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### ► To cite this version:

Vitor Hugo Bessa Ferreira, Elanne de Paiva Fonseca, Ana Cecilia Correia Santos das Chagas, Luiz Guilherme Mesquita Pinheiro, Maria Bernardete Cordeiro de Sousa, et al.. Personality traits modulate stress responses after enclosure change of captive capuchin monkeys (*Sapajus libidinosus*). *Applied Animal Behaviour Science*, 2020, 232, pp.1-8. 10.1016/j.applanim.2020.105111 . hal-03150252

**HAL Id: hal-03150252**

**<https://hal.inrae.fr/hal-03150252>**

Submitted on 17 Oct 2022

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1 **Personality traits modulate stress responses after enclosure change of captive capuchin monkeys**  
2 **(*Sapajus libidinosus*)**

3

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29 **ABSTRACT**

30

31 Husbandry procedures may cause behavioral and physiological changes to animals living in captivity.  
32 However, an individual's reaction is not uniform and may be related to different coping strategies. In  
33 this study, we analyzed whether and how 12 adult captive capuchin monkeys (*Sapajus libidinosus*)  
34 varying in four personality axes ('Feeding', 'Sociability', 'Exploration', and 'Activity') differed in  
35 their stress responses to an enclosure change. Behavioral data and fecal samples of the individuals  
36 were collected for two months before (97 h and 246 fecal samples) and 14 days after the enclosure  
37 change (52 h and 666 fecal samples). We used Akaike Information Criteria to select the best linear  
38 regression models having personality axes and the period after enclosure change as predictive factors  
39 and behaviors potentially indicative of stress (BPIS) and levels of fecal glucocorticoid metabolites  
40 (FGM) as the response variables. Best models indicate that specific personality axes acted as a buffer  
41 and improved individual stress coping, mainly at the physiological level. More sociable and more  
42 active individuals did not show the peak of FGM levels as that exhibited by their less sociable and less  
43 active counterparts on the first day of the enclosure change. The link between exploration and  
44 resilience to acute stress was less clear: more exploratory individuals showed an increase in FGM  
45 levels during the first week of enclosure change, while the less exploratory ones showed a later  
46 increase, during the second-week post-enclosure change, suggesting a lesser capacity to recover from  
47 stressful stimuli in these individuals. The results presented in this study build on growing literature  
48 showing that animals differ in their behavioral profiles and that these differences relate to resilience to  
49 environmental disturbances, which may impact individual survival and reproduction, resulting in less  
50 genetic diversity of captive colonies and increased issues related to research replicability. We argue  
51 that these interindividual differences must be considered in husbandry decisions and during research  
52 data collection for the sake of animal welfare and reliable science.

53

54 Keywords: Animal personality; Animal welfare; Captivity; Enclosure change; Individual differences;  
55 Primates.

56

57           **1. INTRODUCTION**

58

59           Captive animals are usually subjected to several husbandry procedures that have been  
60 demonstrated to result in both behavioral and physiological changes, indicative of distress (Morgan  
61 and Tromborg, 2007). One common procedure is the enclosure change of individuals or whole groups  
62 for practical or experimental purposes, which forces animals to cope and adapt to new environments  
63 (Kuehnel et al., 2012; Matheson et al., 2005). Enclosure change of rhesus monkeys (*Macaca mulatta*)  
64 may, for example, increase heart rate, growth hormone levels and leukocyte responses (Balcombe et  
65 al., 2004). Leopard cats (*Felis bengalensis*) moved to new cages also showed marked changes in  
66 cortisol levels and signs of behavioral arousal, such as increased stereotypic pacing and higher  
67 frequencies of hiding (Carlstead et al., 1993). These impacts on animal behavioral and physiological  
68 functioning may, in turn, influence research outcomes, as the time for each species to come back to  
69 baseline values may vary greatly: for Tonkean macaques (*Macaca tonkeana*), enclosure change stress  
70 induced faecal cortisol increase, but hormone levels were back to baseline only a few days after  
71 enclosure change (Cinque et al., 2017). On the other hand, for common marmosets (*Callithrix*  
72 *jacchus*), the impacts can be long-lasting: Kuehnel et al. (2012) detected elevated faecal cortisol,  
73 decreased lymphocyte count, and 3% weight loss, up to four weeks after enclosure change, suggesting  
74 that this time was not enough for animals to recover.

75           Besides between-species differences, individual characteristics also interfere with how an  
76 animal copes with stress. In their classical studies, Koolhaas et al. (1999) showed that when individual  
77 laboratory mice and rats react to stress, they may exhibit two stress-coping strategies. One, labeled  
78 “proactive,” refers to a more aggressive and active reaction. These individuals are prone to the  
79 development of behavioral routines, thriving in more stable environments. On the other hand,  
80 individuals displaying the “reactive” strategy display more avoidance behaviors, are more inactive,  
81 and more prone to act flexibly due to its high attentional state to environmental changes. At the  
82 physiological level, proactive individuals, unlike reactive ones, exhibit a weak activity and reactivity  
83 of the hypothalamic-pituitary-adrenal axis (HPA) showing low corticosterone levels, but a strong  
84 reactivity of the sympathetic nervous system, associated to a higher release of catecholamines

85 (norepinephrine and adrenaline). Although these two strategies are different at multiple levels, they  
86 have both the same aim: allow the animal regain control over the stressful situation (Koolhaas et al.,  
87 1999). Subsequently, Koolhaas et al. (2007) considered the covariation between the behavioral and  
88 physiological axes that make up the stress response, designing a two tier model with coping style and  
89 emotionality as two independent dimensions, drawing four response profiles : docile, shy, bold and  
90 panicky.

