

1 **Unsung Songbirds: Advances in the Study of Corvid Communication**

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**Abstract**

Corvids are a well-established study system in comparative cognition and social evolution research, yet their vocal communication remains surprisingly understudied compared to other songbirds, which have been central to advancing our understanding of how natural selection shapes communication. With their flexible, context-dependent communication and capacity for vocal learning, corvids represent a particularly promising system for addressing open questions relating to vocal communication. Their diverse ecological and social environments, combined with extensively studied cognitive abilities, make them well-suited for investigating the co-evolution of communication, sociality, and cognition. To unlock the potential of corvids as a system for studying vocal communication, several methodological opportunities and challenges must be addressed. These include the development of experimental designs suited to both wild and captive settings, and the adoption of advanced technologies for data collection in naturalistic environments. Recent advances in data processing—such as machine learning, acoustic classification, and automated tracking—open up promising new avenues for decoding corvid communication. These tools are promising to reshape the field by enabling more fine-grained, large-scale analyses of vocal behaviour. Ultimately, a deeper understanding of corvid vocal communication can significantly enhance our broader understanding of the evolution of animal communication. Furthermore, it holds applied value for improving animal welfare and conservation, including innovations in welfare monitoring and strategies for addressing human-wildlife conflict.

**Key words:** animal communication, animal linguistics, bioacoustics, cognition, Corvidae, machine learning, meaning, vocal signals

92 **I. Introduction**

93 Communication is the transfer of information from senders to receivers, mediated by one or  
94 more sensory channels, or modalities: visual, acoustic, chemical, mechanical or electrical  
95 (Bradbury & Vehrencamp, 2011). Studying communicative interactions can inform key  
96 questions about cognitive processes and social dynamics, such as how individuals use signals  
97 for deception or cooperation, or extract information through eavesdropping. Vocal  
98 communication has received particular attention from researchers due to its prominence in  
99 humans, its perceptibility to human observers, and its prevalence in a wide range of taxa.  
100 One taxon, the *Corvidae*, has seen a recent increase in studies on vocal communication.  
101 *Corvidae* are a large family of birds consisting of more than 130 species (AviList Core Team,  
102 2025) inhabiting most areas of the globe, except Antarctica. The group includes crows,  
103 ravens, jays and magpies, which show striking variation in sociality and ecology, enabling  
104 powerful comparative analyses addressing the evolution of behaviour, cognition (Taylor  
105 2014), and vocal communication (Wascher & Reynolds, 2025). They belong to the suborder  
106 of oscine passerine birds, commonly known as songbirds and as such, the structure of their  
107 vocalisations arises from both the structural configuration of the vocal apparatus and vocal  
108 learning (Gaunt & Nowicki, 1998; Goller, 2019, 2022). In this review, we outline approaches  
109 to studying corvid vocal communication, including challenges and future opportunities. We  
110 propose an integrative framework that advances our evolutionary understanding of vocal  
111 communication by combining conceptual innovation with state-of-the-art methodologies,  
112 while also identifying concrete applications for animal welfare and conservation (Figure 1).  
113 Building an enriched evolutionary understanding of vocal communication requires  
114 integrating both proximate and ultimate levels of explanation. At the proximate level,  
115 investigating ontogeny, including vocal learning, usage learning, and cultural transmission,  
116 reveals how communicative systems emerge, stabilise, and change within and across  
117 generations. Examining cognitive mechanisms further clarifies how signals are produced,  
118 perceived, and interpreted, including questions of intentional control, semantic  
119 representation, combinatorial structure, and insights from animal linguistics into how  
120 meaning may be encoded and composed.

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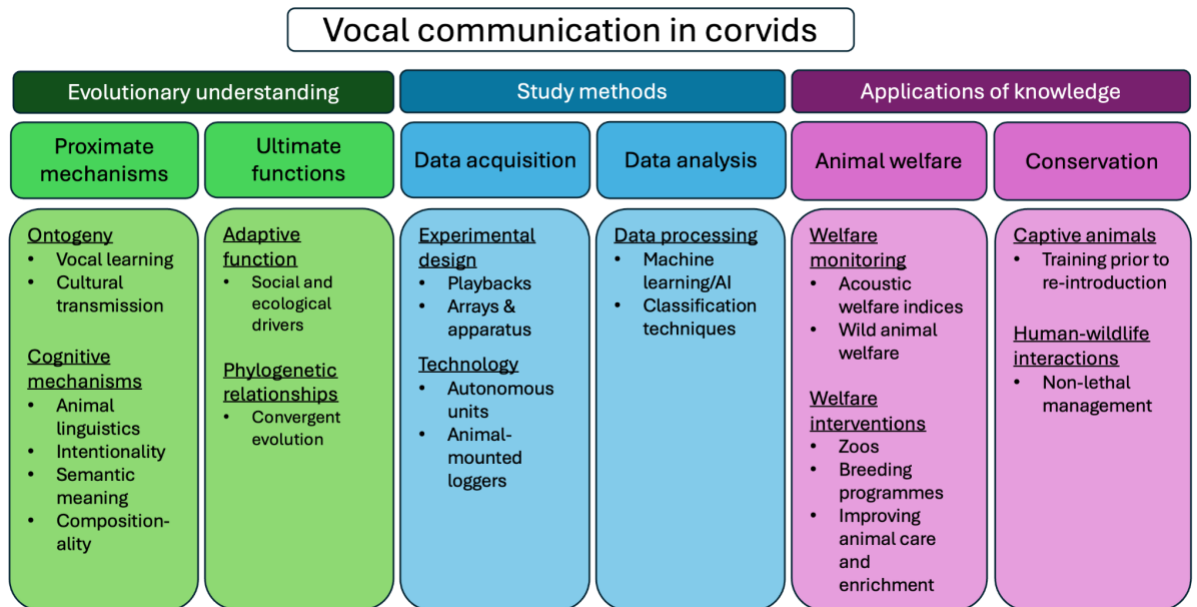


Figure 1: Framework and future directions in the study of corvid vocal communication.

An enriched evolutionary understanding of vocal communication requires integrating both proximate and ultimate levels of explanation. At the proximate level, investigating ontogeny, including vocal learning, usage learning, and cultural transmission, reveals how communicative systems emerge, stabilise, and change within and across generations.

Examining cognitive mechanisms further clarifies how signals are produced, perceived, and interpreted, including questions of intentional control, semantic representation, combinatorial structure, and insights from animal linguistics into how meaning may be encoded and composed.

These mechanisms provide the developmental and cognitive foundations upon which communicative complexity is built. At the ultimate level, understanding the function of signals and the social and ecological pressures shaping their evolution allows us to test hypotheses such as the social complexity and acoustic adaptation frameworks. Finally, placing corvid vocal systems within a phylogenetic context enables us to disentangle shared ancestry from convergent evolution, clarifying whether similarities in vocal complexity across distant taxa arise from common descent or parallel responses to comparable selective pressures. By linking proximate mechanisms with ultimate explanations, we can move toward a more comprehensive evolutionary account of vocal communication.

145 **II. Open questions to address the evolutionary understanding of animal communication**

146 **From vocal production learning to cultural transmission**

147 Corvids have extended developmental periods during which they practice social behaviour  
148 and vocalisations (Uomini *et al.*, 2020), and are open-ended vocal learners that acquire new  
149 vocalisations throughout their lifetime (Brenowitz, Margoliash & Nordeen, 1997). It is a key  
150 phenomenon to focus on when investigating how communication systems evolved. Vocal  
151 learning refers to the ability to modify vocal output in response to social or individual  
152 experience (Janik & Slater, 2000; Sewall, Young & Wright, 2016). It can be divided into two  
153 distinct processes, namely: (1) vocal production learning, which refers to the ability to  
154 produce new vocalisations or modify existing vocalisations using auditory feedback and  
155 social experience (Janik & Knörnschild, 2021; Ten Cate, 2021); and (2) usage learning, which  
156 refers to learning the contextual use of vocalisation (Hollén & Radford, 2009) or how to  
157 combine single calls from a repertoire (Janik & Slater, 2000; Vernes *et al.*, 2021).

