



# Differences in morphology and colour pattern of shiny cowbird (*Molothrus bonariensis*) eggs found in nests of two hosts

## M. ALICIA DE LA COLINA\*, BETTINA MAHLER and JUAN CARLOS REBOREDA

Departamento de Ecología, Genética y Evolución, Facultad de Ciencias Exactas y Naturales, Universidad de Buenos Aires, Pabellón II Ciudad Universitaria, C1428EGA Buenos Aires, Argentina

Received 11 July 2010; revised 4 November 2010; accepted for publication 5 November 2010

Genetic differentiation among shiny cowbird (*Molothrus bonariensis*) females that use different hosts indicates that in this brood parasite, host use is not random at an individual level. We tested whether there exist differences in morphology and coloration between eggs of shiny cowbirds laid in the nests of two different hosts, the chalk-browed mockingbird (*Mimus saturninus*) and the house wren (*Troglodytes aedon*). We took morphometric measures of shiny cowbird eggs found in nests of mockingbirds and wrens and analysed their coloration using digital photography and reflectance spectrometry. We found that shiny cowbird eggs found in mockingbird nests were wider and more asymmetric than those found in wren nests. In addition, cowbird eggs coming from mockingbird nests were brighter and had higher relative red reflectance than those coming from wren nests. Our results show that shiny cowbird eggs laid in nests of two different hosts vary in shape and background colour, but not in spotting pattern. © 2011 The Linnean Society of London, *Biological Journal of the Linnean Society*, 2011, **102**, 838–845.

ADDITIONAL KEYWORDS: brood parasitism - egg morphology - eggshell spotting.

## INTRODUCTION

Avian obligate brood parasites are completely dependent on other species, the hosts, to raise their offspring. The co-evolutionary arms race between parasites and hosts may favour the evolution of host parasitic defences such as egg or chick discrimination that may in turn be counterbalanced by the parasites (Davies & Brooke, 1989; Davies, Bourke & Brooke, 1989; Rothstein, 1990; Rothstein & Robinson, 1998; Davies, 2000). In the common cuckoo *Cuculus canorus*, a host-generalist brood parasite, this co-evolutionary process has led to female lineages becoming host specialists and evolving mimetic eggs that resemble those of particular hosts (Brooke & Davies, 1988; Moksnes & Røskaft, 1995; Gibbs *et al.*, 2000; Avilés, 2008; Stoddard & Stevens, 2010). In this

\*Corresponding author. E-mail: madelacolina@ege.fcen.uba.ar way, individual common cuckoos minimize egg losses as a result of rejection in its many different host species.

Most brood parasitic cowbirds (*Molothrus spp.*) have eggs of polymorphic coloration (Ortega, 1998). Among them, the shiny cowbird (*Molothrus bonariensis*), a highly generalist brood parasite that uses more than 240 species as hosts (Friedmann & Kiff, 1985; Ortega, 1998; Lowther & Post, 1999), shows eggs with extreme variation in their colour pattern, not only in background colour, but also in spotting density (Fig. 1). Background colours can be pure white, light bluish, greenish white, light cream, dark cream or light brown, while spotting varies from absent to very intense (Hudson, 1874; Friedmann, 1929; Ortega, 1998).

Although polymorphism is very high in shiny cowbirds, egg coloration is considered to be constant for each female (Lyon, 1997). A constant intra-individual eggshell coloration pattern has been found for several bird species (Dufty, 1983; Fleischer, 1985; Collias,



**Figure 1.** Photograph illustrating shiny cowbird egg variation in chalk-browed mockingbirds (A–B) and house wrens (C–D).

1993; Moksnes et al., 2008) and it has been shown that it is genetically determined (Punnett & Bailey, 1920; Punnett, 1933; Joseph et al., 1999; Gosler, Barnett & Reynolds, 2000; Morales et al., 2010), although environmental factors also seem to play a role in pigment deposition (Avilés et al., 2007). Previous studies have found diverse evidence of genetic control of egg coloration in birds. Collias (1993) found that the inheritance of the background colour in eggs of village weavers (Ploceus cucultatus) is consistent with a model of two autosomal loci, and Hutt (1949) also found autosomal inheritance of egg colour in the domestic chicken (Gallus domesticus). In contrast, Gosler and collaborators (2000) found that the spotting pattern of eggs laid by the Great Tit (Parus major) is consistent with maternal inheritance, although this mechanism of spotting inheritance was not supported by a study in shiny cowbirds (Mahler et al., 2008).

