Learning and motor inhibitory control in crows and domestic chickens

Claudia A.F. Wascher[1]*, Katie Allen[1] & Georgine Szipl[2]

[1]Behavioural Ecology Research Group, School of Life Sciences, Anglia Ruskin University, United

Kingdom

[2]Konrad Lorenz Forschungsstelle, Core facility, University of Vienna, Austria

*Corresponding author: Claudia A.F. Wascher: School of Life Sciences, Anglia Ruskin University, East

Road, Cambridge, CB1 1PT United Kingdom; Phone: +44 (0) 1223 698270;

e-mail: claudia.wascher@gmail.com

Abstract (200 words)

Cognitive abilities allow animals to navigate through complex, fluctuating environments. In

the present study, we tested performance of a captive group of eight crows, *Corvus corone,* and ten

domestic chickens, *Gallus gallus domesticus*, in the cylinder task, as a test of motor inhibitory

control, and reversal learning as a measure of learning ability and behavioural flexibility. Four crows

and nine chickens completed the cylinder task, eight crows and six chickens completed the reversal

learning experiment. Crows performed better in the cylinder task compared to chickens. In the

reversal learning experiment, species did not significantly differ in the number of trials until

learning criterion was reached. Performance in the reversal learning experiment did not correlate

with performance in the cylinder task in chickens. Our results suggest crows to possess better

motor inhibitory control compared to chickens. In contrast, learning performance in a reversal

learning task did not differ between the species, indicating similar levels of behavioural flexibility.

Interestingly, we describe notable individual differences in performance. We stress the importance

not only to compare cognitive performance between species but also between individuals of the

same species when investigating the evolution of cognitive skills.

Key words: behavioural flexibility, carrion crows, domestic chickens, motor inhibitory control,

reversal learning,

Introduction

Introduction

Cognitive abilities allow animals to navigate through complex, fluctuating environments [1]

and critically affect survival and fitness of individuals [2]. Examples of cognitive abilities include

behavioural flexibility, an animal's ability to alter its behaviour in response to a novel stimulus and

to modify responses to familiar stimuli or inhibit previously successful behavioural strategies. A

common test of behavioural flexibility is the reversal learning task, where an individual has to learn

that one cue is rewarded over another in a discrimination task (acquisition phase) and subsequently

must respond to the previously unrewarded stimulus, when the cue-reward contingencies are

switched in the reversal phase of the experiment [3].

Behavioural inhibition is the ability to control a response in order to choose a conflicting

different course of action [4]. Environmental uncertainty can negatively affect inhibitory control.

Pheasants, *Phasianus colchicus*, for whom a previously learned association between a visual cue

and a food reward was perturbed to simulate environmental uncertainty, performed worse in an

inhibitory control task compared to control individuals [5]. A common test of behavioural inhibition

is the cylinder task. In this detour task, individuals are trained to take a food reward from an

opaque cylinder or tube, which is open at both ends. Once individuals are reliably doing this, the

opaque cylinder is replaced by a transparent one. The focal individual's ability to inhibit the motor

impulse to try to reach the reward through the long side of the cylinder, which forms a transparent

barrier between the individual and the reward, and detour to take the reward from the open ends

is assessed [6]. In recent years, behavioural inhibition performance has been tested in a wide range

of species (for example: cats, *Felis catus* [7]; common waxbills, *Estrilda astrild* [8]; dogs, *Canis*

familiaris [9]; goats, *Capra aegagrus hircus* [10]; great tits, *Parus major* [11]; guppies, *Poecilia*

reticulata [12]; sailfin molly, *Poecilia latipinna* [13]; vervet monkeys, *Chlorocebus pygerythrus* [14]).

A large-scale study by MacLean et al. (2014) compared inhibitory abilities in 36 species and found a

positive correlation between absolute brain size and motor inhibitory control [15]. Amongst birds

tested, different corvid species (common ravens, *Corvus corax*, New Caledonian crows, *Corvus*

moneduloides, and Western jackdaws, *Corvus monedula*) displayed the highest levels of motor

inhibitory control [16]. In the past, the reversal learning task, next to a test of behavioural flexibility,

also has been considered a test of behavioural inhibition, as individuals have to inhibit a previously

learned behaviour to succeed when the reward contingency changes [17–19]. However, based on

tests in humans, primates and rodents, this view has recently been contested [3,20–23].

In addition to species differences, cognitive performance in animals also differs between

individuals, for example based on sex [24] or personality [25]. Individual difference in cognitive

performance is relatively understudied and only recently has the importance to understand causes

and consequences of individual variation in cognitive performance been acknowledged [26]. In

addition to understanding variation in cognitive performance between species, to fully understand

the evolution of different cognitive abilities, it is also critical to further investigate temporal

(correlations in performance across different times) and contextual (correlations in performance

across different tasks) repeatability of cognitive performance [27].

In the last decades, the cognitive abilities, including behavioural flexibility and motor

inhibitory control, of corvids have been heavily studied [28,29]. For example, black-billed magpies,

Pica hudsonia, performed similarly compared to different monkey species in a basic concept

learning task [30], and jungle crows, *Corvus macrorhynchos*, learned to discriminate shapes and

form concepts [31]. In a reversal learning task, New Caledonian crows, a tool-using corvid species,

and carrion crows, a closely related non-tool using species, showed similar performance, suggesting

that tool use is not causing enhanced learning performance in crows [32]. Corvids paralleled

performance of great apes in a motor-inhibition task (common ravens: 100 %; jackdaws: 97 %; New

Caledonian crows: 92% success [16].

