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1Commentary

2Using repeatability to study physiological and behavioural traits: ignore time-related 3change at your peril

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16Broad sense repeatability, which refers to the extent to which individual differences in trait 17 scores are maintained over time, is of increasing interest to researchers studying behavioural 18or physiological traits. Broad sense repeatability is most often inferred from the statistic *R* 19(the intraclass correlation, or narrow sense repeatability). However, *R* ignores change over 20time, despite the inherent longitudinal nature of the data (repeated measures over time). 21Here, we begin by showing that most studies ignore time-related change when estimating 22broad sense repeatability, and estimate *R* with low statistical power. Given this problem, we 23(1) outline how and why ignoring time-related change in scores (that occur for whatever 24reason) can seriously affect estimates of the broad sense repeatability of behavioural or 25physiological traits, (2) discuss conditions in which various indices of *R* can or cannot 26 provide reliable estimates of broad sense repeatability, and (3) provide suggestions for 27experimental designs for future studies. Finally, given that we already have abundant 28evidence that many labile traits are 'repeatable' in that broad sense (i.e. R > 0), we suggest a 29shift in focus towards obtaining robust estimates of the repeatability of behavioural and 30physiological traits. Given how labile these traits are, this will require greater experimental 31(and/or statistical) control and larger sample sizes in order to detect and quantify change over 32time (if present).

33Keywords:

34behavioural syndromes, metabolism, mixed models, personality, plasticity,

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A major challenge in studying and describing behavioural and physiological traits is Their lability. In contrast to morphological traits, physiology and behaviour are labile traits althat can change over short periods (e.g. seconds to days) in response to changes in internal and external stimuli (Wolak, Fairbairn, & Paulsen, 2012). High lability implies that 40individual differences in behavioural or physiological traits observed at one point in time 41might not be observed if the same set of individuals were observed again on one or more 42occasions, even under highly controlled conditions.

43 Various terms, including repeatability, differential consistency and differential 44stability have been used by biologists and psychologists to refer to the extent to which 45individual differences in behavioural or physiological scores are maintained over time 46(Alison M. Bell, Hankison, & Laskowski, 2009; Caspi & Roberts, 2001; Hayes & Jenkins, 471997; Roberts, Caspi, & Moffitt, 2001; Stamps & Groothuis, 2010). However, the term 48'repeatability' also refers to a statistic, *R*, which has traditionally been used in quantitative 49genetics to estimate the proportion of trait variation that is attributed to individual differences 50(see equation 1; Hayes & Jenkins, 1997; Lessells & Boag, 1987b; McGraw & Wong, 1996; 51Nakagawa & Schielzeth, 2010; Wolak, et al., 2012). Because of the potential confusion over 52the two meanings of the term repeatability, here we use 'broad sense repeatability' to refer to 53the extent to which individual differences in scores are maintained over time (in a given 54context) and 'narrow sense repeatability' to refer to *R*. Importantly, although *R* can sometimes 55provide reasonable estimates of broad sense repeatability, this is not always the case. As we 56 discuss below, *R* makes no implicit inferences about time-related change (there is no term for 57time in its formulation). Thus, if our longitudinal data contain individual or mean level 58changes over time not accounted for in the underlying statistical model, then inferences about 59broad sense repeatability will not be correct because model assumptions are violated.

60 Broad sense repeatability is of interest in many areas of research because it indicates 61that a given type of behaviour or physiology can be considered to be a characteristic of an 62individual (i.e. a trait), and may reflect heritability (e.g. Falconer, 1981)but see (Dohm, 632002). Recently, broad sense repeatability has attracted considerable interest from 64researchers interested in animal personality, because one of the key criteria for personality is 65that individual differences in behaviour scores are maintained over time (Alison M. Bell, et 66al., 2009; Stamps & Groothuis, 2010). Similarly, in recent years physiologists have 67increasingly focused on individual differences that are consistent over time (Careau, Gifford, 68& Biro, 2014; Nespolo & Franco, 2007; Williams, 2008). Assessing broad sense repeatability 69is often a key part of studies of individual differences in labile traits (Nakagawa & Schielzeth, 702010; Wolak, et al., 2012), and the statistic *R* has been calculated hundreds of time to infer 71broad sense repeatability of behaviour (e.g. Bell 2009; meta-analysis of behaviour: >750 72estimates of *R*) and physiology (Nespolo & Franco, 2007; White, Schimpf, & Cassey, 2013).

