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1 Fear and coping styles of outdoor-preferring, moderate-outdoor and indoor-preferring free-range laying  
2 hens

3

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15

16 **ABSTRACT**

17

18 Free-range systems are increasing in popularity as outdoor access is perceived to improve hen welfare,  
19 but radio-frequency identification tracking of individuals shows not all hens access the range daily with  
20 some hens never going outside. The individual variation in range use may be correlated with individual  
21 differences in fear and coping styles. In this study, tests of tonic immobility, manual restraint (coupled  
22 with plasma corticosterone responses) and open field were applied to ISA Brown hens (*Gallus gallus*  
23 *domesticus*: n = 104) at 37-39 weeks of age. Focal hens were selected as categorised into three different  
24 range access groups based on the percentage of available days across the trial period that they went

25 outdoors: indoor-preferring (accessed the range on 0 – 10% of available days), moderate-outdoor-  
26 preferring (accessed the range on 30-60% of available days), and outdoor-preferring (accessed the range  
27 on 100% of available days). The indoor-preferring hens produced fewer vocalisations during manual  
28 restraint compared to the moderate-outdoor and outdoor-preferring hens ( $P = 0.004$ ) and tended to be  
29 slower to vocalise ( $P = 0.08$ ) but no differences were found in latency to first struggle ( $P = 0.55$ ), number  
30 of struggles ( $P = 0.44$ ) or plasma corticosterone responses ( $P = 0.82$ ). During the open field tests, the  
31 indoor-preferring and moderate-outdoor hens showed longer latencies to move and fewer squares were  
32 crossed compared to outdoor-preferring hens ( $P \leq 0.009$ ) but no differences were found in latency to first  
33 vocalise ( $P = 0.72$ ) and total number of vocalisations ( $P = 0.91$ ). There were no differences between  
34 ranging groups in duration of tonic immobility ( $P = 0.14$ ). These results show indoor-preferring hens have  
35 elevated fear levels, and a possible behavioural indication of a different coping style compared to  
36 outdoor-preferring hens, but the inconsistent results within the moderate-outdoor range access group  
37 warrant further investigation.

38

39 Key words: tonic immobility, open field, manual restraint, free-range, laying hen, fear

40

## 41 **1. Introduction**

42

43 Free-range laying hen (*Gallus gallus domesticus*) production systems with outdoor area provide hens a  
44 choice to access more space, fresh air and to exhibit behaviour such as dust bathing, foraging and sun  
45 bathing in relatively more natural surroundings, and are thus believed to improve hen welfare in  
46 comparison to caged or other indoor systems (Fanatico, 2006; Knierim, 2006; Schröder and McEachern,  
47 2004). Consequently, these systems are increasing in popularity within Australia and elsewhere (Rault et  
48 al., 2013; Richards et al., 2011). However, there are an increasing number of studies using radio-  
49 frequency identification (RFID) tracking of individual hens in both experimental and commercial flocks

50 showing that not all hens choose to access the range on a daily basis, with some hens exclusively staying  
51 indoors (Campbell et al., 2016; Gebhardt-Henrich et al., 2014; Richards et al., 2011).

52  
53 Range use can be influenced by a number of variables such as age of hens, season, climate, artificial or  
54 natural cover, artificial structures, flock size or pop hole availability (Pettersson et al., 2016). However,  
55 there are limited data available to indicate why individual hens of the same flock, housed under the same  
56 conditions, vary in their range use, from some hens visiting the range daily to others not visiting it at all.  
57 Venturing outdoors may provide some welfare benefits (Rodriguez-Aurrekoetxea and Estevez, 2016;  
58 Mahboub et al., 2004; Bestman and Wagenaar, 2003) but the outdoor range is exposed to highly variable  
59 environmental conditions (i.e., sun, rain, snow, wind, storms) compared to climate-controlled indoor  
60 housing (Gilani et al., 2014; Richards et al., 2011), and also poses an increased risk of predation (Bestman  
61 and Ouwejan, 2016). Thus, individual hens may be fearful of entering the outdoor range, and less able to  
62 cope with the possible stress of environmental change. Consequently, individual differences in  
63 behavioural traits of hens, specifically fearfulness, response to stress and coping styles, as detected by  
64 laboratory-based behavioural tests, may correlate with the level of range use.

