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Additional Information

1 **Running head:** Genetics of growth, carcass and meat quality in rabbits 2 3 Genetics of growth, carcass and meat quality in rabbits 4 5 Agustin Blasco¹*, István Nagy², Pilar Hernández¹ 6 7 ¹Institut for Animal Science and Technology, Universitat Politècnica de València, 8 P.O. Box 22012. València 46071, Spain 9 ² Department of Animal Breeding, Kaposvár University, 7400 Kaposvár, Hungary 10 *Corresponding author 11 12 Email addresses: ablasco@dca.upv.es (Agustin Blasco), nagy.istvan@ke.hu (István Nagy), 13 phernan@dca.upv.es (Pilar Hernández). 14 15 Abstract 16 This paper reviews the current knowledge on the genetics of growth, carcass and meat 17 traits in rabbits. There is a great variety in size of rabbit breeds, from which commercial 18 production uses medium size breeds for does and large breeds as terminal sires. Selection 19 experiments for growth and feed efficiency have been successful. Selection for residual 20 feed intake did not modify growth rate, acting on reducing the appetite. Selection for 21 growth rate increased adult weight and led to poorer carcass yield when comparing 22 selected and unselected animals at the same commercial weight, but not at the same age, 23 near the same maturity stage. The results on meat/bone ratio do not show a clear pattern. 24 Negative effects on intramuscular fat and some sensorial traits have been found in lines 25 selected for growth rate, but meat quality in general does not seem to be affected. 26 27 Keywords: Rabbit; genetic parameters; growth traits; carcass traits; meat quality; selection 28 29

1. Introduction

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Growth is decisively important in rabbit meat production. Profit functions and economic weights of rabbit meat production have been estimated by Armero & Blasco (1992), Prayaga & Eady (2000) and Cartuche, Pascual, Gómez, & Blasco (2014). Table 1 shows the costs of a typical industrial rabbitry that can be managed by one person. The main economically important traits in rabbit meat production are feed conversion rate (FCR) and litter size. This means that feed efficiency (measured as FCR, feed intake or residual feed intake) can have a decisive influence on profits. Feed conversion rate is difficult and expensive to measure, so correlated traits, such as growth rate, are often used in selection programmes with the aim of improving FCR indirectly, although genetic correlations are not as favourable as in other species. Selection programmes in rabbit commercial schemes are based on three way crosses, in which two lines are selected for litter size and crossed to produce a crossbred commercial doe, and one line is selected for average daily gain (ADG) in order to produce terminal sires (Baselga & Blasco, 1989; Lebas, Coudert, Rochambeau, & Thébault, 1997). This scheme is similar to what is currently used in swine. However, there are important differences, as some aspects of meat quality (e.g., PSE: Pale, Soft, Exudative meat) play an important role in swine schemes and not in rabbits, which do not present PSE meat. Moreover, selection for reducing fat content is important in pigs, but as rabbits have very lean carcasses when sold (Dalle Zotte, 2002; Hernández & Gondret, 2006), fat content is not an important trait.

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Table 1 Distribution of the costs of an industrial rabbitry with 750 reproductive does. Management in batches with A.I. Weaning at 35 days and slaughter at 2.2 kg of live weight (63 days). Elaborated from Cartuche *et al.* (2014).

	€ / doe year	€ / kg live weight	% total
Feeding rabbits for slaughter	60.5	0.53	29.4
Feeding does	32.7	0.28	15.9
Artificial insemination	8.69	0.08	4.2
Replacement reproductive stock	11.8	0.10	5.7
Health	14.3	0.12	6.9
Labour	37.3	0.32	18.1
Amortisation	20.2	0.18	9.8
Others	20.7	0.19	10.1

An important issue when comparing rabbit breeds or lines is to do the comparison at the same stage of maturity. Comparisons at the same commercial weight but a different stage of maturity can be interesting for commercial reasons, but not for finding genetic differences between groups related to carcass or meat quality. As some lines grow quicker than others do, when comparing animals at the same LW or carcass weight, rabbits of some lines are slaughtered at earlier ages, they are younger and the characteristics of the meat are different for two reasons: one is the genetic difference between lines and the other is the differences due to the age. Both effects are confounded, thus if the interest is in genetic differences between lines, they should be compared at the same stage of maturity; i.e., at the same proportion of adult body weight (BW) (Taylor, 1985). Many differences found between breeds or groups of animals under different treatments disappear or are substantially reduced when compared at the same stage of maturity. In commercial rabbit lines, if adult weight is not available, Pascual, Calle & Blasco (2015) showed that comparisons at the same age can be used as a good approximation, but caution should be taken when comparing lines of very different size at the same age, because even at the same age, the stage of maturity can also be different (Ouhayoun & Rouvier, 1973).

2. Genetics of growth traits

2.1. Between-breed genetic variability

Rabbits show a great variation in breed size, from dwarf (about 1 kg of adult weight) to giant lines (about 7 kg of adult weight). From the large variety of existing breeds of rabbits, commercial production uses medium size breeds for reproduction due to their high prolificacy, and large breeds as terminal sires due to their high growth rate. This also facilitates doe management and lowers the maintenance cost, allowing the production of commercial rabbits with a high growth rate.

