

1 **Title:**

2 Bottlenose dolphin calves have multi-year elevations of plasma oxytocin compared to
3 all other age classes

4

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25

26 **Abstract**

27 Providing for infants nutritionally via lactation is one of the hallmarks of mammalian
28 reproduction, and infants without motivated mothers providing for them are unlikely to
29 survive. Mothers must maintain regular contact with infants both spatially and
30 temporally while utilising their environment to forage, avoid threats and find shelter.
31 However, mothers can only do this and maximise their reproductive success with some
32 degree of co-operation from infants, despite their developing physical and cognitive
33 capabilities. The neuropeptide hormone oxytocin (OT) triggers proximity-seeking
34 behaviour and acts in a positive feedback loop across mother-infant bonds, stimulating
35 appropriate pro-social behaviour across the pair. However, data on infant OT levels is
36 lacking, and it is unclear how important infants are in maintaining mother-infant
37 associations. The bottlenose dolphin (*Tursiops truncatus*) is a mammalian species that is
38 fully physically mobile at birth and has multi-year, but individually variable, lactation
39 periods. We investigated OT concentrations in mother-infant pairs of wild individuals
40 compared to other age and reproductive classes. An ELISA to detect OT in dolphin
41 plasma was successfully validated with extracted plasma. We highlight a statistical
42 method for testing for parallelism that could be applied to other ELISA validation
43 studies. OT concentrations were consistently elevated in calves up to at least 4 years of
44 age with lactating mothers (12.1 ± 0.9 pg/ml), while all mothers (4.5 ± 0.4 pg/ml) had OT
45 concentrations comparable to non-lactating individuals (5.9 ± 0.5 pg/ml). Concentrations
46 within infants were individually variable, and may reflect the strength of the bond with
47 their mother. The OT system likely provides a physiological mechanism for motivating
48 infants to perform behaviours that prevent long-term separation from their mothers
49 during this crucial time in their life history. Elevated infant OT has also been linked to
50 energetic and developmental advantages which may lead to greater survival rates.

51 Environmental or anthropogenic disturbances to OT release can occur during bond
52 formation or can disrupt the communication methods used to reinforce these bonds via
53 OT elevation. Variation in OT expression in infants, and its behavioural and
54 physiological consequences, may explain differences in reproductive success despite
55 appropriate maternal behaviour expression.

56

57 **Keywords**

58 Infant behaviour; maternal behaviour; mother-infant bonds; oxytocin; proximity
59 seeking; separation

60

61 **1. Introduction**

62 Reproductive success in animal species that display parental behaviour is reliant on an
63 individual's ability to maintain care-giving activities towards dependant infants while
64 continuing to utilise habitat effectively for essential resources (Dietz et al. 1994, Hill et
65 al. 2000, Tremblay and Chereil 2003, Macri and Wübel 2007, Robb et al. 2008).

66 Mammalian infant survival is particularly dependant on repeated, consistent interactions
67 with mothers during early life, as they are the primary individuals able to provide
68 infants with milk via lactation. Mothers are stimulated to associate with their offspring
69 and engage in care-giving behaviours towards them via both physiological systems and
70 cognitive processes. After birth, the quality of care a mammalian mother gives to her
71 infant(s) is the biggest factor determining their survival (Nowak et al. 2000). However,
72 even the most motivated mothers cannot rear their young successfully if there is no co-
73 ordination or co-operation from dependant infants (Fleming et al. 1999). Cognitive
74 abilities in offspring undergo substantial development during the time they are reliant
75 on their parents (Rice and Barone 2000, Branchi 2009). Therefore for infants,

76 physiological systems promoting parental associations and appropriate behaviour
77 towards care-givers may be crucial for averting separations or preventing behaviour that
78 increases the likelihood of separation.

79

80 Oxytocin (OT) is a neuropeptide hormone that is vital for bond formation and the
81 initiation and expression of maternal care in mammals (Gimpl and Farenholz 2001,
82 Ross and Young 2009, Rilling and Young 2014, Jurek and Neumann 2018). In wild
83 mammalian species it causes proximity seeking behaviours between mothers or adult
84 care-givers and infants (meerkats (*Suricata suricatta*); Madden and Clutton-Brock
85 2010, grey seals (*Halichoerus grypus*); Robinson et al. 2015a, 2017). Oxytocin is
86 released via a positive feedback mechanism, and interactions between individuals
87 sharing a functional bond generate elevated peripheral OT levels in bond mates (Rilling
88 and Young 2014, Nagasawa et al. 2015, Robinson et al. 2019). However, there is
89 evidence that a mother's peripheral OT concentration becomes a less effective predictor
90 of her proximity to dependant infants as they become more physically developed and
91 mobile (Robinson et al. 2015a). Drivers of offspring behaviour within a mother-infant
92 dyad may therefore play an important role in determining the success or failure of a
93 reproductive event as infants develop across the dependant period. Despite this, thus far
94 there are few studies on infant OT concentrations and their potential impacts on
95 behaviour and development. Data on endogenous infant plasma OT levels prior to
96 weaning have only been published for three species, and all show elevated plasma
97 concentrations of the hormone compared to adults (human (*Homo sapiens*) babies;
98 Leake et al. 1981, laboratory mice (*Mus musculus*); Higashida et al. 2010, grey seals;
99 Robinson et al. 2019). Manipulation experiments on newly weaned grey seals under a
100 month old have also demonstrated that elevated OT triggers proximity-seeking

101 behaviour in young individuals (Robinson et al. 2017). However, of these three species,
102 two have very short dependant periods (grey seals; approximately 18 days Fedak and
103 Anderson 1982, mice; approximately 22 days Higashida et al. 2010) and human babies
104 have only been studied during the first four days of life (Leake et al. 1981). For all of
105 these species, infants additionally have limited physical ability to separate from mothers
106 during the immediate post partum period. Therefore, to explore links between offspring
107 OT concentrations and maintaining mother-infant associations, it would be ideal to
108 obtain measurements from a species that is highly mobile from birth and that relies on
109 maternal care for longer than a few weeks.

