1	Caudal region regeneration in a natural population of the morid fish
2	Physiculus cyanostrophus in the tropical Eastern Atlantic Ocean.
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9 Abstract:

The present study describes a remarkable caudal regeneration capacity of *Physiculus cyanostrophus*, a benthopelagic fish from the twilight zone. This trait reveals the ability of this particular morid to survive attacks that would be lethal in other species. In teleosts, the most widespread sublethal predation is confined to scale-eating and fin-nipping by specialized predators. In P. cyanosytrophus the larger sized individuals the greatest amount of tissue loss occurred in the caudal region (maximum 28 vertebrae, corresponding to 45% lost body length). The amount of regenerated tissue was independent of body losses and ranged between 5-19% of total length for the entire range of sizes. The frequency of regenerated individuals in the population increases with ontogeny (16.8-67.5%). Tissue losses represent a significant allocation of costs in terms of growth and offspring production. Nevertheless, regeneration capability decreases mortality in the large breeding females of a population, maximizing maternal fitness.

Keywords: twilight zone, regeneration, tissue loss, growth, maternal fitness, *Physiculus*

- *cyanostrophus*

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In marine ecosystems, fishes are subject to injuries due to aggressive behaviour,
predation and diseases (Winemiller 1990; Ziskowski *et al.* 2008; Sinclair *et al.* 2011).
From a trophic viewpoint, some predators in aquatic ecosystems have specialized in
sublethal attack mechanisms (Farmer & Bramish 1973; Papastamatiou *et al.* 2010).

Among fishes (as prey), the most widespread sublethal predation, in both fresh and 41 42 marine waters, is due to specialized scale-eating (lepidophagous) and fin-nipping 43 predators (e.g., Sazima 1983; Winemiller 1990; Nakae & Sasaki 2002). Additionally, in 44 marine ecosystems, some prey species have developed mechanisms to revert potential 45 lethal attacks into sublethal injuries. This sublethal predation in marine ecosystems occurs among prey species with regenerative abilities and autotomy (Bely & Nyberg 46 47 2010), such as, crustaceans, polychaetes and echinoderms. In animals, sublethal predation is the predominant mechanism of tissue loss (Bely & Nyberg 2010). 48 49 Nevertheless, it is widely accepted that sublethal predation may influence prev dynamics. The degree and consequences of these predatory effects depend on the 50 51 amount of lost biomass or the loss of function resulting from sublethal attacks (Maginnis 2006). 52

Research studies on regeneration, based on the ability of fish to regenerate lost tissues, has largely focused on zebrafish and electric fishes (Unguez 2013). However, in nature, evidence of tissue regeneration is quite rare. From an ecological perspective, the population-level consequences of the regeneration of body parts are poorly understood in fishes (Maginnis 2006; Unguez 2013). Studies that incorporate the costs associated with the regeneration process into understanding population dynamics are necessary.

The genus Physiculus Kaup, 1858 currently comprises 41 valid species (see Gonzalez et 59 60 al. 2018) exhibiting the highest degree of diversity within the family Moridae (Paulin 1989). The *Physiculus* species are mainly known from a taxonomic perspective, but few 61 62 data are available concerning their ecology and population structure. The Physiculus species are distributed in all tropical, subtropical, and warm-temperate seas of the world 63 at depths of 100-600 m (Paulin 1989). Some Physiculus species has the ability to 64 regenerate the caudal fin. This newly regenerated fin develops a replacement skeletal 65 66 structure known as the "pseudo-hypural plate" (Brüss 1986; Paulin & Matallanas 1990). 67 Sublethal injuries (or regenerated caudal fin) frequently occur in Macrouridae and other 68 Moridae genera to such an extent that total length has been replaced by preanal fin

length in taxonomic and ecological studies (Atkinson 1991). Within benthopelagic 69 70 species belonging to these groups (e.g., grenadiers, rattail fishes and deep-sea cods), a high percentage of individuals with sublethal injuries or regenerated caudal fins have 71 72 been found (e.g., Paulin & Matallanas 1990; Massutí et al. 1995; Andrews et al. 1999). Nevertheless, sublethal predation in the deep-sea has not yet been explored, probably 73 74 because ecological knowledge of these species is lacking and because most sublethal 75 injuries are often attributed to the trawl net effect (Massutí et al. 1995). Regeneration of caudal fins has been described in macrourids and morids (Brüss 1986; Atkinson 1991) 76 77 and tail loss occurs frequently in deep-sea gadiformes e.g. Bathysaurus mollis 78 specialises in biting tails off marcrourids and hence avoids parasitic infections 79 (Campbell et al. 1980). Our study describes and evaluates the importance of caudal region regeneration in *Physiculus cyanostrophus*, including consequences in their 80 81 population dynamics, growth and fitness.

