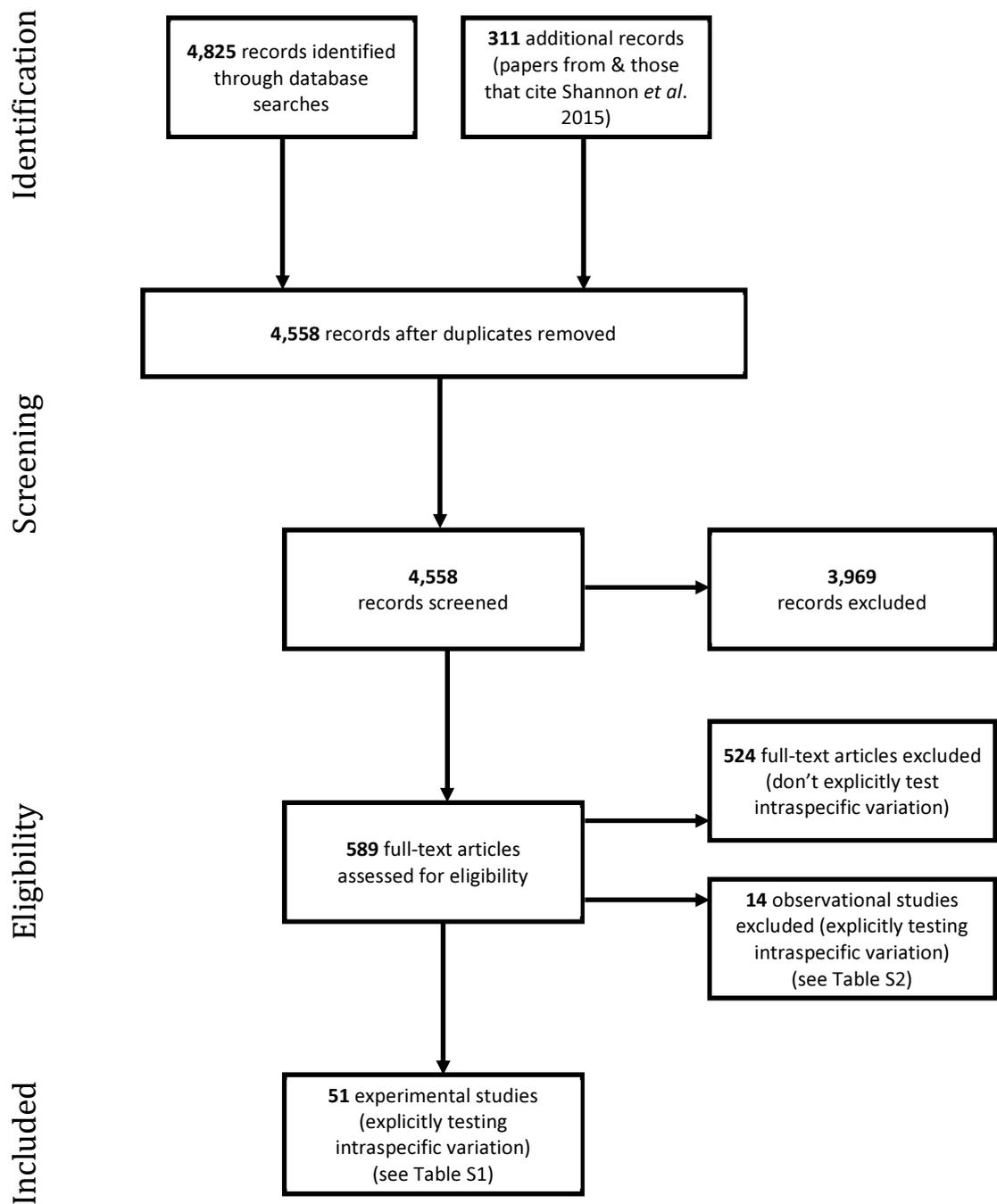


Supplementary information

Methodology - Systematic literature review

We conducted a systematic review of the peer-reviewed literature; see Figure S1 for a schematic of our methodology. Initially, we used “ANTHROPOGENIC NOISE” OR “ACOUSTIC DISTURBANC*” OR “NOISE POLLUT*” OR “MAN-MADE NOIS*” as search terms in Thompson’s *ISI Web of Science*, to find potentially relevant papers published between 1900 and 2018 (n = 3,309 records). In addition, we conducted a search in *Web of Science* using the same methodology as Shannon *et al.* (2015)—the most comprehensive recent review on the impacts of anthropogenic noise on non-human animals—but for 2013–2018 (the years since their search), which produced 1,516 records. Alongside these database searches, we included the 242 papers cited in the Shannon *et al.* (2015) review and papers that have cited Shannon *et al.* (2015) (n = 69; as of 05/10/2018 in *Web of Science*) in our initial list. Subsequent selection steps followed the Prisma protocol for systematic reviews (Moher *et al.* 2009). We used JabRef (<http://www.jabref.org/>) bibliography reference manager to check the combined records (n = 5,136) for duplicates, resulting in 4,558 unique records for the screening phase. We then screened papers for those that focussed on the impact of anthropogenic noise on non-human animals, based on a review of the title and abstract. Our criteria for noise selection were that studies had used real anthropogenic noise sources, or their playback equivalents, or synthetic noise; we excluded studies using pure tones as an acoustic disturbance as these are generally used in hearing assessments or as stimuli for training. We also excluded reviews, modelling studies (predicting risk factors from known hearing thresholds), experimental studies with a sample size of 1, and observational studies where impacts of noise were suggested but noise measurements not taken. Overall, the screening phase retained 589 records, which we then fully assessed to identify observational and experimental studies testing intraspecific variation in non-human animal responses to anthropogenic noise.



Supplementary Figure S1. PRISMA flow diagram outlining the systematic literature review process.

Methodology - Effect size calculations

