

# Animal Physiological Ecology

# Regulation: Temperature

- Most terrestrial vertebrates are temperature regulators
- **Endotherms** (birds, mammals):
  - regulate by internally generated metabolic heat
  - cool by evaporation
  - 37- 40 °C
- **Ectotherms** (reptiles, amphibians)
  - regulate by behavioral choices
  - choose environments to alter heat gain/loss

# Components of Heat Balance

Equilibrium Temperature: Heat input = Heat output

## ■ Inputs

- Radiation (direct, reflected)
- Conduction (solid -- solid)
- Metabolism
- Convection (solid -- fluid)

## ■ Outputs

- Re-radiation
- Conduction (solid -- solid)
- Evaporation
- Convection (solid -- fluid)

$$H_s = H_m \pm H_{cd} \pm H_{cv} \pm H_r - H_e$$

$H_s$  = heat stored in body

$H_m$  = heat gained from metabolism

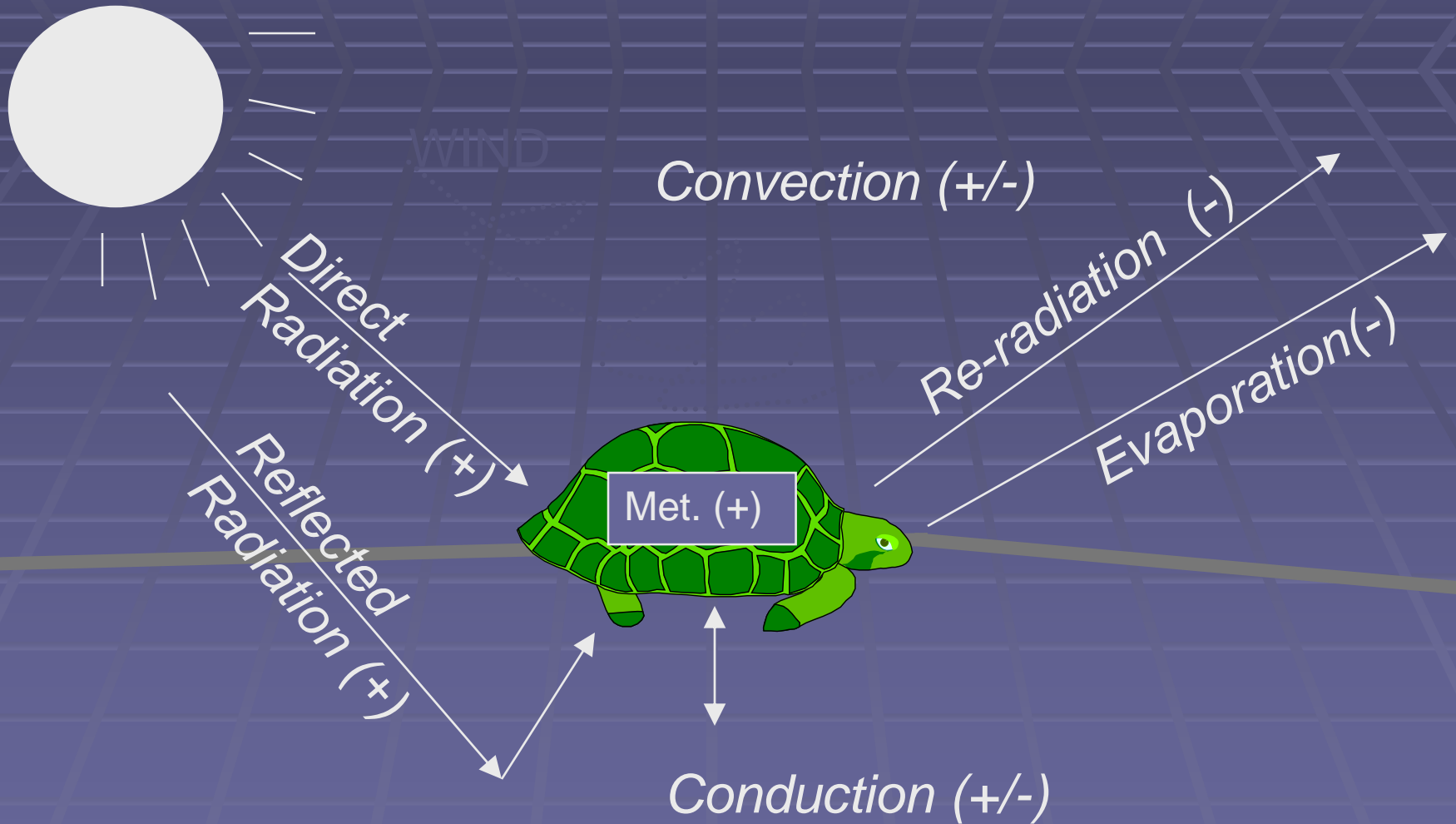
$H_{cd}$  = heat gained or lost through conduction

$H_{cv}$  = heat gained or lost through convection

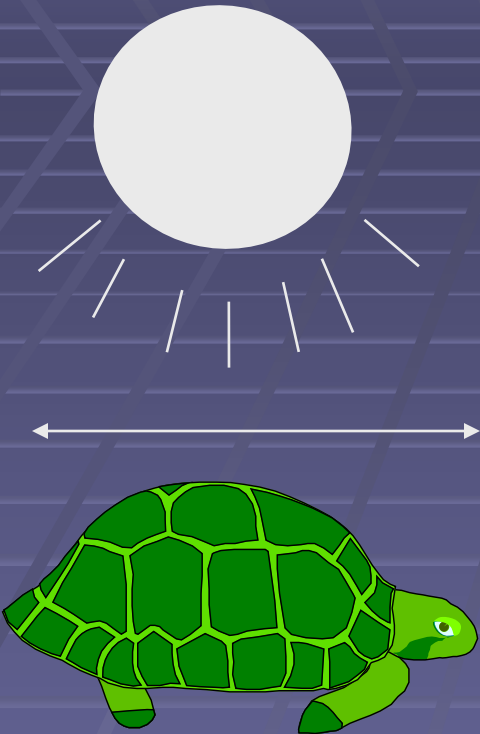
$H_r$  = heat gained or lost through radiation

$H_e$  = heat lost through evaporation

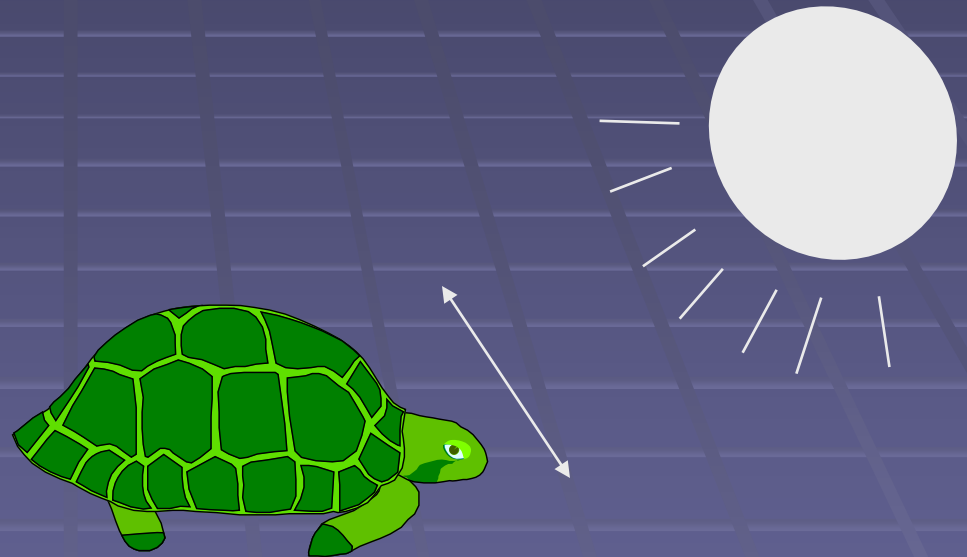
# Heat balance for an ectotherm



# Position and radiant heat input



**Maximize surface**  
**Low  $T_b$**



**Minimize surface**  
**High  $T_b$**

# Three views of thermoregulation

- How do animals thermoregulate?
  - Behavioral mechanisms
  - Physiology
  - Precision of control
- Why thermoregulate? What is the advantage?
  - Optimize function (e.g., enzymes)
  - Ultimate fitness value
- How does thermoregulation affect distribution and abundance?

