

Parasitoid pressures and silence evolution

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Abstract

Acoustic signals used by organisms to attract mates are known to attract parasitoid flies. The parasitoid flies lay their eggs inside the host signaler, eventually killing the host. We build a host-parasitoid acoustic model to investigate the effect of parasitoid flies on the signalling host's eco-evolutionary dynamics. We used field crickets as a system to build the framework of the model. We explore how the sex ratio and the female parasitoid fecundity impact the evolution of the acoustic signal and population density of the signalling hosts. We also explore the stability of the host populations with an increase in parasitoid load. We find that up to a threshold value, an increase in parasitoid load leads to a thriving yet silent host population. Consistent with field observations, we show how this emergence of silence as an evolutionary strategy is immediate. Our results show that a drastic increase in the parasitoid load can rapidly push the signalling host population towards instability and extinction.

Keywords: acoustic signal, singing crickets, parasitism, reproduction, eco-evolutionary dynamics

Introduction

Acoustic signalling is the primary mode of communication shared by roughly 8.7 million species ranging from arthropods to mammals [1], inhabiting terrestrial and marine environments. Acoustically signalling species are incredibly diverse, from crickets, anurans, and birds to several marine organisms. The reproductive fitness can be attributed to the mating success of the individual signalers in many acoustically signalling species [2–4]. A consistent life-history trade-off is the one between reproduction and survival effects.

26 This trade-off determines the evolution of the signalling trait whether visual [5], chemical
27 [6] or indeed acoustic acoustic [7, 8]. Signalling populations evolve to amplify or diminish
28 their conspicuousness based on their natural chorus and other environmental pressures [9–12].
29 Many organisms solely use acoustic signals to secure mates. In most of these systems, the
30 acoustic signals transmit mating opportunities with the females approaching the calling males
31 to copulate [13]. Females cue into the signal, with some species performing phonotaxis, and
32 locate the male. The females assess the song to assess the quality of the male [14].

33 Conspicuous sexual signallers, however, also garner unwanted attention. The signals risk
34 attracting potential predators, and exploiters [15]. Male field crickets (*Gryllus campestris*) use
35 stridulation to produce the chirp by rubbing their front wings together against the underneath
36 of their wing, called the scraper [16]. The parasitoid flies (*Euphasiopteryx ochracea*) locate
37 the signalling males by eavesdropping on their song by cuing in on the sound produced by the
38 stridulation [17, 18]. The female fly then places larvae on the cricket that then burrow into the
39 cricket's body cavity [19]. They develop there for seven to ten days before emerging. Some
40 parasitoid females show specificity to particular host species [15]. Studies have shown that
41 males switch their mate securing strategies and resort to alternative mating strategies when
42 there is an increased risk of parasitism or can even lose the signalling ability altogether [20].
43 Both polymorphism and plasticity has been observed in cricket populations [21, 22]. With
44 increased parasitoid densities, male singing crickets have evolved to become silent [23]. The
45 males develop flat wings which are incapable of producing a song. The silent males still have
46 a chance at reproduction, as they become satellite males of the few signalling males in the
47 population. They steal the mates from these signalling males. Additionally, added ecological
48 pressures, compound with parasitoid population density, sex ratio, and fecundity to change
49 the course of host signal evolution [24]. Furthermore, population dynamics create a feedback
50 process that controls the reproduction and mortality rates, thus changing the evolutionary tra-
51 jectory of sexual signals [25]. As a culmination of all the confounding factors, the evolutionary
52 loss of the signalling traits can be remarkably rapid, in less than twenty generations, where the
53 population becomes largely silent with a few signalers and many satellite males [23, 26].

54 Numerous studies focus on the evolutionary significance of parasitoid exploiters and their
55 acoustically signalling insect hosts, such as the above-described crickets [27]. However, a
56 quantitative estimate of the exact parasitoid densities, the proportion of parasitoid females, and
57 other environmental pressures influencing the speed of signal loss are lacking. The existing
58 host-parasitoid models predict the population dynamics as a version of the classical predator-
59 prey cycles. We develop a theoretical model specific to such an extraordinary host-parasitoid
60 system by incorporating reproductive costs and benefits of the acoustic signal.

