Architecture of the bronchial tree in Cuvier’s dwarf caiman (Paleosuchus palpebrosus)

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Abstract
We imaged the lungs of five Cuvier’s dwarf caiman (Paleosuchus palpebrosus) via computed tomography (CT) and micro-computed tomography (μCT) and compared these data to the lungs of the American alligator (Alligator mississippiensis). These data demonstrate anatomical commonalities between the lungs of P. palpebrosus and A. mississippiensis, and a few notable differences. The structural similarities are (a) a proximally narrow, distally widened, hook-shaped primary bronchus; (b) a cervical ventral bronchus that branches of the primary bronchus and immediately makes a hairpin turn toward the apex of the lung; (c) a sequential series of dorsobronchi arising from the primary bronchus caudal to the cervical ventral bronchus; (d) intraspecifically highly variable medial sequence of secondary airways; (e) sac-like laterobronchi; and (f) grossly dead-ended caudal group bronchi in the caudal and ventral aspects of the lung. The primary differences between the two taxa are in the overall number of large bronchi (fewer in P. palpebrosus), and the number of branches that contribute to the cardiac regions. Imaging data of both a live and deceased specimen under varying states (postprandial, fasting, total lung capacity, open to atmosphere) indicate that the caudal margin and position of the lungs shift cranio-caudally relative to the vertebral column. These imaging data suggest that the smooth thoracic ceiling may be correlated to visceral movement during ventilation, but this hypothesis warrants validation. These results provide the scaffolding for future comparisons between crocodilians, for generating preliminary reconstructions of the ancestral crocodilian bronchial tree, and establishing new hypotheses of bronchial homology across Archosauria.

KEYWORDS
alligator, archosaur, crocodile, evolution, lungs

1 INTRODUCTION

Avian-like unidirectional airflow patterns have been found in every single extant crocodilian measured (Alligator mississippiensis, Crocodylus niloticus, Melanosuchus niger, Osteolaemus tetraspis, Crocodylus porosus, Crocodylus morletii, and Caiman crocodilus) (Farmer, 2015a, 2015c; Farmer & Sanders, 2010; Schachner et al., 2013), and yet
the fluid dynamic mechanisms maintaining these flow patterns in both avian and crocodilian clades remain poorly understood (Farmer, 2021). As a result, mapping bronchial architecture across the modern crocodilian phylogenetic tree (Oaks, 2011) is foundational for understanding the function and evolution of the respiratory system of this group. These data are particularly important for understanding how crocodilian lung morphology has changed since the origin of Archosauria, to test hypotheses regarding the functional constraints of unidirectional airflow, and to address adaptive questions associated with respiratory evolution in this group.

To date, the vast majority of anatomical work on crocodilians has been done on the American alligator (Allen et al., 2010; Crosby, 1917; Dodson, 1975; Hedrick et al., 2021; Holliday et al., 2013; Lessner & Holliday, 2020). Comparatively, the functional morphology of other crocodilian taxa has received considerably less attention with much of the research focusing instead on behavior, ecology, and systematics (Bittencourt et al., 2019; Campos et al., 2010; Campos et al., 2012). In terms of the respiratory morphology, to the best of our knowledge, only *A. mississippiensis* (Farmer & Sanders, 2010; Sanders & Farmer, 2012; Schachner et al., 2021) and *C. niloticus* (Perry, 1988; Schachner et al., 2013) have been reconstructed and described in detail in three dimensions making it difficult to understand which morphological characters relate to group wide trends within Crocodylia.
and which are specific to a given crocodilian taxon. With respect to the respiratory system of caimans, Gans and Clark (Gans & Clark, 1976) conducted a seminal and thorough investigation of the ventilatory mechanics of *C. crocodilus*. Their analysis included a description of the associated musculature (i.e., the abdominal, pelvic, intercostal muscles and diaphragmaticus muscle) but included no data on the internal pulmonary structures. Numerous caiman species have been used to investigate the physiology of gas exchange and ventilation mechanics in crocodilians (Malte et al., 2016; Reichert et al., 2019; Tattersall et al., 2006); however, pulmonary architecture has not been included.

