Conspicuous colours reduce predation rates in fossorial uropeltid snakes

Vivek Philip Cyriac Corresp.¹, Ullasa Kodandaramaiah ¹

¹ IISER-TVM Centre for Research and Education in Ecology and Evolution (ICREEE) and School of Biology, Indian Institute of Science Education and Research Thiruvananthapuram, Thiruvananthapuram, Kerala, India

Corresponding Author: Vivek Philip Cyriac
Email address: vivek.philip14@iisertvm.ac.in

Uropeltid snakes (Family Uropeltidae) are non-venomous, fossorial snakes that are found above ground occasionally, during which time they are exposed to predation. Many species are brightly coloured, mostly on the ventral surface, but these colours are expected to have no function below the ground. Observations have shown that the cephalic resemblance (resemblance to heads) of uropeltid tails may direct attacks of predators towards the hardened tails, thereby potentially increasing handling times for predators. Experiments have also shown that predators learn to avoid prey that are non-toxic and palatable but are difficult to capture, hard to process or require long handling time when such prey advertise their unprofitability through conspicuous colours. We here postulate that uropeltid snakes use their bright colours to signal long handling times associated with attack deflection to the tails, thereby securing reduced predation from predators that can learn to associate colour with handling time. Captive chicken experiments with dough models mimicking uropeltids indicate that attacks were more common on the tail than on the head. Field experiments with uropeltid clay models show that the conspicuous colours of these snakes decrease predation rates compared to cryptic models, but a novel conspicuous colour did not confer such a benefit. Overall, our experiments provide support for our hypothesis that the conspicuous colours of these snakes reduce predation, possibly because these colours advertise unprofitability due to long handling times.
TITLE: Conspicuous colours reduce predation rates in fossorial uropeltid snakes

Vivek Philip Cyriac* and Ullasa Kodandaramaiah

1 IISER-TVM Centre for Research and Education in Ecology and Evolution (ICREEE) and School of Biology, Indian Institute of Science Education and Research Thiruvananthapuram, Maruthamala P.O., Vithura, Thiruvananthapuram, India. 695551.

* Corresponding author: Vivek Philip Cyriac, IISER-TVM Centre for Research and Education in Ecology and Evolution (ICREEE), School of Biology, Indian Institute of Science Education and Research Thiruvananthapuram, Maruthamala P.O., Vithura, Thiruvananthapuram, India. 695551. Ph: +917593978351

Email: vivek.philip14@iisertvm.ac.in

Authors Contributions: VPC conceived the study, designed the experiments and carried out the experiments; UK provided materials; both VPC and UK wrote the paper; both authors agree to the final version of the paper.

Declaration of Conflict of Interest: none

Funding: This work was supported by an INSPIRE Faculty Award to UK (DST/INSPIRE/04/2013/000476) and intra-mural funding from IISER Thiruvananthapuram.
Abstract

Uropeltid snakes (Family Uropeltidae) are non-venomous, fossorial snakes that are found above ground occasionally, during which time they are exposed to predation. Many species are brightly coloured, mostly on the ventral surface, but these colours are expected to have no function below the ground. Observations have shown that the cephalic resemblance (resemblance to heads) of uropeltid tails may direct attacks of predators towards the hardened tails, thereby potentially increasing handling times for predators. Experiments have also shown that predators learn to avoid prey that are non-toxic and palatable but are difficult to capture, hard to process or require long handling time when such prey advertise their unprofitability through conspicuous colours. We here postulate that uropeltid snakes use their bright colours to signal long handling times associated with attack deflection to the tails, thereby securing reduced predation from predators that can learn to associate colour with handling time. Captive chicken experiments with dough models mimicking uropeltids indicate that attacks were more common on the tail than on the head. Field experiments with uropeltid clay models show that the conspicuous colours of these snakes decrease predation rates compared to cryptic models, but a novel conspicuous colour did not confer such a benefit. Overall, our experiments provide support for our hypothesis that the conspicuous colours of these snakes reduce predation, possibly because these colours advertise unprofitability due to long handling times.

Keywords: Antipredatory strategies, conspicuous colourations, fossorial, handling time, Uropeltidae
INTRODUCTION:

Conspicuous colourations (colours that contrast with the background) are prevalent in the animal kingdom and have fascinated biologists for a very long time, prompting them to seek a functional explanation for such colours (Poulton, 1890; Cott, 1940; Edmunds, 1974; Cuthill et al., 2017). Such colours may be part of mate-choice or other intra-specific signals, or may be involved in predator avoidance e.g. aposematism and mimicry (Caro & Allen, 2017). Over the last few decades, these theories have been widely tested, leading to a good understanding of bright conspicuous colours in animals (Gamberale-Stille & Tullberg, 1999; Speed, 2001; Pfennig, Harcombe & Pfennig, 2001; Tullberg, Merilaita & Wiklund, 2005; Stevens, Stubbins & Hardman, 2008).

However, the presence of conspicuous colours in many animals still remains unexplained (e.g. contrasting colours in mammals (Caro Tim, 2009), colourations in many frogs (Bordignon et al., 2018) and caecilians (Wollenberg & Measey, 2009)) with research on new systems revealing new insights onto the role of such colourations (Rößler et al., 2019). Subterranean organisms which live in conditions devoid of light tend to have reduced vision and lose pigmentations (Culver & Pipan, 2009). Yet, several species of fossorial snakes that spend most of their time underground exhibit bright colourations (e.g. members of the genus Cylindrophis, Anomochilus, Atractus. etc.) (Greene,1988). Colours, especially those produced via pigments, are generally used as visual stimuli for intraspecific or interspecific interactions and thought to be costly to produce, therefore the presence of bright colours in subterranean animals is thought to be adaptive (Wollenberg & Measey, 2009). However, the role of conspicuous colouration in fossorial reptiles remains unexplored.

