

1 **Individual repeatability, species differences, and the influence of socio-**
2 **ecological factors on neophobia in 10 corvid species**

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38 Short title: The socio-ecological drivers of neophobia in corvids

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42 **Summary**

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44 Behavioural responses to novelty, including fear and subsequent avoidance of novel stimuli,
45 behaviours referred to as neophobia, determine how animals interact with their environment.
46 Neophobia aids in navigating risk and impacts on adaptability and survival. There is variation within
47 and between individuals and species, however, lack of large-scale, comparative studies critically
48 limits investigation of the socio-ecological drivers of neophobia. In this study, we tested responses to
49 novel objects and food (alongside familiar food) versus a baseline (familiar food alone) in 10 corvid
50 species (241 subjects) across 10 labs worldwide. There were species differences in the latency to
51 touch familiar food in the novel object and food conditions relative to the baseline. Three of seven
52 socio-ecological factors influenced object neophobia: 1) use of urban habitat (vs not), 2) territorial
53 pair vs family group sociality and 3) large vs small flock size (whereas range, caching, hunting live
54 animals, and genus did not); while only flock size influenced food neophobia. We found that, overall,
55 individuals were temporally and contextually repeatable (i.e. consistent) in their novelty responses in
56 all conditions, indicating neophobia is a stable behavioural trait. With this study, we have established
57 a network of corvid researchers, demonstrating potential for further collaboration to explore the
58 evolution of cognition in corvids and other bird species. These novel findings enable us, for the first
59 time in corvids, to identify the socio-ecological correlates of neophobia and grant insight into specific
60 elements that drive higher neophobic responses in this avian family group.

61

62 **Introduction**

63

64 Novelty is a common and vital aspect of animal life. The discovery of novel items and environments
65 offers individuals an opportunity to benefit from new resources, such as food, tools, and shelter^{1,2}.
66 Animals navigate novel stimuli through exploration, which allows for the assessment of any potential
67 utility. However, novelty also presents the potential for danger: unknown food may be toxic, unknown
68 objects may be traps and unfamiliar species may be predators¹. Consequently, various species also

69 show fear and subsequent avoidance of novel stimuli, behaviours referred to as neophobia. Neophobia
70 acts as a protective behaviour, encouraging hesitance and vigilance before/during exploration and thus
71 helping to limit the danger associated with novelty¹. An appropriate level of neophobia within a
72 species, according to their niche, should maximise their opportunity whilst minimising risk. As
73 neophobia affects how animals interact with novelty, and novelty is a common occurrence, an
74 understanding of neophobia is vital for animal cognition and behaviour research. This is particularly
75 relevant as the world becomes heavily urbanised, with many species having to adapt to human-
76 generated environmental changes and the inevitable novelty that follows³. An understanding of the
77 mechanisms underlying neophobia and any influencing factors may help explain why some species
78 are more successful in adapting to new environments than others.

79 Previous research has investigated factors that may influence neophobia, as levels of neophobic
80 behaviour vary between species and even individuals within a species (e.g. parrots⁴ and ungulates⁵).

81 Many of these factors relate to socio-ecological factors, which may affect the costs and benefits of
82 exploration and neophobia. However, there are very few large-scale comparative studies of
83 neophobia, though one notable exception is Mettke-Hofmann et al. (2002) study on the relationship
84 between a series of ecological factors, including diet and habitat, and both neophobia (latency to eat
85 familiar food in presence of novel object) and exploration (latency to touch a novel object) behaviour
86 in 61 species of parrot⁴. The results suggested that a species' ecology is closely associated with
87 neophobia and exploration. Several different ecological variables influenced exploration, with species
88 that inhabit complex habitats, have a diet of flower buds or fruits, and live on islands showing the
89 shortest latencies in exploration tests. Two factors influenced neophobia: a diet of insects and a diet of
90 leaves, indicating that parrots with a diet of insects were more neophobic than those feeding on plant
91 material, explained as a possible consequence of the toxicity danger associated with insects⁴. Thus,
92 increased neophobia may mediate some of this risk. We note that this study did not test for individual
93 repeatability over time or between conditions, used primarily small sample sizes (range 1-23
94 individuals, mean = 4.4, median = 2.5), and largely tested in uncontrolled social settings (e.g.
95 measuring first individual to approach with/without others present)⁴.

96 Many smaller-scale studies have investigated individual ecological factors that may affect
97 neophobia within species. For example, individual common myna birds (*Acridotheres tristis*) who
98 inhabit urban environments demonstrate lower levels of neophobia than those from rural areas and are
99 quicker to utilise novel food resources ⁶. Greggor et al. (2016) found that wild birds (five corvid
100 species, seven other bird species) approached human litter objects faster in an urban environment than
101 in a rural environment ⁷. These findings have been suggested to occur because of habituation: birds in
102 urban areas encounter human litter and objects more frequently than those in rural areas and thus
103 become accustomed to this particular type of novelty. Other explanations have focussed on how urban
104 areas offer low-risk and high-benefit environments, with a vast array of food resources in the form of
105 human litter, and low levels of predation ⁸.

106 Differing habitats and diets may also influence neophobia and exploration. Greenberg and Mettke-
107 Hofmann (2001) hypothesised that the costs of neophobia outweigh the benefits for generalist species,
108 who utilise a range of resources that vary in availability, so reduced neophobia would allow for
109 frequent exploration and discovery of new resources ¹. However, specialist species, who use fewer,
110 more stable resources, should show greater levels of neophobia as they have limited need to explore
111 new food sources. This has been supported by research indicating that generalist Lesser-Antillean
112 Bullfinch (*Loxigalla noctis*) showed shorter latencies to approach novel feeding stations than
113 specialist bananaquit (*Coereba flaveola*) ⁹. Similarly, generalist song sparrows (*Melospiza melodia*)
114 were less neophobic of objects than specialist swamp sparrows (*Melospiza georgiana*) in the field and
115 in the lab ^{10,11}.

116 Furthermore, social context, such as the presence of conspecifics, has been shown to reduce
117 neophobia and increase exploration in several species. For example, zebra finches (*Taeniopygia*
118 *guttata*) showed shorter latencies to eat from a novel feeder when in a flock than when alone ¹². This
119 may be due to group presence reducing generalised fear and/or risk being shared, thus reducing
120 neophobia ¹². It may also be context specific. For instance, Stöwe et al. (2006) found that ravens
121 (*Corvus corax*) approached novel objects faster in the presence of siblings than non-siblings ¹³.
122 Ravens who are classed as “slow” explorers showed reduced latencies to approach novel objects when
123 with a “fast” conspecific than when alone, but fast individuals’ approaches were impeded by

124 conspecifics¹³. Further, Chiarati et al. (2012) found that dominant breeding males in kin-based groups
125 of carrion crows approached novel food before their other family members, reducing risks for their
126 partner and offspring¹⁴.

127 Individual differences in neophobia and exploration have been shown to be stable traits (i.e.
128 repeatable or consistent over time and contexts) in some species, though inconsistent in others, which
129 may be influenced by a range of factors, including the species, task, measures used, as well as
130 seasonality, developmental, and social influences^{4,14–16}. Furthermore, although several socio-
131 ecological variables appear to influence neophobia, a lack of large-scale comparative research limits
132 interpretation of these effects (with the notable exception of⁴), as well as testing whether it is a stable
133 behavioural trait¹⁷. Consistent methodology within a multi-species study allows for effective
134 comparison within and between species¹⁸, and thus would contribute towards understanding the
135 mechanisms and influences of neophobia.

