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1 **Phylogenetic comparative analyses of the determinants of anti-**  
2 **predator distraction behavior in shorebirds**

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20 **Abstract**

21 Predation risk exerts a strong selective pressure on anti-predator behavior, resulting in  
22 behaviors to achieve defense of offspring and the individual. In shorebirds, some  
23 species perform distraction behavior that is attracting the attention of a predator. This  
24 behavior evolved, and were lost multiple times, independently and the behavioral  
25 repertoire varies among species. Although defense of offspring is critical for parents, the  
26 determinants of inter-specific variation in the distraction behavior remain unstudied. We  
27 surveyed the literature and conducted phylogenetic comparative analyses (n = 169  
28 species) to test predictions regarding nest site, body mass, and coloniality. We found  
29 that small species were more likely to perform distraction behavior than large species.  
30 Solitary species were more likely to perform distraction behavior than colonial nesting  
31 species. Previous studies suggested that colonial nesting and large species commonly  
32 perform aggressive anti-predator behavior, implying that distraction behavior is an  
33 alternative anti-predator strategy to aggressive ones.

34 **Keywords:** offspring defense, predation, phylogeny, alternative strategy, ground-nesting  
35 birds, body mass

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## 41 **Introduction**

42 Predation risk exerts a strong selection pressure on animal behaviors, producing  
43 anti-predator behavior among others (Lack 1954; Caro 2005). Offspring predation is the  
44 most important reason for nest failure in birds (Clark & Wilson, 1981). Therefore,  
45 parents have evolved various anti-predator behaviors to counter offspring predation,  
46 thus increasing their fitness (Royle et al. 2012).

47 Shorebirds (Charadriiformes) are an ideal taxon for assessing the determinants  
48 of the anti-predator behavioral repertoire. Most shorebird species nest on open ground,  
49 exposing the chicks and eggs to strong predation pressure (Gochfeld, 1984; Kubelka et  
50 al., 2018). Shorebirds engage in two broad types of anti-predator behavior: attack and  
51 distraction (Gochfeld, 1984). Attack behavior includes any type of attack on predators,  
52 such as mobbing and scolding. Distraction behavior aims to attract the attention of a  
53 predator via injury-feigning, false breeding, and “rodent run” behaviors, for example  
54 (Caro, 2005; Gochfeld, 1984). When a predator was deceived by the display and  
55 chasing a parental bird, the bird moves away from their offspring (Ristau, 1991). As a  
56 result, predators lost sight of the nest or chick. When the predator was lured and far  
57 away from the nest by the display, the parental bird ends its display and runs away  
58 (Gómez-Serrano, 2018). This behavior seems to have evolved multiple times  
59 independently under similar ecological and social conditions (Humphreys & Ruxton,  
60 2020). However, only a few studies have examined the determinants of inter-species  
61 differences in the anti-predator behavioral repertoire (Larsen et al. 1996; da Cunha et al.  
62 2017). Larsen et al. (1996) tested factors of aggressive nest protection behavior in  
63 waders. This paper revealed that body mass and number of parents present on the nest  
64 territory explain the variation of aggressive anti-predator behavior. But they did not use

65 phylogenetic comparative analysis. da Cunha et al. (2017) showed that small species  
66 were more likely to perform aggressive mobbing than large species. They included anti-  
67 predator behavior during both the breeding and non-breeding seasons.

68         In contrast to those studies analyzing aggressive anti-predator behavior, the  
69 determinants of distraction behavior remained unstudied. Armstrong (1954) listed six  
70 factors that could explain the performance of distraction behavior, which could be  
71 summarized that distraction display is likely to evolve in species that may be preyed  
72 upon by terrestrial predators during the daytime (Humphreys & Ruxton, 2020).  
73 However, a formal test of those ideas using a modern phylogenetic comparative analysis  
74 has not been done. We assessed three possible determinants of distraction behavior:  
75 nesting site, body mass, and coloniality. First, we predicted that species that nest in trees  
76 and on cliffs are less likely to perform anti-predator behavior, because their nests are  
77 less likely to be predated due to the difficulty of access compared with ground-nesting  
78 species (Coulson & Thomas, 1985). Differences in other traits according to nesting site  
79 were suggested in a detailed comparative study of two closely related sympatric species  
80 (Cullen, 1957). Cliff-nesting kittiwakes have weak anti-predator traits, such as rare  
81 production of alarm calls, unconcealed body color of chicks, and low response to an  
82 attack by a predator. By contrast, the parents of the ground-nesting black-headed gull  
83 (*Larus ridibundus*) attack predators, and their chicks escaped when attacked by a  
84 predator. We predicted that this behavioral difference between the two species is  
85 commonly seen in other taxa. Second, we predicted that body size would affect  
86 distraction behavior. Because of the physical advantages of large species, it has been  
87 supported such species are more likely to perform attack behavior than smaller species  
88 (Larsen et al. 1996), whereas smaller species are more likely to perform distraction

