GENETICS AND GENOMICS

Bayesian hierarchical model for comparison of different nonlinear function and genetic parameter estimates of meat quails

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ABSTRACT This study aimed to compare different nonlinear functions to describe the growth curve of European quails and to estimate growth curve parameters, (co)variance components, and genetic and systematic effects that affected the curve using a hierarchical Bayesian model that allows joint estimation. Three different models were fitted in the first stage (Gompertz. Logístic, and von Bertalanffy). The analyzed data set had 45,965 records of 6,838 meat quails selected for higher body weight at 42 d of age for 15 successive generations, weighed at birth, 7, 14, 21, 28, 35, and 42 d of age. Comparisons of the overall goodness of fit were based on deviance information criterion (DIC) and mean square error. Gelfand's check function compared the models at different points of the growth curve. In the second stage, the systematic (sex and generation) and genetic effects were considered in an animal model. Random samples of the a posteriori distributions were obtained by Metropolis-Hastings and Gibbs sampling

algorithms. The Gompertz function presented lower DIC and better adjustment at different ages and was defined as the best fit. The heritabilities of A, b, and kparameters were moderate (0.32, 0.29, and 0.18, respectively). The genetics correlations were A and b (0.25), A and k (-0.50), and b and k (0.03). The samples of the posterior marginal distributions for the differences between the estimates of the parameters of the Gompertz model, for generation, A, b, k, age at inflexion point (APOI), and weight at inflexion point (WPOI) showed differences in relation to sex, the females are heavier, A. WPOL and APOL for females were also higher. In conclusion, 15 generations of selection and changes in the environmental conditions altered the growth curve, leaving the quails heavier and with greater WPOI and APOI, decreased growth rate, and increased the birth weight. The curve parameters could be used in a selection index, despite the difficulty in selecting quails with higher rate of growth and adult body weight.

Key words: meat quail, growth curve, Gibbs sampling, Bayesian

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INTRODUCTION

The growth curves can describe the growth process in terms of few parameters with biological interpretation (Varona et al., 1999; Blasco et al., 2003), and the biological interpretability includes ability to rank correctly individuals or populations for important biological characteristics, which are required in selection programs mainly for growth rate, maturing rate, or mature size (Fitzhugh, 1976).

The nonlinear models have been developed in order to relate the weight-age data (Garnero et al., 2005) and have been found to be adequate to describe growth

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Received June 6, 2018. Accepted November 9, 2018. curves of several animals species (Garnero et al., 2005; Mazzini et al., 2005). In poultry, the most widely used growth functions are Gompertz, Logistic, and von Bertalanffy models with 3 parameters (Braccini et al., 1996; Akbaz and Oguz, 1998; Narinc et al., 2017); these models are particular cases of Richards model that has a fourth parameter, the variable inflection point (m), characterized by being the moment in which the growth rate changes from increasing to decreasing (Brown et al., 1976). However, Richards model is generally difficult to fit. In Gompertz, Logistic, and von Bertalanffy, the m takes fixed value, tending to 1, equal to 2, and equal to 2/3, respectively (Braccini et al., 1996). The biological meaning of the parameters is as follows: Ais the adult weight or theoretical maximum weight, b is constant of integration that is related to the initial weights of the animals (scalar parameter) and reflects the degree of maturation at birth, higher values are

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1602 GOTUZZO ET AL.

related to lower birth weights, and k is growth measure that indicates the rate of growth or the rate of gain.

Specifically in quail, Du Preez and Sales (1997) used the Gompertz function to describe the growth of the European quail and to quantify differences between males and females in growth parameters and some indexes derived from them. Akbas and Oguz (1998) compared 3 nonlinear growth functions (Gompertz, von Bertalanffy, and Logistic) in terms of goodness of fit to Japanese quail data and estimated genetic and environmental effects on growth curve parameters. In this case, the Gompertz function showed the best performance. Sezer and Tarhan (2005) compared the growth characteristics and growth curve parameters of 3 meat-type lines of Japanese quail using the Richards function. However, Drummod et al. (2013) comparing the Brody, von Bertalanffy, Gompertz, Logistic, and Richards functions found that only Richards could be considered not adequate to model growth in meat quails.

