

1 This manuscript was published as Liesefeld, H.R., & Müller, H.J. (2019). Distractor handling via
2 dimension weighting. *Current Opinion in Psychology*, 29, 160-167.

3 doi:10.1016/j.copsy.2019.03.003

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Distractor handling via dimension weighting

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21 Declarations of interest: none

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Abstract

Salient-but-irrelevant objects have the potential to distract attention. Objects are salient if they differ from their surround in some feature dimension, such as shape, orientation, or motion. One way to reduce distraction therefore is to attenuate all saliency signals from the respective feature dimension. This mechanism, or strategy, which follows from a broader theory of attentional selection termed Dimension-Weighting Account (DWA), is very powerful, as evidenced by the massive distractor interference observed when it is ineligible. However, it also consumes scarce cognitive resources, so that it is not always employed and often complemented by other mechanisms of distractor handling. These alternative mechanisms might be less effective and/or have negative side effects.

Keywords: dimension-weighting account; distractor suppression; visual search; attentional capture; priority map; search strategies

1 Salient objects standing out from a visual scene tend to summon attention. This is beneficial
2 if these objects are relevant to the task at hand (*targets*), but harmful if they are irrelevant
3 (*distractors*). Even a single misallocation of attention towards a distractor (*attentional capture*)
4 can become costly in terms of time required to complete a laboratory task (up to at least 220 ms
5 [1**]) and can have serious consequences in real-life scenarios (e.g., causing a car accident).
6 Fortunately, salient but irrelevant distractors can be quite effectively ignored in many situations,
7 producing only mild impairments. This is due to appropriate cognitive control mechanisms being
8 in place that help reduce, or entirely avoid, distraction. One putative control mechanism follows
9 from the dimension-weighting account (DWA) [2,3]: The core assumption of the DWA is that the
10 human visual system dynamically up- and/or down-weights saliency signals from the various
11 feature dimensions in line with task goals as well as task history (Box 1). Accordingly, the down-
12 weighting of saliency signals from the distractor dimension is one readily available means to
13 avoid distraction by a salient stimulus. In the present article, we outline a theory of dimension-
14 weighting-based distractor handling by reviewing and reinterpreting the existing evidence from
15 ours and other research groups and highlighting situations under which observers cannot or can
16 partially or completely down-weight the distractor dimension to reduce distractor interference.

17 **Box 1: The Dimension-Weighting Account**

18 The general saliency-computation architecture behind the DWA is sketched in Figure 1. As in
19 Guided Search [4,5*], attention allocation is assumed to be guided by a spatial representation of
20 the visual scene, often referred to as *priority map*. Locations with a high value on the priority
21 map tend to summon attention. The priority map integrates input from various saliency maps,
22 each coding for local feature contrasts in the respective feature dimension. That is, each location
23 on a dimension-specific saliency map codes for the difference in the respective feature space
24 between the object at that location and the surrounding objects; it represents these differences,
25 rather than the actual feature values. The priority map, in turn, contains only information on the
26 integrated difference values and is therefore void of information on features *and* dimensions. The
27 crucial and eponymous assumption of the DWA is that the degree of information transfer (the
28 weights on the connections) from the individual, dimension-specific saliency maps to the overall
29 priority map can change dependent on experience (history) and behavioral goals (voluntary

control). This assumption is supported by a plethora of neuropsychological and behavioral evidence from a broad range of search paradigms and experimental effects (see [6**] for a recent, comprehensive review).

