1	Disappearance of eggs from non-parasitized nests of brood
2	parasite hosts – the evolutionary equilibrium hypothesis revisited
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36	RUNNING TITLE: DISAPPEARANCE OF EGGS

39 ABSTRACT

40 The evolutionary equilibrium hypothesis was proposed to explain variation in egg rejection 41 rates among individual hosts (intra- and interspecific) of avian brood parasites. Hosts may 42 sometimes mistakenly reject own eggs when they are not parasitized, i.e. make recognition 43 errors. Such errors would incur fitness costs and could counter evolution of host defences 44 driven by costs of parasitism, i.e. creating equilibrium between acceptors and rejecters within 45 particular host populations. Here, we report disappearance of host eggs from non-parasitized 46 nests in populations of 7 European passerine species. Based on these data we calculate the 47 magnitude of the balancing parasitism rate given that all eggs lost are due to recognition 48 errors. Importantly, since eggs are known to disappear from nests for other reasons than 49 erroneous host rejection, our data represent maximum estimates of such costs. Nonetheless, 50 disappearance of eggs was rare events and incurred low costs compared to the high costs of 51 parasitism. Hence, costs due to recognition errors are probably of minor importance as 52 opposing selective pressure to evolution of egg rejection in most hosts. We cannot exclude the 53 possibility that intermediate egg rejection rates in some host populations may be caused by 54 spatiotemporal variation in occurrence of parasitism and gene flow, creating variable 55 influence of opposing costs due to recognition errors and costs of parasitism.

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57 KEYWORDS: Co-evolution; cuckoo; fitness cost; host defence; host-parasite interactions;

58 disappearance of eggs

60 INTRODUCTION

61 In hosts of avian brood parasites, costs of parasitism impose strong selection for evolution of 62 defensive traits because successful parasitism in many cases leads to total loss of host 63 reproductive output. Therefore, many hosts have evolved fine-tuned egg rejection abilities, 64 which in several cases have been countered by parasites evolving mimetic eggs (e.g. Payne, 65 1967; Brooke & Davies, 1988; Davies & Brooke, 1989a; Moksnes et al., 1991; Antonov et al. 66 2006a; Starling et al. 2006; Spottiswoode & Stevens 2010; Stoddard & Stevens, 2010, 2011; 67 Begum et al., 2011). In some species, there is apparently no variation in rejection abilities 68 either within or between populations, and rejection rates are more or less fixed at 100% (i.e. 69 all individuals are capable of rejection) as long as the appearance of the parasitic egg is 70 cognitively recognizable for the individuals in question (Stokke, Moksnes & Røskaft, 2005). 71 However, even rejection rates of non-mimetic eggs are only moderate in several other host 72 species, often showing prominent temporal and/or spatial variation (Brooke, Davies & Noble, 73 1998; Soler et al., 1999; Stokke et al., 2008), relying on additional cues other than egg 74 appearance when deciding to reject parasitic eggs (i.e. conditional responses (Brooke et al., 75 1998; Davies, 2000)). Such co-occurrence of acceptors and rejecters (either as fixed or 76 flexible strategies) within a single host population is often explained by costs of making errors 77 in recognition and rejection of foreign eggs, which could outweigh the benefits of egg 78 rejection under specific circumstances (Rothstein, 1982a; Marchetti, 1992; Lotem, Nakamura 79 & Zahavi, 1995; Davies, Brooke & Kacelnik, 1996; Takasu, 1998). Specifically, host 80 individuals attuned to reject foreign eggs may mistakenly reject one of their own eggs in nests 81 that are not parasitized (Stokke et al., 2005; Røskaft et al., 2002a). These costs obviously 82 have fitness consequences because the resulting clutch size will be smaller than the optimal one. In theory, such errors are most likely to occur in hosts that have high variation in egg 83 84 appearance within clutches (Davies & Brooke, 1989b; Lotem et al., 1995; Stokke et al.,

2007), making it difficult for hosts to recognize and hence reject parasitic eggs. Thus, if parasitism rates are low or variable, the costs of making recognition errors could sometimes potentially be higher than the costs of parasitism. Such a scenario could result in equilibrium between acceptors and rejecters within particular host populations or, if costs due to recognition errors and rejection costs are high, even lead to acceptance being the optimal strategy (the evolutionary equilibrium hypothesis, Lotem & Nakamura, 1998).

