

Fig. 2. Spectral reflectance curves for seven 5.0 green color chips at chroma 2 and value levels 3–9. The original linear reflectance scale is plotted (Left), on a log scale (Center), and on a cube root scale (Right).

yellow to 10.0 purple-blue, equals the sine of its hue angle times its score on the chroma dimension. The chips on each dimension are standardized to a mean of zero and a standard deviation of one. As a result of this change from spherical to Cartesian coordinates, every Munsell color chip can be represented as a point at the intersection of a normalized orthogonal x, y, z space. It should be stressed that the points in this space are a purely conceptual system; an idealized representation of what the perceptual relations among the color chips should be, not an actual set of observations.

To obtain estimates of parameter variability our data have been divided into four separate hue groups. The first group contains all of the Munsell 2.5 hue color chips (2.5 red, 2.5 yellow-red, 2.5 yellow, etc.), the second group contains all of the 5.0 color chips (5.0 red, 5.0 yellow red, 5.0 yellow, etc.), and so on. Because of the irregular character of the Munsell globe, the four groups contain different numbers of color chips (2.5 hues $n = 277$, 5.0 hues $n = 354$, 7.5 hues $n = 276$, and 10.0 hues $n = 343$).

The Reflectance Spectra

The physical data set is based on spectral reflectance measurements made with a spectrophotometer on 1,250 color chips in the 1976 Munsell Matte Color Book (17) at a 5-nm resolution from 400 to 700 nm. The data set was obtained from www.cs.joensuu.fi/~spectral/databases/download/munsell_laotf.htm. We selected color chips from 430 to 660 nm to approximate the range of human color vision. Analyses using greater ranges were also carried out; no measurable increase in accuracy was obtained by increasing the range. Thus the basic matrix $S(\lambda)$ consists of 1,250 rows of Munsell color chips and 47 columns, with each column containing the reflectance data averaged for 5-nm intervals running from 430 to 660 nm. The first step of the analysis was to multiply the figures in each column of the spectral reflectance data matrix by the spectral radiant power distribution of D65 light, $D(\lambda)$, creating a new matrix $SD(\lambda)$, which approximates the amount of radiant energy falling on the retina under conditions of D65 illumination (6).

The Representation of Cone Sensitivities

We have used the Stockman and Sharpe (7) sensitivity functions for the long, medium, and short cones. The Stockman and Sharpe curves are normalized to 1.0 at their peaks. We used cone fundamentals in 5-nm steps in terms of energy (linear) from <http://cvision.ucsd.edu/database/text/cones/ss10.htm>. To estimate the total activity for each cone for any given color chip we first multiplied the cone sensitivity figures for that cone across each of the 5-nm intervals from 430 to 660 by the corresponding spectral reflectance figures from matrix $SD(\lambda)$ and then summed

across the 5-nm intervals to obtain the summed cone response. The result is a three-column matrix, LMS , with a row of the matrix for each color chip and each column containing the summed cone response data.

The Cube Root Transformation

Because the relationship between physical energy and neural or perceptual responses is generally recognized to be nonlinear, we explored some of the standard transformations given in the literature. For photopic vision, both log and cube root of the spectral energy (luminance) have been used. Wyszecki and Stiles (6) presented plots of six curves (Fig. 2) and formulae (Table 1) relating lightness-scale values and luminance factors. The functions they present include square roots, cube roots, and logs.

A visual comparison of the effect of different transformation can be obtained by plotting the spectral reflectance curves for a series of color chips. Fig. 2 shows spectra for seven 5.0 green color chips at chroma 2 and value levels 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, and 9. In Fig. 2 Left the reflectance spectra are plotted on the original reflectance scale, in Fig. 2 Center they are on a log scale, and in Fig. 2 Right they are on a cube root scale. On the original reflectance scale the spectra are neither parallel nor equally spaced, on the log scale they are parallel but not equally spaced, and on the cube root scale they are both parallel and approximately equally spaced. The same result was found across a range of spectral reflectance curves. Romney and Indow (8), in a scaling analysis of reflectance spectral data, also found the cube

