1 Naked mole-rats (*Heterocephalus glaber*) do not specialise on cooperative tasks

- 2 Running title: No specialisation in naked mole-rats
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25 Abstract

26 It has been proposed that naked mole-rat (Heterocephalus glaber) societies resemble those of 27 eusocial insects by showing a division of labour among non-breeding individuals. Earlier studies 28 suggested that non-breeders belong to distinct castes that specialise permanently or temporarily 29 on specific cooperative tasks. In contrast, recent research on naked mole-rats has shown that behavioural phenotypes are continuously distributed across non-breeders and that mole-rats 30 exhibit considerable behavioural plasticity suggesting that individuals may not specialise 31 32 permanently on work tasks. However, it is currently unclear whether individuals specialise 33 temporarily and whether there is a sex bias in cooperative behaviour among non-breeders. Here 34 we show that non-breeding individuals vary in overall cooperative investment, but do not 35 specialise on specific work tasks. Within individuals, investment into specific cooperative tasks such as nest building, food carrying and burrowing are positively correlated, and there is no 36 evidence that individuals show trade-offs between these cooperative behaviours. Non-breeding 37 males and females do not differ in their investment in cooperative behaviours and show broadly 38 39 similar age and body mass related differences in cooperative behaviours. Our results suggest that non-breeding naked mole-rats vary in their overall contribution to cooperative behaviours 40 41 and that some of this variation may be explained by differences in age and body mass. Our data 42 provide no evidence for temporary specialisation, as found among some eusocial insects, and 43 suggests that the behavioural organisation of naked mole-rats resembles that of other 44 cooperatively breeding vertebrates more than that of eusocial insect species.

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46 Key words:

Behavioural specialisation, division of labour, eusociality, cooperative breeding, helping, socialevolution

50 Introduction

51 Task specialisation among members of social groups is considered a hallmark of social 52 evolution and can lead to improvements in group efficiency (Chittka and Muller 2009, Bourke 53 2011). The most extreme cases of task specialisation are found among social insects, where 54 individuals show divergent developmental trajectories that lead to functionally different and morphologically specialised castes of workers (Wilson 1971, Bourke 2011). Other social insects 55 56 show temporary specialisation in the absence of morphological specialisation, and workers pass 57 through successive developmental stages that are characterised by temporary specialisation in 58 specific tasks (Seeley 1982, Biedermann and Taborsky 2011, Mersch et al. 2013). In contrast to insects, group living vertebrates rarely show evidence of specialisation, and usually, individuals 59 60 vary in their overall investment in cooperative tasks depending on the individual's characteristics and environmental conditions (Cockburn 1998, Clutton-Brock et al. 2003). However, the social 61 62 mole-rats of the family Bathyergidae may represent an exception among group-living vertebrates, and it has been controversially debated to what extent their social organisation 63 resembles that of social insects groups (Jarvis 1981, Bennett 1990, Burda 1990, Crespi and 64 Yanega 1995, Bennett and Faulkes 2000, Burda et al. 2000, Scantlebury et al. 2006, Boomsma 65 66 2013, Boomsma and Gawne 2018).

67 Early research on naked mole-rats (Heterocephalus glaber) has suggested that some nonreproductive individuals specialise permanently on specific work-related tasks and that variation 68 in their cooperative behaviour is a consequence of the development of distinct castes - similar to 69 those found in eusocial insects (Jarvis 1981, Jarvis et al. 1991). Variation in growth, body mass 70 and behaviour were thought to be consequences of divergent developmental trajectories, where 71 72 small-bodied workers specialise in acquiring indirect fitness benefits generated by helping 73 related individuals, and large individuals were thought to maximise chances of direct 74 reproduction by dispersing or replacing the breeder (Jarvis et al. 1991, O'Riain et al. 1996). 75 Other studies suggested that variation in cooperative behaviour of naked mole-rats may instead 76 represent temporary specialisation, similar to age-related polyethisms found in some social 77 insects and that contrasts in behaviour may be explained by age-related changes of behaviour, 78 where individuals pass through stages of development and conduct different tasks depending on their age (Lacey and Sherman 1991, Lacey and Sherman 1997, Faulkes and Bennett 2016). 79 More recent studies have suggested that naked mole-rats show behavioural flexibility and that 80 81 cooperative behaviour may be adjusted to the group composition and other social and 82 environmental factors (Mooney et al. 2015, Gilbert et al. 2020). However, it remains unclear 83 whether non-breeding naked mole-rats specialise temporarily on specific work-related

behaviours, or whether individuals vary mostly in their overall commitment to cooperative
behaviours (Thorley et al. 2018, Braude et al. 2021).

86 Evidence from other social mole-rat species challenges the hypothesis that specialisation is 87 common in mole-rats. Several species of the genus Fukomys and Cryptomys show a similar social organisation to that of naked mole-rats and exhibit high reproductive skew and 88 cooperative foraging, though their groups are usually smaller than naked mole-rat groups 89 (Bennett and Jarvis 1988, Bennett 1990, Jarvis and Bennett 1993, Jarvis et al. 1994). Whereas 90 91 subordinate Damaraland mole-rats (Fukomys damarensis) exhibit differences in their overall 92 investment in cooperation and show age and size-related changes, the individuals do not 93 specialise in specific tasks, and behavioural variation appears to be a consequence of 94 differences in age, growth and body condition among non-breeders (Bennett and Jarvis 1988, 95 Bennett 1990, Zöttl et al. 2016a, Thorley et al. 2018, Torrents-Ticó et al. 2018a). Similarly, research on the cooperatively breeding Micklem's mole-rat (Fukomys micklemi) showed that 96 97 non-breeding individuals lacked task specialisation (Van Daele et al. 2019) and radio-tracking studies of free-living Ansell's mole-rats (Fukomys anselli) did not find evidence for behavioural 98 specialisation (Šklíba et al. 2016). However, sociality has evolved independently in naked mole-99 rats and their relatives of the genera Fukomys and Cryptomys, and it is possible that patterns of 100 101 behavioural organisation differ as a result of larger mean group sizes in naked mole-rats 102 (Bennett and Faulkes 2000, Faulkes and Bennett 2007, Visser et al. 2019).

