

1 **Homing Pigeon (*Columba livia*) dominance**
2 **hierarchies are stable over time and resistant to**
3 **perturbation**

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22 **Abstract**

23 Dominance hierarchies are a social dynamic common in many species, which help balance
24 the costs and benefits of social living. Which individuals in a group occupy high ranking pos-
25 itions is influenced by a multitude of different intrinsic and/or extrinsic factors. While Hom-
26 ing Pigeons (*Columba livia*) have been studied extensively for their navigational abilities, re-
27 search on their social dynamics and assessments of the determinants of dominance rank have
28 been comparatively limited. Here we document the dominance hierarchies in two closed pop-
29 ulations of Homing Pigeons and the physiological and behavioural factors associated with
30 rank position including body size, metabolic rate, personality, and iridescent plumage % re-
31 flectance. Measurements of body size and resting metabolic rate all positively correlated with
32 rank position in accordance with the performance model of energetic management. While iri-
33 descent plumage % reflectance was negatively correlated with rank, suggesting a potential
34 cost of dominance. Attempts to alter hierarchy structure through manipulation of body mass
35 and feather iridescence were ineffective, with hierarchy dynamics remaining stable through-
36 out the perturbations. The inability to destabilise these dominance hierarchies demonstrates
37 their advantage at preventing excess competition even in cases of minor changes in fitness.
38 **Keywords:** feather reflectance, mass manipulation, metabolic rate, respirometry, structural
39 size, tarsus

40 **Introduction**

41 Living as part of a group is a common occurrence in many animal species (Elgar 1989). Be-
42 ing part of a collective group can come with many benefits, such as increased protection from
43 predation (Bertram 1978), opportunities for social learning (Slagsvold and Wiebe, 2011),
44 higher foraging success (Alexander 1974), energetic savings (Markham and Gesquiere, 2017)
45 and increased mating opportunities (Ulrich et al.2018, Elgar 1989). Conferring these benefits
46 can, however, still come at a cost. Such costs can include increased transmission of diseases

47 (Witte et al. 2020), food being stolen by conspecifics (Brockmann and Barnard, 1979), and an
48 unequal sharing of resources (Alexander 1974). Due to competition, and this unequal sharing
49 of resources, conflicts can arise in animal groupings. Heightened competition can be costly,
50 as it typically involves high energy expenditure and the risk of injury, with potentially no pay
51 off from the aggressive interaction if unsuccessful (Alexander 1974). In order to reduce these
52 potential costs, individuals may avoid conflict with conspecifics they have previously lost
53 fights with to avoid wasting energy, and this frequently leads to the formation of dominance
54 hierarchies (Hand 1986, Drews 1993).

55

56 Dominance is a measure of status within a group and is typically – but not always – deter-
57 mined based on aggressive interactions. Winners can ascend to higher ranking positions and
58 typically procure a greater proportion of resources. Dominance hierarchies can have differing
59 structures, ranging from differing degrees of linearity to triangular or despotic arrangements,
60 depending on the species (de Vries, Stevens and Vervaecke, 2006). When dominance hier-
61 archies are highly linear, they can be correlated with certain physical or intrinsic traits
62 (Beacham, 2003). Common parameters typically associated with determining rank positions
63 include high body mass and/or structural size, which greatly aids defence of resources and
64 can also assist in resistance to environmental stresses (Haramis et al.1986; Moreno-Opo,
65 Trujillan and Margalida 2020). This relationship can result from a positive feedback loop
66 whereby dominant individuals are able to maintain or increase their high body mass due to
67 their high resource holding (Verhulst et al., 2014). This positive relationship between body
68 mass and rank is documented in a diverse range of species such as Zebra Finches *Taeniopy-*
69 *gia guttata* (Cuthill et al.1997), Masu Salmon *Oncorhynchus masou* (Yamamoto, Ueda and
70 Higashi, 1998) Tuataras *Sphenodon punctatus* (Moore et al. 2007) and White-tailed Deer
71 *Odocoileus virginianus* (Taillon and Côté 2006). Other variable factors which are reported to

72 relate to rank position include personality traits such as boldness and neophobia, (Fox et
73 al.2009) and metabolic rate (Bryan and Newton 1994).

74

75 Unlike the relationship between rank and body mass, the association between personality,
76 metabolism and rank is typically more complex. Several energetic-based models predict the
77 potential relationships between metabolic rate and personality traits, and in turn dominance,
78 under various scenarios (Mathot, Dingemanse and Nakagawa 2019; Senar et al. 2000). The
79 *allocation model* suggests variation in metabolic rate is not associated with changes in beha-
80 viours relating to energy gain; individuals with higher metabolic costs are less likely to invest
81 in foraging behaviours, gain dominance, and exhibit overall boldness personality traits, due to
82 their energetically costly nature (Mathot, Dingemanse and Nakagawa 2019). In contrast, a
83 low metabolic rate may permit individuals to engage in costly behaviours, such as aggression,
84 due to having a higher metabolic ‘ceiling’ (e.g., Peterson et al. 1990). This relationship
85 between metabolic rate and behaviour has been observed in species such as Mosquitofish
86 *Gambusia affinis* (Cote et al.2010), Deer Mice *Peromyscus maniculatus* (Careau et al. 2011),
87 Ouachita Dusky Salamanders *Desmognathus brimleyorum* (Gifford, Clay and Careau 2014)
88 and Zebra Finches (Mathot et al. 2009). In contrast the *performance model* predicts that meta-
89 bolic rate correlates with increased of behaviours involved in energy gain. Under this model,
90 individuals will have greater activity, be more dominant, and exhibit more exploratory beha-
91 viour if their metabolic rate is higher, due to that individuals higher energetic requirements
92 (Mathot, Dingemanse and Nakagawa 2019). This interaction between behaviour and metabol-
93 ism can be highly influential in the determination of dominance hierarchies, with certain per-
94 sonality types being more common in certain rank positions. In several species such as Com-
95 mon Lizards *Zootoca vivipara* (Le Galliard et al. 2013), Pied Flycatchers *Ficedula hypoleuca*
96 (Røskaft et al. 1986), Great Tits *Parus major* (Røskaft et al.1986) and Mountain Chickadees

97 *Poecile gambeli*, for example, exploratory birds will occupy higher ranking positions, while
98 opting to kleptoparasite subordinates instead of investing in foraging behaviours (Fox et al.
99 2009; Jablonski, Brown, and McCormack 2007).

100

101 Once a hierarchy has been established, aggression and ranks can remain relatively stable,
102 with aggression levels remaining lower than before the hierarchy was formed (Hewitt, Mac-
103 donald and Dugdale 2009; Portugal et al. 2020). Part of this hierarchy stability can arise from
104 the investment in status symbols and badges which help indicate to group members indi-
105 vidual rank position. Status symbols can be an important part of social communication, being
106 selected for as a symbol of rank and high fitness (Strassman 2004). These indicators help in
107 the prevention of aggressive confrontation as a judgment may be made on the relative
108 strength of the competitor, before initiating the conflict (Møller 1987) (Dey et al., 2013).
109 Hierarchy stability can change over time due to factors such as seasonal modifications in
110 physiology and behaviour (Forand, Marchinton and Miller 1985), immigration and emigra-
111 tion, or the death of a high-ranking member (Grossel et al. 2021). As many dominance hier-
112 archy types can be dependent on the body condition of the individuals, any changes in body
113 condition of a dominant individual, such as body mass, may lead to disruption of the hier-
114 archy and group dynamics (Robinson 1986).

