

1 **The impact of water pH on association preferences in fish**

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3 Short title: Impact of water pH on association preferences

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5 Tanja K. Kleinhappel*, Oliver H. P. Burman, Elizabeth A. John, Anna Wilkinson & Thomas

6 W. Pike

7 School of Life Sciences, University of Lincoln, Lincoln, LN6 7DL, UK

8 * Correspondence to: tkleinhappel@lincoln.ac.uk

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10 ORCID

11 Tanja K. Kleinhappel <https://orcid.org/0000-0003-1637-8780>

12 Oliver H. P. Burman <https://orcid.org/0000-0003-0122-1190>

13 Elizabeth A. John <https://orcid.org/0000-0001-9281-536X>

14 Anna Wilkinson <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-4500-0181>

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19

20 ABSTRACT

21 Acidification of lakes and rivers, as a consequence of anthropogenic interference, can cause
22 fundamental changes to biological and ecological processes. One of the main consequences
23 of a reduction in water pH for aquatic organisms is the disruption of their chemosensory
24 abilities, as the detection of chemical cues underpins a wide range of decision-making
25 processes; for example, a reduction to low pH has been shown to interfere with predator
26 avoidance and the detection of foraging cues. Moreover, aquatic organisms are known to
27 make widespread use of chemical information to inform their social behaviour, although we
28 have a comparably poor understanding of how this is impacted by water acidification,
29 especially their shoaling behaviour. Using a standard behavioural assay, we therefore
30 investigated the impact of low water pH on the social interactions mediated by diet-derived
31 chemical cues in three-spined sticklebacks (*Gasterosteus aculeatus*), by quantifying social
32 behaviour in water that varied either experimentally or naturally in pH. In both cases we
33 predicted that association patterns would be disrupted by low pH conditions, as reduced pH
34 has shown to interfere with the perception of chemical cues in other non-social contexts.
35 Consistent with this prediction, our results demonstrate that an acute, short-term reduction in
36 water pH caused a breakdown in the diet-mediated social interaction patterns seen in more
37 alkaline water, although, interestingly, the pattern of associations for fish tested in naturally
38 acidic water was both more complex and in a direction that was precisely contrary to our
39 predictions. Overall the findings provide insights into the potential effects of an acute
40 reduction in water pH on fish communication and social interaction patterns, which may have
41 implication for various individual, group, population and community-level processes.

42

43 Keywords: anthropogenic interference, chemical cues, *Gasterosteus aculeatus*, social
44 network, sticklebacks, water acidity

45

46 Introduction

47 Anthropogenic acidification of lakes and rivers can have dramatic and far-reaching
48 implications for the structure and function of aquatic ecosystems (Johnson & Webster, 1977;
49 Ikuta, Suzuki, & Kitamura, 2003; Petrin, Englund, & Malmqvist, 2008; Leduc, Munday,
50 Brown, & Ferrari, 2013). Acidification occurs primarily as a result of acidified rain or snow
51 depositions, whereby the emissions of sulfur dioxides and nitrogen oxides into the
52 atmosphere form highly acidic precipitations that can have long lasting effects on freshwater
53 pH (Galloway, Norton, & Church, 1983; Muniz, 1990). Aquatic ecosystems can also be
54 affected by climate-change-related acidification due to the increased uptake of CO₂ from the
55 atmosphere (Caldeira, & Wickett, 2005, Weiss, Pötter, Steiger, Kruppert, Frost, & Tollrian,
56 2018). Humic acid, a result of degrading organic matter, can be another cause of freshwater
57 acidification (Steinberg, 2013). Although the underlying mechanisms of acidification can
58 differ, the chemical alterations associated with it can lead to fundamental changes at the level
59 of both the individual and the community (reviewed in Leduc et al., 2013).

