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Individual variation in the compromise between social group membership and exposure to preferred temperatures

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33 **ABSTRACT**

34 Group living is widespread among animal species, and comes with a number of costs and benefits
35 associated with foraging, predator avoidance and reproduction. It is largely unknown, however, whether
36 individuals sacrifice exposure to their own preferred or optimal environmental conditions so they can
37 remain part of a social group. Here we demonstrate that individual three-spine sticklebacks vary in the
38 degree to which they forego exposure to their preferred ambient temperature so they can associate with
39 a group of conspecifics. Individual fish varied widely in preferred temperature when tested in isolation.
40 When the same individuals were presented with a choice of a warm or cold thermal regime in the
41 presence of a social group in one of the environments, fish spent more time with the group if it was close
42 to their own individually preferred temperature. When a group was in a relatively cool environment, focal
43 individuals that were more social deviated most strongly from their preferred temperature to associate
44 with the group. Standard and maximum metabolic rate were not related to temperature preference or
45 thermal compromise. However, individuals with a higher standard metabolic rate were less social, and so
46 energetic demand may indirectly influence the environmental costs experienced by group members. The
47 reduced tendency to engage with a social group when there is a large difference between the group
48 temperature and the individual's preferred temperature suggests a role for temperature in group
49 formation and cohesion that is mediated by individual physiology and behaviour. Together, these data
50 highlight exposure to non-preferred temperatures as a potential cost of group membership that likely has
51 important but to date unrecognized implications for metabolic demand, energy allocation, locomotor
52 performance, and overall group functioning.

53 **INTRODUCTION**

54 Group living is widespread across animal taxa and confers a range of advantages for predator avoidance
55 [1, 2], foraging [3], reproductive success [4, 5], and locomotor efficiency [6-8]. To derive these benefits,
56 however, group members must cope with costs of group living, including increased competition for
57 resources [9], disease transfer [10], and increased visibility to predators [11]. Furthermore, although
58 individuals within groups often adjust their behaviour towards a collective common-ground [12],
59 individuals within species vary considerably in their behavioural and physiological phenotype [13, 14].
60 This suggests that group members also vary in the degree of physiological and behavioural compromise
61 they must make to align with the group as a whole.

62 An additional cost of group membership is that individuals sacrifice exposure to their own preferred
63 environmental conditions so that they can be part of a group [15]. An example of such a compromise,
64 particularly for ectotherms, is the potential for an individual group member to deviate from its own
65 preferred temperature to remain with group mates. Temperature has an effect on a range of
66 physiological processes, including minimum and maximum aerobic metabolic rates [16-18], growth and
67 digestive capacity [19], and locomotor ability [20, 21]. Within species, individuals can show wide variation
68 in the temperature that they prefer to experience [22]. Studies have shown that individual preferred
69 temperatures in some fish species tend to fall within optimum individual temperature ranges for growth
70 [23]. In a group scenario, however, animals show relatively synchronous behaviour and individuals
71 occupy a similar spatial location with a given set of environmental parameters. As a result, individuals
72 within a group will be exposed to similar temperatures, regardless of individual preferences. Some
73 individuals may therefore face a constant trade-off between the benefits of being in a group and
74 experiencing temperatures that may cause them to incur a physiological cost.

75 The degree to which an individual is willing to depart from its preferred environmental conditions to
76 associate with a group may be affected by its intrinsic sociability, defined as the tendency to associate
77 with conspecifics for non-aggressive interactions [24]. Individuals within species vary in their sociability,
78 and more social individuals may be more likely to sacrifice exposure to their own preferred temperature
79 to remain with a group. There is also evidence that individuals with an intrinsically higher energetic
80 demand (i.e. those with a higher standard metabolic rate [SMR], the base level of metabolism required
81 for an ectotherm to sustain life) are less social [25]. It is therefore possible that SMR could have direct or
82 indirect effects on thermal compromises via effects on sociability. Similarly, maximum aerobic metabolic
83 rate (MMR) is directly related to aerobic scope (AS; equal to $MMR - SMR$), locomotor ability, and
84 potentially the ability to recover from burst-type anaerobic activity [26-28]. In many ectothermic species,
85 MMR and AS are sensitive to acute and chronic shifts in temperature and so may influence thermal
86 preferences [16]. In addition, aerobic capacity can positively correlate with competitive ability [29], and
87 so animals with a higher MMR may be more social if they are able to overcome potential costs of
88 grouping by out-competing other group members for resources.

89 We studied these issues in the three-spine stickleback *Gasterosteus aculeatus*, a shoaling fish species [30,
90 31] that is frequently used as a model for studying collective behaviour [32-34]. Water temperatures in
91 this species' natural habitat can show wide temporal and spatial variation, in some cases spanning a 15°C
92 range on daily and annual bases [35]. This makes it an ideal species for studying general behavioural
93 responses to thermal heterogeneity which remain relevant to the animal's natural ecology. Specifically,
94 we aimed to address the following questions: (1) Do individuals differ in their preferred temperature?; (2)
95 Do individuals vary in the extent to which they will deviate from their own preferred temperature to
96 associate with conspecifics?; and (3) Does the willingness to deviate from a preferred thermal regime
97 depend on interactions among sociability, temperature preference, and metabolic traits? Our results

98 provide insight into the relative costs and benefits of sociability and the extent to which environmental
99 temperature can shape interactions between individual animals and their social environment.

100 **METHODS**

101 *Study Animals*

102 The sticklebacks used in this study were the second generation progeny of individuals collected in January
103 2014 from the River Endrick catchment (56°03'N, 4°22'W). All fish were generated using *in vitro*
104 fertilisation from 2 parents. We used a total of 49 haphazardly sampled focal individuals for temperature
105 preference and behavioural experiments, comprising 5 fish from each of 10 families (4 fish in the case of
106 one family). In addition to focal fish, 5 siblings from each of these 10 families were used to act as stimulus
107 shoals in shoaling trials. When generating families, each male or female parent was used only once.

