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1	Crows and common ravens do not reciprocally exchange tokens with a conspecific to gain					
2	food rewards					
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25 Abstract

26 Human economic transactions are based on complex forms of reciprocity, which 27 involve the capacities to share and to keep track of what was given and received over time. 28 Animals too engage in reciprocal interactions but mechanisms, such as calculated 29 reciprocity have only been shown experimentally in few species. Various forms of 30 cooperation, *e.g.* food and information sharing, are frequently observed in corvids and they 31 can engage in exchange interactions with human experimenters and accept delayed 32 rewards. Here, we tested whether carrion crows and common ravens would reciprocally 33 exchange tokens with a conspecific in an exchange task. Birds received a set of three 34 different types of tokens, some valuable for themselves, *i.e.* they could exchange them for a 35 food reward with a human experimenter, some valuable for their partner, and some 36 without value. The valuable tokens differed between the birds, which means that each bird 37 could obtain more self-value tokens from their partner's compartment. We did not observe 38 any active transfers, *i.e.* one individual giving a token to the experimental partner by placing 39 it in its beak. We only observed 6 indirect transfers, *i.e.* one individual transferring a token 40 into the compartment of the partner (3 no-value, 1 partner-value and 2 self-value tokens) and 67 'passive' transfers, *i.e.*, one subject taking the token lying in reach in the 41 42 compartment of the partner. Individuals took significantly more self-value tokens compared 43 to no-value and partner-value tokens. This indicates a preference for tokens valuable to 44 focal individuals. Significantly more no-value tokens compared to partner-value tokens were 45 taken, likely to be caused by experimental partners exchanging self-value tokens with the 46 human experimenter, and therefore more no-value tokens being available in the 47 compartment. Our results presently do not provide empirical support for reciprocity in 48 crows and ravens, most likely caused by them not understanding the potential roles of

- 49 receiver and donor. We therefore suggest further empirical tests of calculated reciprocity to
- 50 be necessary in corvids.
- 51
- 52 Keywords: carrion crows, common ravens, cooperation, corvids, reciprocity, token
- 53 exchange

54 Introduction

55 Human societies show a high propensity of cooperation between unrelated individuals (Fehr & Fischbacher, 2003) and the inherent evolutionary instability of 56 57 cooperation inspires a great amount of interest in researching these cooperative behaviours 58 (Axelrod & Hamilton, 1981), because individuals are not expected to invest in a cooperative 59 enterprise without a guarantee of net fitness returns. To date, the most prominent theory 60 explaining human cooperation is reciprocal altruism, based on the idea of individuals 61 engaging in actions that are costly for themselves expecting future returns (Maynard Smith, 62 1983; Trivers, 1971). The relationship between interaction partners plays a significant role 63 regarding the complexity of cooperation. In symmetry-based cooperation, interactions 64 without equivalent returns balance out over time between kin and long-term partners 65 (Berghänel et al., 2011; Dunbar, 1980). In contrast, calculated reciprocity requires keeping a 66 mental record of the debts owed and the favours given (de Waal & Luttrell, 1988), based on 67 the expectancy of a return for every costly favour given. Emotions may as well modulate 68 cooperative interactions. Attitudinal reciprocity has been suggested to take the partner's 69 general social attitude into account (de Waal, 2000) and emotionally based bookkeeping 70 allows long-term tracking of reciprocity without involving complex cognitive skills (Schino et 71 al., 2007). Therefore, different forms of cooperative behaviour in nonhuman animals are 72 expected to be based upon different cognitively challenging mechanisms depending on the 73 complexity of the social system.

74

Despite the growing research effort on cooperation in animal societies in the recent decades, it is still unclear if and to what degree, some non-human animals are also capable of cooperative interactions based on reciprocal altruism (Taborsky, 2013). Observational studies, particularly in primates, suggest reciprocity in grooming (Barrett et al., 1999; Gomes
et al., 2009; Majolo et al., 2012; Molesti, 2017; Schino et al., 2007), grooming for food (de
Waal, 1997), agonistic support (Watts, 2001), grooming for agonistic support (Carne et al.,
2011), food sharing (Wilkinson, 1984) and allonursing (Engelhardt & Weladji, 2015).

