

PAT-GEOM

1 **PAT-GEOM: A Software Package for the Analysis of Animal Patterns**

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20 **Abstract**

21 1. Colour patterns often influence how animals interact with one another, but the ability
22 of researchers to quantify pattern *per se* is hampered by a lack of easily-accessible and
23 user-friendly measurement software packages.

24 2. We address this issue by releasing PAT-GEOM, a free software package for use
25 within ImageJ that allows users to measure seven properties of a pattern: (1) the shape
26 of its markings, (2) the directionality in the shape of its markings, (3) the size of its
27 markings, (4) the contrast of the pattern, (5) the distribution of its markings, (6) the
28 directionality in the distribution of its markings, and (7) the randomness of the pattern.

29 3. We provide examples of how PAT-GEOM may be used, such as to visualise the
30 ‘average pattern’ of a population of animals, or to compare the patterns on two animals.
31 Using data from two case studies, we also demonstrate PAT-GEOM’s ability to identify
32 the specific aspects of an organism’s pattern that match its background and to design
33 artificial prey items that accurately resemble their model organism for use in predation
34 experiments.

35 4. PAT-GEOM collates the tools to measure these seven diverse properties of animal
36 colour patterns into one convenient, easy-to-use package. It can be employed in a wide
37 range of studies on topics such as aposematism, camouflage and mimicry, and also has
38 the potential to be applied to other research fields such as landscape ecology, botany
39 and cellular biology.

40

41 **Keywords**

42 Animal colour patterns; aposematism; background matching; behavioural ecology;
43 pattern geometry; sensory ecology; spatial pattern.

44

45 **Introduction**

46 Colour patterns influence many animal interactions (Cuthill et al., 2017), yet our ability
47 to understand and quantify them remains limited. The visual information in colour
48 patterns usually comprises several components, including colour, brightness, light
49 polarisation properties, and pattern (the last being the spatial arrangement of the three
50 preceding aspects), but most work has focused on colour or simple blocks of
51 colour/brightness contrast. For example, the literature on animal colour vision
52 (reviewed by Kelber, Vorobyev & Osorio, 2003) and colour spaces (reviewed by
53 Renoult, Kelber & Schaefer, 2015) is comprehensive and measurement techniques are
54 readily-available. Conversely, much less attention has been given to pattern.

55

56 There is growing awareness that pattern *per se* provides important information, e.g. in
57 common European vipers *Vipera berus* Linnaeus, 1758, zig-zag patterns alone can
58 produce aposematic effects (Wüster et al., 2004), and avian brood parasite hosts use
59 colour and pattern to recognise parasitic eggs (Spottiswoode & Stevens, 2010). This is
60 stimulating the development of measurement tools—especially digital imaging (Stevens
61 et al., 2007)—and analysis techniques, e.g. pixel matrices (Todd et al., 2005), adjacency
62 analysis (Endler, 2012), pattern identification algorithms (Stoddard, Kilner & Town,
63 2014), saliency maps (Pike, 2018) and boundary strength analysis (Endler, Cole &
64 Kranz, 2018).

65

66 There remains, however, uncertainty regarding what pattern properties are quantifiable
67 and which approaches are suited to different questions and pattern types (Pérez-
68 Rodríguez, Jovani & Stevens, 2017). Furthermore, measurement tools are often not
69 readily-available or located in separate software because their development stemmed

70 from researchers working on disparate systems. It is generally inconvenient to measure
71 multiple properties as images must be processed numerous times in different software,
72 e.g. first with the MICA toolbox (Troscianko & Stevens, 2015) for measuring contrast,
73 then in *NaturePatternMatch* (Stoddard, Kilner & Town, 2014) for size and orientation,
74 and finally in R for shape using the *Momocs* package (Bonhomme et al., 2014). A
75 coordinated effort is needed to (1) determine what pattern properties can or should be
76 quantified, and (2) develop tools to help researchers accomplish this easily. Here, we
77 address these issues by releasing a free software package: PAT-GEOM.

78

79 **PAT-GEOM Overview**

80 PAT-GEOM is a free-to-use suite of macros (programmes automating functions within
81 a larger programme) based in ImageJ (Schneider, Rasband & Eliceiri, 2012) that
82 analyse pattern in digital images. It measures seven pattern properties (illustrated in Fig.
83 1; example applications in Table 1): (1) the shape of its markings (i.e. the colour patches
84 or mosaic elements within a pattern; *sensu* Endler, 1990), (2) the directionality in the
85 shape of its markings, (3) the size of its markings, (4) the contrast of the pattern, (5) the
86 distribution of its markings, (6) the directionality in the distribution of its markings, and
87 (7) the randomness of the pattern.

88

89 **PROPERTY 1: MARKING SHAPE**

90 Shape measurements of appendages or whole organisms are important in behavioural
91 studies and biology (e.g. Fitzpatrick, 1998; McLellan & Endler, 1998) but their
92 application to colour pattern markings is relatively new. PAT-GEOM quantifies the
93 shape of any Region of Interest (ROI; an area of the image to be measured) demarcated
94 by users (manually using ImageJ's drawing tools or automatically using its built-in

95 “Analyze Particles” function) using elliptical Fourier analysis (EFA), a landmark-
 96 independent technique that approximates the ROI’s outline with a series of
 97 harmonically-related trigonometric functions (Kuhl & Giardina, 1982). For each
 98 harmonic, the x- and y-coordinates of the outline with increasing displacement, t , from
 99 a starting point, $x(t)$ and $y(t)$, are described by:

$$100 \quad x(t) = \sum_{n=1}^N \left[A_n \cos\left(\frac{2\pi nt}{T}\right) + B_n \sin\left(\frac{2\pi nt}{T}\right) \right]$$

101 (eqn 1)

102 and

$$103 \quad y(t) = \sum_{n=1}^N \left[C_n \cos\left(\frac{2\pi nt}{T}\right) + D_n \sin\left(\frac{2\pi nt}{T}\right) \right]$$

104 (eqn 2)

105 Where: N = total number of harmonics
 106 n = harmonic number
 107 T = total displacement
 108 t = displacement along outline

109

110 Elliptical Fourier descriptors (EFDs) for each harmonic are calculated from the
 111 coefficients, A_n , B_n , C_n and D_n , utilising the Fourier Shape Analysis plugin (Boudier &
 112 Tupper, 2016) which needs only be downloaded and placed in the ImageJ plugins folder.
 113 These EFDs are scale-, rotation- and translation-invariant and insensitive to variation in
 114 trace start point (Nixon & Aguado, 2008). Taken together, the EFDs of a shape’s
 115 harmonics uniquely describe it, i.e. they correspond to only that shape. Shapes with
 116 similar descriptors are also similar graphically (Nixon & Aguado, 2008), and EFDs may
 117 be used to compare shapes, e.g. using Principal Components Analysis (see Fig. 2D).

118

119 PROPERTY 2: MARKING SHAPE DIRECTIONALITY

120 Directionality in pattern elements is known to affect neuronal activity in animal visual
 121 processing (Van Kerkoerle et al., 2014). PAT-GEOM quantifies the directionality in
 122 marking shape by fitting ellipses onto ROIs and computing their aspect ratio (major axis
 123 divided by minor axis) and orientation (angle of the major axis, rotating clockwise from
 124 the image's x-axis; Fig. 1). It is important to standardise image orientation if comparing
 125 orientation across images, but not when comparing aspect ratio or variation in
 126 orientation. To standardise images, users should rotate ROIs (e.g. using ImageJ's Rotate
 127 function) so that their reference axis (i.e. the axis the user wishes to represent an
 128 orientation of 0°) is parallel to the image's x-axis. This will likely differ in every study,
 129 but could be the animal's long axis or a line connecting two points on the organism.

130

131 PROPERTY 3: MARKING SIZE

132 The influence of marking size in animal signals is well-established (e.g. Spottiswoode
 133 & Stevens, 2010) but studies rarely use centroid size (the root-sum-squared distance
 134 between a shape's centroid and the landmarks along its outline): the only independent
 135 measure of size (Bookstein, 1991). To compare shapes using centroid size, however,
 136 they must have the same number of landmarks. This is problematic because animal
 137 markings typically have no homologous features and may be drawn using different
 138 numbers of points. PAT-GEOM solves this by using averaged centroid size ($S_{c,ave}$), i.e.
 139 centroid size divided by the square root of the number of points on an ROI's outline:

140

$$S_{c,ave} = \sqrt{\frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^N d_n^2}$$

141

(eqn 3)

142 Where: N = total number of points on the outline
 143 d_n = distance of point n from the ROI's centroid

144

145 A worked example is included in the Supporting Information. Alternatively, PAT-
 146 GEOM also outputs size in square pixels. An example where furrowed crabs *Xantho*
 147 *hydrophilus* (Herbst, 1790) are compared to their background substrate is shown in Fig.
 148 2C.

