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The erratic and contingent progression of research on territoriality: a case study.

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ABSTRACT

Our understanding of animal mating systems has changed dramatically with the advent of molecular methods to determine individuals' reproductive success. But why are older behavioral descriptions and newer genetic descriptions of mating systems often seemingly inconsistent? We argue that a potentially important reason for such inconsistencies is a research trajectory rooted in early studies that were equivocal and overreaching, followed by studies that accepted earlier conclusions at face value and assumed, rather than tested, key ideas about animal mating systems. We illustrate our argument using *Anolis* lizards, whose social behavior has been studied for nearly a century. A dominant view emerging from this behavioral research was that anoles display strict territorial polygyny, where females mate with just the one male in whose territory they reside. However, all genetic evidence suggests that females frequently mate with multiple males. We trace this mismatch to early studies that concluded that anoles are territorial based on limited data. Subsequent research assumed territoriality implicitly or explicitly, resulting in studies that were unlikely to uncover or consider important any evidence of anoles' departures from strict territorial polygyny. Thus, descriptions of anole behavior were largely led away from predicting a pattern of female multiple mating. We end by considering the broader implications of such erratic trajectories for the study of animal mating systems, and posit that precise definitions, renewed attention to natural history, and explicitly questioning assumptions made while collecting behavioral observations will allow us to move towards a fuller understanding of animal mating systems.

KEY WORDS: *Anolis*, history, mating system, territorial, polygyny.

1 INTRODUCTION

2 Variation among species in social organization and mating system has long been of interest to
3 naturalists and evolutionary biologists. Why are some species monogamous, others polygynous, and
4 yet others polyandrous? Why do some species exhibit a wide range of reproductive and social
5 behavior? Understanding the selective pressures driving such variation requires quantifying the
6 extent to which different behaviors lead to reproductive success. For decades, behavioral ecologists
7 could not quantify reproductive success directly, and used proxies such as the number of observed
8 mates or offspring produced (Emlen and Oring 1977; Klug 2011). Inferring reproductive success
9 from such proxies involved making assumptions about species' biology. For example, using the
10 number of mates as a proxy for male fitness meant assuming that females do not vary in fecundity,
11 and using the number of eggs in the nest of a breeding pair as a proxy for the male's fitness meant
12 assuming that the female does not engage in extra pair copulations or that occasional extra pair
13 mates are unlikely to sire offspring.

14 However, in the last three decades, the advent of molecular means of assessing parentage has
15 allowed direct and precise measurements of reproductive fitness, enabling novel insight into the
16 complex landscapes of sexual selection acting both before and after copulation (e.g. Coltman et al.
17 2002; Birkhead 2010; Fisher and Hoekstra 2010). In many cases, these molecular measures have
18 demonstrated that what we thought we knew about reproductive success was mistaken (e.g. Avise et
19 al. 2002; Griffith et al. 2002; Uller and Olsson 2008; Boomsma et al. 2009). Specifically, biologists
20 have discovered that the assumptions linking behavioral proxies to reproductive success were often
21 not met. For example, females can vary in fecundity (Clutton-Brock 2009), may mate outside of
22 observed social bonds (Griffith et al. 2002), and can store sperm, allowing for cryptic post-
23 copulatory female mate choice (reviewed in Eberhard 1996; Orr and Brennan 2015). In such cases,
24 the reason for the mismatch between behavioral and genetic descriptions of mating systems is that,
25 despite intensive field studies, researchers were yet to observe important components of a
26 population's mating system.

27 In this paper, we argue that mismatches between behavioral and genetic descriptions of mating
28 systems can arise not only from undiscovered biology but also from the erratic and contingent
29 progression of scientific research. In such a progression, poorly-supported conclusions from the
30 earliest studies are inadvertently reified by later researchers, who, without examining the evidence for

31 earlier conclusions, assume rather than test key hypotheses. Breaking away from such a progression
32 of research is not inevitable, because it requires reinvestigating ideas believed to be true.
33 Consequently, relatively unsupported corpora of knowledge about species' social behavior and
34 mating systems may remain undiagnosed.

35 We illustrate our argument using *Anolis* lizards, a model system for evolutionary ecology in which
36 social behavior and mating systems have been studied for nearly a century (reviewed in Losos 2009).
37 These decades of behavioral research yielded the near-unanimous conclusion that anoles are
38 territorial and polygynous. In a chapter reviewing behavioral descriptions of *Anolis* mating systems,
39 Losos (2009) concluded that “as a rule, male anoles are highly territorial.” Elsewhere, some of the
40 best studied species in this genus have been described, based on behavioral observations, as
41 matching “the paradigm of a territorial polygynous species” (Schoener and Schoener 1982). In what
42 remains one of the best studies of anole social behavior in the wild, Rand (1967a), described their
43 mating system thus:

44 “...the lizards live together more or less permanently and the females usually mate with a
45 single male (the male with the one or more females that have home ranges within his).”

46 Tokarz (1998), describing the prevailing views from behavioral data on anole mating systems, said
47 that it is “generally believed that in territorial species of lizards, females that reside within a given
48 male's territory would have relatively few opportunities to mate with more than one male.” Stamps
49 (1995) summarized their mating system as follows:

50 “During the breeding season, male anoles defend territories that enclose the home ranges of
51 adult females, and defend these mating territories against conspecific males. Although DNA
52 paternity studies are not yet available for anoles, males probably father most of the
53 hatchlings produced by the females within their territory.”

54 Together, these quotes help to delineate the prevailing view of anole spatial and social organization
55 based on behavioral data. Under this view, which we describe as “strict territorial polygyny” and
56 illustrate in Fig. 1, males have the potential to mate with one or more females within their territory,
57 but females mate with only the one male in whose territory they are contained. If these territories are
58 maintained for the duration of the breeding season or longer, as suggested by Rand (1967a), then all
59 of a female's offspring are expected to be sired by a single male.