82

83 Surprisingly few experimental studies test for direct reciprocity in non-human 84 animals. In a token exchange task, individuals had to exchange tokens useless to themselves 85 but valuable to an experimental partner, in order to exchange the token valuable to them for food with the experimenter. Two orangutans (Pongo pygmaeus abelii) actively gave 86 87 numerous tokens valuable to the experimental partner and one of the orangutans routinely 88 used gestures to request tokens while the other complied with such requests (Dufour et al., 89 2009). Similarly, requests for help in a reciprocal exchange paradigm have also been 90 discussed in Norway rats (Schweinfurth & Taborsky 2018). A number of other primate 91 species (Capuchin monkeys (Sapajus apella), Tonkean macaques (Macaca tonkeana), gorillas (Gorilla gorilla), bonobos (Pan paniscus), and chimpanzees (Pan troglodytes)) tested 92 93 in a similar token exchange paradigm compared to the study in orangutans, failed to actively 94 exchange tokens and if exchanges occurred, they were mostly of 'passive' nature, i.e. a 95 subject brings a token near the common mesh wall and tolerates the partner to take it or 96 'indirect' exchanges, *i.e.* an individual places a token in the partner's compartment without 97 physical contact with the partner (Pelé et al., 2009; Pelé et al., 2010). In different 98 experimental setups, e.g. instrumental cooperation tasks, food exchange or predator 99 mobbing, rats, pied flycatchers (Ficedula hypoleuca), zebra finches (Taeniopygia guttata), 100 vampire bats (*Desmodus rotundus*), chimpanzees and working dogs (*Canis familiaris*) 101 cooperated more with previous cooperators compared to defectors (Gfrerer & Taborsky,

2018; Krams et al., 2008; Melis et al., 2008; Rutte & Taborsky, 2008; St-Pierre et al., 2009),
however direct reciprocity still requires to be studied in different species in order to gain
further insight in the social and ecology requirements facilitating the evolution of reciprocal
altruism in the wild (Taborsky 2013).

106

107 In the present study, we examined if two species of corvids, carrion crows (Corvus 108 corone corone) and common ravens (Corvus corax) were able to engage in calculated 109 reciprocity using the paradigm already used in several primate species (Dufour et al., 2009; 110 Pelé et al., 2009; Pelé et al., 2010). Various forms of naturally occurring cooperation can be 111 observed in different corvid species (e.g. coalition formation: (Heinrich, 1999), social 112 support: (Emery et al., 2007), resource or information sharing: (Bugnyar & Kotrschal, 2001; 113 de Kort et al., 2006), and cooperative breeding: (Baglione et al., 2003; Woolfenden & 114 Fitzpatrick, 1985). Cooperative propensities vary not only between but also within species, 115 depending on socio-ecological factors (Clayton & Emery, 2007). Particularly in costly 116 interactions (e.q. food sharing, agonistic encounters) corvids are very selective in choosing a 117 certain partner (Emery et al., 2007; Fraser & Bugnyar, 2010), which hints at reciprocity. In 118 corvids, long-term relationships are frequent, which makes symmetry-based reciprocity 119 likely. But also, short-term cooperative interactions exist (Fraser & Bugnyar, 2011), which 120 could be based on calculated reciprocity. Experimental studies on cooperative behaviour in 121 corvids are scarce and it remains unclear whether mutualism or reciprocal altruism is 122 involved (Massen et al., 2015b; Scheid & Noë, 2010; Seed et al., 2008). Subadult ravens and 123 crows fail to transfer valuable tokens to conspecifics, when there is nothing to gain for 124 themselves (Massen et al., 2015a; Horn et al. unpublished data) and food sharing in pinyon 125 jays (*Gymnorhinus cyanocephalus*) is not based on short-term or long-term reciprocity

