

1 Cultural conformity and persistence in the context of differing site fidelity

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40 Abstract

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43 Animal culture often shows geographic structure, with nearby individuals sharing more cultural features  
44 than individuals further apart. However, spatial extent of cultural features, along with the degree of  
45 conformity to local cultures, vary within and among species. Further, rates of cultural change  
46 presumably also vary, though documentation of temporal variability lags behind documentation of  
47 spatial variability, and mechanisms driving this variation have not been sufficiently explored. We  
48 hypothesized that conformity to local culture in Oscine songbirds and the persistence of culture over  
49 time and space are promoted by habitats that facilitate stable populations in which individuals show  
50 relatively high site fidelity. In contrast, sites in which habitat features cause rapid population turnover  
51 provide more vacant territories and so more opportunities for colonization. Colonization should drive  
52 more rapid cultural change, either through adult colonists importing foreign cultural variants or young  
53 colonists making errors as they learn the local song. To test these hypotheses, we examined temporal  
54 and spatial variation in vocal culture in a songbird (dickcissel, *Spiza americana*) in two distinct habitats.  
55 As predicted, we found high average site fidelity in relatively stable native grasslands and much lower  
56 average site fidelity in nearby cropland sites which were disturbed by farming practices during the  
57 breeding season. We also found higher levels of average song similarity and slower average changes in  
58 vocal culture in our grasslands relative to croplands, though we found no evidence of different spatial  
59 scales of song similarity between these habitats. Although our conclusions are based on many recorded  
60 songs, automated assessments of song similarity underestimated the overall degree of song similarity.  
61 Thus we may have also underestimated the strength of the effects of time and distance on song  
62 similarity. Despite these shortcomings, our results call attention to the understudied but potentially  
63 important role of demographic factors influencing cultural evolution.

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65 keywords:

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67 apparent survival, dialect, dickcissel, site fidelity, song sharing

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70 Introduction

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74 Among the most widespread and conspicuous forms of (non-human) animal culture are the  
75 geographically variable songs of many Oscine songbird species (Lemon 1975, Krebs and Kroodsma 1980,  
76 Baker and Cunningham 1985, Aplin 2019). Understanding the substantial variation in conformity,  
77 geographic extent, and temporal stability of these vocal cultures is an interesting challenge for  
78 behavioral ecology. Researchers have been making progress describing and explaining this variation for  
79 decades (e.g., McGregor and Thompson 1988, Payne et al. 1988, Kroodsma et al. 1999, Beecher and  
80 Campbell 2005, Derryberry 2009, Ju et al. 2019), especially in describing differences among species  
81 (Beecher and Brenowitz 2005, Handley and Nelson 2005), but important potential drivers of cultural  
82 variation remain poorly explored. In particular, differences among populations within species in cultural  
83 conformity, geographic extent of culture, and temporal stability of culture, are not well understood. We  
84 know these differences exist among populations within species (e.g., Mundinger 1975, Bitterbaum and  
85 Baptista 1979, Kroodsma and James 1994, Tracy and Baker 1999, Lachlan and Slater 2003, Schook et al.  
86 2008, Ju et al. 2019), but the most well-understood system are those less common ones in which  
87 culturally divergent populations are geographically isolated (e.g., Laiolo and Tella 2005, 2007). The more  
88 common condition of a cultural mosaic in continuous populations has been largely unexplained (but see,  
89 Ortega et al. 2014).

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91 This variability in spatial or temporal patterns of song culture likely has multiple causes, but we are  
92 particularly interested in the possibility that variation in cultural patterns may be influenced by variation  
93 in population processes, such as the movement of individuals (Fayet et al. 2014, Aplin 2019), which  
94 might differ across landscapes. For instance, territory vacancies, created by emigration or by death,  
95 should influence song culture (Baker and Thompson 1985, Kroodsma et al. 1985, Goodfellow and Slater  
96 1986, Holland et al. 1996). In the most extreme cases where all individual members of a given culture  
97 either leave or die and a site is colonized by a new set of individuals, we would expect dramatic and  
98 immediate changes in song type and geographic patterns of song culture (Holland et al. 1996). This  
99 extreme scenario may be rare, but variation in rates of population turnover within a species is common,  
100 presumably because of variation in features of the habitat (Winker et al. 1995, Newton 1998), and might  
101 have major implications for vocal traditions. The manner in which population turnover influences vocal  
102 culture probably depends on features of the vocal culture. In the only study we know of to explicitly  
103 address the relationship between population turnover and vocal culture, the study species was one in  
104 which individual birds sing multiple different song types learned from multiple tutors and local vocal  
105 neighborhoods are characterized by the presence of diverse song types (Ortega et al. 2014). In this  
106 system, when poor habitat quality reduced site fidelity, vocal diversity declined because the new arrivals  
107 had fewer tutors, and thus fewer song types, to imitate. However, in systems characterized by vocal  
108 conformity rather than diversity, we might expect the opposite outcome (Ortega et al. 2014). For  
109 instance, in systems normally characterized by conformity, the larger the proportion of territories  
110 occupied by new birds (young individuals or immigrants attempting to match the local song) in a given  
111 year, the higher the proportion of individuals learning the local song that year. Making the typical  
112 assumption of a constant probability of copying errors per bird learning new song (Williams and Slater  
113 1990, Lachlan and Slater 2003), the more individuals that are learning song each year, the greater the  
114 number of errors that accumulate in the population (Goodfellow and Slater 1986). These deviations  
115 from tutors' songs, whether due to improvisation or learning error (Beecher and Brenowitz 2005), are  
116 presumably the ultimate source of new song types (Slater 1986). Thus, a larger number of novel song  
117 variants should occur in areas with low site fidelity, and this could lower the local level of song similarity

118 (cultural conformity). In some species, territories made available by death or emigration might also be  
119 filled by immigrant adults that bring song learned elsewhere, which could also lower local similarity and  
120 increase the rate of cultural change (Goodfellow and Slater 1986, Williams and Slater 1990). Further, not  
121 only might new song variants emerge or be introduced more rapidly in populations with high turnover,  
122 temporal change in song types within these neighborhoods could also be accelerated since elimination  
123 of song types due to drift should be more likely with few individuals persisting from one year to the next  
124 (Goodfellow and Slater 1986, Nunn et al. 2009). Therefore, if we wish to understand variation in cultural  
125 patterns in continuously occupied landscapes, we should study how habitat differences influence  
126 variation in territory turnover.

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128 An excellent species for studying the role of population processes in influencing patterns of vocal culture  
129 is the dickcissel, a migrant songbird breeding in grassland and cropland landscapes of the Eastern Great  
130 Plains of North America (Temple 2002). The vast majority of dickcissel males each produce a single song  
131 (Figure S1), at least while occupying the same breeding territory within seasons (Schook et al. 2008;  
132 Author 1 unpublished data). Dickcissels show striking geographic structure in their song culture, with  
133 most males in close proximity to each other singing almost identical song phrases, and the degree of  
134 similarity of phrase types often declining considerably as the distance between recording sites  
135 approaches 2 km (Schook et al. 2008). Circumstantial evidence suggests that male dickcissels learn their  
136 song from immediate adult neighbors after dispersal, but that adult males occasionally move to  
137 different cultural areas and sing the song they learned on their prior territory (see supplement). Thus  
138 we expected high territorial turnover in dickcissels to increase the number of new song learners and  
139 immigrants with new song types and thus accelerate cultural change. Further, we had a strong  
140 expectation that sites covered primarily by crops would have lower site fidelity than sites covered  
141 primarily by native grasslands. This is because dickcissel males tend to abandon territories in response to  
142 the loss of dense vegetation cover and due to reproductive failure (Schartz and Zimmerman 1971,  
143 Zimmerman 1982, Zimmerman and Finck 1989, Frawley and Best 1991, Igl 1991), both of which result  
144 from crop harvest during the dickcissel breeding season.

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147 We tested a set of hypotheses associated with spatial and temporal change in the vocal culture of  
148 dickcissels (see supplement for a description of the evolution of this project and the timing of the  
149 development of our hypotheses). In summary, we hypothesized that accumulation of imperfect song  
150 copies and/or the importation of song variants from elsewhere change local song culture over time and  
151 space in dickcissels. Further we hypothesized that these changes are more rapid in crop landscapes than  
152 in grassland landscapes because population turnover is faster in cropland due to crop harvest during  
153 nesting. We derived several testable predictions from these hypotheses:  
154 - average pairwise song similarity within a site will decline as the number of years between recordings  
155 increases  
156 - average pairwise song similarity within a site will decline as the geographic distance between the  
157 recorded individuals increases  
158 - adult male dickcissels in croplands will show lower apparent survival (which is a combined function of  
159 site fidelity and true survival), than those in grassland  
160 - overall levels of song similarity in dickcissels will be higher in the habitat with the higher apparent  
161 survival  
162 - habitat with lower apparent survival of male dickcissels will show steeper declines in average pairwise  
163 song similarity as a function of the number of years between recordings relative to the habitat with  
164 higher apparent survival

165 - habitat with lower apparent survival of male dickcissels will show steeper declines in average pairwise  
166 song similarity as a function of geographic distance between recorded individuals relative to the  
167 habitat with higher apparent survival  
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170 **Methods**  
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172 Field methods  
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174 We recorded songs and location data from both marked and unmarked dickcissels at seven sites in  
175 northeastern Kansas between 2006 and 2014 (Tables S1 – S3). We did not visit all sites in all years. In  
176 native perennial grassland we had four non-adjacent sites on the Konza Prairie Biological Station (KPBS).  
177 We also worked at three cropland sites with a mix of crops (primarily winter wheat and alfalfa) and  
178 weedy field edges within 40 km of KPBS. In some years we monitored sites throughout the breeding  
179 season (from late May or early June into late July), but in some other years, we made only a single site  
180 visit during the peak of breeding between late May and mid-June). Field observers were not blinded to  
181 the hypotheses, but relevant measurements were not made in the field, so the lack of blinding is  
182 unlikely to have introduced bias. Years with only one visit could not contribute to our estimate of within-  
183 season apparent survival or to within-male comparisons of songs across dates within years.  
184

185 In years in which we monitored a given site throughout the breeding season, we attempted to capture  
186 and mark all territorial male dickcissels present at that site, though typically a subset eluded capture. To  
187 capture a targeted individual, we played dickcissel song in the vicinity of mist nets placed near territorial  
188 song perches. Immediately upon capture we fitted male dickcissels with a uniquely numbered aluminum  
189 leg band and three (occasionally fewer in 2006) colored leg bands in a unique combination for later  
190 identification without recapture. By color banding birds and then observing these banded individuals  
191 from afar we were able to determine the identity, presence, and distribution of individual birds during  
192 and between years.  
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194 We attempted to record the song of all male dickcissels, banded and unbanded, on all sites monitored in  
195 a given year. We recorded most songs onto digital media using Marantz PMD680 recorders and  
196 Sennheiser ME66 shotgun microphones [Author 1 field teams], though we recoded some onto analog  
197 tapes using a Sony TCM-5000EV cassette recorder and Sennheiser ME67 shotgun microphone, later  
198 digitized using Raven 1.3 with default settings [Author 2 field teams]). For each male on each visit to a  
199 site, we attempted to record at least one clear song with limited background noise. Because an  
200 individual male sings only a single version of his song and a complete song lasts between one and two  
201 seconds (Schook et al. 2008), when our target bird was close and ambient noise was low we sometimes  
202 recorded for as briefly as 20 seconds to obtain several clearly recorded songs and our narration.  
203 However, various forms of noise, including the singing of other birds, usually led us to record for periods  
204 of one to five minutes or more to be confident that we recorded the single clear song that we needed  
205 for our analysis. The observers making the recording typically vocally identified each song by the target  
206 male on the recording immediately after each song was sung so that it could be distinguished from any  
207 other nearby conspecific songs. For banded birds, we generally confirmed the band combination both  
208 before and after recording. For unbanded birds, we only attempted to record all individuals at a site on  
209 one day of the season so that we could be confident that we were not recording any individuals twice.  
210 For all recorded birds, banded or unbanded, we recorded location coordinates with a GPS within 10 m of  
211 the location where the focal individual had perched while singing. For banded birds, we averaged  
212 multiple GPS locations across dates to generate an average location for a given year.

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### Mark-recapture analyses

To assess whether male dickcissels show higher site fidelity in the perennial grassland sites relative to the cropland sites, we used data from re-sighting of our banded males within and across seasons (Table S2). We analyzed encounter histories with Cormack-Jolly-Seber models for live encounter data available in MARK (version 8.1; White and Burnham 1999), and tested for differences between cropland habitat and grassland habitats in both apparent survival ( $\phi$ ) and detection probability ( $p$ ). We expect that apparent survival over two-week periods (the typical duration between our site visits) within breeding seasons is driven primarily by emigration, and so consider within-season apparent survival to represent site fidelity. Apparent survival over the non-breeding season can also be influenced by site fidelity if individuals survive but choose a different breeding location in the subsequent year. However, regardless of the extent to which differences in apparent survival between sites are driven by within-season or between-season emigration, or the extent to which they are driven by differences in emigration as opposed to differences in true survival, reduced apparent survival drives an increase in turnover. With greater turnover, there are more opportunities for cultural evolution with the copying of local song or the introduction of foreign song by immigrants.

We derived our mark-recapture data from two separate studies, one conducted by the Author 1 team, and the other by the Author 2 team. Some individual birds were monitored by both teams. In these cases, we included only the data from the Author 1 team so that we could test for differences in estimates derived by the two different teams (see below) without double counting birds, and so that we could maximize the sample size of the Author 1 data set, which included birds from both grassland and cropland sites. Because these two studies differed in capture and re-sighting methods, we tested for differences in their estimates of  $\phi$  and  $p$  while simultaneously comparing estimates of  $\phi$  and  $p$  between cropland and grassland habitats. The Author 1 team monitored banded male dickcissels at both grassland ( $n = 102$  marked individuals, of which 81 were resighted at least once) and cropland ( $n = 46$  individuals, 34 of which were resighted at least once) sites. In years when this team banded, they captured and marked birds for about two weeks beginning the last week of May, which is typically at least two weeks after male dickcissels begin establishing territories. These researchers then attempted to re-sight banded individuals approximately once every two weeks until late July. The Author 2 team monitored banded male dickcissels only in grasslands ( $n = 109$  individuals, excluding individuals also monitored by Author 1 team, of which 81 were resighted at least once), captured birds for banding throughout the season, beginning in early May, and attempted to re-sight banded birds most days until early August. To assess the differences between the two studies, we compared models that divided capture histories among three categories (1. cropland, 2. Author 1 grassland, 3. Author 2 grassland [3hab]) vs. models that pooled data from the two studies and thus allocated all capture histories to either 1. cropland or 2. grassland (2hab). We also assessed whether apparent survival differed between breeding and non-breeding seasons (ssn). Last, to obtain an accurate estimate of apparent survival within the breeding season, we tested for a difference in detection probability between the first and subsequent survey rounds within the Author 1 dataset, to account for the fact that an experienced observer (Author 1) always participated in the first round, but not in later rounds (rnd). We did not assess among-year variation in detection probability or apparent survival in our data because the mark-resighting data were too sparse. Our global model therefore contained a habitat and season effect on apparent survival (3hab x ssn) and a habitat and a survey round effect on the detection probability (3hab x rnd; Table1). We fitted all models with design matrices and a logit-link function. To avoid bias in parameter estimates, we generated weighted average estimates and associated standard errors across

261 all models using Akaike weights, and thus accounted for both sampling and model-selection uncertainty  
262 (Burnham and Anderson 2002).

263  
264 We were not able to test the global model for overdispersion via the  $\hat{c}$  procedure in MARK because  
265 of missing survey rounds in certain years. Instead, we assessed the potential impact of controlling for  
266 overdispersion by manually increasing the variance inflation factor ( $\hat{c}$ ) and assessing the resulting model  
267 ranking (Table S5). Our top set of models ( $\Delta AICc < 2$ ) all contained the same habitat variable (3hab) for  
268 both apparent survival and recapture probability for  $\hat{c} = 1 - 4$ , equivalent to overdispersion that ranges  
269 from absent to high (Burnham and Anderson 2002). This variable (3hab) was missing for some models in  
270 the top set ( $\Delta AICc < 2$ ) for apparent survival only when we set  $\hat{c}$  at or above 5, a level that would indicate  
271 major problems with model fit (Burnham and Anderson 2002). However, the variable 3hab was retained  
272 in all models of detection probability for all values of  $\hat{c}$ . Further, at all values of  $\hat{c}$ , the seasonal effect  
273 (ssn) on apparent survival was included. Thus, we conclude that our model selection results were robust  
274 to overdispersion.

275  
276 Song processing prior to analyses

277  
278 For our primary analyses, we selected one song per male per year, but if the same banded male was  
279 present at a site in multiple years, we included one song from each year available. We chose to include  
280 the same males from multiple years because (a) an important component of cultural stability is likely the  
281 persistence of individuals across years, (b) individual males can change their song from one year to the  
282 next (unpublished data) and so retention of males across years need not necessarily increase estimates  
283 of song similarity across years, and thus (c) a valid description of the degree of song stability over time  
284 should include as many males present in each year as possible.

