Vehrencamp et al. 1

Response to Kroodsma's critique of banded wren song performance research

S. L. Vehrencamp^{1,2}, S. R. de Kort^{2,3}, and A. E. Illes^{2,4}

Corresponding author:

Sandra L. Vehrencamp Neurobiology and Behavior Mudd Hall Cornell University Ithaca, NY 14853, USA Email: slv8@cornell.edu

Word count (main text): 2356

¹ Department of Neurobiology and Behavior, Cornell University, Ithaca NY

² Laboratory of Ornithology, Cornell University, Ithaca NY

³ Conservation, Evolution and Behaviour Research Group, School of Science and the Environment, Manchester Metropolitan University, Manchester UK

⁴ Department of Biology, Coe College, Cedar Rapids IA

1 A critical review of a popular scientific theory, large or small, is something we applied because, if well executed, it stimulates discussion and progresses science. However, such a review needs 2 3 to be balanced, objective, informed and logical, especially if it concludes that a well-supported 4 theory is flawed. Unfortunately, Kroodsma's current criticism (Kroodsma, 2016) of the birdsong 5 performance literature suffers from the same weaknesses as his earlier criticism of song 6 repertoire use in sexual selection (Byers & Kroodsma, 2009), despite the fact that he has been 7 alerted to those mistakes (Collins, de Kort, Perez-Tris, & Telleria, 2011). Those weaknesses 8 include outright errors and misrepresentations, highly selective citation of the literature, and 9 convoluted logic (sensu Podos, 2016). Here we would like to take this opportunity to redress the 10 specific issues he raised with respect to our work on the banded wren (*Thryophilus pleurostictus*) 11 and by doing so, illustrate how his criticism is flawed as a result of the above weaknesses, his 12 restricted definition of "song performance", and a misunderstanding of the song system of the banded wren. 13 14 Banded wren males possess song repertoires of approximately 25 distinct song types, 15 which are largely shared with other males in their neighborhood. The terminal trills of these song 16 types vary in their trill note rate, frequency bandwidth, and vocal deviation. (Maximal observed 17 trill rates and maximal observed frequency bandwidths are inversely related in many songbirds. 18 defining a negatively-sloped upper limit line on a trill-rate versus frequency bandwidth plot; the 19 perpendicular distance of a given trill from this line is its vocal deviation.) Moreover, the trill 20 notes themselves vary greatly in shape and complexity. Most of our research on this species has 21 focused on the use of these song types in male-male territorial interactions (Burt & Vehrencamp, 22 2005; Hall, Illes, & Vehrencamp, 2006; Molles, 2006; Molles & Vehrencamp, 1997, 2001; Trillo

& Vehrencamp, 2005; Vehrencamp, 2001; Vehrencamp, Ellis, Cropp, & Koltz, 2014;

23

Vehrencamp, Hall, Bohman, Depeine, & Dalziell, 2007). We have shown that males negotiate their territorial boundaries primarily by varying short-term song-type diversity and switching rate to indicate their propensity to approach, stand their ground, or retreat from a territorial rival. Males also frequently song type-match each other during aggressive encounters. This primary role of song type choice does not rule out the possibility that subtle details of song structure also play a role and provide additional types of information about the sender, for both male and female receivers. The type-matching behaviour of countersinging males provides ample opportunities for receivers to compare their performances on the same song type, as proposed by Logue & Forstmeier (2008) for repertoire species.

24

25

26

27

28

29

30

31

32

33

34

35

36

37

38

39

40

41

42

43

44

45

46

Trade-off coding (where two components of a signal are negatively correlated such that extreme values of one tends to inhibit extreme values of the other) sets up the potential for receivers to exert selective pressure on combinations that reveal useful information about the sender. This idea has been around for over two decades (Bradbury & Vehrencamp, 2011; Hebets & Papaj, 2005; Podos, 1997, 2016; Wells & Taigen, 1986). Whenever one observes a negative correlation between two signal components, it is worth testing this trade-off hypothesis (Podos' hypothesis #1) by looking to see whether receivers pay attention to alternative combinations of those components, and if so, whether individual variation in these combinations is associated with sender condition, context, or reproductive success (Podos' hypothesis #2). This is how science proceeds: repeated testing of an hypothesis' predictions in a variety of species using a variety of experimental approaches. The trills of many bird songs are an obvious candidate for testing this hypothesis, because they are highly precise vocal utterances that have evolved under selective pressure from receiver responses. We examined several aspects of performance in the banded wren, not limited to vocal deviation as Kroodsma has restricted himself to here, but also

the individual components of vocal deviation, trill rate and frequency bandwidth, along with trill note consistency, in multiple experimental and correlational studies. We have obtained consistent evidence that performance does matter, even in a repertoire species.

