

# A Proposed Methodology for Evaluating HDR False Color Maps

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Color mapping, which involves assigning colors to the individual elements of an underlying data distribution, is a commonly used method for data visualization. Although color maps are used in many disciplines and for a variety of tasks, in this study we focus on its usage for visualizing luminance maps. Specifically, we ask ourselves the question of how to best visualize a luminance distribution encoded in a high-dynamic-range (HDR) image using false colors such that the resulting visualization is the most *descriptive*. To this end, we first propose a definition for descriptiveness. We then propose a methodology to evaluate it subjectively. Then, we propose an objective metric that correlates well with the subjective evaluation results. Using this metric, we evaluate several false coloring strategies using a large number of HDR images. Finally, we conduct a second psychophysical experiment using images representing a diverse set of scenes. Our results indicate that the luminance compression method has a significant effect and the commonly used logarithmic compression is inferior to histogram equalization. Furthermore, we find that the default color scale of the Radiance global illumination software consistently performs well when combined with histogram equalization. On the other hand, the commonly used rainbow color scale was found to be inferior. We believe that the proposed methodology is suitable for evaluating future color mapping strategies as well.

CCS Concepts: • **Human-centered computing** → **Visualization techniques**; • **Computing methodologies** → **Image processing**;

Additional Key Words and Phrases: HDR imaging, false color, visualization

## ACM Reference Format:

Ahmet Oğuz Akyüz and Osman Kaya. 2016. A proposed methodology for evaluating HDR false color maps. *ACM Trans. Appl. Percept.* 14, 1, Article 2 (June 2016), 18 pages.  
DOI: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1145/2911986>

## 1. INTRODUCTION

In image processing and computer graphics, false (or pseudo) colors are commonly used to visualize intensity distributions. If the underlying signal to be visualized is in the photometric domain, then they can be used to visualize luminances by assigning different colors to different degrees of the signal. Alternatively, if the signal is in the radiometric domain, as in infrared imaging, then they enable us to visually observe the radiance distributions that would otherwise be invisible. Regardless of the application domain, there are many degrees of freedom as to how to represent a given signal using false colors. As a mini-experiment, we invite the reader to try to judge which of the 12 different visualizations shown in Figure 1 most accurately conveys the luminance distribution in the scene? In this

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DOI: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1145/2911986>

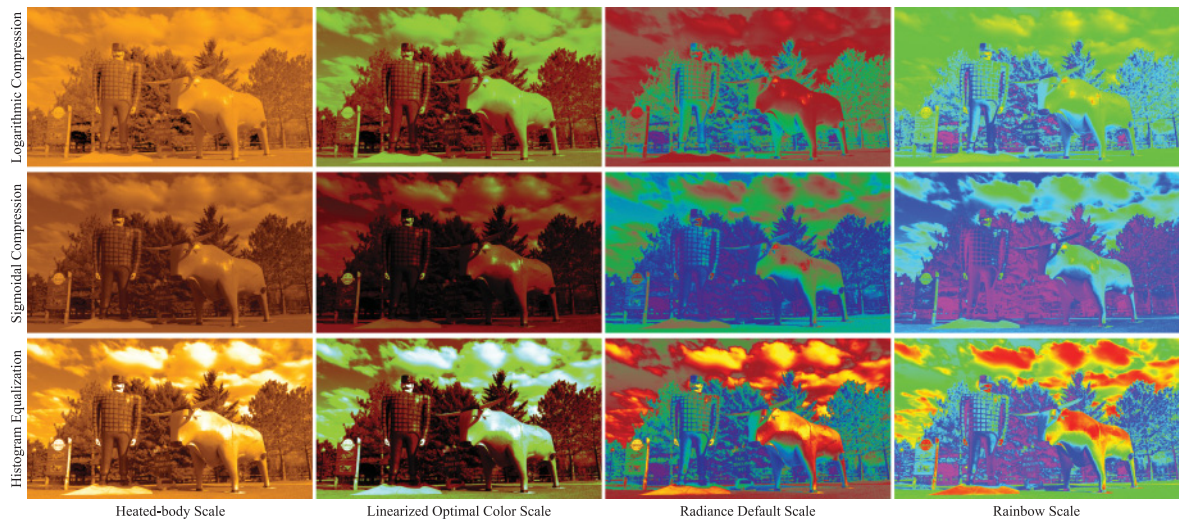


Fig. 1. The same high-dynamic-range image can be visualized in false color in different ways. One can change the type of compression for luminances and the color scale from which the colors are sampled. Here, 12 different combinations are shown. Which one is more informative? Our study aims to answer this question through subjective and objective evaluations using a large number of images.

20 article, we argue that the answer of this question is not obvious, and research is needed to determine  
 21 the best way to visualize a luminance map using false colors.

22 The use of color maps in visualization is prevalent. It involves assigning different colors to different  
 23 degrees of a modality with the goal that the color map conveys extra information that is not directly  
 24 visible in the original signal. However, injudicious use of color maps can cause confusion rather than  
 25 facilitating understanding [MacDonald 1999]. Therefore, it is critical to make the right choice for the  
 26 task at hand.

27 There are many tasks that require studying luminance distributions to extract meaningful scene in-  
 28 formation. For example, Theodor and Furr apply the techniques of high-dynamic-range (HDR) imaging  
 29 to study fossils [2009]. Cultural heritage and archeology also benefit from working directly with lumi-  
 30 nance maps as opposed to low-dynamic-range (LDR) footage [Happa et al. 2010]. Similarly, many other  
 31 fields such as structural engineering [Grinzato et al. 2009], architecture [Cai 2013], medical imaging,  
 32 and forensics [Brown et al. 2010] also use HDR luminance data for the purpose of scene and/or object  
 33 analysis. It is clear that an enhanced depiction of luminance and/or radiance data using false colors  
 34 can be beneficial to these disciplines.

35 Beltran et al. [2005] evaluate HDR photography as an alternative to taking precise measurements  
 36 using spot meters. The authors found that the difference between actual luminance measurements  
 37 and those obtained from HDR images are minimal. They therefore argue that HDR photographs can  
 38 be used to rapidly assess the lighting requirements of various environments. False coloring, to this  
 39 end, may facilitate quick inspection of lighting values in such photographs.

40 Despite its importance, we often observe that false color visualization is performed in an ad hoc  
 41 manner. The typical workflow involves compressing the luminance data using a logarithmic function  
 42 followed by mapping of the colors into an arbitrary color scale—and often the rainbow color scale. We  
 43 argue that both of these choices, namely the compression function and the color scale, are critical, and  
 44 ad hoc choices can impair the quality of the visualization. Our goal in this article is to allow making

these choices in a more principled manner by studying which compression functions and color scales produce more descriptive visualizations.

