

# Predation

*“Populační ekologie živočichů“*

Stano Pekár



# Predator categories



**True predators** - catch several animals and gain sustenance for their own fitness (spiders, lions)

**Parasitoids** - consume about single host, free adults but larvae developing on or within a host, consuming it prior to pupation (Hymenoptera, Diptera)

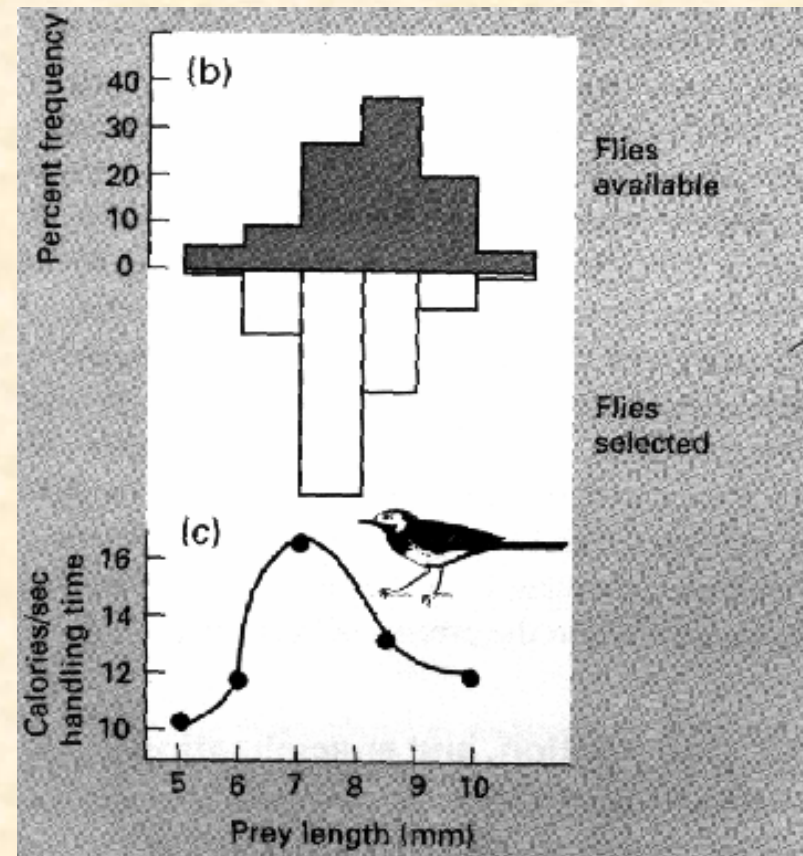
**Parasites** - live in close association with a host, gain sustenance from the host, but often do not cause mortality (Acari, Trematodes)

**Herbivores** - feed on plants, may totally consume plants (seed-eaters) or partially (aphids, cows)

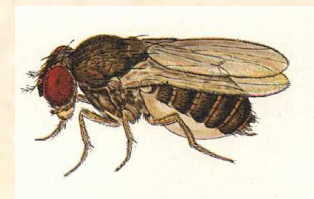


# Dietary specialisation

- ▶ monophagous (single prey type)
  - ▶ oligophagous (few prey types)
  - ▶ polyphagous/euryphagous (many prey types)
- not capable of consuming all prey types
- 
- ▶ predators choose most profitable prey
  - select prey items for which the gain is greatest (energy intake per time spent handling)



- ▶ predators tend to specialise to a greater or lesser extent during evolution
  - monophagy evolved where prey exerts pressures which demand morphological adaptations
  - polyphagy evolved where prey was unpredictable
- ▶ true predators - majority are polyphagous
- ▶ parasites - commonly monophagous due to intimate association with hosts, their life-cycle is tuned to that of their host
- ▶ parasitoids - often monophagous but some are polyphagous presumably because adults are free living
- ▶ herbivores - rather polyphagous, many insect herbivores are specialised as a result of adaptation to plant secondary metabolites (*Drosophila pachea* consumes rotten tissues of *Senita* cactus which contain poisonous alkaloids)

