# Reduction of metabolism during hibernation and daily torpor in mammals and birds: temperature effect or physiological inhibition?

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Summary. The present study addresses the controversy of whether the reduction in energy metabolism during torpor in endotherms is strictly a physical effect of temperature  $(Q_{10})$  or whether it involves an additional metabolic inhibition. Basal metabolic rates (BMR; measured as oxygen consumption,  $V_{0}$ , metabolic rates during torpor, and the corresponding body temperatures  $(T_{\rm b})$  in 68 mammalian and avian species were assembled from the literature (n=58) or determined in the present study (n=10). The Q<sub>10</sub> for change in  $\dot{V}_{0,n}$ between normothermia and torpor decreased from a mean of 4.1 to 2.8 with decreasing  $T_{\rm h}$  from 30 to <10 °C in hibernators (species that show prolonged torpor). In daily heterotherms (species that show shallow, daily torpor) the  $Q_{10}$  remained at a constant value of 2.2 as  $T_{\rm b}$  decreased. In hibernators with a  $T_{\rm b}$  <10 °C, the Q<sub>10</sub> was inversely related to body mass. The increase of mass-specific metabolic rate with decreasing body mass, observed during normothermia (BMR), was not observed during torpor in hibernators and the slope relating metabolic rate and mass was almost zero. In daily heterotherms, which had a smaller  $Q_{10}$ than the hibernators, no inverse relationship between the  $Q_{10}$  and body mass was observed, and consequently the metabolic rate during torpor at the same  $T_{\rm b}$  was greater than that of hibernators. These findings show that the reduction in metabolism during torpor of daily heterotherms and large hibernators can be explained largely by temperature effects, whereas a metabolic inhibition in addition to temperature effects may be used by small hibernators to reduce energy expenditure during torpor.

## Introduction

Torpor in mammals and birds is expressed by a reduction of body temperature  $(T_{\rm b})$  and metabolism. During hibernation (prolonged torpor)  $T_{\rm b}$ may be lowered by more than 35 °C and heat production is only a small fraction of that in normothermic animals which have a  $T_{\rm b}$  of 30-40 °C (Kayser 1961; Lyman et al. 1982). The torpor bouts of these hibernators last for one or two weeks and are interrupted by spontaneous arousals with short normothermic (<24 h) periods throughout the hibernation period (Twente et al. 1977; French 1982; Barnes et al. 1986). In contrast to hibernation, daily torpor always lasts for less than a day, and both  $T_{\rm b}$  and metabolic rate of these daily heterotherms are maintained at higher values than in hibernators (MacMillen 1965; Morhardt 1970; Nagel 1985; Geiser 1986a).

The reduction of energy metabolism during torpor is substantial. Malan (1980; 1986) argues that the low values of metabolism cannot be explained by temperature effects alone, because the  $Q_{10}$  of 3.6 ( $Q_{10}$  is the change of rate over a 10 °C temperature range) for oxygen consumption rates between normothermia and hibernation in the mammalian species measured by Kayser (1964), is considerably greater than the  $Q_{10}$  of 2–3 that characterises biological reactions in general. In his opinion the low metabolic rates during torpor can only be explained by an additional inhibition to the temperature-induced reduction of metabolism. However, Snapp and Heller (1981) who carefully analyzed temperature effects on energy metabolism in hibernating ground squirrels obtained "normal" biological Q10's between 2 and 3 and concluded that temperature alone explains the reduction of metabolism during torpor.

To resolve these opposing views I compared

Abbreviation: BMR basal metabolic rate

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metabolic rates during normothermia with those in torpor of a large number of heterothermic mammal and bird species to determine if specific differences in  $Q_{10}$  may explain the apparent contradiction. To resolve whether there is some pattern to interspecific differences I divided the species into two groups: (i) the hibernators, which have a very substantial reduction of metabolism during torpor and (ii) the daily heterotherms which have relatively high metabolic rates during periods of torpor. Because high  $Q_{10}$ 's were observed mainly in small species and in animals that were in torpor at relatively high body temperatures, the metabolic rates and Q10's in hibernators and daily heterotherms were also compared for correlations between body mass and the reduction of metabolism during torpor, and for changes of  $Q_{10}$  with body temperature during torpor.

#### Material and methods

Body temperatures ( $T_b$ ) and rates of oxygen consumption ( $\dot{V}_{0,2}$ ) during normothermia and torpor in 60 mammalian and 8 avian species were compared in the present study. Data from measurements obtained in the present study were combined with values from the literature (Appendices 1–3). Animals were divided into 'hibernators' (species that show prolonged torpor, n=36) and 'daily heterotherms' (species that show shallow, daily torpor, n=32).

The  $\dot{V}_{O_2}$  of normothermic animals were used in the comparison only if they had been determined within the thermoneutral zone (basal metabolic rate, BMR). In those mammals for which no BMR data were available, the standard metabolic rate was calculated for the given mass using the equations of Hayssen and Lacy (1985) for the corresponding order or, where possible, family. In several species BMR data were available for individuals that differed in body mass from those used in the measurement of  $\dot{V}_{O_2}$  during torpor. In these cases BMR values were mass-corrected:

 $\log_{10} BMR_1 = b (\log_{10} Mass_1 - \log_{10} Mass_2) + \log_{10} BMR_2$  (1)

where '2 subscript' corresponds to the measured value of BMR (ml  $O_2/g$  h) and body mass (g) and '1' to the body mass to which BMR was corrected; the slope *b* was taken from the equations of Hayssen and Lacy (1985) for the particular order or, where possible, family.

