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Beyond The Classical Receptive Field
The Effect of Contextual Stimuli

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Abstract

Following the pioneering studies of the receptive field (RF), the RF-concept gained further significance for visual perception by the discovery of input effects from beyond the classical RF. These studies demonstrated that neuronal responses could be modulated by stimuli outside their RFs, consistent with the perception of induced brightness, color, orientation, and motion. Lesion scotomata are similarly modulated perceptually from the surround by RFs that have migrated from the interior to the outer edge of the scotoma and in this way provide filling-in of the void. Large RFs are advantageous to this task. In higher visual areas such as the middle temporal and inferotemporal lobe, RFs increase in size and lose most of their retinotopic organization, while encoding increasingly complex features. Whereas lower-level RFs mediate perceptual filling-in, contour integration, and figure-ground segregation, RFs at higher levels serve the perception of grouping by common fate, biological motion, and other biologically relevant stimuli such as faces. Studies in alert monkeys while freely viewing natural scenes showed that classical and non-classical RFs cooperate in forming representations of the visual world. Today our understanding of the mechanisms underlying the RF is undergoing a quantum leap. What had started out as a hierarchical feed-forward concept for simple stimuli such as spots, lines, and bars now refers to mechanisms involving ascending, descending, and lateral signal flow. By extension of the bottom-up paradigm, RFs are nowadays understood as adaptive processors enabling the predictive coding of complex scenes. Top-down effects guiding attention and tuned to task-relevant information complement the bottom-up analysis.

Key words: non-classical receptive fields, contextual neurons, association field, attention, predictive coding

1. Introduction

In a previous paper (Spillmann, 2014), the early history of the receptive field (RF) concept was reviewed, recounting the seminal studies of optic nerve responses in the frog (Hartline 1938, 1940; Barlow, 1953) and cat (Kuffler, 1953; Barlow, Fitzhugh & Kuffler, 1957), as well as the systematic studies of the functional architecture of cortical neurons in cat and monkey by Nobel Prize laureates Hubel and Wiesel (1962-1968). In these experiments, simple stimuli such as dots, lines, and bars were used to explore RF properties. In this paper we extend the history of the RF to experiments in striate and extrastriate cortex, using contextual stimuli, including movie clips and natural scenes. Over the years, theoretical accounts for RF properties have progressively shifted from classic bottom-up processing towards contextual processing, with top-down and horizontal modulation contributing. These latter effects provide evidence for long-range interactions between neurons relevant to figure-ground segregation and pop-out by brightness, color, orientation, texture, motion, and depth.

How the neuronal mechanisms underlying these attributes generate large-scale surface properties from local features — indeed, how they construct the surfaces themselves from complex natural scenes — is one of the most pressing questions in contemporary visual neuroscience. Feed-forward projections (retino-geniculo-cortical), horizontal interactions (cortico-cortical), and backward propagation (re-entrant from MT, V4, V3 and V2 to V1) have been suggested to underlie the perception of extended areas segregated from their surrounds. Together they account for phenomena such as the perception of uniform surfaces, filling-in, and grouping (Grossberg & Mingolla, 1985; Spillmann & Werner, 1996; Lamme, Super, & Spekreijse, 1998). These mechanisms have been proposed to enable the transition from local to global processing by using information from *beyond the classical receptive field*. Surfaces enclosed by boundaries, rather than edge effects, have become the main focus of interest. A cellular basis for these mechanisms will have to be sought in cortical visual areas rather than in interactive processes in the retina (Spillmann, 1997, 1999). Detailed laminar cortical models of 3D vision and figure-ground segregation have been proposed to unify the explanation of many perceptual and neurobiological data about such boundary-surface interactions (e.g., Cao & Grossberg, 2005); Grossberg & Yazdanbakhsh, 2005). Long-range interaction

between RFs serves not only unperturbed everyday perception, it also provides for “repair” mechanisms, when sensory information is incomplete or ambiguous, such as in the perceptual filling-in of scotomata (Spillmann, 2011), the completion across the physiological blind spot (Kawabata, 1984; Komatsu, 2011), and in predictive scene coding of natural images.

2. Beyond the classical receptive field

The earliest attempts to relate visual physiology to perception were severely limited by the techniques available. Köhler (1949), one of the fathers of Gestalt psychology, together with Held invoked 'electric field' effects to explain how the perception of patterns would be produced in the brain. In their study, they set out to demonstrate an isomorphic shape correlate of pattern vision (see the review by Wurtz, 2009), but what was missing at the time was an appropriate technology for recording interpretable brain signals that could lead to an understanding of the neuronal mechanisms underlying perception. Yet, Köhler and Held's concluding remarks in that paper, suggesting that access to the cortical correlates of complex pattern vision would have an immediate impact on any theory of psychophysics and perception, turned out to be prophetic.

Hardly a decade later, single-cell recordings from the cat and monkey brains (Hubel & Wiesel, 1959, 1962, 1965, 1968) were to produce exactly such an impact, marking the beginnings of a deeper understanding of the ways in which information is passed on from one processing stage to another in the brain. Systematic investigation of RF properties did not stop there. Input effects from outside the classical RF were soon discovered (for review see Allman, Miezin, & McGuiness, 1985a), leading to a distinction between local and global percepts, the definition of contextual stimuli and, in the nineties, the concept of an *association field* (Field, Hayes, & Hess, 1993). This latter concept was a psychophysical blueprint for linking up stimulus elements lying on a common path. Therewith, Köhler and Held's (1949) idea that shape perception could find an explanation in terms of a global brain field theory was taken to the next level. This review deals with this higher level by recounting how the study of long-range signal interaction between cortical neurons has produced theoretical developments beyond the classical RF, with new concepts for understanding the neural basis of complex scene integration in the brain.

3. Long-range interaction and contextual neurons

Our perception relies on the interaction between proximal and distant points in visual space, requiring short- and long-range neural connections among neurons responding to different regions within the retinotopic map. Evidently, the classical center-surround RF can only accommodate short-range interactions; for long-range interactions more powerful mechanisms are needed. Accordingly, the hitherto established local RF properties had to be extended to take distant global inputs into account.

The idea of an extended (called non-classical or extra-classical today) RF was not new. Kuffler (1953, p. 45) already wrote: "... not only the areas from which responses can actually be set up by retinal illumination may be included in a definition of the receptive field but also all areas which show a functional connection, by an inhibitory or excitatory effect on a ganglion cell. This may well involve areas which are somewhat remote from a ganglion cell and by themselves do not set up discharges." The first evidence for a distant modulation of a neuron came from McIlwain (1964), who demonstrated in the cat that a moving stimulus in the far periphery of the RF enhanced the response to a stimulus localized within the RF, i.e., the *periphery effect*. Next Blakemore, Carpenter and Georgeson (1970) and Blakemore and Tobin (1972) in the cat showed that lines of different orientation interacted antagonistically, suggesting mutual inhibition between neighboring cortical columns. In a follow-up paper, Rose and Blakemore (1974) targeted a specific inhibitory neurotransmitter (bicuculline) to account for this effect. Thereafter, Fischer and Krüger (1974) in the LGN demonstrated that a grating jerk in the far surround of a RF produced a brisk neuronal excitation in the center, i.e., the shift effect. This discovery was followed by reports in cat cortex of an unresponsive surround (Maffei & Fiorentini, 1976) and a region beyond the classical RF generating interactive effects between co-axial lines (Nelson & Frost, 1978). Yet, von der Heydt, Peterhans, and Baumgartner (1984) were the first to find neurons in V2 of the monkey cortex that responded to an "incomplete" bar as if receiving input from outside the classical RF. The authors interpreted this response as a mechanism designed to bridge a gap in a discontinuous contour.

Figure 1 (right) illustrates how a neuron in monkey area V2 responds to a continuous bar moving across the RF (small oval). The response is vigorous in both directions (A). When the bar was split into an upper and lower segment, no response was

expected, because the RF was fully contained within the gap; yet, there was a weak, but undeniable response (B). This response suggested that the neuron must have received information from outside its classical RF. There was no response when the upper and lower segments stopped short of the gap, separated from it only by a thin barrier (C). These results prompted Peterhans and von der Heydt (1991) to propose an explanation in terms of amodal completion by illusory contours as perceived in the Schumann (Fig. 1, top left) and well-known Kanizsa triangle illusions (Fig. 1, bottom left).

