Severely stressful natal environment does not impact lifetime reproductive success of

adult boobies

Santiago Ortega[1,2], Cristina Rodríguez[2] and Hugh Drummond[2]

[1] Posgrado en Ciencias Biológicas, Universidad Nacional Autónoma de México and

[2] Departamento de Ecología Evolutiva, Instituto de Ecología, Universidad Nacional Autónoma de

México, 04510, Ciudad de México, México

Author for correspondence:

Santiago Ortega

E-mail: zannt0rtega@gmail.com

Phone number: + 52 (55) 5622-9007

Mailing address: Laboratorio de Conducta Animal, Instituto de Ecología, Universidad Nacional

Autónoma de México, A.P. 70-275. 04510, Ciudad de México, México.

Abstract

Although stressful natal conditions are expected to have developmental impacts that prejudice

fitness, wild animals sometimes respond to early-life adversity with phenotypic resilience or make

life-history adjustments that apparently mitigate fitness penalties. Whether these adjustments enable

long-lived animals to completely evade impacts of natural environmental stresses experienced

during early development remains uncertain. Analysis of recruits from 18 birth cohorts of the blue-

footed booby (*Sula nebouxii*) showed that El Niño (warm-water) conditions in the natal year did not

prejudice annual breeding success, fledgling viability, adult lifespan or lifetime reproductive

success. This equivalence of El Niño cohorts was attributed to high average quality due to

overrepresentation of young + old parental pairings, known to engender high quality fledglings, and

to a possible filtering effect of greater nestling and juvenile mortality, as well as documented life

history adjustments. Parents of high-quality or peak reproductive age were not overrepresented in El

Niño years. In this long-lived species which faces the world's most dramatic climatic oscillation,

recruits from cohorts that faced the most severe climatic events are fully equivalent to those from

cohorts that faced benign conditions, and self-selection of adults for breeding in such conditions

may be a key adaptation for achieving this.

Keywords

Early-life stress, life history, resilience, lifetime reproductive success, El Niño Southern Oscillation,

long-term effects

Introduction

Documenting the impacts of different early-life conditions on adult survival and reproduction, discerning how individuals cope with them, and tallying the effects on lifetime reproductive success is fundamental to understanding evolutionary trade-offs and life-history strategies (e.g. [1]), but seldom undertaken for long-lived vertebrates [2,3]. Early-life environmental conditions can have important effects on the physiology, metabolism and life history traits of adults in diverse taxa [4–8], and adverse early-life conditions have repeatedly been linked to negative consequences on senescence rates and on fitness components in adulthood (e.g. [5,9–11]). These include negative impacts on the quality and viability of offspring produced by animals that experience nutritional and social stress [12–14]. Nonetheless, negative effects of early adversity are not universal; wild animals sometimes respond by making life-history adjustments that seemingly neutralize fitness penalties (e.g. [15–18]).

Long-lived species should have more scope for managing the costs of early stress, for example by postponing their expression or spreading them across a longer period or over more reproductive events. Natural selection is expected to favour late expression of costs [19,20], although few studies have probed the influence of natal conditions on late-life traits or lifetime trade-offs, leaving lifetime fitness consequences of early stress unresolved. This failure occurs because individuals of long-lived species are rarely followed across their whole lifespan and dispersal of offspring commonly frustrates assessment of their viability. Comprehensive assessment of impacts of adverse early conditions on lifetime reproductive success and fitness [21] is usually unattainable (exceptions in [16], [22–24]), and it is still uncertain whether the compensatory responses and life history adjustments of long-lived animals can enable them to completely evade the impact of adversity at the start of life when development is maximally vulnerable [25].

Here, we investigated the effects of early-life conditions on life-history trajectories, fledgling quality and lifetime reproductive success in a marked population of the Blue-footed booby (*Sula nebouxii*), an apex predator of the eastern tropical Pacific Ocean that lays clutches of 1-3 eggs. Across the reproductive span of this plunge-diving specialist, warm surface waters associated with El Niño Southern Oscillation (ENSO) periodically deplete prey populations and pose a major ecological challenge, lessening breeding participation, delaying breeding, decreasing clutch and brood sizes, reducing hatching, fledging and breeding success, and depressing the growth of nestlings [26,27]. Nonetheless, annual monitoring of a population in Mexico has demonstrated its ability to minimize or sidestep potential effects of natal disadvantage. Specifically, recruits from

cohorts born under warm water conditions make life history adjustments, bringing forward their age

of first reproduction and breeding less frequently. Over the first ten years, slightly longer than the

average lifespan of recruits (mean ± SD; males: $8.05 ± 3.49$ years, n = 1319; females: $8.02 ± 3.99$

years, n = 1105; unpublished data), these adjustments along with the boobies' developmental

resilience allowed recruits to match the survivorship and accumulated breeding success (fledgling

production) of boobies born under favourable cold-water conditions [15]. But do fitness penalties

manifest themselves afterwards or elsewhere; for example, in unexplored life history variables such

as survival and reproduction in old age, and viability of offspring produced at different ages? We

tested these possibilities and asked whether the adjustments and developmental resilience of recruits

neutralize comprehensively the impact of early adversity on lifetime fitness, and also whether the

costs of being born under harsh conditions are paid in the juvenile stage.

