

Document downloaded from:

<http://hdl.handle.net/10251/183678>

This paper must be cited as:

Llinares Millán, MDC.; Higuera-Trujillo, JL.; Serra, J. (2021). Cold and warm coloured classrooms. Effects on students' attention and memory measured through psychological and neurophysiological responses. *Building and Environment*. 196:1-11.
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.buildenv.2021.107726>



The final publication is available at

<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.buildenv.2021.107726>

Copyright Elsevier

Additional Information

1 **Cold and warm coloured classrooms. Effects on students' attention and**
2 **memory measured through psychological and neurophysiological responses.**

3
4 Llinares, Carmen^a; Higuera-Trujillo, Juan Luis^a; Serra, Juan^b

5
6 ^aInstitute for Research and Innovation in Bioengineering (i3B), Universitat Politècnica de
7 València. Valencia, Spain.

8 ^bEquipo de Investigación del Color, Instituto de Restauración del Patrimonio, Universitat
9 Politécnica de València. Valencia, Spain.

10
11 Carmen Llinares: cllinare@omp.upv.es

12 Juan Luis Higuera Trujillo: jlhiguera@i3b.upv.es

13 Juan Serra: juanserra@ega.upv.es

14
15 **Corresponding author:** Juan Luis Higuera-Trujillo. Postal address: Institute for Research and
16 Innovation in Bioengineering (i3B), Universitat Politècnica de València. Ciudad Politécnica de
17 la Innovación - Cubo Azul - Edif. 8B - Acceso N - Camino de Vera, s/n. 46022 - Valencia (Spain).
18 Telephone: +34 963877518. E-mail: jlhiguera@i3b.upv.es

19
20
21
22
23

24 **Abstract**

25 Mounting evidence indicates that the colour hue of classroom walls influences student
26 performance. However, the effect of this design parameter has not hitherto been simultaneously
27 assessed for two key cognitive learning functions of attention and memory. The objective of the
28 present study is to analyse the impact that warm and cold hue coloured classroom walls have on
29 the cognitive attention and memory functions of university students. To this end, the attention and
30 memory performance of 160 participants was evaluated in 12 warm and 12 cold hue colour
31 settings in a virtual classroom. Their performance was quantified through psychological (attention
32 and memory tasks) and neurophysiological (heart rate variability and electroencephalogram)
33 metrics related to the cognitive functions analysed. The results showed that cold hue colours
34 increase arousal and improve performance in attention and memory tasks; and design guidelines
35 can be established. Furthermore, correlations were observed between the psychological and
36 neurophysiological metrics, which represents an important advance in the neuroarchitecture
37 discipline. The variety of implications of the results makes this work useful for architectural
38 design professionals, researchers, and policymakers working on improving learning spaces.

39 **Keywords:** classroom colours; attention; memory; psychological responses; neurophysiological
40 responses; neuroarchitecture

41 **Abbreviations:**

- 42 • Virtual reality: VR.
- 43 • Head-mounted display: HMD.
- 44 • Electroencephalogram: EEG.
- 45 • Heart rate variability: HRV.

46 **1. Introduction**

47 There is evidence that the colours of architectural environments have physiological, emotional,
48 and cognitive impacts on students [1–4]. In fact, three environmental factors that impact on
49 students' academic progress have been identified: (1) level of stimulation, (2) individualisation,

50 and (3) naturalness [5]; it has been shown that colour has a significant weight in the level of
51 stimulation, which explains 23% of the influence of the environment on academic progress [5].
52 Level of stimulation could be related to arousal, which some authors have identified as influencing
53 the performance of activities. Arousal has been used to explain, for example, that certain hues
54 (green and blue versus red) in physical spaces are associated with increased physical strength [6]
55 and improved performance in motor activities (green) [7]. The optimal levels of arousal for task
56 performance, however, are not yet a matter of consensus. On the one hand, some authors have
57 argued that the influence of colours on arousal levels follows a curvilinear relationship, based on
58 the Yerkes-Dodson principle [8]; thus, the optimum solution is to use intermediate colour levels
59 in architectural spaces [9]. On the other hand, other authors have argued that the best academic
60 performance is achieved when students reach a state of telic motivation, during which they are
61 focused on achieving a goal; this state is associated with low arousal [10], for which short-
62 wavelength colours, cold hue colours, are recommended [11]. In any case, it is clear that colour
63 choice is important. In addition to its effects on performance, a suitable choice of colour in the
64 learning environment is important for reducing visual fatigue, improving users' orientation [12],
65 supporting development processes [13], and facilitating cooperative behaviour among students
66 [12].

67 Within the guidelines it could be noted that white spaces may produce poorer performance.
68 Despite the fact that neutral colours dominate in most educational facilities [14], these spaces
69 have been associated with a 25% drop in human efficiency [15], and an increase in 22% in
70 distraction [16]. Hence, these colours may not be the best option. In this sense, it has been shown
71 that coloured spaces are associated with the committing of fewer errors in proofreading tasks [17],
72 and higher task execution speeds [18]. In general, it can be stated that light colours have been
73 shown to best correlate with learning progress [5]. However, discrepancies are seen to arise in
74 specific teaching contexts. For example, Mahnke [19] recommended cold hue colours for
75 high/secondary school classrooms, while Barret [20] suggested that warm hue colours are more
76 appropriate for senior grades, and that cold hue colours are more appropriate for junior grades.

77 This recommendation is consistent with recent studies that have suggested that classrooms with
78 cold-hued, low-saturated colours on the walls (light blue), are perceived more positively by
79 school-age students than classrooms with warm-hued, low-saturated walls (cream or pink) [21].
80 However, the subjective perception of both performance and well-being does not always coincide
81 with greater efficiency in the performance of cognitive activities. For example, the hues (blue and
82 yellow) that students believe convey the most positive emotional states are not associated with
83 the best reading comprehension results [22]. This outcome does not seem to be limited to this
84 specific case; similar contradictions have been found in the emotional states and performance of
85 participants provoked by room colour [3]. Therefore, although mood state can be determinant in
86 explaining some of the effects of colour (e.g., in creativity, [3]), the conclusions of studies on
87 colour preferences cannot be directly extrapolated to the objective of identifying the possible
88 effects of colour on task performance.

89 Within this objective, the bibliography evidences a series of recurring issues: (1) exposure time;
90 (2) task difficulty; and (3) task type. Regarding exposure time, it has been found that results may
91 differ based on how long subjects are exposed to colours [9]. Thus, for example, Ainsworth [23]
92 found no significant differences in typing performance based on room colour hues (cold vs warm),
93 and similarly Kwallek [17] found no significant differences in proofreading tasks for short periods
94 of 20 minutes, but found differences for longer periods of 1 hour. As to task difficulty, there is
95 evidence that performance in very difficult tasks is higher in blue environments than in red, and
96 performance in easy tasks is higher in red rooms than in blue [24]. Which, returning to the
97 relationship of arousal with performance, could be interpreted as meaning that more cognitively
98 complex tasks require less arousal to reach optimal performance [25]. As to the third issue, task
99 type, colour might significantly affect the performance of some tasks -such as mental rotation-
100 but not of others, such as numerical reasoning, visual memory, cued recognition of categories,
101 and cued recognition of word pairs [26]. This concept makes it possible to reconcile apparently
102 discordant results. Among these are that red environments favour performance in detail-oriented
103 tasks, while blue environments favour creative tasks [27]. In this sense, there is a limitation in

104 that, although performance in attention [28] and creativity [3] have been widely studied, memory
105 has received less attention [26], despite it playing a fundamental role in the learning process. It is
106 also worth noting that, combining the second two issues (task difficulty and task type), it has been
107 possible to demonstrate that “red enhanced the performance on a simple detail-oriented task.
108 However, blue improved the performance in a difficult detail-oriented task as well as in both
109 simple and difficult creative tasks” [29]. Taking these points into account, it can be seen that the
110 influence of the colour hue of architectural spaces on task performance is complex, with results
111 that can often seem contradictory. This problem is based, in part, on context and the approaches
112 taken to quantify performance.

113 First, the context used in most studies that have compared the influence of cold and warm hues
114 on performance has often been limited by the difficulty of working with physical spaces. Using
115 physical spaces has the restriction of limiting the number of colours employed (if the same
116 classroom is used), or the restriction of the inability to isolate the colour from other environmental
117 variables that may influence the results (if different classrooms are used). Furthermore, it is well
118 known that the appearance of a surface’s colour depends on the relative positions of the light
119 source and the observer [30], difficult to control in a physical space. Thus, experiments have been
120 carried out using adapted study tables [22,26], laboratory spaces converted into offices [3], and
121 real classrooms of heterogeneous typology [5]. On other occasions, conclusions about the use of
122 colour have come from studies carried out without considering the characteristics of the
123 surrounding architectural spaces. For example, changing the colours of the foregrounds and
124 backgrounds of evaluation materials [29,31–34]. Taking these issues into account, virtual reality
125 (VR) tools provide many advantages. VR offers the possibility of simulating spaces under
126 sustainable and economical laboratory conditions, having found that, in general, these simulations
127 generate psychological and neurophysiological responses similar to the physical environments
128 represented [35]. Which has been validated for the execution of tasks in the specific case of
129 university classrooms [36]. By using VR, the range of warm and cold hue colours can be studied
130 more thoroughly. In addition, simulation systems allow researchers to control other variables such

131 as noise, time, and distractions. These capabilities have led some authors to argue that simulation
132 systems offer better predictive information about performance in real environments [37]. In fact,
133 many studies have shown the utility of virtual classrooms for assessing children with ADHD
134 [38,39]. However, VR has been very little used in studies whose objective is to improve design
135 based on the measurement of participants' responses [40].

