

1 Acoustic and postural displays in a miniature and transparent teleost fish, *Danionella dracula*

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32 **ABSTRACT**

33 Acoustic communication is widespread across vertebrates, including among fishes. We report
34 robust acoustic displays during aggressive interactions for a laboratory colony of *Danionella*
35 *dracula*, a relatively recently discovered miniature and transparent species of teleost fish closely
36 related to zebrafish (*Danio rerio*). Males produce bursts of pulsatile, click-like sounds and a
37 distinct postural display, extension of a hypertrophied lower jaw, during aggressive but not
38 courtship interactions. Females lack a hypertrophied lower jaw and show no evidence of sound
39 production or jaw extension in such contexts. Novel pairs of size-matched or -mismatched males
40 were combined in resident-intruder assays where sound production and jaw extension could be
41 linked to individuals. Resident males produce significantly more sound pulses and extend their
42 jaw more often than intruders in both dyad contexts, and relatively larger males are significantly
43 more sonic and exhibit more jaw extensions in size-mismatched pairs. The majority of highest
44 sound producers in both contexts also show increased jaw extension during periods of
45 heightened sonic activity. These studies firmly establish *D. dracula* as a sound-producing species
46 that modulates both acoustic and postural displays during aggressive interactions based on either
47 residency or body size, providing a foundation for further investigating the role of multimodal
48 displays in a new model clade for neurogenomic studies of aggression, courtship, and other
49 social interactions.

50

51 **INTRODUCTION**

52 Animals across taxa have distinct behavioral repertoires utilizing a variety of signaling channels
53 and modalities to mediate complex social interactions (Bradbury and Vehrencamp, 2011). Signal
54 structure within a modality can further vary at a species or individual level depending on the
55 environment and social context (Bradbury and Vehrencamp, 2011). Acoustic communication
56 provides many such examples (e.g., Gerhardt and Huber, 2002), with signals differing in
57 parameters ranging from amplitude, duration and fundamental frequency to the time interval
58 between repetitive components within a call and between calls (e.g., Davies and Halliday, 1978;
59 Clutton-Brock and Albon, 1979; Sebastianutto et al., 2008; Odom et al., 2021). Acoustic
60 repertoires also often differ between the sexes (Gerhardt and Huber, 2002; Bradbury and
61 Vehrencamp, 2011). In many species of teleost fish, males often exhibit more diverse acoustic
62 repertoires than females, although detailed investigations of female sound production are scarce

63 (Amorim, 2006; McIver et al., 2014; Pereira et al., 2014; Amorim, 2015; Ladich and Maiditsch,
64 2017). Sex differences in soniferous behavior often reflect underlying structural dimorphisms
65 that are frequently associated with hypertrophied muscles driving swim bladder vibration or
66 stridulation of pectoral fin rays that lead to sound production (Rice et al., 2022). From an
67 ecological perspective, sound production can figure prominently into aggressive competition for
68 mates, nest sites, shelters, and territories (Andersson, 1994). Sonic signaling can enable contests
69 to be resolved through less costly measures before escalating to more intense stages of
70 engagement involving direct contact and possible physical damage (e.g., Davies and Halliday,
71 1978; Clutton-Brock and Albon, 1979, Hsu et al., 2008; Oliveira, Silva and Simo, 2011; Green
72 and Patek, 2018). In so doing, these signals may communicate information about a contestant's
73 identity (e.g., age and sex), motivation to fight for a resource item, which is often associated with
74 higher signaling display rate (Burmeister et al, 2002; Arnott and Elwood, 2007; Triefenbach and
75 Zakon, 2008), and physical attributes such as body size, which can figure prominently into
76 determining the outcome of aggressive conflicts (e.g., Davies and Halliday, 1978; Clutton-Brock
77 and Albon, 1979; Bradbury and Vehrencamp, 2011; Amorim, 2015; Conti et al., 2015; Billings,
78 2018).

79 Our main intent here is to provide a behavioral baseline for studies of acoustic
80 communication during social interactions in *Danionella dracula*, a miniature species of
81 cypriniform fish (Britz and Conway, 2016) that we report are sonic and can be readily bred in
82 captivity. We describe sound production in *D. dracula* mainly within the context of aggressive
83 interactions because we found that males produce relatively simple, broadband sounds
84 apparently solely during aggressive but not courtship encounters; females appear to be silent
85 during all such interactions. Given the close phylogenetic relationship of *Danionella* species to
86 zebrafish (*Danio rerio*), they are also amenable to genetic manipulation using the zebrafish
87 molecular toolbox (Schulze et al., 2018). *Danionella dracula* and its sister species further offer
88 multiple advantages for behavioral neuroscience given their especially small size as adults (see
89 below) and transparency into adulthood (e.g., Fig. 1A-C), thus facilitating non-invasive, optical
90 imaging of the brain using multiphoton microscopy (Schulze et al., 2018, Chow et al., 2020;
91 Akbari et al., 2020, Akbari et al., 2021). Despite possessing these attractive features for genetic
92 and neural studies of social behavior, these behaviors have not yet been described in a
93 comprehensive manner for any *Danionella* species.

94 *Danionella dracula* was first described in 2009, known only from a small stream in the
95 Kachin state in northern Myanmar (Britz, Conway and Rüber, 2009, Britz and Conway, 2016,
96 Britz, Conway and Rüber, 2021). Nothing is known regarding the specifics of its behavior in the
97 wild, largely because its natural habitat is currently relatively inaccessible due to political unrest
98 (e.g., see Goldman, 2021; UN Human Rights Council, 2018). Like other members of the genus,
99 *D. dracula* exhibits developmental truncation, as they retain some larvae-like traits as miniature
100 adults (paedomorphy) and only reach 12-18 mm in standard length (Britz, Conway and Rüber,
101 2009; Britz and Conway, 2016; Conway, Kubicek, and Britz, 2021; this report). Morphological
102 studies predicted a sex difference in soniferous behavior for *Danionella* species based on
103 documentation of a putative sonic “drumming apparatus” in adult males, but not females (Britz,
104 Conway and Rüber, 2009, Britz and Conway, 2016, Britz, Conway and Rüber, 2021, B.
105 Judkewitz, personal communication). Sound production was reported earlier for male *D.*
106 *cerebrum* (Schulze et al., 2018; initially designated *D. translucida*, see Britz, Conway and Rüber,
107 2021). Unlike other species within the genus so far described, *D. dracula* has a hypertrophied
108 lower jaw and a series of odontoid processes that resemble fangs (Britz and Conway, 2016).

109 We report the establishment of a laboratory-based breeding colony of *D. dracula* to study
110 courtship and aggressive behavior over the use of nest sites. Furthermore, we present the results
111 of a resident-intruder assay to examine acoustic and postural signaling during dyadic aggressive
112 interactions in size-matched and size-mismatched male encounters. Previous research in
113 aggression has utilized behavioral tests like resident-intruder assays (see Koolhaas et al., 2013)
114 and other dyadic designs to study how two individual males can compete over a resource and
115 what signaling parameters correlate with differences in the ability for an animal to win a contest,
116 i.e., the animal’s resource-holding potential (RHP; see Bradbury and Vehrencamp, 2011). To
117 investigate the effect of two factors that contribute to fighting ability, residency status and
118 relative body size (see Hack, Thompson and Fernandes, 2010; Jennions and Backwell, 1996;
119 Jackson and Cooper, 1991), on agonistic signaling behaviors in *D. dracula*, we focused our
120 quantitative analyses on two prominent display characters that we show distinguish *D. dracula*
121 from others within the genus: temporal features of acoustic signals and extension of the
122 hypertrophied lower jaw. Our original intent was to only investigate acoustic displays. However,
123 we noticed early on that males often extended their lower jaw during sound production. This
124 suggested that sonic activity may depend biomechanically on jaw extension, reminiscent of the

125 involvement of jaw movement in clownfish (*Amphiprion clarkii*) sound production (Olivier *et*
126 *al.*, 2015). Thus, we hypothesized that the amount or temporal pattern (e.g., inter-pulse interval)
127 of sound production and jaw extension by an individual male would be influenced by residency
128 and/or relative size.

129

130 **MATERIALS AND METHODS**

131 **Colony formation and breeding**

132 Adult *D. dracula* were originally purchased from commercial dealers (The Wet Spot Tropical
133 Fish, Portland, OR; Invertebrates by Msjinkzd, York, PA) and bred in environmental control
134 rooms at Cornell University, Ithaca, NY. Fish were kept at water temperatures of 23-25.5° C and
135 on a 16:8 light: dark cycle. We found that *D. dracula* breeds best with direct overhead lighting.
136 Fish were kept in rooms with artificial or mixed natural and artificial overhead lighting. There
137 were no obvious differences in social behavior, breeding, or rates of development between the
138 two lighting conditions. All dyad contests were conducted in rooms supplemented with artificial
139 lighting on a 16:8 light: dark cycle. All animals were fed twice a day, *Artemia nauplii* in the
140 morning and ground fish flake (TetraMin Tropical Flake) in the evening. Plastic plants were
141 added to each tank for fish to acclimate to the aquarium setting. We also found that *D. dracula* is
142 a diurnal species, with more sonic activity during daylight hours, like their sister species, *D.*
143 *cerebrum* (Schulze *et al.*, 2018). All behavioral observations for colony, community, and dyad
144 tanks were carried out between 09:00 – 17:00 h. All procedures were approved by the
145 Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee of Cornell University.

146 Fish were bred in 2.5-125 gal aquaria that housed populations of varying density based
147 on tank size, in ratios of 1:2 males: females, with at least three males per tank (Fig. 1D). Nest
148 sites were made from double sponge water filters (XY-2822 Air Pump Double Sponge Water
149 Filter, Xinyou) that contained nine 4-mm crevices for spawning (Fig. 1E). The sponges were
150 placed at opposite ends of the tank (Fig. 1D) and covered with a BIO-CHEM ZORB filtration
151 cartridge (API Fishcare CRYSTAL Filtration Cartridge), as it is required for the crevices to be
152 enclosed for breeding (Fig. 1E). Eggs were collected daily by removing the nest, unrolling the
153 filtration cartridge and gently moving the clusters of eggs to acrylic cylinders (10 cm diameter)
154 with a mesh bottom that rested within a 50-gal aquarium (see eggs in Fig. 1E). Larval fish were
155 fed AP100 Dry Larval Diet (Zeigler Bros, Inc.) twice a day for 10 d in these smaller cylinders

156 before being moved to 5-gal tanks where they were fed adult diet. Larvae became adults in 3
157 mos, visually determined by the presence of eggs in the abdomen of females and the
158 hypertrophied jaw in males.