110

111 Species of the orders Artiodactyla and Perissodactyla typically produce highly
112 developed, precocial young which are capable of independent locomotive movement
113 soon after birth (Lent 1974). Infants are able to move independently to either stay
114 alongside their mothers or to seek out a hiding spot to conceal themselves while
115 mothers continue to feed (Fisher et al. 2002). Of the animals included in these two
116 orders, the production of infants with highly developed locomotive skills is especially
117 vital to cetaceans, which reproduce in aquatic environments and must swim to the
118 surface to breathe as soon as they are born (Dearolf et al. 2000). Infants from Delphinid
119 species face additional challenges driving their advanced mobility skills at early ages.
120 Dolphin calves must constantly swim from birth, and during the first month of
121 postpartum life mother-calf pairs show little typical sleep behaviour (Lyamin et al.
122 2005). Calves can ride their mother's pressure wave to reduce the amount of time spent
123 actively swimming, however they are regularly separated from each other, as mothers
124 within dolphin species do not halt feeding behaviour during the early life stages of their
125 calves as many migratory whale species do (Pomeroy et al. 2017). All dolphin species

126 are carnivorous and mothers have to suddenly accelerate to facilitate prey capture
127 throughout the dependant period. Such foraging behaviour increases opportunities for
128 mother-calf separation and there is evidence that dolphin calves that are unable to
129 successfully cope with frequent maternal separations have lower survival rates (Mann
130 and Watson-Capps 2005). In addition to these spatial challenges, many species of
131 dolphins typically do not wean their calves nutritionally until at least one year of age
132 (Perrin and Reilly 1984), with some species taking much longer and with substantial
133 individual variation (Mann et al. 2000). Dolphin species therefore present a unique
134 model species to test whether elevated OT concentrations are present in mother-infant
135 pairs. These pairs consist of two individuals that are physically able to rapidly separate
136 from each other, but must reunite as calves are nutritionally dependent on mothers for a
137 long, but variable, period of time.

138

139 The common bottlenose dolphin (*Tursiops truncatus*) is one of the best studied of all
140 cetacean species as wild individuals are frequently individually identifiable, which has
141 permitted many long-term studies on behaviour, life history and population dynamics
142 across the globe (Würsig and Jefferson 1990). The Sarasota Dolphin Research Program
143 (SDRP) based in the USA has studied the long-term, year-round resident community of
144 common bottlenose dolphins (*T. t. truncatus*) that lives in the coastal waters off the west
145 coast of Florida near Sarasota since 1970 (Wells 1991, 2014). Nutritional weaning ages
146 for wild bottlenose dolphin calves typically range between approximately 2.7 - 5 years
147 of age, with some individuals nursing for double this range (Mann et al. 2000). In the
148 Sarasota community, calf independence occurs typically at 3 – 6 years of age, but
149 substantial variation across different mother-calf pairs exists with some lactating
150 mothers associating with their calves for 9 years (Wells et al. 1987, Connor et al. 2000).

151 The behavioural and population data collected by the SDRP is uniquely complemented
152 by occasional health assessments of a subset of the resident community, with the
153 shallow waters of Sarasota Bay facilitating safe capture, blood sampling and release of
154 free-ranging wild dolphins (Wells et al. 2004). To complement the data collected from
155 free-ranging individuals, it is possible to study dolphins under human care at zoological
156 facilities. This enables researchers to obtain samples and measurements in minimally
157 stressful conditions via training individual dolphins to co-operate with research
158 protocols (Ramirez 2012). Many analytical protocols identifying biomarkers for
159 studying the physiology of free-ranging cetacean populations rely on studying cetaceans
160 under human care to develop and verify novel methodologies (Würsig et al. 2018). Zoo
161 Duisburg (ZD) has several decades of experience maintaining small cetaceans under
162 human care, and the dolphins at ZD have enabled research studying detailed aspects of
163 individual physiology (Kastelein et al. 1993) and behaviour (Janik and Slater 1998). By
164 utilising samples from both the SDRP and ZD, we were able to test if elevated OT is
165 present in mother-calf pairs within a species that is highly mobile from birth and
166 determine whether any elevation occurs throughout the variable lactation period of
167 several years. If OT dynamics are important for driving associations between mothers
168 and infants, concentrations within these individuals should be elevated for at least the
169 duration of lactation, however long that may be within a specific dyad.

170

171 **2. Methods**

172

173 *2.1. Ethics and permits*

174 All animal procedures were performed under applicable national, and institutional
175 guidelines. Capture and sampling work with wild bottlenose dolphins was conducted by

176 the SDRP under National Marine Fisheries Service Scientific Research Permit Number
177 15543 issued to RSW, and under Mote Marine Laboratory Institutional Animal Care
178 and Use Committee approvals renewed annually. All research received prior ethical
179 approval from the University of St Andrews Animal Welfare and Ethics Committee.
180 Plasma samples from the USA were transported to the UK for analysis under CITES
181 export permits 14US39971B/9 and 16US98573B/9 and CITES import permits
182 528413/01 and 549036/01.

183

184 *2.2. Study site and animals*

185 Individual dolphins sampled for this study came from two sources, ZD where dolphins
186 are held under human care, and wild individuals who were briefly captured, sampled
187 and released by the SDRP as part of a long-term study that includes health assessments.
188 Blood draws from six dolphins at ZD took place as part of routine veterinary
189 assessments in 2014 and aliquots of plasma collected during this sampling opportunity
190 were set aside for use in this study.

191

192 Fieldwork with wild dolphins was conducted on the resident bottlenose dolphin
193 community near Sarasota Bay, Florida, USA in May 2014 – 2016 with the SDRP.
194 Capture-release studies of this population have occurred periodically since 1970 and are
195 accomplished by rapid encircling of study individuals with a net deployed from the rear
196 of a nine-metre vessel, followed by immediate physical restraint by trained handlers and
197 veterinarians (Wells and Scott 1990, Wells et al. 2004). Study animals were identified
198 via individual markings on the dorsal fin prior to capture. Plasma samples and mass data
199 were collected from all individuals except two in the 2014 cohort, which were not
200 weighed. The numbers of individuals sampled are as follows; 19 in 2014, 14 in 2015

201 and 9 in 2016. This gave a total of 42 samples from wild dolphins, with two individuals
202 sampled in both 2014 and 2015.

203

204 2.3. Plasma sampling

205 All plasma samples were collected from peripheral veins in the ventral surface of the
206 tail fluke. Dolphins under human care were trained to present their flukes for
207 venipuncture (Ramirez 2012) and wild dolphins were manually restrained for the
208 procedure immediately after capture. The time intervals between 1. capture net
209 deployment to restraining an individual, 2. restraining an individual to sample collection
210 and 3. sample collection to sample freezing at -80°C were recorded for all wild
211 individuals to control for potential variable capture stress and sample collection or
212 processing times in the statistical analysis. Prolonged restraint stress has been shown to
213 impact on OT concentrations in some mammal species (e.g. prairie voles (*Microtus*
214 *ochrogaster*), Grippo et al. 2009). However, validation studies on plasma collected from
215 other wild marine mammal species (grey and harbour (*Phoca vitulina*) seals, Robinson
216 et al. 2014) show that this variation only exists if unextracted plasma is used for OT
217 detection, which was not the case in our study.

218

219 Plasma samples were drawn into lithium heparin or ethylenediaminetetraacetic acid
220 (EDTA) vacutainers with no addition of aprotinin. Mean volume of plasma per sample
221 was 2.7ml (range: 0.5-3ml). Samples were stored on ice immediately after collection
222 until they could be spun, aliquoted and frozen at -20°C (ZD) or snap frozen and stored
223 at -80°C (SDRP). Prior validation work has demonstrated no difference in OT
224 concentrations across vacutainer type as long as extracted plasma is used for OT

225 detection and no changes in OT levels have been detected in samples stored at -20°C for
226 at least two years (Robinson et al. 2014).

227

228 *2.4. OT detection*

229 All plasma samples were transported on dry ice to the University of St Andrews for OT
230 analysis. Samples were analysed in duplicate for OT using an enzyme-linked

231 immunosorbent assay (ELISA) (Enzo Life Sciences) with each sample under-going

232 solid-phase extraction using Sep-Pak C18 columns (Szeto et al. 2011) prior to analysis.

233 The protocol for extraction followed the manufacturer's instructions but included the

234 modifications detailed in Robinson et al. (2014) to adapt the standard protocol for use

235 with marine mammal plasma, which can block the Sep-Pak C18 columns if not

236 sufficiently centrifuged after acidification. All OT detection in this study was performed

237 using extracted samples. To determine recovery rates, a set of plasma samples (n=10)

238 were first spiked with known quantities of oxytocin, then these samples were extracted

239 and analysed using the same protocol as all other samples.

240

241 All ELISA plates were read using a BioTek ELx800 reader and the standard curve and

242 assay results for all plates were then fitted using the calibFit package (Haaland et al.,

243 2011) in R version 3.4.1. (R Development Core Team, 2012). As one of the aims of the

244 current study was to successfully validate this ELISA plate for use in bottlenose dolphin

245 plasma, all quality control information, including coefficients of variance, recovery

246 rates and sample parallelism with the standard curve is given in the results section.

247

248

249

250 2.5. *Statistical analysis*

251

252 All analyses were performed using the statistical package R 3.4.1 (R Development Core
253 Team, 2012).

254

255 As part of the validation of the OT ELISA kit, parallelism was tested for statistically by
256 generating linear models for the serial dilutions (optical density plotted against natural
257 log of percentage sample dilution) of the ELISA kit standards and extracted plasma
258 samples and then testing for significant interactions between the regression lines using
259 an ANOVA (Kershaw et al. 2017). Significant interactions between linear regression
260 lines indicate that they cross, demonstrating that the lines are not parallel. The standard
261 curve for the OT ELISA kit is a logistic curve rather than a straight line; therefore, to
262 allow linear regression modelling, the natural log of the percentage sample dilution was
263 used for parallelism analysis to give linear dilution lines rather than curved ones.

264

265 To investigate whether there was a context difference between capture methodology
266 used to obtain blood samples, plasma OT concentrations from adult (>10 years) and
267 juvenile (<10 years and independent of mother) individuals from the wild and
268 zoological park locations were compared. No calves under human care were sampled;
269 therefore, no calves were included in this stage of analysis. A two-way ANOVA
270 compared individuals of the four age/sex classes (adult male, adult female, juvenile
271 male and juvenile female) and OT levels from samples collected from wild individuals
272 using established physical restraint methods and from individuals under human care
273 trained to present tail flukes for blood sampling. Data were normally distributed with

274 equal variance across groups; therefore, no transformation was required prior to the
275 two-way ANOVA.

276

277 A generalised additive mixed model (GAMM) (Wood 2006a) was used to investigate
278 whether social dyad type affected plasma OT concentrations. Explanatory variables
279 explored in these models included the year of sampling (2014, 2015, 2016), the
280 individual's sex, the social dyad the sampled individual was part of when sampled (calf
281 with mother, mother with calf, male within a male alliance or lone individuals), whether
282 other dyads were present when individuals were sampled (a mother-calf pair or a male
283 alliance), the time from capture net deployment to restraining an individual (in seconds),
284 the time from restraining an individual to sample collection (in seconds) and the time
285 from sample collection until freezing at -80°C (in seconds). The model was fitted using
286 the multiple generalized cross validation library *mgcv* (Wood 2012). The identities of
287 individuals were fitted as random effect smooths (Wood 2006b) as the same individuals
288 were sampled in multiple years. The smoothing parameters were set by maximum
289 likelihood to reduce the risk of overfitting associated with other methods (Wood 2011).
290 The model was fitted with a Gaussian error distribution. Model selection was done by
291 backwards stepwise elimination through examination of R^2 values, Akaike's
292 information criterion (AIC) values, QQ and residual plots to identify the best model
293 given the data assessing goodness of fit and parsimony.

294

295 It was not possible to include age of individuals in the main GAMM model as this was
296 unknown for several adult individuals. Age was known for all calves sampled however,
297 and the calves sampled included some that were old enough to be able to separate from
298 mothers (at approximately 3-6 years of age (Wells et al. 1987)). Weaning events that

299 result in infants becoming independent of their mothers have been previously shown to
300 impact on plasma OT levels in grey seals (Robinson et al. 2019) and mice (Higashida et
301 al 2010), therefore a Pearson correlation coefficient was calculated for calf age and
302 plasma OT concentrations.

303

304 To investigate any relationship between body size and plasma oxytocin concentrations,
305 Pearson correlation coefficients were calculated between weight and plasma oxytocin
306 levels in calves (68 – 117kg, n = 13) and non-calf individuals (juveniles and adults, 124
307 – 291kg, n = 27). Calves and non-calves were investigated separately as age class and
308 weight are strongly correlated, and therefore cannot be distinguished analytically within
309 one analysis.

310

311 **3. Results**

312

313 *3.1. Validation of an ELISA for OT detection in bottlenose dolphin plasma*

314 The commercial ELISA kit was successfully validated for detecting OT in bottlenose
315 dolphins using extracted plasma samples (ANOVA: $F_{1,4} = 0.12$, $p = 0.75$) (Fig. 1).

316 When using extracted plasma, recovery rates for the extraction and ELISA procedure
317 were 112% (n = 10), intra-assay coefficient of variance (calculated across duplicates)
318 for this assay was 2.9% and inter-assay coefficient of variance over the three plates used
319 in this study was 7.3%.

320

321

322

323 3.2. Basal concentrations of OT in wild bottlenose dolphins and dolphins under human
 324 care

325 Mean basal plasma OT concentrations and the ranges detected for wild bottlenose
 326 adults, juveniles and calves and dolphins under human care are given in table 1.

327

328 Table 1. Mean and ranges of detected basal plasma OT concentrations in bottlenose

329 dolphins by age class, sex and capture location.

Source	Age class	Sex	n	Mean plasma OT (pg/ml)	Range of plasma OT (pg/ml)
Wild	Adult	Male	10	5.62	2.6 – 7.5
		Female	15	4.58	2.3 – 8.3
	Juvenile	Male	2	7.8	5.1 – 10.5
		Female	1	4.4	na
	Calf	Male	4	10.2	9.2 – 11
		Female	10	12.9	4.2 – 18.4
Under human care	Adult	Male	1	2.5	na
		Female	3	5.4	3.7 – 7.1
	Juvenile	Male	0	na	na
		Female	2	3.9	3.4 – 4.5

330

331 There were no significant differences in plasma OT concentrations between individuals
 332 sampled in wild or non-wild contexts (ANOVA: $F_{1, 29} = 1.08$, $p = 0.31$) or between
 333 adults or juveniles of either sex (ANOVA: $F_{3, 29} = 2.415$, $p = 0.09$).

334

335 3.3. *OT concentrations across social dyad types*

336 Social dyad type, whether other dyads were present during capture and the individual
337 identity smooth were retained in the final model investigating variation in plasma OT
338 concentrations. The year of sampling, individual sex and three measures of different
339 time intervals during the capture and sampling procedures had no significant impact on
340 plasma OT concentrations and were removed from the final model. The social dyad type
341 was the only variable that significantly affected plasma OT concentrations (GAMM: R^2
342 = 0.62, SI Table 1), with ‘calves with mothers’ having higher OT concentrations than all
343 other individuals in the various dyad types (Fig. 2) ($p < 0.001$ for all comparisons, Table
344 2).

345

346 Table 2. Mean and ranges of detected basal plasma OT concentrations in bottlenose
347 dolphins by social dyad type.

Social dyad type	n	Mean plasma OT (pg/ml)	Range of plasma OT (pg/ml)
Lone individuals	4	6.4	4.4 - 10.5
Males in alliances	10	5.62	2.6 – 7.5
Mothers with calves	14	4.5	2.3 – 8.3
Calves with mothers	14	12.1	4.2 – 18.4

348

349

350 3.4. *Age driven variation in calf plasma OT*

351 While there was a negative correlation between calf age and plasma OT concentrations,
352 it was non-significant (Pearson correlation coefficient, $r = -0.39$, $p = 0.17$, Fig. 3).

353

354 *3.5 Weight driven variation in plasma OT*

355 There was no relationship between weight and plasma OT levels in calves (Pearson
356 correlation coefficient, $r = -0.23$, $p = 0.4$, Fig. 4a) or juveniles/adults (Pearson
357 correlation coefficient, $r = 0.17$, $p = 0.4$). Visual inspection of the data plots (Fig. 4) and
358 investigation of behavioural observations and capture records indicated the presence of
359 an outlier in the juvenile/adult cohort (see discussion section), and when this individual
360 was removed there was a significant positive relationship between weight and plasma
361 OT levels in these age ranges (Pearson correlation coefficient, $r = 0.5$, $p = 0.01$, Fig.
362 4b).

363

364 **4. Discussion**

365

366 *4.1. Successful ELISA validation with extracted plasma*

367 No endocrine study can proceed without confidence in the methods used to detect the
368 hormone of interest. Analytical methods for hormone studies are usually developed with
369 laboratory model animals, and any study looking to investigate wildlife species with the
370 same methods must first verify that the methodology is still accurate in this new
371 context. Here we demonstrate that OT in plasma from bottlenose dolphins can be
372 accurately detected using a commercial ELISA. With the successful validation of
373 plasma OT detection in this species, there is potential to further validate these analysis
374 methods in other cetacean species or using other obtainable substrates (see De Mello
375 and De Oliveira 2016) such as urine (Muraco et al. 2009, Steinman et al. 2016), saliva
376 (Monreal-Pawlowsky et al. 2016) or exhaled respiratory vapour (Burgess et al. 2018), as
377 both urine and saliva samples have previously been successfully used for OT detection

378 in other mammalian wildlife species (e.g. Crockford et al. 2013, Leeds et al. 2018,
379 Schaebs et al. 2019).

380

381 When collecting any kind of biological sample from study subjects there is the potential
382 for sampling procedures to cause significant changes to the hormone of interest (Beerda
383 et al. 1996). Both central and peripheral oxytocin release can occur in response to a
384 variety of physical and psychological stressors under laboratory conditions (Neumann
385 2002, Landgraf and Neumann 2004), therefore it was necessary to investigate the
386 potential for the capture and sampling methods used in this study to affect plasma
387 oxytocin levels. Our data show that there was no relationship between any of the
388 restraint durations experienced by free-ranging individuals and their plasma oxytocin
389 concentrations, and additionally found no difference in peripheral oxytocin levels across
390 free-ranging individuals and those under human care, who had been trained and
391 habituated to blood draw procedures. These two findings demonstrate that the protocols
392 used to sample wild dolphins were either not long enough in duration or were not acute
393 enough physical or psychological stressors to cause peripheral oxytocin release in this
394 species. This finding agrees with results from other wild marine mammal species that
395 showed no impact of restraint time or the use of physical or chemical restraint on
396 peripheral oxytocin levels in grey seals (Robinson et al. 2014). The types of stressors
397 that have been documented to cause peripheral oxytocin changes thus far in the
398 literature are far more extreme than the methods used in this study, and include long-
399 term restraint (Grippe et al. 2009, CS Carter, personal communication), restraint in a
400 supine position (Hashimoto et al. 1989), forced swimming tests (Wotjak et al. 1998) and
401 noxious or conditioned fear stimuli (Onaka 2004). Peripheral oxytocin dynamics in
402 relation to stress are additionally modulated or ‘buffered’ by the social context in which

403 the stressor is experienced (Smith and Wang 2014) and as free-ranging individuals
404 travelling in small groups were captured together, and were not separated outside of
405 acoustic or visual range of each other during sampling, it is possible that social
406 buffering of stress responses took place and prevented peripheral oxytocin changes
407 during sampling.

408

409 When reporting validations, determining whether a dilution series of the sample
410 substrate is parallel with the standard curve from the assay is one of several basic
411 requirements to demonstrate the assay is reacting correctly and predictably to the
412 sample (Plikaytis et al. 1994). Non-linearity in response to parallelism testing is an
413 indication that problems are occurring when attempting to use a particular sample type
414 with an assay. A common cause of these difficulties are matrix effects, where non-target
415 substances present in the sample substrate bind either specifically or non-specifically to
416 the reagents used as part of the ELISA protocol (Tu and Bennett 2017). Interference can
417 also occur due to degradation of the target peptide by proteinases or alterations to
418 protein conformation via exposure to chemicals during sample collection, such as
419 chelation of plasma collected with ethylenediamine tetraacetic acid (EDTA) vacutainer
420 tubes (Schwickart et al. 2014).