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159 Vocal production learning is relatively rare amongst non-human animal species and mostly  
160 occurs in singing species, such as oscine songbirds and cetaceans (reviewed in Wilbrecht and  
161 Nottebohm 2003; Sewall *et al.* 2016), as well as in some non-singing birds (Wright, 1996) and  
162 bats (reviewed in Vernes and Wilkinson 2020). Only a few species retain the ability to learn  
163 and modify signals into adulthood, which are known as ‘open-ended learners’ (e.g., galah,  
164 *Eolophus roseicapillus*: Scarl and Bradbury 2009, peach-fronted conures, *Eupsittula aurea*:  
165 Thomsen *et al.* 2019; American crows, *Corvus brachyrhynchos*: Brown 1985).

166  
167 Vocal learning allows for flexibility and innovation and as such forms the basis for cultural  
168 transmission, the spread of vocalisations through social learning. Animals can develop  
169 regional dialects (Green, 1975; Jenkins, 1978; Slater, 1986; Deecke, Ford & Spong, 2000),  
170 group specific calls (Yurk *et al.*, 2002; Radford, 2005), or individual signatures (McCowan &  
171 Reiss, 2001; Charrier, Pitcher & Harcourt, 2009; Kershenbaum, Sayigh & Janik, 2013). These  
172 variations are culturally maintained and evolve over time as new individuals learn and  
173 possibly modify the sounds. In corvids, regional dialects have been shown in red-billed  
174 choughs (*Pyrrhocorax pyrrhocorax*; Laiolo *et al.* 2001) and rook calls have a clear individual  
175 signature (Benti, Curé & Dufour, 2019). Furthermore, New Caledonian crows (*Corvus*  
176 *moneduloides*) exhibit significant large-scale, population-level variation in vocalizations  
177 (Bluff, Kacelnik & Rutz, 2010) and call repertoires of common ravens are shared between  
178 pair partners and within the sexes leading to a pronounced sexual dimorphism in vocal

179 behaviour (Enggist-Dueblin & Pfister, 2002). To summarize, corvids, as open-ended vocal  
180 learners, provide an example of vocal plasticity beyond early development—their social  
181 learning, and capacity for both vocal production and usage learning into adulthood, make  
182 them an interesting model system for understanding vocal learning.

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#### 184 **How do socio-cognitive processes shape vocal communication?**

185 Different aspects of vocal communication can provide valuable insights into animal  
186 cognition. Playback experiments can be used to investigate behavioural responses to specific  
187 stimuli, and have shown that different corvid species are able to recognise individuals  
188 (Kondo, Izawa & Watanabe, 2012), group membership (Hopp, Jablonski & Brown, 2001), and  
189 familiarity of conspecifics (Davidková *et al.*, 2020) and heterospecifics (Wascher *et al.*, 2012).  
190 Common ravens and Siberian jays, for instance, memorise affiliated and unaffiliated  
191 individuals for multiple years (Boeckle & Bugnyar, 2012; Cunha & Griesser, 2021), and the  
192 birds' early social environment may affect their attention to social cues (Gallego-Abenza,  
193 Boucherie & Bugnyar, 2022). Scolding calls—loud, harsh vocalisations typically made in  
194 response to a perceived threat or disturbance—demonstrated corvids' ability to learn about  
195 dangerous humans (Marzluff *et al.*, 2010; Blum, Fitch & Bugnyar, 2020) and revealed how  
196 this information socially spread amongst populations (Cornell, Marzluff & Pecoraro, 2012;  
197 Lee *et al.*, 2019b).

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199 Compared to the variety of studies examining individual recognition in corvids, there have  
200 been surprisingly few attempts to test birds' knowledge about social relationships (Wascher  
201 and Reynolds 2025). In most playback studies, individuals show selective responses to pair  
202 partners and family or group members, indicating that they are aware of their own social  
203 bonds and rank (Wascher & Reynolds, 2025). Yet, when tested with playbacks for the  
204 understanding of third-party relationships, results are mixed. On the one hand, female  
205 Eurasian jackdaws (*Coloeus monedula*) do not respond to simulated infidelity of their  
206 partners: copulation calls with other females indicate that they may not attend to third-party  
207 information in this experimental context (Lee *et al.*, 2019b). On the other hand, ravens  
208 respond to simulated rank changes between group members, suggesting that they represent  
209 others' relationships and make inferences about dominance ranks from a third-party  
210 perspective (Massen *et al.*, 2014). These findings fit with behavioural studies on wild ravens'  
211 conflicts, where victims of aggression adjust their calling to audience composition—for  
212 example, by suppressing their vocalisation when a bonding partner of the aggressor is

213 present (Szipl, Ringler & Bugnyar, 2018). Similarly, Siberian jay breeders suppress the  
214 production of hawk attack calls when together with unrelated non-breeding group members,  
215 particularly female breeders that are at times socially subdominant to male non-breeders  
216 (Griesser & Ekman, 2004).

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### 218 **The challenges of deciphering vocal communication**

219 From an evolutionary perspective, understanding the information content in animal  
220 vocalisations is crucial because it sheds light on how communication systems evolve to  
221 enhance survival and reproduction. Researchers often categorise vocalisations of individuals  
222 and species into different types, such as calls, songs, phrases, that have different acoustic  
223 structures (Bradbury & Vehrencamp, 2011), as these may correspond to different types of  
224 information (Marler, 2004). Different call types can be further attributed to functional  
225 contexts, such as maintaining contact between individuals in a social group (Kondo &  
226 Watanabe, 2009), indicating the presence of predators (Griesser, 2008, 2009; Suzuki, 2014;  
227 Stephan & Zuberbühler, 2014) or a food source (Heinrich & Marzluff, 1991; Pendergraft &  
228 Marzluff, 2019), begging for food (Stamps, 1993), aggression (Seyfarth & Cheney, 2017),  
229 submission (Fedurek *et al.*, 2021), territory defence (Mennill & Odom, 2010), or searching for  
230 a sexual partner (Bradbury & Vehrencamp, 2011; Chen & Wiens, 2020).

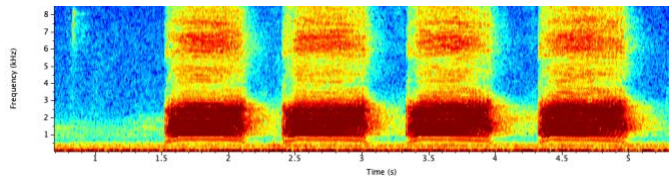
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232 In many corvid species, call types are highly graded, with acoustic structures transitioning  
233 gradually between categories, making discrete classification challenging (rooks, *Corvus*  
234 *frugilegus*: Martin *et al.* 2024). Corvids mostly produce calls—short, distinct vocalisations—  
235 as opposed to the songs typically associated with oscine passerines, which are  
236 heterogeneous, combinatorial vocalisations consisting of notes or phrases that are arranged  
237 in a specific order and often repeated (Sandoval & Graham, 2025). They are well known for  
238 their loud and ‘harsh’-sounding broadband vocalisations (Figure 2), caused by unpredictable  
239 or irregular ways the sound is produced (non-linear phenomena). Non-linear phenomena  
240 include biphonation, when two independent fundamental frequencies occur in a call  
241 spectrum, frequency jumps, defined as an abrupt change in the fundamental frequency, or  
242 deterministic chaos, referring to complex, unpredictable sound patterns in vocalisations.  
243 While non-linear phenomena in corvid vocalisations are well-known, they have hardly been  
244 described in the literature, except deterministic chaos in ‘alalā (Hawaiian crow), *Corvus*  
245 *hawaiiensis* (Tanimoto *et al.*, 2017).