115

116 Signalling through plumage colourations and quality reflecting individual hierarchy position
117 is a trait found across various species (Santos et al. 2011). Changes in badge quality can oc-
118 cur with sickness where opportunistic pathogens can affect the quality of signals (Lecair et
119 al., 2014, Hamilton and Zuk 1982, Dolnik and Hoi 2010). Plumage differences in house spar-
120 rows *Passer domesticus* with higher parasite loads saw some dominant individuals receiving
121 more challenges for rank; the cost of infection on fitness was high enough and noticeable

122 enough to decrease the stability of the hierarchy (Hamilton and Zuk 1982, Dolnik and Hoi
123 2010). For example, artificial mass loading of subordinate Homing Pigeons *Columba livia*
124 saw a disruption of hierarchy stability, with lower ranking individuals gaining rank after the
125 increase in body mass (Portugal et al. 2020). This was despite the hierarchy being stable for a
126 number of years prior to the artificial mass manipulation experiments. This experiment only
127 involved one single deployment of artificial mass on the Homing Pigeons, and focused on the
128 subordinate individuals only. Thus, it is still not fully clear how birds respond to manipulated
129 body mass, how sensitive birds are to subtle body mass dynamics, and in turn, how these in-
130 teract, temporally, with dominance hierarchies and rank position.

131

132 Homing Pigeons are a long established model system for the study of navigation (see Biro,
133 2018). Although some aspects of the social systems have been studied historically (Ritchey,
134 1951; Castoro and Guhl, 1958), more recently pigeons have become an emerging model spe-
135 cies for studying social dynamics and dominance in birds (Bouchard, Goodyer and Lefebvre
136 2006). For example, Nagy et al. (2013) combined ground-based dominance experiments with
137 flight-based leadership studies to determine that pigeons have context dependent hierarchies,
138 whereby those that are dominant on the ground are not the leaders during flight-based activit-
139 ies. Previous investigations into the dominance hierarchies in pigeon social groups have in-
140 dicated a strong linear dominance hierarchy, highly correlated with body mass (Portugal et al.
141 2020). However, what has been lacking from previous studies investigating dominance hier-
142 archies, both in pigeons and species more broadly, is a holistic approach encompassing mul-
143 tiple phenotypic parameters that have been previously established as factors known to influ-
144 ence dominance. Similarly, longer-term temporal studies of dominance hierarchies on dis-
145 crete populations are relatively scarce across most taxa due to the complexities of studying
146 such behaviour over long periods of time, particularly in wild animals, thus missing how nat-

147 ural seasonal variation in general body condition and physiology may or may not manifest in
148 dominance and associated rank (Sargisson et al. 2007; Strauss et al. 2022).

149

150 Using two flocks of captive Homing Pigeons, we firstly aimed to understand if certain factors
151 – encompassing physiological (body mass, structural size, metabolic rate) and behavioural
152 (boldness) components – contribute to an individual’s position within a hierarchy. In addi-
153 tion, we measured feather plumage iridescent of the neck feathers of the pigeons; it has been
154 proposed that elements of plumage iridescent play an important role in both flock social
155 structure and breeding display behaviours (Johnston, 1992; Fankhauser 2015). We tested a
156 series of hypotheses pertaining to these underlying traits –body mass, metabolic rate and per-
157 sonality – which may determine position within a rank position, before then perturbing two
158 traits (body mass, feather iridescence reflectance) to determine how stable these rank posi-
159 tions are. Specifically, we first tested whether body mass, structural size, personality, resting
160 metabolic rate and/or the degree of plumage iridescent predicted rank position. We predicted
161 that: (i) body mass would be the primary determinant of rank positioning, based on prior
162 studies, with heavier birds holding higher ranking positions, (ii) bolder individuals would
163 have higher ranking positions within the dominance hierarchy, (iii) Homing Pigeons would
164 follow the *allocation model* (Mathot, Dingemanse and Nakagawa 2019), whereby individuals
165 with a low resting metabolic rate will occupy dominant hierarchy positions, due to having
166 more metabolic scope to engage in aggressive behaviour, (iv) individuals, particularly males,
167 with brighter more iridescent plumage will be more dominant, with feather quality acting as a
168 signal of general good condition. After establishing the determinants of rank positions, we
169 manipulated aspects of body mass and plumage reflectance, to determine whether hierarchy
170 stability was susceptible to perturbation when these traits where artificially manipulated, or
171 whether the dominance hierarchy was resistant to perturbation and maintain its original

172 baseline structure. We chose body mass and plumage reflectance as these traits are comparat-
173 ively more straightforward to manipulate in comparison to metabolic rate and individual per-
174 sonality. We predicted that (v) mass manipulation would disrupt the existing hierarchy, with
175 those individuals having their mass artificially increased moving up the rankings, and (vi)
176 covering the iridescence from the neck feathers of dominant pigeons, thus hiding a potential
177 status badge, will disrupt the hierarchy, with subordinates demonstrating more aggressive be-
178 haviours directed at the previous dominant individuals.

179

180 **Methods**

181 **Birds**

182 Homing Pigeons ($n = 33$) were housed at Royal Holloway University London (Egham, UK),
183 split between two lofts (dimensions 3.6m x 2.4m). Birds had unrestricted access to food
184 (Johnstone & Jeff Four Season Pigeon Corn, Gilberdyke, UK), grit and water. Loft 1 com-
185 prised seventeen individuals (8 males, 9 females) and loft 2 sixteen (8 males and 8 females).
186 Sex was determined by genetic testing of feather samples (Animal Genetics, UK). While no
187 birds were added to either loft during the duration of the experiment, two pigeons were omit-
188 ted part way through the study period from loft 2 due to (unrelated) injuries sustained after
189 the first dominance control study. Individual pigeons were weighed using scales (PS1C
190 EPOS integrated scales, Swansea) to the closest 10g. Structural size was determined through
191 measuring their tarsus length (from the elbow joint to the ankle joint) using electronic cal-
192 lips (Louisware from Amazon). Tarsus length is an established method of assessing struc-
193 tural size in pigeons (Senar and Pascual, 1997).

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197 **Dominance hierarchies**

198 The dominance hierarchies of each of the two pigeon flocks were determined through ob-
199 serving aggressive interactions, following protocols and definitions of Portugal et al. (2017a),
200 Portugal et al. (2017b), Portugal et al. (2020) and Ricketts et al. (2021). Briefly, interactions
201 recorded were; pecking, chasing, beak grabbing, supplantation, neck grabbing and wing slap-
202 ping. Food was removed from the lofts the day before each dominance trial, at approximately
203 15:00. Water remained available at all times. Before each dominance trial, all birds were
204 caught and placed into a pigeon carrier, with the carrier being kept within their home lofts.
205 Before the first trial, each bird was labelled with back-mounted Velcro (VELCRO®) fixed in
206 place with epoxy resin (Araldite® two-part epoxy) before the experiments began, in order to
207 make each individual identifiable via a number on their back. Labels were replaced if any fell
208 off during the experimental period. For each dominance trial, a single small feeder, half filled
209 with food, was placed against the wall of the home loft opposite the carrier. The placement of
210 the feeder against the wall removed several access points for the birds, encouraging confront-
211 ation. Ceiling-mounted cameras (GoPro Hero4 or Akaso EK7000) recorded interactions
212 across the loft over a 60-minute period once the pigeons were released from the carrier. To
213 begin a trial, the door to the carrier was opened, and the experimenter immediately exited the
214 home loft. Upon completion of each dominance trial, food was returned to the loft.

215

216 The initial dominance hierarchies' trials ($n = 10$ trials) per flock were studied over a 2-week
217 period across February and March 2021, followed by mass manipulated trials ($n = 10$ trials)
218 in April 2021. A second control of 10 dominance trials was conducted in May and June 2021
219 which were undertaken to determine if any carry over effects from the first manipulation tri-
220 als were evident, and to avoid these affecting the later plumage manipulation trials ($n = 10$
221 trials) which took place in June 2021. During dominance trials, all aggressive interactions

222 were recorded, included pecking, chasing, wing slapping, supplantation, neck grabbing and
223 beak grabbing (see Portugal et al. 2020 for full definitions). Which pigeon was the aggressor
224 (winner) and which pigeon was the subject (loser) were recorded using BORIS free software
225 (Friard and Gamba 2016). These different behaviours were summed for each bird and dis-
226 played in a matrix for each dominance trial and used to calculate rank position using David's
227 score (see Gammel et al. 2003 for full details; Ricketts et al. (2021) for calculation equa-
228 tions).

