

# Reproductive senescence and parental effects in an indeterminate grower

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#### ▶ To cite this version:

Charlotte Depeux, Jean-François Lemaître Lemaître, Jérôme Moreau, François-xavier Dechaume-moncharmont, Tiffany Laverre, et al.. Reproductive senescence and parental effects in an indeterminate grower. Journal of Evolutionary Biology, 2020, 33, pp.1256-1264. 10.1111/jeb.13667. hal-03060301

## HAL Id: hal-03060301 https://hal.science/hal-03060301v1

Submitted on 14 Dec 2020

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## 1 Reproductive senescence and parental effect in an

## indeterminate grower

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3 4 Short running title: Reproductive senescence in the woodlouse 5 Charlotte DEPEUX<sup>1, 2</sup>, Jean-François LEMAÎTRE<sup>2</sup>, Jérôme MOREAU<sup>3,4</sup>, François-Xavier 6 DECHAUME-MONCHARMONT<sup>5</sup>, Tiffany LAVERRE<sup>1</sup>, Hélène PAUHLAC<sup>1</sup>, Jean-Michel 7 8 GAILLARD<sup>2</sup>, Sophie BELTRAN-BECH<sup>1</sup> 9 10 1 Université de Poitiers, Laboratoire Ecologie et Biologie des Interactions, UMR CNRS 7267, 5 rue Albert Turpin, TSA51106 86073 POITIERS Cedex 9, France. 11 12 13 2 Université Lyon 1, Laboratoire de Biométrie et Biologie Evolutive UMR CNRS 558, 43 Boulevard du 11 novembre 1918,69622 Villeurbanne cedex, France. 14 15 16 3 UMR CNRS 6282 Biogéosciences, Université Bourgogne Franche-Comté, 6 Boulevard, 17 Gabriel, 21000 Dijon, France 18 19 4 Centre d'Études Biologiques de Chizé, UMR 7372, CNRS & La Rochelle Université, 79360 20 Villiers-en-bois, France 21 5 Univ Lyon, Université Claude Bernard Lyon 1, CNRS, ENTPE, UMR 5023 LEHNA, F-69622, 22 Villeurbanne, France\* Corresponding author: charlotte.depeux@gmail.fr 23 24 **Acknowledgments** 25 26 This work was supported by the French ministry of Education, the 2015–2020 State-Region 27 PlanningContract and European Regional Development Fund and intramural funds from the 28 Centre Nationalde la Recherche Scientifique and the University of Poitiers and by a grant from 29 the Agence Nationalede la Recherche (ANR-15-CE32-0002-01). We would like to thank Sylvine 30 Durand, Cybèle Prigot, Ophélie Trainson, Clémentine Préau and Marius Bredon for our 31 constructive exchanges about that work as well as Alexandra Lafitte for technical assistance. We

would also like to thank Richard Cordaux and Xavier Bonnet for their insightful comments.

#### **Conflict of Interest**

35 The authors declare that there is no conflict of interest.

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#### **Abstract**

Reproductive senescence is the decrease of reproductive performance with increasing age and can potentially include trans-generational effects as the offspring produced by old parents might have a lower fitness than those produced by young parents. This negative effect may be caused either by the age of the father, mother, or the interaction between the ages of both parents. Using the common woodlouse *Armadillidium vulgare*, an indeterminate grower, as a biological model, we tested for the existence of a deleterious effect of parental age on fitness components. Contrary to previous findings reported from vertebrate studies, old parents produced both a higher number and larger offspring than young parents. However, their offspring had lower fitness components (by surviving less, producing a smaller number of clutches, or not reproducing at all) than offspring born to young parents. Our findings strongly support the existence of trans-generational senescence in woodlice and contradict the belief that old individuals in indeterminate growers contribute the most to recruitment and correspond thereby to the key life stage for population dynamics. Our work also provides rare evidence that the trans-generational effect of senescence can be stronger than direct reproductive senescence in indeterminate growers.

