

Comparison of Algorithms to Measure a Psychophysical Threshold using Digital Applications: The Stereoacuity Case Study

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Abstract: The use of digital applications to perform psychophysical measurements led to the introduction of algorithms to guide the users in test execution. In this paper we show three algorithms, two already well known: Strict Staircase and PEST, and a new one that we propose: PEST3. All the algorithms aim at estimating the level of a psychophysical capability by performing a sequence of simple tests; starting from initial level N, the test is executed until the target level is reached. They differ in the choice of the next steps in the sequences and the stopping condition. We have applied the algorithms to the stereoacuity case study and we have compared them by answering a set of research questions. Finally, we provide guidelines to choose the best algorithm based on the test goal. We found that while StrictStaircase provides optimal results, it requires the largest number of steps and this may hinder its use; PEST3 can overcome these limits without compromising the final results.

1 INTRODUCTION

The use of computers and digital applications to perform psychophysical measurements has given rise to several automatic procedures to be applied. The objective of these procedures is to determine as rapidly and precisely as possible the value of a psychophysical variable.

In the paper, we focus on estimating psychophysical thresholds by providing a sequence of simple tasks to the patients. Following the classification of methodological for psychophysical evaluation proposed in (Stevens, 1958), we can consider three parameters: the task of an observer to judge, stimulus arrangement, and statistical measure. Based on the proposed classification, the set of algorithms taken into account for the comparison fall into the following groups. Regarding the task, we assume that the observer's task is the *classification* of some type. The observer, once a stimulus has been presented, has to judge if some attribute or aspect is present or absent or to classify the stimulus. Regarding the stimuli to be presented, we assume that are *fixed*, i.e. they do not vary during the time they are being observed¹. Usu-

ally, of course, they are varied between observations. Regarding the measure of stimulus, we assume that a level is associated with every observation and this level is used to estimate the psychophysical threshold. Furthermore, in our case study, we assume that the psychophysical of the user could be null as a result of missing capability by the user and the test should discover that.

Before the introduction of digital technologies, psychophysical measurements were made by using simple devices or printed paper cards and the observer had to judge the responses. The observer guided the test procedure that could be partially fixed based on test execution. Nowadays, tests are becoming more computerized, partially automatized and the observer may have only partial control during the test execution. The test execution and the estimation of the psychophysical threshold are decided by an algorithm that should correctly diagnose the level of the measured parameter, by minimizing the number of false positive/negative.

The advantages are that the observer cannot interfere with the testing process and the results can be objectively validated. However, there is the risk that the algorithms are not precise or they are not as efficient as the observer would be thanks to the experience in providing these tests. For this reason, in this paper, we present and compare three algorithms that could be used for psychophysical mea-

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¹This assumption could be relaxed provided that the classification of the stimulus is meaningful

surements. As a case study we take the stereoacuity test using Random-dot stereograms. The stereoacuity is the smallest measurable depth difference that can be observed by someone with two eyes and normal brain functions. It had been invented by Howard and Dolman who explained stereoacuity with a mathematical model (Howard, 1919). The test starts at level N and finishes when the user reaches his best acuity level ².

The paper is organized as follows. In Sect. 2.1 we present the algorithms and the case study is introduced in Sect. 2.2. In Sect. 3 we answer a set of research questions about the features of the algorithms and we provide guidelines to choose the algorithm based on the test goal in Sect. 4. Related works are reported in Sect. 5.

2 MATERIAL AND METHODS

In this section, we present the algorithms under analysis: StrictStaircase, PEST, and PEST3. Furthermore, we introduce the stereoacuity case study and the simulation protocol applied.

