

1 **Transparency, a better camouflage than crypsis in cryptically coloured moths**

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3 Mónica Arias^{1*}, Marianne Elias², Christine Andraud³, Serge Berthier⁴, Doris Gomez^{1,4}

4 ¹CEFE, Univ. Montpellier, Univ. Paul Valéry Montpellier 3, EPHE, IRD, Montpellier, France

5 ²ISYEB, CNRS, MNHN, Sorbonne Univ., EPHE, Univ. Antilles, Paris, France

6 ³CRC, CNRS, MNHN, Paris, France

7 ⁴INSP, Sorbonne Univ., CNRS, Paris, France

8 *Correspondence author email: moarias@gmail.com

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10 **Abstract**

11 Predation is a ubiquitous and strong selective pressure on living organisms. Transparency is a
12 predation defence widespread in water but rare on land. Some Lepidoptera display transparent
13 patches combined with already cryptic opaque patches. While transparency has recently been shown
14 to reduce detectability in conspicuous prey, we here test whether transparency decreases
15 detectability in already cryptically-coloured terrestrial prey, by conducting field predation
16 experiments with free avian predators and artificial moths. We monitored and compared survival of
17 a fully opaque grey artificial form (cryptic), a form including transparent windows and a wingless
18 artificial butterfly body. Survival of the transparent forms was similar to that of wingless bodies and
19 higher than that of fully opaque forms, suggesting a reduction of detectability conferred by
20 transparency. This is the first evidence that transparency decreases detectability in cryptic terrestrial
21 prey. Future studies should explore the organisation of transparent and opaque patches on the
22 animal body and their interplay on survival, as well as the costs and other potential benefits
23 associated to transparency on land.

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26 **Introduction**

27 Predation is ubiquitous and exerts a strong selection on living organisms. Often, prey sport
28 cryptic colour patterns that reduce detectability by visual predators, rendering prey hardly
29 distinguishable from their background. Crypsis is achieved if colour patterns are random samples of
30 background colouration [1]. This is challenging, as backgrounds are often complex combinations of
31 elements that can move and that vary in colour and pattern [2]. Background matching is efficient
32 only if all aspects perceived by predators (e.g., colour, brightness, polarization) are matched [2,3].
33 Given the intimate dependence between their survival and background colouration, cryptic
34 colourations constrain prey movements, and potentially hinder foraging and exploration [2,4]. By
35 contrast, dynamic colour changes [5] or transparency [6] can free prey from background
36 dependency, and improve survival in visually heterogeneous environments. Notably, transparency
37 can minimize detectability against virtually any background [6].

38 Transparency maximises light transmission, minimising reflection and absorption at all angles
39 and for all wavelengths seen by predators. Transparency is rare on land, with the notable exception
40 of insect wings. Among insects, Lepidoptera (moths and butterflies) typically have opaque wings
41 covered by coloured scales involved in intraspecific communication [7], and antipredator defences
42 such as aposematism [i.e. advertisement of unpalatability, 8], masquerade [i.e. imitation of inedible
43 objects, 9] and camouflage [10]. Yet, wing transparency has evolved independently in multiple
44 Lepidoptera families, often in combination with cryptic colour patterns, as in the Neotropical moth
45 *Neocarnegia basirei* (Saturniidae) or the Malaysian *Carriola ecnomoda* (Erebidae), where transparent
46 wing areas are surrounded by brownish patches. By comparing detection of four real species of
47 conspicuously-coloured butterflies by predators, Arias *et al* [11] recently showed that even if all
48 offered a high visual contrast to predators, fully opaque species were more detectable than species
49 with transparent elements. However, this study did not test whether the observed differences were

50 due to transparency itself or to conspicuous colours covering less surface in transparent species. To
51 rigorously test whether transparency decreases detectability on land, a comparison of the
52 detectability of already cryptic patterns that only differ in the presence/absence of transparent areas
53 is necessary. We here test for the first time whether transparency decreases detectability on already
54 cryptic terrestrial prey, by conducting field predation experiments by free avian predators and using
55 artificial moths.

56

57 **Materials and Methods**

58 Field experiments

59 We performed predation experiments in May 2018 in southern France, in La Rouvière forest,
60 (43.65°N, 3.64°E) for one 1-week session and at the Montpellier zoo (43.64°N, 3.87°E) for the
61 subsequent two 1-week sessions). Great tits (*Parus major*) and blue tits (*Cyanistes caeruleus*)
62 reported predators in previous similar studies [12,13] are present at both locations. We followed the
63 previously used protocol [12,13] for monitoring artificial prey survival to predation by bird
64 communities. Artificial prey (body and wings) were pinned on green oak *Quercus ilex* tree trunks
65 (>10cm in diameter, with few or no moose cover), every 10m in the forest cover. We put Vaseline
66 and sticky double-faced transparent tape between prey and trunk to avoid ant attacks. We randomly
67 placed artificial moths with edible body, and three types of wings: fully opaque grey wings (C form),
68 wings with grey contour and large transparent windows (T form), and no wings (B form) as a control
69 of body attractiveness (Fig. S1). Prey were disposed vertically and mostly facing north to reduce
70 direct sunlight reflection. We monitored prey survival once per day for the following four consecutive
71 days after placing them on trunks, and removed them afterwards.