89 behavior. Third, we predicted that solitary nesting species are more likely to perform  
90 distraction behavior because they cannot attack predators effectively compared with  
91 colonial species. Previous studies showed that colonial species are likely to perform  
92 attack behavior because they can attack a predator effectively as a group (Hoogland &  
93 Sherman, 1976; Robinson, 1985) and because they can minimize the per capita risk of  
94 predation via the dilution effect (Hamilton, 1971; Hogan, Hildenbrandt, Scott-Samuel,  
95 Cuthill, & Hemelrijk, 2017).

96

## 97 **Methods**

### 98 *Data collection*

99 We searched the literature for studies on anti-predator behavior during the breeding  
100 season using Google Scholar, with the key words of ‘shorebirds’, ‘plover’, ‘sandpiper’,  
101 ‘wader’, ‘gull’, ‘anti-predator’, ‘behavior’, and ‘nesting’, and the scientific or species  
102 names of Charadriiformes. We also added the key words ‘distraction’, ‘injury-feigning’,  
103 ‘false-brooding’, and ‘rodent run’ for distraction behaviors (Gochfeld, 1984). We  
104 classified a given species in terms of performance of distraction behavior (0 = does not  
105 perform; 1 = performs) if the paper described those behaviors as anti-predator behaviors  
106 performed during the breeding season. We obtained data for 169 species from 87 papers  
107 (Appendix). We also added data for three species (Kentish plover, *Charadrius*  
108 *alexandrinus*, 6 nests; little ringed plover, *C. dubius*, 9 nests; and little tern, *Sternula*  
109 *albifrons*, up to 892 nests) based on direct behavioral observations undertaken at the  
110 Morigasaki Water Recycling Center in Japan (35°57.1'S 139°75.3'W) between May and  
111 July 2017. In order to control the sampling bias by the number of papers and  
112 observations, we used the number of papers retrieved by Google Scalar as an

113 explanatory variable. The searched word was "anti-predator", "behavior", and scientific  
114 name.

115 Data on nesting sites and colonies were obtained from del Hoyo et al. (1998).  
116 Data on body mass were obtained from Dunning (2007). We calculated the body mass  
117 of sexual dimorphic species by sex, and used the body mass data of individuals that  
118 incubate eggs (del Hoyo et al. 1998; Paton et al. 1994; Székely and Reynolds 1997;  
119 Székely et al. 2000). In cases where both sexes defend eggs, we used the average of the  
120 male and female weights. We also used the average of the male and female weights if  
121 there were no data on the sexes that defend eggs,. We obtained 100 phylogenetic trees  
122 of the study species from <http://birdtree.org/> (Jetz, Thomas, Joy, Hartmann, & Mooers,  
123 2012).

124

#### 125 *Comparative analysis*

126 We performed all analysis in R software (ver. 3.5.3; R Development Core Team 2019).  
127 We estimated  $D$ , a phylogenetic signal for discrete traits (Fritz & Purvis, 2010), for the  
128 presence of distraction behaviors using the “caper” package (Orme, 2013). We used 100  
129 phylogenetic trees and estimated 100  $D$  values for each. For all trees, we found that the  
130 phylogenetic signals of this behavior differed significantly from random ( $p < 0.001$ ).

131 We used phylogenetic generalized linear mixed models with the MCMCglmm  
132 (Hadfield, 2010) and mulTree packages (Guillerme & Healy, 2014). We included the  
133 100 phylogenetic trees as a random effect to control for the effect of phylogeny. Markov  
134 chain Monte Carlo (MCMC) simulations were run for 240,000 iterations with a 40,000  
135 iteration burn-in period. Prior was uniform default distribution. The posterior  
136 distribution was estimated based on samples drawn after every 100 iterations.

