

1 **Stereotypic behaviours are heterogeneous in their triggers and treatments in the American mink**
2 **(*Neovison vison*) — a model Carnivore**

3
4 Stereotypic behaviours (SBs) are common in confined animals including captive Carnivora. These display
5 diverse forms of SB: often whole-body movements (e.g., pacing), but also head-only movements (e.g.,
6 head-twirling) and “scrabbling” (scratching at enclosure boundaries). Although often pooled together,
7 emerging evidence indicates that SBs are heterogeneous, suggesting that subtypes differ in their causes,
8 triggers, and consequently treatments. In mink, a model Carnivore, scrabbling seems to be elicited by
9 neighbouring conspecifics. We tested this hypothesis *via* three studies of 32 males (individually-caged in
10 rows, and separated by solid partitions). Study 1 investigated whether neighbour proximity affects the
11 location of any SBs, and Study 2, whether removing neighbours reduces any SBs. Results revealed that
12 although mink typically avoided proximity to their neighbours, scrabbling was uniquely directed towards
13 neighbours who were close to the shared cage partition ($Z < 3.59$, $P < 0.05$). It was also the only SB
14 significantly elevated by having all-male neighbours, and reduced by removing neighbours ($Z < 2.75$, P
15 < 0.05). Study 3 then investigated whether environmental enrichment – a standard SB treatment – would
16 reduce or abolish different SBs equally, to assess whether scrabbling is simply easier to alleviate than
17 other SBs. Enrichment reduced all SB subtypes ($Z = 4.38$, $P < 0.05$), but logistic regressions revealed that
18 the odds of complete abolition were higher for whole-body ($OR < 10.09$, $P < 0.05$) and head-only SBs (OR
19 < 28.73 , $P < 0.01$) than for scrabbling. Overall, these naturally solitary Carnivores thus seem to avoid
20 conspecific proximity, but they specifically direct their stereotypic scrabbling at neighbours; and their
21 scrabbling is reduced by neighbour-removal, while their whole-body and head-only SBs are instead better
22 alleviated with enrichment. Understanding that Carnivore SBs are heterogeneous in their triggers and
23 most effective treatments may help zoos, breeding centres and mink farms improve the design of their
24 enclosures and the efficacy of their enrichments.

25

26 **Keywords:** stereotypic behaviour, American mink, animal welfare, abnormal repetitive behaviour,
27 causation, environmental enrichment, husbandry, housing, conspecifics
28
29 Stereotypic behaviours (SBs) are repetitive behaviours common in barren environments (e.g., Mason,
30 1991; Shyne, 2006; Swaisgood & Shepherdson, 2005). Typically indicative of poor welfare (e.g.,
31 Gottlieb, Capitanio, & McCowan, 2013; Malmkvist, Jeppesen, & Palme, 2011; Mason & Latham, 2004),
32 they can sometimes reflect specific forms of brain dysfunction (as reviewed by Lewis, 2004) and even
33 predict poor reproductive success (Díez-León et al., 2013). For these reasons, as well as the poor public
34 image they convey (e.g., in zoos, Miller, 2012), SBs are commonly used in welfare assessments (e.g., for
35 fur-farmed mink and foxes: European Fur Breeders Association, EFBA, 2015). Likewise, in line with the
36 World Zoo and Aquarium Animal Welfare Strategy (Mellor, Hunt, & Gusset, 2015), zookeepers,
37 curators, and other animal care personnel typically work hard to reduce SBs by altering husbandry
38 routines and improving enclosure complexity: a tactic that often reduces them, but rarely eliminates them
39 (e.g., Shyne, 2006; Swaisgood & Shepherdson, 2005).

40 SBs, especially route-tracing, appear particularly common across the Carnivora, occurring in
41 every major family (Clubb & Mason, 2007; Kroshko et al., 2016; Swaisgood & Shepherdson, 2005).
42 American mink (*Neovison vison*) are ideal models for investigating Carnivore welfare and behaviour as
43 they are populous on fur farms, allowing researchers to observe numerous animals (and potentially
44 manipulate enclosures in ways that would be difficult in zoos). Furthermore, mink display a variety of
45 SBs similar to those displayed by other Carnivora. Thus they show the whole-body forms typical of this
46 taxon (e.g., pacing back and forth and whole-body bobbing: Mason, 1993; Svendsen, Palme, &
47 Malmkvist, 2013). They also display head-only forms (e.g., head-bobbing, head-twirling, and head-
48 weaving: Mason, 1993; Svendsen et al., 2013) that are similar to those reported in some bears (e.g.,
49 Asiatic black bears and Malayan sun bears: Tan et al., 2013; Vickery & Mason, 2004; polar bears: Ross,
50 2006; brown bears: Montaudouin & Pape, 2005). Finally, American mink (henceforth ‘mink’), like some
51 other captive mustelids, can also repeatedly scratch at enclosure walls with the front paws (“scrabbling”:

52 Hansen & Jeppesen, 2001; Morabito & Bashaw, 2012; Polanco, Campbell, Díez-León, & Mason, 2017).

53 We therefore used mink in a series of three experiments aimed at investigating the factors affecting these

54 different forms of Carnivora SB.

55 Since the 1960s, researchers have suggested that SBs are heterogeneous (e.g., Berkson, 1967;
56 Keiper, 1969; see also Mason, 1991, 1993; Mason & Turner, 1993). Emerging empirical evidence
57 supports this view: SBs vary in their links with other welfare indicators (e.g., Novak, Bailoo, Melotti, &
58 Würbel, 2016; Pomerantz, Paukner, & Terkel, 2012; Pomerantz, Terkel, Suomi, & Paukner, 2012); the
59 degree to which different environmental contexts enhance their development (Campbell, Dallaire, &
60 Mason, 2013; Gross, Engel, Richter, Garner, & Würbel, 2011; Jones, Mason, & Pillay, 2011; Tan et al.,
61 2013); their epidemiological risk factors in terms of both husbandry (Bashaw, Tarou, Maki, & Maple,
62 2001; Greco, Meehan, Heinsius, & Mench, 2017; Waters, Nicol, & French, 2002) and species-typical
63 behavioural biology (Kroshko et al., 2016; Pomerantz, Meiri, & Terkel, 2013); and finally, in whether
64 they are associated with generalised behavioural inflexibility (Kirsty, Andrew, Meriel, & Catherine, 2015;
65 Novak et al., 2016; Pomerantz, Paukner, et al., 2012). Despite this, most studies, including those of mink,
66 still pool SBs into one single, homogeneous category (e.g., Anderson, Arun, & Jensen, 2010; Hansen,
67 Møller, & Damgaard, 2011; Tilly, Dallaire, & Mason, 2010).

