

Chapter 51: Animal Behavior

AP Biology
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1

Behavior

- * Behavior - the nervous system's response to a stimulus and is carried out by the muscular system or the hormonal system
- * Behavior is subject to natural selection
- * Four questions that must be answered:
 - * What stimulus elicits the behavior, and what physiological mechanisms mediate the response?
 - * How does the animal's experience during growth and development influence the response?
 - * What is the evolutionary history of the behavior?
 - * How does the behavior contribute to survival and reproduction (fitness)?
- * Behavioral ecology - study of the ecological and evolutionary basis for animal behavior

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Proximate vs. Ultimate causes of behavior

- * Proximate questions = "How" questions
 - * Environmental stimuli that trigger a behavior
 - * Genetic, physiological, and anatomical mechanisms underlying a behavioral act
- * Ultimate questions = "Why" questions
 - * address the evolutionary significance of a behavior

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Fixed Action Pattern (FAP)

- * Fixed Action Pattern (FAP) - sequence of unlearned behavioral acts that is essentially unchangeable and, once initiated, is usually carried out to completion
- * Triggered by an external sensory stimulus, a **SIGN STIMULUS**
- * Classic example of a FAP is the stickleback fish

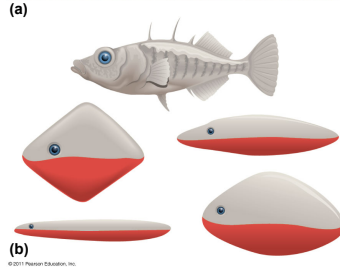
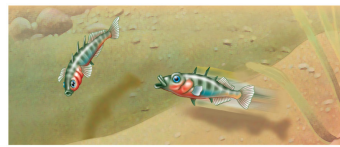


Fig. 51.2

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Migration

- * Environmental cues can trigger movement in a particular direction
- * Migration - regular, long-distance change in location
- * Complex process but seems to be genetically based
- * Animals orient themselves using the position of the sun, circadian clock, position of the North Star, and Earth's magnetic field
- * Blackcap - small warbler
 - * Range: Cape Verde Islands off West Africa to northern Europe
 - * Migratory Blackcaps that are caged hop restlessly in cages during migration times
 - * Cape Verde birds do not migrate
 - * When migratory and nonmigratory birds were mated and placed in both locations, 40% of offspring showed migratory restlessness.

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Behavioral Rhythms

- * Some behavior is affected by circadian rhythm (daily cycle of rest and activity)
- * Behaviors like migration and reproduction are linked to changing seasons (circannual rhythm)
- * Daylight and darkness are common seasonal cues
- * Some behaviors are linked to lunar cycles, which affect tidal movements

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Animal Signals and Communication

- * Signal - behavior that causes a change in another animal's behavior
- * Communication - transmission of, reception of, and response to signals
- * Many signals are energy efficient
 - * Territorial fish will erect their fins providing them with a larger profile which runs off intruders
- * Signals can be visual, auditory, chemical, tactile, and electric

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Animal Communication: Fruit Fly Courtship

- * Male identifies a female of the same species and orients toward her
 - * Chemical communication: he smells a female's chemicals in the air
 - * Visual communication: he sees the female and orients his body toward hers
- * Male alerts the female to his presence
 - * Tactile communication: he taps the female with a foreleg
 - * Chemical communication: he chemically confirms the female's identity
- * Male produces a courtship song to inform the female
 - * Auditory communication: he extends and vibrates his wings

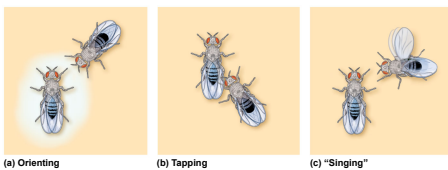


Fig. 51.4

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Animal Communication: Honeybees

- * Show symbolic language
- * Bee returning from the field performs a dance to communicate information about the distance and direction of a food source

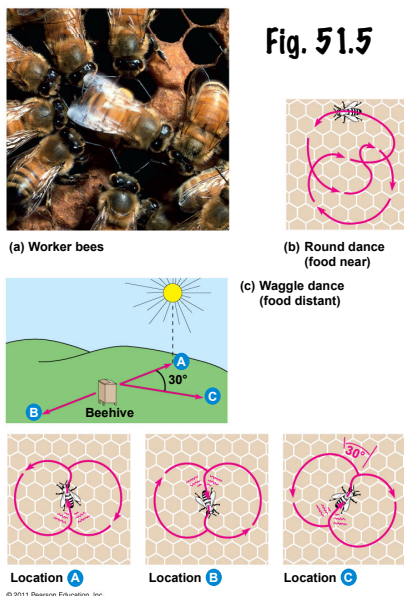
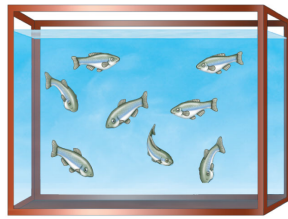


