

1 **Conserved abilities of individual recognition and genetically**  
2 **modulated social responses in young chicks (*Gallus gallus*)**

3

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13

14 **Abstract**

15 The ability to recognise familiar individuals and the motivation to stay in contact with  
16 conspecifics are important to establish social relationships from the beginning of life. To  
17 understand the genetic basis of early social behaviour, we studied the different responses  
18 to familiar/unfamiliar individuals and social reinstatement in 4-day-old domestic chicks  
19 (*Gallus gallus*) in three genetically isolated breeds: Padovana, Polverara and Robusta. All  
20 breeds showed a similar ability to discriminate between familiar and unfamiliar

21 individuals, staying closer to familiar individuals. Social reinstatement motivation  
22 measured as the average distance between subjects, latency to the first step and  
23 exploration of the arena (a proxy for the lack of fear), differed between breeds. More  
24 socially motivated chicks that stayed in closer proximity, were also less fearful and  
25 explored the environment more extensively. These results suggest that modulation of  
26 social behaviour shows larger genetic variability than the ability to recognise social  
27 partners, which appears to be an adaptive ability widespread at the species level even for  
28 very young animals.

29

### 30 **Keywords**

31 Individual recognition, imprinting, social reinstatement, social motivation, chicks, *Gallus*  
32 *gallus*, early cognition

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34

## 35 **1. Introduction**

36 In many species, the ability to recognise familiar individuals is important to establish  
37 social relationships from the first moments of life. In domestic chicks (*Gallus gallus*) and  
38 other precocial animals that move around soon after birth, the mechanism of imprinting  
39 enables to quickly learn the features of familiar individuals such as the mother and the  
40 siblings (Bateson, 1966; Bolhuis, 1991; McCabe, 2013; Vallortigara & Versace, 2018).  
41 After imprinting, hatchlings exhibit strong affiliative responses towards the imprinting  
42 stimulus while avoiding unfamiliar stimuli, a behaviour that requires the ability to  
43 recognise familiar individuals. Moreover, separation from the imprinting objects elicits  
44 attempts to signal and join the social partners (Jones & Merry, 1988; B. R. Jones &  
45 Williams, 1992; Suarez & Gallup, 1983; Zajonc, Wilson, & Rajecki, 1975), as well as  
46 adrenocortical activation in domestic chicks (Jones & Williams, 1992). Imprinting is not  
47 limited to general species recognition, as initially hypothesised by Lorenz, but enables to  
48 discriminate between particular individuals. This is shown by the different affiliative and  
49 aggressive responses to familiar and stranger social partners of the same chicken breed  
50 (Rajecki, Ivins, & Rein, 1976; Väisänen & Jensen, 2004; Vallortigara, 1992; Vallortigara,  
51 Cozzutti, Tommasi, & Rogers, 2001; Vallortigara & Andrew, 1994; Zajonc et al., 1975 see  
52 also Schweitzer, Poindron, & Arnould, 2009 for quails). Moreover, Johnson and Horn  
53 (1987) have shown that the ability of chicks to imprint on a specific hen depends on the  
54 intermediate and medial mesopallium (IMM) and Town (2011) has shown that this area  
55 responds differently to familiar and unfamiliar conspecifics.

56 For wild hatchlings, the ability to imprint and recognise familiar individuals is  
57 important to identify the care giver and maintain flock/group cohesion. However,  
58 recognition of familiar individuals has been documented also in hatchlings of solitary  
59 species, such as land tortoises of different species (Versace, Damini, Caffini, & Stancher,  
60 2018). Filial imprinting is particularly suitable to investigate in the laboratory since  
61 imprinting can be established also for artificial objects that are more easily manipulated  
62 in appearance than living animals. Thanks to these features, imprinting has become a  
63 model system for memory, learning and social behaviour (Bateson, 1966; Bolhuis, 1991;  
64 Horn, 1985, 2004; McCabe, 2013, 2019). In the laboratory, imprinting is studied using  
65 well controlled artificial stimuli such as balls, cubes, cylinders or two-dimensional stimuli  
66 presented on cardboards or computer screens (Rosa-Salva et al., 2018; Versace, Schill,  
67 Nencini, & Vallortigara, 2016; Versace, Spierings, Caffini, ten Cate, & Vallortigara, 2017;  
68 Wood & Wood, 2015). These experiments have shown that chicks discriminate subtle  
69 differences of the imprinting objects, such as rotation of the features located inside the  
70 imprinting object (Vallortigara & Andrew, 1991), the configuration of items that  
71 compose the imprinting stimulus (Rosa-Salva et al., 2018) and even the underlying  
72 structure of the stimuli independent of their physical appearance (Martinho & Kacelnik,  
73 2016; Versace, Regolin, & Vallortigara, 2006; Versace, Spierings, et al., 2017). Less is  
74 known on the genetic differences in the early ability of chicks to imprint on living  
75 objects and to discriminate between familiar and unfamiliar individuals. Väisänen and  
76 Jensen (2004) have explored the differences in responses to familiar and unfamiliar social  
77 stimuli in red jungle fowls (a breed considered to be close to the ancestral  
78 undomesticated chicken (Miao et al., 2013) and White Leghorns (a modern breed

79 selected for laying eggs), using 3-4 week old animals. This study showed greater  
80 affiliative responses in White Leghorn compared to red jungle fowls but did not clarify  
81 the onset of these differences.