47

48

49

50

51

52

53

54

55

56

57

58

59

60

61

62

63

64

65

66

67

68

69

Our first indication that performance components affected male responses was obtained by Illes, Hall & Vehrencamp (2006), building on the Ballentine, Hyman, & Nowicki (2004) study, where songs modified to have faster or slower trill rates were simultaneously presented to territorial males. We found that most subjects initially approached the fast stimulus, but if they were exposed to a broader bandwidth (lower vocal deviation) trill they subsequently spent less time close to the fast speaker. Kroodsma disparages the design, execution, analysis, results, and conclusions of this study, and chides the many researchers who have cited the paper. We show below that each of his criticisms is incorrect or misinformed.

First, Kroodsma states that the playback should have been conducted with blind observers. The experimental design consisted of a two speaker set-up each broadcasting a separate stimulus. The observers were not informed about which speaker broadcasted which stimulus. Nevertheless, as acknowledged for the Cramer & Price (2007) study, an acute observer might discern which was which by listening and we would have had to deafen the observers to exclude this possibility. Second, we are surprised that an experienced ornithologist expresses doubt about the possibility of tracking movements of birds in their tropical deciduous forest habitat. We always had three observers for these trials, and they were all extraordinarily adept women with keen and experienced observational skills. The birds usually sang and called during the trials, further revealing their location. Third, the pseudoreplication criticism is a red herring. Each subject's stimulus exemplars were uniquely prepared from a different base song, and we used a wide variety of song and trill types and source males for the base song, thus preventing

pseudoreplication. Fourth, our modification of trill rate involved increasing or decreasing the silent gap between trill notes to a similar degree, so both alternative stimuli had an equivalently altered note duration to silent interval ratio. The minimal difference in trill duration was unlikely to be important, as individual birds naturally vary the number of notes in the trill as well as the silent gap between notes. Moreover, the theoretically more intense signal had the shorter duration, a conservative experimental design strategy. Fifth, we did examine the tendency for trill performance components to vary in a consistent way among song types within males in the Vehrencamp, Yantachka, Hall & De Kort (2013) study, and we found largely consistent differences related to male age. Sixth, Kroodsma appears unable to consider that subjects that initially approached the fast stimulus would subsequently spend less time close to the speaker if the stimulus was a broad bandwidth (low vocal deviation) song. The only logical conclusion for this result was that the subjects were more strongly repelled by the repeated playback of higher performance trills. This repelling effect was subsequently verified by de Kort, Eldermire, Cramer, & Vehrencamp (2009), as discussed below. The approach – negotiate – retreat sequence is typical of banded wren interactions (Vehrencamp et al., 2014). We know that the birds are still interested in the stimulus when they back off because they keep singing, albeit from a distance. Nuanced responses may be typical of two-speaker playback to rival male subjects (Reichert, 2011). Seventh, Kroodsma asks how we know over what time frame songs should have an effect. We had conducted numerous playback experiments on this species, with stimulus durations ranging from 1-2 minutes and post playback periods ranging from 3-5 minutes, by which time all subjects had usually left the area. We had also observed many natural interactions between males lasting from about 2-10 min. In Vehrencamp et al. (2014) we quantified such interactions and found that interactions from start to finish ranged from 26 to 828 sec with a median of 161 sec.

70

71

72

73

74

75

76

77

78

79

80

81

82

83

84

85

86

87

88

89

90

91

92

So the Illes et al. experimental protocol, with a playback period averaging 86 sec and a post playback period equal to 180 sec, was well within the typical time frame of approach and withdrawal for male-male encounters in the banded wren. Finally, Kroodsma argues that we should have corrected all of the statistical tests in the entire results section with a Bonferroni multiple comparisons procedure. It is commonly acknowledged that the Bonferroni correction is far too harsh (i.e., Moran, 2003; Narum, 2006); the False Discovery Rate correction is superior in reducing Type II errors, and we have done this correction in our papers where multiple variables were tested and presented in tables. In the Illes et al. paper, our analyses were generated from three independent datasets and addressed completely different questions, thus they should not be combined as Kroodsma proposes. Some of the tests related to the playback experiment were presented to examine and dispel potential confounding effects. The remaining few tests addressed specific hypotheses and were not part of a multivariate fishing expedition to find the most significant variables. We think that a multiple comparison correction was not needed here. In addition, we presented power analyses and effect sizes for our tests, and these revealed stronger effects than the p-values indicate. Our study therefore cannot be criticized on the basis of unreasonable claims of unnatural stimuli, pseudoreplication, incompetent observers, and faulty statistics.

