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1	Stress response varies with plumage colour and local habitat in feral pigeons
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24 Abstract

Bird populations exposed to different extrinsic conditions often differ in the responsiveness of 25 the hypothalamo-pitituary-adrenal (HPA) axis and thus in corticosterone response that 26 individuals mount when facing stressful events. However, the contribution of genetic 27 variation to among-individual variability in HPA axis responsiveness across different 28 environmental conditions is poorly understood. Melanin-based coloured types provide reliable 29 30 phenotypic markers of alternative genotypes underlying stress coping styles. Large variations in melanin-based colouration are heritable in feral pigeons. We tested whether melanin-based 31 colouration is associated with variation in corticosterone stress response in feral pigeons. To 32 this aim, we examined how corticosterone response varies both within and between 33 differently coloured individuals across different environmental conditions. Differently 34 coloured individuals mounted different stress-induced corticosterone levels in interaction with 35 environmental conditions: dark pigeons exhibited a higher corticosterone when originating 36 from rural habitats, while such relation was not observed in pale pigeons. This suggests that 37 among-population variation in stress response is higher in dark pigeons, this variation 38 possibly reflecting adjustment and/or (epi)genetic adaptation to environmental conditions. In 39 addition, corticosterone response increased with the degree of melanin-based colouration in 40 pigeons originating from rural habitats but not in pigeons originating from more urbanized 41 populations, resulting in the coexistence of alternative stress responses in some populations, 42 but not in others. Our results suggest that species with melanin-based variation in differently 43

44 urbanized populations along rural-urban gradient are potentially good candidate systems for
45 studying stress coping styles under alternative selective regimes.

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Key-words: glucocorticoids, inter-individual variations, local adaptation, phenotypic
flexibility, phenotypic plasticity, pigmentation, restraint stress, urbanization

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50 Introduction

When facing unpredictable and threatening events due to biotic or abiotic factors, vertebrates 51 52 mount a stress response which helps individuals to meet energetic demands through resource allocation trade-offs. The hypothalamo-pitituary-adrenal (HPA) axis which culminates in the 53 release of glucocorticoids (GC) is one of the most important physiological mediators of stress 54 response. Thus, stress-induced increases in GC concentrations redirect behaviour and 55 physiology towards immediate survival functions through neoglucogenesis, an increase in 56 locomotor activity and the inhibition of non-vital functions such as reproduction (Dhabhar & 57 McEwen 1997; Breuner et al. 1998; Sapolsky et al. 2000). Due to its broad implication in the 58 trade-off between survival and reproduction, the HPA-axis reactivity is closely related to 59 fitness (Breuner et al. 2008; Crespi et al. 2013). Hence the adaptive function of the HPA-axis 60 is pervasively invoked to explain differences in stress-induced GC concentrations between 61 populations or subspecies exposed to different extrinsic conditions, with a heavy bias towards 62 63 bird studies (e.g. altitude: Addis et al. 2011; habitat quality: Busch & Hayward 2009; predation risk: Thiel et al. 2008; urbanization level: Parteke 2006). Indeed, rising GC stress 64 response could facilitate a fast recovery of positive energy balance in contexts of great 65 66 energetic demands and low energy stores (McEwen & Wingfield 2003; Addis et al. 2011) whereas lowering the response reduces the negative impacts of chronically elevated GC on 67 non-vital functions (e.g. immunity and resistance to oxidative stress; Stier et al. 2009; Silverin 68

69 1998). For instance, up- or down-modulations of stress response would be of primary 70 importance for all animals copying with frequent anthropogenic disturbances (Partecke, 71 2006), possibly facilitating the expansion of species ranges in novel urban environments as 72 suggested by persistent differences detected in GC responses between recently urbanized 73 populations of dark-eyed juncos *Junco hyemalis* and wildland populations in the ancestral 74 range (Atwell *et al.* 2012).

Comparing bird populations or subspecies, what drives differences in the HPA stress response 75 remains unclear. On one hand, such differences may arise because populations or subspecies 76 adjust stress response to the prevailing conditions that birds experience at the time of 77 78 sampling. Indeed, the HPA-axis activity is highly flexible to e.g. food availability (Schoech 2006; Schoech et al. 2007) or human disturbances (Cockrem et al. 2006). The HPA-axis 79 activity also varies as a function of internal state, e.g. body condition (Corbel et al. 2010) or 80 81 stage of life cycle (Romero 2002). On the other hand, stable differences between populations may result from differential selective pressures favouring individuals with respective specific 82 corticosterone stress response through fitness consequences (Satterlee & Johnson 1988; Evans 83 et al. 2006; Wada et al. 2009; Almasi et al. 2010). Indeed, inter-individual variation in the 84 magnitude of elevated GC concentrations is repeatable and partly under genetic control 85 (Evans et al. 2006; Partecke et al. 2006; Rensel & Schoech 2011; Jenkins et al. 2014). The 86 heritability of the GC response to stress is supported by cross-fostering experiments in the 87 field (Jenkins et al. 2014) and by selection studies in captive settings (Evans et al. 2006; 88 Satterlee & Johnson 1988), which confirm that individual variation in GC stress response is 89 underlaid by an appreciable amount of standing additive genetic variation. Stable differences 90 may also arise because of environmental factors that have affected the development of the 91 HPA axis during early life and, thus, the GC stress response that adults can mount (Love & 92 Williams 2008a; Love & Williams 2008b; Wada et al. 2009). Thus, the degree to which 93

phenotypic adjustments to environmental stimuli and genetic differences resulting from local 94 95 adaptation underlie between-population differences in stress response is often unclear while the interplay of both processes is likely to be significant. The maintenance of different 96 populations in common conditions is the first step for disentangling acute adjustments from 97 more stable, possibly genetically-determined, divergences in the HPA-axis reactivity 98 (Angelier et al. 2011; Atwell et al. 2012). To have a full view about the regulation of active 99 blood circulating corticosterone, we should also consider the regulation of CBG and hence of 100 free corticosterone and corticosterone bound to CBG (Almasi et al. 2009). 101