91 However, the importance of recognition errors as an opposing selective force to egg 92 rejection, at least in hosts of evicting parasites, has been questioned (Røskaft et al., 2002a; Stokke et al., 2002a). In brood parasites like honeyguides (Indicatoridae) and cuckoos 93 94 (Cuculidae), the parasitic chick gets rid of all host eggs or young from the nest soon after 95 hatching (Davies, 2000; Anderson et al., 2009, Grim et al., 2009; Spottiswoode & Koorevaar, 96 2012), enforcing high costs on host reproduction and hence strong selection for evolution of 97 defences against parasitism, depending on the level of parasitism. Furthermore, estimating 98 occurrence of recognition errors is not straightforward. It is well known that partial egg losses 99 may be due to other causes than erroneous ejection of own eggs, like e.g. jostling or partial 100 predation (e.g. Rothstein, 1982b; Lerkelund et al., 1993). Hence, only constant monitoring of 101 nests throughout the egg laying and incubation period can provide us with evidence for the 102 occurrence of recognition errors. Without such monitoring, we cannot rule out the possibility 103 that eggs may disappear for other reasons than erroneous host rejection and estimates of such 104 costs are therefore in many cases likely to be higher than what is actually the case.

105 The objective of the present study is to report the disappearance of own eggs in actual 106 and potential host species of common cuckoo *Cuculus canorus*. Based on these data, we 107 estimate maximum costs of recognition errors and the parasitism rate that should balance 108 these costs. We discuss our results in relation to current knowledge of co-evolutionary 109 adaptations in cuckoos and their hosts.

111 MATERIAL AND METHODS

112 ESTIMATE OF PARASITISM RATE BALANCING MAXIMUM RECOGNITION

113 ERRORS ESTIMATES

114 We acknowledge that the response to a parasitic egg may be conditional/plastic (Brooke *et al.*, 115 1998; Lindholm & Thomas, 2000; Soler, Martín-Vivaldi & Fernández-Morante, 2012). 116 Furthermore, we realistically assume that host egg rejection behaviour has a genetic basis 117 (Martín-Gálvez et al., 2006). In the absence of parasitism, the frequency of rejecters in the 118 population may decline due to recognition errors, but also due to other costs related to 119 maintaining specific traits or due to stochasticity (Lahti, 2005, 2006). In populations 120 experiencing parasitism above a certain threshold level, selection will likely lead to rejecters 121 producing more offspring than acceptors because rejecters escape the costs of parasitism. We 122 use the model presented by Davies & Brooke (1989b) to derive average reproductive success 123 of acceptor and rejecter pairs ($RS_{acceptor}$ and $RS_{rejecter}$) and the corresponding balancing 124 parasitism rate, p^* . Let p be the parasitism rate (probability of a host nest being parasitized). 125 Average reproductive success of acceptor pairs (both sexes are acceptors) is

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127
$$RS_{acceptor} = F(1-p) + c (F-1) p$$

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where *F* is the average host clutch size and *c* is the proportion of host young reared together with a parasitic chick ($0 \le c \le 1$). Typically, for evicting brood parasites like *Cuculus* cuckoos, c = 0 (but see Rutila, Latja & Koskela, 2002), but for non-evicting parasites, *c* can be larger. We assume that cuckoo females remove one host egg from the nest when parasitizing the nest (Davies, 2000), even though removal of more than one egg is not

134 uncommon (Øien et al., 1998). Average reproductive success of rejecter pairs (at least one 135 breeding individual is rejecter), where all parasite eggs are rejected is 136 137 $RS_{\text{rejecter}} = (F - \Delta F)(1 - p) + (F - \Delta F - 1) p$ 138 139 where ΔF denotes recognition errors expressed as the number of host eggs lost by rejecters. 140 Since only rejecters are likely to commit recognition errors, we need to take egg rejection 141 rates within the population into account when calculating ΔF as follows 142 143 ΔF = [Proportion of host eggs lost from unparasitized nests in population] [Mean 144 clutch size in population] / [Egg rejection rate in population] (1) 145 146 At equilibrium, the average reproductive success, $RS_{acceptor} = RS_{rejecter}$, we obtain the 147 parasitism rate, p^* , that balances the benefit of rejecting parasite eggs with the cost of 148 rejecting own eggs in non-parasitized nests (recognition errors) as 149 $p^* = \Delta F / (F - 1) / (1 - c)$ 150 151 152 In some species, host individuals show phenotypic plasticity in their responses against 153 parasites (based on social cues; Campobello & Sealy (2011), based on personality, Avilés & 154 Parejo (2011), based on perception of risk of parasitism, Welbergen & Davies (2009)) and 155 parasitic eggs, and hosts will more likely reject eggs if they experience additional cues other 156 than the egg itself, like for instance observing a cuckoo in the vicinity of the nest (Moksnes et 157 al., 2000). Furthermore, the ability of individuals to reject parasitic eggs usually depends on 158 the contrast between own and foreign eggs, i.e. egg mimicry (Davies, 2000; Spottiswoode &

