

1 **Defending as a unit: sex- and context-specific territorial defence in a duetting bird**

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12

13 **Abstract**

14 Behaviours such as territorial defence represent functionally integrated traits that underlie
15 multiple behavioural variables such as physical and acoustic responses. Characterizing the
16 multivariate structure of such traits is fundamental to understand their evolution. In bird
17 species that form stable pair bonds and are territorial year-round, both sexes are expected to
18 defend their territory; however, the role that each sex plays in defending their shared territory
19 remains largely unknown. Evidence for the sex-roles during territorial defence is mixed and
20 sex- and context-specific characterizations of territorial defence embracing the multivariate
21 nature of the trait are currently lacking. Here we investigated sex- and context-specific
22 variation in a hypothesised latent variable called “territorial defence” and tested whether duets
23 were part of territorial defence in a wild population of rufous horned (*Furnarius rufus*). To
24 do so, we combined a simulated territorial intrusion approach during nest building and
25 provisioning contexts with a structural equation modelling approach. Our results showed that,
26 in males and females, the six measured behavioural variables were linked by a single latent
27 trait, territorial defence, in both contexts. Flights over the decoy and duet songs were equally
28 good proxies of territorial defence. Although males were defending more the territory than
29 females, pair members showed a positive correlation in their behaviour. The structural
30 equation modelling framework enabled us to capture a complex correlation pattern among
31 behavioural variables, expanding upon a classic body of research on territorial defence. Thus,
32 the combination of classical behavioural approaches with sophisticated statistical analyses
33 brings new exciting possibilities to the field of behavioural ecology.

34 **Keywords:** territorial aggression, duets, behavioural character, phenotypic integration, female
35 aggression, structural equation analysis

36 **Significance statement**

37 Territorial defence is a key behaviour in territorial species as it plays a major role in an
38 individual's reproductive success and survival. Additionally, territorial defence has been
39 proposed as one possible evolutionary driver of duetting behaviour, one of the most
40 fascinating vocal behaviours in birds. As behaviours are evolutionary characters, they must be
41 studied in a multivariate framework. In this study we focused on characterizing territorial
42 defence during a simulated territorial intrusion in an integrative manner using a classical
43 territorial intrusion framework. We did so in male and female rufous horneros (Aves:
44 *Furnaridae*) across two breeding contexts, while simultaneously testing theoretical
45 predictions about the role of duetting behaviour as key part of territorial defence. Overall, our
46 study provides for the first time a sex- and context-comparison of the multivariate, latent
47 variable "territorial defence" in duetting birds, while highlighting the potential of combining
48 field behavioural approaches with structural equation modelling.

49

50 **Introduction**

51 Behaviours, such as territorial defence, are typically studied by simultaneously measuring
52 different observable variables (e.g. “number of attacks”, “latency of response”, “proximity”
53 measures, and/or “vocal responses”; Wingfield 1994; Bollen 2002). Extensive empirical
54 research over the last decades has focused on analyzing male and, to a lesser extent, female
55 territorial defence behaviour using different approaches. Evidence generally shows that
56 multiple components of an animal's defence response in a territory intrusion are intercorrelated
57 (e.g. Huntingford 1976; Sprenger et al. 2012). When these multiple behaviours are
58 functionally related, they might be considered expressions of a single evolutionary character
59 (Araya-Ajoy and Dingemanse 2013). Their study should therefore not be addressed by means
60 of bivariate correlations but integrate the multivariate nature of the behaviour by quantifying
61 unobserved, biologically-relevant latent variables (Houle et al. 2011; Carter and Feeney 2012;
62 Araya-Ajoy and Dingemanse 2013). One way to characterize “territorial defence” as an
63 evolutionary character while also quantifying which of the observed behavioural variables
64 should be considered expressions of it, is to apply a Structural Equation Modelling approach
65 (SEM; e.g. Card and Little 2007). This statistical framework allows to explore complex
66 correlation patterns among multiple behavioural variables, and to test *a priori* defined
67 hypotheses of how multiple observed behavioural variables are linked by the unmeasured
68 latent variable (Araya-Ajoy and Dingemanse 2013).

69 Territorial defence behaviour has been widely studied in diverse organisms from
70 insects to several groups of vertebrates (reviewed in Smith and Blumstein 2008), likely
71 because of its impact on fitness (Stamps and Krishnan 1997; Smith and Blumstein 2008).
72 During territory defence, aggressive interactions can be beneficial for both males and females
73 because an intrusion of a conspecific into the breeding territory might, for example, lead to
74 loss of limited resources (Stamps and Krishnan 1997; Garcia and Arroyo 2002). Nevertheless,
75 the sex-specific contribution to territory defence differs among species according to variation
76 in mating systems and parental care (Emlen and Oring 1977; Clutton-Brock and Vincent
77 1991; Owens and Thompson 1994). In birds, among those species that form stable pair bonds
78 and are territorial year round, it is expected that males and females equally contribute to
79 territory defence (Greenberg and Gradwohl 1983). In line with this prediction, in dot-winged
80 antwrens (*Microrhoptia quixensis*) and in the purple-crowned and red-backed fairy-wrens
81 (*Malurus coronatus*, *Malurus melanocephalus*) both sexes contribute to the same extent to
82 defend their territory (Greenberg and Gradwohl 1983; Hall and Peters 2008; Dowling and
83 Webster 2016). However, these findings were not observed in other antbird species

84 (*Phaenostictus mcleannani*, Willis 1972; *Cercomacra tyrannina*; Morton and Derrickson
85 1996; *Hylophylax naevioides*; Bard et al. 2002; *Myrmeciza longipes*; Fedy and Stutchbury
86 2005), in the zenaida dove (*Zenaida aurita*; Quinard and Cézilly 2012) and in the rufous
87 hornero (*Furnarius rufus*; Diniz et al. 2018), where males engaged more in defensive
88 interactions than females. In addition, whilst intensity of territorial defence can be positively
89 correlated within pairs in some species (especially on those that duet e.g. Logue 2005; Hall
90 and Peters 2008), in others the opposite relationship is true (e.g. zenaida dove; Quinard and
91 Cézilly 2012). Therefore, the generality of sex-specific territorial defence as well as its
92 intensity from both members of a pair remains poorly understood in species that are socially
93 monogamous and territorial year-round. Furthermore, it also remains largely unknown
94 whether the same observed behavioural variables characterize the latent variable territorial
95 defence in males and females and across different breeding contexts. For instance, it is still an
96 open question whether territorial defence is equally characterized by physical and vocal
97 behaviours in both sexes and across contexts. Studies describing territorial defence as a latent
98 variable using SEM and explaining broader patterns of territorial defence across sexes or
99 contexts, will help to shed light on these questions and further our understanding of the
100 evolution of male and female defence of territory.

