


Sus scrofa  [简体中文](#) [正體中文](#)

System: Terrestrial

Kingdom	Phylum	Class	Order	Family
Animalia	Chordata	Mammalia	Artiodactyla	Suidae

Common name pig (English), Wildschwein (German), razorback (English), te poaka (Maori), kuhukuhu (Maori), poretere (Maori), petapeta (Maori), kune-kune (Maori, New Zealand)

Synonym

Similar species

Summary

Sus scrofa (feral pigs) are escaped or released domestic animals which have been introduced to many parts of the world. They damage crops, stock and property, and transmit many diseases such as Leptospirosis and Foot and Mouth disease. Rooting pigs dig up large areas of native vegetation and spread weeds, disrupting ecological processes such as succession and species composition. *Sus scrofa* are omnivorous and their diet can include juvenile land tortoises, sea turtles, sea birds, endemic reptiles and macro-invertebrates. Management of *Sus scrofa* is complicated by the fact that complete eradication is often not acceptable to communities that value feral pigs for hunting and food.



[view this species on IUCN Red List](#)

Species Description

Pigs are large omnivorous mammals with powerful bodies and coarse hairy coats. Their thick necks, wedge-shaped heads and mobile snouts are used in feeding to uproot the ground and find prey or plant material. Feral pigs are easily distinguished from domestic pigs via a smaller leaner and more muscular stature, shorter hind quarters, longer snouts and tusks. Older boars usually develop a thick keratinous shield over their shoulders, which provides some protection during fights with other boars. Feral pig hair is longer and coarser than a domestic pig and sometimes forms in a tuft along their back (hence, the name razorback). The tails of feral pigs are not curly as in domestic pigs, they are instead long and straight with a bushy tip.

Ecological characteristics of feral pig activity, group size and home range size should be considered in any management strategy aimed to control pig numbers or reduce their negative impact. Feral pig activity varies between different habitats and climates. High activity has been reported to occur in early morning and late afternoon in tropical climates (Diong 1982). However, in India pigs have been reported to feed nocturnally to raid croplands (Sekhar 1998, in Wolf and Conover 2003). On Santa Cruz Island (California) the milder weather of fall and late winter causes pigs to be more active in the morning and evening, while the short cool and often rainy days of winter causes midday activity. Pigs on the island were active at night mostly when conditions were warm and dry (Van Vuren 1984, in Wolf and Conover 2003).

In terms of group structure, in North-western Australia mob sizes are generally about 12 or less, although occasionally mobs of 30 pigs are seen. Adult boars are mostly solitary. In South Carolina the average home range of boars is 226 hectares, while the average for sows is 181 hectares (Wood and Brenneman 1980, in Wolf and Conover 2003). Whereas in Australia average home range can vary from 140 hectares for a boar in Namagdi National park, Australian capital territory (McIlroy and Saillard 1989), to 430 hectares for a boar in Western New South Wales (Giles 1980).

Feral pigs are polyoestrous, adult sows have a 21 day oestrous cycle and a gestation period of 112-114 days (Choquenot et al. 1996). Estimated litter size is 4.5-6.3 viable young per sow (Twigg et al. 2005, Choquenot et al. 1996) but in good conditions 10 piglets can be born to one sow.

Lifecycle Stages

Pigs are normally social animals but adult boars over 18 months old are invariably solitary (McIlroy 1990).

Uses

Captain Cook used the pig in trading with the natives as early as 1777. "A small pig of 10 or 12 pounds" was traded for a spike but a "hog" was exchanged for a hatchet (Cook 1784, in Diong 1982).

In central Europe the false spruce webworm (*Cephalcia abietis*) causes defoliation of Norway spruce trees; high densities of boars are able to cause high mortality to insect larvae by up to 70%, however they also cause damage to tree roots making the perceived benefit negligible (Fuhrer and Fischer 1991, in Wolf and Conover 2003).