82 Here we explore the genetic differences of chicks in responding to  
83 familiar/unfamiliar individuals in 4-day old chicks of three different breeds of domestic  
84 fowl: the Padovana, Polverara and Robusta breed. Chicks originated in the same farm  
85 within the conservation programme Co.Va, that kept these local breeds in genetic  
86 isolation for more than 20 years (De Marchi, Cassandro, Targhetta, Baruchello, &  
87 Notter, 2005). This particular arrangement reduced the environmental differences while  
88 ensuring low admixture between breeds (Zanetti, De Marchi, Dalvit, & Cassandro,  
89 2010). We previously investigated the predisposed visual preferences of these breeds to  
90 approach a stuffed hen vs. a scrambled version of it in visually naïve chicks (Versace,  
91 Fracasso, Baldan, Dalle Zotte, & Vallortigara, 2017). Predisposed responses precede  
92 imprinting for they are exhibited before any prior visual experience has occurred and do  
93 not depend on experience (Di Giorgio et al., 2017). When given the choice between a  
94 stuffed hen and a scrambled version of it, we observed that all three breeds initially  
95 preferred to orient towards the stuffed hen, which is the predisposed stimulus that  
96 several breeds preferentially approach (see Egorova & Anokhin, 2003; Johnson & Horn,  
97 1988; Mayer, Rosa-Salva, Lorenzi, & Vallortigara, 2016; Versace, Fracasso, Baldan, Dalle  
98 Zotte, & Vallortigara, 2017). Interestingly, we observed a difference between breeds as  
99 early as the first 10 minutes of visual experience: while the Polverara breed showed a  
100 steady attachment for the stuffed hen throughout the test, the Robusta and Padovana

101 breeds were attracted by the alternative stimulus. This suggests that behavioural  
102 strategies that drive early attachment and orientation have a genetic basis, and that  
103 genetic differences are apparent in the first minutes of visual experience. It is not clear,  
104 though, whether differences in the ability to recognise familiar individuals and social  
105 motivation are present between these breeds. The peculiar skull and brain anatomy of  
106 the Padovana breed is a further reason of interest for these breeds. Both the Padovana  
107 and Polverara breed have a striking crest on the head but only in the Padovana breed the  
108 crest covers a perforated skull with an associated enlargement of the brain (Verdiglione  
109 & Rizzi, 2018). The behavioural and cognitive implications of this striking anatomy  
110 remain elusive, although Darwin (1868) hypothesised potential deficits in a closely  
111 related breed, the white crested Polish. Historical documents suggest that the Padovana  
112 breed, whose traces go back to Roman times (Brothwelp, 1979), was introduced in Italy  
113 from Poland more than seven centuries ago (De Marchi et al., 2005), originating from  
114 the white crested Polish. In the White crested Polish/Padovana breed the endocranium  
115 is enlarged and the brain has dramatically expanded to fill this gap (Frahm &  
116 Rehkamper, 1998). It is not clear which behavioural consequences this peculiar brain  
117 organisation has produced, and whether the abilities of individual recognition and  
118 affiliative responses for this breed differ from those of other chickens.

119 To investigate the genetic variability in early individual recognition and in social  
120 motivation we tested the three breeds in an open field test. In this setting, chicks are  
121 located in a novel empty arena larger than their home cage and their spontaneous  
122 behaviour is observed in the presence of familiar or stranger conspecifics. The ability of

123 chicks to recognise familiar/stranger individuals can be inferred looking at whether the  
124 distance kept between familiar animals is different. Due to the process of filial  
125 imprinting, familiar chicks are expected to stay closer than stranger chicks, as previously  
126 documented (see for instance Vallortigara, 1992; Zajonc et al., 1975). Based on their  
127 antipredatory and affiliative behaviour, it has been suggested that animals located in an  
128 open field with other conspecifics experience both the fear of being in an open  
129 environment – which has the effect of reducing activity and exploration –, and social  
130 reinstatement, namely the motivation to reach the group and remain in contact with  
131 conspecifics (Suarez & Gallup, 1983; Vallortigara, 1992; Vallortigara, Cailotto, &  
132 Zanforlin, 1990). In a range of species, greater latency of movement/tonic immobility  
133 indicates antipredatory responses, while shorter distance between individuals indicates  
134 stronger social/reinstatement motivation (Jones, Mills, & Faure, 1996; Versace, Caffini,  
135 Werkhoven, & Bivort, 2019).