Territorial Polygyny in *Anolis* Lizards

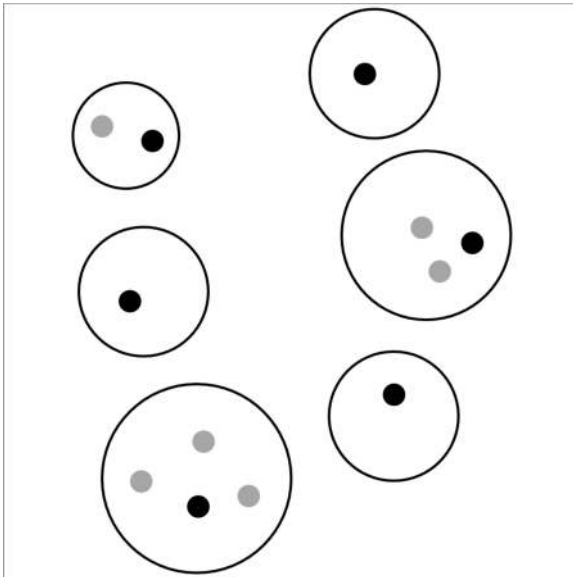


Figure 1. A pictorial representation of strict territorial polygyny. i.e. males (black) may mate with multiple females (grey) within their territories (black circles), but females mate with just the one male in whose territory they are contained. If this spatial organization is maintained for the duration of the breeding season, then all of a female's offspring will be sired by just one male.

60 However, all the genetic evidence collected subsequent to these descriptions indicates that, as in
61 many other reptiles and amphibians (Uller and Olsson 2008), females anoles' offspring are
62 frequently sired by multiple males; therefore, the prediction about strict territorial polygyny in *Anolis*
63 lizards was not met (reviewed below; Passek 2002; Calsbeek et al. 2007; Johnson 2007; Harrison
64 2014). Quite to the contrary, female multiple mating is common in anoles, calling into question the
65 behavioral descriptions predicting that female anoles will mate with just one male. Nevertheless,
66 anoles continue to be described as territorial and polygynous (e.g. Calsbeek et al. 2007; Losos 2009;
67 Simon 2011; Flanagan and Bevier 2014; Bush et al. 2016).

68 At the heart of this discrepancy between behavioral predictions and genetic data on female mating
69 patterns in anoles is the concept of territoriality. Though territoriality is central to the behavioral
70 descriptions of mating systems in many animals (Emlen and Oring 1977; Fitzpatrick and Wellington
71 1982; Lott 1984), the term itself is fraught with inconsistency and imprecision across different
72 studies. Most often, the term "territorial" is used to describe individuals that defend an exclusive
73 area in a fixed spatial location (Tinbergen 1957; Stamps 1977; Martins 1994; Maher and Lott 1995),
74 indicating that the definition of territoriality incorporates two features: site fidelity (the tendency of
75 an individual to remain in or return to a fixed spatial location) and exclusivity (the tendency of an
76 individual to exclude other individuals, particularly conspecifics of the same sex, from the area they
77 occupy). Under the strictest interpretation of territoriality in *Anolis* (Fig. 1), females mate with just
78 one male; however, more relaxed interpretations of territoriality incorporating some variation in site
79 fidelity, exclusivity, or both, can be consistent with female multiple mating. Imprecise and changing

80 interpretations of territoriality across studies of anole social behavior may therefore have played an
81 important role in producing the mismatch between behavioral and genetic descriptions of their
82 mating system.

83 In this paper, we trace the evidence for territoriality, and for the relationship between territoriality
84 and the expectation of polygynous mating patterns, in *Anolis* lizards. To this end, we examine nearly
85 a century of research on their mating systems (see the Appendix for a list of papers considered). Our
86 goal is to discern *how* we came to expect that female anoles mate with just one male when in fact
87 they frequently mate with multiple males. Specifically, we examine if this research was somehow set
88 on a path towards reifying a particular conception of territoriality that is inconsistent with
89 widespread female multiple mating, leading to the erroneous expectation that anoles show strict
90 territorial polygyny (Fig. 1). Throughout, we highlight whether the definitions and interpretations of
91 territoriality employed by different researchers include site fidelity, exclusivity, or both; further, we
92 pay attention to whether variation in site fidelity and exclusivity that could have explained female
93 multiple mating remained undetected or was otherwise ignored.

94 We show that current ideas about anole social structure originated in studies whose scope and
95 content is not commensurate with the weight they currently bear. These equivocal demonstrations
96 of territorial behavior in early studies were seemingly taken at face value by later researchers, whose
97 research included implicit and explicit assumptions about the existence of territoriality.
98 Consequently, the design of later studies was often such that these studies were unable to detect
99 variation in site fidelity and exclusivity. Moreover, even when later researchers found evidence for
100 departures from strict territorial polygyny, this evidence was often deemphasized or ignored during
101 data analysis and in the discussion of results. Given that mismatches between behavioral and genetic
102 descriptions of mating systems are taxonomically widespread, our historical investigation reveals
103 concerns that are likely not unique to *Anolis*. Indeed, the extent to which such erratic progressions of
104 research afflict our understanding of animal behavior remains entirely unknown, and we urge
105 researchers studying other organisms or questions to consider if the issues we highlight might apply
106 to their fields of study as well. We conclude by considering the broader consequences of our case
107 study for future research on animal mating systems.

108 THE EARLIEST STUDIES OF ANOLE SOCIAL INTERACTIONS

109 The first study of lizard mating systems—Noble and Bradley (1933)—combined a review of existing
110 natural history literature with laboratory observations on a taxonomically wide variety of lizard
111 species. Both the lizards' survival (“less than a year” for five species of *Anolis*, which typically live for
112 at least a year even in the wild; Losos 2009) and their behavior indicated that the conditions under
113 which these lizards were housed were likely stressful. Nearly half of all instances of copulatory
114 behavior observed in *Anolis* by Noble and Bradley (1933) was between males. While this behavior
115 was recognized as unusual, it was nonetheless interpreted as supporting territoriality—because
116 lizards frequently engage in male-male copulations only in the lab, in nature these male-male
117 copulations must be prevented by *something*.

118 This “something” was concluded to be the maintenance of exclusive territories, as evidenced by
119 males' propensity for aggression toward one another. Noble and Bradley (1933) remarked that
120 “males tend to fight, and would, no doubt, tend to mark out territories for themselves.” Later, they
121 said, about lizards in general, that “the only mechanism which is present to prevent males from
122 copulating with other males as frequently as with females is that males when meeting each other
123 during the breeding season tend to fight. The result is that males tend to occupy discrete territories,
124 which are difficult to recognize in the laboratory but which have been described in the field.” The
125 field studies of *Anolis* behavior referenced by Noble and Bradley (1933) only describe male-male
126 aggression, and not site fidelity by either males or females. Thus, the existence of territoriality in
127 anoles was first concluded on the basis of male-male aggression.

