

1 **Automated behavioral profiling using neural networks reveals differences in**
2 **stress-like behavior between cave and surface-dwelling *Astyanax mexicanus***

3
4 Naresh Padmanaban¹, Rianna Ambosie², Stefan Choy², Shoshanah Marcus¹, Simon
5 R.O. Nilsson³, Alex C. Keene⁴, Johanna E. Kowalko², and Erik R. Duboué¹‡

6
7 1. Wilkes Honors College, Florida Atlantic University, 5353 Parkside Drive, Jupiter FL
8 33458

9 2. Department of Biological Sciences, Lehigh University 111 Research Dr., Allentown
10 PA, 18015

11 3. Platea Biosciences, 4000 Mason Rd, Seattle, WA, 98195

12 4. Texas A&M University, 3258 TAMU, College Station, Texas 77843

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14 ‡ To whom correspondence should be addressed: eduboue@fau.edu

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17 **Abstract**

18 Behavioral stress responses allow animals to quickly adapt to local environments and are
19 critical for survival. Stress responses provide an ideal model for investigating the
20 evolution of complex behaviors due to their conservation across species, critical role in
21 survival, and integration of behavioral and physiological components. The Mexican
22 cavefish (*Astyanax mexicanus*) has evolved dramatically different stress responses
23 compared to river-dwelling surface fish morphs, providing a model to investigate the
24 neural and evolutionary basis of stress-like responses. Surface morphs inhabit predator-
25 rich environments whereas cave-dwelling morphs occupy predator-free habitats. While
26 these key ecological variables may underlie differences in stress responses, the
27 complexity of the behavioral differences has not been thoroughly examined. By
28 leveraging automated pose-tracking and machine learning tools, we quantified a range of
29 behaviors associated with stress, including freezing, bottom-dwelling, and hyperactivity,
30 during a novel tank assay. Surface fish exhibited heightened stress responses
31 characterized by prolonged bottom-dwelling and frequent freezing, while cavefish
32 demonstrated reduced stress behaviors, marked by greater exploration and minimal
33 freezing. Analysis of F2 hybrids revealed that a subset of behaviors, freezing and bottom-
34 dwelling, co-segregated, suggesting shared genetic or physiological underpinnings. Our
35 findings illustrate the power of computational tools for high-throughput behavioral
36 phenotyping, enabling precise quantification of complex traits and revealing the genetic
37 and ecological factors driving their evolution. This study provides a framework for
38 understanding how integrated behavioral and physiological traits evolve, offering broader
39 insights into the mechanisms underlying the diversification of animal behavior in natural
40 systems.

41
42 **Introduction**

43 Behavioral and physiological responses to stressors are critical for survival and are
44 subject to natural selection across the animal kingdom (Blackledge and Gillespie, 2004;
45 Nesse et al., 2016). For example, both across species and within species, individuals or
46 populations in high-predator environments exhibit heightened stress responses, such as

47 elevated glucocorticoid levels and reduced exploratory behavior, compared to those in
48 predator-free settings (Mateo, 2007; Fischer et al., 2014; Heinen-Kay et al., 2016). These
49 differences underscore the role of ecology in shaping the evolution of stress-related traits
50 (Barton, 2002; Huber et al., 2017; Chin et al., 2018; Chin et al., 2020). While previous
51 studies have provided an understanding of how ecological pressures influence stress
52 responses, much of this work relies on manual scoring of behavior, which is time-
53 consuming and vulnerable to biases and experimental error. To uncover the mechanisms
54 driving evolutionary trajectories of stress responses, it is crucial to adopt approaches that
55 capture the full spectrum of behavioral components and their variation in a standardized
56 manner that does not differ between annotators.

57
58 Recent advances in automated analysis of animal behavior, including tracking and
59 machine learning-based approaches, have significantly enhanced our understanding of
60 the biological basis of complex behaviors (Branson et al., 2009; Perez-Escudero et al.,
61 2014; Mathis et al., 2018). For example, pose-detection is capable of tracking multiple
62 body parts of an animal over time rather than a single center point, permitting the
63 estimation of a wide range of behaviors that are undetectable with simplified tracking
64 software (Mathis et al., 2018). Additionally, behavioral classification using deep neural
65 networks enables the automated detection of multiple complex behaviors in an unbiased
66 and high-throughput manner (Goodwin et al., 2024; Goodwin and Golden, 2024). While
67 these tools have been transformative in studying the biological and neural underpinnings
68 of behavior, they have not yet been widely applied to exploring natural variation in
69 behavior across populations and species. Leveraging these innovative tools presents an
70 unprecedented opportunity to investigate how complex behaviors vary and evolve in
71 response to ecological and evolutionary pressures.

72
73 The blind Mexican cavefish, *Astyanax mexicanus*, has emerged as a powerful system for
74 examining how morphological and behavioral traits change over evolutionary time. The
75 species consists of two dramatically different morphs: populations of eyed pigmented fish
76 live in above-ground rivers and streams in Mexico and southern Texas, and at least 30
77 populations of cave-dwelling fish inhabit caves within Northeast Mexico's Sierra de El
78 Abra and Sierra de Guatemala regions (Mitchell et al., 1977; Jeffery, 2001, 2009; Gross,
79 2012). Cave dwelling *A. mexicanus* have evolved eye regression and reductions in
80 pigmentation, as well as many behavioral traits including reduced aggression, schooling,
81 and sleep and alterations to feeding (Protas et al., 2006; Protas et al., 2007; Duboué et
82 al., 2011; Aspiras et al., 2015; Jaggard et al., 2018; Lloyd et al., 2018; Pierre et al., 2020;
83 Rodriguez-Morales et al., 2022).

