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1 **Food availability and competition do not modulate the costs of *Plasmodium***
2 **infection in dominant male canaries**

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34 **Abstract**

35

36 Understanding the different factors that may influence parasite virulence is of fundamental
37 interest to ecologists and evolutionary biologists. It has recently been demonstrated that
38 parasite virulence may occur partly through manipulation of host competitive ability.
39 Differences in competitive ability associated with the social status (dominant or subordinate)
40 of a host may determine the extent of this competition-mediated parasite virulence. We
41 proposed that differences between subordinate and dominant birds in the physiological costs
42 of infection may change depending on the level of competition in social groups. We observed
43 flocks of domestic canaries to determine dominant or subordinate birds, and modified
44 competition by providing restricted (high competition) or *ad libitum* food (low competition).
45 Entire flocks were then infected with either the avian malaria parasite, *Plasmodium relictum*
46 or a control. Contrary to our predictions we found that food availability had no effect on the
47 outcome of infection for dominant or subordinate birds, though we found evidence that our
48 food availability manipulations did alter competition and behaviour within our experimental
49 cages. We found that dominant birds appeared to suffer greater infection mediated morbidity
50 in both dietary treatments, with a higher and more sustained reduction in haematocrit, and
51 higher parasitaemia, than subordinates. Our results show that dominance status in birds can
52 certainly alter parasite virulence, though the links between food availability, competition,
53 nutrition and virulence are likely to be complex and multifaceted.

54 **1. Introduction**

55 The ability to resist and recover from pathogenic infection is one of the major fitness-
56 determining traits shared by all animals. However, often parasites will differ in their
57 virulence, the degree of morbidity and mortality they inflict upon hosts. Understanding the
58 factors that drive these differences in virulence is of fundamental interest. For a given host,
59 extrinsic factors such as parasite genotype and environment may modulate parasite virulence.
60 For example, it has been shown that parasite virulence may be altered when host environment
61 differs in factors such as temperature (Blanford et al., 2003), host density (Steinhaus, 1958),
62 and food availability (Bedhomme et al., 2004). Similarly, intrinsic factors such as host
63 genotype (Lefevre et al., 2007), sex (de Roode et al., 2007) or age (Gardner and Remington,
64 1977) may affect parasite virulence. A further difference between hosts that may potentially
65 shape the outcome of parasitic infection is the social status of the host, especially in vertebrate
66 species with social hierarchies (Larcombe et al. in press). There is growing interest into how
67 some animals, including birds, develop stable and profound differences between individuals
68 in their behavioural profiles (Sih and Bell, 2008). How such differences in behaviour or social
69 status translate into differences in parasite virulence following infection remains unclear.

70 Dominance is associated with a number of benefits in wild birds, for example access to the
71 best feeding opportunities (Parisot et al., 2004), predator free foraging sites (Schneider, 1984),
72 roosting positions (Weatherhead and Hoysak, 1984), or mating success (Post, 1992). Despite
73 these benefits there is increasing understanding of the costs of dominance. Social stress, the
74 physiological stress associated with attaining or maintaining a dominant social position, has
75 received attention as a cost of dominance (Creel et al., 1996). Several studies have
76 demonstrated chronic elevated levels of potentially damaging hormones in dominant birds,
77 compared with subordinates (e.g. Goymann et al., 2004; Goymann and Wingfield, 2004). In