In contrast to corvids, fewer studies have investigated the cognitive abilities of domestic

chickens, *Gallus gallus domesticus*. Motor inhibitory control in chickens is related to housing

conditions. In a study by Ferreira et al. (2020) domestic chickens showed low levels of motor

inhibitory control in the cylinder task (32 % success) [33]. Motor inhibitory control was further

affected by individual ranging habits. Individuals with a higher movement range showed a poorer

performance compared to low ranging individuals. In red junglefowl, *Gallus gallus*, cognitive

flexibility and exploratory behaviour correlated in an age and sex dependent manner. In a reversal

learning task, it took chicks 7–64 (mean ± SE, 24.02 ± 1.61) trials to learn to initially discriminate

between two colours and adult female chickens 15–93 trials (mean ± SE, 46.32 ± 3.75). In the

reversal phase of the same study, chicks learned the reversed reward contingency after 10–62 trials

(mean ± SE, 32.98 ± 1.76) and adult female chickens learned this after 24–100 trials (mean ± SE,

65.22 ± 4.53). More explorative chicks in this study showed higher cognitive flexibility compared to

less explorative ones, while the opposite association was found for adult females [34]. Both groups,

corvids and chicken organise in complex social systems [29,35], which is assumed a driving factor in

the evolution of cognitive skills [36].

In the present study we investigated the performance of crows and domestic chickens in

two cognitive tasks, the cylinder task as a test of motor inhibitory control, and reversal learning as a

measure of learning ability and behavioural flexibility. In contrast to domestic chickens, crows are

widely considered 'brainy' birds [28], thus we could expect high levels of motor inhibition in crows,

but not in chickens. Recent research challenges this view and highlights the cognitive abilities of

chickens [37]. Further, it could be expected that corvids reach learning criterion in the reversal

learning task quicker compared to chickens and to show higher behavioural flexibility. We do not

necessarily share this expectation and aim to contribute to knowledge about individual

performances in cognitive tasks in two well-established model species. With our study we intend to

add to existing data on performances of different species in standardized experimental paradigms,

which should be relatively comparable to each other. Additionally, we intend to challenge the

broad assumption of certain 'brainy' bird species to excel at cognitive performance over less

'brainy' species, without testing the latter. By applying two widely used experimental test

paradigms which both species, at least physically, can perform without difficulty, *i.e.,* removing a

reward from a tube and lids to access food, allows a reasonably fair comparison of cognitive

performance between these two species.

Methods

Subjects and housing

The total study population consisted of eight crows, seven carrion crows, *Corvus corone*

corone, and one hooded crow, *Corvus corone cornix*. All crows were tested at the Konrad Lorenz

research station (KLF) in Grünau, Austria from October 2010 to August 2012. Crows were held in

large outdoor aviaries (15 m^2), in two male-female pairs, one trio (one male, two females) and one

single housed individual. Testing was conducted either in the main aviary with one animal visually

and spatially separated from the others, or in a separate, spacious testing room, which birds

entered voluntarily upon request. Rewards consisted of greaves, *i.e.,* fried pork skin, and cheese. All

focal individuals were hand-raised between 2007 and 2011, either at the KLF or by private people.

Crows were captured and brought into captivity by private individuals when ejected from the nest

at a young age by unfavourable weather conditions.

Domestic chickens, *Gallus gallus domesticus*, were housed at a stable yard in Piddinghoe,

Newhaven in East Sussex and tested from June to August 2019. The chickens outdoor ranging area

was 334 m^2, including the indoor area they were kept in at night, which was 13 m^2. The flock

consisted of thirteen female individuals and one rooster, hatched in 2017 or 2018. The chickens had

outdoor and indoor access during the day and were kept in a shed at night. Ten female domestic

chickens were selected based on their tameness and willingness to follow the experimenter into a

spacious test enclosure, visually and spatially separated from all other individuals. One individual

was excluded from the experiment due to becoming agitated and reluctant to enter the test area in

the course of the experiment. Chickens were rewarded with grapes.

All procedures were conducted in accordance with the ASAB/ABS guidelines for the

treatment of animals in behavioural research. Experiments complied with Austrian and UK

government guidelines. As experiments were entirely non-invasive, no further animal experimental

license was required. Experiments on domestic chickens have been approved by the School of Life

Sciences ethics panel at Anglia Ruskin University. All individuals participated and entered the

experimental compartments voluntarily. Individuals were held in captivity before and after

completion of the present study.

