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FIGURE 6 Using visual contrast analysis to quantify differences in appearance of a hypothetical polymorphism in *Ophrys ciliata* (Figure 5a). Average saturation (distance from the achromatic point in the log-transformed RNL colour space, ΔS_{sal}) in the colour pattern can be expressed as an abundance weighted mean. The relative abundance of each colour pattern element can be calculated as the proportion of diagonal transitions compared to the sum of all diagonal transitions (f_i). (a,b) Note how the off-diagonal transitions between morphs change marginally in comparison to Figure 5, however, the level of overall colour pattern saturation for this kind of polymorphism differs substantially due to the increased relative abundance of saturated yellow, calculated as the relative abundance of yellow - yellow transitions in the diagonal of the transition matrix (f_{vellow})



FIGURE 7 (a) The RNL filtered flower from Figure 4c. (b) Edge intensities of chromatic ΔS contrast. Different colours indicate different angles of hypothetical edge detecting receptive fields, the intensity reflects the contrast. (c) Edge intensities of achromatic (luminance) ΔS contrast. Colours show edge angle whereas intensity shows edge strength

Osorio, 2007; Dalziell & Welbergen, 2016; Mallet & Joron, 1999). In a hypothetical case, CAA could be used to quantify imperfect sexual mimicry of orchids (Figure 5) where the plant mimics the visual and chemical appearance of a potential mate (e.g. Gaskett & Herberstein, 2010; Vereecken, 2008). For further discussion of the biological relevance, worked examples, potential future investigations, and guidance on parameter choices see Endler (2012), Rojas, Devillechabrolle, and Endler (2014), Ligon et al., (2018) and Winters et al. (2018). For details on CAA parameters available in QCPA see the Supplemental Material.

2.6.2 | Visual contrast analysis

Visual contrast analysis (VCA) is designed to investigate colour, pattern and luminance simultaneously by providing pattern statistics which combine spatial and chromatic properties of colour patterns such as abundance weighted chromaticity measures (Endler & Mielke, 2005, Supplemental Material). The perception of visual contrast is a combination of spatial (relative size and position of colour pattern elements), chromatic (hue and saturation), and achromatic (luminance) properties of a colour pattern due to lower and higher level neuronal processing of visual information (e.g. Pearson & Kingdom, 2002; Shapley & Hawken, 2011; Simmons & Kingdom, 2002; White et al., 2017; Willis & Anderson, 2002). Furthermore, interactions between the absolute and relative size of colour pattern elements and their chromatic and achromatic properties includes simultaneous colour contrast and colour constancy mechanisms that are understood in very few visual systems (e.g. Simpson, Marshall, & Cheney, 2016). VCA provides a set of metrics that are designed to capture some of these effects. We have adapted some of these metrics to use known or assumed colour opponency mechanisms to measure chromaticity (Supplemental Material). Using the previous orchid example, VCA could be used to investigate how polymorphism in our hypothetical population interacts with pollinator



FIGURE 8 Colour map in a log-transformed Receptor Noise Limited Model (RNL) chromaticity space of the non-UV information in Figure 5c. The axes are automatically labelled based on the names of the receptor channels used to create each dimension of colour, for example the X-axis (RNL X dimension) is mw:lw, showing that mw-dominant colours are on the left, and lw-dominant colours are on the right of the plot. X and Y are defined in equation 4 of Hempel de Ibarra et al. (2001). Darker parts of the cloud indicate more pixels in that ROI are located at that coordinate. The boundary around each ROI pixel cloud reflects 1 Δ S. In this case, the flower and its background do not overlap. For tetra-chromatic colour maps, the Z-axis is represented as a stack of X&Y maps (see Supplemental Material)

learning or differences in attractiveness to pollinators (Figure 6). See the Supplemental Material, original publications (Endler, 1991; Endler & Mielke, 2005) and empirical studies (Endler & Houde, 1995; Sibeaux, Cole, et al., 2019, 2019) for further information.

