







Research article

<https://doi.org/10.26496/bjz.2022.100>

The initial response of females towards congeneric males matches the propensity to hybridise in *Ophthalmotilapia*

Maarten Van Steenberge ^{1,2,*}, Noémie Jublier ^{3,4}, Loïc Kéver ^{3,4},
Sophie Gresham ^{1,5}, Sofie Derycke ^{1,6}, Jos Snoeks ^{2,7}, Eric Parmentier ³,
Pascal Poncin⁴ & Erik Verheyen ^{1,5}

¹Operational Directorate Taxonomy and Phylogeny, Royal Belgian Institute of Natural Sciences, 1000 Brussels, Belgium.

²Laboratory of Biodiversity and Evolutionary Genomics, KU Leuven, Charles Deberiotstraat 32, 3000 Leuven, Belgium.

³Laboratory of Functional and Evolutionary Biology, FOCUS, Liège University, 4000 Liège, Belgium.

⁴Laboratory of Fish and Amphibian Ethology, Behavioural Biology Unit, FOCUS, Liège University, 4000 Liège, Belgium.

⁵Department Biology, Evolutionary Ecology, University of Antwerp, 2610 Antwerp, Belgium.

⁶Flanders research institute for agriculture, fisheries and food, Animal Sciences Unit, Aquatic Environment and Quality, Ankerstraat 1, 8400 Oostende, Belgium.

⁷Section Vertebrates, Ichthyology, Royal Museum for Central Africa, 3080 Tervuren, Belgium.

* Corresponding author: mvansteenberge@naturalsciences.be

Abstract. Cichlid radiations often harbour closely related species with overlapping niches and distribution ranges. Such species sometimes hybridise in nature, which raises the question how they can coexist. This also holds for the Tanganyika mouthbrooders *Ophthalmotilapia ventralis* and *O. nasuta*. Earlier studies found indications of asymmetrical hybridisation with females of *O. ventralis* accepting males of *O. nasuta*, but not the other way around. We hypothesised that this was due to differences in the capacity for species recognition. Given the higher propensity of *O. ventralis* females towards hybridisation, we expect a reduced ability for species recognition in *O. ventralis* females, compared to *O. nasuta* females. We staged two experiments, one focusing on 22 female *O. nasuta* and one on 21 female *O. ventralis*. These fish were placed in one half of a tank and briefly exposed to a conspecific or a heterospecific male, a conspecific female, or nothing (control). Female response was evaluated by scoring six tracking parameters and by noting the occurrence of ten discrete behaviours before and during the encounter. Females always responded to the presence of another fish by approaching it. Remarkably, for both *O. nasuta* and *O. ventralis*, we did not find a different response between encounters with conspecific males and females. However, in agreement with our hypothesis, females of *O. nasuta* behaved differently towards conspecific or heterospecific males, whereas females of *O. ventralis* did not. When presented with a heterospecific male, females of *O. nasuta* performed a lower number of ‘ram’ behaviours. Additionally, they never displayed the ‘flee’ behaviour, a component of the species’ mating repertoire that was seen in all but one of the presentations with a conspecific male. Our findings show that differences in species recognition at first encounter predict to a large degree the outcome of the mating process, even in the absence of mating behaviour.

Keywords. Species recognition, mate choice, behaviour, Lake Tanganyika, Africa.

VAN STEENBERGE M., JUBLIER N., KÉVER L., GRESHAM S., DERYCKE S., SNOEKS J., PARMENTIER E., PONCIN P. & VERHEYEN E. (2022). The initial response of females towards congeneric males matches the propensity to hybridise in *Ophthalmotilapia*. *Belgian Journal of Zoology* 152: 75–97. <https://doi.org/10.26496/bjz.2022.100>

Introduction

Speciation is traditionally seen as a gradual build-up of reproductive isolation between diverging populations (MAYR 1982; COYNE & ORR 2004). The classical view that this is a slow process occurring between allopatric populations has recently been challenged by genomic findings (MARQUES *et al.* 2019) that showed how hybridisation can drive rapid speciation (SEEHAUSEN 2004; JIGGINS *et al.* 2008). However, as unrestrained gene flow inevitably homogenizes the genomes of diverging lineages (ROUX *et al.* 2016), the question remains what mechanisms keep incipient species separated. In scenarios of sympatric, closely related species, the ability to correctly distinguish between conspecific and heterospecific mates is probably crucial to maintain the integrity of the species (SULLIVAN 2009).

Mating is the end point of a complex decision-making process in which several potential mates are evaluated (LUTTBEG *et al.* 2001). An encounter with a potential mate can be seen as the first step in this process. The outcome of this initial contact can have profound implications on fitness, either through the refusal of suitable mates, or through the acceptance of suboptimal partners. Therefore, we expect intra- and interspecific differences in individual responses when confronted with a choice of partners. Additionally, the preference for a given mate can depend on environmental, social and intrinsic parameters, explaining variation in preference both between and within species, and between and within individuals (PFENNIG 2007; SOMMER-TREMBO *et al.* 2017). Assortative mate selection was traditionally seen as a sequential process in which individuals first assess whether ‘the other’ is a conspecific and then assess its quality as a mate (MAYR 1982). However, empirical data and theory suggest that assessment of species and quality are not independent steps (SULLIVAN 2009; MENDELSON & SHAW 2012) as the specific status of an individual could be judged using the same cues as its quality. Additionally, adaptive hybridisation has been observed in several taxa (overview in MENDELSON & SHAW 2012), indicating that preferred mates are not necessarily always conspecific.

Cichlids of the large East African Lakes form endemic, species-rich radiations (SALZBURGER 2018). Several suggested “key adaptations” of cichlids, such as their pharyngeal jaws, help to explain their evolution into numerous trophic niches (KOCHER 2004). However, a large proportion of these closely related species coexist without apparent eco-morphological differences (VAN OPPEN *et al.* 1998). Since most cichlid assemblages are relatively young, several taxa may be classified as incipient species and they retain the potential to hybridise. The oldest East African lake, Lake Tanganyika, however, contains a mature cichlid radiation (SALZBURGER 2018) in which most species are well-delineated (RONCO *et al.* 2020). However, even between well-delineated biological species, boundaries can be permeable and molecular studies identified several instances of inter-specific hybridisation (RÜBER *et al.* 2001; KOBLMÜLLER *et al.* 2007; NEVADO *et al.* 2011). Such examples allowed us to select a case to study the importance of prezygotic, behavioural isolation after, or at the last stages, of the speciation process.

Species of *Ophthalmotilapia* Pellegrin, 1904 are maternal mouth brooders that occur on the rocky and intermediate (rocky patches separated by sand) shores of Lake Tanganyika. The genus contains four currently accepted valid species: *O. ventralis* (Boulenger, 1898), *O. boops* (Boulenger, 1901), *O. heterodonta* (Poll & Matthes, 1962) and *O. nasuta* (Poll & Matthes, 1962) (HANSSENS *et al.* 1999). They are sexually dimorphic maternal mouthbrooders with territorial males that protect a spawning site, and females that aggregate in feeding schools when they are not breeding. *Ophthalmotilapia* males

possess egg-shaped lappets at the distal ends of their elongated pelvic fins that are unique among Great Lake cichlids (POLL 1986). These lappets function as egg dummies during the species' mating behaviour in a similar way as the egg spots on the anal fins of the so-called 'modern' haplochromines (*sensu* SALZBURGER *et al.* 2007; THEIS *et al.* 2012). During the mating process, the female deposits the eggs and almost immediately takes them into her mouth. By snapping at the egg dummies, which are situated close to the genital opening of the male, the intake of sperm is thought to be facilitated, increasing the fertilisation rate of the eggs within the female's mouth (SALZBURGER *et al.* 2007).

The four species of *Ophthalmotilapia* have different, but partially overlapping, distribution ranges. *Ophthalmotilapia nasuta* is the sole species in the genus with a patchy but lake-wide distribution. The sister species *O. heterodonta* and *O. ventralis* have non-overlapping ranges with the former occurring in the northern half and the latter in the southern third of the Lake. The fourth species, *O. boops* only occurs along a rather limited stretch of Lake Tanganyika's south-eastern shoreline. There, it prefers sites where large stones are available (KONINGS 2019). This is the only part of the lake where up to three species of *Ophthalmotilapia* occur in sympatry (HANSENS *et al.* 1999).

Although specimens of *Ophthalmotilapia* can be easily assigned to one of the valid species (with the possible exception of *O. heterodonta* and *O. ventralis*, see HANSENS *et al.* 1999), a phylogeographic study discovered gene flow among these species. NEVADO *et al.* (2011) observed that specimens of *O. nasuta* often carried mitochondrial DNA of the other species, whereas the opposite was much less often the case. They suggested that this pattern either has a postzygotic, (e.g., by cyto-nuclear incompatibilities that affects mutual crossbreedings differently) or a prezygotic (e.g., by an asymmetry in reproductive behaviour that results in a different resistance towards hybridisation) cause. The latter scenario implies that females of all species would occasionally mate with males of *O. nasuta*, while *O. nasuta* females would be much less inclined to mate with heterospecific males. It also implies that the female hybrid offspring would backcross into *O. nasuta*. This scenario agrees with the recent description of a successful mating between a female *O. ventralis* and a male *O. nasuta* (KÉVER *et al.* 2018). Reproductive isolation in closely related species of East African cichlids is mostly maintained through prezygotic isolation (TURNER *et al.* 2001). Hence, models that describe speciation in cichlids emphasize the importance of female mate choice in the initial stages of the speciation process (DANLEY & KOCHER 2001).

The Lake Tanganyika cichlid assemblage contains species with profoundly different mating strategies (RONCO *et al.* 2020). *Ophthalmotilapia* stands out by its extreme sexual dimorphism and female-biased reproductive investment. Although the correlation between reproductive investment, sexual selection and choosiness is well-established, it still remains debated whether choosiness is an evolutionary outcome (*sensu* TRIVERS 1972), or rather a determinant of differences between the sexes in parental investment (THOMAS & SZEKELY 2005). Using Lake Tanganyika cichlids, GONZALES-VOYER *et al.* (2008) showed support for the latter hypothesis. Regardless of the evolutionary mechanism, females should be considered the choosy sex in *Ophthalmotilapia* (*sensu* WIRTZ 1999). Therefore, if a prezygotic mechanism explains the asymmetric pattern observed in nature (NEVADO *et al.* 2011), it would be caused by differences between females of the different species in accepting matings with heterospecific males. As increased capacity for species recognition leads to increased preference in the choosier sex (KOZAK & BOUGHMAN 2009), we predict to see an interspecific difference in female response to conspecific and heterospecific males. As males of the different species of *Ophthalmotilapia* have very similar courtship behaviours, in which the few species-specific elements are insufficient to prevent hybridisation (KÉVER *et al.* 2018), females would mainly rely on other cues like colour patterns, body size and pheromones. Although the reproductive behaviour of species of *Ophthalmotilapia* is well documented (IMMLER & TABORSKY 2009; HAESLER *et al.* 2011; KÉVER *et al.* 2018), little is known on how species of *Ophthalmotilapia* recognize conspecifics and select potential mates.

