

Electronic Supplementary Materials

Testing predictions of inclusive fitness theory in inbreeding relatives with biparental care

Elizabeth A Gow, Peter Arcese, Danielle Dagenais, Rebecca J Sardell, Scott Wilson, Jane M

Reid

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Table of contents:

Appendix S1: Calculation of metrics of parent-offspring relatedness

Figure S1: Schematic illustration of calculation of relatedness

Figure S2: Example calculation of total allelic value (TAV)

Figure S3: Example calculation of lost allelic value (LAV)

Appendix S2: Further details of paternity and pedigree analyses, and observation of feeding rates

Appendix S3: Null model variables, and focal and null variable distributions

Figure S4: Frequency histograms of null and focal variables

Figure S5: Relationships between parental feeding rates and time of season and nestling age

Figure S6: Relationships between parental feeding rates and brood size

Figure S7: Relationships between parental feeding rates and social status

Appendix S4: Relationships between male and female total allelic value (TAV) and brood size

Figure S8: Female and male TAV and brood size

Figure S9: TAV for males versus females within a pair

Appendix S5: Relationships between proportion of extra-pair offspring (P_{EPO}) and other variables

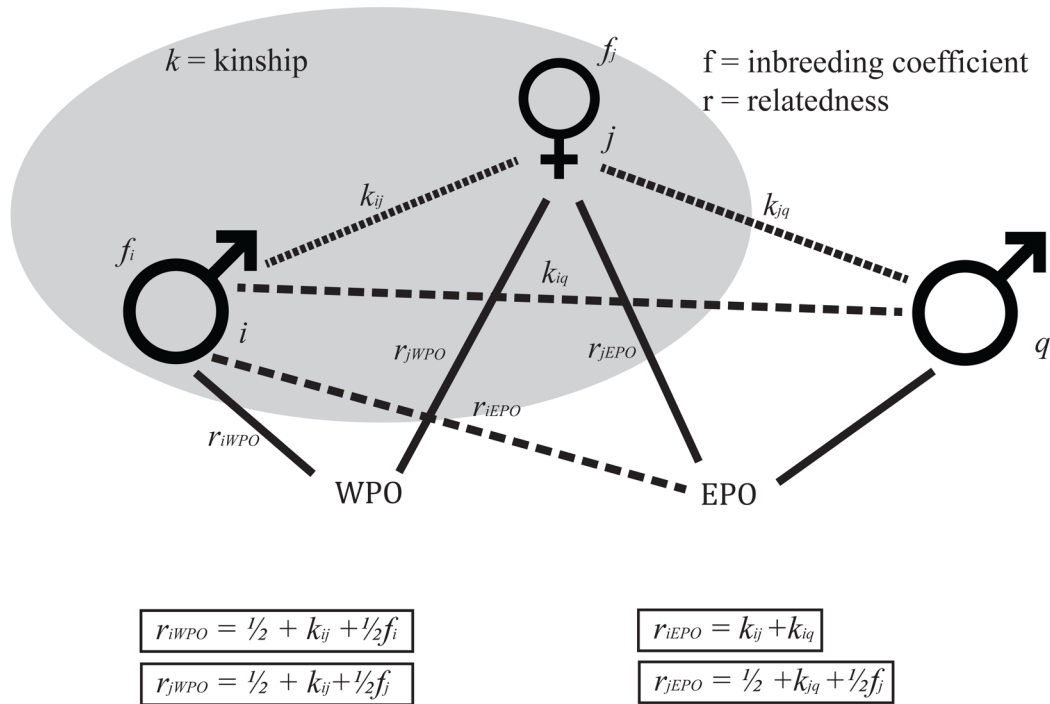
Figure S10. Relationship between P_{EPO} and social status

- 27 **Figure S11.** Relationship between lost allelic value (LAV) and P_{EPO}
- 28 **Figure S12:** Relationships between female and male feeding rates and P_{EPO}
- 29 **Appendix S6:** Supplementary results
- 30 **Table S1:** Null model variables and results from the null model
- 31 **Table S2:** Results from models with TAV, TAV_z and brood size
- 32 **Table S3:** Results from models with focal variables LAV, P_{EPO} , k_{ij} , and f_i and f_j
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Appendix S1: Calculation of metrics of parent-offspring relatedness

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38 Figure S1. Schematic illustration of calculation of relatedness between a parent and its genetic offspring (i.e., a male's within-pair
 39 offspring (WPO) giving r_{iWPO} , or a female's WPO or extra-pair offspring (EPO) giving r_{jWPO} and r_{jEPO} , respectively), and the relatedness
 40 between a male and an EPO that it did not sire but could rear (r_{iEPO}). The parameters i , j , and q denote the identities of the focal male,
 41 its socially-paired female, and the female's extra-pair mate (i.e., the sire of the EPO). k_{ij} is the coefficient of kinship between male i
 42 and his socially-paired female j , and is identical to the coefficient of kinship between female j and male i . k_{iq} is the coefficient of

43 kinship between i and j 's extra-pair mate q , and k_{jq} is the coefficient of kinship between j and q . f_i and f_j are i and j 's own coefficients of
44 inbreeding respectively. The grey oval highlights the social pairing, involving i and j . Dotted lines indicate mating, solid lines indicate
45 parentage, and dashed lines indicate links between other potentially related individuals.

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$$\begin{array}{c}
 \text{WPO} \quad + \quad \text{EPO} \quad + \quad \text{WPO} \\
 \begin{array}{l}
 \text{♂} \quad \text{TAV}_i = (r_{i\text{WPO}} = 1/2 + k_{ij} + 1/2 f_i) \quad \left| \quad (r_{i\text{EPO}} = k_{ij} + k_{iq}) \quad \left| \quad (r_{i\text{WPO}} = 1/2 + k_{ij} + 1/2 f_i) \right. \\
 \text{♀} \quad \text{TAV}_j = (r_{j\text{WPO}} = 1/2 + k_{ij} + 1/2 f_j) \quad \left| \quad (r_{j\text{EPO}} = 1/2 + k_{jq} + 1/2 f_j) \quad \left| \quad (r_{j\text{WPO}} = 1/2 + k_{ij} + 1/2 f_j) \right.
 \end{array}
 \end{array}$$

