

# Young and mature males have similar energy expenditure during the rut in a trophy-hunted population of Mediterranean mouflon

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- 1 Young and mature males have similar energy expenditure during the
- 2 rut in a trophy hunted population of Mediterranean mouflon

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24 Short title: Energy expenditure during the rut in Mediterranean mouflon

#### 25 Abstract

In polygynous ungulates, males invest time and energy to reproductive activities during the rut and 26 this involvement is expected to increase with age due to different mating tactics in young versus 27 28 adult males. In contrast, mating period is expected to be less costly for females for which late gestation and lactation, in spring, are the most energetically demanding periods. However, empirical 29 support of these hypotheses through direct measures of reproductive effort are still limited in 30 ungulate species, particularly in males. In addition, this general pattern may be modified in 31 32 populations facing selective harvesting on adult males, where young males may experience less competition to mate and invest more energy during the rut. We investigated these hypotheses by 33 34 studying the age- and sex-specific variations of kidney fat reserves from pre- to post-rut periods in a trophy hunted population of Mediterranean mouflon (Ovis gmelini musimon × Ovis sp.), a 35 polygynous dimorphic mountain ungulate. Females were found to build up energy from the pre-rut 36 to the post-rut periods, most likely to face with the subsequent costs of gestation/lactation that occur 37 few months later. Conversely, kidney fat mass strongly decreased similarly in both young and 38 mature males, and with the same extent, suggesting a strong investment of males of all ages in this 39 population. This might be related to the selective hunting pressure on mature males this population 40 is facing with. This result supports the need for more empirical and comparative studies to better 41 42 grasp the influence of trophy hunting on reproductive effort in male ungulates.

#### 43 Keywords:

44 Kidney fat; reproduction cost; rut; Ovis gmelini musimon × Ovis sp.; ungulates

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- 58 Gilles Bourgoin: Conceptualization, Methodology, Formal analysis, Resources, Data Curation,
- 59 Writing Original Draft, Writing Review & Editing, Supervision, Project administration, Funding
- 60 acquisition.
- 61 Alice Laurent: Formal analysis, Investigation, Data Curation.
- 62 **Pascal Marchand:** Conceptualization, Methodology, Formal analysis, Writing Original Draft,
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# 70 1. Introduction

In polygynous ungulate species, the reproductive success of females is generally highly dependent 71 72 on their access to food resources, whereas males must rather compete to get access to females during the mating season (Emlen and Oring, 1977). This sexual selection has favored fast growing 73 males with a large body size in numerous ungulate species (Weckerly, 1998), features that contrast 74 with females, which invest in body condition and start to reproduce early at the expense of adult 75 size (Andersson, 1994; Clutton-Brock et al., 1988; Ralls, 1977; Robert, 1972). The timing of energy 76 allocation to reproduction also differs between the sexes. 77 The period of highest energy expenditure for reproduction in females occurs during late gestation 78 79 and lactation (Gittleman and Thompson, 1988; Loudon, 1985; Oftedal, 1985). To sustain this high 80 energy demand, females in most species anticipate by building up energy as fat during the months prior to the energetically demanding period at late gestation and lactation (Clutton-Brock et al., 81 1989; Knopp et al., 1973). 82 On the contrary, males expend most energy for reproduction during the rutting season (Miquelle, 83 1990; Yoccoz et al., 2002). During this period, different mating tactics are observed in males 84 ungulates (Isvaran, 2005), for example, the defense of females (harem) and territories containing 85 resources in red deer (Cervus elaphus; Carranza et al., 1990); female-following and lekking 86 behavior in fallow deer (Dama dama; Moore et al., 1995); and coursing and tending behaviors in 87 88 wild goats and sheep (e.g., bighorn sheep Ovis canadensis; Hogg and Forbes, 1997; mountain goats, Oreamnos americanus; Mainguy et al., 2008). These reproductive behaviors are highly 89 energetically demanding for males, especially in most polygynous and dimorphic species (Garel et 90 91 al., 2011; McElligott et al., 2003; Miguelle, 1990; Yoccoz et al., 2002). In addition to the direct energy costs of such behaviors, polygynous males allocate most of their energy and time to 92 93 reproductive behaviors during the rut with a depressed voluntary food intake and negative consequences on their body condition (Brivio et al., 2010; Clutton-Brock et al., 1982; Foley et al., 94 2018; Monteith et al., 2020; Mysterud et al., 2008; Pelletier et al., 2009). The investment of males 95

