Metamorphosis reverses the behavioural phenotype in *Rana arvalis* along a latitudinal

gradient

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ABSTRACT

1. Understanding how demographic processes and environmental conditions shape behavioural variation across populations is pivotal in evolutionary ecology. However, the role that such processes play in the link between behaviour and life-history traits across populations remains largely unclear.

2. The moor frog (*Rana arvalis*) has colonized Sweden via two distinct routes from south via Denmark and from north via Finland. We collected *R. arvalis* eggs from multiple populations along a 1700 km latitudinal gradient across Northern Europe and raised tadpoles in a common garden experiment. We assessed developmental growth and proactivity levels in ca. 300 individuals at two key stages of anuran larval development: tadpoles (Gosner stage 32) and froglets (Gosner stage 46).

3. We found strong behavioural differences along the latitudinal gradient and between developmental stages. Tadpoles from northernmost populations were bolder (shorter times to leave a shelter) and showed higher activity levels in an open field test compared to those from southern populations.

4. However, these behavioural patterns reversed at the froglet stage, with individuals from northern populations showing reduced proactivity that those from southern populations. Further analyses indicated significant associations between developmental growth and boldness, with contrasting patterns across developmental stages and colonization routes.

5. In line with recent revisitations of the pace-of-life syndrome theory (POLS) for animal personality, our findings suggest a decoupling of correlations between behaviour and life history traits across ontogeny, likely reflecting adaptive responses to divergent ecological and demographic constraints along the latitudinal gradient.

Keywords: amphibian**,** dual post-glacial recolonization route, POLS, pace-of-life

INTRODUCTION

Organisms display astonishing variation in behavioural and life history traits (Healy et al., 2019; Stearns, 1992; Wilson et al., 1994; Wolf, 2007). The Pace-Of-Life Syndrome (POLS) has been proposed to explain how the continuum of proactive-reactive behaviours is expected to coevolve with specific physiological and life history traits including metabolic rate, fecundity and growth (Biro and Stamps, 2008; Careau et al., 2008; Réale et al., 2010; Stamps, 2007). In POLS, trade-offs between life history, physiology and behaviour are hypothesized to lead to consistent inter-individual differences in behaviour across time and contexts—often referred to as personality (Bakker, 1986; Bouchard and Loehlin, 2001; Groothuis and Carere, 2005; Wilson et al., 1994). The POLS framework has given valuable insights on how animal personalities may constrain individual responses to environmental variation (e.g. Spiegel et al., 2015, Villegas-Rios et al., 2018) and has been successful in explaining variation especially at species level (e.g. Healy et al., 2019; van de Valle et al., 2023). However, mixed empirical evidence at within-species level suggests a need to integrate additional factors, such as species-specific demographic history and ecological pressures, to better understand the links between behaviour, physiology, and life history (e.g., Chang et al., 2024; Gopal et al., 2023; Montiglio et al., 2018).

Latitudinal gradients represent one of the most important biogeographic patterns on the Earth (Fischer, 1960). Populations at higher latitudes face harsher climatic conditions and shorter breeding seasons - environmental pressures that also influence the composition of predator and

parasite communities and intensity of biotic interactions (Willig et al., 2003; Poulin and Leung, 2011; Schemske et al., 2009). Consequently, environmental conditions at high latitudes drive the evolution of distinct life-history strategies (Stearns 1992). Across large-scale latitudinal gradients, POLS predicts a different pace-of-life along gradients, with populations at higher latitudes showing more proactive, risk-prone behaviours (Cassidy et a.l, 2020; Foster et al., 2015; Gerlai and Csányi, 1990; Higgins et al., 2022; Mitchell et al., 1977). For example, in many anuran tadpoles, more stringent climatic gradient at high altitudes favors faster growth and development rates (Berven et al., 1983; Laugen et al., 2003, Orizaola et al., 2010, Luquet et al., 2019). Faster growth and development rates are linked with higher foraging activity which is likely allowed by lower predator density at high latitudes (Laurila et al., 2006, 2008). Similar relationships have been observed in other environmental contexts (e.g., between island and continental populations: Brodin et al., 2013; along altitudinal gradient: Luquet et al., 2015). However, other studies challenge this pattern indicating a complex relationship between latitude and personality traits. For example, populations of eastern mosquitofish, *Gambusia holbrooki,* show decreased proactivity at high-latitude populations with lower predation pressure (Culumber, 2022). To address these inconsistencies and gain a deeper understanding of how geographical variation influences behaviour and life-history strategies, further research is needed.

Most investigations of POLS focus on individual behaviours at a single life stage (Cabrera et al 2021). However, personality variation may emerge across developmental stages in populations exposed to diverse ecological conditions. This gap should be of particular importance in organisms showing complex life cycles such as amphibians. These species exhibit a dramatic metamorphosis, involving substantial changes in morphology, physiology and behaviour as aquatic larvae transition into terrestrial juveniles (Cohen, 1985; Wilbur, 1980). Consequently, amphibian larvae

and juveniles vary greatly in many ecological aspects, for example by occupying distinct trophic niches (Kelleher et al., 2018; Rowe and Ludwig, 1991; Wilbur, 1980). Most anuran larvae are herbivores or omnivores, while post-metamorphic individuals are semi-aquatic carnivores, with dispersal and reproduction occurring at this stage (Wilbur, 1980). The shift of habitat at metamorphosis may also lead to substantial change in predation pressure (Alford, 1999). Under the POLS framework, selection over such differentiated ecological conditions should act to uncouple behavioural syndromes across ontogenetic stages in amphibians (Sih et al., 2004). Previous studies in species with complex life cycles have found both significant consistency (Begue et al., 2024; Brodin 2009; Wilson and Krause 2012) and nonsignificant/weaker relationships (Amat et al., 2018; Brodin et al., 2013; Moncaeu et al., 2017; Plaskonka et al., 2024) in proactivity levels over the metamorphic boundary. This discrepancy between theoretical works and empirical results may result from the lack of consideration of the relationship between personality and life history according to ecological conditions. Consequently, understanding the variation of behaviour in the proactive-reactive continuum across developmental stages in amphibian populations and how they associate to life history across multiple ecological conditions is crucial to resolve this apparent discrepancy.

North European populations of the moor frog (*Rana arvalis*) provide a suitable model for investigating evolutionary processes shaping behavioural phenotypes and life-history traits across diverse ecological conditions. This species has a wide latitudinal distribution with well-documented variation in life history traits along this geographical range (e.g., Laurila et al., 2006; Luquet et al., 2019; Räsänen et al*.,* 2008). Following the last glaciation, the species colonized the Scandinavian Peninsula through two distinct routes: one from the north via present-day Finland and another from the south, with a contact zone established in northern central Sweden (Cortazar-

Chinarro *et al.* 2017; Knopp and Merilä, 2009,). These post-glacial colonization events and

subsequent demographic processes have significantly influenced the divergence between

populations. Luquet et al. (2019) demonstrated strong divergence between southern and northern

lineages, with strong selection pressures driving higher growth, development rates and larger body

size in northern populations. Additionally, genetic analyses revealed clear differentiation between

two major genetic clusters corresponding to northern and southern populations (Cortazar-Chinarro

et al., 2017; Meyer-Lucht *et al.*, 2019, Rödin-Mörch *et al.*, 2019).

