

# Vapplications of texture perception in the (1) ANALYSIS OF COMPLEX OPTICAL IMAGERY 

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FOREWORD

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## SECTION I <br> INTRODUCTION AND RATIONALE

This program was designed to study the role of te:ture perception in complex imagery analysis. It was aimed at developing techniques whereby texture perception can be used in imagery analysis $1 .:$ a wide variety of scientific and technical concexts; including contexts as diverse as medical imagery screening, aerial surveillance, and solar chweiving.

In visual screening of imagery, the coserver usually has the option either of scanning the dicplay in a highly fucu: : search for critical details, or of looking more casually at the display to gain an impression of its general configuration and texture. Which option he chonses depends on the situation, which may often require a combination of the two. For example, in screening a smear of exfoliated cells for evidence of cancer, a cytotechnician will follow both options. It:e whole configuration and texture of a smear may provide relevant information because it can have in it residual evidence regeriting histological strecture of the parent tissue, which may be significantly altered if the tissue is malignant.

The textural analysis is followed by a search for critical details, such as an occasional cell with a very large nucleus. The textural analysis may serve mainly to set the tone of the detailed scan, affecting the intensity and pattarn of scanning. It can make the observer nore or less suspicious that the parent tissue is malignant and more or less suspicious that certain regions in ?ie smear may contain critical signs of disease.

A two-stage approach to imagery screening is probably also common in aerial surveillance tasks as well, although not yet tested. Here, the critical details sought in the imagery may be such features as tanks or crucks, but the search for these details may be toned by impressions of the overall configuration and textures in broad regions of the display.

The same combination of dicfuse and detailed analysis may occur in solar cbserving as well (Pickett, 1971). The solar osserver scans a very complex telescopic display of the sun, trying to predict, or at least quickly detect, occurrence of a solar flare. His attention is focused on such critical cues as the shape and position of a filament ifing close to an active sunspot region. But, he may also rely on diffuse impressions of the configuration of the active region as a whole. Here, however, the combined strategy may not be del.iverately chosen. The observer may fall into it with experience, without being able to justify it or even articulate what he is doing. As Firor and Liliequist (1965) phrase it, the experienced observer may ultimately rely on "a certain feeling:" on a recognition of characteristics of the active region that "often go unrecorded excer' in his raind."

Our concern in this study is the possibility of harnessing these diffuse texturai and configurational analyses in a more positive way, so that they can contribute to imagery analyses, not just in sotting the tone of the search for critical details, but in providing information in their own right, information that can be separately interpreted and related to other parameters of the phenomena under study. There is ample evidence that the human observer can
sense shifts in a wide variety of texture variables (Pickett, 1968, 1970). When psychometrically tested, he can produce discriminating and reliable assessments. Further, by pooilng subjective reports over a number of observers, the assessments can be made more precise, and in many situations the grouped data may be useful in detecting and scaling a texture quality which iraividual obscrvers would never confidently report.

The degree of precision that can be achieved in subjective assessments of texture is illustrated in a study by the author (Pickett, 1967). Figure i shows the computer-generated texture that the observers had to assess. The quality of coarseness that obviously varies over the three samples is controlled and specified in terms of the transition probability of a Markov pracess that assigned dots or spaces to adjacent cells across the rows of the matrix.

The observer's task was to assess the texture in individual samplea generated at various values of transition probability (TP), and to indicate whether the texture was more or less EVEN than the criterion generated at TPm.5. The observers were told nothing about the generating process but were simply shown the criterion (MEDIUM) and the two extremes (COARSE and EVEN), as shown in Figure 1, and then allowed to work. Typically they took less than 2 seconds to process each sample, and from that fact alone we can suspect that they relfed on a casual impressionistic analysis. The results, pooled over 20 observers, are shown in Figure 2. The relationship that it shows between probability of the response "EVEN" and transition probability is remarkably sensitive and systematic.

Immediately relevant to the present discussion, though not the alm of that study, is the possibility of using response probability as a subjective measure of texture. If, for example, we lost the label from one of the test samples and needed to find out what its transition probability was, we could have pat it in fro:t of our subjective measuring devices (our 20 observers) and had then make repeated independent assessments of its evenness witiin the confines of that psychometric task. Then, if the response probability turned out to be, say . 85 , we could have concluded, with a practical degree of confidence, that the transition probability of the patch was close to . 36 . Such is the potential for precise psychometric assessment of a texture variable.

Clearly, subjective measures of texture with this aegree of precision could be scientifically and technically useful. For those many situations where automated texture analysis is beyond the state of the art, or economically prohibitive, the human observer might serve very well as the texture analyzer. For any particular problem area, it would take exploratory studies to determine whether observers could see any textural properties in the imagery that might contribute to the analysis. Then, where that was the case, psychometric tasks would have to bc developed that focused assessments on the texture qualities of interest and provided appropriate response media for reading out the resulting impressions.

## 1. AN ILLUSTRATION OF TEXTURE PERCEPTION IN SOLAR IMAGER: ANALYSIS.

The psychometzic approach is illustrated in some studies of texture perception in the context of solar observing, recently reported by the author (Pleketi, 1971). The aim of these studies was to determine whether there were any


Figure 1. Examples of Markov Texture Generated in a $120 \times 120$ Matrix. The actual displays used were negatives of this and had considerably less sharpness of detail. (From Pickett, 1967).


Figure 2. Response Probability. Group performance function showing the probability of EVEN responses as a function of $T P$ for discriminations of Markov texture in a $120 \times 120$ matrix. (From Pickett, 1967).
visible changes in the texture of active solar regions related to the imminence of a solar flare. The observers were college students, untrained in solar physics, unaware of the problem of flare prediction, and unaware that they were examining pictures of the sun. They were shown pictures of active sunspot regions at three points in time; 9,5 and 1 minute prior to the occurrence of a flare. In exploratory studies, conducted in a classroom setting, observers were asked to assess the texture of the active region along three dimensions, called: ABRASIVENESS, PACKABLENESS, AND SWIRLINGNESS. These dimensions were selected arbitrarily, 1 to serve simply as a way of getting the observers to assess the texture in a variety of ways, one of which might prove relevant.

One of the requirements in this psychometric approach to imagery analysis is to program each observer to carry out as nearly as possible the same perceptual task. What we seek is a situation in which precision is gained by pooling the responses of individual cbservers so that a desired level of precision is converged upon as the numbe: of pooled observations is increased. If the observcrs are not well-coordinated, the number of observations required to achieve a discrimination at a desired level of precision may be economically prohibitive for routine screening operations. It is important, therefore, to sharply focus the analysis of each individual observer and to devise an explicit standardized task so that pooled responses converge quickly to the desired level of precision. Hence, we attempted to make explicit perceptual operations ${ }^{2}$ for each observer to follow in making his judgments of the solar imagery.

In judging the three texture qualities, the observers were instructed to consider that the object they saw in the pictures (the solar disc) was actually about two feet in diameter, thus guiding each of them to see the object at the same scale. With regard to ABRASIVENESS, they were asked to imagine rubbing -heir fingers over the surface in the active sunspot region, and to estimate arom the way it looked how abrasive it would feel in that tactual operation. Then they wert to rank order the three time samples for each flare sequence in terms of that anticipated tactual sense of abrasiveness. To assess PACKABLENESS, they were asked to imagine dipping their hands into the material in the region of the sunspot, withdrawing a handfui, and packing it like a snowball. The quality of SWIRLINGNESS was not operationally defined. They were simply asked co judge that quality based on their own individual operations.

The data showed that the observers, as a group, could sense a change in texture between nine and five minutes prior to a flare. The same statistically significant pattern of ranking was found with respect to all three qualities,

1. In this situation as well as most others, there may be some nonarbitrary approaches. One approach is to look to theoreticians for suggestions about relevant textural dimensions. Another approach is to get hunches from experienced observers.
2. This term was chosen to suggest an analogy between operational definitions of objective measures and operational defiritions of subjective ones. Every subjective measure would have to have an operational definition to be scientifically useful.
leading to the added conclusion that the observers were probably responding to a shift in the same underlying property, perhaps to a shift in a quality akin to photographic clarity or SHARPNESS.

Data from a subsequent study (Pickett, 1971) aimed spectically at the assess ment of image SHARPNESS reveal statistically significant effects consistent with those earlier conclusions. The results from that study, shown in Figure 3, provide evidence that detail in active regions tend to sharpen between nine and five minutes prior to a flare and then return to a duller state just before a flare occurs.

## 2. DEVELOPING PSYCHOMETRIC METHODS FOR IMAGERY DESCRIPTION.

Our studies of the application of texture perception in solar imagery analysis provide some evidence that the move can be made from theory to practice. They also heıp to point out two steps that have to be taken. The first is to find a language of textural description appropriate to the specific application. In the exploratory studies mentioned above, we chose the descriptions arbitrarily, but as we pointed out, there are some nonarbitrary ways, one of which is to get hunches of relevant textural descriptions from experienced observers. The next step is to carry out psychometric tests to determine the reliability, validity, manipulability, and cost of the proposed subjective texture analyses. We consider points relevant to each step here in brief general discussions. In the other two sections of this report we show how we have taken each step in applying subjective texture analysis to a specific problem in medical imagery screening.

As we undertook the work described in Section II, we had in mind several ideas about the role of language in pattern perception. We had first :.n mind that there is abundant evidence to support the view that language affects what a person sees (Gibson, 1969). The usual explanation is that the observer rarely abstracts all the information in a pattern in the process of recognizing or discriminating it, that language can affect which part he takes and, accordingly, affect what he sees. Descriptive labels presumably bias the way the observer looks at the pattern, how he scans it and what feature he notices.