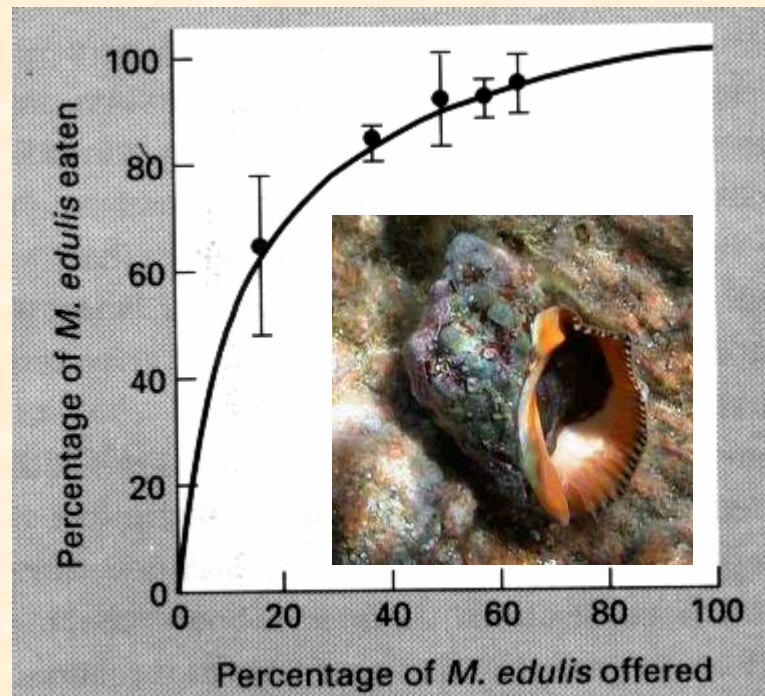


# Preference & switching

- ▶ even polyphagous predators prefer certain prey
- constant preference irrespective of prey density
- switching to more common prey

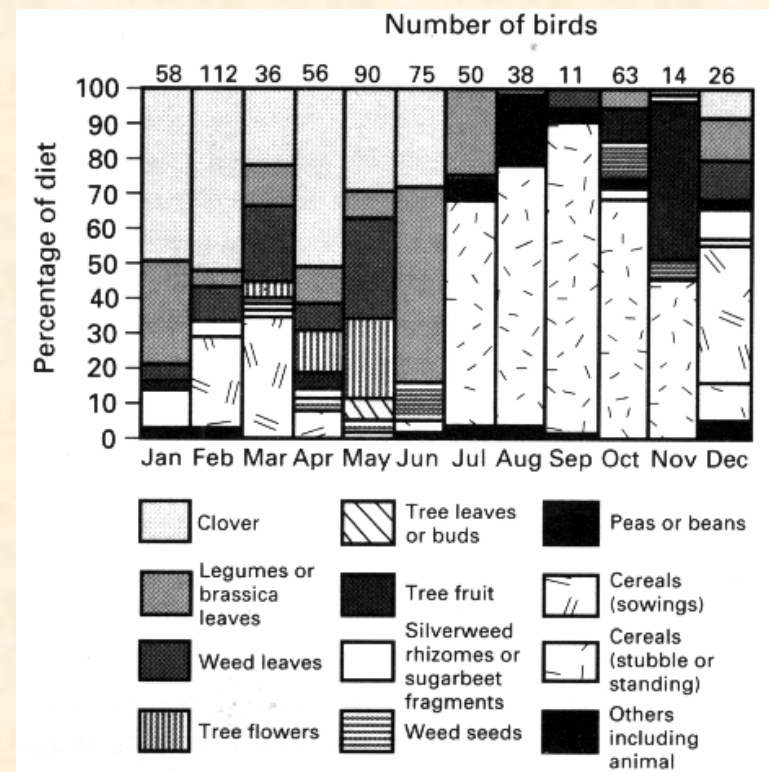


*Thais* preferred *Mytilus edulis* over *M. californianus*



Murdoch & Oaten (1975)

