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1 **Head up displays are a submission signal in the group-living daffodil cichlid**

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15 **ABSTRACT**

16 Dominance hierarchies can reduce conflict within social groups and agonistic signals can help
17 to establish and maintain these hierarchies. Behaviours produced by subordinates in
18 response to aggression are often assumed to function as signals of submission, however,
19 these behaviours may serve other purposes, for example, defence or escape. For a behaviour
20 to act as a submission signal, the receiver must respond by reducing their likelihood of further
21 aggression towards the signaller. In the current study, we examine the receiver response to a
22 putative signal of submission, the head up display, within established social groups of the
23 cooperatively breeding fish, the daffodil cichlid (*Neolamprologus pulcher*). We found that
24 when subordinate signallers produce the head up display in response to aggression from the
25 breeder male, he exhibited a longer latency to behave aggressively towards that individual
26 again. We also report that head up displays are rarely produced without being elicited by
27 aggression, and the number of head up displays correlates with the amount of aggression
28 received. Our results demonstrate that the head up display is used as a signal of submission
29 in the daffodil cichlid and provide insight into intragroup communication in an emerging
30 model system for the study of social behaviour.

31

32 *Keywords:* aggression, communication, cooperative breeding, fish, *Neolamprologus pulcher*,
33 submissive

34

35 **1. Introduction**

36 Group living confers many benefits to those within the group, including but not limited to
37 increased safety from predators (Alexander, 1974; Krause & Ruxton, 2002). Yet, within group
38 conflict may impose sufficient costs on some group members (King, 1973; Krause & Ruxton,
39 2002; Lorenz, 1963) to destabilise social groups or prevent the formation of groups to begin
40 with (Aureli, Cords, & Van Schaik, 2002; de Waal, 1986; Kutsukake & Clutton-Brock, 2008; Silk,
41 2007). Adaptations that mitigate conflict within social groups are a universal feature of
42 animals living in complex social groupings (Aureli & de Waal, 2000). In this context, dominance
43 hierarchies can help to avoid conflict within established social groups by setting priority
44 access to resources without the need for frequent costly aggressive interactions (Bernstein,
45 1981; Drews, 1993; Rowell, 1974; Wilson, 2000). In order to establish and maintain
46 dominance hierarchies, animals make use of both stable markers of social status, for example
47 differences in colouration or markings (Cervo, Dapporto, Beani, Strassmann, & Turillazzi,
48 2008; Chen & Fernald, 2011; Dey, Dale, & Quinn, 2014), and more flexible behavioural
49 indicators of status (Ward & Webster, 2016), with or without individual recognition
50 mechanisms (Dugatkin & Earley, 2004). Signals of agonistic intent help to stabilise dominance
51 hierarchies, and therefore promote group living (Bernstein 1981, Frommen 2020). Submission
52 signals in particular allow subordinate individuals to communicate their lack of motivation to
53 perpetuate or escalate an aggressive interaction against a socially dominant and/or physically
54 superior receiver (Bernstein, 1981; Deag & Scott, 1999; Flack & de Waal, 2007; Petit, 2010).
55 As a result, submission signals are an essential aspect of communication within complex social
56 groups (Bernstein, 1981; Freeberg, Dunbar, & Ord, 2012; Frommen, 2020; Schenkel, 1967),
57 and are widespread throughout the animal kingdom (Balshine, Wong, & Reddon, 2017; Judge

58 & de Waal, 1993; Reddon, Dey, & Balshine, 2019; Sánchez-Hernández, Ramírez-Pinilla, &
59 Molina-Borja, 2012).

