

1 **Factors affecting the measure of inhibitory control in a fish (*Poecilia***
2 ***reticulata*)**

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11 **Abstract**

12 Inhibitory control allows an individual to block automatic responses as well as to
13 control behaviour and attention. There is growing evidence that many species possess this
14 ability, although the difference in performance among species is great. Inhibitory control has
15 been frequently measured using the detour task: a desired reward is placed behind a
16 transparent barrier, and the animal has to inhibit the tendency to directly move toward the
17 goal, instead making a detour around the barrier. Mammals' and birds' inhibitory
18 performance varies according to several factors, such as the distance from the reward and its
19 value, and in dogs, the breed also affects it. We investigated whether these factors affected
20 performance in a fish, the guppy (*Poecilia reticulata*), by using the detour task, with reaching
21 a social group as goal. We found that guppies were more proficient in making a detour
22 around the barrier when the goal was far, but the value of the reward (i.e., the size of the
23 social group) had no effect. We also found a clear effect of strain, with the guppies that
24 descended from a wild population performing better than the domesticated guppies. Our
25 study revealed that some of the factors affecting inhibitory control in warm-blooded
26 vertebrates also modulate the performance of fish. These factors should be taken into account
27 when comparing this function across species.

28

29 **Keyword:** detour task, inhibitory control, fish cognition, *Poecilia reticulata*

30 **Introduction**

31 In various situations, animals have to modify or block automatic responses, and
32 eventually switch to diverse, more appropriate responses to achieve certain goals. For
33 example, chum salmon (*Oncorhynchus keta*) inhibit foraging activity when exposed to
34 predation risk (Ryer and Olla, 1991); predators need to inhibit predatory attacks until the prey
35 reaches a convenient position (Hugie, 2003). The cognitive function in charge of these and
36 similar processes is often referred to as inhibitory control (Diamond, 2013).

37 Inhibitory control has been classically studied in humans (Diamond, 2013;
38 Gottfredson and Hirschi, 1990; Konrad et al., 2000; Moffit et al., 2011; Schachar et al.,
39 2000), but more studies aimed at understanding the evolution of inhibitory control have been
40 recently conducted on other mammals as well as on birds (e.g., Kabadayi et al., 2016;
41 MacLean et al., 2014). Most of the studies on non-human animals have exploited modified
42 versions of the detour task originally developed to measure inhibitory control in infants
43 (Diamond, 1981). In this task, study subjects have to make detours around a transparent
44 obstacle, which require inhibiting the tendency to pass directly through it, to reach a goal
45 placed behind the obstacle, such as a food reward (reviewed in Kabadayi et al., 2017a). There
46 is not complete agreement among researchers on which abilities are measured by the detour
47 task (Beran, 2015) and on whether non-cognitive factors affect performance in this task (van
48 Horik et al., 2018); however, the detour task is generally considered to measure motor aspects
49 of inhibitory control (Kabadayi et al., 2017a).

50 A common finding of research on animals' inhibitory control is that animals'
51 performance varies widely across species, although the reasons for this variation remain
52 unclear. For example, apes and ravens tested using the detour task were close to 100% correct
53 trials (i.e., trials in which they reached the goal without touching the transparent obstacle),
54 whereas parrots' and sparrows' performance was around 30% correct (Kabadayi et al., 2016;

55 Kabadayi et al., 2017b; MacLean et al., 2014). The aforementioned performance differences
56 might be due to differences in inhibitory control capacities. However, part of this variation
57 might be due to other, non-cognitive factors that affect task performance. For example,
58 several studies indicated that the greater the distance between the subjects and the goal, the
59 greater the ability to make a detour around the barrier (Diamond and Gilbert, 1989; Junghans
60 et al., 2016; Regolin et al., 1994). Other studies suggested that the value of the goal has an
61 impact on the ability to inhibit a behaviour (Auersperg et al., 2013; Brucks et al., 2017b;
62 Bugnyar et al., 2012; Hilleman et al., 2014; Rosati et al., 2007). For example, humans show
63 reduced inhibition when the reward has a high value, i.e. money versus food (Estle et al.,
64 2007; Odum and Rainaud, 2003; Odum et al., 2006; Rosati et al., 2007), and dogs show
65 reduced inhibition with a higher amount of food as a reward (Brucks et al., 2017a, b).

