**Title**: Phylogenetic allometric scaling of basal breathing frequency in terrestrial, semi-aquatic, and aquatic mammals

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***Summary***

***Abstract***

We collected breathing frequency following an overnight fast in adult, non-pregnant/non-lactating, inactive, mammals ranging in body mass from 15-5520 kg. The data included results from 340 indivdual animals from 34 species that were divided into terrestrial, semi-aquatic and aquatic mammals based on their life history. An allometric regression model, where both body mass (*Mb*) and breathing frequency were transformed using the common logarithm (log10) suggested that both the slopes (allometric mass-exponent, terrestrial: -0.303; aquatic/semi-aquatic: ) and intercepts (terrestrial: 1.766; aquatic/semi-aquatic: 0.509). For semi-aquatic mammals, the breathing frequency was significantly lower in water, but this difference did not depend on the termperature of the media (water/air). We suggest that the differences in the allometric mass-exponent for aquatic/semi-aquatic mammals in the current study provide support that measurements of cardiorespiratory function should be controlled for potentially confounding factors, such as digestion, activity, or temperature to have value in comparative physiology. We also propose controlled allometric studies of cardiorespiratory function, similar basal metabolic rate, provide valuable information for comparative medicine of large, exotic species where controlled baseline data may be difficult to obtain.

***1) Introduction***

The term allometric scaling was coined by Julian Huxley and Georges Tessier in 1936 (Huxley and Teissier, 1936), but the study of the relationship between body size against morphology, or physiology dates back to the late 17th century when Otto Snell (Snell, 1892) outlined the relationship between brain weight and body size. The relationship between body size and basal metabolic rate (BMR), also often refered to as the *Kleiber law*, was published by Max Kleiber (Kleiber, 1932), where it was shown that energy requirements correlate non-linearly with body mass (Mb) to the power of 0.75, commonly called the allometric scaling factor. Although there has been numerous publications that debate the value of the allometric scaling factor, it has been shown to vary with a number of factors, such as diet, and habitat/environment, (Darveau et al., 2002; He et al., 2023; McNab, 2008; McNab, 2009; White, 2010; White et al., 2007).

A number of variables are known to alter metabolic rate, such as digestion (called heat increment of feeding or specific dynamic action), thermoregulation in an environment with a temperature outside the thermoneutral zone (Metze, 2016; Secor, 2009). The definition of basal restricts measurements to adult, non-pregnant or not lactating, post-prandial, animals that are inactive/resting, but not sleeping, and in their thermoneutral range (Kleiber, 1932). Comparing metabolic rates between indviduals or species that are not measured using the basal definition, therefore, increases variation, and in severe cases, result in erroneous conclusions.

Aerobic metabolism depends on two convective steps to supply the cell with O2, ventilation (breathing frequency and tidal volume), and cardiac output (hert rate and stroke volume). Therefore, not surprisingly, similar scaling relationships have been shown for both ventilation and perfusion (He et al., 2023; Seymour and Blaylock, 2000; Stahl, 1967). However, unlike BMR, cardiorespiratory variables, e.g. tidal volume, breathing frequency, heart rate or stroke volume, are seldom standardized, and some studies include anestitized or restrained animals, or average daily values where the animals have varying activity (He et al., 2023; Mortola and Limoges, 2006; Seymour and Blaylock, 2000; Stahl, 1967). In smaller cetaceans, where digestive processes can increase metabolic rate as much as 40 % above BMR following a standard meal (Fahlman et al., 2024; Yeates and Houser, 2008), it was shown that the avergae heart rate in fed bottlenose dolphins increased by between 9-14% as compared with after an overnight fast, after correccting for breathing frequency (Blawas et al., 2021).

In recent studies, it has been shown that the allometric scaling factor for breathing frequency is different in terrestrial and aqautic species (He et al., 2023; Mortola and Limoges, 2006). As the data in these studies were not measured under basal conditions, it therefore difficult to evaluate the potential variation around each data point and the conclusions from these studies. To better understand how breathing frecuency varies with metabolic demands (Fahlman et al., 2016; Roos et al., 2016; Videsen et al., 2023), the cardiorespiratory coupling (Fahlman, 2024; Mortola, 2015), and also as a tool to diagnose respiratory health (Butterworth et al., 2004), defining how how breathing frequency scales between species, and varies for species that inhabit different habitats, e.g. terrestrial vs. aquatic environment, is of interest (Agostoni et al., 1959), Therefore, in this study the aim was to collect data on respiratory frequency in awake, un-restrained, adult, fasted mammals. We specifically wanted to assess 1) whether a more controlled definition of data collecction result in variation in results, and also to 2) define the allometric relationship among terrestrial, semi-aqautic, and aqautic mammals.