In many highland areas of New Guinea pigs are deliberately placed into gardens at the end of a harvest sequence and prior to gardening to remove remaining sweet potato tubers and to assist in turning and aerating the soil before replanting (Westermann 1968, Paglau 1982, Wood and Humphreys 1982, Tucker 1986, Kohun in hide 2003).

Habitat Description

The feral pig adapts to a variety of environments from Mediterranean oak woodland forests to the semi-arid rangelands of Eastern Australia, from the flood plains, billabongs and grassland savannas of tropical North-western Australia to the gray beech forests of the Smoky Mountains in America and from the wetland and lowland evergreen monsoon forests of Australia to the fresh water marshes and brackish water marshes of South Carolina (Wood and Brenneman 1980, in Wolf and Conover 2003). Wild pigs are rarely found over 1650m (Bulmer and Bulmer 1964, in Hide 2003), but are known to be found at altitudes as high as 3000m in New Guinea (Flannery 1995, in Hide 2003).

Home ranges of pigs are smaller during the dry season than during the wet season. During the dry season on Santa Catalina pigs preferred cool moist canyon bottoms due to a physiological need for free water. Dense vegetation was more actively sought after than open areas such as grasslands (Baber and Coblenz 1986, in Wolf and Conover 2003).

The presence of crops in the near area (for example palm dates or oat hay cultivations) provide a food supplement and may greatly increase feral pig density; the close location of cereal crops in one study increased the density of feral pigs almost four-fold (Caley 1993, in Wolf and Conover 2003). Similarly the presence of adjacent palm cultivations in Malaysia was found to increase pigs density by 10 to 100 times (Ickes Paciorek and Thomas 2005).

High densities of pigs may also be attributed to water availability. The recent expansion in feral pig distribution in Australia has been attributed to the increase in suitable habitats, in particular, an increase in water availability from farm dams and developing forest industries (Spencer and Hampton 2005).

Reproduction

Feral pigs are polyoestrus: adult females have a 21-day oestrus cycle and a gestation period of about 112-114 days. In New Zealand they probably breed throughout the year, though mainly in spring and summer (Wodzicki 1950; J. McIlroy unpublished). Their litter size is usually between 6 and 10 piglets, but usually only half this number survives. They reach breeding age at between 10 and 12 months (Wodzicki 1950).

In one study females were found to have about 5 young every 0.86 years with some females having two litters per year. In this study fertility continued to increase with age until it peaked at two to three years of age. 58% of piglets died before weaning (Baber and Coblenz 1986, in Wolf and Conover 2003).

Nutrition

Pigs lack the multiple stomachs found in ruminants such as cattle and goats. Feral pigs are omnivores with an opportunistic diet, including high-fibre (> 25%) low-protein grasses, legumes, herbs and roots. They readily feed on crops, fallen fruits, seeds and small animals (McIlroy 1990). Pigs regularly root the ground in search of roots, fungus, nuts, seeds and grubs (Frederick 1998, Sicuro 2002, in Wolf and Conover 2003). In their native Mediterranean woodland the wild boar compensates for the reduced supply of acorns in the spring by raiding underground hoards of acorns collected and buried by small mammals (the availability of acorns is critical to female boars as they need the extra nutrition for lactation) (Focardi Capizzi and Monetti 2000, in Wolf and Conover 2003).

Pigs adapt their diet to best utilise local resources. In the semi-arid rangelands of eastern Australia and in New Guinea feral pigs will regularly hunt and devour lambs (particularly twin lambs (which are weaker) (Choquenot, Lukins and Curran 1997, in Wolf and Conover 2003; Hide 2003). On Horn Island, Mississippi, hogs take advantage of high seasonal abundances of insects, crabs and dead fish (Baron 1982, in Wolf and Conover 2003). On Santa Cruz Island, California, acorns and new growth of grasses and forbs are major components of the feral pig's diet (Van Vuren 1984, in Wolf and Conover 2003).

