

Ecological and evolutionary implications of starvation and body size

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7 **This is the abstract.** No it isn't. It's merely a placeholder.

8 foraging | starvation | reproduction

9 Introduction

10 The behavioral ecology of most, if not all, organisms is influ-
11 enced by the energetic state of individuals, which directly influ-
12 ences how organisms invest reserves in uncertain environments.
13 Such behaviors are generally manifested as trade-offs between
14 investing in somatic maintenance and growth or allocating en-
15 ergy towards reproduction [1, 2, 3]. The timing of these be-
16 haviors responds to selective pressure, as the choice of the in-
17 vestment impacts future fitness! [4]. The influence of resource
18 limitation on an organism's ability to maintain its nutritional
19 stores may lead to repeated delays or shifts in reproduction over
20 the course of an organism's life.

21 The life history of most species is typically comprised of (a)
22 somatic growth and maintenance and (b) reproduction. The
23 balance between these two activities is often conditioned on
24 resource availability [5]. For example, reindeer invest less in
25 calves born after harsh winters (when the mother's energetic
26 state is depleted) than in calves born after moderate winters [6].
27 Many bird species invest differently in broods during periods
28 of resource scarcity compared to normal periods [7, 8], some-
29 times delaying or even foregoing reproduction for a breeding
30 season [1, 9, 10]. Even freshwater and marine zooplankton have
31 been observed to avoid reproduction under nutritional stress
32 [11], and those that do reproduce have lower survival rates [2].
33 Organisms may also separate maintenance and growth from re-
34 production over space and time: many salmonids, birds, and
35 some mammals return to migratory breeding grounds to repro-
36 duce after one or multiple seasons in resource-rich environments
37 where they accumulate nutritional reserves [12, 13, 14].

38 Physiological mechanisms also play an important role in reg-
39 ulating reproductive expenditures during periods of resource
40 limitation. Diverse mammals (47 species in 10 families) ex-
41 hibit delayed implantation, whereby females postpone fetal
42 development (blastocyst implantation) until times where nu-
43 tritional reserves can be accumulated [15, 16]. Many other
44 many species (including humans) suffer irregular menstrual cy-
45 cling and higher abortion rates during periods of nutritional
46 stress [17, 18]. In the extreme case of unicellular organisms,
47 nutrition is unavoidably linked to reproduction because the nu-
48 tritional state of the cell regulates all aspects of the cell cycle
49 [19]. The existence of so many independently evolved mechan-
50 isms across such a diverse suite of organisms highlights the im-
51 portance and universality of the fundamental tradeoff between
52 somatic and reproductive investment. However the dynamic
53 implications of these constraints are unknown.

54 Though straightforward conceptually, incorporating the en-
55 ergetic dynamics of individuals [20] into a population-level
56 framework [20, 21] presents numerous mathematical obsta-
57 cles [22]. An alternative approach involves modeling the
58 macroscale relations that guide somatic versus reproductive
59 investment in a consumer-resource system. For example,
60 macroscale Lotka-Volterra models assume that the growth rate

61 of the consumer population depends on resource density, thus
62 *implicitly* incorporating the requirement of resource availability
63 for reproduction [23].

64 In this work, we adopt an alternative approach in which re-
65 source limitation and the subsequent effect of starvation is ac-
66 counted for *explicitly*. Namely, only individuals with sufficient
67 energetic reserves can reproduce. Such a constraint leads to
68 reproductive time lags due to some members of the population
69 starving and then recovering. Additionally, we incorporate the
70 idea that reproduction is strongly constrained allometrically [3],
71 and is not generally linearly related to resource density. As we
72 shall show, these constraints influence the ensuing population
73 dynamics in dramatic ways.

74 Nutritional-state-structured model (NSM)

75 We begin by defining a minimal Nutritional-State-
76 structured population Model (NSM), where the consumer pop-
77 ulation is divided into two energetic states: (a) an energetically
78 replete (full) state F , where the consumer reproduces at a con-
79 stant rate λ , and (b) an energetically deficient (hungry) state
80 H , where the consumer does not reproduce but dies at rate μ .
81 The underlying resource R evolves by logistic growth with an
82 intrinsic growth rate α and a carrying capacity equal to one.
83 Consumers transition from the full state F to the hungry state
84 H by starvation at rate σ and also in proportion to the absence
85 of resources $(1 - R)$. Conversely, consumers recover from state
86 H to state F at rate ρ and in proportion to R . Resources are
87 also eaten by the consumers—at rate ρ by hungry consumers
88 and at rate $\beta < \rho$ by full consumers. This inequality accounts
89 for hungry consumers requiring more resources to rebuild body
90 weight.