# Lizard thermoregulation

- *Sceloporus* -- Spiny desert lizards
- Insectivorous
- *Sceloporus merriami*
  - Texas
  - Oviparous -- lays eggs
- *Sceloporus jarrovi*
  - Arizona
  - Viviparous -- gives birth, no eggs laid



# *Sceloporus merriami*



# *Sceloporus merriami*

(from Grant 1990 *Ecology* 71:2323-2333)

- Summer active period:
  - 7:30 AM - 2:00 PM
  - 6:00 PM - 9:00 PM
- Avoids heat of midday
- retreats to burrow within its home range
- Body temperature ( $T_b$ ) mean  $\pm$  SE
  - Morning:  $33.3 \pm 0.10$  °C
  - Evening:  $37.0 \pm 0.20$  °C

# Why 2 different temperatures?

- Lizards behave similarly morning & evening
- at 33°C
  - sprint speed is 25% greater than at 37°C
  - water loss is 33% less than at 37°C
  - metabolic rate is 40% less than at 37°C
- Why have a 4°C greater  $T_b$  in the evening?

# What temperatures are *available* to the lizard?

- What are its choices, particularly in the evening?

# Determine thermal properties of the Lizard

- Copper model of the lizard
- Thermocouple implant
- Paint lizard colors
- Place in locations within home range and allow to equilibrate
- Yields possible  $T_b$

# Results

- **Evening:** 50-60% of locations within the home ranges yield  $36^{\circ}\text{C} \leq T_b \leq 38^{\circ}\text{C}$
- If lizard avoids those high temperatures, hunting areas would be greatly reduced
- Cost of maintaining ideal  $T_b$  (i.e.,  $33^{\circ}\text{C}$ ) high

# Results

- **Morning:** <20% of locations within home ranges yield  $36^{\circ}\text{C} \leq T_b \leq 38^{\circ}\text{C}$
- Cost of maintaining ideal  $T_b$  low

# Results

- **Midday:** Nearly all locations yield  $T_b > 38^\circ\text{C}$
- Maintaining ideal  $T_b$  impossible
- Lethal  $T_b$  likely
- Become inactive



# Why 2 different temperatures?

- Higher-than-optimal  $T_b$  in evening represents a **Constraint**
- A limitation imposed by the environment
- Maintaining a non-ideal temperature is necessary to realize benefits of activity (foraging, mating, etc.)
- Limits placed on distribution

# *Sceloporus jarrovi*



# *Sceloporus jarrovi*

- **Mathies & Andrews 1997. *Functional Ecology* 11:498-507**
- **ALSO ... Beuchat & Ellner 1987. *Ecological Monographs* 57:45-60**

# *Sceloporus jarrovi*

- Viviparous
- $T_b$  in the field (from Beuchat & Ellner 1987)
  - Adult males Mean  $T_b = 34^\circ\text{C}$  (SD =  $1.4^\circ\text{C}$ )
  - Nonpreg. females  
Mean  $T_b = 34^\circ\text{C}$  (SD =  $1.4^\circ\text{C}$ )
  - Pregnant females Mean  $T_b = 32^\circ\text{C}$  (SD =  $1.4^\circ\text{C}$ )
- SD -- Average deviation from mean
- 68% of observations within 1 SD of mean
- Why is there a difference in  $T_b$ ?

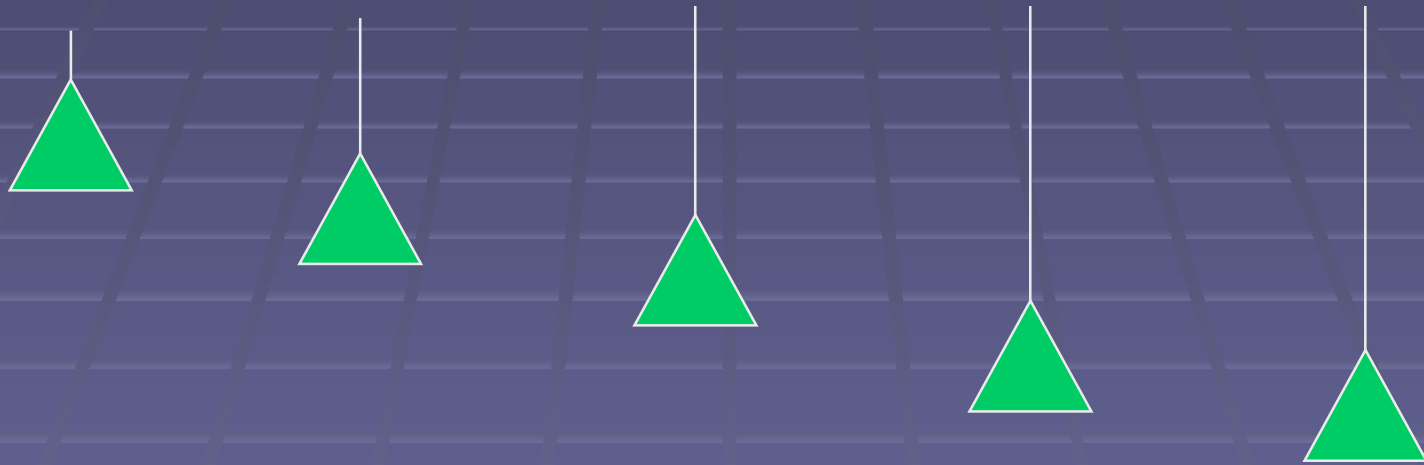
# Hypotheses

(Mathies & Andrews)

- Pregnant females actively select lower temperatures
- Higher  $T_b$  would reduce fitness of pregnant females, because it would be harmful to:
  - pregnant females
  - embryos
  - both

# Testing Hypothesis 1

- Environmental chamber
- Post-partum females, Pregnant females

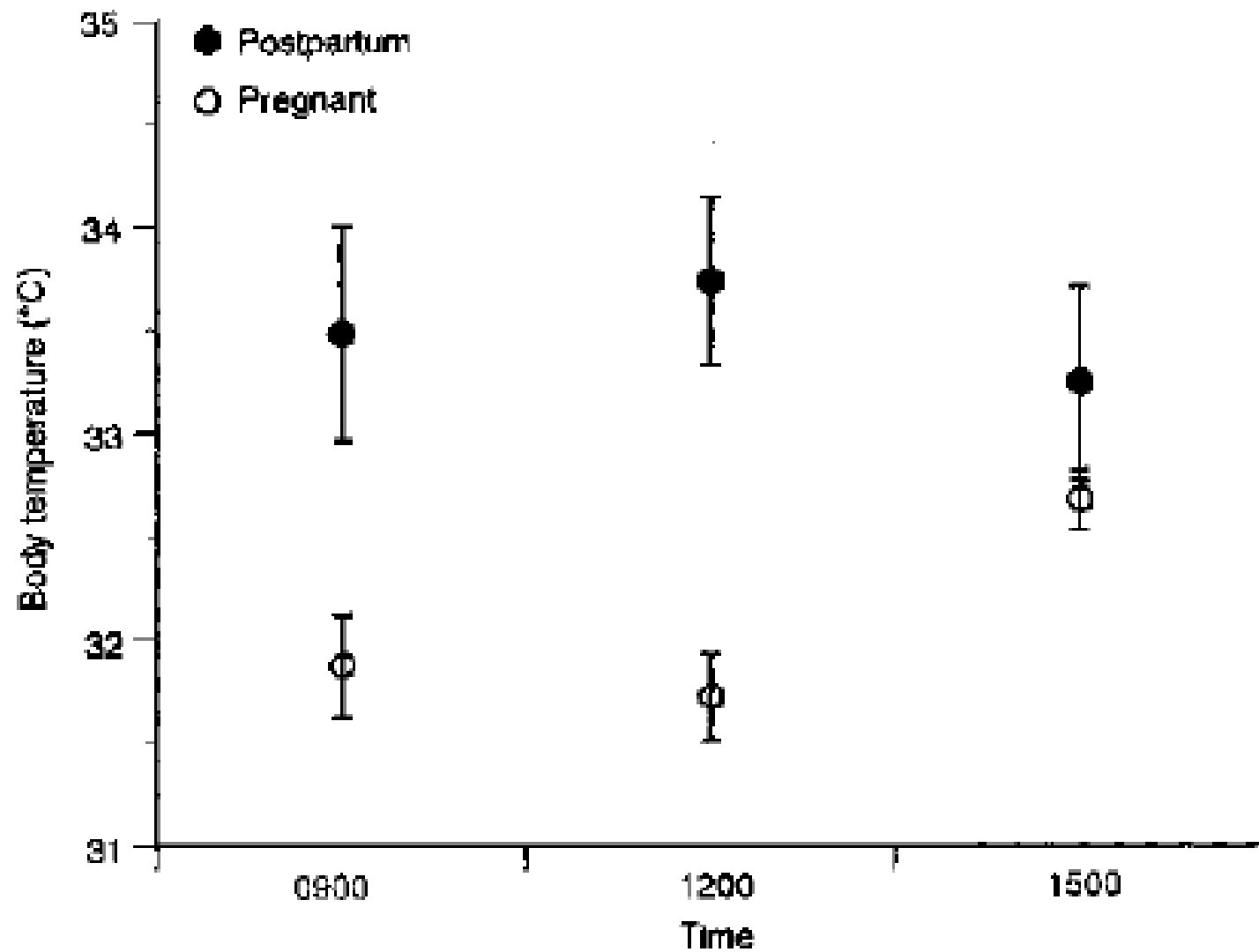


29°C

41°C

# Thermal Gradient experiment

- Place females in the gradient box
- Measure  $T_b$  of females allowed to range freely
- Compare pregnant vs. post-partum females
- Three times during the day



**Fig. 3.** Mean selected body temperatures ( $\pm 1$  SE) of female *Sceloporus jarrovi* ( $n = 18$ ) when pregnant and postpartum measured at three times during the main portion of the daily activity period.