Comparisons between breeds of very different size have not been published in standard refereed journals but are available in proceedings of congresses by Ouhayoun & Poujardieu (1978) and by Bolet, Brun, Monnerot, Abeni, Arnal, Arnold,... & Zimmermann (2000). Large differences in ADG (more than 15 g/d between 4 wk and 11 wk of age were found between breeds, as expected. An interesting result is the between-breeds negative (favourable) relationship between FCR and growth rate found by Ouhayoun & Poujardieu

89 (1978). FCR between 4 wk and 11 wk varied from 3.61 of Flemish Giant to 4.52 of Small 90 Russian. This type of results has been explained by McCarthy (1980) as due to a better 91 thermoregulation per kg of live weight (LW) of heavy breeds; maintenance energy is lower 92 per kg of BW in giant lines because it is proportional to metabolic weight, which is a power of BW lower than one (BW^{0.75} in the case of adult BW. Therefore, more energy is 93 94 available for growth in giant lines. 95 96 2.2. Genetic parameters of growth traits 97 There are many estimates of heritabilities of weight at a given age, typically at slaughter 98 time (SW), which varies between countries from 9 wk (Spain) to 13 wk of age (North of 99 Italy). There are also many heritability estimates of weaning weight (WW), daily gain 100 (SW-WW) and ADG. Hernández & Gondret (2006) give an average heritability for SW of 101 0.27 from 17 publications, ranging from 0.12 to 0.67. Although they are widely used, 102 average estimates of many papers are not very useful for several reasons. First, estimates 103 may differ in quality, as some have large standard errors or are biased due to the model 104 used or the method of estimation. Second, environmental variability can differ among 105 farms. Third, negative estimates are not normally published or methods of estimation force 106 estimates to be positive, producing bias in the average of estimates. Fourth, some 107 relationships used may lead to estimates that contain non-additive variability (for example, 108 dominance, epistasis, maternal effects, etc.). Generally speaking, estimates of heritabilities 109 tend to be optimistic, so it is usually better to examine the estimates from selection 110 experiments in which control populations or divergent selected populations can offer 111 additional evidence provided by realised heritability estimates. Recently, Piles, David, 112 Ramon, Canario, Rafel, Pascual, Ragab & Sánchez (2017) have shown that selecting 113 rabbits for daily gain under ad libitum conditions can be inefficient under restricted 114 feeding, due to competition between rabbits for feed under restricted conditions. This 115 should be taken into account when selecting for commercial rabbit farms, if they keep their 116 rabbits under a restricted feeding regime. 117 118 Estimates of genetic correlation between growth rate and FCR are lower than those found 119 in other species. Although they have a wide confidence interval, the three values available 120 in the literature are quite similar; Piles, Gómez, Rafel, Ramon & Blasco (2004) give -0.49

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(confidence interval at 95% probability [-0.94. -0.10]) and -0.47 (confidence interval at

95% probability [-0.99, 0.13]) for two different populations, and Drouilhet, Gilbert,

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123	Balmisse, Ruesche, Tircazes, Larzul & Garreau (2013) give -0.38 (s.e. 0.18, which leads to
124	an approximate confidence interval of [-0.74, -0.02]). As the heritability of FCR is not
125	different from the heritability of ADG (between 0.22 and 0.31; Piles et al. (2004),
126	Drouhillet et al. (2013)), if the true genetic correlation is around -0.4 or -0.5, selection for
127	growth rate would be considerably less efficient for improving FCR than direct selection
128	for FCR.
129	
130	Measures of feed efficiency other than FCR have been proposed and we discuss them in
131	paragraph 5.2. Proposed by Koch, Swiger, Chambers & Gregory (1963), residual feed
132	intake (RFI) is the difference between actual feed intake and expected feed intake,
133	according to the requirements for maintenance and growth of the animal. Residual feed
134	intake is often estimated as the residual of a regression equation of feed intake (FI) on
135	ADG and average metabolic weight (average LW between 30 and 63 d to the power 0.75).
136	Residual feed intake has a low heritability (0.10 to 0.16) according to results of Drouilhet
137	et al. (2013). The high value (0.45) from Larzul & Rochambeau (2005) comes from a short
138	divergent selection experiment (one generation) in which growth estimates of BW, ADG
139	and RFI were all unusually high, thus their results should be taken with caution. Genetic
140	correlation between RFI and FCR is very high (0.96, s.e. 0.03, Drouilhet et al. 2013) which
141	means that both traits probably have a similar genetic basis. If this is the case, as the
142	heritability of FCR is much higher, the advantage of using RFI instead of FCR in selection
143	is unclear. Piles, García-Tomas, Rafel, Ramon, Ibañez-Escriche & Varona (2007) have
144	estimated heritabilities of the partial regression coefficients used to define RFI using
145	Bayesian techniques (Blasco 2017). Estimates of the heritability of these coefficients are
146	similar to the estimates for ADG. In paragraph 3.2, we shall discuss advantages and
147	drawbacks of the different forms of measuring feed efficiency.
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150	3. Genetics of carcass traits
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152	3.1. Between-breed genetic variability
153	Comparisons of different breeds and crosses show different tendencies when performed at
154	the same age (Brun & Ouhayoun, 1989, 1994; Lukefahr, Hohenboken, Cheeke, Patton &
155	Kennick, 1982; Metzger, Odermatt, Szendrő, Mohaupt, Romvári, Makai, & Horn
156	2006a; Metzger, Odermatt, Szendrő, Mohaupt, Romvári, Makai, & Sipos, 2006b;

157 Ouyed, Rivest & Brun, 2011; Ozimba & Lukefahr, 1991; Szendrő, Matics, Gerencsér, 158 Radnai, Lengyel, Nagy, Riovanto & Dalle Zotte, 2009; Szendrő, Matics, Gerencsér, Nagy, 159 Lengyel, Horn & Dalle Zotte 2010; Rouvier, 1970) or at the same BW (Gómez, Baselga, 160 Rafel & Ramon, 1998; Hernández, Ariño, Grimal & Blasco, 2006; Pla, Hernández & 161 Blasco, 1996; Pla, Guerrero, Guardia, Olivier & Blasco, 1998). 162 163 Breeds with a lower adult BW consequently have a higher maturity at slaughter, as 164 observed by Gómez et al. (1998) Hernández et al. (2006) and Pla et al.1 996, 1998). They 165 had better dress out percentage, lower ratio of the fore part, higher ratio of the hind part 166 and greater fat depots (e.g. perirenal fat weight). 167 168 The number of studies evaluating the effects of heterosis based on the different crosses is 169 scarce (Brun & Ouhayoun 1989, 1994; Ouyed et al. 2011). Although in some cases 170 favourable results were obtained for carcass yield and carcass fatness, carcass composition 171 traits were generally unaffected by individual or by maternal heterosis. 172 173 3.2. Genetic parameters of carcass traits 174 Due to the large samples needed to estimate genetic parameters with enough precision, the 175 number of studies estimating the genetic parameters for carcass traits of rabbits is scarce. 176 Heritability estimates of the weight of different carcass parts are in general moderate, and 177 common litter effects are also moderate (Al-Saef, Khalil, Al-Dobaib, Al-Homidan, García 178 & Baselga, 2008; Ferraz, Johnson & Eler, 1991; Ferraz, Johnson & Van Vleck, 1992), 179 (ranging between 0.29 and 0.39), but they are equal or higher than the respective 180 heritabilities of the body parts showing maternal influence for these traits. The heritability 181 estimates of carcass ratio traits have been generally higher than those for carcass parts and 182 carcass composition traits, and varied from moderate to high. The highest heritability 183 estimate was observed for fat (perirenal fat percentage), whereas muscle percentage, which 184 has much greater importance for consumers, is only moderately heritable. Thigh muscle 185 volume measured in vivo by Computer Tomography (CT) showed low heritabilities (Gyovai, Nagy, Gerencsér, Metzger, Radnai & Szendrő, 2008; Gyovai, Nagy, Gerencsér, 186 187 Matics, Radnai, Donkó, ... & Szendrő, 2012; Nagy, Gyovai, Radnai, Matics, Gerencsér, 188 Donkó & Szendrő, 2010; Nagy, Gyovai, Radnai, Nagyné Kiszlinger, Farkas & Szendrő, 189 2013), but the average surface of the CT estimation of Longissimus dorsi et lumborum

