

1 **Influence of color and brightness on ontogenetic shelter preference by prawns**

2 *(Macrobrachium rosenbergii)*

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27 **Abstract**

28 The giant river prawn (*Macrobrachium rosenbergii*), native to rivers and river mouths of
29 different Asian countries, is a heavily widespread species that has been introduced around the
30 world due to its great commercial importance. These prawns are farmed under many different
31 conditions that might translate to a great range of light environments, which impact their
32 behavior and productivity. Here, as a contribution for prawns' welfare and economical
33 productivity, we present the first study employing both visual modeling and behavioral data to
34 evaluate ontogenetic changes on color preference of juveniles and adults of *M. rosenbergii*.
35 For this purpose, we offered ten shelters of different colors to juveniles and adults and
36 registered their preference. Our results showed that the criterion for shelter preference
37 changed with ontogeny, since juveniles chose shelters based on chromaticity (preference for
38 blue), while adults based their decisions on brightness (preference for dark gray). This
39 preference of adults for dark colors is probably associated with a light avoidance behavior.
40 We recommend providing blue shelters for juveniles and dark shelters for adults.

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52 **1. Introduction**

53 The giant river prawn *Macrobrachium rosenbergii* (De Man, 1879) is native to a
54 region that encompasses Malaysia, East India, West Indonesia, Gulf of Bengal, and Gulf of
55 Thailand (Holthuis & Ng, 2010). In their natural environment, the larvae inhabit estuarine
56 environments (Sandifer & Smith, 1985), are planktonic (New, 2002) and go through 11 larval
57 stages (from Zoea I to Zoea XI) (Sandifer & Smith, 1985). After a larval life of 20 to 50 days,
58 the larvae undergo metamorphosis into post-larvae (Sandifer & Smith, 1985), which are
59 benthic and begin migration to freshwater environments, where they remain until adulthood
60 (New, 2002) and mate (Sandifer & Smith, 1985). Then, the ovigerous female migrates to
61 estuarine environments, where the larvae hatch from the eggs, restarting the cycle (Sandifer &
62 Smith, 1985).

63 *M. rosenbergii* is a species of great commercial importance (Engle, Quagraine, &
64 Dey, 2016; Zeng, Cheng, Lucas, & Southgate, 2012) that, in 2018 alone, accounted for the
65 production of 234,400 tons of food worldwide (FAO, 2020). These prawns are farmed under
66 various conditions (Coyle, Alston, & Sampaio, 2010; Daniels, Cavalli, & Smullen, 2010;
67 Valenti, Daniels, New, & Correia, 2010; Valenti, New, Salin, & Ye, 2010), that might
68 translate to a great range of light environments, which have the potential to impact prawns'
69 behavior and productivity. In fact, one study has already shown that food color affects
70 prawns' larvae feeding behavior (Yong, Kawamura, Lim, & Gwee, 2018). In different
71 species, color preference has also been related to the selection of appropriate habitats (Gu et
72 al., 2017; Havel & Fuiman, 2017; Strader, Davies, & Matz, 2015). For instance, changes in
73 color preference throughout the ontogenetic development of some caridean shrimps
74 (Lysmatidae) have been related to the physical properties of the environments occupied by
75 them at different stages of development (Johnson & Rhyne, 2015). Therefore, the study of

76 color preference by species of economic interest might exert an important role in animal
77 welfare and food productivity.

78 Morphologically, the eyes of *M. rosenbergii* change throughout ontogenetic
79 development, since larvae have functionally apposition eyes, whereas adults have functionally
80 reflecting superposition eyes (Nilsson, 1983). The superposition eyes are more efficient for
81 gathering light and can be advantageous in low light conditions, but the transformations
82 necessary for the appearance of a superposition eye may not be complete in post-larvae, as
83 seen in a caridean shrimp (Douglass & Forward, 1989). Regarding the visual sensitivity of the
84 species, it was found that dark-adapted individuals exhibit a light absorption peak at 563 nm,
85 which corresponds to the yellow-red region of the spectrum (Matsuda & Wilder, 2014),
86 although the authors don't specify how many photoreceptor types would be accounting for the
87 sensitivity curve. Still, in spite of the great deal of experiments that have already been
88 conducted with giant prawns (Chong-Carrillo et al., 2016), only recently their visual system
89 begun to be studied through behavioral experiments (Kawamura, Bagarinao, Yong, Faisal, &
90 Lim, 2018; Kawamura, Bagarinao, Yong, Fen, & Lim, 2017; Kawamura, Bagarinao, Yong,
91 Jeganathan, & Lim, 2016; Kawamura, Yong, Wong, Tuzan, & Lim, 2020).

