

Goal-directed vocal planning in a songbird

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Abstract

Songbirds' vocal mastery is impressive, but to what extent is it a result of practice? Can they, similar to humans, plan targeted changes to their songs in a practice-free manner without intermittently singing? In adult zebra finches, we drive the pitch of a song syllable away from its stable (baseline) variant acquired from a tutor, then we withdraw reinforcement and subsequently deprive them of song experience by muting or deafening. In this deprived state, birds do not recover their baseline song. However, they revert their songs towards the target by about one standard deviation of their recent practice, provided the latter signaled a pitch mismatch with the target. Thus, targeted vocal plasticity does not require immediate sensory experience, showing that zebra finches are capable of goal-directed vocal planning.

Significance statement

Zebra finches are capable of making target-directed changes to their songs without requiring sensory feedback.

MAIN TEXT

Introduction

Speech planning is an important part of human communication and the inability to plan speech is manifest in disorders such as apraxia. But to what extent is targeted vocal planning an entirely human ability? Many animals are capable of volitional control of vocalizations (1,2), but are they also capable of planning to selectively adapt their vocalizations towards a target, such as when striving to reduce the pitch mismatch of a note in a song? Target-specific vocal planning is a cognitive ability that requires extracting or recalling a sensory target and forming or selecting the required motor actions to reach the target. Such planning can be covert or overt. Evidence for covert planning is manifest when a targeted motor change is executed without intermittent practice, e.g., when we instantly imitate a word upon first hearing. Overt planning, by contrast, includes practice, but without access to the sensory experience from which target mismatch could be computed, e.g., when we practice a piano piece by tapping on a table.

47 The vocal planning abilities in animals and their dependence on sensory experience
48 remain poorly explored. Motor learning has been mostly studied in tasks where a skilled
49 behavioral response must be produced on the spot, such as when a visual target must be hit
50 by a saccade or by an arm reaching movement (3–6). In this context, motor planning has
51 been shown to enhance motor flexibility, as it allows separation of motor memories when
52 there are conflicting perturbations (7). However, for developmental behaviors such as
53 speech or birdsong that rely on hearing a target early in life (8,9), the roles of practice and
54 of sensory feedback for flexible vocal control and for target-directed adaptation are
55 unknown.

56 Recovery of a once-learned vocal skill could also be instantaneous (covert), or it might
57 require practice (overt). In support of the former, many motor memories are long-lasting
58 (10), e.g., we can recall the happy-birthday song for years without practice. Some
59 memories are even hard to get rid of such as accents in a foreign language. By contrast,
60 practice-dependent, but feedback-independent recovery is argued for by arm reaching
61 movements: following adaptation to biasing visual feedback, arm movements recover
62 when the bias is either removed or the visual error is artificially clamped to zero (4,5).
63 One explanation put forward is that motor adaptation is volatile and has forgetting built-in
64 (6,11), leading to practice-dependent reappearance of the original motor program even
65 without informative feedback (11). Given these possibilities, we set out to probe
66 songbirds' skills of recovering their developmental song target when deprived of either
67 practice or of sensory feedback.

68 Adult vocal performances in songbirds can be altered by applying external reinforcers
69 such as white-noise stimuli (12,13). When the reinforcer is withdrawn, birds recover their
70 original song within hundreds of song attempts (12,14–16). We argued that these attempts
71 may be unnecessary and birds could recover their original performance by recalling either
72 1) the original motor program (17–19), or 2) its sensory representation (20,21) plus the
73 mapping required to hit it (15), or 3) the sensory target (22) and the circuit for translating
74 that into the original program (14) (Fig. 1A). These options might not need sensory
75 feedback. Birds' large perceptual song memory capacity (23) would argue for such
76 possibilities. That is, birds' song practice may be mainly expression of deliberate
77 playfulness (24), conferring the skill of vocal flexibility rather than serving to reach a
78 target, evidenced by young birds that explore vocal spaces close to orthogonal to the song-
79 learning direction (25) and are already surprisingly capable of adult-like singing when
80 appropriately stimulated (26).

81 82 83 **Results**

84 To test whether birds can recover a song syllable without practice, we first reinforced the
85 pitch of a song syllable away from baseline and then we suppressed birds' singing
86 capacity for a few days by muting their vocal output. We then tested whether the
87 subsequently unmuted song has covertly reverted back to the original target. We used
88 syllable pitch as the targeted song feature, because we found that birds did not reliably
89 recover syllable duration in experiments in which we induced them to shorten or lengthen
90 syllable duration (Fig. S1).

91 We first drove pitch away from baseline by at least one standard deviation using a white-
92 noise (WN) stimulus delivered whenever the pitch within a 16-ms time window locked to

93 the targeted syllable was above or below a manually set threshold (Fig. 1B, see Methods).
94 We muted these WNm (white-noise reinforced and muted) birds by implanting a bypass
95 cannula into the abdominal air sac (see Methods). While muted, air is leaking from the
96 abdominal air sac and as a result, sub-syringeal air pressure does not build up to exceed
97 the threshold level required for the self-sustained syringeal oscillations (27) that underlie
98 singing. Physical absence of such oscillations essentially strips muted birds from all pitch
99 experience.

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101 Two birds we muted right after the WN-driven pitch change. After keeping birds for four
102 days in the muted state, we permanently unmuted them to record their undisturbed songs.
103 We observed that the two birds had recovered a mere 10% and -6% of their total WN-
104 driven pitch change. We hypothesized that unreinforced singing would initiate the song
105 recovery process in WNm birds that we assumed birds might be able to accomplish while
106 mute. Therefore, we allowed the subsequent 6/8 WNm birds to sing a few hundreds of
107 target syllables without reinforcement prior to muting them.

108 In some cases, the bypass cannula got clogged during the muted period and birds were
109 spontaneously unmuted, allowing them to produce a few songs before we reopened the
110 cannula (Fig. 1C-G). These spontaneous unmuting events were not detrimental to our
111 experimental procedures, as they allowed us to inspect birds' current song motor program
112 (Fig. 1C).

