

1 Consistency in the strength of laterality in male, but not female, guppies across
2 different behavioural contexts

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47 **Abstract**

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49 Laterality, the division of brain functions into separate hemispheres, is widespread
50 across animal taxa. Lateralised individuals exhibit cognitive advantages yet substantial
51 variation in laterality exists, particularly between the sexes. Why variation is
52 maintained is unknown as few studies consider differences in lateralised behaviours
53 between the sexes, and their underlying selection pressures, across different
54 contexts. We investigated if *Poecilia reticulata* exhibited sex differences in the
55 direction, strength and consistency of lateralisation. We assessed the turning
56 preferences of individuals detouring around a barrier to view visual stimuli
57 representative of different behavioural contexts: an artificial object of familiar colour,
58 an opposite sex conspecific and a no stimulus control. While no sex differences were
59 evident in the direction or strength of laterality, consistency in the strength of
60 laterality varied between the sexes. Individuals of both sexes consistently detoured in
61 one direction, but the strength of laterality exhibited by males was more predictable
62 than females across contexts. This suggests that predictability of lateralisation across
63 ecologically relevant scenarios represents a key, but previously unexplored, source of
64 variation between the sexes.

65

66 **Introduction**

67

68 Cerebral lateralisation or 'laterality', the partitioning of different cognitive processes
69 into specific brain hemispheres [1], is found in vertebrate and invertebrate taxa [2-4]
70 and often observed as side biases in behaviour [3,5]. Laterality occurs at population
71 and individual levels. Population level laterality results when at least 50% of a
72 population have aligned directional biases in laterality, and is thought to arise from
73 strong selection pressures for a specific side to become specialised for a precise
74 function [6]. However, in populations where directional biases are not aligned,
75 individuals can exhibit strong laterality in either direction (individual level laterality)
76 [6]. Although the evolutionary basis of laterality at this level is unclear [6], the need
77 for lateralisation of an individual's brain to function efficiently suggests it is of strong
78 importance for individual fitness.

79 Advantages of laterality include an enhanced neural capacity, hemisphere
80 dominance and simultaneous processing of cognitive functions [7], which result in
81 lateralised individuals outcompeting non-lateralised conspecifics in several
82 behaviours [8-9]. However, despite these advantages substantial variation in laterality
83 persists within and between species. Why variation is maintained in a seemingly
84 advantageous trait is unclear, especially since laterality influences fitness-related
85 behaviours, including predator avoidance, whereby lateralised individuals exhibit
86 enhanced performance using their preferred side [3]. Thus, understanding how
87 variation in laterality develops and why it is maintained will allow a better
88 understanding of how this variation could impact behavioural performance and
89 ultimately fitness.

90 Sex is a recognised source of variation in laterality [10-11], yet many studies
91 remain limited to a single sex, or species where sex cannot be non-invasively
92 identified. In species where sex differences in laterality have been studied, the
93 patterns of lateralisation have been influenced by variation between males and
94 females [10-11]. This variation has sometimes been attributed to individual traits such
95 as boldness [12] and aggression [13], but largely the factors responsible for causing
96 and maintaining sex-specific variation in laterality are poorly understood.

97 Behavioural variation between males and females within singular behavioural
98 contexts is prevalent [14-15]. In many behaviours the sexes exhibit different roles and
99 thus are subject to different selection pressures [16]. For example, during
100 reproduction both sexes are under strong but differing selection pressures: male
101 fitness is determined by number of successful matings and female fitness by access to
102 resources for gamete production [17]. To date, few studies have considered the
103 influence of sex differences in behaviour with regard to laterality.

104 Here we investigated sex differences in the pattern (direction, strength and
105 consistency) of laterality exhibited in three behavioural contexts using guppies
106 (*Poecilia reticulata*), a species in which sex differences in behaviour are well
107 established [18]. We examined the turning preferences of individuals detouring
108 around a barrier to view a visual stimulus, a proxy for preferences in eye use [19] and

109 thus cerebral lateralisation. Visual stimuli represented common behavioural contexts:
110 an artificial object to assess exploratory behaviour, an opposite sex conspecific to
111 examine sexual motivation and a no stimulus control.