The traditional method for estimating genetic parameters of growth curves consists of 2 steps: in the first step, the parameters are estimated for each animal; in the second step, a mixed model is applied to obtain the (co)variances components of the parameter estimates: maximum likelihood or Bayesian methods are used. Thus, the error of adjustment in the first step is not taken into account in the estimation of the (co)variance components and in the prediction of the genetic values, and therefore errors are underestimated. In addition, animals with few records cannot be included in the analysis because of problems of convergence of the iterative process of the traditional method to estimate the growth curve parameters (Forni et al., 2007).

Varona et al. (1997) proposed an alternative method, where a Bayesian hierarchical model was implemented to jointly estimate the parameters of the growth curves and their (co)variance components. The estimation procedure uses individual records and information from relatives and from animals that were under the same systematic effects. The parameters can be estimated with greater accuracy, and adjustment errors are considered in the estimation of (co)variance components. The hierarchical model allows the prediction of differences between levels of systematic effects on curve parameters, thus making it possible to quantify differences between sexes or selected generations.

The objective of this work was to use the Bayesian hierarchical methodology to compare different nonlinear functions, estimating jointly the posterior distribution of growth curve parameters, (co)variance components, and genetic and environmental effects in European quail.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Animals and Data

Data come from meat quails of both sexes selected for body weight at 42 d of age from year 2007 to 2014,

distributed in 15 generations. Animals belonged to the breeding program of the Federal University of Pelotas, Department of Animal Science, Faculty of Agronomy Eliseu Maciel, located in Capão do Leão, Rio Grande do Sul state, Brazil.

Animals were reared in the Laboratory of Zootechnical Teaching and Experimentation Professor Renato Peixoto (LEEZO). Quails were housed in rice husks bed until 42 d of age, receiving water and food "ad libitum." The starter diet (1 to 21 d) contained 25% CP and 2.900 kcal/kg of ME and grower diet (22 to 35 d). After 21 d, it was changed to a diet containing 20% CP and 3.050 kcal/kg of ME. Daily lighting was 16 h during the whole period. At 21 d of age, quails were sexed, and at 42 d, they were housed individually in cages. All the quails were individually weighed on the day of hatching, and at 7, 14, 21, 28, 35, and 42 d of age. After the egg laying begins, the 120 to 130 heaviest females and the 60 to 70 heaviest males were mated in the proportion of 1 male to 2 females (except at first generation, where 160 females and 110 males were selected), for a period of 13 d. During the mating, the females were in individual cages and the male was moved daily spending a day with each of the 2 females. The hatching eggs were identified by the female number and were collected. The incubation period was 18 d, and at hatch the quail was identified with a leg band. In preliminary analysis, 2% of data were considered to be outliers and were removed. For each age in weeks and generation, body weight records outside the interval defined by Q1-1.5 * (Q3-Q1) and Q3 + 1.5 * (Q3-Q1), with Q1 being equal to the first quartile and Q3 being equal to the third quartile, were removed. The final data set contained 45,965 weights of 6.838 birds and the relationship matrix was constructed with information from 15 generations of selection plus the base population, i.e., a total of 7,118 birds (Table 1).

Models

A Bayesian analysis was performed by using the hierarchical model described by Varona et al. (1997), Blasco et al. (2003), and Forni et al. (2007). The individual growth trajectories were described by a nonlinear function and it was assumed that each parameter had genetic and environmental components described in a mixed linear model.

In the first stage of the hierarchy, 3 different nonlinear models were tested to verify which was the one that best described the average growth curve of the birds. The evaluated growth functions were as follows: Gompertz, $Y_{ij} = A_i \ e^{-b_i e^{-k_i t_{ij}}} + \varepsilon_{ij}$ (Laird, 1965); Logístic, $Y_{ij} = A_i \ (1 - b_i e^{-k_i t_{ij}})^{-1} + \varepsilon_{ij}$ (Nelder, 1961); and von Bertalanffy, $Y_{ij} = A_i \ (1 - b_i e^{-k_i t_{ij}})^3 + \varepsilon_{ij}$ (von Bertalanffy, 1957), where Y_{ij} is the body weight of animal ith at age jth; A_i is the asymptotic weight of animal ith when t tends to infinity, that is, this parameter is interpreted as body weight at adulthood; b_i is an integration constant related to the initial weight of the bird ith, with no direct biological interpretation. The