108 Approximately 6-8 months after hatching (February 23, 2016), juvenile focal fish from each family were
109 tagged with one of five colours of visible implant elastomer (Northwest Marine Technology Inc., Shaw
110 Island, USA) on either the right or left side of the dorsal fin. Individuals from each family were then
111 moved to 5 separate tanks such that each tank contained one individual from each family (10 fish per
112 tank with the exception of one tank that had 9 fish). Additionally, the non-focal siblings were held in
113 separate tanks per family.

114 Focal fish were measured for body mass and length at this point (mean initial mass (m) = 425 ± 126 mg;
115 mean initial total length (TL) = 335 ± 29 mm; measurements are presented \pm standard deviation). All focal
116 fish were weighed and measured again approximately 6 months later (m = 807 ± 118 mg; TL = 387 ± 30
117 mm). Fish were kept at a constant photoperiod of 12h light 12h dark throughout the study. Holding tanks
118 were kept at 12°C with in a recirculating aquarium system with biological, mechanical, and UV filtration
119 that was maintained with regular input of dechlorinated tap water. Fish were fed twice a day with frozen
120 bloodworms.

121 *Individual Temperature Preference*

122 Fish were scored individually for temperature preference using a shuttlebox tank (Loligo Systems, Tjele,
123 Denmark) consisting of two 30 cm diameter circular tanks joined by an 8 cm long connecting section. The
124 tank was filled with water to a depth of 5 cm, and both of the two sub-chambers had an inlet and an
125 outlet, connected by tubing to two separate external buffer tanks. The temperatures in each buffer tank
126 could be increased or decreased independently, and water fed to each side of the shuttlebox tank to alter
127 the temperature of that side. External heating and cooling units connected to the buffer tanks gave a
128 maximum possible temperature range of 4°C to 24°C. The inflows and outflows of the shuttlebox tank
129 were arranged such that water flowed clockwise around one section and anti-clockwise around the other,
130 minimising mixing between the chambers. Water entering the shuttlebox tank passed over a
131 temperature probe which was connected to external temperature sensors and a data acquisition module
132 (DAQ-M, Loligo Systems, Denmark). These were in turn connected to a computer running ShuttleSoft
133 software (Loligo Systems, Denmark), which could therefore control the temperature in each side of the
134 shuttlebox tank independently. The computer was also connected to an infra-red sensitive camera (uEye,
135 Imaging Development Systems GmbH, Obersulm, Germany), one meter above the tank and looking
136 down, which allowed the software to track a fish placed in the tank by contrast. The tank was lit from
137 below by two infra-red spotlights to increase the contrast of the fish. Two LED lamps provided faint
138 illumination to the shuttlebox tank, which was kept behind black curtains for the duration of trials to
139 minimise disturbance to the fish.

140 Fish were transferred between holding tanks and experimental tanks in a bucket of water. Fish were first
141 left in the tank for 16 h overnight (from 17:00 to 09:00) with the software set in “static” mode, during
142 which each side was kept at a constant temperature, here 12.5°C and 15.5°C ± 0.2°C. After this point, the
143 system was set to the “dynamic” mode. During this time, fish were able to explore the two sides for eight
144 hours, between 09:00 and 17:00. In dynamic mode, the software maintained a set difference in
145 temperature between the two sections (here 3°C), but altered the actual temperatures based on the
146 location of the fish within the tank. If the fish were in the cooler section, the temperature of both
147 chambers was decreased at a rate of 2°C h⁻¹, maintaining the set differential between them. Should the
148 fish move to the warmer chamber, both sides increased in temperature at this same rate. The fish was
149 therefore able to behaviourally regulate the temperature that it experienced. Data were logged once per
150 second, including fish position and the temperatures in each side of the shuttlebox. Preferred
151 temperatures are reported as the modal temperature experienced by the fish during the full 8 hours of
152 its time in dynamic mode (note that the modal temperature is robust to the duration of the time period
153 used to determine preferred temperature).

154 *Social Behaviour and Thermal Compromise*

155 Fish were then scored for social behaviour in varying thermal environments over five successive trials,
156 each of which ran for 30 min using the same shuttlebox tank. For these trials two transparent 12 cm
157 diameter PVC cylinders were placed in the centre of each shuttlebox chamber to allow the placement of a
158 physically isolated shoal of five sticklebacks. Small holes were drilled into the sides of these cylinders. An
159 empty cylinder acted as a control when required. Fish making up the stimulus shoals were full kin of focal
160 fish, and reared in the same tank until tagging. During each trial the proportion of time the fish spent in
161 either chamber of the shuttlebox was quantified.

162 Trials investigating changes in spatial usage of the tank in response to the presence of a group were
163 performed with static temperatures which did not vary based on the location of the focal fish. Each trial
164 consisted of a different treatment condition as follows: In the first trial, one shuttlebox chamber was kept
165 at 12.5°C and the other at 15.5°C, with neither side containing a shoal. In trials 2 and 3 a stimulus shoal
166 was placed in the cylinder on either the warm or cool section for 30 min, then moved to the opposite
167 section for another 30 minutes. Since the shoal was physically moved from one side of the shuttlebox to
168 the other between trials 2 and 3, the order in which these trials were carried out was varied among
169 individuals in a family such that half of individuals began with the shoal on the warm side, then had it
170 moved to the cool side, and half the other way round. All fish in the stimulus shoal were netted
171 simultaneously and transferred between sides of the tank as quickly as possible to minimize stress from
172 disturbance.

173 Space use within each trial was quantified using the ratio of the time (s) spent on the cool side to time
174 spent on the warm side. The degree to which fish changed behaviour from when they were alone based
175 on the presence of a shoal was calculated as the change in space use (as a ratio of time) between a trial
176 with no shoal present and the trials with a shoal present on either the cool side or warm side. These
177 figures were then changed to a percentage, with 50% meaning no preference for either side, 100% being
178 all time spent on the warmer side, and 0% being all time spent on the cooler side.

179 Finally, in trials 4 and 5, both sides of the tank were set to 14°C (the average temperature across the
180 shuttlebox chambers in the static choice trials), and the trials repeated again, once with the shoal in each
181 section. As in trials 2 and 3, the order of shoal placement on each side was varied between individuals.
182 These trials allowed quantification of sociability without a temperature differential. Individual sociability

183 score was a unitless value, equivalent to the mean percentage of time spent in the same chamber as the
184 stimulus shoal across trials 4 and 5.