91         Beyond the proactive-reactive axis, other dimensions of individual differences (or personality  
92 traits) may influence the individual reaction to stress. African elephants (*Loxodonta africana*) scoring  
93 high on the 'fearful' component exhibited higher morning salivary cortisol than those scoring high for  
94 the 'sociable', 'effective' and 'aggressive' components (Grand et al., 2012). More explorative and  
95 playful capuchin monkeys showed less cortisol reactivity in response to being separated from the  
96 group compared to their less explorative and playful counterparts (Byrne and Suomi, 2002). Individual  
97 differences were also found in captive Diana monkeys (*Cercopithecus diana*) when exposed to a high  
98 density of zoo visitors, with some individuals displaying more behaviors potentially indicative of  
99 stress (BPIS). Other individuals, in contrast, increased the display of positive behaviors, such as  
100 playing, evidencing different patterns of behaviors through which individuals cope with stress (Barlow  
101 et al., 2007).

102         Primates in zoos, aquariums, or wildlife rescue centers may be relocated several times during  
103 their lifetime, both within and between different establishments (Matheson et al., 2005). These  
104 relocations are not without consequences for the individuals and are known to increase the exhibition  
105 of BPIS, such as self-injurious and self-abuse behaviors, and the levels of stress hormones (Davenport  
106 et al., 2008; Gottlieb et al., 2013; Linden et al., 2018; Rommeck et al., 2009). In Europe, most of the  
107 captive capuchin monkeys (*Sapajus spp.*) in zoos were relocated to different places at least once in  
108 their lives, reaching up to five changes for a single individual (Dufour et al., 2011). According to  
109 Levacov et al. (2011), between 1996 and 2006, in Brazil alone, 4631 primates were sent to CETAS  
110 (Wild Animal Rescue Center), of which approximately 1301 (28.1%) of these were of the *Sapajus*  
111 genus. The frequent arrival of individuals in these centers, the formation of new groups, and the

112 relocation of groups or individuals is, therefore, a customary activity that may impact individual  
113 welfare significantly.

114         The current literature on capuchin monkey enclosure change indicates significant changes  
115 when individuals face a novel environment. These changes included mainly increased resting, social  
116 proximity and social behaviors, compared to the period pre-enclosure change (Dufour et al., 2011;  
117 Matheson et al., 2005). However, these studies did not consider physiological changes, nor possible  
118 influences of between-individual differences in coping with stress. In an earlier experiment (Ferreira et  
119 al., 2018), we showed that captive capuchin monkeys differed behaviorally along four axes of genus-  
120 normative behavioral patterns (GNB). These GNB axes were labeled: ‘Feeding’, ‘Sociability’,  
121 ‘Exploration’, and ‘Activity’. ‘Sociability’ and ‘Exploration’ were related to lower basal fecal  
122 glucocorticoid metabolite (FGM) levels. ‘Activity’ correlated to higher basal FGM levels. ‘Activity’  
123 was also related to the type of BPIS exhibited with more active individuals performing more short-  
124 duration BPIS, while less active individuals performed more long-duration BPIS. In the present study,  
125 we took advantage of a planned within-facility enclosure change of animals studied in Ferreira et al.,  
126 2018, and we analyzed whether and how individual captive capuchin monkeys (*Sapajus libidinosus*)  
127 with different personalities react behaviorally and physiologically to being moved to a new enclosure.  
128 Based on the coping styles literature and previous studies on capuchin monkeys (Byrne and Suomi,  
129 2002; Ferreira et al., 2018; Koolhaas et al., 1999), we predicted that less active, less sociable and less  
130 explorative individuals would be more impacted by the enclosure change, with an increase in both  
131 BPIS exhibition and FGM levels, compared to their more active, more sociable and more explorative  
132 conspecifics.

133

## 134                 **2. METHODS**

135

### 136                         **2.1. SUBJECTS AND HOUSING**

137

138         Our study comprised two groups of capuchin monkeys (*Sapajus libidinosus*) under the care of  
139 the Wildlife Rescue Center (CETAS) of Cabedelo, in the state of Paraiba, Brazil. Group A contained

140 nine adult individuals (six males and three females), and Group B contained six individuals, four  
141 adults (two males and two females), and two juveniles (one male and one female). Only 12 adult  
142 individuals, out of the 15 animals initially available, were included in the analyses. Data from the two  
143 juveniles were not collected, and one adult female from Group B was housed individually after  
144 enclosure change and was therefore excluded from our analysis.

145 The environment provided to both groups was similar: barren, non-enriched enclosures of  
146 equal size (4.60 m x 3.15 m x 2.40 m), with concrete floor and barred walls allowing an outside view,  
147 and limited presence of humans (only caretakers and researchers had contact with these animals).  
148 Individuals were identified by their physical characteristics (color, size, and shape of the head and  
149 body). The exact age, the origin of the animals, and the amount of time each animal spent in these  
150 environments could not be determined; therefore, these parameters were not considered for analyses.

151

## 152 **2.2. BASELINE DATA COLLECTION**

153

154 Behavioral and physiological baseline data of adult individuals were collected three workdays  
155 per week, over two months before group enclosure change. The collection of data followed the same  
156 procedure as (Ferreira et al., 2018): 'focal animal' method (Altmann, 1974), with two 10-minute  
157 sessions, one in the morning and one in the afternoon, per individual and records at every 30-second  
158 intervals, totaling 40 daily behavioral records (states) per animal. In this study we focused only in  
159 BPIS. The BPIS were divided into two types: states (behavior lasting more than 5s: "Pacing", "Self-  
160 grooming", and "Crouching/self-clasp/huddle") and events (behavior lasting less than 5s: "Head  
161 twirl", "Pirouette", and "Self-scratching"). Four BPIS could be described as either states or events,  
162 depending on their duration ("Bouncing/rocking", "Ingestion/Manipulation of urine, feces, and sperm",  
163 "Masturbation/auto-erotic", and "Sexual Display to humans", see full BPIS ethogram in Tables 1).  
164 BPIS events were quantified in 'all occurrences', that is, every event of selected behaviors was  
165 recorded within the 10 min focal sampling.