159 Stevens, 2010). Hence, from Eq. 1 we obtain four estimates of ΔF ; assuming that 1) all (RE1), 160 2) 50% (RE2), 3) 25% (RE3) and 4) observed % (RE4) of individuals in the population are 161 able to reject foreign eggs. The estimate RE4 is based on rejection of experimental non-162 mimetic eggs in the specific study population (Table 1). We acknowledge that these four 163 estimates are only crude attempts to take phenotypic plasticity into account in our 164 calculations, but firstly we want to keep our calculations as simple as possible, and secondly, 165 we lacked reliable quantitative estimates of phenotypic plasticity. By calculating four 166 estimates, at least some of the phenotypic plasticity present at the individual level in specific 167 populations is taken into account.

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169 EMPIRICAL DATA IN DISAPPEARANCE OF EGGS AND OTHER RELEVANT170 FACTORS

171 Data on disappearance of own eggs in non-parasitized nests were retrieved from own field 172 studies in which nests were monitored throughout the egg laying and incubation periods. We 173 retrieved 1) number of host eggs lost from unparasitized host nests in the specific population; 174 2) mean clutch size in the specific population (F); and 3) rejection rate of experimentally 175 added, non-mimetic eggs within the study populations. In addition, we also retrieved 4) 176 observed parasitism rate within each population (Table 1). The number of eggs lost in each 177 population, termed "number of disappeared eggs", was calculated as the number of eggs lost 178 from non-parasitized nests / total number of non-parasitized nests (excluding nests that were 179 naturally or experimentally parasitized). We only included nests with single host eggs lost, 180 because disappearance of more than one egg could indicate partial predation rather than actual 181 errors in recognition. Hence, in our marsh warbler Acrocephalus palustris population we 182 omitted cases where three out of four eggs (N = 1), and four out of five eggs (N = 2) 183 disappeared. In our corn bunting Miliaria calandra population we omitted cases where two out of three eggs (N = 1), three out of five eggs (N = 1), and four out of five eggs (N = 1)disappeared. We also omitted clutches where egg laying did not follow the "one egg per day" criterion. More specifically this refers to two extraordinary cases in the chaffinch *Fringilla coelebs* population, with an irregular egg laying sequence (Stokke *et al.*, 2002a). Furthermore, loss of all eggs in the clutch was considered to be caused by predation, and such nests were omitted from the calculations.

190 Nests were monitored daily from nest building until six days of incubation to allow 191 estimates of disappearance of own eggs from non-parasitized nests. Eggs were marked with 192 permanent ink in the sequence they were laid. Clutch size was estimated from completed, 193 non-parasitized clutches. Nests used to calculate recognition errors and clutch size were 194 different from those used to calculate rejection rate of experimentally added, non-mimetic 195 eggs.

196 Disappearance of eggs from non-parasitized nests were estimated in 8 study 197 populations (Table 1): (1) great reed warblers Acrocephalus arundinaceus in Apaj, Hungary (1998-2008), (2) great reed warblers in Embalse del Hondo, Alicante, Spain (XXXX-XXXX), 198 199 (3) reed warblers Acrocephalus scirpaceus in Embalse del Hondo, Alicante, Spain (XXXX-200 XXXX), (4) marsh warblers in Zlatia, Bulgaria (2002-2009), (5) olivaceous warblers 201 Hippolais pallida in Zlatia, Bulgaria (2001-2009), (6) chaffinches in Stjørdal, Norway (1999-202 2001), (7) bramblings Fringilla montifringilla in Tana, Norway (2003-2004), and (8) corn 203 buntings in Zlatia, Bulgaria (2002-2009). All these species are known to be parasitized by 204 common cuckoos to various extents (Moksnes & Røskaft, 1995). Data on clutch sizes, 205 parasitism rates, and rejection rates of experimentally added, non-mimetic eggs were retrieved 206 from the literature for the same populations from which we obtained data on disappearance of 207 eggs (Moksnes et al., 1991; Moksnes, Røskaft & Solli, 1994; Bártol et al., 2002; Moskát & 208 Honza, 2002; Stokke et al., 2002a, 2004; Antonov et al., 2006a,b, 2007a,b, 2009; Hauber,

