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Effects of personality and life-history on the welfare of captive Asiatic lions (*Panthera leo persica*)

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Background

The long-term success of ex-situ conservation programmes depends on husbandry and enrichment practices complemented by a robust welfare assessment protocol. Most zoos and conservation programmes continue to employ a bottom-up approach to measure animal welfare that often fails to account for intraspecific variations. Despite accepting animal sentience, we are yet to address individuality and its role in governing animal welfare in captive conditions. We explored the role of individuality (personality traits, and life history) on behaviour-based welfare indices of 35 (14:21) captive Asiatic lions in Sakkarbaug Zoological Garden, Junagadh, India. We categorized the subjects based on personality traits (bold or shy), life history (wild-rescued or captive-raised) and gender, and compared welfare indices in the form of behavioural diversity, latency to novel objects, enclosure usage patterns and aberrant repetitive behaviours between the groups. Further, we assessed the inter-relationships between different behavioural measures of welfare.

Results

Our results show that intraspecific variations based on life history and personality traits consistently predict the welfare states of captive lions. Asiatic lions with bold traits ($M=0.5$, $SD=0.12$, $n=21$) and captive-raised life history ($M=0.47$, $SD=0.12$, $n=16$) used enclosure space more homogeneously compared to shy ($M=0.71$, $SD=0.15$, $n=14$) and wild-rescued ($M=0.67$, $SD=0.15$, $n=19$) animals. Behaviour diversity was significantly higher in captive-raised ($M=1.26$, $SD=0.3$, $n=16$) and bold ($M=1.23$, $SD=0.26$, $n=21$) subjects compared to wild-rescued ($M=0.83$, $SD=0.35$, $n=19$) and shy ($M=0.73$, $SD=0.34$, $n=14$) individuals. On the other hand, aberrant repetitive behaviours (stereotypy) were significantly lower in bold ($M=7.01$, $SD=3.9$, $n=21$) and captive-raised ($M=7.74$, $SD=5.3$) individuals compared to wild-rescued ($M=13.12$, $SD=6.25$, $n=19$) and shy ($M=16.13$, $SD=5.4$, $n=16$) lions. Behaviour diversity was reliably predicted by the enclosure usage patterns and aberrant repetitive behaviours displayed by subjects. The enclosure usage pattern of subjects was predicted by their latency to novel objects, behaviour diversity, and age.

Discussion

Our findings underline the importance of individual-centric, behaviour-based, and multi-dimensional welfare assessment tools in ex-situ conservation programmes. The results suggest that behavioural welfare indices complemented with personality can help improve welfare of Asiatic lions and highlight the

critical need to address intraspecific variation in behavioural welfare measures in captive animals.

1 **Effects of personality and life-history on the welfare of captive Asiatic lions**
2 **(*Panthera leo persica*)**

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21 **Abstract**

22 ***Background***

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24 enrichment practices complemented by a robust welfare assessment protocol. Most zoos and
25 conservation programmes continue to employ a bottom-up approach to measure animal welfare
26 that often fails to account for intraspecific variations. Despite accepting animal sentience, we are
27 yet to address individuality and its role in governing animal welfare in captive conditions. We
28 explored the role of individuality (personality traits, and life history) on behaviour-based welfare
29 indices of 35 (14:21) captive Asiatic lions in Sakkarbaug Zoological Garden, Junagadh, India.
30 We categorized the subjects based on personality traits (bold or shy), life history (wild-rescued
31 or captive-raised) and gender, and compared welfare indices in the form of behavioural diversity,
32 latency to novel objects, enclosure usage patterns and aberrant repetitive behaviours between the
33 groups. Further, we assessed the inter-relationships between different behavioural measures of
34 welfare.

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38 $SD=0.12$, $n=21$) and captive-raised life history ($M=0.47$, $SD=0.12$, $n=16$) used enclosure space
39 more homogenously compared to shy ($M=0.71$, $SD=0.15$, $n=14$) and wild-rescued ($M=0.67$,
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46 predicted by the enclosure usage patterns and aberrant repetitive behaviours displayed by
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48 behaviour diversity, and age.

49 ***Discussion***

50 Our findings underline the importance of individual-centric, behaviour-based, and multi-
51 dimensional welfare assessment tools in ex-situ conservation programmes. The results suggest
52 that behavioural welfare indices complemented with personality can help improve welfare of
53 Asiatic lions and highlight the critical need to address intraspecific variation in behavioural
54 welfare measures in captive animals.

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65 **Introduction**

66 Welfare is defined as the balance between pathophysiology and affective states (Spruijt, Bos &
67 Pijlman, 2001; Meehan & Mench, 2007; Boissy et al., 2007; Butterworth, Mench &
68 Wielebnowski, 2011; Panksepp, 2011), or the state of the animal as it copes with its environment
69 (Broom, 1991). Accurate welfare assessments are essential for long-term biopsychosocial health
70 of captive animals housed in ex-situ conservation institutions (Engel, 1980; Korte, Olivier &
71 Koolhaas, 2007; Broom, 2011). Animals housed under poor welfare conditions often suffer from
72 allostatic overload, lose essential behaviour diversity, cognitive skills, and suffer from chronic
73 stress (Sheperdson, Carlstead & Wielebnowski, 2004; Kroshko et al., 2016; Razal, Pisacane &
74 Miller, 2016), affecting their overall survival and reproductive potential (Broom, 1991; Schreck,
75 2010). However, welfare assessments of captive animals pose unique challenges (Butterworth,
76 Mench & Wielebnowski, 2011) as it encompasses both physical and psychological well-being
77 (Brambell, 1965; Meehan & Mench, 2007; Panksepp, 2011). Significant body of research
78 suggests personality traits (Izzo, Bashaw & Campbell, 2011; Watters & Powell, 2012), and
79 early-life experiences (Butterworth, Mench & Wielebnowski, 2011) may predispose individuals
80 to be more sensitive to changes in husbandry practices (Boissy & Erhard, 2014). Despite an
81 urgent requirement of individual-centric welfare assessments for endangered species, most ex-
82 situ facilities continue to employ a uni-dimensional approach where either of physiological,
83 behavioural and keeper evaluations are used in such assessments (Watanabe, 2007; Butterworth,
84 Mench & Wielebnowski, 2011). Ideally conservation breeding programs involving endangered
85 species should account for individuality and address intraspecific variations during welfare
86 assessments (Bracke & Hopster, 2006; Volpato et al., 2009; Rees, 2016) in zoological
87 institutions.