112

113 **Methods**

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115 Sixty-seven adult wild-type guppies (34 males, 33 females) were selected from a
116 laboratory population maintained at the University of Hull. To allow for individual
117 identification, subjects were housed in small mixed sex tanks (20x20x18cm)
118 containing three differently sized individuals captured from stock tanks following
119 visual identification. Male and female biased sex ratios were equally balanced. Tanks
120 were maintained at $25^{\circ}\pm 1^{\circ}\text{C}$ on a 12L:12D photoperiod and fed daily with commercial
121 feed.

122

123 Behavioural lateralisation was assessed using a detour test [20; Figure S1]. The
124 apparatus consisted of a rectangular tank with a double-ended T-maze joined by an
125 opaque plastic runway. A barrier (10x16cm) made of vertical cylindrical bars (0.25cm
126 diameter) spaced 0.25cm apart, was placed at one end of the tank in front of a
127 stimulus, partially obscuring it. A removable opaque plastic door separated the
128 runway from the end sections of the T-maze. Behavioural laterality was assessed with
129 three visual stimuli: an artificial object of familiar colour (orange test-tube bung), an
130 opposite sex conspecific (each conspecific was unique and contained in a 8x11cm
131 transparent cylindrical tank) and an empty environment (control) presented 48 hours
132 apart, with the order randomly determined at the housing tank level. Water in the
133 tank was maintained at 25°C , was 11cm deep and was replaced after every fish to
134 avoid changes in temperature and dissolved oxygen levels, which can affect laterality
135 [21]. The tank was evenly lit and all trials were video recorded (Lifecam Studio,
136 Microsoft, Washington, USA, connected to a computer) from above.

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138 Each individual was allowed to acclimatise to the test arena for three minutes
139 before being confined to one end using the door. The barrier and visual stimulus were
140 then placed behind the runway at the opposite end of the tank and the door removed.

141 Individuals were allowed 30s to independently approach the runway, after which they
142 were gently encouraged using a small dip net. Fish swam down the runway towards
143 the barrier forcing them to detour left or right. The detour direction was recorded and
144 the individual confined at the end of the tank while the barrier and stimuli were
145 moved to the alternate end (accounting for asymmetry in the set-up) and the
146 procedure repeated for 10 consecutive trials.

147

148 For each individual, the direction of laterality (population-level) was assessed
149 using a relative laterality index (L_R): $(\text{right} - \text{left}) / (\text{right} + \text{left}) \times 100$ [20]. L_R ranges from
150 -100 to 100 indicating a preference to consistently detour leftward or rightward
151 respectively. The strength of laterality irrespective of direction (individual-level), was
152 assessed using the absolute laterality index L_A , calculated as $|L_R|$. L_A ranges from 0
153 (equal number of left and right detours) to 100 (turning consistently in one direction).

154

155 Statistical analyses were conducted using R version 3.6.2 [22]. To examine
156 whether guppies exhibited directional preferences in laterality in each behavioural
157 context, two-tailed t-tests were used to determine whether L_R scores deviated from
158 random choices (0). Chi-squared tests were used to examine whether fish exhibited
159 significant individual-level laterality in each context, by determining whether there
160 were more individuals with extreme L_A scores in the tails of the distribution than
161 expected by chance (based on a normal approximation to the binomial distribution at
162 $p=0.5$). χ^2 was calculated as $((N-1) \cdot \text{var}(X_1) / (n \cdot 0.5 \cdot 0.5))$, where N is the number of
163 individuals, n is number of trials per individual and X_1 is the number of right (or left)
164 turns per individual [23]. The false discovery rate method [24] was used to correct for
165 multiple testing and adjusted p-values are reported. Linear mixed effects models
166 (LMM), fitted using *lme4* [25], were used to examine the effect of sex, stimulus, body
167 length, housing sex ratio and biologically relevant two-way interactions on L_R and L_A .
168 Individual ID nested within group was included as a random factor to account for
169 repeated measures and for each housing tank experiencing the stimuli in the same
170 order. Residuals were assessed for homoscedasticity and a normal distribution by
171 visual inspection of residual-fit and Q-Q plots. The model (R code format) that best

172 explained the data for L_R and L_A , based on model simplification using likelihood ratio
173 tests, was: $L_R/L_A \sim 1$.

