

# Spectral Analysis Reveals Limited Potential for Enhanced-Wavelength Detection of Invasive Snakes

Effective control of invasive species often requires novel and multifaceted approaches. A comprehensive approach to the control of invasive Brown Treesnakes (*Boiga irregularis*) on Guam includes trapping (Rodda et al. 1999; Tyrrell et al. 2009), application of toxicants (Savarie et al. 2001), olfactory detection by dogs (Savidge et al. 2011), and visual detection by human searchers (Christy et al. 2010; Rodda and Fritts 1992). While visual searching far surpasses trapping in successfully targeting all size classes of snakes (Rodda et al. 2007), it is not cost effective to implement in large-scale control efforts due to high labor demands and inherently low detectability of these cryptic snakes (Christy et al. 2010). Technologies that significantly and cost-effectively increase the detectability of snakes by human searchers may be welcome additions to a comprehensive toolbox for invasive species research and management.

Though the coloration of invasive snakes to the unaided human eye may be cryptic and not easily distinguished from the surrounding habitat, it has been hypothesized that detection could be facilitated by selectively filtering or amplifying portions of the visible light spectrum or converting invisible infrared or ultraviolet wavelengths in to high-contrast visible proxy images (as is done by night vision goggles). Such novel applications of advanced technologies have inherent appeal, but should be thoroughly vetted before significant investment of scarce resources. Thorough vetting of proposed control technologies

reduces the likelihood of investment in projects with limited potential for success, and may redirect the allocation of resources toward lines of research that are more likely to bear fruit and be cost-effective.

Spectroscopy is the study of light as a function of wavelength. Objects reflect light differently at varying wavelengths. Variation in reflectance within the visible range of the electromagnetic spectrum is how we perceive color; however, objects also vary in how they reflect light at wavelengths beyond those we can perceive with the human eye, such as in the ultraviolet and infra-red wavelengths (see Fig. 1). An object's reflectance of electromagnetic radiation as a function of wavelength is known as a "spectral profile." In comparing objects, marked differences between their spectral profiles provide the contrast that can be used to differentiate between them.

Our objective was to determine whether the spectrum profiles of Brown Treesnakes exhibit any absorptions in reflectance which may be exploited to increase our ability to distinguish them from surrounding vegetation. If such spectral features exist within the visible range of the spectrum, we might increase an observer's chance of sighting a snake by preferentially filtering or supplementing light at key wavelengths through filtered lenses or light sources. Should such features be found in the non-visible ultraviolet or infrared domains, potential may exist for developing technologies which use sensors responsive to the targeted wavelength and translate the signal to a high-contrast visible image.

*Materials and Methods.*—To assess whether Brown Treesnakes have any spectral reflectance features that might be exploited in order to increase our ability to detect snakes in surrounding vegetation, we used an ultraviolet-near infrared (UV-NIR) field spectrometer to characterize the spectral profiles of dorsal, lateral and ventral surfaces of six captive Brown Treesnakes collected from Guam. Laboratory reflectance measurements were made with an ASD Inc. Fieldspec® Full Range Spectrometer over the wavelength range from 0.35–2.5 microns using a halogen lamp

**SHANE R. SIERS\***

*Department of Fish, Wildlife and Conservation Biology,  
Colorado State University, Fort Collins, Colorado 80521, USA*

**GREGG A. SWAYZE**

*U.S. Geological Survey, Denver, Colorado 80225, USA*

**STEPHEN P. MACKESY**

*School of Biological Sciences, University of Northern Colorado, Greeley,  
Colorado 80639, USA*

*\*Corresponding author; e-mail: shanesiers@gmail.com*

for illumination and Spectralon® panel for reference. These spectra were converted to absolute reflectance using a NIST traceable spectralon reflectance spectrum. The ASD spectrometer has 5-nm spectral resolution from 0.35–1.0 microns and 11-nm spectral resolution from 1.0–2.5 microns. Snakes were measured while they were held within the beam of the tungsten lamp about 1 m distant from the light source. The ASD fiber optic probe was held perpendicular to the skin surface and 10 six-second spectra were collected at each location on the snake's body. These ten spectra were co-averaged and converted to absolute reflectance for comparison of skin absorption features. Snake spectra were plotted against reference spectra for woody and leafy vegetation and examined for wavelengths of marked contrast (Fig. 2).

