

1 Citation:

2 Shonfield J, Gorrell JC, Coltman DW, Boutin S, Humphries MM, Wilson DR, McAdam AG (2017)

3 Using playback of territorial calls to investigate mechanisms of kin discrimination in red

4 squirrels. *Behavioral Ecology*, 28: 382–390. doi: 10.1093/beheco/arw165

5

6 TITLE: Using playback of territorial calls to investigate mechanisms of kin

7 discrimination in red squirrels

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9 SHORT TITLE: Kin discrimination in red squirrels

10

11 Julia Shonfield^{a,b}, Jamieson C. Gorrell^{b,c}, David W. Coltman^b, Stan Boutin^b, Murray M.

12 Humphries^d, David R. Wilson^{a,c} & Andrew G. McAdam^a.

13

14 ^a Department of Integrative Biology, University of Guelph, Guelph, ON, N1G 2W1,

15 Canada

16 ^b Department of Biological Sciences, University of Alberta, Edmonton, AB, T6G 2E9,

17 Canada

18 ^c Biology Department, Vancouver Island University, Nanaimo, BC, V9R 5S5, Canada

19 ^d Department of Natural Resource Sciences, McGill University, Ste-Anne-de-Bellevue,

20 QC, H9X 3V9, Canada

21 ^e Department of Psychology, Memorial University of Newfoundland, St John's, NL, A1B

22 3X9, Canada

23

24 Current address of corresponding author:

- 25 Julia Shonfield, Department of Biological Sciences, University of Alberta, CW 405
- 26 Biological Sciences Building, Edmonton, Alberta, T6G 2E9, julia.shonfield@gmail.com

27 ABSTRACT

28

29 Kin recognition can facilitate kin selection and may have played a role in the
30 evolution of sociality. Red squirrels (*Tamiasciurus hudsonicus*) defend territories using
31 vocalizations known as rattles. They use rattles to discriminate kin, though the
32 mechanism underlying this ability is unknown. Our objective was to distinguish between
33 the mechanisms of prior association, where animals learn the phenotypes of kin they
34 associate with early in life, and phenotype matching/recognition alleles, where animals
35 use a template to match phenotypes, thereby allowing them to recognize kin without an
36 association early in life. We used audio playbacks to measure the responses of squirrels to
37 rattles from familiar kin, unfamiliar kin, and non-kin. Initial analyses revealed that red
38 squirrels did not discriminate between familiar and unfamiliar kin, but also did not
39 discriminate between kin and non-kin, despite previous evidence indicating this
40 capability. Post-hoc analyses showed that a squirrel's propensity to rattle in response to
41 playback depended on an interaction between relatedness and how the playback stimuli
42 had been recorded. Red squirrels discriminated between rattles from close kin ($r = 0.5$)
43 and rattles from non-kin ($r < 0.5$) when the rattles were recorded from provoked squirrels.
44 Squirrels did not exhibit kin discrimination in response to rattles that had been recorded
45 from unprovoked squirrels. Once we accounted for how the stimuli had been recorded,
46 we found no difference in the responses to familiar and unfamiliar kin. Our study
47 suggests that kin discrimination by red squirrels may be context-dependent.

48

49 Keywords: context-dependent kin discrimination, kin recognition, local density,

50 playback, *Tamiasciurus hudsonicus*, territorial vocalization.

51

52 INTRODUCTION

53

54 Kin recognition is the ability of an individual to recognize its relatedness to other
55 individuals. This involves the expression of a recognizable signal by one individual, and
56 the perception of that signal by another (Hamilton 1964; Beecher 1982). Kin recognition
57 allows individuals to avoid inbreeding (Pusey and Wolf 1996) and to gain inclusive
58 fitness benefits (Hamilton 1964) by mediating social behaviors, such as alarm calling
59 (Sherman 1977). Evidence of kin recognition has been documented in group-living
60 animals, as well as in solitary and territorial animals (Fuller and Blaustein 1990; Sun and
61 Müller-Schwarze 1997; Hare 2004; Flores-Prado and Niemeyer 2010).

62

63 Several mechanisms have been proposed to explain how animals recognize kin,
64 including prior association, phenotype matching, and recognition alleles (reviewed by
65 Holmes and Sherman 1982, 1983, Blaustein 1983, Waldman 1987). In prior association,
66 animals learn the phenotypes of specific individuals early in life, when social interactions
67 usually involve kin (e.g., interacting with one's siblings or mother while in the natal
68 nest). In phenotype matching, animals recognize familiar or unfamiliar kin by comparing
69 them to a generalized kin template that is based on their own phenotype or on the
70 phenotypes of familiar kin encountered early in life. In recognition alleles, the animal is
71 hypothesized to express and recognize a familial trait, but unlike in phenotype matching,
72 the expression and recognition of that trait is inherited instead of learned (i.e. green-beard
73 effect, Hamilton 1964; Dawkins 1976). Distinguishing between phenotype matching and

74 recognition alleles is often impossible because both allow for the recognition of familiar
75 and unfamiliar kin.

76

77 Whereas kin recognition is the process of assessing genetic relatedness, kin
78 discrimination is the differential expression of behavior towards kin. Several studies have
79 found that kin discrimination can be context-dependent and can vary between social
80 contexts and with fluctuating environmental conditions. In a few studies on salamanders,
81 kin discrimination varied with predator density (Harris et al. 2003), food abundance and
82 larval size (Hokit et al. 1996). Another study found that female red-backed salamanders
83 (*Plethodon cinereus*) cannibalized unrelated neonates significantly more often than they
84 cannibalized their own offspring, yet they otherwise did not behave differently towards
85 the two groups of young (Gibbons et al. 2003). In eusocial insects, discrimination of
86 nestmates (i.e. kin) has been found to vary with social context (intruder introductions,
87 group interactions or dyadic interactions; Buczkowski and Silverman 2005), with
88 perceived threat to the colony (amount of nectar in the hive; Downs and Ratnieks 2000;
89 and number of intruders; Couvillon et al. 2008), and with the location of the behavioral
90 assay (either at a natural colony entrance or a test arena; Couvillon et al. 2013). These
91 studies show that multiple factors can influence kin discrimination behavior, and that the
92 absence of kin discrimination does not necessarily mean an absence of kin recognition.

