

# Energy Metrics of Red-Sided Garter Snakes (*Thamnophis sirtalis parietalis*) Vary with Sex but Not Life-History Stage

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## ABSTRACT

Because reproduction is energetically expensive, an organism's energy stores are likely involved in mediating transitions between reproductive and self-maintenance activities. We investigated whether body condition index, adipocyte follicle size, and liver glycogen differ with the life-history transition from reproduction to migration and foraging in red-sided garter snakes (*Thamnophis sirtalis parietalis*). Females primarily investing in mating behavior located at the den had a significantly higher body condition index than females migrating to summer feeding grounds. The body condition index of male snakes did not differ between snakes located at the den and those migrating to summer feeding grounds. Neither adipocyte follicle area nor liver glycogen stores differed significantly between snakes performing mating activities at the den and those migrating to summer feeding grounds. We did find a sexual dimorphism in that female red-sided garter snakes had significantly larger adipocyte follicles and higher liver glycogen compared with males. Our findings support the across-species phenomenon of females and males displaying a sexual dimorphism in stored energy substrates. Conversely, we did not find evidence to suggest that red-sided garter snakes primarily utilize fatty acids to fuel the initiation of migration, a finding that is not consistent with other long-distance migrators, such as birds. Because we did not find evidence to suggest that stored energy metrics influence the decision to migrate, a physiological mechanism that induces migration in red-sided garter snakes remains elusive.

**Keywords:** body condition index, adipocyte follicle size, liver glycogen, energetics, life-history transitions, migration, trade-offs, sexual dimorphism, reptile.

## Introduction

A common, well-established biological paradigm concerns the trade-offs associated with investment in either reproduction or self-maintenance (Bonnet et al. 2002; Fletcher et al. 2013; Lourdais et al. 2013; Dupoué and Lourdais 2014). To increase Darwinian fitness, an organism must both survive and reproduce, and deciding the appropriate time to invest in reproductive activities can affect survival (Jouventin and Dobson 2002; Bohec et al. 2007). Organisms exhibiting seasonal and/or biennial reproductive cycles must coordinate the timing of reproduction with appropriate environmental conditions. Multiple exogenous cues, such as photoperiod and temperature, affect physiology (Pinter and Negus 1965; Björnsson et al. 1989; Bartness 1996; Demas and Nelson 1998; Larsen et al. 2001; Niva and Takeda 2003; Lutterschmidt and Mason 2009; Zajac et al. 2011; Lutterschmidt 2012). However, the extent to which these exogenous cues affect physiology may be context dependent (Ozaki et al. 1978; San Martin and Touitou 2000; Barrett et al. 2007). Some factors that may contribute to the context dependency of exogenous cues include resource availability and energy status of an organism (i.e., high body condition index, large fat stores, etc.). As reproduction is an energetically expensive activity, endogenous signals that reflect energy status likely influence an organism's sensitivity to exogenous signals and perhaps facilitate transitions between life-history stages.

A multitude of evidence across taxa suggests that energy availability relates to life histories (Bronson and Marsteller 1985; Farley and Robbins 1995; De Block and Stoks 2005; Stallings et al. 2010; Alonso-Fernández and Saborido-Rey 2012; Becker et al. 2013; Costanzo et al. 2013; Muir et al. 2013; McBride et al. 2015; McCann and Padilla 2015). Reproduction has been arguably the most commonly studied life-history stage as it relates to energy availability, with higher energy stores associated with higher investment in reproduction (Bronson and Marsteller 1985; Doughty and Shine 1997, 1998; Kirk 1997; Barron and Andraso 2001; Smith and Moore 2003; Groscolas et al. 2008; Alonso-Fernández and Saborido-Rey 2012; Becker et al. 2013). Furthermore, food deprivation delayed reproductive activities (Bronson and Marsteller 1985), and insufficient energy stores resulted in premature cessation of reproduction (Groscolas et al. 2008). This suggests that energy status could potentially equip an organism with the ability to "decide" when to prioritize investment in either reproduction or self-maintenance activities. To date, little is known about the physiological mechanisms that allow organisms to prioritize life-history processes.