Here we provide the first detailed three-dimensional (3D) description of caiman lung morphology and bronchial tree anatomy using Cuvier’s dwarf caiman (*Paleosuchus palpebrosus*; Figure 1). Through a series of descriptive models of lung architecture and pulmonary measurements, we present the detailed gross anatomy of the lungs of three hatchlings and two adults. We additionally provide a comparison between *P. palpebrosus* and *A. mississippiensis* across a limited growth series (Schachner et al., 2021) which demonstrates which aspects of the bronchial tree are constrained as the lungs increase in size. Given the related respiratory biology of both *P. palpebrosus* and *A. mississippiensis*, we predict gross lung architecture and airway size and shape to be similar across both species due to functional constraints associated with unidirectional airflow patterns and the hepatic–piston ventilation system. These data provide a quantitative and qualitative framework for comparisons with other crocodilian species and a framework for evaluating homologous structures in crocodilian lungs.

## 2 | MATERIALS AND METHODS

### 2.1 | Terminology and homology

Terminology for the anatomy of the bronchial tree in *P. palpebrosus* follows that established by recent work for crocodilian lungs (Farmer, 2015b; Farmer & Sanders, 2010; Sanders & Farmer, 2012; Schachner et al., 2013, 2021). Hypotheses of homology in the bronchial tree between *P. palpebrosus* and *A. mississippiensis* are identified based upon anatomical similarities and shown with the same color scheme that matches that of Farmer and Sanders (2010) and Schachner et al. (2013, 2021). For ease of identifying individuals throughout the study, specimens are named for ancient Roman and Hellenistic kings and generals from the Late Republican period.

### 2.2 | Imaging and specimens

Computed tomographic (CT) and micro-computed CT (μCT) scans were collected from six specimens of Cuvier’s dwarf caiman (*P. palpebrosus*; see Table 1 for the data on the specimens used in this study). Frozen/deceased hatchlings (*n* = 3) were obtained from private collections in southern Louisiana (death due to unknown causes). For this study: scans of one adult *P. palpebrosus* (Quintus Sertorius) were obtained by the San Antonio Zoo veterinary staff for unrelated clinical purposes and scans from a second adult (Mithridates) were obtained by MS Echols for clinical purposes from a privately owned facility, Scales and Tails Utah. This individual was scanned initially postprandially, and then again 9 months later in a fasted state. For the four deceased hatchlings, the specimens were intubated via either the glottis or directly through the trachea, and the lungs were inflated artificially by a polyethylene tube and syringe. One of the hatchlings, *P. palpebrosus* (Lucius Sulla), was imaged on a Nikon X-Tek HMXST 225 (Nikon Metrology Inc., Tokyo, Japan) μCT system at Harvard University’s Center for Nanoscale Systems in Cambridge, MA. The second two hatchlings (Lucullus and Cinna) were dissected and scanned as torsos at the Louisiana State University School of Veterinary Medicine on a Scanco μCT 40 (Scanco Medical AG, Brüttisellen, Switzerland). These two specimens were scanned at total lung capacity, and then scanned again open to atmosphere. This is to approximate functional residual capacity, and to visualize changes in the bronchial tree and lung position at the end of a hypothetical natural exhalation. The imaging data from the specimens are available via Data Dryad via the following links: (1) the alligators (https://datadryad.org/stash/dataset/doi:10.5061/dryad.3xsj3txdh); (2) the caimans (https://doi.org/10.5061/dryad.2bvq83bs0).

### 2.3 | Anatomical modeling, quantitative metrics, and analyses

3D surface models were segmented in Avizo 7.1 and 2020.3 (Thermo Fisher Scientific) following the methods established for extant archosaur lungs (Farmer & Sanders, 2010; Lawson et al., 2021; Sanders & Farmer, 2012; Schachner et al., 2013, 2017, 2021). For a detailed description of the segmentation methodology used, see Lawson et al. (2021). Bronchial tree colors in figures indicate proposed homologies and follow Schachner et al. (2021). Quantitative measurements of the airways were collected from the DICOM editor and viewer OsiriX MD (www.osirix-viewer.com) and are included in Table S1. These measures have been established in previous work (Lawson et al., 2021).
et al., 2021; Schachner et al., 2021), and were based upon hypothesized homologous structures in other crocodilians (Farmer, 2015b; Sanders & Farmer, 2012; Schachner et al., 2013, 2021), as well as developmental work on reptiles and birds (Broman, 1939; Locy & Larsell, 1916a, 1916b). All measures were completed in the 3D MPR viewer of OsiriX. Additionally, each measure was completed by E. R. Schachner three times to eliminate interobserver error and averaged to reduce intraobserver error. Pulmonary metrics from the American alligators are derived from the specimens in Schachner et al. (2021) that have known body masses (Table 2).

