
The shy prefer familiar congeners

Benhaïm David ^{1,*}, Ferrari Sebastien ², Chatain Beatrice ³, Bégout Marie-Laure ²

¹ Cnam- Intechmer, BP 324, 50103 Cherbourg cedex, France

² Ifremer, Place Gaby Coll, F-17137 L'Houmeau, France

³ Ifremer, Station Expérimentale d'Aquaculture, Chemin de Maguelone, F-34250 Palavas-Les-Flots, France

* Corresponding author : David Benhaïm, email address : david.benhaim@cnam.fr

Abstract :

The shy–bold continuum is both a fundamental aspect of human behavior and a relatively stable behavioral trait for many other species. Here we assessed whether shy individuals prefer familiar congeners, taking the European sea bass, a recently domesticated fish showing similar behavioral responses to wild fish, as a model to better understand the inter-individual variability in social behavior previously observed in this species. In the wild, the link between familiarity i.e. the preference of fish for familiar congeners and boldness could be part of the mechanism underlying shoaling formation in fish. Thirty fish were individually tested in a device designed to assess the preference for a familiar vs. an unfamiliar congener on the basis of visual cues only. An open field test (OFT) with shelter was performed on the same fish 32 days later to assess the boldness of each individual. Variables of interest included the proportion of time spent in the shelter, border and center zone of the arena and variables of activity. Variables measured in OFT were collapsed into first principal component scores using Principal Components Analysis (PCA) which allowed characterizing a shy-bold continuum. Time spent near the familiar congener was negatively correlated with boldness i.e. shy individuals spent most of the time near the familiar congener. We discuss the relevance of these findings to the understanding of the behavior of European sea bass and suggest that the link between familiarity and shyness is a general aspect of both animal and human behavior.

Highlights

► We assessed sea bass preference for familiar congener. ► We assessed sea bass boldness. ► Shy individuals prefer to spend time near familiar congeners. ► We suggest the link between familiarity and shyness is a general aspect of both animal and human behaviour.

Keywords : familiarity, personality, open field, social behavior, swimming activity, shyness, shoaling behavior, visual cue

30 **INTRODUCTION**

31 The shy–bold continuum is both a fundamental aspect of human behavior and a relatively
32 stable behavioral component for many other species (Wilson, 1994). Coleman and Wilson
33 (1998) suggested that shyness and boldness may be context specific, but they also form one of
34 the five axes of animal personality defined as a correlated set of individual behavioral and
35 physiological characteristics that are consistent over time and across situations (Koolhaas et
36 al., 1999). These five axes are: boldness (response to potentially risky situations), activity,
37 exploration (response to novel situations), aggressiveness and sociability. Correlations
38 between different personality traits may exist, leading to the formation of a behavioral
39 syndrome (Sih et al., 2004). The shy-bold continuum has been studied in numerous
40 vertebrates (Benus, 1991; Boon, 2007; Careau, 2010; Verbeek et al., 1994) , including teleosts
41 e.g. the rainbow trout *Oncorhynchus mykiss* (Øverli et al., 2006; Sneddon, 2003) and the
42 European sea bass (Ferrari et al., 2014; Ferrari et al., 2015) as well as in invertebrates (Briffa
43 and Greenaway, 2011).

44 In fish species, boldness is usually associated with a proactive strategy whereas shyness is
45 associated with a reactive strategy. Proactive animals tend to engage in active avoidance or
46 cope with stressful stimuli (Koolhaas, 2008; Koolhaas et al., 1999) through a “fight or flight”
47 response contrary to reactive ones which display a passive behavior through a “freeze and
48 hide” response. Bold fish take more risks and explore their environment faster (less
49 cautiously) when exposed to novelty (MacKenzie, 2009; Øverli et al., 2006), and they are
50 more aggressive, dominant (Castanheira et al., 2013; Øverli et al., 2004), and less flexible
51 than shy fish i.e. they show a lower variability in their behavioral responses with
52 environmental changes (Ruiz-Gomez, 2011). By contrast, shy individuals tend to be risk
53 averse and are generally neophobic, show higher behavioral flexibility and are more

54 responsive to their environment (Sneddon, 2003), and more sociable than bold individuals
55 (Ward et al., 2004). Intermediate fish are in the middle of these two extremes.

56 In the wild, gregarious species form shoals that represent non-random assemblages according
57 to species, size, parasite load and familiarity i.e. individuals prefer to join groups with which
58 they have had a previous experience (Griffiths, 2003; Griffiths and Ward, 2007; Hoare et al.,
59 2000; Krause et al., 1996; Krause and Ruxton, 2002; Pitcher and Parrish, 1993). Shoaling
60 behavior in fish is also an important antipredator strategy (Magurran, 1990; Pitcher and
61 Parrish, 1993). Familiarity maximizes the benefits of grouping and mediates association
62 decisions in shoaling species (Griffiths and Ward, 2007). However, the importance of social
63 dynamic and fidelity of fish shoals in the wild remains unclear because these variables are
64 difficult to monitor (Helfman, 1984; Hilborn, 1991; Hoare et al., 2000; Svensson et al., 2000).
65 Furthermore, the decision to shoal strongly depends on the context encountered by the fish
66 e.g. European minnows *Phoxinus phoxinus* shoal to obtain shelter, but only when there is
67 insufficient physical structure available (Orpwood et al., 2008). Thus, one could expect that
68 the preference for familiar fish increases under the threat of predation, but several studies
69 have found that the preference of fish for familiar individuals is not affected by the
70 appearance of a model predator (Brown, 2002; Griffiths, 1997). This suggests that fish have
71 adapted to maintain a consistent preference for familiar congeners in habitats where they are
72 often exposed to predators.

73 It is well known that boldness can have potential fitness consequences by influencing many
74 traits including mate choice (Godin and Dugatkin, 1996), parental care (Budaev, 1999),
75 reproductive success (Armitage and Van Vuren, 2003) and anti-predator behavior (Réale and
76 Festa-Bianchet, 2003), but the link between familiarity, i.e. the preference for familiar
77 congeners, and boldness as a mechanism underlying shoaling formation in fish, has not yet
78 been addressed.

79 The aim of the current study was to assess whether shy individuals prefer familiar congeners,
80 taking the European sea bass as a model. This species was recently domesticated and shows
81 high interindividual behavioral variability, with some domesticated individuals presenting
82 similar responses to wild fish (Benhaïm et al., 2012). In a previous study (Benhaïm et al.,
83 2013a) comparing wild and domesticated juvenile sea bass, we found that fish were similarly
84 attracted to unfamiliar congeners, on the basis of visual cues alone. However, some
85 individuals (both wild and domesticated) spent most of their time on the opposite side (empty
86 compartment) of the unfamiliar congener. Here, we used a preference test for a familiar vs.
87 unfamiliar congener and a boldness test to examine whether this inter-individual variability
88 could be explained by a link between the shy-bold continuum and familiarity.

89

90 **METHODS**

91 *Experimental animals and housing conditions*

92 Two separate batches of sea bass were hatched at the Aquanord SA farm (France). On
93 November 11th 2011, when the fish were 3 days old, they were transferred to the experimental
94 station of INTECHMER (Cherbourg) and grown in a recirculated system. All parameters
95 were set according to the protocol used by Aquanord hatchery.

96 Fish (about 300 individuals per batch) were later grown in an open water system (i.e. physico-
97 chemical parameters resembling natural conditions) in two separate 2 m³ tanks until the
98 beginning of this experiment which started on March 22nd 2014. At this time, the fish were
99 865 days old.

100 Fish from both tanks were anesthetized with benzocaine (200 ppm) and 40 individuals from
101 each tank were selected based on previous biometric data. Total length (mean \pm SD) was 13.9
102 \pm 0.9 cm in the first tank and 13.8 \pm 0.8 cm in the second; weight was 28.4 \pm 3.2 g in the first
103 tank and 28.1 \pm 2.8 g in the second. All the selected individuals were PIT-tagged (Iso, 9 x 1.4

104 mm) on the same day by inserting a tag horizontally just behind the head to prevent any
105 change of position after implantation.