2.6.3 | Boundary strength analysis

Boundary strength analysis (BSA, Endler et al., 2018) is an extension of CAA (Endler, 2012). The transition matrices generated in the process of adjacency analysis can be used to measure properties

of boundaries between colour pattern elements. The underlying argument for this type of analysis is that the relative size, abundance, colour, brightness and adjacency of the patches within a colour pattern, and the chromatic or achromatic contrast of the boundaries between adjacent patches, influence its signalling properties (Endler et al., 2018; Green et al., 2018; Shapley & Hawken, 2011). These parameters also define the properties of the edges between and within parts of visual scenes and textures. BSA (as well as CAA and VCA) is also capable of quantifying possible effects of viewer perspective and movement (Endler et al., 2018). For a detailed introduction to BSA, possible future research and guidance on parameter choices, please refer to the original publication (Endler et al., 2018) and empirical studies using BSA (e.g. Sibeaux, Cole, et al., 2019, 2019). For detailed equations and information on modifications of parameters since original publication, see the Supplemental Material.

2.6.4 | Local edge intensity analysis and ΔS edge maps

Boundary strength analysis depends on a segmented image with clearly delineated (clustered) colour pattern elements (Endler et al., 2018). However, the segmentation process removes a large degree of subthreshold information, particularly smooth gradients of brightness and colour which the viewer may perceive. For this purpose, we provide LEIA, as a way of quantifying edge properties in an image or ROI (Region of interest) that does not rely on a segmented input. By comparing each pixel to its horizontal, vertical and diagonal neighbours LEIA quantifies edge intensities in terms of colour and luminance contrast in log-linear RNL opponent space (Renoult et al., 2017). The result can be visualized as ' Δ S Edge Images' (Figure 7). BSA weights the strength of boundary classes according to their global (across an entire image or ROI) relative abundance, whereas LEIA provides a local measurement of edge intensity on roughly the scale of an edge detecting receptive field. This approach allows one to consider edge contrast at the scale of the functional units (receptive fields) at which low level edge and feature detection are thought to take place (Marr, 2010; Marr & Hildreth, 1980). While LEIA is suited to the investigation of similar aspects of colour pattern design and function as BSA, it can do this without the need for clustering an image, while using a more neurophysiological approach than BSA. We recommend that LEIA should be used on images which have first been controlled for acuity (to remove imperceptible edge/ gradient information) and images which have also been through the RNL ranked filter, so that local chromatic and luminance edges have been reconstructed to their maximal values. LEIA also provides numerical output describing the distribution of edge intensities across an image. These parameters are specifically designed to be robust in the case of non-normally distributed edge intensities in an image (e.g. a small conspicuous object on a homogeneous background). Local edge contrast can be visualized as ΔS edge intensity images (Figure 7b,c).

FIGURE 9 An example of the redgreen (lw:mw) opponent channel (X), blueyellow ((lw + mw):sw) channel (Y) and the UV channel (Z) where the colour indicates the position of a pixel along that axis. The saturation map shows the Euclidean distance of each pixel to the achromatic point



2.7 | Step 7: Data visualization

We provide a range of novel approaches for data visualization. Calibrated digital photography and the coupled transformation of image data into psychophysical colour spaces provides a challenge but also an opportunity for visualization. We have already introduced the ΔS edge intensity images and extend that selection with colour maps, XYZ opponency images and saturation images.

2.7.1 | 'Colour maps' and 'XYZ chromaticity and saturation images'

The representation of chromatic information in colour spaces is a useful tool for data visualization in visual ecology (Endler & Mielke, 2005; Gawryszewski, 2018; Maia, Eliason, Bitton, Doucet, & Shawkey, 2013; Renoult et al., 2017). To date, most studies present their data as a scattering of points, which are either discrete measurements taken with spectrometers, or the mean centroids of image ROI cone-catch values. Techniques such as area or volume overlap between point clouds, or permutation analysis are then used to determine how dissimilar two colour patches are (e.g. Endler & Mielke, 2005; Kemp et al., 2015; Maia & White, 2018; Stoddard & Prum, 2008).

