

Catcalls: exotic cats discriminate the voices of familiar caregivers

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Background. The ability to differentiate familiar from unfamiliar humans has been considered a product of domestication or early experience. Few studies have focused on voice recognition in *Felidae* despite the fact that this family presents the rare opportunity to compare domesticated species to their wild counterparts and to examine the role of human rearing. **Methods.** We tested whether non-domesticated *Felidae* species recognized familiar human voices by exposing them to audio playbacks of familiar and unfamiliar humans. In a pilot study, we presented seven cats of five species with playbacks of voices that varied in familiarity and use of the cats' names. In the main study, we presented 24 cats of 10 species with unfamiliar and then familiar voice playbacks using a habituation-dishabituation paradigm. We anticipated that human rearing and use of the cats' names would result in greater attention to the voices, as measured by the latency, intensity, and duration of responses regardless of subject sex and subfamily. **Results.** Cats responded more quickly and with greater intensity (e.g., full versus partial head turn, both ears moved versus one ear twitching) to the most familiar voice in both studies. They also responded for longer durations to the familiar voice compared to the unfamiliar voices in the main study. Use of the cats' name and rearing history did not significantly impact responding. These findings suggest that close human contact rather than domestication is associated with the ability to discriminate between human voices and that less social species may have socio-cognitive abilities akin to those of more gregarious species. With cats of all species being commonly housed in human care, it is important to know that they differentiate familiar from unfamiliar human voices.

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27 **Abstract**

28 **Background.** The ability to differentiate familiar from unfamiliar humans has been considered a
29 product of domestication or early experience. Few studies have focused on voice recognition in
30 *Felidae* despite the fact that this family presents the rare opportunity to compare domesticated
31 species to their wild counterparts and to examine the role of human rearing.

32 **Methods.** We tested whether non-domesticated *Felidae* species recognized familiar human
33 voices by exposing them to audio playbacks of familiar and unfamiliar humans. In a pilot study,
34 we presented seven cats of five species with playbacks of voices that varied in familiarity and
35 use of the cats' names. In the main study, we presented 24 cats of 10 species with unfamiliar and
36 then familiar voice playbacks using a habituation-dishabituation paradigm. We anticipated that
37 human rearing and use of the cats' names would result in greater attention to the voices, as
38 measured by the latency, intensity, and duration of responses regardless of subject sex and
39 subfamily.

40 **Results.** Cats responded more quickly and with greater intensity (e.g., full versus partial head
41 turn, both ears moved versus one ear twitching) to the most familiar voice in both studies. They
42 also responded for longer durations to the familiar voice compared to the unfamiliar voices in the
43 main study. Use of the cats' name and rearing history did not significantly impact responding.
44 These findings suggest that close human contact rather than domestication is associated with the
45 ability to discriminate between human voices and that less social species may have socio-
46 cognitive abilities akin to those of more gregarious species. With cats of all species being
47 commonly housed in human care, it is important to know that they differentiate familiar from
48 unfamiliar human voices.

49 **Keywords:** familiar human, Felid, rearing history, vocal discrimination,

50 Introduction

51 The ability to recognize familiar and unfamiliar individuals plays a pivotal role in the
52 social lives of animals, and this is often accomplished through voice recognition. For example,
53 mother cats (*Felis catus*) recognize the cries of their kittens (Szenczwe et al., 2016), lions
54 (*Panthera leo*) identify members within and outside of their social groups (Gilfillan et al., 2016),
55 spotted hyenas (*Crocuta crocuta*) respond more strongly to the whoops of cubs to whom they are
56 related (Holekamp et al., 1999), and female great tit birds (*Parus major*) discriminate their
57 mate's call from neighbors' vocalizations (Blumenrath, Dabelsteen & Pedersen, 2007). Beyond
58 recognizing individual and familiar conspecifics, nonhuman primates (Candiotti, Zuberbühler, &
59 Lemasson, 2013) and birds (Dhondt, & Lambrechts, 1992) can identify individuals of
60 neighboring heterospecifics. With humans becoming a more commonly encountered
61 heterospecific, animals may develop the ability to discriminate human voices, and this may
62 depend upon the nature of exposure to humans. We tested whether members of various species
63 of non-domesticated cats with different rearing histories differentiated between familiar and
64 unfamiliar human voices.

65 Recognition of human vocal cues has been investigated in many domesticated species,
66 such as dogs (*Canis lupus familiaris*) (Adachi, Kuwahata, & Fujita, 2007), horses (*Equus*
67 *caballus*) (d'Ingeo et al., 2019), pigs (*Sus scrofa domesticus*) (Bensoussan et al., 2019), and cats
68 (*Felis catus*) (Saito & Shinozuka, 2013). The few studies that have examined non-domesticated
69 species focused on animals that are naturally gregarious, such as gorillas (*Gorilla gorilla*, Salmi
70 et al., 2021) and elephants (*Loxodonta africana*, McComb et al., 2014). In a review of human
71 vocal discrimination in nonhumans (Kriengwatana, Escudero, & Ten Cate, 2014), the only
72 relatively asocial species represented was the domestic cat (Saito & Shinozuka, 2013). There is

73 little investigation of vocal recognition in exotic cats despite their prevalence in human care. The
74 current study extends this research to 25 individuals of 10 non-domesticated felid species housed
75 in human care. The cat family, or *Felidae*, are of interest given their relatively asocial natural
76 history coupled with their close association with humans in modern society. They are a highly
77 diverse group consisting of 38 species (IUCN Red List, n.d.). The subfamily, Pantherinae,
78 consists of seven species: lions (*Panthera leo*), tigers (*Panthera tigris*), leopards (*Panthera*
79 *pardus*), jaguars (*Panthera onca*), snow leopards (*Panthera uncia*), and two species of clouded
80 leopard (*Neofelis nebulosa* and *Neofelis diardi*). The subfamily, Felinae, which is responsible for
81 the evolutionary line that produced the modern domestic cat, includes the remaining 31 species
82 (Castello, Sliwa, & Kitchener, 2020). Members of both Pantherinae and Felinae are commonly
83 found in human care, housed in zoos, sanctuaries, nature preserves, and personal collections in
84 great numbers. In the current studies, we included members of four Pantherinae species (clouded
85 leopard, *Neofelis nebulosa*; snow leopard, lion, and tiger) and six Felinae species (cheetah,
86 *Acinonyx jubatus*; cougar, *Puma concolor* cory; fishing cat, *Prionailurus viverrinus*; Canadian
87 lynx, *Lynx canadensis*; sand cat, *Felis margarita* and serval, *Leptailurus serval*) allowing us to
88 address the potential breadth of the ability to recognize familiar heterospecific voices across non-
89 domesticated felid species.

90 Recognition of individuals along with other socio-cognitive abilities, such as the ability
91 to follow gaze and point cues, have been attributed to the process of domestication (Hare et al.,
92 2002; Topál et al., 2005). However, megachiropteran bats (*Pteropus*) were able to follow point
93 signals to locate hidden food items only when socialized with humans from an early age (Hall et
94 al., 2011), suggesting that socialization with humans might be as important as domestication (if
95 not more so) in facilitating an understanding of human communicative behaviors. Saito and

96 Shinozuka (2013) demonstrated that domestic cats respond differently to their owner's voice
97 compared to the voices of unfamiliar humans. If wild cats share with domestic cats the ability to
98 differentiate human voices, this would suggest that this ability is not dependent on domestication
99 or human rearing (henceforth, hand-reared). A single study conducted with wild cats (Leroux et
100 al., 2018) found that a group of eight hand-reared male cheetahs (*Acinonyx jubatus*)
101 discriminated between the voices of familiar and unfamiliar humans, as indicated by greater
102 visual attention and more rapid response to familiar human voices compared to unfamiliar
103 human voices. If social ecology is critical for the development of individual vocal recognition,
104 lions may show stronger discrimination of familiar voices compared to other species, as they are
105 the only wild cat known to live in large social groups (M. Sunquist & F. Sunquist, 2002). Here,
106 we examine our results with lions both included and excluded from analyses to examine the
107 impact of group-living on heterospecific recognition.