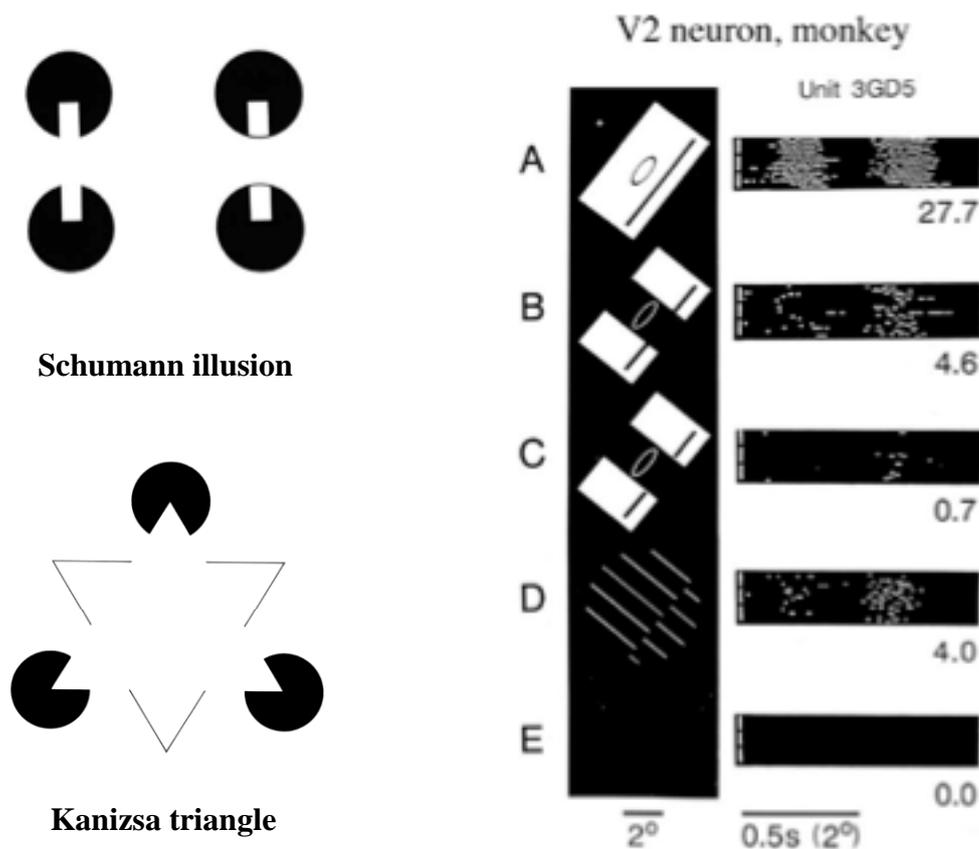


Figure 1. Left (top): Schumann illusion eliciting perception of an illusory bright bar. Left (bottom): Kanizsa triangle eliciting perception of an illusory triangle defined by illusory contours and enhanced brightness. Right: Response of a V2 neuron in the monkey sensitive to stimuli eliciting perception of an illusory contour. (A) Response to a continuous bar sweeping across the RF, (B) response to the same but discontinuous bar sparing the RF, and (C) response to the same bar when both bar segments were fully contained within the white background. (D) Response to two abutting gratings. (E) Response to an empty field used as a control. (From Peterhans & von der Heydt, 1989)

Following these early discoveries, researchers started using contextual stimuli to study context-sensitive neurons (Allman, Miezin, & McGuiness, 1985b; Gilbert &

Wiesel, 1990; Gilbert, 1992; Knierim & van Essen, 1992; Sillito et al., 1995). Figure 2 illustrates two examples. On the top (left) is shown a pattern with a small vertical bar embedded within a textural background of horizontal bars, i.e., orientation contrast. A neuron in cat area 17 responded much more strongly to this pattern than to the uniform control pattern on the right (Kastner, Nothdurft, & Pigarev, 1999). Evidently, cross-orientation between the bars in the surround and the central bar enhanced the response, whereas iso-orientation inhibited it. The same relationship obtains for the pattern shown on the left (bottom), where the center bar moved in one direction, while the bars in the surround moved in the opposite direction, i.e., motion contrast. Again, the neuronal response to this pattern was much stronger than the response to the control pattern on the right, where all bars moved in the same direction. In both examples, the difference in relative, rather than absolute, response level enables the pop-out (Li, 1999, 2002). Note that the stimulus surround for both kinds of patterns in Figure 2 exceeded the size of the classical RF. Neurons therefore must have received input from beyond this area (see also Jones, Grieve, Wang, & Sillito, 2001; Jones, Wang, & Sillito, 2002).

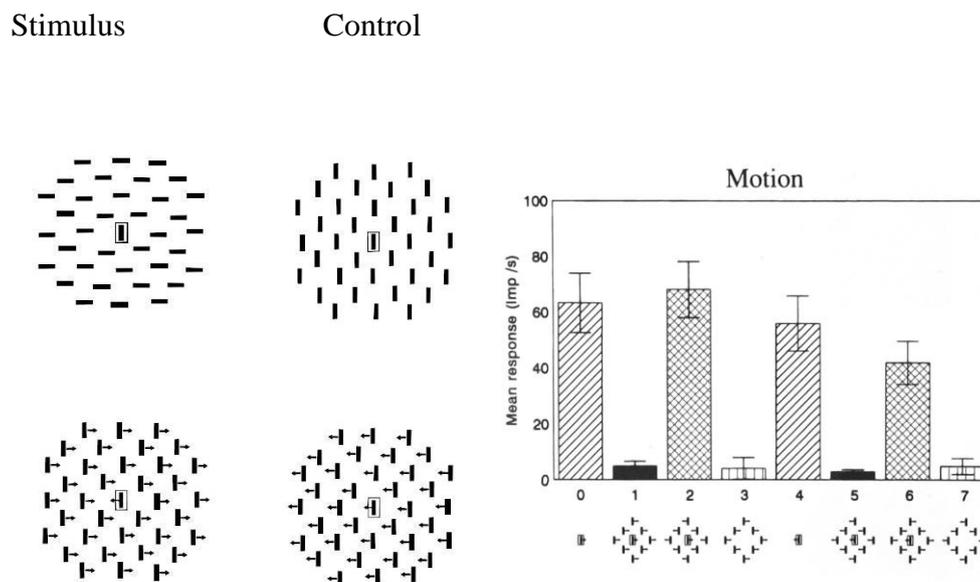


Figure 2. Contextual patterns for orientation contrast (top left) and motion contrast (bottom left). In the experiment, bright bars were used on a dark background. The center bar was located inside the classical RF (small rectangle) of a neuron in cat area 17, while the surround bars were positioned outside the RF. Mean response for motion contrast are also shown (right). The response to the contrast patterns (bars 2 and 6) was similar to that to the center presented in isolation (bars 0 and 4), while there was hardly any response to the surround shown by itself (bars 3 and 7) and no response either to the uniform patterns (bars 1 and 5) serving as a control. (Modified from Kastner, Nothdurft, & Pigarev, 1999)

To illustrate the various ways in which RF surrounds influence their centers, we here present some of the most compelling examples of contextual modulation from an ever-growing literature.

In a psychophysical experiment on contour integration in human observers, Field, Hayes, and Hess (1993) tested the detectability of a string of Gabor patches (Fig. 3, left) aligned on a background of randomly oriented Gabor patches (Fig. 3, right). The authors varied (i) the angle of element rotation relative to the path, (ii) the angle of path deviation from collinearity, and (iii) the distance of neighboring Gabor patches from each other. Deviation from collinearity affected detectability the most, suggesting that the Gestalt factor of *good continuation* was critical for contour integration. Remarkably, the string could still be detected when the distance between elements was five times the length of an individual Gabor patch. Field, Hayes, and Hess (1993) interpreted their findings in terms of long-range interaction within an association field. Their data confirmed the prediction of how bipole receptive fields may complete boundaries (Grossberg, 1984; Grossberg & Mingolla, 1985).

Trained rhesus monkeys produced psychophysical thresholds similar to those of human observers (Mandon & Kreiter, 2005). Such long-range interaction likely involves contextual RFs at different retinal locations, which are grouped together by higher-order neurons in extrastriate cortex.