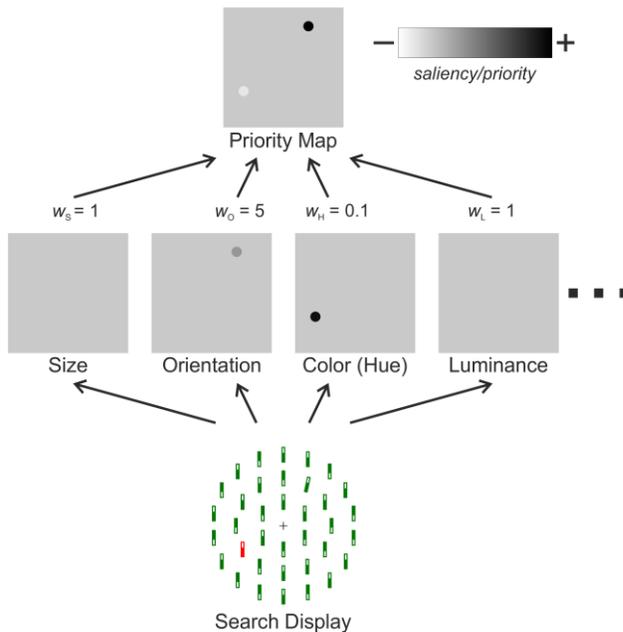
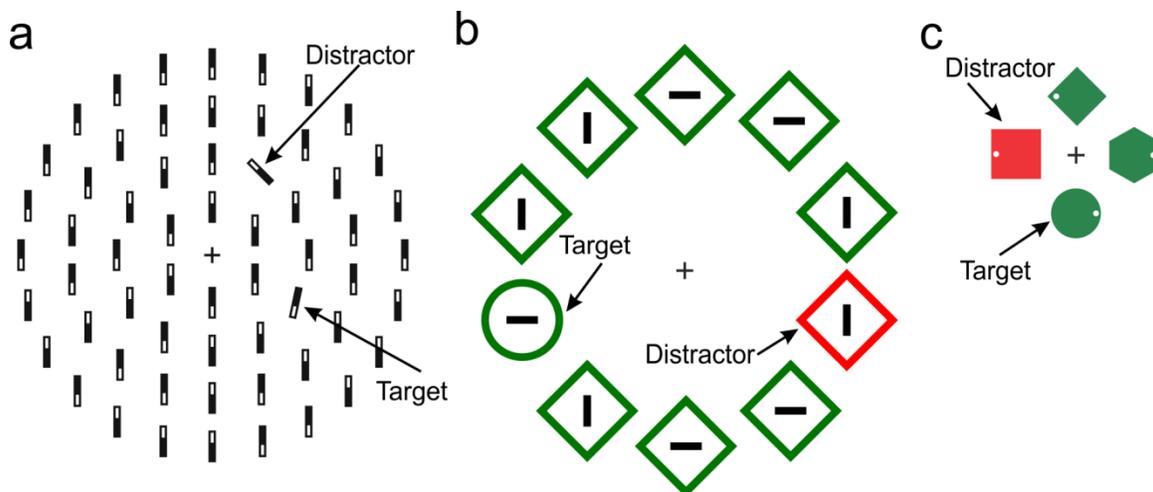


Figure 1. Simplified sketch of one possible implementation of dimension-based distractor suppression. The orientation singleton is of moderate saliency, but of maximum priority due to the amplification (weight > 1) on the connection between orientation saliency map and priority map. The more salient, red distractor object, in contrast, receives a lower value (is suppressed) on the priority map due to the attenuation (weight < 1) during the signal transfer/integration from the color saliency map to the priority map; potentially, the final priority value associated with the red object is even lower than that of the background. Saliency is determined by local feature contrast [7*]. Weights are thought to be influenced by task goals (Which dimension was instructed as relevant/irrelevant?) and task history (Which dimension was processed/suppressed on previous trials?).

Failure of dimension-based control

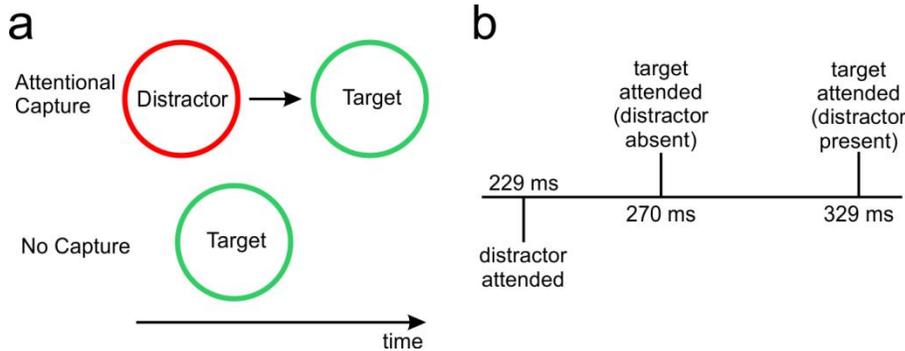
To appreciate a thing, it is often best to study a situation in which it is unavailable. As an example, people do not usually appreciate the presence of oxygen until it gets scarce (e.g., after a night's sleep in a closed car) and will likely continue to waste natural resources (clean water, oil, etc.) until they deplete. Liesefeld and colleagues [1**] recently measured