Where possible for studies in Table S1, we calculated standardised effect sizes (*Hedge's g*) for each treatment group, correcting for small sample size bias, using the compute.es package in R (R Core Team, 2016; www.R-project.org). Effect sizes were calculated for all studies

where the means, sample sizes and standard error or standard deviation were presented or were accessible from the raw data, or where independent statistical tests per condition were available. Effect sizes for studies using a within-subjects design were only calculated if the correlation between the repeated measures were accessible (Borenstein 2009). In addition, WebPlotDigitizer (<https://automeris.io/WebPlotDigitizer/>) was used to extract these metrics from paper figures when they were not included in the text, with such software shown to provide high accuracy and validity when extracting data from plots (Drevon et al. 2017). For instances where multiple response measures considering intraspecific variation were shown to be significant or where there was no effect found in any of those response measures, a single example was used (six out of 15; 40%). Further, where possible, we determined an overall (composite) effect size of each intrinsic characteristic and extrinsic factor for each paper, to enable quantitative assessment of the relative potential importance of each source of intraspecific variation. Composite effect sizes were determined following the methods of Borenstein et al. (2009) on computing combined effects within individual studies (see Figure 2b).

Table S1. Experimental studies investigating intraspecific variation in responses to anthropogenic noise as a consequence of (a) intrinsic characteristics and (b) extrinsic factors, as reported from the primary research papers. Examples use either real or playback of anthropogenic noise, or playback of either pink, white or brown noise as an acoustic disturbance. Effect size statistics are in bold and represent the standardised mean difference, corrected for small sample size bias, and the corresponding confidence intervals as calculated from available information. The direction for each individual effect size are presented so that positive integers represent anthropogenic noise increasing the response measure, and negative integers causing a decrease in response.