421

422 While conducting parallelism testing is vital, even in studies using such tests as part of
423 validations there is substantial variation in what is reported. Published ways of
424 confirming parallelism include plots with only visual confirmation (e.g., Sarkar and
425 Prakash 2006), detecting linearity and inferring parallelism from this (e.g., Bienboire-
426 Frosini et al. 2017) and statistical analysis proving parallelism (e.g., Burgess et al.
427 2018), even if only with a portion of the standard curve (e.g., MacLean et al. 2017a).

428 Statistically proving parallelism is the most reliable way to confirm its presence, and the
429 method used in this paper from Kershaw et al. (2017) provides an irrefutable method for
430 testing for parallelism across the entire curve. Currently, there is increasing interest in
431 using OT ELISAs to investigate the social behavioural endocrinology of domestic (e.g.,
432 Bienboire-Frosini et al. 2017, Schaebs et al. 2019) and wild animal species (e.g., Leeds
433 et al. 2018, Schaebs et al. 2019). Reporting methods for hormone detection that have
434 both succeeded and failed validation checks will enable future studies to utilise the best
435 methods when developing their own protocols with wildlife or domestic species.

436

437 *4.2. OT dynamics in adult bottlenose dolphins*

438 OT concentrations in adult dolphins did not vary across the sexes, and lactating mothers
439 had comparable levels to all other adult classes. There was also no difference in the OT
440 levels detected in wild individuals or those under human care. Adult dolphin OT levels
441 in plasma (mean: 4.9pg/ml, range: 2.3-8.3pg/ml) were individually variable, but were
442 comparable to levels reported in non-breeding grey seals (4.3pg/ml, Robinson et al.
443 2015a), rats (6.8pg/ml, Landgraf 1981), domestic dogs (9 -13 pg/ml, MacLean et al.
444 2017b), six other domestic animal species (ranging from 2.9 – 10.9 pg/ml, Bienboire-
445 Frosini et al. 2017) and adult humans (0.1–23 pg/ml, reviewed in Szeto et al. 2011).
446 Therefore, bottlenose dolphins have comparable basal OT levels to more traditional
447 model animal species and humans.

448

449 Elevated peripheral OT levels are indicative of functional bonds between individuals
450 (Strathearn et al. 2009, Crockford 2013 & Crockford 2014) and the neuropeptide acts
451 via positive feedback loops within bonded pairs, linking proximity seeking behaviour,
452 social interactions and elevated peripheral OT levels (Nagasawa et al. 2015, Robinson et

453 al. 2019). Co-ordinated central and peripheral release of OT occurs in certain contexts
454 (Neumann and Landgraf 2012), including during mother-infant interactions (Strathearn
455 et al 2009). Additionally, both manipulation studies (Madden and Clutton-Brock 2010,
456 Robinson et al. 2017) and correlations of endogenous peripheral OT and proximity
457 seeking behaviours (Robinson et al. 2015a) demonstrate these aspects of mother-infant
458 behaviour and physiology are linked. Therefore, elevated peripheral OT levels could act
459 as a biomarker for an individual's motivation to remain in close proximity to bond-
460 mates during critical periods.

461

462 Maternal dolphin OT levels at least 2 years postpartum were comparable to those
463 reported in lactating human mothers within 5 days of birth (10.8 pg/ml, Dawood et al.
464 1981) and 1-4 months after birth (5.4 pg/ml, Drewett et al. 1982). Maternal dolphin
465 values were only comparable to the lower range of OT values detected in lactating seals
466 in the first 18 days postpartum (mean 8.2pg/ml, ranging between 3.5 – 25.5 pg/ml,
467 Robinson et al. 2019). Unlike seals, there was no difference in OT levels between
468 lactating and non-breeding individuals (Robinson et al. 2015a). This indicates that,
469 unlike in seal mothers, there is no constant significant elevation of basal OT levels
470 throughout lactation in dolphin mothers. The difference in maternal OT values may be
471 due to the large difference in the time frame of dependency in these two species. Grey
472 seal mothers only nurse their pups for 18 days before returning to sea, with nutritional
473 weaning and independence occurring simultaneously (Pomeroy et al. 1999). High
474 motivation to remain close to pups, and the consistently elevated OT levels this
475 generates via positive feedback loops in mothers, may be required to ensure they stay
476 together for this brief, important time. In dolphins however, constant motivation to stay
477 with calves in mothers over several years could be maladaptive. Wild mothers must

478 separate from calves frequently over the dependant period, especially during foraging
479 bouts where rapid acceleration must happen to facilitate prey capture (Mann and Smuts
480 1998, Gibson and Mann 2008). In dolphin populations outside of Sarasota, mothers
481 must also dive to depths calves cannot reach while feeding. OT release in dolphin
482 mothers may instead be associated with specific infant stimuli such as the sight and
483 sound of the calf, as seen in humans which also have long dependant periods with their
484 infants (Strathearn et al. 2009, Seltzer et al. 2010). It is also possible that mothers have
485 sustained elevations of OT during the immediate post-natal period, when ‘imprinting’
486 between mother and calf is thought to take place (Mann and Smuts 1998) and maternal
487 signature whistling rates are high for the first few weeks after birth (Fripp and Tyack
488 2008). OT release in dolphin mothers, and the motivation to associate with bonded
489 individuals that comes with it (Robinson et al. 2017), may therefore be tied to specific
490 time frames, behaviours or social cues that individuals encounter when approaching and
491 interacting with other conspecifics.

492

493 All dolphin species live in social groups, with different sexes and species showing a
494 variety of social bond duration and function. Delphinids are social to enable them to
495 exploit their environment most effectively (Tyack 1986) while avoiding predators or
496 reducing predation risk (Heithaus et al. 2002). Types of social bonds within delphinids
497 range from fission-fusion social systems seen in mother-calf groups of bottlenose
498 dolphins (Gibson and Mann 2008), stable multi-year associations between male
499 bottlenose dolphins within breeding alliances (Connor et al. 1992, Connor and Krützen
500 2015) to the life-long associations present in orca pods (Bigg et al. 1990). Bottlenose
501 dolphins are able to recognise one another acoustically across several decades (Bruck
502 2013) and it is likely that individually distinct stimuli, such as signature whistles (Janik

503 and Sayigh et al. 2013), can cause OT release in social contexts as seen in primates
504 (Crockford et al. 2013, Wittig et al. 2014). OT release may then stimulate pro-social
505 behaviours essential for staying together in vast marine environments, such as triggering
506 reunions (Smolker et al. 1993) and could also stimulate behaviours that strengthen
507 bonds such as group synchrony (Connor et al. 2006a), contact swimming (Connor et al.
508 2006b) or petting (Connor et al. 2006a). Social interactions and bonding represent a
509 crucial aspect of the lives of all delphinid species, and OT release could enable
510 individuals to link individual specific stimuli to a physiological reward via dopamine
511 release in the brain (Strathearn et al. 2009), reinforcing and maintaining the social
512 bonds that are vital for these species to survive and thrive in the marine environment.