88 Asiatic lion (*Panthera leo persica*) is one such example of an endangered species that is
89 relegated to a fraction of their historic range and currently found in the greater Gir landscape of
90 Gujarat, India (Banerjee et al., 2013). With a global wild and captive population of about 523
91 and 359 individuals, respectively, (Srivastav, 2014; Pant, 2015) the future survival of Asiatic
92 lions may depend on a successful conservation breeding program complemented by repatriation
93 across historic ranges (Jhala et al., 2006; Meena, 2009). While extensive research on population
94 ecology (Joslin, 1973; Jhala et al., 2009), behaviour (Meena, 2008), social dynamics (Meena,
95 2009; Chakrabarti & Jhala, 2017), and human-animal interaction (Joslin, 1973; Banerjee, Jhala &
96 Pathak, 2010; Banerjee et al., 2013) of wild Asiatic lions has been conducted, the captive
97 populations and their welfare needs have received relatively less attention. Pastorino et al.,
98 (2016, 2017) studied feline-keeper interactions, personality variations, and behavioural aspects
99 of welfare in captive Asiatic lions at London zoo, but were limited by a small sample size (n=4)
100 and a short study period. There is a paucity of information on detailed welfare status of captive
101 Asiatic lions despite their presence across major global zoological institutions, and it is critical to
102 evaluate and adopt the best welfare standards to meet long-term conservation goals for this
103 species.

104 We studied 35 Asiatic lions housed in the ex-situ conservation breeding centre of Sakkarbaug
105 Zoological Garden, Gujarat, India to understand how life history and personality influence
106 behaviour-based welfare evaluations. Sakkarbaug zoo is the coordinating institution for the
107 conservation breeding of Asiatic lion and hosted 47-60 individuals during 2015-2017. We
108 categorized these subjects based on their life histories (wild-rescued vs. captive-raised), sex, and
109 personality traits (bold vs. shy), and used species-typical behaviour diversity (Powell, 1995;
110 Wemelsfelder et al., 2000; Rabin, 2003; Clark & Melfi, 2012; Miller, Pisacane & Vicino, 2016),

111 space usage patterns (Kessel & Brent, 1996; Mallapur, Qureshi & Chellam, 2002; Ross &
112 Shender, 2016), latency to novel objects (Murphy, 1977; Meehan & Mench, 2002; Sneddon,
113 Braithwaite & Gentle, 2003), and proportion of aberrant behaviours (Mason, 2006; Tan et al.,
114 2013; Japyassú & Malange, 2014; Kroshko et al., 2016) to assess the impacts of individual
115 variations on welfare measures. We believe that such holistic welfare measurement will provide
116 zoo managers an individual-focused welfare assessment tool to plan better husbandry practices in
117 ex-situ conservation programs.

118 **Materials & methods**

119 *Research permit and ethical considerations*

120 Research permit for this study was granted by the Gujarat Forest Department, India (Permit no:
121 WLP/28/A/1316-21/2015-16). This study complies with the regulations of zoo animal welfare
122 standards set by the Central Zoo Authority, Government of India.

123 *Study area*

124 We conducted the study at Sakkarbaug Zoological Garden (SZG henceforth), which is situated
125 within the natural range of Asiatic lions (*Panthera leo persica*). SZG is the coordinating zoo for
126 the Asiatic lion conservation-breeding programme in India and hosts the largest captive
127 population (n= 60) in the world (n=359). The zoo has a separate off-display conservation
128 breeding facility, which houses 47 genetically diverse individuals sourced across the greater Gir
129 landscape, Gujarat, India. This facility provided us a unique opportunity to study behaviour of
130 wild-rescued and captive born lions under similar housing conditions. These animals are housed
131 in large naturalistic enclosures that resemble the wild habitat of Asiatic lions. A map of the off-
132 display conservation breeding enclosures of SZG is provided in Supplementary Figure 1.

133 ***Subjects and housing***

134 We collected systematic data from 35 (14:21) healthy Asiatic lions housed in the off-display area
135 of SZG. The study animals were either born in captivity (n=16; 3:13) or rescued from wild
136 (n=19; 11:8). The subjects were housed in 13 enclosures spread across 8-ha area with a minimum
137 of 500m² of space/animal. All enclosures had outdoor (paddocks) and indoor (retiring/feeding
138 cells) areas (3m x 3m x 2m dimensions) with access to drinking water. Lions were brought inside
139 their respective retiring/feeding cells at 1700 hours regularly for feeding and released back into
140 the paddock at 2200 hours. All subjects were group-housed during the entire study duration.
141 Some related females were iso-sexually paired and few males were housed with two related
142 females. The enclosure size and husbandry practices were similar for all subjects. The animals
143 were designated to specific groups of keepers, who trained them to respond to their house names
144 and vocal instructions. Their diet included in-house slaughtered, quality-inspected buffalo meat.
145 The animals were fed inside separate feeding cells from 1700-1900 hours daily. The average
146 meat consumption was 3.5 kg (SD = 0.5 kg) for females (n=21) and 4.9 kg (SD = 1.4 kg) for
147 males (n=14), with a starve day on every Sunday. The details of the study subjects are provided
148 in Supplementary Table 1.

149 ***Study design***

150 This study was conducted from July 2015 to January 2017. We assessed the behavioural effects
151 of husbandry and management practices on captive Asiatic lions with different personalities and
152 life histories. We conducted novel-object latency tests on subjects (Frost et al., 2007), followed
153 by keeper interviews on a likert-scale based personality questionnaire that measured traits such
154 as extraversion, openness to novel experience and activity (Allport and Allport, 1921; Gosling
155 and John, 1999; Sloan Wilson et al., 1994). Subjects were grouped into different categories based

156 on life histories (wild-rescued or captive-raised), personalities (bold-shy continuum), and sex
157 (male or female). Individuals born in the zoo and rescued as cubs and hand-raised by keepers
158 were categorized as captive-raised (n=16). Subjects that were rescued from the wild as adults
159 were categorised as wild-rescued (n=19). We coded for personality traits of interest once at the
160 beginning of the study and repeated after six months to check for trait consistency (Martin and
161 Réale, 2008; Galhardo et al., 2012). For behaviour data collection, we used pre-existing
162 ethogram for felids (Powell, 1995; Stanton, Sullivan & Fazio, 2015) and modified it to include
163 unique behaviours displayed by subjects (Supplementary Table 2). Two independent observers
164 collected all behaviour data. To minimize inter-observer bias, behaviour recording was
165 commenced after inter-observer reliability reached satisfactory levels from the same group of
166 animals (Cronbach's $\alpha > 0.8$) (Gliem & Gliem, 2003). We recorded behaviour at three different
167 time periods: 0500-1100 hours, 1300-1800 hours and 2200-0500 hours. We used a combination
168 of instantaneous scan sampling and focal animal sampling to collect behavioural data (Altmann,
169 1974; Mason & Mendl, 2007). We recorded instantaneous scan at one-minute intervals for one-
170 hour duration followed by a 15-minute rest to mitigate observer fatigue. During each scan, we
171 recorded the behavioural state of the subject and its location in the enclosure. We measured the
172 directionality of all social interactions between subjects. We conducted focal animal sampling
173 through video recordings to accurately measure durations of social, and aberrant repetitive
174 behaviours (Martin & Bateson, 1993). We collected data on the following parameters:

175 ***Personality assessment and latency to novel objects***

176 Personality is defined as the consistent difference between individuals in their behaviour across
177 time and contexts (Réale et al., 2007; Franks, Higgins & Champagne, 2014). Personality is
178 related to an individual's coping style and often determines its response to welfare concerns in

179 captivity (Koolhaas et al., 1999; Moneta & Spada, 2009; Melotti et al., 2011; Gartner, Powell &
180 Weiss, 2016). Personality traits of individual animals determine their decision-making skills
181 which contribute to survival success in the wild (Coelho, de Azevedo & Young, 2012; Carter et
182 al., 2013; Franks et al., 2013; Owen, Swaisgood & Blumstein, 2017), and thus can be useful in
183 welfare measures (Rouff, Sussman & Strube, 2005). Personality assessments based solely on
184 keeper evaluations can be biased due to keeper-animal associations (Broom, 1991; Mills, 1998;
185 Gartner, Powell & Weiss, 2016). To ensure consistency and reliability in personality assessment,
186 we adopted a combination of rating and coding (Funder & Colvin, 1988; Funder, 1995; Gosling
187 & Vazire, 2002; Highfill et al., 2010). We assessed subjects on bold-shy continuum of
188 personality, as it is an important indicator of cognitive performance (Sloan Wilson et al., 1994;
189 Highfill et al., 2010; Coelho, de Azevedo & Young, 2012; Chadwick, 2014). Experienced
190 keepers rated subjects on a scale of 1-9 for pre-selected personality traits on the bold-shy
191 continuum (Supplementary Table 3). To validate the keeper ratings, we conducted personality
192 tests in day kraals for ten minutes using video recorders in the absence of keepers and observers.
193 During these tests, the subject was (a) observed interacting with conspecifics in its enclosure; (b)
194 approached by an unknown person; and (c) was exposed to non-food novel objects (lion-sam
195 ball, and bungee cord). Naive observers with no prior exposure to study subjects coded the
196 behaviour of subjects corresponding to personality traits under consideration i.e. boldness and
197 shyness. Observers also recorded the time taken in seconds (latency value) for subjects to touch
198 novel objects or approach unknown person (Sih, Bell & Johnson, 2004; Frost et al., 2007). The
199 percentage of time spent by animals in bold (extroversion or curious) vs. shy (wary or afraid)
200 behaviour was measured.

201 We repeated the novel object tests after a month to check for trait consistency, and an average of
202 the latency values was calculated for each subject. Observers grouped subjects into bold and shy
203 categories based on a comparison between the proportion of bold and shy behaviours performed
204 by subjects across all trials. We found that keepers (n=3) and observers (n=3) reliably agreed on
205 the personality type (Cronbach's alpha > 0.9) of subjects (bold-shy continuum).

206 *Enclosure usage pattern*

207 Enclosure usage pattern is a critical behavioural parameter that is influenced by the biological
208 relevance of different zones of the captive environment (Traylor-Holzer & Fritz, 1985; Plowman,
209 2003; Rose & Robert, 2013; Ross & Shender, 2016). Although large naturalistic enclosures are
210 necessary for good welfare, enclosure usage should be closely monitored to evaluate their
211 functionality (Mallapur, Qureshi & Chellam, 2002; Rose & Robert, 2013). We divided each
212 enclosure into ten equal zones, which included three broad zones viz. a) proximal, b) medial, and
213 c) distal zones. Each of these broad zones was further subdivided into three smaller zones as i)
214 left, ii) middle, and iii) right. The tenth zone was the paddock area next to the retiring cell
215 (Figure 1). We recorded the enclosure zone location of subjects during each scan.

216 *Species-typical behaviour diversity*

217 We used a combination of instantaneous scan sampling and focal animal sampling (Altmann,
218 1974; Gilby, Pokempner & Wrangham, 2010) to record lion behaviour patterns in captivity.
219 During each scan, we recorded detailed behavioural states (Supplementary Table 3) of the lion
220 and the enclosure zone in which it was located. In case the subject was performing a social
221 behaviour or aberrant repetitive behaviours (ARBs), we recorded the duration and directionality
222 of the behaviour along with the name of participants. We used a double observer method to
223 standardize behaviour sampling strategy and reduce inter-observer bias. To increase inter-

224 observer reliability (Caro et al., 1979) both observers recorded the behaviour patterns of same
225 subjects independently for three consecutive day until agreeability ratings increased to
226 acceptable levels (Cronbach's $\alpha > 0.9$). We gathered a total of 2,009 hours of behaviour
227 observation data (average data of 57 hours/ subject) across 486 observation days.

228 *Aberrant repetitive behaviours (ARB)*

229 Aberrant repetitive behaviours (ARB) are reliable indicators of poor welfare conditions
230 (Dawkins & Hill, 2004; Watters, 2009; Kroshko et al., 2016). Repetitive behaviours are
231 indicative of changes in neurophysiology and cognitive dysfunction (Muehlmann & Lewis,
232 2012). We calculated the proportion of ARBs displayed by each subject per session. ARBs
233 mostly included, stereotypic swaying, pacing, and nose rubbing behaviours (Supplementary
234 Table 3). We did not record displacement behaviours such as pacing performed before feeding,
235 or while interacting with conspecifics housed in adjacent enclosures as ARB. We considered
236 behaviours persisting over five consecutive scans and without a valid cause as ARB. We
237 calculated the proportion of scans spent by each subject performing ARBs as an indicator of poor
238 welfare (Mason & Latham, 2004).

239 *Hypothesis*

240 We tested three hypotheses on how behavioural welfare measures might vary among different
241 groups of captive Asiatic lions housed under similar conditions. Our first hypothesis was that
242 there would be no variations in behavioural welfare measures between male and female subjects
243 and the measures would perform reliably for both sexes. Our second hypothesis was that the
244 wild-rescued lions would display more diverse measures of behavioural welfare compared to
245 captive-raised animals. Our final hypothesis was that individuals with shy personality would
246 show less diversity in behavioural welfare measures compared to bold individuals.