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83 MATERIALS AND METHODS

85 Biological data collection

Seven expeditions were undertaken to investigate the marine epi- and benthic 86 macrofauna of the Cape Verde archipelago. Sampling was carried out off the islands of 87 88 Boa Vista, Santiago, including the Bancona Bank, São Vicente, Santa Luzia, Sal, and 89 São Nicolau in order to search for new living resources, between 2010-2012 and 2017, at depths of 66 m and 458 m. Expeditions were conducted in the spring (April and 90 March), summer (June and July), autumn (November) and winter (January and 91 92 February). In all cruises bottom traps and semi-floating traps (operated around 2.4 m above the seafloor) (see González et al. 2016 for trap design) were used as sampling 93 94 system.

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96 Morphology measures

97 Each fish was sampled (n=917) following standard measurements for family Moridae 98 (Paulin 1989; Trunov 1989). The total length (TL), head length (HL) and regenerated 99 total length (regTL) were measured to the nearest 0.01 mm. The theoretical total length 100 (tTL) was obtained from the linear regression between HL and TL from the non-101 regenerated (NR) specimens to estimate the corresponding TL of regenerated 102 individuals (R). Body lost length was estimated as the difference between tTL and the

length after injury. Other measurements are explained in Figure S1. Gutted mass and 103 104 gonad mass were recorded to the nearest 0.001 g. Sex determination was assessed 105 according to macroscopic differences in gonads. Otoliths (n=767) were extracted, and 106 otolith mass was recorded to the nearest 0.0001 g. Based on current ontogenetic data 107 (maturity and fecundity), three ontogenetic groups were defined for both sexes: juveniles (females TL<210 mm; males TL<190 mm), young-adults (females 210 108 mm>TL< 300 mm; males 190 mm>TL< 240 mm) and old-adults (females TL>300 mm; 109 males TL>240 mm). The specimens (n=120) were prepared with their fins fully 110 111 extended and were then photographed with a digital camera for further image analysis to obtain fin surface estimates (mm²). Similarly, specimens with a "pseudo-hypural 112 113 plate", considered regenerated individuals (R), were photographed (n=73) to estimate 114 their regenerated fin surface (body area from the beginning of the length regenerated to 115 the end of the body, including fin surface; mm²). Vertebral counts on a subsample of 116 specimens (n=30) were obtained from radiographs by means of an X-ray machine and 117 were then processed with eFilm Lite[™] software. The percentage of body lost length was calculated along with the number of lost vertebrae (Fig. S4). 118

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120 Growth

Otolith mass versus TL and tTL of R (n=215) and NR (n=562) females within the same size range were compared. Otolith sections from R (n=72) and NR (n=159) females were prepared according to protocols described by McCurdy *et al.* (2002). Age was estimated twice, with two researchers reading the otolith sections according to Wright *et al.* (2002). Observed length-at-age was described by the *von Bertalanffy growth model* using a non-linear least square procedure of a *Gauss-Newton algorithm* for R and NR females.

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129 Fecundity outputs

The ovaries (n=764) were fixed and preserved in 4% buffered formaldehyde and were subsequently processed for histological analyses to verify the macroscopic maturity stage using H&E staining, following standard procedures for fish biology studies. Following the terminology of Brown-Peterson *et al.* (2011), spawning capable fish were selected from R (n=42) and NR (n=58), covering the entire range of sizes (Murua *et al.* 2003), to estimate the total fecundity (TF) and batch fecundity (BF) (Hunter *et al.* 1985). TF and BF were estimated using gravimetric methods (Murua *et al.* 2003). Each subsample was weighted to the nearest 0.0001 g and was then filtered via 100 μm mesh
to exclude previtellogenic oocytes for the estimation of TF. The mesh size was
estimated by calculating the diameter of previtellogenic oocytes with image analysis
(Thorsen & Kjesbu 2001) from early-developed subphase ovaries, following the
methods of Brown-Peterson *et al.* (2011).