84
85 We have identified robust differences between stress-like responses of surface and
86 cavefish populations (Chin et al., 2018; Chin et al., 2020). Following a stressor such as a
87 confined space, surface fish have significantly higher cortisol levels relative to cavefish
88 subjected to the same stimuli (Gallo and Jeffery, 2012). Similarly, we have shown that
89 both larval and adult surface fish have elevated behavioral measures of stress-responses
90 compared to multiple populations of cavefish (Chin et al., 2018; Chin et al., 2020). These
91 findings reveal robust differences in stress response between surface fish and
92 independently evolved populations of cavefish, which, combined with their comparative

93 biology and amenability to genetic manipulation, make *A. mexicanus* a powerful model
94 for identifying mechanisms underlying the evolution of stress responses.

95
96 The novel tank test is a widely used assay for examining stress behavior in fish (Levin et
97 al., 2007; Cachat et al., 2010). In this assay, adult fish are placed in an unfamiliar tank
98 and allowed to explore for a 10-min period. Initially, fish swim in the bottom portion of the
99 tank, yet over time as the fish acclimates, it begins to explore top and bottom halves with
100 near-equal frequency. Application of noxious compounds results in fish positioning
101 themselves to the bottom half, whereas pre-treatment with anxiolytics results in fish
102 disproportionately swimming in the top portion, suggesting time spent in the bottom is a
103 measure of stress levels (Bencan et al., 2009; Cachat et al., 2010; Mathuru et al., 2012).
104 We have shown that surface fish prefer the bottom portion of the tank for the majority of
105 the recording period, whereas cavefish quickly explore both halves of the tank (Chin et
106 al., 2018). While time in the bottom is considered a valid measure of stress levels, fish
107 show a myriad of stress-associated behaviors such as freezing and erratic swimming
108 (Schreck et al., 2016), which have not been quantified in *A. mexicanus*.

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110 Here, we sought to identify differences in stress behavior using precise and automated
111 behavioral analysis. We applied pose-tracking to surface and cave morphs of *Astyanax*
112 *mexicanus* in the novel tank assay. Using a machine learning approach with deep neural
113 networks, we automatically evaluated a range of behaviors associated with stress.
114 Consistent with previous studies, we found that surface fish spent more time at the bottom
115 of the tank compared to their cave-dwelling counterparts. Additionally, other behaviors,
116 such as freezing and hyperactivity, differed quantitatively between the two morphs. High-
117 throughput behavioral analysis of surface × cave hybrid fish revealed that these behaviors
118 clustered into two main groups, suggesting that correlated behavioral traits may have
119 evolved through the same genetic mechanisms as each other. Together, these findings
120 provide a comprehensive assessment of behavior in an evolutionary model and establish
121 a foundation for the automated evaluation of complex traits.

122 123 **Methods**

124 *Ethics Statement.* All experimental procedures were carried out in accordance with
125 approval from the Institutional Animal Care and Usage Committee (IACUC) at Florida
126 Atlantic University, protocol numbers A17–21 and A15–32 and Lehigh University. All
127 efforts were made to ensure health of the fish, and behavioral procedures were designed
128 to minimize any unnecessary stress or pain.

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131 *Animal Maintenance.* All experiments in this study were performed on laboratory-born
132 surface (Texas) fish, cavefish from the Pachón populations and F2 hybrids (Rio Choy x
133 Pachón F2's). Animal care was conducted as previously described. Briefly, fish were
134 maintained on a custom-designed closed recirculating aquatics system (Aquaneering) in
135 18-37 L glass tanks with water temperature maintained at $23\pm 1^{\circ}\text{C}$. The aquatics facility is
136 housed in a humidity-controlled room and is maintained on a constant 14:10 light:dark
137 cycle with light intensity of 25-40 lux. Fish were fed Ziegler pellets daily, and the diet was
138 periodically supplemented with California Black Worms (Kozol et al., 2023).

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Behavioral Recordings. Behavioral experiments were performed in the novel tank diving test in 18 cm (w) x 11 cm (l) x 14 cm (h) plastic tanks (recording chamber) set in front of custom-designed infrared (IR) light sources (850 nm; Fig. 1A). Before recording, 1.5-2 L of fresh system water was added to each tank. Adult fish were allowed to sit in the room acclimatized for 10 min in individual 500 mL beakers before recording. After the 10 min acclimation period, each fish was introduced into one of the recording chambers. Locomotor activity was recorded along the z-axis using a scientific cMOS camera (Basler aCA 1300-200um or Basler aCA 640-90um) attached to a 16mm f/1.4 (Edmund Optics) fixed focal length lens. The camera was positioned in front of the recording tank such that the z-axis of the fish was monitored. Video records were collected using Pylon Viewer software (Basler). All behavioral recordings were collected between 9:00 am and 6:00 pm. Recordings were conducted for a 10-minute period at 25-30 fps and saved as an .mp4 file. Adult fish were transferred into a holding tank following recording. All fish were transferred back into their home tanks after the experiment ended.

Assessing behavior using Ethovision XT 13. A subset of behavior recordings were analyzed using Ethovision XT, as previously described (Chin et al., 2018). Briefly, movies of fish behavior in the novel tank test were imported into Ethovision as .mp4 files. A project tracking 'zebrafish adult' as subject type was formed. The environment was set to 'open field square' area and method of tracking set to 'center point tracking.' Area settings were set with two zones, one top half and the other bottom half, with detection settings to 'automatic'. Following tracking, time in top and bottom half, total distance traveled, velocity and immobility were calculated from the final tracks.

DeepLabCut tracking. DeepLabCut (DLC) (Mathis et al., 2018) was used for automated tracking using either a custom-built Desktop computer with a Ryzen 9 3900X 3.8GHz processor (AMD), 64 GB RAM (Team T-force Vulcan 3200 CL16) or a computing device of similar performance. To prepare a training dataset for DLC, we selected 5 body parts (mouth, body_midpoint, dorsal_fin, tail_midpoint, peduncle_base) to be tracked through the duration of each video (see Fig 2). We then manually selected videos and used DLC's "extract_frames()" function to select 20 random frames from each video, then marked the previously indicated body parts in each of these frames using the function "label_frames()". After checking these annotations with DLC's "check_labels()" function, we created a training dataset using DLC's "create_training_dataset()" function. To perform pose-estimation in our videos, we applied DLC's "train_network()" function to this dataset. We then tracked poses in all videos using DLC's "analyze_videos()" function, generating a .csv file describing the x- and y-coordinates of each of the 5 body parts. A total of 15 videos was used to train the model. The quality of the model was evaluated by a trained experimenter comparing the automated annotations to the labeled video records.

