

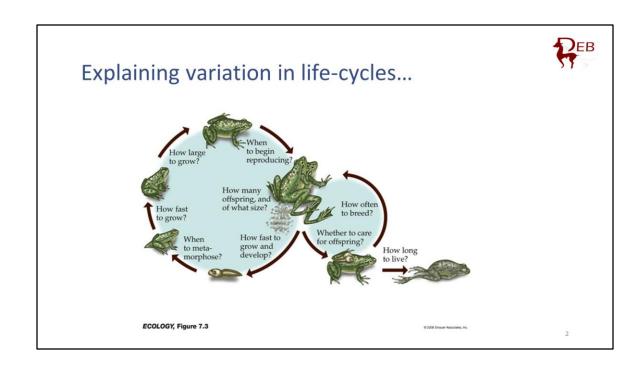
DEB Theory & Evolutionary Theories on Life-History

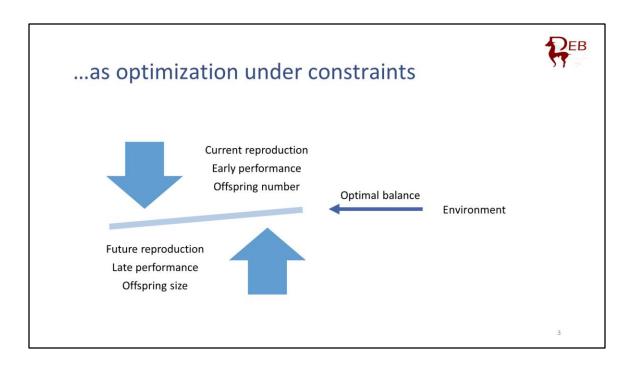
Charlotte Récapet





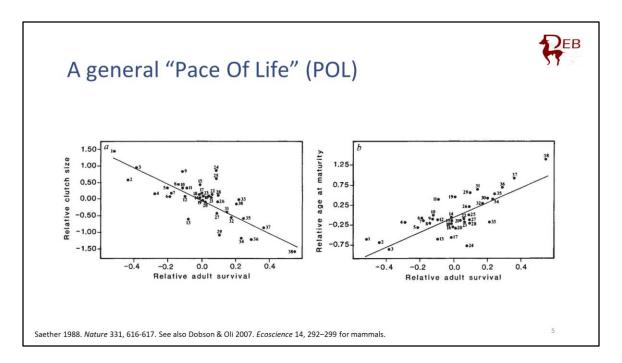
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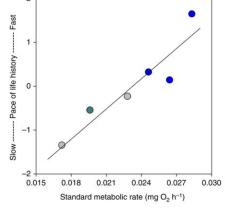
1. Empirical foundations



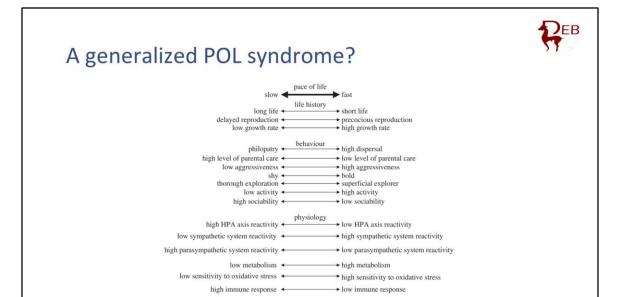


Relative adult mortality rate in relation to (a) relative clutch size and (b) relative age at maturity of different families of European birds. The points represent the deviations of each family from the predicted value of the regression of the life history trait on body weight, using the family averages (logarithmically transformed) as data entries. 1, Phasianidae; 2, Tytonidae; 3, Tetraonidae; 4, Turdidae; 5, Sturnidae; 6, Hirundinidae; 7, Motacillidae; 8, Corvidae; 9, Anatidae; 10, Muscicapidae; 11, Ciconiidae; 12, Fringillidae; 13, Columbidae; 14, Sylviidae; 15, Ardeidae; 16, Scolopacidae; 17, Strigidae; 18, Emberizidae; 19, Phalacrocoracidae; 20, Charadriidae; 21, Accipitridae; 22, Passeridae; 23, Falconidae; 24, Rallidae; 25, Paridae; 26, Pandionidae; 27, Gaviidae, 28, Recurvirostridae; 29, Sulidae; 30, Haematopodidae; 31,



