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1 **C**

2 **Color Contrast Adaptation**

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9 **Synonyms**

10 [Colorfulness adaptation](#); [Habituation](#); [Variance](#)  
 11 [adaptation](#)

12 **Definition**

13 Changes in sensitivity or appearance in response  
 14 to spatial or temporal variations in color

15 **Concepts**

16 All sensory systems continuously adjust sensitiv-  
 17 ity or adapt to match their responses to the current  
 18 stimulus context. In vision, these adjustments  
 19 occur at many levels along the visual pathway  
 20 and adjust to most if not all of the properties  
 21 encoded by the visual system, from simple  
 22 image features to high-level representations like  
 23 the attributes of a face [1]. Thus adaptation to

color is a specific example of a very general and 24  
 ubiquitous process affecting everything we see. 25

Most studies of color or “chromatic adapta- 26  
 tion” have focused on the changes in sensitivity 27  
 and perception resulting from exposure to a 28  
 change in the average color of the stimulus 29  
 [2]. Chromatic adaptation begins as early as the 30  
 photoreceptors, which like a camera must adjust 31  
 their limited response range so that it is centered 32  
 on the current light level. Since the different cone 33  
 classes are each light adapting independently, a 34  
 light that differentially stimulates the cones will 35  
 lead to a change in the relative sensitivity to dif- 36  
 ferent spectra. For example, a longwave (reddish) 37  
 spectrum is a strong stimulus for the L cones while 38  
 a weak stimulus for the S cones. Thus in the 39  
 presence of this light the L-cone sensitivity will 40  
 be reduced while the S-cone sensitivity will be 41  
 increased. Sensitivity changes that occur indepen- 42  
 dently in the cones and vary inversely with the 43  
 light level are known as von Kries adaptation. 44  
 Adjustments of this kind tend to renormalize 45  
 color percepts so that the cone signals are equated 46  
 for the current spectrum. Thus after adapting to 47  
 the longwave spectrum the responses in the L and 48  
 S cones will become more similar and the initially 49  
 red light will appear more gray. In turn, a light that 50  
 appeared gray before the adaptation will appear 51  
 bluish after adapting, as a negative afterimage of 52  
 the red adapting color. This chromatic adaptation 53  
 is thought to play an important role in color con- 54  
 stancy, by adjusting sensitivity to discount 55

56 changes in the color of objects resulting from  
57 changes in the illumination [3].

58 However, in addition to the mean, color vision  
59 also adapts to the range or variance of the color  
60 distribution. These adjustments are known as con-  
61 trast adaptation [2]. Contrast adaptation is again a  
62 very general process and has been very widely  
63 studied in the case of spatial vision, where it is  
64 the range of luminance levels that is typically  
65 varied [4]. For example, exposure to a high con-  
66 trast grating (alternate light and dark bars) results  
67 in a loss in contrast sensitivity. The threshold  
68 contrast difference for detecting the grating  
69 increases, while the apparent contrast of visible  
70 gratings decreases. These effects are selective for  
71 the spatial properties of the grating. That is, sen-  
72 sitivity is reduced for patterns that have a similar  
73 size (spatial frequency) or orientation as the  
74 adapting grating, while little affected for spatially  
75 distinct patterns. This also again leads to negative  
76 aftereffects in the appearance of other patterns.  
77 After adapting to a tilted grating, a vertical grating  
78 appears tilted in the opposite direction (the tilt  
79 aftereffect) and the perceived size or spatial fre-  
80 quency of gratings appears biased away from the  
81 adapting grating. Like the example above of the  
82 cones, these results are again consistent with gain  
83 changes in different mechanisms or visual “chan-  
84 nels” sensitive to different spatial properties of the  
85 stimulus, each adjusting according to the level at  
86 which they are stimulated. Indeed, measurements  
87 of the selectivity of the aftereffects of contrast  
88 adaptation were a primary tool in the study of  
89 spatial and temporal vision and in the develop-  
90 ment of channel models of visual coding [4]. For  
91 this reason, adaptation has often been described as  
92 “the psychologist’s electrode.” However, it should  
93 be noted that the aftereffects also depend on the  
94 network properties and interactions within the  
95 system and thus not simply on how each mecha-  
96 nism adapts in isolation [5].