101 While physical displays are considered the main defensive responses, the role of vocal
102 displays as defensive signals remains under discussion (see Searcy and Beecher 2009; Naguib
103 and Mennill 2010). Among the vocal displays that take place during agonistic interactions,
104 perhaps the most fascinating one is duetting – occurring in around 18% of avian species
105 worldwide (Tobias et al. 2016). Duets are defined as coordinated vocal interactions between
106 two individuals - usually a male and female of a pair - that occur with a given temporal
107 precision (Farabaugh 1982; Hall 2004). Duets are hypothesised to represent an important
108 component of territorial defence (Langmore 1998; Hall 2004). In particular, the “joint
109 territorial defence” hypothesis, proposed as one evolutionary driver of duetting behaviour
110 (Wickler and Seibt 1980), postulates that duets allow pairs to cooperatively defend resources
111 from conspecific intruders (Robinson 1949; reviewed by Hall 2004). A central prediction of
112 the “joint territorial defence” hypothesis is that duets are threatening signals, stronger than
113 solo songs (Hall 2004). To date, few studies investigated duetting in the context of territorial
114 defence across different life-history stages (Topp and Mennill 2008; Odom et al. 2017;
115 Quirós-Guerrero et al. 2017; Sosa-López et al. 2017; Diniz et al. 2018). The few that did so
116 used mainly three methods: i) context criterion (i.e. which compares responses towards
117 acoustic stimuli that represent different contexts, like only male/female solo songs, only duet

118 songs or only heterospecific songs; e.g. Dowling and Webster 2016), ii) response criterion
119 (i.e. which compares responses with and without a playback stimulus e.g. Hall and Peters
120 2008), and iii) correlation methods (i.e. which applies correlation techniques and principal
121 component transformations on behavioural data, e.g. Kolof and Mennil 2013). However, none
122 of the abovementioned methods allow to test the role that duets play in the context of
123 territorial defence while embracing the multivariate nature of this traits as a latent variable.

124 We conducted simulated territorial intrusions (STI) in the territory of focal pairs of
125 rufous horneros during two contexts in the breeding season: nest building and chick
126 provisioning. The rufous hornero, hereafter hornero, is a single brooded furnarid bird species
127 that is widely distributed throughout southern South America (Fraga 1980). Horneros are
128 territorial year round, socially monogamous (Fraga 1980; Diniz et al. 2018) and both
129 members of the pair are involved in defending their territory (Fraga 1980; Diniz et al. 2018).
130 Indeed, all breeding behaviours studied in horneros so far are performed in an equitable and
131 coordinated manner between sexes, such as incubation, parental care-related activities and
132 even territorial defence in non-breeding context (Fraga 1980; Massoni et al. 2012; Diniz et al.
133 2020). Also, previous studies on this species suggest that duets have a territorial function
134 (Diniz et al. 2018, 2019, 2020). However, these studies were either acoustic-centered (Diniz
135 et al. 2018, 2019) or carried out during a non-breeding season (Diniz et al. 2020), and none of
136 them considered the multivariate nature of territorial defence.

137 The main goals of our study were first to characterize the multivariate nature of
138 territorial defence in male and female horneros, and to test whether duets were indeed part of
139 the defence displays during a territorial intrusion. Our second goal was to quantify phenotypic
140 variation across sexes, breeding contexts and pair members. Our third goal was to evaluate the
141 level of coordination between sexes during territorial defence. To do so, we constructed a
142 series of structural equation models where we tested three hypotheses of potential associations
143 among the behavioural variables: model 1 hypothesised that each territorial defence behaviour
144 is independent and not part of a functional unit or evolutionary character; model 2
145 hypothesises that one latent variable, “territorial defence”, underlies the relationships between
146 all behavioural variables; and model 3 hypothesises that all behavioural variables except
147 number of duet songs are linked by the latent variable “territorial defence”. These models
148 were therefore specifically constructed to test the “joint territorial defence” hypothesis (Hall
149 2009). According to this hypothesis, for our first aim, we predicted duets to be part of the
150 latent trait ‘territorial defence’ and to be more relevant than solo songs. We also predicted that
151 territorial defence will be characterized by the same behavioural traits (i.e. number of duets,

152 number of flights over the decoy, times spent within 5m of the decoy, number of solo songs,
153 time spent on nest) in males and females. Second, we predicted that in our STIs males would
154 defend more their territories than females. This was based on the notion that, although in
155 neotropical birds there is mixed evidence for the sexual difference in territorial defence, a
156 recent study reported that male horneros engaged more in defending their territories than
157 females (Diniz et al. 2018). Further, because in horneros territory take-over is expected to be a
158 stronger driver of aggression than paternity loss (i.e. extra-pair paternity levels are ~ 3%;
159 Diniz et al. 2019), we predicted higher levels of territory defence earlier in the nest building
160 than in the provisioning context (see also Demko and Mennill 2018). Finally, we predicted
161 both members of the pair to positively correlate their territory defence behaviors (e.g. Diniz et
162 al. 2020).

163

164 **Materials and Methods**

165 **Field site and experimental procedures**

166 We studied pairs of horneros in two periods during 2016 on the campus of INIA “Las Brujas”
167 (National Institute of Agricultural Research), department of Canelones, Uruguay (34°40’ S,
168 56°20’ W; 0-35 m a.s.l.). Behavioural assays were carried out during “nest-building” (i.e.
169 when pairs were observed finishing their nests and females were in their fertile period; August
170 23rd – September 27th), and “provisioning” periods (i.e. when pairs were observed feeding
171 their young; November 7th – December 6th). Overall, we observed 39 males and 38 females
172 during nest building and 25 males and 24 females during provisioning. Each pair was tested
173 only one time (i.e. either during the nest-building or during the provisioning period). It was
174 not possible to record data blind because our study involved focal animals in the field. All the
175 behavioural assays were performed between 07h00 and 13h00. We quantified territorial
176 defence behaviours by performing simulated territorial intrusions (STI) in the territory of a
177 focal pair. Once the focal pair was identified, a stuffed decoy of a hornero together with
178 playback sounds was presented 10 metres away from the pair’s nest. Using two decoys could
179 have been more realistic; however, we could not do this for ethical reasons. Every STI
180 playback lasted 20 minutes and consisted of randomly selected stimuli from a pool of ten
181 male solo songs, ten duets and ten audio files containing 7-15 seconds of silence. The
182 auditory stimuli for each STI were randomly selected to avoid pseudo-replication of the
183 acoustic component across territories (e.g. Apfelbeck et al. 2011), to avoid a behavioural bias
184 towards specific songs or duets, and to elicit comparable behavioural responses across
185 territories. Our approach hinged on the notion that horneros are suboscines and do not learn