285  
286 Prior to assessing similarity among recorded songs, we processed songs in Raven (version 1.4)  
287 (Bioacoustics\_Research\_Program 2011) to optimize comparability. We first identified a song in which all  
288 components were evident and high amplitude background noise did not overlap the song's notes. If no  
289 single song met these criteria, we isolated a sufficient number of songs (typically no more than 4) such  
290 that we could obtain a clear and unobscured version of each separate song phrase from among the  
291 selected renditions. We then filtered out noise below 2000 and above 20000 kHz. Most background  
292 noise is low frequency, and so filtering below 2000 kHz dramatically reduced noise. However, in most  
293 recordings, notes produced by other individual birds, by insects, or by various other sources in the  
294 environment remained in the recording. We could readily distinguish the notes of our target bird from  
295 these background notes by observing longer stretches of the recording to see the pattern produced by  
296 the target bird and the sources of background noise. We filtered out any background noise that  
297 approached the amplitude of the target bird's quietest notes by using the select option in Raven and  
298 filtering out the content of the selections.

299  
300 Creating a song similarity score

301  
302 We created a song similarity score between all pairs of selected songs within each site, including across  
303 years. This score combined an assessment of the proportion of phrase types shared between individuals  
304 multiplied by a quantitative assessment of similarity between phrases of the same type. The index  
305 ranged from 0 to 1, with 1 indicating the two individuals sang exactly the same song types with exactly  
306 the same arrangement of notes. We explain below how we generated these two pieces of information  
307 and combined them into a single, intuitive score of song similarity.

308

309 First, we classified all phrases in our target recordings into categories or types and quantified the  
310 proportion of shared phrase types. The classification is straightforward because we can readily divide all  
311 dickcissel song phrases into one of three categories. All dickcissel songs include phrases from at least  
312 two of these categories, and some contain all three (supplement). Based on the presence or absence of  
313 these phrase categories, we calculated Jaccard's Index of similarity ( $JI = \text{number of phrase types sung by}$   
314  $\text{both individuals} / (\text{number of phrase types sung by both individuals} + \text{number of phrase types unique to}$   
315  $\text{bird 1} + \text{number of phrase types unique to phrase 2})$ , in which 0 = no overlap in phrase types and 1 =  
316 production of an identical set of phrase types. Because Jaccard's index represents the proportion of  
317 overlapping categories, we were able to multiply this value by the quantitative similarity averaged  
318 across shared phrase types (see below).

319  
320 The quantitative similarity scores were based on comparisons between song phrases of the same type.  
321 We did not compare whole songs to each other because there is moderate variability within males and  
322 even greater variability among males within a local cultural area regarding the number of repetitions  
323 and timing of phrases, but high repeatability regarding the internal structure of phrase types. Thus  
324 focusing on individual phrases allows us to focus on the most consistent component of vocal culture,  
325 and it is this consistency we are seeking to quantify and explain.

326  
327 We based the quantitative assessment of similarity within a phrase type on two distinct methods  
328 (implemented in MATLAB version R2016b; see [https://\(redacted for double blind review\) for code](https://(redacted for double blind review) for code)). The  
329 first involved assessing the similarity of note positions as evident in sound spectrograms (Große Ruse et  
330 al. 2016, Sandsten et al. 2016). This multi-tapered spectrogram method compromises time and  
331 frequency resolution in order to reduce noise sensitivity. This is accomplished by using multiple windows  
332 or 'multitapers'. The second method, which is particularly useful in recognizing repeated patterns within  
333 phrases, is referred to as a filtered ambiguity spectrum (Große Ruse et al. 2016, Sandsten et al. 2016).  
334 This is derived with a Fourier transformation of the spectrogram in the two dimensions of time and  
335 frequency. Instead of marking the position or number of notes on the spectrogram, this method  
336 determines time and frequency differences between notes, and is thus robust to slight differences in the  
337 number or timing of repeated elements that are known to reduce estimates of similarity when focusing  
338 entirely on the spectrogram. Because these two methods provide different information regarding  
339 quantitative similarity, as part of the process of generating an overall average similarity score, we  
340 averaged the pairwise comparison values in the two similarity matrices (see supplement for more  
341 details, R versions 3.3.3 and 3.4.2, see [https://\(redacted for double blind review\) for code](https://(redacted for double blind review) for code)). We then  
342 averaged these quantitative similarity scores across all shared phrase types for a given pair of songs.

343  
344 Finally, we combined the Jaccard's Index of Similarity, which is the proportion of song types shared, with  
345 the quantitative measure of similarity between shared phrase types by multiplying the two to produce  
346 our overall song similarity score. This multiplication is justified because the quantitative score ranged  
347 from 0 to 1 with increasing similarity (as described in the supplement) for shared song phrases, but the  
348 score is discounted by the proportion of phrase types shared by multiplying by the Jaccard's Index,  
349 which also ranges from 0 to 1. Thus we generated an intuitive score of overall song similarity ranging  
350 from 0 to 1 between all pairs of individuals at each site (R versions 3.3.3 and 3.4.2, see [https://\(redacted for double blind review\) for code](https://(redacted for double blind review) for code)).

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356 Reliability of song similarity score



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358 To evaluate the effectiveness of our method for assessing song similarity, we compared the levels of  
359 song similarity between two different recordings of the same individual bird in the same year (Table S4;  
360 within-individual) with recordings across individuals (within and across years; between individual) at the  
361 same site. Our expectation was that if our method were useful, song similarity values within individuals  
362 should be substantially higher than average song similarity values from across-individual comparisons.  
363 Human observers can readily recognize that two songs recorded from the same individual in the same  
364 year are nearly identical, and that songs from other individuals differ, sometimes by a small amount, and  
365 sometimes radically. To assess the reliability of the differences between within and between-individual  
366 song similarity levels, we used boot-strapping to calculate 95% confidence intervals around the  
367 difference between within-individual and between-individual song similarity scores within each site (R  
368 version 3.4.4, see supplement for code). If song similarity scores from within individuals tended to be  
369 higher than scores from between individuals, the mean difference should be consistently positive.  
370

371 Our automated measure of song similarity was modestly effective at recognizing the similarity between  
372 songs produced by the same individual bird within the same breeding season. Within each of the seven  
373 sites, the mean song similarity score for comparisons between songs of the same individual produced on  
374 different dates in the same year was higher than the mean for between-individual comparisons (Figure  
375 1), although typically by only approximately 0.1 correlation units (Table S6). Despite the relatively small  
376 average differences, the 95% CIs of these differences were narrow in proportion to the size of the  
377 differences and in all but one case, the lower bound was closer to the mean difference than to zero. In  
378 no case did the lower bound of the CI encompass zero (Table S6). Thus, we have a consistent and clear,  
379 but relatively weak difference in average song similarity scores between within-individual and between-  
380 individual song comparisons. In light of this, it was not uncommon for single between-individual scores  
381 to be higher than single within-individual scores (Figure 1). Because human observers can readily  
382 distinguish songs from the same individual from most other songs produced at a site in a given year, and  
383 a human observer would almost never rank two songs from the same individual as less similar than two  
384 songs from different individuals, this demonstrates that the automated method produces only modestly  
385 reliable measures of song similarity. However, we opted to use the song similarity scores from the  
386 automated analyses because quantifying song similarity between all relevant pairs of songs with human  
387 judgement would be subjective and prohibitively time consuming due to both the large number of  
388 comparisons we wished to make and the difficulty in scoring degree of similarity in songs when those  
389 songs differ in many distinct ways. Further, in a preliminary analysis, we experimented with a common  
390 form of song similarity quantification known as cross-correlation (Raven 1.3; supplement), and  
391 concluded that it was unsuitable. The cross-correlation analyses, while also producing higher values of  
392 song similarity on average for within-individual comparisons than across-individual comparisons,  
393 produced a much higher range of variability for within-individual comparisons (Figure S2, S3) than did  
394 the method we used here (Figure 1).  
395

#### 396 Song similarity in biological context

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398 Two of our predictions were that song similarity declines across time and across space. To assess these  
399 predictions, within each of our four grassland and three cropland focal sites, we assessed the  
400 relationships between song similarity and both (a) the time (in years) between individual recordings and  
401 (b) the geographic distance between individual recordings (in meters). Because our measures of song  
402 similarity and temporal and geographic distance involved all possible pairwise comparisons within a site,  
403 each individual song was included in many song similarity measures. This violates the assumption of  
404 parametric statistics that observations are independent. So, instead we used a permutation method that

405 does not make this assumption (R version 3.4.4, see [https://\(redacted for double blind review\) for code](https://(redacted for double blind review) for code)).  
406 We used MRM (multiple regression on distance matrices) as described by Lichstein (2007) and as can be  
407 implemented in the ecodist package (Goslee and Urban 2017) in R. That is, we used linear models in  
408 combination with randomized procedures to test the linear association of song-similarities with space  
409 and time. In these analyses, the matrix of song-similarities was the dependent matrix, while the matrices  
410 of temporal and spatial distances were the independent matrices. MRM randomly permutes the rows  
411 and columns of the dependent matrix while the independent matrices remain fixed. We ran one  
412 thousand permutations to generate a null distribution of relationships between song similarity scores  
413 and both time differences and spatial distances. We could then compare the observed regression  
414 coefficients to this null distribution of coefficients to evaluate the strength of the evidence against the  
415 null hypothesis that song similarity was unrelated to time differences or spatial distance between  
416 recordings. We generated 1-sided p-values because our hypotheses had clear directional predictions.  
417 The p-value was the proportion of the regression coefficients from the permutation analysis that were  
418 more steeply negative than the observed coefficients. We predicted negative slopes for the  
419 relationships between temporal differences and song similarity and between geographic distance and  
420 song similarity. Further, we considered the possibility that as time between recordings increased, the  
421 geographic distance between those recordings would become a less effective predictor of the similarity  
422 between those songs since song features could shift on the landscape across years. To evaluate this, we  
423 tested for a positive interaction term between time and distance. We evaluated the importance of this  
424 interaction by comparing the change in the  $R^2$  value between the model containing only main effects  
425 and the model with the interaction term. We used the lm function in base R (version 3.4.4,  
426 (R\_Core\_Team 2019) to generate parameter estimates for each permutation using the methods  
427 underpinning the ecodist package (Goslee and Urban 2017) as a model. We did not use the ecodist  
428 package itself because that package did not allow us to assess the interaction models, nor could it  
429 produce 1-tailed p-values.

430  
431 Two other predictions of our hypotheses are that song similarity should decline more steeply over time  
432 and over distance in locations where site fidelity is lower (cropland, see results) than in locations where  
433 site fidelity is higher (grassland, see results). The analyses described above provided slopes and p-values  
434 for the relationships between time and song similarity and between distance and song similarity within  
435 each of our seven sites. This allowed us to assess our prediction qualitatively by simply asking if the  
436 slopes were steeper for the three cropland sites than for the four grassland sites. However, to estimate  
437 how likely it was that we would observe a difference in slopes (for song similarity vs. time lag and for  
438 song similarity vs. geographic distance) as extreme as this by chance alone, we conducted another round  
439 of permutations (R version 3.4.4, see [https://\(redacted for double blind review\) for code](https://(redacted for double blind review) for code)). In this  
440 analysis, we permuted the song-similarity matrix for each of the seven sites 1000 times, each time  
441 calculating the corresponding slope coefficients for each site for time vs. song similarity and for distance  
442 vs. song similarity. Then, separately for the time and distance slopes, we calculated the average slope  
443 for each of the two location types (cropland and grassland) and then calculated the difference in  
444 average slope between the two location types. That is, for each permutation we calculated the slope of  
445 the four grassland sites and three croplands sites, took the average of the slopes for the grassland sites  
446 and the average of the slopes for the cropland sites, then took the difference between average slopes of  
447 cropland and grassland sites. We repeated this process 1000 times. If our hypothesis were correct, we  
448 expected our observed difference in average slope between cropland and grassland sites to be greater  
449 than most of the simulated differences. We assessed this prediction separately for the time vs. song  
450 similarity slopes and the distance vs. song similarity slopes.

451

452 In all our statistical analyses we follow recommendations to avoid dichotomous determinations of  
453 ‘significance’ and instead to focus on strength of evidence, statistical clarity, and on avoiding over-  
454 confidence in results from single studies (Stoehr 1999, Amrhein et al. 2017, Amrhein et al. 2019, Dushoff  
455 et al. 2019). This means that we evaluated p-values as continuous evidence bounded by 0, representing  
456 “complete incompatibility” between the data and the null hypothesis, and 1, representing “perfect  
457 compatibility” with the null hypothesis (Greenland et al. 2016). Small differences in p-values, such as  
458 between 0.1 and 0.05 show low repeatability, and thus should not be interpreted as containing  
459 meaningfully different information (Amrhein et al. 2017). In cases of relatively large p-values, indicating  
460 that the data would not be particularly unlikely given the null, we interpret the observed pattern with  
461 caution and withhold strong conclusions until further data can be gathered (Amrhein et al. 2017).

462

## 463 **Results**

464

### 465 **Mark-Recapture Analyses**

466

467 We found strong support for a difference between our grassland and cropland habitats in all three  
468 models with  $\Delta AICc < 2$  for both apparent survival and detection probability (3hab; Table 1). This variable  
469 (3hab) also reflects the influence of differences in field methods between the Author 1 and Author 2  
470 grassland data sets on estimates of apparent survival and detection probability. Ignoring the differences  
471 in field methods between the Author 1 and Author 2 data sets by combining the apparent survival and  
472 detection probability for both grassland datasets (2hab) had much less support, as that variable did not  
473 occur in any of the six highest-ranked models (Table 1). We also found strong support for a difference in  
474 apparent survival within a breeding season versus over the non-breeding season (ssn), as this variable  
475 was present in all three models with  $\Delta AICc < 2$  (Table 1). Further, we considered the possibility of a  
476 difference in detection probability between the first and subsequent survey rounds within a breeding  
477 season in the Author 1 dataset (rnd; included because of differences in observers between first and later  
478 survey rounds). Evidence for the inclusion of such an effect and whether it was similar across habitat  
479 types was mixed, as the variable was included in only two of the three highest-ranked models (Table 1).  
480 To control for this model uncertainty, we model-averaged all our estimates.

481

482 Estimated rates of apparent survival were substantially lower on cropland sites than on grassland sites  
483 when examining the Author 1 data (with standardized methods across grassland and cropland sites).  
484 Within a breeding season, dickcissels that bred in croplands had a 19.2% (95% CI = 10.4 – 27.9%) chance  
485 of disappearing (dying or emigrating) in the 14-day period between survey rounds. However, birds  
486 breeding in grassland had only a 7.2% (Author 1; 95% CI = 3.7 – 10.7%) and 8.7% (Author 2; 95% CI = 4.1  
487 – 13.3%) chance of disappearing over a 14 day period (Table 2). Over the 310 day period between  
488 breeding seasons, apparent survival estimates had larger confidence intervals that broadly overlapped  
489 between grassland and cropland sites (Table 2). When assessed across the entire year (Table 2), as is  
490 relevant for overall population turnover, we found annual apparent survival for cropland that was less  
491 than half of that for grassland for the Author 1 data. Annual apparent survival for grassland from the  
492 Author 2 data was intermediate. Daily rates of apparent survival were higher in the non-breeding season  
493 than in the breeding season (Table 2), as would be expected if male dickcissels sometimes abandon  
494 territories in mid-season in response to local conditions. The detection probability of dickcissels was  
495 highest in grassland habitats within the Author 2 dataset (0.928; CI = 0.875 – 0.960) as expected given  
496 the more intense survey methods, and was somewhat higher in grassland habitats (0.752; CI = 0.691 -  
497 0.804) than in cropland habitats (0.591; CI = 0.441 - 0.726) within the Author 1 dataset, but with  
498 overlapping confidence intervals (Table 3; we report weighted average estimates for all variables  
499 included in any candidate model in Table S7).

500  
501  
502 Song Similarity Analyses  
503

504 The median song similarity scores based on within site and within year comparisons, but averaged  
505 across all years, were higher at our grassland sites than at our cropland sites (Figure 1). When we  
506 instead looked at song similarity scores from individual years separately, in three of five years all  
507 grassland sites had higher median song similarity than all cropland sites. In the other two years, one  
508 grassland site had a median song similarity value lower than a cropland site, but all the other grassland  
509 sites had higher values than all cropland sites (Figure S4). However, we observed considerable variability  
510 in song similarity within both types of sites, and interquartile ranges of grassland and cropland sites  
511 often overlapped, thus undermining statistical clarity. The intercepts from the linear models predicting  
512 song similarity from time and distance were all larger from the grassland sites than the cropland sites in  
513 both the model with only main effects of distance and time (Table 4) and the model including an  
514 interaction term between distance and time (Table 5). These differences are consistent with higher song  
515 similarity in grasslands than in croplands within a given year (time 0) and between individuals in close  
516 proximity (distance near 0).

