Reproductive individuality of clonal fish raised in identical environments and its link

to early-life behavioural individuality

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ABSTRACT

Genetic and environmental differences are by far the most studied drivers underlying

phenotypic variation. However, a growing number of studies finds among-individual

variation that is unexplained by genes or environment. Up to now, it remains an open

question whether such seemingly stochastic variation has fitness consequences. To address

this question, we performed a tightly controlled long-term life-history experiment with

naturally clonal fish (*Poecilia formosa*) separated directly after birth into identical

environments. Maintaining highly standardized conditions for 280 days, we first recorded

individuals for 10 hours per day over the first 28 days of their lives, characterizing entire

early-life behavioural profiles. We then measured the complete reproductive profiles of

these individuals over an average of 4.5 successive broods per individual, quantifying in

total 2522 offspring from 152 broods. We find that (i) individuals differ consistently in the

size of offspring and broods produced over consecutive broods – despite being genetically

identical and being raised in identical environments. (ii) These differences are observed

even when controlling for trade-offs between brood size, offspring size and reproductive

onset, indicating that individuals differ in life-history productivity. (iii) We also find strong

early-life behavioural individuality in both activity and feeding pattern, with among-

individual differences in feeding being predictive of growth, and consequently

reproduction: individuals that consistently spend more time feeding become larger and

larger individuals consistently produce larger offspring. Our findings provide experimental

evidence that processes unexplained by genetic and environmental differences translate

into predictable differences in life-history measures and ultimately reproductive fitness.

SIGNIFICANCE STATEMENT

According to a long-standing paradigm, genetic and environmental differences are the key

drivers underlying variation. More recently, however, this paradigm has been

experimentally challenged, finding that substantial anatomical, behavioural and

neurobiological among-individual variation emerges in the absence of genetic and

environmental differences. But does such variation matter? Here, we show that genetically

identical individuals reared in identical environments develop substantial differences in

activity and feeding behavior, that individuality in feeding behavior then translates into

growth differences, and that ultimately these growth differences affect aspects of the

phenotype that probably matter most for fitness: brood size, offspring size and life-history

productivity.

INTRODUCTION

Phenotypic differences between individuals from the same species abound throughout the

animal kingdom (Bell et al., 2009; Laskowski et al., 2022; Sih et al., 2004), with substantial

consequences for fitness, ecology and evolution (Bolnick et al., 2011; Carere & Gherardi,

2013; Ingley & Johnson, 2014; Jolles et al., 2020; Wolf & Weissing, 2012). It is commonly

thought that such individuality (if not minor and inconsequential 'noise' or 'idiosyncrasies') is

primarily caused by genetic and/or experiential (i.e. environmental) differences. More

recently, however, this long-standing paradigm has been experimentally challenged, with

accumulating evidence that even genetically identical individuals raised individually and in

identical (i.e. highly standardized) environments develop substantial phenotypic differences

(Gärtner, 1990; Honegger & de Bivort, 2018; Werkhoven et al., 2021): isogenic fruit flies

reared under identical conditions, for example, differ in locomotor handedness and wing-

folding, phototaxis, and object-fixated locomotion (Buchanan et al., 2015; Kain et al., 2012;

Linneweber et al., 2020); naturally clonal fish reared under identical conditions develop

repeatable differences in activity levels, that are already present from the first day of life

(Bierbach et al., 2017; Laskowski et al., 2022) (see Freund et al., 2013; Schuett et al., 2011,

for related fingings in genetically identical mice and clonal pea aphids).

Such findings are important as they demonstrate that genetic and environmental

differences are not the only potent source of variation between individuals, suggesting that

factors like pre-birth processes (including epigenetics), development *per se* and/or minor

experiential differences may represent other key drivers of phenotypic differences (Ehlman

et al., 2022; Hiesinger & Hassan, 2018; Takagi & Benton, 2020; Vogt et al., 2008). Up to

now, however, all recent studies on the emergence of variation in the absence of genetic

and environmental differences have focused on characterizing emergent behavioural

differences (and their neurobiological underpinnings), but it remains an open question

whether or to what extent these differences really matter.

One of the most direct ways to answer this question is to investigate whether phenotypic

differences that emerge under genetic and environmental standardization extend to those

aspects of the phenotype that directly affect fitness. The goal of the present study is to do

exactly this. We performed an experimental study with a live-bearing, naturally clonal

freshwater fish, the Amazon molly, *Poecilia formosa*. Directly after birth, we separated

genetically identical individuals ($N = 34$) into identical environments and reared them under

highly standardized conditions for 280 days (approx. 10 months). We utilized high-

resolution automated long-term tracking of activity and feeding patterns to characterize

their early-life behavioural profiles over the first 28 days of their lives (daily recordings for 10

hours at 0.2 s resolution, amounting to a total of 9,520 recording hours and 171.4 million

data points) (Ehlman et al., 2023). We then characterized reproductive profiles; recording

the onset of reproduction, the size of each brood produced (i.e. the number of offspring

per brood; in total, $N = 152$ broods), and the size of all offspring produced ($N = 2522$ total

offspring), thereby observing 4.5 ± 1.1 broods (mean ± SD) per female (gestation takes

approx. 30 days (Farr & Travis, 1986; Snelson et al., 1986). Individual body size was

measured weekly.

We focus on three key research questions. First, do genetically identical individuals

separated at birth into identical environments develop significant between-individual

differences in reproductive traits, i.e. repeatable differences in offspring- or brood size?

