SEASONALITY OF REPRODUCTION IN THE WILD BOAR

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In the management of large breeding units of domestic pig, particular attention is currently paid to seasonal fluctuations in reproductive performance. Although the domestic pig is known to reproduce throughout the year, there is a seasonal decrease in breeding performance. Considerable reproductive inefficiency has been reported during the summer and autumn months in the domestic sow in France (Corteel, Signoret and du Mesnil du Buisson, 1964), England (Stork, 1979), Italy (Enne, Beccaro and Tarocco, 1979), USSR, (Radev, Andreev and Kostov, 1976), USA (Hurtgen, 1976; Hurtgen, Leman and Crabo, 1980) and Australia (Paterson, Barker and Lindsay, 1978). Although not exhaustive, this list shows the general trend. The European wild boar represents the wild form from which the modern breeds of domestic pig have been derived by intensive selection directed towards growth and productivity criteria. However, most studies of the European wild boar have been conducted from an ecological or hunting viewpoint (Oloff, 1951; Haber, 1969; Snethlage, 1974). The aim of this chapter is to review our knowledge of the reproductive biology of this wild species as a basis for comparison with the domestic pig.

Most of the data presented here were obtained from an indigenous population of wild boar living in a natural environment, the Chizé forest in midwestern France. They form a part of a study dealing with the ecological, behavioural and physiological (reproductive) aspects of the adaptation of the wild boar to its environment (Mauget, 1980).

Reproductive performance

Compared with other ungulates of similar body size, the wild boar appears to be the species having the highest reproductive capacity. This characteristic, associated with a great faculty of adaptation, seems likely to be at the origin of domestication, the result of which has been to optimize productivity.

FREQUENCY OF BREEDING

Generally one litter is produced each year with farrowing occurring in late winter and early spring. However, under certain conditions, which will be considered later, a second farrowing in the year may occur.

LITTER SIZE

Information has been obtained from the reproductive tracts of 57 slaughtered females in which the foetuses were examined. There were, on average, 4.60 ± 0.18 foetuses per sow. Variations from one year to another were not statistically significant. However, variations were observed in the litter size in relation to the weight and subsequently to the age and parity of the female. Average litter size varied from 2.50 ± 0.51 for young primiparous females (weighing 30-39 kg and 9-15 months of age) to 5.43 ± 0.26 for older females (weighing more than 80 kg and over 3 years of age).

OVULATION RATE AND FOETAL SURVIVAL

The number of ova shed per female was determined by corpora lutea count. Ovulation rate for the combined mature female age group was 5.26 ± 0.25 (n = 31), with a 12.5% intrauterine loss.

CONCEPTION RATE

Conception rate (the percentage of mature females which are bred) varied considerably among the weight-age classes. Thus in the primiparous females (30-39 kg, 9-15 months) the maximum conception rate was 68.8% (n = 52 females). It reached 97.9% (n = 48) for animals weighing 40-59 kg and aged 16-24 months and 100% (n = 53) for pigs of 60 kg and more and over two years of age.

GESTATION LENGTH

The gestation period of wild females reared in enclosures was 119 ± 0.7 days (n = 18) with a range of 112-126 days.

Table 24.1 gives a comparison of the reproductive performance established in the wild boar with that of the domestic pig and feral pigs (i.e. domesticated animals returned to a wild status). While modern breeds of domestic pig may have a litter size as high as 20, with a mean value of about 12, the wild boar averages only 4.6 young. However, the intrauterine mortality which reaches 30% in the domestic sow, is significantly lower in the wild pig. In feral pigs, ovulation rate is intermediate between the other two but intrauterine losses still remain high. Mean gestation length appears slightly higher in the wild pig than in the domestic sow. While it is clear that the wild boar differs in reproductive performance from domestic forms, the essential characteristic of its reproduction is its seasonal pattern.

Season of breeding

In pure breeds of wild boars having no history of hybridization with domesticated animals, as assessed by chromosomal studies (McFee, Banner and Rary, 1966; Mauget *et al.*, 1977), reproduction is clearly seasonal.

