Aggressiveness as a latent personality trait of domestic

dogs: testing local independence and measurement

invariance

Conor Goold[1*], Ruth C. Newberry[1]

[1] Department of Animal and Aquacultural Sciences, Norwegian University of Life

Sciences, Ås, Akershus, Norway

[*] Corresponding author: conor.goold@nmbu.no (CG)

8 **Abstract**

Studies of animal personality attempt to uncover underlying or 'latent' personality traits

that explain broad patterns of behaviour, often by applying latent variable statistical

models (e.g. factor analysis) to multivariate data sets. Two integral, but infrequently

confirmed, assumptions of popular latent variable models in animal personality are: i)

behavioural variables are independent (i.e. uncorrelated) conditional on the latent

personality traits they reflect (*local independence*), and ii) personality traits are

associated with behavioural variables in the same way across individuals or groups of

individuals (*measurement invariance*). We tested these assumptions using observations

of aggression in four age classes (4 - 10 months, 10 months - 3 years, 3 - 6 years, over 6

years) of male and female shelter dogs (N = 4,743) in 11 different contexts. A structural

equation model supported the hypothesis of two correlated (ρ = 0.25; p < 0.001)

personality traits underlying aggression across contexts: aggressiveness towards people

and aggressiveness towards dogs (comparative fit index: 0.97; Tucker-Lewis index: 0.96;

root mean square error of approximation: 0.03). Aggression across contexts was

moderately repeatable (towards people: ICC = 0.479, 95% CI: 0.466, 0.491; towards

dogs: ICC = 0.303, 95% CI: 0.291, 0.315). However, certain contexts related to

aggressiveness towards people (but not dogs) shared significant residual correlations

unaccounted for by latent levels of aggressiveness. Furthermore, aggressiveness

towards people and dogs in different contexts interacted with sex and age. Thus, sex

and age differences in displays of aggression were not simple functions of underlying

aggressiveness. Our results illustrate that the robustness of traits in latent variable

models must be critically assessed before making conclusions about the effects of, or

factors influencing, animal personality. Our findings are of concern because inaccurate

'aggressive personality' trait attributions can be costly to dogs, recipients of aggression

and society in general.

Key words: animal personality assessment; agonistic behaviour; shelter dogs;

measurement bias; behavioural phenotyping

Introduction

Studies of non-human animal personality, defined by relatively consistent between-individual differences in behaviour, demonstrate that organisation of the behavioural phenotype is markedly hierarchical and non-independent [1–3]. Observed patterns of behaviour can be explained by broad behavioural dimensions or personality traits, including boldness, activity, exploration, sociability and aggressiveness [4], which are further inter-correlated to form behavioural syndromes [5]. To interpret the complexity inherent in behavioural phenotypes, personality traits and behavioural syndromes are frequently inferred using latent variable statistical models, which reduce two or more measured variables (the *manifest* variables) into one or more lower-dimensional variables (the *latent* variables). Latent variable models have been popular in human psychology for over a century [6], and now comprise a flexible set of methods to derive lower-order variables from multivariate data sets [7].

Because latent variables are unobserved, latent variable models require careful application and interpretation [8–10]. In animal personality, many studies use *formative* models, such as principal components analysis, that construct composite variables comprised of linear combinations of manifest variables. However, formative models impose only weak assumptions about the relationships between latent variables and manifest variables [11]. As such, their utility for inferring the nature of personality traits has been criticised in both animals [12,13] and humans [9,11,14,15]. Alternatively,

researchers have used *reflective* models, such as factor analysis and, increasingly,

confirmatory approaches such as structural equation modelling. These models regress

measured behaviours on one or more latent variables [11], incorporating measurement

error and possibilities to compare *a priori* competing hypotheses (for applications in

animal personality, see [1,16–18]).

Whilst reflective models offer a powerful framework to probe the latent variable

structure of behaviour, they impose certain constraints on the interpretation and

modelling of latent variables that have received scrutiny in human psychology but are

rarely discussed in studies of animal personality. Two foundational assumptions of these

models are *local independence* and *measurement invariance*. Local independence

implies that manifest variables should be independent of each other conditional on the

latent variables [19,20]. For example, given a latent variable θ and two binary manifest

variables Y_1 and Y_2 that can take the values 0 and 1, the item response theory model

asserts that $P(Y_1 = 1, Y_2 = 1|\theta) = P(Y_1 = 1|\theta)P(Y_2 = 1|\theta)$. As such, the latent

variables should screen off any dependence between manifest variables. Measurement

invariance, on the other hand, implies that the latent variables function the same (i.e.

are invariant or equivalent) in different subsets of a population or in the same

individuals through time [21–24]. That is, given a fixed level x on a latent variable θ,

denoted θ_x, the expected values of manifest variables Y_i, from *i = 1* to *N*, should be the

same across a grouping factor π (e.g. sex or different populations), expressed as

$E(Y_i \mid \theta_x) = E(Y_i \mid \theta_x, \pi)$. Intuitively, violations of either local independence or

measurement invariance imply that the latent variables do not completely explain

variation in manifest variables, which may lead to artefactual conclusions about the

differences between individuals as a function of trait scores [25–27]. More generally,

investigating violations of local independence and measurement invariance can identify

measurement biases that can be rectified to improve the quality of personality

assessments.

The use of latent variable modelling is particularly common in studies of personality in

domestic dogs (*Canis lupus familiaris*), where the collection of data sets comprised of

multiple behavioural variables (e.g. questionnaires) has been prevalent for decades [28–

30]. Personality assessments are important both in applied settings to predict the

behaviour of dogs at future time points [31] and also to elucidate behavioural traits

pertinent to dogs' domestication history [32,33]. Decomposing behaviour into a smaller

number of underlying dimensions that explain variation in measured behaviours aids in

measuring hypothesised stable behavioural features of individuals from which

predictions of future behaviour are estimable and upon which selection may have been

focused. Nonetheless, research on personality in dogs has led to different numbers and

composition of hypothesised personality traits with little clear consensus on how such

traits should be compared within and between studies [34–36]. Most importantly, the

predictive value of personality assessments in dogs has been inconsistent [31,37–41],

perhaps most prominently in shelter dog personality assessments (e.g. see [31] for a

review). The predictive validity of personality assessments is of particular concern in

tests of aggression, where aggression is frequently divided into different aggressiveness

traits, including owner-, stranger-, dog- or animal-directed factors [29,35,42,43]. Based

on such assessments, if falsely labelled as aggressive in one or more of these categories,

the dog may be euthanised unnecessarily whereas, if falsely considered unaggressive,

the dog may be more likely to be placed in situations leading to harmful behaviour. Dog

bites are a serious public health concern [44], especially for animal shelters rehoming

dogs to new owners, and aggressive behaviour is undesirable to many organisations

using dogs for various working roles [45].

Why has the prediction of dog personality been difficult? On one hand, the validation of

personality tests has been criticised for lacking rigour [34,46], meaning the targeted

traits may not be under measurement as intended. In particular, commonly-used

'battery assessments', comprised of different sub-tests conducted sequentially, may not

be valid if the responses to one sub-test alter how the animal responds to subsequent

sub-tests given an underlying trait (e.g. if test items are 'invasive' to subsequent items;

[47]). Moreover, test batteries can be "inherently stress-inducing for test animals" ([31]:

10), so behavioural responses may be functions of the targeted traits and stress

responses. On the other hand, personality may simply not be generalisable across all

individuals if individual behaviour is differentially dependent on factors such as age (e.g.

[35,40]) or fluctuating environmental conditions (e.g. behaviour in a shelter versus out

of a shelter; [48]). In reflective latent variable modelling, greater attention to the

assumptions of local independence and measurement invariance is, thus, warranted.

For aggressiveness specifically, if aggression shown in one context or test item increases

the likelihood of aggression in others [48], local independence would be violated.

Further, interactive effects between aggressiveness and demographic variables, such as

age, sex, breed or neuter status (e.g. [49–51]), would violate the assumption of

measurement invariance. Whilst van den Berg *et al.* [18] reported measurement

invariance of the *stranger-directed aggression* factor from the Canine Behaviour and

Research Questionnaire (C-BARQ; [29]) across three breeds of dogs, measurement

invariance of aggression assessed with respect to other factors has not been evaluated

and, to our knowledge, no authors have confirmed local independence between

manifest variables in animal personality assessments.

In this paper, we assessed local independence and measurement invariance of

aggressiveness using a large sample of data on inter-context aggression in shelter dogs.

First, we sought to decompose observations of aggression towards people and dogs

across contexts into separate aggressiveness traits. Secondly, we assessed whether

aggression in different contexts remained associated beyond that explained by latent

levels of aggressiveness, testing local independence. Thirdly, we investigated whether

the probability of aggression in different contexts believed to be underpinned by the

same aggressiveness trait was measurement invariant with respect to sex and age

groups. While it may be unrealistic for measurement invariance to hold in all instances,

it is important to establish whether it holds across basic biological variables such as age

and sex which are generally applicable to dog populations undergoing personality

assessment.

