

1 **Trade-offs between litter size and offspring fitness in domestic pigs subjected to different genetic**  
2 **selection pressures**

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17

18 **Abstract**

19

20 Artificial selection of the domestic pig (*Sus scrofa domesticus*) offers a useful model for investigating  
21 changes in behaviour associated with reproductive trade-offs between litter size and fitness of  
22 offspring. The aim of this study was to evaluate effects of litter size on teat stimulation, sibling  
23 competition, and pre-weaning survival and growth in three populations of domestic pigs subjected to  
24 different selection pressures (a maternal line selected for high reproductive investment, a paternal line  
25 selected for meat production traits, and a crossbred line). We predicted that, with increasing litter size,  
26 piglets would spend more time in udder massage, be less likely to gain access to a teat during milk  
27 letdown and, if surviving to weaning, have lower, more variable body weights. We also predicted that  
28 maternal line sows would wean more piglets of higher weight, despite larger litter sizes, than paternal  
29 line sows. Sows (maternal line, n=12, paternal line, n=12, crossbred line, n=14) were loose-housed  
30 with their litters in individual farrowing pens. We collected data on piglet behaviour during nursings at  
31 1 day of age, when sibling competition was expected to be most intense. Piglets were weaned at 35  
32 days of age, when they were weighed and cumulative mortality was calculated. As predicted, piglets in  
33 larger litters spent more time in pre- and post-letdown udder massage ( $P = 0.050$  and  $P < 0.001$ ,  
34 respectively). In larger litters, more piglets survived to weaning ( $P = 0.002$ ), but at a cost of a lower  
35 proportion of nursings with letdown ( $P < 0.001$ ), longer nursing intervals on average ( $P = 0.018$ ),  
36 more piglets without a functional teat at letdown ( $P < 0.001$ ), an increased risk of mortality due to  
37 starvation ( $P < 0.001$ ) and crushing ( $P = 0.002$ ), and lower ( $P = 0.039$ ), more variable ( $P = 0.002$ )  
38 body weights at weaning. In the maternal line, nursing intervals lengthened with increasing litter size  
39 (litter size  $\times$  breed:  $P < 0.001$ ) despite more post-letdown udder massage ( $P < 0.001$ ), and mortality  
40 due to crushing rose with increasing litter size ( $P < 0.001$ ), without differential increments in number,  
41 weight or weight uniformity of weaned piglets with increasing litter size between breeds (litter size  $\times$   
42 breed:  $P > 0.1$ ). Our results suggest that further artificial selection for larger litters in maternal lines  
43 will be unsustainable because increments in the number of piglets weaned have increasing costs (e.g.  
44 sibling competition, mortality, uneven growth) that compromise piglet welfare and fitness.

45 **Keywords:** Reproductive strategy; Artificial selection; Maternal investment; Brood reduction;  
46 Suckling behaviour; Offspring survival

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## 48 **1. Introduction**

49

50 Overproduction of young is an insurance policy that increases parental fitness when access to  
51 resources is variable (e.g. Smith and Fretwell, 1974; Williams, 1966). A constraint on such  
52 reproductive “bet hedging” is that offspring often have lower weights and slower physical  
53 development in larger broods (e.g. Mendl, 1988; Nilsson and Gårdmark, 2001). This trade-off between  
54 number and fitness of offspring (Clutton-Brock and Godfrey, 1991; Lessells, 1991) may be  
55 particularly evident in artificial selection of the domestic pig (*Sus scrofa domestica*) to capitalize on  
56 the pig’s capacity for overproduction. In pig breeding, selection pressure for litter size varies between  
57 breeds, offering a useful model for investigating trade-offs between reproductive strategies.

