What is the best fitness measure in wild populations? A case study on the power of short-term fitness proxies to predict reproductive value

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18 Abstract

19 Fitness is at the core of evolutionary theory, but it is difficult to measure accurately. One way to measure 20 long-term fitness is by calculating the individual's reproductive value, which represents the expected 21 number of allele copies an individual passes on to distant future generations. However, this metric of fitness is scarcely used because the estimation of individual's reproductive value requires long-term 22 pedigree data, which is rarely available in wild populations where following individuals from birth to 23 death is often impossible. Wild study systems therefore use short-term fitness metrics as proxies, such 24 as the number of offspring produced. This study obtained three frequently used short-term proxies for 25 fitness obtained at different offspring life stages (eggs, hatchlings, fledglings and recruits), and 26 compared their ability to predict reproductive values derived from the genetic pedigree of a wild 27 28 passerine bird population. We used twenty years of precise field observations and a near-complete genetic pedigree to calculate reproductive success, individual growth rate and de-lifed fitness as lifetime 29 fitness measures, and as annual de-lifed fitness. We compared the power of these metrics to predict 30 31 reproductive values and lineage survival to the end of the study period. The three short-term fitness 32 proxies predict the reproductive values and lineage survival only when measured at the recruit stage. 33 There were no significant differences between the different fitness proxies at the same offspring stages 34 in predicting the reproductive values and lineage survival. Annual fitness at one year old predicted 35 reproductive values equally well as lifetime de-lifed fitness. However, none of the short-term fitness 36 proxies was strongly associated with the reproductive values. In summary, the commonly short-term 37 fitness proxies capture long-term fitness with intermediate accuracy at best, if measured at recruitment 38 stage. As lifetime fitness measured at recruit stage and annual fitness in the first year of life were the 39 best proxies of long-term fitness, we encourage their future use.

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41 Keywords: de-lifing, reproductive values, fitness, individual growth rate, lifetime reproductive success

42 Introduction

The concept of fitness is central to evolutionary theory (1). Natural selection maximises fitness, which is therefore a driving force of evolution as well as a measure of evolutionary success (2). One definition of fitness is how good an individual is at spreading its genes into future generations, relative to all other individuals in the population (2). A universal definition of fitness in mathematical terms that applies to all population structures and dynamics is however not agreed on (2–5).

Ecological studies measure fitness in diverse ways, often depending on the research question, the population dynamics, and the ecology of the study species (6,7). While some studies measure fitness across lifetimes, other studies measure individual annual fitness to examine variation in selection between years (8). Lifetime fitness is considered more accurate than annual measures, as the latter is influenced by environmental stochasticity (7,9). Alternative fitness measures have been developed that account for environmental stochasticity and population dynamics (5,10–12).

54 Some fitness metrics include both survival and fecundity components (8,13), while others focus on only one component as a proxy, such as lifespan (4), or on only a single life-history trait, such as the age at 55 first reproduction (13,14). The two most commonly used individual fitness proxies are lifetime 56 57 reproductive success (LRS) (15) and individual growth rate (IGR) (13). Both count the number of 58 offspring produced in the individual's lifetime, but IGR gives more weight to offspring produced at a younger age (13), therefore results differ (16). As a consequence, different fitness proxies do not 59 60 necessarily correlate well (7) and more research is needed to determine which is the most appropriate 61 measures of fitness (6). Choosing the appropriate fitness proxy is therefore an important consideration 62 when designing a study (7).

The age of an offspring at the time it is included in the fitness measurement of the parent must also be considered, particularly given that studies count offspring at varying ages or life-history stages. Offspring survival can be both a part of offspring fitness due to its unique genotype, or a part of parental fitness in cases where parental phenotype affects offspring mortality, for example through parental care (17). Counting offspring at higher stages of development assigns a part of offspring fitness into parental

fitness, thus potentially affecting the strength and direction of selection. Furthermore, Brommer et al.
(6) show that the age of offspring census directly affects IGR values, while it does not affect LRS,
making the two fitness proxies less comparable at different stages. It is therefore important to
understand what census time best captures parental fitness.

72 Although fitness is considered to be a measure of an individual's gene copy frequency in future 73 generations, most fitness proxies focus on an individual's direct descendants. Alternatively, the 74 reproductive value from a single individual, defined as the expected number of copies of each of an 75 individual's alleles in a future generation conditional on a realised pedigree of descendants, can be used 76 to measure long-term fitness (18). The reproductive values can be estimated from a genetic pedigree, following rules of mendelian inheritance to calculate how many allele copies survive on average. The 77 78 reproductive values stabilise after $\log_2 N$ generations, where N is the population size (4,18,19). While 79 the ultimate genetic contribution of an individual will only emerge over long timescales (>100 generations), the reproductive values are determined in ~10 generations and are a good predictor of the 80 81 ultimate genetic contribution (18).