106 To optimize the familiarization process between individuals, the two groups of 40 selected
107 individuals were placed in two 200 L tanks for 75 days. The tanks were provided with water
108 from a recirculated system. During this period, the light regime was a 16:8 LD cycle (light
109 onset at 06:00 U.T. +1). In both tanks, temperature, salinity and oxygen level were (Mean \pm
110 SD), $18.5 \pm 0.3^{\circ}\text{C}$, $35.0 \pm 0.0 \text{ g L}^{-1}$, $6.5 \pm 0.2 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$, respectively. Fish were fed manually
111 until satiation three times daily with a commercial diet (Neo Grower Extra Marin, 4 mm, Le
112 Gouessant, France).

113

114 *Observation room*

115 Observations were made in a dedicated room. All experiments were video recorded at 25
116 frames per second (Ethovision XT recording, Noldus, the Netherlands; camera Ikegami
117 CD48E; 2.8 - 12 mm Computar® lens equipped with an IR filter positioned at 180 cm above
118 the water surface). An infrared casing (1x1 m, Noldus, The Netherlands) was placed under the
119 apparatus used in this experiment to enable the recording of videos at low light intensity and
120 to improve video analysis. Two 60 W light bulbs were horizontally placed on walls located on
121 the left and right sides of the infrared casing. They were located 180 cm above the infrared
122 casing and provided an indirect and homogenous lighting on the apparatus. The light intensity
123 measured at the water surface was 100 Lux.

124

125 *Familiarity test*

126 Individuals were tested one by one in a device (90 * 40 cm with a water height of 15 cm)
127 constructed from opaque white plastic and transparent Plexiglas® (Fig. 1). The start box (40 x
128 20 cm) was separated from the rest of the device by a removable transparent wall. The end of

129 the device (located in front of the start box) was occupied by two separate compartments
130 (precluding olfactory cues) with one transparent wall. These compartments, continuously
131 supplied with air (air pump), were used to place a congener that was either familiar or
132 unfamiliar to the test individual. The familiarity test was therefore based on visual cues that
133 have been shown to underpin individual recognition in a variety of species (Balshine-Earn et
134 al., 1998; Fricke, 1973; Hert, 1985). Shortly before observations, the device was filled with
135 water, the level of which was maintained at 15 cm. Temperature, salinity and oxygen level
136 were verified before and after the end of observations performed on each fish and were
137 respectively $18.4 \pm 0.5^{\circ}\text{C}$, $35.0 \pm 0.0 \text{ g L}^{-1}$, $6.6 \pm 1.3 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$ before and $18.4 \pm 0.3^{\circ}\text{C}$, $35.0 \pm$
138 0.0 g L^{-1} , $6.6 \pm 1.2 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$ after.

139 Before the beginning of observations, the position of the unfamiliar or familiar congener on
140 the left or right side inside the independent boxes located at the end of the device was
141 randomly determined for each individual. This device shape was used instead of a T-maze to
142 minimize potential bias related to side-turning preference. The first tested fish was gently
143 collected from the tank using a net and immediately placed inside a bucket closed by a cover
144 and then placed in the start-box. After a 10 min acclimatization period, the transparent wall
145 was removed and the video capture started. The device was filmed for 30 min. The
146 experiment was carried out when the fish were 939 days old and three days were required to
147 test all individuals ($N = 30$). The water was entirely renewed every two hours. The unfamiliar
148 and familiar fish used as the attractors were changed every two hours to minimize the stress of
149 confinement and handling (10 individuals from each category were used for the experiment).
150 Before being returned to their initial tank, fish were anesthetized and their length and weight
151 were measured.

152 The video recordings were analyzed using EthoVision XT software (Noldus, The
153 Netherlands), which allowed six virtual zones to be defined in the device (Fig. 1) and to track
154 the swimming behavior of the fish.

155 Different variables of interest (position preference or activity) were chosen to analyze the
156 behavior of the fish:

157 -The proportion of time spent in each of the six defined zones (%): Start-Box in front of the
158 familiar (*Start-Fam*) or the unfamiliar congener (*Start-UnFam*), Pre-Familiar and Pre-
159 Unfamiliar located between *Start-Fam/Start-Unfam* and *Fam/UnFam* (*Pre-Fam* and *Pre-*
160 *Unfam*), zone near the familiar congener (*Fam*), zone near the unfamiliar congener (*UnFam*).

161 -The distance traveled by each fish in the device (*Dtot* in mm).

162 -The velocity mean expressed in body length per second (*Vel* in BL s⁻¹).

163 The last two variables quantified the fish swimming activity level in the device.

164 -The absolute angular velocity of the fish expressed in degree per second (*Vang* in ° s⁻¹),
165 which was calculated by the software as follows:

166 $Vang_n = RTA_n / t_n - t_{n-1}$ where RTA_n is the relative turn angle for the sample n , and $t_n - t_{n-1}$ is
167 the time difference between the current and previous sample. The rate of change in direction
168 was unsigned. The turn angle was calculated as the difference between two subsequent values
169 for the direction of the head. This variable was an indicator of the amount of turning per unit
170 time and quantified the swimming path complexity, high *Vang* values being linked to higher
171 level of vigilance (Benhaïm et al., 2012).

172

173

174 *Boldness test in the open field apparatus*

175 An open field test (OFT) with shelter was performed when the fish were 973 days old i.e. 32
176 days after the familiarity test to ensure the fish had recovered from the first test. Among

177 numerous behavioral tests used to assess the shyness-boldness axis, open field tests (Budaev
178 1999, 1999; Yoshida 2005) are widely used and was chosen in this case because it has been
179 successfully applied in previous studies on sea bass (Ferrari et al., 2014). The open field (90 *
180 40 cm with a water height of 15 cm, Fig. 2) contained a shelter (opaque PVC box 20 * 20 *
181 20 cm closed by a vertically sliding opaque trapdoor) placed in one corner and was divided
182 into four virtual zones using the software EthoVision XT: Entry, Pre-shelter, Border and
183 Center. The center zone was considered a risky area because thigmotaxis (staying close to the
184 walls of an arena) is a common measure indicative of a high degree of shyness in such an
185 apparatus (Dahlbom, 2011; Maximino, 2010). Selected fish (N=30) were individually placed
186 in the shelter. After a 10 min acclimatization period, the door was gently opened. If the
187 individual did not leave the shelter within 20 minutes following the acclimatization time, the
188 experiment was stopped and a latency of 1200 seconds was attributed. . Before being returned
189 to their initial tank, fish were anesthetized and their length and weight were measured.

190 Variables of interest were extracted with Ethovision XT and were as follows:

191 - The latency of each individual to emerge from the shelter (*Lat* in s), the proportion of time
192 (%) respectively spent in the shelter (*Shelter*), the center zone (*Center*), the border zone
193 (*Border*), the pre-shelter zone (*Pre-Shelter*), and at the entrance of the shelter (*Entry*).

194 - The mean distance from the shelter (*DtoShelter* in cm) and the number of returns to the
195 shelter (*FreqShelter*).

196 - The distance travelled by each fish in the device (*Dtot* in mm), the absolute angular velocity
197 of the fish expressed in degrees per second (*Vang* in $^{\circ} \text{s}^{-1}$), and its mean velocity expressed in
198 body length per second (*Vel* in BL s^{-1}).

199

200 *Statistical analysis*

201

202 In both experiments, the spatial distribution of fish was analyzed using parametric analysis of
203 variances (ANOVA) with zone as an independent factor after verification of distribution
204 normality and homoscedasticity (Dagnélie 1975). If the data did not fulfill these requirements,
205 non-parametric Kruskal-Wallis tests were used. Significant ANOVA were followed by a
206 posthoc multiple comparison test (Newman–Keuls) and significant Kruskal-Wallis tests by
207 rank-based multiple comparisons.

208 All the variables measured in OFT were collapsed into first principal component scores using
209 Principal Components Analysis (PCA). A correlation matrix was used to verify
210 multicollinearity, i.e., to identify variables that did not correlate with any other variable, or
211 correlate very highly ($r = 0.9$) with one or more variables. Those latter variables were
212 removed from downstream analyses. The remaining selected variables used for the PCA
213 were: *Shelter*, *Center*, *Border*, *Pre-Shelter*, *Entry*, *DtoShelter* and *FreqShelter*. Each
214 individual fish was then affected a PC1 score later used in cross-context analysis. The too
215 small number of variables issued by the familiarity test prevented running PCA analysis.