65  
66 Fear is generally considered to be associated with a negative welfare state (Jones, 1996), and various  
67 behavioural tests demonstrate individual hens differ in fear responses resulting from, for example,  
68 genotype and early rearing environments (Jones, 1996). Tonic immobility (TI) is a well-validated and a  
69 widely-used test of fear in poultry. The test involves inducing an immobile state using a brief period of  
70 restraint by placing the bird on its back and determining the time taken for the bird to 'right' itself. The  
71 more fearful individuals are, the longer they take to resume an upright position (Forkman et al., 2007;  
72 Jones, 1996). Another common test of fear and/or social motivation in poultry is the open field/arena test  
73 (OFT) (Forkman et al., 2007), where hens isolated in a novel test arena exhibit behaviours thought to be  
74 representative of the internal conflict between minimising detection by predators (e.g., freezing  
75 behaviour) and the need to re-group with conspecifics (e.g., vocalisations and escape attempts; Gallup and

76 Suarez, 1980). Finally, the escape attempts and vocalisations produced during prolonged manual restraint  
77 (MR) (e.g., 5 minutes) of an individual hen, coupled with physiological measures (e.g., corticosterone,  
78 heart rate) can be indicative of either a proactive (active) or reactive (passive) coping style (Koolhaas et  
79 al., 1999; Korte et al., 1999; Korte et al., 1997; de Haas et al., 2012). A bird that is classed as having a  
80 more proactive coping style will generally be behaviourally more active, but have low corticosterone  
81 responses while reactive birds typically display more passive behaviours, but higher corticosterone  
82 responses (Cockrem, 2007). However, birds with proactive coping styles are predicted to be more rigid in  
83 their behaviours and, thus, less sensitive and flexible to environmental variation suggesting no optimal  
84 behavioural repertoire to suit all situations (Cockrem, 2007).

85

86 Early research with Hi-sex laying hens, found that those birds observed spending more than half of their  
87 time outdoors had shorter durations of TI compared to those birds never observed to go outdoors when  
88 tested at 60 weeks of age (Grigor et al., 1995). A more recent study tested ISA Brown hens at 29 weeks of  
89 age and also found a negative correlation between duration of TI and extent of range use (Hartcher et al.,  
90 2016). Finally, previous studies at the current facility using 32 week old ISA Brown hens, found that  
91 birds that never visited the outdoor range had higher blood plasma corticosterone responses following  
92 MR compared to both hens having low range use (< 5 days range use) or those having high range use  
93 (daily range use; Hernandez et al., 2014). But no significant relationships were found between responses  
94 in TI and OFT and range use patterns (Hernandez et al., 2014).

95

96 The objective of the study was to use multiple tests of fear and coping style to determine if ISA Brown  
97 hens that differed in their range access habits could be consistently categorised as showing different  
98 personality traits to aid understanding of individual ranging variation. Using TI, MR and OFT, the hens  
99 preferring to stay indoors were predicted to show longer durations of TI, longer latencies to respond  
100 during MR with fewer vocalisations, fewer struggles and a higher plasma corticosterone response and

101 fewer vocalisations and less movement with longer latencies to respond during the OFT compared to hens  
102 showing greater preference for the outdoor range.

103

## 104 **2. Materials and methods**

105

106

### 107 *2.1 Ethical statement*

108 All research was approved by the University of New England Animal Ethics Committee (AEC 14-100)  
109 and complied with the Australian Code for the Care and Use of Animals for Scientific Purposes (National  
110 Health and Medical Research Council, 2013).

