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# Journal Pre-proof



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PII: S2213-2244(24)00075-0

DOI: <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijppaw.2024.100979>

Reference: IJPPAW 100979

To appear in: *International Journal for Parasitology: Parasites and Wildlife*

Received Date: 18 July 2024

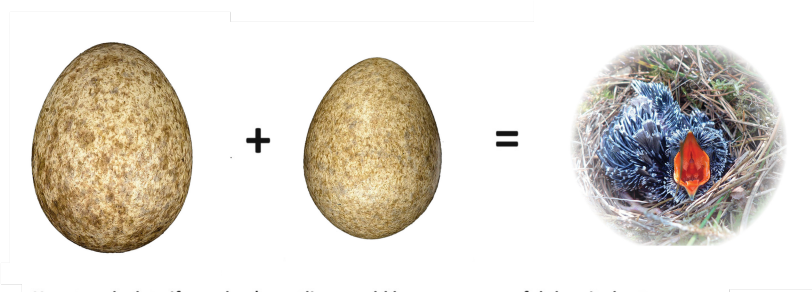
Revised Date: 24 August 2024

Accepted Date: 25 August 2024

Please cite this article as: Narushin, V.G., Romanov, M.N., Avni-Magen, N., Griffin, D.K., Brood parasitism and host-parasite relationships: Cuckoos adapt to reduce the time of hatching ahead of host nestlings by increasing egg thickness, *International Journal for Parasitology: Parasites and Wildlife*, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijppaw.2024.100979>.

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How to calculate if a cuckoo's nestling would be more successful than its host

Journal Pre-proof

**Brood parasitism and host-parasite relationships: Cuckoos adapt to reduce the time of hatching ahead of host nestlings by increasing egg thickness**

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**Abstract**

The phenomenon of cuckoos' brood parasitism is well known and can be investigated using applied mathematical techniques. Among adaptive features of this phenomenon are certain egg parameters that ensure their shortened incubation period ( $I$ ) and thus the successful survival of their offspring. In particular, the volume of a cuckoo egg is not less than, or exceeds, that of the host species, which should, in theory, increase  $I$ . Also, cuckoo eggs have thicker shell than that of nest hosts. Here, we analyzed the available geometric dimensions of eggs in 447 species and found an inverse correlation ( $-0.585$ ,  $p < 0.05$ ) between  $I$  and the shell thickness-to-egg surface area ratio ( $T/S$ ). A mathematical relationship was derived to calculate  $I$  depending on  $T/S$ . This premise was confirmed by comparative calculations using egg images of two parasitic species, common (*Cuculus canorus*) and plaintive cuckoo (*Cacomantis merulinus*) and their hosts: great reed warbler (*Acrocephalus arundinaceus*), European robin (*Erithacus rubecula*), rufescent prinia (*Prinia rufescens*), and common tailorbird (*Orthotomus sutorius*). An average calculated  $I$  value for cuckoo eggs was one day less than that for host eggs. Our findings unravel additional details of how cuckoos adapt to brood parasitism and specific host-parasite relationships.

**Key words:** avian eggs; cuckoo's brood parasitism; egg incubation period; shell thickness; egg surface area and volume; metabolic rate; host-parasite relationships

## 1. Introduction

The brood parasitism of cuckoos is a well-described concept present beyond the peer-reviewed zoological literature (e.g., Wang et al., 2016; Pradeep et al., 2016). “Cuckoo in the nest” is a commonly used idiom in popular culture, universally taken to mean an unwanted intruder in any given situation or location. By disguising their eggs as those of other birds, cuckoos devolve the efforts of parental care, i.e. hatching, feeding and raising of their offspring, to parents of other species. Moreover, hatched cuckoo chicks either eject eggs and/or chicks of the real (natural) progenies of their adoptive parents from the nest, or else make them starve by aggressively competing for food resources (Honza et al., 2007; Anderson et al., 2009; Schulze-Hagen et al., 2009; Moksnes et al., 2013; Canestrari et al., 2014). In turn, host species often evolve to recognize abandoned cuckoo eggs and thus can neutralize the worst of the parasitic effects (Davies and Brooke, 1988; Grim, 2008; Antonov et al., 2008; Feeney et al., 2014). Indeed, some host species are so successful in such identification that they eject almost 100% of parasitic cuckoo eggs (e.g., Yang et al., 2022). As part of the evolutionary “arms race”, the mother cuckoo does her best to make her eggs as similar as possible to those of the host species (Brooke and Davies, 1988; Stoddard and Stevens, 2010, 2011; see also Fig. 1).

It is nonetheless evolutionarily advantageous for the cuckoo egg to be slightly larger in size than that of its host (Fig. 1), instantly providing a weight advantage for the cuckoo hatchling (Alvarez, 1994, 2000; Moksnes and Røskoft, 1995; Krüger and Davies, 2004). At the same time, it is also evolutionarily advantageous to be incubated faster than its egg neighbors in the nest. Given that there is a direct relationship between the incubation time and the egg weight ( $W$ ) or size (Rahn and Ar, 1974; Ar and Rahn, 1978; Deeming et al., 2006) and thus a larger egg should spend more time till the hatch, a paradox exists. That is, it is both evolutionarily advantageous and disadvantageous for cuckoos to have larger eggs than that of their hosts. In nature cuckoo chicks do indeed hatch ahead of their nestmates (Gill, 1980; Briskie and Sealy, 1990; Strausberger, 1998; Birkhead et al., 2011; Igc et al., 2015; Cao et al.,

2018). Many studies have been devoted to uncovering the causes for this phenomenon, with its most studied and popular prerequisite being accelerated cuckoo chick embryo development in an already formed but not yet laid egg, i.e. located in the mother cuckoo's body (Liversidge, 1961; Perrins, 1967; Birkhead et al., 2011). Applied mathematical modelling approaches have also been used to explore the brood parasitism phenomenon (e.g., Wang et al., 2016; Pradeep et al., 2016).