SD

19.05

22.85

22.32

28.00

25.92

30.38

29.58

26.24

24.80

31.51

28.48

28.20

25.10

36.82

35.97

Female weight 42 d Male weight 42 d Mean (g) Generation No. of records No. of animals No. of sires No. of dams SDMean (g) 3.628 535 109 151 249.89 19.44 251.54 2 4,000 587 57 94 298.56 28.07 268.98 3 5.832 870 70 129 271.49 26.79 273.09

58

38

47

44

61

52

54

67

52

51

61

51

872

86

63

61

70

92

82

86

96

79

83

94

79

1,345

311.05

303.89

319 49

290.87

315.34

266.58

269.30

282.03

323.68

320.34

287.24

342.48

35.45

32.26

29 44

36.86

42.34

37.60

38.14

34.85

28.90

35.50

29.88

38.32

290.82

284.03

296.77

282.81

275.22

246.71

277.22

301.09

300.14

290.36

320.96

308.77

Table 1. Summary of weights data of European quail per generation.

367

586

251

535

293

337

311

500

374

428

494

370

6,838

2.439

3.941

1.686

3,621

1.952

2,310

2,052

3,417

2,463

2.868

3,256

2,500

45,965

value of b is a function of the initial values of Y and t; k_i is interpreted as the growth rate, which should be understood as the change of weight in relation to weight at maturity, that is, as an indicator of the speed with which the animal ith approaches its adult size; ε_{ii} is the associated random error of animal ith at each weighing time ith, considered to be independent between individuals and normally distributed. Residual standard deviation was considered to be constant throughout the growth trajectory.

In the second stage of the hierarchical model, the following 3-trait animal model described the genetic and environmental effects on parameters of the growth functions:

$$\theta = X\beta + Zu + e$$

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Totals

where θ is a vector with the parameters A, b, and k for all individuals; β is the vector of systematic effects (sex and generation); u is the vector of additive genetic effects; X and Z are the corresponding incidence matrices linking growth function parameters to systematic (sex and generation) and additive genetic effects, respectively. Thus,

$$f (\boldsymbol{A}, \boldsymbol{b}, \boldsymbol{k} \mid \boldsymbol{u}_{A}, \boldsymbol{u}_{b}, \boldsymbol{u}_{k}, \boldsymbol{\beta}_{A}, \boldsymbol{\beta}_{b}, \boldsymbol{\beta}_{k}, \boldsymbol{R}, \boldsymbol{G})$$

$$= N \begin{bmatrix} \boldsymbol{X} \boldsymbol{\beta}_{A} + \mathbf{Z} \mathbf{u}_{A} \\ \boldsymbol{X} \boldsymbol{\beta}_{b} + \mathbf{Z} \mathbf{u}_{b}, & \boldsymbol{R} \otimes \boldsymbol{I}_{N} \\ \boldsymbol{X} \boldsymbol{\beta}_{k} + \mathbf{Z} \mathbf{u}_{k} \end{bmatrix}$$

where u_A , u_b , u_k are the vectors of breeding values for all the animals in the pedigree for parameters A, b, and k, respectively. β_A , β_b , β_k are the vectors of systematic effects for parameters A, b, and k, respectively. I is an identity matrix and N is the number of animals with data. **R** and **G** are the 3×3 matrices of systematic and genetic (co)variance components for the growth curve parameters. X and Z are common to all parameters and incidence matrices linking A, b, and

k with the systematic and genetic effects, respectively. The residual effects were considered independent between individuals and normally distributed. The residual covariance between parameters of the same individual could differ from zero.

The prior distribution for additive genetic effects followed a multivariate normal distribution.

$$f(\boldsymbol{u}_A, \boldsymbol{u}_b, \boldsymbol{u}_k | \boldsymbol{G}) = N(0, \boldsymbol{A} \otimes \boldsymbol{G}),$$

where \mathbf{A} is the relationship matrix.

Prior distributions of the fitting error variance (σ_{ε}^2) and elements of \mathbf{R} and \mathbf{G} were considered to be uniform.

Statistical Analysis

The marginal posterior distributions of the variables of interest were approximated using the Gibbs sampler algorithm. Conditional distributions of the model parameters can be found in Blasco et al. (2003) for the Gompertz function and in 2007 (Forni et al., 2007, 2009) for the von Bertalanfy and Logistic functions. In addition, marginal posterior distributions of age at inflexion point (APOI) and weight at inflexion point (WPOI) were computed from samples of the growth function parameters. The APOI and WPOI were calculated according to Akbas and Oguz (1998). The expressions of APOI to Gompertz, Logistic, and von Bertalanffy are as follows: $\ln(b)/k$, $-\ln(1/b)/k$, and $\ln(3b)/k$, respectively. The expressions of WPOI to Gompertz, Logistic, and von Bertalanffy are A/e, A/2, and 8A/27, respectively.

All the analyses were performed using our own programs written in fortran 77. Single chains of 100,000 iterations were run for all the analyses. The first 10,000 iterations of each chain were discarded, and samples of the parameters of interest were saved every 10 iterations. The number of discarded samples was, in all 1604 GOTUZZO ET AL.

cases, much larger than the required burn-in determined by Raftery and Lewis (1992) and Geweke (1992) procedures. The sampling variance of the chains was obtained by computing Monte Carlo standard errors (Geyer, 1992). The "boa" package of R was used to assess convergence and to estimate summary statistics of marginal posterior distributions.

The samples from marginal posterior distributions for the differences between the parameters estimates A, b, k, APOI, and WPOI for sex (male and female) and for generation (first and last) were obtained with the intention to verify statistical significance by \mathbf{HPD} (high posterior density interval at a 95% probability). If the zero value is contained within this range, it is concluded that the parameters of the 2 populations involved in the contrast are not significantly different.

Goodness of fit

The overall goodness of fit was checked by computing the mean square error (MSE) and the deviance information criterion (DIC) proposed by Spiegelhalter et al. (2002). Models with a smaller DIC should be favored as this indicates a better fit and less complexity. More details can be found in Forni et al. (2009).

The goodness of fit at different points of the growth trajectory was evaluated as it is described by Blasco et al. (2003). A predictive density was estimated for each record. The observed values (\mathbf{yr}) were compared with their prediction (\mathbf{Yr}) obtained by using all other records (\mathbf{y}_{-r}) . If the model is adequate, the Yr is a sample from its predictive distribution. We applied the checking functions proposed by Gelfand et al. (1992) to assess the probability of a Yr being lower than the observed one. When the Yr is lower than that observed one (yr), a checking function (\mathbf{g}) is equal to one unit, when the Yr is greater than or equal to the yr, g is zero.

$$g = 1$$
 if $Yr < yr$; $q = 0$ if $Yr > yr$:

The average of these expectations at each point of the longitudinal trajectory shows the goodness of fit in different parts of it. If the model fits the data correctly, the expectation of the checking function at one point of a trajectory given records of all other points $\mathbf{E}(\mathbf{g}|\mathbf{y}_{-r})$ should be close to 0.5, so an overall fit quality criterion is the average of these expectations for all individuals at each point of the growth curve. A graph with these averages computed at each time of the longitudinal trajectory shows whether the fit is good along the curve, or if there are parts of the curve that fit better than others. This technique has the advantage of being free of scale effect due to the different magnitude of the records at each point of the trajectory. The expectation of the checking function $E(g|\mathbf{y}_{-r})$ is calculated using Monte Carlo Markov chain method (see Forni et al., 2009 for a detailed description of the algorithm).

Table 2. Goodness of fit of growth function of European quails.

Growth functions	DIC	MSE	E(g y _{-r})
Gompertz	342,496.00	1.99	0.495
Logistic von Bertalanffy	356,754.10 $386,464.70$	$1.74 \\ 0.53$	$0.457 \\ 0.494$

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The Bayesian procedure applied here, based on a hierarchical mixed model, provides estimates of the growth curve parameters for each animal taking into account individual information and information from relatives and other animals affected by the same systematic effects. Thus, the chance of having incorrect parameters estimates due to a lack of individual information is minimized (Varona et al., 1997). In addition, growth parameters are estimated taking into account the uncertainty on variance components and systematic and random effects of the model, unlike the 2-step procedure (Denise and Brinks, 1985).

No lack of convergence was detected for any chain by visual inspection of sample trace plots, indicating that sampling processes were appropriate. As expected, heritabilities and genetic correlations showed the highest correlation between consecutive samples. However, the Monte Carlo standard error (MCse) was still low (lower than 12% of the posterior mean). The MCse is the error produced by the size of the sample and the lower its value, the better the algorithm performance to approximate the exact response, a larger sample size equals the lower MCse (Blasco, 2017).