Individual egg colour constancy and heritability of egg coloration, as well as polymorphism at species level, set the grounds for natural selection to act on this trait. Although the shiny cowbird is a host generalist at species level, several studies indicate that individual females do not select nests to lay their eggs randomly, but preferentially parasitize those of only some of the available hosts (Post & Wiley, 1977; Cruz, Manolis & Andrews, 1995; López-Ortiz et al., 2006; De Mársico et al., 2010). In addition, there is genetic differentiation in a mitochondrial molecular marker between shiny cowbird females that parasitize the chalk-browed mockingbird, Mimus saturninus (hereafter mockingbird) and the house wren, Troglodytes aedon (hereafter wren) (Mahler et al., 2007), suggesting non-random host use by females. If egg colour has a genetic basis and there are female lines that parasitize different host species, then genetic drift or a founder effect can lead to colour differentiation between parasite eggs laid in nests of different hosts. addition, if selection pressures on para-In site egg phenotypes among hosts vary, for example because of differences in egg-rejection behaviour (i.e. chalk-browed mockingbirds were reported to reject white immaculate eggs while house wrens accept parasitic eggs of different morphs; Fraga, 1985; Mason, 1986a; Sackmann & Reboreda, 2003; Tuero, Fiorini & Reboreda, 2007), this can lead to egg colour differentiation. Host-parasite co-evolution can also result in egg differentiation in morphology (Antonov et al., 2010) and eggshell strength (Spottiswood, 2010) among host-specific parasite lineages.

The aim of this study was to determine whether there exist differences in egg morphology and coloration between eggs of shiny cowbirds laid in nests of mockingbirds and wrens in a parasite's population where females that use both hosts differ genetically. If divergent evolution occurred in egg colour and/or morphology between both lineages, and these traits were maternally inherited, we expect to find differences between eggs found in nests of both hosts (i.e. laid by females of different host lineages). We do not expect to find differences in the absence of evolutionary forces acting on these traits or in cases of autosomal inheritance or environmental determination of them.

### MATERIAL AND METHODS Egg samples

The study site was located in Reserve 'El Destino', near the town of Magdalena (35°8'S, 57°23'W), Buenos Aires Province, Argentina. During the breeding season (October-January) 2006-2007 we collected data from shiny cowbird eggs found in nests of mockingbirds and wrens. Both species are highly parasitized in this area, showing parasitism frequencies of 66% (mockingbirds, Fiorini & Reboreda, 2006) and 60% (wrens, Tuero et al., 2007) and numerous multiple parasitism events. Mockingbirds build open nests on shrubs or trees with dense foliage at a height of 1.5–2.5 m. The nest is a large open cup of twigs (outer diameter 20-25 cm) lined with fibres and horsehair. Their eggs are  $28.6 \pm 0.3$  mm in length and  $20.4 \pm 0.2$  mm in width (Fiorini & Reboreda, 2006). Wrens use nest boxes placed in the study area within mockingbird territories, at a height of 1.5-1.8 m, with dimensions of  $25 \times 17 \times 13$  cm (height  $\times$  width  $\times$ depth) and an entrance hole of 4.5 cm in diameter. They build a cup of twigs lined with feathers and horsehair inside the box. Their eggs are  $17.5 \pm 0.08$  mm in length and  $13.1 \pm 0.4$  mm in width

(Tuero *et al.*, 2007). Both hosts are insectivorous and overlap their breeding seasons from early October to mid-January. Mockingbirds show very aggressive behaviours against cowbird females that approach their nests (Sackmann & Reboreda, 2003), while wrens do not show any agonistic behaviour (Fiorini, 2007).