61 Our mechanistic eco-evolutionary model goes beyond classical evolutionary game-theoretic

62 reasoning that invokes negative frequency dependence. Specifically, we focus on the parasitoid
63 sex-ratio and the parasitoid fecundity's influence on the acoustic signal evolution and the host
64 population density dynamics. We find a threshold parasitoid load at which there is a rapid evo-
65 lutionary transition from conspicuousness to silence in the hosts. We also find that an increase
66 in the parasitoid load decreases the stability of the host population, and the population dynam-
67 ics become cyclic, chaotic and eventually go extinct. Our model will thus provide insights
68 into the fundamental mechanisms that affect the evolution of acoustic signals in the presence
69 of parasitoids.

70 **Model**

71 We begin by recapitulating an existing host-parasitoid insect population model [28]. The pop-
72 ulation size of the host at a given time t is H_t , and the population size of the parasitoid is P_t .
73 The proportion of parasitoid females in the population is q . Simultaneously, a is the search
74 efficiency of the parasitoid and F_{max} is the maximum fecundity of the parasitoid. The repro-
75 ductive rate of the host is represented by r . This model assumes that there are i) q proportion
76 of parasitoid females, ii) a parasitoid female can examine area α ("area of discovery") during
77 its lifetime, and iii) there is a maximum parasitoid fecundity, F_{max} . The population dynamics
78 of the host and parasitoid is given by:

$$\begin{aligned} H_{t+1} &= H_t \left(e^{-\frac{\alpha P_t F_{max}}{F_{max} + \alpha H_t}} \right) r \\ P_{t+1} &= H_t \left(1 - e^{-\frac{\alpha P_t F_{max}}{F_{max} + \alpha H_t}} \right) q \end{aligned} \quad (1)$$

79 Ecologists have extensively used this particular approach to study parasitised insect pop-
80 ulations. Host-parasitoid theoretical models typically generate oscillating populations of in-
81 creasing amplitude and are by themselves unstable [29–31]. However, this does not accu-
82 rately represent what happens in nature. In nature, additional ecological processes like in-
83 traspecific competition and spatial heterogeneity can partially or completely stabilise the sys-
84 tem. The model developed by Rogers provides a realistic depiction compared to Thompson's
85 1922 model [28] and Nicholson and Bailey's 1935 model [32]. It is a further development of
86 Holling's disc equation [33] including realised fecundity instead of a potential fecundity [28].

87 **Reproductive fitness of the host based on acoustic trait**

88 We assume that the signalling host's acoustic trait is represented by a single acoustic charac-
89 ter, the syllable rate. While we have considered syllable rate for building the model, it can be

90 any feature of the acoustic signal like amplitude, frequency or intensity. We assume that the
91 syllable rate, z , varies from 0 to 100 units in time. A chorus is formed when many individuals
92 signal together with varying syllable rates. The chorus will thus have a mean syllable rate,
93 \bar{z} . A low syllable rate is when an individual has $z < \bar{z}$. A silent individual who does not
94 signal is represented by $z = 0$, and a high syllable rate when $z > \bar{z}$ indicates a conspicuous
95 signaler. Given an environment devoid of acoustic interference, we can assume that the mean
96 syllable rate, \bar{z} , sets the reproductive fitness standard for all calling individuals. If the syllable
97 rate of a calling individual is higher than that of the chorus mean, then the individual stands
98 out from the overall population, is conspicuous, and can be easily distinguished by listening
99 mates. Therefore, it has a higher chance of securing more mates. We can model this as an
100 individual caller, whose syllable rate is higher than that of the chorus' mean, $z > \bar{z}$, having a
101 higher reproductive fitness component. While we assume that securing more mates increases
102 the reproductive component of fitness, there is a maximum reproductive reward within a given
103 time frame. The reproductive fitness with maximum reproductive reward is denoted by r_{max} .
104 Hence, even when the individual's syllable reaches maximum conspicuousness, the reproduc-
105 tive fitness component saturates at r_{max} (Fig. 1).

106 Similarly, suppose the syllable rate of a calling individual is lower than that of the chorus'
107 mean. In that case, the chorus deafens the individual's signal, and therefore it has a lower
108 chance of securing mates. So, we can model an individual whose syllable rate is lower than
109 the chorus' mean, $z < \bar{z}$, with a lower reproductive fitness component. Nevertheless, we
110 also assume that even if a caller is silent (a non-calling individual), it can encounter a mate
111 by random chance, with its movement within the habitat. This gives the silent individual a
112 minimum reproductive reward value, r_{min} . By β we denote the sensitivity of the reproductive
113 curve, considered to be the phonotactic selectivity of the receiver citegerhardt2008phonotactic
114 (Fig. 1). The reproductive component of fitness of an individual signaler is therefore given by:

$$r(z|\bar{z}) = r_{min} + \frac{r_{max} - r_{min}}{1 + e^{-\beta(z-\bar{z})}} \quad (2)$$

