

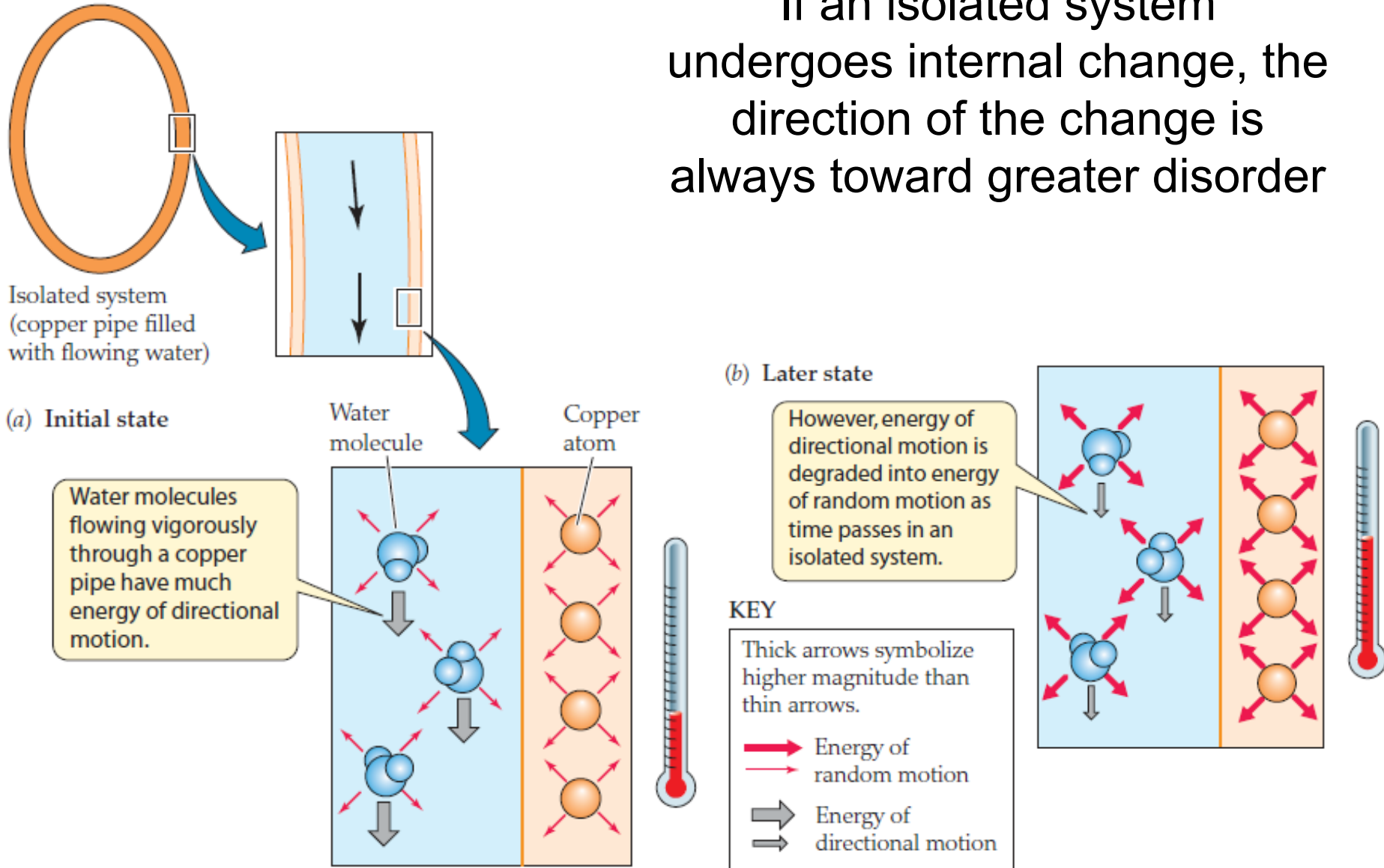
6. Thermoregulation in poikilotherms and homotherms

BIOS 0501B (Group A)

