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## 2 Distinct representations for facial identity and changeable aspects of 3 faces in the human temporal lobe

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8 The neural system underlying face perception must represent the  
9 unchanging features of a face that specify identity, as well as the  
10 changeable aspects of a face that facilitate social communication.  
11 However, the way information about faces is represented in the brain  
12 remains controversial. In this study, we used fMR adaptation (the  
13 reduction in fMRI activity that follows the repeated presentation of  
14 identical images) to ask how different face- and object-selective regions  
15 of visual cortex contribute to specific aspects of face perception. We  
16 report that activity in the face-selective region of the fusiform gyrus  
17 (FG) was reduced following repeated presentations of the same face.  
18 Adaptation in this area was not sensitive to changes in image size, but  
19 was sensitive to changes in viewpoint. In contrast, face-selective regions  
20 in the superior temporal lobe failed to adapt to identical presentations  
21 of the same face, but showed an increased response when the same face  
22 was shown from different viewpoints and with different expressions.  
23 These results reveal a largely size-invariant neural representation in  
24 the inferior temporal lobe that could be involved in the recognition of  
25 facial identity, and a separate face-selective region in the superior  
26 temporal lobe that could be used to detect changeable aspects of faces.  
27 The absence of fMR-adaptation in object-selective regions of visual  
28 cortex challenges the idea that a more distributed network of areas is  
29 used to represent information about faces.

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31 *Keywords:* Fusiform; Perception; Awareness; Object recognition; Ventral  
32 pathway; fMRI

33

### 34 Introduction

35 Recognising complex objects, such as faces, is a simple and  
36 effortless process for most human observers. However, the  
37 apparent ease with which recognition takes place belies its

inherent complexities and ambiguities. For example, as we move  
about or as gaze or expression change, the size and shape of a  
face image on the retina also changes. To be useful, the visual  
system must take into account these sources of variation to  
facilitate recognition, but at the same time be able to detect  
changeable aspects of faces that are important in social  
communication. Although models of face processing have  
proposed ways to deal with these different tasks, it remains  
unclear how these mechanisms might be implemented in visual  
cortex.

One model of human face processing proposes that informa-  
tion is processed in specialised modules (Breen et al., 2002;  
Bruce and Young, 1986; Haxby et al., 2000). This conception is  
supported by several physiological studies that show specific  
regions of the temporal lobe are more responsive to faces than to  
other complex objects (Allison et al., 1994; Kanwisher et al.,  
1997; Kreiman et al., 2000). These findings are consistent with  
brain lesion studies that report specific deficits in recognising,  
identifying and naming faces following damage to the inferior  
temporal lobe (Damasio et al., 1982; McNeil and Warrington,  
1993). Interestingly, such individuals have a largely preserved  
ability to recognise other objects (McNeil and Warrington, 1993).  
In contrast, lesions to other areas of the temporal lobe can leave  
face recognition intact, but impair an individual's ability to  
identify other objects (Moscovitch et al., 1997).

An alternative model of face processing appeals to a more  
distributed representation across a large network of visual cortex.  
In this theory, the representation of a face is not restricted to those  
areas that respond maximally to this object category. This is  
because non-face, object-selective regions such as the lateral  
occipital complex (LOC) and the parahippocampal place area  
(PPA) also respond to the presentation of a face-albeit less than to  
non-face objects (Andrews and Schluppeck, in press; Ishai et al.,  
1999). Indeed, a recent study has shown that our perception of  
faces could be based on a distributed pattern of response across  
the whole temporal lobe rather than on the activity of a few  
specialised modules (Haxby et al., 2001). Moreover, because of  
the spatial limitations of fMRI, it is possible that a weak response

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76 to a face in a particular brain region does not reflect a sub-optimal  
 77 activation, but reveals the activation of a small proportion of face-  
 78 selective neurons (Avidan et al., 2002).

79 In the present study, we have used the technique of fMR-  
 80 adaptation (the decreased activity that occurs following repeated  
 81 presentation of the same image) to determine how different  
 82 aspects of face processing are represented in visual cortex (Grill-  
 83 Spector and Malach, 2001). In two previous studies, adaptation to  
 84 faces was reported in the lateral occipital complex (LOC) (Avidan  
 85 et al., 2002; Grill-Spector et al., 1999). Because this region of the  
 86 brain has been characterised as an object-selective area (Malach  
 87 et al., 1995), these findings could be taken as support for a

distributed representation underlying face perception. However, in 88  
 these studies, the analysis was restricted to face-selective areas of 89  
 the LOC. Indeed, it is possible that the regions studied may have 90  
 included the face-selective region in the fusiform gyrus (Kan- 91  
 wisher et al., 1997). In the present study, we have defined face- 92  
 and object-selective areas in the occipital and temporal lobe in 93  
 terms of their anatomical location and functional responses and 94  
 have asked how they are involved in specific aspects of face 95  
 perception. Our hypothesis was that those regions of the brain that 96  
 are involved in the recognition of identity would show a reduction 97  
 in response to repeated presentations of the same face, and that this 98  
 reduction in response would be invariant to changes in image size 99

