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4	Common Marmoset (Callithrix jacchus) Personality
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#### Abstract

31 Increasing evidence suggests that personality structure differs between species, but the 32 evolutionary reasons for this variation are not fully understood. We built on earlier research 33 on New World monkeys to further elucidate the evolution of personality structure in primates. We therefore examined personality in 100 family-reared adult common marmosets 34 35 (Callithrix jacchus) from three colonies on a 60-item questionnaire. Principal components 36 analyses revealed five domains that were largely similar to those found in a previous study on captive, ex-pet, or formerly laboratory-housed marmosets that were housed in a sanctuary. 37 38 The interrater reliabilities of domain scores were consistent with the interrater reliabilities of 39 domain scores found in other species, including humans. Four domains---conscientiousness, 40 agreeableness, inquisitiveness, and assertiveness---resembled personality domains identified in other nonhuman primates. The remaining domain, patience, was specific to common 41 42 marmosets. We used linear models to test for sex and age differences in the personality domains. Males were lower than females in patience, and this difference was smaller in older 43 44 marmosets. Older marmosets were lower in inquisitiveness. Finally, older males and younger 45 females had higher scores in agreeableness than younger males and older females. These findings suggest that cooperative breeding may have promoted the evolution of social 46 47 cognition and influenced the structure of marmoset prosocial personality characteristics. 48

49 Keywords: marmoset, personality, primates, cooperative breeding

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# Introduction

51	Individuals of a species can be described by personality traits associated with
52	dispersal, survival, offspring survival, cooperation, and cognitive ability (Sih & Del Giudice,
53	2012; Wolf & Weissing, 2012; Smith & Blumstein, 2008). Correlations among these traits
54	are known as behavioral syndromes (Sih et al., 2004), evolutionary characters (Araya-Ajoy &
55	Dingemanse, 2013), or personality components, factors, dimensions, or domains (Weiss &
56	Adams, 2013). These correlations suggest that personality traits are manifestations of one or
57	more underlying, latent processes. The species-specific personality structures defined by
58	traits are then products of natural selection and mechanistic links that maintain the
59	associations at species or population levels (e.g. Garamszegi et al., 2012; Dochtermann &
60	Dingemanse, 2013). Comparing personality structures across species can reveal ecological
61	and phylogenetic patterns of trait associations that hint at the functional bases of the traits
62	(Gosling & Graybeal, 2007; Weiss & Adams, 2013).
63	Unfortunately, many animal personality studies focus on a small number of traits,
64	such as aggression and boldness, and so an understanding of personality structure evolution is
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humans (Costa & McCrae, 1992). On the other hand, in bonobos, most traits related to
gregariousness and sociopositive behavior define a single factor, but a few related to
gregariousness define a small additional factor (Weiss et al., 2015). These findings suggest
that traits related to sociopositive behavior and gregariousness were fused in the common
ancestor of platyrrhines and catarrhines, that the pattern in orangutans, chimpanzees,
bonobos, and humans is derived, and that the bonobo pattern possibly represents a
transitionary form, ancestral to African apes.

82 Personality studies of New World monkeys are a new direction for primate personality research (see, however, Byrne & Suomi, 2002), and have largely focused on 83 84 capuchin monkeys (Morton et al., 2013; Manson & Perry, 2013; but see Santillan-Doherty et 85 al., 2010 for spider monkeys, and Iwanicki & Lehmann, 2015; Šlipogor et al., 2016; and 86 Koski & Burkart, 2015 for common marmosets). One reason for the burgeoning interest in 87 studying New World monkey personality is that doing so helps to identify evolutionary scenarios that led to the emergence of personality structures. For example, by studying 88 89 common marmosets, a cooperatively breeding species, one can determine whether and how 90 cooperative breeding might influence the evolution of personality structure. Among 91 cooperatively breeding species, some adults forgo breeding for several years and remain in 92 the natal group to help carry, groom, and provision their infant siblings (Digby, 2007; 93 Yamamoto et al., 2014). In primates, cooperative breeding has been associated with behavioral and cognitive characteristics, including increased social tolerance and proactive 94 95 prosociality (Burkart et al., 2014: Schaffner & Caine, 2000), which facilitate performance in 96 socio-cognitive tasks (Burkart & van Schaik, 2010, 2016). For example, like great apes and 97 brown capuchin monkeys (Brosnan & de Waal, 2014; Anderson et al., 2013), common 98 marmosets appear to be able to detect fairness in reciprocal third-party acts (Kawai et al., 99 2014). Moreover, although high reproductive skew leads to competition and occasionally

100 escalated aggression in Callitrichids (Schaffner & Caine, 2000; Digby et al., 2007;

Yamamoto et al., 2014), aggression and conflict among individuals is infrequent and tends to
not damage social relationships (Schaffner et al., 2005).