115 **Search efficiency of the parasitoid based on acoustic trait**

116 We then modelled the search efficiency with a type II functional response. Hence, as the
117 syllable rate increases, the more conspicuous the individual is, the parasitoid can better find the
118 signaller. After a certain threshold of the syllable rate, the search efficiency of the parasitoid
119 saturates (Fig. 1). The search efficiency α is,

$$\alpha = \frac{z}{1 + z} \quad (3)$$

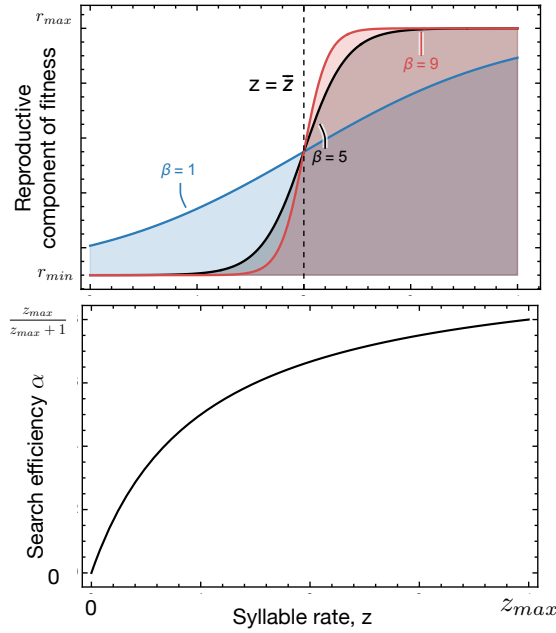


Figure 1: Reproductive component of fitness function of an individual host Eq. (2), Search efficiency (Eq. (3)) of a parasitoid as a function of mean chorus syllable rate. The reproductive component of fitness is dependent on how far the syllable rate of the individual, z is from the population chorus mean \bar{z} , and the phonotactic selectivity, β . r_{min} and r_{max} are the minimum and maximum reproductive rewards respectively. With high phonotactic selectivity there is a larger benefit in reproductive component of fitness. The search efficiency of the parasitoid, α , increases with increase in host syllable rate and saturates at a high syllable rates.

120 Density dependence

121 We add density dependence to the insect population host-parasitoid framework. This entails
 122 replacing the host's reproduction and search efficiency of the parasitoid with the newly for-
 123 mulated acoustic character-based modifications. By substituting Eq. (2) and q. (3) in Eq. (1),
 124 and adding density dependence with K being the carrying capacity of the habitat, we get:

$$\begin{aligned}
 H_{t+1} &= H_t e^{\underbrace{\left(r_{min} + \frac{r_{max} - r_{min}}{1 + e^{-\beta(z - \bar{z})}} \right) (1 - H_t / K) - \left(\frac{\frac{z}{1+z} P_t F_{max}}{F_{max} + \frac{z}{1+z} H_t} \right)}_{\text{prob. of esc. parasitism (density dependent)}}} \\
 P_{t+1} &= H_t \underbrace{\left(1 - e^{-\frac{\frac{z}{1+z} P_t F_{max}}{F_{max} + \frac{z}{1+z} H_t}} \right)}_{\text{prob. of parasitism}} q
 \end{aligned} \tag{4}$$

125 **Simulation of the eco-evolutionary dynamics**

126 Because an analytical solution for the average fitness of the population $\bar{w}(\bar{z})$ is intractable,
127 we track changes in population abundance and the trait distributions of a cricket population
128 with an individual-based model. As such, we numerically track the evolution of the full trait
129 distribution of z , denoted by $f(z)$, over time, in addition to population size $N(t)$. Each time
130 step represents a generation where all adults are assumed to die at the end of each time step
131 such that generations are non-overlapping. Such dynamics are generally the case for cricket
132 populations [34]; however, this assumption would not hold for many other acoustically sig-
133 nalling organisms, including most bird species. Offspring inherit trait values from parents
134 with variability σ such that,

$$z_{\text{offspring}}(t+1) = z_{\text{parent}}(t) + g, \quad (5)$$

135 where $g \sim N(0, \phi)$, and we set $\phi = 1$. The number offspring for each individual i with trait
136 z_i is determined by its fitness with respect to the chorus mean, $w_i(z_i|\bar{z})$, where the sum across
137 reproducing individuals determines the future population size $N(t+1)$, such that

