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Title: First report of reindeer (*Rangifer tarandus tarandus*) response to human-given cues.

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Abstract: Many argue that the animal understanding of human referential communication is a by-product of domestication. However, the domestication hypothesis is not unanimously supported as some non-domesticated species such as sea lions, dolphins or African elephants perform well in the understanding of human pointing gesture. There is a need to study species with different levels of domestication across different taxa to understand the emerging communicative socio-cognitive skills in animals that provide them with the ability to comprehend the human-given cues. We conducted a pilot study to assess the performance of eight sledging reindeer at following a commonly used human-given cue (a pointing gesture associated with gaze at the target and local enhancement) in a two-way choice task. Domestic reindeer are considered semi-captive, because of their husbandry system in free-ranging conditions, with limited control of their reproduction. We observed that the willingness of the reindeer to participate in the test was age-related, with the younger individuals which lack experience with humans being reluctant to approach the experimenters. Within the more experienced working sledging reindeer, two individuals showed excellent skills and followed the human-given cues 9 out of 10 times. Reindeer show great potential in following a human indication to locate hidden food with minimal training when properly tamed. The effect of previous experience with humans requires further investigation. This is the first demonstration in cervids of an ability to make use of experimenter-given cues in an object-choice task.

Keywords: human-animal relationship, pointing, social cognition, referential communication, working animals.

## 1 **Introduction**

2 Working animals such as equines, shepherd dogs or logging elephants, spend hours each  
3 day in close contact with humans, involving complex interactions to fulfil specific tasks. The capacity  
4 of animals and humans to communicate is a crucial part of their working relationship (Kalof, 2017),  
5 and partly relies on the animals' ability to understand human-given cues. Humans widely use the  
6 manual pointing gesture for referential communication to share a focus of intentions (Leavens and  
7 Hopkins 1999). This gesture is often associated with gazing at the target and being closer to it. The  
8 human referential communication is commonly used in animal cognitive experiments to investigate  
9 their understanding of human-given cues. In such experiments, a human experimenter indicates an  
10 object to go to among other identical objects using the pointing gesture, and/or by gazing at it and/or  
11 standing next to it, to test if the animal follows the human-given cues and moves towards the targeted  
12 object. Several studies suggest that the success of animals at responding to human-given cues can be  
13 driven by the effect of selection processes involved in the domestication and the coevolution with  
14 humans. The most famous example comes from dog puppies (*Canis familiaris*) that are more skilled  
15 than wolf puppies (*Canis lupus*) at responding to human cues even if both species have been raised  
16 in similar conditions (Virányi et al. 2008; Gácsi et al. 2009). Many other domesticated mammals such  
17 as cats (*Felis catus*), ferrets (*Mustela putorius*), pigs (*Sus scrofa domesticus*), goats (*Capra aegagrus*  
18 *hircus*) and horses (*Equus caballus*) have been found to be able to use referential communication with  
19 humans (Krause et al. 2018; Jardat and Lansade 2021). However, the domestication hypothesis is not  
20 unanimously supported as some non-domesticated species such as sea lions (*Zalophus californianus*)  
21 (Malassis and Delfour 2015), dolphins (*Tursiops truncatus*) (Herman et al. 1999) and African  
22 elephants (*Loxodonta africana*) (Smet and Byrne 2014) show great performances in the  
23 understanding of human pointing gesture. There is a need for studies on species with different levels  
24 of domestication across different taxa to understand the emerging communicative socio-cognitive

25 skills in animals that provide them with the ability to comprehend the human-given cues (Miklósi and  
26 Soproni 2006).