68 Recently, we found strong empirical evidence of SB heterogeneity in mink, with whole-body and
69 head-only SBs negatively correlating with each other and with scrabbling, potentially suggesting three
70 distinct subgroups with different causal bases (Polanco et al., 2017). This, in turn, suggests that diverse
71 methods might be best for reducing or preventing these different SB subtypes. If correct, such information
72 could help animal care personnel prevent and alleviate SBs more effectively in mink and other Carnivore
73 species. Indeed, despite previous studies examining SB triggers across different species (see Clubb &
74 Vickery, 2006 and Rose, Nash, & Riley, 2017 for reviews), no experiment to date has investigated the
75 triggers of different SBs within the same species. Furthermore, we know of only two experiments to
76 explicitly investigate the relative effectiveness of various environmental improvements on different forms
77 of SB, neither using pre-validated SB subtypes (instead categorising SBs informally by form). Keiper

78 (1969, 1970), working with canaries, found that route-tracing, but not stereotypic spot-picking, was
79 reduced by large aviary cages, swinging perches and group housing, while providing seed bells as
80 foraging enrichments uniquely reduced spot-picking. More recently, Malmkvist, Palme, Svendsen, &
81 Hansen (2013) found that biting ropes successfully reduced fur-chewing in mink, but not “locomotor”
82 SBs (a category pooling whole-body and head-only SBs), even though both SBs could be reduced by
83 supplying chunky feed. Here, we present three experiments that build on our previous work to investigate
84 whether: 1) different SB subtypes, already well-validated as distinct subgroups (Polanco et al., 2017),
85 differ in their environmental triggers, and 2) removing a neighbour and providing environmental
86 enrichment are equally or differentially effective at alleviating these different SBs.

87

88 **STUDY 1: NEIGHBOUR PROXIMITY**

89 One hypothesised underlying basis or trigger for some SBs is the frustration of motivations to reach
90 resources or other animals outside of the cage. For instance, elegant experiments on laboratory mice have
91 shown that bar-related SBs (e.g., bar-chewing and -sniffing) derive from motivations to escape the cage
92 and/or investigate environmental cues outside it (Nevison, Hurst, & Barnard, 1999, Lewis & Hurst,
93 2004). Likewise, in several Carnivores, SBs can occur at boundaries separating subjects from feeding
94 areas (Cless & Lukas, 2017) or conspecifics (Clubb & Vickery, 2006; Vickery & Mason, 2004). For
95 instance, some farmed silver fox (*Vulpes vulpes*) and blue fox (*Alopex lagopus*) SBs are performed in
96 parallel with those of foxes in neighbouring cages (European Commission, 2001). Likewise, pacing
97 occurs against fences separating adult conspecifics from each other in cheetahs (*Acinonyx jubatus*: Lyons,
98 Young, & Deag, 1997) and dingoes (*Canis lupus dingo*: Meyer-Holzapfel, 1968). In mink, males may
99 direct SBs towards reproductively-receptive neighbouring females (along the shared cage wall), while
100 mink mothers separated from their offspring may show SBs against the intervening barrier (Mason,
101 1993); and scrabbling appears particularly likely to be directed towards neighbouring animals or
102 inaccessible cage areas (Dallaire, 2011; Hansen & Jeppesen, 2000). Such observations suggest that some
103 Carnivore SBs represent thwarted motivations to approach conspecifics or resources, but no experiments

104 have tested this hypothesis. We therefore assessed whether any subtypes of SB represent frustrated
105 attempts to reach neighbouring conspecifics. In this first study, we investigated the effects of neighbour
106 number and sex on male minks' SB time-budgets. We also recorded where their SBs were performed, to
107 assess whether the locations of any subtypes were indeed affected by neighbour proximity. If previous
108 observations were correct, scrabbling should be particularly likely to be directed towards neighbours.

109

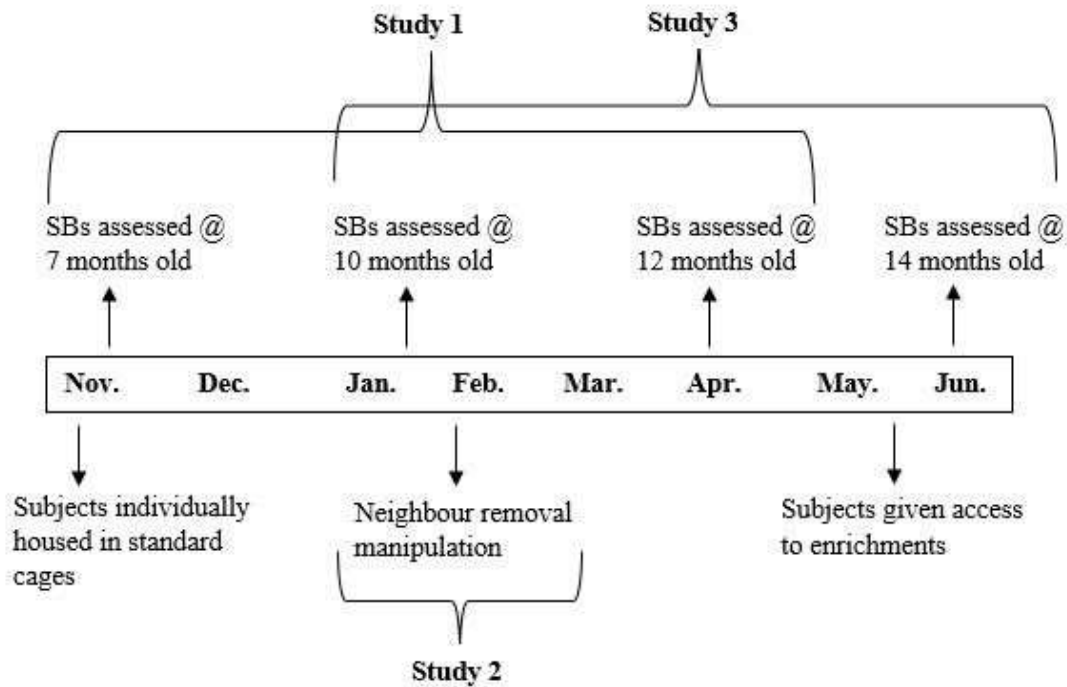
110 ***Methods***

111 All three studies received ethical approval from the University of Guelph's Animal Care Committee
112 (AUP 3246) and Michigan State University's Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee (AUF 12/14-
113 226-00).

114

115 *Subjects and housing*

116 Subjects were 32 unrelated male mink housed at Michigan State University's Experimental Fur Farm
117 (though halfway through the study when subjects were 10 months old, one mink was assigned to another
118 project reducing the N to 31). They were individually-housed (as standard for this species) in rows of
119 cages ($W60\text{cm} \times L75\text{cm} \times H45\text{cm}$) primarily made of wire-mesh, but with side walls of opaque plastic (c.
120 3mm thick). Each cage had an exterior nestbox ($W25\text{cm} \times L25\text{cm} \times H30\text{cm}$) and some enrichment (i.e., a
121 shelf-like structure and a wiffle ball) to comply with Canadian Codes of Practice (National Farm Animal
122 Care Council, 2013). Due to the facility's layout, subjects were caged either between two male
123 neighbours ($n = 12$), between one female and one male ($n = 12$), or — if at the end of a row — beside one
124 male ($n = 4$) or one female ($n = 4$) of the same age and colour type. Thus, 28 subjects had at least one
125 male neighbour, while 16 had one female neighbour. Their cages' opaque plastic side walls meant they
126 could hear and smell their neighbours, but not see them. Figure 1 gives a timeline of the three
127 experiments.