78 addition, some evidence suggests that dominant individuals may have reduced immune
79 function compared to subordinates (Li et al., 2007), although in other cases the reverse is true
80 (Ungerfeld and Correa, 2007). In a recent experiment, we showed that parasite-mediated
81 morbidity and mortality in canaries was dependent on the social status of the host, when
82 receiving a reduced diet (Larcombe et al. in press). Throughout that study, all birds received a
83 reduced quantity of seeds in a single feeder, a way to experimentally increase competition
84 between individuals in their groups. This food manipulation may have altered the patterns of
85 parasite virulence we observed in subordinate and dominant birds. Firstly, the energetic costs
86 of obtaining and protecting food resources are likely to be higher for dominants than
87 subordinates, especially since there is some evidence that dominant birds may have higher
88 metabolic rates (Hogstad, 1987). These costs of food gathering and food site protection will
89 be increased when less food is available. Competition-mediated differences in parasite
90 virulence may therefore be more severe for dominants than subordinates, when food is scarce,
91 compared to food rich environments. For socially tolerant subordinates, the influence of food
92 availability on competition and parasite virulence, is likely to be less severe. Secondly, when
93 flocks of birds are provided only one feeder there may be unnaturally high levels of
94 competition compared to a more natural environment where secondary feeding sites may be
95 available, reducing the requirement for all birds to feed simultaneously. In this study, we
96 tested whether mortality or morbidity of canaries infected with *Plasmodium relictum* differed
97 between dominants and subordinates, receiving either a reduced or *ad libitum* diet.
98 Importantly, in *ad lib* groups, several feeders were available in each cage meaning that
99 dominant birds could not monopolise and protect the food resource, and more birds could
100 feed simultaneously without encountering aggression from other birds.

101 The goal of this study was to assess the interactive effects between social status,
102 infection and food availability on parasite virulence using domestic canaries as hosts and

103 *Plasmodium relictum* (lineage SGS1), an avian malarial parasite. By keeping canaries in
104 flocks of 5 birds, and scoring for consistent feeding behaviours, we divided birds into 2
105 categories: dominant (D) and subordinate (S) within each flock. Half of the flocks received an
106 *ad lib* diet, and the other half received a limited though adequate diet. Whole flocks were then
107 either infected with Plasmodium, or given a control inoculation. Following infection, we
108 measured morbidity (change in mass and haematocrit) and mortality of hosts, in addition to
109 parasitaemia. We predicted that infected dominant birds would have higher
110 morbidity/mortality than infected subordinates in reduced food groups and infected dominant
111 birds receiving an *ad lib* diet would have lower morbidity/mortality, than infected dominants
112 receiving a reduced diet.

113

114 **2. Materials and methods**

115 We used 60 adult male canaries during the experiment, and prior to commencement
116 each bird was molecularly sexed following a standard PCR technique (Fridolfsson and
117 Ellegren, 1999). We only used male canaries in the experiment as we did not wish to
118 confound the experiment with differences between sexes, or by interactions in- and between
119 pairs of birds. After confirming the sex of each bird, we divided the birds between 6 aviaries
120 (2.5 * 1.5 * 2.2 m), 5 birds per aviary. Each bird was weighed, and had its tarsus length
121 measured prior to re-housing in a new flock.

122 *2.1 Husbandry and Diet Manipulation*

123 Before commencing the diet manipulation, all cages were provided with *ad libitum*
124 food (a commercial seed mix, lettuce, apple and hard-boiled egg) for 7 days. Since we were
125 interested in determining costs of dominance and infection under different environmental
126 conditions, we divided the flocks between two different feeding regimes. Following the 7
127 days of acclimation, the birds were provided with either *ad libitum* food or reduced food. *Ad*
128 *lib* diet consisted of 3 large round feeding dishes, each full of seeds. The feeders were
129 deliberately interspersed throughout the cage with large gaps between to reduce contact
130 between birds while feeding, and to allow several birds to feed at once. Reduced diet
131 consisted of just one dish per cage, with 12g of seeds per bird per day. We had previously
132 found that 12g of seeds is the maximum amount a single bird would eat per day (Larcombe et
133 al. in press). This amount of seed was thus sufficient to nourish each bird, though allowed
134 competition between birds (pers. obs). During the course of the experiment, the cages were
135 monitored daily, and if a bird died the amount of seed was reduced accordingly in reduced
136 food flocks.