113 After spending 5.1 ± 1.6 days (range 3 – 8 d, $N = 8$) in the muted state and upon
114 unmuting, WNm birds displayed an average normalized residual pitch (*NRP*) of 89%,
115 which was far from baseline ($p = 6.2 \cdot 10^{-8}$, $t_{\text{stat}} = -23.6$, $N = 8$ birds, two-sided t-test
116 of $H_0: NRP = 0\%$, songs analyzed in 2 h time window – early (*E*), see methods, Fig. 1),
117 suggesting that in the muted state, birds are unable to recover their pre-reinforced songs.
118 The average *NRP* in WNm birds was comparable to that of unmanipulated control (WNC)
119 birds within the first 2 h after withdrawal of the reinforcer (average *NRP* = 91%, $p =$
120 $3.7 \cdot 10^{-11}$, $t_{\text{stat}} = 14.8$, two-sided t-test for *NRP* = 0%, $N = 18$ WNC birds). Indeed,
121 during 5 days without song practice, birds recovered no more pitch distance than birds
122 normally do within the first 2 h of release from reinforcement ($p = 0.82$, $t_{\text{stat}} = -0.23$,
123 $N = 8$ WNm and $N = 18$ WNC birds, two-sided t-test). These findings did not sensitively
124 depend on the size of the analysis window — we also tested windows of 4 and of 24 h.

125 Subsequently, after 4 days of unmuted song experience (roughly 9 days after withdrawal
126 of WN), WNm birds displayed an average *NRP* of 30%, which was significantly different
127 from their *NRP* within the first 2 h after unmuting ($p = 3 \cdot 10^{-4}$, $t_{\text{stat}} = 4.83$, $N = 8$
128 birds, two-tailed t-test early (*E*) vs. late (*L*) time window) but still significantly different
129 from zero ($p = 0.04$, $t_{\text{stat}} = 2.59$, $N = 8$ birds, two-tailed t-test, late (*L*) time window).
130 Overall, these findings suggest that either motor practice, sensory feedback, or both, are
131 necessary for recovery of baseline song.

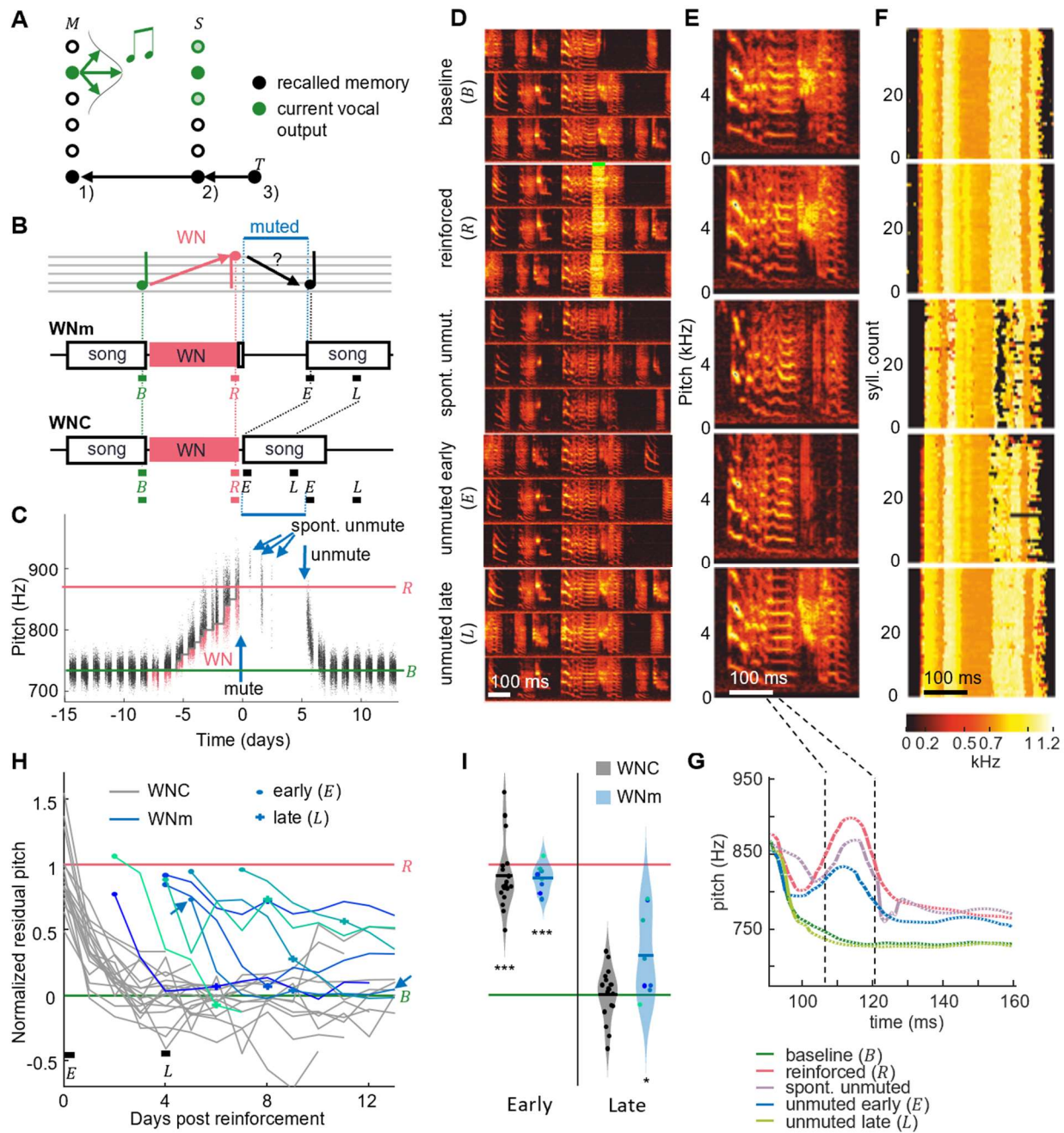


Fig. 1. Recovery of pitch target requires practice. (A) Three hypotheses on birds' ability to recover a song target away from their current vocal output (green): 1) they could recall its motor program (*M*), or 2) its sensory representation (*S*) plus the mapping (left black arrow) required to hit it, or, 3) the sensory target (*T*) and the circuit for translating that into the original motor program (arrows). (B) WNm birds were first pitch-reinforced using white noise (WN), then muted, and subsequently unmuted. Pitch recovery from the reinforced (*R*) state towards the baseline (*B*) target is evaluated in early (*E*, no practice) and late (*L*, with practice) analysis windows (all windows are time-aligned to the first 2 h of songs after withdrawal of reinforcement, *E*) and compared to recovery in unmuted control birds (WNC). (C) Syllable pitches (dots, red=reinforced syllables) of an example bird that while muted recovered only about 27% of pitch difference to baseline despite three spontaneous unmute events (arrows). (D) Same bird, spectrograms of example song motifs from 5 epochs: during baseline (*B*), reinforcement (*R*)