In this study, we evaluate behavioural variation across populations, regions and genetic clusters of

R. arvalis along a latitudinal gradient, incorporating information from two developmental stages.

We conducted a common garden experiment using populations from five different regions in

northern Europe and performed repeated open field tests on individuals before and after

metamorphosis to quantify behavioural traits on the proactive-reactive continuum. This data was

combined with life-history measurements to provide insight into the relationship between

behaviour, development and life-history across large-scale geographical variation.

In *R. arvalis*, shorter breeding seasons and harsher climatic conditions at higher latitudes are

associated with faster development (Luquet *et al.*, 2019; Meyer-Lucht *et al.*, 2019). Based on the

POLS framework, we hypothesized that i) proactive behaviours would be positively selected in

high latitudes at early developmental stages, resulting in a gradient of increasing proactivity-

associated traits with increasing latitude; ii) behavioural response on the proactive-reactive

continuum would be decoupled across ontogeny due to distinct ecological challenges and selective

pressures faced during larval and post-metamorphic stages; and iii) proactive behaviours would

positively coevolve with faster developmental growth throughout our geographical range.

METHODS

Sample Collection and latitudinal gradient

R. arvalis has a broad Eurasian distribution, from the North Sea coast to western Siberia (Sillero et al., 2014). We collected 50-100 eggs from each of 10 freshly laid clutches (hereafter families) at each of three breeding populations within five regions along a 1700 km latitudinal gradient from northern Germany (Hanover) to northern Sweden (Luleå), covering a major part of the latitudinal distribution of the species (more details about field sampling in Luquet et al., 2019). However, eggs from only one population were collected in Hanover. The timing of breeding season along the latitudinal gradient varies from mid-March (Hanover) to late May (Luleå). The distance between populations within the same region varied from 8 to 50 km (average 20 km). The eggs were transported to the laboratory in Uppsala and kept in a climate room at 16°C and 16L:8D photoperiod until they hatched and reached Gosner stage 25 (independent feeding; Gosner 1960).

Experimental design

Common garden experiment. Tadpoles were reared in a common garden experiment as described in Luquet *et al.* (2019), however, the individuals included in this study were all reared at the 16 °C temperature treatment. At Gosner stage 25, 3 tadpoles from each of the 10 families per population were haphazardly selected. Tadpoles were raised individually in 0.75 L opaque plastic vials until metamorphosis. They were fed with chopped spinach *ad libitum* and the water was changed every third day. The experiment was conducted in walk-in climate-controlled rooms with 16 °C average water temperature, corresponding to a temperature commonly encountered in the natural environment. The photoperiod was 16L:8D, corresponding to the situation in the middle of the gradient (Uppsala) in May. When tadpoles reached Gosner stage 32 (Gosner, 1960), we performed

158 the first set of behavioural assays at tadpole stage (see below), weighed them to the nearest 0.1 mg

159 and returned them in their vials until they reached metamorphosis (emergence of the first forelimb;

160 stage 42, Gosner, 1960). At metamorphosis, the water was removed and the vials were closed with

161 a lid. On the day when the metamorphs reached the froglet stage (i.e. Gosner stage 46, tail entirely

162 resorbed), we performed a second set of behavioural assays and weighed them to the nearest 0.1

163 mg.

164 *Recording of behaviour.* We recorded the behaviour of tadpoles and froglets (n tadpole / froglet:

165 Hanover = 31 / 20, Skåne = 89 / 65, Uppsala = 90 / 73, Umeå = 89 / 65, Luleå = 90 / 61, total =

166 389 / 284) individually using an open field test in circular arenas (diameter = 90 cm) with a circular

167 plastic shelter (diameter = 5 cm) in the center in a room at 16 °C. In the tadpole tests the arenas

168 were filled with 10 cm of water while in froglet tests the arena floor was moist. Individuals were

169 put in the shelter and left for 10 min to acclimate. The recording started when we opened the

170 shelter. Videos were recorded by a digital videocamera (Sony, HDR-HC1E Handy Camera) placed

171 1.70 m above the experimental arena. Using the recordings, we scored emergence time from the

172 shelter in an open field test, a widely used proxy for *boldness* (Mazué *et al*, 2015), by scoring the

173 time point when the body of the tadpole or froglet had completely emerged from the shelter

174 provided. In cases where the individual did not leave the shelter, the trial was stopped after 20 min

175 for tadpoles (n = 6) and 30 min for froglets (n = 126).

176 For individuals that left the shelter we analyzed 5 minutes of recording to measure proactivity from

177 two additional traits: i) *activity,* obtained as the mean speed during the recording and ii) *exploration*

178 obtained as the average distance to the shelter during the recorded time. Videos were analyzed

179 using the computer vision software Ctrax v0.5.19 (Branson *et al*, 2009) and the quality of the

180 tracking was checked for every individual. When necessary, the tracking was corrected manually

using the 'fixerrors' function. We then collapsed the frame-by-frame positional data obtained and

calculated the behavioural proxies using the tracker package (https://github.com/Ax3man/trackr)

in R v. 4.1.3 (R Core team 2024).

Statistical analysis

Consistency of individual behaviour (personality)

To assess personality, i.e. behavioural consistency at the individual level, we recorded the

behaviour of a representative subset of individuals for a second time 24-48 hours later (n tadpole

/ froglet: Hanover = 2 / 2, Skåne = 7 / 6, Uppsala = 6 / 8, Umeå = 6 / 8, Luleå = 9 / 9, total = 30 /

33). To avoid potential biases introduced by habituation to the experimental setup, individuals that

were tested twice as tadpoles were not used for repeated measurements during froglet stage. As

we could not obtain repeated measurements of activity or exploration for froglets that did not leave

the shelter during the first or second trial (n = 17), we used data on time to leave the shelter to

assess the individual repeatability of boldness. Repeatability, the relative partitioning of variance

into within-group and between-group sources of variance (Dingemanse and Dochtermann, 2013;

Nakagawa and Schielzeth, 2010) was estimated within a linear-mixed model (LMM) framework.

We assessed the variance explained by individual identity in boldness (log-transformed emergence

time) in independent gaussian models for tadpoles and froglets that included region as fixed

effects, and population and individual identity as random factors using the 'rptR' package in

Rv4.4.1 (Stoffel et al. 2017, R Core team 2024).

Behavioural traits across the latitudinal gradient

We assessed potential differences in behaviour across genetic clusters or region of origin and

between developmental stages implementing LMMs in 'lme4' package in Rv4.4.1 (Bates et al.

2015; R Core Team 2024). Each behaviour measured was assessed in an independent model. For

models to assess differences by region, developmental stage, region and their interaction were

included as a fixed effect, and population of origin and individual identity as random intercept

effects. For models to assess differences by genetic cluster, developmental stage, cluster and their

interaction were included as a fixed effect, and population of origin, region and individual identity

as random intercept effects. Individual mass at the time of recording was added as a covariate in

all models. Model fit and significance were assessed through conditional F-tests with Kenward-

Roger approximation for the degrees of freedom using pbkrtest and lmerTest R packages (Halekoh

and Højsgaard 2014, Kutznesova et al. 2017). To assess differences between regions, we obtained

post-hoc contrasts of the best fitted model using the 'emmeans' package and including false

discovery rate correction for multiple tests (Lenth 2018). Significance of random effects was tested

using likelihood ratio tests comparing models with or without the random effects in the full fixed

effect structure.

A high number of froglets did not leave the shelter and were assigned to an emergence value of

the decided cutoff point (1800 sec; n=126). Thus, time to emerge from shelter (boldness) data was

analyzed using a mixed effect survival test performed with the 'coxme' package (Therneau 2015).

The model structure was analogous to the LMMs above. Significance of fixed and random effects

was tested using likelihood ratio tests comparing models with or without the tested effect in the

full fixed effect structure.

We used repeated measurements to same individuals taken during tadpole and froglet stage to

estimate the repeatability of behaviours over the metamorphic boundary using analogous LMMs

than described above and modelling our data using the 'rptR' package in Rv4.4.1 (Stoffel et al.

2017, R Core team 2024).

Link between behaviour and life-history across genetic clusters

We combined data on time to reach metamorphosis (Gosner stage 42, in days) and mass at the

same stage to calculate developmental growth (mass/time at Gosner stage 42) for the individuals

evaluated for their behaviour. This life-history trait quantified for the individuals used in this

behavioural study are a subset of data included in a study on the quantitative differentiation of life-

history traits along the latitudinal gradient (Luquet *et al*, 2019; Meyer-Lucht *et al*, 2019). Hence,

analyses on differences in life-history traits across the gradient are omitted in this study and we

refer to these studies for more details of their differences across the populations sampled.

To assess the relationship between behaviour and life-history across genetic clusters and

developmental stages, we structured LMMs testing the influence of behavioural traits on growth

rate. Behavioural traits (i.e. boldness / activity / exploration, considered independently), genetic

cluster or region and developmental stage were fixed effects and population of origin and

individual identity were included as random intercept effects. Models fit and significance were

assessed as previously through conditional F-tests with Kenward-Roger approximation for the

degrees of freedom using pbkrtest and lmerTest R packages (Halekoh and Højsgaard 2014,

Kutznesova et al. 2017). We obtained post-hoc contrasts of fitted models using the 'emmeans'

package and including false discovery rate correction for multiple tests (Lenth 2018). Significance

of random effects was tested using likelihood ratio tests comparing models with or without the

random effects in the full fixed effect structure.

RESULTS

Repeatability of emergence time (boldness)

The time to emerge from the shelter was repeatable (controlling for the effects of region) at froglet stage, but not at tadpole stage (Tadpole: $R = 0.000 \pm 0.060$ *SE*, $P = 1$, Froglet: $R = 0.362 \pm 0.189$ *SE*, $P = 0.023$; Fig 1).

Behaviour across genetic clusters, regions and developmental stages

Boldness – The time to emerge from the shelter was significantly influenced by the interaction between developmental stage and genetic cluster (Table 2). Specifically, boldness did not differ between tadpoles from the South and North genetic clusters, but froglets from South populations were bolder than froglets from North populations (Tadpole $_{\text{North vs South}}$ ratio = 1.26 ± 0.21 *SE*, $z = 1.40$, $P = 0.16$, Froglet $_{\text{North vs South}}$ ratio = 0.50 ± 0.08 *SE, z =* -4.47, $P < 0.001$; Fig 2A). Similarly, statistical models incorporating the region of origin indicated a significant interaction effect between developmental stage and region on time to emerge from the shelter (Table 3). Tadpoles from the northernmost region (Luleå) were significantly bolder than those from all the other regions sampled, including those from Umeå within the same genetic cluster (ratio [SE]: Hanover-Luleå: 0.38 [0.09] - *adjP < 0.001*; Skåne-Luleå: 0.65 [0.12] - *adjP = 0.040*; Uppsala-Luleå: 0.55 [0.09] - *adjP = 0.001*; Umeå-Luleå: 0.51 [0.08] - *adjP < 0.001;* Figure. 1D; Table S1). Tadpoles from the southernmost region (Hanover) tended to be shyer (longer time to emerge from the shelter) than those from the other regions although the difference was only significant in comparison to Skåne (ratio [SE]: 0.58 [0.13] - *adjP = 0.040;* Figure. 1D; Table S1). In froglets, individuals from the two northernmost regions were significantly shyer than individuals from the

rest of regions studied in the gradient (Figure 1D, see Table S1). The random population effect

was never significant for boldness (Tables 2 and 3 for models incorporating genetic clusters or

regions, respectively). Boldness was not repeatable across ontogeny (i.e. between tadpole and

froglet stages; $R = 0.079 \pm 0.056$ *SE*, $P = 0.10$; Figure S1).

Activity – Activity was significantly influenced by the interaction between developmental stage

and genetic cluster (Table 2) or region (Table 3). At the genetic cluster level, tadpoles from South

populations were less active than those from North populations, but there was no difference at

froglet developmental stage (Activity: Tadpole $_{North\ vs\ South}$ estimate $= 0.18 \pm 0.05$ *SE, t* $= 3.41$,

$P = 0.036$, Froglet $_{North\ vs\ South}$: estimate $= -0.06 \pm 0.06$ *SE, t* $= -0.98$, $P = 0.36$; Fig 2B). At the

regional level, there were differences in activity of tadpoles among the regions while in contrast

all froglets have similar activity. Specifically for the tadpole stage, the activity increased with

latitude: tadpoles from the two southernmost regions (Hanover, Skåne) had a lower activity than

tadpoles from intermediate latitude (Uppsala region) and northernmost regions (Umeå, Luleå); the

activity of tadpoles from intermediate region (Uppsala) was marginally lower than those from

northernmost regions (Fig 2E, see Table S1). The random population effect in activity was

significant in genetic cluster model (Table 2) and only marginal in region model (Table 3).

Repeated measurements across developmental stages indicated significant, repeatability of activity

across ontogeny ($R = 0.158 \pm 0.078$ *SE*, $P = 0.034$; Figure S1).