Megjegyzés [BGS1]: Csaba and Germán, Please insert years of data collection

Moskát & Bàn, 2006; Moskát *et al.*, 2008a,b,c, 2009; Avilés *et al.*, 2009; Vikan *et al.*, 2009,
2010, 2011). A few data from unpublished studies were also included; in the Spanish reed
warbler population (number 3 in the list above), rejection data of non-mimetic eggs refer to
experimentally added eggs painted pale blue.

213

214 RESULTS

215 Disappearance of eggs from non-parasitized nests was most pronounced in great reed and reed 216 warblers (7 - 7.4%). In the remaining species, eggs disappeared in only 0 - 0.9% of the nests 217 (Table 1). Individuals in the populations included in our analyses experienced 0 to 16.7% loss 218 of own eggs in non-parasitized nests depending on how we consider rejection abilities (Table 219 1). Calculations of parasitism rates that would balance the costs of recognition errors 220 (provided that all eggs lost were due to erroneous egg rejection) show considerable variation 221 among species (Table 1, range 0 - 23.3%). Since only rejecters are assumed to erroneously 222 reject own eggs, and our estimate of recognition errors is one fixed value per population, the 223 cost of recognition errors and the corresponding balancing parasitism rate will be higher when 224 fewer individuals are classified as rejecters (Equation 1). Hence, within particular 225 populations, estimates of recognition errors and balancing parasitism rates will generally be 226 higher when considering rejection of mimetic eggs than non-mimetic eggs, since the rejection 227 rate for mimetic eggs in the population is generally lower than for non-mimetic eggs. If we 228 assume that all individuals have the ability to reject eggs (100% rejection rate), estimates of 229 both recognition errors and balancing parasitism rate can be regarded as minimum estimates. 230 The balancing parasitism rates are generally in the magnitude of 0 - 1.2%, except in

great reed and reed warblers where it may reach 7.7 and 23.3% respectively, depending on calculation of the proportion of individuals that are able to reject parasitic eggs. In seven of the eight study populations, observed parasitism rates are equal to or higher than those

234 required to balance the costs of making recognition errors, indicating that egg rejection 235 abilities should evolve and be maintained, which is in accordance with the high rejection rates 236 of non-mimetic eggs generally found in this study. Hence, recognition errors should not be 237 important as opposing selection pressure in these populations. The only exception among 238 these seven populations is the corn bunting, which experience a rather high parasitism rate but 239 still only reject non-mimetic eggs at an intermediate level. The remaining population, Spanish 240 reed warblers, experience a parasitism rate that is lower than the ones required maintaining 241 rejection behaviour with all four estimates of recognition errors (Table 1).

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243 INSERT TABLE 1 APPROX. HERE

244

245 DISCUSSION

246 Perceptual errors may cause costs that could oppose evolution or maintenance of apparently 247 optimal adaptations like those involved in co-evolutionary arms races. Such costs may act as 248 opposing selective pressures against evolution of host defences against brood parasitism, as 249 outlined in the evolutionary equilibrium hypothesis (Rothstein, 1982a; Lotem et al., 1995; 250 Davies et al., 1996). Here we have shown that the magnitudes of such errors are in general 251 low across eight different host populations, even with our overestimated rates of recognition 252 errors. Furthermore, our estimates of recognition errors are comparable to those obtained from 253 other species (Marchetti, 1992, 2000; Lotem et al., 1995).

Several European passerines regarded as suitable cuckoo hosts show strong rejection of
experimentally added eggs (Davies & Brooke, 1989a; Moksnes *et al.*, 1991; Moskát,
Szentpéteri & Barta, 2002; Honza *et al.*, 2004; Lovászi & Moskát, 2004; Procházka & Honza,
2004; Rutila *et al.*, 2006; Samaš *et al.*, 2011; Table 1). Such species are often characterized by
having a low intraclutch variation in egg appearance (Øien, Moksnes & Røskaft, 1995; Soler