(LTL) muscle had a substantially higher heritability. Using ultrasound, the heritability of

91	Longissimus lumborum muscle surface (between the 2nd and 3rd lumbar vertebrae) was
92	moderate (Lenoir & Morien, 2015, 2016). The magnitude of maternal effects was generally
93	low for carcass components (Krogmeier, Dzapo & Mao, 1994) and for muscle traits
94	measured in vivo (Gyovai et al. 2008, 2012; Nagy et al. 2010, 2013).
95	
96	Dress out percentage has a moderate heritability, according to a large number of studies.
97	However, dress out percentages of the different studies were not directly comparable, as
98	slaughter time was different (96 vs. 63 days) (e.g. Krogmeier et al. 1994 vs. Garreau, Eady,
99	Hurtaud & Legarra, 2008; Larzul, Gondret, Combes & de Rochambeau, 2005), some
200	studies did not follow the WRSA recommendations (Blasco, Ouhayoun & Masoero, 1993;
201	Blasco & Ouhayoun, 1996) for dissection, distal parts of the legs were not removed
202	(Rouvier 1970) or carcasses did not include the head (Ferraz et al. 1992; Lukefahr, Odi &
203	Atakora, 1996). Moreover, several authors (Al-Saef et al. 2008; Ferraz et al. 1992;
204	Krogmeier et al. 1994) used hot carcass weight for calculating dress out percentage instead
205	of cold carcass weight. There is only one experiment reporting different heritabilities for
206	different colour values, ranging from 0.11 of b* (yellowness) to 0.36 of a* (redness)
207	(Martínez-Álvaro, Hernández & Blasco A. 2016a).
208	
209	Sample size of carcass studies is limited due to its cost. As large samples are needed to
210	estimate genetic correlations with precision, estimates of the published experiments have
211	large standard errors and should be taken with caution. The available literature is limited to
212	only a few publications. Garreau et al. (2008) and Krogmeier et al. (1994) did not find a
213	genetic correlation between dress out percentage and perirenal fat percentage. Nagy,
214	Ibañez, Mekkawy, Metzger, Horn & Szendrő (2006) have published some genetic
215	correlations based on CT scans, observing a negative genetic correlation between muscle
216	LTL volume and perirenal fat weight and a moderately high genetic correlation between
217	the average cross sectional area of the LTL muscle and dress out percentage. This latter
218	finding was corroborated by Lenoir & Morien (2015) using ultrasound technique. Thigh
219	muscle volume showed a null genetic correlation with dress out percentage and a
220	moderately strong correlation with hind part percentage (Nagy et al., 2010). Consequently,
221	selection for thigh muscle volume by CT might also improve hind part percentage.
222	

4. Genetics of rabbit meat quality

225 Meat quality depends on many traits affected by different metabolic pathways. Hitherto no 226 single genes affecting rabbit meat quality have been discovered, thus the genetic 227 determination of meat quality in rabbits is multi-trait and seemingly multifactorial. Meat 228 quality is measured after slaughter and the traits measured are often difficult and expensive 229 to record. These difficulties, plus the fact of having neither a single measure nor a single 230 gene to concentrate the efforts to improve meat quality, prevent the inclusion of meat 231 quality in selection programmes. Nevertheless, the consequences on meat quality of 232 current selection programmes for growth should be examined. 233 234 4.1. Genetic variability between rabbit lines 235 Differences between lines or crosses have been found for several meat traits. These 236 differences may be due to differences in the genetic composition of the lines compared. 237 However, in meat quality studies, the sample size is small because traits are difficult and 238 expensive to record, which often leads to non-significant differences that could be relevant. 239 For example, small sample sizes sometimes do not allow us to draw conclusions when 240 comparing lines. For both reasons, variability in the genetic composition of the lines 241 compared and small sample size, the comparison between lines is not very informative and 242 often helps only as a first indication about the variability that can be found for certain 243 characteristics. Given the great variability in size among rabbit lines, some studies have 244 associated differences in some meat characteristics to differences in line size. Hulot & 245 Ouhayoun (1999) reviewed the literature on breed differences in meat pH, finding 246 substantial differences between lines or crosses (roughly one standard deviation of the 247 trait). In general, no association between breed size and meat pH can be inferred, as no 248 clear pattern appears. Blasco & Piles (1990) did not find any correlation within lines 249 between carcass weight and meat pH. 250 Differences in meat colour values (L*a*b*) have also been found by Bernardini Battaglini, 251 Castellini & Lattaioli (1995), Hernández et al. (2006) and Dalle Zotte, Szendrő, Gerencsér, 252 Szendrő, Cullere, Odermatt, ..., & Matics (2015) in lines of different sizes, but without a 253 clear pattern either. No differences in water holding capacity (WHC) were found by 254 Bernardini Battaglini et al. (1995) and Ariño, Hernández & Blasco (2006) when comparing 255 lines of different size. 256 257 Differences in meat texture between synthetic giant and medium lines were reported by 258 Lukefahr et al. (1982) and by Ariño et al. (2006). In both cases, the heavy lines were more