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with WN (green bar), spontaneous unmuting (spont. unmut), and during permanent unmuting (early – *E* and late – *L*). (E) Example syllables from same 5 epochs. (F) Stack plot of pitch traces (pitch indicated by color, see color scale) of the first 40 targeted syllables in each epoch (‘reinforced’: only traces without WN are shown). (G) Average pitch traces from F), revealing a pitch increase during the pitch-measurement window (dashed black lines) and pitch recovery late after unmuting. (H) WNm birds (blue lines, $N = 8$) showed a normalized residual pitch (*NRP*) far from zero several days after reinforcement (circles indicate unmuting events, arrow shows bird from C) unlike WNC birds (gray lines, $N = 18$). (I) Violin plots of same data restricted to early and late analysis windows ($***p < 0.001$, $*p < 0.05$, two-tailed t-test of $NRP = 0$).

Next, we therefore tested whether motor experience but not sensory experience is necessary for recovery, similar to arm reaching movements that can be restored without guiding feedback (4,28). In a second group of WNd birds, we provided slightly more song experience (Fig. 2). Instead of muting, WNd birds were deafened through bilateral cochlea removal. This latter manipulation does not suppress the act of singing as does muting, but it eliminates auditory feedback from singing. Deaf birds could gain access to some pitch information via somatosensory stretch and vibration receptors and/or air pressure sensing (29). Our aim was to test whether such putative pitch correlates are sufficient for recovery of baseline pitch (Fig. 2A). However, in the deaf state, WNd birds did not recover baseline pitch even after 4 days of song practice: on the 5th day (late, *L*) after deafening, their average *NRP* was still 50%, which was different from zero ($p = 0.03$, $t_{stat} = 2.73$, two-tailed t-test of $H_0: NRP = 0\%$, $N = 10$, Fig. 2D) and significantly larger than the average *NRP* of WNC birds on the 5th day since withdrawal of reinforcement (difference in $NRP = 49\%$, $p = 0.003$, $t_{stat} = 3.34$, $df = 26$, $N = 10$ WNd and $N = 18$ WNC birds, two-tailed t-test).

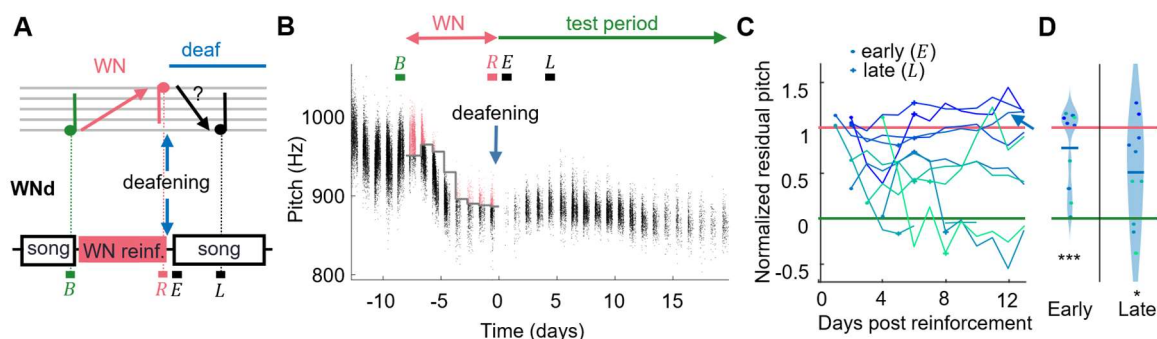
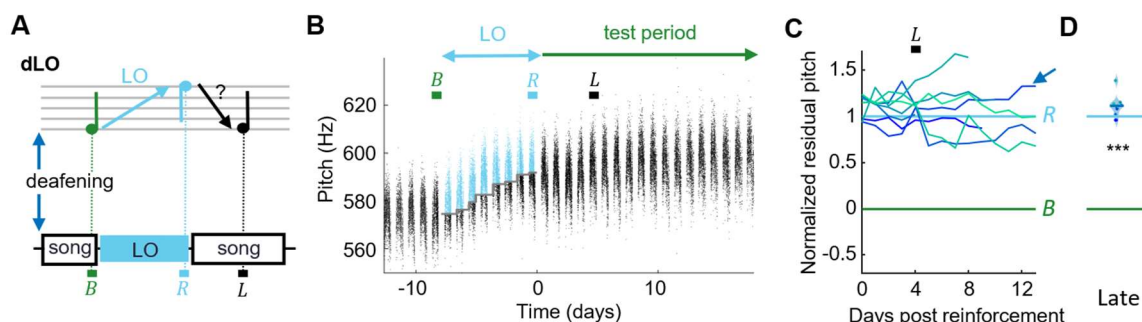


Fig. 2. Recovery of pitch target is impaired after deafening. (A) WNd birds were first pitch-reinforced using white noise (WN) and then deafened by bilateral cochlea removal. Analysis windows (letters) as in Fig. 1. (B) Syllable pitches (dots, red=reinforced syllables) of example WNd bird that shifted pitch down by $d' = -2.7$ during WN reinforcement and subsequently did not recover baseline pitch during the test period. (C) WNd birds ($N = 10$) do not recover baseline pitch without auditory feedback (circles=early window after deafening events, cross=late). (D) Violin plots of same data restricted to early and late analysis windows ($***p < 0.001$, $*p < 0.05$, two-tailed t-test of $NRP = 0$).

