

1 **Potential of genomic selection for improvement of resistance to**
2 **Ostreid Herpes virus in Pacific oyster (*Crassostrea gigas*)**

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14 **Running title:** Genomic selection against OsHV in oysters

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22 **Abstract**

23 In genomic selection (GS), genome-wide SNP markers are used to generate genomic
24 estimated breeding values (gEBVs) for selection candidates. The application of GS in
25 shellfish looks promising and has the potential to help in dealing with one of the main
26 issues currently affecting Pacific oyster production worldwide, which is the “summer
27 mortality syndrome”. This causes periodic mass mortality in farms worldwide and has
28 mainly been attributed to a specific variant of the Ostreid herpesvirus (OsHV-1- μ var).
29 In the current study, we evaluated the potential of genomic selection for host
30 resistance OsHV in Pacific oysters, and compared it to pedigree-based approaches.
31 An OsHV-1 disease challenge was performed using an immersion-based virus
32 exposure treatment for oysters for seven days. 768 samples were genotyped using
33 the medium density SNP array for oysters. GWAS was performed for the survival trait
34 using a GBLUP approach in BLUPF90 software. Heritability ranged from 0.25 ± 0.05 to
35 0.37 ± 0.05 (mean \pm s.e) based on pedigree and genomic information, respectively.
36 Genomic prediction was more accurate than pedigree prediction, and SNP density
37 reduction had little impact on prediction accuracy until marker densities dropped below
38 ~500 SNPs. This demonstrates the potential for GS in Pacific oyster breeding
39 programs and importantly, demonstrates that a low number of SNPs might suffice to
40 obtain accurate gEBVs, thus potentially making the implementation of GS more cost
41 effective.

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46 **Introduction**

47 The use of genomic information to predict breeding values for selection candidates
48 has become commonplace in advanced breeding programmes. Genomic selection
49 (GS, proposed by Meuwissen *et al.* (2001), uses genome-wide markers to capture
50 genetic variation in the trait of interest, even if the trait is highly polygenic. GS involves
51 measurements of trait values and genotypes in a reference or training population,
52 training of the genomic prediction model, and then use of this model to predict
53 genomic breeding values (gEBVs) for selection candidates (Goddard and Hayes
54 2007).

55 High throughput genome-wide genotyping is a major component of genomic selection
56 programmes. SNP arrays have enabled routine genotyping, facilitating the typing of
57 many thousands of SNP markers dispersed throughout the genome of multiple
58 individuals of the target species. Accordingly, SNP arrays have been developed for
59 many important finfish aquaculture species such as Atlantic salmon, rainbow trout,
60 catfish and carp among others (Houston *et al.* 2014; Yáñez *et al.* 2016; Palti *et al.*
61 2015; Liu *et al.* 2014; Xu *et al.* 2014). In addition, two SNP arrays have been recently
62 developed for Pacific oyster (*C. gigas*); a combined-species medium density array for
63 Pacific oyster and European flat oyster (*O. edulis*) (Gutierrez *et al.* 2017) and a high
64 density array for Pacific oyster (Qi *et al.* 2017). Moreover, a high density linkage map
65 containing ~20K SNPs has recently been created and aligned with the physical
66 reference genome assembly (Gutierrez *et al.* 2018a; Zhang *et al.* 2012). Using such
67 arrays, several studies have demonstrated that genomic selection for aquaculture
68 species results in improved accuracy compared to traditional pedigree-based
69 approaches; for example in Atlantic salmon (Robledo *et al.* 2018), coho salmon

70 (Barría *et al.* 2018), rainbow trout (Vallejo *et al.* 2018), common carp (Palaiokostas *et*
71 *al.* 2018b), and Pacific oyster (Gutierrez *et al.* 2018b).

72 One of the main issues currently affecting oyster production worldwide is the “summer
73 mortality syndrome”. These events cause periodic mass mortality in farms worldwide
74 and have been mainly attributed to a specific variant of the ostreid herpesvirus (OsHV-
75 1- μ var) (Segarra *et al.* 2010), amongst other factors (de Lorgeril *et al.* 2018; Petton *et*
76 *al.* 2015; Malham *et al.* 2009). Selective breeding to improve resistance to OsHV-1
77 may have potential as a prevention strategy, and there is significant additive genetic
78 variation in survival during OsHV-1 infection, with estimated heritability values ranging
79 from 0.12 to 0.63 (Azéma *et al.* 2017; Camara *et al.* 2017; Dégremont *et al.* 2015b;
80 Gutierrez *et al.* 2018a). However, QTL and GWAS approaches to investigate the
81 genetic architecture of host resistance to the virus have suggested that the trait may
82 be polygenic (Gutierrez *et al.* 2018a; Sauvage *et al.* 2010). For that reason, marker-
83 assisted selection for OsHV-1 resistance is unlikely to be effective, and the trait is a
84 good candidate for genomic selection.

85 Substantial efforts have been made to establish selective breeding programs for
86 Pacific oyster, with OsHV-1 resistance as a primary target trait (Dégremont *et al.*
87 2010; Dégremont *et al.* 2015a; Camara and Symonds 2014). An encouraging
88 response to selection for resistance has been observed in Pacific oyster spat after four
89 generations of mass selection (Dégremont *et al.* 2015c), while family based selection
90 breeding programs have shown encouraging results after a few generations (Camara
91 *et al.* 2017). Given that Pacific oysters account for 98% of global oyster production,
92 which was estimated at ~0.6 M tons in 2016 (FAO, 2018), this pathogen is a
93 significant problem for global aquaculture. Genomic tools can enhance selective
94 breeding in aquaculture species via improvements in selection accuracy

95 corresponding to increased genetic gain, together with improved control of inbreeding
96 (Houston 2017).