Ideally, we hoped to identify one or more wavelengths at which Brown Treesnakes exhibit a peak of reflectance with respect to other objects in their environment (primarily woody and leafy vegetation). Spectra were also recorded from a Common House Gecko (*Hemidactylus frenatus*) and a Mangrove Monitor (*Varanus indicus*) as these species may also be encountered during Brown Treesnake surveys. Additionally, we took this opportunity to determine whether diagnostic absorption features existed for a Brown Treesnake (*Boiga irregularis*) from Indonesia, a closely-related Mangrove Snake (*Boiga dendrophila*), a Western Hognose Snake (*Heterodon nasicus*), and a Massasauga (*Sistrurus catenatus*). This methodology provides a high-resolution spectrum profile for the entire range of wavelengths investigated. It is not proposed as a field application for snake detection, but rather to identify a small subset of wavelengths which could be selectively filtered or amplified with equipment designed for field detection.

**Results and Discussion.**—Sample spectra from the ventral, lateral, and dorsal surfaces of a single Brown Treesnake specimen are plotted against reference spectra from woody and leafy vegetation in Fig. 2, while the range of all spectra from three surfaces of six Brown Treesnakes are depicted in Fig. 3. The only range within which Brown Treesnake reflectance exceeds the reflectance of vegetation is the ventral surface of the snake across the visible range of the spectrum. High reflectance across the visible spectrum is seen as white. This will be no surprise to experienced Brown Treesnake surveyors whose search image is typically triggered by the white to whitish-yellow underbelly of snakes perched in arboreal activity. The low reflectance of blues, moderate reflectance of greens and higher reflectance of reds in all body surfaces are perceived as the olive-brown color characteristic of Brown Treesnakes, increasing in darkness from ventral to lateral to dorsal surfaces. The lateral and ventral surfaces of Brown Treesnakes are

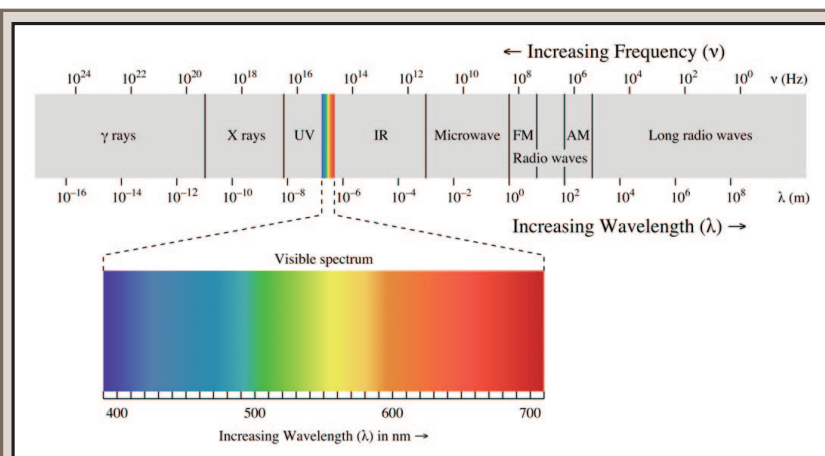


FIG. 1. Electromagnetic spectrum (© Wikimedia Commons, reproduced under the GNU Free Documentation License). The visible portion of the spectrum is from approximately 400–700 nm, or 0.4–0.7 microns.

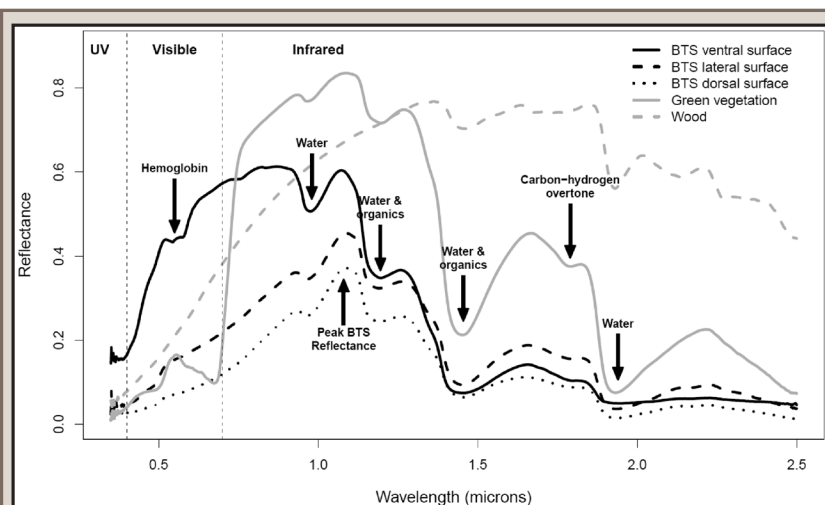


FIG. 2. Plot of spectral reflectance profiles of dorsal, lateral, and ventral surfaces of one Brown Treesnake (BTS) specimen against reference spectra from woody and leafy vegetation. Arrows highlight notable spectral features.