in reproduction and the mating tactic they adopt generally also varies with age. Adult males invest 96 in developing secondary sexual traits, such as horns or antlers, to be more attractive and to get 97 greater access to females than younger males (Byers and Waits, 2006). They also allocate more 98 99 time and energy than immature males in intra-sex competition (e.g., fights) or tending (Clutton-Brock, 1989; Clutton-Brock et al., 1992). By contrast, young males spend more time feeding and 100 less time in costly reproductive behaviors and use alternative reproductive tactics (e.g., coursing; 101 Bon et al., 1995; Mysterud et al., 2004; Pelletier et al., 2006; Willisch and Neuhaus, 2009). As a 102 consequence, the energetic investment for reproduction is expected to be lower in young males than 103 in mature ones (Foley et al., 2018; Mysterud et al., 2004; Yoccoz et al., 2002), the former also 104 balancing energy expenditure with growth and long-term reproductive success (Forsyth et al., 2005; 105 Garel et al., 2011; Monteith et al., 2020). 106 This general pattern has, however, been challenged in populations of wild ungulates experiencing 107 trophy hunting, with large-horned or large antlered males being selectively targeted. In such 108 populations, the biased hunting pressure against mature males may lead to a female-biased adult sex 109 ratio and a higher proportion of young males compared with non-hunted populations. In the absence 110 of adult males, young ones may then invest more energy in rutting activities and less energy in body 111 growth, with potential short- and long-term consequences on their body mass, size, and survival 112 (Bon et al., 1992; Garel et al., 2006; but see Monteith et al., 2020 on yearling males of white-tailed 113 deer Odocoileus virginianus; Mysterud, 2014; Singer and Zeigenfuss, 2002; Stringham and 114 Bubenik, 1975). 115 To date, age-related variations in reproductive efforts in male ungulates has still received much less 116 attention than in females. This discrepancy probably originates from the fact that reproductive 117 118 investment in males results from multiple components (fighting, patrolling, tending, coursing; Mysterud et al., 2004) that are difficult to measure compared with the production of young in 119 120 females (Clutton-Brock et al., 1989; Hewison and Gaillard, 2001; Weladji et al., 2002). In addition, reproductive effort in male ungulates has often been studied from indirect measures, or with direct 121

measures, such as changes in body mass (Mysterud et al., 2005, 2003), that are not always accurate 122 proxies of energy expenditure (Garel et al., 2011). More studies are definitely required to better 123 grasp the rutting ecology of ungulates (Mysterud et al., 2004). 124 125 Here, we aimed to contribute to this topic by investigating the energetic investments of females and of young and mature males during rutting activities in a population of sexually dimorphic 126 Mediterranean mouflon (Ovis gmelini musimon × Ovis sp.; Garel et al., 2007). In this capital 127 breeder (Festa-Bianchet et al., 1998), most of the energy expended for reproduction relies on stored 128 energy (Jönsson, 1997; Stearns, 1992). Variations in energy reserves, such as fat, is thus expected to 129 reflect the costs of reproduction (Doughty and Shine, 1997); hence we used it to monitor energetic 130 investment of mouflon during the rutting period (Garel et al., 2011; Riney, 1955). We predicted that 131 (H1) males should experience a much more marked decline in their fat reserves during rut than 132 females. In addition, selective hunting of the largest horned males experienced by this population 133 for several decades (Garel et al., 2007) has been related to an increasing participation of young 134 males in rutting activities (Bon et al., 1995, 1992). We thus expected (H2) young males of our 135 population to show a pattern of decline in fat reserve close to the one observed in adult males. By 136 contrast, females are much less actively involved in mating activities in polygynous ungulates due 137 to a short period of sexual receptivity. In addition, females do not stop feeding during the rut and 138 are expected to build up energy that will be used a few months later to fulfill the high-energy 139 requirements related to late gestation and lactation (Clutton-Brock et al., 1989; Knopp et al., 1973). 140 As such, we expected females to increase their fat reserve during the mating period (H3), especially 141 given the mild environmental conditions encountered in autumn—early winter in this population 142 (Cransac et al., 1997). 143 144 145 146

