Tick infestation probability increases with human recreational pressure and exploratory

behaviour in wild great tits (*Parus major*)

Robert E. Rollins[a,d], Alexia Mouchet[b], Gabriele Margos[c], Volker Fingerle[c], Noémie S. Becker[a], Niels J.

Dingemanse[b]

[a]Division of Evolutionary Biology, Faculty of Biology, LMU Munich, Grosshaderner Str. 2, 82152

Planegg-Martinsried, Germany

Emails: nbecker@bio.lmu.de (Noémie S. Becker), rollins@bio.lmu.de (Robert E. Rollins)

[b]Behavioural Ecology Group, Ludwig-Maximilians University Munich/Department Biology II,

Grosshaderner Str. 2, 82152 Planegg-Martinsried, Germany

Emails: dingemanse@biologie.uni-muenchen.de (Niels Dingemanse), mouchet@biologie.uni-

muenchen.de (Alexia Mouchet)

[c]National Reference Center for Borrelia, Bayerisches Landesamt fuer Gesundheit und

Lebensmittelsicherheit (LGL), Oberschleissheim Office, Veterinaerstr. 2, 85764 Oberschleissheim,

Germany

Emails: Gabriele.Margos@lgl.bayern.de (Gabrielle Margos), Volker.Fingerle@lgl.bayern.de (Volker

Fingerle)

[d]Corresponding Author:

Robert E. Rollins (rollins@bio.lmu.de)

Division of Evolutionary Biology, Faculty of Biology, LMU Munich, Grosshaderner Str. 2, 82152

Planegg-Martinsried, Germany

Office C01.035, Tel: +49 (0)89 / 2180-74152, Fax: +49 (0)89 / 2180-74104

Abstract

Ticks are parasites that feed on the blood of various vertebrate hosts, including many species of bird. Birds can disperse ticks over short and long distances, therefore impacting tick population dynamics. The likelihood that birds attract ticks should depend on their behaviour and the environment. We studied various key ecological variables (breeding density, human disturbance) and phenotypic traits (exploratory behaviour; body condition) proposed to predict tick burden in great tits (*Parus major*). Our study spanned over three years and 12 human-recreated plots, equipped with nest-boxes in southern Germany. Adult breeders were assessed for exploratory behaviour, tick burden, and body condition. For each plot, human disturbance was quantified as a human recreational pressure index during biweekly nest box inspections by scoring the number of recreants using the plots. Infestation probability but not tick burden increased with exploratory behaviour. We also found moderate support for a positive effect of recreational pressure on infestation probability. Further, body condition negatively predicted tick burden. Individuals were repeatable in tick burden across years. Our study implies that infestation probability and tick burden are governed by distinct ecological and phenotypic drivers. Our findings also highlight the importance of incorporating ecological and individual variation in host phenotypes to predict spatiotemporal distributions of ticks in nature. (207/350-word limit)

Keywords: Exploratory behaviour, great tits, host-tick relationships, *Parus major*, infestation probability, tick burden, recreational pressure (7/8 words supplied)

Text Word Count

(Word Count: 4863, w/ Figures: 5470)

1. Introduction

Ticks are obligate ectoparasites and require a blood-meal between each distinct life stage (Hillyard 1996; Kurtenbach et al. 2006).Thus, tick population dynamics depend on host movement and behaviour (Hillyard 1996; Hasle 2013). In turn, ticks can influence host population dynamics by affecting host fitness (Heylen et al. 2009), condition (Heylen and Matthysen 2008; Müller et al. 2013; Norte et al. 2013), and behaviour (Hoodless et al. 2002; Barber and Dingemanse 2010; Sih et al. 2018) through blood feeding and potential pathogen transfer (Stanek 2009; Norte et al. 2013). Bird species are important hosts of various tick species, disperse ticks over short and large distances (Hasle 2013), and thus affect tick-borne pathogen dynamics (Stanek 2009; Hasle 2013). Insight into the main sources of variation in avian tick uptake and burden is thus required to predict the spatiotemporal distribution of ticks in nature.

The likelihood and number of ticks carried by an individual bird vary as a function of multiple interacting ecological factors affecting tick survival in the breeding habitat, such as temperature or humidity (Lindgren et al. 2000; Oorebeek and Kleindorfer 2008; Kiffner et al. 2011; Titcomb et al. 2017), host breeding density (Oorebeek and Kleindorfer 2008; Takumi et al. 2019), and vegetation type/coverage (Kiffner et al. 2011; K. Tack et al. 2012; W. Tack et al. 2012; Tack et al. 2013), and are thus predicted to covary with habitat modification and climatic change (Lindgren et al. 2000; Randolph 2004; Akimov and Nebogatkin 2016). For example, city-dwelling birds may carry lower tick burdens (Evans et al. 2009; Hamer et al. 2012) as ticks are less abundant in urban environments (Akimov and Nebogatkin 2016). However, birds in worse physiological condition may also attract more ticks because they are more susceptible to take up parasites (Barber and Dingemanse 2010; Abbey-Lee et al. 2016; Hutfluss and Dingemanse 2019). Further studies documenting ecological predictors of tick burden are therefore required to firmly establish factors with general versus study-specific predictive effects (Kelly 2006; Nakagawa and Parker 2015). In this study, we quantified tick burdens on an avian host, the great

tit (*Parus major*), within 12 nest box plots surveyed for breeding density and human disturbance levels

across three breeding seasons. This enabled us to investigate the role of these two key environmental

factors in shaping avian tick burden.

