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Jack Kottwitz adds:

Note that, unless specifically referenced the drug doses provided are anecdotal (ie most of the elephant and all of the rhino).

RESULTS OF THE MEGAVERTEBRATE ANALGESIA SURVEY: ELEPHANTS AND RHINO

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Abstract: An online survey utilizing Survey Monkey linked through the American Association of Zoo Veterinarians listserve examined current practices in megavertebrate analgesia. Data collected included drugs administered, dosing regimens, ease of administration, efficacy, and adverse events. Fifty-nine facilities (38 housing elephants, 33 housing rhinoceroses) responded. All facilities administered nonsteroidal anti-inflammatory drugs (NSAIDs), with phenylbutazone (0.25–10 mg/kg) and flunixin meglumine (0.2–4 mg/kg) being most common. Efficacy was reported as "good" to "excellent" for these medications. Opioids were administered to elephants (11 of 38) and rhinoceroses (7 of 33), with tramadol (0.5–3.0 mg/kg) and butorphanol (0.05–1.0 mg/kg) being most common. Tramadol efficacy scores were highly variable in both elephants and rhinoceroses. While drug choices were similar among institutions, substantial variability in dosing regimens and reported efficacy between and within facilities indicates the need for pharmacokinetic studies and standardized methods of analyzing response to treatment to establish dosing regimens and clinical trials to establish efficacy and safety. *Key words:* Analgesic, elephant, NSAID, opioid, pain management, rhinoceros.

BRIEF COMMUNICATION

Pain is defined as "an unpleasant sensory and emotional experience associated with actual or potential tissue damage, or described in terms of such damage" by the International Association for the Study of Pain.⁶ The inability of a human or an animal to communicate verbally with a caregiver does not negate the possibility that that individual is experiencing pain or is in need of appropriate pain-relieving medications.⁶ It is well recognized that painful stimuli and chronic pain can have a direct impact on behavior, attitude, and responsiveness to otherwise normal stimuli, in addition to affecting normal physiologic functions such as sleep, appetite, and digestion.^{6,11}

One of the first steps for effectively managing discomfort with medications in any patient is administration of drugs at species-appropriate doses and dosing intervals to control both pain and inflammation. While online and published formularies exist, there is an extremely limited number of scientific studies performed on the

of analgesics elepharmacokinetics in phants.^{1,2,5,9,10,15,16} To date, there are no specific pharmacokinetic studies available in any species of rhinoceros to support dosing regimens for drugs used for pain management. Published studies^{8,9,12,13} of opioids administered to rhinoceros having focused on administration for sedation and general anesthesia, not analgesia. In addition, many published doses in both formularies and case reports for these species are not based on actual pharmacokinetic studies but instead are extrapolated from doses administered in domestic horses.4,5,9,10,12-15

To better characterize medications, usage patterns, and methods of providing analgesia to megavertebrates, a link to an online survey (using www.surveymonkey.com) was posted on the American Association of Zoo Veterinarians listserve from March 2012 through September 2013. Response to this survey was worldwide, with 59 zoological institutions from North America, Europe, Africa, and Australia participating. Of the 59 responding institutions, 35 institutions housed elephants and 33 housed at least one species of rhinoceros. Species housed by reporting institutions included Asian elephants (Elaphas maximus), African elephants (Loxodanta spp.), southern white rhinoceros (Ceratotherium simum), Indian or greater one-horned rhinoceros (Rhinoceros unicornis), and Sumatran rhinoceros (Dicerorhinus sumatrensis). For the purposes of this survey, African elephant species, including both

