

1 **Invited review: Socio-cognitive capacities of goats and their impact on human-animal**  
2 **interactions**

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19 **Abstract**

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21 A detailed understanding of how livestock animals perceive and communicate with  
22 stockpersons is crucial to improving their welfare by means of positive human-animal  
23 interactions. However, research regarding the cognitive underpinnings of these interactions in  
24 ungulate livestock is still limited. In this review article, I summarize recent advances on studies  
25 on the cognitive capacities of domestic goats (*Capra hircus*), with a special focus on human-  
26 animal interaction. Recent work has shown that goats respond to subtle behavioural changes  
27 by humans, but also highlighted some of their limitations in comprehending information  
28 directed towards them. Based on these findings, I outline how applied research can benefit  
29 from these findings and discuss how human behavioural changes can affect appetitive and  
30 aversive behaviour of livestock. Because goats' socio-cognitive capacities affect their ability to  
31 adapt to human handling, a better understanding of their cognitive capacities will improve their  
32 welfare in the long term.

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34 Keywords: animal welfare; handler; human-animal communication; social cognition;  
35 stockperson

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## 37 **1. Introduction**

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39 In recent years, several welfare-related approaches have emerged, covering affective states  
40 (Désiré et al., 2002; Marchant-Forde et al., 2009; Mendl et al., 2010), motivation (Buijs et al.,  
41 2011; Kirkden and Pajor, 2006), coping behaviour (Forkman et al., 1995) and  
42 biological/cognitive functioning of livestock (Duncan and Petherick, 1991; Fraser et al., 1997;  
43 Wechsler and Lea, 2007). All approaches acknowledge that a detailed understanding of the  
44 perceptive and cognitive abilities of non-human animals is necessary in order to comprehend  
45 their normal behavioural expressions and to avoid exposing them to mental distress.

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47 Socio-cognitive research in primates, as well as dogs, has skyrocketed over the last few  
48 decades (Call and Tomasello, 2008; Kaminski and Nitzschner, 2013; Miklósi and Soproni,  
49 2006; Tomasello and Call, 1997). Yet, livestock species are still underrepresented in animal  
50 cognition research and the cognitive mechanisms involved in their behaviour and decision-  
51 making are not well understood (Broom, 2010; Duncan and Petherick, 1991; Wechsler and  
52 Lea, 2007).

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54 Goats are comparatively small ruminants and live in fission-fusion societies, developing stable  
55 dominance hierarchies (de la Lama and Mattiello, 2010; Shank, 1972; Stanley and Dunbar,  
56 2013). They are explorative and curious (Briefer et al., 2015; Langbein et al., 2009; Nawroth  
57 et al., 2017), traits that make them an excellent model species for cognitive and behavioural  
58 mechanisms in ungulate livestock. Previously, a range of test paradigms has been used to  
59 investigate learning and physical problem solving abilities of goats (Langbein et al., 2007;  
60 Meyer et al., 2012). This research has shown that goats possess an impressive long-term  
61 memory, allowing them to accurately discriminate between previously learned visual stimuli  
62 presented on a screen, even after several weeks (Langbein et al., 2008, 2004). Because farm  
63 settings involve frequent interactions with stockpersons, it is also of importance to know how  
64 goats mentally represent humans in order to improve their welfare.

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This review article outlines recent advances in research on goat behaviour regarding their ability to discriminate between, and attributing attention to, humans, with an additional focus on human-goat communication and social learning. In addition, ways to integrate this basic research into various applied settings are proposed and future challenges in investigating goat cognitive capacities are discussed.

