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Citation for published version:

Sieber, DJ, Paquet, M & Smiseth, PT 2017, 'Joint effects of brood size and resource availability on sibling competition' *Animal Behaviour*, vol 129, pp. 25-30. DOI: 10.1016/j.anbehav.2017.05.010

Digital Object Identifier (DOI):

[10.1016/j.anbehav.2017.05.010](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.anbehav.2017.05.010)

Link:

[Link to publication record in Edinburgh Research Explorer](#)

Document Version:

Peer reviewed version

Published In:

Animal Behaviour

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Joint effects of brood size and resource availability on sibling competition

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Received 25 November 2016

Initial acceptance 4 January 2017

Final acceptance 12 April 2017

MS number 16-01034R

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The evolution of sibling competition is promoted when the brood's demand for resources (brood size) exceeds the parents' supply of resources (resource availability). However, little is known about the joint effects of brood size and resource availability and whether these effects are independent of each other. We conducted a study on the burying beetle *Nicrophorus vespilloides*, in which we manipulated both brood size and resource availability. We manipulated brood size by providing parents with 5, 10 or 20 larvae and resource availability by providing parents with a 5, 10 or 20 g mouse carcass. We found that resource availability had positive effects on parental food provisioning, larval body mass and larval survival, while brood size had a negative effect on larval body mass and larval survival. There were positive effects of the interaction between brood size and resource availability on larval begging and larval body mass, suggesting that the slopes describing the effect of brood size on larval begging and larval body mass became less negative as carcass size increased. When we repeated the analysis using larval density (i.e. brood size/resource availability) as a proxy for the shortage of resources, there were negative effects on parental care, larval body mass and larval survival. Our results have important implications by showing that there were main effects of both brood size and resource availability, and that their effects were not always independent of each other. Thus, treating brood size and resource availability as independent factors is preferential to using offspring density.

Keywords: begging, demand for resources, offspring density, parental food provisioning, sibling rivalry, supply of resources

40 Sibling competition is defined as any offspring trait that increases an individual
offspring's fitness at the expense of the fitness of its siblings (Mock & Parker, 1997).
Species with parental care often have intense sibling competition (e.g. annelids: Burd,
Govedich & Bateson, 2006; insects: Kölliker 2007; Smiseth, Lennox & Moore, 2007;
birds: Byholm, Ruosi & Sole, 2011; Bebbington, Kingma, Fairfield, Spurgin,
45 Komdeur & Richardson, 2017; mammals: Hofer & East 2008; Andersen, Nævdal &
Bøe, 2011), often occurring through sublethal scramble competition (begging) or
lethal aggressive brood reduction (siblicide) (Mock & Parker, 1997; Roulin & Dreiss,
2012). The key ecological factor favouring sibling competition is limitation of
resources critical for offspring development, such as food (Mock & Parker, 1997;
50 Roulin & Dreiss, 2012). Resource limitation is often a consequence of parental
overproduction of offspring, which may be adaptive if it allows the parent to (1) take
advantage of favourable but unpredictable ecological conditions, (2) produce
additional marginal offspring that enhance the fitness of core offspring (e.g. by
assisting in thermoregulation or serving as food), or (3) produce replacement
55 offspring should core offspring die (Mock & Forbes, 1997). Nevertheless, parental
overproduction leads to a mismatch between the brood's total demand for resources
and the parent's supply of resources, and sibling competition is promoted when the
brood's total demand for resources (i.e. brood size) exceeds the parent's supply of
resources to the brood (i.e. resource availability) (Mock & Parker, 1997).

60 Although there is general agreement that sibling competition is favoured when
the brood's demand for resources exceeds the supply of parental resources (Mock &
Parker, 1997; Roulin & Dreiss, 2012), relatively little is known about the joint effects
of brood size and resource availability on the outcome of sibling competition. In the
simplest scenario, both brood size and resource availability affect the outcome of

65 sibling competition and their effects are independent of each other. More complex
scenarios occur when brood size and resource availability have different effects on the
outcome of sibling competition and/or when the effect of brood size is conditional
upon that of resource availability. For example, in great tits, *Parus major*, parents
respond to an increase in brood size by increasing their provisioning rates such that
70 this fully compensates for the increase in brood demand. Yet, despite the increase in
resource availability matching the increase in brood size, offspring beg at
substantially higher levels in enlarged broods than in control broods
(Neuenschwander, Brinkhof, Kölliker & Richner, 2003). Thus, in this species, brood
size promotes sibling competition despite the supply of resources to each offspring
75 remaining constant. Considering this, it is now timely to investigate the joint effects
of brood size and resource availability on sibling competition.

