

RESIDUAL FEED INTAKE OF ANGUS CATTLE  
DIVERGENTLY SELECTED FOR FEED CONVERSION  
RATIO

A THESIS

Presented in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for  
the degree Master of Science in The Graduate School of  
The Ohio State University

By

Shannon Nicole Smith, B.S.

\* \* \* \* \*

The Ohio State University  
2009

Master's Examination Committee:

Professor Michael E. Davis, Advisor

Professor Keith M. Irvin

Professor Steve C. Loerch

Professor Steve J. Moeller

Approved by

---

Advisor  
Graduate Program in Animal Science

## ABSTRACT

Residual feed intake (**RFI**) is a method of measuring feed efficiency that has not yet been adopted in the beef industry. RFI is calculated as the actual feed consumed minus the feed that the animal was expected to consume based on its mid-test weight and average daily gain (**ADG**). It is known to be phenotypically independent of weight and growth rate, thus making it a better measurement tool than feed conversion ratio (**FCR**), the most widely used feed efficiency measurement. The objective of this study was to compare results obtained using RFI with those of FCR to determine the best measure of feed efficiency.

RFI was calculated using three different approaches; dry matter intake adjusted for production (**RFI<sub>p</sub>**), dry matter intake adjusted for production and backfat thickness (**RFI<sub>BF</sub>**), and dry matter intake estimated with NRC net energy equations (**RFI<sub>NRC</sub>**). Low **RFI<sub>p</sub>** and **RFI<sub>BF</sub>** bulls consumed less feed than high RFI bulls, whereas no differences existed for weight traits or average daily gain. Both **RFI<sub>NRC</sub>** and **FCR** were highly correlated with weight traits and average daily gain. **RFI<sub>BF</sub>** proved to be the best measure of feed efficiency, as it did not have an effect on weights, gains, or backfat thickness.

Dedicated to my aunt Carolyn, rest in peace

## ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

I express my appreciation to Dr. Michael Davis for his guidance, and financial and academic support throughout my course of study and especially for the assistance provided in the preparation of this thesis.

I wish to thank my committee members, Drs. Steve Loerch, Steve Moeller, and Keith Irvin for their intellectual support, encouragement, and enthusiasm, which made this thesis possible, and for their patience in correcting both my stylistic and scientific errors.

I would like to give a special thank you to Dr. Philip Lancaster for helping me with the calculations and data analysis.

To my mother, Beverly, and Grandmother, Karen, words can not express how much I appreciate them. I thank them for their unconditional love and faith in me as I continue to strive for excellence and make them proud. To my Aunt Carolyn, though she is no longer with me, her encouraging words are forever engraved in my heart and gave me strength at times they were needed.

## VITA

November 7, 1984..... Born – Los Angeles, California

2006..... B.S., University of Tennessee,  
Knoxville, Tennessee

2006..... Ronald McNair Scholar, University of  
Tennessee, Knoxville, Tennessee

2006 to Present..... Graduate Research Associate, The Ohio  
State University, Columbus, Ohio

## FIELDS OF STUDY

Major Field: Animal Science

Studies in Animal Breeding and Genetics under the guidance of Dr. Michael E.  
Davis

## TABLE OF CONTENTS

	Page
Abstract.....	ii
Dedication.....	iii
Acknowledgements.....	iv
Vita.....	v
List of Tables.....	vii
 Chapters:	
1. Introduction.....	1
2. Review of Literature.....	4
2.1 Economic Effects of Feed Efficiency.....	4
2.2 Measurement of Feed Conversion Ratio.....	6
2.3 Calculation of Residual Feed Intake.....	8
2.4 Genetic Variation in Feed Efficiency.....	11
2.5 Heritabilities and Correlation for Feed Efficiency Measures.....	20
2.6 Divergent Selection for Feed Conversion.....	25
3. Materials and Methods.....	27
4. Results.....	39
5. Discussion.....	68
6. Conclusions.....	72
Literature Cited.....	73

## LIST OF TABLES

Table		Page
3.1	Means and standard deviations for weaning weight and postweaning performance traits of individually fed bulls from which sires were selected.....	29
3.2	Composition of experimental diet for individually fed bulls from which sires were selected.....	30
3.3	Composition of progeny postweaning diet.....	32
3.4	Acronyms and definitions of dependent variables.....	35
4.1	Means and standard deviations of the performance data for the three highest and three lowest feed conversion ratio bulls born in 1979.....	41
4.2	Means and standard deviations of the performance data for the three highest and three lowest feed conversion ratio bulls born in 1980.....	43
4.3	Means and standard deviations of the performance data for the three highest and three lowest feed conversion ratio bulls born in 1981.....	45
4.4	Means and standard deviations of the performance data for the three highest and three lowest feed conversion ratio bulls born in 1982.....	47
4.5	Accumulated means and standard deviations of the performance data for bulls born in all four years of the study.....	48
4.6	Comparison of simple means for the three most efficient bulls based on FCR and three most efficient bulls based on $RFI_p$ and $RFI_{BF}$ bulls by year by.....	50
4.7	Comparison of simple means for the three most efficient bulls based on FCR and the three most efficient bulls based on $RFI_{NRC}$ by year.....	51
4.8	Least-squares means and standard errors for A205WNWT and ONTSTWT for low, medium, and high bulls across all measures of RFI.....	53

4.9	Least-squares means and standard errors for dry matter intake, residual feed intake, and feed conversion ratio of low, medium, and high bulls for all measures of RFI .....	56
4.10	Least-squares means and standard errors for total feed consumption and average daily gain from beginning to end of test of low, medium, and high bulls across all measure of RFI.....	58
4.11	Least-squares means and standard errors for WEIGHT140, BF140, and HIPHT of low, medium, and high bulls for all measures of RFI.....	60
4.12	Phenotypic correlations of performance traits with different measures of feed efficiency.....	62
4.13	Phenotypic correlations among performance traits.....	64
4.14	Three most efficient bulls by year based on FCR, RFI <sub>p</sub> , RFI <sub>BF</sub> , and RFI <sub>NRC</sub> .....	66
4.15	Three least efficient bulls by year based on FCR, RFI <sub>p</sub> , RFI <sub>BF</sub> , and RFI <sub>NRC</sub> .....	67

# **CHAPTER 1**

## **INTRODUCTION**

In the livestock industry, feed costs sum to approximately half of the total production cost. In the majority of beef operations, feed is the single largest expense (Wang et al., 2006). In recent years, there has been rising demand for corn based ethanol. Higher fuel prices have doubled the cost of corn, the main component of livestock feed. Because of this high expense, many beef operations have been forced to make drastic changes, from shutting down production to reducing the number of cows in the cow herd (Lutey, 2008; Yaukey, 2008). Therefore, feed efficiency is an important trait that improves the opportunity for profitability of livestock enterprises.

Improvements in feed efficiency will lead to reduced costs and better overall production system efficiency (Nkrumah et al., 2006). A 5% improvement in feed efficiency can have an economic effect four times greater than a 5% improvement in average daily gain (Gibb and McAllister, 1999). Herd (1992) discovered an important portion of variation in calf weaning weight per unit of feed consumed was independent of body size and growth rate. Therefore, any trait used to accurately measure variation in feed efficiency will need to include concern for feed requirements for both maintenance and production.

Most measures of feed efficiency are related to each other and to measures of growth. One measure of feed efficiency is the feed conversion ratio. This ratio is expressed as feed:gain. The inverse, known as feed efficiency, is also frequently used in the beef industry. The problem with these measurement tools is their close correlation with feed intake and rate of gain (Carstens et al., 2003). Therefore, selection for feed:gain ratio could lead to animals with heavier mature weights, which is usually not desirable, and animals with similar feed conversion ratios can differ greatly in their rates of gain and feed intake. In addition, ratio traits for genetic selection present problems relating to prediction of change in component traits in future generations (Gunsett et al., 1984).

Koch et al. (1963) first proposed the concept of residual feed intake (**RFI**). RFI is defined as the difference between actual feed intake and predicted feed intake required for the observed rate of gain and body weight. RFI is calculated as the actual feed consumed minus the feed that the animal was expected to consume based on its mid-test weight and average daily gain (**ADG**). This measurement, which is expressed as the difference or the residual, has been found to be phenotypically independent of growth rate and body weight in growing cattle, making it a better trait for selection than the feed conversion ratio (Kennedy et al., 1993; Archer et al., 2002; Baker et al., 2006). The concept of residual feed intake has already been adopted in other livestock industries, such as swine and poultry. Comparison of residual feed intake with feed conversion ratio

in growing cattle warrants investigation to understand its potential benefits to the beef cattle industry.

The selection criterion used in the divergent feed efficiency selection experiment, conducted at the Eastern Agricultural Research Station (EARS) in the 1980s, was feed:gain ratio. The main objective of this study was to compare results obtained with RFI with those for feed:gain ratio in order to identify the best measure of feed efficiency.

## **CHAPTER 2**

### **LITERATURE REVIEW**

#### **1. Economic Effects of Feed Efficiency**

Genetic evaluation procedures have been developed for traits of economic relevance to beef production. Genetic evaluation models based on Henderson's mixed model equations provide best linear unbiased predictions (BLUP) of genetic merit, and now represent the standard for genetic prediction (Crews, 2005). The most broadly used technique of genetic evaluation is a statistical procedure used to accurately predict breeding values in the form of expected progeny differences (EPDs). EPDs are calculated for growth, carcass traits, milk, calving ease, gestation length, etc., and research is being conducted to incorporate additional traits of economic relevance into breeding programs. Golden et al. (2000) presented the concept of individual, economically relevant traits (ERT) as a means of guiding the process of identifying traits that should be used to calculate EPDs in the next generation of national cattle evaluation programs.

The focus of most genetic evaluation systems is on indicator traits, traits that do not directly impact revenue, because they are cheaper and easier to measure (Crews, 2005). The Golden et al. (2000) concept is to develop a breeding program for traits

outside the ordinary weight and growth traits. Typically, researchers have been interested in changing the means for output traits (e.g., weight, fertility, meat yield), but recently there is growing interest in reduction of inputs. Feed costs are a large fraction of the total cost of beef production improvement programs, second only to fixed costs; consequently, reducing input costs is likely associated with traits related to feed efficiency (Archer et al., 1999; Crews et al., 2003a).

Basarab et al. (2007) suggested that the best way to decrease feed costs is to select bulls that are naturally feed-efficient, because 80 to 90 percent of genetic improvement in a herd is accomplished through the sires. An efficient bull will pass his superior genetics for feed efficiency to his progeny, in turn, resulting in feed savings for calves in the feedlot and replacement heifers entering the cow herd. The same researchers have determined that, on average, it costs \$50 less to feed an efficient bull than an inefficient bull, and they have estimated that a 5 percent improvement in feed efficiency could have an economic effect four times greater than a 5 percent improvement in average daily gain.

Today, the United States is producing corn based ethanol at a rate four times greater than 8 years ago (Lutey, 2008). Because of this, corn growers are trying to keep up with the growing demand from both fuel and food (Yaukey, 2008). In 2003, corn was priced at \$2.50 a bushel and a barrel of oil was \$11. In the summer of 2008, corn was up to \$5.65 a bushel and a barrel of oil is priced around \$120. Though the price of feed is

increasing, the price per pound of beef is not, thereby forcing beef cattle operations to reduce the number of cows, and feedlot operators are losing approximately \$150 a head (Garber, 2008; Lutey, 2008).

## **2. Measurement of Feed Conversion Ratio**

Feed conversion is measured as a ratio of inputs (feed consumed) to outputs (gain in weight). In the beef cattle industry, this ratio is the most frequently used measure of feed efficiency, but it will only lead to limited insight into efficiency of the entire production system (Crews, 2005). It is considered a function of gain, feed consumption, and average weight while on test, and the linear function is assumed to be  $\text{gain} = \text{rate of feed:gain ratio} \times \text{feed} + \text{error}$  (Koch et al., 1963). A negative aspect of feed conversion is its inability to consider the use of feed for maintenance. Ferrell and Jenkins (1998) discovered that the relationship between feed intake and gain is not linear as originally thought for beef cattle. They showed that the maximum efficiency in daily gain may occur at less than the maximum amount of feed intake.

The Angus Sire Alliance is a United States organization established for collection of feedlot and carcass data to measure the costs and returns of a sire's progeny, to help guide mating and selection and identify the best Angus beef cattle genetics to improve profitability. They have determined that sire groups with identical feed conversion rates differ for average daily gain (Circle A Ranch, 2008).

To improve the feed to gain ratio in beef cattle, some researchers have implemented limit feeding, which restricts dry matter intake without compromising average daily gain (Okine et al., 2004). With a maximum of 15% feed restriction, there is an increase (reduction in feed:gain ratio) of approximately 9% in feed efficiency (Zinn, 1986; Plegge, 1987; Hicks et al., 1990; Gaylean, 1996). Yet, Mathison and Engstrom (1995) restricted intake by 4% and found that fat cover decreased by 22%, with only a 3% increase in improved feed efficiency measured as feed conversion ratio, which did not prove significant.

Murphy and Loerch (1994) conducted feeding trials comparing the effects of limit feeding with the effects of ad libitum feeding. During the growing phase they found ADG was reduced 0.15 kg/d and 0.24 kg/d for steers fed 90 and 80%, respectively, of ad libitum intake. During the finishing phase ADG was reduced 0.12 kg/d and 0.21 kg/d for the 90 and 80% of ad libitum intake groups, respectively, as well as feed efficiency being improved during restricted intake. It was concluded that restricting intake for growing-finishing steer calves does not adversely impact feed efficiency and may in fact improve feed efficiency.

Arthur et al. (2001) pointed out that the problem with selection using a ratio is that it is not useful in predicting change in component traits in future generations because the selection pressure is applied disproportionately to the component traits. Component traits are expressed at different rates and possible non-linearity of the

component traits may exist (Herring and Bertrand, 2002). Conversely, this is not the case for a linear index that sets predetermined selection pressure on the traits, which in turn results in predictable genetic change. Gunsett (1984) prepared a method comparing efficiency of direct selection for two component traits with a linear index of the same two components. He proposed that genetic changes in feed conversion ratio do not translate to equivalent improvement in efficiency because genetic trend can result from changes in either the denominator or numerator of a ratio somewhat independent of the other. It was concluded that use of the linear index increased selection responses compared with the ratio.

Interrelationships exist among traits. Therefore, it may not be useful to select for any trait individually. The approach to calculating feed efficiency recommended by Simm et al. (1987) involves combining biological and economic information into selection indices, such as RFI, rather than ratios, such as FCR.

