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- Sound properties affect measurement of vocal
 consistency in birdsong: validation of the Spectrogram
- **3** Cross-Correlation method (SPCC)

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- 10 **Keywords**: Acoustic similarity; Vocal performance; acoustic methods; measuring
- 11 birdsong; animal bioacoustics; motor performance; motor precision

12 Abstract

13 In songbirds, singing with precision (vocal consistency) has been proposed to reflect 14 whole-organism performance. Vocal consistency is measured using Spectrogram Cross-15 Correlation (SPCC), assessing the acoustic similarity between subsequent renditions of 16 the same note. To test whether the SPCC is sensitive to the acoustic discrepancies found 17 in birdsong, we created a set of 40,000 synthetic sounds, that were designed based on 18 the song of 345 species. This set included 10,000 reference sounds and 30,000 inexact 19 variants with known differences in frequency, bandwidth or duration with respect the 20 reference sounds. We found that SPCC is sensitive to acoustic discrepancies within the 21 natural range of vocal consistency, supporting this method as a tool to assess vocal 22 consistency in songbirds. Importantly, the sensitivity of SPCC was significantly affected 23 by the bandwidth of sounds. The predictions derived from the analysis of synthetic 24 sounds were then validated using 954 song recordings from 345 species (20 families). 25 Based on psychoacoustic studies from birds and humans, we propose that the sensitivity 26 of SPCC to acoustic discrepancies mirrors a perceptual bias in sound discrimination. 27 Nevertheless, we suggest the tool be used with care, since sound bandwidth varies 28 largely between singing styles and therefore SPCC scores may not be comparable.

29

30 I. INTRODUCTION

31 Birdsong is arguably one of the most complex acoustic signals in animal communication. 32 Although it is known for the diversity of songs and motifs, singing involves the execution 33 of complex motor patterns through the coordination of various muscle systems 34 (Suthers, 2004). As in other animal displays, motor performance of song relays 35 important information about a bird's quality that is relevant during social interactions 36 (Byers et al., 2010; Sakata and Vehrencamp, 2012; Botero and de Kort, 2013). One 37 important aspect of motor performance is *precision*, the ability to produce the same act 38 with minimal variation (Lane and Briffa, 2021). In birdsong, precision can be measured 39 as vocal consistency, which refers to the ability to produce the same note without 40 variation (de Kort *et al.*, 2009; Sakata and Vehrencamp, 2012).

41 A note is a short acoustic structure with a stereotypic shape within an individual's 42 repertoire, generally defined as a continuous trace in the spectrogram (Knudsen and 43 Gentner, 2010). When a bird produces subsequent renditions of the same note, it is 44 executing the same motor pattern multiple times (Allan and Suthers, 1994; Suthers et al., 1996). Hence, small discrepancies in the acoustic structure among renditions of the 45 46 same note within song must be due to variation in the brain and muscle activation 47 patterns during the execution. Most movements performed during singing occur inside 48 the body, hidden from view, but the song output is the manifestation of these motor 49 patterns. By measuring the acoustic similarity between two renditions of the same note 50 type, we can assess the precision in which the same motor pattern has been executed, 51 referred to as vocal consistency (Cardoso, 2017). Other types of variation in vocal 52 output, such as learning accuracy or syntactical arrangement are not included here as 53 vocal consistency. In some species it has been shown that vocal consistency is a signal

of fitness related to reproductive success, perhaps associated with the neuro-motor skills of the individual (Sakata and Vehrencamp, 2012; Botero and de Kort, 2013; Sierro, 2022). Furthermore, vocal consistency varies seasonally in relation to the breeding season, similar to seasonal changes in hormone levels and brain structures, and with age (Smith *et al.*, 1997; Ballentine *et al.*, 2004; Botero *et al.*, 2009; de Kort *et al.*, 2009; Cramer, 2013; Vehrencamp *et al.*, 2013; Sierro *et al.*, 2022) which further supports the importance of vocal consistency in communication of birds.

61 Playback studies have shown that songbirds react differently to high and low consistency 62 songs (de Kort et al., 2009; Rivera-Gutierrez et al., 2011). In fact, songbirds are highly 63 sensitive to minute variations in the acoustic structure of sounds (Margoliash, 1983; 64 Theunissen and Doupe, 1998; Lawson et al., 2018; Fishbein et al., 2019). Birds can 65 identify frequency discrepancies between sounds as small as 1% and they are most 66 sensitive to sounds within the range of 2-5 kHz, with decreasing sensitivity towards 67 lower and higher frequencies, resembling in general terms the audiogram curve of 68 humans (Dooling et al., 2000; Knudsen and Gentner, 2010). Field studies show that spectral characteristics of song seem crucial in species recognition (Falls, 1963; 69 70 Bremond, 1976; Fletcher and Smith, 1978; Nelson, 1989). In the temporal dimension, 71 songbirds are able to discriminate differences in duration when sounds are at least 14-72 23% different in duration, with shorter sounds being generally more difficult to 73 discriminate (Maier and Klump, 1990). These results are similar to those found in 74 humans (Maier and Klump, 1990), although birds seem to be more sensitive to temporal 75 discrepancies in complex sounds (Dooling et al., 2002).

Since birds are highly sensitive to minute acoustic discrepancies, the method to measure
vocal consistency must be equally sensitive. A commonly used method is the

78 Spectrogram Cross-Correlation (SPCC) algorithm that measures the acoustic similarity 79 between two sounds represented by two spectrograms (Clark et al., 1987). A 80 spectrogram is essentially a double matrix with frequency in the Y-axis, time in the X-81 axis and the sound amplitude in each time-frequency bin. Two spectrogram matrices 82 can be overlaid to estimate a correlation coefficient, as a measure of similarity between 83 the two sounds, but there are many options for how these two spectrograms are 84 aligned, a common problem when comparing time series. In the SPCC, this problem is 85 solved by the second step in the method, the cross-correlation algorithm, which 86 computes multiple correlations of both spectrograms at different temporal alignments. 87 By definition, such optimization process will result in a lower sensitivity of the method 88 to detect temporal discrepancies. After this process, the peak correlation coefficient 89 from all correlations computed is selected as the acoustic similarity score between the 90 two sounds (Clark et al., 1987). The cross-correlation algorithm is essentially an 91 optimizer (in the temporal dimension) that provides the similarity score between two 92 sounds, rendering an acoustic similarity score from 0 (no similarity) to 1 (identical). 93 The SPCC has been shown to be a suitable tool to measure vocal consistency (Khanna et 94 al., 1997), reflecting biologically meaningful variation in birdsong such as individual

