

1 **Influence of nutrition, body condition, and metabolic status on reproduction in**
2 **female beef cattle: A review**
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20 **KEY WORDS** nutrition, metabolic status, reproduction, female beef cattle
21

22 **ABSTRACT**

23 Nutrition is of fundamental importance in reproductive function of female beef cattle.
24 Nutrition determines live weight (LW) and body condition score (BCs) and both were
25 found more than 50 years ago to underpin fertility in pubertal heifers and postpartum
26 cows. In heifers, LW at weaning and average daily gain (ADG) after weaning
27 determines age and LW at puberty, and subsequent lifetime fertility. In cows, BCS at
28 parturition is the most important factor that determines the period to re-conception
29 postpartum. Nutrition establishes systemic metabolic homeostasis. Metabolic hormones
30 such as leptin, IGF1 and Ghrelin act as signaling factors that regulate activity of GnRH
31 neurons in the hypothalamus. The release of GnRH and function of the reproductive

32 endocrine system is determined by the balance of positive signals (IGF1, leptin) and
33 negative signals (Ghrelin) at GnRH neurons. Metabolic factors also directly influence
34 ovarian follicles, oocytes and embryos. Saturated fatty acids (FAs) are detrimental to
35 oocytes and embryos whilst unsaturated FAs may be beneficial. The ratio of FAs
36 (saturated, monounsaturated, polyunsaturated) is likely the key to optimal reproductive
37 function. Nutrition controls the levels of metabolic hormones (leptin, IGF1, Ghrelin)
38 and metabolic factors (FAs) and both have major roles in reproduction in female beef
39 cattle.

40

41 **1. Introduction**

42 Wiltbank and colleagues were the first to report that reproductive function in female
43 beef cattle is strongly influenced by nutrition [1]. Mature Hereford cows fed a high
44 energy diet before and after calving had a substantially greater re-conception rate than
45 cows fed a low energy diet [1]. Whitman [2] conducted a separate analysis using the
46 same data which showed the body condition of cows at calving was the key
47 determinant of postpartum re-conception, rather than changes in live weight (LW)
48 before and/or after calving. These landmark studies stimulated global research on the
49 interrelationships between nutrition, metabolic condition, and re-conception in the
50 postpartum cow.

51 Young heifers are highly important for continued genetic improvement in beef
52 production systems. Proper nutritional management of heifers early in life is critical for
53 age at puberty and lifetime reproductive performance [3-6]. Indicators of future fertility
54 are LW at weaning and average daily gain (ADG) after weaning [7-9]. Optimal timing
55 of puberty in beef heifers requires an ADG of 0.6 to 0.7 kg/day [7].

56 In heifers [10,11] and cows [12,13] nutrition determines systemic metabolic
57 homeostasis and it also regulates the ratio of adipose tissue and muscle. Metabolic
58 hormones from adipose (leptin), liver (IGF1) and gut (Ghrelin) are now recognized as
59 major regulators of reproductive function in females [10,14-16].

60 The present paper brings together studies on nutrition, body condition, metabolic
61 status, and reproduction in heifers and cows. There has been a progressive increase in
62 understanding of how nutrition establishes the balance of metabolic hormones which
63 act at the brain to exert control of the reproductive endocrine system [17]. Nutrition
64 also influences the amounts of metabolic substrates that act directly at ovarian follicles,
65 oocytes and embryos. The paper cites early studies which have remained fundamental
66 and stimulated research that has produced major advances in the nutritional
67 management of female beef cattle for fertility. Many of the references are highly cited
68 in the literature and have been brought together for the first time in the present paper.

69

70 **2. Young heifer**

71 Reproductive organs are the last major organs to develop and therefore can be
72 influenced by nutrition and LW early in life [18]. Nelore (*Bos indicus*) heifers that
73 reached puberty had a higher reproductive tract score (RTS) compared with heifers that
74 had not reached puberty [9,19]. Other studies in beef heifers reported that RTS at first
75 mating was associated with a higher pregnancy rate, greater calf weaning weight, and
76 higher re-conception at the second mating [20,21]. In one study, a combination of RTS
77 and pelvic area provided a better prediction of fertility than RTS alone [22].