***2. Material and Methods***

2.1 Data collection

A request was sent out to different facilities that house mammals in professional care to collect breathing frequency from focal observations in awake, non-restrained, adult, post-prandial (after an overnight fast), non-pregnant mammals at rest. As opportunistic focal observations could not guarantee that all animals were at rest, the observer was asked to score the activity in 3 levels; 1) rest/inactive, 2) minimal activity, and 3) active.

Data were received from a total of 22 zoological institutions from a total of 1221 measurements in 340 individual animals, from 35 species (and one sub-species of bottlenose dolphin) ranging in body mass from 15 kg to 5270 kg (Table 1). Data included common name (and taxonomic order, family, genus and species), animal ID, sex, body mass, year of birth (for wild caught individuals the age was estimated), activity level during focal observation, number of breaths and duration of measurement, whether measured in water or on land (for semi-aquatic species), temperature of environment where measured (water and/or air), institution, and date of measurement.

2.2 Statistical Analysis

We used a linear mixed model in R (*glmmTMB*), using breathing frequency (*f*R) as a dependent variable, and habitat (Aquatic, Semi-aquatic or Terrestrial), environmental temperature where the individual was measured (air or water, for some semi-aquatic measurements were done both in air and water and the temperature where the individual was measured was used, i.e. location), activity level (1-rest, 2-some activity, 3-active) and *M*b as independent variables. Both *f*R and *M*b were transformed using the common logarithm (log10). We used a hierarchical model with random effects, and nested order, family, genus and species with individual ID. We used a Type II Wald test to determine which included variables were significant (*car* function in R), and a post-hoc test to asses variation in slopes between habitats (function *emtrends* in the package *emmeans* in R). Acceptance of significance was set at P < 0.05, and P < 0.0001 was considered highly significant. All values are reported as means (± s.d.) unless otherwise specified.

***3. Results***

The results from the statistical analysis is presented in Table 2, and the post-hoc testing for differences in slopes between habitat and body mass in Table 3.

The results indicate that there is an allometric relationship between body mass and breathing frequency (Table 2). The full model passed all quality tests, with the the distribution of residuals being normal, and the plot between the residuals (and also scaled residuals) and predicted values varied randomly (Fig. DDD). The autocorrelation function (ACF) plot had one larger negative ACF value at lag 1, and one barely outside the confidence interval at lag 2.

The results indicate that there were no differences in slopes of intercepts between aquatic and semi-aquatic mammals, but significant differences in both intercepts and slopes between aquatic/semi-aquatic and terrestrial mammals (Tables 2 and 3). Breathing frequency increased with increasing activity level, but was not affected by the temperature of the environment (water or air) where the individual was measured. For semi-aquatic mammals, the breathing frequency was slighly lower in water than on land (Table 2).

Fig. 1 is an interactive plot of breathing frequency against body mass which separate the mammals into the different habitats and is the estimate at an activity level of 1. In this figure are also plotted values from two previously published studies that investigated the relationship

PLOT-MORTOLA SPECIES ON THIS PLOT WITH DIFFERENCES IN SYMBOLS BETWEEN THOSE THAT ARE SIMILAR, EG DOLPHINS ETC

***4. Discussion***

In the current study, we collected breathing frequency from 340 unrestrained individual terrestrial, semi-aqautic and aqautic mammals following an overnight fast. Although focal collection of breathing frequency included measurements of both resting and active individuals at different environmental temperatures, the analysis enabled us to estimate breathing frequency for in active mammals (activity level 1). We therefore believe that these data provide near basal estimates of breathing frequency in mammals.

Allometric scaling is often used to compare energetic needs across species of different body sizes (He et al., 2023; McNab, 2008; McNab, 2009; White, 2010; White et al., 2007). Such studies commonly use data from the published literature that have measured basal metabolic rate (BMR), which helps reduce variation due to confoudning factors which is helpful in comparative studies. The allometric mass component, the slope of the relationship between body mass and metabolic rate, ranges between 0.66-0.75 (White, 2010). As increased aerobic metabolism results in elevated convective demand for O2 through ventilation and perfusion. Past studies have shown that both minute ventilation (breating frequency x tidal volume) and cardiac output (heart rate x stroke volume) scale with a similar mass-exponent to that for BMR (He et al., 2023; Stahl, 1967). Interestignly, despite differences in the breathing strategy between aquatic and terrestrial mammals, where terrestrial mammals generally have a higher breathing frequency and lower tidal volume as compared with aquatic mammals (Fahlman et al., 2017; He et al., 2023; Mortola, 2015), the minute volume has been shown to scale with metabolic rate in both groups. However, as few comparative studies on cardiorespiratory physiology have attempted to control for variables that may alter metabolic rate, the potential confoudning effect of digestion, age, and activity is not known. For example, it was shown that heart rate in dolphins that has fasted overnight had lower heart rate than those that had been recently fed (Blawas et al., 2021). Thus, comparative studies could suffer from increased varaibility or results could be affected by confounding effects of variables not controled for.