126 (Duque & Stevens, 2016). In cooperative contexts, ravens have been shown to memorise 127 the outcome of an interaction with human experiments after a single interaction (Müller et 128 al., 2017). In a prisoner's dilemma task, blue jays (*Cyanocitta cristata*) failed to behave 129 reciprocally (Clements & Stephens, 1995). This is of special interest as the blue jay's inability 130 to cope with a delay of gratification causes its failure to reciprocate (Stephens et al., 2002). 131 Recently, this cognitive prerequisite of reciprocity has been successfully shown in crows and 132 ravens (Dufour et al., 2012; Hillemann et al., 2014). Crows have also demonstrated to be 133 sensitive to inequity in reward distribution and working effort (Wascher & Bugnyar, 2013) 134 and learn to differentiate between reliable and unreliable cooperation partners (Massen et 135 al., 2015b; Mueller et al., 2015; Wascher et al., 2015). This shows that corvids do possess 136 cognitive abilities necessary for reciprocal altruism and this makes them ideal candidates to 137 test this form of cooperation. Further, individuals responding stronger to unequal treatment 138 initiate less affiliative behaviour in a group context (Wascher, 2015), indicating cognitive 139 skills in crows facilitating cooperative behaviours.

140

141 In the present study, we expected the crows and ravens to learn to attribute 142 different value of tokens for different individuals and to adapt their behaviour accordingly. 143 By monitoring the occurrence of transfers, the value of tokens exchanged and the 144 alternation of roles between individuals, we aimed to assess the extent to which crows and 145 ravens may purposefully engage in reciprocal behaviours. We expect individuals to 146 preferentially exchange self-value tokens with the human experimenter. Further, we expect 147 crows and ravens to preferentially manipulate self-value and partner-value tokens, 148 compared to no-value tokens. If crows and ravens engage in reciprocal altruism, we expect 149 experimental partners to transfer partner-value tokens in a reciprocal way with each other.

- 150 Further, if focal individuals fully understand the value of different types of tokens, they
- 151 might preferentially cache partner-value tokens for future use.

152 Methods

153 Study subjects and housing

Subjects were 6 captive crows (5 carrion crows, *Corvus corone corone, 1 hooded crow, Corvus corone cornix*) at the Konrad Lorenz Forschungstelle (KLF), Austria and 2 captive ravens (*Corvus corax*) at Edinburgh Zoo, RZSS, UK. Birds were held in large outdoor aviaries, equipped with wooden perches, natural vegetation and rocks. An enriched diet consisting of fruit, vegetables, bread, meat and milk products was provided on a daily basis. Water was available *ad libitum*. For testing, subjects were voluntarily, *i.e.* they entered the experimental compartment on their own, separated in a familiar compartment.

161

162 Tokens

163 In the present experiment we used three different types of tokens. Tokens differed 164 in form, material and colour, and some could be exchanged for food in the experiment. 165 Tokens used were a triangle cut out of a blue plastic bottle screw-top, with the sides being 166 about 1 cm long, a metal screw nut, about 1 cm in diameter and a wooden triangle, with 167 sides approximately 2 cm long. In the experiment, subjects were initially given sets of 36 168 tokens, consisting of 12 items of each of the three types of tokens. In an initial training 169 phase, tokens were associated as either (a) 'self-value' tokens, which the subject could 170 exchange for a food reward with a human experimenter, (b) 'partner-value' tokens were 171 valuable to the experimental partner and valueless to the subject, and (c) 'no-value' 172 tokens were not valuable to any individual within an experimental dyad. Table 1 gives information about each subject's self-value tokens. Self-value tokens were associated semi-173 174 randomly for individuals, however experimental dyads were considered, *i.e.* individuals of a dyad had to have different self-value tokens. The wooden triangle was assigned as the no-value token for all dyads.

