



Barnett, J. B., Scott-Samuel, N., & Cuthill, I. C. (2016). Aposematism: balancing salience and camouflage. *Biology Letters*, 12(8), [2016.0335]. <https://doi.org/10.1098/rsbl.2016.0335>

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1 **Title:**

2 Aposematism: balancing salience and camouflage

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14 Published in Biology Letters: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1098/rsbl.2016.0335>

15 **Abstract**

16 Aposematic signals are often characterised by high conspicuousness. Larger and brighter  
17 signals reinforce avoidance learning, distinguish defended from palatable prey, and are more  
18 easily memorised by predators. Conspicuous signalling, however, has costs: encounter  
19 rates with naïve, specialised, or nutritionally stressed predators are likely to increase. It has  
20 been suggested that intermediate levels of aposematic conspicuousness can evolve to  
21 balance deterrence and detectability, especially for moderately defended species. The  
22 effectiveness of such signals, however, has not yet been experimentally tested under field  
23 conditions. We used dough caterpillar-like baits to test whether reduced levels of  
24 aposematic conspicuousness can have survival benefits when predated by wild birds in  
25 natural conditions. Our results suggest that, when controlling for the number and intensity of  
26 internal contrast boundaries (stripes), a reduced-conspicuousness aposematic pattern can  
27 have a survival advantage over more conspicuous signals, as well as cryptic colours.  
28 Furthermore, we find a survival benefit from the addition of internal contrast for both high and  
29 low levels of conspicuousness. This adds ecological validity to evolutionary models of  
30 aposematic saliency and the evolution of honest signalling.

31 **Key words**

32 aposematism; camouflage; defensive colouration; honest signalling; visual signalling;  
33 warning signals.

## 34 **1. Background**

35 In order to escape predation, chemically defended species often signal their unpalatability  
36 with conspicuous colour patterns [1-3]. Predators learn to associate colouration and  
37 unprofitability, with increasing conspicuousness often increasing the speed and longevity of  
38 avoidance learning in avian predators [2-4]. By raising contrast against the background,  
39 aposematic patterns increase distinctiveness from palatable prey, which are often  
40 camouflaged, and become more easily recognised when subsequently encountered [5-7]. In  
41 many aposematic patterns high contrast boundaries also extend across the body, with bright  
42 colours frequently combined with patches of black. These internal contrast boundaries have  
43 received comparatively little attention but may act to increase the saliency of signals and/or  
44 promote signal constancy across heterogeneous backgrounds and light conditions [3; 4].

45 Conversely, although greater detectability can improve the efficacy of aversive signalling,  
46 high levels of conspicuousness can lead to more encounters with naïve or specialised  
47 predators which may ignore the warning [8; 9]. Variation in predator reactions to defended  
48 prey also occurs intra-specifically and temporally as individual predators manage their own  
49 toxin burden and nutritional requirements [10; 11]. For intermediately defended species  
50 maximising conspicuousness may not maximise survival and, instead, animals should  
51 balance signal efficacy with predator encounter rates [10-12]. It has been suggested that  
52 pattern elements, in addition to promoting recognition and memorability, can interact with the  
53 background and one another to reduce detectability [13-17]. However, the role of pattern,  
54 rather than colour saturation, in reducing detectability and signalling defence strength has  
55 not been investigated in much detail [3].

56 Previous theoretical and laboratory work has shown that maximising detectability may not  
57 maximise survival [8; 11; 12; 14-17]. We used artificial caterpillars and free-living wild  
58 passerine birds to investigate whether intermediate levels of conspicuousness are effective  
59 in the field.

## 60 **2. Methods**

61 (a) Stimuli

62 The experiment followed a well-established paradigm with wild avian predators selectively  
63 predated dough, caterpillar-like, baits [18]. Stimuli were ~16mm long (~3mm wide) cylinders  
64 of dough, coloured to produce notionally camouflaged and aversive patterns. Seven  
65 treatments were used, designed to vary in conspicuousness while controlling for internal  
66 contrast boundaries. Treatments were either predominantly yellow (a common component  
67 of aposematic colouration) and highly conspicuous, mostly black (an inconspicuous colour  
68 for the backgrounds used, and often associated with aposematic patterns) or various  
69 mixtures of the component colours, appearing olive-green to the human eye (figure 1). High  
70 conspicuousness treatments were  $Y_P$  (plain yellow) and  $Y_S$  (yellow with thin black stripes  
71 (3:1)). Low conspicuousness treatments were  $B_P$  (plain black) and  $B_S$  (black with thin yellow  
72 stripes (3:1)). The average mixtures were  $Y_A$  (3:1 mix of yellow and black),  $B_A$  (3:1 mix of  
73 black and yellow), and  $A_V$  (1:1 yellow-black mix). The difference in colour contrast between  
74 the treatments and the background was verified by avian colour space modelling  
75 (Supplementary Material).

