

1 **Shark personalities? Repeatability of social network traits in a widely**
2 **distributed predatory fish**

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23 **Summary**

24 Interest in animal personalities has generated a burgeoning literature on repeatability in
25 individual traits such as boldness or exploration through time or across different contexts. Yet
26 repeatability can be influenced by the interactive social strategies of individuals, for example,
27 consistent inter-individual variation in aggression is well documented. Previous work has
28 largely focused on the social aspects of repeatability in animal behaviour by testing
29 individuals in dyadic pairings. Under natural conditions individuals interact in a
30 heterogeneous polyadic network. However, the extent to which there is repeatability of social
31 traits at this higher-order network level remains unknown. Here we provide the first empirical
32 evidence of consistent and repeatable animal social networks. Using a model species of
33 shark, a taxonomic group in which repeatability in behaviour has yet to be described, we
34 repeatedly quantified the social networks of 10 independent shark groups across different
35 habitats, testing repeatability in individual network position under changing environments. To
36 understand better the mechanisms behind repeatable social behaviour we also explored the
37 coupling between individual preferences for specific group sizes and social network position.
38 We quantify repeatability in sharks by demonstrating that despite changes in aggregation
39 measured at the group level, the social network position of individuals is consistent across
40 treatments. Group size preferences were found to influence the social network position of
41 individuals in small groups but less so for larger groups suggesting network structure and
42 thus repeatability was driven by social preference over aggregation tendency.

43 *Key words: aggregation behaviour; elasmobranch; personality; plasticity; repeatability;*
44 *social traits*

45

46 **Introduction**

47 Individual behavioural consistency, a component of personality, has been shown to be
48 remarkably widespread in the animal kingdom, on average accounting for >30% of
49 phenotypic variance within populations (Bell et al. 2009). Previous work has shown that
50 consistent individual variation in behaviour (i.e. repeatability) is also heritable in some wild
51 populations (e.g. Dingemanse et al. 2002; van Oers et al. 2004). To date, the focus of
52 empirical research into behavioural consistency has been largely dominated by the role of
53 repeatability across individual-based behavioural axes such as boldness-shyness, exploration-
54 avoidance, aggression and activity profiles with considerably less attention on sociality
55 (Réale et al. 2007; Conrad et al. 2011). Social stability, however, can provide cohesion within
56 a population. Studies examining the consequences of instability in social structure, for
57 example, have demonstrated increased fragmentation and escalation of conflict in
58 destabilised primate social groups (Flack et al. 2006; Beisner et al. 2011). Under such
59 circumstances, repeatability in social network position is expected to be selected. However,
60 we might also predict between-individual variation in these positions due to an ecological
61 trade-off that results in similar fitness returns for individuals occupying different levels of
62 social connectivity (Formica et al. 2012). Despite growing research on individual personality
63 types (see Dall et al. 2004; Sih et al. 2004 for reviews), the extent to which individuals
64 maintain consistent social strategies within a population and the potential mechanisms
65 driving this consistency are rarely explored.

66 When considering gregarious animals, the broad ecological implications of individual
67 behavioural consistency are undoubtedly moderated by changes in the social context of an
68 individual's immediate environment (Webster and Ward 2010). Boldness in individual three-
69 spined sticklebacks (*Gasterosteus aculeatus*) and in guppies (*Poecilia reticulata*) for
70 instance, is known to be an important determinant of position within a social network (Pike et

71 al. 2008; Croft et al. 2009). Furthermore, animals demonstrating different but consistent
72 exploratory traits might also mediate and maintain the overall structure of a social network
73 with highly exploratory individuals tending to associate broadly and thus connect poorly
74 connected conspecifics (e.g. Tanner and Jackson 2012; Aplin et al. 2013). Consequently, both
75 the direct (e.g. dyadic partnerships) and the indirect (e.g. association via intermediaries)
76 social interactions of an individual are likely to influence the ecology and evolution of
77 personality (Krause et al. 2010) and as such, social network traits, such as strength,
78 connectivity and social ‘reach’, offer a valuable tool with which to characterise individual
79 repeatability of behavioural traits (Wilson et al. 2013).

80 Previous research clearly demonstrates that differences in an individual’s social
81 experience and connectivity not only influences group outcomes but might also carry over
82 into different future ecological contexts (Krause et al. 2009; Sih et al. 2009). For example,
83 when exploring the population dynamics of common lizards (*Lacerta vivipara*, Lichtenstein
84 1823), Cote and Clobert (2007) found that the social tolerance of individuals from different
85 population densities were strongly linked to dispersal and settlement patterns. An extension
86 of this research revealed that ‘social’ lizards, that are highly connected, displayed different
87 fitness outcomes under different densities, to ‘asocial’ lizards that are poorly connected (Cote
88 et al. 2008). In both of these studies however, sociability was not directly tested but rather
89 inferred by assessing individual tolerance of conspecific odours. Using a social networks
90 approach, specific components of social behaviour that relate to the intensity, frequency and
91 directionality of social interactions can be quantified directly and tested explicitly for
92 repeatability (Wilson et al. 2013). In doing so, the mechanisms that drive consistent, social
93 behaviour in animals can be explored.

