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# Factors affecting post-breeding endometritis, pregnancy rate and embryonic/fetal death in sport mares in two French commercial stud farms: special focus on age, parity and lactating status effects

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1        **Reproductive outcomes in sport horse commercial French breeding farms:**  
2                    **clinical relevance of mares' age, parity and lactating status**

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## 36 **Abstract**

37 **Background:** For a long time, important and progressive fertility decline is observed with mare age.  
38 Parity and yearly breeding, however, are controversial factors impacting fertility. Most of these studies  
39 were performed on race horses and before 2010, on data accumulated before. The cumulative effects  
40 of age and nulliparity/nursing with improved reproductive technologies and practices, often observed  
41 in sport horses, has not been investigated yet.

42 **Objectives:** To investigate the effect of age, parity and nursing, as well as reproductive management,  
43 on post-insemination inflammation and fertility in sports mares.

44 **Study design:** Age, parity, nursing status, follicular size before ovulation, estrus and/or ovulation  
45 induction, artificial insemination (AI) protocol, post-breeding inflammation and treatment, Day 14  
46 pregnancies rates (PR) and number of embryos, as well as subsequent foaling the next year were  
47 recorded for 277 mares (506 cycles) over one breeding season in two French commercial studs.

48 **Methods:** Multivariate logistic regression models were used.

49 **Results:** PR was 41.9% per cycle and 76.5% at the end of the season. Post-insemination fluid  
50 accumulation risk was increased in >10-year-old, barren or July or August inseminated mares  
51 ( $p < 0.0001$ , OR=3.29, 5.389 and 3.329, respectively). PR were reduced in mares >10-year-old vs younger  
52 or inseminated with frozen vs fresh or refrigerated semen ( $p < 0.05$ , OR=0.622 and 0.582, respectively).  
53 More pregnancy on Day 14 were observed in mares with multiple ovulations compared to mono-  
54 ovulation ( $p < 0.05$ , OR=1.791). Regardless the age, PR only tended to be improved in multiparous  
55 ( $p = 0.07$ , OR=1.434 in parous vs nulliparous) but in >10-year-old mares, multiparity greatly increased  
56 PR (44.09% in parous vs 30.89% in nulliparous,  $p < 0.05$ ).

57 **Main limitations:** Limited number of mares.

58 **Conclusion:** In sport horse, maternal age was more important than parity and lactating status for  
59 reproductive success but cumulative effects of nulliparity and aging was deleterious on PR,  
60 demonstrating their importance in the management of sport mares.

61

## 62 **Keywords**

63 Horse, equine, reproduction, insemination, lactation, fertility

64

65

## 66        **1. Introduction**

67        Effectiveness of mare reproduction is an important economical factor in the horse industry. Once  
68        mares begin their reproductive career, breeders generally aim to produce one foal per year per mare  
69        to remain profitable. This goal can only be achieved if mares remain fertile throughout their life span.

70        The decline in mare fertility associated with age is well described [1–18] but mainly on Thoroughbreds  
71        where the career is short and mares are bred from and culled at younger age compared to sport horses.  
72        It is common in sport horses to breed older mares: in Canada, 37% of the standardbred mares [19] and  
73        in Finland, 53% of Standardbred and 63% of Finnhorse mares exceed 11 years old at insemination [3].  
74        Furthermore, mares can be bred shortly after foaling and are often nursing at the time of breeding.  
75        Lactation affects mares' metabolism [20] but there is no consensus on whether it may induce effects  
76        on fertility and embryo/fetal loss [21–24]. As for lactation, the putative effects of mare's parity on  
77        fertility and embryo loss are controversial [2–5,9,10,12–16,18]. Plus, in sport horses, mares are often  
78        both nulliparous and old at the same time and in Finland, 20.5% of Finnhorse and 15.5% of  
79        Standardbred broodmares are both older than 10 and nulliparous [3].

80        Transient uterine inflammation is a normal physiological reaction in mares after breeding. For some  
81        mares, however, a persistent infection can develop and interfere with fertility outcomes (for review  
82        [25]). Indeed, 45% (N=22) of the 8-16 years old mares and 88% of the older mares ( $\geq 17$  years old, N=26)  
83        had uterine fluid retention 48h after insemination with frozen semen, whereas none of the 9 younger  
84        mares was affected [26]. Parity and/or lactation on the post-breeding inflammation have not been  
85        explored yet.

86        The Thoroughbred studbook only allows hand breeding whereas the French Trotter studbook allows  
87        only insemination with fresh semen. Such limitations do not exist in sport horse and no recent study  
88        considered at the same time the method of reproduction and the effects of age, parity and lactation  
89        on mare fertility.

90 This study aimed to identify effects of mare age, parity and nursing on post-breeding fluid  
91 accumulation, fertility and embryonic/fetal death in commercial stud conditions for sport mares.

92

## 93 **2. Material and methods**

### 94 **2.1. *Animals***

95 Data were recorded in 2 French commercial stud farms, one located about 60km south west of Paris,  
96 the other 150 km south of Paris, both managed by one artificial insemination cooperative during one  
97 breeding season (2019).

98 From beginning of February to late August 2019, the study enrolled 277 sport mares over 506 estrus  
99 periods. For each mare, date of birth, breed, number of previous breedings and foalings were extracted  
100 from the national database (Infochevaux: <https://infochevaux.ifce.fr/fr/info-chevaux>). Mares were  
101 clustered according to age in two ( $\leq 10$  years old vs  $> 10$  years old) or four classes ( $\leq 5$  years old, ]5,  
102 10], ]10, 15],  $>$  to 15 years old). They were also clustered in 2 classes according to previous fertility  
103 (number of previous foaling/number of previous breedings  $<0.7$  or  $>0.7$ ) and in 2 classes according to  
104 parity: nulliparous (never foaled before) vs parous (foaled at least once before) at the beginning of the  
105 breeding season.

106

### 107 **2.2. *Breeding management***

#### 108 **2.2.1. *Estrus monitoring***

109 First, luteolysis was induced in mares that had a persistent corpus luteum or that were sent for  
110 breeding late in the season, using prostaglandin F<sub>2</sub> $\alpha$  analogs: Alfaprostol (Alfabedyl©) or Luprostol  
111 (Prosolvin®, 1 to 1.5 mL IM according to the mare size).

112 Estrus detection was performed using uterine horn firmness estimated by rectal palpation together  
113 with ultrasound examination where the uterine oedema score (0-5) [27] and the diameter of the  
114 largest follicle were determined. Mares were monitored once or twice daily (according to breeding  
115 method, see below) from the time when the diameter of the largest follicle reached 35 mm and until  
116 ovulation was detected.

117 As ovulation approached (follicle diameter  $\geq 35$  mm and reduction of the uterine oedema score),  
118 ovulation was induced with hCG (Chorulon<sup>®</sup>, 1500 to 5000 IU IM related to the mare weight) or with a  
119 GnRH analog (Decapeptyl<sup>®</sup>, 0.1 mg triptorelin in 1 mL SC). The GnRH analog option was chosen when  
120 mares had a known resistance to hCG or when hCG had already been used before during the breeding  
121 season and was not effective to induce ovulation.

### 122 **2.2.2. Insemination management**

123 All mares were bred using artificial insemination (AI). Mares were inseminated with fresh (FAI), cooled  
124 transported (CTAI) or frozen semen (FZAI). As this study has been performed in a commercial breeding  
125 farm, insemination dose was dependent on the number of straws bought by the broodmare's owner  
126 and the country where straws have been produced. Mare management differed according to the type  
127 of semen used.