Experiment 1: The Detour Task

Four crows, two males and two females, and nine chickens were tested in this task. Due to

time constraints, not all individuals could be tested. The experimenter placed a food reward in an

opaque cylinder (approximately 30 cm in length and 10 cm in diameter), while the focal individual

was watching. The cylinder needed to be sufficiently long that the birds needed to insert their head

to obtain the reward at the centre of the cylinder, but not too large so that the birds could not

enter the cylinder with their whole body. Crows received ten trials per session, chickens received

five trials per session, to keep motivation of individuals high. A correct response was, when an

individual retrieved the reward from either of the openings, without any prior contact with the long

side of the cylinder. To pass the first stage of the detour task, individuals were required to complete

at least five successful retrieves in a row. Once the first stage of the experiment was completed,

individuals were presented with the transparent cylinder. Similar to the first stage, a food reward

was placed in the cylinder in front of the focal individual. Crows received one test session consisting

of ten trials and chickens two test sessions consisting of five trials. Therefore, overall, each

individual received ten trials. The number of correct responses, *i.e.,* individuals reaching directly to

the reward without touching the long side of the cylinder first, was recorded similarly to stage one

of the experiments. Individuals able to inhibit trying to reach the reward directly from the front but

retrieving the reward from the long side of the cylinder, and thus being able to detour, are

considered better at motor-inhibition.

Experiment 2: The Reversal Task

Eight crows, three males and five females, and nine chickens participated in this experiment.

Data on learning performance from four focal crows has been previously published [32]. The

apparatus consisted of two feeders that were mounted 30 cm apart on a wooden board. Feeders

could be covered with paper lids of different colours (orange and blue). Prior to the test, a

habituation period was conducted, familiarizing the focal individuals with the test apparatus and

procedure. First, individuals were habituated to take rewards from the feeders. Afterwards, feeders

were partially covered with a white lid, training individuals to comfortably remove the lid to

retrieve the reward. In each trial, a reward was placed in one of the feeders behind a barrier and

out of view of the focal animal. The lids were placed on the feeders and the apparatus positioned in

front of the focal individual, who was then allowed to remove one of the two lids. The experiment

consisted of two phases: an initial acquisition phase and a reversal phase. In the acquisition phase,

one colour was the rewarded (S+) stimulus, half of the birds started with orange as S+ the other half

with blue as S+. The success criterion for the acquisition phase was that 80 % of ten trials were

correct over two consecutive sessions or 100 % of ten trials correct in one session. Once a subject

met criterion the colour-reward contingency was reversed in the reversal phase. In the acquisition

phase, subjects were given a maximum of 140 trials to reach learning criterion, which one domestic

chicken did not reach and consecutively was not included in further testing in the reversal phase of

the experiment. Tests of two further chickens and one crow could not be completed in the reversal

phase due to time constraints. If a subject developed a positional bias (side bias), that is, when it

chose one side in six consecutive trials, a side bias correction procedure was applied until that

subject chose the non-preferred side once, whereupon we reverted to the normal pseudo-

randomized trial schedule and always rewarded the non-preferred side until that subject chose the

non-preferred side once. Test sessions consisted of ten trials each. The rewarded side was pseudo-

randomized, with each side being rewarded five times per session for the crows. Maximum number

of rewarded trials on one side was seven and minimum of times a side was rewarded in one session

was three in the chickens.

Statistical analysis

Statistical analysis was performed in R v. 3.5.3 (The R Foundation for Statistical Computing,

Vienna, Austria, http://www.r-project.org). Exact Wilcoxon-Mann-Whitney tests were computed to

195 compare test performances between crows and chickens. Spearman rank correlations were

196 calculated using the package Hmisc [38]. Spearman rank correlations were used to investigate

197 correlations in test performance within the reversal learning task, *i.e.*, between acquisition and

198 reversal phase and between tasks, *i.e.*, between reversal learning task and tube task. Additionally,

199 we calculated delta values in the reversal learning experiment, *i.e.*, trials required in the reversal

200 phase subtracted from trials until learning criterion is reached in the acquisition phase. We

201 correlated delta values in the reversal learning experiment and performance in the cylinder task. All

202 datasets and the R script used to conduct the statistical analyses are available as supplementary

203 files.

Results

Individual performance in the cylinder task ranged from 30 to 100 % correct trials in crows

(mean ± SD: 73 ± 31) and 10 to 40 % correct trials in domestic chickens (mean ± SD: 23 ± 12). Crows

performed better in the cylinder task compared to domestic chickens (Wilcoxon-Mann-Whitney

Test: W = 3, $n_{chickens}$ = 9, n_{crows} = 4, p = 0.023; Figure 1).

In the acquisition phase of the reversal task, individual performance in crows ranged from

31 to 118 trials until learning criterion was reached (mean ± SD: 73 ± 33) and in domestic chickens

from 30 to 140 trials (mean ± SD: 71 ± 39). In the reversal phase, crows' performance ranged from

56 to 200 trials until learning criterion was reached (mean ± SD: 122 ± 51) and domestic chickens'

performance ranged from 30 to 100 trials (mean ± SD: 87 ± 24). It should be noted that three

chickens did not complete the reversal phase of the experiment (Table 1). In the reversal learning

experiment, species did not differ in the number of trials until learning criterion was reached

(Wilcoxon-Mann-Whitney Test: acquisition phase: W = 34.5, $n_{chickens}$ = 9, n_{crows} = 8, p = 0.923;

reversal phase: W = 12, $n_{chickens}$ = 6, n_{crows} = 7, p = 0.221).