Materials & Methods

Subjects

Observational data on the occurrence of aggression in 4,743 dogs were gathered from

Battersea Dogs and Cats Home's (UK) observational and longitudinal dog behaviour

assessment records. The data were from a sample of dogs (N=4,990) at the shelter's

three rehoming centres during 2014 (including dogs that arrived during 2013 or left in

2015). We selected the records from all dogs that were at least 4 months old, excluding

younger dogs because they were more likely to be unvaccinated, more limited in their

interactions at the shelter and may have been kennelled in different areas to older dogs.

Relevant demographic characteristics of the dogs are provided in Table 1. Although dogs

were from a variety of heritages (including purebreeds and mongrels), the analyses here

did not explore breed differences because visual assessment to attribute breed to dogs

with unknown heritage has been questioned [52].

Table 1. Demographic characteristics of the studied dogs.

Variable	Mean ± SD / *N*
Average age at shelter (years; all ≥ 4 months of age)	3.75 ± 3.03
Total days at the shelter	25.13 ± 41.53
Weight (average weight if multiple measurements; kg)	19.06 ± 10.26
Rehoming centre: London / Old Windsor / Brands Hatch	2897 / 1280 / 566
Males / females	2749 / 1994
Neutered before arrival / neutered at shelter / not neutered	1218 / 1665 / 1502
Relinquished by owners / returned to shelter / strays	2892 / 260 / 1591

Shelter environment

The shelter was composed of three different UK rehoming centres: a high-throughput,

urban centre based at Battersea, London with capacity for approximately 150-200 dogs;

a semi-rural/rural centre based at Old Windsor with capacity for approximately 100-150

dogs; and a rural centre based at Brands Hatch with capacity for approximately 50 dogs.

All dogs arrived in an intake area of their respective rehoming centre and, when

considered suitable for adoption, were moved to a 'rehoming' area that was partially

open to the public between 1000 h and 1600 h. All kennels were indoors. Kennels varied

in size, but were usually approximately 4m x 2m and included either a shelf and bedding

alcove area, or a more secluded bedding area at the back of the kennel (see [53] for

more details). At different times throughout the day, dogs had access to indoor runs

behind their kennels. In each kennel block area, dogs were cared for (e.g. fed, exercised,

kennel cleaned) by a relatively stable group of staff members, allowing the development

of familiarity with staff members and offering some predictability for dogs after arrival

at the shelter. Although data on the number of dogs in each kennel were incomplete, in

the majority of cases dogs were kennelled singly for safety reasons. The shelter mainly

operated between 0800 h and 1700 h each day. All dogs were socialised with staff

and/or volunteers each day (often multiple times) unless it was unsafe to do so. They

were provided water ad libitum and fed commercial complete dry and/or wet tinned

food twice daily (depending on recommendations by veterinary staff). Dogs received

daily tactile, olfactory and/or auditory enrichment/variety (e.g. toys, essential oils,

classical music, time in a quiet 'chill-out' room).

Data collection

In the observational assessment procedure, trained shelter employees recorded

observations of dog behaviour in a variety of contexts as part of normal shelter

procedures. The average number of days between successive observations within all

contexts and across all dogs was 3.27 (SD = 2.08), and dogs had an average of 9.77 (SD =

13.41) observations within each context. Behavioural observations pertaining to each

context were completed using an ethogram specific to that context and recorded in a

custom computer system. Multiple observations could be completed each day. The

ethogram behaviour that best described a dog's behaviour in a particular context during

an observation was recorded by selecting it from a series of drop-down boxes (one for

each context). Although staff could also add additional information in character fields,

we did not analyse those comments in this study. The ethogram for each context

represented a scale of behaviours ranging from desirable to undesirable considered by

the shelter to be relevant to dog welfare and ease of adoption. Contexts had between

10 and 16 possible behaviours to choose from, some of which overlapped between

different contexts. Among the least desirable behaviours in each context was aggression

towards either people or dogs (depending on context). Aggression was formally defined

as "*Growls, snarls, shows teeth and/or snaps when seeing/meeting other people/dogs,*

potentially pulling or lunging towards them", distinguished from non-aggressive but

reactive responses, defined as "*Barks, whines, howls and/or play growls when*

seeing/meeting other people/dogs, potentially pulling or lunging towards them".

Observation contexts included both onsite (at the shelter) and offsite (e.g. out in public

parks) settings.

For the analyses here, we focused on observations of aggression in nine core onsite

contexts: i) *Handling*, ii) *In kennel*, iii) *Out of kennel*, iv) *Interactions with familiar people*,

v) *Interactions with unfamiliar people*, vi) *Eating food*, vii) *Interactions with toys*, viii)

Interactions with female dogs, ix) *Interactions with male dogs*. For the *In kennel* and *Out*

of kennel contexts, recording of aggression towards both people and dogs was possible.

Although multiple observations could be made, if both occurred at the same time,

aggression towards people would be prioritised over aggression towards dogs in the

recording process. Therefore, *In kennel* and *Out of kennel* were each divided to reflect

aggression shown towards people and dogs, respectively. This resulted in 11 final

aggression contexts, defined in Table 2, which were used as manifest variables in

structural equation models to investigate latent aggressiveness traits. Each observation

of aggression was recorded in the category that best described the scenario.

Nonetheless, certain contexts could occur closely in space and time. For example, the

Handling context could directly succeed the *Interactions with familiar people* or

Interactions with unfamiliar people contexts. The sequential occurrence of certain

contexts was used to inform tests of local independence, explained below.

We aggregated behavioural observations across time for each dog into a dichotomous

variable indicating whether a dog had or had not shown aggression in a particular

context at any time while at the shelter. This was performed because the overall

prevalence of aggression was low, with only 1.06% of all observations involving

aggression towards people and 1.13% towards dogs. Thus, the main difference between

individuals was whether they had or had not shown aggression in a particular context

during their time at the shelter (see Table S1 for raw counts of aggression by context),

and we interpret aggressiveness here as a between-individual difference variable.

Table 2. Behavioural observation contexts.

Context	Definition
Handling	A dog's reaction to informal handling by people (e.g. stroking non-sensitive areas, touching the collar, fitting a harness or lead).
In kennel towards people	A dog's reaction to people approaching or walking past the kennel.
In kennel towards dogs	A dog's reaction to dogs in neighbouring kennels or dogs walking past the kennel.
Interactions with familiar people	A dog's reaction when outside of the kennel to familiar people (interacted with at least once before) approaching, making eye contact, speaking to or attempting to make physical contact with the dog.
Interactions with unfamiliar people	A dog's reaction when outside of the kennel to unfamiliar people (never interacted with before) approaching, making eye contact, speaking to or attempting to make physical contact with the dog.
Out of kennel towards people	A dog's reaction when around people outside of the kennel. Large distances may separate the focal dog and people, and no attempt is made to engage by the people with the focal dog.
Out of kennel towards dogs	A dog's reaction when around dogs outside of the kennel. Large distances may separate the focal dog and other dogs, and the dogs are not encouraged to interact.
Eating food	A dog's reaction when eating food (e.g. from a food bowl, or toy filled with food) to people approaching, in close proximity, or attempting to touch the food container.
Interactions with toys	A dog's reaction when interacting with toys to people approaching within close proximity and/or attempting to touch the toy.
Interactions with female dogs	A dog's reaction during structured interactions with a female dog, including approaching each other, walking in parallel, and interacting off-lead. Both dogs are aware of each other's presence and are in close enough proximity to engage in a physical interaction.
Interactions with male dogs	A dog's reaction during structured interactions with a male dog, including approaching each other, walking in parallel, and interacting off-lead. Both dogs are aware of each other's presence and are in close enough proximity to engage in a physical interaction.

Behavioural observation contexts analysed for the presence or absence of aggression.

Validity of behaviour recordings

Validity of the recording of behaviour was assessed separately from the main data

collection as part of a wider project investigating the use of the observational

assessment method. Ninety-three shelter employees trained in conducting behavioural

observations each watched (in groups of 5 – 10 people) 14 videos, approximately 30

seconds each, presenting exemplars of 2 different behaviours from seven contexts (to

keep the sessions concise and maximise the number of participants). For each context,

behaviours were chosen pseudo-randomly by numbering each behaviour and selecting

two numbers using a random number generator. Experienced behaviourists working at

the shelter filmed the videos demonstrating the behaviours. Videos were shown to

participants once in a pseudo-random order. After each video, participants recorded on

a paper answer sheet the behaviour they thought most accurately described the dog's

behaviour based on the ethogram specific to the context depicted. Two of the videos

illustrated aggression: one in a combined *Interactions with new* and *familiar people*

context (combined because familiarity between specific people and dogs was not

universally known) and one in the *In kennel towards dogs* context. The authors were

blind to the selection of videos shown and to the video coding sessions with shelter

employees.

Data analysis

All data analysis was conducted in R version 3.3.2 [54].

Validity of behaviour recordings

The validity of shelter employees' recording of behaviour from videos was assessed by

the percentage of participants who identified the 2 videos as showing examples of

aggression.