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We investigated whether metrics of energy balance, as measured by body condition index, adipocyte follicle size, and liver glycogen, differ with the life-history transition from reproduction to foraging in a well-studied population of red-sided garter snakes (*Thamnophis sirtalis parietalis*). The annual life-history stages exhibited by northern populations of red-sided garter snakes allow for easy identification of individuals that are and that are not primarily investing in mating behaviors. In Manitoba, Canada, red-sided garter snakes overwinter in underground dens for up to 8 mo and upon emergence enter into an intense and shortened spring mating season, all while being aphagic (Gregory and Stewart 1975). Individuals spend a variable amount of time performing mating behaviors at the den, and as the mating season ends, they migrate up to 17 km to summer feeding grounds (Gregory and Stewart 1975; Gregory 1977). Male snakes emerge before females, and as single females or small groups of females emerge, males immediately and intensely begin to court attractive females. Most female snakes remain at the den for less than 1 d before dispersing, while male snakes spend upward of 2 wk courting and attempting to mate with females (Shine et al. 2001; Lutterschmidt and Mason 2009). Because this population of red-sided garter snakes exhibits a distinct behavioral transition from mating to feeding activities that is necessarily linked with migration, we easily identified whether individuals are primarily investing in reproduction or whether they transitioned to self-maintenance activities (Cease et al. 2007).

Here, we present data to determine whether body condition index, adipocyte follicle area, and liver glycogen differ between red-sided garter snakes that were primarily involved in reproductive activities and snakes that initiated migration to summer feeding grounds. Body condition index is used as a noninvasive method to obtain information about an organism's energy balance by examining the relationship between body mass and body length (Hayes and Shonkwiler 2001). We also aimed to determine whether direct measurements of stored energy (i.e., adipocyte follicle size and liver glycogen) differ between individuals at the den and those that initiated migration to summer feeding grounds. We predicted that energy metrics would be higher in snakes located at the den compared with individuals collected during migration. We expected to see a greater magnitude of change in adipose tissue compared with liver glycogen because of the preferential usage of fat stores in migrating birds (Jenni-Eiermann 2017). We also expected that males would show larger differences in energy metrics because of the sex-specific differences in the timing of migration of red-sided garter snakes, in which males spend a greater time at the den compared with females. Finally, we also explored relationships among the energy metrics quantified in this study. Because organisms utilize fat as a fuel when glucose and glycogen levels are low, we did not expect to see a significant relationship between adipocyte follicle area and liver glycogen. Conversely, we did expect to see a significant positive relationship between body condition index and both adipocyte follicle area and liver glycogen.

## Material and Methods

Red-sided garter snakes were collected from the Interlake region of Manitoba, Canada, under the authority of scientific permit

WB18801 issued by the Manitoba Department of Sustainable Development. All procedures were approved under Portland State University's Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee protocol 42.

## Experimental Design

Male and female red-sided garter snakes were collected May 19–22, 2016, to obtain adipose and liver tissues. Brains were also collected for a separate experiment that is not part of the analyses presented here. Snakes collected from mating balls at the den were in reproductive condition, and we confirmed that females were unmated by the absence of a mating plug in the cloaca. As in Dayger and Lutterschmidt (2017) and Cease et al. (2007), we also collected migrating snakes from a road located along the migratory route approximately 1 km from the den. These snakes were migrating to summer feeding grounds and transitioning from reproductive to foraging behavior. Total sample sizes were 27 females (den:  $n = 16$ ; road:  $n = 11$ ) and 32 males (den:  $n = 16$ ; road:  $n = 16$ ).

## Tissue Collection

Snakes were euthanized with 250  $\mu$ L of a 1% solution of sodium Brevital administered via injection near the heart. Mass and snout-vent length (SVL) were measured for each snake, and adipose and liver tissues were excised. Approximately 100 mg of adipose tissue was collected from the anterior portion of the abdominal cavity near the liver and gallbladder. Adipose tissue was fixed in 4% paraformaldehyde in 0.1 M phosphate buffer (pH 7.2) overnight at 4°C. Tissues were then stored in 0.1 M phosphate buffer at 4°C until processed for paraffin embedding at Portland State University. Approximately 20 mm of the most posterior portion of the liver was excised and flash frozen on dry ice. Frozen tissues were kept on dry ice until arrival at the field station, where they were stored in liquid nitrogen. They were transferred to Portland State University on dry ice and then stored at  $-80^{\circ}\text{C}$  until analyzed.

## Adipose Tissue Histology

Paraffin embedding of fixed adipose tissues was conducted following the methods of Berry et al. (2014). Briefly, tissues were dehydrated in 75% ethanol for 30 min, 95% ethanol for 75 min for two incubations, and 100% ethanol for 60 min for three incubations. Tissues were then cleared in CitriSolv (22-143-975, Thermo Scientific) for 60 min for two incubations. Fresh solutions were used for all incubations. Tissues were impregnated with paraffin overnight at 58°C, during which paraffin wax was changed twice, approximately every 7 h. Specimens were sliced at 5  $\mu$ m using a microtome and collected on gelatin-coated microscope slides. Because of a high density of parasites within the fat bodies of some individuals, 19% of samples were resectioned at 15  $\mu$ m. Using a thicker section allowed us to increase the proportion of adipocytes visible within each tissue section, but it did not affect the measurement of follicle area ( $t = 0.86$ ,  $df = 4$ ,  $P = 0.440$ , from a paired  $t$ -test on the mean average follicle area of five snakes

