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7 Fowl communicate the size, speed and proximity of avian stimuli through graded structure in referential alarm  
8 calls

9

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27 Many animals produce alarm calls that warn conspecifics about predators. In some species, alarm calls  
28 communicate continuous traits associated with a predator encounter, such as its level of threat. In other species,  
29 alarm calls communicate categorical traits, such as predator class (e.g. avian versus terrestrial), and are  
30 consequently considered functionally referential. In theory, functionally referential alarm calls can  
31 simultaneously communicate continuously distributed traits, though examples of such calls are rare. Such dual-  
32 function calls could be adaptive because they would enable receivers to tailor their responses to a specific  
33 predator class, as well as to more subtle characteristics of individual attacks. Here, we tested whether male fowl  
34 (*Gallus gallus*) communicate continuous variation in avian stimuli through graded structure in their functionally  
35 referential aerial alarm calls. In the first experiment, we held male fowl in an indoor test cage and allowed them  
36 to view wild birds flying past a window. We recorded their alarm calls and compared the structure to the size,  
37 speed, and proximity of the eliciting stimuli. Stimuli that appeared closer, larger, and faster elicited alarm calls  
38 that were shorter, louder, clearer, and lower in frequency. In the second experiment, we broadcast alarm calls to  
39 foraging females and compared their responses to the graded structural changes documented earlier. Females  
40 exhibited greater initial responses and finished feeding later in response to louder alarm calls. Together, these  
41 results show that fowl communicate the size, speed and proximity of avian stimuli through graded variation in  
42 their functionally referential aerial alarm calls.

43

44 *Keywords:*

45 alarm

46 ground squirrel

47 information

48 meerkat

49 motivational signal

50 nonlinearity

51 referential signal

52 response urgency

53 suricate

54   vervet monkey

55

56 Many animals produce alarm calls that alert conspecifics to the presence of predators (reviewed in  
57 Zuberbühler 2009). In some species, alarm calls also communicate continuous variation in some aspect of the  
58 predator encounter, such as the caller's motivational state or the predator's proximity, size or speed of attack  
59 (Darwin 1872; Morton 1977; Blumstein & Amitage 1997; Templeton et al. 2005). These traits can be important  
60 correlates of a predator's hunting success, so they may be especially important for determining a receiver's  
61 antipredator response (Howland 1974; FitzGibbon 1989). These traits can also be measured for all types of  
62 predators and thus may be important to receivers in a wide variety of predator contexts.

63

64 In some communication systems, callers produce acoustically distinct alarm calls that correspond to specific  
65 external referents (production specificity), such as different types of predators (e.g. Seyfarth et al. 1980) or  
66 different types of predator behaviours (e.g. Griesser 2008). Receivers, upon hearing such calls, show  
67 antipredator behaviours that are appropriate for the specific external referent that evoked the alarm (perception  
68 specificity). Alarm calls that show both production and perception specificity are termed 'functionally  
69 referential' (Macedonia & Evans 1993; Evans 1997), and they have been documented in primates, suricates  
70 (*Suricata suricatta*), Gunnison's prairie dogs, *Cynomys gunnisoni*, and birds (Seyfarth et al. 1980; Evans et al.  
71 1993a; Zuberbühler et al. 1999; Manser 2001; Manser et al. 2001; Fichtel & Kappeler 2002; Kiriazis &  
72 Slobodchikoff 2006). In general, functionally referential alarm calls are associated with species that use different  
73 escape strategies for different types of predators (Macedonia & Evans 1993). In some species, social factors,  
74 such as the need to coordinate group movements during foraging, can also contribute to the evolution of  
75 functionally referential alarm calls (Furrer & Manser 2009).

76

77 Theory predicts that functionally referential alarm calls can simultaneously communicate continuous  
78 variation in some aspect of a predator encounter (Marler et al. 1992; Macedonia & Evans 1993). Furthermore,  
79 there are no obvious mechanistic constraints. Predator class can be communicated by producing structurally  
80 discrete types of alarm calls, whereas continuous traits associated with a predator attack can be communicated  
81 through graded features of a particular call type (Evans 1997). In principle, there are several ways in which a  
82 signal could be designed to simultaneously encode predator class and other information. For example, an animal

83 could produce a functionally referential alarm call repeatedly and encode a continuous trait, such as predator  
84 distance, through a sequence-level parameter, such as calling rate. Alternatively, callers could encode a  
85 continuous trait in the graded structure of a functionally referential call. For example, highly aroused individuals  
86 generally produce harsh, low-frequency calls, whereas less aroused individuals generally produce calls that are  
87 clearer and higher in frequency (Morton 1977). Regardless of the specific encoding mechanism, functionally  
88 referential alarm calls that simultaneously communicate continuous traits could be highly adaptive because they  
89 would allow receivers to tailor their antipredator responses to a specific predator class, as well as to more subtle  
90 characteristics of individual predator attacks.

91  
92       Functionally referential alarm calls that simultaneously communicate continuous traits have only been  
93 documented definitively in suricates (Manser 2001; Manser et al. 2001). Callers in this species produce  
94 acoustically distinct alarm calls in response to avian and terrestrial predators, and they simultaneously encode the  
95 predator's distance into the graded structure of calls. When alarm calls are broadcast in the absence of predators,  
96 receivers show antipredator behaviours that are appropriate for both the class and distance of predator that  
97 evoked the call (Manser 2001; Manser et al. 2001). Other species, such as tufted capuchin monkeys, *Cebus*  
98 *apella nigrinus*, produce functionally referential alarm calls in some contexts and separate alarm calls that  
99 communicate continuous traits in others (Wheeler 2010). However, capuchins are not known to produce  
100 functionally referential alarm calls that simultaneously communicate continuous traits (Wheeler 2010). Such  
101 dual-function calls probably exist in other species, but the necessary experiments have yet to be conducted. For  
102 example, white-browed scrubwrens, *Sericornis frontalis*, communicate the distance to aerial predators by  
103 grading the number of elements in their trilled aerial alarm calls (Leavesley & Magrath 2005). Whether trilled  
104 aerial alarm calls are functionally referential, however, remains unclear because formal tests of their production  
105 specificity have yet to be conducted; calls may be elicited specifically by avian predators, or by all predators  
106 more generally (Leavesley & Magrath 2005). Similarly, the mobbing calls of Siberian jays, *Perisoreus infaustus*,  
107 encode the type of threat (hawk, owl) and the level of threat (low to high) that is associated with perched raptors  
108 (Griesser 2009). Playback experiments necessary for assessing call perception have yet to be conducted,

109 however, so it remains unclear whether mobbing calls communicate predator type and predator threat to  
110 receivers in jays (Griesser 2009).