103 To demonstrate behavioural specialisation, it is necessary to show that individuals trade-off 104 investment in different forms of cooperative behaviours. This would be expected to generate 105 negative correlations between some cooperative behaviours across individuals over a 106 considerable amount of time (English et al. 2015, Thorley et al. 2018). Previous studies of naked 107 mole-rats have sometimes suggested that specialisation occurs on the grounds that individuals 108 of different body mass or age show contrasts in their investment in specific tasks (Jarvis 1981, Jarvis et al. 1991, Lacey and Sherman 1991, Lacey and Sherman 1997), or by showing that 109 110 different forms of cooperative behaviours load on different axes in principal component analyses 111 (Mooney et al. 2015). However, these patterns do not necessarily imply specialisation on an 112 individual level, and it remains unclear to what extent naked mole-rats specialise in cooperative 113 tasks.

In this study, we investigated whether non-breeding individuals in captive naked mole-rat groups specialise across three different cooperative tasks, which are burrowing related activities, nest building and food carrying. To do this, we collected longitudinal behavioural records of 169

117 marked individuals in 11 groups using an instantaneous sampling protocol and analysed the 118 behavioural frequencies with multilevel, multinomial logistic regressions. These generalised linear mixed models are logistic regressions that allow the estimation of within-individual 119 120 correlation, while also estimating the effects of individual characteristics and environmental 121 effects on behavioural variation (Koster and McElreath 2017, Thorley et al. 2018). Trade-offs 122 between different cooperative behaviours at the individual level would result in negative 123 individual random effects correlations. In contrast, positive correlations would indicate that 124 individuals that perform one cooperative task are also much more likely to perform another kind 125 of cooperative task more frequently.

126 We also investigated whether the expression of cooperative behaviour of naked mole-rats is 127 predicted by individual characteristics (body mass, age) and group size, and whether there is a 128 sex bias in the expression of cooperative behaviour. Variation at these levels and behavioural specialisation are non-mutually exclusive phenomena and do not preclude each other. As such, 129 130 when addressing questions about behavioural specialisation it is important to include the effects 131 of individual characteristics and group level traits because divergent behavioural trajectories in different tasks may reflect the relative costs and benefits of specific cooperative behaviours at 132 133 different developmental or life-history stages (McNamara and Houston 1996, Taborsky and 134 Grantner 1998, Heinsohn and Legge 1999, Clutton-Brock et al. 2003).

136 **METHODS**

137 Animals and housing

The study includes data from five groups of naked mole-rats housed at the Vienna Zoo 138 139 (Tiergarten Schönbrunn) in Austria, and six groups housed at the University of Pretoria in South 140 Africa, with group sizes ranging from 12 to 45 individuals. All animals were born and raised in captivity and housed in tunnel systems made of either transparent PVC or glass. Each group 141 142 occupied a self-contained tunnel system (3.20-7 m) including at least one nest box and one toilet area. Temperatures in the housing facilities were maintained close to natural burrow 143 conditions at 28°-30°C. The animals were fed ad libitum daily on a diet of sweet potatoes, 144 145 carrots, beetroot, apples and cucumber, and provided with wood wool (Vienna) or paper towel 146 shreds (Pretoria) as nesting material. The boxes (toilet chamber) were cleaned once a day and 147 the food container once a week. During observations, a standardised amount of digging 148 substrate (1 x 200 ml wood shavings) was inserted into the tunnel system every 2 h to provide 149 substrate for burrowing activity.

All individuals were identified via passive integrated transponder tags, and prior to observations, the individuals received unique colour marks applied with permanent markers. Sex was determined from the external genitalia (Pretoria) or via molecular sexing using buccal mucosa samples (Vienna). The breeding females were identified by their characteristic genital morphology. In Vienna, we were unable to identify the breeding males in the groups morphologically, and no sexual behaviour was observed during the study. Therefore, we included all individuals except for queens in the behavioural analysis as non-breeders.

157 **Data collection**

158 Data from 169 non-breeding individuals (67 females, 102 males) were included in this study. In 159 Vienna, data were collected from 72 animals between July 2018 and July 2019. Body mass was 160 recorded a mean of 7.0 \pm 1.5 times from every animal whenever the group was removed from 161 the tunnel system (e.g. before observation sessions or when taking mucosa samples) by placing 162 them on an electronic scale (accurate to the nearest gram). In Pretoria, data were collected from 163 97 animals in August 2020. Body mass measurements were taken once for each animal before 164 their first observation. The mean body mass for all non-breeders was 38.3 ± 12.3 g (range 16-74 165 g), with 36.1 ± 11.6 g for females and 39.8 ± 12.5 g for males. Ages were known for 91 nonbreeders in Pretoria and 8 non-breeders in Vienna. The mean age at the time of observation 166 167 was 415.4 d, ranging from 140-1254 d.

168 Behavioural data were collected using instantaneous scan sampling. The behaviour of 169 every animal in a group was recorded in 6-10-min intervals, depending on group size. In larger groups, 20 animals were arbitrarily chosen for observation, whereas in groups smaller than 20 170 171 individuals, all animals were included in the observation. The ethogram included 16 behaviours 172 (Supplementary Table S1), and the observations were recorded on a handheld device using 173 software Animal Behaviour Pro version 1.2 (University of Kent, UK). In Vienna, groups remained 174 in their usual tunnel systems, whereas in Pretoria, they were transferred one day before 175 observation to a tunnel system better suited for observations (Supplementary Figure S1). The 176 animals were allowed 24 h to habituate to the observational tunnels.

Observation sessions lasted 6 h and were carried out between 08:00 and 16:00 by the same one or two observers that alternated every 30 min. The observational period was chosen because naked mole-rats show unpredictable activity patterns with considerable inter-individual variation (Riccio and Goldman 2000). In Vienna, each group was observed five times over a mean period of 216 \pm 61 d, with a mean time of 54 \pm 41 d between sessions. In Pretoria, each group was observed on three consecutive days. Over all 43 sessions, a mean of 161 \pm 69 sampling events was recorded per individual (range 78-300, see Table 1).