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143 Data analysis

144 Differences in the HL–TL relationship between the sexes were evaluated by an *F-test*, 145 and differences between *b* values and the expected value from isometric growth (b=1) 146 were evaluated by a *t-test* (Sachs 1982).

147 Differences in mean TL and TM between sexes were analysed using *Student's t-test*.

148 The *Kolmogorov–Smirnov non-parametric Z-test* was used to analyse differences in TL

and TM distributions between groups male-female and R-NR (each sex).

150 The regeneration-ratio (R:NR) and the sex-ratio (male:female) were estimated for the 151 whole population and for each of the three ontogenetic groups. A *Pearson Chi-square* 152 *test* was conducted to test the null hypothesis of equality of frequencies between R and 153 NR and by sexes (H_0 =1:1 ratio) with a significance level of α =0.05 (Sachs 1982; Sokal

154 & Rohlf 2012).

The bias and precision of annuli counts in otoliths were compared between readers, using paired *t-tests* (Campana 2001). Estimates of ageing precision were determined using the coefficient of variation (Chang 1982). The multivariate *Hotelling's* T^2 -*test* was used to compare growth parameters between R and NR females (Bernard 1981).

159 Otolith mass, TF and BF for R and NR females were represented as a function of tTL 160 and TL, respectively. Potential regressions for different groups were statistically 161 compared with slope homogeneity and covariance of linearized potential regression 162 applying an *F-test* (Sachs 1982). These tests evaluated the null hypothesis of equality of 163 two regressions estimated by sexes with a significance level of α =0.05. The same 164 procedure was conducted to compare TF and BF within R and NR against age.

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166 RESULTS

167 **Regeneration pattern**

A total of 917 individuals classified into two groups were sampled: non-regenerated (NR, n=659) and regenerated (R, n=258). R individuals had fewer vertebrae than NR individuals as a consequence of sublethal attacks, causing body loss in the caudal region. Most R individuals had a thicker caudal peduncle, produced by the regeneration process. By means of X-ray, the absence of a caudal skeleton, as well as the transformation of the last present vertebra after injury into a "pseudo-hypural plate" for insertion of new C-rays, was observed (Fig. 1).

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176 Prevalence of tail regeneration in a natural population

177 The NR females reached a mean size and a mean mass larger than males (TL, t=8.86 p < 0.05; TM, t = 7.92, p < 0.05) (Table S1). R females presented a mean size and mean 178 mass greater than R males (tTL, t=6.62 p < 0.05; TM, t=6.36, p < 0.05). The TL and TM 179 distributions of NR and R also differed significantly between females and males (Fig. 180 S4b; TL, Z=3.93 p<0.05; TM, Z=3.72, p<0.05). The distribution of tTL and TM of R 181 individuals also differed significantly between females and males (tTL, Z=2.61, p<0.05; 182 183 TM, Z=2.62, p < 0.05). For R females, the mean size was larger than NR (t=3.30, p < 0.05). Conversely, a similar mean size between R and NR males was found (t=0.799, 184 185 p>0.05) (Fig. 2a). The size distribution of R and NR groups was different, with NR females being present in the small classes, but the R group was absent in these classes 186 187 (Z=1.47, p < 0.05). Male size distributions were similar in both groups (Z=0.80, p > 0.05) 188 (Fig. 2b).

NR females were more abundant than NR males (1:6.3, $\chi^2=348.17$, p<0.05). Size 189 classes less than or equal to 180-200 mm TL showed similar numbers of NR males and 190 NR females (1:1, $\chi^2=0.923$, p>0.05). However, NR females were more abundant in size 191 classes larger than 200 mm TL ($\chi^2 > 7.14$, p < 0.05), mainly over 300 mm TL, where only 192 females were observed. R Females were also more abundant than R males (1:5.14, 193 χ^2 =117.35, p<0.05). With size classes, R females and R males followed the same pattern 194 as that observed for NR individuals. Female regeneration-ratio (R:NR) was 1:2.6 195 (γ^2 =79.02, p<0.05). Statistical differences were found among ontogenetic groups, where 196 dominance of NR females decreased from juveniles (1:5.6, $\chi^2=16.03$, p<0.05) and 197 young-adults (1:3.1, χ^2 =65.05 p<0.05) to old-adults (1:1.6, χ^2 =5.84 p<0.05). Moreover, 198 NR males were more abundant than R males in the ratio 1:2.1 ($\chi^2=11.57$, p<0.05). This 199 ratio was similar through the ontogeny of males (1:2.6, 1:2.1 and 1:1.8; $\chi^2=0.297$, 200 *p*>0.05). 201