90 In the mean-field approximation, in which the consumers
91 and resources are perfectly mixed, their densities evolve accord-
92 ing to the rate equations

$$\begin{aligned}\dot{F} &= \lambda F + \rho RH - \sigma(1 - R)F, \\ \dot{H} &= \sigma(1 - R)F - \rho RH - \mu H, \\ \dot{R} &= \alpha R(1 - R) - R(\rho H + \beta F).\end{aligned}\quad [1]$$

93 Notice that the total consumer density $F + H$ evolves accord-
94 ing to $\dot{F} + \dot{H} = \lambda F - \mu H$. This resembles the equation of
95 motion for the predator density in the classic Lotka-Volterra
96 model, except that the resource density does not appear in the

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99 growth term. As discussed above, the attributes of reproduction and mortality have been explicitly apportioned to the full 100 and hungry consumers, respectively, so that the growth in the total density is decoupled from the resource density.

103 Equation [1] has three fixed points: two trivial fixed points at $(F^*, H^*, R^*) = (0, 0, 0)$ and $(0, 0, 1)$, and one non-trivial, 104 internal fixed point at

$$\begin{aligned} F^* &= \frac{\alpha\lambda\mu(\mu + \rho)}{(\lambda\rho + \mu\sigma)(\lambda\rho + \mu\beta)}, \\ H^* &= \frac{\alpha\lambda^2(\mu + \rho)}{(\lambda\rho + \mu\sigma)(\lambda\rho + \mu\beta)}, \\ R^* &= \frac{\mu(\sigma - \lambda)}{\lambda\rho + \mu\sigma}. \end{aligned}$$

106 If this internal fixed point, which is unique, is stable, it will 107 be the global attractor for all population trajectories for any 108 initial condition where the resource and consumer densities are 109 both non zero. The stability of this fixed point is determined by 110 the Jacobian Matrix \mathbf{J} , where each matrix element J_{ij} equals 111 $\partial\dot{X}_i/\partial X_j$ when evaluated at the internal fixed point, and \mathbf{X} is 112 the vector (F, H, R) . If the parameters in Eq. [1] are such that 113 the real part of the largest eigenvalue of \mathbf{J} is negative, then the 114 system is stable with respect to small perturbations from the 115 fixed point.

116 From Eq. [2], an obvious constraint on the NSM is that 117 the reproduction rate λ must be less than the starvation rate 118 σ , so that R^* is positive. Moreover, when the resource density 119 $R = 0$, the rate equation for F gives exponential growth for 120 $\lambda > \sigma$. The condition $\sigma = \lambda$ represents a transcritical (TC) bi- 121 furcation that demarcates the physical and unphysical regimes. 122 The biological implication of the constraint $\lambda < \sigma$ is simple— 123 the rate at which a macroscopic organism loses mass due to 124 lack of resources is generally much faster than the rate of repro- 125 duction. As we will discuss below, this inequality is a natural 126 consequence of allometric constraints [3] for organisms within 127 empirically observed body size ranges (Fig. 2).

128 In the physical regime of $\lambda < \sigma$, the fixed point [2] may 129 either be a stable node or a limit cycle (Fig. 3). In continuous- 130 time systems, a limit cycle arises when a pair of complex con- 131 jugate eigenvalues crosses the imaginary axis to attain positive 132 real parts [24]. This Hopf bifurcation is defined by $\text{Det}(\mathbf{S}) = 0$, 133 where \mathbf{S} is the Sylvester matrix, which is composed of the co- 134 efficients of the characteristic polynomial of the Jacobian ma- 135 trix [25]. As the system parameters are tuned to be within the 136 stable regime but close to the Hopf bifurcation, the amplitude 137 of the transient but decaying cycles become large. Given that 138 ecological systems are constantly being perturbed [26], the on- 139 set of transient cycles, even though they decay with time, can 140 increase the extinction risk [27, 28, 29]. Thus the distance of 141 a system from the Hopf bifurcation provides a measure of its 142 persistence.