Missing data

Data were missing when dogs did not experience particular contexts while at the

shelter. The missing data rate was between 0.06% and 5% for each context, except for

the *Interactions with female dogs* and *Interactions with male dogs* categories which had

17% and 18% of missing values, respectively (because structured interactions with other

dogs did not arise as frequently). Moreover, 16% and 7% of dogs were missing weight

measurement and neuter status data, respectively, which were independent variables

statistically controlled for in subsequent analyses. We created 5 multiply imputed data

sets (using the *Amelia* package; [55]), upon which all of the analyses in the sections

below were conducted and results pooled. The multiple imputation took into account

the hierarchical structure of the data (observations within dogs), all independent

variables reported below, and the data types (ordered binary variables for the context

data, positive-continuous for weight measurements, nominal for neuter status). The

data were assumed to be missing at random, that is, dependent only on other variables

in the analyses.

Structural equation models

We used structural equation modelling to assess whether aggression towards people

(contexts: *Handling*, *In kennel towards people*, *Out of kennel towards people*,

Interactions with familiar people, *Interactions with unfamiliar people*, *Eating food*,

Interactions with toys) and towards dogs (contexts: *In kennel towards dogs*, *Out of*

kennel towards dogs, Interactions with female dogs, *Interactions with male dogs*) could

be explained by two latent aggressiveness traits: aggressiveness towards people and

dogs, respectively. We compared a model where the latent variables were orthogonal to

a model where the latent variables were allowed to correlate, since positive correlations

between different aggressiveness traits in dogs have been reported in dogs [56]. Models

were fit using the *lavaan* package [57], with the weighted least squares mean and

variance adjusted (WLSMV) estimator and theta/conditional parameterisation, as

recommended for categorical dependent variables [7,58,59]. The latent variables were

standardised to have mean 0 and variance 1. The results were combined across imputed

data sets using the 'runMI' function in the *semTools* package [60]. The fit of each model

was ascertained using the comparative fit index (CFI) and Tucker Lewis index (TLI),

where values > 0.95 indicate excellent fit, as well as the root mean squared error of

approximation (RMSEA) where values < 0.06 indicate good fit [7]. Parameter estimates

were summarised by *p* values (considered significant at *p* < 0.05).

Local independence

We tested the assumption of local independence by re-fitting the best-fitting structural

equation model with residual correlations between context variables. To maintain a

theoretically driven approach (see [61] regarding the best practice of including residual

correlations in structural equation models) and model identifiability, we only tested a

predefined set of residual correlations that we believed to be most relevant. First, we

allowed correlations between *Handling* with *In kennel towards people*, *Interactions with*

familiar people, *Interactions with unfamiliar people* and *Interactions with toys*,

respectively. The *Handling* context could directly succeed these other contexts, leading

to close temporal-spatial relationships, and whether a dog showed aggression in the

Handling context may be mediated by a person's decision to handle a dog depending on

the dog's behaviour in preceding contexts. The residual correlation between *Handling*

and *Eating food* was not estimated because shelter employees would be unlikely to

handle a dog while the dog ate its daily meals. The residual correlation between

Handling and *Out of kennel towards people* was not estimated because any association

between *Handling* and *Out of kennel towards people* would be mediated by either the

Interactions with familiar people or *Interactions with unfamiliar people* context.

Therefore, secondly, we estimated the three-way correlations between *Out of kennel*

towards people, *Interactions with familiar people* and *Interactions with unfamiliar*

people. Similarly, and lastly, we estimated the three-way correlations between *Out of*

kennel towards dogs, Interactions with female dogs and *Interactions with male dogs*.

Measurement invariance

To test for measurement invariance in each of the latent traits derived from the best

fitting structural equation model, we investigated the response patterns across

aggression contexts related to the same latent aggressiveness trait using Bayesian

hierarchical logistic regression models. Whilst measurement invariance for categorical

data can be ascertained in structural equation model frameworks [58,62], item response

theory is more commonly applied to dichotomously scored variables. In psychometrics,

the 1-parameter item response theory model, or Rasch model, represents the

probability that an individual responds correctly to a particular test item as a logistic

function of i) each individual's latent ability and ii) the item's difficulty level. The Rasch

model can be expressed as a hierarchical logistic regression model [63,64], whereby

individual latent abilities are modelled as individual-specific intercepts (i.e. 'random

intercepts'), the propensity for a correct answer to an item i is its regression coefficient

β_i, and credible interactions between items and relevant independent variables (e.g.

group status) indicate a violation of measurement invariance. Here, the dependent

variable was the binary score for whether or not dogs had shown aggression in each

context and the average probability of aggression across contexts varied by dog,

representing latent levels of aggressiveness. Context type, dog age, dog sex and their

interactions were included as categorical independent variables.

Age was treated as a categorical variable, with categories reflecting general

developmental periods: i) 4 months to 10 months (juvenile dogs before puberty), ii) 10

months to 3 years (dogs maturing from juveniles to adults), iii) 3 years to 6 years

(adults), and iv) 6 years + (older dogs). Broad age categories were chosen due to

potentially large differences in developmental timing between individuals. Age was

categorised because we predicted that aggression would be dependent on these

developmental periods.

Models included additional demographic variables (see Table 1) that may mediate the

probability of aggression: body weight (average weight if multiple measurements were

taken), total number of days spent at the shelter, the rehoming centre at which dogs

were based (London, Old Windsor, Brands Hatch), neuter status (neutered before

arrival, neutered at the shelter, not neutered) and source type (relinquished by owner,

returned to the shelter after adoption, stray). Categorical variables were represented as

sum-to-zero deflections from the group-level intercept to ensure the intercept

represented the average probability of aggression across categorical levels. Weight and

total days at the shelter were mean-centered and standardised by 2 standard

deviations. Due to the potentially complex relationships between these variables and

aggression (e.g. interactive effects between neuter status and sex; [49]), which could

also include violations of measurement invariance, we decided not to interpret their

effects inferentially. Instead, they were included to make the assessment of

measurement invariance between sexes and age groups conditional on variance

explained by potentially important factors.

For comparability to other studies in animal personality, behavioural repeatability was

calculated across contexts in each model using the intraclass correlation coefficient

(ICC), calculated as $\frac{\sigma_\beta^2}{\sigma_\beta^2 + \sigma_\epsilon^2}$, where σ_β^2 represented the between-individual variance of the

probability of aggression (i.e. the variance of the random intercepts), and σ_ϵ^2 was $\pi^2/3$,

the residual variance of the standard logistic distribution [65].

Computation

Models were computed using the probabilistic programming language Stan version 2.12

[66], using Hamiltonian Monte Carlo, a type of Markov Chain Monte Carlo (MCMC)

algorithm, to sample from the posterior distribution (model code supplied in Supporting

Information). Prior distributions for all independent variables were normal distributions

with mean 0 and standard deviation 1, attenuating regression coefficients towards zero

for conservative inference. The prior on the overall intercept parameter was normally

distributed with mean 0 and standard deviation 5. The standard deviation of dog-

specific intercept parameters was given a half-Cauchy prior distribution with mean 0

and shape 2. Each model was run with 4 chains of 2,000 iterations with a 1,000 step

warm-up period. The Gelman-Rubin statistic (ideally < 1.05) and visual assessment of

traceplots were used to assess MCMC convergence and we checked the accuracy of the

posterior predicted probabilities of aggression against the raw data. Regression

coefficients were expressed as odds ratios and were summarised by their mean and 95%

Bayesian credibility interval (CI, i.e. the 95% most probable parameter values). To

compare levels of categorical variables and their interactions, we computed the 95% CI

of the differences between the respective posterior distributions.

Model selection & parameter inference

Models were run on each imputed data set and their respective posterior distributions

were averaged to attain a single posterior distribution for inference. Adopting a

Bayesian approach allowed the estimation of interaction parameters (i.e. testing

measurement invariance) without requiring corrections for multiple comparisons as in

frequentist null hypothesis testing [67]. Nonetheless, models included a large number of

estimated parameters. Two strategies were employed to guard against over-fitting of

models to data. First, we selected the model with the best out-of-sample predictive

accuracy given the number of parameters based on the Widely Applicable Information

Criterion (WAIC; using the R package *loo* [68]). Four variants of each model were

computed: two-way interactions between contexts and age and contexts and sex,

respectively (model 1), a single interaction with sex but not with age (model 2), a single

interaction with age but not with sex (model 3), and no interactions (model 4). All

models included the mediating independent variables above. Second, to avoid testing

point-estimate null hypotheses, the effect of a parameter was only considered credibly

different from zero if the odds ratio exceeded the region of practical equivalence (ROPE;

see [69]) around an odds ratio of 1 from 0.80 to 1.25. An odds ratio of 0.80 or 1.25

indicates a 20% decrease or increase (i.e. 4/5 or 5/4 odds), respectively, in the odds of

an outcome, frequently used in areas of bioequivalence testing (e.g. [70]), which we

here considered to be small enough to demonstrate a negligible effect in the absence of

additional information. If a 95% CI fell completely within the ROPE, the null hypothesis

of no credible influence of that parameter was accepted; if a 95% CI spanned the ROPE

(i.e. included part of the ROPE), then the parameter's influence was left undecided [69].

Ethics statement

414   Permission to access and utilise the data was given by the shelter after signing a non-

415   disclosure agreement. Approval from an ethical review board was not required for this

416   study.

Data accessibility

419   The data used in this study are protected by a non-disclosure agreement. Researchers

420   can access the data by contacting Battersea Dogs and Cats Home.