229

230 **Personality assays**

231 Individual personality was quantified by establishing individual tendency for lone exploration
232 in an unfamiliar environment (Portugal et al. 2017a). Exploration trials took place in Febru-
233 ary and March 2021. For exploration, individual birds were taken from their home loft and
234 placed in an animal carrier. The carrier was placed in the corner of an uninhabited loft which
235 had been divided into 3 equal sections with tape to mark three respective zones (see Fig. 1 in
236 Portugal et al. 2017a). The pigeon was released from the carrier and allowed to explore the
237 loft for 30 minutes. The duration spent in the carrier, zone one (closest to carrier), zone two,
238 zone three (furthest from carrier), as well as perches, was recorded. Five repeats were carried
239 out per pigeon, with each repeat for each pigeon taking place approximately every 2 days; no
240 repeats on the same pigeon occurred on the same day. Ceiling mounted camera (GoPro Hero4
241 or Akaso EK7000) recorded the pigeons during these trials. From footage, the duration spent
242 in each of the three zones, as well as the duration spent on perches in each zone, was recorded
243 using BORIS (Friard and Gamba 2016).

244

245 **Spectrophotometry**

246 Prior to any plumage manipulations (see below), feather cuttings were taken from the neck of
247 the pigeons, using scissors to cut at the base of the quill to ensure the feature was intact. Only
248 iridescent plumage which appeared green under natural light was sampled, from the top of
249 the neck (McGraw 2004). Gloves were worn whenever handling feathers to prevent contam-
250 ination (Meadows et al. 2011), and feathers were stored in airtight bags out of direct sunlight
251 before spectrophotometry took place. Feathers were taped to matte black paper overlapping
252 to replicate how they may be arranged *in situ*. Feathers reflectance was analysed using Ocean
253 Optics spectrophotometer (Ocean Optics USB2000, Oxford, UK) measuring between 329nm
254 – 1000nm. Prior to taking measurements the device was calibrated using a WS-1 Diffuse re-
255 flectance standard both with and without a light source. The reflectance probe and light
256 source were held at a set distance in a reflectance probe holder at a 90-degree angle from the
257 sample (McGraw 2004). Three repeats per feather sample were taken by placing the reflector
258 holder on the sample at random spots on the tip of the iridescent plumage.

259

260 **Respirometry**

261 Resting metabolic rate (RMR) measurements were taken once after the initial dominance and
262 personality control experiments had concluded, and these measurements were taken over a 2-
263 week period in April 2021. Food was removed from the pigeons at 16:00 the day before
264 respirometry trials were performed, to ensure pigeons were post absorptive (Mathot & Ding-
265 manse, 2015). Starting at 09:00 the morning after food removal, pigeons were taken in groups
266 of 3-4 from the lofts and transported to the laboratory. Per day, 5-7 pigeons had their RMR
267 measured between approximately 09:00 and 17:00. Each pigeon was individually placed in a
268 plastic see-through respirometry chamber (31 × 23 × 23 cm, volume 12 L) in a dark room and
269 allowed to settle before measurements were taken. Chambers were built in-house. Oxygen
270 (O₂) concentration was calibrated to 20.95% to match ambient air (Lighton, 2008). Initial

271 measurements of ambient air lasting approximately 20 minutes were taken before any pigeon
272 entered the chamber. Ambient air was pulled through the chamber at a flow rate of approx-
273 ately 1700 mL min⁻¹ , (SS-4 Sub-Sampler Pump, Sable Systems, Las Vegas, USA) making
274 the flush-out rate of the chamber approximately eight minutes. After recordings for each pi-
275 geon (40 minutes) had taken place another 10 minutes of ambient air baseline took place.
276 During recordings pigeons were kept within their thermoneutral zone (mean 20.45 ± 3.7 °C
277 (s.e.m.), minimum = 18.2 °C, maximum = 23.5 °C across all traces) (Webster and King,
278 1987). Air leaving the system first passed through a humidity sensor (RH-300, Sable Sys-
279 tems), where water vapour was removed (anhydrous indicating Drierite®, W. A. Hammond
280 Drierite Co. Ltd, Ohio, USA) before entering the C_{O2} analyser (CA-10a, Sable Systems). C_{O2}
281 was then removed (soda lime, Sigma Aldrich, Merck KGaA, Darmstadt, Germany) and any
282 excess water vapour removed also, before the air then passed through an O₂ and temperature
283 analyser (FC-10a, Sable Systems). Analysers were connected to a laptop via a UI-2 interface
284 and data were logged in Expedata software (Sable Systems, USA).

285

286 **Mass Manipulation**

287 The relationship between body mass and structural size was determined for each of the 2 lofts
288 (see Supplementary Fig. S1). The resultant trend line was used to artificially mass load pi-
289 geons, by using the residuals from the relationship between size and mass for those individu-
290 als below the line of best fit (see Supplementary Fig. S1). Birds who fell under the line of
291 best fit were selected to have artificial mass administered. The resultant negative residual for
292 each pigeon was rounded up to the nearest 5g and that amount was added to each pigeon via
293 the addition of bike balance weights (Qiilu Wheel Weight Balance Self Adhesive, Esonline,
294 Chiswick, London) (Portugal et al. 2020), via the back mounted Velcro used to label the pi-
295 geons. After the weights had been applied, the same protocol as for the control dominance tri-

296 als was followed over 10 sessions, in April 2021. The previous study (Portugal et al. 2020)
297 which used artificial mass manipulations chose those birds in the bottom 50% of the hier-
298 archy to receive additional mass, rather than focusing on those individuals who were lighter
299 for a given structural size.

300

301 **Plumage Manipulation**

302 Rank positions of all the pigeons in each loft were obtained after analysis of the first initial
303 control trials ($n = 10$ trials) using David's score (Gammel et al. 2003). The top 20% ranking
304 birds (loft 1 $n = 4$, loft 2 $n = 4$) from each loft had all their iridescent neck plumage (which
305 were identifiable due to their colour shifting nature from pink to green and their reflection un-
306 der UV) covered with black non-toxic acrylic Sharpie markers. These pigeons were habitu-
307 ated to this painting procedure daily, starting three days before the dominance trials were
308 conducted. All pigeons were collected and placed into pigeon carriers. The top ranking pi-
309 geons were then separated from the carriers and then painted with the black markers until the
310 plumage was a uniform black under natural light. A 345nm UV torch (Lepro, Birmingham,
311 UK) was used to confirm that the plumage reflectance had been obscured (Supplementary
312 Fig. S2). Once dry, the painted pigeons were placed in the carriers with the rest of the flock
313 and the dominance trial was started, as previously described. Bird were painted before each
314 dominance trial in the plumage manipulation to ensure consistent colouration in each repeat.
315 This protocol was followed over 10 sessions in June 2021.

316

317 **Statistical analysis**

318 Statal analysis was completed using R, v. 3.6.1 (R Software, Vienna, Austria, [http://www.R-](http://www.R-project.org)
319 [project.org](http://www.R-project.org)) (2013). David's score and hierarchy steepness for each set of trials for each loft
320 was calculated using the package 'steepness'. Steepness of the dominance hierarchies was

321 calculated as described in de Vries et al. (1995) using the R package ‘steepness’ (R Core
322 Team 2016, de Vries, Stevens and Vervaecke 2006).

323

324 All relationships between morphological traits were assessed using linear regression (R pack-
325 age lme4). Correlations between David’s score across trial types were calculated using linear
326 regression and Spearman’s Rank, respectively. Repeatability of David’s score across trials
327 was also assessed using ‘rptR’ package (Stoffel et al. 2017) to calculate intraclass correlation
328 coefficient, which describes the amount of variation caused by a random effect (in this case,
329 individual variation). The significance was ascertained using a likelihood ratio test with the
330 95% of repeatability was estimated using 10,000 parametric bootstraps. Repeatability of ex-
331 ploration duration per zone in the novel environment task was also calculated in the same
332 manner. Correlation matrices between measured traits were assessed using the package
333 ‘corr’. If any two traits exhibited a correlation equal to or above 0.75, one trait was removed
334 prior to further analysis. Trait correlation was also examined for the zone duration aspects of
335 the personality trials. The zone correlation assessments resulted in zones two and three being
336 removed from subsequent analyses. A GLM (family: Gaussian) was used to determine what
337 factors determined David’s score (response variable). We first ran a full model containing all
338 non-correlated traits as predictor variables (tarsus length, RMR, % reflectance, zone 1, zone 1
339 plus perch, zone 2 plus perch, zone 3, carrier), then fitted all possible model combinations us-
340 ing the pdredge function in package ‘MuMIn’ (Barton and Barton, 2019). We retained the
341 model with the lowest AIC (Angert et al., 2011).

