

24 This study does not introduce any new data.

25

26 **Declaration Of Interests**

27 The authors have no competing interests to declare.

28

29 **Keywords:** animal communication, convergent evolution, facial expression, facial
30 recognition, individual recognition, signalling

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37

38 **Abstract**

39 Although frequently embodied, the relationship of animal social communication with body
40 layout has rarely been investigated from a unified cognitive perspective. Across animal taxa,
41 socially relevant signals, ranging from facial expressions and gaze to colouration and
42 morphology, are strikingly concentrated towards the anterior region of the body. Here, we

43 propose the Rostrum Concentration Hypothesis (RCH), a conceptual framework positing that
44 social signals preferentially evolve and converge along the rostral body axis across bilaterian
45 animals. We argue that this pattern does not reflect shared anatomical homology, but rather
46 emerged from convergent interactions among body layouts, sensory organ concentrations,
47 attentional biases and socio-ecological demands. Drawing on evidence from various taxa
48 spanning from primates to insects, we suggest that the rostral concentration of social signals
49 reflects the coevolution of signal production and receiver cognitive mechanisms. By
50 reframing ‘facial’ communication as a broader organizational principle of the body layout,
51 the RCH reduces the risk of anthropomorphic interpretation and bridges research across
52 behavioural ecology, cognitive science, sensory ecology and evolutionary biology.

53

54

55 **Introduction**

56 Embodied communication through social signalling is a universal form of social interaction
57 among individual animals that exhibits remarkable diversity, ranging from instantaneous,
58 such as emotional expressions, to those that evolve over thousands of generations, such as
59 colouration to convey reproductive status or social hierarchy within a group. Moreover, the
60 body parts used for such communication are thought to be unique to taxonomic groups, as
61 importance varies based on species-specific socio-ecological factors, such as group size,

62 population density and ecological niche. Among the body parts that convey social signalling
63 in the animal kingdom, human faces are remarkably unique and encapsulate vast quantities of
64 information and various social cues related to sex (Dunbar & Barrett, 2007), identity
65 (McKone et al., 2007), emotional states (Schmidt & Cohn, 2001) and attentive states
66 (Kobayashi & Kohshima, 1997; Tomasello et al., 2007).

67 Humans, particularly, manifest emotions via complex facial expressions, which are
68 socially communicative movements governed by specialised neural systems acting on facial
69 muscles (Cattaneo & Pavesi, 2014; Rinn, 1984) that can, in turn, influence the behaviour of
70 others. For instance, humans possess dedicated neural mechanisms involving multiple
71 cortical regions specialised for conveyance of facial expressions and to enable perception of
72 the emotional states of others from facial cues (Adolphs, 2002; Kanwisher & Yovel, 2006;
73 Hadders-Algra, 2022). Although the human face is composed of highly complex features,
74 including configuration of the eyes, eyebrows, mouth, cheek muscles and nose, as well as
75 various specialised dynamic movements that facilitate remarkably rapid detection and
76 recognition of faces (Zhang et al., 2023).

77 Charles Darwin initially recognised the significance of comparing the facial
78 expressions of animals and humans, along with associated cognitive abilities (Darwin, 1872;
79 Ekman, 2006). In his seminal work, '*The Expression of the Emotions in Man and Animals*',
80 Darwin proposed that the emotional expressions of modern humans have evolved from those

81 of our animal ancestors rather than products of societal influences, suggesting comparability
82 (Darwin, 1872), a proposition that has sparked considerable controversy (Boakes, 1984).
83 While the degree of comparability of the facial expressions of humans and animals remains a
84 contentious subject, recent research has provided evidence that the intricate facial muscle
85 movements of non-human primates have similar functions as the facial expressions of
86 humans (Leopold & Rhodes, 2010; Parr et al., 2008; Vick et al., 2007). Moreover, even under
87 a more restrictive definition of facial expressions, as social or emotional signals characterised
88 by immediate changes conveyed through facial cues, laboratory mice (Langford et al., 2010)
89 and macaws (Bertin et al., 2023) can also exhibit discernible facial expressions.