#### DATA COLLECTION

In total, we collected 86 and 20 shiny cowbird spotted eggs from mockingbird and wren nests, respectively. We did not include shiny cowbird white immaculate eggs because our aim was to evaluate if there exist differences in background coloration and spotting between parasitic eggs laid in nests of both hosts. White immaculate eggs do not differ and are laid at low frequencies in both hosts (M. A. de la Colina, unpubl. data). Each egg was photographed at the nest using a Nikon Coolpix 4500 digital camera. To standardize and optimize the lighting conditions and position of the eggs, we built a transportable black acrylic box of  $10 \times 10 \times 20$  cm (width  $\times$  depth  $\times$  height) with a ring of seven light-emitting diodes (LEDs) located on the inside of the top cap. We opted for using LEDs because of their ability to deliver virtually monochromatic light (450 nm), with a very narrow spectrum of reflectance, thus minimizing variations in the source of illumination. We took three photographs per egg: pointed end, blunt end and lateral axis. All photographs in this study were taken with the 'fine' quality setting, which has a minimal compression and very small quality loss [it creates an 870 Kb  $(2272 \times 1704)$ pixels) JPEG file per photo]. We consider that it is unlikely that the storage format used prevented detection of differences between eggs (Stevens et al., 2007).

We studied the following aspects of the eggs: (1)morphometry; (2) coloration; and (3) spotting pattern. We used the software IMAGEJ (Rasband, 1997–2006) to measure length (L) and maximum width (w) of the egg on each photograph. Measures were scaled relative to the ones taken from the egg with a calliper to the nearest 0.1 mm. Calibration error between pixels and centimetres was less than 0.1 mm. These values were used to calculate the egg's degree of asymmetry  $D = (R_b - R_p) \times (L/w^2)$  (Preston, 1968), were  $R_b$  is the radius of curvature at the blunt end and  $R_p$  at the pointed end. We measured colour as the maximum pixel frequency corresponding to each of the primary colour channels (RGB). This measurement was conducted separately on the background and on the spots. To study spotting, we measured three variables within a  $6 \times 6$  mm square: number of spots, total area covered by spots and average spot size. Colour and spotting measures were taken for the three egg regions (pointed end, blunt end and lateral axis).

We also measured colour using reflectance spectrometry. We performed this analysis on shiny cowbird eggshells that had been stored in obscurity at -20 °C for not more than 3 years in the laboratory (11 found in mockingbird nests and 10 in wren nests). We assumed that there was no significant effect of time of collection on reflectance spectra given the close period of collection and the storage method (Soler et al., 2005; Cassey et al., 2010). We measured eggshell reflectance using an Ocean Optics 2000 Spectrometer (Ocean Optics, Inc., Dunedin, FL, USA) with a PX-2 pulsed xenon light source (220-750 nm). Measurements were taken at a 90° angle from a 6-mm diameter area. Reflectance was recorded each 0.35 nm within the avian visible spectrum from 340 to 700 nm using OOIBASE32 software and expressed relative to a white reflection standard of barium sulphate, following Osorio & Ham (2002). We performed three measurements on each egg and took median reflectance values for 3-nm bins. Reflectance values below 340 nm were excluded because of considerable noise at these wavelengths. For each egg, we calculated the average reflectance.

To analyse if parasite eggs tend to mimic host eggs, we also measured coloration on eight mockingbird and 15 wren eggs using the same photographic and spectrophotometric procedure. Host eggs were collected from nests where we collected parasite eggs. We took one egg of each host pair's clutch, thus ensuring that analysed eggs belonged to different females.

#### STATISTICAL ANALYSIS

We used Mann-Whitney tests to compare morphometric and colour variables between cowbird eggs found in nests of both hosts, as well as between cowbird and host eggs. We performed a principal component analysis (PCA) on background and spot colour summarizing RGB values. We also performed a PCA on the average reflectance values of the eggs (19 reflectance values, taken every 20 nm), obtaining two principal components. The first principal component (PC1) describes variation in brightness (Endler, 1990; Bennett et al., 1997), while the second principal component (PC2) describes variation in spectral shape (Endler, 1990; Endler & Théry, 1996; Cuthill et al., 1999). Reflectance spectra are affected by both spot and background colour, as well as by the percentage of the surface covered by spots. Thus, PC values should not be considered only as background colour, but rather as variables indirectly representing general colour (Martínez-de la Puente et al., 2007). We used one-way ANOVA to compare reflectance of cowbird eggs from different host nests and cowbird and host eggs. We used STATISTICA ver. 6.0 software (StatSoft, 2001) to perform all statistical analyses.



**Figure 2.** PC1 values summarizing red, blue and green channels for (A) background colour and (B) spot colour of shiny cowbird eggs found in nests of chalk-browed mockingbirds (CBM) and house wrens (HW). The central squares, the large boxes and the bars represent the mean, standard error and standard deviation, respectively. Asterisks represent significant differences (\*\*\*P < 0.001).