128 Mares entitled to be inseminated with fresh semen were examined once daily during estrus. A first  
129 insemination was performed maximum 24h before ovulation (follicle diameter  $\geq 35$  mm and decrease  
130 in the uterine oedema score) and mares that had not ovulated 48h later were inseminated a second  
131 time. This procedure was repeated until ovulation was observed.

132 Mares entitled to be inseminated with cooled transported semen were also examined once daily and  
133 inseminated before ovulation, but subsequent inseminations were performed every 24h until  
134 ovulation.



135 Mares bred with frozen semen were examined every 12h if the number of available straws was >4  
136 while examinations were performed every 6 h when the number of available straws was ≤4. In this  
137 latter case, deep horn insemination was performed. The aim was to inseminate as close as possible of  
138 ovulation (*i.e.* maximum 6 hours before or after ovulation), as determined by ultrasound observation  
139 of preovulatory follicular wall thickening and follicle deformation.

140

### 141 **2.2.3. Post-breeding fluid accumulation and pregnancy diagnosis**

142 All mares were examined by ultrasound the day after insemination. If uterine oedema and/or fluid  
143 accumulation were observed, mares were treated either with a single dose of oxytocin (Ocytocine S©,  
144 10-20 UI in 1 to 1.5 mL IM or IV), or oxytocin in association with uterine lavage (one or two litters of  
145 warm, sterile saline solution), or in association with antibiotics (in accordance with the  
146 recommendation of the use of antibiotics in veterinary medicine) or by uterine lavage alone.  
147 Treatment was decided by the veterinary surgeon and depended on the volume of fluid accumulated.  
148 Pregnancy was assessed 14 days (D14) after AI by ultrasonography. In the case of twin pregnancy,  
149 squeezing was recommended to the breeder but not always performed. Pregnancy was confirmed on  
150 Day 30 if the mare was brought back to the stud. In addition, some mares came back again in autumn  
151 for late pregnancy diagnosis.

152

### 153 **2.2.4. Data recording**

154 All data were recorded in the same dedicated software (Gynebase©, Equidéclic, France) by the  
155 veterinarians and technicians of the 2 studs.

156 Age, parity, lactational status at breeding (nursing vs non nursing), number of monitored cycles for  
157 each mare, estrus induction (yes/no), heat duration (number of days of observation by

158 ultrasonography), size of the preovulatory follicle, induction of ovulation (yes/no), hormone used to  
159 induce ovulation (hCG or GnRH analog), ovulation observed (yes/no), number of follicles ovulated, AI  
160 mode (fresh semen, cooled transported or frozen semen), number of AI during estrus, date of  
161 insemination (last AI if more than one AI were performed during estrus), stallion identity, number of  
162 straws used (for frozen semen), uterine fluid accumulation after AI (yes/no), treatment used (oxytocin  
163 alone vs other), presence of single or twin embryos, squeezing when twins were diagnosed (yes/no),  
164 pregnancy diagnosis on D14 as well as on D30 or later, when possible, were recorded. The number of  
165 the monitored cycles needed to obtain a gestation was classified as 1 vs >1 when pregnancy was  
166 achieved after more than one cycle. The number of straws used for frozen insemination was classified  
167 as either  $<8$  vs  $\geq 8$  or  $\leq 4$  vs  $> 4$ . Cutoff values of 4 and 8 were chosen according to previous (8 straws  
168 for 400 million mobile spermatozoa) and the current (4 straws of  $50 \times 10^6$  mobile spermatozoa, 4 mL  
169 each) recommendation of the French Institute for Horses and Horse-riding (IFCE) for frozen semen.

170 Pregnancy rate was calculated as the ratio between the number of pregnant mares at the end of the  
171 breeding season and total number of mares bred (overall pregnancy rate at the end of the season) and  
172 as the ratio of number of positive diagnoses on D14 / total number of used cycles (pregnancy rate per  
173 cycle). Embryonic loss was estimated by the number of mares not pregnant on D30 after a positive  
174 pregnancy diagnosis on D14. Late embryonic loss was calculated by the number of mares not pregnant  
175 during the autumn after a positive pregnancy diagnosis on D14. Foal birth was checked the next year  
176 using the national database. Total embryonic/fetal loss was defined as the number of mares that did  
177 not foal after a positive pregnancy diagnosis on D14. Mares were only considered as non-foaling when  
178 abortion/stillbirth or new breeding without foaling were recorded in the national database in 2020.

179

### 180 **2.3. Statistical analysis**

181 Data were analyzed using SAS® Studio 3.8 (SAS® University Edition).

182

### 183 **2.3.1. Univariate & multivariate analysis**

184 Univariate analysis was used to evaluate the effects of qualitative variables on (1) the incidence of  
185 post-breeding fluid accumulation, on (2) pregnancy rate and (3) embryonic/fetal loss. For (1) and (2),  
186 all recorded cycles were used while for (3), only pregnant mares on D14 were considered. The  
187 statistical unit was, therefore, the cycle for (1) and (2) while it was the mare for (3).

188 For each criterion analyzed, results were compared between the different classes using a Chi-Squared  
189 test. Variables associated at  $p < 0.20$  were included in the second step of the analysis.

190 As a second step, multivariate analysis was conducted using logistic regression (GLIMMIX procedure  
191 of SAS® Studio). Individual effects were considered by including mare identity in each model as a  
192 random effect. A backward stepwise elimination of non-associated ( $p > 0.10$ ) variables was performed  
193 to develop multivariate models. Models presenting the lowest Akaike's Information Criterion were  
194 retained.

195 For these analyses, breeds and stallions could not be used as their numbers were too high without  
196 enough repeats to be considered in the statistical analysis.

197 For quantitative data, results are presented as mean  $\pm$  standard error.

198

### 199 **2.3.2. Analysis of age, parity and nursing status**

200 The analyses were performed using the estrous cycle as the reference unit. Young ( $\leq 10$  years) vs old  
201 ( $>10$  years), nulliparous vs parous, nursing vs non nursing mares were compared using T test for  
202 quantitative variables and Xi Square for qualitative ones. For further characterization of the suckling

203 status and mares' parity, these factors were analyzed using Xi Square analysis in each population of  
204 young or old mares.

205

## 206 **3. Results**

### 207 **3.1. Descriptive analysis**

#### 208 **3.1.1. Population of study**

209 The 277 mares belonged to 32 breeds approved by the French Institute of the Horse (IFCE), with French  
210 saddlebred (Selle français) being the most represented breed (56% of mares included in this study).

211 No other breed reached more than 15 individuals. Eight mares did not belong to any French approved  
212 breed. In addition, 13 mares belonged to racehorse breeds (3 English Thoroughbreds, 10 French  
213 Trotters). There were also 22 ponies and one draft horse. All mares were used for sport and/or leisure.

214 Characteristics of the 277 mares are detailed in Table 1. The average age was 12.7 years old (min 2,  
215 max 23,  $\sigma = 4.8$ ). Altogether, 196 mares had been bred at least in one previous breeding season and

216 the overall average of previous breeding seasons was 2.5 (min 0, max 17,  $\sigma = 3.0$ ). For previously bred  
217 mares, mean fertility (number of foalings/number of breeding) was 0.71 (min 0, max 1,  $\sigma = 0.31$ ). The

218 interval between previous breeding and the 2019 reproductive season ranged from 1 to 13 years.

219 Altogether, 66 (21.9%) mares were nulliparous and aged more than 10 years and 44 (15.8%) were  
220 suckling and older than 10 years.