111

112 Fowl (*Gallus gallus*) are ideal for studying alarm calling behaviour because they produce two functionally  
113 referential alarm calls (Evans et al. 1993a). The ‘terrestrial alarm call’ is a loud series of broadband pulses that is  
114 produced by both sexes specifically in response to predators approaching on the ground, such as foxes (*Vulpes*  
115 *vulpes*) or racoons (*Procyon lotor*). In response to terrestrial alarm calls, fowl assume an erect posture and scan  
116 the horizontal plane (Evans et al. 1993a). The ‘aerial alarm call’ is acoustically distinct from the terrestrial alarm  
117 call and has a highly variable structure (Table 1, Fig. 1, Supplementary Material; see also Figure 4 in Evans et al.  
118 1993a). It is produced only by males in response to a broad class of objects moving overhead, including insects,  
119 airplanes and predatory and nonpredatory birds (Gyger et al. 1987; Evans & Marler 1995). Larger and faster  
120 aerial stimuli that are shaped like raptors have the greatest probability of evoking these calls (Evans et al. 1993b;  
121 Evans & Marler 1995). In response to aerial alarm calls, fowl crouch, scan the sky and seek shelter (Evans et al.  
122 1993a).

123

124 The objective of the current study was to determine whether the functionally referential aerial alarm calls of  
125 male fowl also communicate continuous traits associated with avian stimuli. In the first experiment (i.e. call  
126 production), we held males in an indoor test cage and allowed them to view wild birds flying past a window. In  
127 the past, we have noticed males housed indoors producing aerial alarm calls in response to wild birds flying past  
128 outside. We therefore took advantage of this opportunity and compared the structure of males’ alarm calls to the  
129 size, speed and proximity of the eliciting avian stimuli. In the second experiment (i.e. call perception), we played  
130 back aerial alarm calls to females and compared variation in their antipredator responses to gradation in the  
131 structure of the eliciting calls. We predicted that female responses would be explained best by the acoustic  
132 parameters that were correlated with avian stimulus attributes in the call production experiment. By assessing  
133 both call production and call perception, we were able to test whether fowl communicate continuous variation in  
134 avian stimuli through gradation in their referential aerial alarm calls.

135

136

137 **METHODS**

138

139 *Experiment 1: Call Production*

140

141 In the first experiment, we placed male fowl into an indoor test cage and permitted them to view wild birds  
142 and other objects flying past a window outside. To monitor and quantify the naturally occurring stimuli observed  
143 by the subjects, we videorecorded the window from the male's perspective and quantified the apparent size,  
144 speed and proximity of the stimuli. We also audiorecorded the subject's vocal response, so that we could test for  
145 relationships between variation in avian stimulus attributes and gradation in alarm call structure.

146

147 *Subjects*

148 Subjects were 24 sexually mature male golden Sebright fowl that were between 1 and 3 years of age. When  
149 not being tested, they were kept in a climate-controlled holding facility (temperature: 21 °C; light: overhead  
150 incandescent lighting for 12 h, beginning at 0600 hours, as well as natural light from surrounding windows).  
151 Each male was paired with one female in a separate wire cage (1 m long, 1 m wide, 0.8 m high) that contained  
152 food, water, wooden perches and straw bedding.

153

154 *Apparatus*

155 During recording sessions, we held subjects in a wire test cage (1.12 m long, 0.45 m wide, 0.73 m high) that  
156 had an artificial grass mat, wooden perches and a continuous supply of food and water. The test cage was housed  
157 inside a climate-controlled test room (temperature: 21 °C; lighting: incandescent lights for 12 h, beginning at  
158 0600 hours each day) that had a single window to the outside (1.11 m wide, 0.82 m high). The test cage was  
159 positioned on a small table, such that its floor was level with the bottom of the window. The longitudinal axis of  
160 the test cage was aligned with the centre of the window, and the narrow end of the cage was placed facing the  
161 window at a distance of 1.7 m. To reduce acoustic interference from outside the test room, as well as  
162 reverberation from within the test cage, we attached 10 cm thick 'Sonex' sound-attenuating foam baffles

163 (Illbruck Acoustic, Inc., Minneapolis, MN, U.S.A.) to the back and both sides of the cage, as well as to the wire  
164 overhead.

165

166 The view from the test cage through the test room window was dominated by several large trees  
167 (*Eucalyptus*) in the foreground (0–15 m from window), three small buildings in the mid-ground (15–30 m from  
168 window) and several large trees in the background. Sky was visible between tree branches in the upper half of  
169 the field of view, and green grass was visible between trees and buildings in the lower half of the field of view.  
170 When a subject was in the end of the cage nearest the window (i.e. 1.7 m from window), its horizontal and  
171 vertical fields of view through the window were approximately 36° and 27°, respectively. When a subject was in  
172 the opposite end of the cage (i.e. 2.8 m from window), its horizontal and vertical fields of view through the  
173 window were approximately 22° and 17°, respectively.

174

175 We videorecorded aerial stimuli from the subject's perspective using a Sony Handicam (model: HDR-HC7;  
176 format: HDV 1080i50; shutter speed: 1/100 s). The camera was mounted on a tripod at approximately the  
177 subject's eye-height (27 cm above the floor of the test cage) and was placed outside the subject's cage midway  
178 along the side of the cage that faced the test room window. We adjusted the focal length so that the camera's  
179 field of view included the entire window for the remainder of the experiment, so that the apparent size, speed  
180 and proximity of stimuli could be compared across recording sessions. Because the camera was slightly closer to  
181 the window, it captured the subject's complete field of view through the window, regardless of his position  
182 within the cage. Video was recorded digitally (format: HDV 1080i50) to the hard drive of a Macintosh computer  
183 using QuickTime Pro software (version 7; Apple, Inc., Cupertino, CA, U.S.A.).

184

185 We recorded the subject's vocalizations with a Sennheiser MHK 40-P48 microphone (cardioid pickup  
186 pattern; 40–20 000 Hz frequency response,  $\pm$  1 dB deviation) that was suspended from the centre of the subject's  
187 cage. Calls were digitized using a MOTU UltraLite-mk3 digital interface (48 kHz sampling rate; 24-bit  
188 amplitude encoding) and were recorded to the digital sound track (WAVE format, 48 kHz sampling rate, 16-bit  
189 amplitude encoding) of the video file that was recording the aerial stimuli. By recording to the same digital file,



190 we ensured precise temporal synchronization of the audio and video tracks. We calibrated our system by  
191 recording 30 s of continuous white noise, which we broadcast at 76 dB(C) SPL (measured at a distance of 1 m  
192 with a RadioShack sound level meter, model 33-4050, slow response) through a Nagra Kudelski DSM monitor,  
193 which was placed on the centre of the test cage floor. After this initial calibration procedure, we did not adjust  
194 the gain on the audio-recording system for the remainder of the experiment, which ensured that all vocalizations  
195 were recorded at the same level.

