

Title:

Using online media to assess mirror self-recognition in domestic cats

Author information:

KIM Youngbean¹ youngbean@u.yale-nus.edu.sg

Philip JOHNS^{1,2,3} philip.johns@yale-nus.edu.sg

1. Yale-NUS College, 16 College Avenue West, Singapore, 138527

2. To whom correspondence should be addressed. Phone: +65 8798 6560; Fax: +65 6773 6932

3. ORCID <https://orcid.org/my-orcid?orcid=0000-0003-2301-0212>

Acknowledgments

We would like to thank Wannes Dupont for translating the work from Kraus (1949). This research was done in partial fulfilment of the requirements for Kim Youngbean's Independent Reading and Research module at Yale-NUS College. This work was supported in part by Ministry of Education through the Yale-NUS College start-up grant R-607-265-226-121, and through Yale-NUS's Centre for International and Professional Experience's Summer Research Program.

Type of submission:

Short Communication

Elements:

4 Figures (Fig. 1 – Fig. 4)

5 Online Resources (Online Resource 1 – Online Resource 5) .

Data:

10.6084/m9.figshare.21081166

Abstract:

In the mirror test of visual self-recognition, if an animal responds to its reflection as its own, rather than as to a novel individual, the animal may have the capacity to recognize itself. Here we explore two permutations of the mirror test on cats by gleaning data from social media. We examine TikTok videos where pet owners show cats reflective images with augmented reality filters; and YouTube videos where cats interact with mirrors. Behavioral sequence analysis revealed little support that cats understand reflective images. Few TikTok cats responded to AR images, and those cats may have responded to other cues, such as human touch. In YouTube videos, cats fell into five behavioral clusters, two which were aggressive, and two which were curious. Even curious cats showed little evidence that they understood mirrors. We discuss whether distinct clusters indicate that cat personality influences how cats respond to their reflections.

Key words:

mirror self-recognition test, self-recognition, *Felis catus*, cat, social media, citizen science

Statements and Declarations

The authors have no competing financial or non-financial interests that are directly or indirectly related to this study.

Introduction

A classic test for visual self-recognition is the mirror self-recognition (**MSR**) test, which involves an animal's reaction to its reflection, and to its modified reflection, e.g., by putting a mark on an animal's face (Gallup 1970; see de Waal 2008; de Waal 2019). If animals recognize their reflections, they should not treat the reflection as another animal, e.g., by displaying aggressive or fearful behaviors, and they should respond to modifications to the reflection. Some species "pass" the mirror test, including chimps (Gallup 1970, Povinelli et al. 1997), dolphins (Reiss & Marino 2001), elephants (Plotnik et al. 2006), and magpies (Prior et al. 2008). Other species like dogs may use mirrors to acquire spatial information (Howell & Bennett 2011, Howell et al. 2013), and Rhesus monkeys show evidence of self-recognition after learning how mirrors work (Chang et al. 2017).

Interpreting the results of the mirror test can be challenging, and the relationship between passing the MSR test, self-recognition, self-awareness, theory of mind, and the evolution of cognition, is controversial and depends on species tested and the protocol (e.g., Gallup 1982; Povinelli et al. 1997; Heschl & Burkart 2006, de Waal 2008; Anderson & Gallup 2015; de Waal 2019; Kopp et al. 2021). Popular consensus is that domestic cats (*Felis catus*) do not demonstrate self-recognition; rather that they habituate to their reflections (e.g., Gallup 1982; de Waal 2019; see also Nosowitz 2013; Wetsman 2019). This claim seems perfectly reasonable. However, we are aware of little formal research on visual self-recognition in domestic cats. The entirety of one cited work is, "Dogs and cats, especially younger ones, have a brief interest in their reflection, in which they probably also think they see a congener. Dogs are often afraid of it, cats become curious and go look behind the mirror" (Kraus 1949). We know of no others.

