

Current Biology

Circularly Polarized Light as a Communication Signal in Mantis Shrimps

Highlights

- *Gonodactylaceus falcatus* has circularly polarized patterns on its body
- It can discriminate unpolarized light from circularly polarized light
- This species shows a natural aversion to circularly polarized burrows
- *G. falcatus* may, therefore, be using circular polarization as a covert signal

Authors

Yakir Luc Gagnon,
Rachel Marie Templin,
Martin John How, N. Justin Marshall

Correspondence

12.yakir@gmail.com

In Brief

The mantis shrimp is the only animal known to discriminate circularly polarized light. Here, Gagnon et al. demonstrate, for the first time, a behavior in these crustaceans that solely depends on circular polarization. They conclude that mantis shrimps may use circular polarization to secretly advertise their presence to aggressive competitors.

Circularly Polarized Light as a Communication Signal in Mantis Shrimps

Yakir Luc Gagnon,^{1,*} Rachel Marie Templin,¹ Martin John How,² and N. Justin Marshall¹

¹Queensland Brain Institute, University of Queensland, St Lucia, Brisbane, QLD 4072, Australia

²School of Biological Sciences, University of Bristol, 24 Tyndall Avenue, Bristol BS8 1TQ, UK

*Correspondence: 12.yakir@gmail.com

<http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.cub.2015.10.047>

SUMMARY

Animals that communicate using conspicuous body patterns face a trade-off between desired detection by intended receivers and undesired detection from eavesdropping predators, prey, rivals, or parasites [1–10]. In some cases, this trade-off favors the evolution of signals that are both hidden from predators and visible to conspecifics. Animals may produce covert signals using a property of light that is invisible to those that they wish to evade, allowing them to hide in plain sight (e.g., dragonfish can see their own, otherwise rare, red bioluminescence [11–13]). The use of the polarization of light is a good example of a potentially covert communication channel, as very few vertebrates are known to use polarization for object-based vision [14, 15]. However, even these patterns are vulnerable to eavesdroppers, as sensitivity to the linearly polarized component of light is widespread among invertebrates due to their intrinsically polarization sensitive photoreceptors [14, 16]. Stomatopod crustaceans appear to have gone one step further in this arms race and have evolved a sensitivity to the circular polarization of light, along with body patterns producing it [17]. However, to date we have no direct evidence that any of these marine crustaceans use this modality to communicate with conspecifics. We therefore investigated circular polarization vision of the mantis shrimp *Gonodactylaceus falcatus* [18] and demonstrate that (1) the species produces strongly circularly polarized body patterns, (2) they discriminate the circular polarization of light, and (3) that they use circular polarization information to avoid occupied burrows when seeking a refuge.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Circular Polarization Body Patterns

We found that *Gonodactylaceus falcatus* displays distinct polarization patterns (Figure 1). Photopolarimetry reveals a relatively low degree of linear polarization (<0.1) or left-hand circular polarization (>−0.1; LCP) across many body areas, but with highly LCP signals (from −0.4 to −0.47; $n = 4$) on legs and uropods

(tail). One individual had a maximum LCP of −0.59 and −0.45 reflecting from the legs and uropods, respectively. We found no right-hand circular polarization (RCP) patterns on *G. falcatus*. In contrast to Chiou et al.'s [17] observations in *Odontodactylus cultrifer*, we found no striking evidence of sexual dimorphism in circular polarization (CP) patterns in *G. falcatus*. It is possible that *O. cultrifer* uses CP to silently communicate gender information to other conspecifics, while the role of the CP patterns in *G. falcatus* is different (e.g., for species recognition or to signal quality in conspecifics).

The distribution of circularly polarized patterns across the body of *G. falcatus* suggests its role in communication during conflict behavior. The pattern is most prevalent on the tail, ventral, and frontal side of the legs and head of the animal, all regions that are preferentially exposed during confrontations with other mantis shrimps. In these aggressive interactions, the animal curls its abdomen underneath the body to present the heavily armored tail as a shield [21, 22], with the result that the circularly polarized head, legs, and tail are most visible to the opponent (Figure 2). It is therefore possible that CP would elicit a fight-or-flight response in many different scenarios (e.g., territorial behavior).