Tick burden can also vary among individual birds as a function of individual-specific traits, such as

behaviour (Barber and Dingemanse 2010; Newman et al. 2015; Sih et al. 2018) or body condition (Norte

et al. 2013; Newman et al. 2015). For instance, bird species with larger average body sizes have increased

tick burdens compared to smaller bird species (Newman et al. 2015) as do bird species with a higher

proportion of ground foraging behaviour (Newman et al. 2015; Loss et al. 2016; Kocianová et al. 2017).

Similarly, within populations of the same species, individual-specific differences in foraging or social

behaviour can also predict tick burdens (Sih et al. 2018). For example, individuals that are more active

and explorative in their (foraging) behaviour may encounter more parasites (i.e. ticks), and consequently

recruit higher tick burdens (Barber and Dingemanse 2010; Sih et al. 2018; Taggart et al. 2018). Body

condition and exploratory behaviour are both repeatable traits in our great tit populations (Stuber et al.

2013; Moiron et al. 2018; Moiron et al. 2019). To quantify effects of body condition and exploratory

behaviour on tick burden in this study, we assayed both traits on all birds in each year, such that effects

on tick burden could be estimated among-individuals (Niemelä and Dingemanse). Among-individual

relationships imply that long-term repeatable differences in phenotypic traits predict tick burden. Sex

and age may also play a role in avian tick burden as males (versus females) tend to have higher tick

burdens and older (versus younger) birds have lower tick burdens (Heylen and Matthysen 2008; Heylen

et al. 2013).

The overall aim of this study was to test effects of environmental factors (breeding density and human

disturbance) and phenotypic traits (body condition, exploratory behaviour) on tick burden in the wild.

Our repeated measures design additionally enabled the quantification of the amount of variance in tick

burden attributable to among-year (temporal variation), among-plot (spatial variation), and among-bird

(individual variation) variation, thereby acquiring quantitative estimates of the magnitude of variation

attributable to multiple biological levels of variation.

2. Material and Methods

2.1. Study sites and data collection

Our study was performed on 12 nest box plots within a 10×15 km^2 area in southern Munich (47°

97'N, 11° 21'E) which were established in autumn 2009. Each plot was fitted with 50 nest boxes in a

regular grid covering approximately 9 hectares. Breeding parameters (detailed below) were monitored

for three years (2017-2019) within all plots except one plot that was monitored only in 2017. Each nest-

box was inspected biweekly during the breeding seasons (April-July) for nesting activity. During such

plot inspection, the number of recreants was counted as a measure of human disturbance (detailed by

Hutfluss & Dingemanse, (2019)).

When hatchlings were 10-12 days old, both parents were captured in the nest box using a spring trap.

Un-banded birds were given a unique, numbered band. Birds were then tested for their exploratory

behaviour (detailed below), weighed, morphologically measured (Moiron et al. 2019), aged based on

plumage characteristic as first year breeder or older (Dingemanse et al. 2020), and assessed for ticks

(protocol detailed below). All birds were captured in May (with a few captures in June in 2018).

2.2. Exploratory behaviour

Exploratory behaviour was measured using a novel environment test adapted to the field from

established protocols (Stuber et al. 2013). Birds were transferred to a holding box attached to a cage

($61L \times 39W \times 40H$ cm^3) fitted with a mesh front and three perches, representing the novel environment.

The focal bird was released into the novel environment without handling and recorded for two minutes

with the field observer located out of sight. Videos were subsequently scored by dividing the cage into

six equal sections and three floor sections as described in (Stuber et al. 2013). Exploration score was

calculated as the sum of movements the individual did between these sections (Abbey-Lee and

Dingemanse 2019; Dingemanse et al. 2020).

2.3. Tick burden and collection

Ticks tend to concentrate around the eyes and beak of great tits (Heylen and Matthysen 2008). A

regional patch examination protocol (reviewed in (Lydecker et al. 2019)) was developed to standardize

the screening: 1) screen around the eyes/ears and along the margin of the beak on both sides of the bird,

2) screen underneath the beak, 3) screen along the top margin of the beak, 4) screen the top of the head.

All captured birds were screened in 2018-2019, while in 2017 only a sample of birds were screened

instead. The total number of ticks carried by each captured bird was recorded. In 2018 and 2019, ticks

were collected using fine tweezers and stored in 99% ethanol as part of another study.