The reproductive values closely predict allele survival probability, but not their frequencies (18). Due to recombination and segregation in meiosis, the actual genetic frequencies, conditional on allele survival, instead follow a random distribution (18–21). Consequently, not all genealogical ancestors are also genetic ancestors (22). Despite the difference between actual allele frequencies and the reproductive values, reproductive value is a practical and relevant measure for evolutionary studies as it is maximised by natural selection, thus closely corresponding to fitness (18,23).

This study examined the correlation between several short-term fitness proxies and reproductive values. We used data from an isolated house sparrow (*Passer domesticus*) population on Lundy Island (United Kingdom) with 20 years of life history data, unusually precise measures of survival and reproductive success, and nearly complete genetic pedigree information (24). We examined the two most commonly used individual fitness proxies based on fecundity (25): lifetime reproductive success (LRS) and individual growth rate (IGR) (13). We measured both at four different offspring stages (eggs, hatchlings, fledglings, and recruits) to investigate which are most accurate. We also used a short-term

- 95 fitness proxy that incorporates survival de-lifed fitness (8). This is based on individual offspring
- 96 production and survival adjusted for population growth.

97 Methods

98 Study system

99 The house sparrow population on Lundy Island has been continuously monitored since 2000. Lundy is 100 a small island 19 km off the south-west English coast (51°11N, 4°40W). In 2000, 50 individuals were 101 brought to Lundy from the mainland for an experiment (26). Due to the distance of the island from the 102 mainland and the sedentary nature of sparrows, there is minimal dispersal to and from the island (24). 103 The sparrow population size has fluctuated between 166 and 1242 individuals (juveniles included) 104 between 1999 and 2019 (Fig 1A).

105 During systematic annual monitoring, each sparrow is ringed with three colour rings and one metal ring 106 from the British Trust for Ornithology. Since most sparrows are initially caught as nestlings and ringed 107 as fledglings, we know the identities of the parents attending their nests, and the exact age of all 108 individuals (27). Over 99% of the population has been ringed since 2000 (27). If an individual is not 109 seen for two years or more, it is assumed dead, with this assumption based on previous mark-recapture 110 success data (27,28). Blood samples are collected upon bird capture and genotyped at up to 23 microsatellite loci (24). This allows for the assignment of genetic parentage with 95% confidence (24). 111 From the genetic pedigree and the social brood information, the reproductive success of individuals is 112 calculated. Thanks to these data, the study system provides unusually accurate survival, reproduction, 113 and pedigree data for the complete population (24). 114

115 Pedigree analysis

We calculated fitness proxies and the reproductive values for founders and half-founders that were born between 1999 and 2002, the starting years of the long-term study. Founders and half-founders were defined as individuals for which both parents, or one parent, respectively, were unknown. To calculate reproductive values, we used our genetic pedigree containing all reproducing individuals up to 2018. We removed any individuals from cohorts after 2002 that had at least one unknown parent; thus 8% of all individuals in the pedigree were removed.

122 Reproductive values were calculated using gene dropping (29). Gene dropping is a computer simulation in which each individual is assigned two alleles (one paternal and one maternal), and their Mendelian 123 transmission down the pedigree is simulated. By repeating this simulation many times and calculating 124 the mean values, robust estimates of reproductive values can be obtained by examining the frequency 125 126 of an individual's alleles in subsequent generations. In addition, the allele survival probability can be 127 calculated by examining in how many simulations the allele survives in present-day individuals. We 128 ran the simulation 10,000 times using R package nadiv (30). Using the results, we derived lineage 129 longevity, reproductive values, and allele survival probability. We define lineage longevity as the 130 number of years before a lineage originating from one individual goes extinct, and allele survival 131 probability is the proportion of gene dropping simulations in which a lineage survives. We explored 132 whether lineages from the experimentally introduced sparrows differed from native lineages in their 133 rate of survival to 2018 (last year with complete data) and in their reproductive values. We chose to 134 work with years rather than generations as a measure of time because sparrows have overlapping generations. 135

136 Short-term fitness metrics

137 We calculated the short-term fitness proxies for the founders and half-founders from cohorts between 1999 and 2002 with complete life-history data. Founders with incomplete life-history data were 138 139 removed because this could lead to an underestimation of their reproductive success. The individual lifetime production of eggs, broods, hatchlings, fledglings, and recruits was then calculated, as well as 140 IGR at all four offspring stages, and de-lifed fitness. Hatchlings were defined as offspring counted in a 141 142 nest two days after hatching, and fledglings were birds that survived until ringing, which is typically 12 143 days after hatching. Recruits were defined as offspring that successfully reproduced and produced at 144 least one egg in any subsequent years.

