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7 Pigs learn what a mirror image represents and use it to obtain information

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18

19 ABSTRACT

20 Mirror usage has been taken to indicate some degree of awareness in animals. Can pigs  
21 obtain information from a mirror? When put in a pen with a mirror in it, young pigs  
22 made movements while apparently looking at their image. After 5 hours spent with a  
23 mirror, the pigs were shown a familiar food bowl, visible in the mirror but hidden  
24 behind a solid barrier. Seven out of eight pigs found the food bowl in a mean of 23s by  
25 going away from the mirror and around the barrier. Naïve pigs shown the same, looked  
26 behind the mirror. The pigs were not locating the food bowl by odour, did not have a  
27 preference for the area where the food bowl was and did not go to that area when the  
28 food bowl was visible elsewhere. To use information from a mirror and find a food  
29 bowl, each pig must have observed features of its surroundings, remembered these and  
30 its own actions, deduced relationships among observed and remembered features and  
31 acted accordingly. This ability indicates assessment awareness in pigs. The results may

32 have some effects on the design of housing conditions for pigs and may lead to better  
33 pig welfare.

34

35 Keywords: awareness, cognition, learning, mirror, pigs,

36

## 37 INTRODUCTION

38

39 The E.U. Treaty of Amsterdam refers to domestic animals as sentient and a sentient  
40 being has been defined as “one that has some ability: to evaluate the actions of others in  
41 relation to itself and third parties, to remember some of its own actions and their  
42 consequences, to assess risk, to have some feelings and to have some degree of  
43 awareness” (Broom 2007). Hence the extent to which an animal can learn about  
44 complex aspects of its world and the level of awareness which it has can influence  
45 human attitudes to the moral status of such animals and hence the ways in which they  
46 are treated (Mendl et al 2001, Broom 2003).

47 Griffin (1981) said that awareness involves the experiencing of inter-related mental  
48 images and awareness has been defined as “a state in which complex brain analysis is  
49 used to process sensory stimuli or constructs based on memory” (Broom 1998). The  
50 term “complex brain analysis” implies that there is some degree of interpretive thought  
51 over and above perceptual processing and a gradation has been proposed with four  
52 categories of awareness: unaware but responsive, perceptual awareness, cognitive  
53 awareness, assessment awareness and executive awareness (Sommerville and Broom  
54 1998). For example, in assessment awareness the individual is able to assess and deduce  
55 the significance of a situation in relation to itself over a short time span. The individual  
56 would not only be sensible to stimuli but would have memory of events and mental  
57 images of non-current events that could be used when taking appropriate action, both to  
58 avoid the negative and to increase positive consequences. This use of the concept of  
59 awareness is similar to that of Snyder et al (2004) who refer to awareness of concepts  
60 and equate consciousness with executive awareness. Mendl and Paul (2004, 2008)  
61 discuss “basic awareness” of sensations, feelings, emotions and memories. One level of  
62 self-cognition is to be self-referent and to discriminate labels of self from labels of non-  
63 self (Hauber and Sherman 2001) and this has been described as different from being  
64 self-aware “the cognitive process that enables an individual to discriminate between its

65 own body or possessions from those of others” Bekoff and Sherman 2004). However,  
66 this is a description of a consequence rather than a definition of self-aware as an  
67 individual could be self-aware in the absence of any cue from others. Most discussions  
68 of awareness refer to the social context and to whether animals are able to infer the  
69 mental states of others (Gallup 1998).

