Flies exploit predictable perspectives and backgrounds to enhance iridescent signal salience and mating success

Thomas E. White^{1,3}, Nina Vogel-Ghibely¹, and Nathan J. Butterworth²

¹School of Life and Environmental Sciences, The University of Sydney, Sydney, Australia 2106

²Centre for Sustainable Ecosystem Solutions, School of Earth, Atmospheric, and Life Sciences,

University of Wollongong, Wollongong, NSW, 2522, Australia

³ Corresponding author.

E-mail: thomas.white@sydney.edu.au

Keywords: communication, structural color, sexual selection, vision, Muscidae

Word count (excluding abstract): 4024

Number of figures: 4

Number of tables: 3

Supplementary information: Supplementary figure and video

MS type: Natural History Miscellany Note

ABSTRACT

Communication requires both the encoding of information and its effective transmission, but little is known about display traits that primarily serve to enhance efficacy. Here we examined the visual courtships of *Lispe cana*, a cursorial fly that lives and mates in heterogeneous foreshores, and tested the prediction that males should seek to enhance signal salience and consequent fitness through the flexible choice of display locations. We show that courting males access the field of view of females by straddling them and holding their wings closed, before moving ahead to present their structurally colored faces in ritualized dances. Males preferentially present these UV-white signals against darker backgrounds, and the magnitude of contrast predicts female attention, which in turn predict mating success. Our results demonstrate a striking interplay between the physical and attentional manipulation of receivers and reveal novel routes to the enhancement of signal efficacy in noisy environments.

Introduction

Communication requires the effective transmission and reception of information in complex natural environments. Selection has favored diverse solutions to this basic challenge, which are showcased among the visual ornaments and displays of animals (Dalrymple et al. 2018; Maia et al. 2013; Girard et al. 2015; White 2018). The functions of traits involved in sexual communication are twofold. Namely; to encode information relevant to mate choice and assessment (i.e. signal content) and ensure its effective transmission and reception (i.e. signal efficacy). Extensive work on content has shown how color signals and (to a lesser extent) behaviors can encode information on benefits to potential mates, and are the targets of pre-copulatory choice (Brooks and Endler 2001; Kemp 2008a; Kemp 2008b; Barry et al. 2015). This is well illustrated in the literature on pigmentary color expression and individual condition. The production of carotenoid-based signals, for example, can be physiologically tied to past or present body condition, reproductive and parental quality, and/or immune function, and so offer an honest guide to aspects of mate quality (Weaver et al. 2018). Less is known, however, about the features of displays that act primarily in the service of efficacy.

Most signalling traits are multifunctional (Candolin 2003; Bro-Jørgensen 2010). In addition to encoding information, color patterns and displays may capture attention (Ord and Stamps 2008), amplify the conspicuousness of other traits (Smith et al. 2009), or modify the content of co-expressed signals (Endler et al. 2014). Traits that serve such purposes are not the target of choice but are nonetheless key determinants of attractiveness. This is particularly true in heterogeneous environments which will modify, and set limits on, the salience of signals, and the outcomes of selection for efficacy under such conditions are broadly predictable. In evolutionary terms, signal forms that best cut through noise to stimulate receivers will be favored (Dusenbery

1992). Structural colors, which arise from the selective reflection of light by nano-scale structures, offer one such solution since they are capable of generating uniquely broad, rich, and dynamic color palettes (Greenewalt et al. 1960; Vigneron and Simonis 2010; White et al. 2012; Maia et al. 2013), and are evolutionarily labile (Maia et al. 2013; Wasik et al. 2014). Of particular interest to this study is their potential for extreme chromaticity and brightness, which are valuable for maximizing basic features of efficacy such as signal conspicuousness (Schultz et al. 2008) and detectability (Schultz and Fincke 2009) in the wild. In ecological terms, environmental complexity can drive flexible behavioral solutions that improve the signal-to-noise ratio. These include the precise behavioral delivery of signals (White et al. 2015; Simpson and McGraw 2018), varying the timing and duration of displays (Poesel et al. 2006), and selecting optimal locations for courtship (Endler and Thery 1996).

Flies possess a suite of color-producing mechanisms and display behaviors and so offer excellent, albeit underutilized, opportunities for exploring questions of signal evolution (Marshall 2012). The genus *Lispe* is a cursorial group of muscids that spend much of their life on or near the ground in littoral habitats (Pont 2019). This includes courtship, during which males pursue and physically straddle walking females before presenting their iridescent faces and wings in ritualized 'dances' (Frantsevich and Gorb 2006; Pont 2019). Though excellent work continues to document the structure of these and related displays (Spofford and Kurczewski 1985; Frantsevich and Gorb 2006; Jones et al. 2017; Butterworth et al. 2019), it is not known whether or how such colors and behaviors serve to effectively transmit information to mates. Given that the visual structure of seaweed-dominated foreshores will vary over short temporal and spatial scales (e.g. with tides), theory predicts functional links between signal structure and display behaviors to enhance signal salience (Lythgoe 1979; Dusenbery 1992). Specifically, selection should favor male color traits

that are reliably conspicuous to conspecifics in their surrounds, and/or which are delivered via flexible behaviors for exploiting locally optimal conditions.

