

Allometric Scaling of Chemical Restraint Associated with Inhalant Anesthesia in Giant Anteaters

Authors: Carregaro, Adriano Bonfim, Gerardi, Patrícia Molina, and Honsho, Daniel Kan

Source: Journal of Wildlife Diseases, 45(2) : 547-551

Published By: Wildlife Disease Association

URL: <https://doi.org/10.7589/0090-3558-45.2.547>

BioOne Complete (complete.BioOne.org) is a full-text database of 200 subscribed and open-access titles in the biological, ecological, and environmental sciences published by nonprofit societies, associations, museums, institutions, and presses.

Your use of this PDF, the BioOne Complete website, and all posted and associated content indicates your acceptance of BioOne's Terms of Use, available at www.bioone.org/terms-of-use.

Usage of BioOne Complete content is strictly limited to personal, educational, and non - commercial use. Commercial inquiries or rights and permissions requests should be directed to the individual publisher as copyright holder.

BioOne sees sustainable scholarly publishing as an inherently collaborative enterprise connecting authors, nonprofit publishers, academic institutions, research libraries, and research funders in the common goal of maximizing access to critical research.

Allometric Scaling of Chemical Restraint Associated with Inhalant Anesthesia in Giant Anteaters

Adriano Bonfim Carregaro,^{1,3} Patrícia Molina Gerardi,² and Daniel Kan Honsho² ¹ Department of Small Animal Medicine, Rural Science Center, Federal University of Santa Maria, UFSM, Av. Roraima 1000, Santa Maria, RS, 97105-900 Brazil; ² Veterinary Hospital, University of Franca, Av. Doutor Armando Sales Oliveira 201, Franca, SP, 14404-600 Brazil; ³ Corresponding author (email:carregaro@small.ufsm.br)

ABSTRACT: This study describes the use of allometric scaling in five giant anteaters (*Myrmecophaga tridactyla*) submitted for osteosynthesis, gastrostomy, or treatment of burns. Chemical restraint was performed by allometric scaling using the dog as a reference; acepromazine (0.06 mg/kg), diazepam (0.3 mg/kg), ketamine (8.8 mg/kg), and buprenorphine (5.9 µg/kg) were combined, and the animals were maintained under isoflurane anesthesia. Heart rate, respiratory rate, hemoglobin oxygen saturation, temperature, and anesthetic depth were measured. Postoperative treatment consisted of ketoprofen, buprenorphine, and cefotiofur. Anesthetic induction was obtained in 10–15 min, achieving muscle relaxation and absence of excitement. Physiologic parameters were stable during the procedures, and postoperative treatment was effective. Allometric scaling was effective for chemical restraint and postoperative treatment.

Key words: Allometric scaling, chemical restraint, giant anteater, inhalant anesthesia, *Myrmecophaga tridactyla*.

The giant anteater (*Myrmecophaga tridactyla*) belongs to the extant order Xenarthrans, family Myrmecophagidae, and is found from Central America to South America (Eisenberg and Redford, 1999). The species is considered to be vulnerable (IUCN, 2007), particularly to farmland encroachment, fires in animal reserves (Silveira et al., 1999), and road kills (Fischer, 1997), all of which account for this species frequently being submitted to veterinary clinics. Myrmecophagids have morphologic characteristics that are different from any other mammalian family, making it a challenge to define treatment regimens and to find reliable data on physiologic variations, especially as relate to anesthesia states. Allometric

scaling allows the approximation of drug doses for wild animals based on those used in domestic animals (Sedgwick et al., 1991). This is accomplished using mathematical calculations based on physiologic parameters that compare animals of differing sizes and metabolic rates.

This study reports the effectiveness and safety of the dose usage of several drugs previously extrapolated from the dog (*Canis familiaris*), by allometric scaling; drugs were applied to the giant anteater to execute chemical restraint, analgesia, and antibiotic therapy in several surgical procedures.

The study involved five adult giant anteaters, weighing 27.8 ± 4.6 kg, which were brought to the Veterinary Hospital of the University of Franca by forest rangers of São Paulo State, Brazil. The animals were transported in restraint boxes and their weight was determined; sex was not determined due to the difficulty in differentiation. The animals were subjected to osteosynthesis ($n=3$), gastrostomy ($n=1$), and curettage and cleansing of wounds caused by burn ($n=1$).

After 12 hr fasting, animals were chemically restrained by intramuscular (IM) administration of the drugs via blow dart. Doses were calculated by allometric scaling using a 20-kg dog as the reference factor. To facilitate the achievement of a fixed-dose/kilogram for giant anteaters, it was standardized for a target animal weighing 40 kg. The following allometric parameters and formulas were needed to calculate drug dosages: W =weight of the

TABLE 1. Drugs used in giant anteaters (*Myrmecophaga tridactyla*) obtained by allometric scaling with the dog (*Canis familiaris*) as a reference.