Seasonal shift in *Columba*

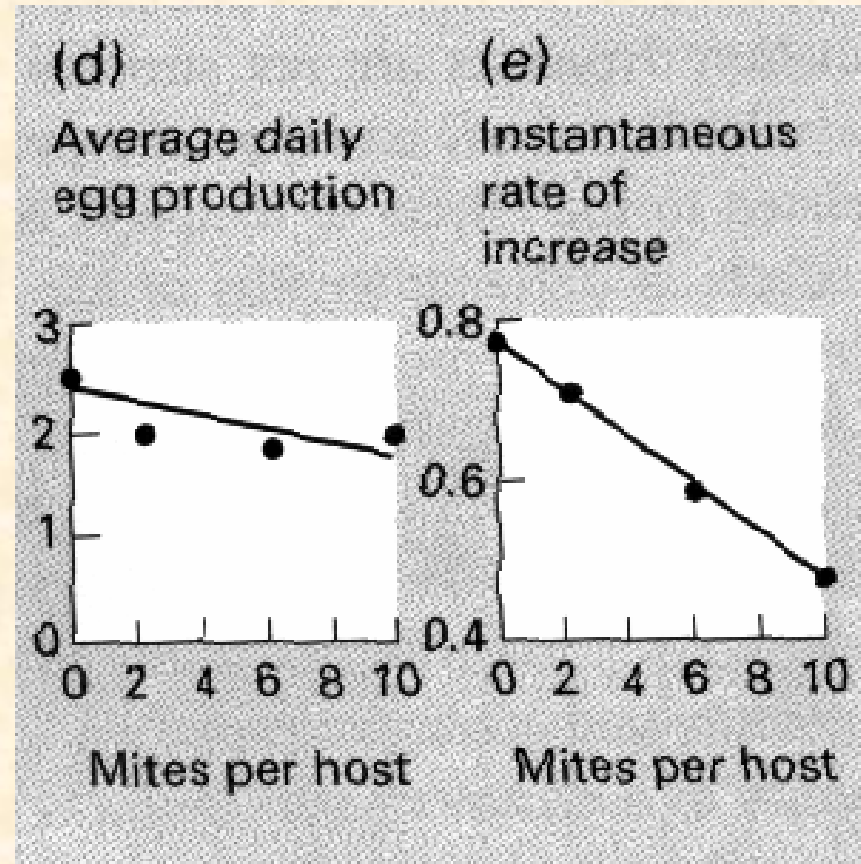


Murton et al. (1964)

# Effect on fitness of prey

- ▶ predation has positive effect on population of prey because reduce intraspecific competition - stabilise prey population dynamic
- ▶ true predators and parasitoids reduce fitness of prey to „0“
  - *Mustela* consumed mainly solitary and injured individuals, so it has little effect on the *Ondatra* population growth
- ▶ caterpillars defoliate partially so that re-growth can occur, but cause reduction in fertility
- ▶ parasites - reduce fitness partially, effect is correlated with the burden

Negative effect of mite parasites on *Hydrometra*



Lanciani (1975)

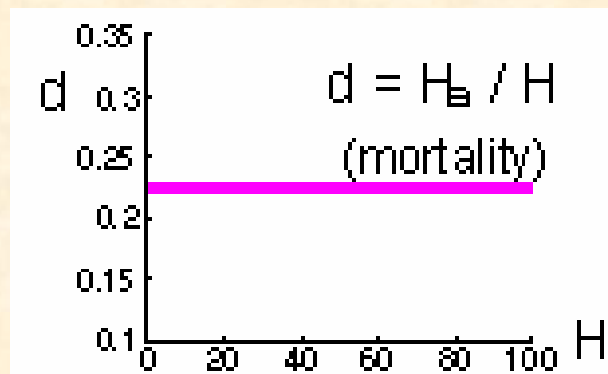
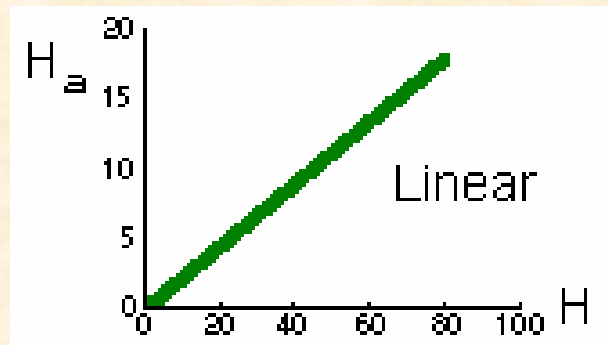
# Total response

- ▶ mortality of prey increases with the prey density due to predation
- ▶ Total response of a predator
  - increasing consumption rate of individual predators → **functional response**
  - increasing consumption of population of predators → **numerical response**
- ▶ Holling (1959) found that predation rate increased with increasing prey population density
  - defined three types of functional responses

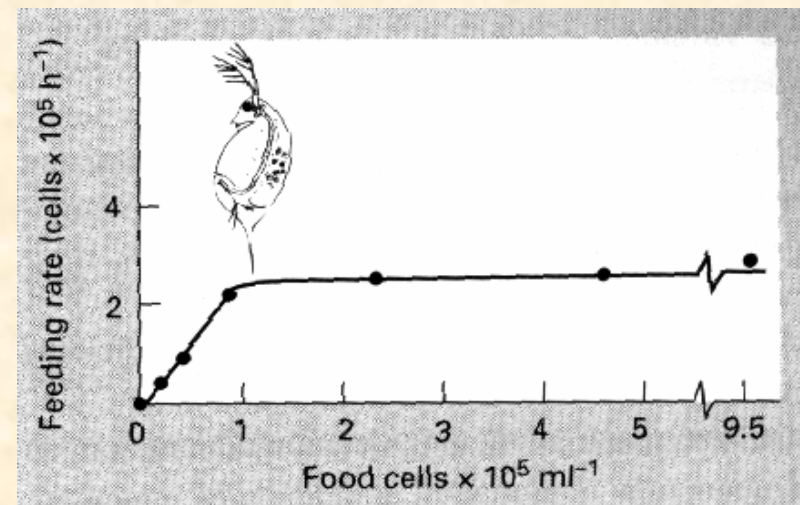
# Functional response

## Type I

- ▶ number of captured prey is proportional to density
- prey mortality is constant
- ▶ less common
- ▶ found in passive predators (web-building spiders)
- ▶ the handling time exerts its effect suddenly