Large variations in the magnitude of GC response to stress also occur within populations with 102 103 some individuals having constantly low or constantly high GC responses across time, together with a suite of correlated behavioural and physiological traits, leading to distinct, repeatable 104 stress copying styles (Cockrem 2007; Cockrem et al. 2009; Koolhass et al. 1999). Genetic 105 106 studies using offspring-parent regression found significant narrow-sense heritability estimates of coping styles (25%, Drent et al. 2003; 22%: Dingemanse et al. 2002; reviewed in van 107 108 Oers et al. 2005). Stress-coping styles define coherent sets of behavioural and physiological responses, including corticosterone release, to challenges faced by animals (Koolhaas et al. 109 1999). Based on the empirical findings that different coping styles influence fitness 110 parameters (Dingemanse et al. 2003; Dingemanse et al. 2004), individual variations in stress 111 responses may have major eco-evolutionary implications and consequences (Wolf & 112 Weissing 2012). First, the coexistence of coping styles occurs only under certain selective 113 regimes, presumably involving fluctuating and/or frequency-dependent selective pressures 114 (Carere et al. 2010; Wolf & McNamara 2012). Second, the potential for evolvability in 115 response to new selective regimes should be particularly high for populations with genetic 116 differences in copying styles (Wolf & Weissing 2012). Thus, the consideration of among-117

individual variation while comparing stress response between populations is crucial, although
largely overlooked (Williams *et al.* 2008; but see Atwell *et al.* 2012).

Interestingly, melanin-based coloured morphs provide reliable phenotypic markers of 120 alternative genotypes (Theron et al. 2001; Mundy et al. 2004) that are associated with stress 121 coping styles in several taxa (Ducrest et al. 2008; Almasi et al. 2010; Kittilsen et al. 2009). 122 This is thought to be due to the pleiotropic effects that the genes coding for the melanocortin 123 system exert on stress response (Daynes et al. 1987; Racca et al. 2005) and suites of 124 correlated phenotypic traits (e.g. aggressiveness, Ducrest et al. 2008, Morgan et al. 2004). 125 Accordingly, differently coloured individuals differently regulate the HPA axis as reflected by 126 different stress-induced GC levels, the association between colouration and stress response 127 being heritable (Almasi et al. 2010). In addition, facing varying levels of stress, differently 128 coloured individuals display alternative reaction norms on energy balance and trade-offs 129 between competing physiological functions (Dreiss et al. 2010; Jacquin et al. 2012) as 130 expected if stress response is colour-specific. However, whether direction and/or magnitude 131 of the covariation between stress-induced GC levels and plumage colouration differs between 132 different populations living in different environmental conditions has not been tested yet. 133

In this study, we investigated stress response in the feral pigeon Columba livia. Feral pigeons 134 originate from domestic pigeons and artificially-selected variation in melanin-based 135 colouration persists in feral populations (Johnston & Janiga 1995; Sol 2008). Such variation 136 in colouration is heritable and associated with alternative physiological norms of reaction as 137 also found in other species with plumage colour variation (Jacquin et al. 2012; Jacquin et al. 138 2013). After escaping from captivity in the early XIXth century, pigeons have established in a 139 variety of habitats and undergone natural selection ever since (Johnston & Janiga 1995; Sol 140 2008). Habitats of feral pigeons markedly differ notably in their level of urbanization, ranging 141 from rural areas to city centers. Because urbanization dramatically affects both abiotic and 142

biotic environmental conditions (e.g. climate, human disturbance, population density, 143 resource availability, predation risk; Shochat et al. 2006; McDonnell & Hahs 2009; Niemela 144 et al. 2011), it can alter selection on morphological, behavioral, and physiological traits (Liker 145 et al. 2008; Møller 2008; Jacquin et al. 2013; Atwell et al. 2012), including stress response 146 (e.g. Partecke et al. 2006). Accordingly, differences in stress response between differently 147 urbanized populations have been shown in several bird species (reviewed in Bonier 2012), 148 however we crucially lack information on how this trait varies across rural-urban gradients 149 (but see Atwell et al. 2012). A noticeable effect of human activities is the buffering of 150 temporal changes in environmental conditions notably for those species relying on humans for 151 food resources as is the case in feral pigeons (Johnston & Janiga 1995; Shochat 2006). 152 Because instability of environment is a potent selective mechanism explaining the 153 maintenance of distinct stress copying styles within populations (Carere et al. 2010), the 154 155 magnitude of among-individual variation in stress response can be hypothesized to vary along a rural-urban gradient, being lower in more stable, urban habitat. 156

In this study, we tested whether the variation in melanin-based colouration was related to 157 alternative stress responses in feral pigeons. To this aim, we examined how stress responses 158 varies both within and between differently coloured individuals in differently urbanized 159 populations. We maintained wild feral pigeons captured in three differently urbanized habitats 160 in similar environmental conditions to disentangle immediate phenotypic adjustments from 161 more stable divergences in the HPA-axis activity (Angelier et al. 2011). Captive feral pigeons 162 were submitted to a standard acute restraint stress to compare their corticosterone (main avian 163 GC) response. If melanin-based colouration is a phenotypic marker of stress responses in feral 164 pigeons, we expected differently coloured feral pigeons to display alternative stress responses. 165 Furthermore, if differently coloured feral pigeons display alternative stress responses 166 depending on their originating population, we expected differently coloured individuals to 167

mount different stress-induced corticosterone levels in interaction with habitat. In addition,
we expected to detect lower differences in corticosterone stress response between differently
coloured pigeons in those populations thriving with more stable environmental conditions as
found in urban centers.

