

1 **High basal metabolic rate does not elevate oxidative stress during reproduction in**  
2 **laboratory mice**

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13 selection

1 **Summary**

2 Increased oxidative stress (OS) has been suggested as a physiological cost of reproduction.  
3 However, previous studies reported ambiguous results, with some even showing a reduction  
4 of oxidative damage during reproduction. We tested whether the link between reproduction  
5 and OS is mediated by basal metabolic rate (BMR), which has been hypothesised to affect  
6 both the rate of radical oxygen species production and anti-oxidative capacity. We studied the  
7 effect of reproduction on OS in females of laboratory mice divergently selected for high (H-  
8 BMR) and low (L-BMR) BMR, previously shown to differ with respect to parental  
9 investment. Non-reproducing L-BMR females showed higher oxidative damage to lipids  
10 (quantified as the level of malonaldehyde in internal organ tissues) and DNA (quantified as  
11 the level of 8-oxodG in blood serum) than H-BMR females. Reproduction did not affect  
12 oxidative damage to lipids in either line; however, it reduced damage to DNA in L-BMR  
13 females. Reproduction increased catalase activity in liver (significantly stronger in L-BMR  
14 females) and decreased in kidneys. We conclude that the effect of reproduction on OS  
15 depends on the initial variation in BMR and varies between studied internal organs and  
16 markers of OS.

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18

## 1 **Introduction**

2  
3 The evolution of high basal metabolic rate (BMR) and endothermy are hypothesized to result  
4 from selection for intensive parental care (Farmer, 2000; Koteja, 2000). The ability to  
5 maintain a high, sustained level of energy expenditure and locomotor activity could allow for  
6 more efficient feeding, guarding or brooding of offspring, which in turn can decrease juvenile  
7 mortality and thus increase parental fitness (Kozłowski, 1992). However, one of the key  
8 assumptions of life history theory is that intense parental effort should lead to higher costs of  
9 reproduction, revealed by a lower survival of parents, or their reduced future reproductive  
10 success (Roff, 1992; Stearns, 1992). Thus, even if higher BMR of parents enables better  
11 survival of their offspring, it may confer no evolutionary advantage if it simultaneously incurs  
12 an increase of the physiological costs of reproduction and thereby parental mortality.  
13 It is unclear however, to what extent elevated BMR is associated with such costs, most  
14 notably, with increased oxidative stress (OS), hypothesized to represent a significant  
15 reproductive cost at the molecular level (Speakman, 2008; Monaghan et al., 2009).

16 OS occurs when there is an imbalance between the production of reactive oxygen  
17 species (ROS) and the capacity of antioxidant mechanisms to control their damaging effects  
18 (Monaghan et al., 2009). ROS are primarily byproducts of normal metabolic processes that  
19 can cause damage to lipids, proteins, and DNA when not quenched by antioxidant  
20 mechanisms (e.g. enzymes like catalase and superoxide dismutase, or non-enzymatic  
21 antioxidants like glutathione; Monaghan et al., 2009; Pamplona and Constantini, 2011).  
22 Reproduction represents the period when animals may be particularly prone to OS, because  
23 elevated energy expenditure in reproduction can potentially increase the rate of ROS  
24 production and /or reduce investment in the antioxidative systems (Speakman, 2008;  
25 Monaghan et al., 2009). However, the relationship between BMR and the magnitude of  
26 oxidative damage is not obvious. First, higher metabolic rates do not universally elevate the  
27 rate of ROS production (Barja, 2007). For example, higher mitochondrial uncoupling may  
28 increase the rate of oxygen consumption but simultaneously decrease the ROS production  
29 (Speakman et al., 2004). Second, higher BMR may allow for more effective anti-oxidative  
30 mechanisms (Speakman et al., 2002). Finally, previous studies (reviewed in Stier et al., 2012;  
31 Metcalfe and Monaghan, 2013; Speakman and Garratt, 2013) on the relationship between OS  
32 and reproduction have produced ambiguous results. For example, laboratory experiments on  
33 small rodents reported both an increase (Stier et al., 2012) and decrease (Garratt et al., 2011;  
34 Oldakowski et al., 2012; Garratt et al., 2013) in oxidative damage during reproduction. In

1 conclusion, although variation in BMR is likely to affect both the magnitude of OS and its  
2 changes during reproduction, the direction of the relationship between these parameters is  
3 difficult to predict. This issue is particularly important because variation in individual parental  
4 quality may mediate the importance of OS as the cost of reproduction (Metcalf and  
5 Monaghan, 2013). Moreover, if BMR is an important predictor of parental quality, then  
6 variation in BMR (both within and between experiments) may be one of the factors  
7 responsible for the inconclusive results of previous studies of the changes of OS during  
8 reproduction.