Another explanation of the effect of language, perhaps more pertinent to the present discussion, is that language may affect how the optical information is processed. Processing the information in a pattern may be compared to processing the information in a table of numbers. There are obviously many ways that the data in the table can be processed to obtain a descriptive abstract. Even if the observer were to take into account the great bulk of features in an image, as we suggest in the process of texture perception, he may have alternate ways of processing that data that are determined by language. In our solar imagery studies, we considered such a possibility, and attempted to program the observers to process the same texture data; one way with the ABRASIVENESS instruction, and another way with the PACKABLENESS instruction.

Another point we had in mind was that language may affect perception by keeping the observer's descriptions more or less close to his phenomenal experiences. For example, the author has been fascinated to find solar observiers describing a change in brightness of a feature on the solar disc as a movement. What they mean is that the change in brightness is due to a Doppler shist which,

Figure 3. Psychometric Evidence of a Visible Change in the Texture of Active Regions Shortly Before Occurrence of a Sular Flare. Data from subjective impressions of image SHARPNESS at three points in time preceding a flare, for: (a) active regions; and (b) inactive regions on the same frame of the film record. Also shown is the expected index, if SHARPNESS varies randomly over time and is unrelated to flare occurrence. Based on data from Tables 5 and $;$ in Pickett (1971).
in turn, indicates that the feature is moving vertically. This is a good example of a situation that is probably very common in many scientific and technical contexts where language of theory displaces the language of phenomenal experience. In this particular example from solar observing, it poses no problem beyond confusing neophytes, but in other situations such translations may pose serious problems; for example, problems in training. Instruction about relevant dimensions and features of the imagery could become so steeped in theoretical language that teachers and students alike might lose some capacity to talk about what the display really looks like in phenomenal terms.

The translation could be ultimately problematical, of course, if the theory underlying the theoretical descriptions was wrong. For psychologists, this problem is perhaps most succinctly described by referring to the classical issua of the stimulus error, i.e., describing the stimulus in terms of its logically expected properties as opposed to describing the actual phenomenal experience.

Another important consideration was selecting languages compatible with the basic iunctions of texture perception. In previous reports (Pickett, 1968,
1970) the author has suggested that texture perception may serve the basic purpose of providing impressions of substance, structure, and perspective in the terrestrial visual worid. If so, then tie most efficient way to harness texture perception may be to frame the imagery processing task into some kind of substantive or structural deacription of the image. This view has rempered, but not dominated, the otherwise empirical approach.

As far as the work covered in Section III is concerned, the general consider:tions were largely traditional for the kind of psychometric studies reporied there. With the language work completed and the observers equipped with appropriate perceptual operations, the next step is to evaluate their performance. This is done in the same general sense that one would test an objective measuring device. First, there is the need to establish whether the observers can discriminate variations in the imagery under study and do chat reliably. Next is the need to determine whether their discriminations are valid, in the sense of relating to properties of the phenomenon being displayed that are of scientific or technical interest. Then, it would be important to see whether their analyses can be finely tuned or focused in systematic ways to maximize sensitivity to the relevant textural variations. Finally, there is the need to check on effects of several factors peculiar to the human observer, namely; learning, motivation and fatigue. Each of these aspect.s of performance can be evaluated in appropriately designed psychometric studies, and several are, in fact, corsidered in the work reported in Section III.

SECTION II STUDIES OF THE LANGUAGE OF TEXTURE PERCEPTION IN MEDI'AK!, THAGERY SCREENING<br>(Psp Smear Description)

Detection of dizease through microscopic inspection of smears of exfoliated tissue has been recognized as an invaluable cilnical technique (Koss, 1968). Its increasing routine use in medical examinations accounts for a large part of the phenomenal growth in the workload of medical laboratories over the last 20 years. This technique capitalizes on the fact that dead cells, shed from tissue, can provide evidence of disease in the tissue from which they were shed. To study the cells under a microscope, tiney are sineared over a microscope silde and then stained and fixed in a vari.cy of ways, most commonly by the Papanicolaou (1954) method (Pap smear;.

What is particularly valuable about Pap smears is that they provide a way to study the condition of internal organs without surgical exploration because exfoliated cells accumulate in acceasible body fluids that derive from a number of organ systems. This technique is particularly valuable in searching for evidence of cancer, and while it is useful in detecting that disease in a number of organ systems, including the stomach and lungs, it has proved to have its greatest use in the detection of uterine cervical cancer. The screening of Pap smears for this purpose alone has become a task of enormous and growing proportion.

Pap smear screening is primarily a matter of visual assessment of the cellular specimers under a microscope. They appear as masses of cellular designs characterized by various qualities of coloring, shape and arrangement (see Figure 4). Through extensive training and on the job experience, cytotechnicians learn how to scan and interpret such visual patterns to detect and identify disease in the sampled tissue. The technique may have its personalized variations, but typically the screener starts with comprehensive analysis of the display, which we refer to here as prescreening, and then goes on ro more detailed and localized analyses.

Prescreening serves two multifaceted functions. One function is to provide a basis for tempering subsequent detailed interpretations of the display by taking into account the conditions under which the specimen was taken and prepared. Variations in the conditions may have effects on the appearance of the specimens that are unrelated to the presence or absence of disease and so detailed interpretations have to be tempered by taking those normal variations into account. The other function is one of gaining some general feelings or hunches about whether the sampled tissue is normal or abnormal. The basis for such hunches may be very difficult for the screener to express in purely visual terms, let alone justify in terms of medical theory. Yet those hunches may have a practical degree of validity in themselves, and undoubtedly have effects on the detailed scanning that follows.

Our concern in the ensuing work here, and in Section III, was to see whether we could sharpen and enrich the prescreening assessment through appropriate psychometric techniques. The aim of Study $I$ was to determine whether cytotechnicians had a consistent language for describing background qualities
relevan to the presence or absence of disease. In Study IJ we asked naive observers to describe the appearance of Pap smears to check whether cytotechnicians were describing properties of the inage as they saw it or whether their


Figure 4 A Microscopic View of a Papanicolaois Smear of Uterine Jissue, Photonicregraphed at 100x.
descriptions were based on other scientific and techni 1 knowledge privy to them as professionals.

## 1. STUDY I. A SURVEY OK THE ADJECTIVES USED BY CYTOTECHNICIANS TO DESCRIBE THE OVERALL APPFARANCE OF YAF SMEARS

a. Subjects. The subjects were 38 cytotechnicians (including 10 students) working in hospital laboratories in the Boston area who served voluntarily and without pay. Forty cytotechnicians were contacted; two declined taking the test.
b. Method. The test was administered in the form of a questionnaire consisting of a checklist of 62 adjectives. The subjecte were asked to work on the questionnaire independently, checking each adjective as a visitle or nonvisible quality in the overall appearance of a smear seen at 100 x magnification. For an adjective checked as visible, the format called for an additional categorization with respect to whether: (a) it suggested the sinear was
negative, (b) it made them suspicious or (c) it suggested the smear vas positive. The questionnaire is included with this report as Appendix A. The data were tabulated to determine for each adjective the number of subjects who checked each of the possible categories. (The data from categories $b$ and $c$ were pooled.) We then identified each adjective in which there was a statistically significant preponderance of votes in one or another of the categories.
c. Selection of Adjectives. Several of the adjectives were suggested in prior discussions with a cytologist. Most of them, however, were chosen trom a much longer list of adjectives; an early version of the lexicon included with this report as AppendixB. We tended to choose adjectives that would be descriptive of apparent substantive and mechanical properties of the material. This tendency was largely dictated by the consideration, mentioned in Section $I$, of the basic function of texture perception. We assume that one of the natural and reflexive responses of the visual system to any complex display is to provide immediate impressions of its substantive and mechanical meanings. These impressions, we assume, are what provide the observer in the normal terrestrial environment with a physical sense of objects in his immediate field of view and which provide, in real time, a basis for safe and efficient physical behavior. Textural impressions, we assume, are answers to implicit questions raised and answered automatically in a context of chronic uncertainty about the immediate physical environment, an uncertainty which is shared by all observers, scientifically sophisticated and naive alike, and which is largely unaffected by an intellectual understanding that the display has no environmental significance (see Pickett, 1968, 1970 for furtner discussion).
d. Results. The results are shown in Table I. Listed are each of the adjectives which received a statistically significant majority of votes by a Binomial test ( $p<.05$, two-tailed) in each of the possible categories.
e. Discussion. Perhaps most informative is the surprisingly large number of qualities which the observers claim are visible ( 32 out of 62) and relate to the presence or absence of cancer ( 21 out of 32). Also of possible significance is the fact that there are a greater number of positive than negative descriptions. But, perhaps most relevant to che present aim is the possibility of abstracting several qualitative dimensions for psychometric study. The approach was to make several obvious pairings between the positive and negative lists in the visible category, e.g.:

|  | Negative | Positive |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :---: |
|  | Calm | - Explosive |  |
|  | Clean | - Dirty |  |
| Qualitative dimension | Consistent | - Variable |  |
|  | Dull | - Bright |  |
|  | Loose | - Tight |  |
|  | Transparent | - Opaque |  |

In this way several dimensions of textural description presented themsel.ves for psychometric study. Others, like the quality Pliable-Extrudabie, which placed in neither the visible nor the nonvisible catagory, were chosen by the author for psychometric study on the basis of his own hunches.
TABLE I
RESULTS OF A WORD SURVEY ON A SAMPLE OF CYTOTECHNICIANS Agreed on, by the majority Not agreed by those who said either positive or negative
Cohesive
Compact
Fatty
Filmy
Fragile
Granular
Lustrous
Shrunken
Shiny
Spongy
Waxy

Creamy
Doughy
Droopy
Slippery
Starchy
Brittle
Elastic
Floating
Milky
Oily
Pasty
Rubbery
Sticky