93

94

95

96

97

98

99

100

101

102

103

104

105

106

107

108

109

110

111

112

113

114

115

As skeptical scientists in search of the truth, we set out to further examine the interesting results in Illes et al. (2006) with another playback experiment that manipulated only the frequency bandwidth of trills (de Kort, Eldermire, Cramer, & Vehrencamp, 2009). Contrary to Kroodsma's claim, this study was conducted with observers blind to the bandwidth treatments, and the differences could not be detected by the observers. We separately presented three alternative bandwidth stimuli to subjects, and expressly quantified multiple measures of male

response to address the significance of nuanced retreat responses. The results strongly confirmed the earlier study: subjects avoided high-performance stimuli but continued to sing and call from a distance; approached and negotiated with matching songs to the median-performance stimuli; and approached quickly but showed a lower vocal response to the low-performance stimuli.

116

117

118

119

120

121

122

123

124

125

126

127

128

129

130

131

132

133

134

135

136

137

138

Another pair of experiments explored male responses to songs of different trill note consistency (de Kort, Eldermire, Valderrama, Botero, & Vehrencamp, 2009). One experiment used natural songs of the same type and from the same male in his first year versus in his second or third year, and the second experiment compared songs of first year birds to the same song manipulated to have greater note consistency. Both experiments found stronger responses to the more consistent song stimuli. As mentioned earlier, we showed in Vehrencamp et al. (2013) that trill note consistency of all measured song types increased in males from their first to their second and third year, and then plateaued or decreased slightly for older birds. Male age is not only associated with territorial defense experience, which could be assessed during territorial encounters, but multiple lines of evidence also suggested that females avoided mating with or divorced first year males and preferred older and more consistently singing males as extra-pair partners (Cramer, Hall, de Kort, Lovette, & Vehrencamp, 2011).

Kroodsma's criticism of the language in the first sentence of the abstract of (Vehrencamp et al., 2013) is totally unwarranted. Abstract wording is necessarily brief. We merely stated the general theoretical proposition being tested in our study, a standard protocol for scientific articles. Kroodsma doesn't appear to question the results, which showed that trill note consistency and frequency bandwidth increase with male age. We also discovered that trill note rate for a given song type increases during playback experiments in relation to the male's level of aggressive response, a result that has now been found in other species (Funghi, Cardoso, &

Mota, 2015; Linhart, Jaska, Petruskova, Petrusek, & Fuchs, 2013). Thus this aspect of performance seems to provide cues to receivers about a rival's immediate aggressive motivation. We did not find any associations with male survival or our measure of body condition. Our results and interpretations were not biased by any desire to support or disprove the hypothesis, and in several instances we offered alternative hypotheses where appropriate.

139

140

141

142

143

144

145

146

147

148

149

150

151

152

153

154

155

156

157

158

159

160

161

Commenting further on this paper, Kroodsma writes (his italics): "According to the scatterplot of trill rate and bandwidth for banded wrens (Fig. 11), relatively few songs are difficult to execute as defined in this performance context, because most songs fall far from the upper bound on the graph. Every male 'willingly' learns many 'low-performance', easy-toexecute songs in order to have particular song types in his repertoire, as if performance did not *matter*, as if there were no selection for difficult-to-execute songs as claimed in this paper". Repertoire species such as the banded wren use contrasting song types to emphasize switching rates, short-term diversity, and matching during territorial interactions. But Kroodsma has conveniently ignored another component of banded wren trills: their varied and complex note shapes as mentioned earlier. Trill note consistency is a third axis of performance in this species, and we showed in this paper (Vehrencamp et al., 2013, see supplementary online material) that consistency and vocal deviation trade-off (are negatively correlated) within male and song type. Thus song types far from the trill rate vs. bandwidth upper limit are not necessarily easy to execute, as they may have a complex shape that is difficult to repeat consistently.