Here we investigated how brood size and resource availability influence
sibling competition in the burying beetle *Nicrophorus vespilloides*. We used this
species because it breeds on carcasses of small vertebrates, which serve as the only
80 source of food for the developing larvae (Eggert & Müller, 1997; Scott, 1998). Thus,
it is relatively straightforward to manipulate resource availability by simply varying
the size of the carcass parents are given at the start of breeding (Smiseth & Moore,
2002; Smiseth, Andrews, Matthey & Mooney, 2014). Furthermore, there is no direct
kin recognition of offspring by parents (Müller & Eggert, 1990), allowing us to
85 manipulate brood demand by generating experimental broods of different sizes
(Smiseth, Lennox & Moore, 2007; Pilakouta, Sieber & Smiseth, 2016). Although
previous work on this species has manipulated either brood size or resource
availability, no prior studies have manipulated both. Previous work on this species
shows that siblings compete through sublethal scramble competition, either by

90 begging for food from parents or by self-feeding directly off the carcass (Smiseth,
Lennox & Moore, 2007; Schrader, Jarrett, & Kilner, 2015).

The aim of this study was to investigate how variation in brood size and resource availability shapes the level of sibling competition in *N. vespilloides*. To address this issue, we manipulated both resource availability and brood size by
95 providing parents with a 5, 10 or 20 g mouse carcass and a brood comprising 5, 10 or 20 larvae. We then monitored the subsequent effects on offspring and parental behaviour (i.e. larval begging and direct care by the female) and offspring performance (i.e. larval body mass and survival at dispersal from the carcass). We focused on sibling competition in the presence of a caring parent because this is the
100 normal condition under which larvae compete for food (one or both parents normally provide care for the brood; Eggert & Müller, 1997; Scott, 1998). We tested for main effects of both brood size and resource availability and for effects of the interaction between them on offspring and parental behaviour and offspring performance. We then repeated the analyses using larval density (i.e. brood size/carcass size) as a proxy
105 for the shortage of resources to the brood (Schrader, Jarrett & Kilner, 2015). We did this to examine whether the conclusions from these analyses were similar to those where we treated brood size and resource availability as two separate treatments.

<H1>METHODS

110 <H2>Study Species

Once parents have located a suitable carcass for breeding, they start burying it into the ground. They then remove any fur or feathers, deposit antimicrobial secretions onto the surface of the carcass, and females lay an average of around 30 eggs in the soil around it (Eggert, 1992; Scott, 1998; Smiseth, Ward & Moore, 2006). When the eggs

115 hatch approximately 60 h later (Smiseth, Ward & Moore, 2006), the larvae crawl to
the carcass and start feeding within the crater created by the parents on top of the
carcass. The larvae can self-feed, but also obtain food by begging for predigested
carcass from the parents (Smiseth, Darwell & Moore, 2003). Although both parents
typically provide care, females often stay on the carcass for longer and spend more
120 time provisioning food to the larvae than males (Eggert, Reinking & Müller, 1998;
Smiseth & Moore, 2002; Smiseth, Dawson, Varley & Moore, 2005). Larvae disperse
from the carcass about 5 days after hatching, which corresponds to the end of the
parental care period. Larvae pupate about 10 days after dispersal and eclose as adults
about 10 days after pupation.

125

<H2>Study Population and Animal Husbandry

We used virgin beetles from an outbred laboratory population maintained at the
University of Edinburgh, U.K. The beetles used in this study descended from beetles
that were originally collected in Edinburgh, U.K. and Warmond, The Netherlands.

130 The beetles were housed individually in transparent plastic containers (12 x 8 cm and
2 cm deep) filled with moist soil and kept at 20 ± 2 °C under a 16:8 h light:dark cycle.
Nonbreeding adults were fed raw organic beef twice a week.