73<H1>Issues surrounding the use of *R*

74 Here, we raise some important issues relating to the use and interpretation of *R* when 75it is used to estimate broad sense repeatability. Longitudinal data (repeated measures over 76time) are necessarily at the core of any study of individual differences in labile traits, but 77most empirical studies ignore time-related change within and across individuals (see below, 78and Appendix Table A1). One of the indices that has been widely used to estimate the broad 79sense repeatability of labile traits is the intraclass correlation, or the ICC (Alison M. Bell, et 80al., 2009; Lessells & Boag, 1987a; Nakagawa & Schielzeth, 2010; Nespolo & Franco, 2007; 81Wolak, et al., 2012). Unfortunately, as was stressed long ago, the ICC ignores trait changes 82over time, which will lead to invalid and biased estimates of broad sense repeatability if such 83changes are present (Hayes & Jenkins, 1997; McGraw & Wong, 1996). Because the ICC is 84one of several different types of intraclass correlations (McGraw & Wong, 1996), to avoid 85confusion we follow earlier suggestions and refer to this index of R as 'agreement R', R_A 86(McGraw & Wong, 1996; Nakagawa & Schielzeth, 2010). Note that *R*_A can be calculated 87using a variety of different models, including single-factor ANOVA (e.g. see Lessells & Boag 881987) or mixed-effects models (e.g. see Nakagawa & Schielzeth 2010).

89 Unfortunately, if temporal patterns exist in the data, then R_A is not necessarily a good 90measure of broad sense repeatability, and we provide examples to illustrate why this is so. 91Critically, R_A assumes there is no temporal change in behaviour (i.e. there is no term for time 92in the underlying statistical model, see below). If such changes exist, R_A will provide an 93inaccurate estimate of broad sense repeatability, because key assumptions of that model have 94been violated (Hayes & Jenkins, 1997; McGraw & Wong, 1996). The remedy for the 95problem, discussed further below, is to include a term for time elapsed between repeated 96measures (when unequally spaced in time) or observation number in the model. In addition 97to satisfying model assumptions, incorporating change over time (a 'time effect') in the 98model serves the purpose of accounting for any changes in internal state, external stimuli and 99interactions between them that may have generated systematic temporal changes in behaviour 100at the mean or individual levels. A 'time effect' should not replace, but rather be used in 101addition to any obvious factors such as size, hunger, sex or temperature that could affect 102variation in the data across individuals and/or across successive measurements.

More generally, *R* will yield inaccurate estimates of broad sense repeatability if 104investigators ignore any factors, whether they be due to change over time or variation in some 105identifiable variable (variation in contexts), that might affect *R*. For instance, some 106investigators have estimated 'conservative' values of *R*, by deliberately excluding factors that 107might affect variation in the data (Laskowski & Bell, 2013; Nakagawa & Schielzeth, 2010). 108While this approach may be sufficient to test whether values of *R* are significantly greater 109than zero, it necessarily underestimates *R*, and may also violate assumptions of the statistical 110model used to estimate it (see below). Therefore, we advocate that researchers include 111predictors for both time-related change and change due to temporal variation in external 112stimuli (e.g. temperature) and factors such as sex and maturity when estimating *R*. We 113elaborate on this in later sections.

114<H1>Effects of time are usually ignored

115 Despite cautions raised long ago (Hayes & Jenkins, 1997; McGraw & Wong, 1996), 116and despite a growing number of recent publications focusing on how to quantify individual 117differences in labile traits (e.g. Dingemanse, Kazem, Réale, & Wright, 2010; Martin, Nussey, 118Wilson, & Réale, 2011; Nakagawa & Schielzeth, 2010; Wolak, et al., 2012) and recent papers 119that explicitly consider temporal change (e.g. A. M. Bell & Peeke, 2012; Peter A. Biro, 2012; 120Dingemanse et al., 2012), the importance of including time when computing and intepreting 121R none the less continues to be ignored by most empiricists studying labile traits in 122nonhuman animals. For instance, we reviewed empirical studies published in three prominent 123behavioural journals (Animal Behaviour, Behavioral Ecology, Behavioral Ecology and 124Sociobiology) in 2011–2014, using the search keyword 'repeatability' in Web of Science. Of 12541 relevant studies that reported repeatability to make inferences about consistency over time, 126only 39% tested for mean level (shared) effects of time on behaviour, and only 15% tested for 127individual differences in responses over time on behaviour (see Appendix Table A1). Thus, 128our aim is to educate those that are not aware of these issues, using simple examples that 129show how temporal change can seriously affect our estimates of broad sense repeatability.