DBS, PU, Sem 5; 2015

Thermodynamics

If an isolated system undergoes internal change, the direction of the change is always toward greater disorder



Energies

- High grade Energies
 - Chemical energy (directly or indirectly):
 - All forms of physiological work [totipotent = *toti*, “all”; *potent*, “powerful”]
 - Electrical and mechanical energy
 - Accomplish some forms of physiological work, but neither form of energy is totipotent
- Low grade energies
 - Heat
 - Waste, cells can not use this energy. So they release it

Energy efficiency

$$\text{Efficiency of energy transformation} = \frac{\text{output of high-grade energy}}{\text{input of high-grade energy}}$$

- 70% of the energy released from glucose is incorporated into bonds of ATP - high-grade energy
- The other 30% - which started as high-grade energy - becomes low-grade energy: heat
- Muscle cell uses 25%–30% of ATP energy to contract
- Rest is heat
 - We waste a lot. A very inefficient system

Why do animals need energy?

- *Biosynthesis*. An animal synthesizes its body constituents, such as its proteins and lipids, by use of absorbed energy.
- *Maintenance*. An animal's maintenance functions are all the processes that *maintain the integrity* of its body; examples include circulation, respiration, nervous coordination, gut motility, and tissue repair. With only trivial exceptions, *the energy used for maintenance is degraded entirely to heat within the body*.
- *Generation of external work*. Animals perform external work when they apply mechanical forces to objects outside their bodies.

Metabolic rate

- An animal's metabolic rate is one of the most important determinants of *how much food it needs*. For an adult, food needs depend almost entirely on metabolic rate.
- Because every energy-using process that takes place in an animal produces heat, an animal's metabolic rate—its *total* rate of heat production—provides a *quantitative measure of the total activity of all its physiological mechanisms*. An animal's metabolic rate, roughly speaking, represents the animal's *intensity* of living.
- Ecologically, an animal's metabolic rate measures the *drain the animal places on the physiologically useful energy supplies of its ecosystem*, because the metabolic rate is the pace at which the animal degrades the chemical energy of organic compounds in its ecosystem.

Measuring metabolic rate

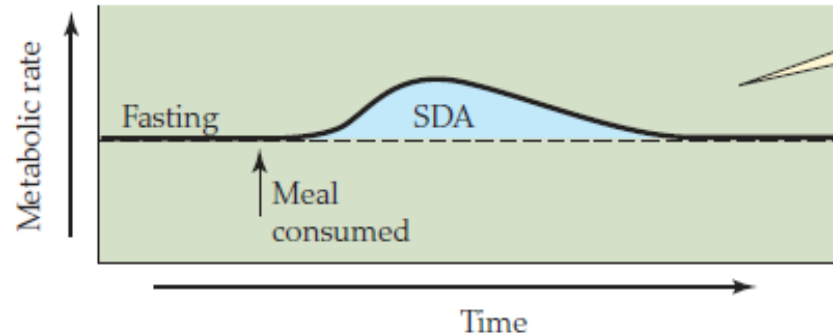
- Directly: calorimeter - a device that measures the rate at which heat leaves an animal's body
 - Hard to keep an animal in conditions suitable for measurements
- Indirectly: measuring oxygen - rate of oxygen consumption if proportional to its metabolic rate
 - Hard to keep track of the materials being used to oxidized
- Indirectly: measuring carbon di oxide - rate of CO₂ release if proportional to its metabolic rate
 - Ambiguity as above
- The ration of O₂ & CO₂ is not a great tactic either