Table 1. Opponent process weights

Value	Cones			Sum of weights
	Long	Medium	Short	
White to black				
2.5 group	0.42	0.63	-0.06	0.99
5.0 group	0.45	0.61	-0.08	0.99
7.5 group	0.34	0.71	-0.07	0.99
10.0 group	0.47	0.58	-0.007	0.98
Yellow to purple-blue				
2.5 group	-2.03	3.76	-1.82	-0.09
5.0 group	-2.37	4.50	-2.18	-0.05
7.5 group	-1.85	3.56	-1.77	-0.06
10.0 group	-2.35	4.56	-2.21	-0.02
Red to blue-green				
2.5 group	6.05	-6.27	0.32	-0.05
5.0 group	7.46	-7.82	0.41	-0.05
7.5 group	6.21	-6.46	0.31	-0.09
10.0 group	7.72	-8.12	0.41	-0.05

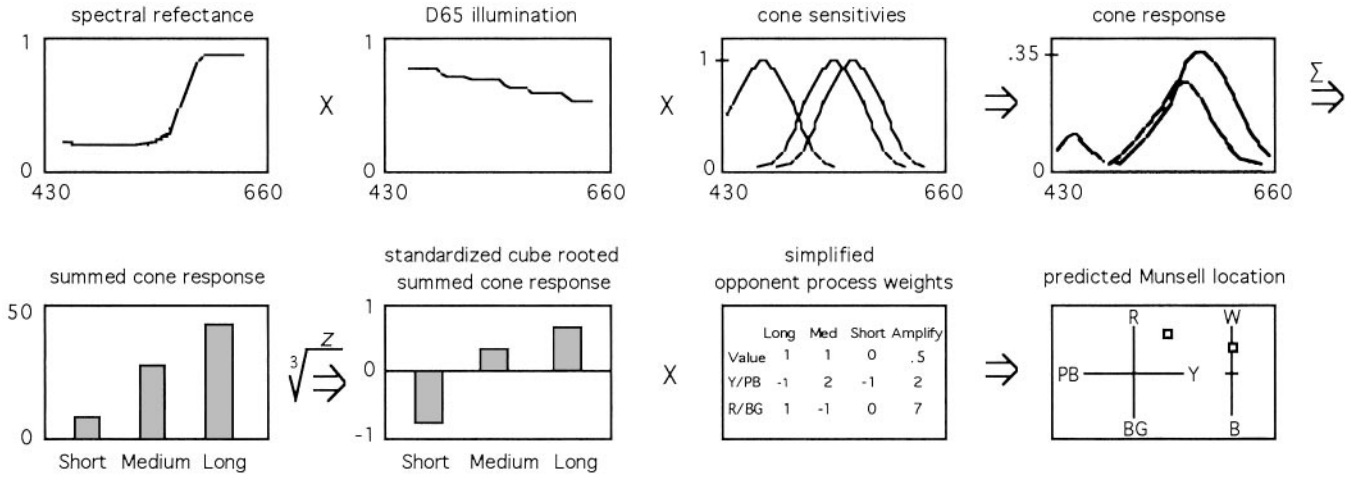


Fig. 3. Cartoon of the data transformations carried out in this article, using as an example a single spectral reflectance curve that is multiplied by the D65 illumination curve, then multiplied by the short, medium, and long cone sensitivity functions, then summed for each cone, cube-rooted and standardized, and finally multiplied by opponent process weights to its predicted Munsell location on the yellow to purple-blue, red to blue-green, and white to black axes.

root transformation yielded a close approximation to the value dimension.

Because the cube root transformation maintains linear relationships among spectral curves for color samples of the same hue and chroma, the summed cone values in the matrix *LMS* were cube-rooted. We also explored whether taking the cube root function at different points along the transformational process had effects on predictive accuracy. Neither cube rooting the spectra data matrix *S*(λ) before engaging in any other transformations, nor cube rooting the spectral data after they had been multiplied by the D65 illumination [the matrix *SD*(λ)], affected predictive accuracy. Correlations of the sums of the long, medium, and short cones created by the different cube root procedures were all in the 0.999 range.