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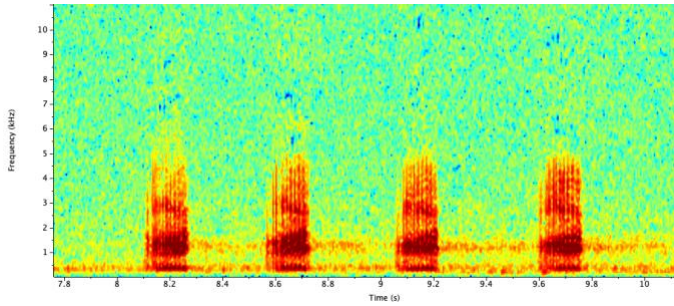
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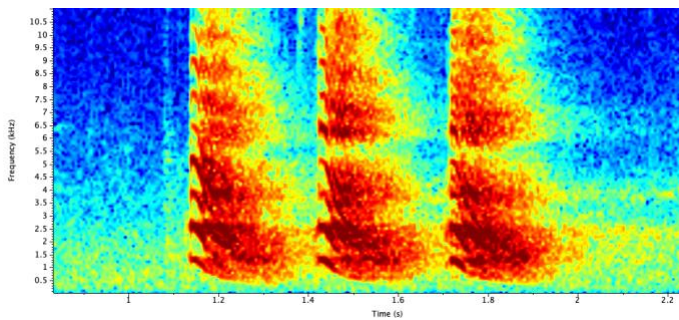
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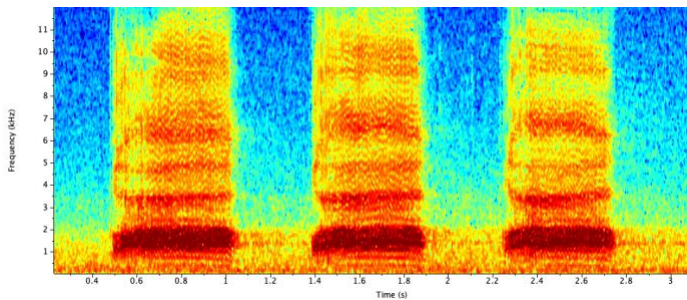
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Figure 2: Example spectrograms of different non-harmonic corvid calls of different species. (A) carrion crow (*Corvus corone*), (B) common raven (*Corvus corax*), (C) jackdaw (*Coloeus monedula*) and (D) rook (*Corvus frugilegus*).

In addition to contextual information, acoustic features of vocalisations can provide information about the characteristics of the caller (reviewed in Wascher & Reynolds 2025), such as their sex, breeding status, group membership (Warrington *et al.*, 2014), body mass (Fitch & Hauser, 1995; Ey, Pfefferle & Fischer, 2007; Taylor & Reby, 2010; Garcia & Favaro,

264 2017) or emotional state. Both emotional arousal (Fitch, Neubauer & Herzel, 2002; Keenan,  
265 Lemasson & Zuberbühler, 2013; Corvin *et al.*, 2024; Sibiryakova, Volodin & Volodina, 2024)  
266 and valence (Osiecka *et al.*, 2024a; Osiecka, Lefèvre & Briefer, 2024b), can be conveyed, for  
267 example, through pitch and degree of harmonicity in calls (Morton, 1977; Briefer, 2012). The  
268 acoustic structure of certain calls, such as distress calls, can be sensitive to the composition  
269 of the audience and the likelihood to recruit potential support when being attacked  
270 (Slocombe & Zuberbühler, 2007; Szpl *et al.*, 2018). Adult Siberian jays (*Perisoreus infaustus*)  
271 only respond to mobbing calls of group members, while ignoring those of neighbours that  
272 use mobbing calls in a deceptive manner to gain access to food (Cunha and Griesser 2021). In  
273 common ravens (*Corvus corax*), 'haa' calls, a call type used to signal the presence of food,  
274 acoustically encode the caller's sex, age class, and individual identity (Boeckle, Szpl &  
275 Bugnyar, 2018). Moreover, common ravens can attend to this individual information  
276 (Boeckle, Szpl & Bugnyar, 2012) and use it in daily life decisions—that is, whether or not to  
277 call and respond to calls, respectively (Szpl *et al.*, 2015; Sierro *et al.*, 2020). An interesting  
278 feature of raven *haa* calls is the large individual variation in calling probability and calling  
279 rate, showing that some birds may be more prone to call at food than others (Szpl &  
280 Bugnyar, 2014). Factors influencing this variation include the birds' age, sex and residency  
281 status, with adult females calling more than adult males and local birds calling more than  
282 vagrants (Szpl & Bugnyar, 2014). These findings suggest that ravens may use individual  
283 characteristics in calls to learn about, and identify, specific individuals. They recall this  
284 information after years of separation, as captive birds selectively respond to *haa* calls of  
285 former group members and even discriminate their former friends from foes (Boeckle &  
286 Bugnyar, 2012). Carrion crows are able to differentiate between vocalisations of familiar and  
287 unfamiliar humans (Wascher *et al.*, 2012). This ability to infer individual identity from  
288 conspecific and heterospecific raises interesting questions around the use of public sensory  
289 information and how this is shaped by ecological factors like predation pressure and sociality  
290 (Ilgic *et al.*, 2015).

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### 292 **Multimodal communication**

293 Another challenge in animal communication research is the bias towards unimodal studies,  
294 which focus on a single sensory modality, typically vocalisations (Ratcliffe, Taylor & Reby,  
295 2016; Rutz *et al.*, 2023). This bias is likely due to humans being naturally attuned to auditory  
296 information. Additionally, vocalisations are easy to record, analyse, and study  
297 experimentally. However, a comprehensive understanding of animal communication

298 requires an integrated, multimodal approach, as signals in different modalities often interact  
299 to convey information more effectively.

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301 Multimodal signals can enhance the reliability and effectiveness of communication. Many  
302 species combine visual, olfactory, and acoustic signals—for instance, a vocalisation may be  
303 reinforced by a specific posture or facial expression, which increases the likelihood that the  
304 intended message is successfully transmitted and understood. Redundancy in multi-modal  
305 information ('back-up signal hypothesis') can increase the robustness of communication  
306 systems as receivers can pick up the information from one modality if another one is missed,  
307 for example in situations of increased environmental noise (Akçay & Beecher, 2019). Already  
308 in the middle of the twentieth century, researchers observed that many behaviours of  
309 corvids are flexible and involve a combination of distinct vocalisations with specific visual  
310 features such as body postures, wing formations and feather positions (Gwinner 1964;  
311 Coombs 1978; Figure 4). These visual features are used to communicate information and  
312 express different degrees of motivation (e.g., threat, begging, mating displays). While some  
313 studies have examined non-vocal signals in corvids (Gwinner, 1964; Pika & Bugnyar, 2011), it  
314 remains unclear whether their vocalisations are consistently accompanied by specific  
315 postures or other types of signals, or if combinations are context-dependent. A key  
316 limitation in studying multimodal communication in corvids, and birds more generally, has  
317 been the lack of reliable methods to quantify, amongst other things, body posture, wing  
318 displays, feather erection, eye temperature or pupil dilation. Beyond visual signalling,  
319 olfactory communication in corvids remains largely unexplored. While birds have  
320 traditionally been considered less reliant on olfaction (Grieves *et al.*, 2022), carrion crows  
321 have been shown to respond to conspecific scents (Wascher *et al.*, 2015a). Further research  
322 is needed to clarify the role of olfactory cues in corvid social interactions.