In this study, we will investigate species recognition, which was, in spite of its shortcomings (MENDELSON & SHAW 2012), defined as “a measurable difference in behavioural response toward conspecifics as compared to heterospecifics”. We will study this by comparing the ability of female *O. nasuta* and *O. ventralis* to distinguish con- from heterospecific males. Often, dichotomous mate choice trials, in which a female can choose between two males, are used for such studies. Such a setup includes an aspect of male competition, whereas we are interested in the response of females in the absence of such behaviour. Additionally, with dichotomous trials one cannot discriminate mate preference from species recognition. Although we expect species recognition to be a good predictor of female mate preference, we did not aim at quantifying preference directly. Instead, we chose to investigate differences in species recognition by presenting a set of females of *O. ventralis* and *O. nasuta* to males of both species separately and by measuring a range of behavioural variables.

This study described and compared the initial behavioural response of females of *O. ventralis* and *O. nasuta* towards males of both species in an aquarium setting. In view of the pattern of asymmetric hybridisation discovered among these species (NEVADO *et al.* 2011), we expected a difference in the capacity for species recognition between females of *O. ventralis* and *O. nasuta*. Specifically, we hypothesized that females of *O. nasuta* would be able to differentiate between conspecific and heterospecific males at the initial stages of an encounter. For females of *O. ventralis*, however, we expected that this capacity would be less pronounced or absent.

Material and methods

Experimental setting

We performed two independent experiments using females and males of *O. ventralis* and *O. nasuta*. The first focused on the behaviour of focal females of *O. nasuta* (ON experiment), the second on that of focal females of *O. ventralis* (OV experiment). All individuals were wild caught off the coast of Ulwile Island or nearby Kala, on the mainland (Tanzania). Females were acquired as juveniles and hence had no prior mating experience. They were kept in monospecific aquaria per species until they reached maturity. Hence, all females used had similar ages. Males were older and most had prior mating experience (KÉVER *et al.* 2018). We verified the origin of a random selection of these fish by sequencing the mitochondrial control region, and by comparing these sequences with the data collected by NEVADO *et al.* (2011). The experiments were performed at the aquarium facilities of the University of Liège. Prior to the onset of the experimental trials, the sex of the specimens was checked by visually inspecting their genital papillae. Female specimens were kept jointly but isolated from males and heterospecific specimens in a separate tank for at least two weeks. This tank was devoid of hiding places, in order to prevent the development of territoriality. During that period, males were kept in monospecific tanks in which they were visually isolated from each other using opaque partitions. We kept all specimens in the same condition for at least two weeks with photoperiod: 12:12 h L:D, water temperature: 26±1°C, carbonate hardness: > 8 dKH. Fish were fed daily ad libitum with ‘Tropical Spirulina forte’ mini-granules.

We used three identical experimental aquaria (88 cm × 50 cm × 40 cm with water level ca 40 cm), which we divided into two equal parts by a perforated transparent partition (separation wall), through which fish could not pass, and by an opaque wall (visual barrier) that could be removed (Fig. 1A). A flower pot was placed on each side of the separation to allow the fish to take refuge. We kept the fish in these aquaria for at least twelve hours before they were used in the experimental trials. During the trial, the visual barrier was removed.

We recorded the behaviour of focal specimens (female *O. nasuta* or female *O. ventralis*) in four different experimental conditions. They were either exposed to (i) no other specimen (Co), (ii) a conspecific female (CF), (iii) a conspecific male (CM) or (iv) a heterospecific male (HM) ([Supplementary file 1](#)). For

each experiment (ON and OV) and for each experimental condition (i to iv), we conducted a minimum of five replicates. We filmed (using a CANON Legria HF R606) the entire aquarium (i.e., focal and non-focal fishes) during one hour: from 15 minutes before to 45 minutes after the visual barrier was removed. Experimenters were only briefly present in the room to remove the visual barrier. As males of *O. ventralis* are known to produce weak-pulsed sounds during the inviting behaviour (KÉVER *et al.* 2018), we used a HTI Min-96 hydrophone (−164.4 dB re. 1 V μ Pa−1; bandwidth 2 Hz and 30 kHz, MS, USA), connected to a Tascam DR-05 recording (TEAC, Wiesbaden, Germany) at a 44.1 kHz sampling rate to record sounds during the whole experiment. The hydrophone was positioned near the separation wall, at half the height of the water column, on the side of the non-focal specimen. At the start of each trial, we switched off the aeration of the tank so that sounds could be recorded. However, these recordings were not analysed, as we detected no communication sounds. After each trial, the focal female was euthanized. Both the focal and the non-focal specimens were weighed. Focal specimens were measured, dissected and the stage of gonad development was scored following PANFILI *et al.* (2006).

We performed a total of 28 ON and 21 OV experimental trials, with a maximum of three trials per day (Supplementary file 1). However, after the dissections (see below), we observed that six focal female *O. nasuta* from the first set of trials possessed male or ambiguous gonads (Supplementary file 2). These specimens were referred to as floater males and the recordings for these trials were not analysed. As we suspected that these specimens had changed sex, we photographed the genital papillae of the focal females that were to be used subsequently, two weeks before the onset of the experimental trials. A comparison between papillae of the same individuals after two weeks revealed that some could be identified as males. This either confirmed that a sex change did indeed take place in several specimens or showed that the examination of genital papillae was insufficient for sex determination in subadult

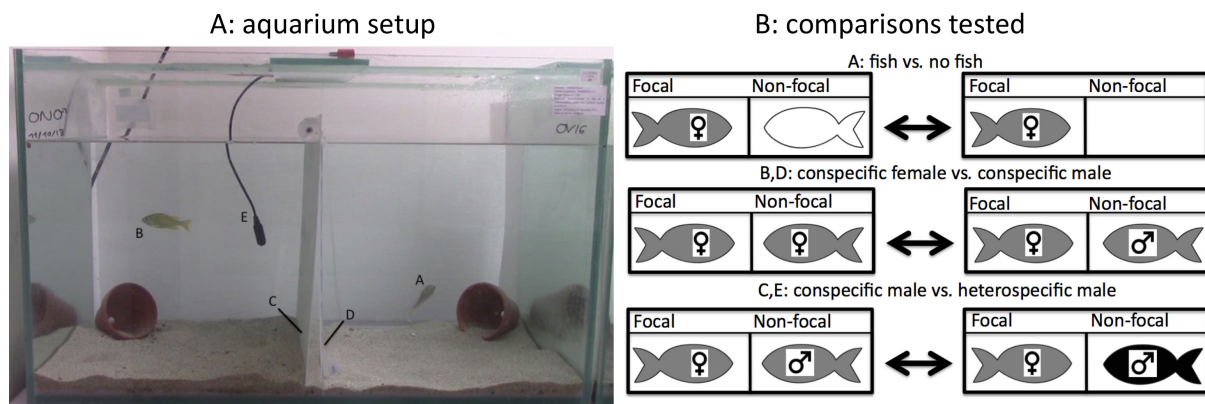


Figure 1 – Experimental setup. **A.** Aquarium setup: a focal female of either *O. nasuta* or *O. ventralis* (here *O. nasuta*) (A) was placed in one half of the experimental tank whereas no fish, a conspecific female or a hetero- or conspecific male was placed in the other half (here an *O. ventralis* male) (B). The tank was divided in two by a transparent wall (D) and a visual barrier (C), a hydrophone (E) was placed on the side of the non-focal specimen and an empty flowering pot was placed in both halves of the tank, allowing fishes to take refuge. Video and audio recordings were made 15 minutes prior and 45 minutes after the visual barriers were removed. **B.** Contrasts tested using permanova: (A): focal females presented with another fish vs with no fish, (B): focal females presented with a conspecific female vs a conspecific male, (C): focal females presented with a conspecific vs a heterospecific male, (D): conspecific females and males presented to a focal female and (E): conspecific and heterospecific males presented to a focal female. Black and grey fishes represent different species, the white fish represents all possible non-focal specimens used.

Ophthalmotilapia. These specimens were not studied. After each trial, the aquarium was cleaned and the water fully renewed.

Collection of tracking and qualitative behavioural data

Video files were converted into JPG images using Adapter ver. 2.1.6 (available at <https://www.macropiant.com>), capturing one frame per second and saving it as an 8-bit, gray-scale JPG file. Images taken within ten seconds before or after an experimenter was performing an action (i.e., removing the wall) were discarded from analyses. We chose to analyse the same number of frames for all trials within the ON and the OV experiment, respectively. For the ON experiment, this resulted in a minimum of 721 and 2186 frames collected before and after the removal of the separation wall, respectively. For the OV experiment, 871 and 2685 frames were available for analyses. Both focal and non-focal specimens were tracked using the ImageJ ver. 1.49 (SCHNEIDER *et al.* 2012) software package.

Given the presence of both light- and dark- coloured backgrounds in the aquarium setting, the set of frames was studied twice. Specimens that were present before a light-coloured background were tracked by inverting black and white values whereas specimens present before a dark-coloured background were tracked using non-inverted images. For computational reasons, analyses were performed on subsets of the data containing a maximum of 1000 frames. For each set of images, a subset of 30 frames was used to create a background using the plug-in ‘*Image stack merger plus*’. Backgrounds were removed using the image calculator and the resulting frames were transformed into black-and-white images using the threshold function with ‘*MaxEntropy*’ as the methodology. Images were adjusted using the ‘*erode*’ and ‘*dilate*’ functions to remove noise and to obtain a better representation of the fishes. The resulting image series was then used for tracking using the plug-in ‘*MTrack2*’, in which tracks were summarized as the x- and y- coordinates of the centroids of the tracked object. The quality of the automated tracking was checked by visually inspecting each of the frames. When the software failed to track a specimen that was clearly present in the final images, coordinates were added manually. Finally, tracks obtained from both datasets, inverted and non-inverted, were combined. When a specimen was recognized by both methods, e.g., when the fish was partially before a light- and partially before a dark-coloured background, the average of the coordinates was used. When tracking data was missing, the average value of the coordinates of the previous and the next positions were used. This is justified, as missing data either corresponded to fish that remained stationary for many frames, and could hence not be distinguished from the background, or to fish that hid behind the terracotta flowerpots (Fig. 1). Frames collected before and after the removal of the visual barrier were analysed separately. Coordinates were shifted using the lower- and anterior-most point of the separation wall as the origin, and rotated by setting the anterior water level as a reference for the horizontal plane. Finally, all coordinates were transformed from pixels to centimetres using the dimensions of the aquaria. Tracks were visualized by plotting all individual positions as well as the shift in average position of a specimen before and after the removal of the barrier ([Supplementary file 3](#)).