108 Because the single finding of human voice discrimination in non-domestic cats comes
109 from a group of hand-reared cheetahs, it is important to determine whether the finding is
110 dependent upon human rearing. Hand-reared cats may exhibit important differences from
111 mother-reared cats. For example, Mellen (1992) found differences in responses to familiar and
112 unfamiliar humans such as heightened aggression and fear, as well as less interest in social
113 interaction to unfamiliar (relative to familiar) humans in human-reared compared with mother-
114 reared kittens. Mellen's results have informed husbandry and rearing techniques in zoos,
115 encouraging mother-rearing whenever possible. Whereas the preference for most species and
116 facilities is that offspring are mother-reared (Hampson & Schwitzer, 2016), there are some
117 circumstances that require human intervention (e.g., maternal neglect, wild orphans, infanticide,

118 or large litters that are physically taxing on the mother, Hines, n.d.). Thus, we were able to
119 examine the role of hand-rearing compared to mother-rearing in response to human voices.

120 A secondary question was whether cats might respond to the sound of their names
121 without regard for the identity of the caller. Saito et al. (2019) found that domestic cats
122 responded more to their names than to other words but whether exotic cats are more responsive
123 to commands or greetings when their names are spoken is unknown. The animals housed in
124 managed care frequently work closely with their human caretakers, as a necessary aspect of their
125 daily husbandry. Animal caretakers commonly use verbal cues when working with the animals,
126 especially during training and when calling the animals by their names. These animals also may
127 interact to some degree with the public regularly, so that they hear many different voices and
128 words, including their own names if those are known to the public. There is much debate in the
129 captive animal industry as to whether names of animals should be posted publicly for visitors to
130 know (personal obs). The giving of a name to an animal is a form of anthropomorphism, in
131 which humans might unconsciously assign characteristics and be more sympathetic to a named
132 animal than to an unnamed animal (Chartrand, Fitzsimons, & Fitzsimons, 2008). The constant
133 repetition of a behavioral cue, such as the calling of a name, without a subsequent reinforcer may
134 desensitize the animal to that cue, which could lead to complications in training and frustration
135 for the animal (Miltenberger, 2015). If the cats are responsive to their names regardless of
136 whether they are spoken to by a familiar or unfamiliar voice, it might be beneficial to prevent
137 members of the public from knowing and calling the cats' names. At the same time, such a
138 finding may demonstrate that cats will be more responsive to communication from their keepers
139 if their names are used.

140 The purpose of this study was to examine recognition of familiar human voices in
141 captive-managed exotic cats excluding the domestic cat, *F. catus*, as well as any hybrids of the
142 domestic cat, such as savannah (*Felis catus* × *Leptailurus serval*) and bengal cats (*Felis catus* ×
143 *Prionailurus bengalensis*). We conducted two studies using slightly different playback
144 procedures. In a pilot study, we presented a small group of captive cats with six 3-trial sessions
145 including playbacks of unfamiliar, less familiar, and more familiar caregiver voices either using
146 their name or not. We were interested in whether any effects of familiarity were restricted to
147 humans with which the cats had particularly close relationships. To include more cats from
148 various facilities in the main study, we minimized the number of required sessions by shifting to
149 the dishabituation paradigm used by Saito and Shinozuka (2013) and focused on only the most
150 familiar caregiver’s voice. This method allowed us to witness a stronger response to the familiar
151 voice when directly contrasted with unfamiliar voices within the same sessions. Within session
152 comparisons limit the influence of extraneous factors that vary across test sessions. In our main
153 study, cats were presented with a series of audio playbacks of three different unfamiliar humans
154 speaking the same phrase, then a playback of a familiar voice and, finally, a fourth unfamiliar
155 voice. Typically, in this paradigm, subjects habituate to the sound of strangers’ voices, but show
156 a rebound effect in attention and responsiveness during the familiar voice playback, that then
157 dissipates with a subsequent unfamiliar voice (Saito & Shinozuka, 2013). Such a pattern suggests
158 recognition and discrimination of the familiar voice from among other voices. For our purposes,
159 we did not consider it necessary that the cats habituated to the unfamiliar voices so long as they
160 showed a pronounced response to the familiar voice that differed from that to the unfamiliar
161 voices, because the cats were tested in public facilities where we could not completely control
162 other sounds, including voices, during testing. We hypothesized that cats would show greater

163 attention as measured by faster latencies to respond and greater intensity and duration of
164 responses following the familiar voice relative to the unfamiliar voices. Behavioral responses
165 such as head, ear, and body orientation, movement towards or away from the sound, and
166 vocalizations were considered cumulatively rather than separately as was done by Saito and
167 Shinozuka (2013), due to the rarity of any single behavior. We compared responses to the five
168 vocal cues in sessions in which the subjects' names were or were not spoken, and examined the
169 predictive factors of sex, subfamily (*Pantherinae* versus *Felinae*), and rearing history (hand-
170 reared vs. mother-reared). We predicted an interaction between rearing history and familiarity in
171 that cats that were hand-reared would respond faster, more intensely and for longer to voices
172 they were familiar with compared to cats that had been mother-reared. Lastly, we predicted that
173 cats would respond faster, more intensely and for longer when the cues included their names,
174 compared to the cues with no name spoken, and that the use of a name would interact with
175 familiarity to predict the intensity of responses, such that the cats would show a stronger
176 response to their name only when spoken by a familiar speaker. Inclusion of sex and subfamily
177 were for exploratory purposes as we did not have specific hypotheses regarding these factors.

178 **Materials and Methods**

179 ***Ethics Statement***

180 The experiments reported here were reviewed and approved by Oakland University's
181 IACUC (Protocol # 2021-1155).

182 ***Subjects***

183 Seven individuals of five species (tiger, *P. tigris*; cheetah, *A. jubatus*; serval, *L. serval*;
184 puma, *P. concolor*; lynx, *L. canadensis*) housed at Zoo Miami in Florida and the Creature

185 Conservancy in Ann Arbor, MI. participated in a pilot study. All but one of these cats, plus 18
186 additional cats representing ten species subsequently participated in the main study
187 (approximately 3-6 months later). Information about each subject's subfamily (Pantherinae or
188 Felinae), sex, and rearing history (hand-reared or mother-reared) are reported in Table 1. Rearing
189 history was categorized as hand reared (reared exclusively by humans starting at no later than
190 four months of age, which is the start of the weaning period for most large exotic cats; Jhala &
191 Sadhu, 2017) or mother-reared (raised exclusively by their mother, or co-raised with the mother
192 and humans, from birth to at least four months of age). We did not differentiate between
193 subspecies; that is, Malayan tigers (*P. tigris tigris*) and Sumatran tigers (*P. tigris sumatrae*) were
194 classified as tigers.

195 **Materials**

196 Audio recordings of each voice were taken using a Zoom h1n Handy recorder and played
197 back for the subjects using an Ultimate Ears BOOM 3 Bluetooth speaker. Observations were
198 recorded using a GoPro Hero 10. Data were coded and analyzed by naïve coders using freely
199 available BORIS v.8.20. software (Friard & Gamba, 2016). All testing occurred at the cat's
200 home facility, in their regular habitat. The researcher performed all playback sessions, as well as
201 recorded all observations, from outside of the enclosure.