259 & Møller, 1996; Stokke, Moksnes & Røskaft, 2002b), reducing the risk of making recognition 260 errors and enhancing rejection of even moderately mimetic parasitic eggs (Stokke et al., 2007; 261 Moskát et al., 2008a). Furthermore, several species may retain rejection behaviour in the 262 absence of parasitism over very long time periods (Underwood, Sealy & McLaren, 2004; 263 Lahti, 2006), and even after speciation events (Bolen, Rothstein & Trost, 2000; Rothstein, 264 2001; Peer & Sealy, 2004a) indicating that opposing selective pressures to egg rejection, like 265 recognition errors, are negligible in these species. Even with the existence of recognition 266 errors, rejection behaviour may be retained without apparent interspecific parasitism due to 267 several reasons. Firstly, there may be unaccounted benefits to egg rejection behaviour, such as 268 resistance to intraspecific brood parasitism, that maintain rejection behaviour and even cause 269 it to increase in frequency (Grim et al., 2011, Samaš et al., 2011). Secondly, interspecific 270 parasitism may still occur at a low rate without researchers being able to detect it. Hence, 271 parasitism by cuckoos laying non-mimetic eggs (i.e. from a gens with another main host) may 272 happen from time to time, but since such eggs would be ejected quickly the host population 273 appears to be non-parasitized. Such "accidental" layings are not uncommon (Čapek, 1896; 274 Chance, 1940), and the rate of which such events are occurring may be sufficient to retain 275 rejection rates as apparent from the balancing parasitism rates reported in our study. For 276 instance, Moksnes & Røskaft (1995) found 76 cuckoo eggs in chaffinches stored in European 277 museums, and out of 58,000 cases of cuckoo parasitism from Europe collected by B.G. 278 Stokke, 325 cases were recorded in chaffinch nests scattered all over Europe (unpublished 279 data). The balancing parasitism rates estimated for chaffinches and bramblings in the present 280 study are equal to zero, indicating that occasional parasitism by cuckoos is sufficient to retain 281 high rates of egg rejection. Third, the retention of egg rejection in these species may be 282 caused by immigration of rejecters from other populations that suffer high parasitism rates 283 (Soler et al., 2001). Hence, there are reports of chaffinches being utilized regularly by cuckoos in the European parts of Russia (Malchevsky, 1960), and bramblings are favoured
hosts in parts of Fennoscandia (Vikan *et al.*, 2011).

286 On the other hand, our results also indicate that perceptual errors may be influential for 287 the evolution of egg rejection in some cases. Hence, one of our study populations experience 288 parasitism rates lower than the balancing parasitism rates. Reed warblers in Spain experience 289 a parasitism rate of 2.0%, which is slightly lower than the calculated balancing parasitism rate 290 (2.9 - 23.3%). In this population, egg rejection abilities should therefore deteriorate with time, 291 based on our current estimates of recognition errors, provided that there is no immigration of 292 rejecters from other populations, or as long as there are no large fluctuations in parasitism rate 293 among years. Several studies have focused on the influence of recognition errors in reed 294 warblers, although support for the importance of errors has been ambiguous (e.g. Davies & 295 Brooke, 1988; Davies et al., 1996; Røskaft et al., 2002a; Čapek et al., 2010). This species 296 shows marked spatial variation in egg rejection related to parasitism pressure in the specific 297 population (Lindholm & Thomas, 2000; Stokke et al., 2008), indicating that there could be 298 opposing selective pressures working against egg rejection in populations experiencing no or 299 low parasitism. Alternatively, temporal variation in parasitism (Brooke et al., 1998) may also 300 lead to the same pattern with fluctuations in selective pressures depending on the current costs 301 of parasitism. Furthermore, reed warblers have substantial intraclutch variation in egg 302 appearance (Stokke et al., 1999, 2002b) and are parasitized by cuckoos laying mimetic eggs 303 (Davies & Brooke, 1988), making recognition of parasitic eggs error prone. In such cases, 304 hosts may rely on conditional stimuli in perceiving the risk of parasitism (Rothstein, 1982a; 305 Davies & Brooke, 1988, 1998; Stokke et al., 2005, 2007). Hence, reed warblers are more 306 likely to reject parasitic eggs when they observe a cuckoo close to the nest, indicating 307 increased risk of parasitism (Davies & Brooke, 1988; Moksnes, Røskaft & Korsnes, 1993; 308 Moksnes et al., 2000). However, a recent study disclosed that the presence of a cuckoo does not necessarily lead to increased risk of making recognition errors (Čapek *et al.*, 2010).
Careful investigations of reed warbler nests by utilizing video recordings should be
undertaken to determine unambiguously if disappearance of eggs is due to erroneous rejection
of own eggs.