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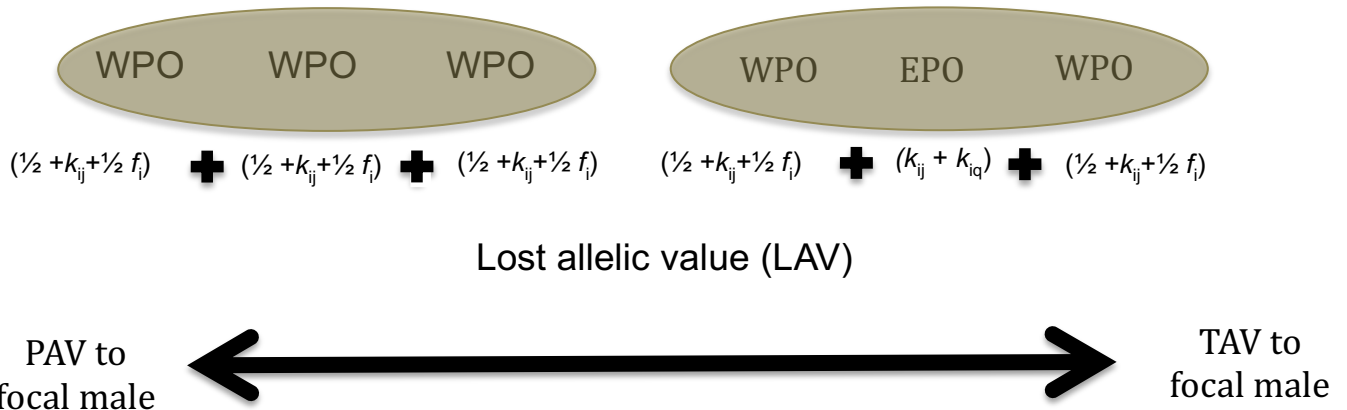
49 Figure S2. Example calculation of total allelic value (TAV) for a socially-paired male and female
 50 rearing a hypothetical brood comprising two within-pair offspring (WPO) and one extra-pair
 51 offspring (EPO), and hence total brood size (BS) of three nestlings. TAV is calculated by
 52 summing appropriate values of relatedness for each nestling in the brood, calculated with
 53 respect to each focal parent using the formulae specified (see also Figure S1). Note that this can
 54 generate different values of TAV with respect to a focal male i (TAV_i) and his socially-paired
 55 female j (TAV_j). In general, TAV increases with BS and, conditional on BS, is larger when the
 56 parents have higher coefficients of inbreeding (f_j or f_i) and/or higher coefficients of kinship (k_{ij}
 57 and/or k_{iq} and/or k_{jq}). All terminology is defined in figure S1.

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63 Figure S3. Example calculation of lost allelic value (LAV) as the decrease in total allelic value of
 64 a brood to a focal male (TAV_i) resulting from extra-pair paternity (EPP) in offspring produced by
 65 the male's socially-paired female. LAV is calculated as $PAV - TAV_i$, where PAV is the brood's
 66 potential allelic value to the focal male, which equals the brood's TAV to the male calculated as
 67 if he had sired the entire brood. WPO and EPO denote within-pair and extra-pair offspring
 68 respectively. The indices i , j , and q denote the identities of the focal male, its socially-paired
 69 female, and the female's extra-pair mate (i.e., the sire of the EPO). k_{ij} is the coefficient of kinship
 70 between male i and its socially-paired female j , and k_{iq} is the coefficient of kinship between i and
 71 j 's extra-pair mate q . LAV can therefore take values between 0 (given zero paternity loss) and
 72 $\frac{1}{2}BS(1+f_i)$ (given complete paternity loss and $k_{iq}=0$).

73

74 **Appendix S2: Further details of paternity and pedigree analyses, and observation of**
75 **feeding rates**

76 ***Pedigree construction and analysis***

77 All nestlings and adults ringed since 1993 were genotyped at 160 microsatellite loci [1]. The
78 identities of the genetic parents of each nestling were identified with >99% individual-level
79 statistical confidence [2,3]. Overall, 28% of nestlings were assigned as EPO and 72% as WPO
80 [4]. The social pedigree (i.e., constructed from observed social parentage) was corrected for
81 EPP from 1993 onwards [1,3,5]. Coefficients of kinship (k) between any two individuals, and
82 each individual's own coefficient of inbreeding (f) were calculated from the corrected pedigree
83 using standard algorithms and are relative to a 1975 baseline [2,5,6]. Since the focal individuals
84 have multiple generations of genetically verified ancestors there is very little error in k and f
85 relative to the defined baseline [5]. For reference, values of k of 0, 0.0625, 0.125, 0.25 indicate
86 pairings between unrelated individuals and outbred third-order, second-order, and first-order
87 relatives, respectively. The same values of f refer to offspring of such pairings. Both f and k are
88 expectations, and realized parent-offspring relatedness will deviate from these expectations due
89 to Mendelian sampling variance. However, such variance is reduced by inbreeding, and also
90 reduced across groups of individuals. This implies that deviations between expected and
91 realized relatedness will commonly be relatively small in our system, especially for TAV for
92 broods that contain multiple offspring.

93
94 ***Parental feeding rates***

95 On Mandarte Island, song sparrows construct open cup nests in grass/scrub margins. Individual
96 parents are typically consistent in the route they approach their nest, as determined by the
97 orientation of open vegetation and foraging locations. For each focal nest, typical parental
98 approach routes were determined during extensive observations during incubation (for females)

99 and early stages of chick feeding (both parents). These observations also served to accustom
100 breeding sparrows to observer presence.

101 For each feeding rate observation session a single observer approached the territory
102 along established trails, and positioned themselves 15–20m from the focal nest in the best
103 possible position (often on a free-standing ladder or high rock) to retain a clear line of sight of
104 incoming parents while minimizing disturbance. A 10–15 min habituation period was then
105 imposed, during which observers checked for signs of disturbance (e.g. parental alarm calls),
106 and allowed parental behaviour to return to normal after any initial disturbance. If any signs of
107 disturbance were evident, the observer changed position and the habituation period was
108 repeated; however, in most cases no such impacts occurred. The 1-hour session then
109 commenced, and the observer noted the time of arrival of each parent (as identified from their
110 colour-rings). It is unlikely that any visits were missed, due to the close proximity to the nest and
111 consistency in the routes parents took to the nest. However, in three sessions the visiting
112 parent's identity was uncertain during at least one nest visit. These sessions were excluded from
113 analyses. The total of 338 retained sessions spanned the 12-day nestling period (2–5 days,
114 N=112; 6–7 days; N=117; 8–11 days; N=109).

115 Some nests initiated in the population during the focal periods were excluded from field
116 observations, either because their locations prevented reliable observations without causing
117 disturbance, or because they failed during incubation or early in the chick-rearing period.
118 Observers also attempted to visually score food loads as small, medium or large, but such
119 scoring was not always possible and could not be easily validated. The number of feeding visits
120 per hour was consequently used as the focal metric, and is taken to capture one aspect of
121 parental care. There were no observations of parents visiting nests without food, providing no
122 obvious evidence of 'cheating'. Observations also suggested that parents typically brought
123 relatively equal amounts of food each visit (e.g. either one or two large items or several small
124 items), suggesting that feeding rate likely predicts the amount of food provided to offspring.