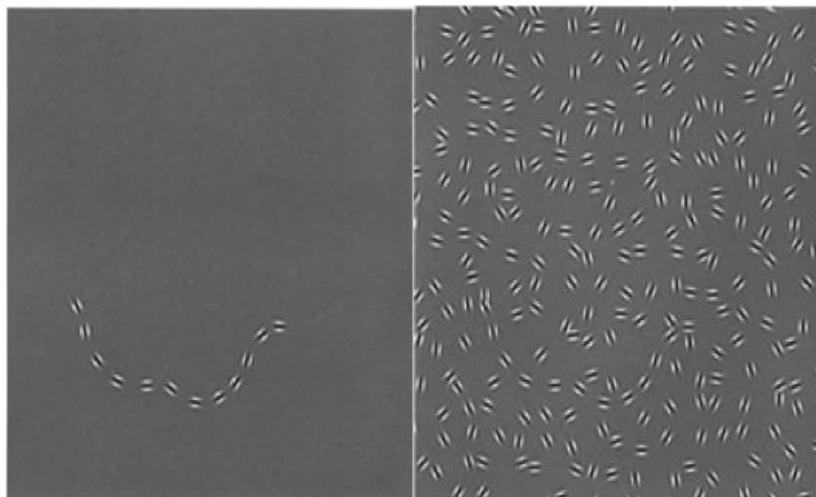


Figure 3. Grouping of aligned elements according to the Gestalt factor of good continuation. A string composed of iso-oriented Gabor elements is easily perceived when shown in isolation (left), but is hard to detect when embedded in a background of

randomly oriented Gabor patches (right). In the experiment, the “snake” on the left had not previously been shown to the observer. (From Field, Hayes, & Hess, 1993)

Another experiment demonstrating the influence of contextual modulation neurophysiologically as well as psychophysically deals with collinear facilitation. Figure 4 (top) shows that the response of a V1 neuron to a low contrast test line in the RF was enhanced, when a high contrast collinear flanker was presented outside this area (Nelson & Frost, 1985; Kapadia, Ito, Gilbert, & Westheimer, 1995; Kapadia, Westheimer, & Gilbert, 2000). There was no response to the flanker alone. What may be the biological role of such a mechanism? In our world most objects are given incompletely. Transforming local line segments into global contours is therefore crucial for object recognition. To recover a whole from its parts, the visual system must achieve contour integration through RFs that lie along a collinear path. Horizontal interactions in V1 are known to be of shorter-range than in V2, and the neurophysiological data summarized in Figure 4 show that such interactions can enhance neuronal responses to bottom-up inputs. By distinction, long-range boundary completion has been demonstrated in V2 for illusory contour formation (von der Heydt, Peterhans, & Baumgartner, 1984; Fig. 1), suggesting that this type of contour integration requires processing at a higher level in extrastriate cortex. A model by Grossberg, Mingolla, and Ross (1997), simulating the von der Heydt et al (1984) and Kapadia et al (1995) data, illustrates this distinction between V1 and V2.

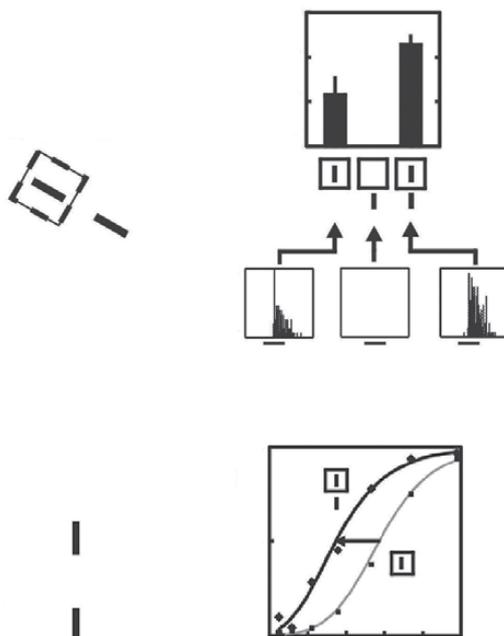


Figure 4. Facilitation of contextual sensitivity in an alert monkey and a human observer. Top: A complex neuron in V1 responded much more strongly to a bar within the classical RF, when it was presented together with a collinear flanker outside the RF (right). The flanker itself (middle) did not elicit a response. Bottom: Psychophysical threshold of a human observer in the absence (thin curve) and presence of the flanker (thick curve). The leftward shift of the response curve (arrow) indicates facilitation. (Modified from Kapadia, Ito, Gilbert, & Westheimer, 1995)

Consistent with their neuronal results, Kapadia et al (1995) also showed in human observers that the psychophysical threshold for raising a subliminal line to visibility was lowered by the presence of a collinear flanker, i.e., facilitation (Fig. 4, bottom). Stimulus conditions were critical: a small lateral offset of the two lines from collinearity, a difference in relative orientation, or a short orthogonal line between the target line and the flanker weakened and ultimately abolished the facilitating effect. These findings are compelling evidence that contextual modulation works similarly at both the single neuron level and the population level, proving Köhler's early 'field' intuitions right. Several authors reported comparable effects before and after (e.g. Dresch, 1993; Polat & Sagi, 1993, 1994; Yu & Levi, 1997, 2000; Chen, Kasamatsu, Polat, Norcia, 2001; Tzvetanov & Dresch, 2002; Dresch & Langley, 2005; Huang, Chen, & Tyler, 2012). Some of the effects shown therein were found to depend on the contrast intensity of the stimuli, with facilitating interactions at low flanker contrast and inhibitory interactions at higher flanker contrast intensities (e.g. Polat & Norcia, 1996; Wehrhahn & Dresch, 1998; Chen & Tyler, 2001, 2008).

The third experiment exhibiting contextual modulation from the surround is based on neuronal processing of orientation contrast as a means for figure-ground segregation in the monkey (Lamme, 1995). Figure 5 (left) shows the stimulus display, two test patches of line segments with opposite orientation to the background. Whereas the patch on the right is barely discernible, the one on the left merges with the background. The same stimuli are illustrated schematically by iso- or crosshatched windows (in the middle). The RF (small black rectangle) of a V1 neuron was always fully enclosed within the test patch. Thus, the neuron should not have had any input to inform it of the orientation of the surrounding background. The results indicated otherwise: Lamme (1995) found that the neuron readily discriminated between cross-orientation and iso-orientation of the test patch. The response to cross-orientation (on the right) was always

stronger. This finding suggests that the first steps of figure-ground segregation are already built into the responses of the earliest, retinotopically mapped, cortical area although “the delay [of 30-40 ms] observed in the figure-ground enhancement effect...might allow for feedback from higher visual areas to play a role in the underlying mechanisms” (Lamme, p. 1614).

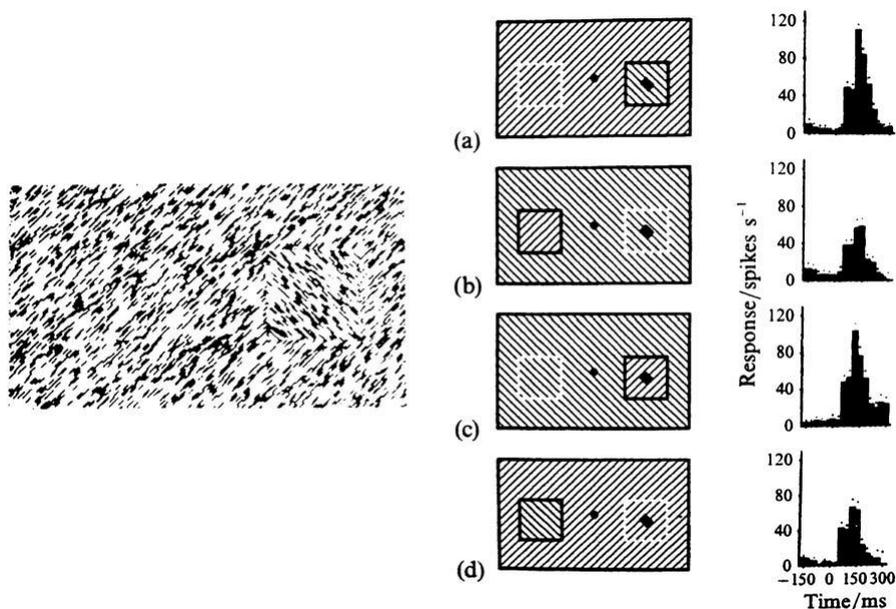


Figure 5. Figure-ground segregation in area V1 of the trained, alert monkey. (Left) Stimulus display. Only the patch on the right hand side is visible due to orientation contrast to the ground, while the patch on the left merges with the background. (Middle) Schematic representation of the RF (small black rectangle) within a 4 x 4 deg window whose hatching is cross- or iso-oriented to that of the background. Black and white demarcations were not shown. Fixation was on the center dot. Note that the orientation of the hatching in A and B is the same as is the hatching in C and D. (Right) Neuronal responses were significantly larger when the hatching within the window was cross-oriented to the background than when it was iso-oriented. (Modified from Lamme, 1995)

A last experiment to be mentioned here, involves a phenomenon called border ownership. According to Rubin (1915/1921), a figure occludes the ground and “owns” the borders separating it from it. In an experiment tapping the neuronal mechanism of figural emergence and border ownership, Zhou, Friedman, and von der Heydt (2000) found neurons predominantly in V2 (but also V1) of the monkey that responded selectively to the location of a contour relative to the RF. For example, edge-selective neurons predominantly in V2 (but also V1) of the monkey that responded selectively to the location of a figure relative to the RF. For example, an edge-selective neuron

responded strongly to a contour, when it was owned by a figure on the neuron's preferred side, and significantly less to a contour that was owned by a figure on the other side (Figure 6). Note that the contrast step in the RF is the same for all six configurations shown in the Figure, but the direction in terms of figure-ground is opposite in A and B. The neuron illustrated has a preference for border ownership to the lower left, but other neurons with the same RF location showed the opposite preference. This suggests that any contour is represented by two groups of neurons with opposite border ownership preferences. These studies of border ownership are among the clearest demonstrations of contextual influences from beyond the classical RF. By varying the distance of the remote contours from the RF (e.g., by varying the size of the squares), it is possible to measure the extent of the contextual influence (Zhang & von der Heydt, 2010, their figure 5).

