1 Metabolic rate and foraging behaviour: A mechanistic link across body size and temperature

2 gradients

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13 Abstract

14 The mechanistic link between metabolic rate and foraging behaviour is a crucial aspect of several energy-15 based ecological theories. Despite its importance to ecology however, it remains unclear whether and how 16 energy requirements and behavioural patterns are mechanistically connected. Here we aimed to assess 17 how modes of behaviour, in terms of cumulative space use, patch selection and time spent in an 18 experimental resource patchy environment, are influenced by the foragers' metabolic rate (SMR) and its 19 main determinants i.e. body mass and temperature. We tested the individual behavioural patterns and 20 metabolic rates of a model organism, the amphipod Gammarus insensibilis, across a range of body 21 masses and temperatures. We demonstrated that body mass and temperature exert a major influence on 22 foraging decisions and space use behaviour via their effects on metabolic rates. Individual cumulative 23 space use was found to scale allometrically with body mass and exponentially with temperature, with 24 patch giving-up time falling as body mass and temperature increased. Moreover, SMR had greater 25 predictive power for behavioural patterns, explaining variation beyond that accounted for by body mass 26 and temperature combined. Our results showed that cumulative space use scaled positively with Mass-27 and-Temperature-independent SMR (residual). Furthermore, the foraging decisions regarding patch 28 choice and partitioning were strongly related to M-T independent SMR; individuals with higher M-T

29	independent SMR initially preferred the most profitable patch and, as time progressed, abandoned the
30	patch earlier compared to others. Our findings regarding the mechanistic relationship between
31	behavioural patterns and metabolic rate across body mass and temperature shed light on higher-order
32	energy-based ecological processes, with implications in the face of climate change.
33	
34	Keywords: Behavioral ecology, Body mass, Climate change, Metabolic rate, Optimal foraging,
35	Physiological ecology, Space use, Temperature
36	
37	Introduction
38	Individuals differ considerably in their patterns of resource use in a heterogenous environment (Auer et al.
39	2020a), which has crucial evolutionary and ecological implications as it influences individual life history
40	and space use, as well as population dynamics and community structure (Basset 1995, Auer et al. 2020b,
41	Laskowski et al. 2022). Despite its importance to the higher-order ecological phenomena, the mechanisms
42	underpinning individual behavioural variability remain the subject of active research debate.
43	At the fundamental level, foraging behaviour aims to fulfil organisms' energy requirements (MacArthur
44	and Pianka 1966). It is thus intuitively reasonable that metabolic rate, i.e. the baseline energy
45	requirements of an organism (Brown et al. 2004), might be linked to foraging behaviour and resource
46	acquisition strategies. Metabolic rate increases allometrically with organism body mass (Brown et al.
47	2004), and motile foragers need to adjust their space and resource use to fulfil their mass-dependent needs
48	(Brose, 2010; Petchey et al., 2008). For example, larger foragers generally need larger home ranges and
49	exploit a resource patch only if and for as long as it allows high ingestion rates (Basset, 1995; Charnov,
50	1976; Holling, 1959; McNab, 1963). In addition to individual body mass, as temperature increases, the
51	higher kinetic energy of biochemical reactions speeds up the rate of metabolic processes (Gillooly et al.
52	2001), affecting the behavioural patterns of individual organisms (Abram et al. 2017). It follows that
53	animals might adjust their foraging strategies in accordance with their energy requirements in response to
54	body mass, ambient temperature or both (Dell et al., 2011; Petchey et al., 2008). Several studies have

55 investigated the link between individual energy requirements and foraging behaviour, often focusing on 56 one of the main determinants of metabolic rate, e.g. individual body mass (Brose, 2010; Cozzoli et al., 57 2019, 2022; Petchev et al., 2008) or, more recently, temperature (Abram et al. 2017, Cloved et al. 2019, 58 Jermacz et al. 2020). However, despite the key importance of body size and temperature per se in 59 predicting behavioural patterns (Brose 2010, Cozzoli et al. 2022), they are not sufficient to crystalize the 60 mechanism behind them (Brandl et al. 2022). The complexity of resource-consumer interactions often 61 hinders the predictive power of mass and temperature-based models (Dell et al. 2014b). For instance, 62 individuals may react to increased energy requirements by increasing foraging efforts and nutrient 63 intake/ingestion (Réveillon et al. 2022) or, conversely, by limiting their movements (Warne et al. 2019). 64 This is because animals are generally characterized by a set of biological rates that respond differently 65 depending on the conditions (Barrios-O'Neill et al., 2019; Glazier, 2015). Alternative energy management 66 hypotheses have been developed to explain the interdependence between metabolic rate and behavioural 67 patterns. The performance model predicts that metabolic rate and activity will correlate positively because 68 metabolic rate reflects activity (Biro and Stamps 2010). However, (Careau and Garland 2012) suggested 69 that there is not always a positive correlation between metabolic rate and behavioural patterns. The 70 allocation model assumes a negative relationship between metabolic rate and behavioural patterns, as a 71 higher metabolic rate results in less energy available to spend on active behaviours such as locomotion 72 and space exploration (Careau et al. 2008). The independent model sees individual behavioural activity 73 and metabolic rate as independent (Careau and Garland 2012). 74 No consensus has emerged because metabolic syndromes cannot be completely understood without 75 considering the effects of subsidiary environmental factors (Killen et al. 2013) and because behavioural 76 studies have applied sharply differing methods, hampering comparative analysis (Montiglio et al. 2018). 77 Additionally, investigating behavioural patterns in landscapes with homogenously distributed resources 78 (or no resources at all) may mask the individual behavioural decisions related to energy requirements