$$N(t+1) = \sum_{i=1}^{N(t)} w_i(z_i|\bar{z}). \quad (6)$$

138 We initiate the host population to be conspicuous $\bar{z}(0) = 90$ with a standard deviation
139 of $\sigma = 10$, and simulate dynamics over the course of 100 generations. We confirmed 100
140 generations to be adequate for calculating steady-state conditions. We assumed steady state
141 when the population density did not change more than $\epsilon = 0.00001$ for more than 50 timesteps.
142 We set $r_{\min} = 0.01$, $r_{\max} = 2\beta = 0.5$, and $K = 1000$. The initial host population is
143 represented in Fig. 2 ($t = 1$).

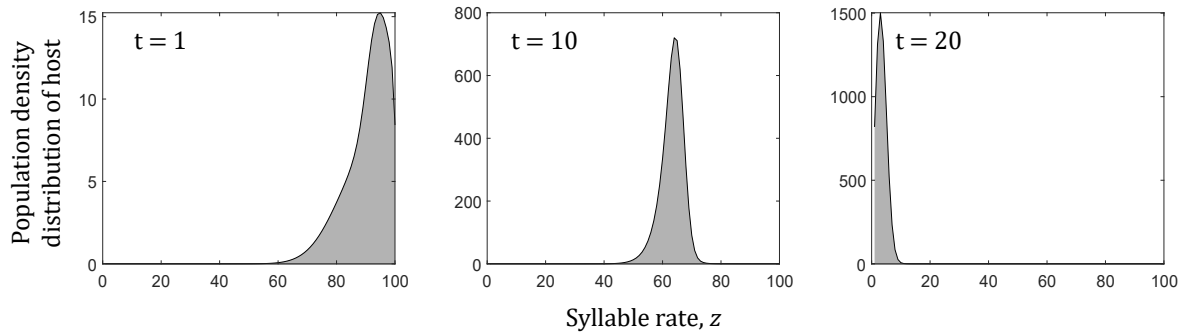


Figure 2: Initial distribution of the host population. With increasing generations, the host population evolves from a conspicuous chorus mean to a silent chorus mean within 20 generations. We see the evolution of silence within 20 generations in a population that has been attacked by parasitoids. The silent population has a higher population density. $H(0) = 500$, $\bar{z}(0) = 90$, $\sigma = 10$, $r_{min} = 0.01$, $r_{max} = 2\beta = 0.5$, and $K = 1000$.

144 Results

145 Quick transition from conspicuousness to silence

146 **Female biased sex-ratio.** As the proportion of parasitoid females increases, the conspicu-
147 ously signalling population quickly evolves into silence. The reproductive fitness of the host
148 individual is influenced by the chorus mean, \bar{z} . The conspicuous individuals' fitness is ini-
149 tially high, resulting in reproductive gains. As the parasitoid females attack the conspicuous
150 host individuals, mortality increases and the fitness of conspicuous individuals is reduced. In
151 contrast, the silent host individuals escape parasitoid attack, reproduce, and increase the pro-
152 portion of silent individuals in the host population in the next generation, reducing the chorus
153 mean. With an increasing proportion of parasitoid females, there are more attacks on the con-
154 spicuous hosts, and the evolution of silence is favoured (Fig. 3). This evolutionary transition is
155 rapid, and it usually happens within ten generations in our study. The silent individuals survive
156 and reproduce, increasing the population density to the carrying capacity (Fig. 3). Beyond a
157 specific female parasitoid load, all the host individuals die, and the population goes extinct
158 (Fig. 3). Thus a female-biased sex ratio of parasitoids influences the signalling trait evolution
159 and drives population extinction of the host.