95 differences or age variation (de Kort *et al.*, 2009; Rivera-Gutierrez *et al.*, 2012; Cramer, 96 2013). However, it is unclear how sensitive the method is to acoustic discrepancies 97 found within the range of vocal consistency in birds. There are also reservations as to 98 whether it provides an objective, universal tool to measure vocal consistency regardless 99 of the singing style or song attributes (Cardoso, 2017). This a common problem in the 100 study of vocal performance, since different singing styles might impose different 101 physiological challenges and therefore the assessment of vocal performance is difficult

to generalize (Cardoso, 2017). The bounded, standardized and unit-less nature of the
SPCC similarity score has been an argument for the universality of the index, but it is still
possible that the temporal or spectral properties of the sounds influence the SPCC
response to acoustic discrepancies.

106 Here, we investigate the response of SPCC to acoustic discrepancies in a controlled set 107 of synthetic sounds that can be defined and manipulated. These synthetic sounds 108 emulate whistle-like vocalizations of songbirds when upper harmonics are filtered out 109 by the vocal tract (Nowicki, 1987; Nowicki et al., 1989; McGregor and Dabelsteen, 1996; 110 Fletcher and Tarnopolsky, 1999). We used this set of synthetic sounds to test: 1) if the 111 SPCC method is sensitive to acoustic discrepancies within the range of natural variation 112 found in birdsong and 2) whether the SPCC response is influenced by the spectral or 113 temporal properties of sound. Because the cross-correlation algorithm of SPCC acts as 114 an optimizer in the temporal dimension, we expect that the SPCC sensitivity to temporal 115 discrepancies will be lower than to spectral discrepancies. We then tested the findings 116 and predictions derived from the analysis of synthetic sounds in a data base of natural song recordings from 345 different species of songbirds (20 different families) from 117 118 around the world. Finally, we compare the quantitative properties of SPCC with 119 published data on the perception of acoustic discrepancies by birds, evaluating the 120 validity of this method to provide a biologically meaningful measure of vocal 121 consistency.

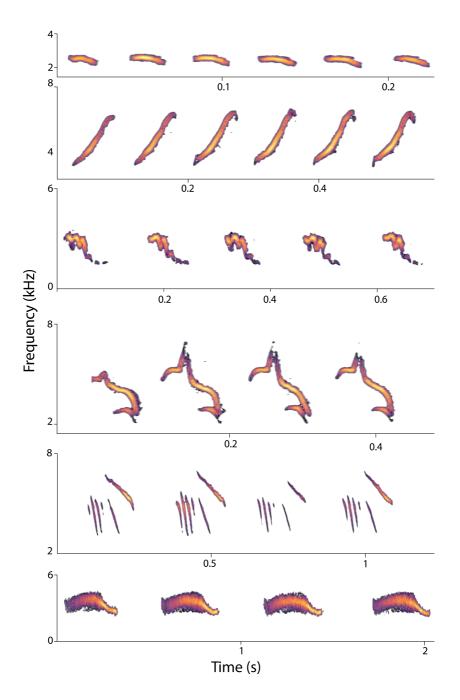
122 II. METHODS

123 A. Natural variation in birdsong

To create the synthetic sounds that simulated bird notes, we used data derived from the
analysis of 954 different recordings from 345 species that belong to 20 different families

126 (Acrocephalidae, Cettiidae, Cinclidae, Emberizidae, Estrildidae, Fringillidae, Icteridae, 127 Mimidae, Motacillidae, Muscicapidae, Paridae, Passerellidae, Passeridae, Petroicidae, 128 Phylloscopidae, Remizidae, Sittidae, Troglodytidae, Turdidae and Vireonidae). For all 20 129 families, we reviewed the song of all species (1,815 species in total) by listening to at 130 least two recordings from the Xeno-Canto repository (<u>www.xeno-canto.org</u>). Then, we 131 selected all those species that produced trills, defined as the consecutive repetition of 132 the same note type at least 5 times. A note was defined as a continuous trace in the 133 spectrogram, and the sample includes a large diversity of note's shapes (Figure 1). From 134 each species, we selected a maximum of 5 different recordings, with high signal-to-noise 135 ratio and selected a maximum of 5 different trills.

136 In each trill, we measured the duration of individual notes manually and tracked the 137 fundamental frequency (window size: 512 samples; 90% overlap, amplitude threshold; 138 15%). The fundamental frequency (FO) is a series of values measuring the peak 139 frequency of a note at each time point (window) (Figure 2B). The FO range was defined 140 as the distance in kHz between the highest and the lowest values of the FO, hereafter 141 referred to as bandwidth (Figure 2B). The central frequency was defined as the 142 equidistant point in the FO range, hereafter refer to only as frequency (Figure 2B). To 143 measure the within-trill variation, we calculated the percentage difference between 144 each note and the mean duration, mean bandwidth and mean frequency of all notes in 145 the trill. Estimating percentages with zero in the denominator can be problematic, but 146 we did not encounter any case where the mean bandwidth of all notes within a trill was 147 zero, see the next section.



148

FIG 1 – Spectrograms showing different types of bird sounds included in our multi species analysis. From top to bottom, *Acrocephalus paludicola, Setophaga pinus, Acrocephalus atyphus, Aimophila notosticta, Anthus spinoletta, Locustella montis.*



A. Study design and sound synthesis

To investigate the response of the SPCC score to acoustic discrepancies in frequency,
bandwidth and duration, we created a set of 10,000 reference sounds that were tonal
sounds with a gradient of possible frequency modulations, including pure tones, and no

156 harmonics. The frequency modulation followed a shape based on a sine function (see 157 Figure S1). These synthetic sounds had a central frequency of 4.1 kHz, matching the 158 mean frequency measured in natural birdsong. They ranged from 0 kHz bandwidth (pure 159 tone) to 1.64 kHz bandwidth, matching the mean bandwidth measured in birdsong, and 160 a note length between 28 and 172 ms, matching the natural range in note length 161 measured in birdsong as mean ± one standard deviation (SD). For each reference sound 162 we synthesized 3 inexact copies, one for each treatment group, hereafter frequency, 163 bandwidth and duration treatments (Figure 2). Each variant differed from the reference 164 sound in just one parameter. For the frequency treatment, we created inexact variants 165 that had the same spectrographic shape, bandwidth and duration but with a higher or 166 lower frequency (Figure 2A). For the bandwidth treatment, we created inexact copies 167 that differed in bandwidth from the reference sound, by stretching or shrinking the reference sound in the frequency spectrum while keeping the duration and frequency 168 169 unchanged (Figure 2B). Finally, in the duration treatment, we stretched or contracted 170 the reference sound in the temporal dimension to create an inexact variant that differed only in duration, but with the same bandwidth and frequency (Figure 2C). The full 171 172 synthesis process as well as the following acoustic analyses were conducted in R 173 software (Sueur et al., 2006; Ligges, 2013; R Core Team, 2022).