In crows, individuals who needed fewer trials to reach learning criterion in the acquisition

phase also needed fewer trials to reach criterion in the reversal phase (Spearman correlation: r =

0.86, n = 7, p = 0.013; Figure 2). This relationship was lacking in domestic chickens (Spearman

correlation: r = -0.14, n = 6, p = 0.796; Figure 2). Performance in the learning task did not correlate

with performance in the cylinder task in domestic chickens (Spearman correlation: acquisition

phase: r = 0.08, n = 9, p = 0.833; reversal phase: r = 0.48, n = 6, p = 0.329; delta values: r = -0.13, n =

6, p = 0.799; Figure 3a). As we have only tested four crows in the cylinder task, we could not

calculate a correlation between learning performance and performance in the cylinder task, but we

graphically illustrated results in figure 3b.

Discussion

In the present study, we describe the performance of crows and domestic chickens in a motor-inhibition task and a reversal learning task. Crows performed better in the cylinder task compared to domestic chickens. In the reversal learning task, crows reached learning criterion after 30 to 130 trials in the acquisition phase of the experiment and 60 to 200 trials in the reversal phase. Domestic chickens reached learning criterion after 30 to 140 trials in the acquisition phase and 30 to 100 trials in the reversal phase of the experiment.

In both tasks, we describe pronounced individual variation in performance in both species. Individual variation in cognitive performance only recently came into focus of comparative cognition research [26,39]. Presently, we can only speculate about the causes of individual differences in our sample. Individual differences in learning performance can be caused by physical characteristics of the environment [40], social factors [41] or differences in personality [25]. They can be caused by differences in attention and motivation [42]. A recent study found individual differences in cognitive performance in Australian magpies, *Cracticus tibicen dorsalis*, to be linked to group size, with individuals in larger groups performing better in cognitive tasks, thus providing empirical support for the social intelligence hypothesis [43]. Ultimately, individual differences in cognitive performance can affect individuals' survival and reproductive success [26,39,44]. In humans, different psychometric tests assessing different cognitive processes are well established, however similar tests have only been developed and validated in a small number of non-human animal species [45]. We suggest a better understanding of the causes and consequences of individual variation in cognitive performance will enhance our understanding of the evolution of cognitive processes.

One critical limitation of our study is the small sample size. We only tested four crows in the

cylinder task, which makes statistical comparisons between but also within the tested species

difficult. Small sample sizes are not uncommon in comparative cognition. In the field of physical

cognition, all studies conducted on corvids had a sample size smaller than ten [46]. This can be

explained by various factors, for example, the limited availability of captive individuals for testing,

the high training effort, and connected to this large time investment to conduct cognitive tests.

Opportunities to overcome these limitations could be multi-lab collaborative studies [47,48] or

meta-analyses (e.g., [25]. The present study, despite the small sample size, will contribute to the

growing body of literature about learning abilities in different species, and hopefully as such in

future can be incorporated into larger-scale comparisons. Additionally, we must acknowledge

potential differences in experience, for example regarding development and raising, social and

physical environment, differences in experience with cognitive tests, and potentially transparent

materials could account for differences in cognitive performance between species. In general, it is

challenging to keep groups of animals under the same conditions and experiences might even vary

between individuals of the same group. Cognitive studies that use voluntary participation, as we

did, may not sample the full range of personalities in a population and results might be affected by

a selection bias, with 'braver' individuals participating, whereas 'shyer' individuals, especially in the

chicken might not have been tested [49]. Webster and Rutz (2020) recently provided a framework

to allow researchers to judge potential sampling biases in their study populations [50]. They suggest

social background of individuals, e.g., dominance status, self-selection, e.g., participation of bold

individuals, the rearing history of animals, acclimation and habituation, natural changes in

responsiveness, and genetic make-up as potential factors affecting the behaviour of animals.

Presently, we can only speculate about the causes of individual differences in our sample, we

attempt to fully declare and acknowledge the 'STRANGEness' [50] of our study subjects and we

discuss potential effects of sampling bias onto our results. Although our sample might have been

biased, we would like to highlight that we describe pronounced individual difference within each

species of our sample. Cognition research in itself is biased and traditionally focusses on

comparisons between a small group of species considered as 'cognitively complex' [51]. Our results

illustrate that certain cognitive abilities, *e.g.,* learning abilities, might not differ between species

considered as cognitively complex, *i.e.,* crows, compared to species not considered to possess

cognitively advanced skills, *i.e.,* domestic chicken, however pronounced individual differences might

exist within species.

Our results suggest corvids to perform well and chickens to perform poorly in the cylinder

task, which is in line with previous findings [16,33]. This could indicate better motor inhibitory

control in crows compared to chickens. Motor inhibition and other aspects of self-control, along

with working memory and cognitive flexibility, are considered an integral part of executive

functioning in humans [52]. It could be argued that higher motor inhibitory control in corvids

compared to chickens allows them to selectively attend and suppress prepotent motor impulses

and therefore perform better in tasks requiring complex decision making processes, such as delay

of gratification [53,54], inequity aversion [55], tactical deception [56], mental time travel [57], and

causal reasoning [58]. Carrion crows are a food caching species, which regularly hide food for short

periods of time [59]. The regular practice to leave food behind for later consumption could lead to

better motor inhibitory control in crows compared to chickens, which are a non-caching species.