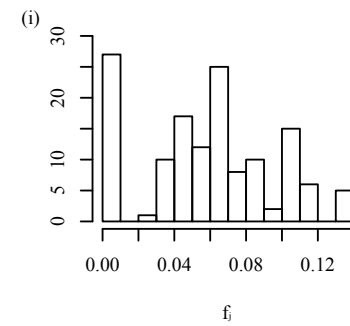
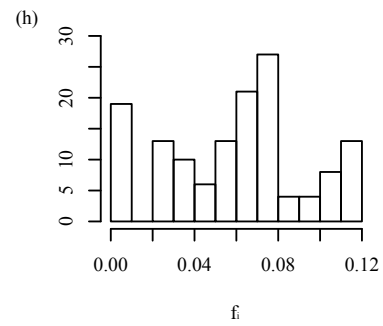
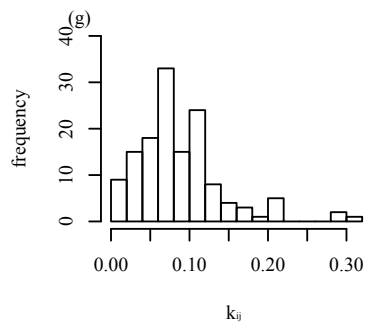
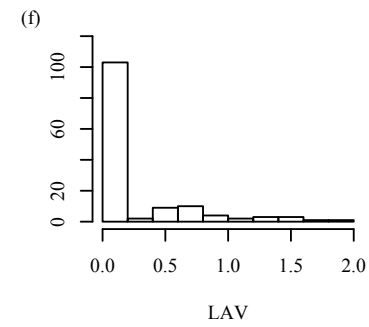
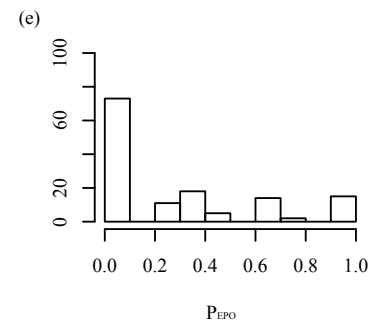
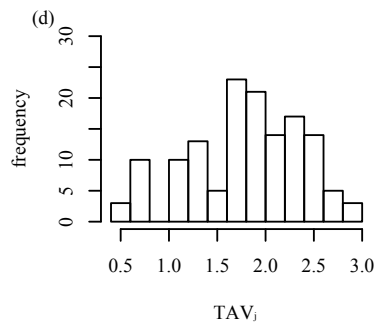
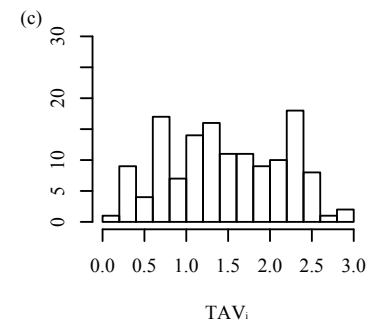
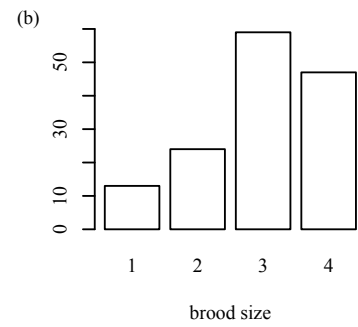
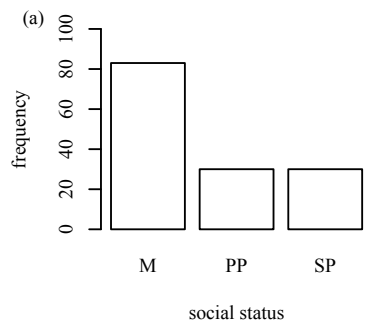
125 Feeding rate data were collected blind to key predictor variables; indeed, the molecular genetic
126 paternity analyses required to calculate TAV, P_{EPO} and LAV were not undertaken until after each
127 breeding season had finished. Extra-pair sires were never observed to visit nests where they
128 had sired extra-pair offspring.

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130

131 **Appendix S3: Null model variables, and focal and null and variable distributions**

132 Over half of the observation sessions were at monogamous nests (N=192), while the rest were
133 split between primary polygynous and secondary polygynous nests (N= 74 and 71, respectively;
134 Fig S4a). Across all 138 observed nests, mean brood size was 2.9 ± 1.0 nestlings (median: 3,
135 range 1-4, Fig. S4b). Mean TAV values were 1.411 ± 0.682 (range 0.063–2.946) for males and
136 1.785 ± 0.584 (range 0.538–2.998) for females (Fig S4c, d). Mean P_{EPO} was 0.27 ± 0.35 (median 0,
137 range 0–1, 52% zeros; Fig S4e). Mean LAV was 0.208 ± 0.373 (median 0.000, range 0.000–
138 1.913, 50% zeros; Fig S4f). Across all 75 observed female-male pairs, mean k_{ij} was 0.085 ± 0.054
139 (range 0.000–0.300, Fig S4g). Mean f_i was 0.056 ± 0.038 (range 0.000–0.181) across 55
140 individual males (Fig S4h) and mean f_j was 0.055 ± 0.035 (range 0.000–0.164) across 65
141 individual females (Fig S4i).



143 Figure S4. Frequency histograms (number of individuals) of null and focal variables. Social statuses (a) are defined as monogamous
144 (M), only one female per male; primary polygynous (PP), two females per male territory but the first nest to hatch; secondary
145 polygynous (SP), two or three females per male territory but the second or third nest to hatch. TAV_i (c) and TAV_j (d) are the “total
146 allelic values” for males and females respectively. P_{EPO} is the proportion of extra-pair offspring in a brood (e) and LAV is the “lost
147 allelic value” (f). k_{ij} is the coefficient of kinship between socially-paired mates (g) and male f_i and female f_j (h, i) are the coefficients of
148 inbreeding of the focal male and female.