185 *Boris Annotations.* To manually record behavioral annotations for our subjects, we used
186 Behavioral Observation Research Interactive Software (BORIS) (Friard and Gamba,
187 2016). A subset of our videos (n=15) were imported into BORIS to generate model data
188 for use in our behavioral classifier. This subset included video recordings of both surface
189 and cave morphs. A total of nine behaviors were tracked: Normal Swimming, Fast
190 Swimming, Freezing, Normal Turning, Erratic Turning, Floor Skimming, Wall Bumping,
191 Top, and Bottom (see table 1). Videos were inspected frame by frame by a trained
192 experimenter, and the events were specified as state events for each given frame. After
193 completion, data was exported as a .csv file for analysis and an ethogram (.png) to
194 visualize when the behaviors occurred.

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197 *Behavioral Classifier and Training.* Behavioral classifiers were implemented using Simple
198 Behavioral Analysis (SimBA) (Goodwin et al., 2024) on the custom-built computer. A
199 project configuration file was created with 9 classifiers (the behaviors annotated in
200 BORIS). A SimBA-specific file (i.e., body part configuration file) delineating the tracking
201 points that DeepLab Cut used was then created in SimBA. Behavioral recordings (.mp4),
202 DeepLabCut tracking data (.csv), and BORIS annotations (.csv) were imported into the
203 program. The diagonal length of the recording tank was set as the real-world distance for
204 each of the recordings for use in calculating distance traveled velocity. Features were
205 extracted using a custom feature-extraction python script developed by our labs (see
206 supplemental material). Post feature-extraction, a custom python script was used to
207 append the behavior annotations to the extracted features (see supplemental script). To
208 train the classifiers, the following training criteria was used: RF estimators: 2000; max
209 features: sqrt; criterion: gini; test size: 0.2; Train-test split type: frames; Under sample
210 setting: Random under sample; Under sample ratio: 0.15). The classifiers or behaviors
211 of interest were then run for the total number of videos in the dataset for both surface and
212 multiple cave morphs. A threshold was set for each behavior (the level of probability
213 required for a behavior to be recognized as a behavior) and the minimum bout length
214 (minimum amount of time the behavior must occur) for each behavior was set. After
215 analysis, SimBA generated the same videos with the behavioral predictions overlaid. The
216 quality of the model was evaluated by comparing our manual annotated behaviors with
217 that generated by SimBA for the same video.

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220 *Statistics.* We used the programming language Python (v3.12.0), as well as the Prism
221 software GraphPad (v10), to perform statistical tests and create graphs. We used
222 unpaired, parametric Student's t-tests to test for significance between the two morphs in
223 terms of behavior.

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226 **Results**

227 *Cavefish exhibit reduced stress-like behavior*

228 Previous work from our lab suggested that cavefish spend less time bottom-dwelling in
229 the novel tank test relative to their surface conspecifics (Chin et al., 2018). To confirm
230 these results, we assayed surface and Pachón cavefish in the novel tank test (Fig 1A, B).

231 Surface and Pachón fish were placed in an unfamiliar tank and their locomotor activity
232 and tank location was recorded for a period of 10 minutes. We then used Ethovision XT
233 to evaluate the duration of time at the top and bottom. Similar to previous studies, surface
234 fish preferred the bottom of tank (Fig. 1C). In contrast, the Pachón fish explored a
235 significant portion of the top of the tank over the 10-min recording (Fig 1D). Quantification
236 of total duration spent in the bottom revealed significant differences ($p=0.006$). We also
237 evaluated additional metrics including distance traveled, velocity and immobility. Surface
238 fish exhibited a trend toward traveling shorter distances ($p=0.07$), swam at slower
239 velocities ($p=.09$), and had more time immobile ($p=0.07$) compared to Pachón cavefish
240 (Fig. 1E-H). These trends suggest additional differences in behavior between cave and
241 surface fish in response to the novel tank assay, and highlight the complexity of the
242 behavior.

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245 *Machine learning pipeline to predict stress-like behaviors*

246 Stress induces a range of behaviors, including reduced exploration, freezing,
247 hyperactivity, and erratic turning. However, these behaviors have not been systematically
248 quantified in *A. mexicanus*. To identify distinct behavioral components associated with
249 stress, we implemented a machine learning pipeline incorporating a behavioral classifier
250 to identify and quantify nine distinct behaviors relevant to stress (Table 1). Fish behavior
251 during the novel tank assay was first recorded, and body parts of fish in each record was
252 tracked using DeepLab Cut. We tracked body parts throughout the fish, including the
253 mouth, midpoint of the body, dorsal fin, mid-point of the tail, and peduncle base (Fig 2A,B).
254 Next a subset ($n=15$) of videos which were to be used to train the behavioral classifier
255 (training videos) were manually analyzed by a trained experimenter using Behavioral
256 Observation Research Interactive Software (BORIS). BORIS allows frame-by-frame
257 classification of behaviors, generating a comprehensive dataset of annotated behaviors.
258 Each of the nine behaviors in Table 1 were annotated in each of the 15 training videos.
259 To train SimBA, a machine learning behavioral classifier, pose-tracking data from
260 DeepLab Cut and the manually scored BORIS annotations were inputted into the
261 program, which enabled the automated classification of behaviors across the full entire
262 recording period (Fig. 3A).

