Can growth in captivity alter the calcaneal microanatomy of a wild ungulate?

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Abstract

Reduced mobility associated with captivity induce changes in biomechanical stress on the skeleton of domesticated animals. Due to bone plasticity, the morphology and the internal structure of the bones can respond to these new biomechanical stresses over individuals' lifetime. In a context where documenting early process of animal domestication is a real zooarchaeological challenge, this study will test the hypothesis that change in mobility patterns during the life of a wild ungulate will alter internal structure of its limb bones and provide a proof of concept for its application in Zooarchaeology. Using the calcaneus as phenotypic marker through qualitative and quantitative 3D microanatomical analyses, we relied on a comparative study across wild boars (*Sus scrofa*) populations from controlled experimental conditions with different mobility patterns (natural habitat, large pen and stall) and archaeological specimens collected from middle and late Mesolithic as surrogate for the norm of reaction in European wild boar phenotype before the spread of agriculture and domestic pigs. Results provide evidence for compressive and tensile forces as main elements affecting the variation in the cortical thickness along the calcaneus. Furthermore, changes in the internal structure of the calcaneus between mobility patterns are observed but their intensity is not directly associated with the degree of mobility restriction and only weakly impacted by the size or weight of the individuals. Despite having greater bone volume, the calcaneus of the

Mesolithic wild boars displays a very similar microanatomy compared to the present-day hunted or captive wild boars, these results suggest that calcaneus microanatomy is more affected by population differences than by differences in locomotor contexts. For all these reasons, this preliminary study doesn't support the use of microanatomy of the calcaneus as an indicator of change in locomotor behaviour induced by captivity in the archaeological record.

Keywords: calcaneus; microanatomy; captivity; domestication; *Sus scrofa*; functional morphology

Introduction

The bones that make up the vertebrate skeleton are plastic organs whose morphology, and to a larger extent, internal structure, adapt in response to the stresses placed on individuals (Roux, 1881; Wolff, 1986; Hall, 1983, 2005; Ruff et al., 2006; Du et al., 2020), beyond the predominant influence of heredity (Hall, 1989; Cubo et al., 2005). Muscle mobilization applies stresses that influence bone growth, development and remodeling (Marcus, 2002). Numerous studies on human skeletons have shown that intensive physical activity has characteristic consequences on skeletal microanatomy that differ pending on the activity (Zanker & Swaine, 2000; Modlesky et al., 2008; Maïmoun & Sultan 2011; Maïmoun et al., 2013). Conversely, the bone resorption observed for astronauts (Lang et al., 2004) and bedridden individuals (Krølner & Toft., 1983) illustrates bone accommodation to the absence of gravity (Carmeliet & Bouillon, 2001) and inactivity. Therefore, differences in mobility between individuals, that engenders differences in biomechanical stresses, affect the organization of the skeleton.

Captive animals may grow in limited areas, which does not involve the same range of movement and forces applied on their bones compared to their free-ranging relatives. Analysing the biomechanical bone plasticity is a major asset for paleoanthropologists and archaeozoologists trying to decipher individual-scale lifestyle changes from bones anatomy in order to document change in activity patterns of past humans and other animals (Trinkaus et al., 1994, Agarwal, 2016). In paleoanthropology, this biomechanical component has been used to better understand the evolution towards bipedalism in hominids (Ruff, 2018) and to observe the morphological consequences of the transition from a nomadic hunter-gatherer to a farmer-herder lifestyle (Pinhasi & Stock, 2011). In archaeozoology, changes between a domestic and a wild lifestyle related to locomotion and gait changes, have been estimated as a prevalent factor over load-carrying on structural changes of domestic donkeys limb bones (Shackelford et al.,

2013). Despite this, archaeozoologists have always considered that the first observable morphological changes occurred only late in the domestication process and could not perceive its initial stages since they would not involve genetic isolation or selective reproduction (Vigne et al., 2011; Colledge et al., 2016). To develop new phenotypic proxy of the first steps of animal domestication, an experimental project (DOMEXP) has been performed to test whether growth in captivity of a wild ungulate would leave a morpho-functional imprint distinguishable from the its natural habitat norm of reaction. Hence, early process of cultural control (Hecker 1982) could be traced from bones anatomy long before the so called "domestication syndrome". To test the hypothesis, the DOMEXP project used a genetically homogeneous wild boar (*Sus scrofa*) population to control the genetic and environmental factors influencing skeletal variation. From this populations –6 months old piglets were captured after weaning to be reared until the age of two years under two mobility reduction regimes. Geometric morphometrics' analyses have provided proof of concept that this mobility reduction in a wild ungulate population could leave morphometric prints on skulls (Neaux et al., 2021) and calcaneus (Harbers et al., 2020a). Microanatomical investigations have also revealed changes in the 3D topography of the cortical thickness in the humeral shaft (Harbers et al., 2020b). However, the impact of mobility reduction on the micraoantomical features of the skeleton remained to be explored.

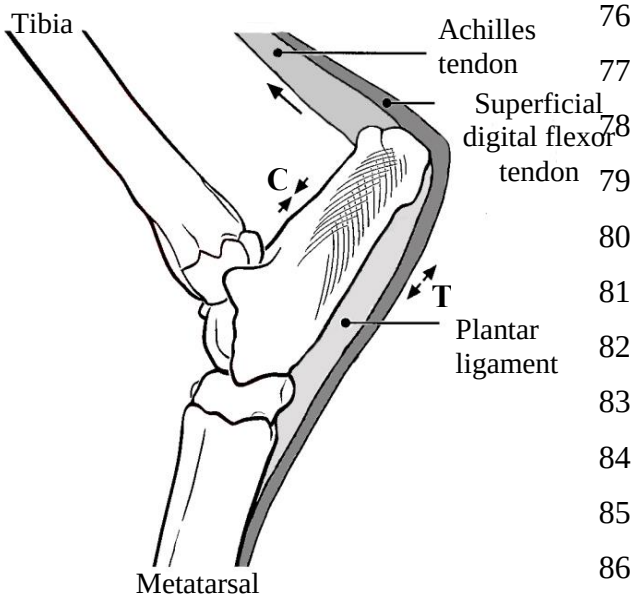

Fig. 1. Lateral view of the tarsal region of a skeletally mature artiodactyl, showing the calcaneus with other associated bones, ligaments and tendons. The large arrow in the dorsal direction indicates the orientation of the force exerted by the Achilles tendon during paw extension, loading the dorsal cortex in compression ("C") and the plantar cortex in tension ("T"). Modified from Su et al. (1999).