Two types of videos on social media, TikTok (<http://www.tiktok.com>) and YouTube (www.youtube.com), provide analogues to the MSR test. A popular Instagram and TikTok trend 2019-2020 involved pet owners showing cats theirs and their cats' images in cellphone screens while using an augmented reality (**AR**) filter to change the owners' faces (Fig 1). Conveniently, cat owners simultaneously recorded their cat's reactions to the owners' AR filtered face. Separately, cat owners uploaded videos of felines' reactions to mirrors to YouTube. Although social media is comprised of largely *ad libitum* observations (Altmann 1974), and thus is prone to biases, it can be useful for recording uncommon occurrences (Nelson and Fijn 2013, e.g., Loong et al. 2021, Bungum et al. 2022) and events involving companion animals (e.g., Boydston et al 2018).

79

80 We explore cats' reactions to reflective images, from videos gleaned from TikTok and YouTube, in the context
81 of MSR tests, by describing cat behavioral sequences. In the AR filtered TikTok videos, we expect that, if cats
82 understand the reflective nature of the phone screen, they should explore the differences between their
83 reflections and some expectation, comparable to how a chimp or elephant reacts to a mark on its face. In the
84 cats' case, we expect them to look at the phone screen, then look at the human in response to the AR filter. In
85 the YouTube videos, we expect cats that recognize their own reflections would respond curiously. If cats in
86 either kind of video respond with aggressive or fearful behaviors as they would to another cat – such as by
87 charging the mirror, piloerection, displaying a bushy tail, or by trying to peer behind the mirror – we conclude
88 that the cats are unlikely to have recognized their own reflection.

89

90 **Methods**

91

92 We found TikTok videos of cats reacting to AR filters by searching for terms like “cat face filter” (see Online
93 Resource 1). We found appropriate YouTube videos by using search terms like “cat mirror” (see Online
94 Resource 2). We analyzed 145 TikTok videos showing cats interacting with owners' AR filtered faces (posted
95 2019-2020) and 57 YouTube videos showing cats interacting with mirrors (posted 2012-2020). The search for
96 each kind of video was exhaustive as of June 2020. From these videos we generated ethograms of cat behaviors
97 (Online Resource 3, 4), which were largely concordant with the one from Stanton et al. (2015; see Online
98 Resource 5 for notable behaviors). We described behavioral sequences in both TikTok and YouTube videos
99 using BORIS v.7.9.8 (Friard & Gamba 2016; www.boris.unibo.it), including only those behavioral transitions
100 that occurred more frequently than chance ($p < 0.05$ from 10,000 permutations). We further grouped YouTube
101 videos into clusters based on the frequencies of cat behaviors, using a correlation distance matrix and ClusterVis
102 (Metsalu & Vilo 2015), a PCA-based clustering tool that incorporates several R packages (R Core Team 20221).
103 We assessed the ability of clusters to explain variation in cat behaviors with the R package PERMANOVA
104 (<https://cran.r-project.org/package=PERMANOVA>), using 1000 permutations. TikTok videos included
105 relatively few behaviors per sequence and we therefore excluded them from cluster analysis.

106

107 **Results**

108

TikTok videos started with cats in one of three positions relative to humans (Fig 2, upper box), two of which involved human contact. Depending on the starting position, cats looked towards the phone image (Fig 2, **Eyes towards**) in 9.2 to 54.5% of TikTok videos. Cats responded to the phone image (Fig 2, **Head towards**, lower box) in 84/145 videos (57.9% total), and in 28.3% of those did the human AR appearance change (Fig 2, **Human mouth**). Overall, the AR appearance changed in 17/145 (11.7%) of videos. The cat reacted to the AR image with ear movement 32.0% of the time, but 14.6% of cat reactions to the AR image entailed the cat looking back at the human, i.e., **Human mouth → Eyes to human** (Fig 2). However we only saw the sequence, **Heads towards → Human mouth → Eyes to human**, where we can surmise that the cat reacted first to the phone, and then to the AR image by looking at its human, in 2/145 (1.4%) of videos.

No humans were visible in the YouTube videos where cats reacted to mirror reflections. Cats often responded fearfully or aggressively (Fig 3; **Snarl → Attack; Stalk → Charge → Bushytail → Piloerection → Sidestep**). However, some cats repeatedly reared and pawed the mirror, but not aggressively (Fig 3; **Rear → Paw**). And some cats would try look behind the mirror then back at it (Fig 3; **Look back → Turn towards**), in a sequence consistent with Kraus (1949). This latter sequence would sometimes switch to (12.9%) or from (54.5%) an aggressive sequence (Fig 3).

Including only significant behaviors revealed by sequential analysis, we found five likely clusters of cat behaviors among YouTube videos (Fig 4). Each cluster was characterized by high frequencies of one or a few behaviors (red bands in Fig 4); e.g., **Turn towards** (15/57), **Paw** (13/57), **Charge** (11/57), **Sidestep** (15/57), and one other cluster that had no obvious high frequency behaviors (3/57). In two clusters, cats appeared curious (**Turn towards** and **Paw**; 49.1% of YouTube cats); cats approached their reflection and either tried to look behind the mirror or pawed at the mirror, without piloerection or other signs of aggression. Two clusters included aggressive behaviors (**Charge** and **Sidestep**; 45.6%). These five clusters explained 47.1% of the variation among significant YouTube cat behaviors (PERMANOVA $F_{4,52} = 11.57$, $p < 0.001$) and 39.6% of the variation among all YouTube cat behaviors (PERMANOVA $F_{4,52} = 8.51$, $p < 0.001$).

Discussion

Behavioral sequence analyses offered little evidence that cats “pass” MSR tests. Only 1.4% of the TikTok videos included cats who first turned to the phone image, then apparently responded to the AR filter by turning to their owners, although a larger proportion already facing the phone turned to their owners. We urge caution with even these low frequencies for several reasons. Some videos seem to show cats responding to other cues, such as the owners’ touch, e.g., when an owner’s chin touched the cat’s head. Owners could have encouraged cats with unconscious or surreptitious cues, i.e., they could have goosed their cats. In this way the TikTok videos may be subject to a Clever Hans effect (Sebok & Rosenthal 1981), where cats respond to other cues from their owners than to the phone screens, *per se* (but see Schmidjell et al. 2012). Because pet owners may be motivated to make videos that “go viral”, the frequencies we report may over-represent interesting behaviors and sequences.

With these caveats in mind, we found clusters of cat behavior sequences in YouTube cat responses to mirrors. Nearly half the cats fell into clusters involving aggressive behaviors, which has not been reported previously. About half the cats fell into clusters involving exploratory behaviors, one of which, **Turn towards**, was consistent with the pattern described by Kraus (1949). Curiosity does not by itself mean cats exhibit self-recognition but it may warrant further study. The clustered nature of responses may suggest that cat personality, or something like it, influences how cats react to mirrors. Alternatively, clusters could reflect what cat owners find worthy of social media. Variation among cats in their responses to mirrors may simply be a confound or a correlate with demographic components, like prior exposure to mirrors, cat age, or cat sex. But individual variation among cats performing cognitive tasks might be worth investigating (Thornton & Lukas 2012). Our analysis cannot determine whether the clusters reported here correlate with measured cat personalities (Litchfield et al. 2017) or other categories of behavioral responses (e.g., Vitale et al. 2019).

Our analysis of data gleaned from the internet can be viewed as a “next-gen” natural history study (Tosa et al. 2021), in this case of cats on social media, where we extrapolate patterns from observable variation in cat behavioral responses. Because these TikTok and YouTube videos lack experimental treatments and controls, we cannot adequately test MSR hypotheses. We do not know, for example, how TikTok cats respond to an unmanipulated image, or whether aggressive or curious YouTube cats respond differently if they are marked. Although some cats on social media display behaviors that may be consistent with self-recognition, there are other explanations, including general curiosity about novel individuals or images. Indeed, the ways the curious

cats investigated their reflections, by pawing at them or trying to peer behind the mirrors, indicate cats did not understand how mirrors work. But even humans can be prone to the “mirror fallacy” (Heschl & Burkart 2006); like Rufus T Firefly in the movie Duck Soup, we too sometimes explore what is – and is not – our own reflection (Shoemaker 1994; Zunshine 2018). Our observation of cats switching between behavioral patterns might indicate similar exploration.