Indeed, many authors either implicitly assume that behavioural or physiological traits I31are highly consistent over time, and then sample each individual only once (reviewed in I32Beckmann & Biro, 2013; Garamszegi, Markó, & Herczeg, 2012), or test for broad sense I33repeatability, but do so by only testing each subject twice (reviewed by Alison M. Bell, et al., I342009; Nespolo & Franco, 2007; Wolak, et al., 2012). This low level of replicates per I35individual implies that few investigators have explicitly considered just how labile I36physiological and behavioural traits can be, nor have they considered changes in behaviour I37over time, since multiple observations per individual are required to provide reasonable I38estimates of R_{A} , even in the absence of any time-related change (Wolak, et al., 2012). By 139contrast, psychologists have a long tradition of explicitly modelling temporal variation in 140behaviour (Singer & Willett, 2003).

141<H1>How temporally consistent are labile traits?

Currently, estimates of *R* reported in the empirical literature for nonhuman animals are 143rather low (mean = 0.4 or less) for both behavioural and physiological traits (reviewed by 144Alison M. Bell, et al., 2009; Nespolo & Franco, 2007; White, et al., 2013; Wolak, et al., 1452012). Although many studies refer to R = 0.4 as 'substantial', the reality is that it can be 146very difficult to distinguish between individuals and ascertain consistency over time for 147samples with this value of R (e.g. see Fig. 1c). Low values of R might occur because (1) 148most of the variation resides within rather than across individuals, (2) broad sense 149repeatability is low (i.e. individual differences in scores are not maintained over the 150observation period) or (3) an investigator has failed to account (or control) for factors, 151including time, that affect trait variation (Hayes & Jenkins, 1997; McGraw & Wong, 1996; 152Nakagawa & Schielzeth, 2010).

153<H1>What is narrow sense repeatability, *R*?

154 *R* is the proportion of the total variance in scores in a single context that is due to 155variance across individuals in their expected (mean) scores:

$$156R = \frac{VAR \, across}{VAR \, across + VAR resid} \tag{1}$$

VAR_{across} indicates the variance across individuals in their expected values and VAR_{resid}
158 any unexplained residual (within-individual) variance in the data. Several assumptions
159 must be satisfied for *R* to provide a valid estimate of the proportion of the total variance that
160 is due to individual differences in expected values. Arguably, the most important of these is

161that there is a common population (residual) variance for all measurement conditions 162(McGraw & Wong, 1996). Following from this are the related assumptions that residuals are 163random, independent and normally distributed (for Gaussian data). In practice, this means 164that for longitudinal data the VAR_{resid} should not change over time, that every individual in the 165sample should have the same residual variance around its expected value, and that the 166residuals around each individual's expected value should follow a normal distribution. For 167instance, if the assumption of a common population variance is not met due to the omission 168of a key factor(s) in the underlying model such as time, then it 'would be meaningless' to 169calculate any index of *R* (see also Hayes & Jenkins, 1997; p. 37, McGraw & Wong, 1996).

170 Importantly, even though *R* is often interpreted as an estimate of the extent to which 171 individual differences in scores are maintained over time (Alison M. Bell, et al., 2009; 172 Nespolo & Franco, 2007; Wolak, et al., 2012), one can plainly see that there is no term for 173 time in equation 1. Therefore, if behaviour does systematically change over time, either in 174 the same way in all of the subjects, or in different ways in different subjects, but these 175 temporal changes are not accounted for in the model that is used to estimate *R*, then *R* should 176 not be used to infer broad sense repeatability. Below we show why ignoring temporal 177 changes in behaviour, if present, can lead to problems when *R* is used to estimate broad sense 178 repeatability.