60 One particular consequence of the acidification of aquatic ecosystems for the organisms
61 living within them, is the disruption to their chemosensory abilities (Leduc et al., 2013). The
62 detection of chemical cues is important for a variety of decision-making processes, as
63 chemical information is used in a wide range of social contexts including mate selection
64 (Milinski, Griffiths, Wegner, Reusch, Haas-Assenbaum, & Boehm, 2005; Rafferty &
65 Boughman, 2006), kin recognition (Gerlach, Hodgins-Davis, Avolio, & Schunter, 2008;
66 Mehliis, Bakker, & Frommen, 2008) and dominance interactions (Barata, Fine, Hubbard,

67 Almeida, Frade, Sorensen, & Canario 2008), as well as inter- and intra-individual shoaling
68 decisions (Atton, Galef, Hoppitt, Webster, & Laland, 2014; Kleinhappel, Burman, John,
69 Wilkinson, & Pike, 2014b, 2016a, 2016b). Chemical cues also play a major role in homing
70 (Bett, Hinch, Dittman, & Yun, 2016), microhabitat choice (Kim, Grant, & Brown, 2011),
71 prey detection (Atema, Holland, & Ikehara, 1980; Hara, 2006; Derby & Sorensen, 2008) and
72 predator avoidance (Chivers & Smith, 1998; Brown, Paige, & Godin 2000; Wisenden, 2000).
73 As a result, any interference with the chemosensory ability of animals may fundamentally
74 alter their responses to perceived environmental and social information, and therefore impact
75 directly on survival and fitness.

76 Experimental studies have shown that a reduction in freshwater pH can indeed change an
77 animal's behavioural response towards chemical stimuli. For instance, acute and chronic
78 exposure to a lower than normal water pH can interfere with the detection of foraging cues
79 (Lemly & Smith, 1985; Lemly & Smith, 1987; Royce-Malmgren & Watson, 1987) and
80 weaken or prevent predator avoidance behaviour (Leduc, Kelly, & Brown, 2004; Leduc, Roh,
81 & Brown, 2009; Ou et al., 2015, Weiss et al. 2018). Reduced pH conditions have also been
82 demonstrated to change the reproductive behaviour of aquatic animals (Johnson & Webster,
83 1977; Ikuta, Munakata, Aida, Amano, & Kitamura, 2001; Ikuta et al., 2003). Overall,
84 experiments indicate that subtle changes in pH can dramatically affect important aspects of
85 behaviour in many aquatic animals. This is supported by recent studies in ocean acidification
86 that have found that elevated CO₂ levels (resulting in acidification) can disrupt shoaling
87 preferences and shoal cohesion in coral reef fish (Nadler, Killen, McCormick, Watson, &
88 Munday 2016; Lopes, Morais, Pimentel, Rosa, Munday, Goncalves, & Faria 2016). However,
89 we still have a relatively poor understanding of the effects of freshwater acidification on
90 shoaling decisions in fish. This is important, as the organisation within social groups can

91 impact on various biological processes, including reproduction, predator avoidance, and
92 resource exploitation (Guevara, Gonzaga, Vasconcellos-Neto, & Avilès, 2011).

93 The aim of this study was therefore to test whether exposure to relatively acidic freshwater
94 (in the pH range naturally experienced by aquatic organisms) can disrupt social behaviour in
95 an aquatic model species, the three-spined stickleback (*Gasterosteus aculeatus*). Sticklebacks
96 naturally inhabit freshwater with a range of different pH values, from relatively low (e.g.
97 down to around pH 6.0) to relatively high (e.g. up to approximately pH 8.5) (MacColl, El
98 Nagar, & de Roij, 2013). Using an established behavioural assay (Kleinhappel et al., 2014b,
99 2016a, 2016b), we analysed diet-mediated inter-individual association preferences within
100 groups of fish exposed to pH levels towards the extremes of their natural range by conducting
101 two experiments: fish were tested in (1) experimentally manipulated water pH, and (2) in
102 their natural water, from varying pH habitats. In the first experiment we manipulated water
103 pH to test the impact of a short-term reduction in pH levels which can, for instance, occur as
104 a result of anthropogenic acidification (Leduc et al., 2013). In the second experiment, fish
105 inhabiting lochs of naturally varying acidity on the island of North Uist, Scotland (MacColl et
106 al., 2013) were used to test the effect of water pH on the social interactions of individuals
107 exposed to natural acidity over evolutionary time scales. Previous studies have demonstrated
108 consistent diet-mediated association preferences in this species (Ward, Hart, & Krause, 2004;
109 Atton et al., 2014; Kleinhappel et al., 2014b), with individuals within a shoal associating
110 more frequently with others receiving the same diet, likely mediated by chemical cues. At
111 least some of these studies (Kleinhappel et al., 2014b, 2016a, 2016b) were conducted in water
112 with a relatively alkaline pH, and so we predict that low water pH will disrupt the chemically
113 mediated association preferences induced by different diet treatments, while these will be
114 unaffected at higher pH.