60 To act as a signal of submission, a behaviour must reduce the likelihood of further
61 aggression from the receiver (Bradbury & Vehrencamp 1998). For example, in contests
62 between veiled chameleons (*Chamaeleo calyptratus*), the losing individual signals their lack
63 of intention to persist by darkening their body colouration. The receiver reacts to this
64 darkening of the body with a precipitous decrease in further aggression (Ligon, 2014).
65 Similarly, several fish species change their body colouration in response to aggression: for
66 instance, the common blenny (*Lipophrys pholis*) blanch to signal submission, thereby reducing
67 aggression received (Gibson, 1967). Oscars (*Astronotus ocellatus*) defeated in a contest
68 change their body patterns into a uniform dark colouration (Beeching, 1995), while salmon
69 (*Salmo salar*) darken their body and eye colour to indicate submission (O'Connor, Metcalfe,
70 & Taylor, 1999), and in both cases this darkening reduces aggression from the receiver.
71 Signallers may use vocalisations or assume a non-threatening body posture, for example by
72 lowering their ears and tail (Fox, 1969; Leyhausen & Tonkin, 1979) to communicate their
73 submission towards an aggressive individual. In fallow deer (*Dama dama*), the lateral display
74 of the antlers, turning the head away from an opponent by the loser of a contest serves to
75 de-escalate the conflict (Jennings, Gammell, Carlin, & Hayden, 2002). Similarly, in little blue
76 penguins (*Eudyptula minor*), turning the head to look away from an attacker is used as a
77 submission signal (Waas, 1990).

78 However, not all ostensibly submissive behaviours may actually decrease the
79 aggressiveness of the receiver, at least not in all contexts in which the behaviour is produced.
80 In the case of meerkats (*Suricata suricatta*), overly subordinate females receive more
81 aggression from the dominant pair and are most likely to be evicted from the social group,

82 compared to less deferential individuals (Kutsukake & Clutton-Brock, 2008). On the other
83 hand, seemingly submissive behaviours may be used by animals as a defensive tactic during
84 contests to protect a vulnerable part of their body, or even as a way to prepare a
85 counterattack (Pellis & Pellis, 2015). For example, rolling over on to the back and assuming a
86 supine posture, which is a frequent manoeuvre during play fights (Bauer & Smuts, 2007; Fox,
87 1969), also has an apparent submissive function in dogs and wolves (Lorenz, 1943; Schenkel,
88 1967). However, in both dogs (Norman, Pellis, Barrett, & Henzi, 2015) and wolves (Cordoni,
89 2009), this behaviour has been found to be more consistently used as a combat tactic than as
90 a submission signal. Similarly, jacky dragons (*Amphibolurus muricatus*) were found to
91 strategically use the same signals to escalate or de-escalate a conflict, depending on the
92 context of the signals produced by their opponent (Van Dyk & Evans, 2008).

93 The cooperatively breeding cichlid fish *Neolamprologus pulcher*, commonly known as
94 the daffodil cichlid, is a freshwater species endemic to Lake Tanganyika, Africa (Balshine,
95 Neat, Reid, & Taborsky, 1998; M. Taborsky & Limberger, 1981). These small fish form
96 permanent social groups organised into a size-based dominance hierarchy (Wong & Balshine,
97 2011). A group of daffodil cichlids is generally composed of a dominant pair, usually the
98 largest male and female fish, and 1-20 smaller subordinate fish of varying size (Balshine et al.,
99 2001; Desjardins, Fitzpatrick, Stiver, Van der Kraak, & Balshine, 2008; Heg, Brouwer, Bachar,
100 & Taborsky, 2005; M. Taborsky, 1984, 1985). In daffodil cichlid groups, only the dominant pair
101 typically reproduce, while both breeders and subordinates work together to guard and
102 maintain the territory, and take care of the offspring (Wong & Balshine, 2011). Conflicts and
103 agonistic behaviours among group members are well-documented in this species (Balshine et
104 al., 2017; Reddon, Balk, & Balshine, 2013; Reddon et al., 2011). Potential sources of conflict
105 within *N. pulcher* social groups include the availability of suitable shelters (Hick, Reddon,

106 O'Connor, & Balshine, 2014; Reddon et al., 2011) and the distribution of workload among
107 group members (Fischer, Zöttl, Groenewoud, & Taborsky, 2014). The proximity of subordinate
108 individuals to breeding positions is also known to generate competition (Dey et al. 2013), and
109 changes in the hierarchy of a social group may induce aggressiveness in individuals ascending
110 in rank as a way to re-establish dominance relationships (Wong & Balshine, 2010).