79 (Spiegel et al. 2017, Cloyed and Dell 2019). Here we aimed to investigate the interdependency across size

80 and temperature gradients between metabolic rates and modes of behaviour (in terms of cumulative space

81 use, patch choice and time spent) in a resource-patchy environment. Given the temperature-dependence of 82 ectotherm metabolic rates, the incorporation of temperature into behavioural patterns via a metabolic 83 framework can be expected to shed light on the responses to ongoing climate change of consumer-84 resource and predator-prey interactions. 85 To reduce the influence of confounding environmental factors, we performed controlled microcosm 86 experiments using the aquatic amphipod Gammarus insensibilis as a model organism across a wide range 87 of body masses and temperature regimes. Individual behavioural patterns were remotely quantified by 88 using advanced automated image-based tracking (Dell et al. 2014a), and the standard metabolic rate of the 89 specimens was accurately measured with an open-flow respirometry system (Glazier & Sparks, 1997). 90 The factorial design allowed us to disentangle the link between standard metabolic rate (SMR) and the 91 descriptors of time and space use behaviour across body mass (M) and temperature (T) gradients. To our 92 knowledge, this is one of the first studies (see also (Réveillon et al. 2022) of multi-trait resource and space 93 use behaviour accounting for factorial interactions among M, T and SMR under highly controlled 94 microcosm conditions.

95 Materials and methods

96 - Experimental design

97 The experiment made use of a full factorial design to assess the co-variation of individual foraging 98 behaviour with SMR in an aquatic ectotherm model organism, i.e. Gammarus insensibilis, across a range 99 of body masses and temperatures. The temperatures were selected to match the seasonal range 100 experienced by G. insensibilis in its local environment. The water temperature of the collection site was 101 monitored weekly from 2015 to 2019, and the assessment temperatures were *i*. the average winter 102 temperature (13°C), *ii.* the average annual temperature (18°C) and *iii.* the average summer temperature 103 $(25^{\circ}C)$. At each temperature level, we tested model organism specimens in a range of body sizes 104 corresponding to the species' size range in nature. The individual behaviour of G. insensibilis was 105 assessed using automated video tracking while foraging alone in a heterogeneous environment under 106 controlled microcosm conditions. The experimental microcosm (maze) was made up of six interconnected

107	patches, two of which contained differing amounts of resources, i.e. a rich patch (1 g) and a poor patch
108	(0.5 g), and four were empty, thus creating a heterogenous environment. After assessing foraging
109	behaviour, individual SMR was measured using an open-flow respirometer system.
110	- Model organism
111	Gammarus insensibilis (Stock 1966) is a widespread Atlantic-Mediterranean amphipod species living in
112	coastal and transitional waters, reaching maturity at 0.4 cm and growing to a maximum length of \sim 2 cm
113	(Costello et al. 2001). Gammarus species are selective foragers, feeding preferentially on fungi with high
114	protein content colonizing decomposed leaf litter (Bärlocher and Kendrick 1973). While foraging they
115	scroll the surface of the leaves seeking valuable resources, and when high-quality resources are not
116	available, they consume resources with a lower value (Cozzoli et al. 2022). Daily consumption rates are
117	from 46% to 103% of their body mass, depending on the type of exploited resource (Berezina 2007).
118	Additionally, when resources are abundant, they have a gut throughput time of 45-59 minutes at 14°C
119	(Welton et al. 1983). For the purposes of this study, the amphipod G. insensibilis is an ideal model
120	organism due to the ease of manipulation in the laboratory and the recent development of experimental
121	protocols (Shokri et al. 2021).
122	- Specimen collection and acclimation
123	Specimens of G. insensibilis were collected from the Cesine nature reserve, a transitional water body in
124	Italy, at the southern end of the Adriatic Sea (40.3624 N, 18.3325 E). Authorization for specimen

