

1 **Testing the maintenance of natural responses to survival-relevant calls in the conservation**
2 **breeding population of a critically endangered corvid (*Corvus hawaiiensis*)**

3 Anne C. Sabol^{1,2*}, Alison L. Greggor¹, Bryce Masuda¹, Ronald R. Swaisgood¹

4 ¹**Conservation Science and Wildlife Health, San Diego Zoo Wildlife Alliance, Escondido,**
5 **USA**

6 ²**Department of Biological Sciences, Florida International University**

7 *Corresponding author: Anne Sabol, acsabol72@gmail.com

8

9 **Abstract**

10 Vocal communication serves an important role in driving animals' social interactions and
11 ultimately their survival. However, both the structure of and responses towards natural vocal
12 behavior can be lost or subject to alteration under human care. Determining if animals in
13 conservation breeding programs exhibit and respond appropriately to species-specific
14 vocalizations is therefore important for ensuring their survival post-release. We tested whether
15 endangered 'alalā (*Corvus hawaiiensis*), which are extinct in nature, have retained their natural
16 responses to vocal calls that would be linked to survival and reproduction in the wild. We
17 conducted our studies on breeding populations derived from a small number of founding 'alalā
18 maintained under human care since their extinction in the wild in 2002. We presented pairs of
19 'alalā with alarm, territorial intrusion, and two types of control playback calls (a non-threatening
20 territorial maintenance call and a novel heterospecific call). 'Alalā were significantly more likely
21 to approach the speaker following alarm call playback than other call types, and were more likely
22 to respond to territorial intrusion calls with the same aggressive territorial calls. Males were more
23 likely to make these aggressive calls than females, mirroring their roles in territory defense. We
24 also found individual consistency in the level of vocal behavior response across all call types,

25 indicating that some individuals are more vocal than others. These results are encouraging,
26 showing that ‘*alalā* exhibit relevant, species-specific behaviors despite generations under human
27 care. They do illustrate, however, that not all individuals respond appropriately, so vocal response
28 may be an important factor to consider in determining the release suitability of individuals.

29

30 **Significance Statement**

31 Effective communication is crucial to the survival of many animals, but can erode
32 without natural selection. Therefore, testing the flexibility and maintenance of communication
33 and vocal responses in contexts where animals are isolated from conspecifics or from survival
34 consequences, such as in conservation breeding centers, can help determine species’
35 susceptibility to communication loss. We used playbacks of survival-related conspecific calls to
36 test if ‘*alalā* (*Corvus hawaiiensis*), retained species-specific responses to these calls after
37 generations under human care. We found that birds maintained a species-level natural response,
38 however these natural responses were not consistent across individuals, suggesting that some
39 birds may not be well equipped to survive in the wild without additional training or care.

40

41 **Keywords** anti-predator, captive breeding, communication, corvid, translocation, territory
42 defense, vocalization

43

44 **Acknowledgements**

45 We greatly appreciate the wildlife care specialists at KBCC and MBCC who accommodated this
46 research and thank Patrick Hart for lending us recording equipment. We would also like to thank
47 members of the Catenazzi and Cox labs for their feedback on an earlier draft and to Ramona

48 Rauber for helpful discussion about ‘alalā call types. We would like to thank Jeffrey Podos in his
49 role as an editor and two anonymous reviewers for their feedback.

50

51 **Declarations**

52 **Funding**

53 Funding for ‘Alalā conservation breeding efforts was provided by the U.S. Fish and Wildlife
54 Service, Hawaii Division of Forestry and Wildlife, anonymous donors, and San Diego Zoo
55 Wildlife Alliance

56 **Conflicts of Interest**

57 The authors have no conflicts of interest to declare that are relevant to the content of this article.

58 **Availability of data and material**

59 Data and code are available on the OSF repository at: <https://osf.io/pu5fb/>. Pre-print available at:
60 <https://www.biorxiv.org/content/biorxiv/early/2021/05/25/2021.05.24.445466.full.pdf>

61 **Code availability**

62 Data and code are available on the OSF repository at: <https://osf.io/pu5fb/>.

63 **Ethics approval**

64 This work using animal subjects was approved by San Diego Zoo Wildlife Alliance’s IACUC
65 committee (No. 16-009). Several permits were issued for the conservation breeding of ‘alalā
66 (USFWS Native Endangered Species Recovery Permit TE060179-5, State of Hawaii Protected
67 Wildlife Permit WL19-16).

68

69 **Introduction**

70 Animals have evolved mechanisms for communication that facilitate survival and
71 reproduction. For primarily vocal species, how individuals respond to conspecific vocal cues and
72 signals can have survival-relevant consequences. For instance, failing to respond to an alarm call
73 could result in predation, or failing to adequately broadcast territorial calls could cause a loss of
74 territory, mates, or offspring. Whether or not animals exhibit appropriate species-specific
75 communication is particularly important in conservation breeding programs. Animals that have
76 spent generations under human care need to retain their natural behaviors for successful return to
77 the wild (Rabin 2003; McPhee 2004 a, b). However, behavioral erosion is a common byproduct
78 when animals are held under human care, resulting in the loss of survival-relevant behaviors,
79 deviations from wild-type behavior in form, or the expression of behaviors in inappropriate
80 contexts. These alterations in behavioral phenotype can occur developmentally in a single
81 generation or genetically/epigenetically across generations, and have been documented across a
82 wide variety of vertebrate species for many functional categories of behavior, including
83 antipredator, locomotory, foraging, refuge use, and reproductive, competitive and other social
84 behaviors (Frankham 2008; Grueber et al. 2015; Grueber et al. 2017). The loss of survival-relevant
85 behaviors (McPhee and Carlstead 2010; Shier 2016), including losses in vocal diversity (Corfield
86 et al. 2008; Digby et al. 2013) and dialect drift (Lewis et al. 2021) can alter call functionality and
87 compromise reintroduction programs using animals bred under human care. A combination of
88 forces from evolution, culture (Brakes et al. 2019), and direct experience interact to shape animals'
89 vocal behaviors (Hollén and Radford 2009; Bradbury and Vehrencamp 2011), all of which may
90 be impacted by the altered environment in conservation breeding facilities. Management of
91 animals under human care, therefore, faces the challenge of providing opportunities for animals to
92 maintain and express these behaviors in preparation for release into the wild (Greggor et al. 2018).

93 Among the vocal signals that animals need to retain, anti-predator signals (alarm calls) are
94 particularly important because they are a component of an animal's defense against predators
95 (Hollen and Radford 2009). Developmentally, they may be more canalized, with alarm call
96 production and responses emerging in development without direct experience with predators.
97 While learning is undoubtedly important for fine-tuning production and responses to antipredator
98 calls (Seyfarth and Cheney 1980; Griffin et al. 2000), selection should favor individuals that
99 respond appropriately to alarm calls without direct experience associating alarm calls with
100 predation, therefore they should be relatively resistant to loss in comparison to other call types.
101 However, some antipredator behavior responsiveness can be lost over an individual's lifetime in
102 the absence of predator exposure (Muralidhar et al. 2019). The importance of antipredator alarm
103 calling for conservation breeding and translocation programs is underscored by the finding that
104 predation is one of the primary causes of mortality for animals after release to the wild, across
105 taxonomically diverse species (Fischer and Lindenmayer 2000; Moseby et al. 2011; Berger-tal et
106 al. 2020).

107 Another important set of signals helps animals avoid conspecific conflict by alerting others
108 to their shared or defended resources. Territorial species, for instance, have evolved multiple forms
109 of communication that broadcast an intent to defend their territory. From ornamental displays, to
110 physical demonstrations (e.g., Decourcy and Jenssen 1994), or auditory signals (Greenfield and
111 Minckley 1993), there are a variety of ways that animals communicate territory occupancy to avoid
112 unnecessary conflict. These calls often serve to communicate motivation and a level of severity of
113 the territorial threat (Mager et al. 2012), ranging from maintenance calls to aggressive intrusion
114 calls. The ability to efficiently set up and defend a territory can be critical to breeding and later
115 reproductive success (Hiebert et al. 1989). Therefore, for territorial species that rely on vocal

116 communication, having an ability to understand and respond to different territorial calls may be
117 crucial for survival and reproduction in the wild. Any divergence in the production or perception
118 of these important calls from wild phenotypes may challenge social integration and the success of
119 translocation outcomes (Lewis et al. 2021).