90 These observations collectively raise the possibility that the potentially unique
91 communication patterns of the human face may instead reflect a broader, cross-taxa principle
92 to preferentially organise social information along the rostral body axis. Similar to facial
93 expressions, many vertebrates, including primates, birds and fishes, have the ability to
94 recognise individuals based on idiosyncratic morphological variations of the face.
95 Interestingly, such facial-based individual recognition is not limited to vertebrates, as paper
96 wasps have likewise been reported to discriminate familiar from unfamiliar individuals based
97 on facial colouration (Tibbetts, 2002). These converging lines of behavioural evidence
98 indicate that the face plays a vital role in the transmission of social signals across diverse
99 taxonomic groups. Given the 550 million years of evolutionary divergence between

100 protostomes and deuterostomes, these forms of social signalling are unlikely to be attributed
101 to traits inherited from a common ancestor. Indeed, the mechanisms responsible for face
102 recognition differ substantially between these two groups. Whereas vertebrates process faces
103 hierarchically through distributed neural networks, insects often rely upon more localised and
104 circumscribed neural regions (Freiwald et al., 2016; Jernigan et al., 2024). Accordingly, we
105 propose two central questions: (1) why are social signals expressed through anatomical parts
106 identified as the ‘face’ and (2) why such convergence emerges as a general evolutionary
107 tendency across distantly related taxa.

108 However, many previous works have relied on the human-centric and anatomically
109 defined categories of ‘face’ and ‘facial expression’, which impose considerable limitations to
110 clarify the universal relationship between social signals and body structure in animals. Such
111 frameworks inherently embody a somewhat circular structure, as social signals are
112 simultaneously defined in terms of function and anatomically constrained proximate
113 mechanisms. Hence, there is no consensus on whether a specific physiological substrate of
114 the facial musculature is required for a social signal to qualify as a ‘facial expression’, or
115 whether signal emission from the head is sufficient to serve as a social function, such as
116 emotional expression. Therefore, this review article aims not to resolve this definitional
117 ambiguity, but rather to establish a framework to examine the general tendencies of social

118 signals emitted from the rostral body axis, without concentration on any particular taxonomic
119 group.

120 Here, we propose the RCH, a new conceptual framework that integrates prior
121 findings of the evolution of social signals (Figure 1). This hypothesis postulates that, across
122 bilaterally symmetrical animals, social signals tend to be universally concentrated towards the
123 rostral (anterior) part of the body, thereby providing a perspective that reinterprets the
124 evolution of ‘facial-like’ structures as a manifestation of the general organizational principle
125 of body layout. In accordance with cross-disciplinary evidence from ethology, comparative
126 psychology, evolutionary biology, neuroscience and anatomy, the plausibility of the RCH
127 was examined and an integrative framework was established to further clarify embodied non-
128 verbal social communication cues.

129

130 **1. Core ideas of the RCH**

131 The RCH posits that social signals tend to be concentrated towards the rostral direction.

132 While most commonly conveyed by the facial expressions of humans and non-human
133 primates, this pattern is not restricted to these taxa. Moreover, in many cases, such signals are
134 produced through mechanisms entirely distinct from the facial musculature characteristics of
135 mammals. The RCH can be condensed into the following three presumptions.

136

- 137 1. Social signals tend to be expressed from anatomically rostral body regions
138 across a wide range of taxa.
- 139 2. The underlying neural mechanisms and the specific anatomical structures
140 involved are not necessarily the face or facial musculature, but rather shaped by
141 species-specific sensory and motor systems, as well as socio-ecological factors.
- 142 3. The concentration of social signals is not accidental, but instead guided by the
143 constraints imposed by body layout. Specifically, the concentration of sensory
144 organs and associated neural systems, and behavioural demands, such that social
145 encounters are typically initiated from the anterior direction.

146

147 The first presumption simply reiterates the central claim of the RCH, whereas the
148 second presumption states that the rostral concentration of social signals, observed across a
149 wide range of taxa, is not homologous, but rather can arise convergently through unique
150 mechanisms. These claims were deliberately not formulated in terms of the specific locus of
151 the ‘face’, but rather in coordinate terms; namely, along the rostral direction. This framing is
152 intended to circumvent bias towards the human face and diminish the risk of
153 anthropomorphic and anthropocentric interpretations. The third presumption argues that the
154 concentration of social signals cannot be dismissed as a trivial coincidence, but instead
155 reflects the tendency of following the basic body layout of bilaterally symmetrical animals.

156 Moreover, animals with an antero-posterior body axis typically encounter conspecifics from
157 the front, suggesting that the rostral concentration of social signals is a natural and efficient
158 consequence of these constraints.

159 In the following section, currently available evidence of the evolution of social
160 signals is discussed to substantiate the plausibility of the RCH.