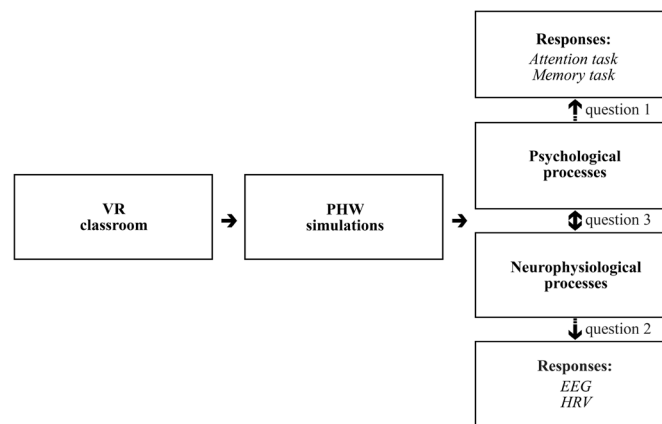
136 Second, some studies have made use only of self-report or psychological tasks, which are
137 insufficient to quantify cognitive-emotional states, which involve both psychological and
138 neurophysiological responses [41]. The capability of recording neurophysiological responses is
139 especially important as the influence of colour on learning performance goes beyond conscious
140 control [27,32,42], and unconscious responses are more objective than self-reporting. [43].
141 Despite this, few studies on the effects of hue have recorded subjects' neurophysiological
142 measures (for a review, see [44]). As an exception, the study by Küller et al. [3], which included
143 electroencephalogram (EEG) and heart rate variability (HRV) metrics, should be highlighted.
144 Among their conclusions, they found that red spaces are associated with lower delta rhythms, so
145 they are more arousing than blue spaces; and that red spaces decrease heart rate, perhaps as a
146 compensatory response to visual over-stimulation. Thus, the incorporation of neurophysiological
147 recording tools enriches the quantification of cognitive-emotional functions.

148 Taking into account the above aspects, the objective of this paper is to analyse the impact that
149 cold- and warm-hued colours have on the attention and memory of university students. Three
150 questions are posed: (1) Do the cold or warm hues of classroom walls influence the attention
151 and/or memory performance of students? (2) Do the cold or warm hues of classroom walls
152 influence attention- and/or memory-related neurophysiological responses? And (3) is there a
153 correlation between performance in attention and/or memory and the neurophysiological
154 measures obtained?

155 **2. Materials and methods**

156 A laboratory study was undertaken to address the study objective. Different parameterisations of
157 wall hues (PHW) were shown to experimental subjects in a VR setting, and their effects on the

158 subjects' attention and memory were quantified through psychological and neurophysiological
 159 responses. The analysis, undertaken in three phases, focused directly on the three questions into
 160 which the study objective is divided: (1) an analysis of attention and memory performance based
 161 on colour hue, measured through psychological responses; (2) an analysis of the underlying
 162 cognitive processes, based on colour hue, measured through neurophysiological responses; and
 163 (3) an analysis of the correlation between the psychological and neurophysiological responses. In
 164 addition, prior to the analyses, the VR environment was validated through level of sense of
 165 presence. Figure 1 depicts the general methodological outline.



166

167 Figure 1. General methodological outline. [Single-column fitting image; grayscale image]

168 **2.1. Colour selection**

169 In the Munsell notation system colours are described by their hue, value, and chroma. Hue
 170 corresponds to the dominant wavelength of the physical stimulus; value is the lightness or
 171 darkness of a colour; and chroma is the saturation, vividness, or intensity, of the perceived colour
 172 [45]. For example, the colour 5GY 5/4 in Munsell notation corresponds to: 5GY = hue (green
 173 yellow), 5 = value, 4 = chroma. The colour hue is the perceptual attribute that allows the perceiver
 174 to distinguish between cold and warm colours, following Itten's chromatic circle [46].

175 The colours were chosen with this in mind. They were based on a combination of colours with
 176 different hues and chromas: 8 different hues uniformly distributed on the colour wheel (4 cold:
 177 5GY, 5BG, 5PB, 5P; and 4 warm: 5RP, 5R, 5YR, 5Y); configured with two different chromas
 178 (which always had a distance of 6 Munsell chroma units between them). The value remained

179 constant in an intermediate level: 5. The 16 colours chosen were: 5GY 5/4, 5GY 5/10, 5BG 5/4,
180 5BG 5/10, 5PB 5/8, 5PB 5/14, 5P 5/6, 5P 5/12, 5RP 5/8, 5RP 5/14, 5R 5/10, 5R 5/16, 5YR 5/4,
181 5YR 5/10, 5Y 5/2, and 5Y 5/8. These colours were displayed in 16 monochromatic classroom
182 configurations, in which frontal and lateral wall colours remained the same. In addition, we
183 included 8 scenes (combinations #3, 6, 9, 12, 15, 18, 21 and 24) with two colours belonging to
184 the same hue but with different chroma: frontal walls (with smaller surfaces) with higher chroma;
185 and lateral walls (with larger surfaces) with lower chroma. This resulted in 24 (16 + 8) total
186 combinations. Figure 2 describes the 24 configurations. In this regard, it should be noted that, as
187 the colours were viewed on the digital screen of the VR system, the original Munsell colours were
188 translated into RGB notation (using the ColorMunki TM application (www.colormunki.com) to
189 be rendered on the surfaces. It was checked that this colour was achieved at the same point in
190 each image (the centre of the wall over the blackboard). So, although the illumination influences
191 the appreciation of the colour, the study was strictly conducted presenting the chosen colours. As
192 can be seen, the cold hue colours (purple, bluish-purple, blue, bluish-green, green, yellowish-
193 green) are close to blue, while the warm hue colours (yellow, yellow-orange, orange, red-orange,
194 red, red-violet) are close to red [47].

COMBINATION	FRONTAL WALL			LATERAL WALL		
	MUNSELL NOTATION	RGB COLOUR	COLD/WARM	MUNSELL NOTATION	RGB COLOUR	COLD/WARM
#01	5GY 5/4	114,127,82	COLD	5GY 5/4	114,127,82	COLD
#02	5GY 5/10	105,131,30	COLD	5GY 5/10	105,131,30	COLD
#03	5GY 5/10	105,131,30	COLD	5GY 5/4	114,127,82	COLD
#04	5BG 5/4	81,129,142	COLD	5BG 5/4	81,129,142	COLD
#05	5BG 5/10	48,132,154	COLD	5BG 5/10	48,132,154	COLD
#06	5BG 5/10	48,132,154	COLD	5BG 5/4	81,129,142	COLD
#07	5PB 5/8	84,123,176	COLD	5PB 5/8	84,123,176	COLD
#08	5PB 5/14	40,124,204	COLD	5PB 5/14	40,124,204	COLD
#09	5PB 5/14	40,124,204	COLD	5PB 5/8	84,123,176	COLD
#010	5P 5/6	138,112,153	COLD	5P 5/6	138,112,153	COLD
#011	5P 5/12	155,99,182	COLD	5P 5/12	155,99,182	COLD
#012	5P 5/12	155,99,182	COLD	5P 5/6	138,112,153	COLD
#013	5RP 5/8	175,98,128	WARM	5RP 5/8	175,98,128	WARM
#014	5RP 5/14	138,112,153	WARM	5RP 5/14	138,112,153	WARM
#015	5RP 5/14	138,112,153	WARM	5RP 5/8	175,98,128	WARM
#016	5R 5/10	196,88,88	WARM	5R 5/10	196,88,88	WARM
#017	5R 5/16	231,49,69	WARM	5R 5/16	231,49,69	WARM
#018	5R 5/16	231,49,69	WARM	5R 5/10	196,88,88	WARM
#019	5YR 5/4	152,114,89	WARM	5YR 5/4	152,114,89	WARM
#020	5YR 5/10	182,101,32	WARM	5YR 5/10	182,101,32	WARM
#021	5YR 5/10	182,101,32	WARM	5YR 5/4	152,114,89	WARM
#022	5Y 5/2	129,121,98	WARM	5Y 5/2	129,121,98	WARM
#023	5Y 5/8	144,120,35	WARM	5Y 5/8	144,120,35	WARM
#024	5Y 5/8	144,120,35	WARM	5Y 5/2	129,121,98	WARM

195

196

Figure 2. Description of the configurations of the selected colours. [2-column fitting image;

197

colour image online only]

198

2.2. Stimuli

199

A classroom at the Polytechnic University of Valencia was virtualised. The classroom was chosen

200

under the criterion it was representative of physical university teaching spaces. The classroom, in

201

the Higher Technical School of Building Engineering, measures 16.50 x 8.80 x 3.80 metres. The