72 Artificial moths

73 As in other similar experiments, artificial moths consisted of paper wings and an edible body made of
74 flour and lard [12,14,15]. Triangular shaped moths (triangle 25x36mm, surface of 450mm²) did not
75 mimic any real local species, but resembled a generic resting moth (examples in Fig. S1). We
76 designed moths to display poor visual contrast (chromatic and achromatic) against the average trunk
77 colouration of the highly abundant green oaks.

78 First, we took reflectance spectra of green oak trunk colouration (Fig. S2) and laminated grey
79 paper. We calculated colour and brightness contrasts between paper and trunk as seen by birds.
80 Grey155 was found as rather cryptic (chromatically indistinguishable but lighter than oak trunks,
81 Table S1) but not identical to trunk colouration and was chosen to allow us testing transparency as a
82 crypsis enhancer (see ESM for details). We built the “T” form by cutting two triangular windows (total
83 area of 234 mm²) in the laminated grey triangle, and putting a transparent film (3M for inkjet, chosen
84 for its high transparency even in the UV range see ESM, Fig S2) underneath the remaining parts. On
85 top of moth wings, we added an artificial body made from pastry dough (428g flour, 250g lard, and
86 36g water, following Carroll & Sherratt [16]), dyed in grey by mixing yellow, red and blue food dyes
87 (spectrum in Fig. S2, contrast values in Table S1). Such malleable mixture allowed us to register and
88 distinguish marks made by bird beaks from insect jaws. We finally computed the visual contrasts
89 produced in the eyes of bird predators: C was cryptic ($\Delta S < 1$ JND, $\Delta Q \leq 1.64$ JND) and more conspicuous
90 than T and B forms (Table S1).

91 Data collection and analysis

92 During monitoring, we considered artificial moths as attacked by birds when their body showed V-
93 shaped or U-shaped marks, or was missing without signals of invertebrate attacks (i.e. no body scraps
94 left on wings or around the butterfly on the trunk). We removed all remains of artificial moths
95 attacked by birds, but replaced them when attacked by invertebrates or fully missing. Non-attacked
96 prey were considered as censored data. We analysed prey survival using Cox proportional hazard
97 regression [17], with prey form and week and their interaction as factors. By including “week”, the

98 first contrast tests for time and place (by comparing week 1 at La Rouvière, and weeks 2 and 3 at the
99 zoo), while the second contrast test for 'time' at the zoo (Table S2). Overall significance was
100 measured using a Wald test. Statistical analyses were performed in R [18] using *survival* package [19].

101 **Results**

102 In total, we placed 497 artificial moths on trunks, of which 70 were attacked (predation rate:
103 14.08%). Survival strongly differed between forms (Wald test =24.35, df = 8, p = 0.002): wingless
104 bodies and butterflies with transparent windows were similarly attacked ($z = 1.51$, $p = 0.13$) and both
105 were less attacked than opaque butterflies ($z = 3.98$, $p < 0.001$, Fig. 1, Table S2). No differences could
106 be detected between attacks registered at La Rouvière and attacks at the zoo ($z = -0.04$, $p = 0.71$). At
107 the zoo, more attacks were registered on week 2 (closer to blue and great tit reproduction peak)
108 than on week 3 ($z = 0.55$, $p = 0.003$). No interaction between prey form and week was detected
109 (Table S2).

110 **Discussion**

111 Using artificial prey mimicking resting moths with and without transparent elements, we show for
112 the first time that transparency confers survival benefits in already cryptically-coloured terrestrial
113 prey. Transparent butterflies were attacked as little as wingless bodies and less than opaque
114 butterflies, suggesting that transparent windows reduce detection. This study is the first to
115 investigate the benefit value of transparency in cryptic terrestrial prey, and to experimentally isolate
116 the effect of transparency from other aspects (as patch colour or patch size). Whether the position
117 and the size of transparent windows, as well as the intrinsic optical properties of the transparent
118 surface (levels of transmission and reflection briefly explored by [11] and [20]) and its interaction
119 with the ambient light [21] influence transparency efficiency remains untested for terrestrial prey.