# Results & Conclusions

- $T_b$  Significantly lower for pregnant females
- Overall:
  - pregnant females  $32.1 \pm 0.1^\circ\text{C}$
  - post-partum females  $33.5 \pm 0.5^\circ\text{C}$
- $T_b$  less variable for pregnant females

# First hypothesis supported

- Females choose a lower  $T_b$  when pregnant
- Temperatures chosen in the laboratory similar to temperatures observed in the field
- So, what is detrimental about higher  $T_b$ ?

# Testing Hypothesis 2

- Pregnant females
- Incubator temperatures:
  - Day = 35.7°C, Night = steady decline to 15°C
  - Day = 32.0°C, Night = steady decline to 15°C
- Thermoregulation treatment
  - females in terraria with incandescent light
  - able to regulate  $T_b$
  - light off at night

# Testing hypothesis 2

- Maintain pregnant females in three conditions ( $35^{\circ}$ ,  $32^{\circ}$ , &  $T_{reg}$ ) until young are born
- Record:
  - growth of female (increase in mass, SVL)
  - abnormalities of neonates
  - dry mass of neonates
  - yolk in neonates
  - growth of neonates over 9 days (mass, SVL)

# Testing hypothesis 2

- **Predict:** If high  $T_b$  harms pregnant females, then 35° treatment should have
  - lower survivorship
  - lower growth in mass or length
- **Predict:** If high  $T_b$  harms embryos, then 35° treatment should have
  - more abnormalities
  - smaller size at birth (mass, SVL)
  - smaller sizes at 9 days

# Results: Effects on females

- None
- Survival = 100% for all
- Growth not significantly altered by treatment
- High temperature has no effect on females performance

# Results: Abnormalities

- Of 15 females in each treatment:
  - at 35°C ... 4 females produced 1 or more abnormal or dead offspring
  - at 32°C ... 1 female produced 1 or more abnormal or dead offspring
  - in  $T_{reg}$  ... no females produced abnormal or dead offspring
- abnormalities rather rare, hard to say much

# Results: Effects on embryos

Variable	35°	32°	T <sub>reg</sub>	Significant
Devel. Time (d)	32.7 ± 1.9	37.3 ± 1.9	40.0 ± 2.0	<i>P</i> <0.05
SVL (mm) Day 0	25.83 ± 0.19	26.85 ± 0.19	26.72 ± 0.20	<i>P</i> <0.001
SVL (mm) Day 9	29.45 ± 0.28	30.66 ± 0.28	30.33 ± 0.28	<i>P</i> =0.012
Mass (g) Day 0	0.59 ± 0.02	0.66 ± 0.02	0.66 ± 0.02	<i>P</i> =0.002
Mass (g) Day 9	0.89 ± 0.03	0.98 ± 0.03	0.96 ± 0.03	<i>P</i> =0.08



# Conclusions

- High temperature actually **increases** development rate of embryos
- However, high temperatures reduce mass and SVL at birth
- Effects of high temperatures remain for up to 9 days after birth
- This size effect is probably sufficient to affect offspring fitness (survival)

# Overall conclusions

- Pregnant females actively regulate at a lower  $T_b$  because of negative effects of high temperature on offspring fitness
- How might this evolve?
  - Quantitative trait:  $T_b$  when pregnant
  - Fitness differential (S): females with  $T_b = 32^\circ\text{C}$

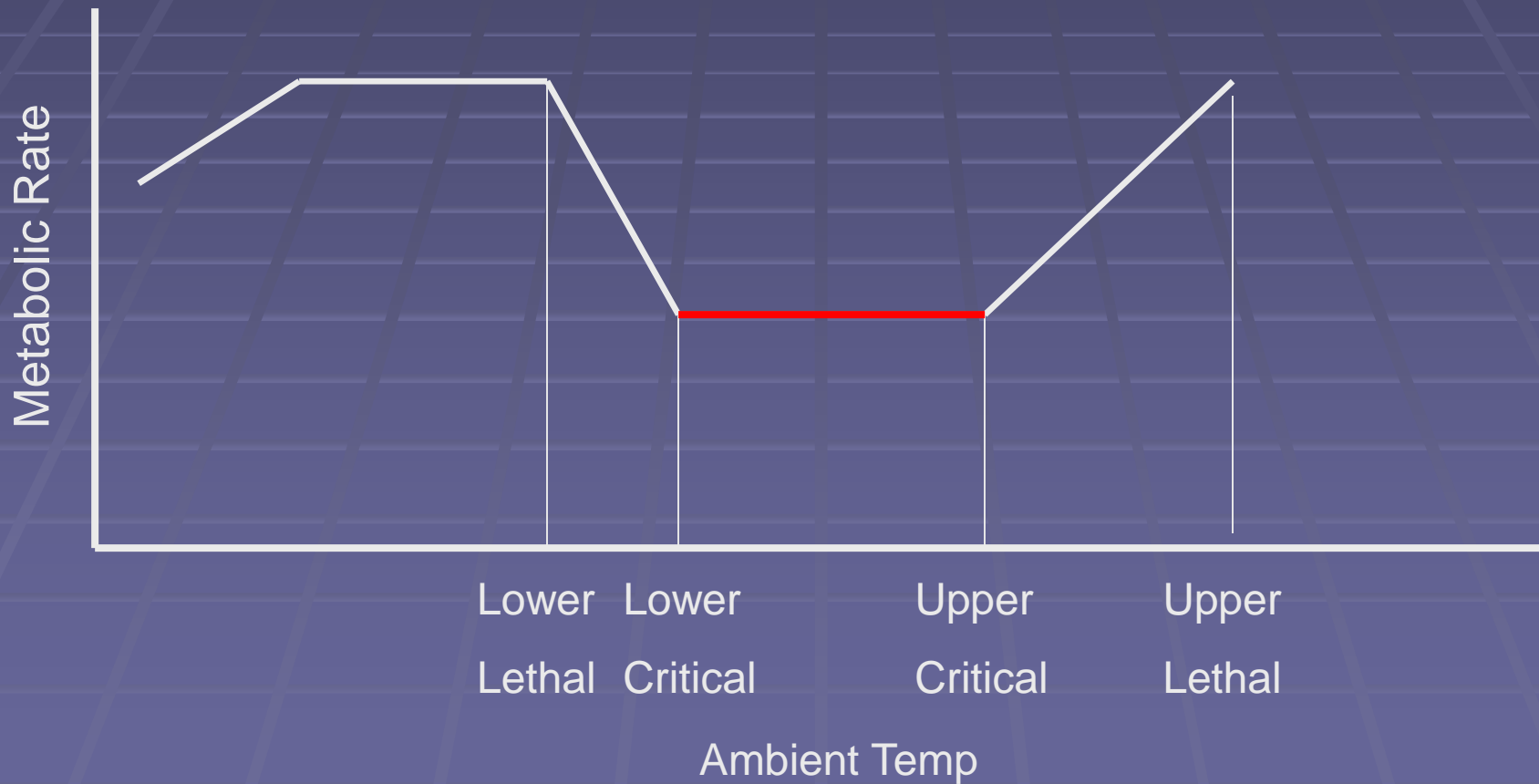
# Temperature regulation

- **Poikilotherms** – don't regulate internal temperature; temperature varies with environment
- **Ectotherms** – rely on external sources of energy to regulate body temperature
- **Endotherms** – rely on internally derived metabolic heat energy
  - **homeotherms**: birds and mammals (maintain relatively constant body temperature, as opposed to certain fish and insects that only heat critical organs)

# Endothermic Thermoregulation

Thermal Neutral Zone - Range of temps over which metabolic rate of homeothermic animal doesn't change

What causes increase in MR at low temps?  
High temps?