## 97 History

98 Contrast adaptation in the context of color vision  
99 has received much less attention, and there are far  
100 fewer studies compared to chromatic (mean)

101 adaptation. It is nevertheless an important and  
102 robust phenomenon with important functional  
103 implications. While some earlier studies exam-  
104 ined adaptation to temporal color contrast  
105 (flicker), a study by Krauskopf, Williams, and  
106 Heeley [6] was seminal in exploiting color con-  
107 trast adaptation to examine the color selectivity of  
108 the aftereffects. Their stimulus was a sinusoidal  
109 modulation of the color or luminance of a uniform  
110 field along different directions in color space. All  
111 had the same mean and thus produced the same  
112 state of chromatic adaptation. However the flicker  
113 reduced sensitivity to detecting a color change  
114 (an effect they called habituation), and these  
115 effects were again selective for the color of the  
116 adapting stimulus. For example, adapting to  
117 reddish-greenish flicker made it harder to detect  
118 these colors than other colors. These aftereffects  
119 could not be accounted for by response changes in  
120 the receptors, and instead pointed to desensitiza-  
121 tion in postreceptoral mechanisms that drew on  
122 different combinations of the cone signals. For  
123 instance, adapting to achromatic flicker strongly  
124 modulates the signals in all of the cones. This  
125 reduced sensitivity to luminance variations  
126 (in mechanisms that sum the cone inputs), but  
127 had little effect on chromatic variations (which  
128 are instead detected by mechanisms sensitive to  
129 the differences between the cone signals). The  
130 pattern of selectivity revealed three primary  
131 adaptable mechanisms tuned to achromatic stim-  
132 uli or to chromatic stimuli that varied the excita-  
133 tion of the L vs. M cones or the S cones versus the  
134 L and M cones. These were thus identified as the  
135 “cardinal directions” of color space and were sub-  
136 sequently shown to correspond to the color tuning  
137 of the primary pathways carrying information  
138 from the retina to the cortex [7]. The cardinal  
139 axes have since become a standard metric for  
140 designing and interpreting experiments in color  
141 vision, impacting thousands of studies. It is there-  
142 fore noteworthy that it was through color contrast  
143 adaptation that they were first firmly established,  
144 though again surprisingly few studies have  
145 followed up on the properties and consequences  
146 of this adaptation.

147 Further analyses by Krauskopf and colleagues  
148 showed that there was also some selectivity of the

149 adaptation for chromatic directions intermediate  
150 to the cardinal axes [8]. This finding established  
151 the presence of additional “higher order color  
152 mechanisms,” which have also strongly  
153 influenced modern approaches and theories  
154 about human color vision. Subsequently Webster  
155 and Mollon [9] explored how the adaptation to  
156 temporal color contrast affected color appearance.  
157 The adaptation produced large and selective  
158 changes in both saturation and hue. Specifically,  
159 adapting to a given axis in color space (e.g., a  
160 modulation along the LvsM cardinal axis)  
161 reduced perceived contrast (saturation) the most  
162 along the adapting axis, and biased the perceived  
163 hue of other chromatic directions away from the  
164 adapting axis and toward an orthogonal direction  
165 in color space (Fig. 1a). For example, the LvsM  
166 adaptation caused a previously pure blue or yellow  
167 hue to appear less like the LvsM (reddish-cyan)  
168 axis and more like the hues (purple or lime)  
169 of the S cardinal axis. Both the saturation and hue  
170 changes are consistent with a loss of sensitivity in  
171 the mechanisms tuned to the adapting mechanisms,  
172 though there is also evidence for a dissociation,  
173 since at high test contrasts, colors can  
174 exhibit a large hue bias despite small changes in  
175 their perceived contrast.

