

Human visual search behaviour is far from ideal

Anna Nowakowska

Alasdair D.F. Clarke

Amelia R. Hunt

University of Aberdeen

Corresponding Author:

Anna Nowakowska

Address and email for reader correspondence: Room T32, William Guild Building, King's
College, University of Aberdeen, a.nowakowska@abdn.ac.uk

Running Head: Human visual search behaviour is far from ideal

Author note:

Anna Nowakowska, Department of Psychology, University of Aberdeen

Alasdair D.F. Clarke, Department of Psychology, University of Aberdeen and the Department
of Psychology, University of Essex

Amelia R. Hunt, Department of Psychology, University of Aberdeen

21 **Abstract**

22 Evolutionary pressures have made foraging behaviors highly efficient in many species. Eye
23 movements during search present a useful instance of foraging behavior in humans. We tested
24 the efficiency of eye movements during search using homogeneous and heterogeneous arrays
25 of line segments. The search target is visible in the periphery on the homogeneous array, but
26 requires central vision to be detected on the heterogeneous array. For a compound search
27 array that is heterogeneous on one side and homogeneous on the other, eye movements
28 should be directed only to the heterogeneous side. Instead, participants made many fixations
29 on the homogeneous side. By comparing search of compound arrays to an estimate of search
30 performance based on uniform arrays, we isolate two contributions to search inefficiency.
31 First, participants make superfluous fixations, sacrificing speed for a perceived (but not
32 actual) gain in response certainty. Second, participants fixate the homogeneous side even
33 more frequently than predicted by inefficient search of uniform arrays, suggesting they also
34 fail to direct fixations to locations that yield the most new information.

35 Keywords: Visual Search, Optimal Behaviour, Eye Movements

36

1. Introduction

Imagine that you are searching for a red pen, and you know it could be on either of two desks. The top of one desk is clean, while the other desk is cluttered with papers, other pens, books and coffee cups. What is the most effective way to find the red pen? Common sense suggests that a glance at the empty desk should be enough to detect the target if it is present, and the observer should spend the rest, or all, of their time searching the cluttered desk. An efficient visual system would not waste any time on the clean desk.

Several models of efficient foraging behaviour (e.g. 1, 2) have been developed, against which actual foraging behaviour can be measured. In humans, optimal models of search sample information efficiently by directing eye movements to locations that yield the maximum possible information or reward (3-5). In their influential model of visual search, Najemnik and Geisler (6, 7) demonstrated that eye movements are well-described by an optimal strategy, in which each saccade during search is directed to the location that will maximise the probability of detecting a target. A few recent studies, however, contradict key assumptions of the optimal search model. Notably, observers appear to be unable to adapt their fixation strategies on a trial-by-trial basis to changes in target frequency (8), or to changes in the expected difficulty of detecting the target in the periphery (9-11).

Alternatives to optimal foraging have been proposed: for instance, selection of eye movements during search have also been shown to be well-described by a stochastic process (12). In the stochastic model, each eye movement during search is randomly selected from the population of eye movement vectors that tend to be executed from the region of the search array that is currently fixated. The apparent contradiction with an optimal process can be resolved by the possibility that a combination of experience and evolution has shaped the population of eye movement vectors to produce relatively efficient search, without the need

61 for complex calculations that must take into account information that can be difficult to
62 estimate under most circumstances, such as expected target visibility across the retina. Eye
63 movements can thereby *appear* optimal, even though the underlying process driving them is a
64 far simpler heuristic. Consistent with stochastic processes driving selection of eye
65 movements, there is some evidence that eye movements in reading follow a random walk
66 (13), at least partially (14). However, models with a degree of guidance in reading tend to be
67 favoured (for a review see 15, 16), with an emphasis on the orthographic and phonetic
68 features that contribute to fixation selection processes.

69 In summary, the optimal and stochastic search models present two very different, but
70 similarly effective, ways of explaining eye movements during search. To discriminate between
71 these two models, here we test a straightforward prediction of an optimal search model: eye
72 movements should be directed to locations that yield the most information. When faced with
73 the search array depicted in Figure 1, and instructed to search for a line oriented 45° to the
74 right, optimal observers should only make fixations to the more heterogeneous half of the
75 array. If the target were on the more homogeneous side of the array, it would be easily
76 detected using peripheral vision, making fixations to that side superfluous (details of a pilot
77 experiment checking the suitability of our stimuli are given in the Supplementary Materials).
78 If search is optimal, therefore, the proportion of fixations directed to the heterogeneous side
79 on any given trial should be 1, because inspection of the homogeneous side will provide no
80 additional information about the target location.