94 Here we use a model species of oviparous elasmobranch *Scyliorhinus canicula*, Linnaeus
95 1758 (small spotted catshark) to quantify inter-individual variation in social network traits

96 and to examine the mechanisms that may underpin such differences. *S. canicula* are of an
97 intermediate size for an elasmobranch and are highly amenable to being bred, maintained and
98 handled successfully in captivity. This benthic elasmobranch is found in abundance in UK
99 and Irish coastal waters and has been extensively studied in both wild (Sims et al. 2001,
100 2006; Jacoby et al. 2012a; Wearmouth et al. 2012) and captive conditions (Kimber et al.
101 2009; Jacoby et al. 2010). Neonate *S. canicula* hatch from egg cases that are laid on
102 macroalgae, rocky substrata and other structurally complex marine features and like all
103 elasmobranchs, the pups fend for themselves from the outset. During early life, juvenile
104 benthic sharks, a likely prey item for many larger predators, must optimise behavioural
105 strategies that will increase their chances of survival (Sims et al. 1993) and indeed in
106 captivity at least, juvenile *S. canicula* form non-random, mixed-sexed social groups driven by
107 individual familiarity (Jacoby et al. 2012b). Social grouping, which in the wild, may occur
108 cryptically in both juveniles and adults (Sims et al. 1993; Wearmouth et al. 2012), together
109 with skin camouflage, are two probable tactics individuals may adopt to enhance their
110 survival. The extent to which sharks demonstrate repeatable behaviours under different
111 contexts however, is not known, perhaps due to the difficulties of conducting manipulation
112 experiments in this predatory vertebrate taxon. In the wild, conditions at hatching are likely to
113 be rather variable between individuals due to differences in the nature of the surroundings in
114 which eggs are deposited and the numbers of conspecifics sharing these surroundings. As
115 such we would expect to see considerable between-individual variation in social behaviour.
116 In this study, we examined both group level social network structure and individual social
117 network position of replicated, juvenile shark aggregates in response to changes to the
118 structural complexity of their environment. Specifically, we addressed the following
119 questions: (1) Do aggregations change under different habitat types? (2) Do individuals show
120 repeatability in social network position across these different environments? (3) How do

121 individual preferences for group size influence this, and (4) to what extent does repeatability
122 and plasticity contribute to juvenile social behaviour?

123

124 **Materials and Methods**

125 **Experimental sharks**

126 Juvenile (< 1 yr) *S. canicula* were reared in the Marine Biological Association (MBA)
127 Laboratory, Plymouth, UK, from eggs laid by wild females caught locally at Whitsand Bay,
128 Cornwall, UK (50° 20.44' N, 4° 16.38' W). Experiments were conducted between August and
129 September 2011 on juveniles which were approximately 8 – 10 months old ($n = 100$) with a
130 mean total length ($L_T \pm SD$) of 179.7 ± 27.4 mm and a mean weight of 17.98 ± 7.6 g. Size-
131 matched individuals were selected from large holding aquaria (858 l capacity, 1.65 x 0.80 x
132 0.65 m) before being tagged for individual identification using visible implant elastomer tags
133 (VIE; Northwest Marine Technology, WA, USA). Tagging procedures were authorised by
134 the MBA animal ethics committee and licensed by the UK Home Office under the Animals
135 (Scientific Procedures) Act 1986. Once tagged, 10 replicated groups (10 individuals per
136 replicate) were distributed across five smaller holding aquaria (149 l capacity, 1.22 x 0.61 x
137 0.20 m, temperature: 17.0 °C, 20 individuals per aquaria) where they were allowed to recover
138 for > 10 days. As familiarity amongst conspecifics has been shown to drive non-random
139 social preferences amongst juvenile catsharks (Jacoby et al. 2012b), this recovery period also
140 provided an opportunity for individuals to familiarise with one another. Pilot studies revealed
141 that individual sex did not appear to influence association between immature juveniles
142 (D.M.P.J Unpublished data) and thus sex was chosen randomly from a stock sex ratio of
143 ~1:1. All sharks were fed approximately 2.5% wet body mass per individual per feed (Sims
144 and Davies 1994) on alternate days following data collection. Food comprised a combination

145 of white fish (mixed species), squid (*Alloteuthis subulata*) and queen scallop (*Aequipecten*
146 *opercularis*) mixed with liposome enrichment and a commercial pellet. The aquaria were
147 subject to a consistent and balanced photoperiod (12 h light/12 h dark).

148

149 **Quantifying social behaviour**

150 Each experimental replicate, consisting of 10 individuals, was transferred from the holding
151 aquaria to the large experimental arenas (858 l capacity, 1.65 x 0.80 x 0.65 m) where they
152 were allowed to acclimatise for 24 h prior to data collection. Social associations were
153 measured during daylight hours during which time activity rates in juvenile *S. canicula* are
154 relatively low (Sims et al. 1993) and individuals often aggregate socially in resting groups
155 (see Jacoby et al. 2012b). Interestingly, we found little evidence that social behaviour in
156 juveniles persists beyond group resting behaviour into active, parallel or follow swimming
157 behaviour. Indeed periods of solitary activity outside of social refuging behaviour, even
158 amongst schooling elasmobranchs, is not uncommon (e.g. Klimley and Nelson 1984). Social
159 networks were constructed over two days from scan samples of associations taken at two
160 hourly intervals between 08:00 and 18:00 h (6 samples per day). The two hourly sampling
161 frequency captured long-term, persistent associations whilst still allowing time for
162 reorganisation, and thus independent samples, between observations (see Electronic
163 Supplementary Material for raw data in which shifts in group membership can be seen to
164 occur frequently between consecutive samples). Following data collection all individuals
165 were returned to their specific holding aquaria.