128

129 **Figure 1. Timeline for the three studies**

130

131 *Behavioural observations*

132 Following Polanco et al. (2017), behavioural data (on SBs as well as normal activity, the latter acting as a
 133 control; see Table 1) were collected live for 4h before feeding (08:00 h to 12:00 h), daily over an 8-day
 134 period when mink were 7 months old (the age they start to consistently show SBs: Jeppesen et al., 2000),
 135 and again for two 6-day periods when 10 and 12 months old. Data were always collected in the mornings,
 136 as mink SBs peak before feeding, with animals becoming inactive afterwards (e.g., Hansen et al., 2007;
 137 Mason, 1993; Svendsen, Hansen, and Jeppesen, 2007). During each scan, to score the location of each
 138 subject and his neighbours, the subject's and neighbours' home cages were virtually divided into four
 139 equal quadrants: "northwest", "northeast", "southwest", and "southeast" (see Figure 2). For the 24
 140 subjects caged between two mink, we noted the location of the closest neighbour (e.g., if the subject was
 141 in the west part of the home cage, then only the location of the neighbour to the west of the subject was

142 recorded). Subjects were scored as being close to neighbours if immediately adjacent to the neighbour at
 143 the time of the scan (e.g., if the subject was in the southwest quadrant of his cage and the corresponding
 144 neighbour was in the southeast quadrant of his/her cage; Figure 2). If the subject was in the centre of his
 145 home cage (a rare occurrence) or inside his nestbox, these observations were excluded because we were
 146 only interested in home cage behaviour that could unambiguously be scored as close to or far from a
 147 neighbour.

148

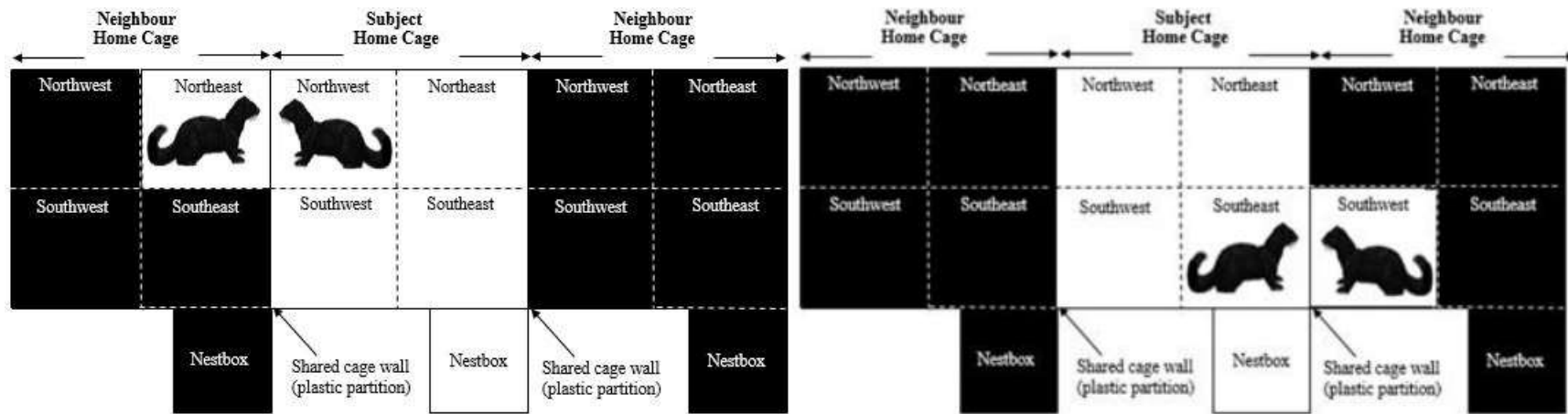
Behaviour	Description
Head-related SBs	Head-only movements, including head-bobbing, head-twirling and head-weaving, repeated at least three times within a bout
Stereotypic behaviours	Whole-body movements including pacing back and forth along the cage wall or between the home cage and nestbox, and upper-body bobbing, repeated at least three times within a bout
Scrabbling	Repeatedly scratching at the cage walls with the front paws for a minimum of 5 s
Normal activity	Any non-SB activity such as eating, drinking, grooming, walking, sniffing, urinating, defecating

149

150 **Table 1. Ethogram used**

151 1)

2)



152

153

154 **Figure 2. Scoring system used to record subject and neighbour locations, and neighbour proximity**

155 Neighbours were “close” if immediately adjacent to the subject, for example, if the subject was “northwest” and the neighbour “northeast” (1), or

156 if the subject was “southeast” and the neighbour “southwest” (2). In the examples above, the neighbour was not considered close if he or she was

157 in the areas shaded in black.

158 *Statistical analyses*

159 Data were analysed with STATA 14.2 (StataCorp, College Station, TX) and JMP 12 (SAS Institute, Cary,
160 NC). Non-parametric tests were used as the data could not be transformed to meet parametric
161 assumptions of homogeneity of variance. Because SB time-budgets are generally consistent from 10 to 12
162 months of age (Polanco et al., 2017), and since there were not enough data to analyse 10 and 12 months
163 of age separately, we pooled data from these ages (young adulthood); but we analysed data from 7
164 months of age (adolescence) separately.

165

166 Before testing our hypothesis, we assessed baseline behaviour to generate descriptive statistics (e.g., the
167 prevalence and average time-budgets of each SB subtype) and evaluate whether time-budgets differed
168 between SB subtypes using Wilcoxon signed-rank tests. Further, we investigated whether baseline SB
169 differed between mink with only male neighbours (versus also a female), or two neighbours (versus one),
170 *via* Wilcoxon rank-sum tests. Additionally, to check whether any effects were specific to SBs *per se*, we
171 assessed whether neighbour sex and the number of neighbours influenced normal activity.

172

173 To test our hypothesis about SB location, we calculated the proportion of each SB subtype occurring in a
174 quadrant scored as “close to neighbour” (i.e., observations of that SB subtype performed close to a
175 neighbour/total observations of that SB subtype). Additionally, we assessed whether neighbour proximity
176 affected the proportion of normal activity performed close by in the home cage. Because each quadrant
177 was $\frac{1}{4}$ of the home cage, the probability of a subject and neighbour being in adjacent quadrants if moving
178 at random was 0.125 ($2*[0.25*0.25]$). Thus the null hypothesis was that subjects would allocate 12.5% of
179 each behaviour to a quadrant close to a neighbour, with significantly greater proportions indicating a
180 preferential use of such quadrants. The proportions of each behaviour located “close to neighbour” were
181 therefore compared to 0.125, using one-sample Wilcoxon signed-rank tests. Separate Wilcoxon tests were
182 also run based on the sex of the neighbour, here and in the subsequent study, as initial results suggested
183 sex effects (see below).

