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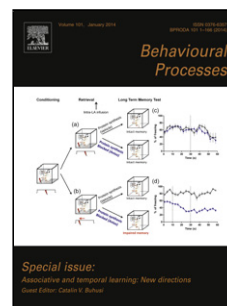
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Touchscreen performance and knowledge transfer in the red-footed tortoise*(Chelonoidis carbonaria)*

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Running Head: Touchscreen use in the red-footed tortoise

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1 **Abstract**

2 In recent years red-footed tortoises have been shown to be proficient in a number of spatial
3 cognition tasks that involve movement of the animal through space (e.g., the radial maze).
4 The present study investigated the ability of the tortoise to learn a spatial task in which the
5 response required was simply to touch a stimulus presented in a given position on a
6 touchscreen. We also investigated the relation between this task and performance in a
7 different spatial task (an arena, in which whole-body movement was required). Four red-
8 footed tortoises learned to operate the touchscreen apparatus, and two learned the simple
9 spatial discrimination. The side-preference trained with the touchscreen was maintained when
10 behaviour was tested in a physical arena. When the contingencies in the arena were then
11 reversed, the tortoises learned the reversal but in a subsequent test did not transfer it to the
12 touchscreen. Rather they chose the side that had been rewarded originally on the touchscreen.
13 The results show that red-footed tortoises are able to operate a touchscreen and can
14 successfully solve a spatial two-choice task in this apparatus. There was some indication that
15 the preference established with the touchscreen could transfer to an arena, but with
16 subsequent training in the arena independent patterns of choice were established that could be
17 evoked according to the test context.

18

19 *Keywords:* spatial cognition, touchscreen, reversal, tortoise, reptile

20

20 1. Introduction

21 The ability to navigate through space successfully and efficiently can be considered to bestow
22 a survival advantage as it allows for the successful passage between feeding grounds, sleeping
23 quarters, and so on. Most research on spatial cognition has concentrated on navigation by
24 mammals and birds (reviewed by Healy 1998). There has been less research with reptiles, and
25 much of what exists has been concerned with the study of seasonal, large-scale movements of
26 sea turtles (Dutton et al. 1999) which are guided by the use of a variety of cues, including
27 geomagnetic (e.g. Lohmann et al. 2001; 2004), visual (Avens and Lohmann 2003), and
28 celestial cues (DeRosa and Taylor, 1980). However, the majority of reptiles do not face the
29 challenge of navigation on such a scale. For example, when painted turtles (*Chrysemys picta*
30 *marginata*) were displaced a mile from their home pond they became disorientated and failed
31 to find their way back (Emlen 1969). This species can, however, navigate successfully on a
32 smaller scale. When the turtles were released 100 meters from home they were able to return
33 quickly, and did so on a direct route. The turtles appeared to be using landmarks, such as the
34 edge of a wood near the home pond, to guide their choices. This finding is perhaps
35 unsurprising as this species, like the majority of reptiles, spend their lives within a small area,
36 with which they are familiar. Research investigating small-scale navigation (for a review see
37 Mueller, Wilkinson and Hall 2011) has shown that in this case too, reptiles are able to use a
38 range of different strategies to find a goal. These are exemplified in a series of studies of
39 spatial learning in the red-footed tortoise (*Chelonoidis carbonaria*; Wilkinson et al 2007;
40 2009; Mueller-Paul et al. 2012).

41 This species is a land-dwelling chelonian, native to Central and South America. It is
42 food motivated and is considered an omnivore, although much of its diet is fruit (Strong and
43 Fragoso 2006). The red-footed tortoise is a relatively active species, and is capable of
44 travelling up to 85 m per hour (Moskovits 1985, cited by Strong and Fragoso 2006). They are
45 highly visual, appear to have good colour vision and, whenever possible, use vision to solve a

46 task (Wilkinson and Huber 2012). Their liveliness and food motivation, in addition to their
47 visual abilities (Wilkinson and Huber 2012) makes them an ideal species for studying visual
48 based spatial learning.

