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2   **Title:** The reproductive seasonality and fecundity of yellowtail clownfish (*Amphiprion clarkii*) in  
3   the Philippines

4   **Running title:** Reproduction in yellowtail clownfish

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30 **ABSTRACT**

31        Understanding the spawning patterns and egg production of clownfish is important for  
32    understanding their life history and the factors contributing to population persistence. The egg  
33    production and temporal spawning patterns of eight breeding pairs of yellowtail clownfish,  
34    *Amphiprion clarkii* (Bennett 1830), were observed for a 14-month period on a coral reef in the  
35    Central Visayas, Philippines. Spawning events and egg production revealed a peak breeding  
36    season from November through May, which coincides with temperatures below 30 °C.  
37    Noticeably fewer spawning events and smaller clutch sizes occurred during the warmer months  
38    (30 to 31.5 °C) of June through October. Within the spawning season, egg production increased  
39    weakly leading up to the new moon and decreased after the full moon. The seasonality of  
40    spawning events found in this study were comparable to those of clownfish in temperate regions,  
41    and surprisingly unlike findings from other tropical latitudes and climates. These findings  
42    suggest that recruitment and larval dispersal in this population will be most sensitive to  
43    oceanographic conditions during relatively narrow periods of time each year.

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46 **INTRODUCTION**

47 Population stability depends on the net replacement of individuals across generations  
48 (Hastings & Botsford 2006). Net replacement, however, can be accomplished with a wide range  
49 of reproductive strategies, including from rare production of many offspring to frequent  
50 production of few offspring (Roff 1984; Winemiller & Rose 1992). In the ocean, many species  
51 produce large numbers of offspring, often with a distinct seasonal pattern to reproduction  
52 (Johannes 1978; Winemiller & Rose 1992). Water temperature is commonly identified as a  
53 major factor that determines a species' spawning season (Righton et al. 2010), possibly because  
54 developing eggs and larvae often have narrow temperature requirements for normal development  
55 (Rijnsdorp et al. 2009). Alternatively, spawning cycles may be timed to take advantage of  
56 specific current and wind patterns that disperse eggs or larvae with minimal loss of offspring  
57 (Lobel 1989). However, fishes are often assumed to lack seasonal spawning patterns in the  
58 tropics, possibly due to the narrow seasonal range in water temperatures (Allen 1972; Ross  
59 1978).

60 Within spawning seasons, reproduction often displays a lunar pattern, and spawning  
61 activity and egg production may be greater during specific phases of the moon (Johannes 1978;  
62 Pressley 1980; Samoilys 1997; Madhu & Madhu 2007; Helfman et al. 2009; Madhu & Madhu  
63 2012). A lunar spawning cycle can benefit both offspring and adults, though benefits vary among  
64 species (Johannes 1978). For example, offspring survival may be higher during large tidal  
65 magnitudes associated with the moon, which can increase the dispersal of pelagic larvae away  
66 from spawning areas where predators may be abundant (Robertson et al. 1990). Adults may also  
67 have adopted a lunar spawning cycle in order to synchronize breeding among individuals while  
68 allowing for sufficient recuperation between spawning events (Robertson et al. 1990). This

69 recuperation period may be especially important for benthic spawning fishes because they  
70 typically incur the energetic cost of prolonged parental care (Helfman et al. 2009). Alternatively,  
71 ease of nest care or food availability can vary on a lunar cycle (Johannes 1978; Pressley 1980).

72 The yellowtail clownfish (*Amphiprion clarkii*) is a benthic spawning reef fish that is  
73 common to the tropical and subtropical Pacific Ocean (Fautin & Allen 1992). *Amphiprion clarkii*  
74 possess the two-stage life cycle common to many reef fishes, consisting of a relatively sedentary  
75 juvenile and adult stage, and a pelagic larval stage that allows for wide-scale dispersal (Burgess  
76 et al. 2014; Pinsky et al. 2010). Clownfish live in close association with anemones, which they  
77 can use as protection from predators because clownfish are not affected by the stinging  
78 nematocysts (Fautin & Allen 1992). Further, clownfish exhibit a high level of site fidelity with  
79 specific anemones (Fautin & Allen 1992). They typically do not move more than a few meters  
80 from anemones, making clownfish ideal model species for individual-scale studies on  
81 reproduction (Fautin & Allen 1992). Occupied anemones are typically composed of one  
82 dominant breeding pair of clownfish and up to four nonbreeding males (Fautin & Allen 1992).  
83 *Amphiprion clarkii* are protandrous sequential hermaphrodites, meaning that they first develop as  
84 males (Ochi 1989). When the female is lost from an anemone, it is replaced by a sex-changing  
85 male (Fautin & Allen 1992). Breeding adult clownfish are easily visible and distinguishable from  
86 non-breeders because caudal fin coloration depends on sex and stage of maturity (Hattori &  
87 Yanigasawa 1991). During spawning, females lay a single layer of eggs on a hard substrate near  
88 the host anemone (Fautin & Allen 1992).