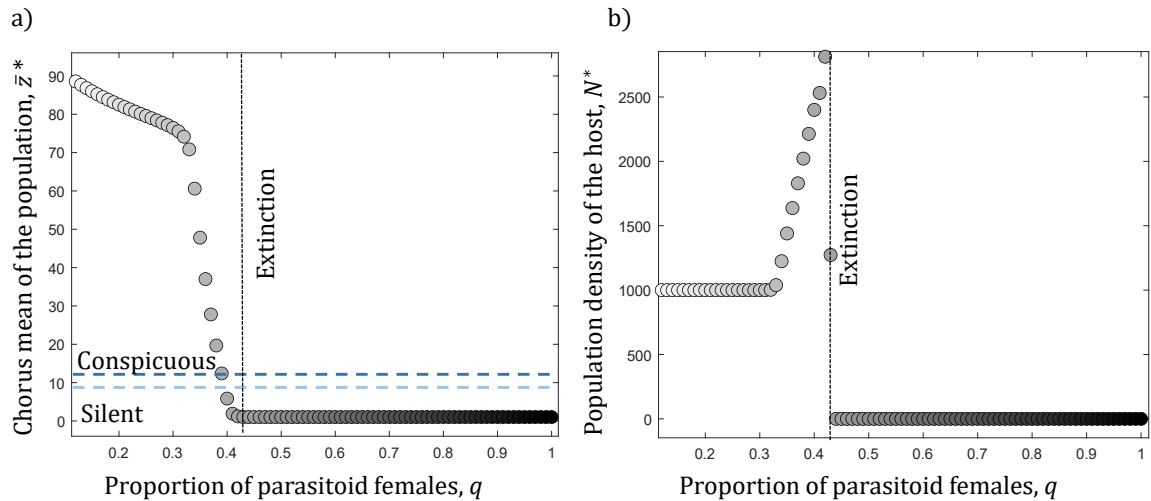


Figure 3: **Quick transition from conspicuous to silence.** a) Change in chorus mean of the host population represented by circle shapes. b) Change in population size of the host population. A more female-biased sex ratio in parasitoid populations results in a host population that is silent and large. Beyond a threshold of female-biased population in the parasitoids, the host population goes extinct. $H(0) = 500$, $\bar{z}(0) = 90$, $\sigma = 10$, $r_{min} = 0.01$, $r_{max} = 2$, $\beta = 0.5$, $F_{max} = 3$ and $K = 1000$.

160 **Parasitoid fecundity influences the signalling trait evolution and population dynamics of**
161 **the host** As the maximum number of viable offspring of the parasitoid females increases,
162 the conspicuously signalling population abruptly transitions to silence (Fig. 4). The increase
163 in parasitoid fecundity increases their population density in the next generation. This results
164 in more number of attacks on conspicuous hosts. The conspicuous individuals die, and the
165 proportion of silent individuals increases in the population, driving the chorus mean to silence.
166 This evolutionary transition of the host is rapid and occurs within ten generations. As we
167 further increase the fecundity of parasitoids, the population goes extinct (Fig. 4).

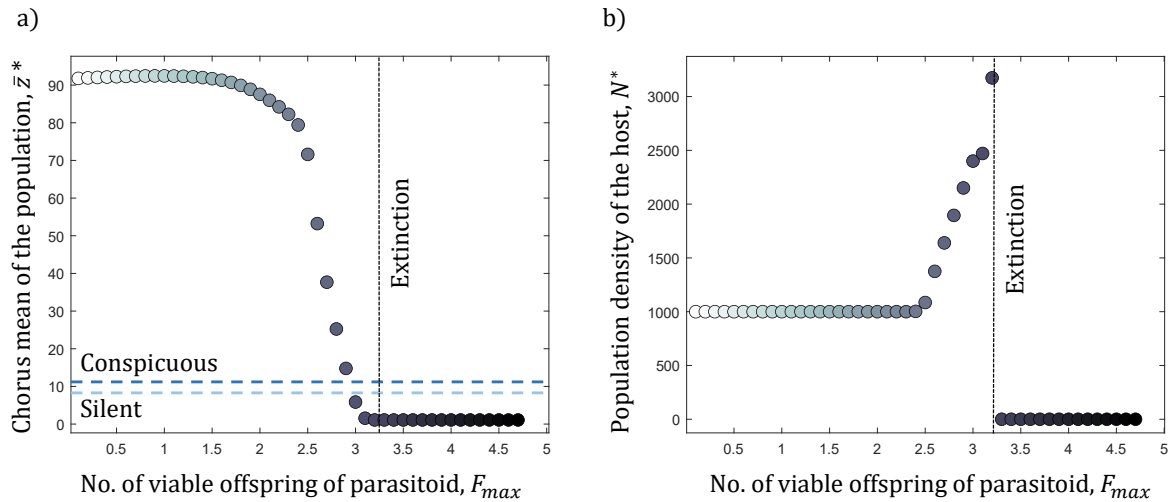


Figure 4: **Quick transition from conspicuous to silence.** a) Change in chorus mean of the host population. b) Change in population size of the host population. Increase in the fecundity of parasitoid females results in a host population that is silent and large. Beyond a threshold of fecundity of the female parasitoids, the host population goes extinct. $H(0) = 500$, $\bar{z}(0) = 90$, $\sigma = 10$, $r_{min} = 0.01$, $r_{max} = 2$, $\beta = 0.5$, $q = 0.4$ and $K = 1000$.