Parameter	<i>Canis familiaris</i>		<i>Myrmecophaga tridactyla</i>	
Weight (W; kg)	20		40	
SMEC = $K(W^{-0.25})^a$	33.17		19.52	
	Dose (ref)	Dose factor (Dose/SMEC)	Dose factor (dog-ref.)	Target dose (DF×SMEC)
Acepromazine (mg/kg)	0.1	0.003	0.003	0.06
Diazepam (mg/kg)	0.5	0.015	0.015	0.3
Ketamine (mg/kg)	15	0.452	0.452	8.8
Buprenorphine (µg/kg)	10	0.301	0.301	5.9
Ketoprofen (mg/kg)	1	0.030	0.030	0.6
Ceftiofur (mg/kg)	4.4	0.132	0.132	2.6

^a SMEC=Specific minimum energy cost (SMEC); K=constant: dog=70, giant anteater=49.

animal in kg; K=group constant (placental mammals=70; marsupials and edentates=49); specific minimum energy cost (SMEC; Kcal/kg per day)= $K(W_{kg}^{-0.25})$; dose factor (dog)=drug dose (dog)/SMEC (dog); target dose=dose factor (dog)×SMEC (target animal).

Chemical restraint was based on the association of acepromazine (Acepran®, Univet, Fozdo Igucu, Brazil), diazepam (Compaz®, Cristália, São Paulo, Brazil), and ketamine (Dopalen®, Vetbrands, Paulínia, Brazil) (IM); analgesia was based on buprenorphine (Temgesic®, Schering-Plough, Rio de Janeiro, Brazil) and ketoprofen (Ketofen®, Merial, Campinas, Brazil; IM); and antibiotic therapy constituted of ceftiofur (Excenel®, Pfizer, São Paulo, Brazil; IM; Table 1). Anesthetic maintenance proceeded with isoflurane (Isoforine®, Cristália), diluted in 100% oxygen, via facial mask in a semi closed-circuit system with a calibrated vaporizer. Hydration was maintained with 10 ml/kg per hr of 0.9% saline solution after puncture of the saphenous vein with a 20 G catheter, and body temperature was maintained using a thermal mattress.

The following parameters were monitored during the procedures: heart rate (HR) using electrodes positioned on the arms and legs (lead II; Ecafis®, TEB, São Paulo, Brazil); respiratory rate (*f*) based on

thoracic movements; hemoglobin oxygen saturation (SpO₂; Pulse oximeter, Nellcor, Boulder, Colorado) using a tongue sensor on the ear; rectal temperature (T°); and anesthetic depth, which was mainly characterized by eye rotation and the lack of palpebral reflex. Postsurgical treatment was based on buprenorphine every 24 hr and ketoprofen and ceftiofur every 48 hr, with intervals also established by allometric scaling using the dose factor as well as the time factor. Statistical analyses were performed by an analysis of variance for paired samples followed by Dunnett's test for comparisons to baseline levels (beginning of inhalant anesthesia). Differences were considered significant when *P*<0.05. All results were expressed as means±standard deviation.

The latency period for chemical restraint was between 10 and 15 min, after which adequate muscle relaxation and absence of undesirable effects, such as excitement or convulsion, were achieved. The procedures lasted 110–160 min with an average rate of isoflurane of 1.1±0.1V%. During the procedures, HR was maintained at 58±4 beats per min (bpm), *f* at 5±2 movements per min (mpm), SpO₂ at 93±0.5%, and a rectal T° of 32.0±0.4 C (Table 2). None of the parameters differed from their baseline values (0 min) except SpO₂, at 10–70 min.

TABLE 2. Physiological parameters of giant anteaters (*Myrmecophaga tridactyla*) submitted to isoflurane anesthesia.

Parameter ^b	Minutes ^a															
	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	100	120	140	160			
HR	61±19	54±12	53±12	59.2±17	50.5±12	50±9	56±5	55±2	61±18	59±11	56±16	53±10	57±12			
f	5±0.8	5±1.0	4±1.0	4±1.3	5±1.9	5±1.5	4±1.1	4±0.9	4±0.8	6±3	9±6	5±2	5±1			
SpO ₂	91±0.7	96±0.7*	94±0.0*	94±0.0*	93±0.7*	94±1.4*	93±0.0*	94±0.0*	93±0.7	92±1.4	92±0.0	92±0.3	92±0.8			
T [°]	32.4±0.6	32.4±0.6	32.4±0.8	32.2±0.5	32.1±0.4	32.0±0.4	31.9±0.4	31.9±0.3	31.9±0.4	31.9±0.4	31.8±0.4	31.8±0.6	31.8±0.4			
Iso V%	0.9±0.2	1.1±0.6	1.1±0.3	1.1±0.3	1.1±0.3	1.1±0.3	1.2±0.9	1.0±0.7	1.3±0.6	1.2±0.5	1.0±0.4	1.1±0.1	1.0±0.0			

^a * = Statistical difference in relation of zero minute.

