

How do colonial Eurasian griffon vultures prevent extra-pair mating?

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In colonial breeding species, preventive measures to reduce the risks of extra-pair copulations (EPCs) should reflect the actual risk perceived by males (e.g. proximity of neighbors, intrusions into the nest) mainly during the fertile period. In colonial vultures, specific studies examining the preventive measures that minimize the risks of EPCs occurring within the competitive context of colonial breeding have not been conducted. Here we tested at Eurasian Griffon Vulture (*Gyps fulvus*) nesting sites the intensity of paternity assurance behavior, shown as frequency and duration of within-pair copulations (WPCs), potential mate vigilance or nest attendance, and levels of aggressivity. This was measured according to the frequency of territorial intrusions and comparison of the fertile vs. the non-fertile period. Our findings suggest that the frequency of WPCs and their duration increased significantly during the presumed fertile period, regarded as the period when Griffon pairs spent significantly more time together at their nests. In addition, low levels of territorial intrusions were observed, an aggressive response of pairs towards intruders, and a relatively high presence of pairs at the nests during the fertile period. Thus, although nesting sites are subject to low exposure to EPC attempts, the increased frequency and duration of copulations during the fertile period suggests that, under pressure from the colonial breeding system, a higher rate of copulations is the most effective preventive mechanism against relative uncertainty of paternity.

18 Abstract

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20 (EPCs) should reflect the actual risk perceived by males (e.g. proximity of neighbors, intrusions
21 into the nest) mainly during the fertile period. In colonial vultures, specific studies examining the
22 preventive measures that minimize the risks of EPCs occurring within the competitive context of
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24 *fulvus*) nesting sites the intensity of paternity assurance behavior, shown as frequency and
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31 intruders, and a relatively high presence of pairs at the nests during the fertile period. Thus,
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35 relative uncertainty of paternity.

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45 Introduction

46 For colonially breeding bird species, competition for mates is one of the inevitable costs
47 associated with reproduction. This may be a consequence of socio-ecological factors that make
48 male mate-guarding an insufficient measure, or of the close proximity of neighbors facilitating
49 situations favorable to sperm competition (Wittenberger and Hunt, 1985; Møller and Birkhead,
50 1993; but see Westneat and Sherman, 1997).

51 In raptors, proximity of conspecific breeding sites is associated with an increased risk of
52 extra-pair copulations (EPCs), and consequently the intensity of preventive mechanisms
53 increases with breeding density (Simmons, 1990; Arroyo, 1999; Mougeot *et al.*, 2001; Mougeot,
54 2004). Paternity assurance strategies in solitary raptors, as seen in other colonial species, include
55 (i) frequent within-pair copulations (WPCs), (ii) guarding of the partner in the nest as in the
56 traditional mate guarding of solitary bird species, and (iii) intraspecific aggression (Negro *et al.*,
57 1992; Arroyo, 1999; Mougeot *et al.*, 2001; Garcia and Arroyo, 2002; Mougeot *et al.*, 2006).
58 However, paternity assurance behavior in colonial breeding species can be costly in terms of
59 time and energy because males have to divide the time between remaining vigilant near the nest
60 and visiting foraging sites (Birkhead and Møller, 1992; Møller and Birkhead, 1993). This would
61 be especially relevant when food resources are temporarily scarce and scattered or distant from
62 nesting sites. Consequently, the preventive measures to reduce the risks of EPCs should reflect
63 the actual risk as perceived by males.

64 In colonial raptors, as well as aquatic and seabird species, copulation attempts away from
65 nesting sites are unusual (Negro and Grande, 2001). In the Eurasian Griffon Vulture (*Gyps*
66 *fulvus*), as well as other colonial vultures (Robertson, 1986), pre-laying courtship takes place
67 mainly on nesting sites (Xirouchakis and Mylonas, 2007; Margalida and Bertran, 2010), where
68 pairs remain most of their time. However, in this species and other colonial vultures EPCs have
69 been recorded on nesting sites (Robertson, 1986; Xirouchakis and Mylonas, 2007). Several
70 studies have found that breeding density and extra-pair paternity rate are positively correlated in
71 populations of the same species (Møller and Ninni, 1998). Thus in dense colonies EPCs should
72 be assessed as scenarios potentially advantageous in sexual competition through matings
73 (Mougeot, 2000).