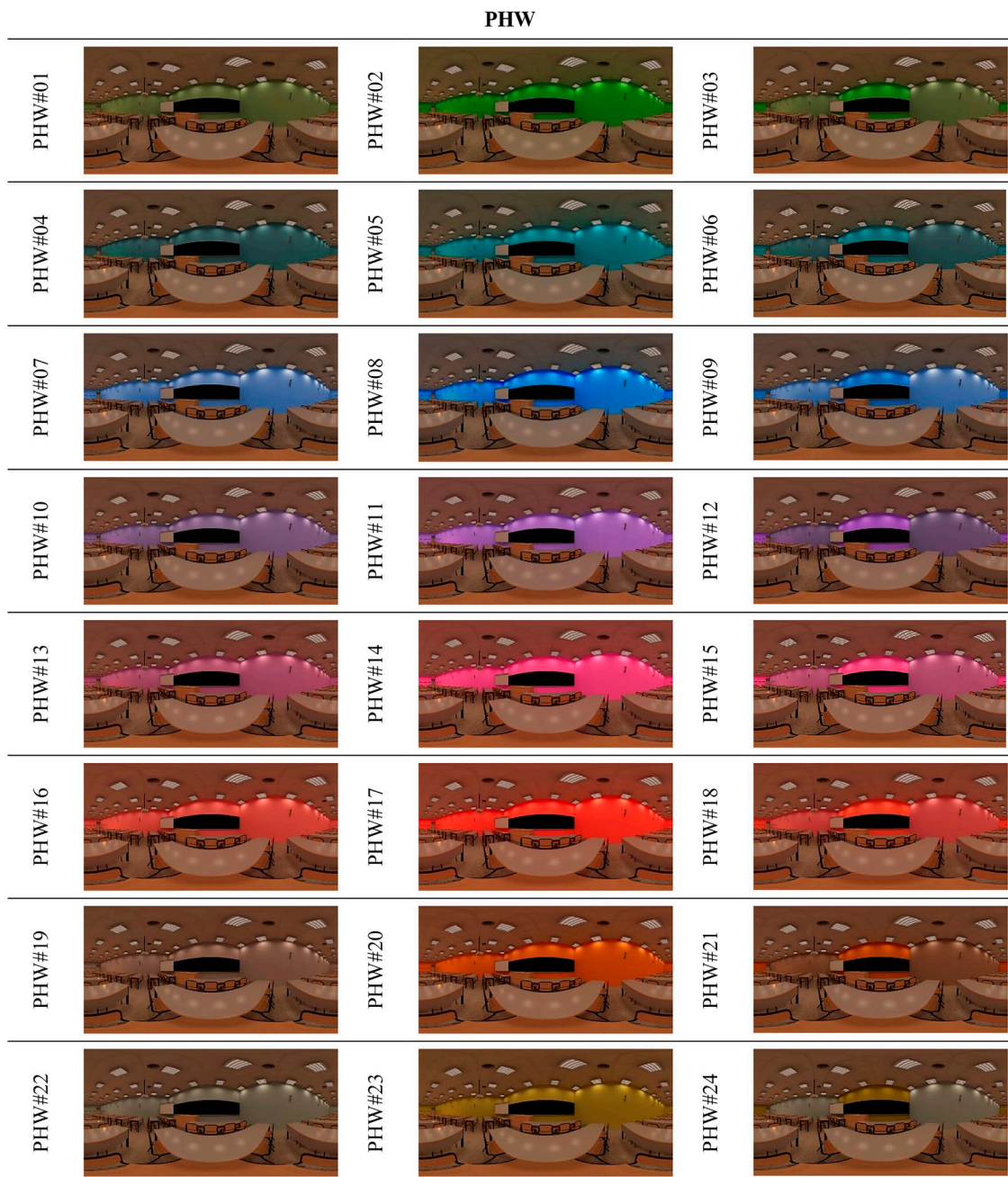
202

24 colour configurations (12 warm and 12 cold), defined in the previous sub-section, were applied

203

to the base virtualisation. This resulted in the 24 PHWs shown in Figure 3 (the distortion of these

204 images is due to the 2D display of 3D environments; the vision through the virtual reality device
205 was natural).



206

207 Figure 3. PHW simulations. [2-column fitting image; colour image online only]

208 2.3. *Environmental simulation set-ups*

209 The participants used a head-mounted display (HMD) to visualise the PHWs. All research was
210 carried out in the same laboratory and in the same time slots, taking care to maintain silence and

211 temperature. Some aspects related to the device and the environmental simulation should be
212 highlighted.

213 The HMD device used was the HTC Vive (www.vive.com). The HTC Vive provides a total
214 resolution of 2160×1200 pixels (1080×1200 per eye), with a refresh rate of 90Hz, and a field
215 of view of 110° . The device was calibrated prior to the experiment to ensure the consistency of
216 the colours rendered. Figure 3 shows participants taking part in the experiment.

217 The simulations were developed through a process of modelling and rendering. The three-
218 dimensional model was constructed using Rhinoceros (v.5.0; www.rhino3d.com). The rendering
219 of the different PHWs was performed on the 3D model using the Corona Renderer engine (v.2.0;
220 <https://corona-renderer.com>). The same point of view was taken in each case, that of a student
221 sitting in the middle of the second row of tables. From this point, an adequate impression of the
222 whole space was obtained during all the experiment. Regarding lighting, the Correlated Colour
223 Temperature (CCT) in creating the virtual space was a simulation of 4,000 Kelvin, a light close
224 to a F-9 standard lighting. The virtual implementation was undertaken using Unity3D (v5.6;
225 www.unity3d.com).



226

227 Figure 4. Participants during the classroom experiment. [Single-column fitting image; colour
228 image online only]

229 2.4. *Participants*

230 A total of 160 subjects participated in the experiment: 57% male, 43% female, average age 23.56
231 years ($\sigma = 3.433$). Four inclusion criteria were established: (1) being a university student; (2) to

232 be aged between 18 to 23 years; (3) to have been born and be resident in Spain (to avoid cultural
233 effects); and (4) having normal or corrected-to-normal vision with contact lenses (to avoid the
234 problems that can be caused by using spectacles with the HMD). Each participant visualised three
235 PHWs, based on an incomplete counterbalanced randomisation. This allowed each PHW to be
236 viewed by 20 participants. The study was executed in accordance with the Declaration of
237 Helsinki, and the experimental methodology was approved by the Review Board of the Institute
238 for Research and Innovation in Bioengineering (Project BIA2017-86157-R). Figure 5 describes
239 the general experimental sequence.

CONCEPT		TIME (MINUTES)	
Preparation	PARTICIPANT INITIATION Reception, basic instructions, signing of consent form, fitting of neurophysiological recording devices.	≈10	↓
	SCREENING FOR COLOUR-VISION DEFICIENCIES Farnsworth-Munsell Dichotomous D-15 Test	≈5	
	TEST SCENARIO Viewing a test scenario to adjust the environmental simulation device and acclimatise the participant.	≈2	
Pre-experiment	BASELINE Eyes open and eyes closed.	3 (1.5+1.5)	
	GENERAL INSTRUCTIONS <i>“You will first hear an audio clip. Then you will see yourself in a space. Imagine that it is a university classroom in which you are taking a class. Look at it for 90 seconds. Thereafter, you will complete a series of tasks and questionnaires.”</i>	≈1	
Classroom Experiment	PREPARATION AUDIO Relaxing audio to reduce fatigue before repetition of the sequence.	1	
	CLASSROOM EXPERIMENT Environmental simulation of the assigned PHW. Metrics: Neurophysiological recordings (HRV-nLF; HRV-nHF; EEG-C3-Beta; EEG-CZ-Beta; EEG-F3-Highbeta; EEG-FZ-Highbeta).	1.5	
	PSYCHOLOGICAL ATTENTION TASK <i>“You will now hear a series of sounds. You must react as soon as possible to a specific stimulus with a single mouse click, and avoid doing so with others. The stimulus you should react to is this [sound # 1]; and the stimuli that you should ignore are [sound # 2, sound # 3, sound # 4, sound # 5].</i> Metrics: psychological task (Attention-Time, Attention-Errors).	4	
	PSYCHOLOGICAL MEMORY TASK <i>“You will hear a series of words. Try to remember them. You will be asked to repeat the words, in any order, within 30 seconds. You should do this 3 times”.</i> Metrics: psychological task (Memory-Correct answers).	4	
	EVALUATION OF THE VIRTUAL CLASSROOM EXPERIMENT Metric: psychological questionnaire (SUS-Total).	≈1	
Post-experiment	DEMOGRAPHIC QUESTIONNAIRE Demographic questionnaire.	≈1	↓
	PARTICIPANT EXIT PROTOCOL Retrieval of the devices, accompany participant to the exit.	≈5	
TOTAL:		60	

240

241

Figure 5. General experimental sequence. [2-column fitting image; grayscale image]

242

2.5. Data analysis

243

Psychological and neurophysiological responses were obtained from all the participants. These

244

focused on quantifying performance in attention and memory and their underlying

245

neurophysiological processes. In addition, the participants completed questionnaires about their

246

sense of presence during the PHW experiment.