Low Temps Humans – shivering – heat through muscle contraction  
Release hormones – increase metabolic rate (rate at which metabolize energy stores) – increases generation of heat.

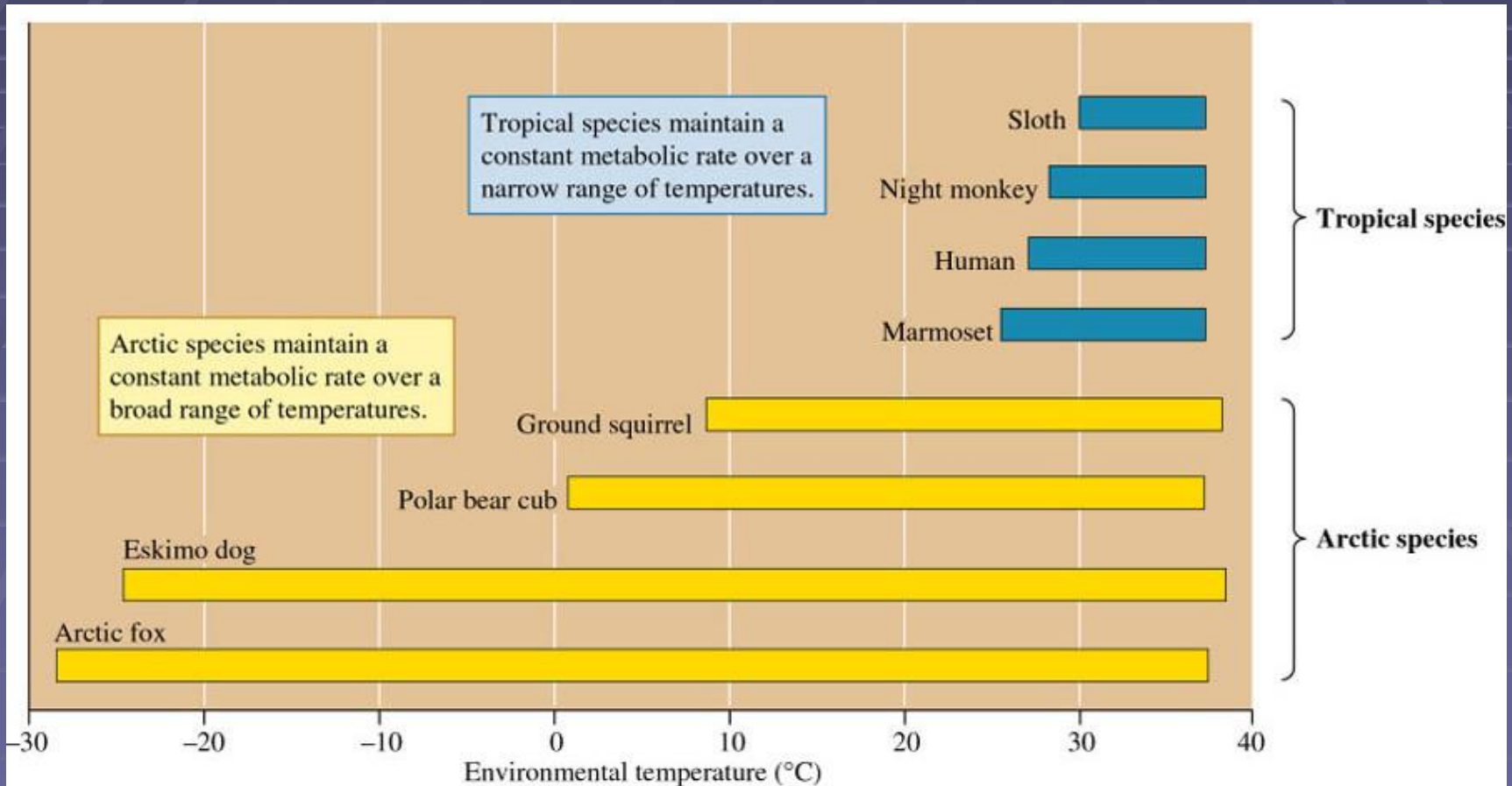
High Temps – heart rate and blood flow to the skin increases – transports heat from the body to skin increases convective heat loss,

Evaporative cooling accelerates heat loss (large endotherms -horses, humans, camels sweat, Dogs birds - pant, marsupials, rodents moisten body surfaces with saliva).

Can define two groups based on differences in the widths of thermoneutral zones

Tropical species – narrow zone

Arctic Species – broad zone





Important point – thermoregulation outside of thermal neutral zone costs energy which could otherwise be directed to other processes.

$$T_e = G + M + R$$

Life History Theory - the schedule and duration of key events in an organism's lifetime are shaped by natural selection to produce the largest possible number of surviving offspring.

Life history characteristics are traits that affect the [life table](#) of an organism, and can be imagined as various investments in growth, reproduction, and survivorship.

The goal of life history theory is to understand the variation in such life history strategies.

This knowledge can be used to construct models to predict what kinds of traits will be favored in different environments.

The key to life history theory is that there are limited resources available, and focusing on only a few life history characteristics is necessary.

Examples of some major life history characteristics include:

Age at first reproduction

Reproductive lifespan and aging

Number and size of offspring

# Temperature regulation in aquatic endotherms

- Water temperature much more stable than that of air (takes much greater change in energy content to heat/cool water)
- Convective and conductive heat loss in water is far more rapid (20-100x) than in air
- Gills expose a large surface area to this vast heat sink
  - Because of these constraints, few aquatic animals are endothermic

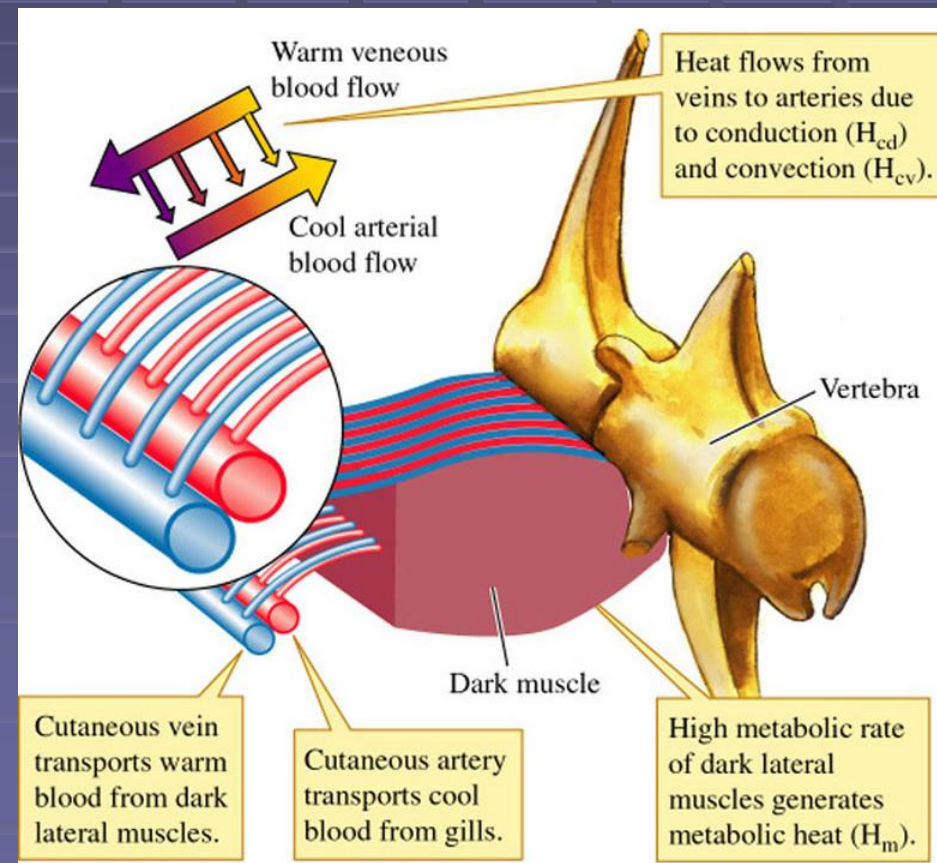
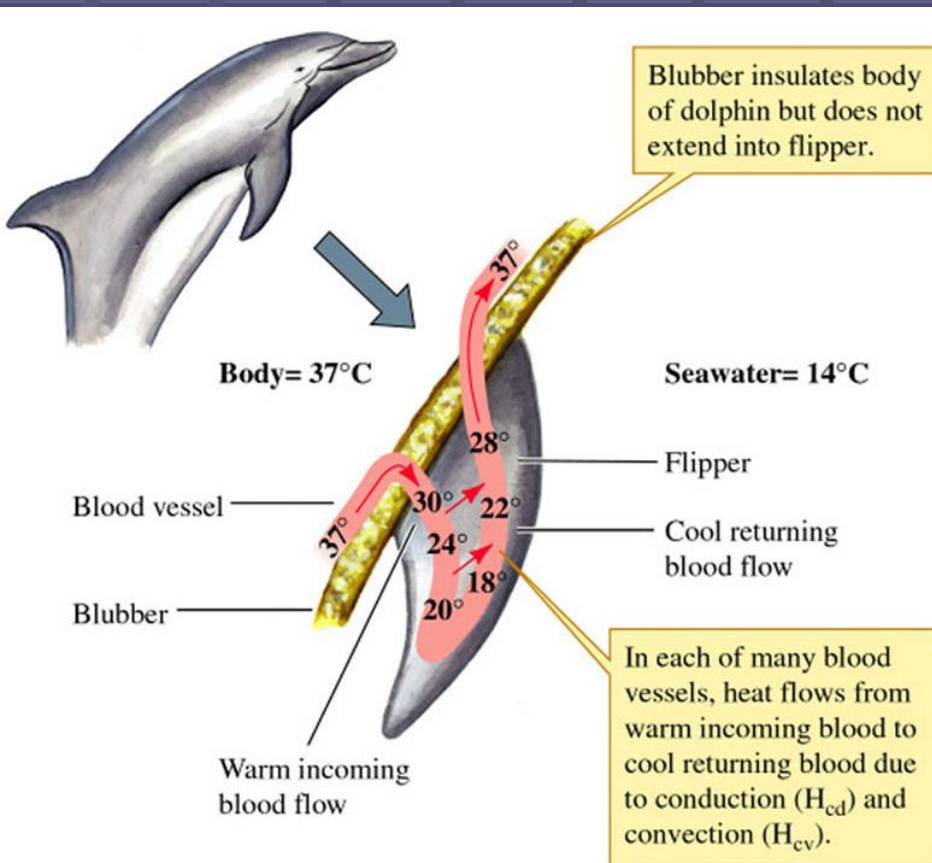
# Temperature regulation in aquatic endotherms