78 The nutritional management of *Bos taurus* beef heifers to attain puberty, conceive,
79 and achieve first calving at around 2 years is highly important as it optimizes lifetime
80 reproductive performance [6,23]. As already noted, LW at weaning, and ADG after

81 weaning, are strongly related to age and LW at puberty [7,8]. *Bos indicus* (Brahman)
82 heifers on improved pastures achieved puberty at an earlier age than heifers on standard
83 pastures [11]. Similarly, Nelore (*Bos indicus*) heifers that received a feedlot diet after
84 weaning reached puberty earlier than the breed average [24]. Improved nutrition after
85 weaning reduced age at puberty in Nelore heifers genetically selected for delayed
86 puberty; however, puberty still occurred later than in heifers genetically selected for
87 early puberty [25]. Nutrition and LW gain in young heifers is related to the deposition
88 of adipose tissue and BCS [19]. Heifers with improved feed conversion efficiency tend
89 to be relatively lean and reach puberty later than the breed average [26]. This presents a
90 potential dilemma in the genetic selection and breeding of efficient cattle for improved
91 sustainability, but without compromising fertility (see Section 4).

92

93 3. **Postpartum cow**

94 The resumption of fertile ovarian cycles after calving is critically important in order
95 for cows to re-conceive and calve annually. Ovarian follicular growth and ovulation
96 during postpartum rely on the re-establishment of normal patterns of gonadotrophin
97 secretion [27]. The secretion of LH is low immediately after calving and a progressive
98 increase in LH pulse frequency and amplitude leads to the first ovulation postpartum
99 [28,29]. Suckling delays the return of LH secretion necessary for ovulation [30,31].
100 Suckling does not influence the LH response to exogenous GnRH indicating that
101 suckling-induced suppression of LH acts at the brain [32]. Removal of the suckling
102 stimulus by early weaning can be used to induce resumption of cyclic ovarian activity
103 in postpartum beef cows [33,34].

104 Many studies have looked at the relationship of nutrition and body condition score
105 (BCS) to reproduction postpartum in beef cows. This followed early recognition of the

106 importance of nutrition [35]. It can be concluded from these studies that BCS at calving
107 is arguably the single most important factor linked to the timely resumption of fertile
108 ovulations postpartum [36-39]. Morrison and coworkers [40] reported that changes in
109 LW and BCS in the last trimester of pregnancy were of lesser importance than actual
110 BCS at calving in determining re-conception postpartum in beef cows. Cows with
111 moderate to good BCS at calving can undergo a decline in BCS when suckling
112 postpartum, yet have a higher re-conception rate than cows with poor BCS at calving
113 [41,42]. In fact, cows with poor BCS at calving were reported to lose less body
114 condition postpartum but still had lower fertility [41,42] (Figure 1). Cows with
115 relatively good BCS at calving tend to wean heavier and healthier calves and this has
116 important implications for young heifers destined to become breeders [43]. The BCS of
117 cows provides a good index of subcutaneous fat and metabolic condition [44].

118

119

[INSERT FIGURE 1]

120

121 **4. Feed efficiency and reproduction**

122 Research on feed utilization efficiency in beef cattle was pioneered by Paul Arthur
123 and Robert Herd [45-51]. The efficiency of feed utilization is of fundamental
124 importance in the selection and breeding of cattle that require less input, and therefore
125 less cost, per unit of production output [49]. Feed utilization efficiency in young cattle
126 is a measure of the difference between actual feed intake and the expected intake based
127 on metabolic body weight and growth [52]. This is expressed as net feed intake (NFI)
128 or residual feed intake (RFI) [53]. Differences in RFI among cattle are thought to be
129 due to differences in appetite, digestion, metabolism, thermoregulation and general
130 activity [54-56].

