

1 *PERSPECTIVES*

2 The value of artificial stimuli in behavioral research:

3 Making the case for egg rejection studies in avian brood parasitism

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22 *Short title:* Artificial stimuli in egg rejection research

24 *Abstract*

25

26 Experimentation is at the heart of classical and modern behavioral ecology research. The
27 manipulation of natural cues allows us to establish causation between aspects of the
28 environment, both internal and external to organisms, and their effects on animals'
29 behaviors. In recognition systems research, including the quest to understand the
30 coevolution of sensory cues and decision rules underlying the rejection of foreign eggs by
31 hosts of avian brood parasites, artificial stimuli have been used extensively, but not without
32 controversy. In response to repeated criticism about the value of artificial stimuli, we
33 describe four potential benefits of using them in egg recognition research, two each at the
34 proximate and ultimate levels of analysis: (1) the standardization of stimuli for
35 developmental studies and (2) the disassociation of correlated traits of egg phenotypes used
36 for sensory discrimination, as well as (3) the estimation of the strength of selection on
37 parasitic egg mimicry and (4) the establishment of the evolved limits of sensory and
38 cognitive plasticity. We also highlight constraints of the artificial stimulus approach, and
39 provide a specific test of whether responses to artificial cues can accurately predict
40 responses to natural cues. Artificial stimuli have a general value in ethological research
41 beyond research in brood parasitism, and may be especially critical in field studies involving
42 the manipulation of a single parameter, where other, confounding variables are difficult or
43 impossible to control experimentally or statistically. *Keywords:* artificial stimuli, brood
44 parasitism, egg rejection, recognition systems, research methods, unnatural

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48 *Background*

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50 Over 50 years ago, Niko Tinbergen performed classic experiments to determine whether egg
51 size and coloration affected avian parents' choices to incubate eggs or remove broken
52 eggshells and thereby reduce predation on nests (Tinbergen 1951, Tinbergen et al. 1962). By
53 testing competing predictions, drawn from alternative hypotheses at the same level of
54 analysis, Tinbergen endorsed and illustrated the value of the alternative hypothesis-testing
55 framework for evolutionary and mechanistic studies of animal behavior in the wild. A critical
56 component of these experimental approaches was the use of artificial stimuli that were
57 inspired by natural forms, but they either mimicked or exaggerated aspects of those
58 through the use of artificial materials (e.g., oversized model eggs, and brighter painted
59 colors, and artificially larger spots, than seen in natural eggs). In this way, the experiments
60 limited and defined both the modality and the degree of variation within and among egg
61 traits in order to best isolate those features that predictably elicited natural behaviors in
62 wild animals.

63

64 Researchers have frequently and productively used painted model eggs, as well as dyed
65 natural eggs in the search for the recognition cues used by hosts of brood parasitic birds to
66 reject foreign eggs: well over 10,000 such egg rejection experiments have been completed
67 (reviewed in Grim 2007). In most of these studies, a model or painted-over natural 'parasitic
68 egg' is placed into an active nest and monitored for several days in order to determine

69 whether the egg is accepted, pecked, or ejected, or the nest is abandoned (e.g., Davies and
70 Brooke 1989, Antonov et al. 2009, Moskát et al. 2014).

71

72 Yet, in recent years, both the value, and the general applicability of evolutionary conclusions
73 drawn about natural behaviors, through the use of artificial stimuli in egg rejection research,
74 have been repeatedly and openly questioned. Here, we define an artificial egg stimulus, as
75 any material and pigment that is not taken directly from nature; for example, according to
76 this definition, a natural or model egg dyed blue with a human-manufactured paint, to
77 resemble the avian-perception of the immaculate egg of an American robin *Turdus*
78 *migratorius*, is still an artificial stimulus (Croston and Hauber 2014). Accordingly, Honza and
79 colleagues (2007) used artificial dyes, to test the chromatic basis of foreign egg rejection by
80 song thrush *T. philomelos*. Avian visual modelling (Avilés 2008) was then applied to the
81 reflectance spectra of the artificial colors used, and combined with experimental rates of egg
82 rejection to characterize, for the first time, the sensory-perceptual basis of egg recognition
83 in birds (Cassey et al. 2008). Several studies followed these early works, including those
84 using conspecific eggs to characterize the fine scale perceptual cues causing egg rejection
85 behavior in other host species (e.g., Avilés et al. 2010, Spottiswoode and Stevens 2010,
86 Stevens et al. 2013a), but some of these also included pointed criticism that experiments
87 with artificial egg colors, and the resulting perceptual modelling, were not relevant to
88 evolutionary and ecological studies of brood parasitism in natural contexts. Recently, we
89 prepared a new manuscript inspired by Honza et al. (2007), and eventually published it (Bán
90 et al. 2013) but during peer-review, we repeatedly encountered several incarnations of a
91 knee-jerk reaction to our use of artificial stimuli to infer not only mechanistic but also