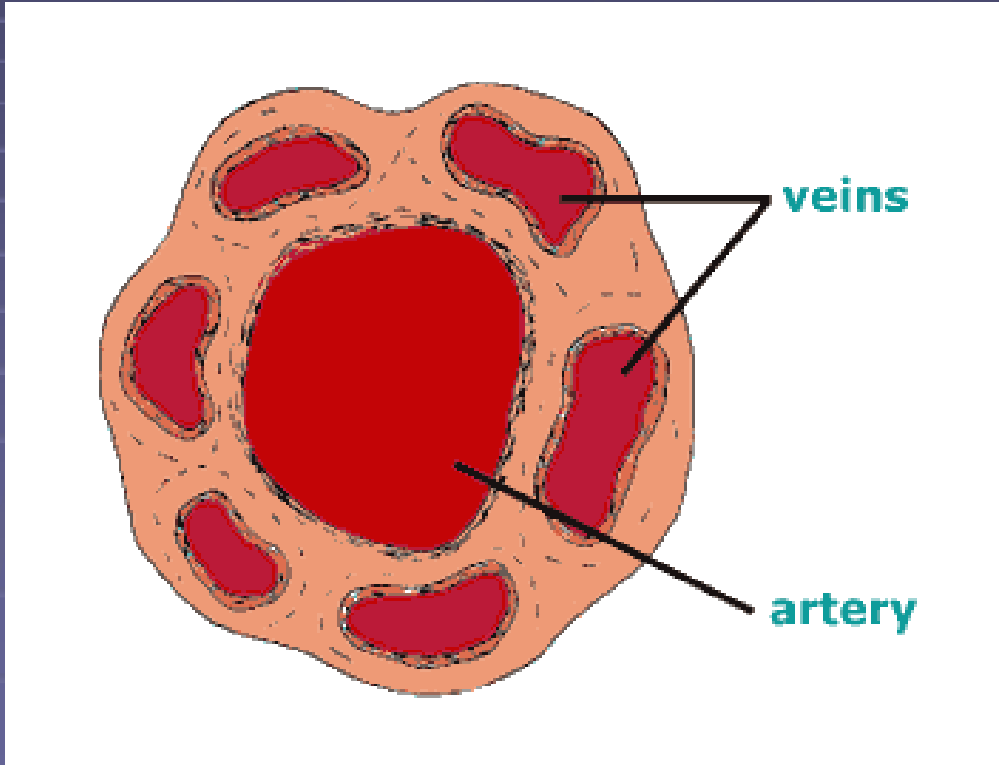
Aquatic mammals – can be endothermic due to:

- Air-breathing (no gills)
- Insulation (blubber/fat or thick fur)
- Countercurrent heat exchangers (also found in endothermic fish, e.g., tunas and white sharks)

# Countercurrent Heat Exchange

- Vascular arrangements reduce the amount of heat loss to the aquatic environment