120 Here we examine the communication system of the endangered ‘alalā (*Corvus hawaiiensis*)
121 within conservation breeding facilities, with the goal of evaluating their responses to major
122 categories of conspecific vocal signals. Ultimately, we aim to determine if they have retained
123 important components of natural behaviors that will facilitate successful reintroduction. The ‘alalā,
124 or Hawaiian crow, is the last remaining corvid species of the Hawaiian islands (Banko et al. 2002).
125 They were a keystone species for the Hawaiian wet and mesic forests, and the only known seed
126 disperser for a number of native plants (Culliney et al. 2012). They went extinct in the wild in
127 2002, after decades of rapid decline due to disease, habitat loss/fragmentation and invasive
128 predators, today surviving only in conservation breeding facilities (USFWS 2009). Efforts are
129 ongoing to reintroduce ‘alalā back into the wild, yet the birds still face a long road to recovery and
130 have not yet demonstrated successful breeding in the wild.

131 There have been but a few studies on ‘alalā vocal behavior, yet we know they have a diverse
132 vocal repertoire (Tanimoto et al. 2017a). Based on the complexity of vocal communication in other
133 corvids (Enggist-Dueblin and Pfister 2002) and the role it plays in their social lives (Clayton and
134 Emery 2007), we would expect ‘alalā calls to broadcast varying vocal signals, containing
135 information about predators or conspecific territorial intrusions, with potentially important fitness
136 consequences. ‘Alalā are fiercely territorial as adults, but as juveniles they form flocks, and
137 associate with members of both sexes. Historically, breeding pairs, and especially males, would
138 make a number of different, frequent territorial broadcast calls on the edges of their large territories

139 (Banko et al. 2002); Additionally, like many species, ‘alalā are known to employ a range of alarm
140 calls to warn others of danger (Tanimoto et al. 2017a; Greggor et al. 2021); although it is currently
141 unknown if the structural differences between ‘alalā alarm call types are used to distinguish
142 functional call categories. While comparatively little was known about ‘alalā calls when the
143 species became extinct in the wild, evidence suggests that the frequency and type of some calls
144 they make in the conservation breeding centers differ from their historical vocal behavior in the
145 wild, including in the categories of territorial and alarm calls (Tanimoto et al. 2017b). It is unclear
146 whether these changes are due to the erosion of natural behavior in the conservation breeding
147 facilities, or due to a lack of context for expressing wild-type calls, for example, a lack of predation
148 pressure resulting in a reduced need for alarm calls. Additionally, given that they are housed at
149 much higher densities than wild ‘alalā and suffer reproductive consequences from close proximity
150 of conspecifics (Flanagan et al. 2020), it is possible that individuals in the conservation breeding
151 population have become desensitized to their social surroundings, and no longer respond
152 appropriately to these important signals, especially given that corvids have been shown to ignore
153 unreliable callers (Wascher et al. 2015). Thus far there have been no studies examining behavioral
154 responses to experimental playbacks of vocal calls in ‘alalā, beyond a preliminary pilot that
155 identified alarm call types (i.e. Greggor et al. 2021). Given how little is known about the vocal
156 behavior of ‘alalā in the wild before they went extinct, any future insight into call types and
157 function must study the population under human care, however, we acknowledge that
158 interpretations of the current fitness consequences of call function should be interpreted cautiously
159 in light of these knowledge gaps.

160 We conducted an investigation of ‘alalā responses to vocal signals to better understand
161 vocal communication and behavior of this near-extinct species. Specifically, we examined whether

162 ‘alalā still respond to species-specific calls in ways that indicate a retained meaning, despite their
163 generations removed from nature, or whether their responses to conspecific call playbacks are
164 indicative of a loss of vocal signals under human care, a call for concern that portends poor social
165 integration and antipredator defense upon release. We presented birds with recorded playbacks of
166 alarm and aggressive territory intrusion calls, alongside control calls and sounds, and measured
167 how likely birds were to approach the calling sound and to respond to it with the same call type or
168 a different call type (Table 1). We chose these two call types in the context of preparing birds for
169 survival alongside predators and the maintenance of social skills necessary for setting up and
170 defending territories from conspecifics. We also presented ‘alalā with two control calls to rule out
171 the effect of the social novelty and auditory novelty of hearing a call outside of their aviary.
172 Namely, we played a non-threatening ‘alalā territorial maintenance call, which birds routinely
173 make from their existing territories, and should therefore not broadcast any threat, and a call from
174 a novel species that ‘alalā have never heard.

175 If the environment of the conservation breeding facility has reduced birds’ responses to
176 auditory stimuli generally (i.e. desensitization), we would expect that ‘alalā produce no response
177 to any of the call types (neither approaching nor making calls of their own), suggesting that the
178 birds are over-stimulated. Responding naturally to one category, but not all of them, could indicate
179 that some calls have lost their referential meaning either due to a lack of context for expression or
180 as an artefact of generations of conservation breeding. Meanwhile, if birds have retained their
181 natural responses to alarm and territorial intrusion calls, we would expect to see differences
182 between them and control call types. Specifically, birds should respond to territorial intrusion calls
183 with their own aggressive territorial intrusion calls (Bradbury and Vehrencamp 2011), and this
184 effect should be most pronounced in males, due to the larger role males historically played in

185 territorial defense (Banko et al. 2002). For alarm calls, the natural response is more complicated.
186 We would expect birds to approach the source of the call to investigate the potential source of
187 danger, and may respond with alarm calls (Hill 1986; Manser et al. 2002). Meanwhile the birds
188 should not show any clear response to the general territorial maintenance call, since it does not
189 denote a threat, and may show signs of neophobia, or a hesitancy to approach, the novel call, since
190 ‘*‘*alalā are highly neophobic in other contexts (Greggor et al. 2020).

191

192 **Methods**

193 We conducted the experiment on 28 breeding pairs, i.e. 62% of the entire ‘*‘*alalā breeding
194 population, at the Keauhou Bird Conservation Center (KBCC; n = 24 pairs) and the Maui Bird
195 Conservation Center (MBCC; n = 4 pairs) between September and November 2018. The birds at
196 both facilities are currently several generations removed from the wild. Birds were tested in their
197 home enclosure with their breeding partner. Each pair was housed in an outdoor aviary, with
198 covered areas for shelter and feeding, and had daily ad libitum access to food and water.
199 Throughout the facility, interaction with people is minimized to reduce the effects of human care
200 (see Greggor et al. 2018). The birds have auditory access to other breeding pairs and most do not
201 have visual access. For the few buildings with more than one pair in adjacent aviaries we only
202 tested one pair per building to minimize subjects’ prior exposure to the experimental setup. It is
203 possible that birds could see the experimental setup at adjacent aviaries, so we put as much time
204 as possible between trials at neighboring aviaries. At KBCC there was an average of 25 days
205 between trials at neighboring aviaries, though due to scheduling constraints the range was
206 somewhat large, between 5-53 days between trials at neighboring aviaries. At MBCC due to time
207 constraints at this facility there were only two pairs of neighboring aviaries, and these trials were

208 done 2 and 3 days apart. Four pairs were physically separated from each other for husbandry
209 reasons, but both had visual access to each other during all of their trials.