115

116 Methods

117 *Experiment 1*

118 Subjects

119 Adult three-spined sticklebacks (*Gasterosteus aculeatus*) were caught from streams and
120 drainage ditches in Lincolnshire, UK (grid reference: TF 44880 95176) during July 2013
121 using dip nets, and were housed in the aquatics facility at the University of Lincoln (UK).
122 Fish were kept in mixed sex shoals in four separate 130 l holding tanks at a density of
123 approximately 40 fish per tank (0.3 fishL⁻¹). Holding tanks were filled with filtered and
124 aerated tap water (which maintained a stable pH between 8.2 and 8.4 over time) and
125 contained small plastic plants as enrichment. Fish were kept under a natural photoperiod and
126 water changes were performed daily. Fish in two of the tanks were fed daily with *Daphnia*-
127 and those in the other two with bloodworm (Chironomidae larvae)-based artificial diets (for
128 full details see Kleinhappel et al., 2014b). Fish were kept under these feeding conditions for a
129 minimum of 21 days before the start of the experimental trials. Prior to the start of the testing,
130 fish were non-invasively tagged with a circular barcoded tag (5mm diameter) attached to one
131 of their three dorsal spines and their standard length was measured (for details see
132 Kleinhappel, Al-Zoubi, Al-Diri, Burman, Dickinson, John, Wilkinson, & Pike, 2014a). Males
133 with visible breeding colouration and gravid females were not used for the data collection,
134 however they remained in the holding tanks together with the fish used in the behavioural
135 testing.

136 Study design

137 Shoals consisted of three size-matched fish (± 3 mm), selected pseudorandomly (depending
138 on their size) from different holding tanks. We made no differentiation between males and

139 females during the study. During data collection each group consisted of two fish fed with the
140 same diet and one fish fed on a different one, counterbalanced over diet conditions. Shoals
141 were randomly assigned to one of two treatment groups: (1) the low pH condition in which
142 fish were tested in water with a pH ranging between 6.2 to 6.4 (measured using a Benchtop
143 digital pH meter), and (2) the high pH condition in which fish were tested in a pH ranging
144 between 8.3 to 8.5, which was comparable to their normal housing water and the water used
145 in previous experiments (pH range 8.2 to 8.4, unpublished data) (Kleinhappel et al., 2014b,
146 2016a, 2016b). Experiments were conducted in artificial freshwater, the preparation of which
147 was varied in order to manipulate the water pH.

148 Artificial freshwater was prepared using the guidelines from the United States Environmental
149 Protection Agency (EPA 2002), which describes standardised methods for producing soft and
150 hard water, which vary in pH but otherwise differ only in the concentration of dissolved
151 minerals. A pH of 6.3 ± 0.1 was used for the low pH water treatment, and a pH of 8.4 ± 0.1
152 for the high pH water treatment.

153 To prepare the artificial water MgSO_4 (low pH: 7.5 mg/l; high pH: 240 mg/l), NaHCO_3 (low
154 pH: 12 mg/l; high pH: 384 mg/l) and KCl (low pH: 0.5 mg/l; high pH: 16 mg/l) were
155 dissolved in 145 L deionized water and aerated for 12 hours at room temperature. CaSO_4 (low
156 pH: 7.5 mg/l; high pH: 240mg/l) was then dissolved separately in 5 L of deionized water and
157 added. The combined solutions were aerated for an additional 24 hours to stabilize the pH of
158 the medium. The prepared water was then used for housing and testing the fish in the
159 subsequent experiment. The pH of the water was measured daily for two weeks prior to
160 testing to confirm it was stable (low pH: 6.3 ± 0.1 ; high pH: 8.4 ± 0.1).

