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3 **The effect of temporally variable environmental stimuli and group size on emergence**  
4 **behaviour**

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6

7 **Short title:** Environmental stimuli and group emergence behaviour

8

9 **Lay summary:** Colonies of humbug damselfish change their behavioural response to a  
10 predation threat in accordance with the tide. The majority of work in animal decision making  
11 centres on individuals, however, animals are affected by the movements of their near-  
12 neighbours. Moreover, whilst environmental factors affecting decision making vary spatially  
13 within habitats, the role of temporal variation of environmental factors has been relatively  
14 ignored. This study addresses both of these issues in a manipulative field experiment.

15

16 **Abstract:**

17 How animals trade-off food availability and predation threats is a strong determinant of animal  
18 activity and behaviour, however, the majority of work on this topic has been on individual  
19 animals, despite the modulating effect the presence of conspecifics can have on both foraging  
20 and predation risk. Whilst these environmental factors (food and predation threat) vary  
21 spatially within habitats, they also vary temporally, and in marine habitats this can be  
22 determined not only by the diel cycle but also the tidal cycle. Humbug damselfish, *Dascyllus*  
23 *aruanus*, live in small groups of unrelated individuals within and around branching coral heads  
24 which they collectively withdraw into to escape a predation threat. In this study we measured  
25 the proportion of individuals in the colony that were outside the coral head before and after  
26 they were scared by a fright stimulus and compared the responses at high tide and low tide. We  
27 found that a greater proportion of the shoal emerged after the fright stimulus at high tide and

28 in larger groups than at low tide or in smaller groups. We also quantified the pattern of  
29 emergence over time and discovered the rate of emergence was faster in larger shoals as time  
30 progressed. We show that shoals of fish change their behavioural response to a predation  
31 threat in accordance with the tide, exemplifying how temporally variable environmental factors  
32 can shape group movement decisions.

33

## 34 **Introduction**

35 It is widely recognised that searching for food and evading predators are two major factors  
36 influencing animal behaviour. How animals trade off these two factors is a key question in  
37 behavioural ecology (Sih 1982; Dill 1983; Lima and Dill 1990; Smith 1997). For example, an  
38 animal's selection of certain food types or foraging behaviours may change in response to the  
39 level of predation threat, and ultimately areas of higher resource profitability may be partially  
40 or completely avoided if the predation threat is perceived to be too great (Abrahams and Dill  
41 1989; Lima and Dill 1990). Predatory threats will also affect the amount of time an animal  
42 spends in a safe place before returning to forage (Ydenberg and Dill 1986; Lima and Dill 1990).  
43 As the threat of predation exists during times when prey need to perform other activities such  
44 as feeding or finding mates, behavioural adaptations of prey should be particularly sensitive to  
45 the degree of predation risk and how it balances with current demands and opportunities (Dill  
46 1983; Lima and Dill 1990).

47 In addition to the need to balance risk against reward, most animals are subject to circadian  
48 rhythms (Helfman 1986), while marine animals, particularly those that inhabit shallow waters,  
49 are also subject to circatidal rhythms (Gibson 1992). The tide can have significant effects on the

50 appropriateness of habitats and marine animals may have behavioural patterns that are  
51 synchronized with the tidal cycle (Northcott et al. 1990; Gibson 1992) in order to improve their  
52 fitness. Some juvenile flat fishes time their migrations to different parts of the beach with the  
53 tide (Kuipers 1973) and activity levels of monkeyface prickleback, *Cebidichthys violaceus*  
54 (Ralston and Horn 1986), and purple marsh crab, *Sesarma reticulatum* (Palmer 1967) are also  
55 synchronised with the tide. While much work has been done on how the spatial distribution of  
56 animals is affected by the trade-off between foraging and predation, less attention has been  
57 given to how this trade-off changes in accordance with consistent temporal rhythms (Metcalf  
58 et al. 1999), such as tidal height, which are vitally important forces that alter the costs and  
59 benefits of performing different behaviours.

60 For animals that live in groups the behavior of conspecifics is an additional factor that interacts  
61 with other environmental stimuli to alter the trade-off between foraging and predation. The  
62 decisions of animals that live in groups are influenced by the behavior of other individuals in the  
63 group (Krause and Ruxton 2002; Ward et al. 2013) and animals need to strike a balance  
64 between conformity and individuality (Herbert-Read et al. 2013). Whilst the presence of  
65 conspecifics may decrease the risk of predation due to the many-eyes, dilution or confusion  
66 effect, food competition generally increases with the number of individuals at a food patch  
67 (Ward et al. 2006).