Uropeltid snakes are a family of fossorial snakes comprising ca. 55 species from South Asia (Cyriac & Kodandaramaiah, 2017). Most uropeltid species are ornamented on the ventral surface with bright conspicuous colouration, with the majority possessing varying degrees of yellow while a few species (ca. 5) possess red (Fig. 1). Although these snakes spend most of their time underground, they occasionally come to the surface during the monsoons (Rajendran, 1985). Uropeltids are mostly nocturnal but can be found actively moving close to the surface during early mornings and late evenings (Rajendran, 1985) during which times they are exposed to above ground predators (Rajendran, 1985; Gans, 1986; Kumara & Chaitra, 2001). Uropeltid
snakes have characteristic morphologies adapted for burrowing into soil: a narrow head and a short distinctive tail which is tapering or rounded (Smith, 1943). The tails of many species appear obliquely cut, with hard carinate scales (supplementary material, Fig. S1). When attacked by predators, these snakes conceal their heads between their body coils and display their tails along with the conspicuously coloured ventral surface (Gans, 1986) (Fig 2). The tail in uropeltid snakes, being short and rounded, resembles the head. This cephalic resemblance was found to deflect attacks of avian predators to the reinforced tail, thus allowing the snake to escape unharmed in most cases after multiple attacks oriented towards the tail (Gans, 1986). Such defenses would also potentially increase the handling time needed for predators to capture, kill and consume the prey.

Optimal foraging theory predicts that predators should avoid prey with increased handling times, especially when prey with lower handling times are abundant alternatives (Charnov, 1976; Krebs et al., 1977). Studies suggest that predators can learn to avoid unprofitable prey that are difficult to capture (Hancox & Allen, 1991; Pinheiro, 1996; Pinheiro et al., 2016), hard to process (Wang et al., 2018) or require long handling time (Cyriac & Kodandaramaiah, in press) when such prey possess conspicuous colours, even if the prey are non-toxic and palatable (Mappes, Marples & Endler, 2005). We here postulate that bright colours in uropeltid snakes reduce predation, possibly by signaling long handling times associated with attack deflection to the tails. We first show that the yellow and red ventral colourations in uropeltid snakes are conspicuous to birds, the main predators of these snakes. In experiments involving captive chickens attacking dough models resembling uropeltid snakes, we show that attacks are directed more often towards the tail than the head. In field experiments with clay models that resemble uropeltid snakes, we show that the bright yellow and red colours of wild uropeltids decrease predation by native birds. We conclude that the bright colours of these snakes reduce avian predation, and that these colours possibly play a role in advertising long handling time.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Study system and area

We conducted our field experiment in the tea plantations of the Bombay Burma Trading Corporation (BBTC) (8.52° N, 77.40° E and 8.56° N, 77.25° E) in Thirunelvelly district of Tamil
Nadu, India. The BBTC tea plantations cover an area ca. 34 km\(^2\) with fragments of natural forest vegetation left as windbreaks between patches of plantations. The area harbors at least five species of uropeltid snakes (Rajendran, 1985) that vary in their colourations — *Melanophidium punctatum* which has a bluish iridescent colour, *Teretrurus cf. sanguineus* which is black dorsally and red ventrally, and three species of *Uropeltis* which are usually black dorsally with variable amounts of yellow colouration ventrally. Within this community, we focused on two species, *U. liura* and *T. cf. sanguineus*, that co-occur and are found in high abundance in the BBTC tea plantations.

**Avian visual modeling and conspicuousness against leaf litter background**

We laid out four transects, each spanning 200m in length, in the four windbreak forest patches (Kakachi-1, Kakachi-2, Cullinia forest and Manjolai). Each transect was subdivided into 25 sub-transects perpendicular to the main transect at every eight meters, alternating in direction. From each sub-transect, we collected leaf litter samples representing the background in which the snakes are usually found. Leaf litter was obtained by randomly throwing a 30cm X 30cm cardboard frame thrice onto the forest floor, each time collecting 10-15 leaf samples. We measured the spectral reflectance measurements from five to six leaves representing the different visibly identifiable shades of all species from each sub-transect. We also measured the spectral reflectance of the ventral colourations of one individual each of *Uropeltis liura* and *Teretrurus cf. sanguineus* using a reflectance probe connected to a xenon light source (PX-2, Ocean optics, USA) and a spectrophotometer (Maya 2000, Ocean optics, USA). We took three readings each on the dorsal and ventral surface of every leaf and ten readings from different locations on the ventral surface of both snake species. We calculated the mean reflectance of the leaf litter for the four transects and the two species of snakes after interpolating the raw reflectance values into 1nm bins between 300 to 700nm.

We modeled the ability of birds to distinguish the colouration of the two snake species against the leaf litter background using the Receptor Noise Limited (RNL) model (Vorobyev & Osorio, 1998) in the R package *Pavo* v. 2.1.0 (Maia et al. 2019). The RNL model assumes that colour vision is based on opponent interaction and models the ability to discriminate colours in relation to the noise in the opponent channel. The primary predators of uropeltid snakes are terrestrial birds such as junglefowl (*Gallus sonneratii*), spurfowls (*Galloperdix spadicea* and *Galloperdix*...
*lunulata* and peafowl (*Pavo cristatus*) (Rajendran, 1985). Thus, we used the relative proportion of cone types of 1:2:4:4 for domestic chickens (*Gallus gallus*) (Kram, Mantey & Corbo, 2010) and 0.92:1:0.81:0.54 for peafowl (Hart, 2002) representing the Violet-sensitive (VS) visual system of birds to model the colour contrasts. We also modeled the colour contrasts using the relative proportion of cone types of 1:0.99:0.71:0.37 for blue tits (*Cyanistes caeruleus*) (Hart et al., 2000), which represent the UV-sensitive (UVS) visual system. The relative proportion of cone types representing the short wavelength sensitive, medium wavelength sensitive, long wavelength sensitive and UV sensitive cone type respectively were used with a Weber fraction of 0.06 (Olsson, Lind & Kelber, 2015) modeled under forest shade illumination. The results of the RNL model are summarized as ΔS. When ΔS = 1 the two stimuli are just noticeable, or 1 ‘Just Noticeable Differences’ (JND). Following Siddiqi et al. (2004), we considered a ΔS values above 3.00 to be easily distinguishable from the background, values between 1.00 and 3.00 to be indistinguishable except under optimal light conditions and values below 1.00 as a threshold for the colour to be indistinguishable from the background.