137 *2.2 Behavioural observation*

138 We performed behavioural observations to assess the social status and dominance
139 related behaviours of each the birds in each flock. The procedure was similar to that outlined
140 in Larcombe et al. (in press), but with some modifications. The first phase of observations
141 was carried out 3 days before the start of the experimental diets, when all birds received an
142 identical diet. The second phase of observations took place 11 days after being placed in their
143 flocks. We performed behavioural observations for 3 consecutive days in both phases. Each
144 morning at 09.00 we removed the remaining seed from the day before, and left cages for 30
145 minutes without seeds. Following the 30-minute food deprivation, we placed a seed feeder in
146 each cage that allowed only a single bird to feed at a time. We also placed a video camera in
147 each cage and filmed the interactions between birds at the feeder for 20 minutes, starting
148 when the feeder was first entered. Birds were marked with non-toxic coloured pen on the back
149 of the head or wings for identification on the video tapes.

150 In order to score the bird's behaviour, when the video was re-watched the 20 minute
151 time period was divided into 10 two minute blocks. Birds were scored for the frequency of
152 certain behaviours in each block: Primary Access (PA) to the feeder, where a bird
153 successfully fed directly from the hole in the feeder. Secondary Access (SA), when a bird was
154 motivated to feed, and appeared at the feeder, either attempting to feed, or pecking at
155 discarded seeds, but did not achieve Primary Access. Antagonistic encounters (ANT), where
156 a bird aggressively postured towards another, typically by lowering its head and fanning and
157 trembling its wings, or by pecking out at the other bird, sometimes escalating into a physical
158 fight, or when a bird received these physical cues from another individual. We previously
159 found that these behaviours are repeatable across days for canaries (Larcombe et al., in press).
160 We summed the counts of PA, SA and ANT in pre-experiment trials, and again for the

161 observations taken during the experimental phase in order to analyse the change in behaviour
162 following the experimental procedures.

163 In this experiment we were interested in associating costs of infection and competition
164 with differences in social behaviour. Rather than categorizing birds based on an assumption of
165 linear hierarchies in each cage, here we scored birds as dominant or subordinate depending on
166 the ratio of primary to secondary access to the feeder. Both these scores indicate a motivation
167 to feed and so comparing the occasions spent as the primary bird, to a secondary bird (waiting
168 near the feeder), offers a good approximation of the relative dominance status. We calculated
169 this dominance ratio based on data from the second phase of observations as (PA day 9 + PA
170 day 10 + PA day 11 +1) / (SA day 9 + SA day 10 + SA day 11 +1). Where the ratio was ≥ 1 a
171 bird was categorized as dominant, where it was < 1 the bird was classified as subordinate. We
172 did not use the data from the first phase of observations, since at that time the seed diet was
173 augmented with other food items (see above), and overall the birds were less motivated to
174 feed. However, it is important to note that even allowing for this, the dominance ratio pre
175 experiment (phase 1) was significantly positively correlated with the dominance ratio during
176 the experiment (phase 2) (spearman's $\rho = 0.787$, $p < 0.0001$).

177 *2.3 Experimental Infection*

178 We used the avian malaria parasite *Plasmodium relictum* (lineage SGS1) originally obtained
179 from a natural population of house sparrows, and cross-transferred to naive canaries. Infected
180 blood was cryopreserved and stored at -80°C (see details in Bichet et al., 2012). For the
181 purpose of the present experiment, cryopreserved blood was thawed (Bichet et al., 2012) and
182 transferred intraperitoneally to 5 domestic canaries. Eleven days post-infection (dpi),
183 parasitaemia was evaluated from thin blood smears (absolute methanol fixation, 10% Giemsa
184 staining, observation of 10,000 erythrocytes). Blood was collected from donors to prepare a

185 stock suspension diluted in PBS containing the desired number of parasites per inoculum
186 (5×10^5 asexual parasites) that served to infect birds.

