1	Huddling is more important than rest site selection for thermoregulation in southern
2	bamboo lemurs
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#### 27 Abstract

Resting site selection can have important effects on the behaviour and fitness of 28 organisms. The maintenance of optimal body temperatures  $(T_b)$  when faced with 29 environmental variables has often been attributed to either specific microhabitat rest site 30 characteristics or to behavioural strategies. Among many small group living endotherms, 31 social thermoregulation (i.e., huddling) is utilised as a behavioural energy conservation 32 mechanism at low ambient temperatures  $(T_a)$ , thus decreasing the metabolic cost of 33 maintaining  $T_{b}$ . Though unusual among primates, lemurs are hypometabolic and exhibit a 34 35 diversity of thermoregulatory strategies; however, objective  $T_b$  measurements have thus far been limited to small-bodied lemurs (e.g., Cheirogaleids). As such, we sought to determine 36 whether a medium-sized lemur model, the southern bamboo lemur (Hapalemur 37 meridionalis), would maintain thermoregulation through microhabitat rest site selection, 38 huddling behaviour, or potentially both strategies. Within a degraded littoral forest fragment 39 in southeast Madagascar, we conducted full-day focal observations on three groups of H. 40 meridionalis between January and December 2013. Adult individuals were collared with 41 data-loggers that collected instantaneous skin temperature  $T_{sk}$  (°C). We calculated the mean 42  $T_{\rm sk}$  of the focal individual during each resting bout, and the proportional rate of huddling 43 between the focal and conspecifics. In addition, we recorded all resting sites utilised  $\geq 15$  min 44 and collected standard tree characteristics. We fitted Linear Mixed-Effects Models to 45 determine the thermoregulatory combined effect of specific resting site characteristics, 46 huddling behaviour, and environmental variables on  $T_{sk}$ . Our results showed that lemurs 47 selected tree sites with larger diameter at breast height; however, huddling was most 48 predictive of increasing  $T_{sk}$  whereas resting site characteristics were not included in the best-49 fit model. It is possible that microhabitat rest site selection is not significant in a degraded 50

51 forest as the potential environmental buffering is limited, thus thermoregulatory mechanisms

52 are likely best served by behavioural strategies, i.e., social huddling.

53

54 Key-words: huddling; skin temperature; *Hapalemur meridionalis*; energy conservation;
55 thermal ecology; southern bamboo lemur; Madagascar; strepsirrhines

56

### 57 Introduction

Many endothermic animals have evolved different physiological and/or behavioural 58 59 mechanisms to maintain optimal body temperature  $(T_b)$ , i.e., thermoregulation (Huey and Pianka 1977; Geiser et al. 2002; Kauffman et al. 2003; Kotze et al. 2008; Kearney et al. 2009; 60 Gilbert et al. 2010; Boyles et al. 2011; Terrien et al. 2011). These autonomic mechanisms 61 include vasodilation and sweating to reduce  $T_b$  in high ambient/environmental temperatures 62  $(T_{\rm a})$ , increased blood pressure via vasoconstriction to reduce heat loss and increase  $T_{\rm b}$  at low 63  $T_{\rm a}$  (Daniels 1984; McNab 1988; Gagge and Gonzalez 2011) and insulation provided by 64 seasonal changes of plumage or fur (Gilbert et al. 2010). More extreme physiological 65 strategies, e.g., daily torpor and hibernation, involve a dramatic reduction of metabolic 66 67 processes/metabolic rate to face cold and resource lean periods (Aujard et al. 1998; Westman and Geiser 2002; Geiser 2004; Heldmaier et al. 2004; Mzilikazi and Lovegrove 2004). These 68 entail prolonged periods of resting with reduced metabolic rates without time dedicated to 69 other activities, apart from periodic arousals (Lovegrove et al. 1999). 70

In contrast, behavioural mechanisms are more varied, and include microhabitat
selection (Huey and Pianka 1977; Hill 2006; Willis and Brigham 2007; Kearney et al. 2009;
Terrien et al. 2011; Downs et al. 2013), including the utilisation of burrows to avoid harsh
environmental conditions (Long et al. 2005), basking and body positioning (Stelzner and
Hausfater 1986; Brown and Downs 2007; Warnecke et al. 2010; Kelley et al. 2016), and