92 Through visual modeling studies, a strategy that has currently gained popularity, it is
93 possible to assess which spectral information available in the environment could be exerting
94 an adaptive function. During visual modeling, we infer how a given animal's visual system is
95 stimulated by observing a particular object under a specific illuminant (Olsson, Lind, &
96 Kelber, 2018). In other words, just by knowing how many kinds of photoreceptors (and their
97 peak sensitivities) there are in an animal's eye, the spectrum of ambient light, and the color of
98 an object of interest, we can suppose how the object should be seen by that observer. Yet,
99 although variations in the type and number of photoreceptors are usually related to the
100 dimensionality of color vision, only behavioral tests can verify an animals' color perception

101 (Jacobs, 1996). So, it is important to couple visual modeling data with behavioral experiments
102 that can validate them (Lind & Kelber, 2009).

103 To our knowledge, availability of chromatic and achromatic cues to *M. rosenbergii*
104 have never been properly analyzed by means of visual modeling. The experiments already
105 carried out either did not try to control the brightness of the stimuli or tried to do so without
106 correctly taking into account the prawns' visual system. In color preference experiments, the
107 choice of stimuli colors should consider the eye of the beholder (Hill, 2002), not human
108 vision. By using visual modeling, we can control the colors of the stimuli to be presented to
109 prawns in a rigorous manner, as in studies with other animal species (Detto, 2007; Escobar-
110 Camacho et al., 2019; Olsson, Lind, & Kelber, 2015; Siebeck, Wallis, Litherland, Ganeshina,
111 & Vorobyev, 2014).

112 Therefore, here we developed the first color preference study on *M. rosenbergii*
113 employing visual modeling, as a more rigorous control for stimuli brightness and
114 chromaticity, according to the visual system of prawns. Our aim is to investigate whether their
115 preference for different colors and brightness changes over their development. Since *M.*
116 *rosenbergii* spontaneously occupies experimental shelters (Santos, Pontes, Campos, &
117 Arruda, 2015), we analyzed the preference that two benthic developmental stages (i.e.
118 juveniles and adults) show for shelters of different chromaticities and brightnesses. Our
119 hypothesis is that *M. rosenbergii* changes their color preference gradually throughout
120 ontogeny, regardless of the farming conditions. This ontogenetic shift would be adaptative in
121 natural populations because the spectral composition (i.e. color) of the surrounding natural
122 photic environment changes as they start migrating from estuaries to freshwater ecosystems.
123 Since this migration only begins when *M. rosenbergii* reaches its post-larvae developmental
124 stage, we predict that adults will be more prone than juveniles to exhibit strong preferences

125 for longer wavelengths, such as yellow and orange, which are colors associated to freshwater
126 bodies (Stoffels, 2013).

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128 **2. Material and methods**

129 2.1 Ethical statement

130 Our research was approved by the Ethics Committee on The Use of Animals of our
131 institution (protocol 042/2018) and is in accordance with Brazilian law. It complies with
132 ARRIVE guidelines and was carried out in accordance with the U.K. Animals (Scientific
133 Procedures) Act, 1986, and associated guidelines, EU Directive 2010/63/EU for animal
134 experiments.