For this reason, this study investigates the microanatomical variation of the calcaneus from the experimental specimens of the DOMEXP project. Indeed tarsal bones like the calcaneum could be considered as more informative than others in investigating the mechanical forces that apply to individuals during locomotion (Lovejoy et al., 1999; Carter & Beaupré, 2001; Pearson & Lieberman, 2004). Proximally articulated to the fibula and distally to the cuboid bone, the

calcaneus is particularly stressed during locomotion in terrestrial tetrapods. It acts as a lever arm for the ankle extensors, and is subject to high tensile, flexural, and compressive forces (Fig. 1; Hussain, 1975; Carrano, 1997; Bleefeld & Bock, 2002; Bassarova et al., 2009; Barone, 2017). The calcaneus is therefore a particularly interesting object of study to investigate differences in mobility between individuals (Harbers et al., 2020a). Moreover, the high compactness of the calcaneus makes it resistant to taphonomic alterations, which gives it a good general preservation in archaeological contexts (Binford, 1978) and highlights its archaeozoological interest.

This study compares the calcaneus microanatomy variation between adult captive-bred and hunted wild boars to assess how much captivity can induce microanatomical variation in a wild ungulate. We also include 8000 years old wild boars from a Mesolithic context of hunter-gatherers in northern France to observe how much the norm of reaction in wild boar microanatomy has changed since the neolithisation of Europe and whether this proxy can be used to infer change in locomotor behaviour from archaeological bones.

Material and method

Experimental protocol

24 wild boars aged 6 months were sampled from a control population living in a fenced forest from Northern France of 100,000 m^2. These specimens were then divided in two equal samples of same sex ratio and reared until 24th in two different contexts of reduced mobility: (1) a stall of 100 m^2, where males and females were separated (each group had 45 m^2) and (2) a wooded pen of 3000 m^2. These two contexts represent respectively 99.9% and 97% of range reduction compared to the control population which prevent the average daily distances measured in free boar populations (Palencia et al. 2019; Russo et al. 1997). The stall presented no opportunity for foraging. In the wooded enclosure, this opportunity was limited due to space limitations. Dry feed pellets suitable for feeding domestic pigs were provided to both groups.

Specimens studied

Our dataset includes calcaneus bones from 47 specimens: 26 from the DOMEXP experimental farm - 11 stall specimens (stall), 10 pen specimens (pen), 5 from the control population (control) - 15 hunted wild boars from two Northern France forests: 8 from the Chambord forest and 7 from the Compiègne forest (Natural habitat) and 6 archaeological specimens from the

Mesolithic contexts (Meso) of Noyen sur Seine (Mordant et al., 2013, Marinval-Vigne et al., 1989) in Northern France (Table 1).The six archaeological specimens from Meolithic deposits have been accumulated by hunter-gatherer living in Western Europe before the Neolithic dispersal via the Mediterranean and Danubian pathways which have introduced domestic pigs from the Near East (Larson 2006) and interbred with local populations of wild boars (Frantz et al. 2020). Two specimens have been collected from the Middle Mesolithic radiocarbon dated between -8000 and -7300 cal. BP and four specimens from the Final Mesolithic dated between -7000 and -6200 cal. BP (Mordant et al., 2013). All the specimens bar the archaeological specimens could have associated age and sex informations. 3 of the archaeological calcanei belong to adults specimens since they have their proximal epiphysis known to fuse around 2 years in wild boars (Bridault et al., 2000).

Data acquisition

All the calcaneus of the dataset have been scanned by high resolution microtomography (EasyTom 40-150 scanner, RX Solutions) at the MRI platform, hosted at ISEM, University of Montpellier (UMR 5554); reconstructions were then performed using X-Act (RX Solutions).

Virtual thin sections

For qualitative comparisons, three virtual sections (Fig. 2, Appendix 1,2 and 3) were made for each calcaneus, following Barone (2017) for terminology and orientations. The bones were oriented as follows: in dorsal view (Fig. 2a), bone’s axis is vertical and the fibular trochlea is oriented toward the observer, its dorsal part aligns with the contour of the bone's medial border; in medial view (Fig. 2b) the *sustentaculum tali* is directed towards the observer, the observation angle is fixed when the anterior edge of the fibular trochlea is no longer visible upon rotation from the anterior view to the medial view. Sagittal sections (SS) run in dorsal view from the distal end tip and the midpoint of the thickness at the proximal epiphysis base (Fig. 2). The frontal sections (FS) extend from the distal end tip to the midpoint of the proximal epiphysis base (see purple arrows on Fig. 2b). Cross-sections (TS) are taken perpendicular to the FS plane at 1/3 of the total length of the bone (from the proximal epiphysis tip to the distal tip) (Fig. 2). These sectional planes were chosen to depict large portions of the bone in order to analyze the microanatomical structure (e.g., trabecular network, cortical thickness) while being easily created with good reproducibility for all specimens. Virtual sections were created using VGSTUDIO MAX, versions 2.2 (Volume Graphics Inc.).

Calcaneus 3D mapping

To observe and measure the thickness variations of the compact cortex along the calcaneus, bone tissue was segmented (excluding soft tissue and cavities) using image data reconstructed with Avizo 9.4 (VSG, Burlington, MA, USA). Then, we isolated the outer cortex from the trabecular bone, limited by the inner surface of the cortex for each bone. This segmentation step was done manually with a combination of Avizo's "remove islands" (to eliminate isolated volumes that are too small) and "smooth labels" (to connect the slices selection more realistically) functions to optimize the segmentation repeatability and consistency. Then, the distances between the inner and outer surfaces of the cortex were calculated in Avizo 9.4 using the "surface distance" function. Finally, a distance isosurface was obtained with a colour gradient that appears on the external surface of the bone (Fig. 4; Appendix 4). This colour gradient showing the relative variation of cortical thickness within each bone, is specific to each specimen since it varies between the minimum and maximum cortical thicknesses, warmer colours being used for higher thicknesses, and colder colours for lower thicknesses. Therefore, two specimens with similar colorimetry may have different absolute cortical thicknesses.