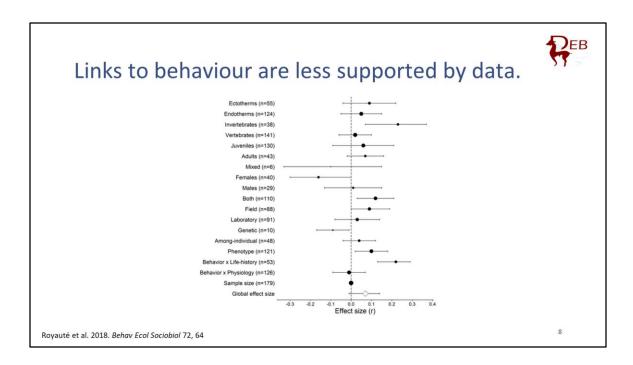


Auer et al. 2018. Nature Com 9, 14



Schematic of the potential integration of different traits along a pace-of-life continuum. Double arrows illustrate presumed continuous variation in life-history strategies among individuals in a population, and its assumed relationship with personality and physiological traits.

Réale et al. 2010. Phil Trans Roy Soc B 365(1560), 4051-4063



Forest plot of estimated effect sizes ($r \pm 95\%$ CI) for all moderator categories based on moderator contrasts. Positive values indicate stronger support for the pace-of-life hypothesis. The effect size and confidence interval from the intercept only model (white diamond) indicates whether there is an overall support for the pace-of-life hypothesis. Point size is proportional to the sample size in the dataset

2.

A central debate in life-history evolution

"The general theoretical problem is to predict which combinations of traits will evolve in organisms living in specified circumstances."

Stearns, 1977





Diverse approaches

Optimality reasoning

Calculate which combination of traits maximise an estimate of fitness:

- Life-time reproductive success
- Malthusian/intrisic rate of increase
- Reproductive value (relative to other genotypes)

Evolutionary models

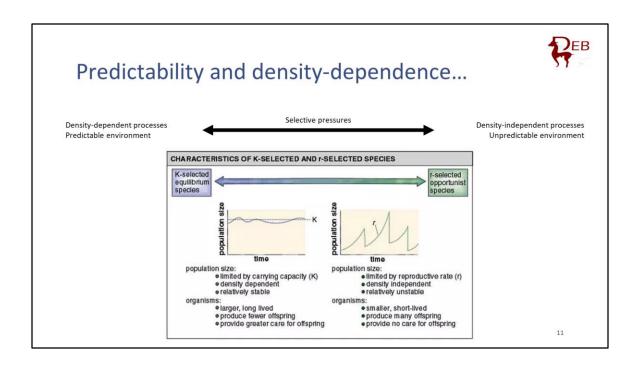
Explicitely model evolution

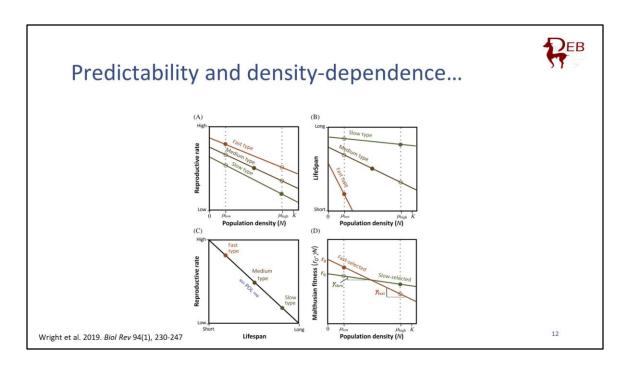
- · Variant invasion models
- · Demo-genetic models

What differences would you expect?