161 Prior to testing, fish were gradually acclimatised over 48 hours to the new water conditions as
162 follows: Depending on the treatment and their final day of testing, fish were transferred from

163 their housing tanks in separate small bare (unenriched) tanks (5 litres) containing a mixture of
164 normal housing water mixed in a ratio of 50:50 with either low pH artificial water, resulting
165 in a pH ranging between 7.5 and 7.7, or high pH artificial water, resulting in a pH ranging
166 between 8.0 and 8.2 (approximately matching the standard pH of their usual housing water).
167 After 24 hours individuals were transferred into further tanks containing only the low or high
168 pH water. They had a further 24 hours to acclimatise before testing. All fish continued to
169 receive their initial (*Daphnia*- or bloodworm-based) diet and were kept in separate tanks in
170 order to control for the impact of possible familiarity between individuals on behaviour in the
171 later observations (Griffiths, 2003). These tanks were opaque and so fish in the different
172 tanks were visually and olfactorily separated from each other.

173 Behavioural assay

174 Experimental groups consisted of unique trios of fish, two fed the same diet and the
175 remaining one on a different diet (*i.e.* two bloodworm fed fish and one *Daphnia* fed fish or
176 *vice versa*), with each fish being drawn randomly from different tanks to control for potential
177 familiarity (Griffiths, 2003). At the beginning of each experimental trial, groups were placed
178 into the centre of a black circular testing tank (30cm in diameter) which was filled with 8 cm
179 depth of either high or low pH artificial water, depending on the treatment. Water in the
180 testing tanks was maintained at a constant 11 °C by placing the experimental tanks within a
181 water bath containing circulating chilled water. A webcam (Microsoft LifeCam) was
182 mounted at the top of each tank and used to collect images every 16 seconds (Kleinhappel et
183 al., 2014b, 2016a, 2016b) for one hour, using custom written Matlab (Mathworks, Natick,
184 MA) code. Image collection started immediately after releasing the groups. A total of 20
185 replicates for each pH treatment were collected, these were counterbalanced for the diet
186 treatments (*i.e.* ten replicates with two bloodworm fed fish and one *Daphnia* fed fish or *vice*

187 *versa* for both the high and low pH treatment). A total of 120 fish were therefore used for this
188 study. Individual fish were tested only once.

189 The individual position of each fish in all images was extracted by finding the spatial
190 coordinates of the centre of their tag, and used to calculate the Euclidean distance between
191 individuals. We assumed that two individuals were associating if they were within two body
192 lengths of each other (i.e. within 64 mm, twice the mean body length of all fish from the
193 study which was 32 ± 1.4 mm). This distance is within the range of inter-individual distances
194 observed in free-ranging shoals (Pitcher & Parrish, 1993) and has previously been used to
195 characterise social interactions in sticklebacks (Kleinhappel et al., 2014b, 2016a). The
196 experimenter was blind to the diet treatments when extracting proximity data from the
197 recorded images as the barcoded tag of individual fish contained no information on the diet
198 treatment they were assigned to.

199 Two different metrics were subsequently extracted from the proximity data. First, we
200 quantified the overall proportion of time fish spent associating, in order to assess whether our
201 experimental treatments caused measurable differences in sociability (i.e., the tendency to
202 interact with other fish, regardless of which individuals are being interacted with).
203 Specifically, this was defined as the overall proportion of time in which at least one pair of
204 fish was observed to be interacting. However, this tells us nothing about the precise pattern of
205 associations, as equally sociable groups could arise through either random or directed
206 interactions. To quantify the pattern of interactions we therefore constructed weighted social
207 networks using the half weight index (HWI; see Kleinhappel et al., 2014b for details), which
208 quantifies the strength of associations between all pairs of individuals within a group over the
209 time of observation, i.e. a high HWI between any two individuals indicates a high frequency
210 of interactions, while a low HWI which indicates low frequency of interactions. This allowed

211 us to quantify the difference in association patterns depending on the different diet
212 treatments.