Goodness of fit of the different models was evaluated using the DIC. The Gompertz growth function was the one that lead to a smaller DIC value followed by Logistic and von Bertalanffy models, respectively (Table 2). On the other hand, the smallest MSE value was obtained with the von Bertalanffy function and the biggest with the Gompertz function. The MSE can strongly depend on the fitting at the last part of the trajectory due to scale effects, i.e., the magnitude of the errors at the final trajectory is much bigger than the ones obtained in the initial part because of the different magnitude of body weight. Thus, this parameter is not a good indicator of the goodness of fit in the case of growth curves.

The mean of the expected check function proposed by Gelfand et al. (1992) was computed at each point of the longitudinal trajectory. The closer the mean in each point is to 0.5, the better the fit. Values greater 0.5 indicate a greater probability of having predictions smaller than the observed values, whereas values less than 0.5 indicate a greater probability of obtaining predictions bigger than the true record. According to our results (Figure 1), we observed that the probability of a predicted value being bigger or smaller than the observed values was smaller for the Gompertz and the von Bertalanffy growth functions than that for the Logistic model. None of the models overestimated the initial

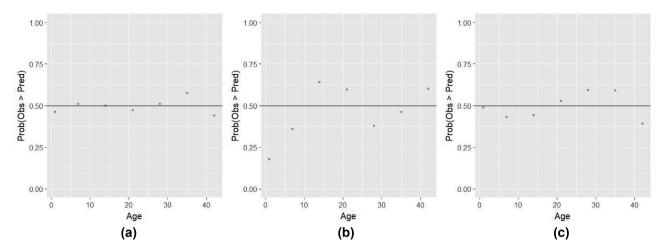


Figure 1. Mean expectations of the Gelfand's check function $E(g|y_x)$ for Gompertz (a), Logistic (b), and von Bertalanffy (c) growth curve for European quails.

weights. The Logistic model underestimated the initial weight and also weight at 7 and 28 d of age, overestimating at 14, 21, and 42 d of age. The von Bertalanffy model underestimated or overestimated to a lesser extent at all ages when it was compared to the Logistic model, but did not generally achieve better fit than Gompertz function, which showed the best fit at any time of the trajectory.

The results of analysis indicated that Gompertz model is the most appropriate to describe growth pattern in this population of meat quails. This result is in agreement with those reported by other authors using different methodologies, such as Akbas and Oguz (1998) using the generalized least squares, Rossi and Santos (2014) adopting a Bayesian procedure with skewnormal errors for female and skew-t for males, Naring et al. (2010a,b) with the NLIN procedure of SAS software, and First et al. (2016) with a 2-step Bayesian procedure. However, it disagrees with results obtained by Shoukry et al. (2015) and Kaplan and Gurcan (2016), who used NLIN procedure of SAS software. Therefore, the results presented in Tables 4–6 and Figure 2 refer to the values obtained with the Gompertz function, which was considered to be the best model.

Table 3 shows means, standard deviations, and Monte Carlo standard error of the marginal posterior distributions of parameters of each growth function for all animals with records. The MCse values were around or lower than 1% of the posterior mean. They are larger values than those obtained by First et al. (2016). However, these authors used a 2-step Bayesian procedure instead of a hierarchical Bayesian model, ignoring uncertainty on estimates of growth curve parameters when they estimate variance components and systematic and random effects of the model. Estimates of A, b, and kwere close to those reported by Drumond et al. (2013) in meat quail, which were estimated by the Gauss Newton algorithm using the NLIN procedure of SAS. More work was done with nonlinear modeling of Japanese quails (Akbas and Oguz, 1998; Akbas and Yaylak, 2000;

Narinç et al., 2010a,b; Rossi and Santos, 2014; Shoukry et al., 2015). However, none of these studies had as many individuals and records as the current study.