186 their vocalizations (Freeman et al. 2017). This is, compared to oscines, the acoustic variability
187 of songs and duets across individuals is low (Freeman et al. 2017). We played silence tracks
188 of different length to avoid habituation in the focal birds. All playback sounds were “wav”
189 files recorded in Uruguay and were obtained from the database of Xeno-canto ([www.xeno-](http://www.xeno-canto.org)
190 [canto.org](http://www.xeno-canto.org)) and normalized in amplitude. All the sounds were broadcasted from a single
191 speaker (Douglas and Mennil 2010). Although a multiple-speaker approach would have been
192 more realistic, because horneros frequently perform their duets while close to each other, it is
193 unlikely that our set-up introduced a bias in the STIs. We simultaneously recorded the
194 behaviour of each individual of the pair during the 20 minutes of STI (mean \pm SE; 19.96 \pm
195 0.23 min). Two observers performed the observations from a distance of 15 metres using
196 digital voice recorders (Philips VoiceTraicer DVT1200 and Olympus Digital Recorder VN-
197 733 PC). The focal bird was randomly assigned to each observer. The following measures
198 were recorded: 1) response latency (time between start of playback and first approach within
199 10 metres from the dummy), 2) time spent within five metres of the decoy, 3) average time
200 spent on the nest during a visit, 4) number of solo songs, 5) number of duet songs, and 6)
201 number of flights over the decoy (i.e. flights directed to and over the decoy). Regarding the
202 variable ‘number of duets’, we initially considered the fact that both males and females can
203 initiate the duet (Diniz et al, 2018). However, during our STIs there were seldom cases in
204 which the female initiated the duet, and none were during nest building. For this reason, we
205 only considered the number of duets as a joint variable across sexes in our models.
206 Additionally, the solo songs in males represent instances in which females decided not to join
207 in the duet. The sex of each bird could be determined from the acoustic signature of each
208 individual because the vocal contribution of each sex in the duet is dimorphic (Roper 2005).
209 As part of a different project, birds were captured after the STI and the sex was verified by
210 PCR (sex was correctly assigned by the observers in 96.3% of the cases for those individuals
211 to whom the sex could be assigned acoustically and were trapped in the nets; for details see
212 Adreani et al. 2018).

213

214 **Statistical analyses**

215 *(i) Structural equation modelling*

216 First, we applied a structural equation modelling (SEM) approach to study three *a priori*
217 hypotheses of relationships among the six behavioural variables quantified during the
218 simulated territorial intrusion (i.e. response latency, time spent within five metres of the
219 decoy, time spent on the nest, number of solo songs, number of duet songs, and number of

220 flights over the decoy; Fig. 1). Of the three models for each sex and context, model 1
221 represents a (biologically unrealistic) “null” expectation (i.e. each defensive behaviour is
222 independent and not part of a functional unit or evolutionary character); model 2 hypothesises
223 that one latent variable, “territorial defence”, underlies the relationships between the six
224 behavioural variables; and model 3 hypothesises that all behavioural variables except number
225 of duet songs are linked by the latent variable “territorial defence”. While more complex
226 structural models could be constructed (i.e. including trade-offs between behavioural
227 variables), the present framework is the one that allows for a straightforward testing the “joint
228 territorial defence” hypothesis (Hall 2009). We estimated each structural equation model
229 separately for males and females because we only have one measure of the number of duet
230 songs from a single pair and, therefore, it is not possible to disentangle the sex-differences in
231 number of duets on the latent variable territorial defence. We also estimated each model
232 separately for the two breeding contexts (i.e. nest building *vs.* provision context). The
233 formulation of these four different sets of models allowed us to qualitatively assess whether
234 there were differences between sexes and breeding contexts (nest building and provisioning)
235 in the structure and strength of the hypothesized latent variable. Therefore, besides
236 characterizing the latent variable structure, we were also interested in qualitatively
237 investigating differences between sexes and contexts in path loadings across models (i.e.
238 whether behavioural traits maintain their rank differences among path loadings). We also
239 constructed a single model for each sex in both breeding contexts, where the 12 different
240 behavioural variables were modelled simultaneously. However, we decided to present here
241 the separated models, one for each breeding context, because the full model (i.e., with the 12
242 variables) is likely over-parametrized (i.e., there was a compromise between the complexity
243 of the SEM models fitted and the number of observations given the number of variables tested
244 in each SEM). See Supplementary Material for further details on the full model (Table S1-2
245 and Fig S1).

246 To test the relative fit of each alternative biological hypotheses, we first estimated the
247 matrix of phenotypic correlations of all the behavioural variables for each combination of sex
248 and breeding context. The correlation matrix was constructed using Spearman coefficients
249 obtained with the R package “stats” in R v. 3.3.3 (R Core Team 2013). Data on “response
250 latency” were missing for one out of 38 individual females during nest building and data for
251 “time spent on the nest” were missing for two out of 24 females during provisioning. We
252 assigned the average population phenotypic value of each trait to those individuals with
253 missing values (note that a “complete-case analysis” did not change our findings, results not

254 shown). We then implemented each among-trait correlation matrix in the R-package “sem”
255 and tested the different SEM hypotheses. We statistically compared each model’s fit using the
256 Akaike Information Criterion for small sample sizes (AICc; Burnham and Anderson 2004)
257 and evaluated their relative support based on AICc differences relative to the best-fitting
258 model (ΔAICc). We also present values for the Goodness of Fit Index (GFI), which represents
259 the proportion in the improvement of the overall fit of a given hypothesised model compared
260 to the independence model. GFI values range from 0 (poor fit) to 1 (perfect fit), being
261 considered as satisfactory when it is higher than 0.9.

262

263 *(ii) Univariate mixed-effect models*

264 As a second step, we investigated sources of variation in territorial defence behaviour in our
265 population of horneros using a series of univariate mixed models. This step was necessary
266 because we were also interested in investigating sex-differences in territorial defence.
267 However, as we only had a single measure of number of duets per pair, we could not test for
268 sources of variation in territorial defence using our multivariate SEM approach. Thus, we ran
269 two univariate mixed-effect models fitting number of flights over the decoy and number of
270 duets as the response variables, respectively. Though we had measured various potential
271 proxies of territorial defence (detailed above), we used number of flights over decoy and
272 number of duet songs because they consistently had the highest value in path loading across
273 all models (for a further discussion on the rationale of this approach, see Araya-Ajoy and
274 Dingemanse 2013). Breeding context (nest building vs. provisioning), sex (male vs. female)
275 and their interaction, time of the day (i.e. moment of the day when the territorial intrusion was
276 simulated, expressed in decimal fractions of hours after sunrise and mean centred), and
277 observer identity (observer 1 vs. 2) were included as fixed effects in the univariate mixed-
278 effect models. Time of day was mean centred, such that the fixed-effect intercept of the model
279 was estimated for the behavioural trait on the average time (following Dingemanse and
280 Dochtermann 2013). In the model with “number of flights over the decoy” as a response
281 variable, we fitted random intercepts for pair identity (“Pair identity”; $n = 63$ levels). In the
282 model with “number of duet songs”, we did not include this random effect because we did not
283 have repeated measures of duet song frequency for the same pair identity. Both response
284 variables, number of flights over the decoy and number of duet songs, were modelled with
285 Poisson errors with a log-link function. In both models, we included an observation level
286 random effect to account for over-dispersion (Harrison 2014). The analyses were performed
287 using the R packages “lme4” (Bates et al. 2014) and “arm” (Gelman and Yu-Sung 2015). We

288 used the “sim” R function to simulate posterior distributions of the model parameters. Based
289 on 5000 simulations, we extracted the mean value and 95% Credible Intervals (CrI) of the
290 posterior distributions. Model fit was assessed by visual inspection of the residuals.
291 Assessment of statistical support was obtained from the posterior distribution of each
292 parameter (Zuur 2016). We considered an effect “strongly supported” if zero was not included
293 within the 95% CI, and “moderately supported” if the point estimate was skewed away from
294 zero while its 95% CI simultaneously overlapped zero. Estimates centred on zero were
295 viewed as strong support for the absence of an effect.

296

297 *(iii) Correlation between male and female contribution to territorial defence*

298 We studied the correlation pattern between male and female territorial defence to investigate
299 whether defence response within a pair was positively correlated. To do so, we estimated the
300 Spearman correlation coefficient of “number of flights over the decoy” between males and
301 females from a single pair. This correlation was calculated by including in our analysis all
302 pairs observed during both contexts ($n = 91$ pairs), given that we found no differences in the
303 number of flights over the decoy between the nest building and provisioning contexts (see
304 below). The correlation test was performed using the R-package “stats” in R v. 3.3.3 (R Core
305 Team 2013).

306

307 **Results**

308 (i) Territorial defence as a latent trait and the role of duetting

309 The behavioural variables assayed during the simulated territorial intrusion (i.e. response
310 latency, time spent within five metres of the decoy, time spent on the nest, number of solo
311 songs, number of duet songs, and number of flights over the decoy) were, to a varying extent,
312 correlated with each other; both across sexes and contexts (Table S3, S4). Overall, horneros
313 with shorter latency of response to the territorial intrusion spent more time within five metres
314 of the decoy and on the nest, sang more solo and duet songs, and flew more often over the
315 decoy, suggesting the existence of the hypothesised latent variable “territorial defence”
316 linking the six behavioural variables.

317 AICc model comparison identified the SEM model 2 as the best one (among the
318 models we fitted) explaining the structure of the phenotypic variables across the four different
319 set of models (Table 1). Model 2 represented an overarching latent variable (“territorial
320 defence”) linking the expression of all behavioural variables, including the number of duet
321 songs (Fig. 1A). Furthermore, the number of duet songs together with the number of flights

322 over the decoy had consistently the highest values of path loading in males and females for
323 both breeding context (Fig. 1B, Table S5). We thus considered them both equally good
324 predictors for territory defence in horneros. Furthermore, a standard index of model fit
325 ("Goodness of Fit Index") considered satisfactory our best fitting model across all models
326 (i.e., GFI values for Model 2 were around or above 0.90 across all models, Table 1).

327

328 *(ii) Effect of sex, breeding context and time of the day on territorial defence*

329 We did not find strong evidence that horneros differed in the number of duet songs between
330 the nest building and provisioning context. While the effect size is moderately supported, the
331 evidence is weak due to large uncertainty (Table 2; Fig. 2A). We did not find differences in
332 the number of duets explained by time of the day (Table 2). Regarding the number of flights
333 over the decoy, males were on average defending more (i.e. flew more times over the decoy)
334 than females during both breeding contexts (Table 2; Fig. 2B). However, we again found
335 weak evidence that horneros differed in the number of flights over the decoy between the nest
336 building and provisioning context, and there were also no sex-specific differences between
337 the two breeding contexts (i.e. the effect sizes are relatively large but estimated with large
338 uncertainty, therefore the support is moderate; Table 2, Fig. 2B). Furthermore, we observed
339 moderate effects of time of day and observer identity in our model (the estimates include zero
340 in their 95% CrI, but the effect sizes are considerable).

341

342 *(iii) Defending as a unit: correlation between male and female territorial defence*

343 We investigated whether the defensive response to a territory intrusion of an individual was
344 correlated with the response expressed by its partner. We found that territorial defence of
345 males and females within pairs was strongly positively correlated ($\rho = 0.67$, $p < 0.0001$).
346 Thereby, within a single pair, male and female had matching levels of defensive response
347 (Fig. 3).

348

349 **Discussion**

350 We studied territorial defence in both male and female horneros and the role of duets during
351 nest building and provisioning contexts. By using structural equation modelling, we were able
352 to demonstrate that six observed behavioural variables (i.e. response latency, time spent
353 within five metres of the decoy, average time spent on the nest during a visit, number of solo
354 songs, number of duet songs, and number of flights over the decoy) were linked by an
355 unmeasured latent trait "territorial defence", both across sexes and contexts (Fig. 1). We also

356 found that the number of flights over the decoy and duet songs were the variables with highest
357 path loading to territorial defence. We then proceed to study independently those two traits
358 with highest path loadings and showed that males were defending territories more strongly
359 than were females during both breeding contexts, even though we only found weak evidence
360 for differences between contexts within each sex (owing to large uncertainty in our estimate,
361 Fig. 2). Lastly and as expected, we observed a strong positive correlation in territorial defence
362 between males and females within the pair (Fig. 3).

363 The correlation structure of the latent variable territorial defence was similar in males
364 and females, providing for the first time a sex-comparison of the latent variable “territorial
365 defence” in birds. We also observed that the sign and magnitude of the path loadings between
366 breeding contexts (i.e. nest building and provisioning) were very similar (Fig. 1B). Our results
367 thus suggest the existence of a common structure in defensive behaviour during territorial
368 intrusion in horneros, potentially underlined by a sex- and context-independent mechanism
369 that is affecting all behavioural variables in a similar manner. However, to draw general
370 evolutionary patterns of territorial defence it would be necessary to investigate whether the
371 described latent variable is under selection as an integrated trait (i.e. functional module) and
372 whether the same structure among traits is observed in other life-history stages (e.g. outside
373 the breeding season) or in different ecological contexts (e.g. as territorial defence against
374 predators or nest-parasitic species). Importantly, by using a structural equation modelling
375 approach we were able to reveal complex relationships for multiple traits that would have
376 otherwise not been possible to capture. Traditional statistical approaches such as multiple
377 regression analysis or principal component analysis (PCA) are not suitable to evaluate
378 different *a priori* defined hypotheses while accounting for trait correlation. PCAs are defined
379 purely on the basis of mathematical associations between the traits and so their biological
380 meaning can be challenging to interpret or even nonexistent. However, SEM provides a more
381 interpretable method of viewing variation among correlated variables. Although SEM will
382 ultimately be defined by mathematical associations like PCAs, with SEM, one makes use of
383 biological information to fit the correlation structure to be tested among variables. Therefore,
384 SEM has a clear advantage over PCA in terms of making biological inferences from the data.
385 Lastly, another advantage of using a structural equation modelling approach is related to data
386 collection methods. The fact that the number of flights over the decoy and duets songs were
387 the variables with the highest path loadings to territorial defence indicates that by measuring
388 only these two observable behaviours, and not all six, researchers should have a good
389 estimation of territorial defence – at least in those studies that aim to quantify territorial

390 defence towards conspecifics in horneros. Nonetheless, a good biological use of the approach
391 would require a validation of the method for each new species where territorial defence is to
392 be characterized.