247 Data analysis

248 We categorized the subjects (n= 35) into six groups based on their personality (bold=21,
249 shy=14), life history experiences (captive-raised=16, wild-rescued=19) and sex classes (male=14
250 and female=21) and all six groups served as independent categorical variables. We measured
251 different indices of welfare such as enclosure space usage (SPI), behaviour diversity (SWI),
252 latency to novel objects, and aberrant repetitive behaviours as dependent variables for
253 downstream analyses. We conducted all analyses with R version 3.4 and 3.5 through RStudio
254 (RStudio, 2012) using packages, dplyr (Wickham & Francois, 2016), ggplot2 (RStudio, 2015),
255 lm, lubridate (Spinu, Golemund & Wickham, 2018), tidyverse (Wickham, 2017), and
256 funModeling. For exploratory data analyses we used Shapiro-Wilk test and Levene's test to
257 ascertain the normal distribution and homogeneity of variance in SPI, SWI, latency and ARB
258 values, respectively, and conducted bivariate Pearson's correlation. We compared welfare
259 indices between groups using independent samples t-test. When comparing between means of
260 two groups with different sample sizes, it is important to report effect sizes in addition to p-
261 values to indicate the scale independent degree of difference. We calculated effect sizes to
262 quantify differences in welfare measures between groups (Cohen, 1992; Lakens, 2013).
263 Finally, we explored causative inter-relationships between latency to novel objects, aberrant
264 repetitive behaviours (ARB), behaviour diversity (SWI) and enclosure usage patterns (SPI). We
265 conducted three linear regression (univariate) using enclosure space usage, behaviour diversity,
266 aberrant behaviours (ARB) as dependent and predictor variables interchangeably. Before
267 conducting regression analysis, we checked for multicollinearity between predictor variables
268 using measures of VIF (variance inflation factor). If two variables showed a high level of
269 correlation, we avoided using them as predictors in a regression model.

270 ***Personality and latency to novel object***

271 We used a combination of behavioural coding and personality-rating instrument (Highfill et al.,
272 2010) to ascertain personality profile of subjects, which considered aggression levels, activity,
273 boldness, curiosity and level of stereotypy (King & Figueredo, 1997). We asked three
274 zookeepers to rate subjects on a likert scale of 1-9 for measures of personality traits based on
275 bold and shy continuum.

276 We measured the latency of each subject to react to non-food novel objects over the course of
277 two trials with different non-food novel objects (i.e. a ball and a rope). We categorized subjects
278 as bold or shy based on the proportion of bold and shy behaviours performed during the tests.
279 For all 35 subjects, the keeper ratings agreed with the conclusions drawn by observers based on
280 novel-stimulus tests (Cronbach's $\alpha > 0.9$). Based on personality tests, and keeper rating, we
281 categorized 21 subjects (10:11) as bold and 14 subjects (4:10) as shy. We found that latency
282 measures were not normally distributed across subjects, therefore we used non-parametric
283 statistics (Kolmogorov Smirnov test) to compare the means of latency values between subjects of
284 different personality types, life history, and sex.

285 ***Enclosure usage pattern***

286 We calculated the spread of participation index (SPI) (Plowman, 2003) of enclosure usage for all
287 35 subjects across 486 observation days using instantaneous scan data. We conducted
288 independent-samples t-test between different groups of subjects followed by multiple regressions
289 to understand the interconnection of different welfare indices. We calculated the SPI values
290 using the following formula:

291
$$SPI = \frac{\sum |f_o - f_e|}{2(N - f_{emin})}$$

292 where f_o stands for observed frequency of usage of enclosure zones, f_e stands for expected
293 frequency of enclosure usage. N stands for total number of observations in all zones of the
294 enclosure and f_{emin} stands for the expected frequency of observation for the smallest zone
295 (Plowman, 2003). SPI measures indicate the homogeneity of space usage patterns. A high SPI
296 value (close to 1) indicates that subjects are biased towards certain areas of the enclosure, while a
297 lower SPI value (close to 0.5 or lower) indicates that lions use most areas of the enclosure
298 equitably.

299 *Species-typical behaviour diversity*

300 We used Shannon-Weiner diversity index (SWI) to measure species-typical behaviour diversity
301 as this approach considers both richness and evenness of species-typical behaviours in the data
302 set (Clark & Melfi, 2012; Miller, Pisacane & Vicino, 2016; Spiezio et al., 2018). We compiled
303 an ethogram of all behaviour states and events observed from all subjects during the study period
304 (Supplementary Table 3). We pooled all behaviour observations of each subject to calculate
305 behaviour diversity. We excluded aberrant repetitive behaviours from the calculations, since they
306 did not qualify as species-typical behaviours. We employed t-test to compare the means between
307 subjects belonging to different life histories, personality types, and sex.

308 *Aberrant repetitive behaviours*

309 We counted the total number scans of ARBs displayed by each subject during every study
310 session. We calculated proportion of ARBs displayed across the entire study period by each
311 subject and used that as a continuous variable to compare across different categories of subjects
312 based on their age, sex, life history, and personality. We used t-tests, and multiple regression
313 analysis to explore the relationship between various welfare indices.

314 **Results**

315 *Latency to novel object*

316 The mean latency for all subjects after averaging both observations (six months apart) was 47.76
317 seconds (SD=46.85). Captive-raised individuals showed significantly lower latency to novel
318 objects (M=18.61, SD=21.55, n=16) compared to wild-rescued individuals (M=72.30, SD=48.7,
319 n=19) with effect size (Cohen's d) of 1.49 (Table 1, Figure 2). Bold animals showed significantly
320 lower latency to novel objects (M=11.13, SD=3.65, n=21) compared to shy individuals
321 (M=102.71, SD=17.4, n=14), with a high effect size (Cohen's d = 7.508) (Table 1, Figure 2).
322 Our gender-based comparative analyses revealed no difference in latency scores between male
323 (M= 37.02, SD= 45, n=14) and female (M=54.9, SD=47.8, n=21) subjects (Cohen's d = 0.38)
324 subjects.

325 We found that latency to novel objects was positively correlated (Supplementary Figure 2, Table
326 2) to enclosure usage (SPI values) index ($r=0.6$, $n=35$, $p=0.00$), and proportion of aberrant
327 repetitive behaviours ($r=0.53$, $n=35$, $p=0.00$). Latency was negatively correlated to behaviour
328 diversity ($r=-0.58$, $n= 35$, $p=0.00$). We did not conduct linear regression analysis to ascertain its
329 relationship with other welfare indices, as the latency values were not normally distributed.

330 *Enclosure usage*

331 Enclosure space usage pattern varied significantly between subjects with different personality
332 types and life history parameters. Wild-rescued individuals used enclosure space less
333 homogeneously (M=0.67, SD=0.15, n=19) than captive-born individuals (M=0.47, SD=0.12,
334 n=16) ($t(33) =4.28$, $p=0.0001$, Cohen's d=1.47) (Table 1, Figure 2). Bold subjects had
335 significantly lower SPI scores signifying homogenous enclosure use (M=0.5, SD=0.12, n=21)
336 compared to shy individuals (Table 1, Figure 2) (M=0.71, SD=0.15, n=14) ($t(33) =-4.572$, $p=$

337 0.0001, Cohen's $d=1.54$). Overall, the SPI value of males ($M=0.61$, $SD=0.20$, $n=14$) was not
338 significantly different from female ($M=0.57$, $SD=0.15$, $n=21$) lions ($t(33) = 5.28$, $p = 0.6$).