166

167

(Table 1 about here)

168 All occurrences of agonistic behaviors between all individuals (focal and/or non-focal  
169 individuals), and the identity of participants, were recorded in order to calculate the dominance  
170 hierarchy for each group. The daily observation started 30 minutes after the meal to avoid biased data  
171 for food-related behavior, from 08:00 to 17:00, approximately. The total time of behavioral collection  
172 was of 78 hours in Group A and 19 hours in Group B (Mean Group A: 8.6 hours/individual; Mean  
173 Group B: 6.3 hours/individual).

174 In a previous experiment (Ferreira et al., 2018), to determine captive capuchin monkey  
175 personality axes, behavioral data on 12 genus normative behaviors (GNB, see the full GNB ethogram  
176 in Table S1 in the supplementary material) from 25 captive capuchin individuals (including the two  
177 groups that were submitted to enclosure change) were analyzed through a principal component  
178 analysis (PCA), generating four components labeled 'Feeding', 'Sociability', 'Exploration', and  
179 'Activity' (see Table S2 in the supplementary material for the PCA structure matrix, its components  
180 and the explained variance). Each individual received a score within each component (regression  
181 method). The scores for our 12 relocated individuals were subsequently used for enclosure change  
182 analyses (see Data analysis section).

183 The fecal collection was conducted opportunistically (morning and afternoon) at least three  
184 times per week, during the behavioral observation. After seeing the defecation and identifying the  
185 individual, the researcher entered the enclosure and collected the fecal samples within two hours after  
186 defecation. The feces were packed in Eppendorf tubes and identified by the name of the animal, time  
187 of defecation, time of collection, and date. Samples were frozen at  $-5^{\circ}\text{C}$  within two hours after  
188 defecation until analyses (Ferreira et al., 2018). In total, 246 samples of feces from 12 adult monkeys  
189 were collected (average of 20.5 samples per individual). Data analysis on the large sample size (25  
190 individuals) did not show circadian variation in FGM levels across the day (Ferreira et al., 2018).

191

192

### 193 **2.3. ENCLOSURE CHANGE DATA COLLECTION**

194

195 Due to enclosure renovation, the groups were relocated to new enclosures within the same



196 facility on January 16, 2016, between 6:30 and 7:30 am. Individuals were captured one by one by a  
197 caretaker using a net and were immediately released into the new enclosures (less than 30 m apart).  
198 These new enclosures were of the same size for both groups (4.65m x 2.30m x 2.63m) and, similar to  
199 the previous enclosure, they were barren and non-enriched. The behavioral observation was performed  
200 over the next 14 days (with the exception of the third day post-enclosure change, which was excluded  
201 due to heavy rain) in the new enclosure, and similarly to the first period, the adult animals were  
202 observed 10 minutes in the morning and 10 minutes in the afternoon. As the time to peak FGM  
203 excretion after a stressful incident can vary 1.5–8.5 h among captive capuchin monkeys (Mendonça-  
204 Furtado et al., 2017), fecal sample collection on the first and second days of the enclosure change  
205 started from 7:30 am and ended by 6:00 pm. From the fourth day and until the end of the second week,  
206 fecal sample collection occurred between 8:00 am and ended by 3:00 pm.

207 This phase comprised a total of 52 observation hours, with an average of 4.3 observation hours  
208 per individual and a total of 666 fecal samples was collected, averaging 55.5 ( $\pm 8.79$ ) samples per  
209 animal.

210

#### 211 **2.4. GLUCOCORTICOID METABOLITES MEASUREMENT**

212

213 The protocol for glucocorticoid metabolite analyses followed the same procedures as  
214 described in (Ferreira et al., 2018), following the methods of (Munro and Stabenfeldt, 1984) and  
215 (Sousa and Ziegler, 2000) and previously validated for this species based in (Mendonça-Furtado et al.,  
216 2017). Intra and inter-assays coefficient of variation (CV) for high and low concentration pools were  
217 2.58% and 1.47%, and 19.09% and 16.76%, respectively (n= 19 plates). Intra and inter-assays CV for  
218 high and low concentration pools were 1.7% and 1.8%, and 18.25% and 16.66%, respectively (n= 27  
219 plates). Additional comparisons of pool values pre- and post-enclosure change showed that fecal  
220 samples in both conditions were similarly measured, intra and inter-assays CV for high and low  
221 concentration pools were 1.7% and 2%, and 18.92% and 19%, respectively (n= 46 plates).

222

223

## 2.5. DATA ANALYSIS

For statistical analyses, all BPIS events were summed together to form a single variable (Total Event BPIS henceforth). The same was done for all BPIS states (Total State BPIS henceforth). The 12 adult individuals were separated into two equal groups of six individuals based on the regression scores of each personality axis, above and below median values on each component (Table 2) having a high value meaning that the component fits the individual adequately. For example, ‘Sociability’ was positively composed of ‘Grooming’, ‘Social play’ and ‘Sexual display’, and negatively composed of ‘Scan environment/Alert’. Thus, an individual scoring high for ‘Sociability’ exhibits a high frequency of social behaviors and are less alert towards its environment than individuals scoring low in this axis.

(Table 2 about here)

The dyadic events of agonism were used to calculate the dominance hierarchy using the SOCPROG 2.4 software (Whitehead, 2008), and the dominance index used was the MDS (Modified David’s Score) (De Vries et al., 2006).

Individual FGM values were compiled into four indices to analyze the impact on stress physiology: median, mean, maximum, and minimum (Ferreira et al., 2018). All outliers (values more than three interquartile ranges) within each variable were excluded in order to obtain a more reliable database.

According to previous literature on animal enclosure change and capuchin monkeys FGM analyses (Cinque et al., 2017; Mendonça-Furtado et al., 2017; Watson et al., 2005), the FGM repeated measures were assessed in four different periods, named baseline (before enclosure change), day 1, week 1 (from day 2 to day 7) and week 2 (from day 8 to day 14) after the enclosure change. When necessary, variables were log-transformed, and normality of residuals was checked using the Shapiro-Wilk test.