517  
518 All the relationships between song similarity and time within sites had negative slopes (Table 4, 5),  
519 though p-values for each site ranged from small ( $p_{\text{rand}} < 0.001$ ), indicating clear evidence of the negative  
520 slope to moderately large ( $p_{\text{rand}} = 0.33$ ), providing much weaker evidence of a negative slope. Although  
521 these variable p-values suggest the relationships varied in strength across sites, negative slopes are  
522 consistent with song similarity values across years having declined as the number of intervening years  
523 increased. The three steepest declines of song similarity over time in the main-effects model were in the  
524 three cropland sites (Table 4), and in the interaction model, three of the four steepest declines in song  
525 similarity with time were in the three cropland sites (Table 5). The difference between the average slope  
526 for cropland sites and the average slope for grassland sites in the main effects model was larger than  
527 88% of these differences when randomized through permutation analyses. This is equivalent to a p-  
528 value of 0.12, which should be interpreted in light of our small sample size ( $n = 7$ ) as only moderate  
529 evidence of a more rapid decline in song similarity over time in croplands than in grasslands.

530  
531 At six of the seven sites, relationships between song similarity and geographic distance had negative  
532 slopes (Table 4, 5,  $p_{\text{rand}}$  for negative slopes ranged from  $< 0.0001 - 0.260$ ), indicating with varying  
533 degrees of confidence that song similarity values declined as the geographic distance between  
534 individuals increased even on these relatively small sites. However, we could discern no clear pattern of  
535 differences in these slopes between cropland and grassland sites, in part because the slopes varied  
536 substantially among sites within habitat types (Table 4, 5). Consistent with this lack of evident pattern,  
537 when we conducted a permutation test we found that differences between the average slope for  
538 cropland sites and the average slope for grassland sites in the main-effects model was larger than only  
539 30% of the randomized differences. This corresponds to a p-value of 0.70, which is a lack of clear  
540 evidence regarding any differences in the geographic decline in song similarity between cropland and  
541 grassland.

542  
543 We lacked consistent evidence for a strong positive interaction between time and distance. For two of  
544 the seven sites, the interaction term was negative, counter to prediction. For the five sites with positive  
545 interactions, including the interaction term increased the  $R^2$  by  $< 1\%$  over the main effects model in two  
546 cases and  $>5\%$  over the main effects model in only two cases (Table 6).

547

548 **Discussion**

549

550 Our results are consistent with the hypotheses that song similarity in dickcissels declines over time and  
551 space and that vocal culture in dickcissels changes more quickly over time in cropland landscapes where  
552 population turnover is faster than in grassland where populations are more stable. Within a given  
553 breeding season, dickcissels were more than twice as likely to disappear from our cropland sites, where  
554 crop harvest in mid-breeding season presumably often destroyed nests, than from our grassland sites.  
555 At all sites, similarity between songs declined as the number of years between the recording of those  
556 songs increased thus indicating cultural change over time, though some of these trends were more  
557 convincing than others. These observed declines add to a growing body of evidence that that vocal  
558 culture in songbird populations can change over time (McGregor and Thompson 1988, Holland et al.  
559 1996, Derryberry 2009, Ju et al. 2019). The slopes of these relationships between time and song  
560 similarity were steepest for the three cropland sites, indicating fastest cultural change at those  
561 locations. The statistical evidence for this pattern was only moderately clear, however, and so further  
562 work will be needed to assess it. Song similarity between pairs of dickcissels also declined over  
563 geographic distance within 6 of the 7 sites, but there were no obvious trends in the differences in this  
564 relationship between cropland and grassland sites, and so it may be that geographic changes in vocal  
565 culture are not strongly driven by differences in population turnover, at least at the scale of our  
566 sampling. It may also be that the spatial decline in song similarity happens over shorter distances in  
567 grasslands than in croplands, counter to our prediction. However, we have modest evidence of lower  
568 overall song similarity in cropland than in grassland sites and so population turnover may influence  
569 variation in cultural conformity. It is notable that we were able to detect these patterns despite having  
570 only a moderately reliable measure of song similarity. Although we have presented novel evidence for a  
571 role of reduced site fidelity in croplands driving an increased rate of cultural evolution in the dickcissels  
572 in those systems, our samples were limited to seven sites (4 grassland, 3 cropland), and so sampling at a  
573 larger number of sites spread more widely on the landscape is an important next step.

574

575 Cropland sites, which had much lower site fidelity than the grassland sites, showed evidence of faster  
576 change in vocal culture. Although this pattern is intuitive and is consistent with simulation models  
577 (Goodfellow and Slater 1986, Nunn et al. 2009), we know of no prior empirical study that has sought to  
578 link site fidelity to rates of cultural change. It seems plausible that both importation of new song  
579 features and the accumulation of learning errors drove change in our system because we have observed  
580 both the appearance of dramatically different song components and slight changes in note duration,  
581 frequency, and shape (Figure S5).

582

583 Although we found evidence that reduced site fidelity may drive lower levels of song similarity in  
584 dickcissels, such an effect may depend on features of song learning and culture that vary among species  
585 (Ortega et al. 2014). In the dickcissel, dialect conformity is high, and each male sings a single song. Thus  
586 when established males emigrate, this provides opportunities for new songs to enter the local culture  
587 via immigration or learning errors. However, in species in which local vocal culture is characterize by  
588 diversity rather than conformity, individuals each sing multiple song types, and these different song  
589 types are learned from different tutors, a reduction in site fidelity could reduce the diversity of adult  
590 tutors, and thus reduce the potential diversity of song types available for copying. This is what Ortega et  
591 al. (2014) found in chipping sparrows (*Spizella passerina*), where locations with lower site fidelity had  
592 lower diversity of song types. Thus to predict the role of site fidelity on song similarity for any given  
593 species, we should know the degree of local conformity, number of song types sung per male, and  
594 possibly also the number of tutors typically imitated by males learning songs, especially if males sing  
595 multiple song types.

596  
597 Knowledge of the number of tutors could potentially provide other insights into the development of  
598 vocal culture as well. Unfortunately, we do not yet know the details of how dickcissel males learn song  
599 in a vocal neighborhood or how many males in a neighborhood tend to converge on a single song type in  
600 a stable population. It may be that males prefer to learn the most common song, but that low site  
601 fidelity leads simultaneously to low abundance of even the most common songs and to frequent  
602 introductions of new songs that are more likely to be copied than they might be if one existing song  
603 were already widely sung. To understand why low song similarity is associated with low site fidelity in  
604 dickcissels, we should investigate how dickcissels decide which songs to copy.  
605

606 Although song similarity declined over geographic distance in all four grassland sites and two of three  
607 cropland sites, the slopes of these relationships were not consistently steeper in either habitat type. This  
608 suggests that low site fidelity may not lead to a faster rate of decline in song similarity over geographic  
609 distance, or even that low site fidelity may reduce this decline in song similarity over space. However,  
610 the intercept we observed in our models was consistently lower for cropland sites than for grassland  
611 sites, and so if slopes of decline do not differ consistently between these two types of sites, at any given  
612 distance, song similarity should on average be lower in our cropland sites than in our grassland sites.  
613 This said, we should also consider the possibility that the geographic scale at which we sampled within  
614 these sites may be too small for an ideal test of this effect. Earlier research on dickcissels observed  
615 declines in song similarity even at relatively close distances, though the largest data set showed the  
616 steepest declines in song similarity between 1 and 2 km (Schook et al. 2008). However, within our sites  
617 for the current study, nearly all individuals were within 1 km of each other. Thus, before we dismiss the  
618 hypothesis that reduced site fidelity promotes more rapid decline in song similarity with geographic  
619 distance in dickcissels, we should examine song similarity patterns over longer distances, and of course  
620 with larger samples.  
621

622 Habitat features can influence the evolution of avian vocal culture through direct selection on song  
623 propagation (Ey and Fischer 2009), but we are reasonably confident that this mechanism is not driving  
624 the patterns that we report here. We are confident because in all of our study sites, and across the  
625 geographic range of this species, males sing from exposed perches in areas of either uniformly low  
626 vegetation or with only widely scattered higher trees, and their songs propagate primarily through the  
627 open air with few or no obstructions. Another possible source of selection on vocal culture may be  
628 ambient noise (Slabbekoorn and den Boer-Visser 2006), and two of our grassland sites were close  
629 enough to a major highway that, in places on these sites, ambient noise may have been somewhat  
630 elevated. However, for most of our birds in both cropland and grassland sites, ambient noise did not  
631 obviously differ. Thus, neither of the two environmental selection pressures demonstrated to influence  
632 song culture evolution in birds appears likely to differ between our site types.  
633

634 We generated two separate estimates of apparent survival of territorial male dickcissels occupying  
635 grassland sites because we based these estimates on two data sets gathered with different methods.  
636 These two data sets produced fairly different apparent survival estimates, and we think that this  
637 represents differences in the set of individuals who were marked and observed. With one set of  
638 methods, researchers (led by Author 1) banded birds beginning approximately two weeks after male  
639 dickcissels began settling on territories. These researchers banded birds for approximately two weeks,  
640 and then surveyed each site for banded birds once every two weeks, except in seasons where they  
641 surveyed sites only once. With the other set of methods, researchers (led by Author 2) banded and  
642 surveyed birds nearly daily throughout the season. This latter set of methods often captured birds who  
643 did not appear to be long-term territory holders. Early in the season when male dickcissels were first

644 arriving, these briefly-present individuals may have been prospecting for territories during migration  
645 stopover. Later in the season, such individuals likely were adults who had abandoned a territory  
646 elsewhere and were wandering the landscape, possibly prospecting for territories for the following year.  
647 The inclusion of these individuals that never established long-term territories seems likely to have led to  
648 the lower estimated rates of apparent survival from the Author 2 data. For this reason, we feel confident  
649 that the Author 2 grassland data are not as appropriate as the Author 1 grassland data for comparison  
650 to the Author 1 cropland data, where the methods of capture and re-sighting were standardized across  
651 grassland and cropland sites. Thus we also feel confident that the relative differences in apparent  
652 survival between the grassland and cropland sites calculated from the Author 1 data represent real  
653 biological differences in site fidelity between these habitats in the sites we studied.  
654

655 This work makes an important contribution by calling attention to the possibility that population  
656 dynamics may influence the rate of cultural evolution in dickcissels and other taxa. In dickcissels, we  
657 would like to see the validity of our findings assessed with a larger sample of sites. We are also looking  
658 forward to improvements in our ability to quantify differences between songs of pairs of birds and thus  
659 more precise estimates of the strength of the effects of population turnover on vocal culture. Further, as  
660 we mention above, exploring how individual colonists choose song tutors should help us understand the  
661 mechanistic links between population turnover and cultural change. We also hope that researchers  
662 begin to test for relationships between population processes and cultural change across a range of taxa  
663 and types of culture. Certainly we hope that bird song researchers investigate this link, but it seems  
664 plausible that population turnover could influence change in a wide range of cultural attributes. These  
665 questions may be especially relevant given the growing recognition that cultural diversity is a  
666 component of biodiversity and is worthy of conservation (Ryan 2006, Laiolo and Tella 2007).  
667

## 668

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683

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687

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694  
695  
696

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806

807 **TABLE 1.** Cormack-Jolly-Seber (CJS) model selection results for dickcissels captured and resighted in  
808 northeastern Kansas, USA, between 2006 and 2011. CJS models estimate apparent survival ( $\phi$ ) and  
809 probability of capture ( $p$ ). We selected models based on  $\Delta AICc$  values and Akaike weights ( $w_i$ ). We  
810 modeled apparent survival separately for cropland and grassland habitats (2hab), for cropland and  
811 the two sources of grassland habitat data (3hab), and for periods within and between breeding  
812 seasons (ssn), or we kept apparent survival constant across these conditions (con). Detection  
813 probability was modeled separately for cropland and grassland habitats (2hab), for cropland and the  
814 two sources of grassland habitat data separately (3hab), for the first survey of each year and  
815 subsequent surveys rounds in the Author 1 dataset (rnd), or kept constant (con).  
816

Model Structure		Model Statistics				
$\phi$	$p$	K	Deviance	AICc	$\Delta AICc$	$w_i$
3hab × ssn	3hab × rnd	11	302.40	1291.46	0.00	0.331
3hab × ssn	3hab + rnd	10	304.66	1291.67	0.21	0.299
3hab × ssn	3hab	9	307.10	1292.06	0.60	0.245
3hab + ssn	3hab × rnd	9	309.97	1294.93	3.46	0.059
3hab + ssn	3hab + rnd	8	312.67	1295.59	4.13	0.042
3hab + ssn	3hab	7	315.84	1296.72	5.26	0.024
2hab × ssn	3hab × rnd	9	324.17	1309.13	17.67	0.000
2hab × ssn	3hab + rnd	8	326.57	1309.49	18.03	0.000
2hab + ssn	3hab × rnd	8	326.68	1309.59	18.13	0.000
2hab × ssn	3hab	7	328.81	1309.69	18.23	0.000
2hab + ssn	3hab + rnd	7	329.63	1310.50	19.04	0.000
2hab + ssn	3hab	6	332.27	1311.12	19.66	0.000
3hab × ssn	2hab	8	330.04	1312.95	21.49	0.000
ssn	3hab × rnd	7	333.85	1314.73	23.27	0.000
3hab	3hab × rnd	8	333.18	1316.09	24.63	0.000
ssn	3hab + rnd	6	337.73	1316.58	25.12	0.000
3hab	3hab + rnd	7	337.04	1317.92	26.46	0.000
ssn	3hab	5	341.22	1318.03	26.57	0.000
3hab	3hab	6	342.91	1321.75	30.29	0.000
3hab × ssn	con	7	342.33	1323.21	31.75	0.000
3hab + ssn	2hab	6	345.59	1324.43	32.97	0.000
2hab × ssn	2hab	6	350.70	1329.54	38.08	0.000
2hab + ssn	2hab	5	354.65	1331.47	40.01	0.000
2hab	3hab × rnd	7	352.26	1333.14	41.68	0.000
2hab	3hab + rnd	6	356.41	1335.25	43.79	0.000
con	3hab × rnd	6	358.29	1337.13	45.67	0.000
3hab + ssn	con	5	361.49	1338.31	46.85	0.000
2hab	3hab	5	361.82	1338.64	47.17	0.000
ssn	2hab	4	364.68	1339.47	48.01	0.000
2hab × ssn	con	5	362.77	1339.58	48.12	0.000
con	3hab + rnd	5	363.08	1339.90	48.44	0.000

con	3hab	4	369.51	1344.30	52.84	0.000
2hab + ssn	con	4	369.89	1344.68	53.22	0.000
3hab	2hab	5	369.18	1345.99	54.53	0.000
2hab	2hab	4	381.07	1355.86	64.40	0.000
ssn	con	3	386.85	1359.62	68.16	0.000
con	2hab	3	389.28	1362.05	70.59	0.000
3hab	con	4	393.99	1368.78	77.32	0.000
2hab	con	3	405.45	1378.22	86.76	0.000
con	con	2	426.46	1397.22	105.76	0.000

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820 **TABLE 2.** Estimates of daily apparent survival ( $\phi$ ) and standard errors for dickcissels monitored between  
 821 2006 and 2011 in northeastern Kansas, USA, estimated separately for birds breeding in cropland and  
 822 grassland habitats and for birds monitored by Author 1's team (A1) and Author 2's team (A2). We  
 823 estimated apparent survival for the periods within and between breeding seasons separately, and  
 824 calculated apparent survival, standard errors, and 95% confidence intervals for a 14-day period between  
 825 two survey rounds within each breeding season, and for a 310-day period between breeding seasons.  
 826 These estimates and associated SE and 95%CI are model averages weighted by Akaike weights.  
 827

<b>Specific Interval</b>	<b>Habitat</b>	<b>Team</b>	<b><math>\phi</math> (daily)</b>	<b>SE</b>	<b><math>\phi</math> (period)</b>	<b>SE</b>	<b>95% CI</b>
Within Breeding Seasons (14-Day Interval)	Cropland	A1	0.985	0.004	0.808	0.045	0.721 – 0.896
	Grassland	A1	0.995	0.001	0.928	0.018	0.893 – 0.963
	Grassland	A2	0.993	0.002	0.913	0.023	0.867 – 0.959
Between Breeding Seasons (310-Day Interval)	Cropland	A1	0.998	0.001	0.488	0.136	0.221 – 0.756
	Grassland	A1	0.999	0.000	0.723	0.056	0.612 – 0.834
	Grassland	A2	0.997	0.001	0.366	0.061	0.246 – 0.486
Between Years (365-Day Interval)	Cropland	A1	0.996	0.001	0.212	0.075	0.065 – 0.359
	Grassland	A1	0.998	0.000	0.539	0.059	0.423 – 0.654
	Grassland	A2	0.996	0.000	0.256	0.050	0.158 – 0.354

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831 **TABLE 3.** Estimates of the detection probability ( $p$ ), standard errors and 95% confidence intervals for  
 832 dickcissels monitored between 2006 and 2011 in northeastern Kansas, USA. We estimated detection  
 833 probabilities separately for birds breeding in cropland and grassland habitats, for birds monitored by  
 834 Author 1’s team (A1) and Author 2’s team (A2), and for the first survey of each year and subsequent  
 835 surveys rounds in the P dataset to correct for a potential observer effect (see methods). These estimates  
 836 and associated SE and 95%CI are model averages weighted by Akaike weights.  
 837

