Mirror stimulation in Eurasian jays (*Garrulus glandarius*)

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Mirror exposure elicits a wide range of behavioural patterns: from social - indicating that an animal considers its own reflection as a conspecific - to mirror-guided and self-directed, as possible evidence of mirror self-recognition (MSR). MSR has only been found categorically in large-brained species, such as corvids, great apes and elephants. The evidence in corvids is currently debated, despite corvids being known for their remarkable socio-cognitive skills. In this study, we investigated the reaction of the Eurasian jays when performing three mirror-stimulation tasks. Combined evidence from the mirror-stimulation tasks suggests that jays perceived the image in the mirror as threatening and to be avoided. However, this alone does not indicate whether jays were afraid of a conspecific or of the mirror itself. We highlight how the high neophobia of corvids can hinder their likelihood to approach and explore a mirror, preventing the emergence of behaviours typically associated with MSR. Furthermore, we discuss how motivational factors and species differences must be taken into account when interpreting behavioural responses to the mirrors. In conclusion, after 50 years of intense MSR research, we believe it is necessary to develop new fruitful methods to test it, and change the way we approach MSR studies across species.

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28 **Abstract**

29 Mirror exposure elicits a wide range of behavioural patterns: from social - indicating that an animal

30 considers its own reflection as a conspecific - to mirror-guided and self-directed, as possible

31 evidence of mirror self-recognition (MSR). MSR has only been found categorically in large-

32 brained species, such as corvids, great apes and elephants. The evidence in corvids is currently

33 debated, despite corvids being known for their remarkable socio-cognitive skills. In this study, we

34 investigated the reaction of the Eurasian jays when performing three mirror-stimulation tasks.

35 Combined evidence from the mirror-stimulation tasks suggests that jays perceived the image in

36 the mirror as threatening and to be avoided. However, this alone does not indicate whether jays

37 were afraid of a conspecific or of the mirror itself. We highlight how the high neophobia of corvids

38 can hinder their likelihood to approach and explore a mirror, preventing the emergence of

39 behaviours typically associated with MSR. Furthermore, we discuss how motivational factors and

40 species differences must be taken into account when interpreting behavioural responses to the

41 mirrors. In conclusion, after 50 years of intense MSR research, we believe it is necessary to

42 develop new fruitful methods to test it, and change the way we approach MSR studies across

43 species.

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45 **Keywords**: avian cognition, consciousness, corvids, self-awareness

Introduction

Self-recognition, also defined as the ability to become the object of one's own attention, has attracted attention in comparative psychology because of its direct link with self-awareness (Anderson & Gallup, 2011). The mark test (Gallup, 1970) has become the predominant method of systematically investigating mirror self-recognition in animals. When confronted with a mirror, many animals first respond to their reflection with social displays, suggesting they mistake their reflection for a conspecific. Over time, they might start exploring the mirror, performing contingent behaviours and, finally, their behaviour in front of the mirror becomes self-directed, opening up the possibility that they perceive the reflection as their own (Gallup, 1970). The typical assumption of this test is that self-recognition is demonstrated when an animal touches or attempts to remove a real mark on their body significantly more than a sham mark (or more frequently than comparable regions of the face without the mark), and more often in the presence of the mirror than not.

Mark-tests have been primarily applied to mammals, particularly primates (Anderson & Gallup, 2011, 2015; Gallup & Anderson, 2018 for studies on great apes passing the test), but three studies also claim evidence of MSR in corvids (Prior, Schwarz & Güntürkün, 2008; Clary & Kelly, 2016; Buniyaadi, Taufique & Kumar, 2020). However, the claims about MSR in birds, and some other non-human primates (see for a review, Gallup & Anderson, 2018, 2020, 2021) are highly debated, with later studies failing to replicate initial findings (Soler et al., 2020; Parishar, Mohapatra & Iyengar, 2021), and other studies reporting negative results (carrion and hooded crows, Vanhooland, Bugnyar & Massen, 2019; Brecht, Müller & Nieder, 2020; azure-winged magpies, Wang et al., 2020; grey tits, Kraft et al., 2017; keas and Goffin's cockatoos, van Buuren et al., 2018; ravens, Baciadonna et al., 2022). As such, the strength of evidence for mirror self-recognition in avian subjects is still open for debate (e.g. Gallup & Anderson, 2020).

The mark-test has been criticized for being ecologically invalid and ethologically restrictive, particularly when applied to animals different from chimpanzees (Heyes, 1995, 1996; de Waal, 2019; Vonk, 2019). For instance, the mark may not be salient to all species: animals might not note or be motivated to interact with the commonly-used colourful paint (Hauser et al., 1995); as happens for keas (van Buuren et al., 2018). Also, the iridescence of the feathers of many species, as well as the tactile properties of marks on sensitive, motile feathers, makes marking a difficult issue for birds (Soler, Pérez-Contreras & Peralta-Sánchez, 2014; Soler et al., 2020).