### **Keywords**

Reproductive success, aging, Armadillidium vulgare, clutch size, indeterminate growth

#### Introduction

Deciphering the eco-evolutionary roots of inter-individual variation in reproductive success is a long-standing objective in evolutionary biology. Many overall (e.g. temperature, photoperiod) and biotic (e.g. social relationships, population density, predation, food availability) factors can modulate reproductive success in both vertebrates and invertebrates (e.g. Descamps *et al.*, 2008; Geister *et al.*, 2008; Schwanz, 2008; Bertram, 2009; Donelson *et al.*, 2010). Within a given population, individual attributes such as age and size are also associated with reproductive performance in most animals (Clutton-Brock, 1991). However, reproductive success, usually measured as the number of offspring produced at some pre-defined stage, (i.e. conception, birth, or independence of offspring) does not account for the entire process of reproduction. In an evolutionary context where the performance of offspring matters because it shapes Darwinian

- 67 fitness (at the individual level) and growth (at the population level), a trans-generational approach
- 68 is required.
- Among the factors that influence the fate of offspring, the role of parental age is currently
- attracting considerable attention (see Lemaître & Gaillard, 2017 for a review). Evidence of a
- decrease in reproductive performance at old age has accumulated in the last decades (Nussey et
- 72 al., 2013) and empirical studies have reported evidence of reproductive senescence in a large
- range of reproductive traits including clutch size (Tabata & Teshiba, 2018), juvenile mass or size
- 74 (Sharp & Clutton-Brock, 2010; Barks & Laird, 2016), offspring survival (Packer et al., 1998),
- offspring reproduction (Ducatez et al., 2012) or offspring lifespan (Lansing, 1947; Barks &
- Laird, 2016). Interestingly, when Lansing (1947) published his pioneering study demonstrating a
- 77 negative effect of parental age on offspring lifespan in rotifers, he made no explicit distinction
- between the maternal and paternal ages. However, most studies of this process (i.e. the so-called
- Lansing effect) have focused on maternal age (Lemaître & Gaillard, 2017) while old paternal age
- should also negatively influence offspring performance (Lemaître & Gaillard, 2017) as a result of
- decreasing sperm quality with increasing paternal age (Johnson & Gemmell, 2012). Studies
- 82 looking at the effect of both maternal and paternal ages as well as their potential interactions are
- now strongly required (Dzyuba, 2006; Tidière et al., 2018).
- 84 So far, most studies of parental age effect focused on determinate growers (especially long-lived
- birds and mammals) (Fay et al., 2016), which are supposed to show stronger senescence than
- so indeterminate growers (Vaupel et al., 2004). In indeterminate growers the number of offspring
- produced per reproductive attempt is expected to increase with age, which should counter-select
- 88 reproductive senescence in terms of fecundity (Vaupel et al., 2004; Jones et al., 2014). For
- 89 example, in fish populations, older and so bigger individuals generally have a higher reproductive
- success than younger and smaller individuals (Venturelli et al., 2009), which might be due to the
- 91 production of high quality eggs by old females (e.g. Vallin & Nissling, 2000 in the Atlantic cod,
- 92 Gadus morhua). Age classes largely differ in size in indeterminate growers, which makes mating
- between individuals from distinct cohorts difficult, if not impossible. In such species, both
- selective pressure and physical constraints during mating can lead to a pattern of size- (and thus
- age-) assortative mating (Crespi, 1989). Thus, reproductive senescence can be exacerbated by the
- cumulative effects of both maternal and paternal ages (Lemaître & Gaillard, 2017). While
- 97 investigations of reproductive senescence are mandatory to refine our current understanding of

the evolution of senescence (Jones & Vaupel, 2017), such studies are still lacking, especially in invertebrates. Here, we aim to fill this knowledge gap by investigating whether reproductive senescence occurs in an indeterminate grower, the common woodlouse Armadillidium vulgare, and whether advanced parental age negatively influences offspring fitness components.

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#### **Materials and Methods**

Biological model

105 The common woodlouse is a terrestrial isopod that can live up to three years (Paris & Pitelka, 106

1962). This species exhibits indeterminate growth and as such large size differences across

individuals can be observed. For instance, an old individual could be up to ten times larger than a

newly mature individual (Brody et al., 1983). Therefore, physical constraints prevent young

individuals to mate with old ones, leading to a pattern of assortative mating in both size and age

at the population level (Lefebvre et al., 2019). Female parental care is energetically costly in this

species as females actively carry and protect their offspring in a marsupium for a month (Surbida

& Wright, 2001). Offspring develop in this pouch and benefit from a protected environment and

nutrients provided by their mother (Surbida & Wright, 2001). As the incubation of the offspring

takes place in the marsupium, the size of the females is closely associated with the number of

offspring produced (Paris & Pitelka, 1962; Dangerfield & Hassall, 1992; Durand et al., 2018).