202 In the pilot study, each cat was exposed to three different voices speaking two different
203 cue types. Thus, each human speaker provided six different recordings, three of them speaking
204 the name absent (NA) cue, and three of them speaking the name present (NP) cue. A total of 18
205 recordings were collected for each cat to ensure that the cats never heard the exact same
206 recording more than once to control for habituation. The speakers, matched for sex, were
207 categorized as Most Familiar (MF), Less Familiar (LF), and Unfamiliar (UF). In the main study,

208 each cat was exposed to five different voices (four UF and one MF voice) speaking the same two
209 cue types (NA, NP). Thus, each speaker provided two different recordings, one for the NP
210 condition, and one for the NA condition. The MF speaker was someone that the cat was very
211 familiar with, such as the cat's primary keeper or trainer. If the facility did not assign primary
212 trainers or keepers, then we used the voice of the person who had worked with the cat for the
213 longest period of time. The LF speaker was someone that the cat had heard before, but had
214 minimal structured interaction with. This person was either a member of staff that did not work
215 with the cat, an intern, or a volunteer. The LF speaker could not have actively participated in
216 training or care of the cat, which included but was not limited to, feeding, directly providing
217 enrichment, or participating in husbandry tasks such as veterinary care. The UF speakers were
218 four different sex-matched people that the cat had never encountered or heard before. These
219 recordings were provided by individuals that had not been to the facility the cat currently resided
220 at or had resided at in the past.

221 The NA cue was a short phrase that the cat was familiar with, "Good morning, how are
222 you doing today?". This phrase was selected from the results of a poll from exotic cat keepers on
223 zookeeping Facebook pages, in which they submitted a phrase they speak regularly to the cats in
224 their care but that was not associated with food rewards. Some variation of the used phrase was
225 found to be the most common occurrence across facilities. The NP cue matched the NA cue, but
226 the cat's name was said in the phrase, e.g., "Good morning, Harper, how are you doing today?".
227 In instances where the cat had multiple names, such as registered names, house names, or public
228 names, the name that was used was the one that the animal care staff used most frequently. We
229 deliberately used a phrase that we knew was familiar to all cats given that we could not be aware

230 of the cats' exposure to less common phrases, and because this might be the strongest test of
231 whether the cats differentiated familiar voices from unfamiliar voices speaking familiar phrases.

232 All recordings were made in a quiet room with no additional voices in the background.
233 The recordings were less than 5 seconds long. The speakers were controlled for sex, volume, and
234 neutral tone of voice, matching the MF voice within 1 dB and 2 Hz. In the main study, Audacity
235 v.3.4.2 audio editing software was used to create a single file for each session of playbacks with
236 the order of the UF voices randomized for each subject to control for reactions to specific voices
237 occurring in the same temporal position across sessions.

238 *Procedure*

239 A wireless speaker was set up outside of the enclosure in the visitor area, and was no closer than
240 three feet away from the primary containment barrier. The researcher and observation recording
241 equipment were also outside of the enclosure in visitor space (Figure 1). Prior to each trial, the
242 cat must have been on exhibit for at least 15 minutes and must have been awake. The time
243 allotment was to avoid potential distraction or inattention due to examining the space for food or
244 enrichment items. Each subject was provided an acclimation period with the researcher and the
245 equipment. Sessions did not start until the subject(s) had shown no interest or attention to the
246 recording equipment or researcher for at least two minutes. All trials were performed in the
247 absence of visitors, either before or after operating hours, during lulls in visitation, or on days the
248 facility was not open to the public. Eight cats were housed in pairs; lions, snow leopards and
249 cougars in Cincinnati, and cheetahs in Miami. Playback sessions were presented to these four
250 pairs with both names being spoken in the name condition. Coders were instructed to code the
251 behavior of each easily recognizable individual separately. They were told the position of each
252 subject at the start of the session so that they could track the target individual. The subjects were

253 actively monitored for the duration of each session for stress behaviors, such as repeated
254 aggressive reactions, pacing, or other signs of distress. No abnormal behaviors indicating stress
255 due to the playback sessions were observed in any of the subjects.

256 In the pilot study, each cat participated in six 3-trial playback sessions, with each session
257 consisting of one playback from each speaker (MF, LF, UF). Whether playbacks included the
258 cats' name was randomly determined for each session. Each speaker's voice was presented three
259 times in each name condition across the course of the study. Each three-trial session lasted for 28
260 minutes total; three minutes of baseline prior to each playback, and three minutes of observation
261 following the end of each playback with a minimum of five minutes between each trial (e.g., 3
262 min observation – Playback 1 – 3 min observation +5 min ITI – 3 min observation – Playback 2
263 – 3 min observation + 5 min ITI – 3 min observation – Playback 3 – 3 min observation). If more
264 than one session was conducted for the same subject in a day, each session occurred at least one
265 hour following the previous session, and no more than three sessions were conducted in a single
266 day.

267 We conducted the main study approximately 3-6 months following the pilot study
268 (depending upon the institution). In the main study, we used the habituation-dishabituation
269 paradigm (Saito & Shinozuka, 2013). The playbacks for each session were in the order of
270 unfamiliar voice 1, unfamiliar voice 2, unfamiliar voice 3, most familiar voice, unfamiliar voice
271 4 with 30 seconds of interstimulus silence between each voice. Unfamiliar voices were
272 randomized in order between NA and NP sessions. Each cat participated in two playback
273 sessions (one NA and one NP with order randomized across subjects). Sessions lasted no more
274 than 3.5 minutes.

275 Behaviors were coded from video recordings of each session by two naïve coders using
276 Boris software (Friard & Gamba, 2016). The behaviors coded were those inferred to indicate
277 interest or attention to the location of the playback, such as change in gaze direction (a change in
278 the direction of the eyes without movement of the head) , ear and head movement (notable
279 movement of the ears, either one or both, and the head that could not be accounted for by other
280 behaviors such as grooming), locomotion towards or away from the sound (intentional
281 locomotion that was initiated following the playback), or response vocalizations (social
282 vocalizations such as chuffs, hisses, growls, or chirps, immediately following the playback).
283 Behaviors were recorded for three minutes before the playback, during the playback and for
284 three minutes following the end of each playback. Pre-trial recording allowed the establishment
285 of baseline behaviors for the cat prior to the introduction of the cue. Recording for an extended
286 period after the playback also gave us the ability to code for latency (how long after the
287 recording did the reaction take place), intensity (how strong of a reaction was there), and follow
288 up behaviors. A lack of response was recorded as a latency of 30 seconds, the amount of time
289 between each playback, and a duration of 0 seconds.

290 Intensity was rated on a scale of 0-4 with 0 indicating no reaction, and 4 indicating a full
291 head turn and ear movement towards the speaker or locomotion towards the speaker.
292 Intermediate scores were assigned if there was a mild head movement or a single ear twitch.
293 Both positive and negative response behaviors were assessed, as per the Standardized Ethogram
294 for Felidae (Stanton, Sullivan, & Fazio, 2015). A negative behavior was defined as an aversive
295 reaction to the sound, and included movement away from the sound, aggressive movement
296 towards the sound (charging or bluff-charging), or aggressive vocalizations (hisses, roars,
297 growls), although the only negative behaviors recorded were species-typical hissing from two

298 serval subjects. To aid the accuracy of vocalization coding, coders were provided with auditory
299 examples of observed vocalizations, as well as their context. The auditory examples were
300 separate from the video recordings coded. The coders were trained on a test video to identify
301 possible behaviors that may be observed in each video, as well as to train them on the BORIS
302 software. Both coders were naive to any difference in the voice playbacks, only being informed
303 that there were three or five playbacks that would occur within a session (depending on the
304 study), and what words the playback would include for accurate identification.