210 *Experimental design of playback study*

211 We designed the playback study to determine how ‘alalā respond to alarm and other social
212 and non-social acoustic stimuli. We hypothesized that responses to different call types will vary
213 according to the context in which they are used and putative call meaning (Tanimoto et al. 2017a).
214 The experiment entailed playback of four distinct acoustic stimuli: (1) conspecific alarm call, (2)
215 conspecific territorial intrusion call, (3) conspecific non-threatening territorial maintenance call,
216 and (4) heterospecific call from a novel bird species (Table 1). Alarm calls are high-pitched calls
217 given to warn other birds of danger (Tanimoto et al. 2017a), which are typical of corvid vocal
218 repertoires (e.g. Marzluff et al. 2010; Bila et al. 2016; McIvor et al. 2018). By contrast, territorial
219 intrusion calls are given when birds are actively and aggressively defending their territory, in
220 situations that can escalate into physical aggression. Meanwhile, the non-threatening, territorial
221 maintenance calls that ‘alalā make routinely on the edges of their territories in the absence of any
222 direct threat or aggression were included as a conspecific control stimuli.

223 We employed a repeated-measures design in which each subject received playback of each
224 call type in a balanced, random order ensuring that each type of call was played first, second, third,
225 or fourth an equal number of times across all trials. Individual and temporal differences in
226 responsiveness to the experimental setup and acoustic playback can be a source of response
227 variation that adds statistical noise in playback studies. To address this possibility, we included a
228 pre-trial period before call playbacks in which subjects were exposed to ambient forest noise
229 playback (details below). The same forest noise was used as a post-playback stimulus for all trials,
230 so that conditions were constant for comparisons of observed behavior in pre- and post-call

231 playback periods. We used this comparison to evaluate behavioral changes in the aftermath of call
232 playbacks.

233

234

235

236 Table 1 Explanation of stimuli types and predicted responses

Call type	Experimental design function	Predicted behavioral responses
Alarm	Evaluate whether ‘alalā retain anti-predator responsiveness to conspecific calls indicating danger or predation threat	Vigilance, alarm calls, cautious approach (predicted to coordinate social anti-predator response)
Territorial Intrusion	Discriminate between response to an alarming social stimulus versus an alarming antipredator stimulus	Aggressive approach, territorial intrusion calling
Territorial maintenance	Control: non-alarming conspecific stimulus	No specific call response predicted, but ‘alalā could show interest and possible social attraction

Novel Control Control: non-alarming heterospecific stimulus No call response predicted; perhaps hesitancy to approach, based on neophobia.

237

238 *Call recording and playback methods*

239 We collected all audio recordings with a Roland R-05 acoustic recorder and directional
240 boom microphone. Conspecific calls and forest noise controls were recorded at the KBCC. We
241 collected calls opportunistically but tried to capture certain situations where we expected birds to
242 make the calls in question. For example, for territorial intrusion calls we recorded when males
243 were being moved between aviaries for husbandry purposes, as this is a time when we would
244 expect these territorial intrusion calls. Additionally, the alarm calls collected were verified against
245 calls collected at times of recapture at the facility and predatory exposure (e.g. Greggor et al. 2021).
246 To address pseudoreplication, one set of calls was collected from each of three males, resulting in
247 three unique sets of conspecific calls. A follow up analysis revealed no difference in birds'
248 responses between the three sets of calls (see Supplementary Materials). We assigned 'alalā call
249 types initially by social context and subjective perception, then confirmed assignment by
250 examining spectrograms. Calls from unfamiliar species were collected opportunistically at the
251 Panaewa Zoo in Hilo, Hawaii from medium- or large-bodied birds that breeding center 'alalā
252 would never have experienced (peacock *Pavo cristatus*, cockatoo *Cacatua moluccensis*, and toucan
253 *Ramphastos toco*). Since several species of corvids are able to distinguish characteristics of
254 conspecifics from calls (Boeckle et al. 2012; Mates et al. 2015; Woods et al, 2018), each pair
255 received all three call exemplars from the same male to avoid individual differences in donor birds
256 influencing responses to call types. As breeding center birds are likely able to hear most

257 conspecifics housed at the same facility, all subjects were likely somewhat familiar with individual
258 calls from nearby conspecifics. However, to minimize familiarity with calls we selected playback
259 calls from individuals that were not housed in adjacent aviaries and did not repeat call playback
260 sets at adjacent aviaries.

261 We ensured that calls in the same category from different males had similar delta frequency
262 and average power using Raven Pro, version 1.5. In order to standardize the duration and number
263 of calls between call types with different durations and pauses, we ascertained that each 30-second
264 stimulus contained 6-7 seconds of sound and between 6-20 individual calls, ensuring the natural
265 spacing that the bird used between individual sounds to the extent possible. Therefore, we did not
266 edit the calls themselves but did edit the spacing between calls and the number of calls to keep the
267 total sound duration to 6-7 seconds for all kinds of stimuli. We measured sound duration and
268 conducted all audio editing in Audacity. We also checked that all sounds in the same category
269 were played from the speaker (omni jacket ultra, Altec Lansing) at the same minimum and
270 maximum decibel level using the Decibel X app for iphones.

271 All playback trials were conducted between 9:30am and 11:30am, when morning
272 husbandry-related disturbance had finished. Also, this time window is not within the species-
273 specific period of peak vocal activity that have been historically reported (0600 to 0900 and 1500
274 to 1800; Banko et al. 2002), to attempt to avoid times where there could be background noise from
275 other aviaries that might otherwise cause a distraction. For each playback trial we placed the
276 speaker on the ground in a standardized location on the side of the aviary, along an opaque wall
277 on the outside of the aviary. While the birds may have known a person was outside the aviary, they
278 were unable to directly see the observer placing the speaker. We allowed the subjects a 5-min
279 habituation period after the observer placed the speaker and moved to the observation location.

280 Each of four trials consisted of three different observation periods: pre-trial (3-min playback of
281 forest noise to control for general response to sound playback), stimulus presentation (0.5-min call
282 playback), and post-trial (3-min forest noise playback repeated). Following a 19-min intermission,
283 we repeated the three-period trial using a different call type. This playback routine was repeated
284 for all four calls in balanced, randomized order across individuals. This resulted in 30 minutes
285 between stimulus presentations. The observer scored trials live through a small window at the front
286 of the aviary and recorded trials by setting up a video camera at each window. Because the stimuli
287 were auditory and trials were scored live, it was not possible to record data blind. The birds likely
288 heard the observer enter, but once the 5-minute habituation began, the observer stayed quiet and
289 out of view as much as possible. Therefore, it is possible that the birds were aware of the presence
290 of the observer and video camera, but we tried to minimize disturbance as much as possible. We
291 scored trials live but consulted video recordings to improve data accuracy. We recorded the
292 following behaviors across all three trial periods: (1) approach (bird approaches playback speaker,
293 measured as a binary variable with any movement of the bird in the direction of the speaker
294 counting as an approach); (2) latency to approach (time at which bird first moved in the direction
295 of the stimulus); (3) number and (4) type of all calls made by each bird. Call types were classified
296 into four categories: alarm, territorial intrusion, subordinate begging and other. Territorial
297 maintenance calls were never made in response to the stimuli so they were not included in the
298 models.

299 *Analysis*

300 All analyses were conducted in R version 3.4.1 (R core team 2017). In order to determine
301 if our pre-trial conditions were consistent for each stimulus, we ran a generalized linear mixed
302 model (GLMM) with a negative binomial distribution (as data were zero inflated; Bliss et al. 1953)

303 and a log link function, using the package glmmTMB (version 0.2.3; Brooks et al. 2017), with the
304 number of all calls made during the pre-trial as the response variable. The initial model included
305 the main effects of stimulus type and order as well as the interactions between stimulus type and
306 order. We also included the random effect of bird ID.

307 To investigate the degree of individual consistency in call responses, we ran an intraclass
308 correlation using the package irr (version 0.84; Gamer et al. 2012) for the number of calls each
309 individual produced during the stimulus and post-trial combined for each stimulus type.