**2. Discrimination between, and attributing attention to, humans**

Negative perceptions of people by farm livestock can substantially reduce their welfare, subsequently impacting upon meat or milk production due to elevated stress levels (Brajon et al., 2015b; Breuer et al., 2000; Hemsworth, 2003). Therefore, an important theoretical consideration for these interactions is whether animals associate specific experiences with certain handlers. Domestic ungulates have indeed been shown to differentiate between conspecifics (Coulon et al., 2011; Hagen and Broom, 2003; Kendrick et al., 1995) and humans (Brajon et al., 2015a; Koba and Tanida, 2001; Stone, 2010). However, previous research on goats has focused mainly on the discrimination of conspecifics using visual (Keil et al., 2012), auditory (Briefer et al., 2012), or cross-modal cues (Pitcher et al., 2017). For example, Keil et al. (2012) showed that goats discriminate between familiar and unfamiliar conspecifics even when the target's head is hidden. Alongside visual cues, olfactory discrimination is likely to play an additional role in the process. To date, there have been no investigations to determine specifically how goats discriminate between humans. However, studies in cattle and pigs have shown that body height and/or general facial features can be sufficient for discrimination between humans (Koba and Tanida, 2001; Rybarczyk et al., 2001), and it is likely that the discrimination process in goats might operate in a similar manner (see Keil et al., 2012). In relation to potential long term recognition of humans, good memory capacities over several modalities can be presumed in this species, as research on mother-offspring recognition and problem-solving has shown (Briefer et al., 2014, 2012). When goats learned how to solve a 2-

93 step puzzle box in order to receive a reward, they were able to memorize this association for  
94 several months (Briefer et al., 2014). It is quite likely that learning processes associated with  
95 humans (e.g. receiving rewards) can be memorized for a similar period.

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97 The ability to attribute attentive states to conspecifics or heterospecifics might have severe  
98 impacts on decision-making and stress responses in livestock animals. For example, gaze  
99 directed to an individual might be considered as threat and elicit an anti-predator response  
100 (Clucas et al., 2013; von Bayern and Emery, 2009). Beausoleil et al. (2006) investigated  
101 whether human staring altered the behaviour of domestic sheep (*Ovis aries*) in comparison to  
102 no human eye contact. They found that sheep glanced at the staring human more often and  
103 showed higher levels of locomotor activity. However, they did not find a difference in fear-  
104 related behaviour. Body, head and gaze orientation of individuals might also influence livestock  
105 behaviour to maximize gains and minimize effort competitive situations with conspecifics (Held  
106 et al., 2002, 2001) and cooperative situations with handlers. As evidence for the former,  
107 Kaminski et al. (2006) presented two goats who were facing each other, with two rewards in  
108 the middle of an arena – one that was visible to both, while the second was only visible to one  
109 goat. They demonstrated that the behaviour of individual goats in this food monopolization task  
110 depended on their previous agonistic experience with a competing subject, but not on whether  
111 the competing goat could see the reward. When investigating goat-handler interactions,  
112 Nawroth et al. (2016b, 2015) found that goats differed in their anticipatory behaviour depending  
113 on an experimenter's attentive state. In the experiments, an inaccessible reward was  
114 positioned in front of the goat, and over an interval of 30s, the experimenter engaged in  
115 different postures that resembled different levels of attention directed towards the test subject  
116 (e.g. the experimenter turned his back to the subject or closed his eyes). Anticipatory behaviour  
117 was highest when the experimenter paid more attention to the subject, while 'standing alert'  
118 behaviour was most prominent when the experimenter was present but did not pay attention.  
119 These results indicate that goats adapted their behaviour to the head and body orientation, but  
120 not eye visibility, of an experimenter as a means for reward delivery. In an attempt to cross-

121 validate these findings, Nawroth & McElligott (2017) found that goats adapted their approach  
122 and choice behaviour depending on whether a human was forward-facing or turned its back to  
123 them and thus partially replicated the previous results using an anticipation paradigm.  
124 However, in contrast to the earlier findings (Nawroth et al., 2015), goats in the later experiment  
125 did not change their behaviour according to human head orientation alone, highlighting the  
126 potential impact of previous interactions with humans, and other confounding factors in test  
127 designs, on the outcome of these tasks. Future research has the potential to clarify further  
128 ontogenetic factors and confirm whether goats, and other livestock animals, can mentally  
129 represent the perspective of humans (and conspecifics).