128 Evans (1936a, b, c) also concluded from laboratory experiments that male and female *Anolis* lizards
129 maintain territories. Evans (1936a, c) detailed a weight-based social hierarchy among male *Anolis*
130 *carolinensis* based on their aggressive interactions, which were described as the “urge to hold
131 territory.” Again, conclusions were extrapolated from cages, in which animals were kept at high
132 densities, to the field. For example, Evans (1936c) suggested, without reference to field data, that
133 “the behavior of caged male *Anolis* is probably a modification of the behavior in the field. Under
134 natural conditions when a strange male approached a particular territory which is in possession of
135 another, a fight results...the beaten male retreats, leaving the victor in possession of the territory.”

136 Evans' (1938a) subsequent field study was the first systematic research on anole territorial behavior
137 in nature. Watching a population of *Anolis sagrei* for about a month, Evans (1938a) concluded that

138 “*Anolis sagrei* exhibits a strong urge to select and defend a definite circumscribed territory.” Though
139 this conclusion was largely based on observations of male-male aggression, Evans (1938a) also said
140 that “proof that the species is territorial is given by the fact that the same individual has been
141 observed many times on consecutive days upon a particular territory.” This dual approach indicates
142 that Evans (1938a) included site fidelity as well as exclusivity in his conception of territoriality.
143 Fortuitously, Evans (1938a) included transcriptions of all field notes taken during this study, which
144 reveal that he concluded site fidelity based on a mean of three distinct observations per lizard.
145 Though his systematic field-based approach was certainly path-breaking for its time, three
146 observations made within a short period relative to the full breeding season (*A. sagrei* breed for at
147 least six months; Tokarz et al. 1998) cannot be considered sufficient to demonstrate persistent site
148 fidelity.

149 Critique from Evans (1938a, b) prompted Greenberg and Noble (1944) to modify the conditions
150 under which observations were conducted in the lab—they housed and observed *A. carolinensis*
151 lizards in larger cages and greenhouses, up to 5 m × 5 m. But these larger arenas may still have been
152 too small to assess if the multiple males they contained each maintained exclusive areas and showed
153 site fidelity. The authors mentioned that “an active adult male usually succeeded in dominating the
154 entire cage,” which implies that males in these cages did not maintain exclusive areas, potentially an
155 artefact of a small arena size. The conditions in the cage were nonetheless described as “near-normal
156 competitive conditions.”

157 Oliver’s (1948) methods for observing *A. sagrei* in the Bahamas were similar to Evans’ (1938a)—17
158 lizards in an area approximately 4 × 20 m were “marked and casually observed for a period of
159 slightly less than one month.” And though Oliver (1948) “planned to present elsewhere at a later
160 date a detailed account of the individual and social activity of this species,” to the best of our
161 knowledge, no such account was published. Oliver (1948) summarized his results as showing that
162 “definite territories are maintained and defended by both sexes.” However, the territories he
163 described were not exclusive, because “within the area occupied by each large male there was a
164 smaller male,” and it is not clear if these smaller males were reproductively active or not. His
165 conception of territoriality in anoles was therefore potentially consistent with female multiple
166 mating.

167 Approximately contemporaneous natural history studies described anoles as territorial based on far
168 less evidence. For example, Thompson (1954) observed a single male *A. carolinensis* displaying at a
169 “jar containing about a dozen swifts (*Sceloporus undulatus*) that I had collected the day before,” as well
170 as at a skink, and concluded that “during the entire performance it seemed that the anolis [sic] might
171 have been trying to hold or establish a territory.” In sum, these early studies of anole social behavior
172 all readily described these lizards as territorial, despite presenting limited data that were insufficient
173 to demonstrate site fidelity and did not always demonstrate exclusivity.

174 **THE FIRM ESTABLISHMENT OF TERRITORIAL POLYGYNY**

175 In the decades that followed these early studies, territoriality remained a frequently used description
176 for anole space use behavior and social interactions; the next watershed moments in this research
177 trajectory came when these descriptions grew to explicitly include a polygynous mating system.

178 In what remains one of the most detailed studies of *Anolis* territoriality, A. Stanley Rand spent
179 almost a year observing the movement patterns and social interactions of *Anolis lineatopus* in Jamaica.
180 This yielded a paper in which Rand (1967a) fully expressed the tension between adhering to a
181 territorial framework on one hand, and observing variation in site fidelity and exclusivity on the
182 other. Nonetheless, Rand (1967a, b) proposed a tight link between territoriality and polygyny based
183 on the idea that males maintain exclusive mating access to females.

184 At least part of Rand’s (1967a) conception of territoriality was derived from earlier research on
185 anoles. For example, he cited Evans (1938a) in describing the pattern of “a male with a home range
186 shared by one or several females that are his mates” in *A. sagrei*. He also suggested that *A. lineatopus*
187 and *A. sagrei* have similar social behavior based on Oliver’s (1948) description of the latter as
188 territorial. But Rand (1967a) also demonstrated the complications of fitting messy field data into this
189 territorial framework.

190 These complications are best captured by Rand’s (1967a) descriptions of these lizards’ site fidelity.
191 First, he stated that “an *A. lineatopus* seldom travels far and most of the area it visits is visible to it
192 from its usual perch.” But following this he describes how, in calculating the area over which an
193 individual lizard is active, he “omitted the occasional visits that certain *A. lineatopus* made to perches
194 well outside of the area where they were usually seen.” Thus departures from site fidelity that may
195 have been reproductively important were excluded while attempting to establish site fidelity.

196 A similar dissonance was also evident when Rand (1967a) first stated that “the activity range of an
197 adult *A. lineatopus* seems relatively permanent and certainly shows no seasonal variation” but then
198 described data that may have suggested otherwise. Documenting the locations of 16 adult males in
199 one of his field sites, he noted that these males were seen multiple times while sampling in
200 September and October but only seven of these—less than half—were still present in the site five
201 months later. Rand (1967a) acknowledged that “of those nine which had not been seen in March,
202 two were dead, but it is possible that the other seven had shifted their areas outside of the study
203 plot.” In other words, Rand (1967a) considered that almost half of the adult males in this site may
204 have shown seasonal departures from site fidelity, but nevertheless concluded that these lizards
205 remain in fixed locations permanently.

206 Rand’s (1967a) thoughts on exclusivity were complex, illustrated by his statement that “individual
207 aggression may be expressed as either of two types: dominance hierarchies and territoriality...The
208 behavior of *A. lineatopus* can not be assigned to either of these categories because it has important
209 aspects of each of them.” He went on to explain that while “every *A. lineatopus* holds a territory,
210 defending it against neighbors of the same size...each is a member of a straight line dominance
211 hierarchy that consists of all those anoles of different sizes whose home ranges overlap its own
212 home range.” Because large as well as small males were observed mating, such a spatial organization
213 appears inconsistent with the idea that males maintain exclusive mating access to the females within
214 their territory.