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All individuals of A. vulgare used in our experiment came from a natural population collected in

Denmark (Helsingör) in 1982. All the specimens were virgin at the beginning of the study and

had been maintained on moistened compost and subjected to Poitiers natural photoperiod (86;

46° 34′ 55" N; 0° 20′ 10" E) at 20°C with food provided ad libitum (i.e. slices of fresh carrots and

dried leaves of linden, *Tilia* sp). These conditions were repeated across all experiments.

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#### Differences of reproductive performance between young and old parents

124 We set up two groups of 40 breeding pairs comprising of one male and one female: one group

was made up of old parents (36-months-old) and another group was made up of young ones (12-

months old). The mass of each individual was initially checked to control for variation within age

groups. Young individuals weighed (mean  $\pm$  sd)  $0.081g \pm 0.027g$  and old ones  $0.293g \pm 0.044g$ .

All 80 breeding pairs were weekly monitored throughout 7 months (i.e. during the entire

reproductive season, from January to July) and when females were gravid, they were isolated and placed in boxes with wet paper towel. Only the first clutch produced was used because very few breeding pairs produced a second clutch. We computed the breeding rate according to age (the probability to produce a clutch) for each parental group (i.e. young parents and old parents). We recorded the number of offspring per clutch (hereafter called clutch size). The entire clutch was weighed and then divided by clutch size to obtain the mean offspring mass at birth. The experimental design is presented in Figure 1.

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#### Inter-generational traits: offspring mass, survival and reproductive success

We monitored the offspring during the most critical period of their lives (0-18 months). Indeed, in the wild, only 11% of individuals are able to reach 2-years-old (Paris & Pitelka, 1962). To estimate survival, we counted offspring from the previous breeding pairs a first time at birth, a second time at 5 months of age, then at 12 months of age and finally at 18 months of age (Figure 1). The number of surviving offspring counted at each time allowed estimating offspring survival from 0 to 5 months of age, offspring survival from 5 to 12 months of age, offspring survival from 12 to 18 months of age and total offspring survival (i.e. from 0 to 18 months of age). Offspring were weighed as 12 ( $\pm$  1) months old and then as 18 ( $\pm$  1) months old to obtain the offspring mass at 12 months of age and the offspring mass at 18 months of age. To estimate reproductive success of offspring born from young or old parents, we set up, when they are sexually mature (i.e.1-year-old, Paris & Pitelka, 1962), 4 combinations of 20 breeding pairs (avoiding brothers and sisters): (i) offspring from old parents together, (ii) female offspring from old parents with male offspring from young parents, (iii) females offspring from young parents with male offspring from old parents, and (iv) offspring from young parents together. To avoid pseudoreplication issues (sensu Hurlbert 1984), we analyzed the reproductive status (i.e. reproduction success or failure) of the pair as function of the age group of the female's parents in interaction with the age group of the father' parents.

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#### Statistical analysis

All statistical analyses were performed using the software R 3.6.0 (R Core Development Team 2019). For each model, we followed a model selection procedure to identify the minimal model, or the set of adequate models (Anderson & Burnham, 2002). Starting from the full model, we

160 ranked all the nested models based on their AIC. Among the top ranked models (delta AIC < 2), 161 we only retained the most parsimonious ones: if one of these models was simply a more complex 162 form of another one listed among the top rank models, for instance because it contained an 163 additional parameter (variable or interaction term), this parameter was ignored and the more 164 complex model was not retained (Galipaud et al., 2014, Supplementary file 1). For the mean 165 offspring mass at birth, at 12 months of age and at 18 months of age as for offspring survival at 5 166 months of age, between 5 and 12 months of age and at 18 months of age we first tested for an 167 effect of clutch size. When clutch size had a statistically significant effect (see Supplementary file 168 2), it was systematically included in the set of considered models (see Berger et al., 2015 for a 169 similar approach). 170 Breeding rate as binary data has been modelled using a generalized linear model (GLM) with 171 binomial distribution with parent's age ('young parents' vs. 'old parents') as a fixed factor. 172 Clutch size was modelled using a linear model (LM) with normal distribution with parent's age 173 as a fixed factor. The mean offspring mass at birth was modelled using a linear model (LM) with 174 a normal distribution because only the average clutch mass was recorded (i.e. individual body 175 mass within a clutch could not be measured at birth). Offspring mass at 12 months of age and 176 offspring mass at 18 months of age were analysed with a linear mixed effect models (LMM) with 177 a normal distribution, using parent's age, offspring sex and their interaction as fixed factors and 178 the breeding pairs identity as a random effect to take into account a potential genetic effect. The 179 survival to 5 months of age was modelled with a generalized linear mixed effect model (GLMM) 180 with a binomial distribution, the parent's age and clutch size were the fixed factors, and the 181 breeding pairs identity was the random effect. The offspring survival from 5 to 12 months of age, 182 from 12 to 18 months of age, and the overall survival (i.e. from 0 to 18 months of age) have been 183 modelled as binary data using generalized linear mixed effect models (GLMM) with a binomial 184 distribution, parent's age and offspring sex and their interaction added to the clutch size were the 185 fixed factors and the breeding pairs identity was used as the random effect. The breeding rate of 186 offspring was modelled with binary data using a generalized linear model (GLM), with mother's 187 age and father's age and their interaction as fixed factors. 188 Finally, reproductive senescence can be masked by the selective disappearance of low quality 189 individuals (Nussey et al., 2008). For a given age larger females produce more offspring in the 190 common woodlouse and body mass is thus generally thought to be a good indicator of individual