### **3. Calculation of RFI**

The basis of RFI is using an animal's weight and growth rate to separate feed inputs into maintenance and growth components (Koch et al, 1963). The same researchers developed the hypothesis that feed intake could be adjusted for level of production and maintenance of body weight. They realized a robust measure of efficiency would allow for adjustment of feed intake for any of the diverse requirements that differ

among industry segments. For example, where hyperplastic and hypertrophic tissue growth may be the major energy requirements for young, growing cattle, the requirements for the mature cow herd may include maintenance of body condition for reproduction and lactation (Crews, 2005).

Calculation of RFI begins with an individual record of each animal taken over a long-term feeding trial, normally lasting between 70 and 84 d. Animals may be housed individually where accurate daily measurements are taken of the amount of food offered and the amount eaten, and average daily gain and body weight monitored.

There have been several developments that allow for ease of individual feed intake measurements. One is the use of Calan gates, which involve the use of magnets attached to the animals so they can gain access to the feed bunks through electronically controlled gates. This calculates, weighs, mixes, and dispenses the rations, keeping a complete data record for each animal (Schwartzkopf-Genswein and McAllister, 1998). Another method is the development of the GrowSafe system. This system uses radio frequency technology and consists of an antenna mat lining the front of the feedbunk, a reader panel and a computer (Schwartzkopf-Genswein and McAllister, 1998). This technology monitors the animal on an individual basis, identifying several aspects of the animal's performance, from which animal produces the best grading carcass to which animal consumes the least feed.

More recently, to determine the amount of feed an animal is expected to consume, researchers have taken the phenotypic regression approach (Archer et al., 1997; Arthur et al., 2001; Crews et al., 2003). Intake is adjusted for level of production by regressing intake on average daily gain (ADG) and mid-test body weight ( $BW^{.75}$ ). RFI should be phenotypically independent of growth and the weight traits used in the regression procedure, because variation from those traits has been removed (Herring and Bertrand, 2002). The statistical model becomes:

$$Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1(ADG) + \beta_2(WT)^{.75} + \text{residual error}$$

where Y is expected DMI,  $\beta_0$  is the regression intercept,  $\beta_1$  is the partial regression of daily intake on average daily gain (ADG),  $\beta_2$  is the partial regression of daily intake on mid-test body weight raised to the .75 power ( $WT^{.75}$ ) and **RFI** is the residual. Mid-test body weight raised to the .75 power is used instead of actual weight to balance the difference in maintenance requirements of cattle caused by differences in mature size (BIF, 1986).

The properties of RFI can be defined using standard statistical procedures. One central feature is the distributional property ( $RFI \sim N(0, \sigma^2_{RFI})$ ), showing RFI has a mean of zero (Searle, 1982). The partial regressions in the estimation model are independent of

RFI. Because the estimation method causes RFI to be independent of production, the variation in RFI is probably due to metabolic processes.

The expected intake of the animal is determined by the estimation equation. Once determined, RFI is calculated by subtracting expected feed intake from the observed feed intake. Efficient animals, with negative RFI values, have daily feed intakes less than that predicted for their level of production and body weight. Conversely, an animal with a positive RFI daily feed intake trait is greater than expected based on growth and body weight.

#### **4. Genetic Variation in Feed Efficiency**

There is substantial variation in feed efficiency, in beef cattle populations, that is independent of growth rate and size (Archer et al., 1997). The fact that selection for animals that eat less for the same weight and weight gain result in progeny that have different results for the same trait, signifies there is genetic variation in the efficiency of utilization of feed (Herd et al., 1997). Feed efficiency of animals involves several complex biological processes, and is usually measured over a certain period in an animal's life or during a particular phase of production. Measures of feed efficiency that include both liveweight and average daily gain try to explain some of the underlying variation in feed utilization for both growth and maintenance (Arthur, 2001a). Koch et al. (1963) first identified that differences in both weight maintained and weight gained

affect feed requirements. The problem is that it is difficult to determine the exact causes of genetic variation in feed efficiency within breeds of cattle due to the high cost of measuring maintenance efficiency on a sufficient number of cattle to present an indication of genetic variation (Archer et al., 1999).

Though no definite biological bases for differences in feed efficiency and RFI have been identified, several suggestions have been made. Understanding the causes of variation will help to ensure there are no long term adverse effects due to RFI selection on the health or performance of the resulting progeny.

### **Feed Intake**

The scientific basis behind RFI is that individuals of the same body weight require differing amounts of feed for the same level of production (Sainz and Paulino, 2004). Sainz and Paulino (2004) showed a trend towards increased rate of gain with greater feed intake, with some deviations from this trend. For example, if two animals have identical feed intake (7.43 kg/day), but significantly different average daily gains (1.51 vs. 0.98 kg), the animal with the higher rate of gain is more efficient and considered more profitable. As another example, assume two animals have an identical rate of gain (1.5 kg/day), but with different feed intakes (7.43 and 9.22 kg/day). Here, the animal with the lower feed intake is more efficient and is considered more profitable.

An association exists between feed intake and maintenance requirements of ruminants. As feed intake increases, the amount of energy that is expended to digest food increases (Richardson and Herd, 2004). This energy expense is partly due to the size of the digestive organs. Since selection for RFI is associated with variation in intake, animals that eat less for the same performance may be expected to have less energy expended due to digestion; this is called the Heat Increment (HI; Richardson and Herd, 2004).

## **Digestion**

Increases in feed intake level relative to maintenance result in decreases in digestion of feed. There is genetic variation in total tract digestion of feed (Richardson and Herd, 2004). A study conducted in sheep showed ewes divergently selected for weaning weight had a difference of approximately 2 percent in organic matter digestibility favoring the high weaning weight group, and rams of the high weaning weight line had a greater digestibility (approximately 4 percent) than the low line rams (Oddy et al., 1993).

Richardson and Herd (2004) performed a divergent selection experiment for residual feed intake in Angus beef cattle progeny to help determine mechanisms underlying the variation in RFI. They found a correlation of -0.44 between RFI and digestibility, indicating that differences in digestibility accounted for 19 percent of the

phenotypic variation in RFI in the animals. The direction of the correlation indicated that lower RFI (improved efficiency) was associated with greater digestibility. Because digestibility is difficult to measure precisely, they suggest that variation in RFI is no more than 10 percent.

Richardson et al. (1996) phenotypically ranked young bulls and heifers for low and high RFI. The cattle were tested on a pelleted ration with a calculated dry matter digestibility of 68 percent. They found the ability to digest dry matter differed by 1 percent between the high and low lines. This difference accounted for approximately 14 percent of the difference in intake between the high and low line.

### **Heat Production**

Another concept behind RFI is that variation is a result of variation in three basic biological processes represented by protein turnover, ion transport, and proton leakage (Herd et al., 2004), suggesting that 2/3 of RFI variation is most likely due to the heat loss that occurs during these three processes. Similarly, Richardson et al. (1999) found that differences in energy held in the body only explained 5 percent of variation in feed intake with the rest due to heat production, and suggested a need to find the causes of variation in metabolism that effect heat production. Nkrumah et al. (2006) found more efficient beef steers (low-RFI) had lower heat production than medium or high-RFI steers, indicating RFI may be negatively correlated with maintenance energy requirements.

Several studies in mice have been conducted to determine associations between heat loss and traits such as feed intake, body fat, and activity (Wesolowski et al., 2003; Eggert and Nielsen, 2006; McDonald and Nielsen, 2007). Wesolowski et al. (2003) conducted a study with mice divergently selected for heat loss. They found high heat loss mice had 50% greater heat loss, 35% less body fat, 20% greater feed intake, 100% greater locomotor activity levels, and higher core body temperature compared with low heat loss mice. Nielsen et al. (1997) reported that low heat loss mice differed in their body composition compared to high heat loss mice; the low heat-loss line was fatter and the high heat-loss line was leaner than the intermediate control. Feed intake between high and low heat loss mice differed by 34.0 percent (McDonald and Nielsen, 2007).

Eggert and Nielsen (2006) postulated that, because animals selected for heat loss differ in feed intake and body composition, but do not differ in body size, the lines should also differ in maintenance cost per unit of size or in the cost of lean or fat gain. If they differ in the cost of maintenance per unit of body size, but not in the cost of gain, then selection to improve livestock efficiency could be aimed at lowering maintenance cost. However, heat production of livestock is too laborious and expensive to measure in a practical setting. Under this speculation, the same researchers conducted a study comparing feed energy costs between lines of mice selected for heat loss and concluded that selection for heat loss has changed the cost for maintenance per unit of size, but probably not the cost of gain.

## **Stress**

Stress also plays an important role in variation of RFI. Stress in beef cattle is defined as ‘an abnormal or extreme adjustment in the physiology of an animal to cope with adverse effects of its environment and management’ (Frazer, 1975). Stress may require extra activation of the animal’s immune system, which may result in lower performance or poorer feed efficiency (Klasing and Leshchinsky, 2000). Several studies conducted in pigs and chickens have shown genetic variation in an animal’s susceptibility to stress (Luiting et al., 1994; Zhuchayev et al., 1996).

Cattle that are in a rigorous husbandry system (such as a feedlot) are subjected to an increased number of stressors, including transportation, sudden noise, dust, etc. (Richardson and Herd, 2004). The animal is unable to invoke stress reducing behaviors in such a limited environment. Richardson and Herd (2004) hypothesize that the greater susceptibility to stress in high RFI (low efficiency) steers may be due to these animals having a less effective mechanism to manage and adapt to stressors. They suggest observing cattle in a feedlot environment compared to a less intensive setting, on pasture, and determining if differences are observed with respect to reduced expression of variation in RFI.

Richardson et al. (2002) compared red blood and white blood cell counts in steers that were divergently selected for RFI and showed high RFI steers may be more susceptible to stress than low RFI steers. Gartner et al. (1969) conducted a study

analyzing blood concentrations during the handling of cattle and found a significant, positive correlation between RFI and hemoglobin and hematocrit concentrations, suggesting high RFI steers may be, on average, more excitable or easily stressed in comparison to low RFI steers.

### **Body Composition and Metabolism**

Residual feed intake is based on energy and energy requirements, and, because it is dependent on production traits, it may suggest that variation in RFI is due to differences in maintenance requirements (Nkrumah et al., 2006). Maintenance requirement can be defined as the feed energy required for zero body weight change or zero body energy change after allowing for different energy densities of body components (Ferrell and Jenkins, 1985). Maintenance efficiency can be defined as the ratio of body weight to feed intake at zero body weight change (Archer et al., 1999).

The gastrointestinal tract and liver contribute approximately 50% of the maintenance energy requirements in ruminants (Lobley, 2003), with 16 to 29% due to the gastrointestinal tract, and 20 to 26% due to liver metabolism (Johnson et al., 1990). Therefore, studies focusing on gastrointestinal tract and liver metabolism may also lead to better understanding of the genetic variation underlying RFI.

According to Nkrumah et al. (2006), variation in feed efficiency is primarily related to differences in dietary energy losses (fecal, methane, and urinary), heat

production, and energy retention. To better understand these losses, they suggest studying pathways that are typically related to variation in the efficiency of conversion of gross energy (GE) to metabolizable energy (ME).

Ferrell and Jenkins (1998) showed that differences in water, protein, and fat deposition influence efficiency and rate of body weight gain. Even though energy expense required for fat is more than that for protein deposition, maintenance of protein requires more energy than maintenance of fat. The deposition of the same weight of lean tissue and fat has different energy costs, and this variation in efficiency is primarily due to the variation in protein turnover. Protein turnover is a process that requires high energy usage and variation in protein metabolism has been shown to be associated with genetic selection for growth and other traits in domestic animals (reviewed by Oddy, 1999).

It has been observed in several other species that the rate of protein degradation is associated with selection for growth and leanness. An example in chickens (Tomas et al., 1991) showed that protein degradation rate was associated with differences in the net efficiency of protein utilization and decreased degradation rates gave evidence of improved efficiency of protein gain.

Basarab et al. (2003) reported that approximately 4.0% of the variation in daily feed intake is due to differences in empty body fat, compared to 67.9 and 8.6% attributed to body weight and daily gain. They further showed that the rate of deposition of fat,

measured as ultrasound subcutaneous fat gain and ultrasound intramuscular fat gain, increased the variance of daily feed intake explained by regression on weight and gain alone from 78% to 80.9%.

### **Activity**

Studies on non-ruminant animals have shown that variation in heat production (energy available for maintenance and growth) is associated with an animal's activity, and with RFI. For example, in pigs, De Haer et al. (1993) found positive correlations of total feeding time ( $r = 0.64$ ) and number of visits to the feeding station ( $r = 0.51$ ) with RFI.

This correlation between feeding time and the number of steps taken can also be found in beef cattle. Richardson et al. (2000) reported a phenotypic correlation ( $r = 0.32$ ) between RFI and daily pedometer count. Arthur et al. (2001) conducted a similar study that showed high RFI steers took 6 percent more steps, on average, than low RFI steers. High RFI steers also were assumed to spend 13 percent longer in the feeding stall and ruminating, because of their 13 percent greater daily feed intake. The increase in distance walked and time spent standing and ruminating accounted for approximately 5 percent of the increase in feed energy intake by the high RFI (low efficiency) group compared to the low RFI group.

## **Greenhouse Gas Emissions**

Agriculture accounts for a major portion of total greenhouse gas (GHG) emissions in the United States. It is the source of approximately 80 percent of total nitrous oxide emissions and approximately 30 percent of total methane emissions (Brodie et al., 2007). The primary source of methane emissions is animal husbandry. Animal husbandry is the enteric fermentation in the digestive systems of ruminants and manure management.

It has been suggested by several authors that more efficient cattle will produce less methane gas for the environment (Herd et al., 2003; Nkrumah et al., 2006). Herd et al. (2003) found progeny of a low RFI selected line of beef cattle produced 15% less methane and consumed 15% less feed. Nkrumah et al. (2006) found similar results. They reported a low RFI line of cattle produced less methane emissions when compared to medium and high lines (24% and 28%, respectively).

## **5. Heritability of Feed Efficiency Measures and Correlations of Measures with Production and Cow Traits**

Variance in RFI appears to be moderately heritable. Pitchford et al. (2004) calculated a mean heritability estimate of 0.25 for RFI based on 35 estimates obtained across seven species. Published values of heritability of RFI in beef cattle are moderate, ranging from 0.39 to 0.43 (Arthur et al., 2001), 0.26 to 0.30 (Crews et al., 2003), 0.28

(Koch et al., 1963), and 0.38 (Schenkel et al., 2004). Therefore, evidence exists that RFI is at least as heritable as early growth.