393 In the context of territorial defence, duets have been mostly studied as a single trait
394 independently of other complementary or related behaviours in multiple bird species (e.g.
395 Hall and Peters 2008; Dowling and Webster 2016; Odom et al. 2017; Quirós-Guerrero et al.
396 2017). Here we explicitly tested for the first time whether duets are a behavioural variable
397 linked by a latent trait, “territorial defence”. We did so by combining a classical STI approach
398 with structural equation modelling. One of the predictions of the “joint territorial defence”
399 hypothesis is that duets should play a more important role than solo songs (Hall 2009). As
400 expected, in our study duets represented an important response during territorial defence for
401 both sexes and breeding contexts. They were stronger than solo songs and were as relevant as
402 other physical traits like the number of flights over the decoy. Our results are in line with
403 previous findings in the species suggesting the territorial function of duets in hornero, overall
404 providing evidence for the “joint territorial defence” hypothesis (Diniz et al. 2018, 2019,
405 2020). While previous studies tested this hypothesis by means of different approaches, the
406 strength of our study resides in the application of a comprehensive method that accounts for
407 the multivariate nature of territorial defence behaviours.

408 Males defended more their territories than females during both breeding contexts. At
409 first glance, this is not surprising given that an unequal sex contribution of territorial defence
410 has been previously reported in bird species that are socially monogamous and maintain
411 territories year round (e.g. Willis 1972; Morton and Derrickson 1996; Bard et al. 2002; Fedy
412 and Stutchbury 2005; Quinard and Cézilly 2012). In the specific case of horneros, however,
413 male and female have been reported to contribute equally in most of the behaviours studied to
414 date (Fraga 1980; Massoni et al. 2012; Diniz et al. 2020). However, there is strong evidence
415 for sexual differences in singing-related traits independent of season (Diniz et al. 2018).
416 Additionally, the observation that males engaged more in aggressive interactions than females
417 has only been recently described (Diniz et al. 2018). Thus, our findings confirm and expand
418 this observation with a standardized field test applied to a multivariate framework beyond
419 song production. One explanation for the observed sex-differences might be a division of
420 labour between members of a pair (e.g. Morton et al. 2000). For instance, males might invest
421 more resources (i.e., time and energy) in actively defending their territory or nest (e.g.
422 physical attacking the intruder), whereas females might focus on different activities (e.g.
423 predator vigilance, guarding the nest against parasitic species). Another factor potentially

424 explaining our results is that males and females might face different physiological (breeding)
425 costs (e.g. Nilsson and Råberg 2001). In fact, during nest building (when females are close to
426 egg laying) females have a poorer oxidative condition than males and are more sensitive to
427 STIs, suggesting a sex-specific physiological cost of territorial defence (Mentesana and
428 Adreani 2020). Lastly, our findings could also be influenced by the way the territorial
429 intrusions were performed (i.e. with one single dummy). While plausible, this explanation
430 seems unlikely given that horneros are monomorphic in body size and plumage colouration
431 (Diniz et al. 2016) and the playbacks consisted of vocalizations from both sexes.

432 We did not find strong support for our prediction that the levels of territorial defence
433 were higher during the nest building than in the provisioning context (Table 2). Given that
434 extra-pair levels are very low in this species (~3%, Diniz et al. 2019), one of the main
435 assumptions of our prediction was that territory take-over was higher during the fertile period
436 of the females, i.e., during nest building than during provisioning (Gill et al. 2007; Demko
437 and Mennill 2018). It is possible that for horneros it is more beneficial to maintain constant
438 levels of territorial defence in order to hold the territory year-round than the potential benefits
439 of extra-pair paternity (Warner and Hoffman 1980). This might be especially the case when
440 population densities are high, where comparable territorial defence can be expected across
441 different life-stages as we observed in the horneros. Further research will help to shed light on
442 these context-specific patterns.

443 Male and female aggression were strongly and positively correlated within the pair
444 despite sex-specific differences in territorial defence. Our results are in line with previous
445 findings of coordinated territorial defense on rufous horneros outside the breeding season
446 (Diniz et al. 2020) and more generally with other studies showing that duetting birds were
447 more collaborative within the pair than non-duetting species (see Logue 2005). Although our
448 study cannot directly address the evolutionary relevance of pairs being positively correlated in
449 their behaviours (e.g., fitness consequences), our findings suggest that exhibiting a joint
450 territorial defence might be an important mechanism of pair bonding or pair stability (Wickler
451 and Seibt 1980). In this direction, our study raises the question of whether pairs of horneros
452 that show similar territorial defence levels would experience increased reproductive benefits
453 (Schuett et al. 2010). Indeed, it is known from other bird species that pairs exhibiting
454 comparably high levels of territory defence towards conspecifics attain higher reproductive
455 success (e.g. in eastern blue birds, *Sialia sialis*; Harris and Siefferman 2014). Therefore,
456 investigating patterns of selection on assortative mating in pairs of horneros poses an exciting
457 avenue for future research.

458

459 **Conclusion**

460 This work expands upon a classical body of research on territorial defence. We demonstrated
461 that six observed behavioural variables quantified during a simulated territorial intrusion were
462 linked by an unmeasured latent trait “territorial defence”. In particular, the number of flights
463 over the decoy and the number of duet songs were the variables with highest path loadings to
464 the latent variable “territorial defence”. Furthermore, this study fills an important gap in our
465 knowledge about the role of duets. We provided support for the hypothesis that avian duets
466 are a key component in the joint territory defence. Indeed, we showed that duets represented a
467 stronger response of territory defence than solo songs, and that their importance was
468 comparable to physical traits. Our study also highlights the importance of using more
469 integrative, multivariate approaches to study behavioural traits. By applying a structural
470 equation modelling framework, we were able to evaluate *a priori* hypotheses of how different
471 behavioural variables were linked by an unmeasured latent trait. Such complex patterns would
472 have not been possible to capture using traditional statistical approaches such as principal
473 component analyses. Hence, the combination of a classical behavioural approach like
474 simulated territorial intrusions with structural equation modelling brings new exciting
475 possibilities into the field of behavioural ecology.