Fig. 51.5

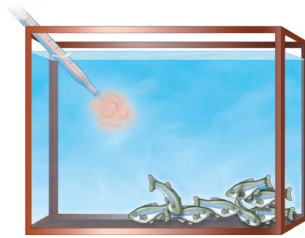
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Chemical Communication

- * Pheromones - chemical emitted by an animal for olfactory communication
- * Reproductive behaviors
- * Alarm behaviors



(a) Minnows before alarm



(b) Minnows after alarm

Fig. 51.6

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Learning

- * Innate behavior - developmentally fixed and does not vary among individuals
- * Cross-fostering study places the young from one species in the care of adults from another species
 - * ex. cross-fostered mice developed some behaviors consistent with foster parents
- * Twin studies - compare influences of genetics and environment on behavior

- * Learning - modification of behavior based on specific experiences

Table 51.1 Influence of Cross-Fostering on Male Mice*

Species	Aggression Toward an Intruder	Aggression in Neutral Situation	Paternal Behavior
California mice fostered by white-footed mice	Reduced	No difference	Reduced
White-footed mice fostered by California mice	No difference	Increased	No difference

*Comparisons are with mice raised by parents of their own species.

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Imprinting

Fig. 51.7

- * Imprinting - includes both learning and innate components and is generally irreversible
- * Sensitive period - limited phase in an animal's development that is the only time when certain behaviors can be learned
- * Parent-offspring bonding critical part of life cycle in species that provide parental care
- * Geese studied by Konrad Lorenz in the 1930s
- * Whooping Cranes, if hatched by sandhill cranes, will imprint and never form a mating pair



(a) Konrad Lorenz and geese



(b) Pilot and cranes

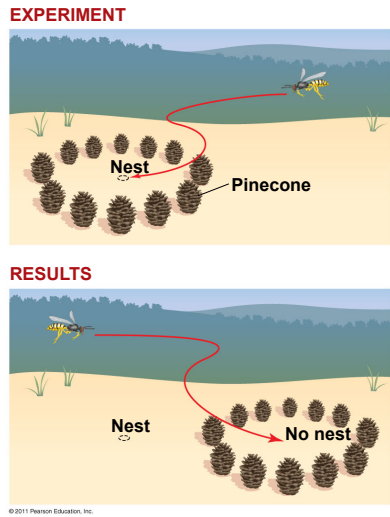
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Spatial Learning

Fig. 51.8

- * Modification of a behavior based on experience within the spacial structure of the environment
- * Ex. nesting sites, hazards, food, mating
- * Digger wasps using landmarks
- * Using landmarks involves learning



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Cognitive Maps

- * Internal representation, or code, of the spacial relationships between objects in an animal's surroundings
- * Ex. crows (birds like ravens, crows, and jays) may store food in many locations and can even keep track of food quality

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Associative Learning

- * Association of one feature of the environment with another
- * Classical conditioning - an arbitrary stimulus (like a scent) is associated with a reward or punishment (electric shock)
- * Operant Conditioning - trial-and-error
- * Learning to associate one of its own behaviors with a reward or punishment

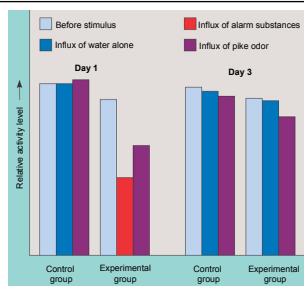


Figure 51.16

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Cognition

- * the ability of an animal's nervous system to perceive, store, process, and use information gathered by sensory receptors
- * Cognitive ethology - examines the connection between an animal's nervous system and its behavior
- * Problem solving behaviors

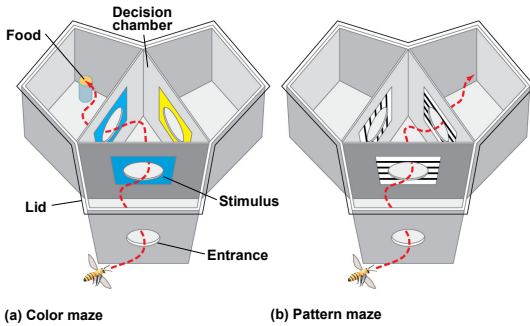


Fig. 50.10 (Honeybees distinguish "same" vs. "different")

