1	Is bigger better? The relationship between size and reproduction in female Asian elephants
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3	Short running title: Size and reproduction in Asian elephants
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24	

25 Abstract

26 The limited availability of resources is predicted to impose trade-offs between growth, reproduction 27 and self-maintenance in animals. However, whilst some studies have shown that early reproduction 28 suppresses growth, reproduction positively correlates with size in others. We use detailed records from 29 a large population of semi-captive elephants in Myanmar to assess the relationships between size 30 (height and weight), reproduction and survival in female Asian elephants, a species characterised by 31 slow, costly life history. Although female height gain during the growth period overlapped little with 32 reproductive onset in the population, there was large variation in age at first reproduction and only 81% 33 of final weight had been reached by peak age of reproduction at the population level (19yrs). Those 34 females beginning reproduction early tended to be taller and lighter later in life, though these trends 35 were not significant. We found that taller females were more likely to have reproduced by a given age, 36 but such effects diminished with age, suggesting there may be a size threshold to reproduction which is 37 especially important in young females. Because size was not linked with female survival during 38 reproductive ages, the diminishing effect of height on reproduction with age is unlikely to be due to 39 biased survival of larger females. We conclude that although reproduction may not always impose 40 significant costs on growth, height may be a limiting factor to reproduction in young female Asian 41 elephants, which could have important implications considering birth rates are low and peak 42 reproduction is young -19 years in this population.

Keywords: Life History; Growth; Trade-offs; Long-lived; Working elephants; Elephas maximus

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50 Introduction

51 Organisms distribute their finite supply of resources between growth, reproduction and survival,

52 predicted to lead to trade-offs between these processes (Kirkwood & Rose, 1991). High investment in

53 growth can reduce a female's fecundity (Lee *et al.*, 2012), and early reproduction and high reproductive

54 investment have been found to suppress growth in some organisms, such as cod (Gadus morhua)

55 (Folkvord *et al.*, 2014) and barn swallows (*Hirundo rustica*) (Saino *et al.*, 2014). Conversely, there is

56 evidence from a number of seasonally breeding large mammals that fecundity positively correlates with

size, with large individuals reaching reproductive onset first (Clutton-Brock *et al.*, 1988; Green &
Rothstein, 1991; Jorgenson *et al.*, 1993). These findings lead to the contrasting hypotheses that size

may either positively or negatively correlate with reproduction depending on the importance of sizerelated fitness, the care-dependency of offspring, and costs involved in reproduction (Jorgenson *et al.*,

61 1993). Further exploration of this relationship in natural systems is necessary to determine how body
62 size and measures of reproductive success are associated in species that do not share the same life-

63 history strategies as those previously studied.

64 In animals that reach a determinate size, such as birds and mammals, young individuals must 65 invest more resources in somatic growth and maintenance than those that have ceased growing, and 66 there may thus be a trade-off between growth and reproduction in younger individuals (Hamel & Côté, 67 2009). High early investment in reproduction has been found to reduce later-life fecundity and survival 68 in many mammals (Nussey et al., 2006; Hayward et al., 2014) and birds (Reid et al., 2003), though 69 impacts on future growth are not widely studied, and often focus on experimental manipulation. For 70 example, suppressed reproduction via experimental contraception improved later growth and body 71 condition in the kangaroo (*Macropus giganteus*) (Gélin et al., 2016). Some observational studies have 72 also found that high early female fecundity is associated with stunted growth in humans (Rah et al.,

73 2008) and wild bison (Bison bison) (Green & Rothstein, 1991), and early reproduction also reduces 74 later mass gain in bighorn ewes (*Ovis canadensis*), though this relationship may only prevail under 75 high densities, and therefore strong selection pressure (Festa-Bianchet et al., 1995; Bérubé et al., 1999). 76 Whilst reproductive investment can thus negatively impact growth, body size can also 77 positively correlate with fecundity (Green & Rothstein, 1991; Festa-Bianchet et al., 1995). This may 78 explain why we do not see a negative impact of early reproduction on later fitness in some species if 79 early reproduction is dominated by heavier, healthy females (Gjerde, 1986; Bérubé et al., 1999). There 80 is evidence from some species to suggest that only females with reduced condition may face substantial 81 reproductive costs (Hamel et al., 2009), which could introduce bias when assessing reproductive costs 82 at a population level. Furthermore, studies often focus on seasonally breeding species, which could lead 83 to a more marked difference between early and late reproducers (Jorgenson *et al.*, 1993). Exploration of 84 the impact of early reproduction in species with a less restrictive breeding schedule could assess 85 whether costs still persist when the differences between early and late reproduction are lessened. 86 Here, we investigate the association between size, reproduction and survival in female Asian 87 elephants (*Elephas maximus*). Specifically, we examine the links between size and reproduction by: i) 88 assessing the relationship between female height and weight gain during growth against age-specific 89 reproductive rates at the population level; ii) analysing the association between age at first reproduction 90 (early/late reproducers) and later mature size (height, weight), building on past findings in Asian 91 elephants that high early investment in reproduction trades off with later life fecundity and survival 92 (Robinson et al., 2012; Hayward et al., 2014); testing whether adult height and weight constrain 93 reproduction: in terms of (iii) number of offspring produced or raised to age 5 or iv) reproductive status 94 (reproducer vs non-reproducer), and v) evaluating the impact of height on survival, to understand 95 whether survival differences could underlie size or age variation in reproductive output.