Second, are between-individual differences in reproductive traits, if present, indicative of

differences in (i) life-history productivity, i.e. the ability to produce new biomass

(Adriaenssens & Johnsson, 2009; Biro & Stamps, 2008) and/or (ii) how individuals balance

the trade-off between brood size vs. offspring size (Charnov et al., 1995; Gomes-Jr &

Monteiro, 2007; Lim et al., 2014; Riesch et al., 2012)? Third, are reproductive differences, if

present, related to early-life behavioural differences? Such a link could be possible via

growth, where behaviour (in particular feeding behavior) could be linked to growth and

growth, in turn, to reproductive output (Furness et al., 2021; Gomes-Jr & Monteiro, 2007;

Reznick et al., 1996). As an underlying assumption, and as shown previously (Bierbach et al.,

2017; Laskowski et al., 2022), we expected repeatable early-life behavioural variation.

Whenever appropriate, we focus on repeatability as a key parameter to quantify and test for

individuality (e.g. Bell et al., 2009; Biro & Stamps, 2015; Dingemanse & Dochtermann,

2013).

RESULTS

Repeatable differences in early-life behaviour

We find that our genetically identical individuals separated into identical environments on

the first day of life, exhibit strong behavioural individuality during the first four weeks of life,

both in activity (R = 0.371, 95% CI = [0.329, 0.413]) and feeding behaviour (R = 0.183, 95%

CI = [0.145, 0.224]). These repeatable differences even increase when controlling for within-

individual variation caused by individuals growing and becoming older during our

observations (adjusted R for activity = 0.571, 95% CI = [0.532, 0.621]; adjusted R for

feeding = 0.238, 95% CI = [0.194, 0.285]). Daily activity and feeding behaviour are

negatively correlated (estimate = -9.134, CI [-10.550 – -7.719] p-value < 0.0001, R^2 = 0.164,

Tab. 1 in **Suppl. 2**).

Repeatable differences in offspring size, brood size and life-history productivity

We find consistent among-individual differences in both the average size of offspring (**Fig.**

1a, R = 0.396, 95% CI [0.308, 0.484]) and the number of offspring produced (**Fig. 1b**, R =

0.177, 95% CI = [0.117, 0.238]) over consecutive broods. Interestingly, the trade-off

between brood size and offspring size explains only little of the variation observed (estimate

= -0.013, CI [-0.018, 0.007], p-value < 0.001, partial R^2 = 0.115) (**Fig. 1c**, **Tab. 2** in **Suppl. 2**).

And even when controlling for this trade-off, among-individual differences remain: given

the same brood size, onset of reproduction, and size at parturition, some individuals

consistently produce larger offspring than others (adjusted R for offspring size = 0.134, 95%

CI = [0.085, 0.192]), and similarly, while controlling for onset of reproduction, size at

parturition, and offspring size, some individuals consistently produce larger broods than

others (adjusted R for brood size = 0.077, 95% CI = [0.050, 0.114]). These findings strongly

suggest that – next to developing repeatable among-individual differences in offspring size

and brood size – our genetically identical individuals, raised individually in highly

standardized environments, also differ in life-history productivity.

We stress that both offspring- and brood size are the most direct fitness components one

can measure, and seemingly small - but repeatable - differences in these traits may have

profound long-term consequences. This can be seen, for example, when considering the

cumulative number of offspring produced, where even relatively minor individual

differences in brood size, when expressed consistently, result in large among-individual

differences in total reproductive output (**Fig. 1d**).

Link between feeding behaviour and offspring size, mediated by growth

Despite no direct link between our two behavioural measures, activity and feeding, and our

three reproductive traits, i.e. offspring size (**Fig. 2 a-b**), brood size (**Fig. 2 c-d**), and onset of

reproduction (**Fig. 2 e-f**) (**Tab. 3** in **Suppl. 2**), we find an indirect link between one of our

behavioural traits and reproduction: fish that spend more time feeding grow to a larger size

(estimate = 0.007, CI [0.003, 0.012], p-value = 0.002, partial R^2 = 0.266; **Fig. 3b, Fig. 3d**),

and larger fish, in turn, produce larger offspring (**Fig. 3c**; estimate = 0.619, CI [0.299, 0.939],

p-value < 0.001, partial R^2 = 0.129). Larger fish also start reproducing later (estimate =

55.537, CI [25.189, 85.886], p-value = 0.001, partial R^2 = 0.310; **Fig. 3f**), but there is no

effect of reproductive onset on brood size (**Fig. 3e**) (**Tab. 5** in **Suppl. 2**).

In contrast to feeding behaviour, we find no indirect link between activity and reproduction

(**Fig. 3a, Tab. 3** and **Tab. 5** in **Suppl. 2**), nor do we find an effect of our behavioural traits on

the growth rate (predicted from fit growth curves; see Methods) (**Tab. 4** in **Suppl. 2**). We

note that growth rate and onset of reproduction are negatively correlated: fish that grow

faster start reproducing later (estimate = 980.383, CI [235.137, 1725.629], p-value = 0.012,

partial R^2 = 0.188), but there is no effect of growth rate on brood- and offspring size (**Tab. 5**

in **Suppl. 2**).