81 In the first experiment, we find that most participants over-fixate the homogeneous half of the
82 display at the cost of increased reaction times. There are two possible (non-conflicting)
83 explanations for this search inefficiency. First, it could reflect a failure to direct fixations in a
84 manner that maximizes information gain, which would present a direct challenge to the

85 optimal search model of Najemnik and Geisler (6). Second, participants may make
86 unnecessary confirmatory fixations on both sides of the display. To separate these two
87 plausible contributions to search inefficiency, we ran a second experiment using a mix of
88 uniform homogeneous, uniform heterogeneous, and compound arrays. Search in the
89 compound display may simply reflect an additive combination of how (in)efficiently
90 participants search uniform displays. To the extent that search in compound displays is
91 slower than predicted based on performance in uniform displays, we can conclude a failure to
92 distribute fixations optimally across the two types of search arrays also contributes to search
93 inefficiency.

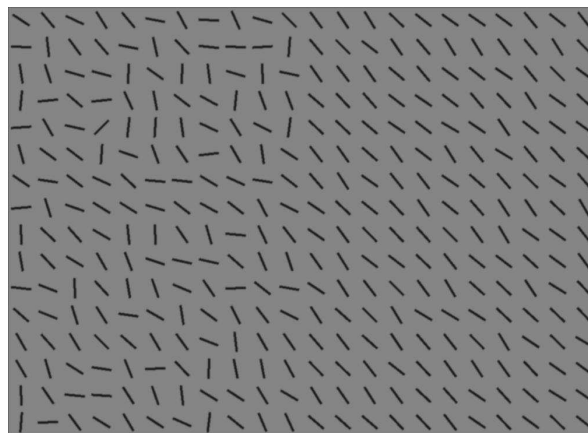
94 **2. Methods**

95 a) Participants. Each experiment had 14 participants (28 total, with females=17; age range
96 =20-62; mean age=25.3). Previous seminal experiments on this topic had a very small
97 numbers of participants (e.g. N=2 in (6); N=4 in (9)) but report results from individuals
98 separately rather than averaging them. Our sample is larger, but we maintain the approach of
99 reporting individual differences (as in (10)).

100 b) Apparatus. The display was presented on a 17inch CRT monitor with a resolution of
101 1024x768. Stimulus generation, presentation and data collection were controlled by Matlab
102 and psychophysics toolbox (17, 18) run on a Powermac. The position of the dominant eye was
103 recorded using a desktop-mounted EyeLink 1000 eye tracker (SR Research, Canada) sampling
104 eye position at 1000Hz.

105 c) Stimuli. The line segments were aligned in 22 columns and 16 rows on a uniform grey
106 background. The target line was always tilted 45 degrees to the right. The mean distractor
107 angle was perpendicular to the target angle. Search difficulty was manipulated by sampling
108 from either a narrow 30° range of distractor line orientations (“homogeneous”) or a wide 106°

109 range (“heterogeneous”). In a pilot study reported in full in the Supplementary material, we
 110 show that, when viewed while fixating screen centre, accuracy to detect the target was close
 111 to ceiling for homogeneous distractors ($96 \pm 5\%$ for target present, $89 \pm 13\%$ for target
 112 absent) and close to chance for heterogeneous distractors ($61 \pm 13\%$ for target present, $57 \pm$
 113 17% for target absent). In Experiment 1, one half of each search array consisted of line
 114 segments with a homogeneous orientation, while the other half was heterogeneous (see
 115 Figure 1 for an example). Which side was heterogeneous was random on each trial. There
 116 were 160 trials in total, half of which contained a target. The side of the target relative to the
 117 search difficulty was counterbalanced. The target could be located in any of the possible
 118 locations apart from the middle four vertical columns.



119

120 *Figure 1. Example of a compound search array. The target is a line oriented 45° to the right. The*
 121 *target is present on the heterogeneous side in this example. The heterogeneous half of the array*
 122 *is shown on the left side.*

123 In Experiment 2, the stimuli consisted of 80 homogeneous arrays, 80 heterogeneous arrays
 124 and 80 compound arrays. There were 240 trials in total, half of which contained a target. All
 125 the stimuli were displayed until the participant made a response (or timed out after 60
 126 seconds).

