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# Variation in reproductive success across captive populations: methodological differences, potential biases and opportunities

Simon C. Griffith<sup>1</sup>, Ondi L. Crino<sup>1</sup>, Elizabeth Adkins-Regan<sup>2</sup>, Carlos Alonso-Alvarez<sup>3,4</sup>,  
5 Samuel C. Andrew<sup>1</sup>, Ida E. Bailey<sup>5</sup>, Stephanie S. Bittner<sup>6</sup>, Peri E. Bolton<sup>1</sup>, Winnie Boner<sup>7</sup>,  
Neeltje Boogert<sup>8</sup>, Ingrid C.A. Boucaud<sup>19</sup>, Michael Briga<sup>9</sup>, Kate L. Buchanan<sup>10</sup>, Barbara A.  
Caspers<sup>11</sup>, Mariusz Cichon<sup>12</sup>, David F. Clayton<sup>13</sup>, Sebastien Derégnaucourt<sup>14</sup>, Wolfgang  
Forstmeier<sup>15</sup>, Lauren Guillet<sup>5</sup>, Ian R. Hartley<sup>16</sup>, Susan D. Healy<sup>5</sup>, Davina L. Hill<sup>7</sup>, Marie-  
10 Jeanne Holveck<sup>17,18</sup>, Laura L. Hurley<sup>1</sup>, Malika Ihle<sup>15</sup>, E. Tobias Krause<sup>11</sup>, Mark C.  
Mainwaring<sup>1,16</sup>, Valeria Marasco<sup>7</sup>, Mylene M. Mariette<sup>10,19</sup>, Meghan. S. Martin-Wintle<sup>20,21</sup>,  
Luke S. C. McCowan<sup>1</sup>, Maeve McMahon<sup>13</sup>, Pat Monaghan<sup>7</sup>, Ruedi G. Nager<sup>7</sup>, Marc Naguib<sup>22</sup>,  
Fumiaki Y. Nomano<sup>1</sup>, Andreas Nord<sup>23,24</sup>, Dominique A. Potvin<sup>25</sup>, Nora H. Prior<sup>26</sup>, Katharina  
Riebel<sup>17</sup>, Ana A. Romero-Haro<sup>3</sup>, Nick J. Royle<sup>27</sup>, Joanna Rutkowska<sup>12</sup>, Wiebke Schuett<sup>28</sup>,  
15 John P. Swaddle<sup>29</sup>, Michael Tobler<sup>21</sup>, Larissa Trompf<sup>1</sup>, Claire W. Varian-Ramos<sup>29</sup>, Simon  
Verhulst<sup>9</sup>, Clementine Vignal<sup>19</sup>, Avelyne S. Villain<sup>19</sup>, Tony D. Williams<sup>30</sup>

<sup>1</sup>Department of Biological sciences, Macquarie University, Sydney, NSW 2109, Australia

<sup>2</sup>Department of Neurobiology and Behaviour, Cornell University, Ithaca, NY 14853, USA

20 <sup>3</sup>Instituto de Investigación en Recursos Cinegéticos (IREC) – CSIC-UCLM-JCCM, Ronda de Toledo s/n, 13005 Ciudad Real, Spain.

<sup>4</sup> Museo Nacional de Ciencias Naturales - CSIC. Dpt. Ecología Evolutiva. C/ Jose Gutierrez Abascal 2, 28006 Madrid, Spain.

<sup>5</sup> School of Biology, University of St Andrews, St Andrews, Fife, UK

25 <sup>6</sup>School of Life Sciences, Arizona State University, Tempe, AZ 85281, USA

<sup>7</sup> Institute of Biodiversity, Animal Health and Comparative Medicine, College of Medical, Veterinary and Life Sciences, Graham Kerr Building, University of Glasgow, Glasgow G12 8QQ, UK

<sup>8</sup> School of Psychology, University of St Andrews, St Andrews, Fife, UK

<sup>9</sup>Behavioural Biology, University of Groningen, PO Box 11103, 9700 CC Groningen, The Netherlands

30 <sup>10</sup>School of Life and Environmental Sciences, Deakin University, Geelong, Vic. 3217, Australia

<sup>11</sup>Department of Animal Behaviour, Bielefeld University, PO Box 10 01 33, 33501 Bielefeld, Germany

<sup>12</sup>Institute of Environmental Sciences, Jagiellonian University, Gronostajowa 7, 30-387 Cracow, Poland

<sup>13</sup> Department of Biological and Experimental Psychology, Queen Mary University of London, London E1 4NS, UK

<sup>14</sup> Laboratory Ethology Cognition Development, University Paris West, France

35 <sup>15</sup> Department of Behavioural Ecology and Evolutionary Genetics, Max Planck Institute for Ornithology, Eberhard Gwinner Straße 7, DE-82319 Seewiesen, Germany

<sup>16</sup>Lancaster Environment Centre, Lancaster University, Lancaster, LA1 4YQ

<sup>17</sup> Institute of Biology, University of Leiden, Netherlands

40 <sup>18</sup> Biodiversity Research Centre, Earth and Life Institute, Université Catholique de Louvain (UCL), Louvain-la-Neuve, Belgium

<sup>19</sup> Université de Lyon/Saint-Etienne, CNRS UMR 9197 NeuroPSI/ENES, France

<sup>20</sup> Conservation and Research Department, PDXWildlife, 9233 SW Brier Pl, Portland, OR, 97219

<sup>21</sup> Applied Animal Ecology, Institute for Conservation Research, San Diego Zoo Global, 15600 San Pasqual Valley Rd., Escondido, California 92027 USA

45 <sup>22</sup> Behavioural Ecology Group, Department of Animal Sciences, Wageningen, De Elst 1, 6708 WD Wageningen, The Netherlands

<sup>23</sup> Department of Biology, Lund University, Ecology Building, Sölvegatan 37, SE-223 62 Lund, Sweden

<sup>24</sup> Department of Arctic and Marine Biology, Arktisk biologibyggget, University of Tromsø, NO 9037 Tromsø, Norway

50 <sup>25</sup>Advanced Facility for Avian Research, University of Western Ontario, London, ON, Canada

<sup>26</sup>Zoology Department, University of British Columbia, Vancouver, BC, Canada

<sup>27</sup> Centre for Ecology and Conservation, University of Exeter, Penryn Campus, TR10 9FE, UK

<sup>28</sup>Zoological Institute and Museum, University of Hamburg, Martin-Luther-King Platz 3,

20146 Hamburg, Germany

55 <sup>29</sup> Institute for Integrative Bird Behaviour Studies, Biology Department, The College of William and Mary, Williamsburg, Virginia, USA

<sup>30</sup> Department of Biological Sciences, Simon Fraser University, 8888 University Drive, Burnaby, Canada, V5A 1S6

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**Keywords:** *Taeniopygia guttata*, zebra finch, reproductive failure, captivity, domestication, husbandry, model species, captive-breeding.

## **Abstract**

65 Our understanding of fundamental organismal biology has been disproportionately  
influenced by studies of a relatively small number of ‘model’ species that have been  
extensively studied in captivity. Laboratory populations of model species are  
commonly subject to a number of forms of past and current selection that may affect  
experimental outcomes. Here we examine these processes and their outcomes in one  
70 of the most widely used vertebrate species in the laboratory. The zebra finch  
(*Taeniopygia guttata*) is an important model species for research across a broad range  
of fields, partly due to the ease with which they can be bred in captivity. However,  
despite the amenability of zebra finches to captive conditions, we demonstrate  
extensive variation in the success with which different laboratories and studies bred  
75 their subjects, and only 64% of all females that are given the opportunity to breed, do  
so successfully. We identify and review several environmental, husbandry life-history  
and behavioural factors that are potentially contributing to this variation. The  
variation in reproductive success across individuals could lead to biases in  
experimental outcomes and drive some of the heterogeneity in outcomes across  
80 research groups. From this perspective, research on the captive zebra finch provides a  
useful case study of the wider problem caused by a failure to provide important  
contextual information supporting the empirical studies of animals. The zebra finch is  
an excellent system with which to conduct work in captivity and the aim of this  
review is to sharpen the insight that future studies of this species can provide, both to  
85 our understanding of this species and also with respect to the reproduction of captive  
animals more widely (important for conservation management). We hope to improve  
systematic reporting methods and further investigation of the issues we raise which  
will lead to advances in our fundamental understanding of avian reproduction as well  
as improving future welfare and experimental efficiency.

90 **Introduction**

There has been a recent call to improve on the reporting of information supporting empirical work conducted on animals to improve evaluation and interpretation, and facilitate the use of data in further work (Kilkenny, Browne, Cuthill, Emerson, & Altman, 2010). In their paper, Kilkenny et al., (2010) outlined the value of capturing contextual information (for example; animal backgrounds, housing and husbandry conditions, sample sizes and selection procedures) with a set of guidelines identifying 20 items that should be addressed in each publication. One of the main underlying drivers of this effort was to reduce the amount of clinical research using laboratory animals (through the UK based National Centre for the Replacement, Refinement and Reduction of Animals in Research). However, their paper Kilkenny et al., (2010) also highlighted the opportunities that are missed when the context of a particular study is not adequately communicated. Whilst their paper focused on all animal models, and particularly those used in biomedical research, there are also some clear messages for animal behaviour research. Furthermore, we believe that from the perspective of evolutionary biology, there are additional reasons for adhering to Kilkenny et al.'s (2010) recommendations as a result of biases in both experimental selection of subjects and evolutionary selection over both long and short time scales. Here we outline these issues by focusing singularly on the zebra finch, but believe that our central message and recommendations are more broadly applicable to all species which have already been, or are to be taken from the wild into the laboratory as the focus of work over an extended period of time, including multiple generations. The issues that we are specifically focused on are those that arise from the challenge of breeding and maintaining animals in a way that captures the extent of natural variation as seen in wild populations, but in a controlled environment. Our findings

are therefore also relevant to those managing and designing captive breeding programs for the benefit of animal conservation.

In the wild, we do not expect all individuals in a population of birds to successfully reproduce in a given breeding season or even across a whole lifetime (Newton, 1998). In wild zebra finches the low level of reproductive synchrony across a population (Griffith, Pryke, & Mariette, 2009; Zann, Morton, Jones, & Burley, 1995) suggests that individuals are quite strategic about when they choose to breed. Still, in two well-monitored populations in the wild, reproductive attempts typically end in failure. For natural nests that are vulnerable to predation, only 11-35% of clutches resulted in fledged young (Griffith et al., 2009; Zann et al., 1995). Even when predation was reduced through the provision of nest boxes, only 53% of clutches resulted in fledged offspring (Griffith et al., 2009). The variation in reproductive success in the wild is an interesting question in evolutionary ecology that must ultimately reflect the individual optimisation of many naturally and sexually selected traits. Even in zebra finches that have been brought into captivity, protected from predators, living in comfortable environmental conditions, provided with an *ad libitum* supply of resources, many individuals fail to reproduce. Zebra finches are not the exception to the rule, most individuals brought into captive breeding programs from wild populations fail to reproduce to replacement (Lees & Wilcken 2009). This failure presumably reflects some of the same selective pressures to those in the wild as well as additional challenges of living in captivity. Wild animal populations continue to decline at alarming rates (Butchart et al 2010; Pereira et al. 2010), and conservation breeding is becoming an increasingly important tool to guard against extinction. Thus careful evaluation of reproductive failure seen in extensive, multi-institutional captive breeding programs, such as the zebra finch, and other model

systems, can provide valuable insight for the planning and design of conservation-focused captive breeding programs (e.g. Slade et al. 2014).

The variation in reproductive success among captive birds is also interesting from an evolutionary ecology perspective, but is additionally worthy of attention due to the importance of the zebra finch as a model system for captive research. The zebra finch is a model species for research across a broad range of areas in evolutionary biology, physiology, animal behaviour, neurobiology and genetics (Griffith & Buchanan, 2010; Zann, 1996). One of the reasons it has been so widely adopted as a model species is the relative ease with which it breeds in the laboratory. Zebra finches reach sexual maturity within three months of hatching and adults are capable of reproducing repeatedly, and throughout the entire year under the right conditions of housing and food (Zann 1996). Research scientists and aviculturists recognized it as the easiest songbird to maintain and breed in captivity; often breeding is so robust that it can only be stopped by separating the sexes or removing all nesting sites.