When comparing the estimates of A, b, and k with the ones reported in other studies carried out in quail, it can be observed that the values of parameters show the same trends. The parameter A presented highest value in von Bertalanffy followed by Gompertz and finally Logistic function in all studies (Akbas and Oguz, 1998; Narinç et al., 2010b; Drumond et al., 2013; Shoukry et al., 2015; Firat et al., 2016; Kaplan and Gurcan, 2016). The von Bertallanffy model overestimates the values of A and the Logistic model underestimates. As for the k, briefly interpreted as the parameter that determines the slope of the curve, due to its strong association with parameter A, an underestimation of its value is expected with overestimation of A (von bertalanffy) and an overestimation of k by underestimation of A (Logistic). The parameter b reflects the degree of maturation at birth and is interpreted as the greater the values of b, the lower the birth weights or unlike, i.e., both birth and adult weights are overestimated (von Bertalanffy) or underestimated (Logistic).

Our line of quails has been selected for body weight at 42 d of age for 15 generations. It is not possible to assess the correlated response to selection in the parameters of the growth function (i.e., the effect of selection on the growth pattern) because the systematic effect of batch is completely confounded with the genetic effects in each generation (there was just one batch per generation) and we do not have an unselected control population. Therefore, in Figure 2 we show the mean of the phenotypic values of males and females at each generation to show the evolution over time of growth curve parameters which is due to genetic and environmental effects. The estimated A, APOI, and WPOI have increased mainly in the generations 13 and 14 of selection, whereas the k has decreased in both males and females (Figure 2). Blasco et al. (2003) and Piles et al. (2003) using the same methodology to estimate

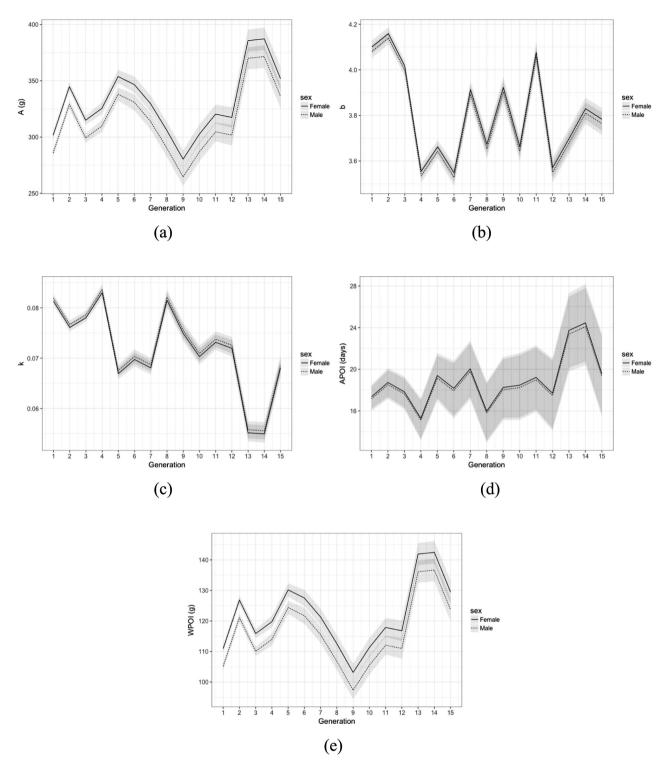


Figure 2. Posterior means and standard deviation (shadow) for A (a), b (b), and k (c), APOI (d), and WPOI (e) parameters of the Gompertz curve by sex and generation.

phenotypic and genetic parameters of the Gompertz function reported that, as a consequence the selection for growth rate at fattening, there was an increase in the asymptotic weight but no change in b and k parameters in their rabbit population.

The results concerning the significance of the contrasts related to the comparison of the first and last gen-

eration for the parameters A, b, k, APOI, and WPOI are shown at Table 4. These results were obtained from differences between the samples of the marginal posterior distributions of each parameter. All HPD for the differences between the parameters of the first and last generations did not contain zero, thus confirming that there were differences in the values for A, b, k, WPOI,

Table 3. Estimating growth curve parameters for meat quails.

Growth function	Trait	Mean	SD^1	$\mathrm{MCse^2}$
Gompertz	A	361.29	61.12	5.41
•	b	3.86	0.22	0.02
	k	0.073	0.011	0.001
Logistic	A	309.89	41.29	3.39
	b	17.34	1.83	0.22
	k	0.130	0.013	0.001
von Bertalanffy	A	450.48	88.12	10.6
v	b	0.76	0.021	0.002
	k	0.044	0.008	0.001

¹SD = posterior standard deviation.

and APOI related to generation. The quails in the last generation were 17% heavier for A and WPOI, k was 15.9% lower, APOI was 12.6% higher, and b was 7.8% lower than in first generation.