BMR,  $T_{\rm b}$  of normothermic resting animals, and  $\dot{V}_{\rm O_2}$  of animals that were torpid at different air temperatures  $(T_a)$  and  $T_{\rm b}$ 's were used to calculate the Q<sub>10</sub> between normothermia and torpor. Only species that lower  $T_b$  below 30 °C and decrease  $\dot{V}_{0}$ , during torpor below BMR were included in the comparison. The  $\dot{V}_{O_2}$ 's of torpid animals were used in the comparison only if they were steady state values and had been determined within a  $T_a$  range in which  $T_b$  was not actively regulated (i.e.  $V_{0}$ , was not increased for thermoregulation during torpor) (see Heller and Hammel 1972). Metabolic rates were placed into 10 °C body temperature intervals over the respective range of  $T_{\rm b}$  during torpor of each group (hibernators, 0-30 °C; daily heterotherms 10-30 °C). The  $Q_{10}$  for the change in  $\dot{V}_{0_2}$  between different  $T_b$ 's during torpor were also determined (Appendix 3). In those torpid hibernators for which  $\dot{V}_{O_2}$  and  $T_a$  but no  $T_b$ measurements were available,  $T_{b}$  was assumed to be 1 °C above  $T_{\rm a}$  because this value represents the difference between  $T_{\rm b}$  and  $T_{\rm a}$  ( $\Delta T$ ) during prolonged torpor in many species (Lyman et al. 1982). A  $\Delta T$  of 1 °C was also assumed for torpid hummingbirds (Hainsworth and Wolf 1970). In all other daily heterotherms only  $T_{\rm b}$ 's that had been measured were included because the  $\Delta T$  in daily torpor is more variable than during hibernation (Morhardt 1970; Geiser and Baudinette 1987). The Q<sub>10</sub>'s of  $\dot{V}_{\rm O_2}$  between two body temperatures ( $T_{\rm b}$ 1 and  $T_{\rm b}$ 2) were calculated using the equation:

$$Q_{10} = \frac{R_1 \frac{10}{T_b 1 - T_b 2}}{R_2} \tag{2}$$

where  $R_1$  and  $R_2$  are the  $\dot{V}_{O_2}$  in ml O<sub>2</sub>/g h at the two different  $T_b$ 's.

Because metabolic rate during torpor appears to be related to body mass (exponent 0.92) (Kayser 1961) rather than surface area (exponent 0.67) (Bartholomew 1982) implying a lack of increase in mass-specific metabolism with decreasing mass during torpor, I investigated whether this is a general feature of torpor. For this comparison, the  $V_{O_2}$  in those hibernators in which  $\dot{V}_{O_2}$  was determined at  $T_b < 10$  °C ('deep' hibernation) were corrected to  $T_b = 5^{\circ} \text{ C}$  using the corresponding  $Q_{10}$  between normothermia and torpor of that particular species and  $T_{\rm b}$ . The  $\dot{V}_{\rm O_2}$  of all hibernators, regardless of the  $T_{\rm b}$  during torpor, was corrected to  $T_{\rm b} = 20$  °C and compared with the same values of the daily heterotherms. The Q<sub>10</sub> for the change of  $V_{O_2}$  between normothermia and torpor in each species and temperature was used to correct to the  $\dot{V}_{0}$ , at  $T_b = 20$  °C. If several measurements were available for one species the mean value was used for the statistical analyses.

The  $\dot{V}_{O_2}$  and  $T_b$  of marsupials measured in the present study were determined as described by Geiser (1986b); the rodents were measured as described by Geiser and Kenagy (1987).

## Results

The  $Q_{10}$ 's for the change of oxygen consumption between normothermia and torpor in hibernators changed significantly with body temperature during torpor (Table 1). The lowest  $Q_{10}$  of 2.85 was observed in hibernators that had  $T_b$ 's between 0 and 10 °C. The  $Q_{10}$  increased when  $T_b$  during torpor was >10 °C. The  $Q_{10}$  of  $\dot{V}_{O_2}$  between two different  $T_{b}$ 's during torpor in hibernators ( $Q_{10} =$  $2.3 \pm 0.6$ ; SD; Appendix 3) was significantly smaller than the smallest  $Q_{10}$  determined between normothermia and torpor at  $T_{\rm b} < 10 \,^{\circ}{\rm C} \, (P < 0.01;$ t-test). In contrast to the hibernators, no significant differences in the  $Q_{10}$  for  $\dot{V}_{O_2}$  between normothermia and in torpor at different  $T_{\rm b}$ 's could be detected in the daily heterotherms and the  $Q_{10}$ was less than in hibernators (Table 1). The  $Q_{10}$ 's for  $\dot{V}_{O_2}$  between two different  $T_b$ 's during torpor in daily heterotherms ( $Q_{10} = 2.6 \pm 0.9$ ; Appendix 3) was indistinguishable from hibernators  $(Q_{10} =$  $2.3 \pm 0.6$ ).

The  $Q_{10}$  for the change of  $\dot{V}_{O_2}$  between normothermia and torpor in hibernators that were torpid at  $T_b < 10$  °C showed an allometric relation-

**Table 1.** The  $Q_{10}$  for the change of oxygen consumption between normothermia and torpor in heterothermic endotherms

Group	<i>T</i> <sub>b</sub> -range in torpor (° C)	Q <sub>10</sub>	п
Hibernators	$\begin{array}{c} 0.1 - 10.0 \\ 10.1 - 20.0 \\ 20.1 - 30.0 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 2.85 \pm 0.58 \\ 3.71 \pm 1.22 \\ 4.11 \pm 1.49 \end{array}$	29 12 5
Daily heterotherms	10.1-20.0 20.1-30.0 10.1-30.0	$\begin{array}{c} 2.35 \pm 0.57 \\ 2.24 \pm 0.70 \\ 2.22 \pm 0.57 \end{array}$	20 16 33