137 We included three species-specific explanatory variables in the model: body  
138 mass (log-transformed; in grams), coloniality (colonial *vs.* solitary; categorical variable  
139 with two levels), nesting site (in trees or on cliffs *vs.* ground; categorical variable with  
140 two levels) and sampling bias (number of publications). We ran models in which  
141 whether a given species performed distraction was set as an independent variable.

142

### 143 **Results**

144 Distraction behavior were noted in 55.62% (94/169) of the species, respectively, and  
145 evolved, and were lost multiple times, independently (Fig. 1).

146 Species with a smaller body mass were more likely to perform distraction  
147 behavior than larger species (Table 2, Fig. 2b). In addition, solitary-nesting species  
148 commonly performed distraction behavior (78/111 species), while species that colonial-  
149 nesting did not so (18/58 species; Table 2) Although distraction behavior was observed  
150 only in one species nesting on cliffs or in trees (1/17 species), the nesting site was not  
151 statistically associated with the occurrence of distraction behavior (93/152 ground-  
152 nesting species).

153

### 154 **Discussion**

155 Our analyses suggested that distraction behavior evolved, and were lost, multiple times  
156 independently, although the phylogenetic signal was significant. This suggests that  
157 species-specific patterns of anti-predator behavior are evolutionarily flexible.

158 Contrary to our prediction, our analysis did not show a significant effect of nest  
159 site on distraction behavior. We do not know why we failed to detect an effect of nest  
160 site, but it might be that an evolutionary transition of nest site (*i.e.*, ground-nesting *vs.*

161 others) was not associated with an evolutionary change in distraction; in other words,  
162 distraction may have evolved within a clade in which all species nest on the ground.

163 As predicted, body mass explained the inter-specific variation in distraction  
164 behavior. First, We found that small species performed distraction behavior more  
165 frequently than large species. Distraction behavior may have evolved as a substitute for  
166 attack behavior. In line with this idea, it is believed that aggressive nest defense carries  
167 a higher risk of predation for parents than distractive nest defense (D. H. Brunton, 1986;  
168 Gochfeld, 1984; Gómez-Serrano & López-López, 2017; Humphreys & Ruxton, 2020;  
169 Sordahl, 1990b).

170 As predicted, we found that coloniality explained the inter-specific variation in  
171 distraction behavior, with colonial species are rare to perform distraction behavior.  
172 Previously, Larsen et al. (1996) analyzed factors affecting the performance of  
173 aggressive nest defense across species, and found a relationship between aggressive  
174 defense and coloniality. Colonial species can attack a predator effectively as a group  
175 (Hoogland & Sherman, 1976; Robinson, 1985). By contrast, we found that distraction  
176 behavior was common in solitary-nesting species. Distraction behavior is as an  
177 alternative strategy because solitary species cannot do effective attacks.

178 In summary, this is the first study to analyze inter-specific variation in the  
179 repertoire of anti-predator behavior during the breeding season using phylogenetic  
180 comparative analyses. Although we succeeded in showing some determinants of anti-  
181 predator behavior, our analyses had several limitations. First, it is true that birds change  
182 anti-predator behavior type according to the type of predator, nesting season, nesting  
183 stage, parental sex, and condition of the parents (Andersson, Wiklund, & Rundgren,  
184 1980; D. Brunton, 1990; Burger et al., 1989; Byrkjedal, 1987, 1989; Caro, 2005;



185 Courchamp, Clutton-Brock, & Grenfell, 1999; Ghalambor & Martin, 2001; Gochfeld,  
186 1984; Humphreys & Ruxton, 2020; Redondo, 1989; Sordahl, 1990a; Vincze et al.,  
187 2017). We could not control for these factors, as we focused on species-specific  
188 characteristics of the anti-predator behavior. Second, predation pressure on shorebirds  
189 varies with latitude. It is known that species nesting in high latitude area suffer lower  
190 predation risk than low latitude one (Kubelka et al., 2018; McKinnon et al., 2010).  
191 Therefore, the latitude of the nesting site may affect anti-predator behavior. This study,  
192 however, did not examined the effect of latitude because of multi-collinearity to body  
193 weight. That is, it is known that species breeding in higher latitudes have larger bodies  
194 (Olson et al., 2009). Third, our database could have underestimated the occurrence of  
195 distraction behavior, as we treated papers that did not describe anti-predator behavior as  
196 showing an absence of anti-predator behavior. The accumulation of detailed behavioral  
197 data for individual species, and comparative analyses based on an updated database, will  
198 be necessary to elucidate the details of interspecific variation in anti-predator behavior  
199 in shorebirds. Similar studies should also examine the determinants of anti-predator  
200 behavior in taxa in which multiple types of anti-predator behavior have evolved.