In the case of quails, females are heavier than males (Akbas and Oguz, 1998). This result was also observed in our work (Figure 3). The results presented in Table 4 for the differences between sex effects were significant (A, APOI, and WPOI significantly greater in females than in males). Thus, females were heavier than males at adulthood and at the inflexion point of the growth curve, and reach this point later than males. For k and b the results did not show any difference between the 2 sexes.

In Japanese quails for age at the inflexion point, Akbas and Oguz (1998) found 18.74 and 21.22 d of age for males and females, respectively, and Raji et al. (2014) reported age at the inflexion point of 17.36 d for males and 20.37 d for females, both authors using the Gompertz function. Aggrey (2009) applying the Logistic model with nonlinear mixed effects in Japanese quail showed age at the inflexion point for males of 17.5 d and for females of 22.26 d. For age at the inflexion point, the values were similar to the mean of the results found here; however, for the weight at the inflexion point the results in this study were greater than those previously reported by other researchers that ranged from 48.82 to 89.90 g. These results are due to differences between meat quails and Japanese quails and also to differences between populations selected for different criteria.

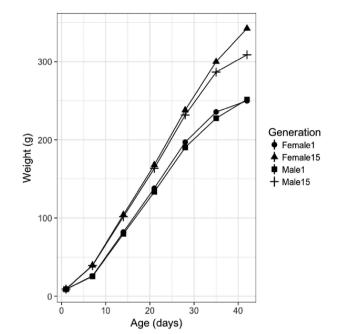


Figure 3. Weight means for female and male by generation (first and last).

The heritabilities of the growth function parameters were moderate (Table 5), indicating that one can expect to obtain some response to selection based on parameters A, b, and k of the growth curve. The highest heritability was for the A (0.32) and the lowest for the k parameter (0.18). Our estimates are similar to the ones reported by Akbas and Oguz (1998) also in quails, but the standard errors of the heritabilities estimates in that study were quite high.

Using the same methodology of our study, Mignon-Grasteau et al. (2000) obtained higher values of heritability in chickens (0.54, 0.43, and 0.60 for adult weight, degree of maturation at birth, and growth rate, respectively) than those found here for meat quails. In a previous analysis of the same data set, Mignon-Grasteau et al. (1999) obtained slightly lower heritability values using restricted maximum likelihood method. The authors attributed those differences in heritabilities to differences between models (including or not

Table 4. Mean of the systemic effects of parameters A, b, k, APOI, and WPOI, by high posterior density interval at a 95% probability (HPD) and Monte Carlo SE (MCse).

	${\bf Sex~effect}^2$				Generation effect ³		
${ m Trait}^1$	Mean	HPD	MCse	Trait	Mean	HPD	MCse
\overline{A}	-15.73	$-18.55; -12.91^4$	0.01	A	50.30	29.33; 70.64	0.60
B	-0.019	-0.041; 0.0024	0.00008	b	-0.32	-0.42; -0.20	0.002
K	0.00061	-0.00006; 0.0013	0.000003	k	-0.013	-0.017; -0.009	0.0001
APOI	-0.24	-0.39; -0.09	0.004	WPOI	18.50	10.79; 25.99	0.22
WPOI	-5.78	-6.82; -4.74	0.0006	APOI	2.18	1.22;3.17	0.03

 $^{^{1}}A$ = asymptotic weight of animal; b = degree of maturation at birth; k = maturation rate; APOI = age at inflexion point; WPOI = weight at inflexion point.

 $^{^{2}}$ MCse = Monte Carlo SE.

²Sex effect = mean of male (A, b, k, APOI, and WPOI) - mean of female (A, b, k, APOI, and WPOI).

³Generation effect = mean of first (A, b, k, APOI, and WPOI) - mean of last (A, b, k, APOI, and WPOI).

 $^{^4}P < 0.05$.

Table 5. Marginal posterior distributions of variance components of Gompertz growth curve parameters for meat quails.