58

59 Selection indices for “maternal” pig lines (e.g. Norsvin Landrace) incorporate multiple traits including  
60 growth, feed efficiency, meat and carcass quality, reproduction and health but with the main emphasis  
61 on litter size (total born and born alive) and indirect measures of maternal capacity (lower piglet  
62 mortality to 21 days, litter weight at 21 days, total number of teats, and number of functional teats;  
63 Norsvin annual report, 2014). For example, the Norsvin Landrace selection index has placed a 25%  
64 weight on litter size at birth and a 16% weight on number of piglets surviving to 21 days (Martinsen,  
65 2016). In contrast, “paternal” (i.e. “terminal sire”) lines such as the Norsvin Duroc are selected most  
66 heavily for meat production traits such as growth, carcass quality and health (receiving 89 % weight in  
67 the Norsvin Duroc selection index; Martinsen, 2016), consequently producing smaller litters with  
68 piglets growing at less uniform rates than those of maternal lines. Selection pressures on  
69 “multipurpose” breeds (e.g. Swedish Yorkshire) are more balanced between litter size and other  
70 maternal traits on the one hand and meat yield, carcass qualities, and health characteristics on the other  
71 hand. When lines are crossed, heterosis is expected to optimize the selected characteristics of both  
72 parents. Therefore, boars of paternal lines are often crossed with sows expressing stronger maternal

73 traits to produce crossbred piglets destined for slaughter. It is unclear how these differing breeding  
74 strategies affect piglet behaviour towards the sow (i.e. signalling of need for milk) and siblings (i.e.  
75 competition for milk) and their impact on sow behaviour (e.g. milk provisioning versus crushing of  
76 piglets; Andersen et al., 2011).

77

78 In the pig, nursing occurs in organized bouts, with each bout comprising an initial period of around 1  
79 to 3 min of udder massage by the piglets (pre-massage), a brief milk ejection (letdown) period lasting  
80 approximately 15 s when piglets rapidly drink the milk, and a concluding period of udder massage  
81 (post-massage) of varying duration (Algers et al., 1990; Algers and Uvnäs-Moberg, 2007). If there is  
82 insufficient pre-massage (e.g. due to too few piglets at the udder, too many teat disputes, or too few  
83 accessible teats), the nursing is terminated without milk letdown (unsuccessful nursing; Illmann and  
84 Madlfousek, 1995). Following a successful nursing, the duration of post-massage of the udder appears  
85 to be positively correlated with future milk production (Algers and Jensen, 1991; Gill and Thomson,  
86 1956; although not confirmed at the teat level, Špinka et al., 1995). The effort invested in post-  
87 massage might, thus, be considered investment for the future. If udder stimulation by the litter is high,  
88 sows may respond with more frequent successful nursings, thereby increasing daily milk provisioning  
89 (Algers and Jensen, 1991). However, there is likely to be an upper limit to the sows' flexibility to  
90 respond to increasing piglet demand with increasing litter size. Therefore, we can explore the impact  
91 of different breeding strategies by evaluating how much effort piglets invest in pre- and post-massage,  
92 and how sows respond to this signalling of the piglets' need for nourishment.

93

94 The aim of the present project was to investigate effects of litter size on sibling competition in  
95 breeding lines subjected to different genetic selection pressures. We hypothesized that increased litter  
96 size would lead to greater sibling competition. Consequently, we predicted that, with increased litter  
97 size, piglets would: 1) spend more time in pre- and post-massage of the udder, 2) be less likely to gain  
98 access to a functional teat during milk letdown, 3) have less opportunity to monopolize more than one  
99 teat, 4) receive a lower proportion of successful nursings, 5) be at greater risk of mortality from  
100 starvation and crushing, and 6) if surviving to weaning, have lower, more variable body weights.

101 Furthermore, we predicted that, by investing more resources in the current litter compared to sows of a  
102 paternal line, sows of a maternal line would be able to wean more piglets with higher body weights  
103 despite greater litter sizes. We predicted that a crossbred line would show intermediate results.