The range of the variation introduced between a reference and a variant sound was derived from the naturally occurring variation between notes of the same trill measured in our birdsong database. In real birdsong, we measured the absolute difference in frequency, bandwidth and duration between notes of the same trill, relative to the mean frequency, bandwidth and duration of all notes within that trill. The absolute difference was transformed to a percentage relative to the mean frequency, bandwidth or duration

180 found in that trill. Then, we calculated the mean of the differences per species and took the 75% quartile of the variation in frequency (6.0%), bandwidth (43.3%) and note 181 182 duration (15.4%) as the maximum variation introduced between reference and variant 183 sounds in each treatment of the set of synthetic sounds. Then, for each variant sound 184 we calculated the frequency and the duration as a percentage of the model frequency 185 and duration. In the case of bandwidth, we calculated a range of possible bandwidths 186 for variants, ranging from 0 to 0.71 Hz, which is 43.3% of the maximum bandwidth (i.e. 187 1.64 kHz). A random value within this range was then added or subtracted to the 188 bandwidth defined for the model sound. We did this because estimating a percentage 189 of 0 kHz, or very low bandwidth sounds like pure tones, would lead to very small 190 variations in bandwidth and therefore a bias throughout the range of bandwidth 191 discrepancies.

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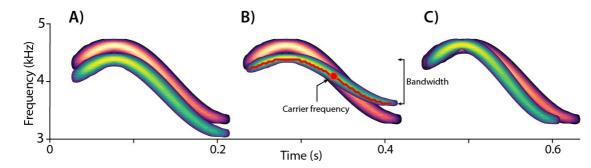
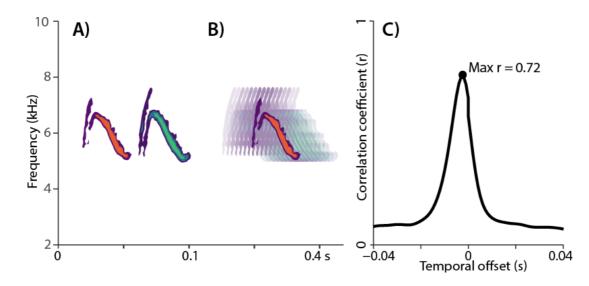


FIG 1 – Spectrograms of a synthetic sound built as a reference (red) and three inexact
variants (green), one for the frequency treatment (A), one for the bandwidth treatment
(B), and one for the duration treatment (C). Maximum, minimum and frequency
indicated in 1B, as measured in the fundamental frequency (shown in a red line)

198 C. Measuring sound similarity with the Spectrogram Cross-Correlation algorithm

We measured the acoustic similarity between each synthetic sound (reference) and
each variant using the SPCC algorithm (Clark *et al.*, 1987; Cortopassi and Bradbury,

201 2000). First, we computed the spectrogram matrices using an FFT algorithm with a
202 window size of 512 samples, 80 % overlap between successive windows and 'Hanning'
203 window type (Figure 3A). The algorithm overlays two spectrogram matrices at multiple
204 (consecutive) time offsets, calculating a correlation coefficient at each point (Figure 3B).
205 Plotting each correlation coefficient per time offset will produce a curve (Figure 3C),
206 with the peak correlation in the curve taken as the acoustic similarity between those
207 two sounds.



208

FIG 2 – Example of SPCC algorithm used to compare two notes of the trill of a blue tit
 (*Cyanistes caeruleus*). The two notes to be compared (A) are overlaid at different time
 offsets during the SPCC (B), producing multiple correlations coefficients, one at each of
 these alignments (C). The maximum correlation is taken as the SPCC score (C).

213 D. Statistical modelling of SPCC response

All measures are presented as mean ± one SD, unless otherwise indicated. Statistical
analysis was carried out in R software (Bates *et al.*, 2015; R Core Team, 2022).

We fitted Linear Models (LMs) to the SPCC score, the response variable, as a function of the difference between variant-reference sound pairs, taking the variation in frequency, bandwidth and duration as a percentage. In the case of variation in frequency and duration, the percentage was taken using the model as a reference (denominator). In the case of bandwidth, the model could be a pure tone (i.e. 0 Hz of bandwidth) and, to avoid having 0 as a denominator, we selected the highest value of bandwidth (between the model and the variant) as a reference (denominator) to estimate the percentage difference in bandwidth between model and variant. This solved the problem, as by definition there was no case where both variant and model were pure tones.

Three models were fitted, one for each treatment. The estimated parameter for the variable "variant-reference difference" would indicate the SPCC sensitivity to acoustic discrepancies. In the models, we also included the absolute bandwidth and note duration of the reference sound and the full interaction with the variant-reference differences, to explore how the acoustic structure of the note influenced the SPCC sensitivity. These variables, bandwidth and duration of model sound, were scaled and center to allow us to compare the impact regardless of different units (Gelman, 2008).

232 Based on preliminary analysis and given the bounded distribution of SPCC score 233 between 0 and 1, we transformed the response variable using an arcsine and a logit 234 function. Both transformations seemed appropriate in some part of the distribution 235 range but neither led to a reasonably good fit throughout the entire range. We observed 236 that there was a change in the slope or curve (SPCC sensitivity) towards larger values of 237 variant-reference difference, particularly in the frequency and the bandwidth 238 treatments. Thus, we decided to fit two models in each case, splitting the range of 239 acoustic discrepancies into two parts after calculating the break point by fitting a 240 segmented model (Muggeo, 2008). Data were then split into two groups: one with small 241 acoustic differences, those variant-reference pairs with a difference below the 242 estimated break point, and another with large acoustic differences for those variant-243 reference pairs with acoustic differences larger than the break point (Figure 4). In the

frequency and the bandwidth treatments, we fitted a LM with an arcsine transformation of the SPCC score for the small differences group, while for large differences group we fitted an LM with a logistic transformation of the SPCC score. For the duration treatment, a single model with an arcsine transformation fitted well for the entire range of acoustic differences. We considered a variable to have a significant impact on the SPCC score if the 95% confidence intervals (CI) did not overlap with zero.

250 **D. Testing the results with real birdsong**

251 We investigated whether the conclusions derived from the analysis of synthetic sounds 252 were reflected in real data using the multi-species song data. To this end, we first 253 classified all notes as being narrowband sounds, with a bandwidth lower than 100 Hz, 254 and broadband sounds, those with a bandwidth higher than 100 Hz. Then, all notes were 255 classified as similar in frequency if the difference in their frequency was less than 63 Hz 256 with respect to the mean trill frequency, or different in frequency If the difference 257 between the note and the trill central was larger than 63 Hz. The 63 Hz frequency 258 threshold was the median variation in frequency in all notes from the birdsong data set, 259 with respect to mean frequency within trill, dividing the whole sample approximately in 260 half. Similarly, all notes were classified as different duration if the difference between 261 note duration and mean trill note duration was larger than 4%. Again, this threshold was 262 the median difference in note duration in our birdsong data. This analysis allowed us to 263 explore the impact of bandwidth in measuring vocal consistency when two notes were 264 different in frequency or in duration. We used a Mann-Whitney U test to compare the 265 SPCC scores of broad and narrowband trills with the same and with different frequency. 266 Similarly, we compared the SPCC scores of notes of narrow and broad bandwidth that 267 were different in duration, but not in frequency.

268 **III. RESULTS**

269 A. SPCC response to discrepancies in synthetic sounds

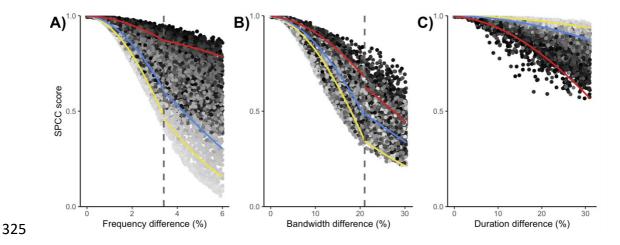
270 We found that the relationship between SPCC score and acoustic discrepancies fitted an 271 arcsine curve in the duration treatment and for small acoustic differences of the 272 bandwidth and frequency treatments. In the case of large acoustic differences in the 273 frequency and the bandwidth treatment, the observed pattern best fitted a logistic 274 curve. The breakpoints detected by the segmented models were 3.4% ± 0.12% SE in the 275 case of frequency discrepancies and 21.3% ± 0.36% SE in the case of bandwidth 276 discrepancies. In general, qualitative results from the arcsine and logistic models in the 277 frequency and bandwidth treatments were very similar, henceforth we will refer to the 278 arcsine curves (Table 1), although for completeness the logit models are presented in 279 Table S1.

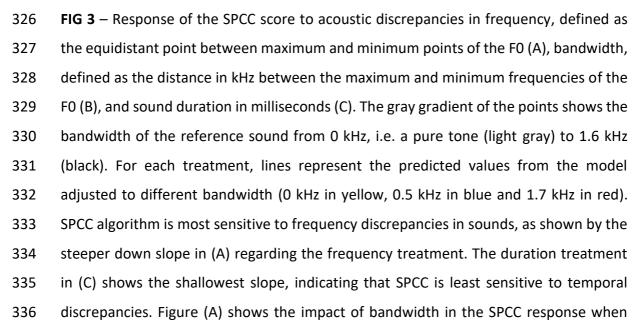
280 In all cases, the SPCC method was sensitive to acoustic discrepancies between 281 reference-variant pairs, as the SPCC score showed a significant negative correlation with 282 the acoustic discrepancies in frequency, bandwidth and duration generated between 283 the reference-variant pairs (Figure 5, Table 1). The SPCC method was most sensitive to 284 differences in frequency, with a mean decrease of 22% in SPCC score with an increment 285 of 1% in frequency difference (Figure 5, Table 1). SPCC was less sensitive to differences 286 in bandwidth as SPCC score decreased by a mean of 4.7% with a 1% increment in 287 bandwidth differences, and finally, SPCC was least sensitive to differences in duration, 288 as SPCC decreased by a mean of 1.8% with a 1% increment in the difference in duration 289 (Figure 5, Table 1). Note that these estimates considered the average change in SPCC 290 throughout the range of variations. We also found that the SPCC score was influenced 291 by the bandwidth of the sounds being compared in all treatments, but the direction and

292 size of the effect of bandwidth varied across treatments (Figure 5, Table 1). In the 293 frequency treatment, where sounds were only different in frequency, the SPCC score 294 was generally higher if the reference sound had a broad bandwidth than if it was 295 narrowband sound (Figure 5). This is shown in the model by the positive, significant 296 impact of model bandwidth and its interaction with variant-reference difference (Table 297 1). The steeper down slope in the SPCC response for narrowband notes in the frequency 298 treatment is shown in Figure 5A, with the bandwidth shown by a gray gradient. See also 299 a visual explanation in Figure 6A-B. For the bandwidth treatment, the impact of 300 bandwidth was similar to the frequency treatment but smaller (Table 1). In the duration 301 treatment, the impact of bandwidth was opposite, as the same difference in duration 302 rendered a higher SPCC score in narrowband sounds (Figure 5B & Figure 5C-D). In 303 general, shorter sounds rendered higher SPCC scores in all treatments, as shown by the 304 negative effect of note duration and its interactions with the reference-variant 305 difference (Table 1). This means that SPCC was less sensitive to acoustic discrepancies 306 of shorter sounds, although this effect was relatively small. Finally, we see a significant 307 interaction in all models of both bandwidth and duration with the model-variant 308 difference (Table 1). This indicates that the impact of bandwidth and duration explained 309 before is not homogeneous thorughout the range of acoustic discrepancies but 310 increases with increasing acoustic discrepancies. Such effect is represented in Figure 3A-311 C as all three lines showing sensitivity for sounds of different bandwidth converge in the 312 upper left corner.