215 Despite these dissonances and complexities, Rand (1967a) unequivocally linked territoriality to
216 polygyny, by proposing that male territoriality is adaptive in *Anolis* because it allows males to
217 maintain exclusive mating access to females:

218 “I think the general occurrence of aggressive behavior and the spacing out it produces in all
219 sizes of *A. lineatopus* can be explained by...ecological advantages...but the greater
220 aggressiveness of the adult males requires additional explanation. I think the explanation lies
221 in a function of territory discussed at length by Tinbergen (1957), which demonstrates the
222 selective advantage that is conferred on an adult male if he can insure himself exclusive
223 mating rights to certain females by keeping other males away from them. If he can do this
224 for a single female, he insures that he will father at least some offspring, and the more
225 females he can keep isolated, the more offspring he will have and the greater his

226 contribution to the gene pool of the next generation. This being true, there must be a strong
227 selection pressure for any mechanism that will insure a male exclusive mating rights to one
228 or more females. The aggressive behavior of adult male *A. lineatopus* that keeps other males
229 out of the area in which females are permanently living is just such a mechanism.”

230 In a second paper based on these data, Rand (1967b) again concluded that while all individuals
231 defend territories for access to food, males also defend access to mates, thereby reinforcing the link
232 between territoriality and polygyny in *Anolis*. This idea that males maintain exclusive mating access
233 to females was almost certainly a sign of the times. Hinde (1956), in his introduction to an issue of
234 *Ibis* devoted to territoriality in birds, proposed a hypothesis similar to the one espoused by Rand
235 (1967a, b): “Any behaviour of the male which helps to prevent his mate being fertilized by another
236 male is likely to carry a great selective advantage.” This notion of the “monopolizability” of females,
237 or of the resources to which females are attracted, became the foundation of how behavioral
238 ecologists understand the evolution of animal mating systems (Orrians 1969; Emlen and Oring 1977).
239 In anoles, it was quite possibly the basis of the expectation of strict territorial polygyny, which rests
240 on the assumption that males maintain exclusive mating access to the females in their territory (Fig.
241 1).

242 Though research on anole mating systems grew rapidly after 1967 (discussed below), the next major
243 step towards firmly establishing the link between territoriality and polygyny came 17 years later.
244 Ruby (1984) examined male breeding success in *A. carolinensis* in the context of space use, motivated
245 by the assessment that “mating systems of reptiles are poorly known...and formative factors remain
246 undetermined.” Sampling for over five months for each of two consecutive years, including daily
247 observations for three months each breeding season (though over only a 460 m² area), Ruby (1984)
248 discovered ways in which these lizards’ behavior did not conform to the expectations of territorial
249 polygyny that were laid out by Rand (1967a, b). For example, he noted that “only 17 of the 68 (25%)
250 males remained 12 weeks or longer during a single breeding season of 20 weeks,” potentially
251 indicating variation among males in site fidelity. Moreover, he found that “female [territories]
252 overlapped more than one male in about 25% of the receptive periods [two week intervals in the
253 breeding season]” and in calculating the number of potential mates of males, each “female was
254 assigned to all overlapping males.”

255 These observations and analytic choices indicate that Ruby (1984) uncovered the potential for
256 females to mate with multiple males, and thus documented a mating system in which males do not
257 maintain exclusive mating access to individual females. Ruby (1984) even considered the possibility
258 that sperm storage is an adaptation for female mate choice in these lizards. Nonetheless, at the very
259 outset of the paper, Ruby (1984) proposed that mating systems in lizards range from monogamy to
260 polygyny and described territoriality as “one means of gaining exclusive mating access to females.”
261 Later in the paper, he stated that “because the *Anolis* breeding system appears to be resource defense
262 polygyny (Emlen and Oring 1977), territoriality is favored as a means of restricting access to mates.”
263 It is possible that Ruby’s (1984) data led him to soften his stand from expecting males to maintain
264 “exclusive” mating access to expecting “restrict[ed]” mating access; nonetheless, Ruby (1984) was
265 subsequently frequently cited as supporting the idea that anoles are territorial and polygynous
266 without explicitly acknowledging this potential for female multiple mating (e.g. Qualls and Jaeger
267 1991; Stamps 1995; Jenssen et al. 2000, 2005; Lovern 2000).

268 **THE CONSEQUENCES OF LIMITED SAMPLING**

269 Research on anole behavior blossomed between Rand (1967a, b) and Ruby (1984). However,
270 because by this point the consensus seemed to be that anoles are territorial, this research was not
271 often designed to explicitly test if these lizards behave territorially, i.e. to demonstrate that they
272 exhibit site fidelity and exclusivity. Specifically, territoriality was an almost foregone conclusion in
273 studies with a limited spatial and temporal extent of sampling. In other words, the design of many of
274 these studies was such that they were unlikely to uncover evidence that individual anoles vary in site
275 fidelity or exclusivity, and therefore were unlikely to point to the possibility that females often mate
276 with multiple males

277 If the sampling period of a study of social behavior is not long enough, then relatively infrequent but
278 reproductively consequential departures from either male-male exclusivity or site fidelity may not be
279 detected often enough that they are considered signal and not noise. For site fidelity, this includes
280 not only occasional forays away from and returns to a fixed territory, but also shifts in territory
281 location that may take place only a few times per breeding season—neither would be detected by
282 studies with short durations. An extreme example of a constrained sampling period can be seen in
283 Philibosian’s (1975) study of *Anolis acutus* and *Anolis cristatellus*, in which he stated that “often an
284 observation period of one day was sufficient to record enough positions and enough encounters

285 involving the residents on a tree to make reasonably accurate territory descriptions.” As researchers
286 became more certain that anoles are territorial, they became comfortable making more extreme
287 assumptions. For example, in estimating the number of neighbors of individual *A. sagrei*, Calsbeek
288 (2009) estimated the center of a lizard’s territory as simply the first location at which that lizard was
289 observed.