27           One interesting example of working animals, for which communication with humans  
28 has been overlooked, is the sledging reindeer (*Rangifer tarandus tarandus*). Domestic reindeer are  
29 considered semi-captive, because of their husbandry system in free-ranging conditions, with limited  
30 control of their reproduction. Sledging reindeer are only trained or used for work during winter and  
31 live freely with the herd during the rest of the year, meaning that their time in close contact with  
32 humans is limited to a few months per year. Working reindeer (sledge and saddle) have been trained  
33 and used as draft animals since humans started to herd reindeer. Although harness parts found in  
34 Siberia were dated from 2000 years ago (Losey et al. 2021), reindeer herding on a large scale only  
35 expanded among the Sámi in northern Fennoscandia during the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries  
36 (Bergman et al. 2013). The working reindeer were used for draught tasks and mobility of people well  
37 into the twentieth century (Salmi et al. 2022). While their use tended to decrease after the introduction  
38 of new technologies such as snow mobiles, sledging reindeer are making a comeback for tourist  
39 safaris in the past decades. Nordic countries now base an essential part of their marketing strategies  
40 on animal tourism and sell reindeer and husky sledging tours as one of their main attractions (Garcia-  
41 Rosel et al. 2018). The number of sledging reindeer is therefore expected to grow and, hence, there  
42 is a need to investigate human-reindeer interactions and the potential consequences for the animals.  
43 In this pilot study, we explore the ability of eight sledging reindeer to respond to human-given cues  
44 using a global informing cue – associating pointing gesture, proximity, and gaze at the object – which  
45 reproduce what humans would naturally do to communicate with their animal. With this experimental  
46 design we first aim to explore if reindeer are receptive to usual and basic communication cues from  
47 humans. In that way we want to highlight the potential of reindeer as a new model to then study deer  
48 cognition in more detail. Reindeer are the only species of cervids used as working animals. Studying

49 tamed individuals, which are used to regular human handling, is a unique opportunity to  
50 experimentally explore the cognitive abilities of cervid species.

## 51 **Methods**

52 **Study population:** For this study we used eight male reindeer from the Reindeer Journey farm based  
53 in Finnish Lapland. The sample size was defined according to the number of individuals available at  
54 the farm. The herders from this farm have been herding reindeer for generations and are professional  
55 sledging reindeer trainers. The reindeer used in our study ranged in age from 3 to 12 years and differ  
56 in their level of training: four of them were active working reindeer, two were working for their first  
57 season and two were still in the last stage of training meaning that they would start working with  
58 tourists in the next winter (See details in Table 1).

59 **Sledging reindeer training process:** The reindeer training starts from their first winter and training  
60 sessions follow every subsequent winter until the herder estimates them ready to work with tourists  
61 (about 3 to 4 years old). Every winter, the male calves (about 6 months old) and other young males  
62 in training are separated from the herd to be grouped in enclosures next to the farm and are kept there  
63 until being reunited with the herd when the snow melts. During this time, the reindeer will get  
64 habituated to humans. Each of them will be trained to calmly walk on a leash and will be progressively  
65 introduced to the harness, and then the sledge until they can pull the sledge with a person in it. Then,  
66 they will learn how to walk in a “raito”, a line of reindeer pulling sledges tied to each other. Once  
67 they are ready to work, they will be castrated before joining the working reindeer at a tourist station  
68 in the following winter for their first season of work ([Herders oral communication; Garcia-Rosel et](#)  
69 [al. 2018](#)).

70 **Experimental design:** The experiments were carried out in Finnish Lapland in March 2022 at the  
71 Reindeer Journey farm for the two individuals in training, and at a reindeer park located in Levi,  
72 where the working reindeer spend the tourist season. The tests were performed in a place familiar to

73 the reindeer, a wooden paddock where they are taken for training just next to their enclosure where  
74 they could see the other reindeer and would not suffer from isolation.