313 Our detailed quantitative analysis allows to derive the exact sensitivity of SPCC 314 throughout the range of acoustic discrepancies, while considering the effect of 315 bandwidth and duration. To derive the exact values one can apply the estimated

316 coefficients using a linear model: SPCC = αp + βw – γd + $\delta(pw)$ + $\psi(pd)$. P is the percentage difference between sounds while the bandwidth and duration of the model 317 318 sound are represented by w and d respectively. Then, α is the model-variant coefficient, 319 β is the bandwidth coefficient, γ is the duration coefficient, δ is the coefficient for the 320 model-variant interaction with bandwidth and ψ is the coefficient for the model-variant 321 interaction with duration. In the models shown in Table 1 and S1, the explanatory 322 variables are scaled and center so we can compare the impact of each predictor. In order 323 to get the real values for sensitivity we provide the estimates derived from a model with 324 the original, non-scaled variables (Tables S2 & S3).





dealing with frequency discrepancies. Here, SPCC score of narrowband notes (light gray)
decrease in a steeper slope than broadband sounds (black). This effect is opposite in the
case of SPCC response to discrepancies in duration, where narrowband sounds (light
gray) have a very shallow slope compared to broadband sounds (black).

341 B. SPCC and bandwidth in real birdsong

342 The birdsong database included 28,266 notes of 3,100 trills in 954 different recordings from 345 species in 20 families (17.3 ± 13.5 species per family). As predicted by our 343 344 analysis of synthetic sounds, we found that SPCC scores were significantly higher in 345 broadband notes than in narrowband notes if they differed in frequency (Broadband: 346 0.80 ± 0.11, Narrowband: 0.68 ± 0.20 SPCC score, W = 13819, P < 0.001, 5% CI = -0.13, 347 95% CI = -0.05; Figure 5A and 5A-B) but not if they were similar in frequency (Broadband: 348 0.85 ± 0.09, Narrowband: 0.87 ± 0.08 SPCC score, W = 39891, P = 0.004, 5% CI = 0.009, 349 95% =0.045, Figure 5B and 5A-B). Similarly, analysis of real birdsong confirmed our 350 findings on the impact of bandwidth on SPCC between sounds of different duration. In 351 this case, broadband sounds showed significantly lower SPCC scores than narrowband 352 sounds, for the same difference in duration (Broadband: 0.84 ± 0.10, Narrowband: 0.87 ± 0.09 SPCC score, W = 31169, P < 0.001, 5% CI = 0.017, 95% = 0.052, Figure 5C and 5C-353 354 D).

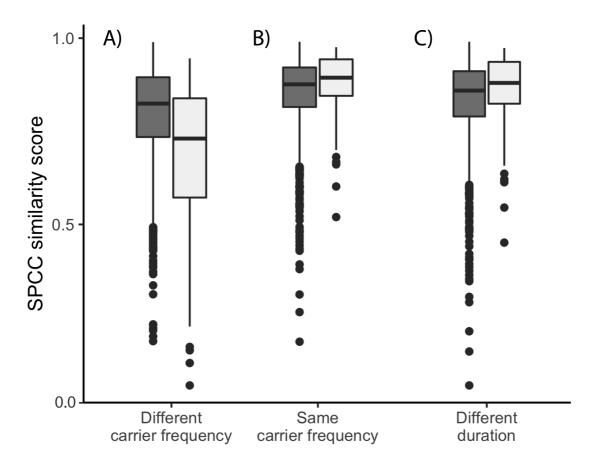
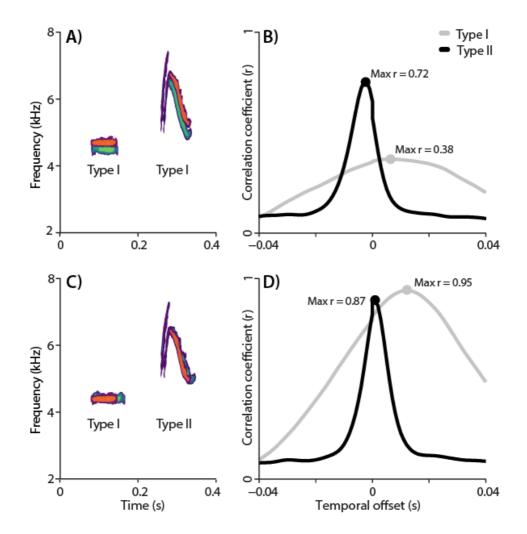


FIG 4 – Differences in SPCC score between broad band sounds (dark grey) and narrow 356 357 band sounds (light grey), measured in natural song of 345 different species. As predicted 358 by our analysis of synthetic sounds, SPCC scores of narrow band sounds with different 359 frequency, i.e. different FO but same shape and duration, is lower than in broadband 360 sounds (A). However, if frequency is the same, narrow band sounds have higher SPCC 361 scores (B). When two narrowband sounds differ in duration (but with the same 362 frequency) they show higher SPCC scores than two broadband sounds of different 363 duration (C).

TABLE 1 – Output of the model investigating the SPCC response to acoustic differences in frequency, duration and bandwidth, with an arcsine transformation of the SPCC score. For each fixed effect, the model estimate, the lower and higher CI and the T statistic are shown. The estimate of the parameter of reference-variant difference indicates the slope in the correlation between the SPCC score and the programmed difference between synthetic sounds, i.e., the sensitivity of the SPCC. The bandwidth of the sounds being compared has a significant impact on the SPCC score, especially in the frequency and duration treatment but with opposite effects. The duration of the sound shows a significant impact on the SPCC score as shorter sounds tend to have higher SPCC values, but the effect size is small.