76	social thermoregulation (Kauffman et al. 2003; Gilbert et al. 2010; Scantlebury et al. 2010).
77	This last strategy, social thermoregulation (i.e., a behavioural energy conservation
78	mechanism) is the active and close aggregation of animals in order to keep warm and is
79	achieved by adopting hunched and/or curled positions with conspecifics (Hayes 2000; Gilbert
80	et al., 2010). Colloquially, this is referred to as huddling, and has been recorded in numerous
81	avian and mammalian orders (Gilbert et al. 2010). These include birds from the orders
82	Anseriformes (Fortin et al. 2000), Coliiformes (McKechnie and Lovegrove 2001),
83	Coraciiformes (Boix-Hinzen and Lovegrove 1998), Galliformes (Putaala et al. 1995),
84	Passeriformes (Hatchwell et al. 2009; Labisky and Arnett 2006; Burns et al. 2013),
85	Pelecaniformes (Evans 1984), and Sphenisciformes (Gilbert et al. 2008), while mammalian
86	orders include Artiodactyla (Hrupka et al. 2000), Carnivora (Riedman 1990), Chiroptera
87	(Willis and Brigham 2007), Dasyuromorphia (Rhind 2003), Didelphimorphia (Canals et al.
88	1997, 1998), Lagomorpha (Gilbert et al. 2007), Primates (Schino and Troisi 1990; Ostner
89	2002; Donati et al. 2011; Ogawa and Wada 2011), and Rodentia (Hayes et al. 1992; Hayes
90	2000; Kotze et al. 2008). The strategy may improve an individual's (or group's) ability to
91	survive via maintaining optimal $T_b$ and conserving heat (i.e., metabolic energy) by reducing
92	the total body surface area exposed to the environment (Contrera 1984; Hayes et al. 1992;
93	Canals et al. 1989, 1997, 1998; Geiser et al. 2002; Séguy and Perret 2005; Gilbert et al. 2010;
94	

Primates represent a behaviourally and physiologically diverse order of small- and
large-bodied endotherms that are distributed throughout various climatic and geographic
zones (Lehman and Fleagle 2006). As it is estimated that primates spend approximately half
of their lives at sleeping sites, site selection is a vital aspect of an individual's fitness and
group's overall performance and behavioural ecology (Cowlishaw 1994; Anderson 1998). In

101 addition to predator avoidance, resting sites are often sought to buffer against environmental variables such as rain and temperature fluctuation (De Vere et al. 2011; Han and Hu 2012; 102 Samson and Hunt 2012), whereby the location and microhabitat variations may optimize 103 physiological processes (Schino and Troisi 1990). For example, in a seasonally harsh 104 environment, black-and-white snub-nosed monkeys (Rhinopithecus bieti) select sleeping 105 trees with large diameters at breast height (DBH) and broad crown diameters presumably to 106 provide effective shelter from precipitation and cold exposure (Cui et al. 2006). In fact, many 107 primates are challenged with seasonally harsh environmental conditions, and have exhibited 108 109 optimal body temperature maintenance via postural changes, e.g., hunched, huddling, and sun-basking positions (Stelzner and Hausfater 1986; Dasilva 1993; Moreland 1993; Hanya et 110 al. 2007; Donati et al. 2011; Ogawa and Wada 2011; Terrien et al. 2011; Danzy et al. 2012; 111 Kelley et al. 2016). Yellow baboons (Papio cynocephalus) utilise a hunched position to 112 reduce heat loss during cold weather (Stelzner and Hausfater 1986), while Japanese 113 macaques (Macaca fuscata) have been observed to habitually utilise hot springs during cold 114 weather (Zhang et al. 2007). When exposed to low temperatures in environments without the 115 advantage of hot springs, *M. fuscata* huddle and sun-bask during the winter as an effective 116 means of raising  $T_{\rm b}$  (Hanya et al. 2007). 117

The strepsirrhine primates of Madagascar live in an island environment characterised 118 by seasonality and climatic stochasticity, both presumed to have had a major influence on the 119 evolution of lemur life history traits (Wright 1999; Dewar and Richard 2007). So far, all 120 lemurs studied are hypometabolic (Genoud 2002; Simmen et al. 2010), which suggests they 121 rely on behavioural thermoregulatory strategies as an adaptation to scarce and unpredictable 122 resources (Kurland and Pearson 1986; McNab 1986; Morland 1993; Donati et al. 2011). In 123 fact, during the cold and resource deficient austral winter months, many species of 124 Cheirogaleid lemurs (e.g., Microcebus murinus, M. griseorufus, Cheirogaleus medius) reduce 125

their metabolism and enter a temporary state of torpor or prolonged hibernation in order to 126 conserve energy (Dausmann 2005, 2014; Dausmann et al. 2009). Additionally, microhabitat 127 variations such as constructing nests, utilising tree holes or burrowing may reduce the 128 physiological cost of thermoregulation (Kappeler 1998; Schmid 1998; Radespiel et al. 2003; 129 Dausmann et al. 2004; Lutermann et al. 2010; Blanco et al. 2013). Torpor is most often found 130 in mammals with a body mass below 200 g, with reduced energetic savings as body mass 131 increases (Geiser 2004; Heldmaier et al. 2004), potentially providing an explanation why 132 hibernation and torpor are not exhibited by larger, non-Cheirogaleid lemurs (Dausmann et al. 133 2009). 134

