

To breathe or fight? Siamese fighting fish differ when facing a real opponent or mirror image

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1	To breathe or fight? Siamese fighting fish differ when facing a real opponent or mirror
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25 Abstract

26 Displays are a feature of animal contest behaviour and have been interpreted as a means of 27 gathering information on opponent fighting ability, as well as signalling aggressive 28 motivation. In fish, contest displays often include frontal and lateral elements, which in the 29 latter involves contestants showing their flanks to an opponent. Previous work in a range of 30 fish species has demonstrated population-level lateralization of these displays, preferentially 31 showing one side to their opponent. Mirrors are commonly used in place of a real opponent to 32 study aggression in fish, yet they may disrupt the normal pattern of display behaviour. Here, 33 using Siamese fighting fish, Betta splendens, we compare the aggressive behaviour of males 34 to a mirror image and real opponent behind a transparent barrier. As this species is a facultative air-breather, we also quantify surface breathing, providing insights into underlying 35 fight motivation. Consistent with previous work, we found evidence of population-level 36 37 lateralization, with a bias to present the left side and use the left eye when facing a real 38 opponent. Contrary to expectations, there were no differences in the aggressive displays to a 39 mirror and real opponent, with positive correlations between the behaviour in the two 40 scenarios. However, there were important differences in surface breathing, which was more 41 frequent and of longer duration in the mirror treatment. The reasons for these differences are 42 discussed in relation to the repertoire of contest behaviour and motivation when facing a real 43 opponent.

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45 **Keywords:** aggression, contests, lateralization, mirrors, surface breathing.

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49 **1. Introduction**

50 Although there is considerable taxonomic variation in contest behaviour (Arnott and Elwood 51 2009a; Hardy and Briffa 2013), displays typically precede and intersperse with escalated 52 fighting behaviour. These displays are usually interpreted as providing a means of gathering 53 information on the size and fighting ability, termed resource holding potential (RHP), of an 54 opponent (Parker 1974). However, evidence to support this interpretation is often lacking 55 (Taylor and Elwood 2003; Arnott and Elwood 2009a; Elwood and Arnott 2012, 2013; Fawcett 56 and Mowles 2013). An alternative view is that they serve to signal information about the aggressive motivation of each contestant (Camerlink et al. 2015). 57 58 The prefight display phases are typically dynamic processes involving the contestants 59 interacting in a particular pattern. There are numerous examples across diverse taxa, and for invertebrates these include; the prefight cheliped displays of hermit crabs (Elwood et al. 60 61 2006), the waving of the enlarged claw during fiddler crab contests (Backwell et al. 2000) and 62 of legs in spiders (Elwood and Prenter 2013). Commonly cited vertebrate examples include; 63 the stereotyped displays of lizards (Van Dyk and Evans 2008) and frogs (Reichert and 64 Gerhardt 2014), the mutual vocal displays occurring between male red deer (Clutton-Brock and Albon 1979) and fallow deer (Jennings et al. 2012), as well as the conspicuous lateral 65 66 visual displays termed parallel walks occurring in these ungulates (Jennings and Gammell 67 2013).

Aggressive displays have been studied extensively in fish species, which lend themselves to laboratory and field studies (e.g. Enquist et al. 1990). The contest displays of many fish comprise frontal displays and lateral displays, which in the latter involves contestants showing their flanks to an opponent. During lateral displays, fish can align in two ways, with their heads either facing in the same direction (head to head) or in opposite

73 directions (head to tail). Moreover, a range of fish species has been shown to exhibit 74 population-level lateralization, preferentially showing one side to their opponent (Bisazza and de Santi 2003; Reddon and Balshine 2010). For example, competing convict cichlids, 75 76 Amatitlania nigrofasciata, more commonly show their right than their left flank (Arnott et al. 77 2011; Elwood et al. 2014). When both contestants show their right side the head to tail 78 configuration results and this is more common than the head to head configuration (Arnott et 79 al. 2011). Such population-level lateralization of displays thus provides some predictability 80 and enables coordination of these agonistic interactions (Ghirlanda et al. 2009), potentially 81 facilitating a mutual assessment process (Arnott et al. 2011). Additionally, it may also act to 82 reduce the likelihood of injury should one fish escalate the contest (Rogers 1989; Bisazza et 83 al. 2000; Arnott et al. 2011). The importance of coordinating displays in fish, such as head to 84 tail positioning, can be examined by comparing mirror images to live opponents behind a 85 transparent partition (Elwood et al. 2014), because with a mirror the fish can never align in the head to tail configuration and this key feature of the mutual display is lost. 86