68 Humbug damselfish, *Dascyllus aruanus*, live in small groups of unrelated individuals (hereafter  
69 “colonies”) within and around branching coral heads. Groups of humbug damselfish are  
70 territorial and maintain the same group structure (Jordan et al. 2010). They are planktivores

71 and feed in the water column directly above and around their coral head. One of the suggested  
72 explanations for the species' preference for group living is the advantage individuals receive  
73 from the increase in predator vigilance and the dilution effect (Sweatman 1985). Like in many  
74 group living species, predation threats are reduced through a collective fleeing response  
75 (Marras et al. 2011; King et al. 2012; Salazar et al. 2013), and individuals collectively seek refuge  
76 within the branches of the coral until the threat has passed. The amount and variety of food  
77 available and therefore the feeding rate of humbug damselfish is greatest during high tide,  
78 when plankton availability is greatest (Forrester 1991). This therefore creates a good natural  
79 study system to explore not only how animal groups trade-off feeding and predation threat, but  
80 also how this is affected by consistent temporal rhythms.

81 Many studies have looked at habitat use and decisions of where to feed in response to  
82 predation threat (Dill 1983; Lima and Dill 1990; Sih 1982). For the territorial humbug  
83 damselfish, there is more flexibility over when to feed than there is where to feed, as the patch  
84 is restricted to the immediate area surrounding their coral head. In this system fish exist in a  
85 binary state, they are either outside of a coral refuge, in which case they are typically foraging,  
86 or they're in the coral refuge, in which case they are not. Certainly there is variance of prey  
87 distribution and type around the coral head, but for the purposes of this study the fish are  
88 considered to be either within the patch and therefore able to forage, or in hiding. Therefore,  
89 we measured the proportion of individuals in the colony that were outside the coral head  
90 before and after they were scared by a fright stimulus and compared the responses at high tide  
91 and low tide. We showed that groups of damselfish change their behavioural response to a

92 predation threat depending on the tide, exemplifying how temporally variable environmental  
93 factors can shape group movement decisions.

94

## 95 **Methods**

96 Research was conducted at 3<sup>rd</sup> Lagoon, One Tree Island (-23° 30' 26", 152° 5' 25"), Great Barrier  
97 Reef between March 28th and April 10th 2014. Fifty-six colonies of humbug damselfish  
98 (*Dascyllus aruanus*) were selected for this experiment, ranging in size from 3 to 24 individuals  
99 and each colony was assayed once, half were assayed during high tide (HT) and half during low  
100 tide (LT). A trial was considered to occur at one of the two tidal categories if it was performed  
101 within 2 hours either side of the maximum or minimum tidal amplitude. As trials were  
102 conducted over two weeks, trials at HT (07:50-16:50h) and LT (08:20-15:50h) covered the range  
103 of daylight hours. Therefore, circadian rhythm effect was controlled for in the experimental  
104 design. The colonies occupied *Pocillopora damicornis* and *Acropora palifera* coral heads and  
105 colonies had to be more than 5m from another colony to reduce the chance that fish would  
106 travel between colonies, which occurs when the coral heads are closely packed or continuous  
107 (Öhman et al. 1998). Care was taken to ensure the colonies used in the two treatments were  
108 spatially mixed, evenly dispersed between the two coral species, and not clumped to reduce  
109 confounding effects of environmental variables. A precise block design was not possible,  
110 however, due to the natural distribution of colonies and because the priority was to have a  
111 similar range of group sizes between the two tidal treatments.

## 112 *Fright stimulus*

113 The fright stimulus apparatus (hereafter “apparatus”) was a custom made device with an  
114 aluminum frame with a blue and white 28cm long rubber fishing lure (Williamson® Live Little  
115 Tunny Skip Jack 6951221) attached to a zip line made from monofilament line. A pulley system  
116 allowed for the user to stand 250cm from the humbug colony and shoot the model predator  
117 forwards 200cm. Care was taken to ensure the model predator approached each colony at a  
118 consistent speed of approximately  $2 \text{ ms}^{-1}$ . The apparatus was placed 50cm to the right of the  
119 colony and the model predator would reach the colony at a consistent angle and height (50 cm)  
120 from the sea floor (Figure 1). The apparatus was weighed down with two pairs of 2kg weights  
121 attached with cable ties so that it did not move in the current or when force was applied to  
122 propel the model predator towards the colony. All experiments were conducted while  
123 snorkeling at depths ranging from 160 and 330cm.

## 124 *Experimental procedures*

125 A colony was located and in preparation for the assay the apparatus was placed to the right of  
126 the coral head facing directly downstream of the current tidal flow (Figure 1). After a period of  
127 10 min the experimenter would then place two Panasonic LUMIX underwater HD cameras 1.5m  
128 from the coral and start the film. One camera would film from the left side and one from  
129 directly in front of the colony (Figure 1). The experimenter would then stand still at the end of  
130 the apparatus for 5 min to allow the colony to resume normal foraging behaviour before pulling  
131 the fishing line and propelling the model predator towards the colony. Pilot tests confirmed

132 that 5min was ample time for the fish to resume normal feeding behaviour. The experimenter  
133 then stayed still for the next 2 min before moving to stop the film on both cameras.