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Pharmacodynamic stu	dies are not avails	able. Many of the dru	g doses listed	are derived fro	upported by pliar m domestic equi	ine doses.	IC CVA	uauon	or mese m	ugs III elepiialius
	Institutions		Date			l	No. of i ting pe	nstitutic rceived	ons efficacy	
Drug	drug in elephants $(n = 38)$	Species treated	administered (mg/kg)	Route	\mathbf{Dosing} frequency ^a	Excellent	Good	Fair Po	No Jor response	Adverse effects noted
NSAIDs Phenylbutazone	27	Asian elephant, African elephant	0.25–6	p.o.	s.i.d. to b.i.d.	9	18	1	0 2	1 institution reported oral
Flunixin meglumine	25	Asian elephant, African elephant	0.28–1.1	p.o.	s.i.d. to b.i.d.	9	15	1	1 3	ulceration 2 institutions reported loss of
										appence, gastrointestinal upset, gas distension, mild
	0	African elephant	0.4–1.0	i.v.	s.i.d. to b.i.d.					colic 1 institution reported
										post i.v. injection
	4	Asian elephant, African elephant	0.28 - 1.1	i.m.	s.i.d. to b.i.d.					
Ibuprofen	20	Asian elephant, African elephant	1-6 mg/kg for Asian	p.o.	s.i.d. to b.i.d.	9	16	-	5	Questionable efficacy for more
			1-/ IIIg/Kg for African							severe pain management
	7	Asian elephant	1-7	Rectally	s.i.d. to b.i.d.					

Table 1. Summary of nonsteroidal anti-inflammatory drug (NSAID), opioid, and other methods of analgesia provided to captive elephants. Caution should be taken with higher dosing levels with the data in this chart. Of these analgesics, only phenylbutazone (3 mg/kg per 48 hr for Asian; 2 mg/kg per 24 hr for African), ibuprofen (6 mg/kg per 12 hr for Asian; 7 mg/kg per 12 hr for African), ketoprofen (1 mg/kg every 48 hr to 2 mg/kg every 24 hr, p.o. or i.v. for Asian), and

	Institutions		asoC			repo	No. of i rting pe	nstitut rceive	ions I efficac	y	
Drug	drug in elephants $(n = 38)$	Species treated	administered (mg/kg)	Route	\mathbf{Dosing} frequency ^a	Excellent	Good	Fair I	oor re	No sponse	Adverse effects noted
Ketoprofen	×	Asian elephant, African elephant	1 mg/kg every 48 hr to 2 mg/kg every 24 hr	p.o.	s.i.d. to b.i.d.	ŝ	4	0	0	0	
	1	Asian elephant	1.0–2.0	i.v.	si.d. to b.i.d.						1 institution reported sloughing of ear post i.v. injection
	1	African elephant	0.963	i.m.	s.i.d.						
Firocoxib	4	African elephant	0.1	p.o.		7	0	0	0	0	Ι
Carprofen	ო	African elephant, Asian elephant	0.2-0.3	p.o.	s.i.d.	0	-	1	-	0	2 institutions reported gastrointestinal upset, moderate colic postadministration
Meloxicam	3	African elephant	0.2	p.o.	s.i.d.	1	1	1	0	0	
Acetaminophen	3	African elephant	0.5 - 1.5	p.o.	s.i.d. to b.i.d.	0	0	1	0	0	Ι
Vedaprofen	7	Asian elephant, African elephant	0.45-0.7	p.o.	s.i.d. to b.i.d.	0	0	1	0	1	
	1	Asian elephant	0.5 - 1	Rectally	b.i.d.						
Etodolac	1	Asian elephant	2-2.7	p.o.	s.i.d.	0	1	0	0	0	
Aspirin	1	Asian elephant	62.5 mg	p.o.	b.i.d.	0	0	0	1	0	Questionable
			total								efficacy, no
			(weight								analgesic effect
			TIOL STACTL								nosel veu

Table 1. Continued.