247 The psychological measures were:

- 248 - Presence. Sense of presence is the illusion of "being there" [48], evoked by an environmental
249 simulation that is not perceived as synthetic. To quantify sense of presence the subjects
250 completed the SUS questionnaire [49], which consists of six items evaluated on a Likert-type
251 scale, from 1 to 7; with a maximum score of 42 (6 items x 7). The objective was to verify that
252 the simulations could be considered satisfactory. A high level of presence can be considered
253 when the items have a score of more than 4 [50], which is equivalent to a score of 24. The
254 questionnaire was administered after each PHW visualization (SUS-Total).
- 255 - Psychological attention task. This is similar to the auditory continuous performance test [51].
256 The participant had to react to a specific stimulus (target) as soon as possible with a mouse
257 click, and avoid clicking the mouse when other stimuli appeared (four different distractors).
258 The configuration parameters of the task were: (a) auditory stimuli, reproduced by the PC;
259 (b) 20% target stimuli (8 target and 32 distractors); (c) 800 ms - 1600 ms time between stimuli;
260 and (d) 750 ms to react to the stimuli (after which any reaction was considered an error,
261 similar to reacting to a distractor). This was repeated 3 times for each PHW, with a break of
262 2000 ms between sets. After the test the number of errors made and the reaction time to the
263 target stimuli (Attention-Errors and Attention-Time metrics) were quantified.
- 264 - Psychological memory task. This was similar to the Deese, Roediger and McDermott (DRM)
265 paradigm experiments [52]. During the task, the subject had to memorise lists of words
266 associated with a concept that was not presented as a specific word. The configuration
267 parameters of the task were: (a) auditory stimuli, reproduced through the PC, using Loquendo
268 TTS 7 (www.loquendo.com); (b) 15 words, with a similar recall rate [53]; (c) 30 seconds to
269 repeat the lists, before advancing to the next list. This was repeated 3 times for each PHW (9
270 lists per participant: 3 lists x 3 PHWs, which were counterbalanced), with a break of 2,000
271 ms between sets. After the test, the number of words remembered was quantified, with
272 corrections being made based on the recall rate reported by [52] for each word (Memory-
273 Correct answers metric).

274 The neurophysiological measures were:

275 - Heart rate variability (HRV). HRV measures variations in the intervals between heartbeats
276 [54]. This was measured using the b-Alert x10 device (www.advancedbrainmonitoring.com).

277 The raw signal, sampled at 256 Hz, was pre-processed and analysed using the HRVAS
278 toolbox (v. 2014-03-21). Two HRV metrics were obtained [55]: the low-frequency band of
279 the signal (0.05 to 0.15 Hz), which is related to sympathetic activity and may involve an
280 increase in arousal (HRV-nLF metric); and the high-frequency band of the signal (0.15 to 0.4
281 Hz), which is related to parasympathetic activity and may involve a decrease in arousal
282 (HRV-nHF metric). Both were expressed in normalised units [56]. In relation to cognitive
283 processes, it should be noted that HRV is related to attentional control.

284 - Electroencephalogram (EEG). An EEG measures variations in the electrical activity of the
285 surface of the scalp [57]. This measurement was also made using the b-Alert x10 device. The
286 raw signal, sampled at 256 Hz, was pre-processed and analysed using the EEGLAB toolbox
287 [58]. Four EEG metrics were calculated; the metrics were based on the relative power of each
288 band with respect to the total signal, because this method has been seen to reduce differences
289 between subjects [59]: the beta band (13-30 Hz) of the C3 and CZ electrodes (EEG-C3-Beta
290 and EEG-CZ-Beta metrics), which are associated with increased attention [60,61] and
291 cognitive performance [62]; and the highbeta band (21-30 Hz) which, in general, is associated
292 with alertness [63], of the F3 and FZ electrodes (EEG-F3-Highbeta, and EEG-CZ-Highbeta
293 metrics), which can be indicators of working memory and attention judgment, respectively
294 [64]. The four EEG metrics were normalised based on the values obtained for the baselines

295 $(M_{PHW\#x} = (M_{PHW\#x} - |M_{PHW\#BASELINE}|) / SD_{PHW\#BASELINE})$.

296 All the neurophysiological measures were recorded during the 90 seconds following the
297 preparation audio, and prior to the attention and memory tasks. This is based on the fact that after
298 this time frame, with similar simulation systems, an increase in arousal can be generated and
299 recorded at a neurophysiological level [40]; which could distort the results.

300 **2.6. Statistical Analysis**

301 The data collected, both through psychological and neurophysiological responses, were
 302 anonymised; thereafter, they were used to carry out the appropriate statistical analyses to explore
 303 the study questions (Table 1). IBM SPSS software (v.17.0; www.ibm.com/products/spss-
 304 statistics) was used.

PHASE	ANALYSIS AND DATA USED	STATISTICAL TREATMENT	EXPECTED RESULT
Phase 1.0 Validation of the VR PHW	Analysis of level of sense of presence. <ul style="list-style-type: none"> SUS-Total. 	Descriptive analysis of means.	Sufficient level of presence.
Phase 1.1 Analysis of psychological responses	Analyses of attention and memory performance. <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Attention-Time Attention-Errors Memory-Correct answers 	Mann Whitney's test (non-normally distributed data) for Attention-Time and Attention-Errors. ANOVA (normally distributed data) for Memory-Correct answers.	Significant differences in the psychological responses, based on the warm or cold hue of the classroom. Identification of the PHWs which gave the best and worst attention and memory performance.
Phase 1.2 Analysis of neuropsychological responses	Analysis of the neurophysiological processes related to attention and memory performance. <ul style="list-style-type: none"> HRV-nLF HRV-nHF EEG-C3-Beta EEG-CZ-Beta EEG-F3-Highbeta EEG-FZ-Highbeta 	Mann Whitney test (non-normally distributed data) for the six neuropsychological responses.	Significant differences in the neuropsychological responses, based on the warm or cold hue of the classroom. Identification of the PHWs with the highest and lowest neuropsychological activity.
Phase 1.3 Correlation between psychological and neurophysiological responses	Analysis of the relation between both types of responses. <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Attention-Time Attention-Errors Memory-Correct answers HRV-nLF HRV-nHF EEG-C3-Beta EEG-CZ-Beta EEG-F3-Highbeta EEG-FZ-Highbeta 	Spearman.	Correlation between the psychological and the neurophysiological responses

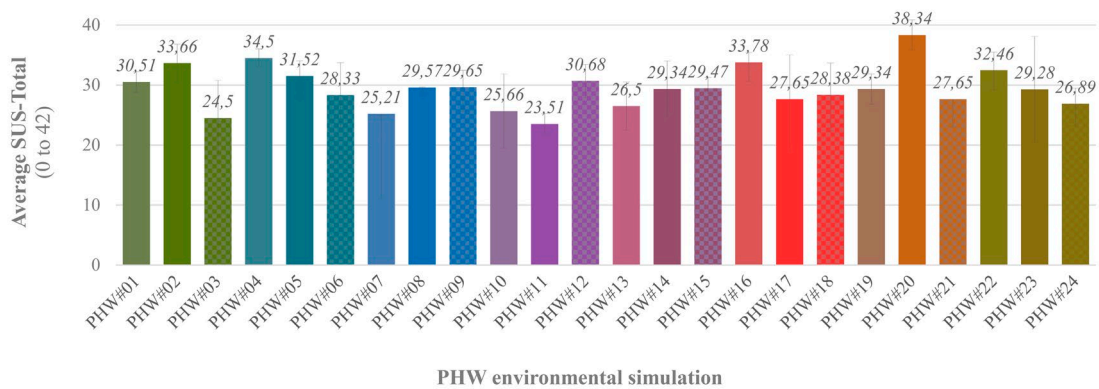
Table 1. Statistical treatments.

306 **3. Results**

307 The statistical analysis of the psychological and neurophysiological responses provided the
308 following results.

309 **3.1. Phase 1.1 Validation of the VR PHW**

310 Average levels of sense of presence per participant (based on the SUS questionnaire) were
311 obtained for each PHW (Figure 6). These results were considered sufficient as all the simulations
312 reached scores close to or above 24 points [50], so the VR PHW simulations can be regarded as
313 satisfactory at this level.



314

315 Figure 6. Average level of sense of presence for each PHW. [2-column fitting image; colour
316 image online only]

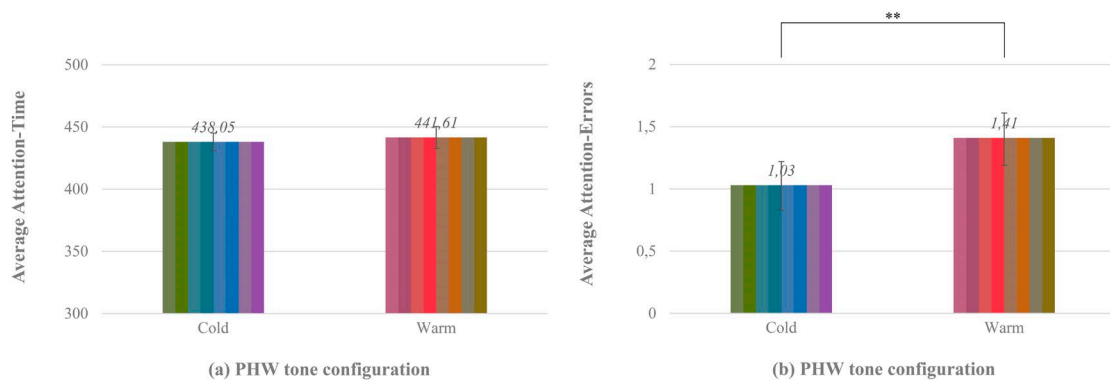
317 **3.2. Phase 1.2 Analysis of the psychological responses**

318 The attention and memory tasks were analysed at the psychological level. The statistical analyses
319 applied were based on the normality of the data for each metric, which were assessed using the
320 Kolmogorov-Smirnov (K-S) test.