196

### 197 *Procedure*

198 We recorded subjects between 13 February and 7 May 2008. We began a recording session at 1200 hours  
199 by transferring a subject and his female cagemate from the holding facility to the test cage inside the test room.  
200 The female was included because males only produce alarm calls in the presence of a conspecific audience  
201 (Karakashian et al. 1988; Evans & Marler 1992). The pair was given until 3 h before sunset to acclimate to the  
202 test cage (time of sunset determined at -33°50'00" latitude; 151°15'00" longitude). Audio and video recording  
203 began at that time and continued until sunset, at which time the birds went up to roost and became silent. We  
204 resumed recording the next morning at sunrise and continued for an additional 4 h, resulting in a total of 7 h of  
205 audio and video recording per subject. We programmed all recordings to begin and end automatically, thus  
206 eliminating the need for a human observer to enter the test room during a recording session. Following a  
207 recording session, we returned the subject and his mate to the holding facility, replaced the food, water and  
208 artificial grass mat in the test cage, and cleaned the test room window.

209

210 Our goal was to record at least 10 alarm calls per subject. To achieve this, we reviewed the audio recordings  
211 following the first round of 24 recording sessions (see Sound Analysis details below). Males that had not  
212 produced 10 alarm calls in the first round were recorded again in a second round. The recording procedure for  
213 the second round was identical to that of the first, and subjects were recorded in the same order. Of the 24  
214 subjects recorded in the first round, 16 were recorded in the second round, resulting in a total of 280 h of audio  
215 and video recording.

216

217 *Quantifying stimulus attributes and alarm call structure*

218 We identified alarm calls on the original recordings using Soundtrack Pro software (version 2.0.2; Apple,  
219 Inc., Cupertino, CA, U.S.A.). For each recording, we listened to the audio track at approximately natural  
220 amplitude while simultaneously viewing the video track and a scrolling real-time spectrogram of the audio track  
221 (512-point fast Fourier transform (FFT), 87.5% overlap, Hamming window). When we detected an alarm call  
222 (see example spectrograms in Fig. 1; example audio files are provided in the Supplementary Material), we noted  
223 the exact time (40 ms resolution) on a permanent time code that we had superimposed on the video track, and  
224 then saved the alarm call into two separate digital files. The first file contained the video track only (format:  
225 HDV 1080i50) and was used to characterize the aerial stimuli that evoked the alarm calls. The second file  
226 contained the audio track only (WAVE format, 44.1 kHz sampling rate, 16-bit amplitude encoding) and was  
227 used to quantify alarm call structure. Both files included 30 s of the original recording before and after the alarm  
228 call. Females do not produce aerial alarm calls, so we were confident that the male subject produced all recorded  
229 calls.

230

231 Extracted video clips were displayed on a high-resolution external video monitor (1920 x 1080 pixels  
232 resolution) that we controlled with Final Cut Pro software (version 6.0.6; Apple, Inc.). For each of the 695 video  
233 clips, we searched frame by frame for aerial stimuli during a 5 s measurement window that immediately  
234 preceded the alarm call. The beginning and end of the measurement window were selected relative to the video's  
235 permanent time code, thus keeping the observer blind to the structure and sound of the corresponding alarm call.  
236 After detecting a stimulus, we categorized it as avian or nonavian and excluded all nonavian stimuli (e.g. flying  
237 invertebrates, falling leaves) from subsequent analysis ( $N = 217$  clips). We also excluded clips in which an avian  
238 stimulus was airborne for less than two video frames (i.e.  $< 80$  ms) during the measurement window ( $N = 39$   
239 clips) because it was not possible to measure the speed of such stimuli. If more than one avian stimulus was  
240 present during the measurement window ( $N = 52$  clips), we measured only the one closest in time to the alarm  
241 call.

242

243 We measured the following three variables for every avian stimulus: (1) maximum diameter (a measure of  
244 the size of the avian stimulus from the subject's perspective), (2) average speed and (3) proximity to subject. To  
245 determine maximum diameter, we measured the largest diameter of the stimulus in every video frame in which it  
246 was visible during the 5 s measurement window, and then noted the maximum value of these measures.  
247 Measurements were made by placing a transparent ruler directly onto the video monitor. To determine average  
248 speed, we divided the linear distance travelled by the stimulus during the 5 s measurement window by the period  
249 of time for which it was visible. Linear distance was measured by placing a transparent ruler directly onto the  
250 monitor and stepping frame by frame through the video; the measure did not incorporate deviations from a linear  
251 flight path. To determine the proximity to the subject, we compared the position of the stimulus to landmarks in  
252 the video (e.g. trees, buildings). Based on known distances between the landmarks and the video camera, we  
253 could approximate the minimum distance between the stimulus and the camera. The resolution of this method  
254 was limited by the spacing of landmarks and the difficulty of estimating depth from a two-dimensional video;  
255 consequently, we quantified proximity using an ordinal scale that was based on landmark positions (1 = 0–15 m;  
256 2 = 15–30 m; 3 = 30+ m).

257

258 For each avian stimulus that we measured, we also measured the fine structure of the corresponding alarm  
259 call using SASLab Pro software (version 4.40; Avisoft Bioacoustics, Berlin, Germany). We filtered each  
260 extracted audio file with a band-pass filter (200–12 000 Hz), which removed background noise without affecting  
261 the structure of the alarm call (Wilson & Evans 2010). We then generated a spectrogram (1024-point FFT,  
262 87.5% overlap, Hamming window, 2.9 ms temporal resolution, 43 Hz frequency resolution; Fig. 1) and used the  
263 'automatic parameter measurements' feature (settings: holdtime, 100 ms; threshold, -30 dB relative to maximum  
264 amplitude) to select the alarm call and measure its structure. If the subject produced more than one alarm call in  
265 response to a particular avian stimulus, then we selected and measured only the first. We measured four  
266 structural features, including (1) call length, (2) amplitude, (3) dominant frequency and (4) entropy. Amplitude is  
267 the root-mean-square amplitude of the entire call, and dominant frequency is the frequency with the highest  
268 amplitude. Entropy is a measure of sound purity that approaches 0 for pure tones and 100 for white noise; it is  
269 the ratio of the geometric mean to the arithmetic mean of the spectrum, multiplied by 100. Dominant frequency

270 and entropy were measured from every FFT within the alarm call and were then averaged (separately for each  
271 variable) for statistical analysis.

272

### 273 *Statistical analysis*

274 Preliminary analyses revealed that the three independent variables (i.e. maximum diameter, average speed,  
275 proximity to subject) were highly intercorrelated. To avoid potential problems associated with multicollinearity,  
276 we conducted a principal components analysis on the three independent variables (see Table 2) and used only the  
277 derived factor scores in subsequent statistical analyses.

278

279 We used linear mixed model analysis to test for relationships between avian stimulus attributes and alarm  
280 call structure. A single principal component derived from the three original avian stimulus variables was entered  
281 as a covariate with fixed effects, and male identity was entered as a subject variable with random effects to  
282 account for repeated measures of the same individuals. A separate model was constructed for each of the four  
283 measures of alarm call structure. For each model, we estimated fixed effects using the restricted maximum  
284 likelihood method and modelled the subject effect by assuming a variance components covariance structure.  
285 Residuals were not normally distributed for three of the four models, but were corrected by applying a square-  
286 root transformation to call length and a log transformation to dominant frequency and entropy. All other model  
287 assumptions were satisfied. Tests were two tailed, and we considered results to be statistically significant when  $P$   
288  $\leq 0.05$ . All analyses were conducted in PASW (version 18.0 for Macintosh; Chicago, IL, U.S.A.).