Behavioral Discrimination of Circular Polarization

In a behavioral discrimination experiment, *G. falcatus* were trained, using a food reward, to grab either an LCP or RCP target. When tested subsequently using a two-alternative forced-choice paradigm, these animals showed a clear preference for their trained circularly polarized target over an alternative unpolarized (UP) target (85% preference; $p = 0.02$; see Figure 3). However, when presented with an alternative target of the opposite-handed CP to their trained target, *G. falcatus* showed no preference (45 out of 95 runs; $p = 0.6$; see Table S1). In these experiments, an initial training period involved presenting the animals with two targets, where the primed stimulus (i.e., LCP or RCP) had food attached to it and the other did not. During the testing phase, exactly the same regime was used as for training, except that in two of every three runs (each morning, noon, and afternoon) no food was present. To avoid olfaction bias, the test targets did not come in contact with food at any point. In the other of the three runs, food was present on the trained stimulus and served to reinforce the learned behavior. The order in which the testing and training runs were delivered was randomized within each block of three presentations.

The ability to detect CP is conveyed by the proximal rhabdomal cell (R8) in rows 5 and 6 of the ommatidial midband, which functions as an achromatic quarter-wave retarder [23]. This

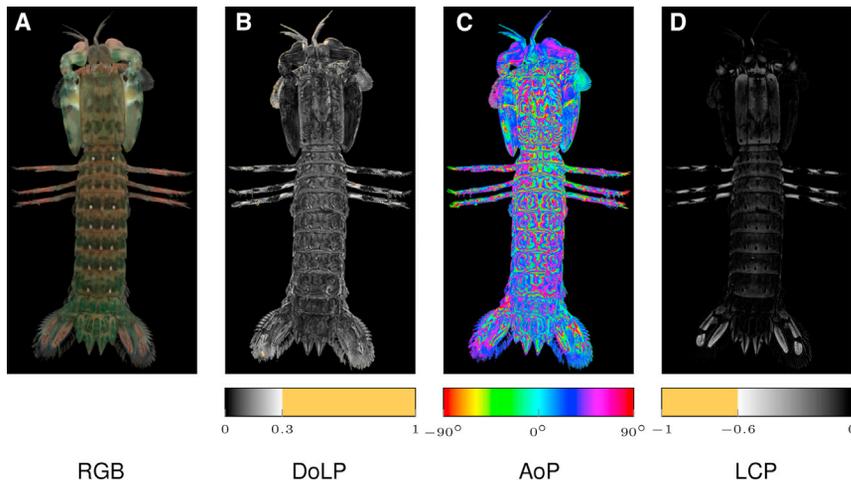


Figure 1. Photopolarimetry of *Gonodactylaceus falcatus*

(A) Gamma-corrected and white-balanced RGB representation of the animal.

(B) The degree of linear polarization (DoLP). Notice that since there were very few values larger than 0.3, the color bar was truncated at 0.3 (indicated by the yellow color).

(C) The angle of polarization (AoP).

(D) The degree of left-hand circular polarization (LCP). Since no RCP was reflected from the animal, an equivalent image for the RCP is not included. The color bar was truncated at an upper limit of -0.60 . The photopolarimetry was obtained with a Nikon D300 fitted with two rotatable filter rings. One ring had a linear polarizing film, whereas the other had a quarter-wave retarder film (American Polarizers). By rotating these two rings (relative to each other and the camera's objective), the six required measurements for calculating the

Stokes vectors were obtained (horizontal, vertical, diagonal, anti-diagonal, right-hand circular, and left-hand circular). In order to maintain the linear relationship between light intensity and pixel intensity, the images were saved in raw format (conversion of NEF files to TIFF was done with dcrw). All image processing was done in Julia [19] following previous photopolarimetry literature [20].