476

477 **Authors' contributions**

478 NMA, LM and MM share first authorship and names are ordered at random. NMA and LM
479 conceived the study and designed the study. BT provided logistic support. NMA, LM, EG and
480 EC collected the data. NMA, LM, and MM analyzed the data. NMA, LM, and MM wrote the
481 manuscript with input from all authors.

482

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494

495 **Availability of data**

496 The datasets generated and/or analysed during the current study are available in the open
497 repository: Mendeley Data ([LINK](#)).

498

499 **Compliance with ethical standards**

500 **Ethical approval**

501 The experimental procedures of this study have approval by the Ethics Committee of Animal
502 Experimentation (CEUA) of the Facultad de Ciencias of the Universidad de la República,
503 Uruguay (Protocol number 186, file 2400-11000090-16).

504 **Conflict of interest**

505 The authors declare they have no conflicts of interest.

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509

510

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703 **Table and Figure captions**

704

705 **Table 1** Results of model comparison using Akaike Information Criterion for small sample
706 sizes (AICc) values to compare our three candidate models. Smaller AICc values are given to
707 models that better fit the data. Models whose AICc values differ from that of the top model
708 (Δ AICc) by more than 2 are considered to lack explanatory power relative to the top model.
709 We also present values for the Goodness of Fit Index (GFI). The best-supported hypothesis is
710 printed in boldface

711

712 **Table 2** Sources of variation in “number of flights over the decoy” and “number of duets” in
713 horneros. Breeding context (nest building vs provisioning), sex (female vs male) and their
714 interaction; time of the day (hours after sunrise, mean centred); and observer identity
715 (Observer 1 vs 2) were fitted as fixed effects. Pair identity and an observation-level parameter
716 were fitted as random effects. Both response variables were modelled with Poisson error. We
717 present estimates of fixed (β) and random (σ^2) parameters with their 95% Credible Intervals
718 (CrI) in brackets. The reference category for the categorical variable sex is “female”; for
719 breeding context, “nest building”; and for observer identity is “observer 1”

720

721 **Fig. 1** (A) Three models (hypotheses) explaining the correlation structure among behavioural
722 variables assayed during a simulated territory intrusion in the nest building and provisioning
723 context in wild horneros. Model 1 hypothesises trait independence (null model); model 2
724 hypothesises a latent variable (“territorial defence”) linking all behavioural variables, whereas
725 model 3 hypothesises a latent variable (“territorial defence”) linking all behavioural variables
726 except “number of duets”. Unidirectional arrows represent directional relationships between
727 traits. Solid lines represent relationships present across all models; and the dashed line
728 represents a relationship expressed in a specific model structure. Path “a” is only active in
729 model 2. (B) Path loadings of model 2 for males and females in both breeding contexts.
730 Squares and circles represent the estimated mean, and error bars represent the standard error
731 of the mean

732

733 **Fig. 2** Number of (A) duets and (B) flights over decoy of hornero pairs during nest building
734 and provisioning context. Grey symbols represent raw data. The mean estimates of the
735 posterior distributions (black symbols) as well as the 95% credible intervals (error bars) are
736 also shown

737

738 **Fig. 3** Female-male correlation of territorial defence, using number of flights over the decoy

739 as proxy. The black line represents the regression line and the dashed line is the reference line

740 with a slope of 1

741 **Figures and Tables**

742

743 **Table 1**

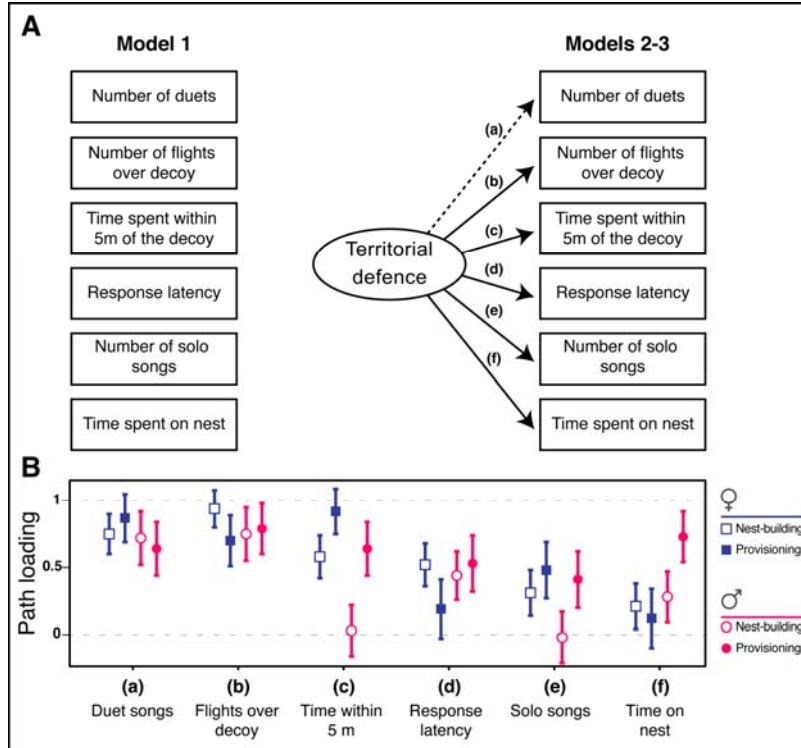
			SEM models								
			Model 1			Model 2			Model 3		
Sex	-	breeding	AIC	ΔAIC	GF	AIC	ΔAIC	GF	AIC	ΔAIC	GFI
context			c	c	I	c	c	I	c	c	
female	-	nest	72.6	44.53	0.6	28.1	0.00	0.9	51.1	23.00	0.79
building			4		0	1		0	1		
female	-		55.7	19.43	0.5	36.3	0.00	0.8	54.0	17.75	0.78
provisioning			4		8	1		9	6		
male - nest building			30.5	11.60	0.8	18.9	0.00	0.9	30.9	12.06	0.87
			3		1	3		5	9		
male - provisioning			62.1	16.11	0.5	46.0	0.00	0.8	49.4	3.34	0.80
			7		4	6		4	0		

