

Animal Research Paper

[†]The original version of this article was submitted with incorrect author affiliation information. A notice detailing this has been published and the error rectified in the online PDF and HTML copies.

Cite this article: Mahmoud B Y, Abdel Hafez A S, Emam A M, Abdelmoniem A M, ElSafty S A (2018). Feathering rate impact on growth and slaughter traits of Japanese quail. *The Journal of Agricultural Science* **156**, 942–948. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S0021859618000990>

Received: 25 April 2018
Revised: 6 October 2018
Accepted: 23 October 2018
First published online: 16 November 2018

Key words:

Body weight; fast-feathering rate; slaughter traits; slow-feathering rate

Author for correspondence:

B. Y. Mahmoud, E-mail: byf00@fayoum.edu.eg

Feathering rate impact on growth and slaughter traits of Japanese quail

B. Y. Mahmoud¹, A. S. Abdel Hafez^{2†}, A. M. Emam¹, A. M. Abdelmoniem²
and S. A. ElSafty²

¹Faculty of Agriculture, Poultry Production Department, Fayoum University, 63514 Fayoum, Egypt and ²Poultry Production Department, Faculty of Agriculture, Ain Shams University, 11241 Cairo, Egypt

Abstract

A total of 1180 1-day-old Japanese quail (*Coturnix japonica*) chicks were used to investigate the effect of feathering rates on growth and slaughter traits. Feathering rates were classified based on the results of stepwise regression using numbers and lengths of both primaries and secondaries and tail length at 7 and 10 days of age as predictors. At 7 and 10 days old, number of primary feathers had phenotypically positive low correlations (rps) with body weight (BW), whereas number of secondaries had positive medium rps with BW at different ages. Lengths of primary, secondary and tail feathers had highly positive rps with BW traits at different ages. Results of stepwise multiple regressions indicated that BW at 14, 21 and 28 days of age can be predicted using lengths of secondary and tail feathers at 10 days old, number of secondaries at 7 days old and length of secondaries at 7 days old, respectively. Body weight at 35 days of age can be predicted using number of primaries, lengths of secondaries and tail at 10 days of age and number of secondaries at 7 days of age. Higher BWs were obtained in the fast-feathering class from 21 up to 35 days of age than in other groups, whereas the slow-feathering class had the lowest BW. Significant class differences were found for carcass weight, feather weight and dressing% favouring the fast- over the slow-feathering class. Therefore, early feathering rates improved BW at later ages and slaughter traits in Japanese quail.

Introduction

Some of the single genes responsible for qualitative traits in poultry, such as the gene affecting feathering growth rate, are responsible for improving production efficiency (Zakrzewska, 1995) and distinguish sex based on the growth rate of external feathers at early ages (Genchev *et al.*, 2008). Hutt (1949) put forward two theories about the advantages of rapid-feathering birds: firstly, the gene for rapid feathering promotes not only the growth rate of all feathers but also other body processes, resulting in faster growth; secondly, rapid-feathering birds require less energy for maintenance of body temperature and, having better insulation against heat loss, more energy is available for growth. If a gene affecting feather development is sex-linked, it could be applied in commercial quail production with considerable economic impact, allowing producers to reduce some of their production costs. Wheeler and Latshaw (1981) observed that the beginning of fast feather growth continued up to the end of the second week after hatching. Khosravinia (2009) found that rapid-feathering broilers had significantly heavier live body weight (BW) and carcass weight than slow-feathering ones. According to Fotsa *et al.* (2001), fast-feathering genotypes had more effective protection against chilling, so these genotypes grew faster than slow-feathering genotype in broiler flocks. Moreover, feather sexing is a very common method of sex identification at 21 days of age in Japanese quail (*Coturnix japonica*), depending on feather colour; however, the accuracy of this method is dependent upon good feather development. A major problem in identifying sex is seen in 0.11–0.17 of birds, where feather growth is delayed due to individual features in the growth rate of external feathers. Late growth of feathers and insufficient feathering results in failure to detect the gender of quails, even at the age of 17 days (Genchev *et al.*, 2008).

Avian species differ in the number of primary and secondary feathers; also, the structure of primary feathers differs from that of secondaries, with primary remiges (flight feathers) being very long, irregular and harder than the secondaries, which are slightly more delicate (Somes, 1990). Somes (1990) also reported that there are about ten primary remiges and 15 secondaries located on each wing of the common *Coturnix*, but that two completely dominant autosomal genes can affect the number of primary remiges. Also, the number of tail feathers is affected both by species and genetic factors. Warren (1930) indicated that in crosses between males having the gene for fast-feathering rate and females having the gene for slow-feathering rate, gender may be detected by the extent of growth in primary and secondary wing feathers at 1 day old and by the existence or absence of tail feathers at 10 days old. Females have been

reported to have significantly higher feather weight (Wecke *et al.*, 2017) and heavier BW (Taskin *et al.*, 2017) than males across generations.

Most programmes constructed for genetic improvement in Japanese quail start at 4 weeks of age because of maternal effects, which is the causal impact of the maternal phenotype or genotype on the offspring phenotype or performance, which can play an important role in evolutionary processes and performance of offspring (Sefton and Siegel, 1974; Jahanian and Goudarzi, 2010). Therefore, it is the aim of both researchers and breeders/producers to find alternative methods of predicting productive qualities through easy to measure traits, such as feathering rate, at an early age. Therefore, the current study aimed to investigate the effect of feathering rate and its relationship with BW and slaughter traits in Japanese quail, which may have a major economic effect on quail production.

Materials and methods

The experimental work was conducted at the Poultry Research Centre, Faculty of Agriculture, Fayoum University, Egypt. A total of 1180 1-day-old Japanese quail chicks were wing banded at hatching. During the first 35 days after hatching, all quail were fed *ad libitum* on a starter diet containing 12.1417 MJ and 240 g crude protein/kg and clean water. All birds had the same environmental, management and health conditions: after hatching, chicks were reared on the floor at 35 °C for the first 3 days, after which the temperature was decreased gradually. Birds were subjected to continuous light for the first 14 days and then the photoperiod was reduced to 16 h light/day thereafter.

The description of feathering rate was divided into three classes, based on the ranking of individual feather growth rate for both number and length of the primary and secondary feathers at 7 and 10 days of age and tail length at 10 days of age as predictors, using stepwise regression analysis. The three classes (Fig. 1) were:

- Fast-feathering class: quails which had higher numbers (Nusec₇, Nupri₁₀) and length (Lensec₇, Lensec₁₀) of primary and secondary feathers at 7 and 10 days old, respectively, and tail length at 10 days old (Lentail₁₀) than other classes,
- Slow-feathering class: quails which had lower numbers and length (Nusec₇, Nupri₁₀) of primary and secondary feathers (Lensec₇, Lensec₁₀) and Lentail₁₀ than other classes.
- Normal-feathering class: quails had normal rates of feathering, used as a control reference of description in the current study. The normal feathering class has lower numbers (Nusec₇, Nupri₁₀) and length (Lensec₇, Lensec₁₀) of primary and secondary feathers at 7 and 10 days old, respectively, and tail length at 10 days old (Lentail₁₀) than the fast-feathering class, but higher numbers (Nusec₇, Nupri₁₀) and greater length (Lensec₇, Lensec₁₀) of primary and secondary feathers at 7 and 10 days old, respectively, and tail length at 10 days old (Lentail₁₀) than the slow-feathering class.

The traits studied were:

- Numbers of primary and secondary feathers: numbers of primaries (Nupri₇, Nupri₁₀) and secondaries (Nusec₇, Nusec₁₀) feathers at 7 and 10 days of age,
- Lengths of primary, secondary feathers and tail: lengths of primaries (Lenpri₇, Lenpri₁₀) and secondaries (Lensec₇, Lensec₁₀)

feathers at 7 and 10 days of age and tail length at 10 days of age (Lentail₁₀).

- Body weight (g): weekly live BW from 14 up to 35 days of age were individually recorded using a sensitive digital electronic balance.
- Slaughter traits: at the end of the fifth week after hatching, a slaughter test was performed on 60 birds, randomly chosen from the fast- and slow-feathering rate classes (15 males and 15 females of each class). The chosen birds were fasted for 12 h, weighed individually and slaughtered by cutting the jugular vein. Bleeding was continued for *c.* 4 min then feathers were dry-plucked. The head, neck, legs, viscera and giblets (liver, heart, spleen and gizzard) were removed before eviscerated carcasses were weighed individually to obtain dressed weight:

Carcass weight = live BW₃₅ - (weights of blood + feather + head + leg + inedible parts),