187 On the day of infection, we captured all birds within a flock. Each bird was weighed,
188 and a small volume of blood was taken in a capillary tube for subsequent haematocrit
189 assessment. Finally, the bird was either injected with *Plasmodium*-infected canary blood, or
190 with control non-infected canary blood. Infected and non-infected flocks were distributed
191 randomly throughout the aviary.

192

193 *2.4 Post-infection monitoring*

194 Following the experimental infection (day 0), birds were left in their flocks, and were
195 monitored at regular intervals. We re-caught all birds on days 5, 9, 12, 15 and 19 post-
196 infection. On each of these sampling days, we took a small blood sample for haematocrit
197 measurement and qPCR, and weighed each bird. The measurement of haematocrit can be
198 directly representative of damage caused by malarial parasites in canaries (Spencer et al.,
199 2005, Cellier-Holzem et al., 2010).

200 *2.5 Assessing parasite intensity*

201 Parasite intensity was assessed using the quantitative PCR assay (Cellier-Holzem et al.
202 2010). For each individual we conducted two qPCR reactions in the same run: one targeting
203 the nuclear 18s rDNA gene of *Plasmodium* (Primers 18sPlasm7 (5'-AGC CTG AGA AAT
204 AGC TAC CAC ATC TA-3'), 18sPlasm8 (5'-TGT TAT TTC TTG TCA CTA CCT CTC
205 TTC TTT-3'), and fluorescent probe Plasm Hyb2 (5'-6FAM-CAG CAG GCG CGT AAA
206 TTA CCC AAT TC-BHQ1-3')) and the other targeting the 18s rDNA gene of bird (Primers

207 18sAv7 (5'-GAA ACT CGC AAT GGC TCA TTA AAT C-3'), 18sAv8 (5'-TAT TAG CTC
208 TAG AAT TAC CAC AGT TAT CCA-3') and fluorescent probe 18sAv Hyb (5'-VIC-TAT
209 GGT TCC TTT GGT CGC TC-BHQ1-3')).

210 Parasite intensities were calculated as relative quantification values (RQ) as $2^{-(Ct_{18s}$
211 $Plasmodium - Ct_{18s Bird})$ using the software SDS 2.2 (Applied Biosystem). Ct represents the number
212 of PCR cycles at which fluorescence is first detected as statistically significant above the
213 baseline and RQ can be interpreted as the fold-amount of target gene (*Plasmodium* 18s
214 rDNA) with respect to the amount of the reference gene (host 18s rDNA). All qPCR reactions
215 were carried out in an ABI Prism 7900 cycler (Applied Biosystem).

216 2.6 Statistical analyses

217 For body mass, haematocrit, and parasitaemia we constructed an identical GLMM
218 using SAS (9.1.3). This approach allows for missing values caused by mortality and/or
219 sampling problems. RQ values of parasitaemia were log-transformed before analysis, and
220 thereafter body mass, haematocrit and parasitaemia were modelled with a normal distribution.
221 The models were fully factorial and included fixed factors dominance status
222 (dominant/subordinate), infection (infected/non-infected) and diet (reduced/*ad lib*), in
223 addition to time and time² as continuous fixed effects to examine mean changes over time. We
224 also included all possible two and three way interactions between these terms. The interaction
225 among diet, dominance and infection were designed to test our predictions that differences in
226 virulence between dominant and subordinate birds would depend on food availability. For
227 parasitaemia infection and its interactions were removed from the model, since only infected
228 birds have parasites. Additionally we had three random factors in each model. Bird identity
229 nested within cage (bird(cage)) was added, as this allows the model to control for non-
230 independence of birds housed in the same cage over the course of the experiment, and