DISCUSSION

Employing an experimental 'twin study' approach, we find that genetically identical

individuals, raised separately and in highly standardized environments, develop repeatable

differences in key reproductive characteristics. In particular, when considering consecutive

broods, individuals differ consistently in how many offspring they produce and in how large

these offspring are. While we find evidence for a weak trade-off between offspring size and

number, repeatable among-individual differences are maintained even when controlling for

this tradeoff, as well as for body size and onset of reproduction, providing clear evidence

that individuals differ in life-history productivity. While previous studies have provided firm

evidence that substantial among-individual variation in anatomical-, behavioural- and

neurobiological traits can emerge even in the absence of genetic and environmental

differences (Bierbach et al., 2017; Buchanan et al., 2015; Honegger & de Bivort, 2018), the

current study builds on and substantially extends these studies by demonstrating that the

emerging variation extends to aspects of the phenotype that are directly associated with

fitness.

Interestingly, we find no direct link between early-life behavioural differences and

differences in reproductive traits. It is conceivable, that a direct link between early-life

behavioural and later-in-life reproductive traits may only become apparent in non-benign

and/or more complex environments. To give a concrete example, in our experimental set-

up, there are only minimal differential costs/benefits associated with behavioural

phenotypes: fish were presented with a stationary food resource, located at a standardized

position in tanks with no additional structures. There was no need to search for food and no

cost associated with exploiting a stationary food resource. In contrast, in a more naturalistic

context, activity might be linked to the ability to find food and the exploitation of a

stationary food resource can be risky (Brown, 1992; Verdolin, 2006). That said, it will be

interesting to see whether future studies, taking the above and other factors into account,

will be able to establish a link between early-life behavioural individuality and reproduction.

While we do not find a direct link between reproduction and early-life behaviour, we find

the size of offspring produced to be linked to early-life feeding behavior: some individuals

feed consistently more than others, individuals that feed more grow to a larger predicted

final size, and individuals with a larger final size have larger offspring (but not larger broods).

The allocation of resources into increasing offspring size, rather than offspring number, may

represent an adaptation to environments in which larger offspring have higher fitness, e.g.,

resource limitation, competition, or high juvenile mortality (cannibalism or size-dependent

predation) (reviewed in Riesch et al., 2012). All of the above factors may apply to our

experimental design: during the reproduction period, individuals were fed a standardized

amount of food that they shared with a *P. mexicana* male, which we kept in the female's

tank as a sperm donor, potentially causing both resource limitation and competition.

Furthermore, offspring were removed from the females' tanks directly after parturition,

which decreased the risk of cannibalism but may have caused perceived predation from the

female's perspective.

It is intriguing to see that systematic (i.e. repeatable) among-individual differences in key

fitness components can emerge even in the absence of genetic and environmental

differences. Future work may compare the observed differences in repeatedly expressed

reproductive traits to other iteroparous species, taking genetic and/or environmental

variation into account, which will give us a better understanding of the magnitude of the

observed differences. Furthermore, we will need to evaluate both the causes and

consequences of the observed differences. First, all individuals in our study were exposed

to one (very specific) environment, and it will be important to investigate whether the

observed differences can also be detected in other environments. It will be particularly

informative to include predation risk, a key determinant of fitness and major factor shaping

life-history trade-offs (Lima & Dill, 1990; Lind & Cresswell, 2005; Reznick & Endler, 1982;

Reznick et al., 1996; Walsh & Reznick, 2009), and to investigate, for example, if high-

productivity individuals are differently affected by predators than low-productivity

individuals. Second, in order to evaluate the consequences of the observed differences in

brood- and offspring size, it will be important to investigate whether and to what extent

these differences are heritable. Are offspring from mothers with large/small offspring (or

large/small brood size) more likely to produce large/small offspring (large/small brood size)

themselves? While all our individuals are genetically identical, such inheritance is still

conceivable, for example via epigenetic mechanisms (Bocock & Aagaard-Tillery, 2009;

Klosin & Lehner, 2016; Kovalchuk, 2012).

The study of between-individual variation is one of the central themes in ecology and

evolution. While such variation – if not minor and inconsequential "noise" – has traditionally

been thought to be caused by genetic and environmental differences, evidence is

accumulating that even in the absence of such differences, substantial among-individual

variation can emerge. Here, we show that such emergent among-individual variation

extends to aspects of the phenotype that directly affect fitness. Put differently, we find that

the among-individual variation that arises under highly standardized conditions reflects

more than just 'idiosyncrasies' or 'noise' – it really matters.

METHODS

Study species and holding conditions

Amazon mollies used here, were obtained from a stock kept at Humboldt-Universität zu

Berlin, (Berlin, Germany). Original stocks were housed in groups of approx. 20-50 fish under

standardized conditions: 50-100 liter tanks, 12:12h light:dark cycle, air temperature control

(approx. 24±1°C), weekly water changes. Twice a day, fish were fed with powder food (Sera

vipan baby). In the stock tanks, Amazon mollies were kept sympatrically with *P. mexicana*

males, allowing females to reproduce freely. Before the experiment, we separated potential

mothers (originating from the same ancestor) from the stock population in order for them to

give birth in individual tanks; this allowed us to track the mother ID (N = 3) of individuals

used in this experiment.