birefringent structure converts incoming light from circularly to linearly polarized, the outgoing axis of which depends on the handedness of the incoming light. The resulting linear polarization is then detected by the underlying linear polarization sensitive and spectrally broadband sensitive rhabdomers (R1–R7). Similar forced choice food association experiments demonstrated that the peacock mantis shrimp (*O. scyllarus*) could be trained to discriminate between LCP and RCP [17]. Over recent years, at least four different mantis shrimp species have been shown to produce (via reflection or transmission) strongly circularly polarized body patterns on their cuticle (*O. cultrifer* [17], *G. falcatus*, *Neogonodactylus festae*, *N. austrinus*, and *N. oerstedii* [unpublished data]). These differences in CP patterns and visual capabilities may depend on morphological and/or behavioral differences that have evolved during these species' diversification—for example, *Odontodactylus* and *Gonodactylaceus* are relatively distantly related [24].

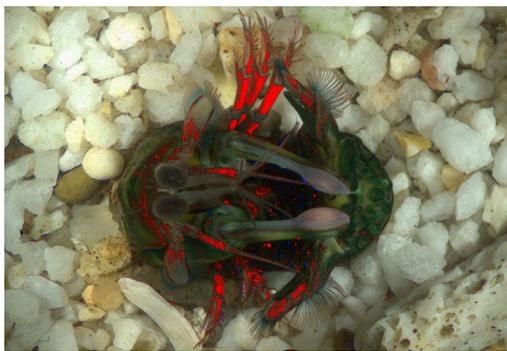


Figure 2. Left-Hand Circular Polarization in a Defensive *Gonodactylaceus falcatus*

The animal was manually positioned and placed to resemble its natural defensive posture. The red color indicates degree of LCP reflected from the body of a *G. falcatus* in a typical defensive posture. Notice how the highly polarized uropods, legs, and head are visible for a potential viewer/attacker, suggesting a connection between CP signaling and aggression.

Circular Polarization as a Signal of Burrow Occupancy

Since *G. falcatus* both displays CP and can discriminate CP from UP, it was important to determine whether these marine crustaceans have any natural behavior linked to this unusual light modality. After being displaced, many stomatopod species seek the safety of an empty hole or refuge, avoiding those that are already occupied by other mantis shrimps. Attempting to enter an occupied burrow can result in a damaging and potentially deadly confrontation [25]. Therefore, avoiding burrows that show signs of occupancy allows stomatopods to reduce the risk of injury. It has already been established that stomatopods use other cues, such as olfaction, to signal burrow occupancy [25]. It is possible that visual cues also contribute to this as part of a multi-modal signal. We therefore tested whether CP affects refuge selection behavior in *G. falcatus*.

Animals were presented with two burrows: one “with” CP and one “without.” Three different experimental setups were used. (1) “Burrow entrance”: the animal was placed in a circular arena and provided with two burrows to choose from (see [Movie S1](#)). Each burrow entrance was partially blocked by either a UP filter or a spectrally similar circularly polarized filter. The filters resembled the stomatopod telson in shape (crescent) and size. (2) “Burrow end”: similar to (1), but the burrows were dimly backlit with UP or circularly polarized light (see [Figure 4](#) and [Movie S2](#)). In this setup, the spectral differences between the two stimuli were minimal, but some residual longwave linearly polarized light was reflected from the end of the burrow. (3) “Mono burrow end”: the arena had only one burrow, which was backlit with either UP or circularly polarized light. The light source used for the stimulus was split to illuminate the arena with spectrally identical ambient light and therefore eliminated any artifactual linearly polarized light (see [Figure S1](#) for a detailed spectrapolarimetry analysis of the stimuli used in this study).