136

## 137 **2. Methods**

### 138 **2.1 Breeds and conservation scheme**

139 We studied three genetically isolated breeds of domestic fowl (*Gallus gallus*) raised in the  
140 same farm (Istituto Istruzione Superiore Agraria “Duca degli Abruzzi”, Padova, Italy):  
141 Padovana, Polverara and Robusta maculata. These breeds entered the Co.Va  
142 conservation project more than 20 years before this project (De Marchi et al., 2005). The  
143 breeding and conservation scheme included no gene flow between breeds and were  
144 aimed at increasing the number of pure breed animals while maintaining genetic

145 variability within the breed. We included individuals from gold, silver and buff Padovana  
146 and white and black Polverara, because previous studies showed high homogeneity  
147 within these breeds (Zanetti, De Marchi, Abbadi, & Cassandro, 2011; Zanetti et al.,  
148 2010). The Robusta maculata breed was developed in 1965 from crosses between Tawny  
149 Orpingtons and White Americans. Zanetti et al. (2010) documented genetic isolation  
150 (low level of admixture) between these breeds and a closer phylogenetic relationship  
151 between Padovana and Polverara, which are also more similar at phenotypic level  
152 compared to Robusta. More details are provided in Versace et al. (2017).

153

## 154 **2.2 Subjects and rearing conditions**

155 We tested 221 pairs of chicks: 94 pairs of the Padovana breed (PD), 88 pairs of the  
156 Polverara breed (PL), 39 pairs of the Robusta breed (RB). During the test, 156 pairs  
157 moved: 58 Padovana, 60 Polverara and 38 Robusta. Eggs were obtained from the  
158 Agricultural High School “Duca degli Abruzzi” (Padova, Italy), which is pursuing the  
159 Co.Va conservation programme for the maintenance of local biodiversity described  
160 above (De Marchi et al., 2005). We incubated and hatched eggs in darkness at 37.7 °C.  
161 During incubation, humidity was kept at 40% and then increased to 60% during the last  
162 three days of incubation. Chicks hatched in groups of the same breed and were then  
163 housed in pairs of the same breed within 24 hours from hatching without any visual  
164 exposure to conspecifics prior to housing. Chicks were maintained in standard rearing  
165 conditions (temperature 28°C, 14:10 day:night cycle) for three days in 28x38x32 cm



166 cages, and tested at an age of 4 days after hatching. After the experiments, animals were  
167 donated to local farmers.

168

### 169 **2.3 Apparatus**

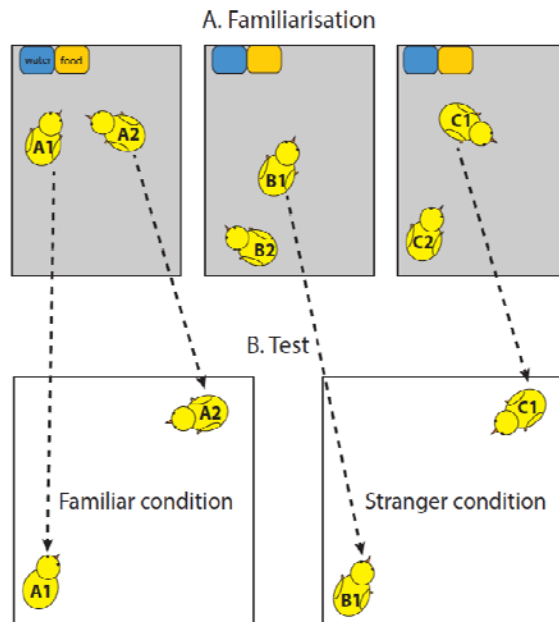
170 The test apparatus used for the test was a black square area (40x40x36 cm), illuminated  
171 with an incandescent lamp (100 W) located 1 m above the centre of the arena. A camera  
172 recorded the experimental scene from above during the test.

173

### 174 **2.4 Test procedure**

175 The experiment consisted of two phases: a familiarization phase and a test phase (see  
176 Figure 1). The familiarization phase started soon after hatching (day post hatching 0) and  
177 lasted 3 days. During this phase a pair of chicks of the same breed was housed in the  
178 same cage. At test, each subject was visually isolated for 10-15 minutes in an opaque box  
179 (14.5 cm height, 8.5 cm large, 11 cm width) located inside its cage and then transferred  
180 to the testing room together with another experimental subject. During the test we  
181 observed two chicks previously housed together (Familiar condition) or previously  
182 housed with a different animal (Stranger condition). At the beginning of the test,  
183 experimental chicks were placed simultaneously in two opposite corners of the arena  
184 and left free to move for 5 minutes.

185



186 Figure 1. (A) Chicks were initially housed with another chick of the same breed for three days  
187 (familiarisation). (B) At test, chicks were located in a new arena either with the familiar companion  
188 (Familiar condition) or with a novel chick (Stranger condition). For each pair we recorded the latency  
189 of the first step, the distance between the centroid of the chicks and overall distance run.