179<H1>Different indices of *R*: which to use and when

180 The variances used to calculate *R* can be generated by a statistical model that contains 181different terms to address the effects of time, which change the relative size of each variance 182component in equation 1, and therefore any inferences about broad sense repeatability that 183follow from them. We outline the three major indices of *R* below, their assumptions about 184change over time, and what they may or may not tell us about broad sense repeatability; in 185Table 1 we describe the underlying statistical model for each.

$186 \leq H2 \geq Agreement' repeatability (R_A)$

The most widely used version of *R* is R_A , an index that provides a measure of the 188agreement (or reproducibility) of the scores of different individuals (Hayes & Jenkins, 1997; 189McGraw & Wong, 1996; Nakagawa & Schielzeth, 2010). Traditionally, R_A has been 190measured using a single-factor ANOVA, in which there is no term for time and individual 191identity is the only predictor variable (Hayes & Jenkins, 1997; Lessells & Boag, 1987b; 192McGraw & Wong, 1996). More recently, mixed-effects models have been used to estimate 193 R_A , where individual identity is specified as a random intercept effect. Here we focus on the 194latter models, because they provide direct estimates of variance (for any index of *R*), and 195handle unbalanced and missing data.

Because there is no term for time in the underlying model (see Table 1), R_A 197implicitly assumes that every individual's trend line over time is horizontal (see Fig. 1). If 198this is true, and if other assumptions are satisfied (mentioned above), then R_A can provide a 199useful estimate of broad sense repeatability (McGraw & Wong, 1996). Data that do satisfy 200the assumptions for R_A are simulated in Fig. 1. Here, the expected score of each individual 201does not change over time, and (within each sample) the residual variance around the 202expected values (VAR_{resid}) is the same for every individual. However, because VAR_{resid} differs 203between the samples, R_A also differs between Fig. 1a, b and c. Thus, even though the VAR_{across} 204is the same for all three samples (i.e. the individual intercepts are the same in Fig. 1a, b, c), 205individual differences in scores are more strongly maintained over time when $R_A = 0.9$ than 206when $R_A = 0.4$. As a result, broad sense repeatability is higher in Fig. 1a than in Fig. 1c. 207Alternatively, of course, R_A would also vary across samples if the VAR_{resid} were the same for 208every sample, but VAR_{across} was higher in some samples than in others.

209 When mixed-effects models are used to generate estimates of R_A , these models 210specify an intercept for the fixed-effects portion (representing the population mean) and a 211variance parameter to describe VAR_{across}, which is given as the variance in individual 212intercepts VAR_{int}, termed a 'random intercept effect'; see R_A in Table 1).

213<u><H2>'Consistency' repeatability (R_C)</u>

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214 If scores change systematically over time, then R_A provides biased estimates of broad 215sense repeatability. When shared changes over time exist (i.e. individual expected values 216 over time are parallel, but not horizontal), then R_A cannot provide a good estimate of broad 217sense repeatability unless one accounts for these mean level changes in scores over time in 218the statistical model, yielding an index of R that has been called 'consistency' R, or $R_{\rm C}$ 219(McGraw & Wong, 1996; Nakagawa & Schielzeth, 2010). *R*_C is an index of *R* that accounts 220for any factor with equal effects on all of the individuals in the sample. An example of such a 221model is presented in Table 1. Failure to account for mean level change over time will lead to 222the residual variance changing over time, violating the constant variance assumption. This 223 occurs because we are implicitly fitting horizontal trend lines for each individual, when all of 224the trend lines should instead be increasing or decreasing, with the same slopes. In turn, this 225leads to underestimates of broad sense repeatability, where the extent of the discrepancy 226depends on the extent to which mean level scores change over time (see Fig. 2). Here, $R_{\rm C}$ is 227the same for all three samples because neither VAR_{across} nor VAR_{resid} varies across samples 228(Fig. 1a, b, c): thus *R*_C correctly indicates that broad sense repeatability is the same for all 229three samples. However, if we ignore these mean level changes in scores over time, and use $230R_{\rm A}$ instead, we would erroneously conclude that broad sense repeatability was substantially

231higher in Fig. 2a than in Fig. 2b or c; this occurs because any shared within-individual change232over time incorrectly becomes part of VAR_{resid}.