We speculated that the lack of pitch recovery in WNd birds could be attributable to the sudden deafening experience, which might be too overwhelming to uphold the plan to recover the original pitch target. WN deaf birds did not sing for an average of 2.3 ± 1.1

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days (range 1 to 4 days) after the deafening surgery, which is a strong indication of an acute stressor (30). We thus inspected a third group of birds (dLO, Fig. 3) taken from (31) that learned to shift pitch while deaf and that underwent no invasive treatment between the pitch reinforcing experience and the test period of song recovery.



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Fig. 3. Deaf birds do not recover pitch target after light-induced mismatch. (A) dLO birds were first deafened and then pitch-reinforced using a brief light-off (LO) stimulus. Analysis windows (letters) as in Fig. 1. (B) Syllable pitches (dots, blue=LO-reinforced syllables) of example dLO bird that shifted pitch up by $d' = 3.5$ within a week, but showed no signs of pitch recovery during the test period. (C) dLO birds ($N = 8$) do not recover baseline pitch without auditory feedback. (D) Violin plots of same data restricted to the late analysis window ($***p < 0.001$, two-tailed t-test of $NRP = 0$).

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dLO birds were first deafened, and after they produced stable baseline song for several days, their target syllable pitch was reinforced using pitch-contingent light-off (LO) stimuli, during which the light in the sound recording chamber was briefly turned off upon high- or low-pitch syllable renditions(32). dLO birds displayed an average NRP of 112% on the 5th day since release from LO, which was significantly different from zero ($p = 3.7 \cdot 10^{-8}$, $t_{stat} = 25.4$, $N = 8$ birds, two-tailed t-test of $H_0: NRP=0$) and was larger than the NRP in WNC birds on the 5th day since release ($p = 1.3 \cdot 10^{-13}$, $t_{stat} = 14.9$, $df = 24$, $N = 8$ dLO and $N = 18$ WNC birds, two-sided t-test). Thus, dLO birds were unable to recover baseline pitch, suggesting that song recovery requires undiminished sensory experience, which includes auditory feedback.

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That song practice and sensory experience are required for full recovery of song does not imply that without experience, birds are incapable of making any targeted changes to their songs at all. We therefore inspected birds' fine-grained vocal output and whether they changed their song in the direction of baseline when deprived of sensory experience. We hypothesized (Fig. 4A), that when birds experience a target mismatch during reinforcement (when they hear that their song deviates from the target), this mismatch will fuel their plan to recover the pitch target, and a portion of this plan they can execute without feedback. If, by contrast, they have no mismatch experience, they will make no corresponding plan. Hence, we predicted that WNd birds that experienced a pitch mismatch would slightly revert their song towards baseline even in the absence of auditory feedback. By contrast, dLO birds that did not experience a mismatch because they did not hear their song while it was reinforced, would not revert towards the target (Fig. 4A).

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Indeed, WNd birds changed their pitch significantly towards baseline already in the first 2 h of their singing since release from reinforcement (relative to the pitch from the last 2 h during reinforcement, $d' = -0.60$, $p = 0.03$, $t_{stat} = -2.19$, $df = 9$, $N = 10$ birds, one-sided t-test of $H_0: d' = 0$). A significant approach of pitch baseline was still evident after

4 days of practice, ($d' = -1.27$, $p = 0.02$, $t_{\text{stat}} = -2.35$, $N = 10$ birds, one-sided t-test, Fig. 4B, D), showing that pitch reversion in deaf birds is persistent. Because the average pitch shift in WNd birds was on the order of one standard deviation ($d' \approx 1$), we conclude that without song experience, birds are able to perform target-directed pitch shifts of about the same magnitude as their current exploratory range (i.e., the denominator of the d' measure).

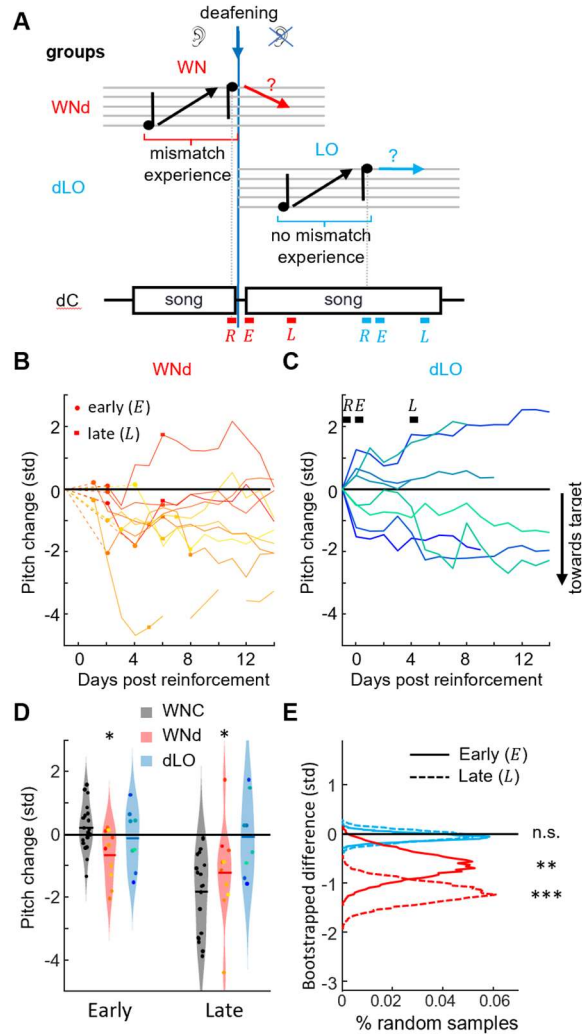
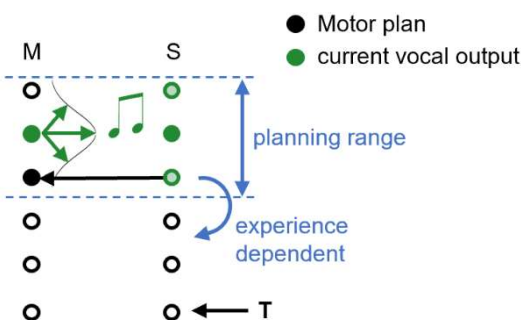