Social Learning

- * Social Learning - learning through observing others
- * Culture - system of information transfer through social learning or teaching that influences the behavior of individuals in a population



Figs. 51.11 & 51.12



- * Foraging - behavior associated with recognizing, searching for, capturing, and consuming food
- * *Drosophila melanogaster* has a foraging gene called *for*
- * *for^s* - "sitter" larva moving less than average
- * *for^R* - "rover" larva moving more than average
- * Average frequencies are 70% *for^R* and 30% *for^s*
- * After 74 generations there was a clear divergence between low and high density populations
- * *for^s* increased in frequency in low density
- * *for^R* increased in high density populations

Foraging Behavior

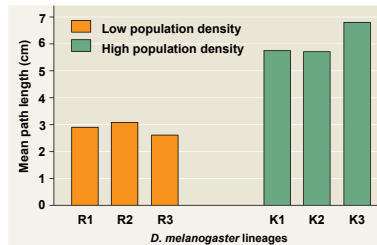


Fig. 51.13

Optimal Foraging Model

* Views foraging behavior as a compromise between benefits of nutrition and costs of obtaining food

* Costs: energy expenditure and risk of being eaten

* Natural selection should favor foraging behavior that minimizes the costs and maximizes the benefits

* Ex. Northwestern crow - crow drops a mollusc from a height to break its shell and feed on the soft parts (crow trade-off between height dropped and number of times it must drop it)

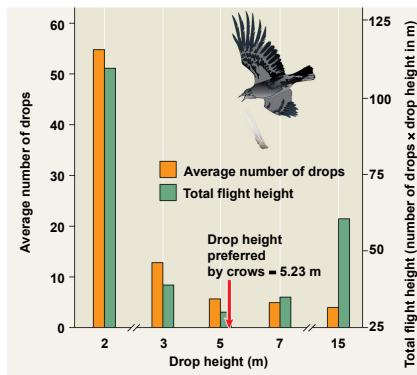


Fig. 51.14

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Mating Behavior

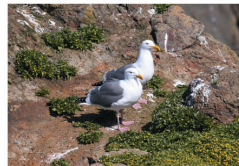
* Promiscuous - no strong pairing bonds or lasting relationships

* Monogamous - mates remain together for a longer period (mates tend to look very similar)

* Polygamous - individual of one sex mating with several of the other (usually dimorphic)

* polygyny - one male and many females (males ornamented and larger)

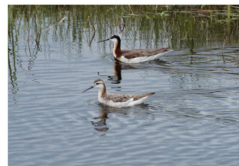
* polyandry - one female and many males (females ornamented and larger)



(a) Monogamous species



(b) Polygynous species



(c) Polyandrous species

Fig. 51.15

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Sexual Selection and Mate Choice

* Differences in reproductive success among individuals are a consequence of differences in mating success

* Sexual dimorphism results from sexual selection (form of natural selection)

* Intersexual selection - members of one sex choose mates on the basis of certain traits

* Intrasexual selection involved competition between members of the same sex for mates

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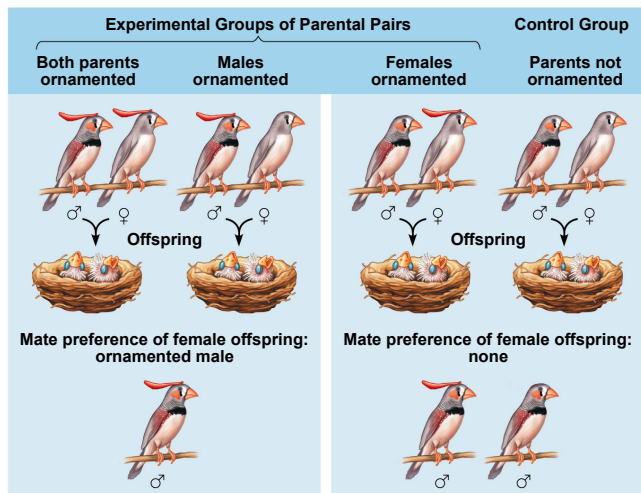
Mate Choice by Females

- * Zebra finches
 - * Researchers taped red feathers to foreheads of both parents, males only, or females only before their chicks opened their eyes
 - * When the chicks matured, they were given a choice of mates with or without ornamented feathers
 - * Males showed no preference
 - * Females raised by non-ornamented parents or only female ornamented parents showed no preference
 - * Females raised by both ornamented parents or only male ornamented parents showed a preference for ornamented mates
 - * Shows that females imprint on their fathers