In South Carolina fruits, especially acorns are the most common food type consumed in fall and winter; herbage and foliage are most common in the spring; roots are most common in the summer. Invertebrates and vertebrates are also consumed, though they were not as important. The consumption of woody plants may be underestimated in stomach contents surveys as the starches and sap obtained from the roots of such plants go undetected (Wood and Roark 1980, in Wolf and Conover 2003).

In the western South Texas Plains (introduced range) feral pigs have a spring-summer diet that consists mainly of vegetation, while acorns are their winter food source. Their autumn diet consists of roots and corn. Animal matter consisting of deer, morning doves, reptiles and other birds represents a small portion of the hog's diet. Of these, reptiles were the most susceptible to predation (Taylor and Hellgren 1997, in Wolf and Conover 2003). In one study conducted in Hawaii by Diong 1982, food habits were characterised by (1) an omnivorous diet consisting mainly of plant matter, (2) a staple of tree ferns, (3) a seasonal switch from tree ferns to strawberry guava, and (4) a strong reliance of earthworms as a source of animal protein. The dietary range covered 40 plant species (63% herbaceous species, 33% trees and woody vine). Tree ferns were the most concentrated source of sugar and starch.

General Impacts

Please follow this link for details on the [general impacts of *S. scrofa* compiled by the ISSG](#).

Management Info

Poisoning with sodium monofluoroacetate (1080) is the most popular method used to control feral pigs. Most pigs vomit within four hours of ingestion. This may be potentially hazardous to nontarget organisms and may result in the survival of the pig. The use of anti-emetics such as metoclopramide, thiethylperazine and prochlorperazine may prevent vomiting at high doses (O'Brien *et al.* 1986, in Wolf and Conover 2003).

A vaccine for pseudorabies and swine brucellosis in fish meal bait may be used in late summer (when natural food supplies are low) to control these diseases (Fletcher *et al.* 1990, in Wolf and Conover 2003).

In the mid 1900s New Zealand conservation practitioners applied mainland hunting techniques to eradicate feral pig populations from small islands (<200 ha, Veitch and Bell, 1990, in Cruz *et al.* 2005). More recently poisoning techniques have been developed to control or eradicate feral pig populations (Choquenot *et al.*, 1990; O'Brien and Lukins, 1990, in Cruz *et al.* 2005). Hunting and poisoning techniques used in combination, now facilitate pig eradication efforts on larger islands (Lombardo and Faulkner, 2000, Schuyler *et al.*, 2002, Veitch and Bell, 1990, in Cruz *et al.* 2005).

In Hawaii, snaring has been used to control pigs within 600–800 km² fenced enclosures located in remote areas of rain forest in the Haleakala National Park (Maui) (Anderson and Stone 1993). Many people place a high cultural value on pigs (ie: using them as a food convenient food source) so that removing them from designated areas may not be acceptable without a clear idea of the benefits. Snaring would not always be an acceptable method of control. In addition, the fact that pigs are highly mobile means it is uneconomic for an individual landowners or controlling agency to control them (as pigs as they quickly move in from adjacent properties to replace the removed ones).

Much wisdom and insight can be gained from the case study of pig removal from Santiago Island in the Galapagos Archipelago (off the coast of Ecuador). Factors that proved critical to the successful eradication of the feral pig on the island were: (1) a sustained effort, (2) an effective poisoning campaign, (3) a hunting program, (4) access to animals by cutting more trails and, (5) an intensive monitoring program. Throughout the 1970s and 1980s, hunting effort was low (<500 hunter-days/year), while in the early 1990s effort increased but fluctuated. In contrast, the revised campaign in the mid-1990s resulted in a continuous, minimum annual effort of 1500 hunter-days/year. Hunter access to pigs was critical. Extra trails were cut and goats were not hunted in order to keep vegetation suppressed (allowing hunters and dogs access to all areas of the island). Motivating hunters was a continual challenge, especially when pigs were at low densities. However, social, moral boosting events and financial incentives maintained hunter motivation. While the poisoning campaign killed relatively few pigs compared to hunting, the low cost of the poisoning made such efforts especially cost-effective. The compounds used were toxic to most species, and thus the pros of using them for eradication had to be balanced with the potential impact on non-target species (Donlan *et al.*, 2003a, in Cruz *et al.* 2005). In 2000, six months after the last pig was shot, the last pig was poisoned following an intensive monitoring effort. A sustained monitoring effort was critical to successful eradication. The lack of such an effort is responsible for many eradication failures (Campbell *et al.*, 2004, in Cruz *et al.* 2005).