513

514 *4.3. Elevated OT concentrations in infant bottlenose dolphins*

515 Dolphin calves had approximately double the basal plasma OT levels compared to all
516 other age classes, and this elevation was present in individuals 2 – 4 years old. In the
517 one calf that was sampled in two consecutive years, basal OT levels were elevated at
518 both measurement points. There are few studies to compare these values to, the one
519 study reporting concentrations in mice pups are from unextracted plasma (Higashida et
520 al. 2010) while the one study of human babies measured levels from only the first few
521 days of life (Leake et al. 1981). Concentrations measured in dependant grey seal pups (8
522 – 52.2 pg.ml, Robinson et al. 2019) are comparable but range into much higher values
523 than those found in dolphin calves, although individual variability is present in both
524 data sets. An alternative measurement of peripheral oxytocin using saliva samples from
525 human children 1-7 years of age also showed that the youngest infants (between
526 approximately 1-2 years old) had much higher levels than older children (up to
527 approximately 7 years old) (Nishizato et al. 2017). The elevation of calf OT levels could

528 indicate the presence of functional mother-calf bonds and the individual variation in OT
529 may indicate the ‘strength’ of that bond (Crockford et al. 2013).
530
531 Elevation of basal OT is not present in any other age class in this species and likely is
532 associated with motivation for calves to interact with mothers or other bonded
533 individuals. It has previously been demonstrated in both natural and experimental
534 settings that elevated peripheral OT levels are associated with increases in proximity
535 seeking behaviour, even at a young age (Madden and Clutton-Brock 2010, Robinson et
536 al. 2015a, 2017). Calf survival is reliant on staying with mothers, or successfully
537 reuniting with them when separations do occur, and functional mother-calf bonds that
538 are regulated by elevated OT during the dependant period would provide physiological
539 motivation for this to take place. The foraging ecology of bottlenose dolphins means
540 that separations of calves from their mothers happens frequently throughout the
541 prolonged dependant period seen in this species (Mann and Smuts 1998, Gibson and
542 Mann 2008). It is important for these highly mobile infants to behave in an adaptive
543 manner to assist reunions (Mann and Watson-Capps 2005). Mothers do play an
544 important role in reunions (Kuczaj et al. 2015), but there is also evidence that calves can
545 actively promote reunions via increased rates of whistling compared to mothers
546 (Smolker et al. 1993). After the first two months of life, calves additionally become the
547 primary instigators of reunions with their mothers and are responsible for modulating
548 the distance separating the two (Owen 2001). Elevation of OT acting as part of a
549 positive OT feedback loop may therefore enable successful co-ordination of calf
550 behaviour with mothers while occupying environments that carry the risk of rapid
551 separation from care-givers. It has been hypothesised that adults in cognitively complex,
552 social species rely less on hormonal cues to perpetuate parental behaviour, as other

553 neurological processes can instigate and perpetuate care giving behaviour (Broad et al
554 2006). However, infants of any species are still developing cognitively, so they may
555 have to rely on hormonal cues, such as OT release, to stimulate appropriate behaviour
556 towards caregivers.

557

558 There are potential alternative explanations for the high plasma oxytocin levels found in
559 dolphin calves, however the supporting data and analysis presented here make them
560 unlikely to be significant drivers of peripheral oxytocin dynamics. It is hypothetically
561 possible that high peripheral oxytocin levels in young calves may be present simply
562 because of allometry when compared to larger adults, however our data on oxytocin -
563 weight relationships demonstrate this is not the case. There was no relationship between
564 weight and oxytocin levels in calves or juveniles/adults. Additionally, when one
565 juvenile outlier data point (see below) was removed from the juvenile/adult cohort,
566 there was actually a significant positive relationship between weight and plasma
567 oxytocin levels, indicating that larger adults have higher concentrations than smaller
568 adults, the opposite of the expected relationship if allometry was driving peripheral
569 oxytocin concentrations.

570

571 As previously discussed, restraint stress has been shown to cause changes to peripheral
572 oxytocin levels in laboratory settings (Grippe et al. 2009) and, as the calves in the study
573 had minimal prior experience of the capture and sampling process, they may have been
574 stressed enough to cause the elevated plasma oxytocin levels observed in this age class.
575 This is unlikely to be the case as there was substantial range in individual calf oxytocin
576 levels which was not associated with any variation in capture or handling times, with
577 the lowest (4.2pg/ml) being comparable to levels in other age classes despite this

578 individual's inexperience with capture and sampling events. Five other individuals
579 (three juvenile and two adults) also had no prior experience of the capture and sampling
580 process, and all except one showed low peripheral oxytocin levels comparable to
581 concentrations found in more experienced individuals. The one juvenile that did show
582 elevated plasma oxytocin levels is an interesting outlier in the study (Fig. 4b, denoted
583 by a triangle). This four-year-old male had only separated from his mother 2-3 months
584 prior to capture and his high plasma oxytocin levels may have occurred as he was still
585 transitioning physiologically to a solitary juvenile. It is likely that this individual had
586 not been nutritionally dependent on his mother for years prior to the actual separation of
587 the pair, however it is unknown whether changes in peripheral oxytocin are associated
588 with nutritional weaning or with termination of mother-infant contact. While plasma
589 oxytocin levels do fall immediately after infants separate from mothers (Robinson et al.
590 2017) they remain elevated above juvenile and adult levels for weeks after the
591 separation occurs (Robinson et al. 2015b), and it is unknown how long it takes for infant
592 levels to fall to juvenile or adult baseline concentrations. In addition to his newly
593 independent status, this juvenile was also the only individual in the study that had a
594 prior injury (stingray barbs embedded within the head) which were treated by
595 veterinarians before release, and this could have been causing chronic pain and stress
596 which may have impacted his health and physiology in comparison to the other
597 individuals in the study.