**Predation rates on snake models in field**

To test if avian predators avoid ventral colourations of uropeltids, we prepared 500 snake models using non-toxic brown pre-coloured clay (Play clay, Uday Industries™, Goregaon, India) of five treatments varying in their colourations and resembling uropeltid snakes in size and shape. We placed these models in the four transects (Kakachi-1, Kakachi-2, Cullinia forest and Manjolai) and recorded predation rates. There were 100 models each of five treatments 1) black dorsal with red ventral colouration representing *Teretrurus* *cf.* *sanguineus*, 2) black dorsal with yellow ventral colouration representing *Uropeltis liura*, 3) black dorsal with orange ventral colouration representing a conspicuous novel colour not found in uropeltid snakes of the region 4) completely black models and 5) completely brown models representing many of the cryptic snakes in the region. We used acrylic paints (Camel Fabrica™, Mumbai, India) for the five treatments. We replicated the yellow and red colours by mixing several combinations of paints, measuring their reflectance spectra and modeling them according to the RNL model using avian visual systems (supplementary material S1). We chose the paint combinations that produced the lowest ΔS values when compared with the spectral reflectance of the two snakes (see model design in supplementary methods for more details). The five treatments were placed in random
order in each sub-transect at two meter intervals. Models were collected after 84–86 hours and avian predation experienced by the clay replicas were scored based on predation marks on the clay models (supplementary material Fig. S2). Avian predation was identified by the characteristic V-shaped, U-shaped or conical peck marks (Willink et al., 2014). We further confirmed these marks on the snake models by comparing them to images of confirmed avian attacks that we previously obtained by direct observation of jungle babblers (Turdoides striata) and indigenous domestic chickens attacking clay snake models. We conducted two predation trials, one in June 2017 and another in July 2017 with 500 models in each set (thus a total of 1000 models) during the monsoons, when uropeltid snakes are known to be active.

**Captive bird experiment**

To test if the cephalic resemblance of the tail of uropeltid snakes deflects attacks of birds to the tail, we analyzed data from another experiment that was designed to test whether birds could learn handling times (Cyriac & Kodandaramaiah, in press). In this experiment, we used 26 chickens as predators, each uniquely identifiable, maintained in a small enclosure by a chicken farmer in Vithura (Kerala, India). The prey consisted of models that resemble uropeltid snakes (a tapering head and a rounded tail) made of wheat dough and brown food colour, presented on ‘S’ shaped yellow or brown coloured paper. Chickens were first trained to enter a 100cm cubical arena and feed on small dough pieces scattered randomly in the experimental arena (acclimatization phase). Once they were acclimatized to the arena, in the next phase, we randomly divided the chickens into two groups and introduced a single dough model, fixed on yellow or brown paper, placed in the center of the arena. Half of the dough models were baked and increased the handling time of the chickens to consume the baked models while the remaining half was left unbaked. One group of chickens received the baked models on yellow paper and the unbaked models on brown paper, while the other group of chickens received both models on brown paper. Thus, we expected that chicken in the colour-associated group, where baked and unbaked models were provided on different colours, would learn the associated handling time and avoid baked models while the colour-unassociated group would show no preference. All chickens underwent 10 trials, during which they received a total of 5 baked and 5 unbaked models in random order (Cyriac & Kodandaramaiah, in press). During this experiment, we also recorded the position of the first attacks by the chickens on the models as being on the
head, mid-body or the tail.

**Ethical note**

All applicable international, national, and/or institutional guidelines for the care and use of animals were followed. The experimental protocol was approved by the Institutional Animal Ethics Committee of Indian Institute of Science Education and Research Thiruvananthapuram. The field experiments were done with the permission of Bombay Burma Trading Corporation, Limited, which owns the lands. This experiment does not require clearance from any Ethics committee.

**Analyses**

All analyses were carried out in R 3.3.2 (R Core Team, 2016). To test for the effect of colour and random factors on the frequency of attacks on the snake models in the field experiment, we built Generalized Linear Mixed Models (GLMM) with the five treatments as fixed factors and transect, sub-transect, model sequence and batch (supplementary material, Table S2) as random factors using a binomial logit link function using the package *lme4* v. 1.1-12 (Bates et al., 2015). We compared the fit of this model with that of a null model using a likelihood ratio test. We followed the GLMM analysis by performing a post hoc test with Tukey contrasts to test for homogeneity across groups using the package *multcomp* v. 1.4-8 (Hothorn, Bretz & Westfall, 2008). Further, we used the G-test using the package *RVAideMemoire* v. 0.9–69 (Hervé, 2014) to check for differences in the position of first attacks by captive chickens on the dough model. We first performed a G-test on the frequency of first attacks on different positions of the dough models by captive chickens against the null expectation. We then carried out a pairwise comparison between the frequency of first attacks on the head, mid-body and the tail.

**RESULTS**

**Conspicuousness against leaf litter background**

Modeling the conspicuousness of *Uropeltis liura* and *Teretrurus cf. sanguineus* according to avian visual systems indicate that the ventral colourations of both species are highly conspicuous against leaf litter background ($\Delta S > 3.00$) (Table 1). The results were consistent when accounting
for the cone densities of VS (domestic chicken and peafowl) and UVS (blue tit) visual system of birds and against the average leaf litter of all transects (Table 1).

