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6 **Genetic improvement in Colombian cattle, a reality or an intention? A**  
7 **review**

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9 *Mejoramiento genético de bovinos en Colombia, ¿una realidad o una intención? Revisión*

10  
11 *Melhoramento genético de gado bovino na Colômbia, uma realidade o uma aspiração? Revisão*

12  
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21  
22 **Abstract**

23 **Background:** Genetic improvement programs in domestic species require a set of steps involving the  
24 definition of breeding objectives, information systems, variance component estimation, genetic  
25 evaluations, selection indexes, and the estimation of genetic progress and variability. **Objective:** To

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26 identify strengths and weaknesses in the design and implementation of genetic improvement programs  
27 in Colombian cattle through scientific and academic contributions derived from research. **Conclusion:**  
28 The greatest challenges in the design and implementation of genetic improvement programs in  
29 Colombian cattle are currently related to the absence of consensus breeding objectives among farmers  
30 and associations. Additionally, there is a need in the short term to improve both the quality and quantity  
31 of information available in databases. Finally, conducting economic analyses that consider genetic  
32 parameters is essential for optimizing the response to genetic selection, considering the different  
33 productive systems and environmental conditions that Colombia offers.

34  
35 **Keywords:** *Animal breeding; bovines; breeding values; cattle; genetic improvement; genetic progress;*  
36 *genetic variability; phenotype; profit; quantitative genetics; selection.*

### 38 **Resumen**

39 **Antecedentes:** Los programas de mejoramiento genético en especies domésticas requieren de un  
40 conjunto de pasos que involucran la definición de objetivos de cría, sistemas de información, estimación  
41 de componentes de varianza, evaluaciones genéticas, índices de selección y la estimación del progreso  
42 genético y la variabilidad genética. **Objetivo:** identificar falencias y fortalezas en el diseño e  
43 implementación de programas de mejoramiento genético bovino en Colombia mediante los aportes  
44 científicos y académicos derivados de la investigación en genética bovina en el país. **Conclusión:** Los  
45 mayores desafíos en el diseño e implementación de programas de mejoramiento genético bovino en  
46 Colombia actualmente están relacionados con la ausencia de objetivos de cría consensuados por los  
47 productores y asociaciones. Asimismo, es necesario en el corto plazo una mejora tanto de la calidad como  
48 de la cantidad de información disponible en las bases de datos. Finalmente, suplir la ausencia de análisis  
49 económicos que se vinculen y sean considerados en los análisis genéticos para optimizar la respuesta a  
50 la selección genética considerando contextos productivos y la diferente oferta ambiental que posee  
51 Colombia.

52  
53 **Palabras clave:** *Bovinos; cría de animales; fenotipo; ganado; genética cuantitativa; mejoramiento*  
54 *genético; progreso genético; selección; utilidad económica; valores genéticos; variabilidad genética.*

### 56 **Resumo**

57 **Antecedentes:** Para desenvolver um programa de melhoramento genético animal, é preciso definir  
58 objetivos de melhoramento, possuir sistemas de informação ótimos, realizar estimativas dos  
59 componentes de variância e a análise genética correspondente, além de estimar índices de seleção,  
60 progresso genético esperado e variabilidade genética. **Objetivo:** identificar debilidades e fortalezas no  
61 desenho e implementação de programas de melhoramento genético para gado bovino na Colômbia,  
62 fazendo uma revisão dos avanços científicos e acadêmicos obtidos através da pesquisa nesta disciplina  
63 no país. **Conclusão:** O principal problema encontrado foi a ausência de objetivos de melhoramento feitos  
64 em conjunto entre produtores e pesquisadores. Além disso, é preciso, no curto prazo, melhorar tanto a  
65 qualidade como a quantidade da informação disponível nos bancos de dados. Finalmente, é necessário  
66 realizar análises econômicas que considerem o componente genético, com o objetivo de otimizar a  
67 resposta à seleção genética, levando em conta as diferenças dos sistemas produtivos e da oferta ambiental  
68 que a Colômbia possui.

69

70 **Palavras-chave:** *Criação de animais; fenótipo; gado; genética quantitativa; melhoramento genético;*  
71 *progresso genético; seleção; utilidade econômica; valores genéticos; variabilidade genética.*

72

### 73 **Introduction**

74 Improving animal productivity in production systems can be achieved through the implementation of  
75 genetic, nutritional, health and reproductive strategies. In genetic improvement, the use of mixed models  
76 has been, so far, the most widely used tool to indirectly estimate breeding values in order to increase the  
77 average zootechnical performance of the herd (Henderson, 1975). In domestic animals, poultry have  
78 possibly been the most successful case in the implementation of genetic improvement programs. Zuidhof  
79 *et al.* (2014) reported phenotypic gains due to genetic selection exceeding 350% for slaughter weight in  
80 poultry. The response to selection in cattle has not been as large as in poultry. However, the genetic gains  
81 are not negligible. For example, the American Angus Association reported a genetic difference in  
82 weaning weight of 85 kg when comparing animals born in 1972 and 2023. In Holstein cattle in the United  
83 States, García-Ruiz *et al.* (2016) calculated a genetic gain of over 1500 liters of milk per lactation. In  
84 cattle systems based on grazing, a genetic increase of 13.6 liters/cow/year was reported in pure and  
85 crossed Holstein cattle in New Zealand, between the years 2000 and 2020 (López-Villalobos *et al.*, 2021).  
86 This genetic progress could be higher in the medium term due to the use of genomic information in

87 selection programs, which reduces the generation interval and increases the accuracy of the estimated  
88 genetic merit, leading to an increase in genetic gain (Schaeffer, 2006).

89 Examples of genetic progress due to the use of selection strategies are numerous and varied in the  
90 literature; however, all successful cases have something in common, a procedure composed of five steps:  
91 1) definition of breeding objectives, 2) phenotypic and genotypic information systems, 3) estimation of  
92 variance components, 4) genetic evaluation and selection indexes, 5) economic evaluation and genetic  
93 variability (Garrick y Golden, 2009). This framework allows breeders and scientists to understand, at  
94 first glance, that the implementation a breeding program is a demanding task, both technically and  
95 logistically.

