

1 Development of genomic markers 2 associated to production traits in lumpfish 3 (*Cyclopterus lumpus*)

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14 ABSTRACT

Cleaner fish species have gained great importance in the control of sea lice, among them, lumpfish (*Cyclopterus lumpus*) has become one of the most popular. Lumpfish life cycle has been closed, and hatchery reproduction is now possible, however, current production is reliant on wild caught broodstock to meet the increasing demand. Selective breeding practices are called to play an important role in the successful breeding of most aquaculture species, including lumpfish.

In this study we analysed a lumpfish population for the identification of genomic markers linked to production traits. Sequencing of RAD libraries allowed us to identify, 7,193 informative markers within the sampled individuals. Genome wide association analysis for sex, weight, condition factor and standard length was performed. One single major QTL region was identified for sex determination, while nine QTL regions were detected for weight, and three QTL regions for standard length.

A total of 177 SNP markers of interest (from QTL regions) and 399 top F_{ST} SNP markers were combined in a low-density panel, useful to obtain relevant genetic information from lumpfish populations. Moreover, a robust combined subset of 29 SNP markers (10 associated to sex, 14 to weight and 18 to standard length) provided over 90% accuracy in predicting the animal's phenotype. Overall, our findings provide significant insights into the genetic control of important traits in lumpfish and deliver important genomic resources that will facilitate the establishment of selective breeding programs in lumpfish.

Keywords: Lumpfish; QTL; GWAS; Aquaculture

15 INTRODUCTION

16 Sea lice infestation remains the most pressing issue affecting salmon aquaculture worldwide.
17 Losses linked to sea lice were estimated at €700 million worldwide in 2015 and continues to
18 increases (Brooker et al., 2018). These losses not only result from reduced production due to sea
19 lice-associated mortalities, decreased fish growth, and reduced flesh quality, but also from the cost
20 of treatment against sea lice. This often involves the use of parasiticide chemicals or mechanical

21 treatments of limited effectiveness or carry other health risks (Costello, 2009).

22 To address this issue, biological control of sea lice infection in Atlantic salmon cages has
23 become an important alternative to tackle the one of the most important diseases affecting salmon
24 aquaculture. This strategy has gained increasing popularity mainly due to its effectiveness and
25 environmental safety (Costello, 2006). In Norway, for example, about 0.7 million cleaner fish were
26 deployed in salmon cages in 2006 which drastically increased to 43 million cleaner fish deployed
27 in 2019, while showing a slight decrease in the last couple of years (Norwegian Directorate of
28 Fisheries, 2022). Estimated figures indicate that approximately half of the cleaner fish used in
29 the Atlantic salmon industry are lumpfish (*Cyclopterus lumpus*), while the remainder include
30 various species of wrasse (Bolton-Warberg, 2018; Overton et al., 2020) such as ballan wrasse
31 (*Labrus bergylta*), corkwing wrasse (*Syphodus melops*) and Goldsinny wrasse (*Ctenolabrus*
32 *rupestris*). However, current cleaner fish production relies heavily on wild-caught broodstock,
33 and production from farmed broodstock remains minimal (Powell et al., 2018; Bolton-Warberg,
34 2018).

35 In recent years, hatchery production technologies for cleaner fish, particularly lumpfish and
36 ballan wrasse, have been under intense development. Among these species, lumpfish hatchery
37 production has proven to be more straightforward, with relatively high and stable survival rates
38 (Brooker et al., 2018) being achieved, making it a promising candidate for extensive use as a
39 cleaner fish (Imsland et al., 2018). Lumpfish is a sub-Arctic species commonly found along
40 the Icelandic, Norwegian, and British coastlines, as well as the East coast of North America
41 (Davenport, 1985). Crucially, the lumpfish life cycle has been closed, and hatchery reproduction
42 is now possible. However, there are only a limited number of hatcheries producing lumpfish in
43 Europe, and breeding programs are notably lacking (Brooker et al., 2018). Selective breeding is an
44 effective strategy for improving the production of aquaculture species, by enhancing economically
45 important traits (Regan et al., 2021). Mimicking natural conditions, lumpfish hatchery production
46 takes only around seven months until fish are ready for deployment, much shorter than the
47 approximatively 1.5 years currently needed for ballan wrasse deployment, making the production
48 cycle considerably more economically viable (Brooker et al., 2018). Contrary to most aquaculture
49 species, lumpfish grow very faster than would be preferred, leading to problems associated with
50 delousing behaviour (Imsland et al., 2016). There is a marked decline in delousing activity in
51 lumpfish upon reaching a large body size (over 300 g in 6-10 months), likely due to their slow
52 movement, feeding off salmon pellet, and increasing aggressive (and territorial) behaviour, mainly
53 triggered by the onset of sexual maturation (Imsland et al., 2016). Therefore, the establishment of

54 breeding programmes that allow the production of stocks with a more favourable growth rate and
55 other desirable traits would greatly benefit lumpfish production.

