1	Acoustic orientation in the great crested newt (Triturus cristatus)
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21	Type of manuscript: article
22	Total number of words: 4277
23	Short title: heterospecific acoustic attraction in a newt

24 Abstract. We carried out laboratory experiments to determine whether orientation during 25 migration in the great crested newt (Triturus cristatus) is influenced by acoustic 26 information. Newts retrieved during the aquatic breeding seasons (adults), as well as during 27 the terrestrial phase after breeding (adults and juveniles), were subjected to calls from 28 sympatric (Rana temporaria and Bufo bufo) and allopatric (Lithobates catesbeianus) 29 anurans. In addition to natural stimuli, we also used modified anuran calls (continuous sound with inter-note intervals removed), white noise with and without envelop, and a 30 31 heterochthonous sound (pile driving). In a circular arena, adult newts retrieved both during 32 their aquatic and terrestrial phase orientated towards the *B. bufo* stimulus, and migrated at random directions when exposed to the other calls; the lack of orientation towards the 33 sympatric R. temporaria parallels a largely non-overlapping breeding season. 34 Inexperienced juveniles did not orientate towards anuran calls, suggesting that phonotactic 35 36 responses could be learned. Both aquatic as well as terrestrial adults significantly moved 37 away from a white noise envelop. The results suggest different degrees of heterospecific 38 call attraction across life stages, and provide evidence that unnatural sound might have an 39 adverse effect on breeding migrations.

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41 Keywords: Heterospecific attraction, acoustic orientation, homing, *Triturus cristatus*42

43 Introduction

44 During migration, amphibians rely on a number of mechanisms for orientation (Adler, 1982; 45 Phillips, 1998; Sinsch, 2006). Ferguson (1971) first proposed the redundant-multisensory system whereby amphibians integrate acoustic, magnetic, mechanical, olfactory and visual cues. The 46 47 ranking of the sensory input obtained from these potential cues into a distinct hierarchy is 48 species- as well as case-specific, and optimises the available information at any given time. In 49 addition to external cues, more recent studies also accumulated evidence that amphibians rely on 50 spatial memory, including the ability for cognitive flexibility (Crane and Mathis, 2011; Pašukonis et al., 2014; Pašukonis et al., 2016; Liu et al., 2016; Munteanu et al., 2016). 51

52 The idea that animals make orientation choices based on the position of conspecific 53 individuals can be traced back many decades (e.g. Lack, 1948). In amphibians, conspecific 54 attraction can alter habitat choice, and acoustic playbacks have recently been suggested as a 55 conservation tool to improve the use of restored habitat (James et al., 2015; Pizzatto et al., 2016). 56 The heterospecific attraction hypothesis (first described in birds: Mönkkönen et al., 1990), on the 57 other hand, refers to a scenario where migrant individuals use the presence of another species as a 58 cue for profitable breeding sites, thereby preferentially approaching such habitat patches 59 (Sebastian-Gonzalez et al., 2010). Urodele amphibians lack tympanic middle ears (Smith, 1968), 60 and rely on lateral body walls and lungs for sound reception (Hetherington, 2001; Capshaw & 61 Soares, 2016; Crovo et al., 2016). Nevertheless, heterospecific acoustic attraction has been 62 supported in adults of three species of pond-breeding European newts (Triturus marmoratus, 63 Lissotriton helveticus, L. vulgaris), which in experimental arenas orientate towards calls of 64 sympatric (but not allopatric) anurans (Diego-Rasilla and Luengo, 2004, 2007; Pupin et al., 2007). When switching from aquatic phases to life on land, urodeles undertake a range of 65 66 morphological changes, for example developing a more tuberculated skin which becomes more 67 permeable to water (Toledo and Jared, 1993). However, while such changes have significant 68 consequences to their acoustic sensory abilities (Christensen et al., 2015), it remains to be studied 69 whether they are also reflected in differential acoustic orientation behaviour across aquatic and 70 terrestrial life stages.

