

1 **Choice of nest attributes as a frontline defense against brood parasitism**

2 Abbreviated title: Nest attributes as a defense against brood parasitism.

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19

20 **ABSTRACT**

21

22 Breeding- and nest-site choice is a behavioral strategy often used to counter negative
23 interactions. Site choices prior to breeding prevents costs of predation and
24 competition but has been neglected in the context of brood parasitism. For hosts of
25 brood parasites, the earlier brood parasitism is prevented in the breeding cycle the
26 lower the future costs. Suitable nest-sites for cavity-nesting common redstarts
27 (*Phoenicurus phoenicurus*), a host of the common cuckoo (*Cuculus canorus*), are a
28 limited resource, but their cavity-nesting strategy could potentially deter predators
29 and brood parasites. We altered the entrance size of breeding cavities and
30 investigated redstart nest site choice and its consequences to nest predation and
31 brood parasitism risk, while accounting for potential interspecific competition for nest
32 sites. We set-up paired nest-boxes and let redstarts choose between 7 cm and 5 cm
33 entrance sizes. Additionally, we monitored occupancy rates in nest-boxes with 3 cm, 5
34 cm and 7 cm entrance sizes and recorded brood parasitism and predation events. We
35 found that redstarts preferred to breed in 5 cm entrance size cavities, where brood
36 parasitism was eliminated but nest predation rates were comparable to 7 cm
37 entrance size cavities. Only in 3 cm cavities were both brood parasitism and predation
38 rates reduced. In contrast to the other cavity-nesting species, redstart settlement was
39 lowest in 3 cm entrance size cavities, potentially suggesting interspecific competition
40 for small entrance size cavities. Nest site choice based on entrance size could be a
41 front-line defense strategy that redstarts use to reduce brood parasitism.

42

43 **Keywords:** evolutionary arms-race, breeding-site choice, co-evolution, defense
44 strategy, interspecific competition, nest predation.

45 INTRODUCTION

46

47 Breeding and nest site choice has profound fitness consequences because many
48 crucial biotic factors (e.g. food resources and predation rates, Martin 1995) vary
49 spatially (Schmidt et al. 2006; Thomson et al. 2006; McCaffery et al. 2014; Lino et al.
50 2019). Informed breeding site choice that considers different biotic variables could
51 increase the likelihood of reproductive success and adult survival (Cody 1985;
52 Reynolds 1996; Seppänen et al. 2007; Chalfoun and Schmidt 2012; Lehtonen et al.
53 2013; Ibáñez-Álamo et al. 2015; Cayuela et al. 2017). Safe breeding sites are essential
54 (Fontaine and Martin 2006; Russell et al. 2009), and are usually well-hidden and
55 difficult to reach, making them challenging for predators and parasites to locate or
56 access (Mezquida 2004; Buehler et al. 2017). Therefore, breeding site selection is an
57 adaptive response to enhance breeding outcome.

58

59 In birds, nest predation risk is a strong force in determining nest site choice at many
60 spatial scales (Martin 1993). Birds avoid habitat patches with high predator densities
61 (Schmidt et al. 2006; Chalfoun and Schmidt 2012), or may nest in concealed locations
62 within habitat patches of high risk (Mezquida 2004; Eggers et al. 2006; Buehler et al.
63 2017). Nest site characteristics can also reduce predation pressure (Martin and
64 Pingjun Li 1992; Chalfoun and Schmidt 2012) but suitable or safe sites are often a
65 limited resource (Newton 1994; Aitken and Martin 2012, however, see Wesolowski
66 2007). For example, secondary cavity-nesters often prefer small entrance sizes and
67 deep cavities that limit predator access (Wesolowski and Rowiński 2004; Koch et al.

68 2008; Lambrechts et al. 2010; Cockle et al. 2015), but at the cost of higher intra- and
69 interspecific competition (Wiebe 2011; Aitken and Martin 2012).

70

71 Brood parasitism represents a significant cost for some bird species (Davies 2000).
72 Hosts get exploited for parental care, which imposes long-term energetic costs of
73 rearing parasite offspring, in addition to the loss of host progeny, which are often
74 killed by the young brood parasite (Davies 2000). The fitness costs of brood
75 parasitism, in terms of lifetime reproductive output, may be even higher than the
76 costs stemming from predation (Pease and Grzybowski 1995; Schmidt and Whelan
77 1999; Krüger 2007). Yet, the impact of brood parasitism as a selective force for
78 shaping breeding site choice in these systems is largely unknown. Understanding if
79 nest-site choice is an adaptative defence strategy is needed to allow better
80 interpretations of the arms-race in parasite-host systems.

81

82 The study of the arms-race between brood parasites and their hosts has mainly
83 focused on adaptations at the egg-laying and nestling stages of the breeding cycle
84 (Feeney et al. 2012). For a host, however, the best strategy would be to avoid being
85 parasitized in the first place, since all post-parasitism defences carry costs (Patten et
86 al. 2011). Strategies at the frontline of the arms-race (prior to the parasite egg being
87 laid), such as nest site choice in location or characteristics, may be subject to strong
88 natural selection (Patten et al. 2011). At the habitat patch scale, nest-site decisions
89 relative to brood parasitism risk have been documented (Forsman and Martin 2009;
90 Tolvanen et al. 2017), while previous experience with brood parasites influence future

91 nest-site choice of individual hosts (Hoover 2003a; Expósito-Granados et al. 2017).
92 Nevertheless, nest placement and nest architecture have been poorly explored as
93 strategies against brood parasitism. It has been suggested that cavity-nesting could be
94 an adaptive response to brood parasitism risk (Avilés et al. 2005). However, there is
95 no empirical evidence supporting this idea.