161

162 **2. Towards an RCH framework for the concentration of social signals**

163 In this review, we present evidence of the general tendency that social signals concentrate at
164 the anterior end of the body, a concept we refer to as the RCH. Here, the term ‘rostrum’ is not
165 used to denote a specific anatomical structure, such as the mammalian face or the avian beak,
166 but rather as an inclusive concept broadly referring to the frontmost region of the body in
167 order to avoid anthropocentric conceptualisations as well as frameworks overly biased
168 towards the anatomical characteristics of any particular taxonomic group. Likewise, the
169 social signals expressed at the rostrum are not restricted by an actual mechanism of
170 production, temporal scale or degree of conscious control. In other words, the RCH refrains
171 from assuming anatomical homology and does not posit homology to the mechanisms
172 underlying the expression of facial signals. Consequently, the RCH enables a focus on why
173 social signals tend to emerge from any particular body region while avoiding the risk of
174 anthropomorphic interpretation.

175 How universal, then, is the concentration of social signals towards the rostral region
176 across the animal kingdom? A non-negligible body of evidence across taxonomic groups
177 supports the RCH (see Section 4). These findings are derived from largely unrelated taxa and
178 are often expressed via different mechanisms. Hence, it is more reasonable to regard such
179 mechanisms not as inherited ancestral traits, but instead as convergently evolved in response
180 to behavioural advantages.

181 Nevertheless, a framework is lacking that can clearly explain why social signals tend
182 to be concentrated towards the rostral region, even though this is not necessarily the case
183 among all species. This lack of a conceptual basis has rendered a broad generalisation
184 premature. In particular, we still lack (1) comparative evaluations of whether the relative
185 importance of social signals is greater in the rostral region than other body parts, and (2)
186 experimental results demonstrating whether signals expressed in this region reliably modify
187 receiver behaviours. Rather than precluding synthesis, this lack of systematic evidence
188 highlights the need for an explicit framework to guide future comparative and experimental
189 studies.

190 In the literature, such investigations have progressed most extensively in studies of
191 facial expressions, facial individual recognition and perspective-taking of primates, including
192 humans (Huber & Lonardo, 2023; Leopold & Rhodes, 2010; Pérez-Manrique & Gomila,
193 2018). While a detailed review is left to the existing literature, the face functions of primates,

194 as a specialised body region for the transmission of social signals, and correspondingly,
195 cognitive and neural mechanisms, such as holistic processing for facial recognition (Tanaka
196 & Farah, 2003), have evolved preferentially (Lee & Sung, 2023; McGraw & Hill, 2000) to
197 efficiently process social information derived from the face. Moreover, a substantial body of
198 behavioural evidence supports the existence of face-based social signalling by non-primate
199 mammals. For example, sheep, cattle and domestic dogs are reportedly capable of individual
200 recognition based on facial cues (Leopold & Rhodes, 2010). In addition, many mammals,
201 such as elephants, sheep, dolphins and mice, exhibit discernible facial expressions (Langford
202 et al., 2010; Leopold & Rhodes, 2010), including some that have been suggested to share
203 striking similarities with those of primates (Kendrick, 1994; Leopold et al., 2006).

204 Although animal studies other than mammals remain extremely limited, several lines
205 of evidence suggest that the morphology or colouration at or near the rostral region may be
206 associated with social information. For example, the bill length and colouration of sparrows
207 and American goldfinches have been correlated with social and condition status (Lee & Sung,
208 2023; McGraw & Hill, 2000). Additionally, facial stimulation of pigeons has been reported to
209 elicit social behaviours of conspecifics (Shimizu, 1998). Likewise, the colour patterns of the
210 rostral region of reptiles and fishes are known to reflect dominance rank or aggressive
211 motivation (Balzarini et al., 2017; Lappin & Husak, 2005; Muske & Fernald, 1987). In many
212 anurans, the vocal sac has been suggested to function in the production of acoustic signals

213 involved in species recognition, mate choice, male spacing and territory defence, as well as
214 visual signals (Starnberger et al., 2014). In addition, among invertebrates, the facial
215 colouration patterns of paper wasps have been associated with reproductive success (Tibbetts
216 et al., 2015), whereas horn-like structures arising on the head of fruit flies function as
217 indicators of individual fighting ability (Dodson, 1997). Similarly, the facial colouration of
218 jumping spiders functions as a signal of health or foraging ability (Taylor et al., 2011). In the
219 context of comparing the importance of body regions as sources of social signals, almost all
220 prior studies have demonstrated only correlations between particular social states and
221 morphological or chromatic traits near the rostral region. However, whether these traits
222 actually function as social signals that influence receiver behaviours remains largely
223 unresolved.

