

1 **How effective are acoustic signals in territorial defence in the Lusitanian toadfish?**

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17 Key words: Territorial behaviour, muting experiments, sound production, ‘keep-out’
18 signal, Batrachoididae, teleost fish.

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SUMMARY

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The function of fish sounds in territorial defence, in particular its influence on the intruder's behaviour during territorial invasions, is poorly known. Breeding Lusitanian toadfish males (*Halobatrachus didactylus*) use sounds (boatwhistles) to defend nests from intruders. Results from a previous study suggest that boatwhistles function as a 'keep-out signal' during territorial defence. To test this hypothesis we performed territorial intrusion experiments with muted Lusitanian toadfish. Subject males were assigned to three groups: muted, sham and unmanipulated. Males were muted by making a cut and deflating the swimbladder (the sound producing apparatus) under anaesthesia. Sham males suffered the same surgical procedure except the swimbladder cut and deflation. Toadfish nest-holder males reacted to intruders mainly by emitting sounds (sham and unmanipulated) and less frequently with escalated fights. When the nest-holder produced a boatwhistle, the intruder fled more frequently than expected by chance alone. Muted males experienced a higher number of intrusions than the remaining groups probably due to their inability to vocalise. Together, our results show that fish acoustic signals are effective deterrents in nest/territorial intrusions, similar to bird song.

Key-words: Batrachoididae, *Halobatrachus didactylus*, 'keep-out' signal, muting experiments, sound production, teleost fish, territorial behaviour

INTRODUCTION

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An individual fish's probability of surviving and reproducing depends to a large extent on its social behaviour in which communication takes a major role. In contests for the establishment of social hierarchies and territories, differences in fighting ability between contestants influence the outcome of disputes (Parker, 1974; Arnott and Elwood 2009). Fighting ability or resource-holding potential (Parker, 1974) is often related to size but also to other factors such as development of weaponry, physiological state, sex and residency status (Turner and Huntingford, 1986; Enquist and Leimar, 1987; Arnott and Elwood, 2009). Hence, when a contest occurs, opponents typically start a ritualized sequence of displays that facilitate opponent assessment and when asymmetries between contestants are large the contest should be settled without the need for costly combats (Enquist and Leimar, 1983, 1987).

Empirical evidence shows that acoustic signals are often used in mutual assessment during agonistic interactions in mammals (Clutton-Brock and Albon, 1979), birds (Krebs, 1976; Krebs et al., 1978; Searcy and Beecher, 2009), anurans (Davies & Halliday, 1978; Cocroft and Ryan, 1995) and fishes (Ladich and Myrberg, 2006), as acoustic features may signal the sender's quality. For example, lower frequency calls usually reflect larger body size and hence better competitive ability as larger vocal organs and vocal tracts produce and radiate lower frequencies more efficiently (Bradbury and Vehrencamp, 1998). Also, other features such as calling rate or sound amplitude may be condition-dependent (Clutton-Brock and Albon, 1979; Prestwich, 1994; Wyman et al., 2008; Amorim et al., 2010a).

In fish, different studies have shown that several properties of acoustic signals are related to body size. Larger fish tend to produce lower frequency (e.g. Ladich, 1998; Myrberg et al., 1993; Lobel and Mann, 1995; Connaughton et al., 2000), louder (Ladich, 1998; Connaughton et al., 2000; Lindström and Lugli, 2000; Amorim et al., 2013) and longer sounds (Wysocki and Ladich, 2001; Amorim and Hawkins, 2005; Amorim and Neves, 2008) than smaller individuals. Also, the level of calling activity may reflect the amount of fat reserves (Amorim et al., 2010a, 2013; Pedroso et al., 2013).