For each specimen, six tracking parameters were calculated from the coordinates (Table 1). Each parameter was calculated three times: once using coordinates obtained for 721/871 (OV/ON experiment, respectively) seconds before (before) the removal of the visual barrier, once using coordinates obtained during 721/871 seconds (after1) after the visual barrier was removed and finally using coordinates obtained during 2186/2685 seconds (after2) after the visual barrier was removed, hence including the after1. Additionally, ten specific behaviours were defined based on BAERENDS & BAERENDS-VAN ROON (1950). These were encoded and recorded as point events in Boris ver. 2.72 open-source software (FRIARD & GAMBA 2016) (Table 1). This data was collected during the same three periods: before, after1 and after2. We chose these time periods, as we aimed to study the immediate response following presentation to another fish. Teleosts respond to changing social situations at two scales, by

TABLE 1

Tracking parameters and point events recorded for the focal and non-focal individuals during the experimental trials. For point events, interpretation of the behaviour was added with 1: BAERENDS & BAERENDS -VAN ROON 1950 and 2: KÉVER *et al.* 2018.

Tracking parameters	Description	
Dist.wall	Distance to the visual barrier (% of length of compartment).	
Dist.fish	Distance to the fish on the other side of the transparent wall (cm).	
Sp	Average speed (cm/s).	
SpX	Horizontal speed (cm/s).	
SpY	Vertical speed (cm/s).	
Height	Mean height (% of height of water column).	
Point events	Description	Interpretation
Chase	The fish suddenly swims very fast towards the other fish and rams (or almost rams) the separation wall.	Contextual: agonistic and male courtship behaviour (2)
Flee	The fish suddenly swims away from the other fish.	Contextual: agonistic and female courtship behaviour (2)
Lateral	Lateral display: the fish positions itself perpendicular to the other fish, keeping its head slightly downwards, erects its fins and bends its body.	Signal movement (1), agonistic behaviour (2)
Frontal	Frontal display: the fish faces the other fish head up and erects its fins.	Signal movement (1), agonistic behaviour (2)
Bite	Biting the wall: the fish bites the separation wall (possibly trying to bite the other fish).	Signal movement (1), agonistic behaviour (2)
Ram	Ram into the wall: the fish tries to enter the other part of the aquarium and rams (not very fast) the separation wall.	
Sand	Sand picking: the fish takes sand in its mouth.	Courtship behaviour when linked to construction of bower (2), signal movement when nipping off a substrate (1).
Spasm	A quick, strong, and unilateral contraction of the trunk musculature that results in a displacement of the head and the caudal fin in the same direction.	Contextual: comfort behaviour or signal movement. Observed in courtship behaviour or inter-territorial fights depending on the genus (1).
Tail	Tail-wagging: exaggerated movements of the caudal fin (+ caudal part of the dorsal fin). At its zenith, the movement of the caudal fin is completely counterbalanced by backpedalling.	Signal movement (1), courtship behaviour (2).
Flicker	Pelvics flickering: the fish quickly and alternatively moves its right and left pelvic fins.	Comfort behaviour (1)

an immediate change in behaviour, and by a modification of neural circuits (OLIVEIRA 2012). The latter is driven by the regulation of immediate early genes (IEG). Following OLIVEIRA (2012), we assumed that the transcription of IEG occurs roughly 15 min (after1), and their translation 45 min (after2) after the stimulus. Behaviours displayed within ten seconds before or after an experimenter was performing an action (removing the wall) were discarded from the analyses.

Statistical analyses

Prior to testing differences in species recognition, we visually explored the combined datasets of tracking parameters and point events. We did this by performing principal component analysis (PCA) and canonical variate analyses (CVA) in Past 3.14 (HAMMER *et al.* 2001). The former allowed for an unbiased visualization of the variation in the data and was performed on the correlation matrices. The latter was conducted to maximize the differentiation between the different groups. Separate analyses were performed for each period of time recorded (before, after1, after2) and for each experiment (ON or OV). Point events that were not recorded during one of these periods were disregarded and missing values (i.e., for Dist.fish in the control condition Co) were treated using mean value imputation. Prior to the analyses, each of the tracking parameters and point events was normalised. This was done for each experiment (OV and ON), and for each of the time periods ('before', 'after1', 'after2' and 'shift') separately.

We used permanova to compare the behaviour of both focal and non-focal specimens in five different comparisons (Fig. 1B). With this non-parametric test, we could include all recorded behaviours. This allowed us to measure species recognition via differences in behaviour (*sensu* MENDELSON & SHAW 2012) without defining *a priori* in what variable specimens would differ. In order to reduce the number of comparisons, we restricted ourselves to only biologically relevant contrasts. For focal specimens, we compared the behaviour between (A) females that were presented with another fish vs with no fish, (B) focal females that were presented with a conspecific female vs a conspecific male, and (C) females that were presented with a conspecific vs a heterospecific male. Two additional comparisons were tested for the non-focal individuals. We tested (D) whether conspecific females and males respond differently to a focal female and (E) whether conspecific and heterospecific males respond differently to a focal female. Even though our main goal was to test whether females of *O. nasuta* and *O. ventralis* differed in behavioural response towards conspecific and heterospecific males (C), we tested the four other comparisons as well, following the recommendations of MORAN (2003) and NAKAGAWA (2004).

Tests were performed using non-parametric permanova, using the *pairwise.adonis* function, of the R package *vegan* on the combined data of tracking parameters and point events. This approach was chosen as the conditions for multivariate normality were violated. When permanova revealed significant differences, we verified whether this could be due to dispersion effects (ANDERSON 2006). For this, in view of the size of the dataset, non-parametric Mann-Whitney U tests were performed on the within group dispersions from the mean, calculated using the *betadisper* function implemented in the R package *vegan* (OKSANEN *et al.* 2017). A difference in dispersion across groups does, however, not contradict a difference in their average values. Hence, the data was visually explored, using PCA, to assess whether dispersion could be present together with a difference in average values. For each comparison revealed significant by permanova, Mann Whitney U non-parametrical tests were performed on each of the variables separately in order to detect which of these caused the difference between the treatments. We chose this non-parametric approach as the assumptions of normality were often not met. When significant, the effect sizes of these variables were estimated using Hedge's *g*, which was calculated using the [estimationstats.com](https://www.estimationstats.com) web application (HO *et al.* 2019).

In order to test whether the observed differences in behaviour depended on the visual presence of another specimen, and whether these differences were already visible at the first stages of the encounter, permanova tests were performed on data collected before the removal of the visual separation (before) as well as on data collected over a short (after1) and a long (after2) period of time after this separation was removed. Finally, an additional test was conducted which removed individual variation between the different treatments. For this, behavioural shifts were calculated for each tracking parameter and point event by subtracting the values of the ‘before’ period before from those of the ‘after1’ period (shift). All tests were performed separately for the ON and the OV experiment. As behaviour can be influenced by gonad development and weight of the focal and non-focal specimens, Mann Whitney U tests were performed to check whether these differed between the treatments. Such tests were also performed on the number of frames in which fishes could not be tracked. All statistical analyses were performed using Past ver. 3.14 (HAMMER *et al.* 2001) and R (R CORE TEAM 2017).

Results

We separately analysed two experiments, one focusing on *O. nasuta* and one on *O. ventralis* females (ON and OV experiment). In the ON experiment, two males of *O. ventralis* performed advanced courtship behaviours. After the encounter, these males started to swim in circles, in fast and erratic movements. This was accompanied by tail wagging, generally displayed close to the partition wall. These males often bit the hydrophone and picked up and moved around sand (49 and 45 times within 45 min vs 0 for the other males). One of these two males (male *O. ventralis* presented to ON38) also tried to chase the female (79 times) and presented the egg dummies of its pelvic fins (5 times). This behaviour stopped immediately when the experimenter removed the female fish. During the encounter, these males turned dark grey, to almost black, which was swiftly reversed after the experimental trial. As we designed our experiment to study behavioural response in the absence of courtship behaviour, we removed these outliers from all analyses. All ten-point events were observed in at least one of the fishes in the ON experiment, whereas ‘tail’ (i.e., tail wagging) was never observed in the OV experiment ([Supplementary file 4](#)).

Visualization of the behavioural data

We visually explored the data using PCA and CVA to compare the behaviour of all specimens used in each of the two experiments. In the PCAs conducted on the behavioural data collected before the removal of the barrier, values of all females as well as of conspecific males overlapped (Fig. 2A–B), suggesting a highly similar behaviour. However, heterospecific males were (somewhat) separated from all other specimens by their higher values for PC1 (ON experiment) or PC2 (OV experiment). The loadings of the main PCs ([Supplementary file 5.1](#)) suggest that this difference was due to a more active swimming behaviour (Sp, SpX, SpY) higher up in the water column (height) for males of *O. ventralis* (ON experiment) and a higher number of point events (ram, sand, bite) performed at the floor of the aquarium (height) for the males of *O. nasuta* (OV experiment), prior to their presentation to a heterospecific female. The fact that male *O. nasuta* build true bowers could explain the higher number of point events, especially ‘sand’. Additionally, *O. nasuta* might be less at ease close to the water surface as it generally occurs in deeper waters than *O. ventralis* (KONINGS 2019). The CVAs also reflected the behavioural differences of heterospecific males (Fig. 3A–B), as they had higher values for the first CVs. The behaviours that contributed strongly to the separating PCs, also contributed to the main CVs ([Supplementary file 5.2](#)).