89 The purpose of this study was to investigate the reproduction and fecundity of *A. clarkii*  
90 in the tropical waters surrounding Leyte, Philippines, in order to determine whether there were  
91 seasonal and lunar breeding patterns and to estimate the total number of eggs produced

92 seasonally and annually. Determining when clownfish produce eggs and how many they produce  
93 will be helpful for understanding how these populations replenish themselves, including when  
94 the dispersal and survival of their larval offspring will be most sensitive to oceanographic  
95 conditions.

96

## 97 MATERIALS AND METHODS

98 From February 2015 to March 2016, all anemones that hosted clownfish were visited on  
99 the fringing coral reef adjacent to Visayas State University in Baybay City, Leyte, Philippines  
100 (10.743° N, 124.786 °E). The site was chosen for ease of access from the University, since the  
101 project involved daily surveys. The reef had low relief (< 1 m) without a distinct reef flat or  
102 slope, extended 290 m from north-northeast to south-southwest, and was 70 m wide. The depth  
103 on the reef was 2 to 5 m. Sand or muddy bottom were found beyond the offshore, northern, and  
104 southern reef edges. The clownfish were found throughout the reef and primarily inhabited  
105 anemone species *Heteractis crispa* (Hemprich & Ehrenberg in Ehrenberg 1834), but one pair  
106 was found on each of *Stichodactyla mertensii* (Brandt 1835) and *Macrodactyla doreensis* (Quoy  
107 & Gaimard, 1833). Distances to each pair's nearest neighbor ranged from 25 to 55 m.

108 From February 2015 through July 2015, five anemones with breeding pairs were present  
109 in the sampling area (Table 1). Two more breeding pairs were discovered on other anemones on  
110 July 15. On August 25, one of the original anemones disappeared and a new anemone was  
111 discovered (Table 1). While this may indicate anemone movement, the breeding pair present on  
112 the new anemone was visibly smaller than the previous pair on the now-disappeared anemone (7  
113 and 6 cm instead of 11 and 10 cm) and was therefore treated separately.

114         Six days a week, two divers visited each of the anemones to determine the presence or  
115         absence of *A. clarkii* breeding pairs and their eggs on each anemone (except for 69 days missed  
116         for storms or other events). In this population, non-breeders typically have transparent or  
117         rounded yellow fins, adult males typically have caudal fins with orange borders, and females  
118         typically have pointed yellow caudal fins. If eggs were present around the anemone, a video and  
119         photos of the eggs were taken with a set of calipers held by the clutch for sizing. The length and  
120         width of each clutch was measured and the egg color and other features were recorded.

121         Two HOBO U22 Water Temp Pro v2 water temperature loggers (Onset Computer  
122         Corporation, Bourne, MA) were also deployed 80 m offshore at a depth of 4 m to take  
123         temperature readings at 30-minute intervals, offset from each other by 15 minutes. The  
124         temperature readings were averaged within each day to calculate a mean daily temperature. In  
125         May 2015, the females were caught and measured with calipers to the nearest mm.

126         The best photo on the first day of each clutch was analyzed using ImageJ software to  
127         determine the number of eggs (Schneider 2012). The calipers in the image were used to set the  
128         scale, and eggs were counted within a 1cm x 1cm square sample within each clutch. The major  
129         (A) and minor (B) axes of the clutch were measured, and the area of each clutch was then  
130         calculated as an ellipse:  $\pi \times A \times B$ . The total number of eggs per clutch was calculated as the  
131         product of density (eggs/cm<sup>2</sup>) and area (cm<sup>2</sup>).