The main objective with this study was to determine the allometric relationship between mammals that reside in different habitats at basal levels, i.e. post-prandial, adult individuals, at rest and in their thermoneutral environment. While basal metabolic rate is a well defined unit that allows comparison between species of different sizes, and that resides in different habitat, a similar definition is not commonly done for physioloigcal varaibles that are known to vary with metabolic rate, like breathing frequency. Focal observations, as those presented here, allow the breathing frequency to be measured with minimal interference to the individual animal. However, during such observations it is not always possible to provide measurements of animals at a specific activity level. One option would be to reduce the data set to only include animals at rest. We chose to include all observations and recorded the observed activity level (a separate analysis of the restricted data set provided equivalent results). We created a prediction plot for animals at rest (Fig. 1). Although we attempted to measure all animals while post-prandial, true BMR may not be possible for species like ruminants that may require up to 7 days to be post-prandial (Baxter, 1967; McNab, 1997; National Research Council Subcommittee on Environmental, 1981), or certain carnivores that consume a large meal and then fast for several days. For all species, we therefore made the measurements before they were fed in the morning following an overnight fast. While this may not be a suffuiciently long fasting period for some species, this this was the longest period that were justified to prioritize animal welfare. In addition, the breathing frequency for the ruminants in the current study did not deviate from the expected value (Fig. ). However, unlike past studies, we found that the allometric scaling factor for aquatic and semi-aquatic species to be considerably lower than previoulsy reported.

In two past studies it was shown that the allometric scaling constant for breathing frequency for aqautic species had a steeper negative slope (-0.34 to -0.42) as compared with terrestrial mammals (-0.24 to -0.25) (He et al., 2023; Mortola, 2015). In the current study, the allometric mass-exponent for breathing frequency was -0.125 for aqautic and semi-aquatic mammals, compared with -0.302 in terrestrial mammals (Table 2). There are several potential reasons for these differences. In past studies, data collection was not controlled for fasting state and came from a wide range of sources such as animals in human care, laboratory studies and results from wild animals where neither fasting state, body mass, age/maturity, or pregnancy status were known (He et al., 2023; Mortola and Limoges, 2006). Another potential reason could be the species included as aquatic mammals. For example, in this study we did not consider capybara to be an aquatic species, and the data set in the current study did not include any otter species or the polar bear. As these species had higher breathing frequencies than expected from the results in the current study, this may have increased the slope of the relationship in the past studies. When overlaying the results from the past studies on the regression line obtained in the current study, it can be observed that the results from the earlier studies fall above the regression lines for aquatic and semi aquatic mammals. This highlights the importance of carefully selecting the data depending on the research question. For example, the allometric scaling of BMR is used in comparative veterinary medicine to estimate drug dosage in species for where there is little or no information. However, during general anesthesia, the mode of ventilation and anesthetic dose may also depend on the individual species mode of breathing (Le-Bert et al., 2024).

The results presented here highlight how comparative respiratory physiology may provide useful for comparative medicine and wildlife conservation. Breathing frequency is relatively easy to measure and is a potentially useful index for respiratory health and overall stress (Divers, 2008). However, this requires measurements that define baseline values, which may be logistically challenging when dealing with larger, exotic, and difficult-to-study species (He et al., 2023). In the current study, collaboration with several institutions that house terrestrial, semi-aquatic, and aquatic mammals permitted non-invasive data collection which provided baseline respiratory information that could be used to identify respiratory health in wild species. For example, respiratory disease is one of the most common causes for morbidity and mortality in cetaceans in both ehe wild animals and housed in managed care (Sharp et al., 2014; Sweeney and Ridgway, 1975; Venn-Watson et al., 2012). Respiratory disease is often masked and symptoms often occur when the disease has progressed to an advanced stage. Thus, breathing frequency may be a simple and useful method to evaluate respiratory health and stress. In poorly studied species, allometric extrapolation from related wild species may complement wildlife health assessments, , including habitat quality monitoring, climate change and human activities impact, and early management of potential disease outbreaks.

From a clinical point-of-view, empirical extrapolation of medical protocols or drug delivery is already common practice but may result in problems when extrapolating between species (Freitas and Carregaro, 2013; Mahmood, 2007). Clinicians often use allometric scaling of BMR to estimate drug dose or other clinical assessments, while species specific physiological details, such as respiratory rate, are often ignored (Freitas and Carregaro, 2013; Mahmood, 2007). The allometric relationship presented here, using data collected on animals with a basal definition, provides a complementary method to evaluate baseline respiratory physiology, which reduces the risk of medical extrapolation, improving safety and efficacy. Moreover, understanding how breathing frequency scales with size between species permits an initial evaluation of respiratory and systematic health. This may be particularly valuable in a field setting approach, where rapid triage and prioritization is required before a more detailed comprehensive diagnostis of respiratory or other underlying disorders are possible.