measured at both 5 and 15  $\mu\text{m}$ ). Uhrig (2015) proposed that this encysted larval (metacercarial stage) diplostomid trematode likely belongs to the genus *Fibricola* according to morphology. Although investigations into possible sex differences in parasite load are beyond the scope of this study, it is unlikely that *Fibricola* load differs between males and females because it does not significantly relate to SVL in garter snakes (Uhrig 2015). Furthermore, pit vipers (*Bothrops jararac*) did not display any sex differences in several parasite loads among various tissues (*Caryospora* and *Sarcocystis* spp. in the gut, *Porocephalus* sp. in the lung, and *Ochetosoma heterocoelium* in the oral cavity [Grego et al. 2004]).

For each individual, we collected five sequential sections on a single slide across four series of slides (e.g., series A, B, C, D). We repeated this process four times, such that each tissue series comprised four slides; therefore, within each series, a minimum of 75  $\mu\text{m}$  separated the tissues collected on each slide. Using one tissue series, we measured adipocyte follicle area in one of the five tissue sections collected on each of the four slides within the series. Because the mean diameter of adipocytes across all red-sided garter snakes in this study was  $20.81 \pm 0.68 \mu\text{m}$ , it is not possible that we measured an adipocyte twice.

After collection, sections were deparaffinized for 10 min in CitriSolv for two incubations. Tissues were then rehydrated in a series of ethanol incubations followed by Nanopure water, and they were counterstained with hematoxylin and eosin (fig. A1). Adipocyte follicle area was measured using the ImageJ software Adiposoft (National Institutes of Health, Bethesda, MD). Each adipocyte follicle the software recognized was assigned a unique number. We then examined each sequential adipocyte in a section to ensure that the software had accurately measured follicles. We excluded any partial adipocytes from analysis. Where possible, we measured the follicle area of 25 cells in one tissue section per slide; we repeated this process for each slide within the series and then calculated the average adipocyte follicle area of the resulting 100 cells per snake. In the case that 100 adipocytes were not present within a tissue series, we measured as many adipocytes as possible; 11 of 59 samples had fewer than 100 visible adipocytes within the tissue series. The mean number of follicles measured across nine of these individuals was  $64.5 \pm 9.78 \text{ SEM}$ ; the minimum number of follicles measured in any snake included in analysis was 32. Two males collected from the road had very little adipose tissue to initially collect. Because we could not obtain enough measurements (i.e., fewer than 20 visible follicles) even after reprocessing and slicing adipose tissue to accurately estimate average follicle area, we excluded these males from adipocyte analyses.

#### Liver Glycogen Assay

For each individual, we homogenized 100–120 mg of liver tissue with a Bio-Gen Pro200 (Oxford, CT) in 0.5 mL of 1% Halt protease inhibitor solution (1862209, Thermo Scientific, Waltham, MA) in assay buffer (0.936%  $\text{Na}_2\text{PO}_4$ , 0.4656%  $\text{KPO}_4$ , 1%  $\text{NaCl}$ ) for 15 s. Liver homogenates were then centrifuged at 800 g for 10 min at 4°C. We transferred the supernatant to a fresh tube. To convert glycogen to glucose, we incubated 35  $\mu\text{L}$  of supernatant with 175  $\mu\text{L}$  of diluted glycogen hydrolysis enzyme (700483, Cayman Chemical,

Ann Arbor, MI; reconstituted in 3 mL of 50 mM sodium acetate) for 30 min at 37°C. We ran a glycogen standard in each digestion assay as a positive control. We then ran these digested samples in an enzymatic colorimetric assay (10009582, Cayman Chemical, Ann Arbor, MI) following manufacturer instructions to measure glucose content. The intra-assay and interassay coefficients of variation were  $3.08 \pm 1.29$  and 5.43, respectively. To validate this assay for snake plasma, we sequentially diluted both female and male supernatants and then subjected them first to the digestion assay and then to the colorimetric assay to verify that these samples displayed parallelism with the standard curve of the glucose colorimetric assay. Both diluted supernatants from female and male liver homogenates displayed parallelism with the standard curve of the glucose assay (data not shown), indicating that the constituents of snake plasma do not interfere with the assay.

#### Statistical Analyses

We utilized *t*-tests to determine whether body condition index differed with migration status within each sex; we calculated the body condition index for female and male snakes separately because red-sided garter snakes exhibit a sexual size dimorphism, with females being larger than males. Body condition index was determined by calculating the residual from a regression of log-transformed body mass on log-transformed SVL. To determine whether adipocyte follicle area varied with sex or migration status, we utilized two-way ANOVA. We controlled for potential differences related to body size by dividing each snake's mean adipocyte follicle area by its SVL (cm); we then determined whether size-corrected adipocyte follicle area varied with either sex or migration status using a two-way ANOVA.