172

173 Materials and methods

174 Capture and experiments were all approved by the Direction Départementale des Services

175 Vétérinaires de Seine-et-Marne (activity permit # 77-06; aviary licence # A77-431-1).

176 Capture

Feral adult pigeons were caught with trap cages at the beginning of February 2010 in three 177 different habitats (Urban center, n = 25 individuals; Urban park, n = 22 individuals; Rural 178 farm, n = 24 individuals) of the Parisian region (Table 1). Urban park and center were located 179 in the city of Paris. The farm was situated in a rural area in the Parisian suburbs. Because the 180 distance between capture sites was higher than the recently estimated distance covered by the 181 Parisian feral pigeons within their local environment (less than 800 m; Frantz et al. 2012), we 182 assume that these 3 habitats reflect distinct populations with restricted movements between 183 them, thus experiencing different local environmental conditions which can be described as 184 rural farm, urban park and urban center. Urbanization rate of each site was estimated using 185 land use inventory for Paris area (MOS 2003, Institut d'Aménagement et d'Urbanisme Ile-de-186 France) and MapInfo Professional 8.5 SCP (Pitney Bowes Software Inc.). It was calculated as 187 the proportion of area covered by buildings and roads on the total circular area within a radius 188 of 1000 m around the capture site (Jacquin et al. 2013b; Table 1). 189

190 Melanin-based colouration

191 Feral pigeons display a continuous variation in melanin-based plumage colouration from192 entirely white to entirely black (Johnston & Janiga 1995). The continuous variation of the

surface of dark area on the wings across colouration patterns corresponds to different levels of 193 melanin deposited in feathers (Haase et al., 1992; Jacquin et al., 2011). Melanin-based 194 colouration was assessed following Jacquin et al. (2011) using pictures of the upper wing 195 taken in standardized light conditions. Ligh conditions were standardized by the use of a 1 m^2 196 reflecting white sheet placed 50 cm in the background of the wing, and of two studio lamps 197 placed 1 m both at the left and the right sides from the wing. The wing was stretched by an 198 experimenter and pictures were taken at a resolution of 96 DPI using a camera (Sony DSC-199 HX1) placed on tripod 1 m from the wing, being saved under JPG files. Pictures were binary 200 transformed using Gimp (GNU image manipulation program) and colouration score was 201 202 determined as the proportion of black pixels (%) on the upper wing using ImageJ (U.S. National Institutes of Health, Bethesda, USA). For analyses purposes, pale and dark colour 203 groups were defined as pigeons with colouration scores < 50 % and > 50 % respectively 204 205 (Jacquin et al. 2013a). This colouration score has been shown to be highly heritable (82 %; Jacquin et al. 2013a). 206

207 Housing

Immediately after capture, body mass was measured using a Pesola spring balance $(\pm 5g)$ and 208 pigeons were brought to the Centre de Recherche en Ecologie Expérimentale et Prédictive 209 (CEREEP, Saint-Pierre-lès-Nemours, France). Pigeons from each habitat were kept in 210 separate outdoor aviaries to limit social and physiological perturbations. Indeed, behavioural 211 and immune traits such as aggressiveness levels and parasite loads often differ between 212 differently urbanized bird populations (e.g. Evans 2010; Jacquin et al. 2013b). Thus mixing 213 pigeons from different origins would potentially have confounded the results as both social 214 and parasite environments impact individual corticosterone release in birds (Raouf et al. 215 2006; Pryke et al. 2007). In addition, social interactions among different colour morphs can 216 generate frequency-dependent effects in the local environment, which may directly affect the 217

level of stress captive birds are exposed to (Pryke et al. 2007; Morgan et al. 2004). In this 218 study, colouration scores were similarly distributed among the different aviaries (Median test: 219 χ_2^2 = 4.909, P = 0.086; Kruskal Wallis test: H = 3.671, df = 2, P = 0.160) and median score 220 was close to 50% (48.7%), thus any frequency-dependent effect of differently coloured 221 individuals within aviaries on individual corticosterone release was very unlikely. Aviaries 222 were strictly identical (3.10 m \times 2 m \times 2.40 m), adjacent and visually isolated from one 223 another to limit perturbations. Water and maintenance diet (a mixture of peas, corn and 224 maize) were provided ad libitum. This design allowed keeping pigeons in similar captive 225 conditions in terms of housing conditions, bird density and exposure to external stressors. 226 Pigeons were acclimatized to captivity for at least three weeks before measuring their stress 227 responses until daily food intake and body weight were stabilized (Pascual et al. 1999). At 228 the end of the acclimation period, body mass varied by only 2.2 ± 0.5 % (n = 71) from the 229 values at capture, this variation being four-fold lower than that associated with an alteration of 230 the HPA function in captive birds (> 8%, Romero et al. 1997; Romero & Wingfield 1999; 231 Dickens et al. 2009). Mass changes during acclimation were not affected by pigeon origin 232 $(F_{2,68} = 1.319, P = 0.274)$, colour type $(F_{1,69} = 0.005, P = 0.942)$ or the interaction between 233 both ($F_{2,65} = 1.306$, P = 0.278). 234