Even with these limitations, this study analyzed over 200 cats, which points to the potential power of citizen cognitive science (e.g., Smith et al. 2021; Stewart et al. 2015). It also suggests a means of addressing MSR tests with cell phones, computer cameras, and AR filters, which could allow for very careful manipulation of reflective images, e.g., by placing any kind of mark on an animal’s image, and without the confounding effects of paint textures or anesthetization. And our study revealed distinct clusters of curious and aggressive cat responses, which may correlate to cat personalities, and which had not been previously reported.

References

- Altmann, J (1974) Observational study of behaviour: sampling methods. *Behaviour* 49:227-267.
<https://doi.org/10.1163/156853974x00534>
- Anderson JR, Gallup GG Jr (2015) Mirror self-recognition: a review and critique of attempts to promote and engineer self-recognition in primates. *Primates* 56:317-326. <https://www.doi.org/10.1007/s10329-015-0488-9>
- Boydston EE, Abelson ES, Kazanjian A, Blumstein DT (2018) Canid vs. canid: insights into coyote–dog encounters from social media. *Human–Wildlife Interactions* 12(2):233–242.
- Bungum HZ, Tan HYMM, Borker A, Hsu CD, Johns P (2022) Multiple reproductive females in family groups of smooth-coated otters. *Ethology*. <https://doi.org/10.1111/eth.13263>
- Chang L, Zhang S, Poo M-M, Gong N (2017) Spontaneous expression of mirror self-recognition in monkeys after learning precise visual-proprioceptive association for mirror images. *PNAS* 114:3258-3263.
<https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.1620764114>

197 Friard O, Gamba M (2016) BORIS: a free, versatile open-source event-logging software for video/audio coding
 198 and live observations. *Methods in Ecology and Evolution* 7:1325–1330. [https://doi.org/10.1111/2041-](https://doi.org/10.1111/2041-210X.12584)
 199 [210X.12584](https://doi.org/10.1111/2041-210X.12584)
 200 Gallup GG Jr (1970) Chimpanzees: self-recognition. *Science* 167:86-87.
 201 Gallup GG Jr (1982) Self-awareness and the emergence of mind in primates. *Am. J. Primatol* 2:237-248.
 202 <https://doi.org/10.1002/ajp.1350020302>
 203 Heschl A, Burkart JM (2006) A new mark test for mirror self-recognition in non-human primates. *Primates*
 204 47:187-198. <https://www.doi.org/10.1007/s10329-005-0170-8>
 205 Howell TJ, Bennett PC (2011) Can dogs (*Canis familiaris*) use a mirror to solve a problem? *J Vet Behav* 6: 306-
 206 312. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jveb.2011.03.002>
 207 Howell TJ, Toukhsati S, Conduit R, Bennett P (2013) Do dogs use a mirror to find hidden food? *J Vet Behav* 8:
 208 425-430. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jveb.2013.07.002>
 209 Kopp KS, Ebel SJ, Wittig RM, Haun DBM, Crockford C (2021) Small mirrors do the trick: A simple, but
 210 effective method to study mirror self-recognition in chimpanzees. *Animal Behavior and Cognition* 8:
 211 391-404. <https://doi.org/10.26451/abc.08.03.05.2021>
 212 Kraus, G (1949) Over De Psychopathologie en De Psychologie Van De Waarneming Van Het Eigen
 213 Spiegelbeeld. *Ned Tijdschr Psychol.* 4:1-37. PMID: 18131275
 214 Litchfield CA, Quinton G, Tindle H, Chiera B, Kikillus KH, Roetman P (2017) The ‘Feline Five’: An
 215 exploration of personality in pet cats (*Felis catus*). *PLoS ONE* 12(8): e0183455.
 216 <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0183455>
 217 Loong S, Yong CKS, Johns P, Plowden T, Yong DL, Lee J, Jain,A (2021) Nest predation by oriental pied
 218 hornbills *Anthracoceros albirostris* in urban Singapore. *BirdingASIA* 35: 86-91.
 219 Metsalu T, Vilo J. (2015) Clustvis: a web tool for visualizing clustering of multivariate data using Principal
 220 Component Analysis and heatmap. *Nucleic Acids Research*, 43(W1):W566–W570.
 221 <https://doi.org/10.1093/nar/gkv468>
 222 Nelson XJ, Fijn N (2013) The use of visual media as a tool for investigating animal behaviour. *Anim Behav*
 223 85:525-536. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.anbehav.2012.12.009>
 224 Nosowitz D (2013) This cat did not figure out how mirrors work. *Popular Science*.
 225 <https://www.popsoci.com/science/article/2013-04/cat-did-not-figure-out-how-mirrors-work/> Accessed 24
 226 Jan 2022.