Genetic variation in RFI is dependent on genetic variance in young cattle and the magnitude of genetic correlations of RFI with other production traits (growth and feed intake during finishing, carcass and meat quality traits at slaughter, and cow traits, such as mature size, feed intake, milk production, and lifetime reproduction) (Herd et al., 2003).

For a trait to be considered as a selection criterion it must be heritable, or exhibit genetic variability, meaning variability in phenotypic expression must be dependent on additive genetic variance (Sainz and Paulino, 2004; Crews, 2005). Understanding of genetic relationships of feed efficiency traits measured in weaned calves with mature cow performance traits is necessary for breeding programs designed to improve whole herd production efficiency (Herd et al., 2003). Several studies have been conducted to determine the heritability of feed conversion ratio and residual feed intake and the correlations of efficiency traits with production and cow traits.

Feed intake and FCR are known to be phenotypically and genetically negatively correlated with measures of growth and therefore mature size. Koots et al. (1994b) published a review of a number of genetic correlation estimates of FCR with weights and gains which ranged from -0.24 to -0.95. These estimates signify that increased genetic potential for performance and size are negatively correlated with mature maintenance

requirements. The same review showed strong evidence that genetic associations of feed intake with measures of growth rate and weight were positive, with genetic correlations ranging from 0.25 to 0.79. They also summarized published estimates of genetic correlations of mature weight with FCR ( $r = -0.14$ ) and mature weight with feed intake ( $r = 0.92$ ).

Because of large genetic correlations, selection for growth rate would be expected to result in correlated responses for both intake and FCR. The problem is that the favored correlated decrease in FCR due to increased growth rate selection is not automatically correlated specifically to improved feed efficiency (Crews, 2005).

Mature cow weight is highly heritable ( $h^2 = .50$ ; Koots, 1994a). Animals with high genetic potential for growth rate are assumed to have improved (lower) FCR and have increased genetic potential for greater mature size (Crews, 2005). Mature size has high genetic correlations ( $r_g > 0.60$ ; Koots, 1994b) with growth rates measured at young ages. Therefore, selection to directly increase weight and growth rate in younger cattle will be prone to result in strong positive genetic change in mature size and maintenance requirements (Crews, 2005).

FCR is an appropriate measure of feed efficiency in industry segments committed to production of growing animals, but as explained by Archer et al. (1999), if an increase in feed requirements of the breeding herd counterbalances the gains in efficiency of the market progeny, little progress will be made relative to total system efficiency. They

concluded that an alternative measure of efficiency is desirable to reduce non-favorable correlated responses, which would reflect more across segment differences and enable more effective selection for efficiency.

Herd et al. (2003) found the correlation between postweaning RFI and cow RFI to be very high ( $r = 0.98$ ), suggesting that selection for lower RFI in heifers has the potential to decrease feed intake and improve feed efficiency of the entire breeding herd. Archer et al. (2002) also reported a high genetic correlation ( $r = 0.64$ ) between these two traits. The same researchers found genetic correlations of postweaning feed:gain ratio with cow feed intake and cow feed:gain ratio of 0.15 and 0.20, respectively. These correlations suggest that selection to reduce postweaning feed:gain ratio will cause only a small reduction in feed intake and feed:gain ratio of cows, whereas selection for low RFI will have a larger effect. Correlations of postweaning feed:gain ratio with cow size have been found by Herd and Bishop (2000) ( $r = -0.29 \pm 0.24$ ) and Archer et al. (2002) ( $r = -0.54$ ).

When deciding upon selection criteria in beef cattle operations, it is important that they do not negatively affect the end product. Johnston et al. (2002) found evidence to indicate that RFI selection will not affect carcass quality. From this evidence, Baker et al. (2006) designed a study to determine if RFI impacts meat quality and palatability characteristics in purebred Angus steers. They chose 54 purebred Angus steers for a 70-d postweaning feeding period, where individual feed intake and body weight were recorded to determine RFI. At the end of the 70-d period, the steers were fed a finishing diet to a

similar backfat thickness and then harvested. Carcasses were randomly selected to examine the relationships among RFI, meat quality, and palatability. When the steers were divided into three groups based on RFI (low, medium, and high), high RFI steers (less efficient) showed greater DMI and feed conversion ratios (FCR) when compared to low RFI steers (most efficient). Low RFI steers consumed less feed, decreasing the amount of feed per kilogram of gain, and improving feed efficiency. The data also suggested no relationship between RFI and beef quality in these purebred Angus steers.

Basarab et al. (2003) reported low, positive genetic correlations between RFI and gain in ultrasound backfat thickness (0.22), gain in ultrasound marbling (0.22), carcass marbling (0.15), and dissectible carcass fat (0.14) and a low, negative phenotypic correlation between RFI and dissectible carcass lean ( -0.21). These relationships indicate a small and positive association between RFI and carcass composition, indicating selection for lower RFI will improve carcass composition. Several other published studies show a weak, positive correlation between RFI and carcass lean content (Herd and Bishop, 2000; Arthur et al., 2001; Basarab et al., 2003). Richardson et al. (2001) found a single generation of selection for reduced RFI also resulted in reduced carcass fat content. Crews et al. (2003) estimated a genetic correlation of -.44 between finishing period RFI and carcass marbling score, indicating selection for improved RFI would be associated with favorable correlated response in carcass quality grade. Further studies of RFI's association with meat quality were suggested by the authors.

## **6. Divergent Selection for Feed Conversion**

Bishop et al. (1991a,b) conducted a divergent feed efficiency selection experiment in the 1980s on Angus beef cattle at the Eastern Agricultural Research Station (EARS). Bulls were selected and individually fed during a 140-d postweaning performance test. At the end of the period, they were divided into groups (high, low) based on their feed conversion ratios; high conversion having the least feed required per unit of gain and low conversion having the greatest feed required per unit of gain. The three highest and three lowest bulls in feed conversion ratio were selected and randomly mated to 20 cows each. The progeny were then fed to assess postweaning and carcass performance. The purpose of the study was to compare mean responses of the two divergently selected lines of Angus beef cattle and further to calculate heritability estimates for feed conversion and the phenotypic and genetic correlations between feed conversion and other economically important traits.

The heritability estimates (0.46 for FCR adjusted for maintenance requirements; 0.26 for FCR unadjusted for maintenance) indicated that genetic variability for feed conversion exists in beef cattle populations. Bishop et al. (1991a,b) reported that the low feed:gain ratio progeny had greater subcutaneous fat than the high feed:gain ratio group, but no significant differences in other carcass traits were found. Phenotypic correlations indicated that the progeny with lower (more desirable) feed:gain ratio were fatter, gained

weight at a faster rate, and yielded carcasses with higher quality grades, but less desirable yield grades.

The selection criterion used in the divergent feed efficiency selection experiment, conducted at the Eastern Agricultural Research Station (EARS) in the 1980s, was feed:gain ratio. The main objective of this study was to compare RFI results obtained using RFI with those derived using feed:gain ratio. The sub-objectives were to:

1. Determine ranking of bulls based on RFI versus feed:gain ratio;
2. Determine the phenotypic correlations of RFI with weights, gains, feed intake, feed:gain ratio, and backfat thickness of the bulls individually fed in the selection experiment;
3. Determine the best measure of feed efficiency.

## **CHAPTER 3**

### **MATERIALS AND METHODS**

Between 1979 and 1982 a feed efficiency experiment was conducted at EARS to compare mean responses of two divergently selected lines of Angus beef cattle.

#### **1. Selection of Potential Sires**

Between 1979 and 1982, 35 bull calves were chosen each year from the purebred Angus herd located at the Eastern Ohio Resource Development Center, Belle Valley, Ohio, which is now known as EARS. The selected bull calves, totaling 135, were individually fed in a 140-day postweaning performance test. The bulls that were selected for the performance test were randomly chosen from those available each year in the herd. Numbers of bulls completing the performance test in 1979 through 1982 were 35, 34, 35, and 34, respectively. Numbers of sires represented in 1979 through 1982 were 16, 7, 10, and 8.

#### **2. Feeding and Management of Potential Sires**

After weaning at approximately 7 mo of age, bulls were placed in a three-sided barn where they were group fed for 1 wk. Bulls were then randomly assigned to

individual feed bunks, where they were tied for 2 h each morning and 2 h each afternoon, and were allowed to adjust to the tying procedure for approximately 1 wk. On-test weights were then taken and recording of individual feed consumption began. Average on-test age and weight were 222 d and 232 kg, respectively (Table 3.1).

Weights and feed consumption were recorded once every 28 d. Composition of the diet can be found in Table 3.2. Weights were recorded in the morning before feeding. The final weight was calculated as the average of two weights taken on consecutive days after the 140-d performance test was completed. On the same day as the second off-test weight was taken, hip height and ultrasound estimates of subcutaneous fat thickness over the longissimus muscle between the 12<sup>th</sup> and 13<sup>th</sup> ribs were recorded.

Each year, the three bulls with the largest feed:gain ratios and the three bulls with the smallest feed:gain ratios were selected from the individually fed bulls, and were randomly mated to 20 cows in a test herd of Angus cows also located at the Eastern Ohio Resource Development Center. Each year a different set of bulls was chosen; thus, the experiment was a single generation selection experiment replicated four times.

Table 3.1: Means and standard deviations for weaning weight and postweaning performance traits of individually fed bulls<sup>a</sup> from which sires were selected

Trait	Mean	SD
205-d weight, kg	232	22
On-test age, d	222	13
On-test weight, kg	232	23
Average daily gain, kg/d	1.4	.16
Final weight, kg	424	34
Feed consumption, kg	1,164	203
Backfat thickness, mm	7.6	2.54
Hip Height, cm	118	4
Feed conversion, (kg feed/kg gain)	6.0	.70
Residual feed intake, kg	.000	.60

<sup>a</sup>From Davis et al. (1985).

Table 3.2: Composition of experimental diet <sup>a, b</sup> for individually fed bulls from which sires were selected<sup>c</sup>

Ingredient	% <sup>d</sup>
Corn, shelled, crimped	30.00
Oats, crimped	25.00
Corn cobs, ground	10.00
Dehydrated alfalfa	10.00
Wheat middlings	10.00
Soybean meal	10.00
Sugarcane molasses	3.00
Dicalcium phosphate	.50
Limestone	.55
Salt, trace mineralized <sup>e</sup>	.50
Sodium bentonite	.40
Selenium premix	.05

<sup>a</sup> The diet also contained 545 to 682 IU vitamin A/kg, 45 to 68 IU vitamin D/kg, and .9 to 1.4 IU vitamin E/kg.

<sup>b</sup> The diet contained 68.5% TDN and 13.7% protein.

<sup>c</sup> From Davis et al. (1985).

<sup>d</sup> Dry matter basis.

<sup>e</sup> Contained 0.35% Zn, 0.28% Mn, 0.175% Fe, 0.035% Cu, 0.007% Co, and 0.007% I.

### **3. Progeny and Carcass Data**

Birth weight, date of birth, sex, sire, and dam's identification number were recorded for progeny of the high vs. low feed conversion sires within 24 h postpartum. In November of each year weaning weights were obtained at approximately 7 mo of age. Calves were randomly assigned to 12 pens by sire-sex group at the Northwest Branch of OARDC and fed a pretrial warm-up diet for 2 wk. Following the warm-up period they were given ad libitum access to their diet.

The diet consisted primarily of nonprotein nitrogen (NPN) - treated corn silage and shelled corn fed at the rate of 1.0 and 0.75% of BW/d for bull and heifer calves, respectively. Soybean meal was fed as a supplement (Table 3.3) and monthly analyses were made of corn silage samples to monitor CP and DM contents.

Individual weights were obtained and pen feed consumptions were totaled at the conclusion of every 28 d until the end of the 140-d test period. At the end of the test period, weights were recorded, along with ultrasound estimates of subcutaneous fat thickness. Progeny with an estimated fat thickness of  $\geq 8.9$  mm perpendicular to the longissimus muscle between the 12<sup>th</sup> and 13<sup>th</sup> ribs were removed from the test and harvested, and those with less subcutaneous fat continued on test for additional 28-d periods until they reached the required minimum. Progeny were harvested at the completion of the test to obtain carcass data.

Table 3.3: Composition of progeny postweaning diet<sup>a</sup>, %<sup>b</sup>

Ingredient	Bulls	Heifers
Corn silage	56.7	62.2
Whole Shelled Corn	36.9	27.9
SBM <sup>c</sup>	6.3	4.2
Melengestrol acetate <sup>d</sup>	.0	5.6
Stirofos <sup>e</sup>	.1	.1

<sup>a</sup> Bishop et al. (1991a).

<sup>b</sup> DM basis.

<sup>c</sup> Soybean Meal, 44% CP.

<sup>d</sup> MGA, The Upjohn Co., Kalamazoo, MI.

<sup>e</sup> Rabon, Diamond-Shamrock Co., Cleveland, OH.

For the current study, progeny data were not analyzed, because only pen data were available, which cannot be used to calculate RFI of individual calves using methodology that is currently available.

#### 4. Adjustment of Feed:Gain Ratios

The Beef Improvement Federation (BIF, 1986) recommends that feed:gain ratios should be adjusted for differences in maintenance requirements, if feed consumption per unit of gain is evaluated over time-constant intervals. The adjustment was described by Bishop et al. (1991a). The adjustment was accomplished by multiplying the ratio of test

group average metabolic midweight ( $W_i^{.75}$ ) to individual metabolic midweight ( $W_{ij}^{.75}$ ) as follows: BIF-adjusted feed efficiency =  $(W_i^{.75} / W_{ij}^{.75})$  (feed/gain), where subscript i refers to  $i^{\text{th}}$  year of test (1979, 1980, 1981, 1982, or 1983) and subscript j refers to the  $j^{\text{th}}$  bull within the  $i^{\text{th}}$  year. Midweights were estimated as  $\frac{1}{2}$  (initial weight on test + final weight off test).

This procedure adjusts the feed conversion ratios of heavier-than-average bulls downward, because the bulls would be expected to have above-average maintenance requirements and above-average metabolic weights (BIF, 1986). Feed:gain ratios of lighter-than-average bulls would be adjusted upward, because their maintenance requirements and metabolic weights would be below average. The bulls used for mating were selected based on their adjusted feed:gain ratios.

## **5. Statistical Analysis**

### **5.1 Residual Feed Intake**

Using the data obtained from the aforementioned study, residual feed intake (RFI) was calculated by three different approaches. In the first approach, expected intake was adjusted for production (average daily gain and metabolic midweight). On-test and off-test body weights and ADG from regression of body weight on day of test were calculated using the PROC REG procedure of the Statistical Analysis System (SAS Inst.,

Inc., Cary, NC) computer program. This method is used to reduce fluctuations in body weight due to gut fill.