75 The Training Phase: The goal of the training phase was to teach the reindeer that it could get  
76 food from a bucket, and to assess its motivation to move towards the buckets on its own. This training  
77 led to a final task, where the reindeer was held at a starting point by an assistant, and a closed bucket  
78 containing lichen was put on the ground 2m away in front of the reindeer and with the trainer standing  
79 behind the bucket. The reindeer was released and had to move towards the bucket and touch the lid  
80 with the muzzle for it to be opened by the trainer. Three to six trials were performed one after another.  
81 The reindeer must have approached and touched the lid of the bucket three times in a row to be  
82 selected for the pointing test. If the reindeer did not reach the criterion within the six trials, it was not  
83 selected for the pointing test. Altogether, four reindeer failed to pass the training phase and four  
84 individuals passed the training phase and participated in the following pointing test.

85 The Pointing Test: Two buckets with a lid on and lichen inside were placed 1.5 m apart from  
86 each other on both sides of the experimenter. The starting point was the same as in the training. To  
87 point out the bucket, the experimenter moved one step from the centre of the two buckets towards  
88 one of them and pointed at it with the back slightly bent and the hand about 30 cm above the bucket,  
89 staring at the bucket (fig 1) The idea was to mimic the natural way humans would inform an animal  
90 about the location of an object. The reindeer was then released and free to choose one of the buckets.  
91 The pointing lasted until the reindeer made a choice. In a **successful trial**, the reindeer chose the  
92 bucket pointed at by the experimenter by touching the lid with its muzzle. The experimenter then  
93 quickly opened the lid, so the reindeer could access the lichen. Thereafter, the assistant led the  
94 reindeer back to the starting point for the next trial. In a **failed trial**, the reindeer chose the bucket not  
95 pointed at by the experimenter. In that case, the pointing experimenter caught the reindeer by the  
96 halter and did not open the bucket's lid. The assistant led the reindeer back to the starting point. The  
97 pointing experimenter then performed a motivational trial before continuing with the next pointing

98 trial. The motivational trial consisted of one repeat of the training trial. In total, ten pointing trials  
99 were performed – not including the potential motivation trials. The side of the pointing was pseudo-  
100 randomised, so each side was pointed at five times and the same bucket was never pointed at more

## Pointing test

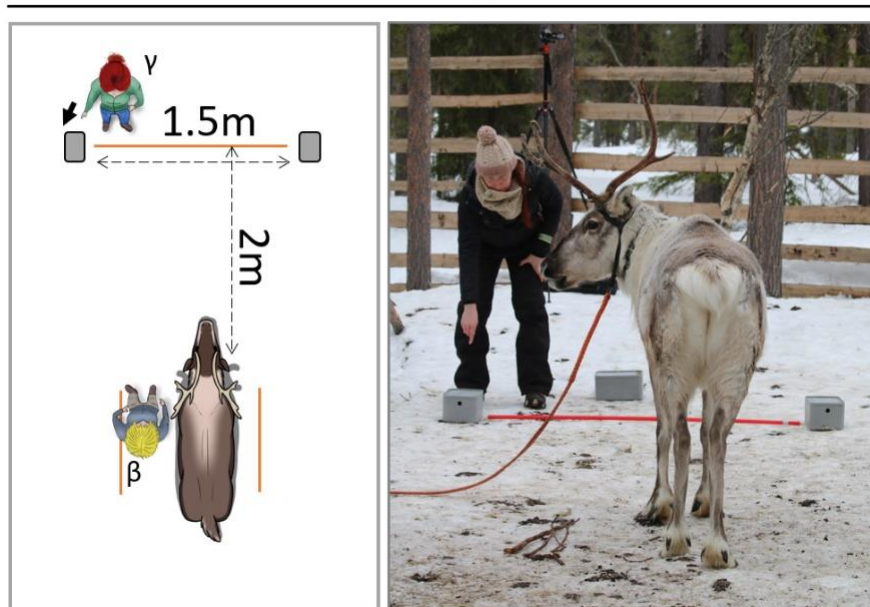


Figure 1: left - Pointing test with an example of a pointing trial. “β”: unfamiliar research assistant. “γ”: Pointing experimenter. right - Picture presenting the real condition of the pointing test

101 than twice in a row. The pointing test was always performed by an experimenter different from the  
102 training phase to avoid a preliminary association of the person with a food reward.