To evaluate intraspecific variation and growth trends in *P. palpebrosus* and to make comparisons with that of *A. mississippiensis*, we collected the following metrics from the bronchial tree (Figure 2): (1) primary bronchus area at the origin of the cervical ventral bronchus (CVB), and first three dorsobronchi (D2–4); (2) the area of the ostium of the CVB and D2–4 at their origin from the primary bronchi; (3) the distance from the carina to the center of the CVB and D2–4. These metrics aim to capture lung shape and are homologous across both study taxa. Linear distances are reported in cm and areas in cm². Prior to analyses, all data were log10 transformed.

To assess differences in ontogenetic trajectories in lung measures, model II standard major axis (SMA) regressions were performed on the *P. palpebrosus* (*n* = 4) and *A. mississippiensis* (*n* = 5) metrics using the *lmodel2* v. 1.7-3 package in R (Legendre & Oksanen, 2018). When both axes are subject to error as in the case of body mass and pulmonary metrics, SMA regressions are preferred to ordinary least squares regressions (Sokal & Rohlf, 2012). Confidence intervals (*α* = .05) were generated around slopes and intercepts for each regression using 999 permutations to assess deviations from isometry. However, given the small sample sizes for each taxon, these comparisons should be treated as preliminary. To visualize how the distance from the carina to each bronchus changed ontogenetically and differed

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Specimen</th>
<th>Mass (kg)</th>
<th>Age</th>
<th>State of specimen</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Lucius Cornelius Sulla</td>
<td>0.06698</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>Hatchling, Deceased; intact</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lucullus</td>
<td>0.04252</td>
<td>?</td>
<td>Hatchling, Deceased; torso (inflated/open to atmosphere)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cinna</td>
<td>0.04867</td>
<td>?</td>
<td>Hatchling, Deceased; torso (inflated/open to atmosphere)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mithridates VI of Pontus</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>11, Live: (1) postprandial (entire animal), (2) fasting (torso)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Quintus Sertorius</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>40–45 years old (estimated; wild caught)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**TABLE 1** CT information and specimen data from the *Paleosuchus palpebrosus* included in this study

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Specimen</th>
<th>Mass (kg)</th>
<th>Age</th>
<th>State of specimen</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Alligator AM041315-1</td>
<td>0.0757</td>
<td>Hatchling</td>
<td>Deceased; torso (inflated)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Alligator 15</td>
<td>1.7</td>
<td>Adult</td>
<td>Live, unsedated</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Alligator 9</td>
<td>1.75</td>
<td>Adult</td>
<td>Live, unsedated</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Alligator 739</td>
<td>2.8</td>
<td>Adult</td>
<td>Live, unsedated</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Alligator 11</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>Adult</td>
<td>Live, unsedated</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**TABLE 2** *Alligator mississippiensis* specimens used from Schachner et al. (2021) for the quantitative comparisons in this study

Note: Several alligators in Schachner et al. (2021) had imputed masses and only alligators with known masses were used in the present study.
between the two species, barplots showing percentages of distances from the carina to D3 were generated for both *A. mississippiensis* and *P. palpebrosus*.

3 | RESULTS

3.1 | Primary bronchus

In all individual caimans imaged, the primary bronchus is a proximally constricted tubular structure that balloons out distally toward the caudal aspect of the lung becoming saccular and giving off multiple secondary bronchi (the caudal group bronchi). The primary bronchus hooks around medially before attenuating into either a small point or a rounded blunt end (Figures 3a,c,e, 4 and 5). This medial hook-shaped curvature is similar to the morphology of alligators; however, the caimans possess fewer small sac-like structures projecting caudally off of the caudal aspect of the primary bronchus (Figure 6a–f).