The  $Q_{10}$  for the change of  $\dot{V}_{O_2}$  of hibernators (mean  $\pm$  SD) that were in torpor at different  $T_b$ 's differed significantly (oneway ANOVA: F=6.87; df=2,45; P<0.01). Because no such difference could be observed in the daily heterotherms (P>0.1; *t*-test) the  $Q_{10}$  of all measurements were combined for further analyses. The smallest  $Q_{10}$  of the hibernators at  $T_b$  0.1–10.0 °C was significantly greater than that in the daily heterotherms (P<0.001; *t*-test). If several measurements were available for one species the mean value was used for the statistical analysis. Data from Appendices 1 and 2. n = number of species

ship with body mass (Fig. 1, Table 2). Most  $Q_{10}$ 's were between 2 and 3 although the  $Q_{10}$  increased significantly with decreasing body mass. Only at a body mass <100 g,  $Q_{10}$ 's greater than 3 were observed. In contrast, the  $Q_{10}$  of daily heterotherms showed no significant correlation with body mass. Because the slope for  $Q_{10}$  and body mass was almost zero it was assumed that it was smaller than in the hibernators. However, birds that enter daily torpor may differ from mammals and small birds may have higher  $Q_{10}$ 's than larger species (Table 2). If the very large badger (*Taxidea taxus*) was excluded from the analysis the slope for  $Q_{10}$  and body mass in mammalian daily heterotherms was not affected.

Mass-specific BMR as a function of body mass of hibernators did not differ significantly from that in daily heterotherms (Fig. 2, Table 3) and the slope and intercept of BMR of all mammalian heterotherms was indistinguishable from that of mammals in general (Hayssen and Lacy 1985). The BMR of avian heterotherms was significantly greater than that of mammalian heterotherms in slope and intercept (Table 3; P < 0.01; t-test).

A substantial reduction in metabolism during torpor was observed in all species (Fig. 2, Table 4). A significant negative correlation between the mass-specific metabolic rate at  $T_b = 20$  °C and body mass was observed in both hibernators and daily heterotherms. However, the metabolic rate at  $T_b = 20$  °C was significantly higher (P < 0.001; *t*-test) in daily heterotherms than in hibernators (Fig. 2, Table 4). The slopes relating body mass and  $\dot{V}_{O_2}$  at  $T_b = 20$  °C in the two groups of heter-



**Fig. 1.** The Q<sub>10</sub> of energy metabolism  $(\dot{V}_{02})$  between normothermia and torpor in hibernators at  $T_b < 10$  °C and daily heterotherms. Each point represents the mean or a single determination of each species ( $\bullet$  mammals;  $\circ$  birds). Equations for the linear regressions are shown in Table 2

otherms were indistinguishable (Fig. 2; Table 4). The metabolic rate of hibernators at  $T_b = 5$  °C did not show a significant relationship with body mass (r<sup>2</sup>=0.07); the slope was almost zero and the mean oxygen consumption of all hibernators with a  $T_b$ of 5 °C was  $0.039 \pm 0.016$  ml O<sub>2</sub>/g h. In hibernators, the slope of the negative relationship between metabolic rate and body mass gradually decreased as  $T_b$  was lowered from normothermia (BMR) to 20 °C and from 20 to 5 °C (P < 0.01; *t*-test). In diurnal heterotherms no significant differences between the slope in mass-specific increase in  $\dot{V}_{O_2}$ during normothermia (BMR) and torpor could be observed (Fig. 2; Table 4).

# Discussion

The present study supports the view that metabolic inhibition during torpor is important for reduction



Fig. 2. The rate of oxygen consumption ( $\dot{V}_{0,2}$ ) of hibernators and daily heterotherms during normothermia (BMR,  $\bullet$ ), at  $T_b = 20$  °C (o), and at  $T_b = 5$  °C ( $\bullet$ ) for hibernators only. Equations for the linear regressions are shown in Tables 3 and 4

Table 2. The relationship	between body	y mass and the	$Q_{10}$ for the	change of l	Vo.	between	normothermia	and tor	por
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Group	$T_{b}$ -range in torpor (°C)	п	а	Ь	r <sup>2</sup>	Р
Hibernators	0.1–10	29	$3.82 \pm 0.19$	$-0.507 \pm 0.096$	0.51	< 0.001
Daily heterotherms	10.1-30	33	$2.53 \pm 0.21$	$-0.248 \pm 0.143$	0.08	> 0.07
Avian daily heterotherms	10.1-30	7	$4.05 \pm 0.84$	$-2.180 \pm 1.132$	0.42	>0.10
Mammalian daily heterotherms	10.1–30	26	$2.27\pm0.21$	$-0.093 \pm 0.132$	0.02	>0.10

Linear regressions were performed on log-transformed data and are described by the equation:  $Q_{10}=a+b \log_{10} Mass$  (g); (a intercept ±SE; b slope ±SE). Slope and intercept for hibernators were significantly greater than in daily heterotherms (P < 0.001; t-test). Avian daily heterotherms may differ from the mammals because they show a steep increase in  $Q_{10}$  with decreasing mass, but not enough species were available to obtain a significant correlation. Data from Appendices 1 and 2. n=number of species

Table 3. Allometric relationship between basal metabolic rate (BMR) and body mass in heterothermic mammals and birds

Group	n	а	b	r <sup>2</sup>	Р
Hibernators	26	$0.550 \pm 0.081$	$-0.326\pm0.036$	0.77	< 0.0001
Daily heterotherms	33	$0.664 \pm 0.052$	$-0.373 \pm 0.036$	0.77	< 0.0001
Mammalian heterotherms	51	$0.574 \pm 0.045$	$-0.333 \pm 0.024$	0.80	< 0.0001
Avian heterotherms	8	$0.833 \pm 0.111$	$-0.491 \pm 0.127$	0.71	< 0.005
All heterotherms	59	$0.635 \pm 0.040$	$-0.359\pm0.022$	0.82	< 0.0001

Only species in which BMR was measured (Appendices 1, 2) were included. Linear regressions were performed on log-transformed data and are described by the equation:  $\log_{10} BMR (ml O_2/g h) = a + b \log_{10} Mass (g)$ . Daily heterotherms did not differ significantly from hibernators in slope or intercept (*t*-test). Mammalian heterotherms had significantly smaller intercepts and slopes than avian heterotherms (P < 0.01; *t*-test). n = number of species; a = intercept  $\pm SE$ ; b = slope  $\pm SE$ 

of energy metabolism in many heterothermic endotherms. Because the  $Q_{10}$  for the change of  $\dot{V}_{O_2}$ between normothermia and torpor at high  $T_b$ 's is greater than 3 in hibernators it appears that temperature-induced reduction in the rate of biological reactions alone ( $Q_{10}$  2–3) cannot explain the low metabolism. One likely explanation for these high  $Q_{10}$ 's is temperature-independent metabolic inhibition. Nevertheless, a reduction of metabolism beyond temperature effects is not a general feature of torpor. The extent of metabolic reduction appears to depend on (i) pattern of torpor, (ii) body mass, and (iii) body temperature during torpor.