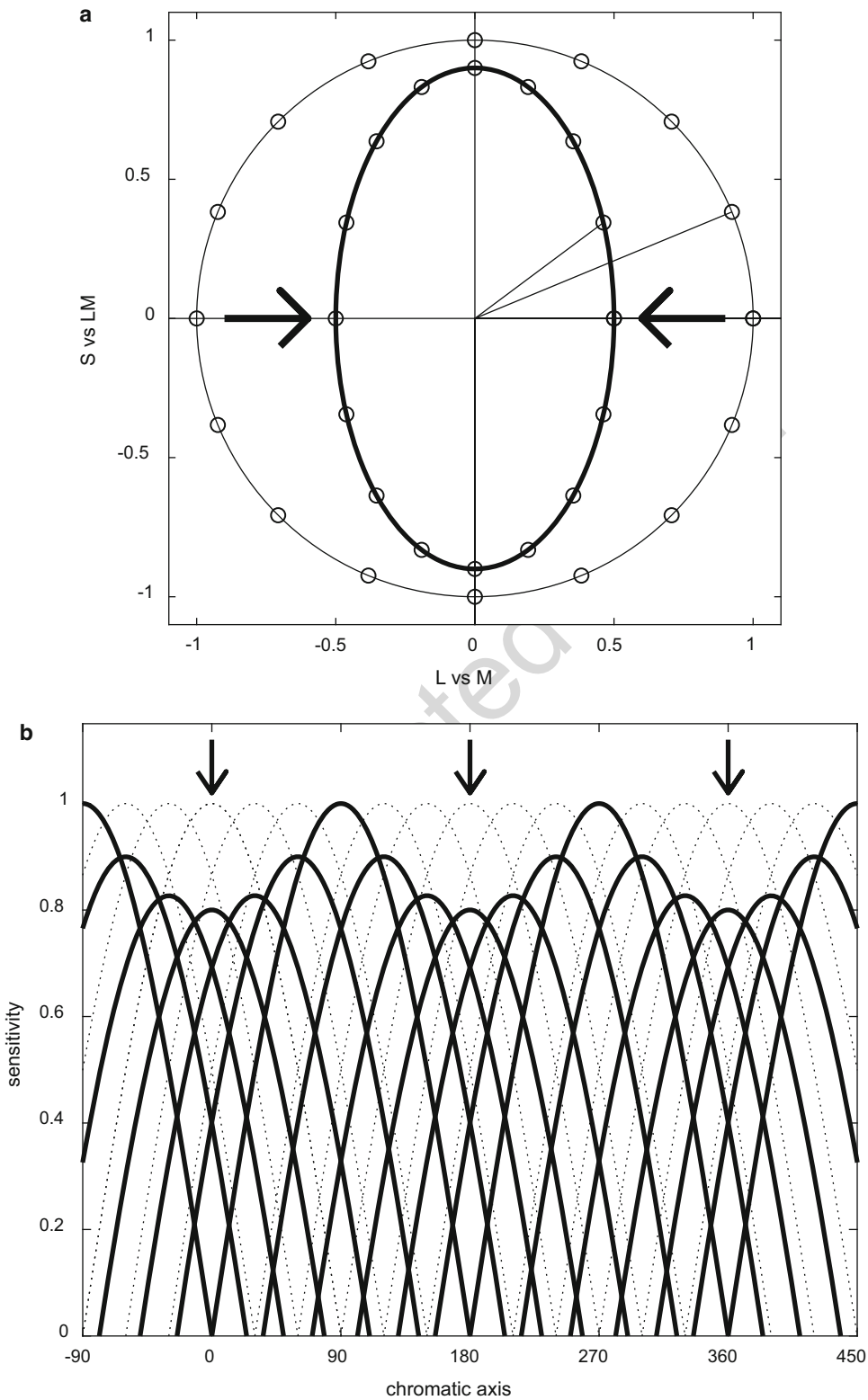
## 176 Key Principles

177 The adaptation-induced biases in hue are similar  
178 to spatial orientation aftereffects, but reflect tilt  
179 aftereffects in the perceived direction (hue) within  
180 color space. As with spatial orientation, the  
181 changes in color appearance from contrast adaptation  
182 can be selective for any arbitrary color  
183 direction, again implicating multiple mechanisms  
184 tuned to different directions in color space. However,  
185 unlike the tilt aftereffect, which at best produces  
186 a subtle bias in perceived orientation (about  
187 2 deg), the biases in hue can be dramatic and up to  
188 30 deg. or more. This difference is consistent with  
189 a broader tuning for hue mechanisms compared to  
190 orientation channels, at least at the level at which  
191 the adaptation is occurring. The common effects  
192 of adaptation across different stimulus dimensions  
193 point to common coding principles underlying the

194 representations for different visual attributes [1, 194  
195 4]. In particular, they suggest that the kinds of  
196 multiple-channel population codes that are widely  
197 assumed for form and motion perception also  
198 underlie the representation of color appearance  
199 (Fig. 1b). The representation implied by contrast  
200 adaptation is thus very different from the tradi-  
201 tional two-channel (red vs. green and blue  
202 vs. yellow) model of opponent color theory, but  
203 is consistent with a wealth of behavioral and  
204 physiological evidence for multiple higher order  
205 color mechanisms.

206 In contrast to chromatic adaptation, the primary  
207 sites of the sensitivity changes in color and  