168 **Stability of the system and bifurcation analysis**

169 The reproductive incentive to signal is given by the difference in the maximum reproductive
 170 fitness r_{max} and the minimum reproductive reward r_{min} . Keeping the reproductive reward
 171 constant at a low value, $r_{min} = 0.01$, as we increase the maximum reproductive fitness, we
 172 increase the reproductive incentive. With the increase in reproductive incentive to signal,
 173 multiple population steady-state values emerge, such that the host population enters cyclic
 174 oscillations. We first see period-doubling in the host population density as the reproductive
 175 incentive increases. With a high reproductive incentive, the population size is similarly high.
 176 The costs of overpopulation are then determined by the carrying capacity, driving the pop-
 177 ulation extinct. The stability of the system and the start of period-doubling changes with
 178 parasitoid load. As we increase the parasitoid load (increasing fecundity or the proportion of
 179 females), the populations go extinct Fig. 5.

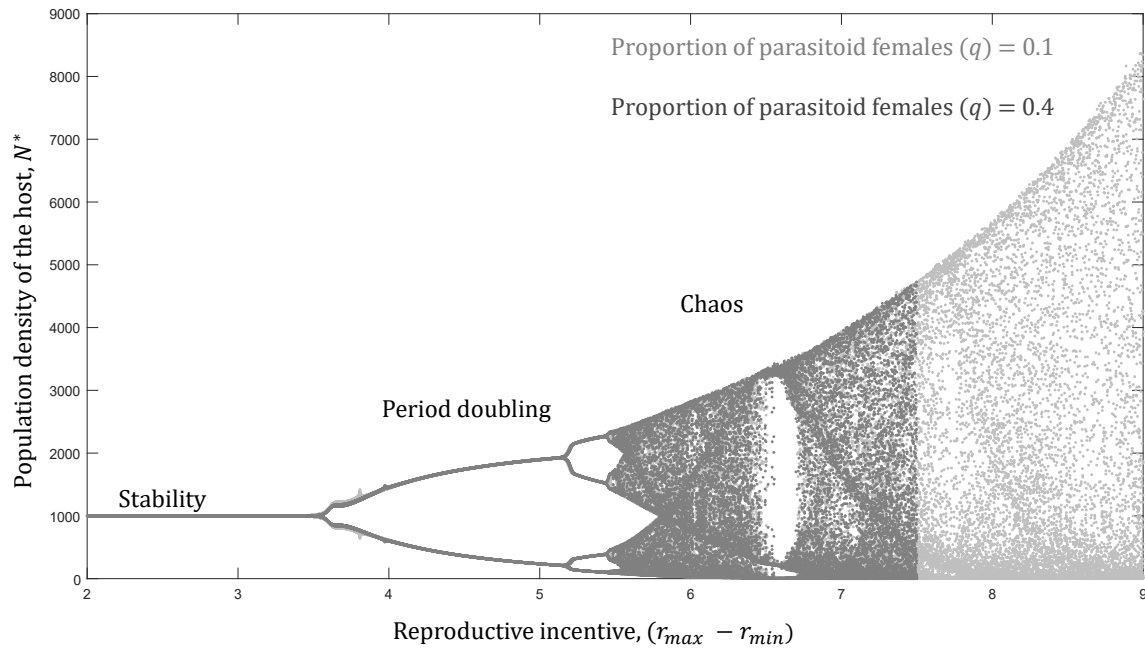


Figure 5: **Bifurcation diagram of the host system.** Outcome of host population when parasitoid population is male-biased shown in light grey and female-biased shown in dark grey. A female-biased parasitoid population causes the host population to be less stable and drive it towards extinction sooner.

180 We also plotted the chorus mean and the size of the host population for a varying sex ratio
 181 and fecundity of the parasitoid (Fig. 6). When the parasitoid population is more male or
 182 female biased, and the fecundity of the parasitoid is low, the host population remains conspicu-
 183 ous. If the sex ratio relatively is male-biased, but there is high fecundity, then the population
 184 is polymorphic with a mix of singing and silence. The host population goes extinct with a
 185 female-biased sex ratio and high fecundity (Table. 1). The system is less stable and pushed to-
 186 wards chaos for a female-biased parasitoid population with high fecundity and the population
 187 is subsequently driven to extinction.