221 **Table 1: Characteristics of the 277 mares bred in 2019.**

<b>Variable</b>	<b>n</b>	<b>Percent</b>
Age in 2 classes (Years)		
≤ 10	96	34.7
> 10	181	65.3

Age in 4 classes (Years)		
≤5	24	8.7
5-9	72	26.0
10-14	94	33.9
> 15	87	31.4
Parity		
Nulliparous	98	35.4
Parous	179	64.6
Lactation status in 2019		
Suckling	76	27.4
Non suckling	201	72.6
Fertility at previous breeding (n=196)		
< 0.7	82	41.8
≥ 0.7	114	58.2
Month of first AI		
March	36	13.0
April	70	25.3
May	86	31.0
June	67	24.2
July - August	18	6.5

222

223 **3.1.2. Pregnancy rate per mare**

224 Mares were bred with 154 different stallions. Altogether, 212 mares were diagnosed pregnant on D14  
225 at the end of the season (76.5% of D14 pregnancy). These performances were obtained within an  
226 average of 1.8 cycle per mare (min 1, max 6). From the 154 mares that came back for pregnancy  
227 confirmation, 130 were still pregnant at Day 30, which represents 9.1% of pregnancy loss. Only forty-  
228 six mares came back later in the autumn, of which 44 mares were confirmed still pregnant (4.3% of  
229 pregnancy loss during this period).

230 Foaling information in 2020 were obtained for 206 pregnant mares on Day 14. Among them, 168  
231 foalings were recorded indicating a total embryonic/fetal loss of 18.4%.

232

### 233 **3.1.3. Breeding management**

234 Data recorded per estrus period are presented on Table 2.

235 Among the 506 estrus recorded periods, 92 were induced by luteolysis of a previous corpus luteum  
236 using prostaglandins (18.2%). Data were recorded in average during 5.1 days per estrus period (min 1,  
237 max 16,  $\sigma = 2.1$ ).

238 Of the 506 estrous periods, fresh semen was used for 90 cycles (FAI, 17.8%), cooled transported semen  
239 for 142 cycles (CTAI, 28.1%) and frozen semen for 274 (FZAI, 54.1%). Ovulation was induced in 360  
240 estrous periods (71.2%). The induction of ovulation was performed in 40.0% of the FAI, 74.0% of the  
241 CTAI and 80.0% of the FZAI. Mostly hCG was used (n=322, 89.4%) with GnRH analog used in the other  
242 cases (n=38, 10.6%). Preovulatory dominant follicle mean diameter was 42.4 mm (min 28, max 60,  $\sigma =$   
243 4.8). Mares were inseminated in average 1.2 times per estrus (min 1, max 5,  $\sigma = 0.6$ ). For FZAI, the  
244 mean number of straws used was 5.1 (min 1, max 12,  $\sigma = 2.4$ , recorded in 251 AI by 274).

245 Ovulation was observed by ultrasonography in 501 of the 506 estrous periods (99%). In most cases,  
246 only one ovulation was observed (n=425, 84.8%). Double or triple ovulations were observed in 75  
247 (15.0%) and 1 estrus, respectively.

248 After insemination, uterine fluid accumulation was observed in 180 estrous periods (35.6%). Oxytocin  
249 was used as treatment for 173/180 cases, mostly alone (139/180), sometimes associated with uterine  
250 lavage (27 cases). Antibiotics were used for local treatment (10/180) associated to oxytocin (n=3), to  
251 uterine lavage (n=4) or alone (n=3).

252 After AI, 212 cycles among the 506 led to a pregnancy on D14 (pregnancy rate per cycle: 41.9%). Twins  
253 were detected in 27 cases (5% of breeding and 12.7% of pregnancies). Squeezing was performed for  
254 25/27 pregnancies. After squeezing, pregnancy was checked on Day 30 and 21/24 mares were still  
255 pregnant (87.5%).

256

257 **Table 2: Characteristics of the 506 monitored estrus**

Variable	n	Percent
Cycle number		
1	277	54.7
2	144	28.5
3	65	12.8
4	18	3.7
5	1	0.2
6	1	0.2
Luteolysis before AI		
No	414	81.8
Yes	92	18.2
Induction of ovulation		
No	146	28.8
Yes	360	71.2

Number of observed ovulations (n=501)		
1	425	84.8
2	75	15.0
3	1	0.2
Method of semen preservation		
Fresh semen (FAI)	90	17.8
Cooled transported (CTAI)	142	28.1
Frozen (FZAI)	274	54.1
Number of straws (n= 251)		
< 8	177	70.5
≥ 8	74	29.5
Number of straws (n= 251)		
≤ 4	126	50.2
> 4	125	49.8
Month of AI		
March	36	7.1
April	104	20.6
May	150	29.6
June	155	30.6
July-August	61	12.1
Number of AI by estrus period		
1	431	85.2
2	57	11.2
3	11	2.2
4	5	1.0
5	2	0.4



Observed ovulation		
Yes	501	99.0
No	5	1.0
Uterine fluid accumulation after AI		
Yes	180	35.6
No	327	64.4
Uterine treatment (n=180)		
Oxytocin alone	139	77.2
Other	41	22.8

258

## 259 **3.2. Univariate & multivariate analysis**

### 260 **3.2.1. Factors associated with post-breeding inflammation**

261 After univariate analysis, variables associated with post-breeding fluid accumulation were: mare's age  
262 (using 10 years old as cutoff value), parity, lactation (suckling vs non suckling), induction of estrus by  
263 luteolysis, cycle number and month of AI (Figure 1). Post-breeding inflammation was not associated  
264 with semen conditioning (33.6, 40.2 and 37.9% respectively for FAI, CTAI and FZAI,  $p=0.45$ ), number of  
265 AI per estrus (35.2% for 1 AI vs 40.3% for more than one AI per estrus,  $p=0.40$ ), nor number of straws  
266 used (33.9 vs 33.8% for number of straws  $< 8$  vs  $\geq 8$ ,  $p=0.98$  and 37.3 vs 30.4% for number of straws  $\leq$   
267 4 vs  $> 4$ ,  $p=0.25$ ).

268 After multivariate analysis, only 3 variables were significantly associated ( $p<0.05$ ) with post-breeding  
269 inflammation: mare age, lactation and month of AI (Supplementary table 1). Inflammation was more  
270 frequent in mares older than 10 years than in younger mares (Figure 1). Non suckling mares at the time  
271 of insemination were also more affected in comparison with suckling ones (Figure 1). There was no  
272 interaction between age and nursing status ( $p = 0.38$ ) but increased age amplified the number of post-  
273 breeding inflammations in both non-suckling and suckling mares. Respectively, 22.9% and 8.2% of the

274 non-suckling and suckling young mares were affected by post-breeding inflammation while 50.7% and  
275 18.3% of mares older than 10 years old were affected.

276 The risk of inflammation was also increased in July and August compared to previous months (Figure  
277 1).

278

### 279 **3.2.2. Factors associated with pregnancy rate per cycle**

280 After univariate analysis, the following factors were associated with pregnancy rate at the 20%  
281 threshold: age in 2 classes, parity, cycle number, AI modality, month of insemination, number of  
282 observed ovulations and post-breeding inflammation. All the associated variables were introduced in  
283 multivariate models. As a significant effect of number of ovulations was observed after univariate  
284 analysis, only estrous cycles with ovulations that were observed by ultrasonography were considered  
285 (*i.e.*, 501 estruses among the 506 recorded).