		Genetic variance	riance			Phenotypic variance	
$Trait^1$	Mean	HPD^2	$\mathrm{MCse^3}$	Trait	Mean	HPD	MCse
\overline{A}	875.5	663.8; 1100.1	4.8	A	2685.1	2529.8; 2838.6	1.9
b	0.011	0.007; 0.016	0.00006	b	0.038	0.039; 0.042	0.00004
k	0.00002	0.00001; 0.00003	0.0000001	k	0.00011	0.00010; 0.00012	0.00000004
		Residual variance				Heritability	
Trait	Mean	HPD	MCse	Trait	Mean	HPD	MCse
\overline{A}	1809.7	1640.8; 1981.7	3.0	A	0.32	0.26; 0.40	0.002
b	0.027	0.023; 0.031	0.00003	b	0.29	0.20; 0.39	0.001
k	0.00009	0.00008; 0.00010	0.00000009	k	0.18	0.12;0.24	0.001

¹A = asymptotic weight of animal; b = degree of maturation at birth; k = maturation rate.

Table 6. Marginal posterior distributions of correlation between Gompertz growth curve parameters of meat quails.

0.0002

0.0006

	Genetic correlation				Phenotypic correlation		
$Trait^1$	Mean	HPD^2	MCse^3	Trait	Mean	HPD	MCse
$\overline{A, b}$	0.25	0.05; 0.45	0.003	A, b	0.10	0.03; 0.17	0.0006
A, k	-0.50	-0.63; -0.35	0.002	A, k	-0.72	-0.74; -0.69	0.0002
<u>b, k</u>	0.03	-0.24; 0.27	0.004	b, k	0.26	0.20; 0.32	0.0004
		Residual correlation					
Trait	Mean	HPD	MCse				
1 h	0.04	0.05.0.13	0.0007				

 $^{^{1}}A = \text{asymptotic weight of animal}; b = \text{degree of maturation at birth}; k = \text{maturation rate}.$

-0.82; -0.77

0.26:0.42

-0.80

0.34

A, k

maternal effects) and methodology (using or not information from relatives).

Genetic correlation between A and b parameters was low and positive (0.25), was null between b and k parameters (0.03), and moderate to high and negative between A and k parameters (-0.50) (Table 6). Mignon-Grasteau et al. (2000) also obtained a moderate and negative genetic correlation between A and k parameters of the Gompertz function in chickens. They explain that a high and negative correlation can be expected between A and k parameters due to a rapid decrease in growth rate after inflection point, resulting in a lower asymptotic body weight. Santoro et al. (2005) indicated that the expected genetic correlation between asymptotic weight and growth rate would be negative, since heavier animals would tend to have a lower growth rate than lighter animals. Mignon-Grasteau et al. (2000) also found a positive genetic correlation between A and b parameters but it was much higher than the one observed in our study (0.75). In addition, unlike our results, they found a moderate and negative genetic correlation between b and k parameters (-0.40).

The main interest of poultry geneticists is the genetic improvement of body weight at early ages (Narinc et al., 2014); this study showed a moderate and negative genetic correlation between A and k indicating that animals that mature earlier are less likely to

reach higher adult weights than slower maturing animals. Therefore, this result is favorable if it is not desired to increase the adult weight. If desired, the genetic antagonism between A and k may be partially overcome using crossbreeding systems (Brown et al., 1976).

Phenotypic correlations were low and positive between A and b parameters and between b and k parameters but high and negative between A and k parameters (Table 6). These results differ from the ones obtained by Akbas and Oguz (1998) in Japanese quails who found a very high and positive correlation between b and k parameters (0.99), and low and negative correlation between A and A and A was high and negative (-0.63) as in our study. The phenotypic correlations between Gompertz function parameters estimated by Drumond et al. (2013) in meat quails were high and negative between A and A (-0.60) and between A and A (-0.95), whereas it was high and positive between A and A (0.78).

In conclusion, Gompetz growth function is adequate to establish mean growth patterns in our population of meat quails. The parameter A and consequently APOI and WPOI have increased over time from the first generation of selection, whereas k has decreased. The heritability of growth curve parameters is moderate; therefore, selection for one or more of them in an index

²HPD = High posterior density interval at a 95% probability.

³MCse = Monte Carlo SE.

²HPD = High posterior density interval at a 95% probability.

 $^{{}^{3}\}text{MCse} = \text{Monte Carlo SE}.$

could be feasible. However, because of the negative and moderate to high genetic correlation between A and k it could be difficult or not possible to obtain animals with high (k) growth rate without decreasing (A) adult weight.

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