305

Results

306 [All analyses were conducted in IBM Statistical Package for the Social Sciences \(SPSS\) v. 28.](#)

307 *Pilot Study*

308 *Reliability*

309 To assess the reliability of our behavioral coding, each video was coded by two coders.
310 Results were compared between a random selection of 25% of the sessions. We found excellent
311 agreement between the two coders for latency (*Pearson's* $r = .998$ $p = <.001$), duration ($r = .997$,
312 $p = <.001$), and intensity ($r = .900$, $p = <.001$).

313 *Response to Playbacks*

314 Data were examined and met the requirements for sphericity, skewness and kurtosis. A
315 repeated-measures ANOVA of latency to respond with name (absent, present) and familiarity
316 (unfamiliar, less familiar, most familiar) along with their interaction as within-subjects factors
317 revealed a significant interaction between familiarity and name ($F_{2,10} = 6.082$, $p = .019$, $\eta_p^2 =$
318 $.549$). To explore the interaction, we conducted separate ANOVAs for name present and absent

319 conditions. There was no significant main effect of familiarity when the cats' names were
320 spoken, ($F_{2,10} = 3.544$, $p = .069$, $\eta_p^2 = .451$) but the effect was significant when the names were
321 not spoken ($F_{2,10} = 4.747$, $p = .030$, $\eta_p^2 = .442$). Cats responded most quickly to the most
322 familiar voice in both name conditions; However, the pattern of results differed slightly (see
323 Figure 2). If the name was spoken, the cats responded more quickly to both familiar voices
324 compared to the unfamiliar voice, but if the name was not spoken, cats responded more quickly
325 to the most familiar and unfamiliar voices compared to the less familiar voice. If we conducted
326 the same analysis omitting the least familiar condition, we obtained a significant effect of
327 familiarity ($F_{1,5} = 7.895$, $p = .038$, $\eta_p^2 = .423$), with no significant interaction with or main effect
328 of name. Cats responded significantly more quickly to familiar ($M = 34.487s$, $SE = 13.191s$)
329 versus unfamiliar voices ($M = 92.808s$, $SE = 10.479s$).

330 A repeated-measures ANOVA of intensity of response with name (absent, present) and
331 familiarity (unfamiliar, less familiar, most familiar) along with their interaction as within-
332 subjects factors revealed no significant effects. If we conducted the same analysis omitting the
333 least familiar condition, we obtained a significant effect of familiarity ($F_{1,5} = 6.958$, $p = .046$,
334 $\eta_p^2 = .582$). Cats responded with greater intensity to the familiar ($M = 1.527s$, $SE = .111s$) versus
335 the unfamiliar voices ($M = 1.124s$, $SE = .109s$).

336 A repeated-measures ANOVA of duration of response with name (absent, present) and
337 familiarity (unfamiliar, less familiar, most familiar) along with their interaction as within-
338 subjects factors revealed no significant effects regardless of whether we included the least
339 familiar condition in the analysis.

340 ***Main Study***

341 ***Reliability***

342 To assess the reliability of our behavioral coding, each video was coded by two naïve
343 coders. Results were compared between a random selection of 30% of the sessions (half name
344 present and half name absent). We obtained an excellent level of agreement between the two
345 coders for latency (*Pearson's* $r = .968$, $p < .001$), duration ($r = .913$, $p < .001$), and intensity
346 ($r = .978$, $p < .001$).

347 ***Response to Playbacks***

348 Data were analyzed using a mixed-model ANOVA for each of the outcomes of latency,
349 intensity, and duration of responses. The within-subject variables of name use (NA, NP) and
350 familiarity (playback trials 1-5), as well as the between-subject variables of rearing history
351 (mother-reared, hand-reared), sex, and subfamily were examined. We included all two-way
352 interactions involving the within-subjects variables of name and familiarity. We could not
353 examine species differences due to the small sample sizes within each species. Sphericity and
354 homogeneity assumptions were met for all outcomes. However, the data were not normally
355 distributed according to Shapiro-Wilks tests and examination of Q-Q plots. We elected not to
356 transform the data given that the data were not skewed and did not demonstrate kurtosis, and
357 given the concern that transformation can obscure the interpretation of the results. Lastly, non-
358 normality typically does not alter the validity of the results for F tests when homogeneity
359 conditions are met (Stevens, 2016). The complete results appear in Table 2.

360 For latency, a main effect was found for subfamily ($F_{1,20} = 9.112$, $p = .007$, $\eta_p^2 = .790$),
361 with subjects from Felinae responding more quickly ($M = 7.505$ s, $SD = 1.369$ s) than subjects from
362 Pantherinae ($M = 13.360$ s, $SD = 1.767$ s). A significant effect was also found for familiarity (F_4 ,

363 $_{80}=3.691, p = .008, \eta_p^2 = .156$) and name ($F_{1,20}=4.571, p= .045, \eta_p^2 = .186$). Simple contrasts
364 indicated that the cats responded significantly more quickly to the fourth playback trial (the
365 familiar voice) compared to each of the other trials (see Figure 3). Cats responded significantly
366 faster when the name was absent ($M=8.465s, SE = 1.543s$) versus present ($M = 11.357s, SE =$
367 $1.688s$). Omitting the data from the three lion subjects, there were still significant main effects of
368 familiarity ($F_{4,68}=4.788, p=.002, \eta_p^2 = .220$), name ($F_{1,17}=5.109, p=.037, \eta_p^2 = .231$) and
369 subfamily ($F_{1,17}=13.314, p=.002, \eta_p^2 = .439$) in the same directions.

370 For intensity, a significant effect was found for familiarity ($F_{4,80}=10.542, p= <.001, \eta_p^2$
371 $=.345$). Simple contrasts indicated that the cats responded with significantly more intensity to the
372 fourth playback trial (the familiar voice) compared to each of the other trials (Figure 4). There
373 was also a significant main effect of subfamily ($F_{1,20}=8.185, p=.010, \eta_p^2 = .290$) with subjects
374 from Felinae responding more intensely ($M=2.131, SD=.204$) than subjects from Pantherinae
375 ($M=1.308, SD=.215$). There were no other significant effects or interactions for intensity.
376 Omitting the data from the three lion subjects, there were still significant main effects of
377 familiarity ($F_{4,68} = 9.273, p<.001, \eta_p^2 = .353$) and subfamily ($F_{1,17}=16.802, p<.001, \eta_p^2 = .497$)
378 in the same directions.

379 For duration, a significant effect was found for familiarity ($F_{4,80} = 4.021, p = .005, \eta_p^2 =$
380 $.167$). Simple contrasts indicated that the cats responded for significantly longer to the fourth
381 playback trial (the familiar voice) compared to each of the other trials (Figure 5). There were no
382 other significant effects or interactions for duration. Omitting the data from the three lion
383 subjects, there was still a significant main effect of familiarity ($F_{4,68}=3.902, p=.007, \eta_p^2 = .187$).
384 However, there was also a significant interaction of name by subfamily, ($F_{1,17}=5.852, p=.027,$
385 $\eta_p^2 = .256$). To examine this interaction, the analysis was re-run for each subfamily separately

386 without including subfamily as a factor. The main effect for name was not significant for either
387 subfamily so this result will not be discussed further.