208 spatial contrast adaptation are thought to be cortical.  
209 This is suggested by the fact that the color  
210 aftereffects are also selective for spatial properties  
211 of the stimulus like orientation and that the adaptation  
212 shows some interocular transfer, properties  
213 that the neurons first become selective for in primary  
214 visual cortex. Cells earlier in the visual  
215 pathway show weak adaptation to chromatic contrast,  
216 though the degree of adaptation observed  
217 depends on the approach to measure it. Neural  
218 correlates of contrast adaptation have also been  
219 found in the response changes in single cells or in  
220 the brain activity (BOLD responses) measured by  
221 fMRI. However, the actual relationships between  
222 different neural and perceptual measurements of  
223 contrast adaptation are complex and uncertain.

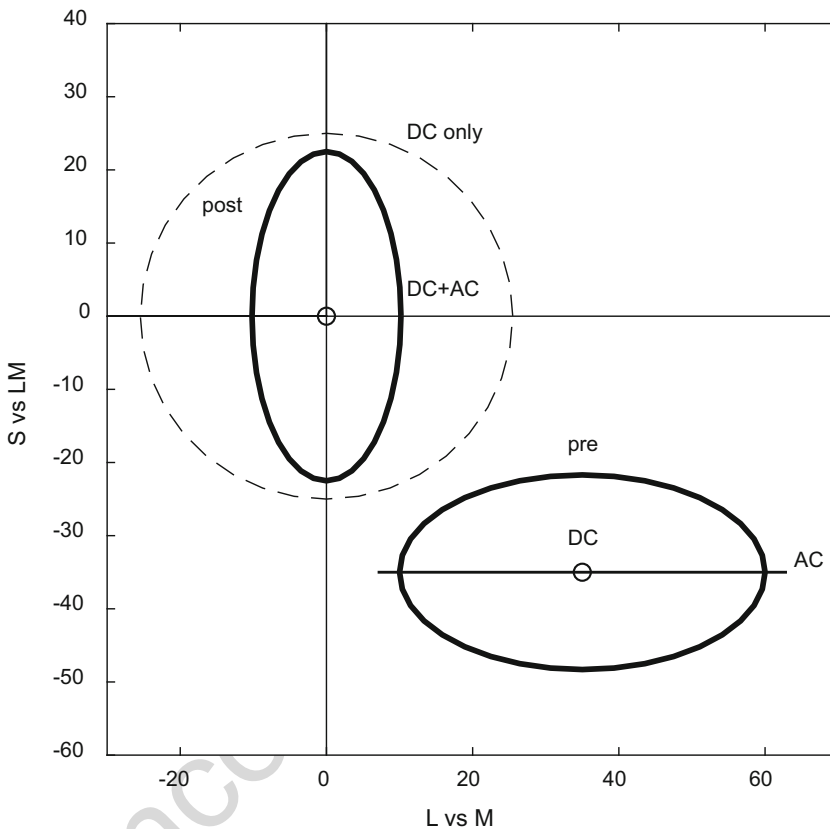
224 Thus in terms of their properties, chromatic  
225 adaptation and contrast adaptation reflect adjustments  
226 to two different statistics of the stimulus  
227 (the mean and the variance) arising at two different  
228 stages of the visual system (retinal and cortical)  
229 [2]. Consistent with this, the two types of  
230 adaptation produce separable effects on sensitivity  
231 and appearance (Fig. 2). Both types of adaptation  
232 also have a spatial analog. Just as a uniform  
233 color surround alters the hue of a central field  
234 (simultaneous color contrast), surrounding a field  
235 with a high-contrast background alters the perceived  
236 contrast, an effect which once more reflects  
237 very general processes of contrast normalization  
238 in sensory systems [10].