136 As a behavioural trait that dictates much of an animal's interaction with the environment, including
137 how they approach and solve novel problems, such data are valuable not only for establishing links
138 between behaviour and ecology but also for studying cognition. Indeed, the time taken to learn a
139 foraging task in feral pigeons (*Columba livia*) and zenaida doves (*Zenaida aurita*) covaried with
140 individual levels of neophobia^{19,20}. Variation in neophobia also presents a potential confound for
141 cognition research, as it can impact on performance in comparative cognitive tests, though is most
142 often not tested or accounted for in relation to such comparisons between species²⁰. Outside of basic
143 research, neophobia data may help inform applied animal welfare and conservation, including pre-
144 release training in reintroduction programmes²¹. For instance, working to increase neophobia levels
145 in animals subjected to culling due to conflict with farmers²¹.

146 Corvids (members of the crow family) are often featured in cognitive research²², and are known to
147 be relatively high on the scale of neophobia^{2,23}. Within corvids, species and individuals differ in
148 neophobic propensities^{7,24–26}, as well as socio-ecological factors, such as range (how geographically
149 widespread a species is), sociality, caching (hiding food for later use) behaviour, and tool-use^{22,27–31}.
150 It is currently unknown what drives neophobia in corvids, for instance, whether they follow the same
151 pattern as parrots relating to diet type e.g.⁴, or whether there are different drivers of this variation.

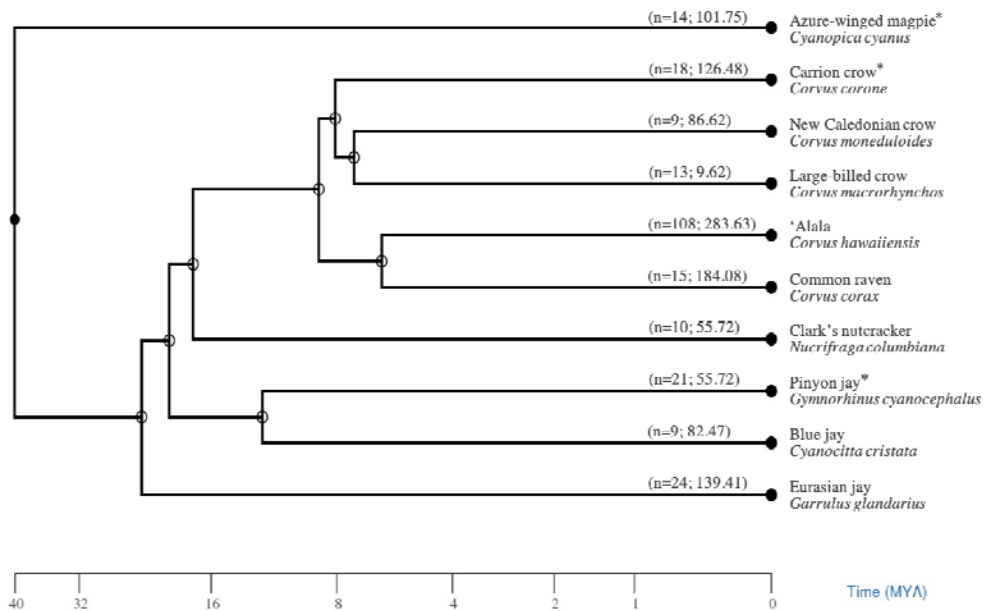
152 Corvids are therefore an optimal choice for these questions, however, to our knowledge, no study has
153 yet compared neophobia comprehensively across many different corvid species, with repeated testing
154 for individual repeatability, and directly testing the influence of socio-ecological factors.

155 We conducted a multi-lab collaborative study with three main aims: 1. compare neophobia across
156 species 2. investigate the effect of socio-ecological factors on neophobia, and 3. assess individual
157 temporal and contextual repeatability in neophobia. In 10 corvid species (241 subjects: Figure 1), we
158 tested behavioural responses - specifically latency to touch familiar food – in three conditions: novel
159 objects, novel food, and control condition (familiar food alone), with each condition repeated 3 times
160 over 6-8 weeks (3 test rounds, 1 trial per condition per round, repeated every ~2 weeks). Individuals
161 were primarily tested while alone to control for any social influences and allow for repeated
162 individual testing. Novel items were presented with familiar food to ensure behavioural responses
163 were a result of the conflict between neophobia and desire for the familiar food, rather than, for
164 example, exploration¹. Our response variable tested true food (and object) neophobia (i.e. fear of the
165 appearance of the food), rather than dietary conservatism (i.e. latency to consume a novel food
166 regularly in the diet)³². We pooled resources across labs with the aim of increasing sample sizes and
167 species representation. We selected tests that were not too time or labour intensive, given many labs
168 were invited to contribute data, whilst giving a meaningful comparison across species that is largely
169 based on established methodologies (i.e. latency to eat/ approach familiar food in the presence of a
170 novel item).

171

172 **Figure 1. Phylogenetic tree.** Sourced from <http://www.timetree.org> with sample size (n=x) and
173 relative object neophobia score per species (mean latency to touch familiar food difference score i.e.
174 novel object minus control value) - higher score indicates higher neophobic response to novel object.

175 * donates species tested at 2 sites



176

177 Firstly, we compared food and object neophobia between corvid species. We expected to find
178 some species differences, as indicated by previous comparative corvid research e.g. ^{7,25}. Next, we
179 tested for the influence of socio-ecological factors: range (broad vs restricted/endemic), use of urban
180 habitats (in addition to suburban/rural), hunting live animals, adult sociality (territorial vs family
181 groups), flock size (small vs large), food caching (moderate vs specialised), and genus (*Corvus* or not)
182 on neophobia. We expected that, like diet in parrots ⁴, neophobia would relate closely to aspects of
183 species ecology. Specifically, in line with some previous research, we expected that species inhabiting
184 a broad range, and utilising urban habitats, would show lower neophobia compared to those in
185 restricted ranges and using only sub-urban/rural areas ^{6-9,11,33}. Lower neophobia was also expected
186 from species that live in larger flocks and family groups compared to small flocks and territorial pairs,
187 due to the potential of risk-sharing between larger groups ^{12,34}. As the influence of live hunting
188 (selected as the species tested were otherwise generalists), caching and genus have not been
189 previously tested in similar species, we had no a priori predictions for these factors. Finally, we tested
190 for individual temporal and contextual repeatability. We expected to find individual repeatability, as
191 there were only short delays between test rounds (~2 weeks), similar to a related study in 'A
192 (*Corvus hawaiiensis*)³⁴.