227 Povinelli DJ, Gallup GG Jr, Eddy TJ, Bierschwale DT, Engstrom MC, Perilloux HK, Toxopeus IB (1997)
 228 Chimpanzees recognize themselves in mirrors. *Anim Behav* 53:1083-1088.
 229 <https://doi.org/10.1006/anbe.1996.0303>
 230 Plotnik JM, de Waal FBM, Reiss D (2006) Self-recognition in an Asian elephant. *PNAS* 103:17053-17057.
 231 <https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.0608062103>
 232 Prior, H., Schwarz, A., & Güntürkün, O. (2008). Mirror-Induced Behavior in the magpie (*Pica pica*): evidence
 233 of Self-Recognition . *PLoS Biol* 6(8): e202. <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pbio.0060202>
 234 R Core Team (2021) R: A language and environment for statistical computing. R Foundation for Statistical
 235 Computing, Vienna, Austria. <https://www.R-project.org/>
 236 Reiss D, Marino L (2001) Mirror self-recognition in the bottlenose dolphin: A case of cognitive convergence.
 237 *PNAS* 98:5937–5942. pmid:11331768 <https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.101086398>
 238 Schmidjell T, Range F, Huber L and Virányi Z (2012) Do owners have a Clever Hans effect on dogs? Results of
 239 a pointing study. *Front. Psychology* 3:558. <https://www.doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2012.00558>
 240 Sebeok TA, Rosenthal R (eds) (1981) The Clever Hans phenomenon: communication with horses, whales, apes,
 241 and people. *Annals of the New York Academy of Sciences* 364:309.
 242 Shoemaker S (1994) Self-Knowledge and "inner sense": Lecture I: the object perception model. *Philosophy and*
 243 *Phenomenological Research* Vol. 54:249-269. <https://www.doi.org/10.2307/2108488>
 244 Smith GE, Chouinard PA, Byosiére S-E. 2021. If I fits I sits: a citizen science investigation into illusory contour
 245 susceptibility in domestic cats (*Felis silvestris catus*). *Appl. Anim. Behav. Sci.* 240: 105338.
 246 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.applanim.2021.105338>
 247 Stanton LA, Sullivan MS, Fazio JM (2015) A standardized ethogram for the felidae: a tool for behavioral
 248 researchers. *Appl. Anim. Behav. Sci.* 173:3-16. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.applanim.2015.04.001>
 249 Stewart L, MacLean EL, Ivy D, Woods V, Cohen E, Rodriguez K, et al. (2015) Citizen science as a new tool in
 250 dog cognition research. *PLoS ONE* 10: e0135176. <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0135176>
 251 Thornton A, Lukas D (2012) Individual variation in cognitive performance: developmental and evolutionary
 252 perspectives. *Philos Trans R Soc Lond, B, Biol. Sci* 367: 2773-83. <https://doi.org/10.1098/rstb.2012.0214>
 253 Tosa MI, Dziedzic EH, Appel CL, Urbina J, Massey A, Ruprecht J, Eriksson CE, Dolliver JE, Lesmeister DB,
 254 Betts MG, Peres CA, Levi T (2021) The rapid rise of next-generation natural history. *Front Ecol Evol*
 255 9:698131. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fevo.2021.698131>