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Zebra Finches

Fig. 51.19



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Mate Choice by Females

- * Stalk-eyed flies
 - * Females are more likely to mate with male with longer eyestalks
 - * Why?
 - * Behavioral ecologists correlated genetic disorders with short eyestalks
 - * Healthy male increases probability of healthy offspring

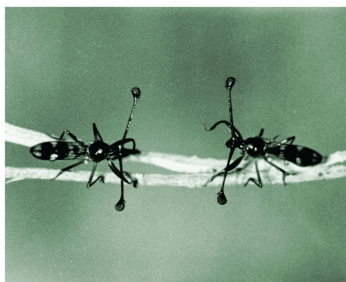


Fig. 51.17

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Mate Choice Copying

- * individuals in a population copy the mate choices of others

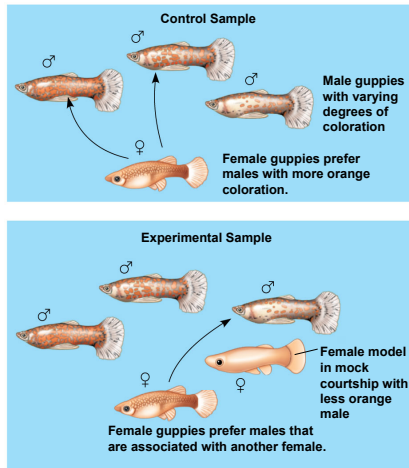


Fig. 51.20

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Male Competition for Mates

- * This can reduce variation among males
- * Agonistic behavior - ritualized contest that determines which competitor gains access to a resource such as food or mates



Fig. 51.21

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Game Theory

- * Evaluates alternative strategies in situations where outcomes depend not only on strategy but also on strategies of others
- * Side-blotched lizards
 - * Orange-throats - most aggressive and defend large territories with many females
 - * Blue-throats - territorial but defend smaller territories with fewer females
 - * Yellow-throats - non-territorial males that mimic females to obtain matings



Fig. 51.22

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Mating and Parenting

- * Prairie Voles
 - * Monogamous (rare trait in mammals)
 - * Both parents provide care for young (also very rare)
 - * Grooming and cuddling behaviors with mate (also rare)
 - * Thought that the cause of these behaviors was arginine-vasopressin (AVP), a nine amino acid neurotransmitter released during mating
 - * AVP binds with a receptor called the V_{1a} receptor
 - * Found differences between distribution of V_{1a} receptors in the brains of prairie voles versus promiscuous montane voles



Fig. 51.24

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Behavioral Traits and Natural Selection

- * Natural Selection can result in evolution of behavioral traits in a population
- * Prey selection in garter snakes (*Thamnophis elegans*)
- * In California, coastal populations eat salamanders, frogs, and toads, but predominantly slugs. Inland populations eat frogs, leeches, and fish, but not slugs.
- * When inland snakes were offered slugs, they refused to eat them even when the snakes were born in captivity.



Fig. 51.25

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Blackcaps

- * Breed in Germany and winter in Africa (some winter in Britain)
- * In laboratory conditions, each migratory population exhibits different migratory behaviors
- * Migratory behaviors are regulated by genetics

EXPERIMENT



RESULTS

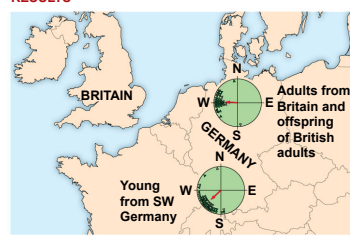


Fig. 51.26

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Altruism

- * Natural selection favors behavior that maximizes an individual's survival and reproduction
- * Altruism - behaviors that reduce an individual's fitness but increase the fitness of others in the population
- * Inclusive fitness - total effect an individual has on proliferating its genes by producing its own offspring and providing aid that enables close relatives to produce offspring
- * Ground Squirrel
 - * Gives off a high-pitched alarm call when it sees a predator. The others run to safety, but it puts the initial squirrel at more risk
- * Naked Mole Rats



Fig. 51.27

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Hamilton's Rule

- * Measure for predicting when natural selection favors altruistic acts
- * Natural selection favors altruism when $rB > C$
- * Variables:
 - * B = benefit to recipient (average number of extra offspring the beneficiary produces)
 - * C = cost to altruist (how many fewer offspring the altruist produces)
 - * r = coefficient of relatedness (probability that the two individuals share a common parent or ancestor or particular genes will be common)