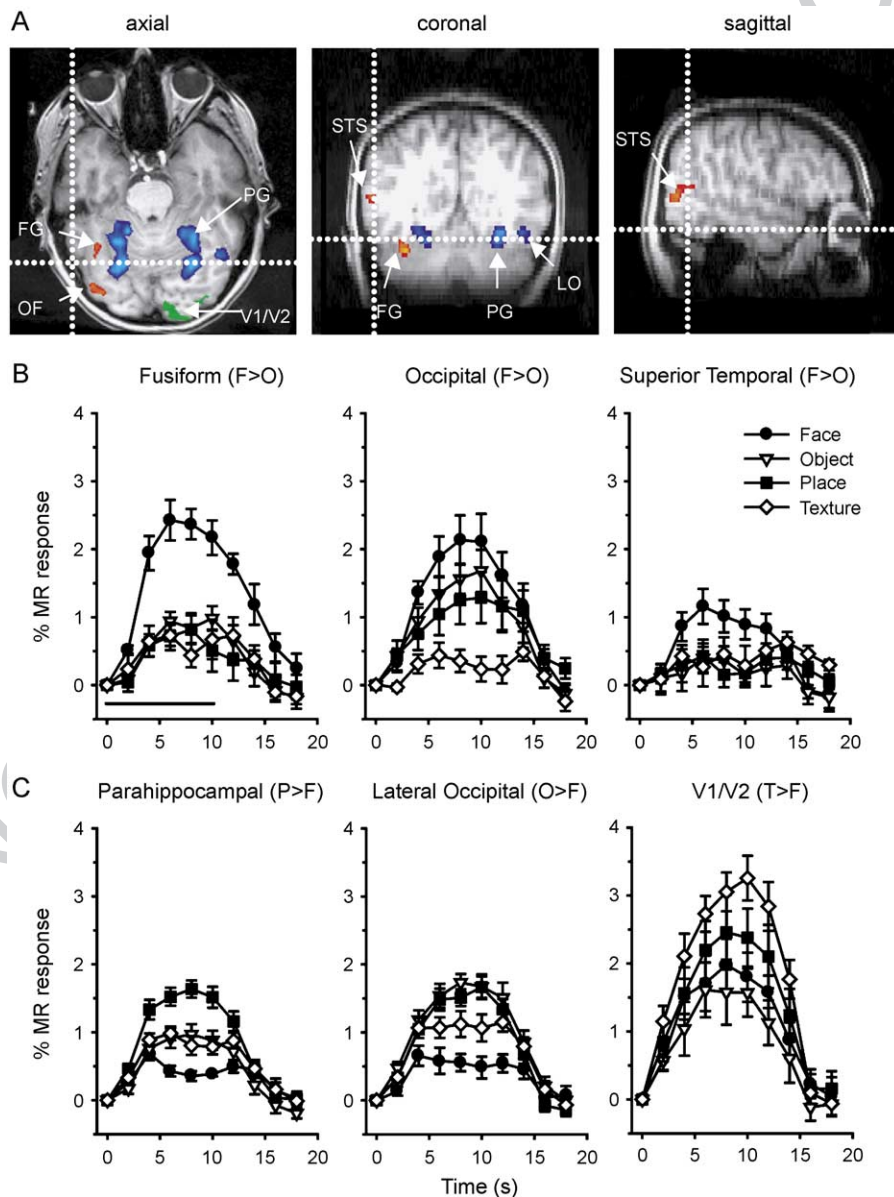


Fig. 1. Localiser scan. Regions of interest were defined by their anatomical location and their functional responses to different object categories. (A) Location of areas in visual cortex that showed selective responses to faces (red), objects (blue) or textures (green) in one subject (FG = fusiform gyrus, OF = occipital face; LO = lateral occipital, STS = superior temporal sulcus, PG = parahippocampal gyrus). These scan images follow radiological convention, with the left hemisphere shown on the right. The dashed lines in each image show the spatial relation of the three slices. MR time-course during localiser scans, showing the activity averaged across subjects in face-selective (B) and non-face selective (C) areas to faces (F), objects (O), places (P) and textures (T). The horizontal bar represents the duration of each block. Error bars represent  $\pm 1$  standard error.

100 or viewpoint. In contrast, if an area was involved in representing  
101 changeable aspects of faces, we would not expect to find  
102 adaptation to repeated images of the same face identity, but rather  
103 we would expect responses to be sensitive to changes in viewpoint  
104 that are important in social communication.

## 105 Methods

### 106 Subjects

107 All eight observers had normal or corrected to normal visual  
108 acuity. Informed consent was obtained from all subjects and the  
109 study was approved by the Central Oxford Research Ethics  
110 Committee (COREC 98.161). Stimuli (approximately  $9^\circ \times 9^\circ$ )  
111 were back-projected (Focus LP1000, Uicol Engineering, Oxford  
112 UK) on to a screen placed at a distance of 280 cm from the  
113 subject's eyes. Subjects lay supine in the magnet bore and viewed  
114 the back-projection screen outside the bore through prism glasses.

### 115 Imaging parameters

116 All experiments were carried out using the Siemens-Varian 3 T  
117 MRI scanner at the FMRIB centre in Oxford. A Magnex head-  
118 dedicated gradient insert coil was used in conjunction with a  
119 birdcage, head, radio-frequency coil tuned to 127.4 MHz. A  
120 gradient-echo EPI sequence was used to collect data from 16  
121 contiguous axial slices (TR 2 s, TE 30 ms, FOV  $256 \times 256$  mm, in-  
122 plane resolution  $4 \times 4$  mm, slice thickness 7 mm). T1 weighted  
123 structural images were acquired with a 3D Turbo Flash Sequence at  
124 a resolution of  $1 \times 1$  mm within slice and 3 mm between slices. The  
125 statistical maps were registered onto a standard image in Talairach  
126 space using FLIRT ([www.fmrib.ox.ac.uk/fsl](http://www.fmrib.ox.ac.uk/fsl)).

### 127 Localiser scan

128 To discriminate regions of visual cortex that are selectively  
129 activated by faces and non-face objects, a localiser scan was carried  
130 out for each subject. Each scan contained 16 stimulus blocks. The  
131 stimuli in each block were either grey-scale photographs of (1)  
132 faces, (2) inanimate objects, (3) places (buildings, indoor scenes &  
133 natural landscapes) or (4) textures. Images of faces were taken from  
134 a database of the Psychological Image Collection at Stirling (PICS:  
135 <http://www.pics.psych.stir.ac.uk/>) and were not familiar to any of  
136 the subjects. Photographs of inanimate objects, places and textures  
137 were obtained from various sources including CorelDraw and  
138 Microsoft clip-art. Each stimulus block contained 10 images with  
139 each image being presented for 800 ms followed by a 200-ms blank  
140 screen. Subjects were instructed to perform a one-back matching  
141 task using a response box. Each stimulus condition was repeated  
142 four times in a counterbalanced block design. Blocks were  
143 separated by periods of fixation when a grey screen, of the same  
144 average luminance was viewed for 10 s.