9 In the present paper, we explore the presumed links between BMR and OS elicited by  
10 reproduction. We used laboratory mice from two line types with BMR manipulated by means  
11 of artificial selection for high (H-BMR) and low (L-BMR) body-mass-corrected BMR  
12 (Książek et al., 2004). The relative between-line-type difference in BMR reaches 40-50% [see  
13 the results of the present study]. Such a considerable difference makes testing correlations  
14 between BMR and life history parameters on an intra-specific level possible. Although  
15 selection is aimed at BMR measured before reproduction, it resulted in a significantly higher  
16 parental investment during lactation in H-BMR females, enabling faster growth of pups  
17 (Sadowska et al., 2013). Thus, selection for BMR affected parental effort and both line types  
18 are therefore particularly suited as a model for studies on the association between OS, BMR  
19 and reproduction (see Metcalfe and Monaghan, 2013). Recently, it was shown that selection  
20 for high maximum aerobic metabolic rate in bank voles did not affect the level of oxidative  
21 damage though it elevated BMR (Ołdakowski et al., 2012). However, the difference in BMR  
22 between mice from H-BMR and L-BMR line types is ca. 3 times higher than between control  
23 and selected line types of bank voles (compare Ołdakowski et al., 2012), and thus is more  
24 likely to reveal the effect of BMR on OS. Moreover, OS in females of bank vole was  
25 measured after weaning of their litters (Ołdakowski et al., 2012), whereas in the present  
26 experiment we assayed females at the peak lactation, when energetic costs of reproduction are  
27 highest.

28 In the present experiment, we predicted that: (i) if higher BMR increases the rate of  
29 ROS production and oxidative damage, the oxidative damage should be higher in non-  
30 reproducing H-BMR than L-BMR females. Moreover, elevated energy expenditures during  
31 reproduction are likely to further increase OS, particularly in H-BMR line type; (ii)  
32 alternatively, if higher BMR decreases the rate of ROS production (e.g. via more uncoupled  
33 mitochondria), enables more effective antioxidant mechanisms or is related to lower  
34 susceptibility to ROS-related damage, then non-reproducing H-BMR females should have

1 lower oxidative damage than non-reproducing L-BMR females. Under such a scenario  
2 (positive correlation between BMR and anti-oxidative defence or ROS resistance and/or  
3 negative correlation between BMR and ROS production), elevated energy expenditures  
4 during reproduction may not affect or may even reduce oxidative damage. To test these  
5 hypotheses, we measured two parameters quantifying oxidative damage to different types of  
6 molecules (Monaghan et al., 2009) in reproducing and non-reproducing females of both line  
7 types: the level of malonaldehyde (MDA; the product of lipid peroxidation) in liver, kidneys,  
8 and heart; and the concentration of 8-oxo-2'-deoxyguanosine (8-oxodG; the product of repair  
9 of ROS-mediated damage of guanosine) in blood serum as markers of oxidative damage to  
10 lipids, and DNA, respectively. We also measured the activity of catalase in liver and kidneys,  
11 an enzyme that represents an important component of anti-oxidative defence (Pamplona and  
12 Constantini, 2011).