We accounted for the amount of liver homogenized by dividing glycogen content by liver mass homogenized and then ran a two-way ANOVA. Significant main effects from these ANOVAs were further examined using Holm-Sidak multiple comparisons tests. Last, we used linear regressions to determine whether adipocyte follicle area significantly related to liver glycogen and whether body condition index significantly related to adipocyte follicle area or liver glycogen.

Where necessary, data were square root or log transformed to meet the assumptions of parametric analysis. If data could not be transformed to meet these assumptions, nonparametric Mann-Whitney *U*-tests were utilized. All statistics were run using SigmaStat 12.0 (Systat Software). We set an  $\alpha$  of 0.05 to determine significance; results were considered significant when  $P \leq 0.05$  after rounding to two significant digits.

#### Results

Female snakes collected from the den had a significantly higher body condition index than migrating females collected from the road (fig. 1A;  $t = 3.72$ ,  $P = 0.001$ ). Body condition index of male snakes did not vary with collection site (fig. 1A;  $U = 97.00$ ,  $P = 0.250$ ).

During the spring, adipocyte follicle area was significantly larger in females compared with males (fig. 1B;  $F_{1,53} = 46.27$ ,

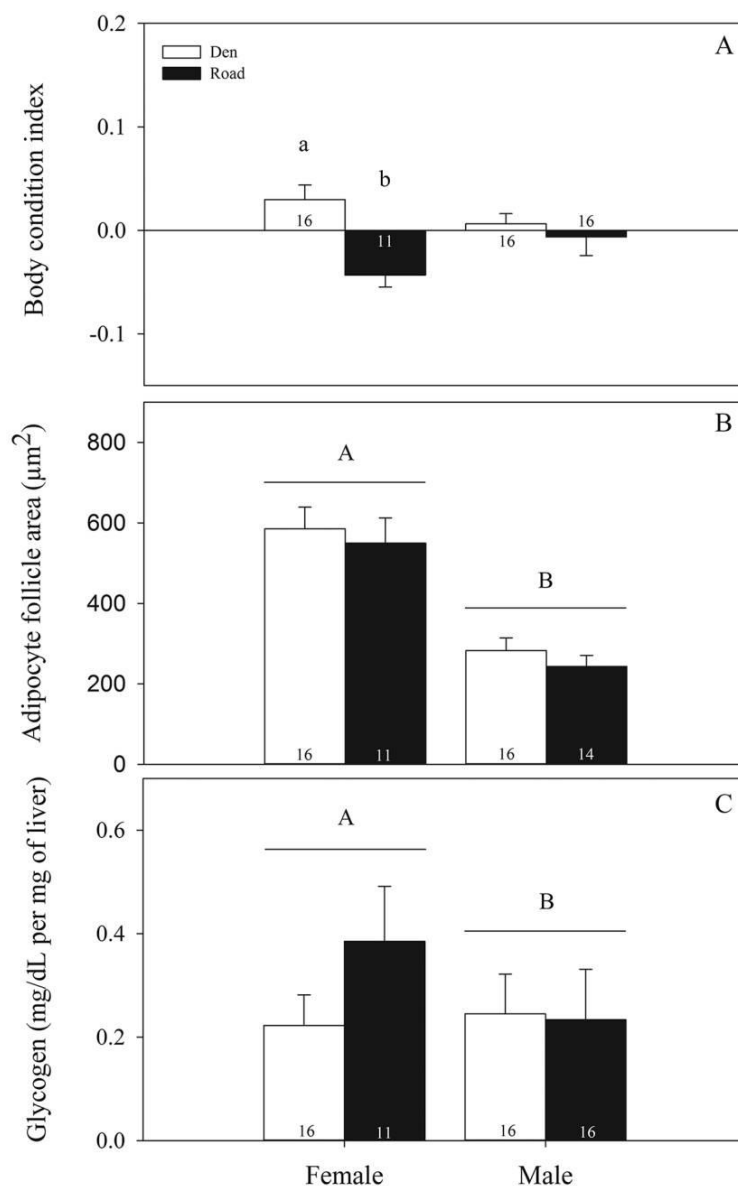


Figure 1. Influence of sex and migratory status on body condition index (A), adipocyte follicle area (B), and liver glycogen (C) in red-sided garter snakes (*Thamnophis sirtalis parietalis*). Nonmigratory snakes were collected from the den, and migrating snakes were collected from a road located ~1 km from the den along the migratory route. All data are mean + 1 SEM. Letters indicate significant differences between groups; numbers along the X-axes indicate final sample sizes.

