



# Double training downshifts the threshold vs. noise contrast (TvC) functions with perceptual learning and transfer

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## ABSTRACT

Location-specific perceptual learning can transfer to a new location if the new location is trained with a secondary task that by itself does not impact the performance of the primary learning task (double training). Learning may also transfer to other locations when double training is performed at the same location. Here we investigated the mechanisms underlying double-training enabled learning and transfer with an external noise paradigm. Specifically, we measured the Vernier thresholds at various external noise contrasts before and after double training. Double training mainly vertically downshifts the TvC functions at the training and transfer locations, which may be interpreted as improved sampling efficiency in a linear amplifier model or a combination of internal noise reduction and external noise exclusion in a perceptual template model at both locations. The change of the TvC functions appears to be a high-level process that can be mapped from a training location to a new location after double training.

## 1. Introduction

Visual perceptual learning is often specific to the retinal location and orientation/direction of the training stimulus. Therefore, learning is often interpreted as a result of training-induced neural plasticity, such as sharp neural orientation/direction tuning of neurons, in the retinotopic and feature-selective early visual areas (Ball & Sankar, 1982; Karni & Sagi, 1991; Schoups, Vogels, & Orban, 1995; Titchener & Qian, 2003; Bjanki, Bock, Lu, & Pouget, 2011). Alternatively, also bounded by learning specificity, revealing the origins proposed that a decision stage reveals the inputs from stimulus-specific sensory neurons to improve the readout (Poggio, Fahl, & Edelman, 1992; Doshier & Lu, 1998; Yu, Klinton, & Lavi, 2004; Petrov, Doshier, & Lu, 2005; Law & Gold, 2009).

Our recent studies demonstrated that specificity is not an inherent property of perceptual learning. Visual perceptual learning can transfer to a new location if the new location is additionally trained with a secondary task that by itself has no impact on the performance of primary learning task (Xiao et al., 2008; Wang, Zhang, Klinton, Lavi, & Yu, 2012; Wang, Cong, & Yu, 2013). Sometimes when double training is performed at the same training location, learning can also transfer to new locations (Wang, Zhang, Klinton, Lavi, & Yu, 2014). Learning also transfers to a new orientation/direction when a secondary task is practiced at the new orientation/direction to eliminate feature specificity (Zhang, Zhang, Xiao, Klinton, Lavi, & Yu, 2010; Zhang & Yang,

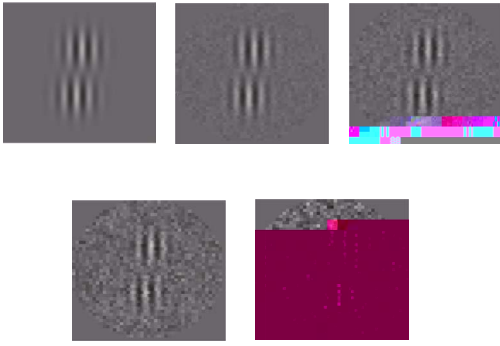
2014; Xiong, Xi, & Yu, 2016; Zhang & Yu, 2016). These results suggest that visual perceptual learning is at least in some situations a high-level process that occurs beyond the retinotopic and feature-selective visual areas.

Orientation and direction learning also transfers with double training to physically distinct stimuli (e.g., orientations defined by luminance gratings vs. symmetry axes of random dot patterns; motion directions defined by first-order luminance vs. second-order contrast gratings) that are initially encoded by different neural substrates and discriminated at separate threshold ranges (Wang et al., 2016). These data indicate that what is learned is more likely the concept of a trained visual feature (e.g., an abstract concept of orientation or motion direction) that is independent of retinal location, feature dimension, physical property, and putative neural codes. Moreover, either the top-down or the bottom-up influence is produced by the stimulus at the new location or orientation in the secondary training task, when isolated by a rare visible continuous flash suppression method (Tsuchiya & Koch, 2005), can enable significant transfer of primary learning. This finding suggests that learning specificity may result from abstract or weak functional connections between high-level learning and visual inputs at untrained conditions that are either bottom-up stimulated or top-down attended during training (Xiong, Zhang, & Yu, 2016).