Pathway

Expansion into new areas can result from transport for hunting, escape from confined facilities, dispersal of wild populations and escape of domestic swine from free ranging commercial ranches (Gipson Hlavachick And Berger 1998, in Wolf and Conover 2003). Released as food.

Principal source:

Compiler: IUCN SSC Invasive Species Specialist Group

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Review:

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ALIEN RANGE

[1] AMERICAN SAMOA	[1] ARGENTINA
[7] AUSTRALIA	[1] BAHAMAS
[1] BRAZIL	[1] CHILE
[7] COOK ISLANDS	[1] CURACAO
[1] DOMINICA	[1] DOMINICAN REPUBLIC
[2] ECUADOR	[4] FIJI
[1] FRANCE	[8] FRENCH POLYNESIA
[1] FRENCH SOUTHERN TERRITORIES	[1] GUAM
[1] INDIA	[1] JAMAICA
[9] KIRIBATI	[1] MARSHALL ISLANDS
[2] MAURITIUS	[1] MAYOTTE
[1] MEXICO	[3] MICRONESIA, FEDERATED STATES OF
[1] MONTSERRAT	[1] NAURU
[7] NEW CALEDONIA	[1] NEW GUINEA
[8] NEW ZEALAND	[1] NIUE
[4] NORTHERN MARIANA ISLANDS	[1] PAKISTAN
[1] PALAU	[13] PAPUA NEW GUINEA
[1] PITCAIRN	[1] PUERTO RICO
[1] REUNION	[1] SAINT LUCIA
[2] SAMOA	[8] SOLOMON ISLANDS
[1] SOUTH AMERICA	[1] TONGA
[22] UNITED STATES	[1] VIRGIN ISLANDS, U.S.
[1] WALLIS AND FUTUNA	

Red List assessed species 281: EX = 7; EW = 5; CR = 109; EN = 81; VU = 54; LR/nt = 1; NT = 14; DD = 1; LC = 9;

Abutilon sandwicense CR	Acacia koaia VU
Alectryon macrococcus CR	Alphitonia ponderosa VU
Alsinidendron lychnoides CR	Alsinidendron obovatum CR
Alsinidendron trinerve CR	Alsinidendron viscosum CR
Anas aucklandica VU	Anas wyvilliana EN
Aphelocoma insularis NT	Apteryx haastii VU
Araucaria hunsteinii LR/nt	Argyroxiphium kauense CR
Argyroxiphium sandwicense VU	Astelia waialealae CR
Bidens conjuncta VU	Bidens cosmoides EN
Bidens populifolia VU	Bohea sandwicensis VU
Bonamia menziesii CR	Branta sandwicensis VU
Bulimulus darwini VU	Buteo solitarius NT
Calamagrostis expansa VU	Calamagrostis hillebrandii EN
Callerya neocaledonica CR	Camarhynchus pauper CR
Canavalia molokaiensis CR	Caretta caretta EN
Casuarium bennetti NT	Cenchrus agrimonioides CR
Chamaesyce deppeana CR	Chamaesyce halemanui CR
Chamaesyce remyi CR	Chamaesyce rockii CR
Chamaesyce sparsiflora VU	Charpentiera densiflora CR
Cheirodendron dominii EN	Chelonia mydas EN
Christella boydiae EN	Clermontia calophylla EN
Clermontia drepanomorpha EN	Clermontia hawaiiensis VU
Clermontia lindseyana EN	Clermontia peleana EW
Clermontia pyrularia CR	Clermontia tuberculata EN
Clermontia waimeae EN	Coccyzus ferrugineus VU
Coenocorypha aucklandica NT	Colubrina oppositifolia CR