Results

Validity of behaviour recordings

For the video showing aggression towards people, 51.61% of participants identified the

behaviour as aggression and 41.94% identified the behaviour as non-aggressive but

reactive behaviour (see definitions above). For the video showing aggression towards

dogs, 52.69% identified the behaviour correctly and 44.09% identified the behaviour as

non-aggressive but reactive behaviour. For the 12 other videos not showing aggression,

only 1 person coded a video as aggression towards people and 3 people coded videos as

aggression towards dogs.

Structural equation models

The raw tetrachoric correlation matrix for aggression between contexts is presented in

Table S2. Both structural equation models demonstrated excellent fit, with the model

with correlated latent variables fitting marginally better (CFI: 0.97; TLI: 0.96; RMSEA:

0.03) than the model with uncorrelated variables (CFI: 0.96; TLI: 0.95; RMSEA 0.04). All

regression coefficients of the model with correlated latent variables were positive and

significant (Table 3), and latent variables shared a significant positive correlation (ρ =

0.25; p < 0.001; Table 3).

Local independence

Allowing the pre-defined residuals to co-vary in the structural equation model resulted

in marginally better fit (CFI = 0.98; TLI = 0.97; RMSEA: 0.03). A significant negative

correlation was observed between *Handling* and *In kennel towards people* contexts (ρ =

-0.67; p = 0.003; Table 4), and *Handling* and *Interactions with unfamiliar people* contexts

(ρ = -0.55; p = 0.01; Table 4). Significant positive correlations were observed between

Handling and *Interactions with toys* contexts (ρ = 0.15; p = 0.04; Table 4), and *Out of*

kennel towards people with the *Interactions with unfamiliar people* context (ρ = 0.27; p

< 0.001; Table 4). No significant residual correlations between contexts reflecting

aggressiveness towards dogs were observed (Table 4).

Table 3. Structural equation model parameter estimates.

Parameter	Estimate	SE	z value	p value
Handling[a]	0.83	0.06	15.07	< 0.001
In kennel towards people[a]	1.31	0.09	15.00	< 0.001
Out of kennel towards people[a]	0.33	0.07	12.60	< 0.001
Interactions with familiar people[a]	0.99	0.07	14.81	< 0.001
Interactions with unfamiliar people[a]	1.58	0.12	12.97	< 0.001
Eating food[a]	0.73	0.06	13.02	< 0.001
Interactions with toys[a]	0.54	0.07	8.04	< 0.001
In kennel towards dogs[b]	0.75	0.06	11.74	< 0.001
Out of kennel towards dogs[b]	0.50	0.04	11.87	< 0.001
Interactions with female dogs[b]	0.94	0.07	11.19	< 0.001
Interactions with male dogs[b]	0.89	0.07	12.66	< 0.001
Correlation: People ~ Dogs	0.25	0.03	7.50	< 0.001

Parameter estimates from the best-fitting structural equation model, explaining

aggression by two correlated latent variables.

[a] Contexts reflecting aggressiveness towards people

[b] Contexts reflecting aggressiveness towards dogs

Table 4. Tests of local independence.

Residual correlations	Estimate	SE	*z* value	*p* value
Handling ~ In kennel towards people[a]	-0.67	0.22	-3.01	0.003
Handling ~ Interactions with familiar people[a]	0.15	0.09	1.72	0.09
Handling ~ Interactions with unfamiliar people[a]	-0.55	0.21	-2.66	0.01
Handling ~ Interactions with toys[a]	0.15	0.07	2.06	0.04
Out of kennel towards people ~ Interactions with familiar people[a]	0.04	0.08	0.51	0.61
Out of kennel towards people ~ Interactions with unfamiliar people[a]	0.27	0.09	3.20	0.001
Interactions with familiar people ~ Interactions with unfamiliar people[a]	0.003	0.11	0.02	0.98
Out of kennel towards dogs ~ Interactions with female dogs[b]	-0.65	0.63	-1.04	0.30
Out of kennel towards dogs ~ Interactions with male dogs[b]	-0.41	0.67	-1.08	0.27
Interactions with female dogs ~ Interactions with male dogs[b]	-0.28	0.57	-0.50	0.62

Estimated residual correlations between *a priori* defined structural equation model parameters.

[a] Contexts reflecting aggressiveness towards people

[b] Contexts reflecting aggressiveness towards dogs

Measurement invariance

Separate models were run for contexts reflecting aggressiveness towards people and

aggressiveness towards dogs. For all models, all Gelman-Rubin statistics were all < 1.01,

effective sample sizes for all parameters were > 1000, and traceplots showed good

mixing. Posterior predictive checks of model estimates reflected the raw data (Figs 1

and 2). The full measurement invariance model (model 1) including interactions

between contexts and sex and contexts and age groups had the best out-of-sample

predictive accuracy for both the aggressiveness towards people and aggressiveness

towards dog models, respectively, illustrated by the lowest WAIC values (Table 5). Since

some models included numerous interactions, we provide an overall summary of the

main results below (Figs 1 and 2) with full parameter estimates provided in Tables S3

and S4.

Table 5. Bayesian hierarchical model selection using WAIC.

Model	Aggressiveness towards people	Aggressiveness towards dogs
Model 1	13405.6 ± 179.0	15257.2 ± 133.1
Model 2	13506.3 ± 179.6	15381.4 ± 133.4
Model 3	13426.3 ± 179.1	15285.3 ± 133.0
Model 4	13521.7 ± 179.5	15407.6 ± 133.4

Mean ± standard error of the Widely Applicable Information Criteria (WAIC) values per model and latent variable (aggressiveness towards people and dogs, respectively), used to assess measurement invariance: model 1 (age x context and sex x context interactions), model 2 (sex x context interaction only), model 3 (age x context interaction only), model 4 (no interactions). Models with the lowest WAIC values are estimated to have the best out-of-sample predictive accuracy.

Aggressiveness towards people

The odds of aggression towards people, across categorical predictors and for an average

dog of mean weight and length of stay at the shelter, were 0.022 (CI: 0.021 to 0.024), a

probability of approximately 2%. On average, aggression was most likely in the *In kennel*

towards people context (OR = 0.054; CI: 0.049 to 0.058) and least probable in the

Interactions with toys context (OR = 0.008; CI: 0.007 to 0.009).

Aggression was less likely across contexts for females than males (OR = 0.719; CI: 0.668

to 0.770), although there were also credible interactions between sex and contexts (Fig

1a; Table S3). Whereas males and females had similar odds of aggression in the *Out of*

kennel towards people context, smaller differences were observed between *Out of*

kennel towards people and *Handling* (OR = 0.578; CI: 0.481 to 0.682), *Eating food* (OR =

1.812; CI: 1.495 to 2.152) and *Interactions with familiar people* (OR = 1.798; CI: 1.488 to

2.126) contexts in females compared to males. Aggression in the *Interactions with*

unfamiliar people context was also similar between males and females, while larger

differences were observed between *Interactions with unfamiliar people* and *Handling*

(OR = 0.616; CI: 0.530 to 0.702), *Eating food* (OR = 0.594; CI: 0.506 to 0.686) and

Interactions with familiar people (OR = 0.598; CI: 0.513 to 0.687) contexts in females

compared to males.

Apart from lower odds of aggression in 4 to 10 month olds compared to 10 month to 3

year old dogs (OR = 0.638; CI: 0.565 to 0.705), there was no simple influence of age

group on aggressiveness. Between the 4 to 10 months old and 3 to 6 years old groups,

differences between the odds of aggression across contexts varied due to an increase of

aggression in certain contexts but not others (Fig 1b; Table S4). Aggression in *In kennel*

towards people and *Interactions with unfamiliar people* contexts particularly increased,

leading to larger differences between, for example, *In kennel towards people* and *Eating*

food (OR = 0.524; CI: 0.400 to 0.642) and *Eating food* and *Interactions with unfamiliar*

people (OR = 1.721; CI: 1.403 to 2.059) contexts for 10 month to 3 year olds compared

to 4 to 10 month olds, and between *In kennel towards people* and *Out of kennel towards*

people (OR = 0.470; CI: 0.355 to 0.606) and *Out of kennel towards people* and

Interactions with unfamiliar people (OR = 2.051; CI: 1.608 to 2.543) contexts in 3 to 6

year olds compared to 4 to 10 month olds. In 3 to 6 year old compared to 10 month to 3

year old dogs, aggression increased in the *Handling* and *Eating food* contexts but

decreased in the *Out of kennel towards people* context, resulting in larger differences

between, for instance, *Handling* and *Out of kennel towards people* (OR = 0.526; CI: 0.409

to 0.631) and *Out of kennel towards people* and *Interactions with unfamiliar people* (OR

= 2.349; CI: 1.891 to 2.925), and smaller differences between *Eating food* and

Interactions with familiar people (OR = 0.576; CI: 0.468 to 0.687).