93

94 North American red squirrels (*Tamiasciurus hudsonicus*) are solitary, territorial
95 animals capable of discriminating kin in certain contexts. Males and females defend
96 exclusive territories throughout the year (Smith 1968), and use vocalizations known as

97 rattles to establish and signal their presence on a territory (Smith 1978; Lair 1990);
98 physical disputes over territory boundaries are rare (Dantzer et al. 2012). Rattles have
99 individually distinctive acoustic structures (Digweed et al. 2012) and previous research
100 has shown that squirrels respond differently to the playbacks of rattles from kin and non-
101 kin, regardless of whether those rattles were from neighbors or non-neighbors (Wilson et
102 al. 2015). Nepotistic behavior in red squirrels has also been documented in several other
103 contexts. Specifically, females are known to bequeath territories to offspring (Price and
104 Boutin 1993; Berteaux and Boutin 2000; Lane et al. 2015), to nest occasionally with kin
105 during the winter (Williams et al. 2013), and, in rare circumstances, to adopt the
106 orphaned young of close kin (Gorrell et al. 2010). These examples are primarily between
107 pairs of closely related individuals that have close associations early in life (e.g., mother-
108 offspring and littermate pairs): bequeathal occurs only between mother-offspring pairs,
109 nest sharing occurs primarily between mothers and daughters (though there were a few
110 unfamiliar half-siblings nesting together), and adoption occurs only when the orphan's
111 genetic mother and adopting mother were familiar and close kin. In contrast to these
112 examples of kin discrimination, cross-fostering experiments with newborn red squirrels
113 suggest that females do not preferentially allocate parental care to genetic offspring
114 versus foster offspring (Humphries and Boutin 1996; McAdam et al. 2002). Kin
115 discrimination is therefore context-dependent in this species.

116

117 The objective of this study was to determine whether or not kin discrimination in
118 red squirrels is based on the mechanism of prior association. Previous research showed
119 that red squirrel rattles are individually distinctive (Digweed et al. 2012; Wilson et al.

120 2015) and used for kin discrimination (Wilson et al. 2015). However, the work on kin
121 discrimination did not address whether red squirrels discriminate between kin with which
122 they had prior associations early in life (familiar kin) and kin with which they had no
123 prior associations early in life (unfamiliar kin). This was because most playback stimuli
124 in the kin treatment of that study involved mother-offspring pairs, who would have
125 interacted early in life while in the natal nest (Wilson et al. 2015). Therefore, we
126 measured the responses of squirrels exposed to the playback of rattles from familiar kin,
127 unfamiliar kin, and non-kin. If red squirrels recognize kin using the mechanism of prior
128 association, we predicted that they would behave less aggressively and thus be less likely
129 to rattle in response to rattles from familiar kin than in response to rattles from unfamiliar
130 kin or non-kin. Alternatively, if red squirrels recognize kin by phenotype matching or
131 recognition alleles, then we predicted that they would be less likely to rattle in response
132 to rattles from familiar and unfamiliar kin than in response to rattles from non-kin. Upon
133 finding no evidence of kin discrimination (see results, below), we conducted a series of
134 post-hoc analyses to explore possible contextual factors that might have affected kin
135 discrimination in this study.

136

137 METHODS

138

139 *Study Site and Subjects*

140 We conducted research on a population of red squirrels that has been studied
141 annually in southwestern Yukon (61°N, 138°W) since 1989 (McAdam et al. 2007). The
142 population lives in open boreal forest that is dominated by white spruce (LaMontagne and

143 Boutin 2007). All individuals in the population were marked with numbered metal ear
144 tags (Monel #1 National Tag and Band Co.) for permanent identification, and with
145 colored wires threaded through their ear tags for visual identification from afar (McAdam
146 et al. 2007). We monitored female reproductive status by live-trapping individuals in
147 Tomahawk traps baited with peanut butter, and we ear-tagged the pups when they
148 reached 25 days of age and were still in the natal nest (McAdam et al. 2007).

149

150 As part of our ongoing research program, we generated a multigenerational
151 pedigree for this population (e.g., McFarlane et al. 2015). We established maternal
152 linkages by identifying mothers and their pups while they were still within their natal
153 nests. The few cases of adoption documented in this study population mostly occurred
154 when pups had emerged from the natal nest but were not yet weaned, between 43 and 63
155 days of age (Gorrell et al. 2010). A single adoption occurred when the pup was only six
156 days old. Therefore, adoptions should not have influenced our method of establishing
157 maternal linkages. Paternal pedigree linkages (Lane et al. 2007; McFarlane et al. 2014)
158 were established since 2003 using paternity analysis involving 16 microsatellite loci
159 (Gunn et al. 2005). The paternal linkages were made with 99% confidence using
160 CERVUS 3.0 (Kalinowski et al. 2007). Any unobserved adoptions would have been
161 detected by mismatching genotypes between the pup and mother during the paternity
162 analysis.

163

164 Playback trials for this study were conducted on three sites: one was part of an
165 ongoing food supplementation experiment that started in 2004 (45 ha), and the other two

166 were control sites for this same large-scale experiment (40 ha each). As part of this
167 experiment, squirrels on the food-supplemented site were supplied with 1 kg of peanut
168 butter every six weeks between October and May each year. The density of squirrels in
169 2009 was low on the two control sites (1.13 and 0.76 squirrels/ha), but was higher on the
170 food supplemented site (2.45 squirrels/ha) due to higher food availability (Dantzer et al.
171 2013).

172

173 *Experimental Design*

174 The playback experiment followed a 2 X 3 factorial design in which each subject
175 was played a single territorial rattle that varied in terms of its kinship status (familiar kin,
176 unfamiliar kin, or non-kin) and neighbor status (neighbor or non-neighbor). "Kin" was
177 defined as having a pedigree relatedness coefficient (r) of at least 0.25. We used a
178 categorical kin variable because we were interested primarily in determining whether kin
179 discrimination was limited to familiar kin or whether it extended to unfamiliar kin as
180 well. Our "familiar kin" treatment referred exclusively to pairs of squirrels that shared a
181 natal nest, as this is the only time in a squirrel's life when they are interacting only with
182 kin. The familiar kin treatment included 15 mother-offspring pairs and 22 litter-mate
183 pairs (full siblings and maternal half-siblings). Male red squirrels do not provide parental
184 care and have no interactions with pups in the natal nest. Our "unfamiliar kin" treatment
185 included 12 father-offspring pairs, 14 non-litter-mate pairs (paternal half-siblings,
186 maternal half-siblings, or full siblings from different litters), and four grandparent-grand-
187 offspring pairs (Table 1). "Non-kin" were defined as having a relatedness coefficient of
188 less than 0.125. We included neighbor status in our experimental design to account for

189 the possibility that squirrels behave less aggressively towards their neighbors (i.e., the
190 dear-enemy effect: Fisher 1954; Temeles 1994). "Neighbors" were defined as squirrels
191 with middens located within 100 m of each other, whereas "non-neighbors" were defined
192 as squirrels whose middens were more than 200 m apart. The familiar kin treatment
193 included 24 neighbor and 13 non-neighbor trials, the unfamiliar kin treatment included 16
194 neighbor and 14 non-neighbor trials, and the non-kin treatment included 16 neighbor and
195 22 non-neighbor trials.