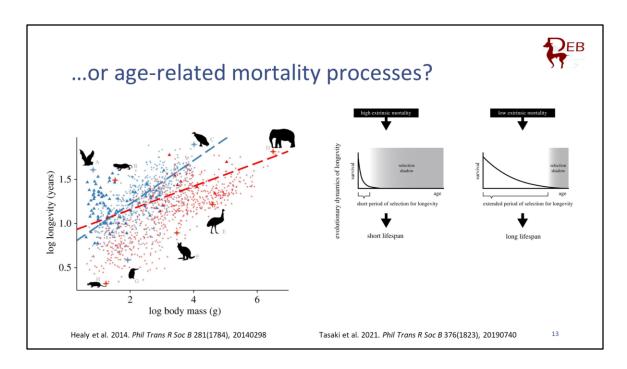
Brommer 2000. Biol Rev Cambridge Phil Soc 75(3), 377-404

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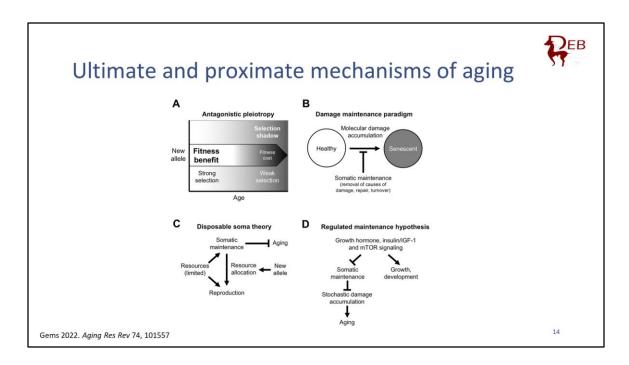


A simple hypothetical representation of a pace-of-life continuum in life-history variation across species or populations. In (A) reproductive rates (e.g. per breeding attempt) decline in all types more-or-less equally (for simplicity) with population density (N); with (B) subsequent negative effects on lifespan ofthese different type-specific reproductive rates mediated by differential effects ofN; and (C) the resultant pace of life (POL) negative trade-off between (current) reproductive rate and (future) lifespan. Predicted lines are shown for fast (orange), medium (brown) and slow (green) types, with coloured circles indicating phenotypic values (filled to indicate values of highest fitness). In (D) Malthusian fitness is shown as a function of N for only the fast-selected and slow-selected types. Fast types have higher intrinsic reproduction (high r0), but suffer from more density-dependent effects (yfast), giving them greater fitness (r0-yN) at lower mean population densities (µlow). Slow types have lower intrinsic reproduction (low r0), but fewer density-dependent effects (yslow), giving them higher total fitness at higher mean population densities (µhigh) closer to the population carrying capacity (K). See text for further explanation and Engen, Lande & Sæther (2013).



Left: Relationships between body mass and maximum lifespan in birds and mammals. Silhouettes highlight a selection of species with much longer or shorter lifespans than expected given their body size. These species are (A) *Myotis brandtii*, Brandt's bat; (B) *Heterocephalus glaber*, naked mole rat; (C) *Vultur gryphus*, Andean condor; (D) *Loxodonta Africana*, African elephant; (E) *Dromaius novaehollandiae*, emu; (F) *Dorcopsulus macleayi*, Papuan forestwallaby; (G) *Ceryle rudis*, pied kingfisher and (H) *Myosorex varius*, forest shrew. Blue points and line represent volant birds and mammals (n = 662; slope = 0.25, intercept = 0.73). Red points and line represent non-volant birds and mammals (n = 706; slope = 0.13, intercept = 0.89). Blue triangles represent bat species and red triangles represent non-volant bird species. Estimates of slopes and intercepts represent back transformed values from mean centred values given in table 1.

Right: Evolutionary dynamics of longevity in short-lived solitary insects (left) and long-lived termite reproductives (right). The black solid curves indicate survival levels in the wild, and the grey areas the 'selection shadows'. The reduced extrinsic mortality of termite reproductives extends the period available for longevity selection.



Ultimate and proximate mechanisms of aging (traditional interpretations). **A**, Antagonistic pleiotropy. A new allele that causes a fitness benefit in early life but a fitness cost (e.g. increased pathology) in later life may cause a net benefit in overall fitness due to the selection shadow (<u>Williams, 1957</u>). **B**, The damage/maintenance paradigm. Aging is caused by accumulation of stochastic molecular damage, whose levels can be controlled by somatic maintenance functions. **C**, The disposable soma theory. Investment of resources in reproduction more than somatic maintenance can increase fitness due to the selection shadow (<u>Kirkwood, 1977</u>). Genes promoting such resource allocation will exhibit antagonistic pleiotropy (<u>Partridge and Gems, 2002a</u>). **D**, Regulation of aging by nutrient pathways. Traditional view based on damage/maintenance paradigm (<u>Partridge and Gems, 2006</u>). The hyperfunction model argues that it is in fact the growth, development function that plays the main role in promoting aging.