During deep hibernation ( $T_b < 10$  °C),  $Q_{10}$ 's greater than 3 were only observed in small species. Thus, for small hibernators a further inhibition in  $\dot{V}_{O_2}$  beyond the reduction induced by temperature is apparently necessary, because they lack the large

Group		n	а	b	r <sup>2</sup>	Р
Daily heterotherms Hibernators Hibernators	$T_{b} = 20 \text{ °C}$ $T_{b} = 20 \text{ °C}$ $T_{b} = 5 \text{ °C}$	33 36 29	$-0.023 \pm 0.085 \\ -0.428 \pm 0.069 \\ -1.328 \pm 0.086$	$-0.263 \pm 0.059 \\ -0.206 \pm 0.032 \\ -0.059 \pm 0.042$	0.39 0.54 0.068	<0.0001 <0.0001 >0.1

Table 4. Allometric relationship between body mass and oxygen consumption during torpor in heterothermic mammals and birds

Linear regressions were performed on log-transformed data and are described by the equation:  $\log_{10} \dot{V}_{O_2}$  (ml  $O_2/g$  h)=a+b  $\log_{10}$  Mass (g). The  $\dot{V}_{O_2}$ 's were corrected to the  $T_b$  using the corresponding  $Q_{10}$  values for each species and temperature. For correction of  $\dot{V}_{O_2}$  to  $T_b=5$  °C only species with  $T_b<10$  °C were included. For correction to  $T_b=20$  °C all species were included and the mean of several determinations was used for the regression. The  $\dot{V}_{O_2}$  during daily torpor was significantly higher than during hibernation at  $T_b=20$  °C (P<0.001; t-test), the slopes were indistinguishable. n=number of species; a=intercept $\pm$ SE; b=slope $\pm$ SE

chemical energy stores in form of fat which are available to big hibernators. While chemical energy also can be stored by herbivores and granivores as food caches, this form of energy storage is not available to insectivorous species such as bats, which rely during hibernation solely on internal energy supplies. Small species that are unable to cache food must therefore reduce energy expenditure during winter by use of energy saving mechanisms during hibernation. Moreover, small species have higher BMR's than large species. If the reduction of metabolism during torpor would be the same in small and large species the mass-dependent difference in BMR should still be present in torpid animals. This means that if the thermal sensitivity of  $V_{O_2}$  would not be a negative function of body mass, small species with their limited fat stores and high mass-specific metabolic rates would deplete energy reserves long before the end of the hibernating season.

In contrast to hibernators, daily heterotherms appear to be unable to reduce energy metabolism during torpor beyond the temperature-induced reductions of metabolic processes. Q<sub>10</sub> did not increase at small body mass and did not differ between high and low  $T_b$ 's during torpor. However, birds that show daily torpor may differ from mammals in this respect because they show a relatively steep increase in Q10 at small body masses (although the correlation was not significant because of small sample size. One must also consider difficulties in obtaining good BMR values in the very small hummingbirds which have extremely narrow thermo-neutral zones; high  $Q_{10}$ 's in the birds at very small masses may be artifacts of elevated BMR's). If metabolic inhibition is not available as an energy saving mechanism during daily torpor, small daily heterotherms also could achieve a decrease in daily energy expenditure by allowing  $T_{\rm b}$  to fall to lower temperatures or to stay torpid for longer periods than larger species. The occurrence of daily torpor is more opportunistic than

seasonal hibernation and may happen at any time of the year during periods of food shortages and cold temperatures (Lynch et al. 1978; Geiser and Baudinette 1987). Because of the short torpor duration and the relatively long activity periods between successive torpor episodes, daily heterotherms, in contrast to hibernators, appear to rely largely on external energy sources even when they use torpor frequently.

The difference in energy metabolism between diurnal heterotherms and hibernators also becomes apparent when the metabolic rates at  $T_{\rm h} =$ 20 °C are compared. Especially at small body mass the  $V_{0}$ , of the hibernators at  $T_{b} = 20$  °C is only about half that of the diurnal heterotherms, whereas no significant difference in mass-specific BMR was observed. These results suggest that differences in energy metabolism at  $T_{\rm b} = 20$  °C in the two groups of heterotherms are due to differences in the reduction of metabolic processes during torpor. Because the correlation between body mass and  $\dot{V}_{O_2}$  during torpor at  $T_b = 20$  °C is maintained in hibernators, but the slope is shallower than during normothermia, it appears that metabolic inhibition at high  $T_{b}$  in small species is more pronounced than in large hibernators. From  $T_b$  20 to 5 °C, the slope relating  $\dot{V}_{O_2}$  and body mass is further decreased suggesting that over this range of temperatures large species rely on temperature effects; the utilization of additional metabolic inhibition at this temperature seems to be inversely related to body mass (Fig. 1).