96 In Colombia, research efforts have primarily focused on second, third and fourth steps. In this context,  
97 there is a lack of studies addressing the first and fifth steps (in some cases, none) for the implementation  
98 of genetic improvement programs. The improvement of these aspects would improve not only primary  
99 production, but also the processing industry at the meat and dairy level. Additionally, the strengthening  
100 of these aspects could facilitate the incorporation of innovative genetic selection tools, such as the use of  
101 genomic information for the early identification of the best individuals and the improvement of polygenic  
102 traits of complex measurement (feed efficiency, carcass quality, resistance diseases, among others),  
103 which are currently not possible to select or evaluate in Colombian populations given the absence of  
104 large-scale phenotypic measurements.

105 On the other hand, although an important part of the national herd is crossed animals, this review did not  
106 include the analysis of genetic aspects in crossed populations due to the lack of scientific evidence over  
107 time. However, reports found for crossed populations in Colombia were discussed and included at the  
108 end of the text. Similarly, the evaluation of genetic improvement programs in Colombian dual-purpose  
109 systems is complex given that the scientific production that has evaluated phenotypes or productivity  
110 indicators from a dual-purpose perspective is practically null. There was only one study reported by  
111 Galeano and Manrique (2010), who evaluated genetic aspects of an index that evaluates females through  
112 considering traits as milk production, weaning weight of offspring and calving interval.

113 Then, the objective of this review was to identify weaknesses and strengths in the genetic management  
114 of specialized dairy and beef breeds used in Colombia. Furthermore, to motivate the academic  
115 community and farmers to constantly optimize the efficiency of livestock systems through the application  
116 of genetic improvement. This work will also allow readers to recognize areas of genetic science that have  
117 not been explored thus far. Additionally, efforts could be directed towards strengthening the design and

118 implementation of robust genetic improvement programs aimed at optimizing the sustainability and  
119 economic development of local cattle production systems.

120

### 121 **Definition of breeding objectives**

122 A breeding objective is the combination of economically important traits for a production system, and it  
123 is the first step in the implementation of a genetic improvement program (Wolfova *et al.*, 2005). Its  
124 purpose is to increase the profit of the production cycle and must be redefined as production or market  
125 conditions change (Byrne *et al.*, 2016). As far as our literature review went, there are no studies of this  
126 type for cattle in Colombia. The absence of this knowledge in Colombia could have some practical and  
127 scientific reasons described below.

128 In Colombia, the traits evaluated in selection programs have been largely limited to traits such as age at  
129 first calving, calving interval (Amaya *et al.*, 2020a; Rocha *et al.*, 2012; Ramírez *et al.*, 2021), weights at  
130 different ages, weight gains (Ramírez *et al.*, 2020; Amaya *et al.*, 2020a) and milk production (Restrepo  
131 *et al.*, 2008; Solarte & Zambrano, 2012; Echeverri *et al.*, 2014; Rincón *et al.*, 2015; Amaya *et al.*, 2019a).  
132 However, in animal production, the characteristics that most affect profitability could be classified into  
133 four categories: 1) adaptation and reproduction, 2) quantity and quality of the final product, 3) animal  
134 welfare, and 4) environmental footprint. Ignoring these types of variables could generate negative effects  
135 in the short term, mainly due to the current demands of governments and final consumers.

136 Other traits such as anatomical conformation, longevity, heat stress, and eco-physiology have been  
137 explored in Colombian cattle (Betancur-Zambrano *et al.*, 2012; De León *et al.*, 2021), but those studies  
138 have a small number of records (Ramírez *et al.*, 2021; Amaya *et al.*, 2021; De León *et al.*, 2021). Thus,  
139 in these cases is common to find numerical computational problems for the estimation of bi-trait and  
140 multi-trait models because the algorithms have difficulty finding convergence.

141 Another important trait is the feed efficiency, which has not been evaluated but is economically vital for  
142 animal production because represents the highest variable cost within the industry. The reported  
143 heritabilities have been medium and high (0.35-0.55, Schenkel *et al.*, 2004). However, measurement  
144 presents the following challenges: 1) it is difficult to measure in a large number of animals, 2) it is  
145 necessary to know the correlations with other traits of the breeding objective, and 3) it is very expensive  
146 because it requires individual control. One strategy that could partially overcome these limitations is  
147 genomic selection, however, its implementation in Colombia is challenging due to the high economic  
148 resources required and the need for a good quality of phenotypic databases. Pryce *et al.* (2014) suggested

149 combining genomic platforms from different populations. For foreign breeds, this alternative could work  
150 due to the genetic connectivity generated by the massive use of imported bulls in artificial insemination,  
151 but in Creole breeds, it would not be available.

152 These scenarios reflect the immediate need in the definition of breeding objectives. For this, the local  
153 productive needs, market conditions and the high heterogeneity of production systems in tropical  
154 conditions must be considered. This last, represents an additional challenge when compared to countries  
155 with temperate climates, where production conditions and systems are usually more homogeneous.

156

### 157 **Information system and selection criteria**

158 Selection criteria are defined as those traits that allow breeding objectives to be improved. An ideal  
159 selection criterion must meet three requirements: easy to measure, medium or high heritability, and a  
160 high genetic correlation with the breeding objective (Ponzoni y Newman, 1989). The most favourable  
161 scenario is when the selection criteria also acts as a breeding objective.

162 At this point, breeders' associations have a fundamental role in collect phenotypic records and then to  
163 develop information systems that guarantee the success of the breeding programs. However, there are  
164 two mainly limitations: a) it is common for Colombian farmers not to keep records or report them to the  
165 association, and b) someone of the Colombian farmers think that the costs of affiliation and registration  
166 are high or unnecessary, which means that a significant amount of data does not reach by the association.  
167 These conditions severely limit access to reliable and large databases. Nonetheless, there are published  
168 research works derived from the joint work between the academic community and breeders' associations  
169 which is limited in most of the cases to estimate genetic parameters.