Such an adaptive feature of brood parasitism in cuckoos, i.e., the egg incubation beginning while still in the mother's body, is crucial for reducing  $I$  in the host nest; however, it is not always feasible in practice. Indeed, the cuckoo has to adapt to the egg's adoptive parents, synchronizing the laying of its eggs with those already in the nest (e.g., Moskàt et al., 2006). Such a synchronization requires the cuckoo to make a prompt decision to lay an egg in an "emergency", which does not always include a sufficiently long incubation of the egg inside the mother's body.

In this respect, other (alternative) prerequisites should be considered to explain the possible reasons for the reduction in  $I$  for eggs of brood parasite species. One possibility in this regard involves adaptive changes in the structure of the yolk, as it is the main source of vital substances, including energy reserves (Török et al., 2004; Igic et al., 2015; Cao et al., 2018). Geltsch et al. (2016) provided evidence that the explanation may be relatively simple in that the majority of cuckoo eggs are laid before host incubation begins; however, this may only be a contributory factor, among several others.

In studies to assess the differences between the eggs of brood parasites and their hosts, many researchers have noted that the shell thickness ( $T$ ) of the former is somewhat greater than that of the latter (Spaw and Rohwer, 1987; Brooker and Brooker, 1991; Antonov et al., 2006; Pujol and Mermoz, 2011; Igic et al., 2011, 2017; Holleley et al., 2022). Moreover, such an excess in  $T$  is observed even when the eggs of both species are of the same size. It would seem, given the fierce struggle for the survival of parasitic species, the most likely hypothesis of a thicker shell of parasite eggs is protection from damage to such an egg by the hosts trying to break, or at least puncture, it (Spaw and Rohwer, 1987; López et al., 2023) leading to

86 proposition of the '*puncture resistance hypothesis*' (e.g., Holleley et al., 2022). A number of authors  
87 have, however, suggested that, to a greater extent, the thicker shells of brood parasites are associated not  
88 with protection from damage to the eggs by the beak of the nest owners, but in order to reduce risk of  
89 damage to the eggs "when eggs are dropped into nests" (Holleley et al., 2022), or "to protect the parasite's  
90 egg from damage if the nest is multiply parasitized" (Brooker and Brooker, 1991). Iqbal et al. (2017)  
91 suggested that a thicker shell enables developing embryos to consume more calcium and other minerals  
92 contained in its structure. However, as a result of the research, this version was rejected due to the fact  
93 that the decalcification of the shell in cuckoo eggs was no different from the eggs of the hosts.

94 Another hypothesis was put forward by Ian Wyllie (1981) suggesting that, either before or during  
95 incubation, a cuckoo's thick eggshell may help to prevent heat loss, which could hasten the development  
96 of the embryo. Yang et al. (2018) agreed with Wyllie's assumption by stating that "the unusually thick-  
97 shelled eggs laid by parasitic cuckoos retain more heat for the developing embryo and thus facilitate early  
98 hatching." To test this supposition, Yang et al. (2018) measured shell temperature during incubation of  
99 host and cuckoos' eggs. As a result, the authors confirmed that the shell temperature of cuckoo eggs was  
100 higher than that of host eggs.

101 Confirmation of this hypothesis was also found in studies conducted on poultry eggs. For example,  
102 Lourens et al. (2007) demonstrated that higher shell temperatures in chicken eggs decreased hatch time.  
103 In a study conducted by Yamak et al. (2016) when incubating eggs of chukar partridge (*Alectoris chukar*),  
104 the authors, although not finding significant differences in  $I$ , noted, however, that "thin-shelled eggs had  
105 a relatively longer hatching period than medium- and thick-shelled eggs." Undoubtedly, this premise  
106 requires a more thorough analysis by involving in research as many eggs of different species as possible.

107 In a series of our previous studies (Narushin et al., 2024a,b,c), we demonstrated that  $I$  of eggs in various  
108 bird species is associated not only with their  $W$  or volume ( $V$ ), but also with the ratio of different  
109 geometric parameters. For example, this can be the egg surface area-to-volume ratio ( $S/V$ ), the value of



110 which can conditionally characterize the metabolism of the developing embryo. It is unlikely that the  $S/V$   
111 value can be used in relation to the shortened  $I$  of cuckoo eggs. Most often, these eggs either correspond  
112 to, or exceed, the  $S$  and  $V$  values of the host eggs. According to our results (Narushin et al., 2024b), the  
113 larger the egg size, the lower the  $S/V$  value and, therefore, the longer  $I$ . It is possible that other parameters,  
114 especially the relationships between these indicators, also influence the period of incubation  
115 development.

116 Considering the promising direction of research into the possible effect of  $T$  on  $I$ , a more thorough study  
117 of this relationship, taking into account other egg characteristics, could be of special interest. In  
118 particular, this can include the ratio of  $T$  with other egg parameters. Many works have shown sufficient  
119 effectiveness of this relationship. For instance, the ratios of  $T^2/W$  (Juang et al., 2017) or  $T/R$  (where  $R$  is  
120 the egg curvature radius) or some mathematically transformed set of geometric dimensions (Macleod et  
121 al., 2006; Ma et al., 2008; Zhang et al., 2017) can characterize the shell strength traits.

122 The objective of this study, therefore, was to assess the relationship between the duration of incubation  
123 of bird eggs depending on the ratio of their morphological parameters. This was followed by  
124 substantiation of their possible effect on the shortened development time of the cuckoo embryo and/or  
125 other parasitic species.