149

150 PROPERTY 4: PATTERN CONTRAST

151 Contrast is recognised as an important element of animal signals (e.g. Sandre, Stevens
 152 & Mappes, 2010; Cole & Endler, 2015). PAT-GEOM measures contrast using the
 153 Coefficient of Variation (CoV) of the pixel values in an ROI, i.e. their standard
 154 deviation divided by their mean. Because many biological patterns tend to exhibit
 155 higher variance with increasing mean values, this correction makes patterns of different
 156 luminance levels more comparable:

$$157 \quad \text{CoV Contrast} = \frac{1}{\bar{I}} \sqrt{\frac{1}{cr} \sum_{i=0}^{c-1} \sum_{j=0}^{r-1} (I_{ij} - \bar{I})^2}$$

158

(eqn 4)

159 Where: c = width of the ROI in pixels
 160 r = height of the ROI in pixels
 161 i = pixel's x-coordinate, where $0 \leq i \leq c - 1$
 162 j = pixel's y-coordinate, where $0 \leq j \leq r - 1$
 163 I_{ij} = luminance of pixel (i, j)
 164 \bar{I} = average luminance of all pixels in the ROI

165

166 PROPERTY 5: DISTRIBUTION OF MARKINGS

167 Marking distribution, i.e. the spatial location of the markings within a colour pattern,
168 has been used to identify pattern variation amongst different populations of a species
169 (Todd et al., 2005). PAT-GEOM measures marking distribution by the position of their
170 component pixels: an approach developed by Todd et al. (2005) and automated here.
171 Images should be standardised for area, orientation and resolution, e.g. by matching the
172 lowest resolution manually using ImageJ's Scale function or using the MICA toolbox's
173 automated function. Low resolution images where the pattern of interest is unclear
174 should be excluded. PAT-GEOM converts thresholded images into matrices of '1's
175 (pixels representing markings) and '0's (pixels representing the background) and
176 outputs individual or cumulative matrices and heat maps (Fig. 3).

177

178 PROPERTY 6: DIRECTIONALITY OF MARKING DISTRIBUTION

179 In addition to marking shape directionality (Property 2), directionality in marking
180 distribution can also affect visual processing (Van Kerkoele et al., 2014). To measure
181 this property, PAT-GEOM draws a linear best fit line through all the marking centroids
182 and measures: (1) the line's angle (rotating clockwise from the image's x-axis) for
183 orientation; and (2) its R^2 value for alignment (Fig. 1). As elongated bodies tend to have
184 more directional patterns, users should compare animals of similar shape or standardise
185 images for aspect ratio and orientation, e.g. using ImageJ's Size and Rotate functions.

186

187 PROPERTY 7: PATTERN RANDOMNESS

188 The randomness of patterns in visual scenes is known to influence animal behaviour,
189 especially in camouflage, e.g. in blue tits (Dimitrova & Merilaita, 2009), but it is rarely
190 quantified. For a measure of randomness (i.e. algorithmic complexity; Kolmogorov,

191 1965), PAT-GEOM outputs the size of the gif file that would be required to encode the
192 ROI, corrected for header size. A fully random pattern contains the highest algorithmic
193 complexity and therefore requires the largest file size, whereas one with repeating parts
194 is less random and requires a smaller file (Lempel & Ziv, 1976; Kaspar & Schuster,
195 1987). The nature of compression in gif files (Bolliger, Sprott & Mladenoff, 2003) and
196 the suitability of this measure (Leeuwenberg, 1968; Donderi, 2006a; 2006b) are well
197 studied. It was first applied in landscape ecology (e.g. Bolliger, Sprott & Mladenoff,
198 2003) to measure the complexity of landscapes with patches of different land uses,
199 which are analogous to markings in an animal colour pattern, and PAT-GEOM
200 automates the process of deriving the file size. To compare ROIs, they should have
201 identical sizes and sensitivity (ISO) settings (higher settings can introduce noise which
202 artificially increases measurements).

