Unconscious processing dissociates along categorical lines

Jorge Almeida*†, Bradford Z. Mahon*§, Ken Nakayama*, and Alfonso Caramazza*‡

*Cognitive Neuropsychology Laboratory and †Vision Sciences Laboratory, Harvard University, Cambridge, MA 02138; and §Center for Mind/Brain Sciences, University of Trento, 38068 Rovereto, Italy

Edited by Edward E. Smith, Columbia University, New York, NY, and approved August 12, 2008 (received for review June 18, 2008)

Visual object recognition is subserved by ventral temporal and occipital regions of the brain. Regions comprising the dorsal visual pathway have not been considered relevant for object recognition, despite strong categorical biases for tool-related information in those regions. Here, we show that dorsal stream processes influence object categorization. We used two techniques to render prime pictures invisible: continuous flash suppression (CFS), which obliterates input into ventral temporal regions, but leaves dorsal stream processes largely unaffected, and backward masking (BM), which allows suppressed information to reach both ventral and dorsal stream structures. Categorically congruent primes suppressed under CFS facilitate categorization of tools but have no effect on nonmanipulable objects; in contrast, primes rendered invisible through BM facilitate target categorization for both tools and nonmanipulable things. Our findings demonstrate that information computed by the dorsal stream is used in object categorization, but only for a category of manipulable objects.

Results

Category Specific Priming Effects under CFS. In experiments 1 and 2, participants indicated whether a visible target picture was a tool or an animal by means of a manual button response. Each target stimulus (tool or animal) was preceded by a prime stimulus (duration, 200 ms), that could be either congruent (same category as the target) or incongruent (different category as the target stimulus). Prime stimuli were rendered invisible using CFS by presenting the prime to only one eye, and a dynamic (10 Hz) random noise pattern to the other eye (Figs. 1 and 2). To avoid low-level visual priming effects, prime and target stimuli (throughout all experiments) were never the same basic level items (see Methods for details). Participants were unaware of both the presence and identity of the primes, as demonstrated by the percentage correct performance of participants in detection (experiment 1) and discrimination tasks (experiment 2) carried out over the prime stimuli [See Table 1, supporting information (SI) Fig. S1 a and b, and Methods for details]. Analyses of response times to the target pictures in experiment 1 showed that the categorization responses of participants were facilitated by categorically congruent suppressed primes \(F(1,30) = 5.90; P < 0.02\) and \(\eta^2 = 0.164; \text{Fig. 3}\). Planned comparisons showed that this priming effect was modulated by the category of the target. Participants were faster to categorize a tool when tool primes were presented than when animal primes were presented \(t(31) = 3.44\) and \(P < 0.002\); priming effects ranged from \(−29\) to \(104\) ms; mean, \(18\) ms; SEM, \(5\) ms.) but there was no effect for animal targets \((r < 1; \text{mean priming effect}, 3\) ms; \(\text{SEM}, 5\) ms).

Experiment 2 followed the same protocol as experiment 1, except that a discrimination task over the primes was used as an index of successful suppression of the prime stimuli (i.e., participants had to decide whether a prime was a tool or an animal; see Table 1). The reason for using a discrimination task in experiment 2 (as opposed to a detection task in experiment 1) was to obtain a more stringent measurement of the information that is available from a suppressed stimulus for making a categorization decision. In addition, a different set of animal and tool stimuli was used as primes and targets (see Methods for details). As in experiment 1, the same pattern of semantic priming modulated by the category of the target pictures was induced by categorically congruent primes in both tool and animal targets.

Author contributions: J.A., B.Z.M., K.N., and A.C. designed research; J.A. performed research; J.A. analyzed data; and J.A., B.Z.M., K.N., and A.C. wrote the paper.

The authors declare no conflict of interest.

†To whom correspondence should be addressed. E-mail: jalmeida@wjh.harvard.edu.

This article contains supporting information online at www.pnas.org/cgi/content/full/0805867105/DCSupplemental.

© 2008 by The National Academy of Sciences of the USA
observed. Participants were faster to categorize targets in the presence of congruent primes than in the presence of incongruent primes \[ F(1, 11) = 9.42; P < 0.011; \] and \[ \eta^2 = 0.461; \] Fig. 3. Planned comparisons showed reliable semantic priming for tool targets \[ t(12) = 4.08 \text{ and } P < 0.002; \] priming effects ranged from 1 to 48 ms; mean, 16 ms; SEM, 4 ms) but not for animal targets \( t < 1; \text{ mean priming effect, } 0 \text{ ms; SEM, 6 ms}. \) The data from experiment 2 demonstrate that the category-specific priming effect is obtained for prime stimuli that participants are not able to discriminate as belonging to one or another category.