143 When the starvation rate $\sigma \gg \lambda$, a substantial fraction 144 of the consumers are driven to the hungry non-reproductive 145 state. Because reproduction is inhibited, there is a low steady- 146 state consumer density and a high steady-state resource density. 147 However, if σ/λ approaches one, the population is overloaded 148 with energetically-replete (reproducing) individuals, thereby 149 promoting oscillations between the consumer and resource den- 150 sities (Fig. 3).

151 Whereas the consumer growth rate λ defines an absolute 152 bound of biological feasibility—the TC bifurcation—the star- 153 vation rate σ determines the sensitivity of the consumer popu- 154 lation to changes in resource density. When $\sigma \gg \lambda$, the steady- 155 state population density is small, thereby increasing the risk of 156 stochastic extinction. Conversely, as σ decreases, the system 157 will ultimately be poised either near the TC or the Hopf bi-

158 furcation (Fig. 3). If the recovery rate ρ is sufficiently small, 159 the TC bifurcation is reached and the resource eventually is 160 eliminated. If ρ exceeds a threshold value, cyclic dynamics will 161 develop as the Hopf bifurcation is approached.

162 Role of allometry

163 The NSM describes a broad range of dynamics, yet organisms 164 are likely unable to access most of the total parameter space. 165 Here we use allometric scaling relationships to constrain the 166 covariation of rates in a principled and biologically meaning- 167 ful manner. Allometric scaling relationships highlight common 168 constraints and average trends across large ranges in body size 169 and species diversity. Many of these relationships can be de- 170 rived from a small set of assumptions and below we describe 171 a framework for the covariation of timescales and rates across 172 the range of mammals for each of the key parameters of our 173 model (cf. [30]). We are able to define the regime of dynam- 174 ics occupied by the entire class of mammals along with the key 175 differences between the largest and smallest mammals.

176 Nearly all of the rates described in the NSM are to some 177 extent governed by consumer metabolism, which can be used 178 to describe a variety of organism features []. The scaling rela- 179 tionship between an organism's metabolic rate B and its body 180 size at reproductive maturity M is well documented [31] and 181 scales as $B = B_0 M^\eta$, where η is the scaling exponent, gener- 182 ally assumed to vary around 2/3 or 3/4 for metazoans [], and 183 has taxonomic shifts for unicellular species between $\eta \approx 1$ in 184 eukaryotes and $\eta \approx 1.76$ in bacteria [32, 3]. Several efforts have 185 shown how a partitioning of this metabolic rate between growth 186 and maintenance purposes can be used to derive a general equa- 187 tion for the growth trajectories and growth rates of organisms 188 ranging from bacteria to metazoans [3, ?]. More specifically, 189 the interspecific trends in growth rate can be approximated by

$$\lambda = \lambda_0 M^{\eta-1}. \quad [3]$$

190 This relationship is derived from the simple balance

$$B_0 m^\eta = E_m \frac{dm}{dt} + B_m m \quad [4]$$

191 where E_m is the energy needed to synthesize a unit of mass, 192 B_m is the metabolic rate to support an existing unit of mass, 193 and m is the mass at any point in development. It is useful to 194 explicitly write this balance because it can also be modified to 195 understand the timescales of both starvation and recovery from 196 starvation as we show below.

197 For the rate of starvation, σ , we are interested in the time 198 that it takes an organism to go from healthy adulthood to a 199 smaller size where reproduction is impossible. This process is 200 defined by the energy balance in Equation 4 where we make the 201 simple assumption that an organism must meet its maintenance 202 requirements using the digestion of existing mass as the sole 203 energy source. This assumption implies the simple metabolic

$$\frac{dm}{dt} E'_m = -B_m m \quad [5]$$

205 where E'_m is the amount of energy stored in a unit of exist- 206 ing body mass which differs from E_m [], the energy required to 207 synthesis a unit of biomass. Given the adult mass, M , of an 208 organism this energy balance prescribes the mass trajectory of 209 a starving organism:

$$m(t) = M e^{-B_m t / E'_m}. \quad [6]$$

210 Considering that only certain tissues can be digested for energy, 211 for example the brain cannot be degraded to fuel metabolism, 212 we define the rate for starvation and death by the timescales

required to reach specific fractions of normal adult mass. We mean; Fig. 4) results in little qualitative difference. These define $m_{starve} = \epsilon M$, where $\epsilon < 1$ is the fraction of adult mass where reproduction ceases. This fraction will change if oscillations – including both stable limit cycles as well as transient tissue composition systematically scales with adult mass. For sient cycles – than mammals with larger body size. Our model example, considering the observation that body fat in mammals predicts that population cycles should be less common for larger scales with overall body size according to $M_f = f_0 M^\gamma$, and as- species and more common for smaller species, particularly in suming that once this mass is fully digested the organism begins environments where resources are limiting.