Fig. 4. Target mismatch experience is necessary for revertive pitch changes. (A) WNd birds heard a target mismatch during reinforcement whereas dLO birds did not. dC birds were not pitch reinforced, their analysis windows matched those of manipulated birds in terms of time-since-deafening. (B, C) Pitch change between the last 2 h of reinforcement (R) and 2 h windows during the test period time-aligned to the first 2 h of song after withdrawal of reinforcement (E) in std for WNd (red, B), dLO (blue, C) birds. (D) WNd (red) perform both early and late pitch changes in the direction of the baseline target (by about one standard deviation, $* p < 0.05$, one-tailed t-test), similar to WNC (gray) and unlike dLO (blue) birds without mismatch experience. (E) Bootstrapped pitch differences between reinforced WNd (blue) and dLO (red) and 10'000 times randomly matched dC birds, shown for early (solid line) and late (dashed line) analysis windows. The stars indicate the bootstrapped probability of a zero average pitch

246 difference between reinforced and dC birds (n.s. not significant, ** $p < 0.01$, ***
247 $p < 0.001$).

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249 In contrast, dLO birds showed no signs of reverting pitch, neither in the first 2 h since
250 release of reinforcement ($d' = -0.13$, $p = 0.36$, $t_{stat} = -0.37$, $df = 7$, $N = 8$ birds,
251 one-sided t-test), nor after 4 days of practice ($d' = -0.08$, $p = 0.43$, $t_{stat} = -0.18$, $df =$
252 7 , $N = 8$ birds, one-tailed t-test, Fig. 4C, D). The pitch change in dLO birds was
253 indistinguishable from that in deaf controls (dC) that were not pitch reinforced and had no
254 plan to shift pitch in either direction (Fig. 4A, E). To discount for the effect of time
255 elapsed since deafening, we bootstrapped the difference in d' between dLO birds and dC
256 birds in matched time windows (see methods). To discount for possible influences of
257 circadian pitch trends, we assessed early and late pitch changes in reinforced birds and in
258 dC birds also in 2 h time windows separated by multiples of 24 h: the result of all these
259 analyses is that significant reversion towards baseline was only seen in WNd birds and
260 very consistently so (Fig. 4E, Table S1), showing that not current auditory feedback, but
261 prior experience of a target mismatch is necessary for pitch reversion. Our results thus
262 argue for a model of song maintenance in which birds extract from target mismatch
263 experience a plan of reducing the mismatch (Fig. 5), and without sensory feedback, this
264 plan is limited by the extent of current song practice.
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267 **Fig. 5. Schematic illustrating the goal-directed planning of vocal changes.** The song
268 variability from the last few hours (green arrows, black density) limits (blue
269 dashed lines) the song targets (filled black dot in M) that birds can overtly plan
270 without sensory feedback. Sensory experience (green circles under S) is a
271 prerequisite for consolidating motor plans and for reaching (curved blue arrow) a
272 target (T) beyond the planning range, e.g. a song variant produced several days
273 ago.

274 Discussion

276 Our work shows that recent auditory experience can drive motor plasticity even while an
277 individual is deprived of such experience, i.e. zebra finches are capable of overt vocal
278 planning. But to reach a distant vocal target beyond the pitch range experienced in the
279 preceding few hours necessitates auditory feedback, which sets a limit to zebra finches'
280 covert planning ability.

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282 Birds' failure to recover baseline pitch without guiding sensory feedback agrees with
283 reports that binary reinforcement (as we used) slows down or prevents forgetting of the
284 adapted behavior (5). However, whereas forgetting is fast when sensory errors affect arm
285 movements (5), the contrary applies to birdsong, where pitch learning from artificial
286 sensory errors is slower and less forgotten (33) than is pitch learning from binary

287 reinforcement (12,14). Hence, the commonality of short-term visuo-motor adaptation and
288 of birdsong maintenance is that slow learning leads to slow forgetting, regardless of
289 whether it is due to sensory errors or reinforcement. Such conclusion also agrees with
290 observations that zebra finch song does not recover to pre-manipulated forms, both after
291 restoring auditory feedback after long-term (>5 months) deprivation (34) and after
292 restoring normal syrinx function after long-term (16 weeks) manipulation with beads (35),
293 suggesting that song can spontaneously recover only within some limited time since it was
294 manipulated.

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296 The overt planning ability suggests that recovery of a developmentally learned vocal
297 target is controlled by two hierarchical processes, a highly flexible process with limited
298 scope ($d' \approx 1$, Fig. 4), and a dependent process enabled by experience of the former. Such
299 motor learning based on separate processes for acquisition and retention is usually referred
300 to as motor consolidation (3,36,37). Accordingly, the hierarchically lower process is
301 independent of immediate sensory experience, but its consolidation requires experience.
302 Perhaps then, it is the sensory experience itself that is consolidated, and therefore,
303 consolidation of sensory experience may be a prerequisite for extensive planning.

304 Consolidation in motor learning generally emerges from anatomically separated
305 substrates for learning and retention (4). Such separation also applies to songbirds. Both
306 reinforcement learning of pitch and recovery of the original pitch baseline depend on the
307 anterior forebrain pathway and its output, the lateral magnocellular nucleus of the anterior
308 nidopallium (LMAN)(15). LMAN generates a pitch bias that lets birds escape negative
309 pitch reinforcers and recover baseline pitch when reinforcement is withdrawn (13), thus is
310 likely involved in planning. This pitch bias is consolidated outside of LMAN (15,38) in a
311 nonlinear process that is triggered when the bias exceeds a certain magnitude (39). This
312 threshold magnitude is roughly identical to the planning limit we find ($d' \approx 1$), suggesting
313 that the consolidation of LMAN-mediated motor plasticity corresponds to birds' planning
314 limit. Because LMAN seems capable of executing a motor plan without sensory feedback,
315 our work provides a new perspective on the neural basis of birdsong learning and
316 consolidation in and around LMAN.