Residual feed intake was calculated using the mixed model approach with the PROC MIXED procedure of SAS, to account for year as a random effect. This procedure accounts for the effect of the random variable (year) on the intercept and slope obtained from the regression of DMI with METWT and ADG140. The model used was:

$$\text{DMI} = b_0 + b_1\text{METWT}^{.75} + b_2\text{ADG140} + \text{RFI (i.e., residual error)}$$

where DMI is dry matter intake, METWT is metabolic midweight calculated by taking the average of on-test and off-test weights, ADG140 is average daily gain, and RFI is residual feed intake.

Variables (ONTSTAGE, A205WNWT, ADG140, ONTSTWT, WEIGHT140, DMI, FCR, BF140, HIPHT) were then adjusted for the random effect of year using the PROC MIXED procedure of SAS. Acronyms and definitions can be found in Table 3.4. This adjustment basically shifts each variable across all tests to a common mean, so that the correlation between variables is not skewed by different means among years.

In the second approach, expected intake was calculated using regression, and was adjusted for production and backfat thickness (BF140). On-test and off-test body weights and ADG from regression of body weight on day of test were calculated using the PROC REG procedure of the Statistical Analysis System (SAS Inst., Inc., Cary, NC) computer program.

Table 3.4: Acronyms and definitions of dependent variables

Acronym	Definition
A205WNWT	Weaning weight of bulls adjusted for age of dam and age of calf
ADG140	Average daily gain from beginning to end of 140-d test period
BF140	Backfat at end of 140-d on test (by ultrasonic measurement)
DMI	Dry matter intake for entire test
FCR	Feed conversion ratio for entire test
FDCON	Total feed consumption for entire test
HIPHT	Hip height at conclusion of 140 d on-test
METWT	Metabolic mid-weight
WEIGHT140	Off-test weight at end of 140-d test period
ONTSTAG	Age of bull at the beginning of test
ONTSTWT	On-test weight
RFI <sub>p</sub>	Residual feed intake calculated from regression of DMI on METWT and ADG140
RFI <sub>BF</sub>	Residual feed intake calculated from regression of DMI on METWT, ADG140, and BF140
RFI <sub>NRC</sub>	Residual feed intake calculated from NRC equations

Residual feed intake again was calculated using the mixed model approach with the PROC MIXED procedure of SAS, to account for year as a random effect. This procedure also accounts for the effect of the random variable (year) on the intercept and slope obtained from regression of DMI on METWT, ADG140, and BF140. The model used was:

$$\text{DMI} = b_0 + b_1\text{METWT}^{.75} + b_2\text{ADG140} + b_3\text{BF140} + \text{RFI (i.e. residual error)}$$

where METWT is metabolic midweight, ADG140 is average daily gain, BF140 is backfat at end of 140 d on test, and RFI is residual feed intake.

In the third approach, expected feed intake was calculated using the NRC Net Energy equations, taking into account the amount of energy and feed required for both gain and maintenance (Beef NRC, 1996). First, the net energy (**NE**) requirement for bulls for maintenance was calculated using the equation:

$$\text{NE}_m = 1.15 (.077 * \text{SBW}^{.75})$$

where SBW is shrunk body weight ( $\text{BW} * .96$ ) to account for gut fill and  $\text{NE}_m$  is NE for maintenance in Mcal/d. This value was then divided by the concentration of  $\text{NE}_m$  (Mcal/kg) in the diet fed to determine the feed required to meet maintenance energy requirements.

Next the NE requirement for gain was calculated using the equation:

$$\text{NE}_g = .0635 (\text{SBW} * .891)^{.75} (\text{ADG140} * .956)^{1.097}$$

ADG140 is multiplied by the constant, 0.956, and the product represents empty body weight gain. The solution ( $NE_g$ ) represents the Mcal of  $NE_g$  required to achieve the specific animal's rate of gain. This value was then divided by the concentration of  $NE_g$  (Mcal/kg) contained in the diet. The dividend equals the amount of feed required to achieve the specified rate of gain. Summing the feed required for maintenance and the feed required for gain provides the total feed intake that would be expected to achieve the rate of gain observed according to the NRC NE system.

Residual feed intake was calculated by subtracting expected feed intake, derived using the three approaches described above, from the observed feed intake. Residual and rank correlations between feed:gain ratio and RFI of the individually fed bulls were determined using the CORR procedure of SAS. Rank correlations were used to determine if the bulls ranked the same for feed:gain ratio versus the three measures of RFI.

Bulls were divided into three groups based on RFI (high, mid, and low) for comparison purposes and were analyzed using the SAS computer program. Bulls were separated into groups that were  $<0.5$ ,  $\pm 0.5$ , and  $>0.5$  standard deviations from the mean RFI. Bulls were divided in this manner to determine if differences in performance traits exist between efficient and inefficient animals. Least-squares means of each group, using Tukey's adjustment, were compared.

Using the PROC MIXED procedure of SAS, the three high and three low bulls by year were compared to find out whether the same three high and three low bulls would have been selected for breeding if RFI had been used instead of feed:gain ratio as the selection criterion.

## CHAPTER 4

### RESULTS

#### **Means and standard deviations of the three lowest and three highest FCR bulls by year**

Means and standard deviations for ONTSTWT, WEIGHT140, ADG140, FCR, RFI<sub>p</sub>, RFI<sub>BF</sub>, and RFI<sub>NRC</sub> are presented in Table 4.1 for the three lowest and three highest FCR bulls born in year 1979. Acronyms and definitions can be found in Table 3.4. Bulls in the most efficient group had lighter ONTSTWT ( $200 \pm 21$  kg) and lighter WEIGHT140 ( $392 \pm 37$  kg) than those in the least efficient group ( $243 \pm 6$  kg and  $432 \pm 10$  kg, respectively, for ONTSTWT and WEIGHT140). However, the means were similar for ADG140 between groups ( $1.36 \pm 0.12$  kg/d for low bulls and  $1.35 \pm 0.07$  kg/d for high bulls). As for feed conversion, the low bulls acquired a mean of  $5.10 \pm 0.08$  kg feed / kg gain compared to  $6.77 \pm 0.42$  kg feed / kg gain for high bulls. The three most efficient bulls (lowest feed conversion ratios) had a mean RFI<sub>p</sub> of  $-0.85 \pm 0.12$  kg compared to the three least efficient bulls (highest feed conversion ratios), which had a mean RFI<sub>p</sub> of  $0.72 \pm 0.27$  kg. Similarly to RFI<sub>p</sub>, bulls of the most efficient group had a mean RFI<sub>BF</sub> of  $-0.82 \pm 0.17$  kg and the least efficient group had a mean RFI<sub>BF</sub> of  $0.57 \pm 0.18$  kg.

Bulls of the most efficient group had a mean  $RFI_{NRC}$  of  $-1.06 \pm 0.50$  kg, a 25% increase compared to  $-0.85 \pm 0.12$  kg for  $RFI_p$  and a 29% increase compared to  $-0.82 \pm 0.17$  for  $RFI_{BF}$ . The least efficient group had a mean  $RFI_{NRC}$  of  $0.54 \pm 0.52$  kg compared to  $RFI_p$  of  $0.72 \pm 0.27$  and  $RFI_{BF}$  of  $0.57 \pm 0.18$ . This represents 25% and 5% decreases, respectively, from  $RFI_p$  and  $RFI_{BF}$ .

Means and standard deviations for  $ONTSTWT$ ,  $WEIGHT_{140}$ ,  $ADG_{140}$ ,  $FCR$ ,  $RFI_p$ ,  $RFI_{BF}$ , and  $RFI_{NRC}$  are presented in Table 4.2 for bulls born in 1980. Means for  $ONTSTWT$  were  $204 \pm 15$  kg for low bulls and  $223 \pm 29$  kg for high bulls. This difference is a little less compared to the previous year. For  $WEIGHT_{140}$ , the most efficient group was slightly lighter ( $407 \pm 30$  kg) compared to the least efficient group ( $409 \pm 48$  kg). Means for  $ADG_{140}$  were  $1.45 \pm 0.26$  kg/d for low bulls and  $1.33 \pm 0.20$  kg/d for high bulls. Mean feed conversion for the low group was  $4.96 \pm 0.10$  kg feed / kg gain compared to  $7.56 \pm 0.35$  kg feed / kg gain for the high group. Mean  $RFI_p$  was  $-0.83 \pm 0.54$  kg and  $2.19 \pm 1.02$  kg, respectively, for low and high bulls.  $RFI_{BF}$  was similar to  $RFI_p$  with mean values of  $-0.89 \pm 0.54$  kg and  $2.13 \pm 1.03$  kg, respectively, for low and high bulls.

Table 4.1: Means and standard deviations of the performance data for the three highest and three lowest feed conversion ratio bulls born in 1979

	ONTSTWT (kg)	WEIGHT140 (kg)	ADG140 (kg/d)	FCR (kg feed/ kg gain)	RFI <sub>p</sub> (kg)	RFI <sub>BF</sub> (kg)	RFI <sub>NRC</sub> (kg)
Three Most Efficient <sup>a</sup>							
79190	184	361	1.26	5.18	-0.71	-0.71	-0.63
79090	224	433	1.49	5.10	-0.94	-1.01	-1.61
79181	193	381	1.37	5.02	-0.89	-0.73	-0.94
Mean	200 ± 21	392 ± 37	1.36 ± 0.12	5.10 ± 0.08	-0.85 ± 0.12	-0.82 ± 0.17	-1.06 ± 0.50
Three Least Efficient <sup>b</sup>							
79043	258	427	1.20	6.89	0.10	0.16	-0.06
79045	221	379	1.12	7.01	0.49	0.45	0.77
79006	243	422	1.27	7.25	1.03	1.09	0.90
Mean	243 ± 6	432 ± 10	1.35 ± 0.07	6.77 ± 0.42	0.72 ± 0.27	0.57 ± 0.18	0.54 ± 0.52

<sup>a</sup> Bulls with the lowest feed conversion ratios.

<sup>b</sup> Bulls with the highest feed conversion ratios.

RFI<sub>NRC</sub> was  $-0.88 \pm 0.50$  kg and  $1.06 \pm 1.79$  kg, respectively, for low and high bulls. For the most efficient group, RFI<sub>NRC</sub> exhibited a 1 percent decrease compared to RFI<sub>BF</sub> and a 6 percent increase compared to RFI<sub>p</sub>. RFI<sub>NRC</sub> showed a 50 percent decrease from RFI<sub>BF</sub> and a similar 51 percent decrease from RFI<sub>p</sub> for the least efficient group.

Means and standard deviations for ONTSTWT, WEIGHT140, ADG140, FCR, RFI<sub>p</sub>, RFI<sub>BF</sub>, and RFI<sub>NRC</sub> for bulls born in 1981 can be found in Table 4.3. In this replicate, bulls in the most efficient group had lower ONTSTWT than those of the least efficient group ( $209 \pm 32$  vs.  $266 \pm 11$  kg). The most efficient group bulls also had lighter WEIGHT140 when compared to the high group ( $423 \pm 47$  vs.  $452 \pm 23$  kg). Mean ADG140 was  $1.53 \pm 0.14$  and  $1.32 \pm 0.10$  kg/d for the low and high groups, respectively. Mean feed conversion was  $5.29 \pm 0.15$  kg feed / kg gain for the low group and  $6.64 \pm 0$  kg feed / kg gain for the high group. Mean RFI<sub>p</sub> was  $-0.28 \pm 0.15$  kg and  $0.28 \pm 0.15$  kg for the low group vs. the high group. The most efficient group had a mean RFI<sub>BF</sub> of  $-0.29 \pm 0.15$  kg and the least efficient group had a mean RFI<sub>BF</sub> of  $0.24 \pm 0.24$  kg.

Table 4.2: Means and standard deviations of the performance data for the three highest and three lowest feed conversion ratio bulls born in 1980

	ONTSTWT (kg)	WEIGHT140 (kg)	ADG140 (kg/d)	FCR (kg feed/ kg gain)	RFI <sub>p</sub> (kg)	RFI <sub>BF</sub> (kg)	RFI <sub>NRC</sub> (kg)
Three Most Efficient <sup>a</sup>							
80115	208	373	1.18	5.07	-1.27	-1.32	-0.97
80065	188	425	1.70	4.87	-0.22	-0.29	-0.34
80117	217	422	1.47	4.93	-0.98	-1.07	-1.34
Mean	204 ± 15	407 ± 30	1.45 ± 0.26	4.96 ± 0.10	-0.83 ± 0.54	-0.89 ± 0.54	-0.88 ± 0.50
Three Least Efficient <sup>b</sup>							
80120	240	411	1.23	7.69	1.57	1.56	1.54
80018	190	359	1.22	7.16	1.63	1.52	-0.92
80122	239	456	1.56	7.82	3.37	3.32	2.57
Mean	223 ± 29	409 ± 48	1.33 ± 0.20	7.56 ± 0.35	2.19 ± 1.02	2.13 ± 1.03	1.06 ± 1.79

<sup>a</sup> Bulls with the lowest feed conversion ratios.

<sup>b</sup> Bulls with the highest feed conversion ratios.

Both groups consumed less feed than expected based on  $RFI_{NRC}$ . The most efficient group had a mean  $RFI_{NRC}$  of  $-0.83 \pm 0.33$  kg compared to a mean  $RFI_p$  of  $-0.28 \pm .15$  kg and a mean  $RFI_{BF}$  of  $-0.29 \pm 0.15$ . The least efficient group had a mean  $RFI_{NRC}$  of  $-0.29 \pm 0.25$  compared to the mean  $RFI_p$  value of  $0.28 \pm 0.15$  kg and mean  $RFI_{BF}$  of  $0.24 \pm 0.24$ .