286 Stepwise regression and backward elimination led to a model containing only 3 significant variables  
287 ( $p < 0.05$ ): mare age, number of ovulations and semen conditioning (Supplementary Table 2). Data that  
288 significantly influenced pregnancy rates are summarized in Figure 2. Pregnancy rate was higher in  
289 mares younger vs older than 10 years old. Pregnancy rate was increased when multiple ovulations  
290 were observed. FAI and CTAI resulted in more pregnancies on Day 14 than FZAI. Trends were observed  
291 ( $p < 0.10$ ) for the effects of month of AI and parity. Pregnancy rate tended to be higher in April, May,  
292 July and August vs March and June. Parous mares tended also to have better pregnancy rates than  
293 nulliparous mares ( $p = 0.07$ , OR=1.434 in parous mares).

294 The study of the interaction between maternal age and parity showed that in mares aged of 10 years  
295 or less, being nulliparous or parous did not alter pregnancy rates (49.25 and 46.15% of pregnancy rate  
296 per cycle for young nulliparous and parous respectively,  $n = 158$ ,  $p = 0.70$ ). In mares older than 10  
297 years old, however, nulliparity accentuated the decrease in pregnancy rates. Indeed, the pregnancy

298 rates per cycle was only 30.89% for old nulliparous mares vs 44.09% for old multiparous mares (OR =  
299 1.96 in parous mares,  $p = 0.016$ ).

300 After multivariate analysis, pregnancy rate was not significantly affected by post-breeding  
301 inflammation (37.8% of pregnancy rate after inflammation vs 44.2% in healthy mares,  $p = 0.16$ ). In  
302 treated mares, treatment after post-breeding treatment did not affect pregnancy rate (37.4% of  
303 pregnancy for treatment with oxytocin alone,  $n = 139$  vs 39.0% for other treatment,  $n = 41$ ,  $p = 0.85$ ).

304

### 305 **3.2.3. Factors associated with embryonic/fetal loss between Day 14 and foaling**

306 After the univariate analysis, age in four classes, induction of ovulation and month of insemination  
307 were associated with embryonic/fetal loss at the threshold of 20%. However, after multivariate  
308 analysis, none of these factors affected embryonic/fetal loss.

309

## 310 **3.3. Focus on maternal age, parity and suckling status**

### 311 **3.3.1. Effect of maternal age**

312 Mares 10 years old or younger were  $7.2 \pm 0.2$  years old while mares older than 10 years were  $15.6 \pm$   
313  $0.2$  years old.

314 Neither parity, induction of the estrus cycle or of ovulation, month of AI, number of cycles required for  
315 a gestation at Day 14, number of straws in case of FZAI or the number of twin embryos at Day 14 were  
316 significantly related to maternal age (Supplementary Table 3).

317 Nevertheless, more young mares were pregnant at Day 14 and less had a post-breeding inflammation  
318 compared to old mares (Table 3). In addition, 31% of young mares were nursing while it represented  
319 only 20.7% of old mares ( $p < 0.05$ ). Multiple ovulations occurred more frequently in old mares

320 compared to young mares. Young mares tended to be more inseminated using fresh and frozen and  
 321 less with refrigerated semen compared to older mares.

322 Estrus tended to be longer in old vs young mares (respectively, in average,  $5.2 \pm 0.1$  vs  $4.8 \pm 0.2$  days,  
 323  $p = 0.086$ ). The preovulatory follicle diameter tended to be smaller in old compared to young mares  
 324 (respectively, in average,  $42.2 \pm 0.2$  vs  $43.0 \pm 0.4$  mm,  $p = 0.086$ ).

325 **Table 3: Characteristics in young ( $\leq 10$  years old) vs old mares ( $> 10$  years old)**

Variable	n	Young	Old	p
		$\leq 10$ years old n=158	$> 10$ years old n=343	
Pregnancy rates on Day 14	501	47.5%	39.4%	0.021**
Post-breeding inflammation	501	18.3%	44.0%	$< 0.0001^{**}$
Lactation				
Non-nursing	381	69.0%	79.3%	0.012
Nursing	120	31.0%	20.7%	
Method of the semen preparation *				
FAI				
CTAI	87	19.0%	16.6%	0.093
FZAI	140	21.5%	30.9%	
	274	59.5%	52.5%	
Number of ovulations per cycle				
1				
$> 1$	425	90.5%	82.2%	0.016
	76	9.5%	17.8%	

326 \* AI: Artificial insemination, FAI: insemination with fresh semen, CTAI: insemination with cooled  
327 transported semen, FZAI: insemination with frozen semen

328 \*\* Results from multivariate analysis

329

### 330 **3.3.2. Effect of maternal parity**

331 Neither age, induction of the estrus cycle, semen preparation, month of AI, number of cycles or AI  
332 required for a gestation at Day 14, number of straws in case of FZAI nor the number of ovulation or  
333 twin embryos at Day 14 were significantly affected by maternal age (Supplementary Table 4).

334 Nulliparous mares tended to be less pregnant on Day 14 (Figure 2). Parity tended to be related to post-  
335 breeding inflammation. Maternal parity was different according to maternal age. More nulliparous  
336 mares were present in 5 or less and 10-15 years old group while less nulliparous were observed in 5-  
337 10- and 16 or more-years old groups. Nulliparous mares were mostly older than 10 years (64.7%,  
338 Supplementary Table 4) but nulliparous were in average younger than parous mares (Table 4) with a  
339 mean 2-year difference between nulliparous and parous mares (in average, respectively,  $11.6 \pm 0.3$  vs  
340  $13.7 \pm 0.3$  years old,  $p < 0.0001$ ). Moreover, suckling status was obviously related to parity and 38.6%  
341 of parous mares were suckling at insemination. Ovulation was induced more frequently in parous than  
342 in nulliparous mares. Parity did not modify estrus duration ( $5.1 \pm 0.2$  days for nulliparous vs  $5.1 \pm 0.1$   
343 days for parous mares,  $p = 0.11$ ) but the size of the preovulatory follicle at ovulation was reduced in  
344 nulliparous compared to parous mares (respectively,  $41.9 \pm 0.3$  and  $42.8 \pm 0.2$ mm in diameter,  $p=0.03$ ).

#### 345 **Table 4: Characteristics in nulliparous vs parous mares**

Variable	n	Nulliparous	Parous	p
		n=190	n=311	

Pregnancy rates on D14	501	37.4%	44.7%	0.066**
Age				
≤ 5	40	17.4%	2.3%	< 0.0001
5 < Age ≤ 10	118	17.9%	27.0%	
10 < Age ≤ 15	185	43.2%	33.1%	
Age > 15	158	21.6%	37.6%	
Lactation				
Non nursing	381	100.0%	61.4%	< 0.0001
Nursing	120		38.6%	
Induction of ovulation				
No	145	35.8%	24.8%	0.008
Yes	356	64.2%	75.2%	

346 AI: Artificial insemination, FAI: insemination with fresh semen, CTAI: insemination with cooled  
 347 transported semen, FZAI: insemination with frozen semen

348 \*\* Results from multivariate analysis

349

### 350 **3.3.3. Effect of nursing at insemination**

351 Neither induction of the estrus cycle nor ovulation induction, semen preparation, number of AI per  
 352 estrus required for a gestation at Day 14, number of straws in case of FZAI nor the number of ovulations  
 353 or twin embryos at Day 14 were significantly affected by maternal suckling status (Supplementary  
 354 Table 5).