2.4. Recreational pressure index

During each plot inspection, all observers recorded each recreant seen and its specific location (see

(Hutfluss and Dingemanse 2019)). Each recreant was connected to the first observation to avoid double

counts. The probability to observe a recreant during a plot inspection is biased by various factors

(Hutfluss and Dingemanse 2019). To obtain an unbiased index of recreational pressure, the binary

probability to observe recreants was calculated using all inspections conducted 2010-2019 (n = 3724

inspections). This probability was calculated using a binomial generalized linear mixed effects model

(GLMM) fitting fixed effects for plot inspection duration, the number of observers, and starting time (in

hours from sunrise) (Hutfluss and Dingemanse 2019) We fitted random intercepts for each unique

combination of plot and year (termed plot-year, see (Abbey-Lee et al. 2016; Araya-Ajoy et al. 2016;

Araya-Ajoy and Dingemanse 2017)) to acquire an average value of recreational pressure for each plot

in each year, and for date of observation to control for date-specific environmental effects. We extracted

best linear unbiased predictors (BLUPs) for each plot-year between 2017-2019 (n = 34) and used them

in subsequent models as a recreational pressure index. The usage of BLUPs has been criticised when

associated uncertainty is not taken forward; some have proposed to estimate a posterior distribution of

possible BLUP values and thereby take forward uncertainty in subsequent analyses (Hadfield et al. 2010;

Houslay and Wilson 2017). However, recent work has shown that taking forward uncertainty in BLUP-

values resulted in biased estimates, whereas utilizing average BLUPs as fixed effects was shown to be

less precise but unbiased (Dingemanse et al. 2020). Therefore, we here present the estimated effect of

the average BLUP values.

2.5. Data Preparation

The scaled mass index (Peig and Green 2009) was used as our measure of body condition. Briefly,

each body mass measurement was multiplied by the mean tarsus length of the population (separately for

each sex) which was first divided by the individual tarsus length (measured at the same time as body

mass) raised to a scaling exponent calculated from a log transformed regression of tarsus on body mass

measurements as described in Peig & Green, (2009). This regression was calculated using all bird records

from 2010-2019 (n = 4273 records) which included individuals repeatedly captured and measured.

Certain factors, such as experience (Dingemanse et al. 2012; Dingemanse et al. 2020), influence

exploration scores and need to be corrected for to avoid biased measures. Individual mean exploratory

scores were calculated using a linear mixed effects model (LMM) on exploratory behaviour data from

all years (2010-2019) (n = 4251) (outlined in (Dingemanse et al. 2020)) assuming a Gaussian error

distribution. Sequence number (i.e. the number assays per bird) was fitted as a fixed effect covariate, as

well as individual and plot-year as random intercepts. An average BLUP per individual, representing an

exploratory score corrected for experience, was extracted and used in subsequent analysis as a measure

of an individual's average exploratory score.

Density was calculated as the number of breeding pairs producing first clutches per hectare.

2.6. Statistical Analysis

167 Tick infestation of great tits was analysed in two parts using GLMMs. First, infestation probability

168 was estimated using all recorded captures between 2017-2019 (n = 784 records). Second, tick burden

169 (i.e. absolute number of ticks observed) was modelled using only infested individuals (n = 520 records).

170 For both response variables, the model set up was the same. Fixed effects were fitted for recreational

171 pressure, breeding density, body condition, sex, age, and mean individual exploration score. Random

172 intercepts were fitted for year, plot, plot-year, field observer, nest-box, and individual. Prior to analysis,

173 all fixed effects were variance standardized, such that the statistical intercepts of our models reflected

174 the value for the average individual in the average environmental condition.

175 All statistical analyses were performed in R (version 3.5.3) (R Core Team 2019). Models were run

176 using the functions *lmer* and *glmer* from the package *lme4* (Bates et al. 2015) assuming either binomial

177 (infestation probability) or Poisson (tick burden) error distributions. Mean estimates and their 95%

178 credible intervals (CI) were estimated based on 5,000 simulations using the *sim* function from the *arm*

179 package (Gelman and Su 2016). Residual errors were calculated according to Nakagawa & Schielzeth,

180 (2010). Adjusted repeatability values were calculated as the proportion of variance unexplained by the

181 fixed effects that was explained by the focal random effect. Effects of fixed effects were considered

182 "strongly supported" when their 95% CI did not overlap zero or "moderately supported" if the point

183 estimate was skewed away from but overlapped zero. Estimates that were centred on zero were viewed

184 as having strong support for the absence of an effect (Dingemanse et al. 2020).

185 3. Results

186 Adult great tits carrying ticks were found in all study plots and all years (Figure 1) with an average

187 tick burden of (mean ± s.e.) 5.63 ± 0.33 ticks per infested bird (Figure 2). Infestation probability varied

188 between plots (Table 1) but not tick burden (Table 1). Both tick burden and infestation probability, varied

189 among nest-boxes (Table 1). Individuals were not repeatable in infestation probability (Table 1) but were

190 moderately repeatable in tick burden (mean parameter estimate: 0.44; 95% CI: (0.39; 0.50)).

Exploratory behaviour positively predicted infestation probability (0.18 (0.01; 0.35), Figure 3) but

not tick burden (Table 1). Additionally, great tit body condition negatively predicted tick burden (-0.11

(-0.19; -0.02), Figure 4) but not infestation probability (Table 1). Recreational pressure positively

predicted infestation probability with moderate support. (0.21 (-0.03; 0.43), Figure 5). Great tit breeding

density, age, and sex did not predict infestation probability or tick burden (Table 1).