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Figure 4: Examples of body postures associated with vocalisations in (A) common ravens, (B) carrion crows, (C) red-billed choughs (*Pyrrhocorax pyrrhocorax*), and (D) a jackdaw.

**Complexity in animal communication: diversity, flexibility, and signal combination**

‘Vocal complexity’ is a recent key concept in the study of communication, which generally assumes that more complex signals allow for more complex information transmission (Peckre, Kappeler & Fichtel, 2019). Rebout et al. (2021) introduced a framework for analysing the complexity of communicative systems through three dimensions: (1) diversity—the number of different signals in a repertoire, their distinctiveness, and how individuals distribute their vocal production across signal types; (2) flexibility—an individual’s ability to modify its repertoire via changes in call structure and function or composition, such as the number of different call types; and (3) combinability—how multiple vocalisations are arranged into sequences (see above).

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In terms of diversity, some corvid species, such as Siberian jays (Griesser 2008) or common ravens (Enggist-Dueblin & Pfister, 2002) produce easily distinguishable call types, while others use both stereotyped calls and calls with significant graded variations (e.g., carrion crows: Siriwardena 1995; rooks: Martin et al. 2024). Similar inter-individual variation has

353 been noted in some species, such as American crows (Yorzinski *et al.*, 2006; Mates *et al.*,  
354 2015) and rooks (Benti *et al.*, 2019). Further investigation into these differences could  
355 provide insights into vocal diversity and complexity in corvids (Martin *et al.*, 2024).

356

357 Corvid vocal flexibility is characterised by high levels of vocal learning and imitation. Corvids  
358 mimic vocalisations of other species and environmental sounds (Wascher, Waterhouse &  
359 Beheim, 2025), but also of conspecifics (Brown, 1985; Kondo, 2021), in particular social  
360 partners (Luef *et al.* 2017). They also show high levels of functional flexibility; for example,  
361 male rooks produce their most frequent call in as many as seven different contexts (Roskaft  
362 and Espmark 1982). Very few studies have systematically assessed functional vocal flexibility  
363 in birds, indicating rich opportunities for further research.

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365 Vocal combinability refers to how information is encoded in vocal sequences, either by  
366 combining the meaning of calls (Suzuki *et al.* 2016; Engesser and Townsend 2019; Suzuki  
367 2021) or by generating new meanings not directly related to the individual components  
368 (Arnold and Zuberbühler 2006). Understanding the extent of vocal combinability in different  
369 species is key to tracing the evolutionary pathways that have shaped complex  
370 communication systems, including (but not limited to) human language, which is an open-  
371 ended combinatorial system capable of generating an infinite number of signals to  
372 communicate new meanings indefinitely (Nowak, Plotkin & Jansen, 2000; Nowak &  
373 Komarova, 2001). Extensive combinability has recently been shown in bonobos (Berthet,  
374 Surbeck & Townsend, 2025). Great apes and marmosets produce a wide range of vocal  
375 sequences in diverse social and environmental contexts (Girard-Buttoz *et al.*, 2022; Bortolato  
376 *et al.*, 2023; Bosshard *et al.*, 2024), and corvids provide a powerful contrast for comparative  
377 studies, to test potential evolutionary drivers of combinatorial capacities in two distantly  
378 related lineages.

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380 In corvids, this remains an understudied but promising aspect of vocal behaviour. Corvids  
381 often produce calls in sequences which vary in both the number of calls and their acoustic  
382 features such as temporal rhythm, call duration, or sequence length may encode different  
383 information (Thompson, 1982). For example, in large-billed crows (*Corvus macrorhynchos*),  
384 the number of *ka* calls increases when the dominant individual is temporarily removed from  
385 a group (Aota, Takano & Izawa, 2025). A recent experimental study showed that carrion  
386 crows can volitionally control the number of calls in the sequences they produce (Liao *et al.*,

387 2024). This opens up the possibility that corvids could use different acoustic features to  
388 intentionally signal information, or even to deceive others (Cunha and Griesser 2021). That  
389 said, it remains unclear at present whether, and how, composition of a sequence conveys  
390 meaning to receivers. Addressing this question will require both careful observations in the  
391 full natural context in which communication takes place, as well as controlled playback  
392 experiments (Ilgic *et al.*, 2019; Carlson, Greene & Templeton, 2020).

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394 Vocal sequences are also of interest to the emerging field of rhythm studies (Suzuki *et al.*,  
395 2016; Hersh, Ravignani & Burchardt, 2023). Advances in analytical methods, such as rhythm  
396 or cluster analysis (e.g., Burchardt and Knörnschild 2020; Burchardt *et al.* 2021) have  
397 revealed that rhythmic patterns can both carry important phylogenetic (Garcia *et al.*, 2020)  
398 and social (Mathevon *et al.*, 2017; Osiecka *et al.*, 2024a, 2025) information, and interact with  
399 the caller's emotional state (Maldarelli *et al.*, 2024). Studying how rhythm is used, produced  
400 and perceived is crucial for understanding the role of rhythm in the evolution of both  
401 language and music (Patel, 2014, 2021; Hersh *et al.*, 2023). Similarly, linguistic analyses of  
402 animal vocal structures can reveal broader evolutionary patterns of communication, such as  
403 the widespread adherence to brevity laws (Youngblood, 2025; Wascher & Youngblood,  
404 2025).

405

406 Whether within species variation in vocal complexity provides adaptive benefits to  
407 individuals is a longstanding evolutionary question. In songbirds, for example, greater song  
408 complexity in males is often linked to mate attraction, signalling individual quality to  
409 potential mates (Darolová *et al.*, 2012). Similarly, vocal complexity may play a role in social  
410 dynamics and mate choice in primates, as exemplified by female geladas, which tend to pay  
411 more attention to more complex male vocalisations (Gustison & Bergman, 2016).

412

### 413 **The ultimate functions: Exploring the influence of social and ecological factors on vocal** 414 **behaviour**

415 Corvids provide an ideal model for evaluating how social and ecological factors can shape  
416 vocal behaviour. Sociality is highly variable, both at inter- and intraspecific levels, from pair-  
417 breeding species, such as blue jays (*Cyanocitta cristata*) or pied crows (*Corvus albus*) which  
418 become territorial as adults and breed in pairs; to colonial species like rooks or Eurasian  
419 jackdaws, which live and breed in large communities; to family-living species like Siberian  
420 jays, or cooperatively-breeding species like Florida scrub-jays (*Aphelocoma coerulescens*; for

421 an overview on corvid sociality please see Billerman et al. 2022). However, classifying the  
422 social system of corvids is difficult because within-species sociality of some species varies  
423 depending on environmental, seasonal, and life-history factors (Kubitza, Bugnyar & Schwab,  
424 2015; Uhl *et al.*, 2019). For example, although carrion crows breed in monogamous pairs in  
425 most areas, facultative cooperative breeding occurs in 75% of territories in Northern Spain,  
426 depending on environmental factors (Baglione *et al.*, 2005).