The PCAs performed on the data collected 15 minutes after the removal of the barrier foremost showed how the focal females that were used as controls behaved differently than the specimens that were presented with another specimen (Fig. 2C–D). For both experiments, this can be explained by control

females spending less time closer to the wall (Dist.wall), and performing less agonistic behaviour (ram, lateral, flee). We did not observe any additional separation in the PCA of the OV experiment (Fig. 2D). In the ON experiment, values for (heterospecific) male *O. ventralis* stood out by their high values for PC1, whereas those of (conspecific) male *O. nasuta* had mostly low values for this axis (Fig. 2C). The tracking

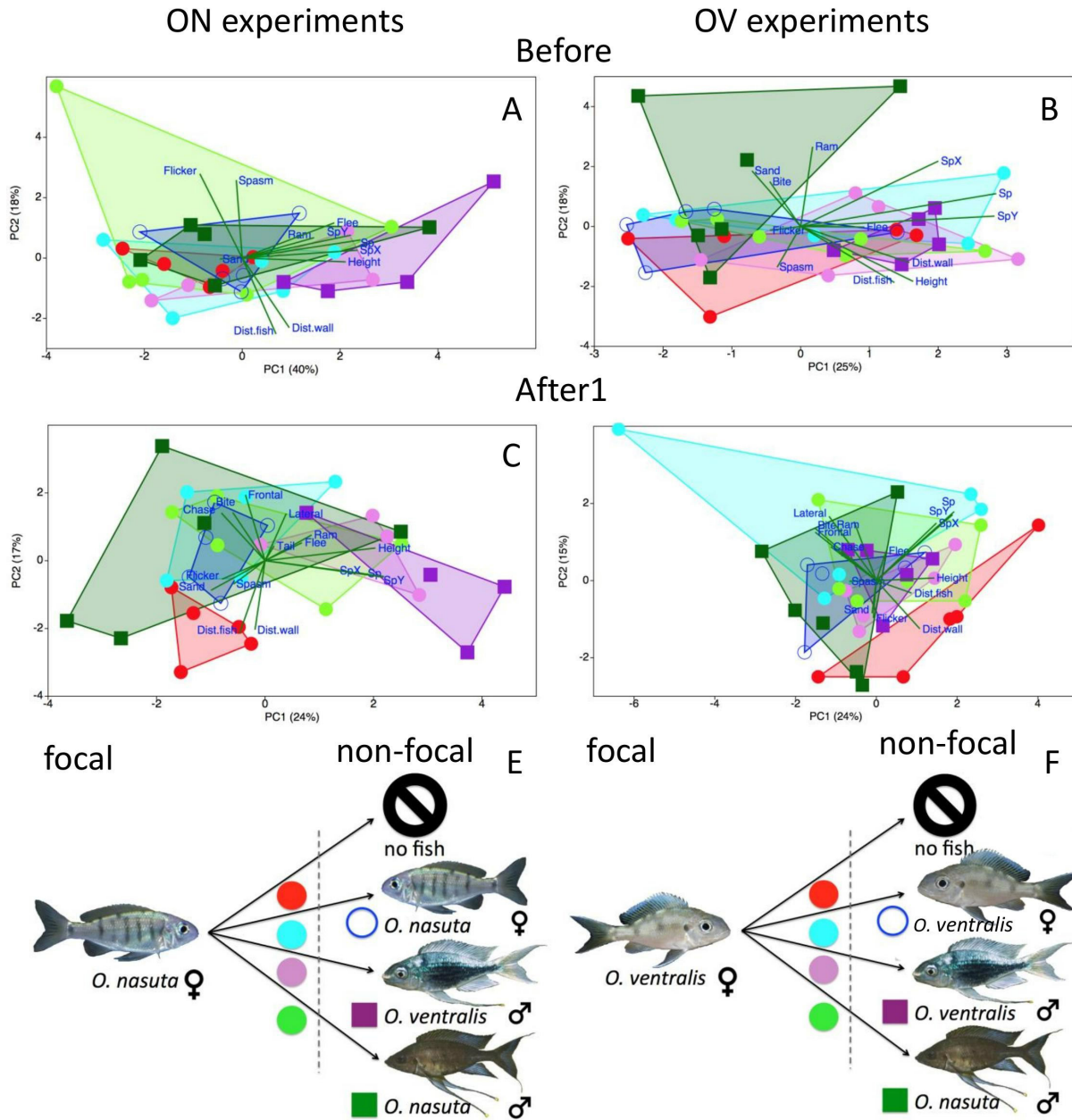


Figure 2 – Principal component analyses performed on the behavioural data collected 15 min before (A–B) and 15 min after (C–D) the visual barrier was removed in the ON (*O. nasuta*, left) and the OV (*O. ventralis*, right) experiments. Symbols on the scatter plots for the ON and OV experiment as in E and F, respectively, with full circles denoting focal females presented with no fish (red), a conspecific female (blue), a male *O. ventralis* (purple), and a male *O. nasuta* (green), empty circles denote non-focal conspecific females and full squares males of *O. ventralis* (purple) and *O. nasuta* (green). Explained variances are added to the axes.

parameters Sp, SpX, SpY all had high, positive contributions to PC1 (Supplementary file 5), reflecting that male *O. ventralis* kept swimming actively when the barrier was removed in the ON experiment.

We carried out CVAs on the same datasets (Fig. 3C–D). For both experiments, the control females stood out by their high values for CV1. This could again be explained by their higher values for Dist. Wall. In the ON experiment, (heterospecific) male *O. ventralis* stood out by their low values for CV1,

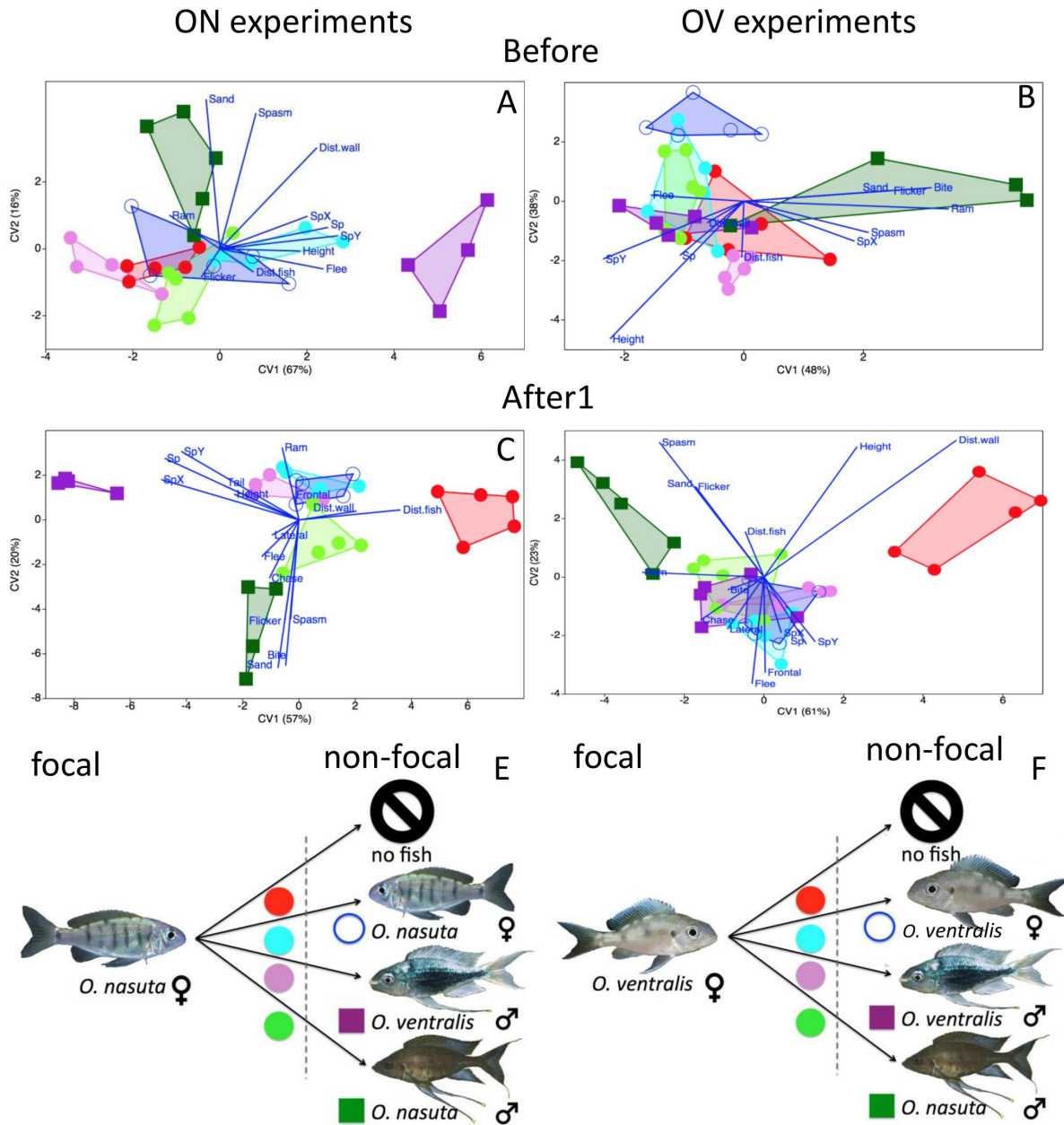


Figure 3 – Canonical variate analyses on the behavioural data collected 15 min before and 15 min after the visual barrier was removed in the ON (*O. nasuta*, left) and the OV (*O. ventralis*, right) experiment. Symbols on the scatter plots for the ON and OV experiments as in E and F, respectively, with full circles denoting focal females presented with no fish (red), a conspecific female (blue), a male *O. ventralis* (purple), and a male *O. nasuta* (green), empty circles denote non-focal conspecific females and full squares males of *O. ventralis* (purple) and *O. nasuta* (green). Explained variances are added to the axes.

which would be attributed to their more active swimming behaviour (Sp, SpX, SpY). Conspecific males of *O. nasuta* stood out by their low values for CV2, which could be due to the higher occurrence of ‘sand’ and ‘bite’ behaviour. Values for female *O. nasuta* that were presented with another fish had more intermediate values for CV1 and CV2. However, values of female *O. nasuta* that were presented to a conspecific male clustered between values of those males and of those of the other females. Similarly, females that were presented to a heterospecific male had values that were intermediate between those of these males and those of the other females (Fig. 3C). This suggests that the behaviour of focal females shares characteristics with the behaviour of the non-focal fish presented to them. In the CVA of the OV experiment, (heterospecific) male *O. nasuta* stood out by their low values for CV1 and high values for CV2. This was most influenced by the higher occurrence of point behaviours (ram, spasm, sand, flicker). Values of male *O. ventralis* overlapped with those of female specimens that were presented with another fish (Fig. 3D). These patterns remained present when performing similar analyses on the data collected 45 minutes after the removal of the visual barrier ([Supplementary file 6](#)). Plotting the shift in average position before and after the removal of the barrier revealed how almost all specimens moved towards the wall when presented with another specimen. Additionally, this showed that specimens of *O. nasuta*, on average, spent more time closer to the bottom whereas *O. ventralis* specimens were more often found higher up in the water column ([Supplementary file 7](#)).