56 Recent developments in genomic technologies have transformed selective breeding programs
57 for aquaculture species. This has mostly been driven by continuous advances in sequencing
58 technologies that enable high-throughput discovery and screening of genetic markers, in particular
59 single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs), which are highly abundant and widely distributed
60 through the genome (Houston et al., 2020). Screening of thousands of SNPs via genotyping-
61 by-sequencing (GBS) techniques or by SNP arrays has become common practise in devising
62 and managing selective breeding schemes for many commercial aquaculture species, including
63 emerging ones (Houston et al., 2020; Robledo et al., 2018). In addition, reference genome assem-
64 blies have been developed for numerous aquaculture species (Yue and Wang, 2017), providing a
65 keystone for advanced genetic studies of their biology and potential improvement. Accordingly,
66 the recent release of a reference genome for lumpfish serves as a valuable genomic resource for
67 advancing production of this species (Holborn et al., 2022).

68 To support the establishment of sustainable selective breeding programmes for lumpfish, this
69 study aimed to develop genomic resources for lumpfish and identify genomic regions associated
70 with growth traits and sex. These efforts will aid in the production of stocks with favourable
71 growth rates and other traits of interest, ultimately contributing to the development of an effective
72 and sustainable solution to the sea lice infestation issue in salmon aquaculture.

73 MATERIALS AND METHODS

74 Family creation

75 Wild broodstock were obtained from Skjerneset Fisk at Averøy, Norway. A total of 14 *C. lumpsus*
76 independent families (1Q to 14Q) were created, within 3 hours of each other on the same day in
77 October 2018, and reared from fertilisation to final sampling at the NOFIMA Cleaner Fish Unit
78 at Sunndalsora, Norway. All families were reared in discrete incubation units/tanks that were
79 supplied by a common water source to ensure comparable environmental conditions. Hatching in
80 all families initiated within three calendar days of each other, no later than 300-degree days post
81 fertilisation. Larvae were fed following routine commercial practice, first with live feed (Artemia),
82 before weaning to a commercial formulated feed (Otohime, PTAqua, Norway). At 90 days post
83 hatch, when fish reached an average of 0.58 g wet weight, the total number of families being
84 reared was rationalised to four and stock numbers balanced to an average of 3,250 juveniles
85 which were selected at random. The final four families were reared following normal commercial

86 practice until 180 days post hatch, when the final phenotyping sampling was performed.

87 **Phenotype Measurement**

88 For all four families the same sampling regime was followed. A total of 100 individuals were
89 selected at random, culled by lethal anaesthesia and then for each individual total length (± 1 mm),
90 standard length (± 1 mm), weight (± 0.01 g) and sex (where identifiable) were measured. There-
91 after, a family specific upper and lower size threshold was calculated (bottom 10% of population
92 curve “small” and top 10% of population curve “big”). Thereafter a further 100 “small” and “big”
93 individuals within each family were sampled as shown in Table 1. For all fish body condition
94 was measured using Fulton’s condition factor ($K = 100 \times \text{weight}/\text{length}^3$; (Nash et al., 2006)).
95 The subsequent genomic analysis was based on a selection of 50 “big”, 50 “small” as well as
96 25 random selected individuals from each family. Gender of juveniles within each family was
97 balanced where possible.

98 **DNA Extraction**

99 Fin clips for all parents and offspring were stored in 99% ethanol at 4 °C until DNA extraction.
100 Genomic DNA was extracted using a salt extraction method as described before (Brown et al.,
101 2016). Total nucleic acid content and quality (260 nm/230 nm and 260 nm/280 nm ratios) were
102 determined by spectrometry (Nanodrop; Thermo Scientific, Hemel Hempstead, UK) before
103 measuring double-stranded DNA concentrations using a Qubit dsDNA Broad Range Assay Kit
104 and Qubit Fluorometer (Invitrogen, Paisley, UK).

105 **Library Preparation and Sequencing**

106 The ddRAD libraries were prepared using an adapted version of an existing protocol (Brown
107 et al., 2016). Briefly, DNA from each sample was digested at 37 °C, for 75 min with restriction
108 enzymes *Pst*I and *Nla*III (New England Biolabs, UK), followed by heat-inactivation at 65 °C, for
109 25 min. The DNA samples were then individually barcoded through the ligation of specific P1
110 and P2 adapters, each containing a unique five or seven base nucleotide sequence. After addition
111 of pre-mixed adaptors (*Pst*I:*Nla*III 1:16) and incubation of samples at 22 °C, for 10 min, T4
112 ligase (2000 ceU/ μ g DNA), rATP (100 mM) and CutSmart buffer (1 \times) were added and samples
113 incubated for 90 min at 22 °C, followed by heat inactivation (65 °C, 20 min). Libraries were
114 column purified (PCR MinElute, Qiagen, Manchester, UK), size selected by gel electrophoresis
115 (550-650 bp) and amplified by PCR (15 cycles). Sequencing was performed by Novogene (UK)
116 Co. Ltd. (Cambridge, UK) using an Illumina NovaSeq 6000 platform (150-base paired-end

117 reads).