96

97 The common redstart (*Phoenicurus phoenicurus*, hereafter “redstart”) is an excellent
98 model to test nest-site choice as an adaptive defence against brood parasitism. It is
99 a cavity-nesting species and regular host (32% of nests are parasitized, Thomson et al.
100 2016) of the common cuckoo (*Cuculus canorus*, hereafter “cuckoo”). Cuckoos appear
101 to struggle to lay in cavity nests based on the high proportion of cuckoo eggs mislaid
102 outside of the host nest cup in nest-box studies (Rutila et al. 2002; Samaš et al. 2016;
103 Thomson et al. 2016). If entrance size choice is an adaptive response to parasitism
104 risk, redstarts should prefer to breed in cavities with entrance sizes that hinder
105 cuckoo access. Redstarts also suffer nest predation and entrance size choice may be
106 an adaptive response to decrease nest predation rates. Indeed, separating the role of
107 nest predation and brood parasitism on the host nest site choice of hosts is difficult
108 because nest site characteristics selected may similarly impact these processes. Lastly,
109 redstart may compete with other cavity-nesting species for limited optimal cavity
110 nest-sites (Lambrechts et al. 2010; Aitken and Martin 2012; Charter et al. 2016).
111 Therefore, we also consider the nest site decisions of two common cavity nesting
112 species that may compete for cavities with redstarts: the great tit (*Parus major*) and
113 the pied flycatcher (*Ficedula hypoleuca*). Great tits are residents that start breeding

114 before redstarts; while migrant pied flycatchers arrive at a similar arriving time to
115 redstarts. Great tits sometimes kill pied flycatchers to steal nest boxes (Samplonius
116 and Both 2019), and pied flycatchers are known to build their nest on top of other
117 existing nest, taking over cavities that way (Slagsvold 1975).

118

119 Our main aim was to test the choice of nest characteristics, specifically preference for
120 certain cavity entrance sizes, and then follow the consequences on breeding success.
121 We used nest-boxes with three different entrance diameters: 3 cm, 5 cm and 7 cm in
122 diameter, to understand redstart preference and choice for nest-site cavity size. We
123 also followed the cavity entrance size preferences of pied flycatcher and great tit, to
124 account for their potential competitive influence on redstart choice. Given the
125 potential trade-offs between different selective forces acting simultaneously, (1)
126 redstarts will prefer breeding in smaller entrance-size cavities, that represent a safer
127 place to breed since they restrict entry of cuckoos and large predators. We predict
128 higher occupation of redstarts in the smaller entrance cavities, while expecting
129 decreased nest predation and parasitism rates in those cavities. However, (2)
130 interspecific competition with other birds of the community may cause redstarts to
131 use bigger entrance-size cavities, make them more vulnerable to cuckoo parasitism
132 and nest predation. We expect higher preference for the smallest entrance-size in
133 other species (i.e., great tits and pied flycatchers), while redstart will then have higher
134 occupation rates in mid entrance-size nest-boxes, where brood parasitism rates are
135 lower, but nest predation rates remain similar as the biggest entrance-size.

136 METHODS

137

138 *Study Area and General Protocol*

139

140 Our study was conducted near Oulu, Northern Finland (65°N, 25° 50' E), between
141 2012 and 2019, in a study area of approximately 60 km² that consisted of open scots
142 pine (*Pinus sylvestris*) forests. Natural cavities in our study site vary from large
143 entrances made by black woodpeckers (*Dryocopus martius*, ca. 9 cm, Rolstad et al.
144 2000), medium-sized cavities of great spotted woodpecker and three-toed
145 woodpecker (*Dendroscopus major* and *Picoides tridactyla*, ca. 5 cm and 4.5 cm,
146 Gorman 2004; Kosiński and Ksit 2007), to small cavities made by willow and crested
147 tits (*Parus montanus* and *P. cristatus*, ca. 3 cm, Denny and Summers 1996;
148 Wesolowski 2002). Cavities are used by different secondary cavity-nesters.

149

150 Studies of redstarts as subjects usually used nest-boxes with 6-8 cm diameter
151 entrances (Samaš et al. 2016; Thomson et al. 2016); while for great tits and pied
152 flycatchers nest-boxes with 3-4 cm diameter entrances are used (Thomson et al.
153 2003; Forsman and Seppänen 2011). In our study area, great tits and pied flycatcher
154 annually occupy about 25% and 60% of small entrance size nest-boxes, respectively.
155 However, great tits and pied flycatchers are considered non-hosts of the cuckoo,
156 while redstarts are a common host (Grim et al. 2014; Grim and Samaš 2016; Samaš et
157 al. 2016; Thomson et al. 2016).

158

159 As residents, great tits choose where to breed first, leaving the rest of the cavities to
160 migrant, pied flycatchers and redstarts (Kristensen et al. 2013; Ouweland et al. 2016).
161 The earliest redstarts arrive at the breeding patches before pied flycatchers, but the
162 settlement periods overlap for most of the populations (unpublished data). Redstarts
163 initiate breeding in our study site between May 15 and June 15, while pied flycatchers
164 initiate breeding between May 17 and June 23.

165

166 We placed nest-boxes in pines approximately 1.5 m above the ground and 100–220 m
167 apart since 2011. All nest-boxes had the same dimensions: 17.5 x 17.5 x 28 cm (width,
168 depth and height), and an entrance hole diameter of 7 cm. However, to simulate the
169 entrance sizes of different natural cavities, we altered the size of the entrance hole of
170 the nest-boxes using wooden covers screwed onto the box to cover the existing
171 entrance hole (Figure 1). Using this manipulation three different nest-box entrance
172 diameters: 3 cm, 5 cm, 7 cm (hereafter referred to as 3 cm box, 5 cm box and 7 cm
173 box, respectively) were available to birds. Similar box manipulations in a pied
174 flycatcher study resulted in meaningful differences in predation rate and incubation
175 behavior (Morosinotto et al. 2013).