Quantitative parameters

Quantitative parameters used to characterize the internal structure of the bones are: (1) cortex/medullary area volumes, (2) overall bone and trabecular tissue compactness, and average

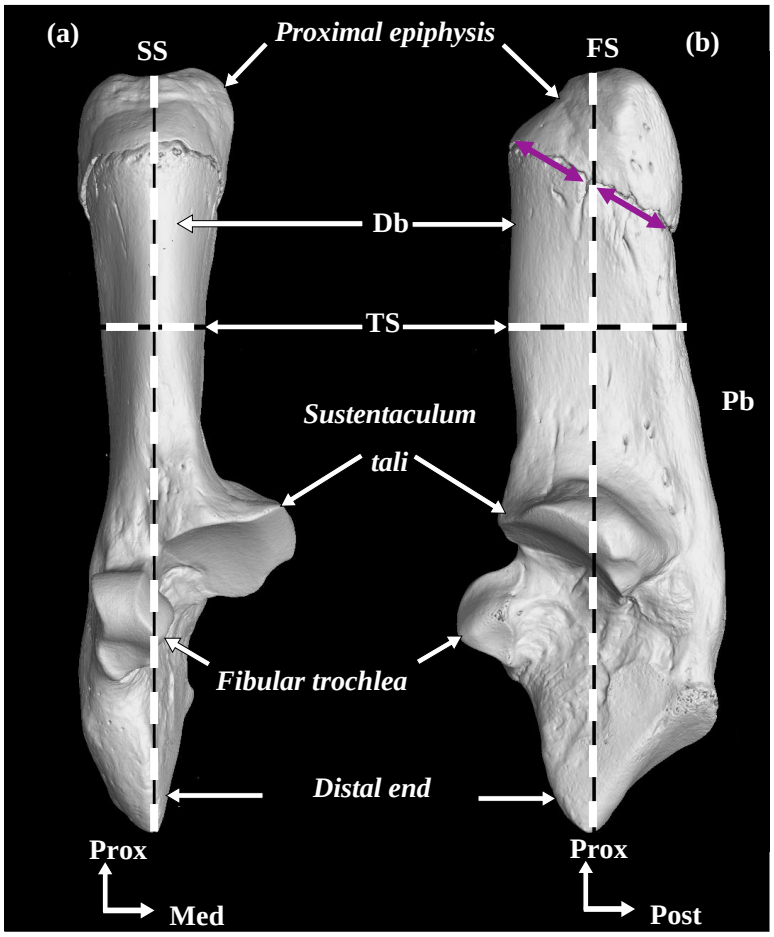

Fig. 2 Calcaneum of *Sus scrofa*, specimen 2017-3703 illustrating the planes of the virtual sections: SS, Sagital section; FS, Frontal section; TS, Transverse section. Db, Dorsal border; Pb, Plantar border. Purple arrows indicate the midpoint of the proximal epiphysis base.

and (3) maximum cortical thicknesses following Houssaye et al. (2021). Most are ratios produced using the volume values obtained from the "material statistics" function in Avizo after the segmentation and cortex isolation steps. The parameters used in the statistical analyses in this study are:

1) whole bone volume in mm^3 (WBV), as an indicator of size; 2) bone compactness (C= bone tissue volume*100/WBV); 3) relative trabecular bone tissue fraction (%Trab = trabecular bone tissue volume*100/bone tissue volume); 4) trabecular compactness (Tc= trabecular bone tissue*100/trabecular volume). From the mean (MeanT) and maximum (MaxT) cortical thicknesses that were obtained directly in Avizo 9.4 using the 'distance' function were calculated 5) RMaxT and 6) RMeanT, relative maximum and mean thicknesses, by dividing MaxT and MeanT by a mean radius r, obtained from the whole bone volume and considering that the calcanea are cylinders (as $v=\pi r^2 h$, $r= \sqrt{(v /h\pi)}$).

Table. 1 List of material and different parameters used in this study where each row corresponds to a specimen. Ctxt, Context; Prov, Provenance; WBV, total bone volume mm3; C, compactness ratio; %Trab, percentage of trabecular bone volume to cortical bone volume; TC, trabecular compactness; RMeanT, mean relative cortex thickness; RMaxT, maximum relative cortex thickness. Nh, Natural habitat; St, Experimental stall; Co, Experimental control; M, Mesolithic; P, Experimental pen; Comp, Compiègne; Cham, Chambord; Noy2/3, Noyen-sur-seine 2/3; Urc, Urcier.

Ctxt	Prov	Sex	Age (month)	Weight (kg)	WBV (mm3)	C	%Trab	TC	RMeanT	RMaxT
Nh	Comp	F	10	77	15252	81	28	57	0,08	0,34
Nh	Comp	M	13	64	18441	73	43	56	0,05	0,19
Nh	Comp	M	18	113	20011	83	27	61	0,10	0,44
Nh	Comp	F	12	61	16112	85	31	67	0,09	0,39
Nh	Comp	M	17	86	20892	82	35	65	0,08	0,32
Nh	Cham	F	36	52	11552	81	40	64	0,07	0,19
Nh	Cham	M	72	123	19932	87	30	68	0,10	0,31
Nh	Comp	F	18	61	14069	86	35	69	0,08	0,34
Nh	Comp	.	2	.	866	82	56	72	0,04	0,13
Nh	Cham	F	17	.	8541	65	51	51	0,07	0,21
Nh	Cham	F	18	.	13125	70	35	49	0,07	0,28
Nh	Cham	F	20	.	11478	78	36	59	0,07	0,22
Nh	Cham	F	18	.	13698	71	41	53	0,05	0,15
Nh	Cham	F	19	.	12480	78	26	50	0,09	0,17
Nh	Cham	F	19	NA	10870	77	31	55	0,08	0,29
St	LHT	F	25	91	13301	73	59	78	0,06	0,19
St	LHT	F	25	62	9179	75	42	60	0,06	0,20
St	LHT	F	25	67	13416	78	42	62	0,06	0,18
St	LHT	F	25	89	15853	73	39	53	0,05	0,19
St	LHT	F	25	5	15059	73	39	54	0,07	0,17
St	LHT	F	25	91	12971	79	34	59	0,08	0,30
P	LHT	M	25	84	14344	75	34	53	0,07	0,22
P	LHT	F	25	92	15051	84	36	68	0,09	0,26
P	LHT	F	25	54	16201	85	33	69	0,09	0,36
P	LHT	M	25	67	14028	76	34	54	0,08	0,22
St	LHT	M	25	84	20258	79	49	66	0,06	0,18
St	LHT	M	25	89	22432	73	37	57	0,07	0,22
St	LHT	M	25	78	20155	81	44	70	0,07	0,21
St	LHT	M	25	96	22497	74	41	58	0,07	0,21
St	LHT	M	25	73	19239	72	42	55	0,06	0,18
P	LHT	M	25	91	19452	82	37	66	0,07	0,24
P	LHT	F	25	67	15750	77	33	54	0,07	0,22
P	LHT	M	25	84	21659	74	37	55	0,08	0,27
P	LHT	M	25	90	18859	71	31	47	0,07	0,25
P	LHT	M	25	87	19942	75	37	54	0,07	0,22
P	LHT	M	25	92	20783	77	33	56	0,08	0,26
Co	Urc	M	20	53	13733	76	46	61	0,05	0,19
Co	Urc	M	8	35	13711	71	55	60	0,04	0,17
Co	Urc	M	20	52	14446	77	50	64	0,05	0,22
Co	Urc	F	84	110	24561	65	64	56	0,04	0,14
Co	Urc	F	96	60	16299	79	49	66	0,06	0,19
M	Noy3	.	.	.	15154	73	43	55	0,04	0,27
M	Noy3	.	.	.	16109	67	50	54	0,05	0,23
M	Noy3	.	.	.	16144	76	54	79	0,07	0,26
M	Noy3	.	.	.	34372	75	36	55	0,06	0,26
M	Noy2	.	.	.	23577	88	20	64	0,13	0,48
M	Noy2	.	.	.	25740	76	30	51	0,08	0,26