744

745

746 **Figure 1**

747



748

749

750

751

752

753 **Table 2**

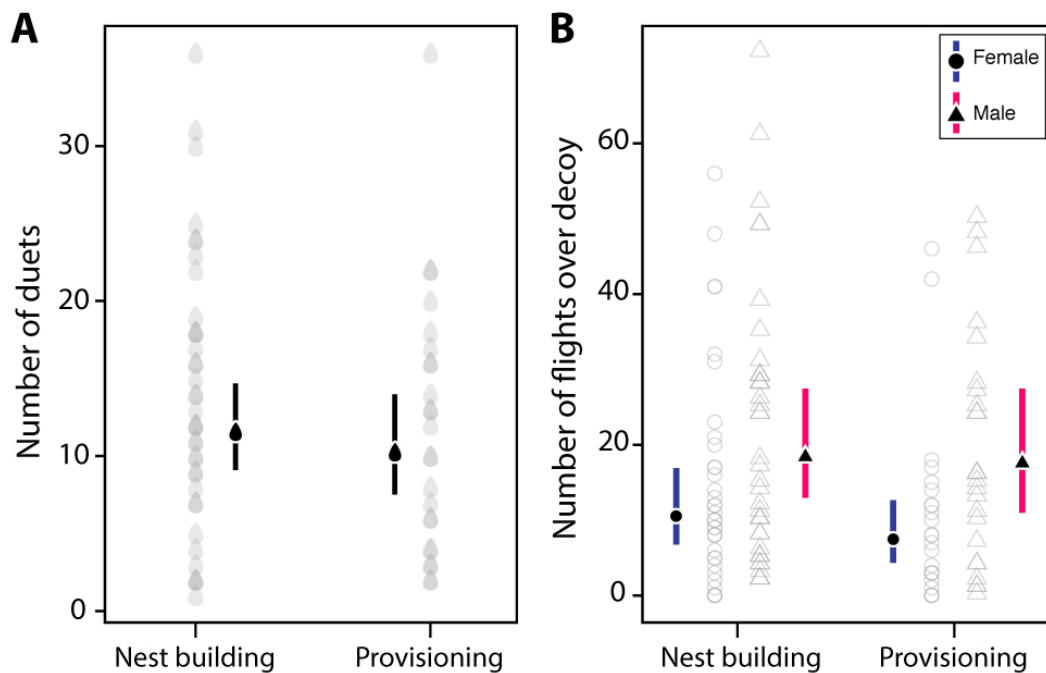
	Flights over decoy	Duets
Fixed effects	β (95% CrI)	β (95% CrI)
Intercept	2.33 (1.87, 2.78)	2.44 (2.21, 2.69)
Sex	0.58 (0.32, 0.83)	--
Breeding context	-0.28 (-0.88, 0.31)	-0.11 (-0.52, 0.28)
Sex \times Breeding context	0.22 (-0.19, 0.64)	--
Time of day	-0.19 (-0.45, 0.05)	-0.07 (-0.26, 0.13)
Observer Identity	-0.16 (-0.36, 0.04)	--
Random effects	σ^2 (95% CrI)	σ^2 (95% CrI)
Pair Identity	1.02 (0.75, 1.36)	--

Observation-level parameter 0.18 (0.14, 0.24) 0.44 (0.33, 0.60)