193

194 **Results**

195

196 **1. Species differences**

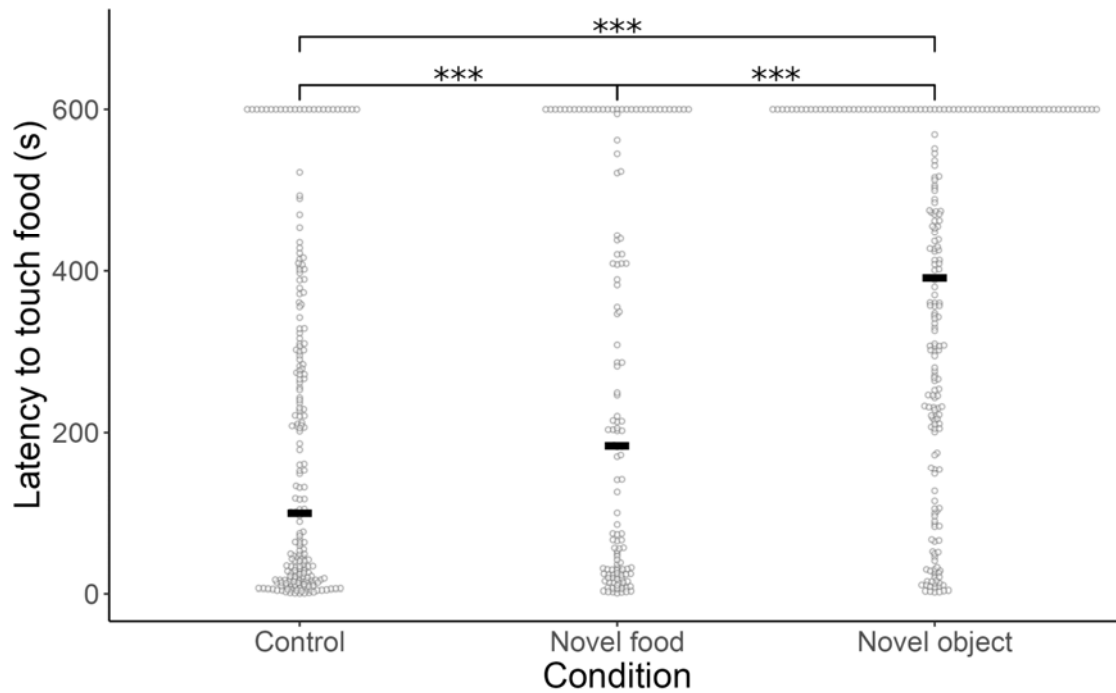
197

198 Latency to touch familiar food differed across conditions (LMM: $X^2=316.05$, $df=2$, $p<0.001$), test
199 rounds ($X^2=28.75$, $df=1$, $p<0.001$), and species ($X^2=93.03$, $df=9$, $p<0.001$). The birds waited longer
200 with a novel object or novel food present compared to the control condition (Tukey contrasts: novel
201 object – control, $z=18.79$, $p<0.001$; novel food – control, $z=7.97$, $p<0.001$), and they waited longer
202 when a novel object was present than when a novel food was present ($z=7.35$, $p<0.001$) (Figure 2).
203 While latency to touch familiar food did not differ between rounds 1 and 2 (Tukey contrasts: $z=0.57$,
204 $p=0.371$), it decreased in round 3 compared with round 1 and 2 (rounds 1 – 3, $z=4.94$, $p<0.001$;
205 rounds 2 – 3, $z=4.35$, $p<0.001$) (S1 Figure). We also found that latency differed across species (S1
206 Table; Figure 3).

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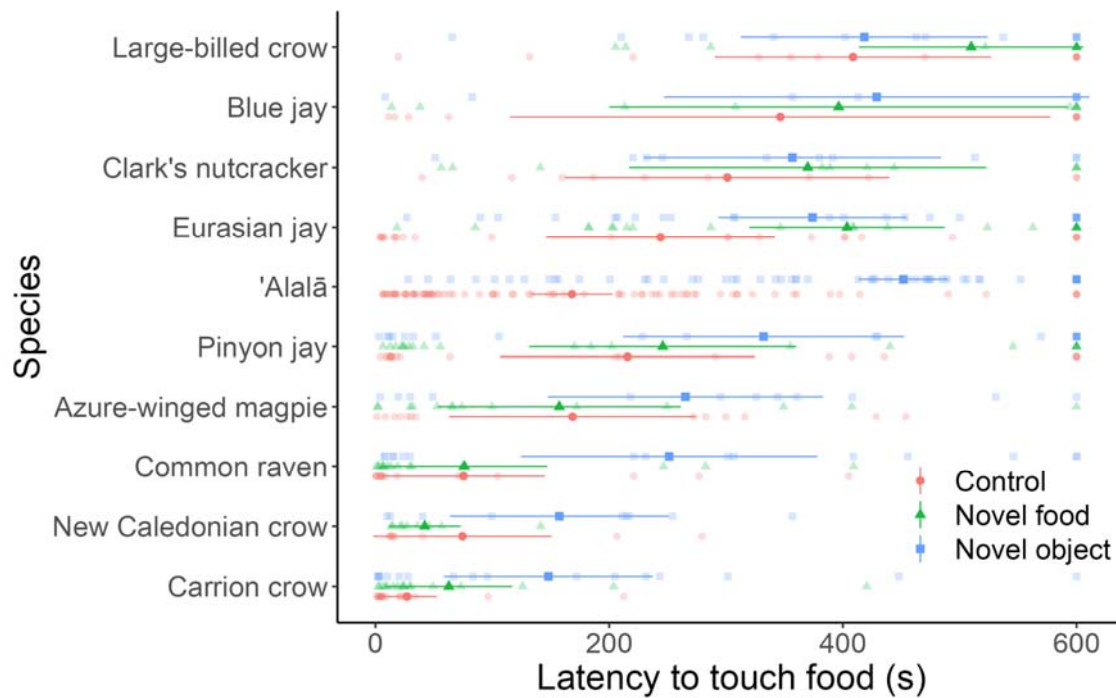
208 **Figure 2. Latency to touch familiar food in each condition across all species**

209 Control, novel food, and novel object conditions all differed from each other. Points represent
210 individuals, lines represent median. *** $p < 0.001$



211

212 **Figure 3. Latency to touch familiar food in each condition for each species.** Some species differed
213 in mean latency. Individual points represent subject means over rounds, points with error bars
214 represent species means and 95% confidence intervals.



215

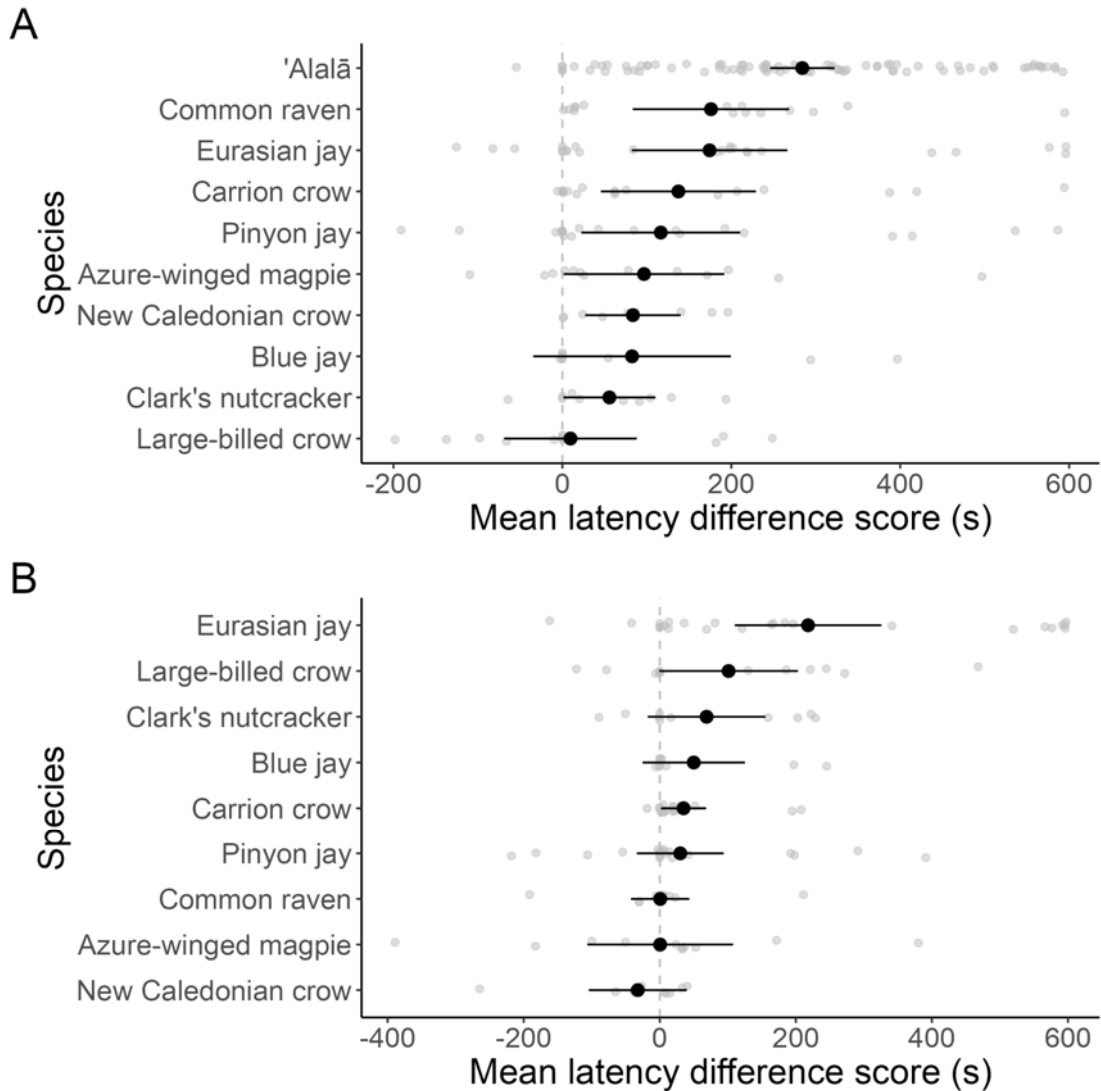
216 However, a potential confound of this study is that most species were housed and tested at different
217 sites and therefore site is largely correlated with species. Three species were tested at two different
218 sites. Using exploratory analysis, within these three species, we found that site did not affect latency
219 to touch familiar food in carrion crows or azure-winged magpies but did affect latency in pinyon jays
220 (S2 Table; S2 Figure).