313 Gene flow, not considered directly in the present study, may potentially slow down the 314 process of evolving optimally expressed traits in particular populations or lead to local mal-315 adaptation (Nuismer, Thompson & Gomulkiewicz, 1999). Influx of rejecter or acceptor alleles 316 may therefore influence expression of egg rejection in local populations. However, this 317 critically depends on spatiotemporal variation in selection regimes (Duffy & Forde, 2009), 318 like cuckoo parasitism and costs due to recognition errors, although at present such data are 319 unavailable. Gene flow could also increase the frequency of rejecter alleles in non-parasitized 320 or weakly parasitized populations (e.g. Røskaft et al., 2002b, 2006; Moskát et al., 2008b), 321 thus causing errors to increase. Interestingly, there is low genetic differentiation among reed 322 warbler populations in Europe, showing evidence of extensive gene flow among populations 323 (Procházka et al., 2011). The intermediate rejection of non-mimetic eggs in reed warblers and 324 possibly in corn buntings may therefore be caused by a combined effect of costs of making 325 recognition errors, gene flow and spatiotemporal variation in occurrence of parasitism 326 creating a mosaic of situations in which the opposing costs vary in relative magnitude. 327 Interestingly, the few studies available on corn buntings, indicate similar spatial variation in 328 parasitism as in reed warblers. Hence, in Italy only 1.4% (N = 208) corn bunting nests were 329 parasitized (Campobello & Sealy, 2009), which is profoundly different from the relatively 330 high parasitism rate at our Bulgarian study site.

It is important to acknowledge that recognition errors are probably rarer events than estimated in the present study, because eggs may disappear from nests for many other reasons like e.g. jostling or partial predation (e.g. Rothstein, 1982b; Lerkelund *et al.*, 1993; Moksnes *et al.*, 2000; Røskaft *et al.*, 2002a). For instance, Moksnes *et al.* (2000) and Røskaft *et al.* (2002a) reported that cuckoos visited and partially depredated 12% of reed warbler nests without actually parasitizing them (see also Wyllie, 1975). Furthermore, cuckoos often remove one or two host eggs just prior to laying their own egg (Wyllie, 1975, 1981). If the host then rapidly ejects the parasitic egg, the loss of it's own egg(s) will appear to be selfinflicted to the observer even when this was not actually the case. Even with daily monitoring of nests such mistakes may take place.

341 In our approach, we focused only on hosts of cuckoos Cuculus spp. However, the same 342 argument can be used for other brood parasitic systems. One important point to consider is 343 calculations of the cost of parasitism. In the North American brown-headed cowbird 344 Molothrus ater, the parasite chick does not evict host chicks leading to a lower cost of 345 parasitism in most cases, but not always ($0 \le c \le 1$). We show that the balancing parasitism 346 rate p^* increases as c increases and hence even smaller costs due to recognition errors oppose 347 the evolution of rejection behaviour. Furthermore, even rejection costs, such as damage of 348 own eggs when trying to reject the parasitic egg, can be important for opposing egg rejection 349 in such hosts (Rohwer & Spaw, 1988; Røskaft & Moksnes, 1998) in contrast to cuckoo hosts 350 where such costs are of minor importance (Stokke et al., 2005, but see Antonov et al., 2009). 351 In addition, North American passerines in general have a higher intraclutch variation in egg 352 appearance than comparable species in Europe, which may increase the risk of committing 353 recognition errors (Stokke et al., 2002b). However, in many cases the brown-headed cowbird 354 egg is non-mimetic, many hosts experience very high parasitism rates, and especially smaller 355 hosts also suffer high costs when raising a cowbird chick (Kilner, 2003). Therefore, lag in the 356 evolution of egg rejection (perhaps due to lack of genetic background) is still the most 357 plausible explanation for the lack of egg rejection in most hosts parasitized by cowbirds (Peer 358 & Sealy, 2004b). However, other causes than recognition errors may cause apparently suboptimal rejection rates. For instance, costs of desertion due to nest site limitation (hole nesters), parasite mafia behaviour or few re-nesting opportunities may lead to acceptance of parasitic eggs (e.g. Soler *et al.*, 1995; Avilés, Rutila & Møller, 2005; Hoover & Robinson, 2007; Krüger, 2007, 2011).