The values of each of the *L*, *M*, and *S* columns of the matrix were then transformed into *z* scores with a mean of zero and a standard deviation of one, creating a new matrix designated *z3rLMS*. Scores were standardized because the summed cone scores have no absolute reference point because the cone sensitivity functions used here were already normed with each curve having a maximum value of one. We recognize that this is not the usual cone normalization procedure. A more common procedure is to normalize summed cone scores by dividing the scores for each cone by the total sum of the three cone scores for that chip (i.e., $L/L+M+S$, $M/L+M+S$, $S/L+M+S$). We have carried out our full analyses on both procedures and found a slight, but significant, increase in predictive accuracy with *z* scores, possibly because using all scores to estimate relationships among cones yields better estimates than using only the three cone scores for each chip. For the purposes of this article, there is no theoretical import to using one rather than another kind of normalization procedure. A cartoon describing the transformations we have carried out, some of which have yet to be described, is presented in Fig. 3.

Obtaining Linear Estimates for the Munsell Color Space

The opponent process of color vision can be conceptualized as a set of transformations by which the summed cone activity of each color sample is translated into the coordinates of perceptual color space. Quantitatively, this can be modeled by finding weights that predict the Munsell coordinates from the matrix of summed cone activity *z3rLMS*. Assuming that the process is linear and scores have been standardized, standard multiple regression or least-squares analysis of multiple linear equations

are appropriate techniques that yield identical results. The standardized regression coefficients, or opponent process weights, are presented in Table 1 for all four Munsell groups.

Overall, weights vary little by hue group. The ratios between the weights vary even less, indicating a robust estimation procedure. The weights for value and the red to blue-green dimension are generally what one would expect from the literature on the opponent processes (2, 3, 9–12). Value, the light to dark dimension, is almost entirely a function of the long and medium cones. The red to blue-green dimension is primarily a function of the difference between the medium versus the long cones. The weights for the yellow to purple-blue dimension show a more complex pattern, with long and short cones in opposition to medium cones. In the literature, this dimension has shown the greatest divergence of estimates of opponent process weights.

It should be mentioned that the weights reported here are applicable only for the axes from which they were computed. Given any rotation of the axes, the weights will change, although the overall degree of accuracy in predicting the Munsell conceptual position of chips from the spectral data will remain the same. We believe the Munsell axes are reasonable approximations to whatever axes are used by the neural system because the red end of the red to blue-green axis is fixed by hue of the longest perceived wavelengths and the purple-blue end of the yellow to purple-blue axis is fixed by the shortest perceived wavelengths. In this sense, each axis is fixed on one side by its furthest limit of perception. As a formal computation matter, however, the position of the axes is arbitrary.

The next issue concerns how well these weights predict the position of the color chips in the Munsell space. To predict the position of any given color chip, the summed and standardized activity of each cone has been multiplied by the appropriate opponent process weights for each Munsell dimension. Table 2

Table 2. Correlations by dimension for the fit between predicted and conceptual Munsell locations

Hue group	Value	Yellow to purple-blue	Red to blue-green	Mean <i>r</i>
2.5	0.997	0.980	0.994	0.990
5.0	0.998	0.975	0.995	0.989
7.5	0.998	0.977	0.995	0.990
10.0	0.998	0.972	0.994	0.988