131 After 1.5 generations of selection for RFI Angus cows with relatively low RFI
132 (good feed efficiency) tended to have less rib fat than cows with high RFI [53].
133 Similarly, Angus heifers divergently selected for low RFI for 3 generations had
134 approximately 50% less fat at the rump and ribs [56] (see also [26]). Given that adipose
135 mass determines blood concentrations of leptin which has a positive action at GnRH
136 neurons (Section 5), cows and heifers with a low RFI (more efficient) would be
137 predicted to have reduced reproductive performance. Indeed, Angus, Angus crossbred,
138 and Hereford heifers with a relatively high RFI (less efficient) showed earlier puberty
139 than contemporary heifers with a low RFI [57] (see also [26]). A similar finding was
140 reported for Angus-Hereford and Charolais-Maine Anjou heifers [57]. Cows of the
141 latter genotypes with low RFI conceived and calved later than cows with a high RFI
142 [59]. In contrast to these findings of a negative relationship between feed efficiency and
143 fertility in heifers and cows, Arthur and coworkers [53] did not find a relationship
144 between RFI and reproductive performance in Angus cows. Blair and coworkers [60]
145 also did not find a relationship between RFI and fertility in Angus heifers sired by
146 either low RFI or high RFI bulls. Notwithstanding the latter studies, it is biologically
147 sound to hypothesize that female cattle with high feed utilization efficiency (low RFI),
148 associated with reduced adipose tissue and reduced leptin in blood [61-64], would have
149 lower fertility. Fertility and calving rate are main drivers of profit in beef enterprises
150 and these traits are in potential conflict with the selection of cattle for feed utilization
151 efficiency. There is an urgent need for research on how improvements in feed
152 utilization efficiency can be achieved without compromising fertility in breeder cattle.
153
154

155 **5. Metabolic hormones and reproduction**

156 The central role of the liver in modulating reproductive function in females through
157 secretion of IGF1 is arguably the best understood relationship between a metabolic
158 organ and reproduction. Ovarian follicles have an absolute reliance on blood derived
159 IGF1 to complete growth and maturation before ovulation [65-67]. At cells, IGF1 binds
160 to IGF1 receptors (IGF1R) and IGF1R haplotypes are associated with age at puberty in
161 Brahman heifers [68]. Brahman heifers [13] and postpartum Droughtmaster cows [14]
162 on improved subtropical pastures had elevated blood IGF1 which was associated with
163 earlier age at puberty and shorter postpartum anestrus, respectively. Elevated IGF1
164 early in life was related to earlier onset of puberty in Parda de Montaña and Pirenaica
165 beef heifers [69,70]. Relationships between disorders of the liver and ovarian function
166 have been extensively studied in dairy cows. In the ‘fat cow syndrome’ [71] fat
167 accumulates in hepatocytes and disrupts normal liver function. This leads to reduced
168 secretion of IGF1 and a lack of normal ovarian follicular activity [72]. Cows in positive
169 energy balance have greater blood concentrations of IGF1 compared with cows in
170 negative energy balance that have reduced IGF1 [73-75]. Negative energy balance and
171 reduced IGF1 is associated with reduced fertility [73-75].

172 Adipose is an important endocrine tissue that impacts reproduction primarily
173 through leptin [76,77]. Arguably the most important role of leptin in beef cattle is
174 control of the onset of puberty [78]. Leptin acts through the receptor GPR54 which is
175 present on kisspeptin (KISS1) neurons in the hypothalamus [79,80]. Kisspeptin binds to
176 GnRH neurons and stimulates GnRH release [81] (Figure 2). As prepubertal heifers
177 grow and mature they deposit adipose which leads to increasing concentrations of
178 leptin in blood. Leptin then reaches a threshold and stimulates sufficient kisspeptin
179 release for pubertal maturation of GnRH neurons. The leptin-kisspeptin-GnRH neuron

180 pathway provides the endocrine explanation for the critical BW hypothesis which links
181 body condition (fat-muscle ratio) to puberty in females [82]. The release of LH after
182 injection of kisspeptin has been demonstrated in cows and heifers [83]. In a recent
183 report, leptin was shown to regulate GnRH receptors on gonadotrope cells in the
184 anterior pituitary gland [84], suggesting that leptin can act at both the brain and
185 pituitary.