184 Statistical analysis

Individual correlations between types of cooperative behaviour and the effect of body mass and group size on cooperative behaviour were analysed with the use of three multilevel, multinomial behaviour models that increased in complexity due to the successive inclusion of fixed effect covariates and higher-level random effects (Koster and McElreath 2017). All three models were calculated separately for males and females. Subsequently, we also specified a model for a subset of animals of known age to investigate the effect of age on behaviour and a model for all non-breeders with sex as a predictor variable to quantify behavioural sex differences.

192 The 16 recorded behaviours were grouped into six categories: three types of cooperative 193 behaviour, carrying food, nest building and burrowing (which aggregates all activities related to 194 burrow maintenance such as gnawing at the tunnel walls, digging in or kicking and sweeping 195 substrate), and three non-cooperative behaviour types, resting, eating and active non-help, 196 which summarises all other active behaviours not related to cooperation so that distinction can 197 be made between investment in cooperation and other activities. For most observations, no 198 offspring were present, and the few recorded instances of pup carrying were excluded from the 199 analyses.

The Widely Applicable Information Criterion (WAIC) was calculated to evaluate relative model fit, but due to their varying predictors and random effects structure, each of the three Models 1-3 and the comparison of their output provided information relevant to different aspects of our analysis of cooperative behaviour (Watanabe and Opper 2010, Watanabe 2013). The WAIC score was therefore not used for model selection, but rather as an indicator of model quality.

Model 1 included only intercepts and random effects for individuals and showed the extent of individual-level variance for each behavioural category as well as the within-individual correlations between the five non-resting behaviours. Since we were interested in individual trade-offs between active behaviours, resting was set as the reference category. This meant that coefficients of the intercepts indicated how much time individuals allocated to the respective behaviours relative to resting. Consequently, the variance of the reference category or correlations between the other behaviours and resting were not calculated.

213 In addition to the individual-level random effects. Model 2 included predictor variables 214 that may be related to the expression of behavioural phenotypes in naked mole-rats. Body mass 215 was added as a fixed effect to test the assumption that maximum body mass influences the 216 cooperative investment of non-breeders. As another well-established predictor of behavioural 217 contributions in cooperative societies the group size was also incorporated as a fixed covariate (Balshine et al. 2001, Fischer et al. 2014, Houslay et al. 2020). Both continuous predictors were 218 219 z-score transformed before model fitting and specified as first- and second-order polynomials. 220 To control for the origin of the population we also added this variable as a fixed factor with two 221 levels (Vienna/Pretoria). The comparison of individual-level variances between Models 1 and 2 222 gave some indication of the proportion of variance in the behavioural categories that could be 223 explained by the fixed effects. However, the inclusion of predictor variables can increase the 224 higher-level variance estimates in multilevel models, which is why the variances in Model 2 225 should be interpreted with caution (Koster and McElreath 2017). The within-individual 226 correlations between the behavioural responses are not sensitive to this issue, and the changes 227 in correlation estimates relative to Model 1 reflected the impact of the predictor variables on the 228 random effects.

The structure of Model 3 was further expanded to include random effects at the level of observation session and group, while maintaining the set of fixed effects from the previous model. Random effects for sessions were incorporated to account for temporal pseudoreplication created by recording the same individuals repeatedly throughout one session. Group233 level random effects were introduced to adjust for clustering of the data by group. The complex 234 random effects structure of this model affects the interpretation of the individual random effects 235 and their correlations: individual-level variance estimates did not reflect variation across all the 236 individuals of the population, but within-group variations and as a result, individual-level 237 correlations in this model did not represent individual trade-offs between behavioural responses. 238 However, including higher-level random effects improved the overall model fit and allowed a 239 more precise estimation of the fixed effects. As a result, Model 3 was particularly suited for 240 analysing the effects of the predictor variables on cooperative investment.

We expanded the structure of Model 3 to investigate the effect of age on behaviour for the subset of 99 non-breeders of known age by including age as a fixed effect (as a first-, second-and third-order polynomial) and litter as a random effect for Model 3a. Additionally, we applied Model 3b, which also retained the random and fixed effects structure of Model 3 but incorporated sex as a categorical predictor, to the whole dataset.

246 Models were fitted and analysed in a Bayesian framework with the R packages rstan 247 (Stan Development Team 2020) and rethinking (McElreath 2020). Instead of the conventional 248 Markov chain Monte Carlo algorithms, rstan employs Hamiltonian Monte Carlo chains, which are 249 more efficient at achieving sufficiently mixed posterior distributions (Monnahan et al. 2017). We 250 used three chains of 2000-3000 iterations for model fitting, half of which were devoted to the warm-up. To ensure adequate mixing of the chains, a non-centred parameterisation of the 251 252 varying effects was realised with a Cholesky decomposition of the variance-covariance matrices 253 (Koster and McElreath 2017). Additionally, we assigned weakly informative priors to the fixed 254 effect parameters and variance-covariance matrices that prevent overfitting while influencing the 255 posterior distribution as little as possible (Koster and McElreath 2017). To diagnose potential 256 problems with chain mixing and convergence, we examined the trace plots and rank histograms 257 of the chains as well as the effective number of samples and the Gelman-Rubin convergence 258 diagnostic ($R \square < 1.1$) (McElreath 2020).

The correlations between random effects were considered significant if the 95% credible intervals of their posterior distributions did not include zero. The interpretation of the coefficients of the fixed effects is complicated because they do not represent the direct effect of the predictor on the probability of exhibiting a certain behaviour due to their relationship to the reference category. Following Koster and McElreath (2017), we instead calculated the predicted probabilities and their credible intervals in order to visualise the impact of body mass, group size and age on behaviour. Probabilities were based on fixed effects only while averaging over random effects. Prediction intervals cannot be used to test categorical predictor variables for significance, because they contain uncertainty from all covariates, and so to examine differences in behaviour between females and males, we calculated the contrasts between the predicted probabilities for the two groups (Koster and McElreath 2017). Statistical significance was inferred if the 95% credible intervals of the predicted differences did not span zero. All statistical analyses were performed in R (R Core Team, 2020).