159

160 **Community tank observations**

161 A 16.8-gal community tank with dimensions 75 x 30 x 28 cm was set up using the same
162 parameters for colony system tanks to allow for behavioral observations in a reproductive
163 context (Fig. 1D). A heater kept the tank at 25°C. Males (3) and females (6) were placed into the
164 tank 30 mins after dye labeling. Each male had a muscle segment labeled in the tail with either
165 red, green, or black dye to allow three independent observers to determine identity while
166 watching the tank and in video recordings (Tissue Marking Dye Kit, MDT100, Sigma-Aldrich).
167 Females were also labeled using the same method, thus all fish in the tank went through the same
168 injection process. Sounds were recorded with a hydrophone (Aquarian Audio H1a) placed next
169 to each nest site and connected to a 30-fps video camera (Canon Vixia HFR500) using a mono to
170 stereo adaptor to synchronize the audio collection with the video.

171 Fish were allowed an acclimation period, which concluded after one week at the onset of
172 courtship. Then, three independent observers used the software BORIS (Friard and Gamba,
173 2016) to conduct focal sampling and live observation, alongside collecting video and acoustic
174 data centered on the two nest sites, to observe each of the three labeled males. Behavioral
175 observations were based on three randomly selected, 15-min periods, made up of three 5-min
176 periods where each of the different focal males were observed, between 09:00 and 17:00 for each
177 of seven days. Fish received the same diet regime as colony tanks, with the first feeding at 10:00-
178 10:15 and the second at 17:00. Live observations were synchronized to the video with a red LED
179 pressed at the start of the observation period by the observer. Observers sat 46 cm in front of the
180 tank and used keystrokes to signify behavioral events of interest in the focal male (Table S1).
181 These characterizations were verified with the video camera and sound data collected.

182

183 **Resident-intruder assays**

184 Males were removed from colony tanks 22 h before the resident-intruder assay. The resident
185 male was housed in the experimental rectangular tank, which was 14 cm x 5 cm x 5 cm (Fig.
186 2A). The intruder male was housed separately in an 8 cm x 8 cm x 8 cm tank. Both tanks

187 contained the same volume of water, 315 cm³, with a similar depth of 4.5-5 cm. Males were
188 selected for the dyads to be as close as possible in size (standard length: 13.19-17.94 mm), with
189 the relative size difference between males being less than 0.5 mm (0.2-2.9% relative size
190 difference). Taking advantage of adult male color variation, which is not observed in adult
191 females (Fig. 1A-C), residents and intruders were selected to be different colors in size-matched
192 assays to make them readily obvious in the videos. One male was greener in coloration than the
193 other, which was more pale yellow; half of the size-matched residents were pale yellow, and half
194 were green (Fig. 1A, B). There was no apparent effect of color on total sound production in size-
195 matched contests ($F_{1,85}=1.42$, $p=0.2361$). However, color is among the many possible variables
196 that could be controlled and/or manipulated in future studies, especially with a large sample size.
197 Resident-intruder assays were also performed with size-mismatched dyads. Residency and
198 relative size status were counterbalanced across dyads. In size-mismatched contests, males were
199 easily distinguished from each other in the videos based on size, as one fish was distinctly larger
200 than the other in each of the assays. The relative size difference between males in the dyads
201 ranged from 1.6 to 4.4 mm (standard length larger fish: 14.64-17.81 mm; smaller fish: 12.08-
202 13.86 mm; 11-28% relative size difference). Fish were fed their community tank diet in the
203 evening and morning before testing. Both tanks were aerated with an air stone, and water was
204 novel system water that had not housed adult fish previously. Three of the four tank walls were
205 black and opaque, allowing for better contrast for later fish identification. The experimental tank
206 used to run resident-intruder trials alone contained a hydrophone (Aquarian Audio H1a). The
207 size of the hydrophone was chosen to best resemble a *D. dracula* nest site; this type of
208 hydrophone has been observed to elicit crevice-seeking behaviors in males. Following a 22 h
209 acclimation period lasting from 13:30 on day 1 until 11:30 on day 2, each resident-intruder trial
210 lasted for 2 h, beginning at 11:30 (Fig. 2B). The intruder male was added to the experimental
211 tank with a small net to begin the resident-intruder assay (Fig. 2B, C). Sound production and
212 video were recorded through the hydrophone attached to a 30-fps video camera (Canon Vixia
213 HFR500). Two of the 10 size-matched dyads were removed from analysis as the fish did not
214 acclimate, swimming continuously against the sides of the miniature tank. Two of the 10 size-
215 mismatched dyads were removed from analysis. In one dyad, both fish were swimming
216 continuously against the sides of the miniature tank. In the second dyad, both fish were intensely
217 engaged in an escalated aggressive interaction making it impossible to ascertain the identity of

218 the sound producer (similar to extended aggressive interactions in community tanks). Therefore,
219 8 dyads were analyzed for each context, size-matched and mismatched.

220 Five single-male control trials were conducted following the same procedure, but only
221 one male was placed in the experimental chamber and an intruder male was not added to the
222 chamber at the start of the 2 h trial. Five additional control dyads were conducted using male-
223 female pairs. Five males and five females (standard length: males, 14.06-17.08 mm; females,
224 13.73-17.12 mm) were combined in single pairs in the experimental tank following the same
225 procedure, varying in size differences between males and females (0.3-3mm; 2-20% relative size
226 difference). Two of the residents were male and three were female.

227

228 **Audio recordings and analysis**

229 Hydrophone recordings of resident-intruder trials lasted for the full two hours. Due to the large
230 number of sounds observed in the 2 h period, the oscillogram from each hydrophone recording
231 after the initial acclimation period was split into six 5 min long time-periods separated by 15 min
232 intervals (Fig. 2D). Sound characteristics in Table 1 were measured using Raven Pro 1.6 (K. Lisa
233 Young Center for Conservation Bioacoustics, 2021) Recordings typically displayed a high signal
234 to noise ratio (e.g., Fig. 2D). Pulse duration was determined by first measuring the maximum
235 amplitude of an individual sound pulse's waveform. This value was then divided by 4 to get a
236 quarter amplitude value, and the pulse duration was determined as the duration of the pulse
237 where waveform peaks were all greater than the quarter amplitude value. Pulse peak frequency
238 was measured for each pulse after selecting the pulse using the pulse duration criteria above,
239 using Raven's Peak Frequency measurement. This measurement in Raven is calculated from the
240 spectrogram of the sound and is the frequency at which the maximum/peak power occurs within
241 the selection. On the recording, we observed individual pulses occurring very close to each other
242 in time, forming apparent clusters composed of multiple pulses. We measured the duration of
243 time between all neighboring individual pulses, the inter-pulse interval (IPI), and pooled all the
244 male IPI data together. We used the mode value of 34 ms (Fig. S1) to set boundaries for
245 individual burst types, where pulses that composed a burst had to possess an IPI within two
246 standard deviations of the mode, or be less than 70 ms apart. This criterion allowed us to identify
247 burst types ranging up to 6 pulses in length. All IPIs greater than 70 ms were defined as inter-
248 burst intervals (IBI), i.e., the duration of time between bursts composed of multiple pulses.

249 Table 1. Sound Characteristics and Definitions in *D. dracula*

Sound Characteristic	Definition
Pulse Duration	Total duration of one individual sound pulse.
Peak Pulse Frequency	Frequency at which the maximum peak power occurs within one individual sound pulse.
Burst	A train of individual pulses (1-6 observed), where pulses are separated by ≤ 70 ms.
Inter-Pulse Interval	Time between individual pulses in a single burst of pulses, where pulses are separated by ≤ 70 ms.
Inter-Burst Interval	Time between individual bursts, where interval between two successive pulses is ≥ 70 ms.

250
251 To characterize the amplitude range of *D. dracula* sound pulses, we recorded sound
252 production using a calibrated hydrophone (8013, Brüel & Kjaer) connected to a conditioning
253 amplifier (2635, Brüel & Kjaer) captured on a digital recorder (LS-12, Olympus). We first
254 recorded sounds in a large community tank (122 x 46 x 74 cm, ~100 gal) with 75 fish and 4 nest
255 sites (one in each corner of the tank). The hydrophone was suspended 15 cm beneath the water
256 surface and equidistant (15.24 cm) between two nest sites on the left side of the tank. We
257 analyzed sounds from 2 h of audio recorded 10:00-12:00. We next recorded sounds in the
258 resident-intruder assay in an acoustic isolation chamber (Industrial Acoustics). The hydrophone
259 was positioned 2 cm from the right side of the rectangular experimental tank. Two size-matched
260 males were introduced to the tank as previously described and 1 h of audio was captured. Sound
261 pulses were isolated and analyzed in Raven Pro 1.6 using a custom script.

262

263 **Video analysis of sound production and jaw extension behavior**

264 For the resident-intruder assays, an observer blind to resident-intruder status verified instances of
265 male sound production by watching the synchronized video at 0.3X the normal speed. Sound
266 bursts were attributed to an individual male based on associated lunging movement. This
267 association between lunging and sound production was established based on our analysis of a 4
268 min portion of a 23 min recording of a *D. dracula* male continuously lunging at its reflection in
269 the wall of the tank (Fig. 4B, oscillogram in C, Movie 1) For this recording, an observer first
270 coded in BORIS all lunges directed at the reflection, without sound. The time point of an
271 instance of lunging was determined as the first frame where the male fish oriented its head
272 towards and swam rapidly towards its reflection. Burst and pulse start times from the same
273 portion of the recording were measured using Raven Pro 1.6, so the time between a lunge and a
274 burst could be examined for temporal proximity, as is described in the results (see Fig. S2A).

275 Observers distinguished fish in the size-matched assays based on coloration: green or
276 pale yellow (see above), as well as other identifying features such as body girth. In size-
277 mismatched assays, one fish was distinctly larger than the other and the two fish could be readily
278 identified based on relative size. Coding of jaw extension was done by a third observer in BORIS
279 who watched the video at 0.3X the normal speed without sound. The time point of an instance of
280 jaw extension was determined as the first frame where the lower jaw was first extended from the
281 head.