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	Institutions reporting use of		Dose			N report	o. of i ing pe	nstitut rceive	ions I efficacy	
Drug	drug in elephants $(n = 38)$	Species treated	administered (mg/kg)	Route	Dosing frequency ^a	Excellent	Good	Fair P	No oor respon	Adverse effects se noted
Opioids Tramadol	4	Asian elephant, African elephant	0.5–3	p.o.	b.i.d.	-	1	1	0	Questionable efficacy with doses of 1.0 mg/kg or less; decreased responsiveness and depression noted at higher doses
	1	Asian elephant	1	Rectally	Not reported					
Butorphanol	4	Asian elephant	0.01-0.08	i.m.	s.i.d.	0	б	1	0 0	Mild sedation with higher doses
Fentanyl	2	Asian elephant, African elephant	0.078 mcg/kg	Transdermal patch	Not reported	0	7	0	0 0	Mild sedation with higher doses
Other modes of analgesia				,						I
Glucosamine and chondroitin sulfate	14	Asian elephant, African elephant	Extrapolated from horse dose or 1.1 to 1.5	p.o.	s.i.d. or b.i.d.	0	Ś	4	3	Multiple compounded products have been utilized
Gabapentin	9	Asian elephant, African elephant	0.4–6	p.o.	s.i.d. or b.i.d.	-	0	0	0 1	1 institution reported difficulty administering due to taste aversion
	1	Asian elephant	1	Rectally	s.i.d.	0	1	0	0 0	None noted

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Table 1. Continued.

	Adverse effects noted				Limited time of	effect reported by all institutions		Ι		I					Administered to treat long- standing gait ahnormality, with	no change in gait noted	Ι		Administered for sedation nurnoses	drad warmage
	No	0			0			0		ellect	c	>			ý					
ons efficacy	oor re	1			0			0		oositive	_	>			sttherap		orted	orted	orted	
instituti erceived	Fair I	0			1			7	-	e mild j	ç	1			ted pos		acy rep	acy rep	acy rep	
No. of . orting pe	Good	б			7			0	-	to have	0	>			ifect no		o effica	o effica	o effica	
repo	Excellent	1			0			0		Appeared	0	>			No		Z	Z	Z	
	Dosing frequency ^a	s.i.d.	s.i.d.	Single dose	s.i.d.			1 to 2 times per	week	Every 3 days for 5 doses	Doducing function	2 times ner week	for 3 wk, then once a week, then	every other week	Every 7 days		s.i.d.		s.i.d.	
	Route	p.o.	p.o.	i.v.	s.q.					1.m.					i.m.		p.o.	p.o.	i.m.	
	Dose administered (mg/kg)	Prednisolone: up	Dexamethasone:	0.05 0.05	To effect (10-30	ml 1% Lidocaine)		N.A.		Dose extrapolated from horse dose	00 ionloc conce	ou joures across	4-0 pullts		n		No dose reported	No dose reported	No dose reported	
	s Species treated	African	elepnant African	elephant African	elephant Asian	elephant, African	elephant	Asian	elephant	Alrıcan elephant	A cion	Asidii alanhant	стернани		Asian elephant		African elephant		Asian elenhant	dava
Institutions renorting use of	drug in elephants $(n = 38)$	5	1	1	3			7	¢	7	ç	4			-		1	1	1	
	Drug	Corticosteroids			Local anesthesia	infusion		Acupuncture	5 J	Polysultated glycosamino	Gold local	therany	undapy		Pentosan polysuflate		Omega fatty acids	Amantadine	α -2 agonists	

Table 1. Continued.

African bush elephants (*Loxodonta africana*) and African forest elephants (*Loxodonta cyclotis*), were grouped together under their common genus.