49 Recent research has revealed that the red-footed tortoise is able to master an eight-arm
50 radial maze, in which it is required to remember several different spatial locations within a
51 single trial (Mueller-Paul et al. 2011, 2012; Wilkinson et al. 2007). These tortoises appear to
52 be able to use room cues for navigation in a cognitive map-like manner, but they also exhibit
53 stereotypic response strategies if cues are less salient (Mueller-Paul et al. 2012; Wilkinson et
54 al. 2009). Odour, too, has been identified as a possible cue, but appears to be used only when
55 other cues are not available (Mueller-Paul et al. 2012). Although red-footed tortoises are able
56 to use different mechanisms to reach a goal they appear to prefer the first successful strategy
57 they used, even if another might be simpler under changed circumstances (Mueller-Paul et al.
58 2012). More flexibility was observed in a study by Wilkinson et al. (2010a). They showed
59 that red-footed tortoises can learn the path that leads to a goal by observing a demonstrator
60 tortoise. But the tortoises did not learn simply about the exact route followed by the
61 demonstrator as they were able to apply the principles of the task even when the path to food
62 was altered by introducing additional turns (Wilkinson & Huber 2012). To this extent, red-
63 footed tortoises have demonstrated an ability to generalize knowledge across variations of a
64 previously learned task.

65 To examine further the mechanisms controlling spatial learning in this species it will
66 be informative to test the tortoise's performance on comparable tasks in different domains. In
67 the study to be reported here we made use of a 2-dimensional (2-D) display presented on a
68 touchscreen and a traditional testing arena in which "real" 3-dimensional (3-D) objects could
69 be presented. Assessing differences and similarities of behaviour in such distinct domains has
70 the potential to tell us about the generality of spatial cognitive processes. Spontaneous transfer
71 of knowledge from one domain to another would indicate a high level of generality of the

72 acquired spatial knowledge. In particular, transfer from the touchscreen to a 3-D arena might
73 be taken to indicate that a kind of mental map could be derived from the overview of the
74 entire set-up that was provided in the touchscreen situation. A series of studies investigating
75 transfer in pigeons has revealed strong similarities between spatial learning performance on a
76 touchscreen and in a 3-D arena (reviewed by Cheng et al. 2006). For example, Kelly and
77 colleagues (e.g. Kelly & Spetch 2004; Kelly et al. 1998) demonstrated that pigeons were able
78 to use feature and geometric cues to a similar extent when presented in a 2-D schematic and in
79 a navigable 3-D environment. Further, the birds appear to use the configuration of landmark
80 arrays to do this (Spetch et al. 1996). This suggests that similar spatial learning mechanisms
81 govern the performance in these different domains, at least in this species.

82 Efficient transfer on a task of this type requires the subject to recognize that a picture
83 represents an object, and evidence of this ability in non-human animals is scanty (for a review
84 see Fagot 2000). Recently, however, picture-object recognition has been investigated in the
85 red-footed tortoise (Wilkinson et al. 2013). The findings revealed that the tortoises were able
86 to recognize a correspondence between real objects and 2-D images of them. The animals
87 were trained to distinguish colour-matched food and non-food items and were later able to
88 make the same distinction between colour photographs of similar food and non-food items.
89 Furthermore, the tortoises confused the real food items with the corresponding photographs,
90 finding it difficult to differentiate between a photograph and the 3D item that it represented,
91 suggesting similar processing of 2-D and 3-D stimuli.

92 The present study made use of the 2-D-image recognition ability of red-footed
93 tortoises in order to further investigate the mechanisms underlying tortoise spatial navigation.
94 The first stage involved training subjects on a spatial discrimination in a touchscreen task that
95 provided small-scale stimuli and a full overview of the situation. (The ability of this species to
96 touch a stimulus-defined location in order to receive a reward in a different feeder location,
97 has yet to be demonstrated; however, the proficient use of a pecking key has been shown in

98 terrapins, *Chrysemys picta picta*; Bitterman 1964; Powers et al. 2009.) We then went on to
99 study performance on a comparable test in an arena that required walking through space
100 towards one of a pair of 3-D objects. This allowed us to assess the possibility of transfer from
101 touchscreen to the arena. To investigate the possibility of transfer in the other direction, we
102 then trained subjects in the arena (the rewarded spatial position being reversed from that
103 selected in the first phase of touchscreen training) prior to a test with the touchscreen.