196

197 *Playback Stimuli*

198 Rattles used as playback stimuli were recorded from squirrels as they moved
199 freely around their territories ($N = 46$), as they emerged from a trap ($N = 17$), or as they
200 rattled in response to rattles that we broadcast from a loudspeaker ($N = 10$). All rattles
201 were recorded using a shotgun microphone (Sennheiser model ME66 with K6 power
202 supply; 40 – 20000 Hz frequency response (± 2.5 dB); super-cardioid polar pattern)
203 connected to a Marantz Professional Solid State Recorder (model PMD 660; 44.1 kHz
204 sampling frequency; 16-bit amplitude encoding; WAVE format). The final set of
205 recordings included one recording from each of 73 different adult squirrels. The
206 recordings were from 35 males and 38 females that we recorded in 2005 (one recording),
207 2006 (nine recordings), and 2009 (63 recordings). There were 30 rattles recorded on the
208 site with the food supplementation experiment and 43 rattles recorded on the two control
209 sites.

210

211 Recordings of squirrels with living kin were assigned preferentially to the kin
212 treatments (familiar and unfamiliar kin), as there were a limited number of squirrels with
213 close relatives on our study site. The non-kin stimuli were assigned to subjects at random.
214 In trials for which recordings from 2005 and 2006 were used as stimuli, the vocalizing
215 squirrel from the recording was still alive at the time of the trial in 2009. Most recordings
216 were used only once in the playback experiment; 26 were used to test more than one
217 squirrel, though these were used in different treatments for each squirrel.

218

219 Rattles used as playback stimuli were not filtered and were not edited to
220 standardize their length. Each stimulus consisted of a single rattle that ranged between 1.5
221 and 12.3 s in duration (mean \pm SD = 4.0 \pm 2.3 s). The mean duration of the rattle stimuli
222 ranged from 3.5 s \pm 2.1 s (mean \pm SD) in the non-kin non-neighbor treatment to 4.8 s \pm
223 3.2 s (mean \pm SD) in the unfamiliar kin non-neighbor treatment, and did not differ
224 significantly among treatments (one-way ANOVA: $F_{5, 99} = 0.70$, p-value = 0.63). Rattles
225 were transferred to a SanDisk mp3 player (Sansa e280 model) that supported the WAVE
226 format. Our playback speaker was a custom Saul Mineroff SME-AFS field speaker, with
227 a frequency range of 10 – 22,500 Hz. The speaker's volume setting was held constant
228 throughout the experiment. At this setting, the rattle peak amplitude averaged 68 dB \pm 3.3
229 dB (mean \pm SD), as measured with a digital sound level meter (RadioShack; C weighting;
230 fast response) held 1 m from the speaker. When broadcast within this amplitude range,
231 the rattles were audible to the human ear at up to 120 m away. This is comparable to the
232 only published account of rattle amplitude, which states that red squirrel rattles can be
233 heard up to 130 m away (Smith 1968). The peak amplitude ranged between an average of

234 66.7 dB \pm 4.5 dB (mean \pm SD) in the unfamiliar kin non-neighbor treatment and 68.8 dB
235 \pm 2.8 dB (mean \pm SD) in the non-kin non-neighbor treatment, and did not differ
236 significantly among treatments (one-way ANOVA: $F_{5, 99} = 0.70$, p-value = 0.62).

237

238 *Playback Procedure*

239 Subject squirrels were located by sight, sound, or radio telemetry, and trials were
240 commenced only if the subject was within 20 m of its midden. We used the squirrel's
241 unique color markings to confirm their identity before beginning trials. Once a subject
242 was identified, we set up the speaker approximately 10 m from the subject and concealed
243 it behind a tree, fallen log, or dense vegetation. The observer then sat on the ground
244 approximately 10 m from the subject, such that the line between the observer and subject
245 was perpendicular to the line between the subject and speaker. All trials were completed
246 by a single observer.

247

248 Trials consisted of a three-minute pre-playback observation period followed
249 immediately by the playback stimulus and a three-minute playback observation period.
250 Throughout the pre-playback and playback periods, we counted each time the subject
251 produced a rattle, looked at the speaker, and approached the speaker. We subjectively
252 scored 'looking at the speaker' when we saw head movement by the subject that ended
253 with the squirrel's head facing the speaker. We defined "approach" as 2 m of continuous
254 travel directly toward the speaker. During the playback period, we audio-recorded the
255 subject using the same recorder as described above. Ten rattles recorded from subjects

256 during the playback period were later used as stimuli in other playback trials on different
257 focal subjects.

258

259 We attempted to minimize confounding or obscuring factors during the playback
260 trials. For example, we did not commence a trial if the subject alarm-called as the
261 observer approached (known as a bark; Lair 1990; Digweed and Rendall 2009) or
262 interacted with another squirrel (e.g., chasing) while the observer approached. We also
263 discarded trials if the subject chased an intruding adult ($N = 2$) or juvenile ($N = 2$) squirrel
264 from their territory during the trial, if the subject moved more than 20 m away from the
265 speaker before the trial began ($N = 2$), if the observer lost sight of the subject for longer
266 than 1 min ($N = 18$ during the pre-playback period; $N = 7$ during the playback period), or
267 if the squirrel entered a nest during the pre-playback period ($n = 7$). Discarded trials were
268 attempted again after three days. In total, we completed 105 successful trials on 85
269 individual squirrels between 23 May and 26 July 2009. There were 63 trials conducted on
270 45 squirrels on the two control sites and 42 trials on 40 squirrels on the food-
271 supplemented site. For the 20 subjects that received two trials, each received a different
272 treatment during each trial and the trials were separated by at least three days.

273

274 *Statistical Analyses*

275 Response variables in our analyses included (1) whether or not the subject
276 produced a rattle, (2) whether or not the subject looked at the speaker, (3) whether or not
277 the subject approached the speaker, and (4) the latency for the subject to rattle. We
278 considered the first three variables to be dichotomous because it was uncommon for

279 squirrels to express these behaviors more than once during each observation period.
280 Latency to rattle was only measured in the playback period, and was defined as the time
281 from the start of the playback stimulus to the start of the subject's rattle (measured to the
282 nearest 10 ms using Raven Pro Sound Analysis Software version 1.3).