186 [INSERT FIGURE 2]

187
188 The hormone Ghrelin is secreted by the gastro-intestinal tract ('gut') and has been
189 implicated as a metabolic signal for feed intake and energy balance [85,86]. Blood
190 concentrations of Ghrelin in cattle are elevated during restricted feed intake and
191 negative energy balance [87,88]. Ghrelin receptors are present in the hypothalamus and
192 it has been proposed that Ghrelin pathways also regulate GnRH neurons.

193 Insulin and glucose are other metabolic hormones and metabolic factors which are
194 influenced by nutrition and impact on reproduction in female beef cattle [89,90].
195 Brahman heifers on improved subtropical pastures had greater blood concentrations of
196 insulin and glucose than heifers on standard pastures [11]. Droughtmaster cows that
197 calved in BCS 3.0-3.5 (scale 1-5) had greater blood concentrations of insulin and
198 glucose than cows in BCS 2.0-2.5 [13]. The Brahman heifers on improved pastures
199 showed puberty earlier and the Droughtmaster cows with higher BCS had a shorter
200 postpartum anestrus. Insulin stimulates cellular uptake of glucose which reduces blood
201 concentrations. The finding that insulin and glucose were both elevated in heifers and
202 cows on good nutrition was interpreted to indicate that these animals had a different
203 insulin-glucose metabolic homeostasis setting than their contemporaries on poorer
204 nutrition [11,13]. Parda de Montaña heifers with elevated glucose at weaning had an

205 earlier age at puberty [69]. It was proposed that *Bos taurus* and *Bos indicus* cattle may
206 differ in the effects of insulin and IGF1 on reproductive function [91].

207

208 **6. Integration of metabolic hormone action at the brain**

209 The mechanisms whereby leptin, IGF1 and Ghrelin interact at the brain to regulate
210 the activity of GnRH neurons are not fully understood. Present information indicates
211 that leptin and IGF1 stimulate GnRH secretion whilst Ghrelin suppresses GnRH
212 secretion. Receptors for IGF1 are found on GnRH neurons and IGF1 can directly
213 influence GnRH secretion [92]. The positive action of leptin on GnRH is mediated by
214 the neuropeptides kisspeptin, galanin-like peptide (GALP) and proopiomelanocortin
215 (POMC, precursor of α -MSH) [93-95]. The negative actions of Ghrelin are mediated by
216 neuropeptide Y (NPY) [96]. This understanding of neuropeptide mediation of
217 metabolic hormone signaling is likely an oversimplification and new information will
218 emerge from further studies [15].

219 A model for pubertal transition in heifers proposes that before puberty Ghrelin
220 predominates and NPY mediates a suppressive action on GnRH neurons [97] (Figure
221 3). As heifers grow and deposit adipose tissue, leptin increases and kisspeptin, GALP
222 and POMC collectively start to have a stimulatory action on GnRH neurons. During the
223 prepubertal-pubertal transition the balance shifts to leptin dominance which leads to
224 increased GnRH secretion and activation of the reproductive endocrine system [97-100]
225 (Figure 4). Target of rapamycin (mTOR) and Creb1-regulated transcription coactivator-
226 1 (Crtc1) are thought to be involved in the actions of leptin at the brain in mammals
227 [10,97,101].