76 Dough was made from a 3:1 mix of flour (British Plain Flour by Sainsbury's, J Sainsbury plc.)  
77 and lard (Sainsbury's Basics Lard, J Sainsbury plc.), which was then coloured yellow (25ml  
78 per 500g dough; Yellow Food Colouring by Sainsbury's, J Sainsbury plc.), or black (25ml per  
79 500g dough; Black Food Colouring by Sainsbury's, J Sainsbury plc.). Different ratios (see  
80 above) of coloured dough were then thoroughly mixed to create average colour treatments  
81 ( $Y_A$ ,  $B_A$ , and  $A_V$ ). All 'caterpillars' were then built from 16 disks of dough, 3mm in diameter  
82 and 1mm thick.

83 (b) Survival protocol

84 Between October and March, 15 blocks of 70 dough caterpillars (10 x seven treatments per  
85 block;  $n = 1050$ ) were run in areas of suburban green space in and around the city of Bristol,  
86 UK. 'Caterpillars' were pinned along non-linear transects to the horizontal stems of bramble  
87 plants (*Rubus fruticosus* agg. Rosaceae), at a height of ~1.5m, and were unobscured by

88 surrounding vegetation. The survival of 'caterpillars' was recorded at 24, 48, 72, and 96 h,  
89 with the mortality rate analysed with a mixed effects Cox model (package *coxme* [19] in R  
90 3.1.3 with *block* as a random factor). Contrasts of *a priori* interest (striped vs plain and  
91 average equivalents) were tested without controlling for multiple testing as the number (6) is  
92 less than the degrees of freedom for treatment [20]; all other comparisons used the False  
93 Discovery Rate to control Type I error using R package *multcomp* [21]. Evidence of avian  
94 predation (beak marks or complete removal) was recorded as a terminal event, whereas all  
95 other forms of 'mortality', including predation by other species (gastropods and  
96 Hymenoptera, identified by slime trails and small pit marks respectively), missing pins,  
97 broken baits, and survival to 96 h, were included as censored values.

### 98 **3. Results**

99 In total 569 of the 1050 'caterpillars' (54%) were predated by birds. Treatment affected  
100 survival ( $\chi^2 = 27.53$ , d.f. = 6,  $p < 0.001$ ) and so pairwise comparisons were performed (figure  
101 2). There was a significant survival increase resulting from stripe addition for both low  
102 conspicuousness ( $B_S - B_P$ :  $z = 3.72$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ) and high conspicuousness ( $Y_S - Y_P$ :  $z = 2.52$ ,  $p$   
103  $= 0.012$ ) patterns. When compared to their average colours, low conspicuousness stripes  
104 ( $B_S$ ) had significantly greater survival ( $B_S - B_A$ :  $z = 3.74$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ), whereas high  
105 conspicuousness stripes ( $Y_S$ ) survived similarly to their corresponding average colour ( $Y_S -$   
106  $Y_A$ :  $z = 0.53$ ,  $p = 0.600$ ). The low conspicuousness ( $B_S$ ) striped pattern had higher survival  
107 than the high conspicuous ( $Y_S$ ) striped treatment ( $B_S - Y_S$ :  $z = 2.22$ ,  $p = 0.026$ ) and the 1:1  
108 average ( $B_S - A_V$ :  $z = 2.78$ ,  $p = 0.006$ ). We found no significant difference between any other  
109 post hoc comparisons (all  $p > 0.284$ ).