3.2 | Cervical ventral bronchus

The cervical ventral bronchus (CVB) is a large tubular bronchus that branches off the primary bronchus from a cartilaginous cone-shaped ostium (Figures 3c,d and 5a,c). It is anatomically similar to its homologous structure in *A. mississippiensis* in all of the individuals imaged for this study. As in alligators, this bronchus makes a hairpin turn directly cranially toward the apex of the lung, after branching from the primary bronchus (Figure 5a–d). In all specimens, small tertiary branches emerged from the surface of the CVB along the proximal two-thirds of its length. In two caimans, Sertorius and Lucullus, large paired tubular tertiary bronchi branch from the dorsomedial aspect of the cartilaginous cone (Figure 5c) and
extend cranially for at least half of the length of the CVB. This morphology was also observed in one of the alligators by Schachner et al. (2021).

3.3 | Dorsobronchi

In *P. palpebrosus*, the dorsobronchi (D) are large medially curving and craniodorsally projecting tapered tubular conduits that branch off of the intrapulmonary primary bronchus in a sequential manner, caudal to the cartilaginous cone of the CVB. This morphological arrangement is similar to alligators, with large D2–4 branches emerging off of the dorsal aspect of the primary bronchus (Figure 3c,d). However, the caimans measured for this study do not demonstrate a distinct D5 (the fourth dorsobronchus) as consistently as their alligator counterparts (Figure 5). Two individuals, Mithridates and Lucullus,
have an accessory tubular bronchus that branches off the dorsolateral surface of the primary bronchus lateral to the dorsobronchial series, and while this may be an accessory or duplicated dorsobronchus, the identity of this bronchus cannot be confidently assigned.

### 3.4 Medial bronchi

The medial bronchi (M) are substantially more variable than either the CVB or the dorsobronchi and show considerable bilateral asymmetry. The generally consistent pattern in the caimans is for a large medial bronchus (M1; Figure 3e) to branch from the primary bronchus immediately caudal to the CVB and travel cranially toward the apex of the lung. M1 is positioned dorsomedial to the CVB and ventromedial to D1 in most individuals. Some variation in this pattern is present. M1 in the right lung of Sertorius is extremely small and saccular in its overall shape. The position within the right lung that is usually occupied by M1 is occupied by a tertiary bronchus branching from D2 in this individual. This morphology is also the case in the hatchling Lucullus but mirrored with the tertiary dorsobronchus arising from D2 in the left lung. In the hatchling Cinna, M1 branches off caudal to D2 (Figure 5a) which is unusual in comparison...
FIGURE 5  Segmented 3D surface model of the bronchial trees of hatchling and adult *P. palpebrosus* and *A. mississippiensis*. Surface models demonstrating the position and generalized size of the ostia of the major secondary airways of the *P. palpebrosus* hatchling Cinna (a) and adult Sertorius (c) and *A. mississippiensis* hatchling AM041315-1 (b) and adult 64 (d) in dorsal view. Images not to scale. C1–4, cardiac branches 1–4; CVB, cervical ventral bronchus; D1–5, dorsobronchi 1–5; L, laterobronchus; M1–4, medial bronchi 1–4; PB, primary bronchus. Colors represent hypotheses of homology and follow Schachner et al. (2021). Images not to scale.
to the other caimans and alligators we have imaged. The more caudally positioned medial branches are even more variable in *P. palpebrosus* (a–c) and remaining more tubular in others (Mithridates and Sertorius; Figure 6b,c). Notably, the caimans overall tend to have fewer medial bronchi than the alligators, which were recorded to have up to five branches on one side (Schachner et al., 2021).

### 3.5 Laterobronchi

The laterobronchi (L) are proximally constricted, distally voluminous sac-shaped bronchi that emerge off of the lateral and ventral surfaces of the primary bronchus (Figure 3f). These airways branch around the location of D2 or just caudal to the first dorsobronchus. Similar to the bronchial anatomy observed in alligators, the laterobronchi in *P. palpebrosus* demonstrate bilateral asymmetry in some
instances (e.g., one on the left lung and two on the right in the hatchling Cinna) and symmetry in others (ranging from one laterobronchus in each lung in Sertorius to three on each primary bronchus in Mithridates).