87 Nevertheless, mirrors are frequently used instead of a live opponent in studies on 88 aggression in fish (Cantalupo et al. 1996; Earley et al. 2000; Wilson et al. 2011; Balzarini et 89 al. 2014). Mirror images might be a good choice of stimuli when repeated measures design 90 require several bouts and opponent variability can be avoided. However, the validity of using 91 mirrors for studying contest behaviour has been questioned. For example, mirror images fail 92 to elicit the same brain gene expression (Desjardins and Fernald 2010) or the same hormonal responses (Oliveira et al. 2005) as live opponents. Furthermore, Elwood et al. (2014) recently 93 94 compared the displays of convict cichlids to a mirror and a real opponent, finding a lower frequency of displays to a mirror but with individual displays of greater duration. This slower 95 96 pace of the interaction to a mirror suggested that social responses from opponents are a key

97 component necessary to elicit the normal repertoire of contest behaviour, as has also been
98 suggested for lizards (Ord and Evans 2002). The presence of an appropriately responding
99 opponent during aggressive displays thus appears to be a key driver necessary for the
100 interaction to progress.

101 Although only focussing on displays in their study, Elwood et al. (2014) predicted that 102 the disruption of normal display behaviour caused by the mirror may lead fish to abandon 103 displays in favour of other activities, including other forms of aggression such as biting. This 104 is one focus of the current study. In addition, Elwood et al. (2014) confirmed previous 105 findings of population-level lateralization in the convict cichlid (Arnott et al. 2011), with a 106 right-sided lateral display bias that was evident to both a real opponent and when facing a 107 mirror. With Siamese fighting fish, Betta splendens, interacting with real opponents and when 108 facing a mirror image there was evidence of population-level right side bias (Bisazza and de 109 Santi 2003), but this was not found in other studies with a mirror (Cantalupo et al. 1996; 110 Takeuchi et al. 2010). A recent study demonstrated a population-level right side preference to 111 real opponents during early reproductive stages but not at late stages (Forsatkar et al. 2015). 112 Indeed, some individuals switched from a right side bias to a left side bias after spawning thus 113 illustrating the confusion about laterality in this species. Here we use *B. splendens* in mirror 114 and real opponent tests to examine population-level lateralization. Further, we test the 115 predictions of Elwood et al. (2014) concerning the utility of a mirror image in eliciting normal 116 contest behaviour and, in particular, if the motivation to compete is the same to a mirror as to 117 a real opponent. B. splendens offers a widely used model for studies on aggression (e.g. 118 Simpson 1968). Their pre-fight displays consist of raised opercula and spread fins during 119 frontal displays and lateral displays (Castro et al. 2006). The frontal displays impair 120 respiration and are physiologically demanding such that contestants will interrupt the display

121 sequence at intervals to engage in surface breathing (Regan et al. 2015).