#### 134 *Data Collection*

135 The videos from both cameras were converted from .wmv to .avs format with  
136 DirectShowSource. The .avs files were then opened with VirtualDub (v 1.9.11) and the video  
137 was converted from 15 frames per second to 1 frame per second. The footage 60 sec before  
138 and 60 sec after the fright stimulus was exported as a stack of 120 individual .jpeg images and  
139 opened with imageJ (Image Processing and Analysis in Java, version 1.48, 2014). Here the  
140 number of fish that were outside of the coral head were counted for each frame. A fish was  
141 considered outside of the coral head if its whole body could be seen without any coral  
142 obstructing its body. This was done for both camera angles and the largest value from either  
143 camera angle was considered as the maximum number of fish emerged at that frame. This  
144 value was then divided by the total number of fish in the colony to give a proportion of fish  
145 emerged from the coral head every frame.

#### 146 *Data Analysis*

##### 147 Do tide and shoal size affect mean emergence?

148 A linear mixed effects (LME) model was used to assess whether the fright stimulus was  
149 effective, by evaluating the effect of stage (before or after the stimulus) on the proportion of  
150 fish emerged. To control for the repeated-measures nature of the data (each shoal was  
151 assessed multiple times), we included shoal identity as the random factor in the model.

152 Throughout our analysis, proportion emerged was arcsin transformed to meet the assumptions  
153 of normality, which was assessed through visual inspection of quantile-quantile plots and plots  
154 of standardised residuals against fitted values.

155 We used linear mixed effects models to assess the effect of tide (high/low), group size and their  
156 interaction on the proportion of fish emerged from the coral head during the 60 seconds before  
157 and the 60 seconds after the fright stimulus. Non-significant interactions were removed  
158 following Crawley (2005) and only main effects are presented here.

159

160 Does the emergence pattern vary as a function of shoal size and tide?

161 Next, we assessed whether the pattern of emergence from the coral head differed depending  
162 on shoal size and tide. For each shoal, we calculated the mean and maximum proportion of the  
163 shoal that had emerged from the coral head by 5 time points after the stimulus: 5, 10, 15, 30  
164 and 60 seconds. We also calculated the time at which the maximum emergence for each time  
165 category was reached. We used linear mixed effects models to assess the effect of tide, shoal  
166 size, time and their interactions on the response variables, which were arcsin transformed to  
167 meet the assumptions of normality, assessed through visual inspection of plots as above. Shoal  
168 identity was included as the random factor. For analysis, shoal size was included as a  
169 continuous variable, but for visualization of interactions, shoal size was also converted into a  
170 categorical variable (small:  $\leq 8$  fish and large:  $\geq 9$  fish), to give approximately equal numbers of  
171 shoals in the small and large category. Both analyses are presented here (Table 1).

172 All analysis was performed in R v 2.13.0 (R Development Core Team (2011)) with the lme4  
173 package (Bates et al 2011).

174

## 175 **Results**

### 176 *Do tide and shoal size affect mean emergence?*

177 The fright stimulus was effective in causing fish to hide: there was a significant effect of stage  
178 (before/after) on the proportion emerged ( $t = 58.852$ ,  $df = 6719$ ,  $p < 0.001$ , effect size =  
179  $0.461 \pm 0.008$ ), which was lower in the minute after the stimulus than in the minute before the  
180 stimulus (Figure 2). There was no effect of either shoal size ( $t = -0.625$ ,  $df = 53$ ,  $p = 0.535$ , effect  
181 size =  $-0.004 \pm 0.006$ ) or tide ( $t = -0.945$ ,  $df = 53$ ,  $p = 0.349$ , effect size =  $-0.049 \pm 0.052$ ) on the  
182 proportion of fish emerged from the coral head before the fright stimulus, and no interaction.  
183 After the fright stimulus, however, both shoal size ( $t = 4.214$ ,  $df = 53$ ,  $p < 0.001$ , effect size =  
184  $0.027 \pm 0.006$ ) and tide ( $t = -2.470$ ,  $df = 53$ ,  $p = 0.017$ , effect size =  $-0.142 \pm 0.057$ ), but not their  
185 interaction, affected the proportion of fish emerged from the coral head. After the stimulus, a  
186 greater proportion emerged at high tide (Figure 2, 3) and in larger groups (Figure 3) than at low  
187 tide or in smaller groups, respectively.

### 188 *Does the emergence pattern vary as a function of shoal size and tide?*

189 There was a significant effect of tide, and a significant interaction between time and shoal  
190 size on mean emergence (table 1a), suggesting that mean emergence is lower at low tide  
191 (figure 4a), and that this increases over time, but does so faster in larger shoals (table 1b,

192 figure 4b). For maximum emergence, there was a significant effect of shoal size (table 1c),  
193 with maximum emergence increasing with shoal size, and a significant interaction between  
194 time and tide (table 1c, figure 4c). Maximum emergence increased over time, but at a more  
195 rapid rate at low tide (figure 4c). There was no effect of tide on the time that maximum  
196 emergence is reached, but there was an interaction between shoal size and time, with  
197 smaller shoals reaching maximum emerged more rapidly than larger shoals (table 1d, e,  
198 figure 4d).