233<u><H2>'Conditional' repeatability (R|condition)</u>

When scores change over time, but the extent of change differs between individuals 235(Fig. 3a, b), then neither R_A nor R_C should be used to infer broad sense repeatability. In this 236situation, using R_A as an index of R is invalid because the key assumption of equal residual 237variance across individuals is violated: individuals whose behaviour changes markedly over 238time (a substantial time trend) have higher residual variance than individuals who maintain 239the same expected values over time (no time trend). Similarly, R_C cannot provide a valid 240index of R because it assumes that individuals all have the same time trends. If individuals 241differ in their time trends (Fig. 3b), then VAR_{across} necessarily also changes over time, and so 242must R as well. In other words, R varies as a function of time. In this case, the appropriate 243index of R has been termed 'conditional R' (Nakagawa & Schielzeth, 2010), where R is 244specific (conditional) to a particular value of time (here, R|time).

Unfortunately, R|time cannot be used to estimate broad sense repeatability, because a 246value of R that is specific to only one point in time cannot tell us about the extent to which 247individual differences in scores are maintained across the observation period. Rather, R|time 248tells us the extent to which individuals differ at a given point in time, under the assumption 249that within-individual (residual) variance is constant across individuals and over time (Fig 2503b). If values of R|time change dramatically across observations, this implies that broad 251sense repeatability is low, but there is no simple mapping between R|time and broad sense 252repeatability.

A statistical model that can be used to determine whether individuals have different 254trend lines over time is outlined in Table 1. Detailed descriptions of this type of mixed 255model, called 'random regression', can be found in several good texts (e.g. Singer & Willett, 2562003; Verbeke & Molenberghs, 2009; Zuur, Ieno, Walker, Saveliev, & Smith, 2009). Briefly, 257if there is significant variance across individuals in their estimated slopes (VAR_{slopes}), then 258individuals differ in trends over time, and *R* must therefore vary as a function of time (Table 2591).

260<H1>Summary of what *R* tells us about broad sense repeatability

Currently, most empirical studies use R_A to estimate broad sense repeatability, and 262then use these estimates of R_A to infer the extent to which individual differences in scores are 263maintained over time (Alison M. Bell, et al., 2009; Nakagawa & Schielzeth, 2010; Wolak, et 264al., 2012), Appendix Table A1). However, R_A only provides a valid estimate of broad sense 265repeatability if behaviour does not change over time. If there are shared trends over time (i.e. 266a significant fixed effect of time), then R_C should be used instead of R_A . The indices R_A and 267 R_C can provide reasonable estimates of broad sense repeatability only if individual trends 268over time all have zero slopes, or if individual trends are nonzero but parallel, respectively 269(see above). Finally, if the functional relationships between behaviour and time differ 270significantly between individuals (i.e. VAR_{slopes} is significant), then R|time can be used to 271estimate the extent to which individuals differ at a given point in time. However, in this 272situation none of the indices of R discussed above can provide valid estimates of broad sense 273repeatability (see above; Table 1).

274<H1>Assumptions when choosing an index of R

275 Before using any index of *R* to estimate the level of broad sense repeatability in a 276sample, we must verify that we have not violated assumptions of the model used to generate 277that index. Testing assumptions should begin by first asking whether individuals have 278different slopes (see *R*|time, Table 1) or different residual variation. If there is no indication 279that slopes differ between individuals, or that individuals differ in residual variation, then one 280can test for a shared effect of time (see R_c , Table 1). If there is a shared (fixed) effect of time, 281then R_c can be used to assess broad sense repeatability. If not (time effect P > 0.1), then one 282may simplify the underlying model further by removing the fixed effect of time and then use 283 R_A to estimate broad sense repeatability (Table 1). An essential part of this process is to plot 284model predicted values against the raw data for each individual in the sample, to ensure that 285model predictions are meaningful, and to verify assumptions about residuals (see above). In 286addition, if the focus of a given study is on individual differences, then one should report 287individual level data and model predictions in relation to the repeated measures.

