

Diversification of Life Histories in New World Birds

Authors: Douglas Robinson, W., Hau, Michaela, Klasing, Kirk C., Wikelski, Martin, Brawn, Jeffrey D., et al.

Source: *The Auk*, 127(2) : 253-262

Published By: American Ornithological Society

URL: <https://doi.org/10.1525/auk.2010.127.2.253>

BioOne Complete (complete.BioOne.org) is a full-text database of 200 subscribed and open-access titles in the biological, ecological, and environmental sciences published by nonprofit societies, associations, museums, institutions, and presses.

Your use of this PDF, the BioOne Complete website, and all posted and associated content indicates your acceptance of BioOne's Terms of Use, available at www.bioone.org/terms-of-use.

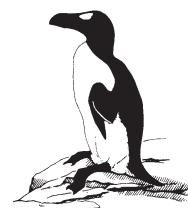
Usage of BioOne Complete content is strictly limited to personal, educational, and non - commercial use. Commercial inquiries or rights and permissions requests should be directed to the individual publisher as copyright holder.

BioOne sees sustainable scholarly publishing as an inherently collaborative enterprise connecting authors, nonprofit publishers, academic institutions, research libraries, and research funders in the common goal of maximizing access to critical research.

The Auk

An International
Journal of Ornithology

Vol. 127 No. 2 April 2010



The Auk 127(2):253–262, 2010
© The American Ornithologists' Union, 2010.
Printed in USA.

PERSPECTIVES IN ORNITHOLOGY

DIVERSIFICATION OF LIFE HISTORIES IN NEW WORLD BIRDS

W. DOUGLAS ROBINSON,^{1,7} MICHAELA HAU,² KIRK C. KLASING,³ MARTIN WIKELSKI,²
JEFFREY D. BRAWN,⁴ SUZANNE H. AUSTIN,¹ COREY E. TARWATER,⁵ AND ROBERT E. RICKLEFS,⁶

¹Oak Creek Lab of Biology, Department of Fisheries and Wildlife, Oregon State University, Corvallis, Oregon 97331, USA;

²Department of Migration & Immunoecology, Max Planck Institut für Ornithologie, D-78315 Radolfzell am Bodensee, Germany;

³Department of Animal Science, University of California, Davis, California 95616, USA;

⁴Department of Natural Resources & Environmental Science, University of Illinois, Urbana, Illinois 61801, USA;

⁵Program in Ecology, Evolution & Conservation Biology, University of Illinois, Urbana, Illinois 61801, USA; and

⁶Department of Biology, University of Missouri, St. Louis, Missouri 63121, USA

LIFE HISTORIES ARE sets of adaptations that improve the match between an organism and its environment. The adaptations are genetic and interact with environmental factors that influence the fitness of the individual and, by extension, the demography of the population to which that individual belongs (Stearns 1992, Roff 2002). Thus, physiological and behavioral attributes of an individual influence the demographic rates of its population. These demographic rates can, in turn, influence the selective advantage of different combinations of attributes, for example through density-dependent feedback mechanisms (Ricklefs 2000a). These feedback mechanisms are then another component of the environment that applies selective pressure on the behavioral and physiological attributes of life histories. Gaining an understanding of how and why life histories vary among populations and species and across environmental gradients has attracted ornithologists for many decades, but significant methodological limitations have focused most of our efforts on a small number of issues, such as the importance of nest predation in shaping life-history strategies (Martin et al. 2000a, b; Ghalambor and Martin 2001).

Ornithologists were among the first to recognize geographic patterns in life-history attributes (Lack 1947). Perhaps the most famous example is latitudinal variation in clutch size of songbirds: birds that nest at lower latitudes tend to lay fewer eggs per nest than birds that nest at higher latitudes (Moreau 1944, Skutch 1949). The search for explanations of these interesting patterns led to many studies that evaluated possible mechanisms such as variation in food availability, adult survival rates, and rates of reproductive

failure as a function of latitude (Ricklefs 1969, 1977; Martin 1987, 1996). In the process, we identified contrasts between temperate and tropical living, such as greater average longevity and apparently lower investment in single reproductive attempts in tropical areas, compared with shorter lifespans and higher contributions to individual reproductive events in temperate areas. These contrasting strategies are now generally referred to as “pace-of-life” strategies (Ricklefs and Wikelski 2002). Many tropical birds are on the slow end of an axis of continual variation, and many temperate birds tend to be on the fast end.

The occurrence of this slow–fast life-history axis might suggest constraints on patterns of variation (Charnov 1993). Indeed, certain combinations of traits frequently co-occur, whereas other combinations are rarely or never observed in nature. For example, species on the slow end of the axis often exhibit lower metabolic rates, slower growth and development, lower nesting success, and longer life spans, whereas those on the fast end tend to show opposite patterns (Martin 1996, Magrath et al. 2000). Examples of attributes that rarely co-occur include species that simultaneously maximize offspring number and adult longevity or offspring number and offspring size. The latter patterns have revealed important tradeoffs in life-history strategies, because multiple energetically expensive activities cannot all be maximized at once (Reznick 1985, Stearns 1989). Investigations into the mechanisms that control these tradeoffs have historically focused on constraints, because the underlying physiological or hormonal components that transduce environmental information into behavioral action were

⁷E-mail: douglas.robinson@oregonstate.edu

thought to form complexes that restricted the range of possible outcomes available to selection (Finch and Rose 1995). Recently, however, it has been suggested that selection may influence linkages between components that have been considered inseparable (Hau 2007). These connections between the environment and how individuals can respond to environmental information will shape our understanding of life histories in the coming years.

Because organismal functions are broadly interconnected, understanding the evolution of life histories requires measurement of key attributes of many different systems. Until recently, we have lacked sufficient data for multispecies comparisons of energy metabolism, immune function, endocrine control mechanisms, stress responses, and some behavioral components of parental investment. Over the past 10 years, new data that describe these attributes have accumulated rapidly. Many of these contributions have been achieved by focusing on a common set of species matched across sites to reduce the effects of phylogenetic differences and then bringing together a group of scientists with multidisciplinary expertise. Our life history–physiology nexus group, which includes all the authors of this paper and other colleagues, is one such group. Here, we summarize recent advances by some of these collaborations in studies of life-history attributes, as well as current information on variation in adult survival across latitudes, before briefly summarizing what studies of avian life histories may tell us about life histories in general. We conclude by charting some promising future directions in studies of avian life histories.

HORMONES: SIGNALS THAT MEDIATE LIFE-HISTORY TRADEOFFS

The finding that vertebrate life histories can readily be mapped on a one-dimensional slow–fast continuum implies the existence of general constraints that prevent the diversification of life histories in other dimensions (Ricklefs 2000a, Ricklefs and Wikelski 2002). What are the physiological mechanisms that underlie life-history tradeoffs? Hormones are internal signaling molecules that are involved in regulating (1) life-history traits such as fecundity, for example by regulation of clutch and egg size (Sinervo and Licht 1991, Sinervo and Svensson 1998), courtship, and parental behavior (Ketterson et al. 1992, Angelier et al. 2009); and (2) processes that determine survival rate, such as immune function, stress and fight-or-flight responses, and many others (Sapolsky et al. 2000, Romero 2004).