290 Moreover, if a study of social behavior does not sample over a large enough area and a sampled
291 individual disappears from the study site, researchers cannot know if the individual has died or
292 simply moved. Thus, studies with limited sampling areas will be most likely to sample only those
293 individuals who stay in the same place. For example, Trivers (1976), studying the Jamaican *Anolis*
294 *garmani*, “attempted to map male territories by concentrating on a small portion of the study area.”
295 He stated that “males are sighted too infrequently to measure territory size the usual way; that is, to
296 construct a volume fitting such sightings.” These infrequent sightings could conceivably be due to
297 the low chance of re-spotting individuals with low site fidelity within a small area. But Trivers (1976)
298 continued by saying that “fortunately males 105 mm and larger show a strong tendency to occupy
299 trees...Typically, during a given visit, a large male will be sighted between five and ten times in a
300 large tree.” Thus, Trivers (1976) focused his sampling for estimating territory size to a small area
301 known to be occupied by individuals with high site fidelity, limiting the variation in movement
302 behavior that could be detected.

303 The combination of spatially and temporally restricted sampling can be seen in work by Jenssen and
304 colleagues (e.g., Jenssen et al. 1995; Jenssen and Nunez 1998), who documented the behavior of a
305 population of *A. carolinensis* along the Augusta Canal in Georgia. This population inhabited a thin
306 strip of vegetation (three to six meters wide), which comprised clumps of trees observable from an
307 elevated walkway, and the activity of lizards in each clump of trees was watched for only eight days,
308 out of a months-long breeding season. Nonetheless, these data were interpreted to conclude that
309 “males are polygynous, defend closely monitored and stable territories, and devoted large blocks of
310 time and energy on territory maintenance” (Jenssen et al. 1995). With time, statements of territorial
311 polygyny thought to be supported by these data became even stronger, such as this statement from
312 Jenssen et al. (2000): “the *A. carolinensis* mating system is driven by the outcome of intermale
313 territorial aggression. Winners achieve and maintain direct mating access to varying numbers of
314 females...because females are relatively sedentary and clustered in small contiguous home ranges.”

315 It is certainly worth noting that while the sampling design in these studies reveals, with hindsight,
316 certain assumptions regarding territoriality, Jenssen and colleagues' fieldwork simultaneously
317 challenged other beliefs that were commonly held by laboratory-based researchers studying anole
318 behavior. For example, using similar sampling methods to those described above, Jenssen et al.
319 (2001) tested and found no evidence for the hypothesis, long held by neuroendocrinologists, that
320 male *A. carolinensis* emerge at the end of the winter and establish territories prior to female
321 emergence.

322 **FOUR FATES OF DOCUMENTED DEPARTURES FROM TERRITORIALITY**

323 Evidence for variation in territorial behavior, namely the extent of site fidelity and exclusivity, was
324 implicitly and explicitly excluded through much of the later literature on *Anolis* social behavior. This
325 exclusion took on at least four different forms. The first and second forms correspond to what is
326 known as the "primary simplification" of scientific research, whereby the construction of facts is
327 influenced by scientists' decisions on how to present the data in a paper (Dewsbury 1998).

328 In the first form, already seen in Rand (1967a), departures from territoriality were removed at the
329 time of analysis. For example, Trivers (1976) quantified male *A. garmani* territory sizes based on the
330 size of trees that individuals occupied, and "a tree was assigned to a male if he was seen three or
331 more times in it without any other adult male being seen therein." However, "if, as happened several
332 times, a large tree was also known to be occupied by a small adult male (85 mm – 104 mm), both
333 males were excluded from the data, since too few data were available to partition the tree between
334 them," even though male *A. garmani* as small as 87 mm in size were observed copulating with
335 females. Thus, departures from male-male exclusivity were explicitly excluded when considering
336 these lizards' territoriality. Similar choices were also made in considerations of site fidelity. For
337 example, Schoener (1981) argued that in calculating home range areas based on location data, "the
338 inclusion of the outermost observations...may still be undesirable" because "the utilization may
339 resemble a more compact distribution if outliers were disregarded." As a result, the home ranges of
340 four anole species in the Bahamas were calculated without including the "10% of points farthest
341 from the geometric center" (Schoener and Schoener 1982). While this analytic choice is certainly
342 justifiable for calculating the centers of individuals' activity, it compromises the ability to predict
343 mating patterns from space use behavior, unless one is certain that individuals do not mate when at
344 the 10% of points farthest from the geometric center.

345 A second fate of observed departures from territoriality, as seen in Ruby (1984), involved
346 quantifying them but omitting them from interpretation. For instance, Schoener and Schoener
347 (1980) describe *Anolis sagrei* as exemplifying the “paradigm of a territorial, polygynous species” even
348 though between 3% and 28% of males in six populations remained within their study sites for less
349 than a week, potentially indicating frequent deviations from site fidelity. An implicit justification for
350 ignoring this often substantial proportion of males from a description of the lizards’ mating system
351 is that these “floating” males do not mate with females. Though this is a reasonable and testable
352 hypothesis, *assuming* that non-territorial males do not reproduce simply because they are not
353 territorial is unjustified. In another example, Fleishman (1988) categorized adult male *Anolis auratus*
354 as either territorial or non-territorial, based on their display behavior and levels of aggression. Even
355 though non-territorial males were observed copulating with females within the territories of
356 territorial males, Fleishman (1988) stated that “territories of *Anolis* males are primarily for exclusive
357 access to mates.”

358 In a third, distinct fate, research that explicitly documented departures from territoriality stayed
359 unpublished and had little influence. Consider two abstracts submitted to the annual meeting of the
360 Society for Integrative and Comparative Biology. Both studies (Alworth 1986; Webster and
361 Greenberg 1988) examined *A. carolinensis* behavior in enclosures. While Webster and Greenberg
362 (1988) found that “the average site fidelity was 52%,” Alworth (1986) concluded that “territoriality
363 in these lizards [should] be regarded as a highly flexible behavioral tactic adaptive only in specific
364 contexts” and that “the broad characterization of a genus or species as territorial is misleading.”
365 However, to the best of our knowledge, neither of these studies was published.

366 Finally, in the fourth fate, deviations from territorial polygyny in *Anolis* were documented and
367 acknowledged fully, but the species’ social behavior was described as an exception to the rule. For
368 example, *Anolis valencienni* was described by Hicks and Trivers (1983) as displaying “many features
369 atypical of other *Anolis*,” including the lack of territorial behavior by either males or females.
370 Consequently, “because many adults of both sexes encounter each other daily, there are unusual
371 opportunities for female choice...over a period of six weeks, a female may copulate with five or more
372 males.” This “unusual” opportunity for female multiple mating was hypothesized to be due to *A.*
373 *valencienni*’s tendency to forage more actively than other anoles. We are not suggesting that *A.*
374 *valencienni* does not differ in its behavior from other anoles; in fact, its behavior *must* be different
375 enough that it was recognized as exceptional by researchers working within the paradigm of

376 territorial polygyny. But because *A. valencienni* was positioned as exceptional, its behavior was never
377 cause to re-evaluate the behavior of other anole species.