74 The Eurasian Griffon Vulture is a cliff-nesting, socially monogamous, colonial species
75 that may breed in large colonies (del Hoyo *et al.*, 1994). This species exhibits relatively high

76 copulation rates over an extended period (Margalida and Bertran, 2010). Most raptors copulate
77 extensively before egg-laying and consequently a number of copulations take place outside the
78 fertile period (Negro and Grande, 2001). Copulations outside the fertile period probably have
79 functions related to pair bonding, mate assessment, and territorial signaling (Newton, 1979;
80 Tortosa and Redondo, 1992; Negro and Grande, 2001). At high breeding densities, males
81 copulate frequently when the perceived high EPC risk is mainly derived from territorial
82 intrusions (Møller and Birkhead, 1993). Intrusions may allow floaters to exploit EPC
83 opportunities and to increase breeding success (Cooper *et al.*, 2009; Moulton *et al.*, 2013),
84 although limited by the aggressive behavior of territorial males (Moulton *et al.*, 2013). In strictly
85 colonial vultures there are no specific studies examining mating behavior (copulations, extra-pair
86 encounters, or aggressive interactions) and the preventive behaviors that minimize EPC risk. In
87 this sense, territorial intrusions by conspecifics generally occur irregularly and are short and
88 hidden events, being difficult to predict and observe, even in species with very high rates of
89 extra-pair paternity (EPP; Dixon *et al.*, 1994; Hoi *et al.*, 2013). For this reason, observational
90 data on male and female behavior and intrusions during the fertile period are scarce (Hoi *et al.*,
91 2013).

92 The present case study is a contribution to reducing this deficit in our knowledge by
93 studying mating behavior in Eurasian Griffon Vultures in a Pyrenean population (NE Spain). Our
94 prediction is that in situations of colonial nesting, the risks of territorial intrusions and extra-pair
95 encounters should be higher during the female fertile period and, accordingly, males should
96 consistently show an increase in preventive behavior in that period. We tested this prediction on
97 nesting sites by examining the frequency and potential intentionality of territorial intrusions, as
98 well as the intensity of paternity assurance behavior and the frequency and duration of WPCs,
99 mate vigilance, nest attendance, or levels of aggressivity. These parameters were recorded and
100 compared in the presumed female fertile and non-fertile periods.

101

102 **Material and Methods**

103 *Ethics statement*

104 All procedures regarding observational field study (Ref. 4925-2009/2011) were conducted
105 according to the relevant Spanish legislation and following the conditions and guidelines
106 approved by the Department of Agriculture, Livestock and Fisheries of the Government of

107 Catalonia. It was not possible to record data blind because our study involved focal animals in
108 the field.

109 *Study species and study area*

110 The Eurasian Griffon Vulture can nest in large colonies of over 150 pairs. Socially monogamous,
111 both male and female provide long and extensive parental care for a single egg and chick (del
112 Hoyo *et al.*, 1994; Xirouchakis and Mylonas, 2007). On average, the species allocated 7.6
113 hour/day to food searching, being recorded the shortest foraging time in December (6.4
114 hour/day) and the longest in June (9.3 hour/day) (Xirouchakis and Andreou, 2009).

115 In breeding colonies, the distance between neighbors can be only a few meters and
116 breeding pairs only defend the immediate vicinity of the nest. Sexual activity in the species on
117 nesting sites began on average 84 days before egg-laying (Xirouchakis and Mylonas, 2007).
118 Copulations have an average duration of 48–64.6 s (see Xirouchakis and Mylonas, 2007;
119 Margalida and Bertran, 2010); they are conspicuous and accompanied by loud cries (Margalida
120 and Bertran, 2010). In this and similar species, copulations at the nest site probably have
121 functions other than fertilization, such as territorial signaling (see Robertson, 1986; Negro and
122 Grande, 2001).

123 We conducted fieldwork during the breeding seasons (pre-laying periods) of 2008 - 2011
124 in the Catalanian foothills of the Pyrenees (NE Spain), in six colonies with 33 breeding pairs
125 (Table 1). The size of the colonies (maximum distance from one side to the other of the colonies)
126 ranged approximately between 50 and 175 m. In Catalonia the breeding population in 2009 was
127 estimated at 1115 breeding pairs. The high densities of avian scavengers in Catalonia are a result
128 of the extensive livestock populations (Margalida *et al.*, 2007).