Less known is how acoustic communication affects agonistic interactions in fish, but in at least a few species sounds seem to be used in mutual assessment and influence fight outcome (reviewed in Ladich and Myrberg, 2006; Raffinger and Ladich, 2009). However, studies on the function of sounds in territorial defence are scarce, in particular

78 in its influence on the intruder's behaviour during territorial invasions by conspecifics.
79 For example, playing back click sounds to skunk loaches *Yasuhikotakia morleti* during
80 territorial intrusions made residents increase the number of lateral displays performed at
81 intruders (Valinski and Rigley, 1981) while the playback of ratchet sounds to brown
82 bullhead catfish *Ameiurus nebulosus* decreased the number of attacks residents made at
83 intruders (Rigley and Muir, 1979). These experiments clearly show that sounds can have
84 a major role in modulating the resident's territorial behaviour. However, the deterrent
85 function of sounds on territorial intrusion has seldom been demonstrated. Playbacks of
86 conspecific sounds in the absence of a resident male have been shown to have a deterrent
87 effect in territorial intrusion in the bicolor damselfish *Stegastes partitus* (Myrberg, 1997)
88 and in the painted goby *Pomatoschistus pictus* (Pereira et al., 2014), equivalent to the
89 'keep-out' effect of bird song (Krebs, 1976).

90 To experimentally test the 'keep-out signal' hypothesis we used the vocal
91 Lusitanian toadfish *Halobatrachus didactylus* (Bloch and Schneider 1801). In the
92 reproductive season (May to July in Portugal) males occupy rock crevices or excavate
93 under rocks in shallow water and attract females with long tonal sounds (c. 800 ms)
94 named boatwhistles (dos Santos et al., 2000; Modesto and Canário, 2003; Amorim et al.,
95 2006). Females deposit their eggs under the roof of the nest and males guard the eggs of
96 multiple females until the offspring is able to swim away (Ramos et al., 2012; Roux,
97 1986). During this period competition for nests is high (Amorim et al., 2010b) and males
98 actively defend the nest from intruders with visual and acoustic behaviour (Vasconcelos
99 et al., 2010; Ramos et al., 2012). Recently, Vasconcelos and colleagues (Vasconcelos et
100 al., 2010) have proposed that the boatwhistle functions as a 'keep-out' signal and
101 suggested that vocalizing may be an effective means to avoid territorial intrusions and
102 escalated fights in the Lusitanian toadfish. However, the study of Vasconcelos et al.
103 (2010) cannot exclude the possibility that chemical or other cues could also be at play.
104 As in the Lusitanian toadfish vocalizations are generated by vibration of the swimbladder
105 caused by the contraction of intrinsic sonic muscles (dos Santos et al., 2000), muting can
106 be easily achieved by making a cut and deflating the swimbladder under anaesthesia.
107 Males can still contract the sonic muscles but sounds become inaudible while fish
108 behaviour appears unaltered. Here we used muting experiments to verify if acoustic
109 signals (i.e. boatwhistles) are effective deterrents of territorial intrusions in this species.
110 We compared the dynamics of territorial defence and the number of intrusions among
111 muted and control males (sham-operated and unmanipulated residents). We further

112 tested if intruders fled more frequently than expected by chance alone when the nest-
113 holder made a boatwhistle.

116 RESULTS

118 Interaction dynamics

119 Intruding males readily swam towards the shelters and often approached and tried to
120 enter them. 44% of the resident males ($N = 57$) experienced approaches (range: 0–7
121 approaches) and 84% experienced partial or total intrusions (range: 0–9). Muted fish
122 experienced fewer approaches (Kruskal-Wallis test: $N = 57$, $H = 6.78$, $P < 0.05$) but a
123 greater number of intrusions ($H = 9.65$, $P < 0.01$) than other groups (Fig. 1). However,
124 the total number of interactions (approach + intrusion) did not differ among groups ($H =$
125 4.99 , $P > 0.05$; Fig. 1).

126 The resident males responded to intruders' approaches by either producing
127 sounds (mainly boatwhistles) or exhibiting escalated fight (mostly bites and mouth
128 wrestling). During intrusions, the nest-holder response was similar but the proportion of
129 escalated fights was higher and of vocalizations lower than during approaches (Table 1).
130 Also, in contrast to approaches, the production of boatwhistles could proceed to a fight if
131 the intrusion persisted. In many occasions there was no apparent reaction from the
132 resident ('no reaction').

133 We found an effect of treatment on the number of 'no reactions' (Kruskal-Wallis
134 test: Approach, $N = 25$, $H = 7.04$, $P < 0.05$; Intrusion, $N = 8$, $H = 10.56$, $P < 0.01$) but not
135 on escalated fights (Approach, $H = 2.36$, $P > 0.05$; Intrusion, $H = 1.76$, $P > 0.05$) during
136 approaches and intrusions. Muted fish showed the highest occurrences of 'no reaction'
137 (Fig. 2 and 3).