177

178 Training Procedure

179 All the birds were trained to exchange an item against a food reward with a human 180 experimenter and participated in different experiments applying this paradigm (Dufour et 181 al., 2012; Wascher et al., 2012; Wascher & Bugnyar, 2013). The present experiments have 182 been conducted by two human experimenters, TF and CAFW. At the beginning of each 183 training session, 12 items of each token type were placed in the experimental compartment 184 (Figure 1). A training session started with the experimenter requesting tokens by holding an 185 open hand, with palm up, next to the fence and showing the reward in the other hand. 186 Rewards were either mealworms or greaves, *i.e.* deep-fried pig grease, depending on the 187 personal preference of the birds. When a subject gave a self-value token to the human 188 experimenter, it received one piece of food reward, but did not receive a reward when 189 transferring a partner-value or no-value token to the human experimenter. When receiving 190 a token from the subject, the human experimenter placed the self-value tokens in one 191 container and the partner-value and no-value token in a different container, to illustrate the 192 difference in value to the subject. Once the bird had returned its 12 self-value tokens, the 193 training session was over. A subject was considered trained when they succeeded in giving 194 at least 90 % of the correct tokens first, during three consecutive sessions.

195

196 *Testing Procedure*

197 Testing took place in the same room as the training, divided into two testing198 compartments by a wire mesh through which subjects could interact and transfer tokens

199 with each other. In testing phase 1 (full set phase), we placed the same set of 36 tokens (12 200 self-value tokens for subject, 12 partner-value tokens, and 12 no-value tokens) in each 201 compartment. In the first part of a session, partners had the possibility to exchange self-202 value tokens with the experimenter. Once both individuals had exchanged all 12 self-value 203 tokens, the experimenter left the room for 3 minutes (min) to not influence interactions and 204 possible transfers of tokens between subjects. After 3 min, the experimenter came back for 205 a minimum duration of 3 min to give birds the opportunity for further exchanges. A session 206 ended 3 min after the last interaction, *e.g.* begging or token manipulation. During the entire 207 session, subjects could interact through the mesh. Each dyad received twelve sessions, with 208 a maximum of two sessions per day. We tested all possible pairs of individuals (3 crow 209 dyads, 1 raven dyad), with the limitation that only individuals with different self-value 210 tokens could be tested together. Testing phase 2 (reduced set phase) was similar to phase 1 211 except individuals received 12 partner-value and 12 no-value tokens but no self-value 212 tokens. Here, food could only be gained at a trial if some transfers of valuable token had 213 occurred between partners. We expected this to motivate individuals to interact with their 214 partner as the only self-value tokens available for them were in the partner's compartment. 215 Two crow and one raven dyad were tested in this phase. Testing phase 3 (re-motivation 216 phase) was similar to phase 2, but the set of tokens comprised three self-value tokens in 217 addition to the 12 partner-value and 12 no-value tokens. This was done to increase 218 motivation of subjects to participate in the session. In addition, the experimenter did not 219 leave individuals on their own after all self-value tokens have been exchanged, but stayed 220 for three minutes after the last interaction with any token. Eight crow dyads were tested in 221 this phase. Different test phases have been designed to increase motivation to exchange 222 tokens between experimental partners, *e.g.* by reducing the number of self-value tokens.

223

224 Video Processing

225 Test sessions have been video-recorded and were analysed using Solomon Coder 226 version beta 17.03.22 (©András Péter, <u>www.solomoncoder.com</u>). The behaviours recorded 227 during testing sessions were (a) exchange with experimenter: a subject passes a token 228 through the mesh to the experimenter; (b) transfer with partner: a subject obtains a token 229 that was originally in its partner's compartment; we distinguished between 'passive 230 transfer', *i.e.* one subject taking the token from the compartment of the partner, facilitated 231 by the experimental partner dislocating the tokens closer to the wire mesh, e.g. by stepping 232 on them or moving them through beak movement. 'Indirect transfer', *i.e.* a token is placed 233 in the partner's compartment and 'active transfer', *i.e.* a token is placed directly into the 234 partner's beak; (c) manipulation of tokens: a subject is manipulating a token with its beak or 235 feet. (d) caching of tokens: a subject cached a token somewhere in its own compartment. 236 The frequency of all these behaviours were recorded.