*Daphnia* feeding on *Saccharomyces* - above  $10^5$  cells  
*Daphnia* is unable to swallow all food

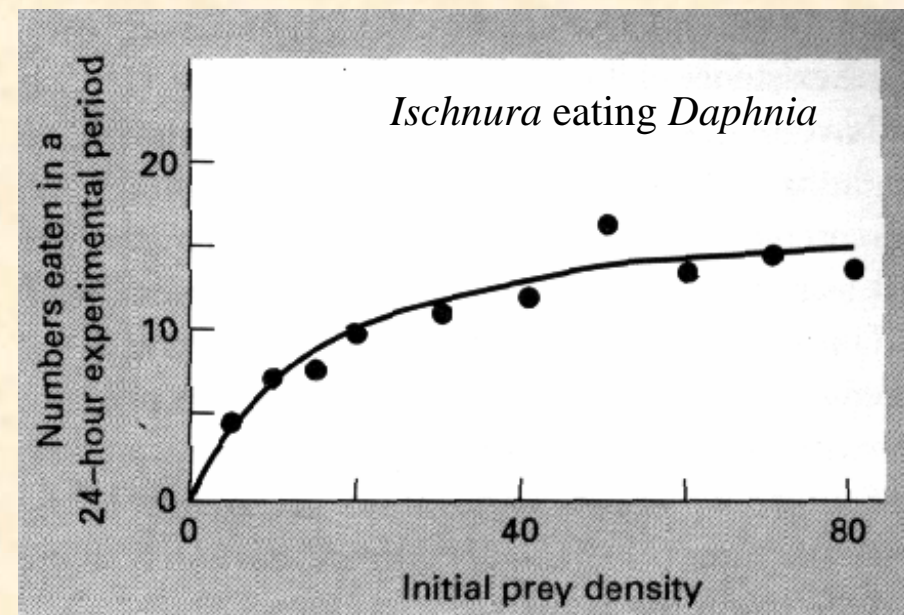
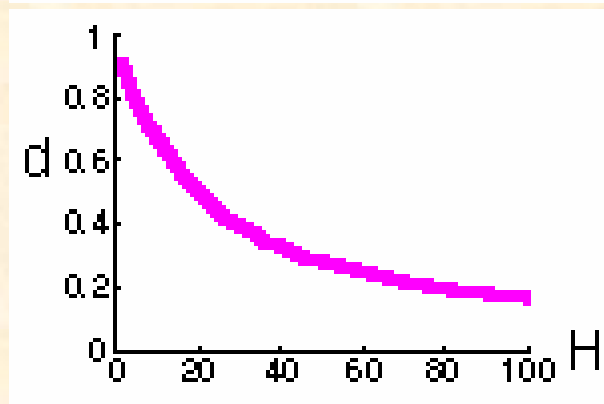
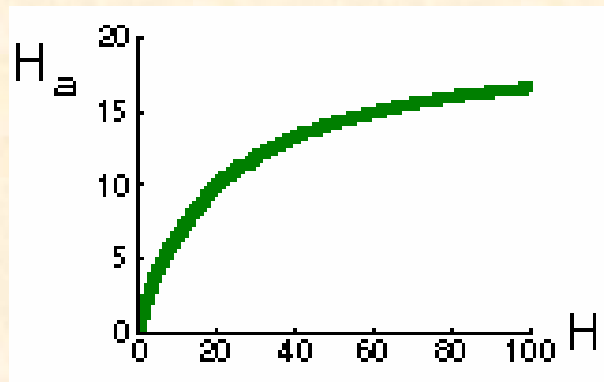


Rigler (1961)