Ctenitis squamigera CR	Cyanea acuminata CR
Cyanea asarifolia CR	Cyanea asplenifolia CR
Cyanea crispa CR	Cyanea dunbariae CR
Cyanea eleeleensis CR	Cyanea glabra CR
Cyanea horrida CR	Cyanea pinnatifida EW
Cyanea st-johnii CR	Cyanea superba EW
Cyanea truncata EW	Cyclura collei CR
Cyclura cornuta VU	Cyclura stejnegeri EN
Cyrtandra giffardii EN	Cyrtandra kaulantha CR
Cyrtandra polyantha CR	Cyrtandra waiolani EW
Dasyornis brachypterus EN	Dermochelys coriacea CR
Diomedea antipodensis VU	Diomedea dabbenena CR
Diomedea epomophora VU	Diploglossus montisserrati CR
Ducula galeata EN	Emoia adspersa EN
Engaeus martigener EN	Engaeus urostrictus VU
Engaewa similis LC	Engaewa walpolea EN
Epicrates monensis EN	Eretmochelys imbricata CR
Erythrura gouldiae EN	Euastacus armatus DD
Euastacus australasiensis LC	Euastacus balanesis EN
Euastacus bidawalis EN	Euastacus bindal CR
Euastacus brachythorax EN	Euastacus clarkae CR
Euastacus claytoni EN	Euastacus crassus EN
Euastacus dalagarbe CR	Euastacus dharawalus CR
Euastacus diversus EN	Euastacus eungella CR
Euastacus fleckeri EN	Euastacus gamilaroi CR
Euastacus girurmulayn CR	Euastacus gumar EN
Euastacus guruhgi CR	Euastacus guwinus CR
Euastacus hirsutus EN	Euastacus hystricosus EN
Euastacus jagabar CR	Euastacus jagara CR
Euastacus maccai EN	Euastacus maidae CR
Euastacus mirangudjin CR	Euastacus monteithorum CR
Euastacus pilosus EN	Euastacus polysetosus EN
Euastacus rieki EN	Euastacus robertsi CR
Euastacus setosus CR	Euastacus simplex VU
Euastacus spinichelatus EN	Euastacus sulcatus VU
Euastacus suttoni VU	Euastacus urospinosus EN
Euastacus valentulus LC	Euastacus wiowuru NT
Euastacus yanga LC	Euastacus yarreansis VU
Euastacus yigara CR	Eugenia koolauensis EN
Euphorbia haeleeleana EN	Gallicolumba salamonis EX
Gallicolumba sanctaerucis EN	Gallinula nesiotis VU
Gallinula pacifica CR	Gallirallus lafresnayanus CR
Gallirallus sylvestris EN	Gardenia mannii CR
Geocrinia vitellina VU	Gouania vitifolia CR
Gymnomyza aubryana CR	Hemignathus lucidus CR
Hemignathus parvus VU	Hesperomannia arborescens CR
Hesperomannia arbuscula CR	Hibiscadelphus woodii CR
Hibiscus clayi CR	Himantoglossum adriaticum LC
Hypericum corsicum LC	Icterus oberi CR
Labordia cyrtandrae CR	Laterallus spilonotus VU
Leptodactylus fallax CR	Lewinia muelleri VU
Lioscincus steindachneri EN	Litoria dayi EN
Litoria lorica CR	Litoria nannotis EN
Litoria nyakalensis CR	Litoria pearsoniana NT