111 Previous empirical and theoretical work has established that movement restrictions
112 correlate with the expression of submission signals (Aureli & de Waal, 2000; Huntingford &
113 Turner, 2013; Matsumura & Hayden, 2006; Schenkel, 1967). Submission is more common
114 when the subordinate animal is unable to easily move away from or escape aggression from
115 the dominant individual, for instance, in chameleons, because of their low movement speed
116 (Ligon, 2014). Daffodil cichlids are highly capable swimmers; however, their movements are
117 restricted by their environment. Daffodil cichlids are reliant upon their continued
118 membership within the social group for survival due to the high predation pressure
119 (Groenewoud et al., 2016). So, while daffodil cichlids could escape aggression from a higher
120 ranking group member in the wild, to do so might necessitate leaving the small, sheltered,
121 territory protected by the group and thus risk being depredated (Balshine et al., 2001;
122 Groenewoud et al., 2016; Wong & Balshine, 2011). Hence, there is good reason to assume
123 that submission signals ought to be an important aspect of the social repertoire of this species
124 (Balshine et al., 2017; Reddon et al., 2019). Submissive behaviours may prevent aggression
125 from higher ranking group members (Bergmüller & Taborsky, 2005; Fischer, Bohn,
126 Oberhammer, Nyman, & Taborsky, 2017; Fischer et al., 2014), and increase the likelihood that
127 a subordinate may be accepted as part of the group (B. Taborsky, Arnold, Junker, & Tschopp,
128 2012). Thus, they are likely an important factor in cementing the social groups (Balshine et
129 al., 2017; Fischer et al., 2017; M. Taborsky & Grantner, 1998).

130 Subordinate daffodil cichlids frequently perform a behaviour known as the head up
131 display (HUD) in which the fish tilts its body upwards in the water column, revealing its
132 underbelly to another fish (Hick et al., 2014). The HUD may be accompanied by a quivering of
133 the tail, or even of the entire body (Hick et al., 2014). Subordinates often respond to
134 aggression from more dominant fish with HUDs, suggesting this behaviour may serve as a
135 submission signal (Balshine et al., 2017; Bergmüller & Taborsky, 2005; Reddon et al., 2019).
136 However, it remains unknown if receiving the HUD actually reduces the likelihood of future
137 aggression.

138 In the current study, we aimed to confirm that the HUD in the daffodil cichlid does
139 indeed serve as a submission signal within social groups. We predicted that the receiver
140 would reduce the frequency of further aggression by increasing the average latency to the
141 next aggression directed at the signalling individual.

142

143 **2. Methods**

144 *Study animals*

145 The daffodil cichlids (*Neolamprologus pulcher*) used in this experiment were laboratory
146 reared descendants of animals captured from Kasakalawe Bay along the southern shore of
147 Lake Tanganyika (Zambia, Africa). Prior to the onset of the study, the subjects were housed in
148 mixed sex stock aquaria (105 x 43cm and 40cm high, 180-litre) at a density of approximately
149 50 fish per aquarium. These stock aquaria contained 2 internal powered filters, a heater, a
150 thermometer, an air stone, and 3cm of fine coral sand. The stock aquaria were held at $27\pm 1^{\circ}\text{C}$
151 on a 12:12h light:dark cycle, with 30 minutes of gradual brightening/dimming to simulate
152 sunrise and sunset. The aquaria were regularly checked for water quality parameters. Fish
153 were fed daily on cichlid flake food (Tetra Cichlid XL Flakes, Tetra Werke, Germany).