Intraspecific variation	Examples	References
a) Intrinsic characteristics		
Body size/ Age	Hybrid striped bass (white bass (<i>Morone chrysops</i>) x striped bass (<i>Morone saxatilis</i>)) of larger size suffered more severe internal injuries than smaller individuals when exposed to pile-driving noise playback.	(Casper et al. 2013)
	Shore crabs (<i>Carcinus maenas</i>) of larger size had disproportionately higher oxygen-consumption rates than smaller conspecifics in response to ship-noise playback compared to ambient-sound controls.	(Wale et al. 2013)
	Younger birds of various species showed greater avoidance than older individuals when exposed to traffic-noise playback, with the capture ratio of young/adult birds declining in locations exposed to traffic noise.	(McClure et al. 2017)
	Zebra finch (<i>Taenopygia guttata</i>) post-fledglings had a greater reduction in telomere length (Hedge's g: -0.68; CI: -1 – -0.35) than pre-fledglings (Hedge's g: -0.04; CI: -0.32–0.23) when exposed to traffic-noise playback.	(Dorado-Correa et al. 2018)
	Seabass (<i>Dicentrarchus labrax</i>) of smaller size startled in response to playback of pile-driving noise at a lower sound level than larger conspecifics.	(Kastelein et al. 2017)
	California sea lions (<i>Zalophus californianus</i>) exposed to mid-frequency sonar exhibited a dose-response relationship with increasing sound levels; however, the probability of response at lower exposure levels declined with the removal of individuals under the age of two years.	(Houser et al. 2013)
Body condition	European eels (<i>Anguilla anguilla</i>) in poorer condition exhibited a reduced response to a simulated predatory strike when played ship noise compared to ambient sound (Hedge's g: -0.64; CI: -1.28– -0.01), whereas better-quality individuals showed no such noise effect (Hedge's g: -0.18; CI: -0.79–0.42).	(Purser et al. 2016)
	Zebra finch (<i>Taenopygia guttata</i>) offspring survival rates when exposed to chronic traffic noise tended to increase when the maternal baseline corticosterone levels were higher, whereas no similar trend was found in survival rate under no noise conditions.	(Potvin and Macdougall-Shackleton 2015)
Sex	Daffodil cichlid (<i>Neolamprologus pulcher</i>) dominant males removed sand from their nests fewer times during boat-noise playback than in ambient-sound conditions, whereas dominant females showed no sound-treatment difference in sand-digging frequency.	(Bruitjes and Radford 2013)
	Female wild mice (<i>Mus musculus</i>) did not differ in their corticosterone levels when exposed to low-frequency mining noise compared to control conditions, whereas males had higher corticosterone levels in mining-noise conditions compared to control conditions	(Mancera et al. 2017)
	Spiny lobster (<i>Jasus edwardsii</i>) females and males both had lower total haemocyte counts after being exposed to sound from a seismic air gun compared to ambient controls.	(Fitzgibbon et al. 2017)

	Tree swallow (<i>Tachycineta bicolor</i>) female settlement was delayed by an increase in background traffic noise, whereas there was no noise-induced delay in male settlement.	(Injaian et al. 2018)
	Greater sage-grouse (<i>Centrocercus urophasianus</i>) male abundance declined on leks exposed to drilling or traffic noise compared to ambient control leks, with weaker, but similar, effects of noise playback on female abundance.	(Blickley et al. 2012)
	Rat (<i>Rattus sp.</i>) males exposed to vibrational noise spent less time sitting post-noise exposure compared to control rats, whereas females spent more time sitting post-noise exposure compared to the control group.	(Avaliani et al. 2018)
	Great tit (<i>Parus major</i>) males with low exploratory scores avoided the white-noise playback more than males with high exploratory scores, this effect was reversed in females.	(Naguib et al. 2013)
	Mediterranean spiny lobster (<i>Palinurus elephas</i>) males and females both had elevated expression levels of the Hsp70 protein (% integrated density value) when exposed to boat-noise playback compared to control conditions.	(Filiciotto et al. 2014)
Personality	Great tits (<i>Parus major</i>) characterised with high exploratory scores had a lower latency time to first nestbox visit than birds with low exploratory scores during white-noise playback.	(Naguib et al. 2013)