Dogs over 6 years old demonstrated qualitatively different response patterns across

certain contexts than all other age groups. While aggression was most probable in *In*

kennel towards people and *Interactions with unfamiliar people* contexts for dogs aged 4

months through 6 years, dogs over 6 years old were most likely to show aggression in

the *Handling* context, leading to interactions between, for example, *Handling* and *In*

kennel towards people, and between *Handling* and *Interactions with unfamiliar people*

contexts compared to the other age groups (Fig 1b; Table S3). Aggression when *Eating*

food and in *Interactions with toys* contexts also increased compared to that expressed

by younger dogs, resulting in credible differences between, for instance, *Eating food* and

Interactions with familiar people contexts between dogs aged 10 months to 3 years and

over 6 years (OR = 0.379; CI: 0.300 to 0.465) and between *Out of kennel towards people*

and *Interactions with toys* contexts between over 6 year olds and all other age groups

(Table S3).

a

b

Fig 1. Predicted probabilities of aggression towards people in different contexts by sex (panel a) and age groups (panel b). Black points and vertical lines show mean and 95% credibility intervals of model parameter estimates; blue triangles show raw sample data. Abbreviations used in the figure: HND (*Handling*); KP (*In kennel towards people*); OKP (*Out of kennel towards people*); FPL (*Interactions with familiar people*); UPL (*Interactions with unfamiliar people*); EAT (*Eating food*); TOY (*Interactions with toys*).

Aggressiveness towards dogs

The odds of aggression towards dogs, across categorical predictors and for an average

dog of mean weight and length of stay at the shelter, was 0.176 (CI: 0.168, 0.184),

corresponding to a probability of approximately 15%. Dogs were most likely to show

aggression in the *Interactions with male dogs* context (OR = 0.297; CI: 0.198 to 0.217)

and least likely in the *In kennel towards dogs* context (OR = 0.099; CI: 0.094 to 0.104; Fig

2; Table S4).

No credible mean-level differences existed between females and males (OR = 1.187; CI:

1.128 to 1.250). However, the difference in aggression between the *Interactions with*

female dogs and *Interactions with male dogs* contexts was smaller for females (OR =

1.542; CI: 1.400 to 1.704; Fig 2a; Table S4), as were the differences between *Interactions*

with male dogs and *In kennel towards dogs* (OR = 0.661; CI: 0.590 to 0.732) and *In*

kennel towards dogs and *Out of kennel towards dogs* (OR = 1.420; CI: 1.269 to 1.587).

Females were also more likely to show aggression in *Interactions with female dogs* than

Out of kennel towards dogs compared to males (OR = 1.444; CI: 1.301 to 1.603).

Dogs aged 4 to 10 months old had credibly lower odds of aggression towards dogs than

older dogs across contexts (Fig 2b; Table S4). However, contexts and age also showed

interactive effects. In particular, aggression in *Interactions with female dogs* and

Interactions with male dogs contexts tended to increase relative to other contexts. For

instance, the relationship between *Interactions with female dogs* and *Out of kennel*

towards dogs contexts reversed in direction between 4 to 10 month and 10 month to 3

year olds (OR = 0.595; CI: 0.495 to 0.688) as did the relationship between *Interactions*

with male dogs and *Out of kennel towards dogs* contexts (OR = 0.499; CI: 0.422 to

0.575). The relationship between *In kennel towards dogs* and *Out of kennel towards*

dogs contexts also changed across age groups (Fig 2b; Table S4). Four to 10 months old

were more likely to show aggression in *Out of kennel towards dogs* than *In kennel*

towards dogs contexts, but the difference was smaller in 10 months to 3 year olds (OR =

0.608; CI: 0.505 to 0.728) and in over 6 year olds (OR = 0.396; CI: 0.316 to 0.481). The

latter relationship was reversed in 3 to 6 year olds compared to 4 to 10 month old dogs

(OR = 0.277; CI: 0.227 to 0.331) and 10 month to 3 year old dogs (OR = 0.456; CI: 0.396

to 0.516).

a

b

Fig 2. Predicted probabilities of aggression towards dogs in different contexts by sex (panel a) and age groups (panel b). Black points and vertical lines show mean and 95% credibility intervals of model parameter estimates; blue triangles show raw sample data. Abbreviations used in the figure: KD (*In kennel towards dogs*); OKD (*Out of kennel towards dogs*); DF (*Interactions with female dogs*); DM (*Interactions with male dogs*).

Repeatability

562 Both aggressiveness towards people and dog showed moderate repeatability across

563 contexts (ICC_{people} = 0.479; CI: 0.466, 0.491; ICC_{dogs} = 0.303; CI: 0.291, 0.315),

564 although aggressiveness towards people was more repeatable than aggressiveness

565 towards dogs ($ICC_{difference}$ = 0.176; CI: 0.158, 0.192).

Discussion

In this study, we have examined whether local independence and measurement

invariance hold for hypothesised latent aggressiveness traits in shelter dogs.

Observational recordings of aggression directed towards people and dogs across

different shelter contexts were explained by two positively correlated latent variables,

and behaviour across contexts was moderately repeatable. These results are consistent

with the definition of animal personality as behaviour that shows moderately consistent

between-individual differences across time or contexts [4], and characterised by

multiple observed behaviours being decomposed into lower-dimensional behavioural

traits. Yet, subsequent investigations indicated violations of local independence and

measurement invariance, questioning the validity of the latent variables as

homogeneous personality traits. While a number of factors may contribute to the low

predictive validity of certain dog personality assessments [48], ensuring the robustness

of inferences made about personality traits is critical, especially considering the large

number of traits that have been proposed [34,35]. Given the popularity of latent

variable models, such as exploratory and confirmatory factor analysis (e.g. [17,29,71]),

to understand the organisation of personality in dogs, ascertaining local independence

and measurement invariance of personality traits should be routine practice, as it has

become in human (personality) psychology (e.g. [26,72–74]).

Local independence implies that the association between manifest variables is greater

than that explained by the latent variable. Here, local independence was investigated

between manifest variables that were believed to have close temporal-spatial

relationships. While local independence was confirmed for contexts reflecting

aggressiveness towards dogs, contexts reflecting aggressiveness towards people showed

a violation of local independence. Aggression in the *Handling* context shared a negative

residual correlation with both the *In kennel towards people* and *Interactions with*

unfamiliar people contexts, while positive residual correlations were present between

Handling and *Interactions with toys*, and *Out of kennel towards people* and *Interactions*

with unfamiliar people contexts (Table S4). Violations of local independence may arise

through shared method variance [75–78] or unmodelled latent variables influencing

manifest variables [79,80]. For example, if a dog showed aggression when an unfamiliar

person approached, it may be less likely to be handled by that person, inducing a

negative residual correlation conditional on latent levels of aggression as was observed

here between the *Handling* and *Interactions with unfamiliar people* contexts. Likewise,

the *Handling* context and the *Interactions with toys* contexts are similar in that both

require dog and person to be close together, and interacting with toys and handling may

co-occur at the same time, inducing a positive residual correlation between contexts.

While authors have argued that greater standardisation and validation of personality

assessments is key to ensuring the accurate measurement of underlying traits [34,46], it

may be untenable to avoid dependencies between testing contexts. Displays of

aggression in one sub-test will likely change how people conduct future sub-tests with

the same dog, regardless of test standardisation. Moreover, the hierarchical structure of

animal personality, including the presence of behavioural syndromes, makes the

isolated measurement of one trait unrealistic [75]. For instance, the positive residual

correlation between *Out of kennel towards people* and *Interactions with unfamiliar*

people may be mediated by additional traits of interest to personality researchers, such

as fearfulness or anxiety [29,81], if dogs who are fearful of interacting with unfamiliar

people are more likely to show aggression beyond that described by a latent

aggressiveness trait. Some human psychologists have argued that violations of local

independence are a natural consequence of the organisation of behaviour as a complex

dynamic system [82,83], which unfolds with respect to time- and context-dependent

constraints [84]. Thus, awareness of local independence and its violation could facilitate

closer understanding of the dynamics driving personality test responses beyond

explanations purely based on personality traits.

While different subsets of a population may differ in mean levels of trait expression,

interactions between behavioural responses and those subsets indicate that the same

phenomenon is not under measurement across groups [23,24]. Using a Bayesian

hierarchical model analogous to the Rasch model, we found that the probability of

aggression across contexts was still dependent on sex and age conditional on latent

levels of aggressiveness towards people and dog (Figs 1 and 2; Tables S3 and S4),

indicating the violation of measurement invariance. Female dogs, for example, were

more likely than males to show aggression in *Out of kennel towards people* and

Interactions with unfamiliar people contexts relative to other contexts (Fig 1a). Females

also demonstrated similar odds of aggression during *Interactions with female dogs* and

Interactions with male dogs, whereas males were more likely to show aggression

towards male than female dogs (Fig 2a). Thus, latent levels of aggressiveness did not

easily explain differences in aggression across contexts. As with local independence,

different behavioural variables unaccounted for in this study may also result in

violations of measurement invariance. For instance, while dogs up to 6 years old were

most likely to show aggression in *In kennel towards people* and *Interactions with*

unfamiliar people contexts, dogs over 6 years old demonstrated aggression most

commonly in the *Handling* context, which may reflect an increase in pain-motivated

aggression. Dogs over 6 years old also showed an increase in aggression in the *Eating*

food and *Interactions with toys* contexts relative to other age groups, suggesting that

older dogs in shelter populations may be less tolerant during close interactions with

people (i.e. handling, people in the vicinity of their food and toys) compared to other

contexts.

Investigating factors that predict a dog's personality, or whether a dog's personality

predicts other outcomes of interest (e.g. future behavioural scores; [39,40]), is also of

substantive interest to researchers. Persson *et al.* [32] found interactive effects between

sex and age on human-directed social behaviour traits. Moreover, Asp *et al.* [56] found

that sex and age interacted with breed in explaining differences in C-BARQ trait scores.