282

283 **Statistical analyses**

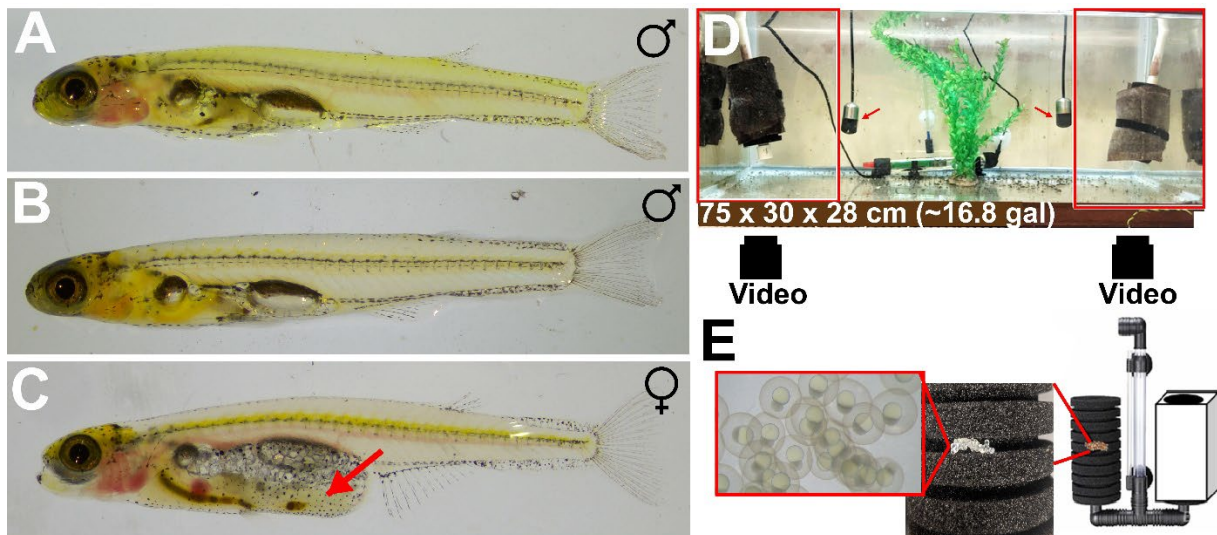
284 Statistical analyses were performed in R version 4.1.1 using the lme4 package (R Core Team,
285 2021). We investigated whether agonistic behaviors varied between residents and intruders
286 across each behavioral context. To do this, we ran a repeated measures Linear Mixed Model
287 (LMM) with pair identity as a random effect to examine if agonistic behaviors differed between
288 residents or intruders in the size-matched context, and whether this usage may change across the
289 length of the behavioral trial (e.g., time-periods 1-6 of behavioral sampling; see above for more
290 details about sampling). As in the previous models, we also investigated if overall behavior
291 usage varied between residents and intruders, and large and small fish in size-mismatched

292 contests, including both residency and size as predictors and an interaction term for residency
293 and size.

294 To test the hypothesis that multi-pulse burst usage may vary between residents or
295 intruders in the different contexts, we reduced each animal's multi-pulse bursts (2 – 6
296 pulses/burst) into a single metric. As such, we performed a principal component analysis (PCA),
297 using the *psych* package and *principal* function. In these models, we entered the number of
298 different burst types for each male into R, and generated PCs separately for size matched and
299 mismatched contexts. Higher PC scores represented greater multi-pulse burst usage. To next
300 investigate whether PC1 (multi-pulse burst usage) varied between residents and intruders in the
301 size-matched context, we used a LMM with pair identity as a random effect. In size mismatched
302 contests, we also used a LMM to investigate whether multi-pulse burst usage differed between
303 residents and intruders as well as large and small individuals' size, by including both residency
304 and size as predictors and an interaction term for residency and size. Finally, using total sound
305 production as a continuous variable, we tested whether overall sound production was related to
306 multi-pulse burst usage (PC1) by using a linear model separately for size-matched and -
307 mismatched contexts.

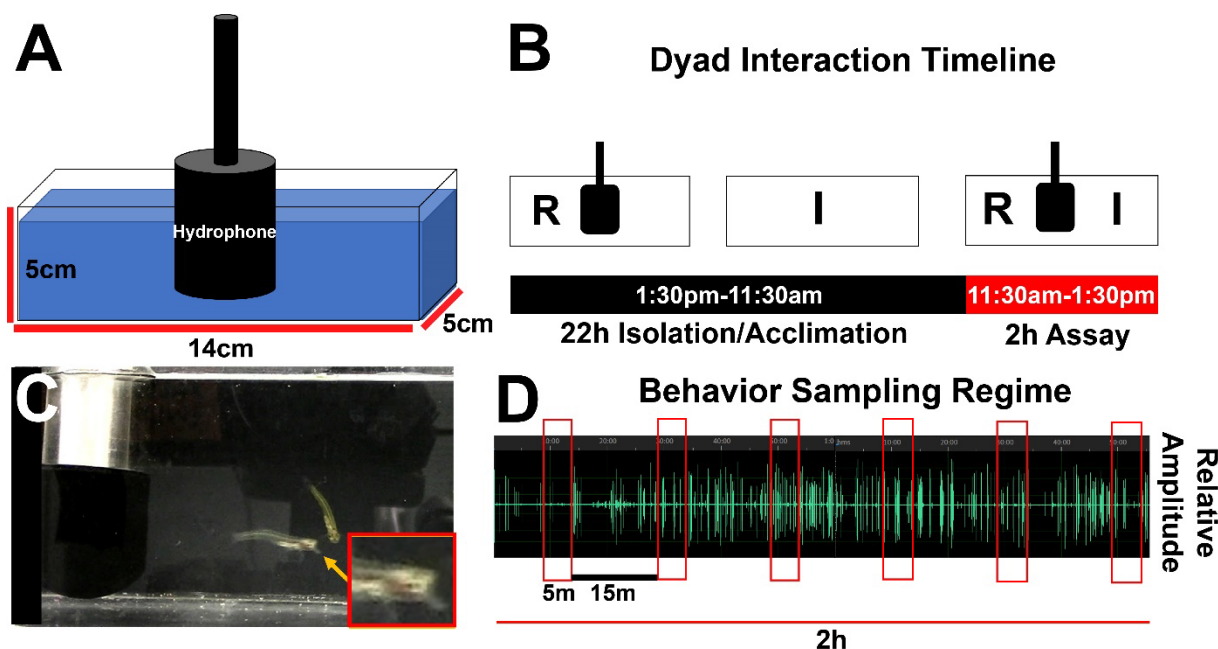
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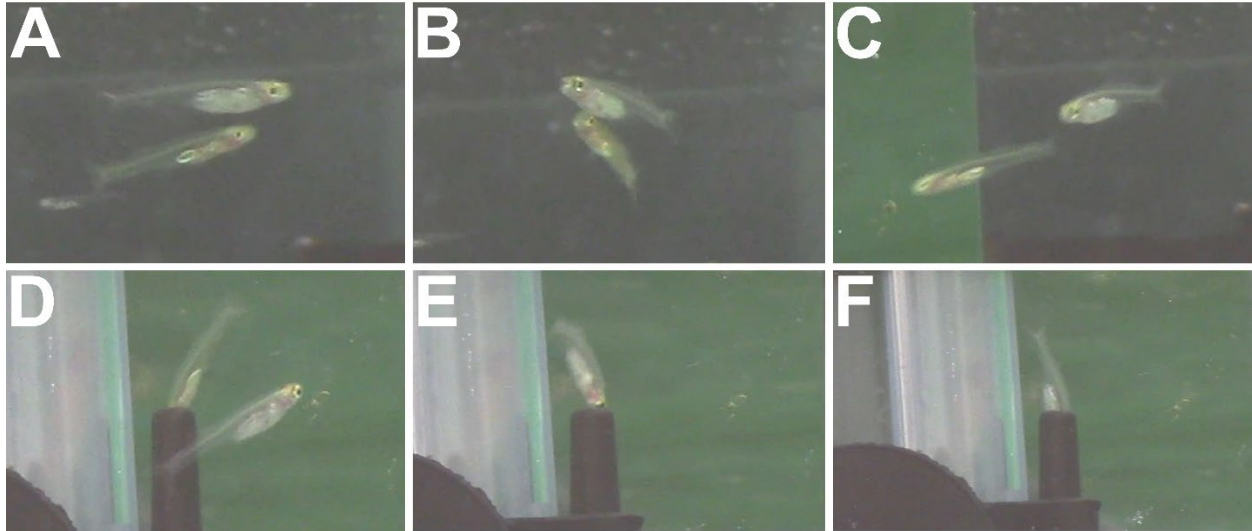


311 Fig. 1: Male and female *Danionella dracula* and community tank. A. Adult male with green to
312 yellow-green coloration, standard length (SL) = 17.2 mm B. Adult male without green
313 coloration, SL = 16.8 mm. C. Adult female without green coloration, SL = 17.1 mm. Ovary
314 indicated by red arrow. D. Community tank setup (details in Materials and Methods); red boxes

315 at either end indicate video camera field of view. External video cameras indicated by black
316 boxes below tank. Red arrows indicate hydrophones. E. Eggs in nest site: insets from left to right
317 show developing eggs, egg cluster in crevice of sponge filter nest site, and schematic of nest site
318 used for egg collection.
319
320



322 Fig. 2: Dyad testing tank for male *Danionella dracula*. A. Experimental tank schematic;
323 dimensions: 14 cm x 5 cm x 5 cm. Black cylinder represents the hydrophone. B. Dyad interaction
324 schematic and timeline. R stands for Resident and I for Intruder male. Black indicates the 22 h
325 isolation/ acclimation period (1:30pm-11:30am) that fish undergo before the 2 h assay (11:30am-
326 1:30pm), which is indicated in red. C. Two males in testing tank, one with jaw extended as it
327 lunges at the other. Extended jaw indicated with orange arrow; insert is closeup of anterior body
328 region and jaw. D. Behavior sampling regime. Red boxes on oscillogram (sounds in green)
329 indicate six 5 min time periods sampled at 15 min intervals (black line) over 2 h assay.
330



332 Fig. 3: Video frames of *Danionella dracula* courtship behavior in colony tank. A. Male swims
333 below female B. Male vibrates his body back and forth beneath female egg vent. C. Female
334 follows male back to nest entry crevice (part of an underwater filter). D. Male enters headfirst
335 into crevice E. Female orients head towards crevice. F. Female swims headfirst into crevice.
336

337 RESULTS

338 As stated in the Introduction, our main goal here is to provide a behavioral baseline for studies of
339 acoustic communication during social interactions in *Danionella dracula*. For general context,
340 we first provide qualitative descriptions of courtship, spawning and male aggressive behavior in
341 a breeding colony of *D. dracula*, the first known laboratory colony of this species. We focus on
342 males, as we found that they are the apparent sonic sex in this species and apparently only make
343 sounds during aggressive encounters. Then, we provide quantitative assessments of acoustic
344 signaling during resident-intruder male interactions, including a description of spectral and
345 temporal properties of sound pulses. We also assess a prominent postural display, extension of
346 the hypertrophied lower jaw, which is an additional display behavior that we found occurs along
347 with sound production during aggressive interactions and distinguishes *D. dracula* from other
348 species within the genus.