**Predation rates on snake models in field**

All models were recovered after 86 hours. However, many models (N = 39) were destroyed due to trampling by large mammals such as Gaur (*Bos gaurus*), Sambar deer (*Cervus unicolor*) and Asian elephants (*Elephas maximus*), and were, therefore, excluded from the analyses. A total of 50 models (i.e., 5% of all models) across both predation trials were found to have potential avian attacks. The GLMM analysis indicated that the number of attacks varied significantly among the treatments (Fig. 3) and that the model where predation rate was affected by phenotype (i.e. model colour) was significantly better than the null model where phenotype did not affect the predation rate ($\Delta AIC = 16.4, \chi^2 = 24.402, P < 0.0001$). The *post hoc* tests indicated that the number of attacks on the red (Estimate = -2.4349, $z = -3.371$, $P < 0.01$) and yellow (Estimate = -1.7275, $z = -3.198$, $P < 0.05$) models were significantly lower compared to that on the brown models. Attacks on the brown models did not differ significantly from that on either black (Estimate = 0.4834, $z = 1.328$, $P = 0.65683$) or novel coloured (Estimate = 0.6652, $z = 1.745$, $P = 0.38739$) models. Although the models with uropeltid colouration (red and yellow) experienced less predation compared to the novel models (orange), the difference was not statistically significant (red models: Estimate = -1.7697, 95% CI = -3.7821 - 0.2426, $z = -2.369$, $P = 0.11423$; yellow models: Estimate = -1.0623, 95% CI = -2.6060 - 0.4814, $z = -1.854$, $P = 0.3248$).

**Captive bird experiments**

A G-test on the attack position by the captive chickens on the dough models indicate that there was a significant difference in the position of first attacks ($G^2 = 17.102$, $P = 0.00019$). There were significantly higher number of attacks on the mid-body ($P = 0.00034$) and on the tail ($P = 0.0087$) compared to that on the head (Fig. 4).

**DISCUSSION**

Our avian visual modeling indicates that the yellow and red ventral colourations of uropeltid snakes are highly conspicuous against the leaf litter background of all four transects and that uropeltid colours are readily visible to birds with both the Violet-sensitive (VS) and UV-
sensitive (UVS) visual systems. The field experiments indicate that clay models with the yellow and red colouration of local uropeltid snakes experience reduced avian predation compared to the brown models. However, the novel coloured models (orange) did not differ from the brown or the black ones. Thus, the results indicate that avoidance is not towards all conspicuous colours but specifically towards uropeltid colours, suggesting that colouration in uropeltid snakes may have evolved as an antipredatory defense mechanism against avian predators.

Colouration in uropeltid snakes has sometimes been attributed to coral snake mimicry (although not experimentally tested) (Rajendran, 1985). South Asian coral snakes (genus Calliophis) are venomous, semi fossorial elapids, which share similar habitats with uropeltid snakes. However, all known species of coral snakes found in India and Sri Lanka have red ventral surfaces while most species of uropeltids have varying patterns of yellow. Further, coral snakes in India are uncommon across their range (Srinivasulu, Srinivasulu & Molur, 2014). Several theoretical models and experimental studies have suggested that Batesian mimicry generally becomes more perfect when the model is rare (Sherratt, 2002; Harper & Pfennig, 2007; Akcali & Pfennig, 2014). Since coral snakes are uncommon, it is expected that selection would favor high precision of coral snake mimicry, which does not seem to be the case for uropeltids. Furthermore, some uropeltids with bright colouration are found outside the range of coral snakes, making Batesian mimicry unlikely (Pfennig & Mullen, 2010). Therefore, although coral snake mimicry cannot be completely ruled out in some species of uropeltid snakes with red ventral colourations, the Batesian mimicry hypothesis does not explain the evolution of yellow colouration present in most uropeltid snakes because would-be models are red.

Overall, our experiments suggest that the conspicuous ventral colouration in uropeltid snakes could have evolved as a warning signal towards avian predators. Given that these snakes are endemic to India and Sri Lanka, where they are protected under stringent laws, laboratory experiments with live animals were not feasible. Our experiment with captive chickens and dough models resembling uropeltid snakes show that attacks were more frequent on the tail than on the head (Fig 4). This suggests that chickens can be deceived by the cephalic resemblance of the tail and direct their attacks towards the posterior regions, rather than towards the head as many predatory birds are known to do (Smith, 1973; Curio, 1976). Such a strategy that deflects attacks to the tail would also increase the handling time required to capture, kill and consume
these snakes, making them unprofitable (Humphreys & Ruxton, 2018). Although we have not specifically tested whether deflection of attacks towards the tail increases handling time in uropeltid snakes, detailed observations on the sequence of events during predation of uropeltid snakes by junglefowls and peafowls indicate long handling time associated with deflected attacks towards the tail (Gans, 1986). Gans (1986) reported that ca. 95% of the attacks by fowls were oriented towards the rounded tail of uropeltid snakes. He noted that the birds took between 22 to 40 minutes to consume uropeltid snakes after multiple attacks to the tail. He also reports anecdotal evidence that junglefowls and spurfowls were more hesitant to attack the brightly coloured *Rhinophis drummondhayi*, than the cryptic unicoloured *R. philippinus*. These observations provide further support for the hypothesis that diverted attacks from the vulnerable head to the tail could potentially increase handling time needed to kill and consume uropeltid snakes, which birds could learn to associate with their ventral colourations.

Startle or deimatic displays involve behaviours wherein conspicuous colours are suddenly displayed, providing prey a survival advantage (Umbers, Lehtonen & Mappes, 2015; Umbers & Mappes, 2015). Although there has been disagreement regarding what constitutes a deimatic display and how it differs from aposematism (Ruxton, Sherratt & Speed, 2004; Umbers, Lehtonen & Mappes, 2015; Umbers & Mappes, 2015, 2016; Skelhorn, Holmes & Rowe, 2016), there is general agreement that deimatism involves a momentary transient display of conspicuous signal (Ruxton, Sherratt & Speed, 2004; Olofsson et al., 2012; Umbers & Mappes, 2016) that triggers an unlearnt avoidance response in predators (Umbers et al., 2017, 2019). While uropeltid colours could also have a deimatic function, our experiments show that birds avoided uropeltid snake models that were static (pinned to the ground) and did not show any momentary display of conspicuous colourations. The snake models in our field experiment were painted such that the conspicuous colours were visible on the lateral side and thus were displayed and visible to small predators throughout the experimental duration (see supplementary Fig. S2). Further, the preferential avoidance of only uropeltid colours and not all conspicuous colours suggest that this avoidance is learnt. However, as we did not design our experiments to test for a deimatic function of uropeltid colourations, we cannot preclude the possibility that uropeltid colours could also function as a startle display.