176

177 Annually, we checked nest-boxes every 2 to 4 days from early May until late-June
178 (Thomson et al. 2016). Approximately 400 nest-boxes were monitored each year to
179 collect data on redstarts breeding and brood parasitism rates by cuckoos as part of a
180 long-term study. For all occupied nest-boxes we recorded: laying date, clutch size,
181 brood size and any parasitism or predation events. A nest-box was considered

182 occupied when at least 1 egg was laid in it. Only the first breeding attempt in each
183 nest-box was considered for analyses. Nest-box occupancy by other species (mainly
184 great tit and pied flycatcher) was recorded. We captured adult redstarts breeding in
185 the nest-boxes between 2014 and 2017, however, return rates were very low: 1 of
186 237 ringed redstart females and 7 of 133 redstart males were recaptured. This
187 suggests that the turnover in the breeding population across years is high.

188

189 *Nest Cavity Entrance Size Choice Experiment*

190

191 We conducted a cavity entrance size choice experiment in 2012 and 2013. In each
192 experimental set-up redstarts could select between a 5 cm box and a 7 cm box
193 approximately at 5 – 15 m apart (Table 1). We placed 59 choice set-ups: 29 in 2012
194 and 30 in 2013 (different locations between years). Only one redstart pair settled in
195 each set-up.

196

197 *Potential Factors Influencing Nest Choice*

198

199 *Parasitism and predation rates*

200 We explored brood parasitism and nest predation rates in 5 cm vs 7 cm boxes in 2012
201 and 2013 using all nests in the experimental set-ups and the general box population
202 (Table 1). To account for environmental conditions, we divided the study area into
203 two main subareas, “Isokangas” and “Other”. Isokangas consists of a non-fragmented
204 forest (approx. 6 km²), while “Other” consists of an aggregation of several smaller

205 patches of forest (approx. 5 km² combined). When calculating predation rates, we
206 only consider predation events during the egg-laying period, since we were interested
207 in the factors affecting nest site choice at the very early breeding phase. Therefore,
208 most nests were partly protected from predation from early incubation by placing
209 wire cages over the entrance of nest-boxes (Thomson et al. 2016). This also ensure
210 that enough redstarts and cuckoos survive to make other concurrent studies possible.
211 Nests, where predation occurred before the fifth redstart egg was laid, were not
212 considered for the parasitism rate, since it was impossible to determine if the nest
213 was previously parasitized or not.

214

215 *Nest entrance size choice in heterospecific communities*

216 We explored preferences of different entrance size nest-boxes for the common
217 cavity-breeders in our area (redstart, great tit and pied flycatcher). During the
218 breeding seasons of 2014-2017, and 2019, we used two dedicated areas of non-
219 fragmented forest within Isokangas, and a new patch of forest called Pilpakangas (ca.
220 1 km² each and ca. 8 km apart). Nest-boxes with different entrance sizes were
221 interspersed (Table 1), keeping approximately 90-150 m apart. These boxes were
222 available to redstarts, pied flycatchers and later-breeding great tits and were regularly
223 monitored as described above.

224

225 Between 2014 and 2017, we used 7 cm and 3 cm boxes (hereafter referred to as 3 cm
226 vs. 7 cm box design); while in 2019, we placed all three different entrance size nest-
227 boxes (hereafter referred to as 3 cm vs. 5 cm vs. 7 cm box design). For the 3 cm vs. 7

228 cm box design, entrance covers were placed between May 12-14 (before redstart
229 settlement, 2014-2017). For 3 cm vs. 5 cm vs. 7 cm box design, all entrance sizes were
230 available from May 14 onwards, except for the Isokangas area where 5 cm boxes
231 were only available from May 21. However, only 3 redstart nests were initiated before
232 May 21, thus this slight delay did not impact the nest site decisions for the vast
233 majority of redstarts. In addition, our Cox regression models used to analyze this data
234 account for the availability of the entrance sizes (see below for details).

235

236 We used brood parasitism and nest predation rates to analyze how multiple selective
237 pressures can contribute to the entrance size choice. We calculated brood parasitism
238 for redstarts, and nest predation rates for each species, as described above (see
239 *Parasitism and predation rates*). However, due to other concurrent studies, for most
240 nest-boxes occupied by pied flycatcher the initial entrance size was altered before the
241 3rd egg was laid having 7 cm diameter for most of the laying period. These nests were
242 not considered for calculating nest predation or parasitism rates. The resulting low
243 numbers of nests and low variation in predation rates prohibited any statistical
244 analyses for this data (see Table 2).

245

246 ***Natural Cavities***

247

248 During 2011-2017 we found redstart nests in natural sites on an ad-hoc basis. When
249 located, the nests were classified as ground or tree cavity nests. For tree cavity nests
250 we measured the distance above the ground (to the nearest 0.1 m), and the

251 dimensions of the cavity hole entrance, as the vertical and horizontal diameter (to the
252 nearest mm).

253 **Table 1.** Overview of the different data collection procedures in nest boxes followed in this study.

Year	Type of boxes	Total number of boxes	Description	Statistical analysis
<i>2012-2013</i>				
Experimental design	5 cm	59	Experimental set-up consisted of two nest-boxes, one 5 cm box and one 7 cm box, placed 5 – 15 m apart within two main subareas (Isokangas and Other).	Bootstrap/ GLMM
	7 cm	59		
General box population	7 cm	136	Nest-boxes not used in the experiment but available in the study area. These were used for estimating predation and parasitism rates.	GLMM
<i>2014-2017</i>				
Two subsets of the general box population	3 cm	273	Two distinct areas, with approximately 70 boxes of 3 cm entrance (35 boxes in Isokangas/ 35 boxes in Pilpakangas) and 60 boxes of 7 cm entrance (32 boxes in Isokangas/ 28 boxes in Pilpakangas), interspersed within each site annually. Annual number of boxes varied due to losses and occupation by invertebrates. “Total number of boxes” refers to the total number over all four years.	Cox regression
	7 cm	252		
<i>2019</i>				
Two subsets of the general box population	3 cm	41	The same two distinct areas populated with 3 cm, 5 cm and 7 cm boxes, interspersed within each site. To ensure that all sizes were available throughout the season, we changed the covers of some nest-boxes setting up different entrance sizes when needed.	Cox regression
	5 cm	37		
	7 cm	41		