Early-life behaviour

Individuals were transferred to separate, identical observation tanks (**Fig. 1** in **Suppl. 1**) on

the day they were born. Our behavioural observations started the next day, i.e. the first full

day of their life. We recorded individuals daily over the first 28 days of their life. Recordings

were tracked using the software Biotracker (Mönck et al., 2018), and the movement data

obtained from Biotracker (csv-files with xy-coordinates over time) were processed

(visualization, calculation of metrics) with a costume repository we developed for this

purpose (Stärk et al., 2022) (see **Suppl. 1** for further recording and tracking details). We

assessed individual activity as average daily swimming speed (cm/sec). Once a day,

individuals were fed with a stationary food resource, a 'food patch', that was positioned at a

standardized location in the tank for 2 hours. We assessed the time spent feeding as the

amount of time (min), individuals spent in immediate proximity to the food patch (**Suppl. 1**).

Food patches were prepared every 2 to 3 days using Sera vipan baby powder food and

agar (protocol is provided in **Suppl. 1**).

Reproductive profiles

As the Amazon molly is a gynogenetic species, i.e. sperm from one of the parental species

(*P. mexicana*, *P. latipinna*) is needed to trigger embryogenesis (but the male's DNA is not

incorporated into the offspring's genome (Lamatsch et al., 2005; Schlupp, 2005)), we

ensured that females had access to various *P. mexicana* males throughout the reproductive

phase.

We initiated the reproduction phase of the experiment directly after our early-life

behavioural observations. We transferred test individuals to individual breeding tanks (11

liter, flow-through water system, visual separation between individual tanks) where they

remained until the end of the experiment (total observation time per individual is 280 days,

approx. 10 months). Breeding tanks were equipped with one *P. mexicana* male as sperm

donor, a small plastic pipe (length = 4 cm, diameter = 2 cm), and 'sera biofibres' (a loose

bundle of green plastic fibers, structurally comparable to thread algae) as a refuge. Females

were swapped between breeding tanks once a week (i.e. males remained in the tank) in a

randomized manner to control for a potential tank or male effect. Over the course of the

experiment, females had access to approx. 20 different males. Feeding was standardized:

twice a day for 5 days a week, fish received 1/64 tsp (up to the age of 70 days) or 1/32 tsp

(from the age of 70 to 280 days) of powder food.

Breeding tanks were checked for offspring daily. Once a female gave birth to a brood, all

offspring were photographed and counted. Offspring standard length (i.e. the length from

the tip of the snout to the end of the caudal peduncle) was later measured from the photos

using ImageJ (Schneider et al., 2012). In total, we recorded 152 broods and measured the

size of 2522 offspring from 144 broods (no measurements for 8 broods). Individuals

produced on average 4.5 ± 1.1 broods (mean ± SD). We excluded all individuals from our

analyses with no or partial reproductive data (N = 11 females).

Long-term growth

Standard lengths of focal individuals were measured from photos once a week, using

ImageJ (Schneider et al., 2012) (34 ± 1 measurements per individual, mean ± SD). We fit

individual growth curves using the von Bertalanffy growth model (von Bertalanffy, 1938), a

logistic function commonly used to model fish growth. Estimated parameters in this

function are the theoretical age when size is zero (t_0), the growth coefficient (K), and the

maximum predicted (i.e. asymptotic) size (L_{inf}). For all analyses, we used predicted sizes

estimated using individual growth curves rather than raw measurements and characterized

individual growth via K and L_{inf} obtained from those individual growth curves.

Statistical analysis

General details

Data were analyzed in R version 4.2.1 (R Core Team, 2022). Most parsimonious LMs (linear

models) and LMMs (Linear mixed-effect models; models built using the lme4-package;

Bates et al., 2015) were fit via stepwise-backward removal of non-significant predictors.

Model assumptions were visually assured using residual- and q-q plots. In the main text, we

report estimates and p-values for significant predictors only. The effects of covariates are

presented in **Suppl. 2**. Most importantly, individual size at parturition is related to both the

number and size of offspring produced (model summaries in **Tab. 3** in **Suppl. 2**, figure in

Suppl. 3); and we found mother ID (*N* = 3) to be related to individual growth and

reproductive output (**Suppl. 2**). We therefore included mother ID as a covariate in all

models (LMs and LMMs), and individual size at parturition wherever appropriate. In all

LMMs, individual ID was included as a random term. Individual size on the first day of life

did not affect early-life behavior (**Tab. 1** in **Suppl. 4**), growth (**Tab. 21** in **Suppl. 4**), or

reproductive output (**Tab. 31** in **Suppl. 4**); and was therefore not considered during

analyses. For significant predictors, we calculated partial R^2 using the *sensemakr-* and

r2glmm-package (Cinelli et al., 2021; Jaeger, 2017) (for LMs and LMMs, respectively).

Complete model summaries of all full (containing all predictors) and final models

(containing significant predictors only) are provided in **Suppl. 2**. Model summary tables

(including marginal and conditional R^2 following Nakagawa et al., 2017) were built using the

package *sjPlot* (Lüdecke, 2022).

Repeatabilities

We estimated repeatabilities with 95% CIs (confidence intervals) in two ways: first by

building LMMs with only the target variable as response and female ID as random term, but

no predictors (i.e. normal repeatability), and then by adding fixed effects to the model,

allowing us to estimate the amount of variation caused by consistent between-individual

differences while controlling for variation explained by other factors (i.e. adjusted

repeatability). The significance of consistent among-individual differences was derived from

the 95% CI being distinctly different to 0 (95% CI based on 1000 model simulations) (Hertel

et al., 2020).