	8	,				
Treatment	Parameters	Estimate	Т	CI 5%	CI 95%	Р
Frequency	Intercept	0.911	874.2	0.91	0.913	< 0.0001
	Model-variant difference	-0.22	-168.9	-0.222	-0.217	< 0.0001
	Bandwidth	0.08	61.1	0.078	0.083	0.26
	Duration	-0.015	-11.7	-0.018	-0.013	0.92
	Model-variant difference : Bandwidth	0.044	33.7	0.042	0.047	< 0.0001
	Model-variant difference : Duration	-0.009	-6.8	-0.012	-0.006	< 0.0001
Bandwidth	Intercept	0.998	742.3	0.998	0.998	< 0.0001
	Model-variant difference	-0.047	-269.6	-0.047	-0.046	< 0.0001
	Bandwidth	0.000	0.2	-0.003	0.004	0.83431
	Duration	0.000	0.2	-0.003	0.004	0.81524
	Model-variant difference : Bandwidth	0.002	14.4	0.002	0.003	< 0.0001
	Model-variant difference : Duration	-0.002	-14.1	-0.003	-0.002	< 0.0001
Duration	Intercept	0.999	1307.1	0.999	0.999	< 0.0001
	Model-variant difference	-0.018	-282.5	-0.018	-0.018	< 0.0001
	Bandwidth	-0.012	-10.6	-0.015	-0.01	< 0.0001
	Duration	-0.004	-3.6	-0.006	-0.002	< 0.001
	Model-variant difference : Bandwidth	-0.004	-64.9	-0.004	-0.004	< 0.0001
	Model-variant difference : Duration	-0.001	-22.7	-0.002	-0.001	< 0.0001



366

367 FIG 5 - Visual representation of the impact of bandwidth on SPCC sensitivity to 368 differences in frequency, using natural notes recorded from blue tit song. In green, two 369 notes types arbitrarily used as a reference. Another rendition of each note type is 370 overlaid using red colors. (A) depicts the two note types (green) and variants (red) that 371 differed mainly in frequency, with the associated cross-correlation curve in (B). The 372 broadband note (type II) produces a high SPCC score by shifting the red note earlier in 373 time. This is shown by the peak in correlation before zero in the X-axis in the cross-374 correlation curve for note type II in (B). Hence, for the same difference in frequency, the 375 SPCC score is lower in narrowband notes in grey (type I), compared to broadband notes 376 in black (type II). (C) depicts two pairs of notes that differ in duration, but not in 377 frequency, with the respective SPCC curves on (D). In this case, the red note in the 378 narrowband note (type I) shows a high overlap regardless of the difference in duration, 379 whereas lengthening a broadband note (type II) will change the shape of the note and 380 therefore reduce the SPCC score. In this case, (D) shows that for the same difference in

duration, narrowband notes in grey (type I) render a slightly higher SPCC score thanbroadband notes in black (type II).

383 IV. DISCUSSION

384 Our results support the use of SPCC to measure vocal consistency in birds, since the 385 acoustic similarity score derived from SPCC correlated significantly with the known 386 acoustic discrepancies between synthetic sounds as found in natural birdsong. As 387 expected from the optimizing algorithm in SPCC, the SPCC sensitivity to spectral 388 differences was higher than to temporal differences, when both parameters were within 389 the range of natural variation in vocal consistency found in birds. The relationship 390 between SPCC and acoustic discrepancies (sensitivity) was not linear and best fitted an 391 arcsine curve or a logistic curve. We also found that, in the case of spectral discrepancies 392 (frequency and bandwidth), the sensitivity of SPCC decreased as the note bandwidth 393 increased. This means that spectral discrepancies between narrowband sounds were 394 easier to detect than those in broadband sounds. The opposite pattern was found when 395 measuring differences in duration. Differences in note duration between broadband 396 sounds were easier to detect than those in narrowband sounds. In general, shorter 397 sounds produced higher SPCC scores, suggesting that SPCC is less sensitive when dealing 398 with shorter sounds. The findings derived from the analysis of synthetic sounds were 399 confirmed in our analysis of birdsong in 345 different species as: 1) broadband sounds 400 had lower SPCC than narrowband sounds when notes differed in frequency and 2) 401 narrowband sounds of different duration had higher SPCC scores than broadband 402 sounds with the same difference in duration. Quantifying the SPCC response along the 403 range of acoustic discrepancies found in birdsong allows us to compare the properties 404 of SPCC with the perceptual abilities found in birds, based on literature. Furthermore,

such a quantitative analysis permits researchers to determine the suitability of themethod for their study model and scientific question.

407 We found that the response of SPCC along the range of acoustic discrepancies was not 408 linear, which is likely due to the frequency resolution of the spectrograms that limits 409 detectability of small acoustic differences. As differences between two sounds approach 410 the frequency resolution, such differences are more difficult to detect and therefore the 411 sensitivity of SPCC is reduced. The frequency resolution is determined by the chosen 412 window length of the FFT algorithm. Increasing the window length would increase 413 frequency resolution and thus SPCC sensitivity to small spectral discrepancies but, in 414 turn, temporal resolution would be lower, compromising sensitivity of SPCC to temporal 415 differences. Choosing the appropriate window length is an important step depending 416 on the target of the study (Khanna et al., 1997; De Kort et al., 2002).

417 In birds, frequency discrimination threshold is estimated in 1% (Dooling, 1982). In our 418 simulated data, the SPCC score of acoustic similarity decreased by 4.4 % when two 419 sounds of intermediate bandwidth differ by 1% in frequency, strongly supporting this 420 method to measure the smallest frequency discrepancies perceived by birds. In contrast 421 with a 1% discrimination threshold for frequency differences, birds are only able to 422 detect discrepancies in duration when two sounds are at least 14% different in duration, 423 going up to 23% for short sounds of 100 ms (Maier and Klump, 1990). For a 14% 424 difference in duration between two sounds, the SPCC similarity score decrease by 3.1%, 425 again supporting the use of SPCC to assess the smallest temporal differences as 426 perceived by birds. Hence, the sensitivity of SPCC to detect temporal discrepancies is in 427 practice relatively similar to the frequency sensitivity if we consider the hearing 428 capacities of birds (Knudsen and Gentner, 2010). Technically, a lower sensitivity of SPCC

429 to temporal discrepancies is inherent to the method due to the cross-correlation 430 algorithm. By computing multiple comparisons at different time offsets, the SPCC 431 maximizes the chances of finding a match (i.e. optimization), while reducing the 432 sensitivity to temporal discrepancies. However, this step is important to solve the 433 problem of aligning two time series during their comparison. There are alternative 434 methods to solve the alignment problem (i.e., Dynamic Time Warping; DTW) but, unless 435 the optimization acts in the three dimensions (i.e. conducting a second cross-correlation 436 in the frequency axis), this step will always cause differential sensitivity in the acoustic 437 similarity score between spectral, amplitude or temporal discrepancies.