To this end, we first propose a definition of *descriptiveness*. This definition involves maximizing the number of just-noticeably-different colors within a false color image. We then carry out a psychophysical experiment to compare the effectiveness of 12 sample false coloring strategies commensurate with this definition. Next, we develop an objective metric that correlates well with the results of the subjective experiment. Then, by using this metric, we evaluate these sample false coloring strategies on more than 100 images. Finally, we conduct a second psychophysical experiment involving images of various scenes using the best performing methods in the first two evaluations. The results indicate that histogram equalization outperforms all other compression methods. As for the color scale, the default color scale used in the Radiance ray tracer is found to be superior, especially when combined with histogram equalization as the compression function.

The rest of this article is organized as follows. In Section 2 we review the related work for using color in visualization in general and then more specifically for HDR image visualization. In Section 3, we outline a framework for producing false color maps from HDR photographs. Next, in Sections 4, 5, and 6, we describe our subjective and objective evaluations. Finally, we conclude our article with a discussion, conclusions, and ideas for future research directions.

## 2. RELATED WORK

### 2.1 Tone Mapping

Tone mapping or tone reproduction is the process of reducing the dynamic range of an HDR image to prepare it for display on LDR display devices [Reinhard et al. 2010]. Many tone mapping operators (TMOs) have been developed since the introduction of the problem into computer graphics [Tumblin and Rushmeier 1991]. These are generally classified as global and local operators. Global operators preserve the monotonicity of the luminance values in that higher luminances in the input image get mapped to higher (or equal) luminances in the compressed image. Thus, their compression function can be represented as a curve. The histogram adjustment method by Ward et al. [1997] and the global photographic operator by Reinhard et al. [2002] are two examples of notable global operators. Local operators, on the other hand, can alter the luminance values such that monotonicity is not preserved. This often leads to better visibility in high-contrast image regions but makes it impossible to represent their compression using a single curve. Among a large number of local operators, fast bilateral filtering [Durand and Dorsey 2002], gradient domain compression [Fattal et al. 2002], and the local photographic operator [Reinhard et al. 2002] are representative examples. There are a large number of TMOs that are beyond the scope of our review. We refer the reader to Reinhard et al. [2010] for a detailed coverage of the subject.

### 2.2 Color in Visualization

Color is an indispensable element of data visualization. Although its correct use can greatly enhance the effectiveness of the visualization, its ad hoc or incorrect use can cause further confusion [MacDonald 1999]. When using color for visualization, one of the first choices that needs to be made is the selection of a color scale. For univariate data, an appropriate color scale should preferably satisfy the following properties [Trumbo 1981; Levkowitz and Herman 1992]:

**Order:** The colors chosen to represent a set of data values must exhibit a perceived order that is congruent with the order of the data values themselves.

**Uniformity:** The perceived difference between the colors should correspond to the difference in magnitude of data values.

89 **Continuity:** The color scale should not create artificial boundaries that do not exist in the data. In  
 90 other words, the color scale should be (perceived as) continuous.

91 Satisfying all three properties does not necessarily imply that a color scale is ideal for any given  
 92 task. For instance while the linearized grayscale is continuous, uniform, and has a natural order, it  
 93 displays a low contrast between its colors and suffers from visibility problems in dark regions, limiting  
 94 its use for visualizing high-contrast information. We refer the reader to an excellent survey by Silva  
 95 et al. [2011] for comprehensive guidelines of using color in visualization.

## 96 2.3 Color Maps for HDR Images

97 Although color maps for HDR images are commonly used for visualizing luminance distributions, to  
 98 our knowledge there is no scientifically validated way to represent an HDR image in false colors. The  
 99 most well-known tool that accomplishes this task is the Radiance software [Larson and Shakespeare  
 100 1998], which contains several color palettes and two methods of compression, namely linear and loga-  
 101 rithmic. Based on the information provided to us by the developers,<sup>1</sup> the *SPEC* color scale represents  
 102 spectral colors (i.e., the rainbow scale). *HOT* is a heated-body (thermal) scale that goes from black to  
 103 white by passing through red and yellow. The *ECO* scale is borrowed from Ecotech, an environmental  
 104 simulation software. *PM3D* is borrowed from Gnuplot [Williams et al. 2010], and the default scale,  
 105 *DEF*, is a mixture of thermal and spectral scales.

106 In a more recent study, Akyüz [2013] performed a preliminary experiment to evaluate the perfor-  
 107 mance of several compression functions, namely linear, logarithmic, and sigmoidal scaling, when used  
 108 together with the rainbow scale. The participants were asked to rank these methods based on how  
 109 well they represent the luminance distribution in three HDR images. For all three images, sigmoidal  
 110 scaling was found to outperform the other methods. However, this experiment was limited in the sense  
 111 that it only involved a single color scale and was based on purely subjective opinion.

## 112 3. COLOR MAPPING FRAMEWORK

113 In this section, we describe our framework that we used to convert an HDR image into false colors. We  
 114 assume that the HDR image represents a luminance distribution stored in a linear RGB color space.  
 115 Therefore, we first compute the luminance values by using an appropriate linear transformation that  
 116 depends on the actual color space. For instance, if the HDR image is stored in the sRGB color space,  
 117 its luminance values ( $Y$ ) can be computed by the following formula [ITU (International Telecommuni-  
 118 cation Union) 2002]:

$$Y = 0.2126R + 0.7152G + 0.0722B. \quad (1)$$

119 The remaining process involves two stages. The first one is the compression of the luminance values  
 120 and the second one is the mapping of the compressed values to color values ( $C$ ) in a given color scale.

### 121 3.1 Compression Stage

122 In the compression stage, one can apply an initial transformation to the luminance data to reduce  
 123 its dynamic range. Otherwise, the ensuing color mapping would simply yield large regions of uniform  
 124 color resulting in a flat visualization. While any TMO can be used to compress the luminance data,  
 125 local operators may be unsuitable, as they do not preserve the monotonicity of luminance values. Here,  
 126 we describe three global compression strategies:

<sup>1</sup>Personal communication with Greg J. Ward and Axel Jacobs.

**Logarithmic Scaling (LOG):** Logarithmic scaling, which approximates the human visual response to light [Drago et al. 2003], is defined as

$$f_{\log}(Y) = \frac{\log(Y + \epsilon) - \log(Y_{min} + \epsilon)}{\log(Y_{max} + \epsilon) - \log(Y_{min} + \epsilon)}, \quad (2)$$

where a small epsilon value ( $\epsilon$ ) is introduced to avoid singularity for black pixels. In this article, we used  $\epsilon = 10^{-6}$ .