In a first step, to verify for overall impacts of enclosure change, without taking into account individual differences, we ran linear mixed models (LMM, ‘lmerTest’ R package) for each of our

252 FGM and BPIS variables including, as fixed factors, only 'period' (baseline, day 1, week 1 and week  
253 2), 'group' (A and B), 'sex' (male and female) and 'dominance', as well as all possible two-way  
254 interactions with 'period'. For each variable studied (FGM and BPIS), we created eight different  
255 models. The simplest model contained only period, and the most complex model all the fixed factors  
256 and their interactions with the period. Final models were selected based on Akaike's Information  
257 Criterion (AIC): when the difference between AIC models was equal or lower than 10, we choose the  
258 model with fewer variables (Burnham et al., 2011). The second step was to verify enclosure change  
259 impacts on different personalities: BPIS and FGM variables were then reanalyzed based on the model  
260 chosen on the first step, and each of the GNB axes (Feeding, Sociability, Exploration, and Activity)  
261 were then included, one-by-one, as well as two-way interactions between each GNB axis and Period.  
262 As our main interest were these interactions, significant main effects of Period or GNB axis only,  
263 within these models, were not considered. The subject ID was included as a random factor in all  
264 models. When interactions or main effects were significant, *post hoc* ANOVA comparisons of  
265 estimated marginal means ('emmeans' R package) were carried out with Tukey adjustment. All  
266 analyses were conducted using R version 3.6.1. Statistical significance was accepted at  $p \leq 0.05$  and  
267 trends at  $p < 0.09$ . Results are presented as raw mean  $\pm$  standard deviation.

268

### 269 **3. RESULTS**

270

271 All models and their AIC can be found in the supplementary electronic material (Table S3).

272 The selected best models for both first and second step analyses can be found in Table 3.

273

274 (Table 3 about here)

275

#### 276 **3.1. OVERALL IMPACTS OF ENCLOSURE CHANGE**

277

278 Independent of individual sex, dominance rank, and group, the enclosure change period tended  
279 to impact the exhibition of Total State BPIS, but not Total Event BPIS (Figure 1a, Table 3). Post-hoc

280 analysis showed a trend for an increase in the display of Total State BPIS on the first day of enclosure  
281 change compared to baseline ( $F_{3,36} = 2.33$ ,  $p = 0.08$ , Figure 1b).

282 Enclosure change period affected significantly median ( $F_{3,34.081} = 7.21$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ), maximum  
283 ( $F_{3,36} = 7.29$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ), and minimum ( $F_{3,32.403} = 10.85$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ), but not mean FGM values ( $F_{3,34.296}$   
284  $= 1.02$ ,  $p = 0.39$ , Figure 2a, Table 3). Post-hoc analysis on the median and minimum FGM revealed  
285 values increased significantly on the first day of enclosure change, returning to baseline since Week 1  
286 (Figures 2b and 2c). Maximum values, on the other hand, increased significantly only from Week 1,  
287 compared to Baseline and Day 1, returning to baseline on Week 2 (Figure 2d).

288

289 (Figure 1 and 2 about here)

290

#### 291 **4.1. INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCES IN REACTION TO ENCLOSURE CHANGE**

292

293 Although we found a significant interaction between Period and Activity influencing Total  
294 Event BPIS ( $F_{3,36} = 4.36$ ,  $p = 0.01$ ), *post-hoc* analysis of these interactions did not reveal any  
295 differences between periods, nor between more and less active individuals. No significant interaction  
296 was found between the period and the other three GNB axes for BPIS events or Total State BPIS  
297 (Table 3).

298 The FGM mean levels were not affected by any of the interactions between the Period and the  
299 four GNB axes ( $p > 0.05$ ). There was an influence of the interaction between Period and Sociability on  
300 FGM median values ( $F_{3,33.967} = 4.26$ ,  $p = 0.01$ ). *Post-hoc* analysis showed that less sociable individuals  
301 presented higher FGM median levels during the first day of enclosure change than more sociable ones,  
302 and then returned to baseline within Week 1. This peak and fluctuation were not observed in more  
303 sociable animals (Figure 3a). These results were similar for the influences of interaction between  
304 Period and Activity on FGM minimum values ( $F_{3,32.056} = 5.71$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ). On the first day of the  
305 enclosure change, more active animals showed lower FGM minimum levels compared to less active  
306 individuals. Less active animals showed an FGM peak on Day 1 but returned to baseline from Week 1  
307 (Figure 3b). FGM maximum values were influenced by the interaction between Period and

308 Exploration ( $F_{3,36} = 4.86$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ). For more exploratory individuals, maximum FGM values peaked  
309 on Week 1 after the enclosure change, returning to baseline during Week 2, while for less exploratory  
310 individuals, FGM levels peaked only at Week 2 (Figure 3c).

311

312 (Figure 3 about here)

313

#### 314 **4. DISCUSSION**

315

316 Our study shows the existence of marked behavioral and physiological changes resulting from  
317 enclosure change, which corroborates previous results found in the literature of capuchin monkeys  
318 (Byrne and Suomi, 2002; Dufour et al., 2011; Matheson et al., 2005). However, the acute stress of  
319 enclosure change seems to be perceived differently for different individuals, which supports findings  
320 on the relationship between animal personality and stress susceptibility (Cavigelli, 2005; Koolhaas et  
321 al., 1999).

322 Unlike Dufour et al. (2011), who did not find differences in the BPIS exhibition before and  
323 after relocating a group of captive capuchin monkeys, our animals tended to spend more time  
324 exhibiting BPIS on the first day of the enclosure change. This increase corroborates the idea that some  
325 unusual behaviors, mainly stereotypies, are signs of stress, with animals reverting to self-directed  
326 and/or repetitive behaviors in an attempt to cope with or divert focus from an unpleasant situation  
327 (mantra-like effect - Mason, 1991; Mason and Latham, 2004), in our study, the enclosure change. The  
328 decrease in BPIS to baseline in Weeks 1 and 2 after enclosure change, however, does not mean lack of  
329 stress, since increases in FMG levels were detected up to 2 weeks after enclosure change. It is possible  
330 that individuals have turned to other ways of coping with the enclosure change stress, such as  
331 increasing grooming or spending more time in proximity to other group members (Dufour et al., 2011;  
332 Matheson et al., 2005). Alternatively, as BPIS in captivity develop mainly in response to chronic  
333 physical and social stress (Mason, 1991), they may not be the best indicator of an acute stress  
334 response.