129

130 *Data collection and observation methods*

131 In all years, observations began during the first week of November, coinciding with the period
132 previous to the first copulation attempts (Margalida and Bertran, 2010) and concluded with the
133 laying period (January-February). In each colony we carried out a simultaneous monitoring of
134 five pairs, except in one colony in which nests were very close to each other, enabling us to
135 follow a total of eight pairs. We carried out a weekly visit per colony, thus conducting a total of
136 342.50 h of observations in 59 fieldwork days (average per colony 57.1 h, range 43.5 – 83.25 h).

137 In each colony the criteria used to select breeding pairs to be monitored were established
138 by taking into account the higher nest concentrations and focal nests that had optimal observation
139 conditions. In all cases, the distances were < 100 m and only in a case the largest distance was
140 approximately around 200 m. When possible, we also recorded the birds' activities away from
141 the nests (e.g. material collecting for the nests). Birds were observed with a 20–60 x telescope at
142 a distance of 100–200 m from the rock face where the nests were located.

143 The Griffon Vultures in this study were not marked individually, though this species
144 shows virtually no sexual dimorphism (del Hoyo *et al.*, 1994). Consequently, to identify nesting
145 pairs and to avoid the risk of counting copulations that were possible cases of EPCs by intruders,
146 we relied on observations of typical behavior of the pairs involved in copulations, as well as
147 contributions to nest-material gathering, arrangement of the nest, or nest defense (see Ferrero *et*
148 *al.*, 2003; Margalida and Bertran, 2010). Individual characteristics of their plumage (perched and
149 in flight) were also used to identify the partners (see Bertran and Margalida, 1999; Margalida and
150 Bertran, 2000a). In addition, the Eurasian Griffon Vulture is a territorial species, intruders being
151 aggressively expelled from the immediate nest surroundings during the fertile period
152 (Xirouchakis and Mylonas, 2007; see also Results). We considered that such intrusions would
153 occur furtively and be brief in duration, since copulations in these vultures are conspicuous
154 because of their long duration and being marked with loud cries (Margalida and Bertran, 2010).
155 To minimize possible replication in the copulation frequencies, we took into account the time
156 when birds remained together before or after intra-pair matings. In this way, 74% ($n = 171$) of
157 sexual interactions observed were accompanied by habitual behavior of pairs at nesting sites (i.e.
158 nest-building, delivering material, arranging the nest, nest defense), and so we were able to rule
159 out those cases involving foreign individuals. In the remaining 26% ($n = 60$), matings were
160 “neutral” without any behavior that could be associated with the resident pairs. Thus of the 60
161 cases of “neutral” mountings, we discarded those in which the individuals remained together
162 (until one left the nest) for more than 30 min, which left 16 interactions which showed an
163 average presence of birds together of 19.9 min (range: 14–28 min). In all these cases copulations
164 ended with apparent success and behaviors that in any way indicated the existence of EPCs were
165 not observed (see Results).

166 During observations of focal nests, for each observed copulation attempt we recorded: (1)
167 the identity of the pair involved; (2) whether the copulation was successful or not (i.e. whether

168 cloacal contact was achieved during mount); (3) the duration of copulation attempts (in seconds)
169 measured with a stopwatch, and all included mounting movements. The frequency of copulations
170 was estimated as the number of attempts per hour. We quantified for each pair/colony the
171 percentage of time spent by one or both members of the pair within the breeding territory (nest
172 site and nearby area). We recorded the frequency of territorial intrusions (number of events/h)
173 and when these occurred at nests where one or both members of the pair were present. We also
174 recorded for each intrusion if it ended with aggression and the levels of aggressivity (i.e. physical
175 contact or not).

176 The frequencies obtained for copulation behavior, nest attendance, and territorial
177 intrusions were combined in two differentiated time periods, pre-fertile (PF) and fertile (F).
178 Studies on copulatory behavior in raptors suggest that the fertile period can begin about 12 days
179 before egg-laying (Bird and Buckland, 1976; Negro *et al.*, 1992; Mougeot, 2000). Here, we
180 assumed a presumed fertile period of <14 days before laying, dating backwards from egg-laying
181 (day 0 was considered as the egg-laying date). Egg-laying dates were determined by direct
182 observation of adult behavior in the nest.