## Type II

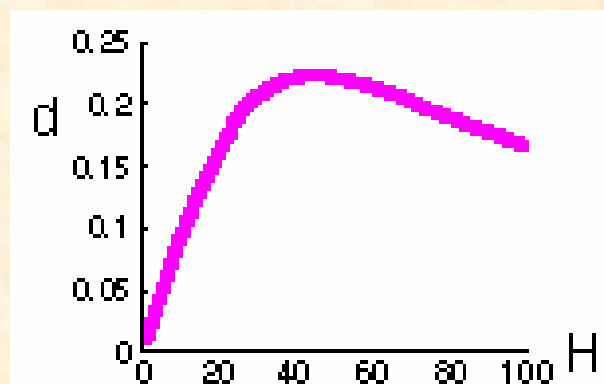
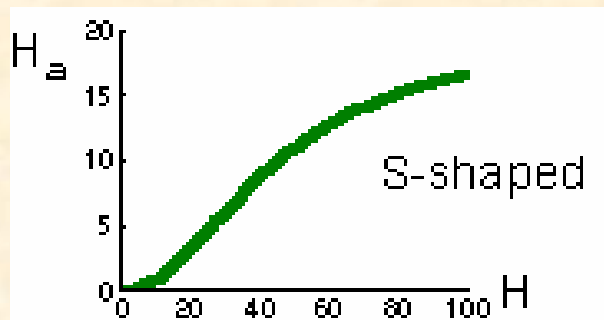
- ▶ predators cause maximum mortality at low prey density
- ▶ as prey density increases, search becomes trivial and handling takes up increasing portion of the time
- ▶ saturation of predation at high densities
- prey mortality declines with density



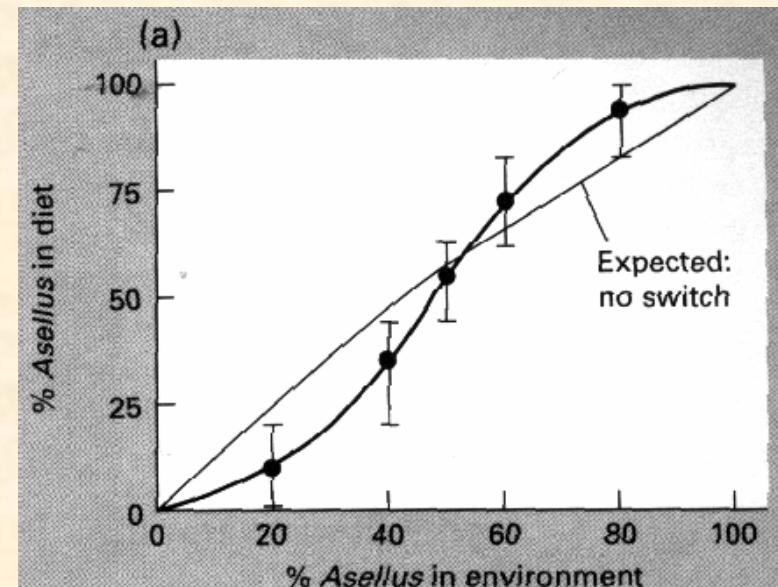
Thompson (1975)

## Type III

- ▶ when attack rate increases or handling time decreases with increasing density
- ▶ predators develop search image (respond to kairomones)
- ▶ polyphagous predators switch to the most abundant prey
- prey mortality increases then declines



*Notonecta* switched from *Cleon* to *Asellus* based on its abundance



Lawton et al. (1974)

# Models of response

$T$  .. total time

$T_S$  .. searching time - searching for prey

$T_H$  .. handling time - handling prey (chasing, killing, eating, digesting)

$$T = T_S + T_H$$

$H$  .. prey density

$H_a$  .. number of captured prey

$a$  .. capture efficiency or “search rate”

## Type I

- ▶ consumption rate of a predator is unlimited
- ▶  $T_H = 0$

$$H_a = aHT_S$$

## Type II

▶ consumption rate of a predator is limited because even if no time is needed for search, predator still needs to spend time on prey handling

▶  $T_H > 0$

▶ predator captures  $H_a$  prey during  $T$

$$T_H = H_a T_h$$

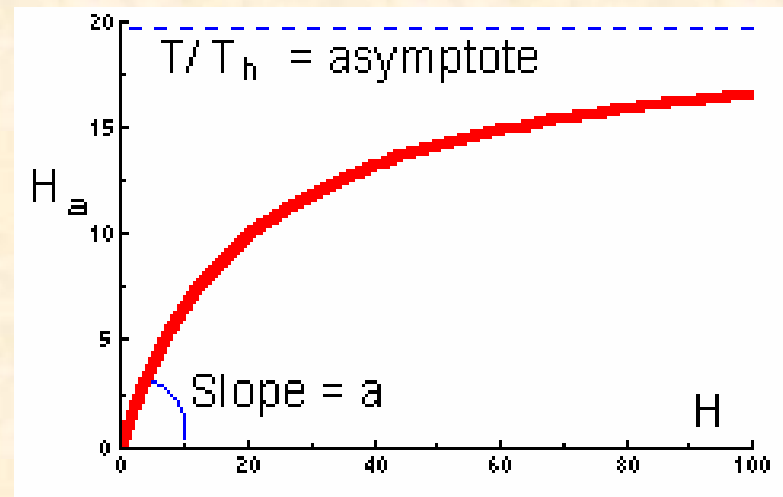
$T_h$  .. time spent on handling 1 prey

$$H_a = aHT_S \rightarrow T_S = \frac{H_a}{aH}$$

▶ at low density predator spends most of the time searching, at high density on prey handling

