Larval competition reduces body condition in the female seed beetle, *Callosobruchus maculatus*

Daynika J. Schade\textsuperscript{a} and Steven M. Vamosi\textsuperscript{b*}

Department of Biological Sciences, University of Calgary, 2500 University Drive NW, Calgary Alberta, Canada T2N 1N4

Abstract

Early body condition may be important for adult behavior and fitness, and is impacted by a number of environmental conditions and biotic interactions. Reduced fecundity of adult females exposed to larval competition may be caused by reduced body condition or shifts in relative body composition, yet these mechanisms have not been well researched. Here, body mass, body size, scaled body mass index, and two body components (water content and lean dry mass) of adult *Callosobruchus maculatus* (Fabricius) (Coleoptera: Chrysomelidae: Bruchinae) females exposed to larval competition or reared alone were examined. Experimental females emerged at significantly smaller body mass and body size than control females. Additionally, scaled body mass index and water content, but not lean dry mass, were significantly reduced in experimental females. To our knowledge, these are the first results that demonstrate a potential mechanism for previously documented direct effects of competition on fecundity in female bruchine beetles.

Keywords: body components, Bruchinae, development, scaled body mass index

Abbreviations: ANOVA, analysis of variance; MANOVA, multivariate analysis of variance; PCA, principal components analysis

Correspondence: \textsuperscript{a} daynika.schade@gmail.com, \textsuperscript{b} smvamosi@ucalgary.ca, \textsuperscript{*} Corresponding author

Editor: Tugrul Giray was Editor of this paper.

Received: 27 April 2011, Accepted: 4 November 2011

Copyright: This is an open access paper. We use the Creative Commons Attribution 3.0 license that permits unrestricted use, provided that the paper is properly attributed.

ISSN: 1536-2442 | Vol. 12, Number 35

Cite this paper as: Schade DJ, Vamosi SM. 2012. Larval competition reduces body condition in the female seed beetle, *Callosobruchus maculatus*. *Journal of Insect Science* 12:35 available online: insectscience.org/12.35
Introduction

Early body condition has important consequences for fitness (Thornton 2008) and is determined during the crucial time of early life, defined as the period from conception to maturity (Henry and Ulijaszek 1996). From the standpoint of the growing individual, optimal environmental conditions for development include, for example, an abundance of high quality food and space as well as ideal temperatures, humidity, and/or lighting conditions (Prout and McChesney 1985; Vamosi and Lesack 2007; Schirmer et al. 2008). Factors that may result in sub–optimal conditions include exposure to predators (Brodin et al. 2006; Wohlfahrt et al. 2007; Mikolajewski et al. 2008), sexual conflict (Abbott et al. 2010), pollution or feces (Bedhomme et al. 2005), and stress (Shoemaker et al. 2006; Shoemaker and Adamo 2007). Adverse conditions encountered during development can have significant negative impacts on mass at birth or emergence (Metcalf and Monaghan 2001), metabolic rate (Verhulst et al. 2006), and disease resistance (Reilly and Hajek 2008). Thus, poor early body status may reduce fitness through reduced survival and/or reproductive success (Lindström 1999).

The fitness potential of holometabolous adult insects is often influenced primarily during larval development by resource availability and acquisition ability (Boggs and Freeman 2005). *Callosobruchus maculatus* (Fabricius) (Coleoptera: Chrysomelidae) is a holometabolous insect with larval and pupal stages confined within a bean, which may be shared by several individuals (Ofuya and Agele 1989; Messina and Tinney 1991), followed by a free–living adult form. Because *C. maculatus* do not need to feed or drink as adults to successfully reproduce (e.g., Fox 1993), one can experimentally isolate effects of larval conditions on adult fitness. Furthermore, because there is no parental care, reproductive success is tightly correlated with number and quality of eggs laid. Although the presence of a single competitor may only reduce body mass of *C. maculatus* females (Colegrave 1993), subsequent studies have revealed that females experiencing higher levels of larval competition tend to have a lower body mass upon emergence and lay fewer eggs for their mass than control females (Vamosi 2005; Vamosi and Lesack 2007). The latter results suggest that competition may affect fecundity independent of any effects on mass, but tests of proximate mechanisms are currently lacking.

Prior to proceeding, however, we note that there has been considerable debate of late regarding the way in which body condition is estimated (e.g., Green 2001; Schulte-Hostedde et al. 2005; Peig and Green 2009, 2010). Traditionally, the effects of body size on body mass would first be “controlled for” by obtaining residuals from this regression and then conducting a one–way analysis of variance (ANOVA) on these residuals (i.e., estimates of body condition; Schulte-Hostedde et al. 2005), using competition treatment as the binary predictor variable. However, it has been pointed out (e.g., Green 2001; Peig and Green 2009, 2010) that this method generates biased parameter estimates and, more generally, that the use of residuals as data should be limited to post–hoc diagnosis of model fits (e.g., García-Berthou 2001; Freckleton 2002). More recently, a new approach based on allometric scaling has been proposed (Peig and Green 2009, 2010; see Materials and Methods for an overview). This method appears especially preferable when
attempting to compare body condition of groups that differ in mean size but it has not been previously applied to insects. Here, it was investigated whether larval competition affects body condition of adult females. Females exposed to larval competition were predicted to have lower body condition than those reared alone. It was also tested whether larval competition affects individual body components of adult females. Because adult females exposed to larval competition during development may lay fewer eggs than predicted for their body mass, an associated reduction in relative water content in experimental females was predicted.

**Materials and Methods**

**Study organism**
The ‘hQ’ strain of *C. maculatus*, which displays a scramble competition strategy in the larval stage (i.e., if several eggs are laid on a single bean, multiple adults may emerge), was used. Stock cultures of beetles were reared on adzuki beans (*Vigna angularis*) and maintained at 28 °C, 50% RH and 24–hour dark conditions in Percival I33LLC8 growth chambers (www.percival-scientific.com).

**Competition treatments**
Several hundred adults from the stock culture were allowed to mate and oviposit on beans for 48 hours. Because ovipositing females may be able to recognize low quality beans (Mitchell 1975; Vamosi 2005), each bean was examined after 48 hours and only those with at least three eggs attached were retained for further use. Following previous studies (e.g., Vamosi 2005), two treatments were established (hereafter ‘experimental’ and ‘control’) in which females differed in the intensity of larval competition they experienced during development. Larval competition was manipulated by scraping off unwanted eggs before the larvae hatched and burrowed into beans. Although this method is relatively labor intensive, it avoids confounding effects potentially introduced by having two groups of parental females (i.e., few females on many beans to produce the control group, many females on few beans to produce the experimental treatment). Beans were randomly assigned to the two treatments. Approximately 150 beans had their eggs reduced to one egg per bean, using a scalpel to remove excess eggs. Beans were individually placed in 1.5 mL microcentrifuge tubes, with a small hole punctured in the lid for respiration, for incubation until emergence. This procedure ensured that adults emerging in the control treatment would have experienced no larval competition. For the competition treatment, approximately 250 beans were handled, without the removal of any eggs, and individually placed in similarly prepared 1.5 mL microcentrifuge tubes. More beans were isolated for the competition treatment because pilot studies revealed that the likelihood of a single egg on a bean producing one emerging adult was greater than that of several (i.e., three or more) eggs producing at least three emerging adults.

Beginning 20 days after oviposition, tubes were checked daily for the control group and several times a day for the experimental treatment. Once emergence began, adult females were isolated in microcentrifuge tubes. To ensure that all the females from the experimental treatment were unmated, only females found alone or with other females were considered. All males, as well as females found to have emerged in the same time interval as a male, were recorded and discarded. Once an experimental female was isolated, the level of competition experienced by that female was determined by dissecting the bean to examine it for pupae or adults that
had not yet emerged. To ensure larvae from the competition treatment experienced measurable effects of competition (cf. Vamosi 2005), only females reared with at least two other individuals that were minimally in the pupal stage when the female emerged were retained. Sample sizes were \( N = 30 \) for both treatment groups.