<H2>Experimental Design and General Procedures

135 To test for effects of brood size and resource availability on the outcome of sibling
competition, we manipulated both the availability of parental resources (i.e. carcass
size) and the brood's total demand for resources (i.e. brood size). Beetles selected for
breeding were transferred to transparent plastic containers (17 x 12 cm and 6 cm
deep) filled with 1 cm of moist soil and provided with a previously frozen mouse

140 carcass (Livefoods Direct Ltd, Sheffield, U.K.). We manipulated resource availability
by providing parents with a 5 g (4.0–6.0 g), 10 g (9.0–11.0 g) or 20 g (19.0–21.0 g)
mouse carcass at the start of the experiment.

Immediately after the eggs were laid, we removed the male and moved the
female and the carcass to a new container with fresh, moist soil. We removed the
145 males because the amount of care provided by the male is highly variable and male
removal has no effect on offspring fitness under laboratory conditions (Eggert,
Reinking & Müller, 1998; Smiseth, Dawson, Varley & Moore, 2005). We left the
females to provide care for the brood because previous work on this species showed
that sibling competition reduces offspring fitness only when larvae compete by
150 begging for food from a parent (Smiseth, Lennox & Moore, 2007; Smiseth, Ward &
Moore, 2007).

When the eggs started hatching, we manipulated brood size by providing
parents with a brood comprising 5, 10 or 20 larvae. We used the newly hatched larvae
to generate the experimental broods. All experimental broods included larvae of
155 mixed maternity in accordance with established protocols (Smiseth, Lennox & Moore,
2007; Pilakouta, Sieber & Smiseth, 2015). This brood size manipulation is within the
natural variation of brood size in *N. vespilloides* (mean \pm SD: 21 \pm 10 larvae, range 2–
47 larvae; Smiseth & Moore, 2002).

Each experimental brood was randomly assigned to an unrelated female foster
160 parent. In this species, parents cannot distinguish between unrelated foster broods and
their own broods if the larvae are at the same developmental stage (Müller & Eggert,
1990). As parents kill any larvae that arrive on the carcass before their eggs are
expected to hatch (Müller & Eggert, 1990), we only provided females with a brood
once their own eggs had hatched. Females were left to care for their brood until the

165 larvae dispersed from the carcass about 5 days later.

<H2>Offspring and Parental Behaviours

We did the behavioural observations 24 h after the larvae were placed with a foster parent to coincide with the peak in larval begging and parental care (Smiseth, Darwell, 170 & Moore, 2003). We recorded begging and female care following established protocols, using instantaneous sampling every 1 min over a period of 30 min (Smiseth & Moore, 2002, 2004a). At each scan, we recorded the number of larvae that were begging at that time point. We considered a larva to be begging when raising its head towards the parent and touching the parent with its legs (Rauter & Moore, 1999).

175 Because larvae beg only when a parent is close, we noted the number of scans in which the female and larvae were in close proximity, defined as a distance of less than the female's pronotum width, corresponding to the approximate distance from the parent at which the larvae start begging (Rauter & Moore, 1999; Smiseth & Moore, 2002). At each scan, we also recorded the number of times the female was observed

180 providing direct care, defined as when she was provisioning food to the larvae (engaging in mouth-to-mouth contact with at least one larva), interacting with the larvae (standing still within the crater and allowing the larvae to beg), or consuming carrion (feeding from within the crater; Walling, Stamper, Smiseth & Moore, 2008; Andrews, Kruuk & Smiseth, 2017).

185

<H2>Offspring Performance

At the time of dispersal from the carcass (about 4–6 days after hatching), we counted the surviving larvae in each brood. We also weighed the whole brood and calculated the average larval body mass for each brood by dividing brood mass by brood size.