145 Analysis of the localiser scans was carried out using FEAT  
146 ([www.fmrib.ox.ac.uk/fsl](http://www.fmrib.ox.ac.uk/fsl)). The initial 8 s of data from each scan  
147 was discarded to minimise the effects of magnetic saturation.  
148 Motion correction was carried out using MCFLIRT ([www.fmrib.ox.ac.uk/fsl](http://www.fmrib.ox.ac.uk/fsl)), followed by a spatial smoothing algorithm (FWHM  
149 5.0 mm). Z statistic images were generated using resel (corrected  
150 Bonferroni) thresholding ( $P < 0.05$ ). Areas defined as face-  
151 selective included voxels that responded significantly more to

152 faces than to objects or textures, whereas non-face selective areas  
153 responded more to inanimate objects, scenes or textures than to  
154 faces at this level of significance (Friston et al., 1995).  
155

156 To determine the temporal characteristics of the response, the  
157 time-series of the resulting filtered MR data at each voxel was  
158 converted from units of image intensity to units of fractional signal  
159 change (% MR activity). The time-course plots were also  
160 normalised to the activity at stimulus onset. Signals in the different  
161 regions were then averaged separately for face, inanimate object,  
162 place and texture stimulus blocks. A repeated-measures ANOVA  
163 was used to determine whether there were significant between-  
164 subject changes in activity for each stimulus condition.

### 165 Face adaptation experiment

166 Each experiment contained 24 stimulus blocks. Each stimulus  
167 block lasted for 12 s and contained 12 images. Each image was  
168 presented for 800 ms followed by a 200-ms blank screen.  
169 Stimulus blocks contained 12 repetitions of the same face image  
170 (*same identity*) or 12 different face images (*different identity*). To  
171 determine whether the response to faces was size-invariant, we  
172 varied image size in some stimulus blocks ( $3^\circ \times 3^\circ$ ,  $6^\circ \times 6^\circ$  and  
173  $9^\circ \times 9^\circ$ ). We also determined whether the response to faces was  
174 view-invariant by varying the direction of gaze and emotional  
175 expression in the face images. Changes in gaze direction  
176 included frontal, 3/4 and side profiles and the faces could  
177 convey a happy emotion or speech. Different combinations of  
178 gaze and expression were randomly interleaved in these stimulus  
179 blocks, but this did not lead to the perception of apparent  
180 motion. Thus, in total, we monitored MR activity for the  
181 following 6 stimulus conditions: (1) *same-identity same-size* (2)  
182 *different-identity same-size* (3) *same-identity vary-size* (4) *diffe-*  
183 *rent-identity vary-size* (5) *same-identity vary-viewpoint* (6) *diffe-*  
184 *rent-identity vary-viewpoint*. Each stimulus condition was  
185 repeated four times in a counterbalanced block-design within a  
186 single scan. Blocks of faces were separated by periods of fixation  
187 when an equiluminant grey screen was viewed for 10 s. Subjects  
188 were instructed to perform a one-back matching task on the  
189 identity of the face during the scan using a response box. The  
190 time-series of the resulting filtered MR data at each ROI was  
191 converted from units of image intensity to units of fractional  
192 signal change (% MR activity). The average peak response was  
193 calculated from each ROI in each condition for each subject. A

Table 1  
Mean Talairach coordinates of face-selective and non-face selective regions  
of interest (F = face, O = Object, P = place, T = texture)

Region	Hemisphere	n	x	y	z	
Fusiform gyrus	right	8	44	-58	-22	t1.4
(F>O)	left	3	-46	-61	-27	t1.5
Occipital face	right	6	43	-83	-10	t1.6
(F>O)	left	1	-45	-82	-5	t1.7
Superior temporal	right	6	54	-66	8	t1.8
(F>O)	left	-	-	-	-	t1.9
Parahippocampal gyrus	right	8	30	-61	-14	t1.10
(P>F)	left	8	-32	-63	-15	t1.11
Lateral occipital	right	6	42	-77	-3	t1.12
(O>F)	left	6	-47	-74	-3	t1.13
Medial occipital	right	6	13	-98	-2	t1.14
(T>F)	left	6	-14	-99	-2	t1.15

194 repeated-measures ANOVA was performed on the between  
195 subject variation for different stimulus conditions.

## 196 Results

### 197 Localiser scan

198 Spatially discrete face- and object-selective areas were localised  
199 using a blocked design (Fig. 1A and Table 1). In each subject, a  
200 region of the fusiform gyrus showed significant activation for faces  
201 versus non-face objects. This activation was predominantly in the  
202 right hemisphere. The Talairach coordinates of this area suggest that  
203 it is analogous to the FFA (Kanwisher et al., 1997) and area LO-a/  
204 pFs (Avidan et al., 2002; Grill-Spector et al., 1999). In addition, a  
205 more posterior region on the lateral surface of the occipital lobe

(OF) was routinely found to be more active for faces compared to  
206 objects. This region of activation is likely to correspond to regions  
207 previously described as the LOC (Avidan et al., 2002; Grill-Spector  
208 et al., 1999), the inferior occipital gyrus (Hoffman and Haxby,  
209 2000) or the occipital face area (Gauthier et al., 2000). We also  
210 found a reliable activation for faces compared to non-face objects in  
211 the superior temporal lobe (ST) (see also Hoffman and Haxby,  
212 2000; Kanwisher et al., 1997).