224 In contrast to largely correlational evidence, individual recognition signals
225 concentrated in the rostral region have been rigorously tested in fishes (Hotta et al., 2017;
226 Kohda et al., 2015; Satoh et al., 2016; Sogawa et al., 2023; Wang & Takeuchi, 2017) and
227 paper wasps (Sheehan & Tibbetts, 2011; Tibbetts, 2002, 2004). These studies employed
228 stimulus models and the rostral (facial) and body regions of familiar and unfamiliar
229 individuals were experimentally recombined to examine the behavioural responses of
230 conspecific receivers. This approach demonstrated (1) the relative importance of individual-
231 specific information emitted by the rostral region and (2) that such information can directly

232 alter receiver behaviours. Consistent with this pattern, previous controlled behavioural studies
233 have shown that damselfishes rely on facial cues (i.e. ultraviolet-reflective patterns
234 concentrated in the ‘facial’ region) to discriminate conspecifics from closely related
235 heterospecifics (Siebeck et al., 2010). Structures referred to as the ‘face’ or ‘head’ of insects
236 and vertebrates are not homologous from developmental or anatomical perspectives.
237 Accordingly, facial recognition of vertebrates, including mammals and social wasps, is a
238 superficially similar phenomena, but does not represent traits inherited from a common
239 ancestor. Moreover, the body parts that produce signals along the rostral direction are diverse,
240 including the eyes, facial muscles, chromatophores and vocal sacs. Thus, even when
241 producing superficially similar signals, these structures are evidently not homologous organs,
242 but rather better understood as convergent forms of social cognition that evolved
243 independently under shared evolutionary constraints and advantages associated with
244 cephalisation (see Section 3). To address why social signals tend to cluster in the rostral
245 region, the concentration of sensory organs should first be considered as a pre-adaptive
246 condition that may have facilitated the evolution of rostrally concentrated social signalling.

247

248 **3. Rostral concentration of sensory organs**

249 The sensory organs of bilateral animals show a broad propensity to concentrate at the rostral
250 end of the body. This trend is known as the progressive process of cephalisation, which is

251 associated with the emergence of specialised feeding structures near the mouth (Hombria et
252 al., 2021). Clusters of Hox genes, which play key roles in segmental organization, were
253 already present more than 550 million years ago and evolved alongside the major modern
254 animal body plans established during the Cambrian period (Zhang & Nei, 1996). Indeed, non-
255 bilaterian lineages, such as sponges, ctenophores and placozoans, reportedly lack Hox genes
256 (Biscotti et al., 2014). The Hox cluster can consist of up to 15 genes, including Hox1–5,
257 which contribute to head specification and were likely already present in the last common
258 ancestor of chordates, lophotrochozoans and ecdysozoans (Hombria et al., 2021).

259 The eyes, antennae, multiple feeding appendages, and other sensory structures are
260 concentrated at the rostral end of arthropods, cephalopods and vertebrates, accompanied by a
261 marked rostral concentration of the nervous system. Hence, these animals possess a well-
262 developed brain. Reflecting an extreme degree of cephalisation, these lineages exhibit
263 advanced sensory integration and a wide range of intelligent cognitive abilities (Ginsburg &
264 Jablonka, 2019; Veit, 2023). In particular, vision accounts for the processing of a substantial
265 portion of neural information, and the development of eyes at the head, including the
266 convergently evolved camera-type eyes of vertebrates and cephalopods, is tightly coupled
267 with elaboration of the central nervous system (Nilsson et al., 2023). Developmentally, the
268 eyes arise as extensions of the central nervous system itself (London et al., 2013). Taken

269 together, the evolution of vision exemplifies cephalisation as an integrated transformation of
270 both sensory organs and the nervous system.

271 In bilaterians, the concentration of sensory organs at the head has clear adaptive
272 significance. The evolution of directional locomotion has led to the differentiation of the head
273 and tail of bilaterians and the anterior end of the body became the first to encounter
274 environmental stimuli during movement (Brusca et al., 2016). The accumulation of sensory
275 organs at the head represents an adaptation for the rapid detection of external inputs, likely
276 conferring survival and predation advantages. The accompanying rostral concentration of the
277 nervous system enabled increasingly refined sensorimotor coordination, fundamentally
278 reshaping behavioural interactions and cognitive capacities, thereby contributing to the
279 ecological and evolutionary transformations that culminated in the Cambrian explosion
280 (Hsieh et al., 2022).