103 We assessed personality in common marmosets (*Callithrix jacchus*). Ours is not the 104 first study of personality in a cooperatively breeding primate species. For one, humans are 105 believed to be a cooperatively breeding species (Hrdy, 2009; Kramer, 2015), and have been 106 the focus of the vast majority of personality research. One feature of human personality 107 models, such as the Five-Factor Model (Costa & McCrae, 1992), is the absence of an 108 independent personality domain related to competitive prowess. Instead, traits related to 109 competitive prowess are found in the Five-Factor domains of extraversion, agreeableness, 110 and neuroticism (Costa & McCrae, 1992; cf. Gosling & John, 1999). In contrast, traits related 111 to assertiveness and competitive prowess form an independent personality domain in 112 humans' closest living nonhuman relatives, chimpanzees (King & Figueredo, 1997) and 113 bonobos (Weiss et al., 2015). Another feature of human personality is that agreeableness is 114 defined by positive associations with traits related to helpfulness and prosociality and 115 negative associations with traits related to aggression and competitiveness (Costa & McCrae, 116 1992). Its counterparts in chimpanzees (King & Figueredo, 1997; Freeman et al., 2013), 117 bonobos (Weiss et al., 2015; Garai et al., 2016), orangutans (Weiss et al., 2006), and gorillas 118 (Gold & Maple, 1994), on the other hand, are defined only by traits related to sociopositivity. 119 These differences between the personality structures of humans and great apes suggest that a 120 combination of high assertiveness and aggressiveness may be disadvantageous in cooperative 121 breeders, and that combinations of sociopositive tendencies and low aggressiveness may be 122 advantageous in cooperative breeders.

A recent study of common marmosets lent support to the possibility that certain
combinations of traits may be selected for or against specifically due to cooperative breeding,

125 while other combinations may be due to a more general primate heritage. Iwanicki and 126 Lehmann (2015) used ratings and behavioral observations to study marmoset personality. The 127 ratings revealed an extraversion domain that resembled domains labeled confidence, 128 dominance, or assertiveness that have been found in other nonhuman primate species 129 (Freeman & Gosling, 2010), and conscientiousness and openness domains that resembled 130 like-named domains in chimpanzees (King & Figueredo, 1997), humans (Costa & McCrae, 131 1992; Digman, 1990), and bonobos (Weiss et al., 2015). Additionally, they found an 132 agreeableness domain that resembled its human counterpart, as it included positive loadings of prosocial traits and negative loadings of aggression. Moreover, Iwanicki and Lehmann's 133 134 behavioral observations that revealed agreeableness, neuroticism, and perceptual sensitivity 135 domains, showed that aggressive behavior was negatively correlated with agreeableness. 136 The identification of a conscientiousness domain in common marmosets is intriguing. 137 To date, conscientiousness and similar domains, such as attentiveness, have only been

138 identified in humans (Costa & McCrae, 1992), chimpanzees (King & Figueredo, 1997),

bonobos (Weiss et al., 2015), and brown capuchin monkeys (Morton et al. 2013), all known
for their advanced cognitive abilities. This finding is thus consistent with the hypothesis that
cooperative breeding favored an increase of marmosets' cognitive skills, at least in the social
domain, perhaps by selecting for increased social attentiveness (Burkart & van Schaik, 2016).

Our main aim was to further examine personality structure in common marmosets. To achieve this, we tested whether ratings of common marmosets on a broad questionnaire would yield evidence for domains resembling those uncovered by Iwanicki and Lehmann's (2015) study. Our sample differed from that of Iwanicki and Lehmann. The common marmosets in our sample were adults who had been parent-reared. Iwanicki and Lehmann's sample were former pets or former laboratory animals that were living in a sanctuary, and, furthermore, many had been hand- or foster-reared (35/63), and the sample included juveniles

150 (5/63) as well as adults. These differences are important. Pet monkeys often have abnormal 151 rearing histories and hand-rearing is known to affect behavior (Soulsbury et al., 2009). 152 Moreover, the curiosity and playfulness of juveniles may skew the personality profiles. As 153 such, this study will show the degree to which the personality domains found by Iwanicki and 154 Lehmann are not specific to their sample. 155 Our second aim was to examine sex- and age-differences in personality. Sex 156 differences in mean trait level or syndrome structure are found in many species (e.g. Schuett 157 & Dall, 2009; Michelangeli et al., 2016; Fresnau et al., 2014), including non-human primates 158 (King et al., 2008) and humans (McCrae et al., 2005). Previous research has not found any 159 differences between male and female common marmosets in experimentally assessed 160 personality traits (Koski & Burkart, 2015; Šlipogor et al., 2016). However, females of this 161 species have been described to be more responsive in contexts involving food (Box et al., 162 1997) and to explore novel objects in a foraging paradigm faster and more efficiently than 163 males (Yamamoto et al., 2004). Moreover, the patterns of prosocial behavior differ between male and female helpers: in males, but not females, prosociality is higher in older, more 164 experienced individuals (Burkart, 2015). This suggests that the previous studies may have 165 166 failed to capture sex differences or that these differences are not reflected in repeatable 167 personality traits.

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# Methods

169 Subjects

The subjects were 100 common marmosets that ranged in age from 2 to 14 years (M =6.36, SD = 3.05). Of these subjects, 51 were males that ranged in age from 2 to 14 years (M =6.02, SD = 3.03) and 49 females that ranged in age from 2 to 14 years (M = 6.71, SD = 3.06).

173 Housing and Husbandry

174 Subjects were housed at Dstl. Salisbury, United Kingdom, the University of Vienna,

Department of Cognitive Biology, Austria, and the University of Zürich, Anthropological
Institute Primate Research Station, Switzerland. All subjects were born, reared, and housed in
social groups. The study was approved after review by the Stirling University Psychology
Ethics Committee and complies with legal and ethical requirements in the UK.