154

155 2.1. Focal groups

156 We created 9 focal social groups of 4 fish each by transferring fish from the stock aquaria into
157 90-litre (53 x 43cm and 38cm high) group housing aquaria. Each group consisted of a breeder
158 male (mean \pm SE standard length, measured from the tip of the snout to the end of the caudal
159 peduncle = 5.33 ± 0.19 cm), a breeder female (mean \pm SE standard length = 4.80 ± 0.16), and
160 two smaller subordinates of indeterminate sex. Of the two subordinates, the larger within
161 each group was referred to as “subordinate 1” (mean \pm SE standard length = 3.31 ± 0.19 cm)
162 and the smaller of the two as “subordinate 2” (mean \pm SE standard length = 2.72 ± 0.11 cm).

163 These groups were formed by first introducing the subordinates into the new
164 aquarium, and then 24h later, adding the larger individuals. New groups were carefully
165 monitored for the social rejection of any group members, and unstable groups were dissolved
166 and reformed with new fish. All groups used in this study lived together as a group for at least
167 one month prior to observation and had successfully produced offspring at least once. At the
168 time of observation, all groups contained fry (<1cm standard length). Consistent with
169 previous reports (Dey, Tan, O’Connor, Reddon, & Caldwell, 2015), we did not observe adult
170 or larger juvenile daffodil cichlids interact with fry.

171 Each of the group housing aquaria was furnished with two foam filters, a heater, a
172 thermometer, 3 cm of fine coral sand, along with 4 terracotta caves to serve as shelters and
173 breeding substrate. Two additional floating shelters made from translucent green PET bottles
174 were provided near the surface of the water to provide additional refuges for the
175 subordinates. The husbandry regime for the social groups was identical to that of the stock
176 housing aquaria.

177

178 *2.2. Observations*

179 Each group was recorded with a video camera (CX240E Full HD Camcorder, Sony Corp., Japan)
180 from a front-on perspective for five 30-minute periods over the course of two weeks, resulting
181 in a total of 150 minutes of observation per group. The video recordings were captured
182 between 10h and 16h and only one recording was taken per day.

183

184 *2.3. Coding*

185 A trained observer (JT), blind to the study hypotheses, coded all of the videos. We focused on
186 the interactions between the dominant breeder male and the other three group members
187 (breeder female, subordinate 1, subordinate 2). The breeder male frequently showed
188 aggression to other group members and never showed HUDs, consistent with previous
189 reports (M. Taborsky & Grantner, 1998).

190 For each group, we recorded every instance of aggression directed by the breeder
191 male to any of the other three group members. We recorded five different behaviours as
192 aggression: chases, rams, bites, head down displays, and frontal displays (for a detailed
193 description of these behaviours, see (Reddon et al., 2015)). We also recorded every instance
194 of a HUD produced by any of the other three group members towards the breeder male. We
195 defined the HUD as a body posture in which the head of the focal fish is pointed upwards in
196 the water column (in some occasions the body may be held completely vertically) and its tail
197 downwards (Hick et al., 2014).

198 Following each act of aggression from the breeder male towards one of the other
199 three group members, we recorded whether or not the receiving fish responded with a HUD,
200 and then recorded the latency (in seconds) to the next instance of aggression from the
201 breeder male to that individual.

202

203 *2.4. Statistical analysis*

204 We used a Linear Mixed Model (LMM) to examine the relationship between the number of
205 aggressive behaviours received from the breeder male and the number of HUDs directed at
206 the breeder male. We included rank (breeder female, subordinate 1, subordinate 2), and the
207 interaction between rank and aggression received as fixed effects. In a separate LMM, we
208 examined the latency to the next aggression from the breeder male following a HUD
209 compared to aggression that did not elicit a HUD in the focal fish. For this analysis, we included
210 only fish for which we observed at least two instances of each type of response to breeder
211 male aggression (HUD shown, HUD not shown). This reduced the sample size for this analysis
212 to $n = 17$ focal fish, which included at least one focal fish from each social group. We
213 calculated the mean latency to the next aggression from the breeder male after each type of
214 response for each fish and treated response type as a repeated measure within each focal
215 individual. We \log_{10} transformed the mean latency to the next aggression prior to analysis to
216 account for the positive skew in this data but present the raw data graphically. For both
217 models, individual and social group were included as random factors. We checked all models
218 for adherence to model assumptions by examining the Q-Q plots of the model residuals. All
219 statistics were performed using SPSS version 26.0 (IBM) for Macintosh (macOS 10.15.4).

