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Adjusting and validating a procedure for parenteral anaesthesia in neonatal mice

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Manuscripts

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9 1 **TITLE: Adjusting and validating a procedure for parenteral anaesthesia in**
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12 2 **neonatal mice**
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9 **14 Abstract**

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12 15 For neonatal pups, parenteral anaesthesia is said to be not reliable as low doses induce no
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15 16 anaesthesia whereas high doses render high mortality rates. In this work we have adapted
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18 17 parenteral anaesthesia procedures approved for pups >7 days of age, to anaesthetize
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21 18 neonatal animals (postnatal days 3-4; P3-P4) for keeping them immobile for a long period.
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24 19 In our first experiment we analysed the behaviour of P3-P4 mouse pups for 70 minutes after
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27 20 i.p administration of low (37.5/3.75 mg/kg) or high doses (50/5) of a ketamine/xylazine
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30 21 anaesthetic mixture, both in the low range as compared to dosages employed in adults.
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33 22 Pups became immobile in \approx 7 minutes and remained immobile for \approx 45 minutes, irrespective
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36 23 of the age and dose of anaesthesia, younger pups (P3) being apparently more sensitive to
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39 24 the dosage. In the second experiment, we studied the response of P3 pups to mildly
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42 25 nociceptive stimulations, performed with a 4.0g von Frey filament applied to the dorsal
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45 26 aspect of their paws. These stimuli elicited reaction in 100% of the cases in non-
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48 27 anaesthetised pups. The results indicate that the high dose significantly reduced responses
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51 28 as compared to the low dose of anaesthesia. With the low dose, <40% of the pups were
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54 29 unresponsive to nociceptive stimulation, whereas the high dose resulted in 50-60% of the
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30 animals not responding. Mortality was low **irrespective of** age or dose, **suggesting** that
31 doses can be further increased if needed for invasive experimental procedures.

Under Review

32 Introduction

33 Mice are macrosomatic animals, and most of their social behaviours are mediated by
34 chemosignals. We are interested in understanding the role of pup-derived chemosignals in
35 parental care, as it is known that neonatal, but not mature pups, emit volatiles (1) that may
36 induce species-specific behaviours in adults, such as pup care or pup-directed attacks (2)(3).
37 To study the role of pup chemosignals in infant-directed behaviours, while avoiding the
38 effects of other sensory cues, some authors use dead pups, which effectively induce pup-
39 directed aggression (4,5) but rarely maternal care. Moreover, these experiments do not
40 avoid somatosensory stimulation (e.g. vibrissae-mediated touch).
41 To avoid these problems, we plan to analyse the response of adults to pup-emitted volatiles
42 by exposing adult mice to pups enclosed in a stainless-steel strainer that precludes access
43 to pup-derived somatosensory and visual stimuli. To avoid distress calls (auditory stimuli),
44 pups must be anaesthetised. The main difficulty of these experiments is to find a reliable
45 anaesthesia procedure for neonatal pups compatible with the experiment. Hypothermia
46 and inhaled anaesthetics or a combination of both (isoflurane dipping followed by
47 hypothermia; (6)) cannot be employed, thus enforcing us to use parenteral anaesthesia.

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9 48 Unfortunately, in many institutions parenteral anaesthesia is approved only for pups over
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11 49 7 days of age. This restriction (see (7)) is due to the reported high mortality rates of
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14 50 parenteral anaesthesia in neonatal rodents at high doses, and its low efficiency at lower
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16 51 doses (8). A second reason is maternal cannibalism following recovery (see (9,10)).
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19 52 However, in many of the papers reporting these results the conditions and specific
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21 53 procedures for administering anaesthesia are not clearly indicated, thus making it difficult
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24 54 to assess whether the procedures, rather than anaesthetic itself, are causing such adverse
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26 55 effects.

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29 56 Consequently, here we aim at adapting the parenteral anaesthesia doses and procedures
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32 57 approved for pups >7 days of age to anaesthetize neonatal pups to keep them immobile for
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34 58 a long period with reduced mortality rates. We chose dissociative anaesthesia, a
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36 59 combination of ketamine and xylazine usually employed in adults at 65/4 to 100/10 mg/kg
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39 60 doses, depending on the strain, sex, age and procedure (7)(10–12). This is a combination of
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41 61 a non-competitive NMDA antagonist (ketamine), providing analgesia in the face of ischemic
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44 62 and somatic pain, with an α -2 adrenergic agonist (xylazine) producing chemical restraint,
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46 63 analgesia, sedation and muscle relaxation (9) while potentiating the analgesic effects of
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9 64 ketamine. This combination seems also convenient because it has been used in pregnant
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11 65 mice (13), thus suggesting it being safe for foetuses and neonatal pups.

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14 66 We hypothesise that this drug combination renders a reliable anaesthesia in neonatal mice
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17 67 if injected with high precision syringes and very thin needles. We assume that a 10:1
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19 68 ketamine/xylazine (K/X) mixture administered at low doses ($\leq 50/5$ mg/kg) will result in a
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22 69 low mortality while providing long periods of immobility and reduced response to
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24 70 nociceptive stimulation.