Here we examine the courtship displays of the fly Lispe cana with a view to testing how signal structure and display behavior mediate communication efficacy and mating success. *Lispe* cana is a species endemic to Australia that inhabits supralittoral (foreshore) habitats spanning the east coast. Males and females have striking structurally-colored 'white' and 'yellow' faces (Fig. 1), respectively, that are weakly iridescent across lateral viewing angles and more strongly so in the dorsevental plane (unpublished data). They are active predators of other ground-dwelling invertebrates and they live, hunt, and mate on shorelines (ca. 0-5 m from the waterline) which are often populated by patchy distributions of seaweed and detritus (Fig. 1). The casual observation of courtship in this species shows that smaller (5.5 - 7 mm body length) males approach and straddle the larger (6.5 - 8 mm) females from behind, and hold the female's wings closed using their forelegs (Fig. 2 a-b; supplementary video). Males maintain this position as females continue to move about the environment. After a time, males rapidly move in front of females and present their iridescent faces and wings in ritualized displays that consist of erratic movements around the female's head at very close distance (Fig. 2c). These displays then typically terminate when females lose interest and disperse, or when males re-mount and mate with receptive females (Fig. 2d). This presents ecologically tractable opportunities to examine the predicted links between signal structure and signalling behavior in the service of efficacy, since the initial straddling of mates implies the potential for males to optimize the timing and location of displays given their largely shared field of view. In a field-based assay, we thus quantified the visual structure of signals and signalling environments and tested the prediction that males should seek to maximize the conspicuousness of their facial signals within their dynamic visual habitats to enhance mating success.

Methods

Sampling courtships, flies, and visual backgrounds

We recorded 42 independent courtships of *L. cana* using a GoPro Hero 6 at either 30 or 60 fps in the field. From these we extracted the duration of the straddling and display phase of each courtship, which are readily identified by eye (Fig. 2b-c). We also estimated the male-female alignment and elevation of straddling males in three haphazardly selected frames from each courtship sequence, which we averaged. Alignment was taken as the angle between male and female midlines (e.g. with 0 indicating complete alignment) as measured from points on the center of their heads and abdomens from top-down video. Similarly, male elevation was taken as the angle between male and female midlines from a lateral view. We were unable to extract complete data for nine courtship sequences due to a lack of suitable viewing geometries.

All courtships were recorded within a 6 m² region of the supralittoral zone of Toowoon Bay, NSW, Australia, on clear days between 1100 and 1300. We used a fixed region for our observations so that we could subsequently sample the entirety of the visual environment for analysis (detailed below), and restricted the observation period to hold the sun's azimuth approximately constant, and so minimize any effects of light-source directionality on variation in signal appearance and display behavior. Flies typically dispersed outside the observation area at the conclusion of a display, minimizing the risk of repeated recordings, and the few that did remain were not intentionally observed again. Following each display, we noted whether the interaction resulted in copulation, and collected a sample of the nearest piece of background material within 150 mm directly behind the courting male. If no such material was present, we took sand to be the

relevant visual background. At the conclusion of the experiment we also gathered all material within the 6 m² observation area as a representative sample of the all possible visual backgrounds available to males. From these we collected reflectance measurements at three evenly spaced points along the length of each piece of material using the general method described below and averaged them. We also photographed the focal area at the conclusion of the experiment and estimated the proportional area of open sand using Adobe Photoshop CC (v20.0.6), before collecting haphazardly-selected samples for spectral measurement. By systematically collecting and measuring all material within the area of observation, and including spectral samples of sand proportional to its availability, we also approximately accounted for the relative abundance of potential viewing backgrounds in our analyses of background selection and bias (detailed below).

We also separately collected 17 male and 20 female flies and recorded the reflectance of their facial coloration to calculate a population-average estimate of facial coloration for use in our analyses of signal/background contrast. This was necessary because the rapid dispersal of flies at the conclusion of courtship meant we were unable to sample the observed courting pairs described above. We used an OceanOptics Jaz UV-VIS spectrometer with a pulsed xenon light source, set to an integration time of 50 ms with a boxcar width of five. We used a 400 um bifurcated probe oriented normal to the plane of each fly's face to capture the entirety of its ca. 5 mm² area, and recorded and averaged two measurements per individual. When measuring background material, we instead used a measurement geometry of 0° illumination and 45° collection to minimize specular reflections from damp surfaces. A spectralon 99% diffuse reflector (Labsphere, New Hampshire) and black velvet served as our light and dark standards, respectively, and we recalibrated between each measurement. Finally, we binned the resulting spectra at 1 nm intervals

and applied some minor locally weighted scatterplot (LOESS) smoothing ($\alpha = 0.15$) prior to analysis.

Visual modelling

We used an early-stage (i.e. retinal-level) model of muscid color vision to estimate the subjective color and luminance contrasts of male *Lispe* faces against presentation backgrounds. We drew on the receptor sensitivities of *Musca domestica* as the closest available relative of *Lispe*, and assumed the involvement of R7p, R8p, R7y, and R8y photoreceptors in chromatic processing, and R1-6 receptors in achromatic processing (Hardie 1986; Troje 1993). For chromatic contrasts, we drew on the model of Troje (Troje 1993) and estimated receptor quantum catches as the integrated product of receptor sensitivity, stimulus reflectance, and a standard-daylight illuminant. We then calculated the difference in relative stimulation between R7y-R8y and R7p-R8p receptors as putative opponent channels that define the location of a given stimulus in dipteran colorspace (Fig. 1, right side), and chromatic contrasts were taken as the Euclidean distance between stimuli in this space. We estimated luminance contrast as the Weber contrast of fly faces against their backgrounds, with quantum catches calculated as above albeit using the R1-6 receptor absorbance. All spectral processing, analysis, and visual modelling was carried out using the package package 'pavo' v2.2 in R v3.5.2 (Maia and White 2018; R Core Team 2018; Maia et al. 2019).

Statistical analyses

We first tested whether male flies display against visual backgrounds non-randomly with respect to their signal contrast. We used a bootstrap test which, for a given run, entailed drawing 42 backgrounds with replacement from the total pool of background material collected from the observation area, before calculating the mean of the chromatic and achromatic contrasts of the average male face against each item. We repeated these 5000 times, thereby generating a null distribution of contrasts that represent the probability of observing a given mean chromatic or achromatic contrast value under the assumption that males display against backgrounds at random. We then calculated the probability of attaining our observed chromatic and achromatic contrast values given this null expectation and used Cohen's d (the difference between sample and null means, divided by the pooled standard deviation) as an estimate of the magnitude of any difference between observed and null-distributed contrast values.