## 1 Results

2  
3 Body-mass corrected BMR of reproducing females differed consistently between line types  
4 both before (LS means  $\pm$  s.e.m.; H-BMR:  $65.11 \pm 0.88$  ml O<sub>2</sub> h<sup>-1</sup>, L-BMR:  $43.28 \pm 0.83$  ml O<sub>2</sub>  
5 h<sup>-1</sup>) and after first reproduction (H-BMR:  $71.24 \pm 1.27$  ml O<sub>2</sub> h<sup>-1</sup>, L-BMR:  $54.53 \pm 1.16$  ml O<sub>2</sub>  
6 h<sup>-1</sup>). A significant interaction between the line type and the order of measurement reveals that  
7 the effect of first reproduction on BMR was line-type-specific (Table 1). Indeed, BMR  
8 increased between the measurements in the L-BMR ( $P=0.0002$ ) but not in the H-BMR line  
9 type ( $P=0.96$ ). However, the standardized between-line type differences were higher than  $d_{\text{drift}}$   
10 for BMR measured both before ( $d = 5.11$  versus  $d_{\text{drift}} = 0.71$ ) and after ( $d = 2.70$  versus  $d_{\text{drift}} =$   
11  $0.71$ ) first reproduction, suggesting that the difference in BMR arose as a result of selection  
12 rather than genetic drift and was still highly significant in females after first reproduction.

13         Among non-reproducing females, all parameters quantifying oxidative damage were  
14 higher in mice from the L-BMR line type, and the magnitude of most differences between line  
15 types exceeded the values expected under the effect of genetic drift (Table 2, Fig. 1).  
16 Oxidative damage to lipids was unaffected by reproduction (Table 2, Fig. 1). There was a  
17 significant interaction between line type affiliation and reproductive status for the level of 8-  
18 oxodG in blood serum (Table 2, Fig. 1D): non-reproducing L-BMR females had higher level  
19 of 8-oxodG than H-BMR ones ( $P=0.0004$ ), but this difference disappeared in reproducing  
20 females ( $P=0.86$ ).

21         There was also a significant interaction between reproductive status and line type for  
22 the activity of catalase in liver (Table 2; Fig. 2A). A Tukey's test showed that the activity of  
23 catalase did not differ between non-reproducing females from L-BMR and H-BMR line types  
24 ( $P>0.99$ ). Although it was elevated during reproduction in both line types, this increase was  
25 stronger in L-BMR than in H-BMR mice (Tukey test, respectively:  $P<0.0001$  and  $P=0.014$ ),  
26 resulting in a significant difference between reproducing females from both line types  
27 ( $P=0.016$ ). Catalase activity in the kidneys was not affected by the line type, and significantly  
28 decreased during reproduction in both line types (Table 2; Fig. 2B).

29

## 1 Discussion

2  
3 Differences in BMR between line types of studied mice significantly affected all examined  
4 markers of oxidative damage; however, reproduction did not change oxidative damage to  
5 lipids in internal organs, whereas the concentration of 8-oxodG in blood serum was reduced  
6 only in females with low BMR (Table 2, Fig. 1). For most traits quantifying oxidative  
7 damage, the magnitudes of phenotypic differences ( $d$ ) between line types for non-reproducing  
8 females were large enough to attribute it to the selection on BMR, rather than genetic drift  
9 (Table 2). This finding agrees with the results of other studies suggesting that the resistance to  
10 OS may have a significant genetic component (e.g. (Kim et al., 2010) and studies cited there).  
11 Interestingly, in non-reproducing females the level of oxidative damage was higher in mice  
12 selected for low BMR (L-BMR), whereas earlier studies reported positive inter- and intra-  
13 specific correlation between concentration of 8-oxodG and basal/standard metabolic rate  
14 (Foksinski et al., 2004; Topp et al., 2008).

15 This study does not allow us to pinpoint the exact mechanisms underlying the effect of  
16 the between-line-type variation in BMR on oxidative damage. However, the magnitude of  
17 oxidative damage reflects the balance between the rate of ROS generation and neutralisation,  
18 susceptibility to ROS, and the efficiency of repair mechanisms (Monaghan et al., 2009).  
19 Between-line type difference in BMR did not affect the activity of catalase in liver and  
20 kidneys (Fig. 2), and we have demonstrated earlier that males of both line types did not differ  
21 with respect to anti-oxidative capacity of blood serum (Brzęk et al., 2012). Thus, lower  
22 oxidative damage in the H-BMR mice probably cannot be attributed to their enhanced  
23 antioxidative defences, at least those assayed here and in Brzęk et al. (2012). Alternatively,  
24 mice with high BMR may have lower rate of ROS production because of higher  
25 mitochondrial uncoupling (Speakman et al., 2004). Finally, L-BMR mice may be more  
26 susceptible to OS due to higher proportion of ROS-susceptible polyunsaturated fatty acids in  
27 their cell membrane lipids (Brzęk et al., 2007). The products of lipid peroxidation may induce  
28 DNA damage (Evans and Cooke, 2006; Hulbert et al., 2007), and these mechanisms may  
29 explain the higher concentration of both MDA and 8-oxodG in L-BMR mice.