#### RESULTS

Shiny cowbird eggs found in nests of mockingbirds were wider (mean ± SE:  $1.90 \pm 0.01$  cm) than those found in nests of wrens ( $1.8 \pm 0.01$  cm, Z = -3.05, P = 0.002) and also showed increased asymmetry (mockingbirds:  $0.061 \pm 0.004$ ; wrens =  $0.045 \pm 0.006$ , Z = -2.66, P = 0.007). Egg length did not differ between hosts (mockingbirds:  $2.43 \pm 0.01$  cm, wrens  $2.40 \pm 0.02$  cm, Z = -1.12, P = 0.26).

Variation in RGB channels was summarized in one component (PC1) that explained 80% of the variation for background colour (eigenvalue = 2.41) and 94% for spot colour (eigenvalue = 2.82), respectively. In both cases, the loadings of the three variables (red, green and blue) were negative and greater than 0.85. Cowbird eggs from both hosts differed significantly in background colour (Fig. 2A; Z = 4.42, P < 0.001), but not in spot colour (Fig. 2B; Z = 1.34, P = 0.18). There were no significant differences in spotting pattern between cowbird eggs from nests of both hosts in any of the studied variables and for any of the three egg regions (P > 0.2 for all comparisons).

We found significant differences in reflectance spectra of cowbird eggs found in nests of mockingbirds and wrens, both in brightness and spectral shape (Fig. 3). PC1 (brightness) explained 88% of the variation (eigenvalue = 16.68) and was negatively associated with all wavelengths, whereas PC2 explained 8% of the variation (eigenvalue = 1.60) and was negatively associated with wavelengths between 650 and 700 nm, thus explaining the red colour component. Cowbird eggs found in mockingbird nests were significantly brighter (Fig. 4A;  $F_{1,19}$  = 15.7, P < 0.001) and more reddish (Fig. 4B;  $F_{1,19}$  = 4.18, P = 0.05) than those found in wren nests.

Differences between cowbird eggs found in both hosts were not associated with mimetism to each



**Figure 3.** Average reflectance spectra of shiny cowbird eggs found in nests of chalk-browed mockingbirds (fine dotted line) and house wrens (continuous line); and hosts' eggs: chalk-browed mockingbird (long dashes) and house wren (short dashes).

particular host's eggs. We found significant differences for most colour variables between cowbird eggs and those of the host in which nest they were found (Fig. 3; Table 1).

#### DISCUSSION

Our results show that shiny cowbird eggs found in mockingbird nests were wider and more asymmetric than those found in wren nests. Besides, cowbird eggs coming from mockingbird nests were brighter and had higher relative red reflectance than those coming from wren nests.

Egg size and shape differences have also been found among common cuckoos' host-specific lineages (Antonov *et al.*, 2010). This differentiation might have been driven by host discrimination of poorly



**Figure 4.** PC1 and PC2 values summarizing reflectance spectra of shiny cowbird eggs found in nests of chalk-browed mockingbirds (CBM) and house wrens (HW). The central squares, the large boxes and the bars represent the mean, standard error and standard deviation, respectively. Asterisks represent significant differences (\*P = 0.05; \*\*\*P < 0.001).

**Table 1.** Colour differences between cowbird eggs found in the nests of a host species and the host's eggs

	Chalk-browed mockingbird	House wren
RGB background	Z = 4.55	Z = 2.36
colour	P < 0.001	P = 0.02
RGB spot colour	Z = -2.11 P = 0.03	Z = -3.77 P < 0.001
Reflectance spectra	$F_{1,17} = 4.16$	$F_{1,23} = 1.28$
PC1 (brightness)	P = 0.05	P = 0.27
Reflectance spectra	$F_{1,17} = 2.11$	$F_{1,23} = 12.6$
PC2 (spectral shape)	P = 0.16	P < 0.01

Mann–Whitney Z-values and P-values are shown in the first two rows and one-way ANOVA F-values and P-values in the last two.

PC, principal component; RGB, red, green and blue.

size-mimetic eggs. For the shiny cowbird, it has been suggested that the rejection behaviour of the rufus ovenbird (*Furnarius rufus*) selected for an increase in egg size in parts of its distribution (Mason & Rothstein, 1986). However, none of the two studied hosts rejects parasitic eggs by size (Sackmann & Reboreda, 2003; Tuero *et al.*, 2007), suggesting that egg size differences between shiny cowbird females parasitizing mockingbirds and wrens are unlikely to arise from differences in selection pressures between hosts.