289

### 290 *Experiment 2: Call Perception*

291

292 In the second experiment, we tested whether female fowl respond appropriately to gradation in the structure  
293 of aerial alarm calls. We played back alarm calls, and then compared female responses to variation in call  
294 structure, which we quantified according to the structural measures described in experiment 1.

295

### 296 *Subjects*

297 Subjects were 32 sexually mature female golden Sebright fowl that were between 2 and 7 years of age. Of  
298 the 32 females tested, 24 had served as a conspecific audience in the first experiment. When not being tested,  
299 subjects were paired with males and kept in the same conditions and climate-controlled holding facility as in the  
300 call production study.

301

### 302 *Apparatus*

303 During playback trials, we held subjects in a wire test cage (1.12 m long, 0.45 m wide, 0.73 m high) that  
304 was placed on the floor in the centre of a sound-attenuating chamber (Ampliscience, model 10070;  
305 Robassomero, Italy). The chamber measured 2.38 m wide x 2.38 m long x 2.15 m high and was lined with 10 cm  
306 thick ‘Sonex’ foam baffles on the walls and 15 cm thick baffles on the ceiling to prevent reverberation. The cage  
307 had an artificial grass mat, a continuous supply of water, and light provided by two incandescent lamps (60 W).  
308 A remotely operated food dispenser was placed above the cage and was used to deliver fresh corn to the centre  
309 of the cage floor during trials. To broadcast alarm call stimuli, we placed a Nagra Kudelski DSM monitor  
310 midway along the length of the test cage, abutting the side. The monitor was connected through a conduit panel  
311 in the chamber wall to a Behringer digital-to-analogue converter (model FCA202, 24 bits/96 kHz) and a  
312 Macintosh computer that played stimuli using QuickTime Pro software (version 7; Apple, Inc.). Subjects were  
313 monitored with a Panasonic video camera (model WV-CL320) and a Sennheiser microphone (model MHK 40-  
314 P48) connected to a Canopus analogue-to-digital converter (model ADVC110) through the conduit panel. This  
315 was connected to a second Macintosh computer, which recorded trials using QuickTime Pro software.

316

317 Prior to commencing playbacks, we calibrated the playback system by broadcasting the white noise that we  
318 had recorded during the call production study. We adjusted the playback level so that the white noise measured  
319 precisely 76 dB(C) SPL at a distance of 1 m (i.e. the same level used during recording). The playback level was  
320 not adjusted for the remainder of the playback experiment, which ensured that each alarm call was broadcast at  
321 the same amplitude at which it had been produced (mean  $\pm$  SD = 70  $\pm$  8 dB(C) SPL at a distance of 1 m).

322

### 323 *Stimuli*

324 Playback stimuli were 20 high-quality aerial alarm calls recorded during the call production study (Table 3,  
325 Fig. 1, Supplementary Material). For each of four males, we selected five calls that were, as far as possible,  
326 evenly distributed across the range of variation observed in the call production study (Table 1, 3, Fig. 1,  
327 Supplementary Material). Using Raven Interactive Sound Analysis software (version 1.3 Pro, Cornell Lab of  
328 Ornithology Bioacoustics Research Program, Ithaca, NY, U.S.A.), we extracted the calls from the original  
329 recordings, plus 100 ms of silence before and after each call. We removed background noise with a band-pass  
330 filter (200–12 000 Hz; Wilson & Evans 2010), and then saved the calls as separate digital files (WAVE format,  
331 48 kHz sample rate, 16-bit amplitude encoding). We did not normalize the sound files because we wanted to  
332 preserve natural amplitude gradation among calls.

333

#### 334 *Procedure*

335 We tested subjects between 2 August and 9 September 2008 using a randomized complete block design. We  
336 assigned the 32 hens at random to four equal-sized groups (i.e. 8 per group), and then tested each group daily  
337 during a different 5-day period. Each group was tested with alarm calls derived from different stimulus males  
338 (i.e. 4 stimulus males corresponding to 4 groups of subjects, with the constraint that subjects were not tested with  
339 alarm call stimuli recorded from their cagemates), and each subject within the group was tested with the same set  
340 of five alarm calls (i.e. one alarm call per day in a random order). Subjects were tested individually each day in  
341 either the morning (0800–1100 hours) or the afternoon (1500–1800 hours) to correspond to peak foraging  
342 periods. A given hen was always tested at the same time each day.

343

344 Prior to testing a group, we habituated each subject in the group to the test apparatus. We placed one of the  
345 eight subjects into the test cage and allowed her to move freely around the cage for approximately 15 min.  
346 During that time, we delivered five kernels of fresh corn to the centre of the test cage floor using the remotely  
347 operated food dispenser. We repeated this habituation procedure each day until every subject in the group  
348 walked readily around the cage, did not become startled by the food dispenser, and consumed all of the corn that  
349 was delivered (range 3–11 habituation cycles per subject).

350

351 We began testing a group on the day after all birds had habituated to the test apparatus. A trial began by  
352 placing one of the eight subjects into the test cage, closing the chamber door and initiating the recording  
353 procedure. The observer controlled the experiment from outside the chamber, viewing the subject remotely on  
354 the computer monitor. When the subject began moving around the cage, we delivered five kernels of fresh corn  
355 to the centre of the test cage floor. As soon as the subject pecked at the corn, we broadcast an alarm call stimulus  
356 and continued recording the subject until she consumed all of the remaining corn (4–59 s), or for 10 min if she  
357 did not resume feeding. We then returned the subject to the holding facility, replaced the mat in the test cage and  
358 reloaded the food dispenser with fresh corn.

359

### 360 *Quantifying female responses*

361 Prior to scoring female responses, we viewed the trial recordings using QuickTime Pro software. When the  
362 corn was delivered, we stepped frame by frame through the video and noted the exact time at which the alarm  
363 call stimulus was played, relative to the video's time code (40 ms resolution). We then scored female responses  
364 to alarm call stimuli by viewing the recordings again with the audio track muted. This method allowed us to  
365 score female responses relative to when the alarm call was played, but ensured that the observer was not  
366 influenced by listening to the eliciting call.

367

368 We measured two dependent variables from every trial: (1) initial response and (2) time to finish feeding.  
369 Initial response was scored as the immediate reaction to the onset of the alarm call and was quantified according  
370 to the six-level ordinal scale defined by Evans et al. (1993b) as follows.