190

## 191 2.5 Data analysis

192 We initially established whether chicks in the pair moved or remained still throughout  
193 the test and counted how many pairs moved/did not move during the test. We used a  
194 Chi-square test to check whether more pairs moved in the Stranger or in the Familiar  
195 condition.

196 For all pairs that moved, we used an Anova to analyse the average distance (cm)  
197 between the centroid of subjects throughout the test, the overall distance moved by the  
198 pair (cm) and the average latency of the first step (s) using Condition (familiar, stranger),

199 Breed (Padovana, Polverara, Robusta) and their interaction as independent variables.  
200 Exploratory analyses showed that a log-transformation of the distance moved and  
201 latency normalised the residuals of these variables, hence we used log-transformed  
202 values for these analyses. We ran post-hoc t-tests to explore significant differences. We  
203 also analysed the relation between latency, distance run and distance between subjects  
204 using the Spearman rank order correlation test and fitting linear and polynomial models  
205 until finding the minimal adequate model. Significance level was set to  $p < 0.05$ . Statistical  
206 analyses were performed with the R software (version 3.5.2).

207

## 208 **3 Results**

### 209 **3.1 Pairs that moved in the Familiar and Stranger condition**

210 There was no significant difference in the frequency of pairs that moved/did not move  
211 between the Familiar and Stranger condition ( $X^2 = 0.834$ ,  $df = 1$ ,  $p = 0.361$ ) or  
212 Breed ( $X^2 = 0.989$ ,  $df = 2$ ,  $p = 0.610$ ).

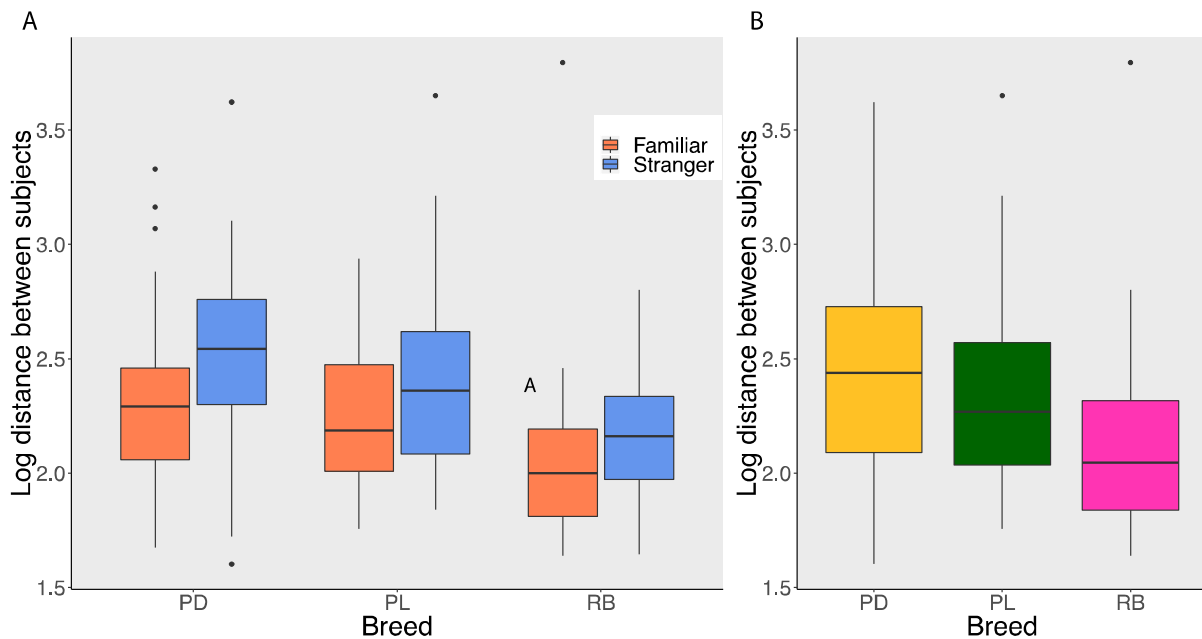
213

### 214 **3.2 Distance between individuals**

215 Looking at the log-transformed distance between subjects we found a significant effect  
216 of Condition ( $F_{1,150} = 8.311$ ,  $p = 0.005$ ) and Breed ( $F_{2,150} = 5.664$ ,  $p = 0.004$ ) and no  
217 significant interaction ( $F_{2,150} = 0.155$ ,  $p = 0.857$ ). These results are shown in Figure 2.  
218 Familiar chicks stayed closer than stranger chicks ( $t = -2.817$ ,  $df = 153.34$ ,  $p = 0.005$ ). The

219 average distance between Familiar chicks was 17.57 cm (median 10.26 cm), the average  
220 distance between Stranger chicks 20.75 cm (median 15.35 cm).