Another factor which could potentially contribute to performance in the cylinder task is object

permanence, *i.e.*, an understanding that an object exists even when it is out of sight. Carrion crows

have been shown to possess full Piagetian object permanence [60], whereas the cognitive ability

has not been fully studied in chickens [37]. This means a better sense of object permanence in

crows compared to chickens could lead to a better understanding of the reward still being present

although out of sight in the opaque stage of the cylinder task, which could affect overall

performance in the cylinder task. However, it also needs to be noted that chickens in previous tasks

could learn to solve a detour task [61] and that poor performance can be explained by perceptual

and motivational factors [62]. In summary, results of the cylinder task suggest crows to perform

better compared to chickens, but further research on the underlying causes of this is desirable.

In the reversal learning task, crows and domestic chickens did not differ in performance,

measured in the number of trials until learning criterion was reached, neither in the acquisition

phase, nor the reversal phase of the experiment, although it should be noted that three chickens

and one crow did not reach learning criterion. These results are in contrast to a previous study, in

which red-billed blue magpies, *Urocissa erythroryncha*, outperformed white leghorn chicken in a

serial reversal task [63], but they highlight the importance of replicating results of previous studies

and not drawing final conclusions about cognitive abilities of species from a limited sample of

individuals. It should be noted that the reversal learning task also requires a certain level of

behavioural inhibition [64]. In the chickens, we have conducted the cylinder task before the reversal

learning experiment, thus previous experience with the motor-inhibition task could have affected

performance of chickens in the reversal learning task.

Next to individual variation in cognitive performance, another aspect of comparative

cognition which needs to be taken into consideration is the question of which cognitive abilities

different tests assess. One main advantage of the cylinder task is that it is easy and quick to

conduct. The task requires low levels of habituation and training and can be successfully applied in

a wide variety of species and thus has been widely applied to assess motor inhibitory control [6,15].

However, the task is not uncontroversial and several authors question its suitability to assess motor

inhibition [65,66]. We can exclude that domestic chickens had prior experience with transparent

materials, however crows might have had prior experience, for example with transparent plastic

bottles, provided as enrichment to the captive crows. Experience with transparent materials could

be a potential cause for crows performing better compared to chickens, however in great tits, *Parus*

major, general experience with a transparent wall did not improve performance in the cylinder task

[11].

We found a positive correlation between learning performance in the acquisition and

reversal phase in crows but not in chickens. This indicates a relationship between reward-based

stimulus association learning and behavioural flexibility. Several studies evidence a lack of

correlation in performance between the acquisition and reversal learning phase [67]. The described

species difference between crows and chickens is interesting and warrants further investigation,

however due to the low sample size of the present study should not be over-interpreted.

In conclusion, in our experiments, crows seem to possess better motor inhibitory control

compared to domestic chickens. In contrast, learning performance in a reversal learning task did

not differ between crows and domestic chickens. The sample size of our study is too small to draw

final conclusions about differences or similarities in cognitive performance between the species,

however we found notable individual differences in performance in both species.

Acknowledgements

We thank Christian Schloegl for assistance with the experimental procedure while

conducting the cylinder task and two anonymous referees for valuable comments on the

manuscript.

Conflict of interest

At the time of writing, Claudia A.F. Wascher was a Board Member of Royal Society Open Science,

but had no involvement in the review or assessment of the paper. The authors declare no conflict

of interest.

Author contributions

Conceptualization: CAFW and GS; Data collection: CAFW, KA and GS; Formal analysis: CAFW;

Writing: CAFW, KA and GS.

References

1. Budaev S, Jørgensen C, Mangel M, Eliassen S, Giske J. 2019 Decision-making from the animal
perspective: Bridging ecology and subjective cognition. *Front. Ecol. Evol.* **7**, 164.
(doi:10.3389/fevo.2019.00164)

2. Shettleworth SJ. 2009 *Cognition, Evolution, and Behavior.* Oxford: Oxford University Press.

3. Izquierdo A, Brigman JL, Radke AK, Rudebeck PH, Holmes A. 2017 The neural basis of
reversal learning: An updated perspective. *Neuroscience* **345**, 12–26.
(doi:10.1016/j.neuroscience.2016.03.021)

4. Duque JF, Stevens JR. 2017 Cylinder Task. In *Encyclopedia of Animal Cognition and Behavior*
(eds J Vonk, T Shackelford), pp. 1–5. Cham: Springer International Publishing.
(doi:10.1007/978-3-319-47829-6_1608-1)

5. Griffin KR, Beardsworth CE, Laker PR, van Horik JO, Whiteside MA, Madden JR. 2020 The
inhibitory control of pheasants (Phasianus colchicus) weakens when previously learned
environmental information becomes unpredictable. *Anim. Cogn.* **23**, 189–202.
(doi:10.1007/s10071-019-01328-4)

6. Kabadayi C, Bobrowicz K, Osvath M. 2018 The detour paradigm in animal cognition. *Anim.*
Cogn. **21**, 21–35. (doi:10.1007/s10071-017-1152-0)

7. Bobrowicz K, Osvath M. 2018 Cats parallel great apes and corvids in motor self-regulation – not
brain but material size matters. *Front. Psychol.* **9**, 1995. (doi:10.3389/fpsyg.2018.01995)

8. Gomes ACR, Guerra S, Silva PA, Marques CI, Trigo S, Boogert NJ, Cardoso GC. 2020
Proactive common waxbills make fewer mistakes in a cognitive assay, the detour-reaching task.
Behav. Ecol. Sociobiol. **74**, 1–15. (doi:10.1007/s00265-020-2809-2)