70 A prediction if an individual can have assessment awareness is that if it has a novel  
71 visual experience, like viewing images in a mirror, this could be followed by learning  
72 about what it sees in the mirror in relation to itself and then using such information at a  
73 later time. Human infants can use mirrors in the course of shape discrimination (Itakura  
74 and Imamizu 1994) and, if given sufficient exposure to mirrors at appropriate age, will  
75 discover the contingency between visual and proprioceptive feedback from their own  
76 body movements (Lewis and Brooks-Guy 1979). At five months of age they look more  
77 at their own image in a mirror than at the image of another infant or a puppet (Bahnick  
78 et al 1996) and at nine months they are able to discriminate self from other in a mirror  
79 (Rochat and Striano 2002). At 14-18 months, when looking in a mirror infants are  
80 described as showing self-referencing activities, self-labeling and embarrassment at  
81 rouge on the face (Bertenthal and Fisher 1987). These children would have been told  
82 that the image in the mirror is of themselves. Povinelli et al (1996) allowed children to  
83 see a television image of themselves, very similar to a mirror image, and found that  
84 when a sticker was put on their head, no 2-year-olds reached for the sticker, 25% of  
85 three-year-olds reached for it and 75% of 4-year-olds reached for it. Also using live  
86 television images, Menzel et al (1985) reported that chimpanzees could use these  
87 images to find targets visible only on the television screen. Iriki et al (2001) observed  
88 that Japanese monkeys could use televised images of their hands to pick up food while  
89 Anderson et al (2009), showed live television images of themselves to capuchin  
90 monkeys and concluded that their behaviour strongly suggested recognition of the  
91 correspondence between kinaesthetic information and external visual effects. Dolphins  
92 have been reported to use a television image, apparently to explore themselves visually  
93 (Marten and Psakoros 1995). Tests with chimpanzees, an elephant, dolphins and  
94 magpies that had had previous experience of mirrors, using marks on the body visible  
95 in a mirror, led to the individuals touching or apparently looking at the marks (Gallup  
96 1982, Reiss and Marino 2001, Plotnik et al 2006, Prior et al 2008).

97 The abilities indicated by these mirror and television image studies range from  
98 discrimination of images, through learning that what is seen in a mirror is on the same  
99 side as the observer, learning that own movements can be monitored by looking at the  
100 mirror, to appreciating that the image is the self. As Rochat (2002) puts it, in this last  
101 case the specular image is standing for the identified or conceptual self, not somebody  
102 else, and the self is as seen by others.

103 Pigs have complex social behaviour (Jensen 1982, Broom and Fraser 2007) and a  
104 series of experimental studies have also provided evidence of their substantial cognitive  
105 ability (Mendl et al 1997, 2001, Croney et al 2003, Laughlin and Mendl 2004, Held et al  
106 2005). For example, pigs can recall where food was encountered, integrate this  
107 information with information about type of food and replenishment rate and avoid  
108 unproductive visits to potential food sites (Mendl and Paul 2008). The present study  
109 was designed to find out whether or not pigs could use information from a mirror to  
110 locate an object that could only be seen in the mirror. Pigs which had not had  
111 experience of a mirror were compared with pigs which had.

112 The vision of pigs is adequate for mirror images to be perceived and eyeball size,  
113 retina, pupil and lens are similar to those of humans (Piggins 1992, Zonderland et al  
114 2007). Pigs have fewer cone cells than humans so their spatial discrimination is poorer  
115 (Zonderland et al 2007). However they show preferences for food bowls of certain  
116 colours (Deligeorgis et al 2006). Olfactory signals are used for social recognition and  
117 regulation of sexual behaviour but pigs can successfully find food sources using visual  
118 or olfactory cues (Kristenson et al 2001, Croney et al 2003, Zonderland et al 2007).

119 In a preliminary study the behaviour of pigs was recorded when they first encountered  
120 a mirror and after 24 hours with it. The response of pigs naïve to a mirror was then  
121 compared with pigs with five hours experience of a mirror when they saw a food bowl  
122 reflected in the mirror. The distribution of time in different parts of the test pen prior to  
123 seeing the food bowl in the pen was also observed in separate trials. In a subsequent  
124 test, the mirror was replaced by wire-mesh with the food in the position visually the  
125 same as when the mirror was present.

## 126 METHODS

127 The subjects were 4-8 week Large White x Landrace pigs housed in strawed pens  
128 with natural light and food and water *ad libitum*. All were familiarised with a red food

129 bowl as a food container. None had seen a mirror, or other reflecting surface, before the  
130 studies described here.

131 The trials took place in a 4.6 x 2.8 m. strawed pen located approximately 30 m away  
132 from the home pen. All behaviour was video-recorded. The 0.6 x 0.7 m. mirror was in a  
133 1.2 x 1.4 m. frame. A 1.7 m. long 1.4 m. high barrier could be attached to the mirror  
134 frame, 0.09 m. from the mirror, so the pig couldn't pull it and pass between it and the  
135 frame (Fig. 1). In the preliminary study, seven pigs were put individually into the pen  
136 for 24 hours with the mirror and food present. Their behaviour was recorded for the first  
137 two hours and from 23 to 24 hours.