170 In the country, cattle production can be classified into: (1) specialized milk production systems, (2)  
171 breeding and fattening production systems, and (3) dual-purpose systems. For milk production, most  
172 reports are distributed in Holstein, Jersey and Simmental breeds (Solarte *et al.*, 2012; Rincón *et al.*, 2015;  
173 Zambrano *et al.*, 2015; Amaya *et al.*, 2019). Regarding meat production, there is a greater number of  
174 reports in Blanco Orejinegro, Romosinuano, Brahman and Simmental breeds (Martínez *et al.*, 2018;  
175 Amaya *et al.*, 2020a; Ramírez *et al.*, 2020; López *et al.*, 2021). The reproductive traits primarily  
176 considered have been age at first calving, calving intervals and open days (Table 1).

177 Estimates for milk production were mostly in the first three lactations. The number of cows in onestudies  
178 ranged from 620 to 7723, shows heritabilities between 0.02 and 0.28 (Amaya *et al.*, 2019; Múnera *et al.*,  
179 2014; Rincón *et al.*, 2015). While accurate estimates exist, most have errors that hinder to make

180 appropriate selection decisions, affecting genetic progress. For the traits associated with product quality,  
181 the estimates were less precise, both in milk and meat, with heritability estimation errors of up to 0.32  
182 for protein and fat, and with accuracies of breeding values less than 0.5 for loin eye area and back fat  
183 (Rincón *et al.*, 2015; Asocebú, 2022).

184 The collection of data associated with quality is often conditioned by external funding, which limits the  
185 develop of a robust and permanent information system. For example, between 2014 and 2016, official  
186 dairy control at the national level was a joint initiative of the Unión Nacional de Asociaciones Ganaderas  
187 (UNAGA), the Ministerio de Agricultura and FEDEGAN. This work was valuable and allowed breeders  
188 to have an initial information system to evaluate criteria such as the percentage of protein and fat in milk.  
189 However, these efforts have not been sustained since that date, at least not at the scale necessary for the  
190 development of reliable genetic evaluation

191 **Table 1.** Selection criteria and heritability estimates for cattle breeds in Colombia. Only studies involving  
 192 a minimum of one thousand animals were considered.

Source	Breed	Selection criteria	Animals	Records	Heritability
<i>Amaya et al. (2020)</i>	Simmental	AFC	3063	3063	0.20
		CI	1098	1098	0.04
<i>Betancur et al. (2012)</i>	Holstein	MY	1198	2372	0.21
		MF	1198	2372	0.14
		MP	1198	2372	0.14
<i>Caivio et al. (2021)</i>	Blanco Orejinegro	CI	3308	3308	0.11
<i>Cerón et al. (2001)</i>	Holstein	MY	25608	69464	0.20
<i>Cerón et al. (2004)</i>	Holstein	AFC	25569	25569	0.13
<i>De León et al. (2021)</i>	Blanco Orejinegro	AFC	1927	1927	0.06
<i>De León et al. (2021)</i>	Sanmartinero	AFC	1927	1927	0.20
<i>López et al. (2021)</i>	Romosinuano	BW	4079	4079	0.17
		W8M	4079	4079	0.13
		W16M	4079	4079	0.06
<i>Martínez et al. (2018)</i>	Brahman	BW	105784	105784	0.47
		W4M	14743	14743	0.30
		W7M	105771	105771	0.24
		W12M	12404	12404	0.38
		W18M	10215	10215	0.36
<i>Múnera et al. (2014)</i>	Holstein	MF	1210	9479	0.14-0.38
		MP	1210	9479	0.12-0.32
<i>Ramírez et al. (2020)</i>	Blanco Orejinegro	BW	7304	7304	0.10
		W4M	1281	1281	0.23
		W8M	4791	4791	0.10
		W16M	3339	3339	0.38



		W24M	1364	1364	0.39
		MY	7723	7723	0.16
Rincón <i>et al.</i> (2015)	Holstein	MF	5866	5866	0.30
		MP	5709	5709	0.32
		SCC	5769	5769	0.01
Rocha <i>et al.</i> (2012)	Blanco	AFC	1256	1256	0.15
	Orejinegro	CI	3803	3803	0.13
Vergara <i>et al.</i> (2016)	Romosinuano	AFC	1079	1079	0.04

193 AFC: Age at first calving; CI: Calving interval; MY: Milk yield; MF: Milk fat; MP: Milk protein; BW: Birth weight; W4M:  
 194 Weight at 4 months of age; W7M: Weight at 7 months of age; W8M: Weight at 8 months of age; W12M: Weight at 12 months  
 195 of age; W16M: Weight at 16 months of age; W18M: Weight at 18 months of age; W24M: Weight at 24 months of age; SCC:  
 196 Somatic cell score.

197

198 The traits associated with the quality of the carcass had a similar scenario. The Brahman breed has the  
 199 highest participation as a pure breed in Colombia for meat production. In 2010, the first genetic estimates  
 200 of carcass quality were published, with a phenotypic basis of approximately one thousand measurements  
 201 (Jiménez *et al.*, 2010). The genetic evaluation made by Asocebú in 2022 included 10332 records for the  
 202 loin eye area and the thickness of the dorsal fat. However, the accuracies of most selection candidates  
 203 are below (<0.5). In this case, constant work on updating information systems is a short-term need. The  
 204 current development of technologies such as sensors, cameras, microphones, among others, could  
 205 partially overcome these obstacles and accelerate data collection for the strengthening of information  
 206 systems and genetic evaluations for these traits.

207 Traits associated with reproduction have been less explored, and the phenotypes have primarily focused  
 208 on the calving interval and age at first calving (Rocha *et al.*, 2012; Vergara *et al.*, 2016; Amaya *et al.*,  
 209 2020a; Ramírez *et al.*, 2021). Although these two traits may have a direct relationship with reproductive  
 210 performance, zootechnical practices in Colombian production systems may deviate slightly from that  
 211 focus. Age at first calving could indirectly evaluate puberty age or the speed at which a female matures  
 212 sexually. However, in Colombian livestock farming, age at first calving depends more on the growth rate  
 213 because farmers prioritize weight over age for the first service.