9. Brucks D, Marshall-Pescini S, Wallis LJ, Huber L, Range F. 2017 Measures of dogs' inhibitory
control abilities do not correlate across tasks. *Front. Psychol.* **8**, 849.
(doi:10.3389/fpsyg.2017.00849)

10. Langbein J. 2018 Motor self-regulation in goats (*Capra aegagrus hircus*) in a detour-reaching
task. *PeerJ* **6**, e5139. (doi:10.7717/peerj.5139)

11. Isaksson E, Utku Urhan A, Brodin A. 2018 High level of self-control ability in a small passerine
bird. *Behav. Ecol. Sociobiol.* **72**, 118. (doi:10.1007/s00265-018-2529-z)

12. Lucon-Xiccato T, Gatto E, Bisazza A. 2017 Fish perform like mammals and birds in inhibitory
motor control tasks. *Sci. Rep.* **7**, 13144. (doi:10.1038/s41598-017-13447-4)

13. Gibelli J, Aubin-Horth N, Dubois F. 2019 Individual differences in anxiety are related to
differences in learning performance and cognitive style. *Anim. Behav.* **157**, 121–128.
(doi:10.1016/j.anbehav.2019.09.008)

14. Kumpan LT, Smeltzer EA, Teichroeb JA. 2020 Animal cognition in the field: performance of
wild vervet monkeys (Chlorocebus pygerythrus) on a reversal learning task. *Anim. Cogn.* **23**,
523–534. (doi:10.1007/s10071-020-01356-5)

15. MacLean EL *et al.* 2014 The evolution of self-control. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci.* **111**, E2140–E2148.
(doi:10.1073/pnas.1323533111)

16. Kabadayi C, Taylor LA, von Bayern AMP, Osvath M. 2016 Ravens, New Caledonian crows and
jackdaws parallel great apes in motor self-regulation despite smaller brains. *R. Soc. Open Sci.* **3**,
160104. (doi:10.1098/rsos.160104)

17. Dias R, Robbins TW, Roberts AC. 1996 Dissociation in prefrontal cortex of affective and
attentional shifts. *Nature* **380**, 69–72. (doi:10.1038/380069a0)

18. Glady Y, Genty É, Roeder J-J. 2012 Brown lemurs (Eulemur fulvus) can master the qualitative
version of the reverse-reward contingency. *PLoS ONE* **7**, e48378.
(doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0048378)

19. Macphail EM. 1976 Effects of hyperstriatal lesions on within-day serial reversal performance in
pigeons. *Physiol. Behav.* **16**, 529–536. (doi:10.1016/0031-9384(76)90210-9)

20. Bonté E, Flemming T, Fagot J. 2011 Executive control of perceptual features and abstract
relations by baboons (Papio papio). *Behav. Brain Res.* **222**, 176–182.
(doi:10.1016/j.bbr.2011.03.034)

21. Bonté E, Kemp C, Fagot J. 2014 Age effects on transfer index performance and executive control
in baboons (Papio papio). *Front. Psychol.* **5**. (doi:10.3389/fpsyg.2014.00188)

22. Fagot J, Bonté E, Hopkins WD. 2013 Age-dependant behavioral strategies in a visual search task
in baboons (Papio papio) and their relation to inhibitory control. *J. Comp. Psychol.* **127**, 194–
201. (doi:10.1037/a0026385)

23. Powers AS. 1989 Wulst lesions in pigeons disrupt go/no-go reversal. *Physiol. Behav.* **46**, 337–
339. (doi:10.1016/0031-9384(89)90277-1)

24. Range F, Bugnyar T, Schlögl C, Kotrschal K. 2006 Individual and sex differences in learning
abilities of ravens. *Behav. Processes* **73**, 100–106. (doi:10.1016/j.beproc.2006.04.002)

25. Dougherty LR, Guillette LM. 2018 Linking personality and cognition: a meta-analysis. *Philos.*
Trans. R. Soc. B Biol. Sci. **373**, 20170282. (doi:10.1098/rstb.2017.0282)

26. Boogert NJ, Madden JR, Morand-Ferron J, Thornton A. 2018 Measuring and understanding
individual differences in cognition. *Philos. Trans. R. Soc. B Biol. Sci.* **373**, 20170280.
(doi:10.1098/rstb.2017.0280)

27. Cauchoix M, Hermer E, Chaine AS, Morand-Ferron J. 2017 Cognition in the field: comparison
of reversal learning performance in captive and wild passerines. *Sci. Rep.* **7**, 12945.
(doi:10.1038/s41598-017-13179-5)

28. Taylor AH. 2014 Corvid cognition: Corvid cognition. *Wiley Interdiscip. Rev. Cogn. Sci.* **5**, 361–
372. (doi:10.1002/wcs.1286)

29. Wascher CAF. 2018 Corvids. In *Encyclopedia of Animal Cognition and Behavior* (eds J Vonk, T
Shackelford), pp. 1–12. Cham: Springer International Publishing. (doi:10.1007/978-3-319-
47829-6_1799-1)

30. Wright AA, Magnotti JF, Katz JS, Leonard K, Vernouillet A, Kelly DM. 2017 Corvids
outperform pigeons and primates in learning a basic concept. *Psychol. Sci.* **28**, 437–444.
(doi:10.1177/0956797616685871)