237

238 Data analysis

239 All data were analysed using R version 3.5.3 (R Core Team 2015). We conducted 240 Friedman and Wilcoxon signed-rank tests to calculate whether subjects showed an initial 241 preference returning a specific token type more than others in the first training session. 242 Results of all tests are given two-tailed and significance was set to α = 0.05. In order to 243 investigate how frequency of behaviour was affected by phase of the experiment and type of token, we conducted four generalized linear mixed models (GLMMs) with poisson error 244 245 distribution. Models were calculated using the glmmADMB package (Skaug et al., 2013). The 246 response variables were exchanges with the human experimenter (GLMM1), passive

247	transfers between individuals (GLMM2), frequency of token manipulations (GLMM3) and
248	frequency of caching a token (GLMM4). Experimental phase (1, 2 and 3), type of token (self-
249	value, partner-value, no-value), and the interaction between phase and type of token was
250	included as fixed factors. In models where the interaction between phase and type of token
251	was non-significant it was subsequently removed from the model (Engqvist, 2005). For each
252	model, we fitted individual identity as a random term to control for the potential
253	dependence associated with multiple samples from the same individual.
254	
255	Results
256	Initial training phase
257	Crows needed on average (\pm standard deviation) 7.66 \pm 2.65 sessions and ravens on
258	average 11.5 \pm 3.53 sessions to reach the discrimination criterion, <i>i.e.</i> preferentially
259	returning their self-value token to the human experimenter.
260	
261	Exchange with experimenter and partner
262	Individuals gave more no-value tokens to the human experimenter compared to
263	partner-value tokens in phase 3, but not the other experimental phases (Table 2; Figure 2).
264	
265	In our experiment, we did not observe any active transfers, <i>i.e.</i> one individual giving
266	a token to the experimental partner by placing it in its beak. We only observed 6 indirect
267	transfers, <i>i.e.</i> one individual transferring a token into the compartment of the partner (3 no-
268	value, 1 partner-value and 2 self-value tokens) and 67 'passive' transfers, <i>i.e.</i> , one subject
269	taking the token from the compartment of the partner. More passive transfers occurred in
270	phase 1 compared to phase 2, but not significantly different between phase 2 and 3 and

phase 1 and 3. Individuals took significantly more self-value tokens compared to no-value
and partner-value tokens and significantly more partner-value tokens compared to no-value
tokens (Table 2, Figure 3). Most of the transfers (indirect and passive) were observed by one
individual (Klaus taking tokens from the other compartment in 56 out of 73 occasions).

275

276 Manipulation and caching of tokens

277 In order to investigate whether focal subjects showed a preference for a specific 278 token type, we investigated whether they cached or manipulated certain types of tokens 279 more than others. Individuals manipulated tokens more in phase 1 compared to phase 2, 280 but no significant difference was found in frequency of manipulation between phase 2 and 3 281 as well as between phase 1 and 3. Individuals manipulated self-value tokens more often 282 compared to partner-value and no-value tokens and no-value tokens more often compared 283 to partner-value tokens (Table 2). Individuals cached no-value tokens more often compared 284 to self-value tokens, but not significantly different to partner-value tokens and partner-285 value tokens compared to self-value tokens. Individuals cached significantly more in phase 1 286 compared to phase 3, but no significant difference was detected between phase 1 and 2 as 287 well as between phase 2 and 3 (Table 2; Figure 4).

288

289

291 Discussion

292 Both, ravens and crows learned to distinguish their self-value tokens among three 293 different types of tokens. They preferentially exchanged those tokens with the 294 experimenter. The number of sessions required to reach the criterion for being considered 295 trained is comparable to those found in primates (Pelé et al., 2009; Pelé et al., 2010). We 296 recorded no active transfers between experimental partners and only a very limited number 297 of indirect transfers. Most of the transfers were passive transfers, so one individual taking a 298 token from the compartment of the partner, which was only possible for those tokens 299 placed close to the wire mesh. Our results are comparable to previous results in monkeys 300 and apes, except orangutans, which show calculated reciprocity in exchanges of tokens 301 (Dufour et al., 2009; Pelé et al. 2009; Pelé et al., 2010). Therefore, it has to be considered, 302 although orangutans exchanged tokens in a reciprocal way, the presented experimental 303 design might be too complicated for other species of non-human animals, as it requires 304 understanding of different values of tokens. The use of alternative paradigms, such as 305 instrumental cooperation tasks (Gfrerer & Taborsky, 2018; Rutte & Taborsky, 2007), might 306 be preferable. We further recommend future studies applying the token exchange paradigm 307 to consider introducing an additional training phase, during which the experimental 308 partners are trained to exchange tokens amongst themselves, as most species tested in the 309 paradigm until now, did not spontaneously start exchanging tokens amongst themselves.