Recent studies in birds have indicated that the two steroid hormones testosterone and corticosterone are involved in mediating tradeoffs, especially those between fecundity and survival. Testosterone is a steroid hormone found at elevated concentrations in male vertebrates during the breeding season (Knobil and Neill 1988; female vertebrates also produce it, but at lower levels). During the breeding season, increased testosterone concentrations are known to support male reproductive functions and behaviors. Indeed, a long-term study of free-living Dark-eyed Juncos (*Junco hyemalis*) showed that males with experimentally increased testosterone concentrations had larger home ranges and more extrapair fertilizations than controls (Ketterson et al. 1996). However, testosterone administration in this species decreased the male survival rate (Ketterson et al. 1996, Reed et al. 2006; see also

Dufty 1989), which is a classic life-history tradeoff. Impaired survival rate could result from various processes, for example from immune suppression (Folstad and Karter 1992) or an inhibition of molt by testosterone (e.g., Schluessner et al. 1985). Supporting the relationship between testosterone and fecundity traits found in intraspecific studies, several recent large-scale comparative analyses showed that the length of the breeding season was the factor that best explained interspecific variation in male testosterone concentrations during the breeding season (Goymann et al. 2004; Garamszegi et al. 2005, 2008). However, whether and in what way testosterone affects processes related to survival rate on an interspecific level is still unclear.

Corticosterone has important regulatory functions on metabolism, behavior, and the immune system (Sapolsky et al. 2000). At baseline concentrations (in an undisturbed animal), corticosterone participates in regulating blood carbohydrate levels and energy stores (Sapolsky et al. 2000). Additionally, when an individual experiences acute adverse disturbances (e.g., a predator attack), corticosterone is released into the bloodstream at greatly increased concentrations. The function of such stress-induced corticosterone concentrations is to redirect behavioral and physiological processes away from other tasks (digestion, reproduction, etc.) and toward processes that aid in surviving the disturbance (increased locomotor activity, increased immune function, etc.; Wingfield et al. 1998, Sapolsky et al. 2000, Martin 2009). Indeed, increased corticosterone concentrations typically lead to increased locomotor activity (Breuner et al. 1998), energy mobilization (Sapolsky et al. 2000), and inhibition of reproduction (Wingfield and Sapolsky 2003). Acute increases in corticosterone also boost immune function (Dhabhar 2009) and have been suggested to enhance fitness in most but not all studies (Breuner et al. 2008).

In light of these actions, corticosterone has been hypothesized to be involved in regulating the tradeoff between current versus future reproductive investment (e.g., Wingfield et al. 1995). Indeed, detailed intraspecific studies support a quantitative relationship between corticosterone concentrations (mostly stress-induced concentrations, but also baseline levels) and reproductive investment (e.g., in House Sparrows [*Passer domesticus*]; Lendvai et al. 2007, Lendvai and Chastel 2008). In interspecific studies, brood value (i.e., the value of the current brood in relation to future broods) has been found to explain a large part of the variation in stress-induced corticosterone concentrations (Wingfield et al. 1995, O'Reilly and Wingfield 2001, Holberton and Wingfield 2003) and in baseline corticosterone levels (Bókony et al. 2009).

Until now, studies that explicitly link variations in testosterone and corticosterone concentrations among species to the pace of life in avian species have been lacking. Because procedures both in the field and laboratory can vary dramatically between studies and result in much unwanted variation, we conducted an original study on a set of temperate and tropical species to collect baseline corticosterone, stress-induced corticosterone, and testosterone concentrations in males during the breeding season. All samples were taken using identical procedures and were analyzed in the same laboratory (Hau et al., unpubl. data). Hormone concentrations were then related to key life-history traits such as fecundity and longevity. Following the physiology–life history concept (Ricklefs and Wikelski 2002), we predicted that species

that adopt slow life histories (low reproductive rate, high survival rate) should reach higher stress-induced corticosterone concentrations if those function to increase processes related to survival and self-maintenance. Species with slow life histories should also reach lower testosterone concentrations during the breeding season, given that they typically show lower reproductive rates. Species on the fast end of the continuum were predicted to display opposite hormonal traits.

As predicted, we found that stress-induced corticosterone concentrations were correlated with the survival rates of species, when we controlled for body mass (Hau et al., unpubl. data). Likewise, testosterone concentrations were related to the reproductive intensity of species. Hence, both corticosterone and testosterone concentrations covary with the slow–fast life-history continuum, which suggests that these two hormones may be causally involved in mediating the pace of life in birds. Although our data are only correlative, together with the existing experimental data reviewed above, they point to the existence of an endocrine system that underlies the regulation of life histories in avian species and probably in vertebrates in general. These findings open exciting new research questions on the causality of these hormone–life history relationships and their potential to evolve in populations or species from particular environments (e.g., Hau 2007, Ketterson et al. 2009).

ENERGY

Passerine birds of the lowland tropical forests have long been expected to have a more “leisurely” lifestyle, including lower activity rates (Martin 1996, Weathers 1997, Wikelski and Ricklefs 2001), lower resting metabolic rates (Vleck and Vleck 1979, Hails 1983, Bennett and Harvey 1987, Klaassen 1995, Lindström and Klaassen 2003, Tieleman et al. 2006, Wiersma et al. 2007b), and possibly lower daily energy expenditures (Bennett and Harvey 1987). Recently, tropical birds have also been shown to have a 39% lower peak metabolic rate than temperate species (Wiersma et al. 2007a), a difference that is perhaps not surprising given the general relationship between resting and peak metabolic rate (Ricklefs et al. 1996).

What is still poorly known is the use of energy by birds in the wild, largely because field studies on the physiology of tropical birds are difficult to conduct and methods to quantify energy expenditure in the field are hard to employ. Individual understory birds can hardly be recaptured in the daily intervals needed for use of the doubly-labeled-water method (Nagy 1980). An alternative, the heart-rate method (Butler et al. 2004), was recently applied by Steiger et al. (2009) for the first time to estimate all components of the daily energy budget of a tropical understory passerine, the Spotted Antbird (*Hylophylax naevioides*). The birds were much less active than expected: they made only about 1.5 locomotor movements per minute in their natural habitat and were inactive for 35% of the day. At night, the energy expenditure of males approximately matched their expected resting metabolic rate based on laboratory studies in the thermoneutral zone. However, ambient temperatures in the wild were below thermoneutrality, which suggests that the birds may have lowered their body temperature regularly in the wild. Overall, this energy allocation strategy resulted in a daily energy expenditure that was only half the value expected for a bird this size (Steiger et al. 2009).

Although torpor has been found in other bird species, such as the 6-g Puerto Rican Tody (*Todus mexicanus*; Merola-Zwartjes and Ligon 2000), pigeons (Schleucher 2001), nightjars (McNab and Bonaccorso 1995), mousebirds (McKechnie et al. 2004), and White-throated Sparrows (*Zonotrichia albicollis*; Dolby et al. 2004), it was unknown that tropical lowland birds may regularly revert to this energy-saving mechanism. However, it is still unclear why Spotted Antbirds did not lower their body temperature and energy expenditure even more at night. Possible explanations for the maintenance of energy expenditure at expected resting metabolic levels at night are that Spotted Antbirds either need to be alert to predators or need to keep somatic repair processes running at high levels throughout the long tropical nights. For example, we found that more long-lived tropical understory bird species spend more energy on acute-phase immune responses than less-long-lived or temperate-zone species (Lee et al. 2008, K. Lee et al. unpubl. data).