Still a live debate!

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Opinion

Evolutionary Ecology of Senescence and a Reassessment of Williams' 'Extrinsic Mortality' Hypothesis

Senescence: why and where selection gradients might not decline with age

Mark Roper ☑, Pol Capdevila and Roberto Salguero-Gómez

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The selection force weakens with age because ageing evolves and not vice versa



Alternative explanations to LH syndromes

Selection

Correlational selection should favor some combinations of behavioral/physiological and life history traits.

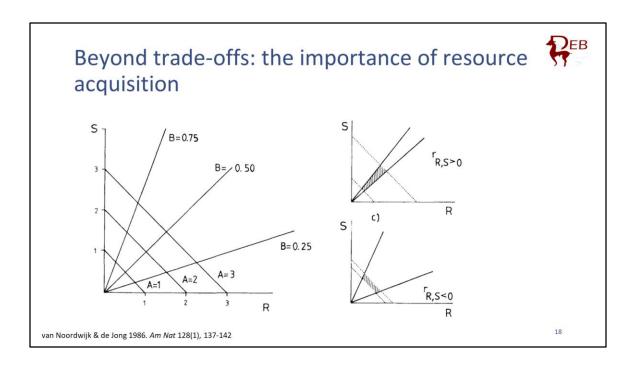
Constraints

The correlation between traits provides no fitness benefit but is rather the results of constraints to their independent expression.

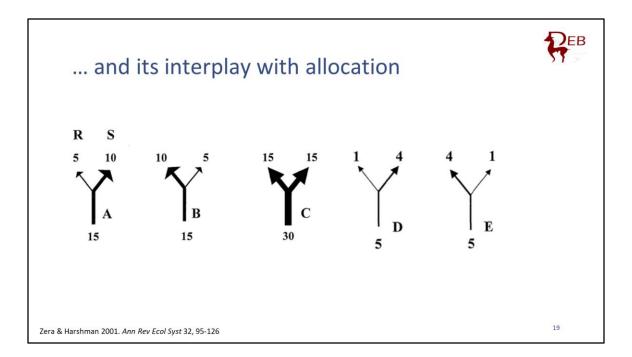
3.

Why integrate physiology with LH theory?

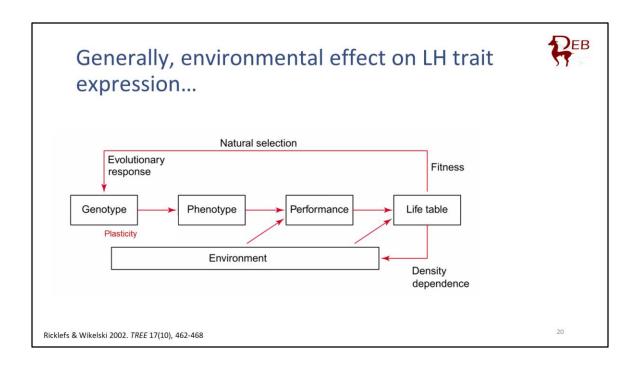


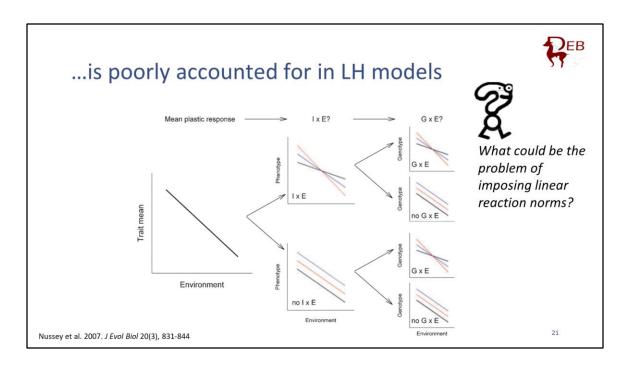


An illustration of the model: a, the components A for the total investment and B for the allocation between life history traits R and S; b, the variation in A is large and the variation in B is small, such that R is positively correlated with S (observations lie in the hatched area); c, the opposite case.