427

428 Some corvid species are highly specialised in terms of the habitat they occupy, such as  
429 Florida scrub-jays and pinyon jays (*Gymnorhinus cyanocephalus*), which only occur in  
430 shrubland and open shrub woodlands, respectively, whereas many other species, including  
431 Eurasian magpies (*Pica pica*), Eurasian jackdaws, and several species of crows (including  
432 large-billed crows (*Corvus macrorhynchos*), carrion crows, and American crows) can be  
433 considered generalists, occupying many different habitats, including forest, grassland,  
434 agricultural landscapes, and urbanised areas (Billerman *et al.*, 2022). Corvids significantly  
435 contribute to ecosystem functioning, by providing seed dispersal (Pesendorfer *et al.*, 2016;  
436 Mendes *et al.*, 2024) and sanitary services, by scavenging on carrion (Inger *et al.*, 2016;  
437 Mariyappan *et al.*, 2023). Species conservation status ranges from ‘extinct in the wild’ (‘alalā;  
438 U.S. Fish and Wildlife Service (USFWS) 2009; although note that reintroductions are  
439 underway), to ‘least concern’, with some species being considered pests by local human  
440 populations, becoming the target of (legal and illegal) persecution (Billerman *et al.*, 2022).

441

442 This rich variation creates a valuable opportunity to investigate if aspects of vocal  
443 communication, such as repertoire size, vary with the degree of sociality or environmental  
444 context, both within and between species. The evolution of vocal complexity is often  
445 explained by two non-mutually exclusive hypotheses: the ‘social complexity hypothesis’ and  
446 the ‘acoustic adaptation hypothesis.’ The social complexity hypothesis for communication  
447 postulates that social complexity has been the main driver of vocal complexity (Freeberg,  
448 2006; Peckre *et al.*, 2019). In species with complex social systems, individuals interact with a  
449 wide range of conspecifics across different contexts, potentially requiring a more diverse and  
450 flexible vocal repertoire to facilitate coordination, competition, and bonding.

451

452 In contrast, the acoustic adaptation hypothesis posits that vocal signals are shaped by  
453 environmental factors to optimise information transmission (Morton 1975).

454 Habitat structure, including ground surface and vegetation type, wind direction,  
455 microclimatic conditions, ambient noise from both biotic and abiotic sources, can all  
456 influence the physical properties of acoustic signals (Forrest, 1994; Mullet, Farina & Gage,  
457 2017). According to this hypothesis, vocalisations with high-frequency modulations (e.g.,  
458 trills) and short elements should be favoured in open habitats, whereas vocalisations with  
459 low-frequency modulations (e.g., whistles) and long elements should be favoured in habitats  
460 with complex vegetation structure (Morton, 1975; Tubaro & Lijtmaer, 2006; Hao *et al.*, 2021;  
461 Netoskie *et al.*, 2023). While supported by many theoretical studies, there is a paucity of  
462 empirical evidence (Boncoraglio & Saino, 2007; Ey & Fischer, 2009; García-Navas, Feliu &  
463 Blumstein, 2023), except in the context of urbanisation and habitat fragmentation (Briefer *et*  
464 *al.* 2010; Deoniziak and Osiejuk 2019; Rhodes *et al.* 2023). Corvids offer an ideal test case for  
465 exploring these hypotheses.

466

### 467 **III. Methodological challenges and approaches**

468 In the following sections, we argue that the increased accessibility of study species to test  
469 hypotheses, combined with major technological (e.g., recording equipment, computer  
470 hardware, and software), methodological (e.g., new analytical techniques), and research  
471 culture advances (e.g., data sharing, research coordination), will enable a step-change in our  
472 understanding of corvid communication and cognition.

473

#### 474 **Recording of corvid vocalisations**

475 Like most field data collection, research on corvid vocal communication presents challenges.  
476 Recording corvid vocalisations presents several methodological challenges that have limited  
477 systematic study of their communication. Corvids often vocalise unpredictably, making it  
478 difficult to obtain balanced and representative samples across call types. Corvids frequently  
479 vocalise in noisy, open environments, such as forests or urban areas, where wind,  
480 anthropogenic noise, and overlapping calls from conspecifics or heterospecifics can obscure  
481 fine acoustic features. Their high mobility and tendency to vocalise while flying or moving  
482 through the canopy further reduce recording quality and limit control over recording  
483 distance and angle. Finally, corvids are behaviourally flexible and sensitive to human  
484 presence; observer effects can alter calling behaviour or suppress vocalisations altogether,  
485 posing additional challenges for obtaining naturalistic recordings suitable for quantitative  
486 acoustic analyses.

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Active and passive recordings

Recent technological advances in both active and passive recording methods are increasingly overcoming many of the challenges associated with documenting corvid vocalisations and, importantly, are enabling new classes of research questions to be addressed. Active recording approaches in captive settings or in wild populations habituated or trained to approach experimental set-ups (Figure 6) allow microphones to be positioned in close proximity to the focal signaller, resulting in high signal-to-noise ratio (SNR) recordings. Such high-quality recordings are essential for analysing fine-scale acoustic features, including subtle temporal and spectral cues that may underpin individual recognition (Hopp *et al.*, 2001; Kondo *et al.*, 2012; Martin *et al.*, 2022), social status (Kondo & Hiraiwa-Hasegawa, 2015), or contextual information (Griesser, 2009; Mates *et al.*, 2015; Gallego-Abenza *et al.*, 2022). They are also critical for capturing low-amplitude social calls that are otherwise difficult to record at a distance. In parallel, advances in passive recording technologies, such as autonomous recording units and microphone arrays, enable continuous, long-term monitoring across spatial scales without the need for constant human presence, thereby reducing observer effects. Passive recording technology in corvids has previously been applied to investigate for example collective behaviour (Dibnah *et al.*, 2022). When combined with automated detection, classification, and machine learning pipelines (Lü *et al.*, 2024), these approaches allow researchers to process large, data-rich datasets efficiently (Williams *et al.*, 2020; Nieto-Mora *et al.*, 2023), facilitating quantitative analyses of graded call systems and feature-based encoding of meaning. Together, active and passive recording technologies thus make it possible to link high-resolution acoustic structure to behavioural context, individual identity, and semantic function, substantially expanding the scope of questions that can be addressed in corvid vocal communication research.



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Figure 6: Siberian jays can be trained to use a feeding device (left; as part of a standardised protocol to observe social interactions), or will approach experimental apparatus (right; designed for a social learning experiment). Images taken by Liam Paulson in a long-term study population near Arvidsjaur, Sweden (Ekman & Griesser, 2016).

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### Bio-loggers

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Sound-recording ‘bio-loggers’ (Rutz & Hays, 2009) can also be placed directly on focal individuals. This technique has the advantage that vocalisations can be recorded simultaneously with other data, using additional sensors, such as GPS loggers for movement tracking and 3D accelerometers for mapping behaviours of interest (e.g., flight, foraging, or resting), providing important contextual information for functional decoding (Rutz et al. 2023). Such audio-loggers offer a valuable tool for recording both animal and environmental sounds with minimal human interference (Lynch *et al.*, 2013; Wilson *et al.*, 2020). When used with corvids, they are particularly useful for capturing soft, short-range vocalisations, which are routinely missed in studies employing more traditional methods (Baglione *et al.*, 2025). In jackdaws, audio-loggers have provided insights into extra-pair copulations by recording copulation calls (Gill *et al.*, 2020).