281 In sum, the rostral concentration of sensory organs is a general trend in bilaterian
282 animals and is not restricted to either protostomes or deuterostomes. Because sensory inputs,
283 including encounters with other individuals, are typically first registered by the rostral end,
284 sensory information about conspecifics preferentially reaches the head. Correspondingly,
285 when a receiver is targeted with social signals, it is reasonable to expect that the use of rostral
286 signalling organs would support salient and faster social interactions. Therefore, the next

287 question to be posed is whether the concentration of social signalling within the ‘head’ or
288 ‘face’ is beneficial.

289

290 **4. Cognitive and socio-ecological benefits**

291 The previous section outlined the general tendency for the concentration of sensory organs
292 towards the rostral region of animals, which may have provided, under existing
293 developmental and functional constraints, a relatively efficient evolutionary pathway for the
294 emergence of complex social signals. As a central assumption of the RCH, socially relevant
295 signals tend to be preferentially expressed towards the rostral direction in a wide range of
296 animals, particularly among bilaterians exhibiting pronounced cephalisation. This pattern is
297 unlikely to be a matter of chance, but rather the spatial clustering of sensory inputs that arose
298 from the basic body layout of bilaterally symmetrical animals that may have biased the
299 evolution of signal expression towards the same region. In humans and some other mammals,
300 for example, individual recognition relies on holistic processing of the relative configuration
301 of multiple facial features, including the eyes, nose and mouth. Similarly, the perception of
302 facial expressions and attentive states inferred from gaze draws not only on these primary
303 features, especially the facial muscles (Cattaneo & Pavesi, 2014; Rinn, 1984) and eyes
304 (Kobayashi & Kohshima, 1997; Tomasello et al., 2007), but also additional visual cues, such
305 as changes to facial colouration patterns driven by vascular dynamics and the mouth (Jack &

306 Schyns, 2015; Wells et al., 2016). These components function as complementary sources of
307 information that jointly support the interpretation of social signals. Importantly, in humans,
308 the expression of emotions and intentions through the face does not arise from a single
309 sensory organ or motor structure, but instead emerges from the coordinated activities of
310 multiple sensory organs, motor effectors and peripheral physiological cues concentrated in
311 the rostral region.

312 Moreover, certain ecological constraints and demands may have accelerated the
313 concentration of social signals towards the rostral region of many animals, as it may be
314 advantageous that the rostral axis coincides with the direction of locomotion. The mammalian
315 face has been described as a developmental and evolutionary novelty that integrates sensory,
316 communicative and feeding functions into the anterior head region throughout evolution
317 (Higashiyama et al., 2021), rendering the anterior region particularly advantageous for
318 communication. Indeed, the social interactions of many animals are typically initiated from
319 the anterior part of the body (Hotta et al., 2019; Satoh et al., 2016; Tibbetts, 2002). This
320 universal feature among motile animals provides a plausible evolutionary explanation for
321 why social species tend to express social signals via the anterior or rostral region. Although
322 the specific anatomical bases differ, analogous examples include the facial colouration
323 patterns of social wasps and fishes, which function as individualised identity signals (Satoh et
324 al., 2016; Tibbetts, 2002), and the bill morphology of sparrows, which has been suggested as

325 a signal of social hierarchy (Lee & Sung, 2023). Although the upright bipedalism of humans
326 implies that the head is not necessarily always projected forward during social interactions,
327 such modes of encounter are pervasive among other bilaterally symmetrical animals,
328 suggesting that the concentration of social signals in the human head reflects a characteristic
329 inherited from quadrupedal ancestors.

330 Additionally, when considering the ecological benefits of signal concentration
331 towards the rostral region, it is crucial to recognise the empirical evidence that many animals
332 are highly sensitive to the eyes and gaze of others. Many mammals, particularly primates,
333 exhibit a strong attentional bias towards faces. One of the most striking manifestations of this
334 bias is the simulacra effect or the face pareidolia, which refers to the tendency for primates to
335 perceive the ‘face’, particularly the configurations of stimuli that are, in themselves,
336 meaningless or randomly arranged (Taubert et al., 2017; Tomonaga, 2025). Moreover, some
337 vertebrates can detect the direction of the eyes or gaze of other individuals and utilise this
338 information as social signals. Gaze following is defined as the ability of an individual to
339 orient its gaze in the same direction as that of another individual, which has been reported in
340 primates (Kano & Tomonaga, 2009; Ruiz et al., 2009; Tomasello et al., 1998), non-primates
341 mammals (Kaminski et al., 2005; Tschudin et al., 2001), birds (Bugnyar et al., 2004; Jaime et
342 al., 2009; Loretto et al., 2010) and reptiles (Wilkinson et al., 2010).