355 Significantly less suckling mares were affected by post-breeding infection than non-suckling ones  
 356 (Table 5) but pregnancy rates were not affecting by lactational status (45.8% and 40.7% of pregnancy  
 357 rate per cycle for, respectively suckling and non-suckling mares,  $p = 0.32$ ).

358 There were more suckling mares younger than 10 years of age and more non-suckling mares aged  
 359 more than 10 years. Mares younger than 5 and mares aged between 10 to 15 years were less  
 360 frequently nursing than mares aged 5-10. In the group of 5-10 years old, more suckling mares were  
 361 present in comparison to non-suckling ones while the lactational status was similarly represented in  
 362 16 years old and older mares. In average, however, the age of suckling vs non-suckling mares was not  
 363 different (respectively  $13.0 \pm 0.2$  vs  $12.6 \pm 0.2$  years old,  $p = 0.39$ ). Less nursing mares were bred in  
 364 March and April but more were bred in June than non-nursing ones (Table 5). Moreover, more nursing  
 365 mares were pregnant at Day 14 within the first exploited cycle than non-nursing ones.

366 Estrus was shorter (respectively,  $4.7 \pm 0.16$  vs  $5.2 \pm 0.1$  days,  $p = 0.03$ ) and preovulatory follicle  
 367 diameter was larger (respectively  $43.8 \pm 0.4$  vs  $42.0 \pm 0.2$ ,  $p < 0.0001$ ) in nursing vs non-nursing mares.

368 **Table 5: Characteristics in non-suckling vs suckling mares**

Variable	n	Non suckling n=381	Suckling n=120	p
Post-breeding inflammation	501	42.8%	14.2%	< 0.0001
Age				
≤ 10 years old	158	28.6%	40.8%	0.012
> 10 years old	343	71.4%	59.2%	
≤ 5	40	9.7%	2.5%	< 0.0001
5 < Age ≤ 10	118	18.9%	38.3%	
10 < Age ≤ 15	185	39.6%	28.3%	

Age > 15	158	31.8%	30.8%	
Month of AI				
March	35	8.1%	3.3%	0.005
April	103	22.8%	13.3%	
May	149	29.7%	30.0%	
June	153	26.7%	42.5%	
July - August	61	12.6%	10.8%	
Number of cycles for pregnancy				
1	276	52.5%	63.3%	0.037
> 1	225	47.5%	36.7%	

369 \* AI: Artificial insemination, FAI: insemination with fresh semen, CTAI: insemination with cooled  
 370 transported semen, FZAI: insemination with frozen semen

371

## 372 **4. Discussion**

373 Data presented here are summarized in Figure 3.

### 374 **4.1. Post-breeding fluid accumulation**

#### 375 4.1.1. Prevalence

376 In this study, more than a third of the monitored cycles were followed by post-breeding uterine fluid  
 377 accumulation. In a normal population of Thoroughbred mares, around 15% of mares are susceptible  
 378 to post-breeding inflammation that persists for several days [28]. In a more recent study in  
 379 Thoroughbreds in UK, however, post-breeding fluid accumulation occurred in 47.7% of analyzed  
 380 pregnancies [17]. The observed rate in the present study is therefore in the range of the literature. In



381 comparison to other studies, however, the post-breeding inflammation rate might have been  
382 overestimated. Indeed, as mares could be kept on the breeding stud for several cycles, the same mares  
383 could have had several inflammations over the entire breeding period, as this condition is generally  
384 persistent [29].

385

#### 386 4.1.2. Effect of maternal age, parity and lactation status

387 In the studied population, there was twice more post-breeding fluid accumulation in mares older than  
388 10 years than in younger mares. These results agreed with literature as one recent study in  
389 Thoroughbred stud farms showed that the percentage of mares with post-breeding intrauterine fluid  
390 accumulation [17], increase with mare age. Frequency of endometritis has been demonstrated to  
391 increase with mare age as well as [26,30–34].

392 In addition, suckling at insemination appeared to have a protective effect against post-breeding fluid  
393 accumulation. To the authors' knowledge, there is no study on the effect of nursing at insemination  
394 on post breeding fluid accumulation. Since lactating mares are producing endogenous oxytocin, the  
395 well-known and widespread treatment against post-breeding inflammation [35], it could explain the  
396 observed improvement in nursing mares. Indeed, nursing induces oxytocin release in the blood  
397 circulation, reaching a peak of around 10mIU/L in nursing pony and broodmares [36,37]. Plasma  
398 oxytocin concentrations of 10-7 mIU/L were reported to be present 20min after the beginning of the  
399 suckling period [36]. Since foals nurse until 72times a day in the first weeks of their life, the release of  
400 oxytocin happens in a regular manner throughout the day [38].

401

#### 402 4.1.3. Effect of the method of semen preservation and semen quantity

403 In this study, neither semen preservation method nor the volume determined by number of frozen  
404 straws, nor the number of inseminations were related to post-breeding fluid accumulation. One study  
405 showed a similar volume of uterine fluid accumulated in the uterus after insemination with cooled or  
406 frozen semen which is consistent with the results obtained here [39]. One recent study, however,  
407 showed that the uterine inflammatory response was positively correlated to the number of  
408 spermatozooids used for the insemination with frozen semen [40]. This high inflammatory response was  
409 also faster to resume than the response for low doses of semen [40].

410

#### 411 4.1.4. Effect of month of insemination

412 Data showed that more post-breeding fluid accumulation occurred when insemination was performed  
413 late in the season, i.e., during July and August. Several hypotheses could explain this result. The first is  
414 that mares with good quality uteri needed less cycles to become pregnant and therefore, more mares  
415 with reproductive troubles were inseminated late in the season as they often need to be inseminated  
416 for several cycles to start a pregnancy. Another hypothesis regarding the increase of post-breeding  
417 inflammation late in the season would be the increase of temperatures occurring from June/July . So  
418 far, there is no study on the effects of outdoor temperature on the incidence of endometritis in mares  
419 but in dairy cows, environmental heat, as evaluated by comparing the possibility of sheltering or not  
420 from the sun, increased rectal temperature by almost one degree [41] and reduced uterine blood flow  
421 [42]. The temperature increase, out of the thermoneutrality zone (5-25°C for horses), could directly  
422 affect uterine temperature and/or on uterine blood flow and therefore promote inflammation in the  
423 mares' uterus.

424

#### 425 4.1.5. Treatment and pregnancy rates

426 In the present study, when a post-breeding fluid accumulation was detected, treatment was  
427 systematically applied. Most of the time, this treatment was limited to an injection of oxytocin. In a  
428 recent study about therapeutic practices in intensively managed Thoroughbred mares, almost half of  
429 the pregnant mares were treated with intrauterine antibiotics and the same proportion was treated  
430 with oxytocin. Oxytocin combined with intrauterine antibiotics are used prophylactically in  
431 Thoroughbreds in the UK to avoid uterine infections as breeders believe it to be a cause of conception  
432 failure and embryo loss [17]. In Thoroughbreds, however, less than 10% of early pregnancy failures  
433 were associated with uterine inflammation [17,31]. Another study on 99 Thoroughbred mares showed  
434 no association between post-breeding uterine fluid accumulation and pregnancy rates nor embryonic  
435 death [43], as observed here. In all studies, the systematic management to prevent/cure abnormal  
436 inflammation could explain this lack of association. Therefore, nowadays, the post-breeding  
437 inflammation seems to be well handled by stud farms.