272 Ethical statement

The protocol used in this study was approved by the animal ethics committee of the University of Pretoria NAS099/2020 and Department of Agriculture land reform and rural development 12/11/1/8 (1595JD).

277 **RESULTS**

278 Individual-level trade-offs

Comparison with the WAIC showed that model fit improved with increased model complexity
(Supplementary Table S2). Effects of the predictor variables are therefore presented for Model 3
and its variants 3a and 3b, while within-individual correlations are taken from Model 1 and 2.

282 We found no evidence of task specialisation of non-breeding naked mole-rats between any of the three cooperative tasks. Individual-level random effect correlations between any two 283 284 of the observed behaviours (excluding the reference category resting) were positively correlated 285 across both sexes and negative correlations were notably absent, indicating that there were no trade-offs between different cooperative behaviours within individuals (Table 2, Supplementary 286 287 Tables S3 and S4 for random effects correlations on all levels from Models 1, 2 and 3 for females and males, respectively). Individuals that performed more of one cooperative behaviour 288 289 were also more likely to engage in other cooperative behaviours: mole-rats who were more frequently observed carrying food engaged more often in nest building (females: $\rho_{34} = 0.34 \pm$ 290 291 0.13; males: $\rho_{3,4} = 0.61 \pm 0.08$), and burrowing (females: $\rho_{3,5} = 0.61 \pm 0.10$; males: $\rho_{3,5} = 0.64 \pm 0.10$ 292 0.07), while individuals who burrowed relatively more also allocated more of their time to nest building (females: $\rho_{4.5} = 0.43 \pm 0.11$; males: $\rho_{4.5} = 0.69 \pm 0.06$; values from Model 1, Table 2, 293 294 upper half of each matrix). Most correlations remained robust after controlling for the influence of 295 the fixed effects on behaviour in Model 2, though nest building was no longer significantly 296 correlated to other cooperative tasks in females (Figure 1; Table 2, lower half of each matrix). 297 The positive correlations remained qualitatively unchanged when limiting the dataset to include only individuals that were observed over a long period in the population from Vienna 298 299 (Supplementary Figure S2, Supplementary Table S5). However, despite remaining positive, a 300 small number of correlations, notably nest building to food carrying within the population in 301 Vienna did not reach significance among females, presumably because the sample size was 302 limited to 19 females.

303 Effects of body mass, group size and age

Individual-level variances changed only to a small extent with the inclusion of fixed effects in Model 2 compared to Model 1, indicating that body mass, group size and population account for only a small proportion of individual-level behavioural variation (Supplementary Table S6). The behavioural changes attributed to the fixed effect estimates (body mass, group size, age) were also estimated with a high degree of uncertainty, suggesting that these individual and group

characteristics were relatively poor predictors of cooperative behaviour of naked mole-rats in
 both populations. However, some attenuated general trajectories were notable in the
 visualisation of the predicted probabilities (Figures 2, 3 and 4).

312 Body mass had similar effects on male and female non-breeders (Figure 2, 313 Supplementary Table S7). Food carrying increased with larger body mass, whereas burrowing 314 activity decreased with larger body mass in both sexes. Individuals with intermediate body 315 masses engaged mostly in nest-building activity. Group size had overall no convincing effect on 316 the cooperative and non-cooperative behaviour of naked mole-rats (Figure 3, Supplementary 317 Table S7). Individuals in larger groups rested more and furthermore showed less non-helping 318 activity. Investment in food carrying peaked at intermediate group sizes in both sexes and 319 burrowing showed a similar quadratic relationship in females. In contrast, burrowing declined 320 and resting increased with larger group sizes in males. Females performed less nest building in 321 larger groups, whereas no such trend was apparent for males.

Overall, the animals became less active with age, as seen by the increase of resting 322 323 behaviour over time (Figure 4, Supplementary Table S7). In accordance with this trend, 324 investment in burrowing behaviour decreased for both sexes during the first 2.5 years of life. The 325 effect of age on some behaviours seems sex-dependent: time allocated to food carrying 326 declined after 1.5 years in females, whereas in males, food carrying increased with age and 327 reached its peak at around 2 years. Nest building behaviour showed the inverse trends, with 328 males expressing nest-building more frequently with age and females displaying a steep decline 329 after 1.5 years.

330 Sex differences in cooperative behaviour

Whereas some sex differences existed in relation to age, overall, sex differences in cooperative and non-cooperative behaviour were minor and non-significant, with the exception of females spending marginally more time eating (Model 3b). Both sexes were equally likely to carry food, engage in nest building and burrowing after controlling for the effects of body mass, group size and population (Figure 5).

Table 1: Descriptive summary statistics for the observational data used in this study split by group, population, sex and body mass. Population-level differences are also illustrated in Supplementary Figure S3.

Group	Ν	Percentage of total observations					
		Active non-help	Eat	Food carry	Nest build	Burrow	Rest
A (Vienna)	12	32.1	4.8	0.9	2.6	21.9	37.7
B (Vienna)	18	29.7	3.9	1.2	6.4	24.3	34.5
C (Vienna)	13	46.3	1.7	0.5	3.6	23.3	24.5
D (Vienna)	18	46.1	5.4	4.7	4.6	26.7	12.5
H (Vienna)	11	49.8	5.6	2.2	5.2	40.6	20.4
1 (Pretoria)	14	24.7	6.7	2.2	3.0	18.9	44.6
4 (Pretoria)	18	19.9	3.2	1.3	0.4	23.6	51.7
5 (Pretoria)	11	16.8	6.2	1.3	0.6	12.8	62.3
6 (Pretoria)	18	26.1	6.2	3.6	0.0	25.5	38.5
7 (Pretoria)	18	22.4	3.5	1.3	1.4	13.4	58.0
10 (Pretoria)	18	24.1	6.9	1.7	4.9	7.4	54.8
Vienna	72	37.4	3.8	1.7	4.0	27.0	26.2
Pretoria	97	22.3	5.4	1.9	1.7	16.9	51.8
Females	67	27.6	5.3	1.9	3.1	18.8	43.2
Males	102	32.8	4.1	1.7	3.0	24.8	33.6

Small (<35g)	72	28.5	4.6	1.8	2.7	20.6	41.8
Medium (35-55g)	75	31.5	4.4	1.5	3.2	22.2	37.2
Large (>55g)	22	34.8	4.5	2.6	3.0	28.6	26.5
Total	169	31.0	4.5	1.8	3.0	22.7	37.0

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Sex	Behaviour	Behaviour						
		Active non-help	Eat	Food carry	Nest build	Burrow		
Female	Active non-help	_	0.59(0.09)	0.63(0.09)	0.58(0.09)	0.70(0.07)		
	Eat	0.56(0.13)	-	0.66(0.11)	0.61(0.11)	0.35(0.12)		
	Food carry	0.58(0.13)	0.58(0.14)	-	0.34(0.13)	0.61(0.10)		
	Nest build	0.22(0.14)	0.45(0.15)	0.13(0.17)	-	0.43(0.11)		
	Burrow	0.51(0.11)	0.24(0.14)	0.51(0.13)	0.14(0.14)	-		
Male	Active non-help	-	0.60(0.08)	0.65(0.07)	0.78(0.05)	0.77(0.04)		
	Eat	0.64(0.08)	-	0.84(0.06)	0.57(0.09)	0.61(0.08)		
	Food carry	0.78(0.06)	0.83(0.06)	-	0.61(0.08)	0.64(0.07)		
	Nest build	0.66(0.07)	0.58(0.09)	0.70(0.08)	-	0.69(0.06)		
	Burrow	0.72(0.06)	0.60(0.08)	0.71(0.07)	0.58(0.09)	_		

Table 2: Correlations of individual-level random effects across responses from Model 1 and 2 for both sexes.

342 The upper half of the matrix lists correlations from Model 1, the lower half correlations from Model 2. Reported values

343 are means from the posterior samples (SD in parenthesis); parameters in bold indicate estimates where the 95%

344 credible intervals do not span zero.

346 Discussion

347 Our results provide no indication that naked mole-rats in these captive groups specialise 348 temporarily or permanently in specific work-related tasks and instead suggest that within 349 individuals all work-related tasks correlate positively with each other. Overall, individuals show 350 variation in total activity levels that trade-off against resting duration, whereas investment in all 351 recorded behaviours, including burrowing, nest building and food carrying, correlate positively 352 with each other. As such, naked mole-rat non-breeders vary in their general commitment to 353 cooperative behaviour that may be linked to some differences in age, body size, metabolism and 354 group size. Their behavioural types can be characterised along a one-dimensional syndrome 355 varying from individuals that show long periods of activity and that engage frequently in all forms 356 of work-related cooperative behaviour to individuals that show shorter periods of activity and 357 engage less frequently in all forms of cooperative behaviour.

358 Our results do not support previous suggestions that naked mole-rats specialise on specific 359 tasks, either temporarily or permanently (Jarvis 1981, Jarvis et al. 1991, Lacey and Sherman 360 1991, Lacey and Sherman 1997). These studies inferred specialisation from size-related 361 variation in cooperative behaviour by showing that burrowing, nest building and food carrying 362 follow divergent size-dependent trends. However, the individuals were mostly of unknown age 363 and it has been found that size and age-related differences may not necessarily be the result of 364 specialisation, but instead are often consequences of the relative costs and benefits to 365 individuals at different life stages (McNamara and Houston 1996, Faulkes and Bennett 2016, 366 Zöttl et al. 2016a, Gilbert et al. 2020). The results of our study also represent a clear example 367 where size and age-related variation can exist despite a positive correlation of engagement in 368 different tasks within individuals. One of the most important studies advancing the case that 369 naked mole-rats may specialise on specific tasks used a principal component analysis to 370 investigate whether individuals specialise across territory defence, pup care and work-related 371 tasks and show that these three types of behaviours load on different axes (Mooney et al. 2015). 372 However, specialisation at the individual level may be expected to result in the loading of 373 different cooperative tasks with opposite directionality on the same axis and this has yet to be 374 shown. Our study was unable to assess how territory defence and pup carrying relates to other 375 cooperative tasks such as nest building, food carrying and burrowing because pup care 376 behaviour is only shown in times when offspring are very small and territory defence needs to be 377 elicited by introducing foreign conspecifics, predators or predator scent. Future research is now 378 needed to clarify how these behaviours relate to each other in a similar analytical framework as

379 we used in this study and to explicitly test whether the investment in pup care and territory 380 defence are traded-off against investment in other tasks at the individual level.

381 Although the idea of specialization of non-breeders in mole-rat species is interesting and has 382 attracted widespread attention, recent longitudinal studies suggest that individuals rarely 383 specialise. Mole-rats within the genera Fukomys and Cryptomys show body size related 384 changes in cooperative behaviour and individuals can vary widely in the frequency of burrowing 385 behaviour (Bennett and Jarvis 1988, Bennett 1990, Burda 1990, Bennett 1992, Jarvis et al. 386 1994, Spinks et al. 1999, Scantlebury et al. 2006). However, longitudinal studies of Damaraland 387 mole-rats of known ages have shown that individuals do not trade-off investment in cooperative 388 behaviours and that the general patterns of the distribution of cooperative behaviour across 389 individuals are similar to those of naked mole-rats shown in this study (Zöttl et al. 2016a, Thorley 390 et al. 2018, Zöttl et al. 2018, Gilbert et al. 2020). Evidence from field studies of other Fukomys 391 species also supports the notion that the behavioural similarity of mole-rats societies with 392 obligatorily eusocial insects has probably been overemphasized in the past and evidence for 393 specialisation, divergent developmental trajectories or bimodal trait distributions across individuals are rare (Faulkes and Bennett 2016, Šklíba et al. 2016, Zöttl et al 2016b, Van Daele 394 395 et al. 2019, Voigt et al. 2019).