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27 71 Therefore, we have performed two experiments with two doses of K/X. In the first
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29 72 experiment we measured the latency and duration of immobility in otherwise undisturbed
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32 73 pups (postnatal days 3 and 4). In the second one, we evaluated the depth of anaesthesia by
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35 74 assessing the response of P3 pups to standardised nociceptive stimulation (pressing the
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37 75 standard von Frey filaments), and its time course after anaesthetic injection.

38 39 40 76 **Methods**

41 42 43 77 ***Animals***

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47 78 Mice were housed in the animal facility of the *Universitat Jaume I (Servei d'Experimentació*
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49 79 *Animal)* with *ad libitum* food and water, under a 12:12 day-night cycle with lights on at 8:00

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9 80 am and controlled temperature ($24 \pm 2^{\circ}\text{C}$) and humidity to ensure animal welfare. Animals
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11 81 were treated throughout following the EU Directive 2010/63/EU and, accordingly,
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14 82 experimental procedures were approved by the Committee of Ethics and Animal
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16 83 Experimentation of the *Universitat Jaume I*, and a license was issued by the *Direcció General*
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18 84 *de Producció Agrària i Ramaderia de la Generalitat Valenciana* (code 2020/VSC/PEA/0118
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24 86 For each experiment the sample size was prospectively calculated by power analysis using
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27 87 GPower software (University of Dusseldorf; (14). Calculations were required by the Ethical
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29 88 Committee of the *Universitat Jaume I*, which approved the procedure for using
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32 89 anaesthetised pups in our behavioural experiments. No criteria of exclusion were needed.
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35 90 ***EXPERIMENT 1: Latency and duration of immobility under K/X anaesthesia in neonatal***
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37 91 ***pups***

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40 92 Adult female mice ($n=8$) of the strain CD1 (RjOrl:SWISS, Janvier) and their progeny were
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43 93 used. Females were housed in pairs, and at 8 weeks of age (reproductively mature) they
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45 94 were stimulated with bedding that had been soiled for a week by an adult, sexually
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48 95 experienced male. The next day, females were introduced in the home cage of a stud male
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50 96 and left undisturbed for 48h, for mating to occur. All females became pregnant.
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9 97 After delivery, their pups (n=93) were used for the anaesthesia experiment. The complete
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11 98 litters of four randomly selected females were anaesthetized at postnatal day 3 (P3), and
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13 99 pups from the remaining 4 females were anesthetised at postnatal day 4 (P4). Within each
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16 100 litter, about half of the pups were randomly assigned to each anaesthetic dose of
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18 101 ketamine+xylazine (low dose: 37.5 mg/kg+3.75 mg/kg; high dose: 50 mg/kg+5 mg/kg). In
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20 102 total, 47 pups received the anaesthesia at P3 (lower dose n=24; higher dose n=23), and 46
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23 103 animals were anaesthetised at P4 (lower dose n=22; higher dose n=24).

104 *Procedure*

105 The day of the experiment, pups were weighed and received an i.p. anaesthetic injection
106 using a Hamilton syringe of 50 μ L with luer tip (705LT) and 30G needles (ref. 7748-16; Fig.
107 1A). The concentration of the anaesthetics was adjusted to inject 10 μ L of the solution per
108 gram of pup weight. Immediately after anaesthetic administration, pups were placed in a
109 cardboard box with many compartments that allow easily identifying each pup (Fig. 1B, C),
110 on top of a rechargeable hand warmer (A ADDTOP; #FSP013) set at 40-42°C, to ensure
111 comfort and thermal stability of the pups (15). In these conditions, pups were video-
112 recorded for 70 minutes, with time zero being the moment in which the pup was placed in
113 its compartment.

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9 114 Using the free, open-source software BORIS (15), an observer blind to the identity of the
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11 115 pups (age and dose received) measured the latency to absolute immobility, the latency to
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13 116 the first movement after the anaesthesia period, and the latency of complete awakening
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15 117 (appearance of periods with continuous movement >5 seconds, righting reflex).

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19 118 For those pups not moving at the end of the experiment, we applied pressure to the paw
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21 119 and registered if they responded (yes/no). After the experiment, pups were returned to
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23 120 their nest with their mother. The next morning litters were revised, pups counted and the
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25 121 number of *exitus* was registered.

