











## RESEARCH ARTICLE

# Flexibility, variability and constraint in energy management patterns across vertebrate taxa revealed by long-term heart rate measurements

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## Abstract

1. Animals are expected to be judicious in the use of the energy they gain due to the costs and limits associated with its intake. The management of energy expenditure (EE) exhibited by animals has previously been considered in terms of three patterns: the constrained, independent and performance patterns of energy management. These patterns can be interpreted by regressing daily EE against maintenance EE measured over extended periods. From the multiple studies on this topic, there is equivocal evidence about the existence of universal patterns in certain aspects of energy management.
2. The implicit assumption that animals exhibit specifically one of three discrete energy management patterns, and without variation, seems simplistic. We suggest that animals can exhibit gradations of different energy management patterns and that the exact pattern will fluctuate as their environmental context changes.
3. To investigate these ideas, and for possible large-scale patterns in energy management, we analysed long-term heart rate data—a strong proxy for EE—across and within individuals in 16 species of birds, mammals and fish.
4. Our analyses of 292 individuals representing 46,539 observation-days suggest that vertebrates typically exhibit predominantly the independent or performance energy patterns at the across-individual level, and that the pattern does not associate with taxonomic group. Within individuals, however, animals generally exhibit some degree of energy constraint. Together, these findings indicate that across diverse species, some individuals supply more energy to all aspects of their life than do others, however all individuals must trade-off deployment of their available energy between competing functions. This demonstrates that

within-individual analyses are essential for the interpretation of energy management patterns.

5. We also found that species do not necessarily exhibit a fixed energy management pattern but rather temporal variation in their energy management over the year. Animals' energy management exhibited stronger energy constraint during periods of higher EE, which typically coincided with clear and key life cycle events such as reproduction, suggesting an adaptive plasticity to respond to fluctuating energy demands.

#### KEYWORDS

annual cycle, eco-physiology, energetics, energy management, heart rate, metabolic rate

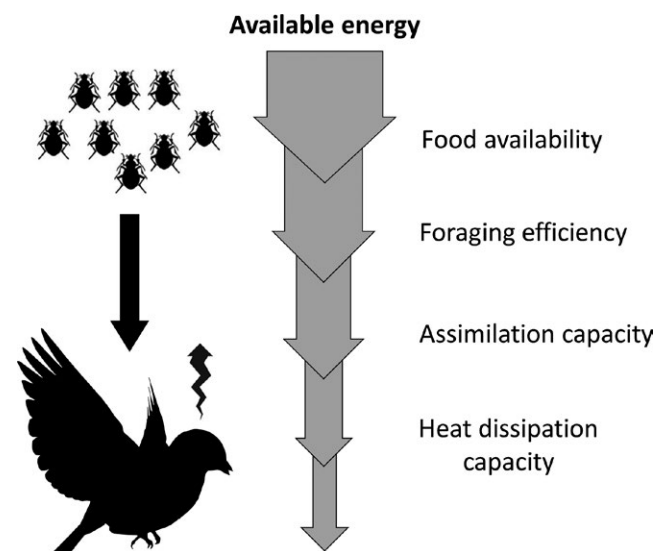
## 1 | INTRODUCTION

Every biological process of an organism costs energy and animals are therefore limited in their actions by their energy throughput; the amount of energy they consume and use. The limit on their energy throughput may be due to finite food availability in the environment (McNab, 2002; Stearns, 1992; Thomas, Blondel, Perret, Lambrechts, & Speakman, 2001), or inherent limitations in their capacity to accumulate energy in terms of harvesting, digesting or assimilating it (Drent & Daan, 1980; Gearty, McClain, & Payne, 2018; Hammond & Diamond, 1997; West, Brown, & Enquist, 1999). Alternatively, animals may have a ceiling on their rate of energy expenditure, perhaps due to limited musculature (Hammond & Diamond, 1997), or in order to avoid physiological damage (Piersma, 2011) due to, for example, hyperthermia (Nilsson & Nord, 2018; Speakman & Krol, 2010) (Figure 1). Furthermore, energy throughput may be optimised in animals, and any increase in throughput could have fitness consequences such as increased risk of mortality (Daan, Deerenberg, & Dijkstra, 1996; Santos & Nakagawa, 2012), perhaps due to immune suppression (Pontzer, 2018) or oxidative stress (Costantini, Dell'Ariccia, & Lipp, 2008). Although there have been a number of studies about energy management (e.g. Daan, Masman, & Groenewold, 1990; Pontzer, 2015; Portugal et al., 2016; Ricklefs, Kornazewski, & Daan, 1996), the resultant observations have not formed a coherent picture and we presently lack an understanding of whether there are governing principles operating across taxa. It seems possible then that the limiter on an animal's energy throughput probably varies between species and may vary within species and individuals, across their life histories and seasonally (Careau et al., 2013; Speakman & Krol, 2010).

### 1.1 | Patterns of energy management

As previously proposed (e.g. Ricklefs et al., 1996), we can consider an animal's management of energy expenditure in terms of two broad sets of processes. The first broad category includes energy spent on "maintenance" processes required to maintain

homeostasis (which can include respiration, Codd, Boggs, Perry, & Carrier, 2005, immuno-competency, Deerenberg, Arpanius, Daan, & Bos, 1997, blood circulation, nerve function, thermoregulation, Lewden, Enstipp, Picard, van Walsum, & Handrich, 2017, digestion, Secor, 2009, reproductive physiology, Ellison, 2003; Perrigo, 1987; Perrigo & Bronson, 1983; Wiersma & Verhulst, 2005, protein turnover, Yu, Tompkins, Ryan, & Young, 1999 and somatic repair more broadly, Wiersma & Verhulst, 2005). The second broad category includes energy spent directly on auxiliary processes, which have typically been termed "activity" and assumed to constitute solely active behaviours such as locomotion, mate competition and parental care (Careau, 2017; Halsey, Matthews, Rezende, Chauvaud,



**FIGURE 1** Animals have a maximum possible throughput of energy, because they inevitably experience energy constraints. These can arise from a number of exogenous or endogenous factors: limited food availability in the environment; limited capacity to harvest available food; limited capacity to assimilate the food harvested; limited capacity to release heat generated by the expenditure of energy. Thus, the theoretically available energy to an animal (widest grey arrow, top) is in reality a much smaller energy availability once all potential constraints are factored in (thinnest grey arrow, bottom)