125 collection was issued by the competent authority (WWF, World Wildlife Fund for Nature, Italy). After

126

127 with water from the sampling sites and aerated during transport. The specimens were maintained in the

collection, the specimens were transferred alive to the laboratory in thermo-insulated containers filled

128 laboratory aquaria at a salinity of 7 g l⁻¹, similar to that of the sampling site, and acclimated to each of the

129 assessment temperatures for two weeks in order to reduce the risk of temperature shock that might affect

130 individual metabolic rates (Semsar-kazerouni and Verberk 2018). Acclimation to the low and high

131 temperatures with respect to that of the sampling site at the moment of collection was achieved gradually

132 at a rate of ± 1.5 °C day⁻¹ in aquaria under controlled climatic conditions (KW apparecchi scientifici, WR

UR). Prior to the experiment, specimens were sorted by sex under a Nikon stereoscope (SMZ1270). Only
adult males were selected for behavioural assessment, since oocyte production in females may induce
non-size-related variability in energy requirements and behaviour, and to reduce potential variation due to
different ontogenic stages (Glazier et al., 2011). *Trophic resource preparation*

138 Leaves of *Phragmites australis* (Cav.) Trin. ex Steud were collected at the specimen collection site, cut 139 into approximately 10 cm lengths, oven dried at 60 °C for 72 hrs, weighed into separate portions (1 g for 140 the Rich patch and 0.5 g for the Poor patch) and placed in 5 mm mesh plastic bags. The amount of 141 resource in each patch (1 g, 0.5 g and 0 g) was considered to be sufficiently different for animals to 142 distinguish between them (Cozzoli et al. 2022). The leaves were then leached and conditioned for two 143 weeks in running environmental water at 18°C. The nutritional quality of the leaves is known to increase 144 during conditioning because of microbial colonization and the assimilation of nutrients from the water 145 (Boling et al. 1975).

146 - Foraging behaviour setup and measurements

147 The experimental system consisted of a microcosm (maze) made of transparent Plexiglas installed in an 148 isolated and temperature-controlled room (KW apparecchi scientifici, WR UR). The microcosm was 149 composed of six circular patches [13 cm in diameter, 3 cm high], connected by a network of channels [2.5 150 cm wide, 3 cm high] (Fig. 1b). The microcosm (maze) was placed on top of a near infrared backlight 151 source in order to achieve high contrast, which facilitated specimen detection. Three infrared-sensitive 152 cameras (Basler, aca1300-60gm) were mounted above the microcosm to film individual movement and 153 patch use. The temperature treatments were evenly spaced throughout the experimental period to 154 minimize possible varying acclimation effects. 155 Prior to the behaviour assessment, each of the analysed specimens was kept unfed for 24 hrs in the

156 climate-controlled room at the assessment temperature. This served to standardize specimens' resource

157 requirements at the start of experimental trials. For each experimental trial, 1 g dry weight of conditioned

158 leaf fragments was placed in one patch and 0.5 g dry weight of conditioned leaf fragments was placed in

159 another patch, thereby simulating a heterogenous resource distribution with two resource patches, "Rich" 160 and "Poor", while the other four patches were "Empty". The distribution of the resource patches was 161 randomized for each experimental trial to prevent any effect of microcosm geometry. The resource 162 patches were placed in the microcosm 30 min before starting the experiment. Each experimental trial was 163 performed on a single specimen foraging alone in the microcosm. The experimental trials were always 164 conducted at the same time of day (09:00 to 15:00) to prevent any effect of the model organism's 165 circadian rhythms. Recordings were initiated 10 min after the specimen was released into the microcosm 166 and lasted for 6 hrs. The video files were then processed by Ethovision XT 14 in batch acquisition mode, 167 with the specimens identified by the software as moving elements with respect to the static background. A 168 patch was considered to have been "visited" once the specimen had travelled the full length of a channel, 169 entered a neighbouring patch and stayed there for at least 30 seconds.

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- SMR and body mass measurements

171 After the behavioural measurement, the specimens' Standard Metabolic Rate (SMR, J day⁻¹) was 172 measured. Although the sequential arrangement of metabolic measurements following behavioural 173 observations might hold the potential to introduce a degree of uncertainty, specimens were kept unfed 174 individually for 24 hrs before the SMR measurements. This step was taken to standardize the conditions, 175 minimize residual effects from the behaviour experiment, and also ensure the specimens were in post 176 absorptive state, as 24 hrs is sufficient to complete digestion in *Gammarus* sp. (Welton et al. 1983). 177 Following (Glazier & Sparks, 1997), individual Standard Metabolic Rate (SMR, J day⁻¹) was determined 178 by measuring the oxygen consumption. Animals were placed individually in Strathkelvin open-flow 179 system respirometers where the oxygen concentration was continuously measured by Clark-type 180 microelectrodes connected to an oximeter and recorded using the Strathkelvin software (SI, 929). A 0.3 181 mm nylon mesh with a nominal outer diameter of 12.07 mm was placed in each respirometer chamber in 182 order to minimize the individual's spontaneous movement. After metabolic measurement, the animals 183 were dried individually in an oven at 60 °C for 72 hrs and then weighed on a micro balance (Sartorius 184 MC5) to the nearest ± 0.001 mg.