Kroodsma surprisingly concludes that "we await good answers to the question... of what information listeners extract about singers from their songs (beyond species identification)". In fact, there is a growing body of data showing that aspects of vocal performance, including trill rate, vocal deviation, trill note and song consistency, and call rate/call duration trade-offs, do

162 provide useful information to receivers in some species and are associated with reproductive 163 benefits in many birds, mammals, anurans, and crickets (e.g., Botero, et al., 2009; Byers, Akresh, 164 & King, 2015; Funghi et al., 2015; Linhart et al., 2013; Pasch, George, Campbell, & Phelps, 165 2011; Petruskova et al., 2014; Reichert & Gerhardt, 2012; Sprau, Roth, Amrhein, & Naguib, 166 2013; Wagner, Beckers, Tolle, & Basolo, 2012; Welch, Smith, & Gerhardt, 2014). Our studies 167 have contributed to this body of knowledge, specifically by demonstrating the existence of cues 168 to age and aggressive motivation, along with the strategic use of song type use patterns to 169 indicate approach and retreat during territorial negotiations. 170 171 Literature cited 172 Ballentine, B., Hyman, J., & Nowicki, S. (2004). Vocal performance influences female response 173 to male bird song: an experimental test. Behavioral Ecology, 15, 163-168. 174 Botero, C. A., Rossman, R. J., Caro, L. M., Stenzler, L. M., Lovette, I. J., de Kort, S. R & 175 Vehrencamp, S. L. (2009). Syllable type consistency is related to age, social status and 176 reproductive success in the tropical mocking bird. Animal Behaviour, 77, 701–706. 177 Bradbury, J. W., & Vehrencamp, S. L. (2011). *Principles of Animal Communication* (2nd ed.). 178 Sunderland, MA: Sinauer Associates. 179 Burt, J. M., & Vehrencamp, S. L. (2005). Dawn chorus as an interactive communication 180 network. In P. K. McGregor (Ed.), Animal Communication Networks (pp. 320-343). 181 Cambridge: Cambridge University Press. 182 Byers, B. E., Akresh, M. E., & King, D. I. (2015). A proxy of social mate choice in prairie 183 warblers is correlated with consistent, rapid, low-pitched singing. Behavioral Ecology

184

and Sociobiology, 69, 1275-1286.

- Byers, B.E. and Kroodsma, D.E. (2009). Female mate choice and songbird song repertoires.
- 186 *Animal Behaviour*, 77, 13–22
- 187 Collins, S. A., de Kort, S. R., Perez-Tris, J. & Telleria, J. L. (2011) Divergent sexual selection on
- birdsong, a reply to Byers. *Animal Behaviour* 82, e4—e7.
- 189 Cramer, E. R. A., Hall, M. L., de Kort, S. R., Lovette, I. J., & Vehrencamp, S. L. (2011).
- Infrequent extra-pair paternity in the banded wren, a synchronously breeding tropical
- 191 passerine. *Condor*, 113, 637-645.
- 192 Cramer, E. R. A., & Price, J. J. (2007). Red-winged blackbirds *Ageliaus phoeniceus* respond
- differently to song types with different performance levels. *Journal of Avian Biology*, 38,
- 194 122-127.
- de Kort, S. R., Eldermire, E. R. B., Cramer, E. R. A., & Vehrencamp, S. L. (2009). The deterrent
- effect of bird song in territory defence. *Behavioral Ecology*, 20, 200-206.
- de Kort, S. R., Eldermire, E. R. B., Valderrama, S., Botero, C. A., & Vehrencamp, S. L. (2009).
- Trill consistency is an age-related assessment signal in banded wrens. *Proceedings of the*
- 199 Royal Society B-Biological Sciences, 276, 2315-2321.
- Funghi, C., Cardoso, G. C., & Mota, P. G. (2015). Increased syllable rate during aggressive
- singing in a bird with complex and fast song. *Journal of Avian Biology*, 46, 283-288.
- Hall, M. L., Illes, A., & Vehrencamp, S. L. (2006). Overlapping signals in banded wrens: long-
- term effects of prior experience on males and females. *Behavioral Ecology*, 17, 260-269.
- Hebets, E. A., & Papaj, D. R. (2005). Complex signal function: developing a framework of
- testable hypotheses. *Behavioral Ecology and Sociobiology*, 57, 197-214.
- 206 Illes, A. E., Hall, M. L., & Vehrencamp, S. L. (2006). Vocal performance influences male
- receiver response in the banded wren. *Proceedings of the Royal Society B-Biological*