228

[INSERT FIGURE 3]

229

[INSERT FIGURE 4]

230 The gonadostat hypothesis for puberty proposed that sensitivity of the
231 hypothalamus to estrogen negative feedback declines at the pubertal age in females,
232 and is followed by increased gonadotropin secretion and initiation of cyclic ovarian
233 activity. This hypothesis was initially tested in rats [102] and later in beef heifers [103].
234 Given contemporary knowledge concerning the balance of positive and negative signals
235 at GnRH neurons, it is feasible that the pubertal increase in gonadotropin secretion
236 occurs as a result of greater stimulatory action at GnRH neurons, without a change in
237 sensitivity *per se* to estrogen negative feedback . The gradual increase in LH secretion
238 from 1 week of age until puberty in Hereford-Friesian heifers, without a notable
239 increase around puberty [104], would be consistent with a progressive increase in
240 positive signaling at the hypothalamus from leptin in growing heifers that are
241 depositing adipose (Section 4).

242

243 **7. Follicles, oocytes and embryos**

244 The metabolic environment of ovarian follicles has a major influence on growth and
245 maturation of oocytes, and also subsequent embryonic development [105-110].
246 Particularly important is the fatty acid (FA) profile of both follicles and oocytes [111].
247 The present consensus is that saturated FAs are detrimental to oocyte and embryo
248 development and unsaturated FAs could be beneficial [106,112-117]. Cumulus cells
249 surrounding oocytes have particularly high concentrations of FAs and it was suggested
250 the cumulus accumulates FAs as a mechanism to protect oocytes from saturated FAs
251 [118,119].

252 Prepubertal heifers were reported to have lower amounts of FAs in follicular fluid
253 than cows and cow oocytes had greater lipid content [120]. It was suggested that these
254 differences could explain the higher quality of oocytes from cows compared with

255 heifers. It was also proposed that the relative amounts of different FAs (saturated,
256 monosaturated, polyunsaturated) determine oocyte fertilizing capacity and embryo
257 developmental potential [120,121]. The latter study [120] utilized slaughterhouse
258 ovaries and the genotype and condition of heifers and cows was unknown. Lactating
259 Holstein-Friesian cows had greater amounts of saturated FAs in follicular fluid than
260 heifers which was thought to explain reduced fertility of oocytes from cows [106].
261 Further studies are required to elucidate relationships between the FA profiles of blood,
262 follicular fluid, and oocytes, and impact on oocytes and embryos. Profiling of the
263 metabolome in different fluids could provide some of the answers [106,122-124].

264 Dietary intervention has been used to influence the endogenous FA profile in
265 lactating dairy cows. It would appear that diets high in unsaturated FAs can improve
266 oocyte and embryo quality in high milk yield cows [120,125-126]. Notwithstanding
267 these findings, further studies are required to better understand how dietary intervention
268 can help achieve a positive FA balance in lactating cows [127].

269

270 8. **Summary**

271 A large body of knowledge has accumulated over the past 50 years on relationships
272 between nutrition, metabolic condition, and reproductive function in beef cattle. It has
273 become apparent that nutritional management should be used strategically to keep
274 cattle in positive energy balance, rather than a 'rescue' strategy for cattle that have
275 entered negative energy balance. In young heifers, this means ensuring an optimal LW
276 and BCS at weaning and an ADG of 0.6 to 0.7 kg/day from weaning to puberty. Heifers
277 should ideally have 2 to 4 ovarian cycles before their first mating [128]. Mating should
278 occur early in their first breeding season to allow sufficient time for a return to fertile
279 cycles and re-conception to establish annual calving. First-parity cows need particular