310 In order to determine interest in different stimuli, we ran a cox proportional hazards model
311 using the package survival (version 2.38; Therneau 2015) on the likeliness of birds to approach
312 the stimulus for each stimulus type. This model included stimulus type, sex, and order as main
313 effects as well as the interaction between stimulus type and sex and stimulus type and order. We
314 clustered data around bird ID.

315 To evaluate the circumstances influencing call production, we used generalized linear
316 mixed models (GLMM) with a negative binomial distribution (as data were zero inflated) and a
317 log link function, using the package glmmTMB (version 0.2.3; Brooks et al. 2017) to separately
318 test whether all calls, alarm calls, territorial intrusion calls and begging calls were more likely to
319 occur during the stimulus and post-trial period depending on the playback type. All models initially
320 included the main effects of stimulus type, sex, and trial order as well as the interactions between
321 stimulus type and sex and stimulus type and order. We also included the random effect of bird ID.
322 We used the territorial maintenance control call as the reference group when comparing the
323 different stimulus types as this should represent a conspecific call in a new location, so this
324 accounts for any calls or approaches simply due to the social novelty and not the call itself. The

325 GLMM with the number of territorial intrusion calls made during the stimulus and post-trial would
326 not converge properly when the model included interactions, so only main effects were tested.

327 For all GLMMs except for the model with territorial intrusion calls as the response variable,
328 we first determined if the interaction terms warranted inclusion in the models. Starting with the
329 interaction between stimulus type and order, as this was likely less biologically relevant, and then
330 continuing with the interaction between stimulus type and sex, we removed interaction terms if
331 their inclusion failed to decrease AIC values by > 2 . We did not simplify the model past
332 determining which interactions to include, as all remaining effects were important variables we
333 wanted to consider in the final model. See the supplementary materials for the full process of
334 model selection for each response variable. For all GLMMs we also visually inspected binned
335 plots of the expected versus residual values for the final model.

336

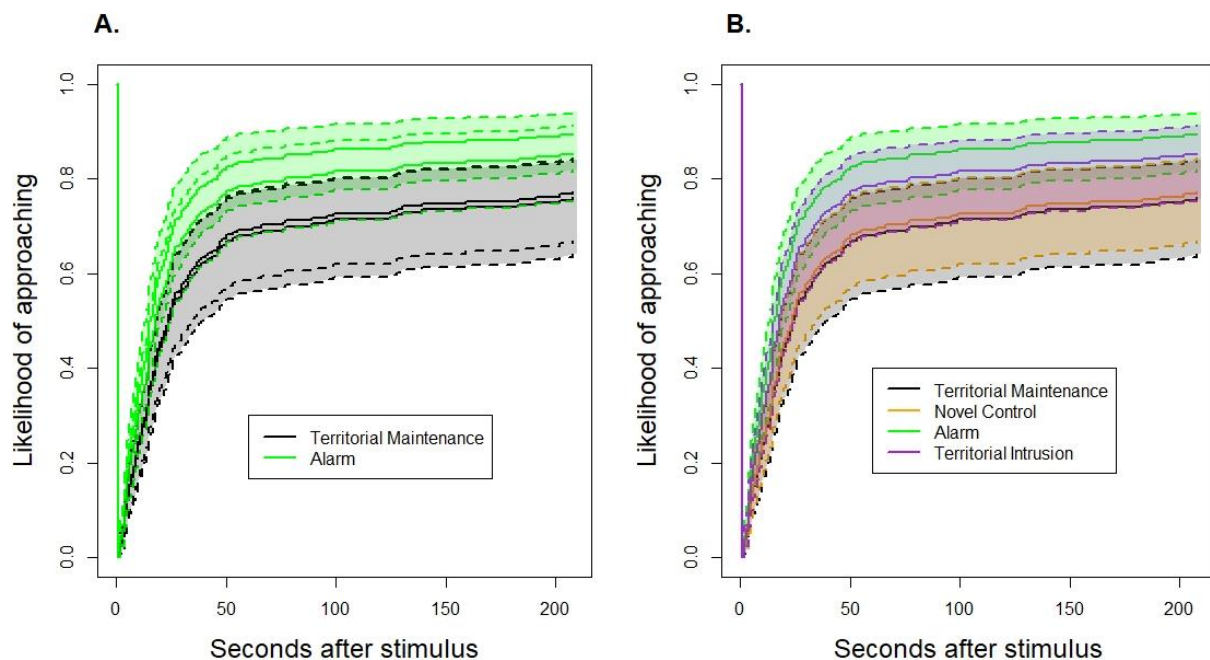
337 **Results**

338 *Pre-trial call frequency in response to playback of forest noise*

339 As expected, we found no differences in call number among treatments before stimulus
340 exposure during the pre-trial period (alarm trial vs. territorial maintenance: GLMM, $b = -1.008$, z
341 $= -0.942$, $P = 0.346$; novel control trial vs. territorial maintenance: $b = -0.836$, $z = -0.804$, $P =$
342 0.421 ; territorial intrusion trial vs. territorial maintenance: $b = -0.677$, $z = -0.665$, $P = 0.506$).
343 Therefore, we have not weighted post-trial data as a function of pre-trial calling rates. However,
344 bird calls significantly increased across trials ($b = 0.769$, $z = 2.179$, $P = 0.029$); therefore, we
345 included trial order in all subsequent models.

346 *Approach latency during stimuli presentation*

347 Birds were more likely to approach after the alarm stimulus than the territorial
348 maintenance stimulus (Fig. 1b; alarm vs. territorial maintenance: Cox Proportional Hazards
349 Model, coefficient = 1.293, $z = 2.293$, $Pr = 0.0218$) whereas the other stimuli had no significant
350 effect on the likelihood of approaching compared to the territorial maintenance stimulus (Fig. 1a;
351 novel control compared to territorial maintenance: coefficient = 0.827, $z = 1.608$, $Pr = 0.108$;
352 territorial intrusion versus territorial maintenance: coefficient = 0.479, $z = 0.892$, $Pr = 0.372$).
353 Trial order was also significant, with birds more likely to approach in later trials (coefficient =
354 0.242, $z = 1.997$, $Pr = 0.0458$). Sex did not have a significant effect on the likelihood of
355 approaching (effect of sex: coefficient = 0.115, $z = 0.376$, $Pr = 0.707$).



356

357 Fig. 1 a Inverted survival curves (solid lines) showing the likelihood that birds approach in
358 response to only the two significantly different stimuli, territorial maintenance and alarm
359 (represented by the corresponding colors in the legend) with a 95% confidence interval (dotted
360 lines). b Inverted survival curves (solid lines) showing the likelihood that birds approach each
361 stimulus type (represented by the corresponding colors in the legend) with a 95% confidence
362 interval (dotted lines).