$$T = T_H + T_S = H_a T_h + \frac{H_a}{aH}$$

$$H_a = \frac{aHT}{1 + aHT_h}$$



## Type III

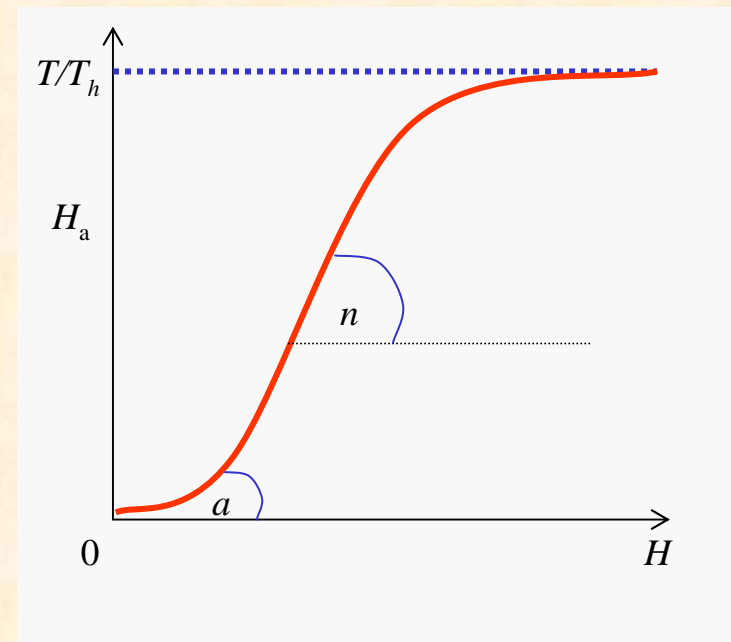
► consumption increases at low densities and decreases at higher densities

$n$  .. rate of increased consumption at higher densities

if  $n = 1 \rightarrow$  Type II

$a$  .. rate of increase at low densities

$$H_a = \frac{aTH^n}{1 + aT_h H^n}$$



# Numerical response

Increase of predator population may result from:

- ▶ **increased rate of reproduction**

- the more prey is consumed the more energy can predator allocate to reproduction
- delayed response

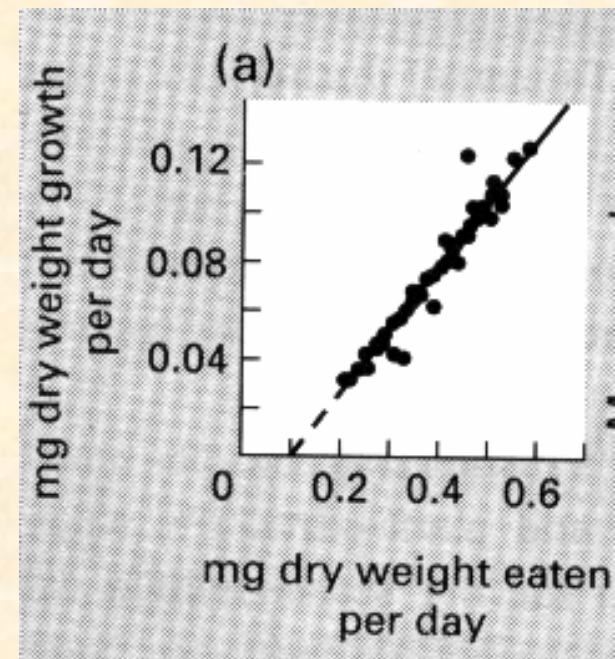
- ▶ parasitoids - one host is sufficient

- ▶ predators, herbivores, parasites

- certain quantity of prey tissue is required for basic maintenance = lower threshold



Growth rate in *Linyphia*



Turnbull (1962)

▶ **attraction of predators to prey aggregations**

- immediate response
- aggregated distribution makes search of predators more profitable