Statistical analysis

A linear regression model ("lm" function of the "stats" package) as well as a regression coefficient ("cor" function of the "stats" package) were used to assess the linear relationships between the variables (1) whole bone volume (WBV; considered as an estimate of bone size), (2) weight, and (3) age of each individual with all the other quantitative parameters used (Table 2). To explore the distribution of specimens based on their quantitative microanatomical parameters and the variation patterns, we performed a standardized Principal Component Analyses (PCA; "dudi.pca" function of the ade4 package; David and Jacobs 2014).

In order to estimate the role of factors such as Sex (male/female/indeterminate), origin (Compiègne/ Chambord/ Urcier/ La Haute Touche/ Noyen sur Seine) and mobility status (Natural habitat /Experimental control/ Experimental pen/ Experimental stall/Mesolithic wild boars) in the variation of the quantitative microanatomical parameters, we used analyses of variance (ANOVA; function "anova_test" of the "rstatix" package) after checking the conditions of normality (function "shapiro_test" of the "rstatix" package) and homogeneity of variances (function "levene_test" of the "rstatix" package). When overall difference is significant, we computed pairwise comparison tests using Tukey hsd tests ("tukey_hsd" function of the "rstatix" package). When the variables did not meet the conditions of homogeneity of variances and/or normality, we used the kruskal-Wallis test (function "Kruskal_test" of the "rstatix" package), a non-parametric alternative to ANOVA. When this test is significant, a Dunn's test ("dunn_test (p.adjust.method="bonferroni")" function of the "rstatix" package) is used to compare pairwise differences between the groups concerned.

MANOVA ("res.man" function) was also used to test the overall difference in microanatomical variables between mobility contexts. Statistical tests and graphical representations were performed in R (R Core Team. 2017) using the Rstudio software (see appendix 5 and 6 for the script and the data table).

Results

Qualitative descriptions

General microanatomical pattern

The general microanatomical pattern of the wild boar calcaneus is close to the structure of long bones of terrestrial mammals, with the cortex forming a tubular diaphysis but with a very short diaphyseal part (sections Fig. 3). The proximal epiphysis is not fused to the rest of the bone for the most part of the specimens, except for the oldest. The cortex surrounds cancellous bone (trabecular bone and intertrabecular spaces), which is essentially quite dense, and a small open

medullary cavity, about 1cm (Pradat187; Fig. 3c,h) to 2 cm long (2013-1286; Fig. 3d,i) and 1 cm wide, at the level of the *Sustentaculum tali* (FigXa-j). The thickness of the trabeculae is relatively homogeneous along the calcaneus, except around the medullary cavity where they are generally thicker (Fig. 3a-j). Also, the trabecular density is heterogeneous with some specimens having many trabeculae (2017-570; Fig. 3b,g,l) while others have twice as less but thicker trabeculae (2013-1286; Fig. 3 d,I,n). Finally, the bone density in the distal part strongly varies between individuals from compact (2017-570; Fig. 3b,g) to spongious (Calc2139; Fig. 3e,j).

Sagittal sections

In all specimens, the dorsal and plantar margins (Db and Pb) show a relatively high cortical thickness, especially at mid-diaphysis. Spongiosa show anisotropic trabeculae (i.e. with a preferential direction) above the medullary cavity in the bone center (Fig. 3a-e). Anisotropic trabeculae follow the two main directions that are represented with green/outline arrows in the figure 3a and schematized with intersecting lines on figure 1. The cortical thicknesses of the plantar and dorsal margins vary from thick (2017-570; Fig. 3b) to proportionally twice as thin (Pradat187; Fig. 3c). A variation in the cortical thickness of the plantar border of the proximal epiphysis is also observed, it is very thin (1mm) in some specimens like Pradat 187 (Fig. 3c) while others, such as 2017-555 (Fig. 3a), show a clear thickening of the cortex (2mm) in this area. Similarly, bone density is compact like as cortex next to the fibular trochlea for numerous specimens (Calc2139; Fig. 3e) or rather spongious for some individuals (2013-1286; Fig. 3d).

Frontal sections

All individuals have a cortex that varies relatively little in thickness (about 2-3mm) on the medial and lateral sides (Fig. 3f-e). In contrast, the cortical thickness in the proximal epiphysis varies from thin (2013-1286; Fig. 3i) to twice thicker (2017-555; Fig. 3a). Similarly, the compactness and the cortical thickness of the *sustentaculum tali* varies between individuals, some of which show compact bone and thick cortex (Padat187; Fig. 3h) while others show spongious bone and thin cortex (2013-1286; Fig. 3i).

Transverse sections

The sections shape is generally oval and elongate (2017-555; Fig. 3k) but several specimens present a rounder section (2017-570; Fig. 3l). The cortical thickness is fairly constant across

the sections, but some specimen show a cortical thickening at the plantar border (2013-1286; Fig. 3n).

None of the variation observed between specimens is clearly associated to any main parameter of the study, namely the context, provenance, sex, size or weight.

Fig. 3 Virtual thin sections of the calcaneus of boars, a,f,k, 2017-555 (Experimental stall); b,g,l 2017-570 (Experimental pen); c,h,m Pradat187 (Experimental control); d,i,n, 2013-1286 (Natural habitat); e,j,o, Calc2139 (Mesolithic). Db, Dorsal border; De, Distal end; Ft, Fibular trochlea; Pb, Plantar border; Pe, Proximal epiphysis; St, *Sustentaculu tali*. Scale bars of sagittal and frontal sections equal 2 cm; Scale bars of transverse sections equal 1 cm.

3D mapping of the cortical thickness

The 3D mappings of the cortical thickness and its variation across each bone, are quite similar between specimens (Appendix 1). In agreement with the observation of the virtual sections, there is a fairly extensive area with greater cortical thickness at the plantar border of the calcaneus (Pb; Fig. 4A). Although generally less extensive, thickenings of the cortex can also be noted on the dorsal margin (Db) and on the dorsal base of the *sustentaculum tali* (Sb; Fig. 4B). There is little thickening of the cortex on the proximal end (Pe). Finally, there is no lateral or medial thickening noted.