138 During the trials with the mirror and food bowl (Mirror Test), the pig was put in a small  
139 pen (area 7) with solid wooden walls. A curtain covered the exit from the small pen so  
140 that the pig could not see outside it. The curtain was opened and the pig left inside this  
141 small pen for 1 minute before the front gate of the small pen was opened with a pulley  
142 to allow the pig to leave. During the minute before the gate was opened in the Mirror  
143 Test the pig could see the barrier and the right hand side of the mirror with the image of  
144 the food bowl through the front section. When in Area 4 or Area 7 the pig could see the  
145 food bowl but could not see whether or not there was food in it.

146

147



148

149 Fig. 1 Plan of the pen where the experiments were carried out, showing the small pen with solid walls  
150 (area 7), mirror (or wire mesh) in a frame, solid wood barrier, fan position (above pig head level in the  
151 pen) and the numbers of floor sections used to describe the position of the pig. Area 3 is where the red  
152 food bowl, whose reflection was visible in the mirror when the pig was in areas 4 or 7, was placed during  
153 the mirror test. The food bowl would appear to be in area 1 to a naïve pig that had not had experience  
154 with a mirror.

155

156

157 The mirror tests were carried out during nine non-consecutive weeks between 09.00  
158 and 18.00 hours. Firstly, pigs with no previous experience of a mirror were tested, then  
159 pigs that had experience with a mirror.

160

161 Eleven “mirror naïve” pigs, six males and five females, which had never seen a mirror  
162 were released, singly, into the pen (Fig. 1) with the red food bowl, containing food,  
163 present on the left side of the barrier and visible only in the mirror. A fan was  
164 positioned slightly behind and above the food. This was intended to ensure that the  
165 smell of the food could not be localised by the pig. Observation of the movement of  
166 particles in the air indicated that air flowed initially from the front towards the back of  
167 the pen but then became mixed throughout the pen. The behaviour of the pigs was  
168 recorded during the Mirror Test with the intention of continuing for one minute or, if it  
169 occurred earlier, until the pig moved behind the barrier or mirror. Each of the 11 pigs  
170 was observed in the Mirror Test once and not used in any subsequent test.

171

172 In order that the “mirror experienced” would have the opportunity to learn about a  
173 mirror, eight pigs, four females and four males, were put into the pen with a mirror in it  
174 for 5h. They were in pairs, so that they would not associate the visits to the pen with  
175 social isolation. This provided company but also allowed them to observe the other  
176 animal as a moving reference point in the mirror. The subsequent tests, described  
177 below, were conducted on the same day.

178

179 In order to find out where the “mirror experienced” pigs would go by chance in the test  
180 pen after leaving the small pen, two males and two females were observed. Only four of  
181 the eight pigs used in the Mirror Test were used because the desirability of this control  
182 study was only appreciated after the first four pigs had been tested. They were left in the  
183 small pen for 15 s and then allowed to go out of it for 25 s. The barrier and mirror were

184 in place but no food or food bowl was present. The amount of time spent in areas 1 to 7,  
185 including area 1 behind the mirror and area 3 where the food was located in the mirror  
186 test, was recorded.

187

188 The Mirror Tests were done once with each of eight “mirror experienced” animals using  
189 the pen shown in Fig. 1. The bowl with food was placed on the left side of the barrier in  
190 such a way that it could be seen from the small pen via the mirror. Each pig was in the  
191 Area 7 pen and then released, as explained above. After release it was left in the test pen  
192 for a maximum of one minute and its behaviour video-recorded.

193

194 After the “mirror experienced” pigs had completed the Mirror Test, in order to check  
195 whether the pigs had just changed their behaviour to show a preference for Area 3  
196 (behind the barrier) wire mesh of mesh diameter approximately 3 cm was put in the  
197 frame in place of the mirror. The food in the food bowl was put behind the frame so the  
198 pig could see it through the wire mesh in the same position that a mirror image would  
199 appear to have. The same methodology was used in the Wire-Mesh Test as in the  
200 Mirror Test for each of the eight pigs. In an extra, subsequent test, with only the last of  
201 the pigs previously tested, wire-mesh was in place of the mirror, the familiar bowl  
202 behind the wire-mesh was clean and empty and there was food in a bowl on the other  
203 side of the barrier, i.e. in the place where the food was put in the Mirror Test.