The findings from experiments 1 and 2 are consistent with the view that information computed by dorsal stream structures affects object categorization and object recognition. In experiments 3–5, we further explored this effect by having participants make verbal responses to target pictures (experiment 3), manual responses to target words (experiment 4), and categorization decisions over tools and vehicles (another nonliving, but non-manipulable object category; experiment 5).

In experiment 3, we tested whether the effect observed in experiments 1 and 2 could be explained at the level of motor-relevant information, that is, whether the category-specific priming effect is related to motor facilitation at the level of the effectors. Experiment 3 followed the same procedure and used the same materials as in experiment 2, except that instead of responding with a button response, participants pronounced the words “tool” or “animal” to indicate their categorization decision. Analyses of naming latencies again demonstrated that participants were faster to categorize an object when it was preceded by a congruent prime than by an incongruent prime \[ F(1, 10) = 4.97; P < 0.05; \] and \[ \eta^2 = 0.332; \] Fig. 3; for measures of prime awareness see Table 1, and Fig. S1c). Planned comparisons demonstrated reliable semantic priming for tool targets \[ t(10) = 2.48 \text{ and } P < 0.032; \] priming effects ranged from \(-14 \text{ to } 57 \text{ ms; mean, 14 ms; SEM, 6 ms}) \text{ but not for animal targets } (t < 1; \text{ mean priming effect, 1 ms; SEM, 5 ms}). These results demonstrate that the scope of category-specific semantic priming induced by CFS is not limited to manual responses, and that, therefore, this priming effect is not reducible to simple motor facilitation.

In experiment 4, we studied whether the results obtained in the previous experiments were due to visual form, or visu-motor facilitation between the prime and target pictures. Experiment 4 followed the same procedure and used the same materials as in experiment 2, except that participants categorized word targets instead of picture targets. Analyses of button responses once again demonstrated that participants were faster to categorize a target word preceded by a congruent prime than by an incongruent prime \[ F(1, 28) = 4.155; P < 0.05; \] and \[ \eta^2 = 0.129; \] Fig. 3; for measures of prime awareness see Table 1, and Fig. S1d). Planned comparisons demonstrated reliable semantic priming for tool targets \[ t(29) = 3.66 \text{ and } P < 0.001; \] priming effects ranged from \(-46 \text{ to } 75 \text{ ms; mean, 16 ms; SEM, 4.5 ms}) \text{ but not for animal targets } (t < 1; \text{ mean priming effect, 4 ms; SEM, 7.7 ms}). These results demonstrate that the priming effect is obtained for primes and targets that share minimal visual characteristics, but nevertheless maintain a semantic relationship.

In experiment 5, we tested whether the observed category specificity of the priming effect depends on contrasting two categories that differ in manipulability (i.e., tools vs. animals), or,
alternatively, whether it is due to the contrast of artifacts (i.e., tools) with natural entities (animals). The same experimental procedure that was used in experiment 2 was used in experiment 5. We also used the same tool stimuli as in experiment 2, but the animal primes and targets were replaced with images of vehicles. As in the previous experiments, participants were faster to categorize a target in the context of a congruent prime, than in the context of an incongruent prime $F(1,18) = 4.12; P = 0.057$; and $\eta^2 = 0.186$; Fig. 3; for measures of prime awareness see Table 1, and Fig. S1]. Planned comparisons demonstrated reliable semantic priming for tool targets $t(19) = 2.306$ and $P < 0.033$; priming effects ranged from $-41$ to $152$ ms; mean, $23$ ms; SEM, $9.8$ ms] but not for vehicle targets ($t < 1$; mean priming effect, $4$ ms; SEM, $8.7$ ms). These data suggest that manipulability is the critical dimension underlying the specificity of the observed priming effect.

Finally, in experiment 6 we studied two questions that were left unanswered in the previous experiments. First, are the terms of their general ability to lead to priming? Second, can the specificity of the priming effect we have reported be traced to the fact that such structures receive information about CFS suppressed stimuli? To address these questions, we used BM, a technique that is known to elicit priming for a range of categories, including those that are not over-represented in dorsal stream structures, and is known to result in direct activation of ventral stream structures by the prime stimuli.