185 *Estimation of Metabolic Rates*

186 One week after all temperature preference and social trials had taken place, metabolic rates of the focal
187 fish were estimated using intermittent stopped-flow respirometry [36, 37]. Each day at approximately
188 14:00 h, eight fish that had been fasted for 36 h were subjected to exhaustive exercise by manually
189 chasing the fish in a circular tank (50 cm diameter) with a water depth of 10 cm [27, 38]. All fish were
190 exhausted, defined as being non-responsive to additional stimuli and would not correct themselves if
191 turned upside down, within 3 min of chasing. Fish were immediately transferred to individual cylindrical
192 50 mL glass respirometers; transfer time was always less than 20 s. For all measurements, water oxygen
193 content was quantified once every 2 s using a Firesting 4-channel oxygen meter and associated sensors
194 (PyroScience GmbH, Aachen, Germany). Rates of oxygen uptake were then calculated in 3 min intervals
195 during a 20 min closed phase in the respirometers, and the maximum rate of oxygen uptake measured
196 during this time by measuring the slope of oxygen decline in each chamber and accounting for the
197 chamber water volume (and associated tubing), minus the volume of the fish (assuming 1 g of fish
198 approximates 1 ml). The maximum rate during this time was taken as MMR (in $\text{mg O}_2 \text{ h}^{-1}$). The fish were
199 then left undisturbed overnight. Respirometers were located within a water bath kept at 12°C. Every 10
200 min an automated flush pump would switch on or off. When off, respirometers were sealed and the
201 decrease in oxygen content could be analysed to indicate rate of oxygen uptake. When open,
202 respirometers would be flushed with aerated water. Oxygen content within chambers was always above
203 75% air saturation. Fish were removed from respirometers at around 10:00 h the following day. Once fish
204 were removed, chambers were re-sealed and left to run empty for at least 1 h to control for background
205 bacterial oxygen consumption (chambers were cleaned daily with bleach and bacterial oxygen
206 consumption was always less than 10% of the oxygen uptake by fish). Whole animal standard metabolic
207 rate (SMR; $\text{mg O}_2 \text{ h}^{-1}$) was estimated by first calculating rates of oxygen uptake from slopes as described
208 for MMR, then determining the lowest 10th percentile of measurements taken throughout the
209 measurement period, excluding the first 5 h of confinement in the chambers.. Absolute aerobic scope
210 (AS) was calculated as the difference between MMR and SMR. Due to a technical issue with the
211 respirometry setup, some data did not record correctly. Therefore the actual sample sizes were 25 for
212 SMR and AS, and 41 for MMR. These samples recorded normally and can be considered to be
213 representative of the larger population of fish in the study.

214 **Data and Statistical Analyses**

215 All data are available in the Mendeley Data Repository (<http://dx.doi.org/10.17632/34npwr97vn.1>).
216 Analyses were performed in R (R core team) using linear mixed-effects models (LME) using the package
217 “lme4” [39]. The first used tank spatial usage as a response variable (an individual’s mean position in a
218 specific trial, ranging from 100% cool side to 100% warm side.) Explanatory variables were preferred
219 temperature (of that individual), location of the shoal (3 levels: warm side, cold side, no shoal), sociability
220 (of that individual at an intermediate temperature), log body mass, log MMR, and the interaction
221 between sociability and shoal location.

222 Two additional LMEs were created to explore relationships between metabolic rate and sociability. These
223 models each had sociability as a response variable, and log body mass as an explanatory variable. One
224 model had log MMR as an explanatory variable, whilst the other had both log SMR and log AS as
225 explanatory variables. These models were created separately to account for the difference in sample
226 sizes between SMR/AS and MMR. For all models and tests, $p < 0.05$ was used as the significance

227 threshold; non-significant model terms were systematically removed in a backwards-step model selection
228 process based on AIC scores [40]. Model assumptions were verified by examining residuals compared to
229 the fitted values. It was found that families varied in metabolic rate, therefore family was included as a
230 random effect in all models. Additionally, individual ID was included in the model of spatial tank usage to
231 account for the effect of repeated measures on the same individual. Finally, Julian date was added as a
232 fixed effect to control for any systematic changes in mean thermal preference across individuals through
233 time.

234 ANOVA was performed on models to obtain F values Model r^2 values were computed using the MuMIn
235 1.9.13 package for R [41]. This included marginal r^2 (r^2_m) and conditional r^2 (r^2_c), which indicate the
236 variance explained by fixed factors and by both fixed and random factors, respectively [42]. Full details of
237 model terms and output can be found in Supplementary Tables S1 and S2.

238 Tests for correlations between variables were performed using Pearson's product-moment correlation
239 coefficients (r), and tests for differences among families in preferred temperature and sociability were
240 performed using Friedman rank sum tests (Q).

241 RESULTS

242 *Individual Temperature Preference*

243 Individuals showed a wide range of preferred temperatures, ranging from 9.68°C to 19.82°C. Individuals
244 with a lower body mass preferred higher temperatures (Figure 1; Pearson correlation coefficient: $r = -$
245 0.40, $p = 0.006$). Even after correction for body mass using residuals of the relationship between
246 preferred temperature and mass, there remained a 3.92°C range of preferred temperatures among
247 individuals (12.67°C – 16.59°C). Subsequent statistical models do not use these corrected values, but
248 instead use raw temperature preferences with body mass included as a covariate. There was no effect of
249 SMR, MMR, or AS on preferred temperature among individuals. Families did not differ in preferred
250 temperature (Friedman test: $Q_4 = 6.54$, $p = 0.161$)

251 *The Effect of Behavioural and Metabolic Traits on Thermal Compromise*

252 When a shoal of conspecifics was added to either side of the tank, fish spent more time on that side of
253 the tank (Figure 2; LME: $F_{2,68} = 81.66$, $p < 0.001$; Table S1). However, the degree to which fish changed their
254 space use in the presence of conspecifics – and therefore, the temperature they experienced – differed
255 greatly among individuals (Figure 3). This difference was modulated by their preferred temperature: fish
256 with a preference for warmer temperatures when alone spent more time in the warmer environment,
257 regardless of the location of the shoal (Figure 3; LME: $F_{1,68} = 7.90$, $p = 0.009$).