214 On the other hand, the calving interval trait has two disadvantages in its recording. The first is the  
 215 preferential treatment given to some females, which could confuse the genetic effect with environmental  
 216 advantages, although effects as the farm or year are included in the model. The second problem is the

217 inclusion of females in embryo transfer programs and the use of seasonal mating, technologies that are  
218 becoming increasingly common. In these scenarios, the phenotype for the calving interval does not  
219 represent the real biological value (Aby *et al.*, 2012), complicating the estimation of genetic potential.  
220 Therefore, the reproductive component in Colombian cattle populations should be reconsidered, focusing  
221 efforts on traits less sensitive to management practices or production conditions.

222

### 223 **Variance components and genetic parameters**

224 The estimation of heritability, genetic correlation, and repeatability allows researchers to quantify the  
225 effects of genetic and environmental factors on the phenotypic performance of economically important  
226 traits. The statistical procedures are based on the degree of relationship between animals, frequently using  
227 family structures of half-siblings or full siblings. The estimation of these parameters in Colombia has  
228 been based on the use of the animal model, under restricted maximum likelihood methodology. Although  
229 there are other methodologies such as Bayesian inference for variance components estimation, its  
230 application in Colombia is scarce, and as far as our search went, there are no scientific reports of its  
231 official use for decision-making in national selection programs.

232 For dairy cattle populations, estimation has been done for accumulated milk production, protein and fat,  
233 somatic cell count, and total milk yield (Amaya *et al.*, 2019; Rincón *et al.*, 2015; Múnera *et al.*, 2014).  
234 These studies have been focused on Holstein, Simmental, and Jersey dairy cattle breeds. The reported  
235 heritabilities for these traits have ranged from 0.01 for somatic cell count to 0.46 for fat and protein  
236 production. Average heritabilities (0.2-0.4) have been more common for milk yield per lactation or per  
237 day (Table 1).

238 In beef cattle, weights at different ages, daily weight gains, loin eye area, backfat, and hip fat have been  
239 evaluated (Jiménez *et al.*, 2010; Martínez *et al.*, 2018; Ramírez *et al.*, 2020; Ossa *et al.*, 2021a). Most of  
240 the reported heritabilities for weights at different ages (from birth to 24 months) ranged from 0.09 to 0.38  
241 (Ossa *et al.*, 2021a; Martínez *et al.*, 2018), with lower heritability values found for weights before  
242 weaning. The highest values were reported for weights at 12 to 24 months of age. Regarding traits  
243 associated with quality, the average heritability values were higher, ranging between 0.29 and 0.37;  
244 however, the reported errors for these estimations were higher (Jiménez *et al.*, 2010) due to a smaller  
245 number of records.

246 Other estimations have been reported for calving interval, age at first calving, adaptation coefficient,  
247 rectal temperature, and respiration rate (Amaya *et al.*, 2020a; De León *et al.*, 2021). The heritabilities for

248 these types of traits ranged between 0.0 and 0.15 (Rocha *et al.*, 2012; Caivio-Nasner *et al.*, 2021). The  
249 lack of these estimations in Colombia could be due to the information systems implemented on farms,  
250 where farmers have greater interest in variables directly associated with the final product (meat and milk).  
251 Although most variables associated with reproduction are easily measurable and of high economic  
252 importance (Amaya *et al.*, 2020; Amaya *et al.*, 2022), their use in genetic selection programs has not  
253 been successful, primarily due to the low number of individuals with phenotypic information, leading to  
254 numerical problems in computational algorithms such as non-convergence (Ramírez *et al.*, 2021).  
255 Other problems include connectivity in pedigrees, accuracy of phenotype measurement, and fixed effects  
256 in genetic models. The number of records used for milk production estimations varied from 620 to 25608  
257 cows (Cerón *et al.*, 2001; Amaya *et al.*, 2019). Regarding the number of animals included in the  
258 relationship matrix, populations ranged from 801 to 27986 animals (Rincón *et al.*, 2015; Amaya *et al.*,  
259 2020a). However, very few publications describe the number and size of families in the pedigree, making  
260 it difficult to contextualize the effect that family structure has on the estimation of genetic parameters.  
261 Understanding this genealogical structure is crucial because pedigree connectivity influences the  
262 prediction errors of variance, which are affected by genetic relationships between and within  
263 management units (farms, contemporary groups). Although this is not a strong limitation for specialized  
264 dairy production systems due to the widespread use of imported bulls in artificial insemination programs,  
265 in beef cattle, this connectivity could be low, affecting the quality of genetic evaluation. Although genetic  
266 connectivity studies have been reported in Colombia (Taborda *et al.*, 2015), their use is not widespread  
267 in the estimation of variance components and the genetic merit of animals.  
268 The reports of genetic correlations were more diverse. For example, one correlation of interest is the age  
269 at first calving and calving interval. In Simmental breed, this correlation was positive (0.25; Amaya *et*  
270 *al.*, 2020a), which is favourable at the zootechnical level. However, in the Blanco Orejinegro breed, the  
271 simultaneous selection of these two variables is more complex, as the reported correlation was negative  
272 (-0.43; Rocha *et al.*, 2012). While this could be addressed through the identification of animals whose  
273 breeding values are favourable for both traits, genetic progress would be slow, and the change in  
274 correlation could occur, but in the long term, hindering genetic gains and balanced selection. For this  
275 reason, prior identification of breeding objectives is vital to define the correlations of interest to be  
276 considered in the selection program.  
277 The traits associated with milk production and quality showed greater consistency among the consulted  
278 studies. Solarte *et al.* (2012), Rincón *et al.* (2015), and Amaya *et al.* (2019) reported correlations ranging

279 from 0.64 to 0.97 for accumulated milk productions at different stages of lactation and correlations  
280 ranging from -0.27 to -0.40 for volume and protein and fat content. These results generally align with  
281 worldwide reports, where higher milk production proportionally results in lower total solids content in  
282 milk. No reports of positive correlations between quantity and quality of milk were identified, neither in  
283 dual-purpose cattle nor in specialized dairy farming.