Postural behaviour, such as huddling and sun-basking, have also been shown to assist 135 in reducing these physiological thermoregulatory costs in certain groups (Morland 1993; 136 Donati et al. 2011; Kelley et al. 2016). For example, collared lemurs (Eulemur collaris) and 137 red-fronted lemurs (E. rufifrons) regularly hunch and form huddling groups more often 138 during colder seasons (Ostner 2002; Donati et al. 2011). While ring-tailed lemurs (Lemur 139 *catta*) occasionally huddle within an open-canopy habitat, sun-basking was shown to be 140 utilised most often under cold weather conditions (Kelley et al. 2016). However, as 141 142 anthropogenic pressure in Madagascar grows and forests become further degraded and fragmented (Schwitzer et al. 2014), lemurs are likely to be left with fewer suitable 143 microhabitat resting options to meet thermoregulatory and anti-predator needs. 144

Within a degraded habitat, we studied a medium-sized strepsirrhine, the southern bamboo lemur (*Hapalemur meridionalis*), as a model to determine which factor(s) most influenced thermoregulation for resting individuals. As rest site selection may have important fitness consequences (Cowlishaw 1994; Anderson 1998), we first sought to determine what factors most influenced an individual to return to a rest site. We predicted that lemurs would select rest areas of greater environmental protection (e.g., shade, wind protection), whereby

151 individuals would more often return to larger trees with greater crown volumes compared to rest sites only used once. In our second model, we sought to determine which factors 152 maintained thermoregulation via skin temperatures  $(T_{sk})$ . We predicted seasonal differences 153 in microhabitat selection, as greater environmental buffering would provide addition 154 thermoregulation during the cool, austral winter. As prolonged social contact during resting 155 bouts (i.e., huddling) is a frequent energy preservation strategy among many mammals and 156 birds (Gilbert et al. 2010), we hypothesized that  $T_{sk}$  would increase as a result of increased 157 huddling behaviour. In addition, we predicted that huddling would occur more frequently 158 when  $T_a$  is colder. We also predicted that huddling bouts would occur most often at smaller, 159 single-use resting sites that provided limited environmental buffers. 160

161

#### 162 Methods

163 *Ethical note* 

All data were collected in accordance with the ASAB/ABS Guidelines for Use of Animals in Research. This research was carried out under the Accord de Collaboration among the University of Antananarivo and the University of Hamburg. Research protocols were approved and permits authorized by Commission Tripartite of the Direction des Eaux et Forêts de Madagascar (Autorisation de recherché N° 240/12/MEF/SG/DGF/DCB.SAP/SCB du 17/09/2012), adhering to the legal requirements of Madagascar.

170

171 *Study Site and Species* 

Our study was conducted in the protected littoral area of Mandena (24°95'S 46°99'E, 0–20 m asl) along the southeast coast of Madagascar. This area consists of 230 ha of fragmented littoral forest and interspersed, seasonally-inundated swamp (Eppley et al. 2015a). Littoral forests are characterised as having a relatively low canopy that grows on sandy substrates and occur within 3 km of the coast (Dumetz 1999; Consiglio et al. 2006), yet
due to the degree of degradation in Mandena, the vertical structure of this littoral forest is
relatively low (Eppley et al. 2015a).

Southern bamboo lemurs (*H. meridionalis*) are medium-sized lemurs (albeit smallbodied primates) with an average body mass of 1.1 kg that exhibit a cathemeral activity
pattern (Eppley et al. 2015b, 2015c, 2017). This species is also known to feed heavily on a
low-quality folivorous diet, the bulk of which is composed of various terrestrial grasses and
sedges (Eppley et al. 2011, 2016a).

184

185 *Climatic data* 

To assess daily climatic factors, temperature (°C) was recorded in 30-mins intervals 186 using four Lascar EL-USB-1 data loggers (Lascar Electronics, Inc.; Erie, PA, USA), operated 187 by custom software (EasyLog USB Version 5.45, Lascar Electronics, Inc.). These were 188 positioned throughout the Mandena study site, i.e., two placed in the littoral forest and two in 189 the swamp, at 1.5 m above the ground and protected from direct sun. In 2013, the mean 190 temperature in Mandena was 22.5°C, with an absolute range between 9.5 – 35.0°C (Eppley et 191 192 al. 2016b; Fig. 1). Furthermore, precipitation (mm) was measured daily at 6:00 h using a rain gauge placed within the study site. Total precipitation in Mandena during the study period 193 was 2,815.1mm (Fig. 1). 194

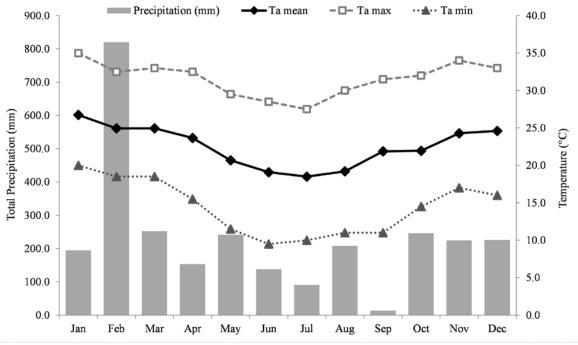


Fig. 1. Monthly total precipitation and mean temperature (including monthly maxima andminima recorded) in Mandena from January to December 2013.