96	Our study system presents a rare opportunity to examine the relationships between these life
97	history parameters in a species that grows for a prolonged period and reproduces until age 65 years or
98	beyond (Lahdenperä et al., 2014), with high investment in few offspring. This high investment includes
99	a 22 month gestation period with conceptions occurring any time of the year (Mumby et al 2013),
100	average birth intervals exceeding 5 years, and an infant dependency period of 4-5 years (Hildebrandt et
101	al., 2006; Lahdenperä et al., 2014). The Asian elephant's growth period spans two decades, with
102	females reaching mature height (> 2 metres) at around 20 years, and a weight exceeding 2 tonnes,
103	which can continue to increase or fluctuate throughout life, reflecting changes in body condition
104	(Mumby et al., 2015). Such a growth pattern involves potential for overlap between growth and
105	reproduction as average age at first reproduction has been reported to be around 13 years in wild Asian
106	elephants in Sri Lanka (De Silva et al., 2013), and working Asian elephants in Myanmar can begin
107	reproducing from as young as 10 (Clubb et al., 2009). Studying associations between size, reproduction
108	and survival in female Asian elephants thus offers new insights in the little -studied context of a
109	continuously breeding, non-human large mammal, with a very slow life history.
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111	Materials and methods
112	Study Population
113	Population estimates of wild Asian elephants in Myanmar range from 2000-5000, although the current
114	number likely lies at the bottom end of this range (Sukumar, 2006; Leimgruber et al., 2008, 2011).
115	Around 5500 Myanma elephants are semi-captive, and over half of these semi-captive individuals
116	(around 2,700 individuals) work in the timber industry, owned by the state-run Myanma Timber

- 117 Enterprise (MTE). The workload of these state-owned elephants adheres to MTE regulations, with set
- 118 hours per week, days per year and tonnage per individual (Mumby *et al.*, 2013). The MTE elephants
- are not provisioned for, but instead are allowed to forage freely in the forest (Gale, 1974). Similarly,

120 breeding is not managed by humans, and most reproduction occurs in unsupervised hours during 121 release into the forest at night either with other semi-captive individuals or with wild elephants. MTE 122 ensures that detailed logbooks are kept for each individual elephant, which has led to the formation of 123 the world's largest multigenerational life history dataset on semi-captive Asian elephants (Mar et al., 124 2012; Mumby et al., 2013). The logbooks contain detailed information including individual ID number, 125 date of birth and death, sex, birth origin (captive born/wild caught) and work camp as well as offspring 126 birth dates and survival, allowing us to investigate reproductive investment across a lifetime in 127 individuals of known ages. The assignment of ages to wild caught individuals is done by experienced 128 vets using body size, temporal/buccal depression, ear folds, pigmentation and tusk size (Arivazhagan 129 & Sukumar, 2008); subadults can be aged very accurately. Elephants are weaned and begin training at 130 5 years old, whereupon they carry out light work tasks until they enter the workforce at 17, with 131 retirement at 55 (Begley, 2006).