174

175 We assessed consistency of laterality using 2 measures: repeatability (group-
176 level) of L_R and L_A , and predictability (individual-level) of L_A only. Between context
177 agreement repeatability estimates were calculated for the L_R and L_A of each sex using
178 the *rpt* function (*rptR* package; [26]), from variance components of a LMM with
179 individual ID as a grouping random factor. Statistical significance of repeatability was
180 determined by likelihood ratio tests comparing the deviances of models with the
181 grouping factor of interest to models without. Observed likelihood ratios were
182 compared to distributions of likelihood ratios determined from parametric
183 bootstrapping (x1000) to obtain p-values [27].

184

185 To compare predictability of L_A between sexes, we used the residuals from
186 simplified LMMs containing context as a fixed effect and individual ID as a random
187 intercept, for each sex separately, to calculate a measure of intra-individual variation
188 (IIV) [28]. Context was retained in the model regardless of significance, since it was
189 directly relevant to experimental design. IIV was calculated as the residual individual
190 standard deviation (riSD), $\sqrt{(\sum(Y_{ij}-E_{ij})^2)/N_i-1}$. Y_{ij} and E_{ij} represent observed and expected
191 values for each individual (i) at each observation (j) and N_i represents the number of
192 observations [28]. Male and female IIV were compared using a two-sample t-test to
193 determine if predictability of L_A varied between sexes.

194

195 **Results**

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197 L_R and L_A were not influenced by sex, stimulus, housing sex ratio, body size or their
198 interactions (Table 1). Thus, males and females exhibited similar patterns of laterality
199 in the detour test regardless of behavioural context.

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203 **Table 1:** The effect of sex, stimulus, body length, housing sex ratio and biologically relevant two-way
 204 interactions on a) L_R and b) L_A . The intercept represents females, from female biased tanks, in the
 205 conspecific treatment.

	estimate	s.e.	df	t	p
a) Direction of laterality (L_R)					
Intercept	26.408	39.855	63.365	0.663	0.510
Sex (male)	82.242	80.546	62.853	1.021	0.311
Stimulus (control)	-7.058	8.109	130.000	-0.870	0.386
Stimulus (artificial object)	-1.176	8.109	130.000	-0.145	0.885
Body length	-0.922	1.348	61.370	-0.684	0.497
Sex ratio (male-biased)	-7.299	8.581	26.592	-0.851	0.403
Sex (male) * Stimulus (control)	-5.668	11.554	130.000	-0.491	0.625
Sex (male) * Stimulus (artificial object)	-3.066	11.554	130.000	-0.265	0.791
Sex (male) * Body length	-2.713	2.806	61.986	-0.967	0.337
b) Strength of laterality (L_A)					
Intercept	38.224	20.045	59.328	1.907	0.061
Sex (male)	-61.213	40.631	57.143	-1.507	0.137
Stimulus (control)	-4.705	5.470	129.995	-0.860	0.391
Stimulus (artificial object)	-9.411	5.470	129.995	-1.720	0.087
Sex ratio (male-biased)	5.255	5.600	23.440	0.938	0.357
Body length	-0.078	0.669	54.250	-0.118	0.906
Sex (male) * Stimulus (control)	5.311	7.795	129.995	0.681	0.496
Sex (male) * Stimulus (artificial object)	13.654	7.795	129.995	1.752	0.082
Sex (male) * Body length	1.860	1.413	55.877	1.317	0.193

206 Individuals exhibited significant laterality (L_A) in the detour test (Table 2b).
 207 Thus, guppies tended to detour consistently leftward or rightward in each behavioural
 208 context (Figure 1). However, individual preferences were not aligned amongst
 209 individuals as no overall population-level directional bias (L_R) was observed in any
 210 behavioural context (Table 2a).