138 The duration of interactions (one-way ANOVA, $F_{2,144} = 1.22$, $P > 0.05$) and of
139 interaction sequences ($F_{2,88} = 0.91$, $P > 0.05$) did not differ among groups (Fig. 4). The
140 production of boatwhistles (BW) did not affect interaction duration in any interaction
141 type: approach, intrusion or approach followed by intrusion (two-way ANOVA, BW:
142 $F_{1,138} = 0.12$, $P > 0.05$; Interaction type: $F_{2,138} = 19.53$, $P < 0.001$; BW x interaction type
143 $F_{2,138} = 0.05$, $P > 0.05$).

144 There were marginally non-significant differences in takeovers of muted and
145 vocal fish nests ($\chi^2 = 3.25$, d.f. = 1, $P = 0.07$). Overall, nest takeovers occurred

146 infrequently. From the 48 residents that experienced intrusions 14 got replaced. 23% (3
147 in 13), 18% (3 in 17) and 44% (8 in 18) of unmanipulated, sham-operated and muted
148 males got replaced by intruders, respectively. We found no differences in time until nest
149 takeover (i.e. sequence of interaction duration until nest takeover) among treatments
150 ($F_{2,12} = 0.42$, $P > 0.05$; Fig. 4). In nest takeovers, intruders and residents were of similar
151 sizes, the difference in total lengths averaging 0.9%.

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Intruder response to resident's behaviour

154 Intruders usually fled when they heard a boatwhistle either while approaching (85%, $N =$
155 33) or intruding a nest (76%, $N = 25$). The probability of fleeing upon hearing a
156 boatwhistle was significantly higher than what expected at random both during
157 approaches (binomial test, $N = 33$, $P < 0.001$) or intrusions (binomial test, $N = 25$, $P <$
158 0.05). When intruders received escalated agonistic behaviour the chances of fleeing were
159 also higher than random (binomial test, $N = 46$, $P < 0.01$) and they fled 74% of times.
160 When intrusions were successful, the intruder either stayed in the shelter with the
161 resident or replaced him.

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DISCUSSION

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166 Experimental approaches to investigate the functional significance of agonistic sounds in
167 fish and other animals include sound exposure through playback, exclusion of fish
168 sounds by keeping opponents in separate tanks or by muting individuals, the use of
169 mirrors to level visual interactions while testing the function of sound, and correlative
170 analyses (Ladich and Myrberg, 2006). Although muting procedures are more invasive
171 than the widely used playback approach (McGregor, 1992), they avoid the concurrent
172 presentation of acoustical and visual stimuli in playback tests, usually needed to elicit
173 behavioural responses in fish (Ladich and Myrberg, 2006). Muting experiments have
174 only been carried out twice (Valinski and Rigley, 1981; Ladich et al., 1992) probably
175 because many vocal fish species have unknown sound-producing mechanisms (Ladich &
176 Fine, 2006). Also, when the mechanism is known its deactivation typically results in
177 behaviour alteration or impairment (Ladich and Myrberg, 2006). However, in fishes that
178 use swimbladder mechanisms, such as the Lusitanian toadfish, swimbladder deflation
179 does not impair sonic muscle contraction but results in a marked decrease of sound

180 amplitude (Skoglund, 1961), causing the sounds to become inaudible while behaviour
181 remains apparently unaltered. Such fish species are ideal to investigate the function of
182 acoustical signalling in social contexts since the outcome of social interactions of mute
183 fish can be compared with those of vocal animals. Unlike most fish species (Ladich and
184 Myrberg, 2006), the Lusitanian toadfish has the advantage that a great component of
185 agonistic interactions relies on acoustic signalling performed with no accompanying
186 visual displays (Vasconcelos et al., 2010), thus avoiding the confounding effects of the
187 interplay of different sensory channels. Here, we experimentally investigated if sounds
188 (boatwhistles) made by the Lusitanian toadfish have an active role in preventing
189 territorial intrusion by comparing territorial defence between muted fish and two control
190 groups, sham-operated and unmanipulated males.