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Data selection

133 This study uses a range of demographic datasets maintained by MTE over decades on individual 134 working elephants, combined with information recorded on variation in individual size. For our body 135 size measurements, we measured height from ground to shoulder to the closest centimetre or inch 136 depending on region (inches were converted to centimetres for the purpose of analyses, thus 137 measurements were accurate to within 2.54cm), and weight to the nearest kg using Eziweigh 3000 138 scales. The measurements were taken in years spanning 1985-2017 for height and 2011-2017 for 139 weight. Measurements were taken across different climatic seasons of the year (monsoon, cool and hot) 140 and we account for such differences in measurement season where appropriate in weight models 141 (height does not vary by season). Reproductive analyses focus on females with recorded size 142 measurements, known reproductive history (date of birth and survival of any offspring born) and 143 known birth origin (wild caught or captive born), and we only include wild caught individuals captured

under the age of 15 (capture age ranges: 0-5 years=19, 6-10=31, 11-15=5) to ensure accurate age
estimation and to reduce potential unknown reproductive events prior to capture (consistent with
Leimgruber *et al.*, 2008). Specific details of data selection and sample breakdown are given in
subsequent sections. The majority of the females included in the reproductive analyses are still alive,
with only 3 known deaths, 2 of which were in the last 3 years. The elephants from this subset span five
work regions in northern Myanmar, four in the Sagaing region, and one in the Mandalay region.

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Statistical Analyses

All statistical analyses were conducted using R version 3.3.1 (R Core Team, 2016). In analyses using
 glmer's, continuous variables were scaled to a mean of zero and standard deviation of one to aid model
 convergence.

154 (*i*) Population-level timing of growth and reproduction

155 First, we investigated the relationship between reproduction and growth in females by quantifying the 156 overlap between the population-level increase in reproduction with age and the levelling off of the 157 growth curve with age. We determined age-specific fertility of all reproductive females between the 158 ages of 5-60 years in a sample of 1040 females. Age-specific fertility was calculated as the total 159 number of offspring born each year divided by the total number of reproductive females alive at the 160 end of each year for each age (see Lahdenperä *et al.*, 2014). We then compared this to height and 161 weight gain over a lifetime for all females we had size data available for, adapted from Mumby et al. 162 (2015), (average measurement and age over a 4 year measurement period: 1690 height measures from 163 240 females and 1474 weight measures from 243 females aged 0-72yrs). Growth curves were produced 164 from non-linear least squares models using the *nls* function in R, with a response variable of either 165 height or weight. A self-starting von Bertalanffy growth function was used, with age in years as an 166 input parameter - the von Bertalanffy curve was deemed a better fit than other commonly used growth 167 curves (Gompertz and 3-parameter logistic) on the basis of their coefficients of determination (see

Mumby *et al.* 2015). Both wild- and captive-born females were included in these models, as previous
studies found little difference in the growth curves of wild and captive-born individuals (Mumby *et al.*2015).

171 *(i*

(ii) Age at first reproduction and size

172 We then assessed the impact of age at first reproduction on subsequent age-specific height and weight 173 by constructing linear mixed models using the *lme4* package version 1.1.12 (Bates *et al.*, 2015). 174 Specifically, we aimed to contrast the subsequent size of females that reproduced for the first time 175 before vs after the population average peak age in reproduction – for this population, this is 19 years 176 (age at first reproduction in our subset ranged between 9 and 35 years, with a mean of 18.5) (Hayward 177 et al., 2014). In this model we included only reproductive females over the age of 20 (range 20-62), and 178 used only size measurements taken from their first reproduction onwards, (over 74% of ever-179 reproduced females had reproduced for the first time by 20). These models compared the continuous 180 height and weight of 62 (n=498 height measurements) and 61 (n=438 weight measurements) 181 reproductive females that started reproduction either before or after the population peak of 19 years 182 (binary variable for before: height n=32; weight n=30, and after or equal to 19: height n=30; weight 183 n=31). In these models we fitted birth origin as a fixed effect (integer term: 1 for wild caught 184 individuals, height n=33 & weight n=34; 0 for captive borns, height n=29 & weight n=27), to account 185 for potential differences between wild and captive born females. We included an additional interactive 186 term between this birth origin term and capture age (continuous variable, range 0-15), to account for 187 the entry of wild-caught elephants into our study at variable estimated ages. We also included a 188 continuous fixed term of age at measurement (range= 20-62) in all models and a fixed categorical term 189 of measurement season in weight models (3 level factor: cool; dry; wet) to account for seasonally 190 variable conditions (Mumby et al., 2013). A quadratic age term was included in weight models, as 191 weight gain neither ceases with age nor linearly increases (Mumby et al., 2015). However, the

192 measurement season term and quadratic terms did not improve model fit and were subsequently 193 removed from the final model. Random terms accounted for work camp (5 level factor), and birth 194 cohort, using a term for five-year interval of birth (9 level factor from 1950-95). We also included a 195 random term for individual ID, as the effects were tested using multiple measurements of the same 196 individual at different ages over the total measurement period (maximum 32 years of measurements, 197 mean 3.8 for height and a maximum of 4 years of weight measurements, mean 1.2). All models 198 included an additional random slope of age at measurement by ID to allow the slope of any age effects 199 to differ between individuals. Comparisons between models were based on the lowest akaike 200 information criteria (AIC) values comparing models with and without the term in question (following a 201 selection procedure similar to Hamel & Côté, 2009). We appreciate that mixed model comparisons are 202 complex, and we carried out thorough model selection before proceeding to AIC comparisons and 203 terms were dropped in the case of model convergence issues to reduce model complexity, though 204 biologically significant terms were retained (Bolker et al., 2008). These model terms and comparison 205 methods were replicated for each of the subsequent analyses unless stated otherwise.