$P < 0.001$ ), and this relationship persisted even after correcting for sex differences in SVL ( $F_{1,53} = 15.44$ ,  $P < 0.001$ ; data not shown). There were no significant differences in adipocyte follicle area between den- and road-collected individuals (fig. 1B;  $F_{1,53} = 0.70$ ,  $P = 0.407$ ), and the interaction between sex and collection site was statistically nonsignificant ( $F_{1,53} = 0.03$ ,  $P = 0.874$ ).

Females in the spring had significantly more glycogen per milligram of liver homogenized than male garter snakes (fig. 1C;  $F_{1,55} = 3.89$ ,  $P = 0.054$ ). Neither migratory status (fig. 1C;

$F_{1,55} = 0.24$ ,  $P = 0.629$ ) nor the interaction between migratory status and sex significantly affected liver glycogen ( $F_{1,55} = 2.03$ ,  $P = 0.160$ ).

Adipocyte follicle area did not significantly relate to liver glycogen in females (fig. 2;  $R^2 = 0.00$ ,  $P = 0.717$ ) or males (fig. 2;  $R^2 = 0.04$ ,  $P = 0.139$ ). Neither adipocyte follicle area (fig. 3A;  $R^2 = 0.092$ ,  $P = 0.124$ ) nor liver glycogen (fig. 3B;  $R^2 = 0.00$ ,  $P = 0.737$ ) in female snakes significantly related to body condition index during the spring. Likewise, neither male adipocyte follicle area (fig. 3A;  $R^2 = 0.02$ ,  $P = 0.464$ )



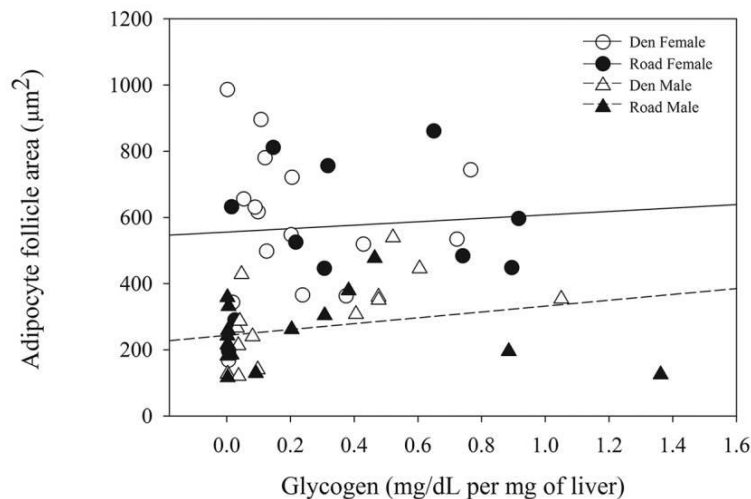


Figure 2. Relationship between adipocyte follicle area and liver glycogen in male and female red-sided garter snakes (*Thamnophis sirtalis parietalis*). Results are from separate linear regressions for each sex. Individuals collected from the den (open symbols) were primarily engaging in mating behavior, whereas individuals that initiated migration to summer feeding grounds were collected from a road ~1 km from the den (solid symbols). Because we found no significant differences in either variable between den- and road-collected individuals, we collapsed migratory status for these analyses. Adipocyte follicle area did not significantly relate to liver glycogen content in either female or male red-sided garter snakes (see text for further statistical details).

nor liver glycogen (fig. 3B;  $R^2 = 0.00$ ,  $P = 0.394$ ) significantly related to body condition index. All of the results presented in figures 2 and 3 are from simple linear regressions performed separately for each sex.

## Discussion

This is the first investigation reporting liver glycogen in red-sided garter snakes. Our findings of no relationship between liver glycogen and migratory status are similar to findings from investigations in migrating fish (Tudorache et al. 2007; but see Chang and Idler 1960) and birds (McWilliams et al. 2004). In contrast to the established literature suggesting the utilization of fatty acids in many migrating animals (e.g., birds, mammals, fish, and invertebrates; Blem 1980; McWilliams et al. 2004; Weber 2009; Dingle 2014), we do not provide evidence to suggest that adipose stores influence the decision to migrate in red-sided garter snakes. However, it is possible that measuring adipocyte follicle size is not sensitive enough to assess lipid metabolism. Our results are in line with Crews et al. (1987), who found that plasma lipid content did not change over the course of 37 d after spring emergence from simulated hibernation, the time period during which individuals migrate to summer feeding grounds. Though these two lines of evidence suggest that lipid metabolism may not influence the decision to migrate in red-sided garter snakes, measuring plasma fatty acid concentration or enzymes related to lipid metabolism in den- and road-collected snakes would provide a clearer picture of whether fatty acid metabolism is involved in deciding when to initiate migration in garter snakes. A study in tree lizards (*Urosaurus ornatus*) found that one enzyme involved in fatty acid anabolism, diacylglycerol acyltransferase, differed with reproductive condition in females but not in males (Lacy et al. 2002).