216 Associations within tests were assessed by non-parametric Spearman's rank order correlation.
217 The correlations within tests were corrected using the Bonferroni method with $n = 9$ for the
218 familiarity test and $n = 11$ tests for the OFT, thresholds for significance being 0.0055 and
219 0.0045, respectively. For cross-context analysis (between tests), we analyzed the correlation
220 between individual values for either the proportion of time spent in the *Fam* zone or *UnFam*
221 zone and PC1 individual scores from OFT using Pearson's correlation coefficient.

222

223

224 **RESULTS**

225 During the experiment, no mortality was recorded and all fish grew similarly: Body weight
226 and Total length were (Mean \pm SD) 32.6 ± 3.2 g and 14.3 ± 0.7 cm, respectively, after the
227 familiarity test, and 38.0 ± 4.2 g and 15.1 ± 0.7 cm, respectively after the open field test.

228

229 *Familiarity test*

230 All the fish tested left the start zone after the wall was removed, i.e. none of the fish spent
231 100% of the time in the *Start-Fam* or *Start-UnFam* zone.

232 Fish spent most of the time in the *Fam* zone (mean \pm SE, $28.9 \pm 6.7\%$, Fig. 3) but also some
233 time in the *UnFam*, *Start-Fam* and *Start-UnFam* zones ($19.3 \pm 5.2\%$, $18.3 \pm 5.7\%$ and $19.3 \pm$
234 6.4% , respectively). The time spent in the device was not randomly distributed between zones
235 (ANOVA: $F_{5, 180} = 2.7$, $p = 0.02$), with fish spending significantly more time in the *Fam*,
236 *UnFam* and *Start-Fam* zones than in the *Pre-Fam* and *Pre-UnFam* zones (Fig. 3). There was
237 high inter-individual variability with 11 individuals spending most of the time in the *Fam*
238 zone, six in the *UnFam* zone, four in the *Start-UnFam* zone, five in the *Start-Fam* zone, two
239 in the *Pre-Fam* zone, and two in the *Pre-UnFam* zone. The proportion of time spent in the
240 *Fam* zone was significantly correlated with *Vang* (Spearman rank correlation: $r_s = -0.58$, $N =$
241 30 , $p = 0.002$) and with *Vel* ($r_s = 0.67$, $N = 30$, $p = 0.0002$).

242

243 *Open field test*

244 Six individuals (out of 30) spent all the time inside the shelter. Including those fish with a
245 latency of 1200 s, the mean latency to emerge from the *Shelter* was 460.3 ± 88.1 s. Fish spent
246 most of the time in the *Shelter* and *Border* zones ($56.1 \pm 7.9\%$ and $24.4 \pm 6.0\%$, respectively,
247 Fig. 4). The proportion of time spent in the apparatus significantly differed between zones
248 (Kruskal-Wallis test: $H_{4,150} = 30.05$, $p < 0.0001$), with fish spending more time in the
249 *Shelter* zone than in the *Center*, *Pre-shelter* and *Entry* zones (Fig. 4). There was a significant

250 correlation between *Dtot* and the proportion of time spent in *Border* or *Shelter* zones ($r =$
251 0.46 , $N = 30$, $p = 0.04$, and $r_s = -0.49$, $N = 30$, $p = 0.03$, respectively). *Dtot* and *DtoShelter*
252 were correlated ($r = 0.57$, $N = 30$, $p = 0.01$), and *Vang* and *FreqShelter* were inversely
253 correlated ($r = -0.52$, $N = 30$, $p = 0.02$). Finally, the proportion of time spent in *Shelter* was
254 strongly inversely correlated with that spent in *Border* zone ($r = -0.98$, $N = 30$, $p < 0.0001$).
255 The first component (PC1) explained 44% of the variation in the data (loadings: *Shelter* =
256 0.97 . *Border* = 0.85 . *Center* = -0.55 . *PreShelter* = 0.29 . *Entry* = 0.36 . *FreqShelter* = 0.16 .
257 *DtoShelter* = 0.93). PC1 was therefore related to two extremes: the negative pole to high
258 values of *Shelter* (contribution to the first component was 0.31 and the correlation was -
259 0.974), the positive one to high values of *Border* and *DtoShelter* (contributions to the first
260 component were 0.23 and 0.28 and the correlations were 0.85 and 0.93 respectively). PC1
261 represented therefore a gradient from shy (high values of *shelter*) to bold individuals (high
262 values of *Border* and *DtoShelter*).

263

264 *Links between the Familiarity and open field test results*

265 The proportion of time spent in the *Fam* zone was negatively correlated with PC1 individual
266 scores ($r = -0.41$, $N = 30$, $p = 0.04$, Fig. 5). Proportion of time spent in the *UnFam* zone was
267 not significantly correlated with PC1 individual scores ($r = -0.17$, $N = 30$, $p = 0.41$).

268

269 **DISCUSSION**

270 The aim of this study was to assess whether shy individuals prefer congeners with whom they
271 are familiar, taking the European sea bass, a recently domesticated fish species, as a model.
272 We determined whether fish were attracted to a familiar or an unfamiliar congener and then
273 assessed boldness using an open field test.

274 Fish tended to spend more time in the zone near the familiar congener but this was not
275 significantly different from that spent near the unfamiliar congener. This is likely due to high
276 variability between individuals that reduced the statistical power of the analysis. This
277 variability has already been observed under similar situations where we showed that some
278 individuals voluntarily avoided the zone located near an unfamiliar congener, preferring
279 instead to spend time in the opposite zone near an empty compartment, whereas others spent
280 most of the time in the start box (Benhaïm et al., 2013a). Overall, fish spent almost 60% of
281 the time near a familiar or unfamiliar congener, possibly because social or gregarious species
282 may greatly benefit from social interactions regulating the stress response, especially when
283 placed in a novel and therefore stressful environment (Allen et al., 2009). Indeed, group
284 behavior promotes growth as a result of social facilitation (Peuhkuri et al., 1995; Stirling,
285 1977) and limits the risk of predation (Roberts, 1996). Vigilance is much lower when the
286 distance between neighbors is small, because information about whether other group members
287 have detected a predator is easier to obtain from close individuals than from distant ones
288 (Pöysä, 1994). Such gregarious behavior is widespread among fishes, and swarms, flocks,
289 herds-group formation are also a widespread phenomenon in many different animal species
290 populations (Krause and Ruxton, 2002). Further, the time spent near the familiar congener
291 was positively correlated with velocity and negatively correlated with angular velocity.
292 Velocity and angular velocity are linked to a high level of visual interaction between the
293 tested fish and the familiar congener through the transparent wall and a lower level of
294 vigilance as already shown in previous studies (Benhaïm et al., 2013a).

295 Several theories can explain the observed variability in behavior. First, the decision to shoal
296 strongly depends on the context encountered by the fish, in accordance with Hamilton's
297 theory of the selfish herd (Hamilton, 1971). Fish choosing not to shoal with familiar or
298 unfamiliar congeners may be considered subordinate. Indeed, staying alone is the best

299 strategy for subordinates (Pitcher and Parrish, 1993), because it protects them from suffering
300 injuries in an escalated contest (Hilborn, 1991). Second, congener avoidance or preference for
301 the familiar or the unfamiliar congener may also be linked to particular behavioral traits such
302 as boldness, as discussed below.

