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# Non-Invasive Methods to Predict Breast Muscle Weight in Slow-Growing Chickens

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**Abstract:** This experiment aims to compare *in vivo* breast morphometric and ultrasound measurements, as well as live body weight to predict breast meat weight in slow-growing chickens. Traits included Thoracic Circumference (TC), Chest Width (CW), Keel Length (KL) and angle (KA), Live Weight (LW), thickness of muscle determined by sonography (TM) and Breast Meat Weight (BMW). Birds were then slaughtered and total breast muscles (*Pectoralis major* and *Pectoralis minor*) were dissected and weighed. A linear model including sex effect and the different predictor measurements, as covariates, were adjusted to the data. Homogeneity test of slopes between sexes showed no difference. Means of the traits were 115.58g (±19.72) for BMW, 1031 g (±163.44) for LW, 68.65° (±6.89) for KA, 26.81 cm (±1.57) for TC, 10.40 cm (±0.62) for KL, 4.67 cm (±0.47) for CW and 11.52 mm (±1.11) for TM. All traits were highly correlated to BMW: TC (0.85), LW (0.84), KL (0.81) and TM (0.79), except for KA (0.28) and CW (0.19). Finally, TC, LW, KL and TM appear to be valuable indicators for estimating BMW in slow-growing chickens but KA and CW remain poor predictors.

**Key words:** Breast muscle, morphometry, slow-growing chicken, ultrasound

### INTRODUCTION

Selection efforts have efficiently improved breast meat, the most valuable part in poultry carcasses. Attempts to measure this trait have been achieved with invasive (slaughtering and dissection of progenies/sibs) or noninvasive (in vivo) methods. Non-invasive methods such as width, length and angle of the breast (Ricard and Rouvier, 1970; Bordas et al., 1978; Komender and Grashorn, 1990), thoracic circumference (Griffin et al., 2005) or live body weight (Le Bihan-Duval et al., 2001) have been used. Medical methods, such as computerized tomography (Bentsen and Katle, 1984; Bentsen and Sehested, 1989, Andrássy-Baka et al., 1999) and echography (König et al., 1997; 1998) have also been assessed. High correlation between thickness and weight of breast muscles were observed in chickens (Komender and Grashorn, 1990), ducks (Pingel and Heimpold, 1983; Sørensen and Jensen, 1992; Bochno et al., 2000) and geese (Grunder et al., 1989). Although broilers have benefited from most of research on assessing methods in chickens, morphological and anatomical differences exist between fast and slow-growing genotypes. Moreover, slowgrowing lines, presenting longer carcass with longer keel bone, showed that measurements in specific locations were required when using sonography (Rémignon et al., 2000). Valuation of meat of unselected traditional chicken breeds may require adapted, unexpensive, easy and efficient methods to assess breast meat yield. This experiment aims to compare in and breast morphometric ultrasound measurements, as well as live body weight to predict breast meat weight in a slow-growing unselected chicken breed.

### **MATERIALS AND METHODS**

Subjects, operators and breast meat weight: Two operators performed in vivo measurements using morphological or ultrasound methods. These indicators appeared to be useful in predicting breast muscle weight in slow-growing chickens (Larivière et al., 2007). Data were collected on a number of twenty-four Ardennaise chickens (10 females and 14 males), randomly taken at 85 days of age. Birds were taken from a previous experiment assessing performance and carcass traits (Larivière et al., 2009). Each bird was individually identified with a wing-band (Hauptner GmbH. Herberholz, Germany) designed for tracing carcass at slaughter. Birds were deprived from food 12 h prior to in breast morphometrics and measurements and were slaughtered 10 h after these investigations. Total breast muscles (Pectoralis major and Pectoralis minor) were dissected as described by Marche (1995). Breast Meat Weight (BMW) for each identified carcass was weighed with a small digital scale (Phillips HR 2395 model, U.K.) and was recorded.