191 We have found a treatment effect on the number of approaches and intrusions
192 experienced by nest-holders. Muted fish had more intrusions and fewer approaches than
193 the remaining groups, but experienced a similar number of interactions (approach +
194 intrusion). These results suggest that intruders initiated interactions equally with all
195 groups but were more likely to proceed to intrusions in muted males' nests, likely
196 because these males were not able to make audible sounds. This is consistent with the
197 observed high numbers of 'no reactions' in muted males. Muted fish likely attempted to
198 defend their shelters by making sounds but as this species typically emits sounds with no
199 accompanying visual displays, attempts of sound production could not be detected.
200 Similarly, in the grasshopper *Chorthippus biguttulus*, males muted by removing the
201 forewings, fictively stridulated with the same frequency and movement pattern as intact
202 animals (Kriegbaum and von Helversen, 1992).

203 Nest-holder Lusitanian toadfish mainly reacted to approaches and intrusions with
204 sounds and less often with escalated fight. There was no significant difference in the
205 levels of escalated fight among the three treatment groups either as a reaction to
206 approaches or to intrusions, suggesting that fish did not compensate the lack of ability to
207 produce sounds with increased levels of aggressiveness. In contrast, muted skunk loach
208 nest-holders increased the number of visual displays, but lowered attacks, in comparison
209 to control fish in an attempt to prevent nest intrusion (Valinski and Rigley, 1981).

210 Importantly, when nest-holders made boatwhistles, intruders tended to flee. In
211 this context, unmanipulated and sham groups had higher probabilities to prevent
212 territorial intrusion than muted fish. Escalated fights also had a higher than expected
213 chance to expel the intruder but are more costly since they can incur physical injuries

214 and are energetically demanding. Consistent with the ‘keep-out’ signal hypothesis, an
215 average of 44% of intrusions resulted in nest takeovers in muted males, against 20%
216 observed for vocal males. The difference in the proportion of nest takeovers seems to be
217 caused by the ability to vocalise and not by the intruder’s size. The difference in total
218 length between expelled nest-holders and successful intruders was for the three treatment
219 groups approximately 1%, though size differences in our experiments were generally
220 higher with a mean difference of 9%. Altogether, the present data strongly suggests that
221 boatwhistles are effective keep-out signals lowering the probability of territorial
222 intrusions and likely of nest takeovers.

223 Other studies support the importance of acoustic signals in winning contests and
224 in deterring territorial intrusion. In croaking gouramis *Trichopsis vittata*, territorial males
225 matched in size with the opponent, had a significantly higher chance to win the dispute
226 when they were vocal than when muted. However when size differences increased,
227 larger fish tended to win the fight irrespectively of the ability to vocalise (Ladich et al.,
228 1992). Muted skunk loaches, also experienced more intrusions than control fish, but
229 differences in sizes between contestants were not mentioned (Valinski and Rigley,
230 1981). The deterrent effect of sounds on territorial intruders has been shown for the
231 bicolor damselfish (Myrberg, 1997) and for the painted goby (Pereira et al., 2014) as
232 intruders took longer to enter unoccupied territories/nests associated with conspecific
233 sound playback then silent ones. The deterrent effect of agonistic acoustic signals on
234 territorial intrusions has traditionally been described for birds. Muting adversely affects
235 the ability to acquire and defend territories (e.g. McDonald, 1989) and song playback
236 from territories after removal of owners delays occupation by intruders (e.g. Krebs et al.,
237 1978).

238 Interestingly, the duration of interactions, including time to nest takeover, did not
239 differ between muted and vocal fish. This suggests that the dynamics of mutual
240 assessment, that involves reiteration of behaviours between opponents (Enquist and
241 Leimar, 1983, 1987), was not altered by differences in vocal activity.

242 Our muting experiments did not cause behavioural alteration in muted fish as all
243 groups showed similar levels of escalated fights. Muting experiments in different taxa
244 include examples where the subject’s behaviour remains unaltered after being silenced.
245 For example, croaking gouramis males prevented to make sounds by cutting the two
246 enhanced pectoral fin tendons involved in sound production, exhibited normal swimming
247 movements and agonistic behaviour (Ladich et al., 1992). Also in the study of Davies

248 and Halliday (1978) silencing toad (*Bufo bufo*) males, did not seem to alter reproductive
249 or agonistic behaviour.