Previous studies have applied external noise paradigms to study the mechanisms of perceptual learning (Burgess, Wagner, Jennings, &

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Barlow, 1981; Legge, Kristjánsson, & Burgess, 1987; Pelli, 1991; Doshier & Lu, 1998, 1999). In these studies the contrast thresholds for performing a certain visual task are measured with the target stimuli presented in the presence of various contrasts. The contrast threshold plotted against the noise contrast in log-log axes is called a threshold vs. noise contrast (TvC) function. Training typically down-shifts the thresholds at all noise contrasts (i.e., the entire TvC function) vertically (Doshier & Lu, 1998; Gold, Bennett, & Skuse, 1999). A linear amplification model with two parameters (i.e., equivalent internal noise and sampling efficiency) would interpret this vertical downshift as improvement in sampling efficiency and unchanged internal noise (Burgess et al., 1981; Legge et al., 1987; Pelli, 1991). Alternatively, Doshier and Lu (1998, 1999) proposed a perceptual template model, which is more complex than the two-component model with additional considerations of internal multiplicative noise and nonlinearities. They attributed the TvC function down-shift to a combination of internal noise reduction and external noise exclusion.

We applied the external noise paradigm in the current study to investigate the mechanisms underlying double training. Like previous reports, our results show that training led to a vertical downshift of the TvC functions at the training location. Moreover, the TvC functions at the transfer location were equally downshifted with learning transfer after double training, indicating that similar learning mechanisms underlie learning and transfer. These results are consistent with our theory that the same high-level rules govern learning and transfer in perceptual learning (Zhang et al., 2010).

## 2. Methods

### 2.1. Observers and apparatus

The observers consisted of thirty-four undergraduate and graduate students (18–27 years old) with normal or corrected-to-normal vision. They were new to psychophysical experiments and naïve to the purposes of the study. Informed written consent, which was approved by the Peking University IRB, was obtained before data collection from each observer. This work was carried out in accordance with the Code of Ethics of the World Medical Association (Declaration of Helsinki).

The stimuli were generated with Psychtoolbox-3 (Pelli, 1997) and presented on a 21-in CRT monitor (1024 pixels  $\times$  768 pixels, 0.39 mm  $\times$  0.39 mm pixels size, 120 Hz frame rate, and 33.4 cd/m<sup>2</sup> mean luminance). The screen luminance was linearized by an 8-bit look-up table. Viewing was monocular at a distance of 1 m, and a chin-and-head rest stabilized the head. Viewing was through a circular opening (diameter = 17°) of a black cardboard that covered the rest of the monitor screen. Experiments were run in a dimly lit room.

An Eye-link-1000 eye-tracking (SR Research, Kanata, Ontario, Canada) monitor eye movements in one-third of the observers in each experiment to double-check the potential eye movement effects. Trials

were excluded from data analysis if eye positions deviated from the fixation point more than 2° immediately before and during the stimulus presentation. Our previous study indicated no significant changes of eye drifts after training with a peripheral task (Zhang et al., 2010), excluding the possibility that peripheral threshold improvements may result from eye movement pattern changes after training. Here we compared the results of observers with and without using the eye tracker. We pooled the double training data in Figs. 4b and 5b and contrast the results obtained with vs. without eye tracking ( $N = 5$  vs. 8). A repeated-measures ANOVA showed no significant effects of eye tracking at both training location ( $F_{1,9} = 2.439$ ,  $p = .153$ ) and transfer location ( $F_{1,9} = 2.381$ ,  $p = .157$ ), suggesting that learning and transfer results reported in this paper were not significantly compromised by eye movements.