## 2. STUDY II. A SURVEY OF ADJECTIVES USED BY NAIVE OBSERVERS TO DESCRIBE THE overall appearance of pap smears.

The aim of this study was to give a test to naive observers, equivalent to that administered to cytotechnicians, so that we could compare their descriptive languages. As noted in Section I, it is probable that professional observers contaminate descriptions of their phenomenal experiences with descriptions based on other theoretical and technical knowledge of the phenomenon under study.
a. Observers. The observers were 47 undergraduates in two psychology classes at Northeastern University, 24 in one class and 23 in the other. They participated in the survey as a class exercise.
b. Method. The 24 students in one class were shown views only of negative Pap smears while 23 students in the other class saw similar views, only of positive smears. Each of the observers was given a checklist containing the same 62 adjectives used in Study I, but in this case the format callea only for classifications of visible and nonvisible. They were asked to study the pictures that were shown, and then to check those adjectives only with respect to whether they were descriptive of visible or nonvisible qualities. The subfect matter of the pictures was not described to them in any way, and they were asked to avoid any discussions among themselves about the pictures. Inquiries after the test revealed that many of the students felt sure they were looking at microscopic displays, and some were sure they were looking at biological specimens of some kind. None mentioned any knowledge of Pap smears or Pap smear screening.
 that of a large number of professional observers, very experienced from looking at thousands of such pictures, who also had taken this test. They were also told that the professional observers had selected about half of the words as describing a visible quality in pictures of this kind. Then they were told that they would be paid, on the basis of their individual performance, $2 c$ for each case where their classification was in agreement with the professional observers. They were actually scored in terms of their agreement with the statistically significant classifications shown in Table I. The data were analyzed in the same way as in Study I.
c. Stimuli. The stimuli wert wior photomicrographs taken from selected regions on 20 different Pap smears obtained from one of the local teaching hospitals. They had been previously screened in the cytology laboratory for evidence of uterine cancer with 10 of the smears classed as positive (squamous carcinoma) and 10 negative. The smears were standard preparations on microscope slides, photographed in color at 100x magnification. Photographs were made of 10 systematically selected areas on each smear according to the plan shown below:


Thus, there was a working sample of 100 negative and 100 positive inages which were prepared as 35 mm projection transparencies, and used for all the srudies described in this report. From one study to the next the same smears were used, but the particular views were varied. In this study views 3, 4, 5, 6, 7 and 8 were used. The 60 images (six views of 10 negative or 10 positive smears) were shown two at a time on a screen at the front of the classroom, by use of two Kodak Carousel projectors. The sequences were arranged such that a different smear was represented in each of the paired views, and the 10 smears were represented on each sequence of 10 . The 60 images were cycled continuously as the test proceeded, with each pair displayed for approximateiy 10 seconds. The test was completed in one class hour.
d. Results. Wherever the mafority of the observers in both groups agreed on the same word, we pooled their data. If the majorities did not agree, we treated their data separately. If a word received a statistically significant majority ( $p<.05$, two-tailed) in one way or another, it is listed in Table II. In the top row of Table II are those words agreed upon by a majority in both the positive and the negative group to be visible qualities of the Pap smears. There was one word, "creamy," where the majorities did not agree but where the separate and oppositely voting majorities were statistically significant.
e. Discussion. Perhaps the most interesting finding is that there is considerable disagreement between the naive and professional observers. (The asterisked words in Table II are those on which they disagree.) The naive observers say, in disagreement with the cytotechnicians, that "doughy" and "slippery" describe visible qualities of Pap smears. This may only mean that the cytotechnicians see these qualities but use other words to describe them. On the other hand, there are interesting possibilities that the cytotechnicians do not see these qualities or, if $t$ tey do, that for one reason or another, they inhibit describing them. If the latter situation is true, then the cytotechnician may be inhibiting descriptions of qualities that are potential discriminators. We have one possible example of that here with the quality, "creamy."

In row two of Table II we see that the naive observers claim that "consistent," "dirty," "dull;" "lustrous," "regular," "tight," and "waxy" do not describe visible qualities, whereas the cytotechnicians say they do. Again, this may be due to differences in use or meaning of these words. On the other hand cytotechnicians may be reading into smears qualities which are not there but which they are led to believe are there from other knowledge acquired in their professional experience.

Our interpretation of these findings has to be tempered by at least three general considerations. Even if there were no real effects in the data, we would expect to find statistically significant effects at the $5 \%$ levei about 5\% of the time. Perhaps more important, the sample of positive and negative smears that the naive observers based their judgments on may be far from typical of the vastly larger sample of smears that the cytotechnicians based their judgments on. Finally we need to consider limitations on the adjective checklist. It certainly is not an exhaustive, nor ever a representative list, of all adjectives which ..int be useful for describing smears. A thorough language inventory would -e uire a comprehensive checklist and the approach would be to take a series of surveys beginning with a survey of general categories of description and ending with a survey of fine distinctions within
TABLE II


 *Waxy
**Significant at the $5 \%$ level assuming equiprobability of assignment to the two alternative
those categories found to be relevant. The development of a lexicon of visual descriptions would be the first step in that direction, which we have since attempted to take (see Appendix II). Despite the limitations, however, these studies exemplify a systematic ayproach tc an invenicry, and they did yield productive leads for the studies reported in Section III.

SECTION III PSYCHOMETRIC STUDIES OF TEXTURE PERCEPTION IN MEDICAL IMAGERY SCRTENING<br>(Prescreening Pap Smears)

The studies reported below are an attempt to put into praciice the ideas outlined in Section I. The immediate goal is to determine whether there is any potential for practicas applications of texture perception in prescreening Pap smears for evidence of cancer.

There are several ways to carry out psychometric tests of subjective qualitative descriptions. A comprehensive treatise on paychometric mechods is provided in Guilford (1954) and two approaches are illustr ted in Section I of this report. Here we take yet a third approach employing a set of standardized subjective scaling tasks. The observers are instructed to focus their attention on the imagery in various ways to gain impressions of particular texture qualicies. They then indicate the degree of the quality that each image has by assigning it a number on a scale from 0 to 9 . Their subjective measures are then run through statistical analyses to evaluate reliability and validity. Some comparisons of effects across studies also provide evidence of the effects of instructions and training.

We report three studies, coded in the report as Studies III, IV, and V. In each study the observers make several individual textural assessments of the same set of positive and negative smears. In Study III, naive observers make six textural assessments. In Study IV, other naive otservers make four assessments, two of which are the same as in Study III, except for minor variations in scale format and instructions. In Study $V$, the observers are student cytotechnicians who make the same judgments and carry out the same tasks as the naive observers did in Study IV. In Test 1 of Study $V$, we report assessments made by those students on their first day of training, so that, at that point, they too can be considered naive observers. In Test 2 of Study $V$, we report their assessments in an identical test made after six months of classroom and on the job training.

## 1. GENERAI METHOD .

Group testing techniques were employed. Wheie the observers were college undergraduates, they took the test as part of a classroom exercise. The general approach was to show pictures of smears in the form of 35 mm slides, which were projected on a screen at the front of the group testing room. Each slide was a partial view of a smear photomicrographed at 100 x . Over the series of slides, the observer saw several different views of 10 positive and 10 negative smears. Each slide was displayed for approximately 12 seconds, during which time the observer was reguired to make two separate texture appraisals, and mark the subjective sca? number derived from those appraisals on an answer sheet. Depending on the study, the observer went through the whole set of slides two or three times to make all of the required appraisals which were counterbalanced to control the effects of fatigue, i.e., half of the appraisals of a particular quality were made in the first part of the test and half in the last part of the test.
a. Stimuli. The stimuli were the same ones described in Section II 2.
b. Data Reduction $x i i$ Analysis. The general approach to data reduction is to determine the mean subjective scale value for each smear over all views and all observers. The first step in data analysis is to perform statistical tests of reliability. For each individual study, evidence of reliability is indirectly assessed by computing a matrix of Spearman Rank Order correlations (see Siegel, 1956, pp. 203-213) for all possible pairings of dimensions. A significant correlation is considered evidence of reliability in the sense that, if observers were unreliable in their individual assessments, it would preclude the interobserver consistency required for such a correlation. Direct estimares of reliability are made in two situations, where the mean scale values derived from separate studies could be correlated.

The second step in data analysis is to perform tests of validity. In each of the studies we first look for differences between positive and negative smears in distribution of the mean scale reading for each dimension. We employ MannWhitney $U$ tests to determine the statistical significance of those differences.

We next consider the possibility that differences between positive and negative smears might be evident in interactions between dimensions; their distribution in 2-space is now examined. The data are first plotted in each of the 2-spaces formed by all possible pairings of the dimensions and then the plots are inspected for evidence of separation between positive and negative smears. The tendency to sefarate is defined by the following objective procedure: (1) A straight line is drawn through the space in such a way that the smears are maximally separated, i.e., divided into the most unlikely partition, in the sense of Fisher's exact test (see Bradley, 1968, pp. 195-196); and (2) Those spaces are accepted as indicating evidence of separation if the probability of the partition is less than $p<.05$, two-tailed. Note that this probability measure is not preserted as an index of the true probability of the partition, but merely as an objective criterion of separation. Statistical significance of the separation has to be sought in determining the likelihood of its repeated independent occurrence.

Beyond these two basic tests, there are a number of comparisons between performance on positive and negative swears where differences can be treated as evidence of validity. For example, a systematic difference between positive and negative smears in consistency or reliability would indicate that the observer in some sense saw the positive smears differently than the negative smears. Such comparisons are made where appropriate.