378 TWO EXCEPTIONS

379 In seven decades of research on anoles, two studies explicitly described these lizards' social behavior
380 as being consistent with female multiple mating. The first—Gordon (1956)—remained relatively
381 uninfluential, but the second—Tokarz (1998)—laid the groundwork for the reconciliation of
382 behavioral observations with subsequent genetic studies that in fact detected evidence for female
383 multiple mating.

384 In his dissertation, Gordon (1956) aimed “to analyze, biodemographically, two local populations” of
385 *A. carolinensis*. The work comprised primarily of nocturnal censuses in two 20 m × 20 m plots every
386 two weeks for over a year, with all captured individuals marked permanently. Gordon's (1956) data
387 revealed the potential for departures from site fidelity: 73% of 1024 marked lizards were observed
388 just once within the study site, and only 8% of all lizards, and 13% of adults, were observed three or
389 more times. Though some of the disappearances were undoubtedly due to predation and others
390 must have resulted from the failure to detect individuals again, the data are also consistent with
391 many individuals in this population exhibiting low site fidelity. Gordon (1956) later questioned
392 anoles' site fidelity when describing lengthy disappearances of individual lizards from the study site
393 and frequent long distant movements. He also wrote the following:

394 “The individual female may copulate with more than one male per season. The social group
395 is maintained by the activity of the dominant male, and sexual bonds between the male and
396 his females are loosely formed. Females tend to wander more than males and ample
397 opportunity is present for a female to be attracted to, and take up residence in, another
398 male's territory. In cases of territorial hierarchy, the dominant male and his subordinates may
399 share the same group of females.”

400 Though it certainly had the potential to do so, Gordon's (1956) thesis did not end up provoking a
401 shift in how behavioral ecologists think about anole mating systems. For example, three influential
402 papers on *Anolis* territorial behavior (Schoener and Schoener 1982; Ruby 1984; Jenssen et al. 1995)
403 cite Gordon (1956) but do not refer to his suggestion that female anoles may readily mate with
404 multiple males.

405 Over four decades later, behavioral observations by Tokarz (1998) demonstrated even more clearly
406 that female *A. sagrei* have the opportunity to mate with multiple males. He explicitly questioned the
407 idea that males maintain exclusive mating access to females in their territories, saying that “few
408 studies have attempted to record the mating pattern of individual females in nature as a means of
409 evaluating the potential for female mate choice and sperm competition.” Tokarz’s (1998) data
410 revealed that “most females (75%) had more than one mating partner, and this was due almost
411 entirely to females mating with new males that successfully supplanted previous males from their
412 territories.” A decade later, however, Tokarz (2008) minimized his own previous findings, saying
413 that “male territories in *A. sagrei* appear to be relatively stable at least during the midsummer portion
414 of the breeding season (Evans, 1938[a]), although instances of males being supplanted from their
415 territories by other males have been observed (Tokarz, 1998).”

416 It is tempting to conclude that Tokarz’s (1998) results solve the problem of the mismatch between
417 behavioral and genetic descriptions of anoles’ mating system. To an extent, they do, but his
418 documentation of turnover in male territory occupancy is only one of many different ways in which
419 departures from strict territorial polygyny (Fig. 1) could facilitate female multiple mating. Other
420 ways, such as multiple reproductive males occupying overlapping areas, had been documented in
421 anoles by previous researchers, but their potential relevance to female multiple mating was
422 downplayed. Yet other ways, such as the existence of reproductive males or females who wander
423 non-territorially, are unlikely to be detected in studies with small sampling areas or durations. This
424 includes Tokarz’s (1998) study, in which 16 individuals occupying a single tree that was 2 m in
425 diameter, were watched for just over a month. That said, even Tokarz (1998) observed “six instances
426 in which males...entered an adjoining male’s territory and courted females there.”

427 These different possible routes to multiple female mating have different implications for anoles’
428 reproductive dynamics and sexual selection. Multiple mating resulting from male territorial turnover
429 may lead to serial polygyny, in which at any one time, a territorial male is the exclusive mate of
430 females residing within his territory. Alternatively, other types of departures from site fidelity and
431 exclusivity lead to situations in which, at any given time, females may be able to mate with several
432 males, allowing for female mate choice. While the serial territorial polygyny that Tokarz (1998)
433 observed may certainly be a male adaptation for achieving high reproductive success, we cannot
434 know from existing behavioral data if it is the only reproductive strategy, or even the dominant
435 reproductive strategy, adopted by male anoles.

436 Crucially, it is not necessary that every individual in a population depart from site fidelity or
437 exclusivity in the same way or to the same extent for the link between territoriality and polygyny to
438 be compromised. There is therefore a disconnect across levels of biological organization that is
439 central to reconciling behavioral and genetic descriptions of mating systems—while behavioral
440 descriptions apply to individuals, the mating system is a population-level trait. Equally, different
441 populations and species may also vary in the composition of reproductive strategies across
442 individuals (Lott 1984; Kappeler et al. 2013), and the proportion of individuals in a population who
443 behave territorially influences our ability to predict whether the population’s mating system will in
444 fact be polygynous. This explanation also makes clear that many previous studies of anole social
445 behavior that concluded that anoles are territorial may have accurately described the behavior of *some*
446 individuals. However, to the extent that the results of existing genetic studies are general, previous
447 behavioral studies either did not accurately describe the behavior of *all* individuals, or erroneously
448 failed to consider as reproductively important those individuals whose behavior they described as
449 deviating from territoriality. The disconnect between behavioral and genetic descriptions of a
450 population’s mating system thus becomes quantifiable by considering variation across reproductive
451 individuals in the extent to which their behavior differs from territoriality.

452 **THE AGE OF GENETICS**

453 The use of genetic tools uncovered female multiple mating in three species of anoles—*A. carolinensis*,
454 *A. sagrei*, and *A. cristatellus*. Each of these studies (one paper published in a peer reviewed journal, as
455 well as three theses that, at present, are unpublished) discussed the implications of their findings for
456 territoriality to different extents.