### 2.2. Stimuli

The V rni r stimulus consisted of two identical Gabors (Gaussian-window sinusoidal gratings) presented on a mean luminance screen background. The V rni r was centered on one visual quadrant at 5° retinal eccentricity. The two Gabors had the same spatial frequency (3 cpd), standard deviation (0.67°), contrast (0.47), orientation (vertical) and phase (0°). The center-to-center distance of two Gabors was 1.33°. To form a specific V rni r offset, the position of each Gabor shift half the V rni r offsets away in opposite directions perpendicular to the Gabor orientation. The V rni r was embedded in external noise in a circular window (radius = 2°) (Fig. 1a). Each noise element was 4  $\times$  4 pixels in size, and the luminance of each element was sampled from the look-up-table following a Gaussian distribution. The root mean square (rms) contrast of the external noise was 0%, 5%, 9%, 16%, or 29%. The V rni r and the noise stimuli were presented in alternating frames at 100 ms.

The stimulus for orientation discrimination was a single Gabor presented at 5° retinal eccentricity either in the same quadrant or diagonal to the V rni r quadrant. The Gabor was identical to those forming the V rni r stimulus. The preferred orientation of the Gabor was either 36° or 126°.

### 2.3. Procedure

The V rni r threshold was measured with a one-interval staircase procedure. In each trial, a small fixation cross preceded the V rni r by 500 ms and stayed throughout the trial. The V rni r was presented for 100 ms. Observers reported whether the lower Gabor was to the left or right of the upper Gabor by key presses. Auditory feedback was given on incorrect responses.

The orientation discrimination threshold was measured with a two-interval forced-choice staircase procedure. In each trial, a small fixation

cross presented the first interval by 500 ms and stayed throughout the trial. The Gabors at the reference orientation and the test orientation (reference +  $\Delta$ ori) were shown in two 100-ms stimulus intervals, respectively, in a random order. The two stimulus intervals were separated by a 500-ms inter-stimulus interval. The observers judged which stimulus interval contained the more clockwise-oriented Gabor. Auditory feedback was given on incorrect responses.

The thresholds were estimated following a 3-down-1-up staircase rule that converged at a 79.4% correct response rate. Each staircase consisted of four preliminary reversals and six experimental reversals (approximately 50–60 trials). The step size of the staircase was 0.05 log units. The geometric mean of the experimental reversals was taken as the threshold for each staircase run.

In a pre- or post-training session in most experiments (Figs. 3–6), the Vernier thresholds at five noise contrasts were measured at two diagonal locations in a counterbalanced order, with each condition tested for 5 staircases, for a total of 50 staircases. These 50 staircases were completed in two daily sessions with the test sequence presented with a pseudorandom table. The pre- and post-training sessions in Fig. 2 were shorter with fewer staircases, and were completed in a single daily session. The training sessions lasted six days, each consisting of 10 staircases of Vernier task at zero noise and/or 10 staircases of orientation discrimination task at zero noise. Each 20-staircase session lasted for 1.5–2 h.

#### 2.4. Data fitting

We revised the linear-amplifier model (Burgess et al., 1981; Legge et al., 1987; Pelli, 1991) to fit the pre- and post-training TvC (Threshold vs. Noise Contrast) functions. The original format of the model is:

$$Th^2 = \frac{1}{k} (N_{ext}^2 + N_i^2)$$

in which  $Th$  stands for contrast threshold,  $N_{ext}$  stands for external noise,  $k$  stands for sampling efficiency, and  $N_i$  stands for equivalent internal noise that is additive. We noticed in our data that the Vernier thresholds at the highest noise were too high to be fitted by the model, which could suggest extra masking effect that increases with the noise contrast. Therefore, we introduced a new parameter to the model to represent this effect that mainly impacts the thresholds at high noise and thus the slope of the TvC function. The revised model is:

$$Th^2 = \frac{1}{k} (N_{ext}^{2r} + N_i^2)$$

In this new model, reducing  $N_i$  by training would lead to lower thresholds at low noise (blue curve), and increasing  $r$  would lead to lower thresholds at high noise (green curve) because the noise contrast is less than 1. However, a large  $r$ , or a vertical downshift of the entire TvC function (red curve), has different interpretations. As described

earlier, it could either indicate improved sampling efficiency with unchanged equivalent internal noise (Burgess et al., 1981; Legge et al., 1987; Pelli, 1991), or a combination of internal noise reduction and external noise exclusion (Doshier & Lu, 1998, 1999, 2005).