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(iii) Size and lifetime reproductive output

207 We next investigated whether a female's reproductive success is constrained by her height or weight, 208 first measured by the number of offspring produced, followed by the number raised to weaning age. 209 Measurements were taken from 102 females (n=687 height and n=541 weight measurements). Only 210 females aged 30 and older (range 30-62) were included to allow females the opportunity to produce 211 multiple offspring. We fitted generalised linear mixed models, again from the *lme4* package in R, with 212 a Poisson distribution to account for the zero inflated skew caused by including non-reproductive 213 females in the model. We first used a continuous term of number of calves birthed by the age of 214 measurement (range 0-9) as a measure of reproductive output. The other terms controlled for in the 215 models were identical to those in the models above, although in all subsequent models we did not

216 include the measurement season term in weight models as it is not relevant to reproduction as the 217 dependent variable, and the capture age term was dropped as it did not improve model fit. We also 218 tested for an interactive effect of height/weight and age at measurement on reproductive output as size 219 effects may vary depending on the age of a females. We then repeated these models on the same subset 220 of females using number of calves raised to age 5 (range 0-5) as the measure of reproductive output. 221 This was to account for maternal investment differences in lactation and maternal care- mothers may 222 require more resources to ensure survival of offspring. We split the calf variable into categories for 223 visual representation in figures (0=none; 1-3=low; 3-5=medium; 5+=high), and findings from analyses 224 run with these categorical variables were consistent with the continuous term reported.

225 *(iv) Size and reproductive status*

226 Because a large proportion of females in our study population fail to reproduce at all in their lifetime, 227 to further explore the general relationship between size and reproduction across different ages, we 228 fitted binomial generalised linear mixed models (*lme4* package) to assess whether a female's 229 reproductive status (1/0) at the time of measurement, depended on her height or weight. Comparisons 230 were made between 147 and 145 females measured over the age of 20 for (i) height and (ii) weight 231 respectively, totalling (i) 498 (ii) 438 observations of reproductive and (i) 406 (ii) 418 observations of 232 non-reproductive females. Reproductive status was coded as the status at the age of measurement (had 233 vs had not produced any calves by this age), so some females would be coded as 0 at younger ages and 234 1 later- we account for this difference between individuals with the random slope for age at 235 measurement by individual. The models controlled for the same terms as above analyses, with an 236 interaction similar to that in (iii), between age and height or weight, to investigate whether the effect of 237 size on reproduction depended on age (i.e. whether size limited reproduction more at certain ages).

238 (v) Survival and size

239 To assess whether a female's survival during reproductive years depends on her height, we fitted a Cox 240 proportional hazards mixed effects model using the *coxme* package in R (Therneau, 2015). The model 241 included 104 females (18 dead and 86 censored), measured between ages 20-50 of prime reproduction 242 (mean 35 years). We focused only on height for this analysis, as weight measurements only started in 243 2011, and there are insufficient numbers of measurements of individuals that have subsequently died. 244 We used a continuous measure of height for this analysis, but split the height variable into binary 245 quantiles for easier visual representation in figures (split into even quantiles, above and below 218cm, 246 n=50, n=51 respectively). We included fixed terms of reproductive status (binary: reproduced; did not 247 reproduce aged 20-50), age at measurement (continuous variable) and birth origin (wild caught vs 248 captive born). Decade of birth was included as a random term (4 level factor: 60s; 70s; 80s; 90s) to 249 control for any differences in birth conditions.

250

251 **Results**

252 (*i*) *Population-level timing of growth and reproduction*

253 We first compared the timing of female fertility with their height and weight gain in our study 254 population. From our growth curves (shown in Figure 1), we found that by the peak fertility of this 255 population - 19 years - females have reached approximately 96.6% of their mature (final) height, but 256 only 81.4% of their mature weight. As over half (52%) of the reproductive females in our sample 257 started reproducing younger than 19, there may be potential for overlap between reproductive 258 investment and both body size parameters. However, height is unlikely to be greatly affected by early 259 reproduction; at the ages of 10 and 15 years, on average 87% and 93.7% of height gain is complete 260 respectively. However, weight gain could be subject to reproductive costs: only 60.3% and 73.9% of 261 the average 'final' weight is gained at the same ages.