213 Non-face selective responses were evident in the parahippo-  
214 campal gyrus and other regions of the occipital lobe. The  
215 parahippocampal gyrus (PG) was more active when subjects  
216 viewed images of places compared to faces. The coordinates of  
217 this area suggest that it is analogous to an area previously called the  
218 PPA (Epstein and Kanwisher, 1998), CoS (Avidan et al., 2002) or  
219 medial fusiform gyrus (Ishai et al., 1999). An object-selective area  
220 that responded more to inanimate objects than to faces was located  
221

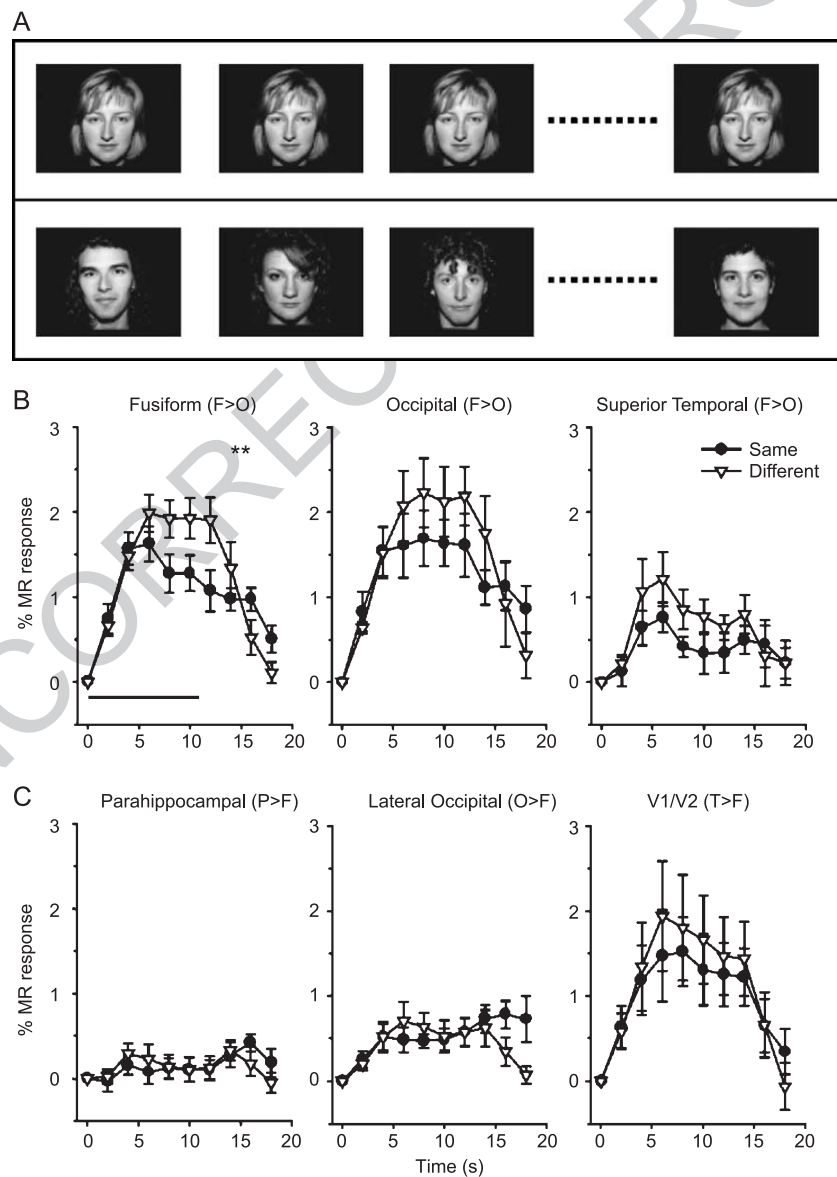


Fig. 2. Face adaptation experiment. (A) Examples of images from the *same-identity same-size* (top) and *different-face same-size* (bottom) conditions. (B) Time courses taken from face-selective (B) and non-face selective (C) regions were averaged across subjects (F = face, O = object, P = place, T = texture). The horizontal bar represents the duration of the presentation. Error bars represent  $\pm 1$  standard error.  $**P < 0.01$ .

222 on the lateral aspect of the occipital lobe (LO) and corresponds to a  
 223 different region of the lateral occipital complex (Malach et al.,  
 224 1995). Finally, we located a region of the medial occipital lobe that  
 225 responded more to textures than to faces. Similar contrasts have  
 226 previously been used to reveal primary visual areas (Grill-Spector  
 227 et al., 1999). Indeed, we found the location of this region  
 228 overlapped with the calcarine sulcus and is, therefore, likely to  
 229 contain V1 and V2 (Andrews et al., 1997).

230 The average time-courses of activation in the face-selective  
 231 regions are shown in Fig. 1B. Consistent with the FEAT analysis,  
 232 an ANOVA showed images of faces resulted in a significant  
 233 activation of the FG ( $F = 18.3$ ,  $P < 0.00001$ ), OF ( $F = 8.4$ ,  $P <$   
 234  $0.00001$ ) and the STS ( $F = 6.37$ ,  $P < 0.00001$ ). However,  
 235 activation to faces was not restricted to face-selective regions of  
 236 visual cortex. For example, images of faces also caused  
 237 significant increases in MR activity in the PG ( $F = 6.7$ ,  $P <$

238  $0.00001$ ), LO ( $F = 3.1$ ,  $P = 0.01$ ) and V1/V2 ( $F = 7.6$ ,  $P <$   
 239  $0.00001$ ) regions (Fig. 1C).

240 As expected, the non-face selective areas responded maximally  
 241 to inanimate objects, places and textures. The PG was maximally  
 242 activated by images of places ( $F = 37.2$ ,  $P < 0.00001$ ), but also  
 243 responded significantly to inanimate objects ( $F = 14.7$ ,  $P <$   
 244  $0.00001$ ) and textures ( $F = 10.9$ ,  $P < 0.00001$ ). The LO area  
 245 showed a similar response to images of objects ( $F = 19.2$ ,  $P <$   
 246  $0.00001$ ) and places ( $F = 31.2$ ,  $P < 0.00001$ ), but also responded to  
 247 textures ( $F = 11.4$ ,  $P = 0.00001$ ). V1/V2 responded significantly to  
 248 textures ( $F = 10.4$ ,  $P < 0.00001$ ), places ( $F = 6.9$ ,  $P < 0.00001$ ) and  
 249 objects ( $F = 4.8$ ,  $P < 0.0001$ ). Significant responses to objects and  
 250 places were also apparent in face-selective regions. For example,  
 251 the FG responded significantly to objects ( $F = 8.5$ ,  $P < 0.00001$ ),  
 252 places ( $F = 2.1$ ,  $P < 0.05$ ) and textures ( $F = 3.6$ ,  $P < 0.005$ ), and the  
 253 OF region showed a significant activation to objects ( $F = 5.6$ ,  $P <$

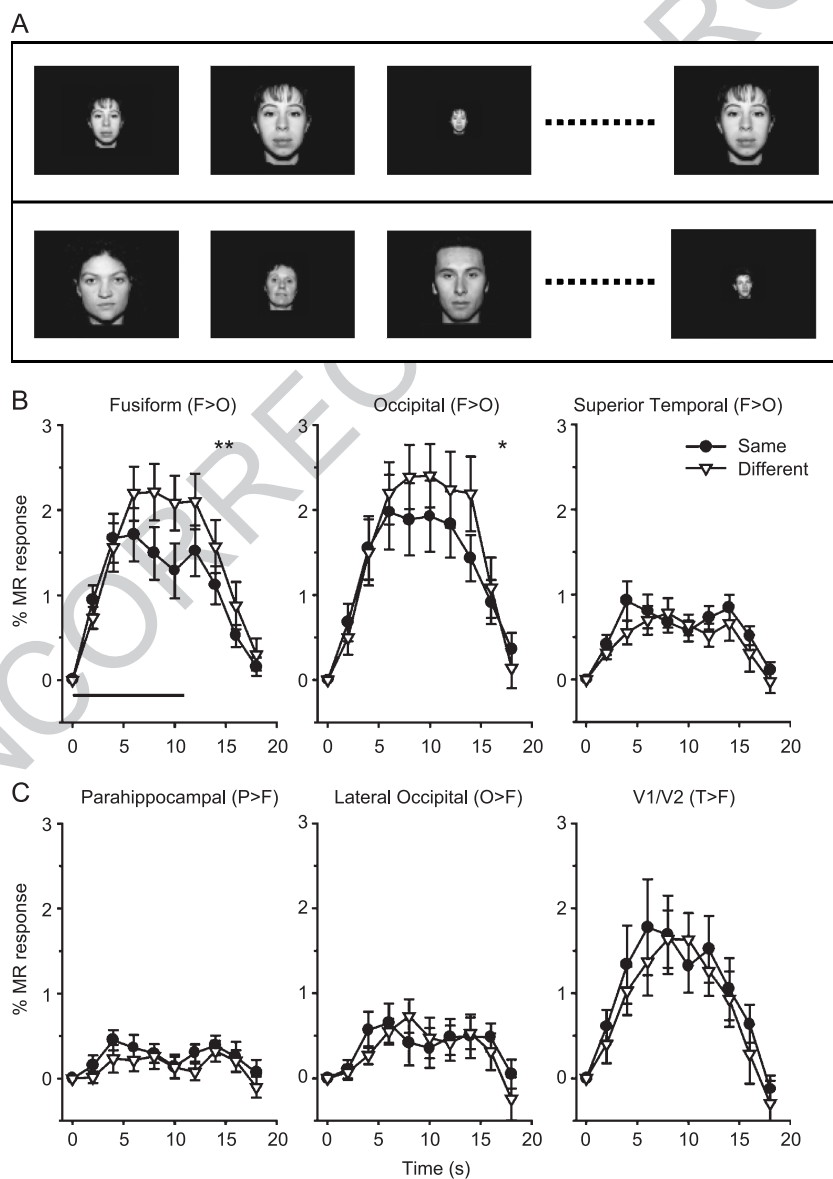


Fig. 3. Vary size experiment. (A) Examples of images from the *same-identity vary-size* (top) and *different-identity vary-size* (bottom) conditions. Time courses taken from face-selective (B) and non-face selective (C) regions were averaged across subjects ( $F =$  face,  $O =$  object,  $P =$  place,  $T =$  texture). The horizontal bar represents the duration of the presentation. Error bars represent  $\pm 1$  standard error. \* $P < 0.05$ , \*\* $P < 0.001$ .

254 0.0001). These regions of interest (ROI) were defined for each  
255 individual and used as a mask in subsequent analyses.

### 256 Face adaptation

257 First, we measured the response to repeated presentations of  
258 the same face (*same-face*) compared to images of different faces  
259 (*different-face*) in different face-selective regions (Fig. 2). Our  
260 prediction was that areas involved in face recognition would be  
261 less active during the *same-identity same-size* condition compared  
262 to the *different-identity same-size* condition. We found that the  
263 response to the same face was significantly lower than the  
264 response to different faces in the FG ( $F = 17.2$ ;  $P < 0.005$ ).  
265 However, we failed to find any difference between the conditions  
266 (i.e., adaptation) in the face-selective region of the OF ( $F = 2.9$ ;  
267  $P = 0.15$ ) or the STS ( $F = 1.5$ ;  $P = 0.27$ ). Despite the fact that  
268 non-face selective areas showed significant responses to faces, we  
269 did not detect any significant reduction in activity when the same  
270 face was shown repeatedly.