363 By using empirical data on disappearance of own eggs from non-parasitized nests, we 364 have shown that costs opposing evolution of egg rejection in hosts of avian brood parasites 365 may exist but are in general small. Importantly, our estimates are most probably overestimates 366 of true recognition errors, indicating that such costs in general are minute compared to the 367 high costs of parasitism. Recognition errors seem most likely in species with specific 368 characteristics like a high intraclutch variation in egg appearance, intermediate and variable 369 rejection rate, spatiotemporal variation in occurrence of parasitism, and parasitism by brood 370 parasites laying eggs that at least to some extent mimic host eggs, like in reed warblers and 371 perhaps corn buntings. Future studies on the importance of recognition errors should focus on 372 long-term studies of such "intermediate" rejecters at a spatiotemporal scale including several 373 populations thus taking gene flow into account, while also considering phenotypic plasticity 374 in host anti-parasite behaviour. By this approach, we should be able to obtain reliable 375 estimates of variation in recognition errors, rejection rates and parasitism rates and address the 376 importance of the various costs for the evolution of egg rejection. Finally, use of video 377 cameras (e.g. Weidinger, 2010) would disclose the proportion of eggs that are actually lost by 378 erroneous ejection of own eggs and not to other factors such as jostling or partial predation.

Our findings should be of importance for evaluating hypotheses set forward to explain variation in expression of defences in hosts. Further research should focus on clarifying how recognition errors promote selection for low intraclutch variation, an important antiparasite defence in hosts of brood parasites, as host eggs with extreme appearance are expected to be identified as parasitic eggs. We also suggest future research looking at how frequency of recognition errors might be characteristic for specific stages of the arms race between hostsand brood parasites.

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Table 1. Data used to calculate the balancing parasitism rate (%) required for opposing maximum estimates of costs due to recognition errors. The frequency of recognition errors is estimated as the proportion of own eggs lost out of all eggs laid (($\Delta F/F$)*100)) in non-parasitized nests assuming that 1) all (RE1), 50% (RE2), 3) 25% (RE3) of the individuals are capable of rejecting eggs. As a fourth estimate (RE4) we also consider the proportion of individuals in the population that are able to reject experimental non-mimetic eggs (see Equation 1 for calculation). *Individuals that recognized and pecked foreign eggs. **Rejection rate of non-mimetic eggs in Hungarian population used. Numbers in brackets refer to number of nests. See Methods for more details.

Species	Locality	Number of disappeared eg	RE1 (%)	RE2 (%)	RE3 (%)	RE4 (%)	Parasitism rate (%)	Rejection rate, RE4 (%)	Clutch size	Balancing parasitism, RE	Balancing parasitism, RE2	Balancing parasitism, RE3	Balancing parasitism, RE₄
		Sgs								-	12	ω	4

Hungary	4 (54)	1.53 (54)	3.07 (54)	6.13 (54)	1.61 (54)	59.4 (546)	95.2 (58)	4.83 (137)	1.9	3.9	7.7	2.0
Spain	6 (86)	1.50 (86)	3.01 (86)	6.01 (86)	1.58(86)**	12.1 (116)	NA	4.64 (59)	1.9	3.8	7.7	2.0**
Spain	17 (229)	2.09 (229)	4.18 (229)	8.36 (229)	16.73 (229)	2.0 (402)	12.5 (16)	3.55 (273)	2.9	5.8	11.6	23.3
Bulgaria	1 (157)	0.14 (157)	0.27 (157)	0.54 (157)	0.15 (157)	28.3 (532)	88.2 (17)	4.68 (159)	0.2	0.3	0.7	0.2
Bulgaria	1 (113)	0.23 (113)	0.46 (113)	0.92 (113)	0.25 (113)	26.6 (128)	91.3 (23)*	3.85 (113)	0.3	0.6	1.2	0.3
Norway	0 (38)	0.00 (38)	0.00 (38)	0.00 (38)	0.00 (38)	0.0 (220)	87.0 (152)	4.75 (92)	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Norway	0 (57)	0.00 (57)	0.00 (57)	0.00 (57)	0.00 (57)	0.0 (250)	78.4 (37)	6.02 (189)	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Bulgaria	1 (118)	0.17 (118)	0.34 (118)	0.69 (118)	0.30 (118)	14.6 (356)	56.5 (108)	4.93 (119)	0.2	0.4	0.9	0.4
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