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203 Tail loss

Estimations of tTL based on the HL-TL relationship of NR individuals yielded 204 significant differences between sexes (F=29.1403, p<0.05), being isometric in females 205 206 and males (t > 7.69, p < 0.05). The body lost length increased with ontogeny (F > 18.154, 207 p < 0.05): being 43.21±18.37 mm (mean±s.d) for juveniles, 61.90±25.29 mm for youngadults and 77.33±28.36 mm for old-adults, with the last group exhibiting the highest 208 209 losses (Fig. 3a). Young-adults showed the widest range of body lost length (0-45%), (Fig. 3b). A post hoc test showed differences in body lost length between young-adults 210 and old-adults (p < 0.05). Indeed, these groups showed differences within juveniles 211 212 (p < 0.05). The relationship between tTL and the number of vertebrae in regenerated specimens is shown in Figures S2 and S3. The highest vertebrae loss was 28, 213 214 corresponding with a specimen of 45% body lost length. We also measured the net 215 balance between lost fin surface and regenerated fin surface, and our results indicate 216 that they were completely offset until losses reached 15% of tTL (Fig. 4).

The regenerated length (regL) is independent of body lost length and of total length regenerated in % of theoretical total length (tTL). Values of regL showed a mean increase of 13±3.31 mm (mean±standard deviation, in %) and ranged between 5-19% of tTL for the entire range of sizes (Fig. S4).

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222 Growth

Statistical differences between NR and R females were found in the otolith mass–TL power function relationship (F=180.58, p<0.05). Indeed, mean otolith mass of R females (80.187±18.47 mg) was heavier than that of NR females (70.90±20.15 mg) (t=3.696, p<0.05) for the same size range distribution.

Based on the annual growth, ring counts of 173 (75%) readable female otoliths ranged 227 from 2 to 18 years (age). Fish younger than 2 years were absent in the study sample. 228 229 The youngest R individual was 8 years. The von Bertalanffy growth curves for observed TL and tTL at age of R and NR females are shown in Figure 5. Hotelling's T^2 -test 230 231 showed significant differences in the growth parameters between R and NR females $(T^2=106.930, p<0.05)$. Differences in growth between both groups increased with 232 longevity. NR and R individuals at 9 years exhibit differences of 18 mm in TL (NR, 252 233 mm TL; R, 234 mm tTL), and this value increased in individuals aged 17 years: 44 mm 234 235 in TL (NR, 345 mm TL; R, 301 mm tTL).

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237 Total fecundity, offspring and maternal fitness

The fecundity outputs by ontogeny are summarized in Table 1. There were no 238 significant differences between mean values of TF and BF between the NR and R 239 240 groups (t > 0.840, p > 0.05). Throughout ontogeny, mean fecundity outputs between NR and R groups showed no significant differences within young-adults. Nevertheless, R 241 old-adults showed lower BF than NR old-adults (t=2,180, p<0.05) (Table 1). TF and BF 242 plotted against TL and tTL for NR and R, respectively, showed significant differences 243 between groups (Fig. 6a) (F > 5.03, p < 0.05), wherein the slope of TF plotted against size 244 was lower in R females than NR females. This difference was greater when TF and BF 245 246 data were plotted and compared against the ages of the individuals (Fig. 6b) (F>180.30, 247 *p*<0.05).

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249 DISCUSSION

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Our study describes a remarkable capacity to withstand sublethal tail loss in *Physiculus cyanostrophus* a fish species not listed in previous reviews of sublethal tissue loss in freshwater or marine ecosystems (Maginnis 2006; Unguez 2013).

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255 Regenerated individuals in natural populations

Regenerated individuals represent a large fraction of the population (27.0%). This is a 256 257 high prevalence of tail loss in a marine species far exceeding the 3.1-15.5% observed in 258 the winter flounder in which the cause is bacterial fin-rot disease (Ziskowski et al. 259 2008). However, the distribution of regenerated individuals and its importance change within the natural population. Thus, the frequency of R individuals increases throughout 260 ontogeny (16.8-67.5%), whereas females dominate the long-lived fraction of the 261 population. This phenomenon may be because the species studied shows a marked 262 263 sexual dimorphism, where R or NR females are bigger and more abundant than R or NR males; a common strategy in deep-water species to avoid intraspecific competition for 264 265 resources (Shine 1989; Fairbairn 1997). An important consequence of ontogenetic niche shifts is that a population can potentially be divided into ecologically distinct stages 266 267 (Olson 1996). Concerning the subject of ontogeny, early stages and juveniles of our studied species exhibit a pelagic behaviour, in contrast with adults, which are 268 269 benthopelagic (Okamoto et al. 2007), as has been described in closely related groups, such as macrourids (Bergstad & Gordon 1994). These differences in ontogenetic niches 270

could explain the absence of regenerated juvenile specimens, because predation is morelikely to be lethal.