## 127 **2. Material and methods**

128 The experimental work was carried out in two stages. Initially, we assessed the possibility of predicting  
129 the value of  $I$  depending on the geometric and/or physical egg parameters of wild bird species.  
130 Methodologically, work on measuring parameters such as shell thickness ( $T$ ) and its weight ( $W_s$ ) requires  
131 destructive approaches, which is unacceptable in view of the existing wildlife protection regulations. In  
132 this regard, we decided to use published data, with the most extensive database of oomorphological

133 information being contained in the reference book by Schönwetter (1960–1992). Particularly important  
 134 is the fact that Schönwetter (1960–1992), in addition to oomorphological parameters, also placed many  
 135 images of bird eggs. This enabled to carry out the necessary geometric measurements of the required  
 136 parameters as follows: the egg's length ( $L$ ), maximum breadth ( $B$ ), diameter ( $D_p$ ) at the point where the  
 137 pointed end is  $L/4$  away from the egg's center, and the distance  $w$  that the B axis is moved from the egg's  
 138 center to the point where the egg is  $L/2$  away (Narushin et al., 2021, 2023). The measured values allowed  
 139 us to calculate the volume ( $V$ ) and surface area ( $S$ ) of the eggs using the formulae from Narushin et al.  
 140 (2024d):

$$V = \frac{\pi}{128} \left[ \left( 8.917 - 29.998 \frac{w}{L} \right) \left( \frac{D_p}{B} \right)^2 + \left( 2.459 + 88.647 \frac{w}{L} \right) \frac{D_p}{B} - 36.26 \frac{w}{L} + 12.453 \right] LB^2 \quad (1)$$

$$S = \pi BL \left( 0.389 + 0.188 \frac{B}{L} - 0.063 \frac{w}{L} + 0.365 \frac{D_p}{B} + 0.114 \frac{D_p}{L} - 0.168 \frac{w}{L} \cdot \frac{B}{L} + 0.46 \frac{w}{L} \cdot \frac{D_p}{B} + 0.484 \frac{w}{L} \cdot \frac{D_p}{L} \right) \quad (2)$$

146 The procedure for measuring images of bird eggs was described in detail by us in the results of our  
 147 previous studies (Narushin et al., 2024a,b). Briefly, the egg image was measured in pixels using an  
 148 electronic ruler in Microsoft Office Picture Manager. The pixel measurements were then converted to  
 149 cm according to the metric egg length data given in the tables of Schönwetter (1960–1992).

150 In addition to geometric dimensions, data from Schönwetter (1960–1992) on egg weight ( $W$ ), shell  
 151 thickness ( $T$ ) and shell weight ( $W_s$ ) were used in the present analysis.

152 Information on  $I$  values was gathered from publicly accessible ornithological websites located online  
 153 (e.g., Avibase 2003, Celebrate Urban Birds 2016, Animal Diversity Web 2020, Project FeederWatch

2021, eBird 2023, Macaulay Library 2023, Bird Academy 2024, Birds of the World 2024, Great Backyard Bird Count 2024, NestWatch 2024).

Schönwetter included pictures of 434 eggs from 433 bird species in his oological reference book (1960–1992). The relatively narrow egg weight ( $W$ ) range of eggs with available images—from 1 to 100 g—was a limitation of Schönwetter’s investigation, despite the vast diversity of data he was able to gather. We were missing data on birds laying eggs with larger  $W$  values, which would have allowed for a more thorough examination. In these cases, we relied on photos of these eggs that we retrieved from other sources, such as the digitized collection of images of bird eggs from the Natural History Collections of the Museum Wiesbaden (Wikimedia Commons, 2014), while using the numerical values of these eggs from the reference book by Schönwetter (1960–1992). This resulted in 454 eggs altogether, representing 447 bird species, 95 families, and 13 orders.

Correlation analysis made it possible to evaluate the most significant relationships between the  $I$  value depending on combinations of  $T$  and other parameters of avian eggs. The data that showed the closest correlation were approximated by formulae for calculating  $I$ .

The task of the second research stage was to practically test the equations for calculating  $I$  obtained in the first stage. For these purposes, in the available scientific publications, we selected photographs of cuckoo eggs along with host eggs, allowing us to measure their geometric parameters. To conduct a comparative analysis, we used images of eggs of the following parasitic species and their hosts from the respective sources:

1. Common cuckoo (*Cuculus canorus*) eggs were compared with great reed warbler (*Acrocephalus arundinaceus*) eggs depicted by Moskàt et al. (2009, 2012) and Bán et al. (2011).
2. Common cuckoo (*Cuculus canorus*) eggs were compared with European robin (*Erithacus rubecula*) eggs as reported by Bán et al. (2011).

- 177 3. Plaintive cuckoo (*Cacomantis merulinus*) eggs were compared with rufescent prinia (*Prinia*  
178 *rufescens*) eggs presented by Liang et al. (2017) and Yang et al. (2021).
- 179 4. Plaintive cuckoo (*Cacomantis merulinus*) eggs were compared with those of the common tailorbird  
180 (*Orthotomus sutorius*) reported by Yang et al. (2021).

181 To convert pixels into cm, we used the reference of the host egg to its real size, presented either by the  
182 authors of the respective publication, or, in the absence of such data, in the handbook by Schönwetter  
183 (1960–1992) or in another source. Information about  $T$  of both types of eggs was taken from the same  
184 sources. This approach made it possible to maintain the proportions between specific eggs of the cuckoo  
185 and the hosts when converting them into metric measurement systems.

186 A number of statistical and mathematical procedures, which can be found in the STATISTICA 5.5  
187 program (StatSoft, Inc./TIBCO, Palo Alto, CA, USA) and applications for the Microsoft Excel program,  
188 were utilized to process the data. Here, the Pearson correlation coefficient ( $R$ ) and regression models  
189 employing the coefficient of determination ( $R^2$ ) were used to evaluate the validity of the found  
190 associations, with significance being confirmed at the  $p < 0.05$  level.

### 192 **3. Results and discussion**

#### 193 *3.1. Effects of $T$ on $I$ of bird eggs*

194 When performing correlation analysis of various egg traits, our main attention was focused on the  
195 relationship between egg parameters that indirectly characterize certain physiological, biological and/or  
196 physical processes that influence embryonic development. As expected, the strongest relationship was  
197 observed between the incubation period ( $I$ ) and the  $S/V$  ratio, which indirectly characterizes the  
198 metabolism level of the developing embryo (Narushin et al. 2024a,b). Despite the fact that the present  
199 research used a different database of egg images from the reference book by Schönwetter (1960–1992)

than that from Museum Wiesbaden images (Wikimedia Commons, 2014) in the previous study (Narushin et al. 2024b), the nature of the relationship between  $I$  and  $S/V$  (Fig. 2) and the resultant calculation formula echoed the outcome produced by Narushin et al. (2024b).