104

## 105 **2. Material and methods**

106

### 107 2.1 Animals

108

109 We studied sows ( $n = 38$ ) with their offspring from two purebred lines ( $n = 12$  Norsvin Landrace (NL)  
110 sows (a maternal line) inseminated with NL boar semen;  $n = 12$  Norsvin Duroc (ND) sows (a paternal  
111 line) inseminated with ND boar semen), and from a four-way crossbred (CB) line ( $n = 14$  NL  $\times$   
112 Swedish Yorkshire sows inseminated with NL $\times$ ND boar semen). The inclusion criteria were that the  
113 sows were healthy, at least 6 sows per line were primiparous, and all sows within one batch ( $n = 3$ )  
114 had similar expected farrowing dates. The sows of each breeding line (NL, ND, CB) were in their first  
115 ( $n = 6, 6, 8$ ), second ( $n = 0, 5, 1$ ), third ( $n = 4, 0, 0$ ), fourth ( $n = 0, 1, 3$ ), fifth ( $n = 1, 0, 2$ ), and sixth  
116 parity ( $n = 1, 0, 0$ ), respectively.

117

### 118 2.2 Animal environment and husbandry

119

120 The research was conducted at the Pig Research Unit of the Norwegian University of Life Sciences, in  
121 accordance with Norwegian legislation governing the use of live animals in research and the care of  
122 farmed pigs ([www.lovdata.no](http://www.lovdata.no)). One week before the expected parturition of the first sow in each batch  
123 ( $n = 3$ ), sows were moved to a lactation room where they were loose-housed in individual pens ( $8.9$   
124  $\text{m}^2$ ). Sows could move freely in a sow area, which had a solid concrete floor section covered with  
125 sawdust ( $3.3 \text{ m}^2$ ), and a slatted floor section ( $3.7 \text{ m}^2$ ). The sow area was equipped with two farrowing  
126 rails to prevent the sow from crushing piglets along the pen wall. An enclosed piglet creep area ( $1.9$   
127  $\text{m}^2$ ) was located in a front corner, which had a solid concrete floor covered with a thick layer of  
128 sawdust and was heated with an infrared heat lamp (providing a temperature of  $34 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$  for newborn

129 piglets, and gradually lowered temperature until weaning). Ambient temperature in the lactation room  
130 was kept between 17 °C and 20 °C. In addition to natural light from the windows, artificial light was  
131 provided between 0700 and 1500 h.

132  
133 Except for farrowing assistance (if sows were restless for more than 3-4 h and had contractions for  
134 more than 1-2 h without any births) and cross-fostering, the sow was responsible for piglet rearing and  
135 human intervention was kept to a minimum. Cross-fostering was performed if litter size exceeded the  
136 number of functional teats, by transferring randomly-selected excess newborn piglets to another litter  
137 of the same breeding line born on the same day. Routine husbandry comprised feeding, provision of  
138 nest-building material (i.e. straw in a hayrack) two days before expected birth of the piglets, cleaning  
139 the pen, and providing new sawdust as bedding material twice a day as well as peat as environmental  
140 enrichment on a daily basis. Iron was given orally to each newborn piglet, and male piglets were  
141 surgically castrated at 10 to 14 days of age. After parturition, sows were fed a standard concentrated  
142 lactation diet according to a standard feeding regimen, and the piglets received ad libitum access to  
143 creep feed from 21 days of age. Both sows and piglets had free access to water from nipple drinkers in  
144 the pen. The piglets were weaned at 35 days of age.

145  
146 2.3 Data collection

147  
148 Each sow and litter was video recorded starting one day postpartum with a camera (Foscam FI9821W,  
149 1280×720P, ShenZhen Foscam Intelligent Technology Co., Ltd., Shenzhen, China) mounted above  
150 each pen. We focused observations on one-day-old piglets because sibling competition is most intense  
151 in early lactation when litter size is greatest (i.e., prior to any piglet mortality consequent to this  
152 competition). Continuous observations were made until six successful nursings per sow (i.e. with milk  
153 ejection) were documented, with durations of different behaviours recorded to the nearest second. We  
154 defined a nursing as a period when at least 50% of the piglets were actively engaged in teat stimulation  
155 at the udder. Nursing success (%) was calculated as the proportion of initiated nursings that resulted in  
156 milk ejection (i.e. six successful nursings multiplied by 100 and divided by the sum of successful and