**Body components**

Procedures for obtaining body component measures followed those of Keller and Passera (1989). Within 24 hours of emergence, females were placed in sealed vials containing a swatch of paper towel wetted with ethyl acetate. The vapor killed the females within minutes and they were subsequently removed with forceps and measured for wet mass (hereafter, body mass) to the nearest 0.01 mg using a Sartorius balance ([www.sartorius.com](http://www.sartorius.com)). Immediately upon obtaining body mass of females, three linear body measurements (right elytron length, right elytron width, and pronotum width) were obtained using a Leica microscope ([www.leica-microsystems.com](http://www.leica-microsystems.com)). Females were then placed in individual 10 mL glass screw top vials supported within a test tube rack and dried at 70.6 ± 0.4 °C in a Fisher Scientific Isotemp Oven ([www.fischersci.com](http://www.fischersci.com)) for 24 hours. To limit the absorption of atmospheric moisture, dry mass of females after water removal was obtained within 15 min of removal from the oven, which was subtracted from body mass to obtain water content. Females were returned to their individual vials and 10 mL of petroleum ether was injected with a syringe into each vial before being returned to the oven for an additional 24 hours. Females were removed from the vials with forceps and placed in clean vials followed by a second 24–hour period of drying. To limit the absorption of atmospheric moisture, lean dry mass was measured for all females within 15 min of removal from the oven. Because no experiments were carried out to ensure that all fat was removed by the procedure (see O’Donnell and Jeane 1995), results of fat content analyses are not reported.

**Statistical analyses**

Although our aim is not to critique the various methods, it was necessary to choose one *a priori*, rather than applying both and presenting the one that produced “significant” results. Because body size is often lower on average in competition females (e.g., Vamosi 2005), this raised the possibility that the slope of the relationship between size and mass would differ between control and experimental groups. Attempting to apply an ordinary least squares approach in such a scenario is problematic whether one assumes a constant slope (because there is evidence that the relationship between size and mass is actually curvilinear; Peig and Green 2010) or allows for two slopes (because the mean of the residuals for each group will necessarily be zero). Following Peig and Green (2009, 2010), three main steps were undertaken to obtain a ‘scaled mass index’ of body condition (hereafter, scaled body mass index) for individuals. First, the body size measurement that was most strongly correlated with body mass was determined. All three linear body measurements and also the first principal component from a principal components analysis (PCA) that included these body measurements (see also Schulte-Hostedde et al. 2005; Colgoni and Vamosi 2006) were included. In agreement with Peig and Green (2009, 2010), one of the single linear body measurements (i.e., right elytron length), and not Principal Component 1 from the PCA, was most strongly correlated with body mass \((r = 0.76, t_{58} = 9.04, p < 0.01)\). Second, In–transformed right elytron length was regressed
against ln–transformed body mass with standardized major axis regression, to obtain the slope estimate of this relationship ($b_{SMA}$). RMA for Java v. 1.21 (Bohonak and van der Linde 2004) was used for this procedure. Finally, the scaled body mass index ($\hat{M}_i$; mg) for each individual was calculated with:

$$\hat{M}_i = M_i \left( \frac{L_0}{L_i} \right)^{b_{SMA}}$$  \hspace{1cm} (1)

where $M_i$ and $L_i$ are the body mass and right elytron length of individual $i$ respectively, and $L_0$ is the arithmetic mean value for the sample (= 2.01 mm). The effect of the competition treatment on scaled body mass index was analyzed with one–way ANOVA. Correlations between scaled body mass index and scaled body components (water content and lean dry mass) for experimental and control females were calculated. To account for multiple comparisons, a correlation was deemed significant only when $p < \alpha/4 = 0.0125$. Scaled body components were obtained in the same way as described for scaled body mass index, substituting the appropriate body component for body mass in each case. First, multivariate ANOVA (MANOVA) was applied, followed by subsequent univariate ANOVAs for each body component. Analyses of correlations and treatment effects were conducted with R 2.12.1 (R Development Core Team 2010).

### Results

Experimental females emerged at a significantly lower mean body mass (mean: 5.78 vs. 7.05 mg; $F_{1,58} = 27.42$, $p < 0.01$; Figure 1) and smaller body size ($F_{1,58} = 4.90$, $p < 0.05$) than control females. The slope of the relationship between ln–transformed right elytron length and ln–transformed body mass also differed markedly between the two groups (mean ± SE: control females, $b_{SMA} = 3.24 \pm 0.38$; experimental females, $b_{SMA} = 2.42 \pm 0.30$). One–way ANOVA on scaled body mass index values revealed that experimental females had significantly lower values than control females ($F_{1,58} = 14.61$, $p < 0.01$), with a mean reduction of 9.5% (Figure 2). The findings of reduced mean body mass and scaled body mass index (i.e., body condition) suggest that negative physiological effects of competition were successfully attained by our protocol (see also Vamosi 2005; Vamosi and Lesack 2007).

All four correlations between body condition and scaled body components were significant, even accounting for multiple comparisons.

### Table 1. Correlations between scaled body mass index and scaled body components.

| Component      | r   | p      |
|----------------|-----|--------|
| Lean dry mass  | 0.67| < 0.01 |
| (0.40, 0.83)   |     |        |
| Water          | 0.95| < 0.01 |
| (0.89, 0.97)   |     |        |
| Lean dry mass  | 0.78| < 0.01 |
| (0.59, 0.89)   |     |        |
| Water          | 0.94| < 0.01 |
| (0.87, 0.97)   |     |        |

Numbers in brackets indicate 95% confidence intervals for correlation coefficients.
Figure 2. Scaled body mass index (i.e., body condition) at emergence (mean ± SE; mg) of control and experimental Callosobruchus maculatus females (N = 30 for both groups). Data shown represent female body mass standardized to a length of 2.01 mm (mean right elytron length for the sample). High quality figures are available online.

In both groups, the ranking of the correlation between scaled body mass index and body components was the same as observed for five mammal species in Peig and Green (2009; based on original data from Schulte-Hostede et al. 2005) i.e., water > lean dry mass. Although MANOVA was not significant ($F_{3,56} = 1.93$, $p = 0.13$), subsequent univariate tests revealed a significant negative effect of competition treatment on scaled water content ($F_{1,58} = 5.05$, $p < 0.05$) and a nonsignificant negative effect on lean dry mass ($F_{1,58} = 3.51$, $p = 0.066$).

**Discussion**

Extending previous studies that demonstrated a reduction in mass–corrected number of eggs laid by females exposed to larval competition (Vamosi 2005; Vamosi and Lesack 2007), scaled body condition and body components of control and experimental females were analyzed. Experimental females were predicted to have reduced body condition and reduced water content compared to control females. Females that were reared with at least two other individuals while developing in medium–sized beans (i.e., experimental females) were significantly lighter and smaller at emergence than those reared alone (i.e., control females), in agreement with previous studies (e.g., Colegrave 1993, Vamosi 2005). Additionally, a significant reduction in body condition was observed, measured as scaled body mass index (Peig and Green 2009, 2010), in experimental females. With regard to body components, there was a significant reduction in water content (mean effect = −6.7%) and a marginal reduction in lean dry mass (−7.3%) in experimental females. To our knowledge, this is the first investigation and documentation of potential mechanisms that may cause previously documented direct negative effects of competition on fecundity in bruchine beetles (Vamosi 2005; Vamosi and Lesack 2007).