598

599 OT, or OT-like peptides, are present in all vertebrate animals, and have been shown to
600 influence parental behaviours in mammals (e.g., Robinson et al. 2015a), birds (e.g.,
601 Chokchaloemwong et al. 2013) and fish (e.g., O'Connell et al. 2012). Stimulation of
602 appropriate infant behaviour to facilitate rearing success may be as important as parental

603 behaviours, and all of the few studies that have documented peripheral infant OT thus
604 far have found elevations of this hormone in dependant offspring. OT has also been
605 linked to infant mass gain prior to weaning (Robinson et al. 2019), and may cause
606 higher rates of infant survival via physical, developmental advantages. OT release in
607 infants is likely to be dependent on the quality of bond with the care-givers, which in
608 turn is dependant on the interactions after offspring are born, often during a finite period
609 of time during which the bond between mother and infant(s) is made (Kendrick 2000).
610 However, this period is vulnerable to disruption, and if physical contact or
611 communication is prevented or interrupted during this time, then mother-infant bonding
612 and associated OT release cannot take place. Many wildlife species, including
613 bottlenose dolphins, live in regions with increasing anthropogenic disruption. Acoustic
614 pollution and increasing human presence in marine environments are threats to cetacean
615 populations (Würsig and Evans 2002) and the disruption they cause could potentially
616 lead to failure of mother-infant bonds, resulting in low OT levels, less motivation for
617 calves to associate with mothers and higher infant mortality in disturbed populations.
618 Understanding the sensory modalities that mother-calf pairs rely on and how these
619 interact with OT release would enable effective protective measures to be put in place
620 during this vulnerable time in their life history.

621

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641

642 **Author Contributions**

643 KJR conceived and designed the study, RSW and VMJ organised and supervised the
644 fieldwork and sample collection from individuals, RSW provided background life
645 history and social data for the wild individuals, KT provided samples from individuals
646 under human care, NH and VMJ provided essential laboratory equipment and funds,
647 KJR performed all sample and data analysis, VMJ and KJR decided on the direction of
648 the manuscript, KJR wrote the manuscript, all authors critically revised the manuscript
649 and gave final approval of the version to be published.

650

651 **Competing Interests**

652 The authors declare they have no conflicts of interest.

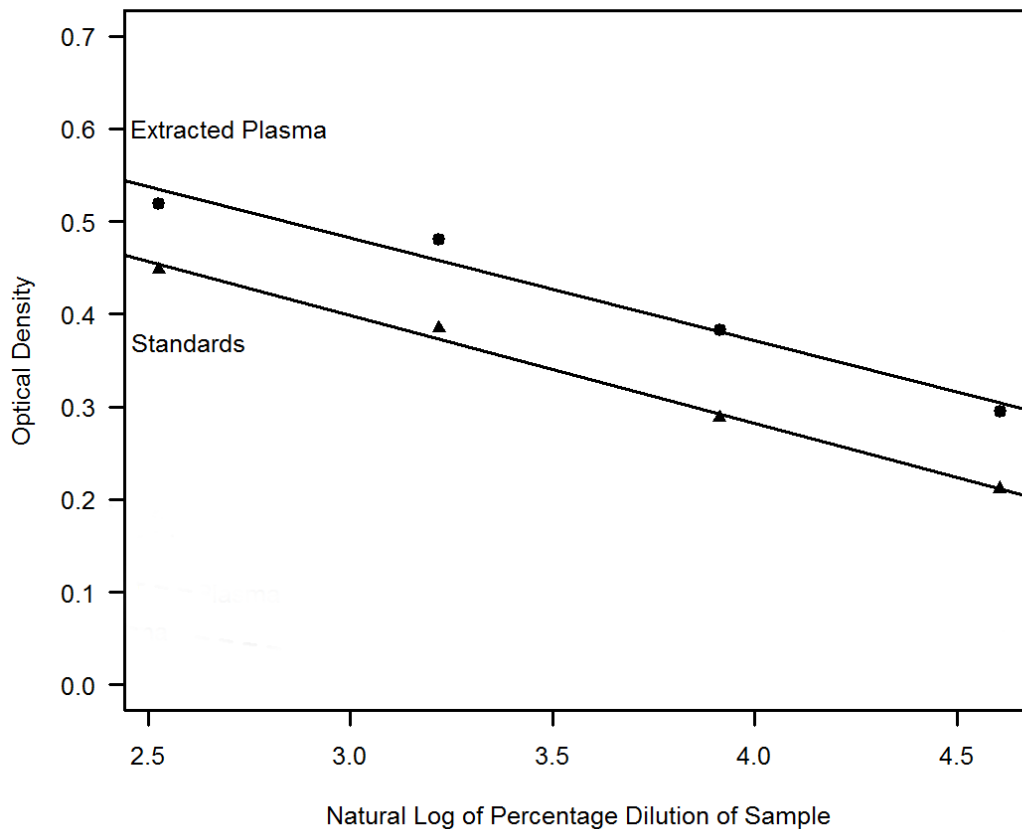
653

654 **Data Availability**

655 Data access is available upon reasonable request.

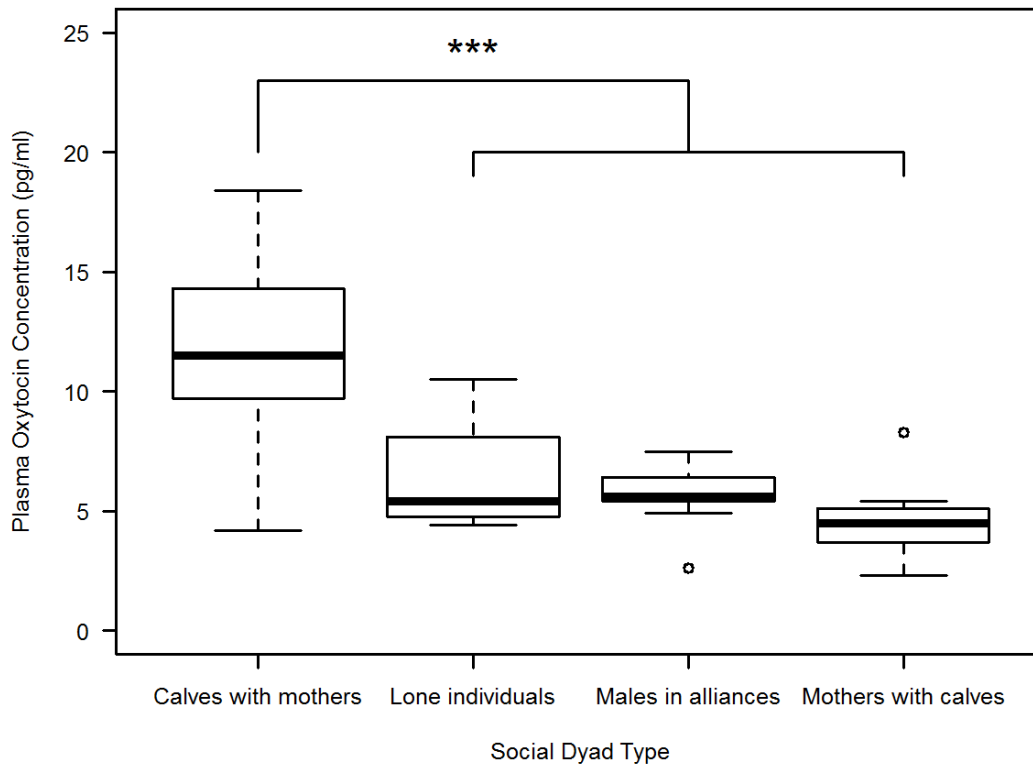
656

657 **Figure Captions**



658

659 Fig. 1. Dilution lines testing for parallelism between the ELISA kit standards (solid
660 triangles) and extracted bottlenose dolphin plasma (solid circles). Parallelism between
661 the standards and extracted samples was confirmed by statistical comparison (see
662 results, $p = 0.75$).