Parasitoid Condition		Host Outcome	
Sex-ratio	Fecundity	Chorus	Population density
Male-biased	Low	Conspicuous	High
Male-biased	High	Intermediate	Intermediate
Female-biased	Low	Conspicuous	High
Female-biased	High	Silent	Low

Table 1: Effect of parasitoid condition on the host population

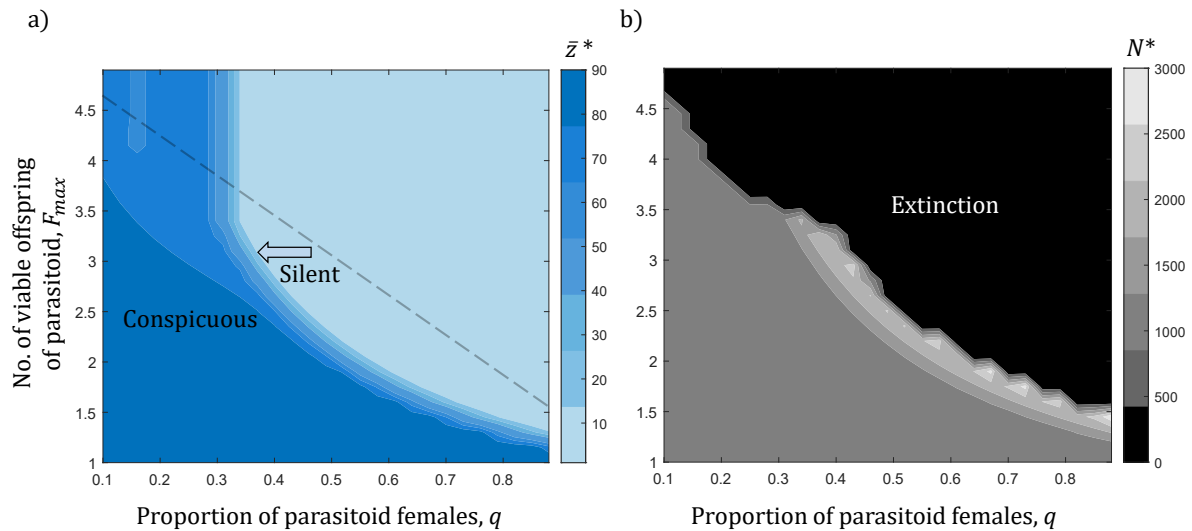


Figure 6: Stability analysis of the host system a) Chorus mean of the host population. Dark blue represents a conspicuous population and light blue represents a silent population. The blue transparent dashed line shows approximate extinction in population. Anything above the line is extinction and not silence. b) Population size of the host population. A high parasitoid load, pushes the host population to silence with a high population density. Beyond, a certain threshold of parasitoid load, the population enters cycles, followed by chaos, and then goes extinct. $H(0) = 500$, $\bar{z}(0) = 90$, $\sigma = 10$, $r_{min} = 0.01$, $r_{max} = 2$, $\beta = 0.5$, and $K = 1000$.

188 Discussion

189 Acoustic signal evolution can result from diversification of the signal [35], amplification of
 190 the existing signal to a conspicuous population [35], diminishing of a signal
 191 into a silent population [36] and, loss of signal by a morphological change in the signal pro-
 192 ducing organ [23], loss of preference for conspicuous signalers from the receiver [37]. This
 193 evolution of the acoustic signal can be a result of population dynamics [38, 39], and environ-
 194 mental pressures [40]. Parasitism is one of the major drivers of diminishing acoustic signals in
 195 various signalling species [41]. Several empirical studies have shown that with an increase in
 196 parasitoid load, the acoustic signal is diminished and lost within a few generations [25, 42, 43]
 197 Various aspects of the effect of parasitoids on host signalling traits and population sizes have
 198 been documented [41, 44]. As discussed previously, the existing host-parasitoid models do not
 199 predict the host's trait evolution and only focus on the population densities [28, 31, 32]. We
 200 modelled the parasitoid load, its impacts on the host population densities, and their signalling
 201 trait evolution. We have elucidated the critical components of the parasitoid load that affect

202 the host population and identify the threshold load at which the host population responds by
203 the loss of the signal and evolution of silence.