71 The great crested newt (T. cristatus) is the largest newt species in northern Europe (Jehle et 72 al., 2011). Although T. cristatus often serves as an umbrella species for the conservation management of ponds and their surroundings, comparatively little is known about orientation 73 74 during terrestrial migrations. While the ability to navigate in unfamiliar areas appears largely 75 absent, close-range homing migrations appear to be largely based on olfactorial cues (Sinsch, 2007; Hayward et al., 2000; Sinsch and Kirst, 2015). In the present paper, we focus on T. 76 77 cristatus to extend previous studies on heterospecific attraction in newts to a range of different 78 life stages (adults and juveniles). We distinguish individuals retrieved during the aquatic breeding 79 season from newts captured terrestrially after the breeding season, and additionally consider 80 juveniles who have never experienced a breeding season. We further test whether T. cristatus 81 individuals phonotactically respond to modified anuran calls (continuous sound without notes), as 82 well as non animal-borne cues (white noise and a heterochthonous anthopogenic sound).

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84 Materials and Methods

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86 Study Site and Capture Methodology

87 *Triturus cristatus* study individuals were retrieved from Rixton Clay Pits, Cheshire, England 88 (National Grid Reference SJ 685 902) which support one of the largest known breeding 89 population of *T. cristatus* in the United Kingdom. Newts during their aquatic phase were 90 collected through dip netting on 31^{st} May 2013 (18 males and 22 females). Newts during their 91 terrestrial phase after breeding were retrieved on 4th October 2013 through a hand search of 92 potential refugia within 500 metres of the study ponds, yielding 10 males, 12 females and 12 93 juveniles that metamorphosed earlier in the study year (as evidenced by their size and weight). 94 All newts were transported to the laboratory where they were housed in individually labelled 95 opaque plastic containers (170 mm radius, 40 mm high) with approximately 5 mm of water. 96 Newts were not fed during captivity, and released at their place of capture after a maximum of 5 97 days.

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99 Experimental Procedures

The experimental procedure largely followed Diego-Rasilla and Luengo (2004; 2007) and Pupin 100 101 et al. (2007). Newts were tested indoors on level arenas consisting of a plastic sheet (700 mm²) 102 and 3 mm thick), with a print of a compass at five degrees accuracy (600 mm in diameter) adhered to the underside (Figure 1). Wooden frames (750 mm² and 200 mm high) enclosed the 103 104 arenas to prevent escape and to provide a barrier for external cues. One speaker (50 mm radius) 105 was fixed to the outside of the frame so that sound could be directed through a circular hole 106 towards the inside of the arena (Figure 1). This allowed the frame to alter the compass direction 107 of each acoustic stimulus in four directions (0° , 90° , 180° and 270°) to factor out any consistent 108 non-acoustic bias. To eliminate possible olfactory cues, the arena was thoroughly cleaned with a 109 damp cloth and wiped dry using clean paper towels prior to each trial. The centre of the arena 110 was then lightly sprayed with water to allow the directional response of each newt to be recorded 111 by a moist trail on the arena floor. A release container (same opaque plastic container that newts 112 were housed in) was placed in the centre of the arena, and manually lifted to release the newts. The experiments were undertaken in complete darkness, using a Mini Maglite[®] torch to prepare 113 114 the arena for each trial.

115 A control (absence of acoustic stimuli) was used to factor out the presence of any external 116 cues, and nine different acoustic stimuli were applied. To test for heterospecific attraction, two 117 sympatric stimuli (the breeding calls of the anurans Rana temporaria and Bufo bufo, which are 118 both present at the study site) and one allopatric stimulus (the breeding calls of the American 119 bullfrog *Lithobates catesbeianus*) were broadcast to *T. cristatus* individuals; calls were taken 120 from the species accounts on amphibiaweb.org. To test which properties of acoustic information 121 promote phonotaxis, these playbacks were also modified to constant sound (i.e. the frequency and 122 amplitude were maintained but the silence between calls was removed). In addition to anuran 123 stimuli, white noise was broadcast to determine whether acoustic signals generally stimulate a response, and a white noise envelope was produced to mimic the temporal pattern of anuran calls 124 125 (0.6 s note duration with 0.6 s note interval). Finally, a pile driving recording 126 (http://freesound.org/people/LG/sounds/91762/) was chosen to determine whether а 127 heterochthonous sound such as stemming from human activities elicits phonotaxis. Stimuli were 128 modified using the software Audacity. All playbacks were reset at the beginning of each trial, and broadcast in their entirety on a continuous loop using an iPod Classic[®]. The sound pressure level 129 130 of the acoustic stimuli, measured from the centre of the arena with a Digital Sound Level Meter 131 (Maplin sound level meter N33GJ), was calibrated to 68 dB, corresponding to the sound pressure 132 level generated by a typical anuran approximately 10-12 m from a breeding pond (following 133 Diego-Rasilla and Luengo, 2004).