Means and standard deviations for  $ONTSTWT$ ,  $WEIGHT_{140}$ ,  $ADG_{140}$ ,  $FCR$ ,  $RFI_p$ ,  $RFI_{BF}$ , and  $RFI_{NRC}$  for bulls born in 1982 are presented in Table 4.4. Mean  $ONTSTWT$  and  $WEIGHT_{140}$  were lighter for the most efficient group than for the least efficient group ( $218 \pm 39$  vs.  $247 \pm 47$  kg and  $421 \pm 55$  vs.  $424 \pm 32$  kg, respectively for  $ONTSTWT$  and  $WEIGHT_{140}$ ). For the low group  $ADG_{140}$  was greater when compared to the high group ( $1.45 \pm 0.16$  vs.  $1.27 \pm 0.12$  kg/d). As expected, feed conversion was lower for the most efficient group ( $5.26 \pm 0.05$  kg feed / kg gain) when compared to the least efficient group ( $6.82 \pm 0.62$  kg feed / kg gain). The same can be seen for  $RFI_p$  ( $-0.66 \pm 0.46$  kg for the low group and  $0.41 \pm 0.32$  kg for the high group). This is consistent with the means for  $RFI_{BF}$ , which were  $-0.63 \pm 0.40$  kg for the low group and  $0.42 \pm 0.29$  kg for the high group. These  $RFI_{BF}$  values were similar to the  $RFI_p$  values. Mean  $RFI_{NRC}$  was  $-1.14 \pm 0.90$  kg for the low group and  $0.28 \pm 0.18$  kg for the high group. These  $RFI_{NRC}$  values are lower compared to the  $RFI_p$  and  $RFI_{BF}$  values.

Table 4.3: Means and standard deviations of the performance data for the three highest and three lowest feed conversion ratio bulls born in 1981

	ONTSTWT (kg)	WEIGHT140 (kg)	ADG140 (kg/d)	FCR (kg feed/ kg gain)	RFI <sub>p</sub> (kg)	RFI <sub>BF</sub> (kg)	RFI <sub>NRC</sub> (kg)
Three Most Efficient <sup>a</sup>							
81048	175	369	1.38	5.18	-0.26	-0.19	-0.44
81128	211	442	1.65	5.23	-0.15	-0.23	-1.00
81002	240	458	1.55	5.46	-0.45	-0.46	-1.04
Mean	209 ± 32	423 ± 47	1.53 ± 0.14	5.29 ± 0.15	-0.28 ± 0.15	-0.29 ± 0.15	-0.83 ± 0.33
Three Least Efficient <sup>b</sup>							
81020	258	428	1.21	6.65	0.14	-0.03	-0.39
81112	260	452	1.37	6.64	0.43	0.44	-0.14
81053	279	475	1.40	6.64	0.26	0.30	-0.33
Mean	266 ± 11	452 ± 23	1.32 ± .10	6.64 ± 0	0.28 ± 0.15	0.24 ± 0.24	-0.29 ± 0.25

<sup>a</sup> Bulls with the lowest feed conversion ratios.

<sup>b</sup> Bulls with the highest feed conversion ratios.

The overall means and standard deviations for bulls born in 1979, 1980, 1981, and 1982 can be found in Table 4.5. These means show the differences in ONTSTWT and WEIGHT140 between low and high FCR bulls. Most efficient bulls were lighter at beginning and end of test, and had greater ADG140. RFI<sub>p</sub> for low bulls was  $-0.65 \pm 0.26$  kg compared to that of high bulls,  $0.90 \pm 0.88$  kg. Mean RFI<sub>BF</sub> and RFI<sub>NRC</sub> were lower for the most efficient group also,  $-0.66 \pm 0.27$  kg and  $-0.98 \pm 0.15$  kg compared to  $0.84 \pm 0.87$  kg and  $0.40 \pm 0.56$  kg. Differences were found in feed conversion between groups,  $5.15 \pm 0.15$  vs.  $6.95 \pm 0.41$  kg feed / kg gain. The most efficient group was better in terms of all RFI estimates and FCR.

Table 4.4: Means and standard deviations of the performance data for the three highest and three lowest feed conversion ratio bulls born in 1982

	ONTSTWT (kg)	WEIGHT140 (kg)	ADG140 (kg/d)	FCR (kg feed/ kg gain)	RFI <sub>p</sub> (kg)	RFI <sub>BF</sub> (kg)	RFI <sub>NRC</sub> (kg)
Three Most Efficient <sup>a</sup>							
82003	261	474	1.52	5.22	-1.19	-1.06	-1.84
82021	208	426	1.56	5.24	-0.30	-0.27	-1.09
82064	185	363	1.27	5.31	-0.49	-0.57	-0.48
Mean	218 ± 39	421 ± 55	1.45 ± 0.16	5.26 ± 0.05	-0.66 ± 0.46	-0.63 ± 0.40	-1.14 ± 0.90
Three Least Efficient <sup>b</sup>							
82014	288	454	1.19	7.36	0.21	0.16	0.55
82190	196	391	1.40	6.14	0.78	0.74	0.08
82017	257	426	1.21	6.95	0.25	0.37	0.20
Mean	247 ± 47	424 ± 32	1.27 ± 0.12	6.82 ± 0.62	0.41 ± 0.32	0.42 ± 0.29	0.28 ± 0.18

<sup>a</sup> Bulls with the lowest feed conversion ratios.

<sup>b</sup> Bulls with the highest feed conversion ratios.

Table 4.5: Overall means and standard deviations of the performance data for bulls born in all 4 years of the study

	ONTSTWT (kg)	WEIGHT140 (kg)	ADG140 (kg/d)	FCR (kg feed/ kg gain)	RFI <sub>p</sub> (kg)	RFI <sub>BF</sub> (kg)	RFI <sub>NRC</sub> (kg)
MOST EFFICIENT <sup>a</sup>	208 ± 8	411 ± 14	1.45 ± 0.07	5.15 ± 0.15	-0.65 ± 0.26	-0.66 ± 0.27	-0.98 ± 0.15
LEAST EFFICIENT <sup>b</sup>	244 ± 18	429 ± 18	1.32 ± 0.03	6.95 ± 0.41	0.90 ± 0.88	0.84 ± 0.87	0.40 ± 0.56

<sup>a</sup> Bulls with the lowest feed conversion ratios.

<sup>b</sup> Bulls with the highest feed conversion ratios.

### **Comparison of simple means for the three highest FCR bulls and three lowest RFI<sub>p</sub> and RFI<sub>BF</sub> bulls**

The same three lowest and three highest bulls were chosen for both RFI<sub>p</sub> and RFI<sub>BF</sub>. When compared to the three high FCR bulls, the three low RFI<sub>p</sub> and RFI<sub>BF</sub> bulls had heavier weights for all 4 yr of the study (Table 4.6). In the years 1980 and 1981, ADG was lower for low RFI bulls than for high FCR bulls, and was similar the other 2 yr. This shows that if we select on FCR, we tend to select bulls that are lighter at the beginning of the test and have greater ADG. Also, in the years 1980 and 1981, low RFI bulls consumed less feed than high FCR bulls, whereas the values were reversed the other 2 yr. Bulls of the low RFI group had less backfat, and hip height was similar across all years.

### **Comparison of simple means for the three highest FCR bulls and three lowest RFI<sub>NRC</sub> bulls**

When compared to the three high FCR bulls, the three low RFI<sub>NRC</sub> bulls had heavier weights for all 4 yr of the study (Table 4.7). In the years 1980 and 1981, ADG was lower for low RFI<sub>NRC</sub> bulls than for high FCR bulls. The trend was reversed the other 2 yr. This shows that if we select on FCR, we tend to select bulls that are lighter at the beginning of the test and have greater ADG. In all 4 yr of the study, the low RFI<sub>NRC</sub> bulls consumed more feed than the high FCR bulls; in turn daily dry matter intake was higher

for the low RFI<sub>BF</sub> bulls. Bulls of the low RFI<sub>NRC</sub> group had less backfat except for 1979, and hip height was similar across all years.

Table 4.6: Comparison of simple means for the three highest and three lowest RFI<sub>p</sub> and RFI<sub>BF</sub> bulls by year

	High FCR					Low RFI				
Trait	1979	1980	1981	1982	Mean	1979	1980	1981	1982	Mean
Weight, kg										
ONTST	200	204	209	218	208	218	217	253	262	238
140	392	407	423	421	411	410	402	446	469	432
ADG140, kg	1.36	1.45	1.53	1.45	1.45	1.37	1.33	1.37	1.48	1.39
FDCON, kg	935	1,080	1,099	1,064	1,045	964	1,015	1,070	1,123	1,043
RFI <sub>p</sub> , kg	-0.85	-0.83	-0.28	-0.66	-0.66	-0.93	-1.10	-0.70	-0.98	-0.93
RFI <sub>BF</sub> , kg	-0.81	-0.89	-0.30	-0.63	-0.66	-0.84	-1.15	-0.66	-0.89	-0.89
FCR, kg DM										
/kg gain	5.10	4.96	5.29	5.26	5.15	5.23	5.07	5.74	5.45	5.37
DMI, kg	6.96	7.18	8.08	7.61	7.46	7.17	6.72	7.88	8.04	7.45
BF140,										
mm,	8.4	8.6	9.1	8.4	8.6	7.1	7.9	8.4	8.1	7.9
HIPHT,										
cm	113	116	120	118	117	119	117	121	119	119

TABLE 4.7. Comparison of simple means for the three most efficient FCR bulls and the three most efficient RFI<sub>NRC</sub> bulls by year

Trait	High FCR					Low RFI <sub>NRC</sub>				
	1979	1980	1981	1982	Mean	1979	1980	1981	1982	Mean
Weight, kg										
ONTST	200	204	209	218	208	224	244	268	263	250
140	392	407	423	421	411	442	447	469	465	456
ADG140, kg	1.36	1.45	1.53	1.45	1.45	1.52	1.35	1.38	1.47	1.43
FDCON, kg	935	1,080	1,099	1,064	1,045	1,109	1,195	1,142	1,180	1,157
RFI <sub>NRC</sub> , kg	-1.06	-0.88	-0.83	-1.14	-0.98	-1.28	-1.55	-1.42	-1.49	-1.44
FCR, kg DM										
/kg gain	5.10	4.96	5.29	5.26	5.15	5.40	5.96	6.10	5.75	5.80
DMI, kg	6.96	7.18	8.08	7.61	7.46	8.21	8.00	8.38	8.44	8.26
BF140,										
mm,	8.4	8.6	9.1	8.4	8.6	9.1	7.9	7.9	8.4	8.3
HIPHT,										
cm	113	116	120	118	117	120	119	121	117	119

### **Comparison of A205WNWT and ONTSTWT between low, medium, and high groups across all measures of RFI**

Bulls were divided into three groups (high, medium, and low) based on standard deviations from the mean RFI. The low group were consisted of bulls with RFI values  $< 0.5$  standard deviations from the mean, the medium group consisted of bulls with RFI values  $\pm 0.5$  from the mean, and the high group consisted of bulls with RFI values  $> 0.5$  standard deviations from the mean. Least-squares means and standard errors can be found in Table 4.8 for A205WNWT and ONTSTWT for bull groups across all measures of RFI. There was no significant difference ( $P = 0.54$ ;  $P = 0.62$ , respectively) among all groups for adjusted 205-d weaning weights for  $RFI_p$  or  $RFI_{NRC}$ . This result is expected for  $RFI_p$ , as it is known to be independent of weight traits. There was a significant difference ( $P < 0.05$ ) among low  $RFI_{BF}$  bulls and high  $RFI_{BF}$  bulls ( $238 \pm 3$  kg and  $225 \pm 4$  kg, respectively). No significant differences existed among groups, across all measures of RFI for ONTSTWT.

Table 4.8. Least-squares means and standard errors for A205WNWT and ONTSTWT for low, medium, and high bulls across all measures of RFI

RFI-Group <sup>a</sup>	A205WNWT (kg)	ONTSTWT (kg)
	P = 0.54	P = 0.65
MEAN LOW RFI <sub>p</sub>	237 ± 4	235 ± 4
MEAN MED RFI <sub>p</sub>	230 ± 3	231 ± 3
MEAN HIGH RFI <sub>p</sub>	227 ± 4	230 ± 4
	P < 0.05	P = 0.66
MEAN LOW RFI <sub>BF</sub>	238 ± 3 <sup>b</sup>	233 ± 4
MEAN MED RFI <sub>BF</sub>	231 ± 3 <sup>b,c</sup>	232 ± 3
MEAN HIGH RFI <sub>BF</sub>	225 ± 4 <sup>c</sup>	229 ± 4
	P = 0.62	P = 0.59
MEAN LOW RFI <sub>NRC</sub>	235 ± 2	235 ± 3
MEAN MED RFI <sub>NRC</sub>	229 ± 3	228 ± 4
MEAN HIGH RFI <sub>NRC</sub>	220 ± 6	227 ± 7

<sup>a</sup> Low bulls are bulls with low RFI values and high bulls are bulls with high RFI values.

<sup>b,c</sup> Values in the same column without a letter in common are significantly different.

\* There were 37 low RFI<sub>p</sub> bulls, 70 medium RFI<sub>p</sub> bulls, and 31 high RFI<sub>p</sub> bulls.

\* There were 38 low RFI<sub>BF</sub> bulls, 69 medium RFI<sub>BF</sub> bulls, and 31 high RFI<sub>BF</sub> bulls.

\* There were 78 low RFI<sub>NRC</sub> bulls, 48 medium RFI<sub>NRC</sub> bulls, and 12 high RFI<sub>NRC</sub> bulls.

**Dry matter intake, RFI, and feed conversion ratios of low, medium, and high bulls across all measures of RFI**

Least-squares means for dry matter intake, RFI, and FCR for the 140 d performance test are found in Table 4.9. For low bulls, RFI<sub>p</sub> was significantly lower ( $P < .001$ ) than for medium and high bulls,  $-0.66 \pm 0.06$  vs.  $0.01 \pm 0.04$  and  $0.77 \pm 0.06$  kg, respectively. Feed conversion ratio was significantly lower as well for low bulls ( $5.62 \pm 0.10$  kg feed / kg gain) compared to medium ( $6.02 \pm 0.11$ ) and high bulls ( $6.60 \pm 0.11$  kg feed / kg gain). DMI was also significantly different ( $P < .001$ ), with lower intake associated with low bulls ( $7.6 \pm 0.11$  kg/d) compared to medium ( $8.3 \pm 0.12$  kg/d) and high ( $9.1 \pm 0.08$  kg/d) bulls. Medium bulls were also significantly different from the high bulls. These same differences existed across all four years of the study.

Low RFI<sub>BF</sub> bulls were significantly lower ( $P < .001$ ) than medium and high bulls,  $-0.63 \pm 0.05$  vs.  $0 \pm 0.04$  and  $0.75 \pm 0.06$  kg, respectively. Feed conversion ratio was significantly lower as well for low bulls ( $5.62 \pm 0.10$  kg feed / kg gain) compared to medium ( $6.02 \pm 0.11$  kg feed / kg gain) and high bulls ( $6.60 \pm 0.11$  kg feed / kg gain). DMI was also significantly different among groups ( $P < .001$ ),  $7.5 \pm 0.11$  kg/d and  $9.0 \pm 0.12$  kg/d for low and high bulls, respectively.