213 *Experiment 2*

214 Subjects

215 Adult three-spined sticklebacks were captured at the end of September and the beginning of
216 October 2013 from ten discrete lochs on the island of North Uist, Scotland, which were
217 characterised as low pH (6.0 to 6.5) and high pH (8.3 to 8.5) habitats (see Table S1). A total
218 of 150 fish, 15 fish per loch, were caught using minnow traps and dip nets. Fish were housed
219 outside in replicated holding tanks (4 tanks per loch, 30 cm in diameter, without enrichment)
220 at a density of 3-4 fish per tank containing aerated water from the source loch, taken from the
221 same location as the fish. We made no differentiation between males and females during the
222 study. Fish were held for 24 hours before testing, during which they were fed to satiation with
223 either frozen bloodworm or *Daphnia*. Although this feeding period was shorter than that used
224 in the laboratory study, it is known to be long enough to elicit diet-mediated shoal choice
225 preferences in this species (Ward, Holbrook, Krause, & Hart, 2005). We also expect no
226 systematic differences between fish from different lochs as Ward et al. (2005) have shown
227 that direct experience, for instance resulting from previous encounters in the source habitat,
228 has little to no impact on their shoal choice preferences when compared to dietary cues.

229 Behavioural assay

230 As with the previous experiment, proportion of time fish spent interacting and inter-
231 individual patterns of association were assessed in free swimming fish shoals. Experimental
232 groups consisted of unique trios of fish from the same loch, two fed the same diet and the
233 remaining fish was fed with the alternate diet (e.g. two fish fed with *Daphnia* and one with

234 bloodworm or *vice versa*). Size matched fish (± 3 mm) were drawn pseudorandomly from the
235 different holding tanks and used only once during the study. For data collection, groups were
236 transferred into a grey testing tank (30 cm in diameter) filled with 8 cm depth of their natural
237 habitat water, which was maintained at 10 ± 2 °C. A camcorder (JVC Everio GZ-MG230)
238 was positioned above each tank for data collection. Tagging fish for individual identification
239 (Kleinhappel et al., 2014a) was not possible, as sticklebacks from the low pH lochs showed a
240 reduction in dorsal and ventral spines (for examples see Figures in Giles, 1983; Magalhaes,
241 D'Agostino, Hohenlohe, & MacColl, 2016). Therefore, each fish was placed into a
242 transparent cylindrical plastic compartment (5 cm in diameter) with colour markings on the
243 top identifying the specific diet treatment. Cylinders were then removed and a video was
244 taken for 60 minutes (1920×1080 resolution at 25 frames per second). Data was collected
245 for a total of 40 groups, four replicate groups per loch with 20 replicates for low pH lochs and
246 20 for the high pH lochs. For each of the lochs, two trios consisted of two bloodworm and
247 one *Daphnia* and the remaining two trios of two *Daphnia* and one bloodworm fed fish.

248 The position of the fish in each video was manually extracted every 20 seconds by following
249 the movements of each individual fish between sampling points, starting with the known
250 position of each colour-marked cylindrical plastic compartment which was unambiguously
251 identified in the video. Any ambiguities were resolved using the length of each fish. The
252 coordinates of all individuals at each time point were used to compute the Euclidean distance
253 between each fish in the group. As for the first experiment two different metrics were
254 extracted from the proximity data, the overall proportion of time spent interacting and the
255 HWI as a measure of intra-group association patterns.

256 *Data analysis*

257 Differences in the overall proportion of time spent interacting between pH treatments were
258 tested using a two sample t-tests, with logit-transformed data (Warton & Hui, 2011), while
259 differences in diet-mediated association preferences as a function of water pH were tested
260 using permutation tests (Kleinhappel et al., 2014b). We initially tested whether there were
261 any overall differences in association patterns between the low and high pH conditions and, if
262 there were, went on to test for differences within each of the two conditions separately. In
263 these permutation tests, one fish from the two on the same diet treatment was randomly
264 chosen and assigned as the focal fish, and the difference in HWI between this focal fish with
265 the other two individuals (one on the same diet, one on the different diet) was calculated. This
266 was performed for each of the groups in both treatments and the overall mean difference was
267 calculated. This was repeated 10,000 times and the proportion of mean differences less than
268 zero was used to compute the p-value for the test (Kleinhappel, et al. 2014b). When analysing
269 the data from the second experiment, we only permuted within groups from the same loch to
270 control for loch identity (Good, 2013).

271

272 *Ethical note*

273 All methods used in this study adhered to the ASAB Guidelines for the Use of Animals in
274 Research and gained local institutional ethical approval (UoL 13/45).