321 **3.2.1. Psychological attention task**

322 The psychological attention task used two metrics, Attention-Time and Attention-Errors.
323 Attention-Time measures average reaction times; the shorter the time, the higher the attention
324 performance. Due to the normality of the data (K-S, $p > 0.05$), the comparison between both
325 groups (warm and cold hues) for this variable was made through an ANOVA. Figure 7a presents

326 the mean reaction times for each group. The ANOVA test did not identify significant differences
 327 in reaction time when the classroom hues were modified ($p = 0.531$). Attention-Errors quantifies
 328 the number of errors made; the less errors made, the higher the attention performance. Due to the
 329 non-normality of the data (K-S, $p < 0.05$), the Mann Whitney test was used for the comparison.
 330 The Mann Whitney test identified significant differences between the groups ($p = 0.008$), the
 331 performance being higher in cold-hued PHWs (Figure 7b).

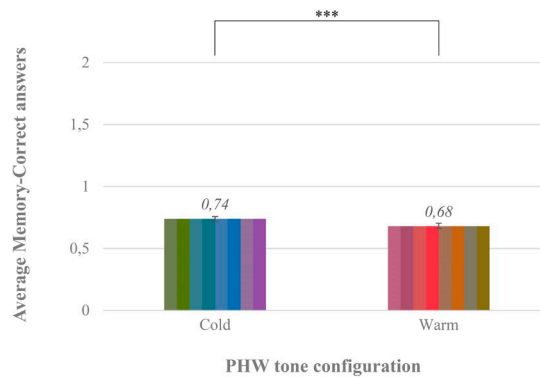


332 (a) PHW tone configuration (b) PHW tone configuration

333 Figure 7. Results of the psychological attention task: Attention-Time (7a) and Attention-Errors
 334 (7b). The bracket indicates the comparison and the asterisks the significance level ($*p < 0.05$,
 335 $**p < 0.01$). [2-column fitting image; colour image online only]

336 3.2.2. Psychological memory task

337 The psychological memory task used the Memory-Correct answers metric. This metric quantifies
 338 the number of words remembered in the psychological memory task. The more words
 339 remembered, the higher the memory performance. Due to the normality of this data (K-S, $p >$
 340 0.05), an ANOVA was applied. The ANOVA identified that there were significant differences
 341 based on the hue (warm or cold) of the classrooms ($p = 0.000$), with memory performance being
 342 higher in cold-hued PHWs (Figure 8).



343

344 Figure 8. Results of the psychological memory task, Memory-Correct answers. The bracket
 345 indicates the comparison and the asterisks the significance level (* $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$).

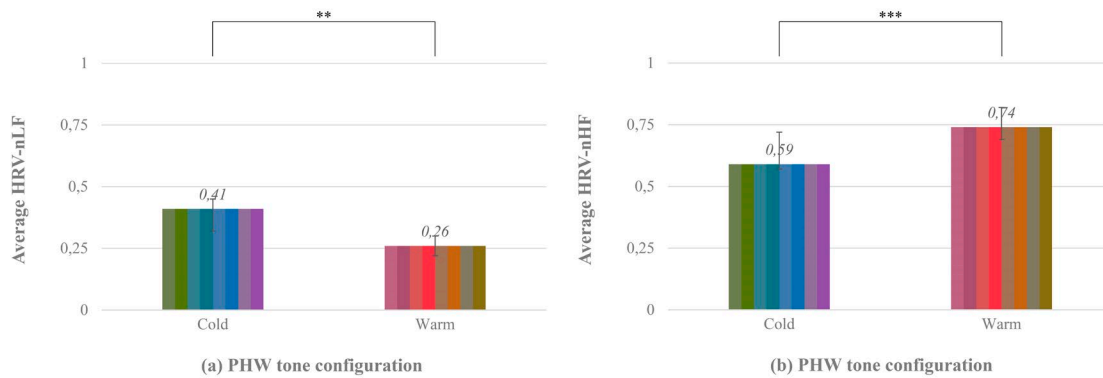
346 [Single-column fitting image; colour image online only]

347 **3.3. Phase 1.3 Analysis of the neurophysiological responses**

348 The HRV and EEG metrics were analysed at the neurophysiological level. The Kolmogorov-
 349 Smirnov (KS) test indicated that the data followed a non-normal distribution, so the Mann
 350 Whitney test was used to compare the six neuropsychological metrics to verify the existence of
 351 significant differences between the warm-hued and cold-hued PHWs.

352 **3.3.1. HRV**

353 HRV was assessed through two metrics, HRV-nLF and HRV-nHF. The first quantifies
 354 sympathetic activity and the second parasympathetic. The Mann Whitney test identified that there
 355 were significant differences based on the hue (warm or cold) of the classrooms both for HRV-
 356 nLF ($p = 0.010$; Figure 9a) and HRV-nHF ($p = 0.022$; Figure 9b). The results showed that cold-
 357 hued PHWs generated greater sympathetic activity and less parasympathetic activity, thus they
 358 are associated with an increase in arousal.



359

360

361

362

Figure 9. Results of the HRV measures, HRV-nLF (9a) and HRV-nHF (9b). The brackets indicate the comparisons and the asterisks the significance levels (* $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$). [2-column fitting image; colour image online only]

363

3.3.2. EEG

364

The EEG recordings used two beta band-based metrics and two highbeta band-based metrics.

365

The beta band metrics used were EEG-C3-Beta and EEG-CZ-Beta; these are related, respectively,

366

to increased attention and cognitive performance. The Mann Whitney test identified that there

367

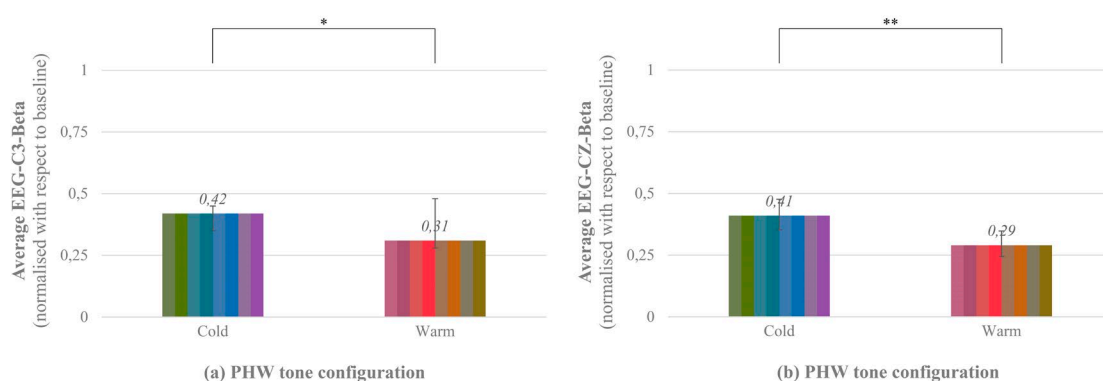
were significant differences based on classroom hue (warm or cold hues) for both EEG-C3-Beta

368

($p = 0.026$; Figure 10a) and EEG-CZ-Beta ($p = 0.009$; Figure 10b), suggesting that cold-hued

369

PHWs contribute to the achievement of higher levels of attention and cognitive performance.



370

371

372

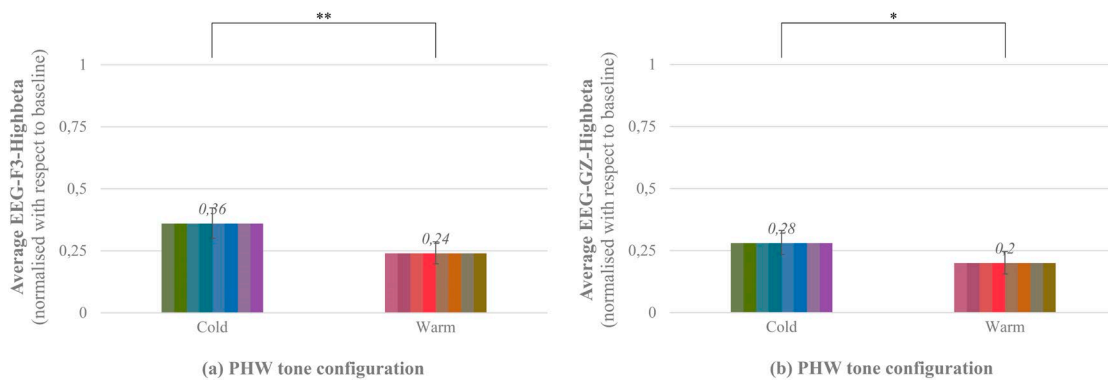
373

Figure 10. Results of the beta band EEG metrics: EEG-C3-Beta (10a) and EEG-CZ-Beta (10b).