**Sigmoidal Compression (SIG):** Sigmoidal compression was originally proposed by Naka and Rushton [1966] as a model of biological systems and was later used in a well-known tone mapping operator due to its simplicity and ability to produce natural looking images [Reinhard et al. 2002]. Its compression curve also mimics the S-shaped curves used in traditional photography when plotted on a logarithmic luminance axis:

$$f_{\text{sig}}(Y) = \frac{\alpha Y / \bar{Y}}{1 + \alpha Y / \bar{Y}}, \quad (3)$$

where  $\alpha$  denotes a user-defined key value and  $\bar{Y}$  is the log-average luminance:

$$\bar{Y} = \exp\left(\frac{1}{N} \sum_{x,y} \log(Y(x, y) + \epsilon)\right), \quad (4)$$

with  $N$  representing the number of pixels in the image. We set  $\alpha = 0.18$  as a generally used default value [Reinhard et al. 2002].

**Histogram Equalization (HIS):** Histogram equalization redistributes the luminance values such that each bin contains equal number of pixels [Gonzalez and Woods 1992]. In a false coloring framework, this means that each color value will be used for approximately equal number of times. Histogram equalization can be represented by using the following formula assuming an 8-bit output range:

$$f_{\text{his}}(Y) = \text{round}\left(255 \frac{\text{cdf}(Y) - \text{cdf}_{\min}}{N - \text{cdf}_{\min}}\right). \quad (5)$$

Here,  $\text{cdf}(\cdot)$  represents the cumulative distribution function of luminance values and  $\text{cdf}_{\min}$  is the minimum non-zero value of the cdf.

### 3.2 Color Mapping Stage

In this stage, a false color image is produced by mapping the compressed luminance values into color values from a given color scale. Algorithm 1 is used for this purpose:

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**ALGORITHM 1:** Color Selection Algorithm for Logarithmic and Sigmoidal Compression