Nevertheless, there is considerable anecdotal evidence that large variation in reproductive success exists among individuals and populations of captive zebra finches. Not all respond similarly when given the opportunity and resources to reproduce. While some individuals quickly and repeatedly reproduce regardless of the circumstances, others fail to reproduce at all over a lifetime in captivity. The variance in reproductive success among individuals within a single population has been the explicit target of a small number of studies (e.g. Alonso-Alvarez et al., 2006; Bolund et al., 2009; McCowan et al., 2014). However, this variation is largely ignored and individuals that do not reproduce well are either deliberately or inadvertently selected out of populations and experiments alike. Typically studies focused around reproduction will report the sample size of pairs that bred and are included in specific

analyses. Sometimes a reference is made to additional birds that were given the opportunity but did not lay eggs (e.g. in Gorman et al. 2005, 77% of females produced a clutch), but more often studies report on the pairs that bred but make no mention of any additional birds. Even among those individuals that initiate a reproductive attempt  
170 there is variation in their ability to hatch eggs and rear offspring through to independence. Only rarely is this variation specifically the focus of analysis or comment, even in papers that are focused on aspects of reproductive behaviour or physiology. The variation in these aspects of individual reproductive success in domesticated populations will affect the number of offspring that an individual leaves  
175 in subsequent generations. As a result, the underlying determinants of this variation are subject to sexual, natural, and artificial selection. Some of these variables may have been maintained in a fairly constant state for over a hundred generations in captivity and have the potential to cause evolutionary change.

Our aim is firstly to summarize the extent of variation in the level of  
180 reproductive success in domesticated zebra finches across multiple research populations. While these estimates are unsuitable for directly measuring the extent of selection (because they will not represent lifetime reproductive success), they will provide a first indication of the extent to which selection might be acting in such populations and the extent to which it will vary between them. The level of  
185 contemporary selection is not only important in how it may affect change across generations in various traits, but also through the extent to which it will affect the composition of experimental datasets. For example, if there is consistent individual variation in an individual's likelihood of laying eggs after a given number of days (when presented with an opportunity to breed) then the selective pressure will be  
190 determined by the amount of time that investigators give birds in which to breed. For

example as illustrated by a hypothetical situation in Figure 1, an experimental cut-off 15 days after individuals are given the opportunity to breed will create a systematic bias with respect to a trait that is significantly related to the latency to lay. In this case, individuals in category 1 will have mostly laid by this time and will be well sampled, 195 while individuals in category 2 will on average start laying later and only half of these birds will have laid by the time of the experimental cut-off. Here the categories might be an ordinal trait such as experience, or a continuous trait such as bill colour divided into two classes. The timescale and the trait itself are just illustrative of any situation in which an experimental time point is applied, so that individuals end up separated 200 according to their breeding latency. The bias here will determine the composition of the sample for work focusing on aspects of biology after the cut-off. For example, if the research focuses on parental care, then the data will only be gathered on the subset of birds that have bred before the experimental cut-off is reached. It will also affect the composition of subsequent generations if the cut-off determines which individuals 205 produce offspring and which do not. There are anecdotal reports that finch breeders only breed females that quickly lay eggs when given a male to breed with, and in the same way this may have affected selection over many generations of domestication. There are many logistical reasons why experimental cut-offs are used and they are probably reasonably widespread. We are not criticising the use of such cut-offs, but 210 raising an awareness of the biases that they may introduce.

The other obvious source of experimental and population bias is where variation in reproductive success is significantly related to variation in traits such as behaviour or morphology (i.e. natural or sexual selection). Such a relationship will result in larger numbers of offspring being produced by a subset of the adult population, 215 affecting the composition of the population over time. It may also result in biases in



experimental samples if an outcome requires the production of a certain number of surviving offspring. For example, if the end point of research is to compare either sons and daughters, or extrapair and within-pair offspring that survive to a certain age then we would be more likely to get data from pairs that produce larger broods. If we  
220 can start to develop an awareness of such biases it will help us in the interpretation of results (and variation across studies) and also enable us to control and reduce such bias in future studies.

Our second aim is to review areas of zebra finch biology that might help to explain variation in the extent to which individuals breed and produce recruits in  
225 laboratory populations. We believe that these areas offer good opportunities for further exploration and suggest that this might be best done by taking advantage of the many laboratories currently working with this species, through collaborative efforts that provide both variation and the replication of key variables. Future work could examine sources of variation in reproductive success by controlling for variation  
230 across populations while attempting to systematically alter just one or two variables at a time. Given the extensive molecular resources becoming available for this species (Warren et al. 2010), we also have the opportunity to test predictions concerning differences between domesticated and wild populations across a variety of traits that have been subject to directional selection in captivity.

235 The zebra finch remains an excellent model system with which to conduct work both in the wild and in captivity and the aim of this review is to sharpen the insight that future studies of this species can provide. To this end, our review highlights the variation that exists across study populations and indicates the potential biases that may occur as a result of biased sampling and breeding. Ultimately, consideration of  
240 this variation may provide insight into key traits that have been altered through the

process of domestication over the past hundred years. We believe it is important to draw attention to the fact that experimental outcomes in this species may arise from the different environments in which they are conducted (e.g. Rojas Mora & Forstmeier 2014).

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### **PART I - The reproductive success of zebra finches in laboratories**

**Methods** – We contacted laboratories in North America, Europe and Australia that have published research focused on zebra finches in the past ten years to request their involvement in this study. From those laboratories that responded positively, data were compiled in an effort to address the following: what proportion of females produce a) eggs and b) fledglings, when given the opportunity to breed? For these same pairs we also report whether they were in a cage or aviary, whether they were force paired or free to choose partners, as well as whether they originated from wild stock or domestic stock. Contributors provided data from their records, and none of this data was the result of work targeted just to assess proportional reproductive success. This breeding data was collected as part of researchers' independent ongoing research with this species and was conducted in line with their own animal ethics approvals and the legal requirements of their respective countries. We collated data from situations in which birds were not subject to experimental manipulations that would have significantly affected reproduction. In some cases, broods were switched in cross-fostering experimental designs and we only used the data collected up to the point of the cross-fostering. A number of laboratories that have conducted work on zebra finches did not respond to our initial emailed communication and are therefore not represented, along with other laboratories that were unable to contribute data on these specific questions. Most of the data we have gathered and presented

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focused on a set of individuals given a single opportunity to breed. However a couple of studies had allowed individuals to breed repeatedly over an extended period of time. The data provided by Varian-Ramos and Swaddle (from William & Mary College, US, and summarised in Table 2), provides us with an opportunity to assess the repeatability of reproductive success at an individual level. In their study Varian-Ramos et al. (2014) tracked a total of 33 individuals over a twelve month period in which they were allowed to breed ad libitum. The data used here is just from the control individuals in their study, that were not given the experimental treatment that is the focus of that work (Varian-Ramos et al 2014). In their study, clutches were removed 21 days after the last laid egg was laid if they failed to hatch, and offspring were removed from their parents when they reached independence. One clutch from each pair was removed as part of their study, but all other clutches were left for the parents to hatch and rear. This data provides important insight into the extent to which reproductive success and failure may be attributable to individual differences.

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### *Statistical methods*

Statistical analyses were focused on addressing individual repeatability of reproductive success, and characterising variation in reproductive success across and within populations, as well as investigating a couple of likely factors that might determine that variation. The percentage of females in each study that succeeded in clutch initiation and producing at least one fledgling in the across-study data set, and the percentage of breeding attempts per female that were successful in producing either fledglings or independent young in the data from William & Mary College, US; CW Varian-Ramos and JP Swaddle (Table 1) were transformed into binary data (i.e. 1: success, 0: failure) for all the analyses. Intra-class correlation (ICC) was calculated

for this success-failure outcome to examine the variability of reproductive success at the level of study and institution (across-study data), and individual (data from Varian-Ramos et al. 2014). The ICC in latent scale (link scale) was estimated based on generalized linear mixed models (GLMM) with a binomial distribution with logit link function. Models were fitted to the binary success-failure data. The latent scale ICC serves as a measure of variation in the response variable independent of its mean value, and is comparable across different sets of data (Nakagawa & Schielzeth 2010). The models included either identity of study, identity of institution, or identity of female as random effects. Effects of these three categorical variables were tested with generalized linear models (GLM). Differences between ICC estimates were examined based on posterior probability of difference (Bayesian P value). Models were fitted, and parameters were estimated with Markov chain Monte Carlo, using software Stan (<http://mc-stan.org/>) called from R package rstan (Stan Development Team. 2014).

Across experimental populations the method of assigning mating pairs differed between either force-paired or free choice pairs. The origin of experimental birds also varied between captive breed and wild derived. The effects of these two factors on clutch initiation and fledging success were investigated using GLMM with a binomial distribution and logit link function. In both cases, pairing type (forced vs. free choice) and origin of strain (domestic vs. wild) were included as fixed effects. Identity of study and identity of institution were included as random effects. Models were fitted using R package lme4 (Bates et al. 2015). Similarly, the effects of female age were examined using GLM with a binomial distribution and logit link function, and the difference between females (those who produced at least one fledgling) in the number of fledglings was examined with GLM with a Poisson distribution and log link function.

## Results

### *Individual repeatability in reproductive success*

320 Over a period of continual breeding (52 weeks) 33 females produced 316  
clutches (mean =  $9.58 \pm 2.99$  s.d.). In total 1670 eggs were laid (mean clutch size  $5.32$   
 $\pm 1.62$  s.d.) and from these eggs 704 chicks hatched (mean per clutch  $2.55 \pm 1.66$   
s.d.). From these chicks 544 birds were fledged (mean per clutch  $2.00 \pm 1.52$  s.d.;  
mean per female  $16.48 \pm 9.69$  s.d.) and 461 independent were produced (mean per  
325 clutch  $1.82 \pm 1.51$  s.d.). Overall just 42% of all eggs laid went on to hatch and just  
28% of eggs produced an offspring that survived to independence. The correlation  
between the number of fledglings produced by each female and the number of  
independent offspring produced was strong ( $r^2 = 0.87$ ,  $df = 138$ ,  $t$ -value = 30.07,  $P <$   
0.001). However the correlation between the number of nestlings and fledglings  
330 produced was weaker ( $r^2 = 0.55$ ,  $df = 177$ ,  $t$ -value = 14.80,  $P < 0.001$ ), and the  
correlation between the production of eggs and production of hatchlings was weaker  
still ( $r^2 = 0.088$ ,  $df = 314$ ,  $t$ -value = 5.51,  $P < 0.001$ ).

Females differed in their likelihood of successfully producing fledglings  
(likelihood ratio test,  $\chi^2 = 171.7$ ,  $df = 1$ ,  $P < 0.001$ ,  $n = 316$ ); in the likelihood of  
335 producing independent offspring ( $\chi^2 = 159.9$ ,  $df = 1$ ,  $P < 0.001$ ,  $n = 304$ ); and also in  
the number of fledglings produced in successful broods (that produced at least one  
fledgling;  $\chi^2 < 24.57$ ,  $df = 1$ ,  $P < 0.001$ ,  $n = 152$ , See Figure 2). The proportion of  
variation explained by inter-female differences was similar for the success in rearing  
young to fledging, and in rearing them to independence (for the production of  
340 fledglings, Intra-Class Correlation (ICC) = 0.56, s.e. = 0.095,  $n = 316$  nests; and for

independent offspring, ICC = 0.53, s.e. = 0.094, n = 304; Bayesian P value, Pr (difference < 0) = 0.45).