3.6 Caudal group bronchi

As in *A. mississippiensis*, there are numerous saccular bronchi that emerge from the caudoventral region of the primary bronchus in *P. palpebrosus*. There are variably small additional caudal group bronchi (CGB) in some individuals (e.g., Mithridates) that branch off of the lateral, medial, and dorsal surfaces as well (Figure 6b). The morphology of these airways is grossly similar to the laterobronchi in that they are grossly blind saccular structures; however, the overall shape diverges in that they are effectively hexagonal air sacs with wide ostia. It is unknown if there are small inter-bronchial perforations between the individual CGB, but none were visible.
There is considerable variation in CGB morphology with no obvious pattern between bronchus size and specimen age. The hatchling Sulla (Figure 6a) and the adult Sertorius (Figure 6c) have large voluminous CGB, while the slightly smaller adult Mithridates (Figure 6b) has a multitude of small CGB.

### TABLE 3  *Alligator mississippiensis* (*n* = 5) standard major axis regression results showing slopes and y-intercepts with 95% confidence intervals, the value for isometry for each measure, and the trend

| Lower CI Slope Upper CI Lower CI y-intercept Upper CI Isometry Trend |
|------------------|------------------|------------------|------------------|------------------|------------------|------------------|
| CVBPBArea        | 0.436            | 0.525            | 0.633            | -1.375           | -1.357           | -1.342           | 0.66 Neg         |
| CVBOstArea       | 0.438            | 0.544            | 0.676            | -1.145           | -1.123           | -1.105           | 0.66 Iso         |
| CVBDist          | 0.241            | 0.327            | 0.445            | 0.363            | 0.383            | 0.397            | 0.33 Iso         |
| D2PBArea         | 0.415            | 0.490            | 0.580            | -1.107           | -1.092           | -1.079           | 0.66 Neg         |
| D2OstArea        | 0.436            | 0.583            | 0.779            | -1.117           | -1.084           | -1.059           | 0.66 Iso         |
| D2Dist           | 0.243            | 0.322            | 0.428            | 0.466            | 0.484            | 0.497            | 0.33 Iso         |
| D3PBArea         | 0.353            | 0.465            | 0.614            | -1.092           | -1.067           | -1.048           | 0.66 Neg         |
| D3OstArea        | 0.391            | 0.667            | 1.138            | -0.749           | -0.670           | -0.623           | 0.66 Iso         |
| D3Dist           | 0.261            | 0.343            | 0.450            | 0.560            | 0.578            | 0.592            | 0.33 Iso         |
| D4PBArea         | 0.142            | 0.326            | 0.745            | -1.989           | -1.918           | -1.887           | 0.66 Iso         |

Note: Iso, isometry; Neg, negative allometry; Pos, positive allometry.
Abbreviations: CVB, cervical ventral bronchus; D2, dorsobronchus 2; D3, dorsobronchus 3; D4, dorsobronchus 4; PBArea, area of primary bronchus at each origin of ostium; OstArea, area of ostium at each bronchus; Dist, distance from carina to each bronchus.

### TABLE 4  *Paleosuchus palpebrosus* (*n* = 4) standard major axis regression results showing slopes and y-intercepts with 95% confidence intervals, the value for isometry for each measure, and the trend

| Lower CI Slope Upper CI Lower CI y-intercept Upper CI Isometry Trend |
|------------------|------------------|------------------|------------------|------------------|------------------|------------------|
| CVBPBArea        | 0.343            | 0.488            | 0.695            | -1.158           | -1.125           | -1.078           | 0.66 Iso         |
| CVBOstArea       | 0.325            | 0.528            | 0.858            | -1.114           | -1.068           | -0.993           | 0.66 Iso         |
| CVBDist          | 0.242            | 0.331            | 0.452            | 0.312            | 0.333            | 0.360            | 0.33 Iso         |
| D2PBArea         | 0.337            | 0.477            | 0.674            | -1.047           | -1.015           | -0.971           | 0.66 Iso         |
| D2OstArea        | 0.458            | 0.555            | 0.673            | -1.304           | -1.282           | -1.255           | 0.66 Iso         |
| D2Dist           | 0.219            | 0.332            | 0.502            | 0.418            | 0.444            | 0.483            | 0.33 Iso         |
| D3PBArea         | 0.297            | 0.467            | 0.736            | -0.955           | -0.917           | -0.856           | 0.66 Iso         |
| D3OstArea        | 0.365            | 0.534            | 0.782            | -1.222           | -1.183           | -1.127           | 0.66 Iso         |
| D3Dist           | 0.208            | 0.337            | 0.546            | 0.504            | 0.534            | 0.581            | 0.33 Iso         |
| D4PBArea         | 0.413            | 0.480            | 0.558            | -1.592           | -1.577           | -1.559           | 0.66 Neg         |