190

<H2>*Statistical Analysis*

All analyses were performed using R version 3.0.1 (The R Foundation for Statistical Computing, Vienna, Austria, <http://www.r-project.org>). For each of the four response variables of interest (larval begging, direct care by the female, larval body mass and larval survival), we tested for main effects of brood size (i.e. 5, 10 or 20 larvae) and resource availability (i.e. 5 g, 10 g or 20 g carcass) as well as for the effect of their interaction. In all analyses, we treated brood size and resource availability as continuous variables. We also tested for an effect of larval density, defined as the number of larvae per g carcass (i.e. brood size/carcass size), which we also treated as a continuous variable (ranging from 0.25 to 4 larvae per g carcass). To investigate the effects of carcass size, brood size and larval density on the proportion of time spent begging by a larva, we used generalized linear models with a quasibinomial distribution (glm, package stats). In models with direct care as the response variable, we used zero inflated linear models (glmmadmb, package glmmADMB for negative binomial distributions) due to the high proportion of females that did not provide direct care during the observation period. To test for effects of brood size, resource availability and larval density on larval survival, we used generalized linear models with a quasibinomial distribution (glm, package stats). We used linear models (lm function in package stats) to test for effects of brood size, resource availability and larval density on average larval weight and brood size at dispersal. We analysed all proportional data on larval begging and larval survival using the 'cbind' function in R given that it considers both the number of larvae that were begging and the number not begging in the brood, or the number of larvae that were alive and the number dead at dispersal (Crawley, 2005).

215 The total sample size in the experiment was $N = 185$ broods, which
corresponds to the sample size for the analysis of larval survival. The sample sizes for
the analysis on other traits were lower (Fig. 1). In the analyses on begging, we
excluded 86 cases where the female spent no time close to the larvae. These cases
provide no information on larval begging given that larvae only beg when the female
220 is in close proximity (Smiseth & Moore 2002, 2004b). In addition, we excluded one
brood from the analyses on begging because it had an abnormally high level of
begging (15 of 20 larvae were begging at the only sampling point when the female
was in close proximity). We excluded 19 cases in the analysis on direct care because
the female had deserted the brood, and we excluded 11 cases in the analysis on larval
225 body mass because all larvae died before the time of dispersal.

<H2>Ethical Note

Our study adhered to the ASAB/ABS Guidelines for the Use of Animals in Research,
the legal requirements of the U.K., as well as all institutional guidelines at The
230 University of Edinburgh. None of the procedures used in this study had the potential
to cause pain or distress to the beetles.

<H1>RESULTS

<H2>Brood size and resource availability

235 We found that there were no significant main effects of either brood size or carcass
size on larval begging (brood size: estimate \pm SE: -0.0012 ± 0.0137 ; $F_{96} = 1.62$, $P =$
 0.207 ; carcass size: estimate \pm SE: 0.0169 ± 0.0133 ; $F_{96} = 0.008$, $P = 0.929$; Fig. 1a).
However, there was a significant positive effect of the interaction between brood size
and carcass size (estimate \pm SE: 0.00661 ± 0.00218 ; $F_{94} = 9.35$, $P = 0.003$),

240 suggesting that the slope describing the effect of brood size on larval begging became
 less negative as carcass size increased (Fig. 1a). Carcass size had a positive effect on
 the amount of direct care provided by the female: an increase in carcass size was
 associated with an increase in the amount of direct care (estimate \pm SE: $0.0519 \pm$
 0.0174 ; $\chi^2 = 8.56$, $P = 0.003$; Fig. 1b). There was no evidence, however, that brood
 245 size affected the amount of direct care by the female (estimate \pm SE: -0.0130 ± 0.0192 ,
 $\chi^2 = 0.09$, $P = 0.759$), and there was no effect of the interaction between brood size
 and carcass size (estimate \pm SE 0.00147 ± 0.00280 ; $\chi^2 = 0.27$, $P = 0.602$; Fig. 1b).

We found that brood size and carcass size had opposite main effects on larval
 body mass: an increase in brood size was associated with reduced larval body mass
 250 (estimate \pm SE: -3.06 ± 0.36 ; $F_{171} = 115.15$, $P < 0.0001$) while an increase in carcass
 size was associated with increased larval body mass (estimate \pm SE: 4.68 ± 0.37 ; F_{171}
 $= 70.80$, $P < 0.0001$; Fig. 1c). In addition, there was a positive effect of the interaction
 between brood size and carcass size (estimate \pm SE: 0.181 ± 0.057 ; $F_{170} = 9.98$, $P =$
 0.002), suggesting that the slope describing the effect of brood size on larval survival
 255 became less negative as carcass size increased (Fig. 1c). Brood size and carcass size
 also had opposite effects on larval survival: an increase in brood size led to lower
 survival (estimate \pm SE: -0.0350 ± 0.0155 ; $F_{182} = 5.25$, $P = 0.023$) while an increase
 in carcass size led to higher survival (estimate \pm SE: 0.124 ± 0.018 ; $F_{182} = 56.97$, $P <$
 0.0001 ; Fig. 1d). However, there was no evidence of an effect of the interaction
 260 between brood size and carcass size (estimate \pm SE: -0.00290 ± 0.00324 ; $F_{181} = 0.83$,
 $P = 0.364$; Fig. 1d).