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```

Y' = f(Y)
for i = 0 → 255 do
    bin[i] =  $\frac{i}{255}(Y'_{max} - Y'_{min})$ 
end
for each pixel  $Y'_{m,n} \in Y'$  do
    find k where  $|Y'_{m,n} - \text{bin}[k]|$  is minimum
    Cm,n = PALETTE[k]
end

```

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In this algorithm,  $f(\cdot)$  can be substituted with  $f_{\log}(\cdot)$ ,  $f_{\text{sig}}(\cdot)$ , or  $f_{\text{his}}(\cdot)$  for different compression functions.  $\mathbf{C}_{m,n}$  represents the false color value selected from the given color scale.



Fig. 2. Color scales evaluated in our study.

### 151 3.3 Color Scale Selection

152 Selection of a good color scale is critical for visualization. As described in Section 2.3, several color  
 153 scales are commonly used for visualizing HDR images in false color. Among these, the rainbow scale  
 154 and the heated-body scale are commonly used for other visualization tasks as well. Therefore, in this  
 155 study we chose to include the following four color scales. Each scale is represented by a palette of 256  
 156 distinct colors (Figure 2).

157 **Rainbow scale (RBS):** This scale is one of the most commonly used scales in the literature. As  
 158 the ordering of the colors is roughly based on their wavelength, it is also called the spectral scale.  
 159 The palette of this scale is generally produced by varying the hue attribute in a color space such as  
 160 HSV while keeping the other attributes constant. We have used hue angles between  $0^\circ$  (red) to  $270^\circ$   
 161 (magenta) to represent high and low luminances, respectively.

162 **Heated-body scale (HBS):** This scale represents a progression of colors going from black to white  
 163 while passing through orange and yellow. The hue angle varies approximately between  $15^\circ$  and  $60^\circ$ .  
 164 The advantage of this scale is attributed to the fact that the human visual system is most sensitive to  
 165 luminance changes in that portion of the spectrum. We have used the perceptually linearized version  
 166 of this scale, in which luminance difference between different color values correspond to roughly equal  
 167 brightness differences.

168 **Radiance default color scale (DEF):** This is the default false color scale used in the Radiance  
 169 software [Larson and Shakespeare 1998]. The scale is developed by Larson to represent a mix between  
 170 the heated-body and rainbow scales. It was designed to maximize the number of named colors while  
 171 still depicting a progression from cold to hot [Larson 2013].

172 **Linearized optimal color scale (LOCS):** This scale is designed to create a maximum number of  
 173 just noticeable differences (JNDs) while preserving a natural order [Levkowitz and Herman 1992]. To  
 174 our knowledge, this scale has not been used for visualizing HDR images in false color. This scale is also  
 175 perceptually linearized.

176 Each of these four color scales satisfy the desired properties discussed in Section 2.2 to different  
 177 extents. The HBS and LOCS satisfy all three of the order, uniformity, and continuity properties. RBS  
 178 satisfies the continuity and order property, but the latter requires observers to be familiar with the  
 179 spectral progression of colors. The DEF color scale, on the other hand, only satisfies the continuity  
 180 property.

181 The 3 compression functions and 4 color scales gives rise to 12 false coloring strategies. In the fol-  
 182 lowing, we will refer to these strategies using the abbreviations shown in parenthesis. For instance,  
 183 histogram equalization with the Radiance default scale will be identified as HIS-DEF. Other methods  
 184 will be denoted similarly.

## 185 4. PSYCHOPHYSICAL EXPERIMENT ONE

186 We conducted a psychophysical experiment to evaluate the effectiveness of different false coloring  
 187 strategies. Our experiment was aimed to answer the following two questions: (1) Which of the  
 188 aforementioned strategies is better for visualizing an HDR image in false color and (2) whether a  
 189 quantitative metric can be derived that correlates well with the human observers' responses so any



Fig. 3. A tone mapped visualization of the HDR image used in the subjective evaluation. Image is retrieved from the HDR photographic survey [Fairchild 2007].

future strategy can be objectively evaluated using this metric. To this end, we first need to define the characteristics of a good false coloring strategy.

#### 4.1 Criterion of Evaluation

First, it should be kept in mind that which false coloring strategy is the best depends on the application at hand. Certain compression functions and color scales may be more appropriate for certain applications. This is similar to the issue faced when evaluating tone mapping operators in that which TMO is the best depends on the purpose of tone mapping. For instance, a TMO used for medical imaging is likely to be desirable if it preserves visibility of small scale details. On the other hand, a TMO used for entertainment is likely to be desirable if it preserves, and even exaggerates, contrast at the cost of losing small details [Akyüz and Reinhard 2008]. Therefore, the studies that evaluate TMOs usually define the criteria according to which the tone mapping quality should be judged [Drago et al. 2002].

We adopt a similar approach in the current study. We define our criteria as if the luminance of two regions perceivably differ in the original image; they should be mapped to perceivably different colors in the false color image. In other words, we expect a false color visualization to convey noticeable luminance differences. This may be compared to preserving visibility during tone mapping. However, we also expect the order of luminances to be preserved. That is a lower luminance pixel should not be represented by a color that suggests a higher luminance than another pixel which actually has higher luminance.

#### 4.2 Stimuli

In our experiment, we used a single calibrated HDR image depicting a scene of extremely high dynamic range (Figure 3) taken from a public HDR image database [Fairchild 2007]. The actual scene had a contrast ratio of a 1,000,000:1 and even when recorded the resulting HDR image retained a contrast ratio of 800,000:1 (the drop was due to flare). Eighteen exposures that are one f-stop apart were used to capture the scene. As shown in Figure 3, the image contains two sets of colored checkers, one in the dark region that receives no direct illumination, and the other directly illuminated by a bright light source. In addition to having an extremely high dynamic range, this image contains 48 uniform patches that can be used as test stimuli. To this end, we selected pairs of patches that are closest in luminance giving rise to 24 pairs of stimuli.

Table I. Mean Percentages of Correct Answer for Each Compression-Color Scale Combination Averaged over All Participants

	LOG	SIG	HIS	Average
<b>RBS</b>	61%	55%	71.1%	62.4%
<b>HBS</b>	65.5%	69%	76.8%	70.4%
<b>DEF</b>	67%	65.2%	72%	68.1%
<b>LOCS</b>	70%	63.7%	<b>81%</b>	71.6%
Average	65.9%	63.2%	75.2%	

### 218 4.3 Experimental Process

219 During the experiment, we asked the participants to indicate which of the two patches in a randomly  