(b) Extrinsic factors

	Daffodil cichlids (<i>Neolamprologus pulcher</i>) showed no difference in anti-predator defence behaviours when exposed to boat-noise and ambient-sound playback when they had eggs in their nest (Hedge's g: -0.29; CI: -1.15–0.57), but there was less defensive behaviour during boat-noise playback than ambient-sound playback in the absence of eggs (Hedge's g: -0.79; CI: -1.54– -0.03).	(Bruitjes and Radford 2013)
	European sea bass (<i>Dicentrarchus labrax</i>) exposed to playback of impulsive noise (filtered brown noise) showed a greater increase in group cohesion at night than during the day.	(Neo et al. 2018)
	Largemouth bass (<i>Micropterus salmoides</i>) adults showed no significant difference in the number of turns over their nest (vigilance behaviour) during exposure to motorboat noise compared to the pre-treatment period, a consistent response was shown across three offspring developmental stages.	(Maxwell et al. 2018)
Context	Australian snapper (<i>Pagrus auratus</i>) inhabiting an open (unprotected) habitat decreased feeding activity and displayed avoidance behaviours during motorboat passes compared to pre- and post-sound periods, but these effects were absent in fish inhabiting a protected area.	(Mensinger et al. 2018)
	Gobies (<i>Gobius cruentatus</i>) were more submissive towards an intruder during boat-noise playback compared to a silent control when resident on a territory, whereas individuals acting as an intruder during a similar territorial encounter spent less time displaying submissive behaviours in the noise treatment compared to the silent control.	(Sebastianutto et al. 2011)
	House wren (<i>Troglodytes aedon</i>) males that were part of a pair displayed a higher peak frequency in their songs than unpaired males during 'pink' noise exposure.	(Grabarczyk et al. 2018)
	Atlantic herring (<i>Clupea harengus</i>) shoals of low density showed stronger avoidance behaviours than high-density shoals in response to vessel-noise playback.	(Handegard et al. 2015)
	House wren (<i>Troglodytes aedon</i>) adults inhabiting a rural environment had an increase in corticosterone following exposure to traffic-noise playback (Hedge's g: 2.16; CI: 0.75–3.57), whereas urban conspecifics exhibited no such response to the noise exposure Hedge's g: 0.85; CI: -0.09–1.79).	(Davies et al. 2017)

	Tree frogs (<i>Hyla arborea</i>) singing alone did not adjust their singing bout duration during exposure to traffic-noise playback (Hedge's g: -0.46; CI: -1.08–0.16), whereas a noise-induced change in calling activity was observed for tree frogs singing in a chorus (Hedge's g: -1.09; CI: -1.9– -0.28).	(Lengagne 2008)
	Perch (<i>Perca fluviatilis</i>) in single-species enclosures reduced feeding attempts during exposure to motorboat noise, whereas no effect of motorboat-noise exposure was evident for perch in mixed-species enclosures with roach (<i>Rutilus rutilus</i>).	(Magnhagen et al. 2017)
	Blue whales (<i>Balaenotera musculus</i>) that were deep-feeding were affected by exposure to mid-frequency sonar, whereas whales in other behavioural states showed less response.	(Goldbogen et al. 2013)
	Mediterranean spiny lobsters (<i>Palinurus elephas</i>) in groups of four increased both their distance moved and velocity when exposed to boat-noise playback compared to control groups; no such increases were apparent when tested alone.	(Filiciotto et al. 2014)
	White-crowned sparrow (<i>Zonotrichia leucophrys</i>) males in urban areas decreased the bandwidth of their song when exposed to playback of experimental noise compared to before noise playback, whereas rural males did not adjust their song bandwidth.	(Gentry et al. 2017)
Repeated exposure	Ambon damselfish (<i>Pomacentrus amboinensis</i>) exposed to real motorboat noise showed immediate reductions in boldness relative to ambient-sound controls (Hedge's g: -1.36; CI: -2.07– -0.66), but fish returned to pre-boat exposure behaviours within the 20-min trial (Hedge's g: -0.02; CI: -0.65–0.62).	(Holmes et al. 2017)
	European sea bass (<i>Dicentrarchus labrax</i>) exposed to impulsive noise (filtered brown noise) swam faster, deeper and in tighter shoals compared to pre-exposure baseline levels, but recovered within the 60-min exposure period.	(Neo et al. 2015)
	Lined seahorses (<i>Hippocampus erectus</i>) exposed to high ambient-sound levels from aquarium machinery initially made more tail adjustments whilst stationary than those in quiet control tanks (Hedge's g: 0.79; CI: -0.32–1.9), but this response difference diminished after three weeks (Hedge's g: 0.05; CI: -0.96–1.06).	(Anderson et al. 2011)
	Threespot dascyllus (<i>Dascyllus trimaculatus</i>) exposed to motorboat-noise playback initially exhibited elevated ventilation rates compared to ambient controls (Hedge's g: 1.68; CI: 0.96–2.39), but these responses lessened after one week of repeated exposure (Hedge's g: 0.51; CI: -0.09–1.11).	(Nedelec et al. 2016)
	Greater mouse-eared bats (<i>Myotis myotis</i>) displayed a higher proportion of responses when first exposed to short-term traffic-noise playback compared to a silent control, but the proportion of responses was reduced when bats were exposed to a second exposure.	(Luo et al. 2014)
	California sea lions (<i>Zalophus californianus</i>) exposed to mid-frequency sonar exhibited a dose-response relationship with increasing sound levels, and responses did not change over repeated exposures of the noise stimulus.	(Houser et al. 2013)
	Bottlenose dolphins (<i>Tursiops truncatus</i>) exposed to mid-frequency sonar exhibited a dose-response relationship with increasing sound levels, however the probability of response at sound levels below 160 dB re 1 μ Pa decreased with repeated exposure of the noise stimulus.	(Houser et al. 2013)
	American black ducks (<i>Anus rubripes</i>) reacted (alert & fleeing responses) to simulated aircraft overflight noise on first exposure, but the proportion of occasions that the birds reacted declined with repeated exposure to the noise stimulus.	(Conomy et al. 1998)
	Killer whales (<i>Orcinus orca</i>) increased their distance from the vessel when first exposed to an acoustic harassment device that was turned on rather than turned off, but the distance from the vessel no longer changed when the device was on vs off during successive exposures.	(Tixier et al. 2015)
	Atlantic bottlenose dolphins (<i>Tursiops truncatus</i>) showed reduced target-detection performance when first exposed to vibratory pile-driving noise playback compared to control periods, but no change in target-detection performance was evident by the second replication.	(Branstetter et al. 2018)
Perch (<i>Perca fluviatilis</i>) in single-species enclosures made fewer feeding attempts during noise exposure compared to control trials, but over multiple days the number of feeding attempts increased in both treatments.	(Magnhagen et al. 2017)	