438 Another consequence of the cross-correlation algorithm, computing multiple 439 comparisons in time (X-axis), implies that the frequency bandwidth (Y-axis) influences 440 the SPCC score. Considering two sounds that differ in frequency, two pure tones of zero 441 bandwidth will be represented by two parallel lines in the spectrogram. These two lines 442 will never overlap regardless of the cross-correlation process sliding two notes along the 443 temporal dimension, rendering low SPCC scores (Figure 6). On the other hand, 444 broadband sounds of different frequency can be partly matched during SPCC if the 445 difference in frequency is smaller than the bandwidth (Figure 6). The better fit of a 446 logistic curve to large acoustic differences indicates that there is a threshold over which 447 SPCC is relatively insensitive to increasing differences, as the logistic curve will approach 448 zero asymptotically. Nevertheless, this is close to the upper range of the natural 449 variation in vocal consistency, which implies a minor issue in the use of the method.

450 When considering differences in note duration between sounds, two pure tones of 451 different duration are essentially two overlapping lines, meaning that the shape of the 452 note does not vary by changing the duration and thus, SPCC renders high scores.

However, the spectrographic shape of a sound with modulating frequency will change substantially by changing the note's duration, meaning that the SPCC score will decrease considerably in response to differences in duration. These examples show the impact of bandwidth on the SPCC response, indicating that the same difference in frequency or duration is not reflected with a similar decrease in SPCC if measured in two pairs of sounds with different bandwidths.

459 At first, the impact of bandwidth on SPCC sensitivity may appear a flaw, implying that 460 measurement of vocal consistency is biased, but this bias may not be a drawback if birds 461 show similar perception of acoustic differences. In fact, it is expected that sensitivity to 462 detect acoustic discrepancies by birds or other animals will not follow a linear response 463 and will likely be affected by sound structure, as found in the SPCC response. Common 464 starlings (Sturnus vulgaris), show lower discrimination thresholds when presented with 465 two pure tones than when presented with a frequency modulated tone (Langemann and 466 Klump, 1992). In humans, the threshold of frequency discrimination increases 467 significantly with increasing frequency modulation (Dooley and Moore, 1988). Similarly, when two pure tones of different frequency are presented in sequence, the threshold 468 469 of frequency discrimination is lower than when those two tones are presented by 470 modulating the first frequency into the second frequency (Fastl, 1978). These studies 471 strongly suggest that assessing acoustic differences is more difficult when the sounds to 472 be compared have frequency modulations. In this sense, the impact of bandwidth in the 473 SPCC score could mirror the perception of acoustic discrepancies in frequency, if birds 474 follow similar perceptual patterns (Knudsen and Gentner, 2010). Other psychoacoustic 475 studies in common starlings also show that sensitivity to frequency differences is higher

476 for longer sounds (Maier and Klump, 1990), again similar to our findings that SPCC477 sensitivity is higher for longer sounds.

478 If ability to detect vocal inconsistencies is higher in narrowband sounds, receivers could 479 show a preference for narrowband trills to assess motor performance skills faster and 480 more accurately. From the sender's perspective, less skilled birds could in turn use 481 broadband trills to 'hide' their mistakes, as inconsistencies are difficult to perceive. In 482 line with this idea, common nightingales (Luscinia megarhynchos) produce narrowband 483 trills (whistle songs) that are important in mate attraction, and vocal consistency within 484 those trills indicates male quality (Bartsch et al., 2016). It has been shown that 485 individuals with higher vocal consistency produced more narrowband trills (Bartsch et 486 al., 2016), which suggests that less skilled individuals could hide their mistakes by 487 avoiding narrowband trills. Common nightingales also produce fast trills of broadband 488 tones during simulated intrasexual conflicts (Schmidt et al., 2008), a type of song that is 489 challenging and indicates muscle speed (Podos, 1997; Podos et al., 2016). Hence, it 490 seems possible that individual song repertoire (i.e. diversity of song types within individuals) may serve to demonstrate neuro-motor skills in relation to different 491 492 performance constraints (Cardoso, 2017). In this case, narrowband trills may display 493 precision (Cardoso, 2017; Lane and Briffa, 2021) while fast broadband trills may display 494 speed (Podos and Nowicki, 2004; Lane and Briffa, 2021). This could help explain the lack 495 of ecological correlates of some performance parameters in studies that use multiple 496 song types (Cardoso, 2012).

In conclusion, our results support the use of the SPCC method to measure vocal
consistency in birdsong elements and possibly in other taxa. Our findings further support
multiple field studies that found meaningful correlations between vocal consistency

500 measured by SPCC and individual features or ecological factors. Despite these results in 501 support of SPCC as a biologically meaningful measure of vocal consistency, there are 502 some concerns. We found that the sensitivity of SPCC was not linear along the range of 503 naturally occurring vocal (in)consistency and that sensitivity to detect acoustic 504 discrepancies is significantly affected by frequency bandwidth. We suggest that these 505 patterns found in SPCC sensitivity may reflect a similar perceptual pattern in acoustic 506 discrimination in bird hearing. Further empirical studies are needed to explore bird 507 perception of vocal consistency and how it is affected by acoustic structure of sound. 508 Despite this, we recommend caution when comparing absolute values of SPCC scores if 509 the songs analyzed have different spectral structure (e.g. emitted by different species). 510 If appropriate, a possible solution would be to normalize or standardize SPCC scores 511 using statistical techniques to compare vocal consistency. Finally, we highlight the 512 importance of understanding and validating the methods of measuring song 513 performance to provide meaningful measures that can be generalized (Cardoso, 2017).

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649 Supporting information

TABLE S1 – Output of the model investigating the SPCC response to acoustic differences in frequency, duration and bandwidth, with a logistic transformation of the SPCC score. For each fixed effect, the model estimate, the lower and higher CI of the estimate and the T statistic are shown. The estimate of the parameter of reference-variant difference indicates the slope in the correlation between the SPCC score and the programmed difference between synthetic sounds, i.e., the sensitivity of the SPCC to detect acoustic differences in each treatment. The slope is significantly lower than zero, indicating that the acoustic similarity from SPCC is sensitive to acoustic variation in the three treatments. The SPCC is most sensitive to spectral differences (frequency and bandwidth) than in temporal differences (duration). The bandwidth of the sounds being compared has a significant impact on the SPCC score, especially in the frequency and duration treatment but with opposite effects. The duration of the sound shows a significant impact on the SPCC score as shorter sounds tend to have higher SPCC values, but the effect size is relatively small.