Dressing% = 100 × (carcass weight + giblets weight)/live BW₃₅

Statistical analyses

The three models of analysis used in the current study were:

- 1- PROC CORR, SAS (2011) model was used to estimate Pearson's phenotypic correlations (r_p) between the studied traits.
- 2- PROC REG, SAS (2011) model to calculate stepwise regression analyses.
- 3- PROC MIXED (SAS, 2011) model was used to calculate the class and sex-specific means for all traits:

$$Y_{ijk} = \mu + C_i + S_j + C_i \times S_j + e_{ijk}$$

where Y_{ijk} is the observation for a trait, μ is the overall mean; C_i is the fixed effect of the i^{th} class (i for the three levels of BW class (fast-, normal- and slow-feathering classes), and two levels for slaughter traits (fast- and slow-feathering classes)), S_j is the fixed effect of j^{th} sex, $C_i \times S_j$ is the interaction of C_i and S_j and e_{ijk} is the random error term; the random variable was the quail within class. Means of classes and their interactions with sex were compared using multiple range test (Duncan, 1955). A probability of $P < 0.05$ was required for significance.

Results

Descriptive statistics of traits studied in the current work are presented in Table 1. As the chicks grew older, variability in range values of BW increased from a minimum at 14 days old and reaching its maximum at 35 days of age, ranging from 58.0 to 161.0 g. As quail chicks increased in age, both numbers and length of primaries and secondaries increased: at 7 and 10 days old, the numbers of secondaries *v.* primaries were 7 and 6 *v.* 3 and 4, respectively, and lengths were 2.5 and 4.0 *v.* 2.0 and 3.0, respectively.

Means of Nupri₁₀, Nusec₁₀, Lenpri₁₀ and Lensec₁₀ were higher than those at 7 days old. Both mean and range for Lentail₁₀ were lower than Lenpri₁₀ and Lensec₁₀.

The correlations (rps) between feathering measurement traits and BW traits at different ages are presented in Table 2. All measurements of feathering rate had positive rps with BW at all ages studied, ranging from low to medium (0.05–0.44). Both Nupri₇



Fig. 1. The three morphological classes of feathering rates.

Table 1. Descriptive statistics of studied traits

Variable	N	Mean	s.d.	Minimum	Maximum	Range
BW ₁₄	1180	66	8.8	33.0	91.0	58.0
BW ₂₁	1173	115	14.4	43.0	172.0	129.0
BW ₂₈	1166	155	17.7	60.0	200.3	140.3
BW ₃₅	1104	190	19.8	83.0	244.0	161.0
Nupri ₇	1104	7.2	0.48	5.0	8.0	3.0
Nusec ₇	1104	10.4	0.87	6.0	13.0	7.0
Nupri ₁₀	1075	7.3	0.46	6.0	10.0	4.0
Nusec ₁₀	1076	11.6	0.88	7.0	13.0	6.0
Lenpri ₇ (cm)	1104	2.7	0.36	1.0	3.0	2.0
Lensec ₇ (cm)	1104	2.5	0.43	0.5	3.0	2.5
Lenpri ₁₀ (cm)	1076	4.1	0.43	2.0	5.0	3.0
Lensec ₁₀ (cm)	1076	3.8	0.45	0.5	4.5	4.0
Lentail ₁₀ (cm)	1076	1.4	0.33	0.0	2.5	2.5

N, number of observations; s.d., standard deviation; BW₁₄ to BW₃₅, weights at 14, 21, 28 and 35 days of age; Nupri₇, Nusec₇, Nupri₁₀, Nusec₁₀, Lenpri₇, Lensec₇, Lenpri₁₀, Lensec₁₀ and Lentail₁₀, numbers and lengths of primary and secondary feathers at 7 and 10 days of age.

Range = maximum–minimum.

(0.08–0.09) and Nupri₁₀ (0.08–0.11) had positive, significant ($P < 0.05$) low rps with BW at all ages, except BW₂₈ which did not correlate significantly with Nupri₇. Medium positive rps estimates were found between both Nusec₇ and Nusec₁₀ with BW from 14 up to 35 days of age, ranging from 0.19 to 0.35 (Table 2). Similarly, Lentail₁₀ had positive and significant ($P < 0.001$)

medium rps with BW from 21 up to 35 days of age ranged from 0.24 to 0.32.