## 2. STUDY ITI. A PSYCHOMETRIC EVALUATION INVOLVING SIX DIMENSIONS OF TEXTURE ASSESSMENT MADE BY NAIVE OBSERVERS.

In this study the observers assessed background qualities along six dimensions: DIRTINESS and DULLNESS of the scent as a whole; EXPLOSIVENESS and LOOSENESS of clusters of cells in general; and DOUGHINESS and BRITTLENESS of cells in gnepral. Each of these dimensions was defined by a pair of words suggested in Stud: I, representing extreme positions along the dimension. No anchor points, sucti $s$ the position of common objects along the scale were provided, nor was any unit of measurement provided. Aside from general directions on how to proceed and guidelines regarding the three levels of analysis, no perceptual
operations of any kind were suggested. The observers were left to their own devices and had to develop their perceptual operations independently. The primary aim of this study was to establish a base line of task definition, a level beyond which, presumably, one could improve periormance by providing explicit perceptual operat.uns.
a. Observers. The observers were 24 undergraduistes nt Northeastern University, untrained in cytology, who volunteered to participste in the experiment as part of a class exercise in a psvehology course on perception.
b. Method. Views 1, 3, 4 and 8 were used as the stimuli. The first 20 presentations, View 1 from each of the 20 smears, was a practice run. The next 60 presentations (Views 3, 4 and 8 ) were test stimuli. Within each sequence, views of the positive and negative smears were randomly ordered and the sequence of 80 views was presented three times. For half of the observers, the first time through the 80 presentations they made Scene analyses, the second time through, Cluster analyses, and the third time through, Cell analyses. For the rest of the observers the order was reversed (Cell, Cluster, Scene). Discarding the practice sequence, each observer made a total of 60 judgments (three for each of the 10 positive and 10 negative smears) on each dimension.
c. Instructions. The observers were told: (I) That the experiment was aimed at harnessing "natural" perceptions for scientific and technical purposes; (2) That they would be looking at some tissue photographed through a microscope; (3) That some of the slides would be from patients who had cancer and some from healthy controls; (4) That the test would be tedious and they did not have to participate (a few of the students did choose to take that option and left before the experiment started); (5) That the experimenter would be back to explain further about the experiment and show them the results.

The observers were then supplied with answer sheets and the scaling format shown in Table III. The levels of analysis were illustrated by pointing out features on several sample views of the smears. They were asked to make the two assessments at one level of analysis of each view each time it was presented and to indicate their assessments of each view by marking on the answer sheet the positions that they felt it occupied on the appropriate scales. No definitions or criteria regarding the dimension or the assessment procedure were provided beyond what was evident in the scaling format. Each observer had to determine his own criteria and perceptual operations and apply them independently.
d. Results. The mean scale value for each smear, averaged over all views and observers, is shown in Table IV.

Evidence of Reliability. If the observers were assigning scale values to the smears randomly and independently, we would expect homogeneity among the mean scale readings in Table IV with the scores tending to be near a scale value of 4.5. Inspection reveals, to the contrary, considerable variability both within and between dimensions, providing our first subjective indication that the assessments probably are discriminating and reliable. The inhomogeneities between dimensions suggest that the observers are doing different things in analyzing the different dimensions, but doing those different things with sufficient consistency from one observer to another for the inhomoge-


TABLE IV
MEAN SUBJECTIVE SCALE VALUES (STUDY III)
EXPLOSIVE-
Slide Positive Smears

2

9
12

18
19
24
26
38

45

3
4
5

7
10
11

13
14

16

20
5.74
5.57
5.18
4.77
5.44
5.99
6.36
6.72
6.00
5.67
4.74
4.92
4.30
.38
4.55
4.78
4.92
5.55
4.17
5.38
5.67
3.81
5.39
4.99
3.93
5.06
2.56
4.45
3.64
3.16
3.93
4.35
5.08
4.55
4.12

Negative Smears
5.86
5.23
4.59
4.63
4.74
4.54
3.99
4.56
4.92
3.07
4.11
3.65
4.11
3.73
5.59
3.88
5.96
3.67
4.80
4.10
4.31
5.90
6.33
3.63
5.81
6.63
5.61
4.16
4.44
3.78
2.26
2.07
4.46
3.77
neities to become apparent．The same can be said for the inhomogeneities with－ in dimensions．They suggest that the observers see differences among the smears but see those differences with sufficient consistency from one observer to another for the inhomogeneities within dimensions to become apparent．

Our first step in providing objective evidence of these effects is to compute correlations between dimensions，pointing out that significant correlations would not be expected to occur unless the observers were seeing differences among the smears and seeing those differences in consistent fashion from smear to smear and dimension to dimension．The matrix of correlations between dimen－ sions in Table $V$ shows that there is a statistically significant correlation between LOOSENESS and EXPLOSIVENESS in both negative and positive smears；a significant correlation between EXPLOSIVENESS and DIRTINESS in the negative smears and between EXPLOSIVENESS and DOUGHINESS in the positive smears．Be－ yond those particular effects，there is general evidence of consistency in the fact that 14 out of 15 cells above the diagonal have matching eign counter－ parts below the diagonal．This similarity in patterns of correlation between the two sets of data is further indirect evidence of reliability．

Evidence of Validity．We sought evidence of validity first by conducting Mann－Whitney $U$ tests of difference in distribution between the mean scale value for positive and negative smears．There were no statistically significant ef－ fects．

The next step in testing validity was to plot the data in all possible 2－spaces． We then inspected those plots for evidence of separation of positive and nega－ tive smears，in the sense described in the General Method section（III－1b）． Oniy three of the 15 possible 2－spaces provided such evidence，and they are shown in Figure 5.

TABLE V
SPEARMAN RANK ORDER CORRELATIONS BETWEEN DIMENSIONS（STUDY III） （Correlations for positive smears lie above the diagonal； those for negative smears lie below）

|  | $\begin{aligned} & \infty \\ & \text { か } \\ & \text { 号 } \\ & \text { H } \\ & \text { 品 } \\ & \end{aligned}$ |  | W 苟 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 | $\begin{aligned} & 0 \\ & 0 \\ & 0 \\ & 0 \\ & 0 \\ & 0 \\ & 0 \\ & \mathbf{N} \end{aligned}$ |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| DIRTIMESS | －－ | ． 38 | ． 54 | －． 38 | ． 57 | ． 14 |
| DULLNESS | ． 54 | －－ | －，20 | ． 25 | －． 21 | －． 09 |
| EXPLOSIVENESS | ．72＊ | －． 05 | －－ | －．83＊＊ | ．64＊ | －． 18 |
| LOOSENESS | －． 35 | ． 36 | －．80＊＊ | －－ | －． 20 | ． 39 |
| DOUGTiINESS | ． 35 | －． 08 | ． 49 | －． 46 | －－ | ． 25 |
| BRITT」ENESS | ． 52 | －． 39 | －． 34 | ． 33 | －． 16 | －－ |

[^0]In each case, inspection of the plot revealed the possibility of drawing a straight line through the space, which would partition most of the negative from most of the positive smears. For example, in the 2 -space defined by EXPLOSIVENESS and LOOSENESS, 10 out of 10 positive smears lie above the line and eight out of 10 negatives lie below the line. If repeated tests with other smears showed that a boundary drawn through the space in this same way repeatedly described the same form and degree of separation, then such a boundary could prove useful in prescreening. Any smears falling above the line could be considered more suspicious than those falling below the line and, hence, to be treated to a more thorough evaluation in subsequent screening.
3. STUDY IV. A PSYCHOMETRIC EVALUATION INVOLVING FOUR DIMENSIONS OF TEXTURE ASSESSMENT MADE BY NAIVE OBSERVERS EQUIPPED WITH RUDIMENTARY perceptual operations and scaling anchors.

In this study another group of naive observers assessed four texture qualities in the Pap smears: OPACITY, EXTRUDABILITY, EXPLOSIVENESS and LOOSENESS. The procedure was similar in all respects to that followed in Study III, except that in this study the observers were provided with a more deïinite task and some rudimentary perceptual operations.
a. Observers. The observers were 70 young women, all untrained in cytology, and students at Northeastern University in programs for nursing or dental technology. They participated voluntarily as part of a class exercise in an Introductory Psychology course.
b. Methoi. The observers assessed the texture qualities in six views ( 1,2 , $4,5,6,8$ ) for each smear. Views 1 and 2 were for practice. A counterbalanced design was employed to control effects of fatigue. The observers practiced scaling OPACITY and EXTRUDABILITY on views 1 and 2, and then were tested with views 4 and 5. They then practiced scaling EXPI OSIVENESS and LOOSENESS on views 1 and 2 and were tested with views $4,5,6$ and 8 . They then were retested on OPACITY and EXTRUDABILITY, scaling views 6 and 8. Discarding the practice sequences, each observer made a total of four assessments on each smear for each dimension.
c. Instructions. In addition to the same general instruction provided in Study III, the observers were given the following brief definitions of the dimensions while the experimenter pointed to relevant features in sample views of the imagery:
(1) OPACITY is a quality of see-throughness. Water is transparent. If a material is opaque you can't see any light through it.
(2) EXTRUDABILITY is a quality that makes a material deform and flow when it is squeezed. Think of the cells as about as big as your hand. How would they feel if you picked them up and squeezed them. Would they extrude like a pancake, or would they crumple up like Saran ${ }^{(1)}$ wrap?
(3) To assess EXPLOSIVENESS, think of the way the material was laid down. Were the cells shot explosively into their locatinns, or were they

## gently wafted into place?

(4) STICKINESS is a quality that nakes a material cling to itself. Think of Saran ${ }^{\circledR}$ wrap. It clings to itself. Cellophane stays loose. Think of the cells as about as big as your hand. Think of picking up some that are lying together. Would they cling to each other? How would it feel to pull them apart?

The scaling format, shown in Table VI, was also different from that used in Study III with anchor points of familiar materials added to two of the dimensions.
table VI
FORMAT FOR SCALING TEXTURES (STUDY IV)

| 1 | Transparent | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | Opaque | 1 |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 2 | Pliable | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | Extrudable | 2 |

d. Results. The mean scale value for each smear, averaged over all views and all observers, is shown in Table VII.