363

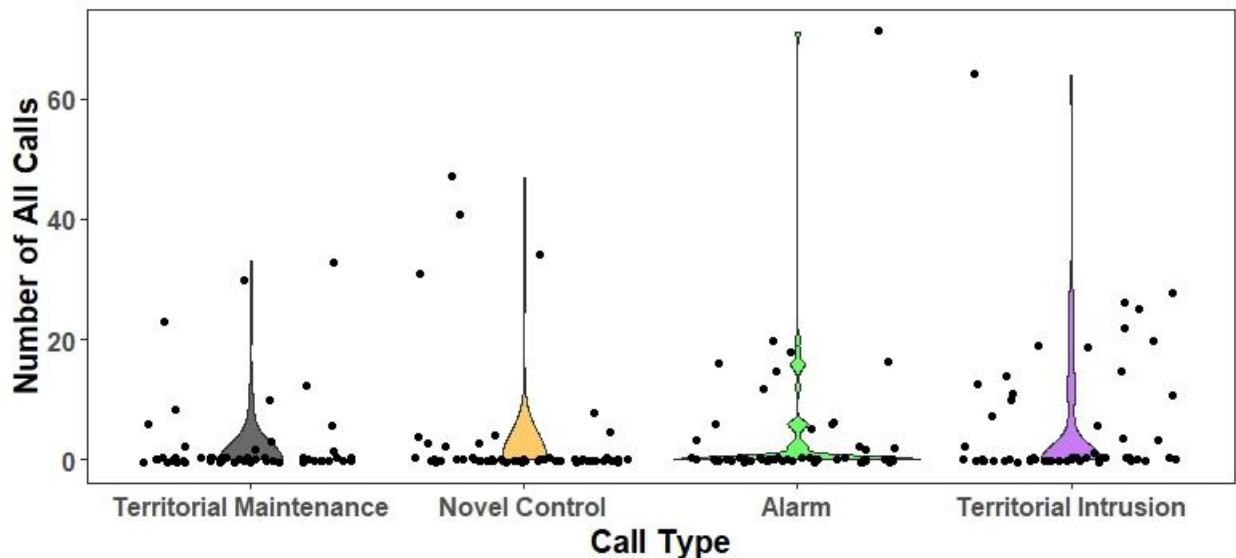
364

365 *Individual call consistency during stimuli presentation and post-trial*

366 Birds were individually consistent in the total number of calls they each made during the
367 stimulus and post-trial periods across all different trial treatments (Intraclass correlation
368 coefficient, 0.367, CI = 0.231-0.515, $P < 0.001$); i.e., birds who made fewer calls in one type of
369 trial also made fewer calls in all trials.

370 *Call responses*

371 Even though birds differed individually in the number of calls they made across all
372 stimuli, no patterns emerged in how many calls birds made between stimuli types during the
373 playback and post-trial period combined (Fig. 2; alarm vs. territorial maintenance: GLMM, $b =$
374 0.497 , $z = 0.737$, $P = 0.461$; novel control vs. territorial maintenance: $b = 0.271$, $z = 0.408$, $P =$
375 0.683 ; territorial intrusion vs. territorial maintenance: $b = 1.007$, $z = 1.471$, $P = 0.141$).

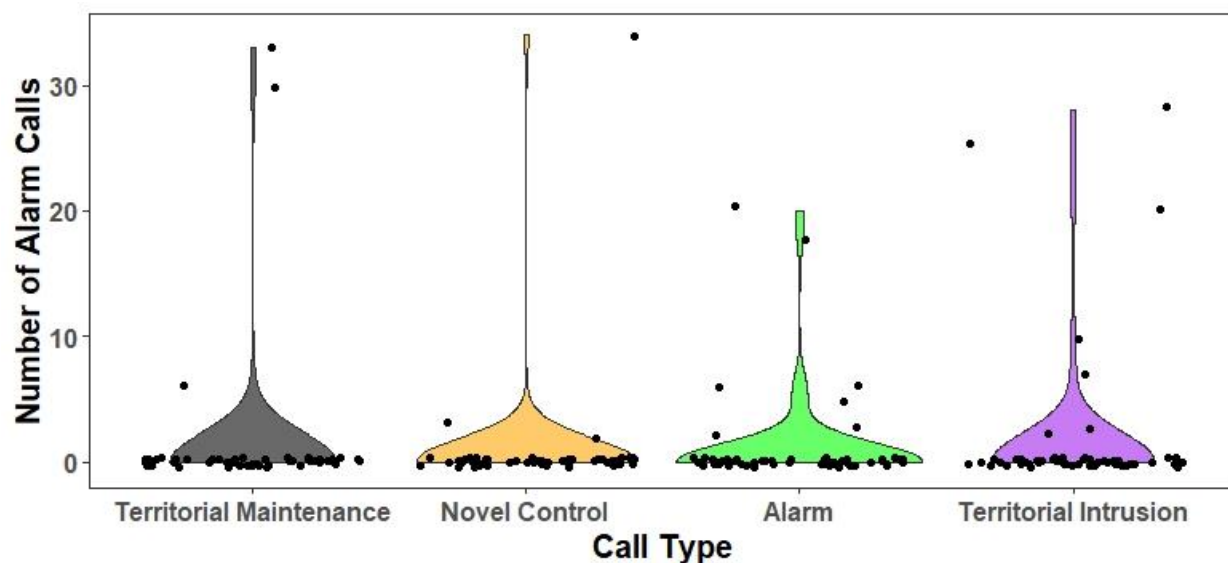


376

377 Fig. 2 Violin plots and raw data showing the distribution of the number of all calls birds made
378 during the stimulus and post-trial period after each type of stimulus. The points are the raw data
379 for each individual trial, jittered to reduce point overlap.

380 There was also no effect of sex ($b = -0.598$, $z = -1.211$, $P = 0.226$) or order ($b = 0.099$, $z = 0.394$,
381 $P = 0.693$) on the total number of calls birds made during the stimulus and post-trial.

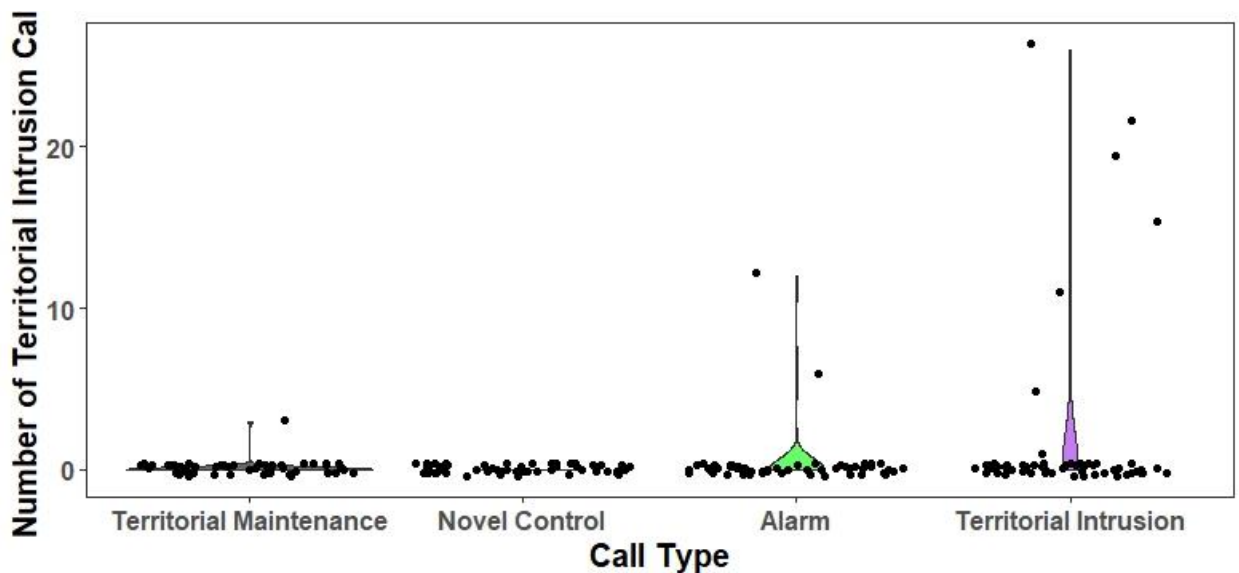
382 When we looked at the production of specific calls, we found that the number of alarm calls
383 birds made during the stimulus and post-trial combined did not significantly vary between any of
384 the different stimuli (Fig. 3; alarm stimulus vs. territorial maintenance: $b = -1.584$, $z = -1.093$, $P =$
385 0.275 ; novel control stimulus vs. territorial maintenance: $b = 0.169$, $z = 0.097$, $P = 0.923$; territorial
386 stimulus vs. territorial maintenance: $b = 0.390$, $z = 0.312$, $P = 0.755$). All other terms were not
387 significant.



389 Fig. 3 Violin plots and raw data showing the distribution of the number of alarm calls birds made
390 during the stimulus and post-trial period after each type of stimulus. The points are the raw data
391 for each individual trial, jittered to reduce point overlap.

