

 As the embryos develop and after they hatch, fathers are the sole providers of the care necessary for offspring survival. During the ~6-day incubation period, the male 'fans' (oxygenates) the embryos with his pectoral fins, removes dead eggs and debris, and defends the 18 territory from predators. After the eggs hatch, the male tends his offspring for \sim 7 days by fanning the nest and fry as well as retrieving fry that stray from the nest in his mouth and spiting them back into the nest. During the entire parenting period, males also guard their nest from a suite of embryo and fry predators which include sculpin and other sticklebacks [1-4]. Sticklebacks from our California population typically live for one year but have multiple breeding attempts during the mating season. Males will also mate with multiple females even within a single breeding

 We chased females in predator-exposed tanks for 45 sec once a day with a 10 cm realistic rubber model of a natural predator, the Prickly sculpin (*Cottus asper*), attached to a stiff metal rod. We moved the model along the bottom and made lunges at each of the females, similar to the predator's behaviour. During the daily predator exposure, we aimed to lunge at each of the 10 females in the tank at least once. In a separate pilot study, we found that being chased by a model sculpin (details below) was an effective stressor to adults and elevated plasma cortisol levels in 56 adults (unexposed adults: 15.5 ± 3.3 ng/ml, N = 17; adults 30 min after exposure to the sculpin 57 model: 28.3 ± 6.0 ng/ml, N = 24). Females were chased at a random time each day so predator exposure was unpredictable. Females in the unexposed treatment were undisturbed. Females 59 experienced their treatments for 32 ± 2 days on average but total treatment time was variable 60 depending on when females became gravid (range: $3 - 77$ days). Importantly, there was no significant association between treatment time and courtship behaviour (Table S1).

Courtship & Breeding

 Males from the same population were housed singly in 9.5 L tanks (34 x 18 x 23 cm) with gravel, one artificial plant and a plastic nest box with fine sand as well as filamentous algae for nest building. As would occur in the field, males could see nearby males (i.e. competitors [6]), but to reduce the perceived threat of territorial intrusion, male tanks were separated from each other by at least 20 cm and the bottom half of the tank (where the nest was located) was covered with black fabric. Within their individual tanks, males were shown a gravid 'stimulus'

 female in a glass flask every two days to encourage them to build a nest. These stimulus females were not from our female treatment tanks and were not used in any behavioural assay.

 When a female was gravid (distended abdomen with an egg almost protruding from her gonopore), she was paired with a male that had completed a nest and 'crept through'. Male numbers were drawn out of a cup and paired randomly with either a predator-exposed or unexposed female. Importantly, female predator exposure treatments did not differ significantly in female body weight before spawning or clutch weight (Table S2). In the evening (between 8pm and 10pm), the female was gently blotted with a paper towel, weighed, and added to a male tank. The pair was left together overnight in the male's tank and could interact for several hours before the lights turned off at 11pm and after the lights turned on in the morning at 6am. We did evening pairings to reduce male aggression and minimize stress and damage to the female. For 5 minutes after the male noticed the female in the tank, we recorded male behaviour directed at the female (number of zigzags) and directed at the nest entrance (number of pokes and fanning bouts) as well as total female preference behaviours (sum of all head-ups, follows and nest inspections).

 The next morning (between 8am and 10am), the female was removed, weighed and visually inspected for spawning. After a courtship trial, females were returned to their home tank regardless of whether they had successfully spawned thus females were potentially reused throughout the experiment. Spawning was confirmed by either visible eggs in a male's nest and/or the female was deflated and had lost at least 0.15g overnight. However, not all courtship assays resulted in a successful spawn and we examined whether female treatment affected her

nest. Tanks with fathers and nests of father-reared offspring had their water flow turned off for 3

 days with several drops of methylene blue added to prevent fungus in the eggs. Partial water changes were made every day and on the 4th day, water flow was resumed on all tanks. Throughout the parenting period while fathers were rearing offspring (embryos and fry), daily

feedings were increased to twice a day with additional frozen bloodworms.

Paternal Care

 We made behavioural observations on a subset of males from these 67 spawns that were successful in rearing offspring to the fry stage. There was so significant effect of female predator exposure on the likelihood that a male on his first spawn would successfully rear offspring to fry 125 (Logistic regression: Wald $X^2 = 0.2588$, P = 0.6109, N = 13 males). We observed paternal care for 5 minutes on 4 days (at 10am-12pm), with two observations occurring before embryos had hatched (days 3 and 4 after fertilization), and two observations occurring after hatching when offspring were fry (days 7 and 8 after fertilization). We recorded and summed (1) the number of nest pokes and fanning bouts directed at the nest entrance and (2) the number of nest visits (i.e. father hovering within a body length of nest) and offspring retrievals (i.e. father put an offspring in his mouth and released it into nest). We kept these two types of paternal care behaviours separate since males often hover above the nest box and circle the area (i.e. guarding or retrieving fry) during a nest visit, but do not necessarily perform nest pokes or fans. Nests were observed behind a blind several feet away. Observers were blind to maternal treatment.