We then examined the effects of signal contrast and two proxy measures of female attention on mating success using generalized linear models in a restricted maximum likelihood information-theoretic framework (Anderson and Burnham 2004). We took the duration of male displays as a between-courtship measure of attention, because when males release females and move to present their facial signals (Fig. 2b-c) the duration of the subsequent display is largely under female control. Females are free to disperse at any point during the male display and so terminate it, which is indeed the most common outcome of a courtship interaction (Fig. 2d). Our second, within-courtship, measure of female attention drew on the fact that females repeatedly reorient themselves in brief, saccadic movements during male displays (supplementary video). We therefore calculated the proportion of these reorientations that were directed toward displaying males, as defined by a reduction in the angle between the female midline and male head. A value of one indicates that all female movements were toward males during their displays, while a value of zero means that females consistently oriented away from displaying males. Of course, these are only approximate measures, but the above rationale, and the correlation of both measures

(Pearson's r = 0.33, $t_{40} = 2.22$, p = 0.03), suggest that they collectively capture relevant aspects of female attention.

We specified a global model with mating success as a binomial response (with logit link function), and included male display duration, the proportion of female reorientations toward displaying males, and chromatic and achromatic signal contrast as main effects. We examined all models containing linear combinations of these predictors along with an intercept-only null model and ranked them according to Akaike's Information Criterion (AICc, adjusted for small sample sizes). We calculated the R^2 for the most parsimonious model(s), as approximated by a Δ AICc of < 2 (Anderson and Burnham 2004).

We also examined the effect of signal contrasts and straddling duration on both the duration of male displays, and the proportion of female orientations toward displaying males (i.e. female attention). We modelled display duration as a Gaussian response (with identity link function) and female orientations as a binomial response (with logit link) and included chromatic and achromatic signal contrasts and the duration of the straddling phase as main effects in both models. We visually confirmed the assumptions of normality among residuals and homogeneous variance structures for all models and used the package 'MuMIn' v1.43.6 (Bartoń 2013) for all model selection in R (R Core Team 2018). Data underlying our analyses are available are deposited in the Dryad Digital Repository: https://doi.org/10.5061/dryad.hdr7sqvcs (White et al. 2019).

Results

During courtship male *L. cana* pursue lone females before straddling them and holding their wings closed with their forelegs (Fig. 2). While in this position, males are slightly elevated

 $(29.4 \pm 7.5^{\circ})$ and closely aligned with the body axis of females $(2.1 \pm 1.4^{\circ})$, and are afforded direct access to the female's field of view (Fig. 2b). This straddling phase lasted 1.58 - 16.53 seconds, after which females were released by males who then repeatedly ran in close semi-circles in front of females as part of a ritualized display (supplementary video; also see Frantsevich and Gorb 2006; Butterworth et al. 2019 for comparable examples). During these display phases which lasted 0.76 - 11.60 seconds, male *L. cana* preferentially presented themselves against backgrounds that generated strong achromatic (p < 0.001, d = 3.363) and chromatic (bootstrap p = 0.047, d = 1.744) contrast with their facial coloration (Fig. A1). That is, their faces appear much brighter and slightly more colorful to conspecifics than would be expected if they were displaying at random within their visual environments.

The most parsimonious model of mating success (12/42 courtships) indicated a strong positive contribution of both of our included measures of female attention; the total duration of male displays, and the proportion of female orientations toward displaying males (Table 1; Table 2). It clearly outperformed the null $((w_1 + w_2)/w_{\text{null}}) > 700$, and was approximately three times as informative as the second and third best models that included the additional effects of chromatic contrast (Δ AICc = 2.15, w_1/w_2 = 2.93) and achromatic contrast (Δ AICc = 2.44, w_1/w_3 = 3.38), respectively. This suggests that female attention (as measured via male display duration and female orientations) directly mediates mating success (Fig. 3), which is further supported by the predictive relationship between achromatic, but not chromatic, signal contrast and both display duration and female orientations (Table 3; Fig. 4). The effect of signal/background luminance contrast on mating success is thus almost entirely driven by its influence on female attention. That is, males which presented more contrasting signals through the selective use of backgrounds were able to display longer and better held females' focus, which improved mating success. Finally, we found

no effect of straddle duration on display duration or female orientations (Table 4), indicating that the duration of the two courtship phases is unrelated and, more broadly, that female receptivity during straddling and display phases is unrelated.

Discussion

Selection has generated myriad solutions to the challenge of communicating amidst noise, with animals varying the location (Endler and Thery 1996), timing (Poesel et al. 2006), and behavioral delivery (White 2017; Simpson and McGraw 2018) of signals to ensure their effective reception. Here we reveal novel links between a structural color signal and its behavioral presentation, which in part relies on the exploitation of the receiver's predictable field of view. Male *Lispe cana* straddle and align themselves with females during courtship, before releasing and displaying their conspicuously colored faces in a ritualized dance (Fig. 2). Males preferentially display against darker backgrounds which enhances visual contrast (Fig. A1), leading to longer display times overall and increased female attention toward male signals (Fig. 4) and, in turn, enhanced mating success (Fig. 3). Our results suggest that males are flexibly exploiting females' perspectives and visual environments to enhance the attractiveness of their complex displays and, hence, mating success.

The courtships of *L. cana* reveal a striking interplay between the physical and attentional manipulation of receivers. When straddling, males physically impede females from flying, and the independence of straddling and display durations suggests that it proceeds until either (the consistently larger) females forcefully disengage males, or males release to display (Table 1). Whether males have any control over the mobility of walking females, or present an encumbrance

at all, is unclear, though the near-constant movement of females (pers. observation) means that diverse display locations may be passively sampled within a short time. Once males do release then females are physically free to leave, which necessitates the capturing of female attention during signalling to ensure further receptivity and mating. The predictive relationships between facial contrast and female attention (Fig. 3), and female attention and mating success (Fig. 4), suggest a central role for male signals and presentation behaviors in maintaining the focus and receptivity of females amidst cluttered visual environments. The structurally generated UV-white color of male faces will, by definition, maximize luminance contrast among the desaturated hues of surrounding seaweed (Fig. 1; though less so among sand), and their flexible display behaviors, combined with predictable knowledge of viewer perspectives, allow for the exploitation of locally optimal conditions. Thus, males presenting greater luminance contrast are afforded longer displays by viewing females as well as greater female attention during their displays, with tangible benefits for mating success.