97 The aim of this study was to investigate the genetic architecture of resistance to
98 OsHV-1 infection in a Pacific oyster population from New Zealand by a disease
99 challenge experiment followed by a genome wide association study (GWAS), and to
100 evaluate the use of genomic prediction to inform the implementation of genomic
101 selection in selective breeding programmes.

102

103 **Methods**

104 *Source of oysters and disease challenge*

105 Families were produced at the Cawthron Institute's hatchery in Nelson, NZ as part of
106 the 2015 cohort in an ongoing commercial selective breeding program. Families within
107 this cohort can be separated in two groups: the "Nucleus" group which originated from
108 survivors of OsHV-1 exposure with expected higher levels of resistance to OsHV-1;
109 and the "Down-selected" group originating from families that have shown poor survival
110 to the virus. Estimated breeding values based on field challenge survival were used to
111 select the parents from the previous 2013 cohort to form the nucleus and down-
112 selected full-sib families.

113 The OsHV-1 challenge experiment was performed on 1860 animals approximately 4
114 months post-spawning using the immersion challenge model described in Camara et
115 al. (2017). In brief, viral stock is obtained from oysters with confirmed high virus loads
116 which are homogenised, and after serial filtering steps the supernatant is
117 cryopreserved in a 10 % glycerol and 10 % foetal calf serum solution. The same
118 process was used to prepare a negative control stock from virus-free oysters.

119 Subsequently, groups of 20 oysters derived from each of 31 full sibling families were
120 exposed to one of three treatments; (i) a high concentration of the virus, (ii) a low
121 concentration of the virus, and (iii) a mock-challenged negative control (total n =
122 1860). Inoculation for the high virus concentration (hv) was prepared by diluting 4 mL
123 of the virus stock in 7.7 L of artificial seawater (ASW), same procedure was followed
124 for the negative control (no virus stock). The inoculation for the low virus concentration
125 (lv) was a 10-fold dilution with ASW of the high virus concentration water. All families
126 from the 2015 cohort with sufficient available spat were challenged. The oysters were
127 randomly sampled from their family-specific upwelling tanks in the virus-free nursery,
128 cleaned and placed in family-specific mesh bags which were transferred to three 120
129 L tanks in a pre-determined pattern to spread the families evenly throughout the tank
130 in a grid system. Inoculation water (7 L/tank) was added to the tanks, and after 16 h
131 incubation a further 73 L ASW was added to each tank with constant aeration and
132 temperature of 21 °C. Water samples (100 µL) were collected daily from each tank
133 and frozen prior to qPCR analysis to confirm viral load in the treatments and control.
134 ASW was replaced every second day with the same volume of newly prepared ASW
135 and microalgal feed in the form of 120 ml axenically-cultured Isochrysis galbana was
136 added to each tank. The oysters were assessed for signs of life daily for 7 days after
137 inoculation. Dead oysters were removed, counted, and frozen until DNA extraction.

138

139 *SNP array genotyping*

140 Genomic DNA was extracted from the whole oyster (minus the shell) using the
141 E.Z.N.A. Mollusc DNA Kit (Omega Biotek), quantified on Qubit and the DNA integrity
142 was checked on a 1% agarose gel. Following quality control (QC) and considering the

143 384 well configuration of the array, 768 samples (718 progenies and 44 parents) were
144 sent for genotyping to ThermoFisher Scientific (Santa Clara, USA) using the recently
145 developed Affymetrix SNP medium density SNP array for oysters (Gutierrez *et al.*
146 2017). All dead oysters were genotyped, as well as 16 surviving oysters from each
147 family (8 from each treatment) when possible, therefore, the number of genotyped
148 individuals per family ranged from 16 to 40 depending on the DNA quality and the
149 number of mortalities per family in each condition (hv or lv) (Table S1 and S2). After
150 genotyping, initial QC steps were performed using the Axiom Analysis Suite v2.0.0.35,
151 and 762 individuals and 22,535 SNPs were retained following the “best practices
152 workflow”, which included ‘PolyHighResolution’ and ‘NoMinorHom’ SNPs only, a
153 sample and SNP call threshold of 90 %, plus a manual inspection and removal of
154 selected SNPs with unusual clustering patterns. The SNPs were then checked for
155 Mendelian errors using Plink 1.9 (Chang *et al.* 2015), leaving a total of 21,338 SNPs
156 and 762 individual animals that were used for the linkage map construction. Final
157 filtering of the SNP set was performed using the GenABEL package (Aulchenko *et al.*
158 2007) in R, using the *check.markers* module to retain SNPs with a MAF > 0.01 and
159 allow a deviation from Hardy-Weinberg Equilibrium $< 1 \times 10^{-6}$, leaving 17,919 filtered
160 SNPs that were used for heritability, GWAS and GS analyses.

161 *Linkage mapping*

162 Due to the lack of a chromosome-anchored reference genome assembly for Pacific
163 oyster, the genotype data were used to construct a high density linkage map. The
164 maps from a total of 21,338 SNPs were constructed using the software Lep-map 3
165 (Rastas 2017). The nuclear families used for the generation of this map were assigned
166 using the SNP data and the software Cervus (Kalinowski *et al.* 2007) as described by
167 Gutierrez *et al.* (2017), and confirmed through the IBD module in Lep-map3. Putative

168 erroneