

# Mother–pup recognition mechanisms in Australia sea lion (Neophoca cinerea) using uni- and multi-modal approaches

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## 1 **REVIEW**

- 2 Mother-pup recognition mechanisms in Australia sea lion (Neophoca cinerea) using uni- and
- 3 multi-modal approaches.
- 4 Isabelle Charrier<sup>1\*</sup>, Benjamin J. Pitcher<sup>2,3</sup> and Robert G. Harcourt<sup>2</sup>

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#### 16 Abstract

Communication is the process by which one emitter conveys information to one or several 17 receivers to induce a response (behavioral or physiological) by the receiver. Communication 18 19 plays a major role in various biological functions and may involve signals and cues from different sensory modalities. Traditionally, investigations of animal communication focused 20 on a single sensory modality, yet communication is often multimodal. As these different 21 22 processes may be quite complex and therefore difficult to disentangle, one approach is to first study each sensorial modality separately. With this refined understanding of individual senses, 23 revealing how they interact becomes possible as the characteristics and properties of each 24 25 modality can be accounted for, making a multimodal approach feasible. Using this framework, researchers undertook systematic, experimental investigations on mother-pup recognition 26 27 processes in a colonial pinniped species, the Australian sea lion Neophoca cinerea. The 28 research first assessed the abilities of mothers and pups to identify each other by their voice using playback experiments. Secondly they assessed whether visual cues are used by both 29 30 mothers and pups to distinguish them from conspecifics, and / or whether females discriminate the odor of their filial pup from those from non-filial pups. Finally, to understand 31 32 if the information transmitted by different sensory modalities is analyzed synergistically or if 33 there is a hierarchy among the sensory modalities, experiments were performed involving different sensory cues simultaneously. These findings are discussed with regards to the active 34 space of each sensory cue, and of the potential enhancements that may arise by assessing 35 information from different modalities. 36

37

38 Keywords: communication, sensory modalities, multimodal recognition, Australian sea lion

#### 39 Introduction

Animal communication is the process by which one emitter conveys information to 40 one or several receivers that elicits a response (behavioural or physiological) that is beneficial 41 42 to the emitter, the receiver or to both (Shannon and Weaver 1949). Communication plays a major role in crucial biological functions such as parental care, mate choice, anti-predator 43 44 behaviour and in the regulation of social interactions (Bradbury and Vehrencamp 2011). One 45 or multiple senses can be involved in such communication: e.g. hearing, vision, touch, and olfaction. The use of a particular sensory modality will mostly depend on the expected range 46 47 for such communication (short- or long range), intended receivers (public vs private 48 communication), the physical properties of sensory cues or signals (propagation, localization, nocturnal use, persistence in the environment) and the physical structure of the environment 49 50 in which the information is transmitted (Alcock 1998).

Investigations of animal communication have traditionally focused on a single sensory modality, although communication is likely to involve multiple modalities (Partan and Marler 2005; Partan et al. 2013; Starnberger et al. 2014). As these processes can be complex and therefore it is difficult to disentangle the relative importance of each sensory modality, a first step is to study each sensory modality separately. With a refined understanding of individual senses, it is then possible to examine interactions between modalities while accounting for the characteristics and properties of each modality.

58 Signals or cues? In the literature, the difference between cues and signals is linked to 59 their origin (Bradbury and Vehrencamp 2011). Signals have evolved for the purpose of 60 communication, whereas cues can provide information on the emitter but they have not 61 specifically evolved to transmit such information. Information provided by cues are the result of a

62 by-product of inherent anatomical characteristics to the emitter (Bradbury and Vehrencamp 2011). In regards to Australian sea lions, vocalizations are clearly signals that have evolved for 63 communication purposes and they transmit information about the emitter to the receiver. For 64 olfactory information, it is difficult to conclude on their origin and thus if they have evolved to 65 66 transmit information or they are a by-product of the animals' physiology and microbiota. Olfactory information can be either a signal or a cue. Visual information described in our 67 review are related to the color of the pelage, so it can be clearly defined as a cue. Since all 68 signals are cues, but all cues are not signals, to facilitate the discussion in a multimodal 69 70 context, we will use the term "cues" throughout this review.