201

202

### 203 **Compliance with ethical standards**

#### 204 *Conflict of Interest*

205 The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

206

207 *Ethical approval*

208 Ethical approval is not applicable to the literature survey. Behavioral observation at the  
209 Morigasaki Water Recycling Center was conducted with the permission from the  
210 Ministry of the Environment of Japan and the Tokyo Metropolitan Government Bureau  
211 of Environment. This study was conducted under Japanese laws and the guidelines of  
212 Japanese Ethological Society.

213

214 **References**

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342  
343

344 Table 1. Phylogenetically controlled MCMC generalized linear mixed models  
345 examining the effect of body mass (log-transformed; in grams), nesting site (0 = trees or  
346 cliffs, 1 = ground) and coloniality (0 = solitary, 1 = colonial) of distraction behavior.  
347 Means and 95% credible intervals (CIs; in parentheses) of the posterior distribution are  
348 shown. Results in bold are statistically significant.

	Posterior mean Z	95% CI
Intercept	1.158	0.512 to 1.805
Body mass	-0.120	-0.217 to -0.021
Nesting site	0.192	-0.051 to 0.438
Coloniality	-0.218	-0.412 to -0.024
Sampling bias	0.000	-0.001 to 0.001
Random effect: Phylogeny	0.133	0.032 to 0.299

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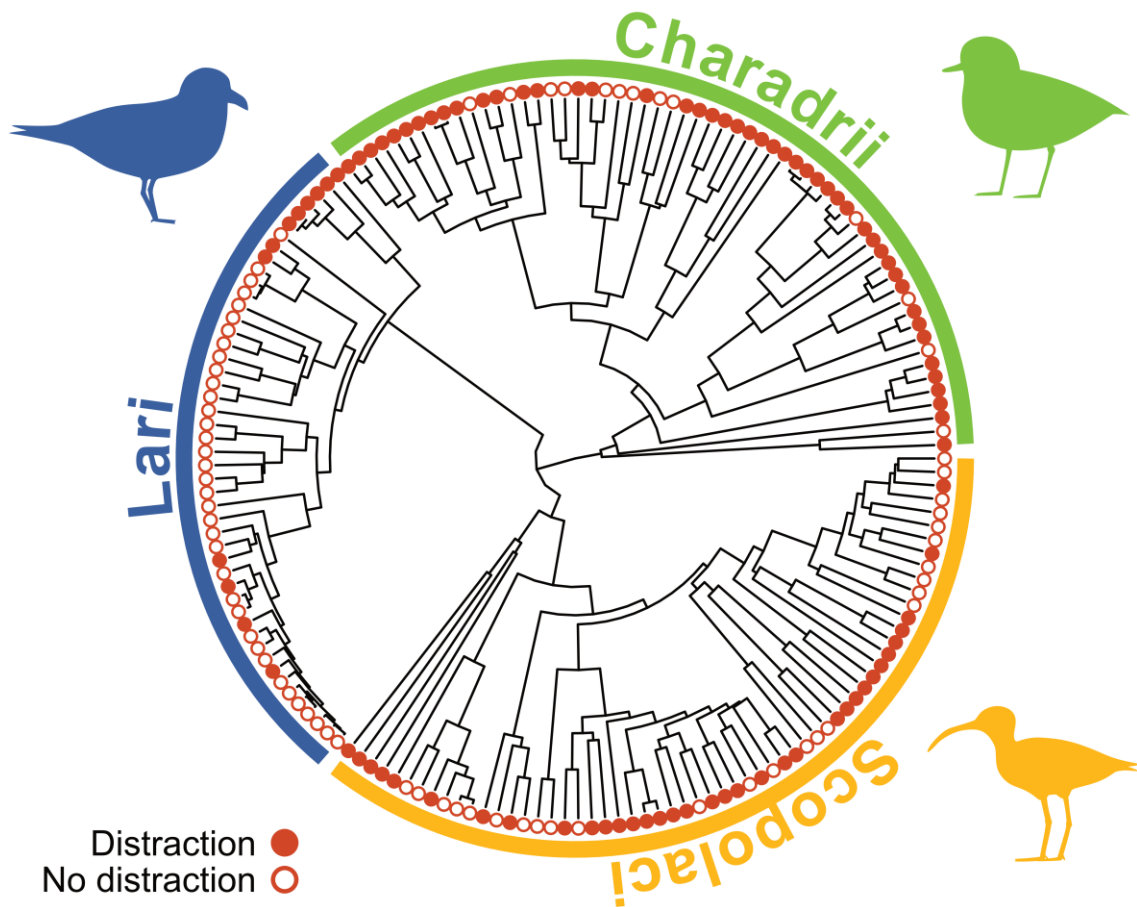