92 evolutionary conclusions from the study. David Lahti's commentary (2014) in this journal
93 unpacks some of these concerns to complement our commentary below.

94

95 We disagree with the premise and conclusion about whether artificial stimuli can be used to
96 explore evolutionary questions of brood parasites. Specifically, Tinbergen and his followers,
97 including ourselves, clearly recognize(d) that the mechanisms themselves are an evolved
98 phenotype that in turn influences the expression and outcome of selective pressures. Thus,
99 mechanistic and evolutionary questions are never uninformative about each other
100 (Taborsky 2014). Furthermore, for evolutionary studies aimed at understanding the causes
101 and consequences of natural variation of cues and responses, it is assumed and understood
102 that extant variation is the result of evolutionary forces that have constrained it (Samaš et
103 al. 2014). In turn, extending or exploring the phenotype's variable space beyond the natural
104 range is precisely what we need to do to probe how selection might be acting on novel
105 traits.

106

107 Additionally, from an evolutionary perspective, whether a parasitic egg is rejected because it
108 is recognized as an egg or a non-egg (e.g., detritus, flower petal) in the nest cup, is
109 equivalent at the level of the fitness outcomes of responding to brood parasitism (i.e., egg
110 rejection: beneficial; egg acceptance: costly). In other words, no matter how and what hosts
111 perceive/interpret about the different objects (including eggs) that they see in the nest, the
112 only thing that matters from an ultimate/evolutionary perspective is the resulting fitness of
113 the host and the parasite. Conceptually, the same criticism can also apply for the use of a
114 natural, non-mimetic cuckoo egg: it, too, may be rejected because the host considers it a

115 piece of flower petal or other detritus fallen in the nest, or it may accepted it because its
116 appearance is so different from the hosts' own eggs so as to not be considered an egg, but
117 instead an integral nest construction material. What and whether artificial (and natural)
118 eggs placed into the nest are considered as "eggs" is an empirical question that requires
119 detailed and careful experimental analyses (reviewed by Guigueno and Sealy 2012) but
120 these questions should not be answered based on human (peer-reviewer's) *a priori*
121 interpretation of what a naturalistic stimulus should look like and what constitutes a
122 '*caricature of nature*'. If anything, recent brood parasitism research has taught us that over
123 the course a handful of decades, hosts can evolve brand new egg coloration to evade the
124 costs of accepting mimetic parasite eggs (Spottiswoode and Stevens 2012), thus what may
125 be a caricature today, might be reality tomorrow.

126

127 To illustrate our argument in the context of the aims of ethological research, we highlight
128 four potential benefits of the use of artificial colors in the study of avian egg rejection
129 behaviors; critically, again, these benefits span both the ultimate and proximate levels of
130 analysis (Tinbergen 1963). We also use published data to illustrate to fellow researchers,
131 and to respond to critics, how to assess whether experiments with artificial stimuli may be
132 used to interpret natural variation in host responses to natural stimuli.

133

134 *Four potential benefits of artificial stimuli in egg rejection research:*

135

136 **1. The standardization of stimuli for developmental studies, with a focus on repeatability**