71 The information obtained by a receiver from multimodal cues is likely to be greater 72 than from a unimodal cue. Multimodal cues can contain redundant information across channels or nonredundant information. Redundant cues are more likely to transmit 73 information if one channel is noisy or occluded (e.g. high background noise, confusion arising 74 from seeing multiple individuals in a crowded colony), and a secondary channel is less 75 constrained. Redundancy of information, within and among sensory modalities, is a way to 76 77 ensure the detectability of accurate information, and thus increase the reliability of information transfer (Partan and Marler 2005). By contrast, nonredundant cues permit more 78 79 information to be transmitted per unit time (Partan and Marler 2005). How a detected cue 80 will modify receiver behavior is likely to be influenced by whether it contains redundant or nonredundant information. For example, a redundant cue may elicit an equivalent response 81 82 to its unimodal components, or it may trigger an enhanced response where multiple 83 modalities exist (Partan and Marler 1999). Similarly, when nonredundant information is present independent responses to each component may occur, or a response to one 84 component may be dominant over the other. Further there may be modulation of a response 85

(similar to enhancement) or a different response type could emerge (Partan and Marler 1999).
How an individual responds to a multimodal cue is likely to be influenced by the sequence in
which it encounters the components of the cue, which may be governed by the active space
of that modality. Components that are encountered first are typically processed ahead of
other signals and may dominate other cues. It is also likely that long-range components of
cues serve to attract individuals for closer assessment of shorter-range components (Uy and
Safran 2013).

Cues in different sensory modalities are likely to be subject to different production and 93 propagation, and perceptual constraints, and thus have different active spaces in the 94 95 environment. Acoustic cues have a short temporal component, can be degraded and attenuated by complex physical structure, but can have high information content and 96 97 localizability. Visual cues have a long temporal component, can transmit over long distances 98 again subject to physical impediments, and have moderate information content and 99 localizability. Olfactory cues have a moderate to high temporal component, may disperse 100 through complex topography and retain high information content but variable localizability.

Using this framework, our team undertook experimental investigations of the motherpup recognition processes in a colonial pinniped species, the Australian sea lion *Neophoca cinerea*. This species has a unique breeding cycle among pinnipeds and mammals, as they do not breed annually but every 18 months, with breeding colonies being asynchronous (Marlow 105 1975; McIntosh and Pitcher 2021). Like all otariid species, females nurse only their filial pup, 106 reject any non-filial pup, and leave their pup only a few days after parturition to forage at sea. 107 This means that rapid development of mother-pup recognition is under strong selection so

that mother and pup can successfully reunite after the female returns from her first foraging
sea trip. Reunions are a step-by-step process involving acoustic, visual and olfactory cues.

Here we review the different field-based experimental studies undertaken to 110 investigate mother-pup recognition in Australian sea lions, its establishment and processes 111 using both unimodal and multimodal investigations. We review the experiments that have 112 been conducted involving multiple sensory modalities individually and simultaneously to 113 114 better understand if information transmitted by different sensory modalities are analyzed synergistically by the receiver or if there is a sequential process among the sensory modalities 115 used during individual recognition. These findings are discussed within the context of the 116 117 active space of each sensory signals/cues, and of the potential enhancement arising from 118 assessing information from different modalities. The mother-pup communication system of 119 the Australian sea lion is one of the most comprehensively studied mammalian 120 communication systems and so provides a comparative basis from which to investigate other 121 mammalian communication systems.

122

123 Individual recognition in an unimodal context

#### 124 Vocal recognition

As with other pinniped species, Australian sea lion mothers and pups produce a typical vocalization unique to mother-pup interactions, while in close contact or when reuniting after a separation. These contact calls, namely the pup attraction call (PAC) produced by mothers, and the mother attraction call (MAC (Figure 1) are produced as soon as at birth. These calls have been shown to be individual-specific, with spectral features and the frequency

modulation pattern being the most individually stereotyped acoustic variables (Charrier andHarcourt 2006).