Exploration – Exploration was significantly influenced by the interaction between developmental

stage and genetic cluster (Table 2) or region (Table 3). Exploration of tadpoles from the South and

North genetic clusters was similar while froglets from the North genetic cluster showed reduced

exploration than those from the Southern cluster (Exploration: Tadpole $_{North\ vs\ South}$ estimate $= -1.07$

± 2.09 *SE, t* $= -0.51$, $P = 0.63$, Froglet $_{North\ vs\ South}$: estimate $= -9.03 \pm 2.76$ *SE, t* $= -3.27$, $P = 0.005$;

Fig 2C). Specifically, for the froglet stage, the exploration of the southernmost region (Hanover)

was higher than all other regions along the gradient (Figure. 2F, Table S14). Froglets from the two

northernmost regions (Luleå and Umeå) had significantly lower exploration than froglets from

southern regions (except between Skåne and Umeå; Fig 2F, Table S1). The random population

effect was never significant (Tables 2 and 3 for models incorporating genetic clusters or regions,

respectively). Repeated measurements across developmental stages indicated no repeatability of

exploration ($R = 0.099 \pm 0.078$ *SE*, $P = 0.13$; Figure S1).

Influence of behavioural traits on growth rate

Growth/boldness - Growth rate was affected by the three-way interaction between boldness,

genetic cluster and developmental stage (Fig 3A, Table 4). In the South genetic cluster, tadpoles

with fastest times to emerge from the shelter (bolder) showed faster growth rates, but this

relationship was not found in tadpoles originating from the North cluster (Figure 3A, Tadpole $_{North}$

$_{vs\ South}$ estimate $= 0.74 \pm 0.28$ *SE*, $P = 0.008$, Table S2). This pattern was reversed during froglet

stage, as bolder individuals from the North cluster showed faster growth rates as tadpoles, while

no association for froglets was found in the South cluster (Figure 3A, Table S2). Similarly,

statistical models incorporating the region of origin indicated a significant three-way interaction

between boldness, region and developmental stage (Fig S2A, Table 5). This effect was driven by

the positive association between growth rate and boldness in Uppsala (estimate $_{Tadpole}$ $= 0.79$

± 0.26 *SE*, $P = 0.027$) and Skåne (estimate $_{Tadpole}$ $= 0.89 \pm 0.35$ *SE*, $P = 0.059$; see Table S3).

Additionally, it was driven by i) differential associations of growth rate/boldness associations of

these two regions in contrasts with all other regions (see Table S4; Figure S2A); and ii) in contrast

with this relationship in froglets in Uppsala (estimate $_{Froglet}$ $= -0.01 \pm 0.07$ *SE*, Tadpole vs Froglet:

t = 2.91, *P* = 0.004; Table S5; FigureS2A) and Skåne (estimate $_{Froglet}$ = 0.11 ± 0.07 *SE*, Tadpole vs

Froglet: t = 2.16, *P* = 0.031; Table S5; Figure S2A). The random population effect in activity was

significant in models incorporating genetic cluster or region (Tables 4 and 5 respectively).

Growth/activity - Growth rate was not affected by the three-way interaction between activity,

genetic cluster and developmental stage, or by any two-way interactions between these factors

(Figure 3B, Table 4). Statistical models incorporating the region of origin indicated a significant

three-way interaction between activity, region and developmental stage (Fig S2B, Table 5). This

effect was driven by the positive association between growth rate and activity in froglets in

Uppsala (estimate = 0.73 ± 0.25 *SE*, *P* = 0.032) and Luleå (estimate = 0.89 ± 0.35 *SE*, *P* = 0.059;

see table S3). Additionally, it was driven by i) differential associations of growth rate/activity in

Hanover-Uppsala contrasts, as well as contrasts of Hanover, Skåne and Umeå against Luleå

froglets (see Table S4; Figure S2A); and ii) in contrast with this relationship when measured as

froglets in Uppsala (estimate $_{Froglet}$ = -0.01 ± 0.07 *SE*, Tadpole vs Froglet: t = 2.91, *P* = 0.004; Table

S5; FigureS2A) and Luleå (estimate $_{Froglet}$ = -0.01 ± 0.07 *SE*, Tadpole vs Froglet: t = 2.91,

P = 0.004; Table S5; FigureS2A). The random population effect in activity was significant in

models incorporating genetic cluster or region (Tables 4 and 5 respectively).

Growth/exploration - Growth rate was marginally affected by the three-way interaction between

exploration, genetic cluster and developmental stage, and the exploration x developmental stage

interaction was significant (Table 4). In the North cluster, there was a negative relationship

between exploration and growth rate observed at tadpole, but not at froglet stage (Figure 3C, Table

S2). Statistical models incorporating the region of origin indicated an interaction between

exploration and developmental stage (Fig S2B, Table 5) driven by a significant change in the

direction of this association in Luleå (Tadpole: estimate = -0.15 ± 0.08 *SE*; Froglet: estimate =

0.21 ± 0.15 *SE*; t = -2.12, *P* = 0.034; see Table S5; Figure S2A). The random population effect in

activity was significant in models incorporating genetic cluster or region (Tables 4 and 5

respectively).

DISCUSSION

Our investigation of behavioural patterns in *R. arvalis* at two different developmental stages along

an extensive geographical gradient highlights the significant variation in proactivity levels across

developmental stages, genetic clusters, and regions in this species. We found no individual

repeatability of boldness during tadpole stage, but significant repeatability of this trait during

froglet stage. Additionally, our analyses of individual repeatability across metamorphosis showed

divergent patterns between behaviours quantified, with activity levels showing significant

repeatability that was not observed in exploration and boldness. Our results reveal reversals in

behaviour across developmental stages in *R. arvalis*, with all traits quantified showing shifts

between the tadpole and froglet stages. Finally, growth rate showed complex interactions with

boldness, activity, and exploration, varying by genetic cluster, region, and developmental stage.

Consistency of inter-individual differences in proactivity and across ontogeny

The repeatability of behaviour was assessed only on the time to emerge from the shelter. The

froglets had a repeatable time to emerge from the shelter but not the tadpoles. This suggests that

the ontogenetic timing is important to consider in studies investigating the consistency of inter-

individual differences in behaviour and assessing personalities. Indeed, studies across taxa support

the idea that boldness often develops later in ontogeny, as observed in several vertebrate taxa where

boldness may appear only after sexual maturation (Petelle et al. 2013, Polverino et al. 2016, Delval

et al. 2020). Moreover, the environmental conditions experienced by previous generations and

throughout the lifetime of an individual may also influence the emergence of personalities (e.g.