	European sea bass (<i>Dicentrarchus labrax</i>) exposed to playback of filtered brown noise displayed increases in swimming depth, but these changes declined with repeated exposure over eight trials.	(Neo et al. 2018)
	Shore crabs (<i>Carcinus maenas</i>) exposed to ship-noise playback had a significantly higher oxygen-consumption rate compared to ambient controls, but responses did not change during repeated exposure over 16 days, whereas oxygen-consumption increased over the duration of multiple trials for the ambient control crabs.	(Wale et al. 2013)
	European seabass (<i>Dicentrarchus labrax</i>) exposed to filtered brown noise of varying temporal structure increased their swimming depth and group cohesion at the onset of sound exposure, but behavioural measures returned to baseline levels within the 30-min exposure period.	(Neo et al. 2014)
	European seabass (<i>Dicentrarchus labrax</i>) exposed to filtered brown noise increased their swimming depth at the onset of sound exposure, but returned to baseline behaviour within the 60-min exposure period.	(Neo et al. 2016)
	European perch (<i>Perca fluviatilis</i>) exposed to boat disturbance increased swimming activity during the first hour of exposure, but this response declined to pre-exposure levels in the next three hours of boat disturbance.	(Jacobsen et al. 2014)
Prior experience	Mountain chickadee (<i>Poecile gambeli</i>) males from characteristically noisy areas responded to white-noise playback (with a frequency spectrum of traffic noise) by singing at higher frequencies and using fewer songs from their lower bandwidth repertoire, whereas individuals from quieter areas showed opposite responses.	(LaZerte et al. 2016)
	Mountain chickadee (<i>Poecile gambeli</i>) males from characteristically noisy areas exposed to experimental noise playback (white noise with a frequency spectrum of traffic noise) switched their vocalisation type to use more songs than calls, whereas males from quiet areas used relatively more calls.	(LaZerte et al. 2017)
	Ezo brown frogs (<i>Rana pirica</i>) from characteristically noisy sites displayed faster initiation of phonotaxis and a stronger avoidance response under non-overlapping and overlapping vehicle noise respectively, compared to frogs from quiet sites.	(Senzaki et al. 2018)
	Naïve European sea bass (<i>Dicentrarchus labrax</i>) exposed to pile-driving noise had significantly elevated opercular beat rates compared to ambient-control fish (Hedge's g: 0.62; CI: 0.1–1.14); fish exposed to 12 weeks of pile-driving noise displayed reductions in response relative to ambient-control fish (Hedge's g: 0.16; CI: -0.36–0.67),	(Radford et al. 2016)
	Field cricket (<i>Teleogryllus oceanicus</i>) females reared in masking traffic noise took longer to start searching and to reach a speaker simulating a singing male compared to crickets reared in silent conditions irrespective of the acoustic exposure during the testing period (masking noise, non-masking noise, silent control).	(Gurule-Small and Tinghitella 2018)
	Golden-cheeked warblers (<i>Setophaga chrysoparia</i>) from characteristically noisy sites and those from quiet sites both showed no difference in behavioural responses when exposed to playback of construction noise compared to control playbacks.	(Long et al. 2017)
	Golden-cheeked warblers (<i>Setophaga chrysoparia</i>) from characteristically noisy sites and those from quiet sites were both more likely to respond to construction-noise playback than a silent control.	(Long et al. 2017)
	<i>Cynotilapia zebroides</i> males from lower-disturbance sites displayed an increase in oxygen-consumption rate compared to ambient controls when exposed to motorboat noise (Hedge's g: 0.51; CI: 0.18–0.85), whereas fish from higher-disturbance sites showed no difference from ambient controls (Hedge's g: 0.15; CI: -0.18–0.48).	(Harding et al. 2018)
Multiple stressors	Damselfish (<i>Pomacentrus wardi</i>) and dottyback (<i>Pseudochromis fuscus</i>) predator–prey interactions were affected when exposed to elevated CO ₂ and motorboat-noise playback both in isolation and when combined compared to ambient conditions; e.g. under present-day CO ₂ , predator attack speed was reduced when exposed to motorboat-noise playback compared to ambient controls (Hedge's g: -0.62; CI: -1.31–0.07). Under high CO ₂ conditions, fish exposed to noise showed no difference from ambient controls (Hedge's g: -0.07; CI: -0.72–0.59).	(McCormick et al. 2018)