303

304 The proportion of time spent in the shelter, which provides a relevant indication of boldness,
305 varied substantially between individuals, consistent with previous studies (Biro and Stamps
306 2008; Brown, 2007; Budaev 1999; Eriksson, 2010; Fraser, 2001). When the fish left the
307 shelter, they spent most of the time in the Border zone and only a very short time in the
308 Center zone. The proportion of time spent in the border zone was negatively correlated with
309 the proportion of time spent in the shelter, consistent with a previous study on the same
310 species under similar conditions (Ferrari et al., 2014). Experiments in such devices involve
311 handling and isolating the fish, which is clearly stressful for all individuals regardless of their
312 boldness level, as already shown by previous studies on Zebrafish, *Danio rerio* (Blaser and
313 Vira, 2014) and sea bass (Benhaïm et al., 2013a; 2013b; 2013c). This may explain why all
314 individuals preferred to swim in the border zone, because this area is perceived by the fish to
315 be safer than the central zone. Unsurprisingly, the total distance traveled in the device was
316 positively correlated with the time spent in the border zone and the distance to shelter which
317 showed that the fish were not motionless when they left the shelter as already observed in a
318 previous study (Ferrari et al., 2014). The PCA approach allowed us to identify a clear Shelter-
319 Border/Distance to shelter axis which can be used as a proxy for evaluating the shy-bold
320 continuum in sea bass (Ferrari et al., 2015).

321

322 Linking the results of the familiarity and open field tests, we found a strong negative
323 correlation between the proportion of time spent near the familiar congener and boldness. Fish

324 which spent more time inside than outside the Shelter (i.e. shy fish) preferred to stay near the
325 familiar congener. On the contrary, bold fish did not show any preference for the familiar or
326 unfamiliar congener *i.e.* they were equally attracted to both congeners. Shy fish tend to be risk
327 averse (Wilson, 1994); which is supported by our work, as they preferred to shoal with
328 familiar congeners with whom they have established a stable relationship over a long period
329 of time without encountering major aggression or other incidents that they were unable to
330 cope with previously. However, our study did not show any obvious avoidance of unfamiliar
331 congeners in shy individuals. Bold fish have been shown to take more risks and explore their
332 environment less cautiously when exposed to novelty (Øverli et al., 2006; MacKenzie et al.,
333 2009), which may explain why they spent the same amount of time near familiar and
334 unfamiliar congeners. We hypothesize that these individual differences in behavior could be
335 related to personality traits even though the consistency over time was not tested in the
336 present study. The repeatability of personality tests is still a major concern in sea bass as well
337 as in other animal species. For example, Bell et al. (2009) reported that repeatability was
338 greater for experiments separated by short intervals than for those separated by longer
339 intervals. Further, a previous work on sea bass showed the lack of consistency over time in
340 the results obtained for individual-based tests (OFT was however not used in this experiment)
341 that is likely due to the stress induced by repeated trials (Ferrari et al., 2015). The results of
342 these repeated tests could also be biased by the high memory and learning abilities observed
343 in this species, defined as a change of behavior with experience (Dill, 1983).

344 The familiar congener preference could also be related to sociability and the link between
345 shyness and the familiar congener preference could be indicative of a behavioral syndrome in
346 sea bass. As already shown by previous studies on birds, shy individuals tend to be more
347 sociable than bold individuals (Verbeek et al., 1994). The potential existence of behavioral
348 syndromes in sea bass has already been suggested in previous work e.g. individuals with a

349 passive response during a restraint test tended to be shy during an open field test (Ferrari et
350 al., 2014). The present study and a previous one on the same species (Benhaïm et al., 2013a)
351 showing that individuals were attracted to unfamiliar congeners when they had no other
352 choice apart from an empty compartment in a T-maze, enable a better understanding of the
353 decision process in sea bass. If they have the choice, bold individuals will spend the same
354 amount of time near familiar and unfamiliar congeners whereas shy individuals will spend
355 more time near the familiar congener. If they have no choice, both bold and shy individuals
356 will spend more time near the congener whether familiar or not. Finally, because our study
357 showed a preference in shy individuals to stay near the familiar congener, it also confirms that
358 sea bass are able to discriminate familiarity on the basis of visual cues alone as already shown
359 on the same or different species (Brown, 2002; Brown and Colgan, 1986; Di-Poi, 2008;
360 Griffiths, 1997; Waas and Colgan, 1994)

361
362 When assessing the significance of these results in the wild, it is important to consider that sea
363 bass pelagic eggs are largely dispersed by estuarine currents and individuals are gregarious
364 especially at the juvenile stage (Barnabé, 1978); however, little is known about dispersal,
365 shoal site fidelity and shoal fidelity in wild sea bass. Some authors however mentioned post-
366 larvae and fry congregating in upper estuaries, creeks and harbors i.e., a few dozen to many
367 thousands remaining in distinct groups for several years at a time (Aprahamian and Barr,
368 1985; Claridge and Potter, 1984; Dando and Demir, 1985; Kelley, 1988). Furthermore,
369 shoaling behavior is known to be generated by visually stimulating attractions between
370 individuals but it could also involve the recognition of familiar congeners on the basis of
371 visual cues.

372 Further research is needed to confirm that the significant individual differences and the
373 significant correlation between familiarity and shyness in our sea bass population point to
374 personality traits differences and behavioral syndromes.

375
376 Subject to the confirmations of these conditions, our results may apply to many other species,
377 including humans. Indeed, personality has been identified in a broad array of species and
378 some aspects of personality show considerable cross-species generality (Capitanio, 1999;
379 Gosling, 2001; Gosling and John, 1999; Seyfarth et al., 2012). Neuman (2014) argues for a
380 cognitive-biological theory of personality stating that the common denominator of various
381 personality theories are neural systems of threat/trust management and their emotional,
382 cognitive, and behavioral dimensions. The world is a challenging place and both human and
383 non-human organisms have to cope with many threats (Neuman, 2014). Variability of
384 personality traits may result from the dynamics of evolutionary game theory that reach a
385 particular optimum of trade-offs (Costa, 1980). To cope with a stressful environment, we
386 found that shy fish chose to join the familiar congener on the basis of visual cues only, much
387 like human newborn babies who prefer their parents' and other familiar voices over those of
388 strangers (Zajonc, 1968), or shy adults who prefer to avoid meeting strangers (Crozier, 2001).
389 Individual recognition and experience of past encounters strongly influences social behavior
390 (Hinde, 1985) i.e. we act differently in the company of somebody we know than in that of a
391 person we meet for the first time.

392 In conclusion, our study reveals an interesting link between familiarity and shyness that may
393 be a general aspect of both animal and human behavior. Further research is needed to confirm
394 this hypothesis. Within sea bass species, it would be useful to understand better the link
395 between boldness and shoal preference in different environmental and social contexts i.e.
396 trade-offs that individuals with different behavioral characteristics face when considering
397 competition for foraging and predation risk. Behavioral studies on different social species

398 including humans are required to verify the generality of the link between familiarity and
399 shyness.

400

401

402 **Ethical Statement**

403 This study was conducted under the approval of the Animal Care Committee of France under
404 the official licence of M.L. Bégout (17-010).

405

406

407

408 **Acknowledgements**

409 We are grateful to Aquanord for providing the animals. We also thank Romain Theysset,
410 Louise Vernier and Margaux Denamiel for technical help.

411

412

413 **References**

- 414 Allen, P.J., Barth, C.C., Peake, S.J., Abrahams, M.V. and Anderson, W.G. 2009. Cohesive
415 social behaviour shortens the stress response: the effects of conspecifics on the stress
416 response in lake sturgeon *Acipenser fulvescens*. J. Fish Biol. 74, 90-104.
- 417 Aprahamian, M.W. and Barr, C.D. 1985. The growth, abundance and diet of 0-group sea bass,
418 *Dicentrarchus labrax*, from the Severn Estuary. J. Mar. Biol. Ass. U.K. 65, 169-180.
- 419 Armitage, R.B. and Van Vuren, D.H. 2003. Individual differences and reproductive success in
420 yellow-bellied marmots. Ecology and Evolution 15, 207-233.
- 421 Balshine-Earn, S., Neat, F.C., Reid, H. and Taborsky, M. 1998. "Paying to stay or paying to
422 breed? Field evidence for direct benefits of helping behavior in a cooperatively
423 breeding fish". Behav. Ecol. 9, 432-438
- 424 Barnabé, G. 1978. Etude dans le milieu naturel et en captivité de l'écoéthologie du Loup
425 *Dicentrarchus labrax* (L.) (Poisson Serranidae) à l'aide de nouvelles techniques.
426 Annales Sciences Naturelles, Zoologie, Paris, 12e série, 20, 423-502.
- 427 Bell, A.M., Hankison, S.J. and Laskowski, K., L. 2009. The repeatability of behaviour : a
428 meta-analysis. Elsevier, Amsterdam, PAYS-BAS.
- 429 Benhaïm, D., Bégout, M.-L. and Chatain, B. 2013. Unfamiliar congener used as a visual
430 attractor in wild caught and domesticated sea bass (*Dicentrarchus labrax*) placed in a
431 T-maze. Journal of Aquaculture Research Development 4, 169-175.
- 432 Benhaïm, D., Bégout, M.-L., Péan, S., Manca, M., Prunet, P. and Chatain, B. 2013. Impact of
433 a plant-based diet on behavioural and physiological traits in sea bass (*Dicentrarchus*
434 *labrax*). Aquat. Living Resour. 26, 121-131

