

## Comparative analyses of semen and endocrine characteristics of free-living versus captive jaguars (*Panthera onca*)

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Semen and blood samples were obtained from free-living ( $n = 6$ ) and captive ( $n = 8$ ) jaguars (*Panthera onca*) to compare reproductive characteristics between the two populations. Semen samples were analysed for volume (ml), percentage of motile spermatozoa, rate of forward progression (0–5), concentration ( $10^6 \text{ ml}^{-1}$ ), total sperm count ( $10^6$ ) and sperm morphology. Serum testosterone concentration was determined by radioimmunoassay. Although ejaculate volume was greater in captive jaguars ( $n = 47$  samples) than in free-living jaguars ( $n = 7$  samples) ( $P < 0.05$ ), the free-living jaguars produced more total spermatozoa ( $59.3 \pm 12.8$  versus  $152.0 \pm 88.0 \times 10^6$ ,

respectively; not significant) with better viability and forward progression ( $2.8 \pm 0.1$  versus  $3.5 \pm 0.2$ , respectively;  $P < 0.05$ ) and more spermatozoa with normal morphology ( $73.5 \pm 3.9$  versus  $5.0 \pm 1.1\%$ , respectively;  $P < 0.05$ ). Serum testosterone concentrations were similar for captive and free-living male jaguars ( $3.1 \pm 0.7$  and  $2.1 \pm 0.8 \text{ ng ml}^{-1}$ , respectively). In summary, the data showed that semen may be collected successfully from free-living jaguars and evaluated under field conditions to establish normative reproductive values in this species. The results also indicate that jaguars maintained in zoos show inferior seminal characteristics compared with free-living animals.

### Introduction

The jaguar (*Panthera onca*), the largest cat of the Americas, is a focal species for conservationists involved in planning and managing neotropical wildlife reserves. Survival requirements for jaguars encompass multiple factors that are also essential for maintaining an ecologically healthy environment (Miller and Rabinowitz, in press). Jaguars have a broad distribution throughout Central and South America (Nowell and Jackson, 1996). In Brazil, the range of jaguars comprises five distinct ecosystems: rainforest, cerrado (savannah), pantanal (wetland), tropical forest and subtropical forest (Oliveira, 1994). Habitat loss and reduction of jaguar populations in several of these ecosystems have been severe (Leite and Boulhosa, in press; Silveira and Jacomo, in press). In 1994, international experts agreed that, by Mace–Lande criteria (Mace and Lande, 1991), jaguar populations were at the critical level in the cerrado, tropical forest and subtropical forest regions (South American Felid Conservation Assessment and Management Plan, 1994).

It is possible that jaguar populations are losing genetic

diversity and their reproductive potential may be affected as a consequence, as reported for cheetahs (*Acinonyx jubatus*) (Wildt *et al.*, 1987a), lions (*Panthera leo*) (Wildt *et al.*, 1987b) and Florida panthers (Roelke *et al.*, 1993). During a recent international meeting of specialists, a comprehensive strategy for jaguar conservation was proposed and it included captive breeding and the use of assisted reproductive techniques to help manage this species genetically (Medellin *et al.*, in press). Captive breeding programmes may be useful for maintaining an insurance population against extinction. However, optimizing captive propagation and ensuring equal founder representation depends on all genetically valuable individuals displaying adequate reproductive function in captivity. In a retrospective survey, the Brazilian Zoological Society observed that only 4% of the jaguars in captivity have reproduced in the last 10 years (Paz, 2000). However, the reasons for reproductive failure have not been investigated. Information from wild populations is necessary for comparative purposes to assess the normality of reproductive traits in captive animals (Wildt *et al.*, 1987b).

In addition, establishing gene flow between free-living and captive populations may help to maintain adequate genetic heterozygosity. Assisted reproductive techniques, such as

semen cryopreservation, artificial insemination (AI), *in vitro* fertilization (IVF) and embryo transfer (ET), can potentially improve genetic exchange between populations, as demonstrated by assisted reproduction in several cat species (Wildt and Roth, 1997). These techniques can also contribute to preserving free-living species through the development of a biological resource bank containing germ plasma, blood products, tissues and DNA (Wildt, 1994). However, information about reproductive characteristics in jaguars and other neotropical felids is extremely limited, and there is no knowledge of reproductive parameters in free-living populations. The objectives of this study were: (i) to examine the seminal and endocrine characteristics of free-living jaguars; and (ii) to compare reproductive characteristics between free-living and captive jaguar populations.