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134 **Figure 1.** Images of test setups designed to investigate goats' socio-cognitive capacities. A)  
 135 Goat detours obstacle (metal hurdles) after receiving a demonstration of a human  
 136 experimenter; from Nawroth et al., 2016a. B) Goat makes a choice in a 2-way object choice  
 137 task; from Nawroth et al., 2015. C) Goat gazes at a human experimenter when confronted with  
 138 an unsolvable problem (sealed container in front of subject); from Nawroth et al., 2016c

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140 **3. Communication with humans**

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142 Communication with conspecifics or heterospecifics is crucial in acquiring information from the  
 143 environment (Bradbury and Vehrencamp, 1998). Cognitive studies conducted with dogs  
 144 highlight their ability to follow human pointing gestures and similar human-given cues, such as

145 gaze or voice, from a very young age (Agnetta et al., 2000; Riedel et al., 2008; Rossano et al.,  
146 2014). Recent research has demonstrated that horses can perform some of the communicative  
147 skills normally associated with dogs (Proops et al., 2010; Proops and McComb, 2010),  
148 indicating these may be general domestication traits. Indeed, horses, like dogs, are (at least  
149 partly) domesticated for companionship or working purposes, which would be expected to  
150 generate selection pressures for advanced skills of human-animal communication and  
151 interaction. By contrast, goats were domesticated for meat, milk and hair products (MacHugh  
152 and Bradley, 2001), and thus might not share these advanced socio-cognitive capacities with  
153 dogs and horses. To investigate this, Nawroth et al. (2015, see Figure 1b) and Kaminski et al.  
154 (2005) tested goats' ability to follow various human-given cues in an object-choice task. In  
155 these tasks, two opaque containers are positioned to the left and right of an experimenter, with  
156 only one of the containers being baited with a reward. Both studies found that goats utilized  
157 human pointing gestures, but not the human head direction or gaze to locate a hidden reward.  
158 However, the experiments did not control for the effect of local/stimulus enhancement, i.e. the  
159 pointing finger was always closer to the rewarded container than to the non-rewarded one.  
160 Thus, the movement and presence of the outreached arm and finger alone might have guided  
161 the choice behaviour of the goats. Additionally, it is unclear whether a conditioned response or  
162 comprehension of the referential nature of the pointing gesture accounts for their performance.  
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164 Notably, communication can also be directed to humans. Dogs use gazing behaviour as a form  
165 of referential and intentional communication when interacting with humans (Miklósi et al., 2003;  
166 Savalli et al., 2014). This specific behaviour is often tested using a so-called 'unsolvable  
167 problem' paradigm in which subjects are confronted with an inaccessible food reward (Miklósi  
168 et al., 2003). During an initial training phase, the reward is typically positioned in a container  
169 and the tested subject is able to access the reward e.g. by removing the lid. After successful  
170 training, the reward is rendered inaccessible e.g. by attaching the lid to the container, and the  
171 human-directed behaviours of the subjects during the test are recorded. Like dogs, goats  
172 showed frequent gazes, gaze alternations, and physical interactions to a human experimenter



173 who was positioned next to the unsolvable problem (Nawroth et al., 2016b, see Figure 1c). In  
174 addition, goats took into account the attentional stance of the human, highlighting the  
175 communicative nature of the human-animal interactions in this task (for dogs see Marshall-  
176 Pescini et al., 2013). When the experimenter was facing the problem (compared to an  
177 experimenter with its back turned to the problem), goats showed an increased use of gazes  
178 and gaze alternations to the experimenter, but not physical interactions, during this 'unsolvable  
179 problem' task. It is not clear yet, if and how ontogenetic factors (e.g. amount of previous  
180 interactions with humans) impact upon this behaviour in goats (for dogs see Passalacqua et  
181 al., 2011). Taken together, the human-directed behaviour of goats shows strong similarities  
182 with the communicative behaviour exhibited by domestic companion animals such as dogs  
183 and horses.

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#### 185 **4. Social learning from humans**

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187 Social learning occurs when the acquisition of own behaviour is influenced by observing other  
188 individuals, and it should most likely take place when individual learning can be costly, e.g. in  
189 terms of predation risk or offspring foraging behaviour (Galef and Laland, 2005; Heyes, 1994).  
190 Although many natural threats are non-existent for livestock animals kept under husbandry  
191 conditions, we would expect animals to still be able to learn from others, e.g. in the domain of  
192 food acquisition. In addition, highly social animals, like goats, should also experience  
193 numerous opportunities to learn from others. However, some research has shown that goats  
194 appear to predominantly rely on personal rather than social information in various food-related  
195 tasks. Baciadonna et al. (2013) tested goats in their use of conflicting personal versus social  
196 information in a foraging task, where goats had the opportunity to follow another goat in a T-  
197 maze. Goats were found to predominantly rely on personal rather than social information when  
198 both types of information were available and in conflict. Briefer et al. (2014) investigated goats  
199 physical and social problem-solving ability in a complex two-step foraging task, where subjects  
200 first had to pull a rope and then lift a lever in order to receive access to food. Goats quickly