231 permitted the variance between birds to be estimated. We added cage as a random factor to
232 estimate the variance between cages. We also used time as a random factor with bird(cage) as
233 a subject, using an autoregressive type 1 covariance matrix to estimate within-individual
234 variation, controlling for correlations between observations taken closer together in time.
235 Baseline measures prior to the experiment were included for models of haematocrit and body
236 mass. For our models explaining parasitaemia we did not have a baseline, since parasitaemia
237 is always zero pre-infection. We also analyzed mortality using a simpler model. We tested the
238 probability of mortality using a binary distribution, with infection, dominance, prevalence,
239 and their interactions as fixed factors, and including cage as a random factor to control for the
240 non-independence of birds grouped together. This model did not assess time, since very few
241 birds died during the experiment. To analyze the change in behaviour for the birds, we used
242 the summed frequency of each behaviour during pre-experiment and mid-experiment trials. A
243 model was constructed that included diet, infection and time (pre- or mid-experiment) as fixed
244 factors, and cage and bird(cage) as random factors to account for non-independence of data
245 from the same birds housed in the same cages as before. Dominance was not included in these
246 models as this behavioural data was used to classify subordinate and dominant birds to begin
247 with. These counts were analyzed with a Poisson distribution. Non-significant terms were
248 dropped from the models starting with higher-order interactions, until only significant terms
249 remained. Throughout the results relevant statistics are reported from the final model, though
250 statistics for non-significant terms of interest are reported from the point they were dropped
251 from models. Degrees of freedom were corrected using the satterthwaite method.

252 *2.7 Ethical note*

253 This experiment was carried out in 2009 under the permit # 21-CAE-085 approved by
254 departmental veterinary services.

255 **3. Results**

256 There were no significant differences in mass (means: dominants =23.49 +/- 0.54,
257 subordinates = 25.05 +/- 0.89, F=2.19, p =0.15) or haematocrit (means: dominants =0.427 +/-
258 0.009, subordinates = 0.444 +/- 0.015, F=0.93, p =0.34) prior to the experiment.

259 Food availability had no effect on change in haematocrit (Table 1). There was a significant
260 impact of infection on haematocrit: plotting changes in haematocrit (Figure 1) shows that
261 haematocrit reduced sooner, and the reduction was more sustained, in infected than in non-
262 infected birds. The reduction in haematocrit in non-infected birds probably reflects anaemia
263 caused by our experimental procedures i.e. repeated capturing, handling and regular blood
264 sampling. Overall, dominant birds also had a greater reduction in haematocrit than
265 subordinates during the experiment, and this reduction was sustained for longer. Dominant
266 birds reached peak anaemia on day 15 compared to day 12 in subordinates, and by day 18
267 dominant birds had not recovered in terms of haematocrit (Table 1, Figure 2)

268 We found a marginally non-significant interaction between dominance and time² on
269 parasitaemia (Table 2), and again, diet had no effect. As for haematocrit, our data show that
270 dominant birds had a greater peak in parasitaemia than subordinate birds, though the birds
271 appeared to recover (Figure 3).

272 We found a significant interaction between dominance status, infection and time on post-
273 treatment body mass (Table 3). This difference appears to be driven by differences in non-
274 infected birds, where non infected dominant birds suffered a great loss of body mass
275 throughout the experiment than non-infected subordinates (Figure 4). Surprisingly, we found
276 no evidence that our food availability manipulation had a significant effect on body mass.

277 We found no evidence that mortality was affected by either dominant status ($p>0.9$), infection
278 ($p=0.14$) or diet ($p=0.12$).