122 We recorded the frequency, total duration and the median duration of left lateral 123 displays, right lateral displays, frontal displays, and surface breathing, as well as attempted 124 bite frequency. The frequency and median duration should relate positively and negatively to 125 vigour whereas total duration is the product of frequency and median duration and is the more 126 commonly used measure of displays. Using this information we examine four key predictions. 127 First, consistent with the findings of Elwood et al. (2014), we predict there will be evidence of 128 population-level lateralization when displaying to both a mirror and real opponent. Second, 129 we predict the mirror will elicit a decreased frequency of displays and longer duration of 130 individual displays than when facing a real opponent. Third, we predict if the mirror impairs 131 the normal sequence of displays, individuals may switch to more escalated aggression 132 revealed by increased levels of attempted biting in the mirror treatment. Fourth, we examine 133 the frequency and duration of surface breathing to gain insights regarding the effectiveness of 134 mirrors compared to real opponents for eliciting agonistic displays. Because breathing rate has 135 been linked to the vigour of displaying (Regan et al. 2015), we predict that should the display 136 vigour differ between real and mirror opponents, there will be more surface breathing in the 137 condition with higher vigour. However, there are two other aspects that might influence 138 surface breathing. First, if the mirror offers a substandard stimulus resulting in a lower level 139 of aggressive motivation then this might cause the fish to switch to breathing more frequently 140 in the way that male newts breathe more readily when courting an unresponsive female 141 (Halliday and Sweatman 1976). Note that the vigour of the displays might not necessarily 142 differ with motivation because animals might not signal future intentions about persistence in 143 contests (Dawkins and Krebs 1978). Another way that surface breathing might differ between 144 real and mirror opponents is that fish might take their cues to breathe by the breathing

145 attempts of the opponent. With a mirror the apparent opponent will not be the first to go to the 146 surface and will not be the first to resume displaying following surface breathing. This might 147 disrupt the pattern of breathing when compared to a real opponent. Using the information on 148 levels of surface breathing, coupled with information on contest behaviour, should enable us 149 to disentangle which of the above scenarios is correct.

150

151 **2. Methods**

152 2.1. Animals

Thirty male, *B. splendens* were obtained from a local supplier (Grosvenor Tropicals, Belfast, U.K.) in batches of six size-matched subjects and housed in individual glass tanks measuring 30 x 20 cm and 20 cm high, with approximately 2 cm depth of gravel. A controlled artificial 12:12 h light:dark cycle was in place, tanks filled with 8 litres of treated tap water, aerated for 30 minutes per day, and maintained at a temperature of 21-23°C. Fish were fed daily with flake food, and on the day of experimental trials were fed after observations had concluded.

160 2.2. *Experimental protocol*

161 Tanks were aligned end to end with opaque partitions visually isolating the fish outside of test 162 sessions (as per Elwood et al. 2014). For at least 7 days prior to the onset of experimental 163 trials the fish were maintained in these individual tanks, thus ameliorating any behavioural 164 effects of prior winning or losing experiences (reviewed in Hsu et al. 2006). Each fish was 165 tested twice, once displaying against a mirror and once against a real opponent, in a random 166 order and with a gap of 10-15 min between tests. When observations against the mirror were 167 conducted the opaque partition between the two tanks was removed and immediately replaced 168 with a 20 x 20 cm mirror and the focal fish was filmed for 15 minutes. When a real opponent

was used the opaque partition was removed from between the two tanks and the focal fish was
filmed for 15 minutes. During filming, the laboratory was isolated from disturbance. Each
focal fish was exposed to the stimulus fish in the tank to the right, except for the last in the
row of tanks, which was moved so that it could see the first fish as the stimulus 24 h after
moving. Thus all focal fish/stimulus fish combinations were novel and pseudoreplication was
avoided.

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176 2.3. Behavioural Measures

177 Of the 30 tested male subjects, 10 were omitted from further analyses due to a lack of display 178 behaviour by the focal or stimulus fish in one or both situations. Results are therefore based 179 on recordings from 20 focal fish. The films were observed and behavioural displays recorded 180 using Observer v. 3.0 software (Noldus Technology, Wageningen, The Netherlands). The 181 following activities were recorded; left lateral display, right lateral display, frontal display, 182 bite attempt and surface breathing. A left lateral display was recorded if the fish was 183 displaying its left lateral side at 45 degrees or less to the glass at the end of the tank closest to 184 the mirror/opponent, while a right lateral display if the right side was shown at 45 degrees or 185 less, and a frontal display was recorded if the fish was head on to the glass (>45 degrees) (as 186 per Elwood et al. 2014). An attempted bite was recorded when a subject made open-mouthed 187 contact with the glass/mirror, directed towards the real or perceived opponent. Surface 188 breathing was recorded when a subject ceased displaying and began gulping air at the surface. 189

190 2.4. Ethical note

This study was carried out in accordance with the guidelines for the treatment of animals in
behavioural research (ASAB 2012). Moreover, our experimental set-up prevented physical

193 contact between fish, eliminating the risk of injury as a result of aggression, and staged 194 interactions were brief (as recommended by Huntingford 1984). Following discussions with 195 the local Home Office veterinary inspector it was deemed that there was no likelihood of fish 196 being harmed by the procedure and thus no licence was required. Further, the maintenance of 197 fish in individual tanks without transferring for each test ensured there was minimal handling, 198 disturbance, or opportunity to succumb to harm from conspecifics. Following the 199 experimental phase fish were returned unharmed to the local supplier.