166 During each sampling period, individuals were deemed in association whenever two
167 associative zones converged (i.e. a body-length radius from an individual's first dorsal fin
168 overlapped another individuals' centre point/dorsal fin). All individuals within this prescribed

169 distance of one another were considered to be associating (Franks et al. 2010). Group
170 membership of individuals was recorded for each sample and the accumulation of these
171 associations (12 samples) provided our weighted social network data (see Supporting
172 Information for data). Using the Simple Ratio Index, SRI (Cairns and Schwager 1987), all
173 dyadic pairings (two associating individuals) were assigned a weighted value between 0 and
174 1 representing the strength of association between these individuals. An SRI closer to 0
175 indicated that individuals were never seen associating, whereas a SRI of 1 suggested
176 individuals were never observed apart. Given the size of tank relative to these small sharks, it
177 was possible that during a sample all individuals might rest alone. A matrix of association
178 from the SRI was constructed for each of the 10 replicates under each habitat treatment.
179 Individual node-based metrics, derived from matrices of association, were calculated in order
180 to (1) determine the role each individual played in overall network structure and (2) calculate
181 and compare individual repeatability in social network position across context and relative to
182 conspecific behaviour. Individual network metrics included *strength*, a direct measure of
183 individual social behaviour based on the sum of an individual's association indices with all
184 other individuals in the group; *reach*, an indirect measure of connectedness that gauges the
185 proportion of individuals that are connected to the node of interest via one, two, three links
186 etc, and *clustering coefficient*, also an indirect measure, which is an indication of the role an
187 individual plays in interconnecting groups and communities based on neighbour connectivity.
188 Unweighted network metrics were considered, however it was felt that an unweighted
189 network containing 10 nodes would not have yielded sufficient variation to test for
190 consistency. To help differentiate the underlying mechanism influencing social behaviour
191 (i.e. preferences for conspecifics or simply shared preferences for locations or group sizes)
192 and to test for plastic responses in aggregation to changes in habitat complexity the following
193 data were recorded for each scan sample: Number of individuals active/resting, the number of

194 individuals grouping/solitary, the size of the groups and the identity of those individuals
195 within them (i.e. social preferences).

196 **Habitat treatments**

197 To test for the repeatability of social traits a repeated measures design was used in which
198 each replicate ‘population’ were subject to three habitat treatments which differed in their
199 level of structural complexity. We used differing levels of complexity as this was expected to
200 change patterns of grouping behaviour (Pollen et al. 2007; Orpwood et al. 2008).

201 1) T1: Gravel – each experimental aquaria was given a natural, medium gravel
202 substrate (size range diameter: 8-16 mm) spread evenly throughout the area. This
203 was defined as a *simple* habitat.

204 2) T2: Stones – each experimental aquaria contained three discrete clusters of large,
205 equal sized stones (~18 x 9 x 10 cm) always in the same location and orientation.
206 (NB. Stone ‘structures’ were sufficiently large for several groups of individuals to
207 form independently of one another at each cluster). This was defined as a *complex*
208 habitat.

209 3) T3: Mixed – each experimental aquaria contained both of the above habitat types.
210 This was defined as a combination of *simple* and *complex* habitats.

211 Little is known about the type of habitat favoured by juvenile *S. canicula* in the wild,
212 however, based on knowledge of the structures upon which egg cases are deposited, these
213 treatments were designed to reproduce some of the habitats which are likely to be
214 experienced by young sharks of this species. The subsequent ordering of these treatments was
215 randomised for each replicate to control for any potential order effects.

216 **Statistical analysis of social repeatability and environmental plasticity**

217 There are inherent difficulties associated with analysing complex, social animal systems. A
218 continued obstacle to interpreting their social networks is how to decouple those individuals
219 that share requirements for the same resources or habitat and those that demonstrate ‘true’
220 social preferences for specific group mates (see Krause and Ruxton 2002; Croft et al. 2008;
221 Jacoby et al. 2012c for discussion). One way in which to address these issues is to expose
222 groups of individuals to multiple environments and control for group size preferences during
223 the analytical randomisation of the network data. By quantifying metrics for aggregation such
224 as group sizes and number of groups alongside social network metrics such as social strength
225 or measures of centrality we can address whether gregarious animals faced with changes to
226 their immediate environment are likely to respond as a group or as individuals. Furthermore
227 we can test whether these individuals show repeatability in social network traits across
228 different ecological environments in order to understand more deeply the complex interplay
229 between behavioural consistency and plasticity at different ecological scales and contexts
230 (Dingemanse et al. 2010).

231 To test for changing patterns of aggregation in response to structural changes in the
232 environment, a multivariate, repeated measures general linear model (GLM) was performed
233 on mean group level data. The dependent variables of mean group size, mean group number
234 and mean proportion of active individuals were entered into the model, with an independent
235 variable of treatment. Repeated, within-subject contrasts, applying the Bonferroni correction
236 for pairwise comparisons, were used to gauge the relative effects of treatment on behaviour.
237 Biological effect size estimates (η^2) within the GLM were also calculated to determine how
238 much of the observed variance was explained by the independent variable.