183

184 *Data analysis*

185 All of the statistical analyses were carried out to a significance level of 0.05. The differences in
186 the amount of time spent by males and females at the nest, intrusions, copulation attempts, and
187 copulation duration between periods (PF vs F) were tested using the Wilcoxon test for matched
188 pairs. Values presented are the mean \pm standard deviation (SD).

189

190 **Results**

191 *Within-pair copulations*

192 We observed a total of 231 sexual interactions on the nests. Copulation attempts were observed
193 in 31 (93.9%) of the 33 pairs monitored. In 210 (90.9%) copulations attempts we were able to
194 discern if these were successful, which 93.3% ($n = 196$) were. Non-successful mating attempts
195 were caused by female reluctance.

196 The mean frequency of copulation attempts (attempts/hour) was significantly higher
197 during the fertile period (PF: 0.10 ± 0.03 vs. F: 0.33 ± 0.05 , $n = 231$; Wilcoxon test: $z = 2.207$, P
198 $= 0.027$, Figure 1a). In addition, the time duration of the behaviorally successful copulations

199 (data obtained from five colonies, $n = 120$), were significantly more prolonged in this period (PF:
200 33.26 ± 4.16 vs. F: 43.96 ± 9.55 ; Wilcoxon test: $z = 2.023$, $P = 0.043$, Figure 1b).

201

202 *Nest presence*

203 The average proportion of time that one of the members of the pair was present at the nest did
204 not vary significantly between the two periods (PF: $23.67 \pm 6.12\%$ vs. F: $30.42 \pm 5.25\%$;
205 Wilcoxon test: $z = 1.572$, $P = 0.115$). On the contrary, the average presence of the two
206 individuals together increased significantly during the fertile period (PF: $32.57 \pm 9.10\%$ vs. F:
207 $47.67 \pm 3.84\%$; Wilcoxon test: $z = 2.201$, $P = 0.027$; Figure 2a).

208

209 *Nest defense behavior*

210 Nest intrusions were observed in 30 (90.9%) of the 33 monitored pairs; 14.4% ($n = 15$) of the
211 agonistic interactions ended with physical aggression. The intrusions ($n = 104$) occurred
212 irrespective of, and in similar proportions to, whether one partner of the pair was present at the
213 nest (45.2%) or both (54.8%). Similar intrusion proportions were observed in both the pre-fertile
214 and fertile periods (PF: partners in the nest: one 45.7%, both 54.3%, $n = 70$; F: one 44.1%, both
215 55.9% $N = 34$; $\chi^2_1 = 0.584$, $P = 0.445$). The average frequency of intrusions (intrusions/hour)
216 was marginally significantly higher in the fertile period (PF: 0.05 ± 0.03 vs. F: 0.11 ± 0.04 ;
217 Wilcoxon test: $z = 1.941$, $P = 0.052$; Figure 2b).

218 In two of the six studied colonies we observed EPCs. These EPCs involved four males
219 (12.1%) and a female (3%), being 3.3% of observed copulations ($n = 239$). The EPCs were
220 effectuated by males in neutral sites in the colonies at distances of between 20 and 200 m from
221 their nests. In four of the cases, the interactions occurred while males were absent collecting nest
222 material. One case of successful EPC is highlighted which involved a male and a female from
223 neighboring nests (separated by 10 m), both during their respective fertile periods, while
224 collecting material for their nests. All extra-pair encounters were brief, and in seven of the eight
225 cases the copulation attempts by males were rejected by the females involved.

226

227 **Discussion**

228 *Within-pair copulations*

229 Usually all raptors exhibit high rates of copulation during an extended period of time (Negro and
230 Grande, 2001), and in some species the frequency of intra-pair copulations increases with the
231 breeding density (Simmons, 1990; Korpimäki *et al.*, 1996; Arroyo, 1999; Mougeot, 2004).
232 However, there is great interspecific variation and it is not always the case that colonial species
233 show higher copulation rates than solitary species, which disagrees with the hypothesis of sperm
234 competition, suggesting that phylogenetic aspects should be also evaluated (Arroyo, 1999). For
235 example, Griffon Vultures averaging 71.7 copulations per clutch and an average frequency of 1.2
236 copulation/day (Margalida and Bertran, 2010) show a frequency lower than the average
237 copulatory behavior observed in other raptors (215 copulations per clutch and 11 per day;
238 Arroyo, 1999). However, our comparative results between the different stages of the pre-laying
239 period show that both, the relative frequency of intra-pair copulation and its duration, increased
240 significantly during the presumed fertile period, being consistent with the hypothesis of paternity
241 insurance/sperm competition (Birkhead and Møller, 1998; Mougeot, 2000; Komdeur, 2001;
242 Mougeot *et al.*, 2001; Garcia and Arroyo, 2002). The duration of copulations is associated with
243 an increased sperm transfer mechanism to dilute the sperm of other males in situations of sperm
244 competition (Birkhead and Møller, 1992). There is unfortunately little information for raptors,
245 and a longer duration of copulation could result in a greater transfer of sperm or ensure cloacal
246 contact (Mougeot, 2004). For example, an experimental study in the semi-colonial Montagu's
247 Harrier (*Circus pygargus*) showed that males increase both WPCs and copulation duration in
248 simulated situations of sperm competition.