Prior to release, newts were kept in complete darkness and acoustically isolated from the test arena. Individuals were selected at random and left undisturbed under the release container for 1 minute to overcome the effects of handling. Movements were recorded after 5 minutes to an accuracy of 5°, and direction was determined through the first point at which the moist trail trespassed the compass border (300 mm from the release point). Successfully trialed newts were returned to their container, and stored separately from un-trialed newts. Individuals that did not reach the orientation criterion within the set time interval were returned to their container and stored with the un-trialed newts ready for random selection.

142 The acoustic stimuli and the compass direction at which it was broadcast were randomly 143 defined for each trial. Data from the four directions were combined for each data set by rotating 144 the bearings so that the acoustic stimuli compass directions coincided at 0° (i.e., 90, 180 and 270 145 was subtracted from the actual headings of newts tested with the acoustic stimuli broadcast from 146 90°, 180°, and 270°, respectively; Diego-Rasilla and Luengo, 2004). Data were analyzed using 147 standard circular statistics (Batschelet, 1981; Fisher, 1995) and the software PAST (Hammer et al., 2001). Mean vectors ($_{\mu}$) were calculated by vector addition. The V test, a modified Rayleigh 148 149 test, was used to test for significant movements in relation to the direction of the stimuli. We considered both positive and negative phonotaxis by testing for an association with 0° and 180° 150 151 from the stimulus, respectively; P value intervals were derived from the table provided in 152 Batschelet (1981). The Mardia-Watson-Wheeler test was performed to assess whether pairwise 153 samples differed significantly from each other (Batschelet, 1981; Zar, 1984). Males and females 154 were pooled for analyses as no differences in orientation between the sexes were found (detailed 155 data not shown).

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157 Results

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A total of 820 trials based on 82 study individuals were undertaken; 400 trials by newts captured
during the aquatic breeding phase, and 420 trials by newts captured during the terrestrial phase.
The majority of trials (725; 88.4%) were successful during the first attempt, and 9.5% of trials
were successful during the second attempt; a further 1.6% and 0.5% of newts had to be trialled

three and four times, respectively. Eighty-two percent of the re-trials are based on initial trials which were conducted in the absence of acoustic stimuli (control), supporting that newts are more reluctant to orientate in the absence of an acoustic cue.

166 The data obtained for the control (no stimulus) and the three unmodified anuran call 167 stimuli are shown in Figures 2-4, a-d. All experimental groups orientated randomly under the control situation in the absence of an acoustic stimulus (P > 0.05 in all cases); significance was 168 tested with the home direction set to the mean vector bearing as well as all four cardinal points 169 170 $(0^{\circ}, 90^{\circ}, 180^{\circ})$ and 270° , demonstrating that the experimental setup was free from directional 171 bias. Aquatic and terrestrial adults significantly orientated towards calls of B. bufo (aquatic: V test with expected direction = 0° , r = 0.29, n = 40, U = 2.59, P < 0.005, Figure 2b; terrestrial: r = 0.40, 172 n = 32, U = 2.67, P < 0.005, Figure 3b), with a directional responses which did not differ 173 significantly from each other (Mardia-Watson-Wheeler test: $P_{\text{same}} = 0.997$). Juveniles, on the 174 175 other hand, showed no phonotactic reaction towards the B. bufo call (r = 0.23, n = 10, U = 0.43, P 176 > 0.05, Figure 4b). When exposed to the calls of the sympatric *R. temporaria*, neither terrestrial nor aquatic adults migrated significantly towards the stimulus (aquatic: r = 0.14, n = 43, U = -177 178 0.88, P > 0.05, terrestrial: r = 0.23, n = 22, U = -1.54, P > 0.05; Figures 2c and 3c). The Mardia-Watson-Wheeler test confirmed that the aquatic and terrestrial adults orientated similarly ($P_{\text{same}} =$ 179 0.877). Again, juveniles showed no reaction to the stimulus (r = 0.10, n = 10, U = 0.43, P > 0.05, 180 181 Figure 4c). Litobathes catesbeianus calls elicited a similar response to that of R. temporaria, 182 again without significant orientation towards the stimulus (aquatic: r = 0.13, n = 43, U = 1.05, P > 0.05, terrestrial: r = 0.10, n = 22, U = -0.23, P < 0.05, Figures 2d and 3d), and a directional 183 184 responses which is indiscernible between aquatic and terrestrial newts (Mardia-Watson-Wheeler test $P_{\text{same}} = 0.729$). Lithobates catesbeianus also did not solicit a significant response from 185 186 juveniles (r = 0.16, n = 12, U = -0.79, P < 0.05, Figure 4d). For all experiments, tests for 187 negative phonotaxis revealed no significant results (P > 0.05 in all cases, detailed data not 188 shown).