259 tender, and in the study of Ariño et al. (2006), the heavier line had higher proteolytic 260 activity and lower collagen content. Ariño, Hernández, Pla & Blasco (2007) also 261 performed a sensory analysis, finding differences in tenderness in the same direction, but 262 no differences in flavour or odour traits were found. 263 264 Using the same lines, Ramírez, Díaz, Pla, Gil, Blasco & Oliver (2005) and Hernández, 265 Cesari & Blasco (2008) compared lipid content and fatty acid composition of rabbit hind 266 leg meat and perirenal fat. They found no differences in MUFA, but lower SFA and higher 267 PUFA percentages in one of the lines selected for litter size; the differences were 268 substantial, more than one standard deviation of the indices. Other authors (Gasperlin, 269 Polak, Rajar, Skvarea & Lender, 2006) found no differences in SFA, MUFA and PUFA 270 between a local breed and a commercial breed, but their experiment had a small number of 271 animals and s.e. were high. Hernández et al. (2008) also found differences in lipolytic 272 activities between a line selected for growth rate and lines selected for litter size, but free 273 FA after refrigerated storage were not influenced by rabbit line. No differences were found 274 either for the enzyme activity of the muscle energy metabolism, such as aldolase and 275 ICDH, or for oxidative parameters (Hernández et al. 2006). 276 277 **4.2.** Genetic parameters of meat quality traits in rabbits 278 The only meat quality traits for which reliable estimates of heritability have been published 279 are muscular pH, colour, intramuscular fat, meat FA profile and instrumental texture. 280 Larzul et al. (2005) gave a heritability estimate of 0.16 for ultimate pH (pHu), but its s.e. 281 was high (0.09) and it was not different from zero. A similar result, 0.08 with a 95% 282 confidence interval of [0.01, 0.20] was found by Martinez-Alvaro et al. (2016a). However, 283 Larzul & Rochambeau (2005) gave a heritability of 0.50 (s.e. 0.16); despite its large 284 confidence interval, this result suggests that selection might be possible on pHu. Carcass 285 colour (L*a*b*) shows conflicting results, with heritabilities near zero (Larzul & 286 Rochambeau, 2005; Larzul et al. 2005), or between 0.14 and 0.25 (Martinez-Alvaro et al. 287 2016a). The latter result is consistent with the correlated response to selection found in an 288 experiment by Hernández, Aliaga, Pla & Blasco (2004) that we shall see in paragraph 5.3. 289 A Bayesian estimate of heritability (Blasco 2017) of intramuscular fat (IMF) was provided 290 by Martinez-Alvaro et al. (2016a). The estimate was 0.54, with a probability of 95% of 291 being higher than 0.40, and this high heritability was corroborated by results of a selection 292 experiment, as we shall see later. Genetic correlations between IMF and carcass fat depots

were positive but relatively low (0.3), of the same order as the correlation between IMF and reference carcass weight, meat/bone ratio and pHu (Martinez-Alvaro et al. 2016a). This is an interesting result, showing that an increment in meat quality increasing IMF is not necessarily accompanied by a rapid impairment of carcass quality incrementing fat depots. A single study estimating heritabilities of fat composition (Martinez-Alvaro et al. 2016a) shows low heritability (0.09) for SFA, and high heritabilities for MUFA (0.61) and PUFA (0.45), as well as for the PUFA:SFA ratio (0.42). Genetic correlations between IMF and meat FA percentages were strong and positive for MUFA, with a strong and negative PUFA and PUFA:SFA ratio. Correlation between IMF and SFA was positive, but the estimate had a wide confidence interval. Martinez-Alvaro et al. (2018c) also found high heritabilities for percentages of individual FA C14:0, C18:0, C16:1, C18:1n-9, C18:2n-6 and C20:4n-6. High positive genetic correlations were found between IMF and C14:0, C16:1, C18:1n-9 and strong negative correlations for C18:0, C18:2n-6, and C20:4n-6. All these estimates were corroborated by observed correlated responses to selection, described in section 5.5. Instrumental texture (Warner-Bratzler shear force; WBSF) showed a high heritability, 0.57 (Larzul et al. 2005), with a rather surprising low s.e. (0.02). Genetic correlations between growth rate and pHu, and growth rate and WBSF, were not different from zero. The former correlation agrees with the null correlated response in pH obtained in selection experiments for growth rate, but the correlation between WBSF and growth rate was not confirmed by selection experiments, as described in paragraph 5.3.

5. Selection experiments

A common problem when evaluating selection experiments is the lack of a control population for estimating the response to selection. When a control is not available, mixed model techniques allow us to estimate this response, but the estimate is heavily dependent on the estimates of genetic parameters used in the model. If these parameters are estimated with the same set of data or in the same population, a better estimate of the response is obtained. However, experience shows that heritabilities are often overestimated due to biases from ignoring non-additive variability or part of the environmental variance. For example, it is well known that the litter size estimates of heritabilities are around 0.10 and that the responses of selection experiments are much lower than expected. Divergent selection experiments allow us to use each population as control of the other, but symmetry in the response is not guaranteed and, consequently, biased estimates of response may