201 learned the task on an individual basis. However, subjects did not learn the task faster after  
202 observing a demonstrator compared to the group that received no demonstration. This  
203 indicates that they, again, relied on individual rather than social experience in this task.

204  
205 It has been speculated that goats, as selective browsers, should preferentially employ personal  
206 rather than social information from conspecifics because this might be the most efficient way  
207 to locate patchily distributed resources in highly variable environments (Briefer et al., 2014).  
208 However, methodological constraints might also be an alternative explanation for the lack of  
209 positive results. For example, negative findings could be explained by an expected food  
210 depletion when a conspecific moves to a rewarded position first (Baciadonna et al., 2013; see  
211 for horses Rørvang et al., 2015). Test setups may also have been too difficult for the subjects  
212 to master after a relatively limited exposure to the skilled demonstrator, e.g. by using a 2-step  
213 puzzle box (Briefer et al., 2014). Furthermore, the actions performed by the demonstrator may  
214 not have been ecologically meaningful to the observer, e.g. pulling a string (Briefer et al., 2014).  
215 More recently, domestic ungulate spatial and social problem-solving abilities have been  
216 assessed using a detour task where goats were required to detour a V-shaped hurdle in order  
217 to receive a reward. Goats that experienced a human solving the task prior to their own test  
218 trial were faster to solve the task themselves compared to goats that did not receive a  
219 demonstration (Nawroth et al., 2016a, see Figure 1a). It is up to future research to investigate  
220 by what mechanisms, e.g. imitation, social facilitation, stimulus and local enhancement, or  
221 observational conditioning (Heyes, 1994; Laland, 2004), goats, and other ungulate livestock,  
222 are able to use information from conspecifics and/or humans.

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224 **5. Applied Implications**

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226 A detailed understanding of how goats perceive and deal with their physical and social  
227 environment is of high importance in our attempts to provide them with good welfare. For  
228 example, knowledge about an individual's learning mechanisms and its understanding of the

229 physical environment can provide valuable information for designing high-standard husbandry  
230 conditions (Laughlin and Mendl, 2000; Mendl et al., 1997) or to develop more adequate  
231 cognitive enrichment items for goats and other livestock species (Kalbe and Puppe, 2010;  
232 Meyer et al., 2010; Puppe et al., 2007; Zebunke et al., 2011).

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234 Similarly, in order to implement better handling practices, it is crucial to know how goats  
235 perceive and interact with humans. Based on this knowledge, applied research can be better  
236 adjusted to measure how subtle human behavioural change might have rewarding or aversive  
237 effects on goat behaviour. Studies of human-animal interactions (e.g. interspecific  
238 communication) have already shown the potential to identify relevant stress-reducing  
239 behaviour by stock people during handling and transport (Waiblinger et al., 2006). For  
240 example, early direct interactions between calves/heifers and their handlers (e.g. stroking) led  
241 to less stress and fear of humans (Boissy and Bouissou, 1988; Stewart et al., 2013); factors  
242 that are linked to negative effects on welfare (de la Lama and Mattiello, 2010; Rushen et al.,  
243 1999). Non-tactile interactions, such as those through visual and auditory cues, also play a key  
244 role (Hemsworth, 2003). Thus, knowledge on how and under what circumstances goats  
245 perceive and direct communication towards humans (Kaminski et al., 2005; Nawroth et al.,  
246 2016c, 2015) is of great importance to align interactions according to species-specific needs  
247 and capabilities.