Tariel et al. 2020; Plaskonka et al. 2024). In this study, the results confirm that the time to emerge

from a shelter is a proxy of the bold-shy axis of personality in *R. arvalis* and a late emergence of

boldness during ontogeny. As it was not the main aim of this study, further assessment of within-

stage behavioural consistency is necessary before drawing firm conclusions about when

personality emerges and how it is shaped by demographic, geographical and local factors.

Repeatability estimates across life stages indicated no consistency in individuals' boldness and

explorations over ontogeny while activity was significantly repeatable across tadpole and froglet

developmental stages. Previous studies across taxa have reported consistency in individuals'

proactivity levels across life stages (reviewed by Koenig and Ousterhout 2018). In anurans,

individual consistency in proactivity levels before and after metamorphosis has been observed in

the spotted salamander (Koenig and Ousterhout 2018), and in the activity and exploration levels

of *Pelophylax ridibundus* from a single population from northern Germany (Wilson and Krause,

2012). However, neither Plaskonka et al. (2024) in a single population of Polish *R. arvalis* or

Brodin et al. (2013) in several northern Swedish populations of *R. temporaria* found significant

repeatability across life stages. Our results are in broad agreement with the previous studies,

suggesting that repeatability across life stages can be weak and depend on the environmental

constraints. Indeed, our southernmost population exhibited the lowest changes in proactivity traits

across life stages, while there was a tendency to gradually increase in change across life stages

with increasing latitude (see next parts of discussion). Together, these findings suggest that

individual consistency in behaviour across life stages may vary across taxa due to the adaptive

value of consistent behavioural responses, shaped to a larger extent by ecological factors than by

underlying genetic drivers of behavioural syndromes.

Proactive behaviours of tadpoles along the latitudinal gradient

Activity was higher in tadpoles from the North genetic cluster and in the three northernmost

regions compared to the South genetic cluster and the two southernmost regions, respectively. In

addition, tadpoles from the two northernmost regions also showed a higher activity than the

latitudinally intermediate Uppsala region. Consistently, tadpoles from the northernmost region

(Luleå) exhibited higher boldness than those from other regions and tadpoles from the most

southernmost region (Hanover) showed lower boldness than those from other regions, including

regions within the same genetic cluster. Altogether, these results suggest that both genetic clusters,

resulting from post-glacial colonization events and subsequent demographic processes, and

contemporary selection at the regional scale shaped the proactive behaviour of tadpoles. This is in

line with our previous studies showing a complex interplay between effects of historical and

contemporary processes on the genetic structure (Cortazar Chinarro et al., 2017; 2018, Meyer-

Lucht et al., 2019, Rödin-Mörch et al., 2019) and larval life history traits (Luquet et al., 2019) of

R. arvalis populations along the latitudinal gradient. These findings likewise align with the broader

framework of POLS theory, which proposes that fast-slow life history strategies correlate with

personality traits along environmental gradients (Reale et al. 2010). Our results on *R. arvalis*

tadpoles provide empirical support for this concept, particularly in the context of ectotherms facing

strong seasonal time constraints at early developmental stages, as previously observed in anti-

predator responses across lizard species (Samia et al. 2015). However, an interplay on proactive

behaviour of *R. arvalis* tadpoles is difficult to disentangle and seems also depend on the

behavioural trait considered and regional environmental conditions. Indeed, activity of tadpoles is

strongly influenced at the cluster scale with low variation within genetic cluster. In contrast,

tadpole boldness showed strong differences among regions within and between genetic clusters,

resulting in no difference in tadpole boldness between the genetic clusters. Tadpole exploration

was not influenced by latitude neither at genetic cluster nor at regional levels. This suggests that

boldness variation along the latitudinal gradient results from contemporary selection due to

environmental constraints for bolder genotypes in the northern populations, while activity

variation along the gradient results from the genetic divergence due to historical post-

recolonization. Findings of trait-specific behavioural responses in our latitudinal gradient study

further contribute to revisitations of POLS theory, demonstrating that different personality traits

can evolve independently in response to the influence of both historical events and ongoing

environmental pressures (Dingemanse et al., 2010; Wolf and Weissing, 2012, Royauté et al. 2018).

Decoupling of proactive behaviours across ontogeny along the latitudinal gradient

Interestingly, the proactive behaviour of froglets along the gradient is almost the reverse of the

tadpole behaviour. Froglets from the North cluster exhibited reduced boldness and exploration as

compared to the South, and froglets from the two northernmost regions were shyer and explored

less than froglets from other regions. There was no change in froglet activity along the gradient.

This result aligns well with the extended POLS theory, predicting that behaviours on the proactive-

reactive continuum can be decoupled across ontogeny (Montiglio et al., 2018). The observed

decoupling is likely due to fluctuating selective pressures that amphibians face as they transition

from aquatic to terrestrial environments following metamorphosis (Van Buskirk, 2002; Relyea and

Hoverman, 2003, Orizaola and Braña, 2005). Our results suggest that in high latitude populations,

tadpoles may benefit from increased boldness and activity in aquatic environments, where rapid

growth and resource acquisition are critical for survival as the tadpoles have to metamorphose

before the onset of winter (Laugen et al., 2003, Luquet et al., 2019, Orizaola et al., 2013). However,

once living in terrestrial environments, the cost of being overly bold or explorative in harsher

northern climates could outweigh the benefits. Specifically, in high-latitude populations time for

foraging after metamorphosis may be very short due to approaching winter which may select for

lower boldness and exploration activity. Indeed, the highest exploration level was found in the

Hanover population which experiences the longest season length along the gradient, while Luleå

experiences the shortest, suggesting that this trait may be related to the time available for resource

acquisition after metamorphosis. In juvenile *R. arvalis* terrestrial growth rates in laboratory are

lower in the northern than in the southern populations (Chondrelli, 2024), and studies on growth

and survival patterns in Scandinavian *Rana* populations suggest that survival is higher but

maturation occurs later in the northernmost populations (Hjernquist et al., 2012; Räsänen et al.,

2008; Söderman, 2006). These results suggest that time constraints for terrestrial growth and

development may be relaxed along the latitudinal gradient as compared to the more stringent

constraints faced by tadpoles, possibly allowing for decoupling of behaviours related to resource

acquisition (Sih et al., 2004). A recent study also suggests that the ontogenetic experience of

predator presence led to personality emergence in *R. arvalis* tadpoles and that this pattern was lost

over metamorphosis (Plaskonka et al. 2024); as predation pressure is known to decrease with

latitude (Laurila et al., 2008; Schemske et al., 2009) and could also influence the decoupling of

behaviours. Such ontogenetic decoupling of behaviours has been observed in other species, where

selective pressures shift as individuals transition between ecological niches (Wuerz and Kruger,

2015, Katsis et al. 2023, Class and Brommer, 2015, Bosco et al., 2017). Thus, our findings

underscore the importance of considering both life-history stage and the ecological context when

examining behavioural traits and personalities across geographical ranges.