396 Our results are consistent with growing evidence suggesting that the distribution of cooperative 397 behaviour across individuals in social mole-rat societies is similar to that of many other 398 cooperatively breeding mammals and birds. In most cooperatively breeding mammals and birds, 399 individuals vary in the overall commitment to cooperative behaviours. In meerkats and banded 400 mongooses, for example, different helping behaviours are positively correlated to each other and 401 divergent developmental trajectories are absent (Carter et al. 2014, Sanderson et al. 2015), 402 though individuals vary by age, sex and opportunities to breed (Clutton-Brock et al. 2001, Clutton-Brock et al. 2003, Cant et al. 2016, Clutton-Brock and Manser 2016). Similarly, in 403 404 cooperatively breeding birds, individuals show positively co-varying variation across individuals 405 in specific cooperative tasks such as chick feeding and nest defence (van Asten et al. 2016, 406 Teunissen et al. 2020) and although some notable exceptions exist (Arnold et al. 2005), the 407 majority of studies suggest that across avian and mammalian cooperative breeders task 408 specialisation is rare.

Whereas most research on cooperatively breeding mammals is often limited to observational data and relies on longitudinal studies of life-history variation, cooperatively breeding cichlids have emerged as some of the most promising and innovative study systems to investigate divergent developmental trajectories and individual specialisation among cooperatively breeding

413 vertebrates (Arnold and Taborsky 2010, Bruintjes and Taborsky 2011, Taborsky et al. 2013, 414 Fischer et al. 2017). The reproductive ecology of these fish shares many of the characteristics 415 with cooperatively breeding birds and mammals. They live in stable groups with high 416 reproductive skew and up to 25 helpers that engage in different forms of cooperative behaviour 417 (Taborsky and Limberger 1981, Taborsky 1984, 1985). Helpers that vary in relatedness to the 418 breeders can either stay in the territory and help or disperse and breed independently (Taborsky 419 and Limberger 1981, Bergmuller et al. 2005, Dierkes et al. 2005, Heg et al. 2011, Hellmann et al. 420 2016), and cooperative behaviour is used to appease the dominant breeders and prevent 421 punishment and eviction (Bergmuller and Taborsky 2005, Zöttl et al. 2013b, Fischer et al. 2014, 422 Naef and Taborsky 2020). Experimental manipulations of the social environment and predation 423 pressure have long-lasting effects on the behavioural phenotype and the physiology of helpers 424 that may be related to variation life-histories and could adapt some individuals for extended 425 philopatry and others to dispersal (Taborsky et al. 2013, Fischer et al. 2015, Fischer et al. 2017, 426 Antunes et al. 2020), though it remains unclear whether divergent phenotypes are a result of 427 adaptation, or of developmental constraints, and whether long-lasting developmental effects 428 overshadow the capacity to adapt to stochastically arising breeding or dispersal opportunities 429 (Bergmuller et al. 2005, Zöttl et al. 2013a, English et al. 2015). In contrast to predictions about the distribution of investment in specific tasks among specialised helpers, these cichlids show 430 431 positive correlations between territory defence and maintenance tasks (Le Vin et al. 2011), and it remains unclear if developmental effects lead to some trade-offs between different tasks in 432 433 cooperatively breeding cichlids.

Our study suggests that burrowing frequency in naked mole-rats decreased with age and body 434 435 mass, which is consistent with recent research on age-related behavioural variation in naked 436 mole-rats (Gilbert et al. 2020). Nest building peaked at intermediate body mass at the age of two 437 years and food carrying increased in heavier individuals. These patterns are broadly similar to 438 those in Damaraland mole-rats, and the general decline of burrowing behaviour coincides with 439 the age and body mass at which individuals in the wild disperse from their natal group 440 (Hochberg et al. 2016, Zöttl et al. 2016a, Torrents-Ticó et al. 2018a). While breeders and non-441 breeders show long lifespans in captivity (Dammann and Burda 2006, Buffenstein 2008, Schmidt 442 et al. 2013, Ruby et al. 2018), most non-breeders in the wild disappear from their natal groups 443 when they reach approximately 2-3 years of age, and subsequently either become breeders in a 444 new group or die during dispersal (but see Young et al. 2015, Hochberg et al. 2016, 445 Torrents-Ticó et al. 2018b). Those that remain in the group have been found to gain body mass 446 and become less active (Jarvis et al. 1991, O'Riain et al. 1996, Thorley et al. 2018). This

relationship is reflected in our groups, as male non-breeders rested more as they aged, and time
 spent on most cooperative activities peaked at around 1.5-2 years or generally decreased with
 age.

450 Our data reveal that sex differences in work-related cooperative behaviour of naked mole-rats 451 are minor and body mass and age-related patterns are broadly similar in male and female non-452 breeding individuals. This is consistent with previous studies (Jarvis et al. 1991, Lacey and 453 Sherman 1997, Gilbert et al. 2020), and it is possible that as in other social mole-rats species, 454 sex-differences are limited to allo-parental care behaviour which we were unable to record in this 455 study (Bennett 1990, Zöttl et al. 2016a, Thorley et al. 2018, Zöttl et al. 2018). The lack of sex-456 differences contrasts with the distribution of cooperative behaviours in many other cooperatively 457 breeding species where sex differences are common and often linked to sex differences in 458 philopatry (Clutton-Brock et al. 2002). In mole-rats the duration of philopatry differs only 459 marginally between males and females (Braude 2000, Hazell et al. 2000, Torrents-Ticó et al. 460 2018b, Hochberg et al. 2016) and could be the underlying reason for similar investment in 461 cooperative behaviour across both sexes in naked and other social mole-rat species. However, 462 many sex differences in the behaviour of mammals only manifest after sexual maturity, and an 463 alternative explanation for the lack of sex differences in naked mole-rat non-breeders is that non-464 breeders are hormonally pre-pubescent and therefore show little sex-specific variation (Faulkes 465 et al. 1990, 1991 and 1994).