185 - Data analysis

The scaling of individual standard metabolic rate (SMR, j day⁻¹) with individual body mass (M, mg) and temperature (T) was assessed via multiple linear regression. The response variable individual SMR and the explanatory variable M were log-transformed in order to fit the size-scaling relationship as a power law (Brown et al. 2004), and the temperature was inverse transformed to linearize its effect (Brown et al., 2004; Gillooly et al., 2001):

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$$\log(SMR) \sim \log(M) \times (-T_A)$$
 (Eq. 1)

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$$T_A = \left(\frac{1}{k_B T_e} - \frac{1}{k_B T_0}\right)$$
 (Eq. 2)

193 T_A is a standardised inverse temperature, k_B is the Boltzman constant (8.618×10⁻⁵ ev/k), T_e is the 194 assessment temperature, and T_0 sets the intercept of the relationship at 286.15 K, corresponding to the 195 lowest temperature level (i.e.,13 °C in this study). Standardising the inverse temperature at T_0 , simplified 196 the interpretation of the main effect coefficients in the presence of interactions. The multiple linear 197 regression was fitted with full interaction between explanatory variables.

198 We analysed the specimens' behavioural patterns in the experimental microcosm with reference to three 199 descriptors of space and time use behaviour. (1) cumulative space used, approximated as the total number 200 of patches visited or revisited during the experiment. For the temporal trends in patch use throughout the 201 experimental time (i.e. 360 min), we quantified (2) the proportion of specimen's time spent in patches 202 with resources (rich and poor) within each 5-min time interval, and (3) the proportion of time spent in the 203 Rich patch relative to the time spent in patches with resources within each 5-min time interval. Descriptor 204 (2) describes the temporal trends of the specimens' time spent in resource patches compared to empty 205 patches, and descriptor (3) reflects how the specimens allocated their time between resource-rich and 206 resource-poor patches. A higher value indicates more time spent in the Rich patch, whereas a lower value 207 shows more time spent in the Poor patch by the specimens.

208 Individual variation in the behavioural descriptors was analysed across individual body mass (M), 209 temperature (T), and M and T independent SMR (residual SMR) gradients. We estimated the SMR 210 residuals, the components of a metabolic phenotype that is independent of mass and temperature, using 211 Eq. 1. This is hereafter referred to as M-T independent SMRs. We used this approach to examine whether 212 SMR affects behavioural patterns beyond the combined effects of size and temperature. 213 The variation in descriptor (1) (i.e. the cumulative number of patches visited during the experiment (N)) 214 was investigated by linear regression along the M, T, and the M-and T-independent SMR gradient. Both 215 the response variable N and the explanatory variable M were log-transformed. As with the previous 216 analysis (Eq. 1), the explanatory variable temperature was inverse transformed. The multiple linear 217 regression was fitted with full interaction between explanatory variables. 218 For both descriptors of the temporal trend in patch use (2 and 3) we conducted binomial Generalized 219 Linear Mixed Models (GLMMs) with a logit link. For descriptor (3) the model accounted for trial 220 binomial data, wherein each observation represents the number of successes out of a given number of 221 trials (Douma & Weedon, 2019). This was chosen to handle the varying denominators associated with the 222 proportions of time spent in the Rich patch relative to patches with resources. For both of temporal trends 223 in patch use descriptors, the models were defined as a function of the continuous explanatory variables M, 224 T, and M-T independent SMR along with the experimental time. The explanatory variable forager body 225 mass was log-transformed in order to model size dependency as a power law and the temperature was 226 inverse transformed. In our models assessing temporal trends in patch use, to account for the non-227 independence of observations repeated over time on the same individual, we initially fit the models with 228 both random intercepts and slopes at the individual level. However, the variance attributed to the random 229 slope for time was negligible ($\tau 11$ in all models was <0.0001). Given the minimal contribution of the 230 random slope and to avoid potential model overcomplication, we allowed random variation in the 231 intercepts at the individual level.