66 There is also evidence that performance may vary within species (i.e., between
67 individuals). For example, human children and cotton-top tamarins (*Sanguinus oedipus*)
68 showed individual differences in their inhibitory control performance, suggesting that some
69 individuals are more efficient in inhibiting a behaviour compared to others (Kralik et al.,
70 2002; Moffitt et al., 2011). Evidences indicate that different breeds of dogs show differential
71 inhibitory performance when tested using the same procedure (Fagnani et al., 2016; Marshall-
72 Pescini et al., 2015). Understanding the role of these factors is important not only for
73 understanding the mechanisms of inhibition but also for allowing a proper comparison across
74 species and reducing confounds.

75 Fish have been investigated only recently regarding their inhibitory control. Guppies
76 (*Poecilia reticulata*) have proved to be able to detour tasks with a performance similar to that
77 of many warm-blooded vertebrates (Lucon-Xiccato et al., 2017b). However, information is
78 still lacking regarding whether the same kinds of factors that affect performance in mammals
79 and birds affect fish's inhibitory control performance. In the present study, we investigated in

80 guppies the effect of three factors that are potentially important for inhibitory motor control
81 performance in the detour task. As in a previous study, the subjects had to make detours
82 around a transparent barrier to reach a social group as a reward (Lucon-Xiccato et al., 2017b)

83 In experiment 1, we studied the effect of the distance between the goal and the subject
84 by varying the position of the social group (far from or close to the barrier). We expected that
85 subjects will show greater difficulty in inhibiting the impulse to reach the goal when the goal
86 is closer (Diamond, 1990). In experiment 2, we studied the effect of the reward value by
87 presenting different numbers of conspecifics in the social group. Because protection against
88 predators increases with increasing group size, larger social groups have greater value for
89 guppies. Thus, we predicted that fish will show reduced inhibitory performance when the
90 social group is larger. The last factor that we considered is strain. In the two experiments in
91 this study, we used both domestic and wild-descendant guppies to compare the performance
92 of the two strains.

93

94 **Materials and Methods**

95 Experimental subjects

96 The subjects were adult female guppies from two strains: an ornamental strain
97 ('snakeskin cobra green') bred in the laboratory since 2012 and a wild strain descendant from
98 guppies caught in a high predation-risk environment (Tacarigua River, Trinidad) in 2002.
99 The wild strain is currently maintained in a semi-natural warm-water pond in Padova as a
100 large (<10000) self-sustained population. Before the experiments were conducted, all fish
101 were maintained in the laboratory in the Department of General Psychology (University of
102 Padova) in large tanks (100 × 70 cm, 400 L). The tanks were provided with gravel bottoms,
103 aquatic plants, water filters, and 36-W fluorescent lamps (12h:12h light/dark photoperiod).
104 The water temperature was kept at 26 ± 1 °C, and the fish were fed with commercial food

105 flakes (Aqua Tropical, Isola Vicentina, Italy) and *Artemia salina* nauplii two times per day.

106 We planned to test 48 guppies in experiment 1 (24 domestic guppies and 24 guppies
107 from the wild population) and another 48 guppies in experiment 2 (24 domestic guppies and
108 24 guppies from the wild population). However, 23 subjects (16 subjects of the domestic
109 strain and 7 subjects of the wild strain) did not complete the 5 trials of the experiment (see
110 below). These guppies were discarded and substituted with new subjects of the same strain in
111 order to maintain the predetermined sample size. The overall study included 96 guppies that
112 completed the two experiments, plus 23 guppies that were discarded (total: 119 guppies).
113 Each subject was tested once to ensure independence of the data of the different experiments
114 and rule out the effects of experience (van Horik et al., 2018). Following the completion of
115 the experiment, the subjects were released into a maintenance tank.

116

117 Apparatus and procedure

118 The experiments followed a well-established procedure for studying detour behaviour
119 in fish (Lucon-Xiccato and Bisazza, 2017a; Lucon-Xiccato et al., 2017b). Each subject
120 underwent 5 trials in which it had to detour the transparent barrier to reach a social group.
121 The apparatus was an $80 \times 40 \times 36$ cm glass tank with walls covered with white plastic (Fig.
122 1). An 18-W fluorescent lamp placed above the stimuli illuminated the apparatus, and a video
123 camera recorded the trials. On one of the short sides of the tank, we placed a white start box
124 ($15 \times 10 \times 20$ cm). To start the first trial, we netted the subject from a maintenance tank and
125 inserted it into the start box. From the start box, the subject could see the target: a social
126 group confined in a transparent cylinder placed on the opposite extremity of the tank. These
127 guppies were adult females from the same strain and were the same size as the subject.
128 Outside the trials, we maintained stimulus guppies in a $60 \times 40 \times 38$ tank provided with
129 gravel bottom, plants, and water filters as described for maintenance tank. We inserted the