Low  $RFI_{NRC}$  bulls were significantly lower ( $P < .001$ ) than that of medium and high bulls,  $-0.82 \pm 0.04$  vs.  $-0.04 \pm 0.05$  and  $0.74 \pm 0.10$  kg, respectively. In addition, feed conversion ratio was significantly lower as well for low bulls ( $6.18 \pm 0.06$  kg feed / kg gain) compared to medium ( $6.82 \pm 0.07$  kg feed / kg gain) high bulls ( $7.40 \pm 0.15$  kg feed / kg gain). DMI was significantly different also ( $P < .001$ ),  $8.1 \pm 0.09$  kg/d and  $8.9 \pm 0.24$  kg/d for low and high bulls, respectively.

Table 4.9. Least-squares means and standard errors for dry matter intake, residual feed intake, and feed conversion ratio of low, medium, and high bulls for all measures of RFI

RFI Group <sup>a</sup>	DMI (kg/d)	RFI (kg)	FCR (kg feed/ kg gain)
	P < .001	P < .001	P < .001
MEAN LOW RFI <sub>p</sub>	7.58 ± 0.11 <sup>b</sup>	-0.66 ± 0.06 <sup>b</sup>	5.62 ± 0.10 <sup>b</sup>
MEAN MED RFI <sub>p</sub>	8.25 ± 0.12 <sup>c</sup>	0.01 ± 0.04 <sup>c</sup>	6.02 ± 0.11 <sup>c</sup>
MEAN HIGH RFI <sub>p</sub>	9.07 ± 0.08 <sup>d</sup>	0.77 ± 0.06 <sup>d</sup>	6.60 ± 0.11 <sup>d</sup>
	P < .001	P < .001	P < .001
MEAN LOW RFI <sub>BF</sub>	7.5 ± 0.11 <sup>e</sup>	-0.63 ± 0.05 <sup>e</sup>	5.62 ± 0.10 <sup>e</sup>
MEAN MED RFI <sub>BF</sub>	8.3 ± 0.08 <sup>f</sup>	0 ± 0.04 <sup>f</sup>	6.02 ± 0.11 <sup>f</sup>
MEAN HIGH RFI <sub>BF</sub>	9.0 ± 0.12 <sup>g</sup>	0.75 ± 0.06 <sup>g</sup>	6.60 ± 0.11 <sup>g</sup>
	P < .001	P < .001	P < .001
MEAN LOW RFI <sub>NRC</sub>	8.1 ± 0.09 <sup>h</sup>	-0.82 ± 0.04 <sup>h</sup>	6.18 ± 0.06 <sup>h</sup>
MEAN MED RFI <sub>NRC</sub>	8.3 ± 0.12 <sup>h</sup>	-0.04 ± 0.05 <sup>i</sup>	6.82 ± 0.07 <sup>i</sup>
MEAN HIGH RFI <sub>NRC</sub>	8.9 ± 0.24 <sup>i</sup>	0.74 ± 0.10 <sup>j</sup>	7.40 ± 0.15 <sup>j</sup>

<sup>a</sup> Low bulls are bulls with low RFI values and high bulls are bulls with high RFI values.

<sup>b,c,d,e,f,g,h,i</sup> Values in the same column without a letter in common are significantly different.

\* There were 37 low RFI<sub>p</sub> bulls, 70 medium RFI<sub>p</sub> bulls, and 31 high RFI<sub>p</sub> bulls.

\* There were 38 low RFI<sub>BF</sub> bulls, 69 medium RFI<sub>BF</sub> bulls, and 31 high RFI<sub>BF</sub> bulls.

\* There were 78 low RFI<sub>NRC</sub> bulls, 48 medium RFI<sub>NRC</sub> bulls, and 12 high RFI<sub>NRC</sub> bulls.

### **Feed consumption and ADG for low, medium, and high bulls across all measures of RFI**

Least-squares means for FDCON and ADG140 are shown in Table 4.10. There was no difference among groups ( $P = 0.56$ ;  $P = 0.49$ , respectively) for ADG140 for either RFI<sub>p</sub> or RFI<sub>BF</sub>. For FDCON there was a significant difference between RFI<sub>p</sub> groups ( $P < 0.05$ ), with lower overall feed consumption for the low bulls ( $1,068 \pm 17$  kg) compared to medium ( $1,151 \pm 12$  kg) and high ( $1,253 \pm 15$  kg) bulls. Similar differences were seen among RFI<sub>BF</sub> groups ( $1,065 \pm 17$ ,  $1,159 \pm 12$ , and  $1,239 \pm 18$  kg of dry matter for low, medium, and high bulls, respectively)

There was a significant difference for the low RFI<sub>NRC</sub> bulls compared to the medium and high RFI<sub>NRC</sub> bulls ( $P < .001$ ) for ADG140,  $1.32 \pm 0.02$  kg/d compared to  $1.22 \pm 0.02$  kg/d and  $1.21 \pm 0.04$  kg/d, respectively. There was not a significant difference ( $P = 0.63$ ) among RFI<sub>NRC</sub> groups for FDCON.

### **WEIGHT140, BF140, and HIPHT for low, medium, and high bulls across all measures of RFI**

Bulls in the high RFI<sub>p</sub> group were fatter than those in the low RFI<sub>p</sub> group at d 140 (BF140;  $P < 0.05$ ; Table 4.11), as measured by ultrasound. There was no difference ( $P > 0.05$ ) between the high and medium groups. No difference existed among the three groups for HIPHT ( $P = 0.99$ ). Means for WEIGHT140 were nearly identical among the three RFI<sub>p</sub> groups.

Table 4.10. Least-squares means and standard errors for total feed consumption and average daily gain from beginning to end of test of low, medium, and high bulls across all measures of RFI

RFI Group <sup>a</sup>	FDCON (kg dry matter)	ADG140 (kg/d)
	P < 0.05	P = 0.56
MEAN LOW RFI <sub>p</sub>	1,068 ± 17 <sup>b</sup>	1.36 ± 0.03
MEAN MED RFI <sub>p</sub>	1,151 ± 12 <sup>c</sup>	1.37 ± 0.02
MEAN HIGH RFI <sub>p</sub>	1,253 ± 15 <sup>d</sup>	1.39 ± 0.03
	P < 0.05	P = 0.49
MEAN LOW RFI <sub>BF</sub>	1,065 ± 17 <sup>c</sup>	1.35 ± 0.03
MEAN MED RFI <sub>BF</sub>	1,159 ± 12 <sup>f</sup>	1.39 ± 0.02
MEAN HIGH RFI <sub>BF</sub>	1,239 ± 18 <sup>g</sup>	1.38 ± 0.03
	P = 0.63	P < 0.05
MEAN LOW RFI <sub>NRC</sub>	1,141 ± 13	1.32 ± 0.02 <sup>b</sup>
MEAN MED RFI <sub>NRC</sub>	1,153 ± 17	1.22 ± 0.02 <sup>c</sup>
MEAN HIGH RFI <sub>NRC</sub>	1,213 ± 34	1.21 ± 0.04 <sup>c</sup>

a- Low bulls are bulls with low RFI values and high bulls are bulls with high RFI values.  
b,c,d,e,f,g- Values in the same column without a letter in common are significantly different.

\* There were 37 low RFI<sub>p</sub> bulls, 70 medium RFI<sub>p</sub> bulls, and 31 high RFI<sub>p</sub> bulls.

\* There were 38 low RFI<sub>BF</sub> bulls, 69 medium RFI<sub>BF</sub> bulls, and 31 high RFI<sub>BF</sub> bulls.

\* There were 78 low RFI<sub>NRC</sub> bulls, 48 medium RFI<sub>NRC</sub> bulls, and 12 high RFI<sub>NRC</sub> bulls.

There was a significant difference for BF140 ( $P < 0.05$ ; Table 4.11) between the low and medium  $RFI_{BF}$  groups. Least-squares BF140 means for the low and medium  $RFI_{BF}$  groups were  $8.2 \pm 0.33$  and  $9.2 \pm 0.24$  mm, respectively. No difference existed among the three groups for HIPHT ( $P = 0.99$ ). Means for WEIGHT140 were similar among the groups.

There were no significant differences among  $RFI_{NRC}$  groups for BF140 ( $P = 0.99$ ; Table 4.11). Significant differences existed between groups for HIPHT ( $P < 0.05$ ). Least squares HIPHT means for the low, medium, and high groups were  $119 \pm 0.37$  cm,  $117 \pm 0.47$  cm,  $115 \pm 0.94$  cm, respectively. WEIGHT140 was also significantly different among  $RFI_{NRC}$  groups ( $P < 0.01$ ; Table 4.11). Low bulls ( $433 \pm 3$  kg) tended to be heavier than the medium ( $414 \pm 4$  kg) and high bulls ( $408 \pm 8$  kg).

Table 4.11. Least-squares means and standard errors for WEIGHT140, BF140, and HIPHT of low, medium, and high bulls for all measures of RFI

Year-RFIp Group <sup>a</sup>	WEIGHT140 (kg)	BF140 (mm)	HIPHT (cm)
	P = 0.99	P < 0.05	P = 0.99
MEAN LOW RFI <sub>p</sub>	425 ± 6	8.1 ± 0.33 <sup>b</sup>	118 ± 0.57
MEAN MED RFI <sub>p</sub>	424 ± 4	9.0 ± 0.24 <sup>c</sup>	118 ± 0.41
MEAN HIGH RFI <sub>p</sub>	426 ± 6	9.3 ± 0.36 <sup>c</sup>	118 ± 0.62
	P = 0.79	P < 0.05	P = 0.99
MEAN LOW RFI <sub>BF</sub>	422 ± 6	8.2 ± 0.33 <sup>d</sup>	118 ± 0.56
MEAN MED RFI <sub>BF</sub>	427 ± 4	9.2 ± 0.24 <sup>e</sup>	118 ± 0.42
MEAN HIGH RFI <sub>BF</sub>	422 ± 6	8.9 ± 0.36 <sup>d,e</sup>	118 ± 0.62
	P < 0.01	P = 0.99	P < 0.05
MEAN LOW RFI <sub>NRC</sub>	433 ± 3 <sup>b</sup>	8.8 ± 0.23	119 ± 0.37 <sup>b</sup>
MEAN MED RFI <sub>NRC</sub>	414 ± 4 <sup>c</sup>	8.8 ± 0.30	117 ± 0.47 <sup>c</sup>
MEAN HIGH RFI <sub>NRC</sub>	408 ± 8 <sup>c</sup>	8.9 ± 0.59	115 ± 0.94 <sup>c</sup>

a- Low bulls are bulls with low RFI values and high bulls are bulls with high RFI values.

b,c,d,e- Values in the same column without a letter in common are significantly different.

\* There were 37 low RFI<sub>p</sub> bulls, 70 medium RFI<sub>p</sub> bulls, and 31 high RFI<sub>p</sub> bulls.

\* There were 38 low RFI<sub>BF</sub> bulls, 69 medium RFI<sub>BF</sub> bulls, and 31 high RFI<sub>BF</sub> bulls.

\* There were 78 low RFI<sub>NRC</sub> bulls, 48 medium RFI<sub>NRC</sub> bulls, and 12 high RFI<sub>NRC</sub> bulls.

### **Phenotypic correlations of performance traits with different measures of feed efficiency**

Phenotypic correlations of performance traits with FCR, RFI<sub>p</sub>, RFI<sub>BF</sub>, and RFI<sub>NRC</sub> are shown in Table 4.12. Negative correlations were reported for FCR with ADG140 ( $r = -0.56$ ;  $P < 0.001$ ) and WEIGHT140 ( $r = -0.17$ ;  $P < 0.05$ ). This indicates that bulls with lower feed conversion ratios (more desirable) gained weight at a faster rate and were heavier at the end of test when compared to bulls with higher feed conversion ratios. FCR was positively correlated with DMI ( $r = 0.29$ ;  $P < 0.001$ ) and ONTSTWT ( $r = 0.29$ ;  $P < 0.001$ ). So, more efficient bulls were lighter at beginning of test and ate less. FCR was not correlated with either BF140 or HIPHT, indicating selection for low FCR will not affect these traits.

As expected, RFI<sub>p</sub> and RFI<sub>BF</sub> were strongly correlated with DMI ( $r = 0.69$  and  $r = 0.70$ , respectively) and RFI<sub>NRC</sub> was moderately correlated with DMI ( $r = 0.24$ ;  $P < 0.05$ ). Neither RFI<sub>p</sub> nor RFI<sub>BF</sub> was correlated with ADG140 or any of the weight traits (Table 4.12). Conversely, RFI<sub>NRC</sub> was moderately correlated with all weight traits (A205WNWT,  $r = -0.28$ ,  $P < 0.001$ ; ONTSTWT,  $r = -0.21$ ,  $P < 0.05$ ; WEIGHT140,  $r = -0.42$ ,  $P < 0.001$ ). This indicates that as RFI<sub>NRC</sub> decreases (more desirable), animals will be heavier at the beginning and end of test. RFI<sub>NRC</sub> was moderately correlated with ADG140 ( $r = -0.38$ ;  $P < 0.001$ ). RFI<sub>p</sub> was positively correlated with BF140 ( $r = 0.18$ ;  $P < 0.05$ ), but no correlation existed between BF140 and RFI<sub>BF</sub> or RFI<sub>NRC</sub>.

Table 4.12. Phenotypic correlations of performance traits with different measures of feed efficiency

Trait	FCR	RFI <sub>p</sub>	RFI <sub>BF</sub>	RFI <sub>NRC</sub>
ONTSTAG	.10	-.04	-.03	-.19*
A205WNWT	.16	-.14	-.13	-.28**
ADG140	-.56**	0	0	-.38**
ONTSTWT	.29**	-.03	-.02	-.21*
WEIGHT140	-.17*	-.03	-.01	-.42**
DMI	.29**	.69**	.70**	.24*
BF140	0	.18*	.08	-.01
HIPHT	-.08	-.03	-.01	-.30**
FCR	1.00	.68**	.68**	.71**
RFI <sub>p</sub>	.68**	1.00	.99**	.74**
RFI <sub>BF</sub>	.68**	.99**	1.00	.73**
RFI <sub>NRC</sub>	.71**	.74**	.73**	1.00
FDCON	.23*	.57**	.68**	.11

\*  $P < 0.05$

\*\*  $P < 0.001$

RFI<sub>p</sub> and RFI<sub>BF</sub> were not correlated with HIPHT, but a negative correlation was present between RFI<sub>NRC</sub> and HIPHT ( $r = -0.30$ ;  $P < 0.001$ ).