220

221 *2.5. Ethical note*

222 Animal housing, handling, and study protocols were approved by the Liverpool John Moores
223 Animal Welfare and Ethics Steering Group (approval number: AR_TR/2018-4) and adhered to
224 the guidelines of the Animal Behaviour Society and the Association for the Study of Animal
225 Behaviour.

226 Each of the experimental group housing aquaria was furnished with 4 terracotta caves
227 plus two additional floating shelters to act as refuges. New groups were carefully monitored
228 for the rejection of any group members (i.e., constantly receiving aggression, always
229 swimming close to the surface of the water, and seldom interacting with the rest of the
230 group). Unstable groups were dissolved and returned to the stock aquaria, and then remade
231 with new fish. All observations were drawn from stable social groups showing species typical
232 levels of agonism (Balshine et al., 2017). All fish were carefully monitored during the study.
233 If any fish had shown signs of social rejection, that group would have been dissolved and the
234 fish returned to the stock aquaria. This was never required once stable groups had formed.

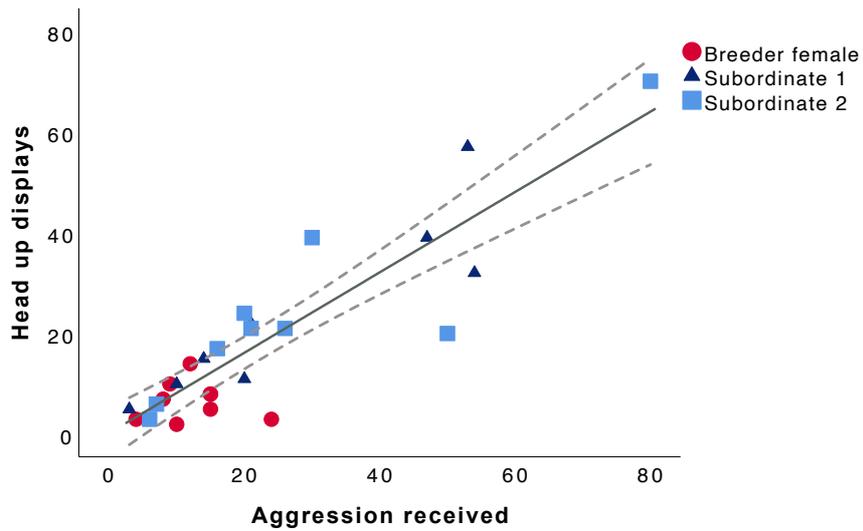
235

236 **3. Results**

237 Across the 27 focal fish in 9 groups, we recorded 493 instances of HUDs directed
238 towards the breeder male who produced 611 instances of aggression towards the focal fish
239 in 1350 total minutes of observation. The vast majority (94.5%) of HUDs directed towards the
240 breeder male were performed in direct response to aggression.

241 There was a positive linear relationship between the aggression directed towards
242 each focal fish by the breeder male and the number of HUDs performed to him by those fish
243 ($F_{1,20.42} = 9.26$, $p = 0.006$; Fig. 1). There was no significant effect of rank ($F_{2,20.38} = 0.20$, $p =$
244 0.82) nor an interaction between rank and aggression received on the number of HUDs
245 performed ($F_{2,20.44} = 1.37$, $p = 0.28$).