Advertising increased handling time due to deflection of attacks would, however, be
advantageous only when alternative prey are abundant and when predators do not learn to
recognize the deception. Repeated exposure to deflective structures and behaviours would reduce
the effectiveness of deceiving predators. However, although birds regularly feed on venomous
and non- venomous snakes (Guthrie, 1932), there is a risk associated with attacking snakes since
many snakes are venomous. Hence, birds tend to orient their attacks towards the portion of the
body with a bilateral indentation (neck) or towards the region with eye-like markings (Smith,
1973; Curio, 1976). The costs associated with attacking venomous snakes may prevent birds
from learning the cephalic resemblance of the tail in uropeltid snakes. Further, it has been shown
that the speed of a predator’s learning varies for different traits (Chittka & Osorio, 2007; Balogh
et al., 2010), especially when other prey are available in the community (Kikuchi et al., 2019).
For instance, animals show higher rates of learning towards colour signals than towards patterns
or shapes (Bain et al., 2007; Aronsson & Gamberale-Stille, 2008, 2012a; Kazemi et al., 2014;
Sherratt et al., 2015). Given that colours are more salient than other cues, birds may be able to
associate colour with increased handling time in uropeltid snakes faster than learning the
cephalic resemblance of the tail. Also, deflective traits are thought to be associated with life
histories that reduce exposure to predators, thereby reducing the potential of learning such
deceptive traits (Humphreys & Ruxton, 2018). Uropeltid snakes are highly seasonal and are
active above ground or near the surface during the monsoons (Rajendran, 1985) when the species
richness and abundance of leaf litter arthropods are high (Janzen & Schoener, 1968; Frith &
Frith, 1990; Develey & Peres, 2000). High densities of arthropods during the wet seasons in
tropical regions could serve as an alternative prey base for avian predators. The short activity
period of uropeltid snakes would also reduce the ability of avian predators to learn to ignore
deflective traits.
Although we cannot completely rule out the possibility of Batesian mimicry in some species of
uropeltids, our experiments together support the hypothesis that the conspicuous colourations in
these snakes act as warning signals against avian predators. Our results are also consistent with
the novel hypothesis that conspicuous colourations in uropeltid snakes have an antipredatory
function and is based on advertising increased handling time associated with diverted attacks to
the tail. Nonetheless, given that we have not explicitly tested whether misdirected attacks to the
tail increases the handling time of these snakes, we acknowledge that a functional relationship
between the colouration and tail shape and its role in reducing predation cannot be ruled out. For
instance, many species of uropeltid snakes possess yellow or red blotches or stripes on the lateral sides of the tail (Fig. 2B; supplementary material, Fig. S1D & S1F) that could divert the attention of predators and deflect attacks towards the tail. However, further experiments would be required to determine whether colouration and tail shape interact to divert attacks and how this would influence handling time and learning in predators.

Antipredatory defenses involving both deflection of attacks and warning colourations may not be restricted to Uropeltidae. Fossorial reptiles, especially snakes, tend to have long trunks and short rounded tails (Wiens & Slingluff, 2001; Wiens, Brandley & Reeder, 2006), the latter of which many species display to divert attacks from the head to the tail (Greene, 1973, 1979, 1988; Han & Young, 2018). Several fossorial snakes (e.g., Cylindrophidae, Anomochilidae, Anilidae, Atractaspinae, Aparallactinae) exhibit conspicuous colourations potentially having a similar function as in uropeltid snakes. However, how widespread such strategies are across animals needs to be evaluated.

CONCLUSION

Our study highlights how combinations of defensive strategies such as deflection, which increases handling time, and warning signals, could function synergistically against predation. Different antipredatory strategies need not be mutually exclusive and can interact depending on the predators’ visual perception (Stevens, 2007). For instance, it has been shown that patterns with strong internal contrast can increase conspicuousness (Aronsson & Gamberale-Stille, 2012b) but can also generate a disruptive effect (Stevens & Cuthill, 2006; Schaefer & Stobbe, 2006). Warning colourations can also be distance dependent, providing camouflage at greater distances while being conspicuous at close proximity (Tullberg, Merilaita & Wiklund, 2005; Barnett, Cuthill & Scott-Samuel, 2018). For instance, the contrasting bands of coral snake mimics and the zig-zag pattern of many vipers act as warning signals to predators (Pfennig, Harcombe & Pfennig, 2001; Wüster et al., 2004; Niskanen & Mappes, 2005) but these bands can also function in camouflage during motion through the flicker-fusion effect (Lindell & Forsman, 1996; Titcomb, Kikuchi & Pfennig, 2014). Despite considerable advances in our understanding of animal defenses, we are yet to completely understand how different strategies interact with each other and further experiments are necessary to understand under what conditions such interactions are advantageous against predation.
ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

We thank Umesh P. K. and BBTC tea estates, Manjolai for allowing us to carry out our field experiments in their tea plantations. We thank John Endler for his comments on an early draft of the manuscript. We thank David Gower for his discussions on uropeltid snakes. We thank Almut Kelber and Balamurali G.S. for the discussions on avian visual models; Udita Bansal, Harshad Mayekar, Sairandhri Lapalikar, Ashish Nerlekar, Rishiddh Javery, Alex Johny, Sreejit Allipra, Gopal Murali, Gayatri Kartha, Amal Reji, Divya P.S., Midhun Krishna, Meenakshi Jyothis, Maria Babu, Varun Kher, Jewel Johnson and Reshnu Raj for assisting with preparations of the snake models; Umesh P.K., John, Alex Johny, Udita Bansal, Sreejit Allipra, Varun Kher and Jayasooryan C.S. for assisting during fieldwork in BBTC. We also thank Nawaf Abdul Majeed and Rohit Anand for their help with preparing the dough models and conducting the captive chicken experiments. We thank Umesh P.K. for images of the ventral colouration of uropeltid snakes.