283

284 All statistical analyses were performed in R (version 3.2.2; R Development Core
285 Team 2009) using the packages "lme4" (Bates et al. 2015) and "survival" (Thernau and
286 Lumley 2009). Our first set of analyses tested whether subjects responded to the playback
287 stimuli by comparing response variables between the pre-playback and playback periods.
288 Separate generalized linear mixed effect models (binomial error distribution; logit link
289 function) were fitted to each of the three dichotomous response variables measured in
290 both periods. We included subject identity as a subject variable with random effects to
291 account for the repeated measures obtained during the pre-playback and playback
292 periods, as well as for the multiple trials that were conducted on each of 20 subjects.
293 Period (pre-playback or playback) was included as a categorical variable with fixed
294 effects.

295

296 Our second set of analyses tested whether subjects' responses were affected by the
297 kinship status of the playback stimuli. We used separate generalized linear mixed effect
298 models (binomial error distribution; logit link function) to test if the kinship status of the
299 playback stimulus affected (1) whether the subject rattled and (2) whether it looked at the
300 speaker. Approaching the speaker was not included as a response variable in this set of
301 analyses because it did not differ between the pre-playback and playback periods (see

302 results below). In each model, we included subject identity as a subject variable with
303 random effects, and the kinship status (familiar kin, unfamiliar kin, or non-kin) and
304 neighbor status (neighbor or non-neighbor) of the playback stimulus as categorical
305 variables with fixed effects. The two-way interaction between kinship status and neighbor
306 status was not significant in either model and was, therefore, removed from the final
307 model.

308

309 We used a survival analysis approach to test the effect of kinship status and
310 neighbor status on latency to rattle in the playback period. A survival analysis approach
311 was used because it is useful for analyzing time-to-event data and can deal with censored
312 values that result when the event does not occur (e.g., subject squirrels that did not rattle
313 during the three-minute playback period). We used a Cox proportional hazard model with
314 the playback period data of a reduced dataset ($n = 85$ trials), with kinship and neighbor
315 status as independent variables. We eliminated multiple trials from each of 20 individuals
316 by randomly selecting one trial per individual. The two-way interaction between kinship
317 status and neighbor status was not significant and was, therefore, removed from the final
318 model.

319

320 Upon finding no overall effects of kinship or neighbor status (see results below)
321 on any of the response variables, we conducted exploratory post-hoc analyses in an
322 attempt to understand the negative results and their inconsistency with previous evidence
323 of kin discrimination in red squirrels (Gorrell et al. 2010; Williams et al. 2013; Wilson et
324 al. 2015). For all exploratory analyses, we used whether or not the subject rattled as the

325 response variable, since this variable can be compared directly with previous studies.

326 Neighbor status was removed from the final models because there were no significant

327 interactions and the main effect of neighbor status was not significant.

328

329 There was some variation in the degree of average relatedness within the kinship

330 categories (Table 1), so our first exploratory post-hoc analysis examined the relationship

331 between the probability of rattling and known relatedness coefficients derived from the

332 pedigree. We conducted a simplified analysis that treated kinship as a continuous variable

333 and excluded familiarity. Therefore, in contrast to our earlier analyses, this exploratory

334 analysis tested for an overall effect of kin discrimination, regardless of whether kin were

335 familiar or unfamiliar.

336

337 Local density was quite variable among squirrels tested in this study, and red

338 squirrels emit rattles more frequently when surrounded by a higher density of

339 conspecifics (Dantzer et al. 2012; Shonfield et al. 2012). For the second exploratory

340 analysis we tested the effect of local density on rattle responses. Local density

341 (squirrels/ha) was calculated for each subject as the number of squirrels that owned a

342 midden within a 130 m radius (5.31 ha) of the subject's midden. We chose a 130-m radius

343 because rattles from neighboring squirrels are audible up to this distance (Smith 1968).

344

345 Recent bioacoustics research has revealed structural differences among rattles

346 recorded from (1) squirrels as they move freely around their territories, (2) rattles

347 recorded as squirrels emerge from a trap, and (3) rattles produced in response to rattles

348 that have been broadcast through a speaker (unpublished data). It is not yet clear how
349 these structural differences affect the natural inter-individual variation in rattle structure
350 (Digweed et al. 2012; Wilson et al. 2015) that is presumably used in discrimination.
351 Therefore, for the third exploratory analysis, we tested whether kin discrimination was
352 affected by the method by which rattles were recorded. We pooled rattles into two
353 collection method categories: ‘unsolicited’ included those rattles collected from squirrels
354 moving freely around their territories, and ‘provoked’ included those rattles collected
355 from squirrels emerging from traps and those produced in response to rattles broadcast
356 from a speaker.

357

358 The effects of local density and recording method were tested separately by fitting
359 an interaction between each of these variables and relatedness (one model with
360 categorical kinship status and one model with continuous relatedness from the pedigree)
361 in the generalized linear models that predicted whether or not a squirrel rattled in
362 response to the playback (see above). A significant interaction would indicate that red
363 squirrels discriminate kin under some circumstances (e.g., local density), but not others.
364 We similarly tested for effects of sex of the subject squirrel, and the date of the playback
365 trial on kin discrimination, but the rationale for these post-hoc analyses was weaker, so
366 we did not report these nonsignificant results. We mention them briefly here to be
367 transparent about the scope of our post-hoc analyses.

368

369 RESULTS

370 Squirrels were significantly more likely to produce a rattle during the playback
371 period (42% of squirrels) than during the pre-playback period (26% of squirrels; Figure 1;
372 Table 2). Similarly, squirrels were significantly more likely to look in the direction of the
373 speaker during the playback period (44% of squirrels) than during the pre-playback
374 period (3% of squirrels; Figure 1; Table 2). Squirrels were not more likely to approach
375 the speaker during the playback period (7% of squirrels) than during the pre-playback
376 period (2% of squirrels; Figure 1; Table 2), so this variable was not included in
377 subsequent analyses. Subject identity did not improve any of the statistical models,
378 including the models for whether the subject produced a rattle (likelihood ratio test: $X^2 <$
379 0.1 , $df = 1$, $P > 0.9$), looked at the speaker ($X^2 = 0.9$, $df = 1$, $P = 0.3$), or approached the
380 speaker ($X^2 < 0.1$, $df = 1$, $P > 0.9$). Therefore, a subject's behavior in the playback period
381 was independent of its behavior in the pre-playback period and in other playback trials.