to starve, would imply that $\epsilon = 1 - f_0 M^\gamma / M$. Taken together the time scale for starvation is given by

$$t_\sigma = -\frac{E_m \log(\epsilon)}{B_m}. \quad [6]$$

The starvation rate is then $\sigma = 1/t_\sigma$, which will scale with adult mass following $1/\log(1 - f_0 M^\gamma / M)$. In either case σ does not have a simple scaling with λ (Equation 3) which is important for the dynamics that we later discuss.

The time to death should follow a similar relationship, but defined by a lower fraction of adult mass, $m_{death} = \epsilon' M$. Consider, for example, that an organism dies once it has digested all fat and muscle tissues, and that muscle tissue scales with body mass according to $M_{mm} = mm_0 M^\zeta$, then $\epsilon' = 1 - (f_0 M^\gamma + mm_0 M^\zeta) / M$. Muscle mass has been shown to be roughly proportional to body mass [33] in mammals and thus ϵ' is effectively ϵ minus a constant. Thus

$$t_\mu = -\frac{E_m \log(\epsilon')}{B_m}. \quad [7]$$

and $\mu = 1/t_\mu$.

The rate of recovery $\rho = 1/t_\rho$ requires that an organism accrues tissue from the starving state to the full state. We again use the balance given in Equation 4 to find the timescale to return to the mature mass from a given reduced starvation mass. The solution to Equation 4 is given by

$$m(t) = \left(\frac{B_0}{B_m} \right)^{1/(\eta-1)} \left[1 - \left(1 - \frac{B_m}{B_0} m_0^{1-\eta} \right) e^{-b(1-\eta)t} \right]^{1/(1-\eta)}$$

We are then interested in the timescale, $t_\rho = t_2 - t_1$, which is the time it takes to go from $m(t_1) = \epsilon M$ to $m(t_2) = M$, or

$$t_\rho = \frac{E_m \left(\log \left(1 - \frac{B_0}{B_m} (M)^{1-\eta} \right) - \log \left(1 - \frac{B_0}{B_m} (\epsilon M)^{1-\eta} \right) \right)}{(\eta-1)B_m}.$$

Although these rate equations are general, here we focus on parameterizations for terrestrial-bound endotherms, specifically mammals, which range from $M \approx 1$ gram (the Etruscan shrew *Suncus etruscus*) to $M \approx 10^7$ grams (the late Eocene to early Miocene Indricotheriinae). Investigating other classes of organisms would simply involve altering the metabolic exponents and scalings associate with ϵ . Moreover, we emphasize that our allometric equations describe mean relationships, and do not account for the (sometimes considerable) variance associated with individual species.

The stabilizing effects of allometric constraints

As the allometric derivations of NSM rate laws reveal, σ and ρ are not independent parameters, and the bifurcation space shown in Fig. 3 is navigated via covarying parameters. Given the parameterization for terrestrial endotherms we find that σ and ρ are constrained to a small window of potential values (Fig. 4) for the known range of body sizes M . We find that the dynamics for all mammalian body sizes is confined to the steady-state regime which does not contain limit cycles. Moreover, for larger M , the distance to the Hopf bifurcation increases, while uncertainty in allometric parameters (20% variation around the

Previous studies have used allometric constraints explain the periodicity of cyclic populations [34, 35, 36], suggesting a period $\propto M^{0.25}$, however this relationship seems to hold only for some species [37] and competing explanations [related to] exist [38, 39]. Statistically significant support for the existence of population cycles among mammals is predominantly based on time-series for smaller bodied mammals [40], where our model would predict much longer and more pronounced transient dynamics given how close these points are to the Hopf bifurcation. We acknowledge that longer generation times, and more difficult measurement procedures, precludes similar quality data for larger organisms.