Relationship between proactive behaviours and larval growth along the latitudinal gradient

Developmental growth is an important life history trait in larval amphibians, and several studies

have shown that this trait readily diverges along climatic gradients (e.g., Berven et al. 1983: Laurila

et al. 2008, Orizaola et al. 2010). In our previous study focusing on life-history traits, we observed

notable differences in larval growth among *R. arvalis* populations deriving from the two post-

glaciation colonization routes, with populations from the northern cluster showing a higher growth

rate (Luquet et al. 2019; see Figure 3). Behavioural variation of tadpoles observed in this study

(mainly higher activity in the North cluster and the northernmost regions, and higher boldness in

the northernmost region) appears to globally align with expectations that proactive behaviours

coevolve with faster larval growth. However, detailed relationships between proactive behaviours

and larval growth showed a strong influence of both genetic cluster and developmental stage.

Indeed, larval growth is positively associated with boldness in tadpoles from the South cluster but

not in tadpoles from the North one, while in froglets larval growth is positively associated with

boldness in the North cluster but not in the South one. At the regional scale, our findings further

disentangle the role of historical processes and local adaptation in shaping growth-behaviour

relationships. Positive associations between tadpole boldness and larval growth were observed in

Uppsala and Skåne, as well as between froglet activity and larval growth in Uppsala. However,

these associations were absent in other regions, suggesting that local environmental conditions

have more strength in modulating such associations, as previously observed in insects (Golab et

al. 2022).

As mentioned above, these different relationships across genetic clusters and among regions are

likely driven by both colonization history and climate-induced time constraints, which have

together shaped crucial shifts in metabolism and life-history traits (Laurila et al. 2008; Orizaola et

al. 2013, Caruso et al. 2020). Additionally, ecological factors such as predation pressure and

susceptibility to parasitic infections likely play crucial roles in shaping contrasting relationships

between life history and behaviour in different geographical areas. For instance, as predation

pressures on amphibians is typically reduced, and parasite diversity tends to decrease with

increasing latitude (Roslin et al. 2017, Rhode 1999), the contrasting relationships between growth

and proactivity across clusters may reflect the interplay of these ecological pressures. In the North

cluster, where both predation and parasitism are reduced, proactive behaviours may provide an

advantage later in development, explaining the positive association between boldness and larval

growth. Conversely, in the South cluster, where predation and parasite diversity are higher,

selection might favour proactivity earlier during tadpole stage, enabling faster growth and

providing an adaptive strategy that compensate higher exposure to predators and infection. This

divergence in selective pressures likely explains the inconsistencies observed between the genetic

clusters, with local adaptation influencing how behaviour and life-history traits co-vary across

ontogeny and different regions along the gradient.

Conclusions

R. arvalis populations along a broad latitudinal gradient in northern Europe exhibit clear

differences in proactivity levels, showing reversed behavioural patterns before and after

metamorphosis. Our findings suggest that natural selective pressures acting on behaviours along

the proactive-reactive continuum and life history traits operate differently across developmental

stages in this species. These results emphasize the importance of latitudinal gradient studies to

elucidate evolutionary processes driving phenotypic variation in behaviour among natural

populations. Future research should investigate the role of temperature, predator diversity, and

resource availability in shaping these behaviours. Furthermore, linking behavioural variation

across developmental stages to specific genomic polymorphisms could provide valuable insights

into evolutionary processes, historical selection and the maintenance of behavioural diversity

across regions.

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Author contributions

M.C-C.**;** writing original draft, writing-review and editing, A.C-L.; data curation, formal analyses, writing original draft writing-review and editing, E.L.; conceptualization, field work, lab work, writing-review and editing, A.L.; conceptualization, funding, writing-review and editing.

Conflict of interest declaration

716   We declare we have no competing interests.

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Figure captions

Figure 1. Consistency of individual behaviour. (A) Individual differences in measurements of time to emerge from the shelter taken during two independent trials performed to moor frog tadpoles (n = 30, dark green) and froglets (n= 33, light green) raised in a common garden experiment sampled across multiple regions of a 1700km latitudinal gradient in northern Europe. (B) Distribution of adjusted repeatability estimates of an individual time to emerge from the shelter in bootstrapping tests using a linear mixed model framework after controlling for effects introduced by region (see Stoffel et al. 2017). Blue dot indicates mean adjusted repeatability with confidence intervals for time to emerge in tadpoles (top) and froglets (bottom).

Figure 2. Behaviour of moor frogs across the latitudinal gradient. Boldness (A), activity (B) and exploration (C) measured in moor frog tadpoles (dark green) and froglets (light green) across a 1700 latitudinal gradient and raised in a common garden experiment (South genetic cluster: Hanover (Germany), red dot; Skåne (Sweden), yellow triangle; Uppsala, green square); North genetic cluster: Umeå (Sweden), blue cross; Luleå (Sweden), pink crossed square). Text indicates p-values of significance tests comparing difference in behaviour between genetic clusters (see Table 2; ns p>0.05, * p<0.05 ** p<0.01 *** p<0.001). Mean value and standard error of boldness (D), activity (E) and exploration (F) of tadpoles (dark green squares) and froglets (light green diamonds) for the five regions sampled. Average values for regions not sharing any letter are significantly different (p < 0.05) in post-hoc contrasts of independent models assessing differences in behaviour across regions for tadpoles (dark green letters) and froglets (light green letters; see Table 3-4).

Figure 3. Association between behaviour and life history in moor frogs across the latitudinal gradient. Relationships between (A) boldness, (B) activity and (C) exploration and developmental growth (mass/time at Gosner stage 42) in moor frog tadpoles (top row) and froglets (bottom row) sampled across a 1700 latitudinal gradient and raised in a common garden experiment (South genetic cluster: Hanover (Germany), red dot; Skåne (Sweden), yellow triangle; Uppsala, green square); North genetic cluster: Umeå (Sweden), blue cross; Luleå (Sweden), pink crossed square). Trend lines and confidence interval are displayed for the relationship between each behaviour and developmental growth for values at the North (blue) and South (yellow) genetic clusters. Text indicates estimated marginal means and standard error for each trend in post-hoc contrasts of statistical models ($p < 0.005$ in bold; see Tables 5-6).

Table 1. Consistency of individual behaviour. Results for repeatability analyses of measurements of time to emerge from a shelter taken twice to moor frogs during tadpole stage (n = 30), and froglet stage (n= 33) raised in a common garden experiment following collection from multiple regions across a 1700km latitudinal gradient in northern Europe. Using a linear mixed model framework, we estimated adjusted repeatability of boldness for individual and population after controlling for effects introduced by region in the model ($_{adj}R$; see Stoffel et al. 2017), as well as the quantification of uncertainty for the variance explained by region of origin (R^2 coefficient, see Stoffel et al. 2017).