271 Next, we compared the fMR-adaptation for repeated presenta-  
272 tions of images of the same face that varied in size (*same-identity*  
273 *vary-size*) compared to images of different faces that also varied in  
274 size (*different-identity vary-size*) (Fig. 3). If adaptation to faces is  
275 not affected by changes in image size, we would expect a relatively  
276 lower response to the same face. A significantly reduced response  
277 to images of the same face compared to different faces was  
278 apparent in the FG ( $F = 32.8$ ,  $P < 0.001$ ) and OF ( $F = 9.2$ ,  $P <$   
279  $0.05$ ), but was not evident in the STS ( $F = 0.02$ ,  $P = 0.96$ ). Size-  
280 invariant fMR-adaptation was not evident in any of the non-face  
281 selective ROI.

282 To determine the degree to which the responses in the FG  
283 were size invariant, we performed a 2-way ANOVA (*same-identity*  
284 *same-size*, *different-identity same-size*  $\times$  *same-identity*  
285 *vary-size*, *different-identity vary-size*). The results shown in Fig. 4  
286 reveal a significant effect for identity ( $P < 0.0005$ ), but not for  
287 size ( $P = 0.08$ ); there was also no interaction between size and  
288 identity ( $P = 0.96$ ). Individual comparisons of *same-identity*  
289 *same-size* versus *same-identity vary-size* ( $F = 2.0$ ,  $P = 0.19$ ) and  
290 *different-identity same-size* versus *different-identity vary-size* ( $F =$   
291  $2.65$ ,  $P = 0.15$ ) also failed to show an effect of size.

292 Finally, we asked whether adaptation to faces would occur, if  
293 we changed the viewpoint of the face. We compared the MR  
294 response to repeated presentations of images of the same face that  
295 varied in viewpoint (*same-identity vary-viewpoint*) compared to  
296 images of different faces that also varied in viewpoint (*different-identity*  
297 *vary-viewpoint*) (Fig. 5). We expected that, if the  
298 representation of faces in a particular region was invariant to  
299 viewpoint, a reduced response should be apparent for the same  
300 face. On the other hand, if an area represented changeable aspects  
301 of facial processing, we would expect a maximal response for  
302 changes in viewpoint of the same face. The results show that  
303 there were no differences between these *same-identity vary-*  
304 *viewpoint* and *different-identity vary-viewpoint* conditions in the  
305 FG ( $F = 0.45$ ,  $P = 0.52$ ) or OF ( $F = 0.1$ ,  $P = 0.78$ ). One possible  
306 explanation for these data is that subjects were unable to  
307 distinguish whether consecutive presentations represented a  
308 different face or a different view of the same face. However,  
309 our behavioural results show that subjects were able to perform  
310 this task reliably ( $>95\%$  correct).

311 In contrast to the FG and OF, MR-activity in the STS was  
312 significantly greater in the *same-identity vary-viewpoint* condition

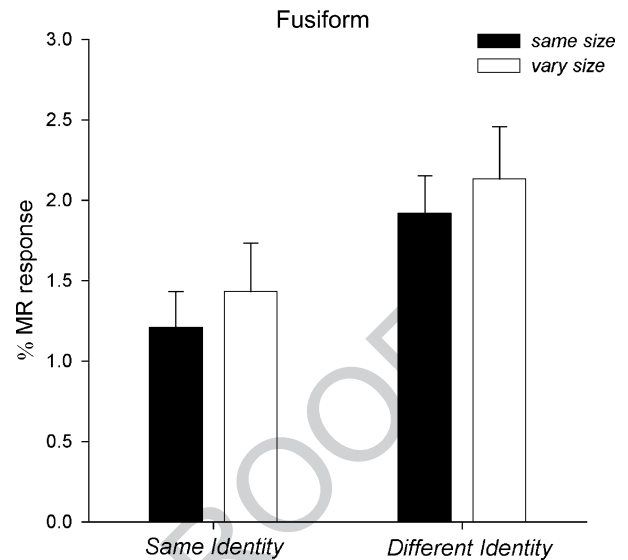


Fig. 4. Graph showing that responses to faces in the face-selective region of the fusiform gyrus were invariant to manipulations in the size of the image. Columns represent the peak response in the different conditions averaged across all subjects and the error bars represent  $\pm 1$  standard error.

313 compared to the *different-identity vary-viewpoint* condition ( $F =$   
314  $13.4$ ,  $P < 0.01$ ). This pattern of activation would be consistent with  
315 a brain region that processes changeable aspects of the face. To test  
316 this possibility more explicitly, we performed a 2-way ANOVA in  
317 which compared the same and different faces viewed from the  
318 same or changing viewpoints (*same-identity same-size*, *different-*  
319 *identity same-size*  $\times$  *same-identity vary-viewpoint*, *different-*  
320 *identity vary-viewpoint*) in the STS. As expected, the results  
321 shown in Fig. 6 show a significant effect for viewpoint ( $P < 0.01$ ),  
322 but not effect for identity ( $P = 0.87$ ). Moreover, there was a  
323 significant interaction between viewpoint and identity ( $P < 0.05$ ).  
324 Further comparisons reveal that the effect of changes in viewpoint  
325 was only apparent when the same face is viewed ( $P < 0.000001$ ),  
326 but not when different faces were viewed ( $P = 0.86$ ). There were  
327 no significant differences between the viewpoint conditions in the  
328 non-face selective ROI (Fig. 4C).

### Discussion

329 The aim of this study was to determine how information about  
330 faces is represented in visual cortex. Specifically, we were  
331 interested in asking which regions of visual cortex are involved  
332 in forming an invariant representation of a face that could be used  
333 for recognition, and which areas process changeable aspects of  
334 faces that are important in social communication.