25 of the 47 specimens show strong cortical thickening at the plantar margin (Pb; Appendix 1), like in 2017-568 (Fig. 4A), this is less visible in the 22 others, like Pradat 185 and 2013-1264 (Fig. 4D; Fig. 4G). 23 specimens have thick cortical bone at the dorsal margin (Db; Table 1; Appendix 1), like in Pradat 185 and 2017-568 boars (Fig. 4B and Fig. 4E), whereas the others do not show such thickening like the calcaneus of boar 2013-1264 (Fig. 4H). 28 specimens show a relative thickening at the base of the sustentaculum (Sb; Table 1), this widening is particularly noticeable in boar 2013-1264 (Fig. 4H) and absent in others like Pradat 185 (Fig. 4E). A slight recurrent cortical thickening on the distal end is observed for a part of the specimens like 2017-568 (Fig. 4a). 27 specimens have a slightly thicker cortex on the proximal end (Pe) such as 2017-568 (Fig. 4C), 15 show no or very little thickening, such as Pradat185 and 2013-1264, respectively (Fig. 4F and Fig. 4I). 4 of the proximal ends of the Mesolithic specimens were not found because they were not fused to the rest of the bone.

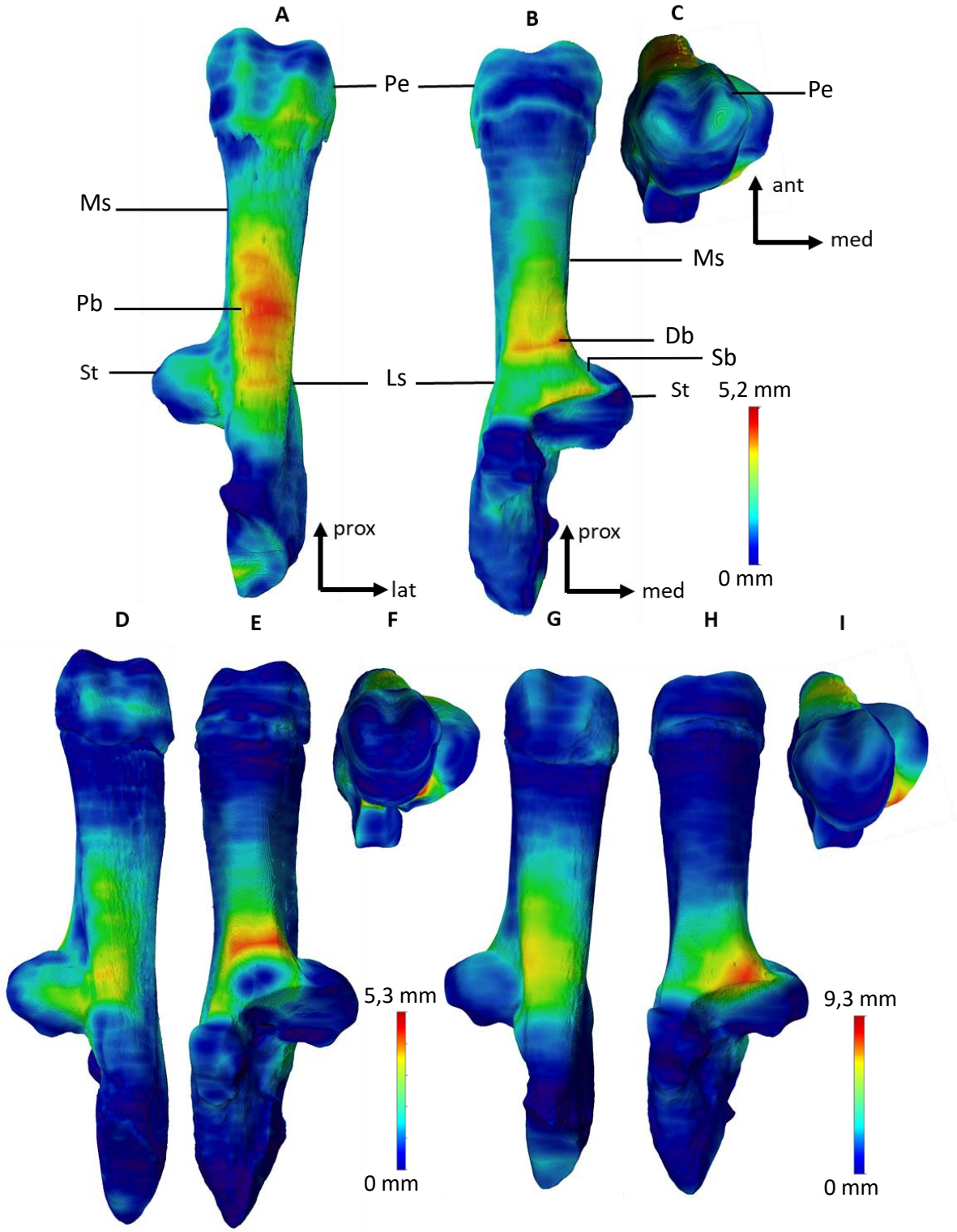

Fig. 4 3D mappings of the *Sus scrofa* calcaneus relative cortical thickness. A-C specimen 2017-568; D-F Pradat 185; G-I 2013-1264. Anatomical abbreviations: Db, dorsal border; Ls, lateral side; Ms, medial side; Pb, plantar border; Pe, proximal epiphysis; Sb, Sustentaculum base; St, *Sustentaculum tali*. D, A and G are in plantar view; E, B and H are in dorsal view; F and I and C are in posterior view. Abbreviations for orientations, prox, proximal; lat, lateral; med, medial; post, posterior; ant, anterior.

Quantitative analyses

Microanatomical covariation with Weight, age size and sex.

The Whole bone volume (WBV) is expectedly only correlated to the body weight and the PCA axes (Table. 2). Only %Trab is significantly correlated with specimen age with a slight increase in the proportion of trabecular bone over cortical bone as boars get older (r=0.32).

Variables C, %Trab, RMeanT, RMaxT, weight, and TC did not differ between males and females. Only whole calcaneus volume (WBV) variation differs with sex (Kruskal Wallis: $p<0.01$) with males larger than females (Fig. 6). Mesolithic specimens (sex unknown) have larger calcanea than present-day males (Dunn's test: $p<0.01$).