339 Enclosure usage (SPI values) is positively correlated (Supplementary Figure 2, Table 2) with
340 latency values ($r=0.6$, $p=0.00$), and proportion of ARBs ($r= 0.53$, $p= 0.001$). Enclosure usage is
341 negatively correlated with behaviour diversity ($r=-0.61$, $p=0.001$). As aberrant repetitive
342 behaviour and behaviour diversity were highly correlated, we avoided using them together as
343 predictors for regression analyses. Multiple regression analyses revealed that behaviour diversity,
344 latency to novel object, and age of subject explained 66% of the variance in enclosure space
345 usage ($R^2=0.66$, $F(3, 31) = 20.66$, $p <0.001$) (Table 3). The predicted regression equation for
346 enclosure usage is $SPI = -0.64 +(-0.21) \times (\text{Behaviour diversity}) +(3.7e-5) \times (\text{age in days}) + (1.3e-$
347 $03) \times (\text{Latency})$. From the regression analysis we can infer that younger subjects used enclosure
348 evenly compared to older subjects. Higher latency to novel objects can also correspond to low
349 enclosure space use. Furthermore, subjects that use the enclosure space evenly are likely to have
350 a diverse species-typical behaviour repertoire.

351 *Species-typical behaviour diversity*

352 We found that species-typical behaviour diversity of captive-raised animals ($M=1.26$, $SD=0.3$,
353 $n=16$) was higher than wild-rescued animals ($M=0.83$, $SD=0.35$, $n=19$) ($t(33) =-3.94$, $p=0.001$,
354 Cohen's $d=1.35$) (Table 1, Figure 2). Further, bold animals had higher behaviour diversity
355 ($M=1.23$, $SD=0.26$, $n=21$) than shy individuals ($M=0.73$, $SD=0.34$, $n=14$) ($t(33) = 4.897$,
356 $p=0.0001$, Cohen's $d=1.64$) (Table 1, Figure 2). However, there was no significant difference in
357 the diversity of species-typical behaviours between male ($M=0.96$, $SD=0.43$, $n=14$) and female
358 ($M=1.1$, $SD=0.35$, $n=21$) lions ($t(33) = -0.85$, $p = 0.4$).

359 Behaviour diversity was negatively correlated with latency to novel objects, ($r=-0.59$, $p=0.01$),
360 aberrant repetitive behaviours ($r=0.884$, $p=0.01$), and enclosure usage ($r=-0.61$, $p=0.01$)
361 (Supplementary Figure 2, Table 2). Multiple regression analyses indicated that latency to novel
362 objects, space usage patterns and age of subjects explained 53% of the variance in the behaviour
363 diversity ($R^2=0.85$, $F(2,32) = 90.92$, $p<0.001$) (Table 3). The predicted regression equation is
364 Behaviour diversity = $1.8 + (-0.046) \times (\text{Aberrant repetitive behaviour}) + (-0.46) \times (\text{Enclosure}$
365 $\text{usage})$. The results from the linear regression indicate that subjects that show less ARB and use
366 enclosure space more homogeneously are likely to have higher behaviour diversity.

367 ***Aberrant repetitive behaviours (ARB)***

368 Proportion of aberrant repetitive behaviours (ARBs) varied between wild-rescued individuals
369 ($M=13.12$, $SD=6.25$, $n=19$) than captive-raised individuals ($M=7.74$, $SD=5.3$, $n=16$) ($t(33)$
370 $=2.71$, $p=0.01$, Cohen's $d=0.92$) (Table 1, Figure 2). Bold individuals ($n=21$) showed
371 significantly lower amount of stereotypic behaviour such as pacing and swaying ($M=7.01$, $SD=4$,
372 $n=21$) compared to shy individuals ($M=16.13$, $SD=5.4$, $n=14$) ($t(33) = -5.82$, $p=0.000$, Cohen's
373 $d=1.94$) (Table 1, Figure 2). We found no variation in expression of stereotypic behaviour
374 between male ($M=11.04$, $SD=7.05$, $n=14$) and female ($M=10.41$, $SD=6.02$, $n=21$) subjects ($t(33)$
375 $=0.282$, $p=0.78$, Cohen's $d = 0.09$).

376 ARB was positively correlated with latency to novel objects ($r=0.57$, $p=0.01$), and enclosure
377 usage ($r = 0.54$, $p = 0.01$) but was negatively correlated with behaviour diversity ($r=-0.88$,
378 $p=0.01$) (Supplementary Figure 2, Table 2). Regression analysis explained 85% of variance in
379 ARB values with behaviour diversity and age as the significant predictor variables ($R^2=0.85$, F
380 $(2,32) = 90.27$, $p=0.000$) (Table 3). The predicted regression equation for aberrant repetitive
381 behaviour is, $ARB = 28.08 + (-15.05) \times (\text{behaviour diversity}) + (-6.7e-04) \times (\text{age in days})$. From

382 the regression analysis we can assert that subjects displaying a higher diversity of species-typical
383 behaviours were less likely to show ARBs. Interestingly, age had a miniscule yet statistically
384 significant effect on ARBs, implying that younger individuals were more likely to show such
385 behaviours.

386 **Discussion**

387 To the best of our knowledge, this is the first study to compare the behavioural welfare measures
388 of wild-rescued and captive-raised Asiatic lions with differing personality traits in an empirical
389 framework. Our sample size constitutes 10% of the global captive stock and 6% of the wild
390 population of Asiatic lions, making the results relevant for the global conservation initiatives for
391 this species. The results clearly show that personality and life history significantly affect
392 behavioural welfare measures. We did not observe any sex-specific variations in behavioural
393 welfare measures of the subjects, confirming our first hypothesis. However, contrary to our
394 second hypothesis, wild-rescued lions showed low behaviour diversity, high enclosure-use bias,
395 increased stereotypy, and higher latency to novel objects compared to captive-raised subjects.
396 Since most wild-origin lions were rescued as adults, we believe that they were unable to perform
397 diverse array of species-typical behaviours due to the lack of sufficient cognitive stimulus in
398 captivity. We also found that most wild-rescued individuals have shy personality traits (n=12),
399 whereas majority of captive-raised individuals have bold traits (n=14). Finally, our results
400 supported the third hypothesis that captive-raised lions with bold personalities are more resilient
401 to small changes in welfare conditions than shy subjects. We found that behaviour diversity of
402 Asiatic lions had a strong linear relationship with proportion of aberrant repetitive behaviours
403 along with enclosure usage patterns. Therefore, animals with low behaviour diversity were
404 highly likely to display more ARBs and show more enclosure zone bias. Existing studies suggest