284 In Creole cattle, correlations between weights at different ages and daily weight gain have been reported,  
285 with values ranging from 0.04 to 0.96 (Ramírez *et al.*, 2020). Reported correlations between growth rate  
286 and carcass quality have been positive, ranging from 0.91 to 0.95. In Brahman cattle, estimations  
287 included variables such as loin eye area, backfat, and daily weight gain (Jiménez *et al.*, 2010). In  
288 Colombia, improving traits associated with product quality could be interesting for emerging markets  
289 willing to pay for added value in the final product. The current use of these correlations should be  
290 approached with caution due to limitations in the number of records and the difficulty of capturing all  
291 non-genetic effects in the models, however, efforts in measuring these traits should be increased by  
292 farmers and associations.

293 Regarding repeatabilities, the number of reports was lower than that found for heritabilities. The variables  
294 analysed included birth and weaning weights of female offspring, calving interval, milk production, and  
295 services per conception (Donicer *et al.*, 2009; Rocha *et al.*, 2012; Solarte *et al.*, 2012; Ossa *et al.*, 2021b).  
296 The highest reported value for this genetic parameter was for milk production in Holstein cattle, with a  
297 value of 0.31 (Solarte *et al.*, 2012). On the other hand, the lowest value was for calving interval in a  
298 Romosinuano cattle population, with a value of 0.02 (Ossa *et al.*, 2021b). In other traits, such as services  
299 per conception, values of 0.08 were reported in Holstein cattle (Solarte *et al.*, 2012), while birth and  
300 weaning weights of offspring reported higher values of 0.11 and 0.19, respectively (Donicer *et al.*, 2009).  
301 These reports would indicate a limitation in selecting young animals considering the phenotypic  
302 performance of their initial measurements.

303 The estimation of variance components in Colombian populations has also included the use of genomic  
304 information, mainly through the single-step genomic best linear unbiased prediction (ssGBLUP)  
305 methodology, generating a relationship matrix that combines pedigree and molecular information. The  
306 reports in Colombia are scarce and the evidence generated is that the genomic information did not  
307 produce important changes in the estimation of heritability, at least for traits associated with beef  
308 production such as weighing at different ages, milk production, age at first calving, and calving interval  
309 (Amaya *et al.*, 2019; Amaya *et al.*, 2020a; Ramírez *et al.*, 2020).

310 The number of animals with genomic information in those evaluations ranged from 718 to 1224, with a  
311 genotyping density of 30106 and 50932 molecular markers, respectively. These results may be partially  
312 explained by the conditions of the genotyped animals, which usually do not have a significant number of  
313 offspring with phenotypic records, reducing the benefit of using genomic information for genetic  
314 estimates. Another factor to consider is that usually most animals genotyped in Colombian populations  
315 are females with few progenies with phenotypes, which further limits the opportunity to obtain a pedigree  
316 with a greater number and magnitude of genetic relationships.

317

### 318 **Genetic evaluation and selection indexes**

319 In quantitative genetics, the use of statistical methods allows scientists to obtain not only an estimation  
320 of the genetic variances but also the empirical best linear unbiased predictor, which is a quantity  
321 associated to the breeding values of each parent. The breeding value of a parent can be defined as the  
322 capacity due genetic factors to modify an overall mean under a specific population, meaning its  
323 assessment varies over time and space.

324 Genetic evaluations can be classified as uniraical if the target population belongs to a single genetic  
325 group, and multiraical if the population belongs to various genetic groups or crossbred animals (Elzo,  
326 2007). Regardless of whether the evaluation is uniraical or multiraical, selection decisions should  
327 preferably be based on a combination of several economically important traits, which may be  
328 phenotypically and genetically related (Mrode, 2014). Subsequently, breeding values are used to  
329 construct a selection index that considers the economic weight of each trait. These indexes are the best  
330 methodology for increasing genetic progress of multiple traits simultaneously within a population.

331 In Colombia, most genetic evaluations have been developed using uniraical methodology. However,  
332 more than 90% of the cattle destined for meat and milk production in the country could have a multiraical  
333 genetic composition (Elzo, 2011). Elzo *et al.* (1997) suggested a strategy to implement a national genetic  
334 evaluation program in cattle. However, since then, scientific and technical publications on multiraical  
335 evaluations have been scarce and isolated in the country. The conclusion in all the consulted studies was  
336 the same. Multiraical evaluations are a more objective method of selection given our production context;  
337 however, the amount of phenotypic information available is extremely low, resulting in biases in the  
338 selection processes. In Colombian cattle production systems, data collection, even if not widespread, is  
339 a more prevalent practice among farmers who manage uniraical populations than among those who use

340 crossbred animals. This condition further limits the implementation of multiracial evaluations in the  
341 medium and long term.

342 Regarding uniracial genetic evaluations, the breeds with the largest participation in Colombian livestock  
343 are foreign, primarily Brahman, Holstein, Jersey, Normando, and Simmental. On the other hand,  
344 Colombian Creole cattle breeds (Blanco Orejinegro, Romosinuano, Hartón del Valle, Costeño Con  
345 Cuernos, Casanareño, Sanmartinero, Chino Santandereano) are the populations that have the highest  
346 number of studies in the field of genetics to date. This is consistent with AGROSAVIA and some  
347 Colombian universities having the direct responsibility to research, conserve, and disseminate these  
348 genetic resources.

349 The traits included in genetic evaluations appear to be universal across breeds. Among the most studied  
350 for meat production are daily weight gain and weights at different ages, such as birth weight, weight at  
351 120, 240, 365, 480, and 720 days of age (Amaya *et al.*, 2020a; Martínez *et al.*, 2018; Ramírez *et al.*,  
352 2020; Ossa *et al.*, 2021a; Ramírez *et al.*, 2021). Few studies have evaluated carcass quality traits such as  
353 backfat thickness, loin eye area, and hip fat thickness (Jiménez *et al.*, 2010). For milk production, there  
354 were more reports, evaluating variables such as milk yield, fat and protein production, linear  
355 classification, and somatic cell count (Cerón *et al.*, 2001; Echeverri *et al.*, 2014; Múnera *et al.*, 2014;  
356 Amaya *et al.*, 2019; Rincón *et al.*, 2015; Solarte *et al.*, 2012). The most explored reproductive traits were  
357 age at first calving, calving interval, and services per conception (Amaya *et al.*, 2020a; Caivio-Nasner *et al.*,  
358 2021; Ramírez *et al.*, 2021; Restrepo *et al.*, 2008).