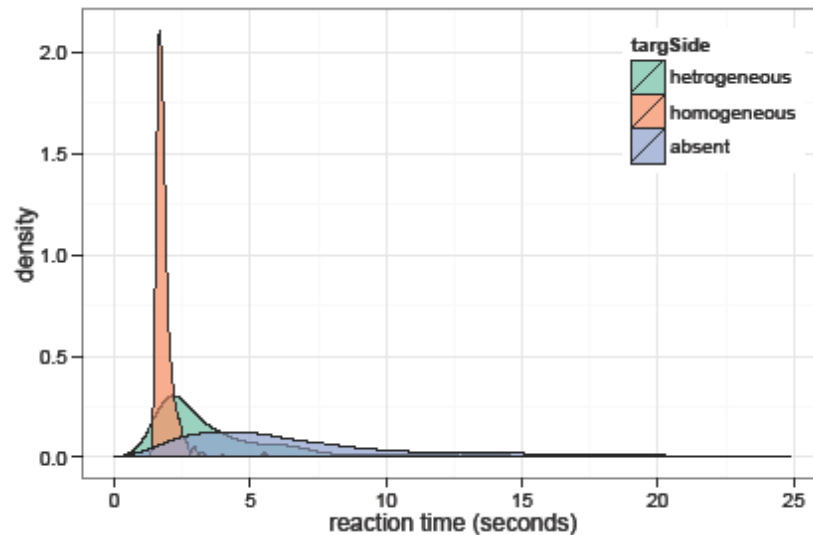
127 d) Procedure. On arrival at the laboratory each participant was asked to read and sign a
 128 consent form and was seated alone in a low-lit room. Participants were told they would see

129 line segments on the screen, and their task was to determine whether a line tilted 45° to the
130 right was present among other lines. Participants were asked to respond as quickly and
131 accurately as possible. Each trial consisted of a black fixation point (letter x) subtending
132 1.5×2.5 cm ($1.9^\circ \times 3.1^\circ$), presented at the centre of the computer screen. On the press of a space
133 bar, the stimulus was displayed until the participant made a response (or timed out after 60
134 seconds). Participants had to press either the left (present) or right (absent) arrow key.
135 Auditory feedback in the form of a beep immediately followed incorrect key presses. Before
136 the start of the experiment participants underwent a nine-point calibration sequence and a
137 block of 10 practice trials.

138 **3. Results**

139 a) Experiment 1: search efficiency in compound arrays.

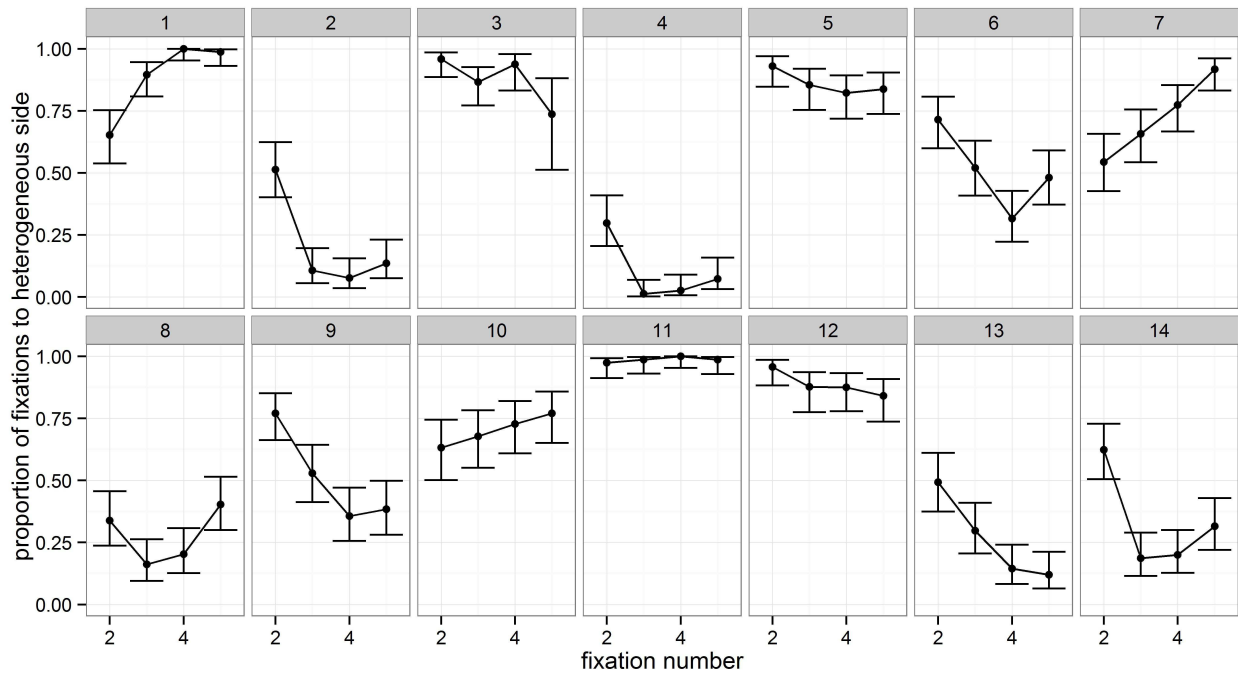
140 Reaction times (RT) for targets on the homogeneous side of the search array were faster than
141 for targets on the heterogeneous side (mean RT and SD for homogeneous ($1.75 \pm .13$),
142 heterogeneous (3.94 ± 2.19) and absent (7.0 ± 4.5) conditions). Mean accuracy for target
143 absent trials was $\approx 100\%$. For target present, participants were more accurate when the target
144 was located on the homogeneous side of the display (98.4%), than the heterogeneous side
145 (72.8%, ($t(13)=6.7$, $p<0.001$).