77   Likewise, motivational differences may affect whether a species is inclined to self-explore in front

78   of a mirror or remove any mark (De Veer & Van Den Bos, 1999). A wide range of species-specific

79   behaviours and ecological factors might explain negative findings. For example, the mark test has

80   been applied to elephants using mirrors that were too small (Povinelli, 1989; Plotnik, De Waal &

81   Reiss, 2006). Moreover elephants seem to rely predominately on olfaction for foraging and social

82   interaction rather than vision (Plotnik et al., 2019; Ball et al., 2022). This suggests that findings on

83   MSR based on vision, instead of the main sensory modality of a species, should be interpreted

84   with caution. Gorillas, for example, do not usually explore objects by touching them and tend to

85   avoid direct eye contact with others (however, some individuals did pass mark tests, see (Suarez

86   & Gallup, 1981; Anderson & Gallup, 2015; Murray, Anderson & Gallup, 2022). Similarly,

87   dolphins and birds do not possess hands to touch the mark, and many bird species inspect their

88   body through the beak rather than their feet (Pepperberg et al., 1995; Reiss & Marino, 2001). Some

89   of these concerns have occasionally been addressed, however when a task designed specifically

90   for chimpanzees is applied to other species, it must be applied with caution, and appropriate

91   adaptations, as well as careful interpretation of the results, must be employed when necessary

92   (Vonk, 2019; Kohda et al., 2019). Finally, the mark-test has been criticized on principle for

93   creating a "pass or fail" criterion, based on which species cannot demonstrate different gradients

94   of self-recognition or self-awareness skills (Pepperberg et al., 1995; de Waal, 2019; Baciadonna

95   et al., 2021b). As such, it is doubtful how much mirror mark-tests as currently designed can add to

96   the body of knowledge regarding avian MSR – other tasks, such as mirror-use and mirror-

97   stimulation, may therefore prove more fruitful.

98   Little is known about the MSR and mirror-use capacities of another caching corvid, the

99   Eurasian jay (*Garrulus glandarius*), but they are excellent candidates for MSR tasks due to their

100   complex social cognition abilities (Baciadonna et al., 2021a,b). Eurasian jays are territorial, highly

101   specialized acorn cachers (Bossema, 1976; De Kort & Clayton, 2006). They depend on their caches

102   in the winter, and routinely suffer pilfering of these caches (Goodwin, 1959; Bossema, 1976; Shaw

103   & Clayton, 2012). As such, Eurasian jays engage in flexible cache-protection behaviours. For

104   instance, jays recover more items when recent pilfering is high and, if paired with a subordinate

105   observer, they then re-cache significantly more, as opposed to taking or eating those caches. When

106   paired with a dominant observer, the jays suppress caching and cache further away (Shaw &

107   Clayton, 2012). They also may take a potentially pilfering bird's point of view into account,

108 preferentially caching in out-of-view trays when observed as compared to when caching in private
109 (Legg & Clayton, 2014; Legg, Ostojić & Clayton, 2016).

110   Eurasian jays are also a species of interest for other studies of advanced cognitive abilities:
111 they have been previously found to be able to understand some causal relationships between
112 objects (Davidson et al., 2017); to have the capacity for some level of tool-use in captivity (Cheke,
113 Bird & Clayton, 2011; Amodio et al., 2020); are able to attribute desire-states to conspecifics
114 (Ostojić et al., 2013, 2014, 2016); and possess object permanence (Clayton & Krebs, 1994; Zucca,
115 Milos & Vallortigara, 2007). Such potential abilities of complex social cognition, tool-use (in a
116 laboratory setting), and complex physical cognition, as well as flexible cache-protection, make
117 Eurasian jays a very interesting model for studies of MSR (Baciadonna et al., 2021b). As such, the
118 present study presents a series of mirror-stimulation tasks to a new species of corvid, the Eurasian
119 jay.

120   In the present study, we explored the responses of Eurasian jays towards three mirror tasks:
121 a mirror preference task (Task 1), a mirror preference task with varying food quality (Task 2), and
122 a vertical vs. horizontal mirror habituation task (Task 3). In Task 1, jays were presented with a
123 choice of sitting on a perch and eating either in front of a mirror or in front of a medium-density
124 fibreboard (MDF, a non-reflective surface), with only one food type and thus equal palatability.
125 The purpose of Task 1 was to assess whether the birds displayed a preference for the mirrored
126 surface compared to the non-reflective surface or vice-versa, and thus provide preliminary
127 evidence as to how the birds may perceive their reflected image. The absence of a preference for
128 one of the two conditions may indicate that both surfaces were not considered as threatening or
129 particularly interesting, whereas a strong preference for eating the food in front of the wooden
130 panel might indicate that the mirrored image was perceived as an unusual and fear-triggering
131 stimulus. A preference for eating the food in front of the mirror may indicate an interest in its
132 reflective surface and their image therein. Task 2 was similar to Task 1, but a bowl with a more-
133 palatable food was placed in front of the mirror and the birds' normal daily food was placed in a
134 bowl in front of the wooden panel. Task 2 was designed to investigate whether the presence of
135 more-palatable food could increase exploratory behaviours towards the mirror panel by
136 encouraging birds to overcome the lack of interest initially displayed towards the mirror in Task
137 1. In Task 3, we additionally assessed the birds' latency to approach and collect a food reward
138 when it required the jays to land close to one of two different mirror configurations (vertical and

139   horizontal) comparing their latency to approach when presented with the same configurations, but

140   of wooden boards rather than reflective surfaces. Task 3 was designed to provide the birds with

141   further experience with a mirror, as well as to examine whether the physical configuration of a

142   mirrored surface, compared to wooden controls, affected the birds' behaviour towards it.

143

Materials and Methods:

144

145   *Location, subjects, housing condition and animal ethics:*

146   Eight adult Eurasian jays housed at Comparative Cognition Laboratory at the Sub-Department of

147   Animal Behaviour, University of Cambridge in Madingley, United Kingdom

148   were tested. The jays were housed in two aviaries: Five from Aviary I (Caracas, Lisbon, and Lima,

149   males; Wellington and Washington, females, 13 years old) and three from Aviary II (Romero and

150   Hoy, males; Hunter, female, 14 years old). However, only seven jays were tested in Tasks 1 and

151   2: Lisbon was not included because he initially refused to come inside the testing compartment,

152   but then started spontaneously entering for Task 3, and so was included. Outside of testing, jays

153   lived in groups in two large outdoor aviaries (20 × 6 × 3 m). Smaller indoor testing compartments

154   (3 × 1× 2 m) connected to the aviary by hatch doors (0.5 × 0.5m) were used for testing. Subjects

155   participated voluntarily. In addition, the testing compartments contained two suspended platforms

156   (1 x 1 m) approximately 1 m from the ground, where the birds could walk or land to rest. During

157   testing sessions, which lasted 15 minutes per subject, each individual was physically and visually

158   isolated from other jays. Birds were food deprived for an hour before testing (birds were never

159   food deprived for more than 4 hours/day and were never water deprived). Individuals were tested

160   once a day. Outside of testing, birds were fed a maintenance diet of soaked cat biscuits, vegetables,

161   seeds, fruit and hard-boiled eggs. The jays were hand-raised by licensed breeders and had since

162   lived in laboratory settings. Furthermore, these jays had previously participated in different

163   experiments (e.g. Shaw & Clayton, 2014; Legg, Ostojić & Clayton, 2016; Ostojić et al., 2016;

164   Amodio et al., 2021). They had also had exposure to mirrors during previous mirror-stimulation

165   experiments: these included the placement of a mirror inside their aviary for two weeks and a

166   mirror-guided string-pulling study (Baciadonna et al., 2021a). All experiments were approved by

167   the University of Cambridge (ZOO63/19) and followed Home Office Regulations and the ASAB's

168   Guidelines for the Treatment of Animals in Behavioural Research and Teaching. At the end of the

169   study, jays were kept in the aviary in their respective social groups.

170

171   *Experimental set-up and procedure*

172

173   *Task 1: Mirror Preference Task*

174   In this task, each jay was moved into an indoor testing compartment and had the chance to

175   approach and retrieve an identical reward (eight peanuts and eight macadamia nuts) from the front

176   of either a wooden or mirror panel. On the longer side of the indoor testing compartment, a wooden

177   (MDF) panel and a mirror panel of the same size (45 x 45 cm) were suspended vertically from the

178   wire mesh using a metal hook; the sides on which the mirror or wood panels were placed were

179   counterbalanced per subject. A small food container and a small resting perch (15 cm long and 20

180   cm distant from each panel) were fixed at the base of each panel. Each food container had eight

181   half macadamia nuts and eight half peanuts. In total, the jays had 16 fifteen-minute sessions each

182   (one session per day; total time 240 min).

183

184   *Task 2: Mirror Preference Task with Varying Food Quality*

185   In this task, each jay was moved into an indoor testing compartment and had the chance to

186   approach and retrieve either a more-desirable food (20 waxworms) from the front of a mirrored

187   panel, or a less-desirable food (dried cat biscuits from their daily maintenance diet) from the front

188   of a wooden panel (waxworms are used as experimental treats for the birds in most of our

189   experiments). Furthermore, to reduce the speed of food consumption and increase the likelihood

190   that the birds would explore the surfaces more, each food bowl was covered with cling-film that

191   needed to be removed to retrieve the food. Before starting Task 2, a habituation phase (one session

192   per day) was performed to allow the birds to learn how to remove a cling-film lid placed on top of

193   a food bowl (placed in the centre of the wooden platforms, without corresponding boards) to

194   retrieve a small portion of mealworms. To move on to Task 2, subjects had to successfully remove

195   the cling-film from the bowl in four consecutive sessions. Once moved on to Task 2, the jays had

196   eight fifteen-minute sessions each (one session per day; total time 120 min).

197

198   *Task 3: Vertical vs. Horizontal Mirror Habituation Task*

199   In this task, each jay was moved into an indoor testing compartment and had the chance to

200   approach and retrieve a food reward from the centre of a panel, either vertical or horizontal, and

201 either mirrored or wooden. This task was conducted to offer additional mirror experience to the
202 jays, and to provide further information regarding their perception towards different configurations
203 of mirrored surfaces when compared to wooden control surfaces. Subjects experienced first a
204 vertical mirror (VM) and a horizontal mirror (HM) condition and, subsequently, a vertical wood
205 (VW) and a horizontal wood (HW) condition. All subjects experienced each mirror condition
206 before either of the wooden conditions. The placement of surfaces was randomized between
207 subjects, so that half of the birds experienced the vertical conditions before the horizontal ones,
208 and vice-versa. Mirrors and wooden surfaces were flat 30 x 30 cm squares. For the vertical
209 condition, the surface hung from the compartment's mesh side using a metal hook and wire and
210 rested on the wooden suspended platform so that a jay could walk directly up to it. For the
211 horizontal condition, the surface was placed flat on the wooden platform inside the compartment,
212 equidistant from both mesh sides. Glued at the centre of each surface was a small, transparent
213 Plexiglas tube, approximately 1 cm in diameter and height, where a live waxworm would be baited
214 at the beginning of each session. When a bird approached the surface and successfully retrieved
215 the worm, the tube was then immediately re-baited, until a bird had successfully retrieved a worm
216 20 times (either within one 15 min. session, or over multiple sessions). If a bird did not pass a
217 condition, testing on that condition ended after the bird had failed to retrieve any worm over five
218 consecutive 15-minute sessions.

219

220 *Video coding*

221   A digital video camera (GoPro Hero4) was used to record all test sessions. For Tasks 1 and
222 2, the videos were scored using Behavioural Observation Research Interactive Software (BORIS
223 v. 7.7.3; Friard & Gamba, 2016). The ethogram used, largely based on the current literature (Prior,
224 Schwarz & Güntürkün, 2008; Vanhooland, Bugnyar & Massen, 2019; Soler et al., 2020) included,
225 at the initial stage, the following behavioural categories: exploration (food taken, duration and
226 occurrences of looking), social behaviour, contingent behaviour and self-directed behaviour.
227 However, considering jays' overall engagement with the mirror (0.10 occurrences per minute for
228 Task 1 and 0.008 occurrences per minute for Task 2), only the most conspicuous behaviours
229 displayed were investigated statistically (Table 1 and 2). For Tasks 1 and 2, the amount of food
230 taken either from the mirror or the wooden panel conditions and the duration (sec) and occurrences
231 of looking (body and head facing either the mirror or the wooden panel) were scored. LB coded

232   all the videos for Tasks 1 and 2. Twenty per cent of the videos randomly chosen were scored by a

233   second independent observer (MM). The interclass correlation coefficient calculated for all the

234   behaviours analysed statistically was: 0.98 for duration of looking, 0.91 for duration for

235   occurrences of looking. For Task 3, the latency, i.e., the time elapsed between a bird successfully

236   retrieving the worm from the surface and the moment in which the experimenter's arm was

237   removed from the compartment after baiting the Plexiglas tube, was calculated. For Task 3, the

238   latency was scored directly during testing: the stopwatch was controlled by a second experimenter

239   (FMC), while the first experimenter (LB) was in charge of baiting the Plexiglas tube.

240

241   *Statistical analyses*

242   Generalised linear mixed models were calculated using the lme4 package (Bates et al.,

243   2015) in R 3.6.1 (R Development Core Team, 2020). For Task 1, a model was calculated for each

244   of the following dependent variables: food taken and occurrences of looking. Condition (mirror,

245   wood), Session (1-16), Aviary (group that each bird belonged to, with two levels), and Sex (female,

246   male) were included as fixed factors for all models performed for Task 1. For Task 1, the GLMM

247   TMD package (Brooks et al., 2017) was used because the dependent variables food taken (Poisson

248   distribution) and occurrences of looking violated the normality assumption, as well as due to

249   occurrences of a high frequency of zero-values. The dependent variable, duration of looking, was

250   analysed using non-parametric methods for Task 1. Wilcoxon signed-rank tests were conducted to

251   identify any significant differences between the duration of looking for each condition.

252   For Task 2, a model (GLMM) was calculated for each of the following dependent variables:

253   food taken (binomial distribution), occurrences, and duration of looking. Condition (mirror,

254   wooden panel), Session (1-8), Aviary (group that each bird belonged to, with two levels), and Sex

255   (female, male), were included as fixed factors for all models performed for Task 2.

256   For Task 3, the latency to approach the food was analysed. The data obtained violated the

257   normality assumption, and thus a non-parametric approach was employed for analysis. A Fisher's

258   exact test was used to compare the number of birds that passed or failed each condition. A

259   Friedman test was conducted to identify any significant differences between conditions in both

260   latency to approach and the average number of sessions required to pass each condition.

261   For all GLMM models, the significance of the full model was established by comparing

262   this model with the model that included only the random factor (null model) using a likelihood

263 ratio test. Model fit and over-dispersion were checked using the DHARMa 0.3.3.0 package

264 (Harting, 2020). The p-value of each factor was derived using the "drop1" function (Barr et al.,

265 2013). Also, the subjects' identity was included as a random factor to control for repeated

266 measurements of the same subject in all models performed.

267

268 **Results**

269 *Task 1: Mirror Preference Task*

270   When investigating which variables affected the food taken from either surface, it was

271 found that the full model differed significantly from the null model (GLMM: $\chi^2 = 21.54$, $df = 4$, p

272 < 0.0001). The fixed factor Condition was significant (Table 3); jays took more food from in front

273 of the wooden panel (Mean ± SE = 0.79 ± 0.25) compared to the mirror panel (Mean ± SE = 0.18

274 ± 0.13; Figure 1A). The Sex factor was also significant (Table 3), with male jays taking more food

275 (Mean ± SE = 0.74 ± 0.25) than females (Mean ± SE = 0.15 ± 0.06), across conditions. The other

276 fixed factors included in the model were not significant (Table 3). When investigating which

277 variables affected the occurrences of looking, it was found that the full model differed significantly

278 from the null model (GLMM: $\chi^2 = 11.02$, $df = 4$, $p = 0.026$). The fixed Sex factor was significant

279 (Table 4), with male jays looking more often (Mean ± SE = 2.57 ± 0.95) than females (Mean ± SE

280 = 0.98 ± 0.39), across conditions. The factor Session was also significant (Table 4). Overall, across

281 the sessions, jays looked either at the mirror or the wooden panel on average 1.89 ± 0.20 times. In

282 the last two sessions, the occurrences of looking increased (Session 15, Mean ± SE= 3.21 ± 1.70;

283 Session 16, Mean ± SE = 2.78 ± 1.80). The other fixed factors included in the model were not

284 significant (Table 4). A Wilcoxon signed-rank test showed that the duration of looking either at

285 the mirror (Mean ± SE = 8.95 ± 2.41 s) or at the wooden panel (Mean ± SE = 11.10 ± 3.37 s) did

286 not differ (V = 1381.5, p = 0.67).