<H2>*Larval density*

There was no significant effect of larval density (i.e. brood size/carcass size) on larval
265 begging (estimate \pm SE: -0.120 ± 0.089 ; $F_{96} = 1.91$, $P = 0.170$; Fig. 2a). However, an
increase in larval density was associated with a significant decrease in the time spent
providing direct care by the female (estimate \pm SE: -0.298 ± 0.104 ; $\chi^2_{94} = 8.12$, $P =$
0.004; Fig. 2b). Finally, we found that larval density had a negative impact on both
larval body mass (estimate \pm SE: -32.7 ± 2.2 ; $F_{172} = 214.98$, $P < 0.0001$; Fig. 2c) and
270 larval survival (estimate \pm SE: -0.521 ± 0.081 ; $F_{183} = 41.94$, $P < 0.0001$; Fig. 2d).

<H1>DISCUSSION

Although there were no main effects of either brood size or resource availability on
larval begging, we found evidence for a positive effect of the interaction between
275 brood size and carcass size. We monitored such effects because begging represents a
form of scramble competition among siblings (Parker, Royle & Hartley, 2002). For
example, previous work on this and other systems shows that, although offspring use
begging to signal their needs to the parents (Kilner & Johnstone, 1997; Smiseth &
Moore, 2004b), offspring also adjust their begging behaviour to the number of
280 competitors in the brood (e.g. Neuenschwander, Brinkhof, Kölliker & Richner, 2003;
Smiseth, Lennox & Moore, 2007). Thus, our study provides insights into how
offspring adjust their competitive behaviour in response to brood size and resource
availability. Our results show the offspring's response to brood size was conditional
upon resource availability; that is, the effects of brood size and resource availability
285 were not independent of each other. It is not straightforward to interpret this
interaction effect. However, previous work shows that larvae spend less time begging
as brood size increases, presumably reflecting higher levels of interference when
competing for food from the parents (Smiseth, Lennox & Moore, 2007). Thus, the

positive parameter estimate suggests that the slope describing this reduction in
290 begging with brood size was more pronounced on smaller (5 g) carcasses than on
larger ones (10 and 20 g). Further work is needed to examine why the offspring's
response to brood size was conditional upon resource availability.

We found no evidence that female *N. vespilloides* adjusted the amount of
direct care in response to brood size. Instead, we found that females provided more
295 direct care as carcass size increased (Fig. 1b). We monitored effects on parental care
because previous work on other systems shows that parents may compensate for
brood size manipulations by adjusting their food provisioning (e.g. Neuenschwander,
Brinkhof, Kölliker & Richner, 2003). Our results provide evidence for differential
effects of resource availability and brood size on the amount of direct care by the
300 female. This may reflect that resource availability in this species is limited by the size
of the carcass acquired prior to breeding. Although females can facilitate larval
growth and survival by providing more direct care (Andrews, Kruuk & Smiseth,
2017), they cannot increase the total supply of resources to the brood. In contrast,
parents of birds and mammals can increase the total supply of resources to the brood
305 in response to an increase in brood size either by extracting more energy from their
stored energy reserves (mammals) or by providing additional food from the
surrounding environment (birds). Thus, interspecific responses by parents to brood
size and resource availability may vary depending on whether the resource used for
breeding is finite as in *N. vespilloides* or not as in birds and mammals.

310 We found evidence for main effects of both brood size and resource
availability on two key aspects of offspring performance: larval body mass and larval
survival. Carcass size had a positive impact on larval body mass and larval survival,
while brood size had a negative impact on larval body mass and larval survival. Our