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30 122 Behavioural variables were statistically analysed using IBM SPSS 22 Statistics Software, to
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32 123 compare the effects of the two doses of the anaesthetics on pups of the different ages.
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34 124 Since data did not follow a normal distribution (Shapiro-Wilk) we relayed on non-parametric
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36 125 statistics to compare the latency of pups to become immobile (Kruskal-Wallis test).
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38 126 Concerning the end of anaesthesia, since many pups had not moved or awakened at the
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40 127 end of the video (time 70 min), the latencies for those events were censored. Therefore, we
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42 128 compared them by means of a Kaplan Meier survival analysis.
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9 129 To check if the doses employed are within the dynamic range of the drugs, we also analysed
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11 130 whether latency to immobility and duration of immobility were correlated, by means of
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14 131 Spearman's rank-order correlation test.
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17 132 Finally, we analysed if *exitus* was due to the direct effect of anaesthesia and animals of both
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19 133 ages were similarly vulnerable, by comparing mortality between doses and ages by means
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22 134 of a Chi-square. Level of significance was $p < 0.05$.
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28 136 ***EXPERIMENT 2: Response of P3 pups under anaesthesia to standardized nociceptive***
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30 137 ***stimulation***
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34 138 Females (n=6) and progeny were treated as in experiment 1. A total of 78 pups were used
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36 139 in this experiment at postnatal day 3, according to two different procedures.
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39 140 *a. Determination of the nociceptive threshold on P3 pups using von Frey filaments*
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42 141 A litter of 9 pups was used in a pilot study to determine the threshold of nociceptive
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44 142 stimulation following an adaptation of the SUDO method (16). Pups were gently restrained
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47 143 and von Frey filaments (Ugo Basile, code 37450-275) were pressed against the dorsal aspect
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49 144 of their paws until filaments bent. Each fibre was applied five times to the different paws in
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9 145 a random order, and retraction of the paw and/or vocalisations in response to the
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11 146 stimulation were registered. This allowed assigning each animal a score of 0-5 reactions for
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14 147 each filament. Filaments were applied to each animal in order of increasing pressure (e.g.
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16 148 thickness) according to the sequence: 1.0 g, 1.4 g, 2.0 g and 4.0 g.

19 149 *b. Level of anaesthesia in P3 pups: response to nociceptive stimulation after K/X*
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22 150 *injection*

25 151 Since 4.0 g von Frey fibres rendered a 100% of responses in non-anaesthetised P3 pups, we
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27 152 used this fibre as a mild nociceptive stimulus to control the level of anaesthesia in P3 pups
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30 153 (complete litters of 5 females, n=69 pups) after administration of either low (37.5/3.75
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32 154 mg/Kg; n=34) or high (50/5.0 mg/Kg; n=35) doses of K/X. After i.p. K/X injection, animals
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35 155 were videorecorded while stimulated four times with 4.0 g von Frey filament, once to each
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37 156 paw. An observer blind to the experimental condition of the animal (dose), recorded
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40 157 whether pups responded to nociceptive stimulation 20, 30, 40, 50 and 60 minutes after
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42 158 anaesthetic injection. Pups were considered to be responsive when they retracted the paw
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45 159 in response to 2 or more stimulations with the von Frey 4.0 g filament. This allowed studying
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47 160 the efficiency and dynamics of anaesthesia under the two doses of K/X.

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9 161 Since data did not display a normal distribution (Shapiro-Wilk tests), nonparametric Mann-
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11 162 Whitney tests were used to compare the response of the animals having received the two
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13 163 doses, 20, 30, 40, 50 and 60 minutes after injection. We also compared responses at
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15 164 different times within each dose of anaesthesia by means of a Friedman test with multiple
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17 165 pairwise comparisons. Moreover, we compared the proportion of animals not responding
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19 166 to nociceptive stimulation (showing response to ≤ 1 stimulations) between doses, using a
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21 167 Chi-square test. Level of significance was $p < 0.05$.

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27 168 After experiment 2, anaesthetised pups were returned to their nest with their mother. Like
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29 169 in experiment 1, litters were revised the next morning and pups counted to register *exitus*.

30 31 32 170 **Results**

33 34 35 36 171 ***EXPERIMENT 1: Latency and duration of immobility under K/X anaesthesia in neonatal*** 37 38 172 ***pups***

39 40 41 173 *a. Latency to become immobile after K/X administration in neonatal pups*

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44 174 Mann-Whitney U test for independent samples revealed no effect of age (P3 vs P4 pups;
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46 175 $U=922$; $p=0.222$) or dose (high vs low; $U=1235$; $p=0.237$), on the latency to immobility.
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49 176 Therefore, at the doses employed, K/X mixture (10:1) provides a quick anaesthesia with

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9 177 immobility after less than 7 minutes (378.8 ± 32.1 seconds; global mean \pm SEM), irrespective
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12 178 of the age and tested dose of anaesthetic (Fig. 2A).

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14 179 *b. Latency to first movement and awakening after K/X administration in neonatal pups*

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18 180 In our experiment 31 pups did not move and 41 pups did not awake (continuous movement
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20 181 for >5 seconds) until the end of the movie and they were assigned a latency of 4200 seconds.
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22 182 Since data were censored, we evaluated the effects of the age and dose on the duration of
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25 183 anaesthesia using a Kaplan-Meier survival test with these two variables.

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28 184 When pups of both ages were analysed together, there were no statistical differences
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31 185 between doses in the survival curves of the latency to move for the first time
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33 186 ($X^2(1, N=93)=0.281, p=0.596$). Conversely, when doses are pooled, no difference between
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35 187 ages ($X^2(1, N=93)=0.281, p=0.596$) were found. Similarly, when ages were analysed
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38 188 separately, effect of the dose on the latency to move was observed neither in P3
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40 189 ($X^2(1, N=47)=2.022, p=0.155$) nor in P4 pups ($X^2(1, N=46)=0.004, p=0.947$).

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43 190 Concerning the latency to awake, again when pooling animals of both ages no statistical
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46 191 difference between doses was found in the survival curves ($X^2(1, N=93)=1.958, p=0.162$).