310

Passive transfers were facilitated by the experimental partner dislocating the tokens closer to the wire mesh, *e.g.* by stepping on them or moving them through beak movement. Displacements have been accidental and no intend to move the tokens closer to the experimental partner could be identified. Most of these passive transfers have been 315 conducted by one individual (Klaus; 56 out of 73 occasions), further supporting the view 316 that the observed passive transfers do not reflect a general pattern of one individual giving 317 tokens to an experimental partner. We suggest that rather than showing purposeful 318 manipulation of the tokens valuable to their partners near the common mesh so that they 319 could benefit from them, a parsimonious hypothesis is that the potential roles of 320 receiver and donor in our experiment have not been understood by subjects. However, one 321 interesting aspect regarding the passive transfers is the fact that the experience of being 322 able to acquire valuable tokens from the compartment of the experimental partner, did not 323 elicit any further behavioural interactions between subjects. Although in very low numbers, 324 five out of nine experimental dyads experienced indirect transfers and three out of nine 325 dyads experienced passive transfers. Therefore, more than half of the dyads had 326 opportunities to learn about the possibility to exchange tokens between experimental 327 partners. Common ravens previously have shown to memorise the outcome of cooperative 328 interactions with human experiments after a single interaction (Müller et al., 2017), 329 therefore it could have been expected that our crows and ravens learn to exchange with an 330 experimental partner after a limited amount of interactions.

331

We did not find evidence for our crows and ravens to develop a preference, shown by transferring, exchanging, manipulating or caching more partner-value tokens compared to no-value tokens. A preference for specific type of tokens has previously been shown in primate studies, which describe subjects to attribute more value to types of tokens which have been observed to be valuable to other individuals (Brosnan & Waal, 2004; Pelé et al., 2009; Pelé et al., 2010). Object manipulation in common ravens has been previously shown to be socially facilitated, *i.e.* individuals to manipulate objects more which have been 339 previously manipulated by a social partner (Schwab et al., 2008), therefore we would have 340 expected crows and ravens in the present study to develop a stronger preference to 341 manipulate partner-value tokens more. Previous studies in ravens suggest enhanced social 342 facilitation between affiliated individuals (Schwab et al., 2008). Due to the small sample size, 343 we did not consider affiliation status between experimental pairs in the present study. In 344 the first training session, we did find an initial preference for no-value tokens (wooden 345 triangles) compared to any other token type and generally the number of interactions with 346 tokens, *i.e.* manipulation, caching, passive transfers, did decrease in the course of the 347 experiment, indicating the crows and ravens do lose interest.

348

349 The absence of active transfers makes it difficult to evaluate whether partners 350 understood the potential value of the token to their experimental partner. Great apes, 351 previously have been observed to engage in solicitation or the use of begging behaviours, 352 such as pointing and holding-out-hand gestures (Dufour et al., 2009; Pelé et al., 2009; 353 Yamamoto et al., 2009). We could not identify specific solicitation or begging behaviours in 354 our focal individuals. Occasionally, we have observed individuals approaching their 355 experimental partner and looking at the partner's tokens, however these behaviours were 356 difficult to identify and did not occur regularly enough to be systematically analysed.