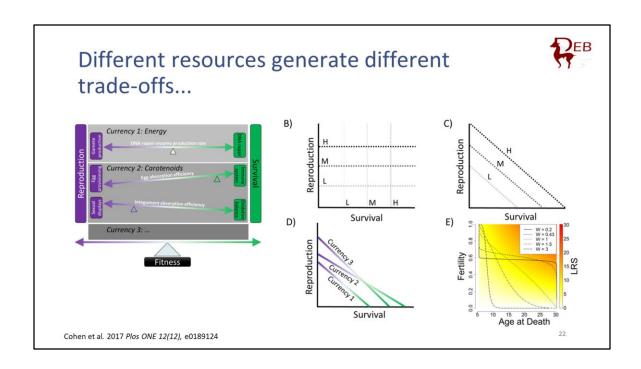


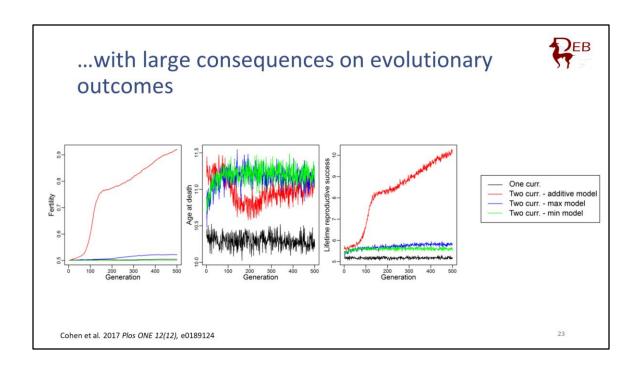
Diagrammatic representation of trade-offs. Each "Y allocation tree" illustrates the amount of resource input (acquisition; number at the base) and the pattern of resource allocation (numbers at the tips of the branches) for a particular phenotype or genotype. R denotes allocation to reproduction, while S denotes allocation to soma. In trees A–E, maximal allocation to (maximal physiological cost of) R or S is 15 resource units. Trees A and B illustrate a standard trade-off (differential allocation of a limiting internal resource). Relative to trees A and B, tree C illustrates the obviating effect of increased resource in- put on a trade-off (resource input matches physiological costs of both traits), while trees D and E illustrate the exacerbating effect of decreased nutrient input on a trade-off. Trees A and B, relative to D and E, illustrate plasticity of a resource-based trade-off.





Three different levels of analysis are involved in understanding individual plasticity in labile life history traits. Cross-sectional studies examine population-level responses to the environment (left most graph), which can be underpinned by variation between individuals in their plastic response to the environment ($I \cdot E$) or not. The presence or absence of $I \cdot E$ can itself be accompanied by underlying variation in plasticity at the additive genetic level ($G \cdot E$) or not.

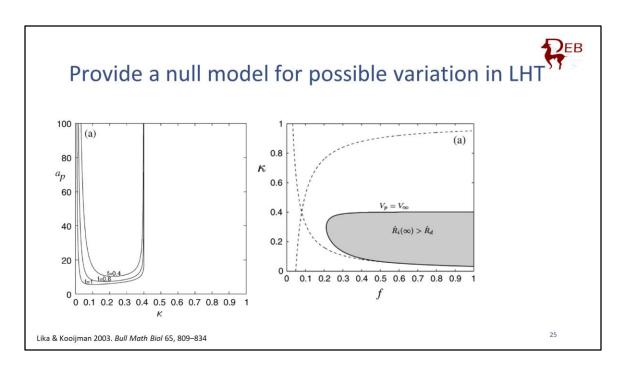




4.

A few examples of mingling DEB and LH theory





Left: The age at puberty ap (a) (and length at puberty V1/3p (b, cropped)) as functions of the partition coefficient κ , for different food levels. Right: The dashed curves represent boundaries for which the neonate just can pay somatic and maturity maintenance costs. The grey areas indicate combination of values for the scaled functional response f and the partitioning fraction κ , for which the organism is reproductively active; size at puberty equals the ultimate size at its border (solid lines).