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But, the use of bio-loggers is not without challenges. One concern is the potential impact on the animals themselves. Studies in birds have revealed sub-lethal effects of the increased weight or handling-induced stress associated with tags (Chivers, Hatch & Elliott, 2016; Evans *et al.*, 2020; Puehringer-Sturmayer *et al.*, 2020). In order to avoid the need to re-capture individuals to retrieve equipment, a tag self-release mechanism can be pivotal, as demonstrated by Rutz and Troscianko (2013), who describe a simple and effective

539 release technique. It is important to thoroughly investigate the impacts of all aspects of the  
540 capture, tagging and deployment protocols before using acoustic tagging technologies  
541 (Blackburn *et al.*, 2016; Tian *et al.*, 2020). In addition to these ethical considerations, it is  
542 important to remember that loggers may fail under harsh meteorological conditions or get  
543 lost, a common occurrence in field studies. Pilot projects designed to estimate failure rates  
544 can help researchers plan the number of deployments needed to ensure sufficient data  
545 collection. Thus, it is important to consider the effects of attaching biologging acoustic  
546 devices when designing studies.

547

#### 548 **Analysing corvid calls**

549 Commonly, the collected audio data from corvids will be noisy—masked by wind noise,  
550 overlapping calls, or vocalisations of other species. Some of these issues can be partially  
551 addressed by using wind shields, appropriate recording equipment, and hides. In other  
552 contexts, manual or automated post-processing will be required; for example, audio  
553 fragments saturated with wind noise can be automatically detected and removed prior to  
554 analysis (Terranova *et al.*, 2024), and recorders can be built to detect the acoustic presence  
555 of the focal species in audio fragments ([Bergler et al. 2022](#)).

556

#### 557 Processing data before analyses

558 Modern recording units have the ability to record large volumes of data, which requires  
559 automated methods for efficient processing prior to subsequent analyses. A frequently  
560 applied method, commonly adapted from speech and image recognition, are supervised  
561 machine-learning models, which are trained with data that have been manually annotated  
562 (Smith & Pinter-Wollman, 2021; Naik *et al.*, 2023). While automated methods allow for  
563 high-volume data processing, it is necessary that study designs incorporate protocols that  
564 ensure data are usable for automated analysis pipelines.

565

566 There are automated methods for identifying vocal activity available, for example  
567 classification models (Stowell, 2022). Pre-trained models, such as BirdNET (Kahl *et al.*,  
568 2021), may generally provide good performance in corvids, however for more specific  
569 problems, researchers may choose to train their own model (Bergler *et al.*, 2022; Ghani *et al.*,  
570 2023). In studies where it is necessary to know the start- and end-time of each  
571 vocalisation, more advanced sound event detection methods may be required (Martin *et al.*,  
572 2022). One regular problem in acoustic recordings are multiple conspecifics vocalising

573 simultaneously, which can be dealt with by adopting object detection methods (Mahon *et*  
574 *al.*, 2025).

575

576 When recording audio outside of a controlled environment, noise will be present. Audio  
577 detection and classification methods can be made reasonably resilient to environmental  
578 (wind, rain), biological (vocalisations from non-focal individuals), or mechanical (body  
579 movements against microphone) noises through data augmentation, which can expose an  
580 algorithm to artificially degraded sounds during training (Zhang *et al.*, 2018). When  
581 analyses rely on the specific acoustic properties of recorded vocalisations, removing noise  
582 may be necessary. In vocal repertoire studies relying on the construction of a latent  
583 representation, the representation obtained can inadvertently reflect the background  
584 noise profile of recorded vocalisations (Thomas *et al.*, 2022). Stationary noise, such as rain  
585 or cicadas can be mitigated through signal processing methods (Sainburg, Thielk &  
586 Gentner, 2020). Non-stationary noise, such as wind, wing flapping or vocalisations of non-  
587 focal species presents a greater challenge, however recent machine learning efforts in  
588 denoising (Miron *et al.*, 2025) and source separation (Denton, Wisdom & Hershey, 2022)  
589 may provide tools for this challenge.

590

### 591 *Identifying meaningful acoustic features and classifying vocalisations*

592 Characterising corvid vocalisations can present analytical and conceptual challenges, due to  
593 their diversity, gradedness and complexity as discussed above. The features important for  
594 traditional analysis such as fundamental frequency measures are often not detectable.

595 Corvid calls tend to contain many non-linear phenomena which makes automatic  
596 extractions of parameters like fundamental frequency or amplitude modulations  
597 challenging and requires manual annotations (Massenet *et al.*, 2022). Semi-automated  
598 feature extraction, e.g., existing Praat codes that allow for point-by-point corrections can  
599 maximise accuracy while speeding up the process (Reby & McComb, 2003). Going beyond  
600 ‘simple feature extraction’ or frequency contours can be particularly important for  
601 vocalisations with significant non-linear contributions. One method still rarely used but of  
602 high importance to such calls are modulation spectra (Singh & Theunissen, 2003), providing  
603 detailed time average envelope statistics of the entire sound structure rather than specific  
604 values such as maximum or minimum frequencies (see application on Egyptian fruit bat

605 (*Rousettus aegyptiacus*) vocalisations in (Elie *et al.*, 2024).

606

607 Representations of vocalisations range from the measurement of expert-chosen features  
608 that may be tailored to the vocalisations under study such as the ‘caws’ of 28 corvid  
609 species (Laiolo & Rolando, 2003), to general-purpose choices such as spectrograms  
610 (Sainburg *et al.*, 2020; Martin *et al.*, 2024) or embeddings derived from the intermediate  
611 layers of a neural network (Sethi *et al.*, 2020; McGinn *et al.*, 2023; Best *et al.*, 2023). Expert-  
612 chosen acoustic features are interpretable but can be difficult to choose, design and  
613 measure robustly. This can apply to commonly used features such as fundamental  
614 frequency, as well as more complex or subtle features. Currently, non-linear phenomena  
615 are typically manually annotated. Anikin and Herbst (2024) provide a set of current best  
616 practices for annotating and measuring non-linear phenomena as well as a suite of  
617 visualization tools for aiding in their detection and classification. General-purpose analyses  
618 can be relatively easily applied to audio waveforms, but they may not adequately reflect  
619 perceptible features and may also be sensitive to extraneous information (e.g., due to  
620 recording conditions). Furthermore, especially if involving neural networks, they are not  
621 immediately interpretable. Here, best practice includes visualization and validation  
622 (Thomas *et al.* 2022). One option is to utilize these general-purpose features as an aid to  
623 manual annotation (Merino Recalde, 2023; Poupard *et al.*, 2024). Validation may also be  
624 based on whether the features can correctly predict perceptual judgments of the species  
625 themselves, as collected in discrimination tasks (Zandberg *et al.*, 2024; Elie *et al.*, 2025),  
626 although this may not currently be feasible for all species or comparative studies (Odom *et*  
627 *al.*, 2021). Finally, graded variation can complicate the notion of a repertoire of call types  
628 (Kershenbaum *et al.*, 2016; Fischer, Wadewitz & Hammerschmidt, 2017; Cusano, Noad &  
629 Dunlop, 2021). Representing vocal complexity which consists of a combination of graded  
630 variation and stereotyped call types remains an ongoing area of research.