249

250 *Nest attendance, nest defense, and territorial intrusions*

251 Griffon pairs spent significantly more time together in the nest in the presumed fertile period.
252 Although raptor males are considered to be inefficient in mate guarding, in some species they
253 seek to maximize their time with females on nesting sites during their fertile period (Birkhead
254 and Møller, 1992). Specifically, in some territorial vultures like Egyptian Vulture (*Neophron*
255 *percnopterus*) and Bearded Vulture (*Gypaetus barbatus*) (Donázar *et al.*, 1994; Bertran and
256 Margalida, 1999) males significantly increased their time at the nest together with females in
257 mate vigilance behavior. This can be facilitated because in these species, as occur in Griffon
258 Vultures, males do not feed their partners (courtship feeding) during the fertile period (Margalida
259 and Bertran, 2000b). However, a previous study showed that male Griffons did not significantly

260 increase their time with females as the time of egg-laying approached (Margalida and Bertran,
261 2010). The possible absence of mate guarding in this species, which covers large areas searching
262 for an unpredictable and scarce food resource, may be due to a conflict arising from increasing
263 surveillance of the nest and reduced foraging efficiency (Møller, 1987; Westneat, 1994). In fact,
264 Griffon Vultures annually invest on average about 58-75% of their time to foraging activities
265 (Leconte, 1977; Xirouchakis and Andreou, 2009). However, the male presence at the nest and
266 its surroundings during the hypothetical fertile period has to be relevant because males collect
267 most of the material for the nest, which takes place within two weeks of egg-laying. In this
268 period we observed the $79.4 \pm 14.8\%$ of the total deliveries (range 58.8-100%, $n = 258$) in which
269 in the 68.4% ($n = 79$) were involved the males (unpubl. data; see also Xirouchakis and Mylonas,
270 2007).

271 Intrusions occurred in 90.9% of the nests monitored, with a tendency to increase
272 (although statistically marginal) during the presumed fertile period. However the level of
273 intrusions observed (0.05 and 0.11/h during the pre-fertile and fertile periods, respectively) is
274 low if we hypothetically consider this colonial species to be prone to EPC attempts. For example,
275 in some semi-colonial raptor species like Red Kite (*Milvus milvus*) territorial intrusions by males
276 are relatively frequent during the fertile period (Mougeot, 2000). Intrusions by outsiders
277 frequently occur for reasons associated with territoriality and the search for vacant sites, but in
278 the female fertile period they can involve intrasexual competition (Møller, 1987). Our study does
279 not show this clearly, since it would be expected that males should seek EPCs in other nests,
280 taking advantage of this opportunity when females were alone. However, the results show that
281 the similar numbers of intrusions occurred when the nest was occupied by one member of the
282 pair (45.2%) or both (54.8%), and in both cases the intruders were expelled, a relatively high
283 proportion (14.4%) of them by physical aggression. In this species, attempts to steal nest material
284 from neighboring sites can be a major cause of intrusions. These actions (which can also
285 occasionally include nest destruction) occur mostly when nests are unguarded, but can also
286 happen when they are occupied by pairs, and can coincide with the female fertile period (authors
287 unpubl. data; see also Xirouchakis and Mylonas, 2007).

288

289 *Extra-pair copulations*

290 The frequency of copulations outside the pair bond in socially monogamous species obliges
291 males to adopt preventive strategies to avoid the risk of cuckoldry (Birkhead and Møller 1992;
292 Hoi *et al.*, 2013). In this sense, it is difficult to disentangle when females use male absence to
293 obtain EPCs and when they suffer male harassment and coercion in forced EPCs (Dunn *et al.*,
294 1999; Low, 2004, 2005).