246



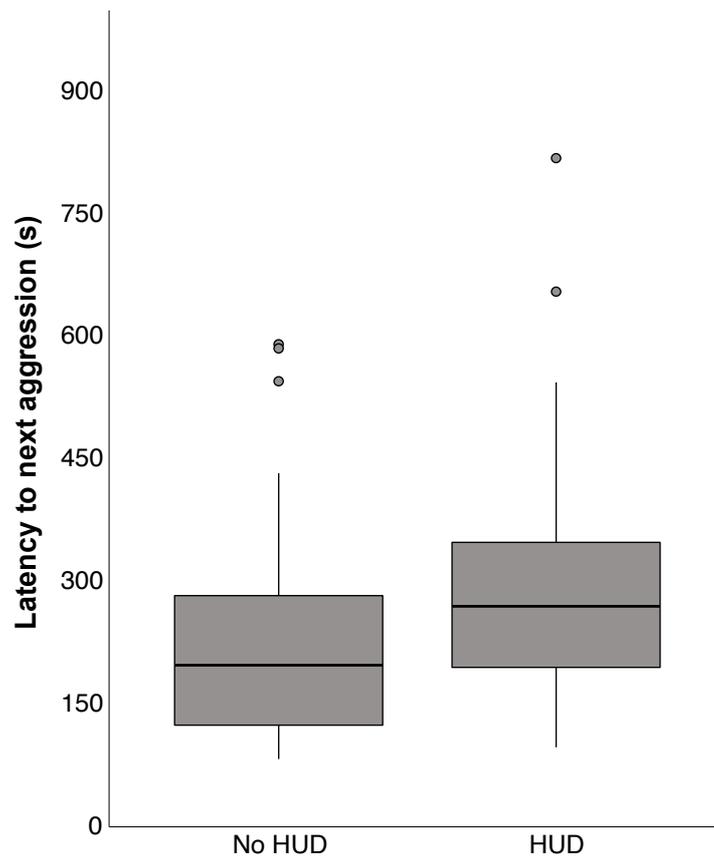
247

248 *Figure 1.* The number of head up displays directed at breeder males as a function of breeder male
 249 aggression towards each fish. There is a positive linear relationship ($\pm 95\%$ CI; $p = 0.006$).

250

251 Focal fish performed at least one HUD after aggression from the breeder male in 401
 252 out of 611 instances (65.6%). The latency to the next aggression from the breeder male was
 253 greater when the receiving fish performed a HUD than when they did not ($F_{1,18.71} = 5.38$, $p =$
 254 0.032; Fig. 2).

255



256

257 *Figure 2.* The median latency in seconds for the breeder male to next show aggression to the focal

258 fish following aggression that elicited a head up display compared to aggression that did not. The

259 time to the next aggression was greater when a head up display was produced ($p = 0.032$).

260

261 **4. Discussion**

262 Using detailed observations of replicate laboratory housed social groups of daffodil cichlids,

263 we found that the head up display (HUD) is given in response to the majority of aggression

264 performed by the most dominant group member and is seldom produced in the absence of

265 aggression. We confirmed that the HUD serves as a signal of submission in this species, as has

266 long been assumed (e.g., (Bergmüller & Taborsky, 2005; Grantner & Taborsky, 1998; Reddon

267 et al., 2019; M. Taborsky, 1984)). Specifically, we found that when receiving aggression from

268 the dominant breeding male, the time until the next instance of aggression depends on

269 whether or not the receiving fish produces a HUD in response. When the receiver of
270 aggression responds with a HUD, there is a longer average latency to the next instance of
271 aggression from that dominant individual. The HUD may therefore avoid conflict, possibly by
272 communicating a lack of motivation in the signaller to perpetuate or escalate an aggressive
273 interaction. This submissive communication may be beneficial for both the sender and
274 receiver as aggression is costly to all parties in terms of time, energy, and divided attention
275 (Copeland, Levay, Sivaraman, Beebe-Fugloni, & Earley, 2011; Maan, Groothuis, & Wittenberg,
276 2001; Neat, Taylor, & Huntingford, 1998).