& Robson, 2015; Ricklefs et al., 1996), but can also include inactive behaviours such as maintaining a posture (Levine, Schleusner, & Jensen, 2000; Ward, Speakman, & Slater, 2003) and fidgeting (Levine, Eberhardt, & Jensen, 1999; see the Supplementary for more information). Presently, the literature recognises three possible models of energy management patterns that animals could follow (Careau, 2017; Careau & Garland, 2015; Mathot & Dingemanse, 2015). The pattern that is often the default assumption of how energy is managed in animals is that the amount of energy spent on activity is not related to the amount of energy spent on maintenance processes. In this “independent” pattern of energy management (Careau & Garland, 2012), overall energy expenditure is not restricted and increases in energy spent on activity do not require a compensatory decrease in energy spent on maintenance. This management pattern is represented by positive, unitary (slope ~1) covariation between overall and maintenance energy expenditure (Mathot & Dingemanse, 2015; Figure S1a). Alternatively, an animal could be constrained to maintain its overall energy expenditure within a narrow range (Pontzer, 2015), in which case any increase in activity or other auxiliary processes (resulting in increased energy expenditure) must be countered by a decrease in maintenance energy expenditure (Deerenberg, Overkamp, Visser, & Daan, 1998; Welcker, Speakman, Elliott, Hatch, & Kitaysky, 2014) or, vice versa, increased maintenance necessitates decreases in auxiliary processes. This energy management pattern is termed the “constrained” pattern (Pontzer, 2015) and is defined by a lack of covariation between an animal's overall energy expenditure (often measured as daily energy expenditure) and its maintenance energy expenditure over time (Careau, 2017; Figure S1b). The third energy management pattern, which also does not restrain overall energy expenditure, is defined by an intrinsic link between auxiliary and maintenance energy expenditure, such that an increase in one is associated with an increase in the other: the “performance” pattern of energy management (Careau, Thomas, Humphries, & Réale, 2008). This can arise when sustaining high levels of activity requires subsequent physical and/or physiological recovery. Alternatively, animals becoming more active may require costly digestive organs to assimilate, and/or increased muscularity to expend, the extra energy associated with that activity (Swanson, McKechnie, & Vézina, 2017; Yap, Kim, Harris, & Williams, 2017). Consequently, this management pattern is represented by positive covariation between overall and maintenance energy expenditure with a slope gradient greater than 1 (Mathot & Dingemanse, 2015; Figure S1c).

Different energy management patterns may be preferable in different scenarios, although studies to date have not formerly investigated such context dependency. Animals exhibiting high levels of activity during periods of food scarcity might in particular benefit from reducing maintenance energy expenditure—the constrained pattern—because this approach would prevent their overall energy requirements from increasing, which may enhance survivability. For example, mice exposed to a food shortage, and obliged to work for that food, respond by daily torpor (Hut, Pilorz, Boerema, Strijkstra, & Daan, 2011). By contrast, energy expenditure represented by the

independent pattern in this scenario would cause an increase in overall energy requirements coinciding with periods when starvation risk is highest (Pontzer, 2015). The constrained pattern might also prove advantageous when food is abundant but predation risk is high, because limiting energy requirements would reduce the need to forage, in turn limiting exposure to predators (Mathot, Abbey-Lee, Kempenaers, & Dingemanse, 2016).

In some situations, however, an uncoupling of the energy expenditure of different organ systems and thus removing constraints on overall energy expenditure (the independent pattern) might be advantageous, providing the animal with energetic flexibility to respond to their changing ecology or life history. While eider ducks are moulting, their cost of feather production appears to increase their maintenance metabolic rate while their activity energy costs remain unchanged (Guillemette & Butler, 2012). During periods when food availability is predictably high and an enhanced physical state is required, such as in king penguins foraging at sea after a fast (Gauthier-Clerc, Le Maho, Clerquin, Bost, & Handrich, 2002), animals may benefit from a pattern of energy expenditure described by the performance pattern of energy management. They could take advantage of the copious energy supplies to augment their physical capacity for foraging and to rebuild their fat stores, during which they are expending increased amounts of energy on activity and other auxiliary processes, and also on maintenance energy expenditure due to their increase in body mass, digestive organs and muscle volume.

The energy management patterns adopted by animals have typically been assessed by looking at the phenotypic correlation between overall and maintenance metabolic rates across individuals (Careau et al., 2013; Fyhn et al., 2001; Portugal et al., 2016; Tieleman, Dijkstra, Klasing, Visser, & Williams, 2008), resulting in varying conclusions. Fyhn et al. (2001) reported that a population of kittiwakes *Rissa tridactyla* exhibited no correlation between their maintenance and overall metabolic rates, indicating they followed the independent pattern of energy management, while Tieleman et al. (2008) found that maintenance and overall metabolic rates positively correlated in the house wren *Troglodytes aedon*. Across-individual analyses are complicated by the fact that metabolic rates vary as much within individuals as across individuals, as indicated by only moderate repeatability (White, Schimpf, & Matthews, 2013). Hence, the phenotypic correlation between overall and maintenance metabolic rates can be shaped by processes occurring at both the across- and within-individual levels (Dingemanse & Dochtermann, 2013). Investigating the correlation at both these levels is therefore required to fully interpret the covariation present (Careau & Wilson, 2017). The across- and within-individual levels of analysis explore different, though related, biological questions: At the across-individuals level, we are asking whether individuals that, on average, have high overall energy expenditure also have, on average, higher maintenance energy expenditure. By contrast, at the within-individual level we are asking whether an individual's changes in overall energy expenditure are correlated with its changes in maintenance energy expenditure.