31. Bogale BA, Sugita S. 2014 Shape discrimination and concept formation in the jungle crow
(Corvus macrorhynchos). *Anim. Cogn.* **17**, 105–111. (doi:10.1007/s10071-013-0642-y)

32. Teschke I, Wascher CAF, Scriba MF, von Bayern AMP, Huml V, Siemers B, Tebbich S. 2013
Did tool-use evolve with enhanced physical cognitive abilities? *Philos. Trans. R. Soc. B Biol.*
Sci. **368**, 20120418. (doi:10.1098/rstb.2012.0418)

33. Ferreira VHB, Reiter L, Germain K, Calandreau L, Guesdon V. 2020 Uninhibited chickens:
ranging behaviour impacts motor self-regulation in free-range broiler chickens (*Gallus gallus*
domesticus). *Biol. Lett.* **16**, 20190721. (doi:10.1098/rsbl.2019.0721)

34. Zidar J, Balogh A, Favati A, Jensen P, Leimar O, Sorato E, Løvlie H. 2018 The relationship
between learning speed and personality is age- and task-dependent in red junglefowl. *Behav.*
Ecol. Sociobiol. **72**, 168. (doi:10.1007/s00265-018-2579-2)

35. Garnham L, Løvlie H. 2018 Sophisticated fowl: The complex behaviour and cognitive skills of
chickens and red junglefowl. *Behav. Sci.* **8**, 13. (doi:10.3390/bs8010013)

36. Dunbar RIM. 1998 The social brain hypothesis. *Evol. Anthropol. Issues News Rev.* **6**, 178–190.

37. Marino L. 2017 Thinking chickens: a review of cognition, emotion, and behavior in the domestic
chicken. *Anim. Cogn.* **20**, 127–147. (doi:10.1007/s10071-016-1064-4)

38. Harrell FJr, Dupont C. 2019 *Frank Hmisc: Harrell Miscellaneous. R package version 4.3-0.*
https://CRAN.R-project.org/package=Hmisc.

39. Thornton A, Lukas D. 2012 Individual variation in cognitive performance: developmental and
evolutionary perspectives. *Philos. Trans. R. Soc. B Biol. Sci.* **367**, 2773–2783.
(doi:10.1098/rstb.2012.0214)

40. Pike TW, Ramsey M, Wilkinson A. 2018 Environmentally induced changes to brain morphology
predict cognitive performance. *Philos. Trans. R. Soc. B Biol. Sci.* **373**, 20170287.
(doi:10.1098/rstb.2017.0287)

41. Dalesman S. 2018 Habitat and social context affect memory phenotype, exploration and
covariance among these traits. *Philos. Trans. R. Soc. B Biol. Sci.* **373**, 20170291.
(doi:10.1098/rstb.2017.0291)

42. Herrmann E, Call J. 2012 Are there geniuses among the apes? *Philos. Trans. R. Soc. B Biol. Sci.*
367, 2753–2761. (doi:10.1098/rstb.2012.0191)

43. Ashton BJ, Ridley AR, Edwards EK, Thornton A. 2018 Cognitive performance is linked to
group size and affects fitness in Australian magpies. *Nature* **554**, 364–367.
(doi:10.1038/nature25503)

44. Cauchard L, Angers B, Boogert NJ, Lenarth M, Bize P, Doligez B. 2017 An Experimental Test
of a Causal Link between Problem-Solving Performance and Reproductive Success in Wild
Great Tits. *Front. Ecol. Evol.* **5**, 107. (doi:10.3389/fevo.2017.00107)

45. Völter CJ, Tinklenberg B, Call J, Seed AM. 2018 Comparative psychometrics: establishing what
differs is central to understanding what evolves. *Philos. Trans. R. Soc. B Biol. Sci.* **373**,
20170283. (doi:10.1098/rstb.2017.0283)

46. Farrar BG, Altschul DM, Fischer J, van der Mescht J, Placì S, Troisi CA, Vernouillet A, Clayton
NS, Ostojic L. 2020 Trialling meta-research in comparative cognition: Claims and statistical
inference in animal physical cognition. *Anim. Behav. Cogn.* **7**, 419–444.
(doi:10.26451/abc.07.03.09.2020)

47. Many Primates *et al.* 2019 Establishing an infrastructure for collaboration in primate cognition
research. *PLOS ONE* **14**, e0223675. (doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0223675)

48. Primates M *et al.* 2019 Collaborative open science as a way to reproducibility and new insights
in primate cognition research. (doi:10.31234/osf.io/8w7zd)

49. Morton FB, Lee PC, Buchanan-Smith HM. 2013 Taking personality selection bias seriously in
animal cognition research: a case study in capuchin monkeys (Sapajus apella). *Anim. Cogn.* **16**,
677–684. (doi:10.1007/s10071-013-0603-5)

50. Webster MM, Rutz C. 2020 How STRANGE are your study animals? *Nature* **582**, 337–340.
(doi:10.1038/d41586-020-01751-5)

51. Miller R, Boeckle M, Jelbert SA, Frohnwieser A, Wascher CAF, Clayton NS. 2019 Self control
in crows, parrots and nonhuman primates. *Wiley Interdiscip. Rev. Cogn. Sci.* **10**.
(doi:10.1002/wcs.1504)