Table 24.1 REPRODUCTI	PRODUCTIVE PI	ERFORMANCE O	F THE DOME	STIC, FERAL	AND WILD F	IVE PERFORMANCE OF THE DOMESTIC, FERAL AND WILD FORMS OF SUS SCROFA	OFA
	No. of	Intrauterine Locces	Gestation length	Average	Farre	Farrowing	References
	lutea	(%)	(days)	size	Frequency	Period	
Domestic pig		30	114	12	→2.5	Jan.→Dec.	Asdell (1964)
Feral pig (U.S.)	8.5 8.7±0.3	34 . 29,1	116-118	5-7 6.2±0.5	7	Jan.→ Dec.	Barrett (1978) Hagen and Kephart (1980)
Feral pig (Corsica, France)	(1)			5-7 (1-11)	12	Jan.→ Dec.	Molénat and Casabianca (1979)
Wild boar × f¢ral pig (U.S.)	é ↑			4.2 3.2		Jan.→ Dec. Jan.→ Dec.	Pine and Gerdes (1973) Duncan (1974)
European wild boar	4.6→5.7	13→23 [.]	120	4.6 5 3.5→5.0		Spring-Summer Spring-Summer	Henry (1968) Briederman (1971) Aumaitre (1979, personal
	5.26±0.25	12.5	119±0.7	4.6±0.18	1 <u>-</u> +2	Jan.→Scpt.	Continuincation) Mauget (1972)



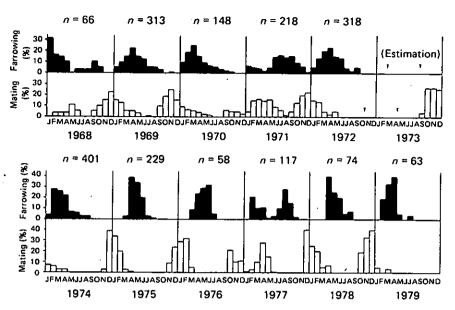


Figure 24.1 Monthly distribution of farrowings and matings recorded in the Chizé forest from 1968 to 1979, expressed as the percentage of total annual number (n) of observations

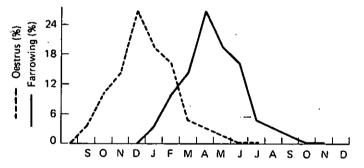


Figure 24.2 Unimodal distribution of farrowings and corresponding oestrus (pooled data from seven years, estimated by back-aging dates of birth of 1584 young).

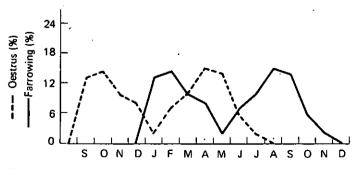
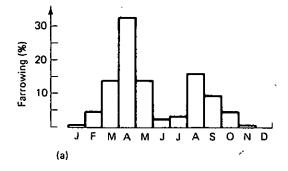
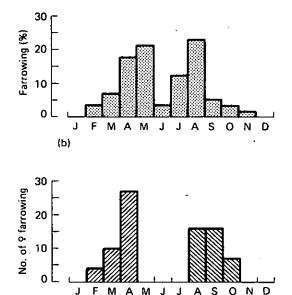


Figure 24.3 Bimodal distribution of farrowings and corresponding oestrus (pooled data from three years, estimated by back-aging dates of birth of 401 young).





(c)

Figure 24.4 Farrowing data of wild boars in the commercial rearing unit. (a) Whole population (n = 226); (b) females reaching puberty (n = 56); (c) females farrowing twice a year, \bigotimes first litter; \bigotimes second litter

Analysis of farrowing data recorded both in forest and in enclosures supports the evidence of such seasonal breeding (Mauget, 1978).

The monthly distribution of farrowings and corresponding oestrus observed in the population of the Chizé forest from 1968 to 1979 are presented in *Figure 24.1* and show considerable variation. There appear to be two types of farrowing distribution. One is unimodal (*Figure 24.2*) with the peak of farrowing occurring in April and May and a wide distribution ranging from January to September. In the bimodal type (*Figure 24.3*), two peaks are seen. The first peak occurs in January and February and the second one in August and September. It is interesting to note that in years with two periods of birth the peak occurs before the unimodal one.

The animals involved in each breeding period can be determined from data collected in enclosures on individually marked animals (*Figure 24.4*).