- 435 Benhaïm, D., Bégout, M.-L., Lucas, G. and Chatain, B. 2013. First insight into exploration
436 and cognition in wild caught and domesticated sea bass (*Dicentrarchus labrax*) in a
437 maze. PLoS ONE 8(6), e65872.
- 438 Benhaïm, D., Péan, S., Lucas, G., Blanc, N., Chatain, B. and Bégout, M.-L. 2012. Early life
439 behavioural differences in wild caught and domesticated sea bass (*Dicentrarchus*
440 *labrax*). Appl. Anim. Behav. 141, 79-90.
- 441 Benus, R.F., Bohus, B., Koolhaas, J.M., Oortmerssen, G.A. 1991. Heritable variation for
442 aggression as a reflection of individual coping strategies. Experientia 47, 1008-1019.
- 443 Biro, P.A. and Stamps, J.A. 2008. Are animal personality traits linked to life-history
444 productivity? Trends Ecol. Evol. 23, 361-368.
- 445 Blaser, R.E. and Vira, D.G. 2014. Experiments on learning in zebrafish (*Danio rerio*): A
446 promising model of neurocognitive function. Neurosci. Biobehav. Rev. 42, 224-231.
- 447 Boon, A.K., Réale, D., Boutin, S., 2007. The interaction between personality, offspring
448 fitness and food abundance in North American red squirrels. Ecology Letters 10,
449 1094-1104.
- 450 Briffa, M. and Greenaway, J. 2011. High in situ repeatability of behaviour indicates animal
451 personality in the Beadlet anemone *Actinia equina* (Cnidaria). PLoS ONE 6, e21963.
- 452 Brown, C., Jones, F. and Braithwaite, V.A. 2007. Correlation between boldness and body
453 mass in natural populations of the poeciliid *Brachyrhaphis episcopi*. J. Fish Biol. 71,
454 1590-1601.
- 455 Brown, C. 2002. Do female rainbowfish (*Melanotaenia* spp.) prefer to shoal with familiar
456 individuals under predation pressure? J. Ethol. 20, 89-94.
- 457 Brown, J.A. and Colgan, P.W. 1986. Individual and species recognition in centrarchid fishes:
458 evidence and hypotheses. Behav. Ecol. Sociobiol. 19, 373-379.
- 459 Budaev, S.V., Zworykin, D.D., Mochek, A.D., 1999. Individual differences in parental care
460 and behaviour profile in the convict cichlid: a correlation study. Anim. Behav. 58,
461 195-202.
- 462 Capitanio, J.P. 1999. Personality dimensions in adult male rhesus macaques: Prediction of
463 behaviors across time and situation. Am. J. Primatol. 47, 299-320.
- 464 Careau, V., Réale, D., Humphries, M.M., Thomas, D.W. 2010. The pace of life under
465 artificial selection: Personality, energy expenditure, and longevity are correlated in
466 domestic dogs. Am. Nat. 175, 753-758.
- 467 Castanheira, M.F., Herrera, M., Costas, B., Conceicao, L.E.C. and Martins, C.I.M. 2013. Can
468 We Predict Personality in Fish? Searching for Consistency over Time and across
469 Contexts. PLoS ONE 8, e62037.
- 470 Claridge, P.N. and Potter, I.C. 1984. Abundance, movements and size of gadoids (Teleostei)
471 in the Severn Estuary. J. Mar. Biol. Ass. U.K. 64, 771-790.
- 472 Coleman, K. and Wilson, D.S. 1998. Shyness and boldness in pumpkinseed sunfish:
473 individual differences are context-specific. Anim. Behav. 56, 927-936.
- 474 Costa, P.T., McCrae, R.R. 1980. Influence of extraversion and neuroticism on subjective
475 well-being: happy and unhappy people. J. Pers. Soc. Psychol. 38(4), 668-678.
- 476 Crozier, W.R. 2001. Shyness, self-perception and reticence. In: Riding R.J. & Rayner S.G.
477 (Eds.), International perspectives on individual differences, vol2, Wesport, pp. 53-76.
- 478 Dahlbom, S.J., Lagman, D., Lundstedt-Enkel, K., Sundström, L.F., Winberg, S., 2011.
479 Boldness predicts social status in zebrafish (*Danio rerio*). PLoS ONE 6, e23565.
- 480 Dando, P.R. and Demir, N. 1985. On the spawning and nursery grounds of bass,
481 *Dicentrarchus labrax*, in the Plymouth area. J. Mar. Biol. Ass. U.K. 65, 159-168.
- 482 Dill, L.M. 1983. Adaptive Flexibility in the Foraging Behavior of Fishes. Can. J. Fish. Aquat.
483 Sci. 40, 398-408.

- 484 Di-Poi, C. 2008. Déterminisme de la structure sociale chez le bar juvénile *Dicentrarchus*
 485 *labrax* en conditions d'auto-nourrissage : Approches neuro-éthologique et
 486 physiologique. Thèse doc., Saint-Etienne, 257 pp.
- 487 Eriksson, C.A., Booth, D.J., Biro, P.A. 2010. Personality in two species of temperate
 488 damselfish. *Mar. Ecol. Prog. Ser.* 420, 273-276.
- 489 Ferrari, S., Benhaïm, D., Colchen, T., Chatain, B. and Bégout, M.-L. 2014. First links
 490 between self-feeding behaviour and personality traits in European seabass,
 491 *Dicentrarchus labrax*. *Appl. Anim. Behav.* 161, 131-141.
- 492 Ferrari, S., Millot, S., Leguay, D., Chatain, B. and Bégout, M.-L. 2015. Consistency in
 493 European seabass coping styles: A life-history approach. *Appl. Anim. Behav.* 167, 74-
 494 88.
- 495 Fraser, D., Gilliam, J., JDaley, M., NLe, A., Skalski, G. 2001. Explaining leptokurtic
 496 movement distributions: intrapopulation variation in boldness and exploration. *Am.*
 497 *Naturalist* 158, 124-135.
- 498 Fricke, H. 1973. Individual partner recognition in fish: field studies on *Amphiprion bicinctus*.
 499 *Naturwissenschaften* 60, 204-205.
- 500 Godin, J.-G.J. and Dugatkin, L.A. 1996. Female mating preferences for bold males in the
 501 guppy, *Poecilia reticulata*. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U. S. A.*, 10262-10267.
- 502 Gosling, S.D. 2001. From Mice to Men: What Can We Learn About Personality From Animal
 503 Research? *Psychol. Bull.* 127, 45-86.
- 504 Gosling, S.D. and John, O.P. 1999. Personality dimensions in nonhuman animals: A cross-
 505 species review. *Current Directions in Psychological Science* 8, 69-75.
- 506 Griffiths, S. 1997. Preferences for familiar fish do not vary with predation. *J. Fish Biol.* 51,
 507 489-495.
- 508 Griffiths, S.W. and Ward, A. 2007. *Learned Recognition of Conspecifics*. Blackwell
 509 Publishing Ltd, 139-165 pp.
- 510 Griffiths, S.W. 2003. Learned recognition of conspecifics by fishes. *Fish and Fisheries* 4, 256-
 511 268.
- 512 Hamilton, W.D. 1971. Geometry for the selfish herd. *J. Theor. Biol.* 31, 295-311.
- 513 Helfman, G.S. 1984. School fidelity in fishes: The yellow perch pattern. *Anim. Behav.* 32,
 514 663-672.
- 515 Hert, E. 1985. Individual recognition of helpers by the breeders in the cichlid fish
 516 *Lamprologus brichardi* (Poll, 1974). *Zeitschrift fur Tierphysiologie* 68, 313-325.
- 517 Hilborn, R. 1991. Modeling the stability of fish shoals: exchange of individual fish between
 518 schools of skipjack tuna (*Katsuwonus pelamis*). *Can. J. Fish. Aquat. Sci.* 48, 1081-
 519 1091.
- 520 Hinde, R.A., Titmus, G., Easton, O., Tamplin, A. 1985. Incidence of friendship and
 521 behaviour to strong associates versus non associates in preschool. *Child Development*
 522 56, 234-254.
- 523 Hoare, D., Ruxton, G.D., Godin, J.-G. and Krause, J. 2000. The social organization of free-
 524 ranging fish shoals. *Oikos* 89, 546-554.
- 525 Kelley, D.F. 1988. The importance of estuaries for sea-bass *Dicentrarchus labrax* (L.). *J. Fish*
 526 *Biol.* 33(Suppl. A), 25-33.
- 527 Koolhaas, J.M. 2008. Coping style and immunity in animals: Making sense of individual
 528 variation. *Brain, Behavior, and Immunity* 22, 662-667.
- 529 Koolhaas, J.M., Korte, S.M., De Boer, S.F., Van Der Vegt, B.J., Van Reenen, C.G., Hopster,
 530 H., De Jong, I.C., Ruis, M.A.W. and Blokhuis, H.J. 1999. Coping styles in animals:
 531 current status in behavior and stress-physiology. *Neurosci. Biobehav. Rev.* 23, 925-
 532 935.

