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## 3D animal camouflage

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1	Abstract
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3	Camouflage is a fundamental way for animals to avoid detection and recognition. While depth
4	information is critical for object detection and recognition, little is known about how camouflage
5	patterns might interfere with the mechanisms of depth perception. We reveal how many common
6	camouflage strategies could exploit 3D visual processing mechanisms.
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8	
9	Main text
10	
11	Animals live in a 3D world
12	
13	Animals exist in a 3D world, and <b>depth</b> (see Glossary) information is essential for judging the
14	location, shape and orientation of objects. As a result, visual systems have evolved multiple ways
15	to recover depth information. In the 3D arms race between predators and their prey, depth
16	perception is thought to have evolved for camouflage breaking, so animal patterning must have
17	evolved to conceal valid depth cues. Recent studies have revealed some remarkable ways in which
18	non-human animals perceive depth [1, 2]. However, the role of depth information in prey
19	camouflage strategies remains poorly understood. Here we examine how common types of
20	camouflaging colouration may function to manipulate the viewer's mechanisms of depth
21	perception.
22	
23	Animals can perceive depth using absolute depth cues such as binocular disparity and

accommodative (focus) effort, but most 3D information is obtained from relative depth cues.
 Pictorial depth cues such as object shading and occlusion could readily defeat the viewer's

26 mechanisms of depth perception, because they exploit the laws of physics and/or use prior

27 knowledge of visual scenes. Human observers, for example, judge distance based on an object's

28 brightness (close objects are often brighter, and brighter, otherwise equivalent, objects are

29 perceived as closer). Visual systems also assume that light comes from above (because sunlight is

30 generally from overhead), and that, consequently, 3D objects produce a **self-shadow**. This

31 correspondence between the direction of illumination and an object's self-shadows provides

32 important information about object depth, location, distance and shape.

34 Countershading colouration is thought to reduce or eliminate self-shadows to enhance 35 camouflage (Fig. 1). Countershading increases prey survival when the shading is optimised for the 36 lighting conditions [3]. However, there is scant evidence that countershading interferes with 3D 37 shape recovery in non-humans. A simpler explanation is that because visual systems detect 38 objects on the basis of contrast, countershading may reduce detectability by reducing contrast 39 across the body, or by reducing contrast at the body edges [4]. This could be particularly relevant 40 when prey are viewed from a distance, where subtle depth cues are less critical than reduced 41 visibility owing to contrast.

42

43 Non-human animals can use self-shadows for shape perception. European cuttlefish (Sepia 44 officinalis) may exploit this when resting upon backgrounds with depth cues, by creating 45 camouflage colouration that mimics self-shadows present on 3D objects in the background [5]. 46 Cuttlefish are not simply adjusting their colouration in response to background luminance; when 47 placed on 3D backgrounds they displayed a unique colour pattern which is never expressed in 48 response to the equivalent 2D visual cues [6]. Intriguingly, this body pattern produces the illusion 49 of depth to the human visual system [6], suggesting that cuttlefish may deceive their predators 50 using patterning that resembles the 3D geometry of the background.

51

52 Animal patterning could produce pictorial depth cues in the same way that artists use shading to 53 generate perceived depth on a 2D canvas. This could interfere with the viewer's mechanisms of 54 depth perception in four (non-mutually exclusive) ways. Firstly, pictorial depth cues may mimic the 55 visual information in a natural scene so that the luminance properties of the body surface 56 correspond with the luminance profile produced by the 3D background (Fig. 2a). Secondly, 57 pictorial depth cues could generate a percept of three-dimensionality (illusory depth) allowing 58 the patterning to resemble 3D objects in the background (Fig. 2b) [6]. Thirdly, animal body 59 patterning could produce visual texture that mimics the surfaces of inedible objects for 60 masquerade (Fig. 2c). Fourthly, pictorial depth cues may disrupt the continuity of the body surface 61 to prevent the recognition of an object as a whole (Fig. 2d). For example, surface-specific changes 62 in luminance could produce the illusion of a sloped surface, while sharp transitions in contrast 63 could produce strong edges that segment the body into apparent discontinous surfaces [7]. Edges 64 can also cause illusory effects such as the Cornsweet illusion, which in primates and honeybees, 65 causes strong differences in perceived brightness between adjoining regions, even if those regions 66 are identical in luminance [8].