**Priming Effects under BM.** Previous research demonstrates that primes rendered invisible through BM lead to reliable semantic priming effects (24, 25), as well as reduced but significant neural activity in ventral temporal areas (23). Experiment 6 followed the same protocol and used the same materials as in experiment 2; the only difference was that primes were rendered invisible by using a backward mask. Primes were presented for $35$ ms, immediately followed by a high-contrast noise-pattern mask that stayed on the screen for $\approx 100$ ms (See Fig. 2B and Methods for details). The analysis of the response times to target pictures showed once again that congruent primes facilitated object categorization $F(1,6) = 46; P < 0.001$; and $\eta^2 = 0.885$; Fig. 3; for measures of prime awareness see Table 1 and Fig. S1f]. In contrast to experiments 1–4, planned comparisons demonstrated reliable priming for both tool and animal targets (for tool targets: $t(7) = 2.94$ and $P < 0.022$; priming effects ranging from $-1$ to $29$ ms; mean, $12$ ms; SEM, $4$ ms) and for animal targets: $t(7) = 3.24$ and $P < 0.014$; priming effects ranging from $1$ to $43$ ms; mean, $18$ ms; SEM, $6$ ms). The results from experiment 6 indicate that the prime pictures used in experiments 1–4 do not differ in their general ability to elicit priming. Also, they suggest that the category-specific nature of the priming effects obtained under CFS is related to the over-representation of tool properties in the dorsal stream, and to the fact that such dorsal stream structures receive information about CFS suppressed stimuli (18–22).

**Discussion**

The results presented in this report constitute a previously undescribed demonstration of high-level priming induced by...
CFS, or interocular suppression techniques more generally (26–28). Previous attempts to obtain high-level priming effects with interocular suppression techniques may have failed because they did not distinguish between stimuli that do (i.e., tools) and do not (i.e., animals, vehicles) have strong representations in the dorsal object processing stream. In Fig. 3, we summarize the results of experiments 1–6: categorically congruent primes rendered invisible through CFS facilitated categorization responses for tool but not animal or vehicle targets, when compared with categorically incongruent primes. These results are robust across different stimuli, measures of prime awareness (detection vs. discrimination), modality of response (manual vs. vocal), target format (picture vs. written word), and semantic category contrasts (tools vs. animals and tools vs. vehicles). In contrast, the same categorically congruent primes rendered invisible through BM facilitated categorization responses for both animal and tool targets.

The overall pattern of results indicates that semantic priming effects are modulated by interactions between the content of the stimulus and the computations that it engenders. Specifically, the dimension of “being a manipulable object” seems to be critical for priming effects to be induced by CFS suppressed stimuli. The pattern of results obtained suggests that dorsal stream computations mediating object directed action influence object recognition processes for manipulable objects.

An important issue that is raised by the findings that we have reported concerns the nature of the information that is processed by dorsal stream structures, and which ultimately affects object recognition processes. The tool stimuli that were used in these experiments all had an elongated principal axis. Thus, one issue that arises is whether similar effects would be observed for manipulable/graspable objects that do not share this visuo-motor characteristic (see ref. 15 for discussion). More generally, our findings raise questions about whether dorsal stream structures represent detailed and “abstract” knowledge about visually presented objects. For instance, it could be argued that the information computed by the dorsal stream that is relevant for observing priming from CFS stimuli is relatively abstract and concerns the category membership of the stimulus. However, as discussed above, neuropsychological evidence indicates that patients with lesions to ventral occipital-temporal regions can have profound difficulties naming objects, but unimpaired visuo-motor abilities with the same objects (e.g., patient DF; 1). Those data place an important upper boundary on what the dorsal stream can be assumed to represent about an object, at least as that information is explicitly available to individuals/patients.

Nevertheless, our findings, and the experimental paradigm we have presented, offer a previously undescribed way of studying these issues in the normally functioning and intact brain.

Whereas there is a range of evidence (both behavioral and physiological) with human and nonhuman primates demonstrating that binocularly suppressed stimuli have different effects on ventral and dorsal stream structures (18, 19, 22), much remains unknown about how information reaches dorsal stream structures. One possibility is that information reaches the dorsal processing stream through subcortical routes (18, 20). An important possibility opened up by our findings is that information arriving through subcortical structures is filtered along lines that map onto conceptual categories. Consistent with this hypothesis, Pasley et al. (201) found that suppressed emotional faces activated the amygdala, and that the provenance of this activation could be traced to the superior colliculus. Of particular relevance to the present study is the fact that regions within the posterior parietal cortex are the target of projections from the superior colliculus (29). Another possibility is that stimuli are not filtered along categorical lines within subcortical structures, but are rather sorted based on the response preferences of the cortical regions that receive subcortical input.

Our findings also indicate that there is more than one way in which an object may be invisible. By rendering stimuli invisible with CFS and BM, we took advantage of the different kinds of information that became available to cognitive systems in each technique. We believe that these differences in the availability of information are responsible for the dramatic disparity in subsequent behavior, including high-level decisions, observed in our experiments. Along the lines of the distinction advanced by Dehaene et al. (30) between unconscious and preconscious processes, it is possible to distinguish different types of unconscious processes according to the pathways that information takes from the eye to the cortex.