438 Contrarily, in different breeds, the combination of antibiotics with oxytocin to reduce post-breeding  
439 fluid accumulation was shown to be more efficient than antibiotics or oxytocin alone to prevent  
440 decreased pregnancy rates after mating [44]. In another study on warmblood mares artificially  
441 inseminated, however, oxytocin alone was sufficient to increase pregnancy rates in comparison to no  
442 treatment [35]. In this study, oxytocin alone was mostly applied and was sufficient to avoid altered  
443 pregnancy rate. Therefore, it suggests that this treatment alone is efficient to avoid decreased  
444 pregnancy rates in artificially inseminated mares.

445

## 446 **4.2. Pregnancy rates**

### 447 4.2.1. Prevalence

448 In studies on different breeds conducted in several countries using artificial insemination, pregnancy  
449 rates were between 40-80%, according to the semen preservation method [15,45–47]. In a comparable

450 recent study on 328 sport mares artificially inseminated in the Netherlands, 46.6% of gestations were  
451 obtained on Day 12 – 18 [48]. Here, pregnancy rates per cycle were similar with 41.9% of mares being  
452 pregnant by cycle regardless of the method used for semen preservation.

453

#### 454 4.2.2. Effect of maternal age, parity and lactation status

455 Pregnancy rates were reduced when mares were older than 10 years old at the time of insemination.  
456 Several studies already showed a reduction of pregnancy rates with increased maternal age  
457 [1,7,10,30,49–51]. Most studies, however, observed differences in mares older than 14 years old and  
458 not as early as 10 years old. Here, the clustering in 4 classes ( $\leq 5$ , 5-9, 10-14 and  $\geq 15$  years old) was  
459 not associated with alteration of pregnancy rates. Our inability to demonstrate such changes might be  
460 due to the only slight reduction of pregnancy rates induced by aging and to the limited number of  
461 mares studied.

462 Maternal parity tended to not reduce pregnancy rates in the overall population. The effects of  
463 maternal parity on pregnancy rates are contrasted as being closely related to mares' age. Indeed, when  
464 nulliparous mares were mostly older than 7 years, a detrimental effect of nulliparity was observed  
465 [2,15] but when nulliparous mares were younger, no deleterious or a favorable effect of parity was  
466 observed [2,14]. Here, more than 60% of nulliparous were older than 10 years which could explain the  
467 observed tendency.

468 When considering only mares older than 10 years, D14 pregnancy rates were reduced in nulliparous  
469 mares while in the youngest group, the parity did not affect the incidence of pregnancy. Thus, the  
470 present data indicate a deleterious cumulative effect of nulliparity and aging on fertility in mares. This  
471 was previously suggested but never demonstrated in any broodmares population.

472 One other important finding is that lactation at the time of insemination did not influence pregnancy  
473 rates, 14 days post ovulation. Foaling mares, however, needed less cycles to become pregnant. In the

474 literature, the effect of lactation on fertility is controversial as some studies observed that nursing  
475 mares are more fertile than non-nursing ones [2,8,30,50,51] while others do not observe any  
476 difference [4,7,10,14]. Insemination at foal heat was previously shown to reduce pregnancy rates  
477 [23,52] and to be associated with increased embryonic death [21,22,52]. Here, most foaling mares  
478 were bred on foal heat without adverse effect on pregnancy rates.

479

#### 480 4.2.3. Effect of the number of ovulations

481 The more ovulations were observed, the higher the likelihood that the mare was to be pregnant at 14  
482 days post ovulation. The result obtained here seems obvious as double ovulations increase the number  
483 of oocytes that could be fertilized.

484

#### 485 4.2.4. Effect of the method of semen preservation and semen quantity

486 As previously observed [45,46,48,53], the modalities of insemination influenced the probability for a  
487 mare to be pregnant on Day 14. Indeed, pregnancy rate was higher after FAI or CTAI than after FZAI. It  
488 is well known that stallion semen quality decreases with cryopreservation, thus a higher critical  
489 number of mobile spermatozoa per dose is required to reach the same pregnancy rates than with fresh  
490 semen [53]. In this study, the number of straws was not related to pregnancy rate, as also shown by  
491 others [45]. In France, the concentration of spermatozoa/straw is standardized to 100 millions of  
492 spermatozoa per ml by the National French Institute. Thus, stallion coming from abroad had a different  
493 spermatozoa concentration, usually lower, that could also impact the results. Despite these  
494 considerations, the protocol involving ultrasonography every 6h and deep intra-uterine AI after  
495 observed ovulation seemed to be effective to reach acceptable pregnancy rates with 4 straws or less.

496

#### 497 4.2.5. Effect of month of insemination

498 The month of insemination tended to influence the pregnancy rate, with reduced incidence of  
499 pregnancies in March and June. In another French study, March was one of the more prolific month in  
500 terms of foal productivity per mare, all breed considered (Thoroughbred, Standardbred and sport  
501 bred) [2]. In racehorse breeding, it is common to use light to advance the breeding season [54] since  
502 foals born early in the year have an advantage when they are sold as yearling. In sport horse breeding  
503 under European latitudes, however, March is often the beginning of the breeding season. At this time,  
504 mares enter the spring transitional period and less mares are bred, which could explain the reduced  
505 pregnancy rates on this month. The other French study also reported a fertility decrease when mares  
506 were bred in June and after [2]. The June effect, here, is more complicated to explain as July and August  
507 did not affect pregnancy rates. During their stay, all mares were housed in individual stable with no  
508 access to fresh grass. They were fed with hay, thus a change in food quality in June could not explain  
509 the present results. Nevertheless, increasing ambient temperature could explain the differences in  
510 pregnancy rates as temperatures reached a maximum of 35.8°C in one stud farm in June 2019. In July  
511 and August, temperature were also high with more than 33°C as maximal temperature in the 2 studied  
512 stud farms. The lack of difference in July and August could be explained by the fact that only few mares  
513 were bred during this period and that more attention could have been given to these last mares.

514

### 515 **4.3. Effects of age on other reproductive outcomes**

516 A survey sent to breeders participating in competing events, showed that mare's age was the least  
517 important consideration for the selection of mares for reproduction [55].

#### 518 4.3.1. Choice of semen preservation method

519 Maternal age did not influence the breeders' choice concerning ovulation management but influenced  
520 the modality of AI. Indeed, less frozen and fresh semen were chosen for the insemination of older  
521 mares. On one side, frozen semen is less efficient for producing a foal, as confirmed by literature [53]  
522 and this study. Moreover, reduced fertility has been observed in old mares, both in literature [for  
523 review see 47] and in the present study. The combination of both factors could explain that older  
524 mares tended to be inseminated less with frozen semen as the financial risk might have been too costly  
525 for breeders. In addition, currently, equine breeders do not use more straws for old than for young  
526 mares, even if it has been shown that increasing straw number could improve fertility [53].

527

#### 528 4.3.2. Length of estrus and ovulation outcomes

529 This retrospective study shows that the length of estrus tended to increase with mare age (only 0.4  
530 day more in old mares), with a smaller preovulatory follicle. This was already observed as a prolonged  
531 interovulatory interval was associated with a prolonged follicular growth [57–64] and to a reduction in  
532 follicular growth and preovulatory follicular size in older mares [65–68].

533 In the studied population, more multiple ovulations were also observed in older mares. Several studies  
534 reported that the incidence of multiple ovulations continuously increases until the mare reaches 20  
535 years of age [63,68–70]. More multiple ovulations in older mares, however, is not associated with more  
536 twinning at 14 days post ovulation. Studies have shown that even if fertilization appears to be equal  
537 between young and old mares, early embryo mortality is increased in older mares [49,71] which could  
538 explain the absence in increase of twin embryos observed at 14 days in older mares compared to  
539 younger ones.