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48 192 Conversely, when doses are pooled, no differences between ages resulted
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9 193 (χ^2 (1, $N=93$)=0.375, $p=0.541$). However, when ages are analysed separately, a significant
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11 194 effect of the dose on the latency to awake was seen in P3 (χ^2 (1, $N=47$)=4.137, $p=0.042$) but
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14 195 not in P4 pups (χ^2 (1, $N=46$)=0.015, $p=0.902$) (Fig. 2B-C).

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17 196 *c. Correlation between latency to immobility and duration of anaesthesia*

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20 197 At the doses and pup ages tested, the duration of anaesthesia (latency to move after
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22 198 anaesthesia minus latency to become immobile) was of 2744 ± 131 s (mean \pm SEM), about 45
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24 199 minutes (P3-low dose: 3039 ± 217 s; P3-high dose: 3483 ± 201 s; P4 low dose: 3387 ± 169 s; P4-
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26 200 high dose: 3432 ± 163 s). Spearman's analysis considering all the animals (both ages and
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28 201 doses) revealed a negative correlation between latency to immobility and duration of
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30 202 anaesthesia ($\rho_{91} = -0.819$, $p < 0.001$). This is also true when groups (doses and ages) were
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32 203 analysed separately (Fig. 3).

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38 204 *d. Analysis of exitus after anaesthesia*

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41 205 In all experimental groups a few animals died, global mortality being 6.5% (6 out of 93 pups
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43 206 died). A Chi-Square comparing mortality indicated no statistical differences between doses
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45 207 (high dose: 3 fatalities out of 47 pups, 6.4%; low dose: 3/46, 6.5%; $\chi^2_1 = 0.978$, $p=1$) or
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47 208 between ages (P3, 3/47 pups, 6.4%; P4, 3/46, 6.5%; $\chi^2_1 = 0.978$, $p=1$). Finally, similar results
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9 209 are obtained when comparing doses within ages ($X^2_1=0.403$, $p=0.609$ for P3 pups;
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11 210 $X^2_1=0.457$, $p=0.600$ for P4 pups).

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14 211 **EXPERIMENT 2: Response of P3 pups under anaesthesia to standardized nociceptive**
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17 212 **stimulation**

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20 213 *a. Determination of nociceptive stimulation threshold using Von Frey filaments*

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23 214 Nine non-anaesthetised P3 pups received stimulation with von Frey filaments. We started
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25 215 with thin filaments representing low pressure (1.0 g) on the paw, which elicited few
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27 216 reactions (<10% of the stimulations). Then we applied progressively higher pressure (1.4,
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29 217 2.0 and 4.0g). A nonparametric related-samples Kendall's coefficient of concordance
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31 218 indicates a significant effect ($W_3=0.864$, $p<0.001$) of the pressure (thickness) of von Frey
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33 219 filaments, on the paw retraction proportion, retractions being more frequent when higher
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35 220 pressure was applied (8,88%, 26.7%, 49.9% and 100%, for 1.0g, 1.4g and 2.0g and 4.0g
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37 221 filaments, respectively). The 4.0 g filament rendered a systematic retraction (100%) of the
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39 222 paws in all 9 pups, and therefore is considered to constitute a reliable nociceptive stimulus
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41 223 for P3 pups.

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48 224 *b. Analysis of responsiveness to a standardised nociceptive stimulus*
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9 225 The reaction to paw stimulation with a 4.0 g von Frey filament was reduced in a large
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11 226 proportion of animals by K/X parenteral anaesthesia (Fig. 4). The results of Mann Whitney's
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14 227 test comparing the distribution of data between doses at different times indicates no
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16 228 differences between doses at 20 minutes ($U=694$, $n_1=35$, $n_2=34$; $p=0.218$), but significant
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18 229 differences between doses at 30 minutes ($U=812$, $n_1=35$, $n_2=34$; $p=0.007$), 40 minutes
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21 230 ($U=785.5$, $n_1=35$, $n_2=34$; $p=0.016$), 50 minutes ($U=811$, $n_1=35$, $n_2=34$; $p=0.006$) and 60
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24 231 minutes ($U=810$, $n_1=35$, $n_2=34$; $p=0.006$) (Fig. 4A).

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27 232 On the other hand, within each dose we performed a non-parametric comparison between
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29 233 times (related samples Friedman's test). The results indicate that the rate of response
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31 234 changes with time in both doses (high dose, $X^2_4=11.769$, $p=0.019$; low dose, $X^2_4=18.647$,
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34 235 $p<0.001$), although pairwise comparisons between times only rendered significant
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36 236 differences between 20 and 60 minutes in the lower dose of anaesthetic ($p=0.045$), thus
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39 237 indicating that responses to nociceptive stimulation after K/X anaesthesia, significantly
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41 238 increases with time (Fig. 3A).

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44 239 Finally, we calculated the proportion of animals not responding to nociceptive stimulation
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47 240 for each time and dose (Fig. 3B), namely showing retraction of the paw in 1 or none of the
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50 241 4 stimulations with the 4.0 g filament. More than 50% of the animals having received the

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9 242 higher dose of anaesthetic were not responsive during the first 50 minutes after K/X
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11 243 administration. With the lower dose, during the first 30 minutes after K/X administration
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14 244 only a 32-45% of the animals did not respond to nociceptive stimulation. Using a Chi square
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16 245 test, we compared the proportion of animals not responding to nociceptive stimulation
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19 246 between doses and the results indicate that the percentage of non-responsive animals was
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21 247 significantly higher in the high K/X dose at 40 min ($X^2_1=5.242$, $p=0.031$), 50 min ($X^2_1=5.534$,
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24 248 $p=0.027$) and 60 min ($X^2_1=6.640$, $p=0.016$) after anaesthetic injection.