342

343 Differences in physiological traits (body mass, tarsus length, maximum % reflectance) and
344 David’s score between sexes was assessed using two sample *t*-tests, with Cohen’s ‘d values
345 presented for effect size. The number of interactions per repeat for each trial type was col-

346 lated and compared using nonparametric Kruskal-Wallis tests; pairwise comparisons (Wil-
347 coxon rank sum with continuity corrections) were utilised to identify where any significance
348 lied. Kruskal-Wallis tests were also used to compare values of all measured parameters
349 between the two lofts. FDR (Benjamini-Hochberg) corrections were applied to p -values
350 where necessary (Thissen et al. 2002), due to repeated testing. The adjusted p -values are de-
351 tailed where the test result is reported.

352

353 **Results**

354 **Hierarchy stability**

355 All measured variables for each pigeon are detailed in Table 1. There were no significant dif-
356 ferences between the two lofts in any of the variables measured (Supplementary Table S1).
357 Rank position and David's score remained stable across the two control trials and over the
358 course of the two manipulation dominance trials, with David's score and rank being highly
359 correlated between trials in both flocks, throughout (see Table 2, Table 3, for Spearman's rho
360 and P values). In addition, David's score across all trials for both flocks were highly repeat-
361 able (loft 2, $R = 0.79 \pm 0.09$ (s.e.m.), 95% CI:0.56,0.90 $P < 0.0001$; loft 1, $R = 0.71 \pm 0.10$
362 (s.e.m.), 95% CI:0.45,0.84, $P < 0.0001$) (Fig. 1., Fig. 2).

363

364 In total, 10,599 aggressive interactions were recorded. Aggression levels between trial types
365 varied for both flocks (loft 1 Kruskal-Wallis $X^2 = 10.99$, $df = 3$, P -value = 0.012; loft 2
366 Kruskal-Wallis $X^2 = 10.38$, $df = 3$, P -value = 0.016) (Supplementary Table S2). Pairwise
367 comparisons (Wilcoxon rank sum with continuity corrections) indicated this significance was
368 between the 1st control and mass manipulation trial ($P=0.03$), and the mass manipulation and
369 feather manipulation trials ($P=0.006$) in loft 2, and between the 1st control and mass manipu-
370 lation trial ($P=0.04$) in loft 1. Social network diagrams for each trial type (Supplementary

371 Fig. S3) show similar interactions between individuals in each trial type. Though interactions
372 in the 2nd trial (mass manipulation) for both lofts show a shift in dynamic, with a large pro-
373 portion of interactions during these trials taking place between the same 5-6 birds.

374

375 **Phenotypes**

376 Body mass (g) and tarsus length (mm) were significantly correlated in both pigeon flocks
377 combined (LM, $R^2=0.34$ $F_{1,29} = 14.95$, $P<0.001$; Table 1), with males being significantly lar-
378 ger than females (Two sample t -test $t=-2.39$, $df=29$, $P=0.02$, Cohens ' $d = 1.69$). Resting
379 metabolic rate (RMR) was seen to increase with body mass (LM, $R^2=0.23$ $F_{1,29} = 8.53$,
380 $P<0.001$), but there was no significant difference in RMR between the two sexes (Two
381 sample t -test $t=-1.41$, $df=29$, $P=0.17$; Cohens ' $d = 0.5$).

382 **Plumage reflectance**

383 No significant difference in maximum feather % reflectance was apparent between the sexes
384 when both flocks were combined (Two sample t -test, $t = 0.18$, $df = 29$, $P = 0.86$, Cohens ' $d =$
385 0.06 ; after outlier removal (Cook's Distance, D) $t = 1.35$, $df = 26$, $P = 0.19$). RMR was signi-
386 ficantly correlated with maximum % reflectance ($R^2=0.30$ $F_{1,29} = 11.77$, $P=0.002$, after outlier
387 removal (Cook's Distance, D), $R^2=0.44$ $F_{1,26} = 20.36$, $P>0.0001$).

388

389 **Personality and exploration**

390 RMR was not significantly correlated with exploratory behaviour in the personality trials
391 (Supplementary Table S4). Due to the significant relationship between body mass and struc-
392 tural size, only structural size was then used to investigate relationships between size and per-
393 sonality. Structural size was chosen as it does not vary temporally in adult birds, unlike body

394 mass. No significant relationship between any aspects of exploration behaviour and structural
395 size were recorded (GLM, Zone one $t=-1.7$, $P=0.1$, Zone one perch, $t=0.45$, $P=0.66$, Zone
396 two perch, $t=-1.29$, $P=0.21$, Zone three perch, $t=1.09$, $P=0.29$, carrier, $t=-1.42$, $P=0.17$). Ex-
397 ploration across zones on a population level was highly repeatable: carrier; $R = 0.61 \pm 0.08$
398 (s.e.m.), 95% CI:0.43,0.74 $P < 0.0001$, Zone one $R = 0.18 \pm 0.08$ (s.e.m.), 95% CI:0.02,0.33 P
399 < 0.01 , zone one perch $R = 0.69 \pm 0.07$ (s.e.m.), 95% CI:0.52,0.80 $P < 0.0001$, zone two perch
400 $R = 0.11 \pm 0.07$ (s.e.m.), 95% CI:0.07, 0.26 $P = 0.04$, zone three perch $R = 0.22 \pm 0.08$
401 (s.e.m.), 95% CI:0.08,0.05 $P < 0.001$).

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412 **Table 1** Pigeon phenotypes for two pigeon flocks, loft 1 ($n = 17$ pigeons) and loft 2 ($n = 14$
413 pigeons). The two lofts are separated by a thick black line. Columns initially show; pigeon
414 ID, sex, tarsus length (mm), body mass (g), resting metabolic rate (ml/min), mass-corrected
415 resting metabolic rate (ml/min/g) and feather reflectance (%). Columns then present David's
416 score (DS) and associated ranks (in brackets, in **bold**) for each behavioural dominance trial.
417 Trials refer to baseline pre-mass manipulation trials (February-March), mass-manipulation
418 trials (April), pre-plumage manipulation trials (May-June), and plumage manipulation trials

419 (June). The symbol [†] in the mass column denotes individuals that had their mass artificially
 420 manipulated. The * symbol in the reflectance column denotes individuals that had their
 421 plumage manipulated. Loft refers to which flock each bird was part; of either 1 or 2.