IDIE 24.2 INFLUENCE OF THE TIME OF YEAR ON REPRODUCTIVE STATE (FEMALES CAPTURED IN THE WILD)	mals)
DF THE TIME OF YEAR ON I	Monthly frequency (no. of a
able 24.2 INFLUENCE	eproductive state

ceproductive state	Monthly	frequency	Monthly frequency (no. of animals)	ıals)								
	Jan.	Feb.	March	Apr.	May	June	July	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.
lic	7	7	s		2	2	,		-			
gnant	ŝ	10	43	,	1	' 1	I	I	•)		
tating	ı	ı	I	ł	ı	13	20	6	• 1	רא		I I
estrus	I	I	ı	I	ı	4	10	7	П	9	• •	v
ature	Ś	17	17	I	4	l	I	2	-	6	Ē	5
Anocstrus Immature	- 50	- 11	- 17	1 1	14	•	4 –	- 1 0	. 4 10 7 . 1 - 2	4 10 7 11 1 - 2 1	4 10 7 11 10 · 1 - 2 1 19	$\begin{array}{rrrrr} 4 & 10 & 7 & 11 & 10 & 9 \\ \cdot & 1 & - & 2 & 1 & 19 & 11 \\ \end{array}$

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The histogram of the monthly distribution of births recorded in a rearing unit is typically bimodal as shown in panel (a); the first peak is in April followed by a second in August. The animals involved in these two main periods are young females reaching puberty at one of the peaks (panel (b)) and adult females farrowing twice a year (panel (c)). The second litter in the year is obtained as a result of the separation of the sow from her young three weeks after parturition.

Annual cycle of ovarian activity

Farrowing distribution results from seasonal ovarian activity and on the basis of samples collected all year round in the forest, an anoestrous period occurs during the summer and autumn months.

Reproductive tracts from female wild pigs were examined to determine their physiological state. Five reproductive states could be distinguished: cycling, pregnancy, lactation, anoestrus and immature. The histological characteristics of ovaries and vaginal epithelium corresponding to each stage agree with the morphological descriptions classically reported in the domestic sow (Corner, 1921; Bal, Wensing and Getty, 1969; Steinbach and Schmidt, 1970). Reproductive states varied at different times of the year (*Table 24.2*). The occurrence of anoestrus in females was seen as early as June and as late as December.

Reproductive state	No. of females	Plasma progesterone (ng/ml)
Cyclic	11	12.47±2.07
Pregnant	17	13.45±0.73
Lactating	30	3.95 ± 0.51
Anoestrus	37	2.19 ± 0.25
Immature	13	3.20 ± 0.65

Table 24.3PLASMA PROGESTERONE LEVELS (MEAN ±2 S.E.M.: 95%CONFIDENCE LIMITS) ESTIMATED ON FEMALE WILD BOARS IN DIFFERENTREPRODUCTIVE STATES

Plasma progesterone levels related to the various reproductive states are shown in *Table 24.3*. Both cyclic and pregnant animals had high mean progesterone levels. In animals with no functional corpora lutea, progesterone levels were somewhat higher when compared with the basal levels generally reported in domestic sows (about 1 ng/ml). A stress-induced adrenal secretion of progesterone could be envisaged in such trapped wild animals.

In order to determine precisely the timing of ovarian function, longitudinal analysis was performed on adult females older than eighteen months of age which had been captured in the wild and maintained in enclosures without males. From weekly bleeding, the evolution of plasma progesterone concentration as a reflection of ovarian activity was determined. Marked seasonal variations in weekly mean values were observed (*Figure* 24.5). From December and January to June and July, progesterone levels were high. The weekly mean values were associated with standard errors

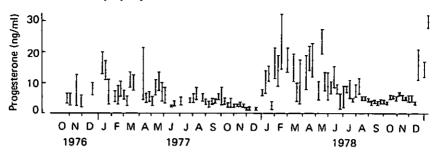


Figure 24.5 Seasonal variations of plasma progesterone levels in unbred adult female wild pigs (mean ±S.E.M. based on weekly values from six animals)

which reflected a wide range in individual progesterone levels in relation to cyclic ovarian activity. They varied from 3-4 ng/ml to 20-30 ng/ml with a mean of 13.45 ng/ml. These values are in agreement with those that have been reported during the oestrous cycle in the domestic sow (Stabenfeldt et al., 1969; Tillson, Erb and Niswender, 1970; Edqvist and Lamm, 1971; Henricks, Guthrie and Handlin, 1972; Shearer et al., 1972). However, the basal levels appear somewhat higher and as discussed above, the adrenal cortex might contribute to this. Time series analysis (the method of Halberg et al., 1972) has revealed a cyclicity of progesterone level ranging from 19-23 days. This periodicity is comparable to the length of oestrous cycle determined by Henry (1968) in penned female wild pigs monitored for oestrus and is within the range of values for the domestic sow. During the summer and autumn months progesterone concentrations remain at a low level characterizing an anoestrous stage. Thus, a regular alternation of ovarian cyclic activity and anoestrous sequences appeared over the 28 months of this study.