Factors affecting metabolic rate

Ingestion of food

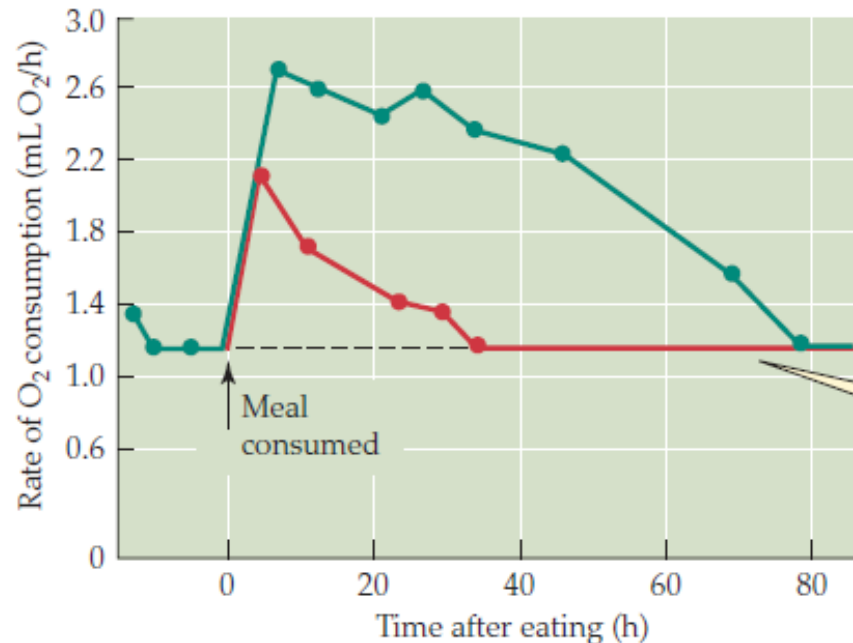
- Under many circumstances, if an animal has not eaten for a while and then consumes food, its metabolic rate temporarily increases following the meal *even though all other conditions are kept constant.*
 - specific dynamic action (SDA)

(a) The concept of SDA



If a resting animal that has not eaten for a while consumes a meal but then remains at rest, its metabolic rate rises afterward—the SDA.

(b) SDA in flatfish



The rate of O₂ consumption followed the red line after a 1.4 kJ meal was eaten, but it followed the green line after a fourfold larger meal (5.6 kJ). This result demonstrated that the magnitude of the SDA is roughly proportional to the amount of food eaten.

And

TABLE 7.3 Some factors that affect the metabolic rates of individual animals

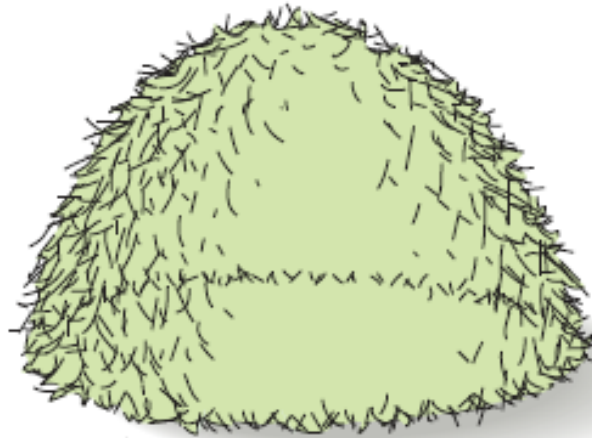
Factor	Response of metabolic rate	Chapter(s) where discussed in this book
Factors that exert particularly large effects		
Physical activity level (e.g., running speed)	↑ with rising activity level	8, 9
Environmental temperature	<i>Mammals and other homeotherms:</i> Lowest in thermoneutral zone ↑ below thermoneutral zone ↑ above thermoneutral zone <i>Fish and other poikilotherms:</i> ↑ with increasing temperature ↓ with decreasing temperature	10
Factors that exert smaller effects		
Ingestion of a meal (particularly protein-rich)	↑ for several hours to many hours following ingestion	7
Body size	Weight-specific rate ↑ as size ↓	7
Age	Variable; in humans, weight-specific rate ↑ to puberty, then ↓	—
Gender	Variable; in humans, ↑ in male	—
Environmental O ₂ level	Often ↓ as O ₂ ↓ below a threshold; not affected above threshold	8, 23
Hormonal status	Variable; example: ↑ by excessive thyroid secretions in mammals	16
Time of day	Variable; in humans, ↑ in daytime	15
Salinity of water (aquatic animals)	Variable; in osmoregulating marine crabs, ↑ in dilute water	28

Basal & Standard Metabolic Rate

- The basal metabolic rate (BMR) is a standardized measure of metabolic rate that applies to *homeotherms*
 - The basal metabolic rate of a homeotherm is the animal's metabolic rate while it is (1) in its thermoneutral zone, (2) fasting, and (3) resting.
- Standard metabolic rate (SMR) applies to *poikilotherms* (*ectotherms*)
 - The standard metabolic rate is the metabolic rate of a poikilothermic animal while it is (1) fasting and (2) resting.