Behaviour of focal females

We tested whether the behavioural responses of female *O. nasuta* and *O. ventralis* differed in three different comparisons (Fig. 1B), i.e., when they were presented to (A) another fish vs no fish, (B) a conspecific female vs a conspecific male, and (C) a conspecific vs a heterospecific male. Within each of the comparisons in the ON experiment, we detected no significant difference in the gonad development of the focal females, in their weights, in the weights of the non-focal fish, and in the percentage of missing frames. The same applies for the OV experiment, although here, non-focal females had lower body weights than conspecific males. Prior to the removal of the visual barrier, no significant difference in behaviour was recorded for focal females from the different treatments in both experiments, and for all three comparisons (Table 2).

For the three comparisons, and for both experiments (ON and OV), we performed permanova on the behavioural data recorded during the 15 minutes after the removal of the visual barrier (Table 2). For both the OV and the ON experiment, this revealed a significant difference in the behaviour of focal females that were not presented to another fish (controls) and focal females that were presented with another fish (comparison A). For the ON experiment, we could not exclude that these differences stem from dispersion effects. However, these dispersion effects can be explained by the (much) lower variation in values for control females compared to those of other focal females. As visualisation of the data showed a clear separation of both groups, we can assume that a difference in dispersion is present together with a difference in average values (Fig. 2C). Mann-Whitney U tests revealed that controls differed from other focal females by their higher values for the variable Dist.wall (ON: 46.3 ± 18.2 vs 20.1 ± 8.8 , $p=0.005$, $g=1.32$; OV: 55.2 ± 13.3 vs 20.8 ± 9.7 , $p=0.002$, $g=1.13$) and their lower values for ‘ram’ (ON: 8.6 ± 12.1 vs 74.5 ± 54.0 , $p=0.005$, $g=-2.14$; OV: 8.0 ± 11.9 vs 48.8 ± 38.4 , $p=0.014$, $g=-3.12$).

Unexpectedly, in both experiments, we did not observe a difference in behaviour between focal females that were presented with a conspecific female or a conspecific male (comparison B). However, when comparing the behaviour of focal females presented with conspecific and heterospecific males (comparison C), a difference became evident between the ON and the OV experiment. In support of our hypothesis, female *O. nasuta* responded differently towards conspecific and heterospecific males, whereas females of *O. ventralis* did not (Table 2). Mann-Whitney U tests revealed that this was due to the lower number of observed ‘ram’ behaviours (43.8 ± 17.9 vs 138 ± 52.9 ; $p=0.04$, $g=2.25$) in female

TABLE 2

PERMANOVA performed on the behavioural parameters of the ON (*O. nasuta*) and OV (*O. ventralis*) experiment. Tests were performed on the data collected during 15 minutes before (B), 15 minutes after (A1) and 45 minutes after (A2) the removal of the opaque wall as well as on behavioural shifts (S) calculated by subtracting data recorded during 15 minutes before from that of 15 min after the removal of the wall (A1-B). We tested five comparisons (Fig. 1B): by comparing the behaviour of focal females that were presented with (A) another fish vs with nothing, (B) with a conspecific female vs a conspecific male, and (C) with a conspecific vs a heterospecific male. We further compared (D) the behaviour of non-focal conspecific males vs females, and (E) conspecific vs heterospecific males. Behaviours that were neither recorded before or after the removal of the wall, ‘tail’ and ‘sand’ for the ON, and ‘flicker’ and ‘sand’ for the OV experiment, were excluded. For the first comparison, Dist.fish was excluded, as it could not be calculated. Values in bold are significant at the 0.05 level. For these comparisons, ° and † denote that the assumption of equal dispersion was violated at the 0.05 and 0.01 levels.

		A	B	C	D	E
ON	B	F:0.31; p: 0.789	F:0.95; p: 0.423	F:0.91; p: 0.474	F:1.17; p: 0.339	F:1.15; p: 0.24
	A1	F:7.28; p: 0.012 †	F:0.42; p: 0.768	F:11.33; p: 0.016 °	F:0.45; p: 0.651	F:0.55; p: 0.73
	A2	F:4.71; p: 0.027 †	F:0.49; p: 0.553	F:8.13; p: 0.040	F:0.66; p: 0.545	F:0.85; p: 0.47
	S	F:8.40; p: 0.006 †	F:1.03; p: 0.416	F:8.75; p: 0.018 †	F:1.18; p: 0.332	F:0.25; p: 0.93
OV	B	F:0.23; p: 0.762	F:1.62; p: 0.203	F:0.85; p: 0.387	F:3.19; p: 0.061	F:5.13; p: 0.013
	A1	F:8.00; p: 0.005	F:0.91; p: 0.386	F:0.40; p: 0.546	F:0.28; p: 0.633	F:0.48; p: 0.524
	A2	F:4.28; p: 0.026	F:0.78; p: 0.438	F:0.48; p: 0.610	F:0.09; p: 0.837	F:0.49; p: 0.525
	S	F:7.61; p: 0.004	F:0.89; p: 0.418	F:0.87; p: 0.407	F:0.42; p: 0.679	F:0.73; p: 0.447

O. nasuta that were presented to male *O. nasuta* compared to those presented to male *O. ventralis*. Additionally, female *O. nasuta* never performed a ‘flee’ behaviour when presented to a male *O. ventralis*, whereas this was observed in all but one of the female *O. nasuta* presented to a male *O. nasuta* (0 vs 2.6 ± 2.3 ; $p=0.04$, $g=-1.33$). We obtained highly similar results when analysing the data collected 45 minutes after the visual barrier was removed, or when analysing the shift data (Table 2).

Behaviour of non-focal specimens

We tested whether the behavioural response of conspecific females and males differed when presented to a focal female (D) and whether the behavioural response of conspecific and heterospecific males differed when presented to a focal female (E). Unexpectedly, permanova revealed a difference in the behaviour of males of *O. nasuta* and *O. ventralis* in the OV experiment, prior to the removal of the barrier. Mann-Whitney U tests revealed that this was due to the higher average vertical swimming speed of male *O. ventralis* compared to male *O. nasuta* (SpY 1.7 ± 0.5 vs 0.7 ± 0.4 , $p=0.014$, $g=2.05$). None of the other comparisons was shown to be significantly different, neither before, nor after the removal of the barrier (Table 2).

Discussion

Summary

We tested the initial response of female *O. nasuta* and *O. ventralis* towards conspecific and heterospecific males. In support of our hypothesis, female *O. nasuta* differentiated between conspecific and

heterospecific males, whereas female *O. ventralis* did not. Visualisation of the data revealed that females of *O. nasuta* mirrored the behaviour of the males to which they were presented. We also presented females of both species with a conspecific female or with nothing (control). Although females always responded to the presence of another fish, their behaviour did not differ when presented with conspecific males and females. Comparisons of non-focal specimens did not reveal any differences in behaviour after presentation to a focal female. However, before the removal of the wall, males of *O. ventralis* and *O. nasuta* behaved differently in the OV experiment.

Responses of *Ophthalmotilapia* females

NEVADO *et al.* (2011) discovered signatures of unidirectional hybridisation in *Ophthalmotilapia*, which could either be explained by cyto-nuclear incompatibilities, or by asymmetric mate choice. The latter explanation implies that females of *O. nasuta* would discriminate more strongly against heterospecific males, than females of *O. ventralis*. This is supported by our experiments.

As we did not present focal females with heterospecific females, we cannot say that the observed species recognition in female *O. nasuta* was due to a different response towards males, or towards all specimens of the other species. However, as females in *Ophthalmotilapia* are non-territorial and therefore often encounter heterospecific congeners, we expect that the female response is specific to heterospecific males. Unexpectedly, females of both species behaved similarly towards conspecific males and females. Hence, we cannot say whether we observed sexually motivated behaviour, or just the routine behaviour of a (isolated) female that encounters a conspecific individual. In the wild, non-breeding females of both species aggregate in large feeding groups (KONINGS, 2019). Hence, being isolated for 12 hours, as was the case prior to the start of the experiment, represents an unnatural situation for females of *Ophthalmotilapia*. It would, therefore, not be unlikely if females of *Ophthalmotilapia* are behaviourally hardwired to reunite immediately with conspecifics, regardless of whether these are female or male.

Females of *O. nasuta* only performed the ‘flee’ behaviour towards conspecific males and displayed the ‘ram’ behaviour less frequently. Although we found no evidence that this behaviour is sexually motivated, male chasing and female fleeing (i.e., ‘flee’) form the first steps in the mating process of *Ophthalmotilapia* (KÉVER *et al.* 2018). The ram behaviour, on the other hand, was seen in all experimental trials in which a focal female was presented to another fish. Indeed, the main difference in behaviour between focal females of both species that were, or were not, presented with another fish was the amount of time spent close to the wall, and in the display of the ‘ram’ behaviour.

We discovered that several of the presumed females that we planned to use in the experiments had been, or changed into, males. This was also observed for one of the non-focal females in the ON experiment, which was kept isolated from males after the experiment ([Supplementary file 2](#)). Although there are several reports of sex changes occurring in cichlids (PETERS 1975; NAISH & RIBBINK 1990), evidence hereof remained, until now, limited. As no reproductions were recorded when these specimens still had a female morphology, we cannot rule out that they were males that delayed the development of the conspicuous male colouration and the elongated pelvic fins. Hence, we did not provide solid evidence of sex change in *Ophthalmotilapia*.

Interpretation

Although we uncovered a significant difference in the behaviour of females of *O. nasuta* that were presented with a conspecific and a heterospecific male, permanova did not reveal a significant interspecific difference in the behaviour of the males. This could indicate that female *O. nasuta* interpreted behaviour differently when displayed by male *O. nasuta* or *O. ventralis*. Such species- or

sex-dependent interpretation of behaviour is known for several cichlid species, in which territorial males present themselves identically towards both visiting females and intruding males (BAERENDS & BAERENDS-VAN ROON 1950). Visual exploration of the data, however (Fig. 3C, [Supplementary file 6](#)), revealed a potential difference in male behaviour, which was mirrored by female response. As female *O. ventralis* did not appear to differentiate between conspecific and heterospecific males, one could ask why hybridisation is not even more prevalent. However, we only examined the very first stage in a potential mating process, so other differences that are present in the mating behaviour between both species could be responsible for this. For example, males of *O. ventralis* display a specific late mating behaviour, called ‘invite’, which males of *O. nasuta* never display (KÉVER *et al.* 2018). Additionally, hybrids might have a lower fitness. In order to reach mitochondrial introgression, female hybrids would also need to mate with males of *O. nasuta*. This is not unlikely given that, in cichlids, female mate choice is influenced, via imprinting, by the maternal phenotype (VERZIJDEN & TEN CATE 2007; VERZIJDEN *et al.* 2008).