The  $Q_{10}$  for the change of  $\dot{V}_{O_2}$  over the temperature range between normothermia to torpor in the hibernators decreased with decreasing  $T_b$  in torpor. The  $Q_{10}$  of oxygen consumption during torpor at different  $T_b$ 's was smaller than the  $Q_{10}$ between normothermia and torpor at all temperatures. This observation indicates that metabolic inhibition mainly occurs at high  $T_b$ 's during entry into torpor, as previously suggested (Henshaw 1968). The  $Q_{10}$  determined between normothermia and torpor therefore does not represent a single slope but results from large  $Q_{10}$ 's at high  $T_b$ 's and small  $Q_{10}$ 's at low  $T_b$ 's.

Several studies report extremely high values of  $Q_{10}$  ( $Q_{10} > 5$ ) during entry into torpor. These reports do not, however, take into account that entry into torpor usually occurs at low  $T_a$  and the metabolic rate of a normothermic animal may be many times larger than the BMR. If an animal enters torpor at low  $T_a$  it abandons the maintenance of a large  $\Delta T$  between  $T_b$  and  $T_a$  (metabolic cost of thermoregulation) and the metabolic rate can fall to basal levels without lowering  $T_b$ . A further decrease in metabolism occurs with the passive cooling of the body. Therefore the high  $Q_{10}$  values during torpor entry at low  $T_a$  largely reflect the reduction in metabolism to BMR values rather than the reduction of  $\dot{V}_{O_2}$  by lowered  $T_b$ .

More direct evidence for metabolic inhibition than in endotherms is available for ectotherms. Dormant spadefoot toads (*Scaphiopus*) substantially reduce their metabolic rate when compared with awake individuals even under constant thermal conditions (Seymour 1973). Similarly, the oxygen consumption of the Australian arid zone crab *Holthuisana* was lowered when animals were transferred from hydrating to dehydrating conditions (MacMillen and Greenaway 1978). Thermally independent reduction in endotherms to this extent has not been observed to my knowledge.

The difference in metabolism during prolonged and daily torpor has some indirect implications. Duration of torpor is believed to be determined by production of metabolic wastes that cannot be excreted at low  $T_{b}$ 's or the depletion of nutrients that must be restored, and thus reflecting energy metabolism (Mrosovsky 1971; Lyman et al. 1982; French 1982). This view is supported by the increase in torpor duration that occurs when metabolic rate and  $T_{\rm b}$  are decreased (Twente et al. 1977; Geiser 1986b; Geiser and Kenagy 1987). If the rate of energy metabolism determines torpor duration, the lack of metabolic inhibition in daily heterotherms and therefore high production of metabolites may partially explain the limitation to daily torpor. At  $T_{\rm b}$ 's around 20 °C, i.e. those that are most frequent during daily torpor, torpor bouts in hibernators last only for 1-4 days in contrast to 1-2 weeks at  $T_b$ 's below 10 °C (Johansen and Krog 1959; Twente et al. 1977; French 1982; Geiser 1987). Because hibernators at that  $T_{\rm b}$  expend only half the energy of diurnal heterotherms a great deal of the difference in torpor duration in the two groups may be due to differences in metabolism during torpor. However, the slightly increasing mass-specific  $\dot{V}_{O_2}$  at low body masses at  $T_b = 5$  °C in hibernators does not support the view that longer torpor duration in small hibernators, when compared with larger species, may reflect their smaller mass-specific energy metabolism during torpor (French 1985).

The increased  $Q_{10}$  of energy metabolism during entry into torpor raises the question about biochemical mechanisms that may explain the proposed metabolic inhibition. Malan (1986) hypothesized that the enhanced reduction in  $\dot{V}_{O_2}$  is due to the increase in  $CO_2$  that is stored during entry into torpor (Snapp and Heller 1981) and the associated decrease in extracellular and intracellular pH at low  $T_{\rm b}$ . This respiratory acidosis should inhibit glycolytic and respiratory enzyme activities and therefore whole animal energy metabolism. The release of CO<sub>2</sub> during arousals (Snapp and Heller 1981) further supports this hypothesis. However, Hand and Somero (1983) suggest that inhibition by low pH of glycolytic enzymes may not inhibit the whole animal energy production, but shift the fuel from glucose to lipids for energy substrates during torpor. Furthermore, the pH modulation of brown fat respiration at a high temperature (Malan 1986) is unlikely to be the only explanation for the distinct reduction of metabolism at the low  $T_{\rm b}$ 's observed during torpor. While respiratory acidosis may contribute to reduction in metabolic activity, it is unlikely that changes in pH alone provide a satisfactory explanation for the extent of the metabolic reduction, and other short-term as well as long-term influences must be considered. For example, both glycolytic enzymes and mitochondrial respiratory enzymes have been shown to substantially increase  $Q_{10}$  during torpor as compared to active animals even under conditions of constant pH (Borgman and Moon 1976; Geiser and McMurchie 1984). Other possible mechanisms of energy savings are the increase in blood ketones during hibernation that may inhibit uptake of muscle glucose (Krilowicz 1985), or the low thyroid hormone concentrations during the hibernation season (Hulbert and Hudson 1976). The decrease in energy metabolism of hibernators that follows polyunsaturated dietary lipid treatment (Geiser and Kenagy 1987) is another example of metabolic reduction that is unlikely to be due to changes in cellular pH. These observations suggest that reduction of metabolism during hibernation is the result of a large number of factors which may operate on different time scales.

To my knowledge, the only example for a lack of exponential increase in mass-specific metabolism with body mass in animals is that of hibernators at low  $T_{\rm b}$ . The metabolism of normothermic hibernators increased exponentially as expected. Because it is not known why BMR scales with mass to the 3/4 power in animals a final conclusion about the scaling of metabolism with mass to the almost 1 power in torpid hibernators is not possible.