179 United Kingdom. This subsample included 51 subjects (25 males, 26 females) that 180 were born at the facility. Twins and singletons were reared in their natal group, while triplets 181 received supplementary feeding sessions for 2h twice per day for the first 8 weeks of life, 182 spending the remainder of their time with the group. This practice has been shown to have 183 little to no effect on neophobia, anhedonia, nor performance on cognitive bias tasks (Ash & 184 Buchanan-Smith, 2016). Breeding marmosets (in groups of 2-10 individuals) were housed in 185 one of three family rooms, each containing 8-12 groups of marmosets, in cages measuring 186  $1.50m \times 1.20m \times 2.2m$ . Mixed-sex pairs were housed in one of three stock rooms, each 187 containing 10-18 pairs, in wire cages measuring  $1.0m \times 0.60m \times 1.80m$ . Cages were 188 furnished with a nestbox, branches and logs, ropes, platforms, and perches, as well as 189 suspended toys, including ladders, buckets, tea towels, hanging baskets, and food devices. 190 Each family/pair also had access to a veranda. Temperature was thermostatically controlled at 191 23-24°C and humidity at 55% (range 45-65%), with lighting provided on a 12:12 h light:dark 192 cycle. All marmosets had *ad libitum* access to water. Primate pellets were given between 193 08:00-09:00, and a variety of fruit was provided between 13:30 and 14:30. Malt loaf, egg, 194 rusk, dates, peanuts, and bread were provided on alternate days. Gum arabic and banana 195 milkshake were both given twice a week. Mealworms and forage mix were also scattered 196 twice a week. Wet shavings were picked up each week, with a full cage clean every 8 weeks 197 in breeding rooms, and every 4 weeks in stock rooms. Each marmoset was weighed once a 198 month. New enrichment was provided once a week, including food parcels, boxes, and 199 mealworm feeders. Each family had access to a 'play cage' for 3 days each, while stock pairs

were provided with a 'bug box'. Every animal was syringe trained once a month, and human
socialization was carried out regularly. Housing and husbandry was in accordance with
relevant national legislation.

203 The University of Vienna. This subsample included 21 subjects (12 males, 9 204 females) housed in 3 social groups consisting of a breeding pair and their offspring. All 205 individuals were born in captivity and housed in their family groups. Every family group 206 lived in a wire mesh indoor enclosure connected with a passageway system of tunnels with 207 moveable doors to an outdoor enclosure  $(2.50 \times 2.50 \times 2.50 \text{ m indoors}; 2.50 \times 2.50 \times 2.50 \text{ m})$ 208 outdoors). All enclosures had enrichment objects (branches, ropes, platforms, blankets, 209 sleeping boxes, and tunnels), with wood shavings as floor bedding. An opaque plastic barrier 210 prevented visual contact between adjacent family groups, while the groups remained in 211 acoustic and olfactory contact. Daylight was the main source of lighting, but, because of the 212 low amount of natural light in winter, lamps were maintained on a stable 12:12h light:dark 213 cycle. In addition, one heating lamp per family group was always available on top of each 214 enclosure. Temperature was maintained at 24-26°C and humidity was kept at 40-60%. All 215 marmosets had *ad libitum* access to water and were fed every day at noon with a selection of 216 marmoset pellets, fruits, vegetables, grains, milk products, marmoset jelly, protein and 217 vitamin supplements, and insects. Several times per week monkeys received either a foraging 218 box with mealworms or marmoset gum on the branches. The housing conditions were in 219 accordance with Austrian legislation and the European Association of Zoos and Aquaria 220 husbandry guidelines for Callitrichidae.

The University of Zurich. This subsample included 28 subjects (14 males, 14
females) housed in 6 social groups consisting of a breeding pair and 1 to 4 adult offspring.
All individuals were born in the facility and reared by their natural parents in family groups.
Subjects were housed in large indoor-outdoor enclosures comprising one or several basic

225	units ( $2m \times 1m \times 2m$ indoors; $2.75m \times 1.70m$ or $2.50m \times 2.40m$ outdoors). The enclosures
226	included ropes, branches, and other enrichment devices, and were covered with natural
227	bedding material. Both indoor and outdoor enclosures had heating lamps. Subjects had almost
228	continuously free access to both enclosures, except during the necessary husbandry routines,
229	at outside temperature < 5°C, and at night. They were fed three times a day with a diet of
230	carbohydrate-rich mush enriched with vitamins and minerals, fruit, vegetables, gum, insects,
231	boiled egg, and nuts. Water was available ad libitum. The housing conditions were in
232	accordance with Swiss legislation and the European Association of Zoos and Aquaria
233	husbandry guidelines for Callitrichidae.
234	Ratings
235	Eighteen researchers or animal keepers (6 in the United Kingdom, 5 in Austria, and 7
236	in Switzerland) with one to thirteen years of familiarity with the subjects rated the marmosets
237	on a personality questionnaire. In the United Kingdom and in Switzerland, each subject was
238	rated by 2 people, and in Austria, each subject was rated by 5 people.
239	The personality questionnaire consisted of 60 items. Each item consisted of an
240	adjective paired with a brief definition that set it in the context of marmoset behavior (see
241	Table S1). For example, the item 'helpful' was defined as "Monkey is willing to assist,
242	accommodate to, or cooperate with other monkeys." Because of a clerical error, one item
243	(unemotional) was included twice. For our analyses, we omitted ratings on the second
244	occurrence of this item. Of the 59 items, 47 were taken from the Hominoid Personality
245	Questionnaire <sup>[1]</sup> (Weiss et al., 2009), which, together with its predecessors (King &
246	Figueredo, 1997; Weiss et al., 2006), and offshoots (Konečná et al., 2008, 2012; Iwanicki &
247	Lehman, 2015), has been used to assess personality in several nonhuman primate species
248	(Weiss, 2017). A further 12 items were taken from a questionnaire used to study Hanuman
249	langurs (Konečná et al., 2008) and Barbary macaque personality (Konečná et al., 2012).