104 **2. Methods**

105 **2.1 Subjects**

106 Four juvenile red-footed tortoises (*Chelonoidis carbonaria* – formerly *Geochelone*)
107 with plastron lengths of 13 cm (Esme), 13 cm (Molly), 12 cm (Quinn) and 11 cm (Emily),
108 took part in the study. The tortoises' sex was unknown, as unambiguous sexual dimorphism
109 develops only later in the life of this species. The tortoises were housed as a group of four in a
110 120 x 70 cm arena, at $28 \pm 2^\circ\text{C}$ and approximately 60% humidity, with permanent access to
111 fresh water, shelter, UV light, and heat lamps. The tortoises were not food deprived. Small
112 pieces (approximately 0.5 x 0.5 cm) of preferred fruit and vegetables, such as mushroom,
113 strawberry, and sweet corn were provided as rewards during experimental sessions while a
114 variety of less preferred food types, such as cucumber, grape, and apple was offered in their
115 home enclosure after training. The same types of food rewards were used throughout the
116 different stages of the experiment. In accordance with standard husbandry practice they
117 experienced one day a week without food. All four animals had previous experimental
118 experience (see Mueller et al. 2011; Wilkinson et al. 2010a, 2010b) but they had never
119 previously been trained with a touchscreen, pecking key, or similar apparatus.

120 **2.2 Apparatus**

121 **2.2.1 Touchscreen apparatus**

122 The setup was based on the Vienna comparative cognition technology (VCCT, for
123 details see Steurer et al. 2012). A 15-inch IR “CarrollTouch” touchframe (Model D87587-
124 001, 15 in., without filter) by Elo (Menlo Park, CA; [http:// www.elotouch.com](http://www.elotouch.com)) with a
125 resolution of 1024 x 768 pixel and 32-bit colour depth was used. The software controlling
126 stimulus presentation and movement of the feeder in the learning chamber was CognitionLab
127 1.9 (see Steurer et al. 2012).

128 The touchscreen was placed in a rectangular (30 x 50 cm) Skinner box (*Figure 1*)
129 having white plastic walls (21 cm high) and a floor covered with grey, grip-ensuring, rubber
130 lining. A feeder hole was positioned in the center of the floor 2 cm from the touchscreen. The
131 feeder mechanism was located directly below the floor of the Skinner box and was driven by
132 a 24-V motor. It consisted of a round polyoxymethylene plate (diameter 47 cm) and 16 small
133 indented place-holders indicating the reward positions around the outer edge. A correct
134 response resulted in the feeder plate turning by one reward position, which resulted in a
135 reward being presented below the feeder hole, making it accessible to the tortoise. An
136 important concern in the construction of the feeder was the safety of the subjects. For this
137 reason the indentations in the feeder plate were very shallow and without sharp edges, and the
138 rotation speed was slow, so that a tortoise stepping into the feeder hole would not result in
139 injury. The touchscreen apparatus stood in the center of a 2.24 x 2.24m room that was lit with
140 two 25W fluorescent tube lights; the walls displayed a variety of posters.

141 *2.2.2 Arena apparatus*

142 The arena was a rectangle of 100 x 80 cm, with walls 40 cm high. The lower 20 cm of
143 the side walls were covered with white paper, the upper 20 cm being of transparent glass. The
144 floor was covered in wood shavings. This apparatus was positioned in a different room (2.28
145 x 2.24 m) from that used for the touchscreen apparatus and at a different spatial orientation, to
146 control for the possible use of geomagnetic cues. The room was lit by two 25W fluorescent
147 tube lights. Furnishings, wall decorations, and positions of light sources of the room differed

148 from those of the room containing the touchscreen apparatus. A separate 40 x 32 x 20 cm
149 light-grey plastic box containing a blue bowl was available for use as a reward box.

150 *2.2.3 Stimuli*

151 The digital stimuli presented on the touchscreen were: a red equilateral triangle with
152 sides of 2.5 cm presented centered and with its lower edge level with the tortoise platform;
153 two 2.5-cm diameter blue circles, presented 10 cm apart, and positioned on either side of, and
154 6 cm above, the level of the tortoise platform. All tortoises were able to reach these targets
155 without moving from a central location directly in front of the screen.

156 The physical stimuli presented in the arena were two blue bowls (diameter 8 cm,
157 height 2.5cm), positioned at one end of the arena at a distance of 50 cm from the starting
158 position, and placed 50 cm apart. They contained one piece of food each. The food in one
159 bowl was covered by a perforated, odour-permeable, transparent plastic cover. The food
160 rewards and cover were arranged so that they only became visible to the tortoise when it had
161 approached close to the bowl and thus made a choice. A black cardboard barrier (43cm long
162 and 30cm high) showing a red triangle (10 x 9.5cm) could be positioned in the center of the
163 arena. The colours of the physical and the digital stimuli were not matched for wavelength.

164 *2.3 Procedure*

165 The experiment was run over a period of 33 weeks between December 2010 and
166 August 2011. The animals were tested five days a week between 9 am and 5 pm. All training
167 and test sessions were recorded on video.