235 Stress response measurement

At the end of the acclimation period, all pigeons were subjected to a standard acute restraint stress following a modified version of a protocol by Romero & Wingfield (2001). Experiments were done from the end of February to mid-March 2010 between 9:00 h and 13:00 h to minimize the effects of seasonal and circadian changes in corticosterone plasma levels, respectively (Breuner *et al.*, 1999; Romero 2002). The time of day was not related to baseline levels of corticosterone ($R^2 = 0.001$, P = 0.845, N = 41) however it was weakly but significantly related to the levels of stress-induced corticosterone ($R^2 = 0.096$, P, = 0.049 N =

41). Because neither did the time of day differ between the aviaries ($F_{2.38}$ =1.860, P=0.170) nor 243 was it related to colouration scores ($R^2 = 0.0003$, P = 0.918, N=41), we feel confident that the 244 time of day did not interact with the outcomes of this study. Each pigeon was stressed only 245 once, and a single intervention was done per day and per aviary in order to avoid 246 physiological habituation to stress created by human intervention as demonstrated in 247 chronically stressed birds (Cyr & Romero 2009). Within each aviary, pigeons were randomly 248 sampled with respect to colour type. A rapid screening of feathers was done to ensure that no 249 bird was engaged in moult process as feather renewal may affect the HPA-axis activity 250 (Romero 2002). The onset of the stress was considered as the time at which pigeons detected 251 252 our presence nearby the aviary, usually 15 s before capture. Pigeons were captured with a net and thereafter kept motionless in an opaque cloth bag in order to create a restraint, stressful 253 condition (Romero & Wingfield 2001). At different times along the restraint stress, blood 254 samples of 0.5 ml were taken from the brachial vein, using a 26 g needle and a 1 ml 255 heparinized syringe. A total of 13% of blood samples, corresponding to 30 pigeons could not 256 be used because of hemolysis or insufficient volume. Thus, analyses hereafter in this study 257 were done on 41 pigeons. Blood was first collected at 3 min after the onset of stress (mean 258 value: 3.30 ± 0.10 min, n = 41). These samples were expected to provide baseline 259 corticosterone levels, since increase in corticosterone levels generally does not occur within 3 260 min following initiation of a stressful stimulus (Wingfield et al. 1982). Subsequent samples 261 were collected at 10 min (mean value: 10.71 ± 0.41 min, n = 41), 20 min (mean value: 20.46 262 ± 0.20 min, n = 41) and 30 min (mean value: 29.89 ± 0.10 min, n = 41) after the onset of 263 stress, to obtain a time course of the stress response (Romero & Wingfield 2001). Total blood 264 volume collected from any individual did not exceed 2 ml *i.e.* less than 1 % of body mass as 265 recommended by McGuill & Rowan (1989). Immediately after restraint, pigeons were 266 weighed to the nearest 5g. Body mass at restraint was similar between individuals displaying 267

alternative colour types ($F_{1,39} = 1.304$, P = 0.260) or from different habitats ($F_{2,38} = 0.670$, P = 0.260) 268 0.517) as this was also the case for body mass at capture (colour type effect: $F_{1,39} = 0.951$, P =269 0.336; habitat effect: $F_{2,38} = 0.958$, P = 0.393). Finally, a blood smear was taken to determine 270 parasite intensity (Haemoproteus spp.) as the number of infected red blood cells among 10 271 000 cells from different microscopic fields forming a monolayer (Sol et al. 2000; Jacquin et 272 al. 2011). Parasite intensity did not vary between colour types ($F_{1,39} = 2.002$, P = 0.165) or 273 habitats ($F_{2,38} = 0.625$, P = 0.541). Blood samples were immediately centrifuged for 10 274 minutes at 14000 rpm to separate plasma from red blood cells. Plasma were then kept at -20° 275 C until corticosterone analyses (see below). Red blood cells were kept in a PBS/EDTA 276 277 anticoagulant solution and were used for molecular sex determination. Briefly, DNA was extracted using a Qiagen kit (DNeasy Blood and Tissue kit, cat. 69506, Qiagen Sciences) and 278 amplified by polymerase chain reaction using the P8 and P2 primers following Griffiths et al. 279 (1998). Sex ratio did not differ significantly for pale and dark pigeons ($\chi_1^2 = 0.028$, P = 0.867) 280 and for different habitat types ($\chi_2^2 = 0.196$, P = 0.907). Because the HPA axis activity is likely 281 to be influenced by body mass, parasite intensity and sex (e.g. O'Reilly & Wingfield 2001; 282 Cockrem et al. 2006; Raouf et al. 2006), all these factors were included in the model 283 explaining the variation in corticosterone levels along restraint stress (see below). 284

285 Corticosterone levels measurement

Plasma corticosterone concentrations were determined with an enzyme-immunoassay procedure (corticosterone EIA kit, cat. AC-14F1, IDS Ltd) using polyclonal antiserum against corticosterone coated onto the inner surface of polystyrene microtitre wells. Calibrators, controls and diluted (1:2) plasma samples were incubated overnight at 28 °C with peroxidaselabeled corticosterone in the antibody-coated wells. Wells were then washed and a colour reaction was developed using the tetramethylbenzidine chromogen. The absorbance of the reaction mixtures was read in a microplate reader. Colour intensity developed is inversely proportional to the concentration of corticosterone in the diluted samples. The sensitivity of
assays was 0.55 ng.ml⁻¹ and intra- and inter-assay repeatability were 87.4 % and 79.4 %,
respectively.