335 In our previous study (Ferreira et al. , 2018), which included these same two groups, we  
336 showed that more sociable individuals present lower basal FMG levels than less sociable groupmates.  
337 This personality trait seems also to confer greater resilience to the acute stress to face enclosure  
338 change. In the present study, more sociable individuals did not show the peak of FMG levels that was  
339 exhibited by their less sociable counterparts on the first day of the enclosure change. Affiliative  
340 behaviors in animals may act as a buffer against stress, by the action of oxytocin in reducing the  
341 activation of the HPA axis (DeVries et al., 2003; Quirin et al., 2011), which may explain the  
342 physiological stability presented by more sociable animals. The level of sociability is also related to  
343 the amount of aggression an individual receives: under stressful situations, less sociable monkeys may  
344 be specifically targeted for aggression, while under low stress, predictable situations, they receive the  
345 same or lower amounts of aggression compared to more sociable individuals (Boyce et al., 1998),  
346 which offers a further explanation of why our less sociable captive monkeys may be facing increased  
347 enclosure change stress.

348 Our previous study also showed that more active individuals have higher FMG maximum  
349 levels, and that activity was related to the exhibition of stress behaviors, with more active individuals  
350 being more stereotyped than less active ones (Ferreira et al., 2018). Here, more active individuals,  
351 similar to the more sociable ones, were less impacted by the enclosure change, showing less  
352 fluctuation of minimal FMG levels compared to less active individuals. These more active and  
353 stereotyped individuals fit well within the proactive coping style concept (Ijichi et al., 2013).  
354 Therefore, the proactive individuals from Koolhaas et al., (1999) and our active animals are expected  
355 to share common physiological traits, such as a low HPA reactivity when facing stress, expressed by  
356 low corticosterone release. The greater stability in minimum FMG levels of the most active  
357 individuals when compared to the least active ones, detected in the current study, was therefore  
358 expected and is in line with our initial prediction.

359 Studies suggest that exploratory behavior indicates an individual's higher adaptive capacity to  
360 its environment (Smith and Blumstein, 2008). Positive correlations between survival after  
361 reintroduction and exploration were described in voles (Banks et al., 2002) and Sprague-Dawley rats  
362 (Cavigelli, 2005). More innovative, active, and curious capuchin monkeys attain better performance in

363 positive reinforcement training (Morton et al., 2013). For juvenile capuchin monkeys, Byrne and  
364 Suomi (2002) found a negative correlation between exploratory behavior and cortisol reactivity  
365 between two months and four years of age. Our analyses suggest that the link between exploration and  
366 resilience to acute stress is not clear. More exploratory individuals showed an increase in FGM levels  
367 during the first week of enclosure change, while the less exploratory ones showed a later increase  
368 occurring only during the second week post-enclosure change. One possibility is that less explorative  
369 individuals employed a more delayed strategy (“shy” type), therefore managing the stress of a new  
370 environment later than the more explorative individuals, which seemed to exhibit a “bold” strategy  
371 (Ferrari et al., 2013). An acute stress response is essential for individual adaptation and beneficial for  
372 healthy animals (McEwen, 2005). The delayed response of less exploratory could be the start of a  
373 chronic stress response, suggesting that these individuals have an inefficient capacity to recover from  
374 stress, which characterizes a susceptible profile. A longer observation is required to confirm this  
375 hypothesis. Another possibility is that, since the pre- and post-enclosure environments were barren,  
376 non-enriched, and did not offer anything new for individuals to explore and cope with the enclosure  
377 change procedure, this component may not be adequate to describe and differentiate individuals in  
378 these particular conditions.

379         It is important to state that, although individual differences are accentuated during periods of  
380 environmental change (when individuals try regain control over the changing situation), highly  
381 stressful situations may constraint behavioral and elicit similar responses from most individuals (Caspi  
382 and Moffitt, 1993). Offering individuals ways to cope with stress within their enclosure through  
383 environmental enrichment, for example, may reduce the enclosure change stress and allow more  
384 different and nuanced responses between individuals (Benaroya-Milshtein et al., 2004; Carlstead and  
385 Shepherdson, 2009).

386         To further understand the influences of personality in coping with stressful situations in  
387 captivity, it is essential to consider that individuals vary along with multiple personality traits. As the  
388 four components of personality here analyzed were independent and not significantly correlated  
389 (Ferreira et al., 2018), we analyzed them separately. However, the same individual may score high in  
390 sociability and activity, and low in feeding and exploration, for example. Future analyses with larger

391 samples may allow comparisons of multiple personality axes simultaneously and offer a complete  
392 picture of the phenomena.

393 Our results also show the importance of looking at physiological data from different  
394 perspectives, beyond the mean, since we would not have noticed any change in the animals'  
395 physiological reactions if we had considered only the FGM mean values. In contrast, by considering  
396 only FGM median and minimum values, we would be led to think that these stress responses were  
397 limited to the day of the enclosure change, as it was the case for some primates (Cinque et al., 2017;  
398 Watson et al., 2005). However, FGM maximum values showed that, for different personalities, stress  
399 might last to up to two weeks.

400 Reactivity to stress mainly involves the HPA axis and the sympathetic system, and these two  
401 systems can be activated differently depending on phenotypic characteristics, sex, age and nature, and  
402 context of the stressor. Therefore, during the stress response, both can be activated, or only one of the  
403 two, or both may not show significant activation (Godoy et al., 2018; Joëls and Baram, 2009). In this  
404 way, the investigation of the two systems simultaneously can bring better assessments of the response  
405 profiles in mammals in the face of the challenges to which they are submitted. Thus, as the  
406 consideration of only one physiological index may lead to misleading conclusions, we recommend  
407 researchers to use different indices as well as other variables when analyzing physiological data  
408 related to a stress response.