118 **Marker Assembly and Genotyping**

119 The sequence data from the 536 individuals (Supplementary Table S1) were pre-processed to
120 discard low quality reads (i.e., with an average quality score less than 20). Sequences lacking
121 the restriction site or having ambiguous barcodes were discarded during sample demultiplexing
122 stage. Retained reads were then aligned against the genomic assembly of *C. lumpus* (NCBI
123 Assembly accession GCA_009769545.1) using bowtie2 v2.3.5.1 (Langmead and Salzberg, 2012)
124 and assembled using *gstacks* from Stack v2.60 (Catchen et al., 2011).

125 All loci that were common to at least two individuals, with no further filtering, were exported
126 from Stacks. Using PLINK v1.9 (Purcell et al., 2007), groups of variants that shared the same
127 coordinates were identified, and only the first marker was retained (*-list-duplicate-vars suppress-*
128 *first*), to avoid duplications or indistinctions. Moreover, SNPs with unknown position or located
129 in partial chromosomes were excluded from the analysis. For each dataset (parents and offspring),
130 SNPs and individuals were further filtered for quality control in a two steps process, again using
131 PLINK. First, SNP inclusion was confined to those with minor allele frequency ≥ 0.005 and
132 *p*-value of χ^2 test for Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium $\geq 10^{-6}$. Then SNPs and animals with a call
133 rate ≥ 0.9 were selected. Quality control was performed on the datasets (parents and offspring)
134 independently. Filtered scores were then combined in one dataset, keeping only shared SNPs.

135 **Multidimensional Scaling Analysis**

136 R v4.2.0 (R Core Team, 2022) was used to carry out Multidimensional Scaling Analysis on the
137 dataset using the package Bioconductor/SNPRelate v1.30.1 (Zheng et al., 2012) to calculate the
138 Identity-By-State (IBS) proportion for each sample.

139 **Identification of Trait Associated Markers**

140 Using the recorded phenotypic data (total length, standard length, weight, Condition index and
141 sex) association analyses were performed within the package R/SNPAssoc v2.0-11 (González
142 et al., 2007), using the “log-additive” model (except for sex, where ‘co-dominant’ model was
143 used) and R/qt12 v0.28 (Broman et al., 2018) for R v4.2.0 (R Core Team, 2022). We used a
144 *p*-value threshold of 0.001 and a corrected *p*-value for multiple tests of $0.001/\text{number of tests}$. The
145 model used for the analysis was based on Interval Mapping. The algorithm used considers the
146 phenotype to follow a mixture of Bernoulli distributions and uses a form of the EM algorithm
147 for obtaining maximum likelihood estimates (Broman and Sen, 2009). Two-way and multiple

148 quantitative trait locus (QTL) models were also run with this package.

149 **QTL Strength Model**

150 The effect of all SNP markers for each QTL was analysed using WEKA v3.8 (Witten et al.,
151 2017), which contains a variety of machine-learning algorithms, including “REPTree” (Witten
152 et al., 2017), a fast decision tree learner that builds a decision/regression tree using information
153 gain/variance and reduced-error pruning with backfitting. “REPTree” considers all the markers,
154 then derives for each individual a phenotype prediction (lengths, weight and sex) based on its
155 genotypes for the markers considered. The most predictive SNP markers for each QTL were
156 selected and used to produce a reduced SNP panel with the same prediction power compared
157 to the full set of markers using WEKA v3.8 (Witten et al., 2017). Permutatively, individuals
158 were removed one-by-one from the training set, with the algorithm subsequently assigning their
159 predicted phenotypic values.

160 **Low Density SNP Panel**

161 To develop an extensive SNP panel able to capture all genomic regions of interest, as well as
162 maximising the estimation of diversity, all SNP markers associated with the phenotypes of interest
163 (lengths, weight, and sex) were selected as well as markers with the highest F_{st} values. F_{st} were
164 calculated using the function *gl.fst.pop* from *dartR* v2.7.2 (Gruber et al., 2018) and based on all
165 available samples/families. After several tests run by LGC Genomics (Teddington, UK), SNP
166 markers that presented successful amplification by SeqSNP were used for the final panel.

167 **Panel Validation**

168 The usefulness of the SNP panel was validated to confirm the association of the selected markers
169 to the analysed traits. For this purpose, additional members of the four families previously used
170 in the genome-wide association study (GWAS) analyses, as well as parents, were genotyped,
171 selecting the rest of the “big” and “small” individuals from each family (Supplementary Table S2).
172 In total, tissue samples from 477 fish were shipped and genotyped by LGC Genomics (Teddington,
173 UK).

174 **RESULTS**

175 **Library Sequencing**

176 High throughput sequencing of 536 individuals produced 3,260,920,744 paired-end reads in total.
177 After the removal of low-quality and incomplete reads, 78.9% of the total raw reads were retained

178 (2,571,378,028 PE-reads; Supplementary Table S1). *C. lumpus* genome was used to map the
179 reads and generate ddRAD-tags. A total of 3,048,066 unique loci were detected, with 477,421
180 shared by at least two samples.