Data fitting was performed with a nonlinear least squares method (the Matlab `lsqnonlin` function) and weighted with the standard error of each data point. The model fitted the individual TvC functions quite well (the mean adjusted goodness of fit  $R^2 = 0.93$ ). It should be noticed that reducing  $N_i$  and increasing  $r$  together have the same effect as increasing  $k$  alone. Therefore, when fitting the TvC functions with  $r$  kept fixed or only allow  $r$  to vary. Details are provided with each specific experiment in the Results section.

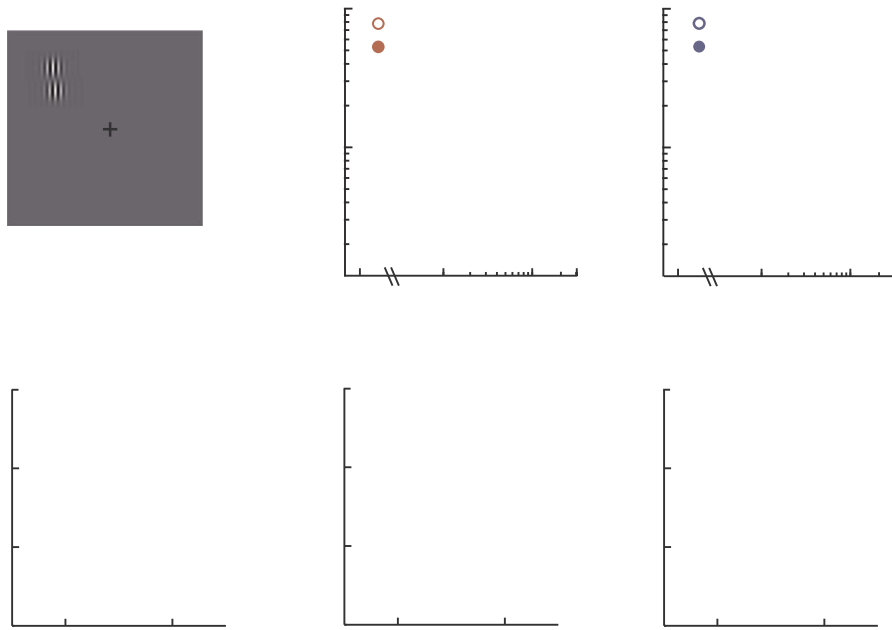
It is not worthy that the linear amplifier model (Burgess et al., 1981; Legge et al., 1987; Pelli, 1991) and the perceptual template model (Doshier & Lu, 1998, 1999, 2005) have equations that were derived for the functional form of the TvC curves for contrast thresholds. Our experiments instead measured Vernier offsets at thresholds. Nonetheless, we used the functional form for contrast TvC curves as a heuristic approximation, based on the observation that both measures are limited by discriminability, and that the Vernier TvC functions are well approximated by this form.

### 3. Results

#### 3.1. Baselines: Location specificity in Vernier learning

We first replicated location specificity in Vernier learning. Seven observers practiced Vernier discrimination at zero noise at one quadrant location for six days (Fig. 2a). In pre- and post-training sessions, Vernier thresholds were measured at zero and the high-stimulus contrast (0.29) at the training and diagonal transfer locations. The reason for not testing all noise levels was the concern that too many pretesting trials at the transfer location would lead to some degree of double training effects, as would be shown later in Fig. 3.

The learning effect was measured by calculating the percent improvement  $[(1 - \text{post\_threshold}/\text{pre\_threshold}) * 100]$ . Training improved Vernier thresholds at zero noise by  $27.5 \pm 2.9\%$  ( $t = 9.47$ ,  $df = 6$ ,  $p < .001$ , paired two-tail  $t$ -test here) and in later analyses unlessotherwise specified) and at the high-stimulus by  $16.2 \pm 5.0\%$  ( $t = 3.25$ ,  $df = 6$ ,  $p = .018$ ) at the training location (Fig. 2b, c). The learning transfer from zero noise to high noise was consistent with Doshier and Lu (2005). At the untrained diagonal location, Vernier performance did not change significantly.