200

201 2.5. Statistical Analyses

202 From behavioural observations, we obtained the frequency, total duration and median duration 203 of each of the following activities; left lateral display, right lateral display, frontal display, 204 surface breathing. In addition, we obtained the frequency of attempted bites. The data were 205 not normally distributed and the nonparametric Wilcoxon matched-pairs signed ranks test for 206 non-independent data was used to compare responses to real opponents and mirror images. 207 The same test was used to compare the frequency, total duration, and median durations of left 208 and right lateral displays. Spearman rank correlations were used to examine relations between 209 displays to mirrors and real opponents for each display component, as well as relations 210 between surface breathing and agonistic activities. Although we used multiple tests, 211 Bonferroni corrections were not applied given they have been criticised (Nakagawa 2004) for 212 exacerbating the problem of low statistical power for behavioural studies, where the risk of 213 Type II errors is generally greater than the risk of Type I errors. Moreover, we were interested 214 in comparing overall patterns of behaviour between the two scenarios, therefore necessitating 215 the need for multiple comparisons. Finally, any significant results we reported are also 216 biologically plausible in light of previous findings (e.g. Elwood et al. 2014). All analyses were

217 carried out using StatView (SAS Institute Inc., Cary, NC, U.S.A.).

218

219 **3. Results**

220 *3.1. Lateralization when displaying to a mirror and real opponent.*

221 With a real opponent there was a greater total duration of left side display compared to the

right side and a greater median duration of individual left lateral displays but not for the

frequency (Table 1). By contrast there was no lateral bias when displaying to a mirror (Table

224 1).

225

226 *3.2. Comparison of displays and surface breathing to a mirror and real opponent.*

227 There were no differences between a mirror image and live opponent in the frequencies,

228 median durations and total durations of aggressive displays or frequency of biting (Table 2).

However, surface breathing was greater to a mirror in terms of frequency, median duration

and total duration (Figure 1, Table 2).

231

232 *3.3.* Correlations between surface breathing and agonistic activities.

When facing a real opponent the frequency of surface breaths was positively related to various indicators of display vigour, in terms of the frequency of bite attempts, left lateral displays, right lateral displays and frontal displays (Table 3). Further, the frequency of breaths was negatively related to both the median duration of left lateral displays and the median duration of frontal displays but did not relate to the total duration of left and right lateral displays or frontal displays (Table 3).

When facing a mirror the frequency of breathing events was positively related only tothe frequency of biting events and negatively with the median duration of frontal displays but

241 not to any other measure (Table 3).

242

243 3.4. Correlations for display components between mirror images and real opponents 244 The frequency of bites were positively correlated between the two conditions (Table 4). There 245 was a non-significant tendency for positive correlations between conditions for the frequency 246 of left lateral displays and right lateral displays but not for frontal displays. There were 247 positive correlations between the two conditions for the total duration of left lateral display 248 and for the right lateral display with the median durations of these displays also being 249 positively correlated between conditions. Other measures were not significantly related (Table 250 4).