157 unsuccessful nursings). Based on udder massage during successful nursings, we defined the duration  
158 of pre-massage as encompassing the period from the beginning of the nursing to milk ejection, and the  
159 post-massage duration as covering the period from the end of milk ejection to the end of the nursing.  
160 The nursing interval was the duration from one milk ejection to the next milk ejection (i.e. the time  
161 between successful nursings). We counted the number of functional teats (i.e. teats that produced  
162 milk) when stimulated by hand shortly after completion of parturition. Also recorded were the  
163 proportion of piglets present at the udder that did not get access to a teat during each milk letdown (i.e.  
164 indicative of sibling competition), as well as the proportion of piglets monopolizing two teats (i.e.  
165 acquiring milk from two teats during successful nursings). It was not possible to record data blind  
166 because litter size and sow breed were evident from the video recordings.

167

168 Litter size was defined as the number of the sow's own live-born piglets plus the number of piglets  
169 fostered into the litter or minus the number of piglets fostered out of the litter (i.e. number of piglets  
170 present when observations were made). We defined the number of surviving piglets as the number still  
171 present when the litter was weaned at 35 days of age, and mortality was calculated as the percentage of  
172 the observed piglets dying prior to weaning. All piglets dying before weaning were examined at the  
173 Norwegian Veterinary Institute, Pathology Section, to establish whether they had starved to death  
174 (empty stomach, small liver, no other findings) or were crushed by the sow (physical signs of  
175 crushing). We weighed surviving piglets individually to the nearest g at weaning, and the coefficient  
176 of variation in piglet weight at weaning was calculated as the standard deviation of piglet weights  
177 divided by mean piglet weight and multiplied by 100.

178

## 179 2.4 Statistical analysis

180

181 We performed statistical analyses using the SAS 9.4 statistical software program (SAS Institute Inc.,  
182 Cary, NC). Litters were the source of variation in all models, with analyses based on a single mean per  
183 litter for each variable for which multiple measures were taken. The effect of breed (ND, NL, CB) on  
184 the number of functional teats per piglet was analyzed in a generalized linear model (GENMOD

185 procedure) with a Gamma response distribution. The effects of litter size (as a continuous variable),  
186 breed (NL, ND, CB) as a class variable, and their interaction on nursing success, pre-massage  
187 duration, proportion of piglets missing milk letdown, proportion of piglets monopolizing two teats,  
188 piglet weight at weaning, and the coefficient of variation in piglet weight at weaning were analyzed  
189 using a general linear model (GLM procedure). Because residuals were not normally distributed, the  
190 effects of litter size, breed and their interaction on post-massage duration and nursing interval duration  
191 were analyzed in a generalized linear model (GENMOD procedure) with Poisson response  
192 distribution. We also used this model to analyze the number of surviving piglets, mortality, and  
193 proportions of piglets dying from starvation and crushing. Statistical significance was set at  $P = 0.05$ .

194

### 195 **3. Results**

196

#### 197 3.1 Nursing success and udder massage

198

199 Nursing success decreased with increasing litter size ( $P < 0.001$ ; Table 1). There was no significant  
200 additional effect of breed ( $P = 0.245$ ; Table 1-2) or interaction between litter size and breed ( $P =$   
201  $0.351$ ; Table 1, Fig. 1) on nursing success (overall mean  $\pm$  SE,  $92.5 \pm 1.6$  %). Time spent in udder pre-  
202 massaging was greater in larger litters ( $P = 0.050$ ; Table 1) but unaffected by breed ( $P = 0.955$ , Table  
203 1-2, Fig. 1) or the interaction between litter size and breed ( $P = 0.961$ ; Table 1, Fig. 1; overall mean  $\pm$   
204 SE,  $152.8 \pm 9.3$  s). Time piglets spent post-massaging the udder was also greater in larger litters ( $P <$   
205  $0.001$ ; Table 1), and was lower in the ND than the NL breed, with the CB intermediate ( $P = 0.002$ ;  
206 Table 1-2). There was an interaction between litter size and breed, with the increase in post-massage  
207 duration with litter size being greater in the NL line compared to the CB and ND lines ( $P < 0.001$ ;  
208 Table 1, Fig. 1). Overall, the nursing interval increased with increasing litter size ( $P = 0.018$ ; Table 1)  
209 and was shorter in the NL than the CB line, with ND intermediate ( $P < 0.001$ ; Table 1-2). The nursing  
210 interval declined with increasing litter size in the ND breed whereas it increased in the NL and CB  
211 lines ( $P < 0.001$ ; Table 1, Fig. 1).