Differences in egg size might appear as a consequence of the variation in the extent of competition for food with nest mates that shiny cowbird chicks face in both hosts (Fiorini, Tuero & Reboreda, 2009). As egg size is positively associated with body mass at hatching (Blomqvist, Johansson & Götmark, 1997) and this, in turn, with the ability to compete for food with nest mates, selective pressures for increasing egg size would be expected in larger hosts where competition for food is more intense, as was found for mockingbirds (Fiorini *et al.*, 2009, D. Tuero, pers. comm.).

Differences in egg size might also have arisen as a result of host nest characteristics. As the holes of natural cavities where wrens nest are mostly very small, this could have impeded the entrance of large shiny cowbirds when this host lineage arose. Considering the allometric relationship of egg size with body size (Brooke & Birkhead, 1991; but see Christians, 2002), smaller eggs should be found in house wren nests. Asymmetry of eggs is correlated with clutch size-dependent incubation efficiency (Andersson, 1978; Barta & Székely, 1997). Although both hosts vary in clutch size, the final number of eggs in the nest is highly variable because of egg puncture and multiple parasitism by shiny cowbirds. Therefore, it seems unlikely that incubation efficiency is originating the difference in asymmetry between shiny cowbird eggs found in the nests of these hosts.

Differences in eggshell background coloration, however, might be related to hosts' rejection behaviour. Whereas mockingbirds were reported to reject white immaculate non-mimetic parasitic eggs (Fraga, 1985; Sackmann & Reboreda, 2003), house wrens accept all egg morphs (Mason, 1986a; Kattan, 1997; Tuero et al., 2007). The differently coloured eggs found in nests of both hosts could arise from the rejection of particular morphs by mockingbirds, leaving only eggs of some of the colour patterns in the nests. Alternatively, mockingbird's rejection behaviour might be a selective factor driving egg colour to a mockingbird-mimetic egg morph in shiny cowbirds that lay in those nests. But there is evidence showing that mockingbirds only reject shiny cowbirds' white immaculate eggs, accepting all different spotted morphs. Moreover, they accept plaster eggs and other dissimilar eggs, such as those of the screaming cowbird (*M. rufoaxillaris*; Mason, 1986a; De Mársico & Reboreda, 2008). Besides, in this study, we also failed to find mimicry between shiny cowbird and mockingbird eggs, which suggests that differences in egg colour are more likely explained by divergent evolution of egg colour in both female lineages, not driven by selective pressures of the host but by a founder effect and/or genetic drift. A recent study has shown that population bottlenecks can lead to significant variation in egg morphology causing a differentiation with the source population (Congdon & Briskie, 2010).

We discovered no differences in spotting pattern between shiny cowbird eggs found in both hosts. If spotting was maternally inherited, as suggested by Gosler et al. (2000), and divergent evolution on this trait is occurring between females that use different hosts, we expected to find differences in spotting. The absence of differentiation might be a consequence of little selection pressures on eggshell spotting or of non-maternal inheritance, which was also suggested by Mahler et al. (2008), who failed to find an association between egg spotting and a molecular marker of maternal inheritance. Also, previous studies found that the eggshell spotting pattern varies according to female condition and/or eggshell thickness (Gosler, Higham & Reynolds, 2005; Sanz & García Navas, 2009). Thus, arrangement of spots on the eggshell might be a plastic trait that is influenced by a female's nutritional condition and calcium availability.

Heritability of egg characteristics within a lineage implies either maternal inheritance of these traits along each host's line or, if eggs characteristics are not maternally inherited, assortative mating between individuals raised by the same host, as is the case of the African Vidua finches (Payne, Payne & Woods, 1998; Sorenson, Sefc & Payne, 2003). As shiny cowbirds forage in flocks and roost in groups (Ortega, 1998) and no behavioural differences (e.g. vocalizations, habitat use) have been found between individuals, a scenario of assortative mating seems very unlikely in this species. Although inheritance mechanisms of background coloration and egg size need to be further explored in the shiny cowbird, our results are consistent with the hypothesis of host specialization and a maternal inheritance of egg size and background coloration.

#### ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

We thank Fundación Elsa Shaw de Pearson for allowing us to conduct this study at the Reserve El Destino. We also thank D. T. Tuero for sharing his unpublished results and for his helpful comments on this manuscript. MADLC was supported by a fellowship from the Agencia Nacional de Promoción Científica y Tecnológica (ANPCyT). B.M. and J.C.R. are research fellows of Consejo Nacional de Investigaciones Científicas y Técnicas. This work was supported by ANPCyT (grant 06-00215) and University of Buenos Aires (grant X184).

#### REFERENCES

- Andersson M. 1978. Optimal egg shape in waders. Ornis Fennica 55: 105–109.
- Antonov A, Stokke BG, Vikan JR, Fossøy F, Ranke PS, Røskaft E, Moksnes A, Møller AP, Shykoff JA. 2010. Egg phenotype differentiation in sympatric cuckoo *Cuculus canorus* gentes. *Journal of Evolutionary Biology* 23: 1170–1182.
- Avilés JM. 2008. Egg colour mimicry in the common cuckoo Cuculus canorus as revealed by modelling host retinal function. Proceedings of the Royal Society of London B 275: 2345–2352.
- Avilés JM, Stokke BG, Moksnes A, Røskaft E, Møller AP. 2007. Environmental conditions influence egg color of reed warblers Acrocephalus scirpaceus and their parasite, the common cuckoo Cuculus canorus. Behavioral Ecology and Sociobiology 61: 475–485.
- Barta Z, Székely T. 1997. The optimal shape of avian eggs. Functional Ecology 11: 656–662.
- Bennett ATD, Cuthill IC, Partridge JC, Lunau K. 1997. Ultraviolet plumage colors predict mate preferences in starlings. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America 94: 8618–8621.
- Blomqvist D, Johansson OC, Götmark F. 1997. Parental quality and egg size affect chick survival in a precocial bird, the lapwing *Vanellus vanellus*. *Oecologia* **110**: 18–24.
- Brooke M, Birkhead T. 1991. The Cambridge encyclopedia of ornithology. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Brooke MdeL, Davies NB. 1988. Egg mimicry by cuckoos, *Cuculus canorus*, in relation to discrimination by hosts. *Nature* 335: 630–632.
- Cassey P, Maurer G, Duval C, Ewen JG, Hauber ME. 2010. Impact of time since collection on avian eggshell color: a comparison of museum and fresh egg specimens. *Behavioral Ecology and Sociobiology* 64: 1711–1720.
- Christians JK. 2002. Avian egg size: variation within species and inflexibility within individuals. *Biological Reviews* 77: 1–26.
- Collias EC. 1993. Inheritance of egg-color polymorphism in the village weaver (*Ploceus cucullatus*). Auk 110: 683–692.
- Congdon NM, Briskie JV. 2010. Effect of population bottlenecks on the egg morphology of introduced birds in New Zealand. *Ibis* 152: 136–144.
- Cruz A, Manolis T, Andrews RH. 1995. History of shiny cowbird *Molothrus bonariensis* brood parasitism in Trinidad and Tobago. *Ibis* 137: 317–321.
- Cuthill IC, Bennett ATD, Partridge JC, Maier EJ. 1999. Plumage reflectance and the objective assessment of avian sexual dichromatism. *American Naturalist* 153: 183–200.