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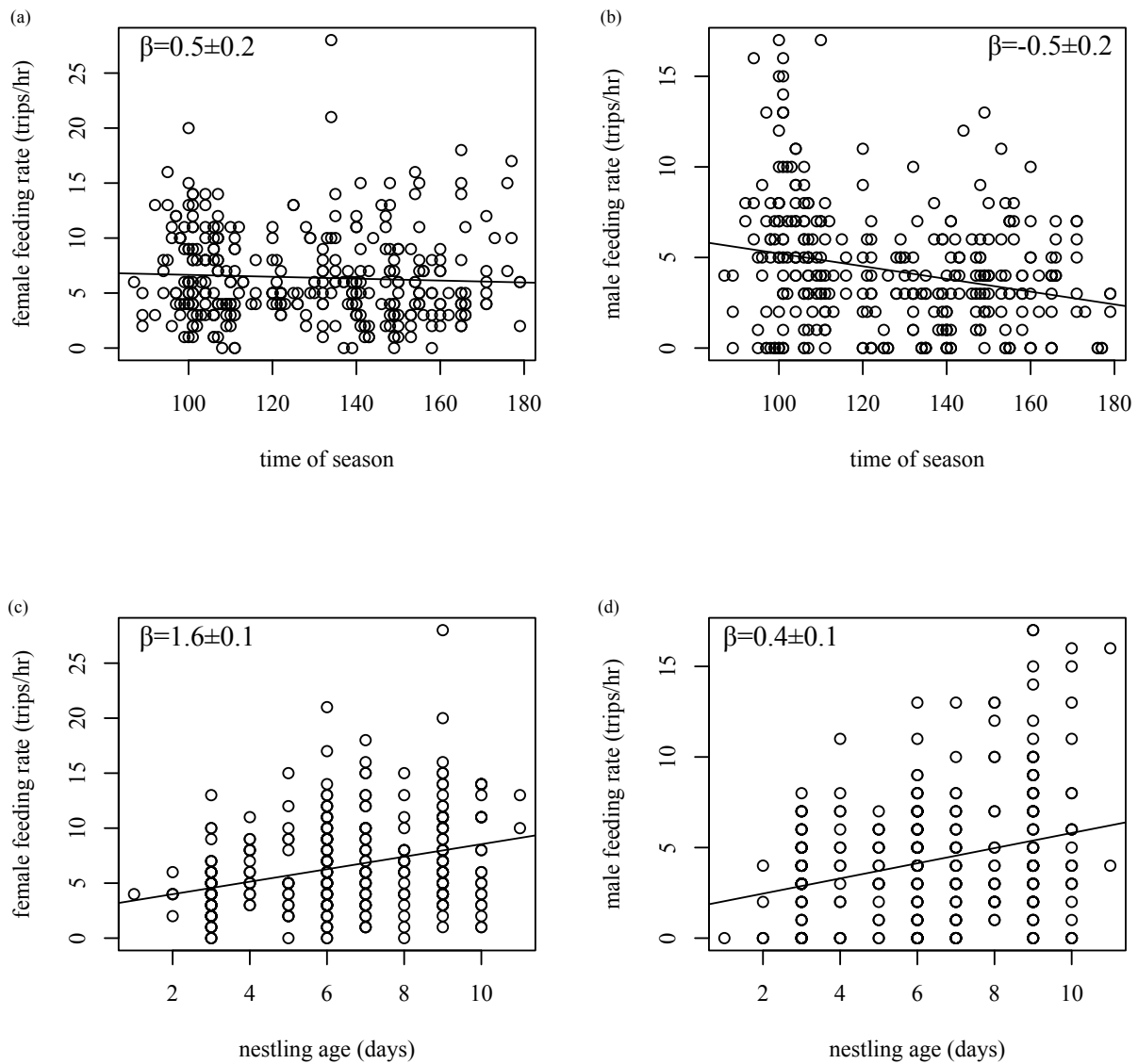
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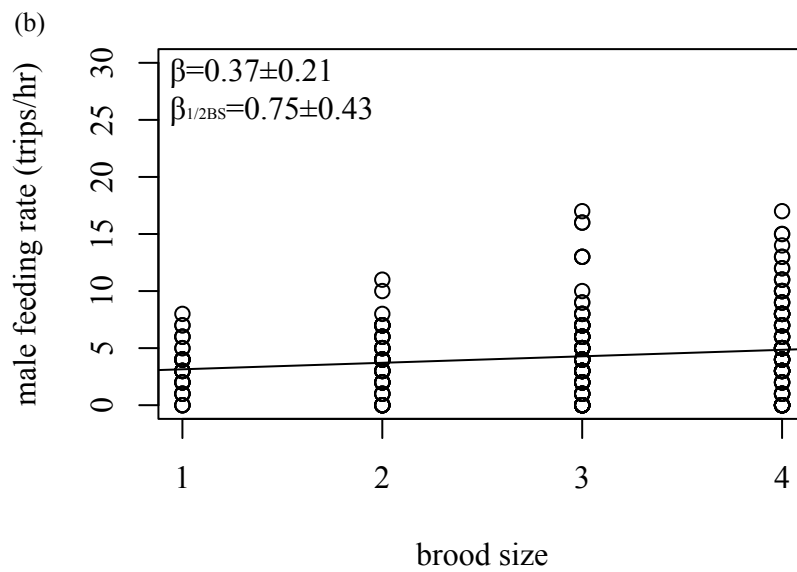
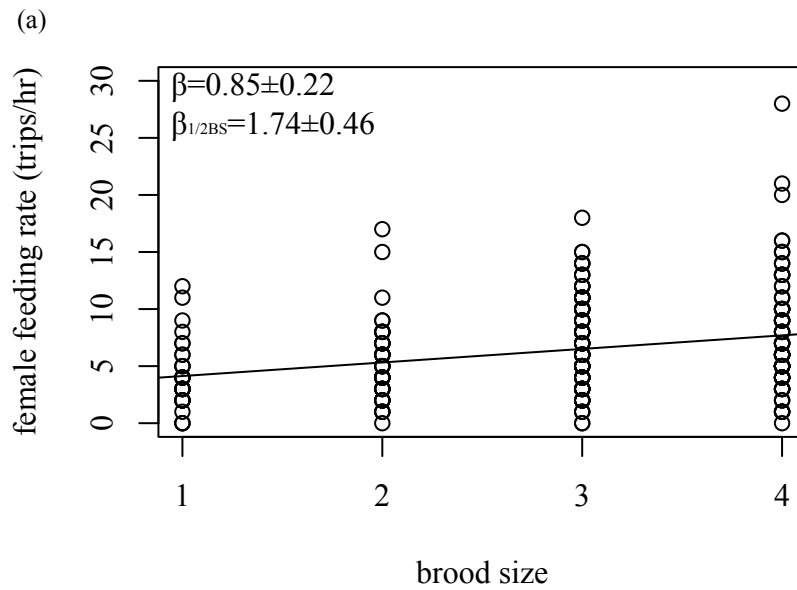
159 **Null model variables**

160 Both sexes' feeding rates increased with increasing nestling age, but male feeding rates decreased as the breeding season
161 progressed (Fig S5). Models that contained brood size as a linear covariate were slightly better supported than the null model that
162 excluded brood size for males (ΔAIC_c :-0.7) and much more strongly supported for females (ΔAIC_c :-11.1). Models that contained
163 brood size as a continuous variable were better supported than models that contained brood size as a factor for males (ΔAIC_c :+3.6)
164 and females (ΔAIC_c :+7.1; Table S2). Male and female feeding rates increased with brood size (Fig S6). Feeding rates varied with
165 social status, with females feeding more at secondary polygynous than monogamous and primary nests, in contrast males fed less at
166 secondary polygynous nests (Fig S7).