111

### 112 *2.2 Animals and housing*

113 Nine hundred ISA Brown pullets (*Gallus gallus domesticus*) were obtained from a commercial supplier at  
114 16 weeks of age, and placed into the University of New England's Laureldale experimental free-range  
115 facility, located in Armidale, NSW, Australia. Birds had been laser beak-trimmed at 1 day old with a  
116 second hot-blade trim at 11 weeks of age. Focal test subjects (n = 104) were selected from this total group  
117 of 900 hens based on their ranging behaviour, as described in the following section. All hens (including  
118 focal test subjects) were evenly distributed between 6 indoor pens (150 birds/pen) and housed at an indoor  
119 stocking density of nine birds/m<sup>2</sup> with feed, water, perch and nestbox resources either set to or exceeding  
120 the Australian Model Code of Practice for the Welfare of Animals – Domestic Poultry (Primary Industries  
121 Standing Committee, 2002). As part of a larger project on the impacts of outdoor stocking density (see  
122 Campbell et al., 2016) each pen had an associated outdoor range of varying size to simulate three  
123 different outdoor stocking densities (at maximum bird occupancy) with two replicates per density  
124 treatment: 2000 hens per hectare (ha) (5 m<sup>2</sup>/hen), 10000 hens/ha (1 m<sup>2</sup>/hen), and 20000 hens/ha (0.5  
125 m<sup>2</sup>/hen). For further details on the experimental facility and housing conditions see Campbell et al.  
126 (2016). The pop holes providing range access were first opened at 21 weeks of age with subsequent daily

127 access from 09:00 – 16:30 h until 36 weeks of age. Seventy-five randomly-selected birds in each pen  
128 (50%) were fitted with an adjustable leg band (Roxan Developments Ltd, Selkirk, Scotland) containing an  
129 RFID microchip (Trovan® Unique ID 100 (FDX-A): operating frequency 128 kHz; Microchips Australia  
130 Ptd Ltd, Keysborough, VIC, Australia) and individual daily range usage was tracked using RFID  
131 technology using three RFID systems purchased from Microchips Australia Ptd Ltd with equipment  
132 developed and built by Dorset Identification B.V. (Aalten, The Netherlands) using Trovan® technology.  
133 For additional details on the RFID system set-up see Campbell et al. (2016). As only three RFID systems  
134 were available, one replicate from each stocking density was recorded for approximately 2 weeks, and  
135 then the second replicate was recorded for approximately 2 weeks, with alternating recording for 15  
136 weeks of range access.

137

### 138 *2.3 Test birds*

139 From the total of 900 hens, 104 were selected at 37 weeks of age, based on the percentage of available  
140 days that the birds accessed the range. All selected hens (and the majority of hens in the total flock) were  
141 in visibly good health condition with no feather pecking damage or footpad dermatitis and there were no  
142 obvious physical differences between the selected birds. From the total group of tagged birds (448 hens)  
143 5% used the range on less than 10% of available days (including 2% of birds that never went outside),  
144 25% used the range from 10-99% of days and 73% used the range on 100% of available days. Birds from  
145 each of these three ranging groups were present in each stocking density treatment. Where many birds  
146 were available to select from, i.e., the group that accessed the range on 100% of available days, focal  
147 birds were randomly selected from all stocking densities and a larger sample size was selected. Indoor-  
148 preferring birds accessed the range 0 – 10% of available days (n = 21). The moderate-outdoor birds were  
149 selected as those that accessed the range on 30 – 60% of available days (n = 18); these were birds that  
150 initially never went outside but as the trial progressed they began to use the range daily, versus some birds  
151 that sporadically went outside across the entire trial duration, or used the range on the majority of days  
152 (but not all days). This group was selected as representing birds that may have been initially fearful for

153 several weeks following pop hole opening, but appeared to overcome their fear as the trial progressed.  
154 Outdoor-preferring birds accessed the range on 100% of available days (n = 65). The average daily mean  
155 ( $\pm$  SEM) time outside for selected indoor-preferring individuals was  $26 \pm 10$  mins; for moderate-outdoor  
156 individuals was  $101 \pm 22$  mins, and for outdoor-preferring individuals was  $282 \pm SE 7$  mins.