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27 249 *c. Analysis of exitus after anaesthesia procedure*

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30 250 In Experiment 2, only one pup died after anaesthesia, which belonged to the high dose
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32 251 group, representing a 0% *exitus* (0 out of 34) in the group receiving the low dose and a 2.9%
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35 252 (one in 35) in the group having received the higher dose. A Chi Square analysis rendered no
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37 253 significant differences in mortality between doses ($X^2_1=0.986$, $p=0.321$).

40 254 **Discussion**

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44 255 The present work shows that i.p. administration of a 10:1 mixture of ketamine and xylazine
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46 256 (37.5+3.75mg/kg and 50+5mg/kg of K/X mixture), in similar proportion to its standard use
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49 257 in adult mice, reliably induces anaesthesia with a short latency to immobility and relatively

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9 258 long duration, if pups are left undisturbed. Moreover, in P3 pups these doses of K/X mixture
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11 259 produce a dose-dependent reduction of the response to standardised mild nociceptive
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14 260 stimulation, namely pressure onto the paws with a 4.0 g von Frey filament.
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17 261 *A. Intraperitoneal injection of low doses of K/X reliably induces immobility in neonatal pups*
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20 262 In our experiments we have been cautious in using doses of the K/X mixture much lower
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22 263 than its standard use in adults (90–150 mg of ketamine with 7.5–16 mg of xylazine per kg
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25 264 of body weight; see (9)). Indeed, we used less than half this dose and first analysed if pups
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27 265 remained immobile for a time after anaesthetic injection, if left undisturbed. Statistical
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30 266 analysis indicates that both doses (high, 50/5 mg/kg; low, 37.5/3.75 mg/kg) render a similar
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32 267 short induction time (latency to become immobile) in neonatal pups (P3 and P4), less than
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35 268 7 minutes in average (Fig. 2A). Also, the latency to start moving again and to awake
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37 269 (repeatedly exhibiting righting reflex) was similar for animals of both ages receiving both
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40 270 doses of the K/X mixture, rendering an average time of immobility of about 45 minutes.
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43 271 Our experiment 1 also suggests that younger pups are somewhat more sensitive to
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45 272 anaesthetic dose. Thus, survival analysis (Kaplan Meyer test) of awakening from
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48 273 anaesthesia (latency to exhibit righting reflex after K/X injection), renders differences
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50 274 between doses in P3 pups but not in P4 ones (compare Fig. 2B-C).
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9 275 These results are interesting by themselves, as they allow a use of K/X mixture for non-
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11 276 invasive experimental purposes in which only sedation is needed to achieve complete
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14 277 immobilisation of the pups for a time.

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17 278 *B. Low doses of K/X reduce the response of P3 pups to standardised nociceptive*
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19 279 *stimulation*

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22 280 Our experiment 2 was designed to check whether the doses of K/X mixture administered in
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24 281 experiment 1 were also reducing response to noxious stimulation, e.g. increasing
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26 282 nociceptive threshold. In this respect, it is a common practice during animal surgery to pinch
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28 283 the tail or paws of the animal with the fingers or tweezers to check if the depth of
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30 284 anaesthesia is appropriate for starting surgery, but this seems an unreliable procedure to
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32 285 check the level of anaesthesia, as pressure (and therefore activation of nociceptive
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34 286 receptors) may vary depending on the experimenter and/or instrument employed for
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36 287 pinching. Therefore, we decided to use a standardised procedure that reliably provides a
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38 288 specific pressure, e.g. von Frey filaments. In a pilot study, we adapted the SUDO procedure
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40 289 to determine the minimum pressure (thickness of the filament) inducing systematic
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42 290 response (paw retraction/vocalizations) in a set of unanaesthetised P3 pups (n=9). There
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44 291 was an increase of the proportion of animals responding from 1.0 g to 4.0 g of pressure, the
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9 292 latter showing 100% responses (5 of 5 stimulations) in all 9 animals of our sample. This
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11 293 suggests that 4.0 g von Frey filaments constitute a standard noxious stimulus, eliciting mild
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14 294 nociceptive response in P3 pups. Then, this stimulus was systematically applied to the four
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16 295 paws (random order) of anaesthetised P3 pups (low dose n=34; high dose n=35) and the
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18 296 number of reactions (paw retraction and/or vocalisation) was registered. The results,
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20 297 summarised in Fig. 3A-B, indicate that pups showed an increase of the nociceptive threshold
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22 298 following anaesthesia administration. Globally, 20 minutes after K/X i.p. injection, pups
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24 299 responded to a 45% of the nociceptive stimulations with a high variability. This proportion
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26 300 significantly increased with time (Fig. 4A), thus suggesting a progressive recovery from
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28 301 anaesthesia along the tested period (20-60 minutes post-injection). As a conclusion, the
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30 302 doses of K/X mixture employed induced an increased nociceptive threshold (evaluated by
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32 303 means of analysis of response to stimulation). This effect on nociceptive sensitivity gradually
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34 304 fades away during the first hour after administration of the K/X mixture.
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41 305 *C. The doses of K/X mixture employed are within the dynamic range of anaesthesia*