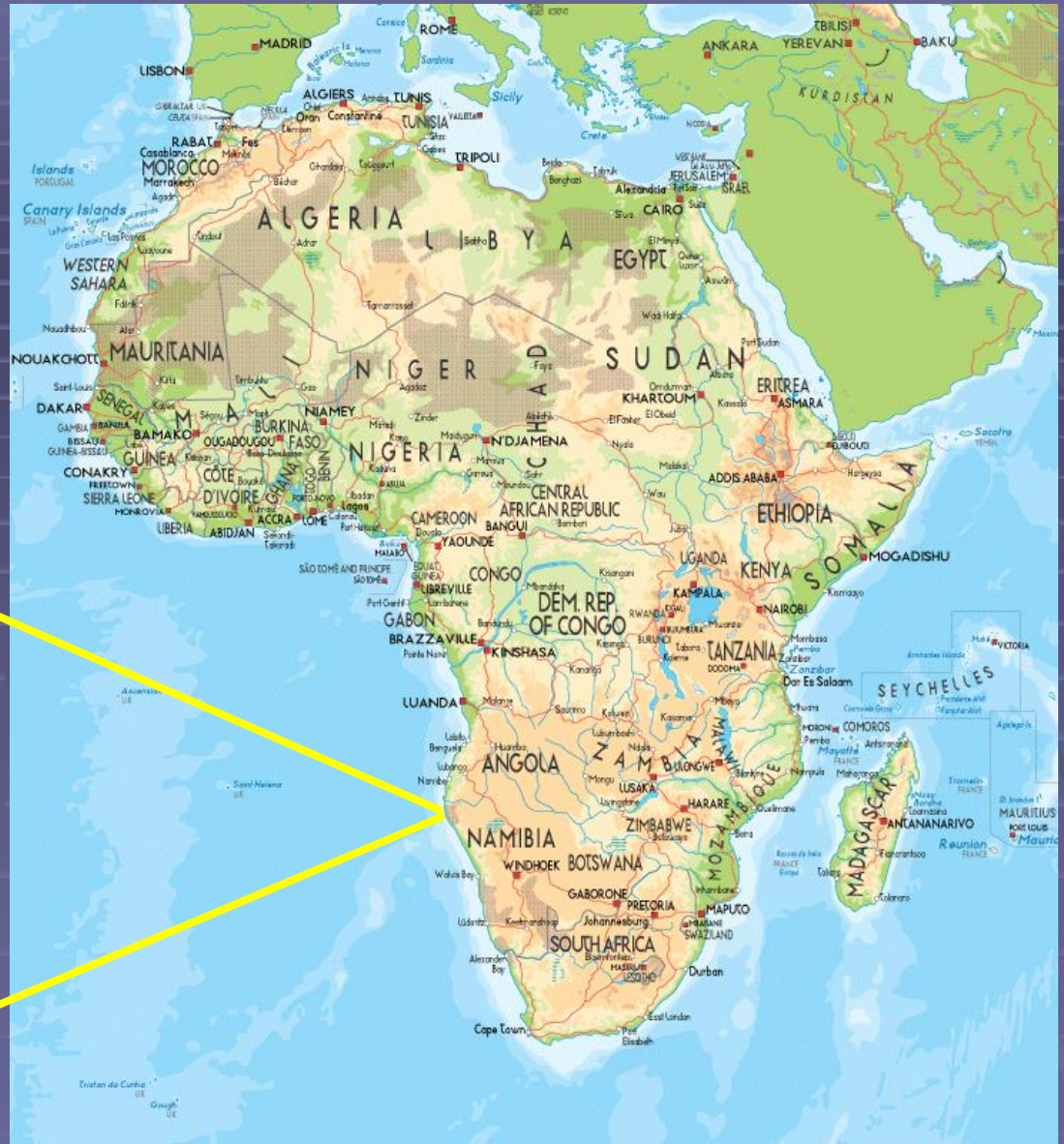






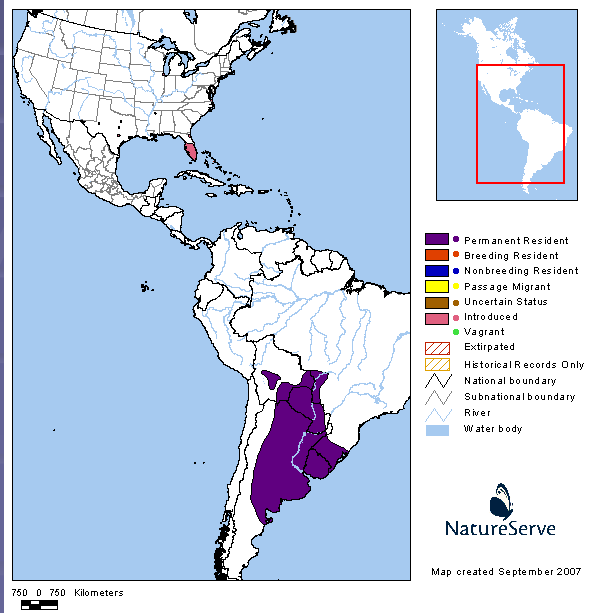
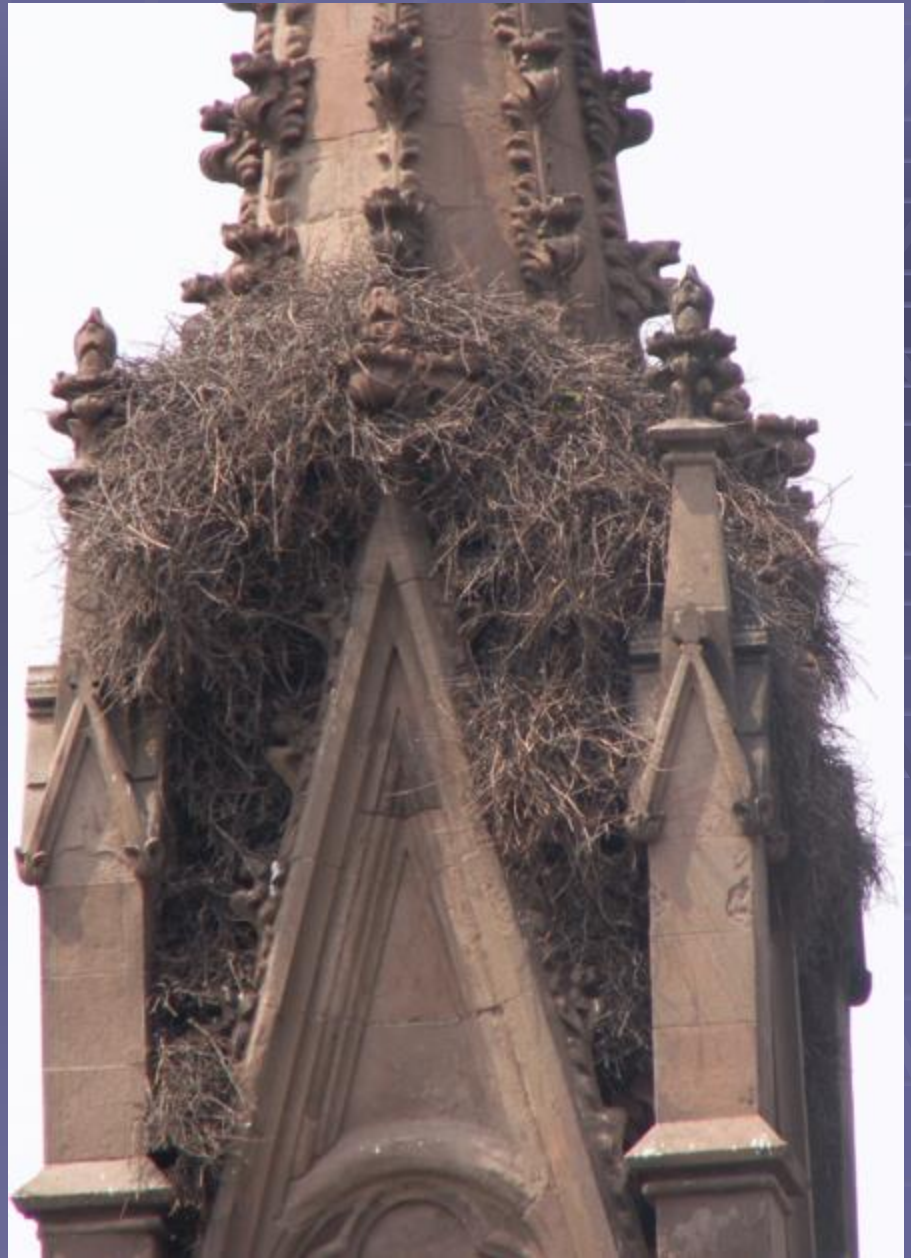
Sociable Weaver





< 10mm (0.4") /yr





# Water Balance

Water content of most organisms 50-90%

Survival requires maintenance

# Water Conservation

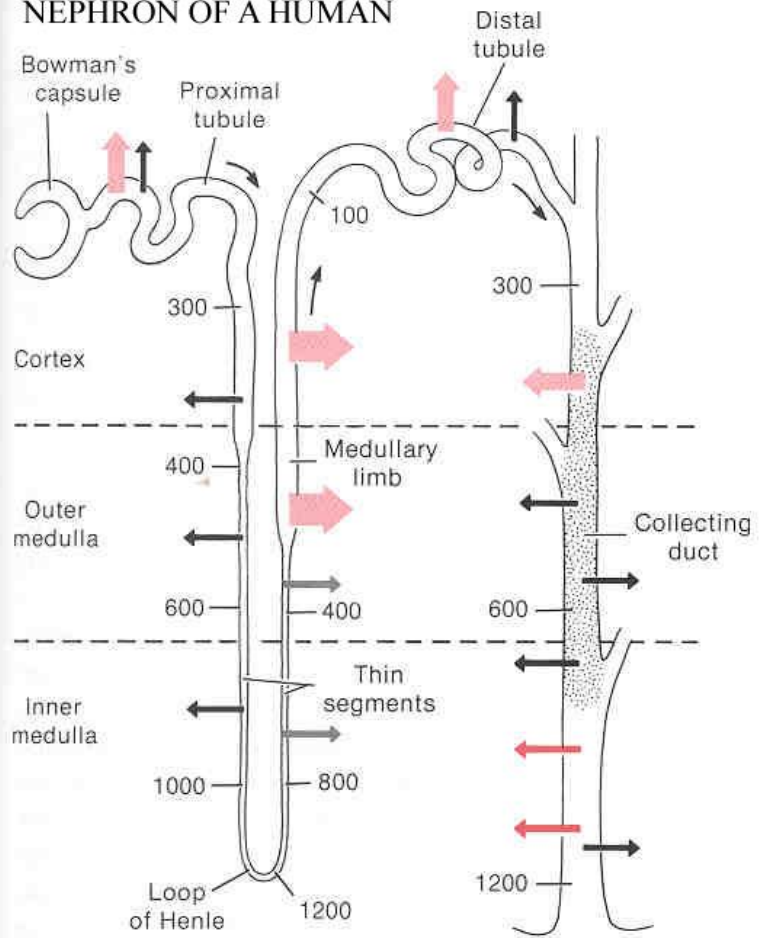
- water proofing to reduce evaporation
- concentrated urine or feces
- behavioral adaptations

Case Study – Kangaroo Rats  
(*Dipodomys*)

Metabolic water can also be important  
 $C_6H_{12}O_6 + O_2 \rightarrow CO_2 + H_2O$