157

#### 158 *2.4 Behavioural tests – general protocol*

159 At 37-38 weeks of age, focal birds from one pen only were tested each day in tests of both induced TI and  
160 MR with stocking density treatment, replicate and order of the two behavioural tests alternated across the  
161 six testing days. Focal birds were selected from their home pen after being weighed as part of a separate  
162 study on hen health and welfare using the same set of birds, and placed into a temporary holding pen with  
163 feed and water. Birds were permitted to rest for 1 hour after being handled. Birds were then caught in no  
164 specific order and carried in hand, with a small cloth over their heads to shield their eyes and induce  
165 calmness, to a separate room isolated from flock mates for the behavioural tests. Birds were caught in  
166 pairs by the same two operators with simultaneous testing occurring in two separate rooms. The same  
167 operators induced TI or held the bird in the MR position across all testing days with all operators blind to  
168 the range access status (but not outdoor stocking density) of the individual hens. After the initial test (TI  
169 or MR), hens were given approximately 1 hour to rest in the temporary holding pen before the second test  
170 was initiated. Upon completion of the second test, hens were returned to their home pen. All focal birds  
171 were tested in the OFT on a separate day at 39 weeks of age with two pens of birds tested per day. Birds  
172 from each pen were caught in no specific order, placed in the open field box (isolated from remaining  
173 flock mates) and then on completion returned to their home pen.

174

##### 175 *2.4.1 Tonic immobility test*

176 TI was induced by placing the hen in a supine position in a cradle with their head hanging over one end.  
177 The right hand of the experimenter was placed on the breast of the bird, while the left hand gently held  
178 the bird's head down. Birds were restrained in this position for 10 seconds then released and the

179 experimenter stepped aside out of direct view of the hen with eyes averted downwards. If the hen  
180 remained in the supine position for at least 10 seconds, TI duration was recorded until the hen returned to  
181 an upright position or until a maximum of 5 minutes elapsed. If the hen self-righted herself within 10  
182 seconds of release, TI was induced again, with a maximum of five attempts made at inducing TI. The  
183 number of induction attempts and the duration of tonic immobility (i.e. latency to self-righting) were  
184 recorded.

185

#### 186 *2.4.2 Manual restraint test*

187 Birds were individually manually restrained for 5 minutes by holding the bird in a right lateral recumbent  
188 position on top of a table. The right hand of the experimenter held the hen's side and the left hand gently  
189 stretched the hen's legs. The number of struggles the hen made (i.e. attempting to pull their legs up) and  
190 number of vocalisations (individual vocalisations not bouts) were recorded by an observer. At the end of  
191 the 5 min test, the hens were moved to an individual cage to allow the corticosterone response to reach its  
192 peak (Downing and Bryden, 2008). Twenty minutes following capture a 2 mL blood sample was  
193 collected from the brachial vein to measure peak plasma corticosterone response to the manual restraint.  
194 Blood samples were collected in EDTA-coated tubes, centrifuged at 700 x g for 15 minutes on the day of  
195 collection to extract plasma, which was stored at -20 C until the radioimmunoassay. Plasma  
196 corticosterone concentrations were measured using the protocols of Downing and Bryden (2008).

197

#### 198 *2.4.4 Open field test*

199 The wooden open field box was a square of 1.25 m length and 1.22 m height, elevated 0.24 m off the  
200 ground with an opaque roof, three opaque side panels, and a clear frontal Perspex sliding panel. At 39  
201 weeks of age, each bird was placed in the centre of the box in the dark, lights were then turned on and the  
202 test began for a duration of 5 minutes. The behaviour of the birds in the OFT was video recorded with the  
203 operator out of sight but located within the testing room. After 5 minutes, the test concluded, the lights  
204 were turned off and the bird was caught and returned to its home pen. Later, a single operator viewed all

205 video recordings to analyse the bird behaviours. The open field box was divided into a grid of 121 squares  
206 to assess walking activity. The latency to first move (seconds), total quadrants crossed, latency to first  
207 vocalise (seconds) and total number of vocalisations made (individual vocalisations, not bouts) were  
208 counted. The operator was blind to the range access status but not the outdoor stocking density status of  
209 the birds. Intra-rate reliability as measured by Cohen's Kappa coefficient (McHugh, 2012) was  $\kappa = 0.89 -$   
210 0.92).