239 To determine repeatability in social behaviour across different habitat types our approach
240 was twofold; first, correlation analyses were performed on mean network metrics to explore

241 replicate level correlations in social connectivity between habitats. Second, behavioural
242 consistency was determined at the individual level by examining individual ranked
243 consistency in relative social network position across treatments, using the metric *strength* as
244 a direct measure of individual sociality. Non-orthogonal network data is problematic to
245 analyse statistically (Croft et al. 2011) and in an attempt to overcome this, a randomisation
246 procedure was devised (Wilson et al. 2013). Individuals within a replicate were assigned a
247 rank based on their relative network strength which were then analysed for concordance
248 across treatments using Kendall's coefficient of concordance (W). For each replicate of three
249 observed networks ($n = 10$), W was calculated and compared to values of W from a frequency
250 distribution of values generated by 20,000 randomised permutations of the observed data. For
251 each permutation individual ranks within each of the three treatments were permuted,
252 calculating W on each occasion. This rank permutation procedure, an method equivalent to a
253 node randomisation was conducted in Poptools (Hood 2010) and provided a conservative null
254 distribution against which we could determine significance values for social consistency with
255 regard to network strength, whilst controlling for non-independence between the data.
256 Independent replicated P -values were combined using Stouffer's method in R (R
257 Development Core Team; www.r-project.org) to give an overall value of significance
258 (Piegorisch and Bailer 2005).

259 In an attempt to decipher the relationship between social behaviour (preferences for
260 certain conspecifics) and individual preferences for specific group sizes (e.g. above/below a
261 given threshold), mean group size preferences were calculated for each individual across
262 treatments and regressed against network strength. Group size preferences were calculated as
263 a mean for each individual by averaging the size (i.e. number of individuals) of all grouping
264 events (≥ 2 inds.) in which an individual was present during sampling. Unstandardised
265 residuals from this regression were then tested for repeatability using the permutation test

266 outlined above to determine whether individual network strength was repeatable after
267 controlling for group size preference. The effect sizes were compared between controlled and
268 uncontrolled permutation tests. Effect size estimates η^2 and W are discussed in light of the
269 influence of plasticity and repeatability on juvenile shark social behaviour. Unless otherwise
270 stated, all statistical analyses were conducted in PASW Statistics 18 (IBM Corp., Somers,
271 NY, USA) and network analyses in SOCPROG 2.4 (Whitehead 2009).

272

273 **Results**

274 **Aggregation under different habitat types**

275 With the assumptions of sphericity and normality met for all three treatments ($p > 0.05$), the
276 multivariate, repeated measures GLM revealed that there was a significant main effect of
277 habitat type on aggregation behaviour ($F_{(6,32)} = 3.239$, $p = 0.013$) with an effect size estimate
278 of $\eta^2 = 0.158$. Further exploration showed that there were significant effects of habitat on the
279 number of groups forming ($F_{(2,18)} = 10.939$, $p < 0.001$) but not on the group size ($F_{(2,18)} =$
280 1.089 , $p = 0.358$) or proportion of active individuals ($F_{(2,18)} = 1.150$, $p = 0.339$, Fig. 1).
281 Interestingly, average group size in each replicate, which was not necessarily expected to
282 covary with group number as all individuals were able to rest alone, remained virtually
283 constant across the three treatments. Analysis of contrasts revealed a significant increase in
284 mean group number between the *Simple* and *Complex* habitat treatments ($p = 0.005$, Fig. 1)
285 and also a significant decrease between the *Complex* and the *Mixed* (simple/complex
286 combination) randomised treatments ($p = 0.023$, Fig. 1). The result suggests that three
287 dimensionally complex structures appeared to encourage aggregation tendencies in these
288 juvenile sharks whilst the uniform gravel substrate appeared to have a dispersive influence.

289

290 **Social repeatability in network position**

291 Averaging network metrics at the replicate level, social network traits were found to be
292 repeatable across habitat types (Fig. 2), with strength and clustering coefficient providing the
293 strongest evidence for social consistency (Table 1). At the individual level, significant
294 concordance was found in strength of individual social network position across the three
295 different habitat types (mean $W = 0.462$ $\chi^2_{99} = 137.72$, $p = 0.0061$; Stouffer's test for
296 independent treatments: $n = 10$, $P < 0.001$). Of the three metrics, strength was chosen as it is
297 the most direct measure of individual sociality. Relatively high variation in W (range: 0.279 –
298 0.731, Table 2) was likely due to the small number of individual sharks in each experimental
299 replicate ($n = 10$) resulting in considerable fluctuation in the random mean values for
300 concordance (W_R) within the null model (Table 2). This consistent variation in social
301 connectedness, under differing randomised environments, is indicative of personality traits
302 among these young shark pups.

303

304 **Influence of individual preference for group sizes**

305 To what extent were these social personalities driven by individual preference for specific
306 group sizes? The permutation test on the regression residuals revealed that after controlling
307 for individual group size preferences, network strength was no longer repeatable (mean $W =$
308 0.3915 , $\chi^2_{99} = 116.28$, $p = 0.1132$; Stouffer's test for independent treatments: $n = 10$, $p =$
309 0.0835) suggesting group size preference as a likely mechanism for driving social
310 connectivity. Given that the biological effect size (W) only fell by 0.07 and statistically this
311 became only marginally non significant, we felt that this result warranted closer inspection. A
312 plot of the unstandardised residuals against group size (Fig. 3) suggested that the variance of
313 the residuals from the model is low (i.e. small deviation from the mean (0) and thus strong

314 support for the model) when group sizes are small, but that variance increases with group size
315 (i.e. greater departure of the residuals from the mean). This indicates that the model
316 predicting social strength from group size preference becomes more inaccurate as individuals
317 have more potential social partners suggesting group size preferences drive social consistency
318 but only within small groups (Fig. 3).