388 **Discussion**

389 Across two studies, various species of non-domesticated cats showed evidence of
390 differentiating familiar human voices from unfamiliar voices, similar to what has been shown in
391 domestic cats (Saito & Shinozuka, 2013) and hand-reared cheetahs (Leroux et al., 2018). This is
392 the first time such an ability has been demonstrated in nine additional exotic cat species (Table
393 1), and the first time that early socialization and sex have been examined as possible contributors
394 to responsiveness to human voices in exotic cats. Overall, cats responded more quickly and with
395 greater intensity to familiar voices compared to unfamiliar voices regardless of sex, rearing and
396 whether their names were spoken. In the main study, cats also responded for significantly longer
397 to the familiar versus the unfamiliar voices. Evidence of the ability to differentiate familiar and
398 unfamiliar human voices was not driven by the inclusion of the single gregarious species of cat
399 as the significant effects of familiarity remained when we omitted data from our three lion
400 subjects. Whereas lions may be the only truly social species of cat, all cat species must interact
401 with other animals regularly; whether it be while hunting prey, raising young, finding a mate, or
402 competing for territory. No cat lives a completely asocial life so social behaviors may still be
403 beneficial. Elbroch and colleagues (2017) showed that even relatively asocial pumas (*Puma*
404 *concolor*) were impacted by changes in the composition of their nearest neighbors. Their social
405 interactions were explained better by reciprocity than by kinship, suggesting an ability to track
406 social behaviors not often attributed to cat species (Vonk, 2018). The present results add to the
407 growing literature suggesting that researchers have misattributed a lack of social cognition to

408 non-group-living species and highlights the need to extend studies of social cognition to less
409 commonly studied species.

410 Research with domesticated species had suggested that the ability to recognize individual
411 humans may be a consequence of domestication (Adachi, et al., 2007; Bensoussan et al., 2019;
412 d’Ingeo et al., 2019; Saito & Shinozuka, 2013), whereas studies with wild, yet highly social
413 species suggest that this ability stems from the selective pressures associated with living in social
414 groups (Kriengwatana et al., 2014). Exotic cats are neither domesticated nor highly social (other
415 than lions). Of the 25 cats tested, only three were lions. Most were housed individually, and more
416 than a third were raised by their mothers. Results from the only other study of this kind with
417 exotic cats (cheetahs, Leroux et al., 2018) suggested that early socialization may play a role in
418 the cats’ abilities to discriminate human voices. The results from our main study, which are
419 consistent with those of Saito and Shinozuka (2013) using the same habituation-dishabituation
420 paradigm that those authors used with domestic cats, suggest a family-wide ability that is not
421 dependent on domestication or social living. The lack of significant effects of rearing history
422 suggests that this ability to discriminate human voices may depend upon regular rather than early
423 exposure to humans. It is important to note that all but two of our subjects were reared in
424 captivity (not wild born; the exceptions are two cougars at the Cincinnati Zoo) and that most of
425 the hand-reared cats had transitioned to protected contact, a management strategy in which
426 keepers can interact with animals only through a barrier, early in life. However, six of the hand-
427 reared cats remained in close human contact serving as ambassador cats to promote education at
428 the zoos where they were housed. Therefore, it is possible that effects are enhanced by continued
429 close contact with humans.

430 This is the first time the effects of the use of undomesticated cats' names, as spoken by
431 familiar and unfamiliar voices, has been examined. Contrary to findings that domestic cats
432 respond to their names (Saito et al., 2019), the use of the cats' names here had only a single
433 effect on latency, and in the opposite direction to what we predicted with cats responding
434 significantly more quickly when their name was not used. This finding that cats are not unduly
435 distracted by the use of their names by strangers may aid zoological facilities in their decisions
436 about whether to publicly post animal names. With one of the primary concerns being a
437 degradation of the name cue in training if it is repeated frequently by guests without reward, the
438 findings of this study suggest that cats may not be highly responsive to their names, but will be
439 responsive to speakers with whom they are familiar. With studies showing that knowing the
440 name of an animal, a form of anthropomorphism, makes people more sympathetic to the animal
441 (Chartrand, 2008), and more willing to engage in conservation efforts (Manfredo et al., 2020), it
442 may be beneficial for facilities housing exotic cats to post their names for visitors in an effort to
443 engage them further with the conservation mission of the facility.

444 Most importantly, cats demonstrated differential responding to the familiar voice
445 regardless of whether their name was spoken. Notably, all speakers spoke a familiar phrase but
446 the cats responded with greater speed, more intensity, and for longer durations only when this
447 familiar phrase was spoken by familiar voices. Although it is possible that they responded to
448 specific phrasing rather than recognition of the speaker per se (Kriengwatana et al., 2014), the
449 results nonetheless suggest that the cats recognize familiar voices speaking familiar phrases.
450 Future studies will need to determine whether cats also respond to familiar voices speaking
451 unfamiliar phrases.

452 **Limitations and Future Directions**

453 Most of our subjects were housed individually. However, eight cats were tested in pairs
454 so it is possible that some of these cats responded to their cage mate's response rather than to the
455 playback itself. Although this study included representation from many cat species, it was
456 limited by a small sample size within each species due to the relatively small population of
457 captive exotic cats available for testing, precluding an analysis of species differences. Members
458 of Felinae responded more quickly and with greater intensity compared to members of
459 Pantherinae but subfamily did not interact with familiarity. We have no immediate explanation
460 for the main effects of subfamily. Future studies will need to explore whether Felinae are
461 generally more reactive than Pantherinae, which are typically larger. Future studies might
462 examine whether time spent with cats, longevity of the human-cat relationship, and quality of the
463 training interactions predict responsiveness to familiar versus unfamiliar caregivers. Importantly,
464 the current results do not allow for the conclusion that cats can discriminate among individual
465 humans. They merely show that cats respond more strongly to the voices of familiar versus
466 unfamiliar humans in general. Future research is necessary to determine whether cats can
467 discriminate between familiar and unfamiliar human scents and visual features. Methods such as
468 cross-modal matching in which subjects are presented with stimuli from different modalities
469 (e.g., auditory, olfactory, and visual stimuli) representing the same or different individuals and
470 are expected to attend for longer to the mismatched stimuli compared to the matched stimuli
471 (e.g., Takagi et al., 2019) might demonstrate more conclusively whether cats discriminate among
472 individual humans.

473 **Conclusions**

474 This study contributes to the growing literature suggesting that adapting to a social
475 lifestyle and human domestication are not the only important factors in predicting social

476 cognitive abilities even when considering the ability to read human communicative cues
477 specifically. Exposure to humans may promote the development of abilities that researchers
478 would not be able to observe in the wild, such as the ability of cats to discriminate familiar
479 human voices. This study adds to the growing body of work showing that even non-domestic
480 cats are not indifferent to familiar humans and may help dispel the notion that cats are aloof.

481 ***Data Availability***

482 All data are available at https://osf.io/9vuk5/?view_only=5035dcfb065b4a7cbb23a419450eb0b7

483 **Acknowledgements**

484 This research would not have been possible without immense support from Kim Ellis and
485 The Creature Conservancy, Zoo Miami, Erin Curry, Amy Thompson, and the Africa and Night
486 Hunters Teams with the Cincinnati Zoo, and Lindsey Zarecky, Megan Hankins, and Carolyn
487 Mikulskis with the Greensboro Science Center. We would also like to thank Cameron Ferguson,
488 Danielle Scott, and Hunter Cahoon, who coded the videos.