Several aspects of male displays are likely to further improve salience. For one, the rapid movement of males from outside the female field of view to within it between straddling and display phases (Fig. 2b-c) will generate strong temporal contrast. This may be amplified by the adaptation of female receptors to visual backgrounds immediately prior to seeing the male display, since the fastest component of receptor adaptation takes less than a second (Smirnakis et al. 1997; Shevell 2001; Baccus and Meister 2002). The continual, erratic movement of males during displays will also sweep out a larger area of the female's retina (supplementary video; unpublished data), further enhancing its salience. Analogous display features are described in male great bowerbirds *Ptilonorhynchus nuchalis*, which offer an illustrative comparison. Males construct bowers and exploit the fixed perspective of females to induce a visual illusion, the quality of which

is predictive of male mating success (Kelley and Endler 2012). In addition to this focal display males use foraged materials to color the walls of their avenues and also actively flash colored objects across the female's field of view. Though not associated with mating success directly, these latter features serve to increase communication efficacy through the capturing of receiver attention and enhancement of other signals (Kelley and Endler 2012; Endler et al. 2014).

The strong effects of display duration and female orientations on mating success suggests that females may be assessing content-rich features of the male display, since the informational load of a task increases decision times (Chernev et al. 2015; Hemingway et al. 2019). Though not directly explored here, the structurally colored faces of male L. cana are theoretically well-suited conduits of information on mate quality. This coloration is primarily a consequence of light scattering by flattened bristles (Frantsevich and Gorb 2006), which demand close developmental control during metamorphosis for optimal expression (Ghiradella and Butler 2009). Variation in the resulting signal may thus inform potential mates about foraging ability, developmental stability, and/or aspects of genetic 'quality' (Kemp 2008b; Barry et al. 2015). The primacy of luminance over chromatic contrast in our tests (Table 1; Table 2) suggests a role for signal brightness and variation therein as the more salient channel. It is also consistent with the relatively under-developed color sense of flies, which instead tend to draw on luminance to guide the identification and categorization of stimuli (Troje 1993; Lunau 2014). Though luminance is a less reliable cue than hue in natural environments, it is a known channel of sexual communication in several insect species (Kemp 2008a; Kemp 2008b; Barry et al. 2015). Well-described examples include the mantid *Pseudomantis albofimbriata* in which the brightness of females abdomens is tied to their current condition and is the focus of male choice (Barry et al. 2015), and the butterfly

Eurema hecabe, wherein the intensity of male UV wing coloration encodes information on larval resource acquisition (Kemp 2008b; Kemp 2008a).

Despite the plausibility of L. cana's faces as informative signals, we found no direct relationship between visual contrast and mating success as might be predicted for traits under selection for such a purpose. There are several reasons for this. For one, the role of any given trait may be to hold attention, as our results show is at least partly the case (Fig. 4), with others acting as more direct indicators of mate quality. The iridescent wing interference patterns of male L. cana that are actively presented during displays offer one such candidate trait, and emerging evidence suggests these patterns are both widespread among flies and may be subject to sexual selection (Katayama et al. 2014; Hawkes et al. 2019). A closely related possibility is that male facial coloration is an amplifier (Hasson 1991; Byers et al. 2010), which serves to make the direct targets of choice easier to discern or assess. Alternately, if male facial coloration is instead a signal of species or sex recognition, as suggested by the striking sexual dimorphism (Fig. 1) and variation in facial coloration among sympatric species (Pont 2019), then female preferences may be expressed as a simple threshold function. That is, the trait may have to be above a certain value to be effective, but variation beyond that will be irrelevant. Finally, and more specific to this study, is the fact that we averaged facial reflectance across a sample of flies that were not observed in the focal courtships themselves, which prevents us from assessing the direct contribution of individual-level signal variation (in addition to behavioral variation) to mating success.

Environments frequently modify, and set limits on, the salience of sexual displays. Here we describe an innovative solution to this problem that relies on the physical and attentional manipulation of viewers. By adopting the perspective of receivers during courtship, male flies are able to select locally optimal display locations to enhance the salience of their sexual signals and

consequent mating success. More broadly, our results suggest that conspicuous signals and flexible

display behaviors can arise in response to environmental heterogeneity. Display site properties will

vary between habitats, however, which may mediate local adaptation and sexual isolation. This

will be most pronounced between habitats that vary acutely in relevant aspects of structural

complexity, such as the reliably seaweed-laden foreshore of our focal population, and the barren

beaches of nearby populations. This presents intriguing opportunities for illuminating the role of

sexual communication in diversification, for which tractable groups such as *Lispe* hold excellent

promise.

Acknowledgements

TEW thanks Elizabeth Mulvenna and Cormac White for their support. TEW also thanks Hannah Rowland

for the salient observation of parallels between Lispe and bowerbirds, which sparked closer consideration

of a fly's view of courtship. We appreciate the thoughtful comments of Professor Edmund Brodie and two

anonymous reviewers, whose input has materially improved the clarity and robustness of this work.

Funding: No funding to report.