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136 2.2 Animal maintenance

137 At the Laboratory of Sensory Ecology, of the Federal University of Rio Grande do
138 Norte, we kept 39 juveniles of *Macrobrachium rosenbergii*. Animals were housed in a
139 collective aquarium (100 x 50 cm, 40 cm water column), with transparent water, sandy
140 substrate and aeration. They were subjected to a 12-hour light/12-hour dark light cycle (light
141 from 6:00 a.m. to 6:00 p.m.). Two fluorescent lamps provided a light intensity of
142 approximately 320 lux (measured with an Extech Instruments HD 400 Light Meter), which
143 should be sufficient for color discrimination (Kawamura et al., 2018).

144 We kept the physical-chemical parameters of the water at optimum levels for the
145 prawns (pH: 7.0-7.5; ammonia: 0 ppt; temperature: 26-28 °C), and fed the animals twice a day
146 (morning and afternoon) with commercial food containing 42% crude protein. Twenty percent
147 of the aquarium's water was changed twice a week.

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149 2.3 Experimental apparatus

150 We also made available transparent water, sandy substrate and aeration in two
151 experimental aquaria, with aeration positioned, approximately, at the center of each aquarium.
152 In each experimental aquarium, we arranged ten shelters, in two rows of five. We build the
153 shelters with plastic coated paper, folded in an appropriate way. Each aquarium had six gray
154 shelters, each one with a different brightness, besides a blue, a green, a yellow and an orange
155 shelter (Figure 1).

156

157 [Insert figure 1 about here]

158

159 2.4 Shelters' colors and brightness

160 For choosing our stimuli colors, we printed 101 different color patches that were
161 coated with plastic and had their reflectance spectra measured by us with a spectrophotometer
162 (USB4000 UV-VIS Fiber Optic Spectrometer, Ocean Optics, Inc.). We coupled the
163 spectrometer to a bifurcated optical fiber (QR450-7-XSR, Ocean Optics, Inc.), also attached
164 to a light source (DH-2000-BAL, Ocean Optics, Inc.). A white standard surface (WS-1-SL,
165 Ocean Optics, Inc.), and the obstruction of the light source and optical fiber, were used as,
166 respectively, the white and the black standards, for system calibration. We also measured the
167 illuminant of the experimental room with the spectrometer coupled to an optical fiber
168 (QP450-2-XSR, Ocean Optics, Inc.), attached to a cosine corrector (CC-3-UV-S, Ocean
169 Optics, Inc.). We calibrated this spectrometric system with a calibration light source (LS-1-
170 CAL, Ocean Optics, Inc.).

171 We run visual models, through pavo 2 (Maia, Gruson, Endler, & White, 2019), a
172 package for R 3.4.1 (R Development Core Team, 2020), to infer how each color patch would
173 be seen according to the prawn's visual system. Our model computed the quantum catches
174 absorbed by each type of photoreceptor described for prawns, when the animals visualized

175 each shelter (reflectance spectra in Figure 2), that was illuminated by the fluorescent lamps of
176 our experimental room (Figure 3). The absorption peaks of the photoreceptors of another
177 prawn species, *Palaemonetes poludosus* (380 nm and 555 nm) (Goldsmith & Fernandez,
178 1968), were adopted in our model, since data were not available for *M. rosenbergii*. *P.*
179 *poludosus* is the taxon most closely related to *M. rosenbergii* for which photoreceptors'
180 absorption peaks have been established. Using photoreceptors' absorption peaks of related
181 species is a viable alternative, since small variations in estimated peaks do not carry a great
182 influence in visual modeling results (Lind & Kelber, 2009; Olsson et al., 2018).

183

184 [Insert figure 2 about here]

185 [Insert figure 3 about here]

186

187 In order to calculate the signal of each photoreceptor, we divided the amount of light
188 reflected by a stimulus (shelter) and captured by a specific photoreceptor class (stimulus
189 quantum catch), by the amount of light reflected by a perfect white surface (white standard)
190 and captured by the same photoreceptor class (maximum quantum catch). Following Detto
191 (2007), we computed achromatic signals for each stimulus, as the sum of signals of short
192 wavelength (S signals) and long wavelength (L signals) photoreceptors. For chromatic
193 signals, we divided S signals by L signals (Siebeck et al., 2014). Chromatic and achromatic
194 signals were plotted in a chromaticity-luminance diagram (Figure 4), that show how our
195 stimuli varied with respect to color and brightness. We chose not to use the RNL model
196 (Vorobyev & Osorio, 1998) because it demands visual parameters (Olsson et al., 2018) that
197 are still unknown for prawns.