Patterns of calcanei microanatomical variations and mobility contexts

Specimen 2013-1287, corresponding to the youngest individual (2 months), was removed before performing PCA (n=46; Fig. 5) and other quantitative analyses. Axes 1 and 2 of the PCA explain 75.3% of the total variance. Furthermore, contribution of the variables to the axes (Fig.

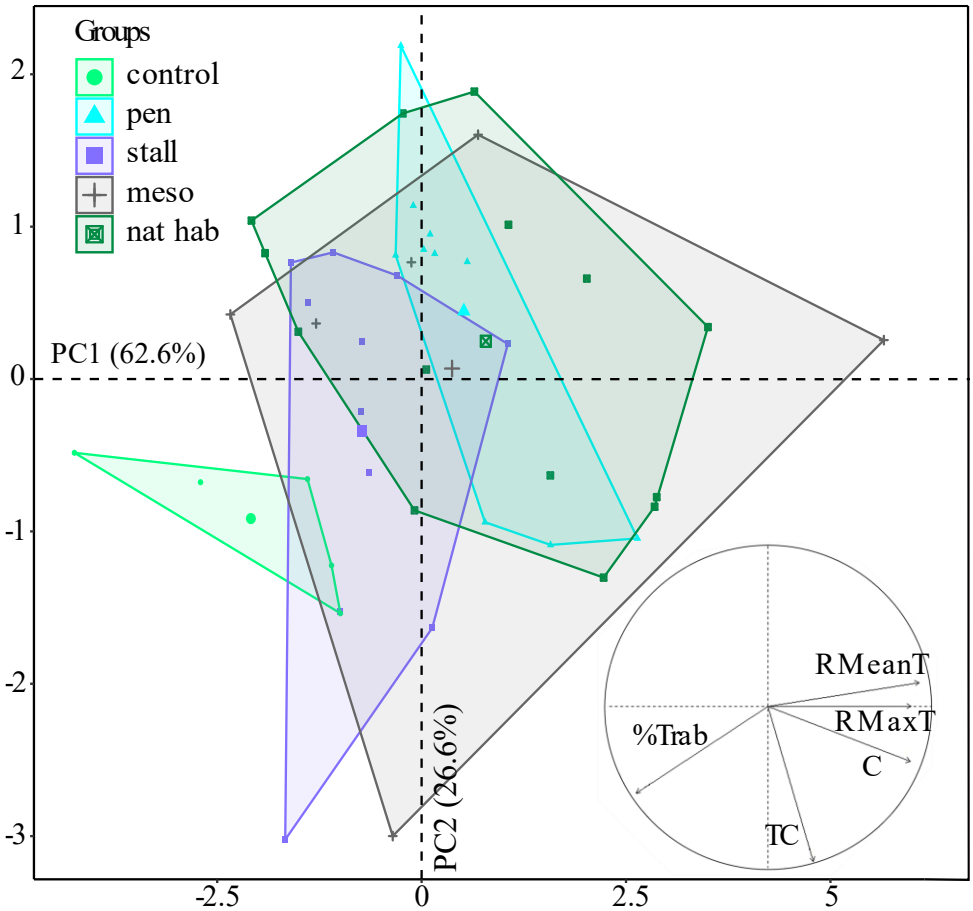

Fig. 5 Distribution of the 46 specimens and their associated context groups on the first two axes of the PCA computed on: WBV, total bone volume; RMeanT, relative mean bone thickness; RMaxT, relative maximum bone thickness; C, compactness ratio; TC, trabecular compactness ratio; %Trab, percentage of trabecular bone volume to cortical bone volume. meso, Mesolithic; nat hab, Natural habitat.

5), show that RMeanT and RMaxT covary while WBV and %Trab vary in opposite ways. The first axis is influenced by the cortical thickness (TC), %Trab and C, while only TC greatly structures the second axis. WBV is correlated with the PCA axes whereas age, weight and the microanatomical parameters are not (table 2). The different mobility contexts induce significant microanatomical differences (MANOVA: p-value<0.01). On the PCA (figure 5), experimental penned, stalled and control wild boars are quite distinct along PC1, whereas the Mesolithic specimens of Noyen-sur-Seine covers almost all variation along PC1. Differences across the locomotor contexts are observed for RMeanT (Kruskal Wallis: p<0.01), RMaxT (Kruskal Wallis: p<0.01) and %Trab (Kruskal Wallis: p<0.01). RMeanT differences are significant between wild boars from the Natural habitat and the Experimental control groups (Dunn test: p<0.01) and between Experimental control and Experimental pen groups (Dunn's test: p<0.01). RMaxT is significantly different between Experimental control and Mesolithic wild boars (Dunn's test: p<0.01). %Trab is significant different between Experimental control and natural habitat (Dunn's test: p<0.01) and between Experimental pen and control (Dunn's test: p<0.01). Thus, the pen-reared boars have a higher average cortex thickness (RMeanT) than the control group, for which, conversely, it is the percentage of trabecular bone (%Trab) that is higher (Fig.