319

320 **How do plasticity and repeatability effect juvenile social behaviour?**

321 The effect size estimate of average plasticity across replicates, that is the effect size of the
322 GLM ($\eta^2 = 0.158$) was low, while the effect size for repeatable social behaviour across
323 habitats ($W = 0.464$) was high. More clearly, these experiments demonstrate that changes in
324 structural complexity of the juvenile shark's habitat drives significant changes in the level of
325 aggregation observed between individuals but that amongst those that do aggregate, there are
326 consistent social relationships that form between specific sharks.

327

328 **Discussion**

329 Consistency or repeatability of individual-based behavioural axes such as boldness or
330 exploration are well reported in the literature (Sih et al. 2004; Conrad et al. 2011) and have
331 also been explored in relation to social network structure (Pike et al. 2008; Croft et al. 2009;
332 Krause et al. 2010). Whether individuals show repeatability in social network traits across-
333 context, however, has received little attention. Indeed teasing apart the behavioural
334 mechanisms underpinning individual social preferences and repeatable, consistent behaviour
335 remains a significant challenge in the ecology of marine species, although technology is
336 assisting steps towards this endeavour in terrestrial systems (e.g. Aplin et al. 2013). Here we

337 provide an empirical illustration of consistent and repeatable animal social networks using a
338 controlled and replicated approach. Individual social network traits of juvenile sharks that are
339 known to demonstrate non-random social grouping (Jacoby et al. 2012b), were found to be
340 consistent across changing environments. Despite some plasticity in tendency of these sharks
341 to aggregate under the different conditions, at the individual level the overriding influence on
342 social behaviour was to maintain a similar level of social strength and connectivity as
343 revealed through comparison of the effect sizes from the two sets of analyses. We show that
344 individual preferences for aggregating within specific group sizes prove to be a strong
345 mechanistic driver of this result but that perhaps social preferences play more of a role in
346 larger groups (i.e. above the average group size) where more options for conspecific social
347 interaction become available. To our knowledge, this is the first quantitative evidence of
348 repeatability in polyadic social network traits, an idea put forward initially by Wilson et al.
349 (2013). Furthermore, we also provide the first evidence of repeatability of behaviour in the
350 taxonomic class Chondrichthyes (sharks, rays, skates and chimeras), confirming that stable
351 social relationships in catsharks appear important in early, as well as adult life stages. These
352 results suggest the potential for personality traits in Chondrichthyans. We remain cautious,
353 however, of interpreting the results in the context of personality as individuals were not
354 explicitly assayed for any other aspects of behaviour, meaning the mechanisms behind these
355 potential personalities remain unclear (Dingemanse et al. 2010).

356 An animal's physical environment can play a significant role in influencing social
357 contact within a population (Tyler and Rose 1994). In addition, the social network position of
358 an individual is also, in part, derived by the interactive strategies of conspecifics that, in turn,
359 influence individual experience and future social behaviour (Krause et al. 2010). In the
360 presence of large, three-dimensionally complex structures, juvenile sharks in our study
361 showed an overall increase in the number of groups forming on average than in simplified

362 habitat types. Throughout the experimentation, the skin colouration of *S. canicula* was
363 observed to adopt a lighter or darker shade dependent upon the colour of the aquarium
364 background (DMPJ pers. obs.). When presented with a gravel substrate, individuals appeared
365 to reduce aggregation, seemingly able to background match with this substrate more
366 effectively than the pale aquarium base, suggesting a degree of flexibility in how these
367 animals respond to perceived risk. It has been shown through experimentation using teleost
368 fishes that the ecological environment experienced by individuals influences the social
369 interactions of gregarious species through the direct (Croft et al. 2006; Orpwood et al. 2008)
370 and indirect effects of predation (Croft et al. 2003). The behaviour of juvenile, benthic
371 elasmobranchs in the wild is largely unknown and while perceived risk of predation was not
372 explicitly tested in this experiment, aggregation is likely one of several antipredator
373 behavioural responses adopted by small sharks (Guttridge et al. 2012; Jacoby et al. 2012c).

374 Individual preferences for specific group sizes can fluctuate through time and under
375 different ecological contexts depending upon a myriad of phenotypic, physiological and
376 behavioural influences from colouration relative to background or conspecifics through to
377 parasite load or foraging strategy (see Krause and Ruxton 2002 for review). Tendency to
378 aggregate thus clearly regulates the frequency and availability of potential social interactions
379 that might perhaps preferentially be influenced by familiarity or kinship (Barber and Wright
380 2001; Wiszniewski et al. 2010). Indeed these social preferences too are likely to be context
381 dependent (Kurvers et al. 2013). Individual behavioural consistency therefore must trade off
382 against fluctuations in social and ecological environment and indeed in the current study
383 evidence of different aggregation behaviour (i.e. changes in the mean number of groups
384 forming) between the treatments was observed despite consistency in relative social network
385 traits of the individual sharks themselves. One way in which to differentiate between the
386 environmental and social drivers of behavioural consistency would have been to re-assort

387 individuals between groups and retest them for repeatability. This would have allowed us to
388 determine more strategically whether it was individual social behaviour or the group that
389 constrains individual flexibility. While this was beyond the scope of the current experiment,
390 it would be a valuable future extension to this work.