To ensure the robustness of their conclusions, however, researchers should ensure that

the traits being investigated satisfy model assumptions, not only for statistical accuracy,

but so that interpreting the difference between individuals as a function of trait scores is

both feasible and meaningful.

Local independence and measurement invariance are assumptions of confirmatory,

reflective latent variable models, but are not required assumptions for formative

models, which posit that the latent variable is simply a linear composite of manifest

variables, rather than a causal, underlying variable [20]. While formative models such as

principal components analysis (e.g. [32,33,85]) may, as a result, appear attractive and

continue to be used in dog personality studies, their use has been discouraged. Principal

components analysis will always result in lower-dimensional variables comprised of

linear combinations of manifest variables, even when those manifest variables are

uncorrelated random variables (e.g. see [12]). Consequently, finding principal

components that underlie behavioural data is neither surprising nor evidence for the

discovery of domain-general personality traits. Crucially, for personality traits to be of

use in understanding the organisation of dog behaviour or be considered as predictors

of future dog behaviour, they should, arguably, hold causal status. In human psychology,

Schimmack [86] and Borsboom [6] note the importance of interpreting latent variables

as causal variables for understanding unobserved constructs, such as personality traits.

To this end, reflective models, especially confirmatory approaches such as structural

equation modelling or item response theory, present a more powerful framework to

distinguish signal from noise in multivariate behavioural data [20,86] and are concurrent

with a theoretical interpretation of personality traits as causal variables underpinning

animal behaviour [16]. Increasing the popularity of such approaches could be

particularly helpful in evaluating the reproducibility of dog personality traits across

existing studies.

Although we have identified violations of both local independence and measurement

invariance, we remain cautious about hypothesising *a posteriori* about their causes. A

problem for the wider perspective of animal personality research is that personality

traits are typically defined operationally, based on the statistical repeatability of

quantifiable behaviour [77,87,88]. As has been discussed in human personality

psychology, operational definitions are ontologically ambiguous [89,90]. That is, while

operational definitions facilitate experimentation in animal personality [4], they are

ambiguous with respect to the biological mechanisms underlying trait expression. For

example, Budaev and Brown remark that boldness, defined as a propensity to take risks,

could encompass a range of distinct personality traits, each with a different biological

basis [75]. Whilst reflective latent variable models allow researchers to test hypotheses

about the relatedness of measured behaviours via one or more underlying traits, they

have also been criticised as ambiguous [81]. For example, it is uncertain what reflective

latent variables may represent in biological organisation [89] or even whether they are

features individuals possess or simply emergent features of between-individual

differences [91,92]. Such considerations highlight the importance of research on the

proximate mechanisms of personality [87] and longitudinal data analyses to separate

between- from within-individual behavioural variation [93,94].

A number of authors have emphasised the poor predictive value of aggression tests in

shelter dogs compared to tests of other traits [37,39,48]. The low occurrence of

aggression can make its accurate measurement difficult [39], and some studies actively

exclude dogs that have shown aggression in the shelter (e.g. [39]). The probability of

observing aggression recorded in this study was low, especially in contexts reflecting

aggressiveness towards people (Fig 1). Nonetheless, evaluation of the validity of the

behavioural recordings indicated that shelter employees might mistake observations of

aggression for non- aggressive responses (e.g. over-excitement and frustration when

seeing people/dogs), meaning that the true probability of aggression was potentially

under-estimated (although incorrectly coding other behaviours as aggression also

occurred, albeit rarely). Infrequent occurrence and/or recording of aggression may also

limit accurate predictions of future behaviour. Patronek and Bradley [48] demonstrate

using simulation that the low prevalence of aggression inflates the chance that

aggression shown in a shelter assessment represents a false positive. In general, our

results support this conclusion in the sense that aggression may be shown differentially

across contexts not explained by latent levels of aggressiveness. Violations of local

independence and measurement invariance as found here indicate, further, that it is not

only the difference between false and true positives and negatives, but the validity of

inferring homogeneous personality traits by which to compare individual dogs, that

needs careful consideration. Consequently, we agree with recommendations to

establish the efficacy of longitudinal, observational assessments rather than relying on a

single assessment made using a traditional test battery [31,39,48]. This approach will

prioritise the cumulative understanding of a dog's context-dependent behaviour and

help to guide decisions about the potential risk a dog poses to humans and other

animals.

Conclusion

This study has tested the assumptions of local independence and measurement

invariance of personality traits in shelter dogs. Using structural equation modelling,

aggression across behavioural contexts was explained by two, correlated latent

variables and demonstrated repeatability. Nevertheless, significant residual correlations

remained between certain behavioural contexts related to aggressiveness towards

people, violating the assumption of local independence. In addition, aggression in

different contexts showed differential patterns of response across sex and age,

indicating a lack of measurement invariance. Violations of local independence and

measurement invariance imply that aggressiveness towards people and dogs may not

be enough to explain patterns of aggression in different contexts, or that inferences

based on these hypothesised personality traits may in fact be misleading. We encourage

researchers to more closely assess the measurement assumptions underlying reflective

latent variable models before making conclusions about the effects of, or factors

influencing, personality.

Acknowledgements

743 The authors are grateful to Battersea Dogs and Cats Home for allowing us to access the

744 data for this study.

References

1. Dochtermann NA, Jenkins SH. Behavioural syndromes in Merriam's kangaroo rats

(*Dipodomys merriami*): a test of competing hypotheses. Pro R Soc Biol Sci. 2007;274:

2343–2349. doi:10.1098/rspb.2007.0622

2. Dochtermann NA, Dingemanse NJ. Behavioral syndromes as evolutionary constraints.

Behav Ecol. 2013; art002. doi:10.1093/beheco/art002

3. Westneat DF, Wright J, Dingemanse NJ. The biology hidden inside residual within-

individual phenotypic variation. Biol Rev Camb Philos Soc. 2015;90: 729–743.

doi:10.1111/brv.12131

4. Réale D, Reader SM, Sol D, McDougall PT, Dingemanse NJ. Integrating animal

temperament within ecology and evolution. Biol Rev Camb Philos Soc. 2007;82: 291–

318. doi:10.1111/j.1469-185X.2007.00010.x

5. Sih A, Bell AM, Johnson JC, Ziemba RE. Behavioral syndromes: an integrative

overview. Q Rev Biol. 2004;79: 241–277. doi:10.1086/422893

6. Spearman C. "General intelligence," objectively determined and measured. Am J

Psychol. 1904;15: 201–292. doi:10.2307/1412107

7. Beaujean AA. Latent variable modeling using R: A step-by-step guide. New York:

Routledge; 2014.

8. Bollen KA. Latent variables in psychology and the social sciences. Annu Rev Psychol.

2002;53: 605–634. doi:10.1146/annurev.psych.53.100901.135239

9. Borsboom D. The attack of the psychometricians. Psychometrika. 2006;71: 425–440.

doi:10.1007/s11336-006-1447-6

10. Budaev DS. How many dimensions are needed to describe temperament in animals:

a factor reanalysis of two data sets. Int J Comp Psychol. http://cogprints.org/5478/;

1998.

11. Bollen K, Lennox R. Conventional wisdom on measurement: a structural equation

perspective. Psychol Bull. 1991;110: 305–314. doi:10.1037/0033-2909.110.2.305

12. Budaev SV. Using principal components and factor analysis in animal behaviour

research: caveats and guidelines. Ethology. 2010;116: 472–480. doi:10.1111/j.1439-

0310.2010.01758.x

13. Dingemanse NJ, Dochtermann N, Wright J. A method for exploring the structure of

behavioural syndromes to allow formal comparison within and between data sets. Anim

Behav. 2010;79: 439–450. doi:10.1016/j.anbehav.2009.11.024

14. Fabrigar LR, Wegener DT, MacCallum RC, Strahan EJ. Evaluating the use of

exploratory factor analysis in psychological research. Psychol Methods. 1999;4: 272–

299. doi:10.1037/1082-989X.4.3.272

15. Preacher KJ, MacCallum RC. Repairing Tom Swift's electric factor analysis machine.

Understanding Statistics. 2003;2: 13–43. doi:10.1207/S15328031US0201_02

16. Araya-Ajoy YG, Dingemanse NJ. Characterizing behavioural "characters": An

evolutionary framework. Proc R Soc B. 2014;281: 20132645.

doi:10.1098/rspb.2013.2645

17. Arden R, Adams MJ. A general intelligence factor in dogs. Intelligence. 2016;55: 79–

85. doi:10.1016/j.intell.2016.01.008

18. van den Berg SM, Heuven HCM, van den Berg L, Duffy DL, Serpell JA. Evaluation of

the C-BARQ as a measure of stranger-directed aggression in three common dog breeds.

Appl Anim Behav Sc. 2010;124: 136–141. doi:10.1016/j.applanim.2010.02.005

19. Bartholomew DJ. Factor analysis for categorical data. J R Stat Soc Series B Stat

Methodol. 1980;42: 293–321.

20. Markus KA, Borsboom D. Frontiers of test validity theory: Measurement, causation,

and meaning. 1st ed. New York, N.Y: Routledge; 2013.