258 The tendency of fish to change their space use upon addition of a shoal was also dependent on
259 sociability. When the stimulus shoal was in the cool environment, the fish that were more social showed
260 a greater tendency to move towards the shoal (Figure 4B, left panel; LME: $t_{1,68} = -4.74$, $p < 0.001$). When
261 the shoal was on the warm side, however, there was no effect of sociability on space use (Figure 4B, right
262 panel; LME: $t_{1,68} = 0.06$, $p < 0.956$). Sociability did not affect space use when the shoal was not present
263 (Figure 4B, central panel; Pearson correlation coefficient: $r = 0.08$, $p = 0.581$), nor did it have any effect on
264 preferred temperature (Pearson correlation coefficient: $r = 0.08$, $p = 0.622$). Families did not differ in
265 sociability (Friedman test: $Q_4 = 4.80$, $p = 0.308$)

266 The effect of a shoal in the cooler environment on space use by the focal individual was greater than the
267 effect of a shoal in the warmer environment (Figure 2; LME, effect of cool side shoal: $t_{2,68} = -7.31$, $p <$
268 0.001; effect of warm side shoal: $t_{2,68} = 5.30$, $p < 0.001$). There was also greater variance in spatial

269 positioning of focal individuals when the shoal was on the cool side compared to the warm side
270 (coefficients of variance: cool side shoal = 1916.32; warm side shoal = 1336.37). Smaller individuals also
271 spent more time in the warmer environment across all shoal treatments (Figure 1; LME: $F_{1,68} = 4.26$, $p =$
272 0.048) mirroring their tendency towards higher preferred temperatures when alone.

273 Individual fish varied in their SMR, MMR, and AS after correcting for body mass. Sociability decreased
274 with increasing SMR (Figure 5; LME: $F_{1,23} = 7.35$, $p = 0.012$; Table S2) and increasing MMR (LME: $F_{1,37} =$
275 4.49 , $p = 0.041$), while AS had no effect on sociability (LME: $F_{1,16} = 0.22$, $p = 0.644$). Animals with a higher
276 SMR spent more time away from the shoal when the shoal was on the warmer side (Pearson correlation;
277 $r=0.42$, $p=0.019$). No other links were found among preferred temperature, tank spatial usage and any of
278 SMR, MMR or AS. Full details on these correlations can be found in Table S3.

279 **DISCUSSION**

280 These results demonstrate that animals will compromise exposure to their individually preferred thermal
281 regime in order to associate with conspecifics. However, preferred temperature still influenced where
282 individuals chose to go when a group was present, and therefore the degree of thermal compromise that
283 each individual experienced. Almost all fish shifted towards the shoal's location in either a warm or cool
284 environment, but the magnitude of this shift depended upon individual temperature preference. Many
285 fish had an individual preferred temperature above both even the warmer environment, but were still
286 willing to make a profound thermal compromise to associate with the shoal on the cooler side.

287 These results not only indicate that the environment could be an important modulator of group cohesion
288 in gregarious species, but also that exposure to non-preferred temperatures may be a compromise
289 associated with group living that varies among groupmates. In the specific case of sticklebacks, water
290 temperatures in this species' natural habitat can show wide temporal and spatial variation, in some cases
291 spanning a 15°C range on daily and annual bases [35]. Furthermore, riverine systems similar to that from
292 which the experimental fish were sourced can have microthermal gradients of up to 7°C on a scale of
293 centimetres to meters, based on changing depth, shading, and floating vegetation [43]. In the wild,
294 sticklebacks exist in variable shoal sizes ranging from a few to dozens of individuals [44]. Depending on
295 factors such as the degree of environmental heterogeneity and the area or volume occupied by the
296 group, it is likely that sticklebacks experience trade-offs between social group membership and exposure
297 to preferred temperatures. Alternatively, individuals may minimize this tradeoff by grouping with
298 individuals that prefer similar temperatures.

299 Exposure to a non-preferred thermal regime is likely to affect the physiology and behaviour of individual
300 animals within social groups. The mechanistic basis for individual variation in thermal preference in
301 ectotherms is not well understood, and the exact physiological costs of being at a non-preferred
302 temperature in ectotherms is in need of further study. However, the available evidence suggests that
303 exposure to temperatures that are warmer or cooler than an individual's preference will affect metabolic
304 demand and energy budgeting among growth, activity and possibly reproduction [22]. If individuals
305 experience varying degrees of thermal compromise whilst part of a group, foraging activity of the group
306 may not be aligned to the demands of each individual. Additional work could examine how foraging and
307 growth rates change among individuals in response to the temperature experienced by the group. For
308 ectotherms, exposure to cooler or warmer temperatures than preferred could cause an individual to
309 display more or less activity than that of the group, potentially increasing their conspicuousness to
310 predators via the oddity effect [45]. Individual movement speed has been shown to be a key trait
311 allowing individuals to direct group movements in animal collectives [32], and so changes in movement
312 speed could influence which individuals become leaders within groups. Aerobic scope can be affected by

313 temperature in ectotherms [36], and a reduced aerobic scope could also constrain the ability to
314 simultaneously feed and digest food while continuing to match the performance of the group [46, 47].
315 For sticklebacks, growth can occur over wide range of temperatures (3-29°C), with an optimum for
316 growth occurring around 12-24°C, depending on available rations [35, 48]. Finally, it is worth noting
317 escape performance in fish is affected by temperature [26, 49], and fish exposed to non-preferred
318 temperatures could experience a reduced ability to avoid predators during an attack.