254 *Statistical Analyses*

255

256 All statistical analyses were conducted using R (version 3.6.2; R Development Core
257 Team 2019). For each analysis, the modelling procedure started with building a full
258 model including all relevant explanatory variables and interactions (see below for
259 details). We searched for the most parsimonious model by fitting a null model (no
260 explanatory variables) and all subset models including the entrance size (the main
261 variable of interest) within the full model (see supplementary Table S1 for the full list
262 of fitted models). We used AICc criteria for ranking the models. We then followed
263 Richards et al. (2011) and defined final model sets as those within 6 AICc units but
264 excluding models that were more complex versions of a model with lower AICc. If
265 there were more than one model in the final set, we focused on the best-ranking
266 model but also note if the inferences based on the other model(s) in the final model
267 set differ. We base our statistical inferences on the parameter mean estimates and
268 their 95% confidence intervals. Collinearity between explanatory variables was
269 acceptable in all models (variance inflation factors, VIF < 3 in all cases; Zuur et al.
270 2010). Statistical analyses performed for each set-up are shown in Table 1.

271

272 *Nest cavity entrance size choice experiment*

273 To test differences in the likelihood of occupation between 5 cm and 7 cm boxes we
274 fitted a binomial generalized linear model (GLM) with logit link function. The choice
275 between the 5 cm and 7 cm nest-boxes was used as the binomial response variable
276 (occupancy of 5 cm boxes 0 and of 7 cm boxes 1). Only the intercept was fitted as an

277 explanatory variable. Thus, if the intercept is significantly negative the 5 cm box was
278 preferred; if it is significantly positive the 7 cm box was preferred.

279

280 *Parasitism and predation rates*

281 Due to the complete lack of parasitized nests in 5 cm boxes (see Results), we used a
282 resampling approach to test if brood parasitism rates differed between 5 cm and 7 cm
283 boxes. Using a statistical bootstrap (resampling technique, Mooney and Duval, 1994),
284 we estimated the likelihood of nests in 5 cm boxes being parasitized, assuming equal
285 parasitism probability irrespectively of the entrance size. This approach produces a
286 distribution of the expected parasitism events relative to the entrance size to
287 compare with our observed data. The process consisted of generating 10000
288 permutations of a random sample of nests (without replacement) from the original
289 dataset (including both entrance sizes). Considering the unequal distribution of 5 cm
290 and 7 cm boxes between the two subareas (Isokangas and Other), the resampling
291 approach accounted for spatial variation in parasitism rate between subareas at each
292 permutation. The random sample size matched the number of nests that were
293 parasitized in the study area between 2012-2013 (a total of 38 nests parasitized). For
294 every nest selected, we first generated a random number between 1 and 100, to
295 simulate a parasitism event. The nest was considered parasitized, and was therefore
296 kept in the random sample, only if the random number generated was equal or lower
297 than the observed parasitism rate of the subarea where the nest was located (23% for
298 nests located in Isokangas and 15% for nests located in Other). If the random number
299 was higher than the observed parasitism rate, a new nest was randomly selected from

300 the original data set and a new random number, between 1 and 100, was generated.
301 This process was repeated until each new nest was parasitized (i.e., the random
302 number generated was lower or equal than the observed parasitism rate for the
303 specific subarea of the nest). Therefore, for each permutation, the random sample
304 was consistently made of 38 parasitized nests. Then the number of nests parasitized
305 within 5 cm boxes was extracted for each permutation, and the probability of having
306 zero parasitized nests in 5 cm boxes within the 1000 permutations was derived.

307

308 We also compared the probability of nest predation in 5 cm and 7 cm boxes using a
309 binomial GLMM with a logit link function. The predation occurrence (yes/no) was set
310 as the response variable and the entrance size of the box (5cm/7cm) as a fixed
311 explanatory effect. The full model also included the subarea (Isokangas/Other) and
312 year (2012/2013) as fixed effects to account for potential spatio-temporal variation in
313 predation rate. Finally, we included the ID of the nest-box as a random-intercept
314 effect since some of the nest-boxes were used in both years.

315

316 *Nest entrance size choice in heterospecific communities*

317 We used Cox proportional-hazards regression models (hereafter Cox models, Cox and
318 Oakes 1984; Therneau and Grambsch 2000) to estimate the preference of the
319 passerine community (redstarts, pied flycatchers and great tits) for the different
320 entrance sized boxes. Cox models are often used to model survival but can be used to
321 model any time-to-event data (see Forsman and Seppänen 2011; Samplonius and
322 Both 2017; Tolvanen et al. 2020). Cox models estimate the relative probability (hazard

323 ratio) of the event over time, with the event here being the nest-box occupation. We
324 used the function *cox.zph* (package *Survival*; Therneau 2020) to build models for each
325 set-up: 3 cm vs. 7 cm box design, and 3cm vs. 5cm vs. 7cm box design. Redstart and
326 pied flycatcher occupancy were analyzed for both study designs, but data for great tit
327 was adequate only for the 3 cm vs. 7 cm box design. Occupancy date was defined as
328 the estimated nest initiation date (see *Supplementary material*). Nest-box entrance
329 size was set as an explanatory fixed effect in all models. For the 3 cm vs. 7 cm box
330 model, the entrance size was fixed for each nest-box during the whole breeding
331 season (time-independent variable). However, in the case of the 3 cm vs. 5 cm vs. 7
332 cm box design, the entrance size is a time-dependent variable because additional
333 covers were placed onto a subset of the nest-boxes at different times along the
334 season (see Table 1). Year (only for the 3 cm vs. 7 cm box model: 2014-2017) and
335 forest patch (Isokangas/Pilpakangas) were included as additional fixed effects to
336 account for possible weather, and other environmental conditions, that may vary over
337 time and space. For the 3 cm vs. 7 cm box design, we also tried the interaction
338 between Year and Patch, but such models did not pass the proportional hazards
339 assumption test (important for valid Cox models). In addition, for the pied flycatcher 3
340 cm vs. 7 cm box analysis, Year as a fixed effect did not pass the proportionality
341 assumption, and was thus fitted as a *strata* effect, that is, the model accounted for
342 the Year effects by allowing variable baseline hazards for different years but did not
343 produce a Year effect estimate. Since the same nest-boxes were used for multiple
344 years we also fitted the full models with including the ID of the nest-box as a random
345 effect, using the function *coxme* (package *coxme*; Therneau 2019), but these mixed

346 models had clearly higher AICc than the ordinary Cox models without the random
347 effect and qualitatively identical fixed effect estimates to the ordinary Cox models
348 (results not detailed). We thus focused on the ordinary Cox models without the
349 random effect. All the full and final models fulfilled the proportionality assumption
350 (global tests, $p > 0.5$).