4. Discussion

Birds influence the spread of tick species, thus to understand tick population dynamics, the

underlying drivers of avian tick infestation need to be determined (Hasle 2013; Heylen et al. 2013). Here

we quantified effects of proposed environmental and phenotypic predictors on tick infestation (Newman

et al. 2015) in the great tit. More explorative birds and those living in highly recreated plots had increased

infestation probabilities, while birds with lower body condition had higher tick burdens. Both tick burden

and infestation probability varied across time (years) and space (plots). Individual tick burden was

moderately repeatable across years, implying that individual-specific phenotypic traits not studied here

influence tick infestation in great tits.

Some of the variation in tick infestation could be due to habitat choice of the great tits. Several

ecological factors might influence in which habitats those birds nest, such as resource availability,

conspecific density (Spiegel et al. 2015; Spiegel et al. 2017; Sih et al. 2018), or human disturbance

(Hutfluss and Dingemanse 2019). Great tit population density and human disturbance might push some

individuals to occupy habitats more suitable for ticks, e.g. more humid habitats with denser vegetation

(K. Tack et al. 2012; W. Tack et al. 2012), therefore influencing tick infestation. Breeding density did

not influence tick infestation; however, human disturbance might have as tick infestation was higher in

plots with higher recreational pressure and varied among nest-boxes within plots. A previous study

showed that, great tits preferentially nested further away from heavily recreated paths (Hutfluss and

Dingemanse 2019) supporting the fact that recreational pressure can modify habitat choice. Recreational

pressure however, as breeding density, did not predict tick burden. Tick burden did vary among plots and nest-boxes implying that other environmental factors influence great tit tick burden. For example, several ecological factors, such as relative humidity (Lindgren et al. 2000; Oorebeek and Kleindorfer 2008; Kiffner et al. 2011), vegetation (Kiffner et al. 2011; W. Tack et al. 2012; K. Tack et al. 2012; Tack et al. 2013), or host availability (i.e. rodents, roe deer, etc) (Oorebeek and Kleindorfer 2008; Kiffner et al. 2011; Takumi et al. 2019) might impact tick survival and distribution, leading to spatial heterogeneity in tick abundance and, consequently, tick burden on hosts.

Various phenotypic traits varying among individual birds might also influence tick infestation. Tick infestation probability, but not tick burden, increased with individual exploratory behaviour. This pattern has previously been observed in Eastern grey squirrels (*Sciurus carolinensis*) (Santicchia et al. 2019). Exploratory behaviour is known to predict foraging style (Verbeek et al. 1994; Aplin et al. 2014) but to which extent is not fully understood (Moyers et al. 2018). *Ixodes ricinus* (the most common tick infesting vertebrates in Europe (Hillyard 1996)) quests for hosts vertically up to 1.5m but with decreasing abundance with increasing distance from the ground (Mejlon and Jaenson 1997). More explorative birds might forage more within this questing range and closer to the ground and, therefore, increase their encounter rate with ticks. Other research has argued that other parasite burdens than tick burden should increase with body mass instead of exploration (Santicchia et al. 2019). Some studies have indeed found that parasite burdens can increase with body mass (Kiffner et al. 2011; Kiffner et al. 2013; Mysterud et al. 2015). However, this relationship has not been observed in great tits (Heylen and Matthysen 2008; Heylen et al. 2013) and other commonly studied species (Kiffner et al. 2013). Moreover, effects of both exploratory behaviour and body mass have not been simultaneously investigated and thus not disentangled. By jointly fitting exploratory behaviour and body condition in our analysis we could properly differentiate between these two effects. Previously, the absence of a relationship between great tit body mass and tick burden has been supported (Heylen and Matthysen 2008). Our study partially

confirms this result as body condition did not predict infestation probability, though it negatively predicted tick burden. This negative relationship between body condition and tick burden has been observed in other species and has been attributed to health reductions due to blood loss (Norte et al. 2013). Both age and sex did not influence tick infestation in our study. Previous literature showed that males tend to have increased tick burdens (Hoodless et al. 2003) and that tick burden decreases with age (Heylen et al. 2013). Other work however showed no effect of age on tick burden as in our study (Heylen and Matthysen 2008). The null effect of sex though could be due to the time of data collection where adults might be in a lower condition due to chick rearing (Ots and Horak 1996), and thus any sex differences might be masked. Infested individuals were, however, repeatable for their tick burdens meaning that other phenotypic traits than those measured here (i.e. exploratory behaviour and body condition) might explain tick burden of infested birds. This could be other behaviours such as aggression (Zohdy et al. 2017) or foraging behaviour (Newman et al. 2015; Loss et al. 2016; Kocianová et al. 2017) as both play roles in tick burden.

It is important to mention that birds were captured approximately over a one-month period (range: 25-29 days) mostly during May each year which corresponds to the peak of tick abundance (Kurtenbach et al. 2006). However, some variation in tick infestation could be due to weather related conditions when the birds encountered the ticks. Weather and climatic variables affect questing activity of ticks (Mejlon and Jaenson 1997) and consequently the probability for a bird to encounter a tick and ultimately overall tick infestation. Additionally, both breeding density and bird age where shown to have null effects on tick infestation. However, this null result could be due to effects at different levels of biological variation being confounded (van de Pol and Wright 2009). To test if this was the case, we split age into among- and within-individual variation in age and split breeding density into temporal- and spatial-variation in density. These level-specific analyses also failed to show effects of these factors (Supplemental Text 1) supporting the absence of these effects.