195

#### 199 *Temperature measurements*

As part of a larger behavioural ecology study, we captured ten adult individuals and 200 fitted them with external radio-transmitting tags equipped with data-logging sensors for  $T_{\rm sk}$ 201 (ARC400, Advanced Telemetry Systems, Isanti, MN, USA). Individuals were recaptured 202 immediately following the completion of the study, and tags/collars were removed. For 203 information on this and the capture, anaesthesia, and collaring processes, see Eppley et al. 204 205 (2016c). Our data-logging collars collected  $T_{sk}$  in degrees Celsius every 15 min. Between January and December 2013, we recorded 269,436  $T_{sk}$  data points, which were matched to 206 the corresponding  $T_a$ . The mean ( $\pm$  SD)  $T_{sk}$  of *H. meridionalis* was 32.8  $\pm$  2.9°C; however, 207 when data-logging tags of individuals registered 0.0% activity, the mean  $T_{sk}$  of H. 208 *meridionalis* was  $35.8 \pm 1.2$  °C. This fluctuation was due to movement when traveling and 209 foraging, and thus the temperatures recorded while resting with minimal movement are 210

- 211 considered accurate.
- 212

213 Behavioural data

From January to December 2013, we conducted behavioural focal follows (from 214 sunrise to sunset) every 5 mins. Data were collected from three social groups, and totalled 215 1,762 h. During the study period, Group 1 consisted of 3-5 individuals (3 adult females, 1 216 adult male), Group 2 consisted of 3-4 individuals (1 adult female, 1 adult male), and Group 4 217 consisted of 8-9 individuals (2 adult females, 2 adult males) (Eppley et al. 2016c). 218 Identification of individuals was made using radio-tracking tags with coloured pendants, with 219 all adult individuals (N = 10) from our three focal groups sampled for at least one day each 220 221 month. As general activity largely influences  $T_{sk}$  (Dausmann 2005), our  $T_{sk}$  analyses are limited to resting bouts  $\geq 15$  min. 222 All instances of continuous resting bouts  $\geq 15$  min were recorded. Specifically, we 223 recorded the full duration of the resting bout, the height of the focal individual, whether the 224 focal was huddling (i.e., within contact) with social group members, and the proportion of 225 huddling (referred to as 'huddling rate') that occurred during each resting bout. Huddling rate 226 was calculated as the total time an individual was in physical contact with the resting focal 227 subject, divided by the total resting bout time. All plants (trees, lianas, etc.) selected as rest 228 229 sites were marked with flagging tape, given a unique code, and were identified for their scientific family, genus, and species names by on-site Malagasy botanists. This allowed us to 230 determine whether sites were returned to multiple times, i.e., a preference site. We also 231 recorded the plants' diameter at breast height (DBH; cm), height (m), crown volume (m<sup>3</sup>; 232 Eppley et al. 2015a), and the site's microhabitat location (i.e., littoral forest or swamp). 233 Furthermore, we recorded whether the rest site also acted as a feeding site or was utilised 234 solely for resting. 235 236

237 Data analyses

To determine which factors influenced the repeated use of resting sites, we fitted 238 Generalized Linear Mixed-effects Models (GLMMs) with preference site as a binomial 239 dependent variable. We define preference sites as those sites that were visited more than once 240 by a focal group. Group was included as a random effect to account for different baseline 241 rates of returning to a rest site. As fixed effects, both as independent terms and in 242 interactions, we included DBH (cm), height (m), crown volume (m<sup>3</sup>), habitat (littoral forest or 243 swamp), and whether a site was also a feeding site (0/1). We standardized DBH, height, and 244 crown volume, as they were on very different scales of magnitude. 245

246 To determine which factors influenced lemurs'  $T_{sk}$  (a proxy for body temperature), we fitted a Linear Mixed-effects Models (LMMs). As random effects, we included individual 247 identity (nested within groups) to account for different baseline  $T_{sk}$ . As fixed effects, both as 248 independent terms and in interactions, we included the focal lemurs' sex (female/male), 249 huddle rate (i.e., proportion of huddling during rest bout), duration of the resting bout (mins), 250 group size, whether the resting site was a preference site (0/1), the crown volume  $(m^3)$ , and 251 cover (the position of the focal, in meters, beneath the tree canopy). In addition, we included 252 climatic variables as fixed effects, specifically temperature (°C), as the mean  $T_a$  from the 253 254 nearest data-logger during the sleeping bout duration, daily total precipitation (mm), and the general season (dry or wet). We standardized huddle rate, duration, and ambient temperature, 255 as they were on very different scales of magnitude. 256

For both the preference site GLMM and the  $T_{sk}$  LMM, we used an informationtheoretic approach with model averaging to generate a set of candidate models and assess the relative strength of evidence for our hypotheses (Burnham and Anderson 2002). We inspected the Variance Inflation Factors (VIF) of a full model, including all fixed effects, to assess multicollinearity. To obtain unbiased parameter estimates, we did not include collinear terms (VIF > 3) in the same model. Highly related predictors could, however, occur in

263	separate models of the model set. We ranked the models using Akaike's Information
264	Criterion corrected for finite sample sizes (AICc) and defined a subset of top models as those
265	models within two AICc units from the best model ( $\Delta_i < 2$ ). We then computed the model-
266	averaged parameter estimates and the relative importance for each term included in this
267	model set. Importance is the sum of the Akaike weights $w_i$ of all models which include the
268	term in question. As model weights represent the probability of a model to be the best model
269	in the model set and thus reflect model uncertainty, importance can be understood as the
270	likelihood of a term to be included in the best model. We used the lme4 (Bates et al. 2015)
271	and MuMIn (Bartoń 2016) packages in R statistical software version 3.3.2 (R Core Team
272	2016) for these analyses.