391 When we consider the mechanism driving consistency in these experiments, the evidence
392 for social preferences remains compelling; highly consistent network metrics across
393 treatments, taken as an average for the group, support the small reduction in W when
394 consistency was tested for after controlling for group size preference at the individual level (a
395 marginally non significant result). Residual analysis suggested that perhaps group size
396 preference and social preference influence network traits implicitly at different group-level or
397 population-level densities, however this would need to be tested directly using a different
398 approach. For now, the results of the present study indicate a system whereby juvenile *S.*
399 *canicula*, a model elasmobranch species in physiological, behavioural and ecological
400 research, demonstrate consistent individual variation in social behaviour, across context,
401 based on individual preferences for aggregation. Typical of a heterogeneous social network
402 for example, some individuals appeared more solitary, recording low social network metrics
403 relative to conspecifics and using the gravel substrate as an opportunity to become
404 individually inconspicuous whilst out in the open. By contrast, other individuals appeared
405 more gregarious, recording stronger social connections and were thus more conspicuous,
406 using the stone structures to hide in and around as a group. Ecologically, this reflects the
407 notion that some individuals, where sociality perhaps correlates with other behavioural traits
408 such as boldness/shyness, harbour a disproportionate percentage of links within a social
409 network and therefore play a key role in interconnecting others (Krause et al. 2010). Further
410 research would be required to disentangle more fully some of these behavioural correlates
411 that would determine the role of personality traits in marine predators.

412 Using manipulation experiments to induce changes in the physical environment of young
413 sharks provided the opportunity to quantify replicated network structures. In doing so we
414 were able to explore the repeatability of individual social network position. We demonstrate
415 plasticity in aggregation tendency at the group level which we discuss in light of the different
416 behaviour of individuals of high and low social connectivity. In addition we show
417 consistency in individual network traits of sharks under changing environments and assess
418 the influence of group size preferences on this result in an attempt to understand the
419 mechanisms behind repeatable social behaviour in these animals. In beginning to understand
420 the social preferences and behaviour of these often elusive predators, this study paints a more
421 complex picture of social personalities than perhaps originally thought.

422

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428

429 **Ethical Standards**

430

431 Animal maintenance, husbandry and tagging procedures were authorised by the MBA animal
432 ethics committee and were carried out by licensed individuals in accordance with the UK
433 Home Office Animals (Scientific Procedures) Act 1986.

434

435 **References**

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555 **Figures**

556 **Fig. 1** Interaction graph (\pm SE) of the number of active individuals (solid line), the group size
557 (dashed line) and the number of groups (dotted line) during the three habitat manipulation
558 experiments. Only the dotted lines show significant differences between treatments at the $p <$
559 0.05 level

560

561 **Fig. 2** Group level correlations in mean social network metrics, *strength* (filled circles),
562 *Reach* (open circles) and *Clustering coefficient* (filled triangles) between three randomised
563 habitat treatments (T1, T2 and T3). See Table 1 for accompanying statistics

564

565 **Fig. 3** Unstandardised residuals from regressing individual preference for group size and
566 social network strength plotted in relation to group size (filled circles = T1, unfilled triangles
567 = T2 and unfilled circles = T3). Dotted line represents mean group size (2.94) across
568 treatments with the zero line representing no deviation from the regression model. Variance
569 increases with greater group sizes suggesting a decoupling of group size preference and
570 social strength with increasing options for social interactions

571 **Tables**

572 Table 1 Group level correlations between social network metrics across three habitat
 573 treatments. See Fig. 2 for graphical representation

Network metric	Treatment correlation	<i>n</i>	<i>r</i>	<i>p</i>
<i>Strength</i>	1/2	10	0.455	0.093
(Spearman)	1/3	10	0.612	0.030
	2/3	10	0.576	0.041
<i>Reach</i>	1/2	10	0.406	0.122
(Spearman)	1/3	10	0.624	0.027
	2/3	10	0.527	0.059
<i>Clustering Coefficient</i>	1/2	10	0.576	0.041
(Pearson)	1/3	10	0.678	0.016
	2/3	10	0.347	0.163