30 Our study is not the first one that reported no change or a reduction of oxidative  
31 damage in internal organs of reproducing rodents (Garratt et al., 2011; Ołdakowski et al.,  
32 2012; Garratt et al., 2013). The simplest explanation for the lack of increase in OS during  
33 reproduction is an improvement of anti-oxidative mechanisms. Indeed, we found a significant  
34 increase in the activity of catalase in the liver during reproduction (Fig. 2A), which agrees

1 with observations of elevated level of glutathione (Garratt et al., 2011) and the activity of  
2 superoxide dismutase (Garratt et al., 2013) in the same organ. Moreover, the increase of  
3 catalase activity was significantly higher in L-BMR females. Such a pattern may indicate that  
4 elevated energy metabolism during reproduction triggered higher up-regulation of ROS-  
5 neutralizing mechanisms in this line type, presumably to counterbalance a higher propensity  
6 to oxidative damage incurred by their more ROS-susceptible cell membrane lipids (Brzęk et  
7 al. 2007). Unexpectedly, the activities of catalase in the kidneys were significantly reduced  
8 during reproduction, indicating that other anti-oxidative mechanisms must be responsible for  
9 the lack of increase in oxidative damage in this organ (compare Fig. 1B and 2B). This result  
10 also suggests that the effect of reproduction on anti-oxidative defences can vary even between  
11 vital organs, such as liver and kidneys (similarly, the effect of reproduction on the activity of  
12 superoxide dismutase in Brandt's vole and Mongolian gerbil is tissue dependent; Xu et al., in  
13 press; Yang et al., 2013).

14 Although reproduction did not change the magnitude of oxidative damage to lipids in  
15 internal organs, it significantly reduced the concentration of 8-oxodG in blood serum of the L-  
16 BMR line type (Fig. 1D). However, the concentration of 8-oxodG in blood serum is a general  
17 marker of OS at the whole-body level, and imbalance between ROS production and  
18 neutralisation may differ between organs (Garratt et al., 2011; Garratt et al., 2012; Speakman  
19 and Garratt, 2013). One possibility is that elevated energy metabolism during reproduction  
20 triggered an enhanced up-regulation of ROS-neutralizing mechanisms in the L-BMR line  
21 type, similar to the pattern observed for the catalase activity in the liver. Alternatively,  
22 whereas excretion rates of 8-oxodG in a steady state are largely unaffected by repair  
23 capacities (Loft et al., 2008) and thus mainly reflects the rate of DNA damage, one might  
24 hypothesize that reproduction reduced activity of mechanisms excreting damaged DNA in L-  
25 BMR line type. We cannot exclude such a scenario; however, we emphasize that it would  
26 mean that reproducing females from L-BMR line type accumulated more mutagenic DNA  
27 lesions than females from H-BMR line type, a pattern that still indicates that higher BMR  
28 does not result in relatively higher oxidative damage during reproduction.

29 To the best of our knowledge, this is the first analysis of the link between variation in  
30 BMR and changes in OS during reproduction. Our results have three important evolutionary  
31 implications. First, the observed patterns suggest that the evolution of high BMR and  
32 endothermy via selection for more effective parental care (as proposed in Koteja, 2000) does  
33 not necessarily elevate the costs of reproduction in terms of an increased oxidative damage  
34 (since its value in reproducing H-BMR females never exceeded that observed in L-BMR line