[Litoria rheocola](#) EN
[Loxops coccineus](#) EN
[Marmorosphax kaala](#) CR
[Marmorosphax taom](#) CR
[Mastacomys fuscus](#) NT
[Megacrex inepta](#) NT
[Megapodius laperouse](#) EN
[Melamprosops phaeosoma](#) CR
[Melicope saint-johnii](#) EN
[Metrosideros bartlettii](#) EN
[Mimus trifasciatus](#) CR
[Moho bishopi](#) EX
[Myadestes lanaiensis](#) CR
[Myadestes obscurus](#) VU
[Nannoscincus garrulus](#) EN
[Nannoscincus manautei](#) CR
[Nesotriccus ridgwayi](#) VU
[Numenius tahitiensis](#) VU
[Oreomystis bairdi](#) CR
[Palmeria dolei](#) CR
[Pelagodoxa henryana](#) CR
[Phalacrocorax colensoi](#) VU
[Phalacrocorax onslowi](#) CR
[Phlegmariurus nutans](#) CR
[Phyllostegia kaalaensis](#) CR
[Pinaroloxias inornata](#) VU
[Potorous longipes](#) EN
[Pritchardia glabrata](#) EN
[Pritchardia lanaiensis](#) EN
[Pritchardia limahuliensis](#) CR
[Pritchardia perlmanii](#) EN
[Procellaria conspicillata](#) VU
[Psephotus chrysopterygius](#) EN
[Pseudonestor xanthophrys](#) CR
[Psittacula eques](#) EN
[Pteralyxia kauaiensis](#) EN
[Pterodroma axillaris](#) EN
[Pterodroma caribbaea](#) CR
[Pterodroma leucoptera](#) VU
[Pterodroma phaeopygia](#) CR
[Pterodroma solandri](#) VU
[Puffinus auricularis](#) CR
[Puffinus huttoni](#) EN
[Rhacodactylus auriculatus](#) LC
[Rhionaeschna galapagoensis](#) EN
[Rhynochetos jubatus](#) EN
[Setonix brachyurus](#) VU
[Sus cebifrons](#) CR
[Sus philippensis](#) VU
[Tacheocampylaea cyrniaca](#) EN
[Tacheocampylaea romagnolii](#) CR
[Taudactylus diurnus](#) EX
[Taudactylus rheophilus](#) CR
[Thalassarche steadyi](#) NT
[Lonchura stygia](#) NT
[Marmorosphax bouldina](#) VU
[Marmorosphax montana](#) VU
[Marmorosphax tricolor](#) LC
[Masticophis anthonyi](#) CR
[Megalurus albolimbatus](#) VU
[Megapodius pritchardii](#) EN
[Melicope balloui](#) EN
[Mergus australis](#) EX
[Mimus macdonaldi](#) VU
[Mixophyes fleayi](#) EN
[Moho braccatus](#) EX
[Myadestes myadestinus](#) EX
[Myadestes palmeri](#) CR
[Nannoscincus hanchisteus](#) CR
[Nannoscincus rankini](#) VU
[Nothocestrum peltatum](#) CR
[Oedodera marmorata](#) CR
[Oreomystis mana](#) EN
[Paroreomyza montana](#) EN
[Phaeognathus hubrichti](#) EN
[Phalacrocorax featherstoni](#) EN
[Phalanger alexandrae](#) EN
[Phylloscopus amoenus](#) VU
[Phyllostegia mollis](#) CR
[Potamon fluviatile](#) NT
[Pritchardia affinis](#) CR
[Pritchardia kaalae](#) CR
[Pritchardia lanigera](#) EN
[Pritchardia napaliensis](#) CR
[Pritchardia viscosa](#) CR
[Procellaria parkinsoni](#) VU
[Pseudobulweria rostrata](#) NT
[Pseudophryne pengilleyi](#) EN
[Psittirostra psittacea](#) CR
[Pterodroma arminjoniana](#) VU
[Pterodroma brevipes](#) VU
[Pterodroma hasitata](#) EN
[Pterodroma magentae](#) CR
[Pterodroma sandwichensis](#) VU
[Pteropus mariannus](#) EN
[Puffinus bulleri](#) VU
[Puffinus newelli](#) EN
[Rheobatrachus silus](#) EX
[Rhynchomeles prattorum](#) EN
[Schiedeia kaalae](#) CR
[Simiscincus aurantiacus](#) VU
[Sus oliveri](#) EN
[Sylvilagus graysoni](#) EN
[Tacheocampylaea raspailii](#) VU
[Taudactylus acutirostris](#) CR
[Taudactylus pleione](#) CR
[Tetraplasandra gymnocarpa](#) CR
[Thylogale calabyi](#) EN