287

288 *Task 2: Mirror Preference Task with Varying Food Quality*

289   Six out of seven birds managed to remove the cling-film during the habituation phase

290 (range 4-12 sessions). One subject was excluded (Wellington) because she never managed to

291 remove the cling-film and retrieve the food in four consecutive sessions. When investigating which

292 variables affected the food taken, it was found that the full model differed significantly from the

293 null model (GLMM: $\chi^2 = 53.01$, $df = 4$, $p < 0.001$). The fixed factor Condition was significant

294   (Table 5); jays took more food in front of the mirror panel (Mean ± SE = 0.66 ± 0.21) compared

295   to the wooden panel (Mean ± SE = 0.16 ± 0.10; Figure 1B). The other fixed factors included in the

296   model were not significant (Table 5). When investigating which variables affected the occurrences

297   of looking, it was found that the full model differed significantly from the null model (GLMM: χ

298   ^{2} = 25.33, df = 4, p < 0.0001). The fixed factor Condition was significant (Table 6), in that jays

299   looked more often at the mirror panel (Mean ± SE = 3.12 ± 1.13) compared to the wooden panel

300   (Mean ± SE = 1.41 ± 0.26; Figure 1C). The factor Session was also significant (Table 6). Overall,

301   the amount of looks across sessions decreased (Session 1, Mean ± SE= 4.41 ± 0.96; Session 8,

302   Mean ± SE = 2.16 ± 1.07). The other fixed factors included in the model were not significant

303   (Table 6). When investigating which variables affected the duration of looking, it was found that

304   the full model differed significantly from the null model (GLMM: χ^2 = 54.31, df = 4, p < 0.0001).

305   The fixed factor Condition was significant (Table 7), with jays looking at the mirror panel for

306   longer (Mean ± SE = 82.36 ± 26.25 s) than the wooden panel (Mean ± SE = 14.61 ± 5.47 s). The

307   factor Session was also significant (Table 7). Overall, the duration of looking across sessions

308   decreased (Session 1, Mean ± SE= 78.09 ± 23.43 s; Session 8, Mean ± SE = 45.01 ± 15.33 s). The

309   other fixed factors included in the model were not significant (Table 7).

310   *Task 3: Vertical vs. Horizontal Mirror Habituation Task*

311   The latencies to approach the food across the four conditions are represented in Figure 1D.

312   Only one out of eight jays successfully retrieved the reward 20 times in the VM configuration

313   (Romero; in two sessions). Two birds (Caracas and Wellington) did not complete any of the four

314   conditions (Table 8). Five out of eight jays successfully obtained the reward 20 times (session

315   range, 2-9) in the HM configuration (Mean ± SE = 75.50 ± 36.07s; Romero, Hoy, Lima,

316   Washington and Hunter). When tested in the VW configuration, five out of eight subjects (Mean

317   ± SE = 54.02 ± 13.36 s; Romero, Lima, Washington, Hunter, Lisbon) successfully obtained the

318   reward 20 times (session range, 1–5), whereas six (Romero, Lima, Washington, Hunter, Lisbon,

319   Hunter) successfully retrieved the reward (session range, 1-8) in the HW configuration (Mean ±

320   SE = 46.37 ± 16.93 s). However, there was not a significant association between the type of

321   configuration and whether the jays succeeded (Fisher's exact test, p = 0.084). The latency to

322   approach the food was compared between three conditions (HM, and VW and HW). One

323   condition, the VM, was excluded because of an insufficient number of observations (only one jay

324   successfully completed the task). The latency to approach the food was not significantly different

325   between conditions (Friedman test: $\chi^2 = 3.5$, $df = 2$, $p = 0.17$). The number of sessions required to

326   complete Task 3 did not differ between conditions (Friedman test: $\chi^2 = 4.30$, $df = 2$, $p = 0.11$).

327

328   **Discussion**

329   Across the three tests, the Eurasian jays did not display the expected behavioural transition

330   from social behaviours to exploration, contingency testing, mirror-guided self-exploration and

331   self-directed behaviour that are typically observed in species in which mirror self-recognition has

332   been reported. During Tasks 1 and 2, only three birds showed any contingent behaviours and none

333   of the birds showed mirror guided self-exploration, which has been considered the main sign that

334   needs to be observed before performing a classic mark-test (de Waal, 2019); as such, we did not

335   proceed to designing or conducting a mark-test with these birds. The limited social behaviours

336   displayed towards the reflected image throughout this study strongly suggest that the jays did not

337   perceive the stimulus in the mirror as a conspecific worth interacting with or even confronting.