279 In order to assess the success of our food-availability treatments on competition, we tested for
280 changes in two measures of behaviour. Total frequency of feeding behaviour was analyzed to
281 test for differences in motivation to feed. This included both primary and secondary feeding,
282 to assess the overall motivation to feed for every bird. Total frequency of antagonistic
283 encounters (each time a bird was aggressive towards another bird, or encountered aggression
284 from another bird) was analyzed to test for differences in competition. We found a significant
285 effect of food-availability on the change in feeding (time*diet $F_{1, 112} = 5.1$, $p=0.026$). There
286 was no effect of either infection or its interactions ($p > 0.2$ in all cases). All birds were more
287 motivated to feed during the experiment than in pre-experimental trials, but birds fed an *ad lib*
288 diet were less motivated to feed during the experiment than birds receiving a reduced diet
289 (Figure 5). We also found a significant interaction between infection and food-availability on
290 antagonistic encounters (time*infection*diet $F_{1, 108} = 5.1$, $p=0.02$). The results were broadly
291 similar to those for feeding behaviour: all birds were involved in more antagonistic
292 encounters during the experiment than before, but during the experiment birds receiving the
293 reduced diet were involved in more antagonistic encounters than those receiving an *ad lib* diet
294 (Figure 6). These results strongly indicate that our dietary treatments were successful in
295 modifying competition in the cages. The effect of infection is less clear, and appears to be
296 driven by the low frequency of antagonistic encounters in pre-manipulation non-infected
297 birds receiving the *ad lib* diet.

298

299

300 **4. Discussion**

301 Our aim in this experiment was to assess whether differences between subordinate and
302 dominant canaries in the virulence of avian malaria infection were dependent on host food
303 availability. We found that dominant birds had higher apparent costs of infection; however,
304 we found no evidence that this was altered by the food treatment the birds received. This is a
305 surprising result which we discuss in terms of host behaviour and physiology.

306 Firstly, we found an effect of dominance on the change in both haematocrit and
307 parasitaemia. Dominant birds had a significantly greater decrease in haematocrit than
308 subordinate birds. There was also a trend for dominant birds to have a sharper (and more
309 variable) increase in parasitaemia than subordinate birds. These results are broadly similar to
310 a previous experiment (Larcombe et al., in press), and our initial prediction that dominant
311 birds would show greater post-infection morbidity and mortality than subordinates in
312 reduced-food groups. However, we expected that this difference between social groups would
313 be ameliorated in *ad libitum* groups, where the costs of protecting or monopolising a scarce
314 food resource would not exist. In fact, there was no effect of food availability on either
315 haematocrit or parasitaemia.

316 In this study, the loss of haematocrit we observed in dominant birds was apparent in
317 both infected and non-infected birds. Haematocrit readings can be used as an effective
318 measure of the destruction of red blood cells by malaria parasites in canaries (Cellier-Holzem
319 et al., 2010; Spencer et al., 2005), though is subject to modification by many other factors in
320 birds (reviewed in Fair et al., 2007). Fasting and nutritional deficiencies can sometimes result
321 in decrease in haematocrit in birds (e.g. Merino and Potti, 1998; Piersma et al., 2000),
322 however, if this were responsible for the patterns we observed, we would expect that
323 increased food availability would prevent reduction in haematocrit, or reduction in

324 haematocrit would be associated with a concomitant decrease in body mass. We found that
325 non-infected dominant birds suffered a greater reduction in body mass than non-infected
326 dominants (though no difference between infected dominants and subordinates). Why then do
327 dominant birds fare worse than we expected, even when non-infected and provided with *ad*
328 *lib* food? We are confident that our food-availability treatments had the desired effect on
329 competition: we found that diet significantly impacted both the propensity to feed, and the
330 number of aggressive encounters (indicative of overall competition) between birds. Birds
331 receiving the restricted diet were involved in significantly more antagonistic encounters, and
332 were more motivated to feed during the experiment, than those receiving an *ad lib* diet.
333 Perhaps, rather than competition, fundamental differences in physiology between dominants
334 and subordinates determine the outcome of infection. It has been noted elsewhere that
335 subordinate birds in captivity cannot escape their dominant competitors, leading to
336 unnaturally increased stress levels (Katschal et al., 1998). Our feeding treatments were
337 designed to ameliorate the competition associated with having a shared food resource: in *ad*
338 *lib* cages there were three feeders full of seeds, arranged such that they could not be
339 monopolised. Despite this, it is possible that dominant birds were still motivated to exclude
340 other birds from the feeding territory, as they might in the wild, even though they were unable
341 to achieve this. Chronic elevation of hormones associated with this unnatural conflict
342 (Goymann and Wingfield, 2004) may explain why dominant birds generally decreased
343 haematocrit compared to subordinates, or why non-infected dominants suffered greater loss in
344 body mass than non-infected subordinates. Nonetheless, our results for haematocrit and
345 parasitaemia show that the ability of hosts to monopolise food resources may be associated
346 with higher parasite virulence.