REFERENCES

Akcali CK, Pfennig DW. 2014. Rapid evolution of mimicry following local model extinction. *Biology letters* 10:20140304.

Aronsson M, Gamberale-Stille G. 2008. Domestic chicks primarily attend to colour, not pattern, when learning an aposematic coloration. *Animal Behaviour* 75:417–423.

Aronsson M, Gamberale-Stille G. 2012a. Colour and pattern similarity in mimicry: evidence for a hierarchical discriminative learning of different components. *Animal Behaviour* 84:881–887.

Aronsson M, Gamberale-Stille G. 2012b. Evidence of signaling benefits to contrasting internal color boundaries in warning coloration. *Behavioral Ecology* 24:349–354.

Bain RS, Rashed A, Cowper VJ, Gilbert FS, Sherratt TN. 2007. The key mimetic features of hoverflies through avian eyes. *Proceedings of the Royal Society B: Biological Sciences* 274:1949–1954.
Balogh ACV, Gamberale-Stille G, Tullberg BS, Leimar O. 2010. Feature theory and the two-step hypothesis of Müllerian mimicry evolution. *Evolution: International Journal of Organic Evolution* 64:810–822.

Barnett JB, Cuthill IC, Scott-Samuel NE. 2018. Distance-dependent aposematism and camouflage in the cinnabar moth caterpillar (*Tyria jacobaeae*, Erebidae). *Royal Society Open Science* 5:171396. DOI: 10.1098/rsos.171396.

Bates D, Maechler M, Bolker B, Walker S. 2015. *lme4: Linear mixed-effects models using Eigen and S4*. R package version 1.1–7. 2014.

Bordignon DW, Caorsi VZ, Colombo P, Abadie M, Brack IV, Dasoler BT, Borges-Martins M. 2018. Are the unken reflex and the aposematic colouration of Red-Bellied Toads efficient against bird predation? *PloS one* 13:e0193551.

Caro T, Allen WL. 2017. Interspecific visual signalling in animals and plants: a functional classification. *Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society B: Biological Sciences* 372:20160344.

Caro Tim. 2009. Contrasting coloration in terrestrial mammals. *Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society B: Biological Sciences* 364:537–548. DOI: 10.1098/rstb.2008.0221.

Charnov EL. 1976. Optimal foraging: attack strategy of a mantid. *The American Naturalist* 110:141–151.

Chittka L, Osorio D. 2007. Cognitive dimensions of predator responses to imperfect mimicry. *PLoS Biology* 5:e339.

Cott HB. 1940. *Adaptive coloration in animals*. Methuen; London.

Culver DC, Pipan T. 2009. *The biology of caves and other subterranean habitats*. OUP Oxford.
Curio E. 1976. The ethology of predation. Zoophysiology and ecology (Vol. 7). Berlin, New York: Springer-Verlag (pp. x, 250 p.).

Cuthill IC, Allen WL, Arbuckle K, Caspers B, Chaplin G, Hauber ME, Hill GE, Jablonski NG, Jiggins CD, Kelber A. 2017. The biology of color. Science 357:eaan0221.

Cyriac VP, Kodandaramaiah U. 2017. Paleoclimate determines diversification patterns in the fossorial snake family Uropeltidae Cuvier, 1829. Molecular Phylogenetics and Evolution 116:97–107. DOI: https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ympev.2017.08.017.

Cyriac VP, Kodandaramaiah U. Don't waste your time: Conspicuous colouration as a signal of increased handling time. Evolutionary Ecology (in press).

Develey PF, Peres CA. 2000. Resource seasonality and the structure of mixed species bird flocks in a coastal Atlantic forest of southeastern Brazil. Journal of Tropical Ecology 16:33–53.

Edmunds M. 1974. Defence in animals: a survey of anti-predator defences. Longman Publishing Group.

Frith D, Frith C. 1990. Seasonality of litter invertebrate populations in an Australian upland tropical rain forest. Biotropica:181–190.

Gamberale-Stille G, Tullberg BS. 1999. Experienced chicks show biased avoidance of stronger signals: an experiment with natural colour variation in live aposematic prey. Evolutionary Ecology 13:579–589.

Gans C. 1986. Automimicry and batesian mimicry in uropeltid snakes: pigment pattern, proportions and behavior. J Bombay Nat Hist Soc 83:152–158.

Greene HW. 1973. Defensive tail display by snakes and amphisbaenians. Journal of Herpetology:143–161.
Greene HW. 1979. Behavioral convergence in the defensive displays of snakes. *Experientia* 35:747–748.

Greene HW. 1988. Antipredator mechanisms in reptiles. *Biology of the Reptilia* 16:1–152.

Guthrie JE. 1932. Snakes versus birds; birds versus snakes. *The Wilson Bulletin* 44:88–113.

Han D, Young BA. 2018. The rhinoceros among Serpents: Comparative anatomy and experimental biophysics of Calabar burrowing python (*Calabaria reinhardtii*) skin. *Journal of morphology* 279:86–96.

Hancox AP, Allen JA. 1991. A simulation of evasive mimicry in the wild. *Journal of Zoology* 223:9–13.

Harper GR, Pfennig DW. 2007. Mimicry on the edge: why do mimics vary in resemblance to their model in different parts of their geographical range? *Proceedings of the Royal Society of London B: Biological Sciences* 274:1955–1961.

Hart NS. 2002. Vision in the peafowl (Aves: *Pavo cristatus*). *Journal of Experimental Biology* 205:3925–3935.

Hart NS, Partridge JC, Cuthill IC, Bennett ATD. 2000. Visual pigments, oil droplets, ocular media and cone photoreceptor distribution in two species of passerine bird: the blue tit (*Parus caeruleus* L.) and the blackbird (*Turdus merula* L.). *Journal of Comparative Physiology A* 186:375–387.

Hervé M. 2014. *RVAideMemoire: Diverse Basic Statistical and Graphical Functions, Version 0.9-52*.