392 There was also no difference in the number of begging calls birds made during the stimulus and
393 post-trial between any of the stimuli (alarm stimulus vs. territorial maintenance: $b = 0.820$, $z =$
394 0.665 , $P = 0.506$; novel control vs. territorial maintenance: $b = -0.193$, $z = -0.170$, $P = 0.865$;
395 territorial intrusion stimulus vs. territorial maintenance: $b = -0.441$, $z = -0.409$, $P = 0.683$). Birds
396 never made the territorial maintenance call in response to any stimuli.

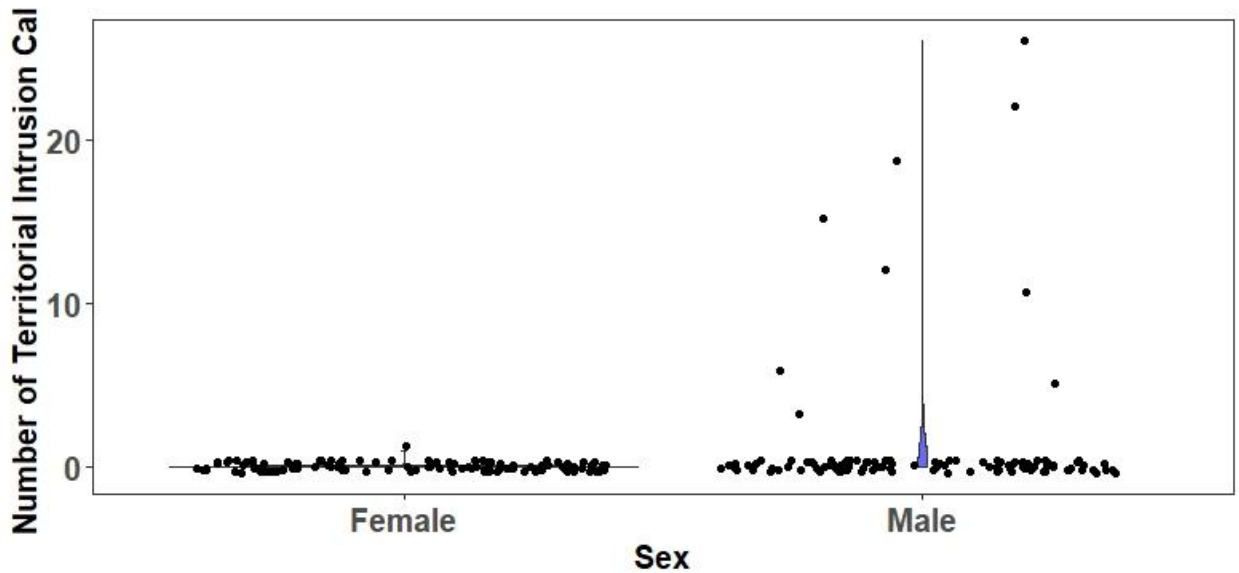
397 Overall, birds made significantly more territorial intrusion calls during the stimulus and
398 post-trial period in response to the territorial intrusion stimulus than to the territorial maintenance
399 stimulus (Fig. 4; $b = 3.825$, $z = 2.298$, $P = 0.022$) whereas they did not make a significantly
400 different amount of territorial calls during the stimulus and post-trial period in response to any
401 other kind of stimulus (Fig. 4; alarm stimulus vs. territorial maintenance: $b = 2.033$, $z = 1.064$, P
402 $= 0.287$; novel control vs. territorial maintenance: $b = -19.797$, $z = -0.002$, $P = 0.999$).



403

404 Fig. 4 Violin plots and raw data showing the distribution of the number of territorial intrusion
405 calls birds made during the stimulus and post-trial period after each type of stimulus. The points
406 are the raw data for each individual trial, jittered to reduce point overlap.

407 Males made significantly more territorial intrusion calls during the stimulus and post-trial
408 than did females (Fig. 5; $b = 5.087$, $z = 3.106$, $P = 0.002$).



409

410 Fig. 5 Violin plots and raw data showing the distribution of the number of territorial intrusion
411 calls males and females made during the stimulus and post-trial period after each type of
412 stimulus. The points are the raw data for each individual trial, jittered to reduce point overlap.

413 Discussion

414 Species raised under human care have the potential to lose some of their survival-relevant
415 behaviors (McPhee and Carlstead 2010; Shier 2016), including responses to species-specific
416 vocalizations (Corfield et al. 2008; Digby et al. 2013; Tanimoto et al. 2017b). Conservation
417 breeding programs or managed care may also change selective forces operating across generations
418 or developmental processes operating during individuals' lifetimes, creating new cultural vocal
419 variants and response patterns (Lewis et al. 2021). Disrupting the normal signaler-receiver
420 interplay may result in a breakdown in the communication system, with fitness consequences
421 challenging conservation goals. To address these possibilities, we tested whether pairs of 'alalā
422 have maintained responses to survival-relevant classes of vocalizations. Although the conservation
423 breeding history of the species may have reduced some of their responses, we still saw encouraging
424 signs that 'alalā were able to distinguish between natural call types and demonstrate responses that
425 may be linked to increased survival in the wild. Specifically, we found that 'alalā were more likely

426 to approach in response to alarm calls, indicating they may have been investigating a potential
427 threat or seeking to coordinate a defensive response with conspecifics. Also, we found that males
428 in particular were more likely than females to respond to territorial intrusion calls with territorial
429 intrusion calls of their own, suggesting they were willing to defend their breeding aviary. Finally,
430 our results illustrate that there is some individual consistency in the amount of calling over all
431 treatments, but that individual characteristics (e.g. personality or specific rearing history) does not
432 fully explain the variation in call response to the different treatments. A note of caution in
433 interpreting these results is warranted due to the absence of any quantitative and limited qualitative
434 observations of ‘*alalā* vocal behavior before they went extinct in the wild, so we have few reference
435 points other than comparisons with and generalizations from other species.

436 As a corvid, flexible learning is expected throughout their life (Emery and Clayton 2004),
437 but vocalizations often require exposure during times of parental care or sensitive periods, which
438 may be limited under human care (Corfield et al. 2008; Digby et al. 2013; Tanimoto et al. 2017b).
439 Most ‘*alalā* in this study were puppet-reared by human caretakers (Gregor et al. 2018), removing
440 any opportunities for learning vocal behavior from parents. Of known call types, alarm calls are
441 more likely to be preserved since they potentially share some innate characteristics that make them
442 harder for predators to locate (Maynard et al. 2003). Additionally, animals, including corvids, will
443 often make alarm calls to elicit assistance from conspecifics in investigating or confronting a
444 predator (Curio 1978; Coomes et al. 2019). In the case of ‘*alalā*, we found that birds were more
445 likely to approach alarm call playbacks than other auditory stimuli. However, they were not more
446 likely to make alarm calls in response to alarm playbacks. This lack of vocal response is consistent
447 with what was reported in some pilot work on ‘*alalā* anti-predator behavior (Greggor et al. 2021),
448 suggesting that alarm calls may function to alert birds to the need to gather additional information

449 or that birds may not respond to alarm calls with their own calls in order to avoid drawing the
450 attention of the threat to themselves. It is also possible that because we presented alarm calls
451 without other stimuli that could indicate danger, they investigated but did not respond with their
452 own alarm calls when they saw no clear threat. Further testing of alarm calls with and without
453 presenting a dangerous context would be necessary to tease this apart. However, ‘*alalā*’s approach
454 of the source of the playback alone may still have had a social function. The fact that birds
455 approached the alarm calls (and not just conspecific playbacks in general) suggests they may still
456 function to elicit social assistance: approach of the caller may precede mobbing or other group
457 antipredator defense. Although mobbing-like behavior has been anecdotally reported in ‘*alalā*
458 (Greggor et al. 2021, this study provides some empirical support that the birds responded
459 appropriately to alarm calls in the absence of other signs of danger and have not become
460 completely desensitized to them.