Using playback experiments where natural or synthetic calls are broadcast and the 132 133 behavioural response of tested subjects is measured (Figure 2), we demonstrated that vocal 134 recognition is mutual between mothers and pups in Australian sea lions. Mothers are able to perform vocal discrimination within 48 hours after parturition (Pitcher et al. 2010), but pups 135 136 were not able to learn to identify their mother's voice before the end of the perinatal period when they experience their first separation from their mothers (Pitcher et al. 2009). However, 137 when tested at 2-months old, pups were able to recognize their mother's voice. This means 138 139 that during the first weeks after birth mother-pup reunions are led by mothers only and pups only participate more actively in reunions at a later stage when they have developed their 140 141 vocal discrimination abilities. The density of most breeding colonies is relatively low compared 142 to those found in fur seal breeding colonies, and Australian sea lion pups usually stay near their birth site for the first two months of life (Marlow 1975). These characteristics facilitate 143 144 the localization of the pup (birth site acting as spatial cues) and thus the success of motherpup reunions as the risk of confusion between individuals is reduced in low density colonies 145 (Insley et al. 2003). 146

Using playback tests with modified and synthetized calls, our team investigated the individual vocal signatures involved in mother-pup recognition, and showed that both mothers and pups use the absolute frequency values of the call as well as amplitude and frequency modulations (Charrier et al. 2009; Pitcher et al. 2012b). Fast amplitude modulations present in their calls facilitate the localization of the emitter in the colony, and frequency modulations are quite resistant to degradations during propagation. Propagation tests

revealed that calls can reliably propagate in their natural environment up to 32 meters (Charrier et al. 2009; Pitcher et al. 2012b), a functional distance as females always return to their birth site or the last suckling spot when returning from their foraging trip at sea.

156

#### 157 Olfactory recognition

158 During reunions with their young, otariid females always perform nose to nose contacts to check the identity of their pups before accepting the pup to suckle (Riedman 1990; 159 Insley et al. 2003). These final checks using olfactory cues are also performed by Australian 160 161 sea lion mothers during reunions with their pups (Marlow 1975). Females presented with a two-choice test using pup models, one impregnated with the scent of the filial pup and 162 another with those of a non-filial pup, were able to discriminate their own pup's scent from 163 164 those of a non-filial pup (Pitcher et al. 2011b). It is likely that pups can recognize their mother's scent as it is quite common to see pups sniffing asleep females while searching for their 165 166 mother in the colony. However, it remains necessary to assess if such individual recognition is also found in pups, and when such olfactory discrimination is established after parturition. 167 Some preliminary tests have been done on pups in a two-choice test where pups had to 168 approach and sniff two pieces of cotton gloves, one impregnated with the mother's body scent 169 170 and the other one with the scent of another female of the colony. Pups were scared of the 171 experimental apparatus and did not approach the gloves to sniff it, so further experimental 172 designs have to be developed and tested. Female models can not be used as a pup would 173 never approach a female that is not the mother, as they can get bitten by non-mother females.

174 Chemical analyses on pups' body scent revealed some differences in chemical 175 compounds between cephalic (eyes, mouth, nose) and non-cephalic (back) areas in both pre-

176 molt and post-molt pups (Wierucka et al. 2019b). The different cephalic areas were however 177 very similar. General body scent of pups <u>also</u> seems <del>also</del> to change with age, likely due to differences in their behavior as older pups (post-molt) spend more time in water compared to 178 younger ones. Detection of chemical compounds linked to vegetation and microbiota activity 179 in their chemical profiles suggests that body odor is greatly influenced by environmental 180 181 compounds. This hypothesis has been reinforced by the fact that differences in chemical 182 profiles of Australian sea lions from two breeding colonies are also driven by environmental 183 compounds (Wierucka et al. 2019a). Finally, analysis of mother-pup pairs chemical profiles revealed a lack of similarity (Wierucka et al. 2019a) in contrast to that found in Antarctic fur 184 seals (Stoffel et al. 2015). It appears that Australian sea lion mothers learn to recognize the 185 body smell of their young. Because of this lack of similarity between mother-pup pairs, direct 186 187 familiarization with the scent rather than phenotype matching seems to be the most likely mechanism for olfactory individual recognition. 188