The IGR is the dominant eigenvalue of an individual population transition matrix, as described in (13). In an individual population transition matrix, the sub-diagonal represents survival, and the first row is filled with the number of offspring produced at each parental age, divided by two to account for parent– offspring relatedness being ½. An example of an individual population transition matrix for an

individual that survived three years and had 1, 2 and 1 offspring at ages 1, 2, and 3 respectively, is given

150 below:

151
$$\begin{bmatrix} 0.5 & 1 & 0.5 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

152 We also calculated annual de-lifed fitness based on the formula (8):

153
$$p_{ti} = \frac{\xi_{t(i)} - w_{t(i)}}{N_t - 1}$$

154 Where:

155 • p_{ti} is individual fitness

156 • $\xi_{t(i)}$ is the number of individual's surviving offspring at the end of the time step plus one if the 157 individual survived

- $w_{t(i)}$ is the population size in year t+1 divided by population size in year t
- N_t is the population size of adults on 1st April each year

While LRS and IGR are both lifetime fitness measures, de-lifing was designed primarily as a pergeneration fitness proxy and is here calculated annually. However, lifetime de-lifed fitness can be obtained by summing the annual fitness values for each individual (8,31). We therefore used de-lifed fitness as both an annual fitness proxy and, after summing, as a lifetime fitness proxy.

We calculated Pearson's correlation between each fitness metric and the reproductive values for the lineages that survived. We ran a binary logistic regression model in R version 4.0.3 (32), using MCMCglmm (33) with lineage survival to 2018 as the response variable, and each fitness metric as the explanatory variable. The fitness metrics were z-transformed so that the slopes were not affected by the variable variances. We used priors with the residual variance fixed at 0.5 and ran the model for 100,000 iterations with the thinning interval set at 70 and the burn-in at 7,000. We examined which fitness metric had the strongest association with reproductive values based on the slope of the regression.

172 Ethics statement

173 As this was a theoretical study using previously selected data, no ethics approval was required.

174 Results

175 Reproductive values

176 There were in total 111 lineages arising between 1999 and 2002 used for the analyses. Of these 111 lineages, 18 lineages were founded by sparrows experimentally introduced in 2000 (26) and 93 lineages 177 stem from native sparrows already present on the island in 2000. Forty-three lineages survived to 2018, 178 of which 11 were introduced and 32 were native. Hence, at most, 39% of the founders passed genetic 179 180 material to 2018, and there was no statistically significant association between a lineage's origin and 181 survival (p = 0.06, Fisher's exact test). The mean lineage survival probability was 0.16 (95% CI 0.13– 0.18), and the survival probability for lineages appearing in 2018 was 0.40 (95% CI 0.37–0.43, Fig 1A). 182 183 There was variation in the absolute reproductive values (mean = 1.64, 95% CI 1.32–1.95 range: 0.41– 18.89, Fig 1B). The introduced lineages had on average higher reproductive values than native lineages 184 (t = 2.70, df = 17.90, p = 0.015). Contributions varied over time, but after 2007 fluctuations were more 185 synchronous among lineages, and the ranking of lineages based on their reproductive values remained 186 187 similar (Fig 1E). Population fluctuations closely follow fluctuations in the reproductive values in the 188 previous year. The change in lineage behaviour after 2007 is visible in lineage longevity, as all lineages that survived the from 2000 to 2006 also survived until 2018 (Fig 1C). After 2007, the correlation 189 between annual reproductive value and reproductive values in 2018 also increased, and stabilised 190 191 around 2011 subsequent to which the correlation was above 0.95 (Fig 1D).

- 193 Fig 1: (A) Reproductive values and population size during the study period. Bars represent the population size
- and lines represent the reproductive values of each of the 43 lineages that survived to 2018. (B) Survival
- 195 probability of 111 house sparrow lineages on Lundy Island from 1999 to 2018. (C) Reproductive values of the
- 196 111 lineages. (D) Number of years to lineage extinction for the 111 lineages. Lineages that survived 18, 19, 20
- 197 or 21 years are those that were still extant in 2018, corresponding to cohorts 1999, 2000, 2001 and 2002
- 198 respectively. (E) Correlation between the reproductive values in each year and the final year.