Using automated telemetry methods (Crofoot et al. 2008), we also confirmed the overall prediction that tropical birds generally have a less active lifestyle than their temperate-zone relatives (M. Wikelski et al. unpubl. data). All tropical species show lower daily activity rates than their northern counterparts (as low as 20% active periods during the day in tropical birds, as compared with 92% active periods in temperate-zone birds; Ricklefs 1971). These data support a general syndrome of energetic leisure in tropical lowland birds compared with their busy northern relatives.

IMMUNE SYSTEMS

The immune system is an important component of self-maintenance and competes for nutrients with other systems to develop a robust capacity to recognize a plethora of potential pathogens, maintain immunity in a ready state, and marshal appropriate components during a disease challenge. The currency (energy, amino acids) and expense of operating the immune system have been appreciated in medical and agricultural disciplines for decades (Beisel 1977) and have more recently been integrated into life-history theory of animals, especially birds (Sheldon and Verhulst 1996, Tella et al. 2002). It has been suggested that animals with high reproductive rates should invest less in immune defense (Sheldon and Verhulst 1996). Testing of such predictions has been fraught with theoretical and technical shortcomings related to the extreme complexity of the immune system and the difficulty of measuring its functional capacity in free-living animals. Single blood-sample endpoints have been developed (Matson et al. 2005, Millet et al. 2007) and have catalyzed a burst of research that clearly shows that immune systems are strikingly different among species of New World birds and that life-history correlates can explain much of this variation.

Immunity is commonly divided into constitutive and inducible components. Constitutive immunity results from continual investment in protective cells and proteins, whereas inducible immunity is attributable to a burst in production of new cells and proteins in response to a pathogen challenge. Tieleman et al. (2005) examined the constitutive bactericidal activity of whole blood from 12 species of Neotropical birds and found a negative correlation with mass-adjusted basal metabolic rate, which suggests that species with a slower pace of life have evolved a more

robust constitutive immune capability. Lee et al. (2008) examined the relationship between life-history variables and natural antibodies in 70 species of Neotropical birds and found a strong positive relationship between incubation period and natural antibody levels in adult birds, which suggests that longer incubation times facilitate development of a more diverse adaptive immune system.

Inducible immunity, especially the acute-phase response, is especially costly to animals. The production of the acute-phase protein, mannan binding protein (MBP), in response to a vaccination with *Escherichia coli* was followed in 40 species of temperate and tropical New World birds (K. Klasing unpubl. data). Across locations, the magnitude of energy invested in the acute-phase response increased proportionally with body size. After differences in body size were accounted for, tropical species had higher levels of MBP than temperate species. Furthermore, species that produced more MBP had higher survival rates, and for a given survival rate temperate species had higher levels of MBP than tropical species.

Immunity can be passively transferred from mother to offspring via immunoglobulins in the egg yolk. In 23 species of small Neotropical birds, there was a strong relationship between body size and transfer of passive immunity, which suggests that larger species can invest more in the protection of their offspring (Adison et al. 2009). Interestingly, developmental period and the transfer of passive immunity were negatively related. This may reflect the value of microbial interaction with developing lymphocytes for avoidance of autoimmunity in species with a slower pace of life.

The immune system is a complex network of interacting cells and proteins, so it will take considerable effort to unravel its detailed relationship with life histories. However, a theme has emerged: the immune systems of New World species with a slow pace of life have a higher level of constitutive immunity, but they are also able to respond to a challenge with greater production of protective acute-phase proteins than those with a fast pace of life.

GROWTH AND DEVELOPMENT

Tremendous variation among species exists in growth rates, which ornithologists have historically characterized by placing species along the altricial–precocial continuum. Growth rates directly affect the fitness of individuals and are influenced by physiological and ecological factors (Ricklefs 1969, 1996; Stearns 1992; Blount et al. 2006). Growth happens within the egg, as well as after hatching, so variation in incubation periods has garnered attention as well. The primary correlate of incubation and post-hatch growth rate is body size; larger species grow more slowly both in and out of the egg (Ricklefs 1976, Ar and Rahn 1978). However, interesting variation remains after the effects of body size are controlled, and some of that variation is a function of geography. Incubation periods are ~9% longer in tropical than in temperate birds (Ricklefs 1969). Recent work has suggested that reduced attendance by tropical parents in response to higher levels of nest predation (Ricklefs 1969, Robinson et al. 2000, Martin 2002) can lengthen the duration of incubation (Martin 2002, Chalfoun and Martin 2007, Rompré and Robinson 2008). Those field studies suggested that behavioral responses of adults to perceived risks of predation on themselves or

their eggs extended incubation. However, a common garden experiment that controlled for effects of adult attendance by incubating eggs of temperate and tropical House Wrens (*Troglodytes aedon*) under constant temperature found that the tropical eggs still took longer to hatch (Robinson et al. 2008). This suggests that differences in nest attendance do not necessarily cause latitudinal differences in incubation period, but that intrinsic differences in how birds grow govern this variation across latitudes.

As with embryonic development, tropical songbirds also grow more slowly than temperate species. Ricklefs (1976) found a 23% slower rate of growth in mass of tropical birds (<100 g) as compared with temperate species. Using more species and a new method that accounted for bias associated with differences in phylogeny and size at fledging, Austin-Bythell (2006) also found that tropical songbirds grew in mass 23% more slowly than temperate passerines. The same pattern was true for growth of tarsi. Although it appears that tropical passerines grow more slowly than temperate species, it is interesting that nestling periods are not consistently longer in tropical passerines. This indicates that tropical birds fledge at a smaller relative size than temperate birds. One possible explanation for quicker fledging is an influence of nest predation pressure whereby species with higher rates of nest predation have offspring that leave their nests sooner (Ricklefs et al. 1998, Remeš and Martin 2002).

ADULT SURVIVAL

Much of life-history theory is based on variation in reproductive (parental) investment optimized with respect to adult survival rate (i.e., the expectation of future reproductive opportunities; Williams 1966a, Stearns 1992, Roff 2002). Many comparative studies of avian life histories have centered on differences between tropical and temperate birds, but it is important to have comparative data on survival rate as a function of latitude. Comparable estimates of adult survival rates for tropical and temperate birds have come primarily from local mark–recapture or resighting studies (e.g., Karr et al. 1990). Mark–recapture studies have expanded tremendously in the tropics since the 1980s and now provide parameter estimates and a broad empirical foundation for placing life histories in a demographic framework. Although unknown biases resulting from the dispersal of breeding adults out of a study area may differ systematically between tropical and temperate regions (Sandercock et al. 2000), the results of these studies have both corroborated and questioned assumptions about the architecture of avian life histories at tropical latitudes.

Building on a long tradition of estimating adult survival rates in Europe and North America, as well as in South Africa and Australia–New Zealand, estimates of survival for tropical species became increasingly available beginning with studies by David Snow in the 1960s, and continuing with long-term mark–recapture studies initiated in the 1970s (Karr et al. 1990, Johnston et al. 1997, Blake and Loiselle 2008). Early results pointed to systematically higher survival rates in tropical than in northern temperate birds, and this became the prevailing paradigm. With more extensive data and new or refined estimation methods, three patterns emerged: (1) annual survival is, on average, ~10% higher in tropical (and southern temperate) than in northern temperate regions (~65% vs. ~55%); (2) the distributions of annual survival overlap

greatly; and (3) even within tropical species or genera, annual survival varies geographically (Ricklefs 1997, Brawn et al. 1999, Ricklefs and Shea 2007). Thus, comparative statements on latitudinal variation in adult survival rates must be conditioned on factors such as body size and location.