221 To aid in standardizing latencies across sites as well as control for baseline neophobia and current
222 motivational state, we created pairwise difference scores by subtracting the control latencies from the
223 novel object and novel food latencies for each round and individual. Positive difference scores
224 represent slower approaches to familiar food when a novel object/food is present (neophobia) and
225 negative difference scores represent faster approaches (neophilia). The novel object difference scores
226 differed across species (LMM: $X^2=47.02$, $df=9$, $p<0.001$) and round ($X^2=8.18$, $df=1$, $p=0.017$), with
227 some differences between pairs of species (S3 Table; Figure 4A). Using novel object difference
228 scores, common ravens were more neophobic than azure-winged magpies, large-billed crows, New
229 Caledonian crows, Clark's nutcrackers, blue jays and pinyon jays; azure-winged magpies, pinyon jays
230 and Eurasian jays were more neophobic than large-billed crows; Eurasian jays were more neophobic
231 than blue jays and Clark's nutcrackers; carrion crows were more neophobic than Clark's nutcrackers
232 and large-billed crows; 'Alala' were more neophobic than blue jays, large-billed crows, Clark's
233 nutcrackers, New Caledonian crows, pinyon jays (Figure 4A).

234

235 **Figure 4. Species comparison using difference scores.** Mean latency difference scores varied across
236 species for (A) novel object neophobia and (B) novel food neophobia. Positive difference scores
237 represent slower approaches to familiar food when a novel item was present (i.e. neophobia) and
238 negative difference scores represent faster approaches (i.e. neophilia). Points represent individuals.

239



240

241 The novel food difference scores also differed across species ($\chi^2=23.49$, $df=8$, $p=0.003$) but not round

242 ($\chi^2=5.58$, $df=2$, $p=0.062$). Note that 'A' species were not tested in the novel food condition and are

243 removed from this analysis. Using novel food differences scores, Eurasian jays were more neophobic

244 than all other species (Figure 4B; S4 Table). Overall, for both object and food conditions, most

245 species were neophobic with mean difference scores greater than 0, with only New Caledonian crows

246 showing a negative mean difference score for the food condition.

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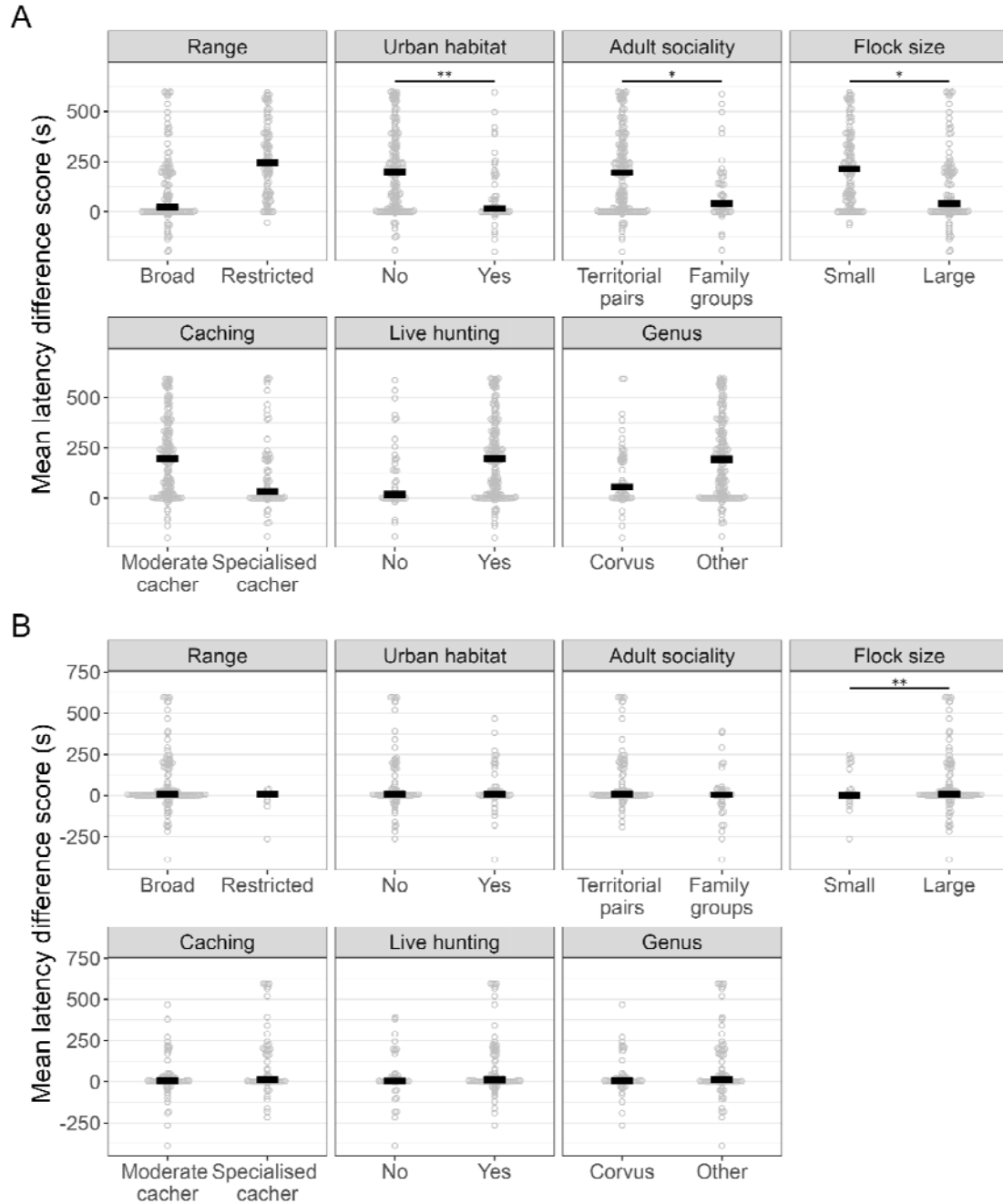
248 **2. Effect of socio-ecological factors**

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250 Using novel object difference scores, object neophobic responses were affected by urban habitat use
251 ($X^2=7.23$, $df=1$, $p=0.007$), adult sociality ($X^2=6.61$, $df=1$, $p=0.010$), and flock size ($X^2=4.98$, $df=1$,
252 $p=0.026$), but not range ($X^2=0.59$, $df=1$, $p=0.443$), caching ($X^2=2.78$, $df=1$, $p=0.100$), live hunting
253 ($X^2=2.36$, $df=1$, $p=0.125$), or genus ($X^2=0.24$, $df=1$, $p=0.628$). Specifically, species that use urban
254 habitats (as well as other habitats), live in larger flocks and family groups were less neophobic than
255 those that do not/ very limited use of urban habitats, live primarily in territorial pairs or in smaller
256 flocks (Figure 5A). Using novel food difference scores, food neophobia was only affected by flock
257 size ($X^2=8.99$, $df=1$, $p=0.003$) and not range ($X^2=2.72$, $df=1$, $p=0.100$), urban habitat ($X^2=0.33$, $df=1$,
258 $p=0.564$), adult sociality ($X^2=1.98$, $df=1$, $p=0.160$), caching ($X^2=0.25$, $df=1$, $p=0.621$), live hunting
259 ($X^2=0.10$, $df=1$, $p=0.756$), or genus ($X^2=3.55$, $df=1$, $p=0.060$). In contrast to the object neophobia
260 finding, species that typically live in small flocks were less neophobic of novel food than those living
261 in large flocks (Figure 5B).