466 **Conclusion**

467 Naked and Damaraland mole-rats have been proposed to share many of the traits of the 468 obligatory eusocial insects, including task specialisation among workers. Our study suggests 469 that task specialisation among different work-related tasks does not occur, which is consistent 470 with recent studies on the distribution of cooperative behaviour among non-reproductive 471 individuals of other mole-rat species. In contrast, individuals that contribute more to a specific 472 task are also more likely to engage in a different task, suggesting that individuals primarily vary 473 in their overall investment in cooperative behaviour. Our data suggest that naked mole-rats show similar behavioural organisation to other cooperatively breeding vertebrates where involvement 474 475 in different tasks is commonly positively correlated within individuals and that similarity to the 476 obligatorily eusocial insects has been overemphasized.

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480 Author contributions

481 MZ conceived the study. SS and RF collected the data with assistance from all authors. SS 482 analysed the data. MZ and SS wrote the first draft of the paper. All authors commented and 483 edited the manuscript.

484 **Conflict of Interest**

485 We declare no conflict of interest.

486 Significance statement

It has been controversially discussed whether non-breeders in naked mole-rats belong to distinct castes that specialise permanently or temporarily in specific cooperative tasks. In this paper we show that non-breeding individuals vary in overall cooperative investment, but do not specialise on specific work tasks. Our data provide no evidence for temporary specialisation and suggests that the behavioural organisation of naked mole-rats resembles that of other cooperatively breeding vertebrates more than that of eusocial insect species.

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- 714

715 Figure Legends

716

Figure 1: Within-individual random effects correlations from Model 2 for a) females and b) males. Values in the lower half of the matrix represent the correlations between the median individual level intercept in the posterior samples for each behaviour. They are therefore larger than the correlations presented in Table 2 that are taken directly from the variance-covariance matrices of the posterior samples.

721 Figure 2: Model predictions of response behaviours as a function of body mass for a) females and b) males. All other

fixed covariates are held at the sample mean and predictions are made at the population level for individuals from

- Vienna. Shaded regions show the 89% percentile intervals calculated from the posterior samples of Model 3 for eachsex.
- Figure 3: Model predictions of response behaviours as a function of group size for a) females and b) males. All other fixed covariates are held at the sample mean and predictions are made at the population level for individuals from Vienna. Shaded regions show the 89% percentile intervals calculated from the posterior samples of Model 3 for each sex.

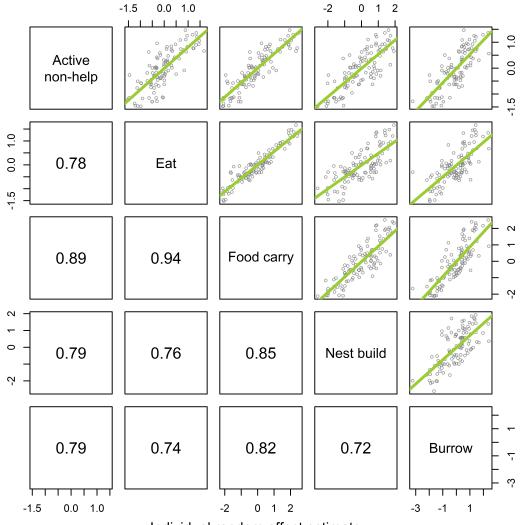
Figure 4: Model predictions of response behaviours as a function of age for **a**) females and **b**) males. All other fixed covariates are held at the sample mean. Shaded regions show the 89% percentile intervals calculated from the posterior samples of Model 3a for each sex.

732 Figure 5: Model predictions of response behaviours as a function of sex (67 female non-breeders and 102 male non-

733 breeders). All other fixed covariates are held constant at the sample mean. The confidence intervals are the 89%

percentile intervals as calculated from the posterior samples of Model 3b.

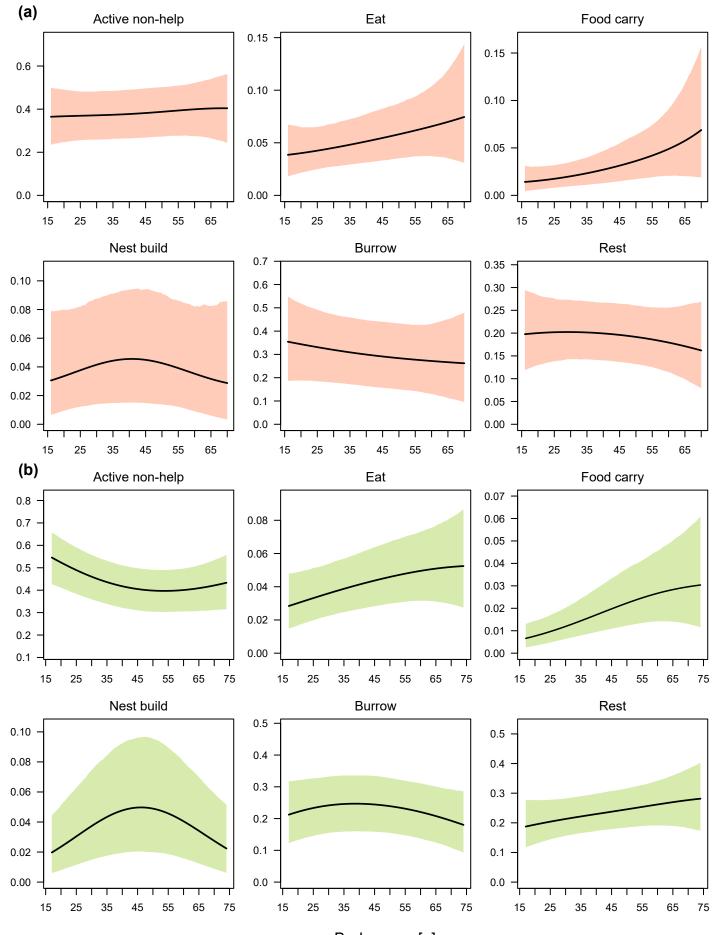
-1.0 0.0 -2 0 1 2 1.0 Active 0.0 non-help 8.00 -1.0 0.0 0.73 Eat Individual random effect estimate -2 0 1 2 -1.0 1.5 0.5 0.79 0.77 Food carry 800 ° ° ° ° ° -1.0 0.26 0.33 0.61 Nest build ംഗ് 2 0.69 0.63 0.39 0.20 Burrow 0 $\overline{}$ Ņ -1.0 0.5 1.5 -1.0 0.0 1.0 -2 -1 0 1 2