The role of males

Asymmetric propensities towards hybridisation are expected in the intermediate stages of reproductive isolation (ARNOLD *et al.* 1996). This has been observed in a variety of animal taxa including lungless salamanders (VERRELL 1990), spadefoot toads (PFENNIG 2007), swordtails (CRAPON DE CAPRONA & RYAN 1990), pupfishes (STRECKER & KODRIC-BROWN 1999), and several cichlids (EGGER *et al.* 2008; NEVADO *et al.* 2011). Although most examples are related to female mate choice, these patterns can also be caused by asymmetries in male choosiness (SVENSSON *et al.* 2007). Although male mate choice is common in fishes (WONG & JENNIONS 2003; WERNER & LOTEM 2003), we chose to focus on the role of females (see introduction, SEEHAUSEN *et al.* 2008; SEFC *et al.* 2017). However, the mode of fertilization in *Ophthalmotilapia* could also have an influence on male choosiness. HAESLER *et al.* (2011) studied the reproductive behaviour of *O. ventralis*, but it can be assumed that the behaviour of its congeners is highly similar. In *O. ventralis*, a ripe female will visit the territories of several males, either to spawn, or just to collect additional ejaculates. Subsequently, sperm competition will take place within her mouth, resulting in clutches with multiple sires (HAESLER *et al.* 2011). Given that this dilutes the effect of a ‘wrong’ choice, a female can afford to be less choosy. Differences in both male and female courtship effort towards genetically distant or similar mates have been documented in another mouth brooding cichlid: *Tropheus* Boulenger, 1898 (ZOPPOTH *et al.* 2013). However, species of *Tropheus* are sexually monomorphic and both sexes are territorial. Additionally, males of *Tropheus* invest significantly more in raising the clutch, by providing the female access to their feeding territories. As males of *Ophthalmotilapia* do not share their resources, we can expect these males to be less choosy than those of *Tropheus*. Additionally, a substantial role of male mate choice is not supported by our data, as we did not observe a difference in behaviour between non-focal males of *O. nasuta* and *O. ventralis* when presented with females of the two species. It should be noted, however, that two males of *O. ventralis* that displayed mating behaviour towards females of *O. nasuta* were excluded from the analyses.

Whereas our experiments only revealed the capacity for species recognition in females of *O. nasuta*, we cannot conclude that males cannot distinguish between females of the two species. Whereas the males of *O. nasuta* and *O. ventralis* behaved differently when a visual barrier was present, no significant difference was found after its removal. This could imply that males of the two species behave in a similar way when presented with a conspecific or a heterospecific female. However, an alternative explanation would be that males recognise conspecific and heterospecifics, and use this knowledge to court females using a repertoire appropriate to the species. Although this was found in sister species pairs of freshwater sticklebacks (*Gasterosteus* spp. L. 1758) (KOZAK *et al.* 2009), our experimental design did not allow us to test this in *Ophthalmotilapia*.

We cannot exclude that morphological, physiological and behavioural features distinguishing males of *O. nasuta* from males of congeners could have caused the asymmetric pattern of introgression. Foremost, males of *O. nasuta* become larger and possess longer pelvic fins. This feature could render them more attractive as females of *O. ventralis* have a preference towards males with strongly elongated pelvic fins (HAESLER *et al.* 2011). As a change in the feature associated with attractiveness can alter species recognition in the mating process (PHELPS *et al.* 2006), the extra-long pelvic fins of males of *O. nasuta* could serve as a super-natural stimulus (*sensu* TINBERGEN 1948). Additionally, even though HAESLER *et al.* (2011) found no correlation between female choice and male body length in *O. ventralis*, they did observe that larger males outcompeted their rivals in sperm competition within the females' mouth. Additionally, sperm of *O. nasuta* remains viable for a significantly longer amount of time than that of *O. ventralis* (MORITA *et al.* 2014). Lastly, males of *O. nasuta* construct true bowers (elaborate, crater-shaped sand mounts), whereas the nests of males of the other species of *Ophthalmotilapia* only consist of a small area of cleaned rock, or of a small pit in the sand (KONINGS 2019).

The importance of visual clues

Although animals can use multiple kinds of cues to assess the quality of a potential mate, their final assessment depends on the overall information available. This is exemplified by female mate choice in the allopatric swordtail species *Xiphophorus nigrensis* Rosen, 1960 and *X. pygmaeus* Hubbs & Gordon, 1943. Here, mating preferences differed depending on whether visual, olfactory or a combination of both cues were available (CRAPON DE CAPRONA & RYAN 1990). Different responses to visual and olfactory cues were also shown for females of sympatric *Cyprinodon* Lacepède, 1803 pupfish species from Lake Chichancanab (Mexico). Here, different degrees of asymmetric discrimination of males were observed depending on whether females had access to visual or olfactory information (STRECKER & KODRIC-BROWN 1999). In species-rich systems and in species that form leks, such as *Ophthalmotilapia* spp., females must be able to rapidly assess the quality of a potential mate (BARLOW 2002). Females of *Ophthalmotilapia* could use the morphological characteristics, conspicuous bowers and/or stereotypical displays of males to distinguish them from sympatric congeners. However, even though multiple cues can be involved, mate choice decisions in radiations are often based on just a small amount of (combinations of) these traits (HOHENLOHE & ARNOLD 2010).

The separation wall used in our experiments contained holes that allowed for the exchange of water between both compartments. Hence, besides visual clues, the fish most likely also received olfactory and acoustic information. Although visual cues were suggested to be the primary factor in species-isolating, female mate choice in other cichlids (JORDAN *et al.* 2003; KIDD *et al.* 2006), we cannot rule out the importance of other types of information. Studies have shown that olfactory (PLENDERLEITH *et al.* 2005; BLAIS *et al.* 2009), acoustic (NELISSEN 1978; AMORIM *et al.* 2004; KÉVER *et al.* 2018) and behavioural (BARLOW 2002) information can also influence the mating process. Although SEEHAUSEN & VAN ALPHEN (1998) showed a certain hierarchy of information, where other cues are considered when visual information is absent or masked, other experiments showed that female cichlids are more likely to select the right male when both olfactory and visual cues are available (PLENDERLEITH *et al.* 2005; BLAIS *et al.* 2009). When visual information suffices for mate recognition, the behaviour throughout the mating process, i.e., potentially leading toward spawning, does not need to diverge between closely-related species (BARLOW 2002). This may explain why spawning behaviour of *Ophthalmotilapia* is remarkably similar across the genus (KÉVER *et al.* 2018) and why differently-coloured, sympatric mbuna cichlids from Lake Malawi have identical courtship behaviours (MCELROY & KORNFIELD 1990).

Ecological reasons for asymmetric hybridisation

Although they can be found in sympatry, *O. ventralis* is more associated with the rocky shores of Lake Tanganyika, whereas *O. nasuta* has a wider ecological range. At rocky shores, *O. ventralis* can be one

of the most abundant cichlid species (STURMBAUER *et al.* 2008). Hence, for a female *O. ventralis*, a random encounter with another male of *Ophthalmotilapia* is much more likely to result in a conspecific than a heterospecific encounter. In contrast, for a female *O. nasuta* venturing into the preferred habitat of *O. ventralis*, a conspecific encounter would be less often the case. Therefore, the ability to discriminate between conspecific and heterospecifics would be less important for females of *O. ventralis* than for those of *O. nasuta*. A similar interpretation was given to explain asymmetries in female discrimination of sympatric species of *Cyprinodon*, where the species with the highest abundance had the lowest choosiness (STRECKER & KODRIC-BROWN 1999). Although a species' propensity for discrimination could be a consequence of its distribution range, the opposite could also hold. Species that are better in recognizing conspecifics are more likely to maintain the integrity of their gene pool. Hence, they could be better in colonising habitats that have already been occupied by related species. Finally, we showed that substantial behavioural differences can be observed between closely-related species. This should be a warning to be cautious when assuming similarities in the behaviour of certain (model) organisms and related taxa.

Ethical note

All specimens were obtained from a certified commercial supplier (Cichlidenstadl, Alerheim, Germany). Specimens were housed in the aquarium facilities of the University of Liège. Experimental procedures were performed in accordance with Belgian law, and approved by the University of Liège Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee (protocol #1759) in accordance with the regulations of the ethical committee of the University of Liège. All manipulations were performed by a FELASA-certified experimenter.

Acknowledgements

We are grateful to Siegfried Loose for his advice on the rearing of *Ophthalmotilapia* and to Nedim Tüzün for his advice on the tracking software. We thank Ad Konings (Cichlid press) to provide us with pictures of *Ophthalmotilapia*. This study is part of the GENBAS project, which was funded by the BELSPO (Belgian Science Policy) BRAIN-be program. This manuscript has been peer-reviewed and recommended by Peer Community In Zoology (<https://doi.org/10.24072/pci.zool.100010>). We thank Ellen Decaestecker for recommending this article (DECAESTECKER 2022) and George Turner and two anonymous reviewers for reviewing it. Supplementary material is available online from <https://doi.org/10.1101/2021.08.07.455508>. The data and script are deposited on Zenodo from <https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.5534485>. The authors declare that they have no financial conflict of interest with the content of this article.