### 110 **4. Discussion**

111 The observed survival patterns lead to two conclusions: i) the addition of internal contrast  
112 boundaries (stripes) can increase survival regardless of the base colour's conspicuousness  
113 ( $Y_S > Y_P$  and  $B_S > B_P$ ); and ii) intermediate levels of conspicuousness ( $B_S$ ) can survive better  
114 than both high conspicuousness ( $Y_S$ ) and camouflage ( $A_V$ ,  $B_A$ , and  $B_P$ ). This has

115 implications for the evolution of aposematic conspicuousness under ecologically relevant  
116 multi-species predation risk.

117 Patterns which were predominantly black but contained thin yellow stripes ( $B_S$ ) had a  
118 survival advantage over yellow patterns with thin black stripes ( $Y_S$ ), even though the number  
119 and intensity of internal pattern boundaries was equal. Prior experience with a natural,  
120 aversive,  $B_S$ -like prey cannot explain this result: there are no common caterpillars in the  
121 study area with patterns like those used in this study. This suggests that a lower level of  
122 detectability can increase survival despite potentially compromising the degree of aversion.  
123 This low conspicuousness striped pattern ( $B_S$ ) also had a survival advantage over plain  
124 patterns  $B_P$  and  $B_A$ , demonstrating that a failure to detect the stripes is not the sole driver of  
125 this effect. Instead, we propose that this pattern occupies a fitness peak corresponding to a  
126 low level of detectability at a distance, backed up by an effective aposematic signal close-up  
127 [14-17].

128 Furthermore, we find that adding highly contrasting stripes (either yellow or black) to  
129 otherwise homogeneously coloured stimuli can increase survival regardless of the initial  
130 detectability of the pattern. The effect of pattern appears to be separate from the effect of  
131 conspicuousness, and plausibly lies in aversion. The role of pattern is contentious, with  
132 some authors reporting that its presence acts as an aversive signal when combined with [22-  
133 23] or in the absence of conspicuous colouration [24-26], whereas others have found  
134 conflicting results [4; 27].

135 Under natural levels of heterogeneity camouflage and aposematism are both likely to be  
136 undermined by diversity in predator reactions and the visual environment. Previous studies  
137 have suggested that intermediate levels of detectability may act to combine camouflage and  
138 aposematism as a function of observer distance [14-17]. Our results corroborate these  
139 findings under field conditions and suggest that these patterns can indeed provide increased  
140 survival compared to full investment in conspicuousness or camouflage. Manipulating  
141 pattern can be an effective mechanism of reducing the detectability of aposematic signals,

142 adding ecological validity to suggestions that intermediate levels of conspicuousness can be  
143 evolutionarily stable.



144 **Ethics.** Experiments were approved by the University of Bristol Animal Welfare and Ethical  
145 Review Body.

146 **Data accessibility.** Raw data can be accessed from the Dryad data repository at [[doi to be](#)  
147 [added](#)].

148 **Authors' contributions.** J.B.B. collected the data, and all authors participated in  
149 experimental design, analysis, and writing of the manuscript. All authors gave final approval  
150 for publication and agreed to be accountable for all aspects of the content therein.

151 **Competing interests.** We have no competing interests.

152 **Funding.** Work supported by a Postgraduate Research Scholarship from the University of  
153 Bristol.

154 **Acknowledgments.** We thank all members of the CamoLab at the University of Bristol for  
155 discussion and three anonymous referees for their comments. I.C.C. thanks the  
156 Wissenschaftskolleg zu Berlin for support during part of the study.

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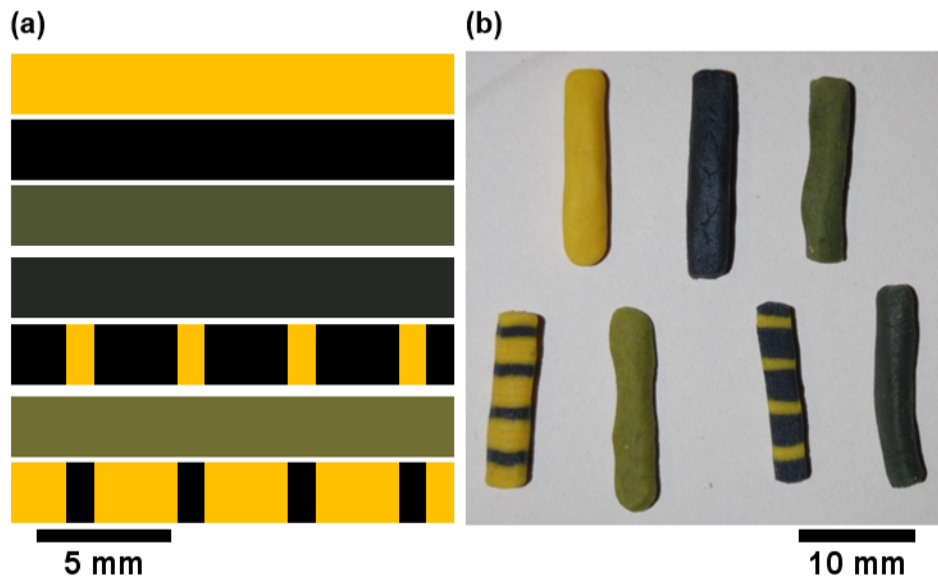
231 **Figure legends**