Colour space data visualizations generally do not incorporate any spatial (colour pattern) information. The use of calibrated digital imaging provides thousands, or even millions of colour measurements within each ROI, capturing the entire range of chromatic gradients present in any natural pattern. Using the log transformed opponent colour space (Hempel de Ibarra et al., 2001; Kelber, Vorobyev, & Osorio, 2003; Renoult et al., 2017), we provide representations of spatio-chromatic information in a perceptually calibrated colour space. 'Colour Maps' allow for the representation of entire visual scenes in a chromaticity diagram, in addition to the abundance of colours across part of the image (Figure 8). Among other purposes, colour maps may be used for visualizations and investigations of chromatic background matching. The overlap of ROIs in colour space can be expressed as an abundance weighted percentage. QCPA integrates tools which enable colour maps to be flexibly combined and

compared between image sections, or measurements taken from multiple images.

We also introduce the ability to convert cone-catch images to RNL XYZ chromaticity and saturation images, allowing visualization and measurement of the independent axes of colour in a di- tri- or tetra-chromatic image (showing the Euclidean distance of each pixel's RNL XYZ axes coordinates), in addition to generating a saturation image (Euclidean distance of each pixel to the achromatic point) (Figure 9).

2.7.2 | Step 8: Interpreting QCPA output

Quantitative Colour Pattern Analysis provides a huge range of metrics from each image (currently 181 parameters). Some of these parameters likely correlate well with aspects of animal evolution, behaviour and neurophysiology, while others are likely to show no signal. Likewise, some parameters will operate synergistically with each other, while others are independent or antagonistic. Moreover, these relationships could be fundamentally different between taxa, meaning caution should be used when comparing results between highly divergent taxa (such as vertebrate vs. invertebrate systems). QCPA can be used to address specific hypotheses linking one or a small subset of parameters (e.g. mean animal vs. background luminance contrast) to a response variable (e.g. predator attack rates) based on the context of the task. Such experiments require highly calibrated environments and stimuli where confounding influences on the perception of specific spatial, chromatic or temporal properties of a visual stimulus are controlled for (reviewed in Shapley & Hawken, 2011). However, colour patterns can be quantified in a great number of parameters, all of them capturing different aspects of chromatic, achromatic and spatial properties or combinations thereof (of which QCPA only captures a few).

Commonly used terms such as 'Complexity', 'Conspicuousness' or 'Similarity' should be considered as umbrella terms describing perceptual consequences caused by the variation of physical properties of colour patterns and their visual backgrounds (which often cannot be described by a single parameter). The lack of empirical testing of many QCPA parameters (and those of most other pattern analyses) makes it hard to offer broad recommendations for parameter choice **TABLE 1** A comparison of the Quantitative Colour Pattern Analysis framework to other existing pattern analyses and frameworks. For patternize see van Belleghem et al. (2018). For PAT-GEOM see Chan, Stevens, and Todd (2018). For PAVO see Maia et al. (2019). For NaturePatternMatch see Stoddard et al. (2014). For Colourvision see Gawryszewski (2018). We would also like to point out an approach by Pike (2018) which shares similarities with NaturePatternMatch

	QCPA	MICA	Patternize	PAT-GEOM	PAVO 2.0	Colourvision	NaturePatternMatch
Modelling of non-human Photoreceptor stimulation	\checkmark	\checkmark			\checkmark	\checkmark	
Modelling of visual acuity	+						
Visual Contrast Analysis	+						
Local Edge Intensity Analysis (LEIA)	*						
Adjacency Analysis	+				\checkmark		
Boundary Strength Analysis	\checkmark				\checkmark		
Bandpass based pattern analysis		+					
Alternative pattern metrics	*	*~+	\checkmark	+			
Landmark based pattern analysis			+				+
Image segementation using perceptual thresholds	*						
Alternative image segmentation tools	+	+	\checkmark		\checkmark		
Plotting colours in colour space	+				+	+	
Plotting of spatiochromatic information in colour space	*						
Graphical user interface							
Software/Language	ImageJ	ImageJ	R	ImageJ	R	R	C++ (Matlab)
Adapted as per original scientific publications						★ Novel concept or methodology	