335 Consistent with previous studies, regions in the inferior and  
336 superior regions of the temporal lobe responded more to photo-  
337 graphs of faces than to images of other complex objects (Allison  
338 et al., 1994; Grill-Spector et al., 1999; Hoffman and Haxby, 2000;  
339 Kanwisher et al., 1997). Our purpose in this study was to determine  
340 the nature of the representation in these different regions. For  
341 example, as we move about, the size and shape of the retinal image  
342 also changes. Thus, a major problem for the neural system  
343 involved in face recognition is to generate a representation that  
344 does not vary with changes in size and viewpoint. In this study, we  
345 used fMR-adaptation as a tool to understand the functional  
346

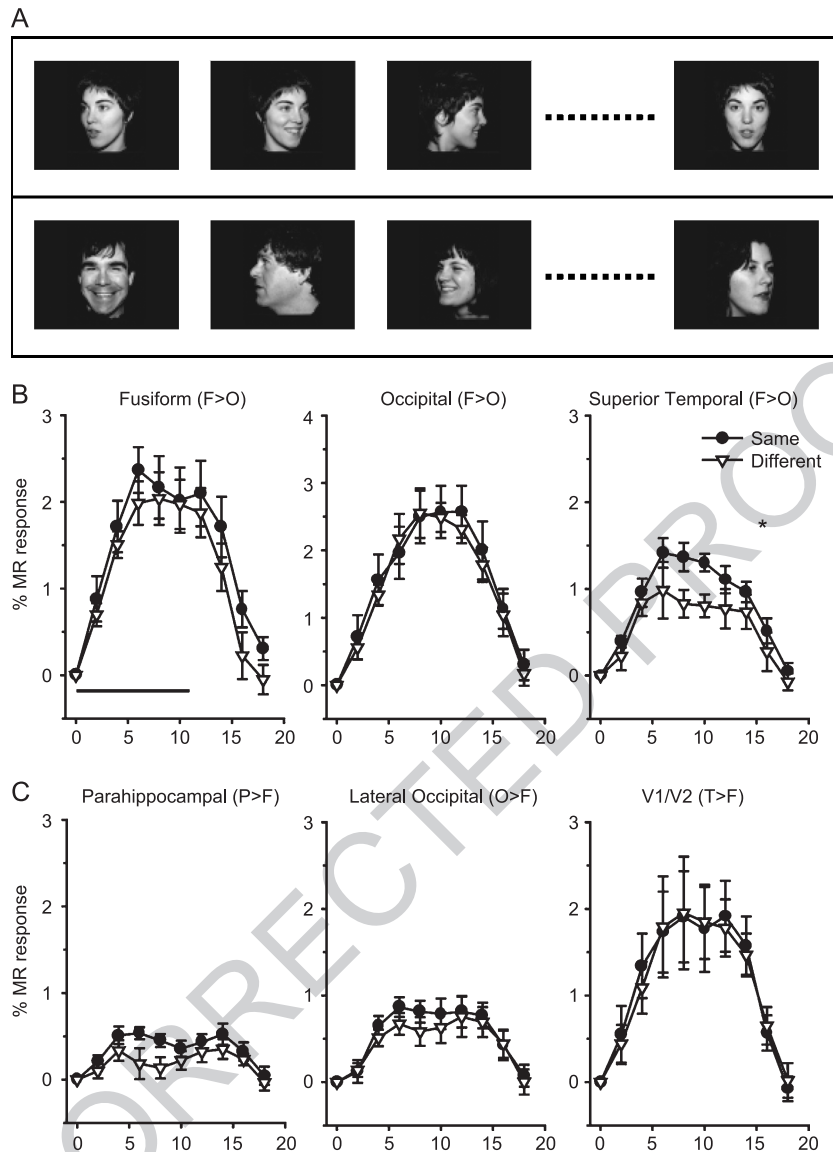


Fig. 5. Vary viewpoint experiment. (A) Examples of images from the *same-identity vary-viewpoint* (top) and *different-identity vary-viewpoint* (bottom) conditions. Time courses taken from face-selective (B) and non-face selective (C) regions were averaged across all subjects (F = face, O = inanimate object, P = place, T = texture). The horizontal bar represents the duration of the presentation. Error bars represent  $\pm 1$  standard error. \* $P < 0.01$ .

347 properties of neurons in these visual areas (Malach and Grill-  
 348 Spector, 2001). The principle behind this technique is that neuronal  
 349 populations that represent particular categories of visual informa-  
 350 tion should show a decrease in response, if the same exemplar of  
 351 that category is shown repeatedly compared to presentations of  
 352 different exemplars. Our aim was to determine which areas are  
 353 adapted by repeated presentations of the same face image and then  
 354 determine if the adaptation effect is maintained when the size and  
 355 viewpoint of the face are varied.

356 We found adaptation to repeated presentations of faces in the  
 357 face-selective region of the fusiform gyrus (FG). Next, we  
 358 determined whether the neural representation in this area is  
 359 invariant to changes in the size of the stimulus. We found that,  
 360 despite marked changes in retinal image, adaptation to repetitions  
 361 of the same face image persisted in the FG. To determine whether  
 362 adaptation in this area was also invariant to viewpoint, we  
 363 monitored the fMR-adaptation during the presentation of faces

with varying head/gaze directions and emotional expressions. 364  
 However, in this condition we found that the face-selective voxels 365  
 in the FG were sensitive to this manipulation and failed to show a 366  
 reduced response to the same identity condition. These findings are 367  
 consistent with a previous study, in which face-selective regions in 368  
 the LOC showed size-, but not viewpoint-invariant adaptation to 369  
 faces (Grill-Spector et al., 1999). A comparison of the activation 370  
 maps suggests that the LOa/pFs region from this earlier study 371  
 corresponds to the FG region (FFA; Kanwisher et al., 1997), 372  
 defined in the present study. 373

Our finding that face-selective regions in the inferior temporal 374  
 lobe form a largely size-invariant, but viewpoint-specific representa- 375  
 tion of faces also fits with other neurophysiological studies. For 376  
 example, single unit recordings of face-selective neurons have 377  
 shown responses to faces are maintained over large changes in the 378  
 size of the image (Gross et al., 1972; Ito et al., 1995; Rolls and 379  
 Baylis, 1986). On the other hand, most face cells in the inferior 380