262 (*ii*) Age at first reproduction and size

263 Of our 147 females over 20, 55% of measurements were taken from reproductive females, and their age

at first reproduction ranged between 9 and 35 years, with a mean and median of 18.5 years. We

investigated how their age at the onset of reproduction (before vs. after the population peak age of

reproduction of 19) was associated with subsequent size. Although females starting to reproduce earlier

than the peak tended to be taller and lighter, these trends were not significant (height: $\chi^2=0.313_1$,

268 p=0.576 n=62; weight: χ^2 =2.657₁, p=0.103, n=61; see Figure 2 and Table 1).

269 (iii) Size and lifetime reproductive output

270 We then investigated whether an individual's size affected her reproductive success, measured first as

the total number of offspring produced, and then as the total number raised to the weaning age of 5. We

found no significant relationship between a female's height and the total number of offspring produced

273 $(\chi^2=0.01_1, p=0.90, n=102)$ or raised to 5 $(\chi^2=0.088_1, p=0.77, n=102)$, see Figure S1; Tables S1.1 &

274 S1.2. Similarly, the number of offspring born was not significantly associated with body weight

275 $(\chi^2=0.001_1, p=0.98, n=102)$, or number of calves raised to 5 ($\chi^2=0.018_1, p=0.894, n=102$). There was a

significant quadratic relationship between age and number of calves surviving to 5 (χ^2 =0.3.94₁, p<0.05,

277 n=102) but not for number of calves born. There was no interaction between age at measurement and

278 height on number of offspring born (χ^2 =0.330₁, p=0.55, n=102), or raised to 5 (χ^2 =0.277₁, p=0.599,

279 n=102), nor was there an interactive effect of age and weight on either the number of calves born

280 ($\chi^2=0.022_1$, p=0.882, n=102) or raised to 5 ($\chi^2=0.024_1$, p=0.877, n=102).

281 *(iv) Size and reproductive status*

Given that a large proportion of females in the population forego reproduction altogether, we also

investigated if size is an important factor influencing the probability of reproducing for these large

- 284 mammals. We found there to be a significant negative interaction between height and age on
- reproductive status, indicating that during peak reproductive years taller females were more likely to

293 evidence in our sample for differences in mortality by height (HR= 1.05, z=1.44, p=0.15, n=104; see 294 Figure 4; Table S2). 295 296 Discussion 297 This study applied life history theory to assess the association between size and reproduction in the 298 context of a continuously breeding, non-human large mammal, with a slow life history. We found there 299 to be a potential for overlap between reproductive investment and height gain at the population level, 300 and a substantial potential for an overlap with weight gain (a marker of body condition). Our results 301 showed that early onset of reproduction was associated with taller later height of females and lower 302 later weight, but these associations were not significant. Importantly, however, taller females were 303 more likely to be reproductive across all ages as compared to shorter ones, but the effect of height on 304 reproductive status reduced with age, indicating that taller females had an advantage particularly during 305 peak reproductive years. Our survival analysis indicated no evidence of a link between height and 306 survival in females of reproductive ages, suggesting that the declining importance of height on 307 reproduction in older females is not due to size biased survival.

289 (v) Survival and size

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Finally, we tested for differences in survival of reproductive-aged females by height to investigatewhether there was selective disappearance of smaller females at older ages, which could underlie the

have reproduced, but such effects of height on the probability to reproduce diminished with age

as indicated by a non-significant interaction between weight and age ($\chi^2=0.00_1$, p=1.00, n=145).

(χ^2 =9.702₁, p<0.01, n=147; Figure 3; Table 2). Weight was unrelated to reproductive status at all ages,

lessened impact of height on reproduction with age. Between the ages of 20 and 50 there was no