221 Chicks in the RB breed stayed significantly closer than PL ( $t=2.536$ ,  $df=76.942$ ,  
222  $p=0.013$ ) and PD ( $t=3.455$ ,  $df=80.728$ ,  $p<0.001$ ) chicks, whereas there was no  
223 significant difference between PL and PD chicks ( $t=1.139$ ,  $df=115.01$ ,  $p=0.257$ ).

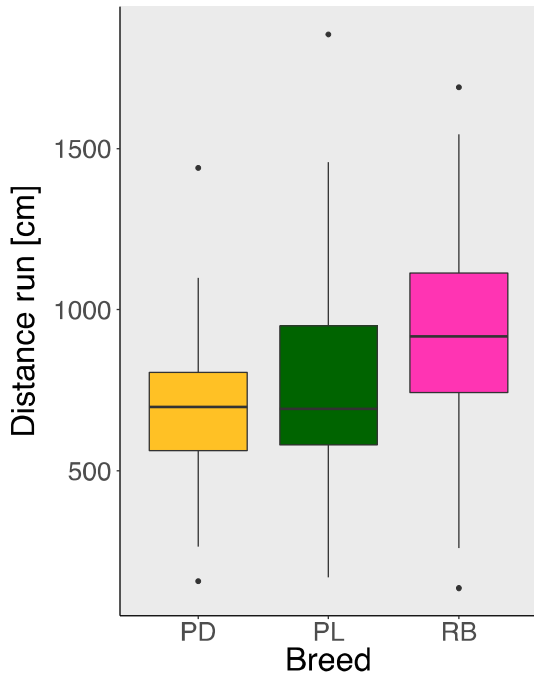


224 Figure 2. The boxplots show (A) for each condition (Familiar, Stranger) and (B) breed (PD=Padovana,  
225 PL=Polverara, RB=Robusta) the median, quartiles, maximum, minimum and outliers of the distance  
226 between subjects expressed in log centimetres.  
227

228

### 229 3.3 Distance run

230 Analysing the overall distance run in each pair, we found a significant effect of Breed  
231 ( $F_{2,150}=6.102$ ,  $p=0.003$ ) and no significant effect of Condition ( $F_{1,150}=0.409$ ,  $p=0.523$ )  
232 and no significant interaction ( $F_{2,150}=1.027$ ,  $p=0.360$ ). These results are shown in Figure  
233 3.



234

235 Figure 3. The boxplots show for each breed (PD=Padovana, PL=Polverara, RB=Robusta) the median,  
236 quartiles, maximum, minimum and outliers of the distance run expressed in centimetres.

237

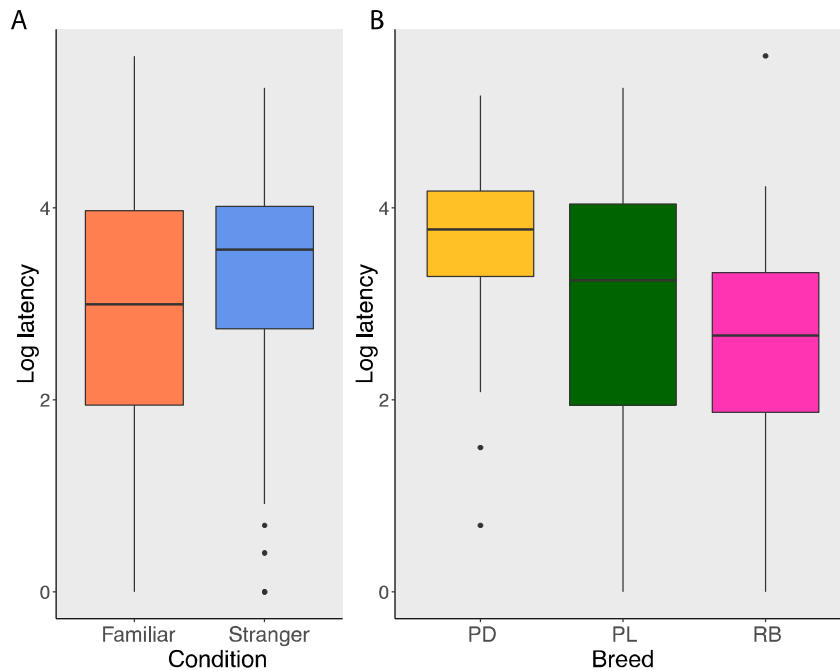
238 Polverara chicks did not run significantly more than Padovana chicks ( $t=1.890$ ,  
239  $df=110.13$ ,  $p=0.061$ ) although there was a trend in this direction, Robusta chicks ran  
240 significantly more than Polverara chicks ( $t=2.530$ ,  $df=71.406$ ,  $p=0.014$ ), and significantly  
241 more than Padovana chicks ( $t=4.186$ ,  $df=58.757$ ,  $p<0.001$ ).