754

755

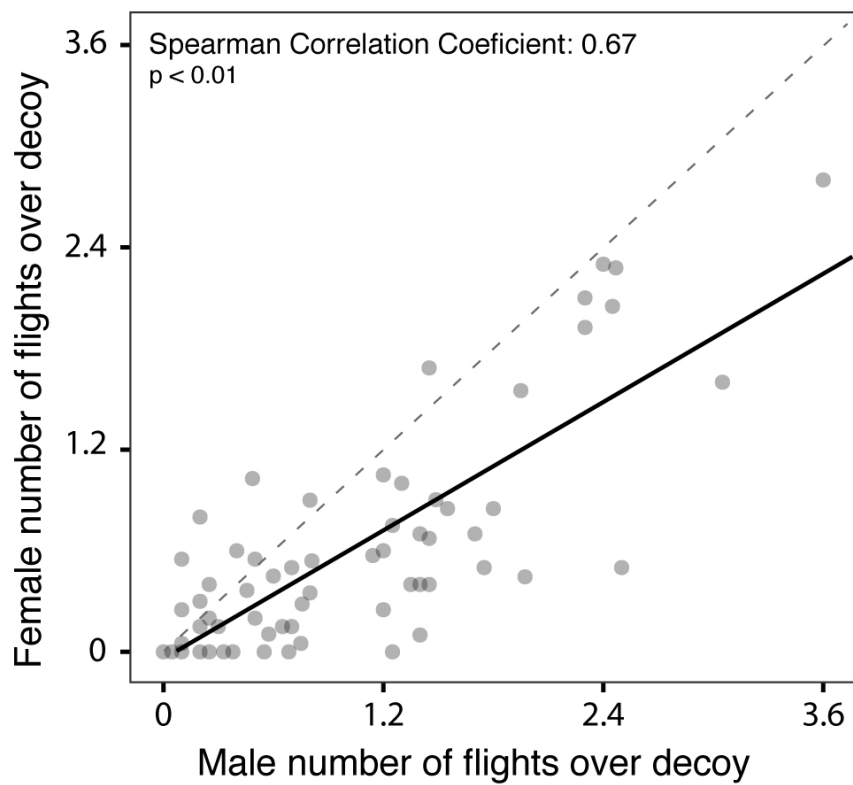
756 **Figure 2**



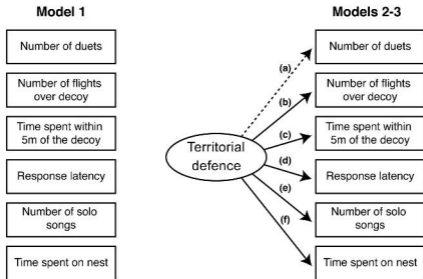
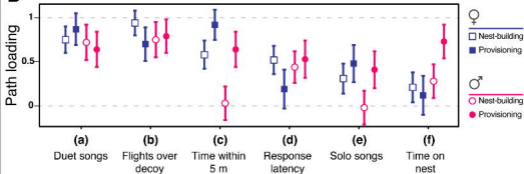
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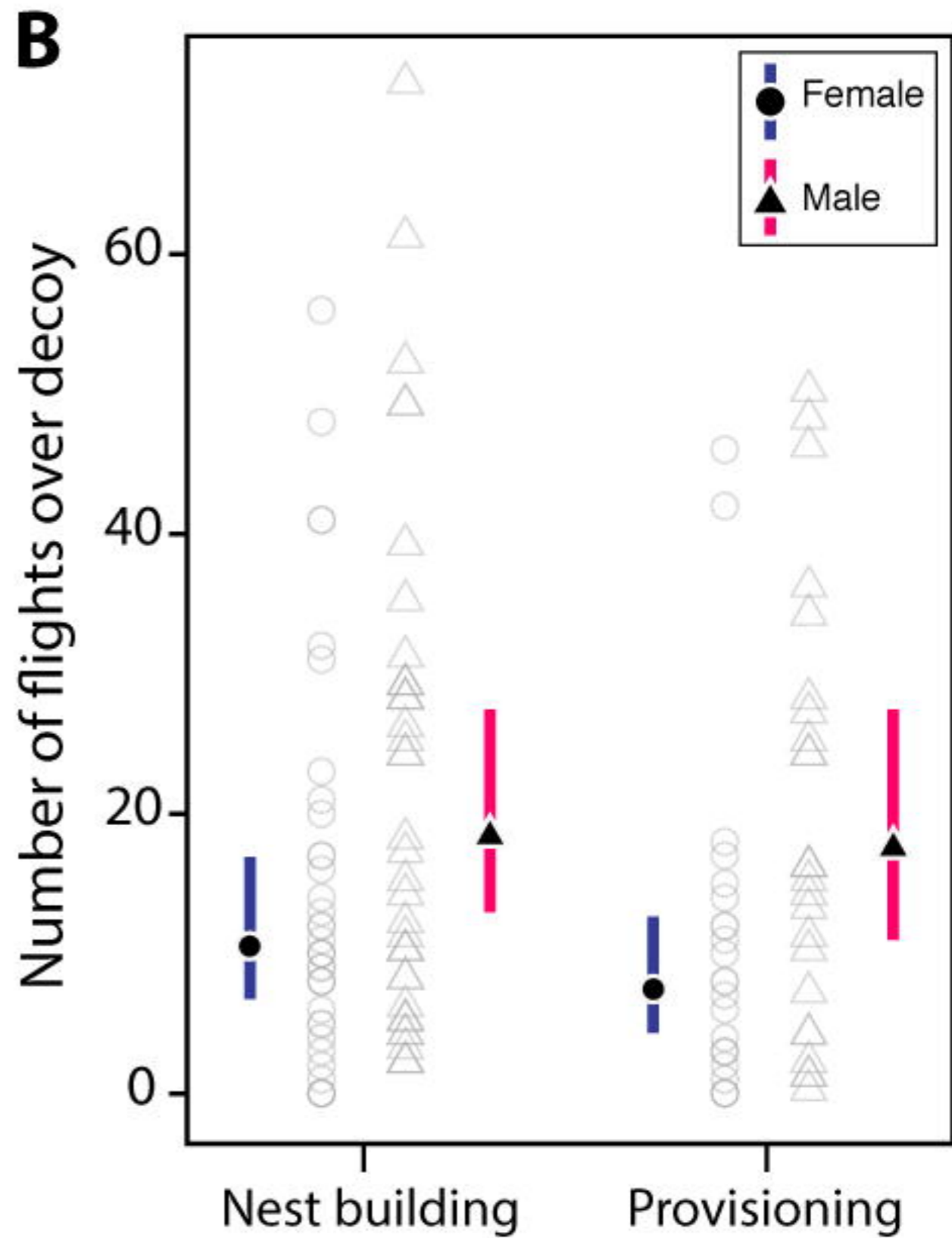
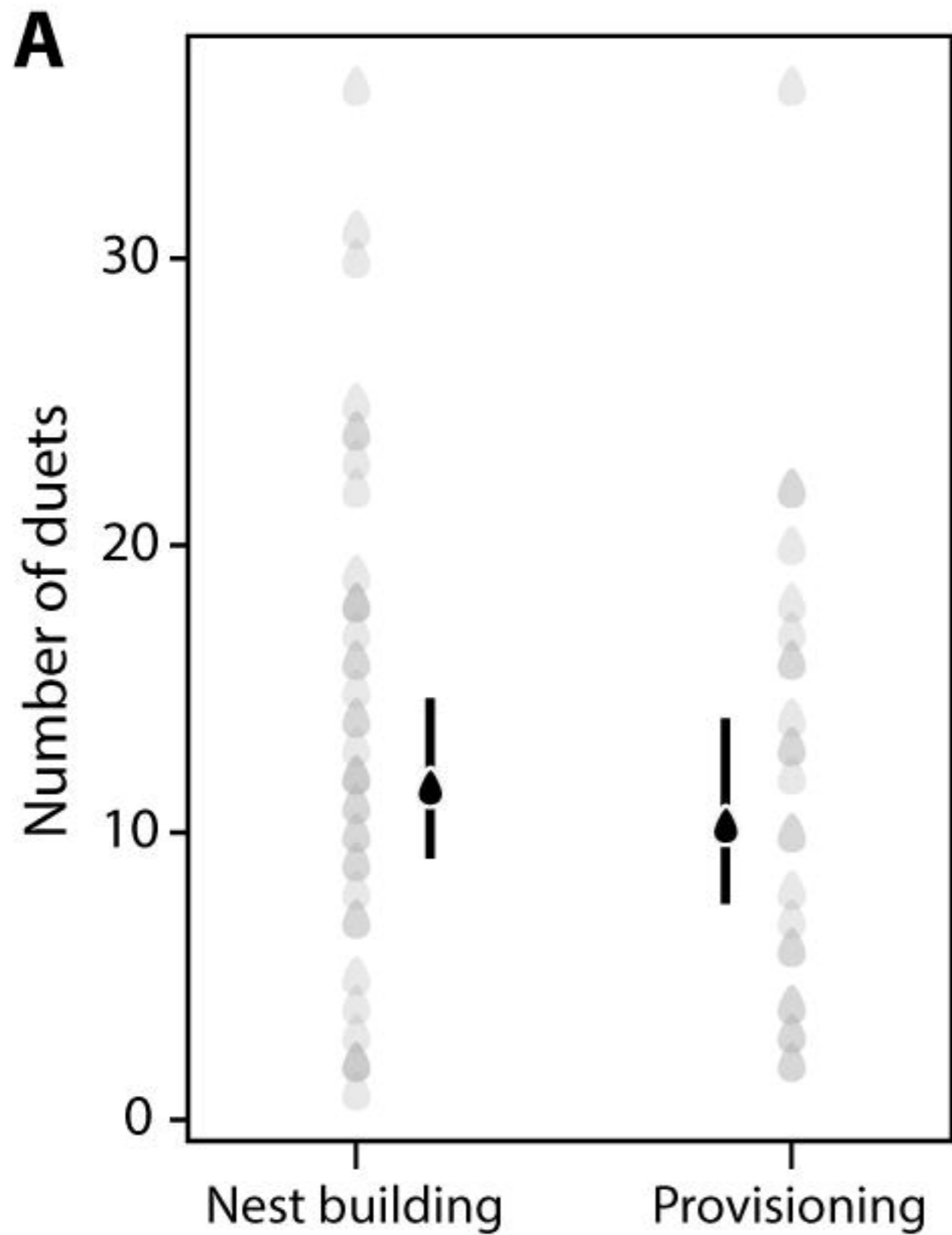
758

759 **Figure 3**



760

A**B**



Female number of flights over decoy

Spearman Correlation Coefficient: 0.67
 $p < 0.01$

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2.4

1.2

0

0

1.2

2.4

3.6

Male number of flights over decoy