275

276 Results

277 *Experiment 1*

278 There was no significant difference in the overall proportion of time fish spent associating
279 between the low and the high pH treatment (two-sample t-test: $t = -0.42$, $df = 38$, $p = 0.674$,

280 Figure 1a). However, the precise pattern of social interactions differed significantly between
281 the two pH treatments (permutation test, $p = 0.026$) with fish tested in the high pH freshwater
282 showing a significant association preference for fish on the same diet treatment (permutation
283 test, $p < 0.001$) while fish tested in the low pH freshwater showed no significant preference
284 for individuals on either diet (permutation test, $p = 0.383$) (Figure 1b).

285 *Experiment 2*

286 As in the first experiment, there was no significant difference in the overall proportion of
287 time fish associated between the low pH and the high pH lochs ($t = -0.45$, $df = 38$, $p = 0.652$;
288 Figure 1c) although the pattern of social interactions differed significantly in direction
289 between the two pH treatments (permutation test, $p = 0.001$). Specifically, fish tested in their
290 naturally low pH water spent significantly more time associating with fish on the same diet
291 treatment as themselves (permutation test, $p = 0.003$), while individuals from the natural high
292 pH water associated significantly more often with fish on the different diet treatment
293 (permutation test, $p = 0.036$) (Figure 1d).

294

295 Discussion

296 The results of this study provide clear evidence that the pH of the water can affect inter-
297 individual shoaling preferences in three-spined sticklebacks. In the first experiment, the
298 artificially reduced water pH disrupted the diet-mediated inter-individual association
299 preferences that have been shown in shoal-choice tasks (Ward et al., 2004; Webster,
300 Goldsmith, Ward, & Hart, 2007), in free shoaling fish (Atton et al., 2014; Kleinhappel et al.,
301 2014b, 2016a, 2016b) and that were also observed in individuals tested in the high pH
302 condition. Interestingly, only the within-group structure of the shoals was affected by the pH

303 manipulation, there was no difference in the overall proportion of time individuals associated
304 with each other.

305 It has been suggested that behavioural impairment towards chemical cues caused by
306 freshwater acidification can either be mediated by the molecular change of the chemical cues
307 themselves (Brown, Adrian, Lewis, & Tower, 2002; Leduc, Roh, Macnaughton, Benz,
308 Rosenfeld, & Brown, 2010) or caused by a disruption of the fishes' chemosensory receptor
309 systems (Royce-Malmgren & Watson, 1987; Tierney & Atema, 1988; Moore, 1994; Brown
310 et al., 2002). Free amino acids have been postulated to underpin diet-mediated interactions
311 within shoaling fish (Atton et al., 2014; Kleinhappel et al., 2014b, 2016a) and, as the
312 isoelectric point of different free amino acids lie at different pH values (Lehninger, Nelson, &
313 Cox, 2008), pH could change the charge of the amino acid which could then interfere with
314 the amino acid receptor interaction (Royce-Malmgren & Watson, 1987). An artificial change
315 in pH has indeed been shown to change the behaviour, such as attraction or avoidance, of fish
316 towards free amino acids (Royce-Malmgren & Watson, 1987). This suggests that an acute
317 change in water pH could impact on the way free amino acids are perceived by fish and, as a
318 result, affect their association preferences. In relation to this, a recent study in ocean
319 acidification has shown that exposure to high levels of CO₂ can affect the sensitivity to
320 chemical cues in a marine fish species by compromising both the olfactory system and central
321 brain function (Porteus, Hubbard, Webster, Aerle, Canário, Santos, & Wilson 2018).

322 Contrary to our findings with the artificial freshwater, in our second experiment, individuals
323 from naturally low pH loch were able to use diet-derived chemicals to mediate their
324 association preference when tested in low pH water (cf. Kleinhappel et al., 2014b, 2016a,
325 2016b). The acidity in the low pH lochs at North Uist most likely results from humic acid,
326 derived from decaying organic matter, being surrounded by peat-bogs (Giles, 1983). Humic

327 acid, that can consist of several different organic acids derived from degraded organic matter
328 (Steinberg, 2013), is known to affect a variety of biological processes (Sato, Ose, Nagase, &
329 Hayase, 1987; Lovley, Coates, Blunt-Harris, Phillips, & Woodward, 1996; Qiao & Farrell,
330 2002) and can cause a reduction in the chemosensory responses toward reproductive
331 pheromones (Hubbard, Barata, & Canario, 2002; Mesquita, Canario, & Melo, 2003).
332 However, the findings of our study show that the low pH of the fishes' habitat does not
333 intrinsically cause a disruption in their chemically mediated shoaling decisions, which
334 suggests that the fish adapted to their environment.