211

### 212 *2.5 Data and statistical analyses*

213 There were no effects of stocking density within the three range access groups for all measured  
214 behavioural and physiological variables (Kruskal-Wallis tests for non-parametric data, all  $P \geq 0.06$ )  
215 except for one difference in the latency to first vocalise during MR within the moderate-outdoor group ( $P$   
216 = 0.03), thus birds within range access groups were combined across stocking density treatments. Data  
217 from individual birds within each range access group (indoor-preferring, moderate-outdoor, outdoor-  
218 preferring) were compiled for each of the three separate behavioural tests (TI, MR and OFT) with  
219 individual hen as the unit of analysis. Shapiro-Wilk tests were applied to determine the data were from a  
220 non-parametric distribution and thus Kruskal-Wallis tests were used to compare values between the three  
221 range access groups. Comparisons were made for the number of attempts to induce and total duration of  
222 induced TI, the latency to first struggle, number of struggles, latency to first vocalise, number of  
223 vocalisations made during MR and 20-min plasma corticosterone response and the latency to first move,  
224 number of squares crossed, latency to first vocalise and total number of vocalisations made during the  
225 OFT. Where significant differences were present, non-parametric Wilcoxon each-pair post-hoc tests were  
226 applied. All analyses were conducted in JMP 12.1.0 (SAS Institute, Cary, NC, USA) with significance set  
227 at  $P < 0.05$ .

228

## 229 **3. Results**

230

231 There were no differences between range access groups in the number of attempts to induce TI ( $H = 0.17$ ,  
232  $DF = 2$ ,  $P = 0.92$ ) or the duration of TI ( $H = 3.96$ ,  $DF = 2$ ,  $P = 0.14$ , Table 1). There were also no  
233 differences between range access groups in the latency to first struggle ( $H = 1.21$ ,  $DF = 2$ ,  $P = 0.55$ ),  
234 number of struggles ( $H = 1.63$ ,  $DF = 2$ ,  $P = 0.44$ ) in the MR test, or the 20-min plasma corticosterone  
235 concentrations ( $H = 0.39$ ,  $DF = 2$ ,  $P = 0.82$ , Table 1). However, there were differences between range  
236 access groups in total vocalisations produced during MR tests ( $H = 11.29$ ,  $DF = 2$ ,  $P = 0.004$ , Table 1)  
237 with indoor-preferring birds showing the fewest total vocalisations ( $P = 0.002$ ). There was also a trend for  
238 differences between range access groups in the latencies to first vocalise ( $H = 5.07$ ,  $DF = 2$ ,  $P = 0.08$ ,  
239 Table 1). There were no differences between range access groups in the latency to first vocalise ( $H =$   
240  $0.64$ ,  $DF = 2$ ,  $P = 0.72$ ) or total number of vocalisations made during the OFT ( $H = 0.19$ ,  $DF = 2$ ,  $P =$   
241  $0.91$ , Table 1). But there were significant differences in the latency to first movement ( $H = 9.65$ ,  $DF = 2$ ,  
242  $P = 0.008$ , Table 1) and total number of squares crossed ( $H = 9.48$ ,  $DF = 2$ ,  $P = 0.009$ , Table 1) with  
243 indoor-preferring and moderate-outdoor hens being slowest to first move ( $P = 0.02$ ) and crossing fewer  
244 squares ( $P = 0.02$ ) than the outdoor-preferring hens.

245

#### 246 **4. Discussion**

247 Behavioural tests for fearfulness and coping style were applied to free-range laying hens categorised into  
248 groups based on differing range access preferences. The longer latencies to move and crossing of less  
249 squares in the OFT, identified the indoor-preferring hens as more fearful than birds categorised as  
250 outdoor-preferring hens. No significant differences in the duration of tonic immobility were observed  
251 between the different range access groups. There was a behavioural indication for indoor-preferring hens,  
252 based on fewer vocalisations in the MR test, to have a reactive coping style, but this was not accompanied  
253 by a higher corticosterone response. Across MR and OFT, the hens with moderate-outdoor range use had

254 inconsistent responses when compared to the responses of the indoor-preferring or outdoor-preferring  
255 hens examined in the same test. In some behavioural measures the moderate-outdoor hens responded  
256 similarly to the indoor-preferring birds, and in some behavioural measures these birds matched responses  
257 of the outdoor-preferring birds.