## Materials and Methods

### Animals

All free-living jaguars were captured in accordance with the Brazilian Institute of Environmental Resources (IBAMA) legal requirements (licences 115, 196). Captive jaguars were restrained in accordance with the internal committees of Fundação Parque Zoológico de São Paulo (São Paulo Zoo) and Parque Zoológico Municipal 'Quinzinho de Barros' (Sorocaba Zoo).

### Free-living jaguars

Between October 1995 and June 2000, collection of semen and blood samples was attempted on seven occasions from six free-living jaguars in good body condition. Jaguars were captured, for radiotelemetry studies, using trained hounds ( $n = 5$ ) in the Porto Primavera area (PPP, 22°014'S and 53°43'W,  $n = 4$ ) and Emas National Park (PNE, 18°19'S and 52°45'W,  $n = 1$ ). Jaguars were either chased into a tree or cornered on the ground, and then anaesthetized with a combination of tiletamine and zolazepam (10 mg kg<sup>-1</sup>) (Zoletil 50; Virbac do Brasil, São Paulo, SP) administered via an aluminium dart fired from an air-powered rifle (Cap-chur®; Palmer, GE). Anaesthetized animals were captured either by netting while falling from the tree or after achieving lateral recumbency on the ground. On one occasion at Iguazu National Park (PNI, 25°05'S and 53°40'W,  $n = 1$ ), a jaguar was captured in a box-trap using chicken as bait. Mean ( $\pm$  SD) estimated age (months) of jaguars, based on dentition and tooth wear, was 60  $\pm$  12.

### Captive jaguars

Male jaguars, all captive-born, were maintained in individual cages at São Paulo Zoo ( $n = 5$ ) or paired with a male or female at the Sorocaba Zoo ( $n = 3$ ). Mean ( $\pm$  SD) age (months), based on known dates of birth, was 84  $\pm$  18. All animals were fed a meat-based diet (beef with occasional bones but without vitamin or mineral

supplementation, or organ meat) and provided with water *ad libitum*. Chemical restraint was performed using a protocol similar to that described for free-living animals; however, drug injections were administered using a blow dart system. Seven animals were restrained six times and one animal five times, at 2 month intervals.

### Testicular volume, blood sample collection, electroejaculation and semen evaluation

After chemical restraint, animals were examined to assess body condition. The testicles were palpated to evaluate consistency (flaccid, normal, turgid) and measurements were made of testicular width and length using callipers. These values of length and width were combined to calculate total testicular volume (Howard *et al.*, 1986). Blood samples were collected between 07:00 and 11:30 h by jugular venepuncture immediately before the onset of electroejaculation. Blood samples were centrifuged (800 g, 20 min) and the recovered sera stored at -20°C until hormone analysis by radioimmunoassay.

Semen was collected using a standardized electroejaculation technique (Wildt *et al.*, 1983). In brief, a rectal probe (diameter 2.6 cm; length 29 cm) and portable battery-operated electrostimulator (AC, 60 Hz current; Eletrovet Electronics Equipments, São Paulo, SP) were used to deliver a regimented electroejaculation sequence consisting of a total of 80 stimuli, given in three series of 30, 30 and 20 stimuli with 10 min intervals between series.