132         To test hypotheses about the temporal patterns of *A. clarkii* spawning, we fit two  
133         generalized additive mixed effects models (GAMMs) using the gamm4 package in R software  
134         version 3.2.4 (R Core Team 2016; Wood & Scheipl 2016). We used GAMMs because, like  
135         generalized additive models (GAMs), they allow the response variable to be a non-linear smooth  
136         function of the predictor variables, and so could capture seasonal and lunar cycles or non-linear

137 responses to temperature (Wood & Scheipl 2016). Beyond GAMs, however, GAMMs allow the  
138 inclusion of random effects in the model (Wood & Scheipl 2016). Random effects were helpful  
139 for accounting for the correlated error structure in our dataset, which was produced by repeated  
140 (daily) observations from each clownfish pair.

141 The first GAMM was for the occurrence of spawning. In this model, each observation  
142 was for a clownfish pair observed on a particular day, and the response variable was whether that  
143 day was (1) or was not (0) the first day we observed a new clutch for that clownfish pair. We  
144 specified a binomial error structure since the response variable was binary. The second GAMM  
145 we fit was for the number of eggs in a clutch, conditional on a clutch having been laid. In this  
146 model, the response variable was  $\log(\text{number of eggs})$  and each observation was a unique clutch  
147 from a clownfish pair. This model had Gaussian errors.

148 Predictor variables for both models included the day of the year, day of the lunar month,  
149 water temperature ( $^{\circ}\text{C}$ ), days since the last clutch was laid, and female size (cm). We fit smooth  
150 terms for all variables except for female size. The relatively low numbers of observed females  
151 forced us to use a linear term for female size instead of a smooth term. To account for the fact  
152 that we had repeated observations from each pair of fish, we included breeding pair ID as a  
153 random effect in both models. Including random effects helps correct for the correlated error  
154 structure in hierarchical datasets like ours (Zuur 2009).

155 The eggs produced per pair of fish per day depends both on the probability of spawning  
156 and on the size (in eggs) of the clutch produced if they do spawn. For visualizing temporal  
157 patterns in eggs per pair per day, we therefore combined the two models' predictions as  $\hat{\square} =$   
158  $\hat{\square} \times \square^{\hat{\square}} \times \square$ , where  $\hat{\square}$  was our estimate of eggs produced per pair per day,  $\hat{\square}$  was the first  
159 model's estimate of the probability of spawning,  $\hat{\square}$  was the second model's estimate of

160 log(clutch size), and  $\square$  was Duan's smearing estimator to help correct for retransformation bias  
161 in the clutch size model (Duan 1983).

162 Because we only observed one annual cycle, we cannot be sure whether other years  
163 follow similar cycles. However, our supplementary observations of nest presence and absence in  
164 June 2014 (absence), January 2015 (presence), and May and June 2016 (absence) suggest  
165 broadly similar patterns across multiple years.

166

## 167 RESULTS

168 *Temporal spawning patterns*

169 The time between spawning events was highly variable (7 to 195 days), in part because  
170 most breeding pairs did not spawn during the warm season from June through October (pairs 776  
171 and 1284 laid one and two clutches, respectively, during these months). Median time between  
172 spawning events was 16 days. The maximum number of clutches over the course of 14 months  
173 was 14 (Table 1). Eggs typically hatched after 6 days (range 5 to 8 days) after transitioning  
174 through bright red, orange, purple, and then silver colorations.

175 The average number of spawning events was the highest in the month of March, and no  
176 spawning occurred in July and September (Fig. 1A). Spawning generally occurred when water  
177 temperatures were below 29.5 °C, and few spawnings occurred at temperatures greater than 29.5  
178 °C (Fig. 1A).

179 Spawning also varied across the lunar month. Spawning frequency was highest on day  
180 29 (the day before the new moon) and somewhat elevated on days 7-13 leading up to the full  
181 moon (Fig. 2A). There was also a small decrease in spawning events directly after the new moon

182 (days 3-6) and after the full moon (days 15-23), with relatively few spawning events until the  
183 next new or full moon approached (Fig. 2A).

184 When analyzed in a statistical framework that considered season, lunar cycles,  
185 temperature, and previous spawning, the model suggested that temperature and days since last  
186 spawn were the two statistically significant factors determining spawning patterns (Table 2).  
187 Spawning probability in the statistical model peaked around 29 °C and was lowest immediately  
188 after a previous spawning event (Fig. 3C and D).