359 Although there is a wide range of populations and traits evaluated, it is important to highlight the most  
360 significant limitations that seem to be common to all the studies consulted. The utility of genetic  
361 evaluations depends on the accuracy with which breeding values are estimated. However, based on the  
362 experience of researchers, the precisions are often low ( $<0.5$ ) in most evaluations. The precision of  
363 breeding values depends on several factors, such as the heritability of the trait (which mainly depends,  
364 among other factors, on the genetic diversity and homogeneity of the productive systems where it is  
365 evaluated), the accuracy of the parents of the evaluated animal (which depends primarily on the number  
366 of offspring), the availability of phenotypic, genealogical, and genomic records of the animal (i.e.,  
367 complete information per animal), non-genetic effects considered in the models (quantification of the  
368 productive system and environmental variables), and the genetic correlations with other traits included  
369 in the evaluation.

370 In relation to the number of available records, according to the literature review, this could be the factor  
371 that contributes the most to low accuracies. Only two studies had more than twenty thousand records.  
372 Although this number of records is not negligible, its effect is diluted in the models when considering  
373 non-genetic aspects such as year, birth season, farm, sex, parity number, among others. Another important  
374 aspect is the climatic and management heterogeneity of local herds, which further complicates capturing  
375 sources of variation to adjust phenotypic values and improve the precision of breeding values. A last  
376 aspect, of equal importance, is the genetic connectivity required in genetic evaluations, which is usually  
377 low in Colombian herds and is also not evaluated a priori for the development of genetic evaluations,  
378 further limiting estimations and corrections for non-genetic effects (Kennedy y Trus, 1993).

379 In recent years, efforts have been made in Colombia to incorporate the concept of genomic selection. The  
380 breeds in the country with the most scientific evidence at the moment are Brahman, Simmental, Holstein,  
381 Blanco Orejinegro and Romosinuano (Bejarano et al., 2018; Martínez et al., 2018; Amaya et al., 2019;  
382 Zambrano et al., 2019). The number of animals with genomic information in the Brahman breed did not  
383 exceed 1700 animals and in the other breeds 1000 animals. Even reports on the Holstein breed do not  
384 exceed 150 animals. Although the accuracies of the breeding values for animals with genomic  
385 information could improve, the change is minimal or absent for the rest of the population included in the  
386 genetic evaluation. This context limits the use of genomic information in genetic improvement programs  
387 on a national scale.

388 Although there are numerous statistical methodologies to incorporate genomic information in genetic  
389 evaluations, all of them require a robust reference population with phenotypic and genomic information.  
390 Goddard and Hayes (2009) showed the relationship between the number of animals required in the  
391 reference population and the accuracy of breeding values for animals without phenotype in a genomic  
392 program. Considering traits with medium heritabilities (0.3), we would need at least 4500 animals in the  
393 reference population so that the precision of the estimation of genetic values in animals without  
394 phenotype is approximately 0.5. In this context and given the theoretical requirements of genomic  
395 selection, the benefits in Colombian populations could occur, but in the long term and through a strong  
396 practice of farm record-keeping. Although researchers and farmers have proposed the inclusion of foreign  
397 genotyped populations, its use must be analyzed in detail and caution, given that genomic estimates, like  
398 quantitative estimates, will depend on the genetic structure of each population and environments  
399 conditions in which animals perform.

400 Environmental effects also require attention within genetic evaluations, especially when the response of  
401 a genotype may be different according to the environment. Studies in Colombia that evaluated this effect  
402 are scarce (Cerón et al., 2004; Arboleda Zapata et al., 2010; Toro-Ospina et al., 2023). Cerón et al. (2004)  
403 and Toro-Ospina et al. (2023) evaluated the genotype-environment interaction of Holstein cattle in  
404 Colombia and Brazil. Although the evaluation of this effect between countries is important for decision-  
405 making in the use of imported semen, the evaluation of the environment and genotypes could be more  
406 important within Colombia given the high heterogeneity in the systems, not only at the climatic level but  
407 zootechnical management. The only report found that evaluated the interaction of genotypes and  
408 environments within the country was the one carried out by Arboleda Zapata et al. (2010), however, its  
409 use for decision-making at a national scale is very limited given that the data came from a single livestock  
410 company.

411 Once all the aspects described above are considered, the models used to estimate breeding values can be  
412 unitrait or multi-trait, but the most recommended methodology is a multi-trait evaluation. One of the  
413 main advantages of this approach is increasing the accuracy of breeding values, which is particularly  
414 beneficial for traits with low heritability (Mrode, 2014). However, genetic evaluations published in  
415 Colombia tend to be unitrait, mainly due to the low number of records and incomplete pedigrees  
416 (sometimes with inconsistencies), leading to numerical issues in multi-trait model algorithms.

417 Once breeding values are obtained, a common practice is to combine all the breeding values into a single  
418 value, a methodology known as selection index, which is theoretically the most efficient method (Hazel  
419 y Lush, 1942). The application of this methodology requires fulfilling two assumptions: estimating  
420 breeding values using multi-trait models and estimating economic values. However, most published  
421 genetic evaluations come from single-trait models, and what is more concerning, they do not include  
422 economic analyses for the traits and its expected genetic progress.

423 Several selection indexes have been reported in the literature for cattle populations in Colombia  
424 (Restrepo *et al.*, 2008; Betancur-Zambrano *et al.*, 2012; Agudelo-Gómez *et al.*, 2016; Amaya *et al.*,  
425 2020b; Amaya *et al.*, 2021; Ramírez *et al.*, 2021; Amaya *et al.*, 2022). Methodologies for estimating the  
426 weights have been primarily regressions, principal component analysis, and relative importance  
427 considering the phenotypic variance of the traits. Economic approaches for their estimation have also  
428 been used, however, there are only two articles of this type to date (Amaya *et al.*, 2020b; Amaya *et al.*,  
429 2022).