199

## 200 **Discussion**

201 The results show that group movement behavior was affected by environmental factors,  
202 including those that vary temporally. All shoals showed similar levels of emergence before the  
203 fright stimulus, regardless of shoal size and the state of the tide, and the fright stimulus was  
204 effective in reducing the proportion of the colony outside of the coral head in the immediate  
205 aftermath of the simulated attack. Both tide and shoal size affected how the fish responded to  
206 the fright stimulus with a greater proportion of the colony emerging at high tide (when food  
207 availability is highest) and in larger groups (where predation risk is likely reduced).

208 Humbug damselfish, like many animals who live under threat of attack, appear to act as risk  
209 balancers (Pitcher et al. 1988), emerging more quickly from their refuge when in larger groups  
210 and when there is more food. It is probable that humbug damselfish were less affected by the  
211 perceived risk of the fright stimulus at high tide as they traded off the risk of predation for the

212 increased foraging opportunities at high tide, and indeed in this experiment fish were more  
213 polarized in the water column and seemed to be feeding more actively and at a greater rate  
214 during high tide, when we know plankton density is greatest (Forrester 1991).

215 Considering all three response variables (mean emergence, maximum emergence and time to  
216 maximum emergence) both shoal size and tide were important in determining the pattern of  
217 emergence behaviour after the fright stimulus. Smaller shoals reached their maximum  
218 proportion emerged faster than larger shoals did, although this is likely to be a result of fewer  
219 of them emerging in total, hence the number being reached faster. As expected the maximum  
220 proportion of shoal emerged was greater for larger shoals and, crucially, shoal size was also  
221 important in determining the pattern of emergence, with the mean proportion of shoal  
222 emerged increasing over time faster in larger shoals. There is initially little effect of shoal size  
223 on mean emergence at early time points, straight after the fright stimulus, however, the  
224 difference increased as time progressed. A possible explanation for this is that as the mean  
225 proportion of fish outside the coral head was a greater absolute number in larger groups, this  
226 promoted the increased rate of emergence for the remaining fish as they perceived the  
227 environment to be safer than if the absolute number of fish emerged was lower. This is  
228 comparable to a social amplification effect and positive feedback found in fleeing response of  
229 cockroaches, allowing larger groups to respond faster than smaller groups (Salazar et al. 2013).

230 Distinguishing between potential causes of this pattern of emergence, however, is problematic.  
231 Although it may be that each individual's assessment of its own per capita risk was lower in  
232 larger groups, it may be that larger groups assessed the potential predation risk more

233 accurately than smaller groups by a combination of division of vigilance and information  
234 transfer (Morgan 1988; Ward et al. 2011). Larger groups are generally more effective at  
235 collecting and integrating information and then using the information to make effective  
236 decisions than smaller groups (Couzin 2009). These processes are not mutually exclusive,  
237 however, and it is likely that a combination of increased group decision accuracy and the  
238 dilution effect contributed to the observed pattern.

239 Tide was also an important factor determining the pattern of emergence following the fright  
240 stimulus, with a higher mean proportion of the shoal emerging at high tide. The maximum  
241 proportion of fish emerged increased over time at both tidal heights, and although it was  
242 always greater at high tide, the rate of increase over time was faster at low tide. Once again,  
243 this may be because the absolute number of maximum proportion emerged is lower at low  
244 tide.

245 Whilst there is more food in the water column for fish at high tide, there is often also an  
246 increase in predation threat, especially if high tide coincides with dawn or dusk (Munz and  
247 McFarland 1973; Helfman 1986). In this experiment, there were certainly more predators active  
248 during high tide, predominately large schools of piscivores such as spangled emperors  
249 (*Lethrinus nebulosus*), and occasionally the damselfish made directed movements towards their  
250 coral heads as large predatory fish swam past (Pers. obs.). Despite this increased predatory  
251 threat at high tide, humbug damselfish still feed more at this time (Forrester 1991), which  
252 suggests that feeding efficiency is large enough to overcome their tendency to display risk  
253 sensitive behavior in the face of a threat. The tide affects the costs and benefits of many

254 behaviours as it significantly alters the environment, particularly for those that are inter-tidal or  
255 living at shallow depths. Many of these species are group living, and the results of this  
256 experiment highlight the importance of tidal effect on group movement properties.

257 Sixty seconds after the fright stimulus the proportion of fish outside of the coral head still had  
258 not returned to the levels before the fright stimulus, regardless of tide or shoal size. We should  
259 expect a gradual return to foraging activity levels, or perhaps even an increase to overcome the  
260 opportunities lost whilst in hiding, however, this will increase in relation to the time passed  
261 since the predation threat and depend on the severity of the threat and the likelihood of the  
262 threat returning. Juvenile Atlantic salmon, 20 min after the predation threat, only returned to  
263 33% of their pre-predator intake rates (Metcalf et al. 1987). Although actual intake rates were  
264 not calculated, humbug damselfish responded surprisingly quickly to the predation threat,  
265 returning to a vulnerable position where foraging was once again possible. Perhaps it was  
266 because they face constantly high levels of predation risk threat on the coral reef and have  
267 adapted to recover from a threat quickly (particularly a false one) in order to achieve a  
268 sufficient intake of energy. Guppies from environments with high levels of predation, for  
269 example, are known to feed at greater rates and display greater tenacity after a predation  
270 threat than guppies from low predation environments (Fraser and Gilliam 1987). Another  
271 possible explanation for the fast nature of the damselfish's response to a predation threat is  
272 that it is driven by competition for resources. If competition is high for resources, which is  
273 probable in areas with a high predation threat, larger groups are expected to emerge faster  
274 than smaller groups.