347 In this experiment, our predictions were based on the simple premise that increased
348 food availability would ameliorate the energetic costs of infection and competition. However,

349 interactions between diet and malaria virulence may be more complicated than initially
350 expected. Indeed, the assumption that generally better nutritional state in hosts will benefit
351 resistance to parasites is far from clear cut. In humans, for example, evidence that Protein
352 Energy Malnutrition (PEM) can actually result in *decreased* malaria virulence is widespread,
353 though disputed (reviewed in Shankar, 2000). Additionally, there are some pathogens for
354 which an over-reacting immune system is responsible for greater post-infection damage than
355 direct parasite exploitation (Sorci and Faivre, 2009; Long and Graham, 2011), and these
356 circumstances may favour malnourished individuals, with weaker immune responses. Despite
357 this, we found no evidence that our reduced diet actually helped reduce malaria virulence.

358 A further consideration is that in this experiment we only modified one dimension of
359 food availability: the quantity of seed available. Perhaps, the quality of food available, rather
360 than simply the quantity, is more important in determining the outcome of parasitism. Key
361 nutrients in the diet such as antioxidant vitamins, minerals and carotenoids can alter immune
362 function, and several studies have shown that dietary availability of these nutrients can have
363 immunomodulatory effects (Bendich, 2001; McGraw and Ardia, 2003; Cha et al., 2010).
364 Indeed, a recent study showed that canaries fed a diet supplemented with egg, lettuce and
365 apples had markedly different responses to *Plasmodium relictum* infection than birds fed a
366 control diet (Cornet et al., in press). However, although parasites achieved larger population
367 sizes and produced more sexual stages in control host than in supplemented hosts, for a given
368 parasitaemia supplemented birds had lower haematocrit than control birds. This shows that
369 the links between food availability, competition, nutrition and immunity are likely to be
370 complex and multifaceted.

371 In this study we set out to investigate whether the virulence of malaria infection in canaries
372 was modified by social status and/or food availability. As expected, we showed that dominant

373 birds appeared to suffer greater infection-mediated morbidity in reduced food flocks,
374 however, contrary to our expectations this difference was not ameliorated by diet. Indeed, we
375 found little evidence that greater food availability had any effect on traits specifically related
376 to parasite virulence, despite finding that competition was increased by reducing the seed
377 available. Our results show that dominance status in birds can certainly alter parasite
378 virulence, though differences between individual hosts are likely to be multifaceted. Further
379 experiments are required to disentangle the different effects of environment, host behaviour
380 and physiology on the costs of parasitic infection.

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382

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385

386

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464 **Figure Legends**

465 Figure 1: Haematocrit change during experiment for infected and non-infected birds. The
466 graph shows reduction in haematocrit value from pre-experiment haematocrit for each
467 sampling point during the experiment (higher values represent more anaemic birds).

468 Figure 2: Haematocrit change during the experiment in dominant and subordinate birds. Data
469 plotted shows reduction in haematocrit value from pre-experiment haematocrit for each
470 sampling point during the experiment (higher values represent more anaemic birds).

471 Figure 3: Change in parasite intensity for infected birds. The legend describes the dominance
472 status of individuals

473 Figure 4: Reduction in body mass for birds during the experiment. The legend describes the
474 dominance status and infection status of individuals

475 Figure 5: Frequency of feeding behaviours in birds receiving an *ad libitum* or reduced diet,
476 prior to- or during the experiment

477 Figure 6: Frequency of antagonistic encounters in birds receiving an *ad libitum* or reduced
478 diet, prior to- or during the experiment

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