Developmental stage	Factor	$_{adj}R$ / R^2	*SE*	95% CI	P
Tadpole	Individual	0.00	0.06	[0, 0.226]	1.00
	Population	0.00	0.06	[0, 0.131]	1.00
	Fixed (region)	0.23	0.16	[0.088, 0.683]	-
Froglet	Individual	0.36	0.19	[0, 0.577]	**0.023***
	Population	0.00	0.18	[0, 0.535]	1.00
	Fixed (region)	0.24	0.18	[0.079, 0.769]	-

Table 2. Behavior across genetic clusters and developmental stages. Results for statistical analyses evaluating behavioral traits across tadpole and froglet stages in moor frogs originated from five different regions across a 1700 latitudinal gradient and raised in a common garden experiment (South genetic cluster: Hanover (Germany), Skåne (Sweden), Uppsala, North genetic cluster: Umeå (Sweden), Luleå (Sweden)). Boldness data was analyzed using a mixed effect survival model, while activity and exploration data was analyzed using linear mixed models. Full models included genetic cluster, developmental stage and interactions as fixed effects, while population of origin, region and individual identity as random intercept effects. Individual mass at the time of recording was added as a covariate.

Predictors	**Boldness:** Time to leave the shelter				**Activity:** mean speed				**Exploration:** mean distance to shelter			
	Δ log-lik	χ^2	p	df	SumSq (mean sq)	F-value	p	df (Num_{dem})	SumSq (mean sq)	F-value	p	df (Num_{dem})
cluster	16.0 ***	32.04	**<0.001**	1	0.04 (0.04)	1.33	0.32	$1_{3.23}$	785.1 (785.1)	6.02	0.064	$1_{4.42}$
stage	-31.5 ***	137.03	**<0.001**	1	1.96 *** (1.96)	61.07	**<0.001**	$1_{466.5}$	716.5 * (716.5)	5.50	**0.019**	$1_{412.8}$
mass at recording	2.6 *	5.22	**0.022**	1	0.14* (0.13)	4.23	**0.040**	$1_{504.3}$	157.0 (157.0)	1.21	0.27	$1_{409.7}$
cluster × stage	14.5 ***	28.98	**<0.001**	1	1.10*** (1.10)	34.26	**<0.001**	$1_{310.6}$	1164.6** (1164.6)	8.94	**0.003**	$1_{339.9}$
Random Effects	Δ log-lik	χ^2	p	df	Δ log-lik	χ^2	p	df	Δ log-lik	χ^2	p	df
id	0.0	0.00	0.97	1	-1.4	2.77	0.096	1	0.0	1.81	0.18	1
population	0.8	1.66	0.19	1	3.0 *	6.07	**0.013**	1	0.0	0.0	1	1
region	0.0	0.05	0.81	1	0.2	0.55	0.45	1	0.0	0.13	0.71	1
σ^2					0.03				130.28			
τ_{00}	0.00 id				0.01 id				14.62 id			
	0.01 population				0.00 population				0.00 population			

	0.00 $_{region}$	0.00 $_{region}$	2.09 $_{region}$
Observations	655	512	512
Marginal R^2	0.71	0.365	0.058

*p<0.05   ** p<0.01   *** p<0.001*

Table 3. Behavior across regions and developmental stages. Results for statistical analyses evaluating behavioral traits across tadpole and froglet stages in moor frogs originated from five different regions across a 1700 latitudinal gradient and raised in a common garden experiment (Hanover (Germany), Skåne (Sweden), Uppsala), Umeå (Sweden), Luleå (Sweden)). Boldness data was analyzed using a mixed effect survival model, while activity and exploration data was analyzed using linear mixed models. Full models included developmental stage, region and its interaction as fixed effects, while population of origin, and individual identity as random intercept effects. Individual mass at the time of recording was added as a covariate.

Predictors	**Boldness:** Time to leave the shelter				**Activity:** mean speed				**Exploration:** mean distance to shelter			
	Δ log-lik	χ^2	p	df	SumSq (mean sq)	F-value	p	df (Num_{dem})	SumSq (mean sq)	F-value	p	df (Num_{dem})
region	29.2 *	58.58	**<0.001**	1	0.23 (0.06)	1.80	0.20	$4_{11.1}$	2606.1 ** (651.5)	5.23	**0.007**	$4_{16.5}$
stage	78.9 ***	156.29	**<0.001**	1	1.53 *** (1.53)	48.05	**<0.001**	$1_{453.4}$	204.2 (204.2)	1.65	0.20	$1_{455.2}$
mass at recording	2.3 *	4.73	**0.030**	1	0.12 * (0.12)	3.91	**0.048**	$1_{500.4}$	163.7 (163.7)	1.32	0.25	$1_{450.1}$
region × stage	24.3 ***	48.66	**<0.001**	1	1.24 *** (0.31)	9.71	**<0.001**	$4_{288.0}$	3511.7 *** (877.7)	7.09	**<0.001**	$4_{309.7}$
Random Effects	Δ log-lik	χ^2	p	df	Δ log-lik	χ^2	p	df	Δ log-lik	χ^2	p	df
id	0.0	0.00	0.95	1	1.6	3.25	0.071	1	-0.8	2.40	0.12	1
population	0.0	0.08	0.77	1	1.4	2.74	0.098	1	0.0	0.00	1	1
σ^2					0.03				123.83			
τ_{00}	0.00 $_{id}$				0.01 $_{id}$				16.85 $_{id}$			
	0.00 $_{population}$				0.00 $_{population}$				0.00 $_{population}$			
Observations	655				512				512			
Marginal R^2	0.725				0.389				0.104			

*p<0.05   **p<0.01   ***p<0.001

Table 4. Influence of behavior on life history (growth rate) across genetic clusters and developmental stages. Results for statistical analyses evaluating growth rate in moor frog tadpoles and froglets originating from five different regions across a 1700 latitudinal gradient and raised in a common garden experiment (South genetic cluster: Hanover (Germany), Skåne (Sweden), Uppsala), North genetic cluster: Umeå (Sweden), Luleå (Sweden)). Growth rate linear mixed models included the behavior of interest, genetic cluster, developmental stage and their interaction as predictors, and population of origin and and region as random intercept effects.