351 RESULTS

352

353 *Nest Cavity Entrance Size Choice Experiment*

354

355 Out of the 59 choice set-ups, we recorded 29 redstart breeding site choices. In all but
356 one case, redstarts chose to breed in the 5 cm box over the 7 cm box (96%; GLM,
357 intercept = -3.33 [-6.21, -1.79]). The other set-ups (30 out of 59) were occupied by
358 pied flycatchers (17 set-ups, all chose 5 cm box) or great tits (6 set-ups, all but one
359 chose the 5 cm box) or were not occupied at all (7 set-ups).

360

361 *Potential Factors Influencing Nest Choice*

362

363 *Parasitism and predation rates*

364 Considering all nest-boxes occupied by redstarts in our study area in 2012-2013
365 (Table 2), none of the nests within 5 cm boxes (excluding 3 predated nests) were
366 brood parasitized, while 33.6% of nests in 7 cm boxes (excluding 17 nests: 1
367 abandoned and 16 predated nests) were brood parasitized (Table 3). Under the
368 assumption that the entrance size does not affect brood parasitism rates, the
369 bootstrapped samples suggest that the likelihood of zero parasitism events in redstart
370 nests in 5 cm boxes was 2 out of 10000.

371

372 **Table 2.** Number of nest-boxes occupied by each species or left unoccupied, for each
 373 study design. The proportion of occupied boxes in parentheses. *Nest-boxes in the
 374 2012-2013 study are set-up paired and only one box could be occupied per set-up.

Year	3 cm	5 cm	7 cm
<i>2012-2013</i> (<i>experimental paired design*</i>)			
Redstart	-	28 (0.47)	1 (0.02)
Pied Flycatcher	-	17 (0.29)	0 (0.00)
Great Tit	-	5 (0.08)	1 (0.02)
Empty	-	9 (0.15)	57 (0.97)
Total	-	59	59
<i>2014-2017</i>			
Redstart	19 (0.07)	-	149 (0.59)
Pied Flycatcher	217 (0.80)	-	0 (0.00)
Great Tit	26 (0.09)	-	8 (0.03)
Empty	11 (0.04)	-	95 (0.38)
Total	273	-	252
<i>2019</i>			
Redstart	7 (0.17)	19 (0.53)	17 (0.42)
Pied Flycatcher	27 (0.66)	2 (0.05)	3 (0.07)
Great Tit	6 (0.15)	0 (0.00)	0 (0.00)
Empty	1 (0.02)	16 (0.42)	21 (0.51)
Total	41	37	41

375

376

377 For nest predation in 2012-2013, only the null model was included in the final model
 378 set (Table 4). Therefore, there was no effect of entrance size on nest predation rate
 379 (entrance diameter, 7 cm vs. 5 cm, effect estimate: -0.07 [-0.98 – 0.83], see also R² in
 380 supplementary material Table S1); 25.8% of the nests in 5 cm boxes were predated
 381 (Table 3), while 24.4% of the nests in 7 cm boxes (excluding 3 nests) were predated
 382 (Table 3). Between 2014-2019, in both set-ups (3 cm vs 7 cm box design and 3 cm vs
 383 5 cm vs 7 cm box design), we found an absence of cuckoo parasitism in redstart nests

384 placed in 3 cm and 5 cm boxes; all parasitic events occurred in 7 cm boxes (39.9% of
 385 nests in 7 cm boxes were parasitized, Table 3). Also, nest predation in redstart nests
 386 was absent in 3 cm and 5 cm boxes (Table 3), while the predation rate in 7 cm boxes
 387 occupied by redstarts was 14.5% between 2012 and 2019 (Table 3).

388

389 **Table 3.** Number of nests parasitized or predated for each species in each nest-box
 390 type. The total number of nests per entrance size are provided in parentheses. Nest-
 391 boxes were considered occupied when at least one egg was laid. For the calculation
 392 of the brood parasitism rate, nests where predation or abandonment occurred before
 393 the fifth egg was laid were excluded. No brood parasitism was observed in pied
 394 flycatchers and great tits.

		3 cm	5 cm	7 cm
<i>Brood parasitism rate</i>				
Redstart	2012-13	-	0 (28)	38 (113)
	2014-17	0 (6)	-	54 (133)
	2019	0 (3)	0 (8)	5 (15)
	Percentage	0% (9)	0% (36)	37.2% (261)
<i>Nest predation rate</i>				
Redstart	2012-13	-	8 (31)	31(127)
	2014-17	0 (6)	-	9 (146)
	2019	0 (3)	0 (8)	2 (16)
	Percentage	0 % (9)	20.5% (39)	14.5% (289)
Pied	2014-17	0 (14)	-	0 (0)
Flycatcher	2019	0 (7)	0 (0)	0 (3)
	Percentage	0% (21)	-	0% (3)
Great Tit	2014-17	0 (20)	-	0 (6)
	2019	0 (6)	0 (0)	0 (0)
	Percentage	0% (26)	-	0% (6)

395

396

397 For other cavity-nesting species in the community, nest predation was absent in 3 cm
398 boxes (Table 3), and none of the three pied flycatcher nor six great tit nests in 7 cm
399 boxes were predated (Table 3).