349

350 Courtship and spawning

351 *Danionella dracula* readily bred and produced courtship and aggressive behaviors in laboratory
352 colony and community tank settings. Although we focus on male aggression in this report, we
353 first provide a representative description of courtship and spawning in a colony tank, where we

354 first observed these behaviors, for broader context here and in future studies. No sound
355 production was ever recorded during either courtship or spawning in our colony and community
356 tanks. Males typically swam from nest sites to court females who were often schooling around
357 the tank. Fig. 3A-F show single frames from a video record of courtship and spawning in the
358 presence of a black vertical tube that was originally part of an underwater filtration system in a
359 colony tank (also see Movie 2). The male approached a female and swam beneath her, directly
360 hovering beneath her egg vent (Fig. 3A, B). He then rapidly moved his pectoral fins and vibrated
361 his body and head back and forth beneath the female. Next, the male swam back to the nest site
362 that he swam closely around during the day. The female swam behind the male to the same nest
363 (Fig. 3C) and the male then entered the spawning crevice head-first (Fig. 3D) followed by the
364 female (Fig. 3E, F). After spawning, the female left the nest and the male emerged from the nest.
365 He then swam closely around the nest, which we refer to as nest circling, and courted additional
366 females throughout the day.

367 Spawning cannot be directly observed in either colony or community tank settings as it
368 only occurs in enclosed crevices. It is inferred to take place in the crevices for two reasons. First,
369 clutches of 12-24 eggs are found in the crevices of the artificial sponge nests; eggs are found in
370 nest grooves at any time of the light cycle following spawning interactions (see Fig. 1E). Second,
371 we often find a male and/or a female on top of a cluster of eggs within the grooves of a sponge
372 nest during daily nest checks.

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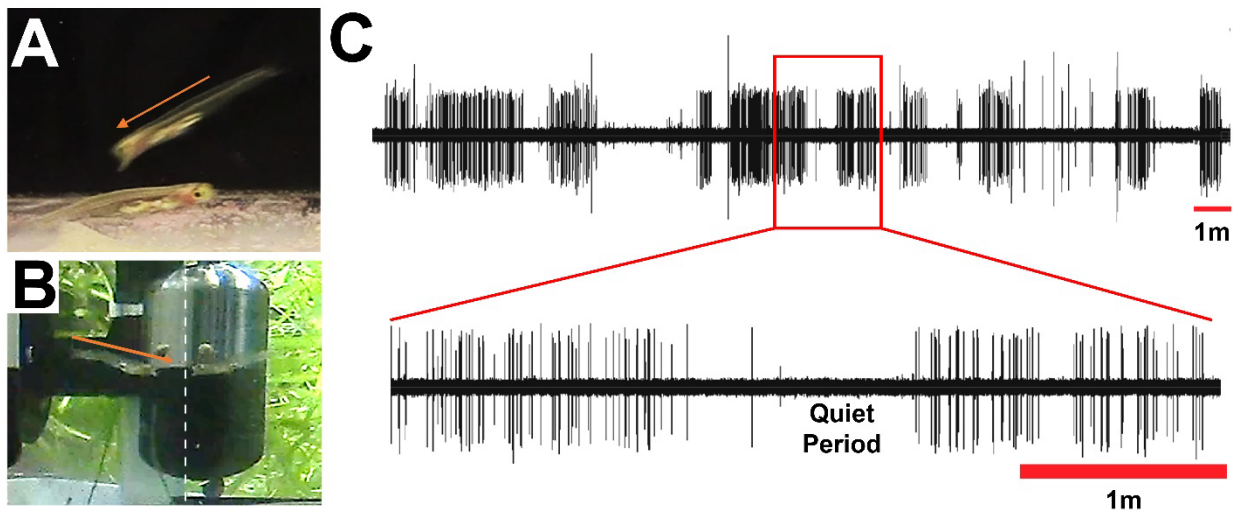
374 **Male aggressive displays**

375 In colony tanks, we often observed males swimming throughout the day around artificial nest
376 sites that are dark-colored objects containing crevices for spawning (see Fig. 1D, E). By
377 observing dye-marked males in a controlled community tank setting over a two-week period, we
378 often recorded the same male swimming within 2-3 body lengths around the same nest site for 1-
379 8 days, suggesting nest fidelity. These males also lunged at other males who swam within 2-3
380 body lengths around the nest site, often producing a burst of stereotyped sound pulses close to
381 the same time as the lunge (Fig. 4A).

382 We concluded that sound production is primarily coupled to lunges at intruder fish, or the
383 visual presence of another male, in the contexts critically assessed in our study. We reached this
384 conclusion after combining these colony tank observations with another colony tank video

385 recording of a male lunging continuously against its own reflection at the same time as apparent
386 sound production (Fig. 4B; oscillogram from recording in 4C, see Movie 1). For a representative
387 4-min portion of this recording where the male lunged continuously at his reflection, we found
388 that sounds were produced when the male was within one body length of its reflection in the tank
389 wall, with its head and body oriented and moving towards its reflection in the tank wall (Movie
390 1). By contrast, there was essentially no evidence of sound production in a portion of the
391 recording when the male was swimming around the nest and not lunging at its reflection (labeled
392 in Fig. 4C); the two pulses one can see during the quiet period are timed with the fish lunging at
393 another fish (Fig. 4C). We pooled together all the times between lunges and sounds and found a
394 mean value of 579 ± 27 ms; 88.4% of sound bursts and lunges ($n=107/121$) were less than 600
395 ms apart, closely temporally related (Fig. S2A).

396 In colony tanks, we also observed extended aggressive interactions lasting up to 30 mins
397 that escalated to include mutual lunging, extension of the lower jaw, and vertical lateral displays
398 until one male fled. It was not possible to readily assign sound production to either male during
399 such interactions.



401 Fig. 4: Video frames and oscillogram of *Danionella dracula* male-male aggressive interaction.
402 A. Frame from resident-intruder assay of male lunging at other male and extending its lower jaw;
403 direction indicated by orange arrow. Both resident and intruder males lunge and produce sound
404 pulses. B. Frame from male lunging at its own tank reflection. Direction of lunge towards tank
405 glass indicated by orange arrow extending above entire dorsum of lunging male. White dashed
406 line indicates reflective surface of tank wall. C. Oscillogram from 23 min recording of male in
407 'B' lunging at its reflection in tank wall on two timescales. Lower trace is 4 min section of the
408 recording to show individual sound pulses. "Quiet Period" indicates period when focal fish was
409 not oriented towards its reflection and was swimming around nest.

410

411 **Sound production during resident-intruder assay**

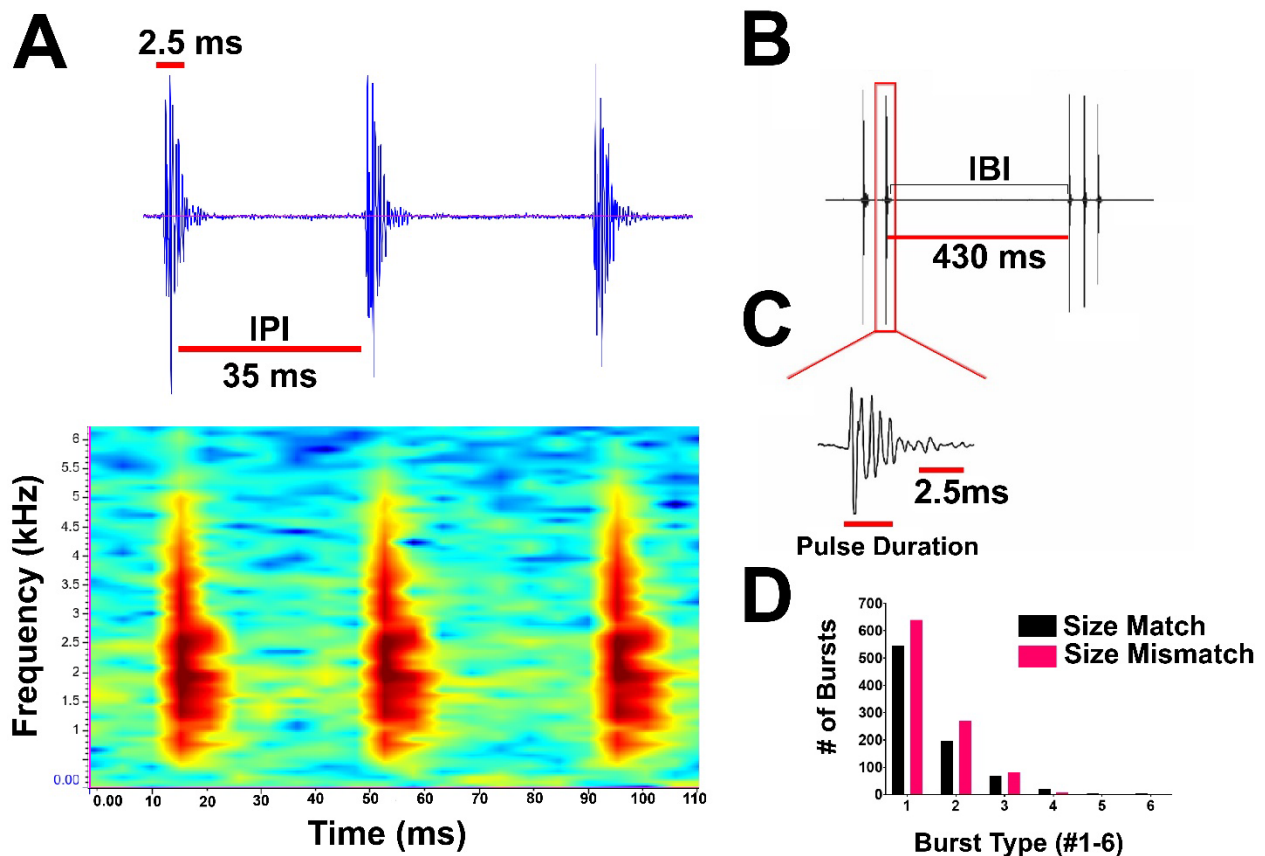
412 To characterize sound production during aggressive interactions, we examined dyads in a
413 resident-intruder context (Fig. 2A). Single male controls did not produce sounds and swam
414 around the experimental chamber. There was also no evidence in male-female dyads that females
415 made any sounds similar to males, consistent with absence of the putative sonic “drumming”
416 muscle in females (Britz and Conway, 2016). A hydrophone placed in a 20-gal tank of 10 female
417 fish for 10 h also did not provide any evidence of sound production by females.