#### *Cross-study comparison of clutch and fledging success*

345 From Table 1 we combined data from 23 institutions that provided data on egg hatching success per female and 21 institutions that provided fledgling rearing success per female. In total 2813 females out of 3213 successfully hatched chicks (proportion = 0.852, s.e. = 0.002), and 1889 females out of 2906 raised fledglings (proportion = 0.642, s.e. = 0.003). The probability of females initiating at least one clutch varied  
350 across both studies ( $\chi^2 = 5.12$ , df = 1, P = 0.02, n = 3213) and institutions ( $\chi^2 = 122.37$ , df = 1, P < 0.01). Similarly, the probability of producing fledglings was different across studies ( $\chi^2 = 13.36$ , df = 1, P < 0.01, n = 2906) and across institutions ( $\chi^2 = 325.9$ , df = 1, P < 0.01, Figure 3). Inter-study variation for clutch initiation success (ICC = 0.28, s.e. = 0.055) was higher than inter-institution variation (ICC = 0.11, s.e. = 0.043; Pr (difference < 0) = 0.005, n = 3213 females), suggesting experimental  
355 conditions specific to individual studies explains more variation in egg laying than population level factors. The variability of fledging success was similar between the two levels of grouping (study: ICC = 0.27, s.e. = 0.04; institution: ICC = 0.19, s.e. = 0.06; Pr (difference < 0) = 0.14, n = 2906).

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#### *Reproduction and pair and female characteristics*

Females were as likely to produce a clutch when force-paired or given free choice of partner (Wald test, z = 0.64, P = 0.52, n = 2885 females; Fig. 4a), and when from wild or domestic origin (z = -1.32, P = 0.19; Fig. 4b). In contrast, the proportion of females  
365 that produced fledglings was higher in domesticated strains than populations derived

from the wild more recently ( $z = 2.3$ ,  $P = 0.021$ ,  $n = 2578$ ; Fig. 4c). Females that were force-paired by researchers had a lower fledging success than pairs formed through mate choice ( $z = -2.5$ ,  $P = 0.011$ ; Fig. 4d). For three institutions, females from two different age categories were bred and the classes could be compared (all else is presumed to be equal). In two of the three institutions young females had a greater reproductive success than older ones. In Lund (females of 9 versus 20 months) females were equally likely to produce a clutch (all females were successful,  $N = 56$ ), and there was no difference in fledging success ( $z = 0.106$ ,  $P = 0.92$ ,  $N = 56$ ). In Glasgow (females of 7 versus 43 months) younger females were more likely to produce a clutch ( $z = 3.57$ ,  $P < 0.001$ ,  $N = 1296$ ), and produce fledglings ( $z = 5.62$ ,  $P < 0.001$ ,  $N = 1296$ ). At the Max Planck (Seewiesen) there were comparative age classes across both domesticated and wild derived birds, allowing two separate comparisons. For domesticated birds (1.1 years versus 3.5 years) young birds had greater success at producing clutches ( $z = -4.214$ ,  $P < 0.001$ ,  $N = 328$ ) and fledging offspring ( $z = -5.437$ ,  $P < 0.001$ ,  $N = 328$ ). For wild derived birds, (10 versus 24 months) young females were also better at producing clutches ( $z = -1.028$ ,  $P = 0.30$ ,  $N = 114$ ) and fledglings ( $z = -1.073$ ,  $P = 0.28$ ,  $N = 114$ ).

## Discussion

The data presented and the analysis conducted indicate that a significant percentage (around 35%) of females do not successfully produce offspring when given the opportunity to breed in these captive studies. This reproductive failure is partly due to the failure of about half of these females to produce a clutch. For the remainder of females that produce a clutch, the primary determinant of reproductive failure is the ability to successfully hatch their eggs. However there is also failure to raise hatched

nestlings into fledglings and a much lower level of failure between fledging and the production of independent young. Some of the overall variation is determined by differences across institutions and also across separate studies within institutions. We also found strong evidence that the age of females is important in reproductive outcomes, with younger females being more successful than older ones. In addition, we found evidence that females that were free to choose their own partner were more successful than those to whom a partner had been assigned (force-paired), in line with a recent study that found free choosing females to have a 37% higher level of reproductive success (Ihle et al 2015).

Whilst the sample size was limited and there may be other confounding factors, we also detected some evidence for a higher level of reproductive success in domesticated birds than in laboratory populations that were from stock recently derived from wild-caught individuals. This result is consistent with the idea that selection has occurred, favouring traits that improve reproductive performance in captive conditions. We found strong evidence of intrinsic variation in individuals' ability to reproduce in the conditions they were provided, as would be required for selection to act. We found moderate intra-class correlation in reproductive success at the level of individual females, across all studies, and individual reproductive success was found to be repeatable in the longitudinal data from William and Mary College (Table 2, Figure 2). The latter data also illustrates how strong the selection is likely to be, with a large reproductive skew across the females monitored (although of course some of this may have been due to the male they were paired with).

It is important to be mindful that the data presented here were not collected systematically to address these issues. The heterogeneity in the data sets presented, and the context in which the captive populations were held sensibly precludes a



comprehensive investigation into the sources of variation in breeding success among these research laboratories. Nevertheless, we believe it is worthwhile to consider and highlight the potential sources of variation that might contribute, at least in part, to variation within and between populations in reproductive success of domesticated zebra finches. Specifically, we discuss: how differences in housing conditions and husbandry practices could contribute to differences in reproductive success between research laboratories; how individual responses to housing conditions can affect variation in reproductive success within laboratory populations; and the effects of variation in reproductive success on genetic diversity in populations of domesticated zebra finches.

## **PART II – Determinants of reproductive success in captive birds**

### **1. Variation in housing conditions and aviculture practices**

Many research laboratories keep birds in controlled rooms to remove the confounding effects of temperature, light and humidity variation on experimental work. Other sources of variation between research laboratories will also include differences in housing conditions and basic husbandry practices. All of these are likely to contribute to variation in reproductive success of domesticated zebra finches. In the wild, zebra finches are opportunistic breeders that use a range of environmental cues to optimize reproductive success. In contrast to the generally predictable and primarily photoperiod-dependent development of reproductive systems typical of seasonally breeding passerines (reviewed in Dawson et al. 2001; Sharp 2005), the reproductive axis of zebra finches is able to rapidly adapt to favourable breeding conditions – seemingly at any time of year – despite showing some seasonality to their reproduction (Perfito et al. 2006; Williamson et al. 2008; Zann 1996; reviewed in

Hahn et al. 2008). This breeding strategy has important bearing on domesticated zebra finches because slight variation in housing conditions (e.g. light regime, humidity, food quality, housing density) may have broad repercussions on breeding success. For example, photostimulation does affect testes size despite the opportunistic breeding  
445 pattern widely observed (Bentley, Spar, MacDougall-Shackleton, Hahn, & Ball, 2000). It is generally assumed that zebra finches (as opportunistic breeders) remain at a constant state of breeding readiness given “good” environmental conditions, such as those provided in the laboratory studies, and breeding condition is rarely controlled for. However, field and laboratory studies indicate that individuals are not at a  
450 constant of breeding readiness, cycle through breeding and non-breeding periods, which correspond with distinct neuroendocrine states (Perfito, Zann, Bentley, & Hau, 2007; Prior, Heimovics, & Soma, 2013).

#### *Indoor versus outdoor housing*

455 Across studies, there is extensive variation in the basic housing conditions in which breeding birds are kept. For example, some populations of zebra finches are kept in partially outdoor aviaries (e.g. Burley 1986; Gilby et al. 2011; Ihle & Forstmeier 2013) while others experience only indoor conditions (e.g. Gorman & Nager 2003; Birkhead et al. 2006). Outdoor and indoor housing environments likely vary in temperature and  
460 humidity (see *Humidity and temperature*), light quality and quantity, as well as other factors that affect the health and well-being of captive breeding birds. For example, in poultry, individuals kept outdoors with direct access to sunlight are better able to synthesise vitamin D resulting in better growth and egg production (Lewis & Gous, 2009). The natural lighting of outdoor housing can also be less stressful for breeding  
465 birds compared to the artificial lighting of indoor housing that can cause an increase

in glucocorticoid stress hormones (see: *Stress Physiology*; Evans et al. 2012).

Artificial lighting may also vary qualitatively across research laboratories depending on the total luminance and whether full daylight spectrum lights are used.

Housing in outdoor aviaries can also have negative effects on health and  
470 reproduction. For example, birds housed in outdoor aviaries may have greater  
exposure to inter-specific transmissions of pathogens resulting in higher levels of  
disease and morbidity (e.g. Brittingham et al. 1988). Natural weather conditions will  
be far more variable than indoor conditions, and also vary significantly with the local  
climate geographically. Extreme or unpredictable conditions (e.g. unexpected cold  
475 temperatures) could be stressful for breeding adults and nestlings, resulting in nest  
abandonment or nestling mortality (Lynn & Kern, 2014). However, natural weather  
conditions in the wild are also variable and may have important stimulatory effects.

Outdoor aviaries may also be subject to varying levels of environmental  
background noise depending on location, which might affect reproductive success  
480 (Halfwerk, Holleman, Lessells, & Slabbekoorn, 2011). Finally, the type of housing  
tends to determine the number of birds that are held together (for example large  
groups in outdoor aviaries versus small groups in typically smaller indoor cages),  
which will also potentially confound attempts to understand the effects of indoor  
versus outdoor housing, for the reasons discussed below.

485

#### *Housing and social effects*

The composition and density of breeding groups of zebra finches might affect pair  
bonding and, in turn, reproductive success. Research in both domesticated (Adkins-  
Regan & Tomaszycski, 2007; Schweitzer, Schwabl, Baran, & Adkins-Regan, 2014),  
490 and wild zebra finches (Mariette & Griffith, 2012b) has focused on the importance of

the pair bond in this species for successful reproduction. These studies suggest that pairs that are well acquainted, phenotypically similar to one another, or with a high level of behavioural coordination differ from other pairs in a number of aspects of reproduction such as the time taken to initiate breeding or the number of offspring  
495 produced. However, there is variation across studies and in research populations in the way in which individuals can form and maintain pairs. Pairs are either allowed to form naturally in aviaries (free choice – but constrained as individuals become paired and are removed from the mating pool), or are determined by the experimenter as a male and female are placed in a cage together (force paired; Table 1 and references  
500 therein). In the zebra finch, females force-paired to preferred mates laid slightly more eggs or laid the first egg of their clutch sooner, compared to females paired with non-preferred mates (Balzer & Williams, 1998; Holveck & Riebel, 2010). In another estrildid species (the Gouldian finch *Erythrura gouldiae*) females forced paired with incompatible mates had long-term elevated levels of corticosterone (the dominant  
505 avian stress hormone; Griffith et al. 2011). Recently, Ihle et al. (2015) found in the zebra finch that freely chosen pairs achieved a 37% higher fitness than experimentally arranged pairs, a finding that is consistent with recent studies in captive bred zoo species that have shown that mating animals to their preferred partner, versus non-preferred or genetically assigned partners, dramatically increased reproductive  
510 success (Martin et al. 2012).

In addition to the potential stress caused by force pairing with a non-chosen partner, captive zebra finches also experience stress when separated from their partner during or at the end of experiments (Perez et al., 2012; Ramage-Healey, Adkins-Regan, & Romero, 2003; Schweitzer et al., 2014), although some of this stress might  
515 have been due to the stress of social isolation itself. Breeding partners are often

separated at the end of experiments and birds are kept in single sex populations before pairing them at a later date with the same or a different partner for another experiment. In the wild, males and females form enduring partnerships and remain close to one another throughout the year (Mariette & Griffith, 2012b) with little evidence of infidelity (Griffith, Holleley, Mariette, Pryke, & Svedin, 2010) or divorce (Zann, 1996), although wild individuals will occasionally lose a partner to predation or natural mortality. Hence, elevated stress hormones caused by partner separation or forced pairing could contribute to reduced reproductive success in laboratories (see *Stress physiology*).