Comparisons of adult survival have several implications for the evolution of life-history strategies. Because survival rates overlap broadly between tropical and northern temperate birds, adult survival cannot explain the more complete differentiation observed in the number of offspring reared per nesting attempt (Brawn et al. 1999). Furthermore, the theory that underlies the prediction that greater parental investment is associated with lower adult survival (Williams 1966b, Martin et al. 2000a, Ghalambor and Martin 2001) is incorrect in the sense that parents instead balance their own survival against the survival rate of their independent offspring in optimizing the level of parental investment (Ricklefs 2010). Current estimates of adult survival and the less-well-founded estimates of immature survival indicate that the expected level of parental investment (i.e., personal risk assumed in producing offspring) should be similar in tropical and temperate birds. That is, although adults in temperate regions do not survive particularly well, neither do their offspring, and so it is a toss-up whether to invest in self-maintenance or offspring production. Accordingly, differences in brood size between tropical and northern temperate birds are likely to reflect availability of, and competition for, food or other critical resources such as territories (Ashmole 1963, Lack 1968, Ricklefs 1980) rather than parental investment.

PARENTAL CARE

Since Moreau's (1944) paper on latitudinal variation in clutch size, studies that have dealt with the question of why clutch size increases with latitude have dominated the literature on avian life-history traits (Martin 1996, Ricklefs 2000b, Ricklefs and Wikelski 2002). Nevertheless, other aspects of parental care (and components of reproductive effort) influence offspring and adult survival, including feeding rates, food load, intervals between breeding attempts, duration of parental care, nest defense, nest attentiveness, and number of broods per year. A decade ago, few empirical studies, particularly of tropical birds, had been done and most comparative studies focused on clutch size or did not take phylogeny into account in the analyses (reviewed in Martin 1996). The results from these studies were equivocal, because differences in phylogeny, ecology, and location of the study obscured general patterns (Martin 1996). In the past 10 years, more empirical studies and comparative analyses that account for phylogeny have been conducted and a shift toward examining aspects of parental behavior other than clutch size has occurred. Recent comparative analyses have shown that tropical species tend to have extended postfledging parental care (Russell et al. 2004), delayed dispersal (Russell et al. 2004), lower nest attentiveness (Martin 2002), longer incubation periods (Martin et al. 2007), and greater egg mass (Martin et al. 2006) than temperate species. Furthermore, differences in feeding rates and food load are tied more closely to variation in nest predation (Martin et al. 2000b).

Despite these recent advances, how these different aspects of parental care are related to latitudinal variation in reproductive

effort and parental care strategies remains unresolved, partly because there have not been enough empirical studies to permit comparative analyses of reneating intervals, numbers of broods per year, and nest defense (Ricklefs 1977, Ricklefs and Bloom 1977). Moreover, understanding variation in reproductive effort requires understanding how hard parents work to provide care. Parental effort depends on a number of factors, including food availability. For example, for the same provisioning rate, parents work harder to feed offspring in an environment with low food availability than in an environment where food is readily available. Yet how such environmental factors differ with latitude remains elusive. Finally, although prolonged parental care and delayed dispersal are predicted to result in higher juvenile survival, estimates of survival until reproduction are largely unavailable, particularly in tropical species (Ricklefs 2010). Judging from the few currently available estimates of juvenile survival, tropical species appear to have greater survival during the period of dependence on adult care and equal or greater survival throughout the first year, compared with many temperate species (Russell 2000, C. Tarwater unpubl. data). If this pattern holds as more empirical studies are conducted, it will suggest that reproductive effort should be equal or greater in tropical species compared with temperate species because of the high value of the offspring of tropical birds.

Instead, for the same level of reproductive effort, tropical and northern-hemisphere species may use different strategies of parental care that favor offspring quality in tropical environments and offspring quantity in temperate environments. This fundamental tradeoff between the amount of parental care (influencing offspring quality) and offspring quantity (Smith and Fretwell 1974, Stearns 1992) is likely influenced by latitudinal variation in environmental factors. For example, in species in which offspring mortality is primarily influenced by winter conditions, increasing offspring quantity may increase parental fitness more than increasing offspring quality. Correspondingly, in less seasonal, tropical environments, stronger competition for breeding territories and lower food availability during the breeding season, owing to populations being near carrying capacity on a year-round basis (Ashmole 1963, Cody 1966, Ricklefs 1980, McNamara et al. 2008), may favor investment in offspring quality. Future work needs to examine how environmental conditions differ across latitudes, and more comparative analyses of parental care behaviors are needed. Nevertheless, current work suggests that tropical birds provide offspring with prolonged parental care and that variation in reproductive effort does not explain variation in clutch size.

WHAT STUDIES OF BIRDS MAY TELL US ABOUT LIFE HISTORIES IN GENERAL

Life-history analyses are important because they elucidate the relationships between a wide range of adaptations that have relatively clear associations with fitness and the conditions of the environment, thus exposing tradeoffs and constraints in evolution and adaptation (Ricklefs 2000a). Birds are excellent subjects for the comparative study of life-history traits, and of phenotypic diversification in general, because they have been well studied over a wide range of environments and are more accessible in some aspects of their behavior and demography than other groups of organisms. For instance, although model species, such as *Drosophila*

and other insects, which can be extensively manipulated in the laboratory, have provided many insights into the mechanisms that control expression of behavior and life histories (e.g., Nylin and Gotthard 1998, Zera and Harshman 2001, Partridge and Gems 2006), comparatively little is known about those organisms in their natural habitats. By contrast, because birds can be studied in the field, we have the chance to understand how real selection pressures influence fitness of different life-history attributes. The downside of birds as subjects for life-history research includes the relative difficulty of experimental studies and the dearth of information about genetic factors that underlie life-history traits. However, new technologies are quickly improving our understanding of avian genomes (Lerner and Fleischer 2010). Other taxonomic groups show strong patterns of life-history variation, but it is not clear that they parallel those of birds to the extent that general understanding will emerge by combining incomplete knowledge from several taxa. For example, plants, insects, amphibians, and reptiles exhibit more environmentally induced phenotypic flexibility than birds (Nylin and Gotthard 1998, Shine 2005). Even within birds, taxa that contradict the general pattern are perplexing, as in the case of the latitudinally invariant two-egg clutches of hummingbirds and most doves.

FUTURE DIRECTIONS

A telling aspect of studies of life-history variation in birds is the recognition of how little we know, given the extent of work on the group over the past 60 years. Although many studies support the existence of tradeoffs, for example between reproductive success and adult survival (Bennett and Owens 2002), the shapes of such tradeoffs (e.g., how sharply they bend, which determines the evolutionary responsiveness of the optimized points) have not been quantified (Ricklefs 2000a). Many tropical species have long incubation periods and slow postnatal development, in spite of high nest predation (Ricklefs 1976), but no consensus has emerged concerning the meaning of this pattern (Ricklefs 1993, Martin et al. 2007). Lack (1947) and Ashmole (1963) emphasized the role of food resources in determining patterns of reproductive rate in birds, but food availability has not been quantified over a latitudinal gradient for any group of bird. In spite of the importance of disease in population dynamics, and notwithstanding the growing body of work in the area of ecological immunology (Norris and Evans 2000, Zuk and Stoehr 2002), we have little understanding of the pathogen environments of birds (Padilla et al. 2006, Soos et al. 2008). We tend to work on what is easy and what is fashionable. The lack of information on geographic trends in food supply, pathogens, and disease reflects the difficulty of the work contrasted with the attractiveness over the years of alternative explanations for reproductive rate, including brood-size-dependent nest predation (Skutch 1949) and parental-investment theory related to adult survival (Williams 1966b, Charnov 1993).