338   Moreover, their strong preference for taking the food from in front of the wooden panel suggests,

339   according to our initial prediction, that their reflected image was perceived as an unusual and fear-

340   triggering stimulus which they avoided. The initial fear reaction towards the reflected image was

341   attenuated by providing more palatable food placed near to the mirror. Although the jays took the

342   more palatable food from the mirror panel more often as compared to a less-palatable food from

343   the wooden panel, their general behaviour did not otherwise change from Task 1. Their overall

344   lack of engagement and interest towards the mirror suggests that it was perceived as a threatening

345   stimulus, and the results from Task 3 are consistent with this interpretation. Although there were

346   no significant differences detected between conditions, only one jay passed the VM condition,

347   whereas five passed each of the HM and VW conditions, and six passed the HW condition. The

348   finding that fewer birds passed the vertical mirror condition compared with the horizontal mirror

349   condition suggests that birds might interpret these two configurations differently. Grey parrots

350   (*Psittacus erithacus*; Pepperberg et al., 1995), Goffin's cockatoos (*Cacatua goffiniana;* van

351   Buuren et al., 2018), and jungle crows (*Corvus macrorhynchos;* Kusayama, Bischof & Watanabe,

352   2000) behaved more socially towards a vertical than a horizontal mirror. A vertical mirror seems

353   more similar to a real-life bird, as birds are more often found upright, whereas they would only be

354   standing on top of a bird (as reflected in a horizontal mirror) during agonistic or reproductive

355   interactions. In our study, the horizontal mirror might have been perceived as less threatening than

356   the vertical one: while in the vertical position, the birds had to face the full view of their image in
357   order to retrieve the food, in the horizontal configuration they could retrieve the food without
358   stepping on the mirror and could only see a small portion of their face. During Tasks 1-3, it seems
359   that the most consistent conclusion is that either the jays were afraid of the mirror as a stimulus,
360   independent of the image reflected therein which may possibly not be considered a conspecific
361   eliciting social interaction, or that the reflected image was perceived as a threatening conspecific,
362   one thus not to be confronted but rather avoided. The expected behaviour of the subjects might
363   largely depend on their relative dominance. However, they will never know the social status of the
364   bird reflected in the mirror because it will either be unknown to them (if we assume lack of MSR)
365   or known as themselves and so not likely to elicit social responses.

366   The behaviours displayed by the jays (absence of social behaviour) during the mirror
367   stimulation are quite different from corvid species tested so far using a similar set-up (Prior,
368   Schwarz & Güntürkün, 2008; Soler, Pérez-Contreras & Peralta-Sánchez, 2014; van Buuren et al.,
369   2018; Vanhooland, Bugnyar & Massen, 2019; Brecht, Müller & Nieder, 2020; Soler et al., 2020;
370   Buniyaadi, Taufique & Kumar, 2020). A possible explanation of what we observed in this study
371   can be linked with the different levels of neophobia across the Corvidae family. Although corvids
372   are well known for their remarkable cognitive skills (Taylor, 2014; Baciadonna et al., 2021b), they
373   are also highly neophobic (Heinrich, 1995; O'Hara et al., 2017). The combination of behavioural
374   flexibility with high levels of neophobia appears paradoxical, because neophobia tends to inhibit
375   innovation and is associated with narrow ecological niches (Greggor, Thornton & Clayton, 2015).
376   In a recent paper (Miller et al., 2022), investigating the socio-ecological drivers of neophobia in
377   ten different corvids species, Eurasian jays were considered the most neophobic towards novel
378   food, and to some extent towards a novel object, compared with the rest of species included in the
379   study. From the latency to approach the novel object reported by Miller et al. (2022), it emerges
380   that common ravens were more neophobic than azure-winged magpies, while azure-winged
381   magpies, carrion crows, and Eurasian jays approached the novel objects with a similar, longer
382   latency time than Clark's nutcrackers. This is quite interesting because these corvid species all
383   failed to pass the classic mark-test and, more importantly, the proxy behaviours often considered
384   crucial for passing the mark-test (exploratory behaviour, contingent behaviour and self-
385   exploration) were limited both in the occurrences displayed, as well as in the number of individuals

386   displaying them (Vanhooland, Bugnyar & Massen, 2019; Brecht, Müller & Nieder, 2020; Wang
387   et al., 2020).

388   Furthermore, an important driver of neophobia, at least in some species, is individual age.
389   Empirical evidence from birds to mammals suggests that younger individuals are less neophobic
390   and more prone to explore than adults (Greggor, Thornton & Clayton, 2015; Greggor et al., 2020).
391   For example, Eurasian jays tested with a Piagetian object permanence paradigm 15 days post-
392   hatching reached stage six with fewer sessions than individuals tested at 2-3 months of age (Zucca,
393   Milos & Vallortigara, 2007). This result was unexpected from a general developmental standpoint
394   but expected based on the behavioural developmental stages of corvids. During the first three
395   weeks of age, they are extremely inquisitive and fearless, and supervised by their more expert
396   parents. However, when left more alone by their parents, roughly at the age of two months, they
397   become neophobic, limiting their willingness to approach new objects or food, as well as becoming
398   more fearful of unfamiliar situations (Heinrich, 1995, 1999; Heinrich, Marzluff & Adams, 1995).
399   In our study, the jays tested were all adults (13-14 years old) that had not been exposed to mirrors
400   at a young age, and we cannot rule out that a different behavioural pattern may have emerged if
401   they had been confronted with the mirror during their younger, more neophilic stage. Our results
402   indicate that neophobia can posit a challenge for the jays, and most likely to other corvids as well,
403   to approach and explore the mirror, appreciate its reflective property, and use it to explore parts of
404   their body otherwise not visible. The difficulty of demonstrating mirror self-recognition in corvids
405   might be the effect of such extraneous variables, such as their neophobia, that have nothing to do
406   with cognitive abilities relating to an understanding of the self. These further challenge the
407   methodological appropriateness of cross-administering methods developed for primates to more
408   distantly-related species.