quality (Durand *et al.*, 2018). We tested for such relationships by modelling the breeding rate as binary data using a generalized linear model (GLM) with maternal mass set as a fixed factor within the young and old mothers separately. Then, in absence of repeated data on individuals over the life course, we tested for a putative influence of selective disappearance on our results by testing within the old parents group whether the first 50% of individuals that encounter premature death were lighter than the individuals that survived beyond the median life span. When doing this the effect of mass on survival of the old individual group has been modelled as binary data using a generalized linear model (GLM) with binomial distribution with individual mass, sex and their interaction as fixed factors.

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#### Results

- Differences of reproductive performance between young and old parents
- Old parents (40 breeding pairs) produced 16 clutches, while young parents (40 breeding pairs)
- 204 produced 24 clutches. No detectable difference was found concerning the breeding rate. The
- 205 model with only the intercept was selected, but if we looked the non-selected model concerning
- the effect of age on the breeding rate, we found that the breeding rate tended to decrease with
- increasing parental age (estimate  $\pm$  SE=-0.76  $\pm$  0.45, LR Chisq<sub>1</sub>=2.86, P=0.09; Table 1; Figure
- 208 2). Moreover, old parents produced more and heavier offspring than young parents (estimate  $\pm$
- SE= $45.15 \pm 12.90$ , LR Chisq<sub>1</sub>= 12.62, P<0.001; estimate  $\pm$  SE= $5.63e05g \pm 1.77e05g$ , LR
- 210 Chisq<sub>1</sub>=12.62, P=0.001, respectively; Table 1; Figure 3).

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#### Offspring mass, survival and reproductive success

- The offspring mass at 12 and 18 months did not differ between young and old parents (estimate  $\pm$
- SE=0.004  $\pm$  0.003, LR Chisq<sub>1</sub>=1.94, P=0.16; estimate  $\pm$  SE=0.002  $\pm$  0.004, LR Chisq<sub>1</sub>=0.11,
- 215 P=0.73 for 12 and 18 months, respectively; Table 1). The cumulative survival (from 0 to 18
- 216 months) was higher for offspring born from young parents than for offspring coming from old
- parents (estimate  $\pm$  SE=0.018  $\pm$  0.09, LR Chisq<sub>1</sub>=3.95, P=0.04; Table 1; Figure 4). More
- specifically, this difference did not occur for the offspring survival between birth and 5 months of
- age (estimate  $\pm$  SE=0.18  $\pm$  0.69, LR Chisq<sub>1</sub>=0.07, P=0.79; Table 1; Figure 4) but is present for
- the survival from 5 to 12 months (estimate  $\pm$  SE=-0.90  $\pm$  0.41, LR Chisq<sub>1</sub>=4.27, P=0.04; Table 1;
- Figure 4) and from 12 to 18 months (estimate  $\pm$  SE=-1.06  $\pm$  0.24, LR Chisq<sub>1</sub>=8.22, P=0.004;

- Table 1; Figure 4). Reproductive success of offspring was higher for offspring born from young
- 223 mothers and young fathers than for offspring born from old fathers or old mothers (0.25 vs. 0 for
- young and old females, respectively, 0.20 vs. 0.05 for young and old males, respectively; LR
- 225 Chisq<sub>1</sub>=15.99, P<0.001 and LR Chisq<sub>1</sub>=5.06, P=0.02; Table 1; Figure 5).