232	The relative importance of mass, temperature, and M- and T-independent SMR in explaining the variance
233	of the response variable was assessed by the LMG metric (R ² partitioned by averaging over orders
234	(Lindeman et al. 1980)). The uncertainty of model estimates was reported as the 95% Confidence Interval
235	[lower-upper]. All analyses were performed within the 'R' free software environment (R Core Team
236	2019) using the lme4 (Bates et al. 2015), relaimpo (Groemping 2006), partR2 (Stoffel et al. 2021) and
237	sjPlot (Lüdecke 2018) packages.
238	Results
239	- Specimen characterization
240	The 75 male specimens of G. insensibilis used in this experiment ranged from 4.73 to 19.86 mm in body
241	length (on average 11.55 mm [\pm 4.04 SD]) and from 0.98 to 14.85 mg dry weight in body mass (on
242	average 6.59 mg [\pm 4.46 SD]). The body mass distribution of the analysed specimens was similar across
243	the three temperature treatments (ANOVA; $F_{2,72} = 0.07$, $p = 0.93$).
244	- Size scaling SMRs across temperatures
245	Overall, specimens' individual Standard Metabolic Rates (SMR) ranged from 0.40 to 8.39 J day ⁻¹ (on
246	average 3.15 J day ⁻¹ [\pm 1.81 SD]) and increased with temperature, with an average of 2.09 J day ⁻¹ [\pm 1.19
247	SD] at 13 °C, 2.79 J day ⁻¹ [\pm 1.28 SD] at 18 °C and 4.57 J day ⁻¹ [\pm 1.90 SD] at 25 °C. 76.1 % of the
248	variation in individual SMRs was explained by the positive dependency on M (48% of explained
249	variance, scaling exponent 0.62 [0.50 – 0.74 95% CI]) and T (28.1% of explained variance, scaling
250	exponent 0.69 [0.48 - 0.91 95% CI]) (Table 1, Fig. 1). An additional 2.9% of the observed variance in
251	SMR was explained by the marginal negative interaction between M and T (Table 1, Fig. 1), implying
252	that the rate of increase of SMR with temperature decreased slightly as body mass increased.
253	- Space use
254	49.7% of the observed variation in foragers' cumulative space use was explained by its positive allometric
255	scaling with M (21.9 % of explained variance, scaling exponent 0.47 [0.27 – 0.67 95% CI], Table 2, Fig.

256 2a), the positive exponential relationship with T (27.8% of explained variance, exponent 0.72 [0.36 - 1.08]

95% CI], Table 2, Fig. 2a). The interaction of M and T was not significant (Table 2). Additionally,
cumulative space use scaled positively with the foragers' M-T independent SMR, with a scaling exponent
of 0.84 [0.44 – 1.24 95% CI] (Table 2, Fig. 2b). This explained an additional 10.1% of the variation in

260 cumulative space use, beyond what was accounted for by body mass and temperature combined (Table 2,

Fig. 2b). The significant relationship between cumulative space use and M-T independent SMR, along

with its explained variation, indicates that SMR, when considered as a single descriptor in its entirety,

263 explains a greater amount of variance than that explained by body mass and temperature combined.

264 - Temporal trends in patch use

265 At the beginning of the experiment, the specimens displayed a marked preference for the Rich patch, 266 spending most of their time there, while the Poor and Empty patches were largely ignored (Table 3, 4, 267 Fig. 3). The initial preference for Rich patch was pronounced at increased temperature (Table 4, Fig 3c), 268 and was also observed among specimens with a higher M-and T-independent SMR (Table 4, Fig. 3d). 269 As the experimental time progressed, the time spent in the Rich patch decreased significantly, while it 270 increased in the Poor patch (Table 3, Fig. 3c, d). The shift from time spent in the Rich patch to time spent 271 in the Poor patch occurred earlier as body mass and temperature increased (Table 4, Fig. 3c). Moreover, 272 this shift from the Rich towards the Poor patch occurred earlier in individuals with higher M-and T-273 independent SMR (Table 4, Fig. 3d). This implies that individuals with higher-than-average metabolic 274 rates for their size and the given temperature, those having higher M-and T-independent SMR, were more 275 prone to change their residency from Rich to Poor patch as experimental time continued. 276 Towards the end of the experimental time, the percentage of time spent by specimens with larger body 277 mass and by all specimens at the higher temperature decreased in patches with resources (Table 3, Fig. 278 3a). Similarly, specimens with higher M-T independent SMR exhibited a decrease in patches with 279 resources towards the end of the experimental time, corresponding to an increase in time spent in Empty 280 patches (Table 3, Fig. 3b).