409 The results presented in this study build on growing literature showing that animals differ in  
410 their behavioral profile and that these differences relate to resilience to environmental disturbances  
411 (Smith and Blumstein, 2008; Wingfield, 2013). More sociable and more active individuals seem to  
412 cope better with this type of husbandry stress, while the enclosure change of less sociable and less  
413 active individuals should be avoided or differently managed since they are significantly impacted.  
414 These interindividual differences in personality and stress coping styles of captive animals affect  
415 survival and reproduction, which may impact the genetic diversity of captive colonies, particularly  
416 those of endangered species (Watters and Powell, 2012; Wielebnowski, 1999).

417 Finally, within the scientific scope, the loss of genetic variation and the disappearance of more  
418 vulnerable individuals due to stressful conditions can lead to an involuntary standardization of the



419 animals studied. A high standardization and low within-experiment variation are one of the factors  
420 pointed out as responsible for the low reproducibility and translational failures of animal  
421 experimentation, since it may result in findings that are statistically significant but not easily  
422 generalized to experiments in different conditions (Richter, 2017). Since individual differences may  
423 affect research validity, reliability, and replicability (Koolhaas et al., 1999), husbandry decisions and  
424 research data collection need to take them into serious consideration for the sake of animal welfare and  
425 reliable science.

426

## 427 **ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS**

428

429 We thank the CETAS Cabedelo for permission to work within their facilities and for all logistical  
430 support during data collection. VHBF was supported by a postgraduate scholarship from the Brazilian  
431 National Council for Scientific and Technological Development - CNPQ - during this research  
432 (133216/2015-2). This research was funded by CNPq Universal (4403041-2014-8) and  
433 Fundação Grupo Boticário (0973-2013.1) to RGF.

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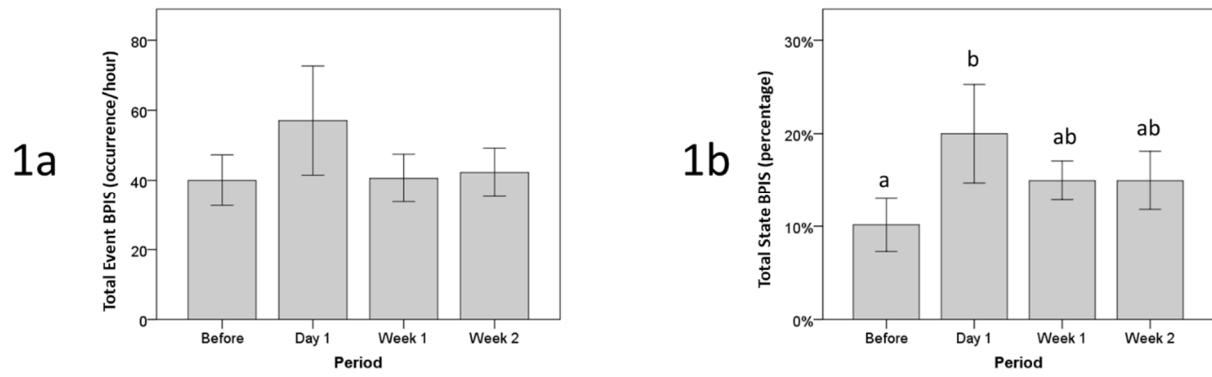
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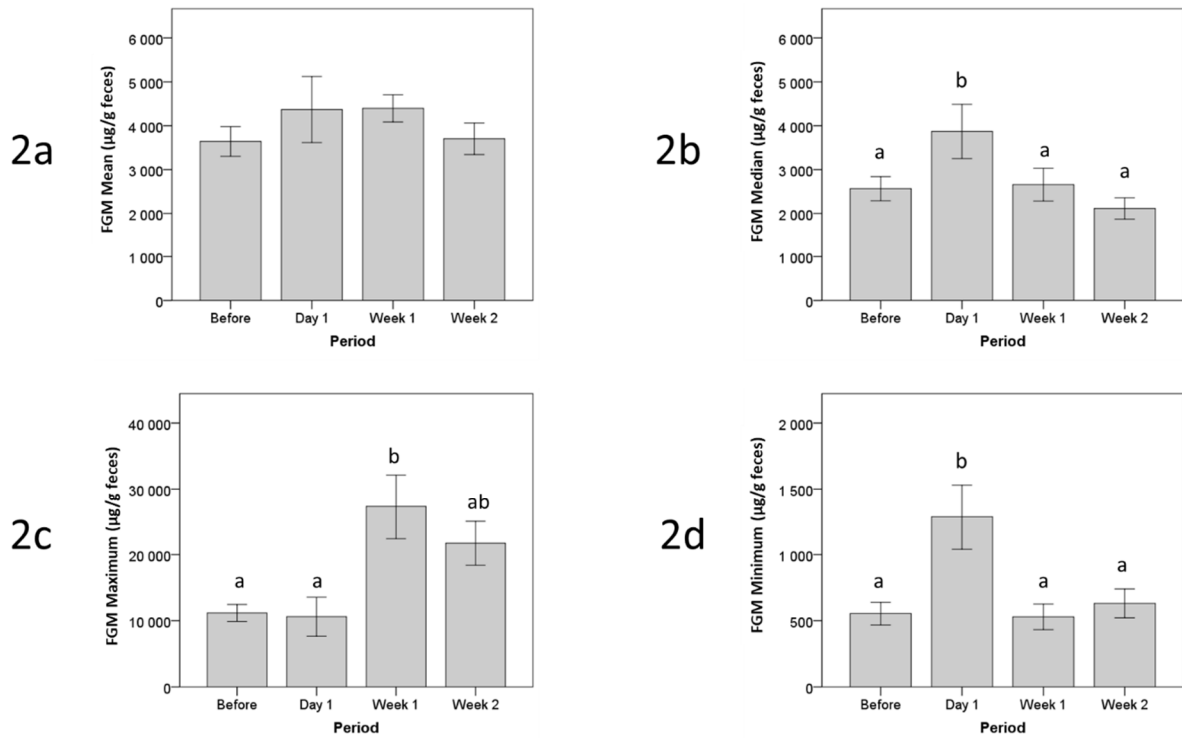
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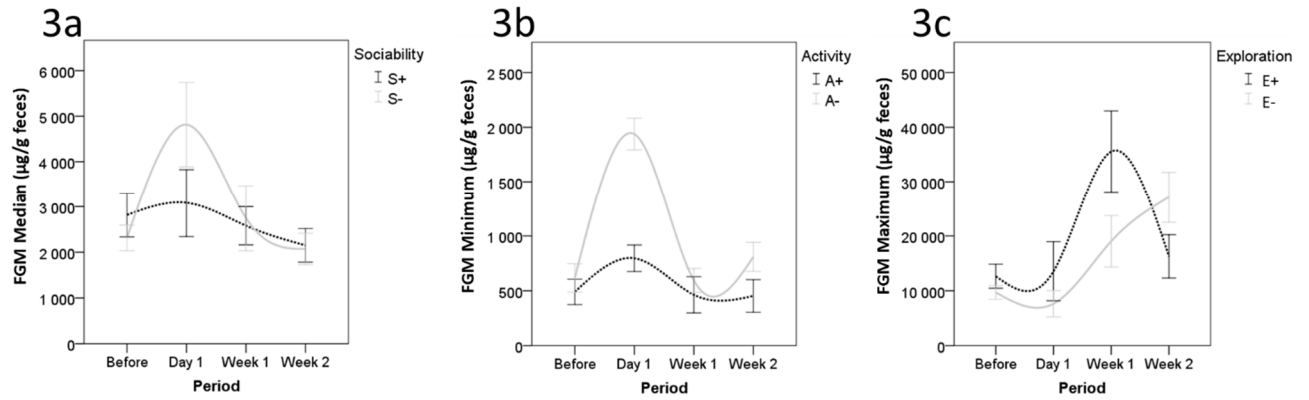