Appendix A

[Figure A1 goes here]

[Video A1 goes here]

16

Literature Cited

- Anderson, D., and K. Burnham. 2004. Model selection and multi-model inference. Springer-Verlag, New York, USA.
- Baccus, S. A., and M. Meister. 2002. Fast and slow contrast adaptation in retinal circuitry. Neuron 36:909–919.
- Barry, K. L., T. E. White, D. N. Rathnayake, S. A. Fabricant, and M. E. Herberstein. 2015. Sexual signals for the colour-blind: Cryptic female mantids signal quality through brightness. Functional Ecology 29:531–539.
- Bartoń, K. 2013. MuMIn: Multi-model inference, R package version 1.9.13.
- Bro-Jørgensen, J. 2010. Dynamics of multiple signalling systems: Animal communication in a world in flux. Trends in Ecology & Evolution 25:292–300.
- Brooks, R., and J. A. Endler. 2001. Direct and indirect sexual selection and quantitative genetics of male traits in guppies (*Poecilia reticulata*). Evolution 55:1002–1015.
- Butterworth, N. J., P. G. Byrne, and J. F. Wallman. 2019. The blow fly waltz: Field and laboratory observations of novel and complex dipteran courtship behavior. Journal of Insect Behavior 32:101-119.
- Byers, J., E. Hebets, and J. Podos. 2010. Female mate choice based upon male motor performance. Animal Behaviour 79:771–778.
- Candolin, U. 2003. The use of multiple cues in mate choice. Biological Reviews 78:575–595.
- Chernev, A., U. Böckenholt, and J. Goodman. 2015. Choice overload: A conceptual review and meta-analysis. Journal of Consumer Psychology 25:333–358.
- Dalrymple, R. L., Flores- Moreno, H., Kemp, D. J., White, T. E., Laffan, S. W., Hemmings, F.
 A., Hitchcock, T. D., and A. T. Moles (2018). Abiotic and biotic predictors of macroecological patterns in bird and butterfly coloration. Ecological Monographs 88:204-224.
- Dusenbery, D. B. 1992. Sensory ecology: How organisms acquire and respond to information. WH Freeman, New York, USA.

- Endler, J. A., J. Gaburro, and L. A. Kelley. 2014. Visual effects in great bowerbird sexual displays and their implications for signal design Proceedings of the Royal Society B 281:20140235.
- Endler, J. A., and M. Thery. 1996. Interacting effects of lek placement, display behavior, ambient light, and color patterns in three neotropical forest-dwelling birds. The American Naturalist 148:421–452.
- Frantsevich, L., and S. Gorb. 2006. Courtship dances in the flies of the genus lispe (diptera: Muscidae): From the fly's viewpoint. Archives of Insect Biochemistry and Physiology 62:26–42.
- Ghiradella, H. T., and M. W. Butler. 2009. Many variations on a few themes: A broader look at development of iridescent scales (and feathers). Journal of the Royal Society Interface 6.
- Girard, M. B., D. O. Elias, and M. M. Kasumovic. 2015. Female preference for multi-modal courtship: Multiple signals are important for male mating success in peacock spiders. Proceedings of the Royal Society B: Biological Sciences 282:20152222.
- Greenewalt, C. H., W. Brandt, and D. D. Friel. 1960. Iridescent colors of hummingbird feathers. JOSA 50:1005–1013.
- Hardie, R. C. 1986. The photoreceptor array of the dipteran retina. Trends in Neurosciences 9:419–423.
- Hasson, O. 1991. Sexual displays as amplifiers: Practical examples with an emphasis on feather decorations. Behavioral Ecology 2:189–197.
- Hawkes, M., E. Duffy, R. Joag, A. Skeats, J. Radwan, Wedell N., Sharma M. D., Hosken D. J., and J. Troscianko 2019. Sexual selection drives the evolution of male wing interference patterns. Proceedings of the Royal Society B 286:20182850.
- Hemingway, C. T., A. M. Lea, R. A. Page, and M. J. Ryan. 2019. Effects of information load on response times in frogs and bats: Mate choice vs. Prey choice. Behavioral Ecology and Sociobiology 73:111.
- Jones, S. D., P. G. Byrne, and J. F. Wallman. 2017. Exploring the influence of individual courtship behaviors on male mating success in a blow fly. Journal of Insect Behavior 30:528–543.

- Katayama, N., J. K. Abbott, J. Kjærandsen, Y. Takahashi, and E. I. Svensson. 2014. Sexual selection on wing interference patterns in drosophila melanogaster. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the USA 111:15144–15148.
- Kelley, L. A., and J. A. Endler. 2012. Illusions promote mating success in great bowerbirds. Science 335:335–338.
- Kemp, D. J. 2008a. Female mating biases for bright ultraviolet iridescence in the butterfly *Eurema hecabe* (pieridae). Behav. Ecol. 19:1–8.
- Kemp, D. J. 2008b. Resource-mediated condition dependance in sexually dichromatic butterfly wing coloration. Evolution 62:2346–2358.
- Lunau, K. 2014. Visual ecology of flies with particular reference to colour vision and colour preferences. Journal of Comparative Physiology A 200:497-512.
- Lythgoe, J. N. 1979. Ecology of vision. Oxford University Press, Oxford, UK.
- Maia, R., H. Gruson, J. A. Endler, and T. E. White. 2019. Pavo 2: New tools for the spectral and spatial analysis of colour in r. Methods in Ecology and Evolution 10:1097–1107.
- Maia, R., D. R. Rubenstein, and M. D. Shawkey. 2013. Key ornamental innovations facilitate diversification in an avian radiation. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences 110:10687–10692.
- Maia, R., and T. E. White. 2018. Comparing colors using visual models. Behavioral Ecology 29:649–659.
- Marshall, S. A. 2012. Flies: the natural history & diversity of Diptera. Firefly Books, Ontario, Canada.
- Ord, T. J., and J. A. Stamps. 2008. Alert signals enhance animal communication in "noisy" environments. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences 105:18830–18835.
- Poesel, A., H. P. Kunc, K. Foerster, A. Johnsen, and B. Kempenaers. 2006. Early birds are sexy: Male age, dawn song and extrapair paternity in blue tits, Cyanistes (formerly parus) caeruleus. Animal Behaviour 72:531–538.
- Pont, A. C. 2019. Studies on the australian muscidae (diptera). VIII. The genus *Lispe* latreille, 1797. Zootaxa 4557:1–232.