Bird ID	Sex	Tarsus (mm)	Mass (g)	RMR (ml/min)	RMR (ml/min/g)	Reflect. (%)	Pre-mass Baseline DS + (Rank)	Mass Manipu. DS + (Rank)	Pre-plum. Baseline DS + (Rank)	Plumage Manipu. DS + (Rank)
1	M	36.33	460 [†]	10.04	0.022	72.06	-39.78 (15)	-19.98 (13)	-8.09 (10)	45.56 (4)
2	F	33.25	460	13.66	0.023	90.37	-64.32 (17)	-59.48 (17)	-80.25 (17)	-51.07 (16)
3	M	36.13	500	16.03	0.032	68.43	-27.20 (12)	-15.16 (10)	-17.59 (11)	29.82 (6)
4	F	32.80	400 [†]	7.41	0.028	105.41	-59.04 (16)	-13.17 (9)	-21.73 (13)	-30.02 (13)
5	F	33.34	500	8.45	0.017	120.27	-13.11 (10)	9.66 (6)	22.70 (5)	22.49 (7)
6	M	35.85	470 [†]	14.71	0.031	79.30*	58.82 (2)	59.07 (2)	50.71 (3)	47.10 (3)
7	F	34.37	430	8.29	0.019	108.06*	38.14 (4)	-21.25 (15)	-19.28 (12)	-29.93 (12)
8	M	37.43	520	15.77	0.030	57.40*	51.97 (3)	62.33 (1)	69.10 (1)	49.18 (2)
9	M	35.74	440 [†]	15.63	0.035	75.85*	73.16 (1)	38.79 (3)	50.98 (2)	35.90 (5)
10	F	34.64	420 [†]	7.86	0.019	99.26	-29.44 (13)	-38.27 (16)	-61.48 (16)	-53.66 (17)
11	F	34.53	460	8.99	0.019	77.41	-15.63 (11)	-15.67 (11)	2.26 (8)	-43.43 (15)
12	M	36.26	480	10.74	0.022	83.30	22.11 (6)	35.11 (4)	16.77 (6)	52.81 (1)
13	M	34.15	450 [†]	8.52	0.019	78.37	-9.47 (9)	9.32 (7)	-26.87 (14)	-17.93 (11)
14	M	36.78	450 [†]	15.12	0.034	47.29	35.27 (5)	-8.20 (8)	-31.16 (15)	-10.76 (9)
15	F	32.32	410 [†]	9.23	0.022	143.75	-35.46 (14)	-21.17 (14)	9.77 (7)	-32.48 (14)
16	F	33.64	480 [†]	11.65	0.024	84.08	20.50 (7)	14.63 (5)	47.25 (4)	-14.56 (10)
17	M	36.91	500	8.4	0.017	80.36	-6.50 (8)	-16.57 (12)	-3.10 (9)	0.98 (8)
18	M	36.02	510	8.58	0.017	130.71	10.86 (8)	10.35 (5)	11.03 (5)	23.40 (4)
19	F	34.25	420 [†]	12.3	0.029	78.91	-48.35 (13)	-15.59 (12)	-15.48 (11)	13.22 (7)
20	F	36.32	450 [†]	10.16	0.022	20.36	-47.72 (12)	-13.92 (11)	-16.89 (12)	-21.42 (11)
21	M	35.44	490	10.8	0.022	99.74	4.46 (9)	29.22 (2)	36.96 (2)	24.77 (3)
22	F	34.70	530	16.32	0.031	73.07	28.18 (4)	21.85 (3)	25.48 (3)	20.23 (5)
23	M	34.80	470	13.82	0.029	80.31*	29.38 (3)	19.22 (4)	23.01 (4)	35.29 (1)
24	F	33.21	410 [†]	12.41	0.030	83.69	23.48 (5)	3.15 (6)	3.99 (6)	2.38 (8)
25	F	31.86	440	8.91	0.020	65.03	-62.02 (14)	-42.28 (14)	-53.65 (14)	-42.23 (14)
26	M	36.70	560	17.74	0.032	52.39*	48.56 (1)	49.25 (1)	52.42 (1)	30.47 (2)
27	M	35.12	500	9.19	0.018	105.70*	36.46 (2)	-0.86 (7)	-0.38 (8)	14.41 (6)
28	F	33.34	460	10.78	0.023	103.07	-21.26 (10)	-6.68 (9)	-11.19 (9)	-12.43 (10)
29	F	35.74	440 [†]	15.44	0.035	45.32	17.69 (7)	-11.67 (10)	-15.01 (10)	-36.00 (12)
30	M	33.17	380 [†]	7.01	0.018	146.05	21.73 (6)	-3.61 (8)	1.60 (7)	-11.51 (9)
31	F	32.50	420	6.43	0.015	71.61	-41.47 (11)	-38.44 (13)	-41.89 (13)	-40.58 (13)

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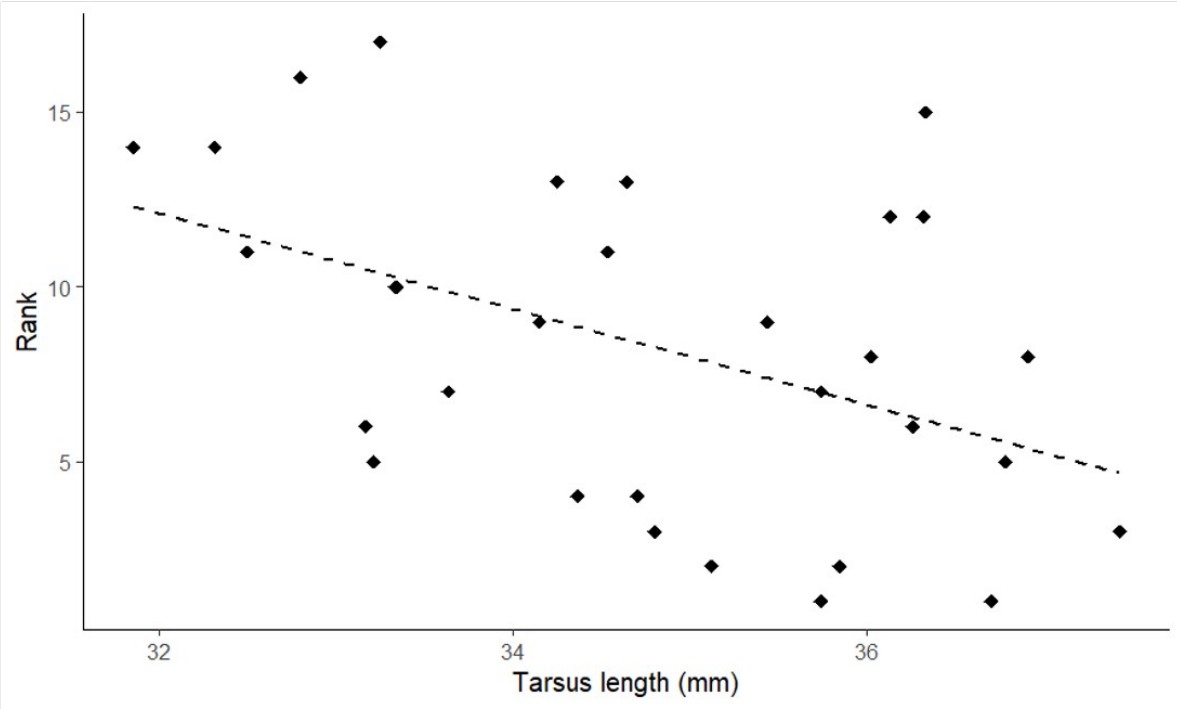
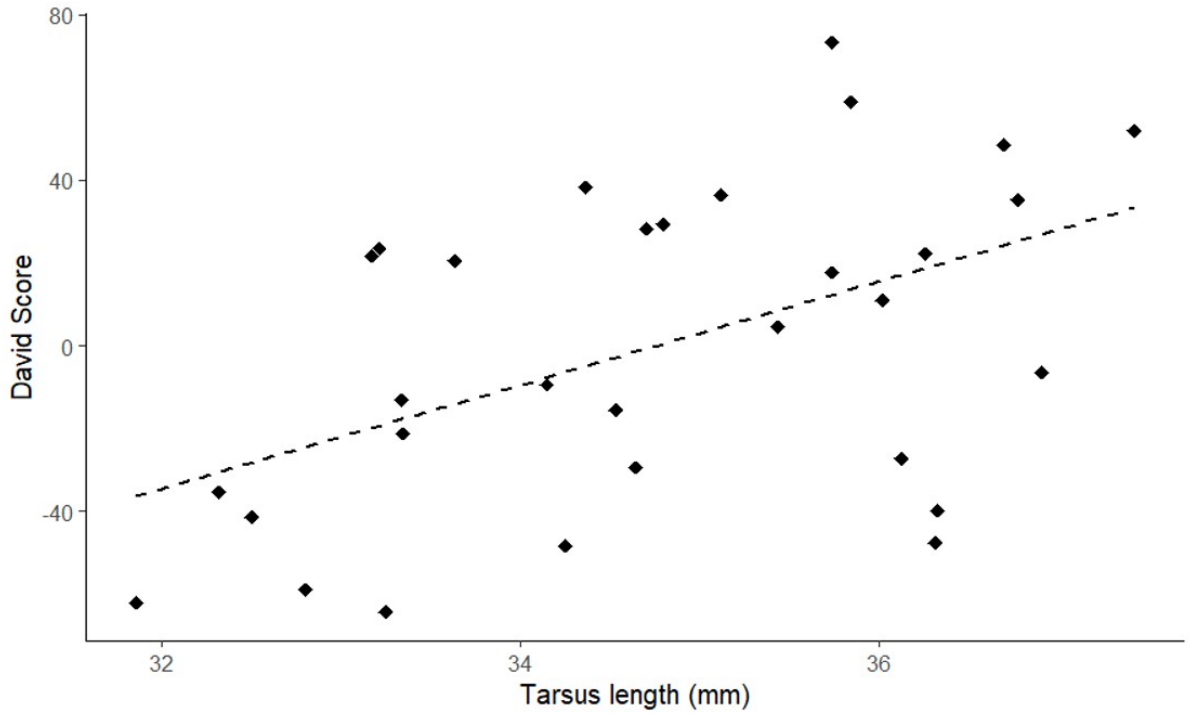
428