242

### 243 3.4 Latency first step

244 Analysing the latency of the first step in each pair, we observed a significant effect of  
245 Condition ( $F_{2,150}=4.026$ ,  $p=0.047$ , with chicks in the Familiar condition moving sooner  
246 than chicks in the Stranger condition) and Breed ( $F_{2,150}=11.02$ ,  $p<0.001$ ) and no

247 significant interaction ( $F_{2,150}=0.336$ ,  $p=0.715$ ). The mean latency for the Familiar  
248 condition was 43.29 s (median 20.25 s) and for the Stranger condition 48.19 s (median  
249 36 s). The results are shown in Figure 4.



250

251 Figure 4. The boxplots show for each (A) condition (Familiar, Stranger) and (B) breed (PD=Padovana,  
252 PL=Polverara, RB=Robusta) the median, quartiles, maximum, minimum and outliers of the pair  
253 latency of the first step expressed in log seconds.

254

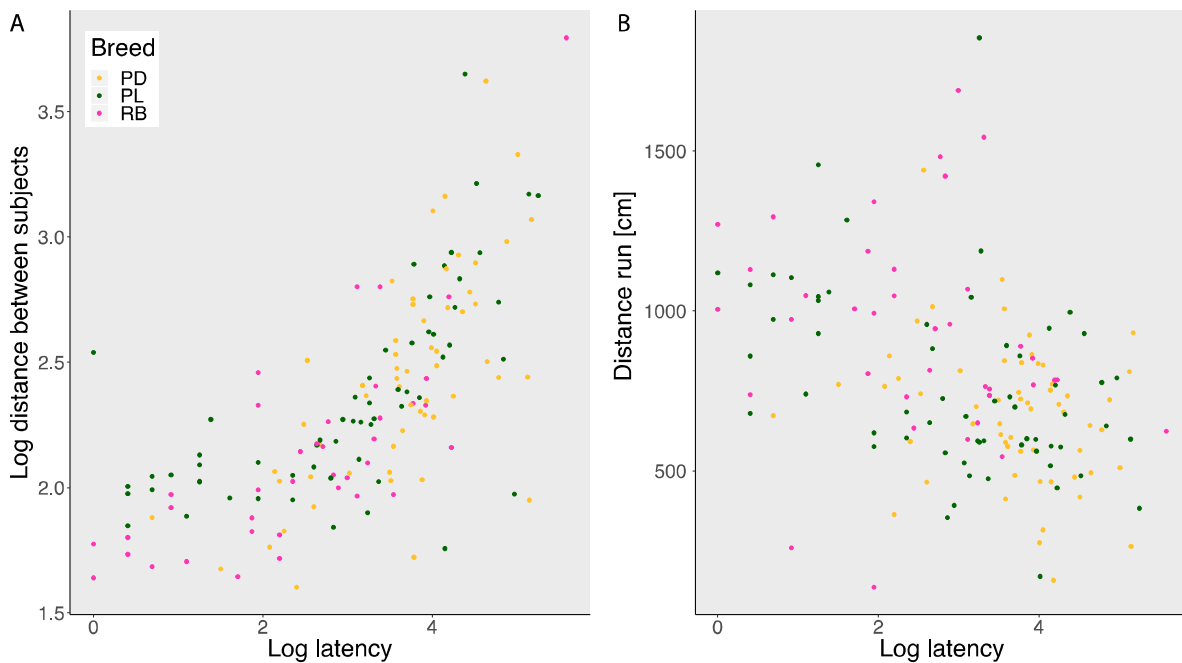
255 Polverara chicks moved significantly earlier than Padovana chicks ( $t=-27.937$ ,  $df=78.274$ ,  
256  $p<0.001$ ), Robusta chicks moved significantly earlier than Polverara chicks ( $t=-27.229$ ,  
257  $df=71.209$ ,  $p<0.001$ ), and also Robusta chicks moved significantly earlier than Padovana  
258 chicks ( $t=-25.87$ ,  $df=42.701$ ,  $p<0.001$ ).

259

260

### 261 3.5 Relation between latency, distance between subjects and distance run

262 We observed a significant positive correlation between the latency of the first step and  
263 the average distance between subjects ( $S=162850$ ,  $p<0.001$ ,  $\rho=0.743$ , see Figure 5A)  
264 and a significant negative correlation between the latency of the first step and the  
265 distance run ( $S=899280$ ,  $p<0.001$ ,  $\rho=-0.421$ , see Figure 5B).



266

267 Figure 5. The scatterplots show the relation between (A) latency of the first step and average distance  
268 between subjects and (B) latency of the first step and distance run.

269

270 The minimal adequate model for the dependent variable Distance between  
271 subjects using as predictors Latency, Condition and Breed included a quadratic  
272 polynomial with Latency ( $F_{2,150}=98.035$ ,  $p<0.01$ ), Condition ( $F_{1,150}=7.13$ ,  $p=0.008$ ) and  
273 Latency x Condition ( $F_{2,150}=4.77$ ,  $p=0.001$ ) as significant effects. The full table of  
274 coefficients is reported in Table 1.