Evidence of Reliability. Inspection of the data in Table VII reveals a degree of inhomogeneity, both within and between dimensions, which suggests that the observers are assigning scale values nonrandomly and with some degree of consiscency from observer to observer. We refer to the discussion in the results of Study III for an outline of the logic behind that inference. We again seek indirect but objective evidence of consistency in correlations between dimensions. A matrix of Spearman Rank Order Correlations is presented in Table VIII, which shows significant correlations in all cases.

Beyond that general interpretation, we can also point out that there is a greater proportion of pairs of dimensions in this study than in Study III that are significantly correlated. This could be because the variations along the two new dimensions tested here are more discriminable. It could also be due to the fact that the assessments are more precise here, due to two factors: (1) The observers based their judgments on four views of each smear here, whereas in Study III they based their judgments on only three views, and (2) There were nearly throe times as many observers participating. These factors both add up to each assessment being based on nearly four times as

## table VII

mean subjective scale values (STUDY IV)
slide
OPACITY
EXTRUDABILITTY
EXPLOSIVENESS
LOOSENESS
Positive Smears
2
9
12
5.22
4.31
4.32
3.88
5.93
4.87
5.64
5.12
5.18
5.84
4.93
5.04
5.40
4.73
4.97
4.60
5.06
4.76
5.25
4.56
3.78
5.59
5.28
4.96
5.01
3.37
5.05
5.10
5.50
4.17
5.23
5.22
5.36
4.38
5.53
4.47
5.22
6.32
3.19

Negative Smears

| 3 | 5.20 | 5.09 | 5.14 | 4.18 |
| ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | :--- |
| 4 | 4.62 | 4.96 | 4.81 | 4.27 |
| 5 | 4.63 | 4.95 | 4.97 | 4.94 |
| 7 | 5.64 | 5.25 | 6.18 | 3.25 |
| 10 | 4.63 | 4.91 | 4.97 | 4.80 |
| 11 | 5.44 | 4.97 | 5.45 | 4.06 |
| 13 | 5.29 | 5.11 | 5.61 | 4.37 |
| 14 | 4.99 | 4.90 | 4.88 | 4.62 |
| 16 | 5.28 | 5.12 | 5.63 | 3.92 |
| 20 | 5.61 | 5.33 | 5.87 | 3.63 |

## SPEARMAN RANK ORDER CORRELATIONS BETWEEN DIMENSIONS (STUDY IV)

 (Correlations for positive smears lie above the diagonal; those for negative smears lie below)|  | -苞 |  | EXPLOSIVENESS |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| OPACITY | -- | .74* | .74* | -. 78** |
| EXIRUDABILITY | .79** | -- | .66* | -.83** |
| EXPLOSIVENESS | . 92 *** | .90*** | $\cdots$ | -.69* |
| LOOSENESS | -.78** | -.85** | -.82** | -- |

[^1]many individual assessments ( 280 to 72 ). We also have to consider that the observers here were provided with rudimentary perceptual operations, and anchor points on two of the scales. Each of these factors could also have contributed toward increasing precision of the subjective estimates. But to determine whether the overall record of relfability is better here than in Study III because of greater discriminability along the dimensions or more precise assessments would require further study.

Evidence of Validity. We again sought evidence of validity, first through Mann-Whitney U Tests which revealed no statistically significant difference between positive and negative smears on any of the four dimensions.

The next step in testing validity was so plot the data in all possible 2spaces. We then inspected these plots for evidence of separation in the manner described previously in the general method section. Three of the six possible pairings gave evidence of separation and are shown in Figure 6. In each case inspection reveals that a straight line, drawn through the space, can partition most of the negative from most of the positive smears. The implications for these separation schemes, if they were to prove reliable, have already been discussed for similar results in Study III.

Evidence of Effects of Instructions and Anchor Points. We look first at the effects of a variation in instructions. In Study III, the observers were

left to define and evaluate EXPLOSIVENESS in their own individual ways. In this study they were given a definition which provided them with a standard way of visualizing EXPLOSIVENESS. The effect of this variation in instructions is tested by a Wilcoxon matched pairs signed ranks test (Siegel, 1956, pp. 75-83). In that test, the mean scale values of EXPLOSIVENESS for each of the negative smears obtained in Study III were paired with those obtained in this study. The same test was made on the positive smears. There was no statistically significant difference between assessments of the positive smears, but assessments of the negative smears were significantly effected ( $T=5, p<.02$, two-tailed). The same smears tended to get higher assessments of EXPLOSIVENESS in this study than they did in Study III. The most likely cause of this effect is the change in instructions. However, different observer populations were involved, which might also account in whole or in part for the effect. Whatever the case, this result demonstrates how sensitive these assessments can be to task or observer variables. This could either indicate unreliability or suggest the positive quality that these assessments can be shaped by means of observer selection, instructior and training.

In an examination of the combined effects of a difference in instructions and a difference in anchor points, the observers were given: (1) a definition of LOOSENESS, (2) a rudimentary perceptual operation for assessing it, and (3) anchor points on the 10 point scale. We looked for statistically significant effects, again using a Wilcoxon matched pairs signed ranks test. No statistically significant difference was found for the positive smears, but assessments of the negative smears were significantly affected ( $T=7 \mathrm{p}<.05$, two-tailed). The same smears tended to get higher ratings of LOOSENESS in this study than they did in Study III with the most likely causes of this effect the changes in instructions and scaling format. But, again, this interpretation has to be tempered by consideration of differences in the observer populations.

## 4. STUDY V. A PSYCHOMETRIC EVALUATION OF FOUR DIMENSIONS OF TEXTURE ASSESSMENT MADE BY CYTOTECHNICIANS EEFORE AND AFTER TRAINING.

The observers in this study were student cytotechnicians. We had an opportunity to study their performance both before and after training. In each test they performed the same task as in Study IV, except that they saw two more views of each smear. This study examines the performance of a small group of highly motivated observers and the effects of training on their performance.
a. Observers. There were 10 observers, students in the Boston School of Cytotechnology who participated in the study voluntarily as part of their lıaining.
b. Method. Views 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7 and 8 were used as the stimuli. Views 1 and 2 from each of the 20 smears were used for practice. Other than the addition of Views 3 and 7 to the test series, the procedure was the same as in Study IV. Test 1 was administered on the first day that the students attended classes at the Boston School of Cytotechnology with Test 2 administered approximately six months later, after the students had largely completed their classroom studies and were training on-the-job in cytology laboratories at several hospitals in the Boston area.
c. Results of Test 1 . The mean scale value for each smear, averaged over all viewe and all observers, is shown in Table IX.
(1) Evidence of Reliability. The data in Table IX reveal, as they did in the previous studies, a degree of irhomogeneity that indicates the observers were not responding randomly, and which provides evidence of a certain degree of inter-observer consistency. Oijfective, but still indirect evidence of reliability is presented in Table X, which shows Spearman Rank Order Correlations between dimensions.

Statistically significant correlations occur in eight cases. A comparison of the correlation matrix obtained here in Study V, Test 1 with that in Study IV reveals a greater proportion of statistically significant coxrelations in Study IV, probably because each assessment here is based on only 60 observations in contrasc to 280 in Study IV. Therefore it appears that there are detectable effects on the reliability of performance due to changing the number of observations, at least four-fold. It is important to note also that this effect was probably attenuated by two factors: (1) the observers in Study V, Test 1 saw two more views of each smear than the observers in Study IV and (2) the observers in Study $V$, Test 1 had some vested interest in what they were doing and were probably highly motivated.

Direct evidence of reliability is avallable in correlations between the mean scale values obtained in this study and those obtained in Study IV. Spearman Rank Order Correlations were computed for positive and negative smears sepaxately and are shown in Table XI.
(2) Evidence of Validity. Mann-Whitney $U$ Tests revealed no statistically significant differences between distributions of the mean scale values for positive and negative smears. The data were next plotted in all possible 2-spaces, and evidence was sought, in the plots, of separation of positive and negative smears. Following the procedure outlined in the General Method section herein, five spaces were found in which separation occurred as shown in Figure 7.
d. Results of Test 2 (After Six Months Training). The mean scale values for each smear, averaged over all views and all observers, are presented in Table XII.

Evidence of Reliability. The same observations can be made regarding inhomogeneities between and within dimensions that were made in previous discussions. They imply a certain degree of consistency over observers. We turn again to correlations be:-sen dimensions for objective evidence of consistency with Spearman Rank Order Correlations between ail possible pairs of dimensions shown in Table XIII. In all but one case, the correlations are statistically significant.