418 Dyad interactions appeared to be primarily one-sided, where one fish emerged as the
419 more apparent aggressor towards the other; 94.7% of total sounds (2705/2858) were associated
420 with one male’s distinct lunge at the other fish (see example in Movie 3). 5.3% of sounds were
421 too ambiguous to associate a sound with one male over the other, and they were not included in
422 our consequent analyses. Out of these ambiguous cases, sound pulses could not be attributed
423 identity because both fish were oriented towards each other and lunging at the same time as
424 sound production (3.0%, 87/2858); both were swimming next to each other closely with their
425 heads oriented towards each other but with no distinct lunges during sound production (1.4%,
426 41/2858), or both were obscured by the hydrophone or by both being in a corner of the tank
427 (0.9%, 25/2858).

428 Males produced trains of sound pulses composed of repetitive bursts of up to 6 pulses per
429 burst (see Table 1 for definition). In the dyad assay tank, individual sound pulses had a mean
430 peak frequency of 1988.6 ± 14.0 Hz and 1961.6 ± 11.5 Hz in size-matched and -mismatched
431 contexts, respectively (see Fig. 5A - example spectrogram in 5A). Mean pulse duration was 2.0
432 ± 0.02 ms and 2.6 ± 0.03 ms for size-matched and -mismatched males, respectively (Fig. 5C).
433 The mean IPI was 42.9 ± 0.6 ms and 39.5 ± 0.5 ms in size-matched and mismatched contexts,
434 respectively (e.g., see 2- and 3-pulse bursts in Fig. 5B). In both dyad contexts, males primarily
435 used single pulses (size-matched, 65.3% of all bursts; size-mismatched, 64.1%) and 2-pulse
436 bursts (size-matched, 23.4%; size-mismatched, 27.1%) that overlapped with lunging at other
437 males (Fig. 5D). Three and higher pulse bursts occurred more rarely, with 3-pulse bursts making
438 up 8.1% and 7.9% for size-matched and -mismatched male dyads, respectively (Fig. 5D). Four
439 pulse and higher burst types made up only 3.2% and 0.9% for size-matched and -mismatched
440 males, respectively (Fig. 5D). Individual fish produced multiple types of bursts containing

441 differing numbers of pulses throughout the interaction (e.g., see Fig. 5B). Mean IBI was
442 12.6 ± 1.6 s and 10.5 ± 0.7 s for size-matched and -mismatched contests, respectively.

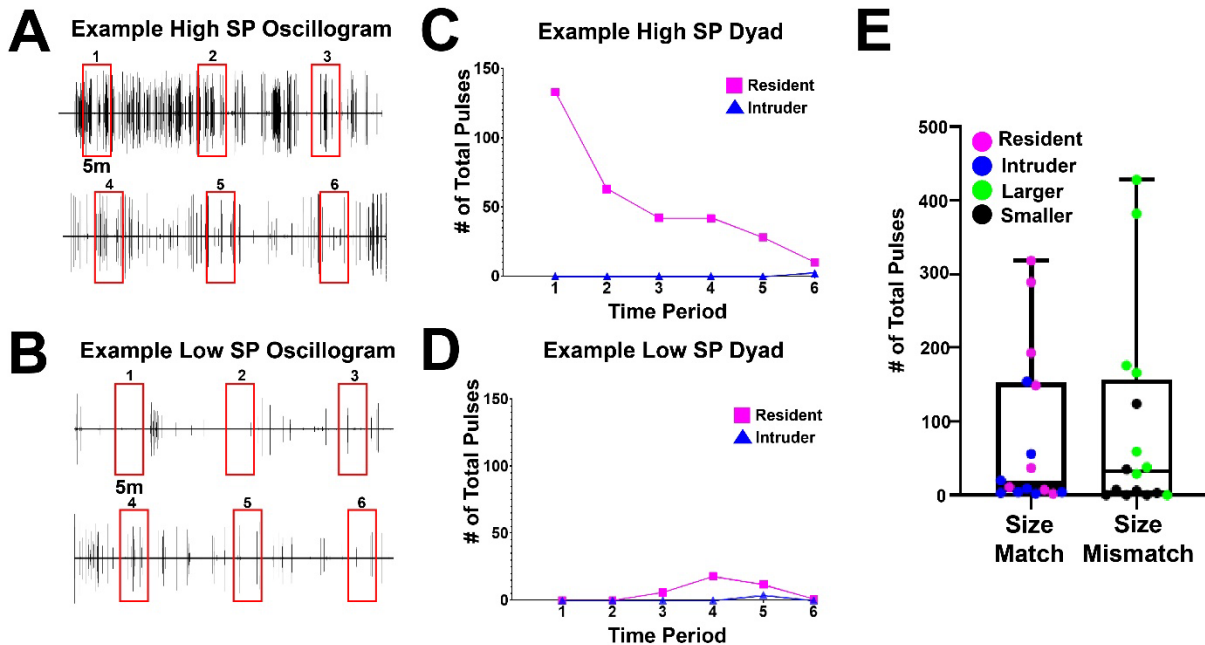
443 We did not measure sound amplitude in the assays given our inability to measure sounds
444 from individual sound producing fish that were always moving around one hydrophone during
445 these dyadic interactions in small volumes. In a separate set of tests designed explicitly to
446 characterize the amplitude range of *D. dracula* sound pulses, we recorded 365 sound pulses in a
447 100-gal community tank, where we found an amplitude range of 141.5-153.09 dB re 1 μ Pa.
448 When recording males in the miniature resident-intruder assay tank, we found an amplitude
449 range of 119.09-153.46 dB re 1 μ Pa from 451 pulses. The background noise (RMS) in the
450 community tank was 137.81 ± 0.46 dB re 1 μ Pa, mostly composed of low frequency noise (peak
451 ~ 20 Hz, all power below ~ 200 Hz; when filtered, background is 113.1 ± 0.57 dB re 1 μ Pa). In the
452 assay tank, the background noise (RMS) was 105.43 ± 1.22 dB re 1 μ Pa.



454 Fig. 5: Multi-pulse sound bursts of male *Danionella dracula*. A. Top: Oscillogram of 3-pulse
455 burst made by lunging male. Red lines indicate for this burst that pulse durations were close to

456 2.5 ms (top, see criteria in Materials and Methods) and pulses were separated by an inter-pulse
457 interval (IPI) around 35 ms (bottom). Below: spectrogram of the same 3-pulse burst. Darkest red
458 indicates peak power frequency, which in this burst was 1968.750 Hz. B. Example 2- and 3-
459 pulse bursts separated by inter-burst interval (IBI) of 430 ms. C. One of the single pulses on
460 expanded timescale from the 2-pulse burst in B. This pulse was 2.5 ms in duration. D. Bar graph
461 showing number of different types of multi-pulse bursts observed in size-matched (black) and
462 size-mismatched (salmon pink) dyads.
463

464 Regarding total acoustic display rate, males varied widely in the total number of sound
465 pulses directed towards another male, with some time periods for individual males having more
466 sound production than others over the course of the 2 h dyad trial (see Fig. 6A-D). In size-
467 matched assays, males who produced sounds above the median of observed male total sound
468 production were categorized as high sound producing males, and those exhibiting below the
469 median were categorized as low sound producing males (Fig 6 A-E). High sound producers
470 ranged up to 318 total sound pulses in the 30 mins sampled over the 2 h dyad trial (Fig. 6E). In
471 size-mismatched assays, we used the same criteria as with size-matched males and found that
472 high sound producers ranged up to 428 total sound pulses (Fig. 6E). This variation was not
473 explained by body size, as we did not see any apparent correlation between total sound
474 production or any of the different characteristics of sound production described here with
475 standard length (mm) or size difference (mm) between competitors in a dyad (Fig. S3).



477 Fig. 6: Total sound production (SP) by *Danionella dracula* males in dyadic contests. A.
478 Representative oscillogram of high SP; rows 1 and 2 are from one continuous 2 h record. Red
479 boxes indicate the six 5-minute sampled time periods (1-6) spaced 15 mins apart. B.
480 Representative oscillogram of low SP; rows 1 and 2 are from one continuous 2 h record. Red
481 boxes indicate the six sampled time periods. C. Example high SP from size-matched dyad in A,
482 showing the total number of pulses for individual fish over the sampled time periods. Magenta
483 squares indicate the resident fish's SP values and blue triangles indicate the intruder fish's SP
484 values, which are at or near zero during all time periods. D. Example low SP from size-matched
485 dyad in B, displayed as in C. Magenta squares indicate the resident fish's SP values, which peaks
486 at 20 sound pulses in time period 4, and blue triangles indicate the intruder fish's SP, which in
487 this case is also at or near zero during all time periods. E. Boxplots of total individual SP in size-
488 matched dyads (left boxplot; magenta = resident fish, blue = intruder fish) and size-mismatched
489 dyads (right boxplot; green = relatively larger fish, black = smaller fish). Black horizontal line
490 within box indicates median that was used to designate fish as high or low sound producer.