2.1 Proposed Algorithms

In our study, we have implemented three algorithms to measure a psychophysical threshold: StrictStaircase, PEST, both well known in the literature and widely used, and a new one, PEST3, that tries to improve the performances of the previous two. The basic idea behind all the proposed algorithms is the following. The test starts at *init level* N , which corresponds to the easiest level (decided by the observer), and it is decremented until the person is able to answer correctly. The lowest reachable level that the person can achieve is called *target level* that usually corresponds to level 1, it corresponds to the most difficult level of the test. When the user finishes the test, the result can be: 1. *PASSED* at level X : the user has passed successfully the test and his psychophysical capability is certified at level X . 2. *FAILED*: the user did not pass the test because the algorithm has found that he does not have the psychophysical capability. The algorithms differ from one another in the following aspects: 1. the number of right answers given at the level to be certified; 2. the errors management when the user does not guess the answer; 3. the policy to interrupt the test and certify or not the level.

All the algorithms are explained in the next sections. All can be generalized in case the test are per-

formed using a different scale of levels, for instance by starting to 1 and going to a maximum value.

2.1.1 StrictStaircase

Algorithm 1: StrictStaircase.

```

input : Starting level, target level
output: Certification, reached level

do
  switch answer do
    case RIGHT do
      if currentLevel > targetLevel then
        currentLevel - -; currentResult = CONTINUE;
        numRightAns[currentLevel] ++;
      else
        if numRightAns[currentLevel] >= 3 then
          currentResult = PASSED;
        else
          currentResult = CONTINUE;
          numRightAns[currentLevel] ++;
        end
      end
    end
    case WRONG do
      if numWrongAns[currentLevel] >= 2 then
        if currentLevel < maxLevel then
          currentLevel ++; targetLevel = currentLevel;
          currentResult = CONTINUE;
          numWrongAns[currentLevel] ++;
        else
          currentResult = FAILED;
        end
      else
        currentResult = CONTINUE;
        numWrongAns[currentLevel] ++;
      end
    end
  end
end
while currentResult == CONTINUE;
return [currentResult, currentLevel]

```

The StrictStaircase algorithm (see Algorithm 1) is the first algorithm we have implemented to measure a psychophysical threshold. The test starts at the initial level N and at each step if the user guesses the answer (*answer*=*RIGHT*) the level (*currentLevel*) is decremented. The algorithm stops in *PASSED* state when the target level is reached (*currentLevel*=*targetLevel*) and the user answers correctly three times (*numRightAns*>=3). If the person makes an error (*answer*=*WRONG*) the level is repeated, if another error is registered (*numWrongAns*>=2) the level is incremented and it becomes the new target level (only

²The data and materials for all experiments are available at <https://github.com/silviabonfanti/3d4ambAlgorithms.git>

higher levels can be certified at this point). A level is *PASSED* if the user responds correctly three times at the level. In the event that the person is not able to answer correctly three times at level N the test result is *FAILED*. This algorithm takes a lot of time to measure the psychophysical threshold, mostly when the difference between the starting level and target level is high. For this reason, the PEST algorithm, explained in the next section, has been introduced in the past, with the aim of reducing the number of steps.

2.1.2 PEST

PEST (Parameter Estimation by Sequential Testing) algorithm (see Algorithm 2) has been presented in (Taylor and Creelman, 1967). This algorithm belongs to the adaptive methods family which are modified according to the moment-by-moment responses. The goal of PEST is to identify the psychophysical threshold with a minimum number of possible steps. The test starts at level N and the goal is to reach the target level (usually first level), the most difficult level. Levels of the test are into a window bounded by a left limit $limitL$ and a right limit $limitR$. Initially, the variables $limitL$ and $limitR$ are set respectively to the starting level N and the target level 1. The test starts at level N . If the user answer is *RIGHT* the left limit is set to the current level and in the next step the tested level is equals to the round downward the mean between $limitL$ and $limitR$ to its nearest integer. The test continues until $limitL$ and $limitR$ correspond, the test finishes in *PASSED* state at current level. If the user answer is *WRONG*, the right limit is set to the current level and in the next step the tested level is equals to the round upward the mean between $limitL$ and $limitR$ to its nearest integer. Also in this case, the test continues until $limitL$ and $limitR$ correspond, the test finishes in *PASSED* state at current level. There is one particular case, if the user answers wrongly twice at starting level N the test finishes in *FAILED* state.