168 *2.3.1 Habituation*

169 Prior to the discrimination phases, the animals were habituated to the apparatus. The
170 tortoises were placed individually in the touchscreen box and the test arena for 30 minutes.
171 Habituation was considered complete when the animals had eaten the available food for three
172 consecutive trials. In the touchscreen box food items were freely available in the feeder hole;

173 in the arena food was provided in one blue feeding bowl in the center of the arena. All four
174 tortoises habituated to both the touchscreen and the arena apparatus within three 30-min
175 periods. Additionally, to ensure that the tortoises were habituated to the sound and vibrations
176 caused by the feeder, further trials were given in the touchscreen box with the display
177 consisting of an unchanging white screen while the feeder was operated, presenting food at
178 30-s intervals. Habituation to the feeder took four periods for Esme and Quinn, 10 for Molly
179 and 18 for Emily.

180 *2.3.2 Touchscreen pre-training*

181 Pre-training began with an autoshaping phase during which the tortoises were
182 presented with a photograph of a strawberry. This stimulus appeared at regular intervals in
183 combination with a food reward. It remained on the screen for 10 seconds, after which the
184 screen went blank. The stimulus was presented again after a 30-s inter-trial interval. Next the
185 tortoises were manually shaped using a successive approximation procedure in which the
186 experimenter triggered the feeder in response to the tortoise showing ever-closer
187 approximations to the desired behaviour of touching the stimulus on the screen. Once able to
188 touch the stimulus and initiate the release of a reward by themselves, the tortoises were put
189 through a sequence of pre-training phases, requiring first one touch on each stimulus, then
190 two touches, and then the selection of different stimuli (see Table 1). The tortoises were
191 transferred to the next phase when they had performed reliably for at least three sessions in a
192 row, or after the minimum number of sessions shown in Table 1.

193

194 *2.3.3 Touchscreen training*

195 For the subjects that successfully completed *pre-training* (2.3.2), touchscreen training
196 took place between 4 April and 6 May 2011. Each trial started with the presentation of the red
197 triangle. Once the triangle was touched it disappeared and the two blue circles appeared, the
198 circle position (either left or right) was designated as positive. The spatial position of the

199 positive stimulus was counterbalanced across individuals. If the circle on the correct side was
200 chosen, both stimuli disappeared and a reward was provided via the automatic feeder. If the
201 circle on the incorrect side was chosen the tortoise was given a 3-s time out during which the
202 screen remained empty; then the trial was repeated. Each correction trial started with the red
203 triangle. The tortoise received correction trials until the correct choice was made. Repeated
204 trials did not count in analysis of correct choices. The criterion for this phase of training
205 required a minimum of ten completed 20-trial blocks, with performance on the last three
206 blocks being above chance.

207 *2.3.4 Transfer to arena test 1*

208 Once a tortoise had successfully completed *touchscreen training* (2.3.3) it was given
209 20 test trials in the arena apparatus. Each subject was tested on two consecutive days directly
210 following the last touchscreen training day. It was placed in the arena facing the black barrier
211 showing a red triangle. The trial was started by the experimenter lifting the barrier and
212 releasing the tortoise to walk towards one of the blue bowls. The experimenter stepped out of
213 the tortoise's range of vision immediately after placing it in the arena. This was done to
214 minimize any potential experimenter influence and avoid the risk of inadvertent cueing. When
215 the tortoise approached within 5 cm of a bowl, the trial ended and the choice position was
216 recorded. The tortoise was then placed into the reward box for 30-s where it received a food
217 reward from a blue bowl, irrespective of the side chosen in the arena. Animals were given no
218 more than ten trials a day with variable inter-trial intervals. This reward procedure was
219 designed to minimize the effects of rewarding choice of a given position while maintaining
220 the animal's motivation to work in a novel environment. Between trials the wood shavings
221 covering the arena floor were redistributed to avoid the development of an odour trail leading
222 in one particular direction.

223 *2.3.5 Arena reversal training*

224 After completion of *arena transfer test 1* (2.3.4), the tortoises received reversal
225 training in the arena apparatus. The reversal training was conducted between 30 May and 11
226 July 2011. The side (left or right) that was rewarded during the *touchscreen training* (2.3.3)
227 was now unrewarded, and the opposite side was now rewarded. The procedure was identical
228 to that of *arena transfer test 1* (2.3.4) except that no separate reward box was used and
229 reinforcement was contingent on choosing the correct spatial location. If the incorrect bowl
230 was chosen the tortoise was removed from the arena and no reward was provided. The
231 criterion of mastery was the same as was used in *touchscreen training* (2.3.2); subjects
232 received ten 20-trial blocks in this phase, with performance on the last three blocks being
233 above chance.