130 stimuli into the cylinder 30 min before the beginning of the trial to habituate them to the
131 experimental tank (Lucon-Xiccato et al., 2017a). After being inserted into the start box, the
132 subject was free to exit and to swim towards the social group, but before reaching the group,
133 the subject had to pass the barrier. The barrier (18×18 cm) was made from transparent
134 plastic and was placed between the start box and the social group, at 30 cm from the start box
135 (Fig. 1). The barrier was C-shaped by means of two white plastic wings (18×5 cm). This
136 was done to prevent the guppies from making a detour accidentally while trying to pass
137 through the barrier (Lucon-Xiccato and Bisazza, 2017a). A trial ended when the subject
138 reached the social group. Subject that did not reach the social group within 20 min (because
139 they did not exit from the start box or froze or swam along the wall) were discarded and
140 substituted. After a subject joined the social group, we left it undisturbed for 5 min as a
141 reward; then, we netted the subject again and repeated the procedure until the completion of
142 the 5 trials. We tested 8 subjects per day divided into two sessions. At the end of a session,
143 half of the water was removed from the apparatus and was substituted with clean water.

144 In experiment 1, we always used 4 stimulus fish as the social reward in the cylinder,
145 and the subject guppies were tested with two different conditions regarding the position of the
146 social group to study the effect of distance (Fig. 1a). In the first condition, the cylinder with
147 the social group was placed at 5 cm from the barrier ($N = 12$ domestic guppies and 12 wild-
148 descendant guppies); in the second condition, the cylinder with the social group was placed at
149 15 cm from the barrier ($N = 12$ domestic guppies and 12 wild-descendant guppies). A
150 distance of 5 cm corresponds to 2 body lengths in this species, and it has been frequently
151 observed as the inter-individual distance of shoaling guppies (Pitcher, 1986). Conversely, the
152 distance of 15 cm corresponds to 6 body lengths and is larger than the normal inter-individual
153 distance observed in guppies. We randomly assigned the subjects to the different conditions
154 and tested alternately the subjects of the two conditions.

155 In experiment 2, the position of the stimuli was fixed, with the cylinder being placed
156 at 10 cm from the barrier (Fig. 1b). The number of guppies of the social group in the cylinder
157 varied to study the effect of the reward value: in the first condition, we used a 3-guppies
158 social group (N = 12 domestic guppies and 12 wild-descendant guppies), whereas in the
159 second condition, we used an 8-guppies social group (N = 12 domestic guppies and 12 wild-
160 descendant guppies). Guppies have been proven to recognise the difference between two
161 shoals made up of 4 and 5 conspecifics (Lucon-Xiccato et al., 2017a); the number of stimulus
162 guppies used in the two conditions of the present experiment (3 versus 8) was therefore
163 adequate for the subjects to notice the difference. Again, we randomly assigned the subjects
164 to the conditions and randomized the condition between trials.

165 There were only three differences between the apparatuses used in the two
166 experiments. First, the apparatus of experiment 1 was filled with 10 cm of water, whereas the
167 apparatus of experiment 2 was filled with 20 cm of water. Second, the cylinder of experiment
168 1 had a diameter of 12 cm, whereas the cylinder of experiment 2 had a diameter of 14 cm.
169 The larger amount of water and the larger cylinder in experiment 2 were necessary to
170 accommodate a larger number of guppies. Considering both the cylinder diameter and the
171 water level in the tank, the volume of water per stimulus fish in experiment 1 was
172 approximately 300 cm³ and the volume of water per fish in the 8 stimuli condition of
173 experiment 2 was 400 cm³. Thus, in the 8-stimuli condition of experiment 2, the density of
174 stimulus fish in the cylinder was sufficient to ensure visibility of each stimulus at least as in
175 experiment 1.