317 The formation of a planned motor change may not require LMAN itself, because
318 pharmacological suppression of LMAN sets the bias to zero, but upon removal of output
319 suppression, the pitch of the song syllable that was targeted by reinforcement jumps by
320 about 1% away from the reinforced pitch zone (40), which corresponds to about $d' = 1$,
321 about the planning limit we find. Originally, this jump was interpreted as evidence of
322 functional connectivity or an efference copy between the anterior forebrain pathway of
323 which LMAN is part of and some other unspecified variability-generating motor area.
324 However, in our view, a simpler explanation requiring neither functional connectivity nor
325 efference copy is that LMAN is involved in putting a plan into action, which in that case is
326 to produce syllable variants that are unaffected by WN.

327 Zebra finches' ability to plan directed song changes could hinge on song memories that
328 feed into LMAN and that could drive neurons there to produce diverse perceptual song
329 variants. LMAN neurons are selective for the bird's own song but not the target song
330 (20,21), which makes them well suited for planning song in a manner congruent with
331 experience. Furthermore, LMAN neurons show mirrored activity, i.e., similar activity
332 when a zebra finch produces a vocal gesture and when it hears the same gesture played
333 through a loudspeaker (41,42). This mirrored activity has been argued to be involved in
334 translating an auditory target into the corresponding motor command, also known as an

inverse model (43). Mirroring in LMAN was observed across the song variability generated over a period of several hours, which is about the same as the experience-dependent pitch planning limit we find. Zebra finches could thus transform a desired pitch change into the corresponding motor plan via LMAN's aligned sensory and motor representations of recent vocal output.

Our observations in zebra finches could be relevant to other species including humans. The planning abilities we find bear resemblance to human motor imagery for movement learning, which is most effective when subjects already show some competence for the movements to be learned (44), suggesting a recall-dependent process. Naively, human vocal flexibility seems superior to that of zebra finches, since we can flexibly change sound features such as loudness, pitch, and duration to convey emotional state or to comply with the tonal and rhythmical requirements of a musical piece (45,46), whereas zebra finches produce more subtle modulations of their songs e.g. when directing them to a female (47). Nevertheless, a limit of human vocal flexibility is revealed by non-native accents in foreign languages, which are nearly impossible to get rid of in adulthood. Thus, a seeming analogous task to re-pitching of zebra finch song, in humans, is to modify developmentally learned speech patterns.

Our findings help elucidate the meaning of song signals in songbirds and the evolutionary pressures of singing. Because zebra finches seem incapable of large jumps in performance without practice, their current song variants are indicative of the recent song history, implying that song is an honest signal that zebra finches cannot adapt at will to deceive a receiver of this signal. Hence, if high pitch has either an attractive or repelling effect on another bird, a singer must commit to being attractive or repulsive for some time. In extension, we speculate that limited vocal flexibility increases the level of commitment to a group and thereby strengthens social cohesion.

Materials and Methods

All experimental procedures were in accordance with the Veterinary Office of the Canton of Zurich (licenses 123/2010 and 207/2013) or by the French Ministry of Research and the ethical committee Paris-Sud and Centre (CEEA N°59, project 2017-12).

Subjects:

We used in total 76 birds. All birds were 100-300 days old (except one 853-day old control bird) and were raised in the animal facility of the University of Zurich or in Saclay. During recording, birds were housed in single cages in custom-made sound-proof recording chambers equipped with a wall microphone (Audio-Technica Pro42), a loudspeaker, and a camera. The day/night cycle was set to 14/10 h except for one muted bird that was in constant light due to a technical problem.

Song Recordings:

Vocalizations were saved using custom song-recording software (Labview, National Instruments Inc.). Sounds were recorded with a wall microphone and digitized at 32 kHz. In all birds, we recorded baseline vocal activity for at least 3 days before doing any manipulation (deafening or pitch reinforcement).

Pitch Reinforcement:

We calculated pitch (fundamental frequency) as described in(14). To provide pitch reinforcement in real time, we used a two-layer neural network trained to detect a

384 manually clustered syllable containing a harmonic stack(48). We evaluated the
385 fundamental frequency of that syllable in a 16-24-ms time window following detection.
386 For pitch reinforcement, we either broadcast a 50-60-ms long white noise (WN) stimulus
387 through a loudspeaker or briefly switched off the light in the isolation chamber for 100-
388 500 ms (LO) when pitch was below or above a manually set threshold. The WN/ LO
389 stimulus onset occurred 7 ms after the pitch calculation offset. We performed cumulative
390 pitch shifts across several days by adjusting the pitch threshold for WN/LO delivery each
391 day, usually setting it close to the median value of the previous day. Sometimes the
392 threshold was set more than once during a day, in this case we set it close to the median of
393 the pitch values measured so far during that day. All birds were shifted by at least 1
394 standard deviation ($d' > 1$, see Section Pitch Analysis).

395 Reported pitch values were collected as above, except in muted birds that directly after
396 unmuted produced syllables of lower amplitude and with distorted spectral features (e.g.
397 Fig. 1C, E, F), which resulted in frequent mis-detections by the neural network. In muted
398 birds, we therefore performed semi-automatic (manually corrected) syllable detection and
399 we computed pitch at a fixed time lag after syllable onset.

400 ***Duration Reinforcement:***

401 Duration reinforcement was performed similarly as pitch reinforcement but instead of
402 measuring the pitch of a targeted syllable, we measured the duration of a targeted song
403 element (either a syllable, a syllable plus the subsequent gap, or just a gap). Onsets and
404 offsets of the targeted element were determined by thresholding of the root-mean square
405 (RMS) sound amplitude.

407 **Bird groups:**

408 ***WN Control (WNC):*** 18 birds in the control group underwent WN pitch reinforcement
409 (10/18 up-shifted, 8/18 down-shifted). Thereafter, the WN stimulus was withdrawn, and
410 no further experimental manipulation took place.