The instructions on the questionnaire asked raters to judge subjects based on their overall impressions of that monkey, to assign a rating of 1 (absence of a trait) to 7 (extreme presence of a trait) for each trait, and to not discuss their ratings with other raters. To minimize misunderstandings by German-speaking raters in Austria and Switzerland, we translated the questionnaire into German and the raters had the forms available in both languages at all times.

256 Analyses

We used two intraclass correlations (*ICCs*) to determine how consistent raters were in their ratings of each item. The first of these, *ICC*(3,1), indicates the reliability of ratings by any single judge. The second, *ICC*(3,k), measures the reliability of the mean rating of kjudges (Shrout & Fleiss, 1979).

261 As in previous studies (e.g. Morton et al., 2013), for reliable items, we used principal 262 components analysis to examine the personality structure of the mean ratings across all raters. 263 To determine how many components to extract, we inspected the scree plot and used parallel analysis (Horn, 1965). We then subjected our components to an orthogonal (varimax) and 264 265 oblique (promax) rotation. If the varimax and promax rotations yielded similar components 266 and the interfactor correlations were modest, we interpreted the varimax rotation. If the two 267 rotations yielded different components or the inter-factor correlations were moderate to large, 268 we interpreted the promax rotation.

We then computed unit-weighted component scores (Gorsuch, 1984) to be used in our final analyses. This involved our assigning weights of 0 to component loadings less than |0.4|, weights of +1 to component loadings greater than or equal to 0.4, and weights of -1 to component loadings that were less than or equal to -0.4. In the event that an item had multiple loadings greater than or equal to |0.4| we assigned the weight to the component on which the item had the highest absolute loading. We then transformed these raw unit-weighted scores

275	into z-scores (mean = 0, $SD = 1$ ). In the first of the two final analyses we ascertained the
276	interrater reliabilities of the domains, again using $ICC(3,1)$ and $ICC(3,k)$ . In the second of
277	these analyses we used five multiple regressions (one for each personality domain) to test for
278	sex and age effects. Here the component score was the dependent variable and the
279	independent variables were sex (-1 for females, +1 for males), age (mean centered), and a
280	product term representing the sex $\times$ age interaction.
281	We conducted all analyses using version 3.3.2 of R (R Core Team, 2016). Parallel
282	analysis and principal components analysis were conducted using the fa.parallel and principal
283	functions from the psych package (Revelle, 2015), respectively. Multiple regressions were
284	conducted using the lm function.
285	Results
286	Out of Range and Missing Data
287	One rater of one marmoset in Austria assigned a "0" to a single item and 5 raters of 24
288	marmosets in the United Kingdom assigned a "0" to up to 12 ratings, each. Combined, across
289	25 marmosets, 90 items were assigned a rating of "0". We assigned a "1" to these ratings. In
290	addition, for the marmosets housed in the United Kingdom, one rater did not rate two
291	marmosets on a single trait, each, a second did not rate one marmoset on a single trait, and a
292	third did not rate three marmosets on a single trait, each, and one marmoset on two traits. For
293	the marmosets housed in Austria, one rater did not rate two marmosets on a single trait, each.
294	For the marmosets housed in Switzerland, one rater did not rate one marmosets on two traits.
295	In all 12 of these cases we substituted the mean value of the trait across all marmosets in the
296	study.
297	Item Interrater Reliabilities

# 297 Item Interrater Reliabilities

The interrater reliabilities for all the items are available in Table S2. The interrater reliabilities of the items 'manipulative' and 'conventional' were below 0. *ICC*(3,1) estimates

300 for the remaining items ranged from 0.01 for 'popular' to 0.37 for 'gentle', and the mean and 301 standard deviation of the ICC(3,1) estimates for these items were 0.20 and 0.09, respectively. 302 The interrater reliabilities of single ratings were lower but within the range of those in studies 303 of humans and other species (Morton et al., 2013; Weiss et al., 2011, 2015; Mõttus et al., 304 2017) and considered as acceptable (e.g. Mõttus et al., 2014). ICC(3,k) estimates for the items 305 with reliabilities greater than 0 ranged from 0.03 for 'popular' to 0.60 for 'gentle' and the 306 mean and standard deviation of the ICC(3,k) estimates for these items were 0.38 and 0.14, 307 respectively. Note, that ICC(3,k) estimates are not typically compared between studies 308 because they will, in part, vary as a function of how many raters there were per subject 309 whereas ICC(3,1) estimates do not.

### 310 Personality Structure

311 Parallel analysis and examination of the scree plot indicated that there were five 312 components with eigenvalues equal to 16.09, 8.04, 4.84, 4.13, and 2.71, which accounted for 313 63% of the variance. To be certain that the five-component solution was best we also 314 extracted six components (see Tables S3 and S4). The sixth component had an eigenvalue of 315 1.84. After applying a varimax rotation, only the items 'selective' and 'stingy' had unique, 316 salient loadings on that component (0.50 and 0.49, respectively). After applying a promax 317 rotation, only the items 'selective', 'stingy', and 'alert' had unique, salient loadings on that 318 component (0.53, 0.52, and -0.40, respectively). The sixth component was thus 319 uninterpretable and so we retained a five-component solution. 320 For the five-component solution, because there were only minor differences between 321 varimax and promax solutions (all congruence coefficients  $\geq 0.97$ ) and the absolute 322 correlations between components were modest (range = 0.03 to 0.39, M = 0.13, SD = 0.12), 323 we retained the varimax-rotated solution (see Table S5 for the promax-rotated solution and 324 the correlations between components). Finally, we compared the five varimax-rotated