176 Third, in experiment 2, we equated the amount of conspecific's chemical cues
177 experienced by the subjects in the two conditions. Indeed, during development of previous
178 procedures, we observed that guppies show reduced activity and consistent freezing
179 behaviour when inserted in a novel experimental tank with no or reduced olfactory cues from

180 conspecifics. For this reason, we routinely provide experimental tanks with social cues by
181 housing some conspecifics in separated compartments (e.g., Lucon-Xiccato et al., 2015;
182 Lucon-Xiccato et al., 2017a). In experiment 2, the subjects would experience a different
183 amount of chemical cues in the testing tank according to the experimental condition (3 or 8
184 stimulus fish); this might cause different activity of the subjects in the two experimental
185 conditions and affect task performance. To deal with this confound, in experiment 2, we
186 added an extra compartment (10 cm) behind the cylinder with the social group. In such
187 compartment, we housed 5 guppies in the trials with the condition with the smaller social
188 group. This small compartment communicated with the main experimental compartment by
189 means of small holes, but the subject could not see the fish inside the compartment. With this
190 setting, the subject guppies were exposed to the olfactory cues of an equal number of
191 conspecifics in both experimental conditions. Further, our setting mimics the conditions of
192 guppies' natural environment, where they could perceive the chemical cues of many
193 conspecifics living in the area but they could see only few of them due to the windingness of
194 the rivers and to the presence of stones and dense vegetation. In these conditions the number
195 of fish seen rather than the amount of social odour perceived is likely to influence the
196 decision about the social group to join.

197

198 Analysis of the video recordings

199 We analysed the performance of the subjects from the video recordings of the trials.
200 We played back the recordings using a computer, and we scored whether the subjects reached
201 the stimulus shoal by entering the area delimited by the wings of the barrier (incorrect trial)
202 or not (correct trial). We also measured the time spent within this area. The experimenter was
203 blind with respect to the experimental condition.

204 To test the reliability of our video analysis, a second observer blind to the aims of the
205 experiments re-analysed the video recordings of 50 trials of 10 randomly chosen subjects in
206 each experiment (100 trials overall). The binary measure of performance, correct versus
207 incorrect trials, did not differ between the two scores. The time spent in front of the barrier
208 was highly correlated between the two scores for both experiments (Spearman's rank
209 correlation: experiment 1: $\rho = 0.997$, $P < 0.001$; experiment 2: $\rho = 0.998$, $P < 0.001$).

210

211 Statistical analysis

212 Analyses were performed in RStudio version 1.1.383 (RStudio Team (2015). RStudio:
213 Integrated Development for R. RStudio, Inc., Boston, MA URL <http://www.rstudio.com/>).
214 For both experiments, we analysed the outcomes of the trials (correct or incorrect) with
215 generalized linear mixed-effects models for binomial response distributions (GLMMs;
216 'glmer' function of the 'lme4' R package) fitted with the trial number as a covariate to
217 examine whether the performance improved over trials, experimental condition and strain as
218 fixed effects, and individual ID as random effect. To assess the significance of the models'
219 parameters, we used the 'Anova' function of the 'CAR' package. We analysed the time
220 performance (time spent trying to pass through the barrier) by using linear mixed-effects
221 models (LMMs; 'lmer' function of the 'lme4' R package) fitted as the GLMMs of the above.
222 The time performance was log transformed due to the right-skewed distribution. Given the
223 absence of a significant effect of the condition, in experiment 2, we used the Bayesian
224 information criteria of the models with and without experimental conditions to approximate a
225 Bayes factor (Wagenmakers, 2007). The Bayes factor allowed to test for similarity between
226 the experimental conditions, providing an approach to interpret non-significant results which
227 is robust to small sample size (Dienes, 2014). Data reported in the text are mean \pm standard
228 deviation.

229

230 **Results**

231 Experiment 1: Distance from the goal

232 In the analysis of the trials' outcomes, we found that the likelihood of a correct
233 response significantly increased across the 5 trials administered (GLMM: $\chi^2_1 = 9.776$, $P <$
234 0.002 ; Fig. 2a,b), suggesting that the guppies' performance increased due to learning. We
235 found a significant effect of the condition in the model (GLMM: $\chi^2_1 = 9.019$, $P < 0.003$; Fig.
236 2a), indicating that the guppies tested with the social group close to the barrier made fewer
237 correct responses compared with the guppies tested with the social group far from the barrier
238 (close: 28.33 ± 28.84 % correct trials; distant: 50.00 ± 25.02 % correct trials). We also found
239 a significant effect of strain (GLMM: $\chi^2_1 = 9.019$, $P < 0.003$; Fig. 2b): the wild-descendent
240 guppies made more correct responses than the domestic guppies did (wild: 50.00 ± 25.02 %
241 correct trials; domestic: 28.33 ± 28.33 % correct trials).