204

205

206

## 207 RESULTS

208

### 209 *Initial observations: qualitative descriptions of first contact with the mirror*

210 When first encountering the mirror, all seven pigs whose behaviour was recorded in  
211 detail walked towards it, sometimes vocalising, stopped with nose pointing towards the  
212 mirror, moved forward again and made contact with the mirror surface with their nose.  
213 Some pigs looked behind the mirror after looking at their reflection in it. One female  
214 pig, observed during preliminary studies, moved rapidly towards the mirror and broke  
215 it, perhaps attacking her mirror image. After initially encountering the mirror the pigs  
216 moved back from the mirror surface, oriented nose and eyes towards it apparently  
217 looking at it and made movements looking again from different angles. Three pigs

218 showed some weaving movements. In the preliminary studies, the mean time before  
219 there was a break of more than 30s in attending to the mirror was 20 minutes. Some  
220 habituation to the mirror was apparent and from 23 to 24 hours after the mirror was put  
221 in the pen, much less time was spent looking at it than in the first hour. Similar  
222 behaviour was shown during the 5h exposure to the mirror by the pigs that would  
223 experience the Mirror Test. Sometimes pigs lay down in front of the mirror, looking at  
224 it or in parallel with it as if lying beside another pig.

225

226 *“Mirror naïve” pigs in the Mirror Test.*

227 Of the eleven pigs that had never seen a mirror, in the Mirror Test where they could  
228 see a familiar food bowl reflected in a mirror, but not directly visible because it was  
229 behind the barrier, nine approached the mirror then walked behind it to area 1 (Table 1).  
230 One pig knocked over the barrier and one walked around the whole pen including going  
231 behind the barrier. In each case, the trial was then terminated. The nine pigs that went  
232 behind the mirror did so in 15-50 seconds (mean 25.7, s.d. 11.6).

233

234 *“Mirror experienced” pigs: activity in Mirror Test pen prior to Mirror Test.*

235 The animals observed were able to go anywhere in the test pen for 25s with no food  
236 present, so the total time, during four repeats for 4 animals, was 400 seconds. In the 16  
237 periods, Area 1 was visited by three pigs on one occasion each whilst Area 3 was  
238 visited by four pigs on one occasion each as the pig walked around the pen. The total  
239 time spent in Area 3 was 66s (mean per individual 16.5s, S.D. 9.8). The 66s spent in  
240 Area 3 out of a total time observed of 400 s gives a probability of one in six of a pig in  
241 this pen being in Area 3 at any one time and a probability of one in four of visiting Area  
242 3. A statistical comparison with Mirror Test data is not accurate because some cell sizes  
243 are too small.

244

245

246 *“Mirror experienced” pigs in the Mirror Test.*

247 When the eight pigs with previous experience of the mirror were released from the  
248 small pen during the Mirror Test, they walked out, looked around the test pen and  
249 looked at the mirror where the food dish was visible. Seven of the eight pigs went to  
250 Area 3 on the left side of the barrier and reached the food (Table 1). They all moved  
251 away from the mirror, around the end of the barrier, and then directly to the food. The



252 times taken to reach it were 11s, 29s, 23s, 10s, 46s, 13s, 32s, mean 23.4 s, S.D. 13.3s.  
 253 One pig took 41s to decide and then went to Area 1 behind the mirror. For comparisons  
 254 of the numbers of naïve and experienced pigs reaching Area 1:  $p < 0.01$  and Area 3:  
 255  $p < 0.01$  (Fisher Exact Test).