- **Davies NB. 2000.** Cuckoos, cowbirds and other cheats. London: T & AD Poyser.
- **Davies NB, Bourke AFG, Brooke MdeL. 1989.** Cuckoos and parasitic ants: interspecific brood parasitism as an evolutionary arms race. *Trends in Ecology and Evolution* **4**: 274–278.
- Davies NB, Brooke MdeL. 1989. An experimental study of co-evolution between the cuckoo, *Cuculus canorus*, and its hosts. II. Host egg markings, chick discrimination and general discussion. *Journal of Animal Ecology* 58: 225– 236.
- De Mársico MC, Mahler B, Chomnalez M, Di Giacomo AG, Reboreda JC. 2010. Host use by generalist and specialist brood parasitic cowbirds at population and individual levels. Advances in the Study of Behavior 42: 83–121.
- **De Mársico MC, Reboreda JC. 2008.** Differential reproductive success favour strong host preferences in a highly specialized brood parasite. *Proceedings of the Royal Society B* **275:** 2499–2506.
- Dufty AM Jr. 1983. Variation in the egg markings of the brown-headed cowbird. Condor 85: 109–111.
- Endler J. 1990. On the measurement and classification of colour in studies of animal colour patterns. *Biological Journal of the Linnean Society* 41: 315–352.
- Endler JA, Théry M. 1996. Interacting effects of lek placement, display behavior, ambient light, and color patterns in three Neotropical forest-dwelling birds. *American Naturalist* 148: 421–452.
- Fiorini VD. 2007. Synchronization of parasitism and host selection in a generalist brood parasite, the Shiny Cowbird *Molothrus bonariensis* (Icterinae, Aves). PhD Dissertation. University of Buenos Aires.
- Fiorini VD, Reboreda JC. 2006. Cues used by shiny cowbirds (Molothrus bonariensis) to locate and parasitise chalkbrowed mockingbird (Mimus saturninus) nests. Behavioral Ecology and Sociobiology 60: 379–385.
- Fiorini VD, Tuero DT, Reboreda JC. 2009. Shiny cowbirds benefits of synchronizing parasitism and puncturing eggs in large and small hosts. *Animal Behaviour* **77**: 561–568.
- Fleischer RC. 1985. A new technique to identify and assess the dispersion of eggs of individual brood parasites. *Behavioral Ecology and Sociobiology* 17: 91–99.
- Fraga RM. 1985. Host-parasite interactions between chalkbrowed mockingbirds and shiny cowbirds. Ornithological Monographs 36: 829–844.
- Friedmann H. 1929. The cowbirds: a study in the biology of social parasitism. Springfield, IL: C.C.Thomas.
- Friedmann H, Kiff LF. 1985. The parasitic cowbirds and their hosts. Proceedings of the Western Foundation of Vertebrate Zoology 2: 225–302.
- Gibbs HL, Sorenson MD, Marchetti K, Brooke ML, Davies NB, Nakamura H. 2000. Genetic evidence for female host-specific races of the common cuckoo. *Nature* 407: 183–186.
- Gosler AG, Barnett PR, Reynolds SJ. 2000. Inheritance and variation in eggshell patterning in the great tit *Parus* major. Proceedings of the Royal Society of London. Series B. Biological Sciences 267: 2469–2473.

- Gosler AG, Higham JP, Reynolds SJ. 2005. Why are birds' eggs speckled? *Ecology Letters* 8: 1105–1113.
- Hudson WH. 1874. Notes on the procreant instincts of the three species of *Molothrus* found in Buenos Aires. *Proceedings of the Zoological Society* XI: 153–174.
- Hutt FB. 1949. Genetics of the fowl. New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Joseph NS, Robinson NA, Renema RA, Robinson FE. 1999. Shell quality and color variation in broiler breeder eggs. Journal of Applied Poultry Research 8: 70–74.
- Kattan GH. 1997. Shiny cowbirds follow the 'shotgun' strategy of brood parasitism. *Animal Behaviour* 53: 647–654.
- López-Ortiz R, Ventosa-Febles EA, Ramos-Alvarez KR, Medina-Miranda R, Cruz A. 2006. Reduction in host use suggests host specificity in individual shiny cowbirds (*Molothrus bonariensis*). Ornitologia Neotropical 17: 259– 269.
- Lowther P, Post W. 1999. Shiny Cowbird (Molothrus bonariensis). In: Poole A, Gill F, eds. The Birds of North America, Philadelphia: The Birds of North America, Inc. No. 399.
- Lyon BE. 1997. Spatial patterns of shiny cowbird brood parasitism on chestnut-capped blackbirds. *Animal Behaviour* 54: 927–939.
- Mahler B, Confalonieri VA, Lovette IJ, Reboreda JC. 2007. Partial host fidelity in nest selection by the shiny cowbird (*Molothrus bonariensis*), a highly generalist avian brood parasite. *Journal of Evolutionary Biology* 20: 1918– 1923.
- Mahler B, Confalonieri VA, Lovette IJ, Reboreda JC. 2008. Eggshell spotting in brood parasitic shiny cowbirds (*Molothrus bonariensis*) is not linked to the female sex chromosome. *Behavioral Ecology and Sociobiology* 62: 1193– 1199.
- Martínez-de la Puente J, Merino S, Moreno J, Tomás G, Morales J, Lobato E, García-Fraile S, Martínez J. 2007. Are eggshell spottines and colour indicators of health and condition in blue tits Cyanistes caeruleus? Journal of Avian Biology 38: 377–384.
- Mason P. 1986a. Brood parasitism in a host generalist, the shiny cowbird: I. The quality of different species as hosts. *Auk* 103: 52–60.
- Mason P, Rothstein SI. 1986. Coevolution and avian brood parasitism: shiny cowbird (*Molothrus bonariensis*) eggs show evolutionary response to host discrimination. *Evolution* 40: 1207–1214.
- Moksnes A, Røskaft E. 1995. Egg-morphs and host preference in the common cuckoo (*Cuculus canorus*): an analysis of cuckoo and host eggs from European museum collections. *Journal of Zoology* 236: 625–648.
- Moksnes A, Røskaft E, Rudolfsen G, Skjelseth S, Stokke BG, Kleven O, Gibbs HL, Honza M, Taborsky B, Teuschl Y, Vogl W, Taborsky M. 2008. Individual female common cuckoos *Cuculus canorus* lay constant egg types but egg appearance cannot be used to assign eggs to females. *Journal of Avian Biology* **39**: 238–241.
- Morales J, Kim SY, Lobato E, Merino S, Tomas G, Martinez-de la Puente J, Moreno J. 2010. On the heritability of blue-green eggshell coloration. Journal of Evolutionary Biology 23: 1783-1791.