The results of stepwise multiple regressions (Table 3) indicated that BW₁₄, BW₂₁ and BW₂₈ can be predicted using Lensec₁₀, Lentail₁₀, Nusec₇ and Lensec₇, while BW₃₅ can be predicted with the use of Nupri₁₀, Lensec₁₀, Lentail₁₀ and Nusec₇.

Table 2. Phenotypic correlations between feather traits and body weight at different ages

Trait	BW ₁₄	BW ₂₁	BW ₂₈	BW ₃₅
Nupri ₇	0.08	0.09	0.05 ^{NS}	0.09
Nusec ₇	0.35	0.29	0.28	0.22
Nupri ₁₀	0.08	0.10	0.09	0.11
Nusec ₁₀	0.29	0.26	0.21	0.19
Lenpri ₇ (cm)	0.37	0.28	0.25	0.16
Lensec ₇ (cm)	0.39	0.29	0.27	0.18
Lenpri ₁₀ (cm)	0.32	0.25	0.21	0.14
Lensec ₁₀ (cm)	0.44	0.35	0.33	0.27
Lentail ₁₀ (cm)	0.06 ^{NS}	0.32	0.27	0.24

BW₁₄ to BW₃₅ = body weights at 14, 21, 28 and 35 days of age; Nupri₇, Nusec₇, Nupri₁₀, Nusec₁₀, Lenpri₇, Lensec₇, Lenpri₁₀, Lensec₁₀ and Lentail₁₀ = numbers and lengths at 7 and 10 days of age; values were ranged from 0.05:0.06 = not significant; rp ranged from 0.05 to 0.06 were not significant.
rp ranged from 0.08 to 0.09 were significant at $P \leq 0.05$.
rp ranged from 0.10 to 0.44 were significant at $P \leq 0.001$.

Significant increases ($P < 0.01$) were observed in class differences at 14 days and at later ages, but sex differences were not significant for any of the studied BW at different ages. Heavier BWs ($P < 0.01$) were clear from BW₂₁ age up to 35 days of age in the fast-feathering class than the slow-feathering class, which had the lowest BW. The interaction between feathering rate class and sex effects in the current study was significant for BW₁₄ only and not significant for BW at later ages (Table 4). Females of the fast-feathering class had the highest BW₁₄, whereas females and males of the slow class had the lightest BW₁₄ (Table 5). Significant ($P < 0.001$) class differences were seen for carcass weight, feather weight and dressing% in favour of the fast-feathering class (Table 6). Sex differences were also significant for carcass ($P < 0.05$), giblets ($P < 0.001$) and feather weights ($P < 0.01$), favouring females rather than males. The interaction of feathering class and sex effects was significant for carcass ($P < 0.01$) and giblet weights ($P < 0.05$) (Table 6). Females of the fast-feathering class had heavier carcass weights than other sex × feathering rate classes. Females of both fast- and slow-feathering classes had significantly ($P < 0.05$) higher giblets weight than males of either fast or slow classes (Table 7).

Discussion

Averages for all BWs studied were higher in the current study than the estimates reported by Barbieri *et al.* (2015), Daida and Rani (2017) and Rathert *et al.* (2017), except for BW₃₅ reported by Barbieri *et al.* (2015; 211.31 v. 189.52 in the current study). This may be due to the differences in genetic background of the flock, environmental conditions and the interaction between them (Falconer, 1989). In the current study, both the numbers and length of primary and secondary remiges increased with age in the quail chicks. These results agreed with those reported by Somes (1990), who reported that there are about ten primary remiges and 15 secondaries located on each wing of the common *Coturnix*, but that two completely dominant autosomal genes can affect the number of primary remiges. Similarly, Wecke *et al.* (2017) found that feather weight increased with increasing age of birds. In adult birds, weight of feather ranged from 3 to 6%

Table 3. Stepwise regression parameters, coefficient of determination (R^2), for predicting body weight at different ages through primaries, secondaries and tail regimes