### 2. Material and methods

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# 2.1. Study population and area

The studied population of Mediterranean mouflon inhabited the Caroux-Espinouse massif 150 (43°38'N, 2°58'E, 17,000 ha, 150-1,124 m a.s.l.), in southern France. This area has a Mediterranean 151 climate with both oceanic and mountainous influences (Baudière, 1962), which often leads to the 152 occurrence of summer droughts and to inconstant and fast melting snowfalls during winter, so that 153 summer would be the most critical period for mouflon survival in this population (Garel et al., 154 2004). 155 Mediterranean mouflon is a dimorphic ungulate (sexual size dimorphism of 40.1%), with a mean 156 body mass (2002-2019 period) of  $24.5 \pm 4.1$  kg (> 2 years old; n = 683) and  $34.4 \pm 5.5$  kg (> 4 years 157 old; n = 222) for adult females and adult males, respectively (Bourgoin et al., 2018; sexual size 158 dimorphism of 66%; Garel et al., 2007). Sexual segregation occurs most of the year and is lowest 159 during the rutting period (from October to early January with the most intense rutting activities 160 from November to mid-December; Bon et al., 1993; Bourgoin et al., 2018). During rut, fights 161 between males are common and males roam from one group of females to another. Although we 162 163 expected interactions between males and the frequency of courtship behaviors to increase in sexually dimorphic species as males aged (Bon et al., 1995), this outcome did not occur in this 164 population, where trophy hunting has decreased the proportion of old males (average age of hunted 165 males = 10.2 years, in 1996-2002; Garel et al., 2007) and led young individuals (2.5-6.5 years old) 166 to be involved in reproductive activities at similar levels as mature individuals (Bon et al., 1995, 167 1992). 168

### 2.2.Data collection

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We collected data from 89 sexually mature mouflon (Garel et al., 2005a; 29 females (≥ 1.5 years old) and 60 males (≥ 2.5 years old); Santiago-Moreno et al., 2000) legally harvested during the 2011–2012 hunting season (September 2011–February 2012). We assessed female ages based on

the number of permanent incisors, a reliable determination criterion until the age of 3.5 years (Rieck, 1975). For males, we used counts of horn growth annuli (Geist, 1966). We used the measure of the average kidney fat mass corrected by the average kidney mass (see below, Serrano et al., 2008) to investigate the energetic expenditure of mouflon during the rut. Indeed, fat is an energy-rich tissue that is mobilized when stored energy is required; thus, it should be among the most sensitive measures of energy investment (as compared for instance to mass changes; Garel et al., 2011). More specifically, we relied on kidney fat, which is known to be a reliable proxy of total body fat (Anderson, 1981; Caughley, 1970; Riney, 1955). To do so, we collected kidneys on harvested individuals and froze them at -20°C until analysis. In the laboratory, we first removed fat at both ends of each kidney and measured the mass (± 0.01g) of the kidneys and the remaining fat around them (Riney, 1955).

# 2.3. Statistical analyses

One old male (estimated age  $\geq$  11.5) hunted mid-September was considered an outlier compared with other sampled animals because it was in poor body condition and had no fat on its kidney. Thus, we removed this male from the dataset for the subsequent analyses. Based on the remaining animals for which we measured the two kidneys, we found no difference in the fat mass and kidney mass of the left and right kidneys (paired t tests:  $t_{[81]} = -0.05$ , p = 0.964 and  $t_{[81]} = 1.75$ , p = 0.084, respectively). We thus included animals with only data on one kidney (n = 6/88; 6.8%) in our analyses. For individuals with two kidneys, we computed the mean mass and fat mass from both kidneys.