429 **Predictors of dominance**

430 Generalised linear models for each separate flock showed no significant relationships
431 between David's score and any covariates (tarsus length, maximum % reflectance, resting
432 metabolic rate, duration in zone one, zone one perch, zone two perch, zone three perch and
433 carrier). When data for both flocks were combined, David's score was best predicted by
434 tarsus length (GLM, $t = 2.17$, $P = 0.04$), maximum % reflectance (GLM, $t = 2.41$, $P = 0.02$) (Fig.
435 1), and resting metabolic rate (GLM, $t = 2.51$, $P = 0.02$ (Table 2). These results are addition-
436 ally supported by t -test comparisons. The relationship between RMR and David's score re-
437 mained significant after accounting for body mass (GLM, $t = 2.53$, $P = 0.02$). On average,
438 males occupied higher ranking positions than females (Two sample t -test, $t = -3.3$ $df = 29$, $P =$
439 0.0002 , Cohens ' $d = 1.2$). The steepness of the dominance hierarchies remained similar
440 throughout the dominance trials (see Supplementary Table S3).

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442



443

444 **Fig. 1.** Relationship between (top) David's score, rank (bottom) with tarsus length (mm) for
 445 both pigeon lofts combined ($N = 31$).

446

447

448 **Table 2** Spearman’s rank (ρ) (left side; italicized and shaded) and regression (right side; 449 unshaded) comparisons of ranks for both lofts between control dominance trials and trials 450 with manipulated mass or plumage. P values (non- italicized) between trials, <0.05 suggest 451 correlation between ranks between trials. P values adjusted following FDR (see Methods) to 452 account for repeated testing for each loft. Trial number refers to (1st) control trial, prior to any 453 manipulations, (2nd) specific individuals were weighted, (3rd) control dominance trials 454 between manipulations and pre-plumage manipulation, and (4th) dominance trial in which the 455 top 20% ranked birds from the 1st control from each loft had their iridescent plumage 456 dampened resulting in decreased reflectance.

457

Loft 1	1 st Trial	2 nd Trial	3 rd Trial	4 th Trial	Loft 2	1 st Trial	2 nd Trial	3 rd Trial	4 th Trial
1 st Trial	X	>0.01	0.02	0.03	1 st Trial	X	0.01	0.01	0.02
2 nd Trial	<i>0.70</i>	X	>0.01	>0.01	2 nd Trial	<i>0.77</i>	X	>0.01	>0.01
3 rd Trial	<i>0.59</i>	<i>0.75</i>	X	0.01	3 rd Trial	<i>0.75</i>	<i>0.99</i>	X	>0.01
4 th Trial	<i>0.58</i>	<i>0.74</i>	<i>0.65</i>	X	4 th Trial	<i>0.65</i>	<i>0.89</i>	<i>0.89</i>	X

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466 **Table 3** Linear regressions comparing David's score between control dominance trials and
467 manipulated mass or plumage trials for both lofts. Trial number refers to (1st) control trial,
468 prior to any manipulations, (2nd) specific individuals were weighted, (3rd) control dominance
469 trials between manipulations and pre-plumage manipulations, and (4th) dominance trial in
470 which the top 20% ranked birds from the 1st control from each loft had their iridescent
471 plumage dampened resulting in decreased reflectance. All trials were significantly correlated
472 with each other trial, suggesting rank stability. *P*-values adjusted following FDR (see Meth-
473 ods) to account for repeated testing for each loft.

474

David's score comparison Loft 1	F Degrees of freedom	R ²	P	David's score comparison Loft 2	F Degrees of freedom	R ²	P
1 st trial vs 2 nd trial	F _{1,15} =23.5	0.61	P=0.001	1 st trial vs 2 nd trial	F _{1,12} =19.19	0.62	P=0.001
1 st trial vs 3 rd trial	F _{1,15} =13.2	0.47	P=0.01	1 st trial vs 3 rd trial	F _{1,12} =20.06	0.63	P=0.001
1 st trial vs 4 th trial	F _{1,15} =5.4	0.26	P=0.02	1 st trial vs 4 th trial	F _{1,12} =7.702	0.40	P=0.02
2 nd trial vs 3 rd trial	F _{1,15} =47.8	0.76	P>0.0001	2 nd trial vs 3 rd trial	F _{1,12} =1116.0	0.99	P=0.003
2 nd trial vs 4 th trial	F _{1,15} =18.9	0.56	P=0.001	2 nd trial vs 4 th trial	F _{1,12} =32.8	0.73	P=0.002
3 rd trial vs 4 th trial	F _{1,15} =12.2	0.45	P=0.004	3 rd trial vs 4 th trial	F _{1,12} =36.3	0.75	P>0.0001

475

476 **Table 4** Generalised linear model results for both lofts combined (31 pigeons) between initial
477 David's score (dominance) as a response variable. Original model contained structural size
478 (tarsus length), maximum reflectance% (= maximum reflectance % of iridescent feathers),
479 resting metabolic rate (RMR), and exploratory behaviour (zone one, zone one perch, zone
480 two perch, zone three perch and carrier) (see *Methods*) as explanatory variables. Model
481 presented is final model following AIC selection. Final AIC value: 306.67. All *P*-values are
482 at a 95% confidence level. Bold denotes significant.