234 2.3.6 Transfer to touchscreen test

235 After successful completion of *arena reversal training* (2.3.5) the tortoises' side
236 choice on the touchscreen was tested. They were given 20 test trials with variable ITIs spread
237 over two consecutive days directly following the last day of arena training. The procedure was
238 identical to that of *touchscreen training* (2.3.3) except that once one of the blue circles had
239 been selected the stimuli disappeared and the tortoise was subjected to a delay of between 5
240 and 10-s before receiving a food reward from the feeder, which was given irrespective of
241 which stimulus was chosen. The interval between the choice and the reward was varied to
242 simulate the procedure used in the arena test where slight differences in the time to reward
243 presentation were inevitable due to the manual transfer of the subjects from the arena to the
244 reward box. To make the measures comparable with those used in the *arena test* (2.3.4) the
245 first approach to within 0.5 cm of one of the stimuli (as recorded on video) was analyzed,
246 rather than the actual touch of the stimulus. This measure was chosen because in the arena test
247 the first approach to a bowl was recorded and analyzed.

248 2.3.7 Transfer to arena test 2

249 After the *touchscreen test* (2.3.6), the tortoises were given a second test in the arena
 250 using the same procedure as in the first arena test.

251 3. Results

252 3.1 Habituation

253 3.1.1 Acquisition of touchscreen operation

254 All four tortoises learned to operate the touchscreen and to collect rewards from the
 255 feeder. *Table 1* shows the number of sessions required by each individual to reach the
 256 criterion in each pretraining phase.

257

258 Table 1: Number of training sessions received by the tortoises for successful acquisition of the
 259 various phases of the touchscreen pretraining.

Type of training	Response required	Min. # of sessions	Esme	Quinn	Molly	Emily
Auto-shaping	Take food from feeder	3	3	10	3	12
Manual shaping	Move towards screen & start touching	2	2	2	3	3
Shaping 1	1 touch on strawberry stimulus	10	10	10	11	10
Shaping 2	2 touches on strawberry stimulus	10	10	10	10	10
Shaping 3	2 touches on circle stimulus	10	10	10	10	14
Sequence 1	Triangle and circle displayed, 1 touch on triangle, then 1 touch on correct circle	10	(20 ¹)	-	-	-
Sequence 2	1 touch on triangle, circle appears, 1 touch on correct circle	10	10	10	33 ²	24 ²

260 ¹As Esme, the first to reach this phase of sequence-training, was unable to learn the correct
 261 response to this stimulus arrangement, the training procedure was altered and the other
 262 tortoises did not engage in this phase of the training.

263 ²Tortoise training was discontinued at this stage.

264

265 3.1.2 Touchscreen training

266 Emily and Molly did not progress to this stage as they stopped working during the
267 sequence 2 stage of pretraining. The reason for this is unknown, as up to this stage they had
268 performed reliably and with levels of success comparable to those of Esme and Quinn. Esme
269 and Quinn, however, successfully met the criterion of three above-chance blocks in a row and
270 progressed to the next stage (*Figure 2a*). Above-chance performance on a block was
271 determined by a one-sided binomial test with Esme showing 18 ($p < .001$), 19 ($p < .001$) and
272 15 ($p = .041$) and Quinn 19 ($p < .001$), 17 ($p = .003$), and 20 ($p < .001$) correct responses out
273 of 20 trials.

274 *3.1.3 Transfer to the arena test 1*

275 When tested in the arena, both subjects readily approached one of the blue bowls.
276 Each showed a distinct side preference in accordance with the side it was trained initially on
277 the touchscreen (see *Figure 2b*), i.e. left side for Esme and right side for Quinn. Binomial
278 tests showed that both Esme ($p < .001$) and Quinn ($p = .012$) chose the arena side that was
279 rewarded during touchscreen training significantly more often than would be expected by
280 chance.

281 *3.1.4 Arena reversal training*

282 Esme and Quinn reached the criterion of three blocks with above-chance performance
283 within the minimum number of 200 trials (*Figure 2c*). Above-chance performance of a block
284 was determined by a binomial test with Esme showing 15 ($p = .041$), 20 ($p < .001$) and 15 (p
285 $= .041$) and Quinn 18 ($p < .001$), 17 ($p = .003$), and 18 ($p < .001$) correct responses out of 20
286 trials.