319 Sociability influenced the degree of thermal compromise individuals made to be with the group, but only
320 when the group was located in the cooler environment. When the shoal was in the warmer environment,
321 nearly all fish moved towards the group regardless of their own level of sociability. This may have been
322 due to the fact that the warmer environment was closer in temperature to the individual preferences of
323 the majority of fish, which may have therefore masked the effect of sociability. The overall picture that
324 emerges from these findings is that individual fish did not elect to move towards cooler temperatures
325 unless a shoal was present in that location and they themselves were relatively social, or unless they
326 already prefer to be at cooler temperatures. The reasons for this shift are unknown but, under conditions
327 of high food availability, warmer temperatures can increase growth rate in ectotherms until the point at
328 which their optimal thermal range for growth is exceeded [50]. This effect could also explain why smaller
329 individuals in the present study preferred warmer temperatures. Studies have shown that individual fish
330 may prefer temperatures which represent their own optimum temperature for growth [23]. In this study,
331 many fish, and especially those that were smaller, had a preferred temperature above even the warmer
332 temperature presented in the shoaling trials, therefore both environments may have presented a
333 compromise, but differing in magnitude. This suggests that there may be relationships among size,
334 preferred temperature and sociability which may be important for group formation and cohesion.

335 An individual's tendency to associate with a shoal depended on the temperature of the shoal, and those
336 individuals that associated most with a shoal on the warm side associated least when the shoal was on
337 the cool side. Very few individuals were observed that either readily joined, or clearly avoided the shoal
338 at both temperatures. We therefore suggest that the observed behaviours are not just the result of
339 individual variation in sociability, but interactions among sociability, ambient temperature and likely
340 intrinsic factors such as body mass or metabolic rate. Further study into interactions among factors may
341 elucidate the degree to which exposure to non-preferred temperatures may impose a cost in terms of
342 locomotor performance (and by extension, foraging ability and predator avoidance), growth, or
343 reproduction.

344 Metabolic traits, as measured at a common temperature, were not directly related to the temperature
345 preference of individuals, or the degree of thermal compromise they made. Individuals with a lower SMR,
346 however, were more social and so individual metabolic demand may indirectly influence thermal
347 compromises experienced by individual group members via effects on sociability. Group living can
348 increase competition for food [9], and individuals with increased maintenance costs have previously been
349 found to be less social, presumably to increase their own food intake [25]. Previous work has observed a
350 negative correlation between preferred temperature and SMR among individual fish [22], a relationship
351 that was not observed in the current study. It is possible that the relationships among metabolic traits
352 and temperature preference vary among species or are labile in response to environmental factors [51].
353 A caveat with the current findings is that SMR and MMR were measured at a single temperature, while
354 fish in the behavioural studies would have been experiencing variable environmental temperatures.
355 Given that SMR and MMR can be affected by temperature in ectotherms [36, 52], additional work is
356 required to determine how reaction norms for metabolic traits among individuals across temperatures
357 align with reaction norms for sociability across temperatures.

358 Any effects on behaviour and physiology experienced by individuals by exposure to non-preferred
359 temperatures could have emergent effects on how social groups are formed, their composition, and their
360 functioning as a unit. Social groups such as fish shoals are believed to form through a combination of
361 active and passive processes [53]. Active group assortment occurs when individuals preferentially
362 associate with conspecifics of a particular phenotype, while passive assortment occurs when individuals
363 associate in space and time due to mutual environmental association, perhaps based on factors such as
364 nutritional requirements, or sensitivity to environmental stressors [54]. The current study also suggests
365 that temperature preference of individuals may interact with sociability to affect these mechanisms of
366 group formation. If given a choice, individuals should associate with conspecifics with a similar preferred
367 temperature to themselves. However, associations based on temperature preference could also occur
368 passively if individuals with similar thermal preferences tend to occupy the same spatial location.
369 Regardless of the mechanism, if social groups are comprised of individuals with a similar thermal
370 preference, this could cause clustering of individuals with traits correlated with thermal preference and
371 possibly influence assortative mating. Sticklebacks in particular have been shown to demonstrate a
372 degree of shoal fidelity in the wild [44]. While it is likely that familiarity plays an important role in
373 facilitating stable group composition [55], common preferences for temperature among individuals could
374 initially determine the conspecifics with which they associate.

375 In conclusion, the data here demonstrate that individuals will deviate from their preferred environmental
376 conditions to associate with a group of conspecifics and that thermal compromise in particular is likely to
377 be a cost experienced by individual fish within shoals. Additional work is needed to precisely quantify the
378 costs of exposure to non-preferred temperatures in a social context and how effects on physiology and
379 behaviour may alter the functioning of the group as a whole.

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388 **ETHICS STATEMENT**

389 The procedures described in this paper comply with animal care guidelines approved within the UK and
390 were conducted under Home Office Project 60/4461.

391 **DATA ACCESSIBILITY**

392 All data are available in the Mendeley Data Repository (<http://dx.doi.org/10.17632/34npwr97vn.1>).

393 **COMPETING INTERESTS**

394 The authors declare no competing interests.

395 **AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS**

396 SSK, BC, and BA conceived the study; BC collected the data; BC analysed the data with assistance from
397 SSK and BA; BC and SSK drafted the manuscript; all authors contributed to further manuscript
398 development and gave final approval for publication.

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544 **Figure 1.** Smaller fish had significantly higher preferred temperatures (Pearson correlation; $r=-0.41$,
545 $p=0.005$). Each point represents one individual fish. Shaded area is 95% CI around regression line; $y = -$
546 $0.004x + 18.38$.

547 **Figure 2.** Compared to their position when no shoal was present, animals spent significantly more time
548 on whichever side the shoal was located (LME; $F_{2,68} = 81.66$, $p<0.001$). This violin plot shows where, on
549 average, fish spent time in the two-chambered tank under three experimental shoal positions. Each point
550 represents one individual fish. Diamonds represents the mean \pm standard deviation. The width of each
551 violin represents observation density at that y value.

552 **Figure 3.** Individual fish vary greatly in the degree to which they associate with conspecifics at different
553 temperatures. White points show the fish's tank usage with no shoal, and black points show tank usage
554 when a shoal is added. Black points connected by a red arrow to the white point represent the shift in the
555 fish's tank usage when a shoal is added to the warmer side. Conversely, black points connected by a blue
556 arrow to the white point represent the shift in the fish's tank usage when a shoal is added to the cooler
557 side. Most fish tended to shift towards the shoal on either side.