5. Conclusions

We showed that exploratory behaviour predicted tick infestation probability in great tits, with more

explorative birds having an increased infestation probability. However, tick burden of infested birds was

not influenced by exploratory behaviour, sex, or age but was negatively predicted by body condition.

We additionally showed that individuals were repeatable for tick burden, meaning that other phenotypic

traits not analysed here might explain consistent differences in tick burden of infested individuals. We

also found moderate support for a positive effect of recreational pressure on infestation probability. Our

results highlight the complex nature of tick infestation and how various factors influence infestation

probability and tick burden.

6. Acknowledgments

We would like to thank all past members of the "Evolutionary Ecology of Variation" group of the

Max Plank Institute for Ornithology, the "Behavioural Ecology" and "Evolutionary Biology" groups at

the LMU, Alexander Hutfluss, Sabrina Hepner, Janna Wuelbern, all lab technicians and colleagues at

the "National Reference Centre for *Borrelia*," field assistants, and students for help in data collection.

7. Authors Contributions

R.E.R and A.M. collected data, and R.E.R performed all data analysis with the guidance of N.D. and

N.S.B. All co-authors helped in developing the study design. V.F. and G.M. provided expert input and

guidance for proper model parameters, including development of the screening protocol. R.E.R wrote

the manuscript with input and final approval from all co-authors.

8. Ethics Statement

All procedures complied with guidelines from the District Government of Upper Bavaria (Regierung

von Oberbayern) for Animal Care (Permit Number: ROB-55.2-2532.Vet 02-17-215)

9. Conflict of Interests

The authors have no conflicts of interest to report.

10. Data Availability

The data used in this study will be deposited in Dryad Digital Repository upon paper acceptance.

11. References

Abbey-Lee RN, Dingemanse NJ. 2019. Adaptive individual variation in phenological responses to perceived predation levels. Nat Commun. 10(1601):1–10. doi:10.1038/s41467-019-09138-5.

Abbey-Lee RN, Mathot KJ, Dingemanse NJ. 2016. Behavioral and morphological responses to perceived predation risk: A field experiment in passerines. Behav Ecol. 27(3):857–864. doi:10.1093/beheco/arv228.

Akimov IA, Nebogatkin I V. 2016. Ixodid Ticks (Acari, Ixodidae) in Urban Landscapes. A review. Vestn Zool. 50(2):155–162.

Aplin LM, Farine DR, Mann RP, Sheldon BC. 2014. Individual-level personality influences social foraging and collective behaviour in wild birds. Proc R Soc B. 281:1–9.

Araya-Ajoy YG, Dingemanse NJ. 2017. Repeatability, heritability, and age-dependence of seasonal plasticity in aggressiveness in a wild passerine bird. J Anim Ecol. 86(2):227–238. doi:10.1111/1365-2656.12621.

Araya-Ajoy YG, Kuhn S, Mathot KJ, Mouchet A, Mutzel A, Nicolaus M, Wijmenga JJ, Kempenaers B, Dingemanse NJ. 2016. Sources of (co)variation in alternative siring routes available to male great tits (*Parus major*). Evolution (N Y). 70(10):2308–2321.

Barber I, Dingemanse NJ. 2010. Parasitism and the evolutionary ecology of animal personality. Philos Trans R Soc B. 365:4077–4088.

Bates D, Maechler M, Bolker B, Walker S. 2015. Fitting Linear Mixed-Effects Models Using lme4. J Stat Softw. 67(1–48).

Dingemanse NJ, Bouwman KM, Pol M Van De, Overveld T Van, Patrick SC, Matthysen E, Quinn JL. 2012. Variation in personality and behavioural plasticity across four populations of the great tit *Parus*

major. J Anim Ecol. 81:116–126.

Dingemanse NJ, Moiron M, Araya-Ajoy YG. 2020. Individual variation in age-dependent

reproduction: fast explorers live fast but senesce young? J Anim Ecol. 89:601–613.

Evans KL, Gaston KJ, Sharp SP, McGowan A, Simeoni M, Hatchwell BJ. 2009. Effects of

urbanisation on disease prevalence and age structure in blackbird *Turdus merula* populations. Oikos.

118(5):774–782. doi:10.1111/j.1600-0706.2008.17226.x.

Gelman A, Su Y-S. 2016. arm: Data Analysis Using Regression and Multilevel/Hierarchical Models.

https://cran.r-project.org/package=arm.

Hadfield JD, Wilson AJ, Garant D, Sheldon BC, Kruuk LEB. 2010. The misuse of BLUP in ecology

and evolution. Am Nat. 175(1):116–125. doi:10.1086/648604.

Hamer SA, Lehrer E, Magle SB. 2012. Wild Birds as Sentinels for Multiple Zoonotic Pathogens Along

an Urban to Rural Gradient in Greater Chicago, Illinois. Zoonoses Public Health. 59(5):355–364.

doi:10.1111/j.1863-2378.2012.01462.x.