Raw semen from each electroejaculation series was evaluated immediately via microscopy ( $\times 200$  magnification) for percentage sperm motility (0–100%) and rate of progressive status, on a scale of 0 (no movement) to 5 (rapid forward movement) (Wildt *et al.*, 1983). The ejaculate fractions from each series were pooled and evaluated for total ejaculate volume. For each ejaculate, a sperm motility index (SMI) was calculated to provide an overall evaluation of sperm motility characteristics (SMI = (percentage sperm motility + (forward progressive motility  $\times$  20))/2; Howard *et al.*, 1990). An aliquot of semen was diluted (1:3) in distilled water to determine sperm concentration in a Neubauer chamber. Sperm morphology evaluations were performed by fixing a 100  $\mu$ l aliquot of semen in 200  $\mu$ l of 10% formalin solution and examining 100–200 individual sperm cells using phase-contrast microscopy ( $\times 1000$ ) (Wildt *et al.*, 1983). Spermatozoa were classified as normal or as having one of the following abnormalities: macrocephalic; microcephalic; bicephalic; malformed head shape; malformed acrosome; mitochondrial sheath aplasia (including segmental or complete aplasia of the mitochondrial sheath); tightly coiled flagellum; biflagellate; bent flagellum; bent neck; bent mid-piece with or without cytoplasmic droplet; and a proximal or distal cytoplasmic droplet (Johnston *et al.*, 1994).

### Radioimmunoassay

Serum testosterone was analysed by radioimmunoassay using the technique described by Lox *et al.* (1974) ( $n = 54$

samples;  $n = 1$  assay). The assay was validated by demonstrating parallelism between dilutions of pooled serum samples and the standard curve ( $y = 1.12x + 0.6$ ,  $r^2 = 0.99$ ). The sensitivity of the assay was approximately  $8.0 \text{ pg ml}^{-1}$ , based on 91% of maximum binding, and the intra-assay coefficient of variation was  $< 10\%$ . All samples were analysed in duplicate.

### Statistical analysis

Values reported are means  $\pm$  SEM. Spearman's correlation analyses were performed to evaluate the relationship between body size, testicular volume, semen characteristics and serum testosterone. The Kruskal–Wallis test was used to assess differences in the reproductive characteristics of the captive and free-living groups.

## Results

The numbers of motile spermatozoa per ejaculate ranged from  $0.3$  to  $291.0 \times 10^6$  for captive jaguars, and from  $1.5$  to  $444.0 \times 10^6$  for free-living jaguars. Free-living male jaguars showed greater ( $P < 0.05$ ) body weight, testicular volume, sperm progressive status and percentage of normal spermatozoa, whereas captive male jaguars produced a greater ( $P < 0.05$ ) ejaculate volume (Table 1). Normal sperm morphology was positively correlated with testicular volume ( $r = 0.29$ ;  $P < 0.05$ ) and negatively correlated with ejaculate volume ( $r = -0.34$ ;  $P < 0.01$ ).

The total proportion of structurally abnormal spermatozoa for the captive and free-living population ranged from  $29.0\%$  to  $65.0\%$  and  $12.0\%$  to  $41.0\%$ , respectively. Overall, for the captive jaguars,  $30.0 \pm 0.9\%$  and  $20.0 \pm 0.9\%$  of the total spermatozoa were classified as primary and secondary pleiomorphic forms, respectively. There was a lower proportion of primary defects in the spermatozoa of the free-living population ( $P < 0.05$ ):  $10.4 \pm 2.6\%$  and  $16.0 \pm 2.6\%$  of all spermatozoa were categorized with primary and secondary abnormalities, respectively (Table 2).

In the captive group, primary abnormalities predominated, usually in the form of spermatozoa with malformed head shape or tightly coiled flagellum (Fig. 1). In the free-living group, secondary abnormalities predominated, mainly as spermatozoa with a bent flagellum combined with a cytoplasmic droplet. The captive group showed greater ( $P < 0.05$ ) proportions of microcephalic or bicephalic spermatozoa, or spermatozoa with a malformed head or acrosome, a tightly coiled flagellum, or a proximal or distal cytoplasmic droplet (Table 2).

Individual analyses of the semen characteristics of the free-living jaguars (based on one sample per male) showed lower values for the two youngest animals (approximately 2.5 and 3.5 years old) compared with those in the older free-living jaguars. In the second electroejaculation attempt of the youngest animal (approximately 2.5 years) 4 months later, sperm motility and progressive status appeared to increase from  $50.0$  to  $90.0\%$  and from  $3.0$  to  $4.0$ , respectively.