	Estimate	Std. Error	T value	Pr(>  t )
Intercept	2.266	0.032	70.122	<2e-16
Latency (linear)	3.138	0.370	8.493	1.83e-14
Latency (quadratic)	0.886	0.366	2.421	0.017
Condition (Stranger)	0.120	0.045	2.642	0.009
Latency (linear) x Condition	1.135	0.576	1.970	0.051
Latency (quadratic) x Condition	1.373	0.572	2.400	0.018
Residual standard error: 0.2797 on 150 degrees of freedom				
Multiple R-squared: 0.587		Adjusted R-squared: 0.573		
F-statistic: 42.55 on 5 and 150 df, p<2.2e-16				

275 Table 1. This table shows the coefficients of the minimal adequate model for the dependent variable

276 Distance between subjects using as predictors Latency, Condition and Breed.

277

278 The minimal adequate model for the dependent variable Distance run using as

279 predictors Latency, Condition and Breed included Latency ( $F_{1,151}=29.100$ ,  $p<0.01$ ) and

280 Breed ( $F_{2,151}=4.322$ ,  $p=0.015$ ) as significant effects. The full table of coefficients in

281 reported in Table 2.

	Estimate	Std. Error	T value	Pr(>  t )
Intercept	715.233	42.460	16.845	<2e-16
Latency (linear)	-1156.56	286.562	-4.036	<0.001
Condition (Stranger)	-3.876	42.880	0.090	0.928
Breed (PL)	40.333	50.206	0.803	0.423
Breed (RB)	168.909	59.122	2.857	0.005
Residual standard error: 264.6 on 151 degrees of freedom				
Multiple R-squared: 0.2		Adjusted R-squared: 0.179		
F-statistic: 9.436 on 4 and 151 df, p<0.001				

282 Table 2. This table shows the coefficients of the minimal adequate model for the dependent variable

283 Distance run using as predictors Latency, Condition and Breed.

284

285



## 286 4. Discussion

287 From the beginning of life, the ability to recognise familiar individuals and the  
288 motivation to stay in contact with conspecifics are important to establish social  
289 relationships. Little is known, though, on whether early social behaviours have a genetic  
290 basis that determines behavioural differences. To address this issue, we focused on  
291 domestic chicks (*Gallus gallus*). Chicks are an ideal model to investigate the first social  
292 responses not only because they are a precocial species (Versace & Vallortigara, 2015;  
293 Versace, 2017) and move around autonomously soon after birth but also because they  
294 live in flocks and have to recognise the mother and siblings to maintain social cohesion  
295 (Nicol, 2015). We previously showed that the initial predisposition to orient towards a  
296 (stuffed) hen does not vary between breeds, while exploratory responses to social stimuli  
297 differ between breeds after just 10 minutes of experience (Versace, Fracasso, Baldan,  
298 Dalle Zotte, & Vallortigara, 2017). Here, we investigated early social responses mediated  
299 by previous social experience and learning. We tested whether 4-day-old chicks have  
300 standing genetic variation for the ability to recognise conspecifics and social  
301 reinstatement by using three genetically isolated breeds: Padovana, Polverara and  
302 Robusta.

303 In all breeds, we observed a similar ability to discriminate between particular  
304 individuals and recognise a familiar one. As a proxy for recognition, we used the  
305 different distance kept between familiar and unfamiliar individuals. When located in a  
306 new environment with a familiar or an unfamiliar chick, all tested breeds equally  
307 discriminated between familiar and unfamiliar individuals staying significantly closer to

308 familiar chicks. and showing shorter latency of movement with pairs of familiar  
309 individuals. Even the Padovana breed, that shows the neuroanatomical peculiarity of a  
310 perforated skull with an associated enlargement of the brain (Verdiglione & Rizzi, 2018),  
311 did not show cognitive differences in this ability. This performance of Padovana chicks  
312 suggests that the behavioural limitations noticed by Darwin (1868) in the white crested  
313 Polish – a breed ancestral to Padovana (De Marchi, Dalvit, Targhetta, & Cassandro,  
314 2005; Verdiglione & Rizzi, 2018) – do not derive from deficits in social motivation or  
315 individual recognition (they might instead be due to difficulties in visual perception  
316 linked to the long plumage of the crest as suggested by Vallortigara, personal  
317 communication). Hence, the ability to promptly recognise familiar individuals appeared  
318 widespread at the species level in chickens. Previous studies conducted on quails  
319 (*Coturnix coturnix japonica*) (Kovach, 1990) showed a slow response to selection for  
320 low/high imprintability. In this study, imprintability was selected as low/high ability to  
321 exhibit imprinting responses for colours that were not initially preferred by young birds.  
322 The observed sluggish response to selection for imprintability observed in quails is in  
323 line with the absence of interbreed differences in the recognition of familiar individuals  
324 that we have documented in chicks.