258 The moderate-outdoor group of hens contrasted with the outdoor-preferring or indoor-preferring hens as  
259 they had inconsistent range access patterns. Initially these birds did not use the range at all, typically for  
260 several weeks, but then began to use the range daily. Their inconsistent responses across the tests  
261 compared to the more consistent responses seen in indoor-preferring or outdoor-preferring range access  
262 groups, suggests they may warrant further study. It could be that their choice to eventually go outside  
263 correlates with social dynamics, individual behavioural needs (e.g., desire to forage outside) or age.  
264 Additional behavioural tests such as a novel object, emergence test, or voluntary approach to humans may  
265 help to distinguish further differences between moderate-outdoor ranging hens to ascertain causes of their  
266 acclimation period to ranging. Furthermore, observations of their time budgets could determine how their  
267 daily behavioural expression changes across successive weeks.

268 The duration of TI did not differentiate between focal hens in different range access groups, although this  
269 may not be surprising given previous reports which are inconsistent in their efforts to correlate TI with  
270 ranging behaviour. Some reports have found a negative correlation with range use (Hartcher et al., 2016;  
271 Grigor et al., 1995) while Hernandez et al., (2014) found no such correlation with range use. Furthermore,  
272 previous studies have found no correlation within individuals between duration of TI and behavioural  
273 responses during OFT, which did differentiate ranging groups in this study (Heiblum et al., 1998; Jones et  
274 al., 1995), thus highlighting the inconsistencies of individual responses between multiple behavioural  
275 tests. It is possible that different methodologies such as testing outside of the home pen (Bilcík, 1998),  
276 testing in isolation from conspecifics, the presence of the experimenter and/or the lack of eye contact  
277 made by the experimenter may all be important to bird responses (Forkman et al., 2007).

278 The behavioural responses of the MR tests suggests the different range access groups of hens may have  
279 different coping styles with indoor-preferring hens being more reactive (passive behavioural responses  
280 with fewer vocalisations made) compared to the proactive (more active behavioural and vocalisation  
281 responses) outdoor-preferring and moderate-outdoor hens. However, plasma corticosterone responses did  
282 not differentiate between ranging groups, thus the conclusions on coping style from this current study are  
283 limited. These results contrast with the significantly elevated plasma corticosterone concentrations in MR  
284 tests of indoor hens previously (Hernandez et al., 2014). This previous study had a larger sample of hens  
285 categorised exclusively as indoor hens ( $n = 20$  cf.  $n = 8$  in this study), and while these were compared to  
286 hens categorised as weak-outdoor ( $< 5$  days on the range) range users and to outdoor hens, it was only the  
287 exclusively indoor hens that showed the elevated plasma corticosterone response in the MR test. Previous  
288 research on coping styles within laying hens is related to different lines of hens characterised by low or  
289 high levels of feather-pecking or mortality. The low feather pecking hens are shown to have higher  
290 plasma corticosterone concentrations while resting and during MR, higher parasympathetic activity and  
291 fewer struggles during crush cage tests than hens from high feather pecking lines (Korte et al., 1997;  
292 Korte et al., 1999), all suggesting a reactive coping style in the low feather pecking line. However, further  
293 applications of MR with hens from low mortality and control lines show inconsistent results both between  
294 studies and between behavioural and physiological measures during MR (de Haas et al., 2012; Rodenburg  
295 et al., 2009). Overall the plasma corticosterone concentrations in this study were similar to previous  
296 reports for similar aged ISA Brown free-range hens (Hernandez et al., 2014) but were much lower than  
297 reported concentrations induced by intensive handling stress in older, cage-housed ISA Brown hens  
298 (Downing and Bryden, 2008). It is possible the birds in this study were more accustomed to handling  
299 resulting from five weighing and health scoring sessions (each bird individually handled) that occurred  
300 periodically from 16 weeks up to behavioural testing as part of a separate dataset (Campbell et al.,  
301 unpublished data). If a reactive coping style is suggested to be more sensitive to environmental variation  
302 and thus coping better with change, we might predict these would be the birds visiting the range more

303 frequently. Thus, further studies are needed, including additional physiological measures such as heart  
304 rate, to determine if hens that vary in their range use also vary in their coping strategies.