212



### 213 3.2 Sibling competition and teat monopolization

214

215 The number of functional teats per piglet was greater in the ND than in the other two breeding lines  
216 (GENMOD,  $\chi^2_{2, n=38} = 13.9, P < 0.001$ ; Table 2). The proportion of piglets failing to get access to a  
217 teat during milk letdown increased with increasing litter size ( $P < 0.001$ ; Table 1) but was lower in the  
218 ND breed than in the other two breeds ( $P = 0.034$ ; Table 1-2), increasing strongly with litter size only  
219 in the NL and CB piglets ( $P = 0.021$ ; Table 1, Fig. 1). The proportion of piglets that monopolized two  
220 teats decreased with increasing litter size overall ( $P < 0.001$ ; Table 1) and was higher in the ND breed  
221 than in the others two breeds ( $P < 0.001$ ; Table 1-2), with a strong decline with increasing litter size  
222 occurring only in the ND breed ( $P < 0.001$ ; Table 1, Fig. 1).

223

### 224 3.3 Piglet survival and growth

225

226 The number of piglets surviving to weaning increased with increasing litter size ( $P = 0.002$ ; Table 1)  
227 but was not further affected by breed ( $P = 0.442$ ; Table 1-2) or the interaction between litter size and  
228 breed ( $P = 0.538$ ; Table 1, Fig. 2; overall mean  $\pm$  SE,  $10.9 \pm 1.3$  piglets). Mean mortality was  $12.3 \pm$   
229  $2.3$  %, with 26 % of the deaths due to starvation, 36 % due to maternal crushing, and the remaining 38  
230 % due to other causes. Overall, mortality increased with increasing litter size ( $P < 0.001$ ; Table 1) and  
231 was higher in the ND breed than in the other two breeds ( $P < 0.001$ ; Table 1-2), but the rise with  
232 increasing litter size was most pronounced in the NL breed ( $P < 0.001$ ; Table 1, Fig. 2). The  
233 percentage of piglets that died from starvation increased with increasing litter size ( $P < 0.001$ ; Table 1)  
234 but was not further affected by breed ( $P = 0.653$ ; Table 1-2) or the interaction between litter size and  
235 breed ( $P = 0.109$ ; Table 1, Fig. 2; overall mean  $\pm$  SE,  $3.2 \pm 1.3$  %). The percentage of piglets crushed  
236 by the sow increased with increasing litter size overall ( $P = 0.002$ ; Table 1), and was highest in the ND  
237 breed and lowest in the CB line ( $P < 0.001$ ; Table 1-2). There was an interaction between litter size  
238 and breed, as crushing increased with increasing litter size in the NL breed, declined in the ND breed,  
239 and showed little change in the CB ( $P < 0.001$ ; Table 1, Fig. 2).

240

241 Mean piglet weight at weaning decreased ( $P = 0.039$ ), and variation in weights increased ( $P = 0.002$ ),  
242 with increasing litter size (Table 1). There was no significant additional effect of breed ( $P = 0.111$ ;  
243 Table 1-2), or interaction of litter size and breed ( $P = 0.129$ ; Table 1, Fig. 2), on mean piglet weight  
244 (overall mean  $\pm$  SE,  $11.1 \pm 0.3$  kg) or variation in weight at weaning (breed,  $P = 0.985$ ; Table 1-2;  
245 litter size  $\times$  breed,  $P = 0.441$ ; Table 1, Fig. 2; overall mean  $\pm$  SE,  $14.9 \pm 1.1$  %).