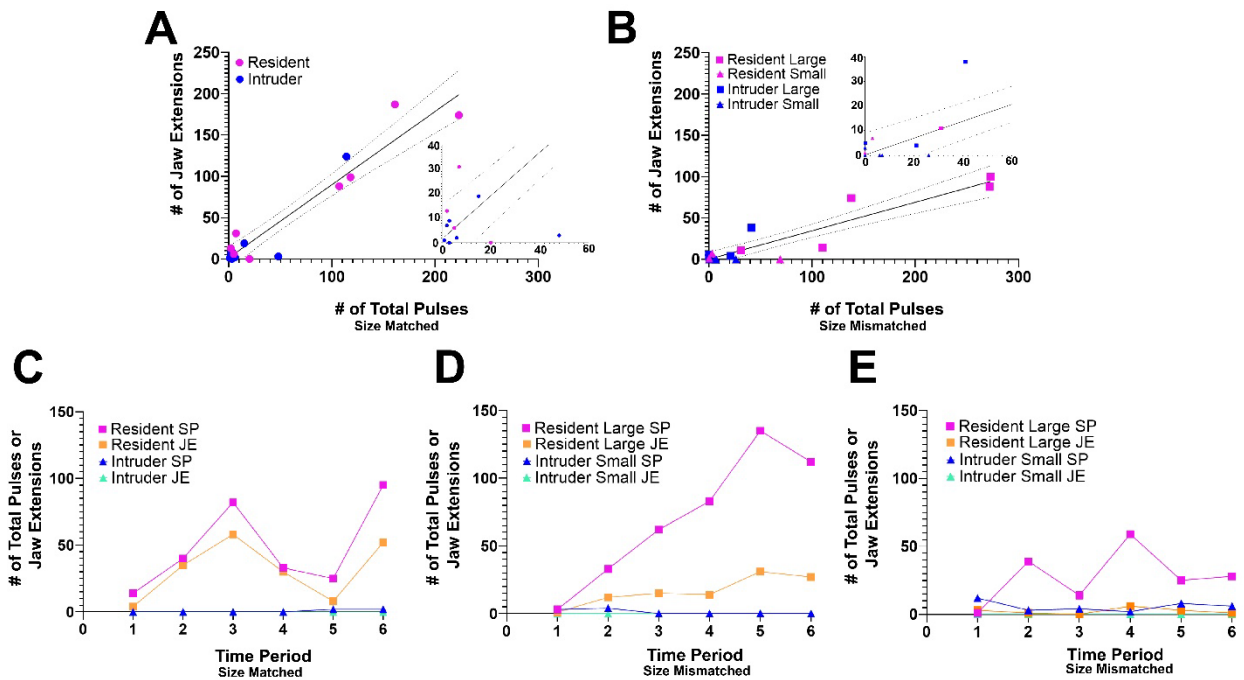
491

492 **Jaw extension during resident-intruder assay**

493 As noted in the Introduction, jaw extension often appeared to overlap sound production when we
494 first observed *D. dracula* males in colony tanks, suggesting that sonic activity may depend on
495 jaw extension. Thus, we also assessed the total instances of jaw extension in the dyads. Using
496 linear regressions, we found that the number of sound bursts was significantly correlated with the
497 number of jaw extensions in both size-matched and -mismatched contexts ($F_{1,14}=138.3$,
498 $R^2=0.9081$, $p<0.0001$; $F_{1,14}=79.36$, $R^2=0.8501$, $p<0.0001$, respectively) (Fig. 7A, B). Jaw
499 extension often, but not always (Fig. 7E), increased during the same 5 min time period samples
500 of high sound production in both contexts (e.g., Fig. 7C, D).

501 When directly examining the timing of the two behaviors to each other, we observed
502 many instances where jaw extension appeared immediately before or after instances of sound
503 production, as well as many instances of sound production without the presence of jaw
504 extension, and vice versa. In aggregate, the evidence suggested that sound production and jaw
505 extension were not obligatorily linked. Nonetheless, we wanted to more rigorously examine the
506 temporal relationship between sound production and the start of jaw extension. We did this, in
507 part, to provide baseline data for future studies assessing the impact of genetic manipulations on
508 this temporal relationship, as well as for comparative studies of multimodal signaling between
509 *Danionella* species. To maximize the sample size, these values were measured in males that
510 exhibited both high sound production and jaw extension in size-matched ($n=5$) and -mismatched
511 ($n=3$) contexts. For each dyad context, we pooled together all times less than 2 sec (considering
512 events more than 2s apart to be independent) between sonic bursts and jaw extensions and found

513 that mean time intervals between the two actions were 492 ± 20 ms and 590 ± 33 ms in the size-
 514 matched and -mismatched contexts, respectively (Fig. S2B, C). We found that the temporal
 515 separation between sounds and jaw extensions directed by the high sound producing and jaw
 516 extending male toward the other male could occur over a wide range, although a large number
 517 occurred within less than 100 ms in both dyad contexts and within as little as 2.5 ms and 1.3 ms
 518 of each other in size-matched and size-mismatched dyads, respectively (Fig. S2B, C). These
 519 results provided convincing quantitative evidence that sound production and jaw extension were
 520 independent events, although temporal gaps between the two actions could be very brief.

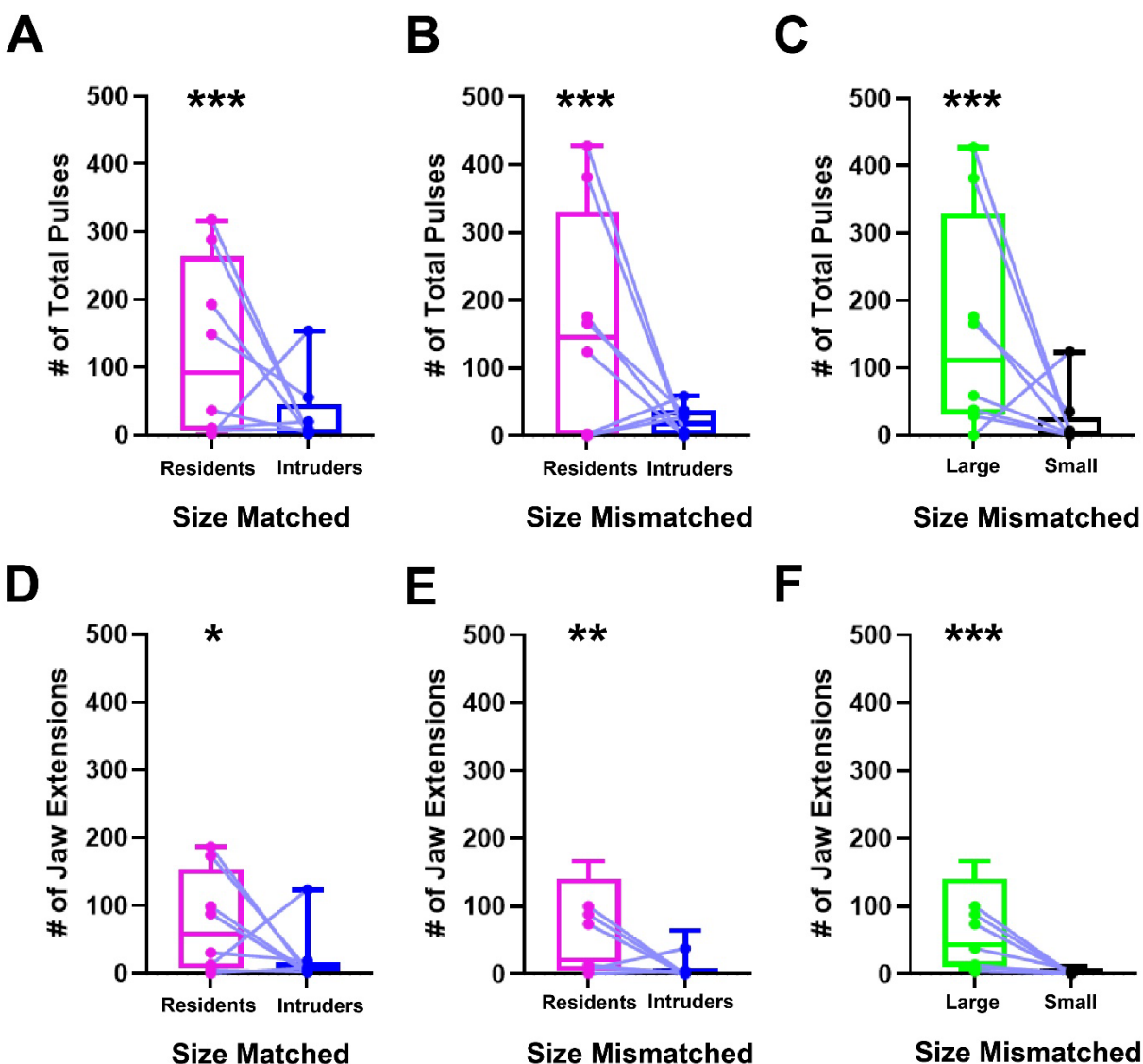


522 Fig. 7: Temporal relationship between total number of sound pulses (SP) and jaw extensions (JE)
 523 for *Danionella dracula* males. A. Correlation plot of number of total sound bursts by number of
 524 total JEs in size-matched contests. Magenta circles indicate resident fish and blue circles indicate
 525 intruder fish. The black line indicates the linear regression, and the dotted light black lines
 526 indicate 95% confidence bands. Insert is closeup on origin of plot. B. Correlation plot of number
 527 of total sound bursts by number of total JEs in size-mismatched contests. Magenta squares
 528 indicate relatively larger resident fish and blue squares indicate relatively larger intruder fish.
 529 Magenta triangles indicate relatively smaller resident fish and blue triangles indicate relatively
 530 smaller intruder fish. The black line indicates the linear regression, and the dotted light black
 531 lines indicate 95% confidence bands. Insert is closeup on origin of plot. C-E. Examples of SP
 532 and JE for individual fish over the six sampled 5-min time periods from size-matched and -
 533 mismatched dyads. C. High SP and high JE from size-matched dyad. Magenta squares indicate
 534 the resident fish's SP values and blue triangles indicate the intruder fish's SP values. Orange
 535 squares indicate the resident fish's JE values and light blue triangles indicate the intruder fish's
 536 JE values. The intruder fish did not extend its jaw during time periods 1-6. D. High SP and high
 537 JE from size-mismatched dyad. Magenta squares indicate the relatively larger resident fish's SP

538 values and blue triangles indicate the relatively smaller intruder fish's SP values. Orange squares
539 indicate the larger resident fish's JE values and light blue triangles indicate the smaller intruder
540 fish's JE values. The smaller intruder fish did not extend its jaw during time periods 1-6. E. High
541 SP but low JE from size-mismatched dyad. Color code same as in D. The smaller intruder fish
542 did not extend its jaw during time periods 1-6.
543

544 **Effects of Residency Status and Size on Display Rate**

545 We next investigated the effects of residency status and size on sound production and jaw
546 extension by examining the effect of being the resident or intruder in both dyad contexts, and the
547 larger or smaller fish in size-mismatched assays. Residents produced significantly more sound
548 pulses than intruders in size-matched ($F_{1,77}=10.19$, $p=0.002$) (Fig. 8A) and size-mismatched
549 ($F_{1,76}=19.36$, $p<0.001$) (Fig. 8B) contexts; larger males, irrespective of resident or intruder
550 status, produced significantly more sound pulses than smaller ones ($F_{1,76}=15.38$, $p<0.001$) (Fig.
551 8C). The interaction between residency and size was not significant ($F_{1,6}=3.10$, $p=0.13$). There
552 was also no significant effect of time period on the total amount of sound production in size-
553 matched ($F_{5,77}=0.46$, $p=0.81$) and size-mismatched ($F_{5,76}=1.63$, $p=0.16$) contexts, indicating there
554 was not one specific time period (1-6) during the 2 h trial that fish across the dyads used
555 increased sound production or jaw extension. The resident fish also extended its jaw more
556 frequently than intruders in size-matched and -mismatched contexts ($F_{1,85}=5.39$, $p=0.02$ and
557 $F_{1,76}=9.10$, $p=0.003$ respectively) (Fig. 8D, E). The same pattern held for larger and smaller fish
558 ($F_{1,76}=23.42$, $p<0.001$) (Fig. 8F). The interaction between residency and size in size-mismatched
559 contexts was not significant ($F_{1,6}=2.25$, $p=0.18$).