Environmental involvement

It is a general feature of wild mammals that environmental factors may influence the seasonal breeding activity (see reviews by Perry and Rowlands, 1973; Assenmacher and Farner, 1978; Mauget, Boissin-Agasse and Boissin, 1981). The seasonal synchronization of sexual activity might result from the adjustment of an 'endogenous oscillatory system' (Assenmacher, 1974) by cyclic environmental factors. It is established that for numerous species natural photoperiodism is the main synchronizer (Menaker, Takahashi and Eskin, 1978). However, other environmental factors (climatic, nutritional and social) might be involved in the timing of seasonal breeding.

NUTRITIONAL FACTORS

Under the controlled conditions of rearing, food is exclusively supplied by man. From data recorded on 53 wild boar rearing units it appeared that although plane of nutrition varied between rearings, there was always an

Plane of nutrition	Weight gain (kg)		Onset of cycl	<i>ic activity</i> (no	o. of animals)
		Dec. 11–17	Dec. 18-24	Dec. 25-31	Jan. 1–7	Jan. 8-14
I	2.2±0.9	-	_	6	3	· · · · · ·
П	7.1±1.4	6				

Table 24.4 FOOD LEVELS AND THE ONSET OF OVARIAN ACTIVITY

Group 1: 9 animals receiving a control diet of 1 kg of a commercial pelleted food and 0.5 kg of barley or corn/animal/day.

Group II: 6 animals receiving 1.5 × the amount given to the control group.

anoestrous period whose minimum duration extended from July to September. The onset of sexual activity was never observed before the beginning of October. To define nutritional effects more precisely, two planes of nutrition were tested in females kept in enclosures (*Table 24.4*). The onset of sexual activity occurred earlier in the females which were fed liberally (i.e. $1.5 \times$ the control level).

In the forest, availability of food fluctuates throughout the year and the onset of the breeding season occurs between the months of October and January. Data on the first incidence of fertile matings, collected over eight years, are presented in *Table 24.5*. It appears that earliness or delay in the onset of the breeding season (October or January) is related to the level of mast production in the forest in the autumn.

Year	Mast index ^(a)	Onset of breeding ^(b)	No. animals ^(c)
1972	2	NovDec.	16
1973	4	OctNov.	401
1974	2	DecJan.	229
1975	1	DecJan.	58
1976	3	OctNov.	117
1977	1	DecJan.	74
1978	4	OctNov.	63

 Table 24.5
 ONSET OF BREEDING SEASON IN THE WILD BOAR POPULATION

 IN RELATION TO THE PRODUCTIVITY OF THE FOREST IN AUTUMN

(a)1-4: Autumn mast estimates from minimum to maximum productivity.

^(b)Month during which more than 10% of females were bred.

(c) Total number of trapped animals under observation each year.

It seems likely that nutritional factors may, in part, influence the timing of reproduction in the wild boar. Nutritional problems have been widely studied in the sow (e.g. reviews in Cole, 1972). Food levels mainly influence reproductive performance. In wild animals, low food availability has been reported often to cause a delay in puberty attainment or in the onset of sexual season (Sadleir, 1969). For example, this has been shown in the bear (Rogers, 1976) and in the white-tailed deer (Verme, 1965).

SOCIAL FACTORS

As reported above (p.513), births in the population of the forest can be spread over several months. However, within each social group, constituted by the association of a small number of females (about 4), a close synchronization of births is found generally within 10–15 days. This reflects

Group	No. of females			Ма	ting da No.	ues (da of firs			I	
I	19	311 2	312 2	315 2	319 1	321 1		341 3	342 3	344 5
II	19	349 5	351 3	352 3	353 2	356 4	357 2	-	-	-
111	14	337 3	* 338 4	340 2	357 5					

Table 24.6 FIRST FERTILE MATINGS AFTER THE ANOESTROUS PERIOD

 FOR THREE REARING GROUPS
 FOR THREE REARING GROUPS

a synchronization of the onset of the breeding season for females of the same social group.