We used linear models with the log-transformed fat mass as a response variable corrected by the log-transformed kidney mass to describe the body condition of mouflon (Garel et al., 2011; Serrano et al., 2008). Such analysis is recommended compared with the use of indices (e.g., the popular kidney fat index, Riney, 1955), which are more susceptible to provide biased results when statistical assumptions, such as isometry or the absence of interaction among explaining factors (e.g., sex, age), are not met (Serrano et al., 2008). Other variables were the period (see below), sex (two

levels: females and males), or a combined age class\*sex factor (age sex; three levels: females, young males and mature males; see below for information on young versus mature males) as well as the interaction between period and sex/age sex factors. We considered the pre-rut (September-October), the rut (November-December), and the post-rut (January-February) periods (Bon et al., 1993). We pooled all females in a single age class—including only sexually mature individuals (≥ 1.5 years old; Garel et al., 2005a). It must be noted that restricting the analyses to multiparous females ( $\geq$ 3.5 years old, n = 24) by removing primiparous ones (1.5 years old, n = 5; Garel et al., 2005a) did not change our inferences. For males, full spermatogenesis (male puberty) occurred during their first year of life (Santiago-Moreno et al., 2000). However, physical maturity (asymptotic body growth being reached around 6 years old; Garel et al., 2005b; Hamel et al., 2016) would also contribute to successful mating in males (Bon et al., 1995, 1992; Lincoln, 1998) and could be related to different reproductive tactics. Dominant adult males generally tended receptive females by following them and by impeding attempts to mate of other males. By contrast, young subordinates coursed females in an attempt to breach the defense of dominant males. We accounted for these behavioral differences in rutting activities among males by considering two age classes: young (2.5-4.5 years old, n = 18) versus physically mature males ( $\geq 5.5$  years old; n = 41). We ranked models based on the Akaike Information Criterion with second-order adjustment (AICc) to correct for small sample bias (Burnham and Anderson, 2002). The models with the lowest AICc were considered to be the best models. We also computed Akaike weights (AICc weights) to compare the relative performance of models rather than only their absolute AICc value (Burnham and Anderson, 2002). Weights can be interpreted as the probability that a model is the best one given the data and the set of candidate models. For comparisons of effect sizes, we considered nonoverlapping 95% confidence intervals as statistically different and provided p-values otherwise. We performed all the statistical analyses using R 3.6.1 (R Core Team, 2020).

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### 225 3. Results

The best supported model included the interaction between sex and period but no age effect within 226 males (Table 1). This model was 6 times more supported than the second best model (AICc weights 227 = 0.857 and 0.143, respectively) that included a difference in kidney fat between young and mature 228 males. All other models had no support (sum of their AICc weights close to 0; Table 1). 229 The best model supported sex-dependent kidney fat variation from the pre-rut to the post-rut period 230 (H1 and H3 supported), and a similar level and pattern of variation of kidney fat for both young and 231 mature males (Fig. 1; H2 not supported). According to this model, the average fat mass in females 232 was lowest during the pre-rut period  $(12.4g [8.3 - 18.4]_{95\%})$  and increased by 2–3 times during the 233 234 rut  $(23.7g [14.4 - 38.8]_{95\%})$  and the post-rut periods  $(36.5g [24.6 - 54.2]_{95\%}$ ; Fig. 1). Conversely, in males, the average fat mass was maximum during the pre-rut period (42.9g [33.7 – 58.1]95%) and 235 strongly decreased during the rut  $(10.7g [8.3 - 13.8]_{95\%})$  and the post-rut periods (15.1g [11.1 -236 20.7<sub>95%</sub>). Compared with females, males had higher fat mass during the pre-rut period (3.5 times 237 higher), but lower values during the rut and post-rut periods (Fig. 1). 238 According to the second-best model, mature males would have a better condition than young ones 239 during the pre-rut period (53.5g [36.3; 79.0] $_{95\%}$  and 32.2g [20.6; 50.4] $_{95\%}$ , respectively; p = 0.083; 240 Appendix 1), while both categories would have a similar condition during the rut (10.8g [7.9; 241  $14.8_{95\%}$  and 10.4g [6.7;  $16.2_{95\%}$ , respectively; p = 0.889; during post-rut only two young males 242 243 were measured preventing us from statistical comparison). Therefore, this model would support a higher decrease of fat mass between the pre-rut and rut periods in mature rather than in young 244 males, respectively. 245