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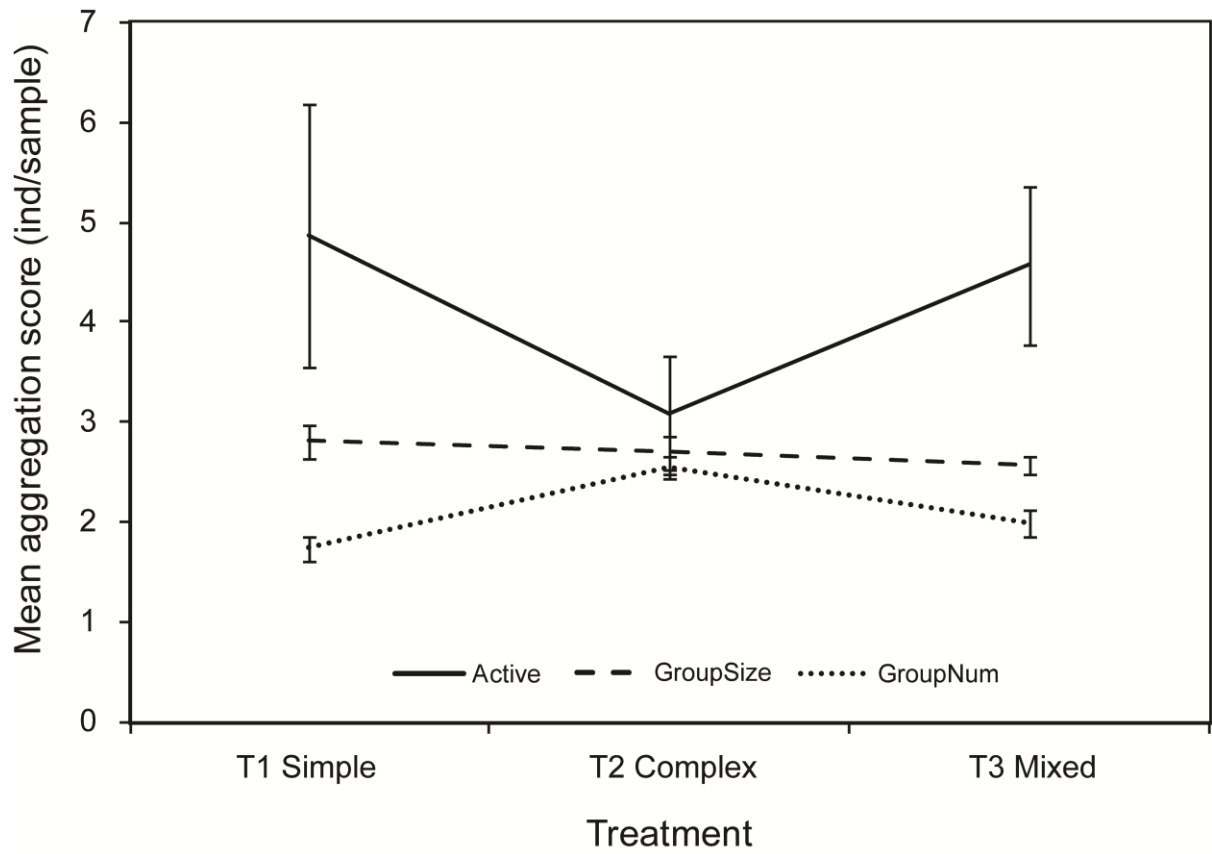
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576 Table 2 Observed (o) and randomised (R) concordance (W) of social network position based
 577 on strength of individual social affiliation across three independent habitat treatments

Replicate	Treatment order	Ranked social network concordance		
		W_O	W_R	p
1	1,2,3	0.372	0.251	0.1058
2	1,3,2	0.279	0.160	0.1033
3	2,3,1	0.512	0.416	0.0566
4	2,1,3	0.731	0.356	0.0011
5	3,1,2	0.472	0.512	0.1082
6	3,2,1	0.453	0.420	0.1062
7	1,2,3	0.562	0.261	0.0106
8	1,3,2	0.426	0.277	0.1053
9	2,3,1	0.391	0.394	0.1066
10	2,1,3	0.419	0.136	0.1075
Stouffer's combined P				< 0.001

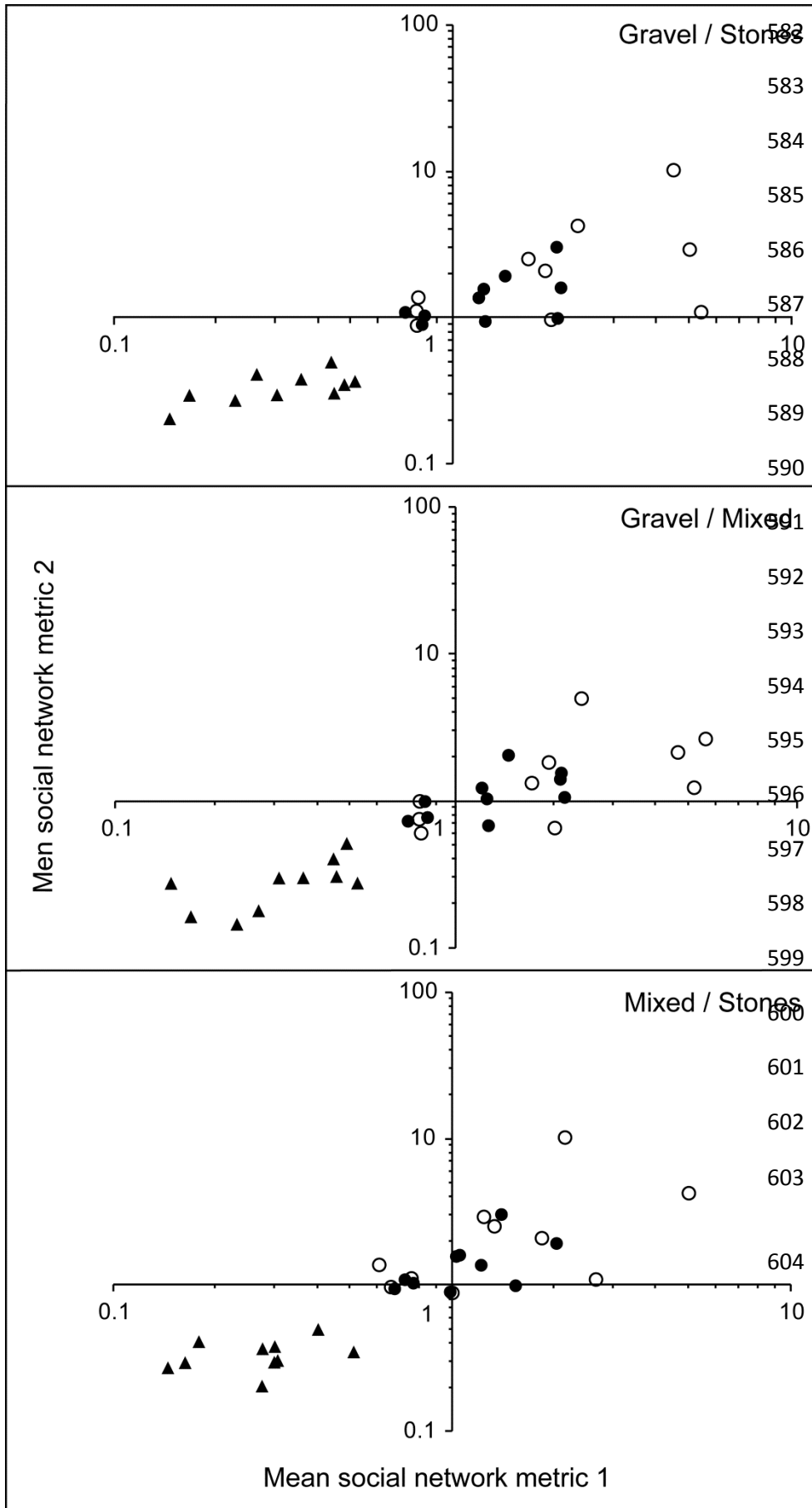
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579 Figure 1.