Data collected about drugs utilized and modality of analgesia provided were compiled using Microsoft Access into the following categories: facility information; signalment (age, genus, and species); drug or modality, including name and specific drug formulation utilized; and dosing regimen, including route, drug vehicle, dose in "mg/kg," dosing interval, and duration. Patient information regarding pain treated was also collected. Pain duration was defined as "acute" if of less than 3 mo and as "chronic" if of more than 3 mo. Types of pain treated included somatic (activation of pain receptors in either the body surface or musculoskeletal tissues), visceral (activation of pain sensors when internal organs are damaged or injured), neuropathic (pain caused by injury or malfunction to the spinal cord and peripheral nerves), or mixed (pain involving two or more of the first three categories). Perceived efficacy of analgesia provided, defined as the perception by associated humans of resolution of the painful condition warranting administration of an analgesic drug or other form of pain relief, was ranked subjectively on a scale of 1 (poor) to 4 (excellent). Ease of use and complications associated with using each method of analgesia were described as comments from the respondent. Adverse events were characterized as reported by responding institutions. Mild adverse events described included mild colic and loss of appetite, while severe adverse events described included complete loss of appetite, severe colic, or evidence of physiologic changes, such as elevated renal values. All institutions reported administration of oral medications in both elephants and rhino using a variety of food items, including fruit, such as cored apples or watermelon, bread products, or peanut butter. All modalities utilized, number of institutions utilizing each, dosing-treatment schedules, perceived efficacies, and reported side effects are outlined in Table 1 for elephants and in Table 2 for rhino.

Analgesics were divided into three drug categoanti-inflammatory ries: nonsteroidal drugs (NSAIDs), opioids, and other non-NSAID-nonopioid drugs. Nonpharmacologic analgesic interventions also were recorded. **NSAIDs** administered to both elephants and rhinoceroses included phenylbutazone, flunixin meglumine, ibuprofen, ketoprofen, firocoxib, carprofen, and meloxicam. NSAIDs that were administered to elephants, but not to rhinoceroses, included acetaminophen, vedaprofen, etodolac, and aspirin. Opioid drug administration was much less commonly reported than was NSAID use for both elephants and rhinoceroses. Opioids administered included tramadol, butorphanol, and fentanyl. Other products administered to both elephants and rhinoceroses with the intent of controlling pain included gabapentin, corticosteroids, α -2 agonists, local anesthesia infusion, pentosan polysulfate, glucosamine and chondroitin sulfate, and omega 3/6 fatty acids. Amantadine was administered to elephants only. Other nonpharmaceutical methods of analgesia reported in elephants exclusively included acupuncture and cold laser therapy.

NSAIDs were administered for all four types of pain to both elephants and rhinoceros, with somatic pain being the most common indication, and neuropathic pain the least. As with NSAIDs, opioid drugs were administered most commonly for somatic pain followed by visceral, mixed, and, lastly, neuropathic pain. Interestingly, combinations of analgesics were used more commonly for neuropathic pain than for visceral or mixed pain, presumably in an attempt to deliver multimodal analgesia in the face of an insufficient response to previous therapy. The perceived efficacy of NSAIDs was variable, with acetaminophen, carprofen, and aspirin all reported as the least effective for analgesia in elephants (Table 1). Carprofen also had a low reported perceived efficacy score in rhinos. NSAIDs generally demonstrated higher perceived efficacy scores in all rhinoceros species compared to elephants (Table 2).

Adverse effects associated with NSAIDs in elephants were largely gastrointestinal, including loss of appetite and mild to moderate colic. Difficulties in oral administration of some of the drugs were noted in multiple institutions, which was attributed to elephants avoiding the taste of compounded and commercially available oral preparations. Data were not sufficient to allow identification of any one NSAID associated with taste aversion in elephants. A single incidence of sloughing of the ear after intravenous injection in an ear vein was described for both flunixin meglumine and ketoprofen in elephants. The only adverse event associated with NSAIDs reported in rhinoceroses was taste aversion, particularly for both flunixin meglumine and phenylbutazone.