400

401 *Nest entrance size choice in heterospecific communities*

402 For preference of 3 cm vs. 7 cm box design, the final model set for redstarts included
403 only one model (Table 4) that showed a clear preference of redstarts for 7 cm over 3
404 cm boxes (Table 5, Figure 2A). Overall, 7 cm boxes were chosen 5 times more often
405 than 3 cm boxes (Table 5). The model also suggested spatio-temporal variation in the
406 overall occupancy rate (independent of the entrance size) between years and the two
407 habitat patches (Table 5). For preference considering all three entrance sizes (3 cm vs.
408 5 cm vs. 7 cm design), the final model set included two models (Table 4). The best
409 rated one suggesting that redstarts preferred 5 cm boxes over 3 cm or 7 cm boxes
410 (Table 5, Figure 2B). Overall, redstarts were 2.7 times more likely to occupy 5 cm than
411 3 cm boxes. There was no clear difference between occupancy of 7 cm and 3 cm
412 boxes (Table 5).

413

414 For other cavity-nesting species in the community, in both the 3 cm vs. 7 cm and 3 cm
415 vs. 5 cm vs. 7 cm designs, we found a clear preference of 3 cm boxes for both pied
416 flycatcher and great tit (Table 5). Few 3 cm boxes remained unoccupied (<4%), while
417 almost half of 5 cm boxes remained unoccupied (Table 2). Note that great tits did not
418 occupy any 5 cm boxes in 2019 (the only year including 5 cm boxes); while pied
419 flycatchers only occupied two 5 cm boxes (Table 2).

420

421 **Table 4.** Model statistics of the final model sets for nest predation in redstart
 422 (binomial GLMs), and nest-box occupancy in redstart, pied flycatcher and great tit
 423 (Cox regression). The number observations (n) is given but for the Cox regressions
 424 refers to the number of events (i.e. occupation of a nest box). However, for the design
 425 of 3 cm vs 7 cm 516 nest boxes were included in the analysis, and for 3 cm vs 5 cm vs
 426 7 cm was 2209 entries were considered. Note that the number of observations of the
 427 3 cm vs 5 cm vs 7 cm design is so big because the entrance size is a time-dependent
 428 variable, therefore, each day for each box has a unique entry.

Factor	Model parameters	n	Df	AICc	dAICc	Akaike weight	R ² (%)
<i>Nest predation</i>							
Redstart	Null	158	2	180.70	0.00	1.00	-
<i>Occupation 3 cm vs 7 cm</i>							
Redstart	Entrance size + Year + Site	165	5	1766.93	0.00	1.00	39.05
Pied flycatcher	Entrance size + strata(Year)	217	1	1446.08	0.00	1.00	86.43
Great tit	Entrance size	28	1	315.98	0.00	1.00	50.92
<i>Occupation 3 cm vs 5 cm vs 7 cm</i>							
Redstart	Entrance size	42	2	357.22	0.00	0.85	16.78
	Null	42	0	360.63	3.41	0.15	-
Pied flycatcher	Entrance size + Site	29	2	169.82	0.00	0.65	93.47
	Entrance size	29	1	171.07	1.24	0.35	92.62

429

430 *Natural cavities*

431 During the study period, we documented 10 natural redstart nests: eight in secondary
 432 cavities located on tree trunks (six in Scots pine trees, one in a birch and one in an
 433 aspen), and two on the ground (one within the root system of a fallen pine, the other

434 below moss of a small mound). The tree cavity nests were on average 3.4 ± 0.4 m
435 (range 1.7 m – 5 m) above ground, with cavity entrances having an average a
436 horizontal diameter of 5.2 ± 0.2 cm (range 4.8 cm – 6.1 cm), and vertical diameter of
437 5.4 ± 0.3 cm (range 4.4 cm – 6.5 cm); all of them roughly round and assumed to be
438 made by great spotted woodpeckers. Five cavity nests were checked during the chick
439 phase and none contained a cuckoo chick. The two ground nests were also checked
440 and one (the nest below the moss) had been parasitized. The cuckoo chick hatched
441 and evicted all redstart' chicks but was predated prior to the next nest inspection.

442

443 **Table 5.** Final cox regression models for nest-box occupancy in heterospecific
 444 communities. The exponentiated coefficient column describes how much more/less
 445 likely a nest-box in the specific group was occupied compared to the baseline group.
 446 For example, redstarts were 5 times more likely to occupy a 7 cm than a 3 cm box; or
 447 occupancy was 0.83 times as likely (or 17% less likely) in 2015 than in 2014.
 448 Parameter estimates for which the 95% CI of the exponentiated coefficient excludes
 449 one, are in bold. Given the low occupancy (n=6) of great tits for the 3 cm vs 5 cm vs 7
 450 cm design, we did not perform a cox regression on them. Sample sizes are given in
 451 Table 4.

Choice	Parameter	Coefficient	exp(Coefficient)	95% CI
3 cm vs 7 cm				
Redstart	Entrance size, 7 cm	1.61	5.00	3.08, 8.14
	Year, 2015	-0.19	0.83	0.55, 1.24
	Year, 2016	-0.43	0.65	0.43, 0.99
	Year, 2017	-1.02	0.36	0.23, 0.58
	Site, Pilpakangas	0.46	1.59	1.17, 2.16
Pied flycatcher	Entrance size, 7 cm	-20.10	<0.01	0, Inf
Great tit	Entrance size, 7 cm	-2.06	0.13	0.04, 0.38
3 cm vs 5 cm vs 7 cm				
Redstart	Entrance size, 5 cm	0.98	2.71	1.09, 6.73
	Entrance size, 7 cm	0.10	1.10	0.45, 2.68
Pied flycatcher	Entrance size, 5 or 7 cm	-4.53	0.01	0.002, 0.05
	Site, Pilpakangas	-0.76	0.47	0.22, 1.02

452 Note: baseline is the entrance diameter 3 cm and, where applicable, year 2014 and
 453 site Isokangas. For pied flycatcher in the 3 cm vs. 5 cm vs. 7 cm design, the 5 cm and 7
 454 cm entrance sizes were combined to facilitate model fitting (no flycatchers settled in
 455 7 cm boxes); while for the 3 cm vs. 7 cm design, the strong negative coefficient and
 456 practically zero exponentiated coefficient, but vast 95% CI, are due to all flycatchers
 457 settling into 3 cm boxes.