Vitale KR, Behnke AC, Udell MAR (2019) Attachment bonds between domestic cats and humans. *Current Biology*:R864-R865. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cub.2019.08.036>

de Waal FBM (2008) The thief in the mirror. *PLoS Biol* 6:e201. <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pbio.0060201>

de Waal FBM (2019) Fish, mirrors, and a gradualist perspective on self-awareness. *PLoS Biol* 17: e3000112. <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pbio.3000112>

Wetsman, N. 2019. The Snapchat cat filter shows how little we know about cat cognition. *The Verge*. <https://www.theverge.com/2019/12/14/21020648/snapchat-cat-filter-video-recognition-cognition-mirror-test>. Accessed 24 Jan 2022.

Zunshine, L. 2018. Groucho, Harpo, and narrative theory. *Style* 52: 141-147. <https://doi.org/10.5325/style.52.1-2.0141>

Figure Captions

Fig. 1 Screen captures of behavior sequence in video with cat and human with augmented reality filter. Notice the placement of the human's chin in the second (upper right) screen capture, and the movement of the human's mouth in the third and fourth (lower two) screen captures. After TikTok post by user @funny_goe 2019-11-11.

Fig. 2 Behavioral sequences of cats and owners in TikTok videos. Human behaviors (filled ovals) include contact, hug, and moving the mouth such that the AR filtered image changes ("Human mouth"). Cat behaviors (open ovals) include flicking ears ("Ears flinch") flattening ears ("Ears back"); looking away from ("Eyes away") or towards ("Eyes towards") the phone screen; turning head towards the screen ("Head towards") or moving gaze towards the human ("Eyes to human"). See ethogram (Online Resource 3) for details.

Fig. 3 Behavioral sequences of cats exposed to mirrors in YouTube videos. Sequences are coloured according to clusters in Fig. 4. See Online Resource 4 for ethogram and Online Resource 5 for notable behaviors.

Fig. 4 Heatmap of cat behaviors. Cats fell into five clusters, each typified by high frequencies of some behaviors. Labels under heatmap refer to individual videos (see Online Resource 2). See Online Resource 4 for ethogram and Online Resource 5 for notable behaviors.

Online Resource Captions

Online Resource 1 TikTok videos analyzed. We first used the search terms "cat face" and "cat face filter," and were able to locate the original viral video posted (2019-11-11) by user @funny_goe, which received over 8M views and 736.6k likes (as of Jan 2022). After clicking on its audio, titled "original sound (untitled)," we were able to find 67.8k related videos. We went down this list of videos with descending popularity as the order and only chose the videos that included cats and the cat face filter on a human. As we traverse down the list of videos, they became increasingly irrelevant to the cat face trend and we stopped data gleaning after 150 videos, 145 of which were exclusively cat videos. <https://doi.org/10.6084/m9.figshare.21080818>

Online Resource 2 YouTube videos analyzed. We first used the search terms "cat mirror", using "Relevance" as a filter. After exhausting the list of videos that consisted of cats reacting to mirrors (no human involved), we then changed the filter to "Upload date." We then went down the list, gleaning videos that were novel from the results of our first search. We stopped searching after reaching videos posted in 2012. This search yielded 57 separate instances of cats reacting to mirrors. <https://doi.org/10.6084/m9.figshare.21080929>