308 Our first question, assessing the extent of overlap between reproduction and growth, was to 309 determine whether there was potential investment competition between the two. Our results (see Figure 310 1), show that whilst the majority of growth, as indicated by height gain (almost 97%), is complete by 311 19 years- the age of peak fecundity- only 81% of weight is gained by this age. Weight gain continues to 312 increase and fluctuate throughout life, reflecting variation in resources (Mumby et al., 2013, 2015). 313 Consequently, there is potential for an overlap mostly between reproductive investment and weight 314 gain, but also height gain in individuals with early reproductive onset. There is substantial individual 315 variation in reproductive onset, ranging from 9 to 35 years in our subset, and with such variation, we 316 found 52% of reproductive individuals in our subset had their first calf prior to the population peak of 317 19 years. There may be population level differences too -average reproductive onset has been reported 318 to be as early as 13 in wild Asian elephants, so there may be a larger potential for overlap in other, 319 unmanaged populations of this species (De Silva et al., 2013). 320 We next considered the association between age at first reproduction and later size, to assess 321 whether starting to reproduce early might negatively impact your height or weight gain, following from 322 previous findings that early reproductive investment reduces later survival in this population (Robinson 323 et al., 2012; Hayward et al., 2014). We found that early reproducers were taller and lighter later in life, 324 but these correlations were not significant. The lack of association between early reproduction and 325 weight is perhaps most surprising due to the larger overlap between weight gain and reproduction. 326 Weight is known to fluctuate throughout life as a reflection of body condition, and it also varies 327 between seasons being lowest during the hot, dry period of the year (Mumby et al., 2013), so it could 328 be that this sensitivity of weight masks long term effects. It is also possible that "poorer quality" 329 females, which would be more likely to experience negative impacts to body condition are holding off 330 on reproduction until later ages to save resources (Leimgruber et al., 2008). Furthermore, past studies 331 finding costs of early reproduction on growth focussed on species with seasonal breeding (Jorgenson et

332 al., 1993), for which the distinction between early and late breeders is large and defined. Asian 333 elephants, with continuous breeding throughout the year (16-week ovulation cycle with no specific 334 breeding season), and spanning decades, may not face the same restrictions on reproductive timing and 335 subsequent costs of early reproduction on their later body size as seasonal breeders. However, our 336 associative approach cannot provide direct causative evidence for lack of a trade-off (Van Noordwijk & 337 De Jong, 1986). Future studies would gain from comparing longitudinal measures of growth within 338 individuals specifically before and after reproduction. The long lifespan of Asian elephants and 339 measurement bias to recent years limited our access to such data, although we had height 340 measurements for two individuals taken in the year of first reproduction (at 19, and 20), followed by 341 subsequent measures in later life. We found that these individuals continued to grow following 342 reproduction, both gaining 5cm in the 2 years following first reproduction. Although it is not possible 343 to conclude general growth patterns from such a limited sample, this reinforces our finding that early 344 reproduction does not fully limit skeletal growth.

345 We next tested whether a female's height or weight constrained their reproductive output as has 346 been shown in a number of other mammal species such as soay sheep (*Ovis aries*), bison (*Bison bison*) 347 and moose (Alces alces) (Green & Rothstein, 1991; Clutton-brock et al., 1996; Sand, 1996). We found 348 no evidence that female size in terms of their height or their weight was associated with lifetime 349 number of calves produced. The slow life-history of the Asian elephant means they have prolonged 350 care for their young, not weaning calves sometimes for 4-5 years (De Silva et al., 2013). Further 351 analysis therefore took into account whether offspring survived to the age of 5, but again there was no 352 significant effect of female size on her total number of surviving offspring. It is possible that once a 353 female produces a calf, the sociality of the species and their tendency for cooperative breeding masks 354 post-partum size effects due to 'social facilitation' by helpers and allomothers (Lee, 1987; Rapaport & 355 Haight, 1987; Schulte, 2000; Lahdenperä *et al.*, 2016). It must also be noted that our limited sample

size of body height and weight measures that date back sufficiently long in time to cover full
reproductive histories of females may have restricted our current ability to detect an association
between size and lifetime reproductive output.

359 Although female size was unrelated to variation in the total number of calves produced to date. 360 many females within our population forego reproduction altogether - only 42% of reproductive-aged 361 females in our sample with measures of size available to them had reproduced - so we next studied 362 whether female size dictates their likelihood to reproduce at all. We found a positive association 363 between height and the chance of having reproduced by a given age, which significantly declined with 364 age (Figure 3(i)). Consequently, taller females were more likely to be reproductive than shorter ones 365 but the effect of size declined with age, suggesting that size is more important for reproduction in 366 younger ages, which could be an important limitation considering peak reproduction is at only 19 years 367 in this population. A similar effect has been found in bison; reproduction is positively correlated with 368 size (weight in this case) in young females, but this effect declines with age (Green & Rothstein, 1991). 369 The size constraint to reproduction in young females is lessened in older ages, which could reflect lack 370 of competition with growth at later ages, or selective disappearance of smaller females at older ages.