The results for modified and non animal-born cues are summarised in Table 1. Adult *T*. *cristatus* from both life stages significantly moved away from interrupted white noise, and the Mardia-Watson-Wheeler test illustrated that the directional response of aquatic and terrestrial adults were indiscernible ($P_{same} = 0.169$). All other stimuli did not result in significant positive or negative phonotaxis towards the tested stimuli.

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195 Discussion

As has previously been shown for other European newt species (the congeneric T. marmoratus 196 197 and two Lissotriton species, Diego-Rasilla and Luengo, 2004, 2007; Pupin et al., 2007), this 198 study confirms the confirms the use of heterospecific calls for *T. cristatus*. Moreover, this study 199 shows for the first time that newts at different life stages respond differentially to acoustic cues. 200 The control tests satisfied the absence of non-acoustic bias within the test arena, and that the vast 201 majority of the re-trials were required for control situations (silence) suggests that individuals 202 indeed made orientation decisions based on acoustic stimuli. However, it is important to bear in 203 mind that our experimental arenas represent an unnatural situation, and that the behavioral 204 reactions may not be representative of field situations where a multitude of cues are available 205 (Sinsch, 2006). Ideally, all stimuli would have been tested from all directions; however, the 206 nature and biology of the species and limited timeframe permitted to keep the newts in captivity 207 (specified as part of the license) prevented this approach. Instead, newts were tested so that the pooled data sets included roughly equal numbers of bearings with the acoustic stimuli broadcast 208 209 from the four directions. The methodology used was specifically chosen to draw direct 210 comparisons with previous studies, and given the time constraints attributed to protected species offered the best solution to randomization and unbiased trials. Anuran calls are highly stereotyped and species-specific in their broad spectral and temporal properties (see Wells, 2007).
Standardizing the stimuli of different species to the same call rates would therefore lead to unrepresentative comparisons, and we restricted ourselves to a standardized SPL at stimuli whose temporal properties are typical for each species.

216 Heterospecific attraction of T. cristatus towards B. bufo but not R. temporaria supports 217 results previously reported for other newt species. Diego-Rasilla and Luengo (2007, with L. 218 *helveticus*) attributed this observation to a largely non-overlapping breeding season which might 219 lead to calls which are unfamiliar for orientation (at our study site, R. temporaria breeds 220 approximately 4 weeks before the peak immigration of T. cristatus and B. bufo, unpublished 221 observations). It however should be acknowledged that the experiments with terrestrial newts 222 were conducted during a time of the year when anurans do not call naturally, and still elicited a 223 response to B. bufo. The lack of attraction of adults to the unfamiliar L. catesbeianus further 224 confirms that urodeles are capable of discriminating between calls from different anurans (Diego-225 Rasilla and Luengo, 2007). It however remains to be studied whether our phonotaxis experiments 226 were influenced by ignoring phylogeographic differences in fine-scale properties of calls (e.g. 227 Wycherley et al., 2002).