observed with  $V_{rni}$  thresholds measured at all five levels of noise contrasts in pre- and post-training sessions (Fig. 3a). Like in Fig. 2, training improved  $V_{rni}$  thresholds at zero noise by  $27.4 \pm 5.2\%$  ( $t = 5.28$ ,  $df = 6$ ,  $p = .002$ ) and at high noise by  $26.9 \pm 7.2\%$  ( $t = 3.74$ ,  $df = 6$ ,  $p = .010$ ) at the training location (Fig. 3b). At the untrained diagonal location, training did not change  $V_{rni}$  performance significantly at zero noise ( $15.6 \pm 7.2\%$ ,  $t = 2.16$ ,  $df = 6$ ,  $p = .074$ ) because of large individual differences, but it improved performance at high noise ( $22.0 \pm 5.8\%$ ,  $t = 3.77$ ,  $df = 6$ ,

$p = .009$ ) (Fig. 3b).

We first fitted the pre-training TvC functions to find the best values of the model parameters (Fig. 3c). For post-training functions, because there was no training at high noise, we assumed that the parameter  $r$ , which indicates the effects of high noise, would not change. Thus we fixed  $r$  at the pre-training value and let  $k$  and  $N_i$  vary (Fig. 3c, smooth curves). The fitting results indicated an increase in  $k$  at the training location ( $t = 2.48$ ,  $df = 6$ ,  $p = .047$ ), which suggests an improvement in sampling efficiency in a linear amplifier model or a combination

of internal noise reduction and external noise exclusion in a perceptual template model. However, there was no significant change of  $k$  at the untrained location ( $t = 1.75$ ,  $df = 6$ ,  $p = .130$ ) because of the large error bars. Data fitting also indicated no significant changes of  $N_i$  at the training location ( $t = 1.12$ ,  $df = 6$ ,  $p = .30$ ) and the transfer location ( $t = 0.33$ ,  $df = 6$ ,  $p = .75$ ). These results together suggest that Vnni training with protocols at all noise contrasts failed to change the TvC functions significantly at the untrained and transfer locations. On the other hand, some observations did show more transfer effects at the untrained location, as suggested by high Vnni improvement at zero noise and large changes of model parameters when compared to those in Fig. 2, even if the changes were not statistically significant due to large individual differences.

### 3.2. Double training

Six new observations practiced the same Vnni task at zero noise, as well as an orientation discrimination task at zero noise at a diagonal quadrant location, in alternating blocks of trials within the same sessions (Fig. 4a). The orientation task served as the secondary location training in a double-training design. Vnni thresholds at five noise contrasts were measured at the training and diagonal transfer locations before and after training.

The double training improved Vnni thresholds at zero noise at the training location by  $39.3 \pm 6.2\%$  ( $t = 6.36$ ,  $df = 5$ ,  $p = .001$ ), as well as at the diagonal location by  $28.4 \pm 7.4\%$  ( $t = 3.82$ ,  $df = 5$ ,  $p = .012$ ) (Fig. 4b). The two improvements were not significantly different from each other ( $t = 1.13$ ,  $df = 10$ ,  $p = .28$ ), replicating our previous results that Vnni learning becomes largely location-unspecific after double training (Xiao et al., 2008; Wang et al., 2012).

Again we fix  $k$  at its pre-training value because there was no training at high noise contrasts and all other parameters vary. We found increases of  $k$  at both training ( $t = 3.19$ ,  $df = 5$ ,  $p = .024$ ) and transfer ( $t = 2.60$ ,  $df = 5$ ,  $p = .048$ ) locations, along with no significant changes of  $N_i$  ( $t = 0.99$  and  $0.97$ ,  $df = 5$  and  $5$ ,  $p = .36$  and  $.37$  at the training and diagonal locations, respectively) (Fig. 4c). These results indicate vertical downshifts of the TvC functions at both training and transfer locations, as a result of improved sampling efficiency (Burgess et al., 1981; Legge et al., 1987; Pelli, 1991), or a combination of internal noise reduction and external noise exclusion (Doshier & Lu, 1998, 1999, 2005).