525       The wild zebra finch is a very social bird with groups of individuals often breeding closely together (Zann, 1996). It is likely that different housing conditions will affect the social conditions under which zebra finches breed in captivity. In aviaries, birds will be free to socially interact with many other individuals, whereas in cages, there is likely to be varying degrees of visual and acoustic communications between individuals in different pairs. There is some evidence from captive birds that reproductive investment is modified by acoustic signals from other members of a loose social group (Waas, Colgan, & Boag, 2005). This is consistent with the finding that in the wild, despite a low level of synchrony across a whole population, pairs nesting very closely to one another synchronise their reproductive activity (Mariette & Griffith, 2012a). However, whilst social contact can have stimulatory effects on some individuals, there may be inhibitory effects on others. In the wild, proximity to others shows great variation with many pairs actively choosing to breed away from colonies in solitary positions (Mariette & Griffith, 2012a). This may reflect an underlying behavioural polymorphism of social and asocial individuals, with the latter perhaps socially inhibited by the close proximity of others (Dall & Griffith, 2014).

Breeding in aviaries has the advantage of more closely resembling natural circumstances in which individuals and pairs can act as part of a social network and facilitate each other. However, the social situation in an aviary can create competition for nest sites, nesting material and food, which in turn might result in lower  
545 reproductive success for some parts of a population (McCowan et al., 2014).

Variation in the size and construct of social groups (through housing) will also have consequences for the development of social and sexual behaviour in offspring (Mariette, Cathaud, Chambon, & Vignal, 2013; Ruploh, Bischof, & Engelhardt, 2012). Reproductive success may be affected by the expression of song in adults, with  
550 key parameters of song structure (complexity, tempo, stereotypy) and output being affected by the environment (Brumm, Zollinger, & Slater, 2009; Holveck, Vieira de Castro, Lachlan, ten Cate, & Riebel, 2008) and by the availability of song tutors during early life (Derégnaucourt, 2011). The early environment also affects the development of song preference behaviour in females (Clayton, 1990b, 1990c;  
555 Riebel, Naguib, & Gil, 2009). There is some evidence of reduced variance in song structure between wild and domesticated populations (Slater & Clayton, 1991; Woodgate, Mariette, Bennett, Griffith, & Buchanan, 2012), and it is possible that there is variation in the quality or variance of song across captive populations. Variation in the expression of song across populations may contribute to  
560 heterogeneity in reproductive investment and behaviour given the importance of song in stimulating reproduction (Bolund, Schielzeth, & Forstmeier, 2012; Riebel, 2009; Woodgate et al., 2012).

#### *Humidity and temperature*

565 In wild zebra finches, the trigger of breeding activity has generally been related to  
rainfall (Zann et al., 1995). Other environmental cues such as humidity and  
temperature have been shown to both directly (Cynx, 2001; Vleck & Priedkalns,  
1985), and indirectly (Williams, 1996a; Williamson et al., 2008) stimulate  
reproductive behaviour in zebra finches. Variation in humidity could be an  
570 informative cue for zebra finches as it is related to rainfall, and ground water  
conditions which influence both water and food availability. However, humidity is  
often not accounted for in captive studies and a relatively large range is often  
considered as constant (Table 1). For example, Williams (1996) considered humidity  
range of 35-55% as constant. Williamson et al. (2008) found seasonal patterns of  
575 maternal investment in birds breeding in ‘constant temperature and humidity rooms’  
but suggest that the 40-60% variation in humidity in their study may have been the  
variable that could have influenced breeding if the birds are sensitive to such changes.  
Therefore, it appears important not to ignore even small changes in humidity, as there  
remains the possibility that variation in humidity in captive breeding environments  
580 can affect reproductive output. Unfortunately, it is very difficult to artificially control  
humidity to a high degree as air-heating systems typically deliver dry air, and  
typically humidity is not often controlled to a high level of precision independently of  
air temperature.

In addition to humidity, variation in temperature is likely to affect reproductive  
585 physiology and behaviour in ways that may contribute to variation in reproductive  
success. Although wild zebra finches have been recorded to breed throughout the  
winter in temperatures down to as low as 2.2°C (Zann et al., 1995), periods of low  
temperature are associated with a reduction or cessation of reproductive activity  
(Davies, 1977). Reproductive success in captive birds may be similarly affected by

590 variation in temperature, or across seasons. Captive birds kept at low temperature  
(7°C) increased food consumption and time to initiate egg laying and decreased the  
total number of eggs laid (Salvante, Walzem, & Williams, 2007). Furthermore,  
presumably due to the costs of thermoregulation, females reduce the amount of heat  
transferred to eggs during incubation in low temperature conditions (Nord, Sandell, &  
595 Nilsson, 2010).

### *Handling and disturbance*

Laboratories may vary in a number of standard procedures relating to the provision of  
cover, the number of times birds are visited during the day, cleaning routines and the  
600 type of interaction that birds get, all of which may lead to different levels of  
disturbance and stress, which may ultimately result in inadvertent selection on stress-  
tolerant phenotypes. To date, there have been remarkably few studies investigating  
these issues in the zebra finch. In their paper, Collins et al. (2008) found that the  
provision of a food reward (fresh greens) directly after handling helped birds to settle  
605 more quickly. In the same study they also investigated the effect of providing cover  
(part of the cage was covered with an opaque cloth), but found that this actually  
increased the level of fearfulness over the timeframe of the experiment (Collins et al.,  
2008). Whilst Collins et al. (2008) did not look at reproductive performance in the  
context of these factors, they did find the handling regime (whether they were  
610 rewarded after capture) affected attractiveness in mate selection. The recent study by  
Sorge et al. (2014) demonstrates just how subtle the effects of handling or visiting  
stress can be on captive animals, with laboratory rodents of several species showing  
significantly different anxiety and pain responses in the presence of male versus  
female research technicians.



*Diet and nutrition*

The basic diet and nutritional supplements provided to breeding zebra finches vary across populations and also across studies within populations and are likely to influence variation in reproductive investment and success (Gorman & Nager, 2003; Patricia Monaghan, Metcalfe, & Houston, 1996; Williams, 1996b). In Table 1 we have summarised some examples of dietary variation across different studies and populations. It is standard practice to provide zebra finches with an *ad libitum* seed diet, but there can be substantial variation between the quality of seed with some diets fortified with vitamins and other supplements. In addition to seed, breeding zebra finches are often supplemented either daily or intermittently with more nutritious foods such as hard-boiled eggs and spinach (Table 1). The diet provided to zebra finches prior and during reproduction can have pervasive effects on reproductive success (and the variation is often intentionally experimental). Female zebra finches provided with a low quality diet produce smaller eggs, smaller clutches, have lower hatching success, fledge fewer young, and, overall, have lower lifetime reproductive success (Lemon & Barth, 1992; Rutkowska & Cichoń, 2002; Rutstein, Slater, & Graves, 2004; Rutstein, Gilbert, Slater, & Graves, 2004; Selman & Houston, 1996). In male zebra finches, diet quality can influence bill and plumage coloration, and courtship rate, all of which can affect female preference and reproductive investment (Atagan & Forst, 2012; Burley, Price, & Zann, 1992; McGraw, Gregory, Parker, & Adkins-Regan, 2003).

In addition to variation in diet quality, laboratories also vary in the manner in which food is provided to breeding zebra finches, which could influence reproductive success. For example, the number of outlets through which a given amount of food

640 can be accessed influences the acquisition of that food by individual birds (e.g. Broom  
& Ruxton 2003; Vahl & Kingma 2007) and large groups of birds in aviaries with a  
single food dispenser will have to compete much harder than pairs housed in small  
cages. As a result, in large aviaries, dominant individuals may have greater access to  
food. Access to food could affect reproductive success by influencing individual  
645 decisions about mass regulation (Cuthill, Hunt, Cleary, & Clark, 1997), the  
physiological ability of birds to breed (Rashotte, Sedunova, Johnson, & Pastukhov,  
2001; Sandell, Adkins-Regan, & Ketterson, 2007), and the expression of condition-  
dependent sexually selected traits such as bill colour and song rate (Birkhead,  
Fletcher, & Pellatt, 1998; Pariser, Mariette, & Griffith, 2010).

650 Overall, we need to remain mindful that the zebra finch is highly opportunistic  
and is likely to adaptively respond to small variations in important environmental  
parameters such as housing conditions, temperature, humidity, nutrition, and social  
cues. As such, although many laboratories may attempt to maintain standard  
conditions of such parameters, variation between and within laboratories is likely to  
655 affect reproduction in ways that are currently not accounted for in most studies.

## **2. Individual responses**

Variation in housing conditions and aviculture practices may explain differences in  
the degree of breeding success of populations of zebra finches *between* laboratories  
660 (Table 1). However, variation in breeding success *within* a population of interest is  
more likely driven by individual differences in behavioural and physiological  
responses to the particular housing, social, and dietary conditions and handling  
regimes of the population in question. In turn, intra-population variation in physiology  
and behaviour can be increased by housing practices or decreased due to inadvertent

665 artificial selection (see *Population genetics and artificial selection*). Overall,  
understanding how individual variation in physiology and behaviour affect  
reproductive success in captive populations of zebra finches is crucial to teasing apart  
mechanisms that explain large-scale differences in inter-population reproductive  
success.

670

### *Stress physiology*

Individuals can vary substantially in their endocrine responses to environmental  
stimuli that can, in turn, cause dramatic variation in reproductive behaviours (e.g.  
675 Lendvai and Chastel, 2010). For example, in captive zebra finches, some individuals  
might be more susceptible to stressors associated with housing conditions such as  
cage conditions, population density, and exposure to caregivers. In birds, stressors  
activate the hypothalamic-pituitary-adrenal (HPA) axis and result in the release of the  
steroid hormone corticosterone (reviewed in Cockrem 2013). Corticosterone elicits  
680 physiological and behavioural responses that help birds prioritize self-maintenance  
and survival at the expense of reproduction (reviewed in Wingfield & Sapolsky  
2003). Across bird species, corticosterone is associated with delayed clutch initiation  
(Griffith et al., 2011; Salvante & Williams, 2003), reduced incubation (Edwards,  
Chin, Burness, Gilchrist, & Schulte-Hostedde, 2013; Spencer, Heidinger, D'Alba,  
685 Evans, & Monaghan, 2010; Thierry, Massemin, Handrich, & Raclot, 2013), lower  
nestling provisioning (Almasi, Roulin, Jenni-Eiermann, & Jenni, 2008), greater nest  
abandonment (Spée et al., 2011; Strasser & Heath, 2013), and lower reproductive  
success (fewer offspring fledged; Schmid et al. 2013). In captive zebra finches,  
individual variation in stress responsiveness could be a mechanism that explains

690 variation in reproductive success within a population. In this scenario, birds that are  
least responsive to stressors will have the greatest reproductive success.

Stress responsiveness is both heritable and influenced by the early rearing  
environment (Adkins-Regan, Banerjee, Correa, & Schweitzer, 2013; Evans, Roberts,  
Buchanan, & Goldsmith, 2006; Spencer, Evans, & Monaghan, 2009), and perhaps  
695 most surprisingly even by the stress profile of their partners (Monaghan, Heidinger,  
D'Alba, Evans, & Spencer, 2012). If birds with low stress responses are more  
successful at breeding in captivity, this trait will be selected for over time, resulting in  
captive populations with dampened stress responses. Anecdotally, it is apparent that  
laboratory populations of birds that are very recently derived from wild birds are  
700 much more flighty than domesticated birds (Griffith, Buchanan and Forstmeier pers.  
obs.). Although not yet systematically explored in zebra finches, physiologically  
dampened stress responses have been documented in grey partridges (*Perdix perdix*)  
and white-backed munia (*Lonchura striata*) with wild-derived birds having higher  
stress responses compared to domesticated congeners (Homberger, Jenni-Eiermann,  
705 Roulin, & Jenni, 2013; Suzuki, Yamada, Kobayashi, & Okanoya, 2012).

Corticosterone has broad pleiotropic effects on physiology and behaviour (Sapolsky,  
2000). Inadvertent selection for individuals with low stress responses is likely to have  
organismal consequences beyond modifications in stress physiology.