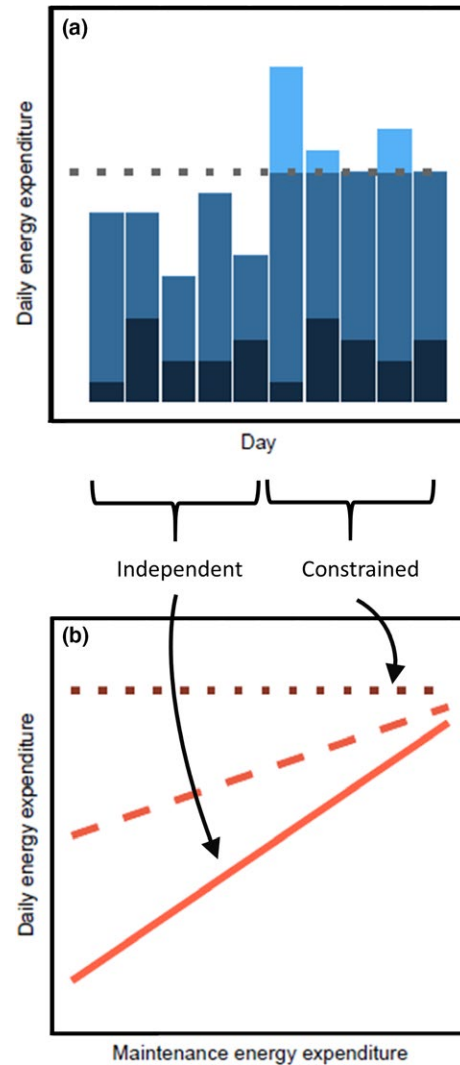
## 1.2 | Energy management patterns as a fluctuating continuum

Previous studies considering energy management patterns, including a recent review of those studies by Mathot and Dingemanse (2015), and subsequent single- and multi-species studies (Careau, 2017; Portugal et al., 2016), have implicitly assumed that species or individuals consistently exhibit one of the patterns discretely. However, there is no reason to suppose that the energy management pattern adopted should be exactly the constraint pattern or exactly the independent pattern, nor that the pattern should be consistent over time. It is more likely that patterns of energy expenditure will typically indicate a blend of patterns. Figure 2 illustrates how the presence of a threshold constraint on an animal's energy throughput (such as food intake) could drive the pattern of energy expenditure to be that of a degree of energy constraint (slope = 0) when the threshold is consistently being reached or alternatively more predominantly the independent pattern (slope = 1) when the threshold is consistently not being reached. In turn, animals that reach this threshold sometimes but not always would have an average slope value less than 1, but not 0, indicating partial constraint of their energy expenditure.

One of the main limitations to testing whether energy management patterns differ at the across- versus within-individual levels, and over time, is that repeated measures of both overall and maintenance energy expenditure must be obtained in multiple individuals. A viable method for obtaining such data is through the biologging of heart rate ( $f_H$ ). Heart rate is a robust proxy of metabolic rate, the two positively correlating in every endothermic species and most ectothermic species (cf. Thorarensen, Gallagher, & Farrell, 1996) examined to date (Green, 2011), in accordance with Fick's (1870) principle of convection within the cardiovascular system. Accordingly, Portugal et al. (2016) demonstrated that for multiple bird species, for which metabolic rate- $f_H$  calibrations are available, assessment of energy management patterns does not change when based on metabolic rate estimates compared to  $f_H$  measures. Consequently,  $f_H$  measures can be analysed to investigate the energy management patterns of those animals, where daily mean  $f_H$  represents daily energy expenditure and daily minimum  $f_H$  represents (daily) maintenance energy expenditure. Auxiliary energy expenditure is represented by the difference between daily mean  $f_H$  and daily minimum  $f_H$ .

We assembled a dataset that included a total of 46,539 observation-days on 292 individuals of 16 species of free-ranging birds and mammals, including humans, and also an ectothermic fish species. Such a dataset allowed us to investigate a number of key questions about energy management patterns in free-ranging vertebrates, including:

1. Do the patterns of energy management differ between species and taxonomic groups?
2. Are there systematic differences in energy management patterns between the across- and within-individual levels?
3. Within species, is there variation in the patterns of energy management over time and can this be explained by their daily energy expenditure or ecology?



**FIGURE 2** Illustration of a hypothesis to explain intra-individual variation in patterns in energy expenditure. During periods when daily energy expenditure is below a threshold (a, the first 5 days), the energy expended on maintenance processes (darkest blue) is unconstrained by the energy expended on auxiliary processes such as activity (medium blue). In a regression of daily energy expenditure against maintenance energy expenditure (b), this manifests as a slope value of 1 (light, full red line). By contrast, during periods when auxiliary energy expenditure is high and daily energy expenditure is reaching the threshold (a, the second 5 days), daily energy expenditure is constrained by a reduction in auxiliary energy expenditure (the light blue bars indicate what auxiliary and daily energy expenditure would be without constraint), which manifests as a slope value of zero (dark, dotted red line). Consequently, the slope of the relationship between daily energy expenditure and maintenance energy for the entire 10 days lies between the slope values of the relationships for the first and last 5 days (medium, dashed red line), and thus has a slope value  $<1 >0$ , indicating partial energy constraint

## 2 | MATERIALS AND METHODS

The current analysis includes heart rate ( $f_H$ ) datasets from 9 bird (all water birds), 6 mammal and 1 fish species performing a range



**TABLE 1** Heart rate datasets included in this study, collected on free-ranging vertebrates, including 15 endotherms species (9 birds, 6 mammals) and one ectotherm species (salmon). Shown are the number of individuals ( $N_{ID}$ ), the range of total daily observations per individual (range  $n_{OBS}$ ), the average number of daily observations per individual ( $n_{OBS/ID}$ ), the principal mode(s) of locomotion and the ecological context of the period of data collection