280 nutritional attention in the third trimester of pregnancy to ensure a BCS of 3.0 to 3.5
281 (scale 1-5) at parturition. This can help prevent an extended period of postpartum
282 anestrus in suckled first-calf cows that have yet to reach mature body size. The activity
283 of adipose tissue, liver and 'gut' reflects metabolic condition. Hormones from these
284 tissues (leptin, IGF1, Ghrelin) are important regulators of reproduction both in the brain
285 and at somatic tissues. The ratio of fatty acids (saturated, monounsaturated,
286 polyunsaturated) in follicular fluid determines oocyte quality and embryo development.
287 A balance is needed between nutrition, metabolic condition, production (meat, milk),
288 and reproduction. The genetic selection and breeding of dairy cows for high milk yield
289 has pushed lactating cows into clinical negative energy balance (poor metabolic health)
290 and severely disrupted the metabolic resilience boundary that balances production with
291 reproduction [129]. The selection of beef cattle for high feed utilization efficiency
292 [130] produces leaner animals and has the potential to reduce fertility in females. The
293 experience in dairy cattle, and to a lesser extent beef cattle, provides a salient lesson
294 that there are limits to the capacity of cattle to achieve high production, and also
295 reproduce. The body of knowledge now available on relationships between nutrition,
296 metabolic condition and reproduction, provides the opportunity to develop new
297 strategies that achieve production imperatives without compromising fertility in female
298 beef cattle. This will require a complementary blend of genomics and management.

299

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Figure legends

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318 Figure 1. Relationships between BCS at calving, change in BCS postpartum, and the
319 probability of pregnancy in multiparous Nelore beef cows mated using fixed-
320 time AI at day 42 postpartum. The cows with highest BCS at calving were
321 the cows with greatest loss of BCS postpartum and cows with the lowest
322 BCS at calving were the cows with lesser loss, or gain, of BCS postpartum
323 (Adapted from [42]).

324

325 Figure 2. Model for the role of kisspeptin and Kiss1 neurons in mediating the effects of
326 leptin on GnRH secretion (Adapted from [14]).

327

328 Figure 3. Model for the actions of Ghrelin and leptin during energy insufficiency
329 (Ghrelin) and energy sufficiency (leptin) that can be used to conceptualize
330 the roles of Ghrelin and leptin before and after puberty (Adapted from [97]).

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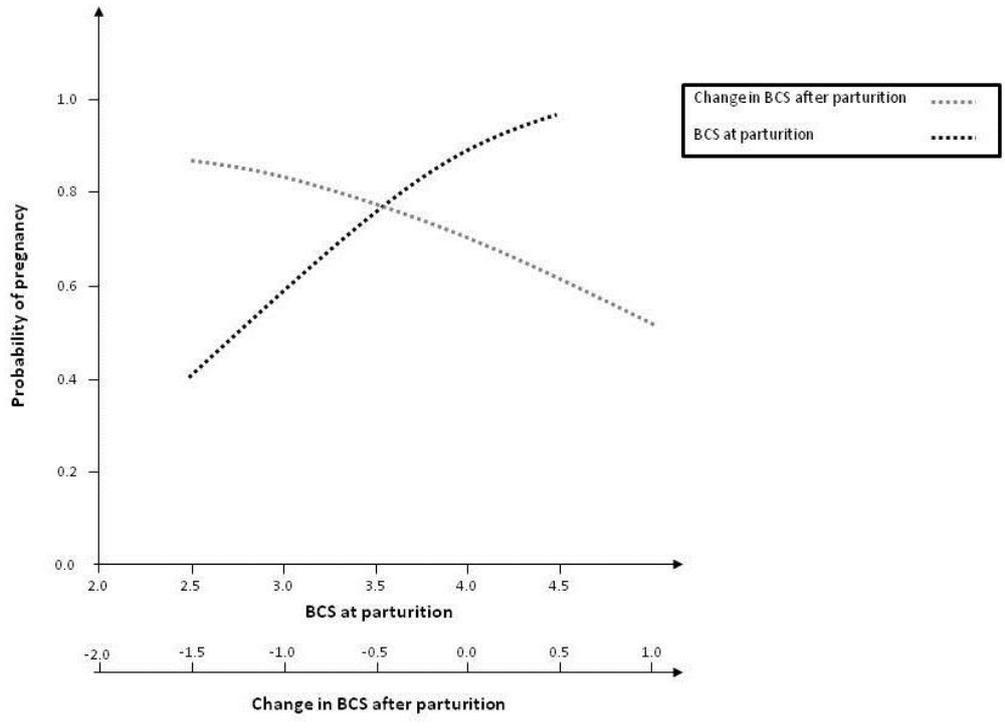
332 Figure 4. Model for the interrelationship of leptin, kisspeptin (Kiss), POMC and NPY
333 during the prepubertal-pubertal transition in heifers (Adapted from [98]).