Much remains to be learned about the diversification of avian life histories, and it is an exciting time to be involved. Prominent among the unanswered questions is whether there is indeed a single dominant demography–physiology axis that characterizes the continuum of slow to fast life histories. Multiple important axes of variation will perhaps be revealed as we learn more about the mechanistic drivers that limit or facilitate expression of life-history

syndromes. New techniques for quantifying endocrinological, physiological, and immunological parameters in the field will open new frontiers in our understanding of life-history evolution. The difficulty, for example, of examining immunity in the field—where one can usually capture a bird only once and take a single blood sample—has compelled research to focus on innate immunity. Understanding the relationship between life-history strategy and the adaptive immune system should be a future priority as new techniques emerge.

The multispecies comparative framework has been especially helpful for revealing evolutionary patterns in life histories and for generating new hypotheses. Many of our insights have come from studies that compare a small number of species chosen because sufficient sample sizes can be acquired and because comparisons can be phylogenetically controlled. In addition, most studies that have taken detailed looks at mechanisms have compared traits from one temperate and one tropical site, although general characterization of geographic patterns in life-history traits has been expanding recently (Jetz et al. 2008). Our nexus group has focused on one site in temperate North America (Michigan) and one in lowland rainforest (Panama). The temptation to take results from relatively small numbers of species and a couple of sites and then extend inference to global patterns has been difficult to resist. The ideas that nest predation and adult survival rates are generally greater in the tropics are commonly held, yet available data reveal plenty of overlap in those rates across latitudes (Karr et al. 1990; Brawn et al. 1999, 2010; Robinson et al. 2000). Many data on other aspects of life histories currently come from a relatively small number of passeriforms, and therefore from a relatively limited range of body sizes and associated life-history traits. Ornithologists should increase efforts to characterize patterns in additional songbird taxa as well as in taxonomic groups outside the passeriforms. Furthermore, to understand the associations of environmental gradients with life-history traits, sampling of additional sites between the well-studied temperate and tropical sites is needed. By adding more sampling, we can understand where shifts in life-history strategies and the pace of life occur. In addition, many of our insights come from a limited number of habitats, usually forests in temperate settings and lowland rainforest or submontane forest in tropical and subtropical locations. Do different strategies occur in species of montane forests, grasslands, or deserts?

Ornithologists should continue multispecies comparisons and focus on generating new data that have been difficult to obtain historically but that may provide new insights. Some of these data include quantification of reneating rates and interbrood intervals, juvenile mortality, and rates of recruitment to reproductive adulthood, which will help to fill in the remaining key unknowns in demographic models. At the mechanistic level, we still need to confirm the causality of relationships between hormones and life-history traits, including the processes by which stress-induced corticosterone may be linked with survival rate and testosterone may be linked with fecundity. The linkages of hormones with immune function also still need to be evaluated in wild birds. Although much remains to be learned, advances in the availability of techniques, clarity on appropriate field and laboratory experiments, and the availability of field data for comparative studies means that this is an exciting time in the study of avian life histories.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

Our work was supported by a National Science Foundation Integrated Research Challenges in Environmental Biology grant (IBN-0212587). We thank the many students and colleagues who have been part of our nexus team and have contributed to our understanding of avian life histories, most of whom have co-authored or are acknowledged in the primary literature cited below. We dedicate this paper to the memory of our late colleague, Russ Shea.