295 Studies on the copulatory behavior of raptors showing the frequency of EPCs are
296 relatively scarce: 7% (see Arroyo, 1999; Mougeot, 2004) of the 287 known species (Newton
297 1979). The percentage values of EPCs found in the studied species vary between 0 and 7.3%
298 (Mougeot, 2004; see also Arroyo, 1999). With respect to EPP (extra-pair paternity), in species
299 such as Swainson's Hawk (*Buteo swainsoni*) the frequency is low, occurring in 5% of chicks and
300 7% of nests (Briggs and Collopy, 2012). The percentage of EPCs obtained in our study (3.3% of
301 copulations, $n = 239$) coincides with values documented in Xirouchakis and Mylonas (2007), but
302 unlike these authors we did not confirm episodes of EPCs on nesting sites. The fact that EPC
303 attempts were observed in sites not surveyed systematically (20-200 m from the nests) suggests
304 the possibility that the actual frequency of EPCs was greater than obtained. EPC attempts
305 occurred in 33% of the six colonies studied and involved only 12.1% of males and 3% of females
306 monitored ($n = 33$ breeding pairs) and in most attempts (88%) EPCs were rejected by females.

307 Levels of EPCs in other vulture species are also low: 0.05% in Cape Griffon (*Gyps*
308 *coprotheres*) (Mundy *et al.*, 1992); 0.52% in Bearded Vulture (Bertran and Margalida, 1999);
309 2.6% in Egyptian Vulture (Donazar *et al.*, 1994). But this low frequency of EPCs contrasts with
310 the 23% obtained in a reintroduced population of California Condor (*Gymnogyps californianus*)
311 (Mee *et al.*, 2004). These authors argued that EPCs may be enhanced in this reintroduced
312 population because of increasing social interactions due to food concentration at a few feeding
313 stations, limited mate choice, and a high level of inbreeding (Mee *et al.*, 2004).

314 Extra pair fertilizations (EPFs) as a consequence of EPCs have been detected at low
315 levels in the raptor species studied (1-5% of young or broods; Mougeot, 2004; Rosenfield *et al.*,
316 2015). Based on the idea that females control the success of copulations, we can expect that in
317 long-lived species where males invest heavily in reproduction (e.g. colonial seabirds and raptors)
318 they obviously tend to restrict EPCs, to avoid jeopardizing the male investment (Whittingham *et*
319 *al.*, 1992; Westneat and Sargent, 1996; Petrie and Kempenaers, 1998; Sheldon and Ellegren,
320 1998; Briggs and Collopy, 2012; Wojczulanis-Jakubas *et al.*, 2014). In this regard, in raptors that

321 nest in open country the fact that extra-pair interactions are visible or audible at long distances
322 has also been suggested as a limiting factor in EPCs (Korpimäki *et al.*, 1996). Finally, for
323 colonial monogamous bird species copulating during long time periods, acoustic signals are
324 important for recognition within the pair (McArthur, 1982). In addition, when copulating Griffon
325 pairs emit loud cries it has been suggested that they act as signaling territorial occupation of the
326 nest (Robertson, 1986; Negro and Grande, 2001), though this copulatory activity may also act as
327 a warning (Margalida and Bertran, 2010).

328 In conclusion, contrary to expectations our findings show that nesting sites are scenarios
329 with low frequencies of EPC attempts due to: i) low levels of territorial intrusions which, when
330 they occur, are not necessarily associated with sperm competition; ii) the aggressive response of
331 pairs facing territorial intrusions; iii) the relatively high presence of pairs in the nests (on average
332 47.7%) during the presumed fertile period. However, the copulatory behavior of this species in
333 the fertile period (increased frequency and duration of copulations) suggests that under pressure
334 from the colonial breeding system (proximity of conspecifics and/or males that may not always
335 stay close to their mates), a higher rate of copulation is the best preventive mechanism against
336 relative uncertainty of paternity. On the other hand, the results suggest that males seem to make
337 EPC attempts in sites far from the nest, coinciding with the collection of nest material. Under
338 these circumstances, an increase in copulation attempts during the fertile period suggest that, for
339 males, this is probably the most effective way to obtain the last copulations with their mates
340 before egg-laying (Birkhead and Møller, 1992) and also to ensure their paternity. Griffon Vulture
341 males play all or nothing on investment for a single egg and chick per breeding attempt, where
342 besides their contribution in parental care is indispensable. In consequence, paternity loss would
343 be too expensive for Griffon Vulture males.