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44 306 If the doses we are testing are within the dynamic range of anaesthesia, higher doses will
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46 307 have stronger effects on the pups. We have tested this hypothesis in both experiments. In
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48 308 experiment 1, in which immobility (probably reflecting sedation) is analysed, our results
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9 309 show no statistically significant effect on the latency to become immobile, the latency to
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11 310 awake or the duration of the immobility period between doses. In P3, but not in P4 pups,
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13 311 the latency to awake is higher in the high as compared to the low dose of anaesthetic
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15 312 (compare Fig. 2B-C), indicating that younger pups (P3) are somewhat more sensitive to the
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17 313 dose of anaesthetic. This finding also supports the view that, at least in P3 pups, these doses
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19 314 are within the dynamic range relative to sedative effects of the anaesthetic.

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24 315 In addition, the results of the correlation test confirm that those animals having a quicker
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26 316 anaesthetic-induced immobility are the ones showing a longer effect of anaesthesia (Fig. 3).
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28 317 This also suggests that the concentrations of the drugs are still in their dynamic range (17)
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30 318 in relation to their sedative effects.

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35 319 Finally, our results of experiment 2 demonstrate a significant effect of the dose on
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37 320 nociceptive threshold, with higher and longer anaesthetic effect of the high dose, as
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39 321 compared to the low dose of K/X (Fig. 4A-B).

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43 322 Taken together, the results of both experiments suggest that the two doses employed in
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45 323 this work are within the dynamic range of the anaesthetic. Therefore, it is likely that this
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47 324 anaesthetic mixture could be used in even higher doses if potentially harmful interventions
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50 325 are planned, provided that they do not cause a high mortality.

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9 326 *D. K/X injections resulted in low mortality, not dependent on the dose*

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12 327 Considering together both experiments, mortality was low (7 fatalities out of 162 pups;
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14 328 4.32%), comparable to the figures for adult rodents and other small animals according to
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17 329 The Confidential Enquiry into Perioperative Small Animal Fatalities, CEP SAF ((18)(19)).
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20 330 In experiment 1, mortality was similar in animals of both ages (P3 and P4) thus suggesting
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22 331 that younger pups are not more vulnerable to deleterious effects of the anaesthetic. In
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25 332 addition, in both experiment 1 and experiment 2, both doses of the anaesthetic resulted in
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27 333 similar mortality (experiment 1: low dose 6.5%, high dose 6.4%; experiment 2, low dose 0%
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29 334 and high dose 1.4%). This suggests that deaths are not caused by direct action of the
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31 335 anaesthetics, in which case the high dose would have shown higher mortality. We can only
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33 336 speculate that fatalities could be due to other factors, e.g. lesions caused by the needle
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35 337 during injection. This can be checked by performing necropsy (20). Due to its small size,
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37 338 new-born pups are difficult to immobilise, and some injections might have affected vital
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39 339 organs (e.g. diaphragm or liver). In this respect, the number of deaths was 6 out of 93 in
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41 340 experiment 1 (6.5% of mortality) and 1 out of 69 in experiment 2 (1.4%), a decrease in
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43 341 mortality that, even if it does not reach statistical significance, can reflect an improvement
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45 342 due to practice.
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9 343 Using 10-day-old rats Tsukamoto et al. (2017) (21) reported a 100% mortality with a dose
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11 344 of 60/6 mg/kg of Ketamine/Xylazine, just 20% higher than our high dose (50/5). By contrast,
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14 345 the same authors report that a dose of 40/4 mg/kg of this mixture, similar to our low dose,
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16 346 rendered no anaesthesia at all (anaesthetic level zero; pedal withdrawal reflex and tail pinch
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18 347 reflex in all animals). This paper has been very influential and has led to the conclusion that
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21 348 injectable anaesthetics in neonatal mice are unpredictable, have high mortality risk, and
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24 349 should only be considered if gas anaesthesia is not feasible (7).

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27 350 The findings by Tsukamoto et al. (21) contrast with the low mortality and the reduction in
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29 351 response to nociceptive stimulation of our experiments using the same anaesthetic mixture
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32 352 at similar dosages in neonatal mice. Since Tsukamoto et al. did not specify the kind of
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34 353 syringes and needles employed, we can only speculate that our using a small syringe with a
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36 354 high precision for small injections ($\pm 1 \mu\text{L}$) and a very reduced dead volume, might have
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39 355 allowed an accurate measurement of the dose, thus resulting in a more reliable
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42 356 anaesthesia. The use of very thin needles (30 gauge) might also have reduced damage to
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44 357 critical organs, maybe further reducing mortality. A short, custom-made needle and
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46 358 puncturing the lower-left quadrant of the abdomen with an angle perpendicular to the skin
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9 359 (thus avoiding affecting the liver or diaphragm) and some practice may result in virtually nil
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11 360 mortality.