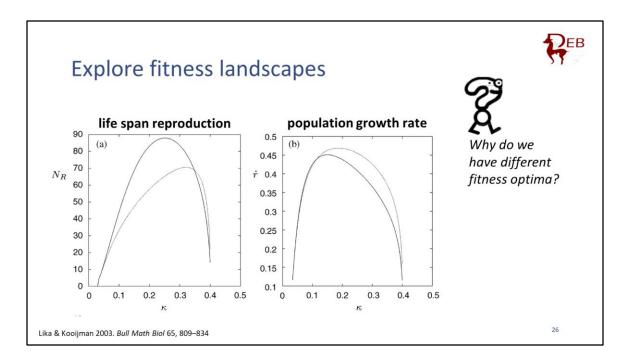
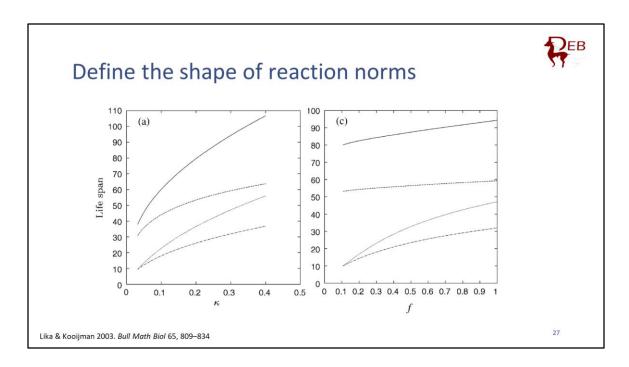
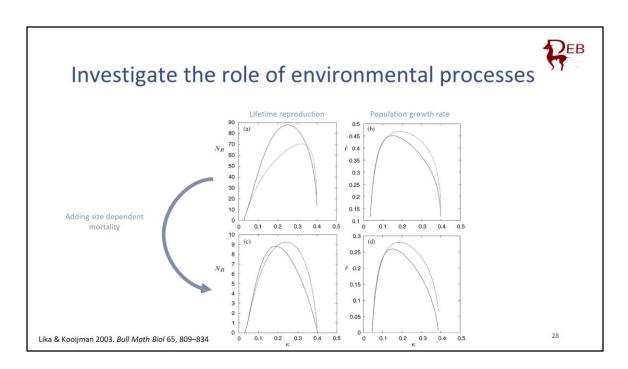


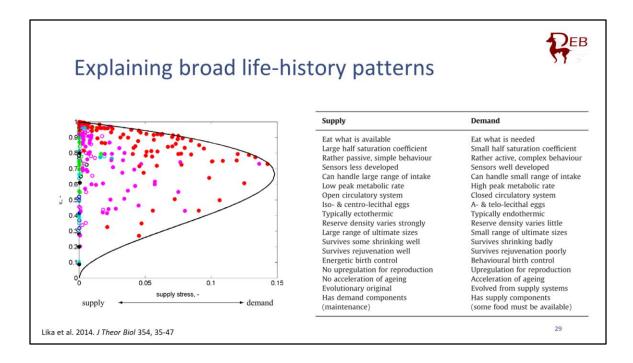
Figure 6. The life span reproduction NR (a, c) and the population growth rate \dot{r} (b, d) of the indeterminate (solid) and the determinate (dotted) animals as a function of the partitioning fraction κ at abundant food (f = 1). Upper panel (a, b): constant mortality (m 0 = 0.2, μ = 0). Lower panel (c, d): size-dependent mortality (m 0 = 0.5, μ = 0.1).



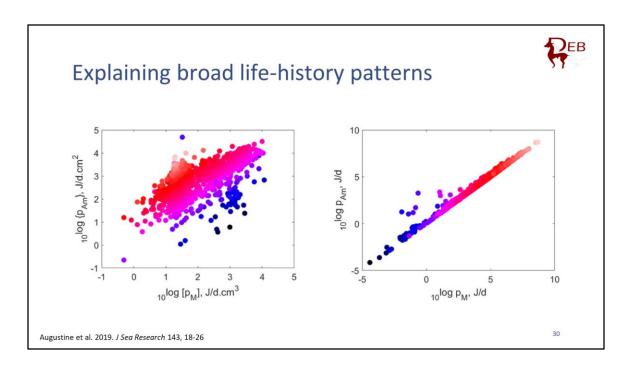
The life span of the indeterminate animal as a function of the partitioning fraction κ at abundant food (f=1) (a, b) and as a function of the functional response f with $\kappa=0.3$ (c, d). The curves represent different mortality rates: aging only (—), aging and size-independent mortality (---, m 0 = 0.01, μ = 0), aging and size-dependent mortality (···, m 0 = 0.1, μ = 1; -·-, m 0 = 0.1, μ = 0.7).