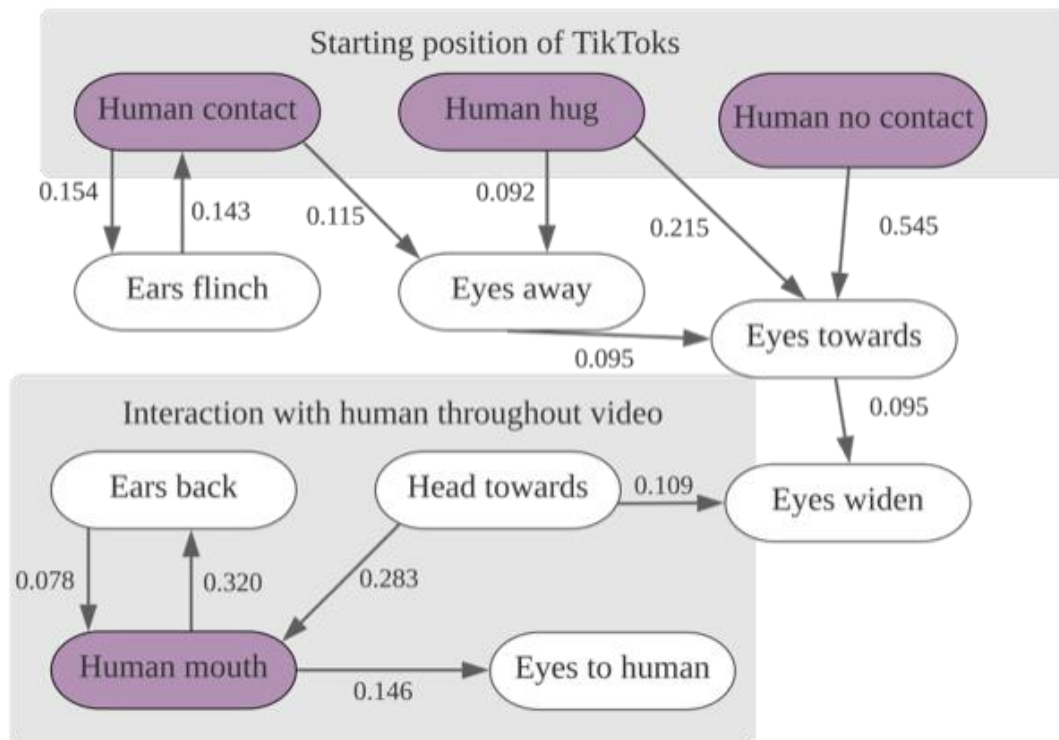
Online Resource 3 Ethogram used to analyze TikTok videos. Names and descriptions of 32 events, including 4 human behaviors, 24 cat behaviors, and 4 events related to the video itself.

Online Resource 4 Ethogram used to analyze YouTube videos. Names and descriptions of 23 cat behaviors.

Online Resource 5 Diagram of notable cat behaviors in YouTube videos whose descriptions might not do them justice (see Online Resource 4).