137

138 Individual hosts of brood parasites may consistently reject or accept naturally laid parasitic
139 eggs across repeated parasitism events, may switch from being acceptors to being rejecters,
140 (or vice versa), or may vary their responses based on other ecological cues. For example,
141 older oriental reed warblers *Acrocephalus orientalis* are more likely to reject common
142 cuckoo *Cuculus canorus* eggs than are younger warblers (Lotem et al. 1992). To understand
143 the ontogenetic basis of egg recognition and rejection, including its experience dependence,
144 and the roles of learning and maternal effects, requires experimentation with a
145 standardized set of stimuli across different time points of the host's lifespan (Samaš et al.
146 2011, Grim et al. 2014, Moskát et al. 2014). Because natural egg coloration changes within
147 days of laying in the nest (Moreno et al. 2011), as well as in storage under controlled
148 conditions (Cassey et al. 2010), and natural nests may be difficult to find in a timely manner
149 and the donor-species may be a protected or otherwise vulnerable taxon, it is not always
150 possible, and/or ethically justifiable, to use natural eggs as consistent stimuli for
151 developmental studies, including the study of repeatability. For example, repeatability
152 estimation requires the use of identical stimulus across repeated experiments with the same
153 individual; as any two natural eggs are never identical, the only way to test repeatability
154 robustly is through the use of artificial models (for details see Grim et al. 2014).

155

156 **2. Disassociation of correlated phenotypic traits of eggs used for sensory discrimination**

157

158 Once it has been established from observational and experimental studies whether and to
159 what extent hosts reject natural parasitic eggs, further use of natural eggs to understand the
160 sensory basis of egg recognition is a heuristically limited approach (de la Colina et al. 2012).

161 Natural stimuli often show limited variability overall in multidimensional trait space, but
162 exhibit extensive covariation between specific traits (e.g., avian feather colors: Stoddard
163 and Prum 2011); for example, eggs of brown-headed cowbirds *Molothrus ater*, that are
164 always rejected by American robins, are always smaller in size, beige in background, and
165 heavily maculated, compared to the larger and blue immaculate eggs of this host species
166 (Friedmann 1929). Any of these differing egg traits, or their combinations, may be the
167 possible recognition cue(s) for egg rejection, but these traits might simply be physiologically
168 or structurally constrained to co-vary. Thus, using natural cowbird eggs exclusively as egg
169 rejection stimuli prevents testing the relative contribution of size, color, and maculation in
170 American robin's egg recognition process (Rothstein 1982, Croston and Hauber 2014).
171 Instead, using unnatural combination of natural variation (e.g, small blue model eggs),
172 generates novel (artificial) models which can critically aid the characterization of the
173 proximate basis of the egg rejection cues used by hosts to eliminate parasitic eggs in the
174 nest.

175

176 **3. The estimation of the strength of selection on parasitic egg mimicry**

177

178 The rejection of parasitic eggs by hosts represents a critical selective pressure in the
179 coevolutionary arms race that drives parasites to evolve increasingly mimetic eggs, which
180 required increasingly fine-tuned sensory systems to be detected by hosts (Davies 2000). This
181 is because female parasites have nil fitness when their eggs are rejected and, thus,
182 represent an evolutionary dead end. Yet, some parasites lay highly mimetic eggs, many of
183 which are still rejected, whereas other parasites lay inaccurately or poorly mimetic eggs,

184 most of which are accepted (Stoddard and Stevens 2011). To characterize comparative
185 patterns of egg rejection behaviors, and to reconstruct the evolutionary trajectories of how
186 rejection behaviors have changed with exposure to brood parasitism, requires a
187 standardized metric of egg rejection responses (Grim et al. 2011). These, by definition,
188 cannot be based on responses to natural parasitic eggs, because the coevolutionary
189 hypothesis assumes a reciprocal and dynamic process between hosts and parasites, which
190 will result in varying degrees of host-brood parasite egg mimicry across different systems
191 (Ilgic et al. 2012). Instead, using a specific, variably rejected model egg color, can provide a
192 metric of egg rejection directly comparable across host populations and species.
193 Accordingly, analyzing the responses of different species of common cuckoo hosts in Europe
194 against the same artificial egg color, revealed that more discriminating and rejecting hosts
195 are parasitized by perceptually more mimetic parasite eggs (Stoddard and Stevens 2011).