430 The use of these indexes is limited because they do not consider all the traits that the farmers wish to  
431 improve. The indexes included between three and eight productive traits (Agudelo-Gómez *et al.*, 2016;  
432 Amaya *et al.*, 2022), but they are often very focused on a group of variables. For example, for populations  
433 whose zootechnical objective is meat production, it was identified that weighting at different ages  
434 accounted for 71-75% in the construction of the indexes (Ramírez *et al.*, 2021; Agudelo-Gómez *et al.*,  
435 2016). For populations with a milk production objective, volume and quality of the milk accounted for  
436 50-66% of the traits included in the indexes, with the remaining variables being associated with  
437 reproductive performance (Betancur-Zambrano *et al.*, 2012; Amaya *et al.*, 2021).

438 Traits associated with adaptation, longevity, and product quality stand out in production systems due to  
439 their economic importance, but their weighting and inclusion in indexes are virtually non-existent in  
440 Colombia. It is important to design more robust information systems that allow for the evaluation of  
441 these traits and their inclusion in indexes. An additional limitation is that given the heterogeneity of  
442 production systems in Colombia, the proposed weightings would not apply to all farmers, so it is  
443 necessary to characterize the production systems and offer recommendations based on the productive  
444 context of each type of systems.

445 In Colombia, some breeders' associations have incorporated indexes into the catalogues of imported bulls  
446 based on the country's productive and economic realities. These indexes include milk production traits,  
447 anatomical conformation, mastitis resistance, and reproductive efficiency. However, the breeding values  
448 used for the index are still those obtained for European populations, and there is no scientific evidence  
449 regarding the methodologies used for estimating the economic weights. While the proposed indexes for  
450 some populations in Colombia could be useful in genetic improvement programs and serve as a guide  
451 for some farmers, technical limitations such as the precision of breeding values, the inclusion of a greater  
452 number of traits, and their economic analysis are aspects that need to be investigated.

453

#### 454 **Economic evaluation and genetic variability**

455 The real objective of selection is to change the population in a certain desired direction, rather than  
456 maintaining a group of traits within an optimal range (Simianer *et al.*, 2023). These changes must be  
457 evaluated economically, considering that the farmers' real interest is the increase in economic utility, not  
458 the phenotypic change of traits.

459 According to this literature review, there are few scientific papers that include economic aspects for the  
460 construction of selection indexes, but no studies related to the economic evaluation of genetic progress

461 were found. While the academic community has estimated genetic and phenotypic trends (Vergara *et al.*,  
462 2016; Ramírez *et al.*, 2020; Ossa *et al.*, 2021a), the results are inconclusive due to limitations in the  
463 precision of estimated breeding values and also did not include economic analysis. Although phenotypic  
464 changes in traits of zootechnical interest have been reported, it is unknown whether these changes have  
465 resulted in an increase or a decrease in profit for farmers. Research in this field is an immediate need to  
466 evaluate the selection processes that have been carried out in the different cattle populations of Colombia.  
467 An interesting example to use as a reference is the structure of the breeding scheme in New Zealand. The  
468 selection of dairy cattle relies on a selection index that considers nine traits associated with milk  
469 production, milk quality, resistance to mastitis, reproductive efficiency, and adult live weight. Genetic  
470 progress is estimated in dollars and considers the simultaneous change in all traits. For the period from  
471 2013 to 2023, the genetic gain measured by the annual changes in the index reported an economic average  
472 gain of 14.93, 17.82, and 7.98 New Zealand Dollars for the Jersey, Holstein, and Ayrshire populations,  
473 respectively (DairyNZ, 2023). This index reflects the potential of breeders to produce offspring whose  
474 productive performance is as profitable as possible. It is necessary to have a mechanism in Colombia to  
475 evaluate the economic improvement of systems due to the use of genetic selection tools.

476 Finally, breeding programs must ensure the maintenance or minimal reduction of genetic variability. One  
477 of the most widespread criteria for assessing genetic diversity in a population has been the estimation of  
478 inbreeding rate. According to FAO (2013), the acceptable rate of inbreeding increase per generation  
479 depends on the population status and characteristics of each species. Recommendations range from  
480 values less than 1% in populations at risk of extinction to a maximum of 2% in commercial breeds.  
481 Assessments of genetic variability have been more widespread in Colombian Creole cattle populations  
482 (Martínez *et al.*, 2008; Martínez *et al.*, 2023). In specialized breeds, reports exist for Simmental,  
483 Normande, and Holstein breeds (Rodríguez *et al.*, 2017; Amaya *et al.*, 2020c; Betancur-Zambrano *et al.*,  
484 2022).

485 For Colombian Creole breeds, the results have varied depending on the population evaluated. Bejarano  
486 *et al.* (2018) reported high correlations between genetic markers (SNP) at 70 to 100 Kb in a conservation  
487 nucleus of AGROSAVIA for Blanco Orejinegro cattle. Ocampo *et al.* (2020) estimated an effective  
488 population size of 124 animals and an increase of 0.4% in inbreeding rate per generation, meeting the  
489 FAO recommendation (<1%). Caivio-Nasner *et al.* (2021b) also estimated an effective population size  
490 of 123 for this breed.

491 Valderrama *et al.* (2021) evaluated the genetic structure of three populations of Blanco Orejinegro cattle,  
492 differentiated by their zootechnical purpose (germplasm bank, genetic improvement program,  
493 commercial farmers). As expected, the effective population size for animals categorized as part of the  
494 commercial farmers was high (400), but much lower for the improvement program and germplasm bank  
495 (<150). While comparing variability estimates can be complex due to differences in databases and  
496 methodologies (genealogical, genomic, or both), there is a trend in the results indicating acceptable  
497 variability in these genetic resources, except for the Sanmartinero breed, which had the lowest reported  
498 effective population size of only 27 animals (Martínez *et al.*, 2008).

499 The maintenance of variability in Creole resources may be attributed to controlled mating programs,  
500 where there is a rotation of males among families of each breed in designs known as rotational mating  
501 schemes, minimizing the loss of variability despite being closed populations. For foreign breeds, mating  
502 decisions should be simpler due to a wider availability of genetic material worldwide. However, breeders  
503 often focus on the massive and indiscriminate use of a small group of sires in the artificial insemination  
504 programs, leading to a loss of genetic variability in the population.