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Figure 1

Experimental Set-Up for Playback Trials and Observation

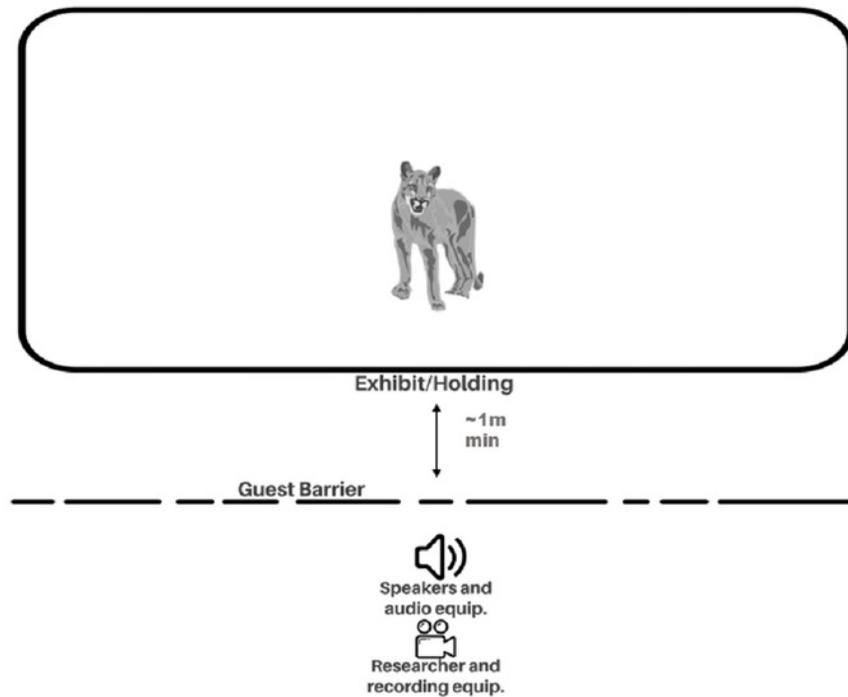


Figure 2

Average Latency to Respond to Playbacks in the Pilot Study

Note. Error bars indicate standard deviations. Latency to respond was the time in seconds from when the playback began to when the cats responded by behaviors such as ear movement and head turns. Seven cats were presented with voices that varied in familiarity (unfamiliar, less familiar, most familiar) and either spoke the subjects' name (Name Present) or did not (Name Absent).

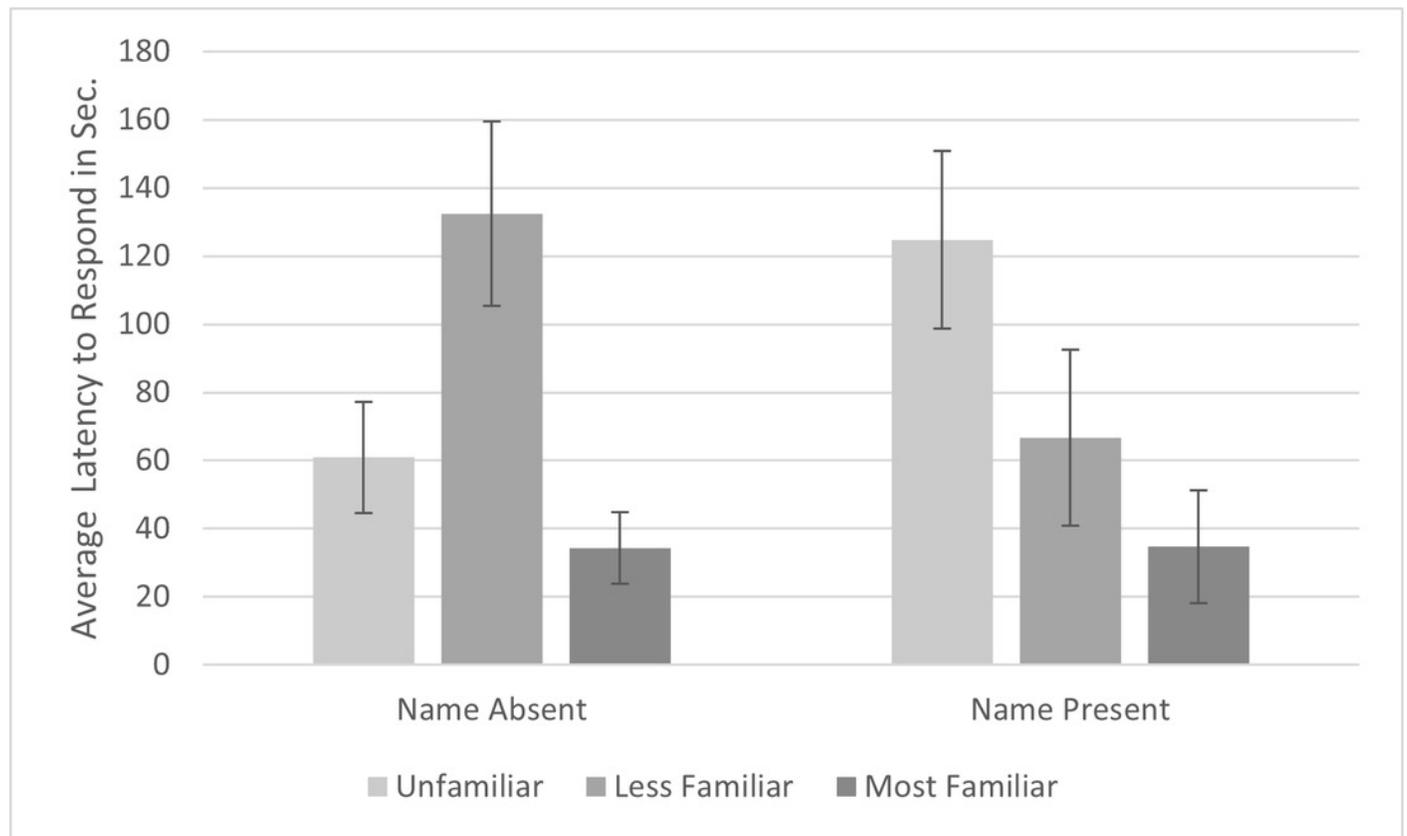


Figure 3

Average Latency to Respond to Playbacks in the Main Study

Note. Error bars indicate standard deviations. Latency to respond was the time in seconds from when the playback began to when the cats responded by behaviors such as ear movement and head turns. In each session, 24 cats were presented with four different unfamiliar voices on trials 1-3 and 5 and a familiar voice on trial 4.