251

252 **4. Discussion**

253 We found evidence of population-level lateralization for lateral displays when facing a real 254 opponent, with a bias to present the left side and use the left eye, in terms of total duration and 255 the median duration of the individual aggressive displays but not for frequency. Preferential 256 use of the left side or left eye during aggressive encounters has been reported for many 257 vertebrates (Vallortigara and Rogers 2005). However, variable results have been reported for 258 different fish species, with some reporting a left side / eye use bias (Sovrano et al. 1999; 259 Ariyomo and Watt 2013) and others reporting a right side bias (Bisazza and de Santi 2003; 260 Arnott et al. 2011; Elwood et al. 2014). Further, the Siamese fighting fish of the present study 261 only showed a significant population bias when facing real opponents and not with a mirror 262 image. Similarly, Ariyomo and Watt (2013) reported greater left-eye preference in male 263 zebrafish when viewing a real opponent compared to a mirror image. However, previous 264 findings in Siamese fighting fish are conflicting, with Bisazza and de Santi (2003) finding a

265 population-level bias with a mirror, whereas Cantalupo et al. (1996) and Takeuchi et al. 266 (2010) did not. Moreover, Elwood et al. (2014) found evidence of population-level 267 lateralization of convict cichlids in both the mirror and real opponent scenarios. This led to 268 the suggestion that the side-bias was a feature of the individual, rather than supporting a 269 previous suggestion (Arnott et al. 2011) that laterality provides a means for individuals to 270 coordinate their actions and cooperate in information exchange by aligning in a predictable 271 posture. The present findings add to recent and mounting evidence identifying influences of 272 lateralization on animal contest behaviour in a range of species (domestic cows, Phillips et al. 273 2015; fallow deer, Jennings 2012, 2014a, b; flies, Benelli et al. 2015a, b; Romano et al. 2015; 274 mosquitoes, Benelli et al. 2015c; Przewalski horses, Austin and Rogers 2014).

275 Previously, we reported distinct differences in the displays of convict cichlids to a 276 mirror compared to a real opponent (Elwood et al. 2014). In particular, the displays of cichlids 277 to a mirror appeared to be slower, with lower frequencies and longer individual displays to the 278 mirror image, explained by the apparent opponent in the mirror never making the first move 279 and thus failing to cause the focal fish to switch display (Elwood et al. 2014). In the present 280 study, however, we found no difference between aggressive displays to mirrors and to real 281 opponents. Further, we had speculated that Siamese fighting fish might respond to a mirror 282 image by escalating to biting more frequently or for longer because the image would not 283 cooperate as might a real opponent, but that was not the case. Thus, Siamese fighting fish 284 appear to display to mirror images in a similar manner to that of real opponents despite the 285 mirror image never making the first move or lining up in a head to tail configuration. It seems 286 that the displays of these fish are organised more in line with the endogenous motivation of 287 the focal fish rather than with the specific actions of the "opponent". This idea of the 288 endogenous motivation being a major factor in controlling the display actions is supported by

our finding of positive correlations between aggressive activities to mirror and real opponents.
Such correlations have also been noted by others (Dore et al. 1978; Balzarini et al. 2014;
Elwood et al. 2014). Cichlids also fight mirrors and live rivals according to their own
endogenous motivation under normal conditions, but switch tactics to fight according to
opponent size when injected with isotocin (Reddon et al. 2012).

Despite the lack of differences in aggressive displays between the mirror and real opponent conditions, there were distinct differences in surface breathing. Fish observing a mirror image went to the surface substantially more often and each breathing event was of longer duration resulting in a greater total duration spent surface breathing compared to when confronting a real opponent.

299 Surface breathing is a means of getting additional oxygen that cannot be supplied in 300 the normal manner from the water via the gills. The number of breaths taken has been shown 301 here to be related to the vigour of displays in terms of positive relations with frequency, 302 particularly the biting frequency (see also Alton et al. 2013; Regan et al. 2015), and negatively 303 with the median duration, so we agree that breathing is typically affected, at least in part, by 304 oxygen requirement. However, we found no difference in the frequency or vigour of displays 305 between the mirror and real opponents and thus display vigour cannot account for the marked 306 difference in surface breathing frequency between these situations. The duration of each 307 surface breathing event was also greater to a mirror than to a real opponent. However, when 308 we examined correlations between median duration of breathing and other behavioural 309 measures no significant relations were found. Note that a longer time at the surface might not 310 necessarily mean that more oxygen is taken up at each visit. One possibility allowing for 311 differences in metabolic demand is that mirrors might induce a higher degree of fear 312 (Desjardins and Ferdinand 2010) and that fear might increase metabolic demand. However,

313 this hypothesis requires experimental investigation.