Using longitudinal data on 18 birth cohorts of recruits marked with steel bands at fledging, we

investigated whether natal warm water ENSO conditions (sea surface temperature anomalies,

SSTA) influence annual breeding success or fledgling viability (probability of eventual recruitment)

at any age over a breeder´s lifespan. Secondly, to achieve an integrative assessment of fitness

impacts, we tested whether natal warm water conditions affect either adult lifespan or lifetime

reproductive success (production of recruits). Thirdly, to capture more comprehensively the fitness

costs of developing under harsh conditions, we analysed whether natal conditions affect the lifetime

reproductive success of fledglings, thus incorporating failure to recruit, which is greater in juveniles

from warm water years (Ancona et al. 2018), in the computation of fitness. Finally, in an effort to

explain minimal and non-existent effects of warm water natal conditions on fitness of fledglings and

recruits, we asked whether in warm years boobies of high quality or favourable ages, or born in cool

years, increase their representation among breeders. The necessary observations were possible

because, with rare exceptions, fledglings of the focal population nest for the first time close to

where they hatched, then nest close to their first nest site during the rest of their lives [28].

Methods

Study population and data collection. All demographic data were collected between 1989 and 2018 during lifelong annual monitoring of individual blue-footed boobies (*Sula nebouxii)* on Isla Isabel, Nayarit (21°53'N, 105°54'W), off the Pacific coast of Mexico [28,29].

Breeders were individually identified by bands fitted at fledging. Throughout each reproductive season (roughly February through July) all pairs in two study areas were monitored by recording their nest contents every 3-6 days through fledging (details in [29]). Nests in the study area and within 20 m of its borders, which correspond with natural borders of the colony, are too conspicuous on the beach and forest floor to escape detection by the team of two monitors [30]. This monitoring protocol allowed detection of nearly all recruitment and breeding of the focal fledglings through 2018.

For all analyses of breeders, samples included all members of the 18 birth cohorts (1989-2009) that recruited by age 6 years (the age by which 87% of fledglings recruit), thereby excluding individuals whose early nesting may have been missed. We analysed annual breeding success (number of 70-d old fledglings produced, regardless of brood size), fledgling viability (proportion of fledglings that recruited), adult lifespan (age at the last observed breeding), lifetime reproductive success (total recruits produced), and recruitment probability (whether an individual fledgling was resighted as a breeder; 1-0 variable), separately for females and males because pair mates are not statistically independent. Because fledglings are not sexed until they return to the colony as breeders, the analyses of fledgling recruitment probability and fledgling fitness were not separated by sex.

The sample for analysis of annual breeding success included all breeders from the 18 cohorts (2143 male and 1893 female boobies); the sample for analysis of fledgling viability included the fledglings produced by all breeders from those cohorts that fledged at least one chick at any age (1646 male and 1329 female breeders), and excluded fledglings born after 2013 because their recruitment could not be adequately scored (they were monitored for less than 6 years). The sample for analyses of adult lifespan and lifetime reproductive success included only the 1319 male and 1105 female breeders that died before 2013, allowing each of their fledglings at least 6 years to recruit during annual monitoring. Death was assumed when a breeder was absent during three consecutive breeding seasons; in the cohorts of 1989-1995, only 5-6% of breeders were ever resighted after three consecutive absences.

For males and females, respectively, ages of first reproduction (mean $\pm$ SD) were 4.14 $\pm$ 0.95 and

3.54 $\pm$ 0.98 years, and longevities were 8.05 $\pm$ 3.49 and 8.02 $\pm$ 3.99 years (range 1 to 22 years for

both sexes). For analysing recruitment probability of fledglings, the sample included all 10604

individuals that were weighed and measured at age 70 days; for analysing lifetime reproductive

success of fledglings, the sample comprised 10609 individuals. Self-selection for breeding in warm

water conditions was tested in a sample of 4036 males and females by looking for increase in the

proportional representation of individuals of above average quality, favourable ages (10-14 years)

or born in (cool) La Niña years. An individual´s quality was the mean of all z-normal standardized

annual breeding success values (fledglings produced) over its lifespan

For the recruitment probability analysis, the ratio between weight (grams) and ulna length

(millimetres) at age 70 days was used as an indicator of body condition at fledging. This ratio

accounts for the sexual size dimorphism of the boobies; at 79 days old, females weigh

approximately 26% more than males, and their ulnas are 10% longer [31]. To remove year effects,

individual body condition was calculated as the z-normal standardized annual body condition at

fledging of the colony. Boobies weighed (mean $\pm$ SD) 1593.51 $\pm$ 256.2 grams at fledging with an

ulna length of 205.57 $\pm$ 12.98 millimetres.

ENSO conditions during the reproductive season in which a focal breeder was born were expressed

as the average of the 8 monthly (December to July) sea surface temperature anomalies (SSTA) at

the closest oceanographic station, 55 km from the colony, obtained from the IRI Data Library

http://iridl.ldeo.columbia.edu/SOURCES/.NOAA/.NCEP/.EMC/.CMB/.GLOBAL/.Reyn_SmithOIv

2/.monthly/.ssta/ .La Niña years were characterized by the mean SSTA of at least -0.5°C using La

Niña criteria of the NOAA, obtained from El Niño and La Niña Alert System

https://www.climate.gov/news-features/understanding-climate/el-ni%C3%B1o-and-la-

ni%C3%B1a-alert-system.The Southern Oscillation Index (SOI) was not used because SSTAs are

more closely related to the breeding parameters and age at first reproduction of this population

[15,26].