At the end of the test, we are not sure that the certified level is the real level owned by the user because PEST algorithm requires only one correct answer to certify the target level, and it can be right just for randomness. For this reason, we have extended the PEST algorithm as explained in the next section.

2.1.3 PEST3

PEST3 (presented in Algorithm 3) is based on PEST algorithm presented in Sect. 2.1.2. The main difference compared to the PEST algorithm is that a level is *PASSED* if the user answers correctly three times at the level to be certified. The number of answers given at level N is saved into a vector at position

Algorithm 2: PEST.

```

input : Starting level, target level
output: Certification, reached level

do
  if answer == WRONG then
    if chance > 0 && currentLevel ==
      maxLevel then
      | chance--;
    else if chance == 0 && currentLevel ==
      maxLevel then
      | currentResult = FAILED;
    else
      | limitR = currentLevel;
      | nextLevel = (int) (Math.ceil((limitL +
      | limitR) / 2));
      | currentLevel = nextLevel;
      | limitsOneStep();
    end
  else if answer == RIGHT then
    | limitL = currentLevel;
    | nextLevel = (int) (Math.floor((limitL +
    | limitR) / 2));
    | currentLevel = nextLevel;
    | limitsOneStep();
  end
while (currentResult = CONTINUE);
return [currentResult, currentLevel]

Function limitsOneStep:
  if (limitL - limitR) == 1 then
  | currentResult = PASSED; currentLevel =
  | limitL;
  end
end Function

```

$N-1$. Initially, the algorithm follows the PEST flow, until the set of certifiable levels is reduced to two consecutive levels. A *RIGHT* answer increments the number of right answers to the current level, a *WRONG* answer decrements the corresponding value. The test is *PASSED* if the user gives three right answers at level i . In the case of two wrong answers at level i , the level is incremented until a higher level is certified or the level reaches the maximum certifiable level. If the user does not answer correctly three times at the same level, the test finishes in *FAILED* state.

2.2 The Stereoacuity Test Case Study

We have applied the proposed algorithms to the stereoacuity test case study a digital test application that we have developed (Bonfanti et al., 2015). In order to get a good measurement of stereopsis by avoiding the described problems, the Random-dot stereogram (RDS) is widely used because it permits to obtain a test procedure, named Randot stereotest, that

Algorithm 3: PEST3.

```

input : Starting level, target level
output: Certification, reached level

do
    if firstPhase then
        if answer == WRONG then
            if chance > 0 && currentLevel ==
                maxLevel then
                | chance--;
            else if chance==0 &&
                currentLevel==maxLevel then
                | currentResult=FAILED;
            else
                | limitR = currentLevel;
                | limitsOneStep();
                | nextLevel =
                |   ceil((limitL+limitR)/2);
                | currentLevel = nextLevel;
                | vector[limitR - 1] --;
            end
        else if answer == RIGHT then
            | limitL = currentLevel;
            | limitsOneStep();
            | nextLevel = floor((limitL+limitR)/2);
            | currentLevel = nextLevel;
            | vector[limitL - 1] ++;
        end
    else
        if answer == RIGHT then
            | vector[nextLevel - 1] ++;
            | currentLevel = nextLevel;
        else if answer == WRONG then
            | vector[nextLevel - 1] += weight;
            | weight = weight * 3; currentLevel =
            |   nextLevel;
        end
        if vector[nextLevel - 1] >= 2 then
            | currentResult = PASSED;
            | currentLevel = nextLevel;
        else if (vector[nextLevel - 1] <= -2) &
            (nextLevel < maxLevel) then
            | nextLevel++; weight = 1;
            | currentLevel = nextLevel;
        else if (vector[nextLevel - 1] <= -2) &
            (nextLevel == maxLevel) then
            | currentResult=FAILED; currentLevel
            |   = nextLevel;
        end
    end
while (currentResult = CONTINUE);
return [currentResult, currentLevel]

Function limitsOneStep:
    if (limitL - limitR) == 1 then
        | firstPhase = false; nextLevel = limitR;
        | currentLevel = nextLevel;
    if limitR != 1 then
        | weight = weight * 3;
    end
end
end Function
    
```