1 electroencephalographic correlates of attentional dynamics in a situation in which cognitive
 2 control was greatly needed, but dimension weighting was of no help: Observers had to search for
 3 a 12°-tilted target bar among vertical non-target bars, with an additional salient object
 4 (*distractor*) being present on two thirds of all trials (*additional-singleton task*). Crucially, in this
 5 study, the distractor bar stood out in the same dimension as the target, namely orientation (tilted
 6 45° into the opposite direction; see Fig. 2a; see [8, 9] for comparable behavioral studies). With
 7 such a *same-dimension distractor*, down-weighting saliency signals from the distractor dimension
 8 (orientation) would inevitably also down-weight the target signal, so that dimension weighting
 9 was ineligible for distractor handling. Accordingly, the observed pattern of N2pc components (an
 10 electrophysiological correlate of attention allocation [10*,11]) indicated that the more salient 45°
 11 distractor reliably captured attention, that is: attention first involuntarily moved towards the
 12 salient distractor, before it was re-allocated to the target. The misallocation (capture) of attention
 13 caused a delay of target processing, as compared to a no-distractor baseline (Fig. 3). In fact,
 14 distractor presence delayed responses by more than 200 ms (indicative of near-invariable
 15 capture)! Thus, when dimension weighting is unavailable as a strategy to handle distraction,
 16 distractor interference is massive – highlighting the crucial role that dimension weighting, when
 17 available, can play to reduce distractor interference.



1 *Figure 2.* Sketches of various displays used to examine distractor handling in visual search. (a)
 2 Particularly dense array, featuring many non-targets (*here*: vertical bars), to gain maximum
 3 control over local feature contrast (i.e., stimulus saliency); both target (*here*: 12°-tilted bar) and
 4 same-dimension distractor (*here*: 45°-tilted bar) stand out from their surround (see *Failure of*
 5 *dimension-based control*). (b) Most studies use a moderate number of non-targets (*here*: green
 6 diamonds); target and different-dimension distractor (*here*: green circle and red distractor) stand
 7 out from their surround (see *Successful dimension-based control*). (c) A display with only few
 8 and heterogeneous non-targets (*here*: green diamond and green hexagon); whereas the different-
 9 dimension distractor (*here*: red square) stands out due to its relatively high local feature contrast,
 10 the target (*here*: green circle) does not (see *Other mechanisms of distractor handling*).

11



12

13 *Figure 3.* Schematic illustration of the theoretical time-course of attention allocations when
 14 attention is captured. (a) In terms of serial-search models [4,5], attentional capture means that the
 15 distractor is first attended and, following this misallocation, attention is re-allocated towards the
 16 target. This also implies that the target is attended earlier when the distractor did not capture
 17 attention (because it was not present in the display or capture was successfully avoided).
 18 Furthermore, as the distractor captures attention because it is more salient than the target,
 19 attention allocation towards the distractor should be faster than even to the target on no-capture
 20 (distractor-absent) trials (the more salient an object is, the faster it can be attended [11]). (b)
 21 Exactly this pattern was observed in Liesefeld et al. [1**].

22

23 Dimension weighting is, of course, also ineligible for distractor handling when the distractor
 24 has the same feature as the target (e.g., both have the same shade of red), such as in many studies
 25 using the spatial-cueing paradigm pioneered by Folk and colleagues [12]. Thus, most findings of

1 *contingent capture* (i.e., an uninformative pre-cue captures attention if it has the same feature –
2 and therefore also stands out in the same dimension – as the subsequently presented target) are
3 broadly in line with the DWA (see also section on *Color* below). In fact, there is evidence from
4 this line of research that attentional sets can comprise the whole target dimension [13-15] or
5 (negatively) the whole distractor dimension [16**,17*]. Perhaps the most compelling evidence
6 for such dimension-encompassing attentional sets stems from single-cell recordings in monkeys
7 [18**]: when the monkey looked for motion (vs. color) changes, neurons in area MT showed a
8 sustained increase in firing rate prior to motion onset and an up-modulation during motion
9 processing [see also 19]. Importantly, responses to motion were increased even in neurons that
10 were *not* well tuned to the observed motion direction and speed. This effect pattern is indicative
11 of a persistent neuronal boost of signals from the whole target *dimension* (instead of specific
12 target *features*; see [20,21] for converging human fMRI evidence for the DWA).

13 **Successful dimension-based control**

14 In his classical studies, Theeuwes [22,23] showed that search for a shape target is hampered
15 by a color distractor. This finding challenges the DWA, because with such a *different-dimension*
16 *distractor*, dimension weighting should be effective. However, more recent, electrophysiological
17 evidence suggests that a different-dimension distractor does not typically capture attention, but is
18 indeed successfully suppressed before it can do so. Jannati, Gaspar, & McDonald [24] for
19 example, showed that a color distractor during search for a shape target (as displayed in Fig. 2b)
20 does not elicit an N2pc, but a P_D indicating suppression of the distractor instead of attentional
21 capture [25, but see 26*]. Furthermore, attention allocation to the target (target N2pc) is not
22 delayed with different-dimension distractors. This stands in sharp contrast to the same-dimension
23 distractor findings of Liesefeld and colleagues [1**], where the distractor elicited first an N2pc

1 and only afterwards a P_D (i.e., was first attended and only afterwards suppressed) and the target
2 N2pc was delayed by distractor presence.