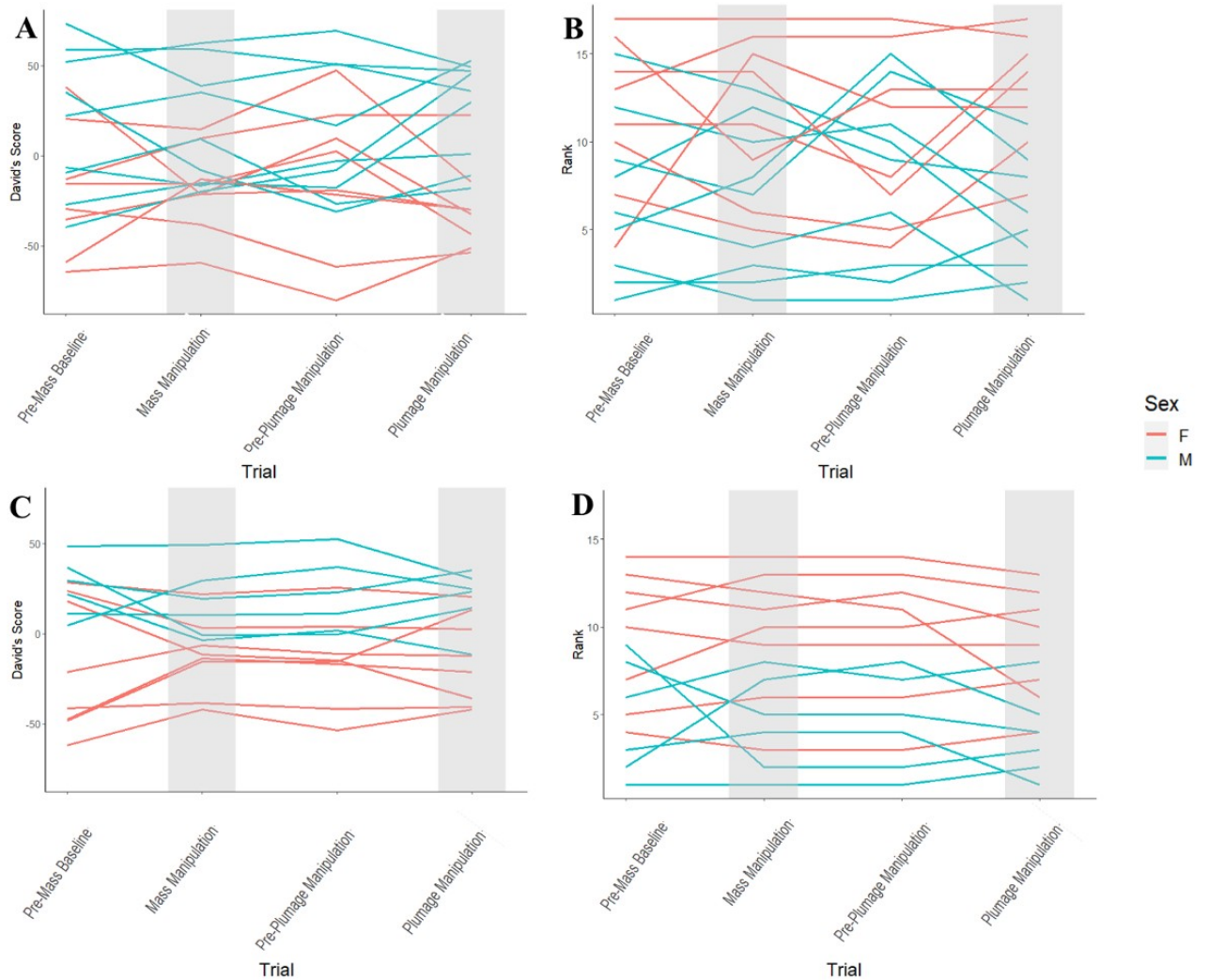
483

	Estimate	Std. Error	<i>t</i> -value	<i>p</i>
Intercept	-483.13	153.59	-3.14	0.004
Tarsus length (mm)	11.25	4.45	2.52	0.017
Maximum % reflect- ance	0.47	0.21	2.20	0.036
RMR	4.94	20.07	2.39	0.024

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489 **Fig. 2** David's score and rank over the two control trials (1 and 3 denoting the 1st and 2nd con-

490 trol respectively on x-axis) for two flocks of pigeons (loft 1, $n=17$; loft 2, $n = 14$). The mass

491 manipulations and plumage manipulations are denoted by grey shaded area. A and B detail

492 loft 1 and C and D present loft 2. Colours represent male and female pigeons (see inset le-

493 gend).

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496

497 **Discussion**

498 We aimed to firstly determine what traits – physiological and/or behavioural – dictated an in-
499 dividual's position within a dominance hierarchy. We then aimed to establish how stable
500 these dominance hierarchies were, and how resistant they were to experimental perturba-
501 tions. Over the four dominance trial types conducted, the hierarchies for both pigeon flocks
502 remained stable across all experimental conditions and were not destabilised by any experi-
503 mental perturbations. Analysis of morphological traits revealed a clear positive relationship
504 between rank (via David's score) and body size and resting metabolic rate (RMR). Addition-
505 ally, there was a negative relationship between RMR and iridescent plumage % reflectance.

506

507 **Hierarchy stability**

508 Between all dominance hierarchy trials conducted there was no significant change in rank,
509 with neither attempts to perturb hierarchy organisation being successful. This suggests that
510 pigeon dominance hierarchies are highly stable over time and resistance to major disruption.
511 This may particularly be the case in larger groups of more than 10 individuals, as previously
512 observed in Carrion Crows (Chiarati et al. 2010) and Lake Tanganyika Cichlids *Neolampro-*
513 *logus pulcher* (Taborsky et al. 2005)

514

515 Artificially increasing mass of lighter individuals did not significantly affect hierarchy struc-
516 ture, which could indicate perhaps that body size is a more important trait for asserting dom-
517 inance than mass (Márquez-Luna et al. 2019, Brown and Maurer, 1986). Given that Homing
518 Pigeons have context dependant hierarchies (Nagy et al. 2013), this relationship between size,
519 RMR and rank and the associated rank stability is likely different when navigating during
520 flight. Watts et al. (2016) indicated that leaders during flight lose influence over flock mates
521 when they have inaccurate information. In those scenarios the consequence for spreading

522 misinformation is much higher, compared to on the ground. The fact that the ground-based
523 hierarchy was able to remain stable despite perturbations suggests none of the altered traits
524 were manipulated sufficiently, or the traits that were focused upon don't contribute to hier-
525 archy stability. Given that hierarchy formation reduces group aggression, it is understandable
526 why hierarchies remain stable.

527

528 Most empirical evidence suggests dominance hierarchies are usually highly stable, with re-
529 ported instability only occurring when there is a change in group composition through emig-
530 ration or immigration (Grossel et al. 2021). In the present study, the two populations re-
531 mained stable except for loft 2 where, due to an unrelated incident, two pigeons were re-
532 moved. While the overall flock hierarchy structure did not significantly change as a result of
533 this, there is some evidence to suggest there was some instability caused by this change with
534 one or two members changing more than 2 ranking positions. Whether this was caused by the
535 flock changes or just seasonal variation is unknown, as similar occurrences were visible in
536 loft 1, which in contrast had a stable undisturbed population over all 40 dominance trials.

537

538 **Intrinsic Traits and David's score**

539 Previous research on Homing Pigeons (Portugal et al. 2017a; 2017b) reported a strong rela-
540 tionship between body mass and rank position. This is prevalent across multiple taxa, poten-
541 tially indicating that larger body sizes and masses – the two typically being correlated – are
542 important factors for resource holding, likely due to the increased ability to exclude and in-
543 timidate smaller individuals if you are bigger and heavier (Brown and Maurer 1986; Már-
544 quez-Luna et al. 2019). Such a scenario likely contributes to a positive feedback loop, as the
545 already heavier, more dominant, birds obtain a larger quantity of resources, which in turn as-
546 sists in body mass maintenance and mass gains. As such, our finding that structural size and

547 body mass where strong determinants of rank within a dominance hierarchy matches that
548 which was found previously. Body mass and structural size were significantly correlated in
549 the pigeons, as has also been observed previously.

550

551

552 **RMR and behaviour**

553 Resting metabolic rate predicted aggressive behaviour (David's score), even when body mass
554 was accounted for which is in accordance with the *performance model* (Mathot, Dingemanse
555 and Nakagawa 2019). As previously described, the *performance model* suggests individuals
556 with higher RMRs perform a higher amount of energetically costly behaviours, in addition to
557 behaviours which result in net energy gain (Mathot, Dingemanse and Nakagawa 2019). In
558 contrast to the relationship with David's score, RMR was not predictive of an explorative
559 personality, which directly contradicts the aforementioned *performance model*. In this case,
560 the results suggests that investment in aggressive behaviour (leading to higher David's score)
561 contributed to a net gain of energy due to better access to food resources (Careau et al. 2008).

562

563 No relationship between any of the recorded personality traits and David's score were ob-
564 served. Similar studies have reported a variety of contrasting and corroborating results. Some
565 studies indicate a relationship between heightened boldness and social rank position, such as
566 negative relationships in captive Black-capped Chickadees *Poecile atricapillus* with boldness
567 being a trait more prevalent in subordinate birds (MacDougall-Shackleton et al. 2011). In
568 contrast, other species and populations exhibit no relationship between rank and personality,
569 such as that seen in wild Black-capped Chickadees (Devost et al. 2016) and Common Wax-
570 bills *Estrilda astrild* (Funghi et al. 2014).