281 The fixed effects including M, T, and M-T independent SMR, explained a significant and comparable 282 amount of variation in patch use behaviour (Table 3, 4). They collectively explained 24.1% of the 283 variance in the proportion of time spent in patches with resources and 30.3% in the proportion of time 284 spent in Rich patches relative to resource patches (Table 3, 4). Furthermore, the estimated random 285 variation across specimens was 18.1%, for the proportion of time spent in patches with resources and 286 19.8% for the proportion of time spent in Rich patches relative to resource patches, highlighting the 287 substantial individuality in patch use behaviour (Table 3, 4). 288 Discussion 289 Overall, we observed that foragers modulate their resource and space use behaviour in response to 290 variations in body mass, temperature and M-and T-independent SMR, highlighting the role of Standard 291 Metabolic Rate (SMR) in its entirety as the key predictor of foraging patterns. This is likely because SMR 292 (i) is mechanistically related to the individual's energy balance and resource needs, rather than being a 293 proxy of it, (ii) encompasses mass and temperature variations, (iii) is able to capture variations in energy 294 needs beyond size and temperature, linked for example to life style and phenotype (Killen et al. 2010), 295 and (iv) is intimately intertwined with informational control such as hormones (see Glazier, 2015). 296 Size scaling SMRs across temperatures 297 In accordance with MTE expectations (sensu Brown et al., 2004), we observed that individual SMR 298 increased allometrically with body mass and exponentially with temperature. However, the mass scaling 299 exponents of SMR marginally decreased as temperature rose, implying that temperature-induced 300 increases in metabolic rate are less pronounced in large-sized individuals than smaller ones. The latter 301 observation accords with the Metabolic-Level Boundaries hypothesis (sensu Glazier, 2005; Glazier, 2020;

302 Glazier, 2014) and with empirical evidence e.g. (Hoefnagel and Verberk 2015, Shokri et al. 2022) that the

303 effect of temperature on metabolic rate is body mass-dependent.

304 - *Space use*

Individual cumulative space use was found to scale allometrically with body mass, implying that larger
 individuals used more space than smaller ones. This is consistent with the classical framework of (McNab

307 1963) and with empirical studies e.g. (Minns 1995, Cozzoli et al. 2022, Udyawer et al. 2022). On the 308 other hand, we observed that individuals increased their space and resource use as a function of increasing 309 temperature (within thermal tolerance), likely via kinetic effects (sensu Abram et al., 2017). Furthermore, 310 we observed a marginal negative interaction between body mass and temperature in relation to SMR, but 311 this was not reflected in the cumulative space use behaviour of the specimens. This discrepancy may 312 indicate an adaptive behavioural response to warming. In response to temperature rise, organisms, 313 especially the larger ones, face depletion of somatic energy resources from increased metabolic 314 maintenance costs (see Glazier, 2015). As a result, they likely explored a greater cumulative space to 315 access new resources and intensified their foraging effort to fulfill these demands. 316 We observed that individuals with a high SMR, after accounting for body mass and temperature, 317 cumulatively explored a larger proportion of the space. This implies that individuals with higher M-and 318 T-independent metabolic rates are able to collect, process and invest more energy and explore a greater 319 space and resource in order to meet their requirements (since more energy would be needed to maintain 320 this level of metabolism (see also Metcalfe et al., 1995)). The observed positive correlation between SMR 321 and cumulative space use supports and extends the prediction from the performance model (sensu Biro & 322 Stamps, 2010), demonstrating that higher metabolic rates require a larger area to explore for resource 323 gathering in a patchy distributed environment. 324 Temporal trends in patch use

Specimens at increased temperatures, as well as those with higher M-and T-independent SMR (beyond those dictated by body mass and temperature), exhibited a marked preference, spending more time in the Rich patch during the early hours of the experiment. This is likely because a more profitable patch offers a higher energy gain per unit of time, enabling foragers to achieve their optimal ingestion rate in a heterogeneous environment (MacArthur & Pianka, 1966; Stephens & Krebs, 1986). As the experimental time progressed, we observed that the time spent in the Rich patch decreased. This trend was sharper for larger foragers, at increase of temperature, and those with higher M-and T-independent SMRs. The