457 Passek (2002) examined the possibility for sperm choice or competition in *A. carolinensis* using a
458 combination of behavioral and genetic approaches. She invoked variation in site fidelity and
459 exclusivity when saying that “while males defend territories that contain multiple female home
460 ranges (Jenssen et al. 1995), the potential exists for extra-pair paternity due to temporary invasion by
461 “floater” males or female home ranges being overlapped by more than one male (Ruby 1984).”
462 Though Passek’s (2002) description suggests only occasional departures from territoriality, her
463 genetic data showed that 48% of offspring were sired by males other than the one identified as the
464 territory owner, including 21% sired by smaller males within the same territory and 15% sired by
465 neighboring males. The paternity of the remaining 12% of offspring could not be determined. In her

466 conclusion, Passek (2002) expressed skepticism that anyone had accurately measured “the frequency
467 of territorial exchanges resulting from territory takeovers.”

468 Johnson (2007) mapped *A. cristatellus* space use behavior over a three week period, and found that
469 females’ “territories overlapped an average of 3.3 males.” Genetic data confirmed this potential for
470 females to mate multiply, showing that “52% of females laid eggs sired by multiple males.”
471 Moreover, variation in site fidelity also played a role in facilitating female multiple mating, because
472 “26% of offspring were sired by males whose territories did not overlap that of the mother.” She
473 concluded that “these results may be explained by a combination of a male dominance
474 hierarchy...and female mate choice,” mating strategies and interactions that are not encompassed by
475 strict territorial polygyny (Fig. 1).

476 In the only published evidence for multiple mating by female anoles, Calsbeek et al. (2007) found
477 that “more than 80% of field-caught *A. sagrei* females that produced two or more progeny had
478 mated with multiple males [making] *A. sagrei* one of the most promiscuous amniote vertebrates
479 studied to date.” However, this paper did not tackle the implications of its results for territoriality.

480 Finally, the most direct evidence for departures from territoriality influencing anole mating systems
481 again combined behavioral observations with genetic data (Harrison 2014). Studying *A. carolinensis*,
482 Harrison (2014) assumed site fidelity in her behavioral sampling by mapping the home ranges of
483 lizards after observing individual’s spatial locations for 30-minute focal observations (it is not clear
484 how many focal observations were conducted for each individual; Harrison [2014] does mention
485 that “behavioral observations were conducted at irregular intervals, making it difficult to determine
486 whether males shifted their territories during the study period”). However, her genetic data revealed
487 that spatial proximity, as determined by the focal observations, did not predict mating between pairs
488 of males and females. In fact, the mean distance (\pm standard deviation) between mating pairs was
489 33 ± 22 m, over five times the mean estimated territory diameter in that population. This indicates
490 that individual lizards *must have* moved between when they mated and when they were observed. In
491 the face of this evidence, Harrison (2014) continued to invoke a territorial paradigm to understand
492 anole social behavior, at least initially: “males and females from opposite sides of the study site
493 mated relatively frequently...often traversing distances over 60 m. For this to occur, either the male
494 or female (or both) left its territory at some point, or they mated before establishing territories and
495 used stored sperm.” Later, however, she proposed a number of hypotheses for male movement

496 behavior, including the existence of an alternative non-territorial, wandering male strategy adopted
497 by adult males, and temporal variation in individual site fidelity within a single breeding season, that
498 definitely break out of the mold of territoriality.

499 **BROADER IMPLICATIONS FOR ANIMAL MATING SYSTEMS**

500 This century-long trajectory of research on *Anolis* mating systems exemplifies several larger issues
501 that could plague the study of animal mating systems more generally. However, it is challenging to
502 establish that the problems we identify here are generally applicable, because discerning their
503 applicability to a particular taxon demands a close familiarity with the full body of literature on that
504 taxon's biology, as well as familiarity with the organism's biology itself. In this final section, we
505 identify the main driving forces that led to the incomplete and possibly incorrect descriptions of
506 *Anolis* social behavior, culminating in the erroneous prediction that each female's offspring will be
507 sired by the single male in whose territory she resides. We hope this discussion will prompt
508 researchers who are intimately familiar with other organisms' biology to re-examine the basis of
509 what we think we know to be true about those organisms' social behavior.

510 The history of research on *Anolis* mating systems demonstrates multiple ways in which the erratic
511 and contingent progress of research may have prevented researchers from fully describing the
512 behaviors that facilitate female multiple mating in these lizards. The central problem was described
513 well by Stamps (1994), although she was discussing specific aspects of territoriality not covered in
514 this review:

515 “Current ideas about the behavior of territorial animals are based on a series of
516 assumptions...in some cases these assumptions have not been adequately tested. By virtue
517 of repetition, untested assumptions have a tendency to solidify into “quasi-facts.””

518 Such repetition certainly characterized the earliest studies of *Anolis* social behavior, where studies
519 repeatedly concluded that anoles are territorial based on often flimsy evidence. It is not clear
520 whether the authors of these earliest studies considered the implications of these lizards' space use
521 and movement patterns for their mating system. It is possible that territoriality was so readily
522 assumed and concluded in these early studies *precisely because*, under the strictest interpretation,
523 territoriality is incompatible with female multiple mating. Charles Darwin, in his seminal text on
524 sexual selection, expressed the prevailing view at the time that females are generally “coy,” “passive,”

525 and “less eager” to mate than are males (Darwin 1871; discussed in Hrdy 1986; Dewsbury 2005;
526 Tang-Martinez and Ryder 2005; Tang-Martinez 2016). Moreover, many biologists at the time
527 believed that females of most species were unlikely to possess the cognitive ability to make choices
528 about which males to mate with, and ignored evidence to the contrary (reviewed in Milam 2010).
529 Invoking a mating system such as territorial polygyny, which under the strictest interpretation leaves
530 females unable to choose between males and assumes that females have no reason to seek out
531 multiple mates, thus may have been a sign of the times.

532 However, Greenberg and Noble (1944) conducted experiments explicitly to test whether female
533 anoles choose mates on the basis of males’ dewlaps, asking if females preferred to mate with males
534 with intact or manipulated dewlaps. They found no effect of dewlap manipulation on mating
535 success, but by asking the question, these authors revealed that they considered female mate choice
536 possible in anoles, and thus considered that females have the opportunity to mate with multiple
537 males. In contrast, later researchers studying anole territorial behavior frequently maintained that
538 female mate choice was unlikely because it is precluded by territoriality. For example, Schoener and
539 Schoener (1980) suggested that “adult females seem quite sedentary in [*A. sagrei*], and the
540 opportunity for female choice would seem correspondingly limited,” and Stamps (1983), in a review
541 of lizard territoriality and polygyny, said the following:

542 "In most insectivores, female choice of mating partner is probably fairly limited. Since
543 females do not leave their home ranges in order to mate, prospective male partners must
544 have home ranges overlapping that of the female. A female with a home range on the border
545 between 2 male home ranges might be able to choose between them, but this option is
546 restricted in territorial species by the males' tendencies to arrange their territories to
547 completely enclose female home ranges."