Statistical analysis. All analyses were performed in R statistical environment [32]. All variables

were standardized prior to model fitting to minimize collinearity of linear and quadratic terms and

to facilitate the interpretation of the relative strength of parameter estimates [33,34]. To further

minimize multicollinearity among terms, the variance inflation factor (VIF) was calculated, and

variables with VIF values higher than 2 were not included in the final analyses. Maximum VIF

value of each model is reported in the supplementary material. Models were fitted with a Gaussian

error distribution and an identity link function. Variable standardization was carried out using the

rescale function in the R package *arm* [35]. We used the *lmer* function in the package *lme4* [36] to

build the LMMs; LMs were built using the built-in function *lm* in R. Model selection was carried

out with *model.sel* function in the MuMIn package [37], *mod.avg* function was used to average

models within a 95% confidence interval (CI) [38], and *confint* function to calculate the CI of each

parameter.

To assess the effects of recruits' early-life conditions on their annual breeding success and offspring

viability, we first constructed a base model (accounting for previously demonstrated effects in the

species; *sensu* [39]) for each analysis; this contained the linear and quadratic expression of breeder

age and laying date, with breeder identity as random effect. For annual breeding success, SSTA in

each reproductive year was also included in base models. The linear expression of year of birth was

included in every model, irrespective of its statistical significance (cf. [40]), to reflect the fact that

the earlier an individual was born, the higher its longevity could be, biasing our dataset. From these

base models, we constructed a series of competing models which included SSTA in the natal year

(the early-life-condition variable), whether it was the individual's terminal reproductive event (1-0

variable), and the linear and quadratic expressions of age of first reproduction along with two-way

interactions: SSTA in the natal year x age^2, age of first reproduction x age^2 and SSTA in the natal

year x age of last reproduction. SSTA in the reproductive year was added to competing models for

the analysis of offspring viability. Age of first reproduction was included to evaluate the indirect

effects of early adversity, as this life history trait has been shown to vary with natal ENSO

conditions [15] and is a major determinant of fitness [41]; its quadratic expression was added to

detect an optimal onset of reproduction (e.g. [42]) The interactions were included to detect

differences in senescence patterns due to natal conditions or age of first reproduction.

To test whether adult lifespan and lifetime reproductive success were influenced by early-life

conditions, we used linear models (LMs). For both analyses, year of birth was also included in all

competing models as a fixed variable. Variables included in the models were SSTA in the natal year

and the linear and quadratic expression of age of first reproduction. For lifetime reproductive

success adult lifespan was added to the competing models, along with its interaction with age of

first reproduction.

To test whether fitness costs of adverse natal conditions are paid in the juvenile stage, we reran the

lifetime reproductive success model including, along with all recruits, all fledglings that did not

recruit, giving the latter a zero score for lifetime reproductive success. Age of first reproduction and

adult lifespan were not included because fledglings that fail to recruit cannot be assigned a value.

Sex was not included because sexing occurs at recruitment.

To assess which fledglings managed to recruit under warm water conditions, and which breeders

reproduce in these conditions (possible self-selection), we built LMMs. For both analyses, year of

birth and SSTA in the natal year were included as fixed variables. For the recruitment analysis,

body condition at fledging and chick rank (1st, 2nd or 3rd hatched) were included in the competing

models, along with three two-way interactions: SSTA in the natal year x body condition, SSTA in

the natal year x chick rank, and chick rank x body condition. Nest identity was added as a random

effect because, in some cases, siblings were included in the analysis. Body condition and rank were

included to test whether low values affect recruitment. The interactions tested whether poor natal

environments exacerbate the cost of fledging with poor body condition or low rank, and evaluated

whether body condition at fledging varies with rank.

To test for increased representation in warm water years of breeders of above average quality or

peak reproductive ages(10-14 years, middle aged), or from cool water years (< -0.5 SSTA), as well

as diminished representation of both young (1-9 years) and old (15-23 years) breeders, we built

linear models including sex as a factor and using the linear expression of year of reproduction to

account for progressive increase in the proportions of middle-aged and old birds among ringed birds

with additional years of monitoring and ringing.

On the basis of AICc, ΔAICc, and AICc weights (*wi*) of the competing models, we selected the best

supported model, or averaged a subset of the best-supported models with a cumulative Akaike

weight of ~0.95. For each resulting model, we calculated the estimates (all reported effect sizes

were standardized to two SDs) and 95% confidence intervals (CI). Model selection tables and

summaries of best-supported and averaged models are provided in the supplementary material.

Results

<u>Assessment of Recruits</u>

Annual breeding success

For 2143 male breeders, natal warm water ENSO conditions affected annual breeding success over
the lifespan but not in the expected direction. Males that experienced warm waters in their natal
year annually produced slightly more fledglings than those born under more favourable conditions
($\beta = 0.009$ [95% Confidence Interval: 0.008 to 0.048]; Figure 1), with males fledged under a $+0.8\,^{\circ}$C
anomaly predicted to produce roughly 6% more fledglings than males fledged under a $-0.8\,^{\circ}$C
anomaly (the most extreme anomalies observed). For 1893 females, no effect of natal warm water
ENSO conditions on annual breeding success was detected (Table S1; Figure 1). Consistent with
previous reports [26,29], boobies of both sexes increased their annual breeding success with
earliness of laying and current coolness of the sea, and showed senescence after a peak in
reproductive success at, roughly, ages 10-14 years [43,44] (Table S2). Natal SSTA did not interact
with age (Table S2), showing that warm natal waters had no effect on either the rate of increase in
reproductive success during early adult years or the rate of decline during late adult years.