52. Diamond A. 2013 Executive functions. *Annu. Rev. Psychol.* **64**, 135–168. (doi:10.1146/annurev-
psych-113011-143750)

53. Dufour V, Wascher CAF, Braun A, Miller R, Bugnyar T. 2012 Corvids can decide if a future
exchange is worth waiting for. *Biol. Lett.* **8**, 201–204. (doi:10.1098/rsbl.2011.0726)

54. Hillemann F, Bugnyar T, Kotrschal K, Wascher CAF. 2014 Waiting for better, not for more:
corvids respond to quality in two delay maintenance tasks. *Anim. Behav.* **90**, 1–10.
(doi:10.1016/j.anbehav.2014.01.007)

55. Wascher CAF, Bugnyar T. 2013 Behavioral responses to inequity in reward distribution and
working effort in crows and ravens. *PLoS ONE* **8**, e56885. (doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0056885)

56. Bugnyar T. 2013 Social cognition in ravens. *Comp. Cogn. Behav. Rev.* **8**, 1–12.
(doi:10.3819/ccbr.2013.80001)

57. Clayton NS, Dickinson A. 1998 Episodic-like memory during cache recovery by scrub jays.
Nature **395**, 272–274. (doi:10.1038/26216)

58. Schloegl C, Dierks A, Gajdon GK, Huber L, Kotrschal K, Bugnyar T. 2009 What you see is what
you get? Exclusion performances in ravens and keas. *PLoS ONE* **4**, e6368.
(doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0006368)

59. de Kort SR, Clayton NS. 2006 An evolutionary perspective on caching by corvids. *Proc. R. Soc.
B Biol. Sci.* **273**, 417–423. (doi:10.1098/rspb.2005.3350)

60. Hoffmann A, Rüttler V, Nieder A. 2011 Ontogeny of object permanence and object tracking in
the carrion crow, Corvus corone. *Anim. Behav.* **82**, 359–367.
(doi:10.1016/j.anbehav.2011.05.012)

61. Scholes NW. 1965 Detour learning and development in the domestic chick. *J. Comp. Physiol.*
Psychol. **60**, 114–116. (doi:10.1037/h0022335)

62. Regolin L, Vallortigara G, Zanforlin M. 1994 Perceptual and motivational aspects of detour
behaviour in young chicks. *Anim. Behav.* **47**, 123–131. (doi:doi:10.1006/anbe.1994.1014)

63. Gossette RL, Gossette MF, Riddell W. 1966 Comparisons of successive discrimination reversal
performances among closely and remotely related avian species. *Anim. Behav.* **14**, 560–564.
(doi:10.1016/S0003-3472(66)80060-X)

64. Tapp PD. 2003 Size and reversal learning in the Beagle dog as a measure of executive function
and inhibitory control in aging. *Learn. Mem.* **10**, 64–73. (doi:10.1101/lm.54403)

65. Farrar B, Boeckle M, Clayton N. 2020 Replications in comparative cognition: What should we
expect and how can we improve? *Anim. Behav. Cogn.* **7**, 1–22. (doi:10.26451/abc.07.01.02.2020)

66. van Horik JO, Langley EJG, Whiteside MA, Laker PR, Beardsworth CE, Madden JR. 2018 Do
detour tasks provide accurate assays of inhibitory control? *Proc. R. Soc. B Biol. Sci.* **285**,
20180150. (doi:10.1098/rspb.2018.0150)

67. Guido JM, Biondi LM, Vasallo AI, Muzio RN. 2017 Neophobia is negatively related to reversal
learning ability in females of a generalist bird of prey, the Chimango Caracara, Milvago
chimango. *Anim. Cogn.* **20**, 591–602. (doi:10.1007/s10071-017-1083-9)

Table 1. Individuals tested in the present study. Number of trials until learning criterion is reached

in the acquisition and reversal phase of the learning experiment as well as percentage of trials

correct in the cylinder task. Missing values indicates that the respective individual has not

completed the task (reversal task: three chickens; cylinder task four crows).

Name	Species	Sex	Acquisition	Reversal	Cylinder Task
Baerchen	crow	male	31	62	100
Gabi	crow	female	50	90	
Peter	crow	female	65	107	90
Toeffel	crow	female	118	160	
Klaus	crow	male	33	56	70
Resa	crow	female	102		30
Nino	crow	female	90	200	
Walter	crow	male	95	159	
BG	chicken	female	100		10
DG	chicken	female	40	80	30
LB	chicken	female	30	90	20
N	chicken	female	60	30	20
O	chicken	female	140		40
P	chicken	female	60	90	40
WH	chicken	female	120		10
W	chicken	female	40	80	10
Y	chicken	female	50	100	30

540   Figure 1. Percentage of correct test trials in the cylinder task. Box plots show the median and the

541   interquartile range from the 25th to the 75th percentiles, black circles represent individual

542   performance.

546   Figure 2. Relationship between learning performance in the acquisition phase (x-axis) and the

547   reversal phase (y-axis) in crows (blue circles) and domestic chickens (red circles).

556 Figure 3. Relationship between learning performance in the acquisition phase (a) and reversal

557 phase (b) on the x-axis and performance in the cylinder task (y-axis) in crows (blue circles) and

558 domestic chickens (red circles).

559