- **Ortega C. 1998.** *Cowbirds and other brood parasites.* Tucson, AZ: The University of Arizona Press.
- **Osorio D, Ham AD. 2002.** Spectral reflectance and directional properties of structural coloration in bird plumage. *Journal of Experimental Biology* **205:** 2017–2027.
- Payne RB, Payne LL, Woods JL. 1998. Song learning in brood-parasitic indigobirds *Vidua chalybeata:* song mimicry of the host species. *Animal Behaviour* 55: 1537– 1553.
- **Post W, Wiley JW. 1977.** Reproductive interactions of the shiny cowbird and the yellow-shouldered blackbird. *Condor* **79:** 176–184.
- Preston FW. 1968. The shapes of birds' eggs: mathematical aspects. Auk 85: 454–463.
- Punnett RC. 1933. Inheritance of egg colour in the 'parasitic' cuckoo. Nature 132: 892–893.
- Punnett RC, Bailey PG. 1920. Genetic studies in poultry. II. Inheritance of color and broodiness. *Journal of Genetics* 10: 277–292.
- **Rasband WS. 1997-2006.** *Image J.* Bethesda, MD: National Institutes of Health, Available at http:/rsb.info. nih.gov/ij/
- Rothstein SI. 1990. A model system for coevolution: avian brood parasitism. Annual Review of Ecology and Systematics 21: 481–508.
- Rothstein SI, Robinson SK. 1998. The evolution and ecology of avian brood parasitism. In: Rothstein SI, Robinson SK, eds. *Parasitic birds and their hosts, studies in coevolution*. New York: Oxford University Press, 3–56.

- Sackmann P, Reboreda JC. 2003. A comparative study of shiny cowbird parasitism in two large hosts: chalk-browed mockingbird and rufous-belied thrush. *Condor* 105: 728– 736.
- Sanz JJ, García-Navas V. 2009. Eggshell pigmentation pattern in relation to breeding performance of blue tits *Cyanistes caeruleus*. Journal of Animal Ecology 78: 31–41.
- **Soler JJ, Moreno J, Avilés JM, Møller AP. 2005.** Blue and green egg-colour intensity is associated with parental effort and mating system in passerines: support for the sexual selection hypothesis. *Evolution* **59:** 636–644.
- Sorenson MD, Sefc RB, Payne RB. 2003. Speciation by host switch in brood parasitic indigobirds. *Nature* 424: 928–931.
- Spottiswoode CN. 2010. The evolution of host-specific variation in cuckoo eggshell strength. Journal of Evolutionary Biology 23: 1792–1799.
- Stevens M, Párraga CA, Cuthill IC, Partridge JC, Troscianko TS. 2007. Using digital photography to study animal coloration. *Biological Journal of the Linnean Society* 90: 211–297.
- **Stoddard MC, Stevens M. 2010.** Pattern mimicry of host eggs by the common cuckoo, as seen through a bird's eye. *Proceedings of the Royal Society B* **277:** 1387–1393.
- Tuero DT, Fiorini VD, Reboreda JC. 2007. Effects of shiny cowbird parasitism on different components of house wren reproductive success. *Ibis* 149: 521–529.