Because snakes located at the den were primarily performing reproductive behavior, measuring these and/or other enzymes associated with lipid metabolism could provide further evidence as to whether adipose tissue plays a role in initiating migration in red-sided garter snakes.

Other energy-related signals, such as glucose, amino acids, and other by-products of catabolism, may influence the initiation of migration. In red-sided garter snakes, total plasma protein concentrations change over 24 d after spring emergence in field-caught males, although no clear pattern of change was evident (Crews et al. 1987). Measuring total protein likely may not provide a clear picture of amino acid metabolism because of the inclusion of other plasma proteins, such as binding proteins and clotting factors. In that same study, plasma glucose levels in males did not significantly fluctuate (Crews et al. 1987), a finding similar to that from preliminary work in our lab that showed no significant differences in plasma glucose levels between den- and road-collected males (Maine et al. 2014). However, road-collected females displayed higher glucose concentrations than den-collected females (Maine et al. 2014), a finding that is reflected in our data because migrating females tended to have higher liver glycogen compared with den-collected females. This suggests that the factors regulating differences in liver glycogen between individuals primarily engaging in mating activities and those migrating to summer feeding grounds may be sexually dimorphic.

## Sex Differences in Energy Stores

We found significant sex differences in adipocyte follicle size and liver glycogen stores during the spring in red-sided garter snakes, with females having significantly larger adipocyte follicles and higher glycogen per milligram of liver homogenized than males.

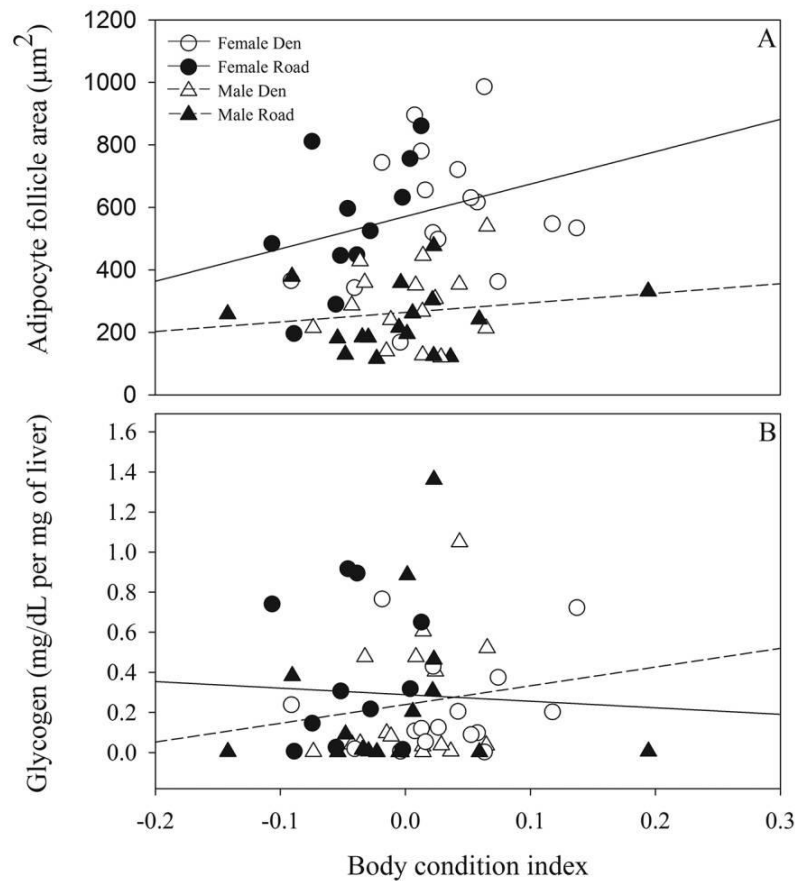


Figure 3. Relationship between adipocyte follicle area and body condition index (A) and between liver glycogen and body condition index (B) in male and female red-sided garter snakes (*Thamnophis sirtalis parietalis*). Results are from simple linear regressions run separately for each sex. Individuals collected from the den (open symbols) were primarily engaging in mating behavior, whereas individuals that initiated migration to summer feeding grounds were collected from a road ~1 km from the den (solid symbols). Body condition index was determined separately for female and male snakes by calculating the residual from a regression of log-transformed body mass on log-transformed snout-vent length. Because we found no significant differences in adipocyte follicle area or liver glycogen between den- and road-collected individuals, we collapsed migratory status for these analyses. Body condition index did not significantly relate to either adipocyte follicle area or liver glycogen in female or male red-sided garter snakes (see text for further statistical details).