548 Thus, though researchers all the way from Noble and Bradley (1933) to Stamps (1983) and beyond
549 described anoles as territorial, the predictions for mating patterns derived from that behavioral
550 description, such as whether females have the opportunity to choose mates, could be inconsistent
551 with one another.

552 That the term “territoriality” as interpreted by different researchers could be compatible with
553 fundamentally different expectations for patterns of mating and sexual selection highlights the fact
554 that very few studies define territoriality explicitly (Maher and Lott 1995). Different authors’

555 conceptions of territoriality include different degrees of variation in both site fidelity and exclusivity,
556 and therefore lead to different expectations for female multiple mating. This fuzziness in the
557 definition of territoriality also raises the following question—at what point might we conclude that
558 territoriality is too imprecise a term to be useful as a predictor of a species' mating patterns?
559 Departures from male-male exclusivity have been observed in anoles (e.g. Rand 1967a; Trivers 1976;
560 Fleishman 1988), but these examples were still considered to be within the fold of territoriality
561 because “exclusivity” was qualified or limited to mean that males only exclude size-matched
562 individuals. These qualifications were made even though males in smaller size categories were
563 observed to mate with females. Similarly, a lack of clarity about the meaning of site fidelity
564 permeates research on territorial behavior—does “site fidelity” mean staying in the same place,
565 leaving but always returning to the same place, or attempting (but possibly failing) to stay in or
566 return to the same place? How long does an individual have to stay in a certain place to be
567 considered site faithful? Almost all possible answers to these questions have, at some point in the
568 last century, been implicitly or explicitly accepted as consistent with territorial behavior in anoles,
569 even though each answer can lead to very different expectations for mating patterns.

570 Once territoriality became established as a description of anoles' mating system, the design and
571 interpretation of subsequent studies of these lizards' social behavior made it difficult to detect
572 variation among individuals in site fidelity or exclusivity, variation that could easily be reproductively
573 consequential. Which individuals were studied, the extent of sampling area and duration, the data
574 that were analyzed versus excluded, and the extent to which inconsistent findings were
575 deemphasized—each of these scientific decisions involved choices that would determine whether
576 the study could actually test the precepts of territoriality or whether it simply assumed them. For the
577 most part, the choices made were such that territoriality remained untested. However, these studies
578 were written and interpreted as if the idea that anoles are territorial had been tested, and thus each
579 seemed to provide independent confirmation of this description of their spatial and social
580 organization. In fact, even though these studies were conducted by different researchers on different
581 populations and species of anoles, they were conceptually non-independent, unintentionally leading
582 the earliest studies to “assume a stature that their original authors never intended” (Stamps 1994).

583 It is this problem—adhering to a conceptual paradigm while designing studies that are consequently
584 unlikely to uncover or take seriously the evidence that would allow you to escape that paradigm—
585 that we believe is the most important problem revealed by our review. This problem cannot be

586 solved simply by collecting more data; reaching a solution additionally requires that we explicitly
587 identify and question the assumptions made when designing research (Gowaty 2003). But framing
588 the challenge thus also makes the solution clear—we should continue collecting observations of
589 animals' behavior in a manner that is as free as possible from existing conceptual frameworks, even
590 in taxa whose biology we think we know well. In other words, the solution calls for renewed and
591 continued attention to organisms' natural history (Greene 2005; Tewkesbury et al. 2014). As Greene
592 (2005), who defined natural history as “descriptive ecology and ethology,” put it, “discoveries of new
593 organisms and new facts about organisms often reset the research cycles of hypothesis testing and
594 theory refinement that underlie good progressive science.”

595 The call for a close relationship between natural history observations and the advance of research in
596 animal mating systems is far from new. We conclude with a remarkably apt excerpt from a 1958
597 letter to the editor of *Ibis* from John T. Emlen, following an issue about territoriality in birds (Hinde
598 1956):

599 “There is a growing tendency among ornithologists to blindly and devotedly follow what is
600 becoming a fixed or conventional concept of territory. Instead of describing their
601 observations directly, authors often seem to go out of their way to fit them into the
602 “accepted” pattern through the “approved” terms and phrases.”

603 Emlen (1958) continued:

604 “My concern in this letter is with the tyranny of words and with the dangers inherent in
605 patterned thinking. The fascination of catch phrases and the reverence with which they
606 come to be held are major, though subtle, obstructions to free and accurate thinking.
607 Conventionalized phrasing, furthermore, often leads to conventionalized thinking, the very
608 antithesis of free investigation and the arch-enemy of scientific progress. A neat, substantive
609 definition of territory has the fascination of finality, but in a virile science dead ends must be
610 avoided, not sought; it has the fascination of authority, but basically we recognize that the
611 study of natural phenomena must not be subordinated to the study of intellectual creations.”

612 The accurate quantification by genetic means of individuals' reproductive success in natural
613 populations is valuable not just because such data help to render more complete descriptions of
614 animals' social and reproductive behavior. These data also let us identify taxa in which the erratic

615 and contingent progression of scientific research may have led behavioral ecologists towards
616 erroneous conclusions about animals' mating systems. But the genetic data alone do not shed light
617 on the question of how we come to believe such conclusions. We contend that taxon-specific
618 historical investigations into this question allow us to escape the confines of “conventionalized
619 phrasing” and “conventionalized thinking,” and are an important step towards designing studies that
620 will let us understand animal social behavior in its full complexity.

621

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627

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767 Appendix: Papers examined

768 A list of all the papers examined in our historical investigation of territorial polygyny in *Anolis*
769 lizards, in alphabetical order. We searched for papers on Web of Science using keywords “*Anolis*” or
770 “*Norops*” and “territor*”. From the results, we selected papers that were directly relevant to *Anolis*
771 territoriality, in that the authors studied male-male aggression or site fidelity, including mapping
772 home ranges, or based their study or discussion of *Anolis* social or reproductive behavior on prior
773 conclusions of territoriality. We also followed relevant citations from within the sampled papers,
774 yielding a set of 106 papers that spanned over nine decades and included field- and lab-based
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