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214 **Table 2:** one-sample t-tests and χ^2 tests examining if a) L_R and b) L_A differed from random choices in
 215 each behavioural context. Adjusted p-values are reported and if significant highlighted in bold.

Stimulus	a) Direction of laterality (L_R)			b) Strength of laterality (L_A)	
	df	t	p	χ^2	p
Conspecific	66	-0.224	0.823	124.704	<0.001
Control	66	-2.224	0.089	109.026	0.001
Artificial object	66	-0.821	0.621	98.591	0.006

216

217 **Figure 1:** L_A for a) female and b) male guppies detouring around a barrier to approach an empty
 218 environment (blue), an opposite sex conspecific (orange) or an artificial object (green). Boxplots display
 219 the median and IQR for each sex while individual points represent the L_A of each individual in each
 220 context and dashed lines represent between context consistencies.
 221

222 L_R was repeatable across contexts in both sexes (Males: $R=0.324\pm 0.116$, 83%
 223 $CI=0.162-0.471$, $p=0.001$; Females: $R=0.363\pm 0.115$, 83% $CI=0.19-0.506$, $p<0.001$;
 224 Figure 2a) however; L_A was only significantly repeatable in males, not females (Males:
 225 $R=0.252\pm 0.11$, 83% $CI=0.081-0.390$, $p=0.011$; Females: $R=0.124\pm 0.095$, 83% $CI=0-$
 226 0.255 , $p=0.134$; Figure 2a). Females were significantly less predictable (larger riSD) at
 227 the individual level than males ($t=3.267$, $df=62.169$, $p=0.001$; Figure 1 & 2b).

228

229 **Figure 2:** a) repeatability of L_R and L_A for females (triangles) and males (circles) with associated 83% CI
 230 (L_R =dashed, L_A =solid) as recommended by Payton et al [29].

231 b) riSD of L_A for females (red) and males (yellow). Asterisks indicate significant differences between
 232 groups at $p<0.05$.

233

234 Discussion

235

236 Our results provide the first evidence of a sex difference in the consistency of laterality
 237 across different behavioural contexts. Individuals of both sexes consistently turned
 238 left or right, but males were more predictable than females in the strength of laterality
 239 exhibited across contexts. Although our study does not allow consistency across
 240 contexts to be distinguished from consistency in general (i.e. both within and across
 241 contexts), previous work has shown within-context consistency of laterality in female
 242 guppies [30]. Little is known about the relationship between laterality and other
 243 behaviours in guppies, but we propose three key factors that may drive the observed
 244 difference in consistency: laterality as the subject of sexual selection, variation in

245 sexual motivation, and sex differences in the strength of selection resulting from
246 predation.

247

248 Sex differences in the consistency of parental care behaviours are found in
249 house sparrows (*Passer domesticus*), whereby males exhibit strong consistency not
250 observed in females [31]. Male consistency in this case acts as an indicator of male
251 quality for female mate choice and has direct implications for sexual selection [31].
252 The increased consistency of L_A in male guppies could result from laterality being
253 under direct sexual selection, or correlated with sexually selected traits, but this is
254 currently unknown.

255

256 Secondly, sexual motivation could impact the strength of laterality exhibited
257 in the detour test and thus the consistency of L_A across contexts. In guppies, both
258 sexes are under strong sexual selection [18]: male fitness is driven by number of
259 successful matings [17] while female fitness is driven by access to resources for
260 gamete production [17]. As guppies live-bear, gravid females are likely less sexually
261 motivated than non-gravid females [32-33], while selection for males to pursue
262 mating opportunities results in high levels of sexual harassment towards females [34].
263 Sexual motivation across males is thus likely more consistent, while in females sexual
264 motivation likely varies with reproductive status.