189

#### 190 Visual discrimination

191 Australian sea lion have a prolonged pupping season that can last up to nine months (Ling and Walker 1978; McIntosh and Pitcher 2021), thus pups of different age classes -192 193 showing different body size and fur color pattern - can occur at the same time in the colony. 194 For their first two months of life, pups are small and have black pelage, between two to four 195 months, they become larger with a cinnamon to brown pelage, and around four-month of age, 196 they molt to a silver-beige pelage like adult females (Figure 3). These morphological 197 differences could be used by females to perform an initial discrimination when coming back from sea and searching for their pups often gathering with others in crèches. In order to 198

199 investigate if Australian sea lion mothers do use these visual cues to facilitate the reunion with 200 their pup, females were presented a two-choice test, one pup model matching the size and 201 pelage color of their own pup and another pup model of a different age-class (different size and pelage color). Females showed a clear preference towards the pup model matching their 202 203 own pup's age class, they approached it first and did not show any aggressive behaviors. By 204 contrast, if they approached the non-matching pup model, they were very aggressive towards 205 it (bites and/or aggressive vocalizations)(Wierucka et al. 2017). This experiment clearly 206 showed that Australian sea lion mothers can use visual cues to categorize pups' by their age 207 class, and this might facilitate the reunion with their pups. At this stage, it is still unknown if body size and color pelage are both used by females, or if one visual cue might be more 208 209 important than the other. Further investigations are needed to address those remaining 210 questions.

211 Similarly, pups showed a different behavioral response when presented with a female 212 or a pup model. Pups were highly vigilant and moved away when presented with a female 213 model, whereas they stayed in a resting position when tested with a pup model. As shown 214 with females, pups could categorize age-class (adult vs pup) based solely on their visual 215 characteristics (Wierucka et al. 2018a) and behave accordingly. This visual discrimination can 216 be quite important for the pup's survival as approaching a non-mother female might induce 217 injuries. Indeed, as seen in most otariids, Australian sea lion mothers reject and can be very aggressive towards non-filial pups that approach them (Marlow 1972; Harcourt 1992b, a). 218

219

#### 220 Multimodal Context

- 221
- Bimodal experiments in pups

222 Australian sea lion pups are highly responsive to their mother's calls. To assess whether adding 223 visual cues during a playback experiment of their mother's calls would enhance their vocal responses pups were presented with either a female model (visual cue), their mother's call 224 (acoustic cue) or both cues simultaneously (Table 1). Models were constructed with synthetic 225 226 fur of suitable colors and polyester filling, and supported with an internal wire frame to 227 maintain an upright posture (Figure 5). The female visual cue alone did not elicit any vocal 228 response, and the mother's calls alone or paired with the female elicited strong vocal 229 responses. The vocal responsiveness of pups when a visual cue was added to the mother's calls did not increase suggesting that the visual female model did not enhance the vocal 230 responses of the pups (Wierucka et al. 2018a). 231

232 Using artificial models as visual cues only provides information on the type of individuals, e.g. 233 adult vs. young, female vs. male, but not at the individual level (i.e. the mother of the tested 234 pup), so this explains why pups would not respond to the female model presented alone, as 235 pups risk being bitten by non-mother females. Acoustic cues carry information at an individual 236 level, allowing pups to identify their mother. It was expected that mother's calls combined with a female model would have induced a stronger or faster response, as this would indicate 237 to the pup that the mother had returned from the sea. If the pup identified the female model 238 239 as a non-mother and thus as a potential threat, a strong response similar to those obtained with calls alone, would not have been observed. 240

Despite advances in our understanding of pinniped sensory systems, the visual capabilities of pinnipeds to identify conspecific individuals remains unknown (Hanke et al. 2021). However, it is most likely that their visual system will allow the pinnipeds to recognize individuals visually especially in bright light conditions

245

#### Multimodal experiments in mothers

Having experimentally confirmed the use of acoustic, olfactory and visual cues in pup's individual recognition and reunions, our team aimed to test combined effects, and then their interactions and relative importance. Two series of experiments were conducted.