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199 [Insert Figure 4 about here]

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201 2.5 Experimental design

202 In experiment 1, we individually tested 39 juveniles about two months after
203 metamorphosis (body weight: 0.46 ± 0.13 g; total length: 3.89 ± 0.36 cm), two juveniles per
204 day, each one in a smaller experimental aquarium (30 x 50 cm). The shelters, in experiment 1,
205 measured 7 cm depth x 6 cm width x 3 cm height. The position of the different shelters for
206 each animal was randomized.

207 In experiment 2, we individually tested 24 of the 39 previously tested individuals,
208 when they were already adults about seven months after metamorphosis (body weight: $6.4 \pm$
209 3.2 g; total length: 8.49 ± 1.84 cm), one adult prawn per day, in a larger experimental
210 aquarium (50 x 100 cm). The shelters, in experiment 2, measured 7 cm depth x 9 cm width x
211 5 cm height. Otherwise, the two experiments were identical. Differences in sample size
212 between experiments 1 and 2 were due to animal mortality.

213 In both experiments, we fed all prawns in the collective aquaria at 7:30 a.m., removed
214 each prawn, that was about to be tested, from the collective aquarium and transferred it to the
215 center of an experimental aquarium at 8:00 a.m. From 9:00 a.m. to 5:30 p.m, at every 30 min,
216 we recorded if the animal was inside/on top of a shelter (shelter occupancy), or if it was away
217 from any shelter (no choice), following Kawamura et al. (2017). After the experimental
218 session, we removed the prawn from the experimental aquarium, recorded its weight and total
219 length, and transferred it to another collective aquarium, in which individuals that had been
220 already tested were kept. All animals were fed again at the end of the day.

221

222 2.6 Statistical analysis

223 We performed ten chi-square tests, one for each shelter, for unequal expected
224 proportions, to verify if the occupancy of each shelter differed from the expected 10% of all

225 cases. We employed the Bonferroni correction to account for multiple comparisons and set
226 our α to 0.005. All tests were performed in BioEstat 5.3 (Ayres & Ayres Jr, 2007).

227

228 **3. Results**

229 3.1 Visual modeling

230 Regarding our stimuli, the blue shelter generated a chromatic signal that stood out
231 from green, yellow and orange shelters (Figure 4), a strong indication that the blue shelter
232 could be perceived, by the prawns' visual system, as being of a different color. In contrast,
233 these four colored stimuli (i.e. blue, green, yellow, and orange shelters) only showed discrete
234 variations of achromatic signals, with the yellow shelter being slightly lighter than the others
235 (Figure 4). Moreover, all these colored stimuli, according to the visual system of the prawns,
236 were of intermediate brightness when compared to gray shelters. That is, in the absence of
237 chromatic information, animals should not be able to tell colored and gray shelters apart, and
238 would have a great range of achromatic options, including darker (gray shelters), intermediate
239 (gray and colored shelters) and brighter (gray shelters) stimuli, from which they could choose.

240

241 3.2 Shelter preference

242 The records of juveniles and adults occupying the shelters are shown in Figure 5.
243 Juveniles occupied the bluest available shelter (i.e. the one with the highest chromatic signal)
244 significantly more than expected by chance ($p = 0.0034$), while occupied all the other
245 available shelters (i.e. those with intermediate and low chromatic signals) at expectancy levels
246 ($p \geq 0.009$). Adults, on the other hand, occupied two of the most darker available shelters (i.e.
247 those ones with the lowest achromatic signals), gray 1 ($p < 0.0001$) and gray 2 ($p = 0.0001$),
248 significantly more than expected by chance, while occupied the most brighter available shelter
249 (i.e. the one with the highest achromatic signal), gray 6 ($p = 0.0010$), significantly less than

250 expected. Adults occupied all other shelters (i.e. those with more intermediate achromatic
251 signals) at expectancy levels ($p \geq 0.0435$).