across the huge diversity of possible contexts, especially when making observations in natural or nature-like levels of spatio-chromatic complexity. The 'simpler' the research question and the more controlled the experiment, the more adequate it is to consider one or a few pattern parameters in isolation.

Therefore, when there is no a priori reason to choose specific parameters, we recommend the use of multidimensional data analyses, such as principal component analysis (PCA), metric- and non-metric multidimensional scaling (MMDS/NMDS) or similar multivariate approaches such as factor analysis to identify correlations between pattern analysis output and animal behaviour (e.g. Sibeaux, Cole, et al., 2019, 2019) or to distinguish between taxa (e.g. Chan et al., 2019; Ligon et al., 2018; Winters et al., 2018). Doing so can be thought of as operating in a multidimensional pattern space (for discussion see Cuthill, 2019 and Stoddard & Osorio, 2019). Such a pattern space can include categorical data (e.g. presence/absence), data from other pattern analyses (Table 1) as well as environmental data. Reducing the dimensionality of such data comes with considerable statistical challenges. However, it is possible to avoid many issues such as bias from the structure of datasets or false positives (e.g. Benjamini & Hochberg, 1995; Osborne, Osborne, Costello, & Kellow, 2011). While obvious for the use of QCPA, interpreting many potentially interacting pattern parameters is of increasing importance given a steadily growing diversity of analytical methods (Table 1) and the desire to incorporate effects of higher-level processing of visual information into the analysis of visual signals.

3 | DISCUSSION

Quantitative Colour Pattern Analysis is a framework for the analysis of colour patterns in nature at an unprecedented quantitative and qualitative level. At its core, QCPA uses the advantages offered by calibrated digital photography to enable the use of existing spatio-chromatic colour pattern analyses (Figure 1). It also improves existing methodologies used in visual ecology by introducing a userfriendly and open-source framework which incorporates the ability to contextualize visual scenes according to photoreceptor spectral sensitivities, receptor noise levels and abundances, natural light environments, complex natural backgrounds, spatial acuity and viewing distance (Table 1).

The individual modelling components of QCPA rely on approximations and assumptions, which are based on our best current understanding of the underlying biological processes. As such, it is important to be aware of the limitations and underlying assumptions of the individual components of QCPA, some of which we discuss. QCPA makes extensive use of the receptor noise limited model (RNL) which has been behaviourally validated in various species including: humans, honeybees, birds, lizards, reef fish and freshwater fish (e.g. Champ, Vorobyev, & Marshall, 2016; Escobar-Camacho, Marshall, & Carleton, 2017; Vorobyev et al., 2001; Vorobyev & Osorio, 1998). However, the RNL model and RNL colour space is one of various available visual models and colour spaces that have also considered behavioural context to some degree and which may be considered as alternatives (reviewed in Gawryszewski, 2018; Renoult et al., 2017).