Water availability has been shown to affect various aspects of the biology of bruchine beetles. Bruchine beetles are classified as being xerophilic (i.e., able to grow and reproduce without access to free water; Appel et al. 2009), although they will drink free water and lap at sugar–water (e.g., Fox and Moya-Laraño 2009; D Schade and SM Vamosi, pers. obs.). Contrary to expectations, female bruchine beetles do not preferentially lay eggs on high moisture seeds, although the apparent preference for dry seeds may simply be because the latter have reduced chemical defenses (Hudaib et al. 2010). Availability of water has been demonstrated to have significant effects on the mating behavior of adult C. maculatus females (Edvardsson 2007; Ursprung et al. 2009; Fox and Moya-Laraño 2009). Females provided with access to free water have been observed to mate less frequently than those deprived of water...
Water, rather than nutrient content, in the ejaculate has been suggested to modulate remating frequency in adult females (Ursprung et al. 2009). Access to water may be associated with significant positive effects on fecundity and longevity of females, although both effects appear strongest when water is provided in combination with sugar (Ursprung et al. 2009; Fox and Moya-Laraño 2009). Together, these observations suggest that the reduction in water content of experimental females documented in the present study may translate into biologically relevant consequences for their mating behavior and fecundity.

Evaluating the reception of the scaled mass index method for estimating body condition is currently difficult, given the lack of studies that have cited Peig and Green (2009, 2010) thus far. However, three observations suggest that it may be a robust methodology for similar studies in future. First, the slopes of the relationship between ln–transformed right elytron length and ln–transformed body mass for C. maculatus females corresponded well to values reported in Table 2 of Peig and Green (2009) for seven vertebrate species (median: 2.9, range = 1.4 to 3.6). Second, correlations between body condition and scaled body components (Table 1) were similar in magnitude to the mean values (lean dry mass: 0.84; water: 0.91) computed for the five mammal species reported in Table 3 of Peig and Green (2009). Finally, and most significantly, this methodology allowed for the comparison of body condition of two groups (experimental vs. control females) that differed in the slope of the relationship between size and mass. It is likely that the method defended by Schulte-Hostedde et al. (2005) will continue to be appropriate in many instances, but we suggest researchers consider applying Peig and Green’s (2009, 2010) scaled body mass index for estimating body condition whenever there is an *a priori* reason to suspect that the groups being compared will differ in mean body mass and/or body size. Changes in either or both traits are certainly commonly observed in response to competition (Colegrave 1993; Boggs and Freeman 2005; Vamosi 2005; Harvey et al. 2009), but may also be triggered by variation in several other factors, including temperature (Marti and Carpenter 2008) and resource type (Ueno 2003).

Because *Callosobruchus* is increasingly being used as a model organism in several areas of ecology and evolution (e.g., Fox 1993; Crudgington and Siva-Jothy 2000; Arnqvist and Tuda 2010), future investigations should explicitly examine the consequences for different environmental conditions encountered during development on adult behavior and fitness. The present study could be extended in several ways, from comparative and life history perspectives. For the former, because only a single scramble strain was considered, it may be informative to investigate whether similar patterns hold for multiple contest and competition strains. For the latter, body condition could be non–invasively measured (i.e., by measuring only body length and body mass of females upon emergence), which could be included as a covariate in subsequent analyses of mating frequency, longevity, and mass–corrected fecundity of competition vs. control females. Finally, most studies have considered these phenomena in females, whereas the effects on males have been relatively understudied.

In conclusion, exposure to larval competition during development resulted in adult C. maculatus females with significantly lower body mass, body size, scaled body mass index
(i.e., body condition), and water content than control females. These results are the first to provide a potential mechanism for reduced mass-corrected fecundity in females exposed to competition during larval development, and corroborate previous demonstrations of a potential positive effect of access to free water on longevity and fecundity in bruchine beetles.

Acknowledgements

We thank R. Cartar, M. Reid, and K. Ruckstuhl for feedback, F. Messina for providing beetles for our stock cultures, and NSERC (Canada) for a Research Tools and Instruments Grant and a Discovery Grant to SV.

References

Abbott JK, Bedhomme S, Chippindale AK. 2010. Sexual conflict in wing size and shape in Drosophila melanogaster. Journal of Evolutionary Biology 23: 1989-1997.