184 Additionally, we conducted *post hoc* exploratory analyses on our SB location data. These
185 analyses focussed on the subset of individuals who performed more than one SB subtype ($n = 13$), to
186 assess whether subjects with differential responses to the captive environment perform different SBs or
187 instead whether, even *within* an individual, different SBs are subject to different motivational influences.
188 P values were considered significant if < 0.05 and trends if ≥ 0.05 and ≤ 0.10 .

189

190 **Results**

191 *Descriptive Statistics*

192 Table 2 presents prevalence and time-budget data. At both 7 and 10-12 months of age, scrabbling was the
193 most common SB subtype (being the most time-consuming SB for 18-26 mink), followed by head-only
194 SBs (the most time-consuming subtype for 5-7 mink) and whole-body SBs (the most time-consuming
195 subtype for 1-3 mink). Further tests revealed that these time-budget differences were statistically
196 significant. At 7 months, stereotyping mink ($n = 32$) spent significantly more time scrabbling than
197 performing head-only SBs ($Z = 3.82$, $P = 0.0001$) or whole-body SBs ($Z = 4.55$, $P < 0.0001$). The time-
198 budgets of head-only and whole-body SBs, however, did not significantly differ ($Z = 0.45$, $P = 0.65$).
199 Similarly, at 10-12 months, stereotyping mink ($n = 28$) spent significantly more time scrabbling than
200 performing head-only SBs ($Z = 2.28$, $P = 0.02$) or whole-body SBs ($Z = 3.20$, $P = 0.001$), while the latter
201 two subtypes did not differ ($Z = 0.33$, $P = 0.75$).

202

203

204	<i>Descriptive Statistic</i>	<i>SB subtype</i>		
205	Prevalence of SB¹	Scrabble	Head-only	Whole-body
206	7 months old	94%	19%	19%
207	10-12 months old	84%	32%	32%
208	Median and IQR (% of observations)			
209	7 months old	5% (2-7%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)
210	<i>Only mink with that subtype</i>	5% (2-7%) ²	5% (1-8%) ³	2% (0.7-2%) ³
211	10-12 months old	4% (3-9%)	0 (0-2%)	0 (0-0.3%)
212	<i>Only mink with that subtype</i>	5% (3-9%) ⁴	2% (2-5%) ⁵	2% (0.3-4%) ⁵

213 ¹ based on entire sample size (7 months old: $n = 32$; 10-12 months old: $n = 31$)

214 ² $n = 30$

215 ³ $n = 6$

216 ⁴ $n = 26$

217 ⁵ $n = 10$

218 **Table 2. Descriptive statistics for SB subtypes in stereotyping mink at 7 months old ($n = 32$) and 10-**
219 **12 months old ($n = 28$)**

220

221 *Neighbour effects on the time-budgets of SBs and normal activity*

222 Mink with all-male neighbours showed more scrabbling ($Z = -2.35$, $P = 0.02$) than mink with only female
223 neighbours or a mix of male and female, but head-only ($Z = 0$, $P = 1$) and whole-body SBs ($Z = 1.18$, $P =$
224 0.24) appeared unaffected by neighbour sex. Likewise, normal activity was not significantly affected by
225 neighbour sex ($Z = 1.13$, $P = 0.26$). In contrast, neighbour number affected neither scrabbling ($Z = 1.08$, $P =$
226 0.28), nor head-only SBs ($Z = 0$, $P = 1$), nor whole-body SBs ($Z = 1.60$, $P = 0.11$); while mink with two
227 neighbours showed less normal activity than mink with only one ($Z = 2.10$, $P = 0.04$).

228

229

230 *Effects of neighbour proximity on the locations of SBs and normal activity*

231 The proportion of normal activity performed close to female neighbours was not significantly different
232 from chance when mink were adolescent, but tended to be lower than chance in adulthood. Likewise, this
233 class of behaviour was significantly unlikely to occur near male neighbours when subjects were adults:
234 only 4% of all normal activity occurred in a quadrant near a male neighbour at 10-12 months of age
235 (Table 3).

236

237 The proportion of scrabbling located close to a neighbour was, in contrast, significantly higher than
238 chance, with 50-89% being performed in cage quadrants close to a neighbouring conspecific (see Table
239 3). The location of head-only SBs was not significantly affected by neighbour proximity; however,
240 whole-body SBs were significantly likely to be located away from neighbours in older mink (the n being
241 too small for analysis when mink were younger).

242

243 These effects were preserved in *post hoc* exploratory analyses on the subset of individuals who performed
244 more than one SB subtype ($n = 13$), such that scrabbling was still directed towards neighbours ($Z < 2.28$, P
245 < 0.05) while other SB forms were either still not significantly influenced by neighbours (head-only SBs:
246 $Z < -0.69$, $P > 0.10$) or directed away from neighbours (whole-body SBs: $Z < -2.25$, $P < 0.05$).

247

248 **A) Effects of male neighbour proximity**

	7 months old				10-12 months old			
	<i>n</i>	Median proportion performed in quadrant “close to neighbour” (+ interquartile range)	<i>z</i> test statistic	<i>P</i> value	<i>n</i>	Median proportion performed in quadrant “close to neighbour” (+ interquartile range)	<i>z</i> test statistic	<i>P</i> value
Normal Activity	28	0.06 (0.01-0.17)	-1.62	0.11	28	0.04 (0-0.14)	-2.11	0.035
Scrabble	20	0.66 (0.29-1)	3.58	0.0003	21	0.75 (0.17-1)	3.35	0.0008
Head-only SBs	4	0.31 (0-0.81)	0.74	0.46	7	0 (0-0.12)	-1.21	0.23
Whole-body SBs	3 ¹	-----	-----	-----	6	0 (0-0)	-2.45	0.01

249

250 **B) Effects of female neighbour proximity**

251

	7 months old				10-12 months old			
	<i>n</i>	Median proportion performed in quadrant “close to neighbour” (+ interquartile range)	<i>z</i> test statistic	<i>P</i> value	<i>n</i>	Median proportion performed in quadrant “close to neighbour” (+ interquartile range)	<i>z</i> test statistic	<i>P</i> value
Normal Activity	16	0.12 (0.04-0.23)	0.41	0.68	16	0.08 (0.02-0.14)	-1.66	0.098
Scrabble	9	0.89 (0.43-0.93)	2.31	0.02	9	0.50 (0.09-0.50)	1.97	0.048
Head-only SBs	3 ¹	-----	-----	-----	4	0 (0-0.15)	-0.38	0.71
Whole-body SBs	2 ¹	-----	-----	-----	4	0 (0-0)	-2	0.046

252 *Note: Numbers differ between analyses as mink not performing each behaviour type were excluded.*

253 *Significant or trending p-values are shown in bold.*

254 ¹ *n too small for analysis*

255 **Table 3. The proportions of normal activity and each SB subtype performed in cage quadrants**
256 **close to male or female neighbours, compared to chance levels (0.125) using one-sample Wilcoxon**
257 **signed-rank tests**