181 **SNP Identification and Quality Control**

182 From the 477,421 SNPs initially identified between the two groups (36 parents and 500 offspring),
183 the filtering process left 35 parents with 19,227 SNPs passing the threshold, and 499 offspring with
184 8,186 SNPs, as shown in Table 2. A total of 7,193 common informative markers were identified
185 (covering the remaining 534 individuals) and used in subsequent analyses (Supplementary Data S1
186 and Supplementary Table S3).

187 **Sample Structure**

188 A Multidimensional Scaling Analysis (IBS) was utilised to capture the complex structure of
189 the samples and separate the individuals into clusters based on their genetic distance (Jolliffe
190 and Cadima, 2016). This process grouped individuals of same origins together (families), while
191 positioning prior family assignment errors or poor-quality samples as outliers (Figure 1). Five
192 distinct clusters were separated using the first two components (67.3% of cumulative variance).
193 Families and parental/wild generation were clearly clustered. There was one exception; individual
194 11Q-212 did not behave as expected and did not cluster with any of the families, most likely due
195 to wrong assignment during sampling or handling issues during the transfer into family tanks.

196 **Association Analysis**

197 Making use of the 7,193 QC filtered and informative SNP markers, R/SNPassoc and R/qt12 were
198 used to conduct a QTL/GWAS analysis for both sex and morphometric ratios measurements.
199 Genome wide association was detected for both sex and morphometric measurements after
200 Bonferroni test correction (Supplementary Table S3). One single major QTL (57 SNPs) was
201 identified for sex determination (Figure 2a), whereas a total of nine QTL regions (120 SNPs) were
202 detected for weight (Figure 2b), and three QTL regions (23 SNPs) for standard length (Figure 2c).
203 On the other hand, no significant association was detected when using Fulton's condition factor
204 as a trait (Figure 2d). All SNP markers associated with standard length were also significantly
205 associated with Weight (Figure 3 and Table 3).

206 **Prediction and Validation**

207 The combined prediction power of these 177 unique SNP markers (from the sex and weight
208 QTL) was tested by building machine-learning algorithms and using an instance-based k-nearest

209 neighbours' algorithm (Aha et al., 1991) based on the additive effect of the genotypes at each locus
210 considered. Phenotype prediction power from using these 177 SNPs provided a 99% accuracy
211 for the selection of a desired phenotype (Table 4). The SNP markers defining the QTLs for
212 Weight and Standard length were further investigated to provide a small subset of marker fit
213 for a quick SNP assay. This approach produced a robust combined subset of 29 SNP markers
214 (10 associated to Sex, 14 to Weight and 18 to Standard Length, with weight and standard-length
215 markers overlapping; Supplementary Table S4). When applied to all individuals, the combined
216 prediction power remains over 90% (Table 4).

217 **Low Density SNP Panel**

218 A total of 177 SNP markers of interest (from QTL regions) and 399 top F_{st} SNP markers were
219 combined in a low-density panel to test its usefulness in quantifying and maintaining genetic
220 diversity within the tested population, along with potential use for selection purposes in the
221 future. This final panel of 576 markers successfully delivering informative genotypes was selected
222 (Supplementary Data S2) and evaluated on the previously mentioned 477 samples, showing its
223 usefulness to determine population and family structure, as well as to provide genotypes that can
224 be used for selection purposes (Figure 4).

225 **DISCUSSION**

226 **Importance of generating genomic resources for emerging species**

227 The development of genomic resources for important and emerging aquaculture species is crucial
228 for understanding their biology and paves the way for successful breeding schemes and improved
229 selection (Houston et al., 2020; Robledo et al., 2018). Genomic tools can be particularly advanta-
230 geous for emerging species such as lumpfish, as it can expedite and improve the accuracy of the
231 selection process for important traits, in addition to establishing breeding programmes.

232 In this study, genomic markers were developed for a lumpfish stock, with 7,193 informative
233 SNPs being identified following a thorough QC filtering process. This is a significant achievement
234 and represents a valuable starting point for future genomic research on the species. Genomic
235 resources, such as DNA markers, have become an essential component of successful aquaculture
236 production. As a result, many relevant aquaculture species have been targeted for SNP marker
237 development via genotyping-by-sequencing (GBS) or whole genome sequencing (Robledo et al.,
238 2018; Yue and Wang, 2017).

239 The development of SNP markers has been extensively researched in Atlantic salmon over the

240 last two decades, starting with the screening of a few hundred SNPs, to reach the development and
241 application of numerous SNP arrays containing up to 900K markers (Moen et al., 2008; Gutierrez
242 et al., 2012; Houston et al., 2014; Yáñez et al., 2016; Sinclair-Waters et al., 2020). Sea bream
243 and sea bass are additional examples of species with successful genomic marker development,
244 transitioning from GBS-based SNP identification to the development of medium-density SNP
245 arrays (Palaiokostas et al., 2015, 2016; Peñaloza et al., 2021). This progress exemplifies how
246 commercial interest and production needs can positively stimulate research advancement in
247 aquaculture species, which could serve as a model for lumpfish research given the current demand
248 for cleaner fish.