- R Core Team. 2018. R: A language and environment for statistical computing. R Foundation for Statistical Computing, Vienna, Austria.
- Schultz, T. D., C. N. Anderson, and L. B. Symes. 2008. The conspicuousness of colour cues in male pond damselflies depends on ambient light and visual system. Animal Behaviour 76:1357–1364.
- Schultz, T. D., and O. M. Fincke. 2009. Structural colours create a flashing cue for sexual recognition and male quality in a neotropical giant damselfly. Functional Ecology 23:724–732.
- Shevell, S. K. 2001. The time course of chromatic adaptation. Color Research & Application 26:S170–S173.
- Simpson, R. K., and K. J. McGraw. 2018. Two ways to display: Male hummingbirds show different color-display tactics based on sun orientation. Behavioral Ecology 29:637–648.
- Smirnakis, S. M., M. J. Berry, D. K. Warland, W. Bialek, and M. Meister. 1997. Adaptation of retinal processing to image contrast and spatial scale. Nature 386:69-73.
- Smith, C. L., D. A. Van Dyk, P. W. Taylor, and C. S. Evans. 2009. On the function of an enigmatic ornament: Wattles increase the conspicuousness of visual displays in male fowl. Animal Behaviour 78:1433–1440.
- Spofford, M., and F. Kurczewski. 1985. Courtship and mating behavior of *Phrosinella aurifacies* downes (diptera: Sarcophagidae: Miltogramminae). Proceedings of the Entomological Society of Washington 87:273-282.
- Troje, N. 1993. Spectral categories in the learning behaviour of blowflies. Zeitschrift fur Naturforschung C 48:96–96.
- Vigneron, J.-P., and P. Simonis. 2010. Structural colours. In Advances in Insect Physiology (Vol. 38, pp. 181–218). Elsevier, Amsterdam, Netherlands.
- Wasik, B. R., S. F. Liew, D. A. Lilien, A. J. Dinwiddie, H. Noh, H. Cao, and A. Monteiro. 2014. Artificial selection for structural color on butterfly wings and comparison with natural evolution. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the USA 111:12109–12114.

- Weaver, R. J., E. S. Santos, A. M. Tucker, A. E. Wilson, and G. E. Hill. 2018. Carotenoid metabolism strengthens the link between feather coloration and individual quality. Nature Communications 9:73.
- White, T. E., N. Vogel-Ghibely, and N. Butterworth. 2019. Data from: Flies exploit predictable perspectives and backgrounds to enhance iridescent signal salience and mating success. American Naturalist, Dryad Digital Repository, https://doi.org/10.5061/dryad.hdr7sqvcs
- White, T. E. 2017. Jewelled spiders manipulate colour-lure geometry to deceive prey. Biology Letters 13:20170027.
- White, T. E. 2018. Illuminating the evolution of iridescence. Trends in Ecology & Evolution 33:374–375.
- White, T. E., J. Macedonia, D. Birch, J. Dawes, and D. J. Kemp. 2012. The nanoanatomical basis of sexual dimorphism in iridescent butterfly colouration. Australian Journal of Zoology 60:101–107.
- White, T. E., J. Zeil, and D. J. Kemp. 2015. Signal design and courtship presentation coincide for highly biased delivery of an iridescent butterfly mating signal. Evolution 69:14–25.

Tables

Table 1: Full model selection table, detailing the relative strength of candidate binomial GLM's for the relationship between mating success and one or more linear combinations of courtship display duration (dur), the proportion of female orientations toward males during displays (orient), and the chromatic (Δ S) and achromatic (Δ L) contrast of male facial coloration against their visual backgrounds.

model	d.f	LL	AICc	ΔΑΙС	W
duration + orient	3	-6.16	19.00	0.00	0.57
duration + orient + ΔS	4	-6.02	21.10	2.15	0.20
duration + orient + ΔL	4	-6.16	21.40	2.44	0.17
duration + orient + $\Delta S + \Delta L$	5	-6.00	23.70	4.72	0.05
orient + ΔL	3	-10.85	28.30	9.37	0.01
orient + $\Delta S + \Delta L$	4	-10.74	30.60	11.60	0.00
orient	2	-13.65	31.60	12.64	0.00
duration	2	-14.76	33.80	14.86	0.00
orient + ΔS	3	-13.63	33.90	14.93	0.00
duration + ΔL	3	-13.84	34.30	15.34	0.00
duration + ΔS	3	-14.67	36.00	17.00	0.00
duration + $\Delta S + \Delta L$	4	-13.77	36.60	17.67	0.00
ΔL	2	-18.64	41.60	22.63	0.00
$\Delta S + \Delta L$	3	-18.63	43.90	24.94	0.00
null (intercept only)	1	-25.13	52.40	33.39	0.00
ΔS	2	-24.85	54.40	35.05	0.00

Table 2: Full results of the leading model of mating success that includes the effects of male display duration and the proportion of female orientations toward males during their displays, drawn from a global binomial GLM that included display duration, female orientations, chromatic contrast, and achromatic contrast as predictors (Table 1).

parameter	estimate	std. err.	Z	p	R ²
intercept	-12.93	4.72	-2.74	< 0.001	0.68
display duration	1.14	0.54	2.10	0.035	
orientations	9.61	3.67	2.62	< 0.001	

Table 3: Results of separate GLM's estimating the effect of chromatic (dS) and achromatic (dL) face/background contrasts, and the duration of the 'straddling' courtship phase on two proxy measures of female attention: the duration of male *L. cana*'s courtship displays, and the proportion of female orientations toward males during their display.

model	parameter	est.	std. err.	t	p	\mathbb{R}^2
display duration ~						
$\Delta S + \Delta L + \text{straddle}$	intercept	3.00	1.30	2.31	0.03	0.33
duration						
	ΔS	-0.66	3.81	-0.17	0.86	
	ΔL	0.13	0.03	4.20	< 0.001	
	straddle dur.	-0.06	0.09	-0.64	0.52	
female orientations ~						
$\Delta S + \Delta L + \text{straddle}$	intercept	-0.81	0.56	-1.44	0.15	0.26
duration						
	ΔS	1.25	1.59	0.79	0.43	
	ΔL	0.05	0.01	3.25	0.001	
	straddle dur.	-0.06	0.04	-1.44	0.15	

Figure Legends

Figure 1: The colorful faces and environments of *Lispe cana*. Pictured are male and female *L cana* and material sampled from their foreshore habitats (left; photo credits NB & TEW), the reflectance spectra of male (grey) and female (yellow) faces and background material (center), and the spectra as represented in a muscid colorspace (right).