Metabolic Scaling

(a) Meadow vole



175 g

In 1 week, the vole eats about six times its body weight to meet its energy needs.



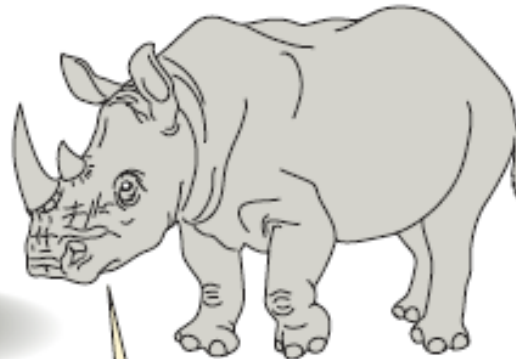
30 g

(b) White rhino

These piles of tightly packed forage are sized correctly relative to the sizes of the two animals.



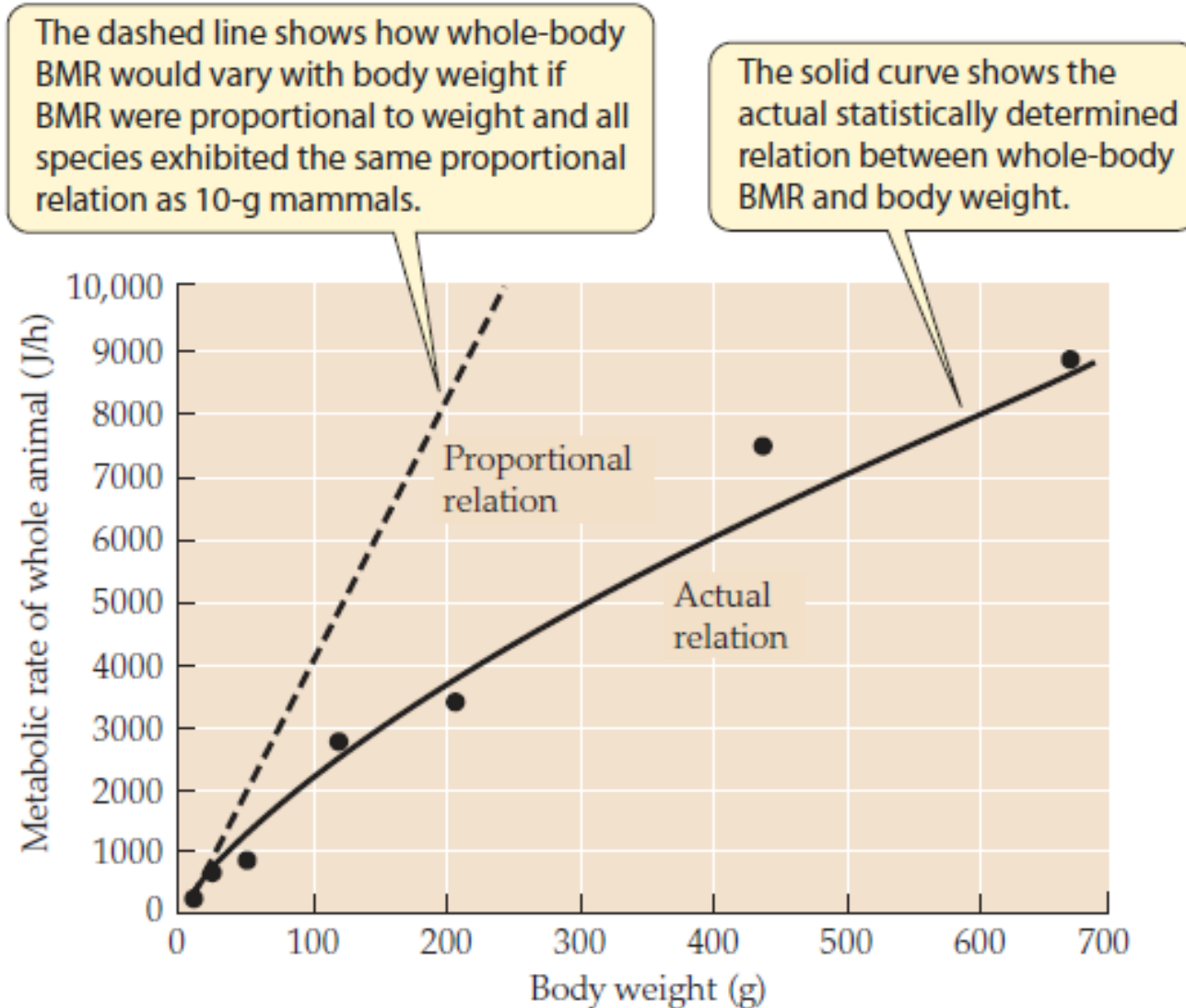
650 kg



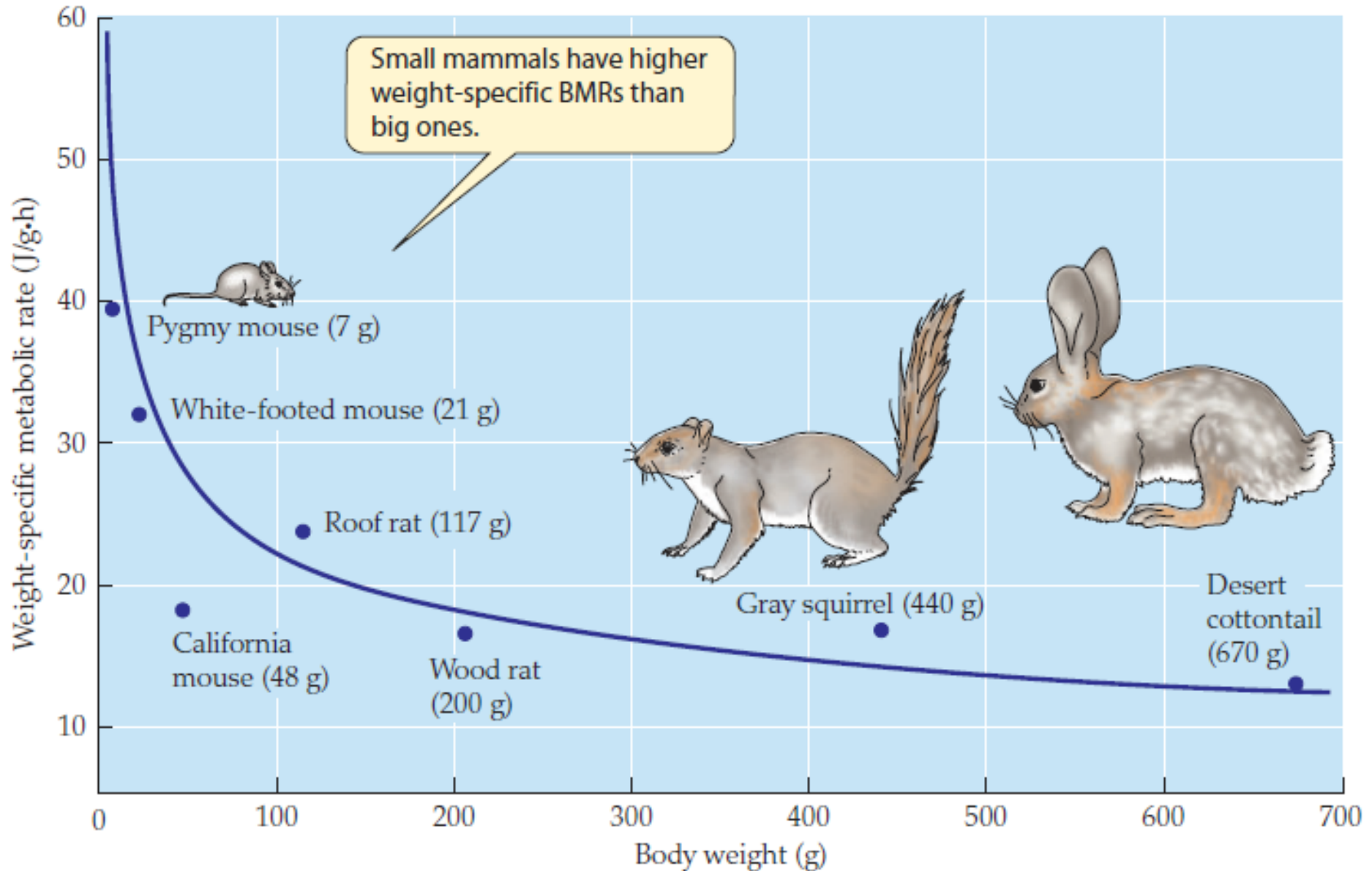
1900 kg