Note: Iso, isometry; Neg, negative allometry; Pos, positive allometry.
Abbreviations: CVB, cervical ventral bronchus; D2, dorsobronchus 2; D3, dorsobronchus 3; D4, dorsobronchus 4; PBArea, area of primary bronchus at each origin of ostium; OstArea, area of ostium at each bronchus; Dist, distance from carina to each bronchus.

### TABLE 5  Means and standard deviations for distances from the carina to the CVB and each of the major measurable secondary dorsobronchi for *A. mississippiensis* and *P. palpebrosus*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Species</th>
<th>Bronchus (distance)</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Standard deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><em>A. mississippiensis</em></td>
<td>CVB</td>
<td>63.41</td>
<td>2.86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>A. mississippiensis</em></td>
<td>D2</td>
<td>16.54</td>
<td>1.68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>A. mississippiensis</em></td>
<td>D3</td>
<td>20.05</td>
<td>3.69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>P. palpebrosus</em></td>
<td>CVB</td>
<td>63.26</td>
<td>4.09</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>P. palpebrosus</em></td>
<td>D2</td>
<td>18.37</td>
<td>1.91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>P. palpebrosus</em></td>
<td>D3</td>
<td>18.37</td>
<td>2.61</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The anatomy of the cardiac bronchi is considerably asymmetric (Figure 3f), with one large bronchus occupying the space between the left and right primary bronchi and reaching the carina predominantly from one lung in all individuals. In Sertorius, two branches contribute to the cardiac bronchi or “lobes,” with the primary and cranial-most cardiac bronchus (C1) arising from the right primary bronchus (Figure 5c). The smaller corresponding cardiac bronchus on the left side typically emerge from the second medial bronchus. In the hatchling Cinna, branches contributing to the cardiac region only emerge from the right lung (Figure 5a). In Sulla, the larger and more cranially positioned cardiac bronchus emerges from the right, with a smaller slightly caudally positioned cardiac bronchus arising on the left lung. Mithridates has a similar morphology to Sulla, with the larger cranially positioned cardiac bronchus emerging from the right lung, and the smaller cardiac bronchus branching from the left lung. In comparison to the alligator, there was an overall reduced number of bronchi contributing to the cardiac lobes. Schachner et al. (2021) observed that alligators can have up to four bronchi contributing, with a general pattern of 3/3 on each side. Every alligator imaged had larger and more cranial cardiac lobes emerging the right lung, and we found this to also be the case in P. palpebrosus.

3.8 | Pulmonary measures

All confidence intervals for the lung measurements overlap between A. mississippiensis and P. palpebrosus, so there are no differences between the taxa in their ontogenetic trajectories for these metrics (Figure 7; Tables 3–5). However, it is important to note that low sample sizes led to the generation of large confidence intervals, and it is best to view these data as preliminary. Considering that most of the P. palpebrosus did not have a D5, and when the D4 was present, the ostium was often too ambiguous to measure, only the CVB, D2, D3, and L1 (only ostium area) are directly comparable between the two taxa (Figures 7 and 8). The distance from the carina to the ostium of the CVB, D2, and D3 in the caimans is consistent across the four individuals measured and grows isometrically, similar to that found in alligators (Figure 7). Ostium area similarly grows isometrically for the CVB, D2, and D3 for both taxa (Figure 7). The primary bronchus area at the CVB, D2, and D3 grows isometrically in P. palpebrosus whereas they grow with negative allometry in Alligator. To assess the positioning of bronchi relative to the carina, the distances from the carina to the CVB, D2, and D3 were converted to percentages of total length in each specimen and then a mean and standard deviation were taken. The average distances from the carina to the CVB were nearly the same for A. mississippiensis (Mean = 63.41%, SD = 2.86) and P. palpebrosus (mean = 63.26%, SD = 4.09). The distances from the CVB to D2 and D2 to D3 were quite similar as well across the two species (Figure 8).

4 | DISCUSSION

4.1 | Paleosuchus versus Alligator

Our data demonstrate that there are clear and consistent patterns in pulmonary morphology shared by A. mississippiensis and P. palpebrosus. These are (a) the primary bronchus begins as a narrowly constricted tube and expands caudally, bending medially into a hook-shaped structure; (b) the CVB branches off first after making a hairpin turn, is a long tube-shaped bronchus,
Fasting and postprandial morphology of *P. palpebrosus* (Mithridates, 5 kg). Skeletal model and lung surface model of a live *P. palpebrosus* in dorsal (a, with the scutes visible) and in left lateral views (b, c), approximately 2–3 hours after ingesting a large rat. The partially digested rat skeleton is identified in green. (d) Thorax model of the same animal after a fast in left lateral view. The isolated lungs from the postprandial model are shown in dorsal (e) and left lateral (f) views. The isolated lungs from the fasting model are shown in dorsal (g) and left lateral (h) views. Images not to scale.
and reaches the apex of the lung; (c) a series of dorsobronchi branch off of the primary bronchus sequentially in a row; (d) a series of highly variable medial bronchi branch off of the primary bronchus; (e) a series of proximally constricted and distally ballooned laterobronchi branch off of the ventrolateral surface of the primary bronchus; and (f) a series of grossly dead end tubular sac-like CGBs arise from the caudal region of the primary bronchus (Figure 6). Additionally, there are no statistical differences in ontogenetic allometry for lung metrics (Figure 7), and the relative distances from the carina to the CVB, D2, and D3 are nearly identical across both taxa (Figure 8).

The substantive differences between the two taxa are in the bronchial numbers and in the caudal regions of the lungs. Alligators show increased bronchial contributions to the cardiac “lobes”—up to four bronchi in some individuals (Schachner et al., 2021), and a more consistent presence of a fourth dorsobronchus (D5). Additionally, the area of the primary bronchus scales with negative allometry at the CVB, D2, and D3 in A. mississippiensis while it scales with isometry in these regions in P. palpebrosus (Tables 3 and 4). Despite these differences, the large number of similarities between taxa suggest that unidirectional airflow may be constraining lung morphology in crocodilians. This is particularly true in the more proximal regions of the bronchial tree, around the CVB and first few dorsobronchi. Segmented models of juvenile Nile crocodile (C. niloticus) lungs show a similar overall morphology as the two species analyzed.
for this study, but an increased number of secondary bronchi in the caudal half of the lung (Schachner et al., 2013). It is unclear whether these differences are phylogenetic, environmental, or due to another unknown factor. Additional taxa must be evaluated (e.g., more basal crocodilians like *Tomistoma schlegelii*, *Gavialis gangeticus*, and other non-alligatoroid species) to determine if these traits are ubiquitous across all crocodilians and to what extent the results can be used to reconstruct the ancestral crocodilian lung.