\bar{Y}	Predictor	s.e.	R^2	Sig.	Fitted equation $\hat{Y}_1 = a \pm b_1X_1 \pm b_2X_2 \pm b_3X_3 \pm b_4X_4 + \epsilon_i$
BW ₁₄	Lensec ₁₀	0.60	0.20	$P \leq 0.001$	$\hat{Y}_1 = 11.46 + 4.94$ Lensec ₁₀ + 6.92 Lentail ₁₀ + 1.80 Nusec ₇ + 2.89 Lensec ₇
	Lentail ₁₀	0.77	0.29		
	Nusec ₇	1.80	0.33		
	Lensec ₇	2.89	0.34		
BW ₂₁	Lensec ₁₀	1.09	0.12	$P \leq 0.01$	$\hat{Y}_2 = 43.25 + 6.93$ Lensec ₁₀ + 6.67 Lentail ₁₀ + 2.71 Nusec ₇ + 3.15 Lensec ₇
	Lentail ₁₀	1.38	0.16		
	Nusec ₇	0.51	0.19		
	Lensec ₇	1.15	0.19		
BW ₂₈	Lensec ₁₀	1.36	0.10	$P \leq 0.01$	$\hat{Y}_3 = 73.98 + 7.66$ Lensec ₁₀ + 6.57 Lentail ₁₀ + 3.22 Nusec ₇ + 3.93 Lensec ₇
	Lentail ₁₀	1.73	0.14		
	Nusec ₇	0.64	0.15		
	Lensec ₇	1.43	0.16		
BW ₃₅	Nupri ₁₀	1.30	0.06	$P \leq 0.01$	$\hat{Y}_4 = 95.11 + 3.55$ Nupri ₁₀ + 7.11 Lensec ₁₀ + 7.96 Lentail ₁₀ + 2.98 Nusec ₇
	Lensec ₁₀	1.52	0.09		
	Lentail ₁₀	1.97	0.11		
	Nusec ₇	0.71	0.11		

BW₁₄ to BW₃₅ = weights at 14, 21, 28 and 35 days of age; Nupri₇, Nusec₇, Nupri₁₀, Nusec₁₀, Lenpri₇, Lensec₇, Lenpri₁₀, Lensec₁₀ and Lentail₁₀ = numbers and lengths at 7 and 10 days of age; Sig. = significance.

of BW (Leeson and Walsh, 2004). Results of the present study indicated that use of feathering rate traits at earlier ages may enable improved growth performance at 35 days of age in Japanese quail, allowing producers to reduce some production costs.

No previous information could be found on the studied feathering rate traits and their relationship with growth performance of Japanese quail. There were significant and positive correlations between most measurements of feathering rate and all BW traits studied at different ages.

The results of the present study revealed that feathering rate traits measured at 7 and 10 days of age can be used successfully as predictors for BW at later ages in Japanese quail.

Yakubu *et al.* (2012) reported that multiple regression analysis could be used to deduce the complex relationships among BW and some morphometric measurements. Therefore, typically BW is regressed on morphometric measurements to determine a weight prediction equation.

The fast-feathering class had higher BW₂₁, BW₂₈ and BW₃₅ than other classes. However, there were non-significant sex differences for all BW studied at different ages. Similarly, Khosravinia (2009) reported that fast-feathering broilers had significantly higher BW than slow-feathering ones. Thyroid hormones and gonadotrophins have been found to have major effects on feather growth and its development (Spearman, 1971). Thyroid hormones are responsible for increasing metabolic rate and lead to increased glucose levels in the blood as well as increased glucose absorption from the intestines. Thyroid hormones have also been shown to stimulate protein synthesis, may increase lipid

Table 4. Least-squares means (\pm s.e.) along with the significance of fixed effects for the body weight at different ages

Items	BW ₁₄	BW ₂₁	BW ₂₈	BW ₃₅
Fast feathering	68.0 \pm 0.45	119.3 \pm 0.76	161 \pm 1.9	197 \pm 1.0
Normal feathering	66.9 \pm 0.37	116.0 \pm 0.61	157 \pm 1.6	189.8 \pm 0.85
Slow feathering	60.1 \pm 0.48	107.8 \pm 0.82	148 \pm 2.0	181 \pm 1.1
Sex				
Female	65.9 \pm 0.36	115.3 \pm 0.61	156 \pm 1.5	190.8 \pm 0.84
Male	65.1 \pm 0.35	114.4 \pm 0.59	155 \pm 1.5	188.7 \pm 0.81
Significance				
Classes	$P \leq 0.01$	$P \leq 0.01$	$P \leq 0.01$	$P \leq 0.01$
Sex	NS	NS	NS	NS
Classes \times sex	$P \leq 0.05$	NS	NS	NS

BW₁₄ to BW₃₅ = body weights at 14, 21, 28 and 35 days of age.
NS, not significant.