252

253 [Insert figure 5 about here]

254

255 **4. Discussion**

256 Our study is the first to employ visual modeling to study color preference in
257 *Macrobrachium rosenbergii*. The computation of quantum catches, for prawn's visual system,
258 enabled us to choose blue, green, yellow and orange stimuli, that satisfied two criteria: 1)
259 differed chromatically from the gray shelters, presenting a very high or a very low chromatic
260 signal; and 2) exhibited more intermediate brightness levels, when compared to gray stimuli.
261 Our visual model showed that, for the prawns, the blue shelter presented a chromaticity very
262 different from the chromaticity of the green, the yellow and the orange shelters. On the other
263 hand, the green, the yellow and the orange shelters were very similar in chromaticity for the
264 prawns, probably due to a dichromatic color vision maintained by the interaction of two
265 different types of photoreceptors (Jacobs, 1996). Nevertheless, we must emphasize that our
266 results should be interpreted with caution, since it is not already established if the visual
267 system of *M. rosenbergii* works through chromatic opposition.

268 Our prediction that adult subjects would prefer longer wavelength colors (i.e. yellow
269 or orange shelters) was not corroborated, since juveniles preferred blue shelters, while adults
270 preferred darker ones. In our study, the stimulus that caught juvenile's attention (i.e. the blue
271 shelter) was similar in brightness, and chromatically different, from other colored stimuli (i.e.
272 green, yellow, and orange shelters), which were disfavored. This is a strong indication that the
273 blue preference shown by juveniles was based on color alone, not brightness, which is the
274 first indication of color vision in these animals. Adult preference, on the other hand, was

275 probably based on brightness, since different neutral stimuli (gray shelters) were very similar
276 in chromaticity and very different in brightness. Still, our results are not enough to determine
277 whether adult *M. rosenbergii* enjoy color vision, since there is a possibility that they prefer
278 darker shelters despite of a color vision sense. In fact, it has already been reported that adults
279 favor the occupancy of shaded areas of the pond (Karplus & Harpaz, 1990) and that the use of
280 shelters by this species might be linked to a light avoidance behavior (Costa & Arruda, 2016).
281 So, the preference for darker shelters by adults, in our study, may be explained by a tendency
282 to avoid light expressed by the species, which should facilitate their escape from predators
283 (Dabbagh & Kamrani, 2011). This preference for darker shelters has also been observed in
284 other species of the genus *Macrobrachium* (Balasundaram, Jeyachitra, & Balamurugan, 2004;
285 Mariappan & Balasundaram, 2003).

286 The ontogenetic changes in color preference exhibited by our animals, from blue to
287 dark gray, are consistent with what has been found in less controlled experiments performed
288 by other laboratories (Juarez, Holtschmit, Salmeron, & Smith, 1987; Kawamura et al., 2017;
289 Kawamura et al., 2016; Kawamura et al., 2018; Yong et al., 2018), however, our data
290 demonstrate that these shifts in color preference seem to occur later in life. Regarding the
291 preference of juveniles, our findings are in line with what has been shown for the color
292 preference of the larvae of *M. rosenbergii* in studies employing different colors of beads
293 (Kawamura et al., 2016) and feed (Yong et al., 2018). Similarly, the preference for darker
294 stimuli by our adult subjects is in line with what has been verified in previous studies that
295 tested post-larvae of *M. rosenbergii* (Kawamura et al., 2017), which were shown to prefer
296 black shelters over blue or green ones, and juveniles (Juarez et al., 1987), that preferred black
297 over blue or white substrates. Kawamura et al. (2020), on the other hand, report that the
298 yellow background was the most preferred by larvae and was avoided by post-larvae. The
299 authors also claim that larvae preferred brighter backgrounds, while post-larvae preferred

300 darker ones. However, these authors were unable to satisfactorily consider the animal's own
301 visual system, since nothing was done to assess the chromaticity of the different stimuli.