The brackets indicate the comparisons and the asterisks the significance levels (* $p < 0.05$, ** $p <$

0.01). [2-column fitting image; colour image online only]

374 The highbeta band metrics used were EEG-F3-Highbeta and EEG-FZ-Highbeta. These may be
 375 related to an increase in alertness that improves, respectively, working memory and attention
 376 judgment. The Mann Whitney test identified significant differences both in the EEG-F3-Highbeta
 377 ($p = 0.008$; Figure 11a) and in the EEG-FZ-Highbeta ($p = 0.033$; Figure 11b) metrics based on
 378 classroom hue (warm or cold). This suggests that cold-hued PHWs contribute to the achievement
 379 of higher levels of working memory and attention.



380

381 Figure 11. Results of the highbeta band EEG metrics, EEG-F3-Highbeta (11a) and EEG-FZ-
 382 Highbeta (11b). The brackets indicate the comparisons and the asterisks the significance levels
 383 (* $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$). [2-column fitting image; colour image online only]

384 **3.4. Phase 1.4 Correlation between the psychological and the neurophysiological responses**

385 The correlations between the psychological metrics (Attention-Time, Attention-Errors, Memory-
 386 Correct answers) and the neurophysiological metrics (HRV-nLF, HRV-nHF, EEG-C3-Beta,
 387 EEG-CZ-Beta, EEG-F3-Highbeta, EEG-FZ-Highbeta) were analysed by applying the Spearman
 388 correlation coefficient (Table 2). With respect to the task of attention, a negative and significant
 389 correlation is obtained between the errors made and all the metrics ($p < 0.05$) (except HF of HRV).
 390 The metric with the highest correlation is LF of HRV, which can be interpreted as a small-to-
 391 moderate correlation [65]. In the case of reaction time, the highest correlation (also a small-to-
 392 moderate correlation) is obtained with the beta metric. Regarding the memory task, a small
 393 significant and positive correlation is obtained with LF of HRV.

394

NEUROPHYSIOLOGICAL RESPONSES		ATTENTION PERFORMANCE		MEMORY PERFORMANCE
		Attention-Time	Attention-Errors	Memory-Correct answers
HRV-nLF	Correlation Coef.	-0.031	-0.347	0.192
	Sig.	0.724	0.000	0.025
HRV-nHF	Correlation Coef.	-0.023	0.003	0.020
	Sig.	0.776	0.974	0.805
EEG-C3-Beta	Correlation Coef.	-0.306	-0.193	0.094
	Sig.	0.000	0.013	0.228
EEG-CZ-Beta	Correlation Coef.	-0.334	-0.186	0.084
	Sig.	0.000	0.017	0.281
EEG-F3-Highbeta	Correlation Coef.	-0.136	-0.211	0.106
	Sig.	0.082	0.007	0.174
EEG-FZ-Highbeta	Correlation Coef.	-0.185	-0.258	0.105
	Sig.	0.018	0.001	0.180

395 Table 2. Spearman correlation between the psychological and the neurophysiological responses.

396 4. Discussion

397 This paper analyses the impact that the warm and cold hue colours of classroom walls have on
398 the cognitive functions of attention and memory of university students. The study's main
399 contribution is the identification of a strong effect of hues on performance at different levels. This
400 is important as previous studies have not found this influence on performance [66], or have
401 suggested that its influence might be weaker than other environmental variables [5]. The findings
402 will be discussed in relation to the methodology and the results. The limitations of the study will
403 also be discussed.

404 At the methodological level, two important inclusions should be highlighted: (1) the
405 neurophysiological measurements; and (2) the VR. On the one hand, neurophysiological
406 measurements are important as they provide more objective information than self-reports [43]. In
407 the present study, this has made it possible to obtain complementary information; this
408 complementary assessment has scarcely been undertaken in studies with similar objectives [44].
409 On the other hand, VR facilitates control of the environmental variables under study, and is
410 compatible with the psychological and neurophysiological assessments of the participants [67].
411 VR allowed the use of a relatively wide range of stimuli (24 configurations, 12 warm-hued and

412 12 cold-hued), which gives greater generalisability and applicability to the results. These two
413 tools made it possible to enhance the robustness of the results.

414 At the results level, four aspects should be highlighted: (1) the psychological attention task results;
415 (2) the psychological memory task results; (3) the neurophysiological results; and (4) the
416 correlations between the psychological metrics of attention and memory and the
417 neurophysiological metrics.

418 In the first place, at the psychological attention task results level, it was observed that cold-hued
419 colours (between yellowish green and purple, 5GY, 5BG, 5PB, and 5P) were associated with
420 higher performance. Specifically, fewer errors were committed in the attention task (Attention-
421 Time). This result disagrees with studies that found no differences in tasks such as reading [22]
422 and typing [23] performance. However, it is consistent with studies that found increased
423 concentration in high/secondary school students due to the effect of cold hues [19], and that found
424 that blue hues helped more than red hues in the performance of particularly difficult tasks [24],
425 and in the achievement of higher IQ test scores [31–33]. Authors interpret these different
426 influences of colour on performance following two lines of research: motivation and arousal,
427 which are linked to the type of task and difficulty of the task respectively [8, 32]. More recently,
428 authors have been effective trying to study these two interpretations together and reported that
429 red enhanced performance on a simple detail-oriented task while blue improved performance on
430 a difficult detail-oriented task as well as on creative tasks, no matter whether the task was simple
431 or difficult [29]. The present study supports these findings, given that the attention tasks used bear
432 a certain relationship to tasks used to test individuals' attention to detail, and creative tasks.
433 Furthermore, interestingly, blue has been reported to facilitate students' study activities in a
434 university residence [68]; however, as previously noted, actual performance and self-reported
435 opinion about performance do not always coincide.

436 Second, the psychological memory task performance results are consistent with the attention
437 results: cold-hued coloured classroom walls were associated with better results in the memory
438 task (Memory-Correct answers). This result is especially noteworthy, given that most studies have

439 focused on attention performance, and few on memory performance [26]. This finding is partially
440 consistent with other research that has shown that cold lighting is associated with higher
441 performance in long-term memory tasks [69]. Therefore, guidelines for using cold-hued colours
442 would be valid for improving both memory and attention performance.

443 Third, the HRV and EEG neurophysiological results indicated that cold-hued colours elicited
444 significantly higher activation. This result contradicts some other studies. HRV measurements
445 have shown, for example, that warm hues have arousal properties that make participants feel more
446 active [22,70,71]. However, other authors have reported lower activation in red environments due
447 to a compensatory phenomenon that addresses over-stimulation [3]. EEG-based studies have
448 identified that red environments provoke greater activation in the frontal area [32], and generate
449 greater arousal than blue, as evidenced by lower delta band values, which is related to sleep [3],
450 or delays in cortical habituation responses [72]. However, some authors have suggested that there
451 is insufficient EEG-based evidence to argue that warm-hued colours are more arousing than cold-
452 hued [73]. Thus, although warm hue colours are generally associated with higher
453 neurophysiological activation, the literature is not conclusive in this regard. Furthermore, the
454 metrics used in this article are not exclusively focused on arousal, but attempt also to explore
455 underlying issues related to the cognitive functions of attention and memory.

456 Fourth, interesting correlations were found between task performance and the neurophysiological
457 metrics. Regarding HRV, a small-to-moderate link was found between activation of the
458 sympathetic system (HRV-nLF metric) and errors in the attention task (Attention-Errors).
459 Regarding EEG, a small-to-moderate correlation is also observed between the beta band and the
460 reaction times of the attention task (Attention-Time) and between highbeta band and the errors
461 made (Attention-Errors). This relationship is in line with earlier studies that showed that the
462 cognitive, physiological, and affective effects of the physical environment on learning are closely
463 interconnected [74]. In fact, there is current growing interest in obtaining objective real-time data
464 from participants while they are being exposed to different stimuli [75]; to achieve this it is
465 necessary to integrate the relevant neurophysiological, technological, and design processes [76].

466 The present study, thus, advances the identification of candidate biological metrics to examine
467 the cognitive processes of attention and memory.

468 Finally, regarding the limitations of the present study, two aspect should be emphasised. On the
469 one hand, the experimental methodology was specifically designed to examine the differences
470 between two colour groups, cold- and warm- hued. General results were pursued, that is, not
471 specific to each hue, for which a larger sample would be necessary. Consequently, judging by the
472 results obtained, it would be interesting to conduct future studies that focus on exploring each
473 hue, in detail, at the psychological and neurophysiological levels. On the other hand, having
474 chosen only one point of view within the classroom (the middle of the second row of tables) might
475 have included a position-related effect. An experimental approach with different positions could
476 have reduce this, but would have required a larger sample of participants, or not studying as many
477 colour combinations. In this sense, future studies could address which positions within the
478 classroom benefit most from the colour changes in the classroom.