540

#### 541 4.4. Effects of parity on other reproductive outcomes

542 Nulliparous mares had smaller preovulatory follicles. As explained above, the monitoring of mares was  
543 not performed more than twice a day: since follicles continuously grow until breakdown, this observed  
544 difference should be considered with caution.

545

#### 546 **4.5. Effects of suckling at insemination on other reproductive outcomes**

547 In sport horses, mares are often bred and subsequently foal during the spring. Foaling mares are most  
548 of the time pregnant at the beginning of the spring. It is, therefore, not surprising to observe a peak of  
549 breeding in May and June in foaling mares while barren mare breedings were more spread throughout  
550 the reproductive season. Moreover, as it appears that less estrus cycles were required to obtain a  
551 pregnancy in lactating mares, it is not surprising either to not observed many lactating mares in August.  
552 Finally, the heat period was shortened and the preovulatory follicle was larger when mares were in  
553 lactation without changing the number of ovulations. To the author knowledge, there is no study on  
554 the effect of lactation at insemination time on estrus and follicle parameters.

555

### 556 **5. Conclusion**

557 In conclusion, maternal age appeared to be the most important factor affecting both post-breeding  
558 inflammation and pregnancy rates. Both could be explained by the degenerative changes that are  
559 observed in older mares. Breeders, should, therefore, be encouraged to pay more attention to the age  
560 of their broodmares and either, breed earlier in their life or culling them earlier to avoid excessive  
561 costs. Older mares are also of less interest concerning genetics point of view [72] that should also be  
562 considered by breeders. Moreover, as frozen semen was associated with decreased pregnancy rates,  
563 the use of fresh or cooled semen for the insemination of old mares should be advised.



564 In this study, it has also been shown that nulliparity as the same time to aging affected pregnancy  
565 rates. For their first gestation, mares should not be more than 10 years old to increase chances of  
566 pregnancy. One advice to owners could be to breed the mares before starting their sportive career to  
567 produce their first foal as it will help for the later inseminations.

568 Suckling at insemination prevented post-breeding inflammation. The most probable hypothesis could  
569 be that sucking provokes oxytocin release that is acting as a natural treatment of uterine fluid  
570 accumulation.

571 Here, pregnancy rates were not affected by post-breeding inflammation, although uterine fluid  
572 accumulation were more frequent than in other studies, showing that the excessive fluid accumulation  
573 related to insemination is well handled and that oxytocin only as a treatment is efficient.

574

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## 792 **Declaration of competing interest**

793 The authors have declared no conflicting interests.

794

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## 807 **Author contribution**

808 CG generated data. BG formatted datasets and performed the analyses. ED, JAR and PCP wrote the  
809 draft. All authors read, revised, and approved the submitted manuscript.

## 810 **Figure legends**

811 Figure 1: Odds ratio for factors influencing the likelihood of post-breeding endometritis in sport mares

812 Figure 2: Odds ratio for factors influencing the likelihood of pregnancy in sport mares

813 Figure 3: Factors affecting post-breeding endometritis and pregnancy rates in the studied population  
814 of sport mares

815 Red arrows significates that the factor increased the likelihood while blue arrows indicated that the  
816 factor decreased the likelihood.

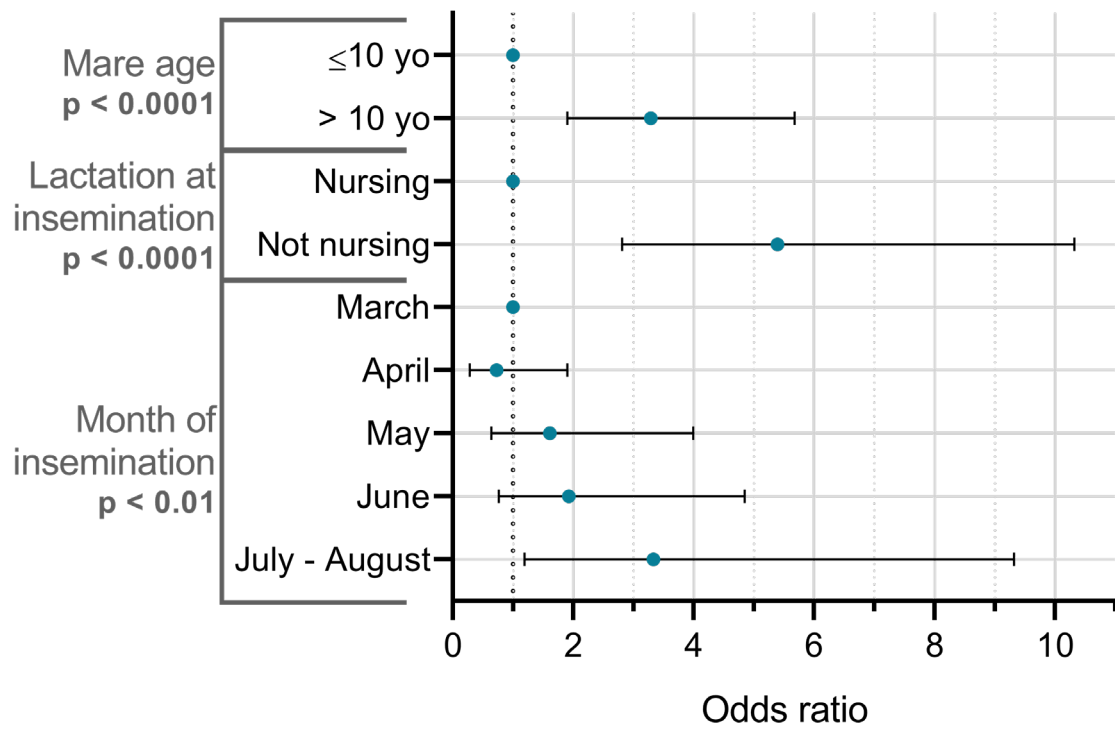
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## Factors of risk of post-breeding inflammation