Methods
Participants and Apparatus. For this study, 114 Harvard University undergraduate students participated in the experiments in exchange for course credit or payment (32 participated in experiment 1, 13 in experiment 2, 11 in experiment 3, 30 in experiment 4, 20 in experiment 5, and 8 in experiment 6). All visual angle; 70% additive noise was added to the target stimuli by using Photoshop, to avoid ceiling performance. For experiment 4, the words corresponding to the picture targets used in experiment 2 were used as targets, whereas the same prime pictures were used in experiments 2–3. Participants were seated comfortably, and at a distance of ~50 cm from the screen.

Experiment 1 was run by using four levels of contrast for the primes, whereas experiments 2–5 were run by using three levels of contrast for the primes. For experiments 1–5, there were four targets per category that were presented with either one (experiment 1) or four categorically congruent primes (experiments 2–5), and one or four categorically incongruent primes. These stimulus assignments were repeated 10 times in experiment 1, for a total of 160 trials per contrast level (640 total trials), and three times in experiments 2–5, for a total of 192 trials per contrast level (576 total trials).

For experiments 1–5, the contrast of the prime pictures was adjusted for each participant so that prime invisibility was successfully achieved. Percent–average correct performance of participants on the prime detection or discrimination task was used to select, offline, the particular contrast level for the main analysis of the experiment proper. For all experiments, the highest level of contrast for which the performance of participants was not above chance, as defined by a z test for one proportion (exp. 1–5), and for which discrimination was not different between the two categories, as determined by a z test for two proportions (experiments 2–5), was selected for the main analysis. For experiments 1–5, participants were blocked by DMS (10 trials) that discrimination tasks did not meet specified criteria for inclusion for any of the contrast–levels of the prime stimuli were discarded.

For experiments 1–5, after completing the experiment, participants performed a prime detection (experiment 1) or discrimination task (experiments 2–5) by using the same contrast levels that were used during the experiment (Table 1). In the detection task after experiment 1, the two primes (one animal, one tool) were repeated 12 times; 24 random patterns without prime pictures were presented with either one (experiment 1) or four categorically congruent primes (experiments 2–5), and one or four categorically incongruent primes. These stimuli assignments were repeated 10 times in experiment 1, for a total of 160 trials per contrast level (640 total trials), and three times in experiments 2–5, for a total of 192 trials per contrast level (576 total trials).

For experiments 1–5, the contrast of the prime pictures was adjusted for each participant so that prime invisibility was successfully achieved. Percent–average correct performance of participants on the prime detection or discrimination task was used to select, offline, the particular contrast level for the main analysis of the experiment proper. For all experiments, the highest level of contrast for which the performance of participants was not above chance, as defined by a z test for one proportion (exp. 1–5), and for which discrimination was not different between the two categories, as determined by a z test for two proportions (experiments 2–5), was selected for the main analysis. For experiments 1–5, participants were blocked by DMS (10 trials) that discrimination tasks did not meet specified criteria for inclusion for any of the contrast–levels of the prime stimuli were discarded.

For experiments 1–5, after completing the experiment, participants performed a prime detection (experiment 1) or discrimination task (experiments 2–5) by using the same contrast levels that were used during the experiment (Table 1). In the detection task after experiment 1, the two primes (one animal, one tool) were repeated 12 times; 24 random patterns without prime pictures were used as noise alone trials. This trial set was repeated for each contrast level. Participants were asked to indicate if they detected something other than the noise patterns. In experiments 2–5, each prime was repeated 10 times.
times, for a total of 80 trials per contrast level. Participants were asked to categorize, to the best of their ability, the primes as animals or tools.

**BM.** Experiment 6 used the same stimuli as experiment 2. We added 70% additive noise to the prime stimuli by using Photoshop to facilitate masking. A black and white backward mask was generated, by using the same algorithm that was used to generate the high-contrast random noise patterns for CFS. Experiment 6 followed the same design as experiments 2. The discrimination task was the same as that used in experiments 2–5, as well as the criteria for prime invisibility.

**Analyses.** For all six experiments, a 2 (Target Category, animals vs. tools) X 2 (Prime Category, animals vs. tools) ANOVA was performed. The F values for the interaction between these two factors are reported. Planned comparisons were performed over the two-way interaction between target category and prime category, for each target category.

**ACKNOWLEDGMENTS.** We thank Petra Pajtas and Lukas Strnad for their help collecting data; Fang Fang and Bruno Breitmeyer for their advice on the experimental design; and M. Clara Barata and Petra Pajtas for their comments on earlier versions of this manuscript. A.C. was supported by National Institute on Deafness and other Communication Disorders Grant R01 DC006842 and by the Fondazione Cassa di Risparmio di Trento e Rovereto. J.A. was supported by Fundação para a Ciência e a Tecnologia, Portugal Grant SFRH/BD/28994/2006. B.Z.M. was supported by a National Science Foundation Graduate Research Fellowship. K.N. was supported by National Institutes of Health Grant DHB-MOD 0433136/0433226.