103 **Statistical analyses:** Statistical analyses were performed using the statistical software R, version  
104 3.6.3 (R Core Team 2022). We used a Wilcoxon test to analyse if the success to pass the training  
105 phase was affected by the age of the reindeer. For the four reindeer which passed the training phase  
106 and participated in the pointing task, their overall performance was considered a success when they  
107 reached 8/10 successful trials, as they followed the human pointing gesture significantly more often  
108 than expected by chance (binomial test with greater alternative,  $p \leq 0.05$ ).

109 **Ethics:** The reindeer owner provided an informed consent for them and their reindeer via the  
110 completion of an information form provided in Finnish. Data were stored according to the EU General  
111 Data Protection Regulation Act 12 to 14 (2016/679). The owner had the right to withdraw their

112 consent at any point of the study. This study was evaluated by the Project Authorization Board of the  
113 Southern Finland Regional Administration Agency (ESAVI) responsible for the Legal Security and  
114 Permits (decision: ESAVI/5563/2022).

### 115 **Openness and Transparency:**

116 We report how we determined our sample size, all data exclusions (if any), all manipulations, and all  
117 measures in the study.

### 118 **Results and Discussion:**

119 Overall, four out of the eight reindeer completed the training. The four individuals  
120 which failed the training were significantly younger (mean  $\pm$  SD:  $3.5 \pm 0.58$ ) than those which  
121 succeeded and subsequently participated in the pointing test (mean  $\pm$  SD:  $8.25 \pm 2.63$ ) (Wilcoxon,  $p$   
122 = **0.028**;  $w = 0$ ). The youngest reindeer have less experience with human handling as two of them  
123 were still in training and the two others were performing their first season with tourists. To minimise  
124 the stress as they get habituated to their working environment, young sledging reindeer do not yet  
125 interact too much with unfamiliar humans during their first season of work. Therefore, these reindeer  
126 showed some signs of stress when being handled by unfamiliar persons during the training phase. It  
127 was difficult for them to focus on the food reward, and they would rather go away than to collect the  
128 food from the bucket. On the other hand, the reindeer that had more work experience and were more  
129 used to interact with people were very eager to participate in the training and highly motivated by the  
130 food reward. From the four individuals that participated in the pointing task, two had a very high  
131 success rate (Success: 9/10, binomial test,  $p = \mathbf{0.011}$ ). Such a high success rate may indicate that some  
132 reindeer are capable of spontaneously comprehending human-given cues. A third reindeer had six  
133 successes out of ten; this is not high enough to consider that it chose the pointed bucket more often  
134 than expected by chance (Success: 6/10, binomial test,  $p = 0.377$ ). However, this reindeer showed a  
135 form of side persistence as it always chose the pointed bucket first and then would go to the same  
136 bucket during the following trial. It would switch back to following the pointing cue after a failure.

137 Finally, the last reindeer systematically chose the wrong bucket; this result indicates that this  
138 individual genuinely avoided the pointed bucket (Success: 0/10, binomial test,  $p = 1$ ). This reindeer  
139 had the longest history with humans, and did not show more avoidance behaviours than the others  
140 during the experiment. The herders described him as less affectionate towards strangers and less  
141 curious than the other reindeer that participated in the study.