325	components to five varimax-rotated factors (see Table S6). The component and factor
326	structures were virtually identical (all congruence coefficients $\geq 0.99$ ).
327	The five varimax-rotated components are presented in Table 1. For ease of
328	interpretation, we reflected the first, third, and fifth components by multiplying loadings by -
329	1. The first component resembled conscientiousness domains found in common marmosets
330	(Iwanicki & Lehmann, 2015), chimpanzees (King & Figueredo, 1997; Weiss et al., 2007;
331	Weiss et al., 2009; King et al., 2005), and bonobos (Weiss et al., 2015), though it was broader
332	than the chimpanzee and bonobo conscientiousness domains as it also encompassed traits
333	related to play behavior. This component thus described differences in low antagonism, high
334	self-control, and low playfulness, and we therefore named it 'conscientiousness'.
335	The second component described high levels of sociopositive and prosocial traits, and
336	thus was a mix of traits related to the extraversion and agreeableness domains in humans
337	(Costa & McCrae, 1992), chimpanzees (King & Figueredo, 1997), and orangutans (Weiss et
338	al., 2006). Similar to the agreeableness domain found by Iwanicki and Lehmann (2015), this
339	component included negative loadings of socio-negative traits such as 'aggressive' and
340	'irritable'. Thus, it differed from bonobo agreeableness (Weiss et al., 2015), brown capuchin
341	monkey sociability (Morton et al., 2013), and the friendliness domain found in various
342	macaque species (Adams et al., 2015; Weiss et al., 2011). In light of these comparisons, we
343	named this component 'agreeableness'.
344	The third component was defined by loadings on items related to assertiveness,
345	dominance, such as a positive loading of 'dominant' and a negative loading of 'submissive',
346	but also by negative loadings on traits related to anxiety, vulnerability, and vigilance, such as
347	'fearful' and 'cautious'. This component was thus similar to the extraversion domain found in
348	the previous study of marmosets (Iwanicki & Lehmann, 2015) and domains labeled
349	dominance, confidence, and assertiveness in other nonhuman primate species (Freeman &

Gosling, 2010). We thus named this component 'assertiveness'.

351 The fourth component was characterized by items related to attentiveness in brown 352 capuchin monkeys (Morton et al., 2013) and in bonobos (Weiss et al., 2015). For example, 353 'patient' had a positive loading on this component and 'distractible' had a negative loading 354 on this component. It also included positive loadings from items related to sociopositive 355 behaviors, such as 'sensitive' and 'sympathetic', and problem solving, such as 'inventive' 356 and 'intelligent'. This component is thus different from the domains identified by Iwanicki 357 and Lehmann (2015) and appears to not have been found in other nonhuman primates. We 358 tentatively named this component 'patience'.

The fifth component was characterized by positive and negative loadings of traits related to activity, such as 'active' and 'lazy', respectively, positive loadings on traits related to exploratory behavior, such as 'inquisitive', a negative loading on 'solitary', and a positive loading on a trait related to vigilance ('alert'). It thus strongly resembled the openness domain identified by Iwanicki and Lehmann (2015). It also resembles the orangutan extraversion domain (Weiss et al., 2006), which was characterized by traits related to gregariousness and exploratory behavior. We named this component 'inquisitiveness'.

366 **Component Interrater Reliabilities** 

367 The interrater reliabilities of individual ratings for conscientiousness, sociability,

assertiveness, patience, and inquisitiveness were 0.41, 0.44, 0.32, 0.39, and 0.26,

respectively, and thus comparable to those derived in humans (McCrae & Costa, 1987) and in

nonhuman primates (Weiss et al., 2011, 2015). The interrater reliabilities of mean ratings for

these components were 0.65, 0.68, 0.56, 0.63, and 0.48, respectively.

372 Sex and Age Effects

The effects of sex, age, and the sex × age interaction are presented in Table 2. For conscientiousness, males were lower than females, but this effect was negligible and not

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375 significant. Moreover, older subjects were lower in conscientiousness, but this effect was not
376 significant. The sex × age interaction was also not significant.

For agreeableness, males were slightly higher than females and older subjects were higher in sociability, but neither of these effects was significant. There was a significant sex × age interaction: among males, older subjects were higher in agreeableness whereas among females, younger individuals were higher in agreeableness (b = 0.07, 95% CI = 0.03, 0.01, p= 0.029). However, given the number of statistical tests and the non-significant sex and age effects, this effect may be a false positive and should be treated with caution.

For assertiveness, males and older subjects scored lower than females and younger
subjects, respectively, but neither of these effects were significant. The sex × age interaction
was also not significant.

For patience, males scored significantly lower than females (b = -0.30, 95% CI = -0.48, -0.11, p = 0.002). Although older subjects were lower in patience, the effect of age was not significant. There was, however, a significant sex × age interaction indicating that the difference between males and females was smaller among older subjects (b = 0.07, 95% CI = 0.01, 0.14, p = 0.020).

For inquisitiveness, males and older subjects were lower, but only the effect of age was significant (b = -0.13, 95% CI = -0.19, -0.07, p < 0.001). The sex × age interaction was not significant.

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### Discussion

We asked individuals familiar with 100 common marmosets to rate them on 59
personality traits. Their ratings revealed five domains---conscientiousness, agreeableness,
assertiveness, patience, and inquisitiveness---that resembled domains found in a previous
study of common marmosets (Iwanicki & Lehmann, 2015).