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14 361 In light of our results, we propose that, for certain experimental procedures, it may be
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17 362 advisable to reconsider the use of parenteral anaesthesia with ketamine/xylazine in
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19 363 neonatal offspring.

20 21 22 364 **Declaration of conflict of interests**

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26 365 The authors declare no potential conflicts of interest with respect to the research,
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28 366 authorship, and/or publication of this article.

29 30 31 367 **Data availability**

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35 368 Original data of this study are available from the author for correspondence at request.

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45
46 372 reporting of the study.

47 48 49 50 373 **References**

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9 426 **Figure Legends**

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12 427 **Figure 1. Material and procedure for anaesthesia**

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15 428 **A:** Hamilton syringe of 50 μ L with luer tip (705LT) and 30G needles. **B/C:** Pups in the
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17 429 compartments of a cardboard box, placed on top of rechargeable hand warmers to ensure
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19 430 thermal stability throughout the procedure.

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22 431 **Figure 2. Immobility and recovery after ketamine/xylazine anaesthesia administration.**

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25 432 **A:** Bar histogram representing the time in seconds (mean \pm SEM) from administration of K/X
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27 433 anaesthesia until complete immobility, in P3 and P4 animals receiving low (37.5/3.75
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29 434 mg/kg) and high (50/5 mg/kg) doses of the anaesthetic mixture in experiment 1. Individual
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31 435 values are also represented using coloured dots. **B/C:** Survival curves showing the
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33 436 proportion of individuals of experiment 1 that are awake at any given time point from
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35 437 injection until the end of the record (4200s). Low and high doses are represented in
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37 438 separate lines, using the same colour code as in A. Kaplan Meyer analysis of survival
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39 439 indicates a significant difference in the recovery from anaesthesia between doses in P3
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42 440 animals (* indicates $0.01 < p < 0.05$).

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9 442 **Figure 3. Correlation analysis between latencies to immobility and awakening after**
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11 443 **ketamine/xylazine anaesthesia.**

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14 444 Biplots of the latency to immobility after anaesthetic injection (ordinate) and the latency to
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16 445 awake after anaesthesia (abscissa), in P3 (A) and P4 pups (B) during experiment 1. Data on
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18 446 animals under the low dose of the K/X mixture (37.5/3.75 mg/kg) are plotted as orange
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21 447 dots, whereas blue dots represent animals having received the high dose (50/5 mg/kg).
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23 448 Regression lines illustrate the trend in the correlations, and the results of the Spearman's
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25 449 correlation analysis (correlation coefficient, ρ ; associated p value) are indicated for each age
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28 450 and dose, using the same colour code as for the dots and lines.
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33 452 **Figure 4. Response to mild nociceptive stimulation in P3 pups under ketamine/xylazine**
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36 453 **parenteral anaesthesia.**

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38 454 **A:** Number of responses (mean \pm SEM) after 4 nociceptive stimulations shown by P3 pups at
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40 455 different points in time after administration of low (37.5/3.75mg/kg) and high (50/5 mg/kg)
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42 456 doses of K/X anaesthetic mixture. **B:** Proportion of unresponsive pups at different points in
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44 457 time after K/X injection. A pup is considered unresponsive if it responds to ≤ 1 of the 4
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46 458 stimulations. In both graphs, Chi square analysis reveal statistically significant differences
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9 459 between doses at different time points after injection, asterisks indicating the p values: *
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Under Review

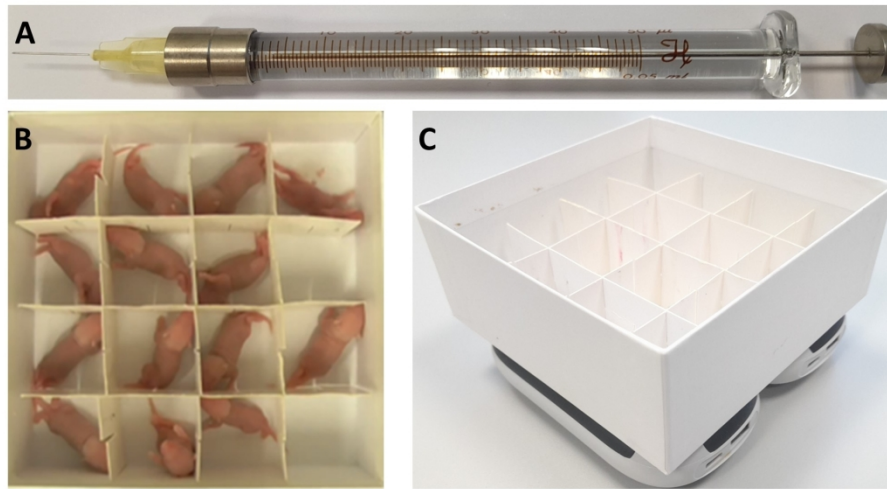


Figure 1. Material and procedure for anaesthesiaA: Hamilton syringe of 50 μ L with luer tip (705LT) and 30G needles. **B/C**: Pups in the compartments of a cardboard box, placed on top of rechargeable hand warmers to ensure thermal stability throughout the procedure.