In all three refuge experiments, the mantis shrimp avoided or delayed entering refuges giving off LCP light. When provided with a choice of burrows, most animals entered one within 1 min. In the first experiment (burrow entrance), the animals

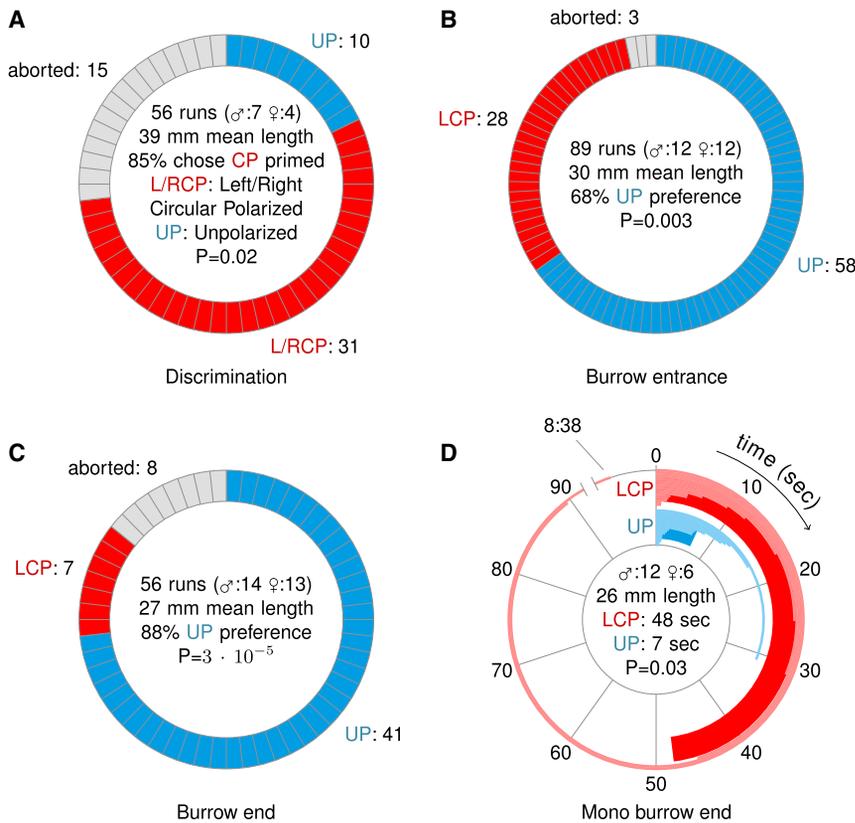


Figure 3. Summary of the Results for All Experiments

Each pane presents the results from one of the behavioral experiments in this study. In the center of each pane are the number of total runs, number of individual male and female *Gonodactylaceus falcatus*, mean body length, main result (i.e., choice, preference, or duration), and its respective p value. Unpolarized (UP) and left- or right-hand circularly polarized (L/RCP) stimuli are denoted by the blue and red colors, respectively.

(A) Behavioral discrimination. *G. falcatus* were successfully trained to discriminate between L/RCP and UP targets.

(B–C) Summary of the results from the three natural preference experiments with *G. falcatus*.

(B) Burrow entrance. Stomatopods naturally preferred burrows with a UP crescent-shaped filter at the burrow's entrance over burrows with an LCP filter.

(C) Burrow end. The same preference was exhibited when the mantis shrimps were presented with a choice between dimly backlit burrows.

(D) Mono burrow end. When the animals were presented with a single, dimly backlit burrow, they took about seven times longer to enter the burrow when it was backlit with LCP than with UP light. The ordered histograms show the distribution of the durations in seconds (note that one of the CP runs lasted for 8 min and 38 s). The group means are depicted by the thicker bars in the background.