***5. Conclusion***

In the current study, we collected breathing frequency the morning after an overnight fast in adult, inactive mammals species covering a 2.5-fold body mass range. We divided the mammals into terrestrial, semi-aquatic, and aquatic based on their life style. The results suggest that there are differences in the allomertric relationship between breathing frequency and body mass, and both the slope (allometric constant) and intercept are different between aquatic/semi-aquatic mammals and terrestrial mammals, but not between aquatic and semi-aquatic mammals. The results in aquatic/semi-aquatic mammals differ substantially from previous studies, which may reflect differences in studies on fed and fasted mammals. These data may provide useful baseline values for estimating respiratroy frequency in exotic, and large species where controlled studies are difficult, and could help with conservation management of threatened species.

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**Glossary**

Tables

Table 1. Summary of all orders, genus and species of terrestrial, semi-aquatic and aquatic mammals with range of body mass (*M*b) and breathing frequency (*f*R). Superscripted number in parenthesis represent number of terrestrial, semi-aquatic, and aquatic species for each order.

|  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **Order** | **Family** | **Genus** | **Species** | ***M*b (kg)** | ***f*R (breaths • min-1)** |
| Artiodactyla | 6 | 15 | 15(7,0,8) | 35.5-3690 | 0.2-45.2 |
| Carnivora | 3 | 9 | 12(4,8,0) | 15-414 | 0.6-42.6 |
| Perissodactyla | 2 | 2 | 2(2,0,0) | 184-2200 | 4.4-22.5 |
| Proboscidea | 1 | 1 | 1(1,0,0) | 3340-5520 | 1.8-9.7 |
| Rodentia | 1 | 1 | 1(1,0,0) | 43-55 | 22.8-44.3 |
| Sirenia | 1 | 1 | 2(0,0,2) | 200-2000 | 0.2-1.6 |
| All | 14 | 29 | 34(15,8,8) | 15-5520 | 0.2-45.2 |

Table 2. Parameter estimate (± SE), Z-value (and corresponding P-value), c2 for Type II Wald statistics (and corresponding P-value) from linear mixed model with log10-transformed breathing frequency (breaths · min-1, log10*f*R) as a dependent variable, and log10-transformed body mass (kg, log10*M*b), and temperature (°C) as independent continuous variables, and habitat (terrestrial, semi-aqautic and aquatic), activity level (1-rest, 2- limited/minimal activity, 3-active), location (whether the individual was measured on *land* or in *water*), and a cross-term log10*M*b and habitat to test for differences in slopes.

|  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Parameter |  | Parameter estimate ± SE | Z-value (P-value) | c2 (P-value) |
| Intercept |  | 0.509 ± 0.151 | 3.362 (0.00077) |  |
| log10*M*b |  | -0.125 ± 0.046 | -2.738 (<0.0062) | 24.5 (< 0.0001) |
| Habitat | Semi-Aquatic | 0.104 ± 0.186 | 0.558 (0.577) | 186.1 (< 0.0001) |
| Terrestrial | 1.257 ± 0.194 | 6.472 (<0.0001) |
| Activity level | 2 | 0.081 ± 0.010 | 7.949 (< 0.0001) | 110.5 (< 0.0001) |
| 3 | 0.171±0.018 | 9.498 (< 0.0001) |  |
| Locationwater |  | -0.068 ± 0.025 | -2.752 (0.0059) | 7.57 (0.0059) |
| Temperature |  | -0.0004 ± 0.0012 | -0.323 (0.747) | 0.104 (0.747) |
| log10*M*b x habitat | Semi-aquatic | 0.054 ± 0.074 | 0.726 (0.468) | 8.41 (0.015) |
| Terrestrial | -0.178 ± 0.076 | -2.336 (0.0195) |

Table 3. Post-hoc testing (t-ratio and P-value) for differences in slopes between log10-transformed body mass (log10*M*b) and habitat (terrestrial, semi-aquatic and aquatic). Shaded cells indicate the habitats for which the t-ratio and P-value are comparing.

|  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Habitat | Paramter estimate ± SE | t-ratio (P-value) | | |
| Terrestrial | -0.303 ± 0.062 | 2.754 (0.016) |  | 2.336 (0.051) |
| Semi-aquatic | -0.071 ± 0.058 |  | -0.726 (0.785) |  |
| Aquatic | -0.125 ± 0.046 |  |  |  |

**Figures**

**Figure 1.** Instantaneous

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