<b>Specific Interval</b>	<b>Habitat</b>	<b>Source</b>	<b><math>p</math></b>	<b>SE</b>	<b>95% CI</b>
1st Survey of the Year	Cropland	A1	0.706	0.081	0.527 - 0.838
Other Surveys	Cropland	A1	0.591	0.075	0.441 - 0.726
1st Survey of the Year	Grassland	A1	0.785	0.045	0.685 - 0.860
Other Surveys	Grassland	A1	0.752	0.029	0.691 - 0.804
All Surveys	Grassland	A2	0.928	0.021	0.875 - 0.960

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843 **TABLE 4.** The relationships between pairwise song similarity values and geographic distance between  
 844 pairs of recordings and time difference (in years) between pairs of recordings, along with the overall  
 845 model R<sup>2</sup> value (song similarity ~ geographic distance + time difference). Each estimate is accompanied  
 846 by a one-tailed p-value.  
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Site	intercept	<i>p</i> <sub>rand</sub>	distance slope	<i>p</i> <sub>rand</sub>	time slope	<i>p</i> <sub>rand</sub>	overall R <sup>2</sup>	<i>p</i> <sub>rand</sub>
grassland:								
R20A-2A	0.618	0.001	-1.25E-05	0.260	-7.03E-03	0.000	0.022	0.000
20C	0.621	0.000	-6.64E-05	0.000	-1.95E-03	0.106	0.039	0.000
4F	0.654	0.180	-3.11E-05	0.205	-9.30E-04	0.334	0.003	0.602
C1B	0.626	0.008	-3.89E-05	0.011	-4.49E-03	0.138	0.016	0.070
cropland:								
Ashland	0.588	0.005	1.28E-05	0.658	-1.21E-02	0.002	0.085	0.009
Strauss	0.552	0.062	-3.26E-05	0.133	-8.49E-03	0.117	0.025	0.205
North	0.519	0.001	-5.16E-05	0.009	-8.10E-03	0.017	0.029	0.029

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851 **TABLE 5.** The relationships between pairwise song similarity values and geographic distance between  
 852 pairs of recordings and time difference (in years) between pairs of recordings, an interaction term  
 853 between distance and time, and the overall model R<sup>2</sup> value (song similarity ~ geographic distance + time  
 854 difference + geographic distance\*time difference). Each estimate is accompanied by a p-value, and p-  
 855 values are one-tailed for the distance and time slopes and the distance x time interaction.  
 856

Site	int.	<i>p</i> <sub>rand</sub>	distance slope	<i>p</i> <sub>rand</sub>	time slope	<i>p</i> <sub>rand</sub>	distance x time	<i>p</i> <sub>rand</sub>	overall R <sup>2</sup>	<i>p</i> <sub>rand</sub>
grassland:										
R20A-2A	0.624	0.001	-3.10E-05	0.076	-9.89E-03	0.000	8.00E-06	0.032	0.023	0.000
20C	0.621	0.000	-6.80E-05	0.000	-2.32E-03	0.180	1.00E-06	0.406	0.039	0.000
4F	0.655	0.193	-3.30E-05	0.208	-1.14E-03	0.354	1.00E-06	0.467	0.003	0.626
C1B	0.622	0.022	-2.70E-05	0.049	-1.76E-03	0.292	-8.00E-06	0.896	0.017	0.074
cropland:										
Ashland	0.580	0.193	3.90E-05	0.878	-7.12E-03	0.117	-1.40E-05	0.864	0.090	0.010
Strauss	0.555	0.098	-4.00E-05	0.162	-1.06E-02	0.131	5.00E-06	0.333	0.025	0.244
North	0.527	0.000	-7.50E-05	0.003	-1.27E-02	0.005	1.30E-05	0.030	0.031	0.005

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859 **TABLE 6.** Comparison of the model fit, as measured by  $R^2$ , between models that use only main effects  
 860 (geographic distance between pairs of recordings, time difference [in years] between pairs of  
 861 recordings) to explain pairwise song similarity and models that use both these main effects and an  
 862 interaction between the two to explain pairwise song similarity.  
 863

Site	main effects $R^2$	interaction $R^2$	absolute increase in $R^2$	percent increase in $R^2$
grassland:				
R20A-2A	0.02206	0.02295	0.00088	4.01 %
20C	0.03941	0.03943	0.00002	0.04 %
4F	0.00262	0.00262	0.00000	0.19 %
C1B	0.01652	0.01731	0.00080	4.83 %
cropland:				
Ashland	0.08547	0.08985	0.00438	5.12 %
Strauss	0.02504	0.02537	0.00033	1.32 %
North	0.02889	0.03109	0.00220	7.63 %

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872 Figure headings

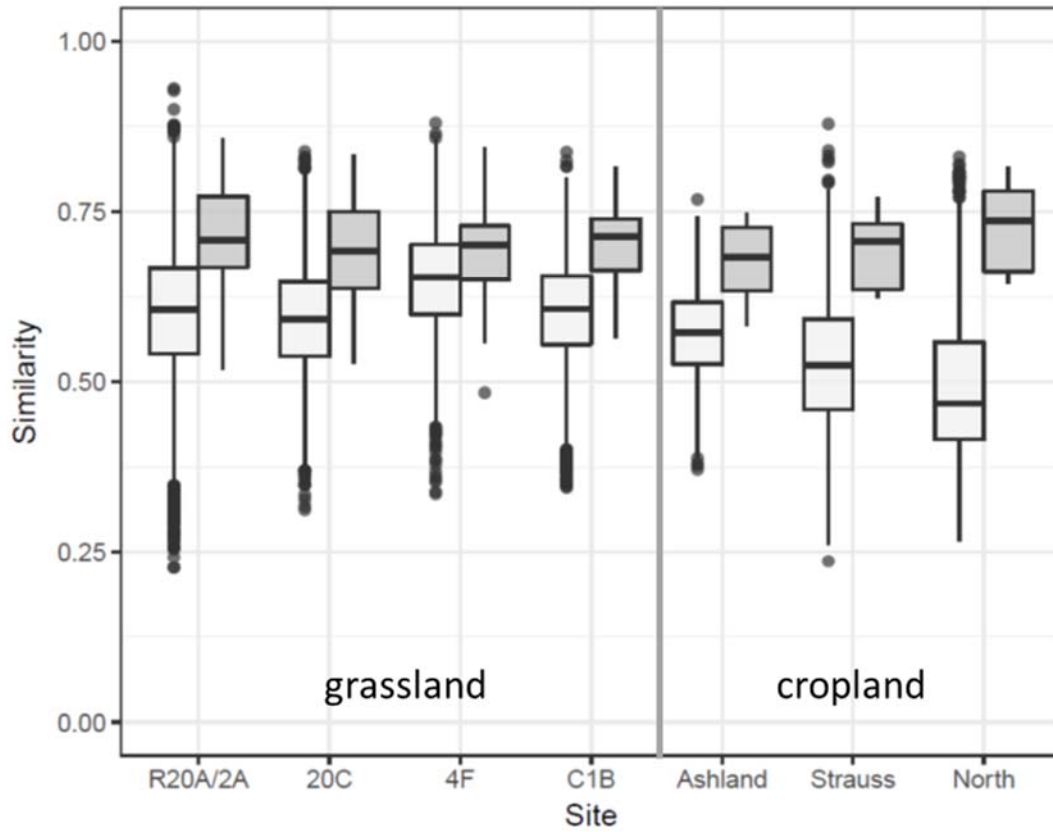
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874 **Figure 1.** Plots of median song similarity values for comparisons of recordings of the same individual on  
875 different days within a given year (dark grey boxes) at each of the seven sites and for comparisons of  
876 recordings of songs of different individuals at these same sites within years (light gray boxes). The  
877 central line is the median and the box represents the interquartile range (middle 50<sup>th</sup> percentile).

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885 Supplementary materials

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887 A. Explanation of dickcissel song structure and song learning

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889 The dickcissel is a migrant songbird breeding in grasslands of the Eastern Great Plains of North America  
890 (Temple 2002) and wintering primarily in Northern South America. The vast majority of dickcissel males  
891 produce a single song (Figure 1), at least while occupying the same breeding territory within and  
892 between seasons (Schook et al. 2008; T. Parker unpublished data). All individual's song consist of at least  
893 two of three phrase types (Figure S1). One of these three phrase types, the introductory "dick" phrase, is  
894 sung by all males. An individual male produces either one or two versions of this "dick" phrase, and each  
895 version can be repeated one to several time per song. A series of dick phrases is sometimes preceded by  
896 a long series of dick-like phrases that differ in form from the typical dick phrases sung by the male in  
897 question. These series appear to be sung by any given individual only rarely, possibly when agitated. We  
898 excluded these putative agitation phrases from our analyses because they are not a consistent  
899 component of a male's song. Many, but not all, dickcissels include the "cissel" phrase type in their song.  
900 Cissels are longer and more complex and contain some higher frequency components. Most commonly  
901 a male sings a single version of the "cissel" phrase, and produces this phrase three times in a given song.  
902 However, some males produce two versions of the cissel phrase, and an individual version of a cissel  
903 phrase can be sung anywhere between one and four times within a song. Some dickcissels sing a "trill"  
904 phrase type of rapidly repeated notes. In a trill, the pause duration between repeated sets of notes no  
905 longer than the pauses between notes within a set. Some trills have a short set of introductory notes  
906 prior to the repeated series. A full trill series is rarely repeated. In contrast, cissels occasionally contain a  
907 series of notes that might qualify as a trill, but because cissel phrases have substantial proportions of  
908 non-trilled notes and the full phrase is usually repeated two to four times in a predictable pattern, cissel  
909 phrases and trill phrases cannot be mistaken for each other. Among dickcissels that produce a trill  
910 phrase type, most individual sing only a single version of the trill in their song, but rarely a male can  
911 produce two different versions of a trill within a song. Usually only one trill is produced per song. The  
912 versions of the phrases produced by each male is highly repeatable during a single breeding season.  
913 Further dickcissels show striking geographic structure in their song culture, with most males in close  
914 proximity to each other singing almost identical song phrases, and the degree of similarity of phrase  
915 types often declining considerably as the distance between recording sites approaches 2 km (Schook et  
916 al. 2008). Individual dickcissels' songs also differ from each other in the number of times phrases are  
917 repeated and the cadence of these repetitions (Figure 1). However, unlike the content of the phrases,  
918 some of the differences in the repetition of phrases are not consistent within and across individuals, and  
919 so they have not been the focus of our research (Schook et al. 2008, Parra et al. 2017).

920

921 Circumstantial evidence suggests that male dickcissels learn their song from immediate adult neighbors  
922 after dispersal (Krebs and Kroodsma 1980). First, song similarity by dickcissels declines with increasing  
923 distance on the scale of 100's of meters to several km (Schook et al. 2008), and so pre-migration song  
924 learning during the first summer of life would require that, after migration, dickcissels return to a small  
925 area within a few hundred meters of where they learned their song(s). However, when nestling  
926 dickcissels are banded, they are almost never re-sighted near the location of banding in subsequent

927 years (Temple 2002, Small et al. 2012; B. Sousa unpublished data), indicating that they recruit locally  
928 only rarely. Further, because these study sites where nestlings have been banded are often much larger  
929 than the extent of a local song neighborhood, we cannot explain this lack of recaptures by assuming that  
930 the young birds have dispersed within the song neighborhood but outside the bounds of the study site.  
931 If they disperse outside of the study area, they are dispersing into other cultural areas. It also appears  
932 unlikely that recently fledged dickcissels disperse into other song neighborhoods beyond the scale of the  
933 typical study area to learn a variety of songs prior to migration. This is because fledgling dickcissels  
934 typically remain within <1 km of their nest in the month after fledging (Verheijen 2017). Taken together,  
935 this evidence suggests that young adult male dickcissels are able to match the songs of their adjacent  
936 neighbors only by learning their song when they settle on their first breeding territory after their first  
937 winter in South America. An alternative scenario would require males to learn songs during migration or  
938 in winter and then to follow a tutor so as to settle near him on the breeding ground, but this seems  
939 unlikely, in part because dickcissels migrate at night in flocks of hundreds or thousands of individuals  
940 (Temple 2002).

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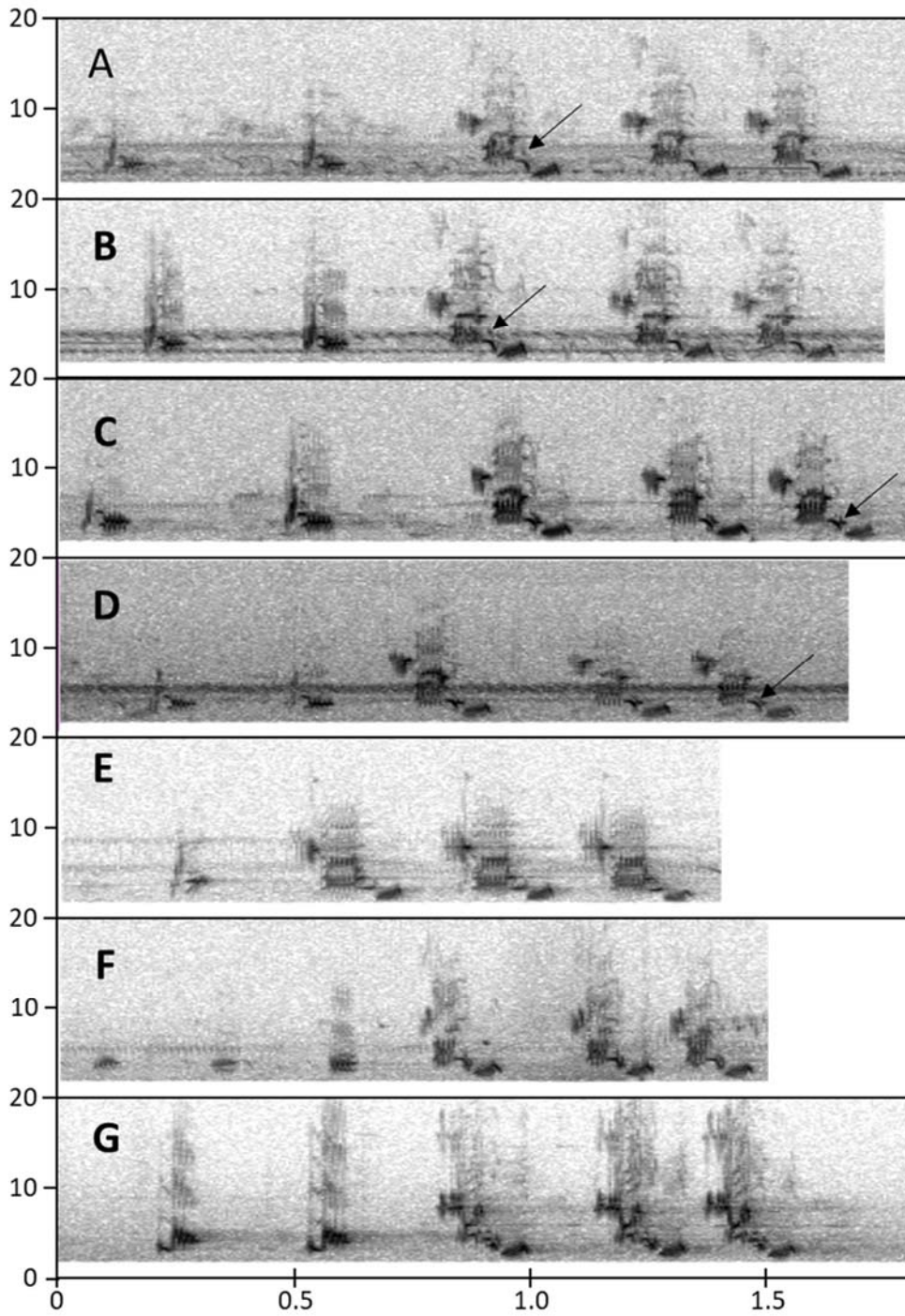
942 We do not know the extent to which older males learn new songs after having learned the original song  
943 in their first breeding neighborhood. We do know that a small proportion of male dickcissels in most  
944 locations do not conform to the local culture, and this lack of conformity is often stark, with individuals  
945 sometimes producing songs that radically differ from their neighbors. We hypothesize that these non-  
946 conformers are males who learned their song elsewhere and then later immigrated into this new vocal  
947 culture without adopting the local culture. This is somewhat surprising given that we have observed at  
948 least one long-lived individual partially change its song (by adding a new version of the cissel phrase)  
949 when the neighborhood culture changed across years and a new cissel phrase version become common.  
950 Thus dickcissels seem able to alter their song after their first breeding season, but they may often not do  
951 so.