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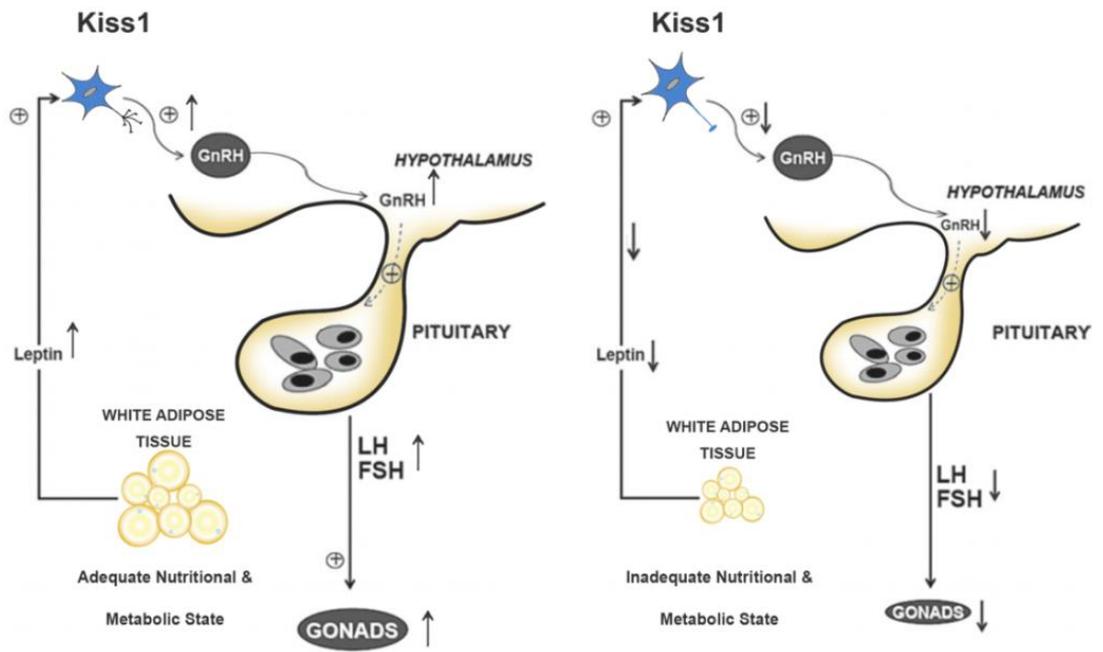
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Figure 1