GLOBAL INVASIVE SPECIES DATABASE

FULL ACCOUNT FOR: *Sus scrofa*

[Tinostoma smaragditi](#) EN
[Todiramphus godeffroyi](#) CR
[Trigonostemon cherrieri](#) CR
[Typhlops biminiensis](#) NT
[Urosaurus clarionensis](#) VU
[Vini ultramarina](#) EN
[Xylosma crenatum](#) CR

[Todiramphus farquhari](#) NT
[Todiramphus ruficollaris](#) VU
[Turnix melanogaster](#) VU
[Urera kaalae](#) CR
[Vestiarina coccinea](#) VU
[Xantusia riversiana](#) LC

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[IUCN 2010. IUCN Red List of Threatened Species. Version 2010.4.](#)

Summary: The IUCN Red List of Threatened Species provides taxonomic, conservation status and distribution information on taxa that have been globally evaluated using the IUCN Red List Categories and Criteria. This system is designed to determine the relative risk of extinction, and the main purpose of the IUCN Red List is to catalogue and highlight those taxa that are facing a higher risk of global extinction (i.e. those listed as Critically Endangered, Endangered and Vulnerable). The IUCN Red List also includes information on taxa that are categorized as Extinct or Extinct in the Wild; on taxa that cannot be evaluated because of insufficient information (i.e. are Data Deficient); and on taxa that are either close to meeting the threatened thresholds or that would be threatened were it not for an ongoing taxon-specific conservation programme (i.e. are Near Threatened).

Available from: <http://www.iucnredlist.org/> [Accessed 25 May 2011]

[IUCN/SSC Invasive Species Specialist Group \(ISSG\), 2010. A Compilation of Information Sources for Conservation Managers.](#)

Summary: This compilation of information sources can be sorted on keywords for example: Baits & Lures, Non Target Species, Eradication, Monitoring, Risk Assessment, Weeds, Herbicides etc. This compilation is at present in Excel format, this will be web-enabled as a searchable database shortly. This version of the database has been developed by the IUCN SSC ISSG as part of an Overseas Territories Environmental Programme funded project XOT603 in partnership with the Cayman Islands Government - Department of Environment. The compilation is a work under progress, the ISSG will manage, maintain and enhance the database with current and newly published information, reports, journal articles etc.

[Kessler, C.C., 2002. Eradication of feral goats and pigs and consequences for other biota on Sarigan Island, Commonwealth of the Northern Mariana Islands. In *Turning the tide: the eradication of invasive species: 132-140.* Veitch, C.R. and Clout, M.N.\(eds\). IUCN SSC Invasive Species Specialist Group. IUCN. Gland, Switzerland and Cambridge. UK.](#)

Summary: Eradication case study in Turning the tide: the eradication of invasive species.

Marvin, David C.; Bradley, Bethany A.; Wilcove, David S., 2009. A Novel, Web-based, Ecosystem Mapping Tool Using Expert Opinion. *Natural Areas Journal*. 29(3). JUL 2009. 281-292.