411 ***WN muted (WNm):*** in 8 birds, we first reinforced pitch using white noise (WN) auditory
412 stimuli and then we reversibly muted the birds by performing an airsac cannulation.
413 Normally, when WN stimuli are contingent on low-pitch renditions, birds tend to shift the
414 pitch up, and in 5/6 birds this was indeed the case. However, one bird shifted the pitch
415 down, in an apparent appetitive response to WN, this bird responded appetitively also
416 when the WN contingency was changed, resulting in a net upward shift at the end of the
417 WN period, see also(48). In 2 birds, we targeted high-pitch variants and these birds shifted
418 the pitch down, as expected. Thus, in total, in 6/8 birds (including the bird with the
419 apparent appetitive response), we drove the pitch up and in 2/8 birds, we drove the pitch
420 down.

421 Two birds underwent the muting surgery directly after withdrawal of WN stimuli. To 6/8
422 birds (4 up-shifted and 2 down-shifted), we provided the opportunity to sing without WN
423 before the muting surgery. During on average 4h51mins (range 10 mins to 14h), these
424 latter birds produced on average 649 song motifs (56, 100, 400, 458, 480, and 2400
425 motifs) without WN; the example bird shown in Fig. 1C produced 56 song motifs within
426 11 minutes during the 30 minutes it was allowed to sing without aversive reinforcement.

427 ***WN deaf (WNd):*** 10 birds were first pitch reinforced (5/10 were up-shifted and 5/10
428 down-shifted) with WN and then they were deafened by bilateral cochlea removal. WNd
429 birds started to sing on average 3 ± 1 days after deafening (range 2 to 5 days) and were
430 recorded for at least 15 days after the deafening surgery.

431 ***Deaf LO (dLO):*** 8/10 birds from (31) were recorded after the reinforcement period and we
432 analyzed the associated data. These birds were first deafened by bilateral cochlea removal,
433

434 then they underwent pitch reinforcement with light-off (LO) stimuli that acts as an
435 appetitive stimulus in deaf birds. The lamp in the recording chamber was switched off for
436 100-500 ms when the pitch was either above or below a manually set threshold (daily
437 threshold adjustment followed the same procedure as for WNm birds). 3/8 birds received
438 LO for low-pitched syllables and 5/8 birds for high-pitched syllables. One of the birds that
439 received LO for high-pitched syllables changed its pitch away from LO instead of towards
440 it, thus we ended up with a balanced data set with 4/8 birds shifting pitch up and 4/8 birds
441 shifting down. dLO birds were recorded for at least 5 days after the deafening surgery.
442 Details of light-induced pitch shifting are described in (31).

443 **Deaf control (dC):** we analyzed 26 syllables from 20 birds taken (12 from (31) and 8
444 additional ones) that were deafened and then recorded without any further manipulation.
445 We used these birds to discount for pitch changes in WNd and dLO birds due to absence
446 of auditory feedback, see bootstrapping.

447 **WN duration (WNdur):** 12 birds underwent duration reinforcement using WN, in 9 birds
448 the targeted sound feature was syllable duration, in 2 birds the targeted feature was
449 syllable-plus-gap duration, and in one bird the targeted feature was gap duration. In 4
450 birds, the duration was squeezed and in 8 birds the duration was stretched. As in WNC
451 birds, we did no further experimental manipulation after withdrawal of the WN stimulus.
452 One bird changed its duration towards WN showed an apparent appetitive response to WN
453 as for the one muted bird.

454 **Muting**

455 We muted birds by inserting a by-pass cannula into the abdominal air sac (49) as follows.
456 Preparation of by-pass cannula: After incubation in 70% ethanol, we clogged a 7 mm long
457 polyimide tube (diameter 1.2 mm) with sterile paper tissue. We created a suture loop
458 around the cannula and fixed the thread to the cannula with a knot and a drop of tissue
459 glue.

460 Cannula implantation: We anaesthetized the birds with Isoflurane (1.5-2%) and gave a
461 single injection of Carprofen (4 mg/kg). Subsequently, we applied local analgesic to the
462 skin (2% lidocaine) and removed the feathers covering the right abdomen. We applied
463 Betadine solution on the exposed skin and made a small incision using sterilized scissors.
464 We exposed the right abdominal air sac by shifting aside the fat tissue and punctured it to
465 create an opening. Immediately, we closed the opening by inserting the cannula and by
466 sealing the contact region with tissue glue. With the free end of the glued thread, we made
467 one suture to the lowest rib. We closed the wound in the skin around the cannula with
468 tissue glue and sutures using a new thread. Finally, we applied betadine solution on the
469 wound and lidocaine gel around the injured site. Before releasing the bird to its cage, we
470 removed the clog of the cannula with forceps and verified the air flow through the
471 cannula.
472

473 We returned the birds to their home cage and monitored them for signs of suffering. We
474 administered pain killers (Meloxicam 2 mg/kg or Carprofen 2-4 mg/kg) for 2 days after
475 the surgery.

476 On the following days, we monitored the birds continuously for singing activity. If song
477 was detected, the cannula was inspected for clogging and cleaned. 5 birds unmuted
478 spontaneously, they produced at most 300 songs before the bypass cannula was inspected
479 and the clog was removed to re-mute the bird. To unclog the bypass cannulas, we used
480 sharp forceps and sterile tissue dipped in saline. 6 of 8 birds produced quiet call-like
481 vocalizations even on muted days on which no singing was detected.

482 **Deafening**

483

484 We bilaterally removed cochleas as described in (31).

486 *Pitch Analysis*

487 In individual birds, we studied the dynamics of pitch recovery during the test period. In
488 WNm birds, the test period started with unmuting, and in all other reinforced birds it
489 started with the end of reinforcement. We analyzed songs in early (*E*) time windows
490 defined as the first 2 h window during the test period in which the bird produced at least
491 20 song motifs. We also assessed pitch recovery in late (*L*) windows defined exactly 4
492 days after the *E* window. To make the measurements robust to circadian fluctuations of
493 pitch, we compared the pitch values in early and late windows to pitch values produced in
494 time-aligned windows during the last day of reinforcement (*R*) and during the last day of
495 baseline (*B*).