Individual and population level HPA axis characteristics may provide a useful  
710 way of comparatively testing the deleterious physiological effects of potential sources  
of reproductive failure as reviewed herein. For example, studies using direct measures  
of corticosterone can evaluate the relative stress of widespread practices such as  
forced pairing (Griffith et al., 2011), mate separation (Perez et al., 2012; Ramage-  
Healey et al., 2003), food restriction (Spencer et al., 2005), and housing conditions

715 such as artificial lighting (Evans et al., 2012; Maddocks, Goldsmith, & Cuthill, 2001).  
HPA axis characteristics have been used as a tool to diagnose the stressfulness of  
housing conditions and the efficacy of breeding programs in zoo animals (Scarлата et  
al., 2012; Shepherdson, Carlstead, & Wielebnowski, 2004), the effect of  
anthropogenic disturbance on reproductive success in free-living birds (Crino,  
720 Johnson, Blickley, Patricelli, & Breuner, 2013; Crino, Van Oorschot, Johnson,  
Malisch, & Breuner, 2011; Müllner, Eduard Linsenmair, & Wikelski, 2004; Walker,  
Boersma, & Wingfield, 2005), and the general welfare of captive animals (Fanson,  
Lynch, Vogelnest, Miller, & Keeley, 2013; Lane, 2006; Whitham & Wielebnowski,  
2013). In summary, identifying the factors associated with housing and experimental  
725 procedures that cause stress (as indicated by elevated corticosterone) in breeding  
zebra finches will allow researchers to mitigate stressful practices and capture  
reproductive success across a wider range of phenotypes in captive populations, i.e.  
reducing the strength of selection for ‘stressor-resistant’ phenotypes.

### 730 *Individual behavioural variation*

A recent focus of work in behavioural ecology is the extent to which individuals differ  
consistently across time and/or context in behaviour – personality variation – and  
what selection pressures might maintain this variation (Wolf & Weissing, 2012).  
There is as yet little information on wild zebra finches, but domesticated zebra  
735 finches, like wild birds of other species, show variation across personality traits such  
as boldness, exploratory behaviour, activity, neophobia, and aggressiveness  
(Beauchamp, 2000; Brust, Wuerz, & Krüger, 2013; David & Cézilly, 2011; Martins,  
Roberts, Giblin, Huxham, & Evans, 2007; Schuett, Godin, & Dall, 2011), raising  
questions as to how this might directly or indirectly affect mate choice, fertilization

740 success, and/or parental care, and whether sexual selection contributes to maintaining  
inter-individual variation in personality traits (Schuett, Tregenza, & Dall, 2010).

In breeding zebra finches, personality may influence the speed and willingness  
with which an individual chooses a mate (David & Cézilly, 2011). Variation in female  
choosiness may be particularly relevant to variation in reproductive success when  
745 males and females are force paired in cages; very choosy females may simply abstain  
from copulating with the male she is provided. Over time, this could result in  
inadvertent selection for less choosy females in captive-bred populations (although  
the percentage of breeding failure in forced pairs in Table 1 suggests that females,  
despite being selected for generations for high breeding performance, are far from  
750 mating indiscriminately). There is as yet a paucity of data comparing mating  
behaviour of wild and domesticated females (Rutstein, Brazill-Boast, & Griffith,  
2007). Future work comparing captive raised and cross-fostered individuals from  
several wild and domesticated populations should help to test whether variation in  
choosiness is more pronounced on the population or individual level and has changed  
755 in captivity, as has been demonstrated in the house mouse *Mus musculus* (Slade et al.  
2014).

A more pressing question is whether non-random mate choice with respect to  
personality contributes to maintaining variation in these traits (Schuett et al., 2010).  
Both mate preference tests (Schuett, Godin, et al., 2011) and experimental pairing of  
760 in- and compatible personalities (see for improved reproductive performance e.g.  
Schuett et al. 2011b) should help answering these questions. In species such as the  
zebra finch with bi-parental care, mate choice based on assortative mating for  
personality could moderate sexual conflict in parental care leading to increased  
reproductive success (Royle, Schuett, & Dall, 2010). Therefore, pairs with similar

765 personalities may reproduce more successfully because that allows for greater  
coordination of reproductive and parental behaviours (Schuett et al. 2011b; Mariette  
& Griffith 2012b; but see Both et al. 2005; Schielzeth et al. 2010; McCowan et al.  
2014). Housing practices that limit mate choice (e.g. forced pairing) could decrease  
overall reproductive success by preventing individuals from breeding with a  
770 complementary personality type.

Conditions experienced by individuals during development can have sustained  
effects on personality (reviewed in Stamps & Groothuis 2010). Therefore, it is  
possible that the variation described above in husbandry and housing conditions  
between laboratories generates personality variation that affects reproductive success.  
775 Unintentional selection for certain personality traits may result from biases in the  
individuals that cope better with captive conditions and breed successfully (McCowan  
et al., 2014), or those selected to breed or be part of an experiment. The extent to  
which these biases generally affect experimental outcomes remains to be determined,  
but could be an illuminating area of future research.

780 Developmental conditions can also directly affect an individual's mating  
behaviour and life-history more generally. Zebra finches imprint on visual and song  
phenotypes (Clayton, 1990b, 1990c; Immelmann, 1972) to an extent that subspecies  
specific preferences can be easily reversed (reviewed in Clayton, 1990a). Phenotypic  
quality also affects preferences: individual condition can influence female mate  
785 selectivity (Burley & Foster, 2006; Riebel et al., 2009) and also the specific choice of  
partner, with individuals pairing assortatively for quality (Holveck & Riebel, 2010).  
Recent work in the zebra finch has demonstrated striking relationships between the  
extent of loss of telomere length during early development and longevity (Heidinger

et al., 2012), and it is not hard to imagine that this will also affect an individual's  
790 reproductive investment strategy throughout life.

### **3. Population genetics and artificial selection**

Zebra finches were first exported to Europe from Australia in the 1870's for the pet  
trade (Sossinka, 1970). Since that time, captive-bred zebra finches have been exported  
795 to North America and other parts of the world for breeding (Forstmeier, Segelbacher,  
Mueller, & Kempenaers, 2007; Zann, 1996) where they have subsequently been  
isolated to an unknown and varying degree at the local, national and continental  
levels. Domesticated zebra finches used in research in Europe and North America are  
mostly derived from populations maintained by amateur and professional finch  
800 breeders who have bred these populations for over a hundred years without an influx  
of wild-caught birds from Australia (Zann, 1996). Typically, captive zebra finches  
have not been bred with the intention of preserving genetic diversity and natural  
behaviour, because these are not priorities for the amateur and professional  
aviculturists who maintain most of the zebra finches in captivity (even though some  
805 laboratories may manage their stock to optimise these). Finch breeders are partly  
driven by the creation of new morphs that are selected by line breeding and back  
crossing, to the extent that there are now 30 recognized colour variants (Zann, 1996).  
Even 'wild type' birds are bred for competitive showing and judged against aesthetics  
and avicultural standards. As a result of this history, domestic populations may have  
810 diverged from their wild congeners, through artificial selection imposed by aviculture,  
natural selection to captive conditions (Gilligan & Frankham, 2003; Heath, Heath,  
Bryden, Johnson, & Fox, 2003), or through genetic drift (Woodworth, Montgomery,  
Briscoe, & Frankham, 2002). Two studies have found morphological differences



between wild and domesticated birds, and between different subsets of the  
815 domesticated population (Carr & Zann, 1986; Forstmeier et al., 2007). Reassuringly,  
despite this morphological divergence between populations, Tschirren et al. (2009)  
found that life-history trade-offs between traits were very similar between wild and  
domestic birds held in captivity. Even without intentional selection, the data we  
present (Table 1) illustrates substantial variation in reproductive success that could  
820 contribute to reduced genetic variation and population differentiation across and  
within laboratory populations.

To date, just a single study has addressed genetic divergence in the  
domesticated zebra finch. Forstmeier et al. (2007) used microsatellites to analyse 18  
captive research populations and 2 wild populations. They found that all captive  
825 populations had lower allelic diversity than the two wild populations sampled and  
many populations showed strong differentiation from one another, particularly  
between the populations from different continents (Forstmeier et al., 2007). The  
limited neutral genetic divergence between populations observed by Forstmeier et al.  
(2007) does not exclude a higher degree of divergence in functional traits across these  
830 domestic populations that may determine some part of inter-population variation in  
reproductive performance. This is clearly an area that will benefit from the application  
of genomic tools that are becoming so well established in this species (Warren et al.,  
2010).

Although many studies work with ‘wild type’ birds, the presence of the colour  
835 variants in the background population, or directly in some studies, raises some issues.  
First, the degree of melanin pigmentation in animals (a likely target of much artificial  
selection) has been found to correlate with various life history traits (Meunier,  
Figueiredo Pinto, Burri, & Roulin, 2011), through trade-offs associated with the

melanocortin system itself (Ducrest, Keller, & Roulin, 2008), and as a component  
840 of behavioural syndromes (Emaresi et al., 2014; McKinnon & Pierotti, 2010). In zebra  
finches, relatively few studies have specifically examined the effects of colour  
variants on behaviour or physiology, finding effects on sexual imprinting and song  
learning behaviour (Mann, Slater, Eales, & Richards, 1991; Vos, Prijs, & Tencate,  
1993), and the visual system (Bredenkötter & Bischof, 2003; Eckmeier & Bischof,  
845 2008).

Second, a recent molecular analysis found that white morphs represented a  
distinct genetic cluster, reflecting their history of selective breeding (Hoffman,  
Krause, Lehmann, & Krüger, 2014). In the process of selecting for these colour  
variants, there may have been unintentional side-effects on other traits, through  
850 genetic hitchhiking, selective sweeps, or epistasis. While there have been no  
investigations of this in the zebra finch, there are examples in other domesticated  
systems (e.g. rats: Will et al. 2003; Overstreet et al. 2005; dogs: Sutter et al. 2004).  
The effects of such genetic correlations in the zebra finch might be particularly likely,  
given that the genome of the domesticated zebra finch consists of few, relatively large  
855 linkage blocks compared to other vertebrate genomes (Backström et al., 2010).

Finally, the domesticated zebra finch represents a fragmented population with  
numerous barriers that reduce the free transfer of genes between different parts of the  
overall domesticated population across the world. As in small isolated populations in  
the wild, genetic inbreeding is a problem expected to cause a reduction in  
860 reproductive success (e.g. Billing et al., 2012; O'Grady et al., 2006a; Ralls, Ballou,  
Rideout, & Frankham, 2000). Although Forstmeier et al. (2007) found high  
heterozygosity within domesticated populations different levels of inbreeding may

still be responsible for variation in reproductive success between laboratories.

Accurate genetic pedigrees are likely not available for all birds in most laboratories

865 and for birds sourced from pet shops or finch breeders. As a result, it is difficult to completely evaluate the extent to which inbreeding effects might contribute to variation in reproductive success amongst different populations or laboratories.

However, using the zebra finch as a model a recent study has demonstrated a new method for directly measuring the total amount of realised inbreeding (Knief et al.

870 2015), opening new opportunities for the study of inbreeding. Biologically, in domestic populations, inbreeding is a selective pressure (Ihle & Forstmeier 2013).

Zebra finches actively avoid mating with familiar siblings (Ihle & Forstmeier, 2013), and full-sibling pairings suffer reduced reproductive success (Forstmeier et al 2012).

Furthermore, the effects of inbreeding depression may emerge within a few

875 generations in a small captive population of zebra finches, particularly on sexually selected and morphological traits, and in different populations, deleterious lethal alleles may have been purged out by breeding and previous population bottlenecks (Bolund et al., 2010). As stressful environments can exacerbate the effects of

inbreeding (Armbruster & Reed, 2005), housing and other stressors that differ across

880 laboratories might drive variation in the effect of inbreeding depression across

different studies. The extent to which inbreeding may be having detrimental effects on reproduction across laboratories remains an open question.