Border ownership selectivity and side preference are intrinsic properties of the individual neuron, possibly based on modulatory feedback from hypothetical "grouping cells" at a higher level (Craft, Schütze, Niebur, & von der Heydt, 2007; Mihalas, von der Heydt, & Niebur, 2011). A recent study finding elevated spike synchrony between border ownership neurons, when activated by the same object, provides strong evidence for such feedback (Martin & von der Heydt, 2015). Selective attention to a figure was found to enhance the responses representing border ownership (Qiu, Sugihara, & von der Heydt, 2007).

Figure 6. Border ownership in a neuron of the macaque. Left: In all six panels, a purple-to-gray (light-to-dark) edge stimulates the RF (small ellipse) of a V2-neuron. Top: In A, the edge is owned by the light purple square on the lower left; in B, it is owned by the gray dark square on the upper right. Middle: Here, the shape of the contours next to the RF is the same as above, but the direction of border ownership is reversed. In A, the gray bracket owns the edge, in B the purple bracket. Bottom: Stimulation by the border between two overlapping figures. In A, the border is owned by the purple square, in B by the gray square. Right: The black columns labeled A and B show the neuronal responses for each of the stimuli on the left. In each case, the response is consistently stronger when the stimulating edge is owned by the a figure on the lower left. This asymmetry is taken as evidence for a neuronal correlate of border ownership. (Modified from Zhou, Friedman, & von der Heydt, 2000).

neurons responded strongly to the contour, when the contrast polarity of the figure (light/dark or dark/light) corresponded to the edge detector's preferred polarity, and significantly less when not (Figure 6). Note that the contrast step is the same for patterns A and B, but the direction in terms of figure-ground is opposite. This suggests that any contour is represented by two groups of neurons with opposite polarity preferences. These studies of border ownership are among the clearest demonstrations of contextual influences from beyond the classical RF. By varying the distance of the contour from the RF, it is possible to measure the extent of the contextual influence (Zhang & von der Heydt, 2010, their figure 5).

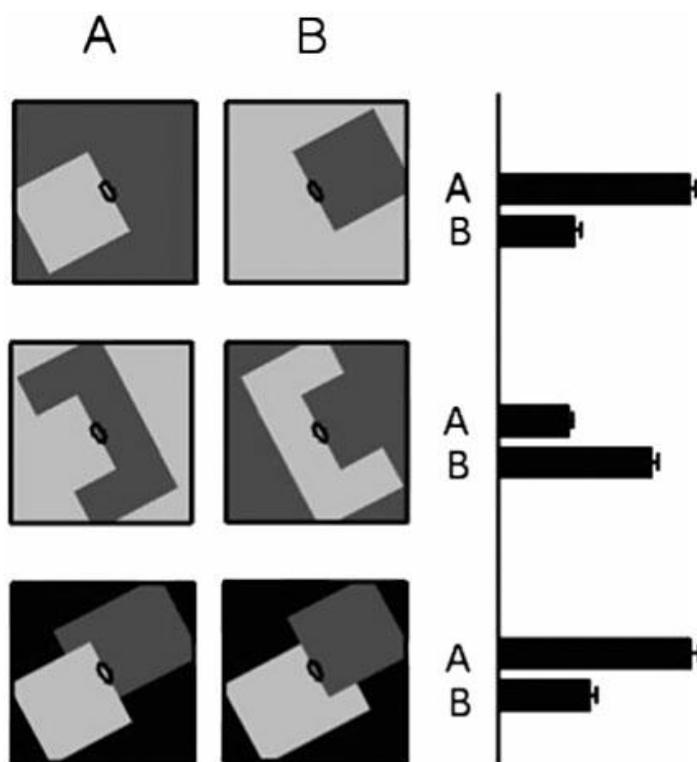


Figure 6. Border ownership in a neuron of the macaque. Left: In all six panels, a purple-to-gray (light-to-dark) edge stimulates the RF (small ellipse) of a V2-neuron. Top: In A, the edge is owned by the light square on the lower left; in B, it is owned by the dark square on the upper right. Middle: Here, the shape of the contours next to the RF is the same as above, but the direction of border ownership is reversed. Bottom: Stimulation by the border between two overlapping figures. Right: The black columns labeled A and B show the neuronal responses for each of the stimuli on the left. The response is consistently stronger when the edge is owned by the figure. This asymmetry is taken as evidence for a neuronal correlate of border ownership. (Modified from Zhou, Friedman, & von der Heydt, 2000).

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These examples show that neuronal responses depend not only on local stimulus analysis within the classical RF, but rather on global feature integration, and these contextual influences can extend over relatively large regions of the visual field (Gilbert & Li, 2013), which adds further proof to the Gestalt credo that a whole is not reducible to the sum of its parts. Likewise, the response of a cell to a complex stimulus cannot be fully predicted from the responses to its elements (Gilbert, 1992). Suddenly, the RF had been recognized as fulfilling an important role for figure-ground segregation and surface perception, which are critical steps of processing for object perception and recognition.

Contextual influences in vision and visual perception have attracted increasing interest in psychophysical and neurophysiological research (Li & Chen, 2001; Albright & Stoner, 2002; Series, Lorenceau, & Frégnac, 2003), prompting the question: How large is the outer field of such contextual neurons? Zipser, Lamme, and Schiller (1996), using contextual modulation for a textural figure found that the spatial extent of contextual modulation of a parafoveal RF was approximately 8 -10 degrees.

Measurements by Binguier, Chavane, Glaeser, and Frégnac (1999) based on intracellular recordings reported similar orders of magnitude. These authors demonstrated that the visually evoked synaptic integration field in cat cortex extends over an area 4-15 times as large as the classical RFs of Hubel and Wiesel (1962). An even larger figure comes from a study of Angelucci, Levitt, and Lund (2002a), which suggests on anatomical grounds that the field of contextual influence is 20 times larger than the classical RF. Figure 7 illustrates the classical RF center, the (classical) near-surround, and the (extra-classical) outer surround. The authors attribute the first to feed-forward from the LGN, the second to horizontal input from within V1 (cortico-cortical), and the third to feedback from extrastriate areas (Hupé et al, 1998; Angelucci et al 2002a,b).

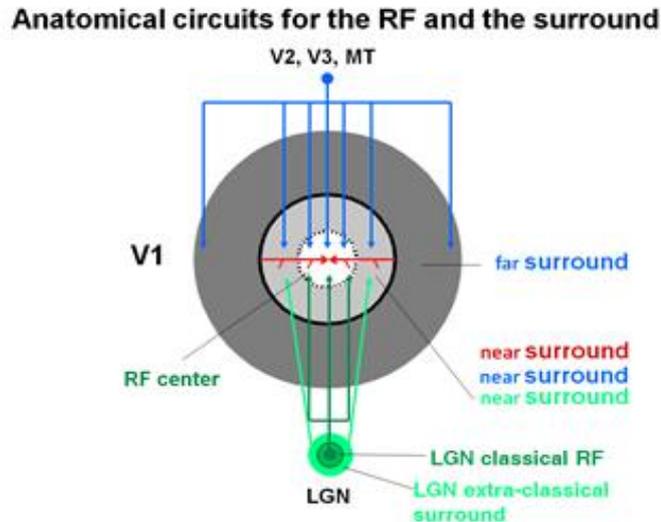


Figure 7. Classical RF and outer surround (schematic). RF center (white disk), near inhibitory surround (light grey zone) and far outer surround (dark grey annulus; from Angelucci et al, 2002 a, b)

RF size varies not only by virtue of contextual interaction with the outer surround; it varies also with retinal eccentricity (for a review see Spillmann, 2014; for computational modeling Schwartz, 1980) and location within the visual system. Smith, Singh, Williams, and Greenlee (2001) have compiled average data from single unit recordings in the monkey, showing that classical RFs increase in size from near-foveal to peripheral locations and from V1 to higher areas in extrastriate cortex. They are smallest in the primary visual cortex (V1), larger in V2, larger again in V3/VP, and largest of all in areas V3A and V4 (Fig. 8A). Also the slope of the functions describing the increase in size with eccentricity increases progressively from lower to higher visual areas. Dumoulin and Wandell (2008) likewise present average data for neurophysiological RFs (single and multi-unit) from the literature and arrive at the same stacking order, although the slopes of their regression lines for visual areas V1, V2 and V3 are less steep (Fig. 8B).