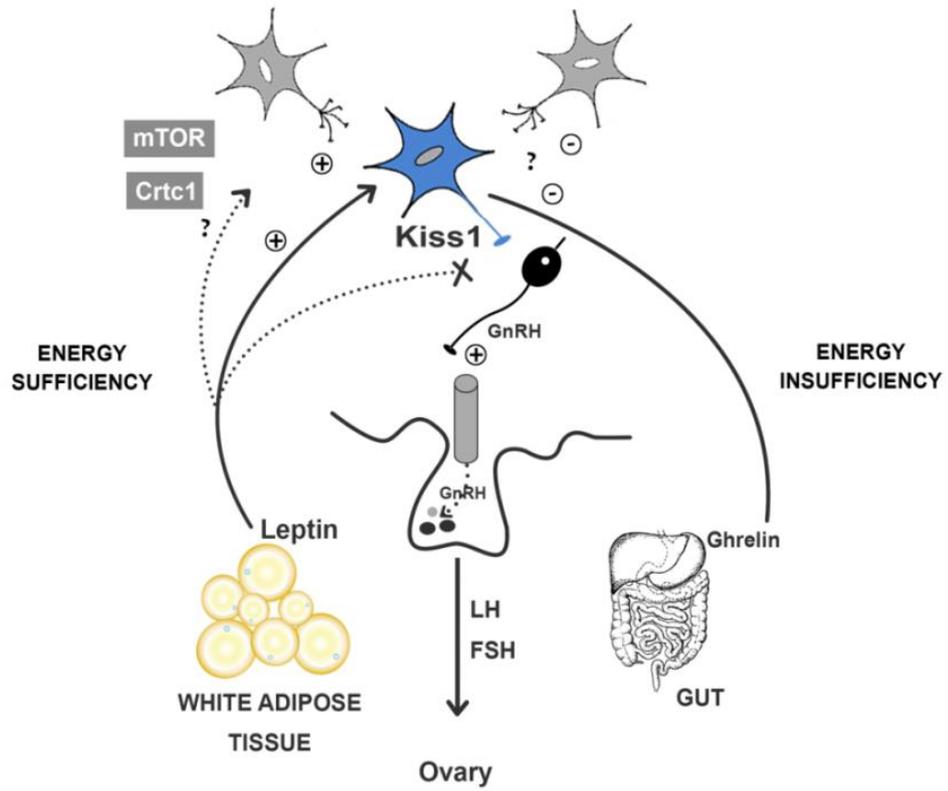
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Figure 2



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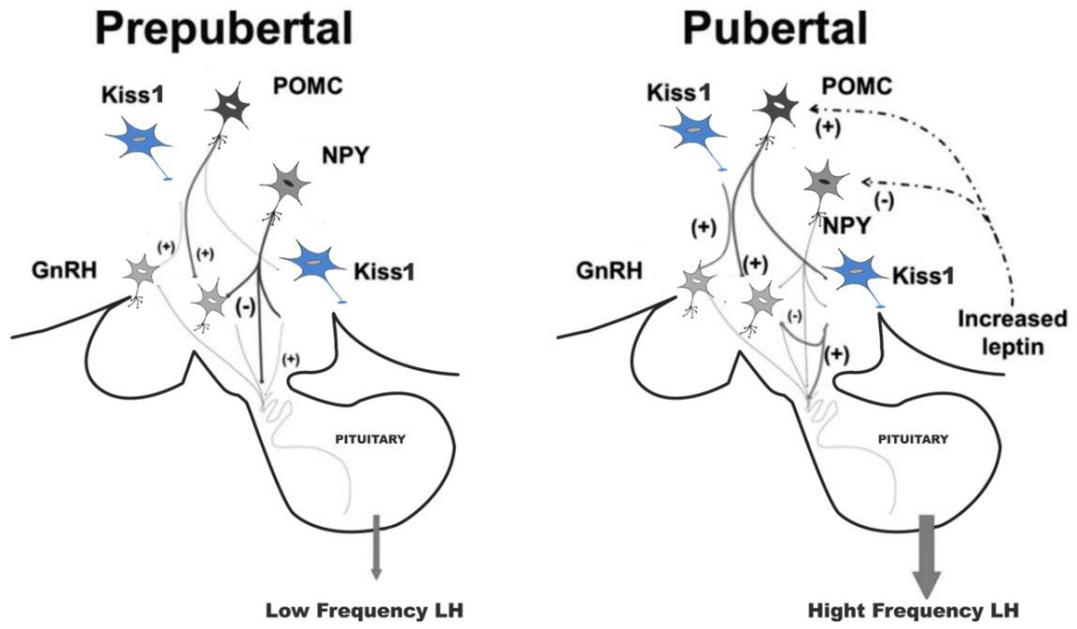
Figure 3



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Figure 4



Influence of nutrition, body condition, and metabolic status on reproduction in female beef cattle: A review

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AUTHOR AGREEMENT

All authors contributed equally to the conceptual framework and structure of the manuscript