204 Our results show that the sex ratio and the fecundity of the parasitoid population play a key
205 role in the switch from conspicuousness to silence. Specifically, the sex ratio and fecundity
206 in the parasitoid population drive the signalling trait evolution, which in turn influences host
207 population dynamics and stability (Fig. 3, Fig. 4, and Fig. 5). The evolution from conspicu-
208 ousness to silence occurs within ten generations. Empirical studies corroborate these results.
209 Among field crickets, it is known that signalling males are more affected by the parasitoid fly
210 of the genus *Ormia* [18]. Female parasitoid flies find a specific cricket host depositing their
211 parasitoid offspring. The offspring then grow and feed within the host. Within ten days, the
212 fully grown larvae kill the host as they emerge [45]. Therefore one would estimate that the
213 sex ratio in parasitoid populations and the offspring size play vital roles in shaping the host's
214 survival and signalling behaviour. Our results show that the increasing female-biased sex ratio
215 and fecundity quickly drive the populations to evolve silence. Zuk *et al.* (2006) showed that on
216 the Hawaiian island of Kauai, where there was high parasitoid density, most of the population
217 evolved silence through selection for a flatwing morphology that rendered the males incapable
218 of generating an acoustic signal within twenty generations. To reproduce, they used alterna-
219 tive mating strategies such as increased locomotive behaviour to encounter females randomly
220 [44]. The resulting rapid and short transition period towards silence conforms with the results
221 of our model.

222 A high reproductive incentive causes the host population destabilization, period doubling,
223 chaos, and extinction (Fig. 5). Population densities of the host can be highly susceptible, and
224 the risk of infection increases with parasitoid density [46, 47]. When subject to varying preda-
225 tor densities, Allee effects or parasitism, fast-growing populations are highly sensitive to initial
226 population densities [48]. Such populations can exhibit chaotic dynamics that may promote
227 extinction risk [49–53]. We show that the reproductive rate drives the population expansion,
228 stability, and ultimately extinction (Fig. 5). Our results corroborate natural observations of
229 rapidly growing populations which first thrive, reach a critical threshold, exhibit chaotic dy-
230 namics and then go extinct [49, 54, 55]. Also, rapid oscillations in population densities can
231 lead to species extinction [56]. Such oscillations are dictated by the reproductive incentive,
232 moulded by the parasitoid load. An increased parasitoid load pushes the system faster toward
233 instability (Fig. 5). This observation implies a threshold beyond which parasitoid load cannot
234 increase in nature as it drives the host population extinct.

235 Empirical studies have independently shown that parasitoids cause shifts in host traits [15].
236 Theoretical models and other empirical findings also point to the effects of parasitoids on host
237 populations [28, 31, 32]. We outline the missing link: the connection between the parasitoid

238 load, acoustic trait evolution and population density. One would expect the parasitoids first
239 to change the host population density and the evolution of silence to be a response to the
240 population change. Counter-intuitively, we show that the parasitoid load first alters the repro-
241 ductive rate of the host population, causing an evolutionary signal adaptation in the host. The
242 population density then responds to this evolutionary signal adaptation (Fig. 6).

243 Our model provides a general framework for organisms that use acoustic signals to se-
244 cure mates and exploited by predators or parasitoids. This framework to predict the signal
245 evolution change applies to crickets, cicadas, anurans, sparrows, etc. Further, the model can
246 be expanded and developed to understand the effects of parasitism on host sex ratios [57].
247 The model could also be further developed to understand the evolution of multi-component
248 auditory signals, anthropogenic effects, and specifically to climate change acoustic behaviour
249 distributions [58–60]. Changes in the environment can cause significant changes in the re-
250 productive incentive of signalers [40, 61, 62]. Changes in the environment can also shift the
251 parasitoid load [63]. At different parasitoid loads, we have shown that drastic changes in evo-
252 lutionary adaptations of signalling hosts and their population stability are possible for a given
253 reproductive incentive. Together with environmental conditions that alter the reproductive in-
254 centive and parasitoid load, our model’s findings can provide insight into their reproduction,
255 trait evolution and population densities. In future studies, we aim to leverage our findings
256 to develop strategies for conserving the acoustic communicating populations under changing
257 environmental conditions. Artificial manipulation of the parasitoid population size, sex ratios,
258 and fecundity may provide a path forward.

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263 **Data Availability and Analysis.** All code and preliminary plots are available on GitHub
264 at <https://github.com/meghasr92/parasitismsilence>.

265 **Code availability.** <https://github.com/meghasr92/parasitismsilence>.

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