Hasle G. 2013. Transport of ixodid ticks and tick-borne pathogens by migratory birds. Front Cell Infect

Microbiol. 3(September):1–6.

Heylen D, Adriaensen F, Dauwe T, Eens M, Matthysen E. 2009. Offspring quality and tick infestation

load in brood rearing great tits *Parus major*. Oikos. 118(10):1499–1506. doi:10.1111/j.1600-

0706.2009.17606.x.

Heylen D, Adriaensen F, Van Dongen S, Sprong H, Matthysen E. 2013. Ecological factors that

determine *Ixodes ricinus* tick burdens in the great tit (*Parus major*), an avian reservoir of *Borrelia*

burgdorferi s.l. Int J Parasitol. 43:603–611.

Heylen D, Matthysen E. 2008. Effect of tick parasitism on the health status of a passerine bird. Funct

Ecol. 22(6):1099–1107. doi:10.1111/j.1365-2435.2008.01463.x.

Hillyard PD. 1996. Ticks of North-West Europe. Barnes RSK, Crothers JH, editors. London: Feild

Studies Council, Schrewsbury.

Hoodless AN, Kurtenbach K, Nuttall PA, Randolph SE. 2003. Effects of tick *Ixodes ricinus* infestation

on pheasant Phasianus colchicus breeding success and survival. Wildlife Biol. 9(4):171–178.

doi:10.2981/wlb.2003.046.

Hoodless Andrew N, Kurtenbach Klaus, Nuttall PA, Randolph Hoodless SE, Hoodless A N,

Kurtenbach K, Randolph SE. 2002. The impact of ticks on pheasant territoriality. OIKOS. 96:245–250.

Houslay TM, Wilson AJ. 2017. Avoiding the misuse of BLUP in behavioural ecology. Behav Ecol.

28(4):948–952. doi:10.1093/beheco/arx023.

Hutfluss A, Dingemanse NJ. 2019. Human recreation reduces clutch size in great tits Parus major

regardless of risk-taking personality. Behav Ecol. 30(6):1751–1760. doi:10.1093/beheco/arz145.

Kelly CD. 2006. Replicating empirical research in behavioral ecology: How and why it should be done

but rarely ever is. Q Rev Biol. 81(3):221–236. doi:10.1086/506236.

Kiffner C, Stanko M, Morand S, Khokhlova IS, Shenbrot GI, Laudisoit A, Leirs H, Hawlena H,

Krasnov BR. 2013. Sex-biased parasitism is not universal: Evidence from rodent-flea associations

from three biomes. Oecologia. 173(3):1009–1022.

Kiffner C, Vor T, Hagedorn P, Niedrig M, Rühe F. 2011. Factors affecting patterns of tick parasitism

on forest rodents in tick-borne encephalitis risk areas, Germany. Parasitol Res. 108(2):323–335.

doi:10.1007/s00436-010-2065-x.

Kocianová E, Rus V, Haruˇ D, Spitalská E. 2017. Seasonal infestation of birds with immature stages of

Ixodes ricinus and *Ixodes arboricola*. Ticks Tick Borne Dis. 8:423–431.

doi:10.1016/j.ttbdis.2017.01.006.

Kurtenbach K, Hanincová K, Tsao JI, Margos G, Fish D, Ogden NH. 2006. Fundamental processes in

the evolutionary ecology of Lyme borreliosis. Nat Rev Microbiol. 4(9):660–669.

Lindgren E, Tälleklint L, Polfeldt T. 2000. Impact of climatic change on the northern latitude limit and

population density of the disease-transmitting European tick *Ixodes ricinus*. Environ Health Perspect.

108(2):119–123. doi:10.2307/3454509.

Loss SR, Noden BH, Hamer GL, Hamer SA. 2016. A quantitative synthesis of the role of birds in

carrying ticks and tick-borne pathogens in North America. Oecologia. 182(4):947–959.

doi:10.1007/s00442-016-3731-1.

Lydecker HW, Banks PB, Hochuli DF. 2019. Counting Ticks (Acari: Ixodida) on Hosts Is Complex: A

Review and Comparison of Methods. J Med Entomol. 56(6):1–7.

Mejlon HA, Jaenson TGT. 1997. Questing behaviour of *Ixodes ricinus* ticks (Acari: Ixodidae). Exp

Appl Acarol. 21:747–754.

Moiron M, Araya-Ajoy YG, Mathot KJ, Mouchet A, Dingemanse NJ. 2019. Functional relations

between body mass and risk-taking behavior in wild great tits. Behav Ecol. 30(3):617–623.

Moiron M, Mathot KJ, Dingemanse NJ. 2018. To eat and not be eaten: diurnal mass gain and foraging

strategies in wintering great tits. Proc R Soc B. 285.

Moyers SC, Adelman JS, Farine DR, Moore IT, Hawley DM. 2018. Exploratory behavior is linked to

stress physiology and social network centrality in free-living house finches (*Haemorhous mexicanus*).

Horm Behav. 102:105–113.