275 Inter-individual variation between damselfish (for example size) was not recorded in this study,  
276 however, it is known that larger individuals feed further from the coral head than smaller  
277 individuals (Forrester 1991; Pers. obs.) where they have first selection of preferred prey (Coates  
278 1980) and this is strongly related to their linear dominance hierarchy. African cichlid fish,  
279 *Melanochromis chipokae*, further from a shelter begin their retreat to safety before fish closer  
280 to the shelter (Dill 1990) and in many bird species, the sequence of the resumption of feeding  
281 after a predation threat follows the dominance hierarchy with subordinates emerging first  
282 (Hegner 1985; Laet 1985; Hogstad 1988) (it is suggested that subordination in these systems  
283 may be strongly correlated with energetic need (Lima and Dill 1990)). Future research would do  
284 well to focus on individual phenotypic variability within groups, how it interacts with  
285 differences in internal state, and whether it can predict the first responder to a threat or how  
286 information is transferred throughout the group. Humbug damselfish colonies are an  
287 appropriate study system to answer these questions although a more advanced video  
288 monitoring system, with higher frame rates and ideally automated multi-agent tracking, would  
289 need to be employed to accurately measure phenotypically determined behavioural differences  
290 between individuals within each shoal.

291 This experiment has tested how animal groups may adjust their behavior to meet the costs and  
292 benefits produced by varying environmental stimuli. Specifically we show that humbug  
293 damselfish colonies under natural environmental conditions responded to a predation threat by  
294 adjusting their decision-making process in relation to the tide and shoal size. A greater  
295 proportion of the colony emerge after the fright stimulus at high tide and they show evidence

296 of a social response in larger shoals with a greater proportion of the colony emerging in larger  
297 shoals and the mean proportion of the shoal emerging at a faster rate in larger shoals. This is  
298 the first study, to the authors' knowledge, to show that shoals of fish change their collective  
299 behavioural response to a predation threat in accordance with the tide. The humbug damselfish  
300 system has previously been used to explore the mechanisms of group movement decisions  
301 (Mann et al. 2013; Ward et al. 2013), however, this finding, that the state of the tide affects  
302 emergence behaviour, allows us to conduct new experiments to further our understanding of  
303 the effect of risk sensitivity on decision-making and information transfer - whilst simultaneously  
304 controlling for inter-group differences by performing repeated measures on the same group at  
305 different times when costs and benefits vary. This study has furthered our understanding of  
306 how social interactions and environmental heterogeneities can affect group behavior and,  
307 crucially, has shown the capability and importance of testing emergent group properties in the  
308 field.

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414 **Table legends**

415 Table 1: Linear mixed effects models assessing the effect of time, tide and shoal size on mean  
 416 emergence (a, b), maximum emergence (c) and time to maximum emergence (d, e). Shoal size  
 417 is included as a continuous variable (a, c, d) and as a categorical variable (b, e) where it is  
 418 involved in a significant interaction effect.