167
 168 Figure S5. Relationships between male and female feeding rates and time of season (first egg
 169 date; a, b) and nestling age (c, d). Points denote individual observation sessions and lines
 170 denote linear regressions. Time of season is in Julian dates, with 1 representing January 1. β
 171 are the estimates from the null model and BS (as a continuous covariate) \pm SE. Statistics are in
 172 Appendix S6.

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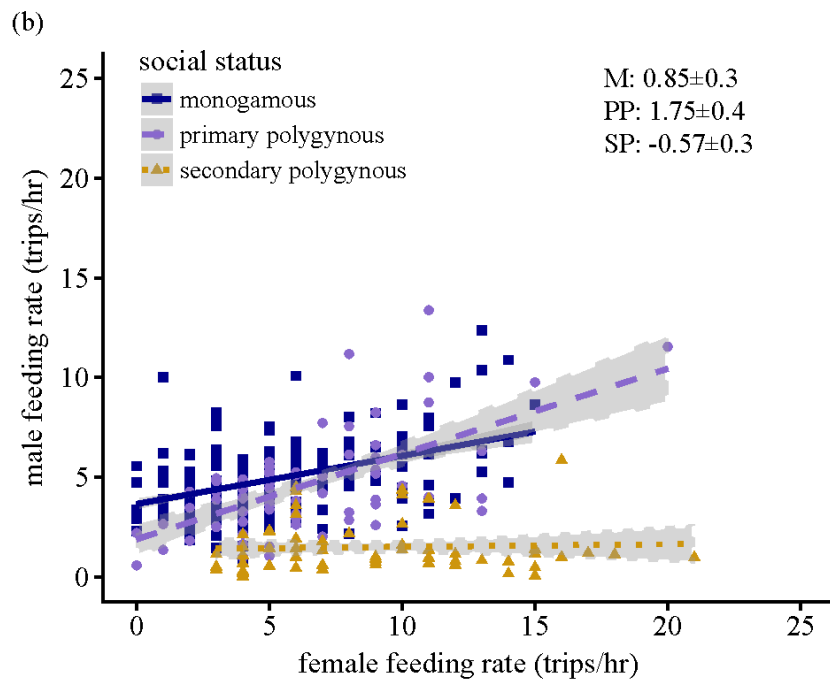
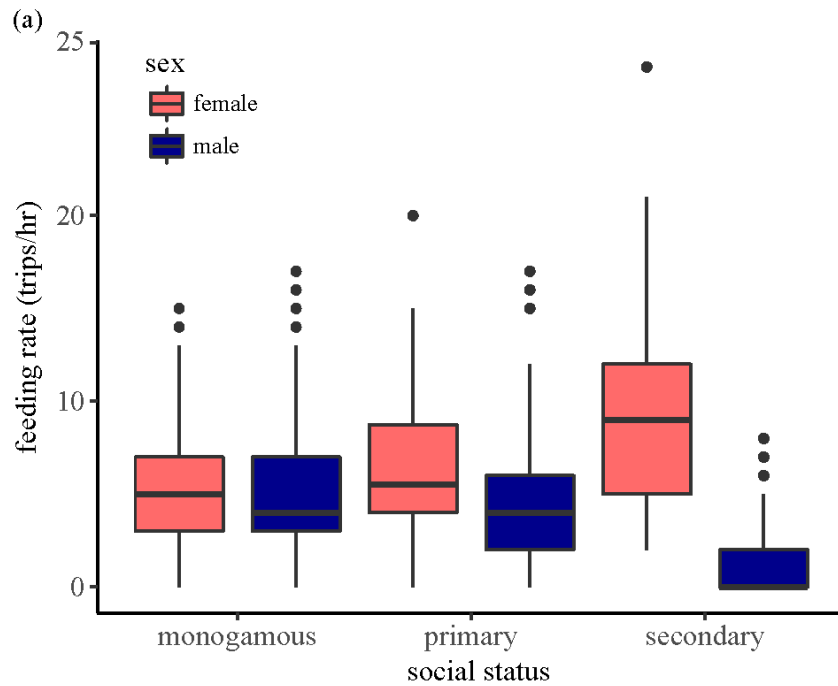
174
 175 Figure S6. Relationships between female (a) and male (b) feeding rates and brood size. Points
 176 denote individual observation sessions and lines denote linear regressions. β are the estimates
 177 \pm SE from the null model and BS (as a continuous variable). $\beta_{1/2BS}$ indicates the β estimate for a

178 null model and $\frac{1}{2}$ BS. Slopes of $\frac{1}{2}$ BS were included as they can be compared to those from