189

190 *Fecundity*

191 The average clutch size was  $1,763 \pm 96$  eggs (expressed as  $\pm 1$  standard error) (Table 1).  
192 Among the breeding pairs that were observed for a full year (or for the full study), the average  
193 number of eggs per clownfish pair per year was  $14,433 \pm 3,431$  (or  $16,546 \pm 3,067$  over the 14-  
194 month study) (Table 1). Breeding pair #1338 produced the most eggs for the year (28,798 eggs),  
195 had the highest average clutch size ( $2400 \pm 199$  eggs), and contained the largest female (11.9  
196 cm) (Table 1). Egg production across all eight breeding pairs was the highest during the months  
197 of November through May (Fig. 1B), highest just around the new moon (days 0 and 29), and  
198 somewhat higher in the period before the full moon (days 7-13) as compared to the period after  
199 the full moon (Fig. 2B).

200 The statistical analysis suggested that clutch size, conditional on a clutch being laid, was  
201 correlated to lunar day, temperature, day of the year, and days since the previous spawning event  
202 (Table 2). Clutch size increased but not significantly with female size, possibly because our  
203 dataset only had six measured females across a narrow range of sizes. The fitted smooth terms in

204 the model suggested that clutch sizes were the largest in the months of December through April,  
205 largest around the new moon, and largest at temperature of 29 to 30 °C (Fig. 3).

206 When we combined predictions for the probability of eggs being produced and for clutch  
207 size, total numbers of eggs produced appeared highest in January through May, at temperatures  
208 below 29.5 °C, during lunar days above 25 and below 5 (around the new moon), and at least 20  
209 days after the previous spawning event (Fig. 3).

210

## 211 **DISCUSSION**

212 Reproductive output is an important factor for understanding population persistence and  
213 coral reef fish life history strategies, both of which can be used to determine the effectiveness of  
214 marine protected areas and resource management plans (Burgess et al. 2014). This study aimed  
215 to define the temporal scale and fecundity of an *A. clarkii* population in the central Philippines  
216 by examining seasonal and lunar breeding patterns and egg production. Over the 14 month  
217 observational study, reproduction followed a clear seasonal pattern, with a peak during  
218 November through May when temperatures were below 29.5 °C. Less distinct peaks in spawning  
219 and egg production appeared to occur around the new moon and around the full moon.

220 While the Philippines has a tropical climate, these reproductive patterns are more similar  
221 to temperate populations with a specific breeding season, which is quite different from what has  
222 previously been seen in tropical anemonefish populations (Moyer 1980). For example, in the  
223 temperate waters surrounding Miyake-Jima, Japan, *A. clarkii* also have a distinct breeding  
224 season, but it has nearly the opposite timing and occurs from May through October when water  
225 temperatures are relatively high (Moyer 1980). However, the temperature at which spawning  
226 occurs in both these populations is similar, ranging from 22 to 29.5 °C in Japan and from 27 to

227 29.5 °C in our study from the Philippines (Moyer 1980; Bell 1976). Also in a temperate climate,  
228 *A. clarkii* in Murote Beach, Japan, began spawning in June as temperatures rose above ~20.5°C  
229 and ended at the beginning of October when temperature declined below ~22.5°C, which is  
230 similar seasonality to the population at Miyake- Jima, but at somewhat colder water temperatures  
231 (Ochi 1985). In Hong Kong, an area situated at an intermediate latitude between Japan and the  
232 Philippines, the first batch of eggs was found in April and reproductive activities continued  
233 through late September when the temperatures ranged from 22 to 28.5 °C (Leung 2000). Similar  
234 plasticity in reproductive seasonality has also been observed in other species (Righton et al.  
235 2010), and it suggests that temperature is a widespread factor that influences reproduction in  
236 fishes (Rijnsdorp et al. 2009). In contrast, however, other tropical clownfish have been recorded  
237 to spawn all year long, including *A. melanopus* (Bleeker 1852) in Guam (13.4 °N), and *A.*  
238 *chrysopterus* (Cuvier 1830), *A. melanopus*, and *A. perideraion* (Bleeker 1855) in Eniwetok (11  
239 °N) (Allen 1972; Ross 1978). Compared to other clownfish, our Philippines study population  
240 appears unique in having a seasonal spawning pattern with highest activity during the colder  
241 months.