For processing visual information, RFs are not isolated entities of single neurons, but part of an interrelated network, where one input affects another. Functional magnetic resonance imaging (fMRI) has recently been used to map neuronal responses to complex patterns and estimate the *population receptive field* (pRF) in various visual field locations. These quantitative estimates of pRF size in occipital regions of human visual cortex are shown in Figures 8C-F. Overall data for V1 – V3 compare reasonably well with single cell RF measurements obtained at corresponding eccentricities and locations

in monkey visual cortex (Fig. 8A-B), while RF sizes in LO are much greater. Ordinates and abscissas in this composite figure have been scaled appropriately for comparison, except for Figure 8C, the ordinate of which is given in duty cycles (%).

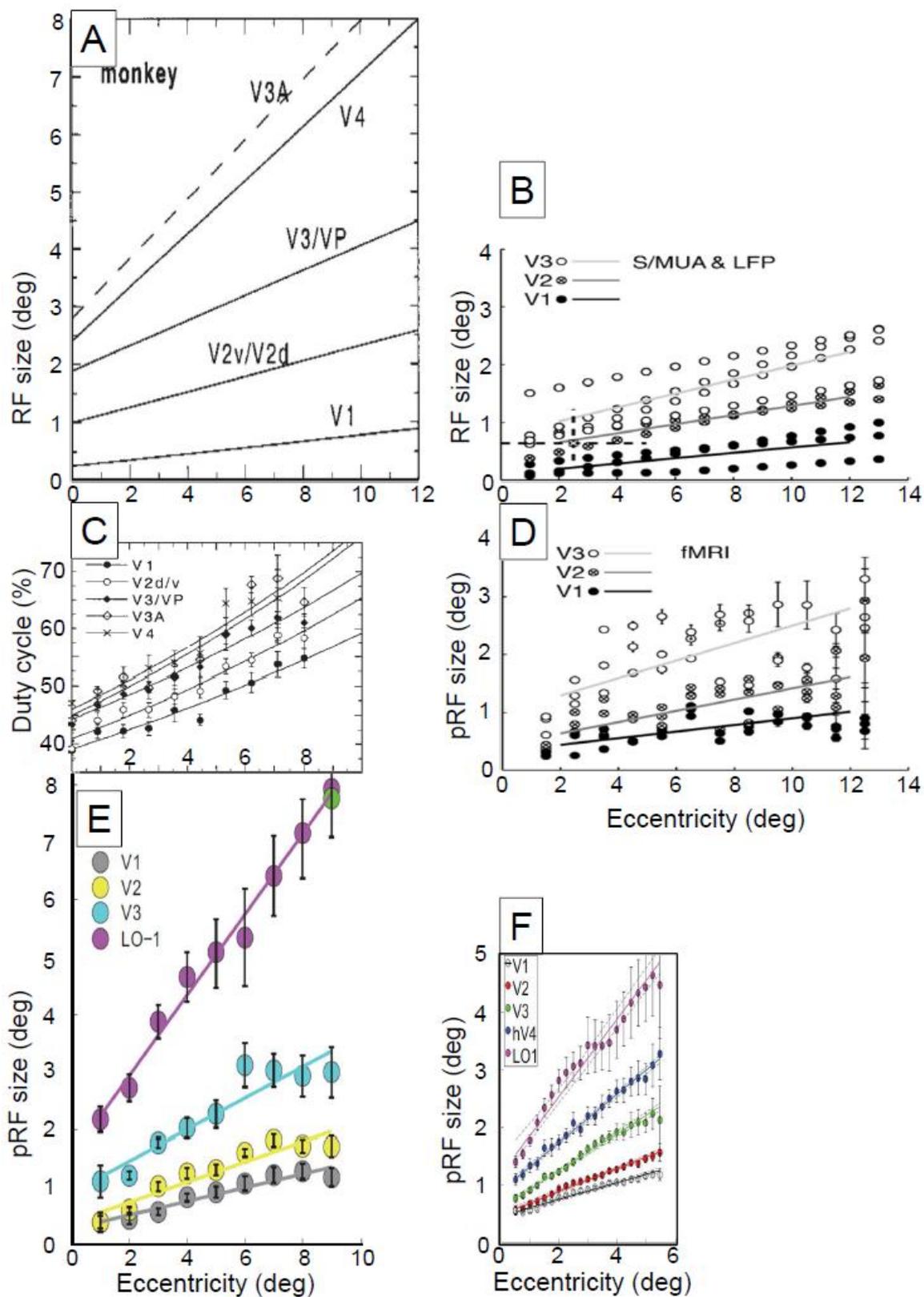


Figure 8. Comparison of RF and pRF measurements by various authors. Sizes are plotted as a function of retinal eccentricity for visual cortices V1 – V4. Top row (A): Single cell RFs in the monkey, average data from the literature. (B) Estimates derived from single and multi-unit activity (S/MUA) and local field potentials (LFP) in non-human primates. Solid lines indicate averages from the literature. Middle and bottom rows (C – F): pRFs derived from fMRI measurements in human subjects. Sources: A. Smith et al, 2001; B. Dumoulin & Wandell, 2008; C. Smith et al, 2001; D. Dumoulin & Wandell, 2008; E. Amano, Wandell, & Dumoulin, 2009; F. Harvey & Dumoulin, 2011. Axes of ordinates and abscissas are scaled to the same axis units, except for 7C, the ordinate of which is given in duty cycles (percent) and is not directly comparable to deg. Nomenclature: V=ventral, D=dorsal, VP=Ventral Posterior, h=human; LO=lateral occipital. (Courtesy of Dr. Franz Aiple)

Compared with RFs of neurons in V1-V3, RFs in yet higher visual areas, such as the inferotemporal (IT) and middle temporal (MT) lobes are considerably larger, covering as much as 25 deg of visual angle (Felleman & Kaas, 1984; Rolls, Aggelopoulos, & Zheng, 2003); they also lose much of their retinotopic organization, although this has been disputed for human brains (Wandell & Winawer, 2011). At the same time, such neurons encode increasingly complex stimuli. For example, while the RFs of neurons in areas V1 – V3 mediate perceptual filling-in, contour integration, and figure-ground segregation, neurons in IT respond to faces (Perrett, Rolls, & Caan (1982) and in MT to coherently moving patterns (Desimone et al., 1984; Singer, 1989) and biological motion (Oram & Perrett, 1994). For a summary of visual percepts and their presumed level of origin in the brain, see Table 1 in Spillmann (2009). Furthermore, RF properties of cells in lower cortical areas are rather fixed compared to those in the temporal and parietal cortex, which are more malleable (Ben Hamed, Duhamel, Bremmer, & Graf, 2002; Quraishi, Heider, & Siegel, 2007).

4. Dynamic RF topography: Changes in RF size and location

Ever since Hartline's (1938, p. 410) first description, RFs of single cells were assumed to be invariant in size and location. Although this is generally true, it does not hold for RFs of cells that are deprived of their input. Gilbert (1992; see also Gilbert & Wiesel, 1992) reported that in the cat following a focal retinal lesion, RFs of cortical neurons fell silent immediately after deafferentation, as was expected. However, within minutes, these same neurons responded again, when light fell on the regions next to the lesion. At the same

time, RFs near the lesion boundary expanded (by a factor of up to 5) and shifted outward from the lesion site, implying dynamic changes in both RF size and location. This is shown in Figure 9. The change in cortical topography of RFs suggests that neurons can be quickly 'rewired' presumably by recruiting collaterals through disinhibition. Long-range interaction would then enable neurons to respond to input from outside the lesion area for which they were previously unresponsive. Gilbert and Wiesel (1992) in the monkey (Lund et al, 1993) and cat have reported long axonal connections capable of propagating information from the edge to the interior of an area.

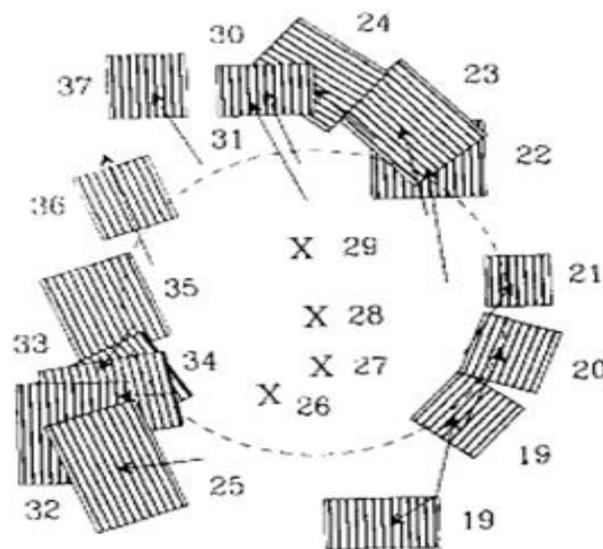


Figure 9. Migration of RFs in cat area 17, following binocular retinal lesions at retinotopically corresponding sites. The dashed circle encloses the RF locations prior to the lesion. Hatched rectangles give the size and location of RFs shortly after the lesion. Arrows show the direction and amplitude of RF migration. X = postlesional unresponsive positions. (From Gilbert & Wiesel, 1992)

The remapping of RFs from positions inside the lesion area to locations partly outside has been proposed as a mechanism for perceptual filling-in (Spillmann & Werner, 1996). In normal vision, horizontal interactions of this kind might also underlie the induction of brightness and color contrast, assimilation (neon color, water color effect) and their relation to perceived stratification and transparency (Gilbert, 1992). For example, there is evidence that neurons stimulated by the edge of a surface actively propagate their information to neurons representing the interior of that surface via long-

range interaction. In this way filling-in from the border may sustain the brightness of the enclosed surface area (Huang & Paradiso, 2008). Also, when a steady stimulus of uniform luminance was shown within the classical RF while the background luminance was modulated well beyond the RF area, the response of the neuron to the uniform stimulus could be modified (Rossi, Rittenhouse & Paradiso, 1996). DeValois, Webster, DeValois and Lingelbach (1986) studied this effect psychophysically. Spatial interactions between distant patches of retina reinforce Mach (1865) and Hering's (1878) postulate that knowing what is locally activated is not sufficient for predicting what is globally perceived (Spillmann, 1997).