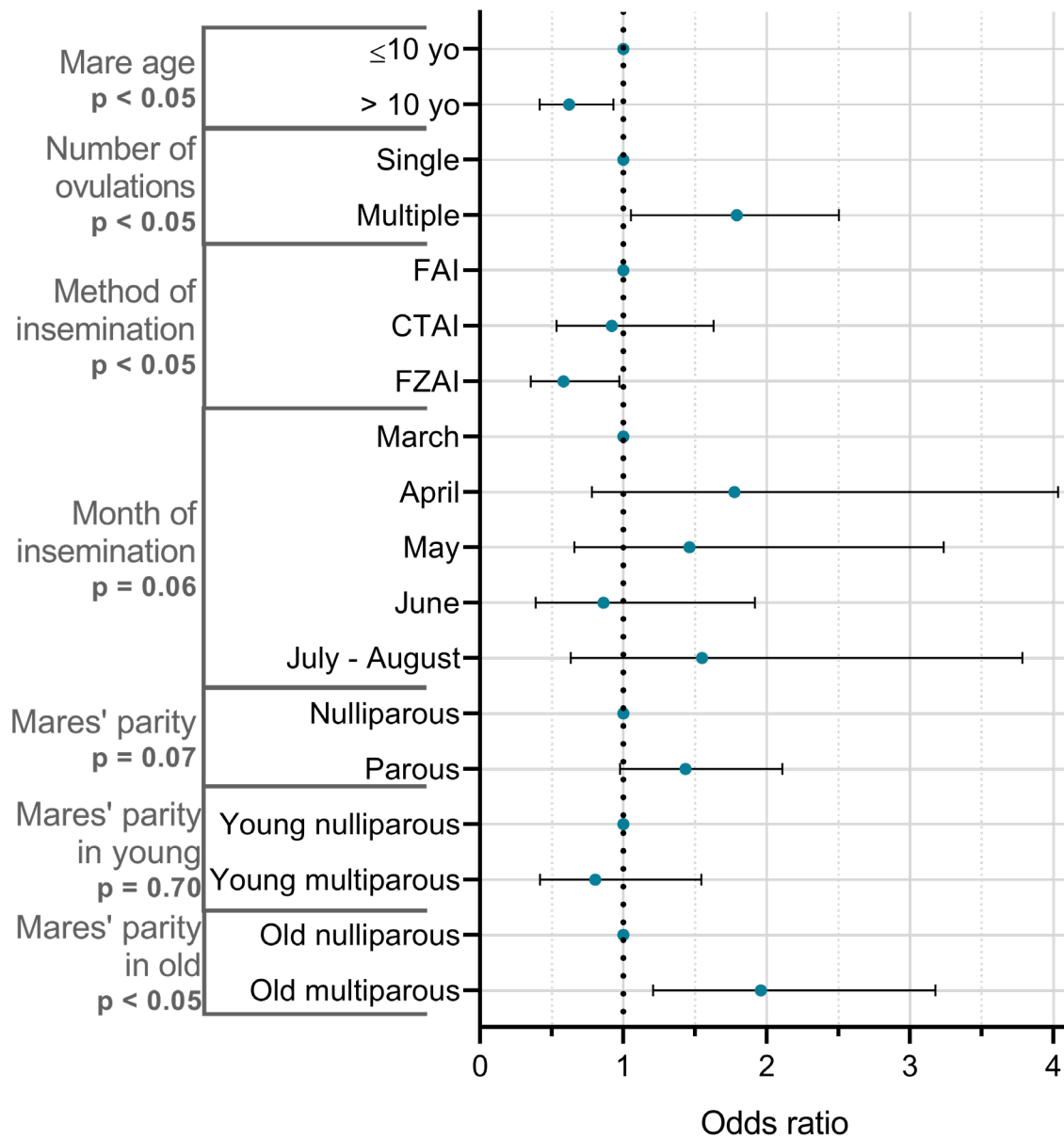


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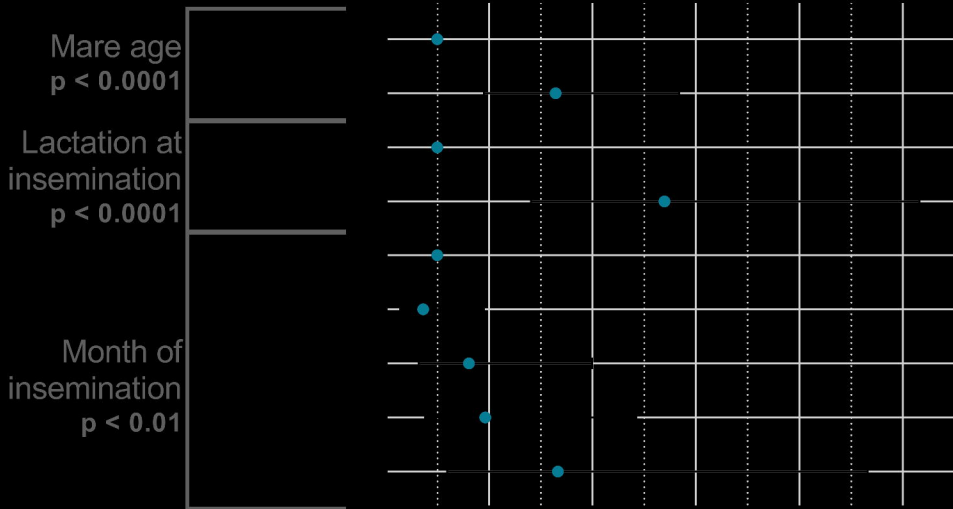
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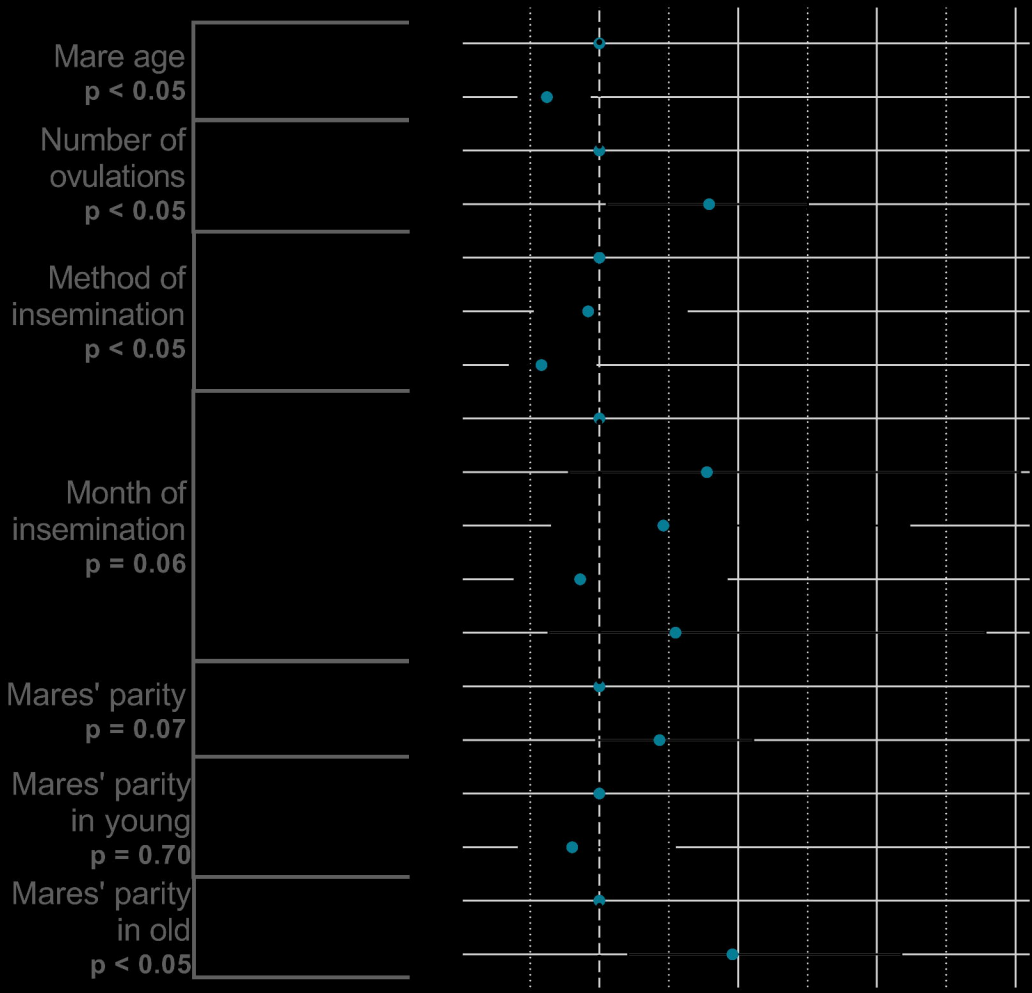
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## Factors of risk of pregnancy at 14 days



823





N = 277 sport mares