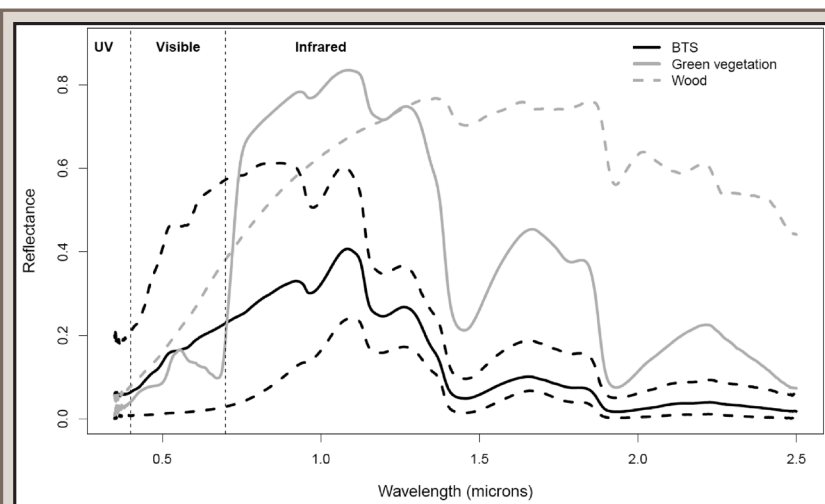


FIG. 3. Spectral reflectance profiles showing the mean (solid black), maximum and minimum reflectance (dashed black lines) from all surfaces (dorsal, lateral, ventral) of six Brown Treesnakes (BTS) against vegetation reference spectra.

as or less reflective than vegetation, requiring observers to rely upon the snake shape aspects of their search image.

While there is a large contrast between lateral and ventral surfaces of Brown Treesnakes and green vegetation in the red range (~0.7 microns), this is also true of woody vegetation. Selective filtering of non-reds or amplification of reds may help to decrease the brightness of green vegetation, but do little to distinguish snakes from the branches and vines which they also resemble in shape.

Within the span of UV wavelengths, the ventral surface of the Brown Treesnake is brighter than dorsal and lateral surfaces of the snake and the vegetation spectra; however, the magnitude of the difference is not much greater than the difference throughout the visible portion of the spectrum and overall UV reflectance is low, indicating that selective enhancement of UV wavelengths is not likely to be worth the additional technological effort required to do so.

Within the infrared domain, all three Brown Treesnake surfaces show a reflectance peak at 1.1 microns (Fig. 2); however, the chlorophyll in leafy vegetation is known to have remarkably high reflectance within the near-infrared, which overwhelms the peaks of Brown Treesnake reflectance and negates any visibility advantages these peaks might have conferred. Nowhere throughout the Brown Treesnake spectra are the hoped-for diagnostic absorptions that would have indicated promising features for selective amplification leading to the desired high-contrast search image and increased detection probability. Using a computerized algorithm exploiting the “shoulderness” of the snake’s spectrum as it slopes downward from 1.1 to 1.6 microns, combined with the green peak and chlorophyll absorptions of green vegetation, one could effectively differentiate snakes from dry vegetation (which has “small shoulderness”—flat or shallow slope—from 1.1 to 1.6 microns) and green vegetation (with “large shoulderness,” or steep slope) compared to intermediate shoulderness or slope of the snakes’ spectra. This assumes that the spatial resolution of the image is fine enough that single pixels would land entirely on the snake. The presence of a chlorophyll band would eliminate the green vegetation while a low shoulderness would eliminate dry vegetation (branches, etc.). Collecting such spectral data at night would pose a challenge, considering the amount of light needed to get a workable signal-to-noise ratio on the detectors. While this may technically be possible, the prospects for cost-effectively implementing such sophisticated technology in a manner practical for use by a field worker are not promising.

The reference vegetation spectra were obtained in North America rather than Guam; however, given the lack of distinctive spectral features in the snake spectrum profiles, there is little reason to believe that Guam’s vegetation would be different in any meaningful manner. The results of our lab experiment have indicated that a more expensive effort in Guam is not likely to be worth the investment of resources.