To test for 'reproductive individuality', we calculated normal repeatabilities in the size of

broods ($N = 152$ broods) and the size of offspring ($N = 144$ broods, average offspring size

per brood) over all broods produced. To test for between-individual differences in

productivity, we adjusted repeatabilities of both brood- and offspring size for onset, female

size at parturition, and mother ID. For the model on brood size, we additionally included

offspring size as predictor and vice versa (i.e. we accounted for brood size, offspring size,

and onset trade-offs).

To test for early-life behavioural individuality, we calculated normal repeatabilites for activity

(N = 941 observations of 34 individuals) and the time spent feeding (LMM with N = 932

observations of 34 individuals), observed daily over the first 28 days of life. We also

adjusted repeatabilities for size and age (week 1-4, categorical variable), i.e. we accounted

for variation that was caused by individuals growing and aging over the observation period.

We further included a size-age interaction term as predictor (activity was differently affected

by size, depending on age). For repeatability calculations, activity was *log*-transformed for

normality. We tested if early-life activity (response) and feeding (predictor) are correlated

(LMM N = 931 observations of 34 individuals).

Link between early-life behaviour and reproduction

To test for a behaviour-reproduction link, we built three models with either brood size

(LMM with N = 152 broods), offspring size (LMM with N = 144 broods), or reproductive

onset (LM with N = 34 individuals) as response. In all models, activity and feeding (averaged

over 28 days) were modeled as predictors.

To test for the link between behaviour and growth, we fit one model on each L_{inf} (LM with N

= 34 individuals) and K (LM with N = 34 individuals), with activity and feeding as predictors

(average behaviour over 28 days). When having K as the response, we additionally included

L_{inf} as a covariate to control for the effect L_{inf} has on K; i.e. bigger fish grow slower to their

final size L_{inf}, (LM with L_{inf} as response and K as well as mother ID as predictors: intercept [CI]

= 6.09 [5.8, 6.4]; estimate of K [CI] = -16.9 [-20.0, -13.8], R^2 = 0.89).

To test for the link between growth and reproduction, we fit a model on each brood size

(LMM with *N* = 152 broods), offspring size (LMM with *N* = 144 broods), and onset (LM with

N = 34 individuals); including K and L_{inf} as predictors and female age at parturition (not in

the onset-model) as a covariate.

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Fig. 1 (a-b) Individuals differ consistently in the size- and number of offspring produced over successive broods; boxplots sorted by median offspring size. (c) The brood size vs. offspring size trade-off explains only very little of the variation; shown are individual averages in brood/offspring size ± standard deviation. (d) Differences in reproductive productivity have profound long-term consequences because reproductive output accumulates over time; shown is the cumulative number of offspring produced by each individual over the first 280 days of life.

550 **Fig. 2** We find no effect of early-life behaviour (activity and feeding) on offspring size (a-b),

551 brood size (c-d), or onset of reproduction. (e-f) Shown are individual averages (data points)

552 ± standard deviation (error bars); individuals are coloured differently.

554
Fig. 3 (a) There is no effect of early-life activity on the final predicted size, L_{inf}, but early-life
feeding behaviour and reproductive output are indirectly connected via growth: (b, d)
individuals that feed more grow to a larger size, and (c) larger fish produce larger offspring
(f). Larger fish also start reproducing later but (e) final size and brood size are not linked.
Shown are (b, d) regression lines (black) with 95% CIs, (d), estimates for individual von
Bertalanffy growth curves (lines) with raw data (points). (a-c, e) individual averages (points)
with standard deviation (error bars).

SUPPLEMENT 1

Behavioural observations

For our early-life behavioural observations, individual observation tanks (**Fig. 1**) were filmed

from above with a Basler acA5472 camera (5 frames per second). Activity was recorded over

the first 8 hours of each day, followed by a 2-hour feeding. In total, we collected 952

recordings of daily activity and feeding behaviour (34 test fish recorded over 28 days).

Recordings were tracked using the software Biotracker (Mönck et al., 2018). Quality of

tracks was assured via plotting each individual's movement data (i.e., xy-coordinates over

time) in 30 min chunks and visually inspecting the trajectory plots for errors.

To assess individual, daily activity, we used 941 recording days (mean ± SD recording

length: 471.7 ± 29.9 min; 11 days were removed from the data due to technical issues).

Individual activity was calculated from the xy-coordinates over time in steps of 0.2 sec as

the average distance moved (cm) in one second. To calculate how much time individuals

spent feeding, we processed feeding recordings of 932 days (mean ± SD recording length

= 120.2 ± 11.2 min; 20 recordings were removed due to technical issues). Individual time

spent feeding was calculated as the amount of time an individual spent in the 'feeding

zone', a 5 x 13 cm large zone surrounding the food patch. For the visualization of

movement data and the calculation of metrics (activity, time spent feeding) we a costume

repository we developed for this purpose (Stärk et al., 2022).

Fig. 1 One experimental unit with 2 observation tanks. Water level in the tanks: 7 cm. Tanks

were externally filtered. Food patches were present during the feeding time slots only.

There was no visual contact between observation tanks, but tanks were connected via a

flow-through water system (24 observation tanks split into 4 flow-through systems).