Treatment	Parameters	Estimate	Т	CI 5%	CI 95%	Р
Frequency	Intercept	0.74	39.8	0.811	0.659	< 0.0001
	Model-variant difference	-0.384	-32.3	-0.406	-0.361	< 0.0001
	Bandwidth	0.193	3.3	0.08	0.304	< 0.001
	Duration	-0.056	-1	-0.17	0.058	0.33347
	Model-variant difference : Bandwidth	0.102	8.3	0.078	0.125	< 0.0001
	Model-variant difference : Duration	-0.007	-0.5	-0.031	0.018	0.60
Bandwidth	Intercept	0.991	23.7	1	0.962	< 0.0001
	Model-variant difference	-0.069	-24.8	-0.075	-0.064	< 0.0001
	Bandwidth	0.305	4.4	0.17	0.435	< 0.0001
	Duration	-0.045	-0.6	-0.184	0.095	0.53
	Model-variant difference : Bandwidth	-0.007	-2.7	-0.013	-0.002	0.008
	Model-variant difference : Duration	-0.004	-1.5	-0.01	0.001	0.13

TABLE S2 – Output of the model investigating the SPCC response to acoustic differences in frequency, duration and bandwidth, with an arcsine transformation of the SPCC score. In this case, the variables "bandwidth" and "duration" were not scaled. The estimates from these models can be used to derive the sensitivity of SPCC at the chosen range of acoustic discrepancies and for a given bandwidth and sound duration

Treatment	Parameters	Estimate	Т	CI 5%	CI 95%	Р
Frequency	Intercept	0.999	183.3	0.998	1	< 0.0001
	Model-variant difference	-0.278	-66.7	-0.286	-0.27	< 0.0001
	Bandwidth	0	1.1	0	0	0.26
	Duration	0.006	0.1	-0.117	0.129	0.92
	Model-variant difference : Bandwidth	0	33.7	0	0	< 0.0001
	Model-variant difference : Duration	-0.216	-6.8	-0.277	-0.154	< 0.0001
Bandwidth	Intercept	0.998	247.9	0.997	0.999	< 0.0001
	Model-variant difference	-0.045	-83.8	-0.046	-0.044	< 0.0001
	Bandwidth	0	0.2	0	0	0.83
	Duration	0.011	0.2	-0.084	0.106	0.82
	Model-variant difference : Bandwidth	0	14.4	0	0	< 0.0001
	Model-variant difference : Duration	-0.059	-14.1	-0.067	-0.051	< 0.0001
Duration	Intercept	1	427.1	1	1	< 0.0001
	Model-variant difference	-0.007	-36.6	-0.008	-0.007	< 0.0001
	Bandwidth	0	-10.6	0	0	< 0.0001
	Duration	-0.1	-3.6	-0.155	-0.045	< 0.001
	Model-variant difference : Bandwidth	0	-64.9	0	0	< 0.0001
	Model-variant difference : Duration	-0.035	-22.7	-0.038	-0.032	< 0.0001

TABLE S3 – Output of the model investigating the SPCC response to acoustic differences in frequency, duration and bandwidth, with a logistic transformation of the SPCC score. In this case, the variables "bandwidth" and "duration" were not scaled. The estimates from these models can be used to derive the sensitivity of SPCC at the chosen range of acoustic discrepancies and for a given bandwidth and sound duration

Treatment	Parameters	Estimate	Т	CI 5%	CI 95%	Р
Frequency	Intercept	-0.983	239.8	-0.975	-0.989	< 0.0001
	Model-variant difference	-0.787	-166.1	-0.794	-0.78	< 0.0001
	Bandwidth	0.257	13.7	0.221	0.293	< 0.0001
	Duration	0.001	0	-0.036	0.038	0.96
	Model-variant difference : Bandwidth	0.09	16.5	0.079	0.101	< 0.0001
	Model-variant difference : Duration	-0.025	-4.6	-0.036	-0.014	< 0.0001
Bandwidth	Intercept	0.923	4.9	0.648	0.997	< 0.0001
	Model-variant difference	-0.044	-4.7	-0.062	-0.026	< 0.0001
	Bandwidth	0.001	4.4	0	0.001	< 0.0001
	Duration	-0.882	-0.6	0.962	0.763	0.53
	Model-variant difference : Bandwidth	0	-2.7	0	0	0.008
	Model-variant difference : Duration	-0.102	-1.5	-0.23	0.029	0.13

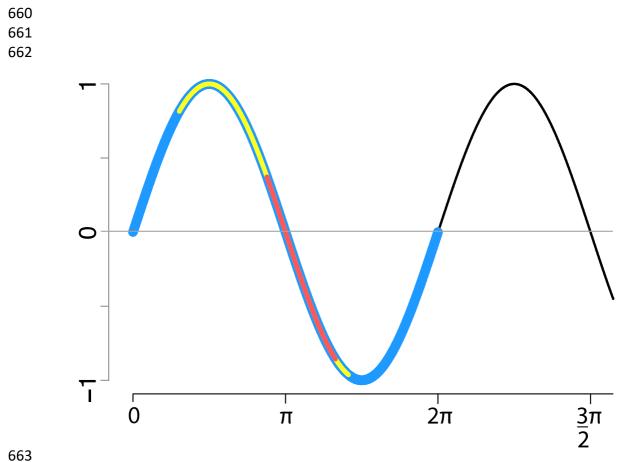


FIG S1 – The shape of the synthetic sounds was based on a sine shape with a starting 664 665 point in $sin(x\pi)$ and ending point in $sin(y\pi)$, where x could be a value between 0 to 1 666 and y could be a value from 1 to 2. The entire range is depicted in blue in the figure, 667 while the yellow and red traces show two possible shapes that would derive from the 668 process. The selected shape would then be transported so a central frequency of 4.1 669 kHz and then adjusted to match a randomly selected bandwidth between 0 and 1.64 670 kHz. In the case of a 0 kHz bandwidth, the resulting sound would be a pure tone, 671 regardless of the original shape.