208 Sciences, 273, 1907-1912. 209 Kroodsma, D. E. (2016). Birdsong performance studies: a contrary view. *Animal Behaviour*. 210 Linhart, P., Jaska, P., Petruskova, T., Petrusek, A., & Fuchs, R. (2013). Being angry, singing 211 fast? Signalling of aggressive motivation by syllable rate in a songbird with slow song. 212 Behavioural Processes, 100, 139-145. 213 Logue, D. M., & Forstmeier, W. (2008). Constrained performance in a communication network: 214 Implications for the function of song-type matching and for the evolution of multiple 215 ornaments. American Naturalist, 172, 34-41. 216 Molles, L. E. (2006). Singing complexity of the banded wren (*Thryothorus pleurostictus*): Do 217 switching rate and song-type diversity send different messages? Auk. 123, 991-1003. 218 Molles L. E. & Vehrencamp, S. L. (1999). Repertoire size, repertoire overlap, and singing modes 219 in the Banded Wren (*Thryothorus pleurostictus*). Auk, 116, 677–689. 220 Molles, L. E., & Vehrencamp, S. L. (2001). Neighbour recognition by resident males in the 221 banded wren, *Thryothorus pleurostictus*, a tropical songbird with high song type sharing. 222 Animal Behaviour, 61, 119-127. 223 Moran, M.D. (2003) Arguments for rejecting the sequential Bonferonni in ecological studies. 224 Oikos, 100, 403-405. 225 Narum, S.R. (2006) Beyond Bonferonni: Less conservative analysis for conservation genetics. 226 Conservation Genetics, 7, 783-787. 227 Pasch, B., George, A. S., Campbell, P., & Phelps, S. M. (2011). Androgen-dependent male vocal 228 performance influences female preference in Neotropical singing mice. Animal 229 Behaviour, 82, 177-183. 230 Petruskova, T., Kinstova, A., Pisvejcova, I., Mula Laguna, J., Cortezon, A., Brinke, T., &

231 Petrusek, A. (2014). Variation in trill characteristics in tree pipit songs: Different trills for 232 different use? Ethology, 120, 586-597. 233 Podos, J. (1997). A performance constraint on the evolution of trilled vocalizations in a songbird 234 family (Passeriformes: Emberizidae). Evolution, 51, 537-551. 235 Podos, J. (2016). Birdsong performance studies: Reports of their death have been greatly 236 exaggerated. Animal Behaviour. 237 Reichert, M. S. (2011). Effects of multiple-speaker playbacks on aggressive calling behavior in 238 the treefrog Dendropsophus ebraccatus. Behavioral Ecology and Sociobiology, 65, 1739-239 1751. 240 Reichert, M. S., & Gerhardt, H. C. (2012). Trade-offs and upper limits to signal performance 241 during close-range vocal competition in gray tree frogs Hyla versicolor. American 242 Naturalist, 180, 425-437. 243 Sprau, P., Roth, T., Amrhein, V., & Naguib, M. (2013). The predictive value of trill performance 244 in a large repertoire songbird, the nightingale Luscinia megarhynchos. Journal of Avian 245 Biology, 44, 567-574. 246 Trillo, P. A., & Vehrencamp, S. L. (2005). Song types and their structural features are associated 247 with specific contexts in the banded wren. Animal Behaviour, 70, 921-935. 248 Vehrencamp, S. L. (2001). Is song-type matching a conventional signal of aggressive intentions? 249 Proceedings of the Royal Society of London Series B-Biological Sciences, 268, 1637-250 1642. 251 Vehrencamp, S. L., Ellis, J. M., Cropp, B. F., & Koltz, J. M. (2014). Negotiation of territorial 252 boundaries in a songbird. Behavioral Ecology, 25, 1436-1450. 253 Vehrencamp, S. L., Hall, M. L., Bohman, E. R., Depeine, C. D., & Dalziell, A. H. (2007). Song

254	matching, overlapping, and switching in the banded wren: the sender's perspective.
255	Behavioral Ecology, 18, 849-859.
256	Vehrencamp, S. L., Yantachka, J., Hall, M. L., & de Kort, S. R. (2013). Trill performance
257	components vary with age, season, and motivation in the banded wren. Behavioral
258	Ecology and Sociobiology, 67, 409-419.
259	Wagner, W. E., Jr., Beckers, O. M., Tolle, A. E., & Basolo, A. L. (2012). Tradeoffs limit the
260	evolution of male traits that are attractive to females. Proceedings of the Royal Society B-
261	Biological Sciences, 279, 2899-2906.
262	Welch, A. M., Smith, M. J., & Gerhardt, H. C. (2014). A multivariate analysis of genetic
263	variation in the advertisement call of the gray treefrog, Hyla versicolor. Evolution, 68,
264	1629-1639.
265	Wells, K. D., & Taigen, T. L. (1986). The effect of social interactions on calling energetics in the
266	gray treefrog (Hyla versicolor). Behavioral Ecology and Sociobiology, 19, 9-18.
267	