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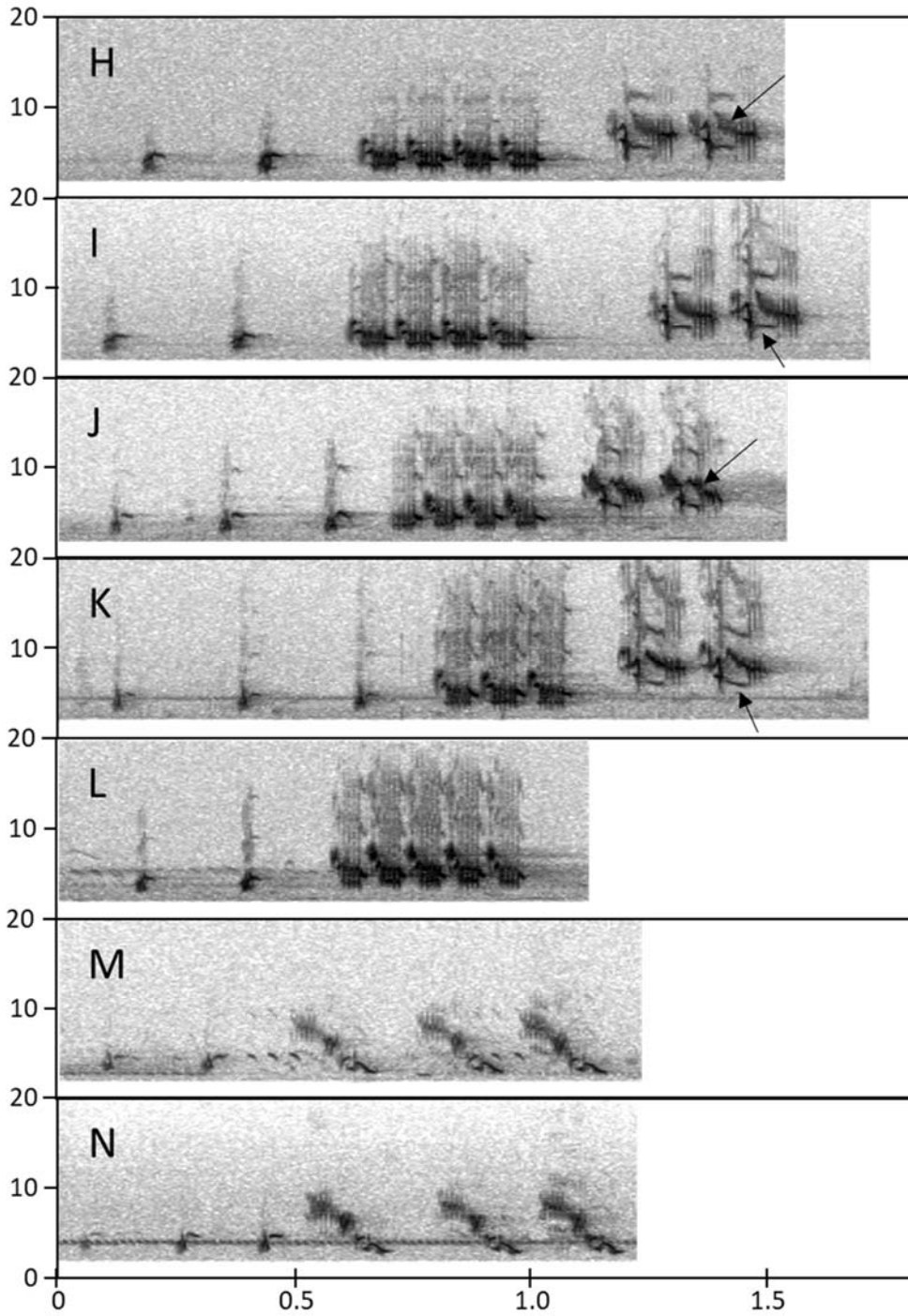
954 **Figure S1.** Complete songs of multiple male dickcissels from two sites (C1B, a grassland site; North Farm,  
955 a cropland site) in 2008, with frequency (kHz) on y-axis and time (seconds) the x-axis. Panels A – G and  
956 M and N all depict songs with two phrase types: one brief ‘dick’ phrase often repeated several times  
957 followed by several (in this case, always three) very similar ‘cissel’ phrases. The songs in panels H – K  
958 also begin with ‘dick’ phrases, but then are followed by a ‘trill’ phrase and then by two ‘cissel’ phrases.  
959 Panels A and B depict songs produced by the same male on two different dates, as do panels C and D, H  
960 and I, and M and N, with each of these pairs of panels demonstrating the high degree of within-male  
961 song consistency. We can also see similarity between the songs of different males within a site, for  
962 instance the dick phrases in panels A – E and the cissel phrases in A – F are all very similar as are the dick  
963 phrases in panels H – N, the cissel phrases in H – K, and the trill phrases in H – L. However, even very  
964 similar phrases differ in consistent ways between individual birds. For instance, the arrows in panels  
965 A and B identify a small note that is shorter and of higher frequency than the corresponding note  
966 identified by the arrows in panels C and D. Similarly, the arrows in panels H and J indicate the final series  
967 of notes in the cissel phrase which show differences in the pattern of frequency modulation and  
968 duration. The arrow in panel I indicates a pure-tone note which remains on a single frequency, while the  
969 corresponding note in panel K descends in frequency. Also in panel J, notice that the trill has an  
970 introductory portion that differs from the trills in panels H, I, K, and L.  
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974 Figure S1  
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B. Explanation of the origins of this study

Our interests in dickcissel song and our methods of study have evolved over time. We began recording dickcissel song in 2005 and 2006 to assess the geographic extent and pattern of song similarity (Schook et al. 2008). We were also curious about within-individual variation in song, and so in 2006 began color-banding individuals and returning to record individual birds within and across seasons. We continued recording marked birds in 2007 to explore the possibility of change in song across years. In 2008, we initiated the project that is the subject of this paper to study whether changes in population turnover would be associated with the rate of temporal or spatial change in song culture, and so we began a larger effort to mark birds at our existing grassland sites and at a cropland site. In both 2009 and 2010, we added a new cropland site and continued marking birds at all of our sites. We returned to record songs, but not to mark new birds, at most sites in 2011 and 2014. A parallel study recorded song and banded dickcissels at several grassland sites as part of an exploration of sexual selection in this species in 2006-2009 (Sousa and Westneat 2013b, a), and we include these recordings in the analyses for this current paper.



999 C. Methods – Site locations and sampling

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**Table S1.** Locations and sizes of study sites. Sites at Konza Prairie Biological Station (KPBS) are KPBS designated ‘watersheds’ and the number in the name refers to the number of years between controlled early spring burns (prior to settlement by dickcissels). We did not necessarily incorporate an entire watershed into the study, and the area measurement we present represents the portion of the watershed(s) we used. The sites at KPBS averaged 2.3 km apart (when measured between the closest edges) or 2.6 km apart (when measured between site centroids). The closest two sites were 421 m apart at their closest edges. The next closest two sites were 1.7 km apart at their closest edges.

Site	type	latitude	longitude	approx. area (ha)#
KPBS				
R20A / 2A	grass	39.06	-96.60	42
20C / 1D*	grass	39.06	-96.56	27
4F	grass	39.07	-96.57	16
C1B / C4A	grass	39.09	-96.54	37
North	crop	39.21	-96.59	44
Ashland	crop	39.12	-96.61	25
Strauss	crop	39.39	-96.85	18

1009 # These areas do not match the area of the KPBS designated watersheds because in most cases we did  
1010 not include entire watersheds in our study.

1011 \* All song recordings but one come from 20C, but birds banded and monitored for the mark-recapture  
1012 study by B. Sousa were in both 20C and adjacent 1D.

1013  
1014

1015 **Table S2.** Site by site summary of sampling. We did not visit all sites in all years. Number of visits varied  
 1016 among years. Sampling carried out by T. Parker and students identified by 'P'. Sampling carried out by B.  
 1017 Sousa and associates identified by 'S'. Song recording methods were similar between these two groups,  
 1018 though recording equipment differed. Monitoring protocols for mark/re-sighting differed substantially  
 1019 between P and S teams, and thus we considered these data separately for analyses. In 2008 and 2009  
 1020 both P and S teams monitored birds in 20C. For any birds monitored by both T. Parker and B. Sousa  
 1021 teams, we included only the T. Parker data in the mark-recapture analysis so that we could generate  
 1022 separate mark-recapture estimates for T. Parker and B. Sousa data.  
 1023

Site		year						
		2006	2007	2008	2009	2010#	2011	2014*
R20A / 2A	visits	4	5	1	0	4	1	1
	mark/re-sight	S	S	S		P	P	P
	song recording	P, S	S	S		P	P	P
20C / 1D	visits	1	1	3 (1)	5 (5)	4	1	0
	mark/re-sight	P	P	P (S)	P (S)	P	P	
	song recording	P	P	P, S	P, S	P	P	
4F	visits	1	0	3	4	4	1	0
	mark/re-sight	P		P	P	P	P	
	song recording	P		P	P	P	P	
C1B	visits	0	0	4	4	4	1	1
	mark/re-sight			P	P	P	P	
	song recording			P	P	P	P	P
North	visits	0	0	4	5	4	1	1
	mark/re-sight			P	P	P	P	
	song recording			P	P	P	P	P
Ashland	visits	0	0	0	5	4	1	1
	mark/re-sight				P	P	P	
	song recording				P	P	P	P
Strauss	visits	0	0	0	0	4	1	1
	mark/re-sight					P	P	
	song recording					P	P	P

1024 # last year birds were banded

1025 \* data not used for mark-recapture analysis due to the lack of sampling over prior 2 years and the 4  
 1026 years since last birds were banded.

1027  
 1028

1029 **Table S3.** Number of songs analyzed per year for each site. Within a given year, each song was recorded  
1030 from a different individual male dickcissel.

Site	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2014
2A-R20A	32	40	15	0	25	33	5
4F	15	0	9	12	11	10	0
20C	26	3	10	19	14	9	0
C1B	0	0	14	25	25	18	5
Ashland	0	0	0	11	5	6	5
North	0	0	17	16	10	9	7
Strauss	0	0	0	0	15	10	5

1031  
1032  
1033  
1034

1035 **Table S4.** Number of individuals from which two songs, each from a different date, were analyzed to  
 1036 assess the sensitivity of our song comparison method.

Site	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2014
grassland:							
2A-R20A	12	0	0	0	14	0	0
4F	4	0	7	6	6	0	0
20C	6	0	3	10	6	0	0
C1B	0	0	0	4	2	0	0
cropland:							
Ashland	0	0	6	5	9	0	0
North	0	0	6	6	2	0	0
Strauss	0	0	0	0	5	0	0

1037  
 1038  
 1039

1040 D. Methods - Additional details regarding calculation of song similarity scores

1041  
1042 Our scheme of classifying songs as dicks, cissels, and trills works well, but it is not perfect. It appears, for  
1043 instance, that short dick phrases, which are sometimes sung in rapid series, may evolve over time into  
1044 trills (T. Parker, unpublished observations), and thus there are phrases which could be classified into  
1045 either category. However, of the many hundreds of songs we have processed and classified, the vast  
1046 majority required no subjective judgement regarding classification. In nearly all cases, we could adopt a  
1047 simple decision rule to ensure consistency. For instance, in cases where dick phrases could have been  
1048 judged to be either dicks or part of a trill series, we considered them dicks if they matched other phrases  
1049 at the site that were unambiguously classified as dicks.

1050  
1051 When comparing song phrases with our quantitative methods, if males at a site sang two versions of the  
1052 same phrase types, e.g., two distinct dick phrases, we classified the phrases of that type as 'one' and  
1053 'two', e.g., 'dick1' and 'dick2', and compared all 'one' phrases to each other and all 'two' phrases to each  
1054 other but not the 'one' phrases to the 'two' phrases. If two males at a site sang the same two versions of  
1055 a phrase, they always sang them in the same order, so 'one' and 'two' were not arbitrary labels but  
1056 reflected the order in which the two versions appeared. If a male sang one commonly shared version  
1057 and one rare version or locally unique version, we assigned the commonly shared version to category  
1058 'one' or 'two' to match the position in which that phrase version was typically sung at the site so that we  
1059 could compare like to like. If some males sang two versions of a phrase type and other males sang only  
1060 one version of that phrase type, for the males who sang only one version, we saved two copies of that  
1061 version, one as version one and the other as version two. This allowed us to assess the quantitative  
1062 similarity of the given phrase type between males even if they sang different numbers of versions. If a  
1063 male singing only one version of a phrase type sang that version  $>1$  time, we typically used different  
1064 renditions of that version as version one and two. The benefit of this was that when comparing two  
1065 males who both sang only one version of a phrase type, but for whom we had saved two copies of that  
1066 version, we could increase the precision of our song similarity estimate by basing it on an average of the  
1067 comparison between 'version one' and 'version two', which in this case were just two renditions of the  
1068 same version.

1069  
1070 We limited our analyses to considering two versions of a given phrase type per male because this  
1071 appeared to be the best way to minimize bias in the calculation of average similarity. First, it was  
1072 extremely rare for males to sing what might be interpreted as  $>2$  versions of a given phrase type so  
1073 there would have been very few cases where including a third phrase type would have provided any  
1074 additional information. Second, in the very few cases where it would have been possible to classify  $>2$   
1075 versions, differences between two of the versions were quantitative rather than qualitative and  
1076 relatively small. Third, in the much more frequent case when males sang two versions, we could match  
1077 the versions between two males and so compare like versions of a phrase when quantifying song  
1078 similarity. Fourth, if two males did not sing the same phrase version, we could quantify how different  
1079 those two versions were from each other. Further, for all pairs of males regardless of whether either  
1080 male sang one version or two versions of the phrase type, the average similarity based on two  
1081 comparisons (one of phrase version 1, the other of phrase version 2) always provided an unbiased  
1082 estimate of the similarity between the phrases. If instead we had allowed for a third version to account  
1083 for the very few males who could be considered to sing a third version of a given phrase type, this would  
1084 have complicated the calculation of averages for several reasons. For a male who sang two versions, we  
1085 would have had to choose one of those versions to compare with the third version of males who sang  
1086 three, and this choice would have been arbitrary. When comparing a male who sang two versions of a  
1087 phrase with either a one-version or a two-version male, one of the versions would have contributed to

1088 2/3 of the weight of the average because it would have been used twice. The only ways around this  
1089 added substantial complexity to already complex data management and analysis methods. Because this  
1090 complexity addressed a very rare issue, and a relatively unimportant one where present, we opted for  
1091 the solution just described.

1092  
1093 Before we averaged the two quantitative measures (spectrogram and ambiguity spectrum) of similarity  
1094 for each phrase type, we wanted to weight the information from both of these quantitative measures  
1095 identically, and so each measure needed to be on the same scale. Although both of these methods  
1096 create values that have the potential to range between 0 and 1 (with 0 = identical and 1 = complete lack  
1097 of similarity; which we later reversed such that 1 = identical, see below), the variability of the filtered  
1098 ambiguity spectrum method is in practice much lower in our data set. Because we wanted the two  
1099 measures of similarity to be weighted as equally as possible, we standardized the two matrices to  
1100 actually vary between 0 and 1 by dividing the value in each matrix cell by the highest value for that  
1101 measurement type from across all comparisons. This was approximately equal to 1 for the multi-tapered  
1102 spectrogram data (and so its transformed range  $\approx$  original range), but was 0.308 for the filtered  
1103 ambiguity spectrum method. After the measurements were standardized, we averaged the values  
1104 across the two measures. We created this average within each phrase type, or if two versions of a  
1105 phrase type occurred at a site, within each version of each phrase type. We weighted each phrase type  
1106 equally when averaging across types. If there were two versions of a phrase type at a given site, each  
1107 was weighted 0.5 to continue to give equal weight to each broadly defined phrase type. Finally, to  
1108 reverse the direction of the song similarity score so that it ranged from 0 (no overlap) to 1 (songs  
1109 identical), we subtracted the song similarity averages from 1.

1110  
1111 We generated raw pairwise song phrase similarity scores using MATLAB (version R2016b; see  
1112 <https://osf.io/em43d/> for code).