296 Statistical analyses

The aim of this study was to investigate the interacting effect of melanin-based colouration 297 with habitat on corticosterone levels. To do this, we used general linear mixed models with 298 corticosterone levels as the dependent variable, blood sampling time along with restraint (*i.e.* 299 the time since the onset of stress), habitat, colour type (pale and dark pigeons) and their 300 interactions as fixed factors, and individual nested within habitat as a random factor. Sex, 301 body mass and parasite intensity were also added as covariates in the model. The best model 302 was chosen according to the AIC_C criterion (Burnham & Anderson 2002) using a descending 303 model selection procedure starting with a model containing the following predictor variables: 304 time, habitat, colour type and all second- and three-term associated interactions plus sex, body 305 mass and parasite intensity. When an interaction was significant, we conducted post-hoc 306 307 pairwise t-tests using a Bonferroni correction applied on a level of significance for the tstatistic computed by Fishers's LSD method, to control for multiple comparisons of 308 corticosterone levels. P-values were adjusted so that a significant level of 0.05 was 309 consistently used (see below). The interacting effect of colour type with habitat on 310 corticosterone levels (see results) was further examined by separate analyses of regression of 311 stress-induced corticosterone levels on colouration scores (continuous variable) in pigeons 312 from each origin. All analyses were run under SPSS 20.0.0. Significance levels were set to 313 0.05 and tests were two-tailed. Means are computed with their standard errors. 314

315

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317 **Results**

Corticosterone levels increased from 2.07 ± 0.16 ng.ml⁻¹ (at 3 min after capture) to 14.27 ± 1.38 ng.ml⁻¹ (at 30 min after capture; n = 41, $F_{3,120} = 63.422$, P < 0.001) across successive blood sampling times, showing that restraint induced a significant stress in individuals. Corticosterone levels measured at 30 minutes after capture were significantly higher than baselines in all groups of pigeons as defined by each combination of colouration × habitat levels (Bonferroni correction, all $P \le 0.012$).

Changes in corticosterone across blood sampling times was significantly associated with the 324 interacting effect of colour type with habitat, as resulting from the best model (effect of 325 Sampling time x Colour type x Habitat: P = 0.03, AIC_C = 884.31; Table 2). Corticosterone 326 levels measured in restrained individuals at 3 min and at 10 min after capture were neither 327 associated with colour type (post hoc Bonferroni correction, all P > 0.473) nor with habitat 328 (post hoc Bonferroni correction, all P > 0.999, Figure 1). By contrast, at 20 min and at 30 min 329 after capture, darker individuals reached significantly higher corticosterone levels than paler 330 individuals, this difference being detected in pigeons from rural habitat (post-hoc Bonferroni 331 correction, at 20 min: P = 0.01; at 30 min : P < 0.001; Figure 1), but not in pigeons from 332 other habitats (post hoc Bonferroni correction, at 20 min: all P > 0.37; at 30 min : all P >333 0.08; Figure 1). In addition, corticosterone levels measured at 20 min and at 30 min after 334 capture significantly differed among habitats, being higher in pigeons from the rural habitat 335 than in pigeons from the urban center habitat, these differences being detected in darker 336 individuals (post hoc Bonferroni correction for urban center versus rural farm at 20 min: P =337 0.046; at 30 min: P < 0.001; Figure 1), but not in paler individuals (post-hoc Bonferroni at 20 338 min: all P > 0.93; at 30 min: all P > 0.67; Figure 1). A positive, linear relation between stress-339 induced corticosterone levels at 30 min and colouration scores (continuous variable) was 340 detected in pigeons from rural farm ($F_{1,11} = 7.190$, P = 0.021, $R^2 = 0.395$, n = 13; Figure 2c) 341 suggesting than darker pigeons mounted a stronger corticosterone response, but not in pigeons 342

from urban center ($F_{1,13} = 1.773$, P = 0.206, $R^2 = 0.120$, n = 15; Figure 2a) or urban park ($F_{1,11}$ 344 = 1.094, P = 0.318, $R^2 = 0.090$, n = 13; Figure 2b).

345

346

347 Discussion

The aim of this study was to compare stress response both within and between differentlycoloured pigeons across differently urbanized habitats.