461 Territorial calls are also an important part of vocal communication, including in the
462 historical vocal repertoire of ‘*alalā* (Banko et al. 2002; Tanimoto et al. 2017a). We played two
463 types of territorial calls, a neutral territorial maintenance call and an aggressive territorial intrusion
464 call. ‘*Alalā* did not significantly differ in their response to the territorial maintenance call from
465 other call types. However, we found that ‘*alalā* responded to a simulated territorial intrusion with
466 territorial intrusion calls significantly more than they did to any other playback stimuli. A vocal
467 territorial response is the natural reaction we would expect to a territorial challenge (Maynard et
468 al. 2003; Bradbury and Vehrencamp 2011), considering we presented the birds with this stimulus
469 in their home aviaries. We did not test any of the birds in a new location outside of their artificial
470 “territory” so we do not know if their responses are flexible and adaptive to context, i.e. defending
471 only their occupied territory. However, given that ‘*alalā* exhibit fewer territorial calls than their

472 wild counterparts (Tanimoto et al. 2017b), we find it encouraging that ‘alalā displayed this
473 behavioral response suggesting some normal signaler-receiver exchange. Additionally, we found
474 that males were more likely to make territorial intrusion calls, which mirrors patterns noted
475 previously in the wild (Banko et al. 2002). As a sexually dimorphic species with respect to size,
476 males are the larger and more aggressive sex, and thus their greater role in territorial defense is
477 expected (Archer 1988).

478 While we found encouraging signs that some birds exhibited natural responses to our
479 playbacks in the absence of any other context or stimuli, many of the birds did not respond vocally
480 when faced with any type of conspecific call. Given that the birds are living in social densities that
481 are far higher than observed in the wild (Flanagan et al. 2020), the high levels of individual
482 variation we found suggest that some ‘alalā may have become desensitized to the calls of
483 conspecifics vocalizations, perhaps a result of repeated exposure without consequence or that
484 salient context was missing from our stimulus presentations. While ‘alalā in the conservation
485 breeding facilities may not necessarily be less vocal than wild birds (Tanimoto et al. 2017b), the
486 lack of vocal behavior we saw in many individuals in response to social cues suggests a potential
487 decoupling of the meaning or relevance of conspecific calls. Alternatively, perhaps there is
488 additional context we did not adequately capture in our recordings (e.g. individual caller ID, social
489 status, etc.), that could have differentially influenced some individuals more than others. Corvids
490 are known to respond to individual qualities of callers (Boeckle et al. 2012), such as their
491 dominance status (Massen et al. 2014), and membership in the breeding colony (Woods et al.
492 2018), with call signatures that may also help with distinguishing sex (Mates et al., 2015).
493 Additionally, since calls were recorded opportunistically, there may be subtle differences to the
494 different calls (for example, the particular stimulus causing the alarm calls) that we are unaware

495 of. Therefore, we may have inadvertently broadcast information beyond the content of the calls.
496 However, we saw no differences in the number of calls birds made in response to the three different
497 call sets, suggesting that the identity of the caller was not a major cause of variation. A final
498 explanation for the variation could be that by using recordings of birds in the conservation breeding
499 centers, which was necessary for controlling context and individual factors such as sex and
500 identity, the calls themselves may no longer retain the same information as wild calls would have.
501 Examinations of historical recordings show that similar call types to the ones we broadcast were
502 used by the last wild birds (Tanimoto et al. 2017a). Although some differences likely exist
503 (Tanimoto et al. 2017b), the call types we chose were similar to those produced by wild birds, and
504 the fact that responses were largely consistent with our predictions suggest that the calls used have
505 retained their function. Regardless of the cause of the low responses of many individuals, there
506 were still other birds that clearly demonstrated survival-relevant responses.

507 Although we found no evidence of widespread erosion of vocal communication behavior
508 under human care, the individual differences that we saw in how birds responded to the playbacks
509 could indicate that not all individuals are equally as well equipped for release into the wild if these
510 call responses would indeed result in reduced predation risk or increased territory defense in the
511 wild. Many factors go into determining fitness for release, and these results suggest that we may
512 need to consider whether birds demonstrate adequate responses to conspecific calls as a criterion
513 for release. Additionally, future research could investigate how likely birds are to regain survival-
514 relevant responses to vocalizations if they are exposed to training that encourages associations
515 between conspecific calls and relevant responses. Given the critical conservation status of the
516 species, any technique that could limit the impact of the conservation breeding environment on
517 survival-relevant behavior is warranted.

518

519 **References**

520 Archer J (1988) *The Behavioural Biology of Aggression*. Cambridge University Press,
521 Cambridge.

522 Banko PC, Ball DL, Banko WE (2002) Hawaiian crow *Corvus hawaiiensis*. In: Poole A, Gill F
523 (eds) *The Birds of North America*, Cornell Lab of Ornithology.

524 Berger-Tal O, Blumstein DT, Swaisgood RR (2020) Conservation translocations: a review of
525 common difficulties and promising directions. *Animal Conservation* 23:121–131.

526 Bílá K, Beránková J, Veselý P, Bugnyar T, Schwab C (2017) Responses of urban crows to con-
527 and hetero-specific alarm calls in predator and non-predator zoo enclosures. *Animal*
528 *Cognition* 20:43-51.

529 Bliss, C. I., & Fisher, R. A. (1953). Fitting the Negative Binomial Distribution to Biological
530 Data. *Biometrics*, 9(2), 176–200. <https://doi.org/10.2307/3001850>

531 Boeckle, M., Szipl, G., & Bugnyar, T. (2012). Who wants food? Individual characteristics in
532 raven yells. *Animal Behaviour* 84, 1123–1130. Bradbury JW, Vehrencamp SL (2011)
533 *Principles of animal communication*, 2nd
534 Edn. Sinauer, Sunderland MA.

535 Brakes P, Dall SRX, Aplin LM, Bearhop S, Carroll EL, Ciucci P, Fishlock, V, Ford JKB,
536 Garland EC, Keith SA, McGregor PK, Mesnick SL, Noad MJ, di Sciara GN, Robbins
537 MM, Simmonds MP, Spina F, Thornton A, Wade PR, Whiting MJ, Williams J, Rendell
538 L, Whitehead H, Whiten A, Rutz C (2019) Animal cultures matter for conservation.
539 *Science* 363:1032-1034.

- 540 Brooks ME, Kristensen K, van Benthem KJ, Magnusson A, Berg CW, Nielsen A, Skaug HJ,
541 Maechler M, Bolker BM (2017) glmmTMB Balances Speed and Flexibility Among
542 Packages for Zero-inflated Generalized Linear Mixed Modeling. *The R Journal* 9:378-
543 400.
- 544 Clayton NS, Emery NJ (2007) The social life of corvids. *Current Biology* 17: 652–656.
- 545 Coomes JR, Mcivor GE, Thornton A (2019) Evidence for individual discrimination and
546 numerical assessment in collective antipredator behaviour in wild jackdaws (*Corvus*
547 *monedula*). *Biol Lett* 15:20190380.
- 548 Corfield J, Gillman L, Parsons S (2008) Vocalisations of the North Island Brown Kiwi (*Apteryx*
549 *mantelli*). *Auk* 125:326–335.
- 550 Culliney S, Pejchar L, Switzer R, Ruiz-gutierrez V, Culliney S, Pejchar L, Switzer R, Ruiz-
551 gutierrez V (2012) Seed dispersal by a captive corvid: the role of the 'Alalā (*Corvus*
552 *hawaiiensis*) in shaping Hawai'i's plant communities. *Ecological Applications* 22:1718–
553 1732.
- 554 Curio WE (1978) The adaptive significance of avian mobbing II: cultural transmission of enemy
555 recognition in blackbirds effectiveness and some constraints. *Zeitschrift für Tier-*
556 *psychologie* 48:184–202.
- 557 Decourcy KR, Jenssen TA (1994) Structure and use of male territorial headbob signals by the
558 lizard *Anolis carolinensis*. *Animal Behaviour* 47:251–262.
- 559 Digby A, Bell BD, Teal PD (2013) Vocal cooperation between the sexes in Little Spotted Kiwi
560 *Apteryx owenii*. *Ibis* 155:229–245.
- 561 Emery NJ, Clayton NS (2004) The mentality of crows: convergent evolution of intelligence in
562 corvids and apes. *Science* 306:1903–7.