The rapidly reducing costs of population-level genomic analyses will allow

future studies to provide insight into the way in which genetic factors and the

885 domestication process may contribute towards variation in reproductive success

across laboratories. The assembled zebra finch genome (Warren et al., 2010) provides

a scaffold against which we can examine selection and differentiation on functional

loci in the genome in comparison with neutral regions (Balakrishnan, Edwards, & Clayton, 2010; Larson & Burger, 2013). Availability of genomic resources will also  
890 facilitate the use of genome-wide association studies (GWAS) (e.g. Metzker 2010; Davey et al. 2011; Ekblom & Galindo 2011), and transcriptome sequencing (e.g. Mortazavi et al. 2008; Wang et al. 2009; Ekblom et al. 2014) which will help in the identification of genes responsible for trait differentiation within and between populations. The genetic history of the domesticated zebra finch may be a  
895 determining factor underlying some of the variation in reproductive success across different laboratories. However, studies of this highly amenable laboratory model promise to lead the next generation of work in our understanding of functional genomics in birds. In both of these areas there are many exciting opportunities ahead.

#### 900 **4. Conclusions**

The ease with which domesticated zebra finches breed in captivity, relative to other birds, have made them a model system for research across a diversity of fields. However, despite the amenability of domesticated zebra finches to captive conditions, we present data here showing a large amount of variation in reproductive success  
905 across research laboratories. Although this variation is often noted anecdotally, it has not been the focus of any studies to date. Here, we have highlighted several potential factors that often vary between laboratories that could influence variation in reproductive success in domesticated zebra finches. We accept that there is always likely to be variation in the housing and husbandry practices of different laboratories.  
910 Research groups are often faced with constraints, and have to make strategic decisions on the basis of space or monetary considerations as well as following different opportunities to optimise local welfare considerations. Although more standardised

conditions across laboratories might be the most desired outcome, at the least we suggest that further consideration should be given to the way heterogeneity in conditions and protocols across different studies may affect outcomes and may provide insight into why laboratories can find conflicting results when approaching similar questions in the same species (Jennions, 1998; Seguin and Forstmeier, 2012).

Our review of the variation in reproductive success within and across laboratories highlights that studies of the captive zebra finch provide excellent opportunities to understand many aspects of reproductive biology, the sources of variation for fitness, and the mechanisms of the domestication process. We urge authors to bear these issues in mind when interpreting the findings of their studies on this important model species. We also believe that our findings, and future work on the questions we raise in this species, may provide broader insight into the issues that occur when animals are brought into captivity. This is relevant for fundamental animal-based research, but also for the breeding of animals in conservation programs that are increasingly called upon to establish source populations that provide organisms to re-establish or supplement wild populations.

Finally, we endorse the recommendation made by Kilkenny et al. (2010) in their paper outlining the ARRIVE guidelines for the reporting of information that will provide a greater degree of contextual information in a standardized way. Such information supporting future empirical zebra finch work will facilitate later attempts to review and analyse variation across studies.

### **Recommendation**

We propose that all future work on captive zebra finches includes the information itemised in Table 4. We suggest that this data could be presented in a Table provided

either in the Methods section or as Supplementary material. The information requested in Table 4 is heavily informed by the items outlined in Kilkenny et al.'s

940 (2010) ARRIVE Guidelines and their Table 2 with some additional information that is more relevant to the zebra finch (as discussed above). We advocate that the table be completed and used as is, rather than being modified with fields excluded or additional ones included. A standardised reporting form will facilitate future efforts to harvest and utilise the material presented.

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## Figure Legends

1505 **Figure 1.** In this illustrative example (not real data) the frequency distribution is illustrated showing the latency to lay after females are given the opportunity to breed. The population is divided into two categories (shaded black and grey). The categories might relate to a nominal trait such as breeding experience together (none or some); age (first year birds or older); or the categorical division of a continuous trait like bill colour. In this example we have illustrated an experimental cut-off at day 15, which if applied would bias the sample in favour of the category of dark-shaded individuals.

**Figure 2.** Mean number ( $\pm$  s.e.) of fledglings produced per successful brood across 29 females that were given the opportunity to breed repeatedly across a year, and that raised at least some fledglings successfully (7 females failed to fledge any offspring). All of these females were successful but there are significant differences in how many fledglings they produced when they fledged offspring (see results). All data were from the longitudinal study by Varian-Ramos et al (2014).

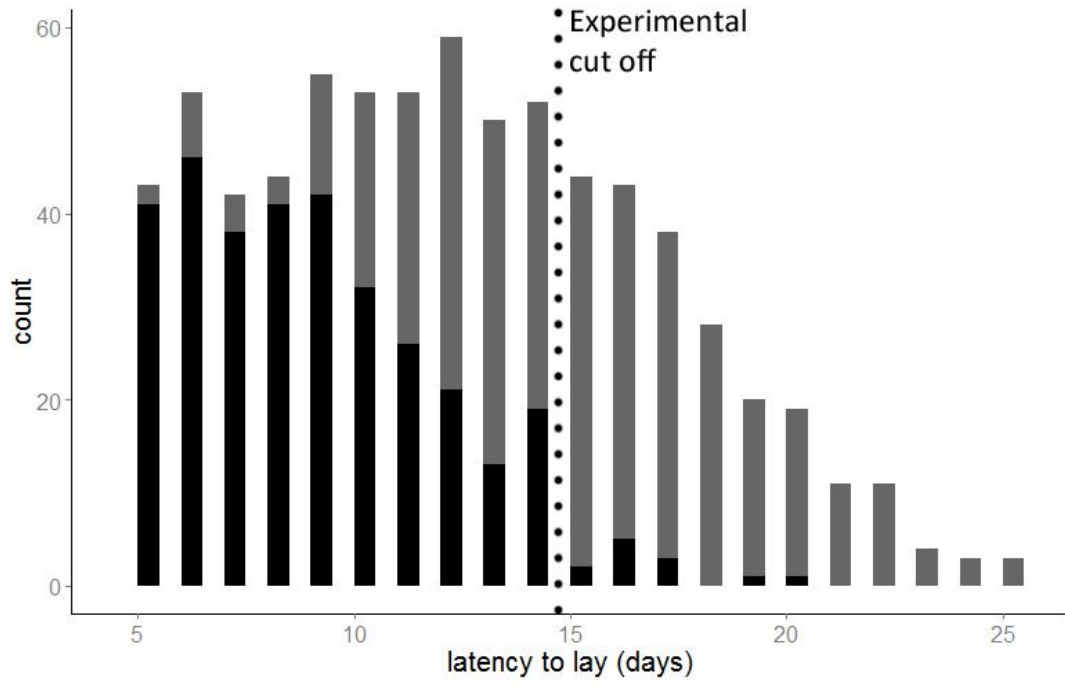
1520 **Figure 3.** The proportion of females ( $\pm$  s.e.) that successfully fledge offspring when given the opportunity to breed, across different institutions.

**Figure 4.** The reproductive output of females when given the opportunity to breed measured through two metrics; producing a clutch (a & b), and producing fledglings (c & d). Females were examined across two categories: either force-paired or free-choice of partner (a & c); domestic or wild origin (b & d).

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Figure 1

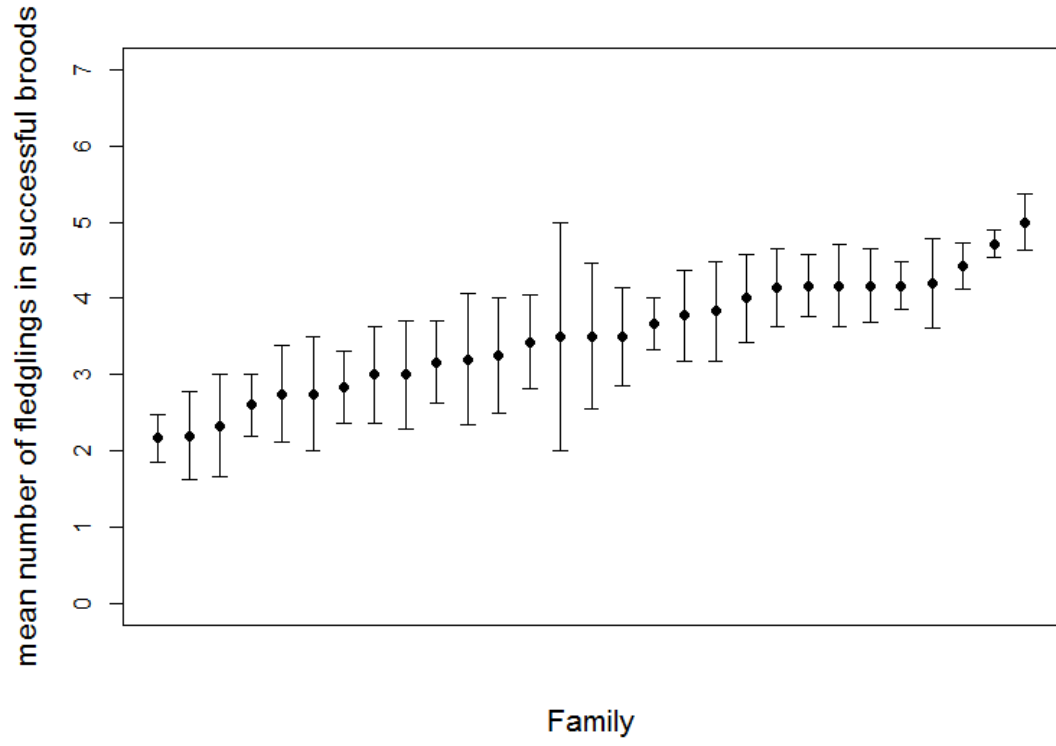
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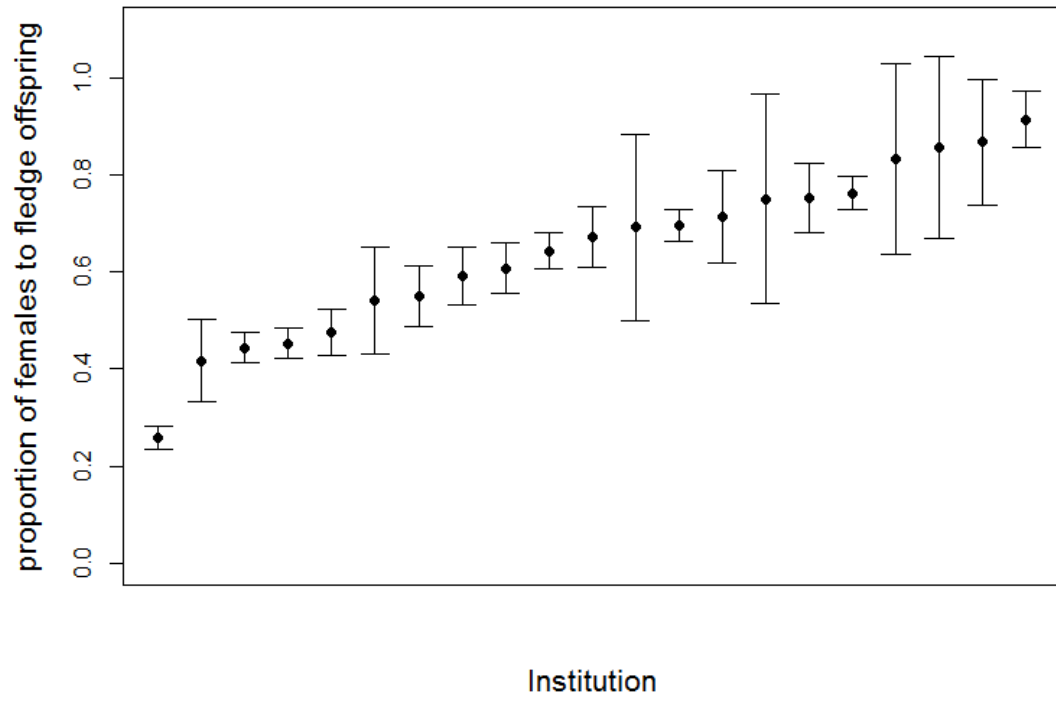
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Figure 2.