Gilbert and Wiesel (1992) found that several months after the lesion, the RFs had migrated even further to the outside of the lesion scotoma. This lesion-induced shift in location suggests that the cortex of the adult cat possesses considerable plasticity and is capable of “repairing” a hole (scotoma) in the visual field, although at the cost of geometrical topography (Fig. 10). Spillmann and Werner (1996) suggested that the perception of brightness, color, texture, and stereo depth in and across a scotoma might conceivably be restored from the surround by virtue of such a mechanism.

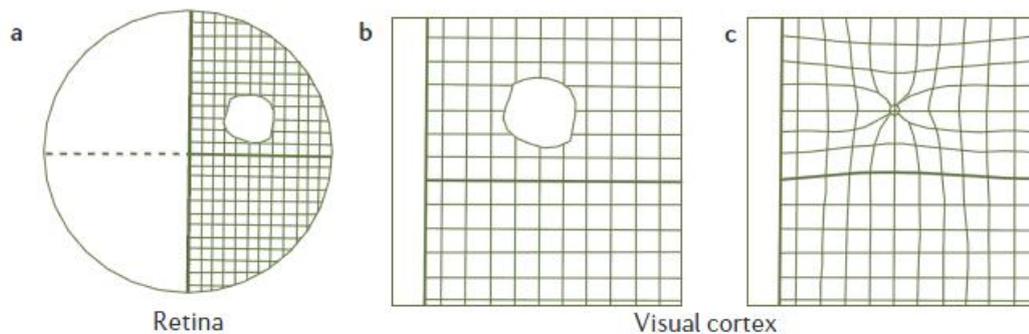


Figure 10. Hypothetical “repair” of a retinal scotoma caused by retinal laser coagulation. (a) Visual hemifield with hole representing the scotoma. (b) Cortical representation of scotoma. (c) Scotoma in V1 is gradually closed at the cost of retinal topography. (From Gilbert & Wiesel, 1992).

Interpolation of image features from the surround may also account for perceptual completion across the physiological *blind spot*. Fiorani, Rosa, Gattas, and Rocha-Miranda (1992) obtained responses in area V1 of the monkey, when stimulating two regions on opposite sides of the optic disk that were 15 degrees apart. There was no response with a stimulus on one side only. These retinal distances are several times the

extent of conventional RFs, implying a functional (and structural) convergence much larger than hitherto thought. Yet, in terms of cortical magnification, the same distances might be greatly reduced. Komatsu (2011) has proposed a hypothetical wiring diagram, which accounts for spreading information in the blind spot region by intracortical circuitry (Fig. 11). According to this account, retinal signals from the region surrounding the BS are conveyed from layers 2/3 of V1 to layer 6, where they form a large RF (solid circle), providing completion and filling-in of the void. This diagram, however, may be incomplete as it fails to predict oriented filling-in (Kawabata, 1984). Cortical models (Grossberg, 1994, 1997; Cao & Grossberg, 2005; Grossberg and Yazdanbakhsh, 2005) exploiting the functional properties of laminar cortical organization, first demonstrated by the pioneering work of Ramón y Cajal (1899), have provided physiologically inspired mechanistic models to account for the completion and filling-in of gaps across stimuli. Here the authors distinguish between two distinct, but complementary, mechanisms: (i) perceptual completion of boundaries, which is orientation-selective, and (ii) surface filling-in, which is unoriented.

Birgitta, can you take care of this, please: OK LOTHAR, done, see the reference list here above. Grossberg & Raizada only model laminar cortical circuits for perceptual grouping via horizontal connections and top-down boundary attention via intercortical feedback circuits. They do not model surface filling-in. Better citations for how boundaries and surfaces interact, including in 3D, are Grossberg (1994, 1997), Cao & Grossberg (2005), Kelly & Grossberg (2000), and Grossberg & Yazdanbakhsh (2005).

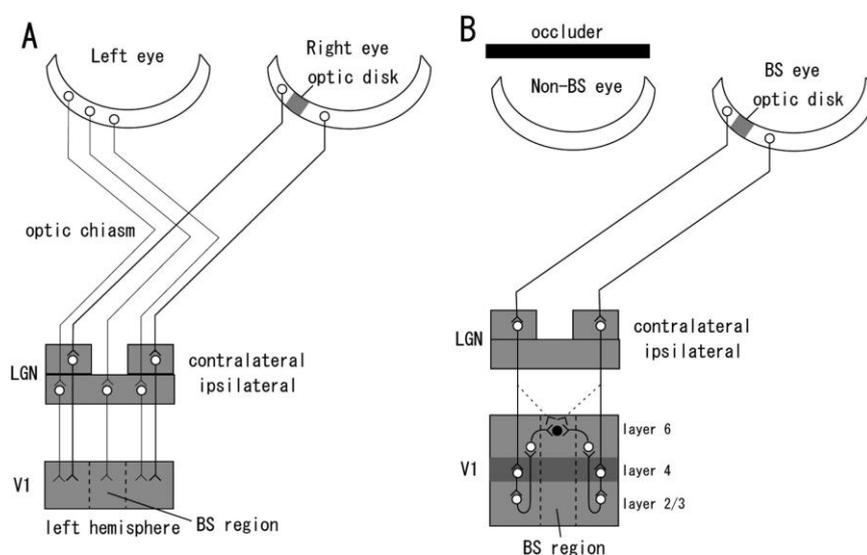


Figure 11. Hypothetical wiring diagram for the perceptual filling in of the blind spot.

Left: Cortical representation of the blind spot of the right eye, when both eyes are open. The blind spot, clearly visible by the empty notch at the level of the LGN, is completely obscured in V1 due to input from the left eye. Right: Cortical representation of the same area, when the left eye is closed. Here the area corresponding to the blind spot is “filled in” at the level of V1 by feedback from neighboring layers 2/3 onto layer 6. In both cases the blind spot is not perceived. (From Komatsu, 2011)

Similar mechanisms of neuronal activity may also apply to the filling-in of an *artificial scotoma*, i.e., a uniform surface with no lesion applied. Pettet and Gilbert (1992) recorded dynamic changes in cat RF size, when they covered the RF of a cortical neuron with a uniform mask on a jittering background. In analogy to the retinal lesion condition, the neuron responded to stimulation from outside the mask with a 5-fold increase in size. This is illustrated by Fig. 12, where the RF size originally corresponded to frame size #1, but expanded to frame size #2, when an occluder covered the RF. When the occluder was removed, the RF shrank to frame size #3, just to re-expand to frame size #4, when it was put back on again. Finally, without the occluder, the RF collapsed to frame size #5, slightly smaller than its original extent. Such changes in size occurred within a span of only 15 min after applying the mask, suggesting unmasking of preexisting connections.

These results show that RF size adjusts itself to stimulus demands and, thereby, challenge two established beliefs in neuroscience: (i) that the RF would correspond to an invariant set of photoreceptors funneling their inputs onto higher-level sensory neurons; and (ii) that there would be a fixed RF map based on retinal topography.