196

197 **4. Establishment of the evolved limits of sensory and cognitive plasticity**

198

199 Presenting hosts exclusively with foreign eggs that are within the natural range of variation
200 can also lead to incorrect conclusions about whether hosts recognize and reject foreign
201 eggs. For example, some hosts, including the common redstart *Phoenicurus phoenicurus*
202 accept virtually all naturally laid parasitic common cuckoo eggs (Rutilla et al. 2006). When
203 experimentally testing such a host's egg discrimination ability by introducing natural
204 parasite eggs laid elsewhere, model eggs painted to resemble them, or host eggs only
205 partially dyed, this host accepts most of these foreign egg types, too (Rutilla et al. 2002,
206 Hauber et al. 2014). The results would then lead to the conclusion that egg rejection as a

207 defence against parasites has not evolved in the redstart. However, there is a biologically
208 critical, alternative functional explanation: that even if such hosts have evolved sensory
209 mechanisms to recognize increasingly similar foreign eggs, their recognition mechanisms
210 may be circumvented by the high accuracy of the coevolved mimicry of the parasitic egg's
211 appearance; in other words, the cuckoo eggs are such a good match of the redstart eggs
212 that they cannot be discriminated and, thus, rejected by this host. This alternative
213 hypothesis can be directly tested solely through the use of artificial eggs that deviate in a
214 known direction from the phenotypic range of natural host and parasite eggs; using natural
215 eggs of other species, or even conspecifics, would introduce both tractable (measured) and
216 intractable (unmeasured) sources of variation. Once the host's ability to reject such non-
217 matching eggs has been established, experimenters can move onto the use of better
218 matching (more mimetic) eggs in order to meaningfully isolate more proximate drivers of
219 egg rejection. Similarly, most of the grassland passerines that lay beige and spotted eggs,
220 accept all or nearly all beige and spotted cowbird-like eggs, but reject blue model eggs
221 (Klippenstine and Sealy 2008). Importantly, in hosts that do reject non-mimetic eggs, the use
222 of increasingly mimetic models is needed to establish the sensory thresholds of these
223 discrimination abilities, and then to test whether these perceptual acceptance thresholds
224 function adaptively, i.e. allow the rejection foreign eggs to reduce the fitness costs of brood
225 parasitism (e.g. Croston and Hauber 2014).

226

227 *Responses to artificial stimuli can predict behaviors in response to natural stimuli: the case of*
228 *egg rejection by a brood parasite host*

229

230 We recognize here that the use of artificial colors and/or materials can also be a severe
231 constraint on the utility of these experiments in evolutionary interpretations of egg
232 rejection data, for example when using treatments which only change the color of the egg in
233 spectral ranges not perceived by the subject (Avilés et al. 2006), or when model eggs are
234 made from materials that cannot be pierced or grasped for successful ejection, despite
235 repeated rejection attempts by hosts (Antonov et al. 2009). Nonetheless, to evaluate our
236 specific claim that, contrary to our critics, experimentally induced behaviors in response to
237 artificial stimuli can help to explain both causation and pattern in fitness-relevant responses
238 to natural cues, we focused on our own published data (Bán et al. 2013, Moskát et al. 2014).
239 Specifically, we tested for a predictive relationship between the evolved behavior (egg
240 ejection) and the artificial stimuli (dyed egg colors) at nests of the free-living great reed
241 warblers *Acrocephalus arundinaceus*, an intermediate rejecter host species of the common
242 cuckoo *Cuculus canorus* in central Hungary (Bán et al. 2013). From that study, we obtained
243 host responses to experimental parasitism with a single foreign egg (host egg dyed with a
244 highlighter pen of one of five colors, n = 12-16 nests), and contrasted them with egg
245 rejection rates of a natural conspecific egg (moved a different host's nest, n = 16; Bártol et
246 al. 2002), and a natural parasite egg (a cuckoo egg moved from a parasitized to a non-
247 parasitized nest, n = 13 nests; C. Moskát, unpublished data). We then calculated a stimulus
248 metric that can be applied to both artificial and natural color stimuli: we measured avian-
249 visible spectral reflectance (300-700 nm), and used perceptual modelling to estimate
250 chromatic contrast distances between natural host eggs' background coloration and
251 stimulus egg coloration (Moskát et al. 2014).

252

253 Our data points did not include the limits of rejection probabilities (0%, 100%), and so we
254 used a linear regression analysis between egg rejection rates and pairwise just noticeable
255 differences (chromatic JNDs, $n = 8$ randomized egg-pairs per color type; Fig. 1); the result
256 showed a significantly positive relationship between perceivable chromatic contrasts and
257 egg rejection rates ($R^2 = 0.29$, $F_{5, 38} = 15.3$, $P = 0.0004$). When we also plotted the mean
258 values of JNDs and experimentally induced rejection rates of single, natural conspecific eggs
259 or single, natural parasitic eggs amongst the data points from these artificial colors, the
260 natural eggs fell within the 95% confidence interval of the predicted means (Fig. 1); the
261 combined model, including both artificial and natural eggs, was also significant ($R^2 = 0.32$,
262 $F_{6,45} = 20.7$, $P < 0.0001$). The implication is that behavioral responses to natural stimuli are
263 within the range predicted by variation in behavioral responses elicited by diverse artificial
264 stimuli.