3 Liesefeld, Liesefeld, and Müller [27**] directly pitted situations against each other in which
4 selective dimension weighting was or was not possible: One group of observers searched for an
5 object that was brighter than the dim non-targets (luminance target) and another group searched
6 for an object that was tilted more strongly than the vertical non-targets (orientation target). On
7 two thirds of trials, an additional, irrelevant object was present that was (unpredictably) either
8 brighter than the luminance target (luminance distractor) or tilted more strongly than the
9 orientation target (orientation distractor). Crucially, the two groups of observers received
10 different targets, but the same distractors, so that the physically identical distractor served either
11 as a same-dimension or a different-dimension distractor, thus excluding any differences in
12 stimulus features (and therefore saliency) between same- and different-dimension distractors. In a
13 control study, we showed that the same-dimension distractors were so dissimilar to the targets
14 that the respective contrast (searching for the previous distractors among a homogeneous
15 background of previous targets) produced reliable pop-out (i.e., very efficient search in which the
16 target is found almost immediately). Yet, these very dissimilar, same-dimension distractors
17 caused massive response-time costs of more than 250 ms, whereas different-dimension
18 distractors delayed response times by only around 50 ms. In terms of the architecture sketched in
19 Figure 1, this indicates that different-dimension distractors were heavily down-weighted, while
20 same-dimension distractors were not down-weighted (or even up-weighted). Thus, dimension
21 weighting is indeed effective with different-dimension distractors, substantially reducing their
22 interference as compared to that caused by same-dimension distractors (see [27**] for detailed
23 rebuttals of various alternative explanations).

Partial dimension-based control

1
2 In certain situations, a different-dimension distractor does capture attention; e.g., when the
3 target varies across trials, the distractor elicits an N2pc [28-30]. However, the target N2pc
4 emerges at the same time as the distractor N2pc and is not delayed by distractor presence. This is
5 indicative of a mixture of trials with and without attentional capture: the distractor N2pc stems
6 from trials in which capture occurred, but these are so few that they do not actually delay the
7 target N2pc in the grand average, which is, instead, dominated by the preponderance of trials on
8 which capture was successfully avoided. An across-study comparison of behavioral interference
9 effects supports this interpretation: interference by different-dimension distractors is around 100
10 ms or smaller during search for variable targets or variable distractors [28,31*], which is
11 considerably less than the 200 ms or 250 ms observed by Liesefeld et al. for (constant) *same-*
12 *dimension* distractors during search for constant targets [1**,27**]. During search for constant
13 targets, the interference by *different-dimension* distractors is typically no larger than 25 ms (e.g.
14 [23,24]). If the Liesefeld et al. [1**,27**] same-dimension results are taken as a baseline (i.e.,
15 maximal distractor interference in the absence of dimension weighting), all previous studies
16 examining different-dimension distractors actually demonstrate a profound reduction of distractor
17 interference via dimension weighting. This reduction is somewhat modulated by target and
18 distractor predictability: distractor handling via dimension weighting is improved in predictable
19 contexts.

20 Probably, dimension weighting, though in principle eligible, is not always (fully) applied for
21 handling different-dimension distractors: it is sometimes reduced due to lapses of cognitive
22 control [32**], because cognitive resources are demanded by other aspects of the task (handling
23 varying targets/distractors or general task difficulty [28,31,33]), or simply because (some)
24 observers are at times somewhat 'lazy' [34,35]. That down-weighting of distractor dimensions

1 costs some effort is also supported by findings indicating that it requires incentives and time to
2 develop [36-38]. Variation in the intensity of dimension-based control would also explain why
3 variation in fMRI-measured frontal brain activity predicts distractor interference [39,40]: when
4 people make an effort in down-weighting the distractor dimension, frontal, control-related brain
5 regions [41] are active and distraction is reduced, though possibly not fully eliminated.

6 **Other mechanisms of distractor handling**

7 The accumulated evidence indicates that dimension weighting is a powerful mechanism for
8 distractor handling, but it is certainly not the only mechanism serving this crucial function.
9 Indeed, various mechanism, or strategies, might be in place that complement dimension
10 weighting, potentially at different stages of processing and/or under different search conditions
11 [13,42,43].