1113  
1114 We combined similarity scores across phrase types and across song comparison methods using R  
1115 (version 3.3.3 and 3.4.2, see [osf.io](https://osf.io) for code)

1116  
1117  
1118  
1119

1120 E. Sensitivity of mark-recapture models to possible over-dispersion

1121  
 1122 Table S5. To assess the robustness of our apparent survival model ranking to possible over-dispersion,  
 1123 we examined model rankings with  $\hat{c}$  set to whole numbers between 1 and 6. Note that the variable 3hab  
 1124 (which estimated different values for grassland sites monitored by T. Parker and those monitored by B.  
 1125 Sousa, and cropland sites) remained among the top models ( $\Delta\text{AICc} < 2$ ) for both apparent survival and  
 1126 recapture probability in analyses with  $\hat{c} = 1, 2, 3,$  and 4. Only when  $\hat{c}$  reached 5 did the top models no  
 1127 longer all include an effect of habitat on apparent survival, although this habitat effect remained in the  
 1128 set with Delta QAIC  $< 2$  for both  $\hat{c} = 5$  and 6. Thus our model is robust to over dispersion.  
 1129

Model Structure		Model Statistics				
$\phi$	$p$	K	Deviance	AICc	$\Delta\text{AICc}$	$w_i$
$\hat{c} = 1$						
3hab × ssn	3hab × rnd	11	302.40	1291.46	0.00	0.331
3hab × ssn	3hab + rnd	10	304.66	1291.67	0.21	0.299
3hab × ssn	3hab	9	307.10	1292.06	0.60	0.245
3hab + ssn	3hab × rnd	9	309.97	1294.93	3.46	0.059
3hab + ssn	3hab + rnd	8	312.67	1295.59	4.13	0.042
3hab + ssn	3hab	7	315.84	1296.72	5.26	0.024
2hab × ssn	3hab × rnd	9	324.17	1309.13	17.67	0.000
2hab × ssn	3hab + rnd	8	326.57	1309.49	18.03	0.000
2hab + ssn	3hab × rnd	8	326.68	1309.59	18.13	0.000
2hab × ssn	3hab	7	328.81	1309.69	18.23	0.000
2hab + ssn	3hab + rnd	7	329.63	1310.50	19.04	0.000
2hab + ssn	3hab	6	332.27	1311.12	19.66	0.000
3hab × ssn	2hab	8	330.04	1312.95	21.49	0.000
ssn	3hab × rnd	7	333.85	1314.73	23.27	0.000
3hab	3hab × rnd	8	333.18	1316.09	24.63	0.000
ssn	3hab + rnd	6	337.73	1316.58	25.12	0.000
3hab	3hab + rnd	7	337.04	1317.92	26.46	0.000
ssn	3hab	5	341.22	1318.03	26.57	0.000
3hab	3hab	6	342.91	1321.75	30.29	0.000
3hab × ssn	con	7	342.33	1323.21	31.75	0.000
3hab + ssn	2hab	6	345.59	1324.43	32.97	0.000
2hab × ssn	2hab	6	350.70	1329.54	38.08	0.000
2hab + ssn	2hab	5	354.65	1331.47	40.01	0.000
2hab	3hab × rnd	7	352.26	1333.14	41.68	0.000
2hab	3hab + rnd	6	356.41	1335.25	43.79	0.000
con	3hab × rnd	6	358.29	1337.13	45.67	0.000
3hab + ssn	con	5	361.49	1338.31	46.85	0.000
2hab	3hab	5	361.82	1338.64	47.17	0.000
ssn	2hab	4	364.68	1339.47	48.01	0.000
2hab × ssn	con	5	362.77	1339.58	48.12	0.000

con	3hab + rnd	5	363.08	1339.90	48.44	0.000
con	3hab	4	369.51	1344.30	52.84	0.000
2hab + ssn	con	4	369.89	1344.68	53.22	0.000
3hab	2hab	5	369.18	1345.99	54.53	0.000
2hab	2hab	4	381.07	1355.86	64.40	0.000
ssn	con	3	386.85	1359.62	68.16	0.000
con	2hab	3	389.28	1362.05	70.59	0.000
3hab	con	4	393.99	1368.78	77.32	0.000
2hab	con	3	405.45	1378.22	86.76	0.000
con	con	2	426.46	1397.22	105.76	0.000

---

$\hat{c} = 2$

---

3hab × ssn	3hab	9	153.55	655.14	0.00	0.231
3hab + ssn	3hab	7	157.92	655.43	0.29	0.200
3hab + ssn	3hab + rnd	8	156.34	655.88	0.74	0.159
3hab × ssn	3hab + rnd	10	152.33	655.97	0.83	0.153
3hab + ssn	3hab × rnd	9	154.98	656.57	1.43	0.113
3hab × ssn	3hab × rnd	11	151.20	656.89	1.75	0.096
2hab + ssn	3hab	6	166.14	661.61	6.47	0.009
2hab × ssn	3hab	7	164.41	661.91	6.77	0.008
2hab + ssn	3hab + rnd	7	164.81	662.32	7.18	0.006
2hab × ssn	3hab + rnd	8	163.28	662.83	7.69	0.005
2hab + ssn	3hab × rnd	8	163.34	662.88	7.74	0.005
2hab × ssn	3hab × rnd	9	162.08	663.67	8.53	0.003
ssn	3hab	5	170.61	664.05	8.92	0.003
ssn	3hab + rnd	6	168.87	664.34	9.20	0.002
ssn	3hab × rnd	7	166.93	664.43	9.29	0.002
3hab × ssn	2hab	8	165.02	664.56	9.42	0.002
3hab	3hab + rnd	7	168.52	666.03	10.89	0.001
3hab	3hab × rnd	8	166.59	666.13	11.00	0.001
3hab	3hab	6	171.45	666.93	11.79	0.001
3hab + ssn	2hab	6	172.79	668.27	13.13	0.000
3hab × ssn	con	7	171.17	668.67	13.54	0.000
2hab + ssn	2hab	5	177.33	670.77	15.63	0.000
2hab × ssn	2hab	6	175.35	670.82	15.68	0.000
2hab	3hab × rnd	7	176.13	673.64	18.50	0.000
2hab	3hab + rnd	6	178.20	673.68	18.54	0.000
ssn	2hab	4	182.34	673.76	18.62	0.000
3hab + ssn	con	5	180.74	674.19	19.05	0.000
2hab	3hab	5	180.91	674.35	19.22	0.000
con	3hab × rnd	6	179.15	674.62	19.48	0.000
2hab × ssn	con	5	181.38	674.83	19.69	0.000
con	3hab + rnd	5	181.54	674.98	19.85	0.000



con	3hab	4	184.75	676.17	21.04	0.000
2hab + ssn	con	4	184.95	676.36	21.23	0.000
3hab	2hab	5	184.59	678.03	22.89	0.000
2hab	2hab	4	190.53	681.95	26.82	0.000
ssn	con	3	193.42	682.82	27.69	0.000
con	2hab	3	194.64	684.04	28.90	0.000
3hab	con	4	196.99	688.41	33.28	0.000
2hab	con	3	202.72	692.12	36.99	0.000
con	con	2	213.23	700.62	45.48	0.000

---

$\hat{c} = 3$

---

3hab + ssn	3hab	7	105.28	441.66	0.00	0.253
3hab + ssn	3hab + rnd	8	104.22	442.64	0.98	0.155
3hab × ssn	3hab	9	102.37	442.83	1.17	0.141
3hab + ssn	3hab × rnd	9	103.32	443.78	2.12	0.088
3hab × ssn	3hab + rnd	10	101.55	444.06	2.40	0.076
2hab + ssn	3hab	6	110.76	445.11	3.44	0.045
3hab × ssn	3hab × rnd	11	100.80	445.36	3.70	0.040
2hab × ssn	3hab	7	109.60	445.99	4.32	0.029
ssn	3hab	5	113.74	446.06	4.40	0.028
2hab + ssn	3hab + rnd	7	109.88	446.26	4.59	0.025
ssn	3hab + rnd	6	112.58	446.93	5.26	0.018
2hab × ssn	3hab + rnd	8	108.86	447.28	5.61	0.015
2hab + ssn	3hab × rnd	8	108.89	447.31	5.65	0.015
ssn	3hab × rnd	7	111.28	447.67	6.00	0.013
3hab × ssn	2hab	8	110.01	448.43	6.77	0.009
2hab × ssn	3hab × rnd	9	108.06	448.52	6.86	0.008
3hab	3hab	6	114.30	448.65	6.99	0.008
3hab	3hab + rnd	7	112.35	448.73	7.07	0.007
3hab	3hab × rnd	8	111.06	449.48	7.82	0.005
3hab + ssn	2hab	6	115.20	449.54	7.88	0.005
3hab × ssn	con	7	114.11	450.49	8.83	0.003
2hab + ssn	2hab	5	118.22	450.54	8.88	0.003
2hab × ssn	2hab	6	116.90	451.25	9.58	0.002
ssn	2hab	4	121.56	451.85	10.19	0.002
3hab + ssn	con	5	120.50	452.82	11.15	0.001
2hab	3hab	5	120.61	452.93	11.26	0.001
2hab	3hab + rnd	6	118.80	453.15	11.49	0.001
2hab × ssn	con	5	120.92	453.24	11.58	0.001
con	3hab + rnd	5	121.03	453.35	11.68	0.001
con	3hab	4	123.17	453.46	11.80	0.001
2hab + ssn	con	4	123.30	453.59	11.93	0.001
con	3hab × rnd	6	119.43	453.78	12.12	0.001

2hab	3hab × rnd	7	117.42	453.80	12.14	0.001
3hab	2hab	5	123.06	455.38	13.72	0.000
ssn	con	3	128.95	457.23	15.56	0.000
2hab	2hab	4	127.02	457.32	15.66	0.000
con	2hab	3	129.76	458.04	16.37	0.000
3hab	con	4	131.33	461.62	19.96	0.000
2hab	con	3	135.15	463.43	21.76	0.000
con	con	2	142.15	468.42	26.75	0.000

---

$\hat{c} = 4$

---

3hab + ssn	3hab	7	78.96	334.78	0.00	0.210
3hab + ssn	3hab + rnd	8	78.17	336.03	1.24	0.113
3hab × ssn	3hab	9	76.78	336.68	1.90	0.081
2hab + ssn	3hab	6	83.07	336.85	2.07	0.074
ssn	3hab	5	85.30	337.06	2.28	0.067
3hab + ssn	3hab × rnd	9	77.49	337.39	2.61	0.057
2hab × ssn	3hab	7	82.20	338.02	3.24	0.041
3hab × ssn	3hab + rnd	10	76.17	338.11	3.33	0.040
ssn	3hab + rnd	6	84.43	338.22	3.44	0.038
2hab + ssn	3hab + rnd	7	82.41	338.23	3.45	0.037
ssn	3hab × rnd	7	83.46	339.28	4.50	0.022
2hab × ssn	3hab + rnd	8	81.64	339.50	4.72	0.020
3hab	3hab	6	85.73	339.51	4.73	0.020
2hab + ssn	3hab × rnd	8	81.67	339.53	4.75	0.020
3hab × ssn	3hab × rnd	11	75.60	339.60	4.82	0.019
3hab	3hab + rnd	7	84.26	340.08	5.30	0.015
3hab + ssn	2hab	6	86.40	340.18	5.40	0.014
3hab × ssn	2hab	8	82.51	340.37	5.59	0.013
2hab + ssn	2hab	5	88.66	340.42	5.64	0.012
ssn	2hab	4	91.17	340.90	6.12	0.010
2hab × ssn	3hab × rnd	9	81.04	340.94	6.16	0.010
3hab	3hab × rnd	8	83.29	341.15	6.37	0.009
3hab × ssn	con	7	85.58	341.40	6.62	0.008
2hab × ssn	2hab	6	87.67	341.46	6.68	0.007
con	3hab	4	92.38	342.11	7.33	0.005
3hab + ssn	con	5	90.37	342.13	7.35	0.005
2hab + ssn	con	4	92.47	342.21	7.43	0.005
2hab	3hab	5	90.45	342.21	7.43	0.005
2hab × ssn	con	5	90.69	342.45	7.67	0.005
con	3hab + rnd	5	90.77	342.53	7.75	0.004
2hab	3hab + rnd	6	89.10	342.89	8.11	0.004
con	3hab × rnd	6	89.57	343.36	8.58	0.003
2hab	3hab × rnd	7	88.07	343.88	9.10	0.002

3hab	2hab	5	92.29	344.05	9.27	0.002
ssn	con	3	96.71	344.43	9.65	0.002
2hab	2hab	4	95.27	345.00	10.22	0.001
con	2hab	3	97.32	345.03	10.25	0.001
3hab	con	4	98.50	348.23	13.45	0.000
2hab	con	3	101.36	349.08	14.30	0.000
con	con	2	106.62	352.32	17.54	0.000

---

$\hat{c} = 5$

---

3hab + ssn	3hab	7	63.17	270.65	0.00	0.153
ssn	3hab	5	68.24	271.66	1.01	0.092
2hab + ssn	3hab	6	66.45	271.90	1.25	0.082
3hab + ssn	3hab + rnd	8	62.53	272.05	1.40	0.076
3hab × ssn	3hab	9	61.42	272.98	2.33	0.048
ssn	3hab + rnd	6	67.55	273.00	2.34	0.047
2hab × ssn	3hab	7	65.76	273.24	2.59	0.042
2hab + ssn	3hab + rnd	7	65.93	273.41	2.76	0.039
3hab + ssn	3hab × rnd	9	61.99	273.56	2.91	0.036
3hab	3hab	6	68.58	274.03	3.38	0.028
ssn	3hab × rnd	7	66.77	274.25	3.60	0.025
ssn	2hab	4	72.94	274.33	3.68	0.024
2hab + ssn	2hab	5	70.93	274.35	3.70	0.024
3hab × ssn	3hab + rnd	10	60.93	274.54	3.89	0.022
3hab + ssn	2hab	6	69.12	274.57	3.92	0.022
2hab × ssn	3hab + rnd	8	65.31	274.83	4.18	0.019
2hab + ssn	3hab × rnd	8	65.34	274.86	4.20	0.019
3hab	3hab + rnd	7	67.41	274.89	4.24	0.018
con	3hab	4	73.90	275.30	4.65	0.015
2hab + ssn	con	4	73.98	275.37	4.72	0.014
3hab × ssn	2hab	8	66.01	275.53	4.88	0.013
2hab × ssn	2hab	6	70.14	275.59	4.94	0.013
3hab + ssn	con	5	72.30	275.72	5.07	0.012
2hab	3hab	5	72.36	275.78	5.13	0.012
3hab × ssn	con	7	68.47	275.95	5.30	0.011
2hab × ssn	con	5	72.55	275.97	5.32	0.011
con	3hab + rnd	5	72.62	276.04	5.39	0.010
3hab × ssn	3hab × rnd	11	60.48	276.14	5.49	0.010
3hab	3hab × rnd	8	66.64	276.16	5.51	0.010
2hab × ssn	3hab × rnd	9	64.83	276.40	5.75	0.009
2hab	3hab + rnd	6	71.28	276.73	6.08	0.007
ssn	con	3	77.37	276.75	6.10	0.007
con	3hab × rnd	6	71.66	277.11	6.46	0.006
con	2hab	3	77.86	277.23	6.58	0.006

3hab	2hab	5	73.84	277.26	6.60	0.006
2hab	2hab	4	76.21	277.61	6.96	0.005
2hab	3hab × rnd	7	70.45	277.93	7.28	0.004
3hab	con	4	78.80	280.19	9.54	0.001
2hab	con	3	81.09	280.47	9.82	0.001
con	con	2	85.29	282.66	12.01	0.000
<hr/>						
$\hat{c} = 6$						
3hab + ssn	3hab	7	52.64	227.90	0.00	0.110
ssn	3hab	5	56.87	228.06	0.17	0.101
2hab + ssn	3hab	6	55.38	228.60	0.70	0.077
3hab + ssn	3hab + rnd	8	52.11	229.41	1.51	0.052
ssn	3hab + rnd	6	56.29	229.51	1.62	0.049
ssn	2hab	4	60.78	229.95	2.05	0.039
2hab × ssn	3hab	7	54.80	230.06	2.16	0.037
2hab + ssn	3hab + rnd	7	54.94	230.19	2.30	0.035
2hab + ssn	2hab	5	59.11	230.30	2.41	0.033
3hab	3hab	6	57.15	230.38	2.48	0.032
3hab × ssn	3hab	9	51.18	230.52	2.62	0.030
con	3hab	4	61.58	230.76	2.86	0.026
2hab + ssn	con	4	61.65	230.82	2.92	0.025
3hab + ssn	2hab	6	57.60	230.82	2.92	0.025
ssn	3hab × rnd	7	55.64	230.90	3.00	0.024
3hab + ssn	3hab × rnd	9	51.66	231.00	3.10	0.023
3hab	3hab + rnd	7	56.17	231.43	3.53	0.019
3hab + ssn	con	5	60.25	231.44	3.55	0.019
2hab	3hab	5	60.30	231.50	3.60	0.018
ssn	con	3	64.47	231.63	3.73	0.017
2hab × ssn	con	5	60.46	231.66	3.76	0.017
2hab × ssn	2hab	6	58.45	231.67	3.78	0.017
con	3hab + rnd	5	60.51	231.71	3.81	0.016
2hab × ssn	3hab + rnd	8	54.43	231.72	3.83	0.016
2hab + ssn	3hab × rnd	8	54.45	231.74	3.84	0.016
con	2hab	3	64.88	232.03	4.13	0.014
3hab × ssn	3hab + rnd	10	50.78	232.16	4.27	0.013
3hab × ssn	2hab	8	55.01	232.30	4.40	0.012
3hab × ssn	con	7	57.06	232.31	4.41	0.012
2hab	3hab + rnd	6	59.40	232.62	4.73	0.010
2hab	2hab	4	63.51	232.68	4.78	0.010
3hab	2hab	5	61.53	232.72	4.83	0.010
3hab	3hab × rnd	8	55.53	232.82	4.93	0.009
con	3hab × rnd	6	59.72	232.94	5.04	0.009
2hab × ssn	3hab × rnd	9	54.03	233.37	5.47	0.007

3hab × ssn	3hab × rnd	11	50.40	233.84	5.94	0.006
2hab	3hab × rnd	7	58.71	233.97	6.07	0.005
2hab	con	3	67.57	234.73	6.83	0.004
3hab	con	4	65.66	234.84	6.94	0.003
con	con	2	71.08	236.22	8.32	0.002

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1134 F. Assessment of the reliability of song similarity scoring methods

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1137 Table S6. Differences between within individual and across individual measures of song similarity ( $\pm$  95%  
 1138 bootstrap confidence interval) by site. All differences are  $> 0$  demonstrating that, on average, within-  
 1139 individual song comparisons generated higher song similarity values than among-individual song  
 1140 comparisons within the same site.