Serum testosterone concentrations ranged from  $0.2$  to  $9.2 \text{ ng ml}^{-1}$  for captive jaguars and the mean  $\pm$  SEM for each animal was  $3.5 \pm 0.8 \text{ ng ml}^{-1}$  ( $n = 6$ , range:  $1.1$ – $6.6 \text{ ng ml}^{-1}$ ),  $2.8 \pm 0.6 \text{ ng ml}^{-1}$  ( $n = 6$ , range:  $1.4$ – $5.1 \text{ ng ml}^{-1}$ ),  $2.0 \pm 0.1 \text{ ng ml}^{-1}$  ( $n = 6$ , range:  $1.7$ – $2.4 \text{ ng ml}^{-1}$ ),  $2.0 \pm 0.3 \text{ ng ml}^{-1}$  ( $n = 6$ , range:  $1.2$ – $3.6 \text{ ng ml}^{-1}$ ),  $2.9 \pm 0.6 \text{ ng ml}^{-1}$  ( $n = 6$ , range:  $1.5$ – $5.2 \text{ ng ml}^{-1}$ ),  $7.8 \pm 0.5 \text{ ng ml}^{-1}$  ( $n = 6$ , range:  $5.9$ – $9.2 \text{ ng ml}^{-1}$ ),  $1.2 \pm 0.3 \text{ ng ml}^{-1}$  ( $n = 6$ , range:  $0.2$ – $2.5 \text{ ng ml}^{-1}$ ) and  $2.3 \pm 0.4 \text{ ng ml}^{-1}$  ( $n = 5$ , range:  $1.4$ – $3.5 \text{ ng ml}^{-1}$ ). Serum testosterone concentrations ranged from  $0.1$  to  $5.9 \text{ ng ml}^{-1}$  for free-living jaguars. The average value was similar for captive and free-living jaguars (Table 1).

## Discussion

The results of this study represent the first detailed information on reproductive endocrine characteristics reported for any free-living neotropical felid. The inherent difficulties in collecting physiological data from free-living jaguars are reflected in the small number of samples, representing capture opportunities over a 5 year period for three jaguar radio-tracking projects at different sites in Brazil. Physical capture of free-living jaguars was the major barrier to data acquisition, owing to the remoteness and inaccessibility of remaining jaguar habitat, low jaguar population densities, broad territorial ranges, and the secretive and nocturnal nature of the species (Miller and Rabinowitz, in press). Given these obstacles, if establishing a biological resource bank is a priority for jaguar conservation efforts, it is imperative that biological collection (including semen) is maximized during each capture opportunity.

Semen analyses of free-living jaguars may be useful for assessing the reproductive and genetic health of an individual animal or, in some cases, a population. In particular, a high percentage of pleiomorphic spermatozoa in ejaculates has been associated with low genetic variability in several felid species (Wildt *et al.*, 1983, 1987b; Roelke *et al.*, 1993; Barone *et al.*, 1994). In this study, all free-living jaguars had low percentages (range  $12$ – $41\%$ ) of morphologically abnormal spermatozoa (compared with other free-living cat species), providing one positive indicator of adequate genetic variation in the sampled animals. This observation concurs with those of Johnson *et al.* (in press) who suggested that, in general, reduced heterogeneity does not threaten the future viability of jaguars. However, a decreasing genetic variability has been found in the Porto Primavera area (Eizirik *et al.*, 2001). Abrupt population declines in Iguazu National Park and Emas National Park may have been too recent to observe evidence of inbreeding, loss of genetic diversity or decreased reproductive potential, similar to that documented in Florida panther populations under similar constraints (Roelke *et al.*, 1993). From a conservation perspective, continued monitoring of reproductive and genetic parameters in free-living jaguars may be valuable

**Table 1.** Mean ( $\pm$  sem) values for body weight, testicular volume, semen characteristics and serum testosterone for captive ( $n = 8$ ) and free-living ( $n = 6$ ) male jaguars (*Panthera onca*)