The life span reproduction NR (a, c) and the population growth rate \dot{r} (b, d) of the indeterminate (solid) and the determinate (dotted) animals as a function of the partitioning fraction κ at abundant food (f=1). Upper panel (a, b): constant mortality (m 0 = 0.2, μ = 0). Lower panel (c, d): size-dependent mortality (m 0 = 0.5, μ = 0.1).



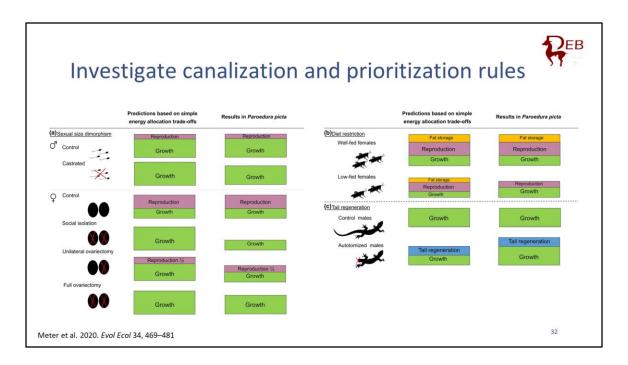
Allocation fraction κ as a function of supply stress ss for over 300 species of the add_my_pet collection. It can only take values between the two black curves and the maximum supply stress is 4/27. Colours indicate high-level taxa: blue for radiata, brown for bilateria, turquoise for platyzoa, dark turquoise for lophotrocho- zoa, green for ecdysozoa, black for invertebrate deuterostomes, magenta for ectothermic vertebrata and red for endothermic vertebrata. Open symbols indicate acceleration.



Specific assimilation as a function of specific somatic maintenance at 20 °C (left) and the absolute ones (right), where the colors from black to white, via blue and red, are proportional to log ultimate length. Some insects (partly hidden in the cloud left, but more exposed on the plot right) behave as outliers, which is no surprise, since their ultimate length does not correspond with a balance between assimilation and maintenance. The steepest colour-gradient in the left panel, which indicates ultimate length, is from lower-right to upper-left.

5. Other perspectives?





Summary of the results from case studies in *Paroedura picta* that show that growth does not seem to be influenced by variations in allocable energy. a The "reproductive cost" hypothesis predicts that removal of the costs of reproduction should lead to higher allocation to growth in both sexes. However, castrated males attained the same size as non-castrated control males (Starostová et al. 2013). Socially isolated non-reproducing females and females with highly decreased allocation to reproduction due to unilateral ovariectomy maintained similar body size (SVL) and growth rate as control regularly egg-laying females (Kubička et al. 2017). Only full ovariectomy led to higher allocation to structural growth in females, which indicates that ovarian hormones, not directly allocable energy, controls ontogeny of sexual size dimorphism via negative effect on growth in females (Kubička et al. 2017). b In the case of food restriction, we expected that restricted diet would lead to reduced allocation to reproduction, growth and fat storage. However, structural growth was not affected by food limitations, which reduced only allocation to reproduction and fat storage (Kubička and Kratochvíl 2009). c The simple energy allocation trade-off predicts that growth should be decreased in the lizards during tail regeneration. Nevertheless, geckos with and without growth regeneration had similar growth rates and reached

similar structural body size (Starostová et al. <u>2017</u>).





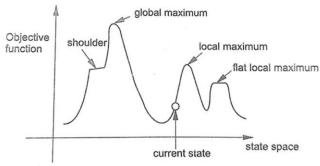


Fig: Hill Climbing



To take away!

- ✓ Different approaches to fitness/selection can yield different answers.
- ✓ Historically, the focus was on selective forces, while crudely accounting for constraints through (often static) « trade-offs ».
- ✓ Mechanistic models have the potential to truly investigate the interplay between selective forces and contraints.



Thank you for your attention

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