

Natural born cheats:

Arms-races between cuckoos and their hosts



Tomáš Grim

Department of Zoology
Palacký University, Olomouc



Human Frontier Science Program

General framework: Biological arms-race



laying
incubation
nestlings

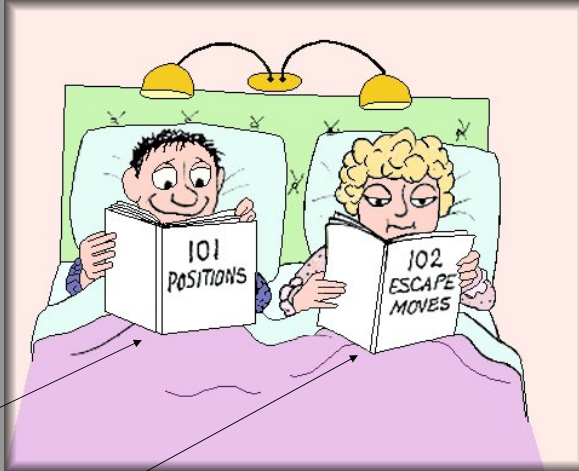
Host
aggression
egg rejection
chick rejection

Parasite
cryptic & fast behaviour
egg mimicry
chick mimicry



Dawkins & Krebs 1979: Proc. R. Soc.

General framework: Biological arms-race



adaptations & counter-adaptations

Dawkins & Krebs 1979: Proc. R. Soc.

Mimicry



Ecological races



Davies & Brooke 1989: J. Anim. Ecol.



What is the mechanism of mimicry?

- chemical mimicry
- perceptual mimicry



- high performance liquid chromatography
- biliverdin, protoporphyrin
- conservative across species
- flexible within species

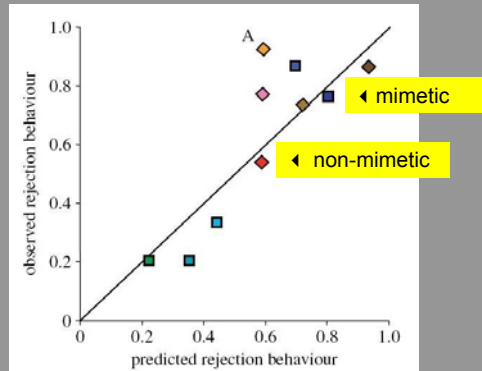


Igic et al. 2012: Proc. R. Soc.

Mimicry is only in the eye of the beholder

⌢ visual modelling

⌢ relevant observer - is never a human!



Cassey et al. 2008: Biol. Lett.

Integrative approach across all breeding stages: EU thrushes (*Turdus* spp.)



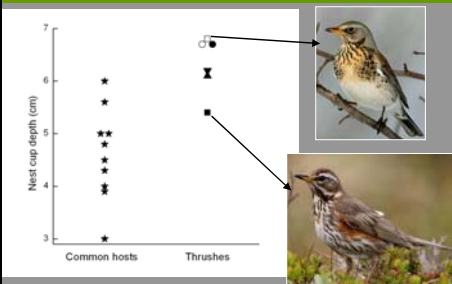
Absence/rarity of parasitism: alternative explanations

Host unsuitability	Cause	Coevolution
Primary	Life-history traits	No
Secondary	Anti-parasite defences	Yes



Soler et al. Oecologia 1999; Honza et al. J. Ethol. 2004

Life-history vs. co-evolutionary traits: common hosts vs. thrushes



↘ mean masks species-specific differences

↘ **reification fallacy!**

↘ abstraction ≠ real thing

↘ exploratory comparison

↘ range vs. *particular* species

Mann-Whitney $P = 0.002$

Welch t-test $P = 0.0003$

Grim et al. J. Anim. Ecol. 2011

Experiments: sympatry vs. allopatry

laying
incubation
nestlings

Host
aggression
egg rejection
chick rejection

Parasite
cryptic & fast behaviour
egg mimicry
chick mimicry



Davies 2000: Cuckoos, cowbirds and other cheats. TA&D Poyser, London.

Material & data analyses Meta-replication: space, time, phylogeny



- ↘ replicates
- ↘ spatial: 12 populations
- ↘ temporal: 1986-2009
- ↘ taxonomic: 4 *Turdus* spp.

- ↘ 1016 nests
- ↘ 1211 experiments

- ↘ generalized lin. mix. models

Bolker et al. Trends Ecol. Evol. 2009

1. line of defence: Are thrushes too aggressive?