332 specimens that left the resource-rich patch were observed to move and spend time in the Poor patch. Our 333 observations on patch use align with the theoretical frameworks (MacArthur and Pianka 1966, Charnov 334 1976) and extend these concepts by empirically demonstrating that foraging decisions are intimately 335 linked to an individual's metabolic rate. This connection provides a mechanistic understanding of how 336 metabolic processes influence the resource acquisition strategies, adding a new dimension to our 337 understanding of foraging behaviour. The findings on these temporal trends of patch selection and use 338 may potentially be explained by the combined effect of three mechanisms: (i) A higher SMR requires 339 higher ingestion rates (Rosenfeld et al. 2015); foragers with higher SMRs thus deplete the resource patch 340 more rapidly, resulting in shorter giving-up times than foragers with lower SMRs. (ii) Foragers with 341 higher SMRs leave the patch when the amount of resource reaches a level (the marginal value (Charnov 342 1976)) that can no longer fulfil their energy requirement rapidly enough, even though it would still be 343 economically viable for foragers with lower SMRs. This suggests that foragers with high metabolic rates 344 are less able to exploit patches until reaching a low level of resource (or patches that are resource-poor to 345 begin with), leading to a higher giving-up density than individuals with lower SMRs (see Cozzoli et al., 346 2018; Kotler et al., 1993; Kotler & Brown, 1990). (iii) Individuals' resource specialization increases with 347 energy requirement (e.g., intrinsically or with warming), because resources with higher energy content 348 provide more energy per unit of processing time (Schoener 1974, Petchey et al. 2010). It follows that 349 foragers with high SMRs exploiting a resource patch should also perceive a faster decrease in the 350 available resource. Based solely on body mass, larger individuals are thought to be more selective of 351 resources, as they have a higher total energy requirement per unit of time than smaller ones (Cozzoli et al. 352 2022). However, as temperature increased, speeding up metabolic rates, we found that individuals with a 353 smaller body mass began to be more selective and perceive resource shortages in a similar way to larger 354 ones at lower temperatures. This finding highlights the synergistic effects of body mass and temperature 355 on resource specialization and perception via metabolic pathways. Moreover, while this observation 356 supports the size dependency of foragers' perception of available resources (sensu Basset et al., 2012; 357 Basset & De Angelis, 2007), it extends this framework from body size to metabolic dependence.

In light of our findings and the urgent concerns over the effects of climate change, further studies of

References

359	species and populations across latitudes under various climate change scenarios are needed. This would					
360	further our knowledge of these mechanisms and the adaptive behavioural responses to global warming.					
361	- Ecological implications in the face of climate change					
362	The mechanistic link between metabolic rates and resource and space use behaviour raises the prospect of					
363	understanding higher-order ecological processes, e.g. consumer-resource interaction, in the context of					
364	climate change. Under global warming scenarios, the equilibrium resource density is expected to decrease					
365	due to the temperature-driven rise in consumer metabolic and feeding rates being greater than any					
366	corresponding rise in resource growth and turnover rates (Bruno et al. 2015). This is expected to lead to					
367	stronger intraspecific competition among foragers owing to declining resource density, as well as					
368	increased top-down control in the food web (Lindmark et al. 2018). As a result of lower resource					
369	availability and increasing energy requirements with warming, animals are expected to range farther					
370	afield, leading to larger home ranges and niche overlap (Börger et al. 2008). This can expose animals to					
371	greater predation risk (Biro et al. 2009, Metcalfe et al. 2016, Balaban-Feld et al. 2022) and lead to stunted					
372	growth over time (Huey and Kingsolver 2019, Lackey and Whiteman 2022), as the organism may not be					
373	able to replace the energy it expends, because ingestion increases at a slower rate than metabolic rate as					
374	temperature rises (Basset et al. 2012, Réveillon et al. 2022).					
375	In summary, this study offers insights that contribute to bridging metabolic and foraging theories. It					
376	showed that warming may have a profound influence on space/resource use and foraging decisions of					
377	individuals of different sizes, which have far-reaching consequences for higher-order ecological					
378	processes. Our results further highlighted the role of metabolic rate as the key predictor of behavioural					
379	patterns which encompasses variations that extend beyond those attributed to body mass, temperature, or					
380	their combination.					

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559 Tables

- 560 Table 1. Output of the linear regression model of the variation in standard metabolic rate (SMR, J day⁻¹)
- 561 across body mass (M) and temperature (T) gradients.

		log (SMR)			
Predictors	Estimates	CI	t value	р	df
(Intercept)	-0.40	-0.610.19	-3.81	< 0.001	71
log (M)	0.62	0.50 - 0.74	10.33	< 0.001	71
Т	0.69	0.48 - 0.91	6.45	< 0.001	71
$\log(M) \times T$	-0.12	-0.240.00	-2.03	0.046	71

Observations

R2 / R2 adjusted 0.791 / 0.782

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562

- 564 Table 2. (a) Output of the linear regression between the total number of visits to all patches, i.e.
- 565 cumulative space use, with respect to individual body mass (M), temperature (T) and M-T independent
- 566 SMR (residual).

	log (total visits)				
Predictors	Estimates	CI	t value	р	df
(Intercept)	3.16	2.81 - 3.52	17.75	< 0.001	70
log (M)	0.47	0.27 - 0.67	4.64	< 0.001	70
Т	0.72	0.36 - 1.08	3.96	< 0.001	70
SMR (Residual)	0.84	0.44 - 1.24	4.21	< 0.001	70
$\log(M) \times T$	-0.06	-0.27 - 0.14	-0.63	0.528	70

Observations 75

 R^2 / R^2 adjusted 0.601 / 0.578

- 569 Table 3. Output of binomial generalized linear mixed-effects model, where the response variable is the
- 570 proportion of specimen's time spent in patches with resources within the 5-minute time interval. The
- 571 explanatory variables include body mass (M), temperature (T), M-T independent SMR (residual) and
- 572 experimental time as the continuous explanatory variables.