Figure 2: Courtship in the cursorial, shore-dwelling muscid fly *Lispe cana*. Male *L. cana* (white head) detect females (yellow head) within their seaweed-dominated habitats and rapidly approach (a), before 'straddling' females from behind and holding their wings closed (b). During this time males are aligned with females $(2.1 \pm 1.4^{\circ} \text{ offset}, 29.4 \pm 7.5^{\circ} \text{ elevation})$, and are thus sharing a field of view (see supplementary video for example courtship). Males then preferentially display against backgrounds that enhance the luminance contrast of their UV-white faces, which leads to improved salience, female attention and subsequent mating success.

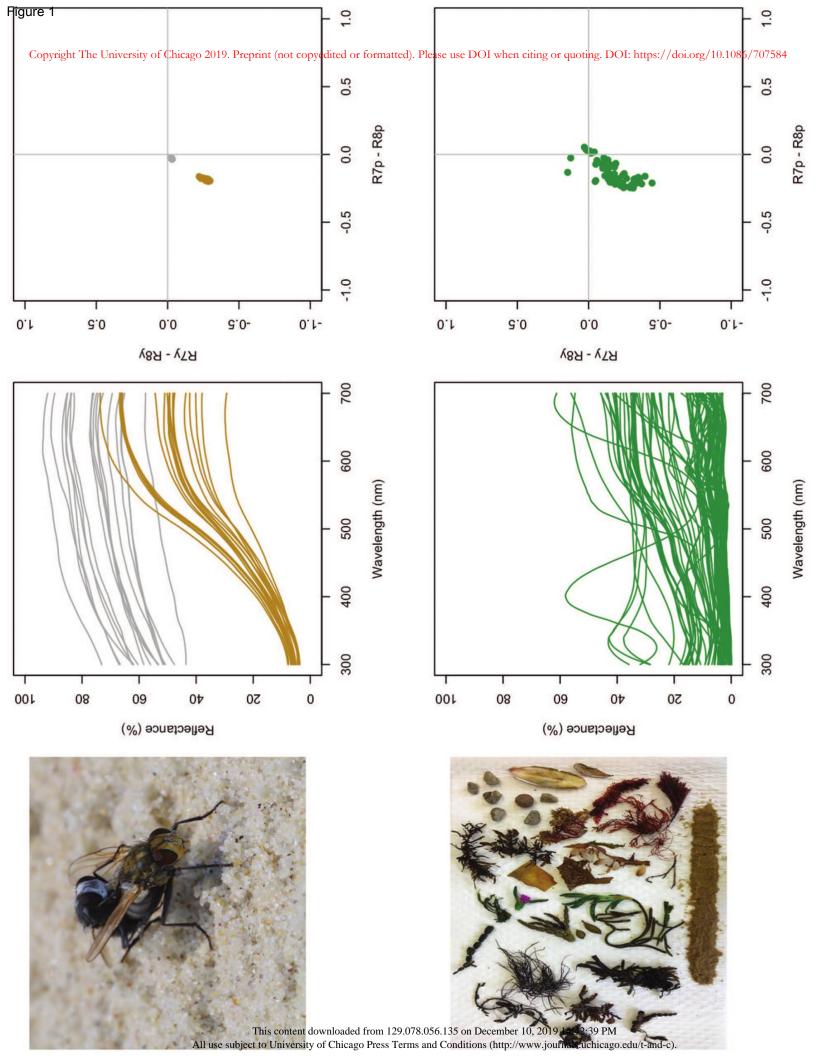
Figure 3: The relationship between two measures of female attention and mating success in *Lispe cana*. Circles represent the presence or absence of mounting following courtship, with the line indicating model fit as estimated by a binomial GLM (Table 2).

Figure 4: The relationship between the chromatic and achromatic facial/background contrast of male *Lispe cana*, male display duration, and female orientations toward displaying males. Solid and dashed lines indicate the best fit \pm 95% CI as estimated by a GLM (table 3).

Figure A1: Male *Lispe cana* present disproportionate facial signal/background contrast. Histograms display the bootstrapped (n = 5000) null distributions of mean chromatic (left) and achromatic (right) facial coloration versus background contrasts expected if male *L. cana* are displaying at random with respect to all available visual backgrounds. Solid and dashed lines denote the mean \pm SD observed contrast values taken from 42 courtships, with p and Cohen's d

values (inset) describing the probably and magnitude of the observed effects under the assumption of random displays.

Supplementary Video A1 legend: Courtship in the muscid fly *Lispe cana*.



