

1 **Tick-tock, racing the clock: Parasitism is associated with decreased sprint performance in**
2 **the Eastern Fence Lizard**

3

4 Kristoffer H. Wild^{1,2} & C.M. Gienger²

5

6 1. School of BioSciences, The University of Melbourne, Parkville, Victoria, Australia

7 2. Department of Biology and Center of Excellence for Field Biology, Austin Peay State

8 University, USA

9 **Abstract:**

10 Host-parasite relationships are important components of ecological systems that influence the
11 evolution of both hosts and parasites. High levels of ectoparasitic infections can disrupt host
12 homeostasis, causing adverse effects on health and performance. However, the effects of natural
13 ectoparasitic levels on host physiology are less understood, with most research designs
14 implementing experimental or hormonal manipulations of hosts. In this study, we examined the
15 interplay between tick parasitism and host characteristics on body condition and locomotor
16 performance in Eastern fence lizards in natural settings. We found a higher prevalence of tick
17 infections in male lizards relative to females, with larger males being more likely to experience
18 tick infection. Infected lizards appear to exhibit an energetic trade-off between increased immune
19 function and reduced locomotor performance, which is consistent with the immunocompetence-
20 handicap hypothesis. Higher prevalence of tick infections in adult male lizards may be explained
21 by age as well as the immunosuppressive effects of testosterone. Tick infection did not appear to
22 reduce overall body condition of lizard hosts. Our findings shed light on the interplay between
23 ectoparasitic infection, host characteristics, and locomotor performance under natural conditions.
24 Such insights are crucial for understanding host-parasite dynamics and determining the trade-offs
25 for hosts within ecological contexts.

26

27

28 **Key words:** immunocompetence-handicap hypothesis; sex; body size; locomotor performance;
29 tick load

30 **1| Introduction:**

31 Host-parasite relationships are a fundamental aspect of ecological systems and are shaped by the
32 co-evolutionary trajectories of both hosts and parasites^{1,2}. Parasites exploit resources from their
33 host and have the potential to disrupt behaviour and physiological function, which can ultimately
34 compromise health, influencing survival and reproduction³⁻⁶.

35 A complex interplay of factors determine ectoparasite (tick, mites, fleas, or lice)
36 prevalence, including host species, sex, age, health, and habitat. Host sex can influence parasite
37 load through hormonal variations that may affect immune responses and susceptibility to
38 infection^{7,8}. Developmental processes can dictate host vulnerability across different life stages.
39 For example, in organisms with longer lifespans, elements of the adaptive (acquired) immune
40 system become more robust over time⁹ with increasing exposure to pathogens, thus decreasing
41 susceptibility to parasites¹⁰. Body condition, reflecting the host's overall health and nutritional
42 status, can also be negatively impacted by parasitic infections as hosts use energy resources to
43 fight infection rather than for other critical functions^{11,12}.

44 Trade-offs between immune function and growth/reproduction are central to the
45 Immunocompetence-Handicap Hypothesis (ICHH), which postulates that the expression of
46 sexually selected traits, driven by hormones, can negatively impact an organism's immune
47 function, thereby increasing vulnerability to parasitism^{13,14}. In reptilian hosts, meta-analytic
48 studies and experimental manipulations have supported the ICHH, where testosterone reduces
49 immunocompetence and increases the incidence or severity of parasitism^{15,16}. In lizards,
50 locomotor performance is a sexually selected trait¹⁷ that is strongly influenced by testosterone
51 levels^{18,19}. Therefore, enhanced locomotor performance, driven in part by testosterone, may be
52 accompanied by increased susceptibility to parasites such as ticks, resulting in a dynamic balance
53 between sexual selection, performance, and survival.