Species	$N_{ID}$	Range $n_{OBS}$	$n_{OBS/ID}$	Main locomotion mode(s)	Key ecological factors	Reference
Barnacle geese	6	272–361	331.8	Walking, swimming, flying	Year-round	Portugal et al., submitted
Greylag geese	22	44–527	315.6	Walking, flying	Year-round <sup>a</sup>	Wascher et al. (2018)
Great cormorants	7	46–122	99.6	Diving, flying	Overwintering	Grémillet et al. (2005)
European shags	8	5–35	16.5	Diving, flying	Breeding, foraging	Hicks et al. (2017)
Australasian gannets	6	28–237	154.3	Flying	Breeding, foraging	Green et al. (2013)
Little penguins	5	9–200	135.2	Swimming, diving	Non-breeding season	Portugal et al. (2016)
King penguins	6	6–30	23.8	Swimming, diving	Foraging, breeding	Halsey, Butler, Fahlman, Bost, and Handrich (2010)
Macaroni penguins	63	18–450	204.1	Swimming, diving	Year-round	Green, Woakes, Boyd, and Butler (2005)
Eider ducks	13	131–219	203.4	Swimming, diving, flying	Moulting	Guillemette, Pelletier, Grandbois, and Butler (2007)
Przewalski horses	7	37–264	149.9	Walking	Large enclosure	Arnold, Ruf, and Kuntz (2006)
Alpine ibex	20	6–647	347.9	Walking	Year-round <sup>a</sup>	Signer, Ruf, and Arnold (2011)
Red deer (dataset 1)	15	278–549	441.1	Walking	Year-round, large enclosure <sup>a</sup>	Turbill et al. (2011)
Red deer (dataset 2)	9	11–607	203.6	Walking	Year-round, large enclosure	Arnold et al. (2004)
Roe deer	15	8–372	152.7	Walking	Year-round, large enclosure	Reimoser (2012)
Human beings	7	12–20	14.4	Walking	Daily modern life	This study: KJM and LGH
Grey seals	29	6–20	10.4	Body undulation	On land, resting, nursing	This study: SDT
Sockeye salmon	54	1–17	7.0	Swimming	Competitive terminal reproduction	This study: TSP and SJC

Notes. <sup>a</sup>These datasets contain year-long data for sufficient individuals in order for month-by-month analyses over the annual cycle to be conducted robustly (see main text for further details).

of natural behaviours and locomotion modes (Table 1). Some of these datasets have been reported elsewhere; for details of the devices used to measure  $f_H$  and the data collection protocols, refer to the citations in Table 1. For most of the species included in our analyses, heart rate was obtained from electrocardiography. For alpine ibex and the red deer in dataset 1, however, heart rate was determined from an accelerometer located in the reticulum, which accurately recorded heart rate when the instrumented animal was stationary and during relatively gentle activity (Signer et al., 2010). During high levels of activity, heart rate was not discernible in the recorded acceleration data due to signal noise. However, the accelerometer did successfully record the elevated heart rates of the animals immediately after activity. Heart rate measurements for red deer dataset 2 were obtained from electrocardiograms and had a range (~35–85 beats/min) similar to that of red deer dataset 1 (~35–75 beats/min). The dataset for roe deer also included activity count data that we analyse here (see Supplementary). The datasets for human beings *Homo sapiens*, grey seals *Halichoerus*

*grypus* and sockeye salmon *Oncorhynchus nerka* have not been published previously; see Supplementary for details of the methods of data collection for these species.

## 2.1 | Calculating variables for analysis

Daily mean  $f_H$  was calculated for each 24-hr period for each individual of every species. Daily minimum  $f_H$  was determined by calculating mean  $f_H$  for consecutive short time intervals (2–15 min, depending on the study) throughout the 24-hr day and selecting the lowest of these values for each day (Portugal et al., 2016).

## 2.2 | Statistical analyses

We assessed the use of alternative energy management patterns by the study species (along the continua between the full constrained and full independent patterns, and the performance pattern) at both the across- and within-individual levels. This was

achieved through visual assessment of the slope and 95% confidence intervals of regression between daily mean  $f_H$  against daily minimum  $f_H$ . These regressions were generated from a single mixed model for each species, including individual identity as a random effect to account for the repeated values representing each individual. Daily mean  $f_H$  is very likely to show temporal autocorrelation (Portugal et al., 2016), which we accounted for using `lme()` in R (NLME package) to fit models that included autocorrelation structure in the residuals.

In situations where the within-individual relationship differs from the across-individual relationship, these relationships can be confounded in a standard mixed model (Van de Pol & Wright, 2009). We used the within-subject centring approach (Dingemanse, Kazem, Réale, & Wright, 2010; Van de Pol & Wright, 2009) to distinguish between alternative energy management patterns at the across- and within-individual levels. This involves fitting daily minimum  $f_H$  as both individual means ( $x_i$ ) and deviations from individual means ( $x_{ij} - x_i$ ), where  $x_{ij}$  is a daily observation of minimum  $f_H$   $i$  from subject  $j$ . In simple terms, the across-individuals slope ( $\beta_A$ ) can be obtained by attributing all observations of daily minimum  $f_H$  in a given individual the same average value ( $x_i$ ), whereas the within-individual slope ( $\beta_W$ ) can be obtained by subtracting the subject's mean value ( $x_i$ ) from each observation value ( $x_{ij}$ ). Specifically, we analysed  $i$  daily observations of average  $f_H$  on subject  $j$  ( $y_{ij}$ ) as:

$$y_{ij} = (\beta_0 + u_{0j}) + \beta_A x_i + (\beta_W + u_{Wj})(x_{ij} - x_i) + e_{0ij}$$

where  $y_{ij}$  is the response variable (daily mean  $f_H$ );  $\beta_0$  is the fixed effect of the intercept;  $u_{0j}$  is a random intercept associated with individual identity;  $\beta_A$  is the across-individual slope fixed effect ( $\beta_A$ ) associated with individual means ( $x_i$ );  $\beta_W$  is the within-individual slope fixed effect ( $\beta_W$ ) associated with deviations from individual means ( $x_{ij} - x_i$ );  $u_{Wj}$  is the random slope allowing for individual variation in the within-individual slope; and  $e_{0ij}$  is a residual error term modelled with an autoregressive function of order 1 with day of the year (time covariate) fitted within individual identity (grouping factor).