265

266 *Conclusions*

267

268 Conceptually, our arguments go far beyond studies on egg rejection by hosts of avian brood
269 parasites, as similar dyeing treatments are also used for experimental studies on nest
270 predation (Weidinger 2001), nest mate recognition (Tibbetts 2002), and in many other
271 experimental fields of animal ecology, evolution, and behavior (Ferrari et al. 2008). For
272 example, artificial stimuli that fall far outside of range of natural stimuli proved to be useful
273 in non-brood parasitism studies, e.g., camouflage (Stevens et al. 2013b) and sexual selection
274 (Safran et al. 2010). Here, we argue that experimental studies with wild animals should not
275 be classified *a priori* as strictly mechanistic, and discarded as irrelevant to fitness, on the

276 basis that manipulations involve artificial stimuli in quantity, in quality, or in both. Instead,
277 artificial stimuli should be appreciated and utilized when these allow for the careful design,
278 alteration, and delivery of exact cues and triggers that elicit fitness-relevant responses in
279 freely behaving animals. This is especially relevant for studies in the wild, where other social
280 and ecological cues and contexts are typically uncontrolled, and most also remain
281 unmeasured. In turn, the possibility to design specific stimulus types that vary (only) along
282 known trait dimension(s), remains the core strength of behavioral experimentation.
283 Implementing diverse, and yet standardized stimuli can be informative for both proximate,
284 mechanistic questions about developmental and cognitive processes, and for ultimate,
285 comparative analyses of predicted behavioral responses induced by these stimuli, and their
286 consequences on fitness. However, we also recognize that there are limits to the use and
287 utility of artificial stimuli in the study of evolutionary processes (see Lahti 2014
288 commentary). To address these concerns empirically, we recommend (and illustrate above)
289 the use of statistical checks to assess whether chosen stimuli, and/or the behavioral
290 responses elicited by these, fit or predict the known range of responses elicited by natural
291 stimuli.

292

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294

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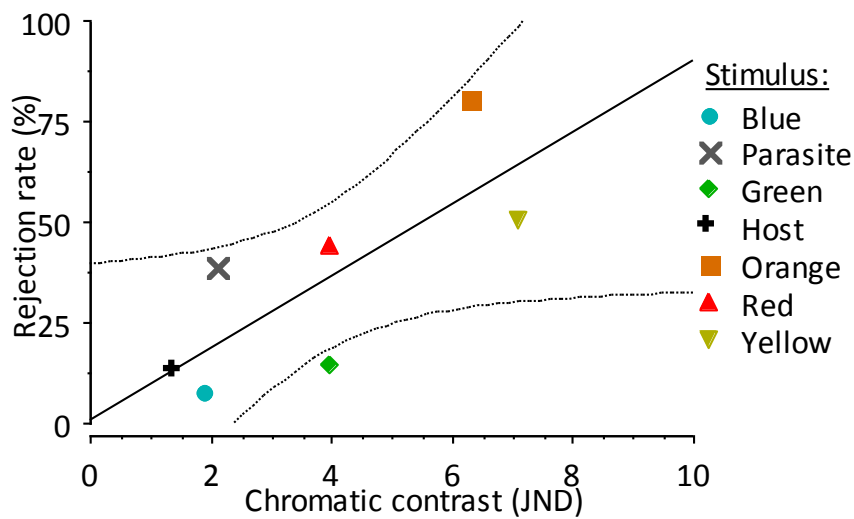
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305

306

307 *Figure 1.* The relationship between egg rejection rates of great reed warblers in response to
308 experimentally introduced eggs, and avian perceivable distances (chromatic JNDs) between
309 natural coloration of the host's own eggs and the artificial coloration of artificially dyed
310 natural eggs, as well as of natural conspecific and natural parasitic, common cuckoo eggs.
311 The graph depicts the mean JND and the percent of rejection per egg type, the regression
312 line (solid), and its 95 % confidence intervals (dotted lines).

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