1141

site	lower confidence limit		average difference		upper confidence limit
grassland:					
2A-R20A	0.077	–	0.109	–	0.140
4F	0.069	–	0.101	–	0.131
20C	0.009	–	0.042	–	0.074
C1B	0.067	–	0.097	–	0.127
cropland:					
Ashland	0.055	–	0.105	–	0.150
North	0.110	–	0.162	–	0.214
Strauss	0.203	–	0.238	–	0.271

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1145 Exploratory analysis conducted with cross-correlation

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1147 We conducted a preliminary study to evaluate the suitability of the cross-correlation in Raven for  
1148 quantifying song similarity in dickcissels. In this preliminary analysis, conducted in 2010, we used songs  
1149 of color-banded territorial male Dickcissels recorded in the summers of 2006-2010 at our sites described  
1150 in the main text of this paper. The within-bird portion of our analysis included 24 dickcissels present in  
1151 multiple years of the study from four sites: two sites on the Konza Prairie Biological Station (KPBS) and  
1152 two agricultural sites managed by Kansas State University (KSU). This portion included 54 song  
1153 comparisons. The between-bird portion of our analysis included 24 birds from the same sites and 2851  
1154 song comparisons.

1155

#### 1156 *Evaluation Methods*

1157 We used RavenPro 1.3 (Cornell Lab of Ornithology 2008) to convert high-quality song recordings into  
1158 visual spectrograms for analysis. We used a bandpass filter to eliminate frequencies above 20,000 Hz  
1159 and below 2,000 Hz. We removed isolated insect noises and the songs of other birds using the select  
1160 function where they did not interfere with the target bird's song.

1161

1162 Before evaluating song similarity, we focused on cissel phrases. For every date we visited a site, we  
1163 chose the cleanest recording of each cissel phrase of each birds' song to include in cross-correlation  
1164 analysis. Even if other phrases were present in the song, we only looked at dick and cissel phrases as  
1165 they appeared in some variety in every bird's song.

1166

1167 Using Raven, we performed batch cross-correlations of each phrase within each site and between the  
1168 sites producing a large matrix of cross-correlation values comparing all cissel phrases to all cissel  
1169 phrases.

1170

#### 1171 *Preliminary Findings: Within-bird v. Between Bird*

1172 The cross-correlation results comparing all birds present for multiple years showed a trend for higher  
1173 cross-correlation scores within individual birds than between birds; but ultimately within-bird cross-  
1174 correlation scores should have been consistently higher than between-bird cross-correlation scores.  
1175 Both groups had substantial unexplained variability in cross-correlation score distribution, with the same  
1176 range of scores for within-bird comparisons as in between-bird comparisons. Within-individual  
1177 comparisons produced scores as low as 0.1 and many scores < 0.6 (Figures S1, S2).

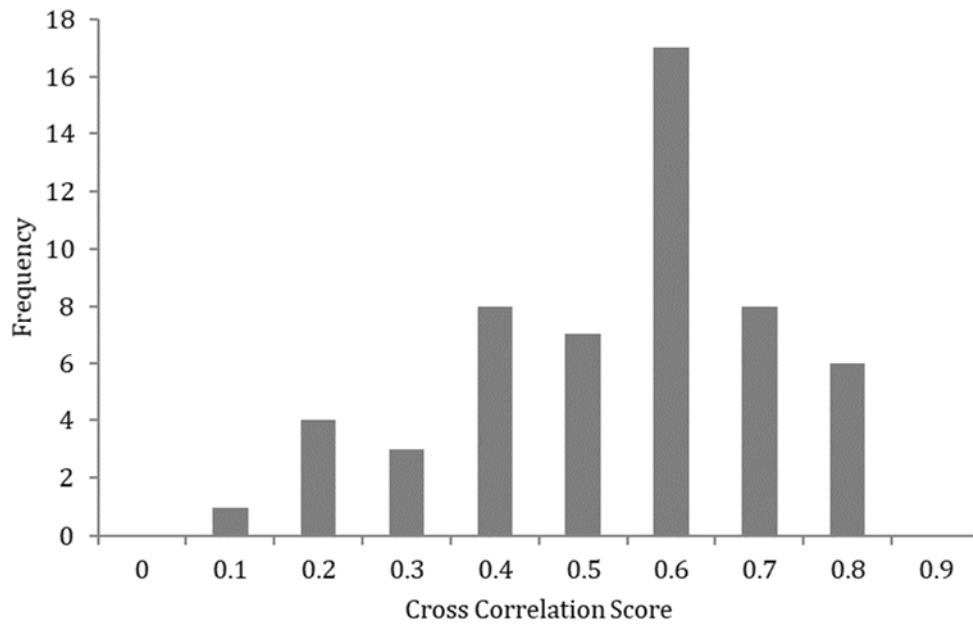
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1182 Figure S2

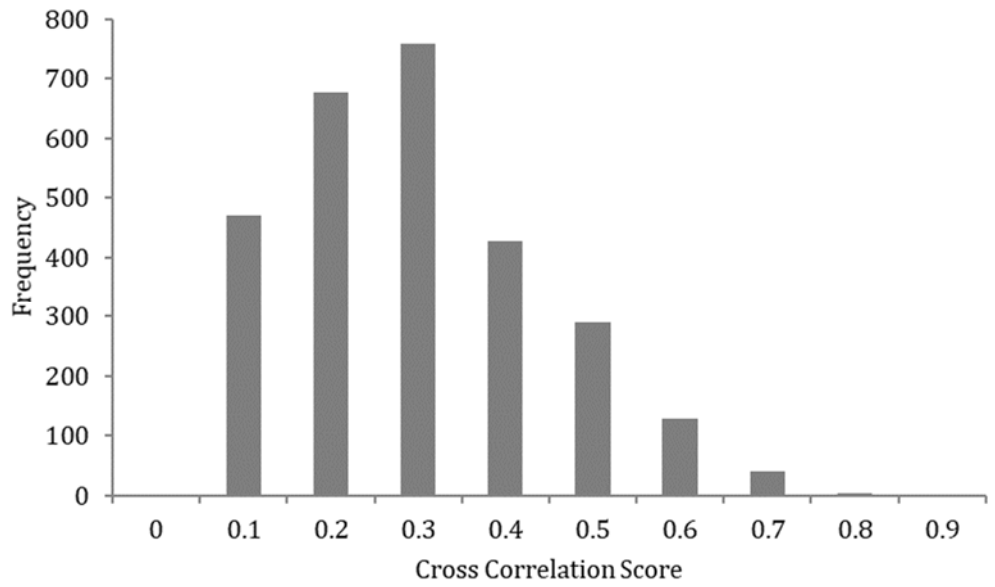


1183 Figure S2. Cross correlation scores for comparisons between two songs produced by the same male  
1184 dickcissel on different dates.  
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1189 Figure S3  
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1192 Figure S3. Cross correlation scores for comparisons between pairs of songs sung by different male  
1193 dickcissel.  
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1197 G. Model-averaged parameter estimates from mark-recapture models  
 1198

1199 Table S7. Model-averaged parameter estimates associated with all factor levels for variables included in  
 1200 candidate models in mark-recapture analyses of male dickcissels.

factor and level	weighted average phi (daily)	SE
breeding season (3 hab models)		
Cropland	0.9849295	0.0038969
Grassland (T. Parker)	0.9946631	0.0013790
Grassland (B. Sousa)	0.9934902	0.0018217
non-breeding season (3 hab models)		
Cropland	0.9976892	0.0008993
Grassland (T. Parker)	0.9989548	0.0002517
Grassland (B. Sousa)	0.9967646	0.0005383
breeding season (2 hab models)		
Cropland breeding season	0.9850170	0.0039555
Grassland breeding season	0.9946955	0.0010306
non-breeding season (2 hab models)		
Cropland non-breeding season	0.9975199	0.0009614
Grassland non-breeding season	0.9981919	0.0002413
p	weighted average p	SE
(3 hab models)		
Cropland, first occasion of the year	0.7060629	0.0811538
Cropland, subsequent occasions of the year	0.5912028	0.0748779
Grassland (T. Parker), first occasions	0.7850901	0.0447466
Grassland (T. Parker), subsequent occasions	0.7521143	0.0289636
Grassland (B. Sousa), first occasions	0.9283292	0.0210338
Grassland (B. Sousa), subsequent occasions	0.9283292	0.0210338
(2 hab models)		
Cropland, all occasions	0.6378040	0.0577879

Grassland, all occasions

0.8273261

0.0173477

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1206 H. Graphical evidence of patterns in vocal culture

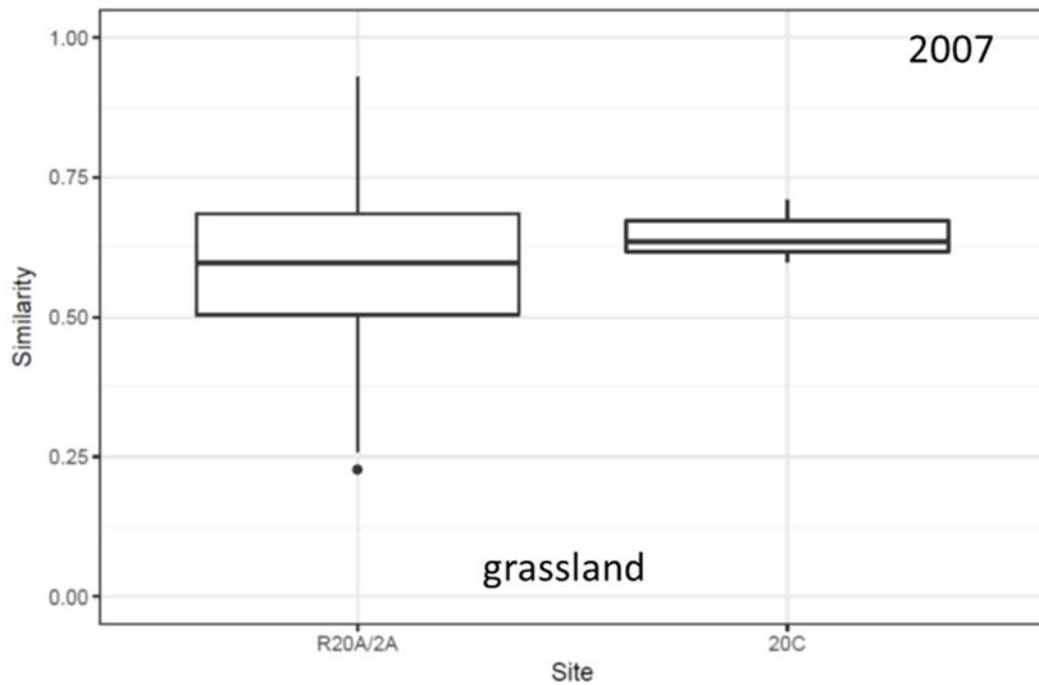
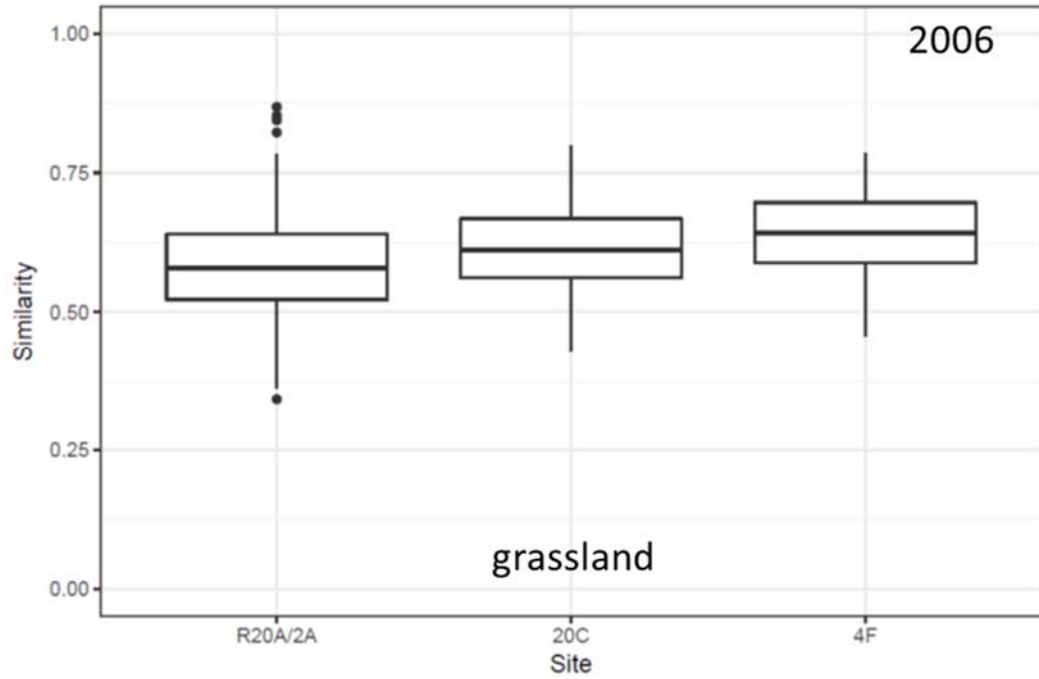
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1208 Figure S4. Plots of median song similarity values across the grassland sites (R20A/2A, 20C, 4F, C1B) and

1209 cropland sites (North, Ashland, Strauss) in different years. The central line is the median and the box

1210 represents the interquartile range (middle 50<sup>th</sup> percentile).