One practical difficulty with testing assumptions is that detecting individual 289differences in slopes with reasonable power requires very large samples. Depending upon 290assumptions about the size of VAR_{resid}, this can require total sample sizes (individuals and 291repeated measures per individual) of nearly 1000 (Martin, et al., 2011; van de Pol, 2012). To 292date, most studies of labile traits reporting *R* measure about 30 individuals twice each (Alison 293M. Bell, et al., 2009; Nespolo & Franco, 2007; Wolak, et al., 2012), which is clearly 294insufficient to detect individual differences in slopes with power or precision (Martin, et al., 2952011; van de Pol, 2012). With such small samples, one could not conclude much if a 296statistical test for shared or nonshared time trends yielded a statistically nonsignificant result.

In a situation in which significant differences in individual slopes (trends over time) 298are detected, how can one obtain a reasonable index of broad sense repeatability, given that 299none of the indices of *R* are valid? At present we do not have a solution to this problem. This 300is because broad sense repeatability refers to the extent to which individual differences in 301scores are maintained over time; it does not refer to the extent to which individual differences 302in expected values are maintained over time. If one is interested in the temporal consistency 303of expected values (as opposed to the raw scores), then this might be explored using an effect

304size estimator of the variation in individual slopes over time (Singer & Willett, 2003). 305Alternatively, the range of *R*|time values across the observation period might provide an 306index of the extent to which individual differences in expected values were maintained across 307the observation period.

308<H1>Sample sizes and confounding factors

309 Throughout this discussion we have assumed that behaviour or physiology is 310measured under carefully controlled conditions, that repeated measures for all of the subjects 311were all taken in a single context (same set of external stimuli) using protocols that controlled 312 for variation in many of the other factors that contribute to behavioural variability (e.g. time 313of day, feeding history, sex, age, etc.). Failure to control experimentally for these sources of 314variability could inflate estimates of *R* (in the case of sex differences) or underestimate *R* (in 315the case of time of day variation). For instance, the repeatability of metabolism declines with 316time between successive measures (White, et al., 2013), suggesting that ontogenetic or ageing 317effects may confound our estimates of broad sense repeatability if we do not account for time 318 effects. In some cases, with sufficient samples, it may be possible to measure and then 319control statistically for sources of variability (other than time) using additional fixed and/or 320random effects (Peter A Biro, Adriaenssens, & Sampson, 2014). However, the greater the 321number of such effects, the greater the chance that individual differences will be confounded 322 with these effects, reducing the power to detect and estimate broad sense repeatability (see 323also discussion by Martin & Reale, 2008).

A related issue is whether sample sizes are sufficient to provide reasonably precise 325estimates of the value of *R* (and by extension, reasonable estimates of individual means), as 326opposed to simply testing whether R > 0. For instance, even in the absence of any time-327related change in scores at the mean or individual levels, or any other confounding fixed 328effects, one would need to sample about 100 individuals, five times each (or 250 individuals 329twice each), in order to estimate an R_A value of 0.4 with reasonable precision (see Figure 3 in 330Wolak et al. 2012). Using data from Bell et al. (2009), of some 759 estimates of behavioural 331repeatability we estimated that the average study (with ca. 40 individuals and two repeated 332measures) have only 20% of the required sample size mentioned above. Thus, both past 333studies (Bell et al. 2009) and recent ones (Wolak et al. 2012) typically have sample sizes too 334low for rigorous estimates of R_A . At the same time, larger sample sizes provide more robust 335estimates of individual predicted mean values which, in addition to estimates of R, aid in 336exploring links between traits at the across-individual level (see Adolph & Hardin, 2007).

Of course, it is obvious that large sample sizes and careful controls over 338environmental conditions are much easier to achieve in the laboratory than in the field. Even 339so, researchers studying free-living animals have been able to gather substantial numbers of 340repeated measures (Carter, Heinsohn, Goldizen, & Biro, 2012), and have been able to detect 341not only changes in mean level behaviour as a function of time (e.g. Martin & Reale, 2008), 342but also significant individual differences in the rates of change in behaviour as a function of 343time (e.g. Dingemanse, et al., 2012). Hence it is clearly feasible for investigators studying 344free-living animals to determine an appropriate index of *R* (or none!) to estimate broad sense 345repeatability of those animals. Thus, it should be possible to increase the number of samples 346per individual beyond the N = 2 that is still common in many field studies reporting *R*.