Figure 1. A male booby´s annual breeding success (fledglings produced) increased slightly with the
Sea Surface Temperature Anomaly in its natal year. Female annual breeding success was unaffected
by natal conditions. Points represent 2143 male and 1893 female breeders observed over their
lifespans. Solid line represents model predictions, with 95% confidence intervals in blue; for
females, grey line shows a statistically unsupported relationship.

Fledgling viability

For 1646 male and 1329 female breeders, natal warm water conditions did not affect the viability of
the fledglings they produced at any age over their lifespan (Table S3), although other variables were
influential. Fledglings produced by both sexes in warm water years were less likely to recruit
(Males: $\beta = -0.194$ [95% CI: -0.222 to -0.166]; Females: $\beta = -0.195$ [95% CI: -0.231 to -0.159])
and, at all ages, earliness of laying increased the viability of fledgings produced (Males: $\beta = -0.128$
[95% CI: -0.156 to -0.101]; Females: $\beta = -0.112$ [95% CI: -0.146 to -0.077]). Consistent with a
previous study of this population based on just two cohorts [45], a breeder's age had a quadratic
effect on the probability its offspring would recruit (Table S4), with peaks at roughly 10 years in
male breeders and 11 years in female breeders.

Lifespan

The lifespan of recruits was unaffected by natal warm water conditions (Table S5), but increased

with late recruitment in both sexes (Males: 0.139 [95% CI: 0.090 to 0.0189]; Females: 0.213 [95%

CI: 0.160 to 0.266]), although this effect might arise simply because late recruits cannot die early.

Lifetime reproductive success

Natal warm water conditions did not affect lifetime reproductive success measured as total recruits

produced (Figure 2a; Table S7), although in both sexes age of recruitment and adult lifespan were

influential. Boobies that first reproduced at younger ages produced more recruits over their lifetime

than those that started later in life (Males: β = -0.086 [95% CI: -0.126 to -0.046]; Females: β = -

0.062 [95% CI: -0.119 to -0.013]). Greater adult lifespan, itself associated with delayed age of first

reproduction, also increased lifetime production of recruits in both sexes (Males: β = 0.715 [95%

CI: 0.670 to 0.761]; Females: β = 0.619 [95% CI: 0.561 to 0.677]).

Figure 2. a) Lifetime production of recruits of 1319 male and 1105 female breeders was not

affected by natal warm water conditions. Grey lines show the statistically unsupported tendency for

lifetime reproductive success to increase in both sexes with warm natal waters. b) Lifetime

reproductive success of 10609 male and female fledglings belonging to 18 birth cohorts decreased

slightly with the warmth of their natal waters.

<u>Lifetime Reproductive Success of Fledglings</u>

In the sample of (unsexed) fledglings, those from warm water years were considerably less likely to

recruit, particularly 2nd and 3rd chicks (Table S12; Figure. 3a). Body condition was key: in all

cohorts, poor condition reduced the probability of recruiting (β = 0.07 [95% CI: 0.05 to 0.08];

Figure. 3b). Consequently, cohorts of fledglings that experienced warm water natal conditions

produced fewer recruits over their lifespan (β = -0.04 [95% CI: -0.06 to -0.03]; Figure. 2b),

although the difference was much smaller than their poor recruitment would suggest: boobies

fledged under a +0.8 °C anomaly were predicted to produce roughly 7% fewer recruits than boobies

fledged under a -0.8°C anomaly (the most extreme anomalies observed over the 30-year study).

Figure 3. The probability of recruiting for 10604 unsexed fledglings a) decreased with the warmth

of natal waters, especially for second and third chicks, and in every year, b) was higher for boobies

that fledged with good body condition.

Self-selection for Warm-water Breeding

In warm water years neither boobies of above average quality nor boobies born in cool (la Niña)

years increased their proportional representation among breeders (n = 4036; Tables S13-S14) but,

contrary to expectation, middle-aged boobies substantially diminished theirs (β = -0.317 [95% CI: -

0.470 to -0.164]) and the proportions of both young (1-9 years) and old (>14 years) boobies among

breeders increased (Young: β = 0.193 [95% CI: 0.068 to 0.318]; Old: β = 0.175 [95% CI: 0.020 to

0.331]) .

In this booby, young-with-old parental pairings produce the most viable (likely to recruit) fledglings

[30], so we hypothesized that overrepresentation of young and old breeders in warm years could

increase the proportion of young + old pairings and hence the average quality of fledglings. We

tested this by calculating the proportional representation of all six possible pairings of young,

middle aged and old boobies in every year between 1993 and 2017 (Table S16). Our LMs included

the linear expression of year of reproduction to account for progressive increase in the proportions

of middle-aged and old birds among ringed birds with additional years of monitoring and ringing;

they did not include sex because greater viability of offspring of young-old pairs is independent of

which sex is the older pair mate [30,46]. These analyses showed that warm water is indeed

associated with an increase in the proportion of young + old pairings and a decrease in the

proportion of young + middle-aged pairings (Young + old: β = 0.280 [95% CI: 0.072 to 0.487];

Young + Middle-aged: β = -0.340 [95% CI: -0.614 to -0.067]; Figure. 4)

Figure 4. In warm water years the proportion of young-old pairs increased, and the proportion of

young-middle aged pairs decreased.