203

204 OTHER TOOLS

205 In addition, PAT-GEOM contains tools to facilitate repetitive image processing steps,
206 e.g. detecting ROIs, randomly sampling pixel values (Fig.4, Step 1), creating randomly-
207 positioned copies of an ROI and calculating the percentage coverage of markings on an
208 animal (Fig. 4, Step 3).

209

210 **Considerations when using PAT-GEOM**

211 The ability to quantify the properties listed above should be useful for studying pattern
212 in various organisms and topics. However, two important issues require consideration:
213 how to collect image data rigorously and how to select properties to analyse.

214

215 RIGOROUS DATA COLLECTION

216 All digital image-based analysis using any software (including, but not limited to, PAT-
217 GEOM) requires properly standardised images of sufficient resolution to capture the
218 pattern being quantified (Stevens et al., 2007). A useful guide is that the shortest length
219 measured should comprise at least two pixels. Calibration to correct for differing light
220 conditions and non-linear sensor responses to radiance is also needed and the MICA
221 toolbox (Troscianko & Stevens, 2015) in ImageJ produces mspec images corrected for
222 these biases. It can also produce composite images with both ultraviolet and human
223 visible wavelengths and convert pixel values based on animal vision models to reflect
224 what animals might see. Usage of the MICA toolbox is recommended and PAT-GEOM
225 was designed for compatibility with its mspec images. Nevertheless, PAT-GEOM is
226 able to analyse any image format readable by ImageJ.

227

228 WHAT PROPERTIES TO ANALYSE

229 The choice of properties to analyse depends on the specific research question and study
230 system. Table 1 provides usage guidelines and examples where it may be advisable to
231 measure each property in PAT-GEOM.

232

233 **Summary and Future Directions**

234 Colour patterns are an important part of animal interactions, yet researchers' ability to
235 quantify pattern *per se* is poorly developed (Pérez-Rodríguez, Jovani & Stevens, 2017)
236 and techniques to measure specific properties are lacking or difficult to implement. To
237 address this, we developed PAT-GEOM, a suite of free-to-use macros (available at
238 www.ianzwchan.com/my-research/pat-geom or <https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.1834035>)
239 that quantitatively describe seven pattern properties: Marking Shape, Marking Shape

240 Directionality, Marking Size, Pattern Contrast, Marking Distribution, Marking
241 Distribution Directionality and Pattern Randomness.
242
243 Whilst five of the properties can be measured using other programmes (although usually
244 using different metrics), a key benefit of PAT-GEOM is that the tools are in one
245 package, making it convenient to measure multiple properties. For example,
246 *NaturePatternMatch* measures only marking size and orientation; HANGLE,
247 HMATCH and HCURVE (Crampton & Haines, 1996) measure only shape; and
248 although some R packages take similar measurements (e.g. EFA with *Momocs*), these
249 must be separately installed. Moreover, because these examples are distinct programmes,
250 images must be processed multiple times to perform all measurements, whereas with
251 PAT-GEOM processing needs to be done only once. PAT-GEOM also complements a
252 recently-released R package *patternize* (Van Belleghem et al., 2017); while *patternize*
253 investigates overall pattern variation by analysing raster objects representing entire
254 colour patterns, PAT-GEOM quantifies specific properties that contribute to this
255 variation.
256
257 Being based in ImageJ, PAT-GEOM is highly versatile: it will analyse any image that
258 ImageJ can open, including jpg, bmp, tif, gif, mspec and nef). It is also convenient to
259 conduct analyses using other ImageJ-based programmes, e.g. granularity analysis with
260 the MICA Toolbox and measuring fractal dimension with FracLac (Karperien, 1999).
261 Finally, PAT-GEOM is not limited to patterns on animals and can potentially be applied
262 to patterns across diverse fields, including landscape ecology (e.g. quantifying land plot
263 randomness), botany (e.g. measuring leaf shape), and cellular biology (e.g. measuring
264 occlusion body size in diseased cells).

265

266 It remains important, however, to improve our fundamental understanding of pattern
267 and identify which measurable properties are biologically meaningful (Endler &
268 Mappes, 2017; Pérez-Rodríguez et al., 2017). This would direct future work, including
269 developing guidelines on what properties to measure in different situations and
270 standardising the techniques used so that results are comparable across studies. It is an
271 exciting time for researchers in this field: interest in the effects of pattern *per se* on
272 animal behaviour, ecology, and evolution is growing, and our ability to quantify pattern
273 using programmes such as PAT-GEOM is developing rapidly (Endler & Mappes, 2017).