The rhino, by contrast, eats only one-third of its body weight in 1 week to meet its energy needs.

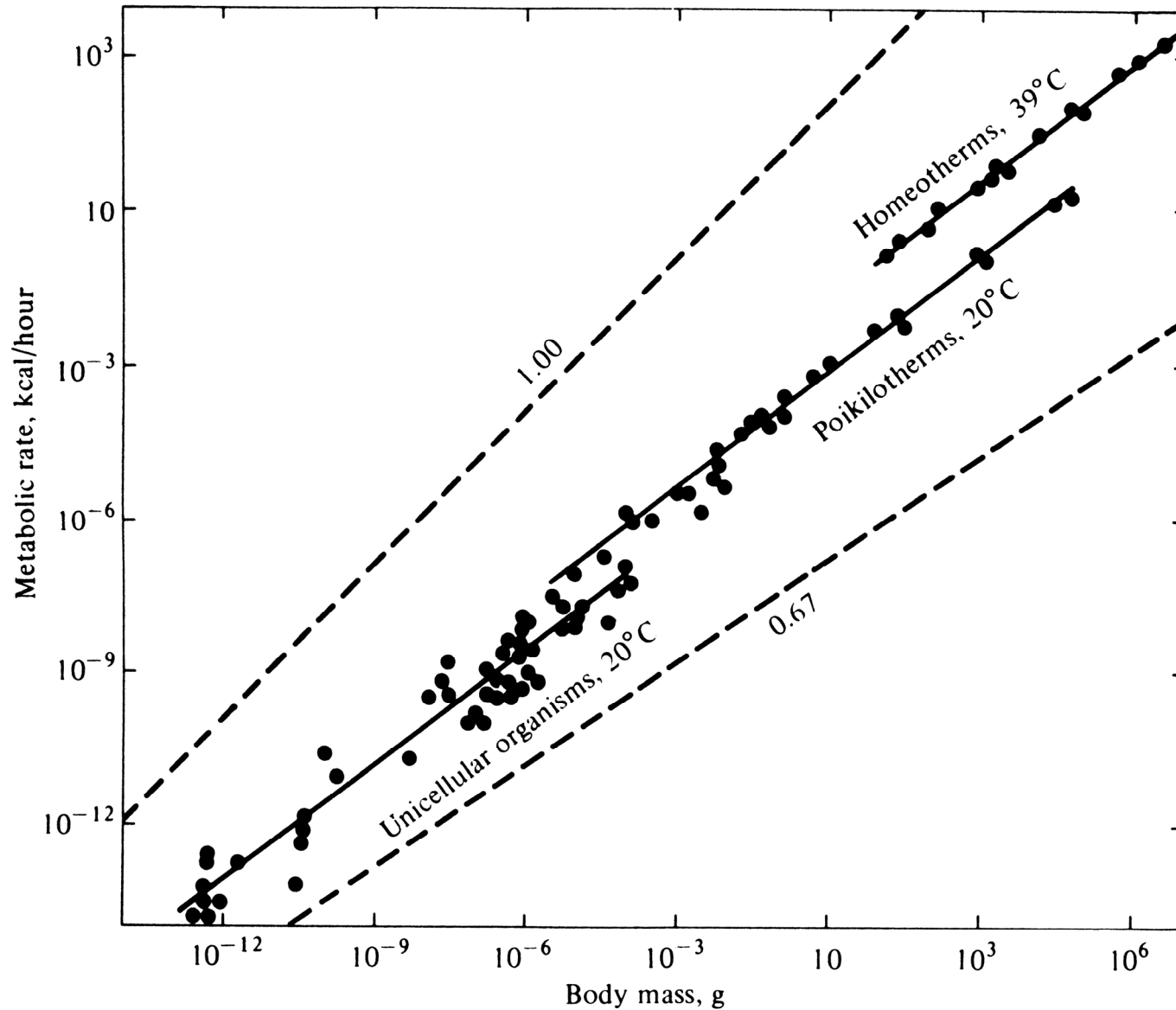
Relationship between body weight and metabolic rate