258

259 **STUDY 2: NEIGHBOUR REMOVAL EXPERIMENT**

260 In addition to observational studies reporting *where* SBs occur, some research has investigated whether
261 SB time-budgets are affected by neighbour proximity. In naturally solitary species like the okapi (*Okapia*
262 *johnstoni*), head-rolling is higher when there is visual access to conspecifics (Troxell-Smith and Miller,
263 2016). Likewise in the Carnivora, pacing is often higher in naturally solitary species that can view
264 conspecifics (e.g., cheetahs [*Acinonyx jubatus*]: Quirke et al., 2012; tigers [*Panthera tigris*]: Rouck et al.,
265 2005), but is lowered by visual barriers (e.g., tigers: Miller, Bettinger, & Mellen, 2008). However, SBs
266 can also increase when conspecifics are out of sight (e.g., in polar bears [*Ursus maritimus*]: Kelly et al.,
267 2015) or when visually isolated from each other (*via* opaque barriers; e.g., tigers: Bashaw et al., 2007).
268 These contradictory findings could reflect many factors, including the sex of the subjects and their
269 neighbours, that visual isolation does not ensure complete sensory isolation from conspecifics, and
270 individual differences in the SB subtypes performed. In mink, if neighbour proximity truly triggers
271 scrabbling, as indicated by Study 1, then experimentally removing neighbours should reduce this SB
272 subtype.

273

274 ***Methods***

275 Subjects and housing were as in Study 1, but all animals were 10 months old when these data were
276 collected. To investigate effects of neighbour presence on subject behaviour, we removed one neighbour
277 per subject by giving him or her voluntary access to an enriched compartment (as described in the next
278 study), into which this animal was then locked for approximately 4 hours (from 08:00 h to 12:00 h) on
279 one day. In total, we removed 15 female and 16 male neighbours. For the 24 mink with two neighbours,
280 we removed only one because only half of the facility's cages had access to an enriched compartment.

281 *Behavioural Observations*

282 We collected baseline behavioural data (*cf.* Table 1) during one 6-day period when mink were 10 months
283 old (as in Study 1) from 08:00 h to 12:00 h. We conducted the neighbour removal manipulation two days
284 later using the same data collection methods as Study 1 (i.e., observations occurred from 08:00 h to 12:00
285 h over the course of one morning). Behaviours in the nestbox were excluded from analyses to be
286 consistent with Study 1.

287

288 *Statistical Analyses*

289 Again, data were analysed with STATA 14.2 (StataCorp, College Station, TX), using non-parametric
290 tests since parametric assumptions were unmet. To test our prediction that scrabbling would be the only
291 behaviour affected by the manipulation, we used Wilcoxon signed-rank tests to compare the time-budgets
292 of each SB subtype (i.e., observations of SB subtype/total number of observations) pre- and post-
293 neighbour removal, split by the sex of the removed neighbour. Again, we conducted *post hoc* analyses
294 focusing on the subset of 13 individuals who performed more than one SB subtype. As a control, we also
295 assessed whether the time spent performing normal activity (i.e., observations of all normal
296 behaviours/total number of observations) was affected by the manipulation.

297

298 To evaluate the efficacy of removing a neighbour as a treatment for SB, we ran a mixed logistic
299 regression to see whether SB subtype predicted SB abolishment post-treatment (yes/no) with “yes”
300 indicating that performance of the SB ceased post-treatment (at least during the pre-feed period assessed)
301 and “no” indicating continued performance (even if at reduced levels). We included mink ID as a random
302 effect and neighbour sex as a blocking factor. Homoscedasticity and normality of the best linear unbiased
303 predictions (BLUPs) were assessed graphically.

304

305 ***Results***

306 *Effects of removing a neighbour on the time-budgets of SBs and normal activity*

307 Removing both male and female neighbours significantly reduced the time spent scrabbling. Removing
 308 female neighbours tended to reduce head-only SBs. Whole-body SBs appeared unaffected by the
 309 manipulation (see Table 4). However, the same patterns could not be detected in the 13 mink with more
 310 than one SB subtype ($Z < 1.22$; $P > 0.10$), although this may reflect low power. The time spent performing
 311 normal behaviours also appeared unaffected by removing a neighbour (Table 4).
 312

	Male Neighbours				Female Neighbours			
	<i>n</i>	Median (+ interquartile range)	<i>z</i> test statistic	<i>P</i> value	<i>n</i>	Median (+ interquartile range)	<i>z</i> test statistic	<i>P</i> value
Normal Activity	16	Baseline 0.23 (0.18-0.30) Removed 0.20 (0.10-0.28)	0.62	0.53	15	Baseline 0.24 (0.20-0.35) Removed 0.20 (0.10-0.33)	0.63	0.53
Scrabble	16	Baseline 0.09 (0.04-0.15) Removed 0.03 (0-0.08)	2.74	0.006	10	Baseline 0.04 (0.03-0.07) Removed 0.03 (0-0.03)	2.09	0.04
Head-only SBs	6	Baseline 0.05 (0.04-0.05) Removed 0.02 (0-0.10)	0.94	0.35	4	Baseline 0.06 (0.02-0.19) Removed 0 (0-0.10)	1.83	0.07
Whole-body SBs	4	Baseline 0.03 (0.01-0.04) Removed 0.03 (0-0.20)	-0.73	0.47	4	Baseline 0.05 (0.006-0.10) Removed 0.03 (0-0.13)	0.14	0.89

313 *Note: Numbers differ between analyses as mink not performing each behaviour type during baseline were*
 314 *excluded. Significant or trending p-values are shown in bold.*

315 **Table 4. Wilcoxon signed-rank tests comparing normal activity and each SB subtype as proportions**
 316 **of observations when male and female neighbours were in their home cages versus “removed”**

317
 318 *Effect of SB subtype on SB abolition by neighbour removal*

319 Within the subjects performing each particular SB subtype, 46% of scrabblers stopped performing this
 320 subtype after neighbour removal; 60% of mink with head-only SBs stopped performing this subtype; and
 321 44% of subjects with whole-body SBs stopped performing this subtype. However, the mixed logistic
 322 regression revealed no significant effect of SB subtype on the odds of abolition ($\chi^2 [2] = 0.28$, $P = 0.87$).

323 Furthermore, the sex of the removed neighbour had no significant effect on the odds of SB abolition
 324 ($\chi^2[1] = 0.51, P = 0.47$). Table 5 gives details.