631

### 632 *Linking vocalisations to behaviour and context*

633 To assess the functions and semantic meaning of vocalisations, they must be linked to  
634 contextual factors such as environmental variables, caller and receiver identities, life  
635 histories, behaviours and past interactions (Bugnyar, 2013; Taylor, 2014; Cunha & Griesser,  
636 2021). Studying vocalisations and behaviour of corvids synchronously can be challenging,  
637 especially in wild animals, who are freely moving over large areas and often difficult to

638 follow. Technological advances like animal-borne loggers (e.g., proximity and video loggers  
639 in New Caledonian crows, St Clair et al. 2015; Troscianko and Rutz 2015; accelerometers  
640 and audio loggers in carrion crows, Baglione et al. under review) and camera-based  
641 systems (e.g., flight tracking in jackdaws and rooks, Ling et al. 2018; nest cameras to  
642 document cooperative behaviours in carrion crows, Trapote et al. 2024) increasingly allow  
643 to analyse behaviour associated with vocalisations. Importantly, the mitigation of ethical  
644 risks, such as disturbance of focal animals need to be taken into account when applying  
645 technology such as camera setups. Although several studies report neutral effects of  
646 camera use for remotely observing bird behaviour, even when cameras are placed near or  
647 within nests (López-López, 2022), it is important to acknowledge that the installation of  
648 electronic devices may still influence avian behaviour (Harrison *et al.*, 2019). This concern is  
649 particularly relevant for corvid species, which are highly neophobic. Additionally,  
650 disturbances may arise when video cameras require frequent maintenance, such as battery  
651 recharging or troubleshooting technical issues, potentially exacerbating behavioural  
652 disruptions.

653  
654 Improved recording technology increasingly results in large datasets and machine learning  
655 can aid in extending manual annotations of behaviour (Tuia *et al.*, 2022).

656 Once contextual factors are measured, machine learning has the potential to play a key  
657 role in discovering their associations with vocalisations (Rutz *et al.*, 2023). In marmosets,  
658 supervised machine learning has been used to demonstrate that vocalisations contain  
659 sufficient information to identify the receiver of a vocalisation (Oren *et al.*, 2024). Such  
660 analyses require accounting for confounds in observational data (Demartsev *et al.*, 2023)  
661 and must be complemented with playbacks and other field experiments.

662  
663 While environmental noise presents a challenge when working with vocal data, it may  
664 present opportunities for identifying behavioural conditions salient to communication.  
665 Hoffman et al. (2024) uses wing flapping recorded in bio-loggers to identify periods of flight  
666 in carrion crows. In jackdaws, Stowell et al. (2017) characterize a broad array of  
667 behavioural contexts using audio recorded by bio-loggers.

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669

670 **Experimental approaches**

671 Experiments provide valuable opportunities for testing hypotheses related to the  
672 evolution of communication and the cognitive mechanisms underlying vocal behaviour.  
673 However, the neophobic nature of many corvid species (Miller *et al.*, 2022) along with their  
674 fear of human observers, can make field experiments challenging. On the other hand, some  
675 corvids habituate well to human presence (Ekman, Sklepkovych & Tegelstrom, 1994) and  
676 individuals in urban areas are generally less neophobic compared to their rural  
677 counterparts (Matsyura, Jankowski & Zimaroyeva, 2015). Thus, the scope of field  
678 experiments in corvids varies widely, from experiments that do not require observers to be  
679 close to test subjects, such as automated camera and recording systems (Trapote *et al.*,  
680 2024), to those that involve direct interactions between individuals and human  
681 experimenters (e.g., Horn *et al.* 2020).

682  
683 Playback experiments lend themselves to test different aspects of vocal communication in  
684 corvids and can be conducted in captivity (Boeckle & Bugnyar, 2012; Wascher *et al.*, 2012;  
685 Massen *et al.*, 2014) as well as in the field (Griesser 2008, Szípl *et al.* 2015; Lee *et al.* 2019;  
686 Davidková *et al.* 2020). A wide range of stimuli can be used, e.g., conspecific calls (Boeckle  
687 & Bugnyar, 2012; Kondo *et al.*, 2012; Zandberg *et al.*, 2014; Szípl *et al.*, 2015; Wascher *et al.*  
688 *et al.*, 2015b), non-human heterospecifics calls (Wascher *et al.*, 2012), human voices and  
689 speech (Wascher *et al.*, 2012; Schalz & Izawa, 2020; McIvor, Lee & Thornton, 2022), or  
690 anthropogenic sounds (Federspiel *et al.*, 2023). Playbacks can be used to test different  
691 behavioural and cognitive aspects related to vocal communication, e.g., individual  
692 recognition (Boeckle & Bugnyar, 2012; Kondo *et al.*, 2012; Cunha & Griesser, 2021),  
693 recognition of relationships (Massen *et al.*, 2014; Lee *et al.*, 2019a), function of  
694 vocalisations (McCaig, Brown & Jones, 2015; Davidková *et al.*, 2020), theory of mind  
695 (Bugnyar, Reber & Buckner, 2016). A wide range of setups are available, from fully  
696 automated remote systems (Suraci *et al.*, 2017; Palmer *et al.*, 2022) to more interactive  
697 approaches, which require the presence of a human observer (King, 2015). Playback  
698 experiments can make use of audio- and video-recordings to analyse the behavioural  
699 responses of focal individuals (Palmer *et al.* 2022; Mennill and Vehrencamp 2008).  
700 Importantly, experimental equipment should be placed out of sight of focal individuals or  
701 carefully camouflaged to minimise potentially negative effects of visible loudspeakers. In  
702 addition to minimising potential interference and disturbance to the animals, it also avoids  
703 habituation to the playback setup and individuals recognising the artificial setup, e.g. calls

704 being emitted from playback speakers. Besides consideration of potential disturbance  
705 playback experiments can cause when studying animals, other ethical risks need to be  
706 carefully considered and mitigated, for example simulated territory intrusion can cause  
707 territory abandonment or increased risk of predation (Watson, Znidarsic & Craig, 2019).

708  
709 Training corvids in laboratory settings allows researchers to set and control a variety of  
710 conditions and complement field studies and playback experiments. With tools like  
711 touchscreens and automated feeders, researchers can precisely control the set-up and  
712 present a variety of stimuli (Rust & Movshon, 2005; Hauber *et al.*, 2015). These setups can  
713 help separate factors like arousal and vocal control (Brecht *et al.*, 2019; Liao *et al.*, 2024),  
714 or explore how different acoustic features or call types relate to individual recognition (Elie  
715 & Theunissen, 2018). Complex training paradigms can further reveal cognitive mechanisms  
716 that shape evolutionary processes. However, behaviours, brains, and bodies are  
717 inseparable (Gomez-Marin & Ghazanfar, 2019), and training paradigms should integrate  
718 with ecological knowledge from field observations or experiments. Moreover,  
719 experimental paradigms that involve training typically require many more trials, which are  
720 crucial for establishing quantitative links between vocal behaviour and neural activity.  
721 Understanding whether the results from these controlled experiments are consistent or  
722 vary in more naturalistic contexts is essential (Lanzarini *et al.*, 2025). Exciting  
723 methodological improvements in behavioural tracking and recording technologies hold  
724 great promise to deepen our understanding of the physiology behind corvid  
725 communication.

726

#### 727 **IV. Opportunities and Future directions**

728 A deeper understanding of animal vocal communication is not only crucial for fundamental  
729 research on the evolution of communication, but has practical applications in animal welfare  
730 and conservation. In particular, studying corvid vocal communication can help address  
731 societal challenges such as reducing human-wildlife conflict, improving animal care and  
732 enrichment in captivity, and enhancing conservation efforts by informing strategies for  
733 reintroducing species or managing populations. Understanding how corvids communicate in  
734 both wild and human-modified environments can also contribute to mitigating the negative  
735 impacts of urbanisation.

736

737 **Advancing animal welfare**

738 Vocalisations provide an opportunity for non-invasive assessment of emotional and  
739 psychological states, and improving ethical and animal care standards.