399 Conscientiousness resembled domains found in humans (Digman, 1990; Costa &

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400 McCrae, 1992) and in cognitively advanced nonhuman primates, such as chimpanzees (King 401 & Figueredo, 1997), brown capuchin monkeys (Morton et al., 2013), and bonobos (Weiss et 402 al., 2015). As such, this finding supports Iwanicki and Lehmann's (2015) finding in 403 marmosets, and indicates that marmosets have relatively advanced cognitive skills. 404 Particularly social cognition is advanced in marmosets. It may be favored due to the need for 405 increased social attentiveness and tolerance, as cooperative breeding requires an ability to 406 coordinate cooperative actions and to pay attention to others' actions and needs (Burkart & 407 van Schaik, 2010, 2016).

408 Assertiveness resembled domains found in several nonhuman primate species 409 (Freeman & Gosling, 2010) and corroborated Iwanicki and Lehmann's (2015) earlier finding 410 of a personality domain related to dominance in common marmosets. This finding lends 411 further support to the notion that domains like dominance, confidence, or assertiveness are 412 universal features of personality in nonhuman primates (see, e.g., Freeman & Gosling, 2010). Apparently, the association of traits related to assertiveness and boldness is not selected 413 414 against in marmosets. Thus, cooperative breeding has perhaps not been the main driver of the 415 human pattern, where traits associated with assertiveness are found within the extraversion, 416 agreeableness, and neuroticism domains.

417 Inquisitiveness captured an association of curiosity, activity, exploration, and 418 vigilance. It was thus like the openness domain in the study of marmosets by Iwanicki and 419 Lehmann (2015), and resembled the openness domain in brown capuchin monkeys (Morton 420 et al., 2013). Similar domains that capture the association of activity and exploratory 421 tendency have been identified in Old World monkeys, including vervet monkeys (McGuire et 422 al, 1994) and rhesus macaques (Weiss et al., 2011), and in great apes, including chimpanzees 423 (King & Figueredo, 1997; Weiss et al., 2007, 2009) and bonobos (Weiss et al. 2015). As 424 such, it is likely that this domain may also be a universal primate personality domain. In

425 contrast, we did not find anything resembling the perceptual sensitivity domain, which 426 captured activity, vigilance, and time spent foraging relative to feeding, that was identified 427 using behavioral data (Iwanicki & Lehmann, 2015). Interestingly, in the Iwanicki & 428 Lehmann's (2015) study the items vigilance and activity were captured by the openness 429 domain, as was the case in our study, but openness did not correlate with perceptual 430 sensitivity. This suggests that the behavioral measures of activity and vigilance are not 431 assessing the same constructs as are ratings of those items. Therefore, in the future studies it 432 would be useful to assess the criterion validity of the openness and vigilance related items 433 and behaviors (see below) and address the implication of such differences between the 434 methods.

Of the remaining domains, agreeableness encompassed mostly prosocial personality
characteristics and, negatively, loadings on traits related to aggression. This finding supports
further the similarity in marmoset and human agreeableness identified earlier by Iwanicki and
Lehmann (2015), and implies that sociopositive traits of gregariousness and prosociality
associated with low aggressiveness may be adaptive in cooperative breeders.

440 Finally, the patience domain appeared to be unique to common marmosets. It included 441 characteristics related to a socio-positive orientation, attentiveness, inventiveness, and focus. 442 The existence of this domain, then, suggests that there was selection for a positive correlation 443 between prosocial traits and traits related to persistence and cognitive performance. However, the agreeableness domain also captured prosocial traits, thus, socio-positive and helpful 444 445 characteristics are not unidimensional in marmosets. One possibility is that the patience 446 domain is akin to the "helping syndrome", i.e., the positive association of repeatable 447 prosocial behaviors directed to offspring, found in mongooses (Mungos mungo) and meerkats 448 (Suricata suricatta). However, in marmosets, the prosocial characteristics in patience are not 449 those related to actual helping, which are found in agreeableness, but those related to

450 discerning others' needs and responding to them kindly.

451 Another possibility is that feeding ecology may have led to the emergence of a 452 patience domain. Feeding ecology has proven an important driver of behavioral and brain 453 evolution in nonhuman primates (e.g. DeCasien et al., 2017; MacLean et al., 2014). For 454 marmosets, one possibility is that the evolution of the patience domain was favored by gum 455 feeding, namely as gum is an embedded food source and takes time and effort to extract. 456 Such a foraging strategy may promote cognition and curiosity (Burkart et al, 2016; Schuppli 457 et al., 2016, Stevens et al. 2005). Extractive foraging is suggested to favor an association of 458 exploration tendency and persistence (Massen et al., 2013). In our study we found that, 459 although inquisitiveness and patience domains were not correlated (Table S5), two traits that 460 defined inquisitiveness, 'exploratory' and 'inquisitive', had strong loadings on patience, too. 461 Another possibility is that the patience domain emerged in response to insectivory. Flushing 462 out insects and capturing fast moving prey presumably requires inquisitiveness and patience, 463 respectively. To test which of these hypotheses is supported requires a phylogenetic analysis 464 of primate and non-primate species that differ in their socioecologies and feeding ecologies, 465 that have been assessed on a large number of traits. However, the proposed hypotheses need 466 not be mutually exclusive, as marmoset prosociality entails proactive food sharing (Burkart et 467 al., 2007, 2014), so both obtaining and provisioning food items may favor the positive 468 associations of traits found in the patience domain.