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- Selective disappearance
- The maternal mass did not influence the breeding rate within both the young mothers ( $\chi^2=0.27$ ,
- df=1, P=0.59) and the old mothers ( $\chi^2$ =2.31, df=1, P=0.12). We also did not find any link
- between body mass and survival in the 3-years-old group ( $\chi^2$ =1.66, df=1, P=0.20) neither in
- males nor in females as expressed by the absence of statistically significant interaction between
- 232 sex and body mass (estimate  $\pm$  SE=-17.19  $\pm$  11.44, P=0.13).

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#### Discussion

- In indeterminate growers, reproductive success should increase with age, leading to an absence or
- a negligible reproductive senescence (Vaupel *et al.*, 2004). At first glance, our results support this
- prediction as old parents produced clutches containing more offspring than young ones (Vaupel
- 238 et al., 2004). However, old parents tended to produce a smaller number of clutches than young
- ones and we detected a trans-generational effect of reproductive senescence because parental age
- 240 negatively influenced both survival and reproduction of offspring. As we had hardly obtained
- clutches from offspring of old individuals, we were unable to study the quality of the
- grandchildren.
- 243 The effect of the environmental context experienced by the parents (e.g. diet, temperature,
- pathogen prevalence) on offspring performance has been described for a long time (Mousseau,
- 245 1998; Curley et al., 2011) but an increasing number of studies have revealed that parental age can
- also negatively impact offspring survival (Priest et al., 2002; Fox et al., 2003) and reproduction
- 247 (Priest et al., 2008; Bouwhuis et al., 2010; Ducatez et al., 2012; Schroeder et al., 2015; Lippens
- 248 et al., 2017). For instance, in Asian elephants (Elephas maximus), older mothers produce
- offspring with impaired survival (Reichert et al., 2019) and in the rotifers Brachionus
- 250 manjavacas, maternal age negatively affects offspring survival and reproduction (e.g. egg
- 251 quality) (Bock et al., 2019). These results are in line with ours as we found that the parent's age
- 252 has a high impact on offspring survival and reproductive prospects. Moreover, we demonstrated

253 the occurrence of a trans-generational effect of parental age across generations. We reported that 254 males from old parents reproduced less than males from young parents and this observed effect in 255 males was stronger in females because females from old parents did not reproduce at all. 256 Several mechanisms could be involved in these trans-generational effects, including oxidative 257 stress, telomere inheritance, epigenetics, or parental care (Njajou et al., 2007; Franklin & 258 Mansuy, 2010). Most studies of the physiological basis of senescence in invertebrates (notably in 259 Drosophila melanogaster and Caenorhabditis elegans) have focused on oxidative stress due to its 260 well-described effect on lifespan (Golden et al., 2002). Parental care could also be impacted by 261 age (Lemaître & Gaillard, 2017) notably because the ability of acquiring and storing body 262 reserves often decreases with increasing age, at least in vertebrates (Skogland, 1988; Lecomte et 263 al., 2010). Parental care effects are also well documented in invertebrates, in particular in insects 264 (Wong et al., 2013) but the few studies investigating the effect of age on parental care in 265 invertebrates have provided mixed results (Ivimey-Cook & Moorad, 2018). In some organisms 266 such as viviparous terrestrial isopods, the maintenance of the reproductive system can be very 267 energetically expensive (Lardies et al., 2004). In the woodlice, females provide nutrients to 268 offspring during the incubation in the marsupium by a fluid called marsupial fluid (Surbida & 269 Wright, 2001). Thus, both the quality and the quantity of nutrients provided by females in 270 marsupium fluid could determine offspring quality and thereby their viability. Studies 271 investigating how the marsupial fluid properties change with mother's age in the woodlouse and 272 whether such changes might account for the decrease in reproductive success we reported in old 273 individuals are strongly required. Overall, our knowledge on age-specific allocation to maternal 274 and paternal care is still in its infancy in invertebrates, but we can hypothesise that a decrease in 275 maternal care associated to increased oxidative stress and some epigenetic factors (Curley et al., 276 2011; Guillaumet-Adkins et al., 2017) could contribute to the trans-generational effect observed 277 in woodlouse. 278 One of the grey areas of these results is the source of this trans-generational effect. While many 279 studies have focused on the maternal effect, the paternal effect and the interaction between both 280 effects remain relatively unknown. Among the rare studies that have investigated the influence of 281 both maternal and paternal age, Bouwhuis and colleagues (2015) showed that the trans-282 generational effects are sex-specific in the common tern, Sterna hirundo. In this species, 283 daughters from old mothers had a lower reproductive success than daughters from young mothers