See also [Table S1](#).

chose the burrow with a UP crescent shape in the entrance in preference to an LCP crescent (58 out of 89 runs, 68% preference for UP; $p < 0.01$). Similarly, in the second experiment (burrow end), animals preferred to enter burrows emitting UP light rather than burrows emitting LCP light (41 out of 48 runs, 88% preference for UP; $p < 0.001$). In the third experiment

(mono burrow end), stomatopods took seven times longer to enter a single LCP-backlit burrow than when the same burrow was backlit with UP light (48 ± 128 s and 7 ± 8 s [mean \pm SD] for the LCP and UP, respectively; 18 individuals each tested once for each of the two stimulus types during a period of 2 days; $p = 0.03$) (see [Figure 3](#) and [Table S1](#)).

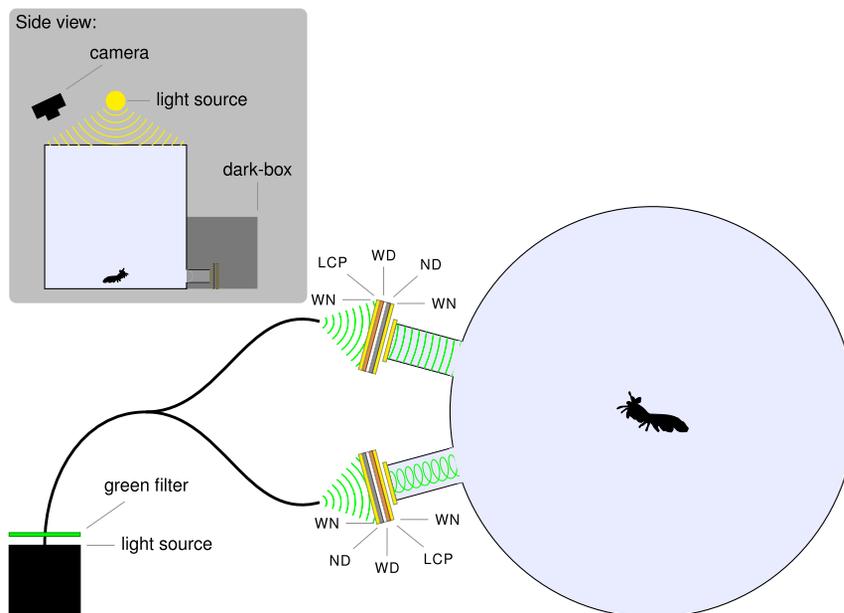


Figure 4. The Layout of the Burrow End Setup for the Natural Preference Experiments

White light was filtered (interference filter with a λ_{max} of 500 nm), bifurcated, and aligned to shine down the burrows. The light traveled through a bank of filters before reaching the glass window at the end of the burrow. The bank of filters contained a glass window (WN), left-hand circular polarizer (LCP), white diffuser (WD), neutral-density filter (ND), and another glass window (WN). In this order, the light passing through this filter bank was UP (see top burrow). In the case where the filter stack is reversed, the light passing through was circularly polarized (see bottom burrow). The stomatopod's behavior was monitored from a small webcam. See also [Figure S1](#).

There are several reasons why circularly polarized body patterns may function as a cue for burrow occupancy. First, elliptical polarization underwater is extremely rare. With the exception of reflective interactions within a few centimeters of the water's surface [26] and perhaps some birefringent structures in small pelagic zooplankton [27, 28], elliptical polarization is largely absent from the underwater environment. For animals that can discriminate the CP of light, any reflections of this kind will be highly salient against a UP background. Second, polarized body patterns (indeed any polarization) have the advantage of being more reliable underwater than color, which is affected by depth and illumination conditions [29, 30]. Certain wavelengths of light are rapidly attenuated with depth and this, combined with the shadowy ambient light environment of stomatopod refuges, would make color a relatively unreliable signal. Polarization, however, would be relatively unaffected in this visual environment. Third, we can make the relatively safe assumption that few, if any, species other than stomatopod crustaceans are able to discriminate the CP of light. In this sense, these visual signals may function as covert communication patterns, simultaneously allowing the animal to be camouflaged in terms of color and intensity (*G. falcatus* is colored green or brown and is a good match to the reef substrate) while being clearly conspicuous in CP.