is easily administered and not subject to deception. RDS consists in a stereo pair of random-dot images viewed either with the aid of a stereoscope or printed on stereogram (like the Lang II stereo test). In this way, the RDS system produces a sensation of depth, with objects appearing to be in front of or behind the display level. During the test, the difficulty increases at each level and the test stops when the patient is no longer able to guess the shown images. Randot stereotest has been easily emulated using stereo digital displays. In particular, the random small pattern elements are the pixels of the digital screen forming digital images. The digital test can be performed by patients also without the presence of the doctor, because the algorithm implemented guides the patient through the test. The test starts at level N , the level is decremented when the patient guessed the picture, otherwise, the level is incremented. If the user is not able to guess any image the test is not passed. Each level corresponds to a value of stereoacuity computed with the Howard and Dolman formula. The choice of the level at each step of the test follows the algorithm implemented. In stereotest assessment, the use of StrictStaircase algorithms is widespread (see for instance (Hoffmann and Menozzi, 1999)). In this case study, we have developed different versions of the test with the algorithms explained in Sect. 2.1.

To test the operation of the algorithms we have executed the tests on virtual patients, automatically generated with software. We have adopted this solution because we needed a huge number of results to make the algorithms comparable, and it was not possible to do individually.

2.2.1 Simulation Protocol

We have simulated 30,000 patients, using the proposed algorithms, with different level of stereoacuity or without stereoacuity. For each patient, we have randomly selected the answers (RIGHT or WRONG). We have preferred RIGHT answers when the patient is at level i and his level of stereoacuity is greater or equal to i , WRONG answers when the level i of the test is more difficult compared to his stereoacuity or the user does not have stereoacuity. To decide the distribution of RIGHT and WRONG answer, we have simulated three scenarios for each patient by assigning a probability to the RIGHT and WRONG answers as shown in Table 1. *Scenario 0* is ideal, the patient gives the RIGHT answer if he has the current stereoacuity level, otherwise, the answer is WRONG. In practice this does not always happen, the user could choose an answer that is not the one we expect due to many factors, e.g. he does not see the image, he tries to guess and he selects the RIGHT answer. To simu-

Table 1: Probabilities of RIGHT and WRONG answers.

	S 0	S 1	S 2
Prob. RIGHT answer: currentLevel \geq patient stereoacuity	1	0.9	0.9
Prob. WRONG answer: currentLevel < patient stereoacuity	1	0.9	0.75
Prob. WRONG answer: no stereoacuity	1	0.9	0.75

late this we have considered *Scenario 1* and *Scenario 2*. In both scenarios the RIGHT answer is selected with a probability of 0.9 if the user has the current stereoacuity level. The WRONG answer is selected with a probability of 0.9 in *Scenario 1* and 0.75 in *Scenario 2* when the user does not have stereoacuity or he does not have the current stereoacuity level. *Scenario 2* is likely to happen when the user has a limited set of answers, for instance four, and a randomly chosen answer has a not negligible possibility to be the right one even if the current level is below his stereoacuity level.

We have simulated all the algorithms with the same level of probabilities twice, in order to perform a *test-retest* assessment too. The goal is to evaluate test repeatability: the proposed algorithms guarantee the same level of certification in both simulations (see Sect. 3 for further details).

Collected Data

The data are saved into a .csv file, which contains the following information:

- scenario: probabilities used for RIGHT/WRONG answers in the current simulation (see Table 1);
- idPatient: uniquely identifies the patient under test;
- target: the target level to be certified;
- testType: the algorithm applied (StrictStaircase, PEST or PEST3);
- time: 1 indicates the first simulation, 2 indicates the second simulation;
- steps: number of steps performed;
- level: level certified;
- finalResult: PASSED or FAILED;

The results are analyzed in the next section.