371

- 372 (1) No visible response.
- 373 (2) Looking upwards (typically by rolling the head to fixate with one eye).
- 374 (3) Looking upwards and flexing the neck, so as to draw the head towards the body.
- 375 (4) Responses 2 and 3, together with perceptible crouching.
- 376 (5) Responses 2 and 3, together with pronounced crouching, so that the body makes contact with the floor.
- 377 (6) Responses 2, 3 and 5, together with running in a crouched posture.

378

379 Time to finish feeding was designed to reflect the trade-off between foraging and vigilance. It was defined as the  
380 time from the onset of the alarm call stimulus to when the subject consumed the last kernel of corn. If a subject  
381 did not consume all of the corn after the alarm call was played, we set time to the maximum value observed  
382 among the 32 subjects on that particular test day (i.e. test days 1–5). Subjects did not consume all of the corn in 7  
383 of the 160 playback trials.

384

### 385 *Statistical analysis*

386 We used linear mixed model analysis to test for relationships between alarm call structure (independent  
387 variables) and female response (dependent variables). Our measures of alarm call structure were derived directly  
388 from the call production study (see above), and included call length, amplitude, dominant frequency and entropy.  
389 These four measures, as well as test day (i.e. 1–5), were entered into the model as covariates with fixed effects.  
390 Female identity was entered as a subject variable with random effects to account for repeated measures of the  
391 same individuals. We constructed a separate model for each measure of female response. For each model, we  
392 estimated fixed effects using the restricted maximum likelihood method and modelled the subject effect by  
393 assuming a variance components covariance structure. Preliminary analyses revealed a two-way interaction  
394 between test day and amplitude in the model explaining initial response. Therefore, in the final model explaining  
395 initial response, we included as covariates with fixed effects all two-way interactions between test day and the  
396 four measures of alarm call structure. No interaction effects were detected in the model explaining time to finish  
397 feeding, so interactions were not included in this model. Residuals were not normally distributed in the model  
398 describing time to finish feeding, but were corrected by applying a log transformation to the dependent variable.  
399 All other model assumptions were satisfied. Tests were two tailed, and we considered results to be statistically  
400 significant when  $P \leq 0.05$ .

401

## 402 **RESULTS**

403

### 404 *Experiment 1: Call Production*



405

406 Of 695 aerial alarm calls produced by 24 subjects during 280 h of recording, 373 (54%) were associated  
407 with a clear avian stimulus, 217 (31%) with a nonavian stimulus (e.g. invertebrates, falling leaves) and 105  
408 (15%) with no discernable aerial stimulus. Of the 373 calls that were associated with an avian stimulus, we  
409 excluded 39 because the stimulus was not present on two or more video frames. Analyses were therefore based  
410 on 334 aerial alarm calls that were associated with a clear avian stimulus during the 5 s immediately preceding  
411 the call (mean  $\pm$  SD =  $1.3 \pm 0.9$  calls/subject/h; range 0.1–4.0 calls per subject per h). In general, we could not  
412 ascertain the species of avian stimuli because the lighting conditions (i.e. dim light inside the test room, bright  
413 light outside the test room) caused the avian stimuli to appear very dark on the video recordings. The few stimuli  
414 that we could identify included predatory birds, such as Australian magpies, *Cracticus tibicen*, kookaburras,  
415 *Dacelo novaeguinae*, and unidentified raptors, as well as nonpredatory birds, such as parrots (Cacatuidae,  
416 Psittacidae) and honey-eaters (Meliphagidae). The brown goshawk, *Accipiter fasciatus*, was the only raptor that  
417 was observed regularly at our study site.

418

419 Avian stimuli were highly variable in terms of maximum diameter, average speed and proximity to subject,  
420 as measured from the video on an external monitor (Table 1). In addition, the three variables were highly  
421 intercorrelated and thus loaded heavily onto a single principal component that explained 82% of the variance in  
422 the original 3 variables (Table 2). Maximum diameter and average speed loaded positively onto the principal  
423 component, whereas proximity to subject loaded negatively onto the principal component. Consequently, a high  
424 principal component score reflects a close, large and fast-moving avian stimulus.

425

426 The principal component describing the avian stimuli accounted for a significant amount of the gradation in  
427 alarm call structure (Fig. 2). In response to stimuli that appeared larger, closer and faster moving, subjects  
428 produced shorter alarm calls (linear mixed model analysis:  $F_{1,327} = 40.8$ ,  $P < 0.001$ ) with higher amplitude ( $F_{1,323}$   
429 =  $38.5$ ,  $P < 0.001$ ), lower dominant frequency ( $F_{1,322} = 39.4$ ,  $P < 0.001$ ) and less random energy distribution  
430 ( $F_{1,325} = 8.7$ ,  $P = 0.003$ ). In contrast, stimuli that appeared smaller, more distant and slower moving elicited

431 longer alarm calls that had lower amplitude, higher dominant frequency and more randomly distributed energy  
432 (Fig. 2).

433

#### 434 *Experiment 2: Call Perception*

435

436 Females usually responded to the playback of male alarm calls by crouching, rolling their head to the side  
437 and looking upwards with one eye. They also stopped consuming corn and remained still for up to 1 min. Alarm  
438 call structure and test day both had a significant effect on female response (Fig. 3). The initial response was  
439 stronger in response to louder alarm call stimuli, but declined significantly over the 5-day test period (Fig. 3a).  
440 Furthermore, the effect of amplitude on initial response diminished over time, as reflected by a significant  
441 interaction between test day and amplitude (linear mixed model analysis: test day:  $F_{1,138} = 8.1, P = 0.005$ ;  
442 amplitude:  $F_{1,142} = 16.3, P < 0.001$ ; test day x amplitude interaction:  $F_{1,139} = 14.5, P < 0.001$ ; Fig. 3a). Initial  
443 response was not affected by the other measures of alarm call structure, or by their interactions with test day  
444 (linear mixed model analysis: call length:  $F_{1,145} = 0.0, P = 0.903$ ; dominant frequency:  $F_{1,139} = 0.5, P = 0.494$ ;  
445 entropy:  $F_{1,140} = 0.4, P = 0.510$ ; test day x call length interaction:  $F_{1,147} = 0.3, P = 0.571$ ; test day x dominant  
446 frequency interaction:  $F_{1,139} = 0.6, P = 0.439$ ; test day x entropy interaction:  $F_{1,136} = 0.0, P = 0.900$ ). As with  
447 initial response, the time to finish feeding was longer in response to louder alarm call stimuli, but declined  
448 significantly over the 5-day test period (linear mixed model analysis: test day:  $F_{1,124} = 33.8, P < 0.001$ ;  
449 amplitude:  $F_{1,150} = 8.0, P = 0.005$ ; Fig. 3b). Time to finish feeding was not affected by the other measures of  
450 alarm call structure (linear mixed model analysis: call length:  $F_{1,140} = 1.9, P = 0.166$ ; dominant frequency:  $F_{1,154}$   
451  $= 2.5, P = 0.114$ ; entropy:  $F_{1,153} = 2.3, P = 0.128$ ).