265

266 In female guppies deprived of males, strong lateral biases have been shown,
267 that are not present in females with access to males [35]. Here, female reproductive
268 status and associated sexual motivation was unknown, but could have influenced
269 variation in female L_A both within and across contexts. For example, live bearing is
270 associated with enhanced cognition especially in tasks involving spatial learning [32]
271 that are important for successful foraging and offspring survival [36]. Thus, heavily
272 gravid females may exhibit stronger lateralisation with artificial objects or in empty
273 environments relative to non-/less gravid counterparts, as a result of enhanced
274 cognition in spatial tasks associated with carrying young.

275

276 Finally, male guppies experience stronger predation pressures than females
277 owing to brighter colouration and smaller size [37]. Increased predation pressure
278 could have a strong stabilising effect on L_A in males, driven by natural selection, which
279 causes them to exhibit consistency in L_A across behavioural contexts. In some fishes,
280 increased predation pressure is associated with stronger lateralisation [19,38], which
281 has been linked to enhanced escape reactivity [39] suggesting that individuals
282 exhibiting strong predation pressures would benefit from consistent hemispherical
283 biases regardless of context.

284

285 Despite no overall sex differences in the direction and/or strength of laterality,
286 our results demonstrate variation between the sexes in the consistency of L_A across
287 contexts. Several factors could underpin this variation, the majority of which have yet
288 to be studied in the context of laterality. Thus exploration of the effects of sexual
289 selection, reproductive state and predation pressure on the evolution and expression
290 of lateralisation within and between contexts in guppies is needed. Future studies
291 should also investigate the generality of this finding by examining laterality in both
292 sexes across a variety of behavioural contexts and species.

293

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300

301 **Competing interests**

302 We have no competing interests.

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305 **References**

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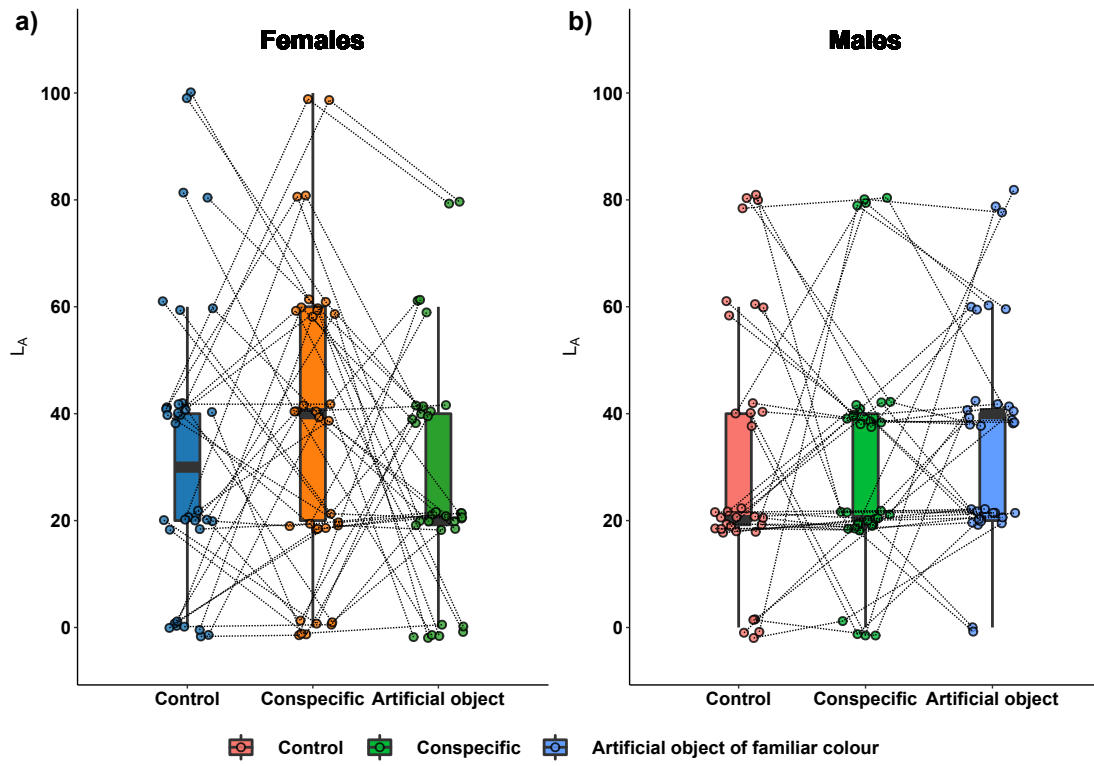
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448 Figure 1