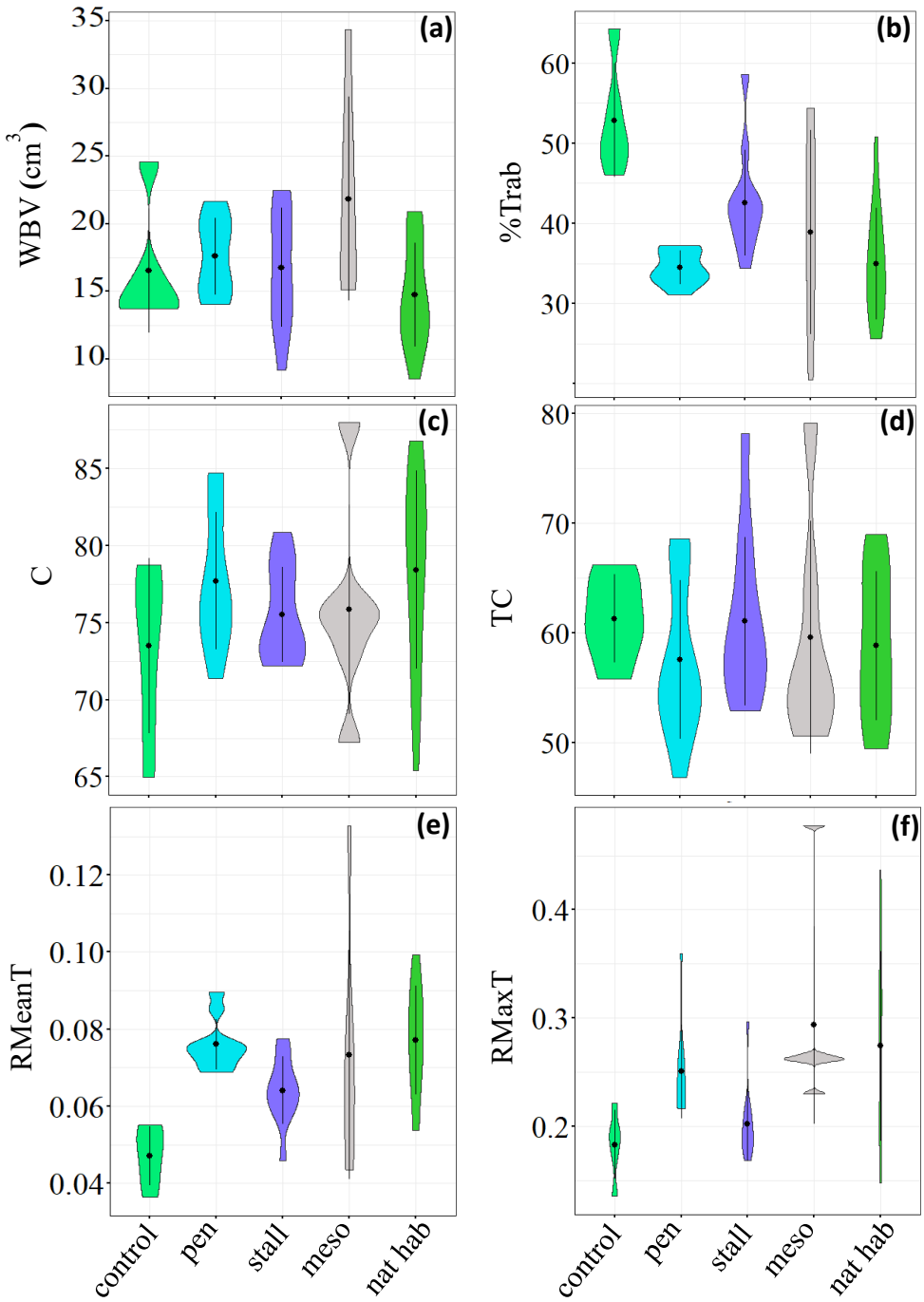

Fig. 6 Calcaneus microanatomical variation in *Sus scrofa* from experimental populations and Mesolithic contexts. WBV, whole bone volume; RMeanT, relative mean cortical thickness; RMaxT, relative maximum cortical thickness; C, compactness ratio; TC, trabecular compactness ratio; %Trab, percentage of trabecular bone volume to cortical bone volume. meso, Mesolithic; nat hab, Natural habitat.

6). The stall group had intermediate RMeanT, RMaxT and %Trab values compared to the pen and control groups. In addition, there is a generally greater standard deviation in the Natural habitat and Mesolithic groups for all parameters, except TC, for which individuals in the stall group are slightly more dispersed than those in the Natural habitat group. On the other hand, no group is distinguished along PC2, the variables C and TC did not vary according to context

(ANOVA; p-value C =0.39; p-value TC =0.82; Fig. 6); Finally, the whole volume (WBV) of the calcaneus differed between groups (ANOVA: p=0.04) but only the difference between hunted Mesolithic and modern wild boars in their natural habitat was significant (Tukey hsd test: p=0.02; Fig. 6), with Mesolithic individuals being larger.

Discussion

1.Overall calcaneal microanatomy in wild and captive wild boars

The qualitative description of the 3D maps and virtual thin sections identified a strong cortical thickening on the plantar and dorsal borders (Pb and Db; Fig. 4). These observations are consistent with the main constraints identified in the calcaneus of artiodactyls with significant compression, bending, and tension forces on the plantar and dorsal borders Lanyon (1973; Fig. 1). Thickenings of the plantar and dorsal margins have also been identified for wild deers (Skedros et al., 2001) and pasture-raised domestic sheeps (Skedros et al., 2007). Moreover, the anisotropric properties of the boar specimens trabeculae to follow an antero-posterior orientations (outline arrows Fig. 3a) are congruent with the distribution of constraints mentioned above, as internal bone structure organized itself to better respond to stress (Wolff, 1986; Ruff et al., 2006; Van der Meulen et al., 2006).

Although the entheses (i.e., areas of ligament and tendon insertion (Djukic et al., 2015)) are regions of stress concentration, these areas show little or no effect on the microanatomy of boar calcaneus. The loads applied to the calcaneus of artiodactyls are primarily shared between the long plantar ligament and the Achilles tendon, which connects the calcaneus to the gastrocnemius and soleus muscles, the latters forming the sural triceps (Lanyon,1973; Woo et al., 1981; Skedros et al., 2001; Skedros et al., 2007; Barone, 2020). However, while the long plantar ligament attaches all along the plantar border, only a part of this edge is thickened in the boar calcaneus. Furthermore, an important thickening of similar proportion is also observed on the dorsal edge whereas this bone side shows no enthesis. The Achilles tendon insertion at the proximal end of the calcaneus is itself covered by a tendinous structure, the calcaneus cap of the superficial flexor digitorum muscle (*m. flexor superficialis*), taking an attachment point from the tip of the proximal end of the calcaneus to phalanges (Su et al., 1999; Barone, 2017; Fig. 1). A slight cortical thickening on the proximal epiphysis of our specimens coincides with the insertion of the tendons of the *m. flexor superficialis* muscles of the toes and of the *m. gastrocnemius* muscles (Bénévent & Bressot, 1968; Barone 2017).

Regarding the articular surfaces, the *sustentaculum tali* is a strong protuberance on the medial side forming an articular surface with the talus, the fibular trochlea is an articular surface for the malleolar bone and the end of the distal part articulate with the cuboid bone (Barone, 2017), recurrent slight cortical thickening are also observed on those regions.

Overall, the microanatomy seems to reflect the tension and compression forces with a strong cortical thickening on Pb and Db as well as the anisotropy of the trabeculae. The areas of contact with other bones are also represented with important bone density on the fibular trochlea, the *sustentaculum tali* and the end of the distal part.

2.Intra individual variation in calcaneal Microanatomy

Beyond the general pattern, no clear relationship is observed between the variability of the microanatomical parameters and the factors explored in this study (context, sex, weight, size). However, we found important inter-individual differences, notably on the extent and depth of the cortical thickness of the plantar and dorsal edges, and on the proximal epiphysis; the length of the medullary cavity; the number and thickness of the trabeculae; the bone tissue density of the *sustentaculum tali*, at the distal part of the bone and next to the fibular trochlea; and the transverse sectional shape. This suggest that other factors influencing the bone development during the growth must be explored to further understand this inter individual disparity.