Discussion

Even the most extreme warm water conditions experienced by recruits of the 18 cohorts in their natal year did not subsequently prejudice their annual breeding success or the viability of their fledglings at any age over the recruits' lifespan, nor reduce adult lifespan or the total number of recruits produced over that span. Furthermore, warm natal waters elicit neither change in the rate of increase in breeding success in young adulthood nor a change in the rate of decline in old age (senescence). These results confirm that male and female recruits are capable of comprehensively resisting the developmental penalties of a harsh natal environment, although it remains to be shown that the viable offspring of recruits from warm water cohorts pay no reproductive costs (an intergenerational effect [14]). To our knowledge, this is the first study to report comprehensive avoidance over the entire adult age span of a long-lived animal of deficits due to natural environmental stresses experienced during early development. Similarly comprehensive avoidance has been reported in short-lived species and animals facing anthropogenic natal adversity, although in some of those cases breeding success of one of the two sexes is prejudiced (reviewed in [3]). In the blue-footed booby both sexes are similarly resistant.

Similar resistance to developmental impacts was found when we analysed cohorts of fledglings instead of recruits, thereby including the juvenile stage in the analysis of fitness. Despite failure to recruit being substantially more common after birth in a warm water year (especially in 2nd and 3rd chicks), the lifetime reproductive success of warm water fledglings was not greatly affected; fledglings from the warm-water extreme were predicted to produce only 7% fewer recruits than those from the cool-water extreme. This implies that recruits from warm water fledgling cohorts are of high enough quality to largely compensate for the zero reproductive success of cohort members that fail to recruit. This quality effect could be what enabled warm natal water male recruits to achieve roughly 6% higher annual breeding success than cool water males over the lifespan. There was no corresponding increase in the lifetime reproductive success of these males, presumably because boobies that experience warm natal waters space their breeding events more widely [15], at least in their young adulthood. Warm natal water females showed no such increase in annual breeding success, but females are nearly one third heavier than males and more susceptible to food deprivation [47,48].

The extraordinary equivalence of recruits (and near equivalence of fledglings) that developed in the most stressful environments and those that developed in the most benign environments could, in principle, be explained by the most reproductively competent boobies self-selecting for breeding in warm water years, and transmitting their own high quality to their offspring, genetically or

phenotypically. Self-selection there was, but surprisingly not by boobies of either proven high

quality or a silver spoon (cool water) birth, but rather by the age categories with the lowest annual

breeding success: the young and old (see also [49–52]). And self-selection for breeding by young

and old boobies in warm water years was associated with increased representation of young + old

pairs, whose fledglings are known to have the highest likelihood of recruiting [30].

Overrepresentation of young + old pairs could account for fledglings from warm years almost

matching the lifetime reproductive success of those from cool years, despite experiencing slow

growth, late fledging [26] and diminished recruitment (Fig. 3a, [53]); and for recruits from warm

water years actually matching the lifetime reproductive success of recruits from cool water years. It

also offers the most credible explanation for male recruits' counterintuitive increase in annual

breeding success with natal water temperature: high average quality of offspring due to

overrepresentation of young + old pairs in warm years may boost not only their recruitment but also

their reproduction. The mechanism by which young + old pairs produce the most viable offspring is

unknown, but might involve complexly age-related parental investment, or superior genetic quality

due to greater heterozygosity or a combination of good genes and less germ-line DNA damage in

offspring of dissimilar-aged parents (discussed in [30,54]).

Increased hatching failure and nestling mortality in warm water years (Ancona et al. 2011) could

also increase the average quality of fledglings and recruits from warm water cohorts either by

filtering out poor quality individuals [23] or possibly by boosting the food ingestion and growth of

surviving brood members. In blue-footed booby broods 4-day hatch intervals result in age-based

dominance hierarchies and aggressive elimination of subordinates during periods of food shortage

[55,56]. However, it is unknown whether nestling quality influences mortality and whether

fledglings from reduced broods outperform those from broods that fledge intact [55].

Life history adjustments by recruits born in warm water years also help explain their equivalence.

Their ability to produce as many fledglings in the first 10 years of life as those born in cool years

has been attributed to the observation that they bring forward their age of first reproduction and

breed less frequently [15]. We found that early recruitment generally increases lifetime reproductive

success, and suspect that warm water cohorts manage to obtain this benefit while avoiding increase

in mortality at any adult age [53] and sidestepping the possible longevity cost (Table S5) of

reproductive investment early in life by skipping some breeding seasons. Boobies may make

facultative life history adjustment to natal conditions or higher quality individuals may tend to

recruit early and skip years. Females of the reintroduced Mauritius kestrel (*Falco punctatus*)

mitigate fitness penalties of an anthropogenically modified natal environment by making similar

life-history adjustments [16], although it is unclear whether their lifespan is affected.

In conclusion, contrary to the widespread expectation that extenuating natal environments impose

profound and often permanent deficits during adulthood [25,57] this study demonstrates that adult

blue-footed boobies which experienced the stressful conditions of the planet´s most dramatic

climate oscillation in their natal year are fully equivalent to adults that experienced the most benign

conditions. The evidence suggests that this is achieved by an increase in offspring quality in El

Niño years due to increased representation of young + old breeding pairs, possible filtering out of

poor-quality nestlings and juveniles, and life history adjustments. In addition, we suggest that

exposure of this species to El Niño-like events since at least the mid-Holocene [58] has probably

honed the evolution of developmental resilience.