Extinction risk Within our model higher rates of starvation result in a larger flux of the population to the hungry state, eliminating reproduction and increasing the likelihood of mortality. However, from the perspective of population survival, it is the rate of starvation relative to the rate of recovery that determines the long-term dynamics of the system (Fig 3). We examine the competing effects of cyclic dynamics vs. changes in steady state density on extinction risk as a function of the ratio σ/ρ . We computed the probability of extinction, where extinction is defined as $H(t) + F(t) = 10$ at any instant across all values of $10^2 < t \leq 10^6$, for 1000 replicates of the continuous-time system shown in Eq. 1 for an organism of $M = 100$ grams, assuming random initial conditions around the steady state (Eq. 2). By allowing the rate of starvation to vary, we assessed extinction risk across a range of values of the ratio σ/ρ varying between 10^{-2} to 2.5, thus examining a horizontal cross-section of Fig. 3. As expected, higher rates of extinction correlated with both low and high values of σ/ρ ; for low values the higher extinction risk results from transient cycles with larger amplitudes as the system nears the Hopf bifurcation (Fig. 5). For large values of σ/ρ , higher extinction risk is due to the decrease in the steady state consumer population density. This interplay creates an ‘extinction refuge’ as shown in Fig. 5, such that for a relatively constrained range of σ/ρ , extinction probabilities are minimized.

We find that the allometrically constrained values of σ/ρ (with $\pm 20\%$ variability around energetic parameter means) fall within the extinction refuge. These values are close enough to the Hopf bifurcation to avoid low steady state densities, and far enough away to avoid large-amplitude transient cycles. The fact that allometric values of σ and ρ fall within this relatively small window supports the possibility that a selective mechanism has constrained the physiological conditions driving observed starvation and recovery rates within populations. Such a mechanism would select for organism physiology that generates appropriate σ and ρ values that avoid extinction, and this could occur via the tuning of body fat percentages, metabolic rates, and biomass maintenance efficiencies. Nevertheless, our finding that the allometrically-determined parameters fall within this low extinction probability region suggests that the NSM dynamics may both drive – and constrain – natural animal populations.

Dynamic and energetic barriers to body size

Metabolite transportation constraints are widely thought to place strict boundaries on biological scaling [41, 42, 43], leading to specific predictions on the minimum possible body size for organisms [44]. Above this bound, a number of energetic

329 and evolutionary mechanisms have been explored to assess the 374 $\chi \in [-0.5, 0.5]$, thus altering rates of starvation, recovery, and
 330 costs and benefits associated with larger body masses, particu- 375 maintenance β . Although there is not an internal fixed point
 331 larly for mammals. The *fasting endurance hypothesis* contends 376 where both residents and invaders coexist (except for the trivial
 332 that larger body size, with lower metabolic rates and able to 377 state $\chi = 0$), we assess invasibility, as a function of organismal
 333 hold more endogenous energetic reserves, may buffer organisms 378 mass, by determining which consumer has a higher steady state
 334 against environmental fluctuations in resource availability [45]. 379 given χ . We find that for $1 \leq M < 10^6$ g, having additional
 335 Over evolutionary time, terrestrial mammalian lineages show a 380 body fat ($\chi > 0$) results in a higher steady state density for the
 336 significant trend towards larger body size (known as Cope's 381 invader population ($H'^* + F'^* > H^* + F^*$), such that it has an
 337 Rule) [46, 47, 48, 49], and it is thought that within-lineage 382 intrinsic advantage over the resident population. However, for
 338 drivers generate selection towards an optimal upper-bound of 383 $M > 10^6$, leaner individuals ($\chi < 0$) have an advantage, and
 339 ca. 10⁷ grams [46], the value of which may arise from higher 384 this is due to the changing covariance between energetic rates
 340 extinction risk for large taxa over evolutionary timescales [47]. 385 as a function of modified energetic reserves.