(a) Detect

Copyright The University of Chicago 2019. Preprint (not copyedited or formatted), Please use DOI when citing or quoting. DOI: https://doi.org/10.1086/707584

Males detect females and make an approach



(b) Straddle

Males straddle females and hold their wings closed as they move about their foreshore habitat



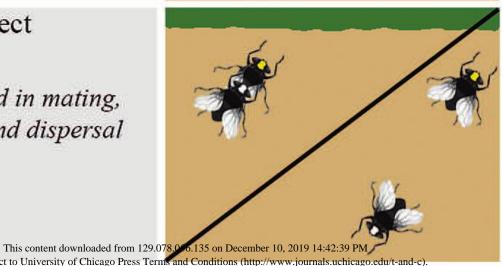
(c) Display

Males move in front of females, and present their iridescent faces via erratic movements



(d) Mate / Reject

Courtships end in mating, or rejection and dispersal



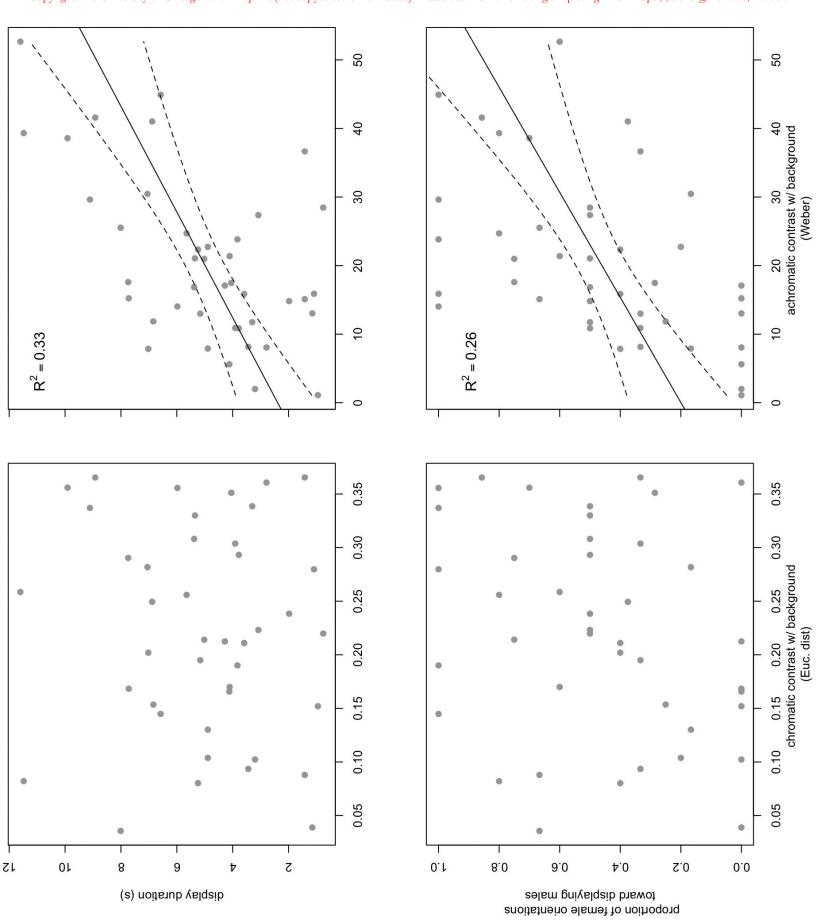
All use subject to University of Chicago Press Terms and Conditions (http://www.journals.uchicago.edu/t-and-cj

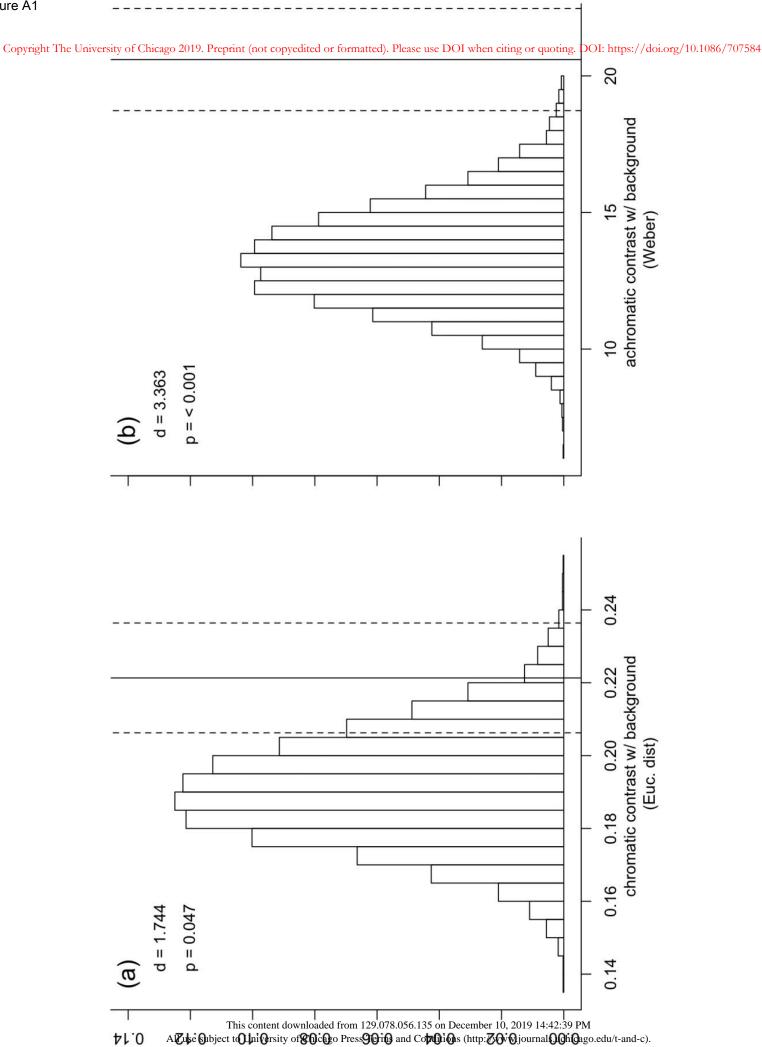
This content downloaded from 129.078.056.135 on December 10, 2019 14:42:39 PM All use subject to University of Chicago Pess Terms and Conditions (http://www.journals.uchicago.edu/t-and-c).

0.0

8.0

9.0





Copyright The University of Chicago 2019. Preprint (not copyedited or formatted). Please use DOI when citing or quoting. DOI: https://doi.org/10.1086/707584