Data accessibility. The datasets supporting this article have been uploaded as part of the

supplementary material.

Authors' contributions. S.O, C.R. and H.D. C.R. and H.D. collected the data designed the study.

S.O. analysed the data. S.O., C.R and H.D. wrote the manuscript. All the authors contributed to

revisions of earlier drafts of the manuscripts. All the authors contributed critically to the drafts and

gave their final approval for publication.

Competing interest. We declare we have no competing interests.

Funding. Funding were provided by Universidad Nacional Autónoma de México (PAPIIT,

IN211491, IN-200702-3, IN206610-3, IN205313), the Consejo Nacional de Ciencia y Tecnología

(CONACYT, 81823, 47599, 34500-V, 4722-N9407, D112-903581, 31973H and 104313) and the

National Geographic Society. S.O. was supported by a grant for CONACYT during the course of

his master studies in the Posgrado de Ciencias Biológicas, UNAM, and by a CEP grant provided by

the Coordinacion General de Estudios de Posgrado, UNAM.

Acknowledgements. We thank numerous volunteers for enthusiastic work in the field and on the

database; the Armada de México, staff of SEMARNAT and local fishermen for logistical support.

We thank the Posgrado en Ciencias Biológicas de la UNAM, CONACYT and the National

Geographic Society for supporting this investigation. Oscar Sánchez provided statistical advice. For

comments on the manuscript we thank María Valverde, Alejandro Gonzalez and Sergio Ancona.

This paper constitutes the fulfilment of a requirement for obtaining the degree of Maestro en

Ciencias Biológicas in the field of Biología Evolutiva of the Posgrado en Ciencias Biológicas de la

UNAM.

References

1. Stearns SC. 2000 Life history evolution□: successes, limitations, and prospects. *Naturwissenschaften* **87**, 476–486. (doi:https://doi.org/10.1007/s001140050763)

2. Cam E, Aubry L. 2011 Early development, recruitment and life history trajectory in long-lived birds. *J. Ornithol.* **152**. (doi:10.1007/s10336-011-0707-0)

3. Drummond H, Ancona S. 2015 Observational field studies reveal wild birds responding to early-life stresses with resilience, plasticity, and intergenerational effects. *Auk* **132**, 563–576. (doi:10.1642/AUK-14-244.1)

4. Mumme RL, Bowman R, Pruett MS, Fitzpatrick JW. 2015 Natal territory size, group size, and body mass affect lifetime fitness in the cooperatively breeding Florida Scrub-Jay. *Auk* **132**, 634–646. (doi:10.1642/AUK-14-258.1)

5. Plard F, Gaillard JM, Coulson T, Hewison AJM, Douhard M, Klein F, Delorme D, Warnant C, Bonenfant C. 2015 The influence of birth date via body mass on individual fitness in a long-lived mammal. *Ecology* **96**, 1516–1528. (doi:10.1890/14-0106.1.sm)

6. Nettle D, Andrews C, Reichert S, Bedford T, Kolenda C, Parker C, Martin-Ruiz C, Monaghan P, Bateson M. 2017 Early-life adversity accelerates cellular ageing and affects adult inflammation: Experimental evidence from the European starling. *Sci. Rep.* **7**, 40794. (doi:10.1038/srep40794)

7. Haywood S, Perrins CM. 1992 Is Clutch Size in Birds Affected by Environmental Conditions during Growth? *Proc. R. Soc. London. Ser. B Biol. Sci.* **249**, 195–197. (doi:10.1098/rspb.1992.0103)

8. Grace JK, Martin-Gousset L, Angelier F. 2017 Delayed effect of early-life corticosterone treatment on adult anti-predator behavior in a common passerine. *Physiol. Behav.* **177**, 82–90. (doi:10.1016/j.physbeh.2017.04.018)

9. Pigeon G, Festa-Bianchet M, Pelletier F. 2017 Long-term fitness consequences of early environment in a long-lived ungulate. *Proc. R. Soc. B Biol. Sci.* **284**, 20170222. (doi:10.1098/rspb.2017.0222)

10. Nussey DH, Kruuk LEB, Morris A, Clutton-brock TH. 2007 Environmental conditions in early life influence ageing rates in a wild population of red deer. *Curr. Biol.* **17**, 1000–1001.

11.   Reed TE, Kruuk LEB, Wanless S, Frederiksen M, Cunningham EJA, Harris MP. 2008
Reproductive Senescence in a Long-lived Seabird: Rates of Decline in Late-Life
Performance Are Associated with Varying Costs of Early Reproduction. *Am. Nat.* **171**.
(doi:https://doi.org/10.1086/524957)

12.   Naguib M, Gil D. 2005 Transgenerational effects on body size caused by early
developmental stress in zebra finches. *Biol. Lett.* **1**, 95–97. (doi:10.1098/rsbl.2004.0277)

13.   Drummond H, Rodríguez C. 2013 Costs of growing up as a subordinate sibling are passed to
the next generation in blue-footed boobies. *J. Evol. Biol.* **26**, 625–634.
(doi:10.1111/jeb.12087)

14.   Burton T, Metcalfe NB. 2014 Can environmental conditions experienced in early life
influence future generations□? *Proc. R. Soc. B.* **281**.
(doi:http://dx.doi.org/10.1098/rspb.2014.0311)