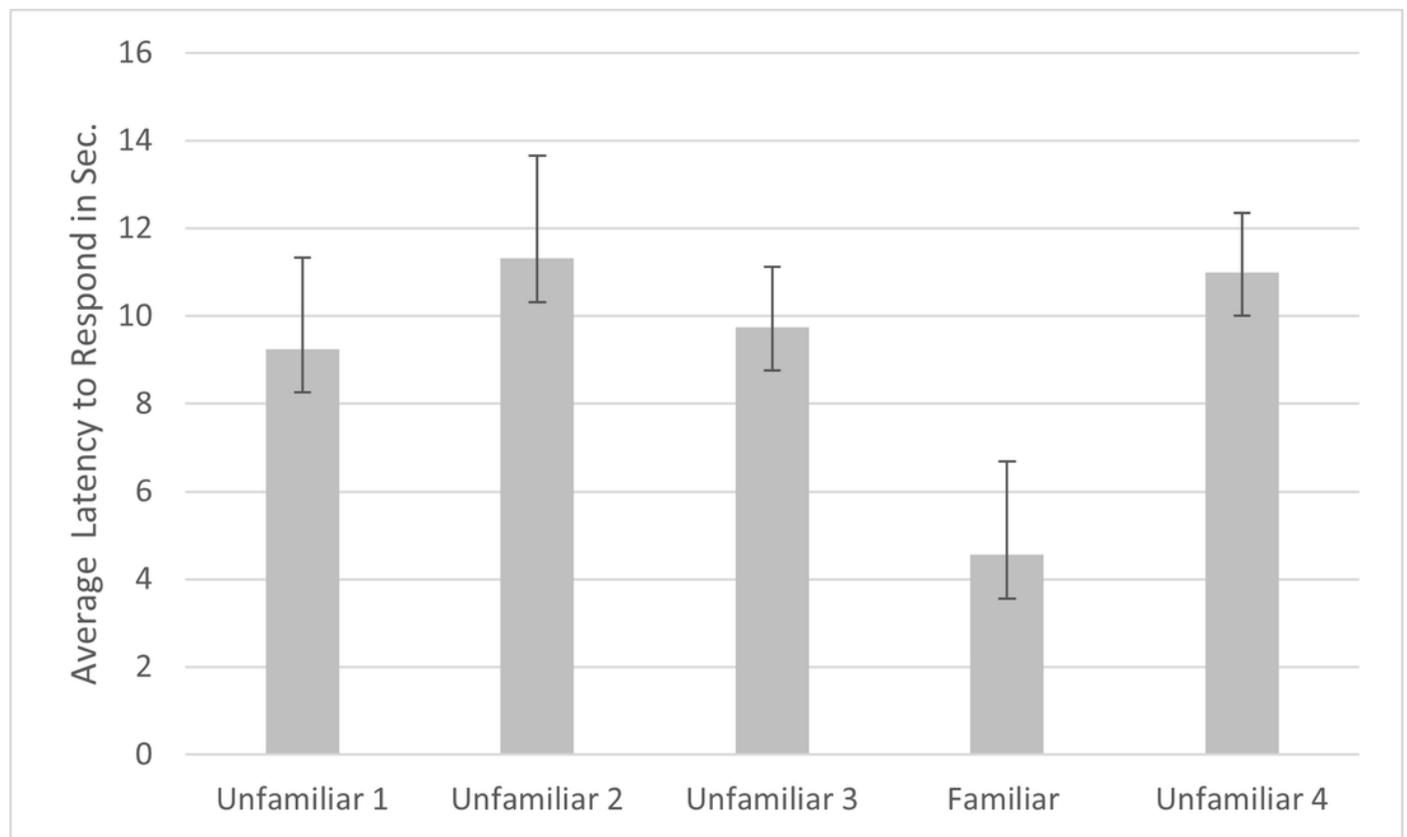


Figure 4

Average Intensity of Reaction as a Function of Playback Trial in the Main Study.

Error bars indicate standard deviations. Intensity was measured from 0 (no response) to 4 (full head turn or locomotion towards speaker) of the first reaction following each playback as coded by human coders. In each session, 24 cats were presented with four different unfamiliar voices on trials 1-3 and 5 and a familiar voice on trial 4.

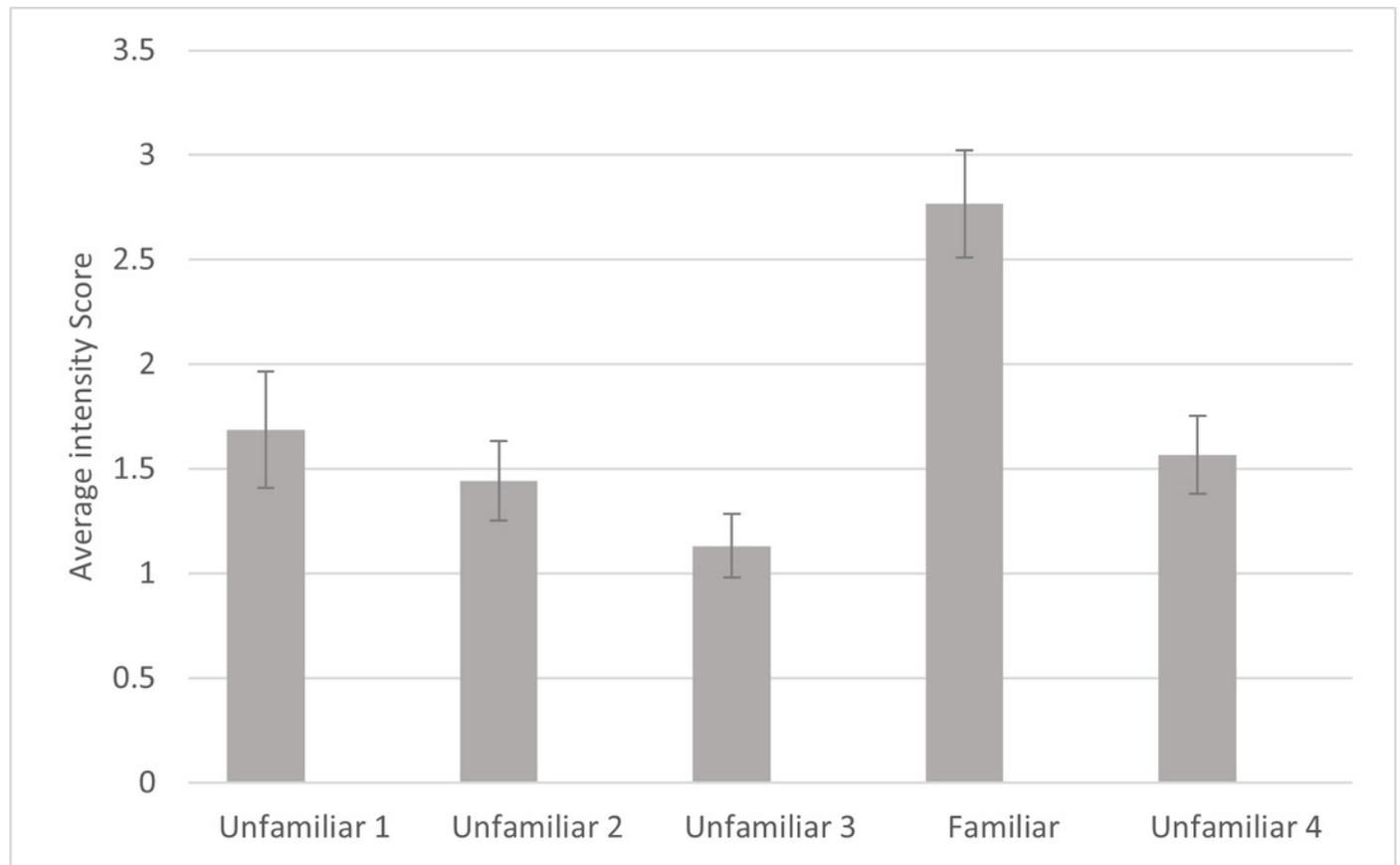


Figure 5

Average Duration of Behavior as a Function of Playback Trial

Note. Error bars indicate standard deviations. Duration of response was the time from when behaviors such as ear movement and head turns began until they ended following a playback. In each session, 24 cats were presented with four different unfamiliar voices on trials 1-3 and 5 and a familiar voice on trial 4.