351

352 **Figure legends**

353 Fig. 1

354 Presence of distraction behavior layered on a phylogenetic tree. Solid, performs; white,  
355 does not perform.



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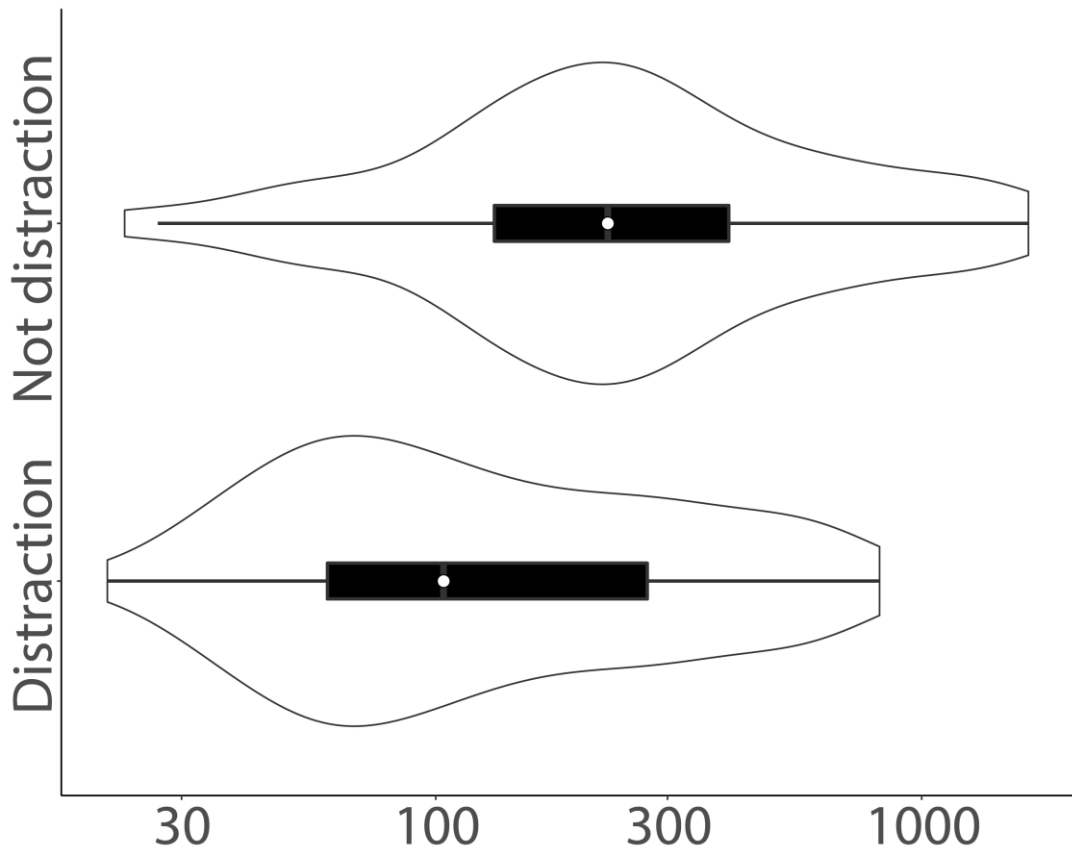
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363 Fig. 2

364 Effect of body mass (log-transformed; in grams) on distraction behavior. The number of

365 species is indicated by the thickness of the violin plot.



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