405 that the inability to perform instinctive and habitual behaviours might result in allostatic overload
406 (Korte, Olivier & Koolhaas, 2007). However, it is important to point out that the proportion of
407 ARBs differed significantly between wild-rescued and captive-raised lions. This means that the
408 inability to perform species-typical behaviours translates into an increase in stereotypy and
409 timely intervention and improvement of husbandry practices would lead to better welfare to
410 wild-rescued, and shy animals. Overall, Asiatic lions with different personality traits (bold and
411 shy) and life-history (captive-raised and wild-rescued) significantly differed on measures of
412 welfare, which supports earlier studies (Japyassú & Malange, 2014) on animal individuality.
413 These results may misconstrue that wild-rescued lions and those with shy personality traits are
414 condemned to suffer more in captivity. On the contrary, our results simply indicate the need for
415 different husbandry practices, enclosure design, and enrichment interventions for animals with
416 differing life histories and personality traits. Zoo managers and biologists should address the
417 welfare needs of individuals to meet conservation goals through tailored-husbandry practices and
418 individual-centric welfare measures to create a richer cognitive experience for wild-rescued and
419 shy animals.

420 Animal welfare as a discipline has its foundations in ethical concerns for animals but has slowly
421 embraced the scientific concept from animal ecology, behaviour and physiology (Broom, 1991;
422 Fraser, 1999). Modern welfare science uses animal behaviour in the subjective context of
423 affective states of animals to create opportunities for positive emotions (Dawkins, 2004; Fraser,
424 2009; Whitham & Miller, 2016). The impacts of welfare are far-reaching as it affects cognitive
425 performance (Harding, Paul & Mendl, 2004; Broom, 2011; Boissy & Erhard, 2014), behaviour
426 diversity (Rabin, 2003; Greggor et al., 2016) and affective states (Mendl et al., 2009; Whitham &
427 Miller, 2016) of animals. Good welfare practices are vital for the success of an ex-situ

428 conservation programme (Rabin, 2003; Teixeira et al., 2007; Broom, 2011). Existing research on
429 animal personality posits that bold and shyness are important attributes that can provide survival
430 value to animals (Bremner-Harrison, Prodohl & Elwood, 2004). Early life experiences can alter
431 the personality state of animals (Higley et al., 1991; Frost et al., 2007; Watters & Powell, 2012)
432 which can lead to intraspecific variation in welfare requirements. Recent studies also indicate a
433 strong inter-relationship between personality and cognition with implications in ex-situ
434 conservation programme success (Watters & Powell, 2012; Gartner, Powell & Weiss, 2016) as
435 personality traits determine the Umwelt of individuals and affect cognition, affective states, and
436 ultimately welfare (Carere & Locurto, 2011; Izzo, Bashaw & Campbell, 2011; Boissy & Erhard,
437 2014). Our findings support this theory in Asiatic lions, where animals with different personality
438 traits significantly differ on behavioural measures of welfare under similar housing conditions.
439 In this study, we also explored the inter-relationship between different welfare indices. We found
440 that subjects that used enclosure space homogeneously and displayed less ARBs were more likely
441 to show diverse behaviour repertoire, which was supported by existing studies (Wemelsfelder et
442 al., 2000; Clark & Melfi, 2012). We found that latency to novel objects is positively correlated to
443 stereotypy and enclosure usage bias (Wemelsfelder et al., 2000; Sneddon, Braithwaite & Gentle,
444 2003; Watters, Margulis & Atsalis, 2009) and negatively correlated to behaviour diversity.
445 Latency measure is an important tool for managers to evaluate the welfare condition of animals.
446 Our regression models show that evenness of enclosure usage was determined by the age of
447 subjects, latency to novel objects, and behaviour diversity of subjects. Proportion of ARBs and
448 behaviour diversity was highly negatively correlated, which presents a strong case for zoo
449 managers to increase the gamut of sensory stimuli available for captive animals to display natural
450 behaviours (Swaigood & Shepherdson, 2005). All four behavioural welfare measures used in

451 this study was significantly affected by personality and life-history parameters of the subjects.
452 Moreover, bivariate correlation and regression models underlined strong inter-linkages between
453 all welfare indices (Rabin, 2003; Rose & Robert, 2013; Kroshko et al., 2016). To reiterate,
454 Asiatic lions have diverse intraspecific variations that lead to statistically significant behavioural
455 welfare measures under similar husbandry protocols.

456 Felids are among the most represented taxa across zoological institutions, which necessitates a
457 uniform welfare index to evaluate captive conditions (Szokalski, Litchfield & Foster, 2013).
458 Welfare assessments validated through this study such as personality assessments, latency,
459 enclosure usage, and behavioural diversity can be useful, cost-effective, and non-invasive tools
460 to diagnose and prevent zoonosis in captive wild animals (Broom, 1991; Mason & Mendl,
461 2007). Ex-situ conservation breeding programmes aim to create a line of genetically healthy and
462 behaviourally diverse stock of animals that can successfully recolonize wild habitats (Keulartz,
463 2015). Studies show that regular individual-centric welfare assessments are necessary for long-
464 term goals of ex-situ conservation breeding programmes (Whitehouse et al., 2013; Cannon et al.,
465 2016; Whitham & Miller, 2016). Our results underline an urgent need for managers to implement
466 welfare assessment protocols that measure animal cognition, behaviour diversity, and
467 functionality of captive environment, which can lead to individual-specific husbandry practices.
468 To achieve this objective, we must optimize captive environment and management practices to
469 ensure good animal welfare in ex-situ conservation programmes (Reading, Miller &
470 Shepherdson, 2013; Moorhouse et al., 2015). We hope that this study encourages managers and
471 biologists to revisit traditional husbandry protocols and optimize them to the cognitive needs of
472 individual animals under their care.