Table 5. Least-squares means (\pm s.e.) along with the significance of classes \times sex interaction for BW at 14 days of age

Sex	Fast	Normal	Slow
Female	69.3 \pm 0.63	66.7 \pm 0.53	59.8 \pm 0.72
Male	66.7 \pm 0.65	67.1 \pm 0.51	60.3 \pm 0.65
Classes \times sex	$P \leq 0.05$		

Table 6. Least-squares means (\pm s.e.) along with the significance of fixed effects for slaughter traits

Item	Carcass weight (g)	Giblets weight (g)	Feather weight (g)	Dressing %
Class effect				
Fast feathering	131 \pm 2.6	10.9 \pm 0.18	10.4 \pm 0.24	77.7 \pm 0.40
Slow feathering	112 \pm 2.6	10.7 \pm 0.19	9.5 \pm 0.26	76.3 \pm 0.41
Sex effect				
Female	126 \pm 2.6	11.8 \pm 0.20	10.5 \pm 0.25	76.8 \pm 0.42
Male	117 \pm 2.6	9.9 \pm 0.19	9.4 \pm 0.25	77.0 \pm 0.43
Significance				
Classes	$P \leq 0.001$	NS	$P \leq 0.05$	$P \leq 0.05$
Sex	$P \leq 0.05$	$P \leq 0.001$	$P \leq 0.01$	NS
Classes \times sex	$P \leq 0.01$	$P \leq 0.05$	NS	NS

NS, not significant.

Table 7. Least-squares means (\pm s.e.) along with the significance of classes \times sex interaction for carcass and giblets weights

Trait	Sex	Fast	Slow
Carcass weight (g)	Female	141 \pm 3.7	112 \pm 3.7
	Male	121 \pm 3.7	113 \pm 3.7
Classes \times sex	$P \leq 0.01$		
Giblets weight (g)	Female	12.0 \pm 0.29	11.5 \pm 0.29
	Male	9.5 \pm 0.29	10.3 \pm 0.29
Classes \times sex	$P \leq 0.05$		

metabolism by stimulation of lipoprotein lipase, act on cholesterol metabolism allowing its alteration to bile acids, and stimulate the heart rate as well as blood flow (Lissitzky, 1990; Capen, 1993). The gene for rapid feathering has pleiotropic effects beyond its impact on feathering (Chambers *et al.*, 1994; Leeson and Walsh, 2004). Several researchers have demonstrated influences of this gene, such as immunological response (Crittenden *et al.*, 1987), heat tolerance (Singh *et al.*, 2001), skeletal dimensions (Khosravina, 2008), carcass yield (Khosravina, 2009), amino acid requirements (Dozier *et al.*, 2000) and fat deposition (Zerehdaran *et al.*, 2004).

However, no significant effect of class appeared for BW at different ages of Leghorn \times brown egg type cross as reported by

Fotsa *et al.* (2001). Taskin *et al.* (2017) found significant sex effect on BW favouring females, which had heavier BW across generations than males. In the current study, class \times sex interaction was significant only for BW₁₄ and not significant for BW at later ages. Females of the fast-feathering class had the highest BW₁₄, whereas females and males of the slow class had the lightest BW₁₄.

The estimate for carcass weight and dressing percentage for Japanese quail in the current study falls within the range reported in previous studies by Aksit *et al.* (2003), Vali *et al.* (2005) and Kosshak *et al.* (2014). The fast-feathering class had significantly higher carcass weight, feather weight and dressing% than the slow-feathering class. Similarly, Khosravinia (2009) reported that the fast-feathering class had significantly higher carcass weight than those of slow-feathering broilers. On the contrary, Fotsa *et al.* (2001) found no significant effect for feather weight and feather percentage of studied genotypes. The present study showed that females had significantly higher carcass weight, giblet weights and feather weight than males, which confirmed those of previous studies reporting that females had heavier giblets than males, increasing both slaughter weight and carcass weight (Selim *et al.*, 2006; Tarhyel *et al.*, 2012; Kosshak *et al.*, 2014). In the current study, the heaviest carcass weight was seen in females of the fast-feathering class compared with other sex \times feathering rate classes. Females of both fast- and slow-feathering classes had significantly higher giblet weights than males of either class. The significant effect of sex on some carcass traits studied was in agreement with the results of Vali *et al.* (2005), Alkan *et al.* (2010), Tarhyel *et al.* (2012) and Kosshak *et al.* (2014) but not with the results of Ayorinde (1994), who reported no significant effect of sex on carcass traits. Also, Wecke *et al.* (2017) observed significantly higher feather weight in females than males.