325

Variable	<i>B</i>	SE	Odds Ratio	95% CI for Odds Ratio	<i>P</i>
SB Subtype: <i>Scrabble (referent)</i>					
Head-only SBs	-0.45	1.11	0.63	0.07-5.62	0.68
Whole-body SBs	-0.55	1.18	0.58	0.06-5.77	0.64
Neighbour Sex: <i>Female (referent)</i>					
Male	-0.81	1.13	0.45	0.05-4.07	0.47

326 Note: Overall model significance: $\chi^2(3) = 0.67, P = 0.88$

327 **Table 5. Mixed logistic regression model assessing predictors of SB abolition during the neighbour-**
 328 **removal treatment ($n = 28$)**

329

330 **STUDY 3: EFFECTS OF ENVIRONMENTAL ENRICHMENT**

331 Previous research has shown that head-only and whole-body SBs (pooled into one category) and
 332 scrabbling are both reduced if mink are raised in large enriched enclosures. However, only the former
 333 remain low if enriched-raised mink are transferred to small barren cages while scrabbling instead
 334 increases (Díez-León et al., 2016). Moreover, high levels of head-only and whole-body SBs (pooled)
 335 predict poor mating success in males, while scrabbling does not (Díez-León et al., 2013). Together, this
 336 led us to hypothesise that head-only and whole-body SBs reflect long-term alterations in behavioural
 337 organisation, perhaps mediated by changes in brain function (*cf.* Lewis, 2004), but that scrabbling reflects
 338 more readily reversible effects of motivational frustration (Díez-León et al., 2016). If correct, scrabbling
 339 would be easier to treat than head-only and whole-body SBs (i.e., declining to low levels at faster rates
 340 whenever conditions improve), as it would not be a product of long-term neurological changes. This view
 341 provides an alternative explanation for Study 2’s results: that they do not indicate a specific effect of
 342 neighbours on scrabbling, but instead merely that this SB subtype is more labile than others.

343 To investigate this possibility, we gave our subjects a standard SB treatment, environmental enrichment
344 (EE). EE comprises sensory, cognitive, physical, and/or manipulable stimuli meant to improve captive
345 animals' welfare (e.g., Swaisgood & Shepherdson, 2005). We used enriched compartments previously
346 shown (albeit in a modified form, see Methods below) to reduce the development of all SB subtypes in
347 mink (e.g., Campbell et al., 2013; Dallaire et al., 2012; Díez-León et al., 2013, 2016; Hansen et al., 2007;
348 Meagher & Mason, 2012; Meagher et al., 2013) and to be highly preferred (mink being willing to pay
349 costs to access such enrichments: Dallaire et al., 2012; Mason, Cooper, & Clarebrough, 2001). The
350 primary purpose of this last experiment was to assess whether different SB subtypes vary in the degree to
351 which EE reduces or even abolishes them. If EE had a greater effect on scrabbling than on head-only and
352 whole-body forms, then this would suggest that Study 2's results did not reflect a specific effect of
353 conspecific proximity, but instead were just a by-product of scrabbling being easier to alleviate.
354 Opportunistically, this study also allowed us to test a second hypothesis. One previous mink study found
355 that a reduction in head-only and whole-body SBs (pooled) in enriched housing was predicted not by
356 active enrichment use, but instead by the previously highly-stereotypic individuals spending more time
357 resting in the towers and tunnels of their new enclosures (Dallaire et al., 2012). Inspired by this, we
358 therefore collected subsidiary data on our minks' enrichment use and resting behaviour after transfer to
359 enriched cages to see if either predicted how successfully EE reduced any of the three SB subtypes.

360

361 ***Methods***

362 The same subjects were given access to enriched compartments (as also used to remove neighbours in
363 Study 2) when 14 months old. Their layouts were as described in prior research (e.g., Dallaire et al., 2012
364 and Díez-León et al., 2013), although the contents differed. In this study, a tunnel connected to the
365 standard cage could be opened, giving subjects access to climbing opportunities, an elevated tunnel with
366 an aerial view of the facility, and a large enriched compartment containing manipulable toys (e.g.,
367 hanging ropes/towels, plastic toys, and brushes) and shelf-like structures (e.g., wire-mesh 'tunnels' and a
368 plastic toy bucket that the mink typically lay in). However, unlike prior research using the same facility,

369 we did not provide channels of running water for mink to swim in. Half of the mink ($n = 15$) were given
370 access to these resources earlier in another study, while the remainder ($n = 16$) were given access 13 days
371 later. Regardless, each enriched compartment was consistent across subjects and throughout the study.

372

373 *Behavioural observations*

374 While mink were still in their standard cages, we collected behavioural data (*cf.* Table 1) throughout two
375 6-day periods at 10 and 12 months (from 08:00 h to 12:00 h), subsequently pooled for analyses (as in
376 Study 1). After subjects were given access to enriched housing, we collected data again during an 8-day
377 period from 08:00 h to 12:00 h, using the same methods as before but additionally recording presence in
378 enriched housing (i.e., any time spent in the enriched areas, including the towers and tunnel), enrichment
379 manipulation (i.e., any interaction with enrichment items), and inactivity in the towers/tunnels. To be
380 consistent with the prior two studies, behaviours in the nestbox were excluded.

381

382 *Statistical analyses*

383 Data were again analysed with STATA 14.2 (StataCorp, College Station, TX) and unless otherwise
384 stated, non-parametric tests were used. One subject never entered his enriched enclosure and was
385 therefore excluded from analyses. Our first objective was to investigate whether EE differentially affected
386 the different SB subtypes. Here we used Wilcoxon signed-rank tests to compare the time-budgets of each
387 SB subtype (i.e., observations of SB subtype/total number of observations) pre- and post-EE (also
388 assessing whether the time spent performing normal activity was affected by EE). Like Study 2, we
389 additionally ran a mixed logistic regression to see whether a SB's subtype predicted whether it would be
390 abolished by EE (yes/no) with "yes" indicating that performance of the SB ceased post-treatment (at least
391 during the pre-feed period assessed) and "no" indicating that it continued (even if at reduced levels). We
392 included mink ID as a random effect and EE access time (early/late) as a blocking factor. We ran an
393 additional logistic model with time spent stereotyping in standard housing as a covariate to see whether
394 any effect of SB subtype in the first model remained significant, since baseline SB time-budgets differed

395 by subtype (see Study 1) and this could have explained our first model outputs. Again, we assessed
396 homoscedasticity and normality of the BLUPs graphically and conducted *post hoc* analyses on the subset
397 of 13 individuals who performed more than one SB subtype.

398

399 Our second objective was to investigate whether the subtype of baseline SB predicted how mink utilised
400 their new enclosure, to potentially replicate and extend Dallaire and colleagues' (2012) findings. To do
401 this, we ran Spearman correlations between the time-budgets of each SB subtype pre-EE and the
402 following behaviours post-EE: inactivity in the towers/tunnels, presence in enriched housing, and
403 enrichment manipulation. Additionally, classifying subjects by their most common (i.e., time-consuming)
404 SB during baseline, we ran Kruskal-Wallis tests to investigate whether such mink differed in their
405 utilisation of the new resources and enrichment behaviours.

406

407 ***Results***

408 *Enrichment effects on the time-budgets of SBs and normal activity*

409 EE significantly reduced all three SB subtypes (Table 6). Normal activity was not reduced, but instead
410 tended to increase.