146

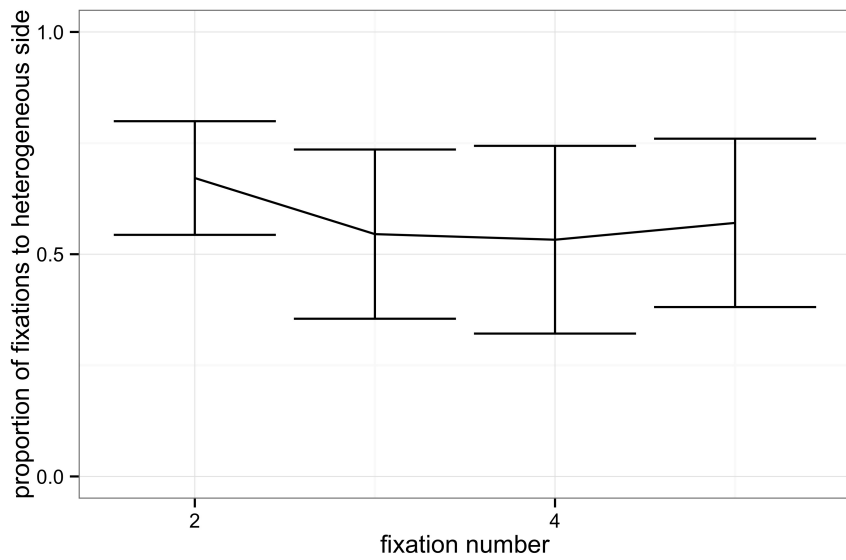
147 *Figure 2. Distribution of reaction times across conditions.*

148 Figure 3 shows the proportion of fixations each observer made on the heterogeneous side of
 149 the display **on target absent trials only**. The strictest criteria of optimal strategy in this
 150 experiment is not to look to the homogeneous side at all. (The pilot study in the
 151 Supplementary material demonstrates it can be easily ascertained whether the target is
 152 present on this side or not from the central fixation point.) Fixations on this side will provide
 153 no new information on the target's location, so participants should direct all fixations to the
 154 heterogeneous side. As we can see in Figure 3, only Participant 11 is close to executing the
 155 optimal strategy. In aggregate, our participants spend more time fixating the heterogeneous
 156 than the homogeneous side (Figure 4), but for the majority of participants a large proportion
 157 of fixations are made to the homogenous side.



158

159 *Figure 3. Proportion of the first five fixations on the homogeneous side for each observer. Only*
 160 *target absent trials are shown here. Fixations in the central region (1 degree to the left and right*
 161 *of the centre of the screen) have been excluded.*



162

163 *Figure 4. Mean proportion of saccades directed towards the heterogeneous side of the search*
 164 *array on target absent trials. Only fixations that are further than 1° to the left or right of the*
 165 *center of the display have been included in this analysis.*

166

167 Next we measured the effect of this fixation inefficiency on the search performance of each
168 participant. Inefficiency was defined as the proportion of the first five fixations made during
169 target absent trials that were directed to the homogeneous side of the display. This measure
170 was significantly correlated (see Figure 5A) with the median reaction time on target present
171 trials, both when the target was located on the heterogeneous half of the display ($r=0.93$,
172 $p<0.001$) and on the homogeneous side ($r=0.81$, $p=0.002$). These correlations are also
173 significant when taking the proportion of the first 10 fixations (heterogeneous $r=0.89$,
174 $p<0.001$; homogeneous $r=0.71$, $p=0.01$).