Müller W, Heylen D, Eens M, Fabio Rivera-Gutierrez H, G Groothuis TG, Rivera-Gutierrez HF,

Groothuis TGG. 2013. An experimental study on the causal relationships between (ecto-)parasites,

testosterone and sexual signalling. Behav Ecol Sociobiol. 67(11):1791–1798. doi:10.1007/s00265-013-

1586-6.

Mysterud A, Byrkjeland R, Qviller L, Viljugrein H. 2015. The generalist tick *Ixodes ricinus* and the

specialist tick *Ixodes trianguliceps* on shrews and rodents in a northern forest ecosystem- a role of

body size even among small hosts. Parasites and Vectors. 8(1):1–10.

Nakagawa S, Parker TH. 2015. Replicating research in ecology and evolution: Feasibility, incentives,

and the cost-benefit conundrum. BMC Biol. 13(1):1–6. doi:10.1186/s12915-015-0196-3.

http://dx.doi.org/10.1186/s12915-015-0196-3.

Nakagawa S, Schielzeth H. 2010. Repeatability for Gaussian and non-Gaussian data: A practical guide

for biologists. Biol Rev. 85(4):935–956. doi:10.1111/j.1469-185X.2010.00141.x.

Newman EA, Eisen L, Eisen RJ, Fedorova N, Hasty JM, Vaughn C, Lane RS. 2015. *Borrelia*

burgdorferi Sensu Lato Spirochetes in Wild Birds in Northwestern California: Associations with

Ecological Factors, Bird Behavior and Tick Infestation. PLoS One. 10(2):1–26.

doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0118146.

Niemelä PT, Dingemanse NJ. Meta-analysis reveals weak associations between intrinsic state and

personality. doi:10.1098/rspb.2017.2823.

Norte AC, Lobato DNC, Braga EM, Antonini Y, Lacorte G, Gonçalves M, Lopes De Carvalho I, Gern

L, Núncio MS, Ramos JA. 2013. Do ticks and *Borrelia burgdorferi* s.l. constitute a burden to birds?

Parasitol Res. 112(5):1903–1912. doi:10.1007/s00436-013-3343-1.

Oorebeek M, Kleindorfer S. 2008. Climate or host availability: What determines the seasonal

abundance of ticks? Parasitol Res. 103(4):871–875. doi:10.1007/s00436-008-1071-8.

Ots I, Horak P. 1996. Great tits *Parus major* trade health for reproduction. Proc R Soc B Biol Sci.

263(1376):1443–1447.

Peig J, Green AJ. 2009. New perspectives for estimating body condition from mass/length data: The

scaled mass index as an alternative method. Oikos. 118(12):1883–1891.

van de Pol M, Wright J. 2009. A simple method for distinguishing within- versus between-subject

effects using mixed models. Anim Behav. 77:753–758.

R Core Team. 2019. R: A Language and Environment for Statistical Computing. Vienna, Austria: R

Foundation for Statistical Computing.

Randolph SE. 2004. Tick ecology: Processes and patterns behind the epidemiological risk posed by

ixodid ticks as vectors. Parasitology. 129:S37–S65. doi:10.1017/S0031182004004925.

Santicchia F, Romeo C, Ferrari N, Matthysen E, Vanlauwe L, Wauters LA, Martinoli A. 2019. The

price of being bold? Relationship between personality and endoparasitic infection in a tree squirrel.

Mamm Biol. 97:1–8.

Sih A, Spiegel O, Godfrey S, Leu S, Bull CM. 2018. Integrating social networks, animal personalities,

movement ecology and parasites: a framework with examples from a lizard. Anim Behav. 136:195–

205.

Spiegel O, Leu ST, Bull CM, Sih A. 2017. What's your move? Movement as a link between

personality and spatial dynamics in animal populations. Ecol Lett. 20(1):3–18. doi:10.1111/ele.12708.

Spiegel O, Leu ST, Sih A, Godfrey SS, Bull CM. 2015. When the going gets tough: Behavioural type-

dependent space use in the sleepy lizard changes as the season dries. Proc R Soc B Biol Sci.

282(1819).

Stanek G. 2009. Büchse der Pandora: Krankheitserreger in Ixodes ricinus-Zecken in Mitteleuropa.

Wien Klin Wochenschr. 121:673–683. doi:10.1007/s00508-009-1281-9.

Stuber EF, Araya-Ajoy YG, Mathot KJ, Mutzel A, Nicolaus M, Wijmenga JJ, Mueller JC,

Dingemanse NJ. 2013. Slow explorers take less risk: a problem of sampling bias in ecological studies.

Behav Ecol. 24(5):1092–1098.

Tack W, Madder M, Baeten L, Vanhellemont M, Gruwez R, Verheyen K. 2012. Local habitat and

landscape affect *Ixodes ricinus* tick abundances in forests on poor, sandy soils. For Ecol Manage.

265:30–36. doi:10.1016/j.foreco.2011.10.028.

Tack W, Madder M, Baeten L, Vanhellemont M, Verheyen K. 2013. Shrub clearing adversely affects

the abundance of Ixodes ricinus ticks. Exp Appl Acarol. 60(3):411–420.

Tack K, Madder M, Baeten L, Frenne P DE, Verheyen K. 2012. The abundance of Ixodes ricinus ticks

depends on tree species composition and shrub cover. Parasitology. 139(10):1273–1281.