262

263 **Figure 5. Effect of socio-ecological factors on neophobia.** Linear mixed model on socio-ecological
264 factors affecting latency to touch familiar food, using difference scores showed effects of urban
265 habitat, adult sociality, and flock size on novel object neophobia (A) and effect of flock size on novel
266 food neophobia (B). Positive difference scores represent slower approaches to familiar food when a
267 novel object is present (i.e. neophobia) and negative difference scores represent faster approaches (i.e.
268 neophilia). Points represent individual subjects and horizontal bars represent medians.



269

270

271 3. Individual temporal and contextual repeatability

272

273 Across all species, individuals' responses to novel stimuli were temporally repeatable across test

274 rounds (1-3) and contextually repeatable across conditions (control, novel object, novel food) (intra-

275 class correlation coefficient: $N = 217$, $ICC = 0.462$, $p < 0.001$, $CI = 0.402-0.521$). In addition, responses
276 were temporally repeatable within each condition (control: $N = 216$, $ICC = 0.542$, $p < 0.001$, $CI =$
277 $0.467-0.625$; novel object: $N = 215$, $ICC = 0.548$, $p < 0.001$, $CI = 0.469-0.625$; novel food: $N = 132$,
278 $ICC = 0.477$, $p < 0.001$, $CI = 0.381-0.591$) (S5 Table). A within-species analysis showed similar
279 temporal repeatability except for the New Caledonian crows (all conditions), azure-winged magpies
280 (novel food only) and large-billed crows (novel object only), with contextual repeatability in all
281 species except for the New Caledonian crows (S5 Table, S6 Table). Note that ‘Alala’ were not tested
282 in the novel food condition.

283

284 **Discussion**

285

286 In our multi-lab collaborative study, we tested the responses (latency to touch familiar food) of 10
287 corvid species to novel objects and food (beside familiar food), compared with a control baseline
288 condition (familiar food alone). We found: a) some species differences in latency to touch familiar
289 food in the presence of a novel object or novel food relative to baseline, b) effects of three socio-
290 ecological factors - urban habitat use, adult sociality, and flock size - on object neophobia, and an
291 effect of flock size on food neophobia, and c) individual temporal and contextual repeatability across
292 species, as well as within species for all species except New Caledonian crows (all conditions), azure-
293 winged magpie (novel food) and large-billed crow (novel object). The novel object and novel food
294 conditions elicited higher neophobic responses (i.e. higher latencies) than the control condition.
295 Additionally, neophobic responses reduced across rounds, with lower latencies in round 3 of testing
296 than either round 1 or 2.

297 Species differed in object and food neophobia. For instance, we found that: common ravens,
298 ‘Alala’ and Eurasian jays were more neophobic than most other species tested for object neophobia,
299 with Eurasian jays being more neophobic than all other species for food neophobia (using difference
300 scores). The mean difference scores showed primarily neophobic responses to novel items (i.e.
301 positive scores) compared to neophilic responses (i.e. negative scores). The critical test for

302 interpreting these species differences, which is not possible in most of the previous research with
303 single or small numbers of species/ individuals, was to test for specific influences of several socio-
304 ecological factors that naturally differ between these corvid species. We found that three of seven
305 factors tested influenced object neophobia: urban habitat use, adult sociality and flock size, while
306 range, caching, hunting live animals and genus did not. Specifically, object neophobia was lower in
307 species using urban habitats (n=5 species), living in family groups (n=3) and large flocks (n=6)
308 compared with those only using suburban/ rural areas (n=5 species), living primarily in territorial
309 pairs (n=7), or small flocks (n=4). Only flock size influenced food neophobia, with those living in
310 small flocks showing lower neophobia than those in large flocks.

311 We expected urban habitat use to influence neophobia, based on previous research in other species,
312 such as within-species comparisons in common myna⁶ and black-capped chickadees³³. Urban
313 habitats typically provide environments that are rich in novel stimuli, including human litter and
314 manmade structures. Consequently, individuals and species inhabiting these areas are frequently
315 exposed to various types of novel objects and may become habituated to such novelty. The costs of
316 neophobia may also outweigh the benefits in urban habitats: human objects may become useful
317 resources (litter may contain food or be an effective tool), an opportunity that would be lost by a high
318 neophobic response. Additionally, urban environments have a relatively low predation risk for corvids
319 and other animals, thus limiting the dangers associated with exploration of novel objects^{8,12}.

320 Similarly, we expected sociality to influence neophobia, with lower object neophobia in large
321 flocks or family groups due to increased risk-sharing, compared with species living primarily as
322 territorial pairs while adult or small flocks¹². Social presence has been shown in some species,
323 including corvids, to have either a facilitating or inhibiting effect on neophobia and exploration^{15,27,35}.
324 We differentiated species as ‘territorial’ vs ‘family groups’ according to their most prevalent social
325 organisation²⁸. Some of these species do have quite flexible systems based on fission-fusion, such as
326 common raven³⁶, thereby, they may be territorial as adults and/or during breeding season but be fairly
327 tolerant of one another as juveniles or outside of breeding season³⁷. We therefore included a second
328 sociality related factor: ‘small’ (up to 100 individuals) vs. ‘large’ flocks (over 100 individuals). It is

329 interesting to note that we see contrasting effects of flock size on object compared with food
330 neophobia, and effects of sociality even with individual testing (i.e. tested while alone).

331 We did not find an effect of hunting live animals on food or object neophobia (hunting live
332 animals n=6 species vs not n = 4), which was our main dietary related measure, as otherwise, these
333 corvids are largely similar in their diets. We may see a stronger effect of this factor with different
334 types of novel food or in predator neophobia tasks. There was no effect of caching, despite differences
335 between moderate (n=6 species) and specialised cachers (n=4) in the amount and type of food items
336 that they cache. Our caching differentiation was based on a categorization of food caching into low,
337 moderate, and specialized species³⁸ (Table 1), though it should be noted that some corvids also cache
338 objects^{38,39}. However, there was insufficient prior data available to differentiate all species according
339 to variation in the amount and type of object caching. Should this data become available in future, it
340 would be worth testing our data to explore whether object cachers also differ in neophobia.

341 We found no effect of range (broad n=8 vs restricted n=2 species) on either food or object
342 neophobia, which was unexpected, according to the “island tameness theory”, which suggests that
343 island populations may be less neophobic because they have evolved with fewer dangers in the
344 environment⁴⁰. We note, however, that only the New Caledonian crows and ‘Alala’ had a restricted
345 i.e. endemic range, therefore interpretation of this finding should be tentative, particularly as the New
346 Caledonian crows were wild sourced. Finally, we found no effect of genus (Corvus n=5 or not n=5
347 species) on neophobia. Should additional reliable phylogenetic data for corvids become available, and
348 we were able to increase the number of species above 20 species^{16,41,42}, we should be able to include
349 further phylogenetic controls in future.