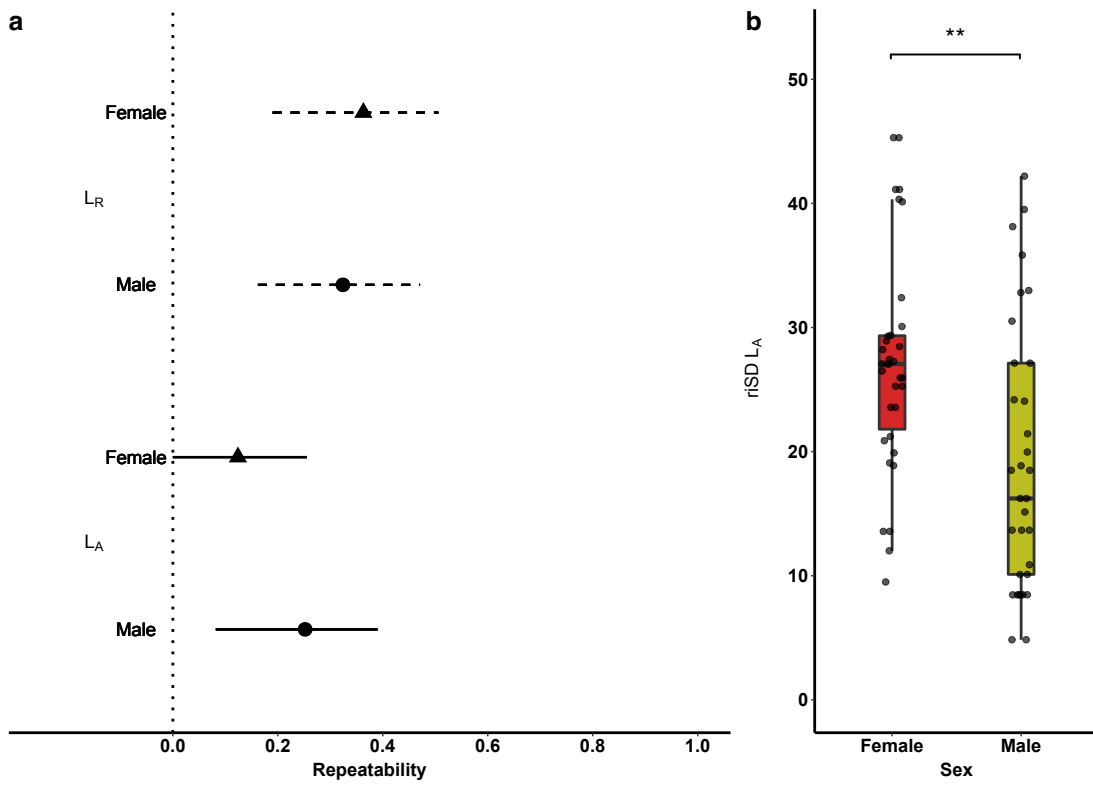
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452 Figure 2



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Consistency in the strength of laterality in male, but not female, guppies across different behavioural contexts

Stephanie McLean and Lesley J Morrell

Supplement 1: Diagrammatic representation of experimental tank (detour test)