Only a few correlations (positive or negative) of the microanatomical variables with the bone size, weight and age of the individuals (Table 2), are significant. These three parameters therefore have a limited impact on the microanatomical organisation. The body weight is only correlated with the bone size (WBV). WBV influences the PCA axes (Table 2) while, paradoxically, bone size is not directly correlated with any of the microanatomic variables in isolation, which is congruent with the observations of the sections and 3D maps that have not found any link between specimens' size and their microanatomy. Thus, it is the covariation between the variables that are themselves weakly correlated with whole volume that makes the relationship between whole volume and all variables significant. Nevertheless, although age is not one of the parameters on which this study focuses, a weak correlation was found between age and the trabecular percentage (%Trab; r=0.32) but trabecular percentage is not significantly correlated with bone size since age and bone size are neither significantly correlated. The increase in the proportion of trabecular bone tissue with age is not related to an increase in trabecular compactness (TC) because this parameter is not significantly correlated with age (p=0.29); the volume of the medullary zone tends to increase since the cortex becomes proportionally thinner. This result is surprising because the opposite phenomenon occurs in the

calcaneus of deer (Skedros et al., 2001) and sheep (Skedros et al., 2007), where a thickening of the cortex is observed with size in relation to the medullary zone. Conversely, while it is surprising that age does not correlate with whole bone volume (WBV; Table2), this shows that age and volume do not follow a linear relationship or that intraspecific variability in calcaneus size between specimens exceeds the effect of growth. However, our sample does not adequately test the relationship between the variables and ontogeny because of the large proportion of individuals of the same age (25 months).

3.Change in mobility regime and calcaneal Microanatomy

Despite the lack of directly observable influence of the mobility context over the calcaneal microanatomy, we found quantitative effect of mobility differences in the cortical thickness (RmeanT and RmaxT), trabecular percentage (%Trab) and in the overall variation patterns (PCA), indicating that difference in mobility context influences the microanatomical characteristics of the calcaneus, although not in a strongly discriminatory pattern. However, we didn't find the expected microanatomical proximity of wild boars living in their natural habitat and their dissimilarity from wild boars kept in captivity, as seen in previous studies on the calcaneus 3D shape and form (Harbers et al.2020). The variations in relative mean cortical thickness (RMeanT) illustrate the general trend of variations related to the mobility regime (Fig. 6). While we expected to observe similar average thicknesses between animals that had similar mobility conditions (e.g. Natural habitat and Experimental control), we found that control individuals have a much lower cortical thickness than wild individuals from natural habitat. Thus, modern and Mesolithic wild boars hunted in their natural habitat display similar microanatomy with the wild boars which grew in a very small living space (enclosure of 4m2 in a hangar of 100m2.). The most divergent microanatomy from the wild boar norm of reaction have been observed in the control populations from the wild boar farm of Urcier, which have a much lower cortical thickness than wild boars in their natural habitat. All these results suggest that the microanatomy of the *Sus scrofa* calcaneus does not strongly reflect the mobility regime, contradicting the strong microanatomical signal associated with locomotor restriction evidenced in battery chickens, including osteoporosis related to inactivity (Rath et al., 2000). However, the locomotor restrictions of these reared animals are generally greater than those imposed on the animals of this study.

4.Greater microanatomical variability in modern and ancient wild boars hunted in their natural habitat

The six Mesolithic calcaneus from the archaeological site of Noyen-sur-Seine show similarity for all parameters and variables with the other groups (Fig. 6). Thus, the Mesolithic calcaneus shares the same micronatomy with their current relative. We also found greater microanatomical variability in hunted wild boars populations both modern and Mesolithic, external factors were much less controlled than for the DOMEXP groups, thus resulting in more elements to affect bone plasticity. In addition, the animals from Compiègne and Chambord (Natural habitat) and NoyenEns2 and NoyenEns3 (archaeology) are different populations for which genetic variability is more important, with a time lag of several centuries in the Mesolithic specimens. This genetic variability is much probably a substantial factor which have a greater impact on the observed phenotype than the intrapopulation variability related to motricity in this study. Consequently, when several populations are included in the same group (Natural habitat and Mesolithic), their variability exceeds that observed between the same population placed in different locomotor contexts (stall, pen, control). Thus, the microanatomy of the calcaneus appears to be more affected by population differences than by the locomotor context in which the animals grew.

In addition to this explanation, the wider locomotor regime of wild boars in their natural habitat would foster greater ecophenotypic variation compared to captive specimens with reduced mobility and more stereotypical locomotor behaviour. One the one hand, wild boars in nature have a locomotor repertoire that must respond to several problems that are not encountered in captivity, such as foraging or escape (Spitz & Janeau, 1990, 1995). Their daily travel is generally less than 10km but it could be up to 80 km in one night (Keuling et al., 2009), peak speeds of 40 km/h and high jumps up to 1.5 m have also been observed (Baskin & Danell, 2003). One the other hand, there is no study describing the skeletal repercussion of stereotypic behaviours. However, because these types of behaviours performed to compensate for lack of activity are induced during significant psychological depressions in individuals (Rushen, 1993; Andre, 2007), other experimental approaches involving living specimens are not desirable.

quantifying

Also, Diet plays an important role in the development of the skeleton (Randoin & Causeret, 1945). Experimental specimens were fed nutritionally balanced pellets (15% protein) intended for pig breeding to ensure consistent growth and bone formation. In their natural habitat, food availability, seasonal and geographical variations are major factors influencing food selection

by wild boar (Ballari, & Barrios-García, 2014), Thus, it is probable that the diet factor also contributes to the high variability observed in hunted individuals. Furthemore, it is likely that there are differences in substrates between the forests and areas in which these boars lived; this may have important implications for the autopod (Kappelman, 1988). Indeed, the substrate factor seems potentially important for the stall-reared group where the flat ground, was covered with moss and straw mats, whereas the more irregular natural terrain of wild boars (like control group) implies variable and multidirectional soil reaction forces (Hanot et al., 2017). The group of pens was raised on a flat terrain covered with grass and a few trees.

The overview of the different studies related to the DOMEXP project provides arguments to consider that the bone plasticity associated with domestication is expressed to a greater or lesser extent depending on the bones studied, and the most surprising result is that it is more expressed in the morphology of the calcaneus than in its microanatomy, whereas the latter is considered to be more plastic than the morphology. Since the results of the study show that boars living in completely different contexts can have the same microanatomical pattern/values, calcaneal microanatomy cannot be used to infer a captive lifestyle. However, a strong diversity is noted in the microanatomy between wild and Mesolithic specimens. A better understanding of the factors that regulate this diversity would possibly allow inferences related to the habitat (type of soil, open or closed environment) or what the animals are/were fed on.

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