- 533 Krause, J., Godin, J.-G. and Brown, D. 1996. Phenotypic variability within and between fish
534 shoals. *Ecology* 77, 1586-1591.
- 535 Krause, J. and Ruxton, G.D. 2002. *Living in groups*. Oxford University Press.
- 536 MacKenzie, S., Ribas, L., Pilarczyk, M., Capdevila, D.M., Kadri, S., Huntingford, F.A.,
537 2009. Screening for coping style increases the power of gene expression studies. *PLoS*
538 *ONE* 4, e5314.
- 539 Magurran, A.E. 1990. The inheritance and development of minnow anti-predator behaviour.
540 *Anim. Behav.* 39, 834-842.
- 541 Maximino, C., de Brito, T.M., da Silva Batista, A.W., Herculano, A.M., Morato, S., Gouveia
542 Jr, A. 2010. Measuring anxiety in zebrafish: A critical review. *Behav. Brain Res.* 214,
543 157-171.
- 544 Neuman, Y. 2014. Personality from a cognitive-biological perspective. *Physics of Life*
545 *Reviews* 11, 650-686.
- 546 Orpwood, J.E., Magurran, A.E., Armstrong, J.D. and Griffiths, S.W. 2008. Minnows and the
547 selfish herd: effects of predation risk on shoaling behaviour are dependent on habitat
548 complexity. *Anim. Behav.* 76, 143-152.
- 549 Øverli, Ø., Sørensen, C. and Nilsson, G.E. 2006. Behavioral indicators of stress-coping style
550 in rainbow trout: Do males and females react differently to novelty? *Physiol. Behav.*
551 87, 506-512.
- 552 Øverli, Ø., Korzan, W.J., Larson, E.T., Winberg, S., Lepage, O., Pottinger, T.G., Renner, K.J.
553 and Summers, C.H. 2004. Behavioral and neuroendocrine correlates of displaced
554 aggression in trout. *Horm. Behav.* 45, 324-329.
- 555 Peuhkuri, N., Ranta, E., Sanna-Kaisa, J. and Lindstrom, K. 1995. Schooling affects growth in
556 the three-spined stickleback, *Gasterosteus aculeatus*. *J. Fish Biol.* 46, 221-226.
- 557 Pitcher, T.J. and Parrish, J.K. 1993. Functions of shoaling behaviour in teleosts. In *Behaviour*
558 *of Teleost Fishes* (Pitcher, T. J., ed.), pp. 363-439. London: Chapman & Hall.
- 559 Pöysä, H. 1994. Group foraging, distance to cover and vigilance in the teal, *Anas crecca*.
560 *Anim. Behav.* 48, 921-928.
- 561 Réale, D. and Festa-Bianchet, M. 2003. Predator-induced natural selection on temperament in
562 bighorn ewes. *Anim. Behav.* 65, 463-470.
- 563 Roberts, G. 1996. Why vigilance decreases as group size increases. *Animal Behavior* 51,
564 1077-1086.
- 565 Ruiz-Gomez, M.d.L., Huntingford, F.A., Øverli, Ø., Thörnqvist, P.-O., Höglund, E., 2011.
566 Response to environmental change in rainbow trout selected for divergent stress
567 coping styles. *Physiol. Behav.* 102, 317-322.
- 568 Seyfarth, R.M., Silk, J.B. and Cheney, D.L. 2012. Variation in personality and fitness in wild
569 female baboons. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences* 109, 16980-16985.
- 570 Sih, A., Bell, A. and Chadwick Johnson, J. 2004. Behavioral syndromes: an ecological and
571 evolutionary overview. *Trends Ecol. Evol.* 19, 372-378.
- 572 Sneddon, L.U. 2003. The bold and the shy: individual differences in rainbow trout. *J. Fish*
573 *Biol.* 62, 971-975.
- 574 Stirling, H.P. 1977. Growth, food utilization and effect of social interaction in the European
575 bass *Dicentrarchus labrax*. *Mar. Biol.* 40, 173-184.
- 576 Svensson, P.A., Balrber, I. and Forsgren, E. 2000. Shoaling behaviour of the two-spotted
577 goby. *J. Fish Biol.* 56, 1477-1487.
- 578 Verbeek, M.E.M., Drent, P.J. and Wiepkema, P.R. 1994. Consistent individual differences in
579 early exploratory behaviour of male great tits. *Anim. Behav.* 48, 1113-1121.
- 580 Ward, A.J.W., Thomas, P., Hart, P.J.B. and Krause, J. 2004. Correlates of boldness in three-
581 spined sticklebacks (*Gasterosteus aculeatus*). *Behavioural Ecology and Sociobiology*
582 55, 561-568.

- 583 Waas, J.R. and Colgan, P.W. 1994. Male sticklebacks can distinguish between familiar rivals
584 on the basis of visual cues alone. *Anim. Behav.* 47, 7-13.
- 585 Wilson, D., Clark, A., Coleman, K. & Dearstyne, T. 1994. Shyness and boldness in humans
586 and other animals. *Trends Ecol. Evol.* 9, 442-446.
- 587 Zajonc, R.B. 1968. Attitudinal effects of mere exposure. *J. Pers. Soc. Psychol.* 9(2), 1-27.
588
589

590

591 **Figure legends**

592

593

594 **Fig.1.** Schematic representation and picture of the social interaction device and the virtual

595 zones defined for the video recording analysis.

596 (a) Schematic configuration of the device with the familiar congener placed on the left

597 side. Dotted lines are transparent Plexiglas® walls, continuous lines are white opaque

598 plastic. The bottom of the device is made of transparent Plexiglas®. Virtual zones

599 defined for the video recordings analysis are:

600 *Start-Fam* and StartUnfam closed by a removable transparent wall where the fish is

601 placed at the beginning of the experiment; Pre-Fam and Pre-Unfam: areas located after

602 *Start-Fam* and Start-Unfam; Fam: the area located near the compartment where the

603 familiar congener was placed; Unfam: the area located near the compartment where

604 the unfamiliar congener was placed; 1 and 2: left and right separate compartments

605 closed by a transparent Plexiglas® wall where congeners (familiar or unfamiliar) were

606 placed.

607 (b) Picture of the device showing the focal individual located in Fam.

608

609 **Fig. 2.** Scheme and dimensions of the open field apparatus

610

611 **Fig. 3.** Proportion of time spent (mean \pm SEM in %) by fish in each zone of the familiarity612 test device. *Start-Fam* and Start-UnFam: Start-Box in front of the familiar or the unfamiliar

613 congener, Pre-Fam and Pre-Unfam: Pre-Familiar and Pre-Unfamiliar zones, Fam: zone near

614 the familiar congener, UnFam: zone near the unfamiliar congener. Significant differences (P 615 < 0.05) between zones are shown by different letters above the bar (rank-based multiple

616 comparisons).