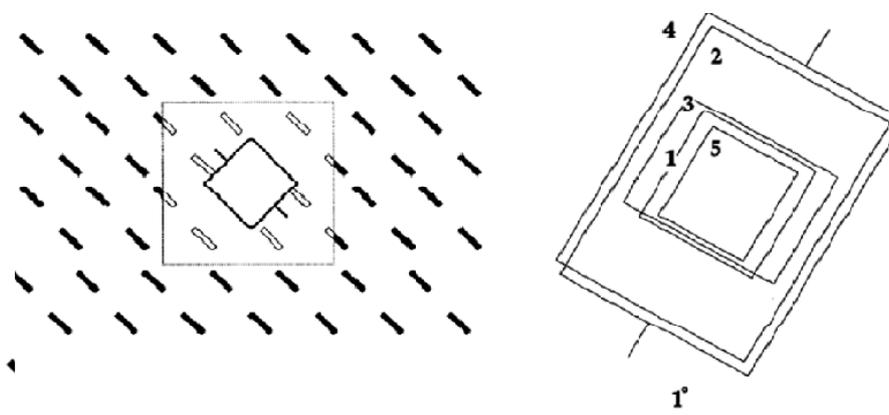


Figure 12. Dynamic change of RF size in cat area 17 in response to an artificial scotoma

on a jittering background. (Left) The small empty diamond illustrates the original size of the RF. The large square surrounding it gives the size of a mask used to occlude the RF. (Right) Individual frames depict the dynamic expansion and contraction of the RF, when the mask was alternatively applied (2, 4) and removed (3, 5). Time for conditioning 15 min. (From Pettet & Gilbert, 1992)

Dilks, Baker, Liu, and Kanwisher (2009) recently reported similar results in psychophysics. These authors “deprived” the region of the visual cortex (V1) corresponding to the blind spot in one eye by patching an observer’s contralateral eye. Within seconds of this deprivation, observers reported a white square 0.5 deg away from the boundary of the blind spot to extend (“stretch”) into the blind spot. This perceptual elongation is suggestive of rapid RF expansion within the deprived area V1, analogous to findings from single cell recordings after a retinal lesion (Gilbert & Wiesel, 1992). A similar effect was observed in a patient, who had suffered a stroke that destroyed the fibers that normally provide input to the upper left visual field in V1 and who described a black square presented to the lower left visual field as a “finger” reaching towards and into the upper blind visual field (Dilks et al, 2007). Similarly, a circle was described as cigar-like and a triangle as pencil-like.

These perceptual elongations were confirmed by fMRI (Dilks et al 2007) and are consistent with the assumption of a cortical reorganization in V1 due to long-standing deafferentation. In this context, it is noteworthy that Ricco’s area for complete spatial summation (the psychophysical equivalent of a neuronal RF) becomes larger by 30%, when retinal cell density decreases with age (Malania et al, 2011). On the other hand, no evidence for cortical remapping has been found in patients suffering from age-dependent macular degeneration (AMD) (Baseler et al, 2011). This may be because here lateral separation in tissue space is exceptionally large due to the foveal magnification factor. On the other hand, filling-in of a line, grating or regular dot pattern in AMD patients has been found to occur across several degrees of visual angle (Zur & Ullman, 2003), suggesting long-range cortical reorganization in V1.

5. Feature discontinuities, saliency maps, and predictive coding

Since the early discoveries on extra-classical RF effects, their functional characteristics have been studied further to explore how bottom-up mechanisms such as end-stopping would account for the long-range coding of feature discontinuities in visual stimuli.

Findings revealed that the firing rates of cat cortical neurons in area 17 exposed to edges perpendicular to their preferred orientation were enhanced, when a 'feature border' was presented outside and close to the RF (Li 1999, 2002; Schmid, 2008). The 'feature borders' were defined by discontinuities in phase, orientation, or motion direction of the stimulus. A comparison with control measures led to conclude that the enhanced firing rates were due to a release in suppression (i.e., disinhibition). Model accounts of the observations suggest that center-surround interactions, contextual modulation, and end-stopping are part of a single brain mechanism for representing spatial discontinuities in visual image analysis, where quite often several goals must be achieved simultaneously, as in orientation-based texture segmentation (Schmid & Victor, 2014). Center-surround interactions thus could be the basis of complex perceptual processes such as figure-ground segregation (Qiu & von der Heydt, 2005) or bottom-up saliency maps (Li, 1999, 2002; Zhaoping, & May, 2007; Li, 1999, 2002; Zhaoping, 2008; Zhang, Zhaoping, Zhou, & Fang, 2012; Zhaoping, 2014). Birgitta: This statement is almost vacuous. Be more explicit or drop? DROPPED and REFERENCES included here above - makes indeed more SENSE!

Although visual RFs are typically considered bottom-up detectors, or neuronal filters, selective only to given stimulus parameters (for a review see Spillmann, 2014), contextual neurons have recently been found in area V4 that are modifiable by attention, i.e., top-down processing (Krause & Pack, 2014). Specifically, the allocation of spatial attention may be understood as a behavioral characteristic of visual RFs (Treue, 2012) whose sensitivity to spatial stimuli is dynamically modulated depending on the location and aperture size of the attentional spotlight. There are two modes of attention, passive and active. For example, a perceptual object in the visual field may capture attention in a stimulus-driven fashion; or it may become subject to goal-directed top-down attentional control (e.g., Yantis & Jonides, 1990, Conci et al, 2001).

Most studies cited so far used laboratory stimuli. With the advent of studies in alert monkeys using free viewing and natural stimuli, an increase in information transmission efficiency has been found for natural scenes in V1 (Gallant, Connor, & van Essen, 1998; Vinje & Gallant, 2002). These studies suggest that extra-classical RF effects may be linked to the predictive coding of natural images. Neural circuits would learn the statistical regularities of the natural world and communicate deviations from regularity to higher processing centers. Such selective signaling would reduce redundancy by

discarding the predictable, hence redundant, components of the input signal (Rao & Ballard, 1999). More recently, interpretations of extra-classical RF effects have been extended even further in computational models, suggesting that V1 firing patterns may deliver universal signatures of visual saliency irrespective of their intrinsic feature preferences, e.g., preferred contrast polarity (Li, 1999, 2002). What is more salient is likely to be figure and to attract visual attention first.

Despite these advances into uncharted territory, much of the response variance in V1 still remains unexplained and it is likely that one of the central functions of cortical processing is to predict upcoming stimulus events based on the spatial and temporal context of a scene. Muckli and colleagues (2011, 2013) investigated the information content of feedback projections using the apparent motion path between two alternating stimulus locations (Wertheimer, 1912) or an illusory shape suggesting a partially occluded stimulus pattern (Kanizsa, 1955) to probe for a response in retinotopic regions of the brain. This is reminiscent of Ginsburg (1975), who used spatial filtering in an attempt to isolate and enhance the illusory triangle in a Kanizsa figure, thereby demonstrating, for the first time, that the relevant information (i.e., the illusory contours) generated by the "non-stimulating" stimulus part was implicit in the overall spatial relationships of that pattern (for review see Dresp, 1997). Similarly, Muckli et al (2011, 2013) analyzed fMRI activity patterns corresponding to "non-stimulating" stimulus parts and found that they generated object-related percepts.

The authors concluded that extra-classical RFs of neurons in V1 carry information relevant to the conscious interpretation of an incomplete stimulus as a meaningful whole. This kind of predictive coding introduces a conceptual shift in visual neuroscience, where the brain is seen as continually generating models of the world based on information from memory in order to give meaning to incomplete sensory input. As pointed out already by Helmholtz (1867), MacKay (1956) and Gregory (1980), our perception is guided by inferences, or object hypotheses, by which it seeks to resolve ambiguities in the stimulus in the most plausible manner (Spillmann & Dresp, 1995). In the brain, such predictive models would be created in higher cortical areas and communicated to lower areas through feedback connections (Muckli et al, 2013).

6. Outlook and perspectives

Research on RFs started 75 years ago and is moving on swiftly. During the last 20 years, the RF concept has undergone a complete revision in neuroscience research from that of the earlier years (for review see Löffler, 2008; Spillmann, 2014), showing that functional properties of RFs depend on the visual context in which a target stimulus is embedded and on the method of analysis used. This article does not attempt to be complete in reviewing all the extra-classical RF effects reported in this rapidly evolving field. Rather, we restricted ourselves to describing some of the major findings in the literature. Developments clearly do not stop here, and further exciting discoveries will undoubtedly come up in the future.

In a nutshell, while RFs were formerly believed to have invariant response characteristics they are, in fact, modifiable by intracortical (lateral, recurrent) interactions (e.g., Bair, 2005; Yeh, Xing, Williams, & Shapley, 2009; Neri 2011; see also Grossberg & Raizada, 2000). Also, Hubel and Wiesel's (1962, 1965) initial distinction between complex and hypercomplex cells in the functional hierarchy of the primary visual cortex has been reconsidered (Mechler & Ringach, 2002; Bair, 2005). Simple stimuli, such as flashed spots, oriented bars, and drifting gratings, used in the early studies of RF properties only revealed the most basic response properties. Our knowledge of RF size and location in different parts of the visual field has since evolved considerably (see Figures 7 and 8). Furthermore, it was found that one and the same stimulus feature elicits a stronger response, when embedded in a natural scene rather than in a random field (Field, 1987). Complex stimuli such as natural images or movie clips (Olshausen & Field, 1996; Gallant, Connor & van Essen, 1998; Vinje & Gallant, 2003; Felsen & Dan, 2005) have revealed new RF sub-structures (see also Ringach, Hawken, & Shapley, 2002; Carandini et al, 2005; Schwartz et al, 2012).