246

## 247 **4. Discussion**

248

### 249 4.1 Litter size effects

250

251 As predicted, piglets in larger litters spent more time in pre- and post-massaging at the udder. In  
252 general, the hungrier the offspring, the more intense are their begging signals even if costly to perform  
253 (Hudson and Trillmich, 2008; Mock and Parker, 1997), resulting in the parents being likely to provide  
254 them with more food (Godfray, 1991, 1995; Harper, 1986). In pigs, massaging the udder consumes  
255 extra energy, given that piglets lose body weight five times faster when active at the udder than when  
256 resting (Klaver et al., 1981), providing support for udder massage as an honest signal of need in pigs  
257 (Jensen et al., 1998; Dostálková et al., 2002). Sows appear to have responded to signals of honest  
258 begging by providing more milk, as suggested by greater loss of sow body condition during lactation  
259 with increasing litter size (Ocepek et al., 2016b). However, whereas increased daily milk output has  
260 been associated with decreased intervals between nursings in sows (Auldist et al., 2000; Špinka et al.,  
261 1997) and other ungulates such as cows (*Bos taurus*; Poole, 1982) and goats (*Capra aegagrus*;  
262 Henderson et al., 1983), in the current study, sows bearing larger litters had longer nursing intervals on  
263 averages. Thus, our results suggest that, due to biological limitations, sows with the largest litters were  
264 unable to respond to signals of honest begging by providing even more milk.

265

266 As expected, the larger the litter, the more piglets failed to access a functional teat during milk  
267 letdown, and fewer had access to more than one teat. Additionally, in larger litters, more nursings were  
268 terminated without milk letdown (i.e. nursing success was lower), despite piglet investment in udder

269 massage and teat defense during unsuccessful nursings (durations not measured). Some precocial  
270 species, such as the domestic pig (e.g. Andersen et al., 2011) and spotted hyena (*Crocuta crocuta*;  
271 Smale et al., 1999), exhibit intense sibling competition shortly after birth. Piglets are equipped with  
272 specialized weaponry (outward-projecting deciduous canine teeth) used to compete with siblings over  
273 teats (Andersen et al., 2011; Drake et al., 2008; Fraser and Thompson, 1991). During teat disputes,  
274 piglets can be damaged by these teeth, placing them at risk of missing milk ejection and thereby  
275 becoming weaker and less able to defend a teat against better-nourished rivals in future nursings (e.g.  
276 Fraser, 1975; Fraser and Thompson, 1991). Indeed, our results show that, in larger litters, fewer piglets  
277 were able to hold on to a teat during milk letdown. Furthermore, during intense fighting for access to  
278 teats, the piglets' canine teeth may have scratched the udder, causing discomfort to the sow when  
279 nursing. This could be one reason why sows with larger litters were more likely to terminate nursings  
280 without letdown (i.e. nursing success was lower). In larger litters, we also found that fewer piglets  
281 were able to monopolize more than one teat. Piglets monopolizing only one teat may gain weight more  
282 slowly (Hartsock and Graves, 1976; Illmann et al., 2007), reducing their chances for survival during  
283 early competition for teats.

284

285 As predicted, piglets in larger litters were at greater risk of dying and, if they survived until weaning,  
286 had lower, more variable body weights (i.e. lower litter uniformity). Consistent with Andersen et al.  
287 (2011), the incidence of maternal infanticide (crushing) and sibling competition (starvation) increased  
288 with increasing litter size. Crushing as a consequence of overlying by the sow is the most common  
289 source of progeny loss in domestic sows (Andersen et al., 2011; Chen et al., 2008; Drake et al., 2008)  
290 as in farmed wild sows (e.g. Harris et al., 2001), and can be viewed as a form of maternal infanticide  
291 resulting in brood reduction (Andersen et al., 2005) given that infanticide implies not only physical  
292 abuse or direct infant killing but also neonatal rejection and maternal failure to protect offspring  
293 (Hrdy, 1979). Despite higher losses in larger litters, overall, sows bearing larger litters weaned more  
294 piglets.