Our results show that dark pigeons from the rural habitat reached higher levels of 350 corticosterone levels in response to stress as compared to dark pigeons from the urban center 351 habitat and to pale pigeons from either habitat. Differences between mean corticosterone 352 levels at 30 min of restraint that are necessary for statistical tests to have an acceptable power 353 (80%) have been defined by a recent meta-analysis using the coefficients of variation 354 obtained in several bird species (Cockrem et al. 2009). A rule of thumb is that the difference 355 between means must be at least 80 % and 50 % of the lowest mean for sample sizes of 5 and 356 10, respectively. In this study, mean corticosterone levels at 30 min differed by 143 % and 357 137 % of the lowest mean between differently coloured pigeons in rural habitat (9.80 ng.ml⁻¹ 358 *versus* 23.21 ng.ml⁻¹, N > 6) and between dark pigeons from differently urbanized habitats 359 (9.55 ng.ml⁻¹ versus 23.21 ng.ml⁻¹, $N \ge 5$), respectively. Thus, we were confident that the 360 significant interacting effect of colour type with habitat on stress-induced corticosterone 361 levels did not arise by sampling error. 362

Inter-individual variations in corticosterone stress response can arise from altered pituitary and/or adrenal functions due to chronic stress generated by captive (Romero & Wingfield 1999; Dickens *et al.* 2009) or natural conditions (Walker *et al.* 2006; Cyr & Romero 2009), but this possibility seems unlikely in our study. First, acclimation to captivity lasted for at least three weeks (following Pascual *et al.* 1999) and resulted in low body mass variation (2

% only) and in corticosterone levels close to, or lower than, those of free-living pigeons 368 (baseline levels: 2 versus 9 ng.ml⁻¹; stress-induced levels; 14 versus 15 ng.ml⁻¹; Romero & 369 Wingfield 2001). This contrasts with expectations under stressful captive conditions (Romero 370 et al. 1997; Romero & Wingfield 1999; Dickens et al. 2009). Second, corticosterone baseline 371 levels did not depend on the factors of interest (colour types and habitats; Figure 1), 372 suggesting that different stress responses to restraint experiment were not due to differences 373 in physiological adjustments to captivity. Additionally, it is very unlikely that any seasonal 374 flexibility of stress response can account for differences in corticosterone levels found in our 375 work because pigeons were all synchronized for moult and were all submitted to the same 376 light, climate and feeding conditions. Finally, health parameters known to be affected by 377 chronic stress (body mass and parasite intensity; Cyr & Romero 2009) did not vary according 378 to colour types or habitats, nor did they contribute to predict variations in corticosterone 379 levels. Hence, variations in stress responses observed between pigeons in our study were 380 unlikely to result from chronic stress or associated alteration of the HPA-axis. 381

Although we found no significant difference in health marks of chronic stress between 382 differently coloured pigeons, the role for other physiological factors e.g. oxidative stress 383 and/or social factors affecting corticosterone levels can not be ruled out (Senar 1999; 384 Giraudau & McGraw 2014). Alternatively, the difference in stress response may rather have 385 a genetic basis. Such association between colouration and stress response may be due to the 386 pleiotropic effects of the melanocortin system (Ducrest *et al.* 2008). Melanocortins (α -, β -, 387 and y-MSH and ACTH) of *POMC*-gene bind to the melanocortin-1 receptor (MC1-R) thereby 388 triggering melanin synthesis, but also to other receptors involved in the HPA-axis activation 389 (MC2-R and MC4-R), thus inducing some pleiotropic effects on glucocorticoid production 390 and resistance to stress (reviewed in Ducrest et al. 2008). Accordingly, systemic injections of 391 α -MSH in rodents induce changes in stress-induced corticosterone levels (Daynes *et al.* 1987; 392

Racca et al. 2005). In wild barn owls Tyto alba, genetic association between colouration and 393 394 stress response has been inferred from parent-to-offspring inheritance of covariation between the degree of melanic colouration and stress-induced corticosterone levels (Almasi et al. 395 2010). Furthermore, in domestic rainbow trout Oncorhynchus mykiss, melanin pigmentation 396 patterns are associated with, and can be artificially co-selected with, the responsiveness of the 397 hypothalamus-pituitary-interrenal axis (the equivalent of HPA axis in fishes; Kittilsen et al. 398 2009). Here, we found that stress-induced corticosterone levels covaried with the degree of 399 melanic colouration, as reflected by black colouration scores, in one population of feral 400 pigeons. In the same species, food restriction affects the physiological trade-offs between 401 402 maintenance and reproduction as a function of black colouration scores in the same species Indeed, under food restriction, darker eumelanic females had a higher egg production, but 403 darker adults tended to lose more body mass than paler conspecifics (Jacquin et al. 2012). 404 405 Because the HPA-axis is broadly implicated in such trade-offs (Sapolsky et al. 2000), it is likely that a responsiveness of the HPA-axis to nutritional stress depending on plumage 406 407 colouration partly explains the results of Jacquin et al. 2012., which is in full accordance our results. Overall, our results support the idea that melanin-based colouration is associated with 408 the ability to cope with stress (Fargallo et al. 2007; Roulin et al. 2008; Almasi et al. 2012) 409 through a differential regulation of corticosterone release (Almasi et al. 2010). 410

The effect of origin on the covariation between colouration and stress response could reflect either an aviary effect, although the aviaries did not differ in any characteristics (size or any biotic or abiotic parameter measured), and/or a habitat effect. The effect of origin on the covariation between colouration and stress response could reflect either an aviary effect or a habitat effect, as our design could not disentangle these factors. While the first possibility cannot be ruled out, it seems unlikely because aviaries did not differ in any characteristic (size, exposition, or any biotic or abiotic parameter measured). Differently coloured pigeons