The RNL model (or any other visual model) is unlikely to represent the perceptual complexity of natural visual scenes for all species across all light regimes. To avoid making false assumptions, it is necessary to consider the perceptual context in which it is applied and how this context may violate model assumptions (Kelber, 2019; Lind, 2016; Olsson et al., 2018; Price, Stoddard, Shevell, & Bloch, 2019). For example, behavioural experiments have shown varying sensitivity to differences in colour in specific quadrants of colour space relevant to the behavioural ecology of species (Caves et al., 2018; Sibeaux, Cole, & Endler, 2019; Sibeaux, Keser, Cole, Kranz, & Endler, 2019). Another aspect that needs further investigation is the question of how distances in RNL colour space scale with behavioural thresholds across a wide range of visual systems and perceptual contexts (e.g. Fleishman et al., 2016). QCPA applies the log-transformed RNL colour space to minimize, but not remove, the impact of such threshold distortions (Gawryszewski, 2018; Vorobyev et al., 2001; Vorobyev & Osorio, 1998). Overall, the less validated model parameters are and the more profound assumption violations may be, the more likely deviations from the assumption that 1 ΔS equates to a behavioural threshold (e.g. a 75% success rate in a pairwise choice paradigm) will occur. Furthermore, the photopic version of the RNL, which is used here was developed to model colour discrimination near the achromatic point under photopic conditions (Vorobyev et al., 2001; Vorobyev & Osorio, 1998). However, when visual systems operate in crepuscular or scotopic conditions, the retinal stimulation to visual information becomes the result of both cone and rod stimulation or rod stimulation only (Kelber, Balkenius, & Warrant, 2002; Olsson et al., 2015; Osorio et al., 2004; Veilleux & Cummings, 2012; Vorobyev & Osorio, 1998). Another example highlighting context-specific threshold modelling is the distinction between detection and

discrimination thresholds which has direct implications on the application of the RNL (Lind, 2016; Price et al., 2019).

Quantitative Colour Pattern Analysis enables the application of known sensory limitations to filter the information that is subsequently processed by low-level vision. While a range of parameters provided by the QCPA have been shown to be of importance in some species, many remain to be applied and investigated in a broad range of behavioural contexts and visual systems. To what extent the observed parameterization of visual information bears ecological or behavioural significance subsequently must be inferred and calibrated using behavioural experimentation (Olsson et al., 2018). QCPA provides numerous parameters based on concepts shown to be relevant to a range of natural contexts (Endler, 1991, 2012; Endler et al., 2018; Endler & Houde, 1995; Rojas et al., 2014; Rojas & Endler, 2013; Sibeaux, Cole, et al., 2019, 2019; Winters et al., 2018). However, it also provides parameters which are yet to be validated, particularly on a quantitative scale. This provides great potential for future research as well as parameter calibration using behavioural experiments and highlights the importance and feasibility of a reductionist approach to the guantification of colour patterns and their function (sensu Stoddard & Osorio, 2019). Given the ability to link QCPA parameters and animal behaviour, we encourage the use of QCPA to design carefully calibrated behavioural experiments in the context of complex colour patterns and visual backgrounds.

There is considerable potential to improve QCPA by continuing to refine, test and develop its components. For example, we currently have not considered the loss of spatial and chromatic information due to light scattering or absorption, particularly in aquatic or dusty environments (e.g. Nilsson, Warrant, & Johnsen, 2014). Furthermore, many animal eyes do not have uniform retinas which, in combination with diversity in eye movements and eye shapes, leads to a little investigated diversity of visual perception in addition to the already discussed perceptual diversity in animal visual systems (Daly, How, Partridge, & Roberts, 2018; Hughes, 2018; Land, 1999; Land & Nilsson, 2012; Sibeaux et al., 2019; Willis & Anderson, 2002). QCPA could also be adapted to investigate moving patterns (e.g. Endler, 2012; Endler et al., 2018), given recent advances in the understanding of colour pattern functionality in the context of motion (Cuthill, Matchette, & Scott-Samuel, 2019; Fleishman, 1986; Hughes, Troscianko, & Stevens, 2014; Murali, 2018; Nityananda et al., 2018; Ramos & Peters, 2017; Umeton, Tarawneh, Fezza, Read, & Rowe, 2019). There are types of visual information we have barely begun understanding, such as polarization vision, the use of fluorescence as well as their interaction with an animal's perception of colour and brightness (Foster et al., 2018; Marshall, Cortesi, de Busserolles, Siebeck, & Cheney, 2019; Marshall & Johnsen, 2017; Smithers, Roberts, & How, 2019).