In groups of females in rearing units, a similar synchronization of the onset of cyclic activity after the anoestrous period is also found. Thus, from the data presented in *Table 24.6* it appears that the return to oestrus in each rearing group occurs within about a week.

PHOTOPERIOD

The cessation of breeding seems to be independent of plane of nutrition as it is even observed under stable feeding conditions. Furthermore, the cessation of ovarian activity begins in mid-April, when environmental temperatures are still low (mean: 10.2°C). This suggests the involvement of a reliable yearly environmental factor which might be photoperiod.

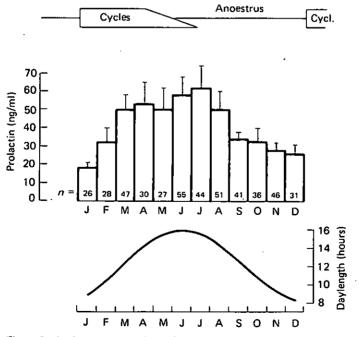


Figure 24.6 Seasonal variations of plasma prolactin levels (monthly pooled data of n samples obtained from 16 animals) related to daylength variations and timing of reproduction. The 95% confidence intervals are indicated by the vertical lines

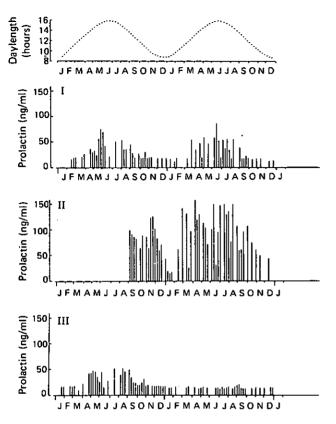


Figure 24.7 An illustration of marked individual fluctuations in prolactin profiles. (Frequency of each type: I = 11 animals, II = 3 animals, III = 2 animals)

The sensitivity of the wild boar to the annual variations of photoperiod has been indirectly investigated by studying seasonal changes in plasma prolactin concentrations. The results of monthly determinations of plasma prolactin levels are shown in *Figure 24.6*. A seasonal rhythm appears with peak values occurring in summer and minimum values in winter following the seasonal changes in natural daylength. Individual prolactin profiles are given in *Figure 24.7*, which shows marked individual fluctuations. While most females exhibit a pattern similar to the one shown for the pooled data, some deviations are observed. They relate to peak values reaching 180 ng/ml in some animals, while others have an annual prolactin profile that remains flat and at a low level. Stressful effects related to handling and venepuncture might be involved in increased prolactin levels, as has been reported in cattle (Raud, Kiddy and Odell, 1971; Leining, Bourne and Tucker, 1979). Nevertheless, it may be considered that over the two years of the study, the animals had adjusted to the sampling routine.

A relationship between the photoperiod and prolactin has been reported in many domestic ungulates e.g. cattle (Karg and Schams, 1974; Leining, Bourne and Tucker, 1979), goats (Buttle, 1974; Hart, 1975) and sheep (Pelletier, 1973; Lamming, Moseley and McNeilly, 1974; Ravault, 1976;

Walton et al., 1977; Thimonier, Ravault and Ortavant, 1978). Manipulations of natural daylength have clearly demonstrated that the seasonal prolactin rhythm is primarily determined by photoperiod. Recent studies have shown similar prolactin rhythms in wild mammals such as the white-tailed deer (Mirarchi et al., 1978; Schulte et al., 1980), the badger, the red fox (Maurel, 1981) and the roe deer (Sempéré, 1982). In the domestic pig. values during different reproductive stages (e.g. oestrus and lactation) have been established (Brinkley, Wiltinger and Young, 1973; Van Landeghem and Van de Wiel, 1978; Bevers, Willemse and Kruip, 1978). The only study of long duration is that conducted by Ravault et al., 1981. It has been shown that both in the cyclic and spayed sows mean plasma prolactin concentrations were low throughout the year. However, a trend to seasonal variations has been shown with prolactin levels being slightly higher during the spring and summer months and the lowest values occurring from September to December. This feature might be interpreted as a 'vestige' of an ancestral photoperiodic rhythm which could reflect the seasonal prolactin rhythm reported in the wild species.