327 result. A control population gives a set of data not affected by selection and provides the 328 means to obtain an unbiased estimate of response although, due to limitations in 329 experimental facilities, it is less accurate than those obtained using mixed model 330 methodology. We consider selection experiments for growth, feed efficiency and meat 331 quality in this review. 332 333 5.1. Selection for growth 334 Only published experiments on selection for growth rate are hereafter considered, whereas 335 multipurpose lines or lines selected for other traits are not contemplated. Responses to 336 selection for growth rate have been reported by Rochambeau, de la Fuente, Rouvier & 337 Ouhayoun (1989), Lukefahr et al. (1996), Piles & Blasco (2003) and Larzul et al. (2005) 338 with a control population, and two divergent selection experiments were performed by 339 Moura, Kaps, Vogt & Lamberson (1997). Recently, an experiment of selection for ADG under restricted feed consumption was carried out by Drouilhet et al. (2013) and 340 341 Drouilhet, Achard, Zemb, Molette, Gidenne, Larzul, ... & Gilbert (2016), as nowadays in 342 intensive farming conditions the rabbits are generally under restricted feeding regimes to 343 prevent digestive disorders after weaning. Other studies have a less clear interpretation 344 (Rochambeau, Retailleau, Poivey & Allain, 1994; Ferraz et al. 1992), or an arguable 345 methodology (Niedzwiadek, Fijal & Bielanski, 1992). 346 347 In all these experiments, the selection was successful. In those with a control population, 348 Rochambeau et al. (1989), selecting for ADG between 30 and 77 days of age, obtained a 349 response per generation of 0.83 g/d in eight generations of selection, which represents a 350 progress of 2% of the mean per generation. Piles & Blasco (2003) obtained lesser progress, 351 0.56 g/d per generation in seven generations of selection, 1.2 % of their mean per 352 generation. In both experiments a correlated response was observed in slaughter weight 353 (SW) (77 and 63 days of age, respectively), but not in weaning weight (WW). This is 354 expected, as weight gain after weaning is a large part of SW. Lukefahr et al. (1996) 355 directly selected by LW at 70 days, obtaining a correlated response in five generations of 356 selection of 2.7 g/d from 28 to 70 days of age, which represents 1.4% of the mean per 357 generation. Larzul et al. (2005) selected for LW at 63 days in a divergent selection 358 experiment, also with a control population. The difference between high and low lines for 359 ADG between 28 and 63 days of age after five generations of selection was 12 g/d, the 360 control population being intermediate between both values. As response was symmetrical,

361 the correlated response per generation in ADG was 6 g/d in five generations, 1.2% per 362 generation. The divergent selection experiment for ADG of Moura et al. (1997) gives a 363 difference between high and low line of 8.4 g/d from 56-60 days to 84-88 days of age, 364 which means 4.5% of the mean per generation, or 2.25% per generation if the response was 365 symmetrical. However, it appears that Moura et al. (1997) had greater success in 366 decreasing daily gain than in increasing it. Under restricted feeding, selection for ADG led 367 to a response of 1.9 g/day after nine generations of selection, corresponding to 0.5% of the mean of this trait per generation (Garreau, Gilbert, Molette, Larzul, Balmisse, Ruesche, ... 368 369 & Drouilhet, 2015a; Garreau, Gilbert, Molette, Larzul, Balmisse, Ruesche & Secula-370 Tircazes, 2016), lower than the response found in experiments without restriction. This 371 was expected, as the full potential for growth is not necessarily expressed under restriction. 372 Restricted feeding had an important effect on ADG, and the authors found a difference of 373 11.2 g/d between restricted and ad libitum feeding in their lines. 374 375 It is important to note that observed responses were in all cases lower than the expected 376 responses based on previous heritability estimates of ADG or LW. However, as rabbit 377 generation interval for growth rate selection can be very small (six months), the responses 378 would be between 2 and 4% of the mean per year, which are good results compared with 379 other domestic species (Smith, 1984). 380 381 **5.2.** Selection for feed efficiency 382 Several traits measuring feed efficiency can be found in the literature. The most common 383 one is FCR, the ratio between feed intake (FI) and body weight gain (BWG) in a fixed range of days. Recently, RFI has been widely used in several animal species. Both 384 385 measurements have advantages and disadvantages. A good FCR can be obtained by 386 reducing FI at a given weight, or augmenting LW for a given amount of FI. Selection for 387 FCR acts mainly on the most variable trait, the numerator, and tends to reduce 388 consumption without increasing BWT. This has been observed in growing pigs (see 389 review by Webb 1989), and later in sows (see review by Prunier, Heinonen & Quesnel, 390 2010), which may create some problems in the future when nutrition demands for 391 maintaining higher litter size will increase. Another issue is that the correlation between 392 FCR and LW or ADG gives rise to the so-called "spurious correlations" (Pearson, 1897), 393 as FCR includes LW in the denominator. Whereas this can be taken into account for 394 interpreting results, it is irrelevant for its inclusion in a selection index, in which

correlations are considered to obtain the maximum profit, independently of how they are generated. On the other hand, RFI has also received criticisms. As Kennedy, Van der Werf & Meuwissen (1993) demonstrated, using RFI in a selection index instead of FCR does not add any new information to the index. If RFI is directly selected without its inclusion in an index, profits will be lower, as the component traits are not weighted to obtain the maximum benefit, as the index does. Besides, we have seen before that RFI in the rabbit seems to have a genetic correlation with FCR close to one but a lower heritability, so its use in selection would be less efficient for improving feed efficiency than measuring FCR directly. Moreover, RFI is not a residual, but an estimate of a residual; this means that the error of estimation and the correlations between estimated residuals are not considered (residuals are uncorrelated, but the estimates of residuals are not). A further criticism is that metabolic weight, when used in the definition of RFI, is estimated as BW to the power of 0.75, which is right for adult animals, but metabolic weight in growing animals can have quite different powers, being about 1.0 –i.e., directly proportional to weight—during growth (Brody 1945, pp. 448-449; Taylor 2009). Selection index for ADG and FI or FCR using appropriate economic weights should be the method giving the highest expected profit. However, selection indexes are sensitive to errors in the estimation of genetic parameters, which can lead to lower profits than expected. If so, selection for FCR or RFI may produce better results.