68 There are a number of visual processing mechanisms that pictorial depth cues could potentially 69 exploit. Enhanced edges excite the visual system's edge detectors, stimulating a stronger signal 70 than the body boundary, leading to incorrect image segregation [7]. However, it is also possible 71 that such patterns may create new contours that form closed shapes, that would not normally 72 signal the shape of the animal. Markings that disrupt surface continuity by producing illusory 73 depth are likely to reduce **perceptual grouping** of the whole animal shape, that may be stronger 74 than when considering the 2D effects of disruptive colouration (i.e. false edges) alone. In human 75 vision, shading gradients and edges (among other cues) are a powerful cue for depth perception, 76 and edges that are closer in luminance to the object tend to be grouped with the object rather 77 than the background [9].

78

67

79 Binocular overlap is common among vertebrates, and depth perception using stereopsis allows 80 predators to judge the distance of prey to increase their strike accuracy. Praying mantises 81 (Sphodromantis lineola) were fitted with minature glasses permitting 3D displays (with a different 82 coloured filter over each eye) and presented with coloured images (anaglyphs) that generate a 83 percept of prey distance [2]. Mantises altered their striking behaviour according to perceived 84 depth, but this was not based on luminance correlations in the two images, as in vertebrates, but 85 on the relationship between two areas defined by common motion relative to the background, 86 overcoming uncorrelated luminance textures which defeat stereopsis in humans [2]. Cuttlefish 87 also use binocular stereopsis, placing themselves in an optimal position prior to attacking prey [1], 88 but the mechanisms are different to those in mantises, which are only able to obtain stereoscopic 89 depth information when prey targets are in motion [2].

90

91 Stereopsis has been argued to assist with image segregation, because recognition of intrinsic 92 borders aids segmentation of image regions, while recognition of extrinsic borders faciliates 93 grouping [10]. Camouflage strategies that defeat image segregation, such as disruptive 94 colouration, are therefore excellent candidates for defeating stereopsis. Binocular disparity 95 facilitates detection of prey with disruptive patterning by aiding the discrimination of false edges 96 from the real object boundaries [11]. Human participants asked to locate snake images of targets 97 as if viewed separately for each eye (monoscopic trials) or by both eyes simultaneously 98 (stereoscopic trials), found targets with enhanced edges harder to detect, but only when viewed 99 by one eye, confirming that stereoscopic vision may facilitate detection of camouflaged prey [11].

100

101 Pictorial depth cues such as enhanced edges take advantage of the viewer's ability to resolve 102 depth using monocular cues (e.g. shading, texture). In experiments with human observers, targets 103 with enhanced edges were deemed to have more depth than the background, and were 104 particularly hard to detect when the background contained cast shadows [12]. These findings 105 suggest that in the context of human vision, enhanced edges impede object detection by 106 interfering with perceptual grouping [12]. Importantly, work with human observers suggests that 107 multiple sources of depth information (i.e. binocular and monocular) can be integrated during 108 visual search [11].

109

110 Our understanding of how predators perceive depth cues, and how prey colouration exploits these 111 mechanisms of visual processing to enhance camouflage, has only just begun. Most animals use 112 multiple cues to perceive depth, but it is unclear how this information is combined into a single 113 depth estimate. Many fundamental questions about 3D camouflage remain. Can pictorial depth 114 cues improve **background matching**, and over what viewing distances is this strategy successful? 115 Addressing these questions requires novel approaches for measuring depth perception in non-116 human animals, but would greatly enhance our understanding of animal camouflage. 117 118 119 Acknowledgements

120

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126	Glossary
127	
128	Absolute depth: A measure of the actual distance between the observer and the object, based on
129	cues such as binocular convergence and accommodation.
130	
131	Accommodative effort: Use of the intra-ocular muscles to change the plane of focus of the eye's
132	lens.
133	
134	Background matching: Body colouration that generally matches the colour, luminance and pattern
135	of the background.
136	
137	Binocular disparity: Differences in the position of the retinal images of objects in the left and right
138	eyes, due to the separation of the eyes.
139	
140	Cast shadows: Shadow produced by an object and projected onto another surface (e.g. another
141	object, the substrate).
142	
143	Countershading colouration: Describes the ubiquitous phenomenon whereby animals tend to be
144	most darkly coloured on the surface (usually the dorsal) that receives the most light.
145	
146	Depth: The measurement or perception of the relative distances between an observer and the
147	objects in a scene. This includes information on the distance, spatial arrangement and distance to
148	parts (shape or depth variation) of an object as viewed by the observer.
149	
150	Disruptive colouration: A set of markings that create the appearance of false edges and
151	boundaries, hindering detection or recognition of the body outline.
152	
153	Enhanced edges: Type of colour pattern where the borders of colour patches are accentuated, so
154	that light patches have lighter edges, and dark patches have even darker edges.
155	
156	False edges: Patterns that create the appearance of false boundaries, making the real outline of
157	the body harder to detect and recognise.
158	