175 We also quantified the effect of fixation inefficiency on search time using a linear mixed-effect
176 model (using the **lme4** (19)) package for **R** (20) with random intercepts and slopes. We were
177 specifically interested in the effect of the number of homogeneous fixations on any given trial
178 on the reaction time to find the target (including participant as a random factor). For target
179 absent trials, we find an additional 357ms (bootstrapped 95% confidence interval: 196-
180 516ms) in reaction times for every fixation made to the homogeneous side of the array (see
181 Figure 5B). When the target is present on the heterogeneous side, each fixation on the
182 homogeneous side slows reaction time by 547ms. Homogenous fixations even slow reaction
183 time to find the target when it is present on the homogeneous side (by 159ms), consistent
184 with the conclusions from our pilot study (see Supplementary Information) that these
185 fixations are not necessary to find the target.

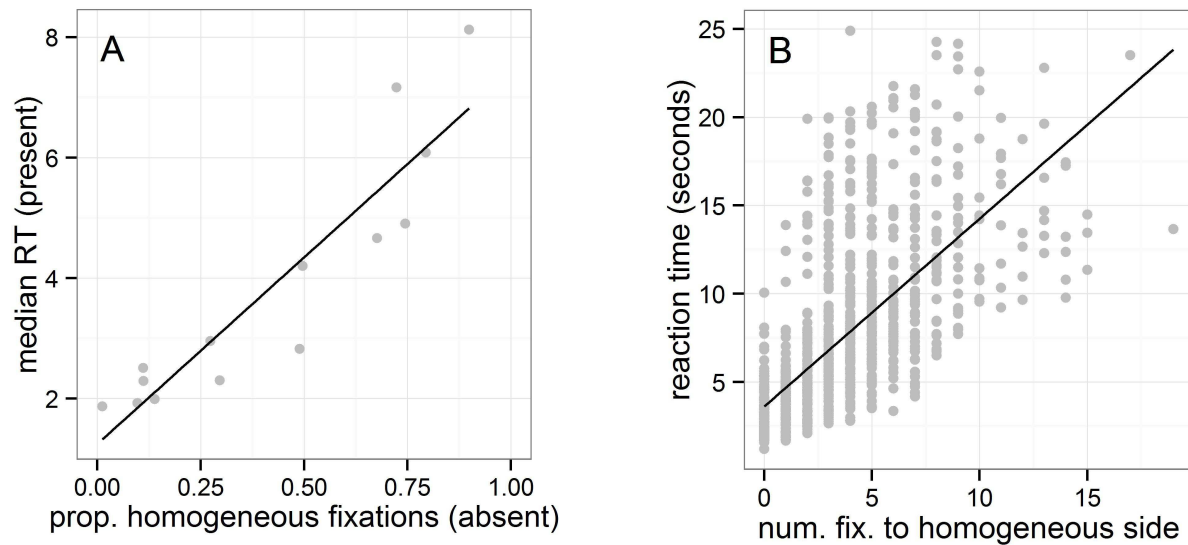


Figure 5. A. Mean reaction time on trials where the target was present on the heterogeneous side for each observer is highly correlated with the mean proportion of the first five fixations directed to the homogenous side of the display on target absent trials. B. Reaction time on each target absent trial as a function of how many fixations were made on the homogeneous side of the display. For every homogeneous-side fixation, reaction time increases by 360ms.

b) Predicting search performance on compound arrays from performance on uniform arrays.

In this experiment, participants searched uniform homogenous, uniform heterogeneous and compound search arrays. Summary of participants' reaction times and accuracy across all the conditions can be seen in Table 1.

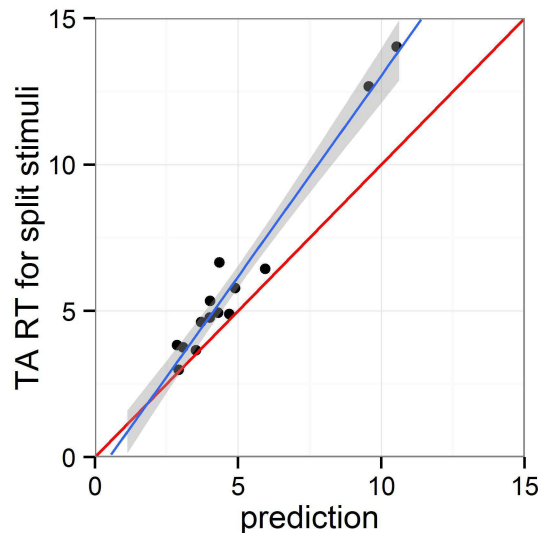
| Search array | Target Condition | Reaction Time (\pm SD) | Accuracy (\pm SD) |
|---------------|--------------------|---------------------------|----------------------|
| Homogeneous | Present | 1.77 (.13) | 97.32 (3.32) |
| | Absent | 2.84 (.73) | 97.86 (3.91) |
| Heterogeneous | Present | 3.28 (2.23) | 55.00 (20.55) |
| | Absent | 6.94 (4.55) | 93.39 (6.09) |
| Compound | Homogeneous side | 1.84 (.17) | 97.42 (4.60) |
| | Heterogeneous side | 3.42 (2.42) | 48.10 (23.99) |
| | Absent | 6.03 (3.28) | 95 (6.36) |

Table 1. Mean of the median Reaction Times (s) and mean Accuracy (%) across conditions.