**Figure 1: Behaviors potentially indicative of stress (BPIS) over four periods, before and after enclosure change (Day 1, Week 1, and Week 2) of 12 captive capuchin monkeys. 1a- Events (occurrences per hour), and 1b- States (percentage). Different letters indicate trend differences (*post-hoc* ANOVA) between periods. Data are presented as raw means  $\pm$  SD.**



**Figure 2: Fecal glucocorticoid metabolite (FGM) values over four periods, before and after enclosure change (Day 1, Week 1, and Week 2) of 12 captive capuchin monkeys.** 2a- FGM Mean values, 2b- FGM Median values, 2c- FGM Maximum values, and 2d- FGM Minimum values. Different letters indicate significant (*post-hoc* ANOVA) differences between periods. Data are presented as raw means  $\pm$  SD.





**Figure 3: Fecal glucocorticoid metabolite (FGM) values over four periods, before and after enclosure change (Day 1, Week 1, and Week 2) of captive capuchin monkeys with different personality traits.** 3a) FGM Median values for more and less sociable individuals (S+ and S-, respectively), 3b) FGM Minimum values for more and less active individuals (A+ and A-, respectively), 3c) FGM Maximum values for more and less explorative individuals (E+ and E-, respectively). Data are presented as raw means  $\pm$  SD.

**Table 1: Ethogram of Behaviors Potentially Indicative of Stress (BPIS)**

<b>Behavior</b>	<b>Description</b>	<b>Type*</b>
<b>Pacing</b>	Walk or run repeatedly covering the same routine-like circuit inside the enclosure without an obvious goal. This behavior is commonly described for captive animals, especially carnivores and primates	State
<b>Bouncing/rocking</b>	Sitting, the individual shakes his whole body back and forth or sideways, repeatedly, at least twice in sequence, but normally many body shakes that last over 5s. In wild tend to occurs after an animal received intense aggression. In captivity, it may occur without prior aggression. Scream may occur.	Event/State
<b>Head twirl</b>	The subject turns his head sideways and upwards repeatedly (the animal may be stationary or locomotion).	Event
<b>Pirouette</b>	Individual revolves around himself performing a complete 360° rotation, animal may stay in same position or a pirouette may occur during locomotion or pacing.	Event
<b>Self-grooming</b>	Animal repetitively manipulates its own fur with the hand or mouth.	State
<b>Crouching/self-clasp/huddle</b>	Individual holds itself with arms, legs and the tail. Eyes are opened but tend to look to floor or to itself. It does not move or bounce nor is it scanning the environment. It differs from resting in that animal is not in a relaxed position and slow changes its position just to crouch again few centimeters away.	State
<b>Ingestion/Manipulation of urine, feces, and sperm</b>	Manipulate, lick and eating/drinking of urine, feces and sperm.	Event/State
<b>Masturbation/auto-erotic</b>	The stimulation or manipulation of one's own genitals	Event/State
<b>Self-scratching</b>	Short bouts of manipulation of its own fur with the hand or mouth.	Event
<b>Sexual Display to humans</b>	Similar to sexual display (see above) but directed to humans	Event/State
<b>Total State BPIS</b>	Sum of all BPIS states	
<b>Total Event BPIS</b>	Sum of all BPIS events	

\*State  $\geq$  5 seconds; Event < 5 seconds

**Table 2:** Group composition and individual characteristics, scores, and classification on each of the studied behavioral components.