344

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348

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478

479 Table 1. Descriptive data of the colony size, numbers of pairs controlled and fieldwork invested
480 during the study of sexual activity on Eurasian Griffon Vultures.

Colony	Pairs controlled	Days	Hours	Colony size
1	5	11	66.5	16
2	5	10	60	29
3	8	9	45.25	40
4	5	10	43.5	19
5	5	9	44	9
6	5	9	83.25	8
Total	33	57	342.5	

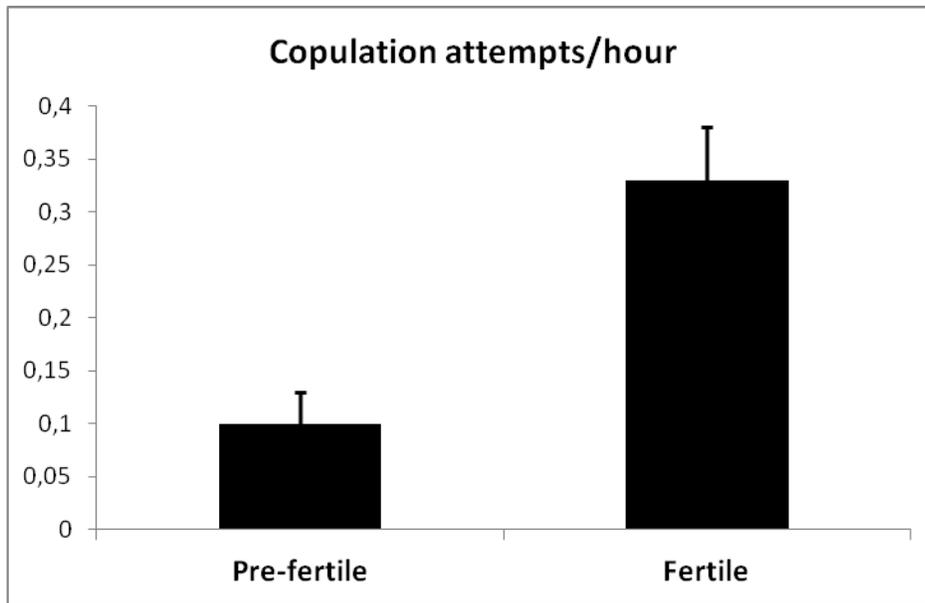
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483 **Figures**

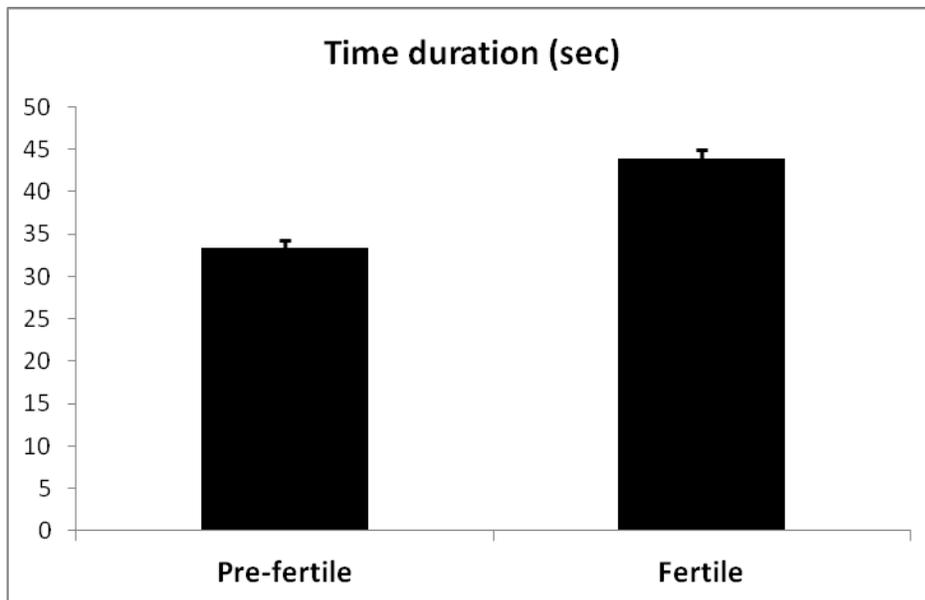
484 Figure 1. Differences in the copulation frequency (a) (attempts per hour \pm SD) and time duration
485 (b) (seconds \pm SD) between the presumed pre-fertile and fertile periods (for details see
486 Methods).