314 If the increased breathing when confronted by a mirror is not due to a higher oxygen 315 requirement, it might be due to a lower motivation to display to the mirror. That is the mirror 316 image might provide an inappropriate, lower value stimulus for agonistic behaviour, which 317 then allows for the behaviour to be interrupted more frequently and for longer by a 318 subordinate activity (sensu McFarland and Sibly 1975; Halliday and Sweatman 1976). 319 Moreover, other researchers have previously suggested that air breathing can take the form of 320 a 'displacement' activity (Dore et al. 1978). Fight motivation might be reduced in the mirror 321 treatment but not result in reduced contest vigour compared to when facing a real opponent 322 because animals should not disclose future intentions in contests (Dawkins and Krebs 1978). 323 One way to clearly establish if this is the case would be to probe fight motivation using a 324 novel startling stimulus during the interaction. This causes an animal to temporarily break off 325 from the fight, with the time taken to resume the contest providing a measure of fight 326 motivation, with the technique having now been successfully used for a number of species 327 (e.g. hermit crabs; Elwood et al. 1998; fish, Arnott et al. 2009b, c, 2010; cuttlefish, Schnell et 328 al. 2015).

329 Another explanation for the increased frequency and duration of surface breathing 330 events in the mirror treatment is that breathing of the opponents under normal circumstances 331 is typically coordinated, with the fish engaging in near simultaneous air breathing (Simpson 332 1968). The mirror image cannot be the first to restart display, as might happen with a real 333 opponent causing the focal fish to respond. This might account for the increased duration of 334 surface breathing bouts in the mirror treatment. However, it is more difficult to use a similar 335 argument for the increased frequency of breathing. The mirror image cannot be the first to 336 initiate breathing and thus fewer breathing events should occur, the opposite to our findings.

Conversely, in real contests should a focal animal show intention of going to the surface this
might be inhibited because the opponent continues to display. A mirror image will not
continue to display and thus might enable more frequent breathing.

340 The idea that the focal animal should attempt to match the display behaviour of the 341 opponent is predicted by some contest theory models (e.g. 'war of attrition without 342 assessment, Mesterton-Gibbons et al. 1996; 'energetic war of attrition', Payne and Pagel 343 1996, 1997) such that surface breathing is constrained to times of absolute need by both 344 opponents. Indeed, it is possible that with real opponents each attempts to prevent the other 345 from taking sufficient breaths and thus inflicts costs in terms of anaerobic respiration and 346 build-up of lactate. However, anaerobic capacity appears not to affect display vigour whereas 347 enhanced capacity for aerobic metabolism is linked to vigour and outcome (Regan et al. 348 2015). The idea of opponents influencing each other's surface breathing is further supported 349 by breathing being better correlated with fight behaviour when facing the real opponent 350 compared to the mirror treatment.

351

352 **5. Conclusions**

353 The lateralization of displays showed a left side bias but only when facing a real opponent and 354 not with a mirror image. Despite this difference in lateralization, fish did not differ in their 355 levels of aggressive displays to mirror images and real opponents. They did, however, differ 356 in surface breathing, with far more and longer breathing acts when facing a mirror image. 357 This could not be due to increased oxygen requirement when facing a mirror and the 358 increased frequency may be explained by a lower motivation to display to a mirror. The 359 increased duration might be due to the mirror image never being the first to resume displaying 360 and thus the image does not induce the focal fish to stop breathing and return to aggressive

361	display. This study adds to mounting evidence of differences in behaviour when fish face a
362	mirror image compared to real opponent beyond a transparent barrier, therefore questioning
363	the utility of using mirrors. We accept, however, that even a live fish beyond a barrier is not
364	the same as interactions between unrestrained opponents.
365	
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369	
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528 Figure captions

- 529 **Figure 1.** Comparison of the frequency (a), total duration (b) and median duration (c) of
- 530 surface breathing when the focal fish (n=20) displayed to a real opponent or mirror image.