References

- AMORIM M.C.P., KNIGHT M.E., STRATOUDAKIS Y. & TURNER G.F. (2004). Differences in sounds made by courting males of three closely related Lake Malawi cichlids. *Journal of Fishery Biology* 65 (5): 1358–1371. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.0022-1112.2004.00535.x>
- ANDERSON M.J. (2006). Distance-based tests for homogeneity of multivariate dispersions. *Biometrics* 62 (1): 245–253. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1541-0420.2005.00440.x>
- ARNOLD S.J., VERRELL P.A. & TILLEY S.G. (1996). The evolution of asymmetry in sexual isolation: A model and a test case. *Evolution* 50: 1024–1033. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1558-5646.1996.tb02343.x>

- BAERENDS G.P. & BAERENDS-VAN ROON J.M. (1950). *An Introduction to the Study of the Ethology of the Cichlid Fishes*. E.J. Brill, Leiden, The Netherlands.
- BARLOW G.W. (2002). How behavioural studies contribute to the species problem: a piscine perspective. *Fish and Fisheries* 3 (3): 197–212. <https://doi.org/10.1046/j.1467-2979.2002.00083.x>
- BLAIS J., PLENDERLEITH M., RICO C., TAYLOR M.I., SEEHAUSEN O., VAN OOSTERHOUT C. & TURNER G.F. (2009). Assortative mating among Lake Malawi cichlid fish populations is not simply predictable from male nuptial colour. *BMC Ecology and Evolution* 9: article 53. <https://doi.org/10.1186/1471-2148-9-53>
- COYNE J.A. & ORR H.A. (2004). *Speciation*. Sinauer Associates, Sunderland, MA.
- CRAPON DE CAPRONA M.D. & RYAN M.J. (1990). Conspecific mate recognition in swordtails, *Xiphophorus nigrensis* and *X. pygmaeus* (Poeciliidae): olfactory and visual cues. *Animal Behaviour* 39 (2): 290–296. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0003-3472\(05\)80873-5](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0003-3472(05)80873-5)
- DANLEY P.D. & KOCHER T.D. (2001). Speciation in rapidly diverging systems: lessons from Lake Malawi. *Molecular Ecology* 10: 1075–1086. <https://doi.org/10.1046/j.1365-294X.2001.01283.x>
- DECAESTECKER E. (2022). Experimental evidence for asymmetrical species recognition in East African *Ophthalmotilapia* cichlids. *Peer Community in Zoology* 100010. <https://doi.org/10.24072/pci.zool.100010>
- EGGER B., OBERMÜLLER B., EIGNER E., STURMBAUER C. & SEFC K.M. (2008). Assortative mating preferences between colour morphs of the endemic Lake Tanganyika cichlid genus *Tropheus*. *Hydrobiologia*. 615: 37–48. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-1-4020-9582-5_3
- FRIARD O. & GAMBA M. (2016). BORIS: A Free, Versatile open-source event-logging software for video / audio coding and live observations. *Methods in Ecology and Evolution* 7 (11): 1–6. <https://doi.org/10.1111/2041-210X.12584>
- GONZALEZ-VOYER A., FITZPATRICK J.L. & KOLM N. (2008). Sexual selection determines parental care patterns in cichlid fishes. *Evolution* 62 (8): 2015–2026. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1558-5646.2008.00426.x>
- HAESLER M.P., LINDEYER C.M., OTTI O., BONFILS D., HEG D. & TABORSKY M. (2011). Female mouthbrooders in control of pre- and postmating sexual selection. *Behavioral Ecology* 22 (5): 1033–1041. <https://doi.org/10.1093/beheco/arr087>
- HAMMER Ø., HARPER D.A. & RYAN P.D. (2001). PAST: Paleontological statistics software package for education and data analysis. *Palaeontologia Electronica* 4 (1): 9 pp. Available from http://palaeo-electronica.org/2001_1/past/issue1_01.htm [accessed 24 March 2022].
- HANSENS M., SNOEKS J. & VERHEYEN E. (1999). A morphometric revision of the genus *Ophthalmotilapia* (Teleostei, Cichlidae) from Lake Tanganyika (East Africa). *Zoological Journal of the Linnean Society* 125 (4): 487–512. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1096-3642.1999.tb00602.x>
- HO J., TUMKAYA T., ARYAL S., CHOI H. & CLARIDGE-CHANG. A (2019). Moving beyond *P* values: data analysis with estimation graphics. *Nature Methods* 16 (7): 565–566. <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41592-019-0470-3>
- HOHENLOHE P.A. & ARNOLD S.J. (2010). Dimensionality of mate choice, sexual isolation, and speciation. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences* 107 (38): 16583–16588. <https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.1003537107>
- IMMLER S. & TABORSKY M. (2009). Sequential polyandry affords post-mating sexual selection in the mouths of cichlid females. *Behavioral Ecology and Sociobiology* 63 (8): 1219–1230. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00265-009-0744-3>

- JIGGINS C.D., SALAZAR C., LINARES M. & MAVAREZ J. (2008). Hybrid trait speciation and *Heliconius* butterflies. *Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society B*. 363 (1506): 3047–3054. <https://doi.org/10.1098/rstb.2008.0065>
- JORDAN R., KELLOGG K., JUANES F. & STAUFFER J. (2003). Evaluation of female mate choice cues in a group of Lake Malawi mbuna (Cichlidae). *Copeia* 2003 (1): 181–186. <https://doi.org/b7gv39>
- KÉVER L., PARMENTIER E., DERYCKE S., VERHEYEN E., SNOEKS J., VAN STEENBERGE M. & PONCIN P. (2018). Limited possibilities for prezygotic barriers in the reproductive behaviour of sympatric *Ophthalmotilapia* species (Teleostei, Cichlidae). *Zoology* 126: 71–81. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.zool.2017.12.001>
- KIDD M.R., DANLEY P.D. & KOCHER T.D. (2006). A direct assay of female choice in cichlids: all the eggs in one basket. *Journal of Fish Biology* 68 (2): 373–384. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.0022-1112.2006.00896.x>
- KOBLMÜLLER S., DUFTNER N., SEFC K.M., AIBARA M., STIPACEK M., BLANC M., EGGER B. & STURMBAUER C. (2007). Reticulate phylogeny of gastropod-shell-breeding cichlids from Lake Tanganyika - the result of repeated introgressive hybridisation. *BMC Ecology and Evolution* 7: article number 7. <https://doi.org/10.1186/1471-2148-7-7>
- KOCHER T.D. (2004). Adaptive evolution and explosive speciation: the cichlid fish model. *Nature Reviews Genetics* 5 (4): 288–298. <https://doi.org/10.1038/nrg1316>
- KONINGS A. (2019). *Tanganyika Cichlids in their Natural Habitat*. 4th edition. Cichlid Press, El Paso, TX.
- KOZAK G.M. & BOUGHMAN J.W. (2009). Learned conspecific mate preference in a species pair of sticklebacks. *Behavioral Ecology* 20: 1282–1288. <https://doi.org/10.1093/beheco/arp134>
- KOZAK G.M., REISLAND M. & BOUGHMANN J.W. (2009). Sex differences in mate recognition and conspecific preference in species with mutual mate choice. *Evolution* 63: 353–365. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1558-5646.2008.00564.x>
- LUTTBEG B., TOWNER M.C., WANDESFORDE-SMITH A., MANGEL M. & FOSTER S.A. (2001). State-dependent mate-assessment and mate-selection behavior in female threespine sticklebacks (*Gasterosteus aculeatus*, Gasterosteiformes: Gasterosteidae). *Ethology* 107 (6): 545–558. <https://doi.org/10.1046/j.1439-0310.2001.00694.x>
- MAYR E. (1982). *The Growth of Biological Thought: Diversity, Evolution and Inheritance*. Harvard University Belknap Press, Cambridge, MA.
- MARQUES D.A., MEIER J.I. & SEEHAUSEN O. (2019). A combinatorial view on speciation and adaptive radiation. *Trends in Ecology and Evolution* 34 (6): 531–544. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tree.2019.02.008>
- MCELROY D.M. & KORNFELD I. (1990). Sexual selection, reproductive behaviour, and speciation in the mbuna species flock of Lake Malawi (Pisces: Cichlidae). *Environmental Biology of Fishes* 28: 273–284. <https://doi.org/10.1007/bf00751041>
- MENDELSON T.C. & SHAW K.L. (2012). The (mis)concept of species recognition. *Trends in Ecology and Evolution* 27 (8): 421–427. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tree.2012.04.001>
- MORAN M.D. (2003). Arguments for rejecting the sequential Bonferroni in ecological studies. *Oikos* 100 (2): 403–405. <https://doi.org/10.1034/j.1600-0706.2003.12010.x>
- MORITA M., AWATA S., YORIFUJI M., OTA K., KOHDA M. & OCHI H. (2014). Bower-building behaviour is associated with increased sperm longevity in Tanganyikan cichlids. *Journal of Evolutionary Biology* 27 (12): 2629–2643. <https://doi.org/10.1111/jeb.12522>

- NAISH K.A. & RIBBINK A.J. (1990). A preliminary investigation of sex change in *Pseudotropheus lombardoi* (Pisces: Cichlidae). *Environmental Biology of Fishes* 28: 285–294. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-94-009-2065-1_18
- NAKAGAWA S. (2004). A farewell to Bonferroni: the problem of low statistical power and publication bias. *Behavioral Ecology* 15: 1044–1045. <https://doi.org/10.1093/beheco/arh107>
- NELISSEN M.H.J. (1978). Sound production by some Tanganyikan cichlid fishes and a hypothesis for the evolution of their communication mechanisms. *Behaviour* 64 (1–2): 137–147. <https://doi.org/10.1163/156853978X00477>
- NEVADO B., FAZALOVA V., BACKELJAU T., HANSENS M. & VERHEYEN E. (2011). Repeated unidirectional introgression of nuclear and mitochondrial DNA between four congeneric Tanganyikan cichlids. *Molecular Biology and Evolution* 28 (8): 2253–2267. <https://doi.org/10.1093/molbev/msr043>
- OKSANEN J.F., BLANCHET G., FRIENDLY M., KINDT R., LEGENDRE P., MCGLINN D., MINCHIN P.R., O'HARA R.B., SIMPSON G.L., SOLYMOS P.M., STEVENS H.H., SZOEC S. & WAGNER H. (2017). *Vegan: Community Ecology Package*. R package version 2.4-5.
- OLIVEIRA R.F. (2012). Social plasticity in fish: integrating mechanisms and function. *Journal of Fish Biology* 81: 2127–2150. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1095-8649.2012.03477.x>
- PANFILI J., THIOR D., ECOUTIN J.-M., NDIAYE P. & ALBARET J.-J. (2006). Influence of salinity on the size at maturity for fish species reproducing in contrasting West African estuaries. *Journal of Fish Biology* 69 (1): 95–113. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1095-8649.2006.01069.x>
- PETERS H.M. (1975). Hermaphroditism in cichlid fishes. In: Reinboth R. (ed.) *Intersexuality in the Animal Kingdom*: 228–235. Springer-Verlag, Berlin. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-642-66069-6_22
- PFENNIG K.S. (2007). Facultative mate choice drives adaptive hybridization. *Science* 318 (5852): 965. <https://doi.org/10.1126/science.1146035>
- PHELPS S.M., RAND A.S. & RYAN M.J. (2006). A cognitive framework for mate choice and species recognition. *The American Naturalist* 167 (1): 28–42. <https://doi.org/10.1086/498538>
- PLENDERLEITH M., VAN OOSTERHOUT C., ROBINSON R.L. & TURNER G.F. (2005). Female preference for conspecific males based on olfactory cues in a Lake Malawi cichlid fish. *Biology Letters* 1 (4): 411–414. <https://doi.org/10.1098/rsbl.2005.0355>
- POLL M. (1986). Classification des cichlidae du Lac Tanganyika: Tribus, genres et espèces. *Bulletin de l'Académie royale de la Belgique* 8: 1–163.
- R CORE TEAM (2017). *R: A Language and Environment for Statistical Computing*. R foundation for statistical computing, Vienna, Austria.
- RONCO F., BÜSCHER H.H., INDERMAUER A. & SALZBURGER W. (2020). The taxonomic diversity of the cichlid fish fauna of ancient Lake Tanganyika, East Africa. *Journal of Great Lakes Research* 46: 1067–1078. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jglr.2019.05.009>
- ROUX C., FRAÏSSE C., ROMIGUIER J., ANCIAUX Y., GALTIER N. & BIERNE N. (2016). Shedding light on the grey zone of speciation along a continuum of genomic divergence. *PLoS Biology* 14 (12): e2000234. <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pbio.2000234>
- RÜBER L., MEYER A., STURMBAUER C. & VERHEYEN E. (2001). Population structure in two sympatric species of the Lake Tanganyika cichlid tribe Eretmodini: evidence for introgression. *Molecular Ecology* 10 (5): 1207–1225. <https://doi.org/10.1046/j.1365-294x.2001.01259.x>
- SALZBURGER W. (2018). Understanding explosive diversification through cichlid fish genomics. *Nature Reviews Genetics* 19: 705–717. <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41576-018-0043-9>