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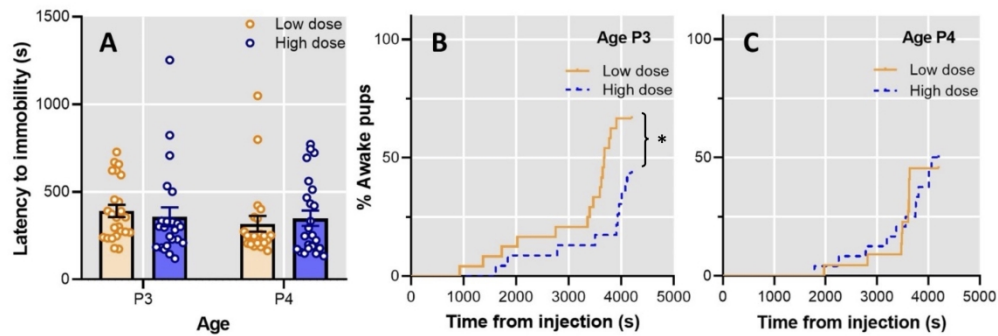


Figure 2. Immobility and recovery after ketamine/xylazine anaesthesia administration. **A:** Bar histogram representing the time in seconds (mean±SEM) from administration of K/X anaesthesia until complete immobility, in P3 and P4 animals receiving low (37.5/3.75 mg/kg) and high (50/5 mg/kg) doses of the anaesthetic mixture in experiment 1. Individual values are also represented using coloured dots. **B/C:** Survival curves showing the proportion of individuals of experiment 1 that are awake at any given time point from injection until the end of the record (4200s). Low and high doses are represented in separate lines, using the same colour code as in A. Kaplan Meyer analysis of survival indicates a significant difference in the recovery from anaesthesia between doses in P3 animals (* indicates 0.01 < p < 0.05).

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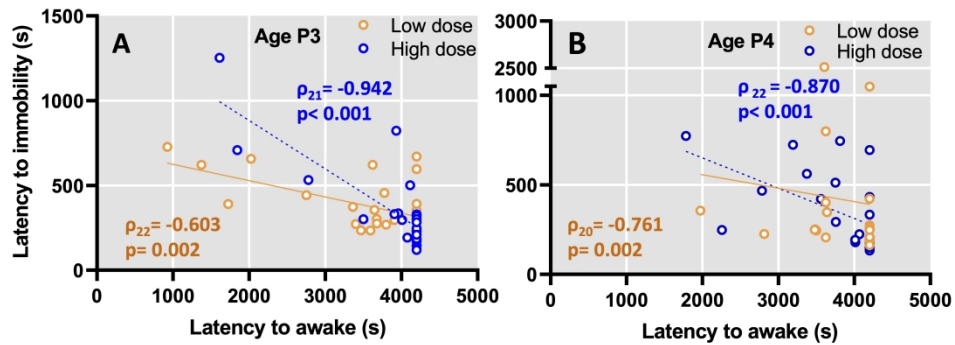


Figure 3. Correlation analysis between latencies to immobility and awakening after ketamine/xylazine anaesthesia. Biplots of the latency to immobility after anaesthetic injection (ordinate) and the latency to awake after anaesthesia (abscissa), in P3 (**A**) and P4 pups (**B**) during experiment 1. Data on animals under the low dose of the K/X mixture (37.5/3.75 mg/kg) are plotted as orange dots, whereas blue dots represent animals having received the high dose (50/5 mg/kg). Regression lines illustrate the trend in the correlations, and the results of the Spearman's correlation analysis (correlation coefficient, ρ ; associated p value) are indicated for each age and dose, using the same colour code as for the dots and lines.

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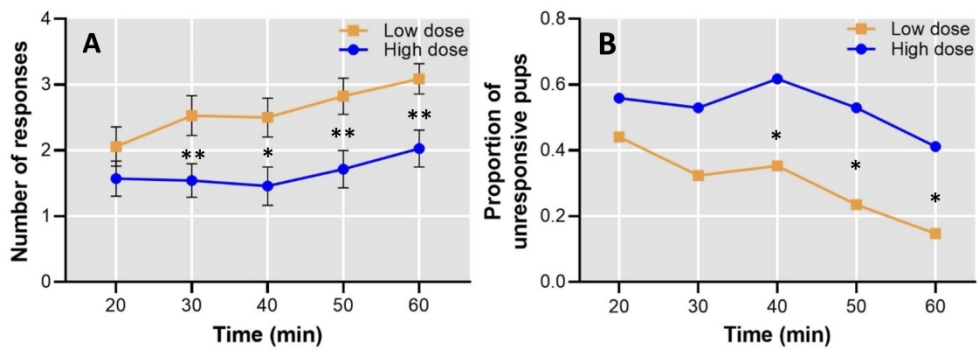


Figure 4. Response to mild nociceptive stimulation in P3 pups under ketamine/xylazine parenteral anaesthesia. **A:** Number of responses after 4 nociceptive stimulations at different points in time. Data are shown as mean ± SEM. **B:** Proportion of unresponsive pups at different points in time. A pup is considered unresponsive if it responds to ≤1 of the 4 stimulations. In both graphs, Chi square analysis reveal statistically significant differences between doses at different time points after injection, asterisks indicating the p values: * 0.01 < p < 0.05; ** p < 0.01.

1540x582mm (72 x 72 DPI)