120 Crypsis can incur costs related to thermoregulation [22], intraspecific communication [23], and,
121 more importantly, mobility [2,4], thereby hindering foraging and looking for mates. While costs of
122 transparency in terms of thermoregulation and communication have been unexplored so far,

123 transparency can potentially reduce detectability in virtually all backgrounds, reducing the mobility
124 costs associated to crypsis, and enlarging habitat exploitation as reported for the transparent form of
125 the *Hippolyte obliquimanus* shrimp [24]. However, if camouflage is maximal when including
126 transparency and offers additional benefits in terms of mobility, the low representation of
127 transparency in land, especially in Lepidoptera, is puzzling. As it has been hypothesised for benthic
128 habitats, transparency may be more costly than pigmentation [25]. In Lepidoptera, scales are
129 involved in several physiological adaptations (communication, water repellency, thermoregulation)
130 [7,26,27]. Whether transparent wings may incur communication, hydrophobic or thermal costs
131 remains to be studied to better understand the costs associated to the evolution of transparency on
132 land and explain its rarity.

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138 **Author contributions**

139 MA, ME, CA, SB and DG designed the study. MA and DG performed the experiments, did the optical
140 measurements, and analysed the data. MA wrote the manuscript with major contributions of ME and
141 DG. All authors approved its final version.

142 **Accessibility**

143 Data available from Dryad Digital Repository

144 <https://datadryad.org/review?doi=doi:10.5061/dryad.82n006f>

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147 **Competing interests**

148 Authors have no conflict of interest to declare.

149 **Ethical statement**

150 No animal was intentionally harmed during this experiment and most artificial prey were found and

151 collected, avoiding leaving wastes in the forest.

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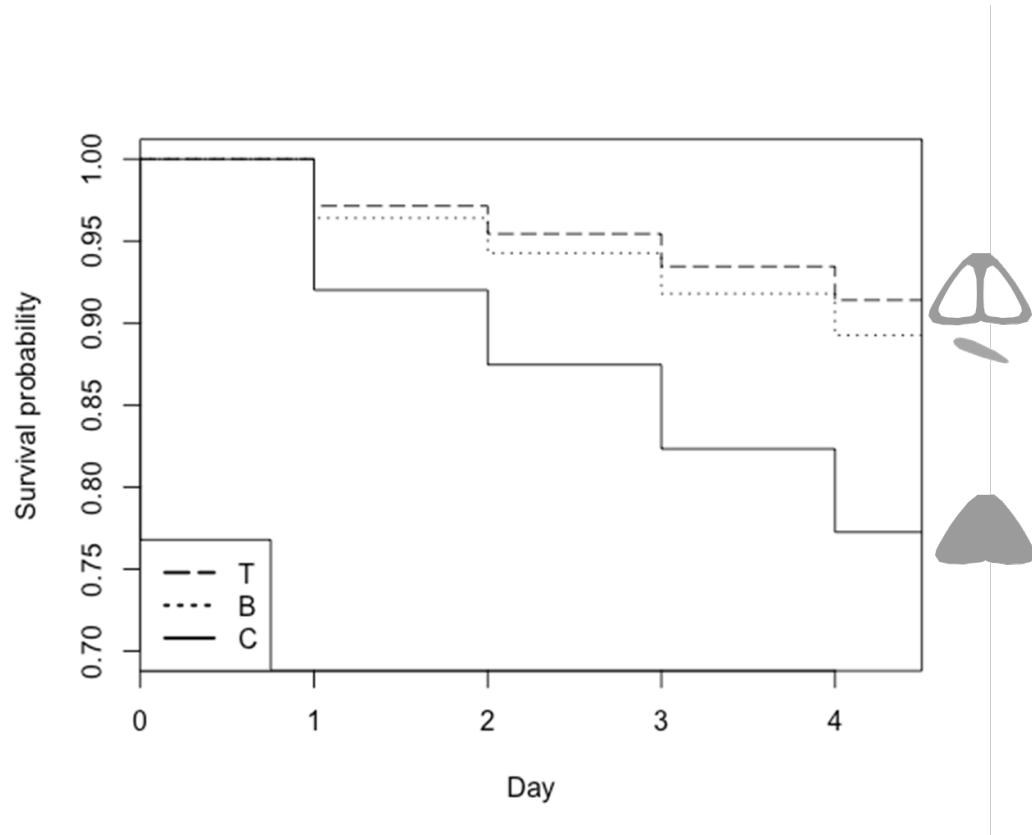
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214 Figure 1. Survival of artificial preys with (T) transparent elements on their wings, (B) bodies without
215 wings, and (C) fully coloured opaque butterflies. Artificial butterflies were placed on tree trunks and
216 monitored for their 'survival' every day for 4 days.

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