 220 selected pair from a false color image has a higher luminance. To prevent other factors, such as the  
 221 proximity of a patch to the light source, from affecting participants' decisions, all parts of the image  
 222 were masked out with a neutral gray color except the patches being compared. On the top-left corner of  
 223 the screen the current color scale was shown to remind the participants of the progression of the colors  
 224 with luminance. The participants indicated their responses by clicking on the patch that appears to  
 225 have a higher luminance. After each response, a new random pair was automatically shown from the  
 226 remaining stimuli. To avoid confusing the participants by rapidly switching between different color  
 227 scales, all pairs from one scale were first consumed before proceeding with the next scale. The order  
 228 of the compression functions was randomized within each color scale. The scales were randomized for  
 229 each participant. The duration of the experiment took about 30 minutes for each participant.

230 We also used an eye-tracker, SMI Red 60/120Hz, to measure the duration that each participant  
 231 looked at the color scale. This was used to rank the scales in terms of intuitiveness, as a less intuitive  
 232 scale may require studying of the palette for a longer time.

233 All stimuli were shown on an NEC SpectraView Reference 241W monitor calibrated to the sRGB  
 234 profile using an X-Rite i1Display Pro colorimeter. The peak display luminance was set to 80cd/m<sup>2</sup> for  
 235 full sRGB compliance. The black level was measured as 0.5cd/m<sup>2</sup>. The participants viewed the display  
 236 in a dark room from a distance of approximately 70cm. No head mounting was used to avoid discomfort.  
 237 At this distance, the angular size of a center pixel was approximately 0.0221° in both dimensions.

238 Fourteen participants (4F and 11M) contributed to the experiment. Each participant received a brief  
 239 training about the color scales and the relationship between the colors and luminance values prior to  
 240 taking the experiment.

### 241 4.4 Results

242 The mean percentages of correct answers for each compression-color scale combination is shown in  
 243 Table I. As can be seen from this table, histogram equalization together with the linearized optimal  
 244 color scale (LOCS) yields the highest percentage of correct answers (81%). Sigmoidal compression with  
 245 the rainbow scale yields the lowest percentage (55%), which is slightly higher than what would be  
 246 obtained by chance if subjects were making random decisions (50%). We can also observe that his-  
 247 togram equalization-based methods outperform logarithmic and sigmoidal compression for all color  
 248 scales. Logarithmic compression surpasses sigmoidal compression except with the heated-body scale.  
 249 When averaged across all color scales, histogram equalization clearly outperforms the other two com-  
 250 pression types. When averaged across all compression types, LOCS marginally outperforms HBS and  
 251 DEF. However, the rainbow color scale (RBS) clearly underperforms in this task.

252 These observations are supported with a two-way within-subjects ANOVA test that was conducted  
 253 to understand whether these differences are statistically significant. These results are summarized



Table II. Statistical Result for the User Study

Factor	Statistical result
Compression	$F(2, 26) = 28.99, p < 0.001$
Color scale	$F(2, 39) = 5.284, p = 0.004$
Compression $\times$ Color scale	$F(6, 78) = 2.101, p = 0.062$

Compression: HIS LOG SIG Color scale: LOCS HBS DEF RBS

Fig. 4. Statistical similarity groups of the user study. Items underlined by the same line are statistically similar.

Table III. Total Times in Minutes and Seconds during Which Participants Looked at the Palettes Shown in the Top-Left Corner (Accumulated over All Compression Types and Participants)

Color scale	Total time (m:ss)
HBS	3:59
LOCS	4:50
RBS	4:54
DEF	5:31

in Table II. Based on these, we can observe that both the compression type and the color scale have a statistically significant effect on the quality of the visualization ( $p < 0.05$  for both). However, the interaction between the compression type and color scale was found to be marginally insignificant ( $p = 0.062$ ). Therefore, pairwise differences between compression type and color scale combinations were not computed.

Next, we performed pairwise t-tests with Bonferroni correction to identify which compression and color scales statistically differ from each other. We found that histogram equalization is significantly better than logarithmic and sigmoidal scaling, but the latter two are statistically equivalent. As for the color scale, LOCS, heated-body, and Radiance scales formed the first group, and Radiance and rainbow scales formed the second. Figure 4 illustrates the similarity groups.

Finally, in Table III, we report the total time elapsed when participants studied the color palettes shown in the top-left corner during the experiment. This duration was the shortest for the heated-body and linearized optimal color scales. This can be expected, as their color palettes are ordered in increasing order of luminance, which facilitates making decisions. The rainbow scale had a similar timing to that of LOCS. Radiance's default color scale took the longest time for the participants to interpret the relationship between colors and luminance. This could be expected, as this color scale has the least intuitive ordering.

#### 4.5 Discussion

The subjective study reveals that histogram equalization outperforms other dynamic range reduction methods irrespective of the color scale that was being used along with it. Next, we set out to understand whether this result can be explained by examining some low level image statistics. For example, it could be hypothesized that histogram equalization was better in this task, as it produces images with higher entropy. To this end, we experimented with several image statistics such as variance and entropy but could not find a strong correlation. That is, a false color visualization strategy with high variance or entropy did not perform well in the user study.

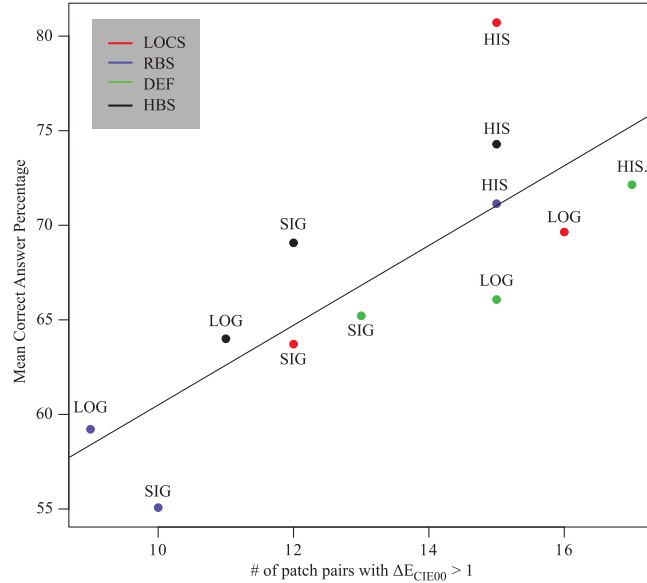


Fig. 5. Correlation between the number of patches for which  $\Delta E_{CIE00} > 1$  and the mean correct answer percentage across all patches and participants. Dashed line shows the least-squares fit.

279 Next, we hypothesized that the best false color image must have the highest perceivable color differ-  
 280 ence between the patches that were compared. To test this hypothesis, we compared the CIEDE2000  
 281 [Sharma et al. 2005] color differences ( $\Delta E_{CIE00}$ ) between the compared patches and the mean number  
 282 of correct answers given for those patches. Surprisingly, these two variables also did not have a strong  
 283 correlation. Further investigation revealed that as  $\Delta E_{CIE00}$  values increased the number of correct an-  
 284 swers also increased. However, as color difference grew, the number of correct answers could not go  
 285 beyond 14 (the number of participants). Therefore, we slightly modified the correlation variables and  