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249 Research in a number of livestock species has also highlighted that fear-related stress levels  
250 induced by routine handling practices of stockpersons can limit farm productivity in terms of  
251 not only decreasing meat and milk production, but also due to e.g. lower reproduction rates  
252 (Hemsworth, 2003). For example, on farms where milk yield was low, cows approached the  
253 experimenter less in a standard fear test than cows from farms with a higher milk yield (Breuer  
254 et al., 2000), indicating avoidance of humans due to previous aversive associations with them.  
255 Similar effects might be expected for dairy goats. Here again, non-tactile interactions could  
256 play a crucial role. Because goats differ in their food-anticipating and choice behaviour

257 dependent upon humans attentional stance (Nawroth et al., 2015; Nawroth and McElligott,  
258 2017), it is likely that this factor also affects goat behaviour during routine handling in industrial  
259 settings. Identification of the components of approach behaviour that elicit the lowest stress  
260 response during management practices is thus of relevance for both productivity and goat  
261 welfare improvements. It is thus not only crucial to know how negative impact can be minimized  
262 by reducing aversive handling practices, but also to recognise and implement positive human-  
263 animal interactions (i.e. to provide positive associations during handling practices, Hemsworth,  
264 2003; Nawroth et al., 2016c, 2015).

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266 Furthermore, by identifying mechanisms of social learning in goats, insights will be gained on  
267 how to better accustom farm animals to new environments or feeding devices, such as food  
268 dispensers. Additionally, knowledge regarding how goats adapt their behaviour to variations in  
269 humans body or head orientation (Nawroth et al., 2016b, 2015) will also affect outcomes in  
270 established test paradigms, such as human approach tasks (Hemsworth et al., 1996; Jago et  
271 al., 1999).

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273 Finally, an increasing number of cognitive studies conducted on goats will likely have effects  
274 on public perception and therefore consumer behaviour (Bastian et al., 2012; Serpell, 2004) –  
275 leading to an increase in awareness of how goats are housed and how these housing  
276 conditions may potentially inhibit their full behavioural repertoire.

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## 278 **6. Future Directions**

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280 As it is increasingly apparent from the existing literature, relatively little is known about how  
281 goats differentiate, memorize and recall humans. Greater insight into how goats mentally  
282 represent stockpersons has huge potential to improve animal management and handling  
283 practices through the reduction of unnecessary stress that animals are exposed to. We would  
284 expect to find that goats, like horses (Lampe and Andre, 2012; Proops and McComb, 2012),

285 represent humans in a cross-modal manner, i.e. forming a mental image across sensory  
286 modalities.

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288 Indeed, the fact that goats use human pointing gestures to locate food (Kaminski et al., 2005;  
289 Nawroth et al., 2015) and are able to communicate in a referential and intentional way with  
290 humans when faced with an unsolvable problem (Nawroth et al., 2016c) indicates  
291 sophisticated skills in interspecific communication. However, it is unclear whether they are able  
292 to utilise referential and intentional communication from humans (for dogs see Kaminski et al.,  
293 2012), a skill useful for adapting to new environments and a significant area of future  
294 exploration.

295  
296 Similarly, more empirical research is also needed on goats abilities to perceive human  
297 emotional cues, such as body postures or facial expressions (for dogs see Albuquerque et al.,  
298 2016; Müller et al., 2015) and how these cues might help them to guide their own behaviour.  
299 In dogs, test subjects have been shown to use human emotional facial and vocal information  
300 to adapt their behaviour towards an unfamiliar and potentially frightening object (Merola et al.,  
301 2012), while horses show a functionally relevant response (e.g. an increase in heart rate) to  
302 images of human faces with different emotional valence (Smith et al., 2016). Future advances  
303 in this field will also facilitate the development of experiments investigating these and other  
304 complex socio-cognitive phenomena in goats, such as prosocial behaviour and empathy (de  
305 Waal and Suchak, 2010; Preston and de Waal, 2002).

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## 307 **7. Concluding Remarks**

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309 Farm animal cognition is a relatively new, but growing, field of research. Improved  
310 implementation of test designs from animal cognition research is highly recommended in order  
311 to increase knowledge on how goats perceive and interact with their environment. Because  
312 socio-cognitive capacities of goats can affect their ability to adapt to human handling, gaining

313 a deeper understanding of their cognitive abilities will ultimately decrease stress levels and  
314 increase productivity, and thus should be a major focus for improving animal welfare in the  
315 long term.

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