- 563 Enggist-Dueblin, P., & Pfister, U. (2002). Cultural transmission of vocalizations in ravens,
564 *Corvus corax*. *Animal Behaviour* 64, 831–841.
- 565 Fischer J, Lindenmayer DB (2000) An assessment of the published results of animal relocations.
566 *Biological Conservation* 96:1–11.
- 567 Flanagan AM, Rutz C, Farabaugh S, Greggor AL, Masuda B, Swaisgood RR (2020) Inter-aviary
568 distance and visual access influence conservation breeding outcomes in a territorial,
569 endangered bird. *Biological Conservation* 242:108429.
- 570 Gamer M, Lemon J, Fellows I, Singh P (2012) irr: Various Coefficients of Interrater Reliability
571 and Agreement. R package version 0.84. <https://CRAN.R-project.org/package=irr>
- 572 Greenfield MD, Minckley, RL (1993) Acoustic dueling in tarbush grasshoppers: settlement of
573 territorial contests via alternation of reliable signals. *Ethology* 95:309-326.
- 574 Greggor AL, Masuda B, Gaudioso-Levita JM, Nelson J, White TH, Shier DM, Farabaugh S,
575 Swaisgood RR (2021) Pre-release training, predator interactions and evidence for
576 persistence of anti-predator behavior in reintroduced ‘*alalā*, Hawaiian crow. *Global*
577 *Ecology and Conservation*. 28, e01658.
- 578 Greggor, AL, Masuda B, Sabol AC, Swaisgood RR (in review) Designing anti-predator training
579 to maximize learning and efficacy assessments. *Biological Conservation*.
- 580 Greggor AL, Vicino GA, Swaisgood RR, Fidgett A, Brenner D, Kinney ME, Farabaugh S,
581 Masuda B, Lamberski N (2018) Animal Welfare in Conservation Breeding: Applications
582 and Challenges. *Frontiers in Veterinary Science* 5:1–6.
- 583 Greggor AL, Masuda B, Flanagan AM, Swaisgood RR (2020). Age-related patterns of
584 neophobia in an endangered island crow: implications for conservation and natural
585 history. *Animal Behaviour* 160:61–68. doi:10.1016/j.anbehav.2019.12.002

- 586 Griffin AS, Blumstein DT, Evans CS (2000) Training captive-bred or translocated animals to
587 avoid predators. *Conservation Biology* 14:1317–1326.
- 588 Hiebert SM, Stoddard PK, Arcese P (1989) Repertoire size, territory acquisition and
589 reproductive success in the song sparrow. *Animal Behaviour* 37:266–273.
- 590 Hill GE (1986) The function of distress calls given by tufted titmice (*Parus bicolor*): an
591 experimental approach. *Animal Behaviour* 34:590-598.
- 592 Hollén LI, Radford AN (2009) The development of alarm call behaviour in mammals and birds.
593 *Animal Behaviour* 78:791-800.
- 594 Lewis RN, Williams LJ, Gilman RT (2021). The uses and implications of avian vocalizations for
595 conservation planning. *Conservation Biology* 35:50-63.
- 596 Mager JN, Walcott C, Piper WH (2012) Male common loons signal greater aggressive
597 motivation by lengthening territorial yodels. *Wilson Journal of Ornithology* 124:73–80.
- 598 Manser MB, Seyfarth RM, Cheney DL (2002) Suricate alarm calls signal predator class and
599 urgency. *Trends in Cognitive Sciences* 6:55-57.
- 600 Mates, E. A., Tarter, R. R., Ha, J. C., Clark, A. B., & McGowan, K. J. (2015). Acoustic profiling
601 in a complexly social species, the American crow: caws encode information on caller sex,
602 identity and behavioural context. *Bioacoustics* 24, 63–80.
- 603 Massen JJ, Pašukonis A,
604 Schmidt J, Bugnyar T (2014) Ravens notice dominance reversals among conspecifics
605 within and outside their social group. *Nature communications* 5: 3679.
- 606 Maynard, Smith J, Harper D (2003) *Animal signals*. Oxford University Press, Oxford.
- 607 McIvor GE, Lee VE, Thornton A (2018) Testing social learning of anti-predator responses in
608 juvenile jackdaws: the importance of accounting for levels of agitation. *Royal Society
open science* 5:171571.

- 609 McPhee EM, Silverman ED (2004a) Increased behavioral variation and the calculation of release
610 numbers for reintroduction programs. *Conservation Biology* 18:705-715.
- 611 McPhee ME (2004b). Generations in captivity increases behavioral variance: considerations for
612 captive breeding and reintroduction programs. *Biological Conservation* 115:71-77.
- 613 McPhee ME, Carlstead K, (2010) The importance of maintaining natural behaviors in captive
614 mammals. In: Kleiman D, Thompson K (Eds) *Wild Mammals in Captivity: Principles*
615 *and Techniques for Zoo Management*, pp 303–213
- 616 Moseby KE, Read J, Paton D, Copely P, Hill B, Crisp H (2011) Predation determines the
617 outcome of 10 reintroduction attempts in arid South Australia. *Biological Conservation*
618 144:2863–2872.
- 619 Muralidhar A, Moore FL, Easton LJ, Jamieson IG, Seddon PJ, van Heezik Y (2019) Know your
620 enemy? Conservation management causes loss of antipredator behaviour to novel
621 predators in New Zealand robins. *Animal Behaviour* 149:135-142.
- 622 R Core Team (2017) *R: A language and environment for statistical computing*. R Foundation for
623 *Statistical Computing*, Vienna, Austria. URL <https://www.R-project.org/>.
- 624 Rabin LA (2003) Maintaining behavioral diversity in captivity for conservation: natural
625 behaviour management. *Animal Welfare* 12:85-94.
- 626 Seyfarth and Cheney. (1980). The Ontogeny of Vervet Monkey Alarm Calling Behavior: A
627 Preliminary Report. 54(1), 37-56.
- 628 Shier DM (2016) Manipulating animal behavior to ensure reintroduction success. In: Berger-Tal
629 O, Saltz D (eds) *Conservation Behavior: Applying Behavioral Ecology to Wildlife*
630 *Conservation and Management*, Cambridge University Press, Cambridge, pp 275–304

631 Tanimoto AM, Hart PJ, Pack AA, Switzer R (2017a) Vocal repertoire and signal characteristics
632 of 'Alalā, the Hawaiian Crow (*Corvus hawaiiensis*). *The Wilson Journal of Ornithology*
633 129:25–35.

634 Tanimoto AM, Hart PJ, Pack AA, Switzer R, Banko PC, Ball DL, Sebastián-González E,
635 Komarczyk L, Warrington MH (2017b) Changes in vocal repertoire of the Hawaiian
636 crow, *Corvus hawaiiensis*, from past wild to current captive populations. *Animal*
637 *Behaviour* 123:427–432.

638 Therneau T (2015) A Package for Survival Analysis in S. version 2.38, <URL:[https://CRAN.R-](https://CRAN.R-project.org/package=survival)
639 [project.org/package=survival](https://CRAN.R-project.org/package=survival)>.

640 US Fish and Wildlife Service (2009) Revised Recovery Plan for the 'Alalā (*Corvus hawaiiensis*).

641 Wascher, C. A. F., Hillemann, F., Canestrari, D., & Baglione, V. (2015). Carrion crows learn to
642 discriminate between calls of reliable and unreliable conspecifics. *Anim Cogn* 18, 1181–
643 1185.

644 Woods RD, Kings M, McIvor GE, Thornton A (2018) Caller characteristics influence
645 recruitment to collective anti- predator events in jackdaws. *Scientific Reports* 7343.

646

647

648

649

650

651

652

653