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274 Body losses in caudal region

275 The ability to withstand body losses varies with size and is higher in large individuals, which can survive losses of up to 28 vertebrae, equivalent to 45% of total length. 276 277 However, the capacity to regenerate the caudal zone in our studied species is limited. The balance between body lost length in a sublethal attack and the length of the newly 278 279 regenerated caudal region shows a limit of maximum recovery of 19% in tTL versus a 280 maximum of 45% of the body lost length. This limited regeneration of the caudal zone 281 could be an adaptive mechanism, as an imperfect or limited regeneration could 282 represent an optimal investment into the regeneration process for the injured animal (see 283 Bely & Nyberg 2010). This result is in line with those of studies on caudal fin regeneration in fishes (e.g., Fu et al. 2013). 284

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Tissue loss allocation cost in growth.

287 Our results describe a smaller somatic growth in regenerated females than NR females. 288 This statement was achieved through two approaches. On the one hand, a close relationship between otolith mass and age exists (e.g., Boehlert 1985; Pawson 1990; 289 290 Fletcher 1991; Worthington et al. 1995; Cardinale et al. 2000). Taking into account that 291 otolith mass continues to increase throughout the life of an individual, even if somatic 292 growth is small or null (e.g., Fowler & Doherty 1992, Morita & Matsuishi 2003, 293 Ashworth et al. 2016), a different context can be considered when comparing 294 regenerated and non-regenerated individuals. We found that predation does not affect 295 the increments in otolith mass with age. Nevertheless, injuries change the growth rate, 296 resulting in the R individuals showing a lower phenotypic growth compared to nonregenerated individuals. On the other hand, estimates of age based on the number of 297 298 growth increments also reveal differences between R and NR individuals. Our results 299 showed that the youngest R individual was 8 years old. The magnitude and effects of 300 the body loss on growth have a different degree of influence according to the percentage 301 of body lost and the elapsed time from the injury. This can be seen in the disribution of 302 age data. Therefore, the size of R individuals compared to NR individuals depends on 303 the time since the injury, and on the percentage of body loss. When a natural population is studied, the period in which the sublethal attack occurred on individuals is unknown. Therefore, our results indicate that regeneration implies a reduction in long-term growth. The benefit of structure replacement in their lifetime will depend on the age of the animal at injury and its expected longevity (Vitt & Cooper 1986). The slow growth and long age (18 years) observed in our species compensates for the energy allocation during the regeneration process, since in the long term, it benefits from producing offspring during many seasons.

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312 Tissue loss effects in offspring and maternal fitness

In nature, two well-differentiated strategies can be developed by a species depending on 313 314 whether natural selection maximizes the maternal or offspring fitness. Species in which evolution has prioritized offspring fitness tends to produce a single, very large offspring 315 316 (Bernardo 1996). In contrast, species wherein selection favours maternal fitness tend to 317 have a greater number of offspring with low fitness. The ability of mothers to produce 318 lower quality offspring (selfish maternal effect) does not imply a worsening of maternal fitness, but quite the opposite (Marshall & Uller 2007). Our studied species is a batch 319 320 spawner. This reproductive strategy maximizes maternal fitness and produces numerous smaller offspring (batches). Our comparative results on fecundity outputs between R 321 and NR groups showed no significant differences in mean values. However, across the 322 323 ontogeny, the R older-adults showed low offspring fitness. Indeed, the slope of the 324 relationship between fecundity or offspring and size for the whole population showed 325 lower values in R individuals. If we add growth as a factor in offspring fitness, these 326 differences become greater. Since there are regenerated individuals with less growth 327 than individuals without regeneration allocations (NR), the ability to regenerate the lost caudal area allows the population to maintain a large number of mothers that contribute 328 329 significantly to the next generation. It is important to bear in mind that, in this population group (old-adults), a higher frequency of regenerated specimens was found 330 331 (67.5%). Some authors argued that the contribution of larger females to self-recruitment 332 is significantly greater than the expected on the basis of the relationship between body 333 size and fecundity, indicating that female size has an important maternal effect on traits 334 in their offspring (see Beldade et al. 2012).