382

383 Kinship status (familiar kin, unfamiliar kin, non-kin) and neighbor status
384 (neighbor, non-neighbor) did not have statistically significant effects on any of the
385 response variables, including whether subjects produced a rattle, whether subjects looked
386 at the speaker, or how quickly subjects produced a rattle following the onset of the
387 stimulus (Table 3). These results indicate that red squirrels did not discriminate between
388 playbacks of kin and non-kin. Subject identity did not improve the generalized linear
389 mixed models, including the models for whether the subject produced a rattle (likelihood
390 ratio test: $X^2 < 0.1$, $df = 1$, $P > 0.9$) or looked at the speaker ($X^2 < 0.1$, $df = 1$, $P > 0.9$).

391

392 We conducted exploratory post-hoc analyses in an attempt to understand the lack
393 of kin discrimination and the inconsistency of this finding with previous evidence of kin
394 discrimination in red squirrels (Gorrell et al. 2010; Williams et al. 2013; Wilson et al.
395 2015). Our first exploratory analysis replaced kinship status with known relatedness
396 coefficients (derived from the pedigree as a continuous covariate) as the independent
397 variable in the model with rattling as a response variable to test for an overall effect of
398 kin discrimination regardless of familiarity. The results of the model with relatedness
399 coefficient from the pedigree as a covariate were very similar to the results described
400 above with kinship status. There was no effect of relatedness on any of the response
401 variables (results not shown, see footnote in Table 3).

402

403 In our second exploratory analysis we tested the effect of local density on territorial
404 responses. Local population density (i.e., the number of squirrels with middens within a
405 130-m radius of the subject's midden) varied from 0.4 to 3.2 squirrels/ha. When local
406 density was included as an independent variable, we found that local density affected the
407 difference in response between unfamiliar kin and familiar kin, but did not affect the
408 difference in response between familiar kin and non-kin (Table 4). However, this effect
409 disappeared when we ran the same model with the relatedness coefficient as a covariate
410 (Table 4).

411

412 In our third exploratory analysis we tested whether kin discrimination was affected
413 by the method by which rattles were recorded. There were 67 trials with unsolicited
414 rattles as the stimulus and 38 trials with provoked rattles. In the models with collection

415 method as an independent variable, we found no significant interaction or main effect of
416 kinship status, when kinship was included as a categorical variable (Table 5). Thus there
417 was no difference in the responses between familiar kin, unfamiliar kin, and non-kin, and
418 no mediating effect of collection method on responses to these kinship status groups.
419 However, in the model with relatedness included as a continuous variable, we found a
420 significant interaction and a significant main effect of collection method, though the main
421 effect of relatedness was not significant (Table 5). Visual inspection of these results
422 indicated that this interaction between collection method and relatedness was largely
423 driven by the differential response of squirrels to rattles of kin with a relatedness
424 coefficient of 0.5 (Figure 2). Specifically, red squirrels were more likely to rattle in
425 response to provoked rattles if they were from non-kin or less related kin ($r < 0.5$) than
426 from more closely related kin ($r = 0.5$) (Figure 2). Taking the subset of trials that used
427 provoked rattle stimuli ($n = 38$ trials), we found that there was a marginally non-
428 significant effect of relatedness on propensity to rattle (generalized linear mixed model: Z
429 $= -1.89, P = 0.058$).

430

431 DISCUSSION

432

433 We found that across all playback trials red squirrels did not discriminate between
434 familiar kin, unfamiliar kin, and non-kin. Squirrels were just as likely to rattle or look
435 towards the speaker in response to a familiar kin rattle as they were to either an
436 unfamiliar kin or non-kin rattle, and there was no overall effect of the degree of
437 relatedness on their behavioral response. Similarly, squirrels did not discriminate between

438 neighbors and non-neighbors in their behavioral response. We also found no difference in
439 the latency of red squirrels to respond to the playback for either kinship or neighbor
440 status. This lack of effect of kin status on the response of red squirrels to the playback
441 cannot be explained by the playback stimulus not being detected by the focal squirrels.
442 Subject squirrels were more likely to look in the direction of the speaker following the
443 playback and to rattle in response to the playback, though they were not more likely to
444 approach the speaker. Squirrels, therefore, detected the experimental playbacks but
445 showed no evidence of kin discrimination in how they responded. This absence of kin
446 discrimination precluded us from evaluating mechanisms of kin recognition in red
447 squirrels.

448

449 Our findings differ from two similar territorial playback experiments previously
450 done on the same population of red squirrels in Kluane (Price et al. 1990; Wilson et al.
451 2015). The difference in findings between this study and the Wilson et al. (2015) study
452 are surprising, given the similarity in the methods. Indeed, the only differences were the
453 speaker used to broadcast the stimuli (a Saul Mineroff speaker in the present study and a
454 GPX portable stereo in the previous study), the sound level of the stimuli (not measured
455 in dB in the previous study), and the sample size of playback trials (105 trials in this
456 study compared to 53 in the previous study). We found no effect of neighbor status,
457 which is consistent with the results of the Wilson et al. (2015) study, but inconsistent with
458 the Price, Boutin, and Ydenberg (1990) study, which found that squirrels were more
459 likely to rattle in response to rattles from non-neighbors compared to rattles from
460 neighbors. In the Price, Boutin, and Ydenberg (1990) study, relatedness between subject-

461 stimulus pairs was unknown, and since neighbors tend to be more closely related than
462 non-neighbors (Berteaux and Boutin 2000), it is possible that their results are due to an
463 effect of kin discrimination (as in Wilson et al. 2015) as opposed to discrimination
464 between neighbors and non-neighbors. We found no difference in responses to familiar
465 kin, unfamiliar kin, and non-kin, and no overall effect of the degree of relatedness, which
466 was unexpected given the results of the Wilson et al. (2015) study that found that
467 squirrels were more likely to rattle in response to a non-kin ($r < 0.125$) rattle than to a kin
468 ($r \geq 0.25$) rattle. Despite the lack of discrimination in the responses from red squirrels in
469 this study, the results of the Wilson et al. (2015) study, as well as other documented cases
470 of nepotism in red squirrels, provide strong support that red squirrels are capable of
471 recognizing familiar kin (Price and Boutin 1993; Berteaux and Boutin 2000; Gorrell et al.
472 2010; Williams et al. 2013), even if they do not always behave differently towards kin
473 and non-kin individuals.