Characteristics	Captive ( $n = 47$ samples)	Free-living ( $n = 7$ samples)
Body weight (kg)	72.0 $\pm$ 11.0 <sup>a</sup>	96.0 $\pm$ 7.7 <sup>b</sup>
Testicular volume (cm <sup>3</sup> )	41.6 $\pm$ 0.6 <sup>a</sup>	52.4 $\pm$ 3.4 <sup>b</sup>
Testicular volume/body weight (cm <sup>3</sup> kg <sup>-1</sup> )	0.6 $\pm$ 0.0	0.5 $\pm$ 0.0
Ejaculate volume (ml)	8.3 $\pm$ 0.7 <sup>a</sup>	4.1 $\pm$ 0.7 <sup>b</sup>
Sperm concentration ( $\times 10^6$ ml <sup>-1</sup> )	8.0 $\pm$ 1.7	35.0 $\pm$ 21.3
Total spermatozoa/ejaculate ( $\times 10^6$ )	59.3 $\pm$ 12.8	152.0 $\pm$ 88.0
Sperm motility (%)	64.0 $\pm$ 2.4	73.0 $\pm$ 6.1
Rate of progressive status (0–5)*	2.8 $\pm$ 0.1 <sup>a</sup>	3.5 $\pm$ 0.2 <sup>b</sup>
Sperm motility index <sup>†</sup>	61.0 $\pm$ 2.2	72.0 $\pm$ 5.0
Total motile spermatozoa/ejaculate ( $\times 10^6$ )	42.8 $\pm$ 10.5	108.7 $\pm$ 65.4
Total spermatozoa/testicular volume (10 <sup>6</sup> cm <sup>-3</sup> )	1.4 $\pm$ 0.3	2.9 $\pm$ 1.6
Serum testosterone (ng ml <sup>-1</sup> )	3.1 $\pm$ 0.7	2.1 $\pm$ 0.8

\*Rate of progressive status on a scale of 0 (no movement) to 5 (rapid forward movement).

†Sperm motility index = (motility + (20  $\times$  vigour))/2

<sup>a</sup><sup>b</sup>Values within rows with different superscripts are significantly different ( $P < 0.05$ ).

**Table 2.** Structural morphology (%) of spermatozoa from captive and free-living male jaguars (*Panthera onca*)

	Captive	Free-living
Normal	50.0 $\pm$ 1.1 <sup>a</sup>	73.5 $\pm$ 3.9 <sup>b</sup>
Abnormal		
Primary	30.0 $\pm$ 0.9 <sup>a</sup>	10.0 $\pm$ 2.6 <sup>b</sup>
Macrocephalic	0.4 $\pm$ 0.1	0.3 $\pm$ 0.2
Microcephalic	1.0 $\pm$ 0.1 <sup>a</sup>	0.0 <sup>b</sup>
Bicephalic	1.4 $\pm$ 0.2 <sup>a</sup>	0.0 <sup>b</sup>
Malformed head shape	13.3 $\pm$ 0.7 <sup>a</sup>	4.0 $\pm$ 1.9 <sup>b</sup>
Malformed acrosome	4.5 $\pm$ 0.4 <sup>a</sup>	1.1 $\pm$ 0.4 <sup>b</sup>
Abnormal mitochondrial sheath	1.8 $\pm$ 0.3	1.1 $\pm$ 0.4
Tightly coiled flagellum	7.5 $\pm$ 0.6 <sup>a</sup>	3.7 $\pm$ 0.9 <sup>b</sup>
Biflagellate	0.4 $\pm$ 0.1	0.0
Secondary	20.0 $\pm$ 0.9	16.0 $\pm$ 2.6
Bent mid-piece with cytoplasmic droplet	2.2 $\pm$ 0.3	2.0 $\pm$ 0.7
Bent mid-piece without cytoplasmic droplet	3.2 $\pm$ 0.3	3.0 $\pm$ 1.1
Bent flagellum with cytoplasmic droplet	2.2 $\pm$ 0.3	1.4 $\pm$ 0.7
Bent flagellum without cytoplasmic droplet	4.1 $\pm$ 0.4	7.1 $\pm$ 1.5
Distal cytoplasmic droplet	3.0 $\pm$ 0.3 <sup>a</sup>	0.4 $\pm$ 0.4 <sup>b</sup>
Proximal cytoplasmic droplet	4.1 $\pm$ 0.4 <sup>a</sup>	1.7 $\pm$ 0.7 <sup>b</sup>
Bent neck	1.0 $\pm$ 0.1	0.3 $\pm$ 0.2