#### 4. Discussion

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In agreement with our expectations (H1 and H3), the rutting period appeared to not be energetically demanding for females compared with males, for which fat mass markedly drops during that period, supporting the high energetic investment of males in rutting activities in this highly dimorphic species. We also observed a similar pattern of fat mass changes in young and mature males, results

that also reveal a marked energetic investment of young males in rutting activities (in support of H2) in this population facing selective harvesting of their old males (Garel et al., 2007). In most mammals, females build up energy as fat during the first two thirds of gestation and then use this stored energy to support the high energetic costs associated with late gestation and lactation (Clutton-Brock et al., 1989; Knopp et al., 1973). Consistently, we found mouflon females increased their fat mass during the rutting period. We also recorded a higher fat mass in males compared with females before the rut, as previously observed with body mass or kidney fat in other ungulate species (e.g., Himalayan tahr Hemitragus jemlahicus: Forsyth et al., 2005; Cantabrian chamois Rupicapra pyrenaica parva: Pérez-Barbería et al., 1998; chamois Rupicapra rupicapra: Rughetti and Festa-Bianchet, 2011). While females experience their highest energetic costs from the end of winter to summer (late gestation: March; lambing period: April-May; Bon et al., 1993), males—and especially mature males who do not invest energy in body growth, in contrast to young males have lower energetic expenditures than females during those periods and are not constrained to trade-off between habitats offering the best food/cover conditions with the ones maximizing lamb survival, as do females (Marchand et al., 2015, 2014). In addition, the summer droughts that often occur in our study area, with observed consequences on behavior, body condition, and survival of mouflon (Bourgoin et al., 2011; Garel et al., 2004; Marchand et al., 2014), may not allow females to build up fat during summer, despite the fact that energetic costs of lactation decrease during this period. Accordingly, and as exemplified by our results, mature males can devote all their time to fully replenishing their fat reserves before entering the mating season (Appendix 1) compared with females, for which building an energy store was postponed during the rutting period. In addition, based on the observed increase of fat mass in female mouflon during the study period, we can assume that autumn-winter was not a limiting season for females in the Caroux-Espinouse (see also Garel et al., 2005a for demographic parameters). During the rut, males experienced a marked decrease in their body condition (our results and e.g., Forsyth et al., 2005; Holand et al., 2006; Monteith et al., 2020; Rughetti and Festa-Bianchet, 2011).

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These results support the hypothesis of a substantial cost of male reproduction in sexually 277 dimorphic capital breeders that mostly rely on body energetic reserves. These costs result from the 278 direct energy expenditure associated with rutting behaviors and from the reduced involvement in 279 feeding activities (Bon et al., 1995; Brivio et al., 2010; Clutton-Brock et al., 1982; Monteith et al., 280 2020). Thus, costs may be higher than acquired energy and lead to a negative energetic balance and 281 to the metabolism of their fat reserves during this period. The tendency for mature males to have a 282 better condition compared with young ones before participating in rutting activities (second best 283 model; Appendix 1) may originate from a trade-off in the latter between accumulating body fat 284 while still being in a period of intensive body growth (Hamel et al., 2016). 285 While reproductive investment in ungulate males increases with age (Clutton-Brock, 1984; Clutton-286 Brock et al., 1982; Garel et al., 2011; Mysterud et al., 2004), we observed comparable energetic investments in both young and mature males. A high energetic investment of young males during 288 rut has been previously observed in populations of wild ungulates experiencing trophy hunting, 289 with large-horned or large antlered males being selectively targeted. In such populations, the biased 290 291 hunting pressure against mature, old males may lead to a female-biased adult sex ratio and a higher 292 proportion of young males compared with non-hunted populations. Where there is a lack of mature males, young ones may then invest more energy in rutting activities and less so on body growth, 293 with potential short- and long-term consequences on their body mass, size, and survival (Bon et al., 294 1992; Garel et al., 2006; Mysterud, 2014; Singer and Zeigenfuss, 2002). The studied population of 295 mouflon faced trophy hunting, which decreased the proportion of mature males (average age of 296 hunted males = 10.2 years, in 1996-2002; Garel et al., 2007), offering opportunities for young 297 individuals to be more involved in reproductive activities at similar levels to mature individuals 298 299 (Bon et al., 1995, 1992). Such hunting pressure might have contributed to the high energetic investment of young males during the rut. However, further studies based on experimental design 300 (e.g. Monteith et al. 2020) or on larger sample sizes comparing populations of mouflon facing high 301 302 selective hunting pressures with non-hunted populations (acting as a control) would help to