474

475 Several studies have found that animals discriminate kin in some contexts, but not
476 in others (Hokit et al. 1996; Gibbons et al. 2003; Harris et al. 2003). The benefits and
477 costs of kin discrimination may fluctuate depending on environmental conditions, even
478 within the same context, so it is possible that under certain conditions red squirrels do not
479 exhibit kin discrimination in their territorial defense behavior. In an attempt to understand
480 our negative results and to reconcile the discrepancy between our results and previous
481 research, we conducted exploratory post-hoc analyses to explore possible factors that
482 might have affected kin discrimination. In the red squirrel system, changes in population
483 density and food availability (abundance of spruce cones) are important environmental

484 factors that show large fluctuations from year to year (LaMontagne and Boutin 2007;
485 Fletcher et al. 2010), and which affect survival and reproductive success in females
486 (Descamps et al. 2008). We did not have the data to be able to account for food
487 abundance (i.e., amount of food cached by each subject squirrel), but added local
488 population density to our models because of previous evidence indicating that red
489 squirrels emit rattles more frequently when surrounded by a higher density of
490 conspecifics (Dantzer et al. 2012; Shonfield et al. 2012). We found that local density
491 affected the difference in response between unfamiliar kin and familiar kin, but did not
492 affect the difference in response between familiar kin and non-kin. This result did not
493 align with our original predictions. We had expected that, if red squirrels recognize kin
494 by phenotype matching/recognition alleles, they would be less likely to rattle in response
495 to calls from familiar and unfamiliar kin than to calls from non-kin, and, alternatively,
496 would be less likely to rattle in response to calls from familiar kin than to calls from
497 unfamiliar kin or non-kin if they recognize kin by prior association. As such this model
498 suggested that, if anything, there were density-mediated differential responses between
499 familiar and unfamiliar kin rattles, but not differential responses between kin and non-
500 kin. In addition, the effect of density disappeared when we ran the models with
501 relatedness coefficients calculated from the pedigree to test for an overall effect of kin
502 discrimination regardless of familiarity, suggesting that the interaction between density
503 and kinship was most likely spurious resulting from post hoc exploratory data analysis.

504

505 We also explored whether the method by which rattle stimuli were recorded
506 affected kin discrimination. Although there was no significant interaction with kinship

507 status in our post hoc analyses, we did find a significant interaction between the degree of
508 relatedness and collection method. We are not able to determine the importance of
509 familiarity in kin discrimination by red squirrels, but the results of the model with
510 relatedness coefficients suggests that when stimuli were recorded by provoking a squirrel
511 to rattle, the subject squirrel in the trial was more likely to discriminate between kin and
512 non-kin (i.e., more likely to rattle at non-kin). This tentatively suggests that the context in
513 which the stimulus was recorded might be important and that kin discrimination in the
514 overall analysis may have been masked by the difference in responses between collection
515 methods. The interaction between collection method and kinship class was not significant
516 (Table 5), but, in this analysis, rattles from kin with relatedness coefficients equal to 0.25
517 were considered to be kin a priori (see also Wilson et al. 2015). Visual inspection of the
518 results with relatedness coefficients, however, suggests that closely-related squirrels ($r =$
519 0.5) responded differently than more distantly-related squirrels ($0 < r < 0.5$; Figure 2),
520 which might have led to heterogeneity in the responses of squirrels to rattles classified as
521 kin ($r \geq 0.25$). Future studies are needed to explicitly test the importance of the degree of
522 relatedness to kin discrimination in red squirrels. These preliminary results suggest that
523 kin discrimination by red squirrels might depend on the circumstances under which the
524 stimulus call is recorded, and suggests that if we had run the experiment using only
525 provoked rattle stimuli we might have detected an effect of kin discrimination. However,
526 we must explicitly acknowledge that this relationship was identified through exploratory
527 post hoc analyses and needs to be tested more rigorously (Simmons et al. 2011; Motulsky
528 2014). If these results are robust, however, they would suggest that a squirrel's
529 physiological state might influence the structure of its rattles, including those individually

530 distinctive structural features (Digweed et al. 2012; Wilson et al. 2015) that are
531 presumably used in discrimination. This raises the interesting possibility that the receiver
532 obtains information from rattles about the physiological state of the signaler, and could be
533 important in assessing the costs and benefits of discriminating kin from non-kin.

534

535 Although we found no overall evidence for kin discrimination in red squirrels, our
536 results hint at the possibility that kin discrimination in red squirrels is context-dependent.
537 We suspect that the costs and benefits of responding to territorial intrusions by kin and
538 non-kin might be mediated by both environmental and social factors. While we found no
539 evidence that kin discrimination is due to the local density of potential territory intruders,
540 we did find post-hoc evidence that kin discrimination might be mediated by the
541 conditions under which the stimulus call is recorded. Our results raise questions about the
542 information contained in the rattles and suggest that they may reflect the current state of
543 stress or aggressiveness of the squirrel. Future studies on kin recognition in red squirrels
544 or other species should explicitly test the importance of environmental or social factors
545 on kin discrimination in order to better understand the costs and benefits of preferential
546 behavior toward kin.

547

548 FUNDING

549

550 This work was supported by student research grants to J.S. from the Northern Scientific
551 Training Program and the Arctic Institute of North America, as well as the Natural
552 Sciences and Engineering Council of Canada (312207-2011 to D.W.C.; 262015-2008 to

553 M.M.H., 3361-2008 to S.B and Discovery Grant 371579-2009 and Northern Research
554 Supplement 3778988-2009 to A.G.M); the National Science Foundation (DEB-0515849
555 to A.G.M), and the Ontario Ministry of Research and Innovation (ER08-05-119 to
556 A.G.M).

557

558 ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

559

560 We thank the many field technicians for assisting with data collection, A. Sykes for
561 coordinating research efforts, Agnes Moose and her family for providing long-term
562 access to her trapline, and J. Slate and M. R. Gunn for helping to develop the paternal
563 pedigree. We thank D. Fisher for his help measuring amplitude of the rattle playbacks in
564 the field. Members of the McAdam lab group and two anonymous reviewers provided
565 helpful feedback on an earlier version of this manuscript. This is publication number 82
566 of the Kluane Red Squirrel Project.