Mammals



In different kinds of animals



Physiological consequence

TABLE 7.4 Resting heart rate, and heart size relative to body weight, in seven species of mammals

Species and average body weight	Resting heart rate (beats/min) ^a	Heart weight per unit of body weight (g/kg) ^b
African elephant (4100 kg)	40	5.5
Horse (420 kg)	47	7.5
Human (69 kg)	70	5.2
Domestic dog (19 kg)	105	9.2
Domestic cat (3 kg)	179	4.1
Roof rat (0.34 kg)	340	2.9
Lab mouse (0.03 kg)	580	4.0

Ecological consequence

TABLE 7.5 Biomasses of populations of selected herbivores living in mixed communities in African national parks

Species are listed in order of increasing individual size. These species were chosen for listing because they are statistically about average in population biomass for their body sizes.

Species	Average biomass of entire population per square kilometer (kg/km ²)	Average individual body weight (kg)
Oribi (<i>Ourebia ourebi</i>)	44	13
Gray duiker (<i>Sylvicapra grimmia</i>)	62	16
Gray rhebok (<i>Pelea capreolus</i>)	105	25
Warthog (<i>Phacochoerus aethiopicus</i>)	95	69
Waterbuck (<i>Kobus ellipsiprymnus</i>)	155	210
Greater kudu (<i>Tragelaphus strepsiceros</i>)	200	215
Plains zebra (<i>Equus burchelli</i>)	460	275
White rhino (<i>Ceratotherium simum</i>)	2400	1900
African elephant (<i>Loxodonta africana</i>)	1250	3900

The explanation: unknown

- We used to explain by *Rubner's surface "law."*
 - surface area s of a sphere is proportional to the square of r , the sphere's radius: $s \propto r^2$.
 - The volume v of a sphere, however, is proportional to the cube of the radius: $v \propto r^3$.
 - Therefore $s \propto v^{2/3}$
 - In words, as spheres increase in size, their surface area increases only as the two-thirds power of their volume.

It made sense

- Placental mammals maintain high, relatively constant body temperatures (near 37°C) and thus tend to lose heat to the environment when studied at thermoneutral environmental temperatures.
- Because heat is lost across an animal's outer body surfaces, the rate of heat loss from a mammal is approximately proportional to the animal's body-surface area.
- Small mammals have more surface area per unit of weight than do large mammals and thus lose heat more rapidly per unit of weight.
- Heat lost must be replaced metabolically for a mammal to stay warm. Accordingly, small mammals must produce heat at a greater rate per unit of weight than large ones.
 - So we try to be big

But

- poikilothermic animals—such as fish, frogs, and crabs—display allometric metabolism–size relations
 - But they do not control heat anyway
- There are some other hypothesis for explanation but none is suitable
 - **So we think there are more than one reason**

Text: Hill

Images: Hill, www