335 Surprisingly, fish from the high pH lochs, showed diet-mediated preferences for the fish from
336 the different diet treatment, this stands in contrast to a variety of studies conducted in this
337 species (Ward et al., 2004; Webster et al., 2007; Atton et al., 2014; Kleinhappel et al., 2014b,
338 2016a, 2016b). This result was unexpected as the average water pH of 8.4 (\pm 0.1) was similar
339 to that of previous studies (Kleinhappel et al., 2014b, 2016a, 2016b) and as the main aim of
340 this study was to look at the impact of a reduced pH on individual associations, should have
341 served only as a control compared to the low pH water due to it's similarity with previous
342 studies. One possible explanation could lie in the different habitats in which the fish live,
343 these vary in factors such as food patch availability and food abundance (MacColl et al.,
344 2013), which could make assorting with different, or unfamiliar smelling, fish more adaptive.
345 Juvenile sticklebacks, for instance, prefer unfamiliar over familiar kin if hunger levels are
346 high, which might be an adaptation for avoiding food competition with familiar individuals
347 (Frommen, Luz, & Bakker, 2007). Alternatively, (Spence, Wootton, Barber, Przybylski, &
348 Smith, 2013) found significant differences in personality traits (boldness and shyness)
349 between the different stickleback populations inhabiting the different pH lochs. Personality
350 traits have been shown to influence animal social network structures in variety of species
351 including fish (e.g. Pike, Samanta, Lindstrom, & Royle, 2008; Croft, Krause, Darden,

352 Ramnarine, Faria, & James, 2009) and could be a possible underlying reason for the
353 difference in the association preferences present in this study, although this was not tested in
354 this study. The salience of different mechanisms mediating inter-individual association
355 preferences, e.g. individual personalities, familiarity or chemical cues, on the social structure
356 of shoaling fish needs to be further investigated. Interestingly, (Heuschele & Candolin, 2007)
357 found that an increase of pH enhanced the use of male chemosensory cues, which consisted
358 of various peptides and amino acids, suggesting that a change in pH could facilitate the
359 binding or transportation of olfactory cues. The water conditions in the high pH lochs could
360 therefore have enhanced other chemical cues from the diet treatments that changed the
361 association preferences of individuals.

362 Although three-spined sticklebacks are able to adapt to a variety of habitats, and the water pH
363 used in the first experiment still lies within the range of stickleback natural habitats (MacColl
364 et al., 2013), reducing the pH of the water can impact on their chemical communication,
365 whilst fish living in low pH water conditions for multiple generations are able to utilise diet-
366 derived chemical cues to mediate their association decisions. This suggests that short-term
367 reductions in water pH can have important implications on social structures in shoaling fish
368 even though they can adapt, given sufficient time, to a variety of habitats and it is therefore
369 likely to impact on their survival and fitness. Our results are comparable with larger scale
370 studies investigating the effects of natural and anthropogenic acidification on species
371 diversity, in which natural acidity had less impact on community structures, which is most
372 likely due to the adaptation of organisms exposed to natural acidity over evolutionary time
373 scales (Petrin et al., 2008). The present findings provide insight into the impact that
374 anthropogenic interference can have on the ecosystem and behaviour of aquatic animals
375 (Johnson & Webster, 1977; Muniz, 1990; Ikuta et al., 2003; Leduc et al., 2013), especially if
376 such changes are relatively quick.