**Color Contrast Adaptation, Fig. 1** (a) Effects of contrast adaptation on color appearance. The outer circle depicts a set of test stimuli with equal contrast but spanning different angles within the LvsM and SvsLM plane.

**Color Contrast Adaptation, Fig. 1** (continued) Adaptation to the LvsM axis (arrows) selectively reduces sensitivity to the LvsM component of each test stimulus. This reduces perceived contrast (saturation) and also rotates the perceived hue angle away from the adapting axis. **(b)** Both

the contrast and hue changes are consistent with response changes in multiple mechanisms tuned to different axes in the chromatic plane. Adaptation to the LvsM axis (arrows) reduces the responses in mechanisms sensitive to this axis, thus biasing the distribution of responses across the channels



**Color Contrast Adaptation, Fig. 2** Combined effects of chromatic adaptation and color contrast adaptation. “Pre” shows a set of colors centered on a yellowish mean (DC) chromaticity, while “post” plot the perceived colors after adaptation. Chromatic adaptation adjusts to the DC color so that it appears gray and shifts the set of colors so

that they appear centered on the origin (DC only). If observers are adapted to the same mean DC chromaticity but contrast is varied along the LvsM axis (AC), then in addition to the mean color change there is a loss in perceived contrast along the LvsM axis (DC + AC)

239 **Phenomena**

240 Both types of adaptation are important in natural  
 241 viewing [1]. For example, the perceived contrast  
 242 or colorfulness of natural or artificial images  
 243 depends on the contrasts of the images that  
 244 observers are adapted to. Color contrast in natural  
 245 scenes is not random and instead tends to have a

strong blue-yellow bias in part because of the 246  
 dominant colors of earth and sky. The visual sys- 247  
 tem is thus naturally exposed to stronger blue- 248  
 yellow contrasts. Adaptation to this predicts the 249  
 consistent finding that observers tend to be less 250  
 sensitive to blue-yellow stimuli compared to 251  
 other chromatic directions. These sensitivity dif- 252  
 ferences are also evident in most uniform color 253

spaces, which attempt to scale stimuli so that equal perceptual differences correspond to equal distances within the space. In these spaces the differences in cone signals are larger along the blue–yellow quadrant, implying weaker visual sensitivity. Ecosystems also vary systematically in their color contrasts and this suggests that individuals exposed to different environments (e.g., a forest or desert) may be held in different states of contrast adaptation. Moreover, contrast adaptation is also likely to be a factor in how the visual system adapts to the unnatural environments than humans increasingly occupy. An important case is the new generation of wide gamut lighting and displays. These increase the chromatic contrasts that observers are exposed to, and this predicts that adaptation to this increase will consequently reduce their contrast sensitivity.