- ⌞ low aggression and/or
- ⌞ cuckoo \leq crow
- ⌞ sympatry \sim allopatry
- ⌞ thrushes $<$ common hosts

Grim et al. J. Anim. Ecol. 2011

2. line of defence: Do thrushes reject alien eggs too often/fast?



- ⌞ rejection **frequency** $\sim 50\%$
- ⌞ sympatry \sim allopatry
- ⌞ thrushes \leq common hosts
- ⌞ rejection **latency** $\sim 2-3$ days
- ⌞ sympatry \sim allopatry
- ⌞ thrushes \geq common hosts

Grim et al. J. Anim. Ecol. 2011

3. line of defence: Nestling stage

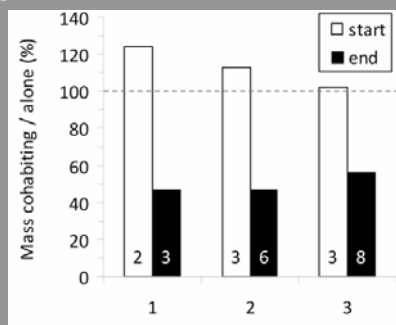
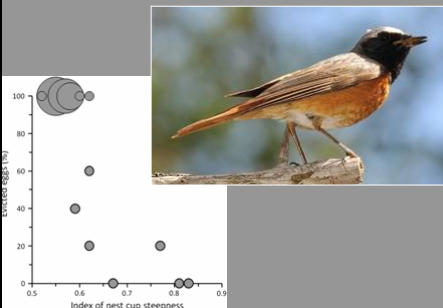
- unsuitable diet?
- defence ~ collateral damage



Grim Behav. Ecol. Sociobiol. 2006

Nest size, egg size and eviction success

- no effect of egg size per se
- strong effect of nest cup steepness (not nest size)
- nest architecture constraint
- forced competition with host chicks



Grim et al. Behav. Ecol. 2009; Grim et al. J. Anim. Ecol. 2011

Poor sample ≠ erroneous but unsure conclusions!

Biologia, Bratislava, 56/5: 549–556, 2001

Differences in behaviour of closely related thrushes (*Turdus philomelos* and *T. merula*) to experimental parasitism by the common cuckoo *Cuculus canorus*

Tomáš GRIM¹ & Marcel HONZA²

¹Laboratory of Ornithology, Faculty of Sciences, Palacký University, Trnava, Czech Republic; e-mail: grim@upfsci.upd.cz
²Institute of Vertebrate Biology, AS CR, Květná 8, CZ-60200 Brno honza@brno.cas.cz

GRIM, T. & HONZA, M., Differences in behaviour of closely related thrushes (*Turdus philomelos* and *T. merula*) towards common cuckoo *Cuculus canorus*. Biologia, Bratislava, 56/5: 549–556, 2001.

The common cuckoo *Cuculus canorus* parasitizes common species sympatric with the brood parasites. Potential host species may escape brood parasitism by high rejection of cuckoo eggs or high aggression.

	n	Effect size (%)
Blackbird	6	66.7
Song thrush	12	58.3

Journal of Animal Ecology

Journal of Animal Ecology 2011, 80, 508–518

doi: 10.1111/j.1365-2656.2010.01798.x

Constraints on host choice: why do parasitic birds rarely exploit some common potential hosts?

Tomáš Grim¹*, Peter Samaš¹, Csaba Moskát², Oddmund Kleven³, Marcel Honza⁴, Arne Moksnes^{5,6}, Eivind Røskoft^{5,6} and Bård G. Stokke^{5,6}

¹Department of Zoology and Laboratory of Ornithology, Palacký University, tř. Svobody 26, CZ–771 46 Olomouc, Czech Republic; ²Animal Ecology Research Group of the Hungarian Academy of Sciences, c/o Hungarian Natural History Museum, H–1083 Budapest, Ludovika tér 2, Hungary; ³National Centre for Biosystematics, Natural History Museum, University of Oslo, P.O. Box 1172 Blindern, N-0318 Oslo, Norway; ⁴Institute of Vertebrate Biology, Academy of Sciences of the Czech Republic, Květná 8, CZ–602 00 Brno, Czech Republic; ⁵Department of Biology, Norwegian University of Science and Technology, NTNU, N-7491 Trondheim, Norway; and ⁶Centre for Advanced Study, CAS, N-0271 Oslo, Norway

Summary

1. Why are some common and apparently suitable resources avoided by potential users? This interesting ecological and evolutionary conundrum is vividly illustrated by obligate brood para-

Grim & Honza Biologia 2001 vs. Grim et al. J. Anim. Ecol. 2011

Sample size: To maximize or to optimize?