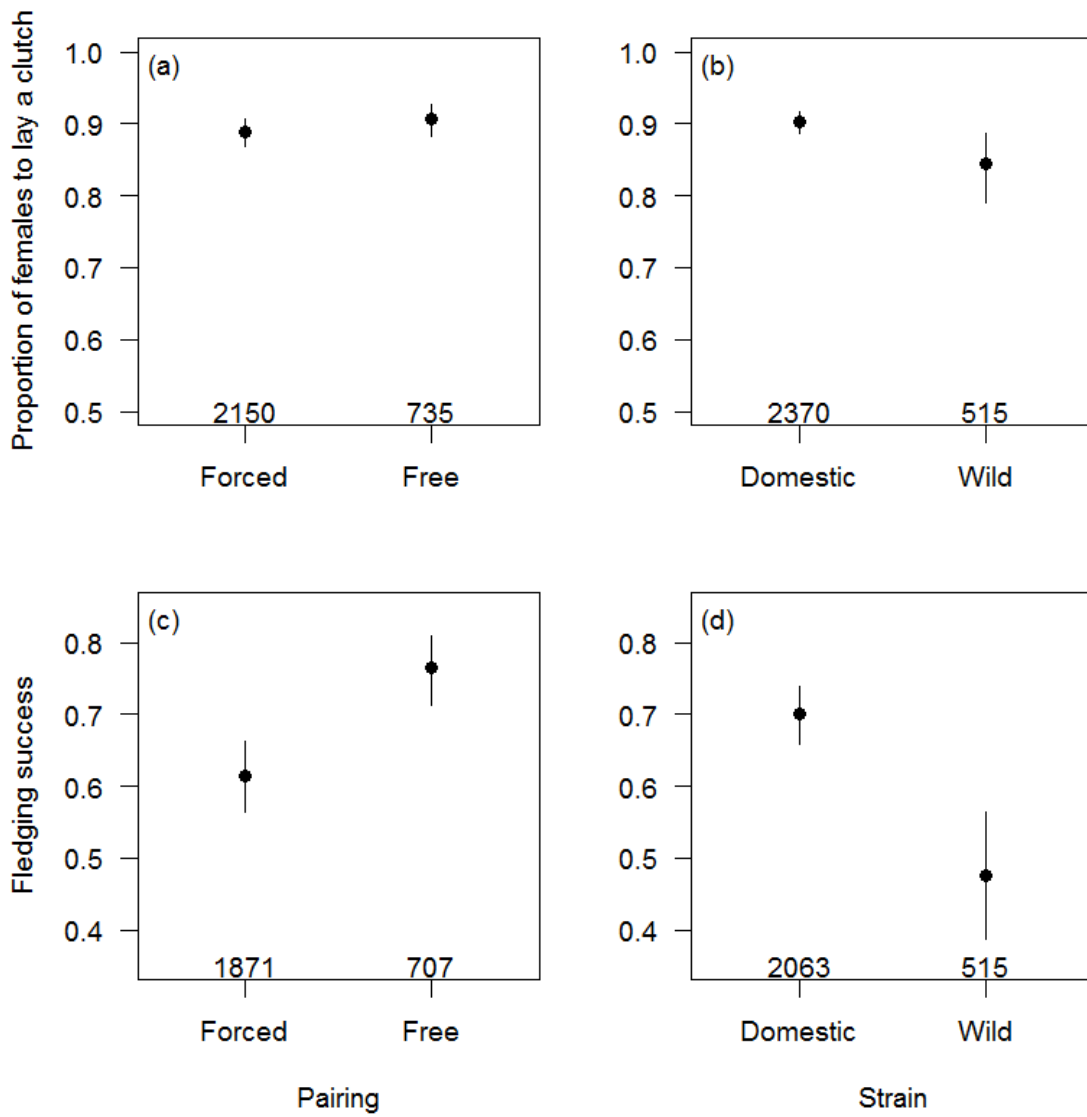
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Figure 3.



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1555 Figure 4.



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**Table 1.**

Population	Domestic (D) or Wild derived)	Indoor (I) or Outdoor (O)	Force paired or free choice <sup>b</sup>	N females <sup>a</sup>	N weeks given to breed <sup>b</sup>	N females produced a clutch	N females that produced fledglings	Average offspring fledged per successful brood <sup>c</sup>	Percentage of females that produced a clutch	Percentage of females that produced fledglings <sup>e</sup>	Author
Arizona State University, US	D	I	Free	24	32	17	10	3.60 ± 0.97	71	42	SSB
Bielefeld University, Germany	D	I	Forced	12	10	9	8	2.65 ± 0.99	75	66	BAC
Bielefeld University, Germany	D	I	Forced	15	10	13	8	2.75 ± 0.83	87	53	BAC
Bielefeld University, Germany	D	I	Forced	13	10	13	11	2.82 ± 0.93	100	84	BAC
Bielefeld University, Germany	W	I	Forced	136	20	118	52	3.04 ± 1.15	87	38	ETK,
Bielefeld University, Germany	W	I	Forced	20	16	16	8	2.88 ± 1.55	80	40	ETK,
Bristol University, UK	D	I	Forced	39	12	31	.	.	79	.	KAS KLB
Bristol University, UK	D	I	Forced	35	12	32	.	.	91	.	KAS KLB
Cornell University, US	D	I	Free	36	.	25	.	.	69	.	EA-R
Cornell University, US	D	I	Free	16	.	14	13	3.92 ± 1.44	88	81	EA-R
Cornell University, US	D	I	Free	64	.	.	31	2.68 ± 0.98	.	48	EA-R
Deakin University, Australia	W	O	Free	61	30	53	52	2.93 ± 1.13	87	85	MMM, KB
Deakin University, Australia	W	O	Free	37	7	35	23	2.72 ± 1.33	95	62	MMM, KB
Deakin University, Australia	W	O	Free	21	10	6	5	2.60 ± 0.89	29	24	MMM, KB
Instituto de Investigación en Recursos Cinegéticos, Spain	D	O	Free	41	33	40 in 177 attempts	37 in 137 out of 177 attempts	3.38 ± 1.24	98	90	AAR-H, CA-A
Instituto de Investigación en Recursos Cinegéticos, Spain	D	O	Free	44	27	42 in 198 attempts	42 in 133 out of 198 attempts	3.48 ± 1.41	95	95	AAR-H, CA-A
Instituto de Investigación en Recursos Cinegéticos, Spain	D	I	Forced	78	26	71 in 215 attempts	69 in 146 out of 215 attempts	3.24 ± 1.32	91	89	AAR-H, CA-A
Instituto de Investigación en Recursos Cinegéticos, Spain	D	I	Forced	80	15	79 in 98 attempts	74 in 78 out of 98 attempts	4.11 ± 1.39	99	93	AAR-H, CA-A
Jagiellonian University, Poland	D	I	Forced	64	8	52	46	3.87 ± 1.18	81	72	MC, JR
Jagiellonian University, Poland	W	I	Forced	39	5	26	3	1.66 ± 0.47	67	8	MC, JR
Lancaster University, UK	D	I	Forced	124	Variable	94	32	3.26 ± 1.21	76	26	MCM, IRH
Lund University, Sweden (Naïve; ca 9 months)	D	I	Forced	11	10	11	8	1.88 ± 0.64	100	73	AN, MT
Lund University, Sweden (Experienced; ca 20 months)	D	I	Forced	45	9.89 ± 2.49	45 <sup>g</sup>	32	2.34 ± 1.12	100	71	AN, MT
Lund University, Sweden <sup>h</sup> (Experienced)	D	I	Forced	13	5	12	-	-	92	-	AN, MT
Lund University, Sweden <sup>h</sup> (Naïve)	D	I	Forced	10	5	2	-	-	20	-	AN, MT
Macquarie University, Australia	W	O	Forced	40	10	34	21	3.14 ± 1.31	85	53	SCG
Macquarie University, Australia	W	O	Free	29	64	28	17	1.97 ± 0.68	97	59	LT, SCG, MCM
Macquarie University, Australia	D	O	Free	23	10	19	13	2.94 ± 1.09	83	56	LCM, SCG
Macquarie University, Australia	D	O	Forced	20	21	20	15	3.11 +/- 1.57	100	75	LH, SCG

(Naïve)												
Macquarie University, Australia	D	I	Forced	28	12	27	19	3.26 +/- 1.28	96	68	LH, SCG	
Max Planck Institute for Ornithology, Seewiesen, Germany (Domestic from Amsterdam)	D	I	Forced	56	81 ± 66	44	41	3.69 ± 1.36	79	73	SD	
Max Planck Institute for Ornithology, Seewiesen, Germany (Domestic from Sheffield; young females: 1.1yrs)	D	I	Forced	204	30.44 ± 14.61	199	175	2.67 ± 1.28	98	86	WF, MI	
Max Planck Institute for Ornithology, Seewiesen, Germany (Domestic from Sheffield; old females: 3.5yrs)	D	I	Forced	124	24.52 ± 8.07	102	72	2.46 ± 1.12	82	58	WF, MI	
Max Planck Institute for Ornithology, Seewiesen, Germany (outbred; 2yrs)	W	O	Forced	36	18.48 ± 7.44	31	28	.	86	.	WF, MI	
Max Planck Institute for Ornithology, Seewiesen, Germany (outbred; 0.8yrs)	W	O	Free (6:6)	78	13.62 ± 2.78	72	67	2.97 ± 1.45	92	86	WF, MI	
Max Planck Institute for Ornithology, Seewiesen, Germany (females inbred: F=0.25; 1.0yrs)	W	O	Free (6:6)	18	13.03 ± 1.88	16	10	2.42 ± 0.96	89	56	WF, MI	
Queen Mary University of London, UK	D	I	Free	34	18	33	29	2.86 ± 1.36	97	85	DFC, MM	
Queen Mary University of London, UK	D	I	Free	11	8	10	10	3.30 ± 0.95	91	91	DFC, MM	
Simon Fraser University, Canada (Experienced)	D		Forced	137	15 days to lay	129	66	3.34 ± 1.58	94	51	TDW	
Simon Fraser University, Canada (Naïve)	D		Forced	73	15 days to lay	56	29	3.85 ± 1.46	77	54	TDW	
University of British Columbia, Canada	D	I	Forced	21	6-12	21	18	3.05 ± 1.76	100	86	NHP	
University of Exeter, UK (2007)	D	I	Forced	42 females	2-3	33	.	.	79	.	WS, NR	
University of Exeter, UK (2008)	D	I	Forced	42 females	12 days to lay	36	.	.	86	.	WS, NR	
University of Glasgow, UK (2006, Naïve)	D	I	Forced	26	4 weeks to lay	25	17	3.76 ± 1.44	96	65	DH, RN	
University of Glasgow, UK (2007, Naïve)	D	I	Forced	34	10 weeks to lay	30	13	2.77 ± 1.48	88	45 (N=29; 5 clutches laid on floor were destroyed)	DH, RN	
University of Glasgow, UK (2009, Naïve)	D	I	Forced	38	8 weeks to lay	33	-	-	87	-	DH, RN	