617
618

619 **Fig. 4.** Proportion of time spent (mean \pm SEM in %) by fish in each zone of the open field.

620 Significant differences ($P < 0.05$) between zones are shown by different letters above the bar

621 (rank-based multiple comparisons).

622

623

624

625

626 **Fig. 5.** Pearson's correlation between the proportion of time spent in the zone near the familiar

627 congener (Fam) in the familiarity test and the first principal component scores using Principal

628 Components Analysis (PC1) in the open field test (OFT), $r = -0.41$, $N = 30$, $p = 0.04$.

629 Equation for the best linear fit is: $y = -7.5195x + 25.8$.

630

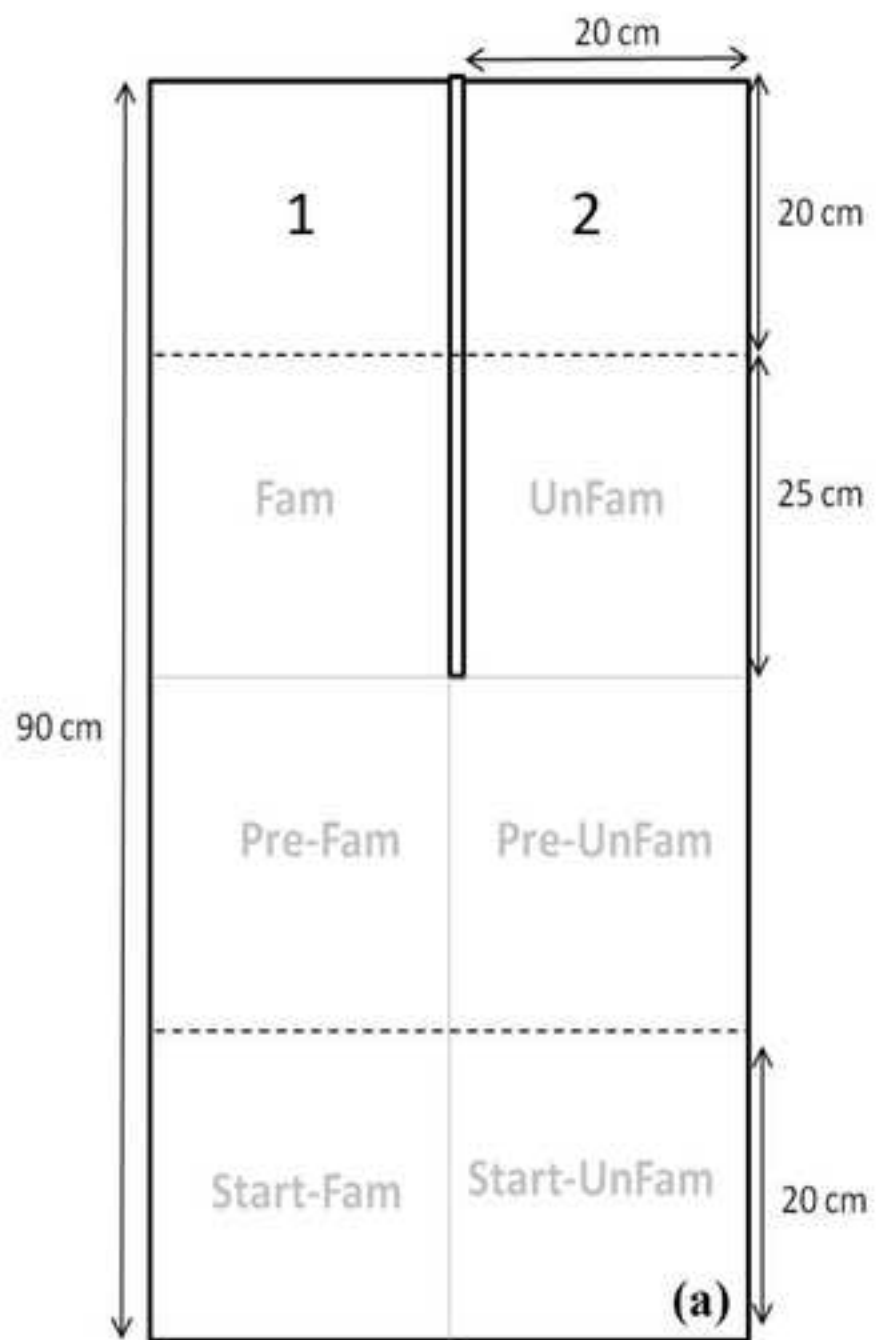
631

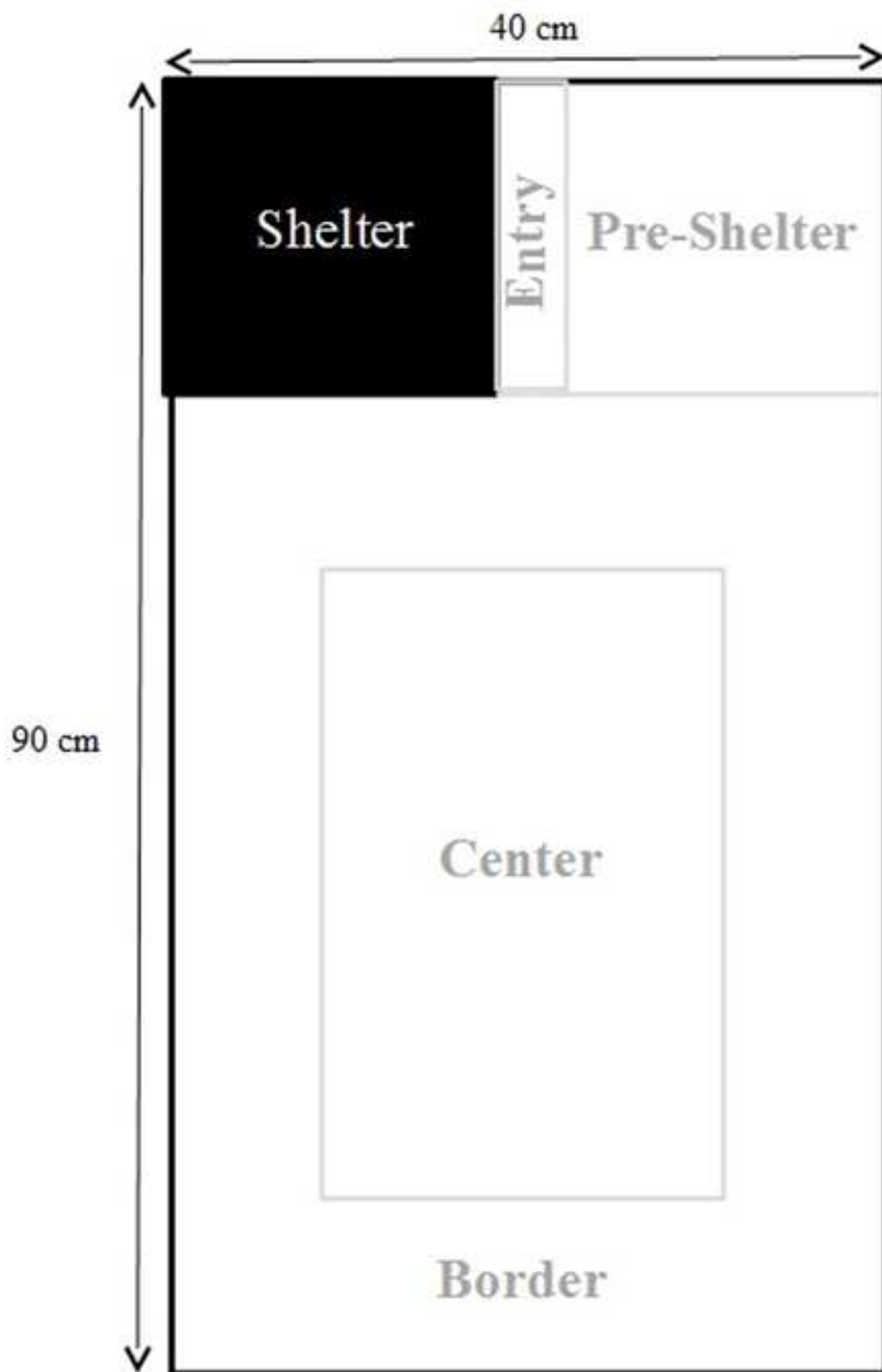
632

633

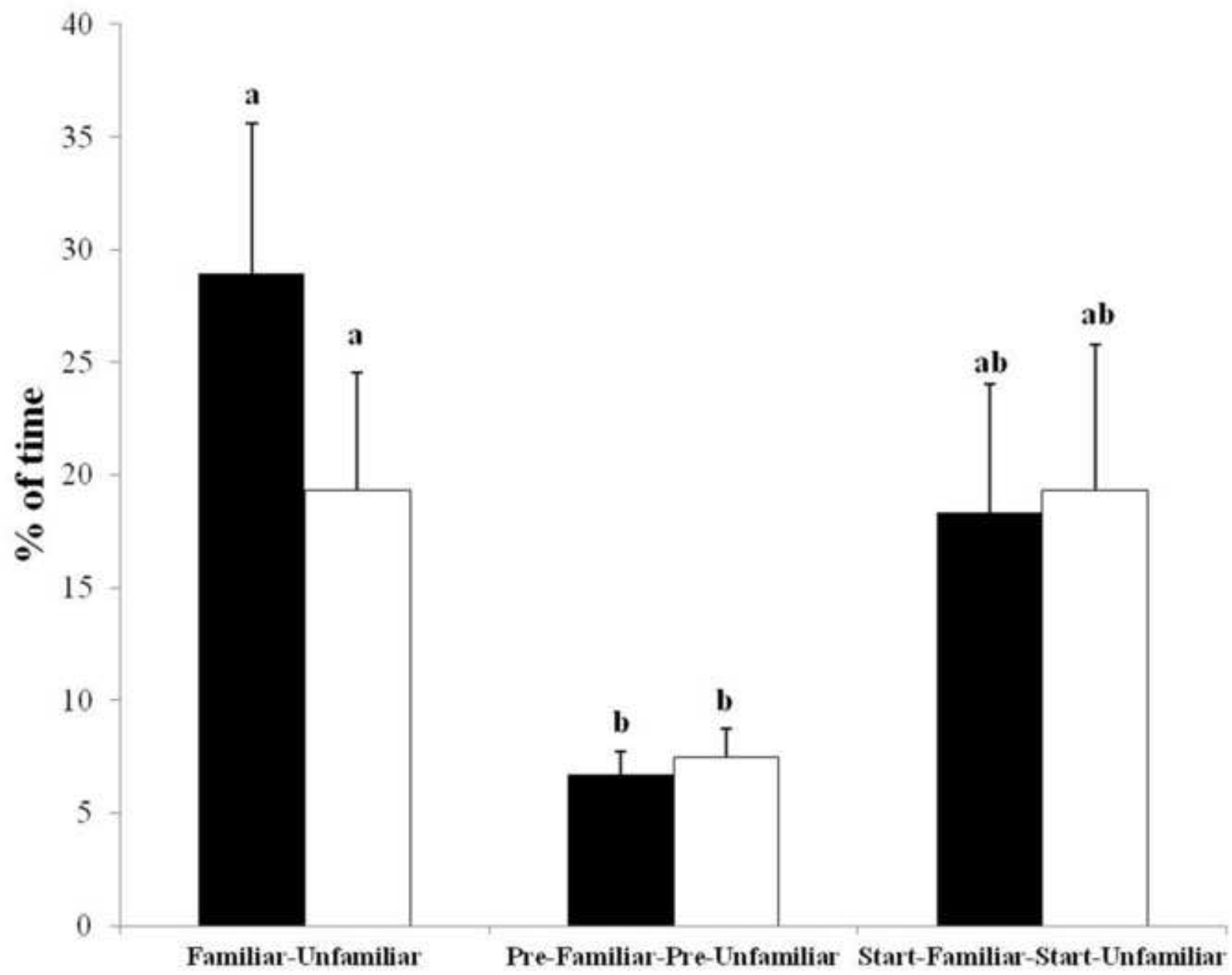
634

Figure

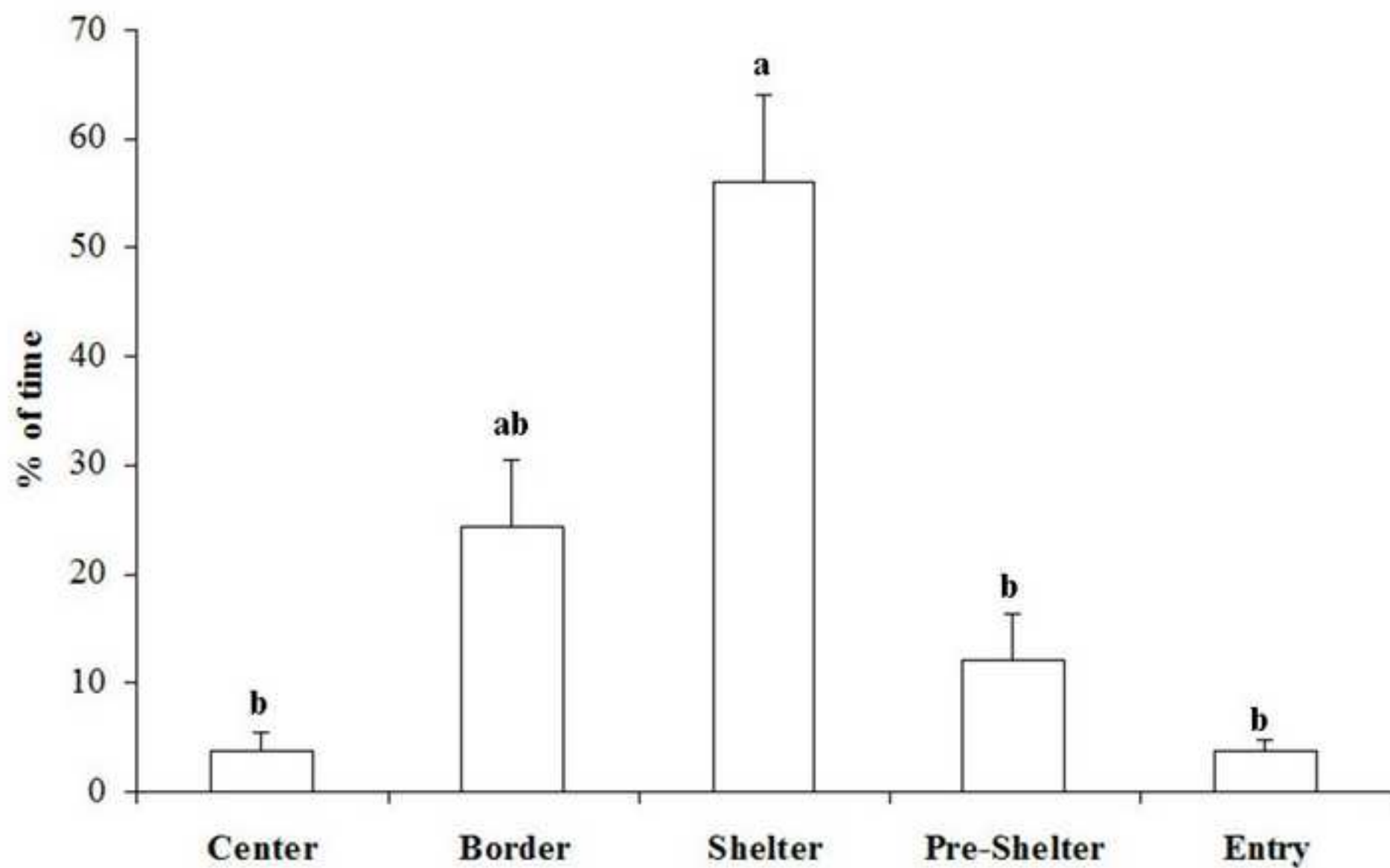




Figure



Figure



Figure