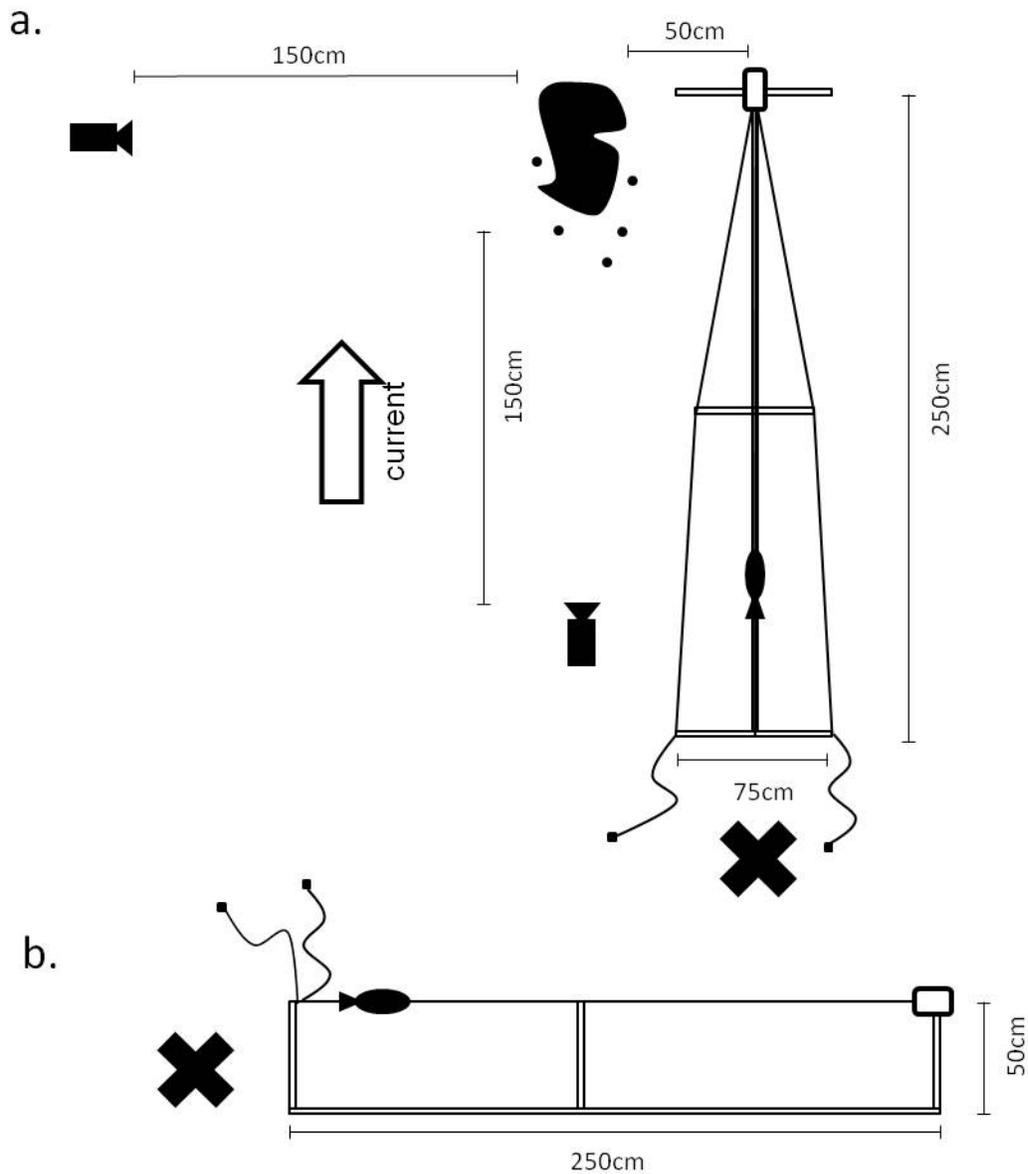
	Fixed effect	Value	Std Error	DF	t	p
a) Mean emergence (figure 4a)						
	Time	<-0.001	0.001	222	-0.078	0.938
	Tide	-1.556	0.053	53	-2.942	<b>0.005</b>
	Shoal Size	0.008	0.006	53	1.300	0.199
	Time*Shoal Size	<0.001	<0.001	222	7.008	<b>&lt;0.001</b>
b) Mean emergence (categorical shoal size; figure 4b)						
	Time	0.004	<0.001	222	12.037	<b>&lt;0.001</b>
	Tide	-0.160	0.056	53	-2.839	<b>0.006</b>
	Shoal Size	-0.034	0.058	53	-0.598	0.555
	Time*Shoal Size	-0.002	0.001	222	-3.412	<b>&lt;0.001</b>
c) Maximum emergence (figure 4c)						
	Time	0.008	0.001	222	11.053	<b>&lt;0.001</b>
	Tide	-2.279	0.082	53	-3.383	<b>0.001</b>
	Shoal Size	0.025	0.009	53	2.774	<b>0.008</b>
	Time*Tide	0.002	0.001	222	2.358	<b>0.019</b>
d) Time to maximum emergence						
	Time	0.050	0.005	222	10.936	<b>&lt;0.001</b>
	Tide	0.090	0.098	53	0.922	0.361
	Shoal Size	0.085	0.015	53	5.559	<b>&lt;0.001</b>
	Time*Shoal Size	-0.001	0.000	222	-2.725	<b>0.007</b>
e) Time to maximum emergence (categorical shoal size, figure 4d)						
	Time	0.034	0.004	222	12.146	<b>&lt;0.001</b>
	Tide	0.073	0.114	53	0.637	0.527
	Shoal Size	-0.524	0.148	53	-3.543	<b>&lt;0.001</b>
	Time*Shoal Size	0.0103	0.004	222	2.649	<b>0.009</b>