263

264 To confirm the reliability of SimBA, we compared results
265 acquired with Ethovision to those produced by SimBA (Fig
266 3B-D). The same sets of videos were analyzed by both
267 approaches and the results were compared. We observed
268 strong correlations between values obtained by the two
269 methods, confirming the accuracy of SimBA's predictions
270 (Fig. 3B-D; bottom-dwelling: surface $r^2 = 0.87$, $p = 0.002$;
271 cave $r^2 = 0.75$, $p = 0.01$; distance traveled: surface $r^2 = 0.80$,
272 $p = 0.006$, cave $r^2 = 0.75$, $p = 0.01$; average velocity: surface
273 $r^2 = 0.80$, $p = 0.006$, cave $r^2 = 0.53$, $p = 0.06$).

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275 Next, we analyzed differences in each of the nine
276 behavioral parameters (Table 1) between surface and

Behaviors

Normal Swimming

Fast Swimming

Freezing

Normal Turning

Erratic Turning

Floor Skimming

Wall Bumping

Top

Bottom

Table 1. Behaviors assessed through machine learning.

277 Pachón cave fish. Surface fish spent significantly more time in the bottom half of the tank
278 and less time in the top half, consistent with previous findings (Fig. 3E, F). Freezing
279 behavior occurred significantly more often in surface fish than in cavefish (Fig. 3G),
280 supporting our previous observation that surface fish display more pronounced stress-
281 associated behaviors. Other behavioral measures, such as total distance traveled,
282 average velocity, and normal swimming, did not differ significantly between the two
283 morphs (Fig. 3H-J, $p>0.05$). These findings reveal that some, but not all, behavioral
284 parameters assessed were different between these two morphs, and highlight the need
285 for detailed assessment of complex behaviors with multiple parameters.

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288 *High throughput analysis of F2 hybrids reveals stress behaviors that co-evolved.*

289 Surface and cave morphs of *A. mexicanus* are interfertile providing the opportunity to
290 examine the genetic relationship between distinct traits (Jeffery, 2001). By producing F2
291 surface x cave hybrids, phenotyping multiple traits, and assessing which traits correlate
292 with one another, we can infer which traits are genetically linked. To investigate
293 relationships among stress-related behaviors, we recorded the behavior of 50 F2 hybrid
294 fish during the novel tank assay. Using our trained behavioral classifier, SimBA, we
295 predicted the duration and frequency of specific behaviors for each fish. These predicted
296 measures were then analyzed to calculate pairwise correlations between all behaviors,
297 resulting in a pair-wise correlation matrix (Fig. 4A). Hierarchical clustering was
298 subsequently performed on the correlation matrix to identify groups of behaviors that were
299 highly correlated with one another (Fig. 4B). The clustering analysis revealed two distinct
300 groups of traits (Fig 4B). Notably, duration of normal swimming was not significantly
301 correlated with any other measured behavior and served as an outgroup. In contrast,
302 freezing duration and bottom-dwelling duration were strongly correlated, forming a distinct
303 cluster. This suggests that these two behaviors are closely associated and may reflect
304 shared genetic underpinnings or a coordinated physiological response to stress. All other
305 behaviors grouped into a separate cluster, indicating a different set of potentially co-
306 regulated traits. These findings highlight freezing and bottom-dwelling as core
307 components of an evolved stress-response phenotype, especially to low-predation
308 environments. The strong correlation between these behaviors suggests they may arise
309 from overlapping mechanisms, such as shared neural circuits or hormonal pathways, and
310 could represent an integrated strategy for responding to stressors. Together, this analysis
311 provides new insights into the organization and potential genetic basis of stress-related
312 behaviors in *Astyanax mexicanus*

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315 **Discussion**

316 The current study investigated evolutionary differences in stress-related behaviors
317 between surface-dwelling and cave-dwelling populations of *Astyanax mexicanus*. The
318 primary goal was to understand how evolutionary adaptations influence stress responses
319 by comparing these morphs in a novel tank test. Using pose-tracking and machine
320 learning tools, we analyzed a range of stress-related behaviors, including freezing,
321 bottom-dwelling, and hyperactivity. Our results confirmed that surface fish exhibit
322 behaviors indicative of elevated stress, such as significantly increased time spent at the

323 bottom of the tank and more frequent freezing. In contrast, cavefish demonstrated
324 reduced stress-like behaviors, characterized by less freezing and greater exploration.
325 Extending this analysis to F2 hybrids, we found that freezing and bottom-dwelling
326 behaviors co-vary, suggesting these traits share genetic underpinnings or reflect related
327 physiological processes.

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330 **Stress Behaviors in an Evolutionary and Ecological Context**

331 Stress responses are fundamental to survival, but their expression in the wild varies
332 depending on ecological conditions (Mateo, 2007; Fischer et al., 2014; Heinen-Kay et al.,
333 2016). Surface fish inhabit predator-rich environments and exhibit heightened stress
334 responses, such as prolonged bottom-dwelling and freezing. In contrast, cavefish, which
335 evolved in predator-free environments, display reduced stress-like behaviors
336 characterized by increased exploration and minimal freezing (Mitchell et al., 1977; Chin
337 et al., 2018; Chin et al., 2020). These contrasting phenotypes align with theories of
338 adaptive evolution, where stress sensitivity is maintained under high predation pressure
339 but relaxed in predator-free contexts.

340

341 The observed reduction in stress responses among cavefish likely reflects a broader shift
342 in life-history strategy. Without the constant threat of predation, energy that would
343 otherwise be allocated to acute stress responses can be redirected toward behaviors
344 such as foraging efficiency, reproduction, or exploratory behavior. These findings are
345 consistent with behavioral syndromes in other species, where boldness and reduced
346 vigilance co-evolve in low-risk environments (Huntingford, 1976; Riechert and Hall, 2000;
347 Dingemanse et al., 2004). For instance, similar patterns are observed in three-spined
348 sticklebacks and desert spider populations, supporting the hypothesis that relaxed
349 predation pressure universally selects for reduced stress responses (Huntingford, 1976;
350 Riechert and Hall, 2000; Dingemanse et al., 2004).

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352 The observed differences in stress-related behaviors also provide insight into the
353 integration of these traits within broader behavioral syndromes. In surface fish,
354 heightened stress responses may co-evolve with risk-averse behaviors to mitigate
355 predation threats, while cavefish exhibit a bold, exploratory phenotype consistent with a
356 predator-free habitat. These findings suggest that stress-related behaviors are not
357 independent traits but part of a coordinated suite of ecological and evolutionary
358 adaptations.

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361 **Genetic Basis of Stress-Related Behaviors**

362 The clustering of the stress-related traits freezing and bottom-dwelling in F2 hybrids
363 suggests shared genetic underpinnings. This co-segregation may arise from pleiotropy,
364 where a single gene influences multiple traits, or genetic linkage, where genes controlling
365 these behaviors are inherited together. One possible mechanism is the role of cortisol as
366 a common initiator of multiple stress-related responses, which could explain the co-
367 occurrence of freezing and bottom-dwelling in hybrids. Elevated cortisol levels are known
368 to induce freezing behavior and reduced exploration in zebrafish, and similar mechanisms

369 may be at play in *Astyanax mexicanus*. These findings align with studies in zebrafish,
370 where stress-related behaviors are mediated by glucocorticoid receptor signaling
371 pathways (De Marco et al., 2013; Ziv et al., 2013; Chin et al., 2022). In surface fish,
372 heightened stress responses likely involve increased glucocorticoid signaling, whereas
373 cavefish may have evolved reduced sensitivity to cortisol as part of their adaptation to a
374 predator-free environment. Prior work has shown that cavefish exhibit attenuated cortisol
375 responses to stressors, suggesting modifications in glucocorticoid receptor pathways or
376 feedback mechanisms (Gallo and Jeffery, 2012; Chin et al., 2018; Chin et al., 2020). This
377 could underlie the reduced freezing and bottom-dwelling behaviors observed in cave
378 populations. Together, these results suggest that the diminished stress phenotype in
379 cavefish may reflect genetic and physiological shifts in glucocorticoid signaling, which
380 aligns with relaxed selection pressures on stress-related traits in the absence of
381 predators. Further genetic analyses will be necessary to determine whether specific
382 modifications in glucocorticoid receptors or downstream signaling components contribute
383 to these evolved differences in stress behavior.

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386 **Computational Approaches for Behavioral Analysis**

387 The application of tracking and machine learning tools, including pose-estimation and
388 behavioral classifiers, has transformed the study behavior (Branson et al., 2009; Perez-
389 Escudero et al., 2014; Mathis et al., 2018; Patch et al., 2022; Chen et al., 2023; Goodwin
390 et al., 2024), but has not to date been applied to non-traditional evolutionary systems. By
391 enabling precise, unbiased analysis of complex behaviors across large datasets, these
392 methods overcome the limitations of manual scoring and provide a more comprehensive
393 picture of stress phenotypes. Our application to *Astyanax* now permits the use of this
394 established system to understand the evolution of complex behaviors. Behaviors such as
395 freezing, bottom-dwelling, and hyperactivity, which often exhibit subtle differences, can
396 now be quantified with greater accuracy and consistency. In the future, these approaches
397 can be applied to myriad behaviors that differ between surface and cavefish, such as
398 aggression and schooling/shoaling or other collective behaviors, allowing for an
399 unprecedented look into how these complex traits evolve (Patch et al., 2022; Rodriguez-
400 Morales et al., 2022; Paz et al., 2023). Additionally, they can be applied to diverse groups
401 of animals and emerging non-traditional models. Moreover, by coupling automated
402 behavioral phenotyping with genetic analyses, researchers can identify quantitative trait
403 loci (QTL) associated with stress responses and explore the molecular pathways
404 underlying these traits. Such approaches open new avenues for investigating the genetic
405 basis of behavioral adaptation in natural systems and for extending these methods to
406 other species with ecological contrasts.

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409 **Conclusion**

410 Our findings provide compelling evidence that stress-related behaviors in *A. mexicanus*
411 are shaped by ecological and evolutionary pressures, with surface fish displaying
412 heightened stress responses in predator-rich environments and cavefish exhibiting
413 reduced stress behaviors in predator-free habitats. By leveraging advanced
414 computational tools, this study establishes a foundation for high-throughput analysis of

415 behavioral traits and offers new opportunities to investigate the genetic architecture of
416 stress responses in natural systems.

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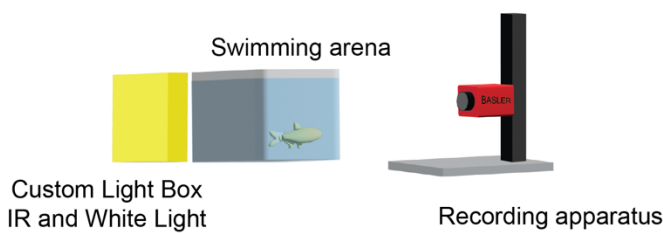
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421 Experiments were carried out by NP, RA, SC, and SM. NP and SRON performed the
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427 JEK and ACK.

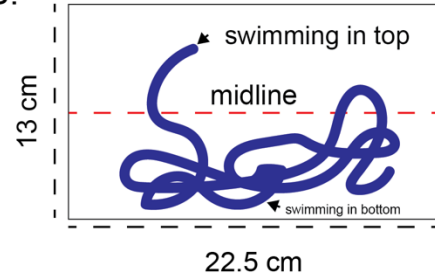
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429 **Figures**

A.

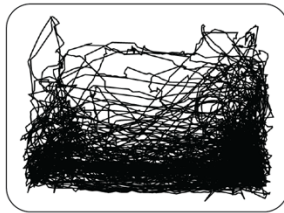


B.



C.

Surface (10 min)

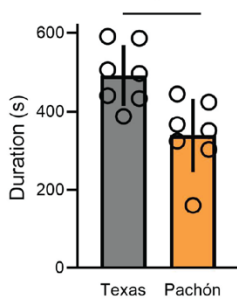


D.