343 In contrast, fishes and some other animals tend to avoid the eyes and gaze of
344 conspecifics and heterospecifics (Coss, 1978; Karplus et al., 1982). However, this avoidance
345 behaviour paradoxically suggests that these species possess a high perceptual sensitivity to
346 the eyes and gaze of other individuals. Indeed, individuals of group-living cichlid fish have
347 been observed to fixate on the ‘face’ region of conspecific models before other body parts
348 (Hotta et al. 2019). Additionally, the eyes of marine fish serve as key visual stimuli that can
349 elicit social behaviours (Karenina et al., 2013). Among birds, jackdaws have white irises that
350 help to prevent competitors from commandeering a nesting site (Davidson et al., 2014).

351 Regarding the evolutionary origins of gaze sensitivity widely observed across the
352 animal kingdom, the ‘evil eye hypothesis’ argues that such sensitivity evolved as a strategy to
353 avoid predators (Hampton, 1994). According to this hypothesis, heightened sensitivity to the
354 gaze of others, particularly predators, is an adaptation that enables animals to judge when it
355 was safe to move or emerge from hiding. To function as a signal, a cue must be detected by
356 the receiver. The term ‘sensory exploitation’ is defined as the evolutionary process by which
357 cues become communication signals under the influence of such sensory biases (Endler &
358 Basolo, 1998). If receivers are predisposed to focus on the eye region, signallers may gain an
359 advantage by exploiting this perceptual bias and placing social signals in close proximity to
360 the eyes (i.e. rostral region). Moreover, these rostrally concentrated signals may be fed back

361 through specialised perceptual and cognitive processes that become increasingly refined and
362 accentuated.

363

364 **5. Outlook and prediction of the RCH**

365 The RCH can be implemented as a concrete research programme. Here, three predictions
366 were outlined but have not yet been fully validated and remain preliminary. Accordingly, a
367 rigorous evaluation of the RCH will require the integration of broader comparative studies,
368 the accumulation of observational data on natural behaviours, and controlled laboratory
369 testing of cognition. Specifically, the RCH posits three major predictions:

370

371 1 Among various body parts, the relative importance of social signals is greater in
372 the rostral region.

373 2 Multiple types of social signals, especially those related to individual
374 recognition and emotional expression, tend to converge towards the rostral
375 direction.

376 3 The degree of signal concentration is correlated with socio-ecological factors,
377 including social complexity and ecological context.

378

379 The first prediction is based on an adaptive perspective that natural selection favours
380 morphological configurations that maximise signalling efficiency. Because sensory receptors
381 and feeding organs are often concentrated in the rostral region, this area is structurally
382 predisposed to express social signals. Consequently, ecological and social benefits are
383 expected to refine and intensify signalling in this region. The face arguably plays a central
384 role in the social communication of primates as a multicomponent signal, serving as a body
385 region that attracts greater attention and conveys more information than other parts (Waller et
386 al., 2024). However, relatively few empirical studies have quantitatively compared the
387 salience or signal strength of facial versus non-facial cues.

388 The second prediction rests on the assumption that sharing a common signalling
389 locus reduces the costs of communication. When a particular social signal is expressed via
390 the rostral region, other signals are likely to converge at the same site, thereby promoting the
391 multifunctional evolution of facial structures. The multicomponent basis of social signals
392 expressed via the rostral region is particularly prominent among primates (Jack & Schyns,
393 2015; Waller et al., 2024). However, evidence suggests a multicomponent nature of the
394 rostral region of fishes, which are among the most basal vertebrate lineages. For instance, in
395 the group-living cichlid of the African Great Lakes, colour variation of the rostral region is
396 used for individual recognition (Kohda et al., 2015), and aggressive motivation is likewise
397 expressed as a rostral pattern (Balzarini et al., 2017). Furthermore, such face-based individual

398 recognition may, as in primates, rely on holistic processing that integrates the relative
399 configuration of facial features (Kawasaka et al., 2019). The cichlid exhibits relatively
400 complex social systems and is generally regarded as a highly social fish (Wong & Balshine,
401 2011). Whether this clustering of multiple social signals in the rostral region and
402 sophisticated cognitive processes represents a mere coincidence or reflects an association
403 with social complexity requires comparative investigations, as anticipated in the next
404 prediction.

405 The third prediction, involving the degree of rostral concentration, should correlate
406 with socio-ecological factors, such as social complexity, population density and the diversity
407 of other signalling modalities. For example, reduced facial hair of primates has been
408 proposed to correlate with social systems and brain size ('social face hypothesis'), and is
409 thought to enhance the efficiency of transmitting social signals, such as facial expressions
410 (Albohn & Adams, 2022).

