Why is there variation in baseline glucocorticoid levels?

Niels J. Dingemanse1, Pim Edelaar2 and Bart Kempenaers1

1Department of Behavioural Ecology & Evolutionary Genetics, Max Planck Institute for Ornithology, Seewiesen, Germany
2Department of Conservation Biology, Estación Biológica de Doñana CSIC, Sevilla, Spain

In a recent article in TREE, Bonier and colleagues [1] reviewed the support for the Cort-Fitness Hypothesis, which states that baseline glucocorticoid (cort) levels are elevated in individuals, or populations, that experience challenging conditions, therefore signalling low future fitness. The idea is that the optimal level of resources allocated towards self-maintenance (immediate survival) versus long-term survival and/or reproduction differs across environments, with selection favouring individuals investing in self-maintenance when the environment becomes ‘challenging.’ The hypothesis states that this reallocation of resources can be achieved by altering baseline levels of cort. Their literature review did not support the hypothesis, as it revealed much variation in sign and shape of the relationship between cort and residual fitness within and across species, populations, and life-history stages [1]. We here propose that the inability to find unequivocal support for the Cort-Fitness Hypothesis is a side effect of Bonier et al.’s implicit assumption that individual variance components can be ignored when testing evolutionary hypotheses, a phenomenon recently coined the ‘tyranny of the Golden Mean’ [2].

Bonier et al. assume that animals react to environmental change by altering their phenotype, and that this response is adaptive. Selection would have favoured a particular relationship between cort and environmental quality. Such a relationship can be viewed as a line (Figure 1a) characterised by a certain elevation and slope, often called a ‘reaction norm’ [3]. If all individuals had the same reaction norm, the Cort-Fitness Hypothesis could be tested using a cross-sectional approach, where residual fitness is compared across individuals showing low versus high levels of cort [1], the approach taken in the review. Baseline cort does, however, vary consistently across individuals, with certain individuals showing high and others showing low levels of cort under any type of condition (Figure 1b). The slope of the relationship between cort and environmental quality (i.e. plasticity) can also differ between individuals (Figure 1c) and both types of individual variation can be heritable (see [4,5]).

The presence of individual variation in average level (I), and plasticity (I × E), in baseline cort has consequences for how the Cort-Fitness Hypothesis should be tested. When I or I × E are present, high cort levels do not necessarily signal ‘challenging’ conditions. Imagine a situation (Figure 1b) in which two types of individuals exist, both showing adaptive increases in cort when the environment becomes challenging, but one type always has higher levels of cort. Both types could have exactly the same phenotype (dotted line in Figure 1b), because one experiences the environment as challenging whereas the other does not. A valid test of the hypothesis would therefore require the measurement of individual reaction norms (see [5]), expecting a negative association between cort level and residual fitness within individuals.

How should we then interpret the seemingly ‘inconsistent’ Cort-Fitness relationship? We suggest that it is caused by heterogeneous selection acting on the between-individual component of cort. Recent studies on natural populations show that temporal and spatial variation exists in selection acting on behaviours (e.g. [6]) that are genetically correlated with baseline cort [7]. Individual variation in cort might thus represent fundamental differences in how individuals cope with environmental challenges [7], implying that there might not be a single optimal response [8,9]. We encourage endocrinologists to try to disentangle...
Clarifying the Cort-Fitness Hypothesis: a response to Dingemanse et al.

Frances Bonier1, Paul R. Martin2, Ignacio T. Moore3 and John C. Wingfield4

1 Queen’s University, Biology Department, Kingston, Ontario K7L 3N6, Canada, and Virginia Tech, Department of Biological Sciences, Blacksburg, VA 24061, USA
2 Queen’s University, Biology Department, Kingston, Ontario K7L 3N6, Canada
3 Virginia Tech, Department of Biological Sciences, Blacksburg, VA 24061, USA
4 University of California, Davis, Department of Neurobiology, Physiology, and Behavior, Davis, CA 95616, USA

Dingemanse et al. [1] suggest that the Cort-Fitness Hypothesis rests upon the idea that ‘the optimal level of resources allocated towards self-maintenance (immediate survival) versus long-term survival and/or reproduction differs across environments, with selection favoring individuals investing in self-maintenance when the environment becomes “challenging”’. This interpretation is incorrect. Instead, the Cort-Fitness Hypothesis rests upon the idea that difficult or challenging conditions lead to low fitness (i.e. low future survival and/or low future reproductive success), and that glucocorticoid (cort) levels can be used as a proxy for the degree of environmental challenge facing individuals and populations [2]. Indeed, this proposed connection between high cort, difficult environmental conditions and low fitness is the main reason why conservation biologists use cort as a proxy for the health of individuals and populations.

The Cort-Fitness Hypothesis is not an evolutionary hypothesis and is not aimed at measuring selection. Instead, the Cort-Fitness Hypothesis is a simple pattern hypothesis whereby cort can be used as a proxy for environmental challenges facing individuals or populations. Ultimately, the proposed correlations between levels of cort, environmental challenges and fitness, if they exist, could result from one or more evolutionary selective pressures acting on cort secretion. However, the Cort-Fitness Hypothesis is not a hypothesis to explain why cort levels vary with fitness or the environment; it is simply addressing the common usage of cort as a proxy for the health of individuals and populations in the scientific literature.