452

## 453 **DISCUSSION**

454

455 Male fowl encoded continuous traits associated with avian stimuli into several graded parameters of their  
456 functionally referential aerial alarm calls. Stimuli that appeared closer, larger and faster elicited alarm calls that  
457 were shorter, louder, clearer and lower in frequency. Female receivers ignored gradation in the duration,

458 frequency and entropy of alarm calls, but responded appropriately to gradation in alarm call amplitude. In  
459 response to louder alarm calls, females showed stronger initial responses and took longer to finish feeding.  
460 Together, these results show that fowl communicate continuous variation in avian stimuli through graded  
461 structure in their functionally referential aerial alarm calls.

462

463 Gradation in the structure of alarm calls correlated with continuous variation in both stimulus attributes and  
464 receiver responses. This pattern is consistent with urgency-based calling, which has been described in ground  
465 squirrels, birds, suricates and primates (Owings & Hennessy 1984; Blumstein & Armitage 1997; Manser 2001;  
466 Manser et al. 2001; Warkentin et al. 2001; Fichtel & Hammerschmidt 2002; Leavesley & Magrath 2005;  
467 Templeton et al. 2005; Fallow & Magrath 2010). As in these other systems, however, the precise cause of  
468 gradation in alarm call structure is unclear (Evans 1997). It could reflect the size, speed or proximity of avian  
469 stimuli, or the risk of predation associated with these physical properties. Another possibility is that gradation in  
470 call structure instructs receivers about how to respond (i.e. imperative), rather than denoting stimulus  
471 characteristics per se (i.e. denotative; Cheney & Seyfarth 1990; Marler et al. 1992). Finally, gradation could  
472 reflect the caller's affective state, which logically correlates with those stimulus characteristics that predict attack  
473 (Morton 1977; Evans 1997). Future studies could address this latter possibility by testing whether predator  
474 attributes affect physiological measures that are associated with the caller's affective state (Cabanac & Aizawa  
475 2000; Walker et al. 2006).

476

477 Gradation in the amplitude of alarm calls affected female responses and thus had communicative value. In  
478 addition, receivers appeared to respond adaptively to this gradation, since they resumed feeding sooner in  
479 response to quieter calls that were putatively associated with less dangerous predators (FitzGibbon 1989).  
480 Female responses also diminished over time, which could reflect habituation to a novel environment. We have  
481 observed similar effects in male fowl, whose alarm calling rates declined steadily for several weeks following  
482 their introduction to a novel outdoor environment (Wilson & Evans 2008; Wilson et al. 2010). Alternatively,  
483 reduced female responsiveness could reflect caller reliability. In our experimental design, we repeatedly  
484 broadcast alarm calls from the same male in the absence predators, which made him progressively less reliable.

485 Since the alarm calls of fowl are individually distinctive (Bayly & Evans 2003), it is possible that females  
486 became less responsive as the alarm calls of an individual male consistently failed to predict aerial predators.  
487 Richardson's ground squirrels, *Spermophilus richardsonii*, yellow-bellied marmots, *Marmota flaviventris*, and  
488 vervet monkeys, *Chlorocebus aethiops*, all discriminate between the alarm calls of reliable and unreliable  
489 individuals (Cheney & Seyfarth 1988; Hare & Atkins 2001; Blumstein et al. 2004).

490

491 Amplitude was the only acoustic feature we measured that correlated with both stimulus attributes and  
492 receiver responses. In general, animals produce louder calls when they are highly aroused (Darwin 1872; Driver  
493 & Humphries 1969; Scherer 1985; Conover 1994; Jurisevic & Sanderson 1998; Rendall 2003; Soltis et al. 2009;  
494 but see Searcy & Nowicki 2006). Furthermore, louder calls are generally more evocative than quiet calls  
495 (Brenowitz 1989; Blumstein & Armitage 1997; Fichtel & Hammerschmidt 2002; Lampe et al. 2010; Brumm &  
496 Ritschard 2011). Gradation in call amplitude thus provides a simple, noncognitive mechanism for adapting  
497 receiver responses to those predator attributes that directly influence a caller's affective state. A potential  
498 disadvantage of using amplitude gradation for communication is that amplitude can vary as a function of wind  
499 gusts, topography, vegetation, movement of the caller's head, and other, presumably irrelevant, factors.  
500 Furthermore, calls necessarily attenuate as they travel from caller to receiver (Bradbury & Vehrencamp 1998). In  
501 fowl, however, the effects of attenuation and these other miscellaneous factors are probably minimal because  
502 males only produce aerial alarm calls when accompanied closely by a conspecific audience (Karakashian et al.  
503 1988; Evans & Marler 1992). In social groups, most aerial alarm calls are given by alpha males, which associate  
504 closely with hens and keep other males at a distance (Wilson et al. 2008, 2009; Kokolakis et al. 2010).

505

506 Avian stimuli affected several acoustic parameters of alarm calls that failed to predict receiver responses.  
507 These relationships potentially can be explained by mechanisms that also are unrelated to receiver responses. For  
508 example, the apparent effect of avian stimulus attributes on call length could be an artefact of varying call  
509 amplitude. In order to produce a loud, continuous call, the caller must expel the air in its air sacs at a high rate,  
510 which rapidly depletes its air supply and results in a short call (Plummer & Goller 2008). Similarly, the effect of  
511 stimulus attributes on dominant frequency can be explained by Morton's (1977) motivation-structural rules,

512 which predict that animals will produce lower-frequency sounds in highly arousing situations. In contrast to  
513 dominant frequency, the observed effect of stimulus attributes on alarm call entropy contradicts Morton's (1977)  
514 motivation-structural rules, which predict that animals will produce noisier calls (i.e. greater entropy) when they  
515 are highly aroused. Surprisingly, fowl produced alarm calls with lower entropy in response to stimuli that we  
516 assume were highly arousing. Similar results have also been found in other species, suggesting that highly  
517 aroused individuals may produce clearer vocalizations more generally. For example, yellow-bellied marmots (D.  
518 T. Blumstein & Y. Y. Chi, unpublished data), piglets, *Sus scrofa* (Puppe et al. 2005) and goats, *Capra hircus*  
519 (Siebert et al. 2011) all produce clearer vocalizations when they are highly aroused.

520

521 By grading the structure of alarm calls in relation to predator distance, callers can potentially mitigate the  
522 predation costs associated with calling. For example, Richardson's ground squirrels remain cryptic by producing  
523 short-range ultrasonic alarm calls in lieu of long-range audible alarm calls when predators are distant and  
524 unlikely to have detected them (Wilson & Hare 2006). Our results suggest that fowl use a similar strategy for  
525 reducing predation risk. When predators were distant and unlikely to have noticed potential callers, males  
526 produced low-amplitude, high-frequency alarm calls that are known to be cryptic (Marler 1955; Klump &  
527 Shalter 1984; Wood et al. 2000). This finding is consistent with a recent study on risk management, which  
528 showed that male fowl have a greater probability of producing alarm calls when concealed under cover  
529 (Kokolakis et al. 2010). In contrast, when predators were close and likely to have already noticed the caller,  
530 males produced loud, low-frequency alarm calls. These characteristics typically indicate a caller's willingness to  
531 defend itself and may consequently function as threat signals (Morton 1977). Furthermore, these calls were  
532 similar to the 'distress calls' produced by many birds. Distress calls are thought to startle predators during the  
533 final stages of attack (Driver & Humphries 1969; Conover 1994), so this may be an additional function of the  
534 loud, low-frequency alarm calls observed in our study.