In particular, according to Narushin et al. (2024b) who used the Museum Wiesbaden images (Wikimedia Commons, 2014):

$$I = 32.638 \left( \frac{S}{V} \right)^{-0.635}, \quad (3)$$

with  $R^2 = 0.725$  ( $p < 0.05$ ),

where  $I$  is measured in days,  $S$  in  $\text{cm}^2$ , and  $V$  in  $\text{cm}^3$ .

The current investigation based on the egg images from the reference book by Schönwetter (1960–1992) resulted in the following similar mathematical dependence (shown as a yellow line in Fig. 2):

$$I = 31.071 \left( \frac{S}{V} \right)^{-0.598}, \quad (4)$$

with  $R^2 = 0.726$  ( $p < 0.05$ ).

To create a single mathematical calculation algorithm, we decided to combine both above equations (Eqns 3 and 4). As a result, a universal dependence was obtained, the practical use of which did not affect the decrease in the accuracy of the calculations, both current and previous (Narushin et al. 2024b) data:

$$I = 32 \left( \frac{S}{V} \right)^{-0.6} \quad (5)$$

with  $R^2 = 0.726$  ( $p < 0.05$ ).

Furthermore, we paid the closest attention to the analysis of ratios containing  $T$  and revealed their inverse relationship with the value of  $I$ , i.e., reducing  $I$  when increasing  $T$ . Among these, we selected the ratios of  $T/S$  ( $R = -0.585$ ,  $p < 0.05$ ) and  $T/V$  ( $R = -0.565$ ,  $p < 0.05$ ) and the geometric mean between the main dimensional characteristics of the egg, i.e.,  $T/(SV)^{0.5}$  ( $R = -0.579$ ,  $p < 0.05$ ). The highest correlation was noted between  $I$  and  $T/S$  (Fig. 3), based on of which the following calculation formula was derived:

$$I = 99 \left( \frac{T}{S} \right)^{-0.91} \quad (6)$$

with  $R^2 = 0.602$  ( $p < 0.05$ ),

where  $I$  is measured in days,  $S$  in  $\text{cm}^2$ , and  $T$  in  $\mu\text{m}$ .

Considering the hypothesis suggested by Yang et al. (2018) to explain the reasons for thicker shells in eggs of cuckoos and/or other parasitic species, i.e., as a way to keep more heat inside the egg, it can be assumed that the  $T/S$  index characterizes the physical feature of the egg in retaining heat along its outer surface.

### 3.2. Comparative analysis of the parameters of cuckoo eggs and their hosts

240 Using the  $T$  values taken from Schönwetter (1960–1992) and after averaging the results presented there,  
241 this parameter equaled 0.098 and 0.08 mm for the shells of two parasitic species, common cuckoo  
242 (*Cuculus canorus*) plaintive cuckoo (*Cacomantis merulinus*), respectively. Among four host species, it  
243 was equal to 0.082 mm in the great reed warbler (*Acrocephalus arundinaceus*), being almost completely  
244 consistent with the values given by Picman and Honza (2020); 0.08 mm in the European robin (*Erithacus*  
245 *rubecula*); 0.063 mm in the rufescent prinia (*Prinia rufescens*); and 0.0563 mm in the common tailorbird  
246 (*Orthotomus sutorius*). The results of the calculation of the averaged main parameters pertaining to the  
247 compared species, their eggs and incubation time are given in Table 1.

248  
249 The limited sampling of available images of cuckoo eggs and hosts that would allow for a full  
250 comparative analysis prevented us from unambiguously judging the significance of the differences  
251 between a number of parameters and their relationships. However, the following general trends can be  
252 observed for all parasite–host pairs of the species considered:

- 253 1. The average value of  $V$ , although in some cases not by much, still exceeded that of the hosts.
- 254 2. The  $S/V$  ratio in cuckoo eggs was lower than that in host eggs, which, according to our previous  
255 studies (Narushin et al., 2024b), should lead to an increase in incubation time in comparison with  
256 host eggs.
- 257 3. The  $T/S$  ratio of cuckoo eggs was greater than that of hosts, despite the fact that the  $S$  value was  
258 greater than that of hosts. That is, this effect occurred due to the thicker shell of cuckoo eggs.
- 259 4. The calculated value of  $I$  for cuckoo eggs was approximately 0.5 to 1.5 days less than that for host  
260 eggs.

261 Thus, there seems to be a certain fine line in the mother cuckoo’s ability to form the “correct” egg, from  
262 the viewpoint of nest parasitism. A skew in the egg’s characteristics, either in one direction or the other,  
263 is undesirable, as it calls into question the survival of her offspring. It is inconceivable that the cuckoo

264 subjects its actions to complex mathematical calculations and analyses that help her form an egg with  
 265 clearly defined parameters suitable for a specific host nest. However, we do believe that most likely her  
 266 reproductive behavior is instinctively “guided” by the evolutionarily fixed experience of many past  
 267 generations adapted to nest parasitism. Since we do not have such an ability to judge this directly, herein  
 268 are our efforts to follow a similar analytical path using strict mathematical logic.

### 269 3.3. *Evolutionary adaptation or a clear mathematical calculation?*

270  
 271 In addition to achieving similarity in the shell pigmentation with the eggs of the owners of the nest, the  
 272 mother cuckoo faces another dilemma: how to shape the egg in such a way that it is the same size or  
 273 slightly larger in size than that of the hosts. This thereby provides the cuckoo with an evolutionary  
 274 advantage in nestling weight after hatching, and, at the same time, reduces the period of its incubation.  
 275 Considering this problem from a mathematical point of view, we have the value of  $I$ , i.e., the standard  
 276 incubation time of eggs, depending on their size, or rather, on the  $S/V$  ratio, which indirectly characterizes  
 277 embryonic metabolism (Narushin et al., 2024b). The calculation of the standard value of  $I$  can be done  
 278 according to formula (5). For the convenience of further analysis, we will slightly transform Eqn5,  
 279 expressing the value of  $S$  via  $V$ . Undoubtedly, the accuracy of the calculation will be somewhat reduced,  
 280 however, this fact will not affect the reliability of consequent mathematical logic.