^b HR = heart rate; f = respiratory rate; SpO₂ = hemoglobin oxygen saturation; T[°] = rectal temperature; Iso V% = rate of isoflurane.

In addition, palpebral reflex, which was usually absent during the procedures, and eye rotation were evaluated. It is stressed that this species shows medialization of the eye, which is very similar to that seen in horses. We also evaluated for superficialization such as limb or head movement. Their nocturnal habits did not permit the evaluation of recovery time with precision; however, all animals readily moved around in the stall and searched for food at night. During the postoperative period, no infections were observed on the surgical wounds, and the animals subjected to osteosynthesis did not show movement restriction.

To our knowledge, cases concerning giant anteater anesthesia are relatively scarce, especially regarding procedures that use allometric scaling. For successful chemical and physical restraint, anatomic and physiologic characteristics of this family must be taken into consideration. The safety of the attending personnel is very important, considering that these animals have powerful claws. Due to their heterothermic characteristic, their restraint should be avoided during cold days or on days of abrupt temperature changes (Miranda and Costa, 2006).

Ketamine in edentates is recommended by Gillespie (1993) at a dose of 10–20 mg/kg. The exclusive use of ketamine should be avoided as it can cause catatonia and involuntary movements and, thus, it is recommended that ketamine be combined with 0.1 mg/kg diazepam. According to the same author, the use of xylazine should be avoided due to the risk of regurgitation, which could promote obstruction of the airways; this is very dangerous because orotracheal intubation is impractical. The choice of combining diazepam with ketamine occurred due to hypotension caused by xylazine, as already described in other species (Haskins et al., 1986; Queiroz-Neto et al., 2000). Acepromazine was added to potentiate the dissociative anesthesia employed. The chemical restraint used proved to be

effective, as the latency period was relatively short, and there were no undesirable effects such as agitation, catalepsy, or even convulsion. The anesthetic maintenance with isoflurane offered freedom with regard to surgery time. Nunes et al. (2006) indicated halothane or isoflurane as inducers (3–5 V%) and for anesthetic maintenance (1–2 V%) in these animals. The animals remained anesthetized with minimal vaporization, as recommended by Nunes et al. (2006), and with minimal physiologic alterations, suggesting an effective analgesic therapy which enhanced the inhalant anesthesia.

Although there are no solid analgesic treatment parameters for giant anteaters, it is presumed that the procedures in this report cause noxious stimulation. For this, an opioid and anti-inflammatory therapy was established. Buprenorphine was used due to its prolonged action, as verified in other species (Robertson et al., 2003; Carregaro et al., 2007); a key point in postoperative treatment is decreasing physical restraints after surgeries. It is believed that the doses and intervals of buprenorphine and ketoprofen, for 7 days, were sufficient because the animals moved normally in the stall in the postoperative period; and that the ceftiofur was effective in infection control as well. Although there are other cases of opioid use in edentates (armadillos), it was used only as chemical restraint (Deem and Fiorello, 2002). The latter cited authors affirm that a combination of fentanyl and droperidol, at doses equivalent for dogs, results in unsatisfactory restraint and prolonged recovery time. Gillespie (1993) recommends 0.8 and 1.2 mg of etorphine in edentates, a dose with which he obtained excellent restraint without showing spontaneous movements and catatonia.

Physiologic parameters were unchanged during the procedures, in spite of the oscillation of SpO₂. The low basal values were probably due to the chemical restraint, hindering the exchange of gases. After starting a 100% O₂ supply, SpO₂

values were acceptable, although always just below the lower limit of the normoxia range (McDonell and Kerr, 2007). Due to the impossibility of intubation, it is possible that the mask might have accumulated expired CO₂ over time, reducing the rate of inspired O₂ (Casati et al., 1998). Meanwhile, hypothermic patients (in this case a physiologic situation) would be at lower risk due to the low tissue metabolism (McDonell and Kerr, 2007). The stability, as well as the medialization, of the eye was a good indication of satisfactory anesthetic depth. However, HR and *f* values remained below those reported by Deem and Fiorello (2002; HR=110–160 bpm, *f* =10–30 mpn), probably due to the inhalant anesthesia. Body temperature oscillated between 31 and 32 C, staying in the physiologic range of the species (Deem and Fiorello, 2002).