1 type). In fact, our results suggest a negative association between energy expenditures and OS.  
2 An important caveat is that reproducing mice in our experiment had unlimited access to food,  
3 whereas the fitness effects of BMR are often context-dependent (Burton et al., 2011), and  
4 reproduction is more likely to increase OS when breeding individuals face limited food  
5 resources (Fletcher et al., 2013), or must cope with additional stresses (van de Crommenacker  
6 et al., 2012). However, reproducing females from the H-BMR line type cope better with lower  
7 ambient temperature than those from the L-BMR line type (Sadowska et al., 2013). Thus, it is  
8 unlikely that even under worse conditions, elevated OS in H-BMR line type would counter-  
9 balance profits resulting from better parental care. Second, results for DNA damage and the  
10 activity of catalase in the liver show that the initial differences in BMR can affect how  
11 parameters related to OS change during reproduction, confirming that inter-individual  
12 variation may be important in studies of the link between OS and the cost of reproduction  
13 (Metcalf and Monaghan, 2013). Thus, we recommend that - whenever possible - future  
14 studies on the association between the costs of reproduction and OS should take into account  
15 systematic variation in the level of basal energy expenditures (such as BMR) specific to  
16 studied organisms. Finally, contrasting directions of changes of the catalase activity in liver  
17 and kidneys during reproduction (without simultaneous changes in markers of OS in these  
18 organs) suggest the presence of significant variation between organs in the activation of anti-  
19 oxidative mechanisms during reproduction, a pattern found also in other recent studies (Xu et  
20 al., in press; Yang et al., 2013; Speakman and Garratt, 2013).

21

## 1 **Materials and methods**

### 3 *Animals and their maintenance*

4 Subjects in our experiment were females of Swiss-Webster mice (*Mus musculus* Linnaeus  
5 1758) from generation 36 of an artificial selection experiment for high and low body-mass-  
6 corrected BMR. The selection experiment, and the BMR assays are described in detail  
7 elsewhere (Książek et al., 2004; Gębczyński and Konarzewski, 2009). Briefly, males and  
8 females characterized by the highest and lowest mass-corrected BMR measured at age 12-16  
9 week were chosen as progenitors of the H-BMR and L-BMR line types, respectively. A  
10 similar procedure was repeated in subsequent offspring generations, yielding significant  
11 differentiation of the line types with respect to BMR, without simultaneous changes in body  
12 mass. Although the described selection experiment has no replications, between-line-type  
13 differences in BMR and several other traits have been shown several times to be large enough  
14 to claim that they represent a genuine change in frequencies of alleles directly related to BMR  
15 rather than genetic drift (Książek et al., 2004; Brzęk et al., 2007; Gębczyński and  
16 Konarzewski, 2009 ).

17 Throughout the course of the selection experiment, mice were maintained in a climatic  
18 chamber at an ambient temperature of 23<sup>0</sup>C and 12:12 light-dark cycle, and offered *ad libitum*  
19 water and food (murine laboratory chow, Labofeed H, Wytwórnia Pasz A. Morawski, Kcynia,  
20 Poland). The same conditions were applied during the present experiment.

### 22 *Experimental procedures*

23 Following BMR measurements, being a part of the selection procedure, females used in the  
24 present study were assigned randomly to reproducing and non-reproducing (control)  
25 treatments. Virgin, non-reproducing females (32 in H-BMR and 30 in L-BMR line type) were  
26 maintained in separate cages. Reproducing females (23 in H-BMR and 26 in L-BMR line  
27 type) were concurrently bred at 22 week of age (this reproduction was a part of our selection  
28 procedure). After weaning they were paired again with males from their respective line types  
29 and gave birth at 30 week of age (males were removed before parturition). Cages were bedded  
30 with sawdust and provided with paper towels for nest construction. Litter size did not differ  
31 between both line types ( $P>0.05$  for both reproductive attempts).

32 All females were killed on day 17 of the second lactation of reproducing dams by  
33 cervical dislocation, and their liver, kidneys, and heart were dissected and immediately  
34 frozen in liquid nitrogen. Blood samples were taken and centrifuged to collect blood serum.

1 All samples were stored at  $-80^{\circ}\text{C}$ . Samples from control females were collected at the same  
2 age like in reproducing females.

3 Measurements of resting metabolic rate in reproducing females do not represent BMR  
4 (i.e. the primary target of artificial selection) because they include the cost of pregnancy or  
5 milk synthesis. Therefore, we did not quantify metabolic rate of females during reproduction.  
6 However, to estimate whether the between-line-type difference in BMR was still significant  
7 after the first reproduction, we measured BMR in reproducing females right after the weaning  
8 of their first litter and compared with values found in the same individuals before experiment  
9 (see (Książek et al., 2004) for description of BMR assays).