295

296 Nevertheless, when the number of offspring in the current reproductive effort increases, this may be  
297 associated with reduced individual offspring fitness (Clutton-Brock and Godfrey, 1991; Lessells,  
298 1991). This trend has been observed in several studies of domesticated mammals despite ample human  
299 provisioning of the mothers (Andersen et al., 2011; Guerra and de Nunes, 2001; Mendl, 1988;  
300 Milligan et al., 2002; Priestnall, 1972). In agreement, we found that piglets in larger litters had lower,  
301 more variable body weights at weaning. This lack of weight uniformity may persist beyond weaning  
302 because, in social groups, individual growth rates before and after weaning can be correlated (Klindt,  
303 2003; Mahan, 1993; Quiniou et al., 2002). Even if smaller pigs exhibited some compensatory growth  
304 following weaning, such pigs may have a lower lean percentage and, thus, higher back fat thickness  
305 (Prevolnik et al., 2011). Pigs with relatively low body weights, high back fat thickness or low lean  
306 percentage at 150 days of age are generally slaughtered rather than being kept for reproduction,  
307 indicating a fitness cost associated with slower growth prior to weaning.

308

#### 309 4.2 Breed differences

310

311 Because of greater selection emphasis on maternal traits, we expected that NL sows would be better  
312 able to mitigate sibling competition than ND piglets. However, we found that NL piglets were less  
313 likely to gain access to a functional teat during milk letdown compared to ND piglets. Although NL  
314 sows had more functional teats than ND sows, the ratio of functional teats to piglets was  
315 approximately 30% lower in the NL line compared to the ND line, and as much as 50% lower when  
316 compared to the wild boar (Fernandez-Llario and Mateos-Quesada, 2005). Moreover, the proportion of  
317 piglets missing milk letdown was more than four times higher in the NL than the ND line. These  
318 results indicate that the ratio of functional teats to piglets was suboptimal in the NL line even though it  
319 was positive (mean 1.2), and cross-fostering was practiced to smooth out differences in litter size  
320 within breed. Similarly, the CB line also showed evidence of suboptimal teat access.

321

322 Some studies indicate that piglets prefer more anterior teats (Fraser et al., 1979; Newberry and Wood-  
323 Gush, 1985; Skok and Gerken, 2016). Recently, Ocepek et al. (2016a) showed that competition for,

324 and suckling of, the anterior teats was elevated because those teats were more accessible. That is, the  
325 distance between teats was lower in the anterior than the more posterior regions of the udder where the  
326 upper teat row of the laterally recumbent sow tended to be excessively high above ground and teats in  
327 the lower teat row tended to be poorly exposed (Ocepek et al., 2016a). These findings highlight the  
328 importance of surplus functional teat accessibility. Two decades ago, highly competitive piglets could  
329 sample approximately seven teats during one milk letdown in early lactation (de Passillé et al., 1988;  
330 de Passillé and Rushen, 1989). In the current study, the proportion of piglets using more than one teat  
331 was 70% lower in the NL than the ND line, suggesting that high sibling competition prompted NL  
332 piglets to develop early fidelity to a single teat and defend it fiercely.

333

334 Consistent with increased sibling competition, NL piglets invested more time and energy in the post-  
335 massage phase of the nursing bout, engaging in post-massage for an average of 2 min longer in  
336 successful nursing bouts than piglets of the ND line. NL sows responded by nursing their piglets more  
337 frequently, with nursing intervals that were for 8 min shorter than those of ND sows. However, despite  
338 the increased nursing rate of the NL sows, the percentage of nursings that were successful was similar  
339 between breeds after accounting for litter size. This might partly explain why, despite inclusion of  
340 body weight at 3 weeks in the NL selection index, mean body weight at weaning, and the coefficient  
341 of variation in weaning weight, did not differ significantly between breeds.