249 **GWAS on growth and sex in other species**

250 The increased accessibility to sequencing technologies has made GWAS (and QTL) analyses
251 involving thousands of markers a norm for studying aquaculture and livestock species. This has
252 enabled the identification of significant associations between genomic markers and particular
253 phenotypes, such as growth, sex, disease resistance, and colour, among others, which is a
254 fundamental step towards the selective improvement of stocks. Aquaculture species have been
255 extensively researched for the identification of QTL regions and markers associated with important
256 traits (Yáñez et al., 2023). The present study aimed to identify genomic regions associated with
257 analysed traits, and was successful in this regard (Table 3). The analysis of sex showed the
258 strongest association, with a single major QTL located on chromosome 13 (Figure 2a and
259 Figure 3) being identified. This result is in line with what was recently reported for another
260 lumpfish stock, where chromosome 13 was also identified as the sex chromosome, and the *Amh*
261 gene was suggested as the sex determining gene (Holborn et al., 2022), although the QTL peak
262 position does not exactly match the position of the *Amh* gene in the lumpfish genome. This could
263 be due to many reasons, first the previous study utilized a 70K SNP array for lumpfish, while
264 our analyses were based on 7,193 SNPs, and therefore, even though our results agree with the
265 chromosome location, the lower marker density did not provide enough resolution to identify the
266 specific location of the candidate gene. Nevertheless, a set of 10 SNPs located within this region
267 accurately predicted sex in all samples, giving evidence that the sex determining locus is shared
268 between populations.

269 Growth rate is a significant trait for improvement in newly domesticated species, and it has
270 been extensively studied in most aquaculture species (Yáñez et al., 2023). Analysis of weight
271 and length in lumpfish showed polygenic involvement, identifying significant associations across

272 many chromosomes, and showing evidence of overlap in QTL regions in chromosomes 5, 19, 14,
273 and 22 (Figure 2b-c, Table 3, and Figure 3). In contrast, the analysis of condition factor (K) did
274 not identify significant associations, most likely due to the round morphology of lumpfish, which
275 makes this index unreliable / uninformative for this species (Garcia de Leaniz et al., 2022). The
276 polygenic nature of growth traits is not surprising, as most aquaculture species show this pattern.
277 Contrary to most reported aquaculture goals, where growth rate QTLs have been largely exploited
278 to increase growth rate, selection for slower growth rate and longer deployment time may be
279 feasible for lumpfish. Grazing efficacy has been negatively correlated with the size of lumpfish
280 and linked to parental/family effects, suggesting that the genetic component can play a significant
281 role in improving growth and grazing (Imsland et al., 2021). The markers identified in this study
282 show promise for the selection of slow-growing fish using a low number of markers (Table 4),
283 and therefore, they have the potential to improve the grazing efficiency of selected stocks.

284 **Usefulness of findings. MAS and genomic selection applications**

285 The QTL markers identified in this study have great potential to significantly enhance the analysed
286 traits, particularly growth, which has shown average genetic gains of over 10% per generation in
287 some aquaculture species (Gjedrem et al., 2012). Selection to obtain the opposite outcome (slower
288 growth) should be possible at similar rates, particularly with the introduction of genomic resources
289 into the selection process. Our analysis of 177 markers associated with the traits revealed 99%
290 accuracy in predicting the animal's phenotype, and a selection of only 29 SNPs achieved similar
291 accuracy, thus opening the possibility of using low-density SNP panels, such as the one described
292 in this study, to provide practical genomic resources at a lower cost without sacrificing selection
293 power.

294 The results of this study demonstrate that a panel of 576 markers can determine family struc-
295 ture and accurately predict slow growth phenotypes, and sex-associated markers can accurately
296 distinguish the sex of individuals, which is particularly beneficial for selecting broodstock at early
297 stages (Table 4 and Figure 4). Furthermore, these genomic resources can be used to determine
298 relatedness, population structure, genetic variation, and inform genomic selection (Kriaridou et al.,
299 2020). While further analyses are necessary to explore the SNP panel's ability to differentiate
300 the geographical origin of lumpfish populations and test the application of genomic selection for
301 improving selection schemes, the findings provide significant insight into the genetic control of
302 important traits in lumpfish.

303 Overall, the developed genomic resources offer great potential for facilitating the development

304 of breeding programs for lumpfish and selection based on genomic information. Our study sheds
305 light on the genetic factors influencing growth and sex in lumpfish and highlights the potential of
306 low-density SNP panels as a cost-effective and powerful tool for genomic selection in aquaculture.