179 TAV.

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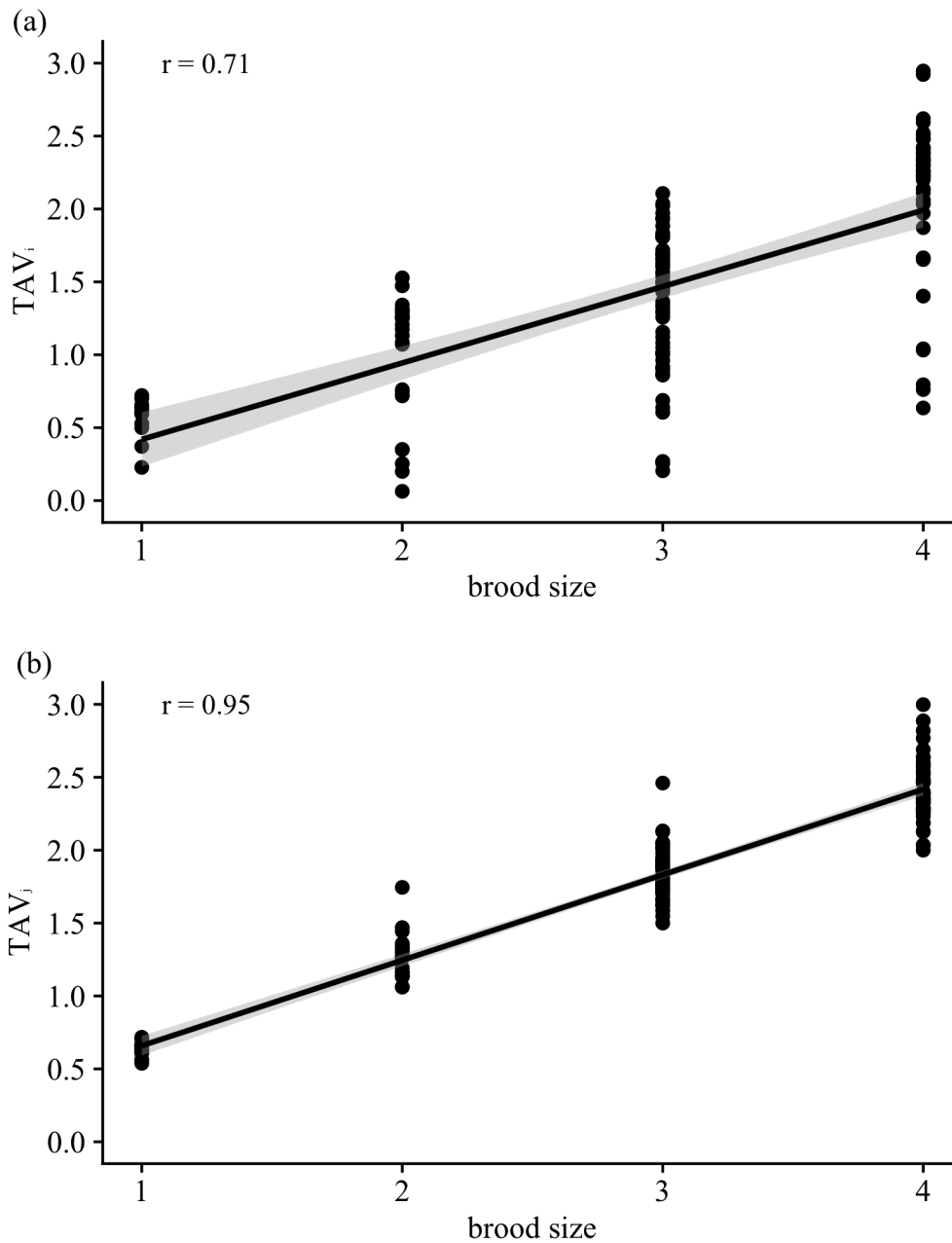
184 Figure S7. (a) Female and male feeding rates across 'monogamous', 'primary polygynous' and

185 'secondary polygynous' nests. Boxplots represent the median, upper and lower quartiles, and

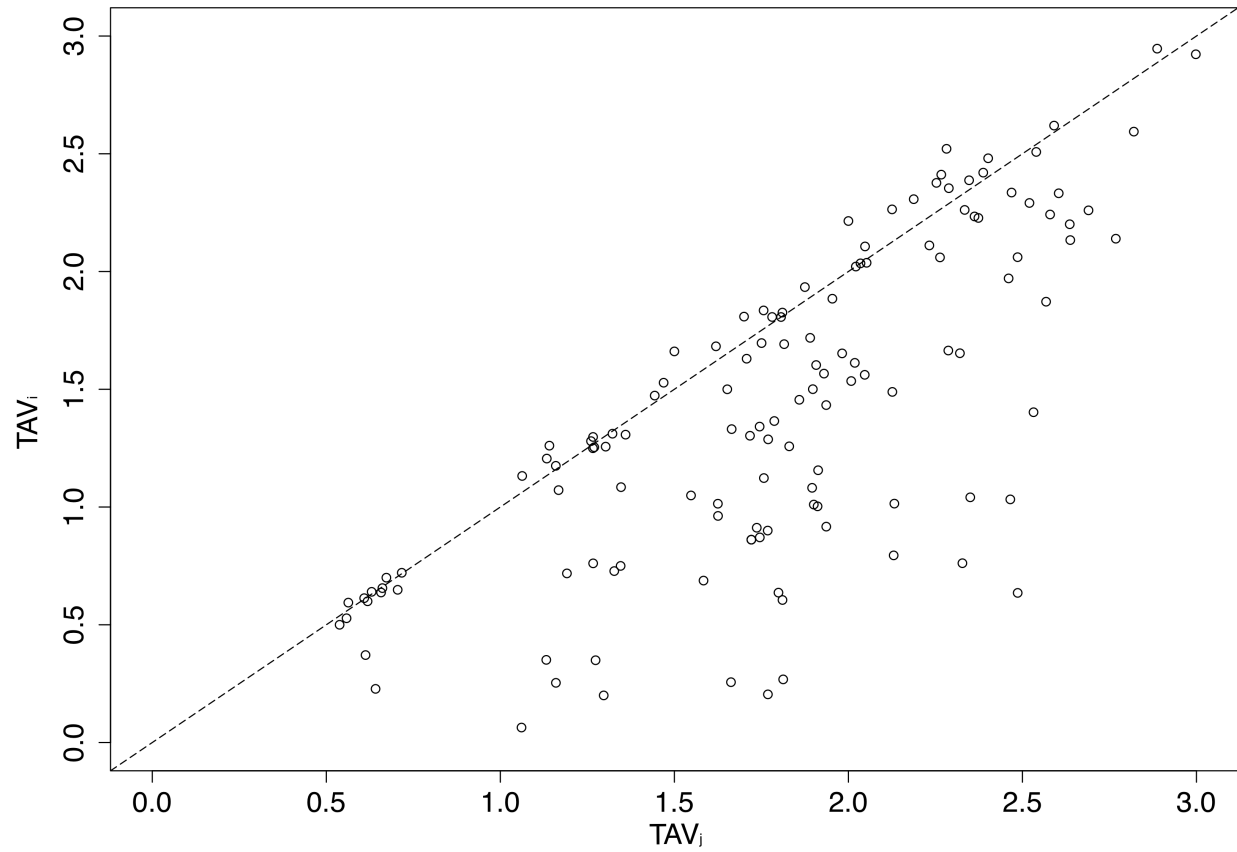
186 minimum and maximum values, with outliers depicted by dots. (b) Relationship between male

187 and female feeding rates across nests of different social status. Social statuses are

188 monogamous (M), primary polygynous (PP), and secondary polygynous (SP). Points represent
189 individual observation sessions, across monogamous (squares, solid line), primary polygynous
190 (circles, dashed line) and secondary polygynous nests (triangles, dotted line). Lines are linear
191 predictions for each social status, and grey-shaded areas are confidence intervals around the
192 line. Numbers on plots represent estimates \pm standard errors from the null model and BS (as a
193 continuous variable) for female feeding rates at monogamous, primary and secondary
194 polygynous nests.
195



198
199 Figure S8. Male (a) and female (b) total allelic values (TAV_i and TAV_j) of a focal brood in relation
200 to brood size. Points denote broods (total N=138), and lines denote linear regressions. r
201 indicates the Pearson correlation coefficient.



203

204 Figure S9. Total allelic values of a focal brood for males (TAV_i) and females (TAV_j) within a pair.

205 Points denote broods (total $N=138$) and the dashed line indicates equal TAV values for each pair

206 member. See [8] for more detailed consideration of this relationship.