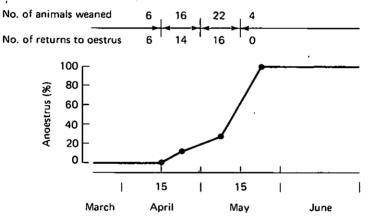


Figure 24.8 Occurrence of anoestrus in relation to time of weaning

In order to appreciate the seasonal influence, the natural timing of gestation and lactation were altered and the return to cyclic ovarian activity recorded (*Figure 24.8*). When abortion or weaning occur before mid-April, they are always followed by a return to oestrus. When weaning occurs from 15th April to 15th May, a maximum of 75% of females exhibit subsequent ovarian cyclic activity. A post-weaning oestrus does not occur in later weaned females. The change to cessation of ovarian cyclic activity in

UNBRED FEMAL		BEROF	- CMA		of the y	ear		
	1-15	April 16-30	1-15	May 16-31	1-15	June 16–30	1-15	July 16-31
Cycling	16	15	11	8	6	3	1	0
In anoestrus Cumulative (%)	0 (6	1 5)	5 (31)	8 (50)	10 (62)	13 (81)	15 (94)	16 (100)

 Table 24.7
 THE CHANGE TO CESSATION OF OVARIAN CYCLIC ACTIVITY IN

 UNBRED FEMALES (NUMBER OF FEMALES)

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unbred females exhibits a similar progressive pattern (*Table 24.7*). The cumulative percentage of animals in anoestrus increases slightly from mid-April and reaches 100% in July.

If the present data suggest that the wild boar is photoperiodic with respect to reproduction, then further investigations of the physiological mechanisms responsible for the seasonality of breeding are necessary. It is not known whether a relationship exists between increased prolactin levels and cessation of ovarian activity. From the literature, the effects of prolactin remain controversial. Hyperprolactinaemia has been correlated with a reduction of both gonadotrophin secretion and ovarian steroidogenesis in rats (Beck et al., 1977), women (Rolland et al., 1975; McNatty, Sawers and McNeilly, 1974) and sheep (Kann, Martinet and Schirar, 1978; Munro, McNatty and Renshaw, 1980). Other studies have failed to provide evidence of antigonadotrophic effects of prolactin in ewes (Niswender, 1974; Schanbacher, 1980) and bovine heifers (Williams and Ray, 1980). As stated by Walton et al. (1980) it seems unlikely that prolactin levels per se are solely responsible for seasonal effects on ovarian activity. The internal mechanisms involved in the seasonal pattern of reproduction in the wild boar might be similar to those developed in other seasonal breeders. Present theories (Turek and Campbell, 1979; Karsch, Goodman and Legan, 1980) suggest that the feedback interplay between gonadal hormones and gonadotrophin is seasonally modified by a photoperiodic alteration of hypothalamic-pituitary activity.

Conclusions

The data presented here support the evidence of an environmental control of reproductive activity in the wild boar. As schematically represented in *Figure 24.9*, a number of environmental factors, whose relative importance

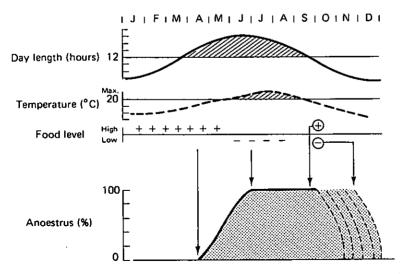


Figure 24.9 Seasonal changes in environmental factors and reproductive activity in the European wild boar

is different may be involved at the cessation and at the onset of the sexual season.

From April to June, the frequency of anoestrus increases progressively. It begins prior to the onset of high environmental temperatures and during a period of relatively high food availability. This led to the consideration of the influence of the factor showing greatest change, namely, daylight increasing from 12 to 16 hours. The progressive nature of the response may be related to individual variations of sensitivity.

From July to September, the whole population is anoestrous. All the external stimuli may act as limiting factors during this period, i.e. more than 12 hours daylight, external temperature over 20 °C and low summer food availability.

From October, the onset of the breeding season can be regulated by the availability of food. Depending on annual variations in mast availability in the autumn, cyclic activity occurs early (October) or is delayed (December). Subsequently, there can be either one or two litters per year.

Thus, the sensitivity of the European wild boar to its environment allows the synchronization of reproduction at the most advantageous time of the year. The seasonal anoestrus, the length of which determines the frequency of breeding, appears to be the major mechanism controlling the dynamics of the natural population. In modern breeds of domestic pig, this adaptative quality has disappeared although a trend to a summer reproductive inefficiency does persist and may reflect the dependence of reproduction on environmental factors that have been described for the wild boar.

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