371 We therefore subsequently explored the link between height and survival for females in their 372 reproductive prime (20-50), to examine whether this lessening size effect with age could be due to 373 selective disappearance of smaller females –or biased survival of large "high quality" females. We 374 found no effect however of height on survival, suggesting that selective disappearance is unlikely to 375 drive the lessening effect of size on reproduction when females grow older. This result should be 376 interpreted with caution however as it was conducted on a limited sample due to the long life-span of 377 our study species, and therefore cannot provide conclusive evidence for a lack of size biased survival. 378 Our study provides novel insight into age dependent effects of female height on reproduction in 379 the Asian elephant, a species with a very slow life history and high costs associated with both

380	reproduction and growth. This informs evolutionary theory around how reproduction and size relate to
381	each other- we provide evidence that the significance of female size for reproduction is context
382	dependent, along with the findings of some other studies (Albon et al., 1983; Jorgenson et al., 1993;
383	Clutton-brock et al., 1996). These findings also inform management decisions in terms of the costs
384	associated with reproductive investment at younger ages in this species, which has been shown to reach
385	their reproductive peak in early years. This can be applied both in this and other species of endangered
386	animals, or other large-bodied mammals that are similarly characterised by low fertility, such as in zoo
387	settings, in which many species experience both rapid growth and early reproduction.
388	
389	Conflict of interest
390	The authors declare there are no conflicts of interest in the creation of this work.
391	
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498 Table 1. *Lmer* output of the effects of first calving (early/late reproducers) on the height and

499 weight of females measured over 20. Estimates are expressed on the logit scale. Colon (:) represents

an interaction. Reference corresponds to late reproducers and captive born females.

	Height			Weight		
Fixed effects						
	Estimate \pm S.E	t-value	$\textbf{Estimate} \pm \textbf{S.E}$	t-value		
Intercept	226.55 ± 3.45	65.66	2063.06 ± 247.03	8.35		
irst rep (early)	1.12 ± 1.99	0.56	-143.29 ± 85.88	-1.67		
Age	-0.12 ± 0.07	-1.65	14.03 ± 5.83	2.41		
Origin (Wild)	-8.11 ± 3.65	-2.22	-116.79 ± 165.13	-0.71		
Origin: Capture Age	1.32 ± 0.44	2.98	-6.42 ± 22.10	-0.29		
Random effects						
	Variance ± S.D	Corr	Variance \pm S.D	Corr		
D (Intercept)	53.23 ± 7.30	-	570585.7 ± 755.37	-		
Age	0.02 ± 0.15	-0.56	463.80 ± 21.54	-0.97		
Birth Cohort	0.00 ± 0.00	-	0.00 ± 0.00	-		
Camp	0.00 ± 0.00	-	9177.50 ± 95.80	-		
Residual	26.77 ± 5.17	-	33978.90 ± 184.33	-		

512 Table 2. *Glmer* output of the effect of height and weight on female reproductive status 513 (reproducers/non-reproducers). Estimates are expressed on the logit scale and continuous variables 514 (except capture age) were scaled to have a mean of 0 and a standard deviation of 1 so effect sizes are

515 comparable. Colon (:) represents an interaction.

	Height		Weight	
Fixed effects:				
	Estimate ± S.E	z-value	Estimate ± S.E	z-value
(Intercept)	-15.43 ± 5.14	-3.00	-20.98 ± 6.69	-3.14
Height/Weight	1.67 ± 1.78	0.94	0.48 ± 1.25	0.38
Age	29.30 ± 5.97	4.91	39.00 ± 8.69	4.49
Birth Origin	1.76 ± 3.16	0.56	5.63 ± 4.15	1.36
Height: Age	-6.50 ± 2.45	-2.66	-	-
Random effects:				
	Variance ± S.D	Corr	Variance ± S.D	Corr
ID (Intercept)	2197.54 ± 46.88	-	3163.31 ± 56.24	-
Age	6284.78 ± 79.28	-1.00	16753.33 ± 129.44	-1.00
Camp	49.37 ± 7.03	-	79.31 ± 8.91	-
Birth Cohort	0.00 ± 0.00	-	0.00 ± 0.00	-
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525 Figure Legends

Figure 1. Growth curves of (i) height and (ii) weight gain over a lifetime in relation to age-specific
fertility. The filled black line represents the growth curve for (i) height (n=240), and (ii) weight
(n=243), with grey points showing repeated measurements of individuals used to construct the
population level curve. The dashed black line shows the smoothed age-specific fertility of reproductive
females, whilst the grey line represents raw fertility data (n=1040). The vertical green lines show the
ages at which 95% and 99% of (i) height and (ii) weight is achieved.
Figure 2. Age at first reproduction and subsequent size. Comparisons of the subsequent height (i)

and weight (ii) of females who started reproducing before (green) or after (grey) the peak of population
reproduction (age 19). Box limits show upper and lower quartile, vertical line shows range, midline the
median and diamond the mean.