Appel AG, Moar WJ, Tanley MJ. 1999. Water loss and mortality of adult cowpea weevils (Coleoptera: Bruchidae) exposed to desiccants and desiccating environments. Environmental Entomology 28: 979-982.

Arnqvist G, Tuda M. 2010. Sexual conflict and the gender load: correlated evolution between population fitness and sexual dimorphism in seed beetles. Proceedings of the Royal Society of London Series B: Biological Sciences 277: 1345-1352.

Bedhomme S, Agnew P, Sidobre C, Michalakis Y. 2005. Pollution by conspecifics as a component of intraspecific competition among Aedes aegypti larvae. Ecological Entomology 30: 1-7.

Boggs CL, Freeman KD. 2005. Larval food limitation in butterflies: effects on adult resource allocation and fitness. Oecologia 144: 353-361.

Bohonak AJ, van der Linde K. 2004. RMA: Software for Reduced Major Axis regression for Java. Available online, http://www.bio.sdsu.edu/pub/andy/RMA.html

Brodin T, Mikolajewski DJ, Johansson F. 2006. Behavioural and life history effects of predator diet cues during ontogeny in damselfly larvae. Oecologia 148: 162-169.

Colegrave N. 1993. Does larval competition affect fecundity independently of its effect on adult weight? Ecological Entomology 18: 275-277.

Colgoni A, Vamosi SM. 2006. Sexual dimorphism and allometry in two seed beetles (Coleoptera: Bruchidae). Entomological Science 9: 171-179.

Crudgington HS, Siva-Jothy MT. 2000. Genital damage, kicking and early death. Nature 407: 855-856.

Edvardsson M. 2007. Female Callosobruchus maculatus mate when they are thirsty: resource–rich ejaculates as mating effort in a beetle. Animal Behaviour 74: 183-188.

Fox CW. 1993. Multiple mating, lifetime fecundity and female mortality in the bruchid beetle, Callosobruchus maculatus (Coleoptera: Bruchidae). Functional Ecology 7: 203-208.

Fox CW, Moya-Laraño J. 2009. Diet affects female mating behaviour in a seed–feeding
beetle. *Physiological Entomology* 34: 370-378.

Freckleton RS. 2002. On the misuse of residuals in ecology: regression of residuals vs. multiple regression. *Journal of Animal Ecology* 71: 542-545.

Garcia-Berthou E. 2001. On the misuse of residuals in ecology: testing regression residuals vs. the analysis of covariance. *Journal of Animal Ecology* 70: 708-711.

Green AJ. 2001. Mass/length residuals: measures of body condition or generators of spurious results? *Ecology* 82: 1473-1483.

Harvey JA, Gols R, Strand MR. 2009. Intrinsic competition and its effects on the survival and development of three species of endoparasitoid wasps. *Entomologia Experimentalis et Applicata* 130: 238-248.

Henry CJK, Ulijaszek SJ (Editors). 1996. *Long-term Consequences of Early Environment*. Cambridge University Press.

Hudaib T, Hayes W, Brown S, Eady PE. 2010. Effect of seed moisture content and D-limonene on oviposition decisions of the seed beetle *Callosobruchus maculatus*. *Entomologia Experimentalis et Applicata* 137: 120-125.

Keller L, Passera L. 1989. Size and fat content of gynes in relation to the mode of colony founding in ants (Hymenoptera; Formicidae). *Oecologia* 80: 236-240.

Lindström J. 1999. Early development and fitness in birds and mammals. *Trends in Ecology and Evolution* 14: 343-348.

Marti OG, Carpenter JE. 2008. Rearing *Cactoblastis cactorum* (Lepidoptera: Pyralidae) on a factitious meridic diet at different temperatures and larval densities. *The Florida Entomologist* 91: 679-685.

Messina FJ, Tinney TR. 1991. Discrimination between ‘self’ and ‘non–self’ eggs by egg–laying seed beetles: a reassessment. *Ecological Entomology* 16: 509-512.