458

459 DISCUSSION

460

461 Redstarts showed a clear cavity entrance size preference for 5 cm over both 3 cm and
462 7 cm cavities. This preference proved to decrease (even eliminate) cuckoo parasitism
463 risk but had no consistent impact on nest predation risk in the early breeding phase.
464 In our data, not a single redstart nest within a 5 cm box was parasitized by cuckoos,
465 whereas 37.2% of nests in 7 cm boxes were parasitized. In contrast, nest predation
466 rate was even marginally higher in 5 cm than in 7 cm. Redstarts breeding in natural
467 cavities showed the same cavity use trend, with the occupied natural cavities having
468 approximately 5 cm diameter entrance size. Our results also show that great tits and
469 pied flycatchers prefer 3 cm nest boxes while redstarts appear to avoid them.

470

471 *Entrance size Choice and Parasitism Risk*

472

473 Our results show a clear impact of redstart nest cavity entrance size preference on
474 cuckoo parasitism rates. Cavity entrances of 5 cm and 3 cm diameter reduced or even
475 completely deterred cuckoo parasitism. An adaptation that prevents the parasite
476 gaining access to the nest would seem advantageous for the host (Hoover 2003b). For
477 example, prothonotary warbler (*Protonotaria citrea*) nests showed higher cowbird
478 parasitism rates in cavities with large entrance size (Hoover 2001). In our study, a
479 small entrance appears to represent a physical constraint for the cuckoo to lay her
480 eggs. Even when cuckoos parasitize redstart nests with 7 cm entrance cavities, most
481 of the cuckoo eggs are mislaid on the nest rim or even end up on the ground (Samaš

482 et al. 2016; Thomson et al 2016). If 7 cm entrance cavities cause cuckoos to mislay,
483 smaller cavity entrance sizes will pose a greater challenge and our data suggests may
484 even exclude cuckoo parasitism completely. Given that birds generally prefer cavity
485 entrances not much larger than themselves (Politi et al. 2009), cavity-nesting can
486 represent an advantage when a substantial size discrepancy between parasite and
487 host exists, as is the case for the redstart-cuckoo system (cuckoo about 10 times
488 larger than redstart: 86-143 gr vs 12-16 gr; British Trust For Ornithology 2020). There
489 are suggestions that a 5 cm entrance size could be large enough for the cuckoo chick
490 to fledge (Löhrl 1979), but smaller cavities may preclude cuckoo fledging. Therefore, it
491 would be maladaptive for cuckoos to parasitize nests with entrances smaller than 5
492 cm, which should drive host preference for smaller cavities.

493

494 *Entrance Size Choice and Predation Risk*

495

496 Predation rates of redstart nests did not consistently differ between 5 cm and 7 cm
497 boxes, suggesting the presence of a predator guild that can still enter 5 cm cavities
498 (e.g. squirrels, great-spotted woodpeckers and weasels, Wesolowski 2002; Baroni et
499 al. 2020). The smallest cavity size (3 cm) showed an absence of nest predation events,
500 suggesting these were inaccessible to the local nest predators. Smaller cavities should
501 therefore be favored by redstarts (like other passerines, Remm et al. 2006; Kozma
502 and Kroll, 2010; Fokkema et al. 2018), although they were mostly avoided. This
503 suggests that nest predation does not drive nest entrance size choice for redstarts,
504 even though nest predation is undoubtedly relevant (Martin 1993; Mezquida 2004;

505 Eggers et al. 2006; Buehler et al. 2017). Redstarts may use some other nest site
506 characteristics, as the depth of the cavity, to prevent predation (Koch et al. 2008;
507 Baroni et al. 2020).

508

509 Birds nesting in cavities show relatively high nest survival (Ricklefs 1969) and are
510 potentially be under weaker selection from nest predation for their nest-site choice
511 (Chalfoun and Schmidt 2012). Our estimates of nest predation rates (14.2% of nests)
512 partially supported this, but it only considered predation taking place during the *ca.* 7-
513 day laying period (after which the nests were protected), underestimating the
514 predation rates for the entire nesting period (*ca.* 35 days). However, we were focus
515 on nest-site choice, which is based on cues present in the territory at the time of
516 settlement, e.g. predator presence (Chalfoun and Schmidt 2012). Therefore, if
517 redstart cavity choice was mostly determined by predation pressure, we would expect
518 a clear preference for predator-safe 3 cm boxes. By preferring 5 cm entrance size,
519 redstarts prevent larger nest predators but remain susceptible to most of the
520 woodpeckers, small rodents and mustelids (see Wesolowski 2002). Further studies
521 are needed to confirm our suggestion about entrance size not contributing to reduce
522 nest predation in redstarts.

523

524 *Entrance Size Choice and Interspecific Competition*

525

526 Redstarts showed the lowest preference (occupancy rates) for the smallest cavities (3
527 cm boxes). Redstarts even preferred 7 cm over 3 cm entrance sizes, even when the

528 larger cavities offer no protection from nest predation or brood parasitism. This
529 apparently maladaptive behavior (in terms of costs of predation and parasitism risk)
530 may be linked to higher interspecific competition for small entrance sizes, which are
531 preferred by the other two species we followed. Even though our study excluded the
532 main population of great tits that initiated breeding before our boxes were available,
533 great tits and pied flycatchers occupied almost all 3 cm boxes available. This suggests
534 that competition for 3 cm boxes may be stronger than for 5 cm or 7 cm boxes.

535

536 Other species may occupy the smallest entrance size cavities first and leave redstarts
537 only with the option of having the mid-size ones. However, even when great tits (as
538 residents) can choose cavities first, redstarts still have access to nest sites with the
539 smallest entrance size, since early breeding individuals arrive before most pied
540 flycatchers (personal observation). Interspecific competition for cavities can,
541 however, also occur once a breeding pair has already occupied a nest-box. For
542 example, pied flycatchers are known to usurp cavities (Slagsvold 1975). During the
543 study, there were 4 cases where pied flycatchers stole nest-boxes from redstarts, and
544 only one case where the opposite happened. Previous experiences (e.g., having had a
545 nest usurped) may restrain redstart from using the smallest entrance size cavities.
546 Moreover, if redstarts choose the smallest entrance size, they may suffer severe
547 costs, even mortality from great tits (Ahola et al. 2007).