#### 10 *Analysis of oxidative damage and activity of catalase*

11 MDA was measured by means of the NWK-MDA01 assay kit (Northwest Life Science  
12 Specialties LCC, Vancouver, WA, USA) according to the manufacturer's instructions (before  
13 spectrophotometric analyses, samples were extracted with butane-pyridine mixture v/v 15:1).  
14 Activity of catalase was assayed according to the method of Aebi (Aebi, 1983). Protein  
15 content in the supernatant was determined by means of the Lowry method using Sigma  
16 Aldrich TP0300 kit (Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, MO, USA). Repeatability of all assays was  $r \geq$   
17 0.9 (with the exception for protein content in heart, where  $r = 0.83$ ). Concentration of MDA  
18 was expressed in  $\text{nmol per mg}^{-1}$  protein, and activity of catalase was expressed (following  
19 recommendation by Aebi (Aebi, 1983)) as the rate constant of a first order reaction ( $k$ ) per  
20  $\text{mg}^{-1}$  protein.

21  
22 The concentration of 8-oxodG in blood serum was quantified with Trevigen HT 8-  
23 oxodG ELISA kit (4370-096-K; Trevigen Inc., Gaithersburg, MD, USA; analyzed in  
24 duplicate, repeatability  $r > 0.93$ ), and expressed as ng of 8-oxodG per mL of blood serum.  
25 Immunoassays may overestimate 8-oxodG content (Cooke et al., 2008; Cadet et al. 2011).  
26 Still, they can be a reliable test (Cooke et al., 2006), particularly when the aim of the study is  
27 to compare the relative level of 8-oxodG in different groups (Cooke et al., 2008).

28 Sample sizes for different assay differed because of limitations in the quantity of  
29 sample available for analysis but the number of non-analyzed animals never exceeded two per  
30 group.

#### 31 *Data analysis*

32 Variables were analyzed with an ANOVA with the line type, reproductive status (reproducing  
33 vs. non-reproducing females), the order of measurements (first and second, for changes in  
34

1 BMR between two measurements) as main factors, their respective interaction terms, and the  
 2 family affiliation (nested within line type) as random factor. Body mass was added as a  
 3 covariate in analyses of BMR. Besides the line type and reproductive status, all other terms  
 4 were included in the final model only when significant ( $P < 0.05$ ). We subsequently tested  
 5 between-group differences by means of Tukey post-hoc test. The magnitude of oxidative  
 6 damage in lipids in liver, the concentration of 8-oxodG, and BMR were log-transformed, and  
 7 catalase activity in liver was exponentially transformed before analyses to improve  
 8 homogeneity of variation. All analyses were carried using procedure MIXED in SAS  
 9 software.

10 Mice for this study came from a selection experiment without replicated lines.  
 11 Therefore, the observed differences between line types might have arisen as a result of genetic  
 12 drift rather than representing a genuine effect of artificial selection. To control for the possible  
 13 effect of genetic drift, we analysed the between-line-type differences in markers of oxidative  
 14 damage in non-reproducing females according to Henderson's guidelines (Henderson, 1997;  
 15 Konarzewski et al. 2005). We also analysed in the same way BMR measured in reproducing  
 16 females before and after first reproduction to check whether the between-line-type difference  
 17 in BMR caused by selection was still significant before second reproduction when OS was  
 18 quantified. First, we expressed the magnitude of difference between H-BMR and L-BMR line  
 19 types for a given trait  $X$  as the difference between the within-line-type mean values divided by  
 20 the weighted phenotypes ( $d_X$ ) (see Konarzewski et al., 2005). Then, we estimated the 95%  
 21 confidence intervals (95% CI, hereafter  $d_{drift}$ ) for  $d_X$ , using equation 16 from Henderson  
 22 (Henderson, 1997):