535

536 In conclusion, fowl have a remarkably complex alarm communication system in which they produce  
537 acoustically distinct alarm calls in response to aerial and terrestrial predators. Receivers, upon hearing alarm  
538 calls, respond with categorically distinct antipredator behaviour that is specific to the type of predator that

539 evoked the call. By recording males' alarm-calling responses to naturally occurring avian stimuli, and by  
540 comparing variation in females' responses to gradation in alarm call structure, the current study reveals  
541 additional complexity in this system. Specifically, we show that male fowl encode continuous variation in avian  
542 stimuli through gradation in the fine structure of their functionally referential aerial alarm calls. Stimuli that  
543 appear closer, larger and faster elicit alarm calls that are shorter, louder, clearer and lower in frequency. We also  
544 show that females ignore gradation in the duration, frequency and entropy of alarm calls, but respond  
545 appropriately to gradation in call amplitude. In response to louder alarm calls, females show stronger initial  
546 responses and take longer to finish feeding. Together, these results provide the first definitive evidence that a  
547 bird can communicate continuous variation in avian stimuli through gradation in the fine structure of their  
548 functionally referential alarm calls.

549

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551

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559

## 560 **Supplementary Material**

561

562 Supplementary material for this article is available, in the online version, at doi:

563

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695 **Table 1**

696 Description of 334 aerial alarm calls produced by male fowl and the avian stimuli that evoked them in the call  
 697 production experiment

Variable	Minimum		Maximum		Average		Coefficient of variation (%)	
<b>Alarm call structure</b>								
Length (ms)	403	(349)	2154	(882)	1048	(308)	53	(19)
Amplitude (dB(C))	60	(5)	78	(7)	69	(5)	9	(3)
Dominant frequency (Hz)	673	(196)	1473	(370)	992	(218)	26	(10)
Entropy (%)	21	(3)	33	(4)	27	(3)	15	(3)
<b>Avian stimuli</b>								
Diameter (mm)	1.5	(1.3)	35.2	(15.2)	14.2	(5.8)	81	(14)
Speed (cm/s)	4.3	(1.8)	68.1	(34.6)	23.1	(10.2)	88	(21)
Proximity (index)	1.1	(0.4)	2.9	(0.3)	1.9	(0.4)	41	(11)
PC1	-1.1	(0.2)	1.6	(1.1)	0.0	(0.5)	—	

698 For each variable, we calculated four parameters for each male (minimum, maximum, average, coefficient of  
 699 variation). Shown is the average (standard deviation) of each parameter from among the 24 males. ‘PC1’ is a  
 700 principal component that incorporates the maximum size, average speed and proximity to subject. Coefficient of  
 701 variation could not be calculated for PC1 because it involved division by zero. All values are shown prior to  
 702 transformation.

703

704 **Table 2**

705 Details of the principal components analysis used to describe 334 avian stimuli recorded in the call production  
706 experiment

Variable	PC1
Diameter (mm)	0.94
Speed (cm/s)	0.88
Proximity (index)	-0.89
Eigenvalue	2.45
Variance explained (%)	81.7

707

708 Component loadings are provided for the single extracted principal component (PC1). Analysis was based on the  
709 correlation matrix and unrotated components were extracted when eigenvalues exceeded 1. Sampling adequacy  
710 was assessed using Bartlett's test, and the hypothesis that the correlation matrix contained only zero correlations  
711 was rejected ( $\chi^2_3 = 595.8$ ,  $P < 0.001$ ). Component scores were generated using the regression method.

712

713 **Table 3**

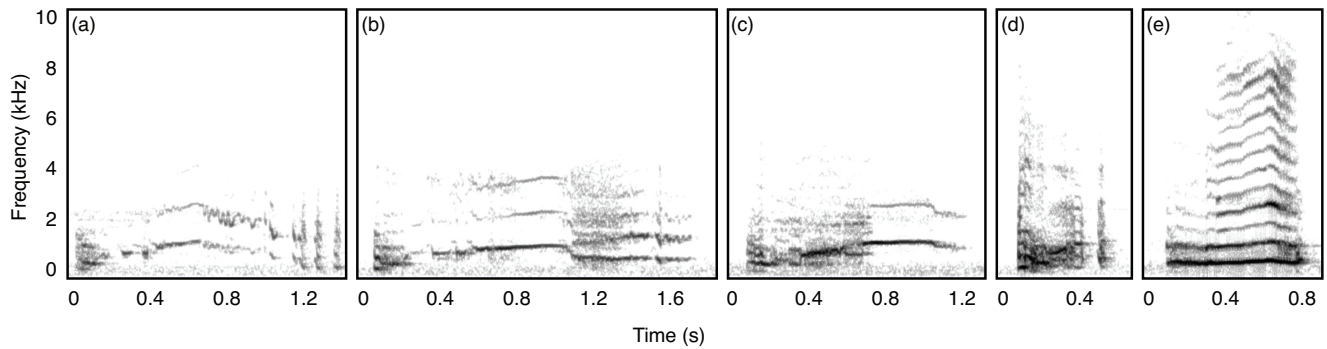
714 Description of the 20 aerial alarm calls that were used as stimuli in the call perception experiment

Variable	Minimum		Maximum		Average		Coefficient of variation (%)	
Length (ms)	473	(48)	1361	(180)	958	(75)	38	(7)
Amplitude (dB(C))	61	(4)	81	(4)	70	(1)	11	(2)
Dominant frequency (Hz)	655	(99)	1165	(214)	926	(30)	22	(1)
Entropy (%)	24	(3)	33	(3)	28	(1)	13	(4)

715 For each variable, we calculated four parameters for each male (minimum, maximum, average, coefficient of

716 variation). Shown is the average (standard deviation) of each parameter from among the four stimulus males.