200 Fitness proxies

- 201 Fitness proxies were calculated for 86 founders, 44 males and 42 females. We estimated the correlation
- with the reproductive values of 42 lineages that survived to 2018 and had no missing fitness data. In
- total, individuals included in the analysis produced 2,054 eggs of which 1,746 (85%) survived to
- hatching, 881 (43%) to fledging and 294 (14%) recruited into the breeding population.
- 205 The fitness proxies were all positively associated with the reproductive values (Fig. 2). De-lifed fitness,
- 206 IGR and LRS for recruits were all statistically significantly correlated with the reproductive values.
- 207 There were no statistically significant differences between the IGR, LRS and de-lifed fitness correlation
- 208 coefficients. None of the other correlation estimates were statistically significant (Table 1). De-lifed
- fitness at ages 1 and 2 significantly correlated with reproductive value, but in older age classes the
- 210 correlation estimate was not statistically significant (Figs 3A and 3B).

212

213	Fig 2: Correlation between each of the fitness proxies at different life stages with reproductive value. Error
214	bars represent 95% confidence intervals. Black bars represent significant results, while light grey bars
215	represent non-significant results.
216	
217	Fig 3: (A) Correlation between reproductive value and de-lifed fitness by age class (in years), with 95%

218 confidence intervals. N represents the sample size. Older age classes have lower sample sizes because fewer

219 *individuals survive to that age. (B) Correlation between de-lifed fitness and reproductive value. The black cross*

220 represents mean de-lifed fitness for the respective age. Colours represent the same age class.

222 Table 1: Mean and standard deviation for short-term fitness proxies at different offspring stages, and de-lifed

223 *fitness at different ages.*

	Mean	SD
LRS Eggs	23.78	18.02
LRS Broods	5.80	4.26
LRS Hatchlings	20.30	16.04
LRS Fledglings	10.24	7.85
LRS Recruits	3.42	3.36
De-lifing	0.01	0.03
IGR eggs	4.24	1.53
IGR hatchlings	3.71	1.37
IGR fledglings	2.43	0.99
IGR recruits	1.13	0.78
De-lifing – Age 1	0.0003	0.0198
De-lifing – Age 2	0.0056	0.0170
De-lifing – Age 3	0.0027	0.0115
De-lifing – Age 4	0.0023	0.0087
De-lifing – Age 5	0.0033	0.0048
De-lifing – Age 6	0.0005	0.0046

²²⁴

There was a significant positive relationship between lineage survival odds and de-lifed fitness, LRS at recruitment and fledgling stages, and IGR at recruitment (Table 2). The estimated slopes for the delifed fitness and LRS recruits were significantly higher than the slopes of IGR and LRS at fledgling stage as their 95% confidence intervals are non-overlapping, indicating that fitness measured at the recruitment stage for these two metrics is a better predictor of lineage survival. There were no statistically significant differences between IGR, LRS and de-lifed fitness at the same offspring stage (Table 2).

233 Table 2: Results of binary logistic regressions with lineage survival as a response variable. I-95% CI and u-

234 95% CI are the lower and upper boundaries of the 95% confidence interval for the slope, respectively.

Variable	Slope	l-95% CI	u-95% Cl	p value
LRS eggs	0.42	-0.07	0.95	0.101
LRS hatchlings	0.45	-0.08	0.95	0.063
LRS fledglings	1.06	0.41	1.71	0.001*
LRS recruits	3.26	1.73	4.74	0.001*
LRS broods	0.47	-0.02	0.96	0.056
IGR eggs	0.24	-0.21	0.75	0.310
IGR hatchlings	0.35	-0.09	0.87	0.167
IGR fledglings	1.06	0.49	1.71	0.002
IGR recruits	2.65	1.67	3.70	0.001*
De-lifed fitness	3.01	1.74	4.32	0.001*

236 Discussion

We showed that fitness proxies measured at recruit stage correlates best with long-term reproductivevalues and lineage survival, while fitness proxies measured at earlier stages are less useful.

239 Similar to a study by (4) lineage survival is low. While there was no difference in the rate of lineage survival between native and introduced lineages, the introduced lineages had significantly higher 240 reproductive values. This indicates that the introduced lineages might have a fitness advantage over the 241 native ones. For lineages that survived to 2018, there was wide variation in survival probability and 242 reproductive value. The survival probability of a lineage is associated with its reproductive value in that 243 244 year (4,18). While several lineages died out every year prior to 2007, all lineages that survived the bottleneck in 2008 also survived the next 10 years to 2018. Lineage extinctions are expected to become 245 246 less likely over the generations, as all founders with non-zero reproductive values become genealogical 247 ancestors of all individuals in the future population after only a few generations (19,22). After a founder 248 becomes an ancestor of all individuals in the current population, its lineage can only go extinct if the 249 entire population goes extinct. During the 2008 bottleneck, the population size decreased significantly, 250 shortening the time it took for all founders of persisting lineages to become the common ancestors of 251 the current population members.