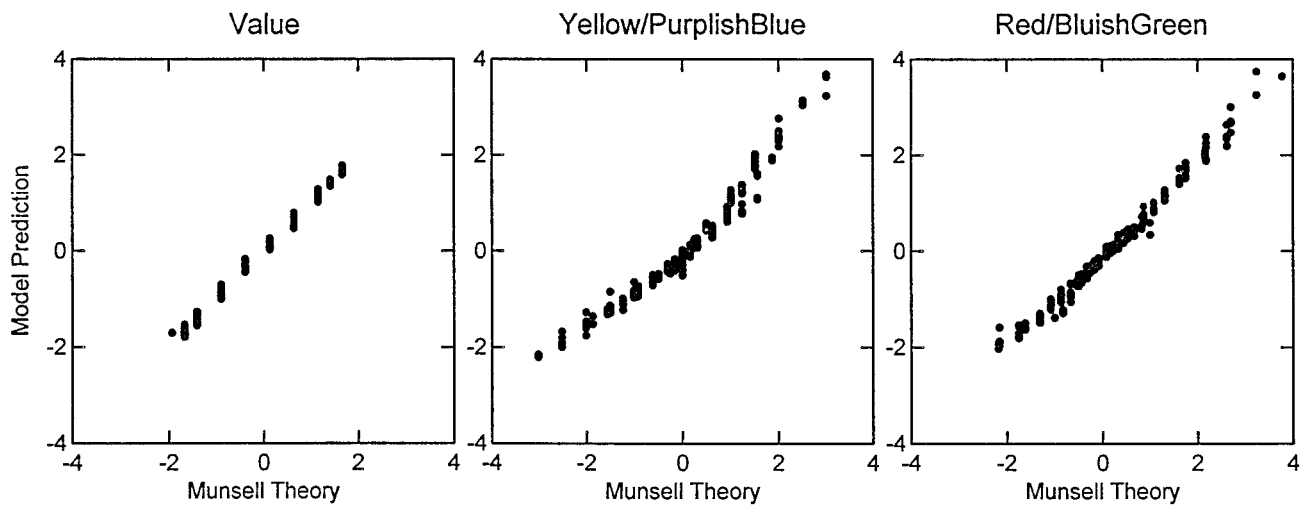


Fig. 4. Plot of the relation between the positions of 355 5.0 hue chips on the theoretical Munsell Cartesian axes versus the position predicted from the spectral reflectance curves and opponent process weights.

presents the correlations between predicted and the conceptual Munsell color chip positions on the three color dimensions for each of the four hue groups; Fig. 4 presents the scatter plots for these three dimensions for the 5.0 hue group.

Given the real-world problems involved in producing color chips that are exactly positioned in their proper perceptual location in the Munsell space, the fit between predicted and conceptual positions seems excellent. The graphic results for the Munsell 5.0 hue group with respect to the hue dimensions at values 3, 5, 7, and 9 are presented in Fig. 5.

Examination of the residuals shows a systematic difference between the predicted and conceptual data. Overall, there is a tendency for the predicted points on the yellow side of the yellow

to purple-blue axis to extend further out from the achromatic point than the corresponding conceptual points, whereas the predicted points on the purple-blue side of the axis fail to extend far enough from the achromatic point.

Two sources of data lead us to believe the problem here is in positioning of the actual color chips, not some complex nonlinearity in perception. The first is that the principal components obtained from a single value decomposition of the spectral data obtained by Romney and Indow (8) displays the same systematic divergence with respect to the yellow to purple-blue axis when all components are rotated into conformity with the Munsell system. Here the mapping is directly from the physical spectral data to the Munsell conceptual system. Although one would not