It can be concluded that the use of allometric scaling of chemical restraint and postoperative care was effective and safe because the animals did not show any significant physiologic changes during the procedures, and they showed good anesthetic recovery, seeing that they searched for food and walked normally in the postoperative period.

LITERATURE CITED

- CARREGARO, A. B., S. P. L. LUNA, M. I. MATAQUEIRO, AND A. QUEIROZ-NETO. 2007. Effects of buprenorphine on nociception and spontaneous locomotor activity in horses. *American Journal of Veterinary Research* 68: 246–250.
- CASATI, A., G. FANELLI, AND G. TORRI. 1998. Physiological dead space/tidal volume ratio during face mask, laryngeal mask, and cuffed oropharyngeal airway spontaneous ventilation. *Journal of Clinical Anesthesia* 10: 652–655.
- DEEM, S. L., AND C. V. FIORELLO. 2002. Capture and immobilization of free-ranging edentates. In *Zoological restraint and anesthesia*, D. Heard (ed.). IVIS, Ithaca, New York. <http://www.ivis.org>. Accessed 12 December 2007.
- EISENBERG, J. F., AND K. H. REDFORD. 1999. *Mammals of the Neotropics: The central Neotropics: Ecuador, Peru, Bolivia, Brazil*, Vol. 3. University of Chicago Press, Chicago, Illinois. 609 pp.
- FISCHER, W. A. 1997. Efeitos da BR-262 na

- mortalidade de vertebrados silvestres: Síntese naturalística para conservação da região do Pantanal, MS. Tese de mestrado em Ciências Biológicas/Ecologia, Universidade Federal do Mato Grosso do Sul. Campo Grande, Mato Grosso do Sul, Brasil. 44 pp.
- GILLESPIE, D. S. 1993. Edentata: Diseases. *In* Zoo and wild animal medicine—Current therapy, M. E. Fowler (ed.). W. B. Saunders Company Ltd., Philadelphia, Pennsylvania. pp. 304–309.
- HASKINS, S. C., J. D. PATZ, AND T. B. FARVER. 1986. Xylazine and xylazine/ketamine in dogs. *American Journal of Veterinary Research* 47: 636–641.
- IUCN. 2007. Red list categories. Gland: International Union for the Conservation of Nature and Natural Resources. <http://www.redlist.org>. Accessed 12 December 2007.
- MCDONELL, W. N., AND C. L. KERR. 2007. Respiratory system. *In* Lumb and Jones' veterinary anesthesia and analgesia, W. J. Tranquilli, J. C. Thurmon, and K. A. Grimm (eds.). Blackwell Publishing, Ames, Iowa. pp. 117–151.
- MIRANDA, F., AND A. M. COSTA. 2006. Xenarthra (Tamanduá, Tatu, Preguia). *In* Tratado de animais selvagens—Medicina veterinária, S. Z. Cubas, J. C. R. Silva, and J. L. Catão-Dias (eds.). Editora Roca, São Paulo, Brasil. pp. 402–414.
- NUNES, A. L. V., M. L. CRUZ, AND S. R. G. CORTOPASSI. 2006. Anestesiologia. *In* Tratado de animais selvagens—Medicina veterinária, S. Z. Cubas, J. C. R. Silva and J. L. Catão-Dias (eds.). Editora Roca, São Paulo, Brasil. pp. 1040–1067.
- QUEIROZ-NETO, A., A. B. CARREGARO, G. ZAMUR, J. D. HARKINS, T. TOBIN, M. I. MATAQUEIRO, AND S. C. GONALVES. 2000. Effect of amitraz and xylazine on some physiological variables of horses. *Arquivo Brasileiro de Medicina Veterinária e Zootecnia* 52: 27–32.
- REECE, W. O. 1993. Respiration in mammals. *In* Dukes' physiology of domestic animals, 11th Edition, H. H. Dukes, M. J. Swenson, and W. O. Reece (eds.). Cornell University Press, Ithaca, New York. pp. 263–293.
- ROBERTSON, S. A., P. M. TAYLOR, D. B. X. LASCELLES, AND M. J. DIXON. 2003. Changes in thermal threshold response in eight cats after administration of buprenorphine, butorphanol and morphine. *Veterinary Record* 11: 462–465.
- SEDGWICK, C. J. 1991. Allometrically scaling the database for vital sign assessment used in general anesthesia of zoological species. *In* Proceedings: American Association of Zoo Veterinarians, USA, pp. 360–369.
- SILVEIRA, L., F. H. G. RODRIGUES, A. T. D. J'ACOMO, AND J. A. DINIZ-FILHO. 1999. Impact of wildfires on the megafauna of Emas National Park, central Brazil. *Oryx* 33: 108–114.

Received for publication 18 April 2008.