Metcalfe NB, Monaghan P. 2001. Compensation for a bad start: grow now, pay later? *Trends in Ecology and Evolution* 16: 254-260.

Mikolajewski DJ, Stoks R, Rolff J, Joop G. 2008. Predators and cannibals modulate sex–specific plasticity in life–history and immune traits. *Functional Ecology* 22: 114-120.

Mitchell R. 1975. The evolution of oviposition tactics in the bean weevil *Callosobruchus maculatus* (F). *Ecology* 56: 696-702.

O’Donnell SO, Jeanne RL. 1995. Worker lipid stores decrease with outside–nest task performance in wasps: implications for the evolution of age polyethism. *Experientia* 51: 749-752.

Ofuya T, Agele S. 1989. Ability of ovipositing *Callosobruchus maculatus* females to discriminate between seeds bearing their own eggs and those bearing eggs of other females. *Ecological Entomology* 14: 243-264.

Peig J, Green AJ. 2009. New perspectives for estimating body condition from mass/length data: the scaled mass index as an alternative method. *Oikos* 118: 1883-1891.
Peig J, Green AJ. 2010. The paradigm of body condition: a critical reappraisal of current methods based on mass and length. *Functional Ecology* 24: 1323-1332.

Prout T, McChesney F. 1985. Competition among immatures affects their adult fertility: population dynamics. *American Naturalist* 126: 521-558.

R Development Core Team. 2010. R: A language and environment for statistical computing. R Foundation for Statistical Computing. Available online, http://www.R-project.org/

Reilly JR, Hajek AE. 2008. Density–dependent resistance of the gypsy moth *Lymantria dispar* to its nucleopolyhedrovirus, and the consequences for population dynamics. *Oecologia* 154: 691-701.

Schirmer S, Sengonca C, Blaeser P. 2008. Influence of abiotic factors on some biological and ecological characteristics of the aphid parasitoid *Aphelinus asychis* (Hymenoptera: Aphelinidae) parasitizing *Aphis gossypii* (Sternorrhyncha: Aphididae). *European Journal of Entomology* 105: 121-129.

Schulte-Hostedde AI, Zinner B, Millar JS, Hickling GJ. 2005. Restitution of mass/size residuals: validating body condition indices. *Ecology* 86: 155-163.

Shoemaker KL, Adamo SA. 2007. Adult female crickets *Gryllus texensis* maintain reproductive output after repeated immune challenges. *Physiological Entomology* 32: 113-120.

Shoemaker KL, Parsons NM, Adamo SA. 2006. Egg–laying behaviour following infection in the cricket *Gryllus texensis*. *Canadian Journal of Zoology* 84: 412-418.

Thornton A. 2008. Early body condition, time budgets and the acquisition of foraging skills in meerkats. *Animal Behavior* 75: 951-962.

Ueno H. 2003. Genetic variation in larval period and pupal mass in an aphidophagous ladybird beetle (*Harmonia axyridis*) reared in different environments. *Entomologia Experimentalis et Applicata* 106: 211-218.

Ursprung C, den Hollander M, Gwynne DT. 2009. Female seed beetles, *Callosobruchus maculatus*, remate for male–supplied water rather than ejaculate nutrition. *Behavioral Ecology and Sociobiology* 63: 781-788.

Vamosi SM. 2005. Interactive effects of larval host and competition on adult fitness: an experimental test with seed beetles (Coleoptera: Bruchidae). *Functional Ecology* 19: 859-864.

Vamosi SM, Lesack TL. 2007. Direct effects of larval competition on development time and fecundity in seed beetles. *Evolutionary Ecology Research* 9: 1131-1143.

Verhulst S, Holveck M-J, Riebel K. 2006. Long–term effects of manipulated natal brood size on metabolic rate in zebra finches. *Biology Letters* 2: 478-480.

Wohlfahrt B, Mikolajewski DJ, Joop G, Vamosi SM. 2007. Ontogenetic changes in the association between antipredator responses and growth variables. *Ecological Entomology* 32: 567-574.