54 Most studies investigating the influence of tick parasitism on health and performance
55 have been from experimental manipulation of tick prevalence on hosts^{20,21} or through hormonal
56 manipulations^{12,22,23}. Under natural conditions, there is limited information on how the host-
57 parasite relationship varies with factors such as sex and age, and whether infection influences
58 host physiological traits. Here, we investigate how tick infection varies across sex and body size,
59 and test whether locomotor performance or body condition is affected by parasitism in Eastern
60 Fence Lizards (*Sceloporus undulatus*). This species has pronounced sex and ontogenetic
61 differences in hormonal profiles, including corticosterone and testosterone^{23,24}, and hormonal
62 manipulations in wild males (exogenous testosterone-implants) have been shown to increase
63 rates of tick infection²⁵. In this study, we tested four key predictions for how hosts are affected
64 by naturally occurring tick infection: (1) that male and female lizards will show different
65 prevalence of tick infections; (2) that larger body size will be associated with a higher likelihood
66 of tick infection; (3) that tick-infected lizards will exhibit reduced locomotor performance; and
67 (4) that tick infection will influence the Body Condition Index (BCI) of the lizards. These data
68 will help us understand the complex interplay between tick parasitism, host characteristics, and
69 locomotor performance, thereby shedding light on the dynamics of host-parasite interactions in
70 natural settings.

71 **2| Methods**

72 Field research was conducted at Land Between the Lakes National Recreation Area in Kentucky
73 (United States), where *Dermacentor variabilis* (American Dog Tick) and *Amblyomma*
74 *americanum* (Lone Star Tick) are common ectoparasites of *S. undulatus*. During the Spring and
75 Summer of 2014 and 2015, adult *S. undulatus* were captured by hand or by noosing.

76 Morphological characteristics, including the enlarged base of the tail, femoral pores, and ventral
77 colouration, were used to determine sex²³. Snout-to-vent length (SVL), body mass, and hindlimb
78 length were measured upon capture. Hindlimb length was defined as the greatest distance on the
79 outstretched leg from the distal tip of the fourth toe to the point of insertion in the body wall.
80 Lizards were measured to the nearest 0.1 mm for length and 0.25 g for mass. Capture locations
81 were recorded with a handheld GPS (Garmin Fēnix® GPS). The number of ticks infecting each
82 captured lizard was recorded in the field before each animal was placed in a cloth bag and
83 transported to Hancock Biological Station (Murray, KY), where the ticks were recounted again
84 before laboratory locomotor performance trials.

85 All locomotor performance trials were conducted within 24h of capture. Each lizard was
86 placed individually into copper containers (repurposed autoclave pipette boxes; 4cm x 6cm x
87 25cm) and placed inside a lighted incubator (Percival I30-BLL) for 30 min. The incubator was
88 maintained at 33°C (±1.0), the preferred temperature for *S. undulatus*²⁶. After 30min, each lizard
89 was placed on a race track (2.4 x 0.2m) and encouraged to run by prodding with a soft-bristle
90 paintbrush. Astroturf covered the race track floor, which was marked into 25cm segments. Each
91 trial was recorded at a rate of 35 frames s⁻¹ with a camera mounted 3m above the centre of the
92 race track. Lizards were raced three times, with trials separated by at least 30min for recovery.
93 The quality of each sprinting trial was classified as “poor” or “good”²⁷. A poor trial was defined
94 as a pause or reversal run by a lizard, and a good trial was defined as a continuous run by the
95 lizard. A minimum of two good trials were required for an individual to be included in the
96 analyses. Maximum sprint speed was defined as the single fastest 25cm interval of the trials, and
97 maximum 2-meter run speed was the single fastest continuous 2-meter run of the trials. Videos
98 were analysed using Tracker Video Software (version 4.85; <https://physlets.org/tracker/>). Further
99 details on video data collection can be found in Wild & Gienger²⁸. Lizards were then marked
100 with a unique toe clip and released back at their location of capture within 24h of initial capture.