Natural selection should favour amphibians which are capable of efficiently using a range of migration cues, for example to reduce the risk of predation during orientation (Bonachea and Ryan, 2011). Diego-Rasilla and Luengo (2004) demonstrate that heterospecific attraction only takes place towards species which are naturally present at a given site, suggesting that this behaviour could be altered through learning. This is supported by our data from juvenile individuals, which were not attracted to any of the three anuran calls (at a however low small sample size of 10 individuals). Juveniles have not yet experienced a breeding season and are 235 therefore unfamiliar to such potential acoustic migration cues, although they for example follow 236 scent trails of conspecific adults (Hayward et al., 2000). Learning has been previously 237 demonstrated for T. cristatus (e.g. Hershkowitz and Samuel, 1973), and other urodeles learn to 238 use landmarks for finding food and avoid dangerous habitat types based on predatory olfactory 239 cues (Crane and Mathis, 2011). It is furthermore in line with the observation that T. cristatus has 240 the ability to orientate towards breeding ponds within a range of familiarity (Sinsch, 2007; Sinsch 241 and Kirst, 2015), and that individual T. cristatus return to specific terrestrial refuge areas after 242 displacement into the breeding pond (Jehle, 2000).

243 Most studies regarding urodele orientation suggest that magnetic (Phillips, 1986; Fischer 244 et al., 2001; Diego-Rasilla et al., 2008), celestial (Landreth and Ferguson, 1967; Diego-Rasilla 245 and Luengo, 2002), and olfactorial (Joly and Miaud, 1993; Sinsch and Kirst, 2015) cues are 246 amongst the primary sources for directional choices. However, individuals whose breeding sites 247 have disappeared or have become displaced (translocation is a common management practice for 248 T. cristatus for example in the United Kingdom, Jehle et al., 2011) may increasingly also rely on 249 acoustic cues. That newts were significantly attracted to heterospecific calls could in the future be 250 used to facilitate a more efficient colonization of newly created habitat, as has already been 251 suggested for anurans based on conspecific calls (James et al., 2015). That individual T. cristatus 252 moved away from the white noise envelope further suggests that newts might be affected by 253 monotonous anthropogenic noise. This is a particular concern given that e.g. mineral extraction 254 sites represent important habitats in many parts of the T. cristatus range (Jehle et al., 2011), 255 although the more heterochthonous stimulus typical for e.g. construction sites (pile driving) had 256 no significant effect on orientation.

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258 *Acknowledgments*

Newts were captured and handled using the Natural England licence number 20090907. Wethank F. Diego-Rasilla for discussions.

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262 **References**

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Table 1: Summary of responses of adult (aquatic and terrestrial) and juvenile great crested newts
(*Triturus cristatus*) to modified acoustic stimuli. Values represent the *u* test statistic for
significant relationships between migrations and the direction of stimuli based on *V*-tests;
positive and negative values denote positive and negative phonotaxis, respectively. *: p<0.05.

Stimulus	A dulta (a quatia)	A dualta (tama atmial)	T
Sumulus	Adults (aqualic)	Adults (terrestrial)	Juvennes
	<i>n</i> = 40	<i>n</i> = 32	<i>n</i> = 10
White noise	1.45	-0.96	-1.60
White noise (interrupted)	-1.99*	-1.68*	-1.57
Bufo bufo (continuous)	-0.91	1.28	1.10
Rana temporaria (continuous)	-0.91	-0.20	1.10
Lithobates catesbeianus (continuous)	-1.24	0.16	0.06
Pile driving	-0.80	0.55	0.41
C C			

356	Figure legends:
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358	Figure 1: Arena design used during the experiments.
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360	Figure 2. Circular diagram representing the orientation responses of adult Triturus cristatus
361	captured during the aquatic phase to a) a control stimulus (silence); b) Bufo bufo, c) Rana
362	temporaria, and d) the allopatric stimulus Lithobates catesbeianus.
363	
364	Figure 3. Circular diagram representing the orientation responses of adult Triturus cristatus
365	captured during the terrestrial phase to a) a control stimulus (silence), b) Bufo bufo, c) Rana
366	temporaria, and d) the allopatric stimulus Lithobates catesbeianus.
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368	Figure 4. Circular diagram representing the orientation responses of juvenile Triturus cristatus to
369	a) a control stimulus (silence), b) Bufo bufo, c) Rana temporaria, and d) the allopatric stimulus
370	Lithobates catesbeianus.
371	

Figure 1.