$$23 \quad \sigma_{(dX)} = 2\sqrt{(h_X^2 F + 1/n)} \quad (1),$$

24 where  $h_X^2$  is the narrow-sense heritability of analyzed trait  $X$ ,  $F$  is the inbreeding coefficient  
 25 ( $F = 0.25$  in generation F36 of the studied selection experiment, calculated from equation 3.5  
 26 from Falconer and Mackay (Falconer and Mackay, 1996)), and  $n$  is the number of families  
 27 used for studying the particular trait. We assumed  $h^2 = 0.4$  for BMR (Konarzewski et al.,  
 28 2005); however, we are aware of only one estimate of heritability for parameters we used to  
 29 quantify oxidative damage ( $h^2 = 0.17$  calculated for 8-oxodG urinary content in humans;  
 30 Broedbaek et al., 2011). Therefore, we calculated  $d_{drift}$  assuming either low ( $h^2 = 0.1$ ) or high  
 31 ( $h^2 = 0.4$ ) heritability of studied parameters. All differences where  $d > d_{drift}$  can be ascribed to  
 32 selection effect, rather than genetic drift. We emphasize that all calculated  $d_{drift}$  for  $h^2 < 0.7$   
 33 were lower than values of  $d$  estimated for BMR, MDA content in kidneys, and 8-oxodG (see

1 Results), and thus  $d > d_{drift}$  for these traits even if assumed values of the narrow-sense  
2 heritability were inaccurate.

#### 4 **List of abbreviations**

6	8-oxodG	8-oxo-2'-deoxyguanosine
7	BMR	basal metabolic rate
8	L-BMR, H-BMR	mice selected for high and low BMR, respectively
9	MDA	malonaldehyde
10	OS	oxidative stress
11	ROS	reactive oxygen species

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#### 21 **Competing interests statement**

23 The authors declare that they have no competing interests.

#### 25 **Author contributions**

27 P. Brzęk and M. Konarzewski developed the concept of the study. P. Brzęk performed the  
28 experiment. P. Brzęk, A. Książek, and Ł. Ołdakowski carried out biochemical analyses. P.  
29 Brzęk carried out statistical analysis of results. P. Brzęk, A. Książek, and M. Konarzewski  
30 prepared the paper. All authors approved the final manuscript.

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## Figure legends

**Figure 1. Oxidative damage in experimental animals.** Oxidative damage to lipids in liver (A), kidneys (B), and heart (C), and blood serum concentration of 8-oxodG (D). Means  $\pm$  s.e.m. are presented.

**Figure 2. Activity of catalase in experimental animals.** Activity of catalase in liver (A), and kidneys (B). Means  $\pm$  s.e.m. are presented.

Table 1. Summary of ANOVA of the effect of the line type (H-BMR vs. L-BMR), the order of measurement (before and after the first reproduction) and body mass on BMR.

	<i>F</i>	Df	<i>P</i>
Line type	261.41	1,36	<0.0001
Order of measurement	5.74	1,56	0.02
Line type × order of measurement	20.16	1,56	<0.0001
Body mass	45.88	1,56	<0.0001

Table 2. Summary of ANOVA of the effect of reproductive status (reproducing vs. non-reproducing females) and the line type (H-BMR vs. L-BMR) on markers of oxidative damage and the activity of catalase. Standardized between-line type differences  $d$  are shown for parameters with significant effect of the line type in non-reproducing females.  $d_{drift} = 0.43$  for  $h^2 = 0.1$  and  $d_{drift} = 0.69$  for  $h^2 = 0.4$ .

	Reproductive status			Line type			Reproductive status $\times$ line type			$d$
	$F$	df	$P$	$F$	df	$P$	$F$	df	$P$	
Content of MDA in liver	2.07	1,104	0.15	9.81	1,104	0.0023				0.62
Content of MDA in kidneys	0.73	1,102	0.39	13.28	1,102	0.0004				0.89
Content of MDA in heart	0.01	1,104	0.92	4.19	1,104	0.043				0.05
Concentration of 8-oxodG in blood serum	0.31	1,106	0.58	11.24	1,106	0.0011	4.69	1,106	0.033	1.33
Activity of catalase in liver	45.93	1,98	<0.0001	4.89	1,98	0.029	5.50	1,98	0.021	
Activity of catalase in kidneys	58.43	1,107	<0.0001	0.20	1,107	0.66				