Hothorn T, Bretz F, Westfall P. 2008. Simultaneous Inference in General Parametric Models. *Biometrical Journal* 50:346–363. DOI: 10.1002/bimj.200810425.
Humphreys RK, Ruxton GD. 2018. What is known and what is not yet known about deflection of the point of a predator’s attack. Biological Journal of the Linnean Society 123:483–495.

Janzen DH, Schoener TW. 1968. Differences in insect abundance and diversity between wetter and drier sites during a tropical dry season. Ecology 49:96–110.

Kazemi B, Gamberale-Stille G, Tullberg BS, Leimar O. 2014. Stimulus salience as an explanation for imperfect mimicry. Current Biology 24:965–969.

Kikuchi DW, Dornhaus A, Gopeechund V, Sherratt TN. 2019. Signal categorization by foraging animals depends on ecological diversity. eLife 8:e43965.

Kram YA, Mantey S, Corbo JC. 2010. Avian cone photoreceptors tile the retina as five independent, self-organizing mosaics. PloS one 5:e8992.

Krebs JR, Erichsen JT, Webber MI, Charnov EL. 1977. Optimal prey selection in the great tit (Parus major). Animal Behaviour 25:30–38.

Kumara HN, Chaitra MS. 2001. Uropeltid snakes and their predators. Journal of the Bombay Natural History Society 98:288–289.

Lindell LE, Forsman A. 1996. Sexual dichromatism in snakes: support for the flicker-fusion hypothesis. Canadian Journal of Zoology 74:2254–2256. DOI: 10.1139/z96-256.

Maia R, Gruson H, Endler JA, White TE. pavo 2: new tools for the spectral and spatial analysis of colour in R. Methods in Ecology and Evolution 0. DOI: 10.1111/2041-210X.13174.

Mappes J, Marples N, Endler JA. 2005. The complex business of survival by aposematism. Trends in Ecology & Evolution 20:598–603.
Niskanen M, Mappes J. 2005. Significance of the dorsal zigzag pattern of *Vipera latastei* gaditana against avian predators. *Journal of Animal Ecology* 74:1091–1101. DOI: 10.1111/j.1365-2656.2005.01008.x.

Olofsson M, Eriksson S, Jakobsson S, Wiklund C. 2012. Deimatic display in the European swallowtail butterfly as a secondary defence against attacks from great tits. *PLoS One* 7:e47092.

Olsson P, Lind O, Kelber A. 2015. Bird colour vision: behavioural thresholds reveal receptor noise. *Journal of Experimental Biology* 218:184–193.

Pfennig DW, Harcombe WR, Pfennig KS. 2001. Frequency-dependent Batesian mimicry. *Nature* 410:323. DOI: 10.1038/35066628.

Pfennig DW, Mullen SP. 2010. Mimes without models: causes and consequences of allopatri in Batesian mimicry complexes. *Proceedings of the Royal Society B: Biological Sciences* 277:2577–2585.

Pinheiro CE. 1996. Palatability and escaping ability in Neotropical butterflies: tests with wild kingbirds (*Tyrannus melancholicus*, Tyrannidae). *Biological Journal of the Linnean Society* 59:351–365.

Pinheiro CEG, Freitas AVL, Campos VC, DeVries PJ, Penz CM. 2016. Both palatable and unpalatable butterflies use bright colors to signal difficulty of capture to predators. *Neotropical entomology* 45:107–113.

Poulton EB. 1890. *The colours of animals: their meaning and use, especially considered in the case of insects*. K. Paul, Trench, Trübner & Company.

Rajendran MV. 1985. Studies in uropeltid snakes. Madurai: Madurai Kamaraj University.
Rößler DC, Lötters S, Mappes J, Valkonen JK, Menin M, Lima AP, Pröhl H. 2019. Sole coloration as an unusual aposematic signal in a Neotropical toad. *Scientific reports* 9:1128.

Ruxton GD, Sherratt TN, Speed MP. 2004. *Avoiding attack: the evolutionary ecology of crypsis, warning signals and mimicry*. Oxford University Press.

Schaefer HM, Stobbe N. 2006. Disruptive coloration provides camouflage independent of background matching. *Proceedings. Biological Sciences* 273:2427–2432. DOI: 10.1098/rspb.2006.3615.

Sherratt TN. 2002. The evolution of imperfect mimicry. *Behavioral Ecology* 13:821–826.

Sherratt TN, Whissell E, Webster R, Kikuchi DW. 2015. Hierarchical overshadowing of stimuli and its role in mimicry evolution. *Animal behaviour* 108:73–79.

Siddiqi A, Cronin TW, Loew ER, Vorobyev M, Summers K. 2004. Interspecific and intraspecific views of color signals in the strawberry poison frog *Dendrobates pumilio*. *Journal of Experimental Biology* 207:2471–2485.

Skelhorn J, Holmes GG, Rowe C. 2016. Deimatic or aposematic? *Animal Behaviour* 113:e1-e3.

Smith MA. 1943. *The Fauna of British India: Reptilia and Amphibia, including the whole of the Indo-Chinese region. Serpentes. Vol. III*. Taylor and Francis, London.

Smith SM. 1973. A study of prey-attack behaviour in young loggerhead shrikes, *Lanius ludovicianus* L. *Behaviour* 44:113–140.

Speed MP. 2001. Can receiver psychology explain the evolution of aposematism? *Animal Behaviour* 61:205–216.
Srinivasulu C, Srinivasulu B, Molur S. 2014. The Status and Distribution of Reptiles in the Western Ghats, India: Conservation Assessment and Management Plan (CAMP). Wildlife Information Liaison Development Society.

Stevens M. 2007. Predator perception and the interrelation between different forms of protective coloration. *Proceedings of the Royal Society of London B: Biological Sciences* 274:1457–1464.

Stevens M, Cuthill IC. 2006. Disruptive coloration, crypsis and edge detection in early visual processing. *Proceedings of the Royal Society B: Biological Sciences* 273:2141–2147. DOI: 10.1098/rspb.2006.3556.

Stevens M, Stubbins CL, Hardman CJ. 2008. The anti-predator function of ‘eyespots’ on camouflaged and conspicuous prey. *Behavioral Ecology and Sociobiology* 62:1787.