193 When the target was absent, participants made, on average, seven eye movements in the
194 uniformly homogenous display before making a response. Each of these fixations can be
195 considered unnecessary, given that participants in the pilot experiment were close to 100%
196 correct with no eye movements at all. If search on compound trials is simply an (optimal)
197 combination of suboptimal search behaviour on the two types of uniform trials, then RT on
198 the compound trials should equal the average of RT on the uniform homogeneous and
199 uniform heterogeneous trials. If equal, this would suggest our participants simply sacrifice
200 efficiency to satisfy an overly conservative certainty criterion. To the extent that search is
201 slower on compound trials compared to the average of the two types of uniform trials, an
202 inflated certainty criterion alone does not explain poor search behaviour.

203 Figure 6 shows predicted and actual RT for each participant on the target absent trials. All
204 participants lie above the red line (although three are very close). This indicates that
205 participants are taking longer than predicted from the uniform trials. To quantify the size of
206 the difference, we calculated the ratio of split versus predicted RT for each participant. If
207 participants' behaviour on the compound trials matches an average of the behaviour they
208 exhibit on the uniform trials, the ratio should be around 1. The mean ratio was $1.21(\pm .15)$,
209 significantly higher than 1 ($t(13)=30.95$, $p<.001$). This additional slowing of reaction time in
210 the compound trials can be attributed specifically to an inefficiency in allocating fixations to
211 locations that yield the most information.

212



213

214 *Figure 6. The red line represents predicted RT on target absent trials (mean homogeneous and*
 215 *mean heterogeneous RT averaged together). The blue line represents the actual RT on the split*
 216 *screen trials. Most points are above the line, suggesting participants take longer on the split*
 217 *screen trials than predicted from their behaviour on the full screen trials.*

218

219 **4. General Discussion**

220 Our participants consistently failed to adopt an optimal strategy when searching a compound
 221 array with easy search on one side and difficult search on the other. In the first experiment, a
 222 large number of saccades were directed to the easy side of the display, even though the target
 223 would be clearly visible from the central fixation point if it were present on this side. Each one
 224 of these unnecessary fixations slows search substantially. In the second experiment, we
 225 demonstrated that participants also search uniform displays inefficiently, generally making
 226 many more fixations than is necessary to find the target. Although we demonstrated in the
 227 pilot experiment that the peripheral information is sufficient to decide the target is present or
 228 absent, observers may be driven to verify their peripheral estimate based on the clearer,
 229 higher-resolution visual information that can be obtained by bringing that image onto the
 230 fovea, even though this verification comes at great cost to speed. [Indeed, previous results](#)

231 suggest participants tend to make saccades even when they are not necessary (21, 22).
232 Importantly, the inefficiency of search in the compound display reflects more than an additive
233 combination of how inefficiently participants search the two types of uniform displays. The
234 additional inefficiency associated with the more complex array can be attributed to a failure
235 to direct saccades to locations that can easily be estimated to provide the most information.

236 Taken together, these experiments clearly demonstrate that a large proportion of fixations
237 made during visual search are not guided by the principles behind the optimal search model
238 (6, 7). Not only do observers demonstrate a preference for making far more fixations than is
239 required – presumably to increase their perceived certainty – but even taking these sub-
240 optimal fixations into account, fixations in the split-screen array are not directed to locations
241 that yield the most information. Participants were instructed to respond as quickly as
242 possible, and responses on target absent trials were slowed by 360ms for every fixation they
243 made on the homogenous side of the array. Nonetheless, it is possible that participants are
244 capable of searching more efficiently but, for reasons of motivation or distraction, fail to
245 implement an efficient strategy. Further research would be needed to determine the extent to
246 which reward or greater pressure speed (for example by using response deadlines) would
247 increase efficiency. It is important to note, however, that our results demonstrate an efficient
248 strategy is not the dominant or default mechanism for fixation selection.