479 **5. Conclusions**

480 The present study explores the impact of the cold and warm hue colours of the walls of university
481 classrooms on the cognitive functions of attention and memory. This impact was addressed
482 through the combined use of VR (which allowed a wide colour range to be explored) and
483 psychological (which allowed performance to be quantified) and neurophysiological (which
484 allowed related cognitive processes to be explored) metrics. Both the psychological and
485 neurophysiological results indicated that cold hues enhanced performance in attention and
486 memory more than did warm hues. This can be explained at the neurophysiological level by the
487 achievement of a level of sympathetic system activation appropriate to the maintenance of higher
488 alertness and cognitive performance. In this regard, it is worth highlighting the correlation
489 between the psychological metrics and most of the neurophysiological metrics, which suggests
490 that it would be useful to use the latter (HRV-nLF, EEG-C3-Beta, EEG-CZ-Beta, EEG-F3-
491 Highbeta, and EEG-FZ-Highbeta) to understand the underlying processes in memory and

492 attention in greater detail. The results of the present study can be useful for a wide range of
493 professionals involved in the design of, and research into, teaching spaces.

494 **6. Acknowledgements**

495 This work was supported by the Ministerio de Economía, Industria y Competitividad of Spain
496 (Project BIA2017-86157-R). The second author is supported by funding from Ministerio de
497 Economía, Industria y Competitividad of Spain (PRE2018-084051) and the Academy of
498 Neuroscience for Architecture (John Paul Eberhard ANFA Fellow).

499 **7. References**

- 500 [1] K.S. Gaines, Z.D. Curry, The Inclusive Classroom: The Effects of Color on Learning and
501 Behavior, *J. Fam. Consum. Sci. Educ.* 29 (2011) 46–57.
- 502 [2] R. Küller, S. Ballal, T. Laike, B. Mikellides, G. Tonello, The impact of light and colour
503 on psychological mood: A cross-cultural study of indoor work environments, *Ergonomics*.
504 49 (2006) 1496–1507.
- 505 [3] R. Küller, B. Mikellides, J. Janssens, Color, arousal, and performance—A comparison of
506 three experiments, *Color Res. Appl.* 34 (2009) 141–152.
- 507 [4] D. Yang, C.M. Mak, Relationships between indoor environmental quality and
508 environmental factors in university classrooms, *Build. Environ.* 186 (2020) 107331.
- 509 [5] P. Barrett, F. Davies, Y. Zhang, L. Barrett, The impact of classroom design on pupils’
510 learning: Final results of a holistic, multi-level analysis, *Build. Environ.* 89 (2015) 118–
511 133.
- 512 [6] P.N. Hamid, A.G. Newport, Effect of colour on physical strength and mood in children,
513 *Percept. Mot. Ski.* 69 (1989) 179–185.
- 514 [7] J.S. Nakshian, The effects of red and green surroundings on behavior, *J. Gen. Psychol.* 70
515 (1964) 143–161.
- 516 [8] R.M. Yerkes, J.D. Dodson, The relation of strength of stimulus to rapidity of habit-

- 517 formation, *Comp. Neurol. Psychol.* 18 (1908) 459–482.
- 518 [9] N. Kwallek, K. Soon, C.M. Lewis, Work week productivity, visual complexity, and
519 individual environmental sensitivity in three offices of different color interiors, *Color Res.*
520 *Appl.* 32 (2007) 130–143.
- 521 [10] P. Lewinski, Effects of classrooms' architecture on academic performance in view of telic
522 versus paratelic motivation: a review, *Front. Psychol.* 6 (2015) 746.
- 523 [11] J. Walters, M.J. Apter, S. Svebak, Color preference, arousal, and the theory of
524 psychological reversals, *Motiv. Emot.* 6 (1982) 193–215.
- 525 [12] M.A. Read, A.I. Sugawara, J.A. Brandt, Impact of space and color in the physical
526 environment on preschool children's cooperative behavior, *Environ. Behav.* 31 (1999)
527 413–428.
- 528 [13] K. Engelbrecht, *The Impact of Color on Learning*, NeoCon, Chicago, USA, 2003.
- 529 [14] D. Niero, A. Premier, *Colour in the Schools*, in: P. Zennaro (Ed.), *Colour Light Archit.*,
530 *Università Iuav di Venezia*, Verona, Italy, 2010: pp. 475–481.
- 531 [15] F. Birren, *Colour and Human Response*, Van Nostrand Reinhold, New York, USA, 1978.
- 532 [16] E.M. Grangaard, *Color and Light Effects on Learning*, ERIC Document Reproduction
533 Service, Washington, USA, 1995.
- 534 [17] N. Kwallek, C.M. Lewis, J.W.D. Lin-Hsiao, H. Woodson, Effects of nine monochromatic
535 office interior colors on clerical tasks and worker mood, *Color Res. Appl.* 21 (1996) 448–
536 458.
- 537 [18] I.M. Cockerill, B.P. Miller, Childrens' color preferences and motor skill performance with
538 variation in environmental color, *Percept. Mot. Skills.* 56 (1983) 845–846.
- 539 [19] F.H. Mahnke, *Color, Environment, and Human Response: An Interdisciplinary*
540 *Understanding of Color and Its Use as a Beneficial Element in the Design of the*
541 *Architectural Environment*, John Wiley & Sons, New York, USA, 1996.

- 542 [20] P. Barrett, Y. Zhang, J. Moffat, K. Kobbacy, A holistic, multilevel analysis identifying the
543 impact of classroom design on pupils' learning, *Build. Environ.* 59 (2013) 678–689.
- 544 [21] K. Yildirim, K. Cagatay, N. Ayalp, Effect of wall colour on the perception of classrooms,
545 *Indoor Built Environ.* 24 (2015) 607–616.
- 546 [22] A. Al-Ayash, R.T. Kane, D. Smith, P. Green-Armytage, The influence of color on student
547 emotion, heart rate, and performance in learning environments, *Color Res. Appl.* 42 (2015)
548 196–205.
- 549 [23] R.A. Ainsworth, L. Simpson, D. Cassell, Effects of Three Colors in an Office Interior on
550 Mood and Performance, *Percept. Mot. Skills.* 76 (1993) 235–241.
- 551 [24] N.J. Stone, Environmental view and color for a simulated telemarketing task, *J. Environ.*
552 *Psychol.* 23 (2003) 63–78.
- 553 [25] N. Kwallek, H. Woodson, C.M. Lewis, C. Sales, Impact of three interior color schemes
554 on worker mood and performance relative to individual environmental sensitivity, *Color*
555 *Res. Appl.* 22 (1997) 121–132.
- 556 [26] C. von Castell, D. Stelzmann, D. Oberfeld, R. Welsch, H. Hecht, Cognitive performance
557 and emotion are indifferent to ambient color, *Color Res. Appl.* 43 (2018) 65–74.
- 558 [27] R. Mehta, R.J. Zhu, Blue or red? Exploring the effect of color on cognitive task
559 performances, *Science* (80-.). 323 (2009) 1226–1229.
- 560 [28] E. Öztürk, S. Yilmazer, S.E. Ural, The effects of achromatic and chromatic color schemes
561 on participants' task performance in and appraisals of an office environment, *Color Res.*
562 *Appl.* 37 (2012) 359–366.
- 563 [29] T. Xia, L. Song, T.T. Wang, L. Tan, L. Mo, Exploring the effect of red and blue on
564 cognitive task performances, *Front. Psychol.* 7 (2016) 784.
- 565 [30] K.F. Anter, M. Billger, Colour research with architectural relevance: How can different
566 approaches gain from each other?, *Color Res. Appl.* 35 (2010) 145–152.

- 567 [31] A.J. Elliot, Color and psychological functioning: a review of theoretical and empirical
568 work, *Front. Psychol.* 6 (2015) 368.
- 569 [32] A.J. Elliot, M.A. Maier, A.C. Moller, R. Friedman, J. Meinhardt, Color and psychological
570 functioning: the effect of red on performance attainment, *J. Exp. Psychol. Gen.* 136 (2007)
571 154–168.
- 572 [33] J. Shi, C. Zhang, F. Jiang, Does red undermine individuals' intellectual performance? A
573 test in China, *Int. J. Psychol.* 50 (2015) 81–84.
- 574 [34] A. Smajic, S. Merritt, C. Banister, A. Blinebry, The Red Effect, Anxiety, and Exam
575 Performance: A Multistudy Examination, *Teach. Psychol.* 41 (2014) 37–43.
- 576 [35] J.L. Higuera-Trujillo, J. López-Tarruella, C. Llinares Millán, Psychological and
577 physiological human responses to simulated and real environments: A comparison
578 between Photographs, 360° Panoramas, and Virtual Reality, *Appl. Ergon.* 65 (2017) 398–
579 409.
- 580 [36] J.L. Higuera-Trujillo, C. Castellanos, C. Llinares, Educational centres design tools. Virtual
581 reality for the study of attention and memory performance, in: L. Gómez Chova, A. López
582 Martínez, I. Candel Torres (Eds.), *INTED2020 Proceedings. 14th Int. Technol. Educ. Dev.*
583 *Conf.*, IATED Academy, Valencia, Spain, 2020: pp. 4362–4366.
- 584 [37] A.A. Rizzo, J.G. Buckwalter, T. Bowerly, C. Van Der Zaag, L. Humphrey, U. Neumann,
585 D. Sisemore, The virtual classroom: a virtual reality environment for the assessment and
586 rehabilitation of attention deficits, *CyberPsychology Behav.* 3 (2000) 483–499.
- 587 [38] R. Adams, P. Finn, E. Moes, K. Flannery, A.S. Rizzo, Distractibility in
588 attention/deficit/hyperactivity disorder (ADHD): The virtual reality classroom, *Child*
589 *Neuropsychol.* 15 (2009) 120–135.
- 590 [39] T.D. Parsons, T. Bowerly, J.G. Buckwalter, A.A. Rizzo, A controlled clinical comparison
591 of attention performance in children with ADHD in a virtual reality classroom compared
592 to standard neuropsychological methods, *Child Neuropsychol.* 13 (2007) 363–381.