 286 compared the number of patches where  $\Delta E_{CIE00} > 1$  with the number of correct answers.<sup>2</sup> The Pearson  
 287 product-moment correlation coefficient indicated a strong positive correlation between the two vari-  
 288 ables,  $r = 0.77$ ,  $n = 12$ ,  $p = 0.0018$  (also see Figure 5). If HIS-LOCS is removed as an outlier, then the  
 289 correlation coefficient increases to  $r = 0.84$ . This high correlation suggests that the total number of  
 290 patch pairs with  $\Delta E_{CIE00} > 1$  in a false color image is a good indicator of perceived difference between  
 291 those patches. It should be noted that the color difference value is not linearly correlated with the ac-  
 292 tual luminance difference of the patches due to the initial non-linear compression (see Mantiuk et al.  
 293 [2009] for an experimental demonstration of this phenomenon). However, it can still be used to indi-  
 294 cate the *presence* of a perceivable color difference. This observation enabled us to perform the objective  
 295 evaluation explained in the next section.

## 296 5. OBJECTIVE EVALUATION

297 For the objective evaluation, we used the 105 images in the HDR photographic survey [Fairchild 2007].  
 298 This survey contains various images depicting different environments. To understand the diversity of  
 299 the images in this survey we clustered them into six bins using the  $k$ -means algorithm. As features we  
 300 have used the HSV and gradient magnitude histograms. That is, for the purpose of clustering, each

<sup>2</sup> $\Delta E_{CIE00}$  value of 1 corresponds to the human detection threshold [Reinhard et al. 2008].

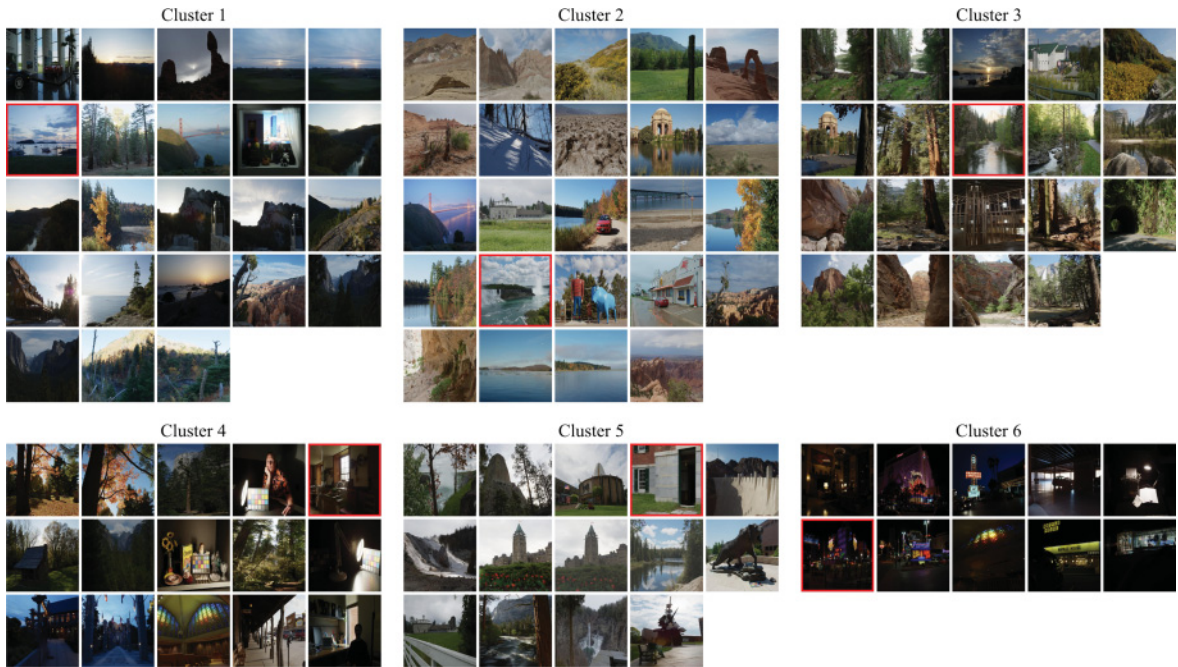


Fig. 6. The images in the HDR photographic survey [Fairchild 2007] are categorized into six clusters using a  $k$ -means algorithm according to their HSV and gradient magnitude histograms as feature vectors. See Table IV for a description of image characteristics in each cluster. The images with a red border are used for the second psychophysical experiment. In cluster order, their names are *BarHarbor*, *Niagara*, *Amikeus*, *HancockIn*, *HancockOut*, and *LasVegas*.

Table IV. Characteristics of Images in Different Clusters

<b>Cluster 1</b>	Mostly sunset and sunrise images with bimodal histogram distributions
<b>Cluster 2</b>	Daytime outdoor images with mostly blue tones
<b>Cluster 3</b>	Daytime outdoor images with mostly foliage
<b>Cluster 4</b>	Darker outdoor images and several indoor images
<b>Cluster 5</b>	Images containing buildings and man-made structures
<b>Cluster 6</b>	Night scenes

image was represented as a 60-dimensional feature vector with each component represented using 15-bin histograms [Ben-Haim et al. 2006]. The resulting clusters are depicted in Figure 6. We can see that each cluster contains images with different characteristics, although outdoor environments are more heavily represented than indoor ones (see Table IV). This clustering is performed to demonstrate the variability of the images in the objective evaluation dataset.

Each image was visualized in false color using the 12 compression type–color scale combinations discussed earlier. As our metric, we decided to use the number of pixel pairs where  $\Delta E_{\text{CIE00}} > 1$ . The decision to use pixel pairs instead of larger patches was motivated by the fact that the latter requires segmenting the input images into uniform patches—an operation that would be dependent on the

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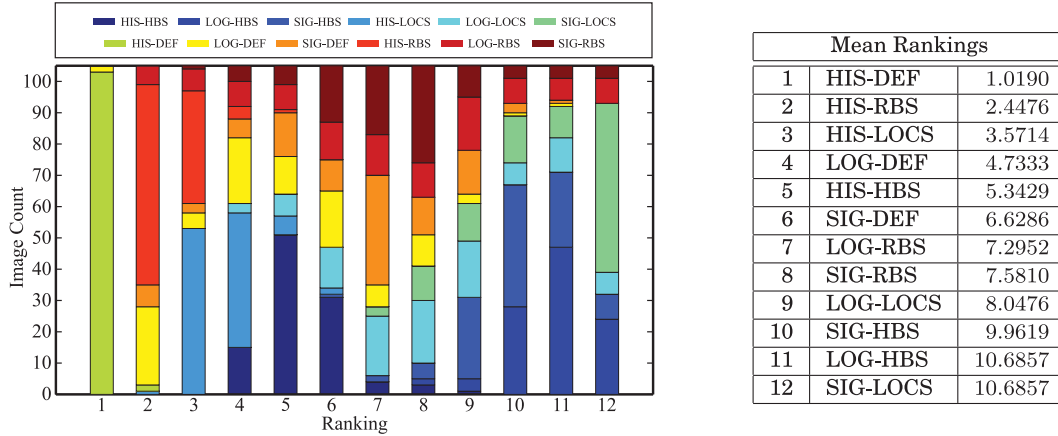


Fig. 7. Left: Bar plot summarizing the results of the objective evaluation. Each colored box shows the number of times each method was ranked the first, the second, and so on. Right: The mean rankings of each method.

segmentation algorithm used. To avoid such interaction effects, we opted to use pixel values directly. All visualizations are sorted according to this metric to create a ranking. We have repeated this process for each HDR image and obtained 105 rankings. The aggregate results are shown as a bar plot on the left of Figure 7 with mean rankings shown on the right of the same figure.

According to the results, histogram equalization combined with the Radiance color scale (HIS-DEF) produced the maximum number of pixel pairs with  $\Delta E_{CIE00} > 1$  for 103 of the 105 images in the database. As such, it was the clear winner according to the objective metric. The only two images where it came the second were *North Bubble* and *Delicate Arch*, which had relatively low dynamic ranges, 200:1 and 500:1, respectively. For those images, LOG-DEF was the winner.

The second-best method was found to be HIS-RBS, which was followed by HIS-LOCS and HIS-HBS (determined by the mean rankings of the algorithms). Here, we can see that histogram equalization approach gives the best results regardless of the color scale being used. These results support the findings of the user study where histogram equalization outperformed logarithmic and sigmoidal compressions for all color scales. However, the rankings of color scales within this compression type has changed. Whereas HIS-LOCS was the winner in the user study, it was the third best in the objective evaluation. Also HIS-DEF was the third best in the user study, and it was found to be the winner in the objective evaluation. Finally, HIS-RBS had the worst performance in the user study within histogram equalization, although it came as the second best in the objective evaluation.

The rankings of the remaining methods were more intermixed. The methods with the worst ranking were SIG-LOCS and LOG-HBS, which were found to be the third and fourth methods from the last, respectively, in the user study as well. The differences between the rankings of the methods were confirmed by Friedman rank sum test,  $\chi^2(11) = 905.31$ ,  $p < 0.001$  [Hollander et al. 2013]. To understand which methods truly differ from each other, we performed Wilcoxon post hoc tests with Bonferroni correction applied. The similarity groups at 95% significance level are shown in Figure 8.

## 6. PSYCHOPHYSICAL EXPERIMENT TWO

The overall correlation between the rankings of the subjective evaluation and objective evaluation was found to be 0.586 according to Spearman's rank correlation. This moderate correlation suggests that further investigation could be needed to determine the most suitable approach for false color

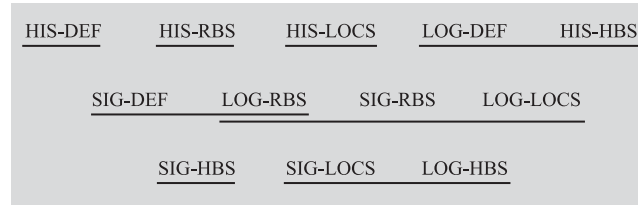


Fig. 8. Statistical similarity groups for the rankings of each compression type–color scale combination. Methods underlined by the same line are statistically similar. Rankings are given in increasing order from left to right and top to bottom.

visualization. To this end, we selected the best performing five methods, namely HIS-DEF, HIS-RBS, HIS-LOCS, LOG-DEF, and HIS-HBS, and compared them in a final experiment. Also, to help generalize this experiment for changing scene conditions, we selected one HDR image from each cluster shown in Figure 6, resulting in a total of six scenes (the selected images are indicated by a red border in the figure).