Statistical Details

 For the two mixed models examining how male courtship was affected by female predator exposure, we included female treatment as a fixed effect and female identity as a

 For both the full courtship data set and the parental care subset, we examined whether differences between female treatments might be associated with other differences. We used mixed models to compare female treatments in male standard length, male throat colour, female mass before spawning, clutch mass, and in the case of courtship, number of female preference behaviours, including female identity or her particular housing tank as random effects as appropriate. For female size-related traits in the courtship dataset, we included female housing tank as a random effect. For female preference behaviour in the courtship dataset, we included female identity as a random effect. We tested for the significance of random effects with log- likelihood tests. Female mass and clutch mass were natural log-transformed and female preference behaviour was natural log-transformed after adding 1 to the data to account for any 172 zero values. We also compared female treatments in male throat colour score (1-4), using a generalized linear mixed models specifying a multinomial (ordered) response distribution and a cumulative logit link with maximum likelihood estimation. Since male throat coloration and female clutch size might be related to paternal care, we tested for correlations between these traits and paternal care on each day using Spearman correlations. 178 All analyses were conducted with SAS^{TM} version 9.3.

-
-

180 RESULTS

 For the courtship assays, neither male size nor male throat colour score differed 182 significantly between female treatments (Table S2, male standard length: $F_{1, 61} = 2.63$, P = 183 0.1097; male throat colour: $F_{1,60} = 2.10$, $P = 0.1526$). Neither female mass before spawning nor the mass of the spawned clutch (prior to our clutch manipulation), were affected by female

185 treatment or female housing tank (female mass: $F_{1, 11, 7} = 0.09$, $P = 0.7748$, random effect of 186 female housing tank: $X^2 = 1.5$, P = 0.2207; clutch mass: F_{1, 12} = 0.02, P = 0.8884, random effect 187 of female housing tank: $X^2 = 0.9$, P = 0.3428). Female preference behaviour did not differ 188 significantly between predator-exposure treatments (Table S2; $F_{1, 38.4} = 1.08$, $P = 0.3044$, random 189 effect of female identity: $X^2 = 0.6$, P = 0.4386).

190

191 For the subset of individuals used in the paternal care part of the study, neither male size 192 nor male throat colour score differed significantly between female treatments (Table S3, male 193 standard length: $F_{1, 14} = 2.17$, P = 0.1630; male throat colour: $F_{1, 11} = 3.23$, P = 0.0999). 194 Similarly, female mass before spawning and the mass of the spawned clutch (as determined by 195 the difference in female mass before and after spawning) were not significantly affected by 196 female treatment (Table S3, female mass: $F_{1, 14} = 1.00$, P = 0.3336; clutch mass: $F_{1, 14} = 3.25$, P = 197 0.0931). Neither type of paternal care was significantly associated with male throat coloration 198 (Spearman r = -0.43 to 0.09, P > 0.05, N = 15) or initial (before manipulation) female clutch size 199 (Spearman $r = -0.49$ to 0.38, $P > 0.05$, $N = 16$) when examining each day separately. Patterns of 200 courtship behaviour for this smaller subset (Table S3) were similar to the larger courtship data 201 set (Table S2).

202

- 204 Table S1. (A) Mean number of days (\pm standard errors) females had been in their respective
- 205 treatments before being courted by a male and (B) Spearman rank correlations (P-values in

206 parentheses) between days in treatment and courtship behaviour.

207

- 209 Table S2. Means \pm standard errors of female and male traits for successful spawns (N = 67
- 210 unless otherwise indicated).
- 211

213

- 214 Table S3. Means ± standard errors of female and male traits for fathers rearing offspring from
- 215 predator-exposed and unexposed mothers $(N = 16$ unless otherwise indicated).
- 216

217

REFERENCES 1. Rowland, W. J. 1994 Proximate determinants of stickleback behaviour: an evolutionary perspective. In *The Evolutionary Biology of the Threespine Stickleback* (eds M. A. Bell & S. A. Foster), pp. 297–344. 2. Pressley, P. H. 1981 Parental effort and the evolution of nest-guarding tactics in the three- spined stickleback, Gasterosteus aculeatus. *Evolution (N. Y).* **35**, 282–295. 3. Maccoll, A. D. C. & Chapman, S. M. 2011 A benthic predatory fish does not cause selection on armour traits in three-spined stickleback Gasterosteus aculeatus (Gasterosteiformes: Gasterosteidae). *Biol. J. Linn. Soc.* **104**, 877–885. (doi:10.1111/j.1095-8312.2011.01759.x) 4. Foster, S. & Ploch, S. 1990 Determinants of variation in antipredator behavior of territorial male threespine stickleback in the wild. *Ethology* **84**, 281-294. 231 (doi:10.1111/j.1439-0310.1990.tb00803.x) 5. Candolin, U. 1998 Reproduction under predation risk and the trade-off between current and future reproduction in the threespine stickleback. *Proc. R. Soc. B Biol. Sci.* **265**, 1171– 1175. (doi:10.1098/rspb.1998.0415) 6. Candolin, U. 1997 Predation risk affects courtship and attractiveness of competing threespine stickleback males. *Behav. Ecol. Sociobiol.* **41**, 81–87. (doi:10.1007/s002650050367)