- 531 **Table 1.** Summary of results from Wilcoxon matched-pairs signed ranks tests, examining
- 532 lateralization of lateral displays to a mirror image and real opponent (n=20 focal fish). Median
- 533 values presented, and durations presented in seconds. Significant P values (P<0.05) are in
- 534 bold.

Left side	Right side	Z statistic	P value
198.55	184.35	-2.43	0.015
3.69	3.01	-2.60	0.010
62.50	61.50	-0.02	0.983
235.10	220.35	1.57	0.117
3.31	3.19	-0.49	0.627
67.50	60.00	-1.46	0.144
	198.55 3.69 62.50 235.10 3.31	198.55 184.35 3.69 3.01 62.50 61.50 235.10 220.35 3.31 3.19	$\begin{array}{c ccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$

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537 Table 2. Summary of results from Wilcoxon matched-pairs signed ranks tests, comparing
538 aggressive displays and surface breathing to a mirror and real opponent (n=20 focal fish).
539 Median values presented, and durations presented in seconds. Significant P values (P<0.05)
540 are in bold.

Display measure	Mirror image	Real opponent	Z statistic	<i>P</i> value
Frequency				
Left lateral	67.50	62.50	-1.35	0.179
Right lateral	60.00	61.50	-0.50	0.614
Frontal	91.50	88.00	-0.49	0.624
Bites	0.00	2.50	-1.07	0.286
Surface breaths	18.00	10.50	-3.14	0.002
Total duration				
Left lateral	235.10	198.55	-0.67	0.502
Right lateral	220.35	184.35	-0.78	0.433
Frontal	259.25	395.75	-1.31	0.191
Surface breaths	38.20	24.95	-2.95	0.003
Median duration				
Left lateral	3.31	3.69	-0.86	0.391
Right lateral	3.19	3.01	-0.85	0.398
Frontal	2.43	3.77	-0.97	0.332
Surface breaths	2.29	2.07	-2.093	0.036

Table 3. Spearman Rank correlations are shown for the frequency of surface breaths and
display components to a real opponent and a mirror image (n=20 focal fish). Correlations for
the median duration of breathing events and other display components are also shown for the
two conditions. Significant P values (P<0.05) are in bold.

Display measure	Frequency of surface breaths			Median duration of surface breaths				
	Real opponent		Mirror image		Real opponent		Mirror image	
	rs	P	r_s	Р	r _s	P	r_s	P
Frequency	_							
Bites	0.556	0.018	0.577	0.018	-0.085	0.71	0.09	0.70
Left lateral	0.706	0.002	0.297	0.198	-0.17	0.45	-0.13	0.56
Right lateral	0.874	0.003	0.274	0.236	-0.13	0.56	-0.21	0.36
Frontal	0.648	0.005	0.178	0.444	0.11	0.64	-0.23	0.31
Total duration								
Left lateral	0.137	0.56	0.058	0.81	0.17	0.45	-0.09	0.70
Right lateral	0.279	0.229	0.37	0.109	0.314	0.17	0.05	0.82
Frontal	0.143	0.54	0.072	0.76	-0.12	0.60	-0.35	0.12
Median duration								
Left lateral	-0.531	0.019	-0.130	0.56	0.33	0.15	0.07	0.75
Right lateral	-0.247	0.273	0.021	0.94	0.44	0.54	0.32	0.17
Frontal	-0.502	0.027	-0.493	0.03	0.23	0.32	-0.11	0.91

Table 4. Correlations between specific display components to a mirror and those to real

554	opponents (n=20 focal fish)	. Significant P values	s (P<0.05) are in bold.
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Display measure	Spearman rs	<i>P</i> value	
Frequency			
Bites	0.676	0.003	
Left lateral	0.445	0.052	
Right lateral	0.409	0.075	
Frontal	0.243	0.290	
Surface breaths	0.379	0.10	
Total duration			
Left lateral	0.507	0.027	
Right lateral	0.531	0.021	
Frontal	0.397	0.084	
Surface breaths	0.322	0.160	
Median duration			
Left lateral	0.605	0.008	
Right lateral	0.770	0.001	
Frontal	-0.053	0.820	
Surface breaths	0.170	0.459	