We do not make the assumption that individual variation can be ignored when examining the Cort-Fitness Hypothesis. Among-individual variation in cort secretion, varying reaction norms and/or coping strategies might obscure relationships between levels of cort and fitness, and we discuss all of these possibilities in our original paper (e.g. ‘Genetic and developmental effects’ in [2], p. 638).

The inconsistent relationships between cort and fitness (including positive, negative and no relationships) do not result solely from individual variation in the cort response across environments because some studies have found individuals with the highest fitness exhibiting both low and high cort levels relative to low fitness individuals, depending on the stage of breeding [e.g. 3,4].

Overall, our conclusion remains unchanged: levels of cort cannot be used as a proxy for environmental challenges or fitness without first understanding the relationship between cort, the environment and fitness in the organism of interest. We agree wholeheartedly that evaluating sources of within and among individual variation within an evolutionary framework can provide important advances in our understanding of these cort-fitness relationships, and we are presently taking this approach in our own work [e.g. 4–6].

References

We do not make the assumption that individual variation can be ignored when examining the Cort-Fitness Hypothesis. Among-individual variation in cort secretion, varying reaction norms and/or coping strategies might obscure relationships between levels of cort and fitness, and we discuss all of these possibilities in our original paper (e.g. ‘Genetic and developmental effects’ in [2], p. 638).

The inconsistent relationships between cort and fitness (including positive, negative and no relationships) do not result solely from individual variation in the cort response across environments because some studies have found individuals with the highest fitness exhibiting both low and high cort levels relative to low fitness individuals, depending on the stage of breeding [e.g. 3,4].

Overall, our conclusion remains unchanged: levels of cort cannot be used as a proxy for environmental challenges or fitness without first understanding the relationship between cort, the environment and fitness in the organism of interest. We agree wholeheartedly that evaluating sources of within and among individual variation within an evolutionary framework can provide important advances in our understanding of these cort-fitness relationships, and we are presently taking this approach in our own work [e.g. 4–6].

References
Understanding and preventing extinctions


Ross A. Alford
School of Marine and Tropical Biology, James Cook University, Townsville, Queensland 4811, Australia

Extinction in Our Times is centered on the global problem of declines and extinctions of amphibians, but it has important things to say to anyone interested in how science, policy and conservation can interact in the face of a crisis.

The amphibian decline problem was recognized in the early 1990s [1]. By the late 1990s there were several hundred publications relevant to the topic [2], and the literature has continued to grow exponentially. Between 2002, when Collins and Crump started working on this book, and its publication, more than half of the literature most relevant to the topic appeared for the first time. This gave the authors a very fast moving target to hit, but they scored a bullseye.

Extinction in Our Times mixes expositions of the science with insights into how the science is driven by the personalitites and interests of researchers, the agendas of governments and conservation bodies, and the interactions between them. Collins and Crump argue that amphibians should not be seen as “canaries in a coal mine,” but as a microcosmic sample of the problems facing the entire natural world; one that can be understood, addressed and used as a model.

Understanding the amphibian decline problem presents major challenges; despite their diversity and ubiquity, amphibians are an understudied group. How can you document extensive declines and disappearances of species with unknown ranges and population sizes? How can you convince funding bodies to provide money to discover that hundreds of species have recently become extinct, and that a very high proportion of amphibians are threatened. We know that many species are threatened by the human activities that are usually thought of as constituting threats: environmental contaminants, land-use change and habitat loss are affecting amphibians, as they do many other taxa.

However, the most striking aspect of the story is that a large proportion of species, including many of those that have recently become extinct, are threatened by more complex problems: disruptions to the balance of natural systems. For example, large increases in the occurrence of limb deformities in some populations of frogs have been caused by increases in the prevalence of infections by parasitic trematodes, at least some of which have occurred because fertilizer runoff has altered the ecology of freshwater systems [3]. Work by a diverse array of researchers has demonstrated that the proximate cause of the declines and extinctions of many amphibians in apparently pristine, often protected, habitats is epidemic outbreaks of a previously unknown fungal disease, chytridiomycosis. The pathogen causing this disease was first reported in 1998 [4], and has since been found on all continents where amphibians occur. It can be absent from the amphibians in an area, and cause mass die-offs and extinctions when it initially appears [5]. The origin of the pathogen, and the causes of its emergence, present a series of riddles that have not been fully answered, and the process of trying to answer them has led to heated debates. The molecular genetics of most isolates of the pathogen indicate a recent, common origin, leading to a general consensus that it has recently dispersed over much of the globe, probably assisted at least at the global scale by humans, though the mechanisms of global and local dispersal remain to be definitively documented [6]. The interaction between amphibians and the pathogen is strongly affected by environmental conditions [7], leading some to suggest that outbreaks may be caused or exacerbated by climate change [8]. The book clearly presents the development and current state of knowledge of this catastrophic disease and covers the controversies involved impartially.

As Extinction in Our Times makes clear, a surprising amount of progress has been made toward meeting those challenges and answering those questions. We know vastly more about the status and distribution of amphibians and how it is changing than we did 20 years ago; we now know that hundreds of species have recently become extinct, and...