561 Fig. 8: Fish identity and sound production for *Danionella dracula* males in dyadic contests.
562 Boxplots comparing total amount of sound production (SP) as total pulse number (A-C) and total
563 jaw extension (JE) behaviors (D-F) in size-matched and size-mismatched contexts. Individuals in
564 the same dyad are connected between the two boxplots compared with a light blue line. *
565 indicates significance as p compared to 0.05, ** p compared to 0.01, and *** p compared to
566 0.001. A. Boxplots of resident (left, magenta) fish SP and intruder SP (right, blue) in size-
567 size-matched contests. B. Boxplots of resident (left, magenta) and intruder (right, blue) fish SP in
568 size-mismatched contests. C. Boxplots of larger (left, green) and smaller (right, black) fish SP in
569 size-mismatched contests. D. Boxplots of resident (left, magenta) and intruder (right, blue) fish
570 JE in size-matched contests. E. Boxplots of resident (left, magenta) and intruder (right, blue) fish
571 JE in size-mismatched contests. F. Boxplots of larger (left, green) and smaller (right, black) fish
572 JE in size-mismatched contests.

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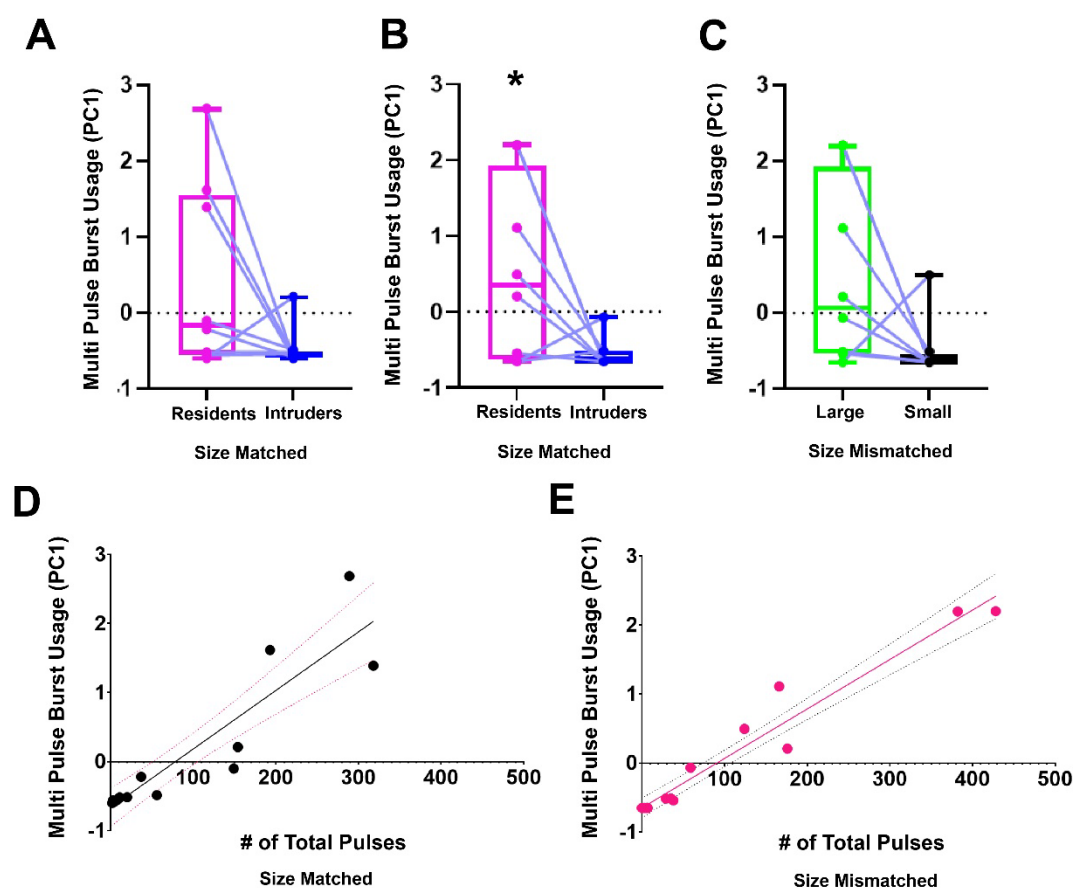
575

576 **Effects of Residency Status and Size on Multi-Pulse Burst Usage**

577 Beyond investigating the effects of residency and relative size on total display rate, we tested the
578 hypothesis that there were differences in the temporal properties of the acoustic displays
579 themselves, specifically in multi-pulse burst usage. We used a principal components analysis
580 where the number of different burst types per male were entered as different variables (2-6 and
581 2-5 pulse bursts for each male in size-matched contests and size-mismatched contests,
582 respectively; mismatched fish did not produce 6-pulse bursts). A single principal component
583 (PC1) explained 77% of the variation of male usage of multi-pulse bursts in size-matched males
584 and 65% of the variation in size-mismatched males (Table S2; Fig. 9A-E). In both models,
585 higher PC1 scores represent animals that produced a greater number of multi-pulse bursts, often
586 with these animals also using different types of bursts (2-6 pulse bursts).

587 We first investigated how multi-pulse burst usage (PC1) varied between resident and
588 intruders across each behavioral context. In size-matched assays, residents and intruders did not
589 significantly differ in the number of multi-pulse bursts ($F_{1,14}=4.09$, $p=0.06$; Fig. 9A). Yet, in
590 size-mismatched contests, residents produced significantly more multi-pulse bursts compared to
591 intruders ($F_{1,12}=5.24$, $p=0.04$; Fig. 9B). Larger fish in size-mismatched contests, regardless of
592 residency status, did not significantly produce more multi-pulse bursts ($F_{1,12}=3.72$, $p=0.078$; Fig.
593 9C).

594 The statistics of these comparisons did not indicate a strong predictive ability of
595 residency or relative size status on multi-pulse burst usage in our assays. What we found to be
596 more strongly predictive, however, is that when an animal had an increased acoustic display rate,
597 as indicated by total number of pulses produced, they demonstrated higher multi-pulse burst
598 usage. In a separate analysis, we investigated whether high sound producers produced more
599 multi-pulse bursts compared to low sound producers by using total sound production as a
600 continuous variable and running a linear model for each context. High sound production,
601 regardless of dyad context, was significantly correlated with greater multi-pulse burst usage
602 (size-matched: $F_{1,14}=71.71$, $R^2=0.825$, $p<0.001$; size-mismatched: $F_{1,14}=290.3$, $R^2=0.9507$,
603 $p<0.001$; Fig. 9D, E). Therefore, we interpreted these results as the more sounds a fish produced



606 Fig. 9: Multi-pulse burst usage for *Danionella dracula* males in dyadic contests. A. Boxplots of
 607 principal component 1 (PC1) describing individual male multi-pulse burst usage in size-matched
 608 contests. Residents are in magenta, left and intruders in blue, right. Individuals in the same dyad
 609 are connected by light blue lines. B. Boxplots of PC1 describing individual male multi-pulse
 610 burst usage in size-mismatched contests. Residents are in magenta, left and intruders in blue,
 611 right. Individuals in the same dyad are connected by light blue lines. * indicates significance as p
 612 compared to 0.05. C. Boxplots of PC1 describing individual male multi-pulse burst usage in size-
 613 mismatched contests. Larger fish are in green, left, and smaller fish in black, right. Individuals in
 614 the same dyad are connected by light blue lines. D. Correlation plot of number of total sound
 615 pulses by PC1 describing individual male multi-pulse burst usage in size-matched contests.
 616 Black circles indicate individual fish in assays. The black line indicates the fitted linear model
 617 and the dotted light pink lines indicate 95% confidence bands. E. Correlation plot of number of
 618 total sound pulses by PC1 describing individual male multi-pulse burst usage in size-mismatched
 619 contests. Salmon pink circles indicate individual fish in assays. The salmon pink line indicates
 620 the fitted linear model and the dotted black lines indicate 95% confidence bands.

623 **DISCUSSION**

624 We describe courtship, spawning and aggressive behaviors for *D. dracula*, the most
625 comprehensive description to date of social behavior for any species within the *Danionella* genus
626 of miniature vertebrates. This includes a resident-intruder assay for size-matched and size-
627 mismatched dyads of adult males to quantitatively characterize two prominent display behaviors,
628 sound production and lower jaw extension, that individual males produce during aggressive
629 interactions. We report that *D. dracula* males produce sounds during agonistic, but not courtship
630 interactions. Females are not sonic in either of these contexts or in dyad interactions with males,
631 consistent with their apparent lack of a sound producing apparatus (Britz and Conway, 2016).
632 The results support the hypothesis that residency results in increased total sound production.
633 Relatively larger fish irrespective of resident or intruder status in size-mismatched assays also
634 exhibit increased total sound production, directed towards the smaller fish in the dyad. The
635 results do not support the hypothesis that jaw extension is a necessary condition for sound
636 production; there is strong support for their being independent displays. We find, however, that
637 resident males in both contexts exhibit increased jaw extension and that time periods of highest
638 sound production and jaw extension often overlapped. Relatively larger males in size-
639 mismatched contexts also exhibit increased aggressive behavior, with significantly increased
640 sound production and jaw extension compared to relatively smaller fish. We also show that when
641 sound production is high, males are making more multi-pulse bursts. In aggregate, the results
642 show that both acoustic and postural displays can serve as robust behavioral benchmarks for
643 comparative studies of *Danionella* species identifying neural, genomic and developmental
644 mechanisms of social behavior evolution within a new model clade (cf. Jourjine and Hoekstra,
645 2021).

646

647 ***Danionella* courtship and spawning**

648 Courtship and spawning behaviors of *D. dracula* may differ from those of *D. cerebrum*, the only
649 other *Danionella* species for which these behaviors have been so far reported (Schulze et al.,
650 2018). Female *D. cerebrum* are described to be the first to enter nest tubes, whereupon males
651 follow and spawning occurs. In *D. dracula*, the male is the first to venture into the spawning
652 crevices, followed by the female. In addition, *D. cerebrum* nest tubes are transparent and allow
653 light in, whereas *D. dracula* requires nest coverings that create dark spawning crevices. There is

654 also no description of nest site circling in *D. cerebrum*, whereas *D. dracula* resident males swim
655 close to nest sites from where they court females. These possible differences in courtship and
656 spawning behaviors could parallel ones in the natural habitats of the two species. *Danionella*
657 *cerebrum* is found in southern Myanmar and *D. dracula* in the north, which may differ in abiotic
658 properties as well as vulnerability to predation. These are all behavioral ecological questions that
659 need to be addressed in the future, especially once these sites become more accessible.