256

257 Table 1. Comparison of “Mirror naïve” and “Mirror experienced” pigs in the Mirror  
 258 Test and Wire-Mesh Test.

	“Mirror naïve”	“Mirror experienced”	“Mirror experienced”
		Mirror present	Wire-Mesh present
261 n	11	8	8
262 Number going to:			
263 Area 1 (behind mirror)	9	1	6
264 Area 3 (with food bowl)	1	7	2
265 Other action	1		
266			
267 Mean latency if reached Area 1		41s (n=1)	14s SD 3.9s
268 Mean latency if reached Area 3		23s SD 13.3s	43s (n=2)

269

270

271 *“Mirror experienced” pigs in the Wire-Mesh Test.*

272 In this test, conducted after the Mirror Test, six of eight pigs went to Area 1, behind  
 273 the wire-mesh frame, and reached the food (Table 1). Of the two pigs that went to Area  
 274 3, one took 44s to decide and was the individual that did not reach the food in the  
 275 Mirror Test, whilst the other took 42s to decide before going to the wrong place. Both  
 276 showed frequent hesitation when moving. Comparing 6 out of 8 pigs going to Area 1  
 277 with 1 out of 8 in the Mirror Test,  $p < 0.01$  (Fisher Exact Test). In the test on a single  
 278 pig with an empty bowl behind the wire mesh and a full food bowl behind the barrier,  
 279 the pig went behind the mirror to the empty bowl in Area 1.

280

281

282

283 DISCUSSION

284

285 The aim of this study was to find out whether or not pigs can obtain information from  
286 a mirror, as has been demonstrated for humans and other primates, dolphins, elephants,  
287 magpies and an African grey parrot (Pepperberg et al 1995). The 4-6-week-old pigs  
288 studied responded to a mirror initially as if to another pig but later by looking at it as  
289 they moved. They moved and then stopped still, apparently looking at their image and  
290 its surroundings, oriented either with nose towards the mirror or with the head parallel  
291 to it. As a consequence of the lateral position of the pig's eye, it is not possible to record  
292 duration of looks towards the mirror and pigs show little change in facial expression.  
293 They do vocalise and some of these pigs did so when exposed to the mirror. As with the  
294 movements in front of a novel mirror described for chimpanzees, humans, capuchin  
295 monkeys, dolphins and elephants (Gallup 1982, Reiss and Marino 2001, Keenan et al  
296 2003, Plotnik et al 2006, Anderson et al 2009) some of the movements of these young  
297 pigs suggest that they could have been monitoring the movements in the mirror image  
298 when they moved their own head or body. As Anderson et al (2009) put it, the animals  
299 could be comparing the kinaesthetic information and the external visual effects.

300

301 Although the naïve pigs exposed to the Mirror Test went behind the mirror to the  
302 apparent position of the food bowl, five hours experience with the mirror in a pen  
303 changed the behaviour of the pigs. When they were subjected to the Mirror Test, all but  
304 one of them went away from the mirror to the actual position of the food bowl within  
305 23s. This movement is first with the air-stream, then against it. The results in total, in  
306 particular the difference between the naïve and mirror-experienced pigs, makes it clear  
307 that the pigs were not locating the food bowl by odour. Pigs often use smell to reach  
308 food (Zonderland et al 2007), but the fan blew air away from the food bowl and  
309 circulated it in the pen. The single pig in the Wire Mesh Test that could see a bowl  
310 through the wire mesh but could not see that the bowl was empty went to the empty  
311 bowl rather than to a bowl containing food behind the barrier. It would seem that  
312 localisation of the food bowl when the fan was on was impossible, or at least more  
313 difficult than using the visual information. The association between visual cues and  
314 food reward is sometimes not an easy task for pigs (Zonderland et al 2007) but it seems  
315 that they learned how to do so in this study. They also learned in five hours to use the  
316 mirror in a way that later allowed them to locate the food. In the Mirror Test, "mirror  
317 experienced" pigs went to the position of the food behind the barrier in Area 3 much

318 more often than had four of their number, after mirror experience but prior to the Mirror  
319 Test, when their activity was monitored in the Mirror Test pen with no food in it.

320

321 The possibility that all pigs had developed a preference for Area 3 at the time of the  
322 Mirror Test was shown not to be the case when the same animals were tested soon  
323 afterwards with the wire-mesh in place of the mirror (Wire-Mesh Test) and six out of  
324 eight went to the food bowl behind the wire mesh in Area 1. One pig went to the wrong  
325 side in both trials, behind the mirror (Area 1) in the Mirror Test and to the left side of  
326 the barrier (Area 3) in the Wire-Mesh Test. This animal either could not learn, or did  
327 not have enough time to learn, about a mirror as it was confused in both trials, taking 41  
328 s and 44 s respectively. Another pig, which reached the food in the Mirror Test but not  
329 in the Wire-Mesh Test, also seemed to be confused in the latter and took 42 s to decide  
330 to go to the left side of the barrier (Area 3) instead of the back of the frame where the  
331 food bowl was located.