242 Beyond seasonal patterns, the lunar cycle also appeared to weakly affect when spawning  
243 occurred within the reproductive season in the Philippines. A peak in spawning activity occurred  
244 the day before the new moon and there was little spawning activity during the 9 days following  
245 the full moon. Somewhat increased spawning frequency was also apparent during the week  
246 before the full moon. *Amphiprion clarkii* have an incubation period of around 6 days in the  
247 central Philippines, and spawning before the full moon may represent an occasional second  
248 clutch following a short recuperation period from the peak in reproduction around the new moon.  
249 This pattern is similar to *A. melanopus* in Guam (13.4 °N), which had spawning activity peaks

250 near the first and third quarters of the lunar cycle and consequently, hatching near the full and  
251 new moons (Ross 1978). The lunar spawning patterns of *A. akindynos* (Allen 1972) in southern  
252 Australia (28.6 °S) are also similar, with increased spawning around the full moon (Richardson  
253 et al. 1997). However, while many anemonefishes display lunar patterns, these patterns can also  
254 be quite different from *A. clarkii* in the Philippines. For example, *A. latezonatus* (Waite 1900) in  
255 southern Australia (28.6 °S), as well as *A. percula* (Lacepède 1802) and *A. sandaracinos* in the  
256 Andaman Islands (10.8 °N), all have less frequent spawning in the days before the full moon  
257 (Richardson et. al 1997; Madhu & Madhu 2007; Madhu & Madhu 2012). Higher spawning for  
258 these populations occurs in the days just after the new or full moon (Richardson et. al 1997;  
259 Madhu & Madhu 2007; Madhu & Madhu 2012).

260 Potential explanations for lunar spawning periodicity include lower predation risk for  
261 larvae during stronger and higher spring tides, greater ease of nest care and predator avoidance  
262 during the full moon, higher levels of planktonic food sources for larvae during the full moon, or  
263 as a signal to entrain spawning synchrony to swamp predator feeding (Korringa 1947; Johannes  
264 1978; Ross 1978; Pressley 1980). While our research was not designed to test among these  
265 explanations, the fact that *A. clarkii* in the Philippines have higher spawning activity around both  
266 the full and the new moon suggests that light or food availability are not primary factors. The  
267 weak increase in spawning before the full moon could be timed so that hatching six days later  
268 occurs during the larger tidal currents and deeper tidal depths of the spring tides, providing more  
269 rapid escape for larval fish from benthic and reef-associated predators. Spawning the day before  
270 the new moon, however, would not capture a spring tide effect, and may instead relate to benefits  
271 for the adult, possibly around nest care or predator avoidance. Alternatively, the lunar cycle  
272 could simply be a convenient cue for inducing spawning synchrony to reduce predation.

273 Both the average number of eggs produced in each clutch and the annual fecundity (Table  
274 1) were similar to temperate populations of *A. latezonatus* in southern Australia (28.6 °S) and *A.*  
275 *clarkii* in Japan (34.1 °N) (Richardson et. al 1997; Bell 1976). In Japan, 8,000 to 17,500 eggs  
276 were produced annually, which is comparable to the average 21,000 eggs/pair/year in the  
277 Philippines. However, this is higher than many annual fecundity estimates in tropical waters,  
278 including 7,200 eggs for *A. melanopus* in Guam (13.4 °N), 6,000-9,600 eggs for *A. sandaracinos*  
279 in the Andaman Islands (10.6 °N), and 2,500-13,500 eggs for *A. percula* in the Andaman Islands  
280 (Ross 1978; Madhu & Madhu 2007; Madhu & Madhu 2012). In Hong Kong (22.2° N), the  
281 clutch size of *A. clarkii* ranged from 462 to 2,612 eggs (similar to the average 1,763 eggs in the  
282 Philippines), but annual fecundity was 3,321 to 12,373, which is somewhat lower than what was  
283 observed in Japan and the Philippines (Leung 2000; Richardson et. al 1997).

284 While living at a tropical latitude with water temperatures similar to that of other tropical  
285 areas where *Amphiprion* have been studied, reproduction in *A. clarkii* on Leyte, Philippines, also  
286 showed similarities to temperate anemonefish populations. The Leyte population had a lunar  
287 spawning pattern similar to that of tropical anemonefish and a distinct breeding season similar to  
288 temperate populations. Further, fecundity and clutch sizes were more similar to that of temperate  
289 anemonefish.