250 Together, the results of this study provide experimental evidence of the deterrent
251 function of agonistic sounds in territorial defence in fish. We show that acoustic signals
252 play an active role in territorial defence, decreasing the probability of escalated fight and
253 of intrusions, and thus likely reducing nest takeovers.

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MATERIALS AND METHODS

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Test males and maintenance

259 Prior to the beginning of the breeding season, 60 artificial hemicylinder concrete shelters
260 (50 cm long, 30 cm wide and 20 cm height) were placed approximately 1.5 m apart in
261 three rows, along an intertidal area of Tagus River estuary (Military Air Force Base,
262 Montijo, Portugal; 38° 42'N, 8° 58'W). Fish spontaneously occupied these shelters and
263 we were able to access the animals at low spring tides during May to July 2011. We also
264 used some fish caught by local fisherman. Only territorial males were used and they
265 were identified by gently pressing their abdomen near the urogenital opening since they
266 have accessory glands that release a dark-brown seminal fluid, unlike females and
267 sneaker males (Modesto and Canário, 2003). We maintained experimental males in
268 round stock tanks (plastic swimming pools 2 m in diameter and water depth of 0.5 m)
269 near the intertidal toadfish nesting area where males were collected. Stock and
270 experimental tanks (similar to the stock tanks but with 2.5 m diameter) were placed on
271 the sand just above the high tide shoreline under a shadow net cover held 170 cm high to
272 prevent excessive solar radiation and water heating. Water temperature varied from 18 to
273 26°C (mean = 21.4°C), within the range of the estuary water temperature variation
274 during the same period. The renovation of water was done every 2–3 days, by pumping
275 water directly from the estuary. A natural light cycle was maintained as the stock tanks
276 were outdoors.

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Territorial intrusion protocol

279 We carried out territorial intrusion experiments with resident and intruder fish to
280 simulate a context of male–male competition during territorial defence. Resident males
281 were randomly assigned to three treatments: muted, sham-operated and unmanipulated

282 males. Males were muted with a small surgery after they were anaesthetized with a
283 benzocaine solution (0.1 g l^{-1}) for few minutes. A small incision in the abdominal area
284 was made and the swimbladder was deflated through a small cut to prevent sound
285 production. The abdominal opening was then closed with two stitches. To control for
286 possible effects of the surgery on toadfish territorial behaviour (apart from the ability to
287 vocalise) a sham-operated treatment was also used. Sham-operated fish were given the
288 same procedure as the muted group, except for the actual swimbladder cutting and
289 deflation, and were still able to vocalize normally. Fish were allowed to recover from
290 anaesthesia before being placed in the experimental tanks. Resident test males from the
291 unmanipulated group did not experience any surgical intervention and controlled for
292 possible effects of anaesthesia and surgery procedures. The muting procedure was
293 effective as muted males did not make sounds during trials and the number of resident-
294 intruder interactions with sound production did not differ between vocal groups (Mann-
295 Whitney test, $N_{\text{Sham}}=20$, $N_{\text{unmanip}}=19$, $U=154.5$, $P>0.05$; Table 1).

296 Two males from the same experimental group were placed in an experimental
297 tank at least 24 h before the experiments, allowing them to become territorial and
298 recover from possible short time surgery effects. Each experimental tank was provided
299 with two roof tiles as shelters (internal dimensions 44 cm x 18 cm x 10 cm) placed
300 approximately 50 cm apart and 20 cm away from the tank's border. All subject males
301 readily occupied the empty shelters and spent most of the time inside them, a normal
302 territorial fish behaviour (Vasconcelos et al., 2010). We placed one hydrophone (High
303 Tech 94 SSQ, High Tech Inc., Gulfport, MS, USA; frequency response: 30 Hz to 6 kHz
304 ± 1 dB; voltage sensitivity: -165 dB re. $1 \text{ V}/\mu\text{Pa}$) in front of each nest, at about 10 cm
305 from its entrance and from the tank bottom, attached to a wooden rod kept over the
306 tank. Simultaneous two channel recordings were made with a USB audio capture device
307 (Edirol UA-25, Roland, Osaka, Japan; 16 bit, 44.1 kHz acquisition rate per channel)
308 connected to a laptop and down-sampled to 6 kHz by Adobe Audition 3.0 (Adobe
309 Systems, San José, CA, USA). Recorded sounds could be attributed to a particular
310 territorial male because of the proximity of each hydrophone to one nest. Usually, only
311 territorial males produce sounds (Vasconcelos et al. 2010). In one exception (Amorim,
312 M.C.P.A, unpublished data), we observed one intruder producing boatwhistles during
313 intrusions but the resident's and the intruder's sounds could clearly be distinguished due
314 to spectral differences.

315 In each trial, two intruder males (unmanipulated) were placed sequentially in the
316 experimental tank with an interval of 30 min between intrusions and remained in the tank
317 until the end of the trial (following Vasconcelos et al., 2010). Our experimental design
318 resembles the natural chorusing aggregations, where territorial males nest very close
319 together (Amorim et al., 2010b) and may attract several competitor males (Vasconcelos
320 et al., 2012). It also aimed to increase the motivation of subject males to become
321 territorial and the number of territorial defence interactions during trials, thus decreasing
322 the need for a larger number of operated males. The first intruder was not removed
323 when the second was introduced in the tank to avoid disturbing resident males. Intruders
324 were chosen randomly from stock tanks but in most cases residents and intruders were
325 matched in total length (TL) (mean total length difference resident TL/intruder TL*100 =
326 7%; median = 1%; range: -20% – 67%) with only 9 out of 57 residents experiencing size
327 asymmetries larger than 20%. Fish were labelled with marks in the fins (i.e. a small cut
328 between the fin rays) to identify them during trials. Marking did not cause any
329 measurable change in behaviour. Behavioural interactions and sound produced were
330 registered for 60 min beginning with the placement of the first intruder male. After each
331 trial all specimens were measured for total length (TL) to the nearest mm and weighed to
332 the nearest g.

333 We used a total of 18, 20 and 19 resident males for the muted, sham-operated and
334 unmanipulated treatments, with a mean (range) TL of 41.3 (32.4–48.0) cm, 43.9 (36.6–
335 50.0) cm and 40.5 (26.8–47.0) cm, respectively. We used a total of 64 intruders with a
336 mean (range) TL of 39.5 (27.0–50.0) cm.

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Behavioural analysis

339 Behaviour of residents and intruders was assessed by direct observation, noted on paper
340 and later tallied following Vasconcelos et al. (2010). Sound production was
341 simultaneously monitored with headphones that were connected to the recording laptop.
342 For residents we registered the number of non-escalated behaviours including mouth
343 opening with the extension of pectoral fins and opercula and escalated behaviours
344 including chasing, bite attempts, bites and mouth–mouth fight. The number of times
345 residents showed no apparent reaction ('no reaction', i.e. no visible or audible behaviour)
346 upon and intruder's approach or nest intrusion was also measured. We also tallied the
347 duration of resident-intruder interactions and the sequence of interactions as fighting
348 duration is an important measurement of mutual assessment (Enquist and Leimar, 1983).

349 An interaction was considered a set of consecutive behaviours involving one resident and
350 one intruder that started with the latter approaching or intruding the nest and stopped
351 when he fled to the border of the tank or took over the nest. A sequence of interactions
352 were a set of consecutive interactions involving the same resident and intruder that were
353 not interrupted by an interaction with another male (usually the other intruder) and that
354 finished with either the intruder fleeing and not further resuming the interaction or with a
355 nest takeover. We tallied the number of sounds emitted by the resident including
356 agonistic boatwhistles or other sound types (grunts, long grunt trains, croaks and double
357 croaks; see Amorim et al., 2008 for a description). For the intruders we tallied the
358 number of approaches, intrusions in the nest (the intruder entering partially or
359 completely) and fleeing. We defined approaches when the intruder was at least within a
360 body length from the nest and an intrusion when the intruders managed to get at least
361 part of the body inside the nest. Fleeing consisted in swimming away from the nest.
362 These categories are mutually exclusive but may be performed sequentially.

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Statistical analysis

365 Statistical tests were performed with Statistica 12.0 for Windows (StatSoft, Inc., Tulsa,
366 OK, USA), and all data were transformed when necessary to meet assumptions of the
367 used parametric tests. When there was no normality of the transformed data, non-
368 parametric tests were used.