(b)

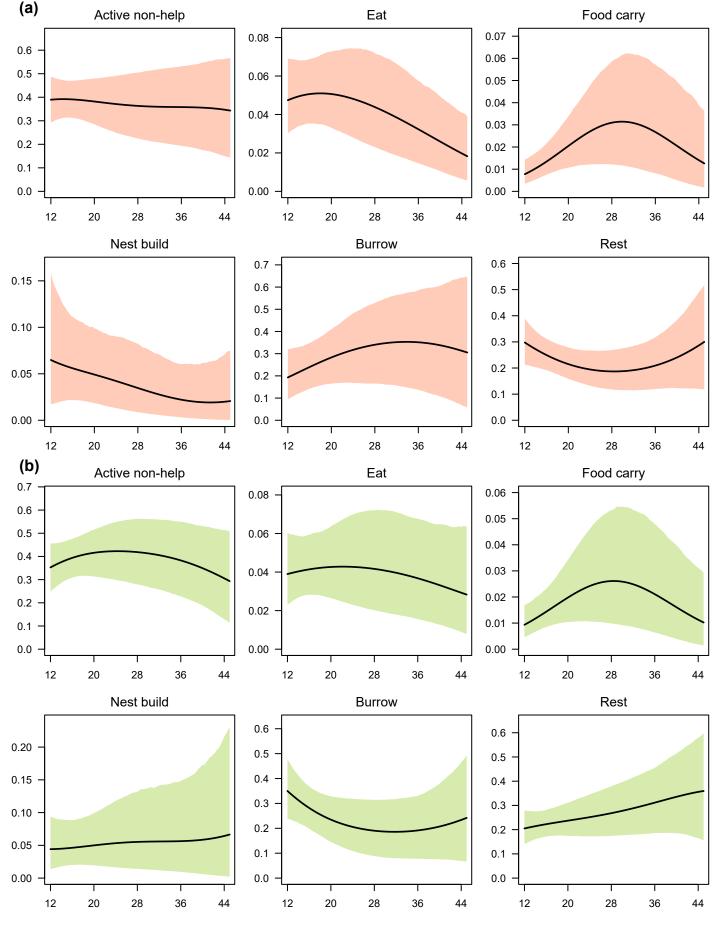
Individual random effect estimate

Individual random effect estimate



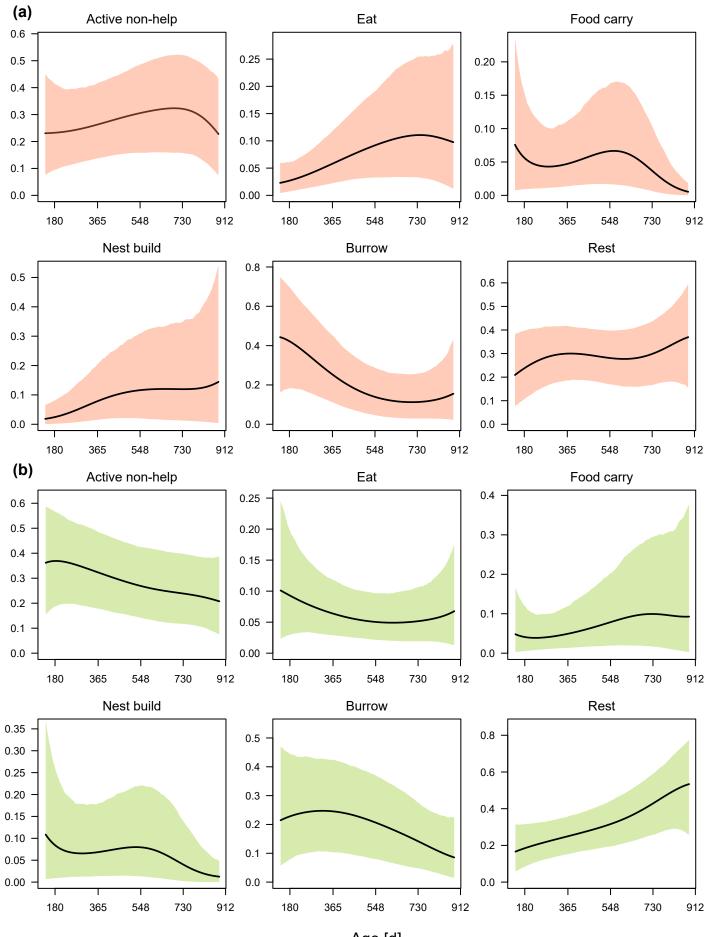
Body mass [g]

Probability of Behaviour



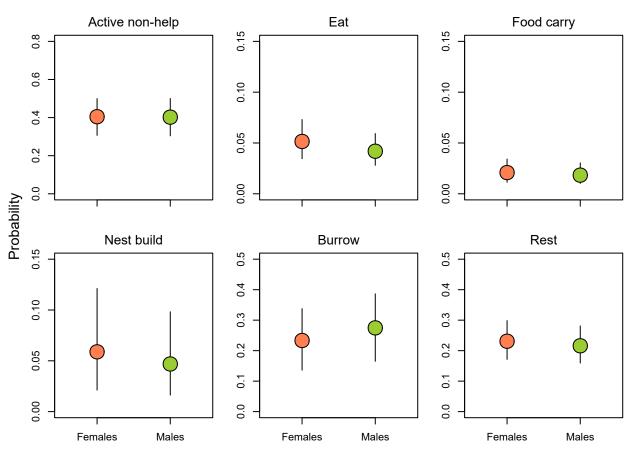
Probability of Behaviour

Group size



Age [d]

Probability of Behaviour



Sex