101 All statistical analyses were conducted using the R environment, ver. 4.2.0 ([www.r-](http://www.r-project.org)
102 project.org), and significance was accepted at an α level of 0.05. For each sex, logistic regression
103 was used to test if body size (SVL) predicted tick infection. Chi-square with Yates’ correction
104 was used to assess the independence of the proportion of ticks observed between males and
105 females. Body condition index (BCI) was calculated from the residuals of an ordinary least
106 squares linear regression of mass (g) on length (SVL)²⁹, and an Analysis of Variance was used to
107 compare BCI measurements between uninfected lizards and infected lizards ($1 \geq$ ticks). An
108 Analysis of Covariance was used to compare individual performance measurements (maximum
109 sprint speed and 2-meter run) between lizards infected ($1 \geq$ ticks) and lizards uninfected with
110 ticks. Hindlimb length was used as a covariate to remove the allometric effects of body size on
111 performance²⁸. Data, code and additional resources are available at: [https://github.com/kris-](https://github.com/kris-wild/Ticks_Wild_Gienger_2023.git)
112 [wild/Ticks_Wild_Gienger_2023.git](https://github.com/kris-wild/Ticks_Wild_Gienger_2023.git).

113 3| Results

114 A total of 92 lizards were captured (females $n = 38$; males $n = 54$) during the 2014 and 2015
115 field seasons. There was a positive relationship between male body size, and the probability of
116 tick infection ($F_{1,51} = 0.103$, $p = 0.045$), where larger males had a higher probability of tick
117 infection than smaller males (Fig. 1A). For females, there was no relationship between body size
118 and the probability of tick infection ($F_{1,37} = -0.008$, $p = 0.928$; Fig. 1B). The probability of tick
119 infection was sex-specific, with the frequency of tick infection being more than two times higher
120 in males ($n = 20$; 37%) than in females ($n = 5$; 13%). This difference in tick infection between
121 males and females was significantly different ($\chi^2 = 9$; $df = 1$; $n = 92$; $p = 0.003$). Due to the low

122 infection frequency for females, they were not included in analysis for sprint performance. The
123 infection rate for males ranged from one to seven ticks per individual. Maximum sprint speed
124 was higher in uninfected lizards (LS mean = 2.741m/sec, 95%CI: 2.62 - 2.86) in comparison to
125 infected lizards (LS mean = 2.48m/sec, 95%CI: 2.32 - 2.64; $F_{2,51} = 16.12$; $p = 0.016$; Fig. 2a).
126 Maximum 2-meter run speed was higher in uninfected lizards (LS mean = 1.942m/sec, 95%CI:
127 1.82 - 2.07) than in infected lizards (LS mean = 1.613m/sec, 95%CI: 1.45 - 1.78; $F_{2,51} = 15.01$; p
128 = 0.003; Fig. 2b). There were no differences in body condition indices between uninfected and
129 infected lizards ($F_{2,51} = 0.025$; $p = 0.875$).

130 **4|Discussion**

131 Our study clearly demonstrates that lizards infected with ticks had lower locomotor performance
132 than noninfected lizards, and that tick prevalence differed between sexes and with increasing
133 body size. Specifically, there was a negative relationship between parasite prevalence and two
134 estimates of locomotor performance (maximum sprint speed & 2-meter run speed) for male
135 *Sceloporus undulatus*. Our results align with the Immunocompetence Handicap Hypothesis
136 (ICHH) by demonstrating a higher prevalence of tick infections in male lizards relative to
137 females, potentially due to the immunosuppressive effects of testosterone^{15,16}. However, we
138 demonstrate a functional trade-off in parasitized hosts, which may be a product of immune
139 function differences between sexes and differences across age classes.

140 Male bias in parasite prevalence, mediated by sex differences in hormone levels, has been
141 documented in other lizards³⁰⁻³². The sex-specific differences in endocrine systems and
142 behaviours^{24,25,33} could provide a mechanism for the observed sex differences in tick prevalence.
143 For example, male *S. undulatus* have higher testosterone levels²⁴, move considerably more often,
144 move over longer distances^{5,34}, and have larger home ranges than females³³. Consequently, high
145 testosterone and increased activity could increase exposure to parasites seeking hosts³⁵.