Although we were not specifically interested in  $u_{Wj}$  (the individual variance in the slope of the within-individual relationship between mean and daily minimum  $f_H$ ), allowing individuals to differ in their within-individual slopes is important for properly estimating uncertainty around the population-level within-individual slope ( $\beta_W$ ) (Schielzeth & Forstmeier, 2008). We did not fit a covariance between  $u_{0j}$  and  $u_{Wj}$  because the models would not converge in some species where either the random intercepts or slope variance components were close to zero. The energy management patterns were assessed by plotting the slope of the regression line between daily mean  $f_H$  and daily minimum  $f_H$ , and its 95% confidence interval (CI), on a horizontal, graded box plot (Careau, 2017). The fully constrained pattern is represented by slope = 0, the fully independent pattern by slope = 1 and the performance pattern by slope >1 (Careau, 2017; Mathot & Dingemanse, 2015; Ricklefs et al., 1996). A slope value between 0 and 1 would suggest a degree of both the constrained and independent patterns, that is partial compensation of high maintenance or high auxiliary energy expenditure.

To investigate variation in energy management pattern through the annual cycle and how this relates to daily energy expenditure, we explored changes in the across- and within-individual slopes for each month separately, for red deer dataset 1, alpine ibex and greylag geese. Each of these datasets included a majority of individuals (coincidentally, 14 individuals each time) with >300 days of heart rate data. Linear regressions formally tested whether variation in the monthly within-individual slopes related to monthly means of daily mean  $f_H$ .

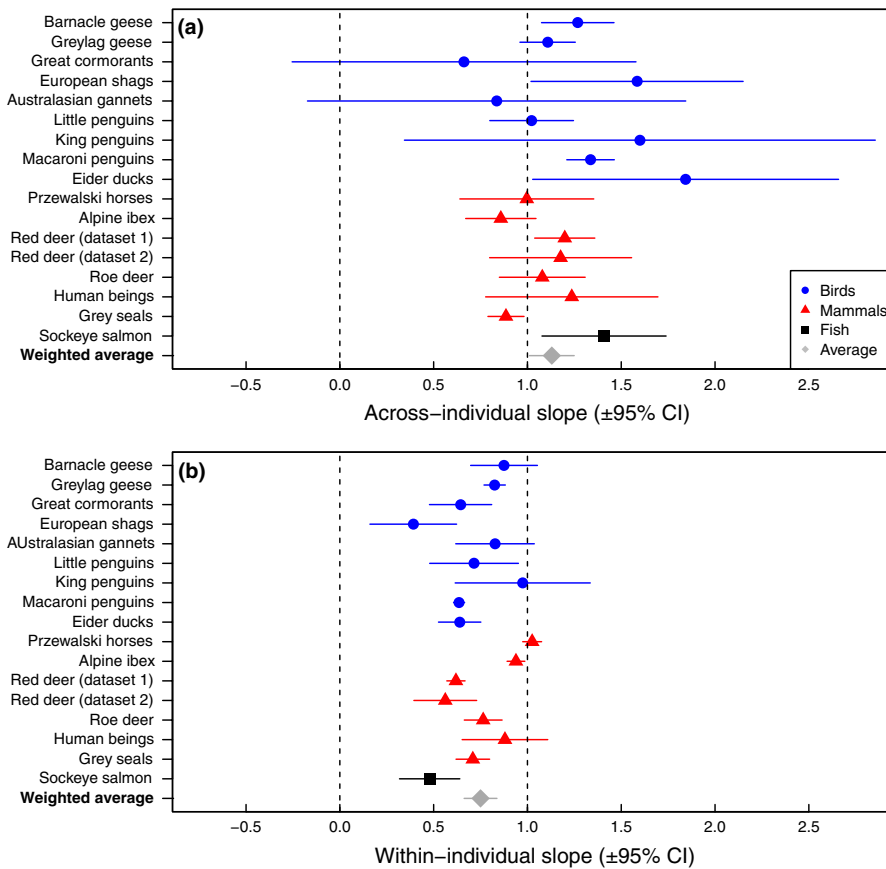
While there is of course some degree of inaccuracy in estimating metabolic rate from heart rate (Green, 2011), we assume this noise is overwhelmed by the signal of heart rate changes at the magnitude we observed in our analyses.

### 3 | RESULTS

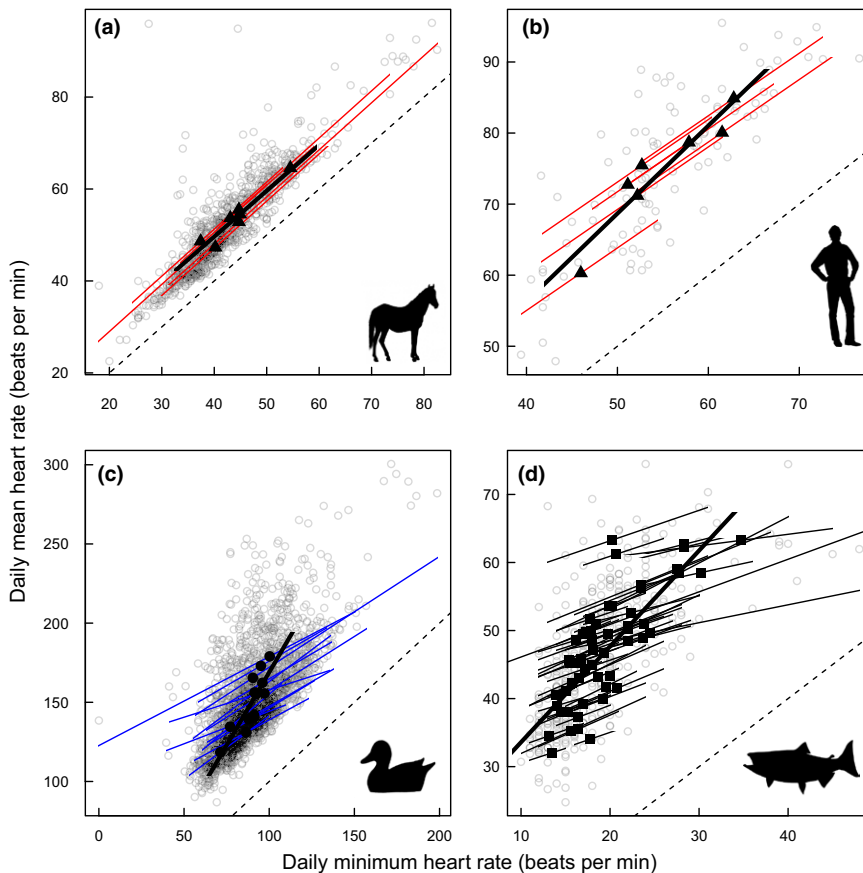
In all species except roe deer, there is strong and statistically significant temporal autocorrelation in the residuals at the within-individual level (Figure S3; Table S1). All of the across- and within-individual slope values presented below were extracted from mixed models that accounted for temporal autocorrelation, individual variation in daily mean  $f_H$  (random intercepts) and individual variation in the slope of the relationship between mean and daily minimum  $f_H$  (random slopes).