<b>Subject</b>	<b>Group</b>	<b>Sex</b>	<b>MDS</b>	<b>Feeding</b>	<b>Sociability</b>	<b>Exploration</b>	<b>Activity</b>
Gal	A	Female	-12.95	F+ (1.35)	S+ (0.18)	E+ (-0.14)	A+ (0.29)
Sandy	A	Female	4.26	F+ (1.83)	S+ (-0.18)	E- (-0.31)	A- (-0.6)
Ines	A	Female	-11.53	F- (-0.17)	S+ (-0.05)	E+ (-0.08)	A- (-0.04)
Buraco	A	Male	18.14	F- (-0.09)	S+ (0.13)	E- (-0.68)	A- (-1.06)
Maguila	A	Male	13.77	F- (0.44)	S- (-0.89)	E- (-0.58)	A- (-0.82)
Sanfona	A	Male	-1.57	F+ (0.69)	S- (-0.52)	E+ (0.37)	A+ (0.06)
Libi	A	Male	-8.25	F- (-0.13)	S- (-0.39)	E+ (-0.3)	A+ (0.74)
Junior	A	Male	4.81	F- (-0.87)	S+ (-0.14)	E+ (-0.26)	A+ (0.24)
Claudio	A	Male	-6.69	F+ (1.85)	S- (-0.32)	E+ (-0.18)	A- (-0.41)
Jony	B	Female	2.46	F+ (1.74)	S+ (1.35)	E- (-0.51)	A+ (0.04)
Catra	B	Male	4.31	F- (-0.53)	S- (-0.2)	E- (-0.51)	A- (-0.1)
Ramos	B	Male	-0.68	F+ (1.03)	S- (-0.22)	E- (-0.46)	A+ (1.71)

MDS: Modified David's Score. F+, S+, E+, A+ represent individuals scoring above the median in the component. Score high means that the component fits the individual adequately (the individual exhibits the component behaviors frequently). F-, S-, E-, A- represent individuals scoring below the median for this component, that is, the individual is less likely to exhibit the behaviors of the component frequently.

**Table 3:** Selected models tested during first and second steps of data analysis.

BPIS	First step (Overall analysis)	Second step (Individual analysis)
Total Event BPIS	Period, AIC = 12.4496, $F_{3,36} = 0.048$ , $p = 0.98$	Period*Feeding, AIC = 18.2123, $F_{3,36} = 0.74$ , $p = 0.53$ Period*Sociability, AIC = 19.8440, $F_{3,36} = 0.18$ , $p = 0.90$ Period*Exploration, AIC = 15.1247, $F_{3,36} = 1.73$ , $p = 0.17$ <b>Period*Activity, AIC = 9.1406, <math>F_{3,36} = 4.36</math>, <math>p = 0.01</math></b>
Total State BPIS	Period, AIC = -166.0203, $F_{3,36} = 2.33$ , $p = 0.08$	Period*Feeding, AIC = -161.0952, $F_{3,36} = 0.58$ , $p = 0.62$ Period*Sociability, AIC = -161.8954, $F_{3,36} = 0.84$ , $p = 0.47$ Period*Exploration, AIC = -159.3328, $F_{3,36} = 0.43$ , $p = 0.72$ Period*Activity, AIC = -165.2017, $F_{3,36} = 1.31$ , $p = 0.28$
FGM	First step (Overall analysis)	Second step (Individual analysis)
Mean	Period, AIC = 796.4230, $F_{3,34.296} = 1.02$ , $p = 0.39$	Period*Feeding, AIC = 799.3571, $F_{3,34.193} = 0.35$ , $p = 0.78$ Period*Sociability, AIC = 800.6390, $F_{3,34.214} = 1.20$ , $p = 0.32$ Period*Exploration, AIC = 801.9305, $F_{3,34.308} = 0.85$ , $p = 0.47$ Period*Activity, AIC = 799.4531, $F_{3,34.342} = 0.49$ , $p = 0.68$
Median	<b>Period, AIC = 771.9406, <math>F_{3,34.081} = 7.21</math>, <math>p &lt; 0.001</math></b>	Period*Feeding, AIC = 772.4476, $F_{3,34.077} = 0.90$ , $p = 0.44$ <b>Period*Sociability, AIC = 768.8430, <math>F_{3,33.967} = 4.26</math>, <math>p = 0.01</math></b> Period*Exploration, AIC = 776.3155, $F_{3,34.080} = 1.14$ , $p = 0.34$ Period*Activity, AIC = 773.9522, $F_{3,34.164} = 0.31$ , $p = 0.81$
Maximum	<b>Period, AIC = 1042.006, <math>F_{3,36} = 7.29</math>, <math>p &lt; 0.001</math></b>	Period*Feeding, AIC = 1046.393, $F_{3,36} = 0.82$ , $p = 0.49$ Period*Sociability, AIC = 1047.242, $F_{3,36} = 0.95$ , $p = 0.42$ <b>Period*Exploration, AIC = 1036.763, <math>F_{3,36} = 4.86</math>, <math>p &lt; 0.01</math></b> Period*Activity, AIC = 1046.378, $F_{3,36} = 1.06$ , $p = 0.37$
Minimum	<b>Period, AIC = 639.9824, <math>F_{3,32.403} = 10.85</math>, <math>p &lt; 0.001</math></b>	Period*Feeding, AIC = 640.9610, $F_{3,32.611} = 1.66$ , $p = 0.19$ Period*Sociability, AIC = 646.6376, $F_{3,32.612} = 0.45$ , $p = 0.45$ Period*Exploration, AIC = 644.0195, $F_{3,32.308} = 1.39$ , $p = 0.26$ <b>Period*Activity, AIC = 627.7545, <math>F_{3,32.056} = 5.71</math>, <math>p &lt; 0.01</math></b>

First step consisted of verifying for overall impacts of enclosure change, without taking into account individual differences. Models included as fixed factors 'Period' (baseline, day 1, week 1 and week 2), 'Group' (A and B), 'Sex' (male and female) and 'Dominance', as well as all two-way interactions with 'Period'. Final models were selected based on Akaike's Information Criterion (AIC): when the difference between AIC models was equal or lower than 10, we choose the model with fewer variables. Second step consisted of verifying impacts of enclosure change on individual differences, BPIS and FGM variables were reanalyzed based on the model chosen on the first step, and each of the GNB axes (Feeding, Sociability, Exploration, and Activity) were then included, one-by-one, as well as two-way interactions between each GNB axis and Period. Significant models are in bold.