287 *3.1.5 Transfer to the touchscreen test*

288 Upon return to the touchscreen apparatus, each subject tended to choose the side on
289 which it had been trained initially in this apparatus (*Figure 2d*). Binomial tests showed that
290 both Esme ($p = .003$) and Quinn ($p < .001$) chose this side significantly more often than
291 would be expected by chance.

292 3.1.6 Transfer to the arena test 2

293 Binomial test showed that both Emily ($p = .003$) and Quinn ($p = .041$) tended to
294 choose the stimulus on the side that was rewarded during the previous phase of training
295 (reversal training) in the arena (*Figure 2e*).

296 4. Discussion

297 The results of the present experiment show that red-footed tortoises are capable of
298 learning to operate a touchscreen Skinner box. This was true of all animals and is the first
299 demonstration of such behaviour in this species, but it is in line with evidence from Bitterman
300 (1964) and Powers et al. (2009), showing that terrapins could learn to use a pecking key. This
301 suggests that tasks involving this sort of response are within the behavioural repertoire of
302 chelonia generally and opens up the possibility for further investigation into the cognitive
303 abilities of these animals.

304 The two subjects that maintained responding readily learned a simple, two-alternative
305 spatial discrimination. Further, there was some indication of an ability to transfer learning
306 from the touchscreen to a 3-D test arena in that, for the two subjects tested, both showed the
307 same side preference in the arena as that trained on the touchscreen. No firm conclusion can
308 be drawn from observations on only two subjects but this outcome is consistent with the
309 possibility that these animals were able to transfer knowledge from one domain to another.
310 Support for this possibility is provided by the fact that the ability to learn a general rule has
311 been demonstrated for this species by Wilkinson et al. (2010) and Wilkinson and Huber
312 (2012) who found that the tortoises learned the principles of a task when observing a
313 conspecific rather than following the exact path. Clearly, however, it will require further
314 work, with a larger sample of subjects, to establish that tortoises have the ability to generalize
315 across situations in way that is comparable to what has been claimed for some bird species
316 (Kelly & Spetch 2002; Kelly et al. 1998; Cheng et al. 2006).

317 Interestingly, the results of Touchscreen test 1 are suggestive of a context-specificity
318 of learning, with the appropriate pattern of behaviour being effectively “turned on” by the
319 contextual cues. This is consistent with evidence from rats indicating that the external
320 environment at the time of learning can provide retrieval cues (Bouton and Moody 2004) that
321 selectively promote the occurrence of behaviour acquired in their presence. In this
322 experiment, tortoises tested on the touchscreen after acquiring a (different) side-preference in
323 the arena, did not select the side that had been rewarded in the arena but reverted immediately
324 to the side that had been rewarded in original training in the touchscreen setup. When, after
325 this, they were given a further test in the arena they immediately switched to showing the side
326 preference that had been trained in that apparatus. Thus, the results indicate that the tortoises
327 were able to distinguish between the two apparatuses and the requirements associated with the
328 two different setups; further, the context appears to be more effective in controlling choice
329 behaviour than the training provided immediately before the test.

330 In addition to showing that tortoises have the ability to switch between different
331 choice behaviours according to context, the results indicate that they can maintain long-term
332 memory for spatial stimuli. At the time of the touchscreen test the tortoises had not been
333 exposed to the touchscreen setup for over two months during which they were involved in the
334 reversal training in the arena. Despite this break and the potential interference from the
335 reversal training, the tortoises performed significantly above chance in the touchscreen test.
336 This is in line with the findings of Davis and Burghardt (2011) who showed that turtles were
337 able to retain learned information for long periods of time.

338 In conclusion, red-footed tortoises proved able to operate a touchscreen to learn a
339 simple spatial task. The results of the initial transfer test were consistent with the possibility
340 that knowledge acquired in the touchscreen setup can be transferred to a different domain, an
341 arena. In other tests, however, the context appeared to be able to evoke appropriate behaviour,
342 without evidence of interference from what had been learned in a different context.

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348

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412 **Figure captions**

413

414 **Fig 1** *Tortoise touchscreen apparatus* (a) side view of the Skinner box, (b) top view of the

415 feeder plate (illustrations not drawn to scale)

416

417 **Fig 2** *Learning curves* for touchscreen and arena training, and test results in both setups for

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419 Highlights
420 Red-footed tortoises were successfully trained to use a touchscreen
421 Two of the tortoises learned to use the touchscreen to solve a spatial task
422 They were able to transfer their knowledge from the touchscreen to a physical arena
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