249 The first consisted of presenting different sensory filial cues to females in a similar way 250 to what they are naturally exposed to during mother-pup reunions: i.e. the acoustic cues are 251 the first cues received by mothers while searching for their pups, and then visual cues, and 252 finally they can check olfactory cues when in close contact with their pups. Females were 253 presented with acoustic cue alone, acoustic and visual cues, and acoustic, visual and olfactory 254 cues. Vocal and olfactory cues are individual cues whereas the visual cue is not an individual 255 cue (age-class cue only). The behavioral responses of females, such as investigations of a pup model (i.e., sniffs) and vocalizations, were compared between these three different stimulus 256 257 combinations (Table 2). The number of sniffs towards the pup model increased with the 258 number of sensory cues presented to mothers, however this was not the case for the number 259 of calls produced by mothers in response. Accordingly, a clear enhancement effect was seen for olfactory investigations (sniffs) but not for call production (Wierucka et al. 2018b). 260

In the second experiment, Australian sea lion mothers were presented with a pup model matching the age-class of their filial pup (congruent visual cue, not varying) paired with olfactory (filial or non-filial) and acoustic cues (filial and non-filial)(Table 3, Figure 4). As for the first study, the recorded behavioural responses of females showed investigations of the pup model (sniffs) and vocal production. Females mostly rely on acoustic cues as they only vocally respond to filial calls independently of the identity of olfactory cues (filial or non-filial). The presentation using both filial olfactory and vocal cues did not elicit stronger responses compared to the presentation using filial vocal cues and non-filial cues. No difference in investigations was observed between the four different presentations. There was no enhancement effect of the vocal and olfactory cues, all females approached and sniffed the pup model independently of the identity of the vocal and olfactory cues.

It is important to note the different interpretations of behaviors used by the 272 researchers across modalities and in these different experiments. From a mother's point of 273 274 view, calling may be used to prompt a pup to call in response, but it is not obligatory for the mother to gather information if the pup is calling spontaneously. By contrast, the mother must 275 sniff the pup to gather olfactory information. In a choice test, where mothers chose between 276 277 two pup models impregnated with scent, our team observed a greater number of sniffs of the filial than the non-filial model pup, and this difference in the number of sniffs was interpreted 278 279 as indicating the ability to differentiate between the cues. However in a sequential test, as 280 was used to examine the multimodal (visual/olfactory) cue (e.g. Wierucka et al. 2018b), the number of sniffs was more likely to represent attempts to gain information than a recognition 281 282 response. This may explain why there was no differentiation in the sniffing response when mothers were sequentially presented with filial and non-filial pup scents. In these cases, the 283 284 mothers must sniff the model to gather information but is not comparing the scent of two 285 pups. Further, in all the experiments involving the visual models (Figure 5), the inability to present a model matching the pup's individual visual signature, as well as the static nature of 286 the models, likely contributed to limited responses from mothers. This highlights the 287 importance of context when designing and interpreting experiments to examine multimodal 288 289 communication.

290 Recognition is a step-by-step process with each sensory cue having its own active space, and thus likely to become involved at different stages of the identification process 291 292 (Figure 6). Vocalizations are known to be efficient at long range, up to 32 m as measured by propagation tests of Australian sea lion calls (Charrier et al. 2009; Pitcher et al. 2012a). Second, 293 294 visual cues can help females to sort pups in the colony based on the pelage color and body 295 size (Wierucka et al. 2017), and finally, when in close contact, mothers can confirm the identity 296 of the pup using olfactory cues (Pitcher et al. 2011a). Olfactory cues can be only assessed 297 when at very close range or in contact, at longer distance, they will be mixed with the odors from other conspecifics, and thus difficult to assess and locate. In contrast to pups, Australian 298 sea lion mothers can approach pups to smell them, as there is no risk of injury. Thus they can 299 300 identify them if they are not calling as this behavior is frequently seen when females come 301 back from sea (Charrier, pers. obs). However, they will only vocally respond to their own pup's calls. 302

303 In a multimodal context, vocal cues have a primary role in mother-pup recognition 304 processes. Even if olfactory cues are individual-specific, and they can alone allow a reliable 305 identification, in a multimodal context, they are not as important as vocal cues. The primary 306 role of vocalization in the recognition of the pup is attributed to their long-range properties, as in this system, calls are the first information to be detected and processed for both mothers 307 and pups. Indeed, even if all sensory cues are present simultaneously, they are not perceived 308 309 simultaneously but sequentially (Uy and Safran 2013). The active space of sensory cues 310 appears thus an evolutionary driver for the use of sensory cues and their relative importance 311 or hierarchy within a communication and recognition system (Higham and Hebets 2013; Uy 312 and Safran 2013; Wierucka et al. 2018b).