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Appendix 1. Body temperatures  $(T_b)$  and oxygen consumption  $(\dot{V}_{O_2})$  of hibernators (species that enter prolonged torpor) during normothermia and torpor and the  $Q_{10}$  for  $\dot{V}_{O_2}$  between the two states

Group Species	Т <sub>ь</sub> 1 (°С)	<i>Т</i> ь2 (°С)	BMR (ml	V <sub>O₂</sub> torpor O₂/g h)	Q <sub>10</sub>	Mass (g)	Source
Monotremes	1.1.1.						
Tachyglossus aculeatus	32.2	5.7	0.15	0.066	1.36	2800	Augee and Ealey (1968)
Marsupials							
Cercartetus nanus	34.9 34.9	11.6 20.1	0.86 0.86	0.19 0.21	1.92 2.6	@60 @60	Bartholomew and Hudson (1962)
Cercartetus concinnus	34.4 34.4 34.4	6.6 13.2 15.6	1.20 1.20 1.20	0.034 (4) 0.058 (2) 0.092 (3)	3.6 4.17 3.92	18.6 18.6 18.6	Present study; Geiser (1987) Present study; Geiser (1987) Present study; Geiser (1987)
Cercartetus lepidus	33.7 33.7 33.7	6.8 10.1 25.5	1.49 1.49 1.49	0.047 (2) 0.055 (3) 0.33 (2)	3.61 4.0 6.2	12.6 12.6 12.6	Present study; Geiser (1987) Present study; Geiser (1987) Present study; Geiser (1987)
Burramys parvus	36.1	6	0.83	0.063	2.35	44.3	Fleming (1985b)
Acrobates pygmaeus	34.9	7	1.08	0.07	2.66	14	Fleming (1985a)
Insectivores							
Erinaceus europaeus	35 35 35	5.2ª 16ª 7ª	0.433 0.357 0.47	0.016 0.011 0.022	3.0 6.2 2.98	@700 @700 @800	Thäti (1978) Thäti (1978) Hildwein and Malan (1970); Kayser (1964)
Tenrec ecaudatus	33	16.5	0.27	0.025	4.2	1220	Kayser (1964); Hildwein (1970)
	33	16.9	0.31	0.02	5.5	360	Kayser (1964); Hildwein (1970)
Setifer setosus	32	16.5	0.34	0.07	2.8	270	Kayser (1964); Hildwein (1972)
Bats							
Myotis lucifugus	37 37	2 2	2.0 1.43	0.022 0.022	3.6 3.3	5.2 5.2	Hock (1951) Hock (1951); Dodgen and Plood (1955)
	35 35	25 5	1.53 1.53	0.29 0.06	5.2 2.94	@6 @6	Henshaw (1968) Henshaw (1968)
Myotis myotis	37.5	4.5ª	1.45 <sup>b</sup>	0.04	2.96	25	Pohl (1961)
Pipistrellus pipistrellus	37	6ª	2.05 <sup>b</sup>	0.024	4.2	7.4	Kayser (1964)
Nyctalus noctula	37	5.3ª	1.47 <sup>b</sup>	0.03	3.4	23.8	Kayser (1964)
Eptesicus fuscus	36	10	2.0	0.1	3.2	10.4	Herreid and Schmidt-Nielsen (1966)

# Appendix 1 (continued)

Group Species	<i>Т</i> ь1 (°С)	<i>Т</i> ь2 (°С)	BMR (ml C	V <sub>O₂</sub> torpor O₂/g h)	Q <sub>10</sub>	Mass (g)	Source
Tadarida brasiliensis	36	10	1.2	0.1	2.6	16.9	Herreid and Schmidt-Nielsen (1966)
Barbastella barbastellus	37	4.5ª	2.08 <sup>b</sup>	0.04	3.37	7	Pohl (1961)
Rodents							
Cricetus cricetus	36.8	7.5ª	0.88	0.032	3.1	330	Kayser (1939, 1964)
Mesocricetus auratus	37	5	1.19 <sup>b</sup>	0.07	2.4	@90	Lyman (1948)
Zapus princeps	37.2 37.2	5.5 5.5	1.55 <sup>ь</sup> 1.66 <sup>ь</sup>	0.042 0.027	3.12 3.66	33.6 27.7	Cranford (1983) Cranford (1983)
Zapus hudsonicus	37.3 37.3	11ª 6ª	1.5 1.5	0.04 0.043	3.97 3.11	@25 22.6	Morrison and Ryser (1962); Muchalsky and Rybak (1978)
Glis glis	37.7	7ª	0.79	0.026	3.04	@200	Kayser (1939, 1961)
Eliomys quercinus	37	7.5ª	1.22 <sup>b</sup>	0.034	3.36	@70	Kayser (1964)
Muscardinus avellanarius	35.8 35.8	11ª 11ª	2.68 1.75 <sup>ь</sup>	0.04 0.04	5.45 4.59	23.5 23.5	Kayser (1939, 1964) Kayser (1939, 1964)
Marmota monax	37	7ª	0.27 <sup>b</sup>	0.032	2.04	@4000	Lyman (1958)
Marmota marmota	37	10.5	0.26	0.018	2.74	2385	Kayser (1939, 1964)
Marmota flaviventris	36.6	7.5	0.25	0.022	2.3	@2500	Florant and Heller (1977)
Spermophilus lateralis	36.5 37.2 36.2 37.4 37.8 37	9.5 10.9 9.3 13.9 5.4 9 <sup>a</sup>	0.82 0.629 0.598 0.867 1.159 0.85 <sup>b</sup>	0.064 0.068 0.068 0.084 0.045 0.03	2.6 2.3 2.2 2.7 2.8 3.2	<ul> <li>@200</li> <li>@200</li> <li>@200</li> <li>@200</li> <li>@200</li> <li>@200</li> <li>@200</li> </ul>	Snapp and Heller (1981) Snapp and Heller (1981) Snapp and Heller (1981) Snapp and Heller (1981) Snapp and Heller (1981) Steffen and Riedesel (1982)
Spermophilus saturatus	38	3.6	0.47°	0.031 (7)	2.2	257	Present study; Kenagy and Vleck (1982)
	38	5.3	0.47°	0.038 (7)	2.15	246	Present study; Kenagy and Vleck (1982)
	38	9.3	0.47°	0.048 (7)	2.21	257	Present study; Kenagy and Vleck (1982)
Spermophilus parryi	37	7ª	0.8	0.063	2.3	650	Hock (1960)
Spermophilus mohavensis	35.8	21.3	0.85	0.15	3.3	260	Bartholomew and Hudson (1960)
Spermophilus mexicanus	36.2	8	0.85 <sup>b</sup>	0.06	2.56	@200	Newman and Cade (1964)
Spermophilus tereticaudus	35 35 36	11 11 26	0.72 0.96 0.78	0.048 0.048 0.23	3.09 3.48 3.42	@125 @125 @125	Bickler (1984) Bickler (1984) Bickler (1984)
Spermophilus richardsonii	37.1 37.1	5ª 15ª	0.53° 0.53°	0.02 0.04	2.78 3.2	@400 @400	Wang (1978); Hudson and Deavers (1973)
Tamias striatus	38.2	7.0	1.03	0.06	2.51	87	Wang and Hudson (1971)
Eutamias amoenus	38	1.2	1.69	0.042	2.72	60	Kenagy and Vleck (1982); Geiser and Kenagy (1987)
Birds							
Phalaenoptilus nuttallii	37 37	20 10	0.788 0.788	0.086 0.05	3.68 2.77	35 35	Withers (1977) Withers (1977)