21. Drasgow F. Study of the measurement bias of two standardized psychological tests.

Journal of Applied Psychology. 1987;72: 19–29. doi:10.1037/0021-9010.72.1.19

22. Mellenbergh GJ. Item bias and item response theory. Int J Educ Res. 1989;13: 127–

143. doi:10.1016/0883-0355(89)90002-5

23. Meredith W. Measurement invariance, factor analysis and factorial invariance.

Psychometrika. 1993;58: 525–543. doi:10.1007/BF02294825

24. Reise SP, Widaman KF, Pugh RH. Confirmatory factor analysis and item response

theory: two approaches for exploring measurement invariance. Psychol Bull. 1993;114:

552–566. doi:10.1037/0033-2909.114.3.552

25. Jansen BRJ, van der Maas HLJ. Statistical test of the rule assessment methodology by

latent class analysis. Dev Rev. 1997;17: 321–357. doi:10.1006/drev.1997.0437

26. Wicherts JM, Dolan CV. Measurement invariance in confirmatory factor analysis: an

illustration using IQ test performance of minorities. Educ Meas Issues Pract. 2010;29:

39–47. doi:10.1111/j.1745-3992.2010.00182.x

27. Widaman KF, Reise SP. Exploring the measurement invariance of psychological

instruments: applications in the substance use domain. In: Bryant KJ, Windle M, West

SG, editors. The science of prevention: Methodological advances from alcohol and

substance abuse research. Washington, DC, US: American Psychological Association;

1997. pp. 281–324.

28. Goddard ME, Beilharz RG. Genetic and environmental factors affecting the suitability

of dogs as Guide Dogs for the Blind. Theor Appl Genet. 1982;62: 97–102.

doi:10.1007/BF00293339

29. Hsu Y, Serpell JA. Development and validation of a questionnaire for measuring

behavior and temperament traits in pet dogs. J Am Vet Med Assoc. 2003;223: 1293–

1300. doi:10.2460/javma.2003.223.1293

30. Scott JP, Fuller JL. Genetics and the social behavior of the dog. University of Chicago

Press; 2012.

31. Rayment DJ, Groef BD, Peters RA, Marston LC. Applied personality assessment in

domestic dogs: limitations and caveats. Appl Anim Behav Sci. 2015;163: 1–18.

doi:10.1016/j.applanim.2014.11.020

32. Persson ME, Wright D, Roth LSV, Batakis P, Jensen P. Genomic regions associated

with interspecies communication in dogs contain genes related to human social

disorders. Sci Rep. 2016;6. doi:10.1038/srep33439

33. Sundman A-S, Johnsson M, Wright D, Jensen P. Similar recent selection criteria

associated with different behavioural effects in two dog breeds. Genes Brain Behav.

2016;15: 750–756. doi:10.1111/gbb.12317

34. Jones AC, Gosling SD. Temperament and personality in dogs (*Canis familiaris*): a

review and evaluation of past research. Appl Anim Behav Sci. 2005;95: 1–53.

doi:10.1016/j.applanim.2005.04.008

35. Fratkin JL, Sinn DL, Patall EA, Gosling SD. Personality consistency in dogs: a meta-

analysis. PLOS ONE. 2013;8: e54907. doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0054907

36. Posluns JA, Anderson RE, Walsh CJ. Comparing two canine personality assessments:

convergence of the MCPQ-R and DPQ and consensus between dog owners and dog

walkers. Appl Anim Behav Sci. doi:10.1016/j.applanim.2016.12.013

37. Bennett SL, Litster A, Weng H-Y, Walker SL, Luescher AU. Investigating behavior

assessment instruments to predict aggression in dogs. Appl Anim Behav Sci. 2012;141:

139–148. doi:10.1016/j.applanim.2012.08.005

38. Mohan-Gibbons H, Weiss E, Slater M. Preliminary investigation of food guarding

behavior in shelter dogs in the United States. Animals. 2012;2: 331–346.

doi:10.3390/ani2030331

39. Mornement KM, Coleman GJ, Toukhsati SR, Bennett PC. Evaluation of the predictive

validity of the Behavioural Assessment for Re-homing K9's (B.A.R.K.) protocol and owner

satisfaction with adopted dogs. Appl Anim Behav Sci. 2015;167: 35–42.

doi:10.1016/j.applanim.2015.03.013

40. Riemer S, Müller C, Virányi Z, Huber L, Range F. The predictive value of early

behavioural assessments in pet dogs: a longitudinal study from neonates to adults. PLOS

ONE. 2014;9: e101237. doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0101237

41. Wilsson E, Sundgren P-E. Behaviour test for eight-week old puppies: heritabilities of

tested behaviour traits and its correspondence to later behaviour. Appl Anim Behav Sci.

1998;58: 151–162. doi:10.1016/S0168-1591(97)00093-2

42. Goodloe LP, Borchelt PL. Companion dog temperament traits. J Appl Anim Welf Sci.

1998;1: 303–338. doi:10.1207/s15327604jaws0104_1

43. Jones AC. Development and validation of a dog personality questionnaire. Doctoral

Thesis. University of Texas at Austin. 2008. Available from:

http://gosling.psy.utexas.edu/wp-content/uploads/2014/10/Amanda-Claire-Jones-Diss-

2008.pdf

44. Orritt R. Dog bites: a complex public health issue. Vet Rec. 2015;176: 640–641.

doi:10.1136/vr.h3215

45. Svartberg K. Shyness-boldness predicts performance in working dogs. Appl Anim

Behav Sci. 2002;79: 157–174. doi:10.1016/S0168-1591(02)00120-X

46. Taylor KD, Mills DS. The development and assessment of temperament tests for

adult companion dogs. J Vet Behav. 2006;1: 94–108. doi:10.1016/j.jveb.2006.09.002

47. Henning G. Meanings and implications of the principle of local independence. Lang

Res. 1989;6: 95–108. doi:10.1177/026553228900600108

48. Patronek GJ, Bradley J. No better than flipping a coin: reconsidering canine behavior

evaluations in animal shelters. J Vet Behav. 2016;15: 66–77.

doi:10.1016/j.jveb.2016.08.001

49. Casey RA, Loftus B, Bolster C, Richards GJ, Blackwell EJ. Human directed aggression

in domestic dogs (*Canis familiaris*): occurrence in different contexts and risk factors.

Appl Anim Behav Sci. 2014;152: 52–63. doi:10.1016/j.applanim.2013.12.003

50. Hsu Y, Sun L. Factors associated with aggressive responses in pet dogs. Appl Anim

Behav Sci. 2010;123: 108–123. doi:10.1016/j.applanim.2010.01.013

51. Sherman CK, Reisner IR, Taliaferro LA, Houpt KA. Characteristics, treatment, and

outcome of 99 cases of aggression between dogs. Appl Anim Behav Sci. 1996;47: 91–

108. doi:10.1016/0168-1591(95)01013-0

52. Voith VL, Trevejo R, Dowling-Guyer S, Chadik C, Marder A, Johnson V, et al.

Comparison of visual and DNA breed identification of dogs and inter-observer reliability.

Sociology. 2013;3: 17–29.

53. Owczarczak-Garstecka, SC, Burman OHP. Can sleep and resting behaviour be used as

indicators of welfare in shelter dogs (*Canis lupus familiaris*)? PLOS ONE. 2016;11:

e0163620. doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0163620

54. R Development Core Team. R: a language and environment for statistical computing.

Vienna, Austria: R Foundation for Statistical Computing; 2016. https://www.r-

project.org/

55. Honaker J, King G, Blackwell M. Amelia: A program for missing data. 2015. Version

1.7.4. https://cran.r-project.org/web/packages/Amelia/vignettes/amelia.pdf

56. Asp HE, Fikse WF, Nilsson K, Strandberg E. Breed differences in everyday behaviour

of dogs. Appl Anim Behav Sci. 2015;169: 69–77. doi:10.1016/j.applanim.2015.04.010

57. Rosseel, Y., Oberski, D., Byrnes, J., Vanbrabant, L., Savalei, V., Merkle, E., et al,

Lavaan: Latent Variable Analysis. 2016. Version 0.5-22. https://cran.r-

project.org/web/packages/lavaan/

58. Muthén B, Christoffersson A. Simultaneous factor analysis of dichotomous variables

in several groups. Psychometrika. 1981;46: 407–419. doi:10.1007/BF02293798

59. Muthén B. A general structural equation model with dichotomous, ordered

categorical, and continuous latent variable indicators. Psychometrika. 1984;49: 115–

132. doi:10.1007/BF02294210

60. Jorgensen TD, Pornprasertmanit S, Miller P, Schoemann A, Rosseel Y, Quick C, et al.

semTools: useful tools for structural equation modeling. 2016.

https://rdrr.io/cran/semTools/

61. Hermida R. The problem of allowing correlated errors in structural equation

modeling: concerns and considerations. Comp Method Soc Sci. 2015;3: 05–17.

62. Millsap RE, Yun-Tein J. Assessing factorial invariance in ordered-categorical

measures. Multivariate Behav Res. 2004;39: 479–515.

doi:10.1207/S15327906MBR3903_4

63. Kamata A. Item analysis by the hierarchical generalized linear model. J Educ Meas.

2001;38: 79–93. doi:10.1111/j.1745-3984.2001.tb01117.x

64. Van den Noortgate W, De Boeck P. Assessing and explaining differential item

functioning using logistic mixed models. J Educ Behav Stat. 2005;30: 443–464.