558 **Figure 4.** (A) Whilst individuals changed location based on the position of conspecifics, individuals with a
559 higher temperature preference always spend more time on the warmer side (LME; $F_{1,27} = 7.90$, $p=0.009$).
560 Regression line shows the same slope for all three panels with a different intercept for each level of the
561 "shoal location" variable as part of a linear mixed effects model. (B) More social fish spent more time
562 with the shoal when it was on the cool side (LME; $t_{2,67} = -4.74$, $p<0.001$), but not when the shoal was on
563 the warm side.. Lines represent significant trends based on linear mixed effects models described in text.
564 Equations for lines in panel A are: $y = 4.26x - 113.04$ for the shoal on the cooler side; $y = 4.26x - 61.26$ for
565 no shoal; and $y = 4.26x - 14.02$ for the shoal on the warmer side. The equation for the line in panel B is y
566 $= -1.36x + 56.57$. Shaded area is 95% CI around each regression line. Refer to Table S1 for further
567 statistical analysis.

568 **Figure 5.** Fish with a higher standard metabolic rate (SMR) were less social. Sociability score was taken as
569 an unitless value, equivalent to the percentage of time an individual spent with the shoal in the absence
570 of a temperature differential. SMR is shown as residual values after correcting for variation in body mass.
571 Shaded area is 95% CI around regression line. The equation for the line is $y = -14.47 + 73.27$. Refer to
572 Table S2 for further statistical analysis.

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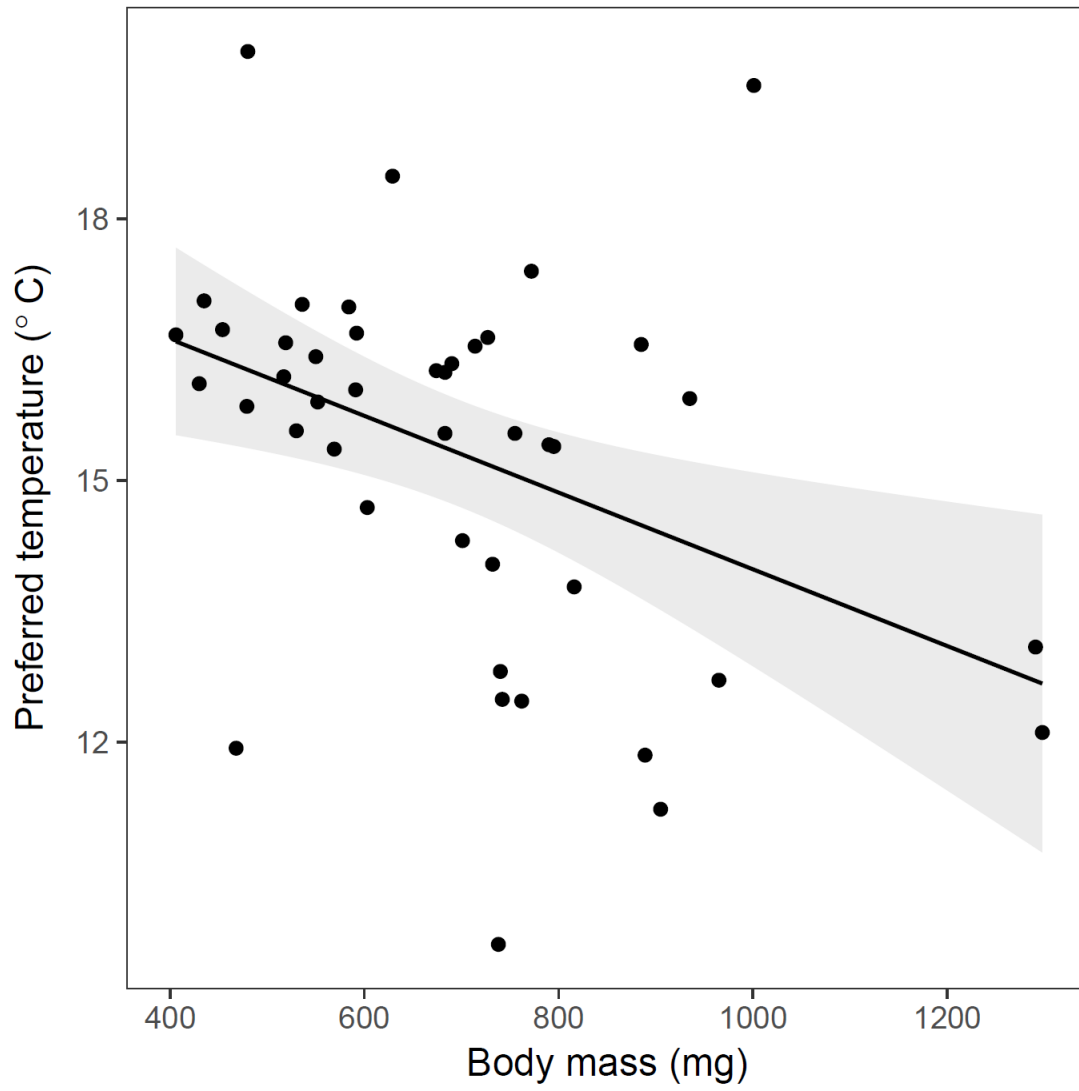
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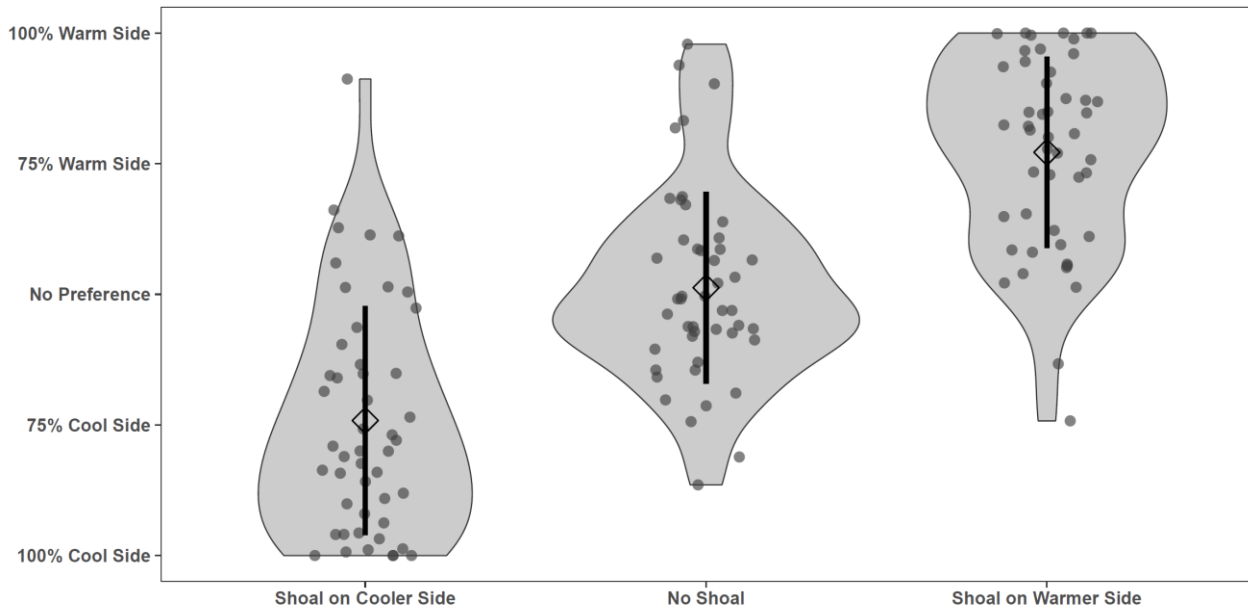
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583 FIGURE 1