347<H1>Concluding Remarks

We hope to have convinced the reader that using *R* to infer broad sense repeatability is 349not as simple as commonly supposed, and requires much larger sample sizes than is usually 350the case. There are different indices of *R*, and whether any of them can provide a useful 351index of the temporal consistency of individual scores requires us to explicitly consider the 352possibility that trait values might systematically change over time. If they do, then using 353indices of R that ignore changes in scores over time can result in invalid (due to violations of 354assumptions) or seriously biased estimates of broad sense repeatability. More generally, now 355that there is abundant empirical evidence that many labile traits are 'repeatable' we suggest 356that researchers, especially those studying animals in the laboratory, pay less attention to 357whether or not R is significantly greater than zero, and more attention to obtaining robust 358estimates of the repeatability of behavioural and physiological traits.

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438**Figure 1.** Hypothetical (simulated) samples of six individuals sampled repeatedly over time. 439Within each sample (a–c), the residual variance (around the expected values) is the same for 440every individual, and neither the expected behaviour nor the residual values of each 441individual change as a function of time. Although VAR_{across} is the same in a, b and c 442(individual expected values, i.e. the intercepts, are the same), the residual variance (VAR_{resid}) 443differs, generating R_A values of (a) 0.9, (b) 0.6 and (c) 0.4. At present, many behavioural and 444physiological studies report R_A values of less than 0.4 (Alison M. Bell, et al., 2009; Nespolo 445& Franco, 2007).

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447Figure 2. Simulated data showing the effect of shared (mean level) change over time on 448estimates of R_A and R_C , when VAR_{across} (variance in individual intercepts) and VAR_{resid} 449(within-individual variation) are both held constant. (a) $R_A = 0.9$, $R_C = 0.9$, slope = 0. (b) $R_A =$ 4500.77, $R_C = 0.9$, slope = 1. (c) $R_A = 0.45$, $R_C = 0.9$, slope = 2. Individual intercepts are also 451identical in a, b and c. In this example VAR_{resid} is assumed to be very low in order to more 452clearly distinguish individual trends from one another.

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454Figure 3. Simulated data showing how the extent to which individuals differ in their trends 455(expected values) over time affects the various indices of *R* (i.e. VAR_{slopes} differs between a, 456b). (a) $R_A = 0.75$, $R_C = 0.9$, *R*|'time = 1' = 0.9, *R*|'time = 15' = 0.9. (b) $R_A = 0.5$, $R_C = 0.75$, 457*R*|'time = 1' = 0.7, *R*|'time = 15' = 0.96. For simplicity, individual intercepts are held 458constant, but individual slopes differ, in a and b. Residual variance is identical and low in a 459and b to aid the reader in distinguishing the individual trend lines.

461Appendix

Mean-level time considered?	Individual-level time effect considered?	Year	Journal	Authors	Title of article
Yes	Νο	2014	Anim Behav	Watts et al.	Diel patterns of foraging aggression and antipredator behaviour
Yes	Yes	2014	Anim Behav	Davy et al.	When righting is wrong: performance measures require rank rer
No	No	2014	Anim Behav	Trnka and Grim	Testing for correlations between behaviours in a cuckoo host: w
No	No	2014	Anim Behav	Jacobs et al.	Personality-dependent response to field playback in great tits: s
No	No	2014	Anim Behav	Taylor et al.	Colour use by tiny predators: jumping spiders show colour biase
No	No	2014	Anim Behav	Laskowski and Bell	Strong personalities, Not social niches, drive individual difference
No	No	2014	Anim Behav	Sussman et al.	Tenure in current captive setting and age predict personality cha
No	No	2013	Anim Behav	Petelle et al.	Development of boldness and docility in yellow-bellied marmot
No	No	2013	Anim Behav	Nandi and Balakrishnan	Call intensity is a repeatable and dominant acoustic feature dete
No	No	2013	Anim Behav	Jennings et al.	Personality and predictability in fallow deer fighting behaviour:
Yes	No	2013	Anim Behav	Fowler-Finn and Rodriguez	Repeatability of mate preference functions in EncheNopa treeho
No	No	2012	Anim Behav	Dammhahn and Almeling	Is risk taking during foraging a personality trait? A field test for c
No	No	2012	Anim Behav	Seltmann et al.	Stress responsiveness, age and body condition interactively affe
No	No	2012	Anim Behav	Deb et al.	Females of a tree cricket prefer larger males but Not the lower f
No	No	2012	Anim Behav	Kluen et al.	A simple cage test captures intrinsic differences in aspects of pe
Yes	Yes	2012	Anim Behav	Stamps et al.	Unpredictable animals: individual differences in intraindividual v
Yes	Yes	2012	Anim Behav	Biro	Do rapid assays predict repeatability in labile (behavioural) traits
Yes	Yes	2012	Anim Behav	Carter et al.	Boldness, trappability and sampling bias in wild lizards
Yes	No	2012	Anim Behav	Betini et al.	The relationship between personality and plasticity in tree swall
No	No	2011	Anim Behav	David et al.	Personality affects zebra finch feeding success in a producer-scre
No	No	2011	Anim Behav	Jenkins	Sex differences in repeatability of food-hoarding behaviour of ka
No	No	2011	Anim Behav	David et al.	Personality predicts social dominance in female zebra finches, T