146 Differences in endocrine systems between juvenile and adult lizards play a significant
147 role in variation in traits throughout ontogeny^{22,23,35}, and not surprisingly, adults have higher
148 testosterone than juveniles²⁴. Studies using exogenous implants have shown positive effects of
149 testosterone on male fitness by enhancing endurance, stimulating reproductive activity,
150 expanding home-range areas to include more females, and ultimately giving higher reproductive
151 success²³. However, high testosterone also imposes fitness costs by lowering resistance to
152 parasitism, inhibiting growth, and reducing survival rates^{23,25,36}. Evidence across other taxa -
153 birds, fishes, mammals, and insects - supports that immunocompetent males generally have
154 higher success in mating and offspring production than immunocompromised males⁸. Together
155 our data indicate that trade-offs exist in male performance, where the effects of high testosterone
156 levels potentially lead to increased sprint speed but also increased susceptibility to parasitic
157 infection.

158 Indeed, the impact of ticks on whole-animal performance is an underexplored area in
159 ecological studies (*but see*²⁰). We have shown that, even in small numbers, ticks may alter
160 physiological function, resulting in lower performance. Parasitized lizards in this study ranged
161 from one to seven ticks, with an average of three ticks on each infected lizard. A female tick
162 (*Amblyomma spp.*) takes about 7 to 12 days to become fully engorged, extracting an average of
163 11mg of blood³⁷. If blood makes up about 5-8% of a lizard's body mass³⁸, then an average-sized
164 lizard in our study (9.5g) could potentially lose 1-2% of blood for each engorged tick. This blood
165 loss can have significant physiological consequences, including anemia, where a reduction of
166 oxygen-carrying capacity could explain the lower levels of locomotor performance³⁹. In an
167 experimental study of Sleepy Lizards (*Tiliqua rugosa*), Main and Bull²⁰ allowed ticks to attach

168 and engorge on lizard hosts, and those with ticks had a significant reduction in sprint and
169 endurance performance than lizards with no ticks. Our results similarly reflect those findings,
170 however, *Tiliqua rugosa* are large-bodied lizards (~650g) with relatively few predators as adults
171 and rarely require sprinting to escape predators⁴⁰. In contrast, adult *S. undulatus* are considerably
172 smaller and are frequently killed by fast-moving thermophilic snakes and predatory birds⁴¹.
173 Thus, smaller lizard species that experience high tick loads may be at higher risk of predation
174 due to a reduction in locomotor performance.

175 Contrary to our findings, other studies have shown that ectoparasite infestation negatively
176 affects or is associated with low body condition in reptiles^{12,43,44}. It appears that ticks do not
177 influence host energetic status, as evident by the lack of differences in body condition between
178 uninfected and infected lizards. This aligns with previous findings, which suggested that ticks do
179 not preferentially feed on healthier lizard hosts, but rather, the health of their hosts affects the
180 speed at which ticks could feed²¹. Our data show that other factors, such as the sex and size of
181 lizard hosts, may play a more significant role than relative condition in tick infection rates.
182 Although tick infection appears to affect sprint speed, it did not appear to be a factor in the
183 overall body condition of the host, indicating a potential trade-off between physical performance
184 and susceptibility to parasitism.