411

	<i>n</i>	Median proportion (+ interquartile range)	<i>z</i> test statistic	<i>P</i> value
Normal Activity	30	NE 0.21 (0.15-0.30) EE 0.26 (0.20-0.31)	-1.70	0.089
Scrabble	26	NE 0.05 (0.03-0.09) EE 0.01 (0.006-0.02)	4.37	<.0001
Head-only SBs	10	NE 0.02 (0.02-0.05) EE 0 (0-0)	2.80	0.005
Whole-body SBs	10	NE 0.02 (0.003-0.04) EE 0 (0-0.004)	2.81	0.005

412 *Note: Numbers differ between analyses as mink not performing each behaviour type during baseline were*
413 *excluded. Significant or trending p-values are shown in bold.*

414 **Table 6. Wilcoxon signed-rank tests comparing time-budgets of normal activity and each SB**
415 **subtype in non-enriched (NE) conditions versus when given environmental enrichment (EE)**

416

417 *Effect of SB subtype on SB abolition by enrichment*

418 31% of scrabblers ceased performing this subtype after enrichment-provision, as did 80% of mink with
419 head-only SBs and 70% of mink with whole-body SBs; and the mixed logistic regression revealed a
420 significant effect of SB subtype on the odds of abolition by EE ($\chi^2 [2] = 16.34, P = 0.003$), this being
421 significantly higher for head-only and whole-body SBs than for scrabbling. This result held even after
422 controlling for time spent stereotyping in non-enriched housing (which also had a significant,
423 independent effect: $\chi^2 [1] = 9.93, P = 0.0016$). The 13-day difference in enriched access had no significant
424 effect in either model ($\chi^2 [1] < 1.52, P > 0.10$). Table 7 gives details. As in Study 2, the effects of SB
425 subtype became non-significant when focussing only on the 13 mink with more than one SB subtype (χ^2
426 $[2] < 3.13, P > 0.10$).

427

428 A)

Variable	<i>B</i>	SE	Odds Ratio	95% CI for Odds Ratio	<i>P</i>
SB Subtype: <i>Scrabble (referent)</i>					
Head-only SBs	2.69	0.83	14.70	2.91-74.30	0.001
Whole-body SBs	2.24	0.72	9.41	2.30-38.55	0.002
EE Access: <i>Early (referent)</i>					
Later	0.67	0.59	1.96	0.62-6.24	0.25

429 Note: Overall model significance: $\chi^2(3) = 16.71, P = 0.0008$

430

431 B)

Variable	<i>B</i>	SE	Odds Ratio	95% CI for Odds Ratio	<i>P</i>
SB Subtype: <i>Scrabble (referent)</i>					
Head-only SBs	3.36	1.23	28.72	2.59-318.05	0.006
Whole-body SBs	2.31	0.95	10.08	1.57-64.68	0.015
EE Access: <i>Early (referent)</i>					
Later	0.91	0.74	2.49	0.58-10.71	0.22
SB time-budget in NE housing	-0.52	0.16	0.60	0.43-0.82	0.002

432 Note: Overall model significance: $\chi^2(4) = 16.98, P = 0.0019$

433

434 Model A includes SB subtype and EE group as predictor variables, while Model B includes time spent
 435 stereotyping in standard housing as an additional predictor (to control for scrabbling being more time-
 436 consuming: see Study 1). Significant p-values are shown in bold.

437

438 **Table 7. Mixed logistic regression models assessing predictors of SB abolition ($n = 28$)**

439

440

441 *Pre-enrichment levels of SB and post-enrichment behaviours*

442 We found no significant relationships between pre-EE levels of SB and the time spent in any of the
 443 enriched areas or actively using enrichments. However, there was an unexpected significant negative
 444 correlation between pre-EE levels of head-only SBs and the time spent inactive in the towers and tunnels
 445 (see Table 8). Likewise, there were no significant differences between mink favouring the three SB
 446 subtypes in the time they spent in enriched housing ($\chi^2 [2] = 1.41, P = 0.49$), using enrichments ($\chi^2 [2] =$
 447 $1.69, P = 0.43$), or showing inactivity in the towers and tunnels ($\chi^2 [2] = 0.003, P = 0.99$).

448

449 *EE Behaviour*

450 <i>SB Subtype</i>	Presence in enriched housing	EE manipulation	Inactivity in towers/tunnels
451 1. Scrabble 452 (<i>n</i> = 26)	+0.19	-0.26	-0.09
454 2. Head-only 455 (<i>n</i> = 10)	-0.53	+0.52	-0.90*
457 3. Whole-body 458 (<i>n</i> = 10)	-0.05	-0.27	+0.21

459
 460 *Note: Numbers differ between analyses as mink not performing each SB subtype during baseline were*
 461 *excluded.*

462 **P < 0.05*

463

464 **Table 8. Spearman correlations for time-budgets of baseline SB subtypes and behaviours when**
 465 **given EE**

466

467 **GENERAL DISCUSSION**

468 Our results demonstrate that Carnivora SBs are heterogeneous in both their triggers and their most
 469 effective treatments. They also show that caged male mink are sensitive to neighbour effects, and provide
 470 new insights into what makes some SBs more ‘treatable’ than others. Here, we discuss these findings’
 471 implications for the welfare of mink and other Carnivora and outline key future research directions.

472 Given its unequivocal results, we first consider our findings on scrabbling: the SB in which mink scratch
473 or dig at cage walls with their forepaws.

474
475 Scrabbling was the SB subtype displayed to the greatest extent by mink with all-male neighbours, and the
476 only SB subtype to be significantly reduced by removing any type of neighbour. It was also uniquely
477 directed towards active, nearby conspecifics in terms of its location within the cage. In this regard, mink
478 seem to differ from other Carnivore species, which generally show pacing when displaying SB towards
479 inaccessible conspecifics (e.g., Lyons, Young, & Deag, 1997; Meyer-Holzapfel, 1968). However, this
480 may reflect scrabbling being quite uncommon in other Carnivora. Speculatively, scrabbling might perhaps
481 be restricted to those species which naturally dig, such as other mustelids (e.g., otters: Morabito &
482 Bashaw, 2012) and foxes (Korhonen & Huuki, 2011). In our subjects, scrabbling was also the SB subtype
483 least likely to be abolished by EE: a result consistent with long-term differentially housed mink, in which
484 EE was less effective at reducing scrabbling than whole-body and head SBs pooled (Campbell et al.,
485 2013). This demonstrates that scrabbling is not merely more sensitive to housing changes than other SB
486 subtypes (*cf.* Díez-León et al., 2016), and that its marked reduction in Study 2 did specifically reflect a
487 role of strong motivations to interact with neighbouring animals. In terms of precisely what these strong
488 motivations to interact represent, more research is needed (see below). However, we suspect that these
489 motivations are not playful, because play in 10-12-month-old mink is rare (Ahloy Dallaire & Mason,
490 2016; Hansen et al., 1997); instead, we hypothesise that they are agonistic, as aggression in mink often
491 develops around 5-6 months of age (Hansen, 1996) and sub-adult and adult males naturally compete over
492 territory in the wild (Dunstone, 1993).