2.2.2 Statistical Analysis

In order to evaluate the algorithms we propose, we will perform null hypothesis significance testing (NHST). NHST is a method of statistical inference by which an experimental factor is tested against a

hypothesis of no effect or no relationship based on a given observation. In our case, we will formulate the null hypothesis following the schema that the algorithm X is no better than the others by considering the feature Y. Then, we will use the observations in order to estimate the probability or *p-value* that the null hypothesis is true, i.e. that the effect of X over the value Y is not statistically significant. If the probability is very small (below a given threshold), then the null hypothesis can be rejected.

3 RESULTS

Given the simulation results, we have performed an analysis of data by answering a set of research questions (RQs) in order to extract useful information. For each RQ, we have formulated a null hypothesis (H_0) which posits the opposite compared to what we expect.

RQ1: Which is the Algorithm that Minimizes the Number of False Positive/False Negative?

The stereoacuity test shows random dot images and the user chooses the hidden image from those shown. Sometimes the user gives the answers randomly guessing or wrong the image. If this happens many times during a test session, the measured stereoacuity could not be compliant with the real value. Particularly, the test results could be *PASSED* when the patient does not have the stereoacuity, or *FAILED* when the patient has the stereoacuity. These cases are called *false positive* and *false negative*. False positive is an error in the final result in which the test indicates the presence of stereoacuity when in reality it is not present. Contrariwise, false negative is an error in which the test indicates the absence of stereoacuity when the patient has it. We expect that one of the proposed algorithms minimize the number of false positive and false negative compared to the others.

To measure if an algorithm is better than the others in terms of false positive/false negative, we have introduced a statistical test called *Proportion Hypothesis Tests for Binary Data* (Fleiss et al., 2003). The result of this test is the p-value, based on this value we have decided to reject/accept the null hypothesis. The p-value threshold chose to determine if the null hypothesis is accepted or not is 0.005, this value guarantee that the obtained results are statistically significant. We started from two null hypothesis, one for the false positive and the other for the false negative:

H_{0_FP} : No algorithm is better than other in false positive minimization.

Table 2: Proportion Hypothesis Tests for Binary Data: p-value.

	S 1	S 2
p-value FN	2.2e-16	2.2e-16
p-value FP	0.05085	0.1612

Table 3: Number of false positive and false negative.

Algorithm	False negative		False positive	
	S 1	S 2	S 1	S 2
StrictStaircase	8	148	172	218
PEST	374	877	193	180
PEST3	48	416	220	198

H0_FN: No algorithm is better than other in false negative minimization.

The p-values obtained are shown in Table 2, the p-value of Scenario 0 is not reported because this is ideal scenario in which no false positive/false negative are detected. Given the results we can reject the H0_FN and accept H0_FP. This means that there is an algorithm which guarantees a lower rate of false negative compare to the others, but in terms of false positive no algorithm is better than the others.

Furthermore, this is confirmed by the number of false positive and false negative detected as reported in Table 3. The data proves that StrictStaircase guarantees a lower rate of false negatives, followed by the PEST3.

Furthermore, to compare the algorithms we measure the *sensibility* and the *specificity*. The sensibility is the probability that a person without stereoacuity reaches *FAILED* result, while the specificity is the probability that a person with stereoacuity reaches *PASSED* result. The values are reported in Table 4. *Scenario 0* has the highest value of sensitivity and specificity (as expected) because it simulates the ideal situation in which all the patients have been certified with the target stereoacuity and the patients without stereoacuity have not been certified by the test. Since in terms of false negative there is an algorithm better than the other, we can notice that the sensitivity has different values based on the algorithm used and the scenario tested. The lowest value of sensitivity belongs to PEST algorithm in both scenarios, particularly in *Scenario 2*, while the algorithm with the highest value of sensitivity is StrictStaircase. The PEST3, although cannot perform well as the StrictStaircase, is very close to it. In case of specificity, as suggested by the p-value FP, no algorithm guarantees a higher value than the others.

Table 4: Sensitivity and Specificity.

Algorithm	Sensitivity			Specificity		
	S 0	S 1	S 2	S 0	S 1	S 2
StrictStaircase	1	0.9193	0.8843	1	0.9996	0.9918
PEST	1	0.8642	0.5361	1	0.9799	0.9553
PEST3	1	0.8952	0.8509	1	0.9973	0.9777

Table 5: Wilcoxon test for number of steps comparison: p-value.