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Visualization

Food patch preparation

<u>Ingredients</u>

- 0.5g Agar (Bio Agar-Agar, Ruf)

- 100 ml tap water

- 14 g powder food (Sera vipan baby)

<u>Materials</u>

- One fine scale

- One 150 ml beaker

- One small pot

- One stove plate

- One pipette

- Food patch cups (max. volume = 2ml)

<u>Instructions</u>

1. Prepare clean and dry food patch forms.

2. Weigh the amount of agar needed in a 150 ml beaker.

3. Add 100 ml of water.

4. Fill the water-agar mixture into a small pot and cook for 2 min at medium heat.

5. Remove pot from stove and add powder food, mix thoroughly.

6. Let cool down for approx. 5 min at room temperature until agar starts binding.

7. Quickly fill the agar-food mixture into the cups using the pipette.

8. Let the food patches harden in the fridge for approx. 10 min without a lid.

9. Store food patches in a container with a lid (e.g., petri dishes) in the fridge until

further proceeding (can be stored for at least 4 days when stored at 4°C).

<u>Notes:</u>

The protocol can be modified regarding the amount of food or agar added. Adding more

agar will give the mixture a firmer texture. Using less agar is not advised. The amount of

agar used here is the least amount possible (resulting in a very soft texture) in order to allow

juvenile fish to feed on the food patches. The amount of food can be both decreased and

increased allowing for variations in food quality; food variations may require adjustments in

the amount of agar used.

SUPPLEMENT 2

Tab.1 Full (left) and final (right) models testing if early-life feeding behaviour and activity are

correlated.

Response	Predictors	Full model			Final model		
		Estimate	*CI*	*P-value*	*Estimate*	*CI*	*P-value*
Feeding [min]	Intercept	55.554	48.433 – 62.675	-	60.734	55.675 – 65.792	-
	Activity [cm/sec]	-9.222	-10.644 – -7.800	**<0.001**	-9.134	-10.550 – -7.719	**<0.001**
	Mother ID [m2]	3.103	-11.814 – 18.020	0.088	-	-	-
	Mother ID [m3]	10.495	0.907 – 20.084		-	-	-
	Random Effects						
	σ^2	721.68			721.69		
	τ_{00}	150.82 Test fish ID			165.52 Test fish ID		
	ICC	0.17			0.19		
	N	34 Test fish ID			34 Test fish ID		
	Observations	931			931		
	Marginal R^2 / Conditional R^2	0.174 / 0.317			0.164 / 0.320		

641   **Tab. 2** Full (left) and final (right) models testing for an offspring size vs. brood size trade-off.

		Full model			Final mode		
Response	*Predictors*	*Estimate*	*CI*	*P-value*	*Estimate*	*CI*	*P-value*
Offspring size (brood average, mm)	Intercept	5.083	4.238 – 5.927	-	4.466	3.827 – 5.104	-
	Brood size	-0.011	-0.018 – -0.005	<0.001	-0.013	-0.018 – -0.007	<0.001
	Onset [days]	-0.002	-0.006 – 0.002	0.335	-	-	-
	Size at parturition [cm]	0.919	0.730 – 1.108	<0.001	0.988	0.830 – 1.146	<0.001
	Mother ID [m2]	-0.038	-0.273 – 0.196	0.061	-	-	-
	Mother ID [m3]	-0.197	-0.359 – -0.035		-	-	-
	Random Effects						
	σ^2	0.10			0.10		
	τ_{00}	0.01 Test fish ID			0.01 Test fish ID		
	ICC	0.10			0.13		
	N	34 Test fish ID			34 Test fish ID		
	Observations	144			144		
	Marginal R^2 / Conditional R^2	0.580 / 0.623			0.545 / 0.602		

643   **Tab. 3** Full (left) and final (right) models testing if early-life behaviour (activity, feeding)

644   predicts reproduction (brood size, offspring size, onset).

Response	Predictors	Full model			Final model		
		Estimate	CI	P-value	Estimate	CI	P-value
Brood size	Intercept	-15.029	-35.583 – 5.524	-	-19898	-39.823 – 0.027	-
	Activity [cm/sec]	-2.317	-4.881 – 0.248	0.082	-	-	-
	Feeding [min]	-0.071	-0.207 – 0.066	0.312	-	-	-
	Size at parturition [cm]	8.002	3.307 – 12.697	0.001	7820	3.157 – 12.484	0.001
	Mother ID [m2]	6.108	0.048 – 12.169	<0.001	4324	-1.608 – 10.256	<0.001
	Mother ID [m3]	10.208	5.706 – 14.710		8444	4.353 – 12.535	
	Random Effects						
	σ^2	70.72			70.53		
	τ_{00}	7.54 Test fish ID			10.07 Test fish ID		
	ICC	0.10			0.12		
	N	34 Test fish ID			34 Test fish ID		
	Observations	152			152		
	Marginal R^2 / Conditional R^2	0.160 / 0.241			0.138 / 0.246		
Offspring size (brood average, mm)	Intercept	5.168	4.359 – 5.978	-	5.147	4.366 – 5.928	-
	Activity [cm/sec]	-0.047	-0.149 – 0.056	0.369	-	-	-
	Feeding [min]	0.002	-0.004 – 0.007	0.513	-	-	-
	Size at parturition [cm]	0.791	0.607 – 0.975	<0.001	0.804	0.622 – 0.987	<0.001
	Mother ID [m2]	-0.058	-0.305 – 0.190	0.018	-0.119	-0.356 – 0.118	<0.001
	Mother ID [m3]	-0.265	-0.446 – -0.084		-0.270	-0.434 – -0.107	
	Random Effects						
	σ^2	0.10			0.10		
	τ_{00}	0.01 Test fish ID			0.02 Test fish ID		
	ICC	0.12			0.14		
	N	34 Test fish ID			34 Test fish ID		
	Observations	144			144		
	Marginal R^2 / Conditional R^2	0.552 / 0.607			0.539 / 0.605		
Onset of reproduction [days]	Intercept	126.473	94.420 – 158.526	-	133.786	123.545 – 144.027	-
	Activity [cm/sec]	4.000	-6.139 – 14.138	0.426	-	-	-
	Feeding [min]	0.072	-0.458 – 0.602	0.784	-	-	-
	Mother ID [m2]	15.777	-9.037 – 40.590	0.004	19.964	-1.760 – 41.689	0.002
	Mother ID [m3]	-19.908	-35.944 – -3.872		-17.411	-31.434 – -3.387	
	Observations	34			34		
	R^2 / R^2 adjusted	0.341 / 0.250			0.326 / 0.282		