660

661 **Acoustic signaling**

662 Individual sound pulses are broadband, short in duration and possess a peak frequency close to 2
663 kHz in all social contexts observed here. The frequency spectrum of these pulses (Fig. 5) is well
664 within the range of hearing reported for other closely related otophysan genera that, like
665 *Danionella*, have a Weberian apparatus for enhanced sound detection (Fay, 1988; Ladich, 2000;
666 also see Braun and Grande, 2008; Britz and Conway 2016; Conway, Kubicek and Britz, 2021).
667 For some teleost species, dominant frequency correlates with body size as well as with winning
668 in dyadic contests (see Conti et al., 2015 for overview). This is not the case for *D. dracula*, at
669 least under the conditions tested here.

670 For both size-matched and size-mismatched dyads, males predominantly make single
671 pulse bursts, with repetitive multi-pulse bursts generated during periods of escalated sound
672 production. Bursts of two or more pulses might signal aggressive escalation compared to single
673 pulse bursts, which were more frequently used by all primary aggressor males. *Danionella*
674 *dracula*'s single pulses are reminiscent of the agonistic "pops" of the bicolor damselfish,
675 *Eupomacentrus partitus* (Myrberg, 1972). Many fish species produce multi-pulse sounds,
676 commonly referred to as "grunts", during reproductive and aggressive interactions (Lobel, Kaatz
677 and Rice, 2010, Amorim and Almada, 2005; Ladich and Myrberg, 2006; Myrberg and Lugli,
678 2006; McIver et al., 2014; Lobel et al., 2021). Several damselfish species, including *E. partitus*,
679 make multi-pulse "chirps" during reproductive interactions (Myrberg, Spanier and Ha, 1978).
680 Although *D. dracula* males vary in multi-pulse burst usage and the overall total number of sound
681 pulses produced during male-male dyadic interactions, there is no clear relationship to body size.
682 Future studies of *Danionella* building on the foundation set out here should examine these
683 acoustic characteristics in the context of nest-holding in community tanks to determine if nest-
684 holding males differ in these characteristics compared to "loser" males, similar to other species.

685 The *Danionella* genus contains multiple species for comparative studies of both sound
686 production and hearing (Britz, Conway and Rüber, 2021). So far, sound production has only
687 been described in one other *Danionella* species, *D. cerebrum* (Schulze et al., 2018). Male *D.*
688 *dracula* and *D. cerebrum* both make very short broadband, sharp onset pulses around 2 ms in
689 duration. They also exhibit variation in how frequently they sequence bursts during male-male
690 interactions. The sounds of both species can be grouped into bursts separated by a characteristic
691 IPI, close to 35 ms in *D. dracula* and 8 and 17 ms in *D. cerebrum* (Schulze et al., 2018). Beyond
692 the difference in IPI duration, there is a large species difference in the duration of individual
693 bursts and burst trains. We find that *D. dracula* primarily make single pulse signals compared to
694 multi-pulse bursts typically of 2-3 and rarely 4-6 pulses, at least under the conditions tested here.
695 By contrast, *D. cerebrum* have multi-pulse bursts lasting close to 1 s and repetitive bursts lasting
696 on the order of minutes (Schulze *et al.*, 2018). For both species, it would be of interest to
697 compare behaviors that might be coordinated with sound production. The temporal relationship
698 between sound production and lunging is not described for *D. cerebrum* (Schulze et al., 2018) as
699 documented here for *D. dracula*. In addition, *D. cerebrum* lacks the hypertrophied jaw and thus
700 the dramatic jaw extension of *D. dracula*, but perhaps it generates another type of jaw movement
701 during aggressive interactions.

702

703 **Jaw extension**

704 Beyond acoustic signaling, animals use other sensory modalities to communicate in conflict
705 scenarios, including visual mechanisms like ornaments and display postures (see Kodric-Brown,
706 Sibly and Brown, 2006; Lappin et al., 2006). As we demonstrate, *D. dracula* males often extend
707 their hypertrophied lower jaw during aggressive interactions. This morphological and behavioral
708 character appears to be unique to this species within the genus. Future studies should test if jaw
709 extension behavior functions as a visual agonistic signal, possibly allowing males to signal
710 contest escalation and assessment information to their competitors. Jaw extension could also act
711 to enhance characteristics of the acoustic signal, akin to the influence of vocal tract and mouth
712 skeleton on the spectral structure and trill rates in songbirds (Podos, Huber and Taft, 2004).

713 Despite our initial observations that jaw extension was always linked to sound
714 production, we found this to not be the case. The varied temporal separation between the two
715 types of display, especially during periods of low sound production, as well as the independent

716 occurrence of each during male aggressive encounters, indicate these two actions are separate
717 displays. However, the overlap of the two behaviors during periods of heightened activity
718 provides the opportunity to study a possible multimodal signaling repertoire (e.g., see Elias et al.,
719 2003, Amorim et al., 2019) that could maximize robustness of the overall multichannel signal
720 (Ay, Flack and Krakauer, 2007). Males in other sonic species of fish have multimodal signaling
721 repertoires that combine acoustic signals generated by one or more mechanisms (Rice et al.,
722 2022). Sonic signals might also be combined with specific features of other sensory modalities,
723 such as color and ornamentation as well as stereotyped visual dancing/movement displays
724 (Hebets and Uetz, 2000; Elias et al., 2003; Soma and Garamszegi, 2015). Jaw extension by *D.*
725 *dracula* males could serve as a modifier or amplifier of sound production as well, not
726 contributing its own information but instead augmenting the acoustic signal (Bradbury and
727 Vehrencamp, 2011; Gualla, Cermelli, and Castellano, 2008; Lappin et al., 2006). For a more
728 rigorous investigation of possible temporal coupling/coordination of acoustic and postural
729 displays in *D. dracula* and hence multimodal signaling, the concurrency of sound production and
730 jaw extension should be best re-visited with higher resolution video than used here to examine
731 the timing more precisely between these displays, as done for other sonic species (e.g., Bostwick
732 and Prum, 2003; Fusani et al., 2007).

733

734 **Individual Assessment**

735 Resources such as shelters and territories are continually defended by an owner to gain fitness
736 advantages (Conti et al., 2015; Arnott and Elwood, 2007). *Danionella dracula* males swim
737 closely around nest sites that contain spawning crevices. Future studies would benefit from
738 examining if and how males might utilize acoustic communication and other signaling modalities
739 (e.g., vision) to structure dominance hierarchies and determine nest ownership in a community
740 (Conti et al., 2015; Chase et al., 2002, Amorim and Almada, 2005, Arnott and Elwood, 2009,
741 Barata et al., 2007, Myrberg and Riggio, 1985). It would also be essential to determine how nest-
742 holding males might differ from other males in complex acoustic parameters like IPI and multi-
743 pulse burst usage, as well as factors that contribute to fighting potential examined here like nest
744 ownership and body size. Ownership is a factor that can contribute to an overall animal's
745 motivation, which can often be inferred from competitors' display rate, or continued agonistic
746 engagement and escalation over resource items, and it can be influenced by internal physiology

747 and perceived resource quality (Bradbury and Vehrencamp, 2011; Arnott and Elwood, 2007;
748 Brown, Chimenti, and Siebert, 2007; Lindström, 1992). How does ownership of a nest site in a
749 community setting affect fighting strategy and escalation, as could be indicated by display rate
750 and sonic characteristics in *D. dracula*? And is it the largest male in the community that holds
751 this nest site? Body size is often a determinant of winning an escalated fight in most animal
752 species, especially those with high variation in body size (Andersson, 1994). A display posture
753 can advantageously reveal body size, and larger animals can produce or bear relatively larger
754 ornaments (Bro-Jørgensen, 2009). We see a size effect in *D. dracula* where the larger male most
755 often (7/8 dyads) is the primary aggressor in size-mismatched dyads. This size asymmetry effect
756 in *D. dracula* contests is reminiscent of Assessor-like strategies (Parker, 1974; Arnott and
757 Elwood, 2009) and resembles other species which can assess differences in body size (see
758 Introduction). In size-matched dyads however, we found a distinct resident effect in the absence
759 of size differences between males, indicating the possible presence of a strategy in *D. dracula*
760 contests where residents are predicted to escalate aggression compared to intruders (Maynard
761 Smith, 1979), and so there may be possible tradeoffs between residency and size asymmetry in
762 *D. dracula* fighting strategies (Hack, Thompson and Fernandes, 2010; Hofmann and
763 Schildberger, 2001; Jennions and Backwell, 1996, Jackson and Cooper, 1991).

764

765 **Concluding Comments**

766 We demonstrate that *D. dracula* is a sonic species and characterize the sounds produced by
767 individual males in dyadic assays for size-matched and size-mismatched contexts, uncovering
768 initial residency and body size effects on aggressive behaviors in this species. Future
769 physiological investigations of auditory sensitivity (see Bass and McKibben, 2003), as well as
770 whole-brain neuroimaging of *Danionella* (Schulze et al., 2018; Chow et al., 2020), can determine
771 the components of natural acoustic and visual/postural signals that are attended to by both males
772 and females. The results presented here are a basis for subsequent behavioral studies
773 determining how *Danionella* species in general may assess each other's fighting ability via
774 multiple sensory modalities, such as audition and vision for observing sonic and postural (jaw
775 extension) behaviors, respectively. The temporal relationship of sound production to other
776 displays such as jaw extension could also allow researchers to determine how such actions may
777 augment the information conveyed through sound production, perhaps acting as a tactical threat

778 or amplifier (see Bradbury and Vehrencamp, 2011). Last, our experiments provide a foundation
779 on which to test established social behavioral models of conflict resolution such as fighting
780 strategy models (see Bradbury and Vehrencamp, 2011), which altogether would make a
781 comprehensive framework on which to study the neural and genetic drivers of social behaviors in
782 *Danionella* species.

783

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789

790 FOOTNOTES

791 **Author Contributions**

792 Conceptualization: R.L.T., A.H.B., H.K.R.; Methodology: R.L.T., A.H.B, S.C.C., J.T.P, E.R.S.,
793 H.K.R; Validation: R.L.T.; Statistical analyses: R.L.T., E.R.S., H.K.R; Data aggregation: R.L.T.,
794 Z.G., S.C.C., J.T.P., H.K., W.F; Data curation: R.L.T.; Writing - initial draft: R.L.T., A.H.B.;
795 Revision: R.L.T., A.H.B, Z.G., S.C.C., J.T.P, E.R.S., H.K.R; Visualization: R.L.T.; Resources,
796 Supervision, Project administration, Funding acquisition: A.H.B. All authors approved the final
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798

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802 **Competing Interests**

803 The authors declare no competing or financial interests.

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