Procedures for *in vivo* breast morphometrics: Thoracic Circumference (TC) was assessed using a flexible tape. Chest Width (CW) and Keel Length (KL) were measured with a caliper. Keel angle (KA) and Live Body Weight (LW) were evaluated with a protractor and a hanging scale (Salter Brecknell, 235-6S model, U.K.), respectively. The reference point for TC, CW, KL and KA on the live bird was at the cranial end of the sternum keel

**Procedures for ultrasound measurements**: Thickness of Muscle (TM) was determined by sonography with a

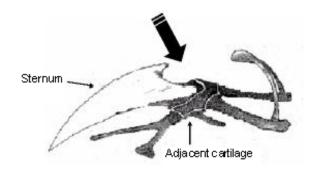


Fig. 1: Optimal position and direction of the scanner (black arrow) after adjustments beyond cranial end of the sternum and adjacent cartilage

Pie medical 100 ultrasound apparatus (Pie Medical Equipment B.V., Maastricht, The Netherlands). Sonography used a scanner of 5 MHZ positioned perpendicularly to the cranial end of the sternum keel (Fig. 1). A contact gel was applied on the breast skin to ensure a better transmission of the ultrasound. The site was an optimal point for measuring muscle thickness in broilers and the easiest site to identify (König et al., 1997). Contrasting features of the bones served as fixed points. The scanner needed to be tilted to pinpoint the fixed points appearing in the image. The two highest points of the sternum were projected and an optimal point was then found and viewed on the screen as the silhouette of a flying bird. The thickness of muscle was above these points. Three images per bird were visualized on a video screen, recorded on a hard-disk and then transferred on software (Echo Image Viewer) to measure the average thickness of muscle.

Statistical analysis: A linear model including sex effect and the different predictor measurements, as covariates, were adjusted to the data using Proc GLM (SAS, 1989). Correlations and coefficients of regression between BMW and the various traits were estimated. The best models selected by stepwise multiple regression analysis (SAS, 1989) to explain the variation of BMW, were also compared using R<sup>2</sup> and Mallow's Cp test.

### RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Homogeneity test of slopes showed no difference between sexes. Means and standard errors of the traits, correlation with BMVV and coefficient of regression are presented in Table 1. All traits were highly correlated (0.79-0.85) to BMVV except for KA (0.28) and CVV (0.19). Combination of TM and KL is the best model selected by the stepwise multiple regression analysis, according to F-value probability of the variable contribution to the model (Table 2). This was further confirmed by its lowest Mallow's C (p) statistic value (6.87) and high R<sup>2</sup> (0.84).

Table 1: Means, standard deviations (± SD), correlations with BMW and coefficients of regression for each variable measured

		Standard	Correlation	Coefficient of
Variable	Mean	deviation (±)	with BMW/	regression
BMW(g)	115.58	19.72	-	-
TC(cm)	26.81	1.57	0.85	15.45
LW(g)	1031.0	163.44	0.84	0.10
KL (cm)	10.4	0.62	0.81	30.07
TM (mm)	11.52	1.11	0.79	8.57
KA(°)	68.65	6.89	0.28	1.12
CW/(cm)	4.67	0.47	0.19	6.63

Table 2: Best models obtained by stepwise multiple regression analysis

Variable (5)	F-value probability of		
Induded	the variable contribution	Model	
In the model	to the model	₽,	C(p)
TC		0.73	23.38
T C+LW/	•	0.79	16∄5
T C+LW+TM	•	0.81	14.14
T C+LW4TM+KL	•	0.85	9Д6
LWATMHKL	TC no more significant, excluded	0.85	7.32
TM+KL	LW/no more significant, excluded	0.84	6.87

C (p): Mallow's Cp statistic; "" p < 0.001, "p < 0.01, "p < 0.15.

Conclusion: Finally, TC, LW, KL and TM appear to be valuable indicators for estimating BMW in slow-growing chickens but KA and CW remain poor predictors. In this experiment, the ideal model matches ultrasound technology to a simple instrument to measure keel length. However, the choice for non-invasive methods to predict breast meat quantity should also take into account, handling of the birds, speed, cost and ease to operate routine measurements.

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