Growth rate including boldness (time to leave the shelter) as predictor

Predictors	SumSq (mean sq)	F-value	p	df (Num$_{dem}$)
Boldness	0.18 (0.18)	0.57	0.45	1$_{620.5}$
cluster	67.65 *** (67.65)	205.0	**<0.001**	1$_{41.8}$
stage	0.44 (0.44)	1.35	0.25	1$_{618.4}$
Boldness × cluster	1.79 ** (1.79)	5.44	**0.020**	1$_{620.4}$
Boldness × stage	0.17 (0.17)	0.52	0.48	1$_{620.3}$
cluster ×stage	0.74 (0.74)	2.24	0.13	1$_{618.4}$
Boldness × cluster× stage	2.63 ** (2.63)	7.96	**0.004**	1$_{620.3}$
Random Effects	*Δ log-lik*	χ^2	*p*	*df*
population	38.0 ***	16.1	**<0.001**	1
region	0.0	0	1	1

σ^2	0.33
ICC	0.06
Observations	631
Marginal R^2	0.647

Growth rate including activity (mean speed) as predictor

Predictors	SumSq (mean sq)	F-value	p	df (Num$_{dem}$)
Activity	0.49 (0.49)	1.47	0.22	$1_{475.2}$
cluster	21.09 *** (21.09)	62.36	**<0.001**	$1_{166.5}$
stage	0.88 (0.88)	2.62	0.11	$1_{476.2}$
Activity × cluster	0.00 (0.00)	0.00	0.98	$1_{475.2}$
Activity × stage	0.42 (0.42)	1.25	0.27	$1_{474.0}$
cluster ×stage	0.04 (0.04)	0.11	0.74	$1_{476.1}$
Activity × cluster× stage	0.07 (0.07)	0.02	0.89	$1_{474.0}$

Random Effects	Δ log-lik	χ^2	p	df
population	6.1 ***	11.5	**<0.001**	1
region	0.0	0	1	1

σ^2	0.34
ICC	0.06
Observations	489
Marginal R^2	0.631

Growth rate including exploration (mean distance to shelter) as predictor

Predictors	SumSq (mean sq)	F-value	p	df (Num$_{dem}$)
Exploration	0.02 (0.02)	0.07	0.80	$1_{474.2}$
cluster	77.23 *** (77.23)	230.52	**<0.001**	$1_{16.5}$
stage	1.68* (1.68)	5.02	**0.025**	$1_{479.1}$
Exploration × cluster	0.01 (0.01)	0.04	0.84	$1_{474.2}$
Exploration × stage	2.12 * (2.12)	6.34	**0.01**	$1_{475.8}$
cluster ×stage	0.37 (0.37)	1.10	0.29	$1_{479.1}$
Exploration × cluster× stage	0.95 (0.95)	2.84	0.092	$1_{475.8}$
Random Effects	Δ log-lik	χ^2	p	df
population	7.7 ***	12.5	**<0.001**	1

region	0.0	0	1	1
σ^2	0.34			
ICC	0.07			
Observations	489			
Marginal R^2	0.634			

Table 5. Influence of behavior on life history (growth rate) across regions and developmental stages. Results for statistical analyses evaluating growth rate in moor frog tadpoles and froglets originating from five different regions across a 1700 latitudinal gradient and raised in a common garden experiment (from South to North: Hanover (Germany), and Skåne, Uppsala, Umeå, Luleå (Sweden)). Growth rate models included the behavior of interest, region, developmental stage and their interaction as predictors, and population of origin as a random intercept effect.

Growth rate including boldness (time to leave the shelter) as predictor

Predictors	*SumSq (mean sq)*	*F-value*	*p*	*df (Num$_{dem}$)*
Boldness	0.08 (0.08)	0.24	0.62	$1_{620.5}$
region	60.94 *** (15.23)	46.71	**<0.001**	$1_{41.8}$
stage	0.28 (0.28)	0.85	0.36	$1_{618.4}$
Boldness × region	5.30 ** (1.32)	4.06	**0.030**	$1_{620.4}$
Boldness × stage	0.13 (0.13)	0.41	0.52	$1_{620.3}$
region ×stage	2.90 (0.73)	2.21	0.065	$1_{618.4}$
Boldness × region× stage	7.07 *** (1.77)	5.42	**<0.001**	$1_{620.3}$

Random Effects		*Δ log-lik*	χ^2	*p*	*df*
population		5.88 ***	11.8	**<0.001**	1
σ^2	0.33				
ICC	0.07				

Observations	631			
Marginal R^2	0.651			

Growth rate including activity (mean speed) as predictor

Predictors	*SumSq (mean sq)*	*F-value*	*p*	*df (Num$_{dem}$)*
Activity	0.13 (0.13)	0.38	0.54	$1_{463.0}$
region	25.33 *** (6.33)	19.10	**<0.001**	$4_{53.0}$
stage	0.64 (0.64)	1.93	0.16	$1_{463.1}$
Activity × region	5.07 ** (1.29)	3.83	**0.005**	$4_{462.2}$
Activity × stage	0.13 (0.42)	0.39	0.53	$1_{462.9}$
region ×stage	3.94 * (0.99)	2.97	**0.019**	$4_{462.9}$
Activity × region× stage	5.04 ** (1.26)	3.80	**0.005**	$4_{463.0}$
Random Effects	*Δ log-lik*	χ^2	*p*	*df*
population	3.6 **	7.2	**0.071**	1
σ^2	0.33			
ICC	0.07			
Observations	489			

Marginal R^2	0.639			

Growth rate including exploration (mean distance to shelter) as predictor

Predictors	*SumSq (mean sq)*	*F-value*	*p*	*df (Num$_{dem}$)*
Exploration	0.00 (0.0)	0.01	0.92	1$_{461.8}$
region	69.78 *** (17.45)	51.71	**<0.001**	4$_{11.5}$
stage	2.09 * (2.09)	6.21	**0.013**	1$_{463.6}$
Exploration × region	0.68 (0.17)	0.50	0.74	4$_{462.0}$
Exploration × stage	1.87 * (1.87	5.54	**0.019**	1$_{463.5}$
region ×stage	1.39 (0.35)	1.03	0.38	4$_{463.2}$
Exploration × region× stage	1.50 (0.37)	1.11	0.35	4$_{463.3}$

Random Effects	*Δ log-lik*	χ^2	*p*	*df*
population	3.9 ***	7.7	**0.005**	1
region	0.0	0	1	1
σ^2	0.34			
ICC	0.07			
Observations	489			
Marginal R^2	0.634			

Region ● Hanover ▲ Skane ■ Uppsala + Umea ⊠ Lulea   Genetic Cluster █ North █ South

A

TADPOLE

-0.37 ± 0.22

0.37 ± 0.16*

FROGLET

0.14 ± 0.06*

0.07 ± 0.04

Developmental growth (mg/day)

Boldness: Inv[time to leave the shelter(s)]

B

TADPOLE

-0.00 ± 0.03

0.03 ± 0.06

FROGLET

0.32 ± 0.48

0.29 ± 0.19

Activity: Mean speed (cm/sec)

C

TADPOLE

-0.13 ± 0.06*

-0.01 ± 0.04

FROGLET

0.13 ± 0.08

0.04 ± 0.05

Exploration: Mean distance to shelter (cm)