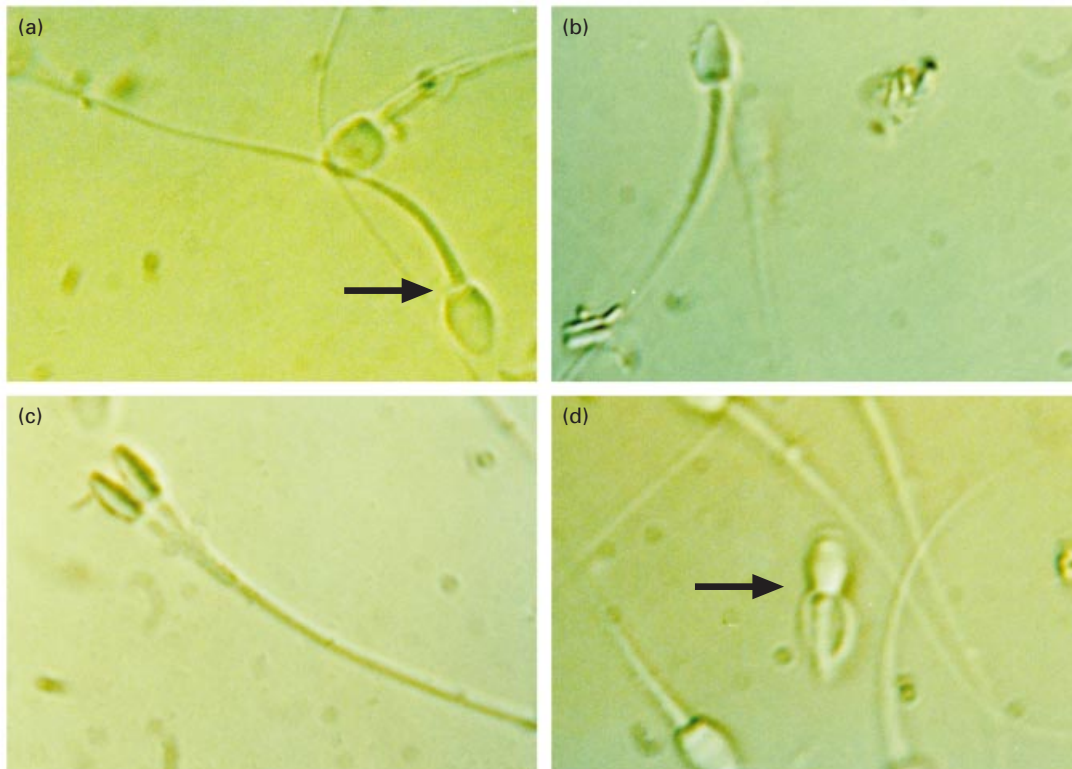
<sup>a</sup><sup>b</sup>Values within rows with different superscripts are significantly different ( $P < 0.05$ ).

for developing strategies to preserve natural dispersal corridors and maintain adequate gene flow and genetic diversity.

Information from reproductive endocrine assessments of free-living animals may be useful for evaluating the influence of captivity on reproductive function (Wildt *et al.*, 1987b). Semen characteristics of captive jaguars have been described by Swanson *et al.* (1995) and Morato *et al.* (1998) and are similar to those reported for captive jaguars in the

present study. However, in comparison with free-living jaguars, ejaculate traits of captive jaguars were generally inferior. Spermatozoa from captive jaguars had lower ( $P < 0.05$ ) rates of progressive status and percentages of normal sperm morphology. Although not statistically significant, captive jaguars also tended to have lower values for sperm concentration and progressive motility.