313

### 314 Future Directions

Studying multimodal communication in the field is a challenging task as detecting 315 316 sensory cues at the level needed is often not possible, especially when working at the individual level. For instance, visual lures, such as animal models, are almost impossible to 317 replicate at an individual level, limiting some investigations. However, successful investigation 318 319 can be done at a lower level, and still allow researchers to answer interesting questions. In the 320 case of Australian sea lion, and pinnipeds in general, there is a dearth of investigation of their visual acuity with regards to social communication and recognition. Pinnipeds show 321 322 differences in morphological traits between sexes, age-classes and individuals, but they also 323 display different postures during social interactions (Charrier 2021), all these visual cues are likely to be used in social communication. The interactions of visual cues with acoustic and 324 325 olfactory cues need to be better studied as they likely enhance behavioral responses, especially when occurring in agonistic interactions (e.g. competing males) that can be highly 326 costly for both receivers and emitters in the case of wrong assessment. 327

Additional work needs to be done on the distance of detection of acoustic and olfactory cues. Assessing at which distance a mother or a pup can vocally recognize each other could be carried out in the field. Propagation tests showed that individual vocal signature can reliably transmit up to 16 or 32 meters, but the detection distance by the animals can be greater depending on the hearing abilities. Similar experiments can be done with olfactory cues: do mothers and pups need to be in contact (nose to nose) to assess the individual information, or this can be done at further distance at least without physical contact?

Further investigations could be also done with acoustic and olfactory cues involved in mate choice in Australian sea lions specifically and for pinnipeds in general. For instance, investigating acoustic and olfactory similarities between genetically related adult individuals might determine if such similarities are used to avoid inbreeding. For species showing either low dispersal rate or low genetic diversity, this type of assessment could be particularly useful to better understand mate choice strategies.

341 Assessing the active space of sensory cues allows for a better understanding of how sensory cues can be detected and perceived by receivers. Even if presented simultaneously, 342 343 sensory information might be treated sequentially by receivers. For now, we don't have enough knowledge on the analysis processes of sensory cues in Australian sea lion, and in 344 pinnipeds in general. Some neurophysiological studies would likely improve such knowledge, 345 346 including the sequence of perception and cognitive processing of cues (i.e. whether they are 347 perceived/processed sequentially or simultaneously). Finally, aiming to find common rules of communication in mammals showing similar ecological and/or social constraints, comparative 348 349 experimental studies on other vertebrate species are needed. For instance, colonial seabirds and mammals have shown to develop complex individual signature for individual recognition 350 351 between parents-offspring or between mates (Charrier et al. 2001; Aubin and Jouventin 2002; 352 Mathevon et al. 2003; Charrier 2020), so it will be interesting to conclude on the use of multimodal sensory cues in such recognition processes. Would species showing more 353 ecological constraints for individual recognition use more sensory cues than species with 354 lower constraints? A study on wolf spider using a multimodal approach showed that the use 355 356 of multimodal signals (vibrational and visual signals) extended the range of communication in 357 complex environment (Uetz et al. 2013). The use of different sensory information allows the 358 wolf spider to compensate for their environmental constraints. Similarly, mating or warning

displays have been shown to be multimodal to be more efficiently detected by receiver or to
face environmental constraints (Preininger et al. 2013; Rowe and Halpin 2013).

Investigating these questions both in the natural environment of the study species and
 in captivity, will help develop a general framework within which to fully elucidate the role of
 sensory cues active space in animal communication.