357

To summarise, although cooperative behaviours including the sharing of food has been described in corvids (de Kort et al., 2003; Emery et al., 2007) in our experiment, crows and ravens did not exchange tokens with each other. Similar experiments have previously shown that crows and juvenile ravens do not exchange tokens with experimental partners, when there is nothing to gain for themselves (Horn et al. unpublished data; Massen et al.,

363	2015a). A limited amount of indirect and passive transfers provided learning opportunities
364	for individuals, however they did not result in an increase in active and indirect transfers.
365	More studies are required to further examine the ability of corvids to engage in reciprocal
366	actions.
367	
368 369 370 371 372 373 374 375 376 377	Conflict of Interest: The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest

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528 Table 1: Subjects sex (M = male, F = female), age (year of hatching), self-value token and

Subject	Sex	Age	Species	Self-value token	Dyads (phase 1)	Dyads (phase 2)	Dyads (phase 3)
Baerchen	М	2008	Carrion crow	blue plastic	Peter	NA	Resa, Peter, Gabi
Gabi	F	2007	Carrion crow	screw nut	Klaus	Klaus	Klaus, Baerchen
Gertrude	F	2011	Hooded crow	blue plastic	NA	NA	Resa, Peter
Klaus	М	2009	Carrion crow	blue plastic	Resa, Gabi	Resa, Gabi	Resa, Peter, Gabi
Peter	F	2007	Carrion crow	screw nut	Baerchen	NA	Gertrude, Baerchen, Klaus
Resa	F	2009	Carrion crow	screw nut	Klaus	Klaus	Klaus, Getrude, Baerchen
Hugo	Μ	2003	Common raven	screw nut	Manon	Manon	NA
Manon	F	1990	Common raven	blue plastic	Hugo	Hugo	NA

529 experimental partners in each experimental phase.

- 530 NA: individual did not participate in this testing phase

- 536 Table 2 Results of the generalized mixed linear model investigating factors affecting
- 537 exchange behaviour with human experimenter. Significant values ($p \le 0.05$) are highlighted in
- 538 bold.

	Parameters	Estimate ± SE	Ζ	p
Exchange with	Intercept	1.98 ± 0.35	5.53	<0.001
human	Type of token	-0.98 ± 0.19	-5.1	<0.001
experimenter	Phase 2	-18.44 ± 2116	-0	0.993
	Phase 3	-0.01 ± 0.23	-0.08	0.934
	Type of token*phase 2	16.89 ± 211	0	0.993
	Type of token*phase 3	-1.21 ± 0.47	-2.56	0.01
Passive	Intercept	-0.71 ± 0.53	-1.33	0.182
transfers	Type of token (partner- value)	-1.86 ± 0.64	-2.88	0.003
	Type of token (self- value)	0.92 ± 0.28	3.27	0.001
	Phase 2	-2.1 ± 0.47	-4.46	<0.001
	Phase 3	-14.22 ± 140.9	-0.1	0.919
Frequency of	Intercept	-0.71 ± 0.53	-1.33	0.182
manipulation	Type of token (partner- value)	-1.86 ± 0.64	-2.88	0.003
	Type of token (self- value)	0.92 ± 0.28	3.27	0.001
	Phase 2	-2.1 ± 0.47	-4.46	<0.001
	Phase 3	-14.22 ± 140.9	-0.1	0.919
Frequency of	Intercept	0.86 ± 0.45	1.9	0.056
caching	Type of token (partner- value)	-0.1 ± 0.16	-0.64	0.516
	Type of token (self- value)	-1.8 ± 0.37	-4.78	<0.001
	Phase 2	0.18 ± 0.18	0.98	0.322
	Phase 3	-1.1 ± 0.23	-4.73	<0.001

Figure 1: Layout of the experimental set-up. Two testing subjects were separated by a common mesh (vertical dashed line). In the training and phase 1 of the experiment, each subject had the same number of tokens, 12 self-values, 12 partner-values and 12 no-values that were placed in each compartment out of reach of the partner. Tokens could be transferred through the wire mesh or exchanged with the human experimenter through an hole in the wire mesh (horizontal dashed line).



Figure 2: Number of tokens ± standard deviation and actual data points, given to the
experimenter in different experimental phases by each focal individual of a dyad. Dots
represent individual data points and darker colours indicate overlapping data points.



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- Figure 3: Sum of tokens taken by subjects from their partner's compartment (passive
- transfers) in each experimental phase ± standard deviation.





579 Figure 4: Frequency of caching depending on token type and experimental phase ± standard