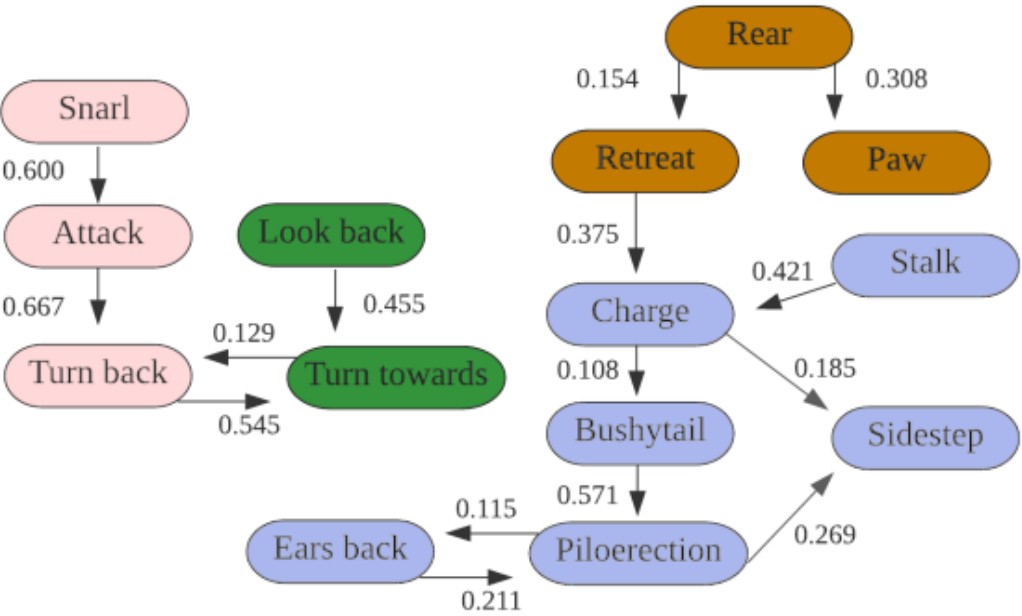


315 **Figure 2**

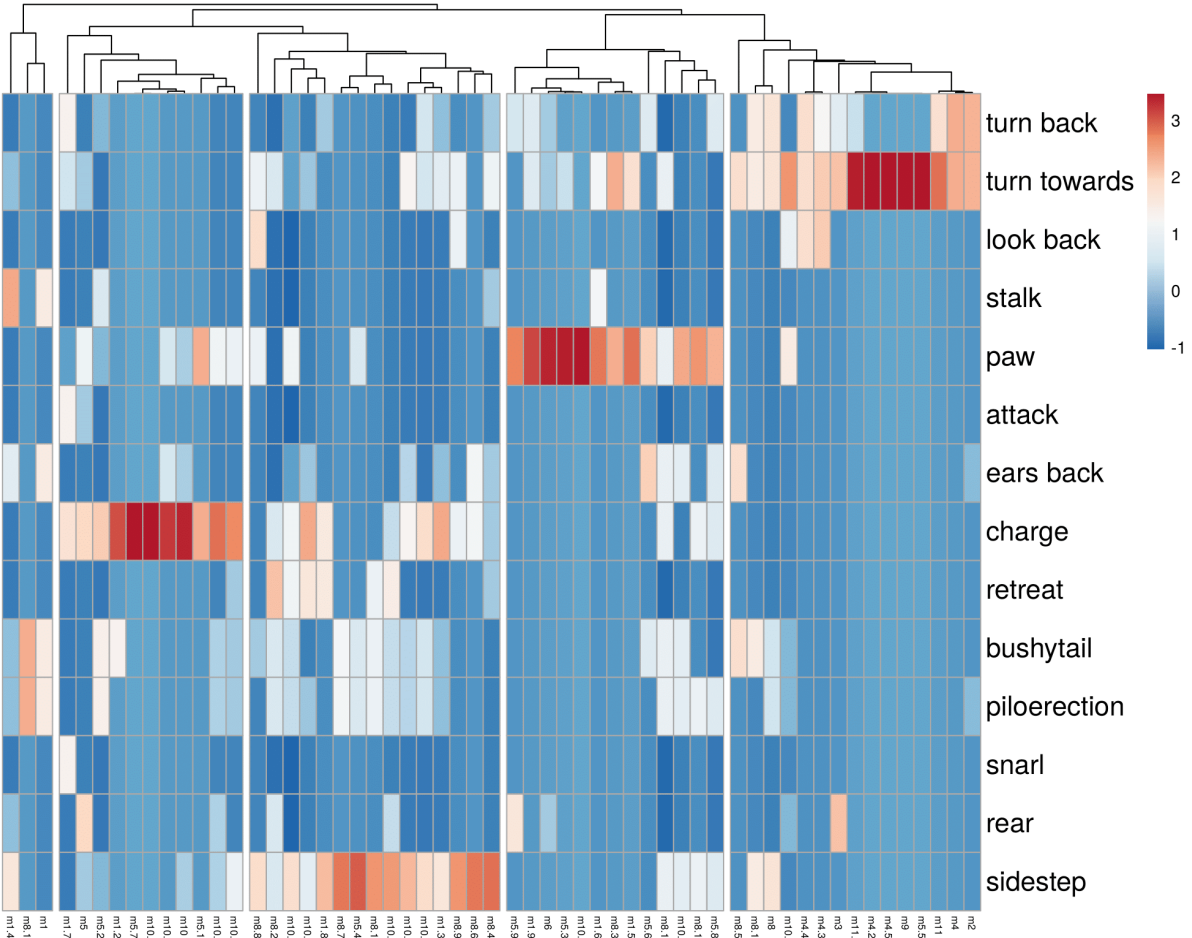


316

317



320 **Figure 4**



321