281 In our previous work (Narushin et al., 2024d), we derived a universal relationship between  $S$  and  $V$  that  
 282 is characteristic of an egg of any shape found in nature:

$$284 \quad S = \left[ 6.438 - 2.666 \frac{B}{L} + 1.867 \frac{w}{L} - 0.44 \frac{D_p}{B} - 0.134 \frac{D_p}{L} - 0.683 \frac{B}{L} \cdot \frac{w}{L} - 2.578 \frac{w}{L} \cdot \frac{D_p}{B} + 1.29 \frac{w}{L} \cdot \frac{D_p}{L} + 1.369 \left( \frac{B}{L} \right)^2 + 0.336 \left( \frac{w}{L} \right)^2 + 0.233 \left( \frac{D_p}{B} \right)^2 \right] V^{\frac{2}{3}}$$

285 (7)



286

287 where  $B$  is the egg's breadth,  $L$  is its length,  $w$  is the distance that the  $B$  axis is moved away from the egg's  
 288 center to the point  $L/2$ , and  $D_p$  is diameter at the point where the pointed end is  $L/4$  away.

289 Simplifying Eqn7 and substituting the following average values of the respective coefficients:  $B/L =$   
 290  $0.736$ ;  $w/L = 0.05$ ;  $D_p/B = 0.794$ , obtained as a result of our measurements of bird egg images. Then,  
 291 Eqn7 will take the following form:

292

$$293 \quad S = 4.941V^{\frac{2}{3}}. \quad (8)$$

294

295 Taking into account the resultant formula (8), Eqn5 is transformed into the following:

296

$$297 \quad I = 12.27V^{0.2}, \quad (9)$$

298 where  $I$  is measured in days, and  $V$  in  $\text{cm}^3$ .

299

300 In a similar way, we transform another dependence to predict the  $I$  value, according to formula (6):

301

$$302 \quad I = 423.65T^{-0.91}V^{0.61}, \quad (10)$$

303 where  $T$  is measured in  $\mu\text{m}$ .

304

305 Conventionally, Eqns 9 and 10 reflect the standard dependence of  $I$  relevant to the size ( $V$ ) and  $T$  of a  
 306 specific egg, in particular, within the framework of our conditions, the host egg.

307 Now considering the following “endeavor” of the mother cuckoo:

308 (i) Assume that she wants to reduce the value of  $I$  by at least 1 day.

309 (ii) In this case, the size (volume) of her egg should be greater than the volume of the host egg ( $V$ ). Let  
 310 us express this condition in such a way that the volume of a cuckoo egg is equal to  $K_V V$ , where  $K_V$  is  
 311 a certain coefficient whose value is greater than 1.

312 (iii) The only way for the cuckoo to achieve the above conditions is to increase the shell thickness  
 313 in comparison with the shell thickness ( $T$ ) of the host eggs. Again, this condition can be written  
 314 mathematically as the product of  $T$  by a certain coefficient  $K_T$ , the value of which is also greater than  
 315 1.

316 Mathematically, the cuckoo’s “endeavor” to shorten  $I$  can be expressed by the following relationship  
 317 based on Eqn10:

$$319 \quad I - 1 = 423.65(K_T T)^{-0.91}(K_V V)^{0.61} \quad (11)$$

320  
 321 The difference and some mathematical transformations of formulae (10) and (11) allows us to obtain the  
 322 relationship between the coefficients  $K_T$  and  $K_V$ :

$$324 \quad K_T = \left(1 - 0.00236T^{0.91}V^{-0.61}\right)^{-1.1} K_V^{0.67} \quad (12)$$

325  
 326 Again, for simplicity of analyzing formula (12), we express the  $T$  value in terms of  $V$  using the calculation  
 327 data for egg images from the oological reference book by Schönwetter (1960–1992):

$$T = 51.06V^{0.45}, \quad (13)$$

with  $R^2 = 0.970$  ( $p < 0.05$ ),

where  $T$  is measured in  $\mu\text{m}$ , and  $V$  in  $\text{cm}^3$ .

Substituting Eqn13 into formula (12), we obtain:

$$K_T = (1 - 0.085V^{-0.2})^{-1.1} K_V^{0.67}. \quad (14)$$

Then, dependence (14) can be presented graphically as shown in Fig. 4 where, for example, we chose three options for  $V$ : 1, 2, and 3  $\text{cm}^3$ .

Despite some possible errors in the dependence of the coefficients  $K_T$  and  $K_V$  caused by the assumptions we made in the prediction calculations of the values  $S$  (Eqn8),  $I$  (Eqn10) and  $T$  (Eqn13), it can be unequivocally stated that in order to shorten the incubation time  $I$ , the cuckoo needs to lay eggs with thicker shells. In our example, a reduction in the  $I$  value by 1 day, even when laying an egg with the same  $V$  value as that of the hosts of the nest, requires an increase in  $T$  by 8-10% depending on the size of the egg ( $V$ ). At the same time, the analysis of Eqn14 and Fig. 4 suggests that changing  $V$  by 2- or even 3-fold did not significantly change the numerical values of  $K_T$  relative to the values of  $K_V$ . All three lines of functional relationship practically coincide (Fig. 4). In this case, the coefficient of  $T$  increase ( $K_T$ ) is approximately proportional to the coefficient of  $V$  increase ( $K_V$ ) to the power of  $2/3$ . This relationship warrants that the cuckoo nestling hatching 1 day earlier than the chick (or chicks) of the nest owners.

350 Considering that our comparative calculations of the  $I$  value for cuckoo eggs and their hosts (section  
 351 “*Comparative analysis of the parameters of cuckoo eggs and their hosts*”) demonstrated an average 1  
 352 day difference in  $I$ , we can test the adequacy of the derived dependence (14) for the coefficients  $K_T$  on  
 353  $K_V$ . Taking, for example, the data on the calculation for eggs of the common cuckoo (*Cuculus canorus*)  
 354 and its host, the great reed warbler (*Acrocephalus arundinaceus*), due to the greater representativeness  
 355 of this sample, numbering 21 eggs in each species. The average  $V$  value of great reed warbler eggs,  
 356 according to our measurements, was  $3.0 \text{ cm}^3$ , and that of the common cuckoo was  $3.3 \text{ cm}^3$ , or 1.1 times  
 357 more, i.e., the value of  $K_V = 1.1$ . The  $T$  value for the great reed warbler was taken to be  $82 \text{ }\mu\text{m}$ , and that  
 358 for the common cuckoo  $96 \text{ }\mu\text{m}$  (Schönwetter, 1960–1992). Thus, the  $K_T$  value was 1.17. Recalculation  
 359 of the theoretical value of  $K_T$  according to Eqn14 gave a similar result  $K_T = 1.15$ . Such ratios of  
 360 parameters led to the fact that the estimated incubation time of common cuckoo eggs was 13.6 days,  
 361 while that of great reed warbler was 15 days.