The estimated across-individuals slopes are supportive of the patterns of predominantly energy independence (slope = 1) and energy performance (slope >1; Figure 3a and Table S2a). The species most clearly following a pattern of energy performance rather than independence are barnacle geese, European shags, macaroni penguins, eider ducks and sockeye salmon. While there are differences in the degree of energy performance between species, visual inspection of Figure 3a suggests no differences in pattern between birds in general and mammals in general, or the fish species. By contrast, the within-individual slopes are usually most supportive of an element of energy constraint (Table S2b; Figure 3b), with the slope being <1 in 12 out of 16 species, and the 95% CI overlapping with slope = 1 in only 5 species. Again, there are no apparent differences in the degrees of energy constraint between taxa. Some relationships are similar at the across- and within-individual levels, in particular the Przewalski horse (Figure 4a), and to some degree human beings (Figure 4b). For many of the other species, however, the across- and within-individual slopes are clearly different. For example, eider ducks and sockeye salmon have across-individual slopes that are clearly >1 (indicating a degree of performance pattern) but the within-individual slopes are clearly <1 (energy constraint; Figure 4c,d). In general, there is a decrease in the slope value from the across-individual analysis to the within-individual analysis, summarised by the weighted averages (Figure 3a,b; Table S2).

Finally, in those species for which year-round data are available for sufficient individuals (red deer, alpine ibex and greylag geese), there is marked variation in the across- and within-individual slopes. This is most notable at the within-individual level for all three species (Figure 5). Linear regression analyses of mean monthly values of daily mean heart rate against monthly



**FIGURE 3** Slope ( $\pm 95\%$  confidence intervals; CI) of the relationship between daily mean heart rate ( $f_H$ , a proxy of daily energy expenditure) and daily minimum  $f_H$  (a proxy of daily maintenance energy expenditure) estimated at the (a) across- and (b) within-individual levels in 9, 6 and 1 species of free-ranging birds (blue dots), mammals (red triangles) and fish (green squares). The slope and 95% CI can be used to identify the energy management pattern adopted in each species. While complete energetic constraint is represented by a slope of 0, complete energy independence is represented by a slope of 1 because of the whole-part correlation (i.e. daily minimum  $f_H$  is included within daily mean  $f_H$ ). By contrast, the performance energy pattern is represented by a slope  $>1$  because maintenance energy expenditure increases with auxiliary energy expenditure