### **Results**

*Resting sites* 

We recorded 505 resting bouts of  $\geq$ 15 min at 430 different rest sites in Mandena. Typically, H. meridionalis groups maintain synchronous activity, thus groups tended to rest for similar durations within the same tree site. There were 52 sites (12.1% of the total resting sites observed) that were returned to at least once (between two and five times), henceforth referred to as 'preferred' sites, constituting a total of 127 resting bouts (25.1% of all bouts). Additionally, 7.7% of preferred sites were also known feeding resources, while 10.8% of single-use rest sites were also feeding resources (Table 1). 

292	Table 1. Comparison of preferred and single-use rest sites					
	<b>Resting Sites</b>	Ν	Feeding	DBH (cm)	Height (m)	Crown volume (m <sup>3</sup> )
	Preferred site	52	4			
	Median			16.0	7.0	16.5
	Quartiles			8.0 - 25.3	5.0 - 9.3	6.3 - 62.8
	Single-use site	378	41			
	Median			11.0	6.0	6.3
	Quartiles			6.0 - 18.0	5.0 - 8.0	1.1 - 24.7

292 **Table 1.** Comparison of preferred and single-use rest sites

N = total number of sites; Feeding = number of sites used for resting and feeding.

\*Note that in addition to tree species, unidentified fallen dead trees and the ground

295 (including burrows) were occasionally used by all groups

296

297 Preferred Resting Sites

From the 430 rest sites, DBH values were missing from 24 sites while two additional 298 sites were found to be outliers for crown volume, thus these were removed from the GLMM. 299 According to our correlation matrix, DBH was positively correlated with height, 300 r(404) = 0.74, P < 0.001, and crown volume, r(404) = 0.73, P < 0.001 (Table 2), indicating 301 302 that trees with larger DBH tended to be taller and tended to have larger crown volumes. Each of these three metrics was a component of at least one model within two AICc of the best-fit 303 304 model to explain the repeated use of a rest site (Table 3). The two most likely models 305 included only DBH ( $\Delta_1 = 0.00, w_1 = 0.30$ ) and only height ( $\Delta_2 = 0.39, w_2 = 0.25$ ), respectively, and were supported 2 times and 1.7 times more strongly than the model 306 including only cover (evidence ratios  $w_1/w_4 = 0.30/0.15 = 2$ ,  $w_1/w_4 = 0.25/0.15$ ). Indeed, the 307 estimate for crown volume was imprecise, suggesting that it was not driving resting site 308 selection. Further, whether a resting site also served as a feeding site was 30% likely to be a 309 component of the best model (relative importance of Feed), in addition to either DBH or 310 height. However, the direction of the effect could not be estimated with sufficient confidence, 311 and the more parsimonious models that do not include feeding site were better supported by 312 313 the data.

- 314 Overall, bamboo lemurs were seven times more likely *not* to return to a resting site
- than to return (odds ratio  $1/_{0.14}$ ). However, lemurs preferentially returned to resting sites with
- wider or taller trees, being 37% more likely to return to a site with a DBH or height increased
- 317 by one standard deviation (11.03 cm and 2.96 m, respectively).
- 318

319 Table 2. Correlation coefficients between model variables to predict resting site selection

Measure	Pref	Hab	Feed	DBH	HT	CV
Preferred Site (Pref)	_					
Habitat (Hab, forest = $0$ , swamp = $1$ )	-0.04	_				
Feeding Site (Feed)	-0.02	-0.04	_			
Diameter at Breast Height (DBH)	$0.11^{*}$	-0.08	0.21***	_		
Height (HT)	$0.10^{*}$	-0.21***	0.19***	$0.74^{***}$	_	
Crown Volume (CV)	0.07	-0.14**	$0.10^{*}$	0.73***	$0.66^{***}$	_
N = 404. P < .05, P < .01, P < .001						

**Table 3.** GLMMs for returning to a resting site ( $\Delta_i < 2$ )

		U		Ŭ	/		
Model <i>i</i>	$b_{0}$	DBH	HT	CV	Feed	$\Delta_i$	<sub>Wi</sub> 323
1	-1.95	0.30				0.00	0.30
2	-1.95		0.30			0.39	0.25
3	-1.91	0.33			-0.48	1.22	0.17
4	-1.93			0.27		1.42	0.15
5	-1.91		0.33		-0.47	1.66	0.13
β	-1.93***	0.31*	0.31*	0.27	-0.48		
SE	0.17	0.18	0.18	0.11	0.38		
Odds Ratio	0.14	1.37	1.37	1.32	0.62		
Importance		0.47	0.38	0.15	0.30		