#### 363 3.4. Calculation of $I$ for avian eggs

364 Thus, based on both previous (Narushin et al., 2024a,b) and current studies, it can be argued that the  
 365 duration of incubation of bird eggs depends on two indices expressed by the ratio  $S/V$  and  $T/S$ . Our natural  
 366 instinct was to combine the results of current and previous calculations, proposing a single, most adequate  
 367 dependence that enables to predict the  $I$  value most accurately. As a result of approximation of the  
 368 obtained measurements and/or calculations of the values of  $V$ ,  $S$  and  $T$ , we derived the following  
 369 relationship:

$$371 \quad I = 33.83 \left( \frac{S}{V} \right)^{-0.56} \cdot \left( \frac{T}{S} \right)^{-0.06} \quad (15)$$

372 with  $R^2 = 0.727$  ( $p < 0.05$ ),

373 in which  $I$  is measured in days,  $S$  in  $\text{cm}^2$ ,  $V$  in  $\text{cm}^3$ , and  $T$  in  $\mu\text{m}$ .

374  
375 The results of the present research and subsequent theoretical analysis suggested that  $T$  can have a  
376 significant impact on the duration of incubation. To a greater extent, the value of  $I$  is determined not even  
377 by  $T$ , but by the  $T/S$  ratio. The higher the value of this ratio, the less time the bird spends incubating  
378 future chicks. The  $T/S$  index seems to have multiple effects on the bird's egg. In addition to the effect on  
379  $I$ ,  $T/S$  indirectly expresses the strength properties of the shell, whereas many researchers prefer to use in  
380 this ratio a complex of geometric dimensions of the egg instead of just the  $S$  value (Macleod et al., 2006;  
381 Ma et al., 2008; Zhang et al., 2017). The mother cuckoo seems to have adapted to skillfully use the  $T/S$   
382 indicator with maximum efficiency, increasing its value in her eggs. A stronger shell prevents mechanical  
383 damage to the egg when laid in another nest (Holleley et al., 2022), or in case of possible aggression  
384 from the hosts (Spaw and Rohwer, 1987; López et al., 2023). At the same time, early hatching makes it  
385 possible for the cuckoo nestling to eliminate competition from the host chicks by force. Namely, in view  
386 of the use of force by the cuckoo nestling to neutralize competitors, the mother cuckoo is possibly  
387 inclined to increase the  $T/S$  ratio not at the expense of reducing  $S$ , which affects the size of the egg, but  
388 by increasing  $T$ . After all, to use a force ejection action, the cuckoo chick should be no smaller than, and,  
389 if possible, somewhat larger in size than other host nestlings.

390 As part of our measurements and further calculations (Table 1), we discovered that  $I$  for eggs of two  
391 cuckoo species, common cuckoo (*Cuculus canorus*) and plaintive cuckoo (*Cacomantis merulinus*), was  
392 0.5 to 1.5 days less than that for eggs of four hosts: great reed warbler (*Acrocephalus arundinaceus*),  
393 European robin (*Erithacus rubecula*), rufescent prinia (*Prinia rufescens*), and common tailorbird  
394 (*Orthotomus sutorius*).

395

396 **4. Conclusions**

397 Collectively, the following suggestions can be drawn from the results of our research. Firstly, the  $T/S$   
398 index, reflecting the ratio of eggshell thickness to its surface area, is an indirect indicator of the duration  
399 of incubation of bird eggs. At the same time, an increase in this indicator leads to a decrease in hatching  
400 time. Secondly, based on geometric measurements of egg images from 447 species and information on  
401 the value of  $T$  from the oological reference book by Schönwetter (1960–1992), we derived an empirical  
402 relationship that enabled to calculate the value of  $I$  (Eqn6). Thirdly, through a comparative analysis of  
403 cuckoo eggs and their hosts, we confirmed the hypothesis that  $I$  of cuckoo eggs is reduced due to the  
404 greater  $T/S$  value. Most likely, the adaptive ability of cuckoos somehow to adjust this indicator is only  
405 one on the list of “tricks” used by cuckoos to hatch their offspring earlier. Fourthly, considering the  
406 presence of a few indicators based on the parameters of a bird's egg to predict the  $I$  value, we proposed  
407 an empirical calculated dependence of  $I$  on the ratios  $S/V$  and  $T/S$  (Eqn15). Our findings provide more  
408 insight into the ways in which cuckoos adapt to specific brood parasitism and host-parasite relationships.

409

410 *Ethical aspects*

411 Importantly, due to the currently existing protection and research ethics restrictions aimed to prevent  
412 human impact on wildlife, we did not directly examine the nests and eggs of wild avian species in the  
413 natural conditions. Instead, we used the previously published data available in the ornithological  
414 literature and web resources.

415 **CRedit authorship contribution statement**

416 **V.G. Narushin:** Conceptualization, Methodology, Investigation, Visualization, Project administration,  
417 Writing – original draft, Writing – review & editing. **M.N. Romanov:** Visualization, Project

administration, Writing – original draft, Writing – review & editing. **N. Avni-Magen:** Writing – review & editing. **D.K. Griffin:** Validation, Visualization, Supervision, Writing – review & editing.

### Declaration of competing interest

Authors declare that they have no competing interests.

### Acknowledgments

The skilled technical assistance of Olga M. Romanova in preparing images for the Graphical Abstract is kindly appreciated.

**Funding:** The authors declare that there is no funding associated with the work featured in this article.

**Data and materials availability:** All data are available in the main text.

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**Table 1.** Values of the main egg parameters and their incubation periods for four pairwise cuckoo–host species comparisons.