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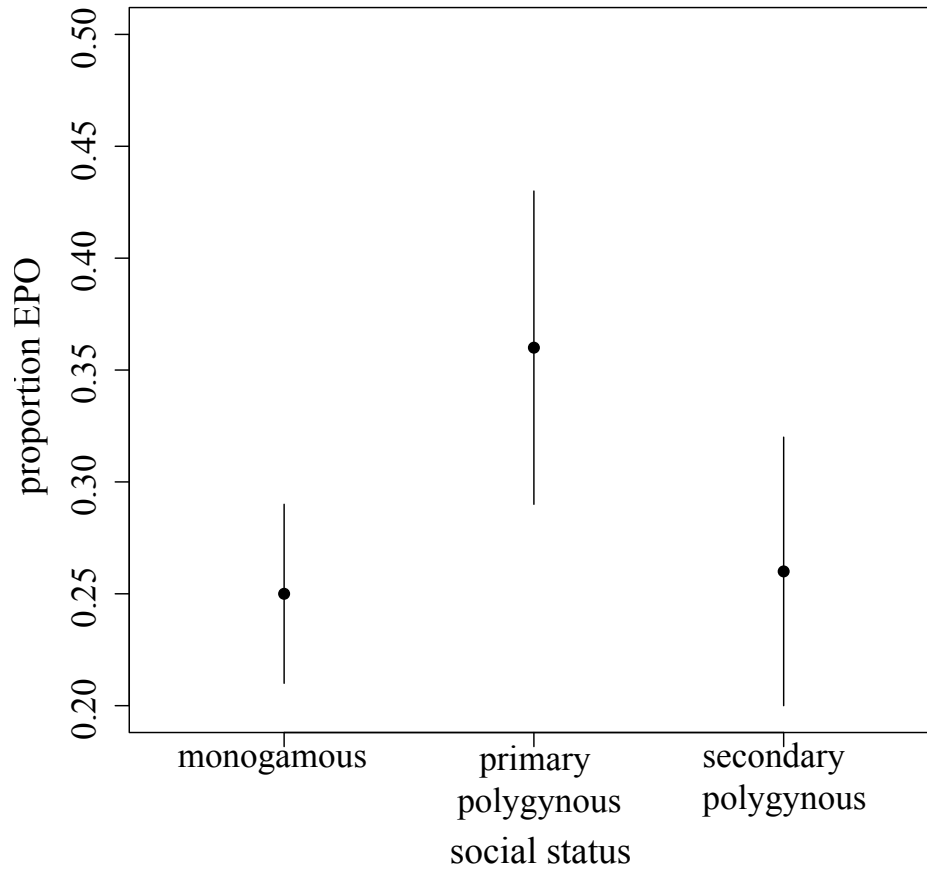
Appendix S5: Relationships between P_{EPO} and other variables

209 Traditionally, most studies considering socially monogamous systems with extra-pair paternity
210 use the proportion of a brood that comprises extra-pair offspring (P_{EPO}) as a metric to quantify a
211 male's relatedness to a brood. Instead, we define "lost allelic value" (LAV) as a more appropriate
212 metric in systems with reproductive interactions among relatives (Appendix S1). However, to
213 facilitate comparison with existing studies, we also assessed relationships among P_{EPO} , feeding
214 rates, social status, and TAV.

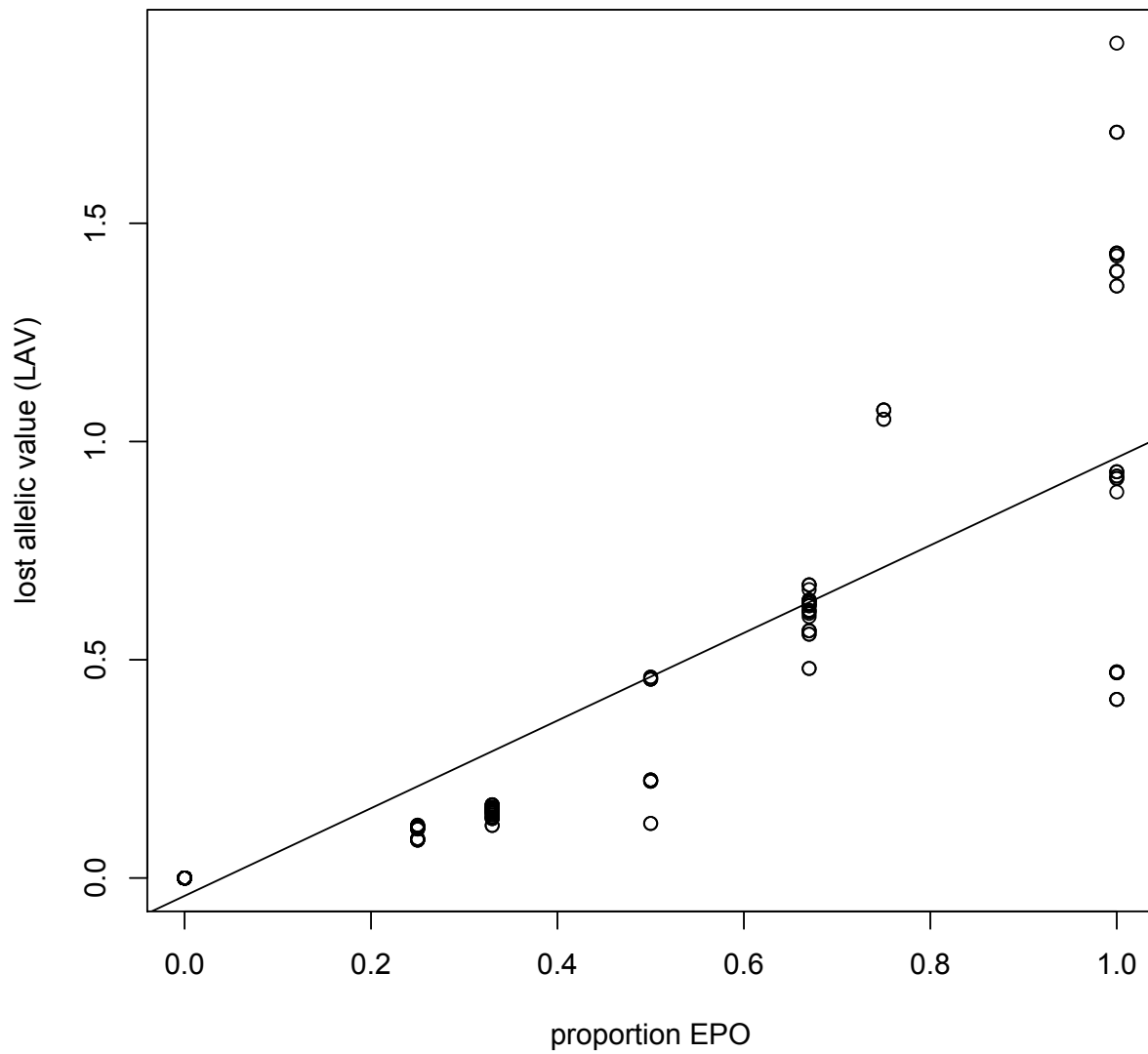
215 P_{EPO} varied with social status (Fig S10). P_{EPO} was of course strongly positively correlated
216 with LAV ($r_p=0.89$), but not all values of P_{EPO} and LAV aligned (Fig S11). P_{EPO} was not correlated
217 with TAV_j (i.e., female TAV, $r_p=-0.14$) but was negatively correlated with TAV_i (i.e., male TAV,
218 $r_p=-0.62$). Models explaining variation in feeding rates that included P_{EPO} were similarly
219 supported as the null model that also included BS (as a continuous variable) for males
220 ($\Delta AIC_c=+0.4$) but less well supported for females ($\Delta AIC_c=+1.8$); feeding rate decreased with
221 increasing P_{EPO} in males but not females (Fig S12). Models that additionally included P_{EPO} by
222 social status interactions were similarly well supported as the null model for males ($\Delta AIC_c=+0.4$)
223 and less supported for females ($\Delta AIC_c=+2.3$).