Experiments on feed efficiency in rabbits have been performed selecting for FCR (Moura et al. 1997), RFI (Larzul & Rochambeau, 2005; Drouhillet et al. 2013, 2016) and ADG under restricted feeding (Drouillet et al. 2013, 2016). The divergent selection experiment of Moura et al. (1997) reports inconsistent results for the differences between lines, with the high line having a lower FCR than the low line at the end of the experiment. However, using mixed model techniques they found a symmetric progress of 0.6% per generation in each direction for FCR in the period ranging from 56-60 days to 84-88 days of age. The divergent selection experiment on RFI carried out by Larzul & Rochambeau (2005) was too short to drive conclusions; they only had one generation of selection and their results comparing high and low lines were not significant, therefore nothing can be said about whether selection on RFI was successful or not. A longer experiment was carried out on RFI between 30 and 65 d of age by Drouilhet et al. (2013, 2016), showing remarkably similar results when using a control population or analysing the whole experiment by using mixed model techniques. After nine generations of selection, they found a response

429 of -39 g of RFI per generation, and a correlated response of -0.20 in FCR, corresponding 430 to decreases of 0.9% and 0.8% per generation, respectively (Garreau et al. 2015a, 2016). 431 No correlated response was found for growth rate, showing that selection acted upon 432 reducing appetite. 433 434 **5.3.** Consequences of selection for growth rate or feed efficiency 435 Selection experiments have been successful, and the cumulative progress per year allows 436 us to increase growth rate substantially in a few years' time. This has several 437 consequences, which we shall subsequently examine: 438 439 5.3.1. Changes in adult weight 440 As Taylor (1985) stressed, all BW are genetically correlated and selection for growth rate 441 should lead to an increase in adult weight. This was shown in rabbits by Blasco et al. 442 (2003) fitting growth curves to a line selected by growth rate and to a control population. 443 Adult weight increased by 1% per generation, near the progress obtained in growth rate. 444 Taylor (1980) suggested comparing growth curves by representing them in a metabolic 445 scale in which the axes would be stage of maturity (i.e., weight divided by adult weight) 446 from 0 to 100%, and metabolic time. This metabolic time comes from the observation by 447 Taylor (1965) that time to reach maturity is proportional to metabolic adult weight (Taylor 448 estimates metabolic adult weight as adult weight to the power of 0.73), thus 'metabolic 449 time' is actual time divided by metabolic adult weight. When curves of the selected and 450 control populations were represented in Taylor's metabolic scale, the effect of selection 451 disappeared, showing that selection did not change the shape of the curve (Blasco, Piles & 452 Varona, 2003) and that adult weight increased due to a scale effect. In consequence, lines 453 selected for growth rate would become giant lines, more expensive to maintain and 454 manage. Nevertheless, in modern industrial rabbit production this should not be a serious 455 problem, as artificial insemination is widely used and very few terminal sires are needed. 456 457 5.3.2. Changes in FCR 458 As SW is determined by the market, lines selected for growth rate are slaughtered at 459 earlier ages, saving on feeding costs. This is the main cause of the improvement in FCR. 460 When compared at the same age, the selected line will have a higher LW and consequently 461 a better use of energy for maintenance, as the losses are proportional to a power of BW

lower than 1 (0.75 for adult weight). Larzul et al. (2005) did not find differences in FCR

between a line selected for ADG and the control line after five generations of selection. The only direct evidence of FCR improvement through selection on ADG comes from the three generations of the selection experiment of Moura et al. (1997), showing consistently lower values for FCR in the line selected to increase ADG, and a progress around 3.5% of the mean of the trait per generation in each direction. However, the line selected for FCR did not show appreciable changes in ADG, so no straightforward conclusions can be drawn from the experiment. Consequences of selection for growth rate on feed efficiency can also be drawn from estimated genetic parameters. Unfortunately, many data items (at least a few thousand) are needed to estimate genetic correlations with reasonable accuracy, and this is not feasible for traits like individual FCR that are expensive to measure. Under restricted feeding, Garreau, Molette, Gilbert, Larzul & Balmisse (2015b) found a correlated response in FCR of -0.19, corresponding to 0.8% of the mean per generation, a remarkably similar result to the response for FCR in their line selected for RFI quoted previously (Garreau et al. 2015a). As the crucial trait in rabbit meat production is FCR (Cartuche et al. 2014) and both lines had almost the same response to selection for this trait, selection for growth rate under restricted feeding seems easier to implement in a genetic programme. This will produce heavier animals in the long term (Garreau et al. 2015a, Drouilhet et al. 2016) but if the commercial slaughter weight remains the same, the only consequence would be that rabbits will be slaughtered earlier.

5.3.3. Changes in carcass quality

Rabbits selected for growth rate are slaughtered at the same commercial weight as unselected rabbits, thus they are slaughtered at earlier ages and are younger than rabbits that were not selected for growth rate. Slaughtering younger animals implies a poorer carcass yield, a slightly higher bone ratio and a slightly different proportion of retail cuts. A lower fat content is also expected, as fat is a tissue of late deposition; however, selection for growth rate increases appetite, and it is well known in other species that an increment of daily FI can lead to fat deposition independently of age (Whittemore, 1987). The effect of selection for growth rate at fixed BW has been estimated by Gondret, Larzul, Combes & de Rochambeau H (2005) and Pascual & Pla (2007). Both studies found a higher dissectible fat percentage of the carcass and a lower meat/bone ratio in the hind leg of the line selected for increased ADG, and Gondret *et al.* (2005) found a poorer carcass yield in this line, as expected. As rabbits were slaughtered at a different maturity stage, there is confounding between the actual effect of selection and the effect of maturity.