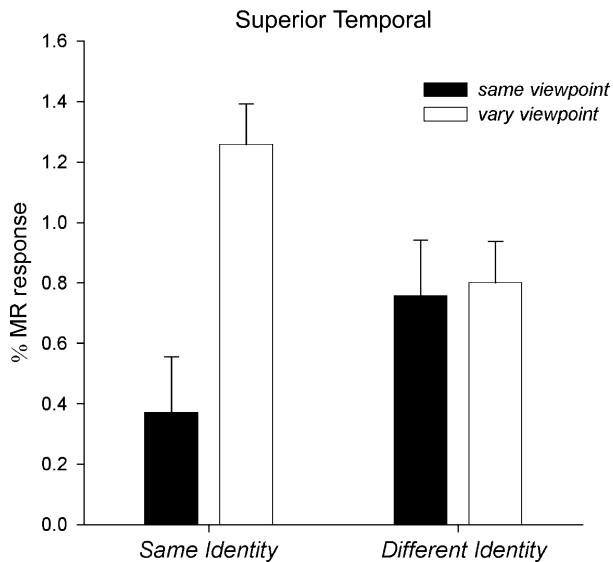


Fig. 6. Graph showing that the averaged MR response in the STS was significantly greater when the same face was viewed from different viewpoints compared to when different faces were viewed from different viewpoints. Columns represent the peak response in the different conditions averaged across all subjects and the error bars represent  $\pm 1$  standard error.

temporal lobe show selectivity for a specific vantage point and their response decreases as the view of the head is rotated (Tanaka et al., 1991; Perrett et al., 1985). Together, these data support a viewer-centered (Bulthoff and Edelman, 1992), rather than an object-centered (Marr, 1982, Biederman, 1987) representation for faces in the inferior temporal lobe. Behavioural support for this position comes from a report in which recognition of faces falls off with increasing angle of rotation from a familiar view (Hill et al., 1997). Similar viewpoint dependence has been reported for other objects (Tarr and Pinker, 1989).

In contrast to the inferior temporal lobe, face-selective regions in superior regions of the temporal lobe failed to show any adaptation to repeated presentations of the same face. In contrast, we found a larger response in the STS to the same face shown from different viewpoints compared to different faces viewed from different viewpoints. A comparable dissociation between face-selective areas has been reported recently, in which the perception of identity engaged inferior temporal regions, whereas perception of eye gaze preferentially activated the superior temporal regions (Hoffman and Haxby, 2000). In this study, we go beyond this earlier finding by showing that changes in head/gaze direction and emotional expression elicit a greater response in the STS when the face images belong to the same identity compared to when these changes occur in different faces with different identities. Because head/gaze direction and expression were randomly interleaved, it was not possible to determine the relative importance of these factors to the response in the STS. However, other neurophysiological evidence reveals that the STS is activated by changes in viewing angle (Hasselmo et al., 1989), facial expression (Perrett and Mistlin, 1990) and lip movement (Calvert et al., 1997).

One possible explanation for this difference in response across face-selective areas is that the inferior temporal regions are involved in forming a perceptual representation of the face that could be used for recognition of identity, whereas the superior temporal regions are concerned with changeable aspects of face perception that are important in social communication (Allison et al., 2000; Haxby et al.,

2000; Langton et al., 2000). This concept of face processing is supported by recent studies in which we reported that the responses of face-selective regions in the FG, but not in the STS, were predictive of whether a face had been perceived when viewing different ambiguous stimuli (Andrews and Schluppeck, in press; Andrews et al., 2000). Further evidence comes from neuropsychological studies that show damage to the inferior temporal lobe results in a selective impairment in face recognition (prosopagnosia), whereas lesions to the superior temporal sulcus affect the emotional associations related to the seeing faces (Capgras and Reboul-Lauchaux, 1923; Ellis and Lewis, 2001; Heywood and Cowey, 1992; McNeil and Warrington, 1993).

Responses to faces were not restricted to face-selective regions of visual cortex. We found that non-face selective regions of the lateral occipital lobe and parahippocampal gyrus also showed a significant response to faces. It is possible, therefore, that the processing leading to the perception of a face is not restricted to face-selective regions, but is based on a distributed pattern of neural response across a large network of visual cortex that may include 'object-selective' regions (Haxby et al., 2001; Ishai et al., 1999). To test this possibility, we monitored the MR response in these regions to repeated presentations of the same face image. Despite the fact that non-face selective regions of visual cortex responded to photographs of faces, we failed to find any adaptation to repeated presentations of the same face. Based on these data, it would appear that the neural processes that lead to face perception are specific to face-selective regions of visual cortex. This challenges the view that faces are coded by a distributed representation across all regions of the ventral visual pathway. Indeed, a recent study showed that activity in face-selective areas of the fusiform gyrus allowed excellent discrimination between faces and non-face objects, but failed to discriminate between pairs of non-face stimuli (Spiridon and Kanwisher, 2002). Consistent with this, we recently reported that object-selective regions in visual cortex were unable to discriminate the face percept when subjects viewed ambiguous mooney images (Andrews and Schluppeck, in press). Future studies will be required to determine if there are equipotent regions of visual cortex that may be involved in early stages of both face and object recognition (Grill-Spector et al., 1998; Tanaka, 1996).

In conclusion, these results suggest that face-selective regions within the inferior temporal lobe are involved in the perception and recognition of faces, and perhaps other specialised object categories (Tarr and Gauthier, 2000). Whereas the neural processing underlying other aspects of facial processing, particularly those involved in social cognition, embrace superior temporal face-selective regions. The lack of fMR-adaptation in non-face selective regions of visual cortex suggests that not all areas of the ventral occipito-temporal processing stream contribute to the processing that leads to face perception.

#### Uncited reference

George et al., 1999

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