307 **AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS**

308 Conceptualisation: A.D., I.L., H.M., A.P.G., P.K., S.-L.C.S. and M.B.; Data curation: P.K. and
309 M.B.; Formal analysis: A.P.G., P.K. and M.B.; Funding acquisition: A.D., H.M., S.-L.C.S., I.L.
310 and T.C.R.; Investigation: A.P.G., M.B. and P.K.; Methodology: A.D., A.P.G., J.B.T., M.B., P.K.
311 and S.-L.C.S.; Project administration: A.P.G.; Resources: A.D., A.P.G., S.-L.C.S. and T.C.R.;
312 Supervision: A.P.G. and M.B.; Validation: M.B. and P.K.; Writing - original draft: A.P.G. and
313 M.B.; Writing - review & editing: A.D., A.P.G., E.J.F., I.L., H.M., J.B.T., M.B., P.K., S.-L.C.S.
314 and T.C.R.

315 **INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW**

316 Ethical approval for the study was granted in accordance with the Norwegian state Mattilsynet
317 program and in accordance with the UK Animals (Scientific Procedures) Act 1986 Amended
318 Regulations (SI 2012/3039), as well as approved by the Animal Welfare and Ethical Review Body
319 of the University of Stirling (AWERB (18 19) 032).

320 **DATA AVAILABILITY**

321 All the raw reads sequence data obtained in this study were deposited at the European Bioinfor-
322 matics Institute (EBI) Sequence Read Archive (SRA) project ID PRJEB38408

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327 **CONFLICTS OF INTEREST**

328 T.C. and E.J.F. are employed by Otter Ferry SeaFish Ltd, a funding partner of the research project.
329 The other authors declare that the research was conducted in the absence of any commercial or
330 financial relationships that could be construed as a potential conflict of interest.

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456 **FIGURE**

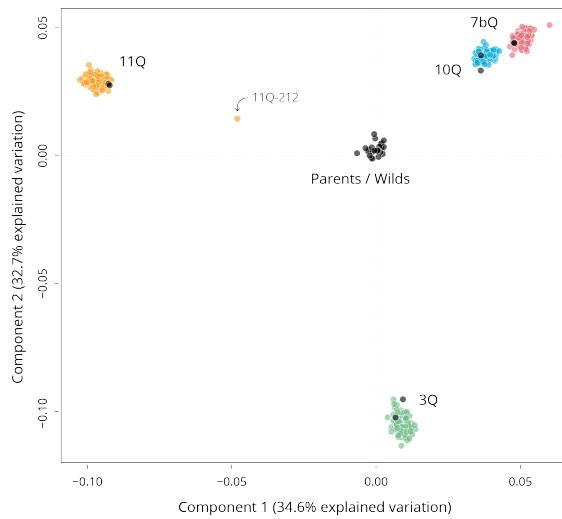


Figure 1. Multidimensional Scaling Analysis of the full dataset. The first and second components explain 34.6%, and 32.7% of the variation found. Based on 7,193 SNP markers.