252 There was variation in reproductive value, with most lineages ranging from 0 to 10 but some reaching 253 contributions of over four times that much. There was also large variation over time as lineages 254 fluctuated. Lineage stabilisation is also visible in the pattern of lineage fluctuation through time after 2007, as the ranking of lineages based on reproductive value remains similar. The rapidly increasing 255 256 correlation between reproductive value in the final year and each of the previous years also shows a 257 pattern of stabilisation, as found in other studies too (4,18,34). Stabilisation is reached after 12 years, with the correlation exceeding 0.95 afterwards. Despite stabilisation, reproductive values fluctuated 258 259 through time. As we examined reproductive values that are absolute rather than relative to population size, any change in population size is also reflected in the sum of the reproductive values the year before. 260 261 The change in reproductive value occurs one year previously, because the estimates are based on

reproducing offspring, which are only recognised in the next year and form the basis of next year'spopulation.

264 The fitness proxies based on the number of recruits outperformed all other fitness proxies in predicting 265 reproductive values and lineage survival. Recruits are likely to be the best measure because they are adult individuals that reproduced, while other proxies include the uncertainty of survival to adulthood 266 267 before reproduction even occurs. Given that sparrow offspring experience high rates of mortality, with only 14% of laid eggs successfully surviving to recruitment, mortality will have a big impact on 268 269 reproductive values from short-term metrics measured at early offspring stages. For species with lower 270 offspring mortality the age at which offspring are counted towards fitness may have less influence on the predictive power of short-term fitness metrics. While recruits are clearly the best predictor of long-271 term fitness, they are the most difficult to measure in most study systems, as it is rarely possible to 272 monitor all offspring until their first reproduction. This highlights the importance of long-term isolated 273 274 island population studies (35), as only in such studies is it possible to accurately estimate the number of genetic recruits that an individual produced. 275

We found no differences in the performance of de-lifed fitness, IGR or LRS in predicting reproductive values or lineage survival. A previous study on Ural owls (*Strix uralensis*) and collared flycatchers (*Ficedula albicollis*) found that LRS performed significantly better than IGR at fledgling stage in predicting reproductive values, while they both performed similarly at recruitment (10). The correlation between reproductive value and different fitness proxies at recruit stage was of similar strength as discovered in previous studies (4,10).

In this study, annual de-lifed fitness at ages 1 and 2 were correlated with the reproductive values, but not at later ages. The correlation at age 1 with reproductive value was similar to that for lifetime delifed fitness, indicating that reproductive success in the first adult year may be sufficient to provide a good prediction of long-term fitness. Hence, individual reproductive performance in the first year may be an important proxy for an individual's fitness. There is, however, considerable variation that is not explained by the fitness metrics. A strong correlation between a short-term fitness metric and the reproductive value measured two decades later, during which the population has been exposed to varying environmental conditions and population fluctuations, is unlikely. The strength of the correlation will also depend on the additive genetic variance and heritability of reproductive success (4). In particular, in our population annual fitness is somewhat heritable (36), and there has been significant demographic stochasticity in our population for which LRS and IGR metrics tested here were not designed (37).

294 The underlying theoretical results about reproductive value were derived under the assumption of 295 diploid Wright-Fisher population and weak selection (18). The Lundy sparrow population might not meet these assumptions, as there could be undetected strong selection and non-random mating. The 296 sparrow population can therefore be used to test theoretical predictions on real data but could lead to 297 erroneous conclusions if assumptions are severely breached. Despite that, reproductive values can lead 298 299 to new insights about natural selection and evolutionary outcomes, such as inbreeding, lineage introgression or cohort effects (2,4,34). Particularly in the presence of environmental, social, or 300 demographic interactions, such as those occurring in any wild population, studying fitness across an 301 entire lineage by examining reproductive values can potentially lead to better estimation of 302 303 evolutionary outcomes for a certain allele (38).

In conclusion, by using reproductive values as a measure of long-term individual fitness we have shown that recruits, rather than earlier offspring stages, best predict reproductive values. Additionally, annual fitness measured in the first reproductive season is an equally good predictor of fitness as lifetime fitness measures. We therefore suggest that future studies should measure short-term fitness at higher offspring ages to better capture long-term fitness.

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Figure 2





Figure 3



Figure 1