15.   Ancona S, Drummond H. 2013 Life History Plasticity of a Tropical Seabird in Response to
El Niño Anomalies during Early Life. *PLoS One* **8**, 1–11.
(doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0072665)

16.   Cartwright SJ, Nicoll MAC, Jones CG, Tatayah V, Norris K. 2014 Anthropogenic natal
environmental effects on life histories in a wild bird population. *Curr. Biol.* **24**, 536–540.
(doi:10.1016/j.cub.2014.01.040)

17.   Dmitriew C, Rowe L. 2007 Effects of early resource limitation and compensatory growth on
lifetime fitness in the ladybird beetle (Harmonia axyridis). *J. Evol. Biol.* **20**, 1298–1310.
(doi:10.1111/j.1420-9101.2007.01349.x)

18.   Douhard M, Loe LE, Stien A, Bonenfant C, Irvine RJ, Veiberg V, Ropstad E, Albon S. 2016
The influence of weather conditions during gestation on life histories in a wild Arctic
ungulate. *Proc. R. Soc. B Biol. Sci.* **283**, 20161760. (doi:10.1098/rspb.2016.1760)

19.   Lemaître JF, Berger V, Bonenfant C, Douhard M, Gamelon M, Plard F, Gaillard JM. 2015
Early-late life trade-offs and the evolution of ageing in the wild. *Proc. R. Soc. B Biol. Sci.*
282. (doi:10.1098/rspb.2015.0209)

20.   Flatt T, Promislow DEL. 2007 Still Pondering an Age-Old Question. *Science (80-.).* **318**,
1255–1256. (doi:10.1126/science.1147491)

21.   Käär P, Jokela J. 1998 Natural selection on age-specific fertilities in human females:

Comparison of individual-level fitness measures. *Proc. R. Soc. B Biol. Sci.* **265**, 2415–2420.

(doi:10.1098/rspb.1998.0592)

22.   Reid JM, Bignal EM, Bignal S, McCracken DI, Monaghan P. 2003 Environmental

variability, life-history covariation and cohort effects in the red-billed chough Pyrrhocorax

pyrrhocorax. *J. Anim. Ecol.* **72**, 36–46. (doi:10.1046/j.1365-2656.2003.00673.x)

23.   Vedder O, Bouwhuis S. 2018 Heterogeneity in individual quality in birds: overall patterns

and insights from a study on common terns. *Oikos* **127**, 719–727. (doi:10.1111/oik.04273)

24.   Tarwater CE, Germain RR, Arcese P. 2018 Examination of context-dependent effects of

natal traits on lifetime reproductive success using a long-term study of a temperate songbird.

Auk **135**, 609–621. (doi:10.1642/AUK-17-177.1)

25.   Lindström J. 1999 Early development and fitness in birds and mammals. *Trends Ecol. Evol.*

14, 343–348. (doi:10.1016/S0169-5347(99)01639-0)

26.   Ancona S, Sánchez-Colón S, Rodríguez C, Drummond H. 2011 El Niño in the Warm

Tropics: Local sea temperature predicts breeding parameters and growth of blue-footed

boobies. *J. Anim. Ecol.* **80**, 799–808. (doi:10.1111/j.1365-2656.2011.01821.x)

27.   Kiere LM, Drummond H. 2016 Female infidelity is constrained by El Niño conditions in a

long-lived bird. *J. Anim. Ecol.* **85**, 960–972. (doi:10.1111/1365-2656.12537)

28.   Kim SY, Torres R, Domínguez CA, Drummond H. 2007 Lifetime philopatry in the blue-

footed booby: A longitudinal study. *Behav. Ecol.* **18**, 1132–1138.

(doi:10.1093/beheco/arm091)

29.   Drummond H, Torres R, Krishnan V V. 2003 Buffered Development- Resilience after

Aggressive Subordination in Infancy. *Am. Nat.* **161**, 794–807. (doi:10.1086/375170)

30.   Drummond H, Rodríguez C. 2015 Viability of booby offspring is maximized by having one

young parent and one old parent. *PLoS One* **10**, 1–14. (doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0133213)

31.   Drummond H, Osorno JL, Torres R, Chavelas CG, Larios HM. 1991 Sexual Size

Dimorphism and Sibling Competition□: Implications for Avian Sex Ratios. *Am. Nat.* **138**,

623–641.

32.   R Development Core Team. 2018 R: A language and environment for statistical computing.

33.   Grueber CE, Nakagawa S, Laws RJ, Jamieson IG. 2011 Multimodel inference in ecology

and evolution: Challenges and solutions. *J. Evol. Biol.* **24**, 699–711. (doi:10.1111/j.1420-
9101.2010.02210.x)

34.   Cade BS. 2015 Model averaging and muddled multimodel inferences. *Ecology* **96**, 2370–
2382. (doi:https://doi.org/10.1890/14-1639.1)

35.   Gelman A, Su Y-S, Yajima M, Hill J, Grazia Pittau M, Kerman J, Zheng T, Dorie V. 2016
Data Analysis Using Regression and Multilevel/Hierarchical Models. *CRAN Repos.*

36.   Bates D, Maechler Martin, Walker S. 2016 Package 'lme4': Linear Mixed-Effects Models
using 'Eigen' and S4. *CRAN Repos.* , 1–113. (doi:10.18637/jss.v067.i01)