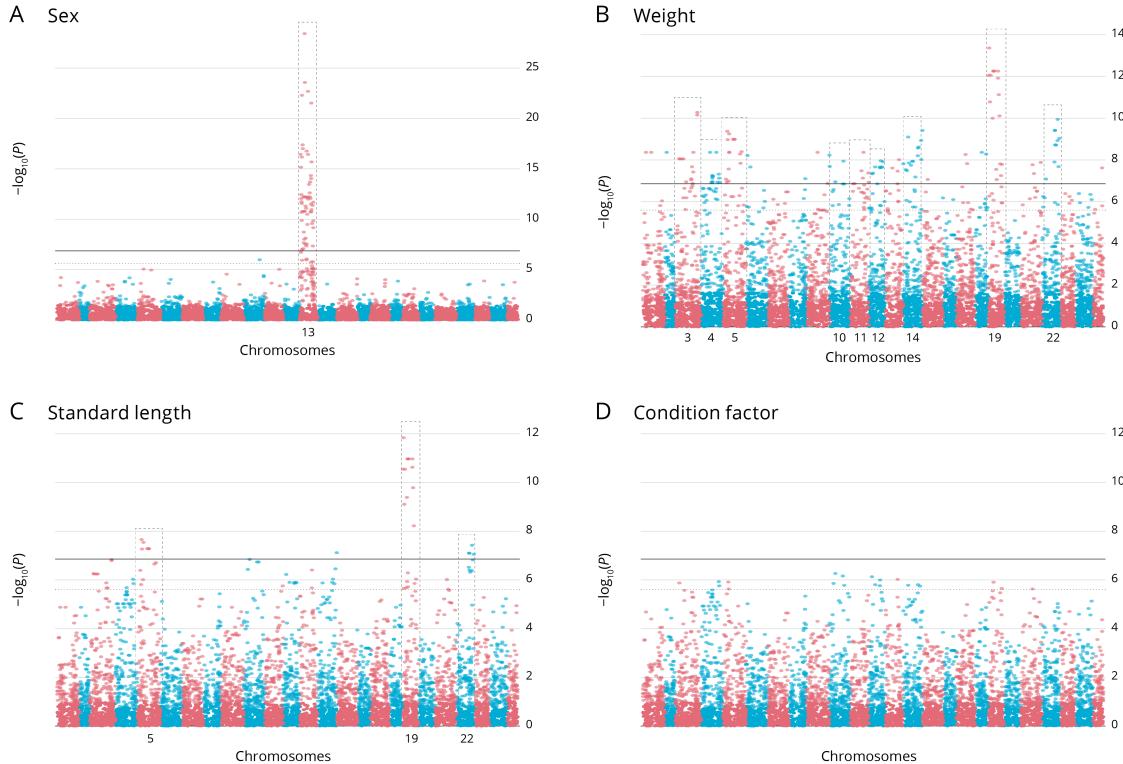


Figure 2. Markers associated with phenotypes. (a) Manhattan plot of the association for phenotypic sex. (b) Manhattan plot of the association with the fish weight. (c) Manhattan plot of the association with the fish Standard length. (d) Manhattan plot of the association with the fish Condition factor. The $-\log_{10}(p\text{-value})$ values for association of directly genotyped SNPs are plotted as a function of position of the genetic map. Each chromosome has been represented with a different colour.

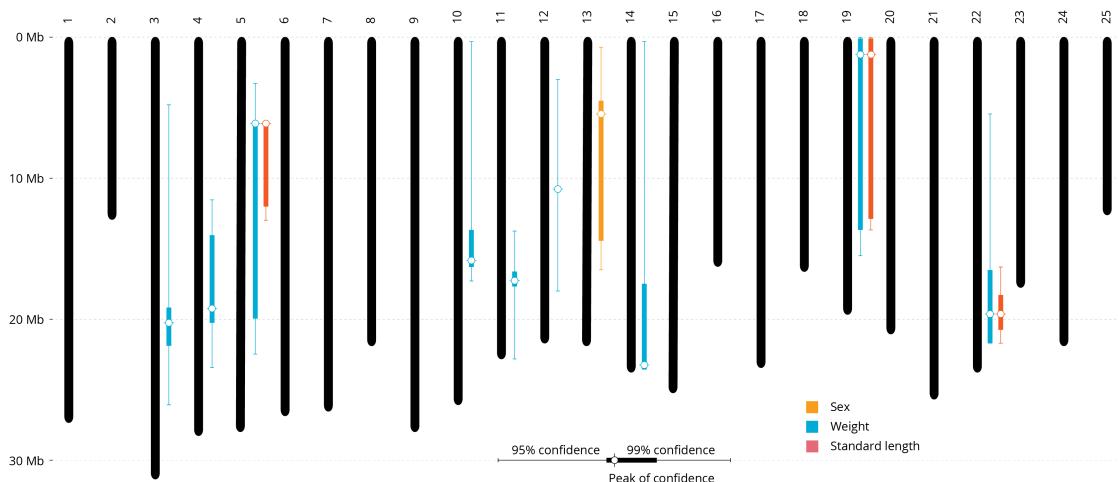


Figure 3. QTL map. Chromosomal locations of highlighted genomic regions for QTLs in this study, including Standard length, fish weight, phenotypic sex and condition factor. The peak locations are located with white circles.

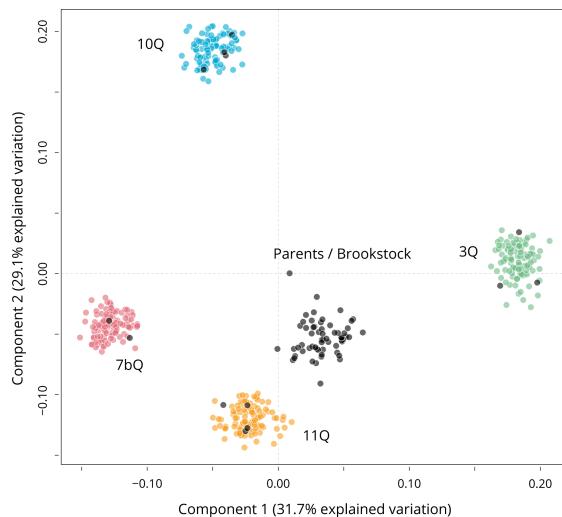


Figure 4. Multidimensional Scaling Analysis results of the validation panel (477 samples) dataset. The first and second components explain 31.7%, and 29.1% of the variation found. Based on 576 SNP markers.

457 **TABLE**

Table 1. Summary of population statistics. Mean weight (g) and length (mm) distributions as well as maximum and minimum sizes observed, along with threshold sizes (as defined by individual total length) which demarcated population specific upper (90%) and lower (10%) size thresholds for selective sampling.

	Wet weight (g)	Total Length (mm)	Largest	Smallest	90% & 10%
			Individual	Individual	threshold
Family 3Q	9.76 ±7.7	57.59 ±13.4	57.13 g 105 mm	0.81 g 30 mm	> 71 mm < 41 mm
Family 10Q	5.44 ±5.2	46.99 ±12.5	51.25 g 107 mm	0.47 g 25 mm	> 66 mm < 33 mm
Family 11Q	3.64 ±5.7	39.84 ±12.5	43.82 g 97 mm	0.25 g 21 mm	> 57 mm < 29 mm
Family 7bQ	2.79 ±0.8	39.53 ±8.7	20.14 g 77 mm	0.36 g 22 mm	> 50 mm < 31 mm

Table 2. SNP markers filtering steps.