After controlling for SVL, females still had significantly larger adipocyte follicles compared with males. These data suggest that female red-sided garter snakes store energy substrates to a greater extent than males. A number of reviews have described sex-specific differences in fat distribution across body regions in mammals (Wells 2007; Valencak et al. 2017; Chang et al. 2018). In birds, female American redstarts arrived at breeding grounds with more body fat than male conspecifics (Smith and Moore 2003). Across taxa, no clear pattern of sexual dimorphisms emerged in liver glycogen. Storage of liver glycogen in female mammals may be more sensitive to fasting and feeding cycles because fed female bats stored more liver glycogen than males, but fasted female rats had lower glycogen stores than males (Deuel et al. 1937; Freitas et al. 2010; Gustavsson et al. 2010). In two species of chorus frogs (*Pseudacris crucifer* and *Pseudacris triseriata*), males had higher liver glycogen compared with females (Duffitt and Finkler 2011),

as opposed to the common frog (*Rana temporaria*) that did not display any sexually dimorphic levels of liver glycogen (Smith 1950). Male sockeye salmon (*Oncorhynchus nerka*) had higher liver glycogen compared with females (Chang and Idler 1960). It is possible that differing methodologies in the quantification of glycogen levels confounded a clear relationship in this sexual dimorphism. What is more likely is that sexually dimorphic differences in liver glycogen are dependent on the organism's ecological niche.

Indeed, one study that investigated three snake species with differing life-history tactics found no consistent pattern in sex differences pertaining to stored forms of energy, as measured by fat and liver masses (Bonnet et al. 1998). Because the ecology of garter snakes does not perfectly align with any snake in this study but instead shares similarities with both asp vipers (*Vipera aspis*) and European whip snakes (*Coluber viridiflavus*; e.g., medium vs.

large bodied, viviparous vs. oviparous, fast moving vs. slow moving), it may be difficult to draw conclusions concerning sex-specific differences in energy stores. However, both female asp vipers and female garter snakes had higher adipose and liver tissue compared with males, whereas male and female European whip snakes had equal forms of stored energy in these tissues. It is likely that certain ecological characteristics, such as body size and parity, contributed more to sex-specific differences of storing energy in snake species.

A possible mechanism underlying the sex-specific difference we found in energy stores of red-sided garter snakes is sex steroid hormones. Investigations into the presence of estrogen and androgen receptors in adipose tissue outside of mammals are sparse, with only one study that identified an androgen receptor in female orange-spotted groupers (Shi et al. 2012). In mammals, several studies have identified estrogen and androgen receptors in white adipose tissue (Mizutani et al. 1994; Dieudonné et al. 1998; O'Brien et al. 1998). Estrogen treatment decreased overall white adipose tissue mass, adipocyte size, and white adipose lipoprotein lipase, an enzyme that cleaves triglycerides into fatty acids for storage; ovariectomy increased these variables (Mead et al. 2002; Mayes and Watson 2004; Jeong et al. 2007). However, in reptiles, estradiol significantly correlated with increased fat storage (Lacy et al. 2002). This discrepancy may be due to differences in estrogen receptor subtypes expressed in adipose tissue or differential effects of estrogens on subcutaneous versus visceral adipose tissue (Mayes and Watson 2004). Because the one study in reptiles that addressed the effects of estrogens on adipose tissue conflicts with mammalian studies, it is difficult to conclude whether estrogens are responsible for the sexual dimorphism we observed in adipose tissue of red-sided garter snakes. Further complicating the potential effects of sex steroid hormones on adipose tissue in red-sided garter snakes is the fact that this population exhibits dissociated reproduction, in which snakes tend to have low levels of sex steroid hormones during the spring mating season (e.g., Krohmer et al. 1987; Whittier et al. 1987; Moore et al. 2000; Moore and Mason 2001; Lutterschmidt and Mason 2009). As such, more research should be conducted in reptiles to help determine the basis of this sexual dimorphism. Compared with estrogens, the effects of testosterone on adipose tissue were more consistent across taxa: testosterone inhibited fat deposition in mammals, lizards, and birds (Ketterson et al. 1991; Lacy et al. 2002; Mayes and Watson 2004; Rynders et al. 2018; Yao et al. 2018). It is possible that the inverse relationship between testosterone and fat deposition was due to aromatization of testosterone to estradiol, but this relationship persisted even in the presence of an aromatase inhibitor (Rynders et al. 2018).