37.   Bartón K. 2016 Multi-Model Inference. *CRAN Repos.*

38.   Burnham, Anderson DR, Huyvaert KP. 2011 AIC model selection and multimodel inference
in behavioral ecology: Some background, observations, and comparisons. *Behav. Ecol.*
Sociobiol. **65**, 23–35. (doi:10.1007/s00265-010-1029-6)

39.   Panagakis A, Hamel S, Côté SD. 2017 Influence of Early Reproductive Success on
Longevity and Late Reproductive Success in an Alpine Ungulate. *Am. Nat.* **189**, 667–683.
(doi:10.1086/691388)

40.   Bouwhuis S, Vedder O, Becker PH. 2015 Sex-specific pathways of parental age effects on
offspring lifetime reproductive success in a long-lived seabird. *Evolution (N. Y).* **69**, 1760–
1771. (doi:10.1111/evo.12692)

41.   Pärt T. 1995 Does breeding experience explain increased reproductive success with age？
An experiment. *Proc. Biol. Sci.* **260**, 113–117.

42.   Mourocq E *et al.* 2016 Life span and reproductive cost explain interspecific variation in the
optimal onset of reproduction. *Evolution (N. Y).* **70**, 296–313. (doi:10.1111/evo.12853)

43.   Velando A, Drummond H, Torres R. 2006 Senescent birds redouble reproductive effort
when ill: confirmation of the terminal investment hypothesis. *Proc. Biol. Sci.* **273**, 1443–8.
(doi:10.1098/rspb.2006.3480)

44.   Beamonte-Barrientos R, Velando A, Drummond H, Torres R. 2010 Senescence of Maternal
Effects- Aging Influences Egg Quality and Rearing Capacities of a Long-Lived Bird. *Am.*
Nat. **175**, 469–470. (doi:10.1086/650726)

45.   Torres R, Drummond H, Velando A. 2011 Parental age and lifespan influence offspring

recruitment: a long-term study in a seabird. *PLoS One* **6**, e27245.
(doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0027245)

46. Boyko A. 2008 Optimal age difference cannot differ between monogamous males and
females: A comment on Fieder and Huber. *Biol. Lett.* **4**, 83.
(doi:https://doi.org/10.1098/rsbl.2007.0456)

47. Velando A. 2002 Experimental manipulation of maternal effort produces differential effects
in sons and daughters: implications for adaptive sex ratios in the blue-footed booby. *Behav.*
Ecol. **13**, 443–449. (doi:10.1093/beheco/13.4.443)

48. Torres R, Drummond H. 1997 Female-Biased Mortality in Nestlings of a Bird with Size
Dimorphism. *J. Anim. Ecol.* **66**, 859–865.

49. Rebke M, Coulson T, Becker PH, Vaupel JW. 2010 Reproductive improvement and
senescence in a long-lived bird. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci.* **107**, 7841–7846.
(doi:10.1073/pnas.1002645107)

50. Bowen WD, Iverson SJ, McMillan JI, Boness DJ. 2006 Reproductive performance in grey
seals: age-related improvement and senescence in a capital breeder. *J. Anim. Ecol.* **75**, 1340–
1351. (doi:10.1111/j.1365-2656.2006.01157)

51. Espie RHM, Oliphant LW, James PC, Warkentin IG, Lieske DJ. 2006 Age-Dependent
Breeding Performance in Merlins (Falco columbarius). *Ecology* **81**, 3404.
(doi:10.2307/177503)

52. Robertson RJ, Rendell WB. 2001 A long-term study of reproductive performance in tree
swallows: the influence of age and senescence on output. *J. Anim. Ecol.* **70**, 1014–1031.
(doi:10.1046/j.0021-8790.2001.00555.x)

53. Ancona S, Zúñiga-Vega JJ, Rodríguez C, Drummond H. 2018 Experiencing El Niño
conditions during early life reduces recruiting probabilities but not adult survival. *R. Soc.*
Open Sci. (doi:10.1098/rsos.170076)

54. Whipple M, Douay G, Siberchicot A, Deligiannopoulou A, Gaillard J-M, Lemaître J-F,
Tidière M, Thevenot X. 2018 Maternal reproductive senescence shapes the fitness
consequences of the parental age difference in ruffed lemurs. *Proc. R. Soc. B Biol. Sci.* **285**,
20181479. (doi:10.1098/rspb.2018.1479)

55. Drummond H, González E, Osorno JL. 1986 Parent-offspring cooperation in the blue-footed

boody (Sula nebouxii): social roles in infanticial brood reduction. *Behav. Ecol. Sociobiol.*
19, 365–372. (doi:10.1007/BF00295710)

56.   Drummond H, Garcia Chavelas C. 1989 Food shortage influences sibling aggression in the
blue-footed booby. *Anim. Behav.* **37**, 806–819. (doi:10.1016/0003-3472(89)90065-1)

57.   Metcalfe NB, Monaghan P. 2001 Compensation for a bad start: Grow now, pay later?
Trends Ecol. Evol. **16**, 254–260. (doi:10.1016/S0169-5347(01)02124-3)

58.   Corrège T, Delcroix T, Récy J, Beck W, Cabioch G, Le Cornec F. 2000 Evidence for
stronger El Niño-Southern Oscillation (ENSO) events in a mid-Holocene massive coral.
Paleoceanography **15**, 465–470. (doi:10.1029/1999PA000409)