646 **Tab. 4** Full (left) and final (right) models testing for an effect of early-life behaviour on the

647 maximum predicted size (L_{inf}) and growth rate (K) of individuals.

Response	Predictors	Full model			Final model		
		Estimates	*CI*	*P-value*	*Estimates*	*CI*	*P-value*
L_{inf} [cm]	Intercept	4.465	4.159 – 4.771	-	4.375	4.141 – 4.608	-
	Activity [cm/sec]	-0.045	-0.141 – 0.052	0.354	-	-	-
	Feeding [min]	0.006	0.001 – 0.011	0.015	0.007	0.003 – 0.012	0.002
	Mother ID [m2]	0.144	-0.093 – 0.380	<0.001	0.098	-0.116 – 0.313	<0.001
	Mother ID [m3]	-0.349	-0.502 – -0.196		-0.378	-0.517 – -0.239	
	Observations	34			34		
	R^2 / R^2 adjusted	0.592 / 0.535			0.579 / 0.537		
K	Intercept	0.296	0.247 – 0.344	-	0.305	0.263 – 0.346	-
	Activity [cm/sec]	0.001	-0.001 – 0.004	0.326	-	-	-
	Feeding [min]	0.000	-0.000 – 0.000	0.963	-	-	-
	L_{inf} [cm]	-0.046	-0.056 – -0.035	<0.001	-0.047	-0.056 – -0.039	<0.001
	Mother ID [m2]	0.004	-0.003 – 0.010	<0.001	0.005	-0.001 – 0.011	<0.001
	Mother ID [m3]	-0.019	-0.024 – -0.013		-0.018	-0.023 – -0.014	
	Observations	34			34		
	R^2 / R^2 adjusted	0.814 / 0.781			0.807 / 0.788		

649   **Tab 5** Full (left) and final (right) models testing if von Bertalanffy growth parameters (the

650   growth rate K and maximum predicted size L_{inf}) predict reproduction (brood size, offspring

651   size, onset of reproduction).

Response	Predictors	Full model			Final model		
		Estimates	*CI*	*P-value*	*Estimates*	*CI*	*P-value*
Brood size	Intercept	43.171	-71.768 – 158.110	-	7.187	1.217 – 13.157	-
	L_{inf} [cm]	-4.576	-23.302 – 14.151	0.630	-	-	-
	K	-173.702	-530.501 – 183.096	0.338	-	-	-
	Age at parturition [weeks]	0.205	0.015 – 0.394	0.035	0.215	0.026 – 0.404	0.026
	Mother ID [m2]	5.630	-0.429 – 11.690	0.111	5.085	-0.828 – 10.999	0.011
	Mother ID [m3]	3.808	-4.004 – 11.620		5.875	2.167 – 9.583	
	Random Effects						
	σ^2	73.73			73.90		
	τ_{00}	8.36 Test fish ID			9.32 Test fish ID		
	ICC	0.10			0.11		
	N	34 Test fish ID			34 Test fish ID		
	Observations	152			152		
	Marginal R^2 / Conditional R^2	0.120 / 0.210			0.105 / 0.206		
Offspring size (brood average, mm)	Intercept	5.739	1.240 – 10.239	-	4.808	3.310 – 6.307	-
	L_{inf} [cm]	0.475	-0.257 – 1.206	0.170	0.619	0.299 – 0.939	<0.001
	K	-3.076	-17.062 – 10.909	0.638	-	-	-
	Age at parturition [weeks]	0.029	0.022 – 0.037	<0.001	0.030	0.022 – 0.037	<0.001
	Mother ID [m2]	-0.081	-0.318 – 0.155	0.026	-0.096	-0.320 – 0.128	<0.001
	Mother ID [m3]	-0.385	-0.689 – -0.080		-0.329	-0.497 – -0.162	
	Random Effects						
	σ^2	0.10			0.10		
	τ_{00}	0.01 Test fish ID			0.01 Test fish ID		
	ICC	0.12			0.11		
	N	34 Test fish ID			34 Test fish ID		
	Observations	144			144		
	Marginal R^2 / Conditional R^2	0.568 / 0.618			0.570 / 0.616		
Onset of repro-duction [days]	Intercept	-141.259	-595.812 – 313.294	-	-204.285	-383.856 – -24.714	-
	L_{inf} [cm]	45.090	-29.090 – 119.270	0.224	55.537	25.189 – 85.886	0.001
	K	768.659	-631.930 – 2169.249	0.271	980.383	235.137 – 1725.629	0.012
	Mother ID [m2]	15.631	-7.523 – 38.785	0.393	-	-	-
	Mother ID [m3]	-0.368	-31.794 – 31.058		-	-	-
	Observations	34			34		
	R^2 / R^2 adjusted	0.360 / 0.271			0.317 / 0.273		

653   SUPPLEMENT 3

654
655   **Suppl. 3** Female size is positively correlated with (a) offspring size (shown is average

656   offspring size per brood ± SD) and (b) brood size. Data points are coloured by individuals.