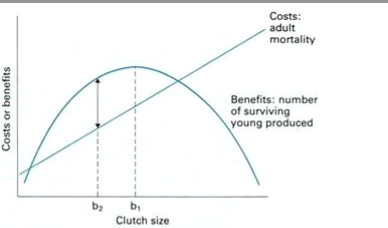
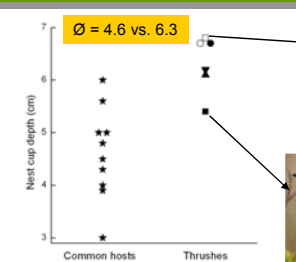


Fig. 1.6 The influence of adult mortality on the optimal clutch size. The number of young produced versus clutch size follows a curve, as in Fig. 1.5, with b_1 being the clutch size which maximizes the number of young produced per brood. Increased clutch size, however, has the cost of increased adult mortality, shown here for simplicity as a straight line. The clutch size which maximizes lifetime reproductive success is b_2 , where the distance between the benefit and cost curves is a maximum. This is less than the clutch size b_1 , which maximizes reproductive success per brood. From Charnov and Krebs (1974).

process, indicating scope for improvement. We should be aware of the fact that choosing sample size is an optimization process. ‘The more samples, the better’ is not a sensible strategy, because it may waste resources and undermine ethical concerns. The sample size used in a study can be too small, which would compromise statistical power and might render the research effort useless, and it can be too large: ‘while wasting time and energy on badly designed experiments is foolish, causing more human or animal suffering or more disturbance to an ecosystem than is absolutely necessary is inexcusable’ (Ruxton & Colegrave 2006, p. 4). There may be cases where very large sample sizes are required because the effect size aimed to be identified is obscure or intentionally small, the random variation in underlying data cannot be reduced by prudent experimentation, or because there are important ethical, economical or societal reasons to minimize the Type-II error (β). Such causes typically apply in medical research, where, for instance, the intended effects or side-effects of a new drug are to be scrutinized. In basic research on behaviour, however, these conditions might be rare, and the temptation to inflate sample size for unjustified reasons should be countered (Still 1982).

Taborsky Ethology 2010

Previous studies – traditional errors



- ↳ large body size
- ↳ large egg size
- ↳ large chick size
- ↳ diet composition
- ↳ **general** life-history traits
- ↳ a „thrush“ = logical error ...
- ↳ ... **reification**
- ↳ species **specific** explanations

„thrushes“ are *primarily* unsuitable hosts

Moksnes et al. 1991; Kleven et al. 1999

Adaptive host selection



- ↳ categories – suitable/unsuitable
- ↳ *continuous* (un)suitability
- ↳ preference for *better* hosts



Kleven et al. Behav. Ecol. Sociobiol. 1999; De Mársico & Rebores Proc. R. Soc. 2008

Traditional approach vs. the "thrush study"

- ▷ **single** model species
- ▷ **single** study population
- ▷ **single** ontog. parasite stage
- ▷ **single** hypothesis
- ▷ ignoring interactions
- ▷ comparisons **or** experiments
- ▷ **general** explanations

= typical characteristics of
(behav.) ecol. studies!

- ▷ taxonomical replicates
- ▷ spatial replicates
- ▷ all ontog. parasite stages
- ▷ multiple hypotheses
- ▷ testing interactions
- ▷ comparisons **and** experiments
- ▷ species **specific** explanations

Grim et al. J. Anim. Ecol. 2011



Traditional approach vs. the "thrush study"

The Many Faces of Replication

Douglas H. Johnson*

ABSTRACT

Replication is one of the three cornerstones of inference from experimental studies, the other two being control and randomization. In fact, replication is essential for the benefits of randomization to apply. In addition to ordinary replication, the repetition of treatments within a study, two other levels of replication have been identified. Pseudoreplication, a termed coined by Stuart Hurlbert, generally involves making multiple measurements on experiment units (which is commendable) and treating them as if they reflected independent responses to treatment (which is erroneous). Metareplication is a higher level of replication in which entire studies are repeated. Scientists are too much concerned about analysis of data within studies and too little concerned about the repeatability of findings from studies conducted under a variety of conditions. Findings that are consistent among studies performed at different locations at different times with different investigators using different methods are likely to be robust and reliable.

Johnson 2006 USGS Paper 34



But why *unsuitable* hosts *reject* parasitism?!