LITERATURE CITED

- ADDISON, B., K. C. KLASING, W. D. ROBINSON, S. H. AUSTIN, AND R. E. RICKLEFS. 2009. Ecological and life-history factors influencing the evolution of maternal antibody allocation: A phylogenetic comparison. *Proceedings of the Royal Society of London, Series B* 276:3979–3987.
- ANGELIER, F., C. CLEMENT-CHASTEL, J. WELCKER, G. W. GABRIELSEN, AND O. CHASTEL. 2009. How does corticosterone affect parental behaviour and reproductive success? A study of prolactin in Black-legged Kittiwakes. *Functional Ecology* 23:784–793.
- AR, A., AND H. RAHN. 1978. Interdependence of gas conductance, incubation length, and weight of the avian egg. Pages 227–236 in *Respiratory Function in Birds, Adult and Embryonic* (J. Piiper, Ed.). Springer-Verlag, Heidelberg, Germany.
- ASHMOLE, N. P. 1963. The regulation of numbers of tropical oceanic birds. *Ibis* 103:458–473.
- AUSTIN-BYTHELL, S. H. 2006. Growth and development of temperate and tropical passerines of the New World: A life history perspective. M.S. thesis, Oregon State University, Corvallis.
- BEISEL, W. R. 1977. Magnitude of the host nutritional responses to infection. *American Journal of Clinical Nutrition* 30:1236–1247.
- BENNETT, P. M., AND P. H. HARVEY. 1987. Active and resting metabolism in birds: Allometry, phylogeny and ecology. *Journal of Zoology (London)* 213:327–363.
- BENNETT, P. M., AND I. P. F. OWENS. 2002. *Evolutionary Ecology of Birds: Life Histories, Mating Systems and Extinction*. Oxford University Press, Oxford, United Kingdom.
- BLAKE, J. G., AND B. A. LOISELLE. 2008. Estimates of apparent survival rate for forest birds in eastern Ecuador. *Biotropica* 40:485–493.
- BLOUNT, J. D., N. B. METCALFE, K. E. ARNOLD, P. F. SURAI, AND P. MONAGHAN. 2006. Effects of neonatal nutrition on adult reproduction in a passerine bird. *Ibis* 148:509–514.
- BÓKONY, V., A. Z. LENDVAI, A. LIKER, F. ANGELIER, J. C. WINGFIELD, AND O. CHASTEL. 2009. Stress response and the value of reproduction: Are birds prudent parents? *American Naturalist* 173:589–598.
- BRAWN, J. D., G. ANGEHR, N. DAVROS, W. D. ROBINSON, J. N. STYRSKY, AND C. E. TARWATER. 2010. Sources of variation in the nesting success of understory tropical birds. *Journal of Avian Biology* 41: in press.
- BRAWN, J. D., J. R. KARR, J. D. NICHOLS, AND W. D. ROBINSON. 1999. Demography of tropical forest birds in Panama: How do transients affect estimates of survival rates? Pages 297–305 in *Acta XXII Congressus Internationalis Ornithologici* (N. J. Adams and R. H. Slotow, Eds.). BirdLife South Africa, Johannesburg.
- BREUNER, C. W., A. L. GREENBERG, AND J. C. WINGFIELD. 1998. Noninvasive corticosterone treatment rapidly increases activity in Gambel's White-crowned Sparrows (*Zonotrichia leucophrys gambelii*). *General and Comparative Endocrinology* 111:386–394.
- BREUNER, C. W., S. H. PATTERSON, AND T. P. HAHN. 2008. In search of relationships between the acute adrenocortical response and fitness. *General and Comparative Endocrinology* 157:288–295.
- BUTLER, P. J., J. A. GREEN, I. L. BOYD, AND J. R. SPEAKMAN. 2004. Measuring metabolic rate in the field: The pros and cons of the doubly labelled water and heart rate methods. *Functional Ecology* 18:168–183.
- CHALFOUN, A. D., AND T. E. MARTIN. 2007. Latitudinal variation in avian incubation attentiveness and a test of the food limitation hypothesis. *Animal Behaviour* 73:579–585.
- CHARNOV, E. L. 1993. *Life History Invariants: Some Explorations of Symmetry in Evolutionary Biology*. Oxford University Press, New York.
- CODY, M. L. 1966. A general theory of clutch size. *Evolution* 20:174–184.
- CROFOOT, M. C., I. C. GILBY, M. C. WIKELSKI, AND R. W. KAYS. 2008. Interaction location outweighs the competitive advantage of numerical superiority in *Cebus capucinus* intergroup contests. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences USA* 105:577–581.
- DHABHAR, F. S. 2009. A hassle a day may keep the pathogens away: The fight-or-flight stress response and the augmentation of immune function. *Integrative and Comparative Biology* 49:215–236.
- DOLBY, A. S., J. G. TEMPLE, L. E. WILLIAMS, E. K. DILGER, K. M. STECHLER, AND V. S. DAVIS. 2004. Facultative rest-phase hypothermia in free-ranging White-throated Sparrows. *Condor* 106:386–390.
- DUFTY, A. M., JR. 1989. Testosterone and survival: A cost of aggressiveness? *Hormones and Behavior* 23:185–193.
- FINCH, C. E., AND M. R. ROSE. 1995. Hormones and the physiological architecture of life history evolution. *Quarterly Review of Biology* 70:1–52.
- FOLSTAD, I., AND A. J. KARTER. 1992. Parasites, bright males, and the immunocompetence handicap. *American Naturalist* 139:603–622.
- GARAMSZEGI, L. Z., M. EENS, S. HURTREZ-BOUSSÈS, AND A. P. MØLLER. 2005. Testosterone, testes size, and mating success in birds: A comparative study. *Hormones and Behavior* 47:389–409.
- GARAMSZEGI, L. Z., K. HIRSCHENHAUSER, V. BOKONY, M. EENS, S. HURTREZ-BOUSSÈS, A. P. MØLLER, R. F. OLIVEIRA, AND J. C. WINGFIELD. 2008. Latitudinal distribution, migration, and testosterone levels in birds. *American Naturalist* 172:533–546.
- GHALAMBOR, C. K., AND T. E. MARTIN. 2001. Fecundity-survival trade-offs and parental risk-taking in birds. *Science* 292:494–497.
- GOYMAN, W., I. T. MOORE, A. SCHEUERLEIN, K. HIRSCHENHAUSER, A. GRAFEN, AND J. C. WINGFIELD. 2004. Testosterone in tropical birds: Effects of environmental and social factors. *American Naturalist* 164:327–334.
- HAILS, C. J. 1983. The metabolic rate of tropical birds. *Condor* 85:61–65.
- HAU, M. 2007. Regulation of male traits by testosterone: Implications for the evolution of vertebrate life histories. *Bioessays* 29:133–144.

- HOLBERTON, R. L., AND J. C. WINGFIELD. 2003. Modulating the corticosterone stress response: A mechanism for balancing individual risk and reproductive success in Arctic-breeding sparrows? *Auk* 120:1140–1150.
- JETZ, W., C. H. SEKERCIOGLU, AND K. BÖHNING-GAESE. 2008. The worldwide variation in avian clutch size across species and space. *PLoS Biology* 6:2650–2657.
- JOHNSTON, J. P., W. J. PEACH, R. D. GREGORY, AND S. A. WHITE. 1997. Survival rates of tropical and temperate passerines: A Trinidadian perspective. *American Naturalist* 150:771–789.
- KARR, J. R., J. D. NICHOLS, M. K. KLIMKIEWICZ, AND J. D. BRAWN. 1990. Survival rates of birds of tropical and temperate forests: Will the dogma survive? *American Naturalist* 136:277–291.
- KETTERSON, E. D., J. W. ATWELL, AND J. W. MCGLOTHLIN. 2009. Phenotypic integration and independence: Hormones, performance, and response to environmental change. *Integrative and Comparative Biology* 49:365–379.
- KETTERSON, E. D., V. NOLAN, M. J. CAWTHORN, P. G. PARKER, AND C. ZIEGENFUS. 1996. Phenotypic engineering: Using hormones to explore the mechanistic and functional bases of phenotypic variation in nature. *Ibis* 138:70–86.
- KETTERSON, E. D., V. NOLAN, L. WOLF, AND C. ZIEGENFUS. 1992. Testosterone and avian life histories: Effects of experimentally elevated testosterone on behavior and correlates of fitness in the Dark-Eyed Junco (*Junco hyemalis*). *American Naturalist* 140:980–999.
- KLAASSEN, M. 1995. Molt and basal metabolic costs in males of two subspecies of stonechats: The European *Saxicola torquata rubicula* and the East African *S. t. axillaris*. *Oecologia* 104:424–432.
- KNOBIL, E., AND J. D. NEILL, EDs. 1988. *The Physiology of Reproduction*, vols. 1 and 2. Raven, New York.
- LACK, D. 1947. The significance of clutch-size. *Ibis* 89:302–352.
- LACK, D. 1968. *Ecological Adaptations for Breeding in Birds*. Methuen, London, England.
- LEE, K. A., M. WIKELSKI, W. D. ROBINSON, T. R. ROBINSON, AND K. C. KLASING. 2008. Constitutive immune defenses correlate with life-history variables in tropical birds. *Journal of Animal Ecology* 77:356–363.
- LENDVAI, Á. Z., M. GIRARDEAU, AND O. CHASTEL. 2007. Reproduction and modulation of the stress response: An experimental test in the House Sparrow. *Proceedings of the Royal Society of London, Series B* 274:391–397.
- LENDVAI, Á. Z., AND O. CHASTEL. 2008. Experimental mate-removal increases the stress response of female House Sparrows: The effects of offspring value? *Hormones and Behavior* 53:395–401.
- LERNER, H. R. L., AND R. C. FLEISCHER. 2010. Prospects for the use of next-generation sequencing methods in ornithology. *Auk* 127:4–15.
- LINDSTRÖM, Å., AND M. KLAASSEN. 2003. High basal metabolic rates of shorebirds while in the Arctic: A circumpolar view. *Condor* 105:420–427.
- MAGRATH, R. D., A. W. LEEDMAN, J. L. GARDNER, A. GIANNASCA, A. C. NATHAN, S. M. YEZERINAC, AND J. A. NICHOLLS. 2000. Life in the slow lane: Reproductive life history of the White-browed Scrubwren, an Australian endemic. *Auk* 117:479–489.
- MARTIN, L. B. 2009. Stress and immunity in wild vertebrates: Timing is everything. *General and Comparative Endocrinology* 163:70–76.
- MARTIN, T. E. 1987. Food as a limit on breeding birds: A life-history perspective. *Annual Review of Ecology and Systematics* 18:453–487.
- MARTIN, T. E. 1996. Life history evolution in tropical and south temperate birds: what do we really know? *Journal of Avian Biology* 27:263–272.
- MARTIN, T. E. 2002. A new view of avian life-history evolution tested on an incubation paradox. *Proceedings of the Royal Society of London, Series B* 269:309–316.
- MARTIN, T. E., S. K. AUER, R. D. BASSAR, A. M. NIKLISON, AND P. LLOYD. 2007. Geographic variation in avian incubation periods and parental influences on embryonic temperature. *Evolution* 61:2558–2569.
- MARTIN, T. E., R. D. BASSAR, S. K. BASSAR, J. J. FONTAINE, P. LLOYD, H. A. MATHEWSON, A. M. NIKLISON, AND A. CHALFOUN. 2006. Life-history and ecological correlates of geographic variation in egg and clutch mass among passerine species. *Evolution* 60:390–398.
- MARTIN, T. E., P. R. MARTIN, C. R. OLSON, B. J. HEIDINGER, AND J. J. FONTAINE. 2000a. Parental care and clutch sizes in North and South American birds. *Science* 287:1482–1485.
- MARTIN, T. E., J. SCOTT, AND C. MENGE. 2000b. Nest predation increases with parental activity: Separating nest site and parental activity effects. *Proceedings of the Royal Society of London, Series B* 267:2287–2293.
- MATSON, K. D., R. E. RICKLEFS, AND K. C. KLASING. 2005. A hemolysis-hemagglutination assay for characterizing constitutive innate humoral immunity in wild and domestic birds. *Developmental and Comparative Immunology* 29:275–286.
- MCKECHNIE, A. E., G. KÖRTNER, AND B. G. LOVEGROVE. 2004. Rest-phase thermoregulation in free-ranging White-backed Mousebirds. *Condor* 106:143–149.
- MENAB, B. K., AND F. J. BONACCORSO. 1995. The energetics of Australasian swifts, frogmouths, and nightjars. *Physiological Zoology* 68:245–261.
- MENAMARA, J. M., Z. BARTA, M. WIKELSKI, AND A. I. HOUSTON. 2008. A theoretical investigation of the effect of latitude on avian life histories. *American Naturalist* 172:331–345.
- MEROLA-ZWARTJES, M., AND J. D. LIGON. 2000. Ecological energetics of the Puerto Rican Tody: Heterothermy, torpor, and intra-island variation. *Ecology* 81:990–1003.
- MILLET, S., J. BENNETT, K. A. LEE, M. HAU, AND K. C. KLASING. 2007. Quantifying and comparing constitutive immunity across avian species. *Developmental and Comparative Immunology* 31:188–201.
- MOREAU, R. E. 1944. Clutch size: A comparative study, with reference to African birds. *Ibis* 86:286–347.
- NAGY, K. A. 1980. CO₂ production in animals: Analysis of potential errors in the doubly labeled water method. *American Journal of Physiology* 238:R454–R473.
- NORRIS, K., AND M. R. EVANS. 2000. Ecological immunology: Life history trade-offs and immune defense in birds. *Behavioral Ecology* 11:19–26.
- NYLIN, S., AND K. GOTTHARD. 1998. Plasticity in life-history traits. *Annual Review of Entomology* 43:63–83.
- O'REILLY, K. M., AND J. C. WINGFIELD. 2001. Ecological factors underlying the adrenocortical response to capture stress in Arctic-breeding shorebirds. *General and Comparative Endocrinology* 124:1–11.