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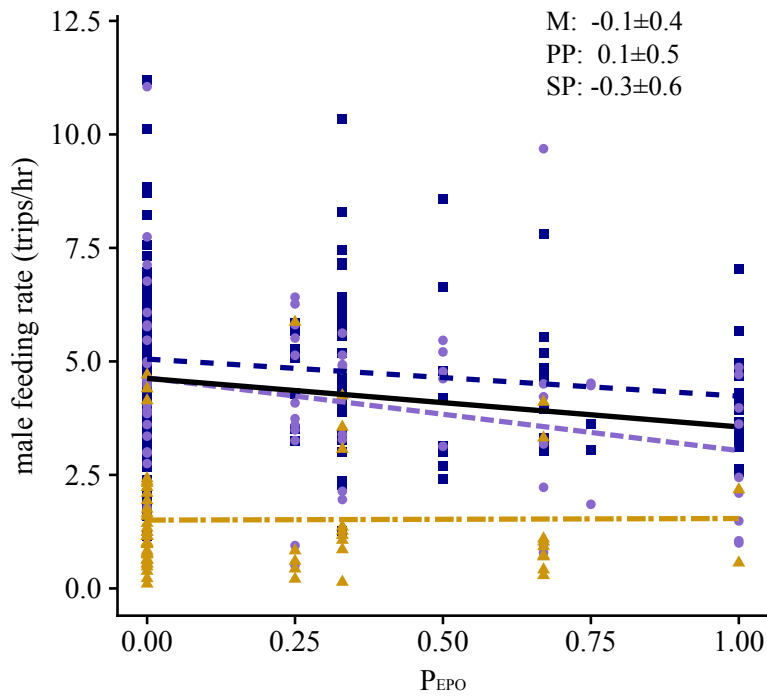
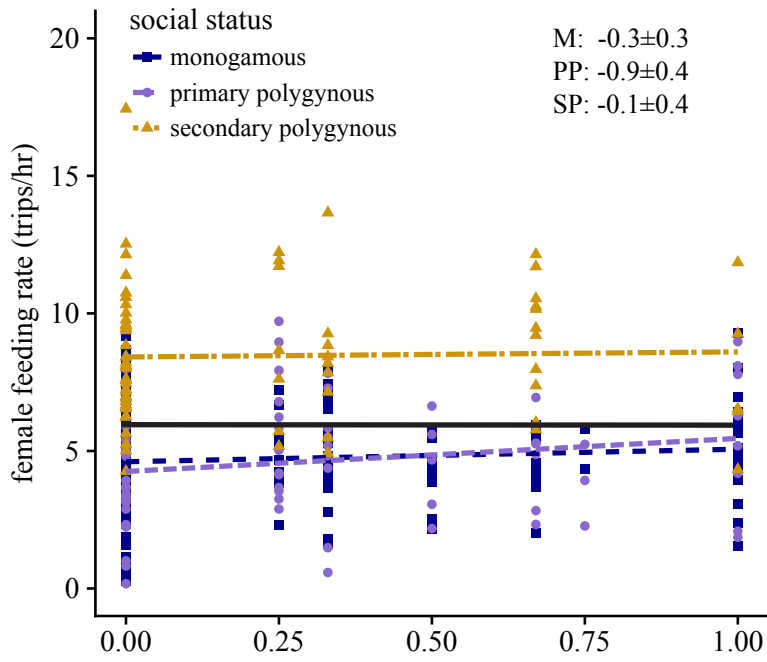


228
229 Figure S10. The relationship between the proportion of extra-pair offspring (P_{EPO}) in a brood and
230 social status, defined as monogamous (one female per male territory); primary polygynous (two
231 females per male territory but the first nest to hatch); secondary polygynous (two females per
232 male territory but the second or third nest to hatch). Points indicate the mean across observed
233 broods, and bars indicate the 95% CIs.
234
235
236



238

239 Figure S11. Relationship between lost allelic value (LAV) and the proportion of extra-pair
 240 offspring (P_{EPO}) in a brood. Points denote broods and the line denotes the linear regression.



241
 242 Figure S12. Relationships between (a) female and (b) male song sparrow parental feeding rates
 243 (trips/hr) and the proportion of EPO in the brood (P_{EPO}). Colours indicate nest social status
 244 (monogamous: blue; primary polygynous: purple; secondary polygynous: yellow). Points

245 represent observation sessions. Lines show predicted regression of feedings rate on P_{EPO}
246 overall (black), and across each social status. Numbers are the estimates \pm SE from the P_{EPO} by
247 social status interaction model, where “M”, “PP” and “SP” are monogamous, primary and
248 secondary polygynous nests, respectively. Y-axes are on different scales for males and females.
249

250 **Appendix S6: Supplementary results**

251 Table S1: Null model variables and results from the null model.

252

253 Table S2: Results from sets of models that contain additive or interactive effects of total allelic
254 value (TAV), TAV standardized within brood size (TAV_z) and brood size (BS) on male and
255 female feeding rates (trips/hr).

256

257 Table S3: Results from each models examining the effects of lost allelic value (LAV), the
258 proportion of extra-pair offspring in a brood (P_{EPO}), kinship (k_{ij}), male and female coefficients of
259 inbreeding (f_i and f_j) in comparison to the null model.

260

261 **References**

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