University of Glasgow, UK (age ca 7 months)	D	I	Forced	117	12.87 ± 2.09	116	98	3.28 ± 1.23	99	84	VM, WB, PM
University of Glasgow, UK (age ca 43 months)	D	I	Forced	27	4.12 ± 1.85	19	3	1.67 ± 1.15	70	11	VM, WB, PM
University of Glasgow, UK	D	I	Forced	101	14	81	65	3.45 ± 1.14	80	64	KAS, PM
University of Groningen, Netherlands	D	I	Forced	351 females in 1255 attempts	7.29 ± 4.38	332 females; 1132 of the 1255 attempts	228 females; 530 of the 1132 attempts with clutch	3.06 ± 1.50	95	65 overall; 42 attempts	MB, SV
University of Groningen, Netherlands	D	O	Free	52	112 ± 72.72	50 in 372 attempts with clutches	50 in 367 out of 372 attempts with clutches	3.42 ± 1.79	96	96	MB, SV
University of Groningen, Netherlands	D	I	Forced	43	6	33	32	2.0 ± 1.18	77	74	KAS SV
University of Leiden, Netherlands - 2004	D	I	Forced	30 <sup>i</sup>	10	16 <sup>k</sup>	.	-	53	-	MJH, KR
University of Leiden, Netherlands - 2005	D	I	Forced	30 <sup>i</sup>	10	22 <sup>k</sup>	.	-	73	-	MJH, KR
University of Leiden, Netherlands - 2005	D	I	Forced <sup>j</sup>	11	10	11	8	4.00 ± 1.58	100	73	MJH, KR
University of Leiden, Netherlands - 2006	D	I	Forced <sup>j</sup>	13	10	12 <sup>k</sup>	5	3.20 ± 1.10	92	38	MJH, KR
University of Lyon/Saint-Etienne, France 2011 (Naïve)	D	I	Free	53	8	30	22	2.45 ± 1.08	57	42	MMM, CV
University of Lyon/Saint-Etienne, France 2012 (Experienced)	D	I	Free	45	8	43	36	2.95 ± 1.31	96	80	ICAB, CV
University of Lyon/Saint-Etienne, France 2013	D	I	Free	14	4	13	.	.	93	.	IB, ASV, CV
University of Lyon/Saint-Etienne, France 2013 (Experienced)	D	I	Free	18	4	15	.	.	83	.	IB, ASV, CV
University of Lyon/Saint-Etienne, France 2013 (Experienced)	D	I	Free	12	4	12	.	.	100	.	IB, ASV, CV
University of Lyon/Saint-Etienne, France 2013 (Experienced)	D	I	Free	12	4	11	.	.	92	.	IB, ASV, CV
University of Montana	D	I	Free	12	31	9	9	4.53 ± 1.20	75	75	OLC
University of St. Andrews, UK	D	I	Forced	24	4	24	13	3.00 ± 1.41	100	54	NB
University of St. Andrews, UK	D	I	Forced	26	10	24	18	3.00 ± 1.14	92	69	LG, IB, SH
University of St. Andrews, UK	D	I	Forced	9	9	7	6	3.33 ± 1.21	78	67	LG, IB, SH
University of St. Andrews, UK	D	I	Forced	10	10	8	8	3.38 ± 1.18	80	80	LG, IB, SH
University of St. Andrews, UK	D	I	Free (12:12)	25	8	24	23	3.57 ± 1.38	96	92	KAS MGE
University of St. Andrews, UK	D	I	Free	19	4	19	17	3.06 ± 1.14	100	89	KAS BCT

University of Western Ontario, Canada	D	I	(12:12) Forced	13	4	10	9	2.75 ± 1.58	77	69	DAP
William and Mary College, US	D	I	Forced	18	52	18 in 212 attempts	15	1.39 ± 1.99	100	83 overall; 39% of attempts	CVR, JPS

<sup>a</sup>The number of females that were given the opportunity to breed including those that died during the experiment

<sup>b</sup>The number of weeks (roughly) between the establishment of the breeding opportunity and the point when the opportunity/ experiment / data gathering was brought to a close

<sup>c</sup>This is the average number of fledglings per successful brood (i.e. only including broods with at least one fledgling); the standard deviation (SD) refers to the variance between clutches (excluding broods with zero fledglings)

<sup>e</sup>The percentage out of all females given the opportunity

<sup>g</sup>All females produced at least one clutch, but 9 out of the 45 females (20%) produced clutches in which all eggs were infertile

<sup>h</sup>Time from the start of the experiment to clutch initiation differed between experienced (mean = 11.5 ± 2.0 d) and naïve birds (mean = 13.0 ± 3.0 d), as did clutch size (experienced: 4.0 ± 0.25; naïve: 2.0 ± 0.0 eggs). Females, but not males, in the naïve pairs had been housed in outdoors aviaries prior to the experiment. All other birds had been housed indoors.

<sup>i</sup>Females (n=19 and 16 for 2004 and 2005, respectively) for which breeding was unsuccessful after ca. 1 month (no chicks) were given a new male.

<sup>j</sup>Birds first participated in mate preference test, then one male + one female of preferred or non-preferred category were paired

<sup>k</sup>The remaining females (but two) also laid eggs but outside the nest box.

**Table 2.** Summary data from 33 females that were given freedom to breed over a twelve month period in cages at the facility at William and Mary College, US (ordered by the number of fledglings produced). Eggs were removed 21 days after the last egg was laid if they had failed to hatch. Offspring were removed from their parents once they had reached independence. The data have been ordered by the number of fledglings produced.

<b>Female ID</b>	<b>No. clutches</b>	<b>No. eggs</b>	<b>No. chicks</b>	<b>No. fledge</b>	<b>% eggs hatch</b>	<b>% chicks fledge</b>
99	16	57	0	0	0.0	0.0
121	14	70	5	0	7.1	0.0
300	13	33	0	0	0.0	0.0
1555	14	71	5	0	7.0	0.0
237	15	72	11	7	15.3	63.6
778	4	18	10	7	55.6	70.0
206	13	68	29	11	42.6	37.9
295	9	70	23	11	32.9	47.8
1000	9	29	14	11	48.3	78.6
1744	9	50	17	11	34.0	64.7
1741	10	62	16	12	25.8	75.0
128	11	74	23	13	31.1	56.5
257	8	38	16	13	42.1	81.3
771	6	25	23	13	92.0	56.5
288	14	77	15	14	19.5	93.3
1579	8	68	22	14	32.4	63.6
115	8	39	19	15	48.7	78.9
1825	8	45	18	15	40.0	83.3
1682	11	56	25	16	44.6	64.0
1565	7	30	17	17	56.7	100.0
1941	6	22	20	19	90.9	95.0
264	11	69	26	21	37.7	80.8
218	11	68	26	23	38.2	88.5
198	8	44	24	24	54.5	100.0
254	8	39	30	25	76.9	83.3
1157	7	36	34	25	94.4	73.5
200	6	31	30	25	96.8	83.3
1828	6	30	28	25	93.3	89.3
310	9	47	30	29	63.8	96.7
355	11	74	33	30	44.6	90.9
1561	8	73	40	31	54.8	77.5
1771	7	35	34	33	97.1	97.1
533	11	50	41	34	82.0	82.9



**Table 3.** An example of the variation in the housing, density, and dietary supplements in recent studies of captive zebra finch.

Institution	Housing	Housing Size (cm)	Density (pairs)	Light	Temp (C)	Humidity (%)	Food Supplement	Reference
Arizona State Univ., USA	Cage	39 x 28 x 21	1	14L:10D				Butler et al., (2011)
Cornell Univ., USA	Aviary	80 x 190 x 100	6-8	14L:10D	22	30-70%	Chopped up hard boiled egg with shells on	Schweitzer et al., (2014)
Glasgow Univ., UK	Cage	60 x 45 x 40	1	16L:8D	22		Greens, egg	Gorman and Nager (2003)
Lancaster Univ., UK	Cage	120 x 45 x 40	1	16L:8D	20		Egg and vitamins	Mainwaring et al., (2012)
Lund Univ., Sweden	Cage	32 x 48 x 32	1	14L:10D	18-24		Egg food (Witte Molen, the Netherlands), greens	Tobler et al., (2013)
Macquarie Univ., Australia	Aviary	1000 x 800 x 250	20	natural	natural	natural	Sprouted Seed	Gilby et al., (2013)
Max Planck, Germany	Aviary	200 x 500 x 250	1	natural + supplement to 14L:10D	natural	natural	Greens, egg, and vitamins	Ihle et al., (2012)
	Cage	40 x 40 x 40	1	12L:12D				Woodgate et al. (2014)
	Cage	100 x 50 x 50	1	12L:12D			Vitamins, egg food	Derégnaucourt et al., (2012)
Princeton Univ., USA	Cage	55 x 25 x 25	4	8L:16D	21			Perfito et al. (2006)
Sheffield Univ., UK	Cage	50 x 45 x 46	1	14L:10D	~20		Egg, soaked seed	Birkhead et al. (2006b)
Simon Frazer Univ., Canada	Cage	61 x 46 x 41	1	14L:10D	19-23	35-55	Vitamins and egg food	Willie et al. (2010)
	Cage	61 x 46 x 41	1	14L:10D	7-21 (exp range)	75		Salvante et al. (2007)
Univ. California-Davis, USA	Cage	46 x 46 x 46	1	16L:8D	~21	40-70	Egg	Rochester et al., (2008)
St Andrews Univ., UK	Cage	228 x 40 x 40	1	14L:10D	19-22	40-60	Eggs, greens	Williamson et al. (2008)
Groningen Univ., Netherlands	Aviary	320 x 150 x 225	12	natural	natural	natural	Tropical seed mix and fortified canary food	Simons et al. (2012)
Jagiellonian Univ., Poland	Cage	75 x 30 x 40	1	13L:11D	20±2		Egg including the shell, vitamins	Rutkowska et al. (2012)
Bielefeld, Germany	Cage	83 x 30 x 39	1	14L:10D	~24	25	Eggs and soaked seeds (during breeding)	Krause & Naguib (2011)
IREC*, Spain	Cage	60 x 40 x 40	1	16L:8D	21-23		Crumbled bread mixed	Romero-Haro & Alonso-Alvarez (2014)
Univ. Exeter, UK	Cage	120 x 45 x 40	1	14.5L:9.5D	19.0		Egg supplement	Schuett et al. (2011a)
Univ. St Etienne, France	Aviary	650 x 550 x 3500	6 – 54	14L:10D	15-30		Egg, salad, vitamins	Mariette et al. (2013)
Univ. Leiden, NL	Cage	80 x 40 x 40	1	13.30L:10.30D	20-22	35-50	Tropical seed mixture, egg food thrice weekly, millet branches twice weekly, germinated seeds once weekly	Holveck & Riebel (2010)

**Table 4.** A proposed set of data to be completed in all future publications reporting on work focused on the zebra finch.

Aspect	Item	Detail
Study Design	N experimental groups	
	N control groups	
Numbers used	Nature of replication	e.g. whole experiment was conducted twice
	N adult males used	(count all individuals that were initially used)
	N adult females used	
	N males with opportunity to reproduce	
	N females with opportunity to reproduce	
	N females that laid eggs	
	N females that had chicks	
	N females that fledged young	
	N males for which data is presented	
	N females for which data is presented	
Experimental Procedures	N individuals that died or removed	e.g. one bird was removed after injuring a wing
	Other reasons for missing data	e.g. some hormone samples not assayed
	Nature of any experimental manipulation	Specify details (i.e. testosterone implant)
	Nature of any invasive work	e.g. 30µl blood sample during chick rearing
	Duration given for breeding opportunity	e.g. in weeks
Experimental Animals	Domesticated or wild stock	Domesticated or recent Wild origin
	Source population	Recent origin of stock (i.e. UK domestic birds)
	Variety	wild type plumage or colour morph
	Age	less than a year, or greater than a year, or mix
	Average mass of adults	mass in g
	Prior Breeding experience	yes/ no (or mix)
	Allocation of breeding partners	e.g. force paired or free choice
	Any bias in selection of individuals	e.g. only birds with breeding experience used
Housing and husbandry	Cage/ aviary size	width x breadth x height (m)
	N individuals per cage	
	Sex ratio present in each cage	e.g. 0.5 (as many males as females)
	Food provided ad libitum	e.g. dry seed finch mix
	Supplemental food provided	type and frequency
	Any restriction in provision of food	e.g. seed provided mixed with husk
	Type of nest site provided	e.g. wooden nest box, woven basket
	Nesting material provided	e.g. Hessian fibre, coconut fibre, feathers, grass
	Environmental enrichment or shelter	e.g. shelter in 1/3 of cage
	Indoors or outside	
	Temperature control	e.g. constant 25 degrees, or local outside conditions
	Humidity control	e.g. 50%
	Light/ dark cycle	e.g. 14L :10D
	Results - baseline data	Average clutch size
Average number of fledglings		mean ± standard deviation (excluding zeros)