### 3.3. The piggybacking effect

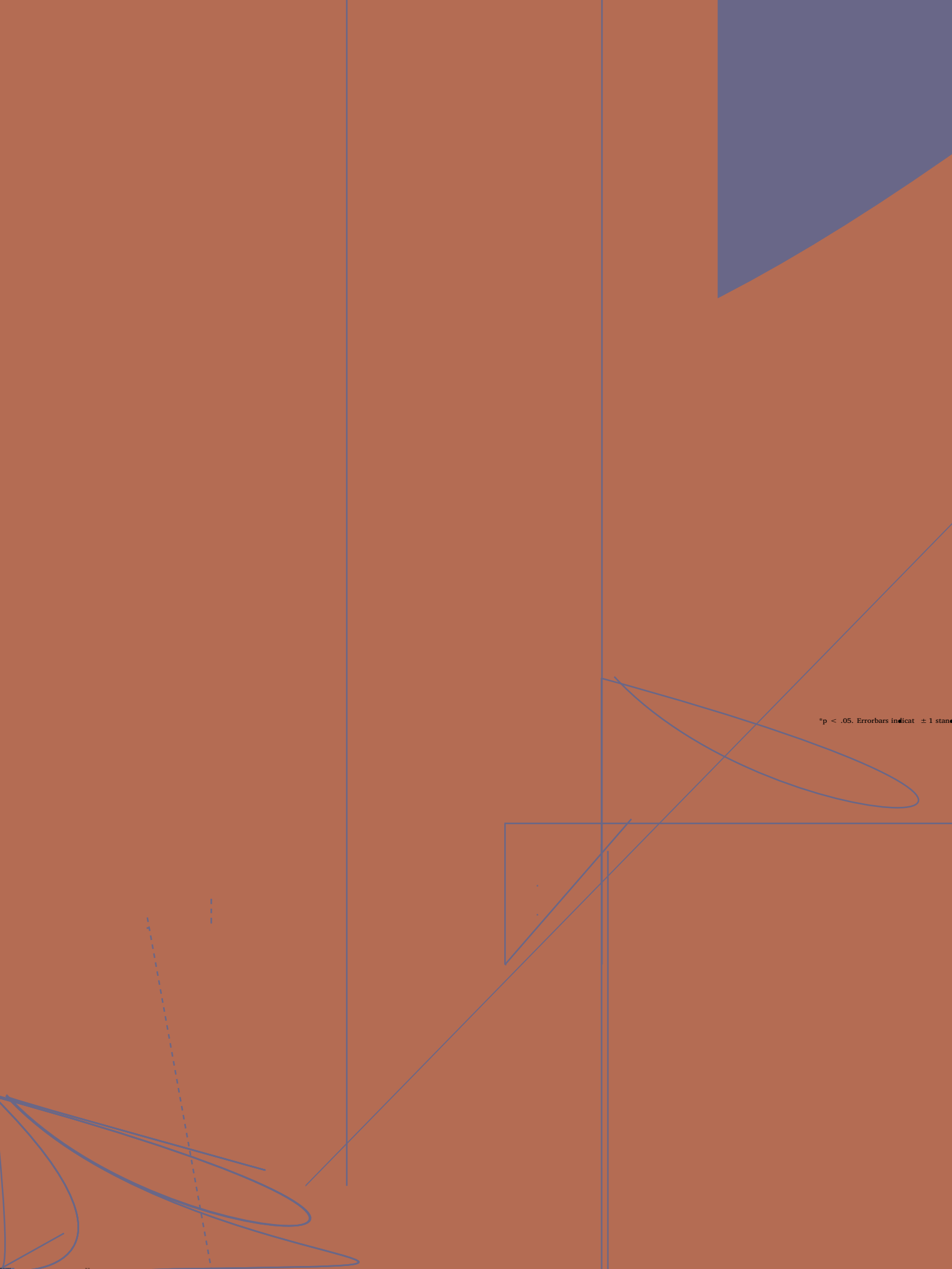
Vnni learning, when paired with orientation training at the same location, can also transfer to other retinal locations (Wang et al., 2014). Here we report that this “piggybacking” effect with same-location Vnni and orientation training at zero noise in alternating blocks of trials (Fig. 5a), while pre- and post-training Vnni thresholds were measured at five noise contrasts at the training location and a diagonal location. Fig. 5b shows improvements of Vnni thresholds at all noise contrasts at both training and diagonal locations. At zero noise the Vnni thresholds were similarly ( $t = 0.69$ ,  $df = 12$ ,  $p = .51$ ) reduced by  $29.9 \pm 4.5\%$  ( $t = 6.62$ ,  $df = 6$ ,  $p = .001$ ) at the training location and by  $25.4 \pm 4.7\%$  ( $t = 5.37$ ,  $df = 6$ ,  $p = .002$ ) at the diagonal location, consistent with our previous finding of complete learning transfer (Wang et al., 2014).