369 We compared the number of approaches, intrusions and total interactions
370 (approach + intrusion) experienced by the different treatment groups with Kruskal-
371 Wallis tests. Similarly the responses of the residents ('no reaction' and escalated fights)
372 were compared among treatment groups with Kruskal-Wallis tests. Post-hoc tests
373 available in Statistica and described in Siegel and Castellan (1988) were used for
374 multiple comparisons between treatments.

375 The effect of treatment on interaction and sequence of interaction durations was
376 tested with one-way ANOVA. We tested whether the production of boatwhistles altered
377 interaction duration with a two-way ANOVA that included the factor interaction type
378 (with three levels: approach, intrusion and approach+intrusion) and the factor
379 boatwhistle production (two levels: vocal and silent). We finally compared sequence of
380 interaction durations until nest takeover among treatment groups. Interaction and
381 sequence of interaction durations were log-transformed to meet the ANOVA
382 assumptions.

383 A chi-square test of independence was performed to test if when there was an
384 intrusion, the variable nest takeover (nest takeover *vs.* no takeover) was independent of
385 vocalising (vocal *vs.* muted). The probability of the intruder fleeing after receiving a
386 boatwhistle or an escalated attack by the resident, when approaching or intruding its nest,
387 was compared to what was expected to happen at random with binomial tests.

388 389 390 **LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS**

391 TL – Total length; BW – boatwhistle; NR – ‘No reaction’; EF – Escalated fight.

392 393 394 **ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS**

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399 procedures comply with Portuguese animal welfare laws, guidelines and policies. The
400 authors declare they have no conflicts of interest.

401 402 403 **AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS**

404 M.C.P.A. and P.J.F. were involved in conception of the study and experimental design.
405 C.C. conducted the study. M.C.P.A. carried out statistical analyses. M.C.P.A and C.C.
406 drafted the article. All authors revised the article.

407 408 409 **COMPETING INTERESTS**

410 No competing interests declared.

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417 **Table 1.** Mean percentage of reactions to intruder’s approaches and nest intrusions: ‘no
 418 reaction’ (NR), sounds (BW), Escalated fights (EF), and sound followed by escalated
 419 fights (BW+EF). Percentages were calculated per fish and then averaged. *N* – Number of
 420 fish that experienced an approach or an intrusion.

421
 422

Approach	Treatment	NR	BW	EF	BW+EF	<i>N</i>
	Muted	81.25	--	18.25	--	4
	Sham	39.6	56.6	3.8	0	13
	Unmanipulated	4.2	95.8	0	0	8
Intrusion						
	Muted	64.2	--	35.8	--	18
	Sham	32.2	37.7	20.7	9.4	17
	Unmanipulated	43.1	23.3	25.9	7.7	13

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 424

425 **FIGURE LEGENDS**

426

427 **Fig. 1. Number of approaches, intrusions and interactions experienced by resident**
428 **males of the three treatment groups: muted, sham-operated and unmanipulated.**

429 Dots indicate medians while boxes and error bars depict quartiles and range. Different
430 letters indicate pairwise differences given by post-hoc Kruskal-Wallis tests. In the case
431 of approaches differences are marginally non-significant ($P = 0.06$) and for intrusions
432 differences are significant at the level of $P < 0.01$.

433

434 **Fig. 2. Number of times muted, sham-operated and unmanipulated resident males**
435 **showed ‘no reaction’ or engaged in escalated fight when approached by intruders.**

436 Dots indicate medians while boxes and error bars depict quartiles and range. Treatment
437 had only a significant effect of on the number of ‘no reactions’ (Kruskal-Wallis test, $P <$
438 0.05). Post-hoc tests indicated only a marginally non-significant difference ($P = 0.07$)
439 between muted and unmanipulated males for ‘no reaction’.

440

441 **Fig. 3. Number of times muted, sham-operated and unmanipulated male residents**
442 **showed ‘no reaction’ or engaged in escalated fight upon intrusions.** Dots indicate

443 medians while boxes and error bars depict quartiles and range. Different letters denote
444 pairwise significant differences at $P < 0.01$.

445

446 **Fig. 4. Mean (and standard deviation) duration (s) of resident-intruder interactions,**
447 **sequence of interactions, and of sequence of interactions that lead to nest takeover.**

448 Temporal patterns of the dynamics of territorial defence did not differ among groups
449 (one way ANOVA, $P > 0.05$). See methods for details on duration measurements.