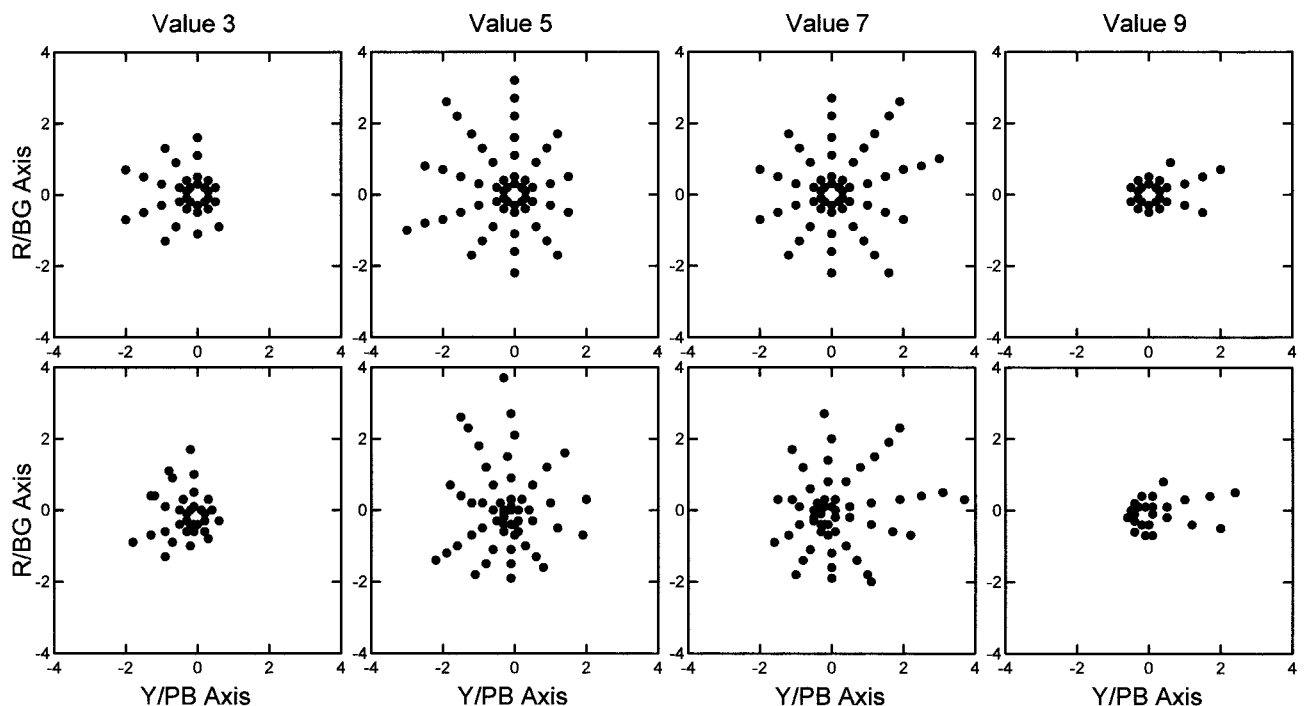


Fig. 5. Comparison of plots at selected levels of value for the Munsell hue dimensions. (Upper) The conceptual positions of chips on the two hue dimensions. (Lower) The positions predicted from the spectral reflectance curves and opponent process weights. R/BG, red/bluish-green; Y/PB, yellow/purplish-blue.

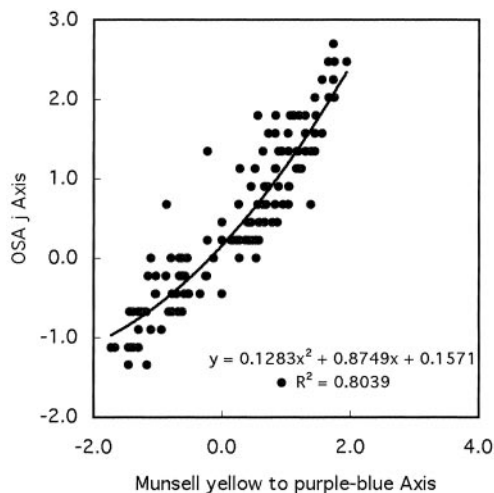


Fig. 6. Plot of the relation of 135 matched Munsell chips and OSA tiles on the Munsell yellow to purple-blue axis and the OSA *J* axis, including a least-squares fitted trend line and second-order polynomial equation for these data.

necessarily expect an isomorphic mapping directly from the physical data to the perceptual data, the fact that both the opponent process analysis and the purely physical analysis show the same divergence from the Munsell color samples is notable.

The second source of evidence is based on work by Boynton, MacLaury, and Uchikawa (14) in which Munsell color chips were directly matched to OSA color tiles. Comparing matched OSA and Munsell colors, the same divergence becomes apparent. Examination of the matched color samples show that OSA tiles have proportionally greater values on yellow side of the yellow to purple-blue dimension than the corresponding Munsell chips, and proportionally smaller values on the purple-blue side of the axis. Fig. 6 presents a scatter plot of these data fitted to a second-order polynomial.