4.2 Shifts in pulmonary position

Position of the lungs and associated viscera within the thoracocoelomic cavity of crocodiles has been a topic of interest for biologists and paleontologists for a variety of reasons related to investigating the evolution of ventilation in archosaurs (Brocklehurst et al., 2018, 2020; Rademacher et al., 2021; Schachner et al., 2009, 2011). Uriona and Farmer (2008) demonstrated through electromyography that *A. mississippiensis* can actively recruit select abdominal and pelvic muscles, along with the novel m. diaphragmaticus muscle (which encapsulates the abdominal viscera) to shift the organs during aquatic locomotion. Whether or not the lungs themselves are translating relative to the thoracic ceiling during ventilation and how this impacts the bronchial tree is still unknown. Schachner et al. (2009, 2011) and Brocklehurst et al. (2018, 2020) associated the flat thoracic ceiling of extant crocodilians with this “hepatic-piston” mechanism and used it to reconstruct patterns of lung evolution in extinct taxa. Mithridates, a live 5 kg male individual, was imaged a few hours after eating a large rat (Figures 9a–c, e,f and 10) and then for a second time 9 months later while fasting and during a natural apnea (Figures 9d,g,h and 10). Immediately postprandially, the lung volume during the natural apnea decreased bilaterally due to the displacement by the rat carcass. Additionally, the lungs were shifted approximately five vertebral segments cranially on the left side and four on the right to accommodate the food bolus (Figures 9c,d and 10). Two of the hatchlings, Lucullus and Cinna, were imaged via μCT fully inflated and then scanned again open to atmosphere. In the fully inflated lungs of Lucullus, the caudal aspect of the left lung extends just under one and a half vertebral lengths longer than when the lungs were left open to atmosphere (Figure 11). This indicates that in deceased specimens, the visceral and parietal pleura are capable of sliding relative to one another craniocaudally. These data preliminarily validate previous attempts to use the smooth thoracic ceiling as an osteological correlate for pulmonary surface structure in extinct crocodilians (see, e.g., Brocklehurst et al., 2018, 2020; Schachner et al., 2009, 2011). However, the most important questions remain: (a) What are the pulmonary tissues doing

FIGURE 11 Total lung capacity versus open to atmosphere. Surface model of the lungs and partial axial skeleton (vertebrae and dorsal ribs) in left lateral (a,b) and dorsal (c,d) views of a deceased hatchling *P. palpebrosus* (Lucullus). The torso was fully inflated under positive pressure (a,c), and left open to atmosphere (b,d) demonstrating the different position of the lungs relative to the vertebral column at total lung capacity versus when air leaves the lungs due to gravity and the pressure of the surrounding tissues.
during active ventilation? (b) Are they translating relative to the thoracocoelomic body wall during different types of locomotion? Additional data on live crocodilian ventilation are needed to fully address these questions.

4.3 | Reconstructing the ancestral crocodilian lung

Reconstructions of pulmonary anatomy in extinct taxa have been of great interest over the last 20 years to paleontologists and biologists (Farmer, 2006; O’Connor, 2006, 2009; O’Connor & Claessens, 2005; Schachner et al., 2011; Sereno et al., 2008; Wedel, 2003, 2009). However, the details of crocodilian lung evolution have rarely been the focus of these analyses aside from discussions of the hepatic-piston ventilation mechanism and how it relates to dinosaurian ventilation or the ancestral archosaurian respiratory system (Brocklehurst et al., 2020; Radermacher et al., 2021; Scavezzoni & Fischer, 2021). More data on a variety of extant taxa are required to properly understand the origin and evolution of the crocodilian bronchial tree, including the origin of the hepatic–piston system.

Within extant crocodiles, basic questions remain regarding which aspects of the respiratory system are shared across the group and which components are unique to individual taxa. It has been demonstrated in numerous studies that every species of crocodilian examined exhibits unidirectional airflow patterns in various regions of the bronchial tree (Farmer, 2015b; Farmer & Sanders, 2010; Schachner et al., 2013). Each of these taxa has a large tubular bronchus that branches off the primary bronchus (the CVB), multiple secondary airways, a hook-shaped primary bronchus, and varying saccular airways (or air sacs) that extend into the lateral and caudal regions of the lung (Figure 12). What varies is the length of trachea and looping of the primary bronchus proximal to the carina (Farmer, 2015b), the number of secondary airways and the size of these branches, and the density of the respiratory parenchyma. While Alligator and Paleosuchus are superficially relatively similar, lungs of juvenile specimens of *C. niloticus* show an increased number of secondary bronchi relative to other crocodilians (Figure 12; Schachner et al., 2013) indicating that there could be ecological or phylogenetic differences impacting respiratory biology across the clade that necessitate further investigation. These data will prove useful for comparisons with avian taxa as more structural similarities and differences between crocodilians and birds emerge and are available for quantitative analyses. These results lay the groundwork to elucidate the basic bauplan
for alligatoroid lungs and generate hypotheses of homology for pulmonary structures across the entire crocodilian and archosaurian clades.

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