242 In the analysis of the time spent trying to pass through the barrier, we found a
243 significant effect of the trial (LMM: $\chi^2_1 = 12.653$, $P < 0.001$; Fig. 2c,d), indicating that the
244 guppies learned to solve the task faster as the training progressed. As in the previous model,
245 we found a significant effect of the condition (LMM: $\chi^2_1 = 15.799$, $P < 0.001$; Fig. 2c) and a
246 significant effect of the strain (LMM: $\chi^2_1 = 17.912$, $P < 0.001$; Fig. 2d). The guppies tested
247 with the social group far to the barrier were faster in passing the barrier compared with the
248 guppies tested with the social group close from the barrier (close: 78.42 ± 96.13 s; distant:
249 24.21 ± 21.21 s), and the wild-descendent guppies were faster than the domestic guppies
250 were in passing the barrier (wild: 23.38 ± 28.28 s; domestic: 79.25 ± 93.79 s).

251

252 Experiment 2: Value of the reward

253 In the analysis on the trials' outcomes, we did not find a significant effect of the trial
254 (GLMM: $\chi^2_1 = 0.519$, $P = 0.471$; Fig. 3a,b) or a significant effect of the condition (larger
255 group: 35.00 ± 27.82 % correct trials; smaller group: 33.33 ± 25.48 % correct trials; GLMM:
256 $\chi^2_1 = 0.070$, $P = 0.791$; Fig. 3a). The approximate Bayes factor indicated that the GLMM
257 model without the effect of the experimental condition was 15 times more likely to explain
258 the performance of the subjects compared with the model with the effect of the experimental
259 condition. We found a significant effect of strain (GLMM: $\chi^2_1 = 9.446$, $P = 0.002$; Fig. 3b),
260 indicating that the wild-descendent guppies made more correct responses than the domestic
261 guppies did (wild: 45.00 ± 25.19 % correct trials; domestic: 23.33 ± 23.34 % correct trials).

262 In the analysis of the time spent trying to pass through the barrier, we did not find a
263 significant effect of the trial (LMM: $\chi^2_1 = 0.168$, $P = 0.682$; Fig. 3c,d) or a significant effect
264 of the condition (larger group: 69.96 ± 100.55 s; smaller group: 95.52 ± 79.37 s; LMM: $\chi^2_1 =$
265 1.413 , $P = 0.235$; Fig. 3c). The approximate Bayes factor indicated that the LMM model
266 without the effect of the experimental condition was 22 times more likely to explain the
267 performance of the subjects compared with the model with the effect of the experimental
268 condition. We found a significant effect of strain (LMM: $\chi^2_1 = 6.809$, $P < 0.009$; Fig. 3d),
269 indicating that the wild-descendent guppies were faster than the domestic guppies were in
270 passing the barrier wild: 79.59 ± 92.28 s; domestic: 85.88 ± 90.63 s).

271

272 **Discussion**

273 Several factors affect the inhibitory performance of mammals and birds (e.g.,
274 Marshall-Pescini et al., 2015; Junghans et al., 2016; Rosati et al., 2007). Recently, fish have
275 been shown to perform similarly to warm-blooded vertebrates in standard inhibitory motor
276 control tasks (Lucon-Xiccato et al., 2017b), but whether the same factors observed in warm-
277 blooded vertebrates affect fish's performance remains to be investigated. We tested the

278 hypotheses that the detour performance of a fish, the guppy, varies with the distance from the
279 goal (experiment 1) and the value of the reward (experiment 2). The results of our
280 experiments supported the former hypothesis but not the latter one, and they also evidenced a
281 performance difference between the domestic and wild-descendant strains of guppies.