249 What is the mechanism for fixation selection? A viable alternative to the optimal search
250 model, recently been proposed by Clarke et al (12), is that a scan-paths during visual search
251 can be modelled using a random walk. This model is consistent with the mean performance of
252 our participants, which is around 50% to each side. A largely stochastic model would predict
253 this pattern. That said, this average performance masks a large range of individual differences.
254 Indeed, one of our participants does follow the predictions of the ideal search model, and two

255 others come quite close. Similarly, the stochastic model can explain some, but not all, of our
256 individual participants. It therefore seems likely that different models will be required to fit
257 different observers. An intriguing question is the extent to which search and foraging
258 strategies are stable in individuals over time and across different contexts, shedding light on
259 the nature of the efficient foraging, as well as the constraints on fixation selection mechanisms
260 and how these are imposed. It would also be interesting to test the extent to which an
261 individual's (in)efficient foraging decisions generalise to other kinds of decisions. For
262 example, we have recently reported profound inefficiencies in decisions about how to allocate
263 resources over multiple possible goals (10). The wide range of individual differences
264 observed in both that study and the current one presents an intriguing parallel.

265 Individual differences aside, on the whole we can conclude that eye movements are not driven
266 preferentially to locations that produce the most information. These results demonstrate that
267 the processes underlying fixation selection during visual search may be more random and less
268 efficient than current popular models suggest.

269 **5. References**

- 270 1. Charnov, E. L. Optimal foraging, the marginal value theorem. *Theor Popul Biol.* 1976; 2:
271 129-136.
- 272 2. McNamara, J. Optimal patch use in a stochastic environment. *Thoer Popul Biol.* 1982; 21:
273 269-288.
- 274 3. Cain, S. M., Vul, E., Clark, K., & Mitroff, S. R. A Bayesian optimal foraging model of human
275 visual search. *Psychol Sci.* 2012; 23: 1047 – 1054.
- 276 4. Ma, W.J., Navalpakkam, V., Beck, J.M., Van den Berg, R. & Pouget, A. Behaviour and neural
277 basis of near-optimal visual search. *Nat Neurosci.* 2011; 14: 783–790.

- 278 5. Navalpakkam, V., Koch, C., Rangel, A., & Perona, P. Optimal reward harvesting in complex
279 perceptual environments. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U. S. A.* 2010; 107: 5232-5237.
- 280 6. Najemnik, J. & Geisler, W. S. Optimal eye movement strategies in visual search. *Nat.* 2005;
281 434: 387-391.
- 282 7. Najemnik, J., & Geisler, W.S. Eye movement statistics in humans are consistent with an
283 optimal search strategy. *J Vis.* 2008; 8:4.
- 284 8. Verghese, P. Active search for multiple targets is inefficient. *Vision Res.* 2012; 74: 61-71
- 285 9. Morvan, C. & Maloney, L.T. Human visual search does not maximise the post-saccadic
286 probability of identifying targets. *PLoS Comput Biol.* 2012; 8: e1002342.
- 287 10. Clarke, A.D.F. & Hunt, A.R. Failure of intuition when choosing whether to invest in a single
288 goal or split resources between two goals. *Psychol Sci.* 2016; 27: 64-74.
- 289 11. Nowakowska, A., Clarke, A.D.F., Sahraie, A., & Hunt, A. R. Inefficient search strategies in
290 simulated hemianopia. *J Exp Psychol Hum Percept Perform.* 2016; DOI: 10.1037/XHP0000250
- 291 12. Clarke, A.D.F., Green, P., Chantler, M.J., & Hunt, A. R. Human search for a target on a
292 textured background is consistent with a stochastic model. *J Vis.* 2016; 16: 4.
- 293 13. Fend, G. Eye-movements as time-series random variables: A stochastic model of eye
294 movement control in reading. *Cog Syst Res*, 2006; 7: 70-95.
- 295 14. Engbert, R. & Kliegl, R. Mathematical models of eye movements in reading: a possible role
296 for autonomous saccades. *Biol Cybernetics.* 2001; 85: 77-87.
- 297 15. Rayner, K, & McConkie, G.W. What guides a reader's eye movements? *Vis Res.* 1976; 16:
298 829-837.
- 299 16. Rayner, K. Eye guidance in reading: Fixation locations within words. *Percept.* 1979; 8: 21-
300 30
- 301 17. Brainard, D.H. The psychophysics toolbox. *Spat Vis.* 1997; 10: 433-436.

