This result is in agreement with the previous literature
423 that has studied at speed change discrimination for 2D motion and other varieties of 3D
424 motion (Lee et al., 2019; Monen & Brenner, 1994; Snowden & Braddick, 1991). The
425 majority of our individual participants had 75% thresholds below 20 cm/s in the speed
426 discrimination conditions (*Duration* and *Distance*, see Figure 5).

427

428 In experiments from other labs using a different type of speed change discrimination task,
429 where a participant determines whether a stimulus has increased or decreased in speed, the
430 distinction between speed change and speed discrimination thresholds is slightly less clear.
431 Thresholds have been reported to be roughly 3 times higher when two speeds are presented
432 consecutively than when there was a period of 1 second between the two speeds, but only
433 when only when the duration of motion was short (Mateeff et al., 2000). In another study

434 thresholds as low as 12% have been found for this type of experiment (Hick, 1950).
435 However, unlike in the two-interval forced choice speed change discrimination task used in
436 our study, Hick's (1950) experimental setup left it clear when a speed change had occurred,
437 which could have made their task easier and explain their lower thresholds.

438

439 Our manipulations of the catch trials in the speed discrimination task suggested that
440 participants were not exclusively using speed to complete the task. We found some
441 participants who appeared to use speed, some duration, and some distance in the catch trials,
442 and the cue use correlated between the catch trials in the *Duration* and *Distance* conditions.
443 This means in some cases participants would have used catch trial strategies that they could
444 not have used successfully for other trials in the main experiment. For example, in Figure 4,
445 participant 1 appears to often be using the distance cue to make their judgements in the catch
446 trials in both the *Duration* condition (Figure 4A) and the *Distance* condition (Figure 4B).
447 However, participant 1 would not have been able to successfully use distance to perform the
448 speed discrimination task in the main experiment trials of the *Duration* condition: because the
449 distance cue was not informative. As participant 1 was able to perform this task well (see
450 Figure 5), we can infer that participants may have been able to use multiple cues to complete
451 the speed discrimination task, and, as the catch trials were interleaved amongst the other
452 experimental trials, that participants could have been switching between using different cues
453 from trial to trial. It is also possible that participants may have used a combination of
454 differently-weighted cues to make their judgements in each trial, but our design was not
455 aimed at testing this hypothesis. As such, we cannot address this possibility here.

456

457 The finding that participants may have used cues other than speed to complete the speed
458 discrimination task is supported by other studies that have shown that participants may not
459 use speed information in isolation to discriminate speed (Mandriota, Mintz, & Notterman,
460 1962; Smith & Edgar, 1991). Mandriota et al. (1962) found that adding distance and duration
461 cues improved speed discrimination performance, whilst Smith and Edgar (1991) reported
462 that discrimination of speed and temporal frequency were inseparable when using drifting
463 grating stimuli, suggesting speed may not be used in isolation.

464

465 On the other hand, our catch trial findings conflict with research suggesting participants use
466 speed in speed discrimination tasks with both 2D and 3D motion (Harris & Watamaniuk,
467 1996; Lappin, Bell, Harm, & Kottas, 1975; McKee, 1981; McKee et al., 1986; Orban et al.,
468 1984; Pasternak, 1987). However, of these studies, only Lappin et al. (1975) included more
469 than 3 human participants in their study, although Pasternak (1987) also had 9 cats as
470 subjects. In our study all participants were fully naïve and inexperienced observers. Three of
471 these previous studies had at least one author as a participant who would have been aware of
472 the aims of the experiment (Harris & Watamaniuk, 1996; McKee et al., 1986; Pasternak,
473 1987). It is possible that if a larger number of naïve participants had been used in these
474 experiments, a greater range of cue usage in speed discrimination tasks may have been
475 demonstrated.

476

477 If participants do not always use speed in speed discrimination tasks, as suggested here, this
478 supports the idea that speed change discrimination may be more difficult than speed
479 discrimination because participants cannot use distance or duration cues in the latter task.
480 However, there are other possible explanations for why speed change discrimination is a

481 difficult task. For example, it is possible that participants may combine or integrate speed
482 information over space or time in such a way that it makes speed change discrimination tasks
483 where two speeds are presented consecutively more difficult. This would be an interesting
484 avenue for future research.

485

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