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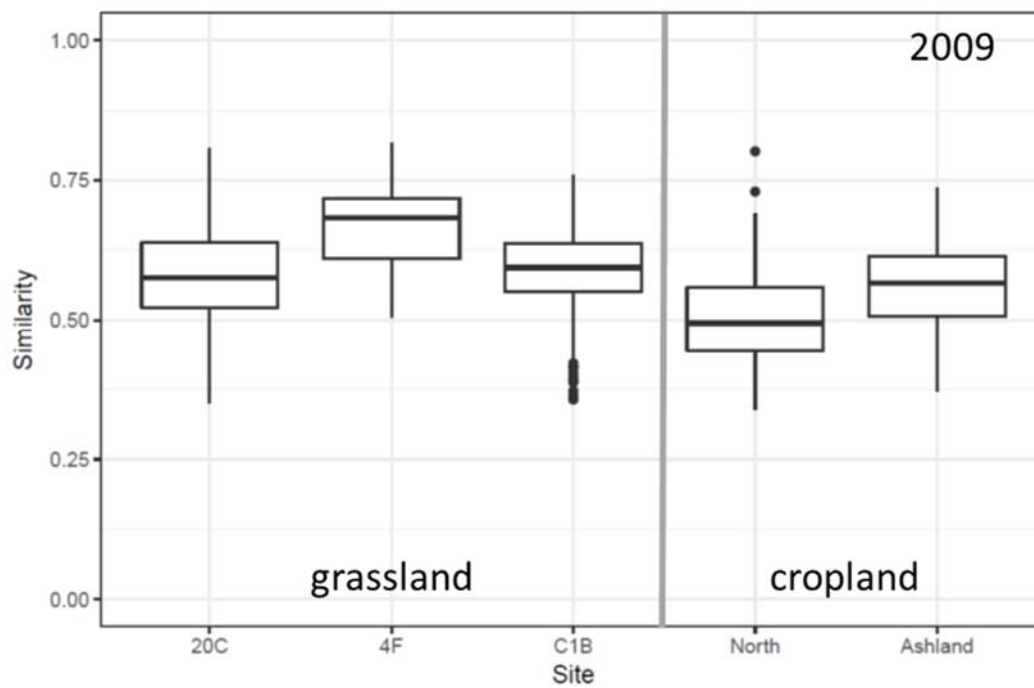
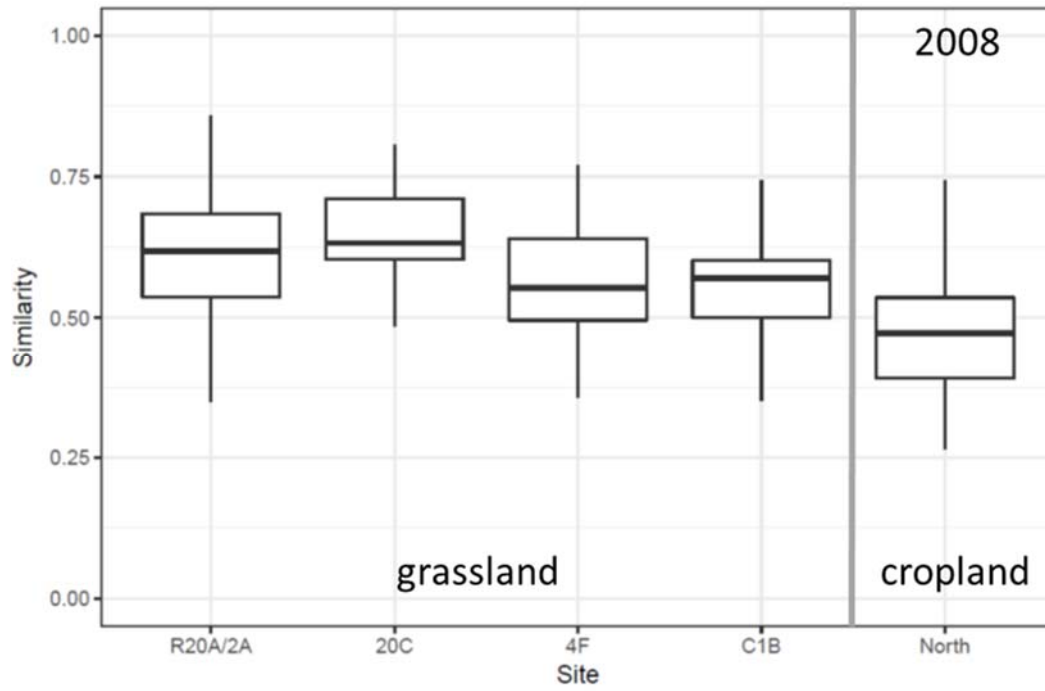
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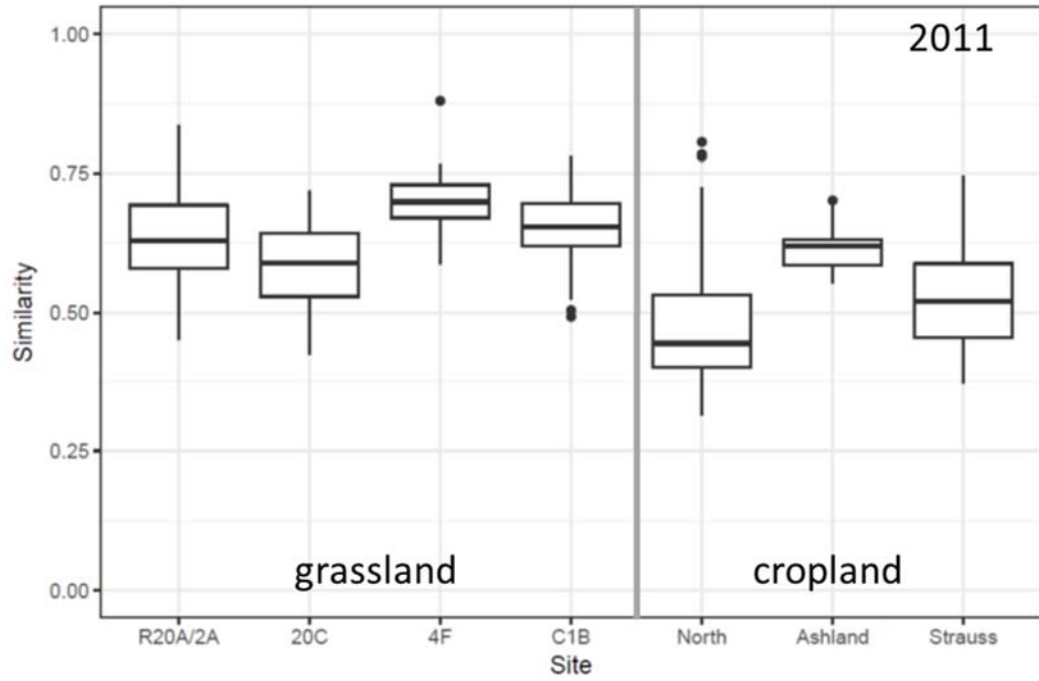
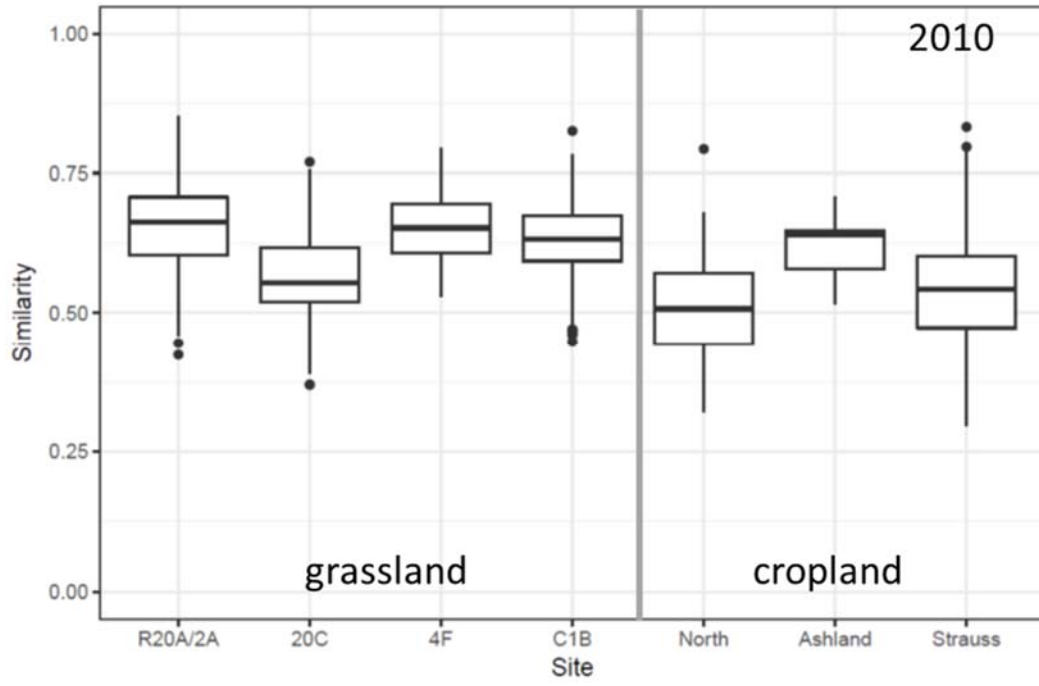
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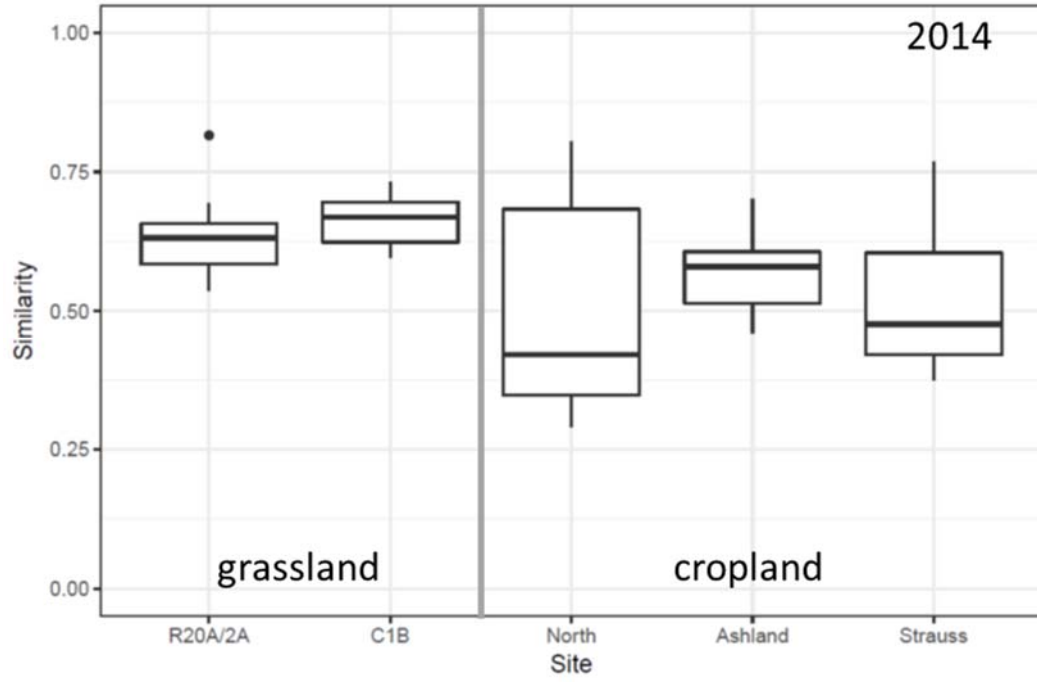


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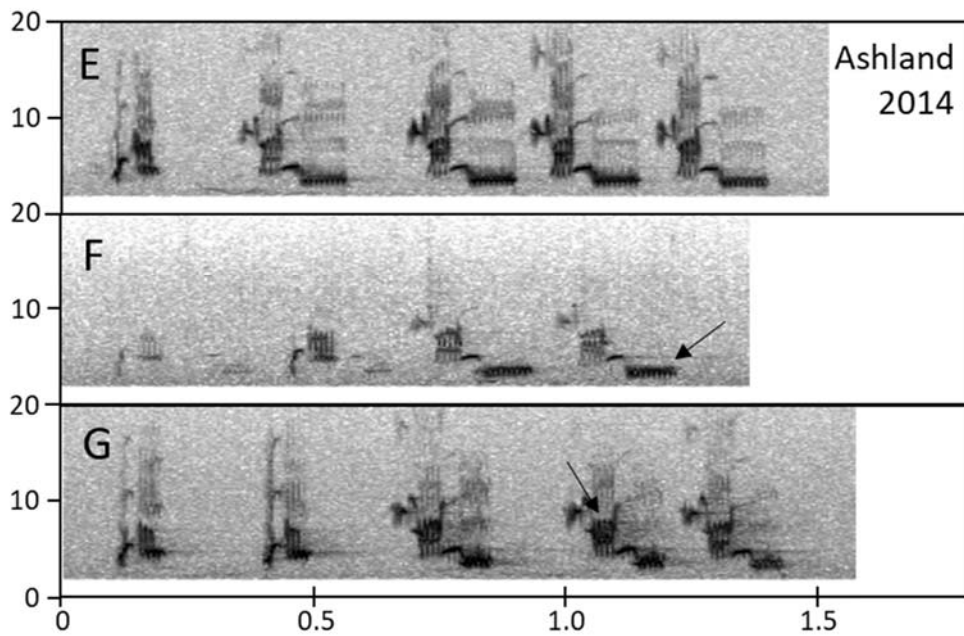
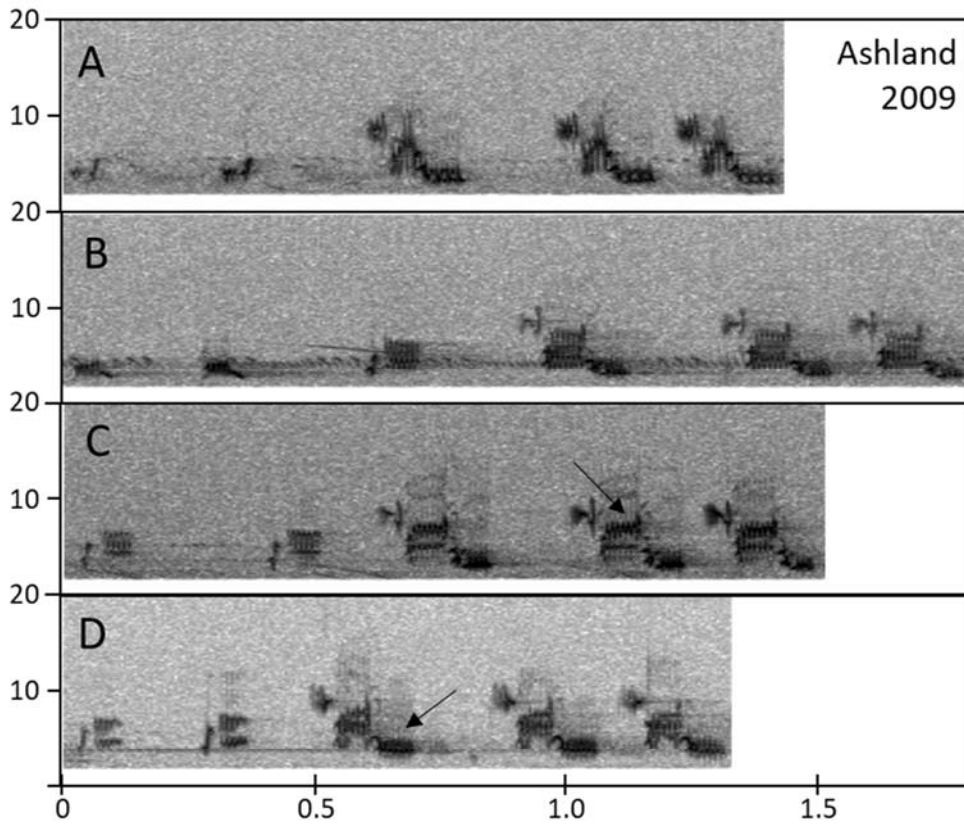


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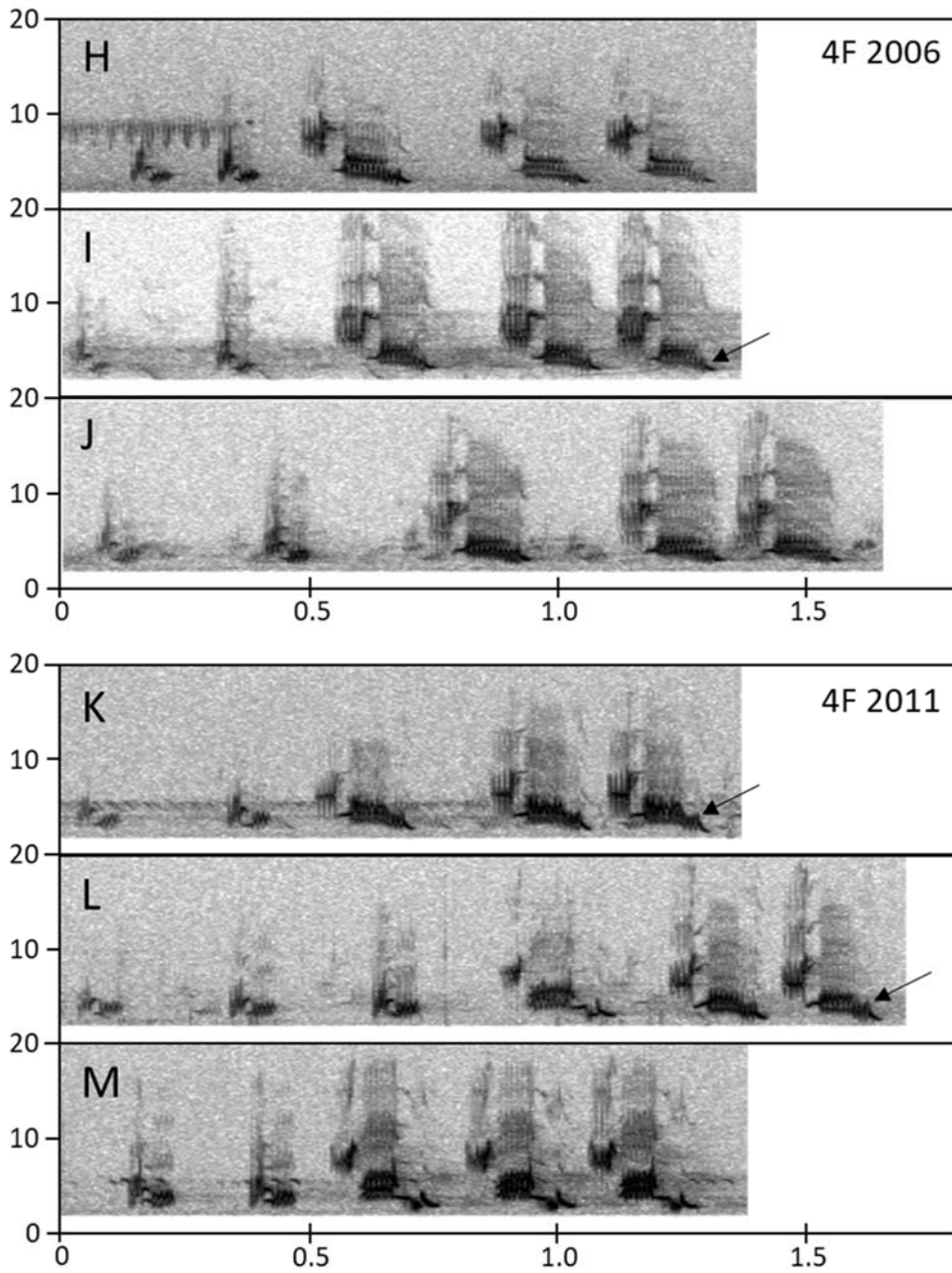
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1233 Figure S5. Changes in vocal culture of dickcissels over five years at two different sites (Ashland, a  
1234 cropland site, 2009 and 2014; 4F a grassland site, 2006 and 2011). In most Ashland songs in 2014, the  
1235 central portion of cissel phrase (arrow in panel G) was of shorter duration than the comparable portion  
1236 in 2009 (arrow in panel C). Also, the low frequency terminal portion of the cissel phrase tended to be  
1237 much longer and to have a narrower frequency range in 2014 (arrow in panel F) than in 2009 (arrow in  
1238 panel D). Some of the evident differences in 4F songs are more subtle. For instance, the final note of the  
1239 common cissel phrase in 2006 (arrow in panel I) was of slightly longer duration and greater frequency  
1240 range in 2011 (arrow in panel K). However, a distinctly different cissel phrase can also be seen in some  
1241 2011 songs. Some males in 2011 only produced this different type of cissel (panel M), but some other  
1242 males produced both types of cissels (panel L).  
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1257 I. Literature Cited

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