409   In the case of our study, firm conclusions cannot be drawn as to whether Eurasian jays saw
410   their reflection as a conspecific or as themselves. In either case, it is appropriate to consider the
411   unique morphology, as well as natural and behavioural constraints of birds, when attempting to
412   administer mirror tasks to them, especially when they were originally conceived for apes.
413   Limitations such as sensory preferences, physical constraints, neophobia, and more must be taken
414   into account both when designing mirror tasks and when interpreting their results, and currently-
415   existing MSR tasks may pose particularly steep challenges for avian subjects. Eventually, a more
416   conclusive understanding of the presence and extent of MSR in non-human animals, and especially

417   in birds, is likely to only be attainable through continuous creativity and innovation in task design,

418   rather than continuity of methodology.

419

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573   Table and Figure legends

574

575   **Table 1.** Individual Responses in the *Test 1*

576   **Table 2**. Individual Responses in the *Test 2*

577   **Table 3.** Results of the GLMM showing which variables affected the food taken in *Task 1*

578   **Table 4.** Results of the GLMM showing which variables affected the occurrences of looking in

579   *Task 1*

580   **Table 5.** Results of the GLMER showing which variables affected the food taken in *Task 2*

581   **Table 6.** Results of the GLMM showing which variables affected occurrences of looking in *Task*

582   *2*

583   **Table 7**. Results of the GLMER showing which variables affected the duration of looking in

584   *Task 2*

585   **Table 8.** Summary of the jays' performance to approach and retrieve the food during *Task 3*.
586   The green colour indicates the instances in which the tested subject approached and retrieved at
587   least once the waxworm during the 15 s allowed in each session. The yellow colour instead
588   indicates the instances in which the tested subject did not approach and retrieve at least once the
589   waxworm during the 15 s allowed in each session.

590

591   **Figure 1. A.** Mean of food taken in front of the mirror and the wooden panel during Task 1; **B.**
592   Mean of food taken in front of the mirror and the wooden panel during Task 2; **C.** Total duration
593   of looking time towards the mirror and the wooden panel-cached during the Task 2; **D**. Latency
594   time to approach and retrieve a waxworm across the four combinations presented to the jays in
595   Task 3 (Mirror: horizontal (MH) and vertical (MV); Wood: horizonal (WH) and vertical (WV)).
596   **E.** Proportion of food items cached across the three conditions (alone, mirror and observed)
597   during the caching sessions in Task 4; **F.** Proportion of food type taken by the jays during the
598   caching sessions in Task 4. **G.** Proportion of food items cached when the food was abundant (30
599   items for each food type, total 120 food items provided) and when scarce (15 items for each food
600   type, total 60 food items provided). Box plot: the horizontal line shows the median, the box
601   extends from the lower to the upper quartile and the whiskers to the interquartile range above the
602   upper quartile (max) or below the lower quartile (min); solid circles indicate each individual jay.

603

Table 1.

Individual Responses in the *Test 1*

1 **Table 1.** Individual Responses in the *Test 1*

	Subject													
	Romero		Hoy		Lima		Washington		Caracas		Wellington		Hunter	
Condition	Mirror	Wood	Mirror	Wood	Mirror	Wood	Mirror	Wood	Mirror	Wood	Mirror	Wood	Mirror	Wood
Behaviour														
Food taken	16	32	0	13	0	21	3	4	1	12	0	1	1	6
Duration of looking (s)	357.08	250.14	133.80	95.79	65.71	328.94	119.49	72.41	169.08	386.97	106.62	17.49	51.62	91.70
Occurrence of looking	38	43	22	14	18	25	37	18	84	85	8	3	13	16
Social behaviour	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	4	0	0	0	0	0
Contingent	17	0	4	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Self-Directed	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0

Table 2.

Individual Responses in the *Test 2*

2   **Table 2**. Individual Responses in the *Test 2*

	Subject													
	Romero		**Hoy**		**Lima**		**Washington**		**Caracas**		**Wellington**		**Hunter**	
Condition	Mirror	Wood	Mirror	Wood	Mirror	Wood	Mirror	Wood	Mirror	Wood	Mirror	Wood	Mirror	Wood
Behaviour														
Food taken	142	4	160	17	160	0	158	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
Duration looking (s)	1155.02	246.02	619.25	257.77	1255.91	72.66	781.43	64.27	109.25	57.28	0	0	32.77	3.75
Occurrence of looking	39	15	16	14	14	11	64	13	10	14	0	0	7	1
Social behaviour	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Contingent	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Self-Directed	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0

4

Table 3.

Results of the GLMM showing which variables affected the food taken in *Task 1*

2 **Table 3.** Results of the GLMM showing which variables affected the food taken in *Task 1*

	Estimate	Standard Error	*z*	*p - value*
Intercept	-1.13	0.57	-1.96	
Condition	1.02	0.36	2.76	0.003
Session	-0.01	0.02	-0.64	0.51
Aviary	-0.35	0.32	-1.10	0.30
Sex	1.71	0.39	4.35	0.0011

Table 4.