All measures of feed efficiency, except for RFI<sub>NRC</sub>, were positively correlated with FDCON. RFI<sub>p</sub> and RFI<sub>BF</sub> were both strongly correlated ( $r = 0.57$  and  $r = 0.68$ , respectively), indicating that, as RFI values increase, feed consumption, as well as dry matter intake, also increases. FCR had a moderate correlation with FDCON ( $r = 0.23$ ). All measures of RFI were strongly correlated with FCR, indicating that selecting for RFI will in turn improve feed conversion ratio.

### **Phenotypic correlations among performance traits**

Phenotypic correlations among the performance traits are presented in Table 4.13. DMI was strongly correlated with ADG140 ( $r = 0.59$ ;  $P < 0.001$ ), ONTSTWT ( $r = 0.44$ ;  $P < 0.001$ ), and WEIGHT140 ( $r = 0.69$ ;  $P < 0.001$ ). BF140 was moderately correlated with DMI ( $r = 0.38$ ;  $P < 0.001$ ) and ADG140 ( $r = 0.32$ ;  $P < 0.001$ ). HIPHT was also moderately correlated with DMI ( $r = 0.37$ ;  $P < 0.001$ ) and ADG140 ( $r = 0.38$ ;  $P < 0.001$ ).

Table 4.13. Phenotypic correlations among performance traits

	ADG140	DMI	BF140	HIPHT
A205WNWT	0.11	0.32*	0.12	0.47*
ADG140	1.00	0.59**	0.32**	0.38**
WEIGHT140	0.10	0.69**	0.33*	0.56**
ONTSTWT	0.10	0.44**	0.17	0.45**
DMI	0.59**	1.00	0.38**	0.37**
BF140	0.32**	0.38**	1.00	0.13
HIPHT	0.38**	0.37**	0.13	1.00

\*  $P < 0.05$

\*\*  $P < 0.001$

### **Rank correlations between feed conversion and different measures of RFI**

The rank correlation of 0.65 indicates that ranking of bulls from best to worst would have been similar, but there would have been some differences in ranking, whether based on RFI<sub>p</sub> or feed conversion ratio. Similar rank correlations existed between FCR and RFI<sub>BF</sub>, and between FCR and RFI<sub>NRC</sub> ( $r = 0.65$  and  $r = 0.67$ , respectively). Tables 4.14 and 4.15 present the three most efficient and three least efficient bulls that would have been selected in the divergent selection experiment if the selection criterion had been RFI<sub>p</sub>, RFI<sub>BF</sub>, or RFI<sub>NRC</sub>, rather than FCR. These results show that ranking of bulls for RFI<sub>p</sub> and RFI<sub>BF</sub> were nearly the same each year; order only changed by one in 1980 for both the most efficient and least efficient groups (Tables 4.14 and 4.15, respectively). Bulls chosen for FCR and RFI<sub>NRC</sub> had a few similar to those for RFI<sub>p</sub> and RFI<sub>BF</sub>, but many differences did exist.

Table 4.14. Three most efficient bulls by year based on FCR, RFI<sub>p</sub>, RFI<sub>BF</sub>, and RFI<sub>NRC</sub>

YEAR	FCR	RFI <sub>p</sub>	RFI <sub>BF</sub>	RFI <sub>NRC</sub>
1979	79190	79113	79113	79063
	79090	79090	79090	79090
	79181	79181	79181	79167
1980	80115	80115	80115	80116
	80065	80144	80035	80034
	80117	80117	80117	80117
1981	81048	81104	81104	81104
	81128	81027	81027	81027
	81002	81035	81035	81115
1982	82003	82003	82003	82003
	82021	82070	82070	82024
	82064	82142	82142	82065

Table 4.15. Three least efficient bulls by year based on FCR, RFI<sub>p</sub>, RFI<sub>BF</sub>, and RFI<sub>NRC</sub>

YEAR	FCR	RFI <sub>p</sub>	RFI <sub>BF</sub>	RFI <sub>NRC</sub>
1979	79043	79095	79095	79120
	79045	79097	79097	79085
	79006	79006	79006	79124
1980	80120	80118	80120	80104
	80018	80135	80135	80038
	80122	80122	80122	80063
1981	81020	81129	81129	81078
	81112	81051	81051	81042
	81053	81058	81058	81116
1982	82014	82197	82171	82184
	82190	82190	82190	82063
	82017	82103	82103	82167

## CHAPTER 5

### DISCUSSION

Our results are in agreement with those of Arthur et al. (1996) that variation exists among individual animals for feed efficiency. On average, high RFI<sub>p</sub> bulls consumed 18.5% more feed than low RFI<sub>p</sub> bulls and high RFI<sub>BF</sub> bulls consumed 14% more feed than low RFI<sub>BF</sub> bulls. Selection for bulls with low RFI will therefore lower overall feed consumption and in turn lower feed costs. There was no difference in feed consumption between RFI<sub>NRC</sub> groups, and the low phenotypic correlation between FDCON and RFI<sub>NRC</sub> may suggest selection for reduced RFI<sub>NRC</sub> will not have an affect on FDCON.

The strong correlations between FCR and growth traits are in accordance with published estimates (Brody, 1935; Koch et al., 1963; Koots et al., 1994; Arthur et al., 2001). Feed intake was not reduced and ADG<sub>140</sub> was higher in low FCR bulls (more desirable) when compared to bulls from the high FCR group. The phenotypic relationships among ADG<sub>140</sub>, DMI, and FCR found in this study are in agreement with others indicating selection against FCR will reduce the amount of feed required for growth and will be valuable to feedlot operations. However, FCR's strong correlation with growth leads to increases in mature BW, resulting in an increase in the cost of maintaining breeding herds (Archer et al., 1999).

The strong correlations with growth rate and size were not the case for RFI<sub>p</sub> or RFI<sub>BF</sub>. Both were independent of weight gain and weight traits, which is expected

because of the linear regression of DMI on ADG140 and METWT. There were strong correlations between RFI and DMI ( $r = 0.69$  and  $r = 0.70$ , respectively for RFI<sub>p</sub> and RFI<sub>BF</sub>) and DMI with FCR ( $r = 0.68$ ). Similar relationships have been published by other authors (Herd and Bishop, 2000; Johnson et al., 2004).

The present study showed that animals with high RFI<sub>p</sub> generally had greater feed to gain ratios (18% greater) and consumed more feed compared to animals with low RFI<sub>p</sub>, even though there was no difference in ADG140. Similar relationships were found for RFI<sub>BF</sub>. No difference existed among groups for ADG140 and bulls in the high RFI<sub>BF</sub> group had a 20% greater feed:gain ratio. These results agree with those reported by Arthur et al. (2001b). They conducted a divergent selection experiment for RFI<sub>p</sub> for two generations and reported that the progeny from low RFI<sub>p</sub> parents consumed 11.3% less feed and had a 15.4% improvement in FCR compared to the progeny of parents with high RFI<sub>p</sub>.

RFI<sub>NRC</sub> exhibited a significant difference in ADG140 ( $P < 0.05$ ), where low bulls were favored ( $1.32 \pm .02$  kg/d) compared to medium ( $1.22 \pm .02$  kg/d) and high ( $1.21 \pm .04$  kg/d) bulls. These results are similar to those of FCR; strong correlation with growth rate that may result in increase in mature BW.

As expected, there was a strong phenotypic correlation between RFI<sub>p</sub> and FCR ( $r = 0.68$ ). This is an indication that selection for low RFI<sub>p</sub> will get the same performance outcome of the progeny, but will not have the negative effects of unwanted weight gain

and growth because of RFIP's independence with these traits. Also, the rank correlation between FCR and RFIP ( $r = 0.65$ ), signifies that the animals will still rank in a similar fashion from best to worst based on feed efficiency, although some differences in ranking will be found.

The phenotypic correlations of DMI and RFIP with each other and with growth and BW reported in this study were significantly different from zero. The strong phenotypic relationship of DMI with growth rate (ADG;  $r = 0.59$ ) and body size (OFFTSTWT;  $r = 0.69$ ) suggest selection for faster growth rate and greater finish weights would lead to greater maintenance energy requirements and greater overall feed consumption as reported by Archer et al. (1999).

Phenotypic correlations indicate that selection for low RFIP may correspond with less accretion of subcutaneous fat (BFAT;  $P < 0.05$ ). Schenkel et al. (2004) reported a similar, positive phenotypic correlation ( $r = 0.17$ ) between RFIP and backfat thickness. These results may suggest a relationship between RFIP and meat yield. Brody (1935) suggested animals with greater fat deposits would be less efficient than animals with greater amounts of protein and water, due to fat having a higher gross energy content than protein. Therefore, selection for lower RFIP will produce animals that are more efficient with less fat. A small relationship between RFI and overall meat yield may exist as well.

The correlations of DMI and FCR with ADG are similar to published estimates as reviewed by Koots et al. (1994), as well as those reported by Schenkel et al. (2004).

However, these correlations are in contrast with earlier reports (Gill et al., 1986; Meissner et al., 1995, Gibb and McAllister, 1999), which indicated that the correlations between feed intake and gain or between intake and feed conversion ratio are typically low in feedlot cattle.

When determining the best measure of feed efficiency, several aspects of the beef cattle industry must be taken into consideration. Feed conversion ratio, as expected, will improve feed efficiency, but will likely have negative impacts on mature body weight. Similar results were found when residual feed intake was calculated using NRC expected feed intake equations.  $RFI_{NRC}$  was strongly negatively correlated with weight gain and weight traits with no correlation with actual feed consumption. This study supports the conclusion that  $RFI_p$  and  $RFI_{BF}$  proved to be more beneficial estimates of feed efficiency.  $RFI_p$  did have a weak correlation with backfat thickness, suggesting selection for low  $RFI_p$  will also be accompanied by a small decrease in fat. If this is not desirable,  $RFI_{BF}$  would be the better measurement, as expected intake is adjusted for both production and backfat thickness.

## **CHAPTER 6**

### **CONCLUSION**

Residual feed intake proved to be a better measurement of feed efficiency than feed conversion ratio.  $RFI_p$  and  $RFI_{BF}$  were better measurements than  $RFI_{NRC}$ , because of  $RFI_{NRC}$ 's strong correlations with weight traits and average daily gain. This RFI measure showed similar effects to those of selecting for feed conversion ratio. Selecting for low  $RFI_p$  or  $RFI_{BF}$  will result in lower dry matter intake and overall feed consumption which may in turn lower feed costs of the production system. This selection should have no adverse effects on weight traits and gains, as RFI is phenotypically independent of these traits.  $RFI_{BF}$  may be the better measurement tool for feed efficiency, as it does not have an affect on subcutaneous backfat.

Further research should be performed to assess the actual economic effects of selecting for residual feed intake versus feed conversion ratio, to predict actual savings on feed costs due to such selection.

## LITERATURE CITED

- Archer, J. A., P. F. Arthur, R. M. Herd, P. F. Parnell, and W. S. Pitchford. 1997. Optimum postweaning test for measurement of growth rate, feed intake, and feed efficiency in British breed cattle. *J. Anim. Sci.* 75: 2024-2032.
- Archer, J. A., E. C. Richardson, R. M. Herd, and P. F. Arthur. 1999. Potential for selection to improve efficiency of feed use in beef cattle: a review. *Aust. J. Agric. Res.* 50:147-161.
- Archer, J. A., A. Reverter, R. M. Herd, D. J. Johnston, and P. F. Arthur. 2002. Genetic variation in feed intake and efficiency of mature beef cows and relationships with postweaning measurements. *Proc. 7th World Congr. Genet. Appl. Livest. Prod.*, Montpellier, France.
- Arthur, P. F., G. Renand, and D. Krauss. 2001a. Genetic and phenotypic relationships among different measures of growth and efficiency in young Charolais bulls. *Livest. Prod. Sci.* 68:131-139.
- Arthur, P. F., J. A. Arthur, D. J. Johnston, R. M. Herd, E. C. Richardson, and P. F. Parnell. 2001b. Genetic and phenotypic variance and covariance components for feed intake, feed efficiency, and other postweaning traits in Angus cattle. *J. Anim. Sci.* 79:2805-2811.
- Arthur, P.F., J.A. Archer, R.M. Herd, and G.J. Melville. 2001b. Response to selection for net feed intake in beef cattle. In: *Beef Cattle Proceedings of the 14<sup>th</sup> Conference of the Association for Advancement of Animal Breeding and Genetics.* 135-138.
- Baker, S. D., J. I. Szasz, T. A. Klein, P. S. Kuber, C. W. Hunt, J. B. Glaze Jr., D. Falk, R. Richard, J. C. Miller, R. A. Battaglia, and R. A. Hill. 2006. Residual feed intake of purebred Angus steers: Effects on meat quality and palatability. *J. Anim. Sci.* 84: 38-945.
- Basarab, J. A., M. A. Price, J. L. Aalhus, E. K. Okine, W. M. Snelling, and K. L. Lyle. 2003. Residual feed intake and body composition in young growing cattle. *Can. J. Anim. Sci.* 83: 189-204.

- Basarab, J.A., D. Crews, S. S. Moore, P. Ramsey, N. French, and S. McKinnon. 2007. Residual feed intake (net feed efficiency) in beef cattle. Retrieved January 20, 2008 from Web Site:  
[http://www1.agric.gov.ab.ca/\\$Department/deptdocs.nsf/all/agdex10861](http://www1.agric.gov.ab.ca/$Department/deptdocs.nsf/all/agdex10861)
- BIF. 1986. Guidelines for Uniform Beef Improvement Programs. Beef Improvement Federation, USDA Ext. Service, Program Aid 1020.
- Beef NRC. 1996. Nutrient Requirement of Beef Cattle. 7th Rev. Ed. National Research Council. Nat. Acad. Sci., Washington, DC.
- Bishop, M. D., M. E. Davis, W. R. Harvey, G. R. Wilson, and B. D. VanStavern. 1991a. Divergent selection for postweaning feed conversion in Angus beef cattle: I. Mean comparisons. *J. Anim. Sci.* 69:43-48.
- Bishop, M. D., M. E. Davis, W. R. Harvey, G. R. Wilson, and B. D. VanStavern. 1991b. Divergent selection for postweaning feed conversion in Angus beef cattle: II. Genetic and phenotypic correlations and realized heritability estimate. *J. Anim. Sci.* 69:4360-4367.
- Blaxter, K. L. 1967. *The Energy Metabolism of Ruminants*. 2<sup>nd</sup> ed. (revised). Hutchinson Scientific and Technical: London, UK; p332.
- Boldman, K. G., L. A. Kriese, L. D. Van Vleck, C. P. Van Tassell, and S. D. Kachman. 1995. A Manual for Use of MTDFREML. A Set of Programs to Obtain Estimates of Variances and Covariances. Agric. Res. Serv., USDA, Washington, DC.
- Brodt, S., E. Chernoh, and G. Feenstra. 2007. Assessment of Energy Use and Greenhouse Gas Emissions in the Food System: A Literature Review. Retrieved on September 6, 2008, from Agricultural Sustainability Institute University of California, Davis Web site:  
[http://asi.ucdavis.edu/.../Literature\\_Review\\_Assessment\\_of\\_Energy\\_Use\\_and\\_Greenhouse\\_Gas\\_Emissions\\_in\\_the\\_Food\\_System\\_Nov\\_2007](http://asi.ucdavis.edu/.../Literature_Review_Assessment_of_Energy_Use_and_Greenhouse_Gas_Emissions_in_the_Food_System_Nov_2007)>
- Brody, S. 1935. Nutrition. *Annual Review of Biochemistry*. 4:383.
- Carstens, G., T. Welsh, R. Randel, B. Holloway, D. Forrest, and D. Keisler. 2003. Residual feed intake studies in growing steers and bulls. In WCC-92 Beef Cattle Energetic Station Report Reno, Nevada.