The high avoidance rates recorded in this study suggest that CP alone is a conspicuous cue, sufficient to elicit strong avoidance behavior. An informative cue such as this may also form part of a signaling system for quick recognition by conspecifics at detection distances that may be far greater than olfaction detection distances. The signal's saliency, the apparent rareness of the sensory mechanism needed to detect the signal, and the high cost associated with not detecting a conspecific or the detection of the stomatopod by prey or predator all bolster our interpretation of the stomatopod's CP as a covert signal.

Interestingly, other stomatopod species such as *Haptosquilla trispinosa* are known to use linear polarization signals for mate choice [31]. Such signals, while not visible to most reef fish as far as we know, would be clearly visible to the linear polarization vision of one of their major predators, the cephalopods. It is possible that CP signaling has evolved specifically to advance beyond the detection by cuttlefish and octopus which, again as far as we know, lack CP sensitivity.

This study provides the first evidence for the use of the CP of light as a visual communication signal in any animal. While some scarab beetles were thought to use CP [32], more thorough and recent experiments suggest that this is unlikely [33]. We demonstrate that the mantis shrimp *G. falcatus* avoids refuges emitting circularly polarized light, preferring to occupy burrows emitting light of the same wavelength and intensity, but without the CP component. Our interpretation for this natural response is that CP may be used by this species as a private signal for burrow occupancy.

EXPERIMENTAL PROCEDURES

In both the burrow end and mono burrow end setups, the burrows were backlit through a reversible filter bank (threaded 30 mm cage plate, 0.5 in thick; Thorlabs) with three filters in the following order: (1) a circular polarizer (Edmund Optics, left-handed, 25 mm diameter), (2) a white diffuser (PTFE sheet; Dotmar

EPP), and (3) a 0.3 neutral-density filter (Lee Filters). The polarization visible to the stomatopod was dictated by the orientation of the filter bank: while light traveling from the circular polarizer to the diffuser (and then to the neutral density filter) (1 to 3) was UP, light traveling from (the neutral-density filter to) the diffuser to the circular polarizer (3 to 1) was circularly polarized. Since the light passed through the same set of filters (albeit in reverse order), its transmitted intensity and spectrum (but not polarity) were identical irrespective of the orientation of the filter bank. Differences in the spectrum or intensity of reflected light were minimized by the neutral-density filter (3) in the filter bank (see Figure S1).

The choice arenas for the burrow experiments consisted of a gray PVC tube (5.5 cm radius, 11 cm height) with a PVC bottom (Figure 4). White pebbles were distributed and glued evenly on the bottom to facilitate the animals' locomotion. Two holes (5 mm radius) placed 30° apart led to plastic tubes (4 cm long) that functioned as refuges. These positions were chosen to reflect the mean separation angle of the animal's eyestalks (~30°; unpublished data), ensuring that both refuges are easily visible from the center of the arena (see "Burrow end" in the Supplemental Experimental Procedures).

Statistical significance was tested using generalized linear mixed models. The results from the discrimination, burrow entrance, and burrow end experiments were binomial in nature, and so they were tested with a binomial error structure and a logit link function. Because the dependent variable in the mono burrow end experiment was the amount of time it took the animals to enter the burrow, those were tested with a gamma error structure and an inverse link function. All statistical analyses were performed in R (R version 3.0.2 and lme4 package) (see "Statistical analysis" in the Supplemental Experimental Procedures). All work presented in this study was done under the approval and oversight of the UQ Native and Exotic Wildlife and Marine Animals (NEWMA) Animal Ethics Committee (approval number: QBI/236/13/ARC US AIRFORCE).

SUPPLEMENTAL INFORMATION

Supplemental Information includes Supplemental Experimental Procedures, one figure, one table, and two movies and can be found with this article online at <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.cub.2015.10.047>.

AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

Conceptualization, Y.L.G., M.J.H., and N.J.M.; Methodology, Y.L.G.; Software, Y.L.G.; Formal Analysis, Y.L.G. and R.M.T.; Investigation, Y.L.G. and R.M.T.; Resources, Y.L.G., R.M.T., and N.J.M.; Writing – Original Draft, Y.L.G. and M.J.H.; Writing – Review & Editing, Y.L.G., M.J.H., R.M.T., and N.J.M.; Visualization, Y.L.G.; Supervision, M.J.H. and N.J.M.; Funding Acquisition, N.J.M.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

The authors would like to thank the Air Force Office of Scientific Research, the Asian Office of Aerospace Research and Development, and the Australian Research Council for financial support. This study would not have been possible without Alan Goldizen and the staff of the Lizard Island Research Station.

Received: August 23, 2015

Revised: September 24, 2015

Accepted: October 22, 2015

Published: November 12, 2015

REFERENCES

1. Clark, D.L., Roberts, J.A., and Uetz, G.W. (2012). Eavesdropping and signal matching in visual courtship displays of spiders. *Biol. Lett.* 8, 375–378.
2. Kim, J.W., Brown, G.E., Dolinsek, I.J., Brodeur, N.N., Leduc, A.O., and Grant, J.W. (2009). Combined effects of chemical and visual information