12 **Spatial suppression.** Sauter, Liesefeld, Zehetleitner, and Müller [44**] used a
13 target/distractor combination similar to that of Liesefeld et al. [1**] (i.e., a same-dimension
14 distractor), so that dimension-weighting was ineligible for distractor handling. However, the
15 distractor appeared in one region with a 90% probability, thus providing space-based suppression
16 as an alternative mechanism for distractor handling. Having no other choice, participants made
17 plentiful use of this alternative mechanism (as compared to a control group with a different-
18 dimension distractor, for which the more efficient dimension-weighting strategy was eligible).
19 The downside of this space-based suppression was that in the same-dimension distractor group
20 (in contrast to the control group and otherwise comparable studies [45,46]), processing of the
21 target in the frequent distractor area was hampered as well.

22 **Template-based suppression.** As evident from Fig. 1, dimension weighting only applies
23 when search is guided by the priority map. Under certain conditions, it might be advisable to
24 bypass the priority map and use other strategies to find the target. Gaspelin and colleagues

1 [32**,47**], for instance, used a search paradigm in which each non-target had a different
2 feature (typically different shapes; Fig. 2b). Such heterogeneous non-targets are well known to
3 induce inefficient search [48], probably because the target does not produce a unique peak on the
4 priority map. Furthermore, observers treat sparse search displays (with only few objects, such as
5 in the Gaspelin et al. studies) differently to dense search displays [49*]. Under such conditions,
6 observers potentially switch from a strategy based on priority-map guidance to successive
7 template matching (i.e., serial search [43,50]; for other ideas on search dichotomies, see [50-53]).
8 Of importance here, in such an inefficient-search paradigm, Gaspelin and Luck [47**] observed
9 evidence for template-based instead of dimension-based suppression (what they call ‘first order’
10 vs. ‘second order’ suppression). Similarly, evidence for so-called negative search templates
11 (representations of the distractor feature) is typically obtained in tasks that are suited to induce
12 inefficient search [e.g., 54*].

13 Observations of strong attentional capture by same-dimension orientation and luminance
14 distractors indicate that such negative templates were not employed in the studies of Liesefeld et
15 al. [1**,27**]. Potentially, bypassing the priority map and using negative templates may not have
16 been an efficient strategy in their paradigm because of the dense display arrangement (see Fig. 2
17 for a comparison of display arrangements). Alternatively, negative templates (i.e., ‘first-order’
18 suppression) may only be available in certain dimensions, most probably color.

19 **Color.** There is indeed some indication that searching for color targets is different to
20 searching for targets standing out in other dimensions, such as orientation, size, luminance, or
21 shape (which all can guide search as well [5*]). For example, searching for a color target is less
22 impaired by simultaneously looking for another target standing out in a different dimension,
23 compared to searching for an orientation or shape target [13**]. Furthermore, in contrast to the
24 same-dimension orientation and luminance distractors in Liesefeld et al. [1**,27**], a color

1 distractor is efficiently suppressed during search for a color target [55]. Specialized mechanisms
2 that ease searching for or avoiding of specific colors might have evolved due to the exceptional
3 behavioral importance of this feature dimension (e.g., searching for ripe fruits). Alternatively,
4 color may be better considered as consisting of multiple dimensions, in line with the
5 multidimensional structure of retinal color receptors, neuronal color pathways, and color spaces
6 (but see [56*]; see [6**] for a more comprehensive discussion on the special status of color).

7 **Conclusion**

8 The reviewed evidence indicates that dimension weighting provides a powerful mechanism
9 of distractor handling. Whether target and distractor are defined in the same (vs. different)
10 dimension(s) determines whether dimension weighting *can* be applied as a strategy of distractor
11 handling, in principle. But there are various other influences that determine whether and how
12 consistently this form of distractor handling *is* applied, in actuality. When search is guided by the
13 priority map, same-dimension distractors (virtually) always capture attention, because this
14 capture cannot be avoided; by contrast, different-dimension distractors capture attention only if
15 voluntary control is diverted or (subjectively) not worthwhile. The ability or willingness to
16 employ this form of top-down control might be a crucial personality trait [35**,57**].

17 **Acknowledgments**

18 This work was supported by the German Research Foundation (DFG) [grants MU 773/14-1 and
19 MU 773/16-1] (to H.J.M.), by LMU Munich's Institutional Strategy LMUexcellent within the
20 framework of the German Excellence Initiative (to H.J.M. and H.R.L.), and by the Graduate
21 School of Systemic Neurosciences, Munich Center for Neurosciences – Brain & Mind (to
22 H.R.L.).

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4 when searching for a luminance target and a different-dimension distractor when searching
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