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Hamilton's Rule

- * Example: Two brothers, close in age, equally fertile, not yet parents. One is close to drowning and his brother risks his life to save him.
- * Average person in U.S. has 2 offspring. If he had drowned his reproductive output would have been 0. Thus, $B = 2$
- * In the surf the altruistic brother was swimming there was a 5% chance of drowning. The cost is then 5% of his offspring or $C = 0.1$
- * Because they are not identical twins, but are brothers, there is a 50% chance they will share a particular gene. Thus, $r = 0.5$

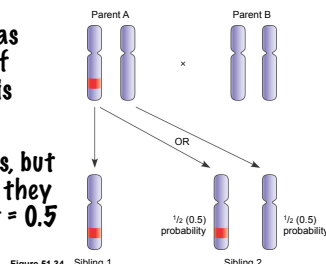


Figure 51.34 Sibling 1

Sibling 2

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Kin Selection

- * natural selection that favors altruistic behavior by enhancing reproductive success of relatives
- * Weakens with hereditary distance
 - * non-identical siblings, $r = 0.5$
 - * uncle and niece, $r = 0.25$
 - * first cousins, $r = 0.125$
- * Would it benefit a swimmer to rescue his cousin?
 - * $r > C$; $rB = 0.125 \times 2 = 0.25$; $C = 0.1$
 - * Yes, it is still favored
 - * If the rescuer is a poor swimmer and has a 50% chance of drowning instead of 5%. Then $0.5 \times 2 = 1$ which is greater than 0.25, so it would not be favored.

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Kin Selection in Ground Squirrels

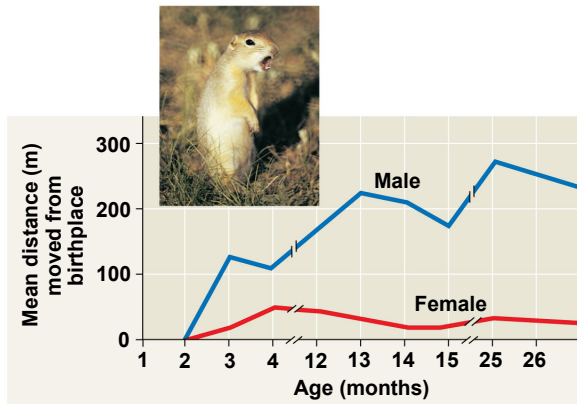


Fig. 51.29

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Reciprocal Altruism

- * behaving altruistically toward others who are not relatives to gain favors in the future
- * Rare in animals and usually only seen in species who have stable social groups
- * Tit-for-tat strategy
- * In these groups, cheaters (those who do not reciprocate) are punished

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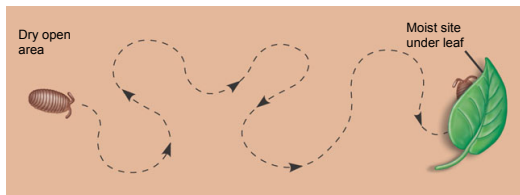
Genetics vs. Environment

- * All behaviors are a combination of genetics and environmental factors
- * Innate behavior - developmentally fixed that have strong genetic components
- * Directed Movements
 - * Kinesis
 - * Taxis
 - * Migration

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Kinesis

- * Simple change in activity or turning rate in response to a stimulus
- * Sow bugs (wood lice) - terrestrial crustaceans
 - * Kinetic response to humidity



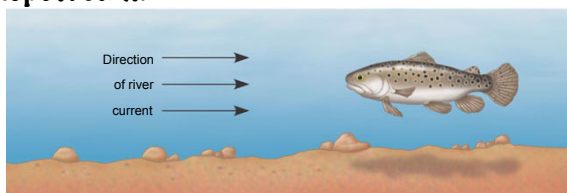
(a) Kinesis increases the chance that a sow bug will encounter and stay in a moist environment.

Figure 51.7a

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Taxis

- * Automatic (more or less), oriented movement toward (positive taxis) or away from (negative taxis) some stimulus
- * Trout
 - * Swim to orient themselves toward current (upstream)



(b) Positive rheotaxis keeps trout facing into the current, the direction from which most food comes.

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Habituation

- * Loss of responsiveness to stimuli that convey little or no information
- * Ex. A hydra contracts when disturbed by a slight touch; if it is repeatedly disturbed without further consequences, it stops responding.
- * Ex. "cry-wolf" effect
- * How does this increase a species' fitness?

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Alarm Calls

* Vervet Monkeys

- * Complex set of alarm calls distinct to different dangers (leopards, eagles, snakes)
- * Infants start off generalizing (will give eagle call when they see any bird)
- * Eventually learn from adults to use specific cues



Figure 51.37

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Human Culture

* Sociobiology

- * Main premise: certain behavioral characteristics exist because they are expressions of genes that have been perpetuated by natural selection

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