In comparison to the sympatric gecko and monitor species, as well as the four additional snake species tested, all spectra were similar in the UV and IR ranges of the spectrum. Given the taxonomic breadth of species examined here, it is not promising that such features may be observed in other reptile species of invasion concern, such as the Burmese Python (*Python molurus bivittatus*) and other large-bodied boids devastating the native fauna of the Florida Everglades (Dorcas et al. 2012; Dove et al. 2011). All living organisms—including vegetation—exhibit the negative spectral features, or light absorption bands, indicated at ~0.97, 1.20, 1.45, and 1.95 microns which result from absorption

by water and/or the carbon-hydrogen and nitrogen-hydrogen bonds of organic compounds (Fig. 2). The ubiquity of these features in biotic organisms negates their utility as characters to discern them from other life forms. All noteworthy differences between Brown Treesnake and other reptile spectra assessed here lie within the visible portion of the spectrum, manifesting in differences in color that are obvious to the unaided eye.

As predators that rely on stealthy foraging or ambush to obtain prey, it is not surprising that the coloration of the Brown Treesnake is difficult to visually distinguish from its surroundings. The results of spectroscopy reflect little potential for simple filtering or single-feature amplification techniques. While there may be some potential for multi-wavelength computer algorithms to enhance snake features while “backing out” characteristic features of vegetation, such technologies are not likely to be cost-effective or practical for field applications in the short term. The apparent lack of significant results reported here is extremely important, in that this small-scale validation of a novel concept has forestalled a hasty investment of scarce resources in a more comprehensive research and development program, and provides important information for others considering similar approaches.

*Acknowledgments.*—We thank Robert N. Reed for assistance with manuscript review. All animals used during this experiment were held at the lab of Stephen Mackessy, University of Northern Colorado, Greeley, Colorado, under UNC IACUC approval (protocols 0901C & 0702). Any use of trade, product, or firm names is for descriptive purposes only and does not imply endorsement by the U.S. Government.

#### LITERATURE CITED

- CHRISTY, M. T., A. A. YACKEL ADAMS, G. H. RODDA, J. A. SAVIDGE, AND C. L. TYRRELL. 2010. Modelling detection probabilities to evaluate management and control tools for an invasive species. *J. Appl. Ecol.* 47:106–113.
- DORCAS, M. E., J. D. WILLSON, R. N. REED, R. W. SNOW, M. R. ROCHFORD, M. A. MILLER, W. E. MESHAKA JR., P. T. ANDREADIS, F. J. MAZZOTTI, C. M. ROMAGOSA, AND K. M. HART. 2012. Severe mammal declines coincide with proliferation of invasive Burmese pythons in Everglades National Park. *Proc. Nat. Acad. Sci.* 109:2418–2422.
- DOVE, C. J., R. W. SNOW, M. R. ROCHFORD, AND F. J. MAZZOTTI. 2011. Birds consumed by the invasive Burmese python (*Python molurus bivittatus*) in Everglades National Park, Florida, USA. *Wilson J. Ornithol.* 123:126–131.
- RODDA, G. H., AND T. H. FRITTS. 1992. Sampling techniques for an arboreal snake, *Boiga irregularis*. *Micronesica* 25:23–40.
- , C. S. CLARK, S. W. GOTTE, AND D. CHISZAR. 1999. A state-of-the-art trap for the brown treesnake. *In* G. H. Rodda, Y. Sawai, D. Chiszar, and H. Tanaka (eds.), *Problem Snake Management: The Habu and the Brown Treesnake*, pp. 268–305. Cornell University Press, Ithaca, New York.
- , J. A. SAVIDGE, C. L. TYRRELL, M. T. CHRISTY, AND A. R. ELLINGSON. 2007. Size bias in visual searches and trapping of brown treesnakes on Guam. *J. Wildl. Manag.* 71:656–661.
- SAVARIE, P. J., J. A. SHIVIK, G. C. WHITE, J. C. HURLEY, AND L. CLARK. 2001. Use of acetaminophen for large-scale control of brown treesnakes. *J. Wildl. Manag.* 65:356–365.
- SAVIDGE, J. A., J. W. STANFORD, R. N. REED, G. R. HADDOCK, AND A. A. YACKEL ADAMS. 2011. Canine detection of free-ranging brown treesnakes on Guam. *New Zealand J. Ecol.* 35:174–181.
- TYRRELL, C. L., M. T. CHRISTY, G. H. RODDA, A. A. YACKEL ADAMS, A. R. ELLINGSON, J. A. SAVIDGE, K. DEAN-BRADLEY, AND R. BISCHOF. 2009. Evaluation of trap capture in a geographically closed population of brown treesnakes on Guam. *J. Appl. Ecol.* 46:128–135.