In sum, the present findings mostly resemble those in a previous study of common marmosets (Iwanicki & Lehmann, 2015), despite the marmosets in the current study having different rearing histories and being rated by a somewhat different and much longer questionnaire. Although there were also differences in cage size and complexity in the current study, which may affect behavior (Kitchen & Martin, 1995: common marmosets), it is unlikely that the smaller cages of the UK colony influenced personality significantly, as these

475 were still relatively large, enriched enclosures allowing opportunities for natural behavior. As 476 such, this study supports the generalizability of personality structure in humans (McCrae et al., 2005) and in chimpanzees (Dutton, 2008; King et al., 2005; Weiss et al., 2007, 2009; 477 478 Freeman et al., 2013) across different samples. We also found that cooperative breeding may 479 have led to a conscientiousness-like domain in common marmosets, which may be related to 480 cooperative breeding affecting the evolution of increased social attention and cognition. 481 Further, we hypothesize that cooperative breeding may have promoted an inverse association 482 between aggression and prosociality in humans, as we found a similar pattern in marmosets. Finally, we hypothesize that cooperative breeding may have led to the emergence of a unique 483 484 patience domain in common marmosets. To test these hypotheses, further, comparative 485 studies of callitrichids and more generally, cooperatively breeding primates, are warranted. It 486 would be particularly beneficial if the studies would also include behavioral measures and 487 experiments to complement the questionnaires.

488 Iwanicki and Lehmann (2015) found evidence of agreement between behavioral and 489 rated measures, most strongly concerning rated agreeableness and the behavioral measures of 490 prosociality and aggression. In contrast, openness and assertiveness, which were obtained 491 from ratings, were not correlated with any behavioral measures, bar play and self-grooming. 492 Several studies on other primate species have assessed the construct validity of questionnaires 493 (Pederson et al., 2005; Morton et al., 2013; Konečná et al., 2012; Uher & Asendorpf, 2008; 494 Freeman et al., 2013), and the results are mixed with some, but not all, constructs showing 495 correlations between conceptually similar behavioral measures of the same animals. 496 Correspondence of rated components and measured behaviors tends be better in studies on 497 ape personality (Eckardt et al., 2015; Pederson et al., 2005; Freeman et al., 2013). As has 498 been discussed elsewhere (e.g., Uher, 2008; Uher et al., 2008; Koski, 2011b), this may be 499 because the rating method depends on the degree to which people can intuitively aggregate

500 the study species' behavior into meaningful categories. This may be more difficult for species 501 that are taxonomically distant from humans; however, at least in primates, the structures 502 derived using behavioral measures and ratings are often highly similar (compare, for 503 example, Table 3 in Neumann et al., 2013 and Table S6 in Adams et al., 2015 or Table 6 in 504 Morton et al., 2013 and Table 3 in Uher & Visalberghi, 2016). Moreover, construct validation 505 typically is post-hoc without predictions of the expected correlations (but see Eckardt et al., 506 2015 and Uher et al., 2008). We thus urge future researchers to *a priori* consider what 507 correlations one should and should not expect based on the functions of these behaviors in the 508 species of interest.

509 We found few age- or sex-related differences in the component scores. Inquisitiveness

510 was lower in older individuals, which is consistent with findings in, for example,

511 chimpanzees (Massen et al., 2013) and humans (Roberts et al., 2006). We also found a

512 significant sex by age interaction for agreeableness: older males and younger females had

513 higher scores than younger males and older females. This result is consistent with sex

514 differences in the amount of prosocial behavior in male and female helpers: rearing

515 experience and age increase proactive behavior in male and decrease it in female helpers

516 (Burkart, 2015). These patterns are probably related to the fact that, among callithrichids,

517 female helpers are more likely to disperse as they get older whereas males are more likely to

518 inherit the breeding position in their natal groups (Yamamoto et al., 2014).

519

### Conclusion

We found that marmosets present three personality domains like those in other primates, that is, agreeableness, assertiveness, and inquisitiveness, a conscientiousness domain that has been found in great apes and brown capuchin monkeys in addition to marmosets, and a domain, patience, that may have come about via selection for correlations between traits related to prosociality, intelligence, and persistence. Together, these findings

525	suggest that the selection pressures related to cooperative breeding may have influenced
526	personality evolution in this species.
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 742
 Table 1