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423 **Figure legends**

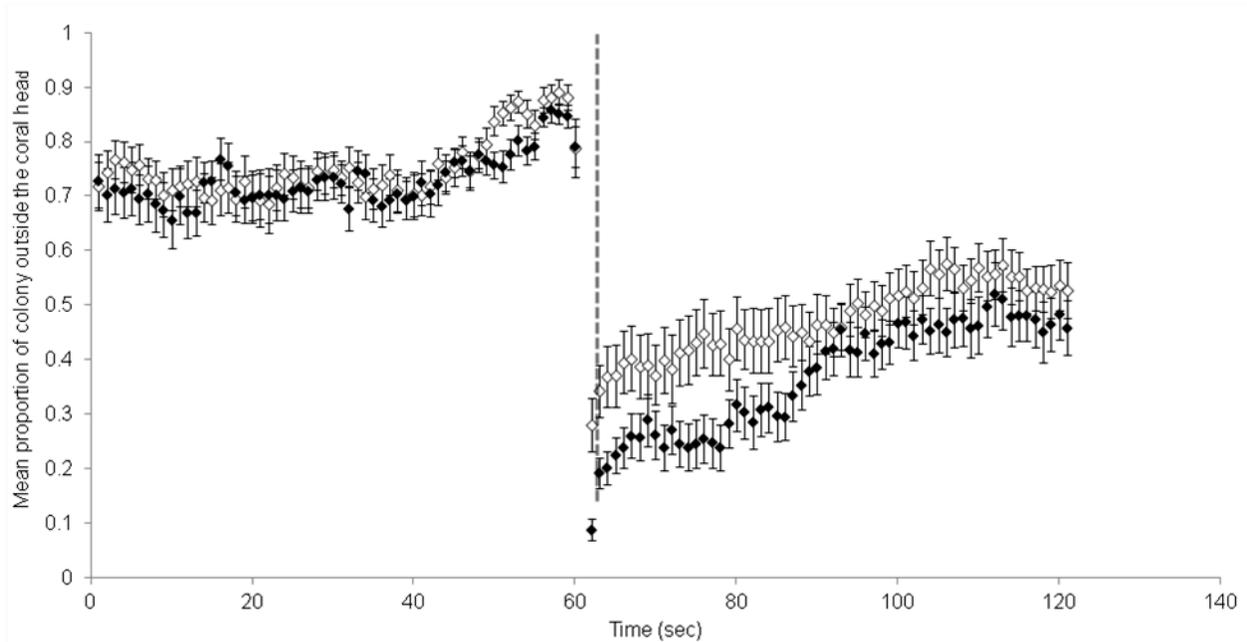
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425 Figure 1. Diagram of experimental set-up showing placement of the fright stimulus apparatus in

426 a.) aerial and b.) profile perspectives in relation to the direction of the current and position of

427 the coral head (irregular black shape, dots represent fish), cameras and position of

428 experimenter (X).

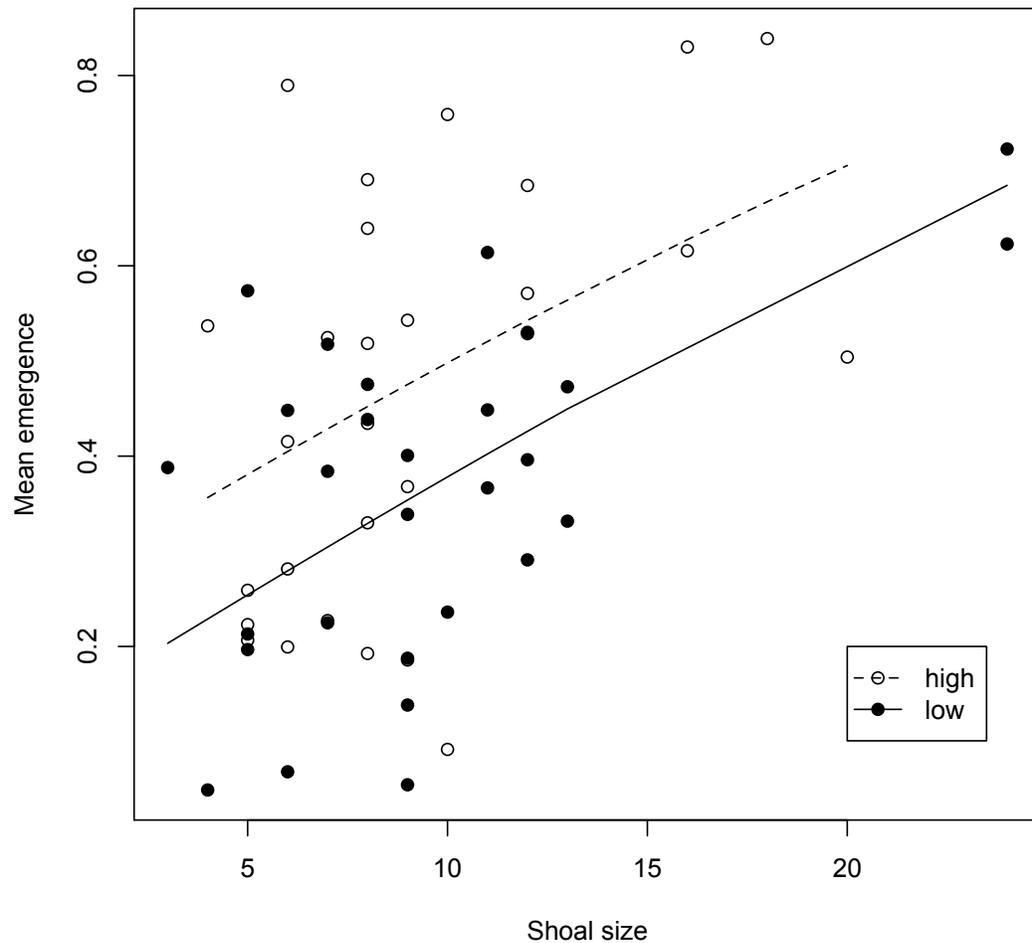


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430 Figure 2. The mean proportion of the colony that is outside of the coral head at each frame (1  
 431 frame per sec) 60 sec before and 60 sec after the fright stimulus. The dotted black line  
 432 represents the time at which the fright stimulus reached the colony. Empty markers  
 433 represent the mean of colonies assayed at high tide, filled markers represent the mean of the  
 434 colonies assayed at low tide. Error bars are standard error of the mean.