may display different levels of expression of genes involved in the HPA axis activity in 418 419 relation to environmental factors (either under captive or natural conditions). These factors may involve peri-natal exposure to corticosterone which has profound organizational effects 420 on the HPA axis that shape stress response later in life (Love & Williams 2008a; Love & 421 Williams 2008b; Wada et al. 2009). Corticosterone levels in developing birds primarily 422 depend on maternal condition, nest-site characteristics and parental provisioning, all of these 423 factors being likely affected by the level of urbanization of habitats (Crino et al. 2011, Bonier 424 2012). An interacting effect of melanic colouration with environment on the level of 425 melanocortins has been well identified in tawny owls Strix aluco. In this species, the level of 426 *POMC*-gene expression, as reflected by the circulating levels of POMC prohormone, as well 427 as the level of gene expression of convertase enzyme PC1/3 which cleaves POMC 428 prohormone to obtain ACTH, covary with the degree of melanic colouration under favorable 429 430 conditions (Roulin et al. 2011; Emaresi et al. 2013). By contrast, in birds experiencing natural or experimentally-induced higher levels of stress, no colour-specific difference is detected 431 potentially leading to up- and down-regulation of melanocortins acting on the HPA axis 432 activity depending on conditions (Noguchi et al. 2006; Roulin et al. 2011). Whether variation 433 in stress-induced corticosterone levels is linked to those of POMC-gene expression in feral 434 pigeons remains to be tested. Finally among-population variation in stress response could be 435 due to some genetic variation between the rural and the center-urbanized populations, 436 independently of the colour phenotype and genetic underpinning. Indeed, important genetic 437 variation exists between C. livia populations, for instance in the allele frequencies of 438 numerous polymorphic proteins (Johnston & Janiga, 1995). Such variations are notably 439 measured between domestic and feral populations (Johnston & Janiga, 1995). In our study, it 440 is likely that rural pigeons are genetically closer to domestic lines than are the center-441

urbanized pigeons. Such a possibility requires future investigations examining the relationshipbetween the genetic transmission of stress response and that of plumage coloration.

Alternatively, our results may reflect genetically-based, colour-specific divergences in 444 stress response between differently urbanized populations due to selective forces associated 445 with the urban environment. Such divergence despite the relatively recent history of urban 446 colonization in feral pigeons would imply that evolutionary processes act quickly to shape the 447 corticosterone response to stress, as also suggested in other bird species (Partecke et al. 2006; 448 Angelier et al. 2011; Atwell et al. 2012). Rationales for strong selection on stress response is 449 that it is genetically determined and heritable (Evans et al. 2006; Jenkins et al. 2014) and it 450 451 has important fitness consequences (Breuner et al. 2008). Among the possible mechanisms of inheritance of stress response in polymorphic species, a role for imprinting on the genes 452 coding for the receptors to regulate the HPA axis has been proposed (Almasi et al. 2010; 453 454 Chong et al. 2007). Such genomic imprinting would occur in darker individuals and impair under some circumstances the pleiotropically-mediated genetic association between stress 455 response and melanin-based colouration (Almasi et al. 2010). A similar mechanism may 456 operate in dark feral pigeons established in highly urbanized areas, potentially conferring 457 offspring with selective advantages as imprinted genes are targeted by selection and allow for 458 rapid adaptive evolution (Danchin et al. 2011). So far, two studies have examined the genetic 459 underpinning of differences in stress responses between differently urbanized populations of 460 birds. Both studies found that urban birds raised in a common garden showed an attenuated 461 corticosterone response to a 30-min restaint stress when compared with their wildland 462 counterparts, the difference between corticosterone levels being highly comparable to that 463 observed in dark feral pigeons (mean stress-induced corticosterone levels in less urbanized 464 versus more urbanized populations: European blackbirds Turdus merula : 30 versus 15 ng.ml⁻ 465 ¹. Partecke *et al.* 2006: dark-eved junco *Junco hvemalis* : 20 versus 12 ng.ml⁻¹. Atwell *et al.* 466

2012; feral pigeons: 23 versus 10 ng.ml⁻¹, this study). Thus our findings further extend the
idea of urban selective pressures driving genetically-determined attenuated HPA
responsiveness. This hypothesis should be further examined using replicates of habitats for
each level of urbanization.

Independently of their exact underpinnings, a fundamental aspect of our results is 471 that variation in stress response across different environmental conditions was observed in 472 dark, but not in pale pigeons. This suggests that the genetic basis of stress response in darker 473 pigeons allows for a greater plasticity or flexibility to environmental conditions (genotype-by-474 environment effect) and/or is more easily targeted by selection. Jacquin et al. (2013a) recently 475 showed that feral pigeons are darker in more urbanized areas of the Parisian agglomeration 476 despite important gene flux between populations (Jacob, Prévot-Julliard and Baudry, 477 unpublished), suggesting strong effect of selection on plumage colouration (Kawecki and 478 479 Ebert 2004, Antoniazza et al. 2010). Whether any modulation of the HPA responsiveness accounts for some processes of local adaptation in dark pigeons requires extended field 480 481 studies measuring the relation between stress physiology and fitness (reproductive success and survival) in differently coloured and differently urbanized individuals. The precise urban 482 selective pressures involved in such local adaptation remain unknown, but may involve any 483 484 factor associated with urban environments including trace metals (Chatelain et al. 2014) and human presence (Møller 2008). 485