341 These trends are thought to be driven by a combination of cli- 386 The observed switch in invasibility as a function of χ at
 342 mate change and niche availability [49], however the underpin- 387 $M_{\text{opt}} \approx 10^6$ thus serves as an attractor, where over evolu-
 343 ning energetic costs and benefits of larger body sizes, and how 388 tionary time the NSM predicts organismal mass to increase if
 344 they influence dynamics over ecological timescales, has not been 389 $M < M_{\text{opt}}$ and decrease if $M > M_{\text{opt}}$. Moreover, M_{opt} , which
 345 explored, and we contend that the NSM provides a suitable 390 is entirely determined by the population-level consequences of
 346 framework to explore these issues. 391 energetic constraints is within an order of magnitude as that

347 A lower bound on mammalian body size is given by $\epsilon = 392$ observed in the North American mammalian fossil record [46]
 348 1, where mammals have no reserves and immediately starve, 393 and as that predicted from an evolutionary model of body size
 349 which occurs at a size of $M = \text{value}$. This calculation gives 394 evolution [47]. While the state of the environment, as well as
 350 an extreme limit on size but does not account for the sub- 395 the competitive landscape, will determine whether specific body
 351 tleties of starvation dynamics that may limit body size. The 396 size sizes are selected for or against [49], we suggest that the
 352 NSM correctly predicts that species with smaller masses have 397 starvation dynamic proposed here may supply the fundamen-
 353 larger steady-state population densities, however we observe 398 tal momentum fueling the evolution of larger body size among
 354 that there is a sharp asymptote in both steady state densities 399 terrestrial mammals.

355 as well as σ/ρ at $M \approx 0.3$ grams (Fig. 6a,b). Observation 400 The energetics associated with somatic maintenance,
 356 of the rates of starvation and recovery explain why: as mass 401 growth, and reproduction are important elements that influ-
 357 decreases, the rate of starvation increases, while the rate of re- 402 ence the dynamics of all populations [9]. The NSM is a mini-
 358 covey declines super-exponentially. This decline in ρ occurs 403 mal and general model that incorporates the dynamics of star-
 359 when body fat percentage is $1 - 1/((B_0/B_m)^{1/(\eta-1)} M) \approx 2\%$, 404 vation that are expected to occur in resource limited environ-
 360 whereupon consumers have no eligible route out of starvation. 405 ments. By incorporating allometric relationships between the
 361 Compellingly, this dynamic bound determined by the rate of en- 406 rates in the NSM, we find *i*) different organismal masses are
 362 ergetic recovery is close to the minimum observed mammalian 407 more or less prone to different population dynamic regimes,
 363 body size of ca. 1.3–2.5 grams (Fig. 6b,c), a range that occurs as 408 *ii*) allometrically-determined rates of starvation and recovery
 364 the recovery rate begins its decline. In addition to known trans- 409 appear to minimize extinction risk, and *iii*) the dynamic conse-
 365 port limitations [44], we suggest that an additional constraint 410 quences of these rates may place additional barriers on the evo-
 366 of lower body size stems from the dynamics of starvation. This 411 lution of minimum and maximum body size. We suggest that
 367 work mirrors other efforts where coincident limitations seem to 412 the NSM offers a means by which the dynamic consequences
 368 limit the smallest possibilities for life within a particular class 413 of energetic constraints can be assessed using macroscale inter-
 369 or organisms [?]. 414 actions between and among species. Future efforts will involve

370 We examine a potential upper bound to body mass by as- 415 exploring the consequences of these dynamics in a spatially ex-
 371 sessing population invasibility with respect to a mutated sub- 416 plicit framework, thus incorporating elements such as movement
 372 set of the population (denoted by ') where individuals have 417 costs and spatial heterogeneity, which may elucidate additional
 373 a modified proportion of body fat $M' = M(1 + \chi)$ where 418 tradeoffs associated with the dynamics of starvation.

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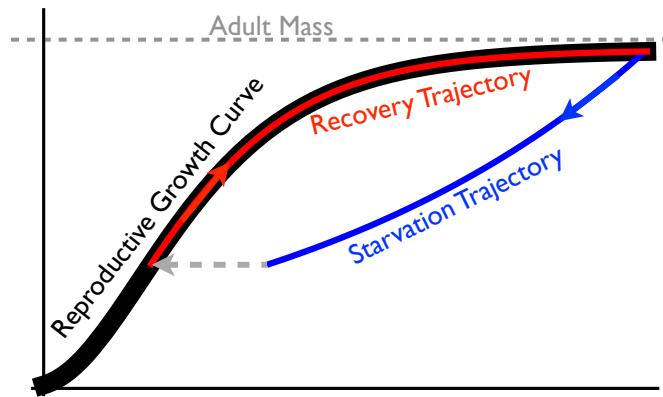