302 The discrepancies found between our results and previous studies might result from
303 the lack of precise control over stimuli and also from methodological differences. For
304 instance, Kawamura et al. (2017), Kawamura et al. (2020) and Juarez et al. (1987) tested *M.*
305 *rosenbergii* in groups, while we adopted individual testing. We know these animals are
306 aggressive from a young age (Silva & Arruda, 2015), and since Kawamura et al. (2017)
307 reported agonistic interactions among their experimental individuals, we can't rule out the
308 possibility that their results were biased by hierarchy. For example, in a group context, it is
309 plausible to imagine that a prawn might have avoided occupying a preferred spot that was
310 already occupied by a more dominant individual, forcing it to opt for a suboptimal choice.

311 Hierarchy can even influence the expression of vision-related genes. Aziz, Rahi,
312 Hurwood and Mather (2018) compared gene expression of the three morphotypes found in
313 populations of *M. rosenbergii* and found higher expression levels of long wavelength opsin
314 genes in the eyestalk and hepatopancreas of small males, which are the most subordinate
315 morphotype. Hence, they suggest that small males could present a better color discrimination,
316 which would help avoiding dominant and subdominant morphotypes, that carry blue and
317 orange claws, respectively. In addition, Santos et al. (2015) noticed a difference in color
318 preference between sex, verifying that females preferred red and orange shelters, while males
319 preferred black ones. Since we did not sex our prawns, and neither did Juarez et al. (1987),
320 Kawamura et al. (2017) or Kawamura et al. (2020), we should not rule out sex bias as a
321 possible explanation for the ontogenetic discrepancies found between studies. Additional
322 behavioral studies should be encouraged, with careful control of stimuli's chromaticity and
323 brightness, in order to study the development of a preference for chromatic and achromatic

324 cues in males and females of *M. rosenbergii* and to elucidate whether adults have color
325 vision.

326 In conclusion, our results strongly indicate that *M. rosenbergii* uses chromaticity alone
327 to distinguish between stimuli. Juveniles show a higher preference for blue shelters, which is
328 based on chromaticity, since, according to our visual model, other shelters with comparable
329 brightness were not preferred by the animals in the same way. Later in life, prawns direct their
330 preference to darker shelters, and avoid brighter ones, which seems to be based, mostly, on
331 brightness cues. We suggest that farmers should provide blue shelters for juveniles and dark
332 shelters for adults, to favor shelter occupancy, which can improve productivity and animal
333 welfare.

334

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348

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491

492 **Figure legends**

493

494 Figure 1. Schematic view of the arrangement of shelters in an experimental aquarium. The
495 prawns were individually tested in aquaria with 10 colored shelters arranged in two rows of
496 five.

497

498 Figure 2. Reflectance spectra of experimental shelters. The reflectance of each curve is
499 represented as a percentage, compared to the maximum reflectance of the most reflective
500 curve. Each curve is represented approximately the same color as the respective shelter.

501

502 Figure 3. Illuminant spectrum of the experimental room. Illumination was provided by two
503 fluorescent lamps.

504

505 Figure 4. Chromaticity-luminance diagram for the visual system of prawns. Inferred
506 chromatic and achromatic signals, determined for a perfect white surface (asterisk) and for
507 shelters employed in our experiments (squares), are represented. Distance between squares
508 indicate color and brightness difference in chromatic and achromatic signal axes, respectively.

509 Shorter λ = shorter wavelengths (e.g. blues); Longer λ = longer wavelengths (e.g. yellows).

510

511 Figure 5. Preference for shelters of different colors by juveniles and adults of giant river
512 prawns (*M. rosenbergii*). The bars represent the number of records of occupancy for each
513 shelter. Black bars represent shelters that were chosen significantly above expectancy level.
514 Gray bars represent shelters chosen at expected frequencies. The white bar represents a shelter
515 chosen significantly below expectancy levels.

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