305 The elevated fear levels of indoor-preferring hens as shown by more freezing in the OFT suggests that the  
306 indoor environment is preferred as it may be perceived as a safer, protected and more environmentally  
307 consistent choice for these individuals. These results were also supported by previous OFT on indoor and  
308 outdoor-preferring birds showing similar findings (Hinch and Lee, 2014 unpublished data). However, we  
309 do not know if these hens experienced poorer welfare as a result. Fear is considered an indicator of poor  
310 welfare, but if indoor-preferring hens avoided fear of the outdoor environment by staying inside, and had  
311 all their ethological needs met via dust bathing and foraging on the floor litter for example, with continual  
312 access to food, water and perches, they may have had comparable welfare to the outdoor birds with the  
313 individual hens' environmental choice being an important welfare indicator (Nicol et al., 2009).

314 Alternatively, indoor-preferring hens may have been motivated to access the outdoor resource  
315 (particularly for those birds that went outside on 2-10% of available days), but by being fearful, were thus  
316 'restricted' to the indoor area and if this were the case then their welfare could be compromised. Some  
317 studies have shown correlations between range use and hen health and welfare (Rodriguez-Aurrekoetxea  
318 and Estevez, 2016; Bestman and Wagenaar, 2003) but further individual-based data are needed to  
319 determine if indoor-preferring hens in a free-range system experience poorer welfare than birds making  
320 use of the outdoor range.

## 321 **5. Conclusions**

322 Overall, individual hens that differed in their patterns of range use also differed in some behavioural  
323 responses when subjected to a MR test and an OFT. No differences in TI were observed. Further studies  
324 are needed to determine if environmental preferences within the free-range system affect individual hen  
325 welfare and to identify what behavioural repertoire is best suited to a free-range environment.

326

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424 **TABLE CAPTIONS**

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426 Table 1: The mean  $\pm$  SEM for measured variables during behavioural tests. Tonic immobility  
 427 (TI): number of attempts to induce TI and duration of TI (secs); manual restraint (MR): latency  
 428 to first vocalise (seconds), the total number of vocalisations made, latency to first struggle  
 429 (seconds), total number of struggles made and 20-minute elevated plasma corticosterone  
 430 response (ng/mL); open field test (OFT): latency to first vocalise (seconds), total number of  
 431 vocalisations made, the latency to first move (seconds) and total number of squares crossed.  
 432 Values are shown for the three different range access groups of hens: Indoor (accessed the range  
 433 on 0 – 10% of available days), moderate-outdoor (accessed the range on 30-60% of available  
 434 days) and outdoor (accessed the range on 100% of available days). Values italicized indicate  
 435 significant differences between range access groups with all  $P \leq 0.02$ .

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**Table 1**

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		Indoor	Moderate-outdoor	Outdoor
TI	# attempts	1.90 $\pm$ 0.25	2.17 $\pm$ 0.35	1.95 $\pm$ 0.13
	Duration (secs)	98.52 $\pm$ 16.32	151.56 $\pm$ 22.16	134.48 $\pm$ 11.06
MR	Lat. vocalise (secs)	194.57 $\pm$ 26.10	121.56 $\pm$ 27.89	139.09 $\pm$ 13.99
	# vocals	<i>1.57 <math>\pm</math> 0.61</i>	<i>10.67 <math>\pm</math> 3.24</i>	<i>7.14 <math>\pm</math> 1.05</i>
	Lat. struggle (secs)	125.90 $\pm$ 29.05	67.39 $\pm$ 16.65	113.66 $\pm$ 14.13
	# struggles	5.86 $\pm$ 1.47	8.28 $\pm$ 1.76	8.83 $\pm$ 1.28
	Cort. response (ng/ml)	1.94 $\pm$ 0.19	2.03 $\pm$ 0.33	1.86 $\pm$ 0.10
OFT	Lat. vocalise (secs)	63.33 $\pm$ 22.70	45.72 $\pm$ 22.06	40.72 $\pm$ 8.63
	# vocals	37.48 $\pm$ 11.85	44.72 $\pm$ 18.09	33.12 $\pm$ 5.15
	Lat. move (secs)	<i>124.33 <math>\pm</math> 20.77</i>	<i>123.28 <math>\pm</math> 19.70</i>	<i>77.35 <math>\pm</math> 8.41</i>
	# squares crossed	25.57 $\pm$ 4.0	24.56 $\pm$ 4.16	45.23 $\pm$ 4.58

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