Parameters	Cuckoo	Host
Comparison 1	Common cuckoo ( <i>Cuculus canorus</i> ) $n = 21$	Great reed warbler ( <i>Acrocephalus arundinaceus</i> ) $n = 21$
Egg volume, $V$ (cm <sup>3</sup> )	3.3	3.0
Egg surface area, $S$ (cm <sup>2</sup> )	10.9	10.3
$S/V$ (cm <sup>2</sup> /cm <sup>3</sup> )	3.3 <sup>a</sup>	3.5 <sup>a</sup>
$T/S$ (μm/cm <sup>2</sup> )	8.9 <sup>a</sup>	8.0 <sup>a</sup>
Estimated incubation period according to Eqn6, $I$ (days)	13.6 <sup>a</sup>	15.0 <sup>a</sup>
Standard average incubation period for host eggs according to Planet of Birds (2011)		14
Comparison 2	Common cuckoo ( <i>Cuculus canorus</i> ) $n = 1$	European robin ( <i>Erithacus rubecula</i> ) $n = 1$
Egg volume, $V$ (cm <sup>3</sup> )	2.4	2.3
Egg surface area, $S$ (cm <sup>2</sup> )	8.8	8.5
$S/V$ (cm <sup>2</sup> /cm <sup>3</sup> )	3.7	3.7



$T/S$ ( $\mu\text{m}/\text{cm}^2$ )	10.2	9.4
Estimated incubation period according to Eqn6, $I$ (days)	12.0	12.9
Standard average incubation period for host eggs according to Bouglouan (2024)		13

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Comparison 3	Plaintive cuckoo ( <i>Cacomantis merulinus</i> ) $n = 4$	Rufescent prinia ( <i>Prinia rufescens</i> ) $n = 8$
Egg volume, $V$ ( $\text{cm}^3$ )	1.7 <sup>a</sup>	1.3 <sup>a</sup>
Egg surface area, $S$ ( $\text{cm}^2$ )	7.0 <sup>a</sup>	5.8 <sup>a</sup>
$S/V$ ( $\text{cm}^2/\text{cm}^3$ )	4.1 <sup>a</sup>	4.6 <sup>a</sup>
$T/S$ ( $\mu\text{m}/\text{cm}^2$ )	11.4	10.9
Estimated incubation period according to Eqn6, $I$ (days)	10.8	11.3
Standard average incubation period for host eggs according to Krishnan (2021)		12

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Comparison 4	Plaintive cuckoo ( <i>Cacomantis merulinus</i> ) $n = 2$	Common tailorbird ( <i>Orthotomus sutorius</i> ) $n = 2$
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Egg volume, $V$ (cm <sup>3</sup> )	1.6	1.1
Egg surface area, $S$ (cm <sup>2</sup> )	6.7	5.3
$S/V$ (cm <sup>2</sup> /cm <sup>3</sup> )	4.3	4.8
$T/S$ (μm/cm <sup>2</sup> )	12.0	10.7
Estimated incubation period according to Eqn6, $I$ (days)	10.3	11.5
Standard average incubation period for host eggs according to Chan (2012)		12

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$n$  is the quantity of egg images taken for the analysis.

<sup>a</sup> Significance of pairwise parameter comparisons ( $p < 0.05$ ); the values without superscript index are insignificant.

**Figure legends**

**Fig. 1.** A mimicking egg of the common cuckoo nominate subspecies (*Cuculus canorus canorus*; left) in a clutch of Marmora's warbler (*Curruca sarda*; right). Image source: [https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Cuculus\\_canorus\\_canorus\\_MHNT.ZOO.2010.11.150.36.jpg](https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Cuculus_canorus_canorus_MHNT.ZOO.2010.11.150.36.jpg); collection of Jacques Perrin de Brichambaut, Muséum de Toulouse, France; by Ercé, CC-BY-SA-4.0.

**Fig. 2.** Visualization of data approximation of the relationship between the incubation period value ( $I$ ) and the egg surface area-to-volume ratio ( $S/V$ ).

**Fig. 3.** Visualization of data approximation of the relationship between the incubation period value ( $I$ ) and the shell thickness-to-egg surface area ratio ( $T/S$ ) according to Eqn6.

**Fig. 4.** Visualization of the mathematical relationship between the coefficients  $K_T$  and  $K_V$  depending on the volume of host eggs:  $V = 1, 2$  and  $3 \text{ cm}^3$ .