results show that the main effects of brood size and resource availability were in the
 315 opposite direction of each other, as expected if sibling competition is promoted when
 the brood's total demand for resources (i.e. brood size) exceeds the parent's supply of
 resources to the brood (i.e. resource availability; Mock & Parker, 1997). Our results
 are consistent with previous work on other species with parental care reporting main
 effects of either brood size or resource availability. For example, increasing brood
 320 size has a negative effect on nestling growth and/or survival in common kestrels,
Falco tinnunculus (Dijkstra, Bult, Bijlsma, Daan, Meijer & Zijlstra, 1990), marsh tits,
Poecile palustris (Nilsson & Gårdsmark, 2001), great tits (Neuenschwander, Brinkhof,
 Kölliker & Richner, 2003), bank voles, *Myodes glareolus* (Koskela 1998), domestic
 pigs, *Sus scrofa* (Andersen, Nævdal & Bøe, 2011), European earwigs, *Forficula*
 325 *auricularia* (Kölliker, 2007) and our study species *N. vespilloides* (Smiseth, Lennox
 & Moore, 2007). In contrast, supplementation of additional resources has a positive
 effect on offspring growth and/or survival in greater snow geese, *Chen caerulescens*
 (White, Leclaire, Kriloff, Mulard, Hatch & Danchin, 2010), black-legged kittiwakes,
Rissa tridactyla (Lindholm, Gauthier & Desrochers, 1994) and *N. vespilloides*
 330 (Smiseth, Andrews, Matthey & Mooney, 2014), while limitation of resources to the
 brood has a negative impact of offspring growth in bluethroats, *Luscinia svecica*
 (Smiseth, Bu, Eikenæs & Amundsen, 2003) and blue-footed boobies, *Sula nebouxii*
 (Drummond & Garcia Chavelas, 1989).

We found an effect of the interaction between brood size and resource
 335 availability on larval body mass. The positive parameter estimate suggests that the
 slope describing the effect of brood size on larval survival became less negative as
 carcass size increased (Fig. 1d). Such interaction effects might be expected given that
 a specific increase in brood size should have less of a negative impact when resources

are plentiful than when they are scarce. We found no evidence for such an interaction
340 effect for larval survival. Thus, brood size and resource availability had independent
effects on larval survival, but not on larval body mass. There is evidence for similar
interaction effects as those reported here from studies on amphibians without parental
care that manipulated both the number of larvae and the availability of resources
(Hota & Dash, 1981; Ding, Lin, Fan & Ji, 2015). However, to our knowledge, this is
345 the first study to provide evidence for such interaction effects in a species in which
parents care for their offspring. Given that similar interaction effects may be
widespread in species with parental care, there is now a need for further work on birds
and other taxa with parental care that examines the joint effects of brood size and
resource availability.

350 We repeated our analyses using larval density (i.e. brood size/carcass size) as a
proxy for the shortage of resources to the brood. When doing so, we found negative
effects of density on the amount of direct care by the female, larval body mass and
larval survival. We found no effect of larval density on larval begging. This contrasts
with our prior analyses treating brood size and resource availability as independent
355 factors, which revealed a differential effect of brood size and resource availability on
direct care by the female, and an effect of the interaction between brood size and
resource availability on larval begging. Our results have important implications for
the potential utility of offspring density (brood size/resource availability) as a proxy
for the mismatch between supply and demand (e.g. Schrader, Jarrett & Kilner, 2015).
360 Using offspring density would be justified if there are main effects of both brood size
and resource availability and there are no effects of the interaction between the two.
Our results show that that this is not always the case in *N. vespilloides* and suggest

that treating brood size and resource availability as independent factors is preferential to combining them into offspring density.

365 In sum, our study provides evidence for complex effects of brood size and resource availability on offspring begging, parental care and offspring performance. There were main effects of brood size and resource availability on offspring performance, differential effects on parental care, and effects of the interaction between them on larval begging and larval body mass. Nevertheless, our study leaves
370 some unanswered issues. First, we focused on sibling competition, thus ignoring the potential for sibling cooperation (Forbes, 2007; Falk, Wong, Kölliker & Meunier, 2014). A recent study on our study species suggests that sibling cooperation occurs in the absence of caring parents (Schrader, Jarrett, & Kilner, 2015). Thus, one potential avenue for further work is to examine the joint effects of brood size and resource
375 availability on sibling cooperation. Second, our study focused on the effects of specific values for brood size (5, 10 and 20 larvae) and resource limitation (5, 10 and 20 g carcasses). Although these values cover a wide range of both brood size and carcass size, they do not cover the full range of brood sizes (2–47 larvae; Smiseth & Moore, 2002) and carcass sizes (3.6–37.0 g) for this species. We note that our range
380 for carcass size is greater than that of other studies on the same species (8–12 g; Schrader, Jarrett, & Kilner, 2015). Nevertheless, a potential avenue for further work is to examine the joint effects of brood size and carcass size across the full range of brood size and resource availability.