277 Occasionally, the focal fish in our study appeared to produce HUDs towards the
278 dominant male without an obvious inciting aggressive act. It is possible that the apparently
279 spontaneous HUDs we observed were in fact in response to subtle or obscured aggression
280 from the breeder male (e.g., from behind a shelter out of view of the video recording).
281 Perhaps HUDs are also occasionally shown after a longer delay following aggression, making
282 them appear to be part of a distinct social interaction, or are given pre-emptively in an
283 attempt to avoid future aggression (Bergmüller & Taborsky, 2005).

284 In some instances, fish do not show HUDs in response to dominant aggression, despite
285 the apparent benefits of doing so. Little is yet known about the context specificity of
286 submissive signal use in this species. Although HUDs appear to be beneficial, submissive
287 behaviour does carry an energetic cost in this species (Grantner & Taborsky, 1998; M.
288 Taborsky & Grantner, 1998), and in some scenarios it may be advantageous to avoid
289 aggression, rather than showing submissive behaviour (Balshine et al., 2017).

290 There is also some variation in the expression of the HUD itself: for instance, the
291 degree to which the head is raised in the water column varies from a subtle pivot upwards to
292 the fish assuming a nearly perpendicular position. Other behaviours, such as tail or body

293 quivering, may also accompany the HUD (Reddon et al., 2015), and the degree of lateral
294 movement varies from being absent, through a gentle quivering of the tail, to a full body
295 shake. This appears to correlate with the angle of the tilt in the water (AR pers. obs.),
296 suggesting these elements could combine to indicate signal amplitude. In our current study,
297 we did not measure variation in expression of HUDs including the presence or absence of tail
298 quivering, and future work examining the meaning of variation in HUDs and the role of tail
299 quivering during the HUD would be worthwhile. If HUDs do differ in their strength, it would
300 be interesting to investigate under what conditions this variation is expressed. For example,
301 it would be worth examining whether the receiver phenotype or the escalation level of the
302 aggression received influence the expression of HUDs, or if the social context, such as the
303 presence of potential eavesdroppers affects the expression of HUDs. The HUDs may be
304 perceived by other group members, and in this context, it would be interesting to understand
305 whether this behaviour can affect the aggression directed towards the signaller by non-target
306 receivers. Alternatively, the expression of the HUD may depend on the signalling environment
307 as more conspicuous or vigorous HUDs may increase signal transmission efficiency in a noisier
308 or more complex signalling situation (e.g., (Bruitjes & Radford, 2013; Eaton & Sloman, 2011)).
309 These questions will need to be addressed in future studies in order to fully understand the
310 complexity of agonistic communication in this highly social vertebrate.

311 In conclusion, our current findings demonstrate that the head up display in the
312 daffodil cichlid acts as a submission signal and reduces the frequency of aggression from the
313 receiver. This behaviour has long been assumed to have this function, but to our knowledge,
314 this is the first demonstration that the HUD has this effect on the receiver. It is essential to
315 understand communication within groups in order to understand the behaviour of social
316 species (Frommen, 2020). Our results help to elucidate the nuances of agonistic signalling in

317 this emerging model for the study of sociality and suggest future avenues for work on the
318 communication system of this species.

319

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327

328 **Author contributions:** TR helped to conceive of the study, created the social groups, recorded
329 the videos, and helped to write the manuscript. JT coded the video recordings and
330 commented on drafts of the manuscript. AR helped to conceive of the study, secured funding,
331 conducted the analysis, produced the figures, and helped to write the manuscript.

332

333 **Declarations of interests:** The authors declare no conflicts of interest.

334

335 **Data availability:** The dataset required to produce the presented analyses and figures will be
336 available on Mendeley Data.