493
494 Turning to whole-body SBs, like normal activity this type of behaviour was performed in locations away
495 from neighbours. However, avoiding conspecifics did not seem to be their primary underlying motivation:
496 their time-budgets were not significantly affected by neighbour sex or number and experimentally
497 removing neighbours did not reduce them. Instead, EE readily abolished these SBs: 7 of the 10 affected

498 subjects ceased to show them in our post-enrichment observations. Such whole-body SBs are typical for
499 captive Carnivora, although they were the least prevalent and time-consuming SB subtype in our mink.
500 Moreover across Carnivora, the time-budgets of route-tracing – the most common whole-body SB – are
501 systematically highest in species with large annual home ranges (Clubb & Mason, 2003, 2007; Kroshko et
502 al., 2016). This helps explain their low levels in mink (a species with naturally small home ranges), and
503 also suggests that they may derive from the location-shifting normally shown when resources are locally
504 suboptimal (a behaviour most marked in wide-ranging species: Clubb & Mason, 2007). That mink in our
505 study could move freely between the standard and enriched cage could perhaps mimic this natural degree
506 of choice, with this then contributing to SB reduction and, in some mink, abolition.

507
508 Lastly, we discuss our findings for head-only SBs. The time-budgets of this subtype were not affected by
509 neighbour sex, number, and presence, nor were their locations affected by neighbour proximity.
510 Removing a female neighbour tended to reduce them, but we suspect this to be a Type I error because
511 removing male neighbours had no similar effect, and there was no other evidence of neighbour effects.
512 Head-only SBs were instead similar to whole-body SBs in being more likely than scrabbling to be
513 abolished by EE in Study 3. However, it is unclear from where head-only movements derive. In rhesus
514 macaques, head-twirling and head-tossing (but not whole-body SBs) positively covary with behavioural
515 inflexibility in extinction tasks, potentially suggesting brain dysfunction (Pomerantz, Paukner, et al.,
516 2012). However, our attempts to replicate such findings in mink (using a different test) were not
517 successful (Polanco, 2016). Below we suggest some future research that may help clarify the aetiology of
518 these movements.

519
520 Together, these findings provide the first demonstration for *a priori* validated SB subtypes that distinct
521 forms are both differentially triggered by stimuli like conspecifics, and also variable in the treatments
522 most likely to reduce or abolish them. Furthermore, in our *post hoc* exploratory analyses of the subset of
523 13 subjects displaying more than one SB subtype, the neighbour location effects of Study 1 were

524 preserved. This therefore cautiously provides the first ever evidence that different forms of SB may differ
525 in their motivational influences even when performed by the same subject.

526
527 Some other findings emerged incidentally from our data. We showed that less time-consuming SBs were
528 easier to eliminate with EE. This new result adds to previous evidence that SBs are more effectively
529 reduced by EE if subjects are relatively young (e.g., Hadley, Hadley, Ephraim, Yang, & Lewis, 2006;
530 Tilly et al., 2010), and also if more motivated to access EE (e.g., Tilly et al., 2010). However, we did not
531 find that SBs were more likely to be alleviated in animals who interacted most with enrichments (*cf.*
532 Lumeij & Hommers, 2008) or rested most in their new enclosures (*cf.* Dallaire et al., 2012). This could
533 reflect low power or, instead, that mere use is not a sensitive measure of value (measures of strength or
534 preference being better: Tilly et al., 2010, Dallaire et al., 2012). More research is thus needed to
535 determine how the perceived value of enrichments affects how readily captive animals' SBs are abolished
536 by them (perhaps interacting with other factors like SB time-budgets and the severity of any underlying
537 brain dysfunction). Also, our data revealed that caged mink are highly sensitive to conspecific presence.
538 This adds to past research showing that visually isolating female mink improves their reproductive
539 success, an effect attributed to stress reduction (Gilbert & Bailey, 1967; although *cf.* Møller, 1991), and to
540 past suggestions that mink modify their behaviour to avoid being active at the same time as their
541 neighbours (De Jonge, Carlstead, & Wiepkema, 1986). Several decades and many captive generations
542 later, farmed mink still seem averse to conspecific proximity, an effect that may typify naturally solitary
543 Carnivora (Clauss, Müller, Steinmetz, & Hatt, 2010).

544
545 Turning to future research, we recommend a replication of our studies using more animals and subjects
546 pre-selected to have either only one SB subtype or an individual repertoire of several SB subtypes. This
547 type of ideal sample could then be used to clarify whether individual mink with different SB subtypes
548 correspondingly have diverse SB triggers or treatments, or whether it is the diverse SBs themselves (even
549 *within* individuals) that differ. Greater differences may also emerge between head-only and whole-body

550 subtypes with more statistical power. Such future studies should also ensure observers are blind to
551 hypotheses, and collect data throughout the day (to ensure that any treatment effects, especially on
552 abolition, are consistent over time). Regarding the treatments themselves, they should ideally be more
553 effective and distinct than the ones used here. Our neighbour removal manipulation was relatively mild
554 because we removed only one of two neighbours for most subjects; while our enrichment-provision was
555 confounded with reduced neighbour proximity (since distances between neighbours were approximately
556 doubled by access to the enriched compartments). Treatments should also be more numerous, as using
557 only two manipulations limited our ability to resolve differences between the three SB subtypes.
558 Additional treatments might include delayed weaning, supplying chewing ropes, providing chunky or *ad*
559 *libitum* food, or increasing total feed levels (*cf.* e.g., Hansen & Møller, 2008; Jeppesen, Heller, &
560 Dalsgaard, 2000; Malmkvist, Palme, Svendsen, & Hansen, 2013; Mason, 1993, 1994). Lastly, to better
561 understand the motivational basis and welfare implications of scrabbling, future mink studies should
562 ascertain whether aggressive temperaments or high testosterone levels predict more neighbour-directed
563 scrabbling in males, and whether conspecific proximity is particularly stressful for those individuals who
564 scrabble or have scrabbling neighbours.

565

566 ***Conclusions***

567 Our first two studies supported the hypotheses that scrabbling in mink reflects underlying motivations to
568 interact with neighbouring conspecifics and can be reduced by removing neighbours, while our third
569 study demonstrated that physical enrichment is a better treatment for head-only and whole-body SBs. Our
570 results thus add to growing evidence that SBs are heterogeneous, with different subtypes having different
571 triggers and being best tackled in different ways. Together, they emphasise the importance of identifying
572 valid SB subcategories rather than pooling all SBs as if homogeneous. For Carnivora in zoos and
573 conservation breeding centres, we therefore recommend that future attempts to treat SBs involve careful
574 assessment of the degree to which each different form is reduced by each specific enrichment or

575 treatment. Doing so will assess whether heterogeneity effects like ours occur in other species and provide
576 the knowledge essential for tailoring treatments to tackle SBs most effectively.

577

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584

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