335 Survivorship of R individuals in the population of our studied species, even at the 336 expense of a decrease in offspring, generates a relevant contribution to maternal fitness at the population level. Following Einum & Fleming (2000), selection acts to maximize
maternal fitness. Mothers tend to make smaller, more numerous offspring, effectively
sacrificing individual offspring fitness for maternal fitness.

340

341 Loss of the tail

342 While it is true that sublethal predation implies an important allocation cost in different groups of metazoans (Alvarado 2000), it should be noted that the most widespread 343 sublethal predation in teleosts is reduced to scale-eating and fin-nipping specialized 344 345 predators (e.g., Sazima 1983; Winemiller 1990). In this scenario, sublethal predation in 346 fishes has been usually considered as an opportunistic mechanism to keep prey 347 abundant as a rapidly renewable resource for specialized predators (Northcote et al. 1986; Nico & Taphorn 1988). Our study suggests a well developed capacity of 348 349 *Physiculus cyanostrophus* to survive following a predator attack. However, the putative 350 predator has not been identified. The loss of the tail and regrowth with a pseudo-hypural 351 plate suggests the tail loss was traumatic event rather than disease as in the winter 352 flounder (Ziskowski et al. 2008).

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365 COMPETING INTEREST

366 The authors declare no competing interests.

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535	measurements of winter flounder, Pseudopleuronectes americanus from New Haven
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538	SUPPORTING INFORMATION
539	Additional Supporting Information can be found online in the supporting information
540	tab for this article.
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569 TABLE CAPTIONS

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Table 1. Mean values (\pm standard deviation) and range (minimum-maximum) of total fecundity (TF) and batch fecundity (BF) for non-regenerated (NR) and regenerated (R) individuals of *Physiculus cyanostrophus* in young-adults and old-adults ontogenetic groups. *Significant differences (p<0.05) between bold values.

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576 FIGURE CAPTIONS

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Figure 1. (a) *Physiculus cyanostrophus* with intact and regenerated tails. (b)
Radiographs of three regenerated individuals (R) within 10 and 35% of body losses in
total length (blTL). Examples of a regenerated caudal region "pseudo-hypural plate"
with regenerated new c-rays.

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Figure 2. Size distribution of males (a) and females (b) population of *Physiculus cyanostrophus*. Bars correspond to individuals for each size class of 10 mm TL. Green
bars are regenerated individuals (R), and black bars non-regenerated ones (NR).

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Figure 3. Box-plot showing ranges of body lost length (a) and in % of theoretical total length (tTL) (b) for juveniles, young-adults and old-adults in regenerated individuals of *Physiculus cyanostrophus*. Different letters above bars denote statistically significant differences (p<0.05) between ontogenetic groups. The line within each box is the median value, box ends represent the inner and outer quartiles, and whiskers are the inner and outer tenths.

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Figure 4. (a) Schematic representation of *Physiculus cyanostrophus* lost fin surface (red) and regenerated fin surface (green) for each % in total body lost length. (b) Net balance in fin surface for each % of body lost length of *P. cyanostrophus*. The green line denotes regenerated fin surface, the red line represents lost fin surface, and the grey line represents the balance between both measurements. Net balance means values for each interval of body lost length have been indicated. Net balance was completely offset up to losses of 15% of the total length.

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- Figure 5. Length-at-age data for regenerated (R) and non-regenerated (NR) females of 603 Physiculus cyanostrophus with fitted von Bertalanffy growth curves: $LT = L_{\infty} [1 - exp$ 604 $(-k(t - t_0))$], where LT is the length of fish at age t, L_{∞} is the estimated asymptotic 605 length, k is a constant that determines the rate at which TL approaches L_{∞} , and t₀ is the 606 607 hypothetical age at zero length. Age-range for regenerated individuals was 8-18. No individuals younger than 2 years were located in the studied population. Percentage 608 609 agreement between otolith readings of Reader 1 and Reader 2 (83.6-86.2%) was similar. Moreover, the exact match of the average readings between both readers was high 610 (85.3%) with a quite low variability of IAPE (t=1.654 p < 0.001) and CV indices (3.9%) 611 612 and 3.4%, respectively).
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Figure 6. Power function relationship of total (TF; a and b) and batch fecundity (BF; c

and d) between length (a and c) and age (b and d) of *Physiculus cyanostrophus*. Black