411

412 **6. Limitations and considerations**

413 It is important to note that the proposed RCH does not fully account for all social signals of
414 animals. Specific ecological factors, such as camouflage colouration and predation pressure,
415 may facilitate or constrain the rostral concentration of social signals. Moreover, it is
416 important to carefully consider the ecological and social contexts in which such social signals

417 function. Numerous social signals of animals are emitted from the non-rostral body end or
418 regions other than the face. For example, the plumage colouration of many birds can function
419 as social signals (Baker & Parker, 1979; Mason & Bowie, 2020). Additionally, the facial area
420 of the African grey parrot does not play an important role in individual recognition, even
421 though this species processes visual information of the whole body holistically (Prikrylová et
422 al., 2023). Similarly, in case of paper wasps reviewed in this paper, not only facial features
423 but also body patterns and specific behaviours may function as social signals (Legan et al.,
424 2023; Tibbetts, 2002). However, these facts do not warrant rejecting the RCH outright.

425 To date, the reasons why signals are expressed from one body region in some
426 species but from a different region in others have received little attention, and most cases
427 have largely been examined in isolation. The RCH argues that, as a general tendency, signals
428 are more likely to be concentrated towards the rostral end, implying that animals that emit
429 social signals from non-rostral regions do so for reasons that warrant explanation.

430 For example, socially induced changes to the colouration of the bearded dragon
431 lizard occur primarily around the face. Because these colour changes are expressed in
432 conjunction with head-bobbing displays, facial colouration may enhance the efficiency of
433 signal transmission (Smith et al., 2016). In contrast, other lizard species express signals from
434 non-rostral body regions (Cooper Jr & Burns, 1987). Therefore, evaluation of the RCH
435 requires examining how signal expression is coordinated with behaviours and identifying the

436 ecological or interactional conditions that confer advantages to signalling from non-rostral
437 regions. If typical encounters are not frontal or displays are coupled with wing spreading of
438 birds, signal salience may be shifted away from the rostral region.

439 Accordingly, the RCH is not invalidated by any single observation, but would
440 become unnecessary only in the absence of heuristic value for guiding investigations of
441 behavioural phenomena. In this sense, we argue that the scientific utility of the RCH lies in
442 its productivity, especially the capacity to generate testable predictions and stimulate the
443 discovery of new empirical patterns.

444

445 **7. Conclusion**

446 In this review, we proposed the RCH as a unifying framework to clarify the tendency of
447 embodied social signals to be expressed towards the rostral region across bilaterian animals
448 from an adaptationist viewpoint. Rather than treating faces, beaks or other anterior structures
449 as taxon-specific adaptations, this framework reinterprets ‘facial-like’ signalling as an
450 emergent consequence of shared developmental constraints, sensory biases and selective
451 pressures acting on the anterior body axis. By shifting the focus from anatomically defined
452 categories to a perspective based on the body layout, our approach provides a conceptual
453 bridge between research traditions that have previously developed largely in parallel,

454 including studies of facial expression, individual recognition, sensory ecology and social
455 cognition.

456 Throughout this review, we have primarily focused on the perspective of the
457 signaller in order to clarify why social signals are preferentially concentrated at the rostral
458 region. However, the evolutionary dynamics underlying the concentration of rostral signals
459 are unlikely to be fully understood without considering the cognitive system of the receiver.
460 A growing body of evidence suggests that receivers exhibit strong attentional biases towards
461 the rostral region and employ specialised perceptual strategies, such as holistic processing
462 and cross-component integration, when extracting social information from this part of the
463 body, implying that evolution of signal placement and the perceptual and cognitive
464 mechanisms of receivers have likely been tightly coupled. From this perspective, the rostral
465 signal concentration may reflect not only where signals are easiest or cheapest to produce but
466 also where they are most efficiently detected, integrated and acted upon by receivers. For
467 example, eye-tracking studies of primates have demonstrated that individuals selectively and
468 preferentially focus on the face rather than other body regions (Sato et al., 2019). This
469 suggests that the face aggregates rich social information and serves as a primary source for
470 receivers to actively extract social cues.

471 Importantly, we do not argue that the rostral concentration of social signals is an
472 inevitable outcome of social evolution, as such signals may also be expressed on non-rostral

473 body regions or across the entire body, particularly under ecological or functional conditions,
474 such as long-range advertisement, camouflage constraints, and sexual signalling.
475 Nevertheless, under shared constraints imposed by directional locomotion, cephalisation and
476 perceptual salience of the anterior body, rostral concentration represents a recurrent and
477 favoured solution in the evolution of social communication.