473 **Conclusion**

474 Optimized animal welfare practices are a prerequisite of every ex-situ conservation programme.
475 A significant corpus of animal welfare research focuses on the prevention and amelioration of
476 negative emotions in captive individuals. The first major stepping stone in animal welfare
477 research was acceptance of animals as sentient beings capable of suffering (Dawkins, 1990;
478 McMahon et al., 2013). The current philosophy of animal welfare has been galvanized in
479 ethology (Hediger, 1968), positivism (Mendl et al., 2009; Fraser, 2009), and affective states
480 (Dawkins, 1990; Fraser & Duncan, 1998; Bateson & Matheson, 2007; Fraser, 2009).
481 Acknowledging individual personalities and welfare requirements must be the next logical step
482 to increase behaviour diversity in ex-situ conservation breeding programmes (Martin-Wintle et
483 al., 2017). Modern ex-situ conservation facilities must create opportunities for individuals to
484 experience positive emotions, which ultimately lead to better biopsychosocial health. As shown
485 in our study, similar husbandry practices may lead to various welfare outcomes due to
486 intraspecific differences. Ex-situ conservation should focus on welfare requirement of individual
487 animals, in consonance with long-term goals. We encourage zoo management to address welfare
488 deficits by employing personality, life history, and behavioural indices. This study emphasizes
489 the dire requirement for individual-centric welfare measurement indices for all animals at ex-situ
490 conservation breeding centers and on-display enclosures. Long-term sustenance of endangered
491 species must be achieved by the combination of optimized ex-situ and in-situ conservation
492 measures also known as the “one-plan approach” (Schwitzer et al., 2013). Based on the results
493 from this study, we propose to facilitate tailored husbandry and enrichment practices at ex-situ
494 institutions to conserve cognitive capabilities of captive animals. We believe that this study
495 elucidates the importance of personality-based approach to welfare assessment in ex-situ

496 conservation institutions and paves way for a wider utilization of these techniques by managers
497 and biologists.

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823 **Figure legends**

824 **Figure 1:** Schematic representation of an enclosure in Sakkarbaug zoological garden with the
825 layout of zones for behavioural observations of enclosure use by study subjects.

826

827 **Figure 2:** Comparison of behavioural welfare indices of Asiatic lions across personality (bold
828 and shy), life-history (wild and captive) and gender (male and female) categories. The
829 behavioural welfare indices used here are a) Enclosure usage; b) Behaviour diversity; c)
830 Aberrant repetitive behaviour; and d) Latency to novel objects.

Figure 1

Schematic representation of an enclosure in Sakkarbaug zoological garden with the layout of zones for behavioural observations of enclosure use by study subjects.

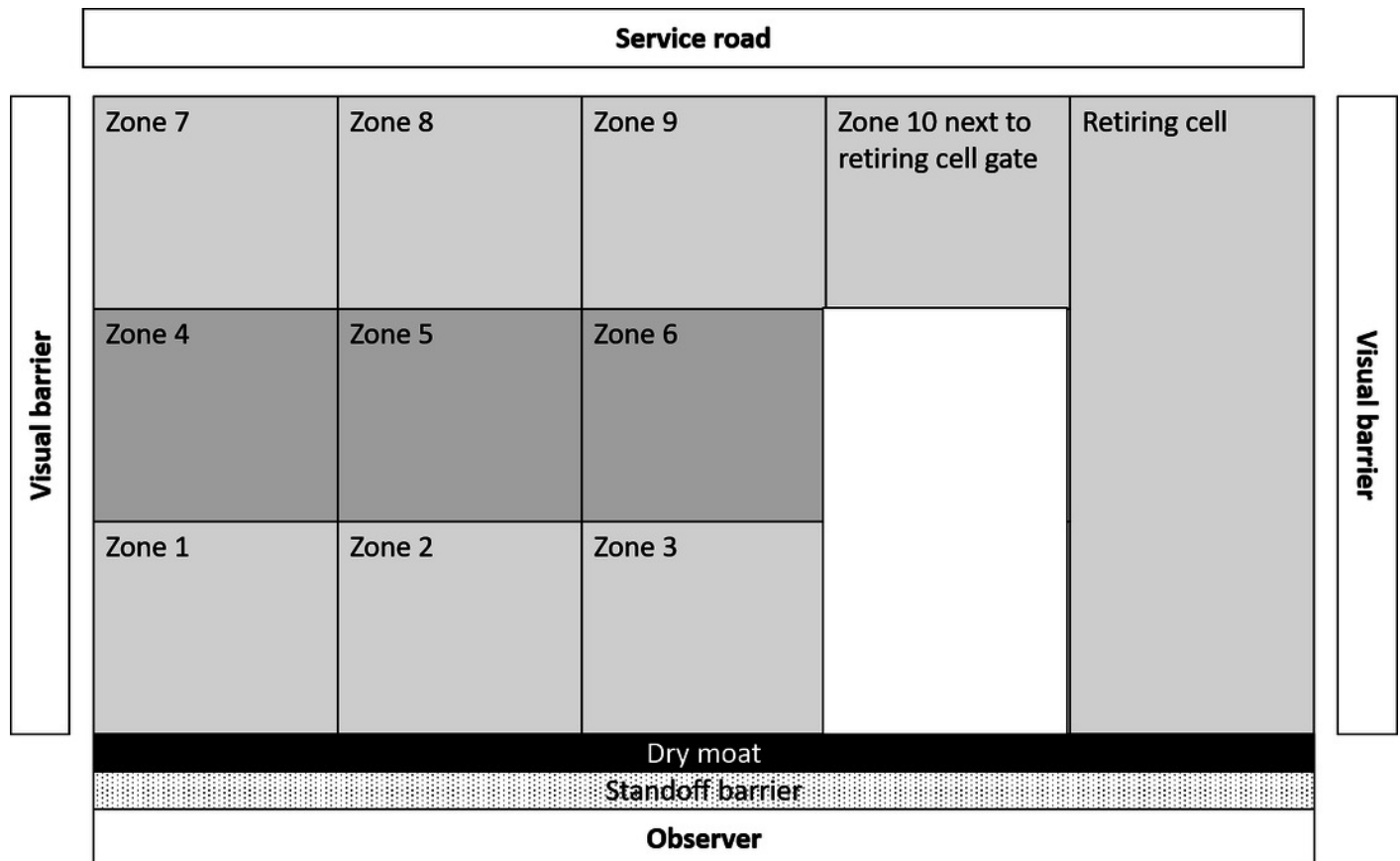


Figure 2

Comparison of behavioural welfare indices of Asiatic lions across personality (bold and shy), life-history (wild and captive) and gender (male and female) categories.

The behavioural welfare indices used here are a) Enclosure usage; b) Behaviour diversity; c) Aberrant repetitive behaviour; and d) Latency to novel objects.