Opioid drugs, specifically tramadol, butorphanol, and fentanyl, were less commonly administered, with only 11 institutions housing elephants and seven housing rhinoceroses reporting their use. Tramadol appeared to have the lowest perceived efficacy of these three drugs, with question-

	Institutions reporting use					repor	Vo. of in ting perc	stituti ceived	ons efficacy		
Drug	of drug in rhinoceros $(n = 33)$	Species treated	Dose administered (mg/kg)	Route	Dosing frequency ^a	Excellent	Good F	air Po	N(oor respo	o A onse	lverse effects noted
NSAIDs Phenylbutazone	25	White rhino, Black rhino, Indian rhino	3-10	p.o.	s.i.d. to b.i.d.	Ś	16	4	0	H () U U U U U U U U U U U U U U U U U U U	sher doses >4 mg/kg ot given nore than 3 ays); taste version
	- 4	White rhino White rhino, Ladica chino,	4 1.1	i.v. i.m.	One-time dose s.i.d.					1 8 1	oted with ome animals
Flunixin meglumine	24	White rhino, Black rhino, Indian rhino, Sumatran	0.20-1.6	p.o.	s.i.d. or e.o.d.	9	14	4	0) Ta	ste aversion oted with ome animals
	4	White rhino, Black	0.5-1	i.v.	s.i.d. or b.i.d						
	S	Black rhino, Indian rhino	0.50-1.1	i.m.	s.i.d.					I	
Ibuprofen Ketoprofen	1 წ	White rhino, Black	1 0.5	p.o. p.o.	s.i.d. s.i.d. to b.i.d.	-		0	0		
Firocoxib	4 7	Black rhino White rhino	0.5 0.088–0.1	i.v. p.o.	s.i.d. to b.i.d. s.i.d.	7	7	0	0	NC NC	adverse vents
Carprofen Meloxicam Suxibuzone	- 0 0	Black rhino Indian rhino White rhino	0.78–2.0 0.2 6	p.o. p.o.	s.i.d. s.i.d. b.i.d.	000	0 0 1	0 17 17	000	, , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , ,	eported

Table 2. Summary of nonsteroidal anti-inflammatory drug (NSAID), opioid, and other methods of analgesia provided to captive rhinoceroses. Caution should be taken when considering higher dosing levels with the data in this chart. To date there have been no experimental pharmacokinetic or pharmacodynamic studies

	Institutions reporting use					l repor	No. of ting pe	institu erceive	ttions ed effic	acy	
Drug	of drug in rhinoceros $(n = 33)$	Species treated	Dose administered (mg/kg)	Route	Dosing frequency ^a	Excellent	Good	Fair	Poor r	No esponse	Adverse effects a noted
Opioids Tramadol	4	White rhino, Black	0.8–3.0	p.o.	b.i.d.	1	5	0	0	1	Mild to moderate
Butorphanol	б	rhino White rhino, Black rhino	0.05-1.0	p.o.	b.i.d.	7	1	0	0	0	sedation noted Sedation, anorexia, decreased
											appetite noted on 1.0 mg/kg dose
Fentanyl	1	White rhino	0.09 mcg/kg per hr	Transdermal patch	I	0	0	0	1	0	Sedation noted, but no apparent analgesia
Other modes of analgesia											observed
Glucosamine and chondroitin	Ζ	White rhino, Indian rhino	1.1-4.0	p.o.	s.i.d. or b.i.d.	0	0	7	1	7	Questionable efficaev
sulfate	7	White rhino	1-22.5	i.m.	Once per week to once per						reported by 2 institutions
Gabapentin ^b	4.	Black rhino	2.5-5.0	p.o.	month s.i.d.	0	1	1	0	ŝ	I
Corticosteroids		white rhino White rhino	I Prednisolone: 0.2	kectany i.m.	s.ı.a. One-time	0	0	0	0	1	Site of dart
	1	White rhino	Dexamethasone:	p.o.	aummsurauon s.i.d.	0	0	0	0	1	became infected
Local anesthesia infusion	1	Indian rhino	Topical Lidocaine– Applied to skin	Topically	s.i.d.	0	0	0	1	0	No effect noted after 5 days of therapy

Table 2. Continued.