567

568 DATA ACCESSIBILITY

569 Analyses reported in this article can be reproduced using the data provided by Shonfield
570 et al. (2016).

571

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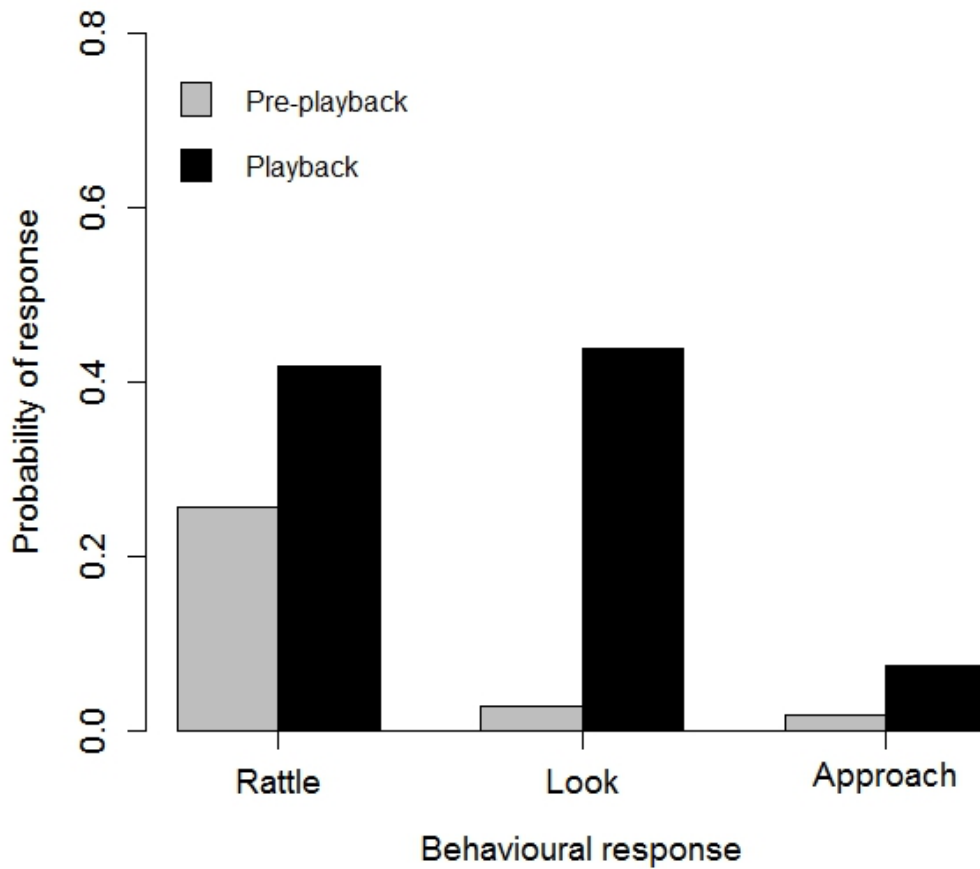
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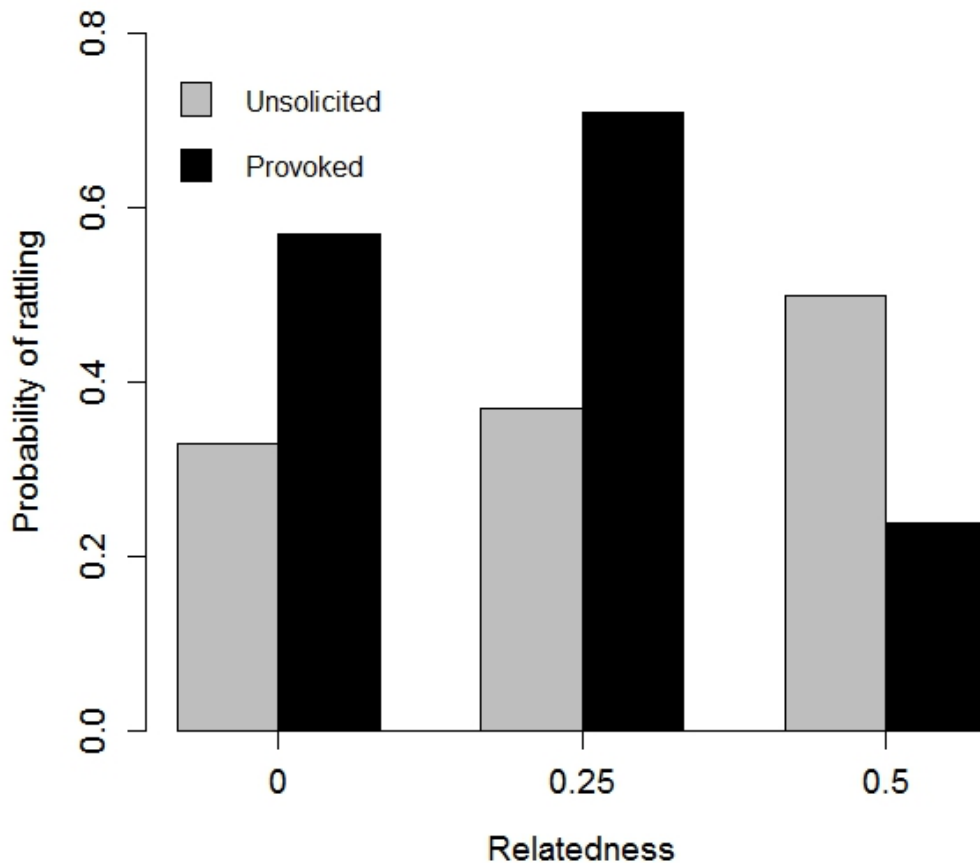
697



698

699 **Figure 1** – Probability of behavioral responses (producing a territorial ‘rattle’ call,
 700 looking at the speaker, and approaching the speaker) of the subject before and during the
 701 playback period (N = 105 trials).

702



703

704 **Figure 2** – Probability of a rattle response from the subject squirrel during the playback
 705 period by relatedness coefficient calculated from the pedigree and the collection method
 706 of obtaining the rattle stimulus. Unsolicited rattles were recorded from squirrels moving
 707 freely around their territories (N = 67 trials), and provoked rattles (N = 38 trials) were
 708 recorded from squirrels as they emerged from a live-trap or from squirrels responding to
 709 a rattle playback.

710

711 TABLES

712

713 **Table 1** – Kin relationships within each kinship status category and the number of trials
714 completed. ‘Familiar’ kin denotes individuals with early life associations (i.e., shared a
715 natal nest).

Kinship	Kin relationship (subject-stimulus)	No. of trials	Relatedness coefficient
Familiar kin	Mother-offspring	6	0.5
	Offspring-mother	9	0.5
	Full siblings (littermates)	10	0.5
	Maternal half-siblings (littermates)	12	0.25
Unfamiliar kin	Father-offspring	3	0.5
	Offspring-father	9	0.5
	Full siblings (non-littermates)	3	0.5
	Maternal half-siblings (non-littermates)	7	0.25
	Paternal half-siblings (non-littermates)	4	0.25
	Grandparent-grand offspring	2	0.25
	Grand offspring-grandparent	2	0.25
Non-kin	None	38	<0.125
Total		105	

716

717 **Table 2** – Responses of subject squirrels to the playback rattle. Responses include
 718 whether subjects produced a rattle, looked at the speaker, and approached the speaker.