332

333 A reflecting surface, such as the mirror, was novel to the pigs studied and changes in  
334 their behaviour were apparent when they were exposed to the mirror. Each of the seven  
335 pigs that used information from the mirror and rapidly found the food bowl must have:  
336 observed features of its surroundings, remembered these and its own actions, deduced  
337 relationships among observed and remembered features, and acted accordingly. When a  
338 mirror-experienced pig saw the food in the mirror, it could not smell the food directly,  
339 although it was likely to be able to detect the presence of food throughout the test  
340 period.

341

342 The pig has looked at the mirror and appreciated that what it sees is related to its own  
343 movements and that the image reveals objects that are not directly visible and that have  
344 an actual position that has a certain relationship with where they appear to be. When it  
345 looked at the red bowl and then turned away from the mirror to go around the barrier, it  
346 must have remembered that the mirror image gives information about what is positioned  
347 somewhere to the left of perpendicular to the mirror surface. The action of turning away  
348 from the mirror and going behind the barrier to reach the food bowl necessitates  
349 remembering the position of the food while it is navigating around the barrier. The  
350 concept of the food and its position must be remembered while it is carrying out the

351 actions to get to the food. Some kind of map of its environment and awareness of its  
352 movement ability is needed to do this. The behaviours and ability shown fulfil the  
353 criteria described above for assessment awareness (Sommerville and Broom 1998).

354 In studies of human infants, and in most studies of other Primates, with mirrors or  
355 television self images, the subjects had prolonged experiences of the images. Human  
356 subjects are generally given much information about mirror images and television  
357 images by their parents and others. The pigs in this study had only five hours of  
358 experience of a mirror before they demonstrated that they could use information from it.  
359 However, no test for self-recognition has been conducted on pigs. Just as in other  
360 studies, e.g. that of Paukner et al (2004) with capuchin monkeys, information from a  
361 mirror or television self-image does not necessarily imply awareness by the subject that  
362 the image is that of itself.

363 Work with various species of animals indicates that the presence of a mirror or  
364 television image may add complexity to the environment of an individual and improve  
365 its welfare (Plattner and Novak 1997, McAfee et al 2002). These abilities of pigs, and  
366 the awareness indicated by them, may result in some people housing and treating pigs  
367 better than previously, so that poor welfare is minimised. The relationship between the  
368 cognitive ability of animals, sentience and how they should be treated is discussed by  
369 Mendl et al (2001), Broom (2003, 2007), Panksepp (2005), Webster (2006).

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374

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470

471 **Lay summary (150 words).**

472 How clever are pigs? We tested whether pigs can learn that what they see in a mirror is  
473 in front of it in a certain position and not behind it. Young pigs, shown a mirror for five  
474 hours, moved while apparently looking at their image. Afterwards, the pigs were shown  
475 a familiar food bowl, visible in the mirror but hidden behind a solid barrier. Seven out  
476 of eight pigs rapidly found the food bowl by going away from the mirror and around the  
477 barrier. Naïve pigs shown the same, looked behind the mirror. The pigs were not  
478 locating the food bowl by odour and did not have a preference for the area where the  
479 food bowl was. In order to be aware of the food bowl position, each pig must have  
480 learned how to use a mirror image. Views about pig management and welfare may be  
481 changed by such results.

482 For version with Figure contact authors.

483 Figure 1. Plan of the pen where the tests were carried out, showing the small pen with  
484 solid walls (Area 7), mirror (or wire mesh) in a frame, solid wood barrier, fan position  
485 (above pig head level in the pen) and the numbers of floor sections used to describe  
486 the position of the pig. Area 3 is where the red food bowl, whose reflection was visible  
487 in the mirror when the pig was in Areas 4 or 7, was placed during the Mirror Test. The  
488 food bowl would appear