Titcomb GC, Kikuchi DW, Pfennig DW. 2014. More than mimicry? Evaluating scope for flicker-fusion as a defensive strategy in coral snake mimics. *Current Zoology* 60:123–130. DOI: 10.1093/czoolo/60.1.123.

Tullberg BS, Merilaita S, Wiklund C. 2005. Aposematism and crypsis combined as a result of distance dependence: functional versatility of the colour pattern in the swallowtail butterfly larva. *Proceedings of the Royal Society of London B: Biological Sciences* 272:1315–1321.

Umbers KD, De Bona S, White TE, Lehtonen J, Mappes J, Endler JA. 2017. Deimatism: a neglected component of antipredator defence. *Biology letters* 13:20160936.

Umbers KD, Lehtonen J, Mappes J. 2015. Deimatic displays. *Current Biology* 25:R58–R59.

Umbers KD, Mappes J. 2015. Postattack deimatic display in the mountain katydid, *Acripeza reticulata*. *Animal behaviour* 100:68–73.
Umbers KD, Mappes J. 2016. Towards a tractable working hypothesis for deimatic displays. *Animal behaviour* 113:e5–e7.

Umbers KD, White TE, De Bona S, Haff T, Ryeland J, Drinkwater E, Mappes J. 2019. The protective value of a defensive display varies with the experience of wild predators. *Scientific reports* 9:463.

Vorobyev M, Osorio D. 1998. Receptor noise as a determinant of colour thresholds. *Proceedings. Biological Sciences* 265:351–358. DOI: 10.1098/rspb.1998.0302.

Wang L-Y, Huang W-S, Tang H-C, Huang L-C, Lin C-P. 2018. Too hard to swallow: a secret secondary defence of an aposematic insect. *The Journal of Experimental Biology* 221. DOI: 10.1242/jeb.172486.

Wiens JJ, Brandley MC, Reeder TW. 2006. Why does a trait evolve multiple times within a clade? Repeated evolution of snakelike body form in squamate reptiles. *Evolution* 60:123–141.

Wiens JJ, Slingluff JL. 2001. How lizards turn into snakes: a phylogenetic analysis of body-form evolution in anguid lizards. *Evolution* 55:2303–2318.

Willink B, García-Rodríguez A, Bolaños F, Pröhl H. 2014. The interplay between multiple predators and prey colour divergence. *Biological Journal of the Linnean Society* 113:580–589. DOI: 10.1111/bij.12355.

Wollenberg KC, Measey CJ. 2009. Why colour in subterranean vertebrates? Exploring the evolution of colour patterns in caecilian amphibians. *Journal of Evolutionary Biology* 22:1046–1056.

Wüster W, Allum CS, Bjargardóttir IB, Bailey KL, Dawson KJ, Guenioui J, Lewis J, McGurk J, Moore AG, Niskanen M. 2004. Do aposematism and Batesian mimicry require bright colours? A
589 test, using European viper markings. *Proceedings of the Royal Society of London B: Biological Sciences* 271:2495–2499.
Table 1 (on next page)

Modeling the conspicuousness of ventral colouration in *Uropeltis liura* and *Teretrurus cf. sanguineus* against leaf background for different avian predators of the four transects in BBTC tea plantation.

ΔS values > 3.00 are considered as easily distinguishable, values between 1.00 and 3.00 are distinguishable only under optimal light conditions and values < 1.00 are indistinguishable from the background.
### Table 1

| Transect | Avian Predator | Kakachi–1 | Kakachi–2 | Cullinia | Manjolai | Mean ± SD |
|----------|----------------|-----------|-----------|----------|----------|-----------|
| *Uropeltis liura* | Domestic chicken | 8.8676 | 9.1886 | 7.3817 | 6.8744 | 7.95 ± 1.25 |
| | Peafowl | 10.9248 | 11.6484 | 9.0312 | 8.6232 | 10.06 ± 1.46 |
| | Blue tit | 31.6323 | 37.6373 | 31.7853 | 28.9963 | 32.51 ± 3.65 |
| *Teretrurus cf. sanguineus* | Domestic chicken | 6.5345 | 7.4539 | 5.3492 | 5.5873 | 6.23 ± 0.96 |
| | Peafowl | 9.1048 | 10.3385 | 7.4867 | 7.7093 | 8.66 ± 1.33 |
| | Blue tit | 37.8320 | 44.1488 | 38.0672 | 35.5731 | 38.90 ± 3.67 |
Figure 1

Ventral colouration in different species of uropeltid snakes.

(A) *Melanophidium punctatum*. (B) *Teretrurus cf sanguineus* from BBTC tea plantations. (C) *Plectrurus guentheri*. (D) *Uropeltis liura* from BBTC tea plantations. (E) *Uropeltis maculata*. (F) *Uropeltis sp*. (G) *Uropeltis sp*. from BBTC tea plantations. (H) *Uropeltis sp*. from BBTC tea plantations. Photo credit: (A), (G), (H) Umesh P.K. and (B) - (F) Vivek Philip Cyriac
Figure 2

Tail display in uropeltid snakes.

(A) *Uropeltis cf. ellioti* coiled with only the tail visible. (B) *U. cf. ellioti* displaying the tail which is laterally lined by a thick yellow band. (C) *U. cf. arcticeps* displaying the tail and hiding the head under its coils. Photo credit: Vivek Philip Cyriac
Figure 3

Predation rates on snake models from field trials.

Number of attacks by avian predators on different snake models placed in the four transects in the BBTC tea plantations. Representative photographs of models of the five treatments (completely brown, completely black, black and yellow, black and red, and black and novel coloured) are shown above the respective bars. Numbers of asterisks indicate significance levels (* ≤ 0.05, ** < 0.01, *** < 0.001) between treatments based on a Tukey post hoc tests.
Figure 4

Position of first attacks by captive chickens on edible dough models.

(A) Frequency of first attacks oriented towards different positions of the prey by captive chickens. (B) Dough model indicating the head, mid-body and tail region where the attacks were oriented. $P$ value is based on a G-test.