Recent years have seen a growing diversity of colour pattern analyses (Table 1). While some use conceptually similar pattern statistics to QCPA, others provide alternative approaches such as scale invariant feature (SIFT) analysis-based metrics (Lowe, 1999) and combinations with models to describe cognitive aspects of attention (Rosenholtz, Li, Jin, & Mansfield, 2010). The concept of QCPA-based pattern analysis is entirely compatible with any of these methods. In fact, QCPA does not currently include any computer vision-mediated object recognition or figure-ground segregation. However, QCPA provides a promising platform for future implementations of computational approaches to higher level neuronal processing of visual information (e.g. Serre, 2014).

Quantitative Colour Pattern Analysis provides an unprecedented level of accessibility and user-friendliness by being free, open-source, graphical user interface mediated and accompanied by a vast body of support material. QCPA presents a comprehensive, dynamic and coherent work process starting with the acquisition of calibrated digital images and ending with the extraction of behaviourally and neurophysiologically contextualized pattern space. ImageJ has been the software platform of choice for image analysis for decades. Its architecture minimizes the risk of non-compatibilities due to future patches of co-dependent packages (often seen in R or Matlab) making QCPA (and MICA) well equipped for the future. ImageJ and MICA provide their own, rich, sets of image and pattern analysis and manipulation tools that QCPA profits from and can interact with. For example, GabRat (Troscianko et al., 2017) can be used in combination with QCPA to investigate chromatic aspects of disruptive colouration in the context of spatial acuity. Furthermore, it is possible to use QCPA and MICA with a simple smartphone or cheap digital camera and a colour chart for calibration. While it is advantageous to have access to spectrophotometry for comparison of modelling output, this is no longer a requirement and reduces the cost for equipment drastically.

In conclusion, there are many theories and predictions regarding the design, function and evolution of colour patterns in nature which, if at all, have only been investigated in comparably simplistic or qualitative ways. QCPA provides a powerful framework to investigate these theories in a novel quantitative and qualitative context.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

We thank Simone Blomberg and Samuel Bear Powell for valuable discussions, and Miriam Heinze and Wen-Sung Chung for technical assistance. We also thank our reviewers for their valuable contributions.

AUTHORS' CONTRIBUTIONS

C.P.v.d.B and J.T. conceived and tested the QCPA framework based on an original concept by C.P.v.d.B. J.T. wrote the software code and conceived the original (chromatic) RNL clustering and RNL-ranked filter algorithms, with further testing, debugging and conceptual input and modification by C.P.v.d.B. C.P.v.d.B and K.L.C. conceived the combination of chromatic and achromatic discrimination thresholds for image segmentation. C.P.v.d.B. wrote the MATLAB precursor of the QCPA user interface and pattern analysis which contains the original code by J.A.E. J.A.E. also contributed many of the original concepts, J.A.E., K.L.C and N.J.M. have contributed to conceptual discussions and manuscript review.

DATA AVAILABILITY STATEMENT

The latest version of QCPA and its open source code (JAVA script) are available for download as part of the MICA toolbox at www.

empiricalimaging.com. The website provides detailed manuals, tutorials, FAQs, a dedicated forum and updates. If you intend to use QCPA and/or the micaToolbox, please use the website to familiarise yourself with the latest updates. We do encourage users to use the website and the Supplemental Material as their primary source of information on how to use QCPA. The version of the code used at the time of publication can be found at https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.3517896 (troscianko, 2019). A fully functional MATLAB based precursor of QCPA can be accessed at https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.3518682 (van den Berg, 2019).

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SUPPORTING INFORMATION

Additional supporting information may be found online in the Supporting Information section.

How to cite this article: van den Berg CP, Troscianko J, Endler JA, Marshall NJ, Cheney KL. Quantitative Colour Pattern Analysis (QCPA): A comprehensive framework for the analysis of colour patterns in nature. *Methods Ecol Evol*. 2020;11:316– 332. https://doi.org/10.1111/2041-210X.13328