The recent proposal that V1 responses constitute visual saliency maps (e.g., Li, 2002; Zhaoping & Zhe, 2012) confirms the early intuitions by Köhler and Held (1949) relative to the existence of a *Gestalt field* at the level of neural representation. The research on predictive coding (e.g., Muckli et al, 2013) discussed above has provided us with new accounts of the functional role of complex intra-cortical feedback and top-down processing. The RFs of what were formerly called feature detectors are influenced by spatio-temporal context, selective attention, and memory. Why this is so can be understood on the basis of the brain's need to constantly update knowledge. Not only do familiar objects need to be detected and recognized quickly, new objects never before

encountered need to be learned as well and added to the memory inventory. This requires that the already learned visual representations are stable and accessible and that there is capacity for the processing and acquisition of new and not yet learned input. Grossberg (1983) called this the stability-plasticity dilemma, which is addressed by his Adaptive Resonance Theory (ART). In ART networks, top-down projections generate a hypothesis for the recognition of objects from the sensory input. If such a hypothesis is recurrently reinforced and consolidated, it is believed to lead to conscious recognition (Grossberg, 1983; 1997).

RFs thus have acquired an important role in providing knowledge about the visual world. The ecological relevance of RF behavior was first touched upon by Barlow (1953), Lettvin et al (1959), Jung (1961) and Baumgartner (1990), and it is coming into the focus of contemporary neuroscience. The key questions here are: (i) how do RFs change dynamically to enhance their contribution to visual perception in different tasks; and (ii) how does the visual brain integrate local cues to form global representations within a dynamically changing world (see also von der Heydt & Peterhans, 1989; Spillmann, 1999; Pan et al., 2012)

Thus, the revised RF concept takes into consideration not only functional plasticity and a bottom-up saliency map, but also top-down processes, such as spatial attention, the detection of irregularities, scene recognition, and priming. Such modulation by higher-level input becomes plausible if one considers that – surprisingly – far more fibers descend from the primary visual cortex (V1) of the monkey to the lateral geniculate nucleus than ascend in the opposite direction (Peters, Payne, & Budd, 1994). The results of a systematic study using localized tissue cooling (Payne, Lomber, Villa, & Bullier, 1996) are consistent with massive feedback from higher visual areas (V4, V3) to lower ones (V2, V1).

Spatial attention, for example, would appear to act like a gain control mechanism, enhancing the perceptual salience of the object under consideration and suppressing information from outside the focus of interest (Itti & Koch, 2001). Recent research (e.g., Li, 1999; Gilbert & Li, 2013; Schmid & Victor, 2014) suggests that, in addition to responding to select physical properties of local stimuli, RFs and their associated neurons avail themselves of information from global stimuli that are relevant to the ongoing perceptual task. Rather than possessing fixed functional properties, as suggested by Hartline (1938), RFs are therefore conceived as dynamic processors whose tuning changes according to stimulus context, expectation, and attention.

For example, in a behavioral curve-tracing task it was demonstrated that neurons, whose RFs lay along a curved contour, responded more strongly when the contour was attended by the monkey than unattended (Roelfsema, Lamme, & Spekreijse, 1998). These data show that attention and perceptual grouping interact in the interest of boundary formation as predicted by laminar cortical models of vision (e.g., Grossberg & Raizada, 2000; Raizada & Grossberg, 2001). How cortical processes subserving boundary formation interact with the top-down processes that control attention is one of the core issues addressed by these models. Poort et al (2012) recording from V1 and V4 in the monkey conclude that boundary detection is an early process based on bottom-up computation, whereas surface filling occurs later, requires feedback and is facilitated by visual attention.

It thus appears that the RFs of extrastriate neurons behave like matched filters, or templates, that are dynamically tuned to optimize visual processing and visual search (David, Hayden, Mazer & Gallant, 2008; Schmid & Victor, 2014). Their selectivity for searched patterns is enhanced by attention (Itti & Koch, 2001; Ipata, Gee, & Goldberg, 2012). It has long been known that a cell in the superficial layers of the superior colliculus responds more robustly, when a stimulus that falls within its RF becomes the target for a subsequent saccade (Goldberg & Wurtz, 1972). We now know that attention, in conjunction with goal-directed saccades, modulates the RFs of neurons in macaque V4 and MT by shifting their centers toward attended locations, not unlike a flashlight (Colby, Duhamel, & Goldberg, 1996; Tolia et al, 2001; Womelsdorf, Anton-Erxleben, & Treue, 2008, Womelsdorf, Anton-Erxleben, Pieper, & Treue, 2006). These spatiotemporal dynamics in predictive remapping demonstrate that, already in extrastriate cortex, RF properties are not invariant, but highly adaptable, enhancing perceptual processing, whenever a task requires it.

The attentional spotlight tells the brain where in the restricted space of the visual field a change has occurred. This is called detection. But for recognition (is it a line, a dot, or a small animal?), top-down processes are needed, to identify the perceived objects. Beyond the level of signal detection, perception relies in part on information stored in memory representations (e.g. Churchland, 2002). Future research on extra-classical RF properties will have to include studies on processes of perceptual learning and memory. The temporal firing characteristics of neurons are critical in these processes (e.g. Jensen, Idiart, & Lisman, 1996; Churchland, 2002), and most of perceptual learning is temporal rather than spatial (see Wang et al, 2013).

7. Résumé

Since Hartline's (1938, 1940) original studies in the frog, the RF concept has evolved in several ways. Table 1 includes the most important discoveries: (i) lateral inhibition, (ii) DOG filters and Fourier channels, (iii) perceptive fields, (iv) simple, complex and hypercomplex (end-stopped) RFs, (v) RFs beyond the classical RF with contextual sensitivity, (vi) large outer surrounds, (vii) RFs sensitive to selective rearing and deprivation, (viii) RF dynamics, and (ix) RFs responsive to natural scenes.

Hubel and Wiesel (e.g., Hubel, 1963) in the early sixties advanced the hypothesis that RFs of cells at a given level of the visual system emerged by combining a number of lower-level RFs. Sustained and transient channels in the cat were added to their hierarchical feed-forward concept of simple, complex, and hypercomplex cells in the seventies. The feed-forward concept was challenged in the mid-eighties, when researchers discovered that neuronal responses could be modified by stimulation from the extended outer surround (i.e., beyond the classical RF). In the nineties, further research reported long-range horizontal interactions as well as reciprocal projections from higher visual areas, enabling higher levels to modulate neuronal responses at lower levels by feedback (Hupé et al, 1998; Cudeiro & Sillito, 2006).

Our understanding of visual perception has gained immeasurably from each of these steps. Population perceptive fields (pPFs) have become the psychophysical and perceptual counterparts of RFs. A next step is the application of the RF concept to natural stimuli and natural scenes, including cognitive strategies such as attention, search, and perceptual learning (Li, Piëch, & Gilbert, 2004, 2008; Seitz & Dinse, 2007; Wang, Cong, & Yu, 2013). It thus seems that after 75 years of research, bottom-up finally meets top-down and feature detection gives way to perception and cognition.

Table 1. Major steps in RF research

Hartline, 1938, 1940	Summation area in frog optic nerve
Barlow, 1953	Lateral surround in frog optic nerve, fly detector
Kuffler, 1953	Lateral surround in cat optic nerve
Barlow et al, 1957	Loss of lateral inhibition in scotopic vision
Lettvin et al, 1959	Bug detector
Enroth-Cugell & Robson, 1966 Campbell & Robson, 1968	Fourier channels
Jung et al, 1952, Jung 1961 Jung & Spillmann, 1970; Ransom-Hogg & Spillmann, 1980	Psychophysical correlates, perceptive fields,
Baumgartner, von der Heydt, & Peterhans (1984)	Illusory contour responses
Oehler, 1985	Westheimer function in monkeys
Hubel & Wiesel, 1962	Simple cells
Hubel & Wiesel, 1965, 1968	Complex cells, end stopped cells
Blakemore and colleagues	Effects of deprivation, plasticity
Allman et al, 1985a Knierim & van Essen, 1992 ; Sillito et al, 1995 ; Kastner et al, 1999	Contextual neurons
Field et al, 1993 ; Kapadia et al, 1995 ;	Contextual stimuli
Lamme, 1995	

Angelucci et al, 2002a,b	Large outer surround
Wiesel & Hubel, 1963-1974	Effects of selective rearing
Gilbert & Wiesel, 1992	Filling-in of lesion scotoma
Pettet & Gilbert, 1992	Filling-in of artificial scotoma
Olshausen & Field, 1996	RFs and natural stimuli
Gilbert & Li, 2013	Dynamic processors, perceptual tasks

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