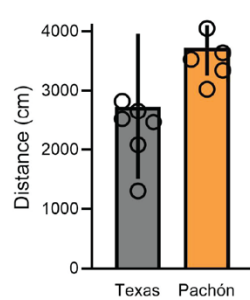
Pachón (10 min)



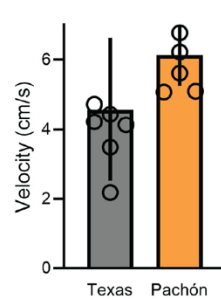
E.



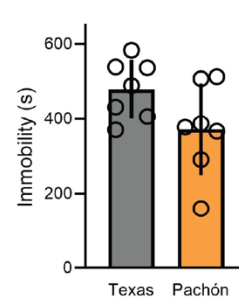
F.



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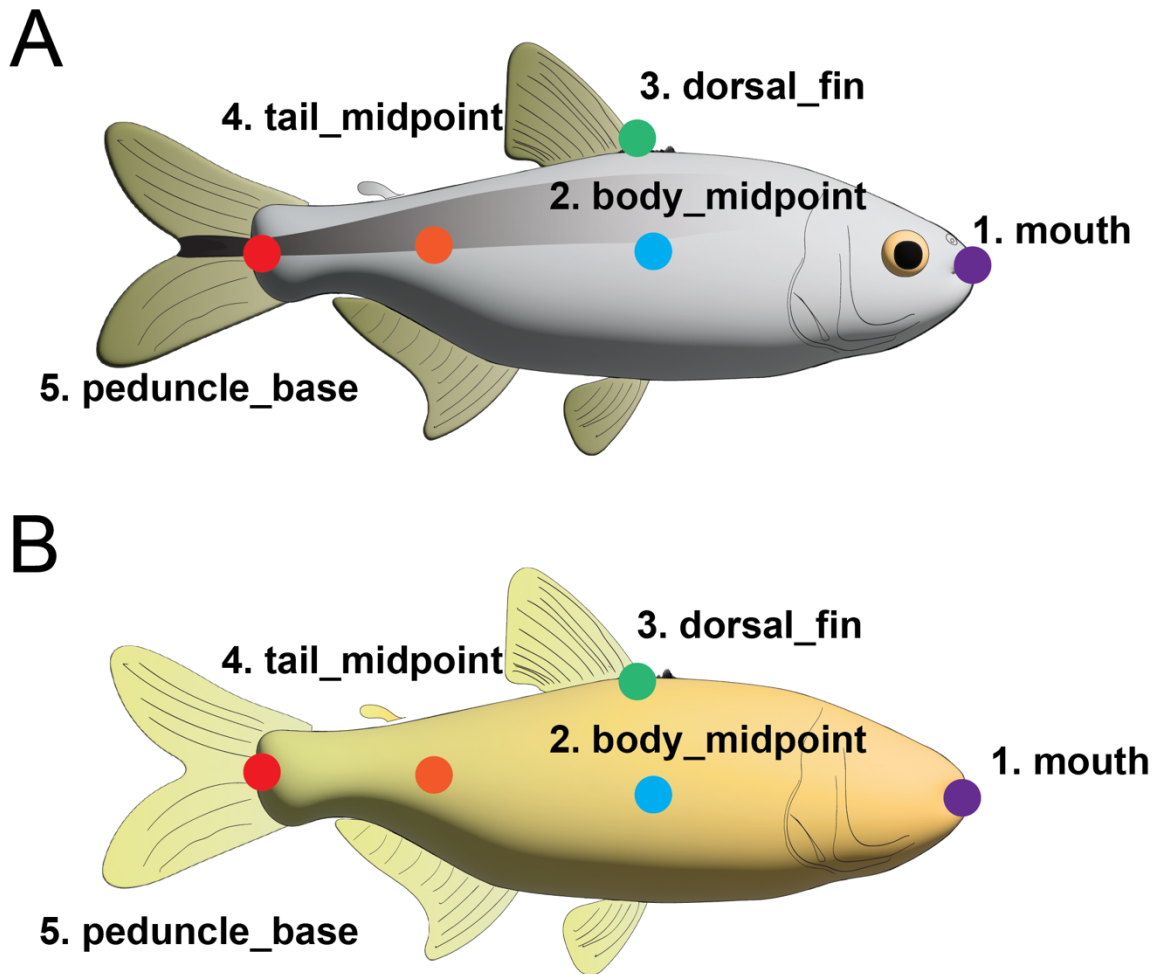
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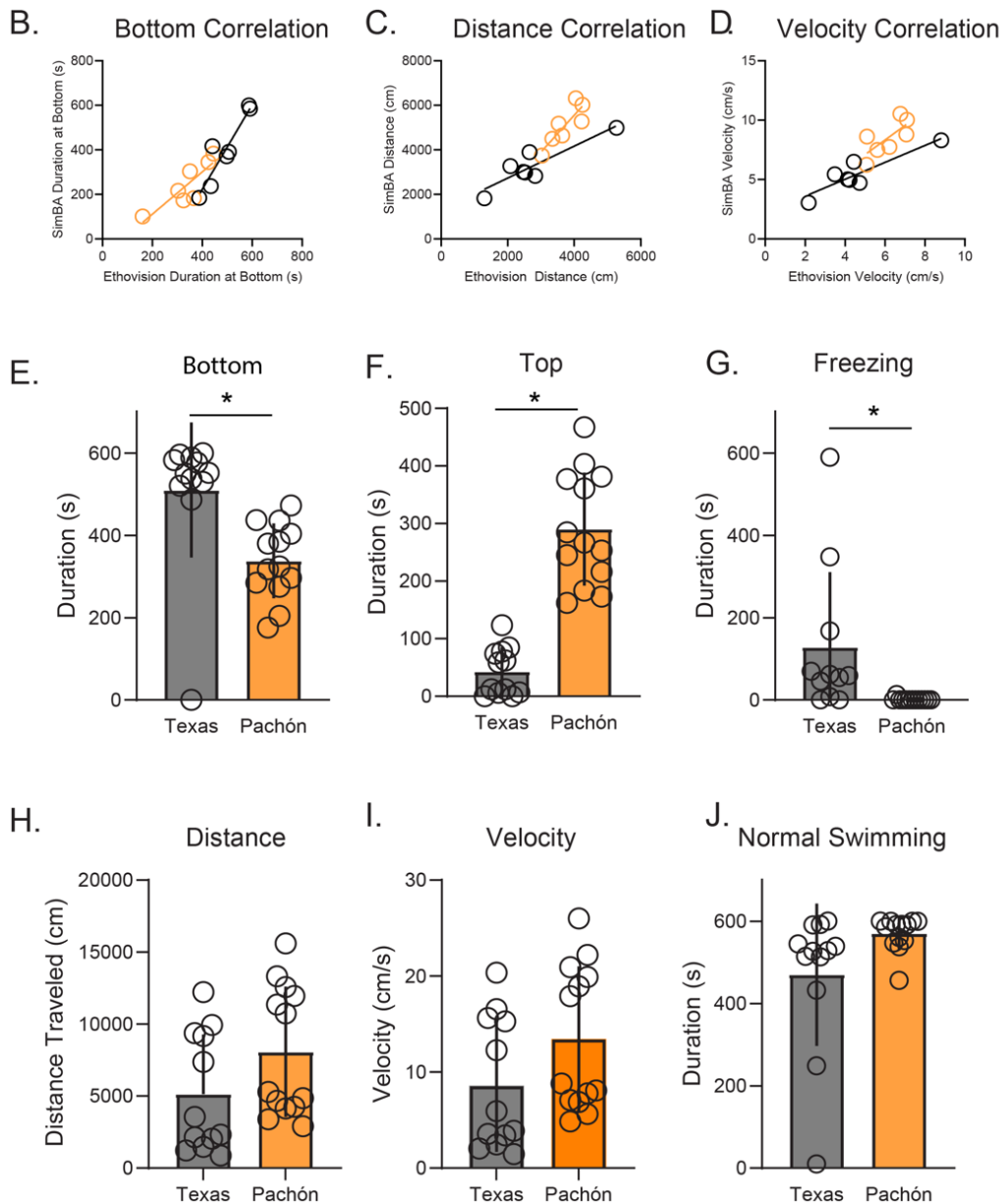
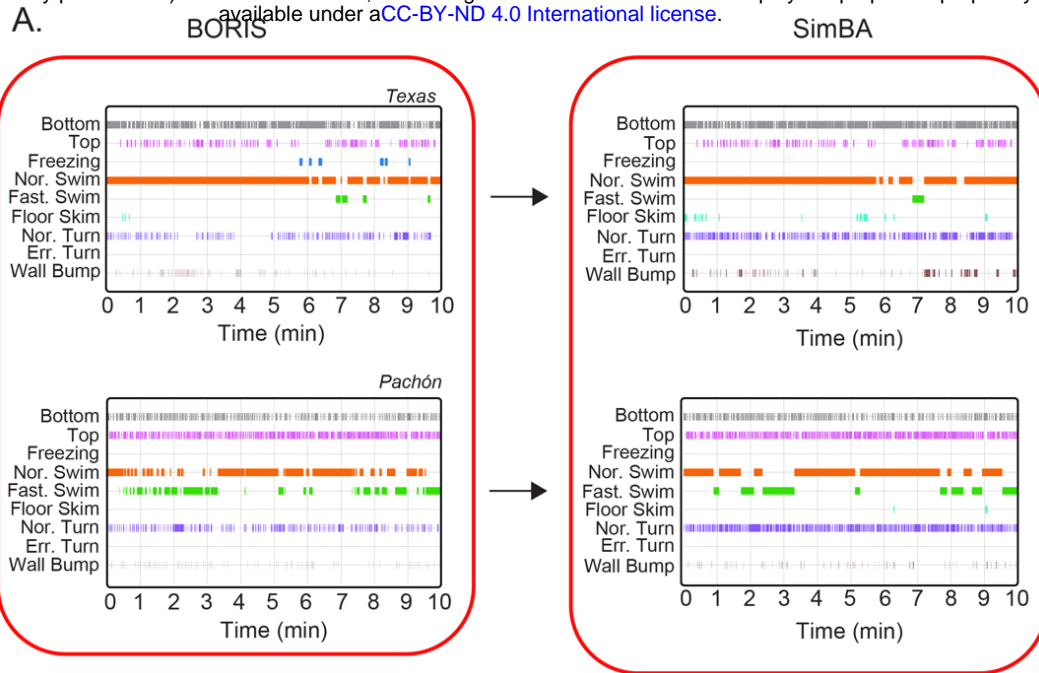
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Fig. 1. Cave morphs show reduced stress behaviors compared to surface conspecifics. (A) Custom recording setup used to conduct behavioral recordings of *A. mexicanus*. (B) Schematic of tank dimensions and expected results. Fish typically spend the first few minutes swimming in the bottom portion of the tank, but at the end of the period the fish explore the top and bottom with near equal frequency. Studies have shown that time at the bottom is indicative of stress. (C) The path traveled by a Surface morph during a 10-minute period. (D) The path traveled by a cave morph during a 10-minute period. (E) Quantification of total duration spent in the bottom portion reveals significant differences between surface and cavefish ($p = 0.006$). (F-H) Quantification of distance traveled, velocity, and immobility trended on significance ($p = 0.069$; $p = 0.089$; $p = 0.074$). E-H quantified using Ethovision XT 13. For surface fish, $n=7$; for Pachón, $n=7$. Asterisks indicate significance below $p = 0.05$.