Values in parentheses indicate the number of individuals used in that measurement of  $\dot{V}_{O_2}$  and  $T_b$  during torpor  $T_b 1 =$  Body temperature during normothermia;  $T_b 2 =$  body temperature during torpor <sup>a</sup> Body temperature was calculated from given air temperatures + 1 °C <sup>b</sup> BMR was calculated from the equations of Hayssen and Lacy (1985) for the particular order or family

° BMR was mass corrected using the equations of Hayssen and Lacy (1985) for the particular order or family

Appendix 2. Body temperatures  $(T_b)$  and oxygen consumption  $(\dot{V}_{O_2})$  of daily heterotherms (species that enter daily torpor) during normothermia and torpor and the  $Q_{10}$  for  $\dot{V}_{O_2}$  between the two states

Group Species	<i>Т</i> <sub>b</sub> 1 (°С)	<i>Т</i> ь2 (°С)	BMR (ml	$\dot{V}_{\rm O_2}$ torpor ${\rm O_2/g}$ h)	Q10	Mass (g)	Source
Marsupials							
Marmosa sp.	34.7	16	1.4	0.25	2.51	13	Morrison and McNab (1962)
Sminthopsis crassicaudata	34.1	16.5	1.22	0.40 (2)	1.88	17.3	Present study; Geiser and
	34.3	18.3	1.20	0.27 (4)	2.54	17.7	Baudinette (1987) Present study; Geiser and Baudinette (1987)
	34.1	25.8	1.22	0.81 (4)	1.64	17.3	Present study; Geiser and Baudinette (1987)
Sminthopsis macroura	33.9	17.4 <sup>ª</sup>	1.02	0.57 (5)	1.42	22.0	Present study; Geiser and Baudinette (1987)
	34.0	12.7 <sup>d</sup>	1.03	0.29 (3)	1.81	26.9	Present study; Geiser and Baudinette (1987)
Sminthopsis murina	35	15	1.13	0.25	2.1	19	Geiser et al. (1984)
Antechinomys laniger	34.8 34.8	15.9 25.8	$\begin{array}{c} 0.98 \\ 0.98 \end{array}$	0.15 (2) 0.38 (2)	2.69 2.86	27.4 27.4	Present study; Geiser (1986b) Present study; Geiser (1986b)
Dasycercus cristicauda	35.5	23	0.5	0.27	1.63	113	Kennedy and McFarlane (1971)
Dasyuroides byrnei	34.3	24.4	0.74	0.44 (4)	1.68	116	Present study; Geiser et al. (1986)
	35.5	21.5	0.84	0.36 (2)	1.83	73	Present study; Geiser et al. (1986)
Planigale gilesi	32.6	17.5	1.43	0.54 (2)	1.91	8.3	Present study
Planigale maculata	34.2	19.6	1.01	0.45	1.74	10	Morton and Lee (1978)
Ningaui yvonneae	34.4	16.6	1.35	0.26 (3)	2.52	11.6	Present study
Antechinus stuartii	34.1	26.6	1.06	0.84 (4)	1.36	26.1	Present study
Petaurus breviceps	36.3	17	0.74	0.1	2.82	132	Fleming (1980)
Insectivores							
Crocidura russula	35.8	23	2.4	0.9	2.2	10	Nagel (1985)
Suncus etruscus	34.7	14	5.75	0.6	2.98	2	Frey (1979, 1980); Fons and Sicard (1976)
Bats							
Nyctimene albiventer	37	28.6	1.43	0.67	2.46	28	Bartholomew et al. (1970)
Rodents							
Peromyscus leucopus	36.7	17.6	1.66	0.53	1.82	20	Hill (1975); Deavers and Hudson (1981)
Peromyscus eremicus	37	16	1.56	0.3	2.2	17.4	MacMillen (1965)
Phodopus sungorus	37	20.7	2.06	1.0	1.55	25	Heldmaier and Steinlechner (1981 a, b)
Perognathus hispidus	38	17.1	1.25	0.15	2.75	40	Wang and Hudson (1970)
Perognathus californicus	38	15	0.97	0.20	2.0	22	Tucker (1965)
Mus musculus	37.4	19	1.47	0.65	2.3	45.5	Hudson and Scott (1979)
Baiomys taylori	35.5	22	1.95	0.55	2.5	7.3	Hudson (1965)
Reithrodontomys megalotis longicaudatus	37.5	12	2.63	0.5	1.9	7.9	Thompson (1985)
Reithrodontomys megalotis ravus	37.3	15	2.23	0.4	2.2	9.5	Thompson (1985)
Carnivores							
Taxidea taxus	37	28	0.26	0.13	2.15	9000	Harlow (1981)