Results of the GLMM showing which variables affected the occurrences of looking in *Task 1*

2 **Table 4.** Results of the GLMM showing which variables affected the occurrences of looking in

3 *Task 1*

	Estimate	Standard Error	*z*	*p - value*
Intercept	-0.06	0.38	-0.15	
Condition	0.11	0.10	1.25	0.26
Session	0.02	0.01	2.08	0.035
Aviary	0.33	0.36	0.93	0.38
Sex	0.85	0.37	2.25	0.042

Table 5.

Results of the GLMER showing which variables affected the food taken in *Task 2*

1   **Table 5.** Results of the GLMER showing which variables affected the food taken in *Task 2*

	Estimate	Standard Error	*z*	*p - value*
Intercept	0.42	5.71	0.07	
Condition	-7.74	2.94	-2.62	< 0.0001
Session	-0.03	0.19	-0.19	0.84
Aviary	-1.60	4.86	-0.33	0.74
Sex	3.85	5.47	0.70	0.46

Table 6.

Results of the GLMM showing which variables affected occurrences of looking in *Task 2*

1   **Table 6.** Results of the GLMM showing which variables affected occurrences of looking in *Task*

2   *2*

	Estimate	Standard Error	z	p - value
Intercept	1.31	0.58	2.24	
Condition	-0.56	0.17	-3.32	0.004
Session	-0.13	0.03	-4.17	0.007
Aviary	0.36	0.54	0.67	0.52
Sex	0.05	0.58	0.09	0.62

Table 7.

Results of the GLMER showing which variables affected the duration of looking in *Task 2*

1 **Table 7**. Results of the GLMER showing which variables affected the duration of looking in

2 *Task 2*

	Estimate	Standard Error	*t*	*p – value*
Intercept	77.85	25.36	3.06	
Condition	-67.74	8.22	-8.23	< 0.0001
.Session	-3.70	1.79	-2.06	0.041
Aviary	0.54	23.68	0.02	0.98
Sex	31.38	25.12	1.24	0.23

Table 8.

Summary of the jays' performance to approach and retrieve the food during *Task 3*. The green colour indicates the instances in which the tested subject approached and retrieved at least once the waxworm during the 15 s allowed in each session. The yellow colour instead indicates the instances in which the tested subject did not approach and retrieve at least once the waxworm during the 15 s allowed in each session.

1 **Table 8.** Summary of the jays' performance to approach and retrieve the food during *Task 3*.
2 The green colour indicates the instances in which the tested subject approached and retrieved at
3 least once the waxworm during the 15 s allowed in each session. The yellow colour instead
4 indicates the instances in which the tested subject did not approach and retrieve at least once the
5 waxworm during the 15 s allowed in each session.
6

ID	Position	Condition	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	Tot
Romero	Vertical	Mirror	G	G												20/20
	Horizontal	Mirror	Y	Y	G	G										20/20
	Horizontal	Wooden	G													20/20
	Vertical	Wooden	G													20/20
Hoy	Horizontal	Mirror	Y	Y	G	G	G									20/20
	Vertical	Mirror	G	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y								1/20
	Vertical	Wooden	Y	Y	Y	Y										0/20
	Horizontal	Wooden	G	G	G											20/20
Lima	Vertical	Mirror	Y	Y	Y	Y										0/20
	Horizontal	Mirror	Y	G												20/20
	Horizontal	Wooden	Y	G												20/20
	Vertical	Wooden	Y	G												20/20
Washington	Horizontal	Mirror	G													20/20
	Vertical	Mirror	G	Y	G	Y	Y	G	G	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	14/20
	Vertical	Wooden	Y	G												20/20
	Horizontal	Wooden	G													20/20
Caracas	Vertical	Mirror	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y									0/20
	Horizontal	Mirror	G	G	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y							8/20
	Horizontal	Wooden	G	G	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y							2/20
	Vertical	Wooden	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y									0/20
Wellington	Horizontal	Mirror	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y									0/20
	Vertical	Mirror	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y									0/20
	Vertical	Wooden	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y									0/20
	Horizontal	Wooden	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y									0/20
Hunter	Vertical	Mirror	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y									0/20
	Horizontal	Mirror	G	G	Y	G	G	G	G	Y	G					20/20
	Horizontal	Wooden	G	G												20/20
	Vertical	Wooden	Y	G	G	G										20/20
Lisbon	Horizontal	Mirror	G	G	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y							7/20
	Vertical	Mirror	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y									0/20
	Vertical	Wooden	Y	Y	G	G	G									20/20
	Horizontal	Wooden	G	G	G	Y	Y	G	Y	G						20/20

Figure 1

Figure 1.

A. Mean of food taken in front of the mirror and the wooden panel during Task 1; B. Mean of food taken in front of the mirror and the wooden panel during Task 2; C. Total duration of looking time towards the mirror and the wooden panel-cached during the Task 2; D. Latency time to approach and retrieve a waxworm across the four combinations presented to the jays in Task 3 (Mirror: horizontal (MH) and vertical (MV); Wood: horizonal (WH) and vertical (WV)). E. Proportion of food items cached across the three conditions (alone, mirror and observed) during the caching sessions in Task 4; F. Proportion of food type taken by the jays during the caching sessions in Task 4. G.Proportion of food items cached when the food was abundant (30 items for each food type, total 120 food items provided) and when scarce (15 items for each food type, total 60 food items provided). Box plot: the horizontal line shows the median, the box extends from the lower to the upper quartile and the whiskers to the interquartile range above the upper quartile (max) or below the lower quartile (min); solid circles indicate each individual jay