Algorithm	StrictStaircase	PEST	PEST3
StrictStaircase	-	1	1
PEST	<2.2e-16 (PEST < StrictStaircase)	-	<2.2e-16 (PEST < PEST3)
PEST3	<2.2e-16 (PEST3 < StrictStaircase)	1	-

RQ2: Which is the Algorithm that Minimizes the Number of Steps?

To analyze if an algorithm minimizes the number of steps, we started from the following null hypothesis:

H0: No algorithm guarantees fewer steps compared to the others.

To disprove or accept the null hypothesis, we have compared all the algorithms (in twos) to prove if one algorithm performs the test with fewer steps than the others. We have adopted the Wilcoxon test (Noether, 1992), if the resulted p-value is less than 0.005 the null hypothesis is disproved otherwise it is approved. Table 5 shows the p-values obtained from the Wilcoxon test under the hypothesis that the algorithm in the row takes fewer steps than the algorithm in the column. Some p-values are higher than the prefix threshold, this allows us to disprove the null hypothesis. Indeed the StrictStaircase algorithm takes more steps than the others, while the PEST algorithm is the one with the least number of steps. The average of the number of the steps is reported in Table 6.

RQ3: Which is the Algorithm that Guarantees Measured Level Equals to Target Level?

In this case, we analyse the number of times that the two levels are the same. We start from the following null hypothesis.

H0: All the algorithms guarantee that the measured level is always not equal to the target level.

Table 6: The average of steps number.

Algorithm	S 0	S 1	S 2
StrictStaircase	8.99	10.1	11.1
PEST	4.21	4.25	4.28
PEST3	5.91	6.88	7.62

After we have computed the difference between the measured level and target level, we have discovered that the null hypothesis is disproved. Table 7 shows how many times the level measured is equal to the one to be certified. As expected, in *Scenario 0* all the algorithms correctly certify the target value because the simulations have been performed with probability to give the correct answer is equal to 1 (see Table 1). In *Scenario 1* and *Scenario 2* are admitted also wrong answers, indeed sometimes the measured level is not equal to the target level. The more performing algorithm is the StrictStaircase because it runs sequentially all levels until the target is reached and it is required to guess three times the correct answer at the target level. When the simulation takes into account the possibility to provide wrong answers, the PEST algorithm is the worst compared to the others. This could be because this algorithm asks the answers only once at each level and it certifies a level with only one right answer.

Table 7: Times when measured level is equal to target level over 18,032 PASSED simulations - the not certified tests are excluded.

	S 0	S 1	S 2
StrictStaircase	18,032	16,192	15,154
PEST	18,032	12,432	9,409
PEST3	18,032	15,142	13,296

RQ4: Which is the Algorithm with the Minimum Difference between Target Level and Measured Level?

When the difference between the target level and measured level is not equal to zero, we are interested to know this value. To answers at this RQ, we start from the following null hypothesis:

H0: All the algorithms have the same difference between the target level and measured level.

We have computed the difference between target level and measured level and we have found that the difference is not always zero, the results are reported in Fig. 1 and Fig. 2. In *Scenario 1*, the percentage of cases in which target and measured level are different for each algorithm simulation is the following: 27,00% PEST, 13,31% PEST3, 8,30% StrictStaircase (the percentage is computed over the 20.000 simulations for each algorithm). We have further investigated for each algorithm the difference between target and measured level. PEST algorithm certifies user with one level plus or minus in 48,01% of cases and two levels plus or minus in 23,93% of cases. The difference between target and measured level is more than two levels in 28,06% of cases. While these two