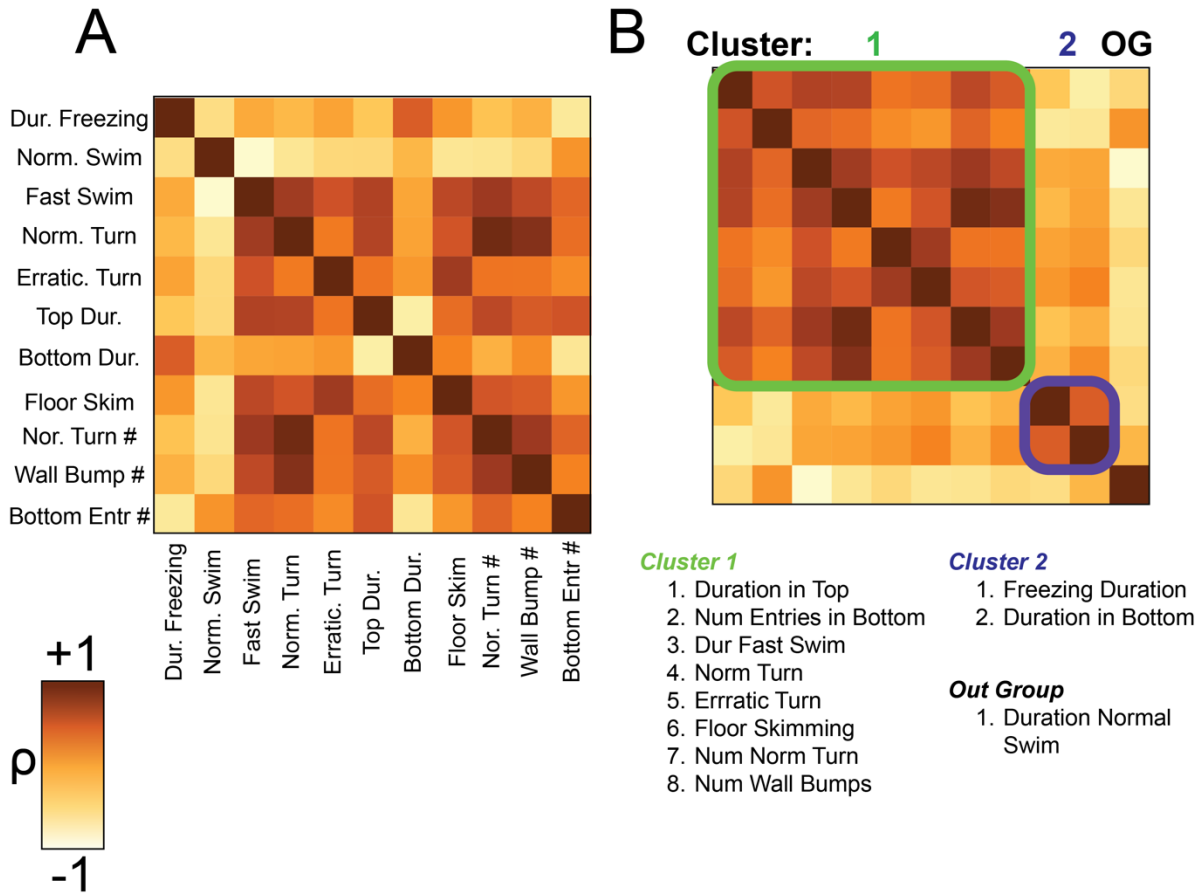


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Fig 2. Body part annotations of cave and surface fish using DeepLab Cut. Body part annotations are shown for surface fish (A) and cavefish (B). The body parts spanned the entire fish, including the mouth, midpoint of the body, dorsal fin, midpoint of the tail, and the peduncle base.



452 **Fig. 3. Behavioral classifiers suggest bottom-dwelling and freezing show**
453 **differences between surface fish and cavefish.** (A) Ethograms for surface fish (Texas)
454 and cavefish (Pachón). A subset of the videos was annotated manually using BORIS.
455 Manual annotations were fed into and trained with a behavioral classifier (SimBA). There
456 was a concurrence between manual and automated predictions. (B-D) Results from
457 Ethovision XT 13 and SimBA showed significant correlations for (B) time spent at the
458 bottom (surface $r^2 = 0.87$, $p = 0.002$; cave $r^2 = 0.75$, $p = 0.01$), (C) distance traveled
459 (surface $r^2 = 0.80$, $p = 0.006$, cave $r^2 = 0.75$, $p = 0.01$), and velocity (surface $r^2 = 0.80$, p
460 $= 0.006$, cave $r^2 = 0.53$, $p = 0.06$). (E-F) Quantification of total duration spent in the (E)
461 bottom or (F) top of the tank reveals significant differences between surface and cavefish
462 (bottom: $p = 0.003$; top: $p < 0.0001$). (G) Quantification of freezing revealed that surface
463 morphs significantly experience longer periods of immobility than cave morphs ($p = 0.02$).
464 (H-I) Quantification of distance and velocity. They were found to be increased in the cave
465 morph, but it did not yield significance ($p = 0.1049$; $p = 0.1049$). (J) Quantification of time
466 spent normal swimming. It was observed that cave morphs spent more time normal
467 swimming compared to surface ($p = 0.054$). Panel B-D compares data from Fig 1 with
468 surface $n=7$ and Pachón $n=7$. Panels E-J contains Surface=12 and Pachón=13.



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472 **Fig. 4. Stress behaviors surface x cave F2 hybrids appear to cluster into two main**
 473 **groups, suggesting that these traits co-segregate.** (A) Heatmap displaying the
 474 pairwise correlations (ρ) between behavioral traits. The intensity of the color
 475 represents the strength and direction of correlation. (B) Hierarchical clustering of the
 476 correlation matrix identified two primary clusters. Cluster 1 (green) comprises traits such
 477 as duration in the top, fast swimming, erratic turns, and wall bumping, indicative of
 478 exploratory or active behaviors. Cluster 2 (blue) includes freezing duration and time spent
 479 at the bottom, which are associated with stress-like behaviors. Duration normal swimming
 480 (OG, outgroup) showed no significant correlation with other traits. These results suggest
 481 co-segregation of stress-related behaviors in the F2 population. n=50

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