Another important finding is that the covariation between melanin-based colouration and stress-induced corticosterone levels was observed in rural pigeons but not in more urbanized ones. This result opens the possibility that the genetic, pleiotropically-mediated association between colouration and stress response may be disrupted for some reasons and under some circumstances, resulting in the coexistence of alternative stress responses in some populations with plumage colour variation, but not in others. Theoretical models predict that

the instability of environment is a potent selective mechanisms explaining individual 492 493 variations in stress coping styles within populations (Dingemanse et al. 2004, Dingemanse & Réale 2005; Carere et al. 2010) and more generally, that distinct personalities should emerge 494 only under moderately favourable ecological conditions (i.e. under neither unfavourable nor 495 highly favourable conditions; Luttbeg & Sih 2010). Our results support the above predictions 496 as the coexistence of colour-specific stress responses occurs in rural but not in urbanized areas 497 which are characterized by a hampering of environmental variability (e.g. the seasonality of 498 resource availability and climate) and likely constitute highly favourable ecological 499 conditions for feral pigeons (Sacchi et al. 2002; Shochat et al. 2006). Another selective factor 500 on the diversity of coping styles is the relative frequency of occurrence of similarly or 501 differently behaving individuals (Wolf & McNamara 2012), which likely varies between 502 differently urbanized populations of feral pigeons (Jacquin et al. 2013b). We are aware that 503 504 measuring stress response only once within individuals and only in captive birds limits the inferences that can be made, both with respect to the repeatability and the generalization 505 506 under natural conditions. However, our results suggest that habitats along rural-urban gradient are potentially good candidates for alternative selective regimes acting on stress coping styles 507 and more generally personalities. This hypothesis has already been partially validated by 508 recent studies in birds (Evans et al. 2010; Atwell et al. 2012; Bokony et al. 2012; Miranda et 509 al. 2013; Mueller et al. 2013) and humans (Malan et al. 2012). Research efforts are now 510 needed towards the measurements of suites of behavioural and physiological traits along the 511 proactive-reactive coping style axis in urban versus rural populations of pigeons and other 512 species with plumage colour variation. 513

To conclude, we show that in a bird species with plumage colour variation, the degree of melanin-based colouration is associated with the ability to modulate stress response as a function of environmental conditions. The extent to which phenotypic adjustments,

(epi)genetic divergences and the interaction between both processes explain differences in 517 colour-specific stress responses across environmental conditions requires further studies. The 518 issue could be addressed using common garden studies examining the reaction norms on 519 corticosterone release in differently coloured individuals from distinct habitats. Whatever the 520 exact cause of variation, the changes in stress response across environments being likely 521 genetically associated with colouration provides promising perspectives for the evolvability of 522 the HPA-axis in species with plumage colour variation. Thus our results suggest the 523 suitability of biological models with melanin-based variation in questioning the evolvability 524 of the HPA axis and perhaps that of copying styles under different selective regimes, at a time 525 when flourishing theoretical models explaining the evolution of personalities urgently call for 526 empirical tests (Wolf et al. 2007; Dingemanse & Wolf 2010; Dingemanse et al. 2010; Luttbeg 527 & Sih 2010; Carere et al. 2010; Wolf & McNamara 2012). 528

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All applicable international, national, and/or institutional guidelines for the care and useof animals were followed.

540 This article does not contain any studies with human participants performed by any of 541 the authors.

542 Informed consent was obtained from all individual participants included in the study.

543

544 **Conflicts of interest**

545 The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

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842 Table 1

843 Characteristics of habitats

Site	Capture date	Site name	City (district number)	GPS coordinates	Urbanization rate (% construced area)	Habitat type
A	02/03/2010	Porte Saint- Denis	Paris (X)	48°52'11.194"N 2°21'9.342"E	97	Urban center
В	04/02/2010	Arènes de Lutèce	Paris (V)	48°50'42.269''N 2°21'8.614''E	79	Urban park
С	11/02/2010	Mandres- Les-Roses	Mandres- Les-Roses (94)	48°42'23.536"N 2°33'15.557"E	47	Rural farm

844

845 Table 2

- Effects of blood sampling time, plumage colour type and habitat on corticosterone levels (n =
- 847 164 measurements) along restraint stress in feral pigeons (n = 41 pigeons).
- 848

Effect	df	F	Р
Sex	1,34	5.52	0.03
Sampling time	3,105	64.06	< 0.001
Colour type	1,34	3.96	0.05
Habitat	2,34	1.37	0.27
Sampling time × Colour type	3,105	2.40	0.07
Sampling time × Habitat	6,105	0.76	0.61
Colour type × Habitat	2,34	3.01	0.06
Sampling time \times Colour type \times Habitat	6,105	2.53	0.03

849 Significant *P*-values (< 0.05) are in bold

851

Fig. 1 Corticosterone levels (CORT) measured at 3 min (1st blood sample, baselines), 10 min 852 (2nd blood sample), 20 min (3rd blood sample) and 30 min (4th blood sample) after capture in 853 pale (white circles) and dark (black circles) restrained feral pigeons from 3 habitats (urban 854 center: pale, n = 10, dark, n = 5; urban park: pale, n = 5, dark, n = 8; rural area: pale, n = 7, 855 dark, n = 6). Values are means \pm SE. Different superscript letters represent significant 856 differences (P < 0.05) between habitats within each colour type morph and each sampling 857 time following post hoc tests. The letters can not be compared within habitats. Asterisks 858 represent significant differences (P < 0.05) between colour type morphs within each habitat 859 following post hoc tests 860

861

Fig. 2 Relation between stress-induced corticosterone levels (CORT) measured at 30 min after captures and black colouration scores in feral pigeons from 3 sites corresponding to a) urban center (N =15), b) urban park (N = 13), and c) rural area (N = 15). The line is for the significant regression of CORT on colouration scores (P = 0.021, see results).