	%Time in resource patches			
Predictors	Odds Ratios	CI	z value	р
(Intercept)	14.40	6.29 - 32.95	6.31	< 0.001
Time	1.00	1.00 - 1.00	0.13	0.897
log (M)	1.08	0.69 - 1.69	0.34	0.735
Т	0.53	0.24 - 1.15	-1.61	0.107
SMR (Residual)	3.60	0.77 - 16.89	1.62	0.104
Time $\times \log(M)$	1.00	1.00 - 1.00	-6.65	< 0.001
Time × T	1.00	1.00 - 1.00	-2.46	0.014
Time × SMR (Residual)	0.99	0.99 - 1.00	-5.56	< 0.001
$\log(M) \times T$	0.94	0.62 - 1.42	-0.29	0.772
$\log (M) \times SMR$ (Residual)	1.05	0.35 - 3.09	0.08	0.936
$T \times SMR$ (Residual)	0.58	0.15 - 2.26	-0.79	0.432
Random Effects				
σ^2	3.29			
$ au_{00}$ individual	1.07			
ICC	0.25			
N individual	75			
Observations	5400			
$Marginal \ R^2 \ / \ Conditional \ R^2 0.241 \ / \ 0.422$				

⁵⁷³

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- 575 Table 4. Output of binomial generalized linear mixed-effects model, where the response variable is the
- 576 proportion of time spent in Rich patch relative to resource patches over 5-minute time intervals. The
- 577 explanatory variables include body mass (M), temperature (T), M-T independent SMR (residual) and
- 578 experimental time as the continuous explanatory variables.

	%Time in Rich / Resource patches			
Predictors	Odds Ratios	CI	z value	р
(Intercept)	1.87	0.42 - 8.33	0.82	0.410
Time	1.00	1.00 - 1.00	3.03	0.002
log (M)	2.28	0.98 - 5.29	1.92	0.053
Т	20.93	4.63 - 94.57	3.95	< 0.001
SMR (Residual)	28.49	1.49 - 543.73	2.23	0.026
Time $\times \log(M)$	1.00	1.00 - 1.00	-10.46	< 0.001
Time × T	0.99	0.99 - 0.99	-34.99	< 0.001
Time × SMR (Residual)	0.98	0.98 - 0.99	-25.82	< 0.001
$\log(M) \times T$	0.31	0.14 - 0.72	-2.73	0.006
$\log (M) \times SMR$ (Residual)	3.55	0.38 - 32.91	1.12	0.264
$T \times SMR$ (Residual)	0.16	0.01 - 2.69	-1.27	0.205
Random Effects				
σ^2	3.29			
$ au_{00}$ individual	1.29			
ICC	0.28			
N individual	75			
Observations	5400			
$Marginal \ R^2 \ / \ Conditional \ R^2 0.303 \ / \ 0.501$				

580 Figure captions

- Figure 1. Standard metabolic rate (SMR, J day⁻¹) in relation to body mass (M, mg) across temperature
 levels.
- 583 Figure 2. (a) Total number of visits to all patches in relation to body mass (M, mg) across temperature
- 584 levels. (b) Total number of visits to all patches in relation to M and T-independent standard metabolic rate
- 585 (residual SMR). Positive values of M-T independent SMR indicate individuals with higher-than-average
- 586 metabolic rates for their size and the given temperature, while negative values indicate the converse. The
- 587 secondary y-axis shows cumulative space use (m^2) , calculated as the overall surface area of patches that
- 588 individuals visited.
- 589 Figure 3. (a-b) Model surfaces of time spent (%) in patches with resources within 5 min time intervals (a)
- 590 with respect to experimental time, body mass and temperature, and (b) with respect to M- and T-
- 591 independent SMR. Positive values of M-T independent SMR indicate individuals with higher-than-
- solution 592 average metabolic rates for their size and the given temperature and negative values indicate the converse.
- 593 (c-d) Model surfaces of time spent (%) in Rich patch relative to resource patches (c) with respect to
- 594 experimental time, body mass and temperature, and (d) with respect to M- and T-independent SMR.

595 Figure 1.



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599 600 Figure 2.



603 Figure 3.





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Tilk (IIII)200

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0.5 0.5 M-7 integendent SMR (Residual)