- PADILLA, L. R., N. K. WHITEMAN, J. MERKEL, K. P. HUYVAERT, AND P. G. PARKER. 2006. Health assessment of seabirds on Isla Genovesa, Galápagos Islands. Pages 86–97 *in* Current Topics in Avian Disease Research: Understanding Endemic and Invasive Diseases (R. K. Barraclough, Ed.). Ornithological Monographs, no. 60.
- PARTRIDGE, L., AND D. GEMS. 2006. Beyond the evolutionary theory of ageing, from functional genomics to evo-gero. *Trends in Ecology and Evolution* 21:334–340.
- REED, W. L., M. E. CLARK, P. G. PARKER, S. A. RAOUF, N. ARGUEDAS, D. S. MONK, E. SNAJDR, V. NOLAN, AND E. D. KETTERSON. 2006. Physiological effects on demography: A long-term experimental study of testosterone's effects on fitness. *American Naturalist* 167:667–683.
- REMEŠ, V., AND T. E. MARTIN. 2002. Environmental influences on the evolution of growth and developmental rates in passerines. *Evolution* 56:2505–2518.
- REZNICK, D. 1985. Costs of reproduction: An evaluation of the empirical evidence. *Oikos* 44:256–267.
- RICKLEFS, R. E. 1969. An analysis of nesting mortality in birds. *Smithsonian Contributions to Zoology* 9:1–48.
- RICKLEFS, R. E. 1971. Foraging behavior of Mangrove Swallows at Barro Colorado Island. *Auk* 88:635–651.
- RICKLEFS, R. E. 1976. Growth rates of birds in the humid New World tropics. *Ibis* 118:179–207.
- RICKLEFS, R. E. 1977. Reactions of some Panamanian birds to human intrusions at the nest. *Condor* 79:376–378.
- RICKLEFS, R. E. 1980. Geographical variation in clutch size among passerine birds: Ashmole's hypothesis. *Auk* 97:38–49.
- RICKLEFS, R. E. 1993. Sibling competition, hatching asynchrony, incubation period, and lifespan in altricial birds. Pages 199–276 *in* Current Ornithology, vol. 11 (D. M. Power, Ed.). Plenum Press, New York.
- RICKLEFS, R. E. 1996. Avian energetics, ecology, and evolution. Pages 1–30 *in* Avian Energetics and Nutritional Ecology (C. Carey, Ed.). Chapman and Hall, New York.
- RICKLEFS, R. E. 1997. Comparative demography of New World populations of thrushes (*Turdus* spp.). *Ecological Monographs* 67:23–43.
- RICKLEFS, R. E. 2000a. Density dependence, evolutionary optimization, and the diversification of avian life histories. *Condor* 102: 9–22.
- RICKLEFS, R. E. 2000b. Lack, Skutch, and Moreau: The early development of life-history thinking. *Condor* 102:3–8.
- RICKLEFS, R. E. 2010. Parental investment and avian reproductive rate: Williams's principle reconsidered. *American Naturalist* 175: 350–361.
- RICKLEFS, R. E., AND G. BLOOM. 1977. Components of avian breeding productivity. *Auk* 94:86–96.
- RICKLEFS, R. E., M. KONARZEWSKI, AND S. DAAN. 1996. The relationship between basal metabolic-rate and daily energy-expenditure in birds and mammals. *American Naturalist* 147:1047–1071.
- RICKLEFS, R. E., AND R. E. SHEA. 2007. Estimating annual survival in sexually dimorphic species from proportions of first-year birds. *Ecology* 88:1408–1419.
- RICKLEFS, R. E., J. M. STARCK, AND M. KONARZEWSKI. 1998. Internal constraints on growth in birds. Pages 266–287 *in* Avian Growth and Development: Evolution within the Altricial–Precocial Spectrum (J. M. Starck and R. E. Ricklefs, Eds.). Oxford University Press, Oxford, United Kingdom.
- RICKLEFS, R. E., AND M. WIKELSKI. 2002. The physiology/life-history nexus. *Trends in Ecology and Evolution* 17:462–468.
- ROBINSON, W. D., T. R. ROBINSON, S. K. ROBINSON, AND J. D. BRAWN. 2000. Nesting success of understory forest birds in central Panama. *Journal of Avian Biology* 31:151–164.
- ROBINSON, W. D., J. D. STYRSKY, B. J. PAYNE, R. G. HARPER, AND C. F. THOMPSON. 2008. Why are incubation periods longer in the tropics? A common-garden experiment with House Wrens reveals it is all in the egg. *American Naturalist* 171:532–535.
- ROFF, D. A. 2002. *Life History Evolution*. Sinauer Associates, Sunderland, Massachusetts.
- ROMERO, L. M. 2004. Physiological stress in ecology: Lessons from biomedical research. *Trends in Ecology and Evolution* 19:249–255.
- ROMPRÉ, G. R., AND W. D. ROBINSON. 2008. Predation, nest attendance, and long incubation periods of two Neotropical antbirds. *Ecotropica* 14:81–87.
- RUSSELL, E. 2000. Avian life histories: Is extended parental care the southern secret? *Emu* 100:377–399.
- RUSSELL, E., Y. YOM-TOV, AND E. GEFFEN. 2004. Extended parental care and delayed dispersal: Northern, tropical, and southern passerines compared. *Behavioral Ecology* 15:831–838.
- SANDERCOCK, B. K., S. R. BEISSINGER, S. H. STOLESON, R. R. MELLAND, AND C. R. HUGHES. 2000. Survival rates of a Neotropical parrot: Implications for latitudinal comparisons of avian demography. *Ecology* 81:1351–1370.
- SAPOLSKY, R. M., L. M. ROMERO, AND A. U. MUNCK. 2000. How do glucocorticoids influence stress responses? Integrating permissive, suppressive, stimulatory, and preparative actions. *Endocrine Reviews* 21:55–89.
- SCHLEUCHER, E. 2001. Heterothermia in pigeons and doves reduces energetic costs. *Journal of Thermal Biology* 26:287–293.
- SCHLEUSSNER, G., J. P. DITTAMI, AND E. GWINNER. 1985. Testosterone implants affect molt in male European Starlings, *Sturnus vulgaris*. *Physiological Zoology* 58:597–604.
- SHELDON, B. C., AND S. VERHULST. 1996. Ecological immunology: Costly parasite defences and trade-offs in evolutionary ecology. *Trends in Ecology and Evolution* 11:317–321.
- SHINE, R. 2005. Life-history evolution in reptiles. *Annual Review of Ecology, Evolution, and Systematics* 36:23–46.
- SINERVO, B., AND P. LICHT. 1991. Hormonal and physiological control of clutch size, egg size, and egg shape in side-blotched lizards (*Uta stansburiana*): Constraints on the evolution of lizard life histories. *Journal of Experimental Zoology* 257:252–264.
- SINERVO, B., AND E. SVENSSON. 1998. Mechanistic and selective causes of life history trade-offs and plasticity. *Oikos* 83:432–442.
- SKUTCH, A. F. 1949. Do tropical birds rear as many young as they can nourish? *Ibis* 91:430–455.
- SMITH, C. C., AND S. D. FRETWELL. 1974. The optimal balance between size and number of offspring. *American Naturalist* 108: 499–506.
- SOOS, C., L. R. PADILLA, A. IGLESIAS, N. GOTTDENKER, M. C. BÉDON, A. RIOS, AND P. G. PARKER. 2008. Comparison of pathogens in broiler and backyard chickens on the Galápagos Islands: Implications for transmission to wildlife. *Auk* 125:445–455.
- STEARNS, S. C. 1989. Trade-offs in life-history evolution. *Functional Ecology* 3:259–268.
- STEARNS, S. C. 1992. *The Evolution of Life Histories*. Oxford University Press, New York.