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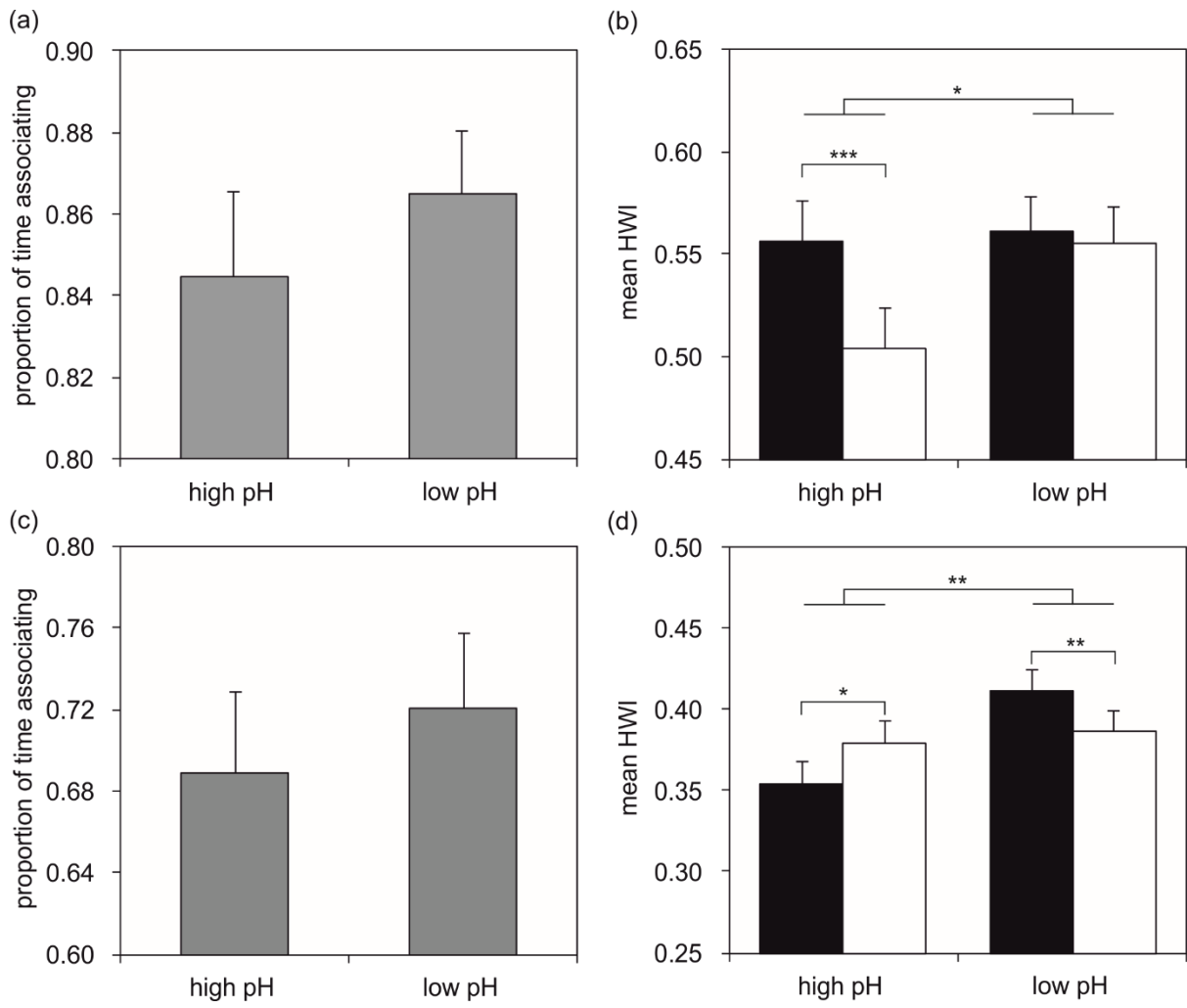
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586

587 Figure 1. (a, c) Mean \pm SE proportion of time two or more fish were in association during the
588 60 min of observation when tested in water that (a) experimentally or (c) naturally varied in
589 its pH. (b, d) Mean \pm bootstrap SE half weight index (HWI) between fish on either the same
590 (black bars) or different (white bars) diet treatments when tested in water that varied (b)
591 experimentally or (d) naturally in pH. Asterisks (*) denote significant differences between
592 groups: *, $p < 0.05$; **, $p < 0.01$; ***, $p < 0.001$.

593

594 Figure 1.



595