385 **Acknowledgments**

We thank Laura Crichton, Hannah Drummond, Lucy Ford, Ed Ivimey-Cook, Natalia Pilakouta and Ross Wotherspoon for their help with maintaining the stock population

of beetles at the University of Edinburgh. We thank the Institute of Evolutionary
 Biology at the University of Edinburgh for providing funds for the study. M.P. was
 390 funded by FYSSSEN.

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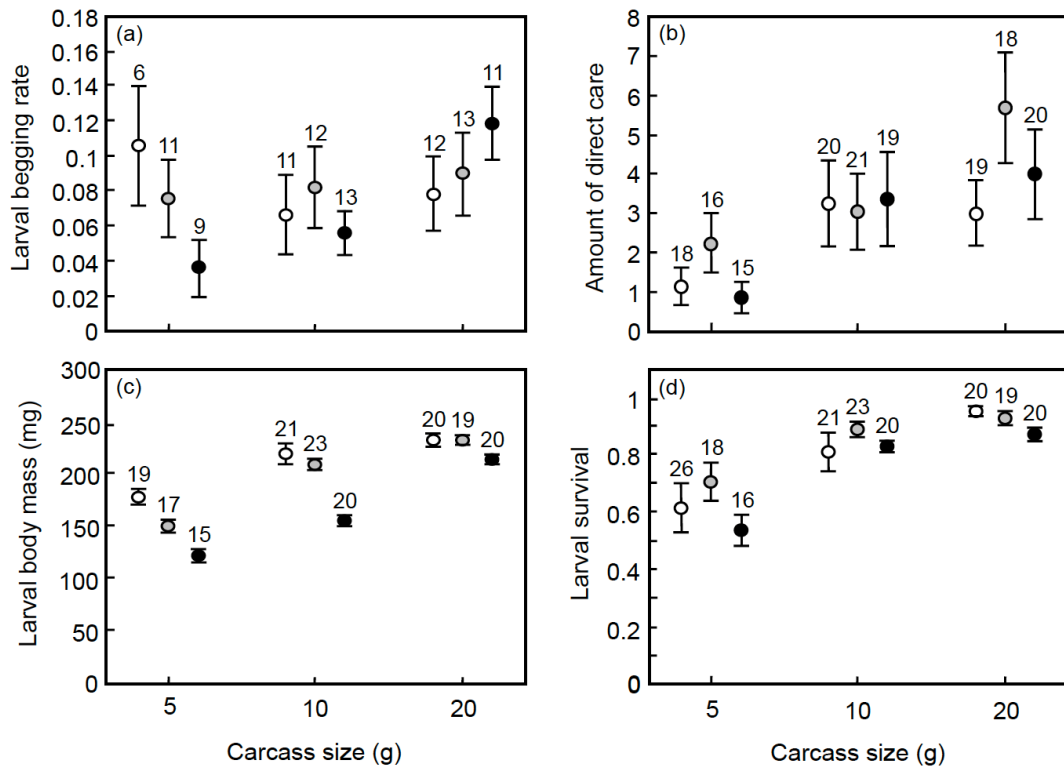
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Figure legends

510 Figure 1: Effects of brood size and resource supply (carcass size) on (a) the proportion
of time spent begging by the larvae, (b) the time spent providing direct care by the
female (number of scans out of 30), (c) larval body mass at dispersal (mg) and (d) the
proportion of surviving larvae at dispersal. Variation in brood size is represented by
points in different colours (white: 5 larvae; grey: 10 larvae; black: 20 larvae). Data
515 reported as mean \pm 1SE. Numbers above error bars represent sample size.

Figure 2: Effects of larval density on (a) the proportion of time spent begging by the
larvae, (b) the time spent providing direct care by the female (number of scans out of
30), (c) larval body mass at dispersal (mg) and (d) the proportion of surviving larvae
520 at dispersal. Larval density is calculated as number of larvae per g carcass. Data
reported as mean \pm 1SE.

[Figure 1]



525

[Figure 2]