284 and sons from old fathers had a shorter lifespan than sons from young fathers. In the invertebrate 285 Drosophila melanogaster, the effect of parent's age in offspring reproduction differs between 286 sexes: sons were insensitive to maternal age but had reduced reproductive abilities with paternal 287 age when daughters from old mothers showed a decrease in reproductive success (Mossman et 288 al., 2019). Offspring produced by both old mothers and fathers show a substantial modification in 289 reproductive behaviour with an extreme egg dumping (Mossman et al., 2019). Overall, both 290 advanced maternal and paternal ages could have a negative impact on offspring lifetime 291 reproductive success, which can be exacerbated by the strong positive age assortative mating that 292 occurs in A. vulgare. In our experiment, it was not possible to tease apart the relative contribution 293 of mother and father ages, notably because trials of mating between cross-aged individuals (e.g. 294 1-year-old individuals\* 3-year-old individuals) were unsuccessful. Future experiments would 295 need to investigate the effect of age directly on male or female reproductive traits (e.g. sperm, 296 oocytes), which could play a key role in shaping reproductive senescence patterns (Fricke & 297 Koppik, 2019; Monaghan & Metcalfe, 2019). Finally, it is important to notice that the survival of 298 older individuals does not seem to be linked to their mass in our experiment, which suggests that 299 the possible selective disappearance of the lightest individuals (in a given age-class) does not 300 impact our results. 301 Everything else being equal, individuals reaching 3 years of age likely achieve a higher fitness 302 than short-lived individuals, thanks to the much larger number of eggs produced throughout 303 lifetime. However, old individuals suffer from a strong reproductive senescence in terms of 304 offspring quality and why selection did not select for old individuals allocating to offspring 305 quality rather than to offspring quantity can be seen as paradoxical at the light of some recent 306 developments in evolutionary biology of aging, which suggest that reproductive senescence 307 should be absent in indeterminate growing species (Vaupel et al., 2004). However, these results 308 can largely be explained by classic evolutionary theories of aging: i) the proportion of individuals 309 reaching 3 years of age in nature (<1%) is far too weak to enable the evolution a new 310 reproductive tactic (Medawar, 1952), and ii) the selection for the production of a large quantity of 311 offspring might come at a cost in late life in terms of offspring quality (Williams, 1957). Thus, 312 our findings have two major implications. First, in the particular case of the woodlouse, these 313 results run counter to studies carried out so far, which have viewed oldest individuals as playing a 314 key role in population dynamics through their ability to produce many offspring (Paris & Pitelka,

- 315 1962; Dangerfield & Hassall, 1992). However, our study does not provide information on the
- 316 consequences of reproductive senescence in terms of population dynamics in the wild. While
- three-year-old individuals are quite rare (< 1% of a given cohort are reaching 3 years of age) to
- be expected to play any detectable role in population dynamics, two-years-old individuals are
- more common in the wild (i.e. 13% of individuals within a given cohort reach this age) and
- 320 reproductive senescence in terms of decreased offspring viability we demonstrated in our study
- 321 might negatively influence population recruitment (Paris & Pitelka, 1962). To better understand
- 322 the influence of reproductive senescence from a quantitative viewpoint, data on age-specific
- reproductive success in the wild will be required. Our findings demonstrate that indeterminate
- 324 growers are likely to show senescence but through different pathways compared to determinate
- 325 growers.

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- Figure 2: Breeding rate according to individual's age.
- Figure 3: Number (A) and Mass (B) of offspring per clutch according to their parent's age.

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The thick line depicts the median, the box the interquartile range, and the whisker are bounded to the most extreme data point within 1.5 the interquartile range. The outliers outside this range are displayed as open circles. \*\* means p<0.01. Figure 4: Offspring survival according to their parent's age. Mean proportion of offspring surviving (+/- bootstrapped 95% confidence interval) at 5 months of age, 12 months of age, and 18 months of age. Each data point corresponds to one clutch and was plotted as grey dots with a slight jitter added to distinguish adjacent points. Figure 5: Graphical display of the interactive effect of offspring sex and parental age on offspring reproductive success.