325         We have previously shown that even hatchlings of non-social species such as  
326 tortoises are able to recognise familiar and unfamiliar individuals in the first days of life  
327 (Versace, Damini, Caffini, & Stancher, 2018). The early age and little experience required  
328 (see also Suarez & Gallup, 1983; Vallortigara, 1992; Zajonc et al., 1975), together with  
329 the low genetic variability of this trait, shows how crucial individual recognition is at the

330 onset of life for a range of different species. This contrasts with other social traits that  
331 showed significant genetic variability. In fact, we observed very clear differences between  
332 breeds and conditions when looking at measures of social reinstatement and fear in an  
333 open field. We measured social reinstatement, the motivation to join the social group  
334 and keep in contact with it, looking at the average distance between subjects. Shorter  
335 distance indicates greater social reinstatement motivation (Jones et al., 1996; Schweitzer  
336 et al., 2009; Suarez & Gallup, 1983; Vallortigara et al., 1990; Vallortigara, 1992). Both the  
337 Polverara and Padovana breed, that are closely genetically related (Zanetti et al., 2010),  
338 maintained a larger distance than the Robusta breed, providing another indication of the  
339 fact that the observed differences have a genetic basis. We also assessed the fear elicited  
340 by being in a novel open field by looking at the latency to the first step and overall  
341 distance run. Since an adaptive antipredator response for chicks in an open field is  
342 freezing/tonic immobility, fear is expected to induce greater latency, and less exploration  
343 in the arena as antipredator behaviours. We observed that chicks with lower latency  
344 stayed closer and explored the arena more extensively. While fear/antipredatory  
345 responses and social reinstatement can dissociate (for instance with short distance  
346 between subjects that indicates high social reinstatement and little distance moved that  
347 indicates high fear), we observed that they were inversely correlated. This shows that  
348 pairs of chicks that approached each other explored the arena while remaining in close  
349 proximity.

350 Differences in social reinstatement and fear responses were apparent from the  
351 first days of life, in animals with very limited social experience. The differences in social

352 reinstatement and fear had a clear genetic basis, with an effect of breed on latency,  
353 distance run and distance between individuals. In particular, the Robusta breed showed  
354 the shortest latency and distance between subjects as well as greater distance run during  
355 the test. These results are in line with the fact that quails respond to selection for  
356 high/low social reinstatement and fear (Formanek et al., 2008; Mills & Faure, 1991;  
357 Mills, Jones, & Michel, 1995), that older chicks of jungle fowl and White Leghorn exhibit  
358 different social reinstatement behaviour (Väisänen & Jensen, 2004), and that neonate  
359 chicks differ in exploratory responses to social stimuli (Versace, Fracasso, Baldan, Dalle  
360 Zotte, & Vallortigara, 2017).

361         Our findings suggest that the modulation of social behaviour shows larger genetic  
362 variability than the ability of recognizing familiar individuals. This points at the crucial  
363 adaptive role of individual recognition, an ability widespread across taxa and available  
364 from the earliest developmental stages also in tortoises (Versace, Damini, Caffini, &  
365 Stancher, 2018). Interestingly, while we have shown that chicks consistently tend to  
366 aggregate with other individuals, tortoise hatchlings – that are solitary until reaching  
367 sexual maturity – ignore familiar individuals and avoid strangers (Versace, Damini,  
368 Caffini, & Stancher, 2018). The ability to promptly recognize familiar individuals can  
369 hence sustain both affiliative and avoidance responses. The pivotal role of individual  
370 recognition is apparent in invertebrates as well. For instance, in studying aggression,  
371 Yurkovic et al. (2006) have documented the ability of fruit flies to respond differently to  
372 familiar and unfamiliar opponents. Not only familiar opponents had significantly fewer  
373 encounters but the fighting strategies depended on whether the opponent was familiar

374 or unfamiliar: losers tested with unfamiliar winners were more aggressive than losers  
375 paired with familiar winners. Individual recognition has been documented in other  
376 insects such as paper wasps (Tibbetts, 2002; Tibbetts & Dale, 2007) and ants (D’Ettorre  
377 & Heinze, 2005). It hence appears that individual recognition has a crucial role in a  
378 broad comparative context. Using newly hatched chicks of different breeds, we have  
379 shown the ability to recognize familiar individuals and differentially respond to them is  
380 widespread in this species from the earliest stages of life. We suggest that identifying the  
381 core abilities exhibited by young animals at the beginning of life might also guide experts  
382 in artificial intelligence in understanding which are the fundamental components of  
383 general intelligence (Versace, Martinho-Truswell, Kacelnik, & Vallortigara, 2018).  
384 Further studies should clarify the role of different perceptive cues chicks in  
385 discriminating between familiar individuals.

386

### 387 **Animal welfare note**

388 All experiments comply with the ASAB/ABS Guidelines for the Use of Animals in  
389 Research and with the current Italian and European Community laws for the ethical  
390 treatment of animals and the experimental procedures were approved by the Ethical  
391 Committee of University of Trento and licensed by the Italian Health Ministry (permit  
392 number 1138/2015 PR). At the end of the experiments, all chicks were donated to local  
393 farmers.

394

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