478 Future research will be essential to test and refine the RCH. Comparative studies that
479 explicitly quantify the relative importance of rostral versus non-rostral signals across taxa and
480 socio-ecological contexts are particularly needed. In addition, anatomical and developmental
481 investigations will be crucial to determine whether similar rostral signals across lineages
482 reflect convergent evolution or shared evolutionary origins. Finally, integrating receiver-
483 focused approaches, such as eye-tracking, neurophysiological measurements and behavioural
484 analysis, will allow for the direct examination of how rostrally concentrated signals are
485 processed and evaluated. Together, these lines of inquiry will help to clarify how body
486 structure, perception and social signalling co-evolved to shape the remarkable diversity of
487 communication systems observed across the animal kingdom.

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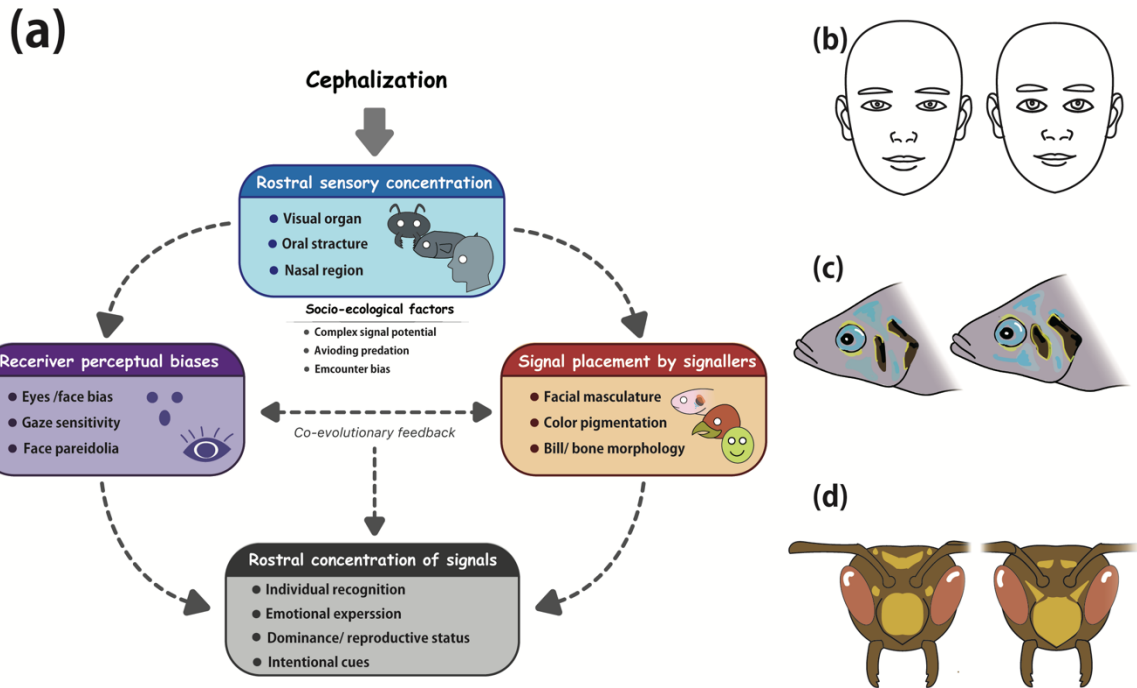
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712

713 Figure 1. A conceptual diagram of the RCH. (a) The RCH posits that, across bilaterally
 714 symmetrical animals, social signals tend to be preferentially concentrated towards the rostral
 715 region of the body. (b) The human face, as a representative example of multifunctionalised
 716 social signals concentrated towards the rostral direction, simultaneously conveys a wide
 717 range of social information, including sex, individual identity, age, emotional state and
 718 attentive states. In the context of individual recognition, the existence of specialised neural
 719 and cognitive mechanisms dedicated to processing facial information has been suggested. (c)
 720 In the group-living cichlid, the rostrum region can convey signals related to both individual
 721 identity and aggression, indicating that social signals are multifunctionalised in this region.
 722 (d) Individual paper wasps can discriminate familiar from unfamiliar conspecifics based on
 723 facial colouration patterns, which also serve as predictors of reproductive success, suggesting

724 functions as multifunctional social signals. However, the facial structures of paper wasps are
725 not evolutionarily homologous to the faces of vertebrates.

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