	Institutions reporting use					No. of institutions reporting perceived efficacy	
Drug	or drug in rhinoceros $(n = 33)$	Species treated	Dose administered (mg/kg)	Route	\mathbf{Dosing} frequency ^a	No Excellent Good Fair Poor response	Adverse effects noted
Pentosan	1	Black rhino	3	i.m.	Every 7 days	No effect noted post therapy -	1
polysunate Omega fatty acids	1	Black rhino	No dose reported	p.o.	s.i.d.	0 1 0 0 0 -	I
^a s.i.d. = once per d ^b Note: Gabapentin	lay; b.i.d. = twice 1 often administe	per day or every 12 hr red in conjunction wit	: h NSAID or opioid dru	gs, including phenyl	butazone and tramad	ol.	

Table 2. Continued.

doses. Fentanyl was administered to elephants at two institutions in the form of a transdermal patch, with good perceived efficacy reported by both institutions. This is in contrast to one institution utilizing a transdermal fentanyl patch for rhinoceros analgesia, which reported poor perceived efficacy. Adverse events reported for opioid drugs in elephants were limited to tramadol, which included sedation, depression, and decreased responsiveness after tramadol administration. Questionable perceived efficacy, if any effect for tramadol at low doses, was also reported by three institutions. Anorexia and decreased appetite were noted at doses greater than 0.7 mg/kg of butorphanol administered orally to rhinoceroses. There were reports of mild to moderate to severe sedation and decreased responsiveness in rhinoceroses with all opioid drugs.

able perceived efficacy, if any, reported at lower

Non-NSAID-nonopioid methods of analgesia had variable perceived efficacy, with perceived efficacy ranging from no effect noted for glucosamine and chondroitin sulfate, pentosan polysulfate, and amantadine to fair for low-level laser therapy (Tables 1, 2). The most significant adverse events reported with nonpharmaceutical methods of analgesia, such as low-level laser therapy or acupuncture, were lack of cooperation from the patient being treated or no noted effect from treatment.

An important limitation to this study is that survey results reflected institutional rather than individual animal responses. Institutions reporting also included historical information for animals that were no longer alive or no longer at that individual institution. Unfortunately, not all institutions reported the individual information as historic or current collection data, so it is not possible to accurately calculate individual population numbers for statistical analysis of perceived efficacy or incidence of side effects. Data can only be reported as institutional data. Despite the limitations of calculating exact numbers of animals as responses, the results of this survey clearly show that NSAIDs are the most common form of analgesia administered to captive elephants and rhinoceroses, with phenylbutazone and flunixin meglumine being the most common of the NSAIDs utilized. Interestingly, there were no adverse events associated with NSAID administration reported in rhinoceroses. A previous case report¹⁴ describes bullous skin lesions in a southern white rhinoceros associated with oral administration of firocoxib. However, no lesions of this type were reported by any institution administering firocoxib to either elephants or rhinoceroses in this survey.

Sedation associated with opioid drug administration to both elephants and rhinoceroses is an expected side effect, especially considering the known sensitivities to these drugs and their use as anesthesia drugs in these species.^{7-10,12,13,15,16} Improved information from pharmacokinetic trials of these drugs will likely alleviate these negative dose-related effects.

Based upon institutional responses, nonpharmaceutical methods of analgesia were often utilized in conjunction with pharmaceutical methods or were utilized in an attempt to minimize total drug doses out of concern for variable perceived efficacy or possible negative side effects.

The variability reported in dosing regimens for NSAIDs and opioid drugs is of concern. This survey identified variability in doses that varied as much as 20-fold between institutions or within individual institutions. The commonly accepted narrow safety margin of many NSAIDs is of concern in megavertebrates, in part because of the lack of scientific drug trials upon which dosing regimens are based.^{3,4} While the information presented here may be utilized as general guidelines, it is not to be used as a specific reference for drug doses or method of analgesia. Further studies in the specific pharmacokinetics of the more commonly utilized methods of analgesia, including NSAID and opioid drugs, are needed to fully analyze the safety and efficacy of these medications in megavertebrates.

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