- Circle A Ranch. 2008. Retrieved October 3, 2008, from Circle A Angus Ranch Web site:  
<http://www.circlearanch.com/angussires.html>
- Crews, D. H., N. H. Shannon, and B. M. A. Genswein. 2003. Genetic parameters for net feed efficiency of beef cattle measured during postweaning growing versus finishing periods. In: 'Proceedings Western Section, American Society of Animal Science' (Phoenix). 54:125-128.
- Crews, D.H. 2005. Genetics of efficient feed utilization and national cattle evaluation: a review. *Gen. Molec. Research*. 4: 152-165.
- Davis, M. E., G. R. Wilson, W. R. Harvey, and T. B. Turner. 1985. Adjustment of postweaning feed:gain ratios of Angs bulls for differences in maintenance requirements. *J. Anim. Sci.* 61:1395.
- De Haer, L. C. M., P. Luiting, and H. L. M. Aarts. 1993. Relations among individual (residual) feed intake, growth performance, and feed intake pattern of growing pigs in group housing. *Livest. Prod. Sci.* 23: 233-253.
- Eggert, D. L. and M. K. Nielsen. 2006. Costs of lean deposition, fat deposition, and maintenance in three lines of mice selected for heat loss. *J. Anim. Sci.* 84: 276-282.
- Ferrell, C. L., and T. G. Jenkins. 1985. Cow type and the nutritional environment: Nutritional aspects. *J. Anim. Sci.* 61:725-741.
- Ferrell, C.L. and T.G. Jenkins. 1988. Body composition and energy utilization by steers of diverse genotypes fed a high-concentrate diet during the finishing period: I. Angus, Belgian Blue, Hereford, and Piedmontese sires. *J. Anim. Sci.* 76: 637-646.
- Frazer, D. J., J. S. D. Ritchie, and A. F. Frazer. 1975. The term 'stress' in a veterinary context. *The British Veterinary Journal*. 131:653-658.
- Garber, K. 2008. 'With the Cattle Industry Struggling, the Question Is, 'Where's the Beef?'' U.S. News World Report. July 15, 2008. Retrieved October 5, 2008 from Web Site:  
<http://www.usnews.com/articles/news/national/2008/07/15/with-the-cattle-industry-struggling-the-question-is-wheres-the-beef.html>

- Gartner, R. J. W., L. L. Callow, C. K. Granzien, P. M. Pepper. 1969. Variations in the concentration of blood constituents in relation to the handling of cattle. *Research in Veterinary Science*. 10: 7-12.
- Gaylean, M. L. 1996. Protein levels in beef cattle finishing diets: Industry applications, university research and system results. *J. Anim. Sci.* 74:2860-2870.
- Gibb, D. J., and T. A. McAllister. 1999. The impact of feed intake and feeding behavior of cattle on feedlot and feedbunk management. Pages 101-116 in *Proc. 20<sup>th</sup> Western Nutr. Conf.*, Calgary, Alberta.
- Golden, B. L., D. J. Garrick, S. Newman, and R. M. Enns. 2000. A framework for the next generation of EPDs. *Proc. of the 32<sup>nd</sup> Beef Improvement Federation Annual Research Symposium and Meeting*, Wichita, KS, USA, 32: 2-13.
- Gunsett, F.C. 1984. Linear index selection to improve traits defined as ratios. *J. Anim. Sci.* 59: 1185-1193.
- Herd, R. M. 1992. Changing the size of beef cattle—Implications for cow feed requirements. *Proc. Assoc. Adv. Breed. Genet.* 10:334–337.
- Herd, R. M., and S. C. Bishop. 2000. Genetic variation in residual feed intake and its association with other production traits in British Hereford cattle. *Livest. Prod. Sci.* 63:111-119.
- Herd, R. M., J. A. Archer, and P. F. Arthur. 2003. Reducing the cost of beef production through genetic improvement in residual feed intake: Opportunity and challenges to application. *J. Anim. Sci.* 81(E. Suppl. 1):E9-E17.
- Herd, R. M., V. H. Oddy, and E. C. Richardson. 2004. Biological basis for variation in residual feed intake in beef cattle. 1. Review of potential mechanisms. *Aust. J. Experim. Agri.* 44:423-430.
- Herring, W. O. and J. K. Bertrand. 2002. Multi-trait prediction of feed conversion in feedlot cattle. *Proc. of 34<sup>th</sup> Beef Improvement Annual Research Symposium and Meeting*, Omaha, NE, USA, 34:
- Hicks, R. B., F. N. Owens, D. R. Gill, J. J. Martin, and C. A. Strasias. 1990. Effects of controlled feed intake on performance and carcass characteristics of feedlot steers and heifers. *J. Anim. Sci.* 68:233-244.

- Johnson, D. E., K. A. Johnson, and R. L. Baldwin. 1990. Changes in liver and gastrointestinal tract energy demands in response to physiological workload in ruminants. *Journal of Nutrition*. 120:659-655.
- Johnston, D. J., R. M. Herd, M. J. Kadel, H. U. Graser, P. F. Arthur and J. A. Archer. 2002. Evidence of IGF-1 as a genetic predictor of feed efficiency traits in beef cattle. Pages 1-4 in *Proc 7<sup>th</sup> World Congr. Genet. Appl. Livest. Prod.* Montpellier, France.
- Kennedy, B. W., J. H. S. van der Werf, and T. H. E. Meuwissen. Genetic and statistical properties of residual feed intake. *J. Anim. Sci.* 71: 3239-3250.
- Klasing, K. C., and T. V. Leshchinsky. 2000. Interactions between nutrition and immunity. Lessons from animal agriculture. In: *Nutrition and Immunology: Principles and Practice*. Editors: Gershwin, J. B., Germanand. Keen, C. L. Elsevier: Amsterdam. P. 363-373.
- Koch, R. M., L. A. Swiger, D. Chambers, and K. E. Gregory. 1963. Efficiency of feed use in beef cattle. *J. Anim. Sci.* 22:486-494.
- Koots, K. R., J. P. Gibson, C. Smith, and J. W. Wilson. 1994a. Analyses of published genetic parameter estimates for beef production traits. I. Heritability. *Anim. Breed.* 62: 309-338.
- Koots, K. R., J. P. Gibson, C. Smith, and J. W. Wilson. 1994b. Analyses of published genetic parameter estimates for beef production traits. II. Phenotypic and genetic correlations. *Anim. Breed. Abstr.* 62: 825-853.
- Lobley, G. E. 2003. Protein turnover – what does it mean for animal production? *Can. J. Anim. Sci.* 83:327-340.
- Luiting, P., E Decuyper, P.N. de Groot, J. Buyse, and G Roon. 1994. Selection for feed efficiency and consequences for stress susceptibility. Abstract 45<sup>th</sup> Annual Meeting EAAP. Edinburgh. 104.
- Mathison, G.W. and Engstrom, D. 1995. Ad libitum feeding versus restricted feeding of barley - corn-based feedlot diets. *Can. J. Anim. Sci.* 75:637.

- McDonald, J. M. and M. K. Nielsen. 2007. Renewed selection for heat loss in mice: Direct responses and correlated responses in feed intake, body weight, litter size, and conception rate. *J. Anim. Sci.* 85: 658-666.
- Murphy, T. A. and S. C. Loerch. 1994. Effects of feeding growing steers on performance, carcass characteristics, and composition. *J. Anim. Sci.* 72:2497-2507.
- Nielsen, M. K., B. A. Freking, L. D. Jones, S. M. Nelson, T. L. Vondorstrasse, and B. A. Hussey. 1997. Divergent selection for heat loss in mice: II. Correlated responses in feed intake, body mass, body composition, and number born through fifteen generations. *J. Anim. Sci.* 75: 1469-1476.
- Nkrumah, J. D., E. K. Okine, G. W. Mathison, K. Schmid, C. Li, J. A. Basarab, M. A. Price, Z. Wang, and S. S. Moore. 2006. Relationships of feedlot feed efficiency, performance, and feeding behavior with metabolic rate, methane production, and energy partitioning in beef cattle. *J. Anim. Sci.* 84:145-153.
- Oddy, V. H. 1993. Regulation of muscle protein metabolism in sheep and lambs: nutritional, endocrine, and genetic aspects. *Aust. J. Agric. Research.* 44: 901-913.
- Oddy, V. H. 1999. Protein metabolism and nutrition in farm animals: An overview. In: G. E. Lobley, A. White, and J. C. MacRae (ed.) *Protein Metabolism and Nutrition*. pp 7-23. EAAP Publ. 96, Wageningen, The Netherlands.
- Okine, E. K., J. A. Basarab, L. A. Goonewardene, and P. Mir. 2004. Residual feed intake and feed efficiency: Differences and Implications. *Florida Ruminant Nutrition Symposium*.
- Pitchford, W. S. 2004. Genetic improvement of feed efficiency of beef cattle: what lessons can be learnt from other species? *Aust. J. Experim. Agric.* 44:371-382.
- Plegge, S. D. 1987. Restricting intake of feedlot cattle. In F. N. Owens (Ed). *Feed intake by beef cattle symposium* p 297. Oklahoma State University. MP-121, Stillwater.
- Richardson, E. C., R. M. Herd, P. F. Arthur, J. Wright, G. Xu, K. Dibley, and V. H. Oddy. 1996. Possible physiological indicators for net feed conversion efficiency in beef cattle. *Proc. Aust. Soc. Anim. Prod.* 21: 103-106.

- Richardson, E. C., R. M. Herd, V. H. Oddy, R. T. Woodgate, J. A. Archer, and P. F. Arthur. 1999. Body composition explains only part of the intake difference between high and low efficiency Angus steers. *Recent Advances in Animal Nutrition in Australia*, 12, 4A.
- Richardson, E. C., R. M. Herd, and V. H. Oddy. 2001. Variation in body composition, activity, and other physiological processes and their associations with feed efficiency. Pages 46-50 in *Proc. Feed Efficiency Workshop. CRC for Cattle and Beef Quality*. Univ. of New England, Armidale, Australia.
- Richardson, E.C., R.M. Herd, I.G. Colditz, J.A. Archer, and P.F. Arthur. 2002. Blood cell profiles of steer progeny from parents selected for and against residual feed intake. *Aust. J. Exp. Agr.* 42: 901-908.
- Richardson, E. C. and R. M. Herd. 2004a. Biological basis of variation in residual feed intake in beef cattle. 1. Review of potential mechanisms. *Aust. J. Exp. Agr.* 44: 423-430.
- Richardson, E. C. and R. M. Herd. 2004b. Biological basis of variation in residual feed intake in beef cattle. 2. Synthesis of results following divergent selection. 44: 431-440.
- Sainz, R. D., and P. V. Paulino. 2004. Residual Feed Intake. (April 15). Sierra Foothill Research & Extension Center. Paper 2004\_residual\_feed\_intake. [http://repositories.cdlib.org/anrec/sfrec/2004\\_residual\\_feed\\_intake](http://repositories.cdlib.org/anrec/sfrec/2004_residual_feed_intake)
- Schenkel, F. S., S. P. Miller, and J. W. Wilton. 2004. Genetic parameters and breed differences for feed efficiency, growth, and body composition traits of young beef bulls. *Can. J. Anim. Sci.* 84:177-185.
- Schwartzkopf-Genswein, K. and T. McAllister. 1998. Feedbunk Detective. *Beef Magazine*, October 1. Available from Beef Magazine at website [http://beefmagazine.com/mag/beef\\_feedbunk\\_detective](http://beefmagazine.com/mag/beef_feedbunk_detective) [accessed 1 December 2008].
- Searle, S.R. 1982. *Matrix Algebra Useful for Statistics*. John Wiley and Sons, New York, NY, USA.
- Simm, G., C. Smith, and R. Thompson. 1987. The use of product traits such as lean growth rate as selection criteria in animal breeding. *Anim. Prod.* 45: 307-316.

- Tomas, F. M., R.A. Pym, and R. J. Johnson. 1991. Muscle protein turnover in chickens selected for increased growth rate, food consumption, or efficiency of food utilization: Effects of genotype and relationship to plasma IGF-I and growth hormone. *Br. Poult. Sci.* 32: 363-376.
- Wang, Z., J. D. Nkrumah, C. Li, J. A. Basarab, L. A. Goonewardene, E. K. Okine, D. H. Crews Jr., and S. S. Moore. 2006. Test duration for growth, feed intake, and efficiency in beef cattle using the GrowSafe System. *J. Anim. Sci.* 84:2289-2298.
- Wesolowski, S. R., M. F. Allan, M. K. Nielsen, and D. Pomp. 2003. Evaluation of hypothalamic gene expression in mice divergently selected for heat loss. *Physiol. Genomics.* 13: 129-137.
- Yaukey, J. 2008. 'When will food prices stop rising? No time soon, experts say'. Gannett News Service. June 8, 2008. Retrieved October 5, 2008 from Web Site: [http://www.usatoday.com/money/industries/food/2008-06-07-food-prices\\_N.htm](http://www.usatoday.com/money/industries/food/2008-06-07-food-prices_N.htm)
- Zhuchaev, K., S. Knyazev, V. Hart, and N. Ephanova. 1996. Associations between stress-susceptibility and immune status in pigs. *Advances in Swine Medical Biomedical Research.* 32: 359-363.
- Zinn, R. A. 1986. Programming feed intake to optimize performance of feedlot cattle. In *Symposium proceedings: Feed intake by beef cattle.* MP 121. Page 290. Oklahoma State University. Stillwater.