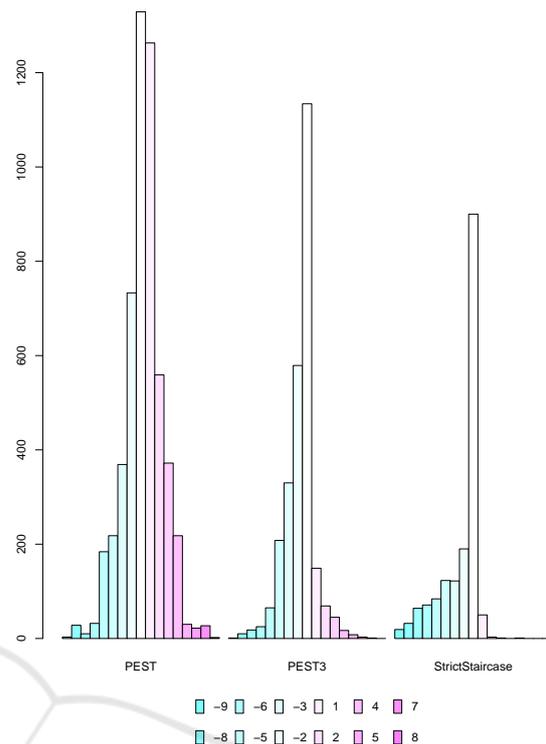


Figure 1: Difference between target level and measured level in Scenario 1.

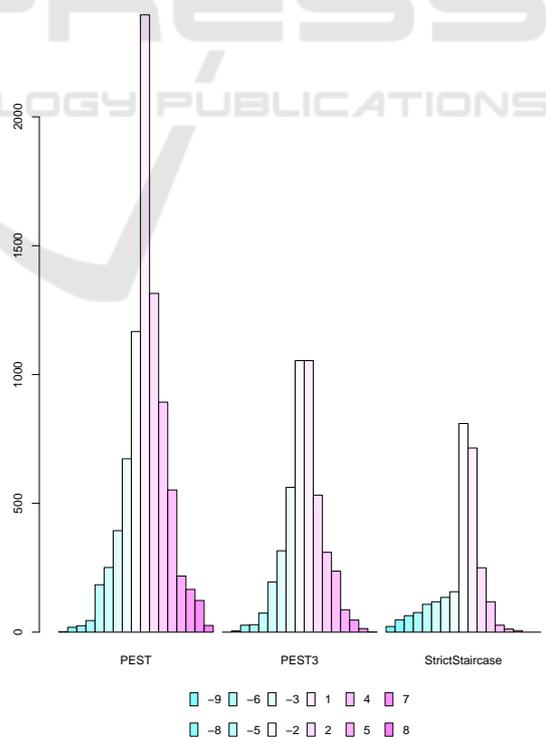


Figure 2: Difference between target level and measured level in Scenario 2.

algorithms have a distribution centered on ± 1 and ± 2 , PEST3 and StrictStaircase distributions are centered on $[-4, -1]$. StrictStaircase certifies most of the tests (54,22%) with one level minus and 11,45% of them are certified with two levels minus. Furthermore, we have noticed that all the algorithms, except PEST, are “pessimists” because when the target and measured level are different, in many cases, they certify a higher level compared to the target. With the introduction of higher error probability, *Scenario 2*, the percentage of cases in which target and measured level are different for each algorithm simulation is the following: 42,25% PEST, 22,72% PEST3, 13,33% StrictStaircase (the percentage is computed over the 20.000 simulations for each algorithm). As expected the percentages are higher compared to *Scenario 1* because the probability of the wrong answer has been incremented. The difference between target and measured level is centred on $[-1, 3]$ for PEST algorithms and $[-2, 2]$ for PEST3 and StrictStaircase algorithms. In details, PEST has 68,30% of cases in the $[-1, 3]$ interval, while the percentage in interval $[-2, 2]$ is 70,47% and 72,47% for PEST3 and StrictStaircase respectively.

RQ5: Which is the Best Algorithm with the Best Performance in Test-retest?

Test-retest evaluates the repeatability of a test administered at two different times, T1 and T2. A test is repeatable if the measure does not change between the two measurements, under the hypothesis that in T1 and T2 the symptomatology is not changed.

We have started the analysis from the following null hypothesis:

H0: All the algorithms have the same performance in test-retest.