Fig. 1

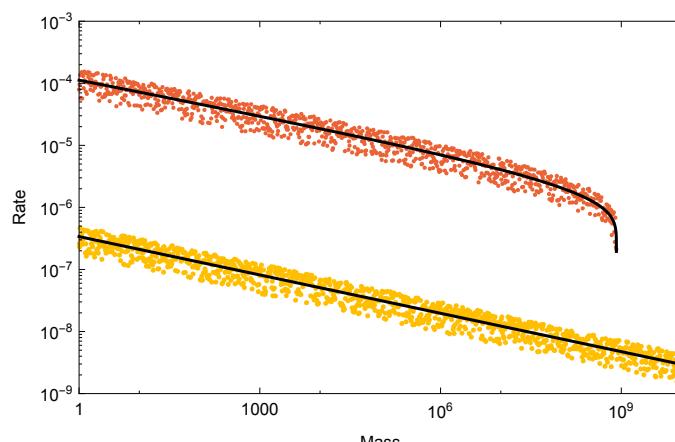


Fig. 2

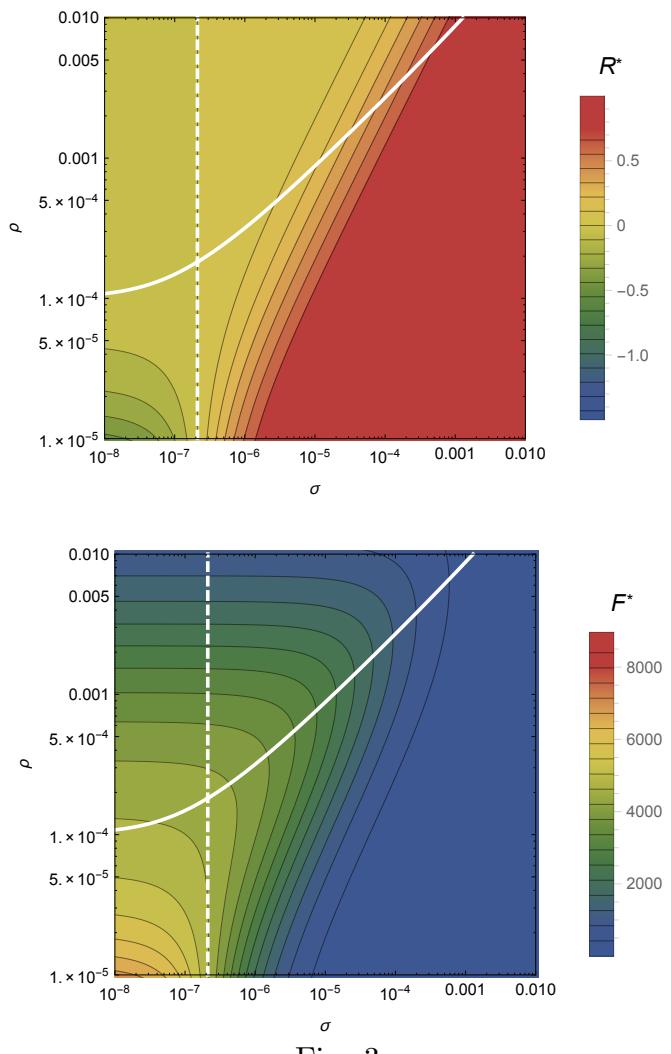


Fig. 3

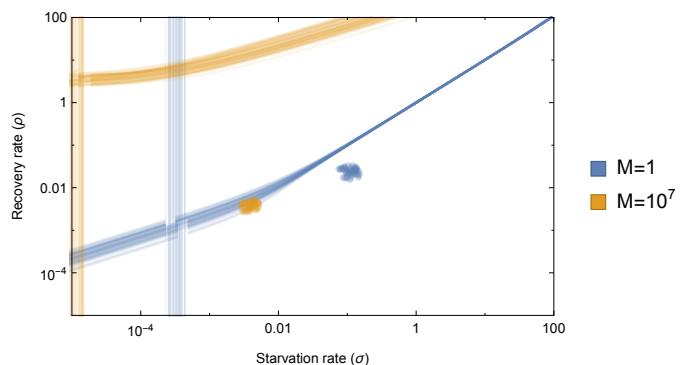


Fig. 4

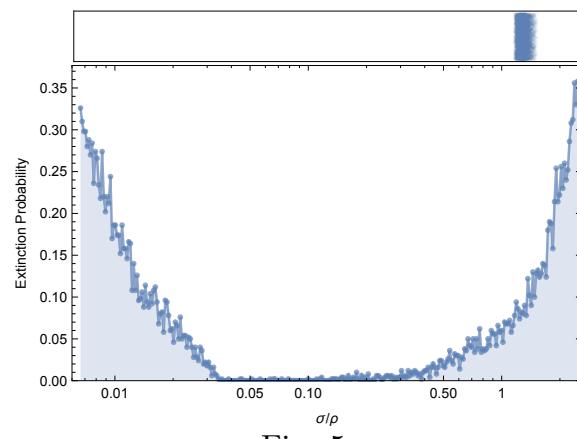


Fig. 5

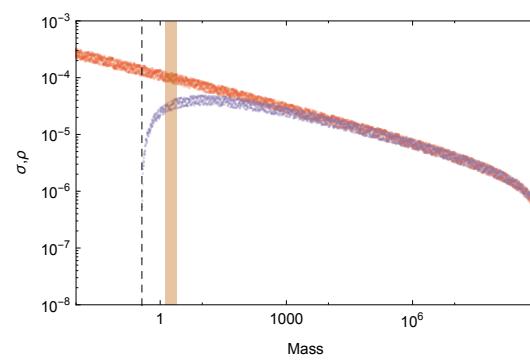
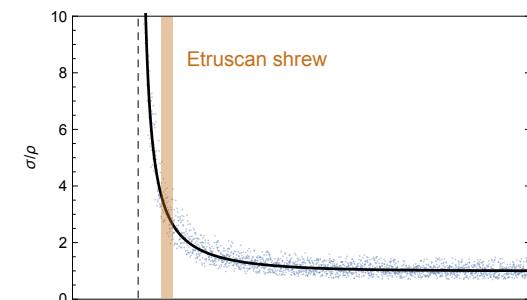
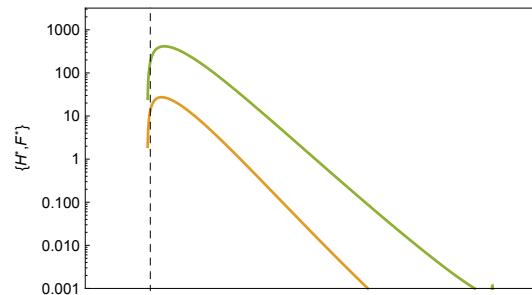


Fig. 6

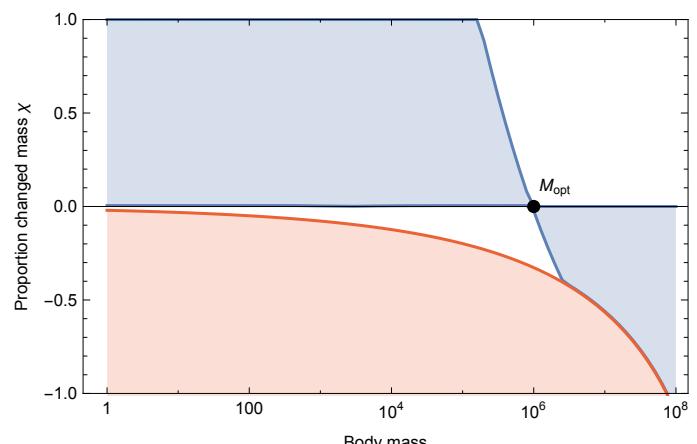


Fig. 7

Table 1: Parameter Values For Various Classes of Organisms

	Mammals	Unicellular karyotes	Eu- karyotes	Bacteria
η	3/4			1.70
E_m	10695 (J gram $^{-1}$)			10695 (J gram $^{-1}$)
E'_m	$\approx E_m$			$\approx E_m$
B_0	0.019 (W gram $^{-\alpha}$)			1.96×10^{17}
B_m	0.025 (W gram $^{-1}$)			0.025 (W gram $^{-1}$)
a	1.78×10^{-6}			1.83×10^{13}
b	2.29×10^{-6}			2.29×10^{-6}
$\eta - 1$	-0.21			0.73
λ_0	3.39×10^{-7} (s $^{-1}$ gram $^{1-\eta}$)			56493
γ	1.19			0.68
f_0	0.02			1.30×10^{-5}
ζ	1.01			
mm_0	0.32			