571

572 **RMR and Personality**

573 In addition to the lack of relationship between personality and David's score, a similar lack of
574 relationship was observed between resting metabolic rate and personality traits. Careau and
575 Garland (2012), in addition to Mathot and Dingemanse (2015), reviewed empirical research
576 which found relatively few correlations of boldness or exploration with metabolic rate in
577 avian species. Two studies in Great Tits have indicated negative correlations between risk
578 taking behaviour and basal metabolic rate (BMR) (Mathot et al. 2014), in addition to explora-
579 tion and BMR specifically in females (Bouwhuis et al. 2014). Both of these studies were con-
580 ducted with wild populations where individuals are subject to different selection and resource
581 pressures. In contrast, the Homing Pigeons in the present study are domesticated and kept in
582 captivity, where access to food and water were unlimited, and the birds were safe from being
583 predated upon when in their home loft. This difference in overall selection pressures could
584 have impacted general motivation and willingness to explore during trials (Montiglio et al.
585 2018, Poranen, and Ruuskanen 2021). An interesting further avenue of study would be to re-
586 peat the experiments with wild Feral Pigeons or Rock Doves, to determine if they match the
587 behaviours of the captive pigeons. In the present study, pigeons explored an unfamiliar loft
588 alone. It is possible that in the case of Homing Pigeons, navigation and flight exploration
589 could be a more reliable indicator of boldness (Portugal et al. 2017a), as opposed to ground-
590 based experiments. Group flight is an energetically costly activity (Taylor et al. 2019; Sankey
591 et al. 2019; Sankey and Portugal, 2019) and captive Homing Pigeons will experience similar
592 predation threats during homing flights that wild populations encounter. Under these circum-
593 stances, exploratory flight and RMR may be linked in Homing Pigeons to a greater extent
594 than loft based explorations.

595

596 Previous work establishing the links between metabolic rate, dominance and individual per-
597 sonality traits have not been ubiquitous. In the present study, it is possible that time of day
598 was potentially impacting personality. Personality trials took place throughout the day
599 between 09:00 and 17:00, and the time of day at which individuals had their personalities as-
600 sessed could have been influenced by their natural behavioural circadian rhythms. Typically,
601 pigeons are less active in the afternoons (Ricketts et al. 2021). Thus, birds who had repeat tri-
602 als in the afternoons may exhibited reduced activity levels and a lowered willingness to ex-
603 plore. Individuals may have also been influenced by the external temperatures; personality
604 assays were undertaken in February and March 2021, where temperatures averaged 8°C and
605 ranged from 16°C to -2 °C. These low temperatures may have affected motivation for explor-
606 ation leading to variation in activity (see Paladino, 1995).

607

608 A consistent issue raised by prior studies is that of measuring personality in a social species
609 with isolated individuals (Funghi et al. 2014). Several studies on Zebra Finches indicate that
610 individuals exhibit decreased neophobia when solitary, compared to social contexts which
611 can appear counter intuitive (Schuett and Dall, 2009, Mainwaring, Beal and Hartley 2011,
612 Kerman, Miller and Sewall 2018). Zebra Finches with higher basal metabolic rates were also
613 more likely to adopt the scrounger role as a foraging strategy in groups (Mathot et al. 2009).
614 As personalities of individuals of social species can be so different when isolated in contrast
615 to within a group, a more accurate measure of personality may be to assess neophobic tenden-
616 cies of individuals during both solitary and group settings. This method may reveal more
617 about individual behavioural syndrome and social standing (Funghi et al. 2014).

618

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620

621 **RMR and Iridescent feather % reflectance**

622 In our study maximum % reflectance of iridescent neck feathers was seen to decrease with in-
623 creasing RMR. This suggests a potential energetic cost of either producing or maintaining
624 the brightness of iridescent plumage. On a genetic level, sequencing of both iridescent and
625 non-iridescent plumage related genes of Superb Starlings (*Lamprotornis superbus*) indicated
626 non-iridescent feathers are associated with higher metabolic gene expression compared to iri-
627 descent plumage (Rubenstien et al. 2021). These different plumage types not only differ in
628 production but also greatly differ in maintenance. A study on the iridescent plumage of Mal-
629 lards *Anas platyrhynchos* indicated iridescent feathers were less hydrophobic and less effi-
630 cient at self-cleaning, due to the difference in barbule structure (Eliason and Shawkey 2011).
631 This functional difference could suggest that individuals have to invest a greater amount of
632 time preening iridescent feathers to maintain structurally coloured plumage, which is likely to
633 come at an energetic cost (Viblanc et al. 2011). The negative relationship between (assumed)
634 feather quality and David's score has been reported in other species. Dominant Coal Tits
635 *Periparus ater* produced lower quality feathers that grew at a slower rate than subordinates,
636 thought to be a trade off with the costs of increased territory size, resources and mate choice
637 (Hay et al. 2004).

638

639 Though our GLM results indicated a significant relationship between maximum % reflect-
640 ance of plumage and David's score, this does not necessarily suggest that feather reflectance
641 is a dominance signal in Homing Pigeons, as no significant change in rank position occurred
642 when feathers and associated plumage were altered. The lack of significant overall aggressive
643 interactions towards plumage altered birds suggests birds were still recognising each other
644 despite the painting of certain feathers. This is corroborated by studies which have demon-
645 strated that individual recognition in pigeons is more focused on their 'face' than their body

646 (Shimizu 1998). Furthermore, the observed relationship between dominance position and re-
647 flectance was negative, which would be unusual for a dominance signal; dominance signals
648 are commonly highly investing ornamental traits.

649

650 While in the present study altering plumage signals had no significant effect on positioning
651 within the hierarchy, dampening experiments on Blue Tits did show that reflectance was used
652 to gauge attackers rank, but only during initial encounters. Once the birds were familiar with
653 each other, subsequent interactions ended the same as the first confrontation, regardless of
654 any reversal in UV plumage alterations (Vedder et al. 2010). This reliance on first interac-
655 tions for determining dominance could suggest that because the pigeons in the present study
656 had been living together for many years, the alteration of this signal were ineffective in dis-
657 rupting hierarchies. Plumage brightness in House Finches *Carpodacus mexicanus* was negat-
658 ively associated with dominance, with drab males being more aggressive and having poorer
659 access to food. McGraw and Hill (2000) suggested this could be due to birds having to attack
660 more to make up for their poor plumage and diet to obtain resources. Dominant individuals
661 usually initiate more aggressive interactions and retreat less than subordinates, spending a
662 proportionally larger time in combat (Hay et al. 2004). These birds also predominately have
663 higher activity levels (Ricketts et al. 2021) and this could be attributed to their higher meta-
664 bolic costs.

665

666

667 **Conclusion**

668 Overall, our results indicate rank position in Homing Pigeons is positively correlated with
669 tarsus length and resting metabolic rate. In addition, a negative relationship was observed
670 between iridescent plumage reflectance and David's score, suggesting a link to the further

671 cost of dominance traded off against the high investment costs of iridescence. The dominance
672 hierarchies of the Homing Pigeons were highly resistance to experimental perturbations, in-
673 dicating how their formation in social species is highly beneficial through decreasing aggres-
674 sion levels and maintaining stable group dynamics.

675

676 Our study focused on only one species, held in captivity with food provided *ab libitum*, and
677 comparative safety from being predated upon. Therefore, to understand better the mechan-
678 isms behind dominance and their respective interactions with the traits we recorded (size,
679 metabolic rate etc), wider investigations are required that ideally; (1) study these parameters
680 for a number of years within the same population, (2) explore these relationships across a
681 wider range of species, (3) work with a variety of social systems, including closer-knit family
682 groups, fission-fusion societies, and species which exhibit winter group roosting behaviours
683 but do not breed communally.

684

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690 mittee.

691

692 AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

693 Amaia A. Urquia-Samele: Conceptualization (equal); Data curation (lead); Formal analysis
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699

700 COMPETING INTERESTS

701 We declare we have no competing interests.

702 Data availability statement

703 All data are available within the tables provided in the main text and supplementary informa-
704 tion.

705

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