Although the number of matched color samples between the OSA and Munsell systems is not great enough to arrive at a fully determinate result, a nonlinear relation between the two systems with respect to the yellow to purple-blue axis is apparent. Comparison of the red to blue-green axes across the two systems, on the other hand, shows no evidence of nonlinearity. Modifying the Munsell conceptual system by using a second-order polynomial correction to take account of this nonlinearity raises the correlation between predicted and conceptual scores from 0.976 to 0.991 for the yellow to purple-blue dimension.

Simplification of Opponent Process Weights

Because regression weights are based on least-squares approximations, such weights can often be unitized without adversely affecting accuracy of prediction (13). By treating the weights as if they were composed of two components it is possible to replace the many-place numbers in Table 1 with simple integers with little loss of accuracy. The first step in doing this is to abstract the relations between the cones. Thus, for

Table 3. Simplified opponent process weights

Value	Cones			Amplify by
	Long	Medium	Short	
White to black	1	1	0	0.5
Yellow to purple-blue	-1	2	-1	2
Red to blue-green	1	-1	0	7

Table 4. Comparison of correlations by dimension for the fit between predicted and conceptual Munsell locations for calculated versus simplified weights (means for all hue groups)

Weights	Munsell dimensions			Mean <i>r</i>
	Value	Yellow to purple-blue	Red to blue-green	
Calculated	0.998	0.976	0.995	0.989
Simplified	0.997	0.974	0.980	0.984

example, for the 5.0 group, for the yellow to purple-blue axis the weights in Table 1 are -1.99 for the long cone, +4.04 for the medium cone, and -2.10 for the short cone. The proportions here are ≈ -1 to $+2$ to -1 . These integers then become the unitized weights. To predict actual locations along this axis, the results of the -1, +2, -1 weightings must be multiplied by two to make the results correspond to results obtained from the unsimplified regression weights. A simplified matrix for the opponent process weights is presented in Table 3 and a comparison between the results of predicting from calculated weights versus simplified weights is presented in Table 4. Because it is easier to imagine neural opponent connections on a 1-to-1 basis, which are then amplified seven times than it is to imagine neural connections matching up on a 7.74 to -8.09 to 0.37 basis, the fact that relatively simple integer relations can be found to model the opponent process weights adds to the potential neural plausibility of our model.

To help resolve some of the differences in the literature about the weights for the yellow to purple-blue dimension, we have assigned different sets of integer weights to find out which set best predicts the data. Results for four different sets of integer weights are presented in Table 5. Although the differences between the coefficients are small, all pairs of coefficients are significantly different at probability levels <0.01 . These results support our assignment of -1 long, +2 medium, and -1 short weights for the yellow to purple-blue dimension, given the understanding that these weights are specific to the Munsell axes used here.

Other Color-Matching Functions

Besides cone sensitivity functions, other functions, such as the 10° red, green, blue (RGB) color-matching functions and CIE 10° (1964) XYZ functions, have been used in color-matching research (15, 16). These functions all appear to be linear transformations of each other, which means regression weights can be used to transform any set of color-matching functions to any other. This also means that we can use any linearly related set of color-matching functions exactly as we have used the cone sensitivity functions to predict from spectral reflectance curves to the Munsell perceptual space. Table 6 presents the results of carrying out the operations depicted in Fig. 4 using the 10° RGB and the CIE 10° XYZ color-matching functions for the 5.0 hue group (obtained from <http://cvision.ucsd.edu/cmfs.htm>) instead of cone sensitivity func-

Table 5. Comparison of simplified opponent process weights for the yellow to purple-blue dimension

	Cones			Correlation between conceptual and predicted
	Long	Medium	Short	
-1	2	-1		0.974
0	1	-1		0.930
1	1	-2		0.891
1	0	-1		0.847

Table 6. Opponent process weights 5.0 hue group for cone sensitivity, RGB, and CIE XYZ color-matching functions