324 N = 404. Model terms include the intercept  $(b_0)$ , diameter at breast height (DBH), height 325 (HT), crown volume (CV), and feeding site (Feed). Columns on the right show the difference 326 in AICc values between Model *i* and the model with the lowest AICc, Model 1 ( $\Delta_i$ ) and the 327 Akaike weight of Model *i* ( $w_i$ ). Bottom rows show model-averaged parameter estimates ( $\beta$ ), 328 unconditional standard errors which incorporate model uncertainty (*SE*), odds ratios, and 329 relative importance. \**P* < .05, \*\*\* *P* < .001.

330

# 331 *Thermoregulation: huddling vs resting site*

332

Considering all 505 resting bouts, 45.1% involved huddling behaviour. A total of 349

- 333 of these resting bouts were observed with radio-collared focal individuals, thus our dataset
- 334 was limited to those bouts in which  $T_{sk}$  was measured. Similar to the GLMM, incomplete
- cases and outliers were excluded from the LMM, leaving 322 resting bouts. Correlation

- coefficients between our model variables revealed that  $T_{sk}$  was higher during the wet season, 336 for females, at non-feeding rest sites, when  $T_a$  was higher, when huddle rates were higher, 337 and when resting bouts lasted longer (Table 4). Additionally, huddle rates were higher and 338 resting bouts lasted longer at preference sites, whereas the opposite was seen at dual resting-339 feeding sites. Furthermore, the larger the crown volume of the resting site, the deeper below 340 the canopy the focal individual tended to rest. Our full  $T_{sk}$  dataset show that *H. meridionalis* 341 did not exhibit torpor at any point during the 12-month study, with individuals often wakeful 342 when resting, occasionally opening their eyes at small disturbances. 343
- 344

**Table 4.** Correlation coefficients between model variables to predict thermoregulation

Measure	$T_{\rm sk}$	Ssn	Size	Sex	Pref	Ta	Hud	Dur	Precip	Cover	CV
Season	$0.17^{**}$	_									
Group Size	$0.17^{**}$	0.04	_								
Sex	-0.13*	-0.03	-0.61***	_							
Preference Site	0.07	-0.15**	-0.03	0.03	_						
Ta	0.32***	$0.50^{***}$	0.05	0.04	<b>-</b> 0.11*	_					
Huddle rate	0.43***	-0.02	0.09	-0.18***	$0.17^{**}$	-0.15**	_				
Duration	$0.48^{***}$	$0.11^{*}$	-0.06	-0.02	$0.18^{**}$	$0.14^{*}$	0.28***	_			
Precipitation	0.03	0.27***	-0.01	0.09	-0.06	$0.17^{**}$	0.03	-0.03	_		
Cover under canopy	-0.07	-0.05	-0.10	0.04	0.08	-0.12*	0.05	0.02	0.05	_	
Crown volume	-0.06	-0.11	-0.05	-0.03	0.09	-0.25***	0.10	-0.01	0.07	0.63***	_

346 N = 322. P < .05, P < .01, P < .001.

347 Season (dry = 0, wet = 1); Sex (female = 0, male = 1); Duration = length of resting bout

348

**Table 5.** Model-averaged LMM parameters for predicting an increase in *H. meridionalis*  $T_{sk}$ 

	0	1	1	0	
Term	β	SE	95% CI	Model	Importance
Intercept	33.20***	0.41	(32.39, 34.01)	1, 2	
Group Size	0.13*	0.08	(0.01, 0.25)	1	0.7
Huddle Rate (Hud)	$0.64^{***}$	0.08	(0.48, 0.81)	1, 2	1
Duration (Dur)	$0.74^{***}$	0.09	(0.56, 0.92)	1, 2	1
Temperature $(T_a)$	$0.58^{***}$	0.08	(0.42, 0.75)	1, 2	1
Hud × Dur	-0.26**	0.08	(-0.42, -0.10)	1, 2	1
Hud $\times$ $T_a$	-0.51**	0.08	(-0.67, -0.36)	1, 2	1
$Dur \times T_a$	-0.16	0.10	(-0.35, 0.03)	1, 2	1
Hud × Dur × $T_a$	0.24**	0.09	(0.08, 0.41)	1, 2	1

350 N = 322. Akaike weights:  $w_1 = 0.70$ ,  $w_2 = 0.30$ . Difference in AICc values between Model *i* 

and the model with the lowest AICc, Model 1:  $\Delta_1 = 0$ ,  $\Delta_2 = 1.68$ . Parameters shown are

model-averaged parameter estimates ( $\beta$ ), unconditional standard errors which incorporate

model uncertainty (*SE*), 95% confidence intervals, models that included the term, and relative importance. \*P < .05, \*\*P < .01, \*\*\* P < .001