232 **Figure 1.** Dough caterpillar treatment designs.

233 (a) top to bottom, and (b) clockwise from top-left:  $Y_P$  – high conspicuousness yellow;  $B_P$  –  
234 low conspicuousness black;  $A_V$  – average colour control and reference treatment (1:1 ratio  
235 yellow-black);  $B_A$  – average colour of  $B_S$  (1:3 yellow-black);  $B_S$  – low conspicuousness with  
236 stripes (1:3 yellow-black);  $Y_A$  – average colour of  $Y_S$  (3:1 yellow-black);  $Y_S$  – high  
237 conspicuousness with stripes (3:1 yellow-black).

238 **Figure 2.** Relative survival of defensive patterns (odds ratios compared to treatment  $A_V$ , with  
239 95% CI from model). The low conspicuous aposematic pattern ( $B_S$ ) has a higher survival  
240 than the more cryptic patterns ( $A_V$ ,  $B_P$ , and  $B_A$ ) and the more conspicuous striped pattern  
241 ( $Y_S$ ). The addition of contrasting stripes increases survival for both inconspicuous ( $B_S > B_P$ )  
242 and conspicuous ( $Y_S > Y_P$ ) patterns.

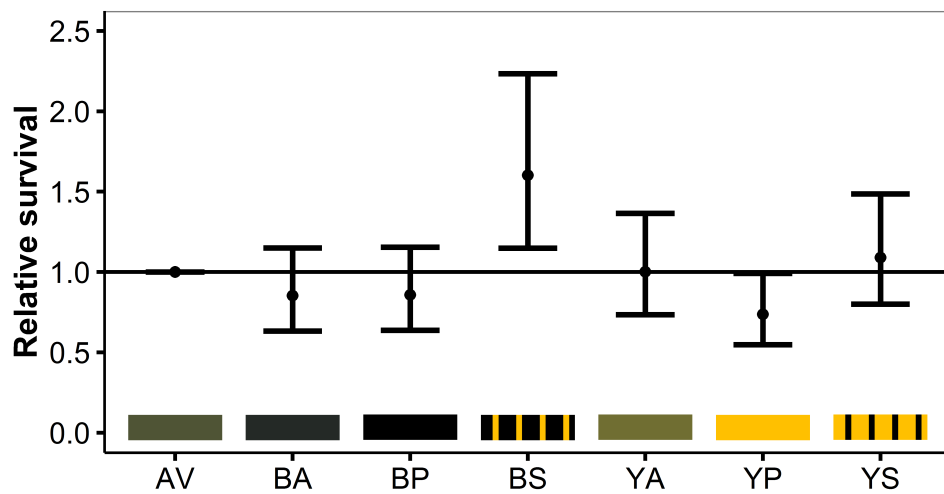
243



244

245 Figure 1

246



247

248 Figure 2

249

## 250 **Supplementary material**

251 Aposematism: balancing salience and camouflage.

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### 257 **S1. Image analysis**

258 As many avian predators can detect ultraviolet (UV) light, dough caterpillars were  
259 photographed with a UV sensitive Nikon D70 digital camera (Nikon Corporation, Tokyo,  
260 Japan) and UV-VIS 105mm CoastalOpt® SLR lens (Jenoptik AG, Jena, Germany) under  
261 natural, clear, daylight conditions. This revealed minimal UV reflectance from the yellow and  
262 black dough, as well as their blended colours (figure S1a-b).