364

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### **Tables**

Table 1 - Comparison of the behavioral responses of pups tested with three different
treatments: audio only (mother's calls), visual only (female model) and both audio and visual
cues. Data from Wireucka et al. 2018a.

| Experimental treatment       | Number of calls | Latency to call |
|------------------------------|-----------------|-----------------|
| comparisons                  |                 |                 |
| Acoustic only vs Visual Only | Significant     | Non-significant |
| Acoustic only vs Audio +     | Non-significant | Not assessed    |
| Visual                       |                 |                 |
| Visual only vs Acoustic +    | Significant     | Non-significant |
| Visual                       |                 |                 |

Table 2 – Pairwise comparisons of the behavioral responses of adult females tested with three
 different treatments: acoustic cues only (filial pup's calls), acoustic + visual (filial pup's calls +
 pup model matching age-class) and acoustic+visual+olfactory cues (filial pup's calls + pup
 model matching age-class+ filial pup's body scent). Data from Wierucka et al. 2018b.

| Experimental treatment pairwise                  | Investigations | Vocal response |
|--|----------------|----------------|
| comparisons                                      | (sniffs)       | (calls)        |
| Acoustic vs Acoustic + Visual                    | NS             | NS             |
| Acoustic <i>vs</i> Acoustic + Visual + Olfactory | significant    | NS             |
| Acoustic + Visual vs                             | significant    | NS             |
| Acoustic + visual + olfactory                    |                |                |

**Table 3** - Pairwise comparisons of the behavioral responses of adult females tested with four different treatments: filial acoustic cues paired with filial olfactory cues (AfOf), filial acoustic cues paired with non-filial olfactory cues (AfOnf), non-filial acoustic cues paired with filial olfactory cues (AnfOf), non-filial acoustic cues paired with non-filial olfactory cues (AnfOnf).

| Experimental comparisons | treatment | pairwise | Investigations<br>(sniffs) | Vocal response<br>(calls) |
|--------------------------|-----------|----------|----------------------------|---------------------------|
| AfOnf – AfOf             |           |          | NS                         | NS                        |
| AnfOf – AfOf             |           |          | NS                         | Significant               |
| AnfOnf – AfOf            |           |          | NS                         | Significant               |
| AnfOf – AfOnf            |           |          | NS                         | Significant               |
| AnfOnf – AfOnf           |           |          | NS                         | Significant               |
| AnfOnf - AnfOf           |           |          | NS                         | NS                        |

390 Figures captions

Fig. 1 Spectrograms and oscillograms of a contact call produced by an Australian sea lion pup
(left) and a Australian sea lion mother (right) during a reunion.

393

Fig. 2 Picture illustrating a playback experiment performed on an Australian sea lion pup (> 6 month old) responding to the calls of its mother. Photo credit: Rob Harcourt.

396

Fig. 3 Color pelage of Australian sea lion pups. A. pups younger than 2-month old have black
fur; B. between 2- to 4-month old, pups show a chocolate/brown fur; C. after molting pups
have a silver/beige fur similar to those of adult females; D and E: photographs showing pups
of different ages and thus different size and color fur pattern occurring in the breeding colony.
Photo credits: Isabelle Charrier & Benjamin Pitcher.

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Fig. 4 Behavioral test of Australian sea lion females tested in a multimodal set-up. The female is presented with a pup model matching the size and the color pelage of her filial pup, and the head model was fitted with a swab impregnated with a pup smell (either those from the filial or non-filial pup). A speaker beside the model was playing pup's calls (filial or non-filial pup's calls). The model is presented on the opposite side so that they are not in the same field of view of the target female.

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Fig. 5 Visual models used in the different experiments on pups and females. A. A mother tested with two pup models, one black model (less than two-month old pup) and one silver/beige model (molted pup, older than 4 month old pup); B. A female tested with one black and one chocolate/brown model (pup between 2 to 4-month old); C and D panels show pups being tested with a female model (silver and beige adult pelage, and large size, in an upright position).

416 Fig. 6 Sensory cues involved in the mother-pup recognition process during reunion. Each 417 sensory cue shows different active space and is sequentially processed: acoustic cues are used at first at long range, followed by visual cues to sort individuals (e.g., pups of different age 418 419 classes) and finally when in contact, olfactory cues allows a final verification. Even if multiple cues are present, acoustic cues are processed as first, to identify the pup or the mother, and 420 421 to assess if a closer approach is necessary. Without acoustic cues, vision can be used and thus 422 olfactory cues when at short range. For pups, an approach will be performed only if the acoustic cues are matching those of the mother. Approaching a non-mother can be costly for 423 424 pups as there is a high risk of injury (females can be quite aggressive towards non-filial pups). 425 In contrast, females can approach calling or non-calling pups to confirm or check the pup's 426 identity using olfactory cues as there is no cost for them.

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