It is also possible to obtain direct evidence of reliability by correlating the mean scale values obtained here, with those obtained in Test 1. The indices of reliability are shown in Table XIV. In a pure sense the assessments made in the two studies are not independent and the legitimacy of the measure of reliability could be questioned. For all practical purposes, however, they probably are independent, since it is very unlikely that observers, in taking

## TABLE IX

MEAN SÜBJECTIVE SCALE VALUES (STUDY V, Test 1)

| Slide \# | OPACITY | EXTRUDABILITY | EXPLOSIVENESS |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | LOOSENESS

Negative Smears

| 3 | 5.13 | 5.33 | 5.15 | 4.13 |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 4 | 4.57 | 4.17 | 4.87 | 4.35 |
| 5 | 3.10 | 4.08 | 3.90 | 6.25 |
| 7 | 3.53 | 4.85 | 5.88 | 4.08 |
| 10 | 4.48 | 4.53 | 4.00 | 5.38 |
| 11 | 5.65 | 5.50 | 5.62 | 2.52 |
| 13 | 3.85 | 5.28 | 4.75 | 4.55 |
| 14 | 6.40 | 6.18 | 5.67 | 2.07 |
| 16 | 4.30 | 4.66 | 6.00 | 3.12 |

TABLE X
SPEARMAN RANK ORDER CORRELATIONS BETWEEN DIMENSIONS (STUDY V, Test 1)
(Correlations for positive smears lie above the diagonal; those for negative smears lie below.)

|  | $\begin{aligned} & \text { H } \\ & \text { H } \\ & \text { 呙 } \end{aligned}$ |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| OPACITY | -- | . $88 * * *$ | . 44 | -.71* |
| EXTRUDABILITY | .79** | -- | .64* | -.79** |
| EXPLOSIVENESS | . 29 | . 58 | -- | -. 90 *** |
| LOOSENESS | -. 53 | -.78** | -.89*** | $\cdots$ |

[^2]TABLE XI

RELIABILITY OF MEAN SCALE READINGS BETWEEN STUDY IV AND STUDY V, Test 1. (Spearman Rank Order Correlations)

|  | Positive Sm |
| :--- | :---: |
| OPACITY | $.81 * * *$ |
| EXTRUDABILITY | $.65 *$ |
| EXPLOSIVENESS | .53 |
| LOOSENESS |  |
| *Significant at $\mathrm{p}<.05$, one-tailed |  |
| **Significant at $\mathrm{p}<.01$, one-tailed |  |
| ***Significant at $\mathrm{p}<.001$, one-tailed |  |



Figure 7. Fitentially Useful Decision Boundaries for Identifying Suspicious Smears in Prescreening. The straight line drawn through each space partitions most of the positive from most of the negative smears. The number of positive and negative smears falling above or below the decision boundary are shown in a $2 \times 2$ table. (Study V, Test 1)

TABLE XII
MRAN SUBJECTIVE SCALE VALUES (STUDY V, Test 2)
Slide \#
OPACITY EXIRUDABILITY EXPLOSIVENESS

LOOSENESS
Positive Smears

| 2 | 7.33 | 7.52 | 6.72 | 2.73 |
| ---: | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 9 | 5.67 | 6.28 | 5.02 | 4.23 |
| 12 | 4.63 | 5.47 | 5.17 | 4.67 |
| 15 | 3.47 | 4.55 | 3.75 | 5.92 |
| 18 | 5.63 | 6.65 | 6.17 | 2.57 |
| 19 | 4.28 | 5.53 | 4.80 | 4.77 |
| 24 | 4.57 | 5.67 | 5.98 | 3.72 |
| 26 | 5.68 | 6.58 | 6.30 | 3.28 |
| 38 | 6.72 | 7.02 | 6.28 | 3.05 |
| 45 | 6.78 | 6.88 | 3.61 |  |

Negative Smears

| 3 | 6.27 | 6.55 | 5.30 | 4.12 |
| ---: | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 4 | 4.32 | 4.40 | 4.74 | 5.27 |
| 5 | 4.38 | 5.02 | 3.80 | 5.22 |
| 7 | 3.46 | 4.62 | 5.35 | 5.07 |
| 10 | 3.90 | 3.85 | 3.45 | 6.07 |
| 11 | 5.60 | 5.90 | 5.80 | 3.47 |
| 13 | 4.93 | 5.48 | 4.78 | 5.17 |
| 14 | 3.50 | 3.72 | 4.08 | 5.83 |
| 16 | 7.00 | 7.00 | 5.70 | 2.70 |
| 20 | 4.17 | 4.93 | 5.47 | 4.65 |

TABLE XIII
SPEARMAN RANK ORDER CORRELATIONS BETWEEN DIMENSIONS (STUDY V, Test 2) (Correlations for positive smears lie aboye the diagonal; those for negative smears lie below.)

|  |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| OPACITY |  | . $92 * * *$ | .82** | -.73* |
| EXTRUDABILITY | . $91 * * *$ |  | . 86 ** | -.88*** |
| EXPLOSIVENESS | . 45 | .65* |  | -. $90 * * *$ |
| LOOSENESS | $-.68 \div$ | -. $88 * * *$ | -. $92 * * *$ |  |
| *Significant at $\mathrm{p}<.05$, two-tailed **Significant at $p<.01$, two-tailed |  |  |  |  |
| ***Significant at $p<.001$, two-tailed |  |  |  |  |

TABLE XIV
RELIABILITY OF MF;AN SCALE READINGS BETWEEN STUDY V, TEST 1 AND STUDY V, TEST 2
(Spearman Rank Order Correlations)

|  | Positive Smears | Negative Smears |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| OPACITY | .78** | .80** |
| EXTRUDABILITY | .76** | .76** |
| EXPLOSIVENESS | .73* | . 88 *** |
| LOOSENESS | . 38 *** | .89*** |
| *Significant at p < . C5, one-tailed |  |  |
| **Significant at $\mathrm{p}<.01$, one-tailed |  |  |
| ***Significant | one-tailed |  |

Test 2, could remember what the smears looked like and how they assessed them in Test 1. Note, in comparing these indices with those in Table XI, that we are correlating assessments made by the same observers in Table XIV and different observers in Table XI.

Evidence of Validity. Mann-Whitney $U$ tests were performed to determine whether there were any statistically signfficant differences in mean scale values between positive and negative smears. They revealed a difference in only one case where assessments of EXTRUDABILITY on positive smears are higher than on negative smears ( $p<.05$, two-tailed). This variable suggests itself, therefore, as a valid discriminator of positive and negative smears.

We next sought evidence of separation in plots of the data in all possible 2-spaces. Evidence of separation was found in four cases shown in Figure 8.

Evidence of the Effects of Training. Two effects of training are evident from Wilcoxon tests of difference in distribution between the mean scale values in Test 1 and Test 2 , which reveal differences in positive smears on two dimensions. After training, the eame smea:s receive lower assessments of OPACITY and EXTRUDABILITY ( $p<.001$, two-tailed, in both cases). Another effect of training is suggested in is comparison of the correlation matrix in Table XIII with that in Table X. There is a greater number of statistically significant correlations between dimensions in Study V, Test 2 than in Study V, Test 1 and in every case but one (in which there is a tie) the correlation indices are higher in Study $V$, Test 2 than in Study $V$, Test 1 , suggesting that training tends to increase reliability of the assessments.




Figure 8. Potentially Useful Decision Boundaries for Identifying Suspicious Smears in Prescreening. the negative smears. The number of positive and negative smears falling above or below the decision boundary are shown in a $2 x 2$ table. (Study $V$, Test 2)

SECTION IV
SUMMARY OF RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The most firmly established and general finding is that observers can reliably discriminate and scale variations in several qualities of the total appearance of smears seen at low microscopic power. Evidence of reliability has been presented in each study in the form of a matrix of correlations between dimensions and we give, in Table XV, a summary of the significant correlations that were found in each of those matrices. It shows that there were eight pairs of dimensions that correlated significantly in one or another study,

TABLE XV

## SUMMARY OF SIGNIFICANT CORRELATIONS BETWEEN DIMENSIONS FOUND IN EACH STUDY


in either the positive or the negative smears. Two of those cases (EXPLOSIVENESS X DIRTINESS and EXPLOSIVENESS X DOUGHINESS) were only tested once, in Study III, and in each case the correlations did not occur in both the positive and the negative smears. The evidence of reliability of judging DIRTINESS and DOUGHINESS is, therefore, marginal. In the other six cases there were multiple tests, and the same direction of correlation was repeatedly found in both the positive and the negative smears. These six cases were made up of combinations of four dinensions: EXPLOSIVENESS, LOOSENESS, EXTRUDABILITY and OPACITY. We conclude that variations along those four dimensions definitely
are correlated, and that observers can reliably see and scale variations along each of those dimensions. The evidence of correlations within dimensions presented in Tables XI and XIV provide additional and consistent evidence of reliability. We can see an obvious similarity of assessment across the three groups of observers, and that permits the generalization that similar assessments would be made by other similarly constituted groups of observers. We can also see similar patterns of correlations in two independent groups of smears, the 10 positive and the 10 negative, which provide a slim but clear iasis for generalizing this result to all smears.

Evidence of validity was sought in each study; first with Mann-Whitney $U$ tests of difference between positive and negative smears on individual dimensions, and second with tests of separation in 2-space. In only one of the MannWhitney $U$ tests performed over the three studies was a statistically significant difference found between positive and negative smears. That difference, positive higher than negative on the EXTRUDABILITY dimension was found in Scuay $V$, part 2. In view of its probability ( $p<, 05$ ) and the total number of tests performed (18), that difference could reasonably be attributed to chance.

A summary of the tests of separation in 2-space is presented in Table XVI, with each separation coded for the form it assumed. In general, the decision boundary is drawn through the long axis of the scatter plot, and within each 2-space, then, it has roughly the same orientation from one experiment to the next, but the proportion of positives and negatives which fall above and below the line can vary. Each separation can be characterized as having the majority of positive smears above or negative smears below the decision boundary (coded 1), or vice versa (coded 2) (see Table XVI).