616 circles are non-regenerated (NR) individuals, whereas the green triangles are 617 regenerated (R) individuals.

			young	g-adults (200 <	TL < 300 mm	TL)					0	ld-adults (TL	> 300 mm TL)		
		Non-regener	ated (n=31)			Regenerat	ed (n=27)			Non-regener	rated (n=20)			Regenerat	ted (n=25)	
	Min	Max.	Mean	SD	Min	Max.	Mean	SD	Min	Max.	Mean	SD	Min	Max.	Mean	SD
TF	12,545.19	69,902.06	35,558.39	2,993.72	23,700.58	46,756.23	31,143.98	1,400.24	33,056.43	137,322.37	65,999.81	5,821.83	8,320.83	117,309.64	53,907.20	6,623.64
BF	2,212.05	29,766.23	10,018.10	1,080.44	4,651.03	14,930.94	9,140.64	783.87	8,488.68	44,959.84	18,254.08*	1,705.28	1,632.03	27,698.11	12,473.30*	1,758.57















Supporting information

Caudal region regeneration in a natural population of the morid fish *Physiculus cyanostrophus* in the tropical Eastern Atlantic Ocean.

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This supporting information contains the following:

Table S1 (Page 2)

Figure S1 (Page 3)

Figure S2 (Page 4)

Figure S3 (Page 5)

Figure S4 (Page 6)

Table S1. Total length, theoretical total length (TL & tTL in mm) and total mass (TM in g) values for males and females of none regenerated (NR in TL) and regenerated (R in tTL) individuals of *Physiculus cyanostrophus*. Min, minimum; max, maximum; n, number of specimens; mean, mean value followed by \pm standard deviation.

		n	size range (min-max)	mean size	mass range (min-max)	mean mass
ND	Females	569	129.00-353.09	269.09±2.51	11.82-278.51	124.68±3.25
NR	Males	90	130.00-290.00	211.28±4.86	12.88-132.71	57.95±3.92
R	Females	216	191.73-370.68	287.20±3.74	34.43-268.50	144.58±5.38
к	Males	42	175.04-279.00	225.40±7.16	12.88-132.71	61.33±5.69
	total	917				



Figure S1. Scheme of the main morphological data used in the study on *Physiculus cyanostrophus*. Total length (TL), length after injury (Lai, body length from snout to the beginning of regenerated area), regenerated length (regL, body length from the beginning of regenerated area to the end of the body), regenerated total length (regTL, length after injury + regenerated length) were measured to the nearest 0.01 mm. Body lost length (blL) was estimated as the difference between tTL – Lai. Regenerated fin surface (area from the beginning of regenerated area to the end of the body, including fin surface, mm²). For R individuals, the theoretical area (in %) was calculated by the relationship between TL and Tba (in %) from the NR individuals. Specimens (n=120) were prepared with fully extended fins and then photographed with a digital camera for further image analysis to obtain fin surface (mm²). Similarly, specimens with "pseudo-hypural plate", considered as regenerated individuals (R), were photographed (n=73) to calculate the regenerated fin surface (mo²).



Figure S2. Some examples of *Physiculus cyanostrophus* with regenerated caudal zone. Numbers in red indicate the number of lost vertebrae for each individual.



Figure S3. Relationship between % of body lost length (BIL) and losses in vertebrae in *Physiculus cyanostrophus*. Yellow spots represent number of abdominal vertebrae, white spots represent caudal vertebrae, and black spots represent hypural plate (13, abdominal vertebrae + 44, caudal vertebrae + 1, hypural plate). Numbers in parentheses represent the range of vertebrae lost for each %. Red spots represent the vertebra type lost. For a 5% BlL no vertebrae were lost, while for a 40% BlL represents the loss of 26 vertebras



Figure S4. The regenerated length (regL) is independent of body lost length and total length regenerated in % of theoretical total length (tTL). regL showed a mean increase of 13 ± 3.31 mm (mean \pm standard deviation, in %) and ranged between 5-19% of tTL for the entire size range. Regeneration in *Physiculus cyanostrophus* is limited to 19% of tTL.