65. Nakagawa S, Schielzeth H. Repeatability for Gaussian and non-Gaussian data: a

practical guide for biologists. Biol Rev Camb Philos Sci. 2010;85: 935–956.

doi:10.1111/j.1469-185X.2010.00141.x

66. Stan Development Team. Stan modeling language users guide and reference

manual. 2016. Version 2.14.0. https://github.com/stan-

dev/stan/releases/download/v2.14.0/stan-reference-2.14.0.pdf

67. Kruschke JK. Bayesian data analysis. Wiley Interdiscip Rev: Cogn Sci. 2010;1: 658–

676. doi:10.1002/wcs.72

68. Vehtari A, Gelman A, Gabry J, Piironen J, Goodrich B. Loo: Efficient leave-one-out

cross-validation and WAIC for Bayesian models. 2016. Version 1.0.0. https://cran.r-

project.org/web/packages/loo/loo.pdf

69. Kruschke J. Doing Bayesian data analysis: A tutorial with R, JAGS, and Stan. 2nd ed.

Academic Press; 2014.

70. Chen JJ, Tsong Y, Kang S-H. Tests for equivalence or noninferiority between two

proportions. Drug Inf J. 2000;34: 569–578. doi:10.1177/009286150003400225

71. Barnard S, Marshall-Pescini S, Passalacqua C, Beghelli V, Capra A, Normando S, et al.

Does subjective rating reflect behavioural coding? Personality in 2 month-old dog

puppies: an open-field test and adjective-based questionnaire. PLOS ONE. 2016;11:

e0149831. doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0149831

72. Ion A, Iliescu D. The measurement equivalence of personality measures across high-

and low-stake test taking settings. Pers Individ Dif. 2017;110: 1–6.

doi:10.1016/j.paid.2017.01.008

73. Bowden SC, Saklofske DH, van de Vijver FJR, Sudarshan NJ, Eysenck SBG. Cross-

cultural measurement invariance of the Eysenck Personality Questionnaire across 33

countries. Pers Individ Dif. 2016;103: 53–60. doi:10.1016/j.paid.2016.04.028

74. van den Berg SM, Moor MHM de, McGue M, Pettersson E, Terracciano A, Verweij

KJH, et al. Harmonization of Neuroticism and Extraversion phenotypes across

inventories and cohorts in the Genetics of Personality Consortium: an application of

item response theory. Behav Genet. 2014;44: 295–313. doi:10.1007/s10519-014-9654-x

75. Budaev S, Brown C. Personality traits and behaviour. In: Brown C, Laland K, Krause J,

editors. Fish cognition and behavior. Wiley-Blackwell; 2011. pp. 135–165.

76. Campbell DT, Fiske DW. Convergent and discriminant validation by the multitrait-

multimethod matrix. Psychol Bull. 1959;56: 81–105. doi:10.1037/h0046016

77. Carter AJ, Feeney WE, Marshall HH, Cowlishaw G, Heinsohn R. Animal personality:

what are behavioural ecologists measuring? Biol Rev Camb Philos Soc. 2013;88: 465–

475. doi:10.1111/brv.12007

78. Podsakoff PM, MacKenzie SB, Lee J-Y, Podsakoff NP. Common method biases in

behavioral research: a critical review of the literature and recommended remedies. J

Appl Psychol. 2003;88: 879–903. doi:10.1037/0021-9010.88.5.879

79. Cole DA, Ciesla JA, Steiger JH. The insidious effects of failing to include design-driven

correlated residuals in latent-variable covariance structure analysis. Psychol Methods.

2007;12: 381–398. doi:10.1037/1082-989X.12.4.381

80. Yen WM. Scaling performance assessments: strategies for managing local item

dependence. J Educ Meas. 1993;30: 187–213. doi:10.1111/j.1745-3984.1993.tb00423.x

81. Carter AJ, Marshall HH, Heinsohn R, Cowlishaw G. How not to measure boldness:

novel object and antipredator responses are not the same in wild baboons. Anim Behav.

2012;84: 603–609. doi:10.1016/j.anbehav.2012.06.015

82. Cramer AOJ, van der Sluis S, Noordhof A, Wichers M, Geschwind N, Aggen SH, et al.

Dimensions of normal personality as networks in search of equilibrium: you can't like

parties if you don't like people. Eur J Pers. 2012;26: 414–431. doi:10.1002/per.1866

83. Schmittmann VD, Cramer AOJ, Waldorp LJ, Epskamp S, Kievit RA, Borsboom D.

Deconstructing the construct: a network perspective on psychological phenomena. New

Ideas Psychol. 2013;31: 43–53. doi:10.1016/j.newideapsych.2011.02.007

84. Hamaker EL, Nesselroade JR, Molenaar PCM. The integrated trait-state model. J Res

Pers. 2007;41: 295–315. doi:10.1016/j.jrp.2006.04.003

85. Fadel FR, Driscoll P, Pilot M, Wright H, Zulch H, Mills D. Differences in trait

impulsivity indicate diversification of dog breeds into working and show lines. Sci Rep.

2016;6. doi:10.1038/srep22162

86. Schimmack U. What multi-method data tell us about construct validity. Eur J Pers.

2010;24: 241–257. doi:10.1002/per.771

87. Duckworth RA. Neuroendocrine mechanisms underlying behavioral stability:

implications for the evolutionary origin of personality. Ann N Y Acad Sci. 2015;1360: 54–

74. doi:10.1111/nyas.12797

88. Koski SE. How to measure animal personality and why does It matter? Integrating

the psychological and biological approaches to animal personality. In: Inoue-Murayama

M, Kawamura S, Weiss A, editors. From Genes to Animal Behavior. Springer Japan; 2011.

pp. 115–136. doi:10.1007/978-4-431-53892-9_5

89. D. Measuring the mind: Conceptual issues in contemporary psychometrics.

Cambridge University Press; 2005.

90. Maul A, Torres Irribarra D, Wilson M. On the philosophical foundations of

psychological measurement. Measurement. 2016;79: 311–320.

doi:10.1016/j.measurement.2015.11.001

91. Molenaar PCM. A manifesto on psychology as idiographic science: bringing the

person back into scientific psychology, this time forever. Measurement. 2004;2: 201–

218. doi:10.1207/s15366359mea0204_1

92. Adolf J, Schuurman NK, Borkenau P, Borsboom D, Dolan CV. Measurement

invariance within and between individuals: a distinct problem in testing the equivalence

of intra- and inter-individual model structures. Front Psychol. 2014;5.

doi:10.3389/fpsyg.2014.00883

93. Stamps JA, Briffa M, Biro PA. Unpredictable animals: individual differences in

intraindividual variability (IIV). Anim Behav. 2012;83: 1325–1334.

doi:10.1016/j.anbehav.2012.02.017

94. Biro PA, Stamps JA. Using repeatability to study physiological and behavioural traits:

ignore time-related change at your peril. Anim Behav. 2015;105: 223–230.

doi:10.1016/j.anbehav.2015.04.008

1000

Supporting Information

1001

1002 **Table S1. Counts of aggression per context.** The number of dogs who had 0, 1, and > 1

1003 counts of aggression.

1004

Table S2. Tetrachoric correlations between aggression contexts. Tetrachoric

correlations between aggression contexts on the raw binary data, before the multiple

imputation. Abbreviations used: HND (*Handling*); FPL (*Interactions with familiar people*);

UPL (*Interactions with unfamiliar people*); KD (*In kennel towards dogs*); KP (*In kennel*

towards people); OKD (*Out of kennel towards dogs*); OKP (*Out of kennel towards*

people); EAT (*Eating food*); TOY (*Interactions with toys*); DM (*Interactions with male*

dogs); DF (*Interactions with female dogs*).

1012

Table S3. Bayesian hierarchical model parameter estimates for aggression towards

people in different contexts. Mean and 95% credibility interval (CI) estimates for all

parameters from the Bayesian hierarchical logistic model assessing measurement

invariance for contexts reflecting aggressiveness towards people. Differences between

levels of categorical variables are indicated by '.v.' in the parameter name; interactions

are denoted with '*' in the parameter name. The decision rule for each parameter is

given except for those variables not interpreted inferentially: YES = 95% CI falls

completely outside the region of practical equivalence (ROPE); NULL = 95% CI falls

completely inside the ROPE; ROPE = 95% CI partly covers the ROPE.

1022

Table S4. Bayesian hierarchical model parameter estimates for aggression towards

dogs in different contexts. Mean and 95% credibility interval (CI) estimates for all

parameters from the Bayesian hierarchical logistic model assessing measurement

invariance for contexts reflecting aggressiveness towards dogs. Differences between

levels of categorical variables are indicated by '.v.' in the parameter name; interactions

are denoted with '*' in the parameter name. The decision rule for each parameter is

given except for those variables not interpreted inferentially: YES = 95% CI falls

completely outside the region of practical equivalence (ROPE); NULL = 95% CI falls

completely inside the ROPE; ROPE = 95% CI partly covers the ROPE.

1032