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596 FIGURE 2



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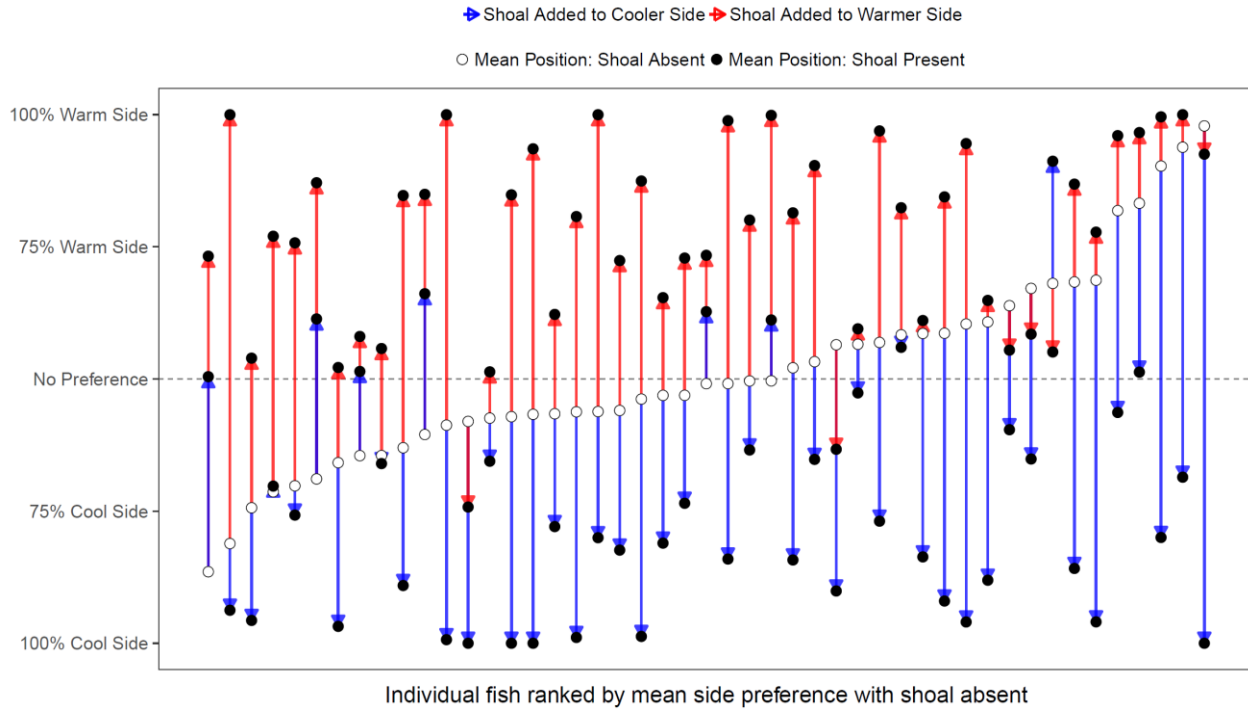
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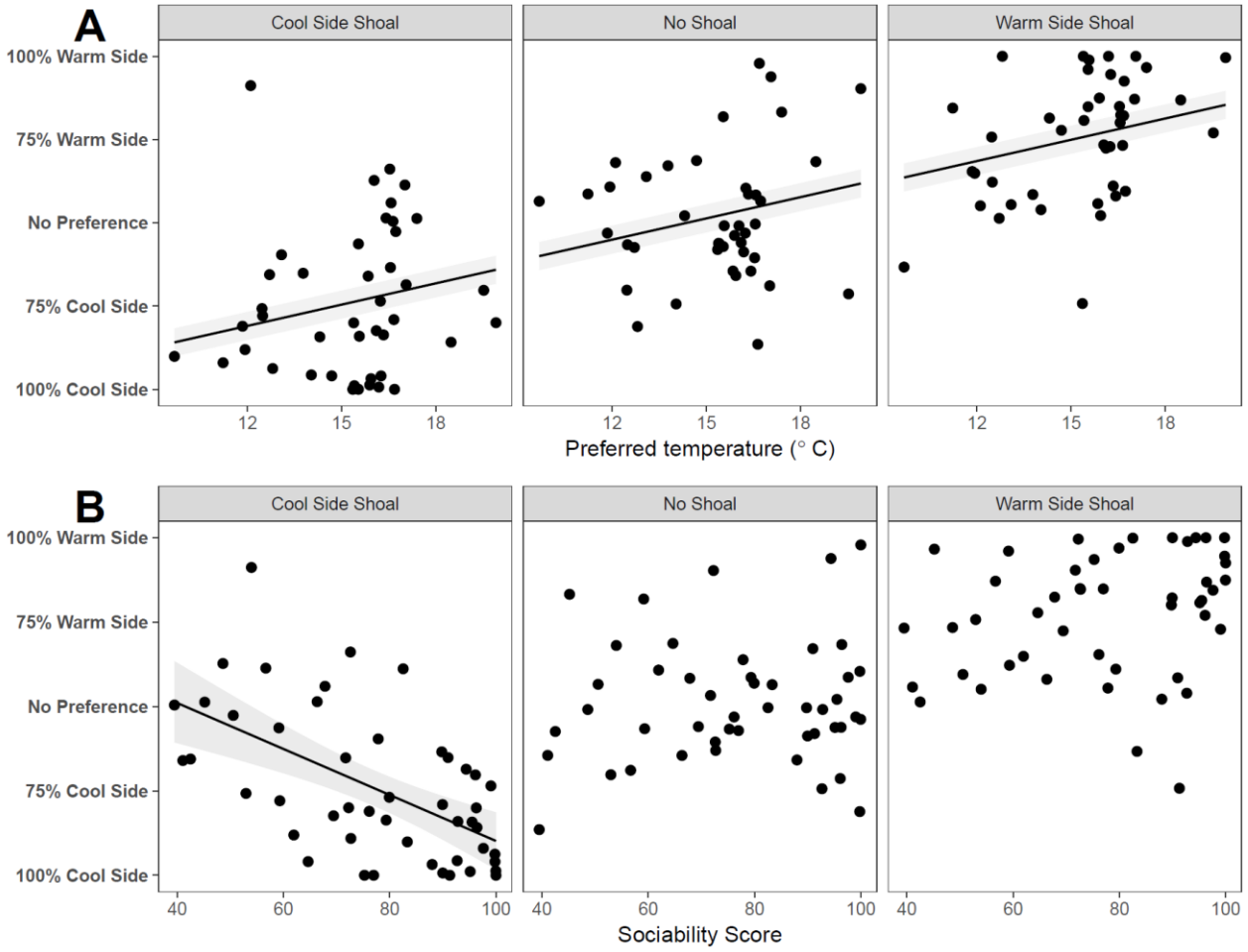
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617 FIGURE 3