159	Illusory depth: The perception of distance, spatial arrangement or shape, that does not
160	correspond to the physical dimensions arising from the actual visual scene.
161	
162	Image segregation: A high-level feature integration used to determine which parts of an object
163	form a whole by separating regions according to perceived contours or boundaries.
164	
165	Masquerade: Resemblance of an organism to an object of no inherent interest to the observer,
166	such as an inedible object.
167	
168	Occlusion: Where the edges of one object are partially obscured by another, giving information on
169	relative distance and order (e.g. whole objects are in front of/closer than obscured objects).
170	
171	Perceptual grouping: Determination of which component parts belong to a 'whole'.
172	
173	Percept: Representation of the external world created by the sensory system, which is then
174	interpreted using rules or knowledge about the world.
175	
176	Pictorial depth cues: Patterns such as surface shading, enhanced edges and texture gradients,
177	which mimic the properties of visual scenes to produce apparent changes in depth where none
178	exist.
179	
180	Relative depth: Perception of the relative spatial relationships among different objects (e.g. order,
181	separation), or between parts of the same object (e.g. object shape) without knowing the actual
182	distance from the observer.
183	
184	Self-shadow: A shadow that is produced on the occluding object itself.
185	
186	Stereopsis: The experience of depth that is obtained as a result of combining the visual
187	information received from two eyes.
188	
189	Surface relief: The physical geometry of a surface.
190	

- **Visual texture**: An ensemble of image elements that conveys the properties of a much larger
- 192 collection of images, allowing recognition of a material (e.g. glass, wood, plastic).

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- 225

- 227 Figure captions
- 228

229 Fig. 1. Colouration that is proposed to remove depth information. Countershading colouration is 230 one of the commonest forms of colouration, observed in animals such as mountain gazelle (a: 231 Gazella gazelle), Manx shearwater (b: Puffinus puffinus), bluefin tuna (c: Thunnus thynnus) and 232 Wolf's Mona monkey (d: Cerophithecus wolfi). Countershading is thought to enhance camouflage 233 by reducing or eliminating self-shadows. When lit from overhead, objects such as a mountain 234 gazelle produce a self-shadow on the underside of the body (e). Countershaded patterns (f) 235 reverse this effect, increasing camouflage by reducing contrast and/or removing 3D shape cues (g). 236 The plots (red lines in e-g) show changes in luminance across the body (dorsal to ventral 237 direction); the x-axis indicates whether the body's luminance is darker (moon image) or brighter 238 (sun image) than the background. Image sources: a: <u>www.pexels.com</u> (Harvey Sapir); b: 239 www.hubpages.com; c: www.stock.adobe.com; d: www.wikipedia.org.

240

241 Fig. 2. Other camouflage strategies that may interfere with depth perception. a) The wing 242 patterns of the geometrid moth Alcis repandata (a) produce a similar luminance profile to the 243 background (plot shows changes in greyscale value across a transect (red dotted line in image), the 244 red asterisks denote the wing edges). The wing patterning resembles the changes in luminance 245 produced by the background relief, preventing prey detection by defeating the edge detectors and 246 preventing image segregation. The cuttlefish Sepia officinalis (b) dislays a unique disruptive 247 pattern when placed on a 3D background, which may produce a percept of depth. Cuttlefish may 248 therefore exploit predators' ability to recover depth from pictorial cues to prevent image 249 segregation. The flat wings of the moth Uropyia meticulodina (c) have patterns that produce 250 changes in luminance that are associated with sloped surfaces and edges (plot shows changes in 251 greyscale across the transect marked by the red dashed line in the image). This patterning exploits 252 depth cues such as shading and texture to facilitate misidentification. Geometrid moth (Mottled 253 Umber, *Erannis defolaria*; d) with patterns that may alter the perceived depth of parts of the wing 254 surface. These false edges mimic the changes in luminance that are associated with an object's 255 boundaries and/or may generate illusory depth, causing incorrect boundary resolution and 256 incorrect segregation. Image sources: a & d: <u>www.stock.adobe.com</u>; b: kindly provided by Sarah 257 Zylinski; c: Shipher Wu (CC-BY-SA 2.0).

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