142           Performing in a pointing task requires the animal to be habituated to humans, and  
143 therefore all individuals from non-domesticated species which succeed in following the human  
144 pointing gesture were captive and tamed animals from zoos - sea lions ([Malassis and Delfour 2015](#)),  
145 dolphins ([Herman et al. 1999](#)), African elephants ([Smet and Byrne 2014](#)) and grey seals ([Shapiro et  
146 al. 2003](#)). Even if our study does not allow to disentangle the effects of local enhancement (i.e., the  
147 informer moving near the bucket) and manual pointing, it is interesting that sledging reindeer, which  
148 only spend wintertime working with humans and live wild for most of the year almost no contact with  
149 humans, are capable of high performances when it comes to following human-given cues. Our results  
150 are in line with the idea that animals may not need to be born and reared in complete human controlled  
151 environments to develop socio-cognitive skills towards humans. They are also in line with the recent  
152 findings of [Liehrmann et al. \(2023\)](#) showing that horses living in pasture with conspecifics all year  
153 long had better success in the pointing task than horses living in individual paddocks. An appropriate  
154 environment respecting the natural behavioural and physiological need of the species may promote  
155 the development of socio-cognitive skills that could also be applied to interact with humans.

156           Although these reindeer are not spending all year interacting daily with humans, it  
157 seems that their proximity to humans still affects their performance. The four youngest reindeer were  
158 likely too stressed to pass the training phase. It appears that reindeer need time and several seasons  
159 of training and working to become less stressed when handled by humans. Accordingly, reindeer  
160 participating in experiments involving human interaction should be properly habituated and able to  
161 relax in the presence of strangers to perform. The familiarity of the experimenter should also be

162 considered. Working Asian elephants responded better to the call of someone familiar and agreed  
163 more often to walk on a novel surface when commanded by a familiar handler (Crawley et al. 2021;  
164 Liehrmann et al. 2021). Horses with shorter relationships with their owner showed increased  
165 reluctance to approach novel objects and surfaces (Liehrmann et al. 2022). Working dogs showed  
166 better obedience to verbal stimuli given by familiar humans compared to strangers (Scandurra et al.  
167 2017). A study from de Mouzon, et al. (2022) observed that cats respond to pet-directed speech only  
168 when addressed by their owner. Hence, it could be interesting to test the effect of the human pointer's  
169 familiarity with the individual reindeer in further studies.

170           Finally, the high range of different responses observed within the four individuals which  
171 took part to the task indicates that factors such as individual personality may strongly affect their  
172 performance. For instance, bolder dogs performed better at working trials compared to shyer dogs  
173 (Svartberg 2002). In farms, fearful animals are often more difficult to handle and to manage (Grandin  
174 1987; Hemsworth 2003). Working Asian elephants have been scored on attentiveness indicating how  
175 well individuals listen, react, and respond to their environment; better-scoring elephants had better  
176 quality communication with their handler (Seltmann et al. 2018). However, we lack empirical studies  
177 on reindeer and various other species to be able to form a clear picture of how animal personality can  
178 affect human-animal interactions. In summary, as a free-ranging and semi-domesticated species,  
179 reindeer show great potential in following a human indication to locate hidden food with minimal  
180 training when properly tamed. The effect of previous experience with humans requires further  
181 investigation and analysing the heart rate or cortisol levels during the experiments could indicate if  
182 the reindeer performance relates to their stress level. Further investigations are also needed to identify  
183 the individual cues to which reindeer rely on to make choices and which ones they comprehend best  
184 (e.g. pointing gesture, gazing or local enhancement). To our knowledge, this pilot study is the first  
185 demonstration in cervids of an ability to follow the experimenter-given cues in an object-choice task.

186 Table 1: Table presenting the eight reindeer participating in the study and their score to the pointing  
 187 test. “\*\*” indicates than the reindeer followed pointing gesture significantly above chance.

REINDEER ID	AGE (YEARS)	TRAINING LEVEL	SUCCESS	P VALUE
0001	12	8 <sup>th</sup> season of work	0/10	1
0002	8	4 <sup>th</sup> season of work	9/10	0.011*
0003	7	4 <sup>th</sup> season of work	6/10	0.377
0004	6	3 <sup>dr</sup> season of work	9/10	0.011*
0005	4	1 <sup>st</sup> season of work	Failed training	NA
0006	4	1 <sup>st</sup> season of work	Failed training	NA
0007	3	Last season of training	Failed training	NA
0008	3	Last season of training	Failed training	NA

188

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