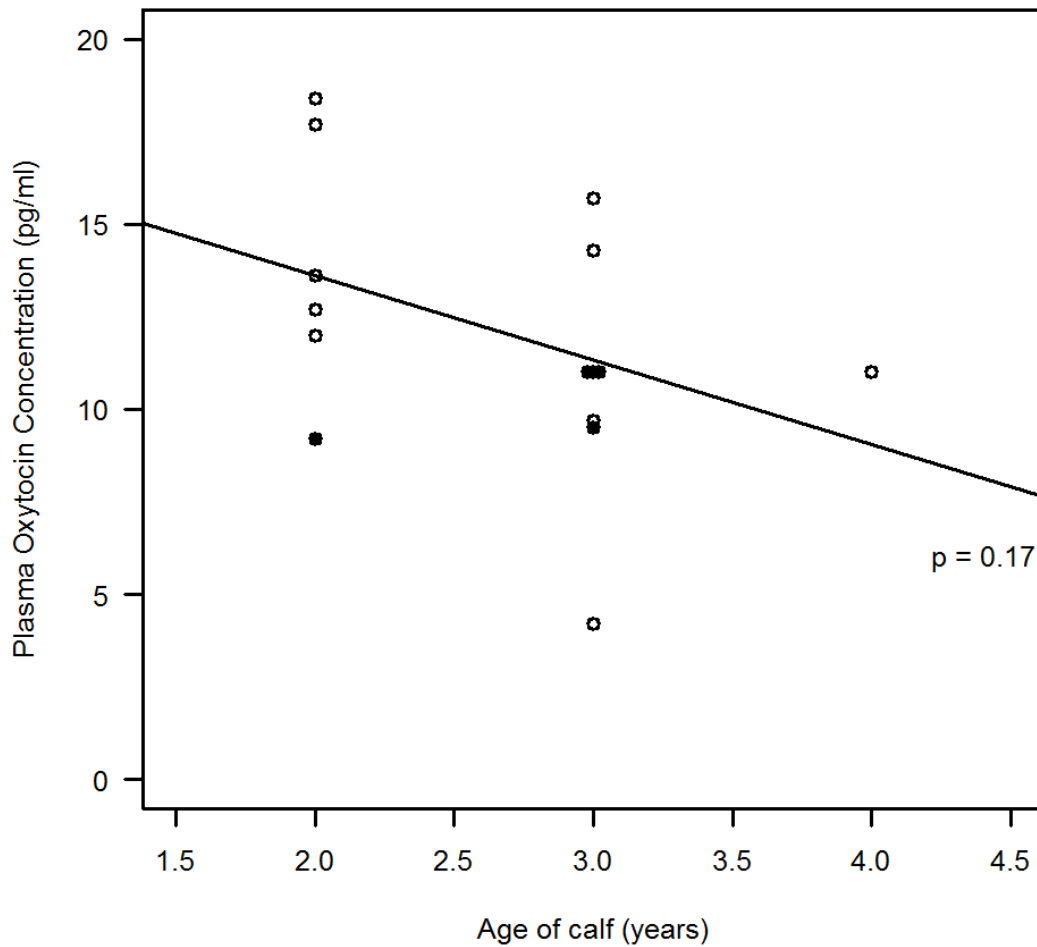


664

665 Fig. 2. OT concentrations in individuals in different types of social dyad (n = 14 calves
 666 with mothers, 4 lone individuals, 10 males in alliances and 14 mothers with calves) with
 667 median, upper and lower quartiles, 1.5x interquartile range and outliers shown.

668 Significant differences between groups are denoted by asterisks, *** for p<0.001.

669



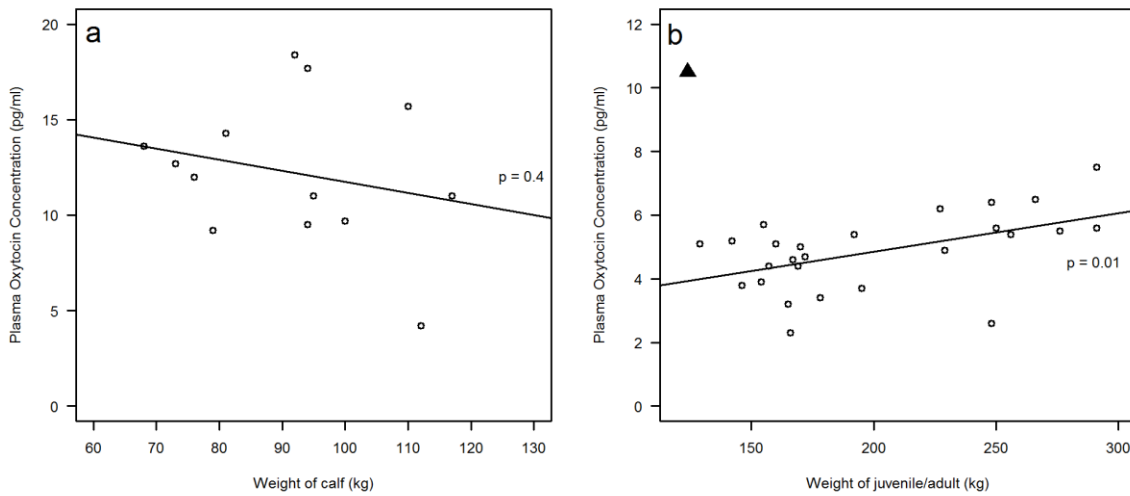
670

671 Fig. 3. The non-significant negative relationship between calf plasma OT concentrations

672 (pg/ml) and calf age (years) with the Pearson's correlation significance value. Males (n

673 = 4) are shown with filled points, females (n = 10) are shown with open points.

674



675

676 Fig. 4a. The non-significant negative relationship between calf plasma OT
 677 concentrations (pg/ml) and calf weight (kg) with the Pearson's correlation significance
 678 value. 4b. The significant positive relationship between juvenile/adult plasma OT
 679 concentrations (pg/ml) and juvenile/adult weight (kg) with the Pearson's correlation
 680 significance value. An outlier that was removed from the analysis is plotted with a
 681 triangle symbol. Including this outlier leads to a non-significant relationship.

682

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