350 All species, other than New Caledonian crows (all conditions), azure-winged magpies (novel food)
351 and large-billed crows (novel object) showed individual repeatability over time (i.e. between 3 rounds
352 over ~6-8 week period). Similarly, all species, except for New Caledonian crows, showed individual
353 repeatability across all 3 conditions. Regarding the lack of individual repeatability in New Caledonian
354 crows, these were the only wild birds (temporarily captive) of the sample, which may have influenced
355 their responses. It is also possible that this is related to habituation to the captive situation. Individual
356 flexibility (i.e. lack of repeatability or inconsistency) may be more adaptive in the wild, where

357 conditions can vary more widely than captivity. Additionally, individual inconsistency has been found
358 in other corvid species, including pinyon jays and Clark's nutcrackers exploratory responses to novel
359 environments and novel objects (without familiar food present)¹⁶. Some of these same individuals
360 were tested in the present study, highlighting that neophobia may vary within and between individuals
361 depending on types of neophobia, or aspects of study design, like task type.

362 The main limitations of this study, also applicable to some previous comparative cognition studies,
363 were some unavoidable site differences. We therefore primarily used difference scores (novel
364 condition minus control data) to aid in standardising latency scores across sites and control for
365 baseline neophobia. We differentiated each of the socio-ecological factors tested on 2-levels, relying
366 on published data to support these distinctions (e.g.^{27,38}), as it was not otherwise possible to determine
367 each species reliably by other means. Some factors could be explored on further levels (such as a scale
368 or distribution size for range) if supporting evidence becomes available for each species for such a
369 distinction in future. There were differences in sample size per species, indicating care should be
370 taken with any generalisations beyond the samples to wider species-levels. Our samples were also
371 primarily captive individuals, which may influence neophobia⁴³. This study was a worthwhile and
372 necessary first step into establishing a multi-lab collaboration, and captive birds allowed us to identify
373 individuals, conduct repeated testing and control the environment, which could be expanded upon in
374 future, for instance, to include corvids in the field⁷. Being able to test more widely within groups of
375 the same species from different backgrounds, as well as between species, and expanding these types
376 of collaborative approaches to test other bird groups than corvids to explore the drivers of neophobia
377 in birds more generally, is a recommended focus on future research. Furthermore, other aspects of
378 neophobia, such as novel environments, predators or humans (e.g.²⁵) could be tested.

379 There are several wider implications of our study. When comparing neophobia in different species,
380 it is important, where possible, to consider the role of socio-ecological factors, like diet, habitat use
381 and sociality. Neophobia can influence how an animal interacts with novel problems, so should be
382 tested as a baseline, particularly in new species/individuals, when conducting cognition research. The
383 world is fast becoming more urbanised due to human activity, with many species being forced to
384 adapt to changing environments or risk survival³. As neophobia may impact how quickly a species or

385 individual can adapt, it is a useful tool in designing conservation applications, such as in
386 reintroductions^{21,34,44}. For example, the presentation of new bird feeders or safe nesting sites could be
387 modified according to the species individual's level of neophobia, and more neophobic individuals
388 may require more pre-release training than others. Additionally, for species which are extinct in the
389 wild, comparative behavioural and cognitive data from close relatives may help determine the extent
390 to which long-term conservation breeding erodes natural responses. Therefore, neophobia and related
391 research can provide valuable information in basic and applied research.

392 In conclusion, this study established a global collaborative network among corvid researchers to
393 investigate the socio-ecological correlates of neophobia in these birds. Furthermore, neophobia can
394 impact cognitive performance^{19,44}, but is often not tested or accounted for in comparative research –
395 this study contributes to resolving this issue. It also contributes to a growing push to conduct multi-
396 species comparisons while simultaneously facilitating other collaborative work between these labs in
397 the future. Though species differences in neophobia are well-known among those working with
398 corvids, they are more typically incorporated into study designs (for example, including a habituation
399 phase to new stimuli) than studied in their own right or comparatively across different species. By
400 investigating neophobia across species that vary in several socio-ecological factors and feature
401 frequently in studies of behaviour and cognition, this study has broad implications for those interested
402 in behavioural ecology, evolutionary biology, comparative psychology and other related fields.

403

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419

420 **Author contributions**

421 R.M., M.L.L., A.F. A.L.G., N.S.C. conceived the study idea and research design. R.M. and M.L.L.
422 project managed the study. R.M., S.A.R. and J.R.S. analysed the data, R.M., M.L.L. and J.R.S
423 produced the figures. R.M., A.F., K.F.B., E.G.P., K.G., L.B.L., A.L.G., Y.L., M.S., A.K., P.S., L.W.,
424 L.M.W., Y.Z. collected the data. R.M., A.F., I.C., E.G.P., A.L.G. coded the videos. R.M. and I.C.
425 wrote the manuscript, with comments and feedback from all other authors. R.M., K.B., T.B., K.G.,
426 E.I., D.M.K., Z.L., A.N., J.R.S., A.H.T., N.S.C. provided funding to support the study.

427

428 **Declaration of interests**

429 The authors declare no competing interests.

430

431 **Main-text Figure/ Table Legends**

432 **Figure 1. Phylogenetic tree.** Sourced from <http://www.timetree.org> with sample size (n=x) and
433 relative object neophobia score per species (mean latency to touch familiar food difference score i.e.
434 novel object minus control value) - higher score indicates higher neophobic response to novel object.

435 * donates species tested at 2 sites

436

437 **Figure 2. Latency to touch familiar food in each condition across all species**

438 Control, novel food, and novel object conditions all differed from each other. Points represent
439 individuals, lines represent median. *** $p < 0.001$

440

441 **Figure 3. Latency to touch familiar food in each condition for each species.** Some species differed
442 in mean latency. Individual points represent subject means over rounds, points with error bars
443 represent species means and 95% confidence intervals.

444

445 **Figure 4. Species comparison using difference scores.** Mean latency difference scores varied across
446 species for (A) novel object neophobia and (B) novel food neophobia. Positive difference scores
447 represent slower approaches to familiar food when a novel item is present (i.e. neophobia) and
448 negative difference scores represent faster approaches (i.e. neophilia). Points represent individuals.

449

450 **Figure 5. Effect of socio-ecological factors on neophobia.** Linear mixed model on socio-ecological
451 factors affecting latency to touch familiar food, using difference scores showed effects of urban
452 habitat, adult sociality, and flock size on novel object neophobia (A) and effect of flock size on novel
453 food neophobia (B). Positive difference scores represent slower approaches to familiar food when a
454 novel object is present (i.e. neophobia) and negative difference scores represent faster approaches (i.e.
455 neophilia). Points represent individual subjects and horizontal bars represent medians.

456

457 **Table 1. Socio-ecological factors of corvid species tested**

458

459 **STAR Methods**

460

461 **Subjects**

462 We tested 241 corvid subjects (141 males, 95 females, 5 unknown, primarily adult birds) across 10
463 species and 10 lab teams worldwide (S8 Table). The sample sizes ranged from 9 to 108 subjects per
464 species (mean = 24; median = 15), depending on subject availability. All subjects could be identified
465 individually (e.g. by coloured leg rings). Species tested were common ravens (n=15), carrion/ hooded
466 crows (n=18), large-billed crows (n=13), New Caledonian crows (n=9), ‘Alala’ (n=108), Eurasian
467 jays (n=24), pinyon jays (n=21), blue jays (n=9), Clark’s nutcrackers (n=10) and azure-winged

468 magpies (n=14). Each lab housed their own species according to the ethical and housing conditions
 469 required within each country, with two labs holding more than 1 species, and 3 species each tested at
 470 two different sites (S8 Table). Individual labs were responsible for the data collection of their birds
 471 but were provided with the same protocols to ensure the methodology remained consistent and were
 472 in regular contact with the organising team.