Value	Cones			Sum	<i>r</i> between predicted and conceptual
	Long	Medium	Short		
White to black					
Cone sensitivity	0.45	0.61	-0.08	0.99	0.998
RGB	0.24	0.84	-0.08	1.01	0.997
CIE XYZ	-0.11	1.19	-0.09	0.99	0.997
Yellow to purple-blue					
Cone sensitivity	-2.37	4.50	-2.18	-0.05	0.975
RGB	-2.03	3.76	-1.82	-0.09	0.971
CIE XYZ	-1.85	3.56	-1.77	-0.06	0.979
Red to blue-green					
Cone sensitivity	7.46	-7.82	0.41	-0.05	0.995
RGB	2.28	-2.49	0.41	-0.08	0.990
CIE XYZ	6.21	-6.46	0.31	-0.09	0.994

tions. Table 6 shows that while the weights change for the different sets of functions, the sets predict from the spectral data to the Munsell color space equally well.

Discussion

The data transformations presented here produce a reasonably satisfactory positioning of the Munsell color chips in perceptual color space from spectral reflectance data. Although by themselves these transformations are not sufficient to account for many aspects of color vision, such as color constancy or hue shifts with changes in illumination, our results do indicate that simple linear opponent process mechanisms give an adequate account of certain basic features of human color vision. This model may also prove to have some practical value, making it possible to effectively assign Munsell positions to a wide variety of colored materials based solely on their spectral reflectances without requiring complex psychological scaling judgments. At this point, analyses of spectral reflectance data from the OSA system are clearly needed as an independent check on the procedures and weights presented here.

We are grateful to Donald MacLeod, Manuel Rotenberg, Tarow Indow, Paul Kay, and Geoff Iverson for extensive comments and advice on earlier drafts of this manuscript. The research was supported in part by National Science Foundation Grant SBR-9531213 (to A.K.R. and William H. Batchelder).

1. Jameson, K. & D'Andrade, R. G. (1997) in *Color Categories in Thought and Language*, eds. Hardin, C. L. & Maffi, L. (Cambridge Univ. Press, New York), pp. 295-319.
2. Boynton, R. M. & Olson, C. X. (1987) *Color Res. Appl.* **12**, 94-105.
3. Eskew, R. T., McLellan, J. S. & Giulianini, F. (1999) in *Color Vision: From Genes to Perception*, eds. Gegenfurtner, K. R. & Sharpe, L. T. (Cambridge Univ. Press, New York), pp. 345-368.
4. Newhall, S. M., Nickerson, D. & Judd, B. (1943) *J. Opt. Soc. Am.* **33**, 385-418.
5. Indow, T. (1980) *Color Res. Appl.* **5**, 5-12.
6. Wyszecki, G. & Stiles, W. S. (1982) *Color Science: Concepts and Methods, Quantitative Data, and Formulae* (Wiley, New York), 2nd Ed.
7. Stockman, A. & Sharpe, L. T. (2000) *Vision Res.* **40**, 1711-1737.
8. Romney, A. K. & Indow, T. (2003) *Color Res. Appl.* **28**, 182-196.
9. Boynton, R. M. (1979) *Human Color Vision* (Holt Rinehart and Winston, New York).
10. Cornsweet, T. N. (1971) *Visual Perception* (Academic, New York).
11. De Valois, R. L., Cottaris, N. P., Elfar, S. D., Mahon, L. E. & Wilson, J. A. (2000) *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA* **97**, 4997-5002.
12. Kuehni, R. G. (2002) *Color Res. Appl.* **25**, 56-63.
13. Dawes, R. M. (1979) *Am. Psychologist* **34**, 571-582.
14. Boynton, R. M., MacLaury, R. & Uchikawa, K. (1989) *Color Res. Appl.* **14**, 6-15.
15. Stiles, W. S. & Burch, J. M. (1959) *Optica Acta* **6**, 1-26.
16. Romney, A. K. & Indow, T. (2002) *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA* **99**, 11543-11546.
17. Munsell Color Company, Inc. (1976) *Munsell Book of Color: Matte Finish Collection* (Munsell, Baltimore).