263 The lack of UV reflectance allows avian vision to be modelled from standard, but calibrated,  
264 photographs. The use of calibrated photographs rather than spectrometry allows us to  
265 categorise the true visual scene which includes areas of shadow and visual texture not  
266 picked up in point source reflectance measurements.

267 The UV sensitive tetrachromatic vision of the European starling (*Sturnus vulgaris*, Sturnidae)  
268 has four single cones, with peak sensitivities ( $\lambda_{\max}$ ) of 563nm (L), 504nm (M), 449nm (S),  
269 and 362nm (UV), and luminance measuring double cones (D) with  $\lambda_{\max}$  of 563nm [28]. As  
270 there was negligible UV reflectance from the dough caterpillars, colour perception was  
271 modelled in trichromatic space as a product of luminance (L), and the opponent channels  
272 red to green (rg), and yellow to blue (yb). Luminance was measured directly by the response  
273 of double cones, the red to green opponent channel was produced from the relative  
274 stimulation of the longwave (L) cone and the mediumwave cone (M), and the yellow to blue  
275 channel was produced by combining the mean stimulation of the longwave (L) and  
276 mediumwave (M) cones to the shortwave cone (S). The rationale for transforming the S, M  
277 and L cone inputs to S vs M+L (i.e. yellow-blue) and M vs L (i.e. red-green) outputs was that  
278 (i) this creates two contrasts that are orthogonal (in the sense of statistical independence)  
279 and (ii) these capture the main variation in the colours involved (which are black, yellow, and  
280 green). Modelling the black, green, and yellow colours in a hypothetical colour opponent  
281 system containing all possible combinations -- S vs M, S vs L, M vs L, (S+M) vs L, S vs  
282 (M+L) and M vs (S+L) contrasts -- would give the same results (because these are all  
283 mappings from the same photon catch data), but rather less efficiently because most of



284 these 'dimensions' are redundant. We are not claiming that starlings do have yellow-blue or  
285 red-green opponency, just that they have colour opponent channels that achieve the same  
286 effect.

287 Ten photographs of dough colour ( $Y_P$ ,  $B_P$ ,  $A_V$ ,  $B_A$ ,  $B_S$ ,  $Y_A$ , and  $Y_S$ ) were taken with a Nikon  
288 D3200 digital camera (Nikon Corporation, Tokyo, Japan), from a distance of ~50cm and at a  
289 45° angle (figure S1c-i). Each image contained a ColorChecker Passport (X-Rite Inc., 2009.  
290 MI, USA) which allowed colour calibration, linearization, and appropriate scaling. Of these  
291 61 were suitable for analysis ( $A_V = 10$ ,  $B_A = 8$ ,  $B_P = 9$ ,  $B_S = 9$ ,  $Y_A = 7$ ,  $Y_P = 9$ ,  $Y_S = 9$ ), each  
292 photograph was calibrated, and the coordinates corresponding to the 'caterpillar' and the  
293 background were specified in MATLAB 2015a (The MathWorks Inc. MA, USA).

294 Plotting the model's response to the background, for each dough colour used to produce the  
295 'caterpillars', shows that whereas the yellow dough ( $Y_P$ ) is an obvious outlier from the  
296 background, all other colours ( $A_V$ ,  $Y_A$ ,  $B_P$ , and  $B_A$ ) are well represented in the background  
297 (figure S2). This adds weight to the assertion that yellow was a conspicuous colour in this  
298 environment, and that the other colours can produce effective camouflage to an ecologically  
299 relevant avian predator.