Response variable	Effect	Estimate ± SE	Z	p
Rattle ¹	Intercept	-1.06 ± 0.22	-4.75	< 0.0001
	Period (playback)	0.73 ± 0.30	-2.46	0.014
Looking at speaker ²	Intercept	-3.85 ± 0.74	-5.18	< 0.0001
	Period (playback)	3.54 ± 0.72	4.89	< 0.0001
Approach the speaker ³	Intercept	-3.94 ± 0.71	-5.52	< 0.0001
	Period (playback)	1.44 ± 0.80	1.80	0.072

719 Responses were modeled using three separate linear mixed models (binary response, logit link) with subject
 720 identity as a random effect. Estimates are on a log-odds scale and the effects of the factor in the design are
 721 reported as the effect of the level in parentheses (*e.g.*, playback) relative to the reference category (pre-
 722 playback). Significant p-values are in bold (significance level $\alpha = 0.05$).

723 ¹Random effect of squirrel identity: variance = 0

724 ²Random effect of squirrel identity: variance = 0.72

725 ³Random effect of squirrel identity: variance = 0

726

727 **Table 3** – Effects of kinship and neighbor status on the behavioral response from the
 728 subject squirrel.

Response variable	Effect	Estimate ± SE	Z	p
Rattling ^{1,2}	Intercept	-0.24 ± 0.36	-0.68	0.498
	Kinship (non-kin)	-0.03 ± 0.48	-0.06	0.952
	Kinship (unfamiliar kin)	-0.12 ± 0.50	-0.25	0.804
	Neighbor status (non-neighbor)	-0.08 ± 0.40	-0.20	0.845
Looking at speaker ¹	Intercept	-0.46 ± 0.37	-1.24	0.216
	Kinship (non-kin)	0.12 ± 0.48	0.26	0.797
	Kinship (unfamiliar kin)	0.23 ± 0.50	0.45	0.653
	Neighbor status (non-neighbor)	0.22 ± 0.40	0.54	0.589
Latency to rattle ³	Kinship (non-kin)	-0.06 ± 0.41	-0.15	0.879
	Kinship (unfamiliar kin)	-0.20 ± 0.46	-0.43	0.667
	Neighbor status (non-neighbor)	0.17 ± 0.36	0.47	0.637

729 ¹Responses were modeled using a generalized linear mixed model (binary response, logit link), with subject
 730 identity as a random effect. The random effect for both models (rattling and looking at the speaker) had
 731 among-individual variance of zero. Estimates are on a log-odds scale and the effects of each factor in the
 732 design are reported as the effect of the level in parentheses (*e.g.*, non-kin) relative to the reference category.
 733 In this case the reference category is ‘familiar kin’ for kinship, and ‘neighbor’ for neighbor status.

734 ²The model with rattling as a response variable was also run with relatedness coefficient (calculated from
 735 the pedigree) in place of kinship status as the kin variable as part of our post-hoc exploratory analyses, but
 736 the results with respect to statistical significance did not differ from those above and are not shown.

737 ³Latency to rattle (range: 4.7-173.9 s, average ± SE: 66.5 ± 8.1s) was modeled using a Cox proportional
 738 hazard model with a reduced dataset (n=85 trials).

739

740 **Table 4** – Effect of local population density and either kinship status or relatedness
 741 (coefficient calculated from the pedigree) on the probability of a rattle response from the
 742 subject squirrel following the playback.

Model	Effect	Estimate ± SE	Z	p
Model with kinship status	Intercept	-1.45 ± 0.89	-1.63	0.103
	Kinship (non-kin)	1.25 ± 1.23	1.01	0.311
	Kinship (unfamiliar kin)	2.51 ± 1.29	1.95	0.051
	Local density	0.70 ± 0.49	1.45	0.148
	Kinship (non-kin) x Local density	-0.77 ± 0.68	-1.14	0.256
	Kinship (unfamiliar kin) x Local density	-1.88 ± 0.85	-2.20	0.028
Model with relatedness coefficient	Intercept	0.46 ± 0.80	0.58	0.565
	Relatedness	-2.86 ± 2.25	-1.27	0.204
	Local density	-0.44 ± 0.45	-0.98	0.329
	Relatedness x Local density	1.66 ± 1.31	1.27	0.206

743 Probability of a rattle response was modeled using a generalized linear mixed model (binary response, logit
 744 link), with subject identity as a random effect. The random effect for both models had an among-individual
 745 variance of zero. Estimates are on a log-odds scale and the effects of each factor in the design are reported
 746 as the effect of the level in parentheses (*e.g.*, non-kin) relative to the reference category. In this case the
 747 reference category for kinship is ‘familiar kin’. Significant p-values are in bold (significance level $\alpha =$
 748 0.05).
 749

750 **Table 5** – Effect of rattle stimulus collection method (unsolicited or provoked) and either
 751 kinship status or relatedness (coefficient calculated from the pedigree) on the probability
 752 of a rattle response from the subject squirrel following the playback.

Model	Effect	Estimate ± SE	Z	p
Model with kinship status	Intercept	-0.34 ± 0.41	-0.81	0.416
	Kinship (non-kin)	-0.36 ± 0.60	-0.60	0.552
	Kinship (unfamiliar kin)	0.23 ± 0.62	0.37	0.709
	Method (provoked)	0.18 ± 0.69	0.26	0.793
	Kinship (non-kin) x Method (provoked)	0.80 ± 0.98	0.82	0.415
	Kinship (unfamiliar kin) x Method (provoked)	-1.06 ± 1.07	-0.99	0.324
Model with relatedness coefficient	Intercept	-0.75 ± 0.40	-1.87	0.062
	Relatedness	1.40 ± 1.20	1.17	0.242
	Method (provoked)	1.31 ± 0.66	1.98	0.048
	Relatedness x Method (provoked)	-4.32 ± 1.95	-2.21	0.027

753 Probability of a rattle response was modeled using a generalized linear mixed model (binary response, logit
 754 link), with subject identity as a random effect. The random effect for both models had an among-individual
 755 variance of zero. Estimates are on a log-odds scale and the effects of each factor in the design are reported
 756 as the effect of the level in parentheses (*e.g.*, non-kin) relative to the reference category. In this case the
 757 reference category is ‘familiar kin’ for kinship and ‘unsolicited’ for collection method. Significant p-values
 758 are in bold (significance level $\alpha = 0.05$).
 759