- STEIGER, S. S., J. P. KELLEY, W. W. COCHRAN, AND M. WIKELSKI. 2009. Low metabolism and inactive lifestyle of a tropical rain forest bird investigated via heart-rate telemetry. *Physiological and Biochemical Zoology* 82:580–589.
- TELLA, J. L., A. SCHEUERLEIN, AND R. E. RICKLEFS. 2002. Is cell-mediated immunity related to the evolution of life-history strategies in birds? *Proceedings of the Royal Society of London, Series B* 269:1059–1066.
- TIELEMAN, B. I., T. H. DIJKSTRA, J. R. LASKY, R. A. MAUCK, G. H. VISSER, AND J. B. WILLIAMS. 2006. Physiological and behavioural correlates of life-history variation: A comparison between tropical and temperate zone House Wrens. *Functional Ecology* 20:491–499.
- TIELEMAN, B. I., J. B. WILLIAMS, R. E. RICKLEFS, AND K. C. KLASING. 2005. Constitutive innate immunity is a component of the pace-of-life syndrome in tropical birds. *Proceedings of the Royal Society, Series B* 272:1715–1720.
- VLECK, C. M., AND D. VLECK. 1979. Metabolic rate in five tropical bird species. *Condor* 81:89–91.
- WEATHERS, W. W. 1997. Energetics and thermoregulation by small passerines of the humid, lowland tropics. *Auk* 114:341–353.
- WIERSMA, P., M. A. CHAPPELL, AND J. B. WILLIAMS. 2007a. Cold- and exercise-induced peak metabolic rates in tropical birds. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences USA* 104:20866–20871.
- WIERSMA, P., A. MUNOZ-GARCIA, A. WALKER, AND J. B. WILLIAMS. 2007b. Tropical birds have a slow pace of life. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences USA* 104:9340–9345.
- WIKELSKI, M., AND R. E. RICKLEFS. 2001. The physiology of life histories. *Trends in Ecology and Evolution* 16:479–481.
- WILLIAMS, G. C. 1966a. *Adaptation and Natural Selection*. Princeton University Press, Princeton, New Jersey.
- WILLIAMS, G. C. 1966b. Natural selection, the costs of reproduction, and a refinement of Lack's principle. *American Naturalist* 100:687–690.
- WINGFIELD, J. C., D. L. MANEY, C. W. BREUNER, J. D. JACOBS, S. LYNN, M. RAMENOFKY, AND R. D. RICHARDSON. 1998. Ecological bases of hormone-behavior interactions: The "emergency life history stage." *American Zoologist* 38:191–206.
- WINGFIELD, J. C., K. M. O'REILLY, AND L. B. ASTHEIMER. 1995. Modulation of the adrenocortical responses to acute stress in Arctic birds: A possible ecological basis. *American Zoologist* 35:285–294.
- WINGFIELD, J. C., AND R. M. SAPOLSKY. 2003. Reproduction and resistance to stress: When and how. *Journal of Neuroendocrinology* 15:711–724.
- ZERA, A. J., AND L. G. HARSHMAN. 2001. The physiology of life history trade-offs in animals. *Annual Review of Ecology and Systematics* 32:95–126.
- ZUK, M., AND A. M. STOEHR. 2002. Immune defense and host life history. *American Naturalist* 160:S9–S22.

Received 25 February 2010, accepted 2 March 2010