There were eight spaces in which separation occurred, and six of those spaces were subjected to repeated tests. To establish whether these separations might reasonably have occurred by chance, we considered first that if positive and negative smears were randomly mixed in the scatter plots, then separations of the kind we have defined would be expected to occur less often than not. We have, therefore, selected .5 as a conservative upper bound on the chance probability of separation. We also considered that if separations were a matter of chance, when they did occur they would assume one or the other form with equal probability. Our statistical analyses are based, therefore, on the following chance probabilities for the outcome of each experiment:

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\text { no separation, }(0), & p(0)=.5 \\
\text { separation of form } 1,(1) & p(1)=.25 \\
\text { separation of form } 2,(2), & p(2)=.25
\end{array}
$$

Based on these probabilities, separation in any individual experiment would not be significant ( $p<.5$, two-tailed), but evidence of refeated separation could be significant. We proceeded therefore to determine ti.e probability of each set of results obtained in the repeated tests. Table XVI shows, for example, that separation was found in the LOOSENESS X EXPLOSIVENES: space in three out of four experiments. There were two separations of form $i$ and one of form 2. We calculated the chance probability of obtaining a sequence with
at least that number of separations and with at least that proportion of more or less frequent form (consistency of separation). This was achieved by determining the combined probability of the following sets of possible results, 11 any order: 1111, 1112, 1110, 1120

$$
\begin{aligned}
& p(1111)=.25^{4} \times 1= \\
& p(1112)=.25^{4} \times 4= \\
& p(1110)=.25^{3} \times .50 \times 4=.0156 \\
& p(1120)=.25^{3} \times .50 \times 12=\frac{.0312}{.1444}
\end{aligned}
$$

The two-tailed probability is then determined by doubling that combined probability. Thus, for a set of results with at least the number and consistency of separations found for the LOOSENESS X EXPLOSIVENESS space, the probability of chance occurrence is $p<.29$. This same method of calculation was applied to each set shown in Table XVI, and the associated probabilities are shown at the right.

We can conclude from the analysis that there is at least one space, LOOSENESS X EXTRUDABILITY, in which positive smears probably do separate from negative smears. The evidence in sum, though based on a very crude test of separation, warrants the conclusion that subjective assessments of the overall appearance can separate positive from negative smears in our small test sample. We have to be cautious, however, in generalizing that conclusion to all smears $A$ confident generalization would have to depend on evidence from studie. employing a much larger sample of snears. The important point, however, is that observers can reliably sense and scale variations in the overall appearance of smears, and if some of those variations do relate to the presence or absence of cancer, it is simply a matter of more extensive studies of the kind reported here to identify them.

With regaid to other findings from these studies, comparisons between experiments were also made to check on various effects of instructions, scaling format and training. Several findings are presented in the results sections of Experiments IV, V, Test 1 and V, Test 2. Statistically significant differences in performance between Experiments III and IV were found that were probably due to differences in instructions and scaling frimat. A drop in reliability between Study IV and Study V, Test 1 was interpreted as caused by a four-fold decrease in the number of assessments per smear. Greater reliability in Study V, Test 2 over Study V, Test 1, also other differences in scaling, were attributed to the effects of training.

We consider now implications of these findings for the specific problem of interpreting and screening Pap smears. Psychometric assessments of the kind we report here may help in providing more sensitive and quantitative assessments of background variations whicis have to be taken into account in interpreting cellular changes, perhaps also in contributing directly to the diagnosis of cancer. These techniques might also be used to generate sets of quantified visual standards of background variation systematically related to such

TABLE XVI
SUMMARY OF SEPARATIONS IN 2-SPACE FOUND IN EACH STUDY
STUDY

variables as age, menstrual cycle, and acute infection as well as to the course of chronic diseases, which might prove helpful particularly in training cytotechnicians.

We can also consider the possible value of psychometric assessments in cytological research. Identifying variations in background qualities and in determining correlations among those variations may contribute to cytological or histological theory. Finally, we can suggest the potential role of psychomet:ic assessments in discovering disease related optical properties in the background, subject to automated analysis. Automated analysis of background qualities might prove to be more easily achieved than automated analysis of cellular characteristics.

Our findings are also significant from a general standpoint. They show that human assessments of complex optical imagery can be discriminating, quantitative and reliable. They suggest that there may be much more information available in subjective assessments of imagery than is usually assumed. Those investigators concerned with imagery analysis are quick to acknowledge that the human observer is a most elegant pattern recognizer, but, at the same time, many would be quick to consider abandoning him for the most primitive automatic optical analyzer. There is an understandable scientific prejudice that human assessments are unreliable and insensitive, which may be true to a degree for observers who operate individually according to their own idiosyncratic procedures and internal standards. These studies illustrate, however, that observers can be programmed to follow standard perceptual operations and gauge their judgments against common standards. By pooling and averaging repeated independent assessments, we can generate sensitive and reliable data. The central question may not be whether human assessments can be sufficiently sensitive and reiiable for scientific purposes, but whether we can tolerate the putentially cumberscme and costly procedures that may be required to achieve sensitivity and reliability: namely, the coordinating and pooling of assessments from a number of observers. These studies, however, show that the approach may be practical. In Study $V$, for example, remarkably reliable and sensitive discrimination was achieved by pooling the assessments of only 10 observers. Furthermore, each assessment on each smear took less than seven man minutes, and considering the potential for increasing the rate of display presentation and response recording by automated techniques, that time could probably be halved. These techniques, therefore, could be of value, not only in research, but in routine screening situations as well.

The studies reported in Section III lead to the conclusion that subjective assessments of texture may be of practical use in the analysis and screening of Pap smears. With similar studies of cexture assessments in solar observing reported elsewhere (Pickett, 1971), they support the general conclusion that psychometric techniques may be of practical use in a wide range of imagery screening contexts. Of particular significance to the Air Force is the possibility of using subject:' e texture assessments in intelligence screr.aing of aerial photographs.

APPENDIX I
CHECKLIST USED TO SURVEY DESCRIPTORS OF TEXTURE in 100X VIEWS OF PAP SMEARS

Name: $\qquad$
Laboratory: $\qquad$

Instructions:
(1) wi=ite name and laboratory on pp .1 \& 2;
(2) Place a check mark in only one of the columns for each word;
(3) Be sure to check every word;
(4) Add and classify at bottom of p. 2 any other descriptive adjectives that come to mind;
(5) Please work independently.

| Bright | Describes a visible quality which: |  |  | ```Does not describe a visible quality``` |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | suggests negative | makes you suspicious | suggests positive |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |
| Brittle |  |  |  |  |
| Calm |  |  |  |  |
| Clean |  |  |  |  |
| Clumped |  |  |  |  |
| Cohesive |  |  |  |  |
| Compact |  |  |  |  |
| Consistent |  |  |  |  |
| Creamy |  |  |  |  |
| Crumbly |  |  |  |  |
| Dirty |  |  |  |  |
| Doughy |  |  |  |  |
| Droopy |  |  |  |  |
| Du11 |  |  |  |  |
| Elastic |  |  |  |  |
| Enmeshed |  |  |  |  |
| Explosive |  |  |  |  |
| Extrudable |  |  |  |  |
| Fatty |  |  |  |  |
| Fibrous |  |  |  |  |
| Filmy |  |  |  |  |
| Firm |  |  |  |  |
| Floating |  |  |  |  |
| Fragile |  |  |  |  |
| Gluey |  |  |  |  |
| Granular |  |  |  |  |
| Gummy |  |  |  |  |
| Hard |  |  |  |  |
| Leathery |  |  |  |  |
| Loose |  |  |  |  |
| Lumpy |  |  |  |  |
| Lustrous |  |  |  |  |

Name: $\qquad$ Laboratory


## AFPENDIX II <br> A THESAURUS OF DESCRIPTORS OF COMPLEX OPTICAL IMAGERY

## 1. GENERAL DESCRIPTION AND SUGGESTED APPLICATIONS.

Presented below is a word list of potential use in surveying and enhancing the descriptive vocabulary of workers who screen complex optical imagery. The list consists of 1707 entries ( 1058 different words) organized under 177 subheadings and 130 major headings keyed to Roget's Thesaurus (The Original Roget's Thesaurus of Engiish Words and Phrases, St. Martins Press, New York, 1965). It provides a comprehensive list that should oe helpful in assembling checklists for surveys of specialized visual description such as those reported in Section IL. The researcher can feel confident that in scanning this list he has been reminded of a very broad range of potential visual description without having to carry out a systematic survey of a standard dictionary or thesaurus.

The 1ist is presented in two forms: one with the 1058 base words presented in alphabetical order; the other with the 177 subheadings presented in alphabetical order. With the first form, one or two descriptors which may come to mind in scanning samples of complex imagery can be looked up to desermine the subheadings under which they occur in the second form. By exationing the word families listed under those subheadings, the viewer may then discover descriptors which more sharply capture the sensed visual qualities than the words that first came to mind. Scrutiny of the word families may also reveal gradations of meaning that suggest a basis for scaling the imagery along qualitative dimensions; and inter-family comparisons may suggest frameworks for multidimensional scaling.

## 2. SPECIFIC DESCRIPTION AND METHOD OF PREPARATION.

This specialized thesaurus was prepared because it became obvious at the start of the work reported in Section I that a systematic approach to selection of words for the checklist was required. The problem was to assure that the checklist was efficient in the sense of including mostly relevant descriptors, and comprehensive in not leaving many out. Our first effort was an attempt to assemble a master list of all adjectives of visual description from which one could abstract most of the potentially relevant descriptors for any particular problem of visual description that came along. The criteria for inciuding a word in that master list were that it describe any directly visible quality of an object or batch of material, e.g., mottled or marbled; or any quality of a substantive or structural nature which might be inferred from its appearance, e.g., flexible from its wrinkled or droopy appearance, or brictle from its fragnented appearance. Beginning with a list of all adjectives we could recall that fit the criteria, we continued with a systematic scan of relevant sections of Roget's Thesaurus for all words we could recognize thint fit the criteria. At this stage it became apparent that the task was unmanag -2ble, first, for the sheer number of words that had to be examined in the obviously relevant broad categories in Roget's Thesaurus, and second, because there was no logical basis for identifying all of the less obviously relevant narrow categories which we kept discovering. At this point we stopped the process to devise a more manageable approach.