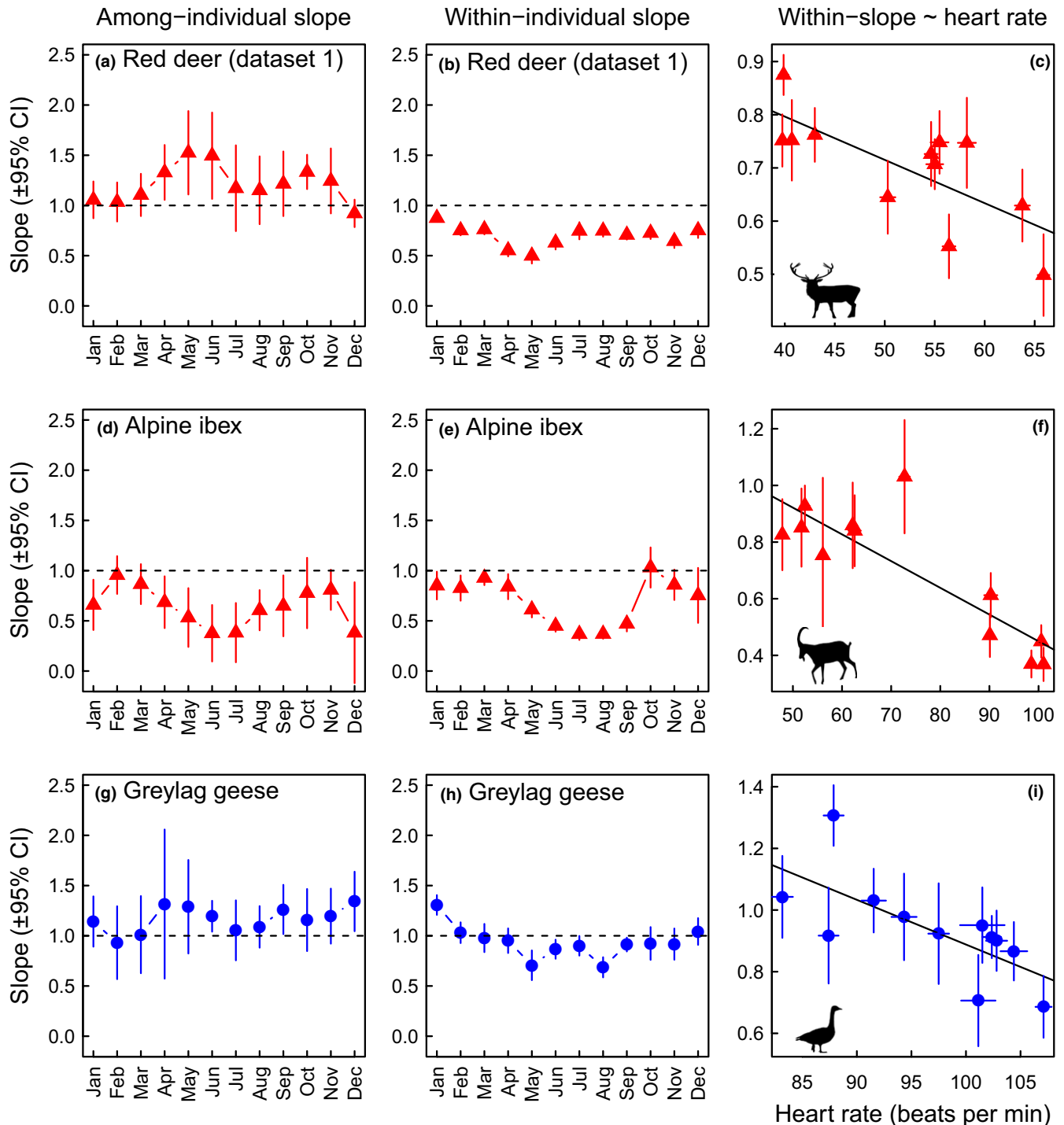


**FIGURE 4** Relationship between daily mean heart rate ( $f_H$ ) (a proxy of daily energy expenditure) and daily minimum  $f_H$  (a proxy of daily maintenance energy expenditure) in representative species where both the across- and within-individual slopes are close to 1 (a and b), and the across- and within-individual slopes are clearly  $>1$  and  $<1$  (c and d, respectively). In all panels, filled data points represent individual means and unfilled grey circles represent all observations (one data point per individual per day). The across-individual slope is represented by the thick black line, and the within-individual slopes are shown by the thinner, coloured lines. The dashed line represents the line of unity

within-individual slope values returned statistically significant, negative relationships for all three species (red deer:  $r^2 = 0.53$ ,  $p = 0.007$ ; alpine ibex:  $r^2 = 0.72$ ,  $p = 0.000$ ; greylag geese:  $r^2 = 0.49$ ,  $p = 0.011$ ; Figure 5) indicating that animals were more likely to be under energetic constraint during months where their daily energy expenditure was higher.

## 4 | DISCUSSION

For most of the 16 species analysed, there is little or no evidence of any constraint on energy expenditure (a slope value  $<1$ ) across individuals (Figure 3a). The pattern of energy expenditure is either indicative of predominantly the independent pattern of energy



**FIGURE 5** Across- and within-individual best-fit slope values for the regression of daily mean heart rate ( $f_H$ ) against mean minimum  $f_H$  in (a and b) red deer dataset 1, (d and e) alpine ibex, and (g and h) greylag geese, plotted month-by-month. Vertical lines represent the 95% confidence interval (CI). Within-individual slope values linearly regressed against mean monthly daily mean heart for these three species are also presented (c, f and i)

management or to some degree the performance pattern of energy management. Moreover, the pattern does not associate with taxonomic group. For those species exhibiting the independent pattern, for example Przewalski horses and humans (Figure 4a,b), individuals that exhibit a greater maintenance energy expenditure compared to other individuals also show the same increase in daily energy expenditure. For those species exhibiting the performance pattern, for example eider ducks and sockeye salmon (Figure 4c,d), individuals that expend relatively high amounts of energy each day are doing so due to both a high maintenance energy expenditure and a high auxiliary energy expenditure. By contrast, the within-individual slope value is lower than the across-individual value in nearly all species, and is typically  $<1$  but  $>0$  (Figure 3b). In general, individual animals across a broad range of species exhibit partial constraint of their energy expenditure, whereby daily increases in auxiliary processes are partially compensated for by decreases in maintenance processes and vice versa. Together, these findings echo the Y-model in life-history theory proposed by van Noordwijk and de Jong (1986), in that in species universally, some individuals have a greater capacity to supply energy to all aspects of their life than do others—they are able to intake, digest and deploy a greater amount of energy than conspecifics. But, nonetheless, for every individual, rate of energy throughput is finite and thus all individuals' trade-off deployment of their available energy between competing functions. These findings support the idea that energy management analyses focussed solely at the phenotypic level may miss potentially interesting processes occurring at the among- and within-individual levels (Careau & Garland, 2015; Careau & Wilson, 2017). Finally, our analyses also demonstrate that the energy management pattern an animal exhibits is not fixed. This variability documents an important aspect of animal plasticity while also providing an opportunity to explore what contexts may influence the pattern employed.

#### 4.1 | Fluctuating energy management patterns

The slope values presented in Figures 4 and 5 are averages over the time of the  $f_H$  recordings (Table S2) and as such may mask temporal variation in the energy management pattern employed (the fallacy of the average; Denny, 2017). A slope value close to 1, indicating predominantly the independent pattern, might in fact reflect that part of the time the performance pattern is being exhibited and the rest of the time some degree of the energy constraint pattern is being exhibited. Animals may exhibit the performance pattern specifically during periods when food availability is high and high energy throughput is advantageous, such as king penguins foraging after a fast and increasing both their muscle and lipid stores (Gauthier-Clerc et al., 2002). By contrast, under conditions of food scarcity an increase in activity levels or other auxiliary processes by an individual is more likely to elicit a responsive decrease in maintenance energy expenditure—an element of constrained energy management. The salmon in the current study, which exhibited relatively strong energy constraint within individuals (Figure 3b), were experiencing these energy-stressed conditions during the experiments—they were

measured during their reproductive periods and experienced little to no nutritional intake and high levels of locomotor activity. Animals exhibiting independent energy management at a given time might be expected to increase their energy expenditure until they reach a constraint on their energy throughput to maximise their energy use (and hence exhibit a degree of energy constraint); alternatively, they might in fact be near the threshold and maintaining flexibility in their energy allocation.

These possibilities can be explored most thoroughly by investigating variations in animals' energy management over the annual cycle, where threshold constraints, whether related to food availability or other factors, may fluctuate predictably due to seasonal effects on the environment or the animal's ecology. The proposed analysis was possible for red deer, alpine ibex and greylag geese (Figure 5). Over the yearly cycle, we might expect variation in foraging effort for alpine ibex, with typically less food available in the winter months. By contrast, the red deer (dataset 1) were kept inside an enclosure and periodically given supplemental food in addition to the natural forage available (Turbill, Ruf, Mang, & Arnold, 2011), and the greylag geese received supplementary food consistently (Wascher, Kotrschal, & Arnold, 2018). Nonetheless, the red deer exhibited variation through the year in their energy management (Figure 5). At the across-individual level, while overall they exhibited energy independence, through late spring into early summer they exhibited some degree of the performance pattern. At this time of year, the females (all the individuals in the study population were female) are finishing gestation and birthing their young. Both daily mean  $f_H$  and body mass increase during this period to their yearly peaks; the deer are expending a lot of energy while increasing in size (Clutton-Brock, Guinness, & Albon, 1982; Turbill et al., 2011). The performance pattern exhibited by the deer indicates that at this time some individuals started expending more energy than other individuals both in terms of maintenance processes and auxiliary processes; they were able to achieve a greater energy throughput, supported by supplemental feeding. At the within-individual level, while overall the red deer exhibited a degree of energy constraint, this was strongest around the aforementioned birthing period starting in late spring. Probably, the large energy costs of growth at this time, of both the mother and the calf (including pronounced growth of the alimentary organs in the adults; Arnold et al., 2015), were supported through a reduction in other energy costs (though not activity; W. Arnould, unpubl. data).