**Fig. 1.**

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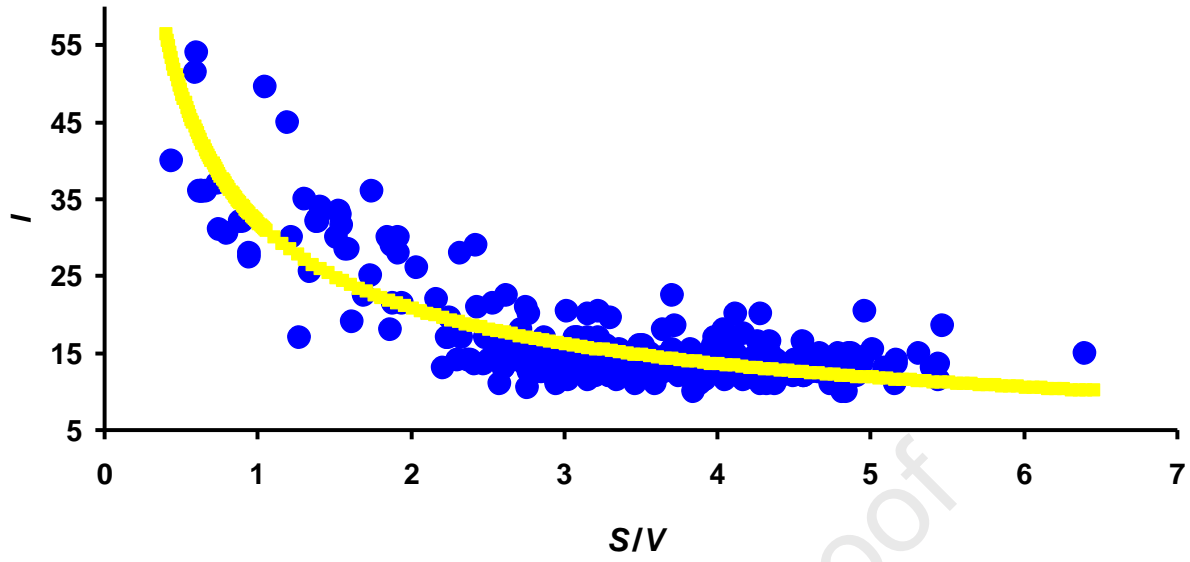
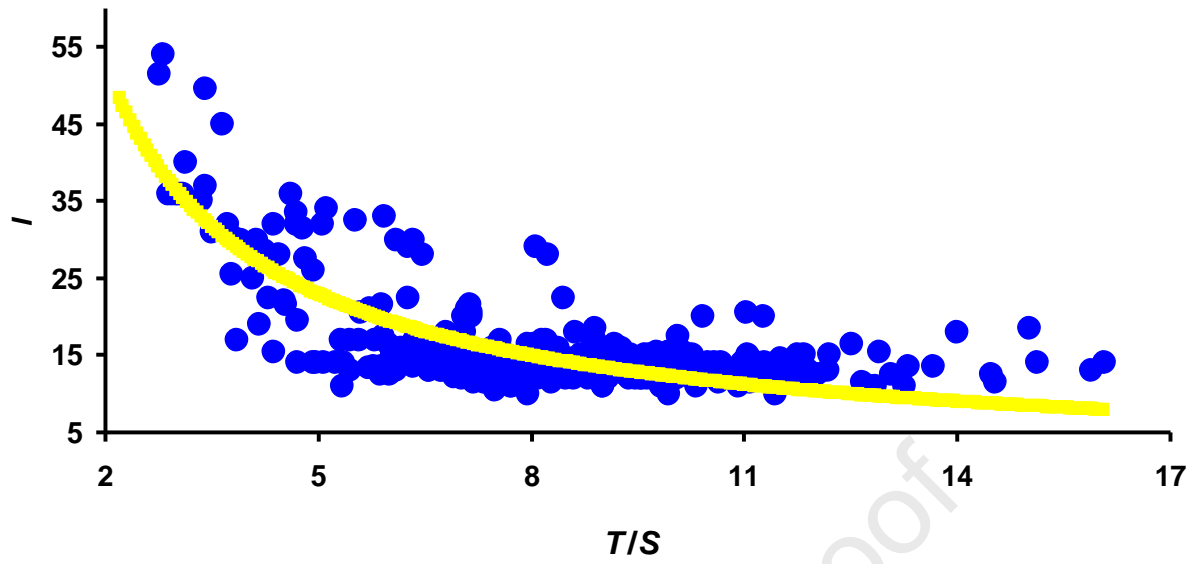
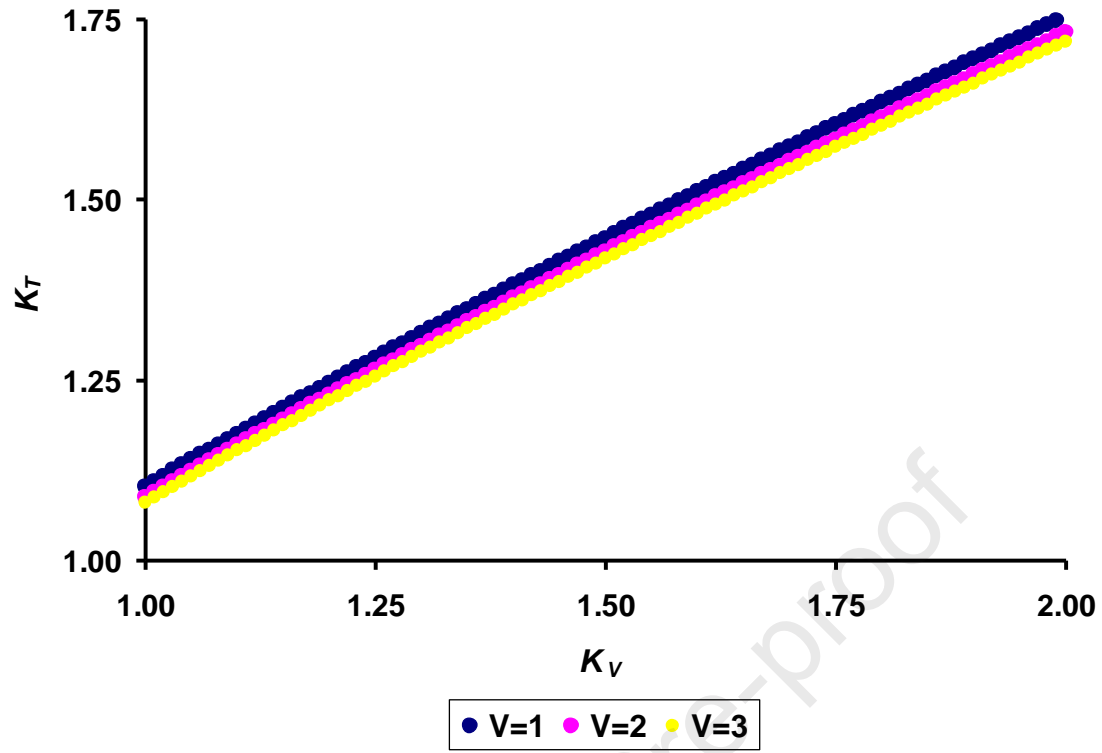


Fig. 2.



633  
634 **Fig. 3.**  
635

636  
637 **Fig. 4.**

- We assumed that cuckoo eggs have shorter incubation time ( $I$ ) due to thicker shells.
- To test this, we analyzed published data for 454 eggs from 447 bird species.
- We found that  $I$  can be determined by shell thickness-to surface area ratio ( $T/S$ ).
- Mother cuckoo seems to be adapted to increasing the  $T/S$  ratio by increasing  $T$ .
- We derived empirical formulae for calculating  $I$  based on  $S/V$  and  $T/S$  ratios.

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**Conflict of interest**

Authors declare that they have no competing interests.

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