The experiment was designed as a paired comparison experiment due its increased reliability over rating, ranking, and similarity experiments [Mantiuk et al. 2012]. The participants were shown an HDR image in the middle of the screen with two different false color versions on either side. The HDR image was initially linearly mapped to the computer screen such that the mean luminance value was set to 127.5. The participants could change this scaling factor by pressing the UP and DOWN arrow keys to allow bringing different regions of the image into proper exposure. The scaled HDR image was shown after applying gamma correction by using the sRGB gamma. The display device, which was NEC Spectraview Reference 241W, was calibrated to the sRGB profile as in experiment one. The experiment was conducted in a dark room and the participants sat approximately 70cm from the display device.

The participants’ task was to choose the false color image that best describes the distribution of luminance across the HDR image. On top of each false color image, the corresponding color palette was visualized to help participants interpret the meaning of the colors. The participants could choose the image they prefer by pressing the LEFT and RIGHT arrow keys, which drew a gray border around the selected the image. They could then finalize their decision and move on the next trial by pressing the ENTER key. The experiment started with a short warm-up session during which the responses were not recorded. The mean experimental duration was 21 minutes with a standard deviation of 11 minutes. A short break was given in the middle of the experiment. A total of 17 participants (7F and 10M) with normal or corrected-to-normal color vision participated in this experiment.

A complete block design was utilized in which each participant judged all stimuli. This amounted to  $C(5, 2) = 10$  responses per each HDR image and  $6 \times 10 = 60$  responses in total. The responses were collected in a preference for each HDR image. By summing up these individual matrices, the aggregate preference matrix was generated. The per-scene and overall results of the experiment are shown in Tables V and VI.

According to the overall results HIS-DEF was preferred the highest number of times (281). It was followed by HIS-HBS (256), HIS-RBS (204), and HIS-LOCS (195). The least-preferred method was LOG-DEF (84). This overall trend also exhibits itself in per-scene results as well. In four of six scenes, HIS-DEF was preferred the highest number of times, with HIS-HBS being the winner in the remaining two. LOG-DEF was the least preferred in all scenes as well. The preference counts of HIS-LOCS was more variable across scenes. HIS-RBS, on the other hand, was more stable but was preferred relatively fewer number of times.

Table V. Per-Scene Results Aggregated Over Participants. A: HIS-DEF, B: HIS-HBS, C: HIS-LOCS, D: HIS-RBS, E: LOG-DEF. Each Entry Shows the Number of Times the *Row* Method Was Preferred over the *Column* Method. Please Refer to Figure 6 for the Images. The Numbers in Parenthesis Show the Cluster Number of the Corresponding Image. The Algorithms Whose Total Scores Differ by at Least 14 Statistically Differ from Each Other

Amikeus (3)	A	B	C	D	E	Total	BarHarbor (1)	A	B	C	D	E	Total
<b>A</b>	0	11	11	12	15	<b>49</b>	<b>A</b>	0	7	11	8	15	41
B	6	0	7	8	13	34	<b>B</b>	10	0	10	12	14	<b>46</b>
C	6	10	0	10	14	40	C	6	7	0	7	15	35
D	5	9	7	0	12	33	D	9	5	10	0	13	37
E	2	4	3	5	0	14	E	2	3	2	4	0	11
HancockIn (4)	A	B	C	D	E	Total	HancockOut (5)	A	B	C	D	E	Total
A	0	8	5	13	11	37	<b>A</b>	0	8	16	15	17	<b>56</b>
<b>B</b>	9	0	11	11	14	<b>45</b>	B	9	0	13	11	13	46
C	12	6	0	12	11	41	C	1	4	0	3	7	15
D	4	6	5	0	13	28	D	2	6	14	0	16	38
E	6	3	6	4	0	19	E	0	4	10	1	0	15
LasVegas (6)	A	B	C	D	E	Total	Niagara (2)	A	B	C	D	E	Total
<b>A</b>	0	10	12	12	15	<b>49</b>	<b>A</b>	0	10	13	12	14	<b>49</b>
B	7	0	8	10	15	40	B	7	0	13	9	16	45
C	5	9	0	9	15	38	C	4	4	0	8	10	26
D	5	7	8	0	15	35	D	5	8	9	0	11	33
E	2	2	2	2	0	8	E	3	1	7	6	0	17

Table VI. The Aggregate Results Combined over All Scenes and Participants. The Algorithms Whose Total Scores Differ by at Least 32 Statistically Differ from Each Other

Aggregate	A	B	C	D	E	Total
A	0	54	68	72	87	281
B	48	0	62	61	85	256
C	34	40	0	49	72	195
D	30	41	53	0	80	204
E	15	17	30	22	0	84

373 To understand whether the results are significant, we performed the least significant difference  
 374 test [Starks and David 1961]. This test computes a  $D$  value using the following formula:

$$D = 4 \left[ \sum_{i=1}^t a_i^2 - \frac{1}{4} t n^2 (t-1)^2 \right] / (nt), \quad (6)$$

375 where  $a_i$  denotes the total preference count of method  $i$ ,  $t$  is the number of methods, and  $n$  is the  
 376 number of participants. However, when aggregating the per-scene results,  $n$  must be set to the product  
 377 of the number of participants and the number of scenes. The  $D$  value approaches zero if the preference  
 378 counts are similar. Larger  $D$  values indicate higher confidence of a statistically significant result. In  
 379 our experiment, we found that  $D = 181.286$ . This value is then compared with the upper  $100p\%$  point  
 380 of the  $\chi^2$  distribution with  $(t-1)$  degrees of freedom, where  $p$  indicates the desired level of significance.  
 381 In our experiment, we set  $p = 0.001$ , which corresponds to a  $\chi^2$  value of 18.465, allowing us to strongly  
 382 reject the null hypothesis that all methods are equal.

	25	52	9	111
<u>HIS-DEF</u>	<u>HIS-HBS</u>	<u>HIS-RBS</u>	<u>HIS-LOCS</u>	<u>LOG-DEF</u>

Fig. 9. Statistical similarity groups of the second experiment. Items underlined by the same line are statistically similar. The numbers indicate the difference of preference counts between the methods.

Once the null hypothesis is rejected, one can proceed with identifying which algorithms statistically differ from each other. A suitable method for this task is the test of equality of two pre-assigned treatments [Starks and David 1961]. This test computes a critical difference value,  $m_c$ , as follows:

$$m_c = \lceil 1.96(0.5nt)^{0.5} + 0.5 \rceil. \quad (7)$$

The algorithms with preference counts greater than or equal to the  $m_c$  value can be considered to statistically differ from each other. In our experiment, we found  $m_c = 32$  for the aggregate results and  $m_c = 14$  for the individual scene results.

The statistical similarity groups based on the aggregate results are shown in Figure 9. According to this, HIS-DEF and HIS-HBS emerged in the first similarity group, followed by HIS-RBS and HIS-LOCS. LOG-DEF was isolated in the third group.

The second psychophysical experiment reveals interesting findings, which can be deduced by comparing Figures 4, 8, and 9. First, all experiments establish histogram equalization as the most preferred method of visualization. As for the color scale, the first experiment found DEF, HBS, and LOCS to be in the same statistical similarity group. The objective metric isolated HIS-DEF into the first group. The second experiment placed HIS-DEF and HIS-HBS in the first group as well. In the light of all three experiments, we can confidently argue that HIS-DEF appears to be a more favorable method of visualizing HDR images in false color than the other evaluated methods. Irrespective of the color scale, it is also observed that histogram equalization appears to be a more preferred method of luminance compression than logarithmic and sigmoidal compression for the task of displaying HDR images in false color.