## 300 **S2. Supplementary references**

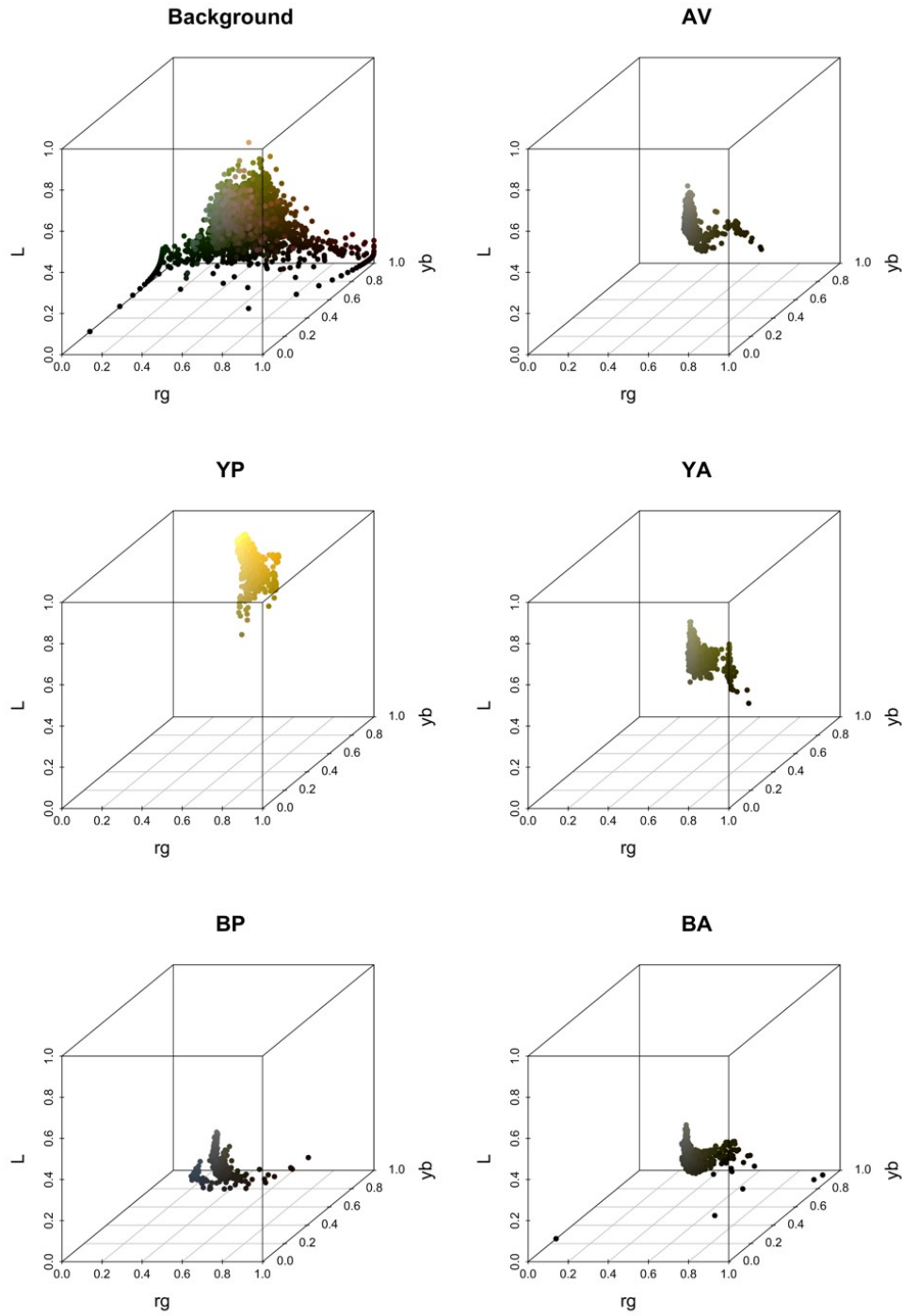
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304 **Figure S1.** Dough caterpillar designs and stimuli photographed *in situ* on bramble stems, as  
 305 used for image analysis.

306 **Examples of treatment designs.** (a) top to bottom, and (b) left to right:  $Y_P$  – plain yellow;  $B_P$   
 307 – plain black;  $A_V$  – 1:1 average of yellow and black;  $Y_S$  – yellow with black stripes (3:1  
 308 yellow-black);  $Y_A$  – 3:1 average of yellow and black;  $B_S$  – black with yellow stripes (1:3  
 309 yellow-black);  $B_A$  – 1:3 average of yellow and black.

310 **Examples of stimuli *in situ*.** (c)  $A_V$ ; (d)  $Y_P$ ; (e)  $Y_S$ ; (f)  $Y_A$ ; (g)  $B_P$ ; (h)  $B_S$ ; (i)  $B_A$ .



311 **Figure S2.** Dough caterpillar colours as seen by a model of avian vision. All ‘caterpillar’  
 312 colours are well represented as a subset of the background colours, except for yellow (Y<sub>P</sub>)  
 313 which differs in both colour and luminance.

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