In our case study, we have measured the reliability of test-retest with the Pearson Correlation Coefficient. First of all, we have simulated again the patients in different scenarios and we have computed the Pearson Coefficient which results are shown in Table 8. As expected, in *Scenario 0* the correlation is equal to 1 for all the algorithms because this scenario guarantees that for every simulation the certified level is always the target. In *Scenario 1* and *Scenario 2* the algorithm with the highest correlation is StrictStaircase, respectively the Pearson coefficient is 0.88 and 0.83 which are both considered good reliability coefficients. At the opposite, the algorithm with the lower correlation is PEST. The reliability is questionable in *Scenario 1* (0.77) and it is poor in *Scenario 2* (only 0.60). PEST3 has good reliability in *Scenario 1* (the Pearson coefficient is 0.87) while in *Scenario 2* the reliability is acceptable (0.77).

Table 8: Pearson correlation test-retest.

	Scenario 0	Scenario 1	Scenario 2
StrictStaircase	1	0.88	0.83
PEST	1	0.77	0.60
PEST3	1	0.87	0.77

4 DISCUSSION

In the previous section, we have answered to a set of RQs to measure sensitivity and sensibility, number of steps, number of times that the measured level is equal to the target level, the difference between target level and measured level (when they are different), and the test-retest reliability. In this section, we want to discuss the results and provide some guidelines to choose the algorithm based on the test goal. For each RQ we have assigned a score from one to three (see Table 9), one is assigned to the algorithm which better satisfies the research question, three is assigned to the worst algorithm under analysis.

Table 9: Comparison between RQs: which algorithm guarantee the best performance?

Algorithm	RQ1	RQ2	RQ3	RQ4	RQ5
StrictStaircase	1	3	1	1	1
PEST	3	1	3	3	3
PEST3	2	2	2	2	2

The algorithm with the best performance is StrictStaircase. It guarantees the lowest number of false positive and false negative, target level, and measured level are the same most of the time and when they are different the difference is mostly ± 1 level. Furthermore, it guarantees the best test-retest reliability, but due to the fact that it tests all the levels, it requires a high number of steps to complete the test and this may jeopardize its use when the testing time can be a critical factor, for example with children. PEST algorithm has the performance level opposite to StrictStaircase. It requires, more or less, half of the number of steps (it is the algorithm with the lower number of steps) but in most cases, the target level is not equal to the measured level and test-retest reliability is the lowest. When it is required an algorithm with good performance, but with a limited number of steps to complete the test, PEST3 is a good compromise because it can be applied in around half of the steps compared to StrictStaircase. It has high sensitivity and sensibility, the measured level is equal to the target in a large number of cases and when they are not equal the difference is minimal. Furthermore, in case of test-retest, it guarantees good reliability.

5 RELATED WORK

In this section, we present the algorithms used in literature for the stereoacuity measurement. In papers (Bach et al., 2001; Kromeier et al., 2003) the authors apply the PEST algorithm to measure stereoacuity using the Freiburg Test and, as demonstrated also by our case study, the proposed algorithm allowed to save time during the stereoacuity measurement. We found that Staircase algorithm is often used in the literature, with some minimal differences. In papers (Wong et al., 2002; Li et al., 2016; Vancleef et al., 2018; Ushaw et al., 2017), stereoacuity is measured using staircase, the disparity is increased/decreased of one level. The disparity is increased of one level and decreased of two levels in paper (Hess et al., 2016). In paper (Tidbury et al., 2019), staircase is compared to book based clinical testing and the result is that the threshold measured with digital test is more reliable also due to the possibility to increase the number of level of disparity.

6 CONCLUSION

In this paper, we have presented the first analysis of virtual patients to understand the applicability of the algorithms and evaluate their performances. The next step will be to run the stereoacuity test on patients using our mobile application (Bonfanti et al., 2015) to evaluate the performance of the three algorithms presented and collect information about usability depending on the algorithm. Furthermore, we would evaluate if the probabilities applied in this study to the three different scenarios represent reality or not.

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