- SALZBURGER W., BRAASCH I. & MEYER A. (2007). Adaptive sequence divergence in a colour gene involved in the formation of the characteristic egg-dummies of male *Haplochromis* cichlid fishes. *BMC Biology* 5: article number 51. <https://doi.org/10.1186/1741-7007-5-51>
- SCHNEIDER C.A., RASBAND W.S. & ELICEIRI K.W. (2012). NIH Image to ImageJ: 25 years of image analysis. *Nature Methods* 9 (7): 671–675. <https://doi.org/10.1038/nmeth.2089>
- SEEHAUSEN O. (2004). Hybridisation and adaptive radiation. *Trends in Ecology and Evolution* 19 (4): 198–207. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tree.2004.01.003>
- SEEHAUSEN O. & VAN ALPHEN J.J.M. (1998). The effect of male coloration on female mate choice in closely related Lake Victoria cichlids (*Haplochromis nyererei* complex). *Behavioral Ecology and Sociobiology* 42: 1–8.
- SEEHAUSEN O., TERA I., MAGALHAES I.S., CARLETON K.L., MROSSO H.D.J., MIYAGI R., VAN DER SLUIJS I., SCHNEIDER M.V., MAAN M.E., TACHIDA H., IMAI H. & OKADA N. (2008). Speciation through sensory drive in cichlid fish. *Nature* 455: 620–626. <https://doi.org/10.1038/nature07285>
- SEFC K.M., MATTERS DORFER K., ZIEGELBECKER A., NEUHÜTTLER N., STEINER O., GOESSLER W. & KOBLMÜLLER S. (2017). Shifting barriers and phenotypic diversification by hybridisation. *Ecology Letters* 20 (5): 651–662. <https://doi.org/10.1111/ele.12766>
- SOMMER-TREMBO C., PLATH M., GISMANN J., HELFRICH C. & BIERBACH D. (2017). Context-dependent female mate choice maintains variation in male sexual activity. *Royal Society Open Science* 4: 170303. <https://doi.org/10.1098/rsos.170303>
- STRECKER U. & KODRIC-BROWN A. (1999). Mate recognition systems in a species flock of Mexican pupfish. *Journal of Evolutionary Biology* 12 (5): 927–935. <https://doi.org/10.1046/j.1420-9101.1999.00096.x>
- STURMBAUER C., FUCHS C., HARB G., DAMM E., DUFTNER N., MADERBACHER M., KOCH M. & KOBLMÜLLER S. (2008). Abundance, distribution, and territory areas of rock-dwelling Lake Tanganyika cichlid fish species. *Hydrobiologia* 615 (1): 57–68. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-1-4020-9582-5_5
- SULLIVAN B.K. (2009). Mate recognition, species boundaries and the fallacy of “species recognition”. *Open Zoology* 2: 86–90. <https://doi.org/10.2174/1874336601002009086>
- SVENSSON E.I., KARLSSON K., FRIBERG M. & EROUKHMANOFF F. (2007). Gender differences in species recognition and the evolution of asymmetric sexual isolation. *Current Biology* 17 (22): 1943–1947. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cub.2007.09.038>
- TINBERGEN N. (1948). Social releasers and the experimental method required for their study. *Wilson Bulletin* 60 (1): 6–51.
- THEIS A., SALZBURGER W. & EGGER B. (2012). The function of anal fin egg-spots in the cichlid fish *Astatotilapia burtoni*. *PLoS ONE* 7 (1): e29878. <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0029878>
- THOMAS G.H. & SZÉKELY T. (2005). Evolutionary pathways in shorebird breeding systems: sexual conflict, parental care, and chick development. *Evolution* 59 (10): 2222–2230. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.0014-3820.2005.tb00930.x>
- TRIVERS R.L. (1972). Parental investment and sexual selection. In: CAMPBELL B (ed.) *Sexual Selection and the Descent of Man 1871–1971*: 136–179. Aldine Publishing Company, Chicago.
- TURNER G.F., SEEHAUSEN O., KNIGHT M.E., ALLENDER C.J. & ROBINSON R.L. (2001). How many species of cichlid fishes are there in African lakes. *Molecular Ecology* 10 (3): 793–806. <https://doi.org/10.1046/j.1365-294x.2001.01200.x>

VAN OPPEN M.J.H., TURNER G.F., RICO C., ROBINSON R.L., DEUTSCH J.C., GENNER M.J. & HEWITT G.M. (1998). Assortative mating among rock-dwelling cichlid fishes supports high estimates of species richness from Lake Malawi. *Molecular Ecology* 7 (8): 991–1001.

<https://doi.org/10.1046/j.1365-294x.1998.00417.x>

VERRELL P.A. (1990). Frequency of interspecific mating in salamanders of the plethodontid genus *Desmognathus*: different experimental designs may yield different results. *Journal of Zoology* 221 (3): 441–451. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1469-7998.1990.tb04012.x>

VERZIJDEN M.N. & TEN CATE C. (2007). Early learning influences species assortative mating preferences in Lake Victoria cichlid fish. *Biology letters* 3 (2): 134–136. <https://doi.org/10.1098/rsbl.2006.0601>

VERZIJDEN M.N., KORTHOF R.E.M. & TEN CATE C. (2008). Females learn from mothers and males learn from others. The effect of mother and siblings on the development of female mate preferences and male aggression biases in Lake Victoria cichlids, genus *Mbipia*. *Behavioral Ecology and Sociobiology* 62: 1359–1368. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00265-008-0564-x>

WERNER N.Y. & LOTEMA A. (2003). Choosy males in a haplochromine cichlid: first experimental evidence for male mate choice in a lekking species. *Animal Behaviour* 66 (2): 293–298.

<https://doi.org/10.1006/anbe.2003.2208>

WIRTZ P. (1999). Mother species-father species: unidirectional hybridization in animals with female choice. *Animal Behaviour* 58: 1–12. <https://doi.org/10.1006/anbe.1999.1144>

WONG B.M.B. & JENNIONS M.D. (2003). Costs influence male mate choice in a freshwater fish. *Proceedings of the Royal Society, B-Biological Sciences* 270 (Suppl. 1): S36–S38.

<https://doi.org/10.1098/rsbl.2003.0003>

ZOPPOTH P., KOBLMÜLLER S. & SEFC K.M. (2013). Male courtship preferences demonstrate discrimination against allopatric colour morphs in a cichlid fish. *Journal of Evolutionary Biology* 26 (3): 577–586. <https://doi.org/10.1111/jeb.12074>

Manuscript received: 22 February 2022

Manuscript accepted: 10 March 2022

Published on: 13 April 2022

Branch editor: Isa Schön

Supplementary files

Supplementary file 1. Summary of the experiments.

Supplementary file 2. Indications for sex change observed in *O. nasuta* females. Top row: gonads of some of the specimens that were female in external phenotype but had male or ambiguous gonads (ON33, 35, 26, 43). Vertical left: female gonads in developmental stage 3 (ON34), 4 (ON24) and 5 (ON37) respectively (PANFILI *et al.* 2006). Bottom: two presumed non-focal *O. nasuta* females used in the ON experiment, one of which could have undergone transition after the experiments, and horizontal right, the ventral area of the same specimens, with A: anal pore and UG: urogenital pore.

Supplementary file 3. Visualization of tracking data. The position of each fish is plotted for each second in which specimens were tracked with the positions recorded before and after the removal of the opaque wall (grey) coloured differently. Ellipses denote the area in which 90% of tracks are situated, large dots denote the average positions before and after the removal of the barrier and arrows shows the change

in mean position. The separation wall is visualized as a meshed partition. The average speed before (v_0) and after (v_1) the removal of the barrier is plotted for each tracked specimen with data for focal specimens given in bold. Abbreviations (ON: *O. nasuta*, OV: *O. ventralis*, F: female, M: male).

Supplementary file 4. Summary of the data.

Supplementary file 5. Loadings and variance of the main axes of the PCAs and CVAs conducted in the study.

Supplementary file 6. Principal component analyses and Canonical variate analyses performed on the behaviours recorded 45 min after the visual barrier was removed of the ON (*O. nasuta*, left) and the OV (*O. ventralis*, right) experiment. Symbols on the scatter plots for the ON and OV experiment as in E and F, respectively, with full circles denoting focal females presented with no fish (red), a conspecific female (blue) an *O. ventralis* male (purple), and an *O. nasuta* male (green), empty circles denote non-focal conspecific females and full squares *O. ventralis* (purple) and *O. nasuta* (green) males. Explained variances are added to the axes.

Supplementary file 7. Shift in average position of the specimens analysed 15min before and 15min after the removal of the separation wall for the ON (above) and OV (below) experiment. Focal specimens are all visualised on the left, and non-focal specimens on the right. Dimensions in cm, with the vertical bar representing the separation wall. Dashed arrows represent individual fishes, bold arrows the average per treatment. Colours, for focal females (ON and OV) presented with no fish (red), a conspecific female (turquoise) an *O. ventralis* male (pink), and an *O. nasuta* male (light green), and non-focal specimens (right): conspecific females (blue), *O. ventralis* males (purple) and *O. nasuta* males (green).