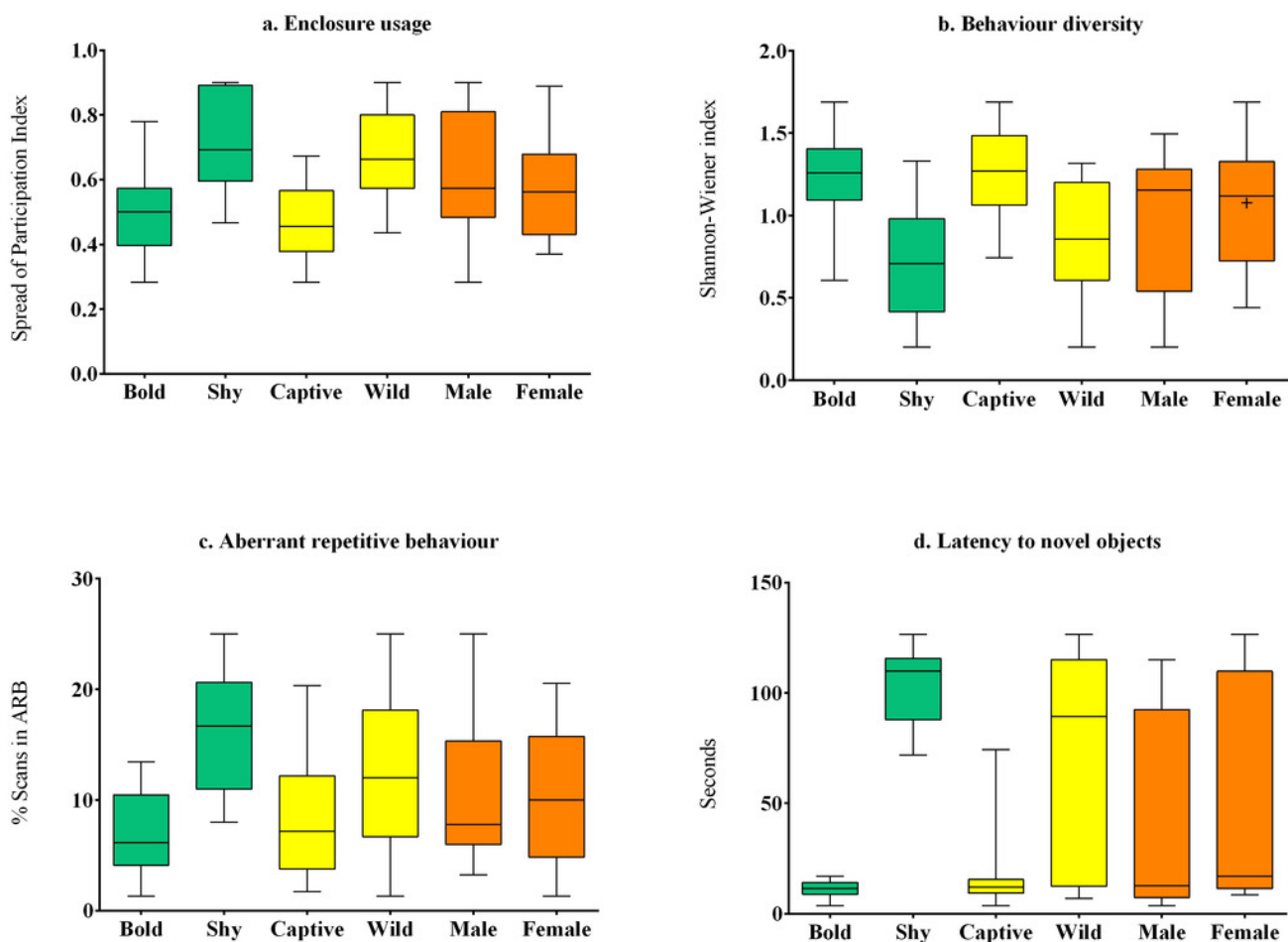


Table 1 (on next page)

Comparison of welfare indices between captive-born and wild-rescued Asiatic lions

1 Table 1. Comparison of welfare indices between captive-born and wild-rescued Asiatic lions

Life-histories	Captive-born	Wild-rescued	t(33)	p-value	Effect size (Cohen's d)
<i>Enclosure usage</i>	0.47±0.12	0.67±0.15	4.28	<0.000	1.47
Behaviour diversity	1.26±0.3	0.83±0.35	-3.94	<0.00	1.35
Aberrant behaviours	7.74±5.3	13.12±6.25	2.71	0.10	0.92
Latency to novel object	18.61±21.55	72.30±48.7	4.08	<0.000	1.42
Personality	<i>Bold</i>	<i>Shy</i>	t(33)	p-value	<i>Effect size (Cohen's d)</i>
Enclosure usage	0.5±0.12	0.71±0.15	-4.572	<0.000	1.54
Behaviour diversity	1.23±0.26	0.73±0.34	4.897	<0.000	1.64
Aberrant behaviours	7.01±3.9	16.13±5.4	-5.825	<0.000	1.94
Latency to novel object	11.13± 3.65	102.71±17.4	-1.11	<0.000	7.28
Sex	<i>Male</i>	<i>Female</i>	t(33)	p-value	<i>Effect size (Cohen's d)</i>
Enclosure usage	0.61±0.2	0.57±0.15	5.28	0.60	0.17
Behaviour diversity	0.96±0.43	1.1±0.35	-0.85	0.4	0.28
Aberrant behaviours	11.04±7.05	10.41±6.02	0.282	0.78	0.09
Latency to novel object	37.02±45	54.91±47.8	-1.11	0.27	0.38

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Table 2 (on next page)

Correlations between welfare indices and life history parameters

1 Table 1. Correlations between welfare indices and life history parameters

	<i>Enclosure usage</i>	<i>Behaviour diversity</i>	<i>Aberrant behaviours</i>	<i>Latency to novel object</i>	<i>Age</i>
<i>Enclosure usage</i>					
<i>Behaviour diversity</i>	-0.611**				
<i>Aberrant behaviours</i>	0.536**	-0.884**			
<i>Latency to novel object</i>	0.593**	-0.587**	0.569**		
<i>Age</i>	0.261	0.127	-0.240	-0.085	

2 ** p < 0.01, * p < 0.05
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Table 3 (on next page)

General linear regression results for inter-relationships between welfare measures

1 **Table 3. General linear regression results for inter-relationships between welfare measures**

2

Independent variables	Estimates	Std error	t	p values	R-squared	F	Durbin-Watson
Enclosure usage							
(Intercept)	8.22e-01	6.56e-02	12.52	7.09e-14	0.66	20.66	1.9
Age	-3.46e-05	1.35e-05	2.56	.0152			
Latency to novel objects	1.31e-03	5.10e-04	2.56	0.01			
Behaviour diversity	-3.25e-01	5.03e-02	-6.47	2.79e-07			
Behaviour diversity							
(Intercept)	1.793	0.09	18.870	2e-16	0.85	90.92	1.78
Enclosure space usage	-0.459	0.20	-2.258	0.030			
Aberrant repetitive behaviour	-0.046	0.005	-8.49	1.04e-09			
Aberrant repetitive behaviour							
Intercept	2.808e+01	1.494e+00	18.793	< 2e-16	0.85	90.27	1.58
Behaviour diversity	-1.505e+01	1.144e+00	-13.151	1.89e-14			
age	-6.779e-04	3.071e-04	-2.207	0.0346			

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