Taggart P, Leu S, Spiegel O, Sih A. 2018. Endure your parasites: sleepy lizard movement is not

affected by their parasites. Can J Zool. 96(12):1309–1316.

Takumi K, Sprong H, Hofmeester TR. 2019. Impact of vertebrate communities on Ixodes ricinus-

borne disease risk in forest areas. Parasit Vectors. 12(1):1–12.

Titcomb G, Allan BF, Ainsworth T, Henson L, Hedlund T, Pringle RM, Palmer TM, Njoroge L,

Campana MG, Fleischer RC, et al. 2017. Interacting effects of wildlife loss and climate on ticks and

tick-borne disease. Proc R Soc B. 284:1–10.

Verbeek ME, Drent PJ, Wiepkema PR. 1994. Consistent individual differences in early exploratory

behaviour of male great tits. Anim Behav. 48:1113–1121.

Zohdy S, Bisanzio D, Tecot S, Wright PC, Jernvall J. 2017. Aggression and hormones are associated

with heterogeneity in parasitism and parasite dynamics in the brown mouse lemur. Anim Behav.

132:109–119. doi:10.1016/j.anbehav.2017.08.002.

455 **Table 1.** Effect size estimates (β) and 95% credible intervals (CI) for great tit tick infestation as the

456 probability of infestation (n = 784 records) and tick burden of infested individuals (n = 520 records).

	Infestation Probability	Tick Burden
Fixed Effects	β (95% CI)	β (95% CI)
Intercept	0.89 (0.42, 1.37)	1.20 (0.75, 1.64)
Recreational pressure	0.21 (-0.03, 0.43)	-0.07 (-0.22, 0.08)
Breeding density	0.08 (-0.26, 0.43)	-0.04 (-0.25, 0.17)
Exploratory behaviour	0.18 (0.01, 0.35)	-0.02 (-0.12, 0.09)
Body condition	0.06 (-0.11, 0.24)	-0.11 (-0.19, -0.02)
Sex[a]	-0.06 (-0.42, 0.24)	-0.06 (-0.24, 0.12)
Age	-0.07 (-0.24, 0.09)	0.01 (-0.08, 0.10)
Random Effects	σ^2 (95% CI)	σ^2 (95% CI)
Year	0.04 (0.00, 0.17)	0.13 (0.03, 0.36)
Plot	0.47 (0.18, 0.94)	0.05 (0.02, 0.09)
Plot-Year	0.08 (0.04, 0.12)	0.07 (0.04, 0.12)
Observer	0.01 (0.00, 0.01)	0.13 (0.06, 0.23)
Nest-box	0.64 (0.55, 0.74)	0.28 (0.23, 0.32)
Individual	0.00 (0.00, 0.00)	0.45 (0.40, 0.51)
Residual	$0.35\pi^2$ ($0.35\pi^2$, $0.34\pi^2$)	1.27 (1.39, 1.18)
Adjusted Repeatability	r (95% CI)	r (95% CI)
Year	0.01 (0.00, 0.03)	0.05 (0.01, 0.13)
Plot	0.10 (0.04, 0.18)	0.02 (0.01, 0.03)
Plot-Year	0.02 (0.01, 0.02)	0.03 (0.02, 0.04)
Observer	0.00 (0.00, 0.00)	0.05 (0.03, 0.08)
Nest-box	0.14 (0.13, 0.14)	0.12 (0.11, 0.11)
Individual	0.00 (0.00, 0.00)	0.19 (0.18, 0.18)
Residual	0.74 (0.82, 0.63)	0.53 (0.64, 0.42)

[a]Differences between sexes (reference category = female)

Figure 1. Percentages of all captured great tit adults infested with ticks from the 2017-2019 breeding

seasons. Data for plot 7 were only available in 2017.

Figure 2. Average tick burden per infested great tit adult captured in each study plot during each field

season (years 2017-2019). The error bars represent standard error and the numbers above each bar reflect

the absolute number of infested great tit adults per plot. Data for plot 7 were only available in 2017.

Figure 3. Tick presence in relation to exploratory score. For graphical purposes only, data were split

into 10 quantiles and were averaged to better show the linear relationship. Each point refers to the mean

tick presence and exploratory score for that quantile including data from all collection years (2017-2019).

Error bars report the standard error for the respective mean tick presence. The numbers report the number

of records in the respective bin. The line reports the linear relationship from the model.

Figure 4. Tick burden of infested birds in relation to birds scaled mass index (i.e. body condition). Each

point refers to an individual infested bird record. Records from all collection years (2017-2019) are

included. The line reports the linear relationship from the model.

Figure 5. Tick presence in relation to recreational pressure index. For graphical purposes only, data were

split into 10 quantiles and were averaged to better show the linear relationship. Each point refers to the

mean tick presence and recreational pressure index for that quantile including data from all collection

years (2017-2019). Error bars report the standard error for the respective mean tick presence. The

numbers report the number of records in the respective bin. The line reports the linear relationship from

the model.

491   **I.**

493   **II.**

499   **III.**

501   **IV.**

504   **V.**