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No	No	2014	Behav Ecol Socio	Kortet et al.	Behavioral variation
Yes	Yes	2014	Behav Ecol Socio	Grim et al.	The repeatability of
Yes	No	2014	Behav Ecol Socio	Boulton et al.	How stable are pers
No	No	2014	Behav Ecol Socio	ToscaNo et al.	Effect of predation t
No	No	2014	Behav Ecol Socio	Kekalainen et al.	Do brain parasites a
No	No	2014	Behav Ecol Socio	Kluen et al.	Testing for between
No	No	2013	Behav Ecol Socio	Fitzsimmons et al.	Signaling effort doe
Yes	No	2013	Behav Ecol Socio	Cordes et al.	Risk-taking behavio
Yes	Yes	2012	Behav Ecol Socio	Lupold et al.	Seasonal variation in
No	No	2012	Behav Ecol Socio	Hedrick and Kortet	Sex differences in th
Yes	No	2011	Behav Ecol Socio	Koski	Social personality tr
No	No	2011	Behav Ecol Socio	Gladbach et al.	Can faecal glucocor
No	No	2014	Behav Ecol	Wignall et al.	Extreme short-term
Yes	No	2014	Behav Ecol	Grunst et al.	Age-dependent rela
Yes	No	2014	Behav Ecol	Perez et al.	When males are mo
Yes	No	2013	Behav Ecol	Carvalho et al.	Personality traits are
No	No	2013	Behav Ecol	Kluen and Brommer	Context-specific rep
No	No	2012	Behav Ecol	Edelaar et al.	Tonic immobility is a
Yes	No	2012	Behav Ecol	Low et al.	Food availability and
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shows heritability in juvenile brown trout Sa avian egg ejection behaviors across differen sonalities? A multivariate view of behavioura threat on repeatability of individual crab beh Ilter host personality? - Experimental study in individual correlations of personality and pl s Not predict aggressiveness in male spring f r in the lesser wax moth: disentangling withi n ejaculate traits of male red-winged blackbi ne repeatability of boldness over metamorph raits in chimpanzees: temporal stability and s ticoid metabolites be used to monitor body of repeatability of male courtship performance ationships between multiple sexual pigments pre inclined to stay at home: insights into the e related to ecology across a biological invasi peatability of personality traits in a wild bird: a measure of boldness toward predators: an d offspring demand influence sex-specific pa





Index of R	Assumptions	Graphical depiction	Assumptions in terms of		Statistical model effects	
		of the assumptions	statistical effects			
				fixed effects	random effects	r
		(each line represents		(mean-level	(across-individual	(
		one individual)		trend)	variance)	٧
R _A	Individual expected	· · ·	(a) individual differences in	Y = intercept	VAR _{int}	١
	values do not change over	• •	intercepts			
	time	0 0				
Rc	Individual expected	1 2 3 4 5	(a) individual differences	Y = intercept + TIME	VAR _{int}	١
		• •	In Intercepts			
	over time	•	(b) mean-level effect of TIME			
<i>R</i> time	Individual expected values	12345	(a) individual differences	Y = intercept + TIME	VAR _{int}	١
	change over time differently	•	in intercepts		VAR _{slope}	
		0	(b) mean-level effect of TIME		COV _{i,s}	
		8	(c) individual differences			
		1 2 3 4 5				

in change over time (slopes)

(d) covariance between individual

intercepts and slopes (COV_{i,s})









474Figure 2