Conclusion

Feathering growth rate in terms of Nupri₁₀, Lensec₁₀, Lentail₁₀ and Nusec₇ can be used to predict BW at marketing age (BW₃₅) and slaughter traits (carcass weight and dressing%) in Japanese quail with appropriate precision. Consequently, since fast-feathering birds require less maintenance energy and have better insulation against heat loss, more energy is available for growth therefore allowing producers to reduce some production costs and maximize profits. Therefore, the findings of the present study suggest that designing a programme based on early feathering rate can be recommended to enhance growth performance and slaughter traits in Japanese quail.

Financial support. Authors state that this research did not receive any specific grant from funding agencies in the public, commercial or not-for-profit sectors.

Conflict of interest. None.

Ethical standards. The guidelines approved by the institutional animal care and use committees in Egypt were considered in this research.

References

- Aksit M, Oguz I, Akbas Y, Altan O and Ozdogan M (2003) Genetic variation of feed traits and relationships to some meat production traits in Japanese quail (*Coturnix coturnix japonica*). *Archiv fur Geflugelkunde* **67**, 76–82.
- Alkan S, Karabag K, Galic A, Karsli T and Balcioglu MS (2010) Determination of body weight and some carcass traits in Japanese quails

- (*Coturnix coturnix japonica*) of different lines. *Kafkas Üniversitesi Veteriner Fakültesi Dergisi* **16**, 277–280.
- Ayorinde KL (1994) Evaluation of the growth and carcass characteristics of the Japanese quail. *Nigerian Journal of Animal Production* **21**, 119–126.
- Barbieri A, Ono RK, Cursino LL, Farah MM, Pires MP, Bertipaglia TS, Pires AV, Cavani L, Carreño LOD and Fonseca R (2015) Genetic parameters for body weight in meat quail. *Poultry Science* **94**, 169–171.
- Capen CC (1993) The endocrine glands. In Jub KVF, Kennedy PC and Palmer N (eds), *Pathology of Domestic Animals*, vol. 3. 4th Edn. New York, USA: Academic Press, pp. 267–348.
- Chambers JR, Smith E, Dunnington EA and Siegel PB (1994) Sex-linked feathering (*K*, *k*+) in chickens: a review. *Poultry Science Reviews* **5**, 97–116.
- Crittenden LB, McMahon S, Halpern MS and Faldly AM (1987) Embryonic infection with the endogenous avian leukosis virus Rous-associated virus-0 alters responses to exogenous avian leukosis virus infection. *Journal of Virology* **61**, 722–725.
- Daida K and Rani MS (2017) Selective breeding of Japanese quails for improvement of performance. *International Journal of Current Microbiology and Applied Sciences* **6**, 2500–2506.
- Dozier WA, Moran ET and Kidd MT (2000) Responses of fast- and slow-feathering male broilers to dietary threonine during to 56 days of age. *Journal of Applied Poultry Research* **9**, 460–467.
- Duncan DB (1955) Multiple range and multiple F-tests. *Biometrics* **11**, 1–42.
- Falconer DS (1989) *Introduction to Quantitative Genetics*, 3rd Edn. London, UK: Longman Group.
- Fotsa JC, Mérat P and Bordas A (2001) Effect of the slow (*K*) or rapid (*k*+) feathering gene on body and feather growth and fatness according to ambient temperature in a Leghorn \times brown egg type cross. *Genetics Selection Evolution* **33**, 659–670.
- Genchev A, Kabakchiev M and Mihailov R (2008) Potential of using sexual dimorphism in plumage colour for sexing manchurian golden quails. *Trakia Journal of Sciences* **6**, 10–15.
- Hutt FB (1949) *Genetics of the Fowl*. New York, USA: McGraw-Hill.
- Jahanian R and Goudarzi F (2010) Effects of maternal factors on day-old chick body weight and its relationship with weight at six weeks of age in a commercial broiler line. *Asian-Australasian Journal of Animal Sciences* **23**, 302–307.
- Khosravinia H (2008) Effect of the slow (*K*) or rapid (*k*+) feathering gene on growth performance and skeletal dimensions of broiler chickens selected for cut up carcass value. *Research Journal of Poultry Science* **2**, 9–14.
- Khosravinia H (2009) Effect of the slow (*K*) or rapid (*k*+) feathering gene on carcass-related traits of broiler chickens selected for breast and thighs weight. *Russian Journal of Genetics* **45**, 98–104.
- Kosshak AS, Dim NI, Momoh OM and Gambo D (2014) Effect of sex on carcass characteristics and correlation of body weight and blood components in Japanese quails. *IOSR Journal of Agriculture and Veterinary Science* **7**, 72–76.
- Leeson S and Walsh T (2004) Feathering in commercial poultry. I. feather growth and composition. *World's Poultry Science Journal* **60**, 42–51.
- Lissitzky S (1990) Thyroid hormones. In Baulieu EE and Kelly PA (eds), *Hormones. From Molecules to Disease*. New York, USA: Chapman and Hall, Inc, pp. 340–374.
- Rathert TC, Güven İ and Üçkardeş F (2017) Sex determination of Japanese quails (*Coturnix coturnix japonica*) using with zoometric measurements. *Turkish Journal of Agriculture - Food Science and Technology* **5**, 1002–1005.
- SAS (2011) *SAS/STAT Users Guide: Statistics*. Version 9.3. Cary, NC, USA: SAS Institute Inc.
- Sefton AE and Siegel PB (1974) Body weight relationships of newly hatched Japanese quail. *Poultry Science* **53**, 1254–1256.
- Selim K, Ibarhim S and Ozge Y (2006) Effect of separate and mixed rearing according to sex on tattering performance and carcass characteristics in Japanese quails (*Coturnix coturnix japonica*). *Archiv Tierzucht, Dummerstorf* **49**, 607–614.
- Singh CV, Kumar D and Singh YP (2001) Potential usefulness of the plumage reducing naked neck (*Na*) gene in poultry production at normal and high ambient temperatures. *World's Poultry Science Journal* **57**, 139–156.
- Somes Jr RG. (1990) Mutations and major variants of plumage and skin in chickens. In Crawford RD (ed.), *Poultry Breeding and Genetics*. Amsterdam, The Netherlands: Elsevier, pp. 169–208.