▶ conversion of prey into predator numbers

$$\frac{dP}{dt} = faHP - dP$$

$f$  .. conversion efficiency

$d$  .. mortality of predators

▶ Ivlev (1955) model

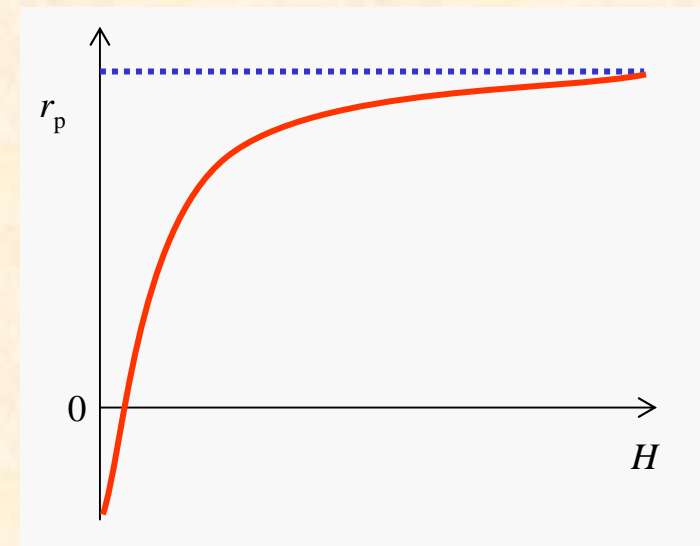
$$r = a(1 - e^{-fV}) - d$$

$V$  .. amount of prey

$a$  .. search rate

$f$  .. conversion efficiency

$d$  .. mortality of predators

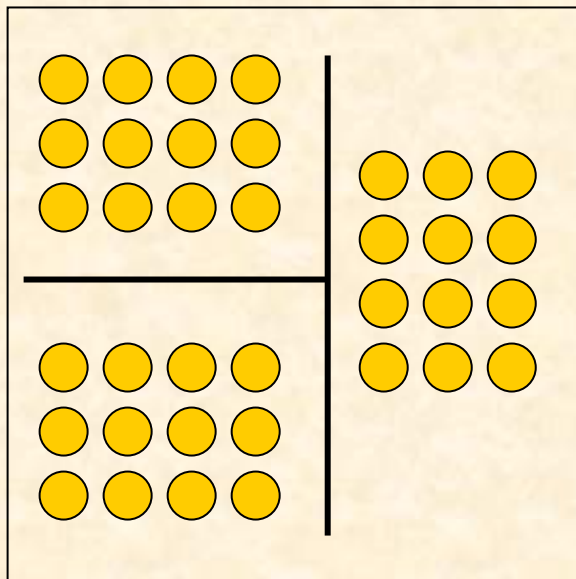


# Aggregation

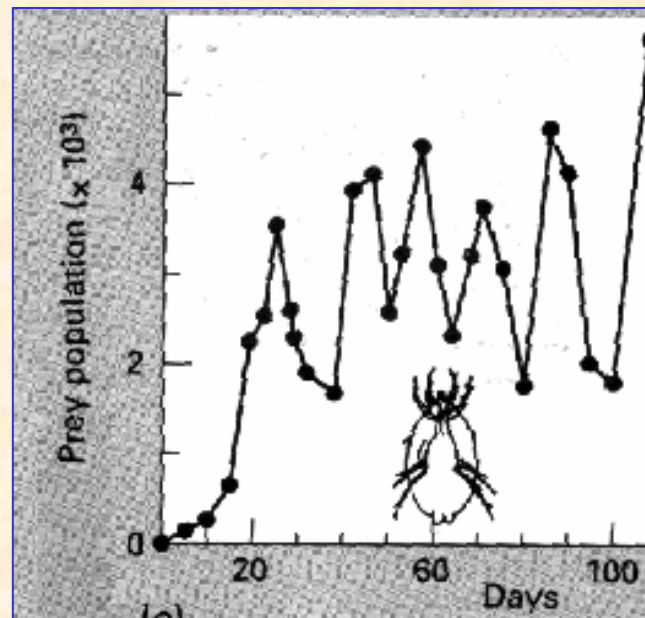
- ▶ instead of concentration on profitable patches perspective predators and prey may play “hide-and-seek”
- ▶ Huffaker (1958): *Typhlodromus* captured *Eotetranychus* that fed upon oranges
  - *Eotetranychus* maintained fluctuating density
  - addition of *Typhlodromus* led to extinction of both



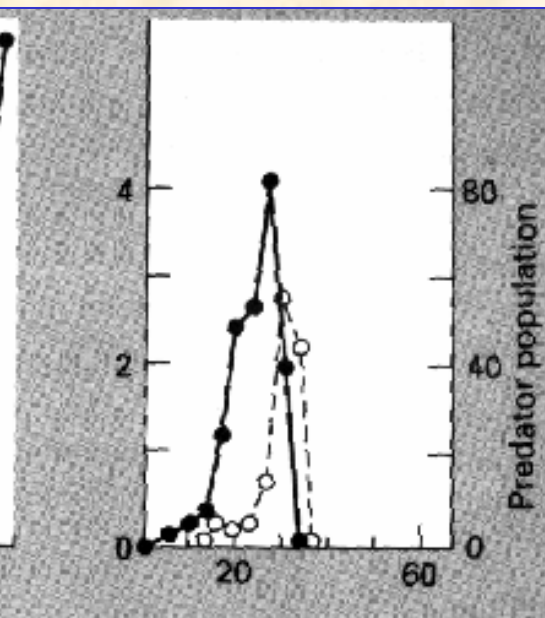
Experimental setup



*Eotetranychus* population dynamic



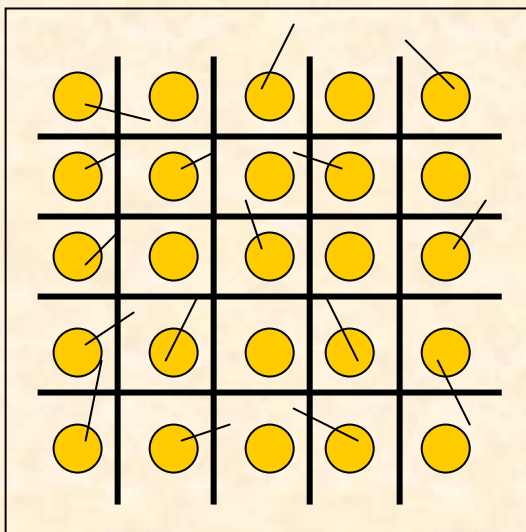
Predator-prey dynamic



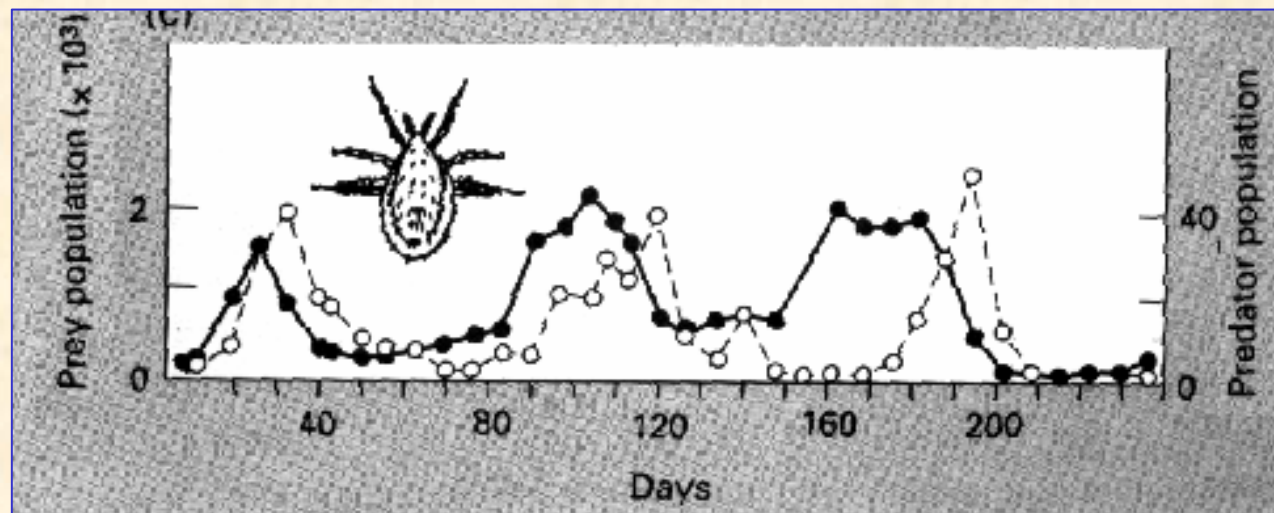


- ▶ making environment patchy
  - by placing Vaseline barriers
  - facilitating dispersal by adding sticks
  
- ▶ each patch was unstable but whole microcosmos was stable
  - patch with prey only → rapid increase of prey
  - patches with predators only → rapid death of predator
  - patches with both → predator consumed prey

Altered experimental setup



Sustained oscillations of the predator-prey system



# Refuge

▶ For fixed proportion of prey - certain proportion of *Ephestia* caterpillars buried deep enough in flour are not attacked by *Venturia* with short ovipositors



▶ For fixed number of prey  
- adult *Balanus* occur in the upper zone where *Thais* can not get during short high tide thus consumes only juveniles  
- a fixed number of *Balanus* is protected from predation irrespective of *Thais* density

▶ both refuge types stabilise the interaction