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Figure 3. Size and reproductive status. (i) The positive association between female height and reproductive status significantly declines with age. Plane is plotted from predictions generated from a simplified model of the interaction of height and age on reproduction. (ii) The association between female weight and reproductive status in females over 20. Box limits show upper and lower quartile, line shows range, midline the median and diamond the mean.

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Figure 4. Survival of female elephants by height. The survival of adult female elephants depending on their height, split into binary quantiles for visual representation (1= small (<218cm), shown in green: n=52; 2=large (>=218cm), shown in black: n=52).





Figure 2





Table S1.1. *Glmer* output comparing the reproductive output of females over 30 of varying sizes, measured as the number of offspring produced at time of measurement. Estimates are expressed on the log scale and continuous variables were scaled to have a mean of 0 and a standard deviation of 1 so effect sizes are comparable.

	Height		Weight	
Fixed effects				
	$\textbf{Estimate} \pm \textbf{S.E}$	z-value	$\textbf{Estimate} \pm \textbf{S.E}$	z-value
Intercept	-0.82 ± 0.47	-1.74	-7.01 ± 1.12	-6.29
Height/ Weight	0.01 ± 0.06	0.12	-0.01 ± 0.42	-0.03
Age	0.84 ± 0.42	2.00	5.90 ± 0.75	7.89
Origin	-0.05 ± 0.32	-0.17	-0.08 ± 0.29	-0.28
Random effects				
	Variance \pm	Corr	Variance \pm S.D	Corr
	S.D			
ID (Intercept)	3.72 ± 1.93	-	30.98 ± 5.57	-
Age	0.67 ± 0.82	-1.00	12.87 ± 3.59	-1.00
Birth Cohort	0.31 ± 0.55	-	0.00 ± 0.00	-
Camp	0.04 ± 0.21	-	0.00 ± 0.00	-

Table S1.2. *Glmer* output comparing the reproductive output of females over 30 of varying sizes, measured as the number of offspring survived to the age of 5 at time of measurement. Estimates are expressed on the log scale and continuous variables were scaled to have a mean of 0 and a standard deviation of 1 so effect sizes are comparable.

	Height		Weight	
Fixed effects				
	$\textbf{Estimate} \pm \textbf{S.E}$	z-value	Estimate \pm S.E	z-value
Intercept	-1.28 ± 0.34	-3.78	-1.99 ± 0.44	-4.46
Height/ Weight	0.02 ± 0.07	0.28	-0.01 ± 0.08	0.89
Age	1.45 ± 0.20	7.30	6.04 ± 2.26	2.68
Age ²	-	-	-3.54 ± 1.78	-1.98
Origin	-0.36 ± 0.24	-1.47	-0.41 ± 0.26	-1.56
Random effects				
	Variance ±	Corr	Variance ± S.D	Corr
	S.D			
ID (Intercept)	4.39 ± 2.10	-	4.31 ± 2.08	-
Age	1.15 ± 1.07	-1.00	1.15 ± 1.07	-1.00
Birth Cohort	0.00 ± 0.06	-	0.00 ± 0.00	-
Camp	0.00 ± 0.00	-	0.00 ± 0.00	-

Table S2. Coxme proportional hazards model output showing survival of female adult elephants (20-50), depending on height as a continuous variable. Reference corresponds to non-reproducers.

Fixed effects	$\operatorname{coef} \pm S.E.$	exp (coef) Hazard Ratio	z value	p value	Variance ± S.D
Height	0.04 ± 0.03	1.05	1.44	0.15	
Reproductive status (Rep)	-1.04 ± 0.55	0.35	-1.91	0.06	
Age at measurement	-0.13 ± 0.04	0.87	-3.08	0.002	
Origin (Wild)	-0.01 ± 0.52	0.99	-0.02	0.98	
Random effects					0.40 0.43
Birth cohort					0.18 ± 0.42



Figure S1. Constraints of size on reproduction: Reproductive output shown as (a) number of calves produced and (b) number of calves raised to 5, of females of varying height (i) and weight (ii) (Reproductive output scale: none=0, low=1-3, medium=3-5, high=5+).