356	The top two models to explain lemurs' $T_{sk}$ both included huddle rate, $T_a$ , and duration,
357	their two-way interactions, and their three-way interaction (Table 5). Model 1 additionally
358	includes group size as a model component and was supported 2.3 times more strongly than
359	Model 2, which does not include group size (evidence ratio $w_1/w_2 = 0.70/0.30$ ). Specifically,
360	every additional group member was associated with an increase in $T_{sk}$ by 0.13°C. Further, an
361	increase in huddling rate by one standard deviation (0.42) was associated with an increase in
362	$T_{\rm sk}$ by 0.48 - 0.81°C. This relationship was stronger when $T_{\rm a}$ was low (Fig. 2); e.g., for a
363	decrease by one standard deviation in $T_a$ (4.95°C), the slope of huddle rate increased by
364	0.51°C (huddle rate × $T_a$ interaction). Specifically, in the absence of huddling, lemurs' $T_{sk}$
365	was lower when $T_a$ was low than when it was high, but that difference vanished at high
366	huddle rates. Finally, the huddle rate $\times T_a \times$ duration three-way interaction indicates that the
367	two-way interaction between huddle rate and $T_a$ changed across different durations. That is,
368	the moderating effect of $T_a$ on the effect of huddle rate on $T_{sk}$ was stronger for short resting
369	bouts than for long ones. Thus, huddling elevated $T_{sk}$ most when $T_a$ was low and resting bouts
370	were short.

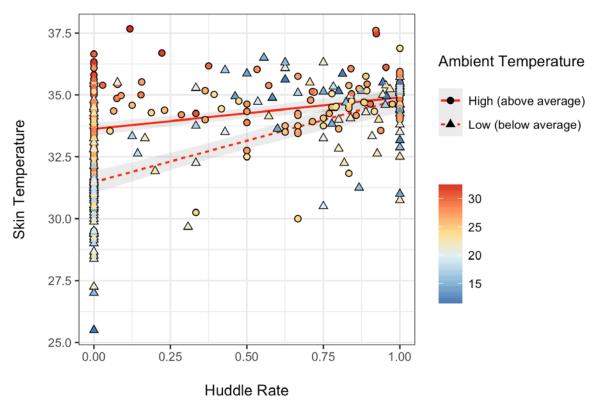




Figure 2. Lemur  $T_{sk}$  as a function of huddle rate, by ambient temperature. Resting bouts during ambient temperatures below the average of 23.4°C are indicated by triangles; those above average by circles. Plotted lines indicate the linear regression models for low (dashed) and high (solid) ambient temperatures; shaded areas indicate 95% confidence intervals.

378 Discussion

379 Southern bamboo lemurs displayed a preference for resting in larger trees and

380 potentially increased buffering from environmental variables, e.g., rainfall, exposure to wind

381 and cold air, and/or direct sun exposure. This environmental buffering, however, was not

found to be as influential as huddling behaviour for increasing  $T_{sk}$ , especially at lower  $T_a$ .

383

384 Microhabitat rest site selection

Rest sites in larger trees may confer greater thermoregulatory benefits, such as

protection from the direct sun and/or exposure to cold weather. In fact, chimpanzees (Pan

troglodytes) have been observed to become more terrestrial during warm  $T_a$  (Takemoto 2004;

388 Kosheleff and Anderson 2009), while chacma baboons (*Papio ursinus*) rest in the shade

during midday, taking advantage of thermal microclimates (Hill 2006). Furthermore, both of

390 these species occasionally utilise caves, which provide consistent  $T_a$  as well as shelter from extreme weather (Barrett et al. 2004; Pruetz 2007). Moreover, research on Cape ground 391 squirrels (*Xerus inauris*) has shown that using a burrow consistently reduced  $T_b$  by 1-2°C 392 (Fick et al. 2009). Similarly, southern bamboo lemurs were occasionally observed to rest on 393 the ground and in terrestrial burrows, an unusual behaviour potentially attributed to increased 394  $T_{\rm a}$  (Eppley et al. 2016b); however, their overall general selection of larger trees for resting 395 were not shown to confer any thermal benefit. Considering the ecological characteristics of 396 the Mandena littoral forest, large trees are not particularly large compared to less-degraded 397 398 nearby littoral forests (Campera et al. 2014; Eppley et al. 2015a), so the environmental buffering effect at our site may be potentially limited. Furthermore, microhabitat resting sites 399 selected for thermal characteristics may lack optimal anti-predator protection, or in the case 400 of resources, may lack quick access to food and water (Angilletta et al. 2010). 401

Many studies of primate resting site selection have focused on anti-predator 402 characteristics (Anderson and McGrew 1984; Anderson 1998; Albert et al. 2011; Barnett et 403 al. 2012; Feilen and Marshall 2014), whereby protection from potential predators is 404 presumably provided via large tree crowns. For example, golden-handed tamarins (Saguinus 405 406 midas midas) utilised resting trees that were larger (in both DBH and height) compared to other trees (Day and Elwood 1999), presumably providing protection from potential aerial 407 and terrestrial predators. This is similar to *H. meridionalis* in Mandena, whereby large trees 408 provide larger canopy crowns and multiple escape routes in the case of potential predators. 409 In fact, irregular sleeping site usage pattern (e.g., many rest sites were used only once) may 410 support the predator avoidance strategy by reducing odour that might be cues for predators 411 (Reichard 1998; José-Domínguez et al. 2015). 412