274

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279

280 **Author's Contributions**

281 I.Z.W.C. wrote the software and conducted the case studies. All authors conceived the
282 ideas for the software and contributed to manuscript drafts.

283

284 **Conflict of Interest Declaration**

285 The authors declare that we have no conflict of interest.

286

287 **Data Accessibility**

288 The PAT-GEOM software package and its User Guide are available from the first
289 author's personal website (www.ianzwchan.com/my-research/pat-geom) or the Zenodo

290 repository, <https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.1834035> (for the software package; Chan,
291 Stevens & Todd, 2018a) and <https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.1835291> (for the User
292 Guide; Chan, Stevens & Todd, 2018b). Datasets and R code are also available from
293 Zenodo, <https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.1831671> (Chan, Stevens & Todd, 2018c).

294

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392 **Tables**

Table 1. Guidelines and application examples for the seven properties measured by PAT-GEOM.

Property	Technique	Guidelines	Usage Examples
Marking Shape	Elliptical Fourier Analysis	- Can be used in most, if not all situations where there are discrete pattern components.	- Comparing the shape of the spots on a cuckoo egg to those on its host's eggs. - Comparing average marking shape in two populations of a species (e.g. giraffes <i>Giraffa camelopardalis</i>). - Identifying individuals in species with unique colour patterns (e.g. whale sharks <i>Rhincodon typus</i>). - Comparing carapace patterns of a furrowed crab <i>Xantho hydrophilus</i> to the patterns in its background in putative background matching (see Fig. 2).
Marking Shape Directionality	Aspect Ratio and Orientation	- More useful for patterns with elongated markings. - May need to first standardise for orientation, size and shape.	- Comparing the markings found on hoverflies versus wasps. - Comparing an animal's stripes to stripe-like patterns in its background, e.g. in zebras <i>Equus quagga</i> . - Measuring changes in butterfly wing or eyespot shape due to genetic manipulation or selection pressures, e.g. in the squinting bush-brown butterfly <i>Bicyclus anynana</i> . - Measuring variation in stripe shape in tigers <i>Panthera tigris</i> , e.g. photographed using camera traps.
Marking Size	Averaged Centroid Size	- Better for discrete markings, vis-à-vis mottled patterns where granularity analysis (Troschianko & Stevens, 2015) is preferable.	- Comparing the markings of artificial prey items and their model organism, e.g. for predation experiments with the monarch caterpillar <i>Danaus plexippus</i> . - Comparing average spot size in two populations of the same species, e.g. the seven-spot ladybird <i>Coccinella septempunctata</i> . - Comparing the size of the markings on an animal to those on its background.
Pattern Contrast	Coefficient of Variation	- For use on non-thresholded images. - Can measure the whole or part of an animal.	- Determining if a flounder's (suborder Pleuronectidae) colour pattern matches a random sample of its background substrate. - Comparing two different parts of an animal which can change its appearance rapidly such as the common cuttlefish <i>Sepia officinalis</i> .
Marking Distribution	Pixel Matrix	- Areas to be compared must be of the same dimensions (in pixels).	- Visualising the "average pattern" of a population of animals, e.g. shore crabs <i>Carcinus maenas</i> . - Designing realistic prey items, e.g. to test putative aposematic coloration in the pink warty sea cucumber <i>Cercodemus anceps</i> (Figs. 3 & 4).
Marking Distribution Directionality	Angle and Alignment	- May need to first standardise for orientation, size and shape of the animal's body.	- Determining if a particular population of organisms is developing more linearly positioned markings in response to a selection pressure, e.g. the spots of the queen fish <i>Scomberoides commersonianus</i> , or the eyespots of the squinting bush-brown butterfly <i>Bicyclus anynana</i> . - Comparing the patterns of two species with similar overall body shapes.
Pattern Randomness	Gif File Size	- For non-thresholded images. - Areas to be compared must have the same dimensions (in pixels) and ISO settings.	- Comparing patterns on different morphotypes of a species, such as button snails <i>Umbonium vestiarium</i> . - Determining mimic quality, e.g. the eggs of the common cuckoo <i>Cuculus canorus</i> and those of its host. - Comparing an animal (e.g. shore crabs <i>Carcinus maenas</i>) to its background.

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