In contrast to the red deer, the alpine ibex exhibit the greatest degree of energy constraint, that is the lowest slope values, during the summer months, both across and within individuals (Figure 5). Thus, despite food being relatively abundant at this time of the year, when the ibex expend large amounts of energy on auxiliary processes such as activity, their maintenance energy expenditure is low, and vice versa. Ibex appear to be constrained by their ability to dissipate heat; on hot summer days, they move to higher altitudes and reduce their foraging activity, possibly indicating that the heat increment of feeding exacerbates their reduction in auxiliary energy expenditure (Aublet, Festa-Bianchet, Bergero, & Bassano, 2009).



The greylag geese exhibit little clear variability over the yearly cycle in their energy management pattern at the across-individual level, due to large confidence intervals around the slope values. At the within-individual level, they exhibit a tendency towards some constraint of their energy expenditure during the summer months, as opposed to uncorrelated auxiliary and maintenance energy expenditure (energy independence) during the rest of the year (Figure 5). Energy expenditure was highest in the geese during the summer; in May for females (coinciding with egg incubation and increased body temperature), and in August for males (coinciding with an increase in agonistic interactions in the newly formed flock; Wascher et al., 2018). It appears then that, during the summer months, when energy expenditure is highest, the geese constrain their daily energy expenditure by trading off auxiliary and maintenance energy costs. In January, the start of the courtship season, there is a tendency towards the energy performance pattern within individuals—an increase in both auxiliary and maintenance costs. This pattern may be optimal at this time of the breeding cycle, since it is when males in particular are aggressive, and they attempt to secure a nest site and food access for their females in order to maximise reproductive opportunities. The supplemental feeding they receive surely supports this pattern and may exacerbate it.

Studies have usually found that animals obliged to work harder in order to gain a unit of food nonetheless exhibit a limited increase in daily energy expenditure, that is they exhibit a degree of energy constraint (Elliott et al., 2014; Pontzer, 2015). However, data for starlings (Wiersma, Salomons, & Verhulst, 2005) indicate that maintenance energy expenditure remains constant across experimental conditions resulting in a positive relationship between daily energy expenditure and activity levels. In all of the studies reviewed by Pontzer (2015) that clearly show the maintenance energy expenditure of the subject animals decreasing in response to increases in activity levels, the animals' daily food intake was also decreasing (Bautista, Tinbergen, Wiersma, & Kacelnik, 1998; Perrigo & Bronson, 1983; Tiebout, 1991; Vaanholt, De Jong, Garland, Daan, & Visser, 2007). By contrast, the aforementioned study on starlings is the only one reporting food intake to increase with increasing activity levels (Wiersma et al., 2005). This observation supports the idea that food availability could influence the energy management pattern that animals exhibit.

Without controlled experiments, of course we cannot be sure what factors are driving changes in the energy management pattern exhibited by this study's red deer, alpine ibex and greylag geese. However, the fact that they all show stronger constrained energy management during months when their energy expenditure is higher (Figure 5c,f,i) is compelling and supports our suggestion that the energy expenditure of animals is constrained as they approach a threshold (Figure 2). Such a threshold could be due to a limit on an animal's ability to assimilate energy, or to expend it (Figure 1), or the result of optimising energy throughput in the long term (Daan et al., 1996). Furthermore, those periods of high energy expenditure are associated with clear and costly biological processes, suggesting

that key aspects of an animal's ecology and life cycle drive plasticity in energy management.

## 5 | CONCLUSIONS AND FUTURE WORK

Understanding what drives constraint in individual animals is the natural next research step. The month-by-month data presented in this study offer some evidence that periods of high energy expenditure are related to increased energy constraint, and that ecological factors can be important influences on energy constraint, and influence the degree of constraint exhibited over time. Variation in levels of constraint between individuals might be explained by sex, age, status in a hierarchy or personality type. However, while the seven Przewalski horses analysed exhibit very similar slopes (Figure 4a), they represent animals of both sexes and a variety of ages. Alternatively, the degree of variation between individuals may be driven predominantly by the degree of similarity in their behaviours and lifestyles (Biro et al., 2018). For example, it could be that individual Przewalski horses are more similar to each other behaviourally than are, for instance, eider ducks (Figure 4c), possibly exacerbated by the fact that the horses were maintained in a large but confined area (Kuntz, Kubalek, Ruf, Tataruch, & Arnold, 2006).

Comprehensive information on the environment (food availability, temperature, predation pressure), the physiology (age, body condition) and life stage of free-living animals (moulting, reproducing, lactating, preparing for migration) will be necessary to better understand the variation in energy patterns they exhibit, and to design meaningful experiments to elucidate the underlying mechanisms.

## AUTHORS' CONTRIBUTIONS

L.G.H., V.C. and J.A.G. developed the concept; L.G.H. with the help of V.C. collated the data; V.C. and L.G.H. analysed and interpreted the data; S.D.T., T.S.P. and S.J.C., K.J.M. and L.G.H. provided unpublished data; L.G.H. and V.C. led on writing the manuscript, with support on later drafts from all authors especially from J.A.G. and S.D.T.; all authors gave final approval. No funding was received. None of the authors has conflicts of interest.

## DATA ACCESSIBILITY

Data deposited in the Dryad Digital Repository <https://doi.org/10.5061/dryad.cj4733b> (Halsey et al., 2019).

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## SUPPORTING INFORMATION

Additional supporting information may be found online in the Supporting Information section at the end of the article.

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