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[Nel, J.L.; D.M. Richardson; M. Rouget; T.N. Mgidi; N. Mdzeke; D.C. Le Maitre; B.W. van Wilgen; L. Schonegevel; L. Henderson and S. Naser, 2004. A proposed classification of invasive alien plant species in South Africa: towards prioritizing species and areas for management action. Working for Water South African Journal of Science 100, January/February 2004](#)

Summary: Available from: <http://www.dwaf.gov.za/WFW/Docs/Papers/SAJSFeb2004nel.pdf> [Accessed 10 March 2010]

[Pacific Island Ecosystems at Risk \(PIER\), 2005. Risk Assessment: *Ligustrum sinense* Lour., Oleaceae](#)

Summary: Available from: http://www.hear.org/pier/wra/pacific/ligustrum_sinense_htmlwra.htm [Accessed 10 March 2010]

[Pacific Island Ecosystems at Risk \(PIER\), 2010. *Ligustrum sinense* Lour., Oleaceae](#)

Summary: Available from: http://www.hear.org/pier/species/ligustrum_sinense.htm [Accessed 10 March 2010]

[Patry, M. 2001. Feral Pig Eradication Campaign on Santiago Island, Galapagos. Informe Galapagos 2001. Fundación Natura, Quito \(in press\).](#)

Summary: Describes the eradication project for pigs on Santiago Island, Galapagos. Covers the entire project from pre-1997 to May 2001.

[Queensland Pest Animal Strategy, 2004. Feral Pigs. The State of Queensland \(Natural Resources, Mines and Energy\).](#)

Summary: The feral pig management strategy outlines the best practises for the management of feral pigs to minimise their impact on the environment, economy and health of Queensland.

[Schuyler, P. T., Garcelon, D. K. and Escover, S., 2002. Eradication of feral pigs \(*Sus scrofa*\) on Santa Catalina Island, California, USA. In *Turning the tide: the eradication of invasive species: 274-286.* Veitch, C.R. and Clout, M.N.\(eds\). IUCN SSC Invasive Species Specialist Group. IUCN. Gland, Switzerland and Cambridge. UK.](#)

Summary: Eradication case study in Turning the tide: the eradication of invasive species.

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Summary: English:

The species list sheet for the Mexican information system on invasive species currently provides information related to Scientific names, family, group and common names, as well as habitat, status of invasion in Mexico, pathways of introduction and links to other specialised websites. Some of the higher risk species already have a direct link to the alert page. It is important to notice that these lists are constantly being updated, please refer to the main page (<http://www.conabio.gob.mx/invasoras/index.php/Portada>), under the section Novedades for information on updates.

Invasive species - mammals is available from: http://www.conabio.gob.mx/invasoras/index.php/Especies_invasoras_-_Mam%C3%ADferos [Accessed 30 July 2008]

Spanish:

La lista de especies del Sistema de información sobre especies invasoras de México cuenta actualmente con información acerca de nombre científico, familia, grupo y nombre común, así como hábitat, estado de la invasión en México, rutas de introducción y ligas a otros sitios especializados. Algunas de las especies de mayor riesgo ya tienen una liga directa a la página de alertas. Es importante resaltar que estas listas se encuentran en constante proceso de actualización, por favor consulte la portada (<http://www.conabio.gob.mx/invasoras/index.php/Portada>), en la sección novedades, para conocer los cambios.

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GLOBAL INVASIVE SPECIES DATABASE

FULL ACCOUNT FOR: *Sus scrofa*

[ITIS \(Integrated Taxonomic Information System\), 2005. Online Database *Sus scrofa*](#)

Summary: An online database that provides taxonomic information, common names, synonyms and geographical jurisdiction of a species. In addition links are provided to retrieve biological records and collection information from the Global Biodiversity Information Facility (GBIF) Data Portal and bioscience articles from BioOne journals.

Available from:

http://www.cbif.gc.ca/pls/itisca/taxastep?king=every&p_action=containing&taxa=Sus+scrofa&p_format=&p_ifx=plgt&p_lang= [Accessed March 2005]

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