548

549

550 *Entrance Size Choice Based on Multiple Selective Forces*

551

552 When choosing nest-sites, redstarts seem to face the trade-off of at least two
553 different selective forces: brood parasitism and interspecific competition. After
554 considering the combined trade-offs, the 5 cm entrance cavity could be optimal to
555 prevent parasitism, while still avoiding competition costs. However, experimental
556 studies are needed to properly identify the causes for observed preference in cavity
557 entrance size. The role of interspecific competition could also be clarified by studying
558 entrance size choice in areas where pied flycatcher and great tits are rare (e.g.
559 northern Lapland).

560

561 Natural nests were predominantly found in woodpecker cavities of approximately 5
562 cm in diameter. Redstart preference for 5 cm entrance size nest-boxes, therefore,
563 mirrors apparent preference found in nature. However, without data on the
564 availability of different entrance sizes of natural cavities in the study area, we are
565 unable to denote true preference in natural cavities. Nevertheless, there is a full
566 community of cavity excavators in the study area, and other natural cavity creating
567 processes also occur. It thus seems unlikely that the strong entrance size preference
568 we observed is purely driven by familiarity with 5 cm entrance size cavities in the
569 area. We have also shown that other secondary cavity nesters in these forests (great
570 tits and pied flycatchers), which are not current cuckoo hosts but suffer nest
571 predation, prefer the smallest entrance hole diameter. Future efforts should focus on

572 natural cavity availability and follow natural redstart nests to determine preference
573 and cause of reproductive losses.

574

575 *Implications for Cuckoo-redstart Co-evolutionary Arms-race*

576

577 The most studied adaptive strategies in cuckoo-host systems are egg recognition and
578 ejection, or nest desertion (Pease and Grzybowski 1995; Krüger and Davies 2002;
579 Krüger 2011). However, the redstart is a species that shows limited use of these anti-
580 parasite adaptations (Rutilla et al. 2002; Avilés et al. 2005; Grim and Samaš 2016;
581 Samaš et al. 2016; Thomson et al. 2016; Tolvanen et al. 2017). Adaptive nest-site
582 choice that decreases brood parasitism risk could be a game-changer. Cavity-nesting
583 in redstarts results in high rates of mislaid cuckoo eggs (around 70%, Samaš et al.
584 2016; Thomson et al. 2016). The costs of brood parasitism for redstarts would be
585 much higher in the absence of these nest site limitations (e.g. open-cup nesting reed
586 warbler, 35% nest failure, Polačiková et al. 2009). Our results suggest that brood
587 parasitism may elicit the selection of specific nest features.

588

589 For cuckoo-host systems, parasitism costs are mostly calculated after nest-site choice
590 (i.e. from laying until fledging success, Avilés et al. 2005; Krüger 2011). This ignores
591 how frontline defenses could potentially contribute to reduce the costs of brood
592 parasitism. For example, given the low success of cuckoo egg-laying and hatching
593 (Rutilla et al. 2002; Samaš et al. 2016; Thomson et al. 2016), some authors have
594 suggested that redstarts should not evolve any defense strategy (Avilés et al. 2005,

595 see *evolutionary lag hypothesis* and *evolutionary equilibrium hypothesis*, Rothstein
596 1982; Rohwer and Spaw 1988; Davies 2000). Yet, our results are in line with a cavity
597 entrance size preference potentially being a defense strategy to brood parasitism.

598

599 With nest-site choice as an anti-brood parasite adaptation, redstarts could have
600 avoided the need to develop other strategies in later stages of the breeding cycle to
601 minimize the costs of brood parasitism. There has been speculation that redstarts
602 moved from ground-cavity to tree-cavity breeding due to cuckoo parasitism pressure
603 (Avilés et al. 2005), especially considering the higher brood parasitism rates in
604 ground-cavity nests (Rutilla 2004). For example, in Britain, populations of redstarts are
605 unparasitized and most nests are located in nest-boxes (usually designed for small
606 hole-nesting passerines, e.g. great tits). Considering the low preference for ground-
607 cavity nesting, it might be that in the past redstarts moved to tree-cavity nesting to
608 avoid brood parasitism (Rutilla 2004). Similarly, great tits have been considered a past
609 cuckoo hosts (based on rejection behavior of foreign eggs, Grim et al. 2014; Liang et
610 al. 2016) however, nowadays great tits tend to occupy nest-boxes with the smallest
611 entrance size (Charter et al. 2016), possibly precluding cuckoo laying. If redstarts start
612 breeding exclusively in cavities with small entrances the cuckoo gens parasitizing
613 them may disappear, as possibly happened to the British population. Therefore,
614 frontline strategies in parasite avoidance could have higher adaptive value for hosts
615 than previously thought, and more focus on them is needed.

616

617 In conclusion, redstarts preferred to breed in cavities with 5 cm entrance size that
618 may be the result of avoiding brood parasitism and interspecific competition.
619 Breeding in smaller entrance size cavities may give a significant edge for the redstart
620 against cuckoo parasitism, potentially explaining the current low effective parasitism
621 rates in this system. Whether this is enough to “win” the co-evolutionary arms-race
622 depends on the cuckoo’s ability to evolve laying strategies that enable successful
623 parasitism of small-entrance cavity nests. This also shows that further research on
624 such front-line strategies is needed to better understand brood parasite-host co-
625 evolution. Our study shows an example where multiple factors could have influenced
626 the currently observed behavior in animals. Therefore, considering multiple factors in
627 a single study is useful for understanding trait patterns in natural populations.

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637 **Data availability:** Analyses reported in this article can be reproduced using the data
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