Considerable numbers of spermatozoa from captive jaguars were afflicted with primary abnormalities, which



**Fig. 1.** Morphology of jaguar (*Panthera onca*) spermatozoa. (a) Normal morphology; (b) malformed head shape; (c) biflagellate; (d) tightly coiled flagellum.

are often associated with spermatogenic dysfunction (Wildt *et al.*, 1987b). Sperm morphology parameters reported to be associated with decreased fertility are used commonly as the first step in evaluation of male fertility, and individuals with abnormally high values in one or more parameters are considered to be of questionable fertility (Rogers, 1985). Increasing numbers of morphologically abnormal spermatozoa have been reported to decrease fertility in humans (Donnelly *et al.*, 1998), cattle (Saacke *et al.*, 1968), horses (Bader *et al.*, 1988), pigs (Larsson *et al.*, 1980), sheep (Hulet *et al.*, 1965), laboratory rodents (Burkhart and Malling, 1981) and domestic cats (Howard *et al.*, 1991).

The findings from the present study indicate that further research is needed to understand the relationship between semen characteristics and endocrine profiles in jaguars. Despite the inferior seminal traits of the captive jaguars, serum testosterone concentrations were found to be similar between captive and free-living jaguars. In contrast, higher proportions of structurally abnormal spermatozoa in domestic cats are related to gonadal insufficiency in testosterone production (Howard *et al.*, 1990).

Collectively, the data from the present study indicate that captive jaguars have a lower reproductive potential than free-living jaguars. As captive populations in zoos provide insurance against extinction, it is imperative that all genet-

ically valuable individuals are able to propagate within a managed breeding programme. It is important to determine the cause of suboptimal reproductive traits observed in captive jaguars, to achieve this goal. In general, three primary factors have direct effects on semen characteristics: nutrition, environment and genetics (Barth and Oko, 1989). These factors, alone or in combination, may be affecting the semen traits in the captive jaguar population used in this study. Swanson *et al.* (1995) conducted reproductive evaluations on 186 males of eight neotropical cat species, including jaguars, housed in Latin American zoos, and observed inferior semen parameters compared with conspecifics housed in North American zoos. It was suggested that nutritionally inadequate diets in Latin American zoos were at least partially responsible for these differences. Paz (2000) demonstrated that vitamin and mineral supplementation of a meat-based diet reduced the percentage of primary defects in ejaculates of captive jaguars; however, no difference was found in the total percentage of abnormal spermatozoa.

There is only limited scientific information on environmental factors affecting reproduction in large cat species. In a study of captive jaguars in Brazilian zoos, it was observed that season did not affect semen quantity and quality (Morato *et al.*, 1999). In addition, temperature and humidity did not affect the endocrine testicular function in captive male jaguars (Morato, 2001).

There is evidence that reproductive parameters are compromised by inbreeding (Wildt, 1994). As most (approximately 92%) of the jaguars maintained in Brazilian zoos were born in captivity and have undefined pedigrees (Morato and Gasparini, 1994), it is possible that inbreeding is adversely affecting reproductive traits. Further studies are needed to address the genetic relatedness of captive jaguars and to assess potential inbreeding effects among the captive population.

The findings of this study are also relevant to another aspect of jaguar conservation, the application of assisted reproduction for genetic management. Assisted reproductive techniques, such as AI, IVF–ET and sperm cryopreservation, have potential as an adjunct to natural breeding for managing captive populations, but may also be useful in facilitating gene flow between *in situ* and *ex situ* populations (IUDZ and CBSG, 1993). In the past few years, assisted reproductive techniques have been used to produce offspring in several non-domestic cat species (Wildt and Roth, 1997), including cheetahs after AI with frozen–thawed spermatozoa collected from free-living males in Africa (Howard et al., 1997). The present study has demonstrated that high quality semen may be collected from free-living jaguars, a necessary first step for cryopreservation of jaguar spermatozoa in the field. In the near future, establishing gene flow between free-living and captive jaguars may be possible through AI with frozen–thawed spermatozoa or by incorporation of this resource into the ongoing IVF–ET studies in jaguars (Morato et al., 2000).

In summary, the findings of the present study have shown that semen may be collected successfully from free-living jaguars and evaluated under field conditions to establish normative reproductive values in this species. The results also indicate that jaguars maintained in zoos show inferior seminal characteristics compared with free-living animals. Finally, the results of this research have furthered the potential application of semen collection and cryopreservation in free-living jaguars as one approach for promoting gene flow between *in situ* and *ex situ* populations.

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