 743
 Varimation

743 Varimax-Rotated Component Loadings

ν απιπαχ-κοιαιθά	Component Loudings	

Item	Con*	Agr	Ass*	Pat	Inq*	$h^2$
Thoughtless	-0.81	-0.15	-0.20	-0.07	-0.01	0.72
Bullying	-0.80	-0.32	0.16	-0.02	-0.04	0.78
Clumsy	-0.80	-0.08	-0.23	0.04	-0.26	0.77
Eccentric	-0.79	-0.14	-0.09	0.16	-0.15	0.71
Reckless	-0.76	-0.39	0.13	-0.07	0.12	0.77
Disorganized	-0.72	0.02	-0.11	-0.07	-0.22	0.59
Imitative	-0.70	-0.01	-0.27	-0.11	0.17	0.61
Erratic	-0.69	-0.28	-0.25	-0.01	-0.11	0.63
Jealous	-0.69	-0.36	0.14	0.13	0.08	0.64
Aggressive	-0.68	-0.51	-0.02	0.03	-0.05	0.74
Irritable	-0.67	-0.56	0.00	0.05	-0.05	0.77
Impulsive	-0.66	-0.45	0.09	-0.04	0.09	0.65
Excitable	-0.63	-0.55	-0.15	-0.03	-0.01	0.72
Unperceptive	-0.61	-0.09	0.00	-0.30	-0.24	0.53
Socially playful	-0.58	0.16	-0.46	0.10	0.34	0.71
Depressed	-0.56	-0.12	-0.44	0.21	-0.43	0.75
Stingy	-0.53	-0.32	0.30	0.02	0.05	0.48
Playful	-0.51	0.02	-0.45	0.21	0.40	0.67
Assertive	-0.48	-0.29	0.46	0.03	0.15	0.55
Friendly	0.20	0.84	-0.08	0.10	0.07	0.76
Equable	0.25	0.74	0.18	-0.01	-0.08	0.65
Affectionate	0.23	0.73	0.00	0.14	0.04	0.61
Permissive	0.47	0.68	0.03	-0.08	-0.10	0.70
Gentle	0.56	0.67	0.00	0.05	-0.06	0.76
Sociable	0.00	0.63	0.04	-0.12	0.36	0.54
Popular	0.10	0.62	0.41	-0.08	0.09	0.59
Helpful	0.14	0.62	-0.17	0.24	-0.12	0.50
Predictable	0.00	0.55	0.16	-0.09	-0.11	0.35
Unemotional	0.18	0.54	0.17	-0.20	-0.08	0.39
Protective	0.21	0.50	0.02	0.12	-0.13	0.32
Cautious	0.02	0.07	-0.76	-0.03	-0.31	0.68
Dependent	-0.15	-0.01	-0.75	-0.15	0.06	0.61
Dominant	-0.33	-0.06	0.75	-0.03	-0.03	0.67
Independent	-0.09	0.22	0.73	0.15	-0.07	0.62
Confident	0.08	0.24	0.72	0.15	0.28	0.69
Timid	-0.25	-0.31	-0.71	-0.08	-0.29	0.76
Submissive	-0.23	0.10	-0.71	0.10	-0.11	0.58
Fearful	-0.30	-0.41	-0.68	-0.08	-0.13	0.75
Tense	-0.26	-0.44	-0.57	-0.12	-0.27	0.67
Anxious	-0.42	-0.37	-0.57	0.03	-0.39	0.79

Vulnerable	-0.56	-0.21	-0.56	0.16	-0.31	0.79
Selective	-0.39	-0.03	0.44	0.17	-0.09	0.38
Sympathetic	0.09	0.35	-0.43	0.40	-0.23	0.52
Distractible	-0.22	0.05	-0.22	-0.78	0.02	0.71
Quitting	-0.26	0.08	-0.23	-0.76	-0.09	0.71
Intelligent	-0.07	0.01	0.02	0.75	0.22	0.62
Inventive	-0.23	-0.19	-0.23	0.66	0.27	0.65
Sensitive	-0.11	0.34	-0.14	0.66	-0.13	0.60
Persistent	-0.40	0.02	0.18	0.65	0.11	0.63
Patient	0.32	0.47	0.10	0.50	-0.04	0.59
Lazy	-0.16	0.36	-0.05	-0.02	-0.68	0.62
Exploratory	0.08	-0.01	0.18	0.38	0.67	0.64
Inquisitive	0.02	0.00	0.29	0.39	0.65	0.66
Active	-0.09	-0.46	-0.17	-0.10	0.61	0.63
Opportunistic	-0.25	-0.21	0.34	0.31	0.53	0.60
Solitary	-0.21	-0.25	-0.15	0.01	-0.49	0.36
Alert	0.05	0.00	0.33	-0.02	0.43	0.30
Proportion of variance	0.20	0.14	0.14	0.08	0.07	

Note. Con = Conscientiousness, Agr = Agreeableness, Ass = Assertiveness, Pat = Patience, Inq = Inquisitiveness,  $h^2$  = communality. Bold typeface indicates loadings  $\geq$  than |.4|. \*Loadings of this factor were reflected. 

# 749 750 751 Table 2

The linear effects of sex and age on the component scores

			95% CI			
	b	SE	2.5%	97.5%	t	р
Conscientiousness						
Intercept	0.01	0.10	-0.19	0.21	0.14	.889
Sex	-0.01	0.10	-0.21	0.19	-0.07	.941
Age	-0.04	0.03	-0.11	0.02	-1.28	.204
$Sex \times Age$	0.04	0.03	-0.03	0.11	1.21	.229
Agreeableness						
Intercept	0.02	0.10	-0.17	0.22	0.23	.817
Sex	0.11	0.10	-0.09	0.30	1.09	.277
Age	0.05	0.03	-0.02	0.11	1.49	.140
Sex × Age	0.07	0.03	0.01	0.14	2.21	.02
Assertiveness						
Intercept	0.01	0.10	-0.19	0.21	0.11	.90
Sex	-0.11	0.10	-0.31	0.09	-1.09	.27
Age	-0.03	0.03	-0.09	0.04	-0.76	.44
$Sex \times Age$	0.03	0.03	-0.04	0.09	0.81	.42
Patience						
Intercept	0.03	0.09	-0.16	0.22	0.33	.74
Sex	-0.30	0.09	-0.48	-0.11	-3.13	.00
Age	-0.05	0.03	-0.11	0.01	-1.50	.13
$Sex \times Age$	0.07	0.03	0.01	0.14	2.36	.02
Inquisitiveness						
Intercept	0.01	0.09	-0.18	0.19	0.06	.952
Sex	-0.15	0.09	-0.34	0.04	-1.59	.11:
Age	-0.13	0.03	-0.19	-0.07	-4.11	<.00
$Sex \times Age$	0.01	0.03	-0.05	0.07	0.25	.802