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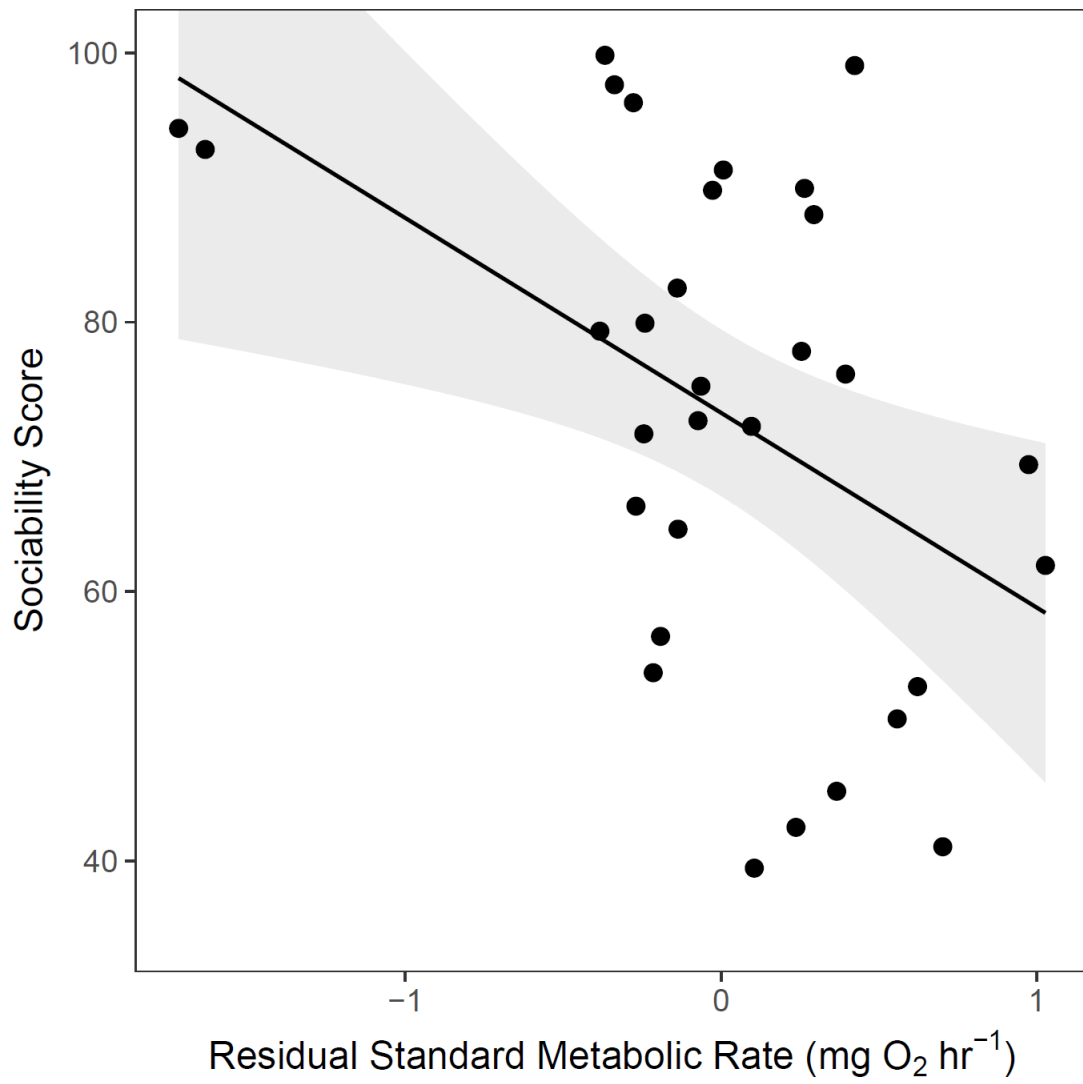
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651 FIGURE 5



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