definitively support this hypothesis. The observed marked energetic investment of young males during the rut, while consistent with other knowledge on the influence of selective harvesting in this population (on horns size and shape; Garel et al., 2007), questioned the long-term consequences both in terms of survival and other fitness-related components (Festa-Bianchet et al., 2003; Forsyth et al., 2005; Garel et al., 2009; Singer and Zeigenfuss, 2002; Stringham and Bubenik, 1975). This result also supports the need for more empirical and comparative studies to better investigate the potential side effects of selective hunting on the rutting ecology of male ungulates (Milner et al., 2007).

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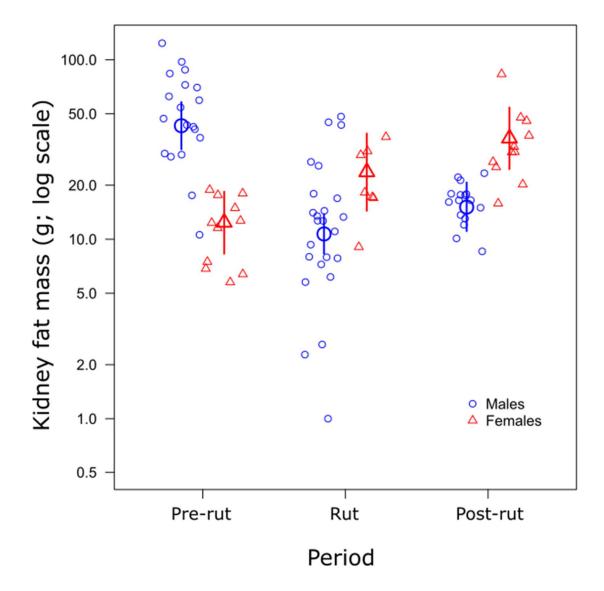
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**Table 1:** Selection of linear models based on corrected Akaike's Information Criterion (AICc) for testing the effects of the sex (females, males) or age\_sex (females, young males, mature males) factors and of the period (pre-rut, rut, post-rut) on the fat mass of kidneys (log-transformed) from mouflon harvested in the Caroux-Espinouse massif, France, period 2011-2012. All models included the log-transformed kidney mass as a covariate (Serrano et al., 2008).

Model	AICc	ΔAICc	AICc
			weights
sex + period + sex * period	177.9	0.0	0.857
age_sex + period + age_sex * period	181.4	3.5	0.143
period	212.5	34.6	0.000
sex + period	214.4	36.5	0.000
age_sex + period	216.6	38.7	0.000
null	222.5	44.6	0.000
sex	222.9	45.0	0.000
age_sex	225.1	47.2	0.000

## 493 Figures

**Fig. 1.** Predicted values with 95% confidence intervals of mean kidney fat mass, and observed data, for female and male mouflon from the Caroux-Espinouse massif (southern France), for each period of 2 months during the September 2011 – February 2012 period, based on the selected model.



# Appendix 1

**Figure 1:** Predicted values with 95% confidence intervals of mean kidney fat mass, and observed data, for mature and young male and female mouflon from the Caroux-Espinouse massif (southern France), for each period of 2 months during the September 2011 – February 2012 period, based on the second best model.