413

414 *Huddling behaviour* 

415 Our results suggest that huddling confers an immediate effect as a thermoregulatory mechanism, and assists in maintaining an optimal  $T_b$  during longer duration resting bouts. 416 Huddling has been shown to confer higher and more constant  $T_{\rm b}$  than solitary resting, thus, it 417 is an effective strategy to maintain homeothermy and reduce energy expenditure (Gilbert et 418 al. 2010; Nuñez-Villegas et al. 2014; McFarland et al. 2015). This social behaviour, along 419 with decreased inter-individual distances, has been shown to increase in colder weather 420 conditions (i.e., lower  $T_a$ ), and as such, is a typical behavioural response to thermal stress 421 (Riedman 1990; Yahav and Buffenstein 1991; Gilbert et al. 2008; Donati et al. 2011; Sugita 422 423 and Ueda 2013). Unlike most endothermic birds and mammals, many lemurid species display an unusual trait by exhibiting even or male-biased adult sex ratios, which may lead to 424 potential benefits (Kappeler 2000, 2009). One proposed benefit for having surplus adult 425 males in a group is for increased energy conservation via social thermoregulation (Morland 426 1993); however, this is not always the case (Ostner 2002). Furthermore, increased social links 427 have been shown to lead to energy conservation advantages in gregarious vervet monkeys 428 (Chlorocebus pygerythrus; McFarland et al. 2015). Nevertheless, bamboo lemur groups in 429 Mandena are typically limited to small family units with one adult male and one to two adult 430 431 females, and in fact, only one of our three studied groups had a surplus adult male (Eppley et al. 2016c). Thus, it is unlikely that this peculiar lemurid trait confers a thermoregulatory 432 benefit among H. meridionalis. Southern bamboo lemur group size, however, did 433 significantly predict an increase in  $T_{sk}$ . It is possible that with larger groups sizes, individuals 434 may experience greater opportunity for social thermoregulation among group mates. 435 Huddling is not exhibited by all lemurids, however; in fact, both ring-tailed lemurs 436 (Lemur catta) and ruffed lemurs (Varecia spp.) use sun-basking as a warming strategy (Jolly 437 1966; Morland 1993; Vasey 2002; Kelley et al. 2016). Specifically, they decrease the 438 energetic demands during cold periods by positioning themselves to maximize surface area 439

exposure to sunlight (Terrien et al. 2011). Similar to L. catta (Jolly 1966; Kelley et al. 2016), 440 this is a strategy commonly used by many mammalian taxa living in arid or semi-arid habitats 441 (Stelzner and Hausfater 1986; Brown and Downs 2007; Warnecke et al. 2010; Terrien et al. 442 2011; Danzy et al. 2012). On the contrary, Varecia spp. are restricted to the humid forests of 443 eastern Madagascar, but sun-bask regardless (Morland 1993; Vasey 2002). This is perplexing 444 given that sun-basking behaviour is absent in brown lemurs (Eulemur spp.) despite 445 widespread geographic distribution (Sussman 1974; Pereira et al. 1999; Donati et al. 2011). 446 H. meridionalis was never observed to sun-bask at any period during our study. It has been 447 postulated that this behaviour within humid forests would only be possible on the emergent 448 portion of the canopy, thus predation pressure from diurnal raptors would be high (Donati et 449 al. 2011). 450

Compared to microhabitat rest site selection, huddling appears to be most important in 451 terms of thermoregulation. Neither of the microhabitat variables (i.e., cover, crown volume) 452 were correlated with the rate of huddling during a resting bout (Table 4), and furthermore, 453 bamboo lemurs displayed no preference in where they chose to huddle in spite of the 454 potential increased buffering effects against environmental variables that larger trees may 455 456 confer. Our findings are similar to what has been shown among big brown bats (Eptesicus *fuscus*), with social thermoregulation being more effective in decreasing energy expenditure 457 compared to microhabitat rest site selection (Willis and Brigham 2007). 458

459

#### 460 Conclusion

Both microhabitat resting site selection and behavioural positioning (e.g., huddling, sun-basking, etc.) have been shown to play a large role in the thermoregulation of a multitude of endothermic birds and mammals. While rest site selection and the microhabitat may confer thermoregulatory benefits to individuals, our data only supported huddling among the

- southern bamboo lemurs to help increase  $T_b$  on cold days. This is potentially due to the
- 466 increasing degradation and fragmented state of Mandena, whereby relatively few large trees
- 467 exist and lemurs must adjust behaviourally to cope within increasingly anthropogenic
- 468 landscapes. Furthermore, this leads us to question whether huddling in a small group is a
- 469 cooperative benefit conferred to all group members, or if inclusion is determined via
- 470 reciprocal exchange of services.
- 471

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