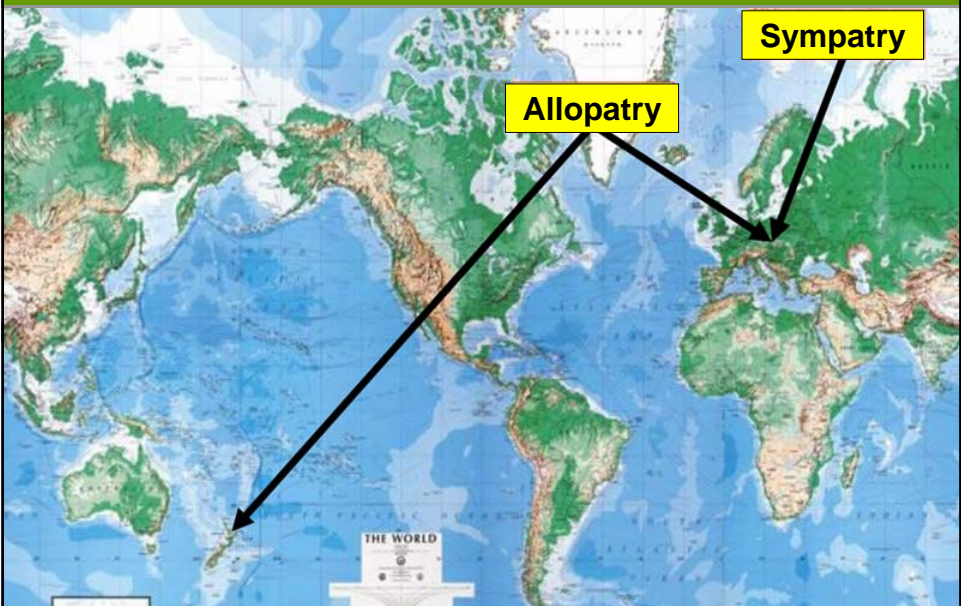
- ⌋ interspecific parasitism (IP)
- ⌋ conspecific parasitism (CP)
- ⌋ IP + CP

⌋ ghost of evolutionary past



Samaš et al. (MS)

Can we know the length of allopatry with parasites?

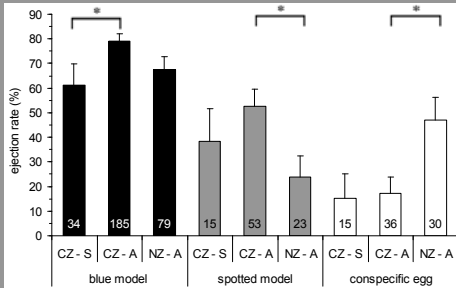
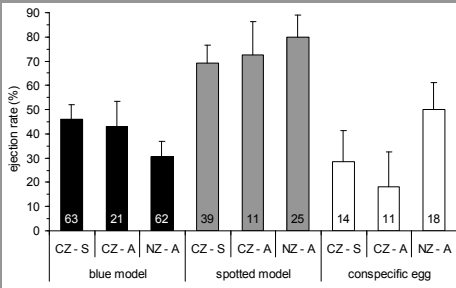




Predictions

	CP (thrushes)	IP (cuckoo)
Rejection of CP	+	—
Ejection costs/errors	+	—
Rejection frequency	$S \leq A$	$S > A$
Latency to rejection	$S \geq A$	$S < A$

Song thrushes and blackbirds reject up to 50% conspecific eggs!



Samaš et al. (MS)

Results

Nest desertion (~20%) is not a response to parasitism



	CP (thrushes)	IP (cuckoo)
Rejection of CP	+	
Ejection costs/errors	+	
Rejection frequency	S = A	
Latency to rejection	S = A	

Samaš et al. (MS)

Results



Nest desertion (~10%) is not a response to parasitism

	CP (thrushes)	IP (cuckoo)
Rejection of CP	+	
Ejection costs/errors	+	
Rejection frequency	S = A	
Latency to rejection	S = A	

Samaš et al. (MS)

Does it all make sense?

Host	Cuckoo	Energetic cost of rearing (unit: 1 consp. chick)
Reed warbler	Alone	6.45
Song thrush	Alone	2.11
	Cohabiting	0.15
Blackbird	Alone	0.06

In thrushes CP is *more* costly than IP!!!

Grim (in prep.)

Lessons (we know them ... but forget too often:-)



- pseudoreplication
- metareplication ...
- ... space, time, phylogeny etc.
- sample size (benefits/costs)
- controls
- "multiple hypotheses"

... + Chamberlin Science 1890

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