498 Because retail cuts and tissue composition are highly correlated to BW, large differences 499 are not expected when comparing at the same stage of maturity, as growth curves are 500 almost coincident when they are expressed in metabolic scale. Pascual, Pla & Blasco 501 (2008) have examined the effect of selection for growth rate on the relative growth of 502 carcass tissues and retail cuts. They compared allometric coefficients of retail cuts of the 503 line selected for growth rate by Piles & Blasco (2003) and a control population, and 504 compared hind leg meat and bone tissues. After 11 generations of selection, no effect of 505 selection on the relative growth of any of the components studied was found. The effect of 506 selection for growth rate on carcass composition at the same age has been examined by 507 Lukefahr et al. (1996), Hernández et al. (2004) and Larzul et al. (2005), and by Garreau et 508 al. (2015b) under restricted feeding conditions. Lukefahr et al. (1996) and Hernández et 509 al. (2004) did not find differences between selected and control group in carcass yield, 510 although Larzul et al. (2005) found a small difference in favour of the selected line for 511 high ADG. Hernández et al. (2004) found less fat in the line selected for ADG than in the 512 control line, a result also found in former analysis of the same line (Piles, Blasco & Pla, 513 2000), which is not in agreement with results found by Larzul et al. (2005), who observed 514 more dissectible fat in the high than in the low line. The norms of the World Rabbit 515 Science Association (Blasco & Ouhayoun, 1996) recommend using the meat and bones of 516 the hind leg for comparisons, as it is more closely related to the meat, bone and meat/bone 517 ratio of the whole carcass. Lukefahr et al. (1996) only considered the loin cut, finding no 518 differences between groups, but some advantage for the selected line in muscle/bone ratio 519 of this retail cut. Differences in meat/bone ratio of the hind leg were found by Gondret et 520 al. (2005) in their divergent selection experiment for ADG, where the low line had a better 521 ratio than the control, although no differences were found between the control and the high 522 line; conversely, Hernández et al. (2004) observed a higher meat/bone ratio in the line 523 selected for ADG. As a general pattern, no differences were found by Hernández et al. 524 (2004) between selected and control lines in retail cuts and other parts of the carcass 525 (head, kidneys, liver, lungs and heart). In the study of selection for growth rate under 526 restricted feeding conditions (Drouilhet et al. 2013, 2016), a substantial correlated 527 response in perirenal fat was found (19% reduction in 9 generations of selection, 2% of the 528 mean of the trait per generation), although no response in scapular fat occurred. No 529 correlated responses in hind leg, intermediate part of the carcass, meat/bone ratio and 530 carcass yield were found. Their line selected for RFI had an even higher correlated

response in perirenal fat (33% in 9 generations of selection, 3.6% of the mean of the trait per generation), and a substantial response in scapular fat (2% of the mean per generation). Favourable correlated responses in hind leg proportion and meat/bone ratio were also obtained in this line.

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5.3.4. Changes in meat quality

537 Changes in meat quality due to selection for growth rate have been investigated by 538 Hernández et al. (2004) (study 1), and in a divergent selection experiment by Larzul et al. 539 (2005) (study 2), with both experiments using control populations. There are many traits 540 related to meat quality and it is not always easy to summarise them or to find a single way to characterise meat. Among the most important meat quality traits are L*a*b* colour and 542 pHu. Differences in colour between selected and control lines in LTL meat were found in 543 study 1. In rabbits, usually sold as whole carcass or as retail cuts, the colour of the carcass 544 can be considered a quality trait more closely related to consumer preferences than meat quality. Hernández et al. (2004) found that the selected line had higher L*, and lower a* 546 and b* values than the control line, whereas in study 2 no differences were observed 547 between selected and control lines. The pHu was measured in the m. LTL in study 1 548 (Ramírez, Oliver, Pla, Guerrero, Ariño, Blasco, Pascual & Gil 2004) and in m. 549 Semitendinosus and m. LTL in study 2 (Larzul et al. 2005), and no differences were 550 observed between selected and control lines. As for WHC, it was lower in the selected line of study 1, a difference that was also observed for cooked meat in previous analyses with 552 the same lines, although in cooked meat the evidence was less strong (Piles et al., 2000). 553 There is some evidence in study 1 of selection for growth rate increasing the percentage of 554 fat content in the meat of the hind leg, as well as changes in FA composition. However, 555 changes in indices related to human health were very small, the strongest effect being for 556 the PUFA/SFA ratio, which only decreased from 1.06 to 0.95 in 14 generations of 557 selection (Ramírez et al. 2005). Selection for growth rate changed meat toughness in both 558 experiments (study 1: Ramírez et al. 2004; study 2: Larzul et al. 2005, study 2), but it 559 affected texture parameters without a clear pattern. Nevertheless, no difference in 560 tenderness, juiciness or fibrousness was detected by a trained panel test in study 1. Moreover, muscle fibre analyses, more related to the myofibrillar tenderness, showed no 562 differences in fibre typing and diameter between the line selected for increasing growth 563 rate and the control line (study 2). Selection for growth rate had a negative effect on some 564 sensory traits, as it increased liver flavour and decreased aniseed odour and flavour (study

565 1; Hernández, Guerrero, Ramírez, Mekkawy, Pla, Ariño, Ibañez & Blasco, 2005). Other 566 traits related to meat quality analyses were also investigated: proteolytic enzyme activities 567 (calpains and cathepsins activities and cysteine proteinase inhibitors) and lipolytic enzyme 568 activities in study 1 showed no effect of selection for growth rate (Gil, Ramírez, Pla, 569 Ariño, Hernández, Pascual, ... & Oliver, 2006). When selecting for growth rate under 570 restricted feeding (see section 5.2), no change of WHC in cooked meat was observed, but 571 some differences in pHu and L* emerged (Molette, Gilbert, Larzul, Balmisse, Ruesche, 572 Manse, ... & Drouilhet 2016). Minor unfavourable changes in the latter traits were found 573 for their line selected for RFI. 574 575 The general picture is that selection for growth rate does not clearly affect meat quality, 576 with the experiments showing some small changes, not always in the same direction, 577 which may be attributed to genetic drift or sampling error. 578 579 5.4. Selection for increasing muscle volume 580 Based on CT scanning of live rabbits, two divergent selection experiments were 581 performed. In the first experiment (Szendrő, Romvári, Horn, Radnai, Bíró-Németh & 582 Milisits, 1996), male rabbits were selected for the average surface of the m. Longissimus lumborum (between the 2nd and 3rd and 4th and 5th lumbar vertebra), and the experiment 583 584 lasted two and three generations for the low and high lines, respectively. In the second 585 experiment, both males and females were selected (Szendrő, Metzger, Nagy, Szabó, 586 Petrási, Donkó & Horn, 2012), for increasing thigh muscle volume and the trial lasted 587 three generations. The selection experiments were both successful. In the first experiment 588 (Szendrő et al. 1996), for the average surface of the m. Longissimus lumborum a difference 589 of 1.3 cm² was observed between the high and low lines, and a correlated response of 2% 590 for dress out percentage. The intermediate and hind parts of the rabbit carcass differed by 591 22 and 14 g, respectively, whereas the gastrointestinal tract had a 23 g difference between 592 high and low lines. Similar results were reported in the second experiment (Szendrő et al., 593 2012), where the difference between the thigh muscle volumes between the high and low lines was 25 cm³; moreover, the high line had lower FI (128 vs 138 g/d) and better FCR 594 595 (2.81 vs 3.01). Percentages of the fore part (30.1 vs 29.4%), perirenal fat (2.40 vs 1.90%) and scapular fat (1.07 vs 0.49%) of the reference carcass were higher in the low line, 596 597 whereas ratios of the hind part (36.3 vs 38.2%) and meat of both hind legs (26.9 vs. 28.7%) 598 were higher in the high line. Therefore, CT-aided selection can improve muscle volume