487 a)



488

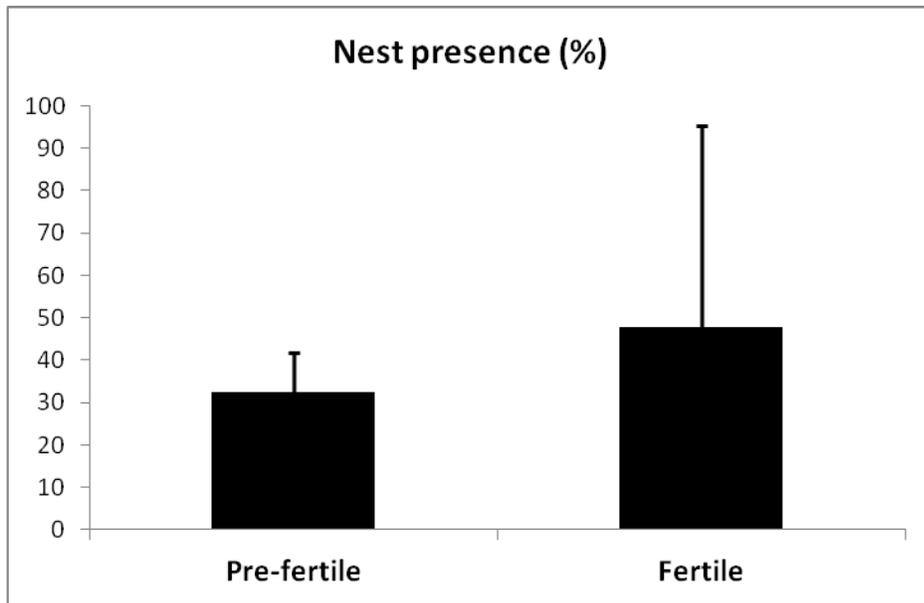
489 b)



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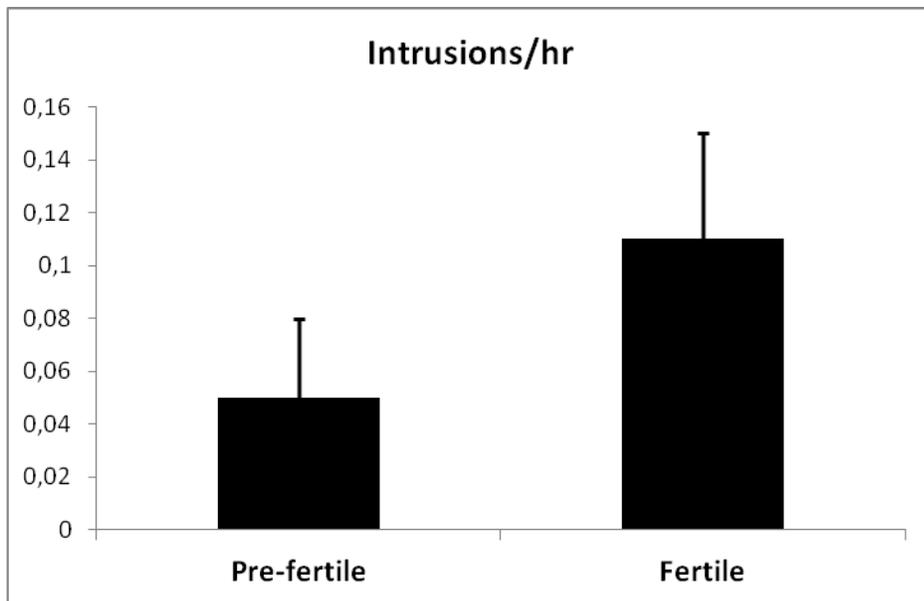
491 Figure 2. Differences in the percentage of presence (a) (\pm SD) of breeding pairs at nests and the
492 frequency of intrusions per hour (b) (\pm SD) at nest sites by foreign individuals between the
493 presumed pre-fertile and fertile periods (for details see Methods).

494 a)



495

496 b)



497

498

499