282 In experiment 1, guppies were tested for their ability to make a detour around a
283 transparent barrier to join a social group placed at two different distances from the barrier.
284 For half of the subjects, the social group was close to the barrier (5 cm), whereas for the
285 remaining half of the subjects, the social group was farther, at 15 cm from the barrier. In both
286 conditions, the guppies showed a steady decrease in the number of errors and in the time
287 spent trying to pass through the barrier across the 5 trials administered. This effect was
288 previously reported in guppies using this procedure, but not using a different procedure
289 whereby the subjects had to make detours around a transparent cylinder instead of a barrier
290 (Lucon-Xiccato et al., 2017b). This effect has also been found in cotton-top tamarins
291 (*Saguinus oedipus oedipus*: Santos et al., 1999), orangutans (*Pongo pygmaeus*: Vlamings et
292 al., 2010) and several bird species (*Taeniopygia guttata*; *Melospiza melodia*; *Melospiza*
293 *georgiana*, *Amazona amazonica*; Maclean et al., 2014) but not in other primates and birds
294 (primates: *Gorilla gorilla*, *Pan paniscus*, *Pan troglodytes*; Vlamings et al., 2010; birds:
295 *Corvus sp.*, *Corvus moneduloides*, *Coloeus monedula*; Kabadayi et al., 2016). Performance
296 improvement is usually interpreted as evidence that the subjects learn to handle the
297 transparency of the barrier trial after trial, and that they obtain increasing ability in inhibiting
298 their tendency to pass directly through the barrier.

299 The comparison between the guppies tested in the two conditions clearly indicated
300 that the performance increased when the distance between the barrier and the goal was
301 greater. In other words, when the guppies were close to the goal, it was more difficult to
302 inhibit the tendency to reach it. Similar effects have been found in other species: seven-

303 month-old human infants and long tailed macaques (*Macaca fascicularis*) failed to retrieve a
304 toy and a food item, respectively, placed just behind a transparent barrier (Diamond and
305 Gilbert, 1989; Junghans et al., 2016). Two-day-old chicks (*Gallus gallus domesticus*) take
306 longer time to reach a proximal conspecific group (Regolin et al., 1994). It has been
307 suggested that in humans and monkeys, the response inhibition depends upon the working
308 memory load required to solve the task (reviewed in Ridderinkhof et al., 2011). In particular,
309 motor activation seems to be dominant with respect to the inhibitory response when the
310 internal impulse is stronger. A similar mechanism might explain the effect observed in
311 guppies.

312 In experiment 2, guppies were tested using two rewards with different values. In one
313 condition, the reward was a group of 3 fish, whereas in the other condition, the reward was a
314 group of 8 fish. Joining large shoals is an effective antipredator mechanism of social fish
315 species, as an individual in a large shoal has a reduced probability of being predated in the
316 event of an attack (Hager and Helfman, 1991). Hence, we expected that guppies should be
317 more attracted to the larger social group, thus resulting in greater difficulty with executing a
318 detour when the social group is large. Contrary to our expectation, we found convincing
319 evidence that the guppies performed similarly in the two conditions, both with regard to the
320 number of trials in which the transparent barrier was not touched and the time spent trying to
321 pass through the barrier. This result contrasts with that observed in other species (e.g., Brucks
322 et al., 2017a; Rosati et al., 2007). One possible explanation for the absence of the expected
323 effect is that the guppies did not perceive the differences between the two social groups. This
324 appears unlikely because a large literature suggests that social fish are highly proficient in
325 discriminating shoals of different sizes (Agrillo et al., 2017). Guppies can discriminate shoals
326 that differ by one individual at least up to 4 versus 5 fish (Lucon-Xiccato et al., 2017a). Thus,
327 guppies should have no problem with perceiving the difference between shoals differing by 5

328 individuals as in our experiment. An alternative interpretation is that the guppies perceived
329 the difference between the two social groups but were not motivated differently. Although
330 guppies consistently select the larger of two shoals when option is available (Agrillo et al.,
331 2017; Lucon-Xiccato et al., 2017a), it is possible that when placed in a novel, potentially
332 dangerous, environment with a single visible social group, they show a strong social
333 attraction which is largely independent of group size. The fact that we equated the chemical
334 cues of conspecifics in the two conditions might also have contributed to reduce the
335 perceived difference in the value of the two groups. Before accepting the idea that the reward
336 type does not affect guppies' inhibitory performance, it is necessary to test guppies using
337 other kinds of lures, such as food, that allow a finer determination of the resource value.