- Spearman RIC** (1971) Integumentary system. In Bell DJ and Freeman BM (eds), *Physiology and Biochemistry of the Domestic Fowl*, vol. 2. London, UK: Academic Press, pp. 603–620.
- Tarhyel R, Tanimomo BK and Hena SA** (2012) Organ weight: as influenced by color, sex and weight group in Japanese quail. *Scientific Journal of Animal Science* **1**, 46–49.
- Taskin A, Karadavut U, Tunca RI, Genc S and Cayan H** (2017) Effect of selection for body weight in Japanese quails (*Coturnix coturnix Japonica*) on some production traits. *Indian Journal of Animal Research* **51**, 358–364.
- Vali N, Edriss MA and Rahmani HR** (2005) Genetic parameters of body and some carcass traits in two quail strains. *International Journal of Poultry Science* **4**, 296–300.
- Warren DC** (1930) *Crossbred Poultry*. Agricultural Experiment Station Bulletin 252. Manhattan, KS, USA: Kansas State College of Agriculture and Applied Science.
- Wecke C, Khan DR, Sünder A and Liebert F** (2017) Age and gender depending growth of feathers and feather-free body in modern fast growing meat-type chickens. *Open Journal of Animal Sciences* **7**, 376–392.
- Wheeler KB and Latshaw JD** (1981) Sulfur amino acid requirements and interactions in broilers during two growth periods. *Poultry Science* **60**, 228–236.
- Yakubu A, Okunsebor SA, Kigbu AA, Sotolu AO and Imgbian TD** (2012) Use of factor scores for predicting body weight from some morphometric measurements of two fish species in Nigeria. *Journal of Agricultural Science (Canada)* **4**, 60–64.
- Zakrzewska EI** (1995) Inhibited feathering, K a sex-linked dominant gene in the Turkey (*Meleagris gallopavo*). (PhD Dissertation). Oregon State University, USA.
- Zerehdaran S, Vereijken ALJ, Van Arendonk JAM and Waaijt EH** (2004) Estimation of genetic parameters for fat deposition and carcass traits in broilers. *Poultry Science* **83**, 521–252.