505 In the Colombian Cebu population, inbreeding levels of up to 15.5% have been reported (Martínez *et al.*,  
506 2008). In taurine breeds, studies based on genealogical information have been extended to the Simmental  
507 and Normande populations. Reports on Simmental cattle indicate that 51.8% of the population has a non-  
508 zero value for inbreeding (Amaya *et al.*, 2020c). For the Normande breed, despite analysing a pedigree  
509 of 77311, the effective population size estimated ranged between approximately 118 and 139 animals  
510 (Rodríguez *et al.*, 2017). This same scenario, although not evidenced in scientific publications, could be  
511 occurring in other foreign breeds in the country such as Holstein, Jersey, Ayrshire, where the massive use  
512 of a low number of sires leads to a higher probability of matings that generate inbreeding. An additional  
513 problem, mainly in foreign breeds, is the lack of genealogical records in most commercial herds, further  
514 limiting the estimation of parameters of genetic structure and diversity. While cattle breeders'  
515 associations require the genealogy of each animal for registration, most breeders are not affiliated with  
516 these associations, increasing the complexity in collecting information to evaluate genetic variability and  
517 progress.

518

### 519 **Crossbreeding**

520 Although crossing systems are not within the structure of a genetic improvement program for a pure  
521 population, their use in animal breeding allows greater profit given the effect of heterosis. Technically,

522 crossings must be carried out between individuals from populations that were subjected to genetic  
523 selection, as currently occurs on a massive scale in poultry and pig farming. In Colombia, the benefit of  
524 crossbreeding has been explored through mating animals of different breeds, but without any selection  
525 criteria based on the genetic merit of the individuals. This condition significantly limits the objective  
526 quantification of heterosis in studies carried out in Colombia. However, the most representative research  
527 will be presented and discussed in this review.

528 Studies in Colombia methodologically designed to evaluate non-additive genetic effects in crossing  
529 schemes have just been done by Elzo et al. (2001) and Martínez et al. (2012). In the first study, an  
530 incomplete diallelic scheme was designed that considered the Zebú and Sanmartinero breeds, including  
531 animals born between 1971 and 1996, evaluating birth weight, weaning weight and weight gains.  
532 However, the results were obtained in experimental farms, which differs significantly from the  
533 management practices of commercial farmers. In this same study, the authors recommended expanding  
534 these analyses in commercial herds, but to date, studies were not found on a national or commercial scale.  
535 In the second study, Martínez et al. (2012) used 37 bulls from 9 breeds (Braunvieh, Limousin, Normando,  
536 Simmental, BON, Romosinuano, Gray Brahman, Red Brahman and Guzerat) in 352 Brahman cows. This  
537 study was carried out in the Cesar region during the years 2008 and 2009. The traits evaluated were  
538 weighings, loin eye area and back fat thickness at different ages. Although the main objective of the study  
539 was the estimation of non-additive genetic effects, the study concluded that although it was carried out  
540 in commercial herds, the number of animals included per genetic group was low (between 22 and 100  
541 animals), therefore the errors in all parameters were high, recommending an estimation based on larger  
542 populations for more efficient decision making. However, as for the study by Elzo et al. (2001), no reports  
543 have been generated to date with a significantly higher number of animals and on a commercial scale.

544 Other studies carried out in Colombia, with less impact on the evaluation of crossbred animals, have been  
545 carried out from historical databases of animals whose parental breeds were Angus, Zebu, BON,  
546 Romosinuano, Holstein and Senepol (Madrigal et al., 1998; Arango et al., 2000; Martínez et al., 2011;  
547 Quijano et al., 2000). The number of animals in these studies varied between 10 (milk production per  
548 lactation) and 15256 (birth weight). However, the databases were from one or a maximum of four farms,  
549 limiting the inference about the genetic parameters of crossed animals and their benefits in commercial-  
550 scale crossing schemes. Furthermore, the evaluations have been more focused on productive comparison  
551 than on the estimation of non-additive genetic effects.

552 Elzo (2006) describes that the multiracial databases available in countries that carry out productive  
553 monitoring are characterized by: 1) having an extremely unbalanced structure, 2) a large number of  
554 parental breeds represented (many of them with very little information), and 3) a large percentage of  
555 production and pedigree records with incomplete information. The collection of this information has  
556 been the product of articulated work between associations of pure cattle breeders and associations of  
557 breeders of commercial producers. Although in Colombia there are associations of pure cattle breeders,  
558 there is no official association for commercial breeders that carries out productive control of crossed  
559 animals.

560 Pure cattle associations currently lead programs related to genealogical registration and to a lesser extent  
561 the productive control of animals. However, logistics still depend a lot on the intention and reports given  
562 by affiliated farmers, who are a minority compared to those commercial farms that are not affiliated. In  
563 this context, the role of associations in data analysis for genetic decision-making at the national level  
564 would require greater articulation between government entities, livestock breeders' associations, and  
565 commercial farmers. Meanwhile, the isolated efforts of farmers, researchers, private and public entities  
566 will hardly allow the optimization of cattle production systems through the use of genetic improvement  
567 technology.

568

## 569 **Conclusion**

570 The design and development of a genetic improvement program require breeding objectives, information  
571 systems, variance components, genetic evaluations, selection indexes, and genetic variability. In light of  
572 this literature review, the major challenges currently could be related to 1) discussing the definition of  
573 breeding objectives with farmers and breeders' associations, 2) improving both the quality and quantity  
574 of information available in current databases, and 3) addressing the lack of economic analyses in genetic  
575 evaluations. In this context, decision-making to implement and direct genetic improvement programs  
576 becomes a challenge, which can only be overcome through coordinated and ongoing work among  
577 farmers, cattle breeders' associations, and researchers. Finally, it is important to consider the  
578 heterogeneity of production systems for some breeds, which must be somehow incorporated into the  
579 genetic selection procedures of Colombian cattle, as in other regions (Europe or North America), this  
580 issue either does not exist or does not significantly influence the outcome of genetic evaluations.

581

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589

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595 The manuscript was prepared and reviewed by the authors, who declare that there is no conflict of  
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597

598 *Author contributions*

599 Alejandro Amaya: Information search, writing, and review of the article. José-Miguel Cotes-Torres:  
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601

602 *Use of artificial intelligence (AI)*

603 No AI or AI-assisted technologies were used during the preparation of this work.

604

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