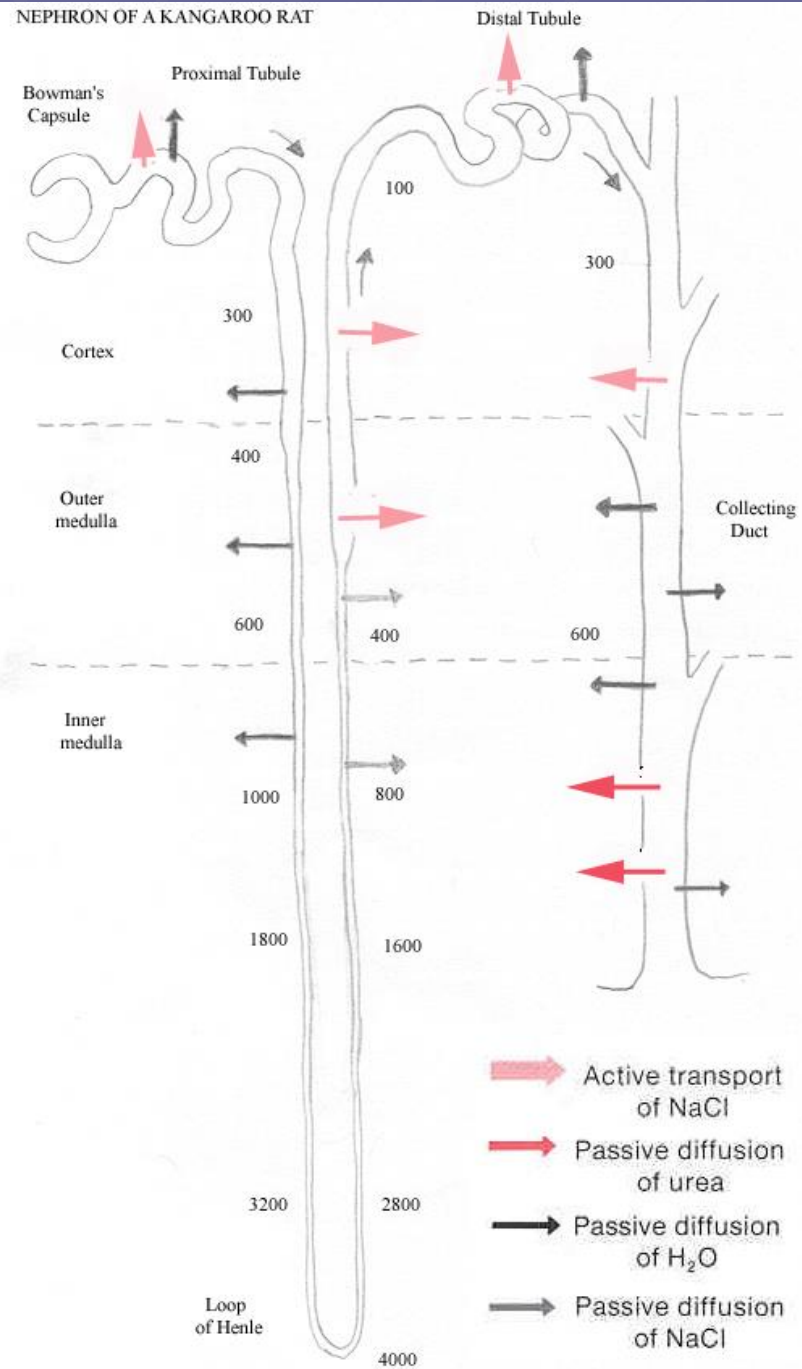


# NEPHRON OF A HUMAN

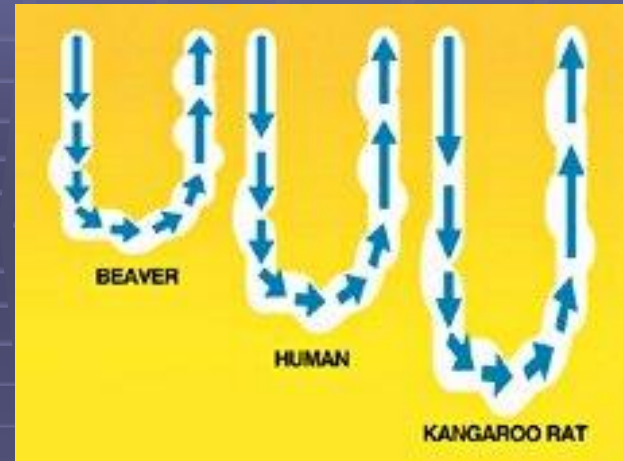


- Active transport of NaCl
- Passive diffusion of urea
- Passive diffusion of H<sub>2</sub>O
- Passive diffusion of NaCl

# NEPHRON OF A KANGAROO RAT

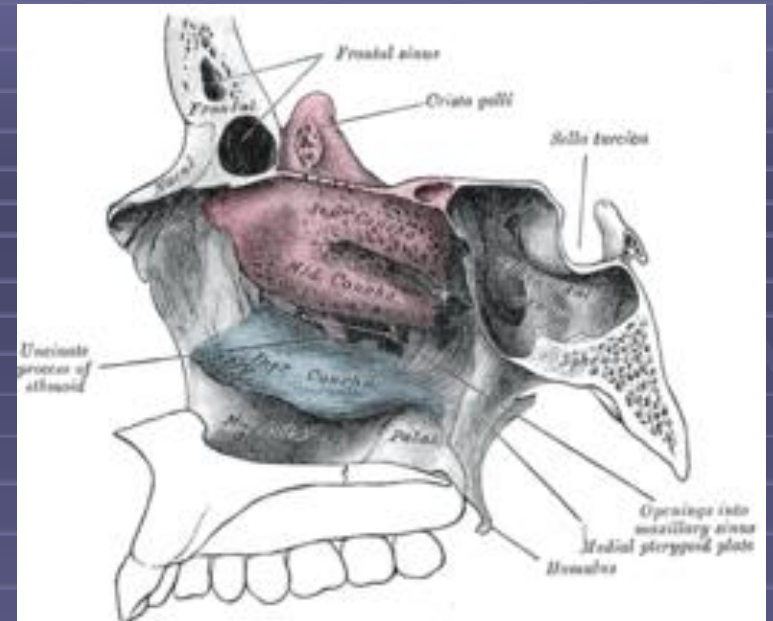


- Active transport of NaCl
- Passive diffusion of urea
- Passive diffusion of H<sub>2</sub>O
- Passive diffusion of NaCl

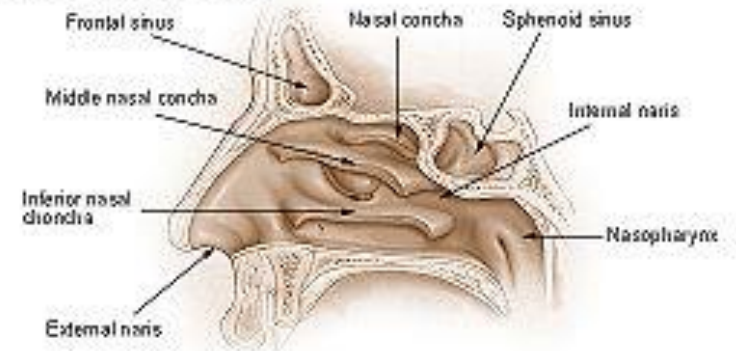


Result - Urine 17x more concentrated than blood



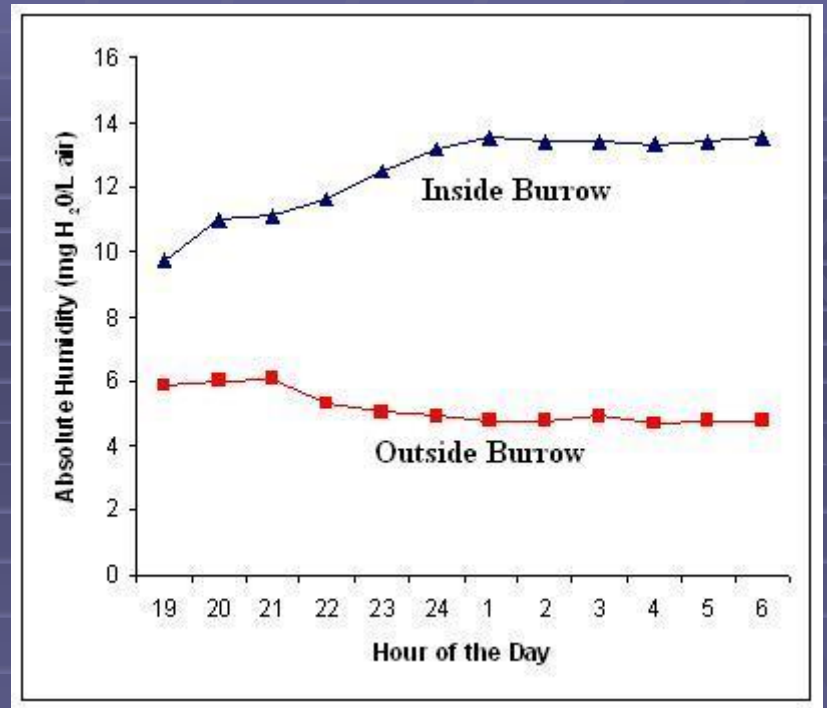
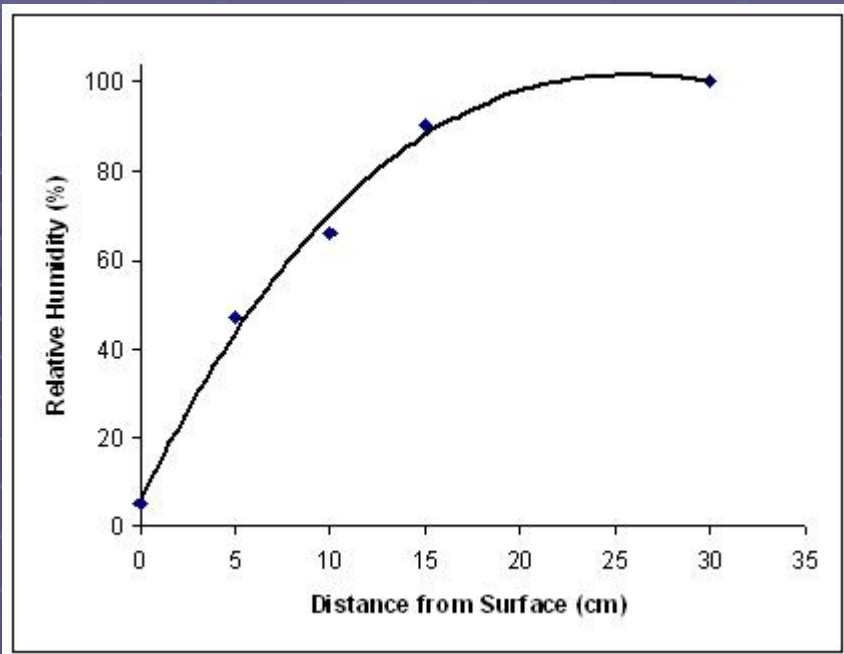