The effects of testosterone and estradiol on promoting adipose tissue breakdown and glycogen synthesis and storage, respectively, may be more complex in red-sided garter snakes, as these snakes are dissociated breeders in which peak sex steroid hormones did not coincide with peak mating behavior. However, male snakes did exhibit declining levels of testosterone during winter dormancy and sometimes over the course of the spring mating season (Krohmer et al. 1987; Moore et al. 2000; Moore and Mason 2001; Lutterschmidt and Mason 2009). It is possible that sex steroid hormones act transseasonally during the summer, fall, and winter

to influence the sex differences we observed in the energy metrics reported here. As stated previously, however, studies investigating the effects of sex steroid hormones on adipose tissue and energy-specific functions of the liver are lacking in snakes.

#### Body Condition Index

We found evidence to suggest that body condition index differs between snakes located at the den and females migrating to summer feeding grounds but not males, a finding similar to that of Cease et al. (2007). Female snakes located at the den had a significantly higher body condition index than road-collected females. However, neither adipocyte follicle area nor liver glycogen varied with migration status in these snakes. Because females do not ovulate until 6 wk after emergence (Whittier et al. 1987), it is unlikely that the differences in body condition index that we observed with migratory status in females were related to reproductive condition. In light of body condition index not significantly relating to either adipocyte follicle area or liver glycogen content during the spring mating season (fig. 3), other energy and non-energy factors (i.e., water content) likely contributed more to body condition index than these energy metrics. For example, in male red-sided garter snakes, body condition index significantly related to lean body mass (i.e., muscle and skeleton weight) but not to fat body mass or liver mass (Shine and Mason 2005). In contrast, the body condition index of brown tree snakes (*Boiga irregularis*) related to total fat mass (Waye and Mason 2008). These findings illustrate that body condition index did not always represent the same stored energy substrates across species. The variation in which metabolic substrates contributed to body condition index may reflect differing ecological and environmental influences and/or metabolic needs. Therefore, species-specific validation is needed to determine which form of energy substrate most relates to body condition index. The hypothesis that body condition index does not accurately reflect stored energy content is not new (Green 2001; Peig and Green 2009; Labocha et al. 2013). Peig and Green (2009) argued for the necessity of including allometric scaling in body condition index calculations to appropriately approximate energy stores. However, using residuals from regressions of body mass on SVL is appropriate to estimate body condition in snakes because these residuals were not influenced by allometry but were significantly related to measurements of fat in Burmese pythons (*Python bivittatus*; Falk et al. 2017).

In conclusion, we present evidence to suggest that body condition index related to the decision to migrate in female, but not male, red-sided garter snakes. However, how body condition index pertained to energy substrates remains unclear in red-sided garter snakes. This research contributes to the large body of literature demonstrating sexually dimorphic storage of energy substrates across species. Because we did not find evidence to suggest that stored energy metrics influenced the decision to migrate, a physiological mechanism that induces migration in red-sided garter snakes remains elusive. Accordingly, more research will help clarify whether the prioritization of fatty acid usage to fuel migration is conserved across taxa or whether energy substrate usage is dependent on environmental or ecological conditions.

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### APPENDIX

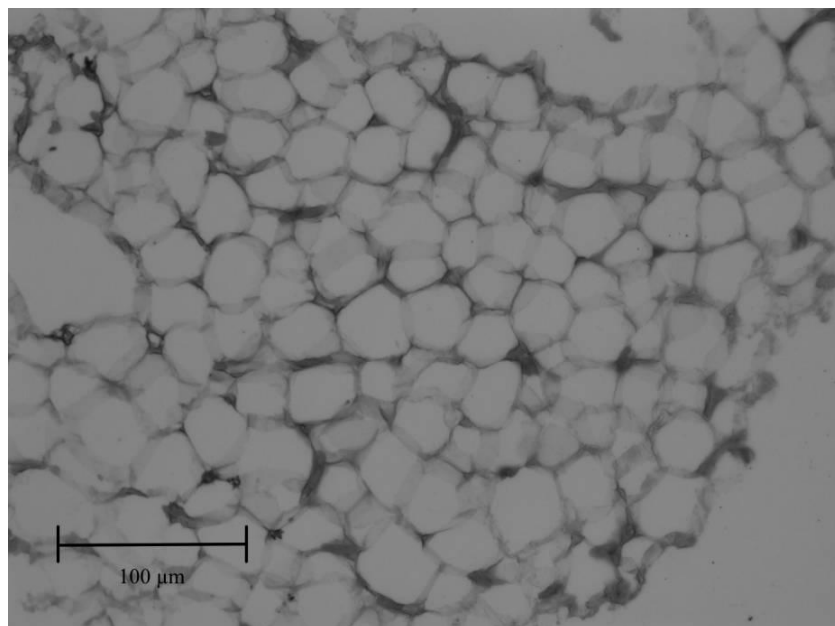


Figure A1. Adipose tissue sections from a representative male red-sided garter snake. Tissues were hematoxylin and eosin stained and photographed at  $\times 200$  magnification. A color version of this figure is available online.

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