Following the same fitting procedure as in Figs. 3 and 4 (i.e., fixing  $r$  and searching for best  $k$  and  $N_i$ ), we found increases of  $k$  at both training ( $t = 3.32$ ,  $df = 6$ ,  $p = .016$ ) and transfer ( $t = 3.30$ ,  $df = 6$ ,  $p = .017$ ) locations, with no significant changes of  $N_i$  ( $t = 1.39$  and  $1.10$ ,  $df = 6$  and  $6$ ,  $p = .21$  and  $.32$  at the training and diagonal locations, respectively) (Fig. 5c). Overall the experimental and fitting results are similar to those in Fig. 4.

### 3.4. Control experiment

The control experiment tested the possibility that pretraining at all five noise contrasts and orientation training could improve Vnni performance in Figs. 4 and 5 without primary Vnni training. Seven new observations only practiced orientation discrimination at zero noise at one quadrant location (Fig. 6a). Before and after training Vnni thresholds at all noise contrasts were measured at the orientation training location and a diagonal location (Fig. 6b).

These results show that pretraining at all five noise contrasts and orientation training at zero noise had no significant impact on Vnni thresholds at zero noise at the orientation-training location ( $4.1 \pm 5.6\%$ ,  $t = 0.72$ ,  $df = 6$ ,  $p = .50$ ) and a diagonal location ( $-2.5 \pm 6.4\%$ ,  $t = 0.40$ ,  $df = 6$ ,  $p = .70$ ) (Fig. 6b). However, Vnni performance was improved significantly at the highest noise, by  $25.7 \pm 7.4\%$  ( $t = 3.48$ ,  $df = 6$ ,  $p = .013$ ) at the orientation-training location and  $23.6 \pm 6.1\%$  ( $t = 3.86$ ,  $df = 6$ ,  $p = .008$ ) at the diagonal location (Fig. 6b), indicating that the performance improvements at



different parameter values for internal noise and efficiency. Our model is more like a simplified Doshier and Lu model because it also contains a parameter to simulate the extra high noise masking effects, likely caused by multiplicative internal noise. We were not able to apply the full Doshier and Lu model, which, with more parameters, would require pretraining at more noise contrast levels. That kind of extensive pretraining could be equivalent to double training by itself, making further training unnecessary.

In the second baseline group in which the Vernier thresholds were pretested at all five noise contrasts (Fig. 3), the results were mixed: The vertical downshift of the TvC function (i.e., change of parameter  $k$ ) at the transfer location was not significant, but with large individual differences. Some observers did show more transfer effects, which was not the case when pretraining was performed only at two noise contrasts (Fig. 2). Therefore, extra pre-training trials in Fig. 3 could have caused some double-training effects in some observers. In later double training experiments (Figs. 4 and 5), significant downshifts of TvC functions were evident at the transfer location, which may reflect combined double training effects from pre-training at all noise contrasts as well as training of the secondary orientation task. It is difficult to separate the contributions of these two double-training effects, but it is clear that their combined impact leads to the vertical downshift of the TvC functions. This is because the all-contrast pre-training and the secondary orientation training could not produce the downshifts by themselves, as evidenced in the control experiment (Fig. 6).

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