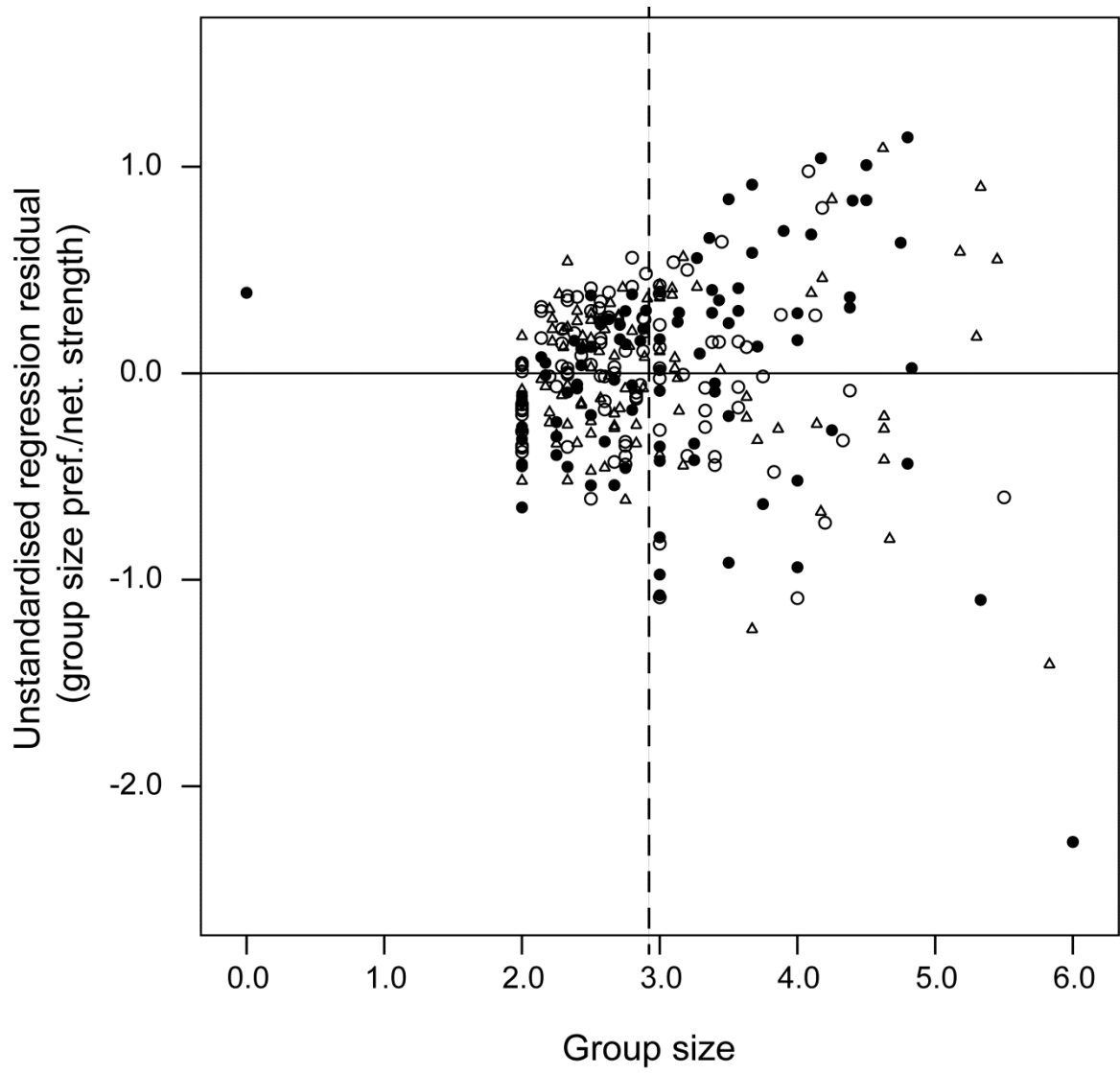


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581 Figure 2.



605 Figure 3.



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