European sea bass (<i>Dicentrarchus labrax</i>) exposed to pile-driving noise playback under present-day CO ₂ conditions had increased ventilation rates compared to ambient-sound controls under equivalent CO ₂ conditions (Hedge's g: 1.51; CI: 0.84–2.17). Under elevated CO ₂ conditions, responses to noise were comparable (Hedge's g: 1.69; CI: 1–2.37); there was no interaction between CO ₂ and noise treatment.	(Poulton et al. 2016)
Zebrafish (<i>Danio rerio</i>) exposed to white noise spent more time stationary and avoided the active speaker compared to ambient conditions, whereas dim light caused a lower number of crossings between the treatment tank and escape tank, and more time spent in the upper layer of the tank. There were no interactions between sound and light on zebrafish behaviour.	(Sabet et al. 2016)
Frog-biting midges (<i>Corethrella spp.</i>) were collected in acoustic traps in smaller numbers when exposed to anthropogenic noise in low light levels, whereas in high-light conditions very few midges were collected irrespective of the noise exposure.	(McMahon et al. 2017)

Table S2. Observational studies investigating intraspecific variation in responses to anthropogenic noise as a consequence of intrinsic characteristics and extrinsic factors, as reported from the primary research papers.

Intraspecific variation	Observational Examples	References
Intrinsic characteristics		
Body size/ Age	Cod (<i>Gadus morhua</i>) and haddock (<i>Melanogrammus aeglefinus</i>) of larger size exhibited a greater decline in abundance and catch rate than smaller individuals when there were seismic-gun surveys.	(Engås et al. 1996)
	Ovenbirds (<i>Seiurus aurocapilla</i>) with less experience (were younger) were more abundant at sites near compressor stations compared to quiet areas, causing a difference in age structure between noisy and control sites	(Habib et al. 2006)
Sex	A male giant panda (<i>Ailuropoda melanoleuca</i>), but not a female, in captivity displayed behavioural responses to construction noise compared to quiet days.	(Powell et al. 2006)
	A female giant panda (<i>Ailuropoda melanoleuca</i>), but not a male, in captivity displayed elevated cortisol levels on loud days compared to quiet days.	(Owen et al. 2004)
Context	Killer whale (<i>Orcinus orca</i>) presence in a fjord system was negatively affected by exposure to sonar type, especially during periods of low-prey availability.	(Kuningas et al. 2013)
	Bottlenose dolphins (<i>Tursiops truncatus</i>) disturbed by tour boats showed little change in maximum frequency of whistles when calves were present, but had a higher maximum frequency when calves were absent.	(Heiler et al. 2016)

	Guiana dolphins (<i>Sotalia guianensis</i>) changed their whistling rate when exposed to high noise levels compared to quieter periods if they were feeding but not whilst engaged in social behaviours.	(Bittencourt et al. 2017)
	Chipping sparrow (<i>Spizella passerina</i>) males whose song was characterised with lower minimum frequencies and broader bandwidths increased their minimum frequency and decreased bandwidth in response to noise, whereas those whose song had higher minimum frequencies and narrower bandwidths showed no such song adjustments in noise.	(Job et al. 2016)
Repeated exposure	Harbour porpoises (<i>Phocoena phocoena</i>) showed a reduction in occurrence from exposure to a seismic airgun, although the level of response declined over the 10-day seismic survey period.	(Thompson et al. 2013)
	Great tit (<i>Parus major</i>) nestlings exposed to high anthropogenic noise had elevated levels of haptoglobin, whereas artificial light at night and its interaction with noise had no effect on nestling physiology.	(Raap et al. 2017)
	European blackbirds (<i>Turdus merula</i>) started their dawn chorus earlier in areas with high traffic noise, although the shift was not completely separable from the effects of ambient light at night.	(Nordt and Klenke 2013)
Multiple stressors	Rufous-collared sparrows (<i>Zonotrichia capensis</i>) in areas with higher daytime noise started the dawn chorus earlier compared to areas with low anthropogenic noise, whereas light pollution levels didn't affect the onset of the dawn chorus.	(Dorado-Correa et al. 2016)
	Five species of common European songbird sang earlier at dawn when occupying sites with high artificial light at night, whereas anthropogenic noise showed little effect on the timing of the dawn chorus for all species.	(Da Silva et al. 2014)
	Great tit (<i>Parus major</i>) nestlings from sites characterised with varying levels of anthropogenic noise, artificial light at night, and distance from roads explained the variation in oxidative status markers.	(Casasole et al. 2017)

Table S3. Decisions to aid the design and implementation of studies considering intraspecific variation.

Decision topic	Explanation	Examples of good practice	% of studies in Table S1
Experimental design			
Suitable controls	Suitable control treatments are required so that baseline differences between the relevant categories are established	(Neo et al. 2018)	Up to 10% did not clearly report this information
Measures of fitness	Establishing impacts on fitness directly, rather than extrapolating from short-term behavioural or physiological responses	Casper <i>et al.</i> (2013) Potvin & Macdougall-Shackleton (2015)	96% (49/51) did not measure fitness in relation to intraspecific variation
Pseudoreplication	Failure to replicate at one or more levels within an experiment (e.g. in subjects, or failure to replicate sound sources or exemplars)	(McCormick et al. 2018)	51% (18/35) used only one real-noise source or playback exemplar
Sample size	Need sufficient sample sizes for each category being considered (e.g. males and females) rather than just the overall number of subjects	(Dorado-Correa et al. 2018)	43% (19/44) had <10 individuals per category
Captive/laboratory vs field-based experiments			
Experimental control	Laboratory experiments can be tightly controlled and isolated from confounding variables, allowing determination of underlying mechanisms, which is harder to achieve in field experiments		47% (24/51) were captive/laboratory studies 53% (27/51) were field-based experiments
Behavioural responses	Confined animals in laboratory experiments may display a different or narrower range of behaviours. Field-experiments allow natural behaviours to be observed		No study combined both approaches
Acoustic measurements			
Full characterisation of the sound field	For aquatic studies on fish and invertebrates, this includes reporting measures from both particle-motion and sound-pressure domains. For terrestrial studies, the correct frequency weighting for the taxa needs to be applied	(LaZerte et al. 2016; LaZerte et al. 2017; Sabet <i>et al.</i> 2016)	38% did not report detailed acoustic information (14 out of 25 fish and aquatic invertebrate studies; 3 out of 20 terrestrial studies)

<p>Complementary use of real noise sources and loudspeaker playback</p>	<p>Loudspeaker playback isolates the noise as the stressor, free from visual disturbances and other potential confounds. However, loudspeaker use can result in sound fields that can vary considerably from those in real-world situations. Real noise sources are required for acoustic validity, but their use can be logistically challenging and minimising pseudoreplication is difficult. Complementary use of both methods would be best practice.</p>	<p>(Harding <i>et al.</i> 2018)</p>	<p>98% use only either loudspeaker playback or real noise sources (50 out of 51).</p>
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