Group	$T_{\rm b}$ 1	$T_{\rm h}2$	BMR		010	Mass	Source
Species	(°Č)	(°Č)	$(ml O_2/g h)$		(10	(g)	
Birds							· · ·
Eulampis jugularis	40	18	3.0	1.0	1.65	8	Hainsworth and Wolf (1970)
Archilochus alexandri	40 40	23ª 17ª	3.5 3.5	0.45 0.20	3.3 3.47	3.2 3.2	Lasiewski (1963) Lasiewski (1963)
Calypte costae	40	21 ª	3.0	0.39	2.9	3.1	Lasiewski (1963)
Calypte anna	40 40	24ª 16ª	3.85 3.85	0.54 0.17	3.4 3.66	5.4 5.4	Lasiewski (1963) Lasiewski (1963)
Selasphorus rufus	40	22.5ª	3.35	0.48	3.04	3.6	Lasiewski (1963)
Selasphorus sasin	40	23ª	3.8	1.24	1.93	3.1	Lasiewski (1963); Pearson (1950)
Manacus vitellinus	37.9	26.8	2.69	2.0	1.3	15.5	Bartholomew et al. (1983)

## Appendix 2 (continued)

Values in parentheses indicate the number of individuals used in that measurement of  $\dot{V}_{O_2}$  and  $T_b$  during torpor  $T_b 1 =$  Body temperature during normothermia;  $T_b 2 =$  body temperature during torpor <sup>a</sup> Body temperature was calculated from given air temperatures +1 °C <sup>d</sup> Body temperature was estimated by extrapolating the  $\dot{V}_{O_2}$  below the minimum  $T_b$  to the abscissa assuming that  $T_b = T_a$  when  $\dot{V}_{O_2}$  below the minimum  $T_b$  to the abscissa assuming that  $T_b = T_a$  when  $\dot{V}_{O_2}$  below the minimum  $T_b$  to the abscissa assuming that  $T_b = T_a$  when  $\dot{V}_{O_2}$  below the minimum  $T_b$  to the abscissa assuming that  $T_b = T_a$  when  $\dot{V}_{O_2}$  below the minimum  $T_b$  to the abscissa assuming that  $T_b = T_a$  when  $\dot{V}_{O_2}$  below the minimum  $T_b$  to the abscissa assuming that  $T_b = T_a$  when  $\dot{V}_{O_2}$  below the minimum  $T_b$  to the abscissa assuming that  $T_b = T_a$  when  $\dot{V}_{O_2}$  below the minimum  $T_b$  to the abscissa assuming that  $T_b = T_a$  when  $\dot{V}_{O_2}$  below the minimum  $T_b$  to the abscissa assuming that  $T_b = T_a$  when  $\dot{V}_{O_2}$  below the minimum  $T_b$  to the abscissa assuming that  $T_b = T_a$  when  $\dot{V}_{O_2}$  below the minimum  $T_b$  to the abscissa assuming that  $T_b = T_a$  when  $\dot{V}_{O_2}$  below the minimum  $T_b$  to the abscissa assuming that  $T_b = T_b$  and  $T_b = T_b$  a  $\dot{V}_{0_2} = 0$ 

Group Species	$T_{\rm b}$ range (°C)	Q10	Mass (g)	Source
Marsupials				
Cercartetus nanus	11.6-20.1	1.01	60	Bartholomew and Hudson (1962)
Cercartetus concinnus	6.6-15.6	3.02	18.6	Present study; Geiser (1987)
Cercartetus lepidus	6.8-25.5	2.85	12.6	Present study; Geiser (1987)
Insectivores				
Setifer setosus	-	2.5	300	Hildwein (1970)
Tenrec ecaudatus	15.2–28	2.1	360	Kayser (1960)
Bats				
Myotis lucifugus	5 -25	2.1	5	Henshaw (1968)
Rodents				
Spermophilus lateralis	3 -13 5.4- 9.5	2.39 2.36	200 200	Hammel et al. (1968) Snapp and Heller (1981)
Spermophilus saturatus	3.6-9.3	2.12	260	Present study
Spermophilus tereticaudus	11 –26	2.84	125	Bickler (1984)
Spermophilus richardsonii	2 -15	2.0	400	Wang (1978)
Birds				
Phalaenoptilus nuttallii	10 -20	2.77	35	Withers (1977)

Appendix 3a. The Q<sub>10</sub> of oxygen consumption  $(\dot{V}_{0})$  of hibernators between different body temperatures  $(T_b)$  during torpor

Mean  $Q_{10}$ : 2.3 ± 0.6

Group Species	$T_{\rm b}$ range (°C)	Q <sub>10</sub>	Mass (g)	Source
Marsupials				
Sminthopsis crassicaudata	16.5–25.8	2.14	17.3	Present study; Geiser and Baudinette (1987)
Sminthopsis macroura	15 –24	1.8	26.9	Present study; Geiser and Baudinette (1987)
Antechinomys laniger	15.9-25.8	2.55	27.8	Present study; Geiser (1986b)
Antechinus stuartii		2.7	25	Wallis (1976)
Rodents				
Perognathus californicus	15 -30	2.4	22	Tucker (1965)
Baiomys tailori	15 -30	2.1	6.4	Hudson (1965)
Insectivores				
Suncus etruscus	15 –21	1.6	2	Frey (1979, 1980)
Birds				
Archilochus alexandri	17 -23	3.86	3.2	Lasiewski (1963)
Calypte anna	16 -24	4.24	3.6	Lasiewski (1963)

Appendix 3b. The  $Q_{10}$  of oxygen consumption ( $\dot{V}_{O_2}$ ) of daily heterotherms between different body temperatures ( $T_b$ ) during torpor

Mean  $Q_{10}$ : 2.6 ± 0.9