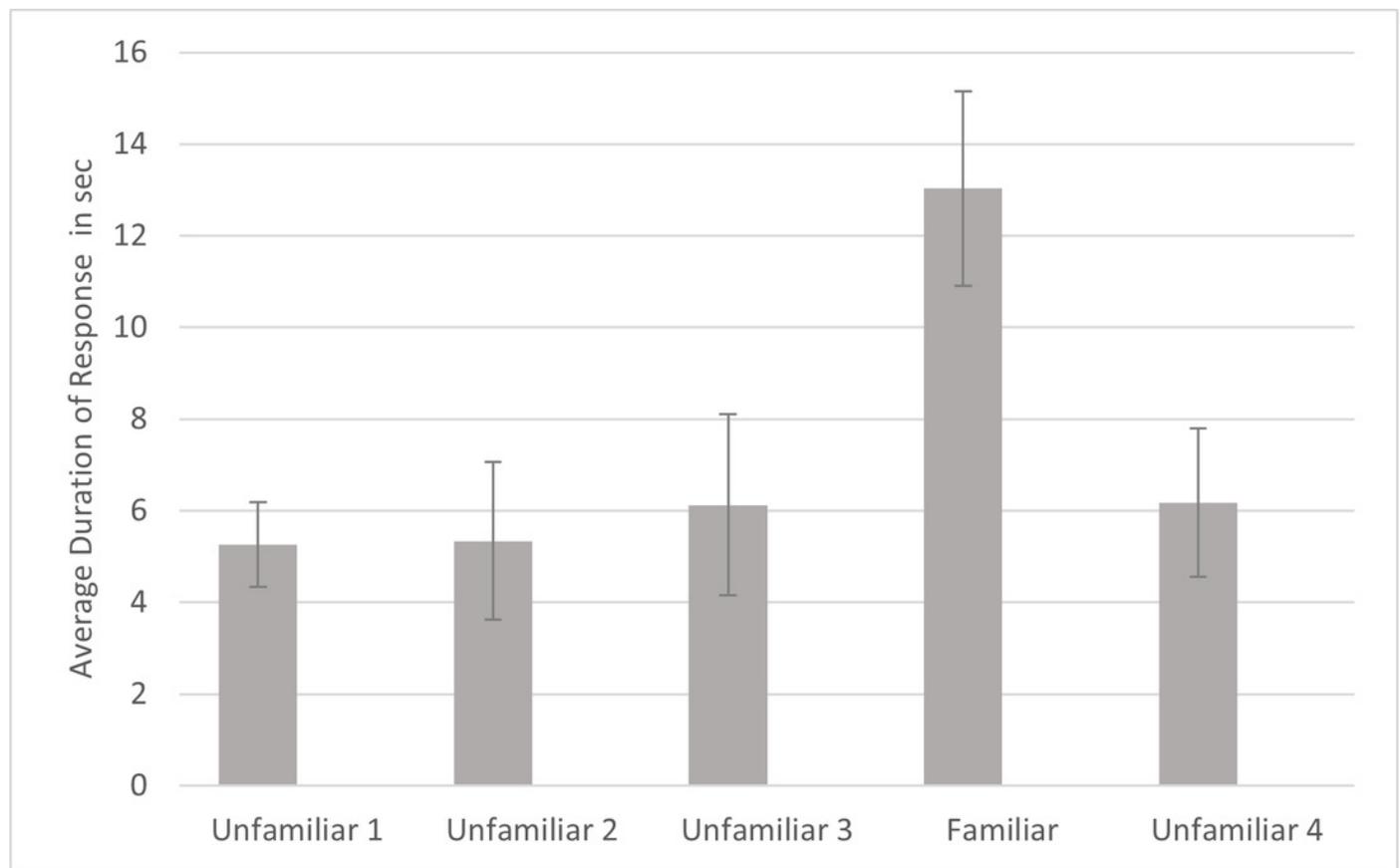


Table 1 (on next page)

List of Subjects

1 **Table 1**

2 Subject Subfamily, Species Common Name, Sex, Rearing History, Facility and Study Involvement

3

Subject	Subfamily	Species	Sex	Rearing Style	Facility	Study Participation	Sessions - Pilot	Sessions - Main
Diesel	Felinae	Cheetah	M	HR	Zoo Miami	1 and 2	3	3
Koda	Felinae	Cheetah	M	HR	Zoo Miami	1 and 2	3	3
Nia	Felinae	Cheetah	F	HR	Cincinnati Zoo	2		2
Tommy	Felinae	Cheetah	M	HR	Cincinnati Zoo	2		2
Jean	Pantherinae	Clouded Leopard	F	HR	Zoo Miami	2		2
Harper	Felinae	Cougar	F	HR	Creature Conservancy	1 and 2	6	2
Tecumseh	Felinae	Cougar	M	HR	Cincinnati Zoo	2		4
Joey	Felinae	Cougar	M	HR	Cincinnati Zoo	2		4
Tallulah	Felinae	Fishing Cat	F	MR	Greensboro Science Center	2		3
Mako	Felinae	Fishing Cat	M	MR	Greensboro Science Center	2		3
Gordie	Felinae	Lynx	M	HR	Creature Conservancy	1 and 2	5	2
Amirah	Pantherinae	Lion	F	MR	Zoo Miami	2		4
Imani	Pantherinae	Lion	F	HR	Cincinnati Zoo	2		2
John	Pantherinae	Lion	M	MR	Cincinnati Zoo	2		2
Layla	Felinae	Sand Cat	F	MR	Greensboro Science Center	2		2
Kira	Felinae	Serval	F	HR	Greensboro Science Center	2		3
Major	Felinae	Serval	M	HR	Zoo Miami	1 and 2	4	2
Scout	Felinae	Serval	M	HR	Zoo Miami	1 and 2	4	2
Tut	Felinae	Serval	M	HR	Greensboro Science Center	2		3
Nubo	Pantherinae	Snow Leopard	M	MR	Cincinnati Zoo	2		2
Renji	Pantherinae	Snow Leopard	F	HR	Cincinnati Zoo	2		2
Berani	Pantherinae	Tiger	M	MR	Zoo Miami	1	3	
Jin	Pantherinae	Tiger	F	MR	Cincinnati Zoo	2		3
Rocky	Pantherinae	Tiger	M	MR	Greensboro Science Center	2		2
Zero	Pantherinae	Tiger	M	HR	Cincinnati Zoo	2		3

4

5 *Note.* HR = human-reared, MR = mother-reared

Table 2 (on next page)

Results from the mixed ANOVAs of Latency, Intensity and Duration of Response for the Main Study.

Note. η_p^2 denotes partial eta squared.

1 Table 2

2 Results from the mixed ANOVAs of Latency, Intensity and Duration of Response for the Main Study.

	Latency			Intensity			Duration		
	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>	η_p^2	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>	η_p^2	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>	η_p^2
Subfamily	9.112	.007	.313	8.185	.010	.290	0.241	.629	.012
Sex	1.319	.264	.062	3.621	.072	.153	0.367	.552	.018
Rearing Name	1.032	.322	.049	1.532	.232	.071	0.129	.129	.111
Name	4.571	.045	.186	0.119	.734	.006	0.147	.706	.007
Familiarity	3.691	.008	.156	10.542	<.001	.345	4.021	.005	.167
Name by Familiarity	0.318	.865	.016	1.990	.104	.090	0.370	.829	.018
Rearing by Name	2.223	.152	.100	0.659	.426	.032	2.219	.152	.100
Rearing by Familiarity	1.192	.321	.056	1.494	.212	.070	0.409	.801	.020
Sex by Name	0.856	.366	.041	0.595	.449	.029	.000	.998	.000
Sex by Familiarity	1.578	.188	.073	1.358	.256	.064	0.249	.910	0.12
Subfamily by Name	0.02	.883	.001	0.764	.392	.037	3.067	.095	.133
Subfamily by Familiarity	1.661	.167	.077	1.026	.399	.049	0.228	.922	.011

3

4 *Note.* η_p^2 denotes partial eta squared.

5

6