342

343 Fewer piglets died due to crushing, and overall, in the NL compared to the ND line, consistent with  
344 selection of the NL line for lower mortality (16 % weight in the NL selection index; Martisen, 2016).  
345 The average number of piglets surviving to weaning was approximately one piglet higher in the CB  
346 line than that reported for CB piglets by Andersen et al. (2011) based on data collected about 10 years  
347 ago, and two piglets higher in the NL line. The NL line has experienced the strongest selection  
348 pressure for larger litters (mean 25 % of the weight in the NL selection index), and currently produces  
349 30 % larger litters at birth compared to the ND line (Ocepek et al., 2016b). However, after accounting  
350 for differences due to litter size, breeding for maternal traits did not result in further gains in number of  
351 piglets weaned.

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The CB results were either intermediate between those of the NL and ND lines as expected, or sometimes similar to the NL line. These results are logical given that the sows rearing the CB piglets were more similar to the NL than the ND line, and heterosis was expected due to crossbreeding.

#### 4.3 Litter size by breed interactions

Further insights into trade-offs between litter size and piglet fitness can be found through examination of the litter size by breed interactions. A significant interaction was found for all variables exhibiting breed differences. Compared to the ND line, the NL piglets showed a relatively steeper increase in post-massage duration, proportion of piglets missing milk letdowns, and overall mortality with increasing litter size, as well as an increase rather than decrease in sow nursing interval duration and piglet crushing incidence. Piglet monopolization of two teats declined with increasing litter size in the ND line whereas it was already low and remained low with increasing litter size in the NL line. Results for the CB line were mostly intermediate between those for the NL and ND lines. These results suggest that it is still possible to stretch the sow reproductive capacity, but with decreasing benefits, and increasing costs in terms of animal welfare (piglet competition, mortality, variable growth) and, therefore, social sustainability.

Furthermore, the increased maternal investment of the NL sows was costly in terms of a higher prevalence of painful shoulder lesions and greater loss of body condition during lactation, especially in primiparous sows still needing resources for their own growth (Ocepek et al., 2016b). Sows in poor body condition tend to have a longer interval from weaning to oestrus (Engblom et al., 2007), placing them at risk of being culled from the breeding population and, thereby, reducing their reproductive success. Already, up to 30% of first parity sows are culled (Thingnes et al., 2015). Ongoing selection for litter size in maternal lines is likely to result in a further shift towards maternal investment early in life (i.e. r-selection as opposed to K-selection, Newberry and Swanson, 2008), with correspondingly greater costs to the sow from nourishing larger litters. It could be argued that human provisioning of

380 neonatal piglets could compensate for the sow's inability to further increase her lactational output.  
381 This strategy has, however, met with limited success due to higher labour costs, poor immunity to  
382 diseases, and failure to thrive in piglets raised on sow milk substitutes (e.g. Gomez, 1997), although  
383 advances in automation (i.e. precision farming), piglet nutrition and health management may improve  
384 feasibility.

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## 386 **5. Conclusions**

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388 Sows have an evolved capacity to produce more young than they can usually rear under natural  
389 conditions, an “insurance policy” against unpredictable early mortality. Through human provisioning  
390 of sows and artificial selection for increased reproductive investment, we have been able to utilize this  
391 “overproduction” capacity of the sow to increase weaned piglet production, but at a cost of increased  
392 sibling rivalry. Irrespective of breed, increased litter size resulted in increased time spent by piglets in  
393 pre- and post-massage of the udder, longer nursing intervals, lower nursing success, an increased  
394 proportion of piglets missing milk letdowns, fewer piglets able to monopolize more than one teat, and  
395 increased piglet mortality due to starvation and maternal crushing. In larger litters, more piglets  
396 survived until weaning, but with lower, more variable body weights. In the maternal NL line, which  
397 already produces the largest litters, it appears unlikely that continued selection for even larger litters  
398 will be socially sustainable. We arrive at this conclusion because the increase in post-massage duration  
399 (i.e. honest begging) with increasing litter size in this line was accompanied by a longer interval  
400 between nursings, fewer piglets securing a teat during milk letdown, and higher maternal crushing and  
401 overall piglet mortality without any additional increment in the number, weight or weight uniformity  
402 of piglets at weaning with increasing litter size (litter size by breed,  $P > 0.1$ ).

403

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405

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