In our revised approach, we searched in two stages, using two thesauruses. In the first stage, we scanned March's Thesaurus (March's Thesaurus and Dictionary of the English Language, Doubleday, New York, 1968), to make a fine-grained identification of all relevant categories. In the second stage, we returned to Roget's Thesaurus, this time equipped with a manageable but comprehensive scheme. March's Thesaurus is suited to a systematic screening for all relevant categories because it is not hierarchically organized. It is basically a dictionary, but at frequent intervals in the alphabetic listing it treats a word as a reference word, organizing under it, as in Roget's Thesaurus, a family of related words. Because of this non-hierarchical arrangement, March's Thesaurus permits making a systematic scan. One rar. 30 through it from A to $Z$, looking not at every word, but at least at every reference word. Under every reference word is a small clearly segregated list of related adjectives, so chat, at a glance, one can tell whether words in that narrow category fit the criteria for visual descriptors.

Our systematic scan of March's Thesaurus yielded 146 narrow categories of visual description (See Table XVII). At this point we listed all the adjectives in March's Thesaurus found under those categories that fitted our criteria. We then combined that list with the partial list we had already assembled by the first procedure. That combined interim list was then subjected to some editing. We decided to focus primarily on descriptors of masses of visible material as opposed to descriptors of particular objects or specific viscal patterns; to exclude, e.g., specific descriptors like square, circular and octagonal, and to retain general descriptors, e.g., angular, curly, and bumpy. Some specific descriptors may still appear in the list, but generally we sought adjectives for mass nouns. We also decided to exclude most of the words for colors, and words for describing dynamic qualities, e.g., churning, scintillating. When edited, the combined interim list totaled 514 words.

In the next stage, we looked up in Roget's Thesaurus each of the 514 words in the interim list, and scanned the paragraphs of adjectives in which they occurred, looking for other adjectives that fit our criteria. The original look-up word from the interim list (identified by an asterisk) plus any other words we found in that paragraph were then entered in column 1 of the master list. The initial italicized word in the paragraph in which each entry was found serves as that entry's subheading, and is listed across from it in column 2. The number of the heading under which the paragraph appears serves as the major heading for each entry and is listed across from it in column 3 .

TABLE XVII
LIST OF YISUALLY RELEVANT REFERENCE WORDS FROM MARCH'S THESAURUS

ACTION-PASSIVFNESS
ACTIVITY-INDOLENCE
ADDITION-SUBTRACTION
ADMISSION-EXCLUSION
ADMISSION-EXPULSION
ADVANCE-RETROGRESSION
AGITATION
ANGULARITY
A.IM-ABERRATION

ANTERIORITY-POSTERITY
APERTURE-CLOSURE
ARCHITECTURE
ATTPACTION-REPULSION
BEAUTY-UGLINESS
BETTERMENT-DETEFIORATION
BLUENESS-ORANGE
BORDER
BOUNDARY
BREADTH-NARROWNESS
CACOPHONY
CIRCLE-WINDINS
CIRCUITION
CLEANLINESS-FILTHINESS
CLEARNESS-OBSCURITY
COHES LON-I.OOSENESS
COLOR-ACHKOMATISM
COMPOSITION-RESOLUTION
CONCENTRATION-RADIATION
CONFINEMENT
CONNECTION-INDEPENDENGE
CONTENTS-RECEIVER
CONTINUITY-INTERRUPTION
CONVEXIIT-CONCAVITY
COVER-LIIJINE
CRASH-DRUMMING
CROSSING
CURVATION-RECTILINEARITY
DAMPNESS-DRYNESS
DIAPHANEITY-OPALESCENCE
DIAPHANEITY-OPAQUENESS
DIMNESS
DRESS-UNDRESS
ELASTICITY-ĨNELASTICITY
ELEVATION-DEPRESSION
EMBELLISHMENIT-DISFICUREMENT
ENLARGEMENT~DIMINUTION
ENTIRETY-DEFICIENCY
ERECTNESS-FLATNESS

EXCESS-LACK
EXCITABILITY-INEXCJTABILITY
EXCITATION
FAULTLESSNESS-FAULTINESS
FEELING-INSENSIBILITY
FORM-FORMLESSNESS
FRIABILITY
FRICTION-LUBRICATION
GATHERING-SCATTERING
GRAY-BROWN
GREATNESS-IITTLENESS
GROOVE
HARDNESS-SOFTNESS
HARSHNESS-MILDNESS
HEAVINESS-LIGHTNESS
HURRY-LEISURE
IMPERUS-REACTION
INCLUSTON-OMISSION
INCREASE-DECREASE
INCREMENT-REMNANT
INDENTATION
INFANCY-AGE
INJECTION-EJECTION
INSTRUMENT
INSTRUMENTALITY
INTERSPACE-CONTACT
KEEPING-RELINQUISHMENT
LAMINA-FIBER
LASTING-TRANSIENTNESS
LATERALITY-CONTRAPOSITION
LEADING-FOLLOWING
LENGTH-SHORTNESS
LEVELNESS
I IGHT-DARKNESS
LIQUEFACTION-VOLATILIZATION
LIQUID-GAS
LUMINARY-SHADE
MAGNITUDE-SMALLNESS
MANIFESTATION-LATENCY
MIDDEE
MINERALOGY
MIXTURE-EiOMOGENEITY
MOVEMENT-REST
MULTIPLICITY-PAUCITY
MUTABILITY-STABILITY
MUTATION-PERMANENCE
NEED
NUMBER

NUMBERING
OBSTRUCTION-HELP
ORGANIZATION-DISORGANIZATION OUTLINE
OUTSIDE-INSIDE
PARALLELISM-INCIINATION
PERIODICITY-IRREGULARITY
PLICATURE
PRECEDENCE-SUCCESSION
PREPARATION-NONPREPARATION
PROPORTION-DEFORIMTY
PROVISION-WASTE
PULPINESS-OILINESS
PULPINESS-ROSIN
PURITY-CRUDENESS
PUSH-PULL
RECURRENCE
REDNESS-GREENNESS
REFUGE-PITFALL
REGULARITY-IRREGULARITY
REMOTENESS-NEARNESS
REVERSAL
RIVER-WIND
ROUNDNESS
SAMENESS-CONTRAST

SCULPTURE
SHARPNESS-BLUNTNESS
SMOOTHNESS-ROUGHNESS
SOLIDITY-RARITY
STRENGTH-WEAKNESS
SUPREMACY-SUBORDINACY
SUSPENSION-SUPPORT
SWIFTNESS-SLOWNESS
TEXTURE
TOJGHNESS-BRITTLENESS
TURBULENCE-CALM
UNIFORMITY-DIVERSITY
UNIFORMITY-MULTIFORMITY
UNION-DISUNION
USEFULNESS-USELESSNESS
VARIATION
VIBRATION
VARIEGATION
VIGOR-INERTIA
VISCIDITY-FOAM
VISIBILITY-INVISIBILITY
WATER-AIR
WHITENESS-BLACKNESS
WHOLE-PART
YELLOWNESS-PURPLE

## 3. THESAUKUXS WITH BASE WORDS ARRANGED ALPHAEETICALLY

|  |  | LUMINUUS | 417 | BALLEU | ROTUND |
| :--- | :--- | ---: | :--- | :--- | ---: |


| BLOATED |  | EXPANOED | 197 | BULBOUS |  | EXPANDED | 197 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| BLUFF |  | UNSHARPENED | 257 | BUMPY | * | DISCONTINUOU | 72 |
| BLUNT |  | UNSHARPENED | 257 | BUMPY | * | NON-UNIFORM | 17 |
| BL.UNT-NOSED |  | UNSHARPENED | 257 | BUMPY | * | ROUGH | 259 |
| BLUNTED |  | UNSHARPENED | 257 | BUOYANT |  | LIGHT | 323 |
| BLURRED | * | AMORPHOUS | 244 | BURNED |  | ORY | 342 |
| BLURRED | * | UIM | 419 | BUKNED |  | HEATED | 381 |
| BLURRY |  | SHADOWY | 419 | BURNISHEO |  | UNDIMMED | 417 |
| BLUSHING |  | LUMINOUS | 417 | BUSHY |  | ARBOREAL | 366 |
| BOB-TAILED |  | INCOMPLETE | 55 | BUSHY |  | DENSE | 324 |
| B0GGY |  | MARSHY | 347 | BUSHY |  | VEGETAL | 366 |
| BOMB-PROOF |  | INVULNERABLE | 660 | GUTTERY |  | FATTY | 357 |
| BOMB-PROOF |  | UNYIELDING | 162 | CAKED |  | DIRTY | 649 |
| BONY |  | HARD | 326 | CALLOUS |  | HARD | 326 |
| BORED |  | PERFORATED | 263 | CALLOUSED |  | HARD | 326 |
| BOWED |  | ARCIJATE | 253 | CAMBERED |  | ARCUATE | 253 |
| BRAMBLY |  | SHARP | 256 | CAMERATED |  | CELLULAR | 194 |
| BRANCHING |  | SPACIOUS | 183 | CANALLED |  | FURROWED | 262 |
| BRANCHING |  | UNASSEMBLED | 75 | CANESCENT |  | GRAY | 429 |
| BRANDED |  | HEATED | 381 | CARIOUS |  | UNCLEAN | 649 |
| BRANNY |  | POWDERY | 332 | CARTILAGINOU |  | HARD | 326 |
| BREAKABLE |  | BRITTLE | 330 | CAST-IRON |  | HARD | 326 |
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[^0]:    ＊Significant at $p<.05$ ，two－tailed
    ＊＊Significant at $p<.01$ ，two－tailed

[^1]:    *Significant at $\mathrm{p}<.05$ two-tailed
    **Significant at $\mathrm{p}<.01$ two-tailed
    ***Significant at $\mathrm{p}<.001$ two-tailed

[^2]:    *Significant at $p<.05$, two-tailed
    **Significant at $p<.01$, two-tailed
    ***Significant at $\mathrm{p}<.001$, two-tailed