740 Animal welfare assessments have evolved to include both negative-focused and positive-  
741 focussed assessments, such as the ‘five freedoms’ framework (freedom from hunger and  
742 thirst, freedom from discomfort, freedom from pain, injury, or disease, freedom to express  
743 normal behaviour, and freedom from fear and distress), and the ‘opportunities to thrive’  
744 model (Woods, Eyer & Miller, 2022). Bioacoustic methods are increasingly used to assess  
745 welfare in captive animals (Coutant, Villain & Briefer, 2024). For example, emotional arousal  
746 is expressed in call typical non-linear phenomena (Marx *et al.*, 2021), or call frequency  
747 (Gosselin *et al.*, 2025).

748  
749 Avian welfare research has lagged behind work on mammals, accounting for less than ten  
750 percent of welfare research in zoos in the last decade (Woods *et al.*, 2022), despite many  
751 species, including corvids being kept in captivity, including for research (Miller *et al.* 2024). In  
752 these settings, forced social groupings, overcrowding, or solitary living can alter vocal  
753 patterns and other behaviours in social birds such as corvids, often revealing distress (Harvey  
754 *et al.* 2002; Munteanu *et al.* 2017; Wolff and Stevens 2024). Interactions with human visitors  
755 and carers can further disrupt captive birds’ lives and compromise their welfare, especially in  
756 species with pronounced neophobia (Wascher *et al.*, 2021). Captive environments and social  
757 grouping also shape individuals’ development, as shown in a captive breeding programme of  
758 the critically endangered 'alalā, where autonomous audio and video recordings revealed that  
759 captive birds had a smaller vocal repertoire, compared to wild birds, notably losing crucial  
760 alarm and broadcast calls essential for survival in the wild (Tanimoto *et al.*, 2017).

761  
762 Given the central role of vocal communication in corvids’ social lives, this raises the question  
763 of how enriching environments can stimulate natural vocal behaviours. Enrichment may  
764 include ‘unnatural’ stimuli; for example, music was found to encourage vocal activity and  
765 reduce stress-related behaviours in temporarily captive hooded crows during rehabilitation  
766 (Jablonska, Golik & Burnat, 2023). However, while responses to both auditory enrichment  
767 and acoustic stressors likely vary across individuals and species, excessive noise, including  
768 vocalisations from nearby species, create welfare concerns (Bílá *et al.*, 2017; Broad, 2024;  
769 Miller *et al.*, 2024). Understanding how corvids perceive and respond to different sounds can

770 inform facilities to design cognitively stimulating environments that engage these birds  
771 meaningfully and minimise welfare concerns.

772

### 773 **Human-wildlife interactions**

774 Vocal monitoring offers valuable insights beyond captivity. Wild animal welfare is an  
775 emerging field in need of effective methods (Browning & Veit, 2023), and shifts in vocal  
776 activity may indicate environmental disturbance, with potentially cascading effects on  
777 population resilience. Broad et al (2024) found that noise pollution disrupted jackdaws' vocal  
778 communication at winter roosts, delaying settlement and increasing nocturnal calling,  
779 highlighting how anthropogenic disturbance may disrupt sleep and cognition, elevate stress,  
780 and impair vocal consensus during group coordination and collective behaviours.

781

782 Many corvid species, such as carrion crows or large-billed crows, are highly adapted to  
783 human environments and therefore present an ideal model system to study the effects of  
784 urbanisation on wildlife (Benmazouz *et al.*, 2021). Urbanisation is a major driver of  
785 biodiversity loss and a better understanding of how animals adapt to human modified  
786 environments can help inform conservation strategies, mitigate negative impacts, and  
787 promote coexistence between wildlife and urban populations.

788

789 Because of their closeness to humans, corvids are also an ideal model system to study  
790 human-wildlife conflicts and attitudes of people towards animals. Corvids have profound  
791 symbolic and cultural significance, appearing in myths, folklore, and traditions around the  
792 world (Marzluff & Angell, 2007). To Hawaiian's, the 'alalā are sacred 'aumakua (Banko, Ball  
793 & Banko, 2002), family messengers and protectors that originate from deified ancestors  
794 (Barrow, 1999). These birds were included in meetings between ali'i (royalty and chiefs) and,  
795 during battles, it is said that warriors would imitate the 'alala's haunting caws that were able  
796 to reach long distances (Walters, 2012). Similarly, the Siberian jay holds cultural significance,  
797 particularly among the indigenous Sámi people and other communities in northern Europe  
798 and Siberia (Bergman & Östlund, 2022; Joy, Armstrand & Helander, 2024). Generally, corvids  
799 evoke strong and polarized emotions in human societies (Jürgens *et al.*, 2022), which  
800 presents an interesting area of research. Several corvid species have been shown to be  
801 sensitive to differences in human voices and speech, for example depending on familiarity,  
802 gender, or language (Wascher *et al.*, 2012; Schalz & Izawa, 2020; McIvor *et al.*, 2022; Schalz,  
803 2023). This may provide fitness benefits by avoiding unfamiliar, potentially dangerous

804 humans. Future studies on corvid responses to human vocalisations could explore whether  
805 corvids' abilities to discriminate aspects of human speech patterns reflects abilities evolved  
806 for interspecific communication.

807

808 Human-wildlife conflict with corvids is particularly prevalent in agricultural landscapes,  
809 where corvids are considered to raid crops and cause significant economic losses for farmers  
810 (Khan, Javed & Zeeshan, 2015) and airport environments, where groups of corvids pose a  
811 risk to aviation safety (Kukhta & Matsyura, 2018). As a consequence over four million corvids  
812 are killed annually across Europe (Jiguet, 2020), with local cullings often resulting in little  
813 impact, as local turnover is high and larger metapopulations exist (Marchand *et al.*, 2018).  
814 Vocal communication can provide non-lethal methods to mitigate these conflicts,  
815 particularly through playback, by broadcasting alarm calls or distress calls deterring corvids  
816 from specific areas (Baxter & Robinson, 2007; Belant, 2011). While such methods can be  
817 temporarily effective, corvids often habituate to repeated playbacks, necessitating ongoing  
818 modifications in acoustic deterrents. Understanding how corvids use vocal communication in  
819 response to threats is crucial for developing long-term, non-lethal management strategies  
820 that balance human interests with conservation goals.

821

822

## 823 **V. Conclusion**

824 As outlined in this review, we argue that corvids present a key model group to advance our  
825 understanding of animal communication. Recent conceptual, technological, and  
826 methodological advances are suited to address challenges and new questions in the field.  
827 With their complex vocal repertoires, social learning abilities, and cognitive skills, corvids  
828 offer a particularly valuable opportunity to study the flexibility and function of vocal signals  
829 in both natural and human-modified environments. Future research integrating key  
830 evolutionary concepts, field experiments and powerful analytical tools will provide deeper  
831 insights into how corvids use vocalisations to navigate their social and ecological landscapes.  
832 Additionally, understanding corvid vocal communication has practical applications, from  
833 improving animal welfare, and mitigating human-wildlife conflict, to informing conservation  
834 strategies. By continuing to explore the intricacies of corvid vocalisation, we can not only  
835 refine our knowledge of avian communication but also gain broader insights into the  
836 evolution of complex signalling systems across species.

837

838 **VI. Author contributions**

839 This article arose from an investigative virtual workshop ‘Corvid Vocal Communication’  
840 organised by C.A.F.W. and V.D. in September 2024. The workshop was advertised broadly  
841 within personal networks and on social media and participation at the workshop was free.  
842 Authorship was offered to everybody making a significant contribution according to the  
843 International Committee of Medical Journal Editors recommendations for defining the roles  
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845

846

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