Figure 1



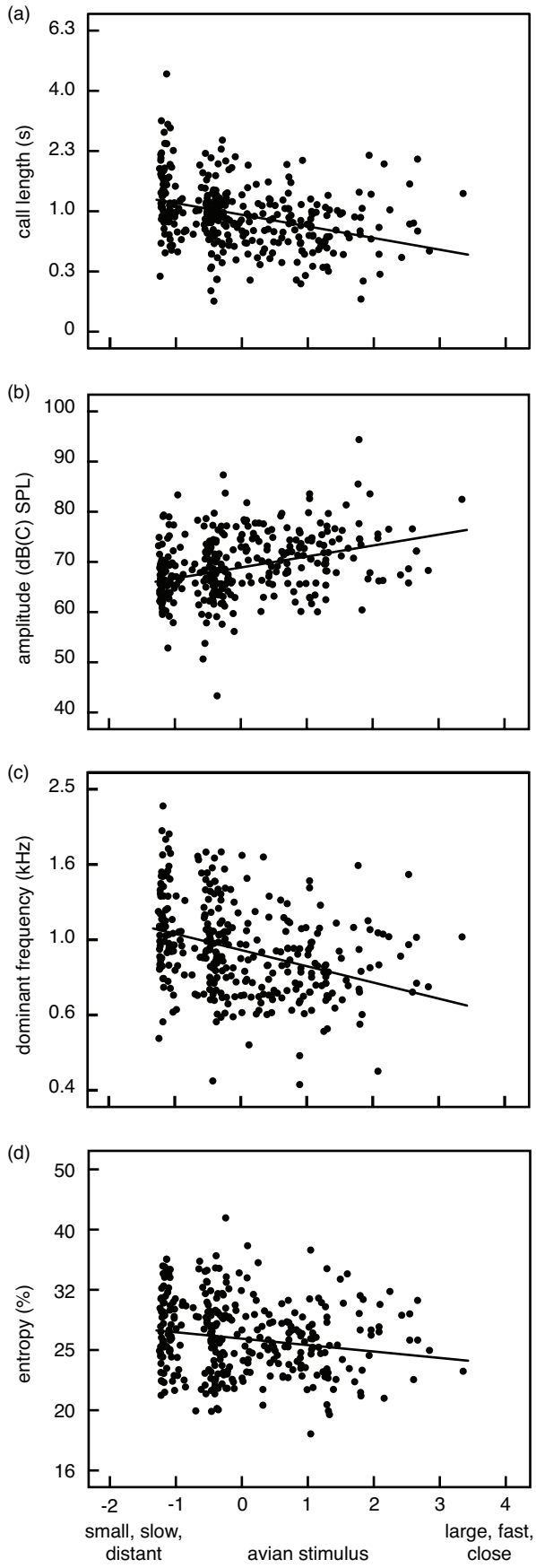
717

718

719 **Figure 1.** Graded structure of aerial alarm calls. The five calls shown here (a–e) were produced by a single male  
720 in the call production experiment, and were used as one of the four sets of playback stimuli in the call perception  
721 experiment. Calls are arranged in order of ascending amplitude because amplitude was the only acoustic feature  
722 that correlated with both avian stimulus attributes and receiver responses. Spectrograms were generated using a  
723 1024-point FFT, 87.5% overlap, and a Hamming window, which resulted in a frequency resolution of 43 Hz and  
724 a temporal resolution of 2.9 ms. Calls were filtered with a bandpass filter (200–12 000 Hz) and are shown at  
725 original amplitude. Greyscale represents an amplitude range of 50 dB.

726

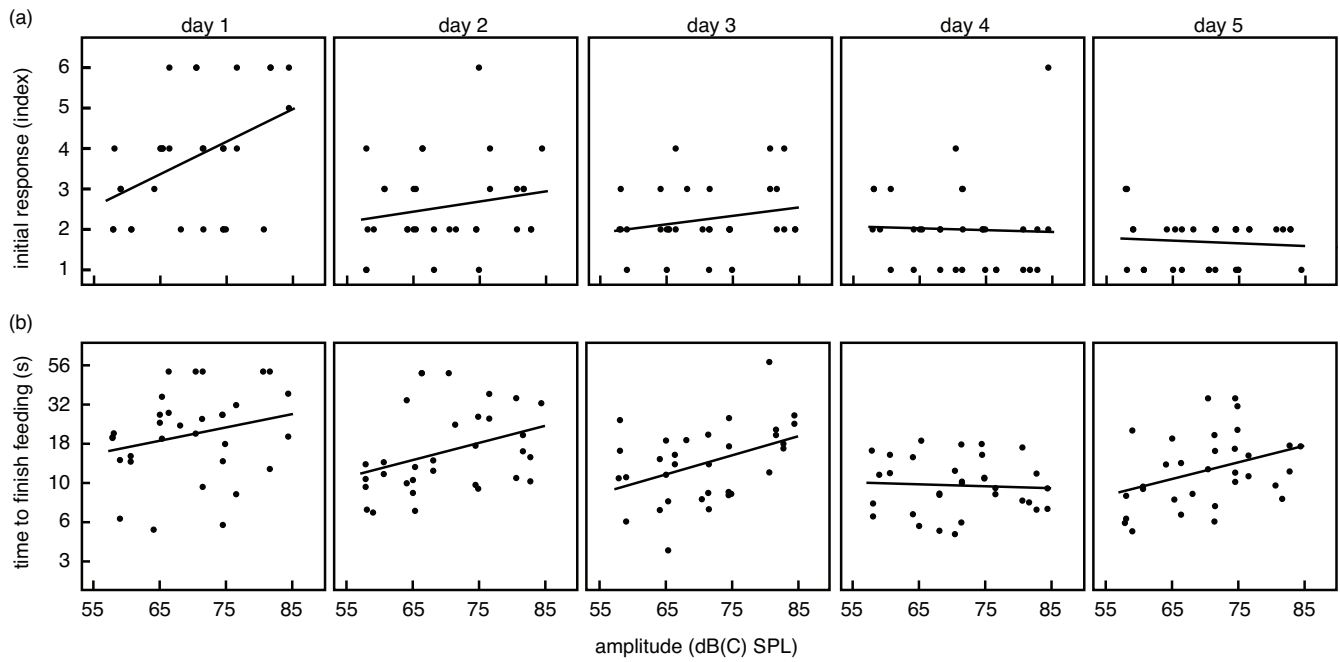
Figure 2





728 **Figure 2.** Relationship between avian stimulus attributes and alarm call structure. Shown on the abscissa is a  
729 principal component that incorporates the size, speed and proximity of 334 avian stimuli. Shown on the ordinates  
730 are the (a) call length, (b) amplitude, (c) dominant frequency and (d) entropy of the 334 corresponding alarm  
731 calls ( $N = 24$  males). Note the nonlinear ordinate scales for call length, dominant frequency and entropy (see text  
732 for details of associated transformations). To elucidate the relationship between avian stimulus attributes and  
733 within-male gradation in alarm call structure, we removed between-male differences in alarm call structure by  
734 centering each male's measurements for a given variable on that variable's overall sample mean. Regression  
735 lines were calculated from the slope and intercept coefficients generated by the linear mixed model analyses.  
736

Figure 3



737

738

739 **Figure 3.** Relationship between alarm call structure and female response over a 5-day test period ( $N = 32$ ).

740 Shown on the abscissa is the amplitude of the eliciting alarm call stimulus. Shown on the ordinates are (a) initial

741 response and (b) time to finish feeding. Note the nonlinear ordinate scale for time to finish feeding.