290 To understand whether reduced spawning during the warmest months is caused by  
291 temperature or by another correlated factor, additional years of observations in Leyte, Philippines  
292 or an experiment in an aquarium would be useful. In addition, studies of reproduction in other  
293 tropical anemonefish populations are needed to understand whether seasonal patterns are  
294 common throughout the tropics and whether reproduction is consistently rare during the warmest  
295 ocean temperatures. At a fundamental level, persistence depends on populations replacing

296 themselves through sufficient reproduction. By understanding patterns of reproduction and their  
297 variation across space and time, we gain insight into the variety of strategies that help organisms  
298 cope with and persist through the variability in their environment. Understanding peak spawning  
299 times is also useful for designing future studies of development or larval recruitment, and for  
300 understanding when oceanographic conditions will most directly influence larval dispersal and  
301 survival.

302

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378 **TABLES**

379 **Table 1.** Data on each *Amphiprion clarkii* pair, including female fish length, number of days  
 380 observed, number of clutches, average number of eggs produced per clutch ( $\pm 1$  standard error),  
 381 and the total number of eggs produced.

Pair ID	Female length (cm)	Duration	Begin	End	Clutches	Eggs per clutch	Eggs produced
776	9.8	392	2/5/15	3/3/16	14	1,485 $\pm$ 139	20,793
801	11	201	2/5/15	8/25/15	4	1,197 $\pm$ 215	4,788
1284	9.1	392	2/5/15	3/3/16	7	1,686 $\pm$ 182	11,805
1338	11.9	392	2/5/15	3/3/16	12	2,400 $\pm$ 173	28,798
1285	9.9	392	2/5/15	3/3/16	13	1,736 $\pm$ 199	22,573
n1	9.7	232	7/15/15	3/3/16	1	1,156	1,156
n2	— <sup>†</sup>	232	7/15/15	3/3/16	0	—	—
n3	— <sup>†</sup>	191	8/25/15	3/3/16	1	— <sup>*</sup>	—
Average $\pm 1$ SE	10.2 $\pm$ 0.4	303 $\pm$ 11			12 $\pm$ 1.6 <sup>‡</sup>	1,763 $\pm$ 95	20,993 $\pm$ 3,510 <sup>‡</sup>

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383 <sup>†</sup> For breeding pairs n2 and n3, the female was not caught and measured.

384 <sup>\*</sup> For n3, the picture of the single clutch spawned was of low quality and the eggs could not be  
 385 counted.

386 <sup>‡</sup> Calculated for pairs observed for the full study duration.

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390 **Table 2.** Results from statistical analysis of spawning occurrence and clutch size with  
391 generalized additive mixed effects models (GAMMs). Coefficient is shown for the linear term,  
392 estimated degrees of freedom (DF) are shown for smooth terms, and estimated p-values are  
393 shown for all terms. Smooth terms are graphed in Fig. 3.

Term	Spawning model			Clutch size model		
	Coef.	DF	p-value	Coef.	DF	p-value
Lunar day		2.00	0.058		3.14	0.0022
Day of year		1.00	0.068		3.01	0.0046
Days since last spawn		2.22	0.011		1.00	0.017
Temperature		3.69	0.00096		3.58	0.011
Female size	-0.06		0.70	0.15		0.11

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397 **Figure Legends**

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399 **Figure 1.** Annual patterns in *Amphiprion clarkii* spawning. (A) Monthly average ( $\pm 1$  standard  
400 error) number of spawning events per breeding pair (solid) plotted with daily average  
401 temperature (dotted). The numbers across the top indicate the number of pairs observed each  
402 month. (B) Monthly average ( $\pm 1$  SE) number of eggs produced per breeding pair (black) and  
403 average size of observed clutches (grey). The error bars on clutch size are the standard deviation  
404 among clutches within a pair, averaged across pairs.

405

406 **Figure 2.** Spawning patterns over the lunar month. The full moon occurs on lunar day 14, and  
407 the new moon on lunar day 29. (A) The average number of spawning events ( $\pm$ SE) per breeding  
408 pair by lunar day. (B) The average number of eggs produced per breeding pair for each lunar  
409 day.

410

411 **Figure 3.** Fitted terms from the generalized additive mixed effects models (GAMMs) for  
412 spawning occurrence (dashed lines), for clutch size (dotted lines), and for the combined  
413 prediction of total egg production (solid line with grey shading for standard error). Each subplot  
414 corresponds to an explanatory variable in the model, including (A) lunar day, (B) day of year,  
415 (C) days since last spawning event, and (D) water temperature. Y-axis is only for the combined  
416 prediction of total egg production. Predictions are for a 10 cm female.

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