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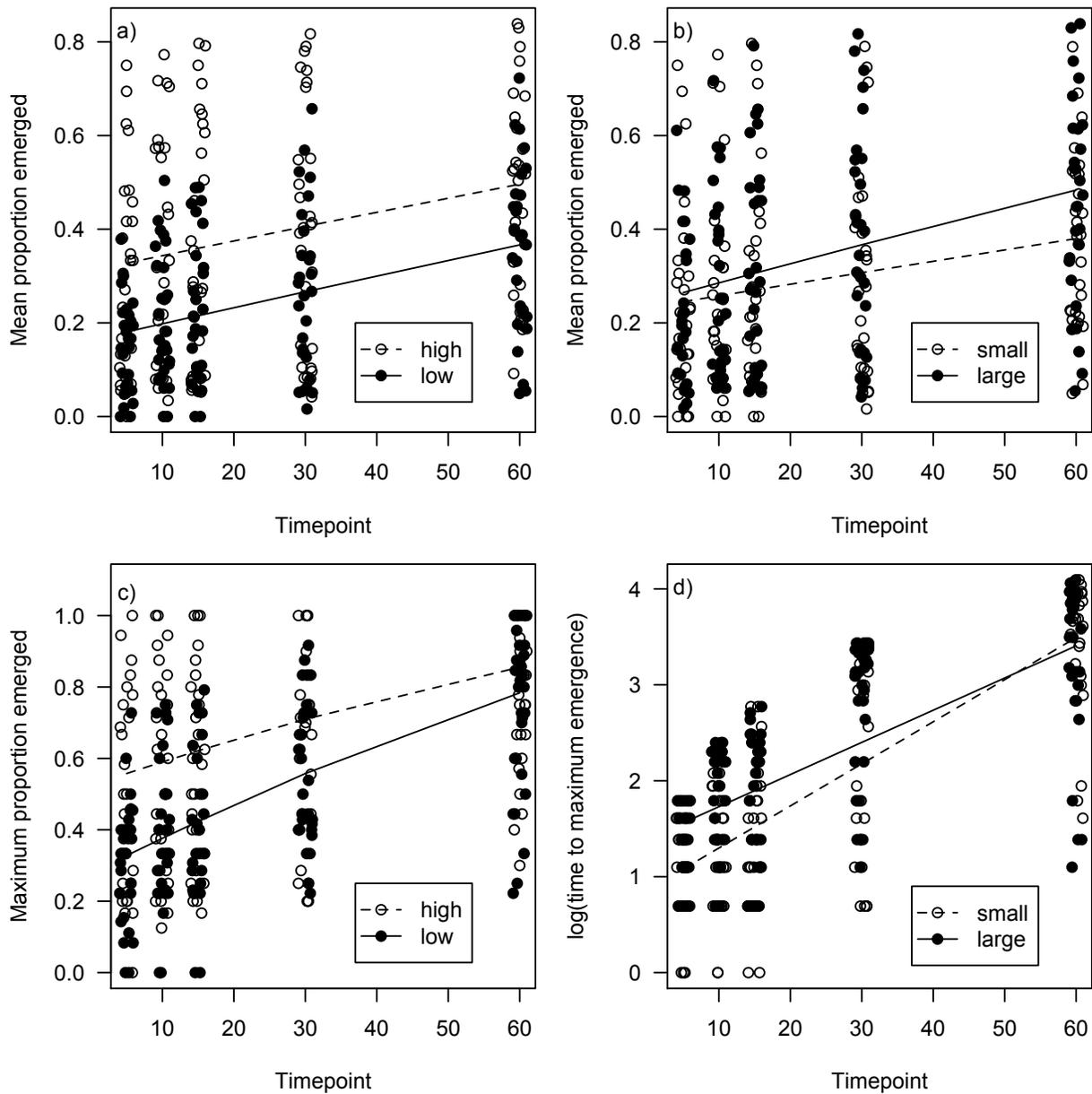


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438 Figure 3. The mean proportion of fish emerged as a function of shoal size, at high (open circles,  
 439 dashed line) and low (filled circles, solid line) tide. Fit lines are extracted from a linear model  
 440 assessing the effect of shoal size and tide on the mean proportion emergence (arcsin  
 441 transformed) for each shoal (tide:  $t = -2.502$ ,  $p = 0.015$ , shoal size:  $t = 4.354$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ).

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445 Figure 4. The mean (a, b), maximum (c) and time to maximum (d) proportion of fish emerged  
 446 from the coral head. Data are presented as a function of time, at high (open circles, dashed line)  
 447 and low (filled circles, solid line) tide (a, c), and in small (open circles, dashed line) and large  
 448 (filled circles, solid line) shoals (b, d).