Tab. 1 Full (left) and final (right) models testing if size on the first day of life predicts early-life behavior.

Response	Predictors	Full model			Final model		
		Estimates	CI	P-value	Estimates	CI	P-value
Activity [cm/sec]	Intercept	1.546	-1.112 – 4.204	-	0.996	0.577 – 1.416	-
	Size at birth [cm]	-0.656	-3.786 – 2.475	0.672	-	-	-
	Mother ID [m2]	1.210	0.301 – 2.118	0.025	1.188	0.298 – 2.077	0.011
	Mother ID [m3]	0.595	-0.079 – 1.269		0.524	-0.050 – 1.098	0.072
	Observations	34			34		
	R^2 / R^2 adjusted	0.218 / 0.139			0.213 / 0.162		
Feeding [min]	(Intercept)	10.888	-38.316 – 60.093	-	48.058	42.847 – 53.268	-
	Size at birth [cm]	42.305	-15.642 – 100.252	0.146	-	-	-
	Mother ID [m2]	-9.241	-26.064 – 7.581	0.454	-	-	-
	Mother ID [m3]	1.021	-11.450 – 13.493		-	-	-
	Observations	34			34		
	R^2 / R^2 adjusted	0.151 / 0.066			0.000 / 0.000		

662 **Tab. 2** Full (left) and final (right) models testing if size on the first day of life predicts
663 reproductive output.

Response	Predictors	Full model			Final model		
		Estimates	*CI*	*P-value*	*Estimates*	*CI*	*P-value*
Brood size	(Intercept)	-1.708	-18.716 – 15.300	-	7.187	1.217 – 13.157	-
	Size at birth [cm]	10.904	-8.548 – 30.356	0.270	-	-	-
	Age at parturition [weeks]	0.208	0.019 – 0.398	0.031	0.215	0.026 – 0.404	0.027
	Mother ID [m2]	4.675	-1.168 – 10.518	0.086	5.085	-0.828 – 10.999	0.011
	Mother ID [m3]	4.561	0.254 – 8.868		5.875	2.167 – 9.583	
	Random Effects						
	σ^2	74.06			73.90		
	τ_{00}	8.19 Test fish ID			9.32 Test fish ID		
	ICC	0.10			0.11		
	N	34 Test fish ID			34 Test fish ID		
	Observations	152			152		
	Marginal R^2 / Conditional R^2	0.116 / 0.204			0.105 / 0.206		
Offspring size (brood average, mm)	Intercept	8.036	7.306 – 8.766	-	7.685	7.448 – 7.921	-
	Size at birth [cm]	-0.431	-1.276 – 0.414	0.315	-	-	-
	Age at parturition [weeks]	0.031	0.024 – 0.038	<0.001	0.031	0.024 – 0.038	<0.001
	Mother ID [m2]	-0.035	-0.288 – 0.218	<0.001	-0.053	-0.307 – 0.201	<0.001
	Mother ID [m3]	-0.462	-0.649 – -0.276		-0.514	-0.674 – -0.353	
	Random Effects						
	σ^2	0.10			0.10		
	τ_{00}	0.02 Test fish ID			0.02 Test fish ID		
	ICC	0.18			0.19		
	N	34 Test fish ID			34 Test fish ID		
	Observations	144			144		
	Marginal R^2 / Conditional R^2	0.525 / 0.612			0.519 / 0.612		

665 **Tab. 3** Full (left) and final (right) models testing if size on the first day of life predicts the

666 growth rate K and predicted final size L_{inf}.

Response	Predictors	Full model			Final model		
		Estimates	*CI*	*P-value*	*Estimates*	*CI*	*P-value*
L_{inf}	Intercept	4.171	3.473 – 4.870	-	4.716	4.602 – 4.831	-
	Size at birth [cm]	0.650	-0.172 – 1.473	0.117	-	-	-
	Mother ID [m2]	0.019	-0.220 – 0.258	<0.001	0.041	-0.202 – 0.284	<0.001
	Mother ID [m3]	-0.407	-0.584 – -0.230		-0.337	-0.493 – -0.180	
	Observations	34			34		
	R2 / R^2 adjusted	0.472 / 0.419			0.426 / 0.389		
K	Intercept	0.309	0.268 – 0.350	-	0.305	0.263 – 0.346	-
	L_{inf}	-0.045	-0.054 – -0.036	<0.001	-0.047	-0.056 – -0.039	<0.001
	Size at birth [cm]	-0.017	-0.037 – 0.004	0.107	-	-	-
	Mother ID [m2]	0.006	-0.000 – 0.011	<0.001	0.005	-0.001 – 0.011	<0.001
	Mother ID [m3]	-0.016	-0.021 – -0.010		-0.018	-0.023 – -0.014	
	Observations	34			34		
	R2 / R^2 adjusted	0.824 / 0.799			0.807 / 0.788		