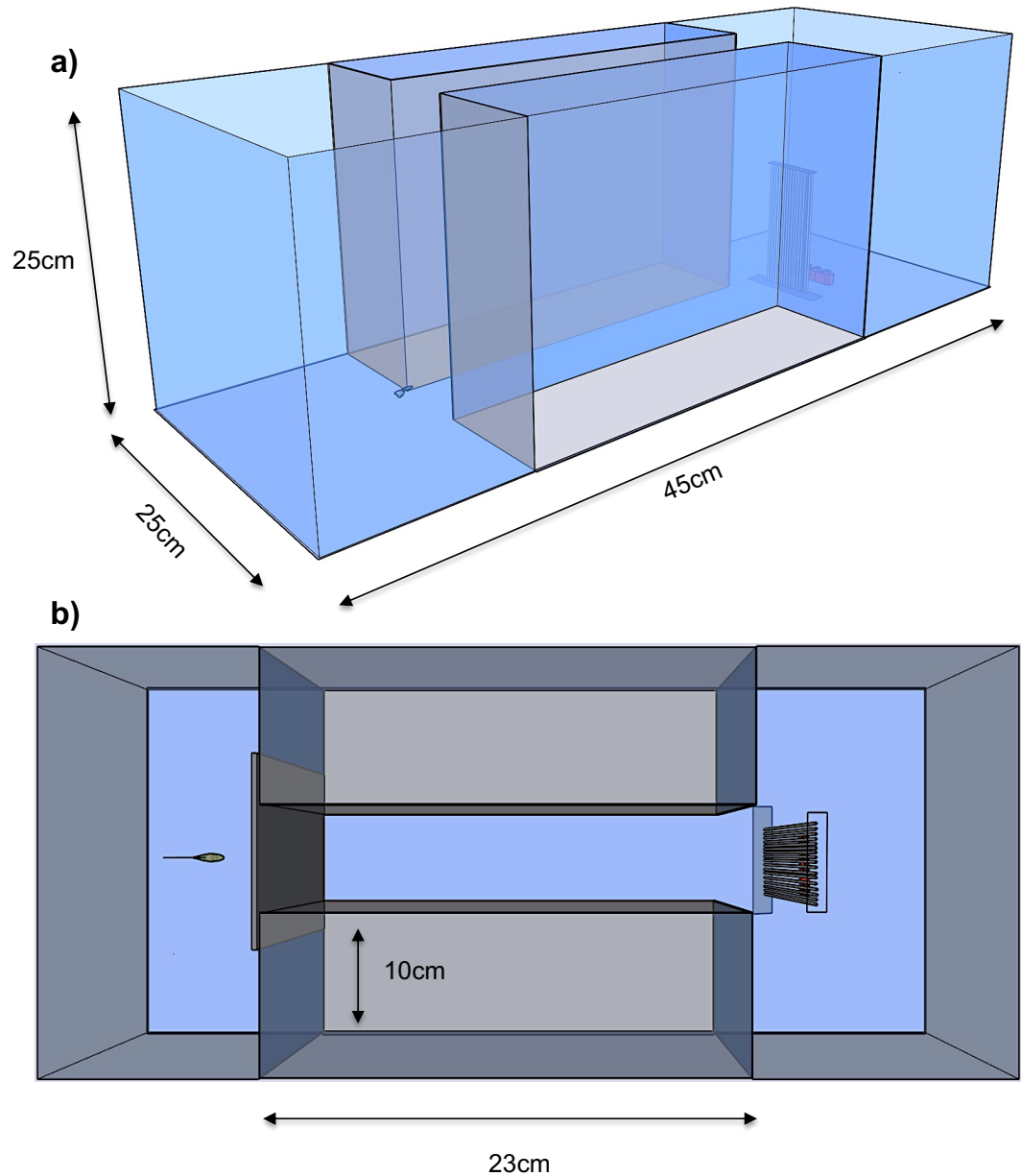


Figure 1S: Diagrammatic representation of the detour test used to examine behavioural laterality: a) side view and b) from above. Fish swam along a runway (alternatively in opposite directions) to detour around a barrier while viewing a visual stimulus (here an artificial object). The portable door used to confine individuals at either end of the T-maze before beginning each new trial is depicted in figure 1Sb.