496 We used this time-of-day matched analysis to produce Fig. 1H, I, Fig. 2. C, D and Fig. 3.
497 C, D. Exceptions where time alignment was not possible are listed in the following:

- 498 • One WNm bird started singing late on the last day of reinforcement (preventing us
499 from time-aligning the *R* window with the *E* window), and therefore in this bird
500 we defined *R* after the end of WN but before muting (in this bird there is more than
501 one day of song after WN and before muting).
- 502 • In two birds (1 WNC and 1 dLO bird), we defined the *L* window one day earlier
503 (on the 4th day, after 3 days of practice), because there was no data for these birds
504 on the 5th day after reinforcement (our findings did not qualitatively change when
505 we defined the *L* window on the 6th day instead of the 4th).
- 506 • One WNm bird was housed together with a female during WN reinforcement; this
507 bird did not sing during the time-match 2-h period on the 2nd, 3rd, and 4th day after
508 reinforcement; therefore on those days we computed the mean pitch from all
509 values produced on that day in Fig. 1H.

510 In early (*E*) and late (*L*) analysis windows, we computed the normalized residual pitch
511 (*NRP*), which is the remaining fraction of pitch shift since release from WN, defined as
512 $NRP(X) = (P_X - P_B)/(P_R - P_B)$, where P_X is either the mean pitch in the early ($X = E$)
513 or late ($X = L$) window (Fig 1H, I, 2C, D, 3C, D). P_R and P_B are the mean pitches in the *R*
514 and *B* windows, respectively. An *NRP* of 33% indicates that two-thirds of the reinforced
515 pitch shift have been recovered and an *NRP* of 0% indicates full recovery of baseline
516 pitch. Note that the *NRP* measure discounts for differences in the amount of initial pitch
517 shift the birds displayed at the beginning of the test period.

518 We performed statistical testing of *NRP* to discount for this diversity in initial pitch. To
519 test the hypothesis that WNm birds recovered their baseline pitch without practice or that
520 WNd or dLO birds recovered baseline pitch without auditory feedback, we performed a
521 two-tailed t-test for $NRP = 0$.

522 Our results were qualitatively unchanged when we changed the timing of the *L* window, as
523 long as there were at least 3 days between *E* and *L* windows (because WNC birds need at
524 least 3 days to recover their baseline pitch in the *L* window, $p < 0.05$). Thus, giving deaf
525 birds more time did not allow them to recover their baseline pitch. Furthermore, we also
526 tested larger windows of 4 and 24 h duration instead of 2 h and found qualitatively similar
527 results. We further verified that our results did not critically depend on the time-alignment
528 by repeating the *NRP* tests using the last 2 h of reinforcement as the *R* windows. Indeed,
529 we found that all results in Fig. 1-3 were unchanged.

530 We computed the pitch change after reinforcement (Fig. 4) as the difference in mean
531 pitches between window *X* (first 2 h after withdrawal of the reinforcer $X = E$, or exactly 4
532 days later $X = L$) and the last 2 h of WN/LO reinforcement *R* in units of sensitivity $d' =$

($P_X - P_R$)/ S_R , where S_R is the standard deviation of pitch values in the R window. To test the hypothesis that WNd and dLO birds are able to make targeted pitch changes towards baseline, we performed a one-tailed t-test of the hypothesis $H_0: d' < 0$. Changes in the way in which we normalized d' values — dividing by S_B , $\sqrt{(S_B^2 + S_R^2)}/2$, or $\sqrt{(S_X^2 + S_R^2)}/2$ — did not qualitatively change the results shown in Fig. 4.

Bootstrapping

To test whether deaf birds indeed make small pitch changes towards a target if and only if they experienced target-mismatch during reinforcement, we bootstrapped the difference in pitch changes between reinforced (WNd and dLO) and deaf control birds (dC). All dC birds were recorded for at least 5 days after they started singing while deaf.

In dC birds, we defined the R , E , and L windows such that they matched those of WNd and dLO birds in terms of days since deafening. Additionally, in dLO birds we chose the windows such that they matched in terms of time-of-day (because LO always ended overnight). Thus, the R windows in dC birds either corresponded to the last 2 h before deafening (as control for WNd birds) or to the last 2 h of the day before E (as control for dLO birds).

For WNd birds, we obtained in total 26 control syllables from 20 dC birds. For dLO birds, we obtain 17 control syllables from 13 dC birds (some dC birds did not provide any useable data because they stopped singing or were not recorded for long enough).

For the bootstrapping procedure, we randomly paired control syllables ($N=26$ for WNd and $N=17$ for dLO) one-by-one with matchable syllables from reinforced birds (with replacement), computed the mean pitches P_R , P_E , P_L in corresponding windows, calculated the standard deviation S_R , calculated the average pitch changes $d'_E = (P_E - P_R)/S_R$ and $d'_L = (P_L - P_R)/S_R$ for both manipulated and control birds, and multiplied these by -1 if the reinforced bird was down-shifted (as we did for d' above). We then took the differences in average pitch changes between manipulated (WNd and dLO) and dC birds, e.g. $d'_{E,WNd} - d'_{E,dC}$. We repeated this procedure 10'000 times and plotted the distribution of average pitch change differences between WNd and dC (red) and between dLO and dC (blue) in Fig. 4E and perform bootstrap statistics.

Our results were qualitatively unchanged (only WNd significantly reverted pitch towards baseline) when we aligned the R windows by the time-of-day of the corresponding E windows (two dC birds started singing later on the day of the E window than they stopped singing on the days before; in these two birds we used the R windows instead), see Table S1. Although the d' values in both groups increased (and in dLO birds, the average d' in the L windows was positive, $p < 0.05$, two-tailed t-test), we found a significant pitch difference between WNd or dLO birds in L windows, which upholds our findings that mismatch experience is necessary for pitch reversion. The reason for the increases in d' likely is that birds further shifted their pitch away from baseline on the last day of reinforcement (after the time-aligned R window). Also, results were robust when we analyzed pitch changes after release from reinforcement in units of NRP : without practice, WNd birds made small and significant pitch changes towards baseline, and dLO birds stayed at $NRP \geq 1$.

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