## 7. DISCUSSION

Based on the results of the two psychophysical experiments and the objective evaluation, we can argue that histogram equalization-based luminance compression gives the best color mapping results regardless of the color scale being used. We believe that this finding is important because it is not common practice to use this method of compression for visualizing HDR luminance maps in false color. More often, logarithmic scaling is used—a method found to be inferior by our experiments. Furthermore, Akyüz had found that sigmoidal compression may outperform logarithmic scaling [2013]. But in our study, we found these two methods to have a very similar performance (logarithmic scaling was only marginally better in the first experiment). Because these findings are obtained from a diverse set of images and through subjective and objective evaluations, our findings are likely to generalize to other images as well.

What makes histogram equalization better in this task? We believe that this can be attributed to the more uniform distribution of the luminance values across the display range. Although histogram equalization may not be the best method for photographic tone mapping, it appears to produce more informative false color visualizations due to a more balanced use of colors. However, it is important to note that histogram equalization distorts the relationships between luminances. In general, it violates the uniformity principle discussed in Section 2.2. Therefore, in applications where preserving uniformity is important, logarithmic scaling may be a better choice (LOG-DEF was found to be the best among logarithmic compression methods).

421 Furthermore, the selection of parameters (such as  $\epsilon$  and  $\alpha$ ) may affect the performance of logarithmic  
422 and sigmoidal compression methods. As histogram equalization does not need user parameters, it is  
423 likely to better adapt to the contents of each individual image, which may be one of the reasons for the  
424 overall superiority of this technique over the other compression methods.

425 The effect of color scale was less pronounced. Moreover, it shows some variability between the sub-  
426 jective and objective evaluations. The first subjective evaluation indicated that the rainbow color scale  
427 is inferior to the other color scales in this task. However, it performed relatively well in the objective  
428 evaluation. It is possible that some of the perceptual challenges presented by this color scale, such as  
429 the highlighting effect of saturated yellows, which may subjugate other hues [Rogowitz and Treinish  
430 1998], are not captured by the objective metric. Second, yellow is known to have the least number of  
431 perceived saturation steps [Wang et al. 2008]. This may make it difficult for the observers to distin-  
432 guish small saturation variations in yellow. Furthermore, the ordering of the colors in the rainbow  
433 scale is not necessarily intuitive for people—an issue that is irrelevant to the objective metric [Borland  
434 and Taylor 2007]. However, in the light of all three experiments, DEF appears to be a more preferred  
435 color scale than the other evaluated scales. In particular, the HIS-DEF combination was found to be in  
436 the first statistical similarity group in all of the evaluations performed.

437 An important visual phenomenon that is ignored by our metric is *visual masking*. According to  
438 this phenomenon, natural images may contain highly textured and high-contrast regions that may  
439 induce visual masking for the neighboring pixels. In such regions, it is known that the threshold of  
440 luminance discrimination is elevated [Daly 1993]. This means that a pixel pair with  $\Delta E_{CIE00} > 1$  in  
441 the false color map may not have visibly differed in the HDR image due to the masking effect. In  
442 other words, in regions affected by visual masking, this color difference could be too conservative.  
443 For these regions, pixels with visually unnoticeable luminance differences (due to masking) could be  
444 rendered with visually different colors. While the currently proposed metric does not capture this  
445 effect, modulating our metric output with the output of a visual masking model is feasible, and this  
446 can be an interesting future research direction.

## 447 8. CONCLUSIONS AND FUTURE WORK

448 In this work, we conducted a comprehensive evaluation of false color mapping strategies for luminance  
449 distributions (i.e., HDR images). Our study included a carefully designed psychophysical experiment  
450 that allowed us to extract a correlation between people’s preferences and a metric based on color differ-  
451 ences. Using this metric, we carried out an objective experiment using a large number of HDR images.  
452 To further build confidence on the results, we conducted a second psychophysical experiment using  
453 HDR images of different types of scenes. The findings of all experiments suggest that HIS-DEF is  
454 generally the most preferred method of false color visualization for HDR images.

455 Certainly, false color visualization strategies are not limited to the methods tested in this study. One  
456 can think of different compression functions and color scales. However, we believe that the experimen-  
457 tal methodology described in this article can be useful for future studies that may perform similar  
458 evaluations.

459 Using local compression functions instead of global ones may be more effective in conveying the  
460 visibility of small luminance variations. However, it should be kept in mind that local mappings may  
461 distort the monotonicity of luminances. As such, we leave it as a future work to study their appropri-  
462 ateness for different applications.

463 It is important to keep in mind that our study approaches the problem of false color visualization  
464 from a specific perspective. In particular, we have only used natural photographic images in our eval-  
465 uations, and even there, the scene type seemed to have some impact on which method of visualiza-  
466 tion is the best. This suggests that in other domains where HDR images are used, such as medical



imaging and remote sensing, different false color visualization strategies may in fact be more appropriate. Further research is required to answer this question. 467  
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In all, the current study sheds light on the issue of false color visualization of HDR images, for which no systemic evaluation has hitherto been conducted and proposes several evaluation strategies which may benefit future studies. 469  
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#### ACKNOWLEDGMENTS 472

We are grateful for all the volunteered participants of our experiments. We especially thank Okan Tarhan Tursun for his help in conducting the second psychophysical experiment. Finally, we thank the reviewers for their insightful comments and suggestions. 473  
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Received November 2014; revised March 2016; accepted April 2016

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