473 These species differ in several specific socio-ecological factors (Table 1). Information was collated
 474 as to whether species occupied a broad or restricted range (e.g. island-living endemic species), use of
 475 urban habitats (as well as rural and suburban), whether they hunt live birds and mammals, live in
 476 territorial pairs (primarily throughout the year or seasonally) or within family groups (e.g. dominant
 477 breeding pair with offspring), average flock size (small = up to 100 individuals, large = over 100
 478 individuals), whether they cache (hide food to return to later) large amounts of a specific food during
 479 certain seasons (specialised) or a variety of food across the year (moderate), and if they were from the
 480 *Corvus* genus or not^{27,38,45-47}.

481

482 **Table 1. Socio-ecological factors of corvid species tested**

Species	Range	Urban habitat	Hunting live animals	Food caching	Adult sociality	Flock size
Common raven, <i>Corvus corax</i>	Broad	*No	Yes	Moderate	Territorial pairs	Large
Carrion/ hooded crow, <i>Corvus corone</i> ; <i>C. cornix</i>	Broad	Yes	Yes	Moderate	** Territorial pairs	Large

Large-billed crow, <i>Corvus macrorhynchos</i>	Broad	Yes	Yes	Moderate	Territorial pairs	Large
New Caledonian crow, <i>Corvus moneduloides</i>	Restricted	No	No	Moderate	Family groups	Small
Alala, <i>Corvus hawaiiensis</i>	Restricted	No	Yes	Moderate	Territorial pairs	Small
Eurasian jay, <i>Garrulus glandarius</i>	Broad	Yes	Yes	Specialised	Territorial pairs	Large
Pinyon jay, <i>Gymnorhinus cyanocephalus</i>	Broad	No	No	Specialised	Family groups	Large
Blue jay, <i>Cyanocitta cristata</i>	Broad	Yes	No	Specialised	Territorial pairs	Small
Clark's nutcracker, <i>Nucifraga columbiana</i>	Broad	No	Yes	Specialised	Territorial pairs	Small

Azure-winged magpie, <i>Cyanopica cyanus</i>	Broad	Yes	No	Moderate	Family groups	Large
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483 Differentiation within factors restricted to 2 levels reflecting availability of published data to support
484 these distinctions across all species. * Typically applicable for Europe (where the common ravens
485 tested in this study were held and sourced); ravens have used/use cities at some North American sites
486 (personal communication, Thomas Bugnyar). ** One carrion crow population in Spain have helpers at
487 the next (i.e. cooperative breeding), though this is not reported in other populations⁴⁸

488

489 **Apparatus/materials**

490 There were three conditions: control (familiar food alone), novel food, and novel object (novel items
491 beside familiar food). The familiar food (placed in a familiar food bowl) varied between bird groups,
492 depending on the regular diet in each lab. The novel food consisted of jelly in 3cm³ blocks, also
493 placed in a (different) familiar food bowl. There were three colours/flavours of jelly used: orange,
494 purple/blackcurrant, and green/lemon & lime, which were presented individually across the three
495 rounds. As the species typically have different diets, and the food needed to be equally novel for them
496 all, a colourful, human-made food such as jelly provided an ideal option (with prior ethical approval
497 including from a Home Office appointed Named Veterinary Surgeon, Cambridge University). The
498 novel objects came in three variations, but all had the same properties: they were made of multiple
499 items and textures, with no part that could look like eyes (to avoid resembling predators), and all
500 contained the colours blue, yellow, green, and red³⁴. Part of the objects also had to be shiny, and the
501 objects were all between one third and one half the size of the subject (so the size of the object itself
502 varied with species; S3 Figure). All birds were tested in a feeding or testing compartment/cage, which
503 varied in dimensions by lab, but gave the birds as much room as possible to avoid and/or approach
504 stimuli. The testing area was familiar to the bird, or else the bird was habituated to the cage prior to
505 testing.

506

507 **Procedure**

508 The tests involved measuring behavioural responses to novel food and novel objects beside
509 familiar food, in relation to baseline measures of familiar food only (control). Data collection took
510 place outside of breeding season, with adult, captive individuals, other than the New Caledonian
511 crows, which were wild birds temporarily held in captivity. For most species/groups, individuals were
512 temporarily separated in visually isolated testing compartments, though typically not acoustically
513 isolated i.e. could hear groupmates ('Alala' were left in their regularly housed social groups for tests
514 to reduce stress, which were primarily 2-bird breeding pairs). Separation was achieved via voluntary
515 participation in some labs (e.g. Eurasian jays, New Caledonian crows, common ravens, 'Alala', as
516 well as – in T.B. & J.J.M.M. lab - carrion crows and azure-winged magpies), while the other birds
517 were physically moved by an experimenter to the familiar testing area as per the typical testing
518 procedures in each lab. The novel item (food or object) was placed beside the familiar food dish
519 (20cm for larger species i.e. *Corvus* genus, 10cm for smaller species i.e. other species), with items
520 placed in the same location (e.g. a table/ platform/ mesh wall – large enough so that the bird could
521 approach slowly from more than a body length away) for all tests and individuals within each species.
522 Where possible, the stimuli were present before the subject entered the testing compartment (all
523 species except ravens). The test trial started when the subject entered the testing compartment (or
524 experimenter left compartment). Each trial lasted a maximum of 10 minutes (600 seconds) or ended
525 when the subject touched the familiar food (i.e. beak contacted food).

526 Each novel test 'round' was conducted 3 times with 1 trial per condition per round (i.e. 9 trials in
527 total) to allow for testing for individual repeatability within and between conditions. The control trial
528 was conducted within 48 hours of both novel tests, and all in the morning, without withholding of
529 food before testing if possible. Each round of testing (1 trial each of food- control-object conditions)
530 took place with approx. 2 weeks between each round i.e. week 1: food-control-object, week 3: food-
531 control-object, week 5: food-control-object. Therefore, testing took approximately 6 weeks in total to
532 complete per species/group. The order of presentation of the novel food and objects was

533 counterbalanced across subjects, e.g. subject 1, round 1 – novel food type 1 (orange jelly), round 2 –
534 type 2 (green jelly), round 3 – type 3 (purple jelly); subject 2, round 1 – type 3, round 2 – type 1,
535 round 3 – type 2 etc. The testing schedule for half of the subjects was food-control-object in every
536 round, and for the other half object-control-food in every round per group. All species were tested in
537 all three conditions, except for the ‘Alala’s, which were tested in the familiar food and novel object
538 conditions only³⁴ (due to Covid-19 pandemic limiting access for testing the novel food condition).
539 Most individuals participated in all trials, with minimal missing data (S8 Table).

540 Our main measure was latency to touch familiar food signifying how long the individual took to
541 touch a familiar, desirable food in the presence of a novel item. Any avoidance of the novel item (and
542 thus familiar food) can then be interpreted as neophobia¹. Latency to touch familiar food was used
543 (rather than latency to eat) to control for any potential doubt as to whether the bird swallowed the
544 food.

545

546 **Data Analyses**

547 Trials were recorded and all new videos (>1200 videos were newly collected; >650 ‘Alala’ videos
548 were coded previously for³⁴ study) were coded in Solomon Coder. 12-15% of video trials for each
549 species/group were coded by a second coder to ensure inter-rater reliability: ‘Alala’: intra-class
550 correlation coefficient (ICC) = 0.956, CI = 0.94-0.97, $p < 0.001$; all other species: ICC = 0.879,
551 CI = 0.804-0.925, $p < 0.001$). The full corresponding dataset for all analysis and the R script is
552 available at: <https://figshare.com/s/16a77c3ab4e7569f0d98>

553 We had three main research questions and associated analyses: 1. species comparison 2. effect of
554 socio-ecological factors 3. individual temporal and contextual repeatability of neophobia. The main
555 dependent variable was latency to touch familiar food (0-600 seconds). We used R (version 4.1.0) for
556 all analysis. For Q1: we conducted a Linear Mixed Model (LMM) to assess which factors influenced
557 latency to touch familiar food. The residuals of a LMM visually approached normal distribution
558 (although the Shapiro-Wilk test indicated the distribution was different from normal, $W=0.9919$,
559 $p < 0.001$). We compared the LMM (packages `lm4`, `car`, functions `lmer()`, `anova()`, and `Anova()`) with

560 the raw latency scores with an LMM using a log (base 10) transformation of latency + 1 (to avoid 0s).
561 A likelihood ratio test (using `anova()` function) showed that the log-transformed model was preferred
562 over the raw latencies (AIC raw = 21934.6, AIC log10 = 2761.5). Further transformations and
563 Generalized Linear Mixed Models with other error distributions and link functions did not improve
564 model fit. We therefore used the log-transformed latencies for all analysis, though we plot the raw
565 latencies for visual clarity. With all LMMs, we used likelihood ratio tests to investigate the effect of
566 the individual predictors (using `drop1()` function with best-fit model as input and setting test statistic
567 to chi-square). We used Tukey comparisons (package `multcomp`, function `glht()`) for post-hoc tests
568 without direct p-value correction. P-value corrections, such as Bonferroni, limit the number of
569 possible comparisons⁴⁹ and comparison of multiple species was a primary aim in this study.

570 In LMM 1, using all data, we included the main effects of condition, species, and round in the
571 full model, with individual nested in site as a random effect and all variables set as factors. A potential
572 confound of our study is that most species were housed and tested in differing locations and
573 conditions, including testing compartment size. Site is therefore correlated closely with species.
574 However, three species were tested at two locations; therefore, we checked these three species
575 individually for an effect of site (LMM, site as main effects, individual as random effect; S2 Table).

576 To directly examine potential neophobia effects of novel objects and food, we calculated
577 difference scores by subtracting the log-transformed latency values of the control condition from
578 those of the novel object condition and separately for the novel food condition. Therefore, the control
579 serves as the baseline for how long it usually takes an individual to touch familiar food (without novel
580 items present). By subtracting this control value from the latency to touch familiar food when a novel
581 object was present should help to standardize for any site differences like cage size, e.g. species A has
582 a small test cage so may have a shorter control latency due to this (less space to cover/ more likely to
583 be closer at the start of the test) compared with species B with a large test cage. We created pairwise
584 individual difference scores for each round and individual (e.g. individual 1, novel object round 1
585 minus control round 1; novel object round 2 minus control round 2). In LMM 2 (object difference
586 scores) and LMM 3 (food difference scores), we included the main effects of species and round, with
587 individual nested in site as the random effect.

588 For Q2: we conducted LMM 4 (object difference score) and LMM 5 (food difference score), with
589 the main effects of range, urban habitat, adult sociality, flock size, caching, live hunting, and genus,
590 with individual nested in site as a random effect. The full models (including all predictor variables)
591 had the best fit according to AIC. Though accounting for phylogenetic relationships can be important
592 in some situations, testing for phylogenetic signal with fewer than 20 species is problematic^{41,42,50},
593 testing is not advisable for all research questions (e.g. Q1)⁵⁰, and the corvid evolutionary tree is not
594 yet well established for all tested species (e.g. conflicting genetic results about the closest relative for
595 ‘Alala□’) ⁵¹. Therefore, we did not include a phylogenetic control in our analyses. We did, however,
596 include the variable ‘genus’ (Corvus or not) in our Q2 models. Additionally, we provide a
597 phylogenetic tree for visualisation purposes with relative neophobia scores per species (Figure 1). In
598 reporting all results, we avoid using the term ‘significant’ ⁵².

599 For Q3, we tested across species and within species for individual repeatability over time (across
600 rounds) and over context (across conditions) using intraclass correlation coefficients (ICCs). We
601 extracted ICC estimates from linear models with individual as a random effect and bootstrapped 1,000
602 samples to generate 95% confidence intervals around the estimates (R package rpt, using rpt()
603 function). For contextual repeatability, we included condition in the linear model, and for temporal
604 repeatability, we included round in the model.

605 The ‘Alala□ control and novel object data was collected and examined in a previous study³⁴. We
606 used a comparable methodology as this study while collecting all the new data with the 9 new corvid
607 species for the present study. We edited the ‘Alala□ data set for the present study by introducing a
608 cut-off of maximum of 10 minutes for each trial (original data set maximum of 60 min trials) – any
609 individuals that did not touch familiar food within 10 minutes were assigned 600 seconds – to ensure
610 comparability.

611

612 Example video trials can be found at: <https://youtu.be/Lhzyk3srm dg>.

613

614 **Ethics Statement**

615 For animal research, all applicable international, national and/or institutional guidelines for the care
616 and use of animals were followed. For N.S.C's Comparative Cognition lab, this non-invasive
617 behavioural study with birds was conducted adhering to UK laws and regulations and was covered
618 under a non-regulated procedure through University of Cambridge, approved by the Home Office
619 appointed Named Animal Care and Welfare Officer, Named Veterinary Surgeon and Chairperson for
620 the Psychology and Zoology Department Animal User's Management Committee. For D.M.K lab,
621 research protocol approved by University of Manitoba's Animal User Committee (F18-041) and
622 complied with the guidelines set by the Canadian Council on Animal Care. For A.N., animal
623 experimentation license number: ZP 3/15. For E.I. lab, the experimental protocol (number 9069)
624 authorised by the Animal Care and Use Committee of Keio University, for capturing wild crows
625 (numbers 27924005 and 29030001) authorised by the Japanese Ministry of the Environment. For
626 J.R.S. lab, research protocol approved by University of Nebraska-Lincoln IACUC (number 1708). For
627 A.G. contribution, work was approved by San Diego Zoo Global's animal care and use committee
628 IACUC (number 16-009) and conducted under USFWS Permit (number TE-060179-5) and State of
629 Hawaii Division of Forestry and Wildlife permit (number WL16-04). For K.G. lab, a research
630 protocol approved by Luther College IACUC (no. 2019-4). For A.H.T. lab, a University of Auckland
631 Animal Ethics Committee (no. 001823). For T.B. lab, work on foraging decisions, including this non-
632 invasive behavioural study, was conducted adhering to Austrian law (2. Federal Law Gazette no.
633 501/1989) and approved by an Animal Ethics and Experimentation Board of the Faculty of Life
634 Sciences, University of Vienna. For Z.L. lab, the study was conducted according to the Ethics Review
635 Committee of Nanjing University (no. 2009-116), under Chinese law, no specific approval was
636 required for this non-invasive study.

637

638 **Supplemental Information Legends**

639

640 **S1 Figure. Latency to touch familiar food in each round, across all conditions and species.**

641 Round 3 differs significantly from round 1 and 2, while round 1 and 2 do not differ significantly from
642 each other. Points represent individuals, lines represent median. * $p < 0.05$

643

644 **S2 Figure. Site effect on latency to touch familiar food in azure-winged magpie, carrion crow
645 and pinyon jay**

646

647 **S3 Figure. Example of novel objects for Eurasian jays**

648

649 **S1 Table. Pairwise comparisons of latency data between species**

650

651 **S2 Table. Linear mixed models with main effect of site on latency to touch familiar food for the
652 three species that were tested in two sites**

653

654 **S3 Table. Pairwise comparisons of novel object difference scores between species**

655

656 **S4 Table. Pairwise comparisons of novel food difference scores between species**

657

658 **S5 Table. Individual temporal repeatability within each species and condition**

659

660 **S6 Table. Individual contextual repeatability within each species**

661

662 **S7 Table. Individual temporal and contextual repeatability**

663

664 **S8 Table. Subject information, including sex, source and participation in testing**

665

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