337

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547

Fig 1

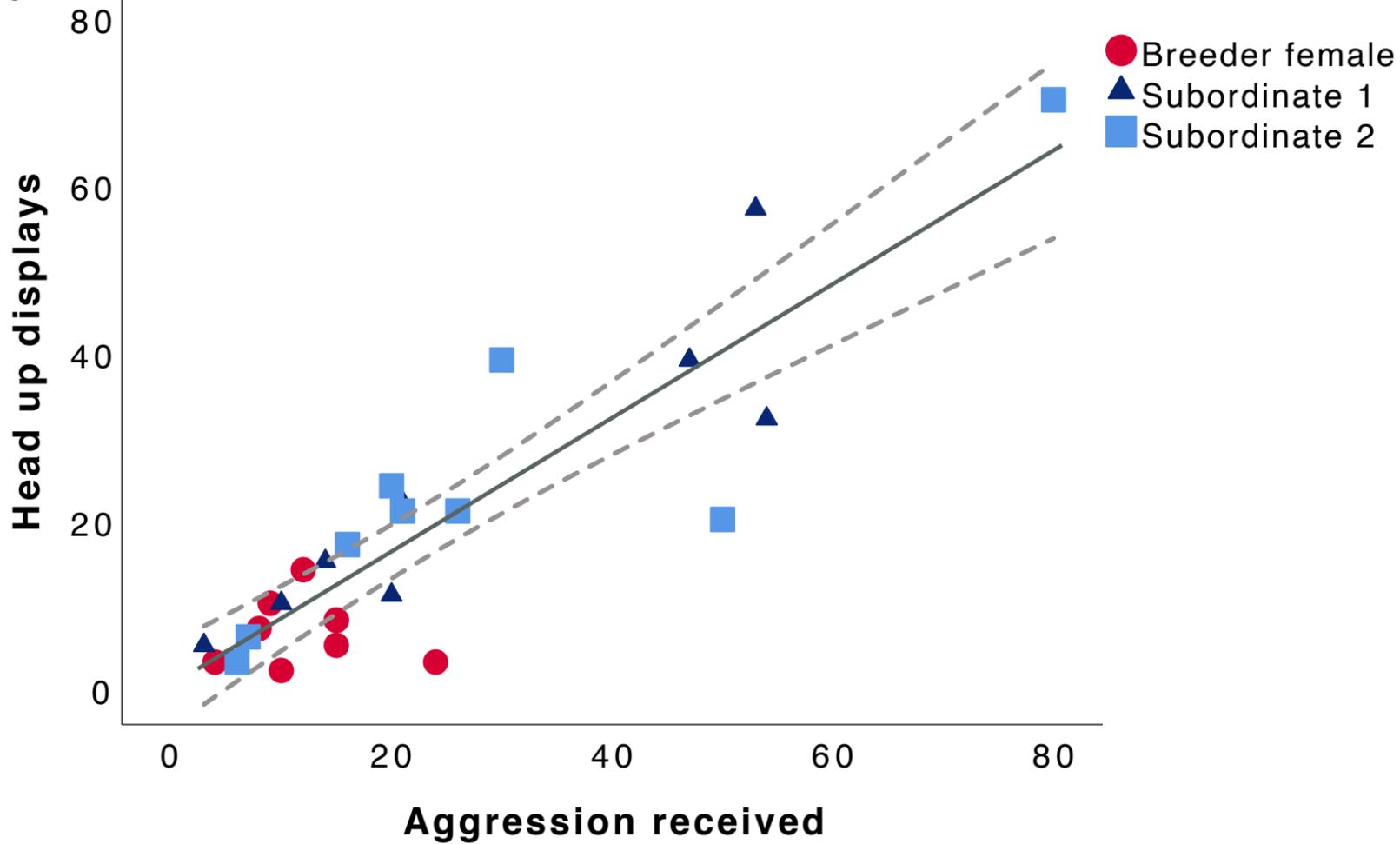


Fig 2