It is less well appreciated that both chromatic and contrast adaptation also adjust to variations within or between observers [1]. For example, it is in part because of these adjustments that color perception remains relatively stable as we age or as the world falls on different retinal locations [11]. The stability arises because in this case the visual system is recalibrating to match a world that itself remains stable. In the case of contrast an intriguing example is how the world might appear to a color deficient observer. Anomalous trichromats retain three kinds of cones but with only small differences in the spectral peaks of their two longer-wave pigments. This reduces the reddish-green contrasts signaled by these cones, yet the visual system could potentially adapt to the weakened contrast and thereby increase sensitivity so that these colors appear stronger. To mediate this stability, the mechanisms of adaptation must themselves remain stable with aging, and importantly, color contrast adaptation appears to remain robust across the adult lifespan, with potentially even larger adaptation effects in older populations.

The timescales of color contrast adaptation are not well characterized, and there is conflicting evidence as to whether or not the effect can build up with longer periods of adaptation. Strong after-effects of spatial contrast adaptation can occur with brief exposures, and at least some

adjustments can occur within a few milliseconds, recalibrating perception with each eye movement. For other adjustments it is advantageous to average over longer times (e.g., to adjust to the average color or contrast of a scene rather than to each individual surface as it is fixated). There is also growing evidence for adaptation effects that unfold over hours, days or even months [12]. A classic example is the McCollough Effect, in which the color aftereffects are contingent on the spatial orientation of the adapting pattern [13]. These aftereffects may persist permanently until they are actively extinguished by adapting to the complementary stimulus. However, it is not known how the McCollough Effect – or for that matter other types of long-term adaptation – are related to the short-term response changes measured in conventional studies of contrast adaptation.

Because the general ways that chromatic and contrast adaptation alter color perception are known in principle, it is possible to simulate how the world might look to observers adapted to different environments or different observers adapted to the same environment [14] (Fig. 3). This process of adapting the images rather than the observer also has the advantage that adaptation can be simulated for very long timescales that are impractical to study by changing the observer. Measuring visual performance for these adapted images can then reveal some of the perceptual consequences and advantages of contrast adaptation, by assessing what observers can see and do with images that have been adapted to better match their current sensitivity [15].

## Function

The fact that adaptation is a hallmark property of all sensory processes suggests it confers essential advantages, and a wide variety of interrelated functions have been proposed [1]. One set derives from information theory and emphasizes the role of adaptation in optimizing coding efficiency by matching the limited response range of neurons to the current range of stimuli. This also predicts the role of adaptation in normalizing or equating the



**Color Contrast Adaptation, Fig. 3** Monet's Sunrise (Marine). The palette of the original left image was adapted to equate the mean and contrast to a color distribution

characteristic of natural outdoor scenes (after [14]). Digital image courtesy of Getty's Open Content Program

347 responses across different mechanisms. This nor-  
 348 malization is also closely related to ideas about  
 349 how adaptation contributes to perceptual con-  
 350 stancy. If the world or the observer changes, then  
 351 adaptation implements a compensatory adjust-  
 352 ment to discount the change and thus stabilize  
 353 perception. A further related advantage is predic-  
 354 tive coding, in which the sensory system adapts to  
 355 remove the response to the absolute or expected  
 356 stimulus level in order to preserve resources for  
 357 signaling the relative differences or unexpected  
 358 properties. In turn, this principle has been associ-  
 359 ated with the hypothesized effects of adaptation  
 360 on heightening the perceptual salience of novel  
 361 colors or spatial stimuli in the environment.

362 **Cross-References**

- 363 ▶ [Adaptation; Afterimage](#)
- 364 ▶ [Chromatic Scene Statistics](#)
- 365 ▶ [Color Processing](#)
- 366 ▶ [Color Scene Statistics](#)
- 367 ▶ [Color Vision](#)
- 368 ▶ [Cortical](#)
- 369 ▶ [Opponent Theory](#)

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[AU2](#)

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