599 and other carcass traits. The main results of the breeding programme based on CT-aided 600 selection were summarised by Matics, Nagy, Gerencsér, Radnai, Gyovai, Donkó, ... & 601 Szendrő (2014). 602 603 5.5. Selection for intramuscular fat content 604 Intramuscular fat (IMF) is a main meat quality factor, affecting sensory properties and 605 related to the nutritional value of the meat. A divergent selection experiment on IMF of 606 rabbits was carried out by Zomeño, Hernández & Blasco (2013a, 2013b), Martinez-Alvaro 607 et al. (2016a) and Martínez-Álvaro, Penalba, Hernández & Blasco (2016b), evaluating 608 candidates for selection with the IMF of muscle *Longissimus dorsi* from two sibs. After 609 seven generations of divergent selection, they obtained a divergence around 5% of the 610 mean (1.09 g/100 g) per generation, with both lines following a symmetrical trend 611 (Martinez-Alvaro et al. 2016a). Positively correlated responses to IMF selection were 612 found in Biceps femoris, Supraspinatus and Semimembranosus proprius muscles 613 (Martínez-Álvaro, Hernández, Agha & Blasco, 2018a). No correlated responses were 614 found for pHu in any muscle. Colour traits of the carcass and of the meat were not affected 615 by selection, (Martinez-Alvaro et al. 2016a). Greater lipogenic activities in muscles 616 Semimembranosus proprius and LTL, perirenal fat and liver were observed in the high line 617 than in the low line (Martínez-Álvaro, Blasco & Hernández, 2017; Martínez-Álvaro, 618 Paucar, Satué, Blasco & Hernández, 2018b). There was a correlated response in perirenal 619 fat content, which was greater in the high line. Correlated responses were found in meat 620 FA percentages. The low line had greater PUFA and lower MUFA than the high line, 621 whereas SFA was similar in both lines (Martinez-Alvaro et al. 2016a), leading to 622 unfavourable values for PUFA/SFA and favourable MUFA/SFA ratios in the high line. In 623 general, individual FA of the MUFA and PUFA groups showed a similar pattern, with the 624 exception of C18:3n-3 percentage, which was greater in the high line. (Martínez-Álvaro et 625 al. 2017). The same pattern was found in other muscles (Martínez-Álvaro, Blasco & 626 Hernández, 2018c). The increase of dissectible fat and the worsening in PUFA/SFA ratio 627 means that selection for IMF can deteriorate carcass and meat quality from a nutritional 628 point of view. However, the amount of dissectible fat in rabbit carcasses (2.5% at 9 wk and 629 3.5% at 13 wk, Hernández et al. 2004) and the percentage of IMF are so low in rabbits 630 (about 1%, Zomeño et al. 2013a) that differences due to selection would not compromise 631 human health when consuming rabbit meat. Finally, WBSF toughness was 9.9% greater in 632

the low line than in the high line, whereas other instrumental texture and sensory attributes,

633 and cooking loss, were similar in both lines. No effect of selection for IMF was observed 634 in any sensory attributes (Martinez-Alvaro et al. 2016b). 635 636 6. Conclusion 637 Rabbit meat is an industrial product in which feed efficiency plays a key economic role. 638 Feed efficiency is indirectly improved by selection on growth rate, although the genetic 639 correlation in rabbit is lower than in other species. Selection for growth rate and feed 640 efficiency has been successful, although feed efficiency selection is restricted to 641 experiments due to the high cost of measuring feed consumption. Selection has 642 consequences in carcass and meat quality, as rabbits are slaughtered at fixed commercial 643 weight, so slaughtering younger animals entails poorer carcass yield, slightly higher bone 644 ratio and slightly different proportions of retail cuts. It seems that it is possible to select for 645 muscle volume by computer tomography, and for some traits related to meat quality such 646 as intramuscular fat but, as with feed efficiency, this selection is difficult to apply at 647 industrial level due to the high cost involved in measuring these traits. Meat quality is not 648 paid for nowadays in rabbit meat markets, and it seems that selection for growth rate is not 649 seriously affecting rabbit meat quality, but it is advisable to monitor changes due to 650 selection for growth rate. 651 652 653 References 654 655 Al-Saef, A.M., Khalil, M.H., Al-Dobaib, S.N., Al-Homidan, A.H., García, M.L., & 656 Baselga, M. (2008). Comparing Saudi synthetic lines of rabbits with the founder breeds 657 for carcass, lean composition and meat quality traits. Livestock Research for Rural 658 *Development*, 20, 1-12. 659 Ariño, B., Hernández, P., & Blasco, A. (2006). Comparison of texture and biochemical 660 characteristics of three rabbit lines selected for litter size or growth rate. *Meat Science*, 661 *73*, 687-692. 662 Arino, B., Hernández, P., Pla M., & Blasco, A. (2007). Comparison between rabbit lines 663 for sensory meat quality. Meat Science, 75, 494–498. 664 Armero, Q., & Blasco, A. (1992). Economic weights for rabbit selection indices. *Journal* 665 of Applied Rabbit Research, 15, 637-642.

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