- 302 18. Pelli, D.G. The VideoToolbox software for visual psychophysics: Transforming numbers
303 into movies. *Spat Vis.* 1997; 10: 437-442.
- 304 19. Bates, D., Maechler, M., Bolker, B., & Walker, S. Package 'lme4'. *J Stat Softw.* 2015; 67: 1-48,
305 [doi:10.18637/jss.v067.i01](https://doi.org/10.18637/jss.v067.i01).
- 306 20. R Core Team. R Foundation for Statistical Computing, Vienna, Austria. 2015; URL
307 <https://www.R-project.org/>.
- 308 21. Watson, M.R., Brennan, A.A., Kingstone, & A. Enns J.T. Looking versus seeing: strategies
309 alter eye movements during visual search. *Psychonomic Bull Rev.* 2010; 17: 543-549.
- 310 22. Klein, R. & Farrell, M. Search performance without eye movements. *Percept Psychophys.*
311 1989; 46: 476-482.

312 6. Supplementary Materials - Pilot Experiment

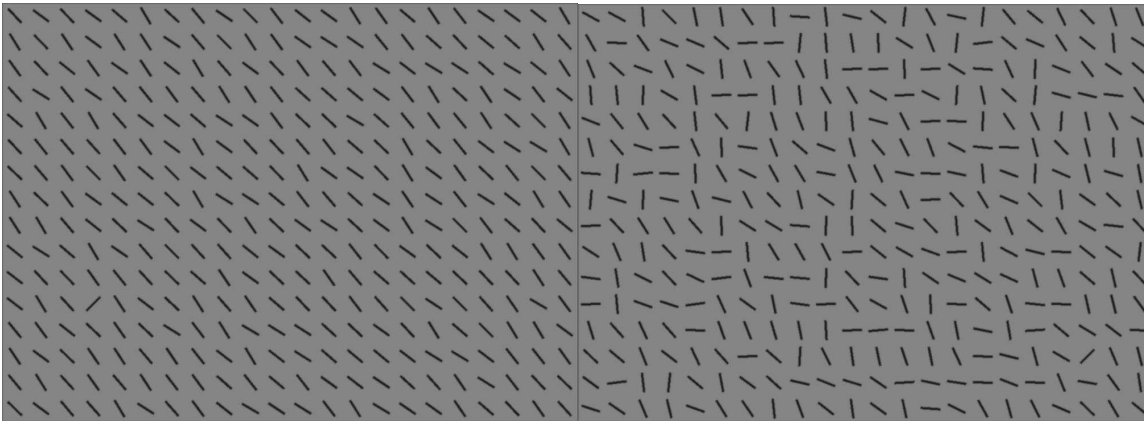
313 a) Method

314 Participants. Ten participants (females=8; age range=21-30; mean age=25) with normal or
315 corrected to normal vision completed the experiment.

316 Apparatus. The display was presented on a 17inch CRT monitor with a resolution of
317 1024x768. Stimulus generation, presentation and data collection were controlled by Matlab
318 and psychophysics toolbox (Brainard, 1997; Pelli, 1997) run on a Powermac. The position of
319 the dominant eye was recorded using a desktop-mounted EyeLink 1000 eye tracker (SR
320 Research, Canada) sampling eye position at 1000Hz.

321 Stimuli and procedure. Search arrays of line segments are illustrated in Figure 1. The line
322 segments were aligned in 22 columns and 16 rows on a uniform grey background. The target
323 line was always tilted 45 degrees to the right. The mean distractor angle was perpendicular to
324 the target angle. Search difficulty was manipulated by sampling from either a narrow 30°

325 range of distractor line orientations (“homogeneous”) or a wide 106° range
326 (“heterogeneous”). The side of the target was counterbalanced. The target could be located in
327 any of the possible locations apart from the middle four vertical columns. There were 80
328 trials, half of which contained a target.



330 *Figure 1: Example stimuli.*

331 On arrival at the laboratory each participant read and signed a consent form and was seated
332 alone in a low-lit room. Participants were told they would see line segments on the screen for
333 a very short time, and their task was to determine whether a line tilted 45° to the right was
334 present among other lines. Participants were asked to respond as accurately as possible.

335 Each trial consisted of a black fixation point (letter x) subtending 1.5x2.5cm (1.9°x3.1°),
336 presented at the centre of the computer screen. On the press of a space bar, the stimulus was
337 displayed for 200ms follow by a blank screen. Participants had to press either the left
338 (present) or right (absent) arrow key. Auditory feedback in the form of a beep immediately
339 followed incorrect key presses. Before the start of the experiment participants underwent a
340 five-point calibration sequence and a block of 10 practice trials.

341 **b) Results**

342 Mean accuracy for the homogeneous stimuli was close to 100% (96 ± 5 % for target
343 present, 89 ± 13 % for target absent), while accuracy for the heterogeneous line segments was
344 close to chance (61 ± 13 % for target present, 57 ± 17 % for target absent). When viewed from
345 a central point, our observers were close to 100% correct to detect the target in the
346 homogeneous array and close to chance in the heterogeneous array.