338 When we compared the two strains of guppies, we found evidence of differential
339 performance in both experiments. The wild-descendant guppies made fewer errors and made
340 detours around the barrier more quickly compared with the domestic guppies. At the current
341 stage of research, it is not clear what caused this difference between the strains. Previous
342 studies comparing wild and domestic guppies did not find significant differences in cognitive
343 performance (Lucon-Xiccato and Bisazza, 2017b), but they did find behavioural differences
344 in sociability (Swaney et al., 2015). For foxes (*Vulpes vulpes*), researchers have reported the
345 rapid evolution of their cognitive abilities following simulated domestication consisting of
346 artificial selection for tame behaviours (Hare et al., 2005). It is possible that humans have
347 selected domestic guppies for certain behaviours adapted to captivity conditions (i.e.,
348 sociability), and this, in turn, has affected their inhibitory control via genetic pleiotropy.
349 Differential inhibitory performance has also been reported between dogs and wolves,
350 suggesting an effect of domestication (Marshall-Pescini et al., 2015); however, in this system,
351 the results are less clear. One explanation for part of the results of Marshall-Pescini and
352 colleagues is that selection for inhibitory control in dogs is relaxed, as they do not live in

353 social groups as wolfs do (Amici et al., 2008). Similarly, it is possible that wild guppies
354 undergo selection for inhibitory control, for example, to inhibit foraging tendencies in the
355 presence of predators (Katz et al., 2010; Ryer and Olla, 1991); conversely, selection for the
356 inhibitory control of domestic guppies might be relaxed. Whatever the evolutionary cause of
357 the strain difference may be, these data are important for two reasons. First, they reveal the
358 presence of significant intraspecific variation in inhibitory control. Future studies should
359 investigate whether fish also show individual variation within population in inhibitory control
360 similarly to humans and other primates (Carlson and Moses, 2001; Gilmore et al., 2013;
361 Kralik et al., 2002; but see Bray et al., 2014) and similarly to what observed in fish for other
362 cognitive abilities (Lucon-Xiccato & Bisazza, 2017c). Second, the difference between strains
363 may be problematic when comparing experiments performed in different laboratories and it
364 should be carefully considered in further studies.

365 Overall, our study provides evidence of mechanisms modulating inhibitory control
366 that are similar across vertebrates. This may also have some methodological implications for
367 comparative research on inhibitory control. Indeed, our findings align with previous research
368 in suggesting that the commonly-used detour task may, at least to some extent, measure
369 factors other than inhibitory control (Auersperg et al., 2013; Brucks et al., 2017b; Bugnyar et
370 al., 2012; Diamond and Gilbert, 1989; Hilleman et al., 2014; Junghans et al., 2016; Regolin et
371 al., 1994; Rosati et al., 2007; van Horik et al., 2018). For example, in pheasants, *Phasianus*
372 *colchicus*, the detour task seems to be sensitive to the subjects' motivation to feed (van Horik
373 et al., 2018). To date, it is not clear whether and to which extent the detour task measures
374 inhibitory control in animals. Also, the present study and the early studies addressing the
375 effects of different factors on the detour performance also suggest that, as for other cognitive
376 abilities (Gatto et al., 2017; Lucon-Xiccato et al., 2017a; Prétôt et al., 2016; Salwiczek et al.,
377 2012), small modifications to the apparatus and the procedure might bear different

378 conclusions regarding the cognitive ability of a species. These potential confounds should be
379 carefully taken into account when comparing performance across species.

380

381 **Ethical statement**

382 The experiments adhered to the current legislation of our country (Decreto Legislativo
383 4 Marzo 2014, n. 26) and were approved by the Ethical Committee of the Università di
384 Padova (protocol n. 33/2015).

385

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389

390 **Reference**

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527

528 **Figure captions**

529 **Fig. 1** Apparatus adopted in our study. **(a)** In experiment 1, the position of the stimuli varied
530 according to the experimental condition (close versus distant); **(b)** in experiment 2, the
531 position of the stimuli was fixed, but the value of reward varied (3 versus 8-guppies social
532 group).

533

534 **Fig. 2** Performance of guppies in experiment 1. Percentage of successful guppies that made
535 detours around the barrier without touching it divided according to the **(a)** two experimental
536 conditions (close versus distant goal) and the **(b)** strain (wild-descendant versus domestic

537 guppies); and mean time required to complete the task divided according to the **(c)** two
538 experimental conditions and the **(d)** strain. Lines indicated the change in performance across
539 trials as predicted from the model and shaded areas 95 % C.I..

540

541 **Fig. 3** Performance of guppies in experiment 2. Percentage of successful guppies that made
542 detours around the barrier without touching it divided according to the **(a)** two experimental
543 conditions (3- versus 8-guppies social group) and the **(b)** strain (wild-descendant versus
544 domestic guppies); and mean time required to complete the task divided according to the **(c)**
545 two experimental conditions and the **(d)** strain. Lines indicated the change in performance
546 across trials as predicted from the model and shaded areas 95 % C.I..

547