- 593 [40] J.L. Higuera-Trujillo, C. Llinares Millán, A. Montañana i Aviñó, J.-C. Rojas, Multisensory
594 stress reduction: a neuro-architecture study of paediatric waiting rooms, *Build. Res. Inf.*
595 48 (2019) 269–285.
- 596 [41] C.E. Izard, Basic emotions, relations among emotions, and emotion-cognition relations,
597 *Psychol. Rev.* 99 (1992) 561–565.
- 598 [42] P. Winkielman, G.G. Berntson, J.T. Cacioppo, The psychophysiological perspective on
599 the social mind, in: A. Tesser, N. Schwarz (Eds.), *Blackwell Handb. Soc. Psychol.*
600 *Intraindividual Process.*, Blackwell Publishers, Oxford, UK, 2001: pp. 89–108.
- 601 [43] L. Reinerman-Jones, K. Cosenzo, D. Nicholson, Subjective and Objective Measures of
602 Operator State in Automated Systems, in: T. Marek, W. Karwowski, R. Valerie (Eds.),
603 *Adv. Underst. Hum. Performance. Neuroergonomics, Hum. Factors Des. Spec. Popul.*,
604 CRC Press, Boca Ratón, USA, 2010: pp. 122–131.
- 605 [44] N.A. Jalil, R.M. Yunus, N.S. Said, Environmental Colour Impact upon Human Behaviour:
606 A Review, *Procedia - Soc. Behav. Sci.* 35 (2012) 54–62.
- 607 [45] J.C. Sanz, R. Gallego, *Diccionario Akal del Color*, Akal, Madrid, Spain, 2001.
- 608 [46] J. Itten, *Design and form : The basic course at the Bauhaus*, Thames & Hudson, London,
609 UK, 1987.
- 610 [47] J. Serra Lluch, *Color for Architects*, Princeton Architectural Press, New York, USA, 2019.
- 611 [48] J. Steuer, Defining Virtual Reality: dimensions determining telepresence, *J. Commun.* 42
612 (1992) 73–93.
- 613 [49] M. Slater, M. Usoh, A. Steed, Depth of Presence in virtual environments, *Presence*
614 *Teleoperators Virtual Environ.* 3 (1994) 130–144.
- 615 [50] M. Slater, A. Steed, A Virtual Presence Counter, *Presence Teleoperators Virtual Environ.*
616 9 (2000) 413–434.
- 617 [51] L.J. Seidman, H.C. Breiter, J.M. Goodman, J.M. Goldstein, P.W. Woodruff, K. O’Craven,

- 618 B.R. Rosen, M.T. Tsuang, B.R. Rosen, A functional magnetic resonance imaging study of
619 auditory vigilance with low and high information processing demand, *Neuropsychology*.
620 12 (1998) 505–518.
- 621 [52] M.S. Beato, E. Díez, False recognition production indexes in Spanish for 60 DRM lists
622 with three critical words, *Behav. Res. Methods*. 43 (2011) 499–507.
- 623 [53] M.Á. Alonso, Á. Fernández, E. Díez, M.S. Beato, Índices de producción de falso recuerdo
624 y falso reconocimiento para 55 listas de palabras en castellano, *Psicothema*. 16 (2004)
625 357–362.
- 626 [54] M. Goldman, *Principles of clinical electrocardiography*, LANGE, Los Altos, USA, 1976.
- 627 [55] G.G. Berntson, J.T. Bigger, D.L. Eckberg, P. Grossman, P.G. Kaufmann, M. Malik, Heart
628 rate variability: origins, methods, and interpretive caveats, *Psychophysiology*. 34 (1997)
629 623–648.
- 630 [56] A.J. Camm, M. Malik, Heart Rate Variability. Standards of measurement, physiological
631 interpretation, and clinical use, *Eur. Heart J*. 17 (1996) 354–381.
- 632 [57] E. Niedermeyer, F.L. da Silva, *Electroencephalography: basic principles, clinical
633 applications, and related fields*, Lippincott Williams & Wilkins, Philadelphia, USA, 2005.
- 634 [58] A. Delorme, S. Makeig, EEGLAB: An open source toolbox for analysis of single-trial
635 EEG dynamics including independent component analysis, *J. Neurosci. Methods*. 134
636 (2004) 9–21.
- 637 [59] G.G. Knyazev, A.N. Savostyanov, E.A. Levin, Alpha oscillations as a correlate of trait
638 anxiety, *Int. J. Psychophysiol*. 53 (2004) 147–160.
- 639 [60] T. Egner, J.H. Gruzelier, Learned self-regulation of EEG frequency components affects
640 attention and event-related brain potentials in humans, *Neuroreport*. 12 (2011) 4155–4159.
- 641 [61] T. Fuchs, N. Birbaumer, W. Lutzenberger, J.H. Gruzelier, J. Kaiser, Neurofeedback
642 treatment for attention-deficit/hyperactivity disorder in children: A comparison with

- 643 methylphenidate, *Appl. Psychophysiol Biofeedback*. 28 (2003) 1–12.
- 644 [62] D. Vernon, T. Egner, N. Cooper, T. Compton, C. Neilands, A. Sheri, J. Gruzelier, The
645 effect of training distinct neurofeedback protocols on aspects of cognitive performance,
646 *Int. J. Psychophysiol*. 47 (2003) 75–85.
- 647 [63] Y. Choi, M. Kim, C. Chun, Measurement of occupants' stress based on
648 electroencephalograms (EEG) in twelve combined environments, *Build. Environ*. 88
649 (2015) 65–72.
- 650 [64] H. Marzbani, H.R. Marateb, M. Mansourian, Neurofeedback: A Comprehensive Review
651 on System Design, Methodology and Clinical Applications, *Basic Clin. Neurosci*. 7 (2016)
652 143–158.
- 653 [65] C.J. Fergusson. An effect size: a guide for clinicians and researchers, *Prof. Psychol. Res.*
654 *Pract.* 40 (5) (2009) 532-538.
- 655 [66] R. Gifford, *Environmental Psychology: Principles and Practice*, Optimal Books, Colville,
656 USA, 2007.
- 657 [67] A.A. Rizzo, T. Bowerly, J.G. Buckwalter, D. Klimchuk, R. Mitura, T.D. Parsons, A virtual
658 reality scenario for all seasons: the virtual classroomTitle, *CNS Spectr*. 11 (2006) 35–44.
- 659 [68] M. Costa, S. Frumento, M. Nese, I. Predieri, Interior color and psychological functioning
660 in a university residence hall, *Front. Psychol*. 9 (2018) 1580.
- 661 [69] I. Knez, Effects of indoor lighting on mood and cognition, *J. Environ. Psychol*. 15 (1995)
662 39–51.
- 663 [70] K. Goldstein, Some experimental observations concerning the influence of colors on the
664 function of the organism, *Occup. Ther.* 21 (1942) 147–151.
- 665 [71] K.W. Jacobs, F.E. Hustmyer, Effects of Four Psychological Primary Colors on GSR, Heart
666 Rate and Respiration Rate, *Percept. Mot. Skills*. 38 (1974) 763–766.
- 667 [72] M. Ali, Pattern of EEG recovery under photic stimulation by light of different colors,

- 668 Electroencephalogr. Clin. Neurophysiol. 33 (1972) 332–335.
- 669 [73] J.A. Caldwell, G.E. Jones, The effects of exposure to red and blue light on physiological
670 indices and time estimation, *Perception*. 14 (1985) 19–29.
- 671 [74] G.W. Evans, R. Stecker, Motivational consequences of environmental stress, *J. Environ.*
672 *Psychol.* 24 (2004) 143–165.
- 673 [75] A. Dimoka, R.D. Banker, I. Benbasat, F.D. Davis, A. Gupta, A.R. Dennis, D. Gefen, A.
674 Gupta, A. Ischebeck, P.H. Kenning, P.A. Pavlou, G. Müller-Putz, R. Riedl, J. vom
675 Brocke, B. Weber, On the use of neurophysiological tools in IS research: Developing a
676 research agenda for NeuroIS, *MIS Q.* 36 (2012) 679–702.
- 677 [76] R. Parasuraman, M. Rizzo, *Neuroergonomics: the brain at work*, Oxford University Press,
678 New York, USA, 2008.