- in eliciting antipredator behaviour in juvenile Atlantic salmon *Salmo salar*. *J. Fish Biol.* **74**, 1280–1290.
3. Peake, T.M., Terry, A.M.R., McGregor, P.K., and Dabelsteen, T. (2001). Male great tits eavesdrop on simulated male-to-male vocal interactions. *Proc. Biol. Sci.* **268**, 1183–1187.
 4. Zuk, M., and Kolluru, G.R. (1998). Exploitation of sexual signals by predators and parasitoids. *Q. Rev. Biol.* **73**, 415–438.
 5. Wagner, W.E. (1996). Convergent song preferences between female field crickets and acoustically orienting parasitoid flies. *Behav. Ecol.* **7**, 279–285.
 6. Stauffer, H.P., and Semlitsch, R.D. (1993). Effects of visual, chemical and tactile cues of fish on the behavioural responses of tadpoles. *Anim. Behav.* **46**, 355–364.
 7. Tuttle, M.D., and Ryan, M.J. (1981). Bat predation and the evolution of frog vocalizations in the neotropics. *Science* **214**, 677–678.
 8. Endler, J.A. (1980). Natural selection on color patterns in *Poecilia reticulata*. *Evolution* **34**, 76–91.
 9. Cade, W. (1975). Acoustically orienting parasitoids: fly phonotaxis to cricket song. *Science* **190**, 1312–1313.
 10. Brandley, N.C., Speiser, D.I., and Johnsen, S. (2013). Eavesdropping on visual secrets. *Evol. Ecol.* **27**, 1045–1068.
 11. O'Day, W.T., and Fernandez, H.R. (1974). *Aristostomias scintillans* (Malacosteidae): a deep-sea fish with visual pigments apparently adapted to its own bioluminescence. *Vision Res.* **14**, 545–550.
 12. Douglas, R., Partridge, J., Dulai, K., Hunt, D., Mullineaux, C., Tauber, A., and Hynninen, P. (1998). Dragon fish see using chlorophyll. *Nature* **393**, 423–424.
 13. Partridge, J.C., and Douglas, R.H. (1995). Far-red sensitivity of dragon fish. *Nature* **375**, 21–22.
 14. Horváth, G. (2014). Polarized Light and Polarization Vision in Animal Sciences (Springer).
 15. Kamermans, M., and Hawryshyn, C. (2011). Teleost polarization vision: how it might work and what it might be good for. *Philos. Trans. R. Soc. Lond. B Biol. Sci.* **366**, 742–756.
 16. Land, M.F., and Nilsson, D.E. (2002). *Animal Eyes* (Animal Biology Series).
 17. Chiou, T.H., Kleinlogel, S., Cronin, T., Caldwell, R., Loeffler, B., Siddiqi, A., Goldizen, A., and Marshall, J. (2008). Circular polarization vision in a stomatopod crustacean. *Curr. Biol.* **18**, 429–434.
 18. Forsskål, P., and Niebuhr, C. (1775). *Descriptiones animalium, avium, amphibiorum, piscium, insectorum, vermium / quae in itinere orientali observavit Petrus Forsskål. Post mortem auctoris edidit Carsten Niebuhr. Adjuncta est materia medica kahirina atque tabula maris Rubri geographica (ex officina Mölleri)*.
 19. Bezanson, J., Edelman, A., Karpinski, S., and Shah, V.B. (2014). Julia: a fresh approach to numerical computing.
 20. Wolff, L.B. (1997). Polarization vision: a new sensory approach to image understanding. *Image Vis. Comput.* **15**, 81–93.
 21. Dingle, H., Highsmith, R.C., and Caldwell, R.L. (1973). Interspecific aggressive behavior in tropical reef stomatopods and its possible ecological significance. *Oecologia* **13**, 55–64.
 22. Caldwell, R.L., and Dingle, H. (1976). Stomatopods. *Sci. Am.* **234**, 80–89.
 23. Roberts, N., Chiou, T.H., Marshall, N., and Cronin, T. (2009). A biological quarter-wave retarder with excellent achromaticity in the visible wavelength region. *Nat. Photonics* **3**, 641–644.
 24. Porter, M.L., Zhang, Y., Desai, S., Caldwell, R.L., and Cronin, T.W. (2010). Evolution of anatomical and physiological specialization in the compound eyes of stomatopod crustaceans. *J. Exp. Biol.* **213**, 3473–3486.
 25. Caldwell, R.L. (1979). Cavity occupation and defensive behaviour in the stomatopod *Gonodactylus festai*: evidence for chemically mediated individual recognition. *Anim. Behav.* **27**, 194–201.
 26. Ivanoff, A., and Waterman, T.H. (1958). Factors, mainly depth and wavelength, affecting the degree of underwater light polarization. *J. Mar. Res.* **16**, 283–307.
 27. Johnsen, S., Marshall, N.J., and Widder, E.A. (2011). Polarization sensitivity as a contrast enhancer in pelagic predators: lessons from in situ polarization imaging of transparent zooplankton. *Philos. Trans. R. Soc. Lond. B Biol. Sci.* **366**, 655–670.
 28. Shashar, N., Hanlon, R., and Petz, A. (1998). Polarization vision helps detect transparent prey. *Nature* **393**, 222–223.
 29. Lythgoe, J. (1988). *Light and Vision in the Aquatic Environment* (Springer-Verlag), pp. 57–82.
 30. Marshall, J., Roberts, N., and Cronin, T. (2014). Polarisation Signals. In *Polarized Light and Polarization Vision in Animal Sciences, Springer Series in Vision Research, Volume 2*, G. Horváth, ed. (Springer), pp. 407–442.
 31. Chiou, T.H., Marshall, N.J., Caldwell, R.L., and Cronin, T.W. (2011). Changes in light-reflecting properties of signalling appendages alter mate choice behaviour in a stomatopod crustacean *Haptosquilla trispinosa*. *Mar. Freshw. Behav. Physiol.* **44**, 1–11.
 32. Brady, P., and Cummings, M. (2010). Differential response to circularly polarized light by the jewel scarab beetle *Chrysina gloriosa*. *Am. Nat.* **175**, 614–620.
 33. Horváth, G., Blahó, M., Egri, Á., Hegedüs, R., and Szél, G. (2014). Circular Polarization Vision of Scarab Beetles. In *Polarized Light and Polarization Vision in Animal Sciences, Springer Series in Vision Research, Volume 2*, G. Horváth, ed. (Springer), pp. 147–170.