Population	Initial			Excluded		Remaining		
	Animal	SNP	HWE*	SNP CR*	MAF**	Animal	CR**	Animal
Parents	36	453,181	14	417,273	16,667	1	35	19,227
Offspring	500	453,181	2521	418,009	24,465	1	499	8,161

* First step: SNP CR (Call rate) = 0.1, HWE (Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium) = 10^{-6} . ** Second step: Animal CR (Call rate) = 0.1, MAF (Minor allele frequency) = 0.005.

Table 3. QTL detected in this study and the genomic regions harbouring them. The peaks and confidence intervals (CI) can be visualised in Figure 2, while the QTLs are reported in Figure 3.

Traits	QTL	Chr.	CI (bp)	Peak (LOD; bp)	Markers	Mean LOD
Sex	SexQTL	13	888,322 – 16,609,738	29.5; 5,952,081	57	12.8
Weight	QTL1*	1	3,584,426 – 9,963,809	8.3; 3,584,426	2	8.3
	QTL2	2	1,931,736 – 1,931,736	8.3; 1,931,736	1	8.3
	QTL2	3	4,805,596 – 26,754,368	10.2; 26,754,368	12	8.1
	QTL4	4	11,522,283 – 23,529,190	8.3; 19,116,224	13	7.3
	QTL5	5	3,362,532 – 22,429,695	9.3; 4,965,412	15	8.3
	QTL6*	6	1,992,512 – 5,395,107	8.2; 1,992,512	2	7.9
	QTL7*	8	20,552,086 – 20,552,086	7.1; 20,552,086	1	7.1
	QTL8*	9	13,608,747 – 25,957,741	8.3; 13,608,747	2	7.6
	QTL9	10	249,201 – 17,391,982	8.3; 249,201	4	7.7
	QTL10	11	13,911,073 – 22,899,415	8.3; 1,6341,550	5	7.4
	QTL11	12	4,710,808 – 18,097,392	7.9; 18,097,392	9	7.6
	QTL12*	13	8,434,979 – 16,572,657	8.0; 16,572,657	3	7.7
	QTL13	14	260,826 – 23,505,589	9.4; 23,505,589	15	8.1
	QTL14*	15	6,396,440 – 6,396,440	7.2; 6,396,440	1	7.2
	QTL15*	17	11,464,082 – 13,337,808	8.3; 11,464,082	2	8.1
	QTL16*	18	8,262,460 – 13,642,938	8.3; 8,262,460	2	8.3
	QTL17	19	470,829 – 16,571,612	13.2; 1,188,533	17	10.4
	QTL18*	21	14,317,822 – 24,347,228	7.9; 24,347,228	3	7.6
	QTL19	22	5,460,636 – 21,864,352	9.4; 16,287,751	10	8.6
	QTL20*	25	11,069,039 – 11,069,039	7.5; 11,069,039	1	7.5
Std length	QTL1	5	4,965,412 – 13,898,772	7.6; 4,965,412	6	7.3
	QTL2*	14	23,505,589 – 23,505,589	7.1; 23,505,589	1	7.1
	QTL3	19	470,829 – 1,3758,119	11.7; 1,188,533	12	10.2
	QTL4	22	1,6287,751 – 21,864,352	7.4; 19,726,257	4	7.1

* Small peaks not reported in Figure 3.

Table 4. Details of the Phenotypic Variation Explained and prediction accuracy for the full SNP dataset and reduced subset. For each trait tested, the subset of SNPs is reported between brackets. The marker subsets overlap. Sex is a binary character, where correct prediction is provided, Weight and Std length are continuous variables where Precision (Correlation) is specified. Subset list is provided in Supplementary Table S4 (29 unique SNP markers).

	Marker	Correct prediction / Precision	Mean absolute error
Sex (All)	177	99.7%	0.008
Sex (subset)	10	95.5%	0.0742
Weight (All)	177	99.9%	10.257 g
Weight (subset)	14	92.5%	67.468 g
Std length (All)	177	99.8%	1.433 mm
Std length (subset)	18	91.4%	16.410 mm

458 **SUPPLEMENTARY MATERIAL**

459 **Table S1.** Details of the samples used, metadata, barcodes and read numbers.

460 **Table S2.** Details of the samples used for the panel validation.

461 **Table S3.** Details of the markers, genomic location, *p*-value of association with Standard length,

462 Weight, and Sex.

463 **Table S4.** Details of the subset of SNP markers.

464 **Data S1.** Genotypes of the 536 samples and 7,193 markers. Each marker is located on the

465 GCA_009769545.1 assembly (VCF).

466 **Data S2.** Details of the 576 panel SNP markers, genomic location (BED).