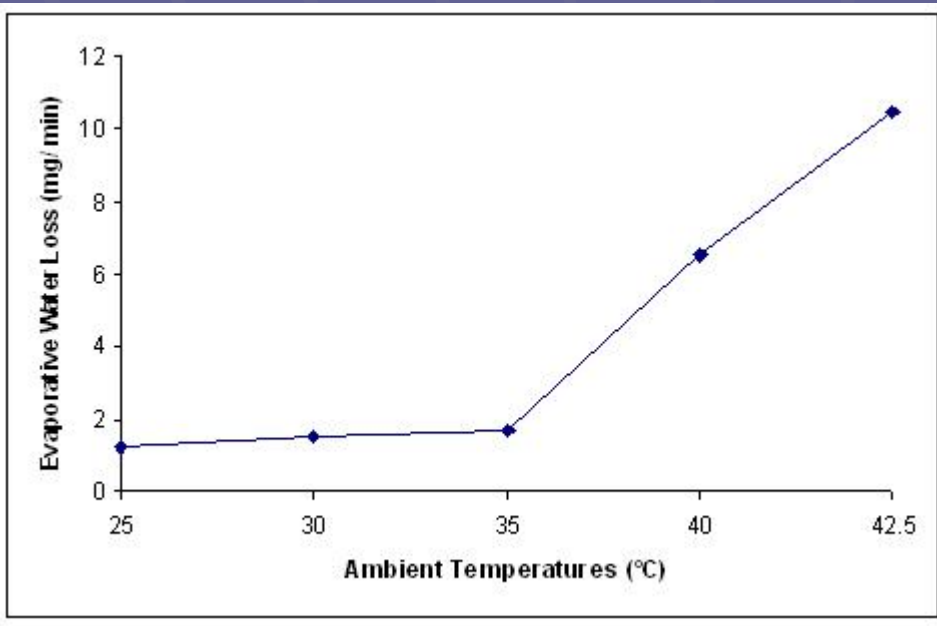
**Nose and Nasal Cavities**





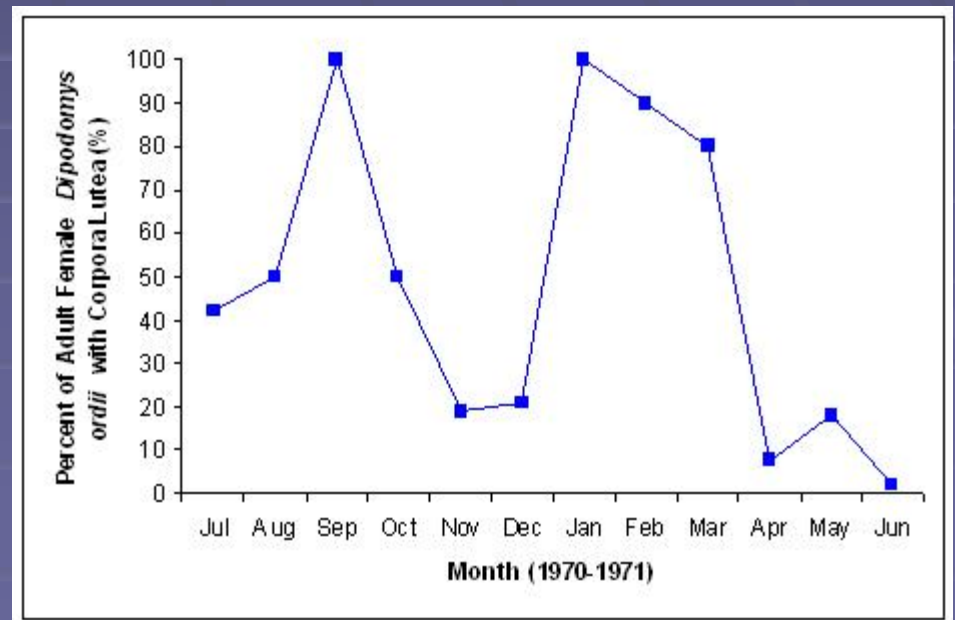
- food high in carbohydrates
- stored in burrows





Nocturnal behavior largely due to water conservation not avoidance of high temperatures

Reproduction correlates with rainfall





# Temperature regulation in endothermic insects

- Bumblebees use metabolic heat to warm their flight muscles
- Large moths maintain fairly constant metabolic rate and regulate temperature via conductive and convective cooling / heating









# Physiological Ecology Summary

- Ecology of individuals
- Adaptive value of physiological traits
- Homeostasis (e.g., thermoregulation)
- “How” vs. “Why” questions
- Costs and constraints (e.g., *S. merriami*)
- Benefits related to fitness (e.g., *S. jarrovi*)

# Behavioral Ecology

- Another aspect of the ecology of individuals
- The relationship between the living and nonliving environment and the actions of animals

# Topics within behavioral ecology

- Foraging - how environment influences choice of what, how, when, where to eat
- **Social systems - how environment influences how individuals interact with conspecifics; living in groups**
- **Sex and mating systems - environmental determinants of mating and reproduction**

# Behavioral ecology focuses on adaptation and evolution

- Main focus is on the adaptive value of observed traits in a given environment
- There can be questions of both **how** and **why** concerning behavior
- In both cases, approach is similar to that seen in physiological ecology (costs, benefits, constraints)

# Living in groups

- Many animals live in groups with conspecifics
  - Birds form feeding flocks, migrating flocks
  - Herds of herbivorous mammals
  - Schools of fish
  - Insect aggregations (e.g., monarch butterflies)
- What determines group size?
- What are benefits and costs?

# Major benefits of group living

- Improved foraging success
- Improved defense against enemies
- Improved ability to cope with the physical environment





# Case Study – Sonoran Desert Cicadas





$T_a = 46^\circ\text{C}$  – higher than upper lethal

$T_{\text{ground}} = 70^\circ\text{C}$

$T_b = 37^\circ\text{C}$

Actively calling during hottest part of day

Hyp1 – use microclimates effectively

Hyp2 – use evaporative cooling



Feeds on xylem from  
Mesquite trees

Found capable of  
evaporative cooling



Placed in Env  
Chambers – no  
access to cool  
microclimates

$T_a = 45.5^{\circ}\text{C}$

$T_b = 37 - 42^{\circ}\text{C}$

1. Relative Humidity 100%

$T_a = 45.5^{\circ}\text{C}$

$T_b = 45.5^{\circ}\text{C}$



2. Relative Humidity 0%

$T_a = 45.5^{\circ}\text{C}$

$T_b = 41^{\circ}\text{C}$

How are results consistent with evaporative cooling?

2<sup>nd</sup> group of experiments

- Placed humidity sensors above cuticle
- As  $T_a$  increased rate of water movement increased
- Rate of water loss highest ever reported for insect





**Sonoran desert cicada.  
Pores 7X size of pore  
canals located on dorsal  
mesonotum + connected  
to special dermal glands  
via cuticular ducts are  
involved in water transport  
to the surface. Cooling of  
2-5oC below ambient of  
42-45oC.**