Literature cited

1. Anderson RM, May RM. Coevolution of hosts and parasites. *Parasitology*. 1982;85(2):411–26.
2. Minchella DJ, Scott ME. Parasitism: a cryptic determinant of animal community structure. *Trends Ecol Evol*. 1991;6(8):250–4.
3. Finnerty PB, Shine R, Brown GP. The costs of parasite infection: Effects of removing lungworms on performance, growth and survival of free-ranging cane toads. *Funct Ecol*. 2018;32(2):402–15.
4. Gordon DM. Processes influencing the distribution of parasite numbers within host populations with special emphasis on parasite-induced host mortalities. *Parasitology*. 1982;85(2):373–98.
5. Veiga JP, Salvador A, Merino S, Puerta M. Reproductive effort affects immune response and parasite infection in a lizard: a phenotypic manipulation using testosterone. *Oikos*. 1998;82(2):313–8.
6. Moore J. *Parasites and the Behavior of Animals*. 1st ed. Oxford: Oxford University Press; 2002.
7. Foo YZ, Nakagawa S, Rhodes G, Simmons LW. The effects of sex hormones on immune function: a meta-analysis. *Biological Reviews*. 2017;92(1):551–71.
8. Moller AP, Christie P, Lux E. Parasitism, host immune function, and sexual selection. Source: *The Quarterly Review of Biology*. 1999;74(1):3–20.
9. Lochmiller RL, Deerenberg C. Trade-offs in evolutionary immunology: Just what is the cost of immunity? *Oikos*. 2000;88(1):87–98.
10. Boots M, Bowers RG. The evolution of resistance through costly acquired immunity. *Proceedings of the Royal Society B: Biological Sciences*. 2004;271(1540):715–23.
11. Amo L, López P, Martín J. Habitat deterioration affects antipredatory behavior, body condition, and parasite load of female *Psammodromus algirus* lizards. *Can J Zool*. 2007;85(6):743–51.
12. Olsson M, Wapstra E, Madsen T, Silverin B. Testosterone, ticks and travels: A test of the immunocompetence-handicap hypothesis in free-ranging male sand lizards. *Proceedings of the Royal Society B: Biological Sciences*. 2000;267(1459):2339–43.
13. Hamilton WD, Zuk M. Heritable true fitness and bright birds: a role for parasites? *Science (1979)*. 1982;218(22):384–7.
14. Folstad I, Karter AJ. Parasites, bright males, and the immunocompetence handicap. *Am Nat*. 1992;139(3):603–22.
15. Roberts ML, Buchanan KL, Evans MR. Testing the immunocompetence handicap hypothesis: A review of the evidence. *Anim Behav*. 2004 Aug;68(2):227–39.
16. Olsson M, Wapstra E, Madsen T, Silverin B. Testosterone, ticks and travels: A test of the immunocompetence-handicap hypothesis in free-ranging male sand lizards. *Proceedings of the Royal Society B: Biological Sciences*. 2000 Nov 22;267(1459):2339–43.

17. Husak JF, Fox SF. Sexual selection on locomotor performance. *Evol Ecol Res.* 2008;10:213–28.
18. Mills SC, Hazard L, Lancaster L, Mappes T, Miles D, Oksanen TA, et al. Gonadotropin hormone modulation of testosterone, immune function, performance, and behavioral trade-offs among male morphs of the lizard *Uta stansburiana*. *Am Nat.* 2008;171(3):339–57.
19. Klukowski M, Jenkinson NM, Nelson CE. Effects of testosterone on locomotor performance and growth in field-active northern fence lizards, *Sceloporus undulatus hyacinthinus*. *Physiol Zool.* 1998;71(5):506–14.
20. Main A, Bull MC. The impact of tick parasites on the behaviour of the lizard *Tiliqua rugosa*. *Oecologia.* 2000;122:574–81.
21. Pittman W, Pollock NB, Taylor EN. Effect of host lizard anemia on host choice and feeding rate of larval western black-legged ticks (*Ixodes pacificus*). *Exp Appl Acarol.* 2013;61(4):471–9.
22. Cox RM, Skelly SL, John-Alder HB. Testosterone inhibits growth in juvenile male eastern fence lizards (*Sceloporus undulatus*): implications for energy allocation and sexual size dimorphism. *Physiological and Biochemical Zoology.* 2005;78(4):531–45.
23. John-Alder HB, Cox RM, Haenel GJ, Smith LC. Hormones, performance and fitness: Natural history and endocrine experiments on a lizard (*Sceloporus undulatus*). *Integr Comp Biol.* 2009;49(4):393–407.
24. Cox RM, Skelly SL, Leo A, John HB. Testosterone regulates sexually dimorphic coloration in the Eastern Fence Lizard. *Copeia.* 2005;2005(3):597–608.
25. Klukowski M, Nelson CE. Ectoparasite loads in free-ranging northern fence lizards, *Sceloporus undulatus hyacinthinus*: Effects of testosterone and sex. *Behav Ecol Sociobiol.* 2001;49(4):289–95.
26. Angilletta J. Thermal and physiological constraints on energy assimilation in a widespread lizard (*Sceloporus undulatus*). *Ecology.* 2001;82(11):3044–56.
27. Van Berkum FH, Huey RB, Tsuji JS, Garland T. Repeatability of individual differences in locomotor performance and body size during early ontogeny of the lizard *Sceloporus occidentalis*. *Funct Ecol.* 1989;3(1):97–105.
28. Wild KH, Gienger CM. Fire-disturbed landscapes induce phenotypic plasticity in lizard locomotor performance. *J Zool.* 2018;305(2):96–105.
29. Jakob EM, Marshall SD, Uetz GW. Estimating Fitness: A Comparison of Body Condition Indices. *Oikos.* 1996;77(1):61–7.
30. Alleklint-Eisen LT, Eisen RJ. Abundance of ticks (Acari: Ixodidae) infesting the western fence lizard, *Sceloporus occidentalis*, in relation to environmental factors. *Exp Appl Acarol.* 1999;23:731–40.
31. Václav R, Prokop P, Fekiač V. Expression of breeding coloration in European Green Lizards (*Lacerta viridis*): Variation with morphology and tick infestation. *Can J Zool.* 2007;85(12):1199–206.

32. Salkeld DJ, Schwarzkopf L. Epizootiology of blood parasites in an Australian lizard: A mark-recapture study of a natural population. *Int J Parasitol.* 2005;35(1):11–8.
33. Haenel GJ, Smith LC, John-Alder HB. Home-Range analysis in *Sceloporus undulatus* (Eastern Fence Lizard) spacing patterns and the context of territorial behavior. *Copeia.* 2003;26(1):99–112.
34. Belliure J, Smith L, Sorci G. Effect of testosterone on T cell-mediated immunity in two species of Mediterranean lacertid lizards. *J Exp Zool A Comp Exp Biol.* 2004;301(5):411–8.
35. Miles DB, Sinervo B, Hazard LC, Svensson EI, Costa D. Relating endocrinology, physiology and behaviour using species with alternative mating strategies. *Funct Ecol.* 2007;21(4):653–65.
36. Salvador A, Veiga JP, Martin J, Lopez P, Abelenda M, Puerta M. The cost of producing a sexual signal: testosterone increases the susceptibility of male lizards to ectoparasitic infestation. *Behavioral Ecology.* 1996;7(2):145–50.
37. Bullard R, Allen P, Chao CC, Douglas J, Das P, Morgan SE, et al. Structural characterization of tick cement cones collected from in vivo and artificial membrane blood-fed Lone Star ticks (*Amblyomma americanum*). *Ticks Tick Borne Dis.* 2016 Jul 1;7(5):880–92.
38. Prosser CL, Brown FA. *Comparative animal physiology.* 2nd ed. Amsterdam: W. B Saunders; 1961.
39. Lehmann T. Ectoparasites: direct impact on host fitness. *Parasitology Today.* 1993;9.
40. Bull CM, Freake MJ. Home-range fidelity in the Australian sleepy lizard, *Tiliqua rugosa*. *Aust J Zool.* 1999;47(2):125–32.
41. Crowley SR. Thermal sensitivity of sprint-running in the lizard *Sceloporus undulatus*: support for a conservative view of thermal physiology. *Oecologia.* 1985;66:219–25.

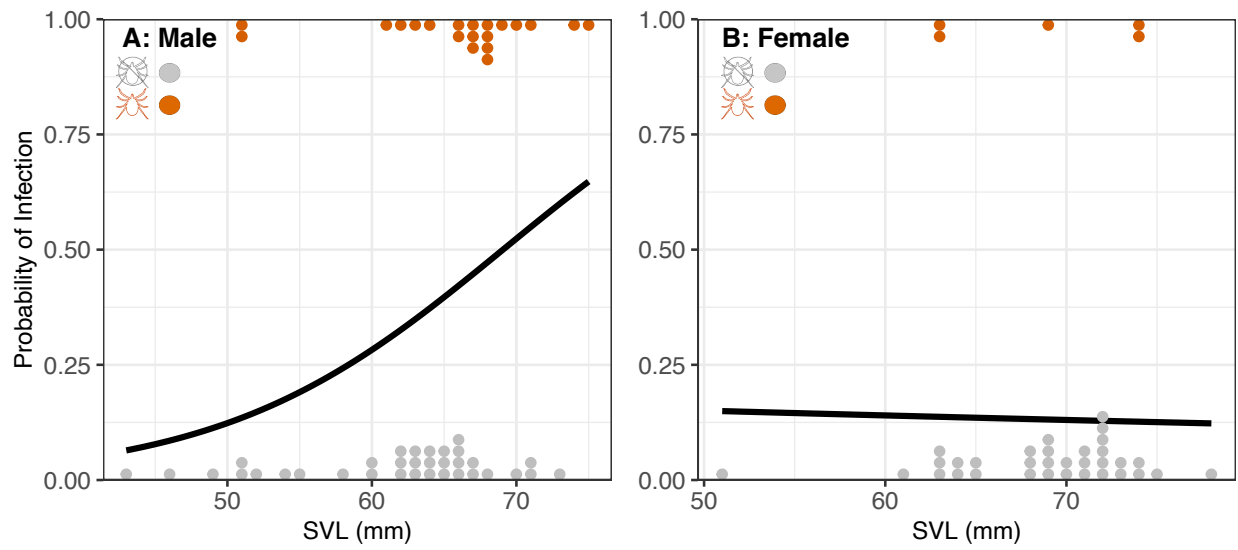


Figure 1. Relationship between body size (SVL) and probability of tick infection for male (A) and female (B) Eastern Fence Lizards. The line represents the probability function from logistic regression. Raw data points are shown with circles that distinguish if lizards were infected by ticks (yellow) or lizards that were not (grey).

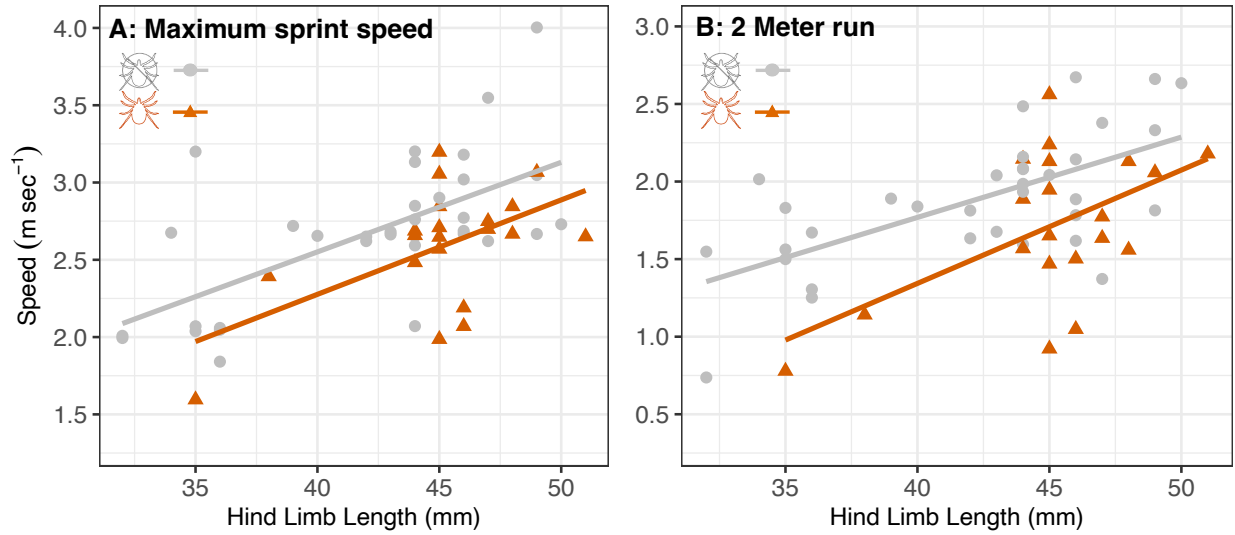


Figure 2. ANCOVA results of maximum sprint speed (a) and two-meter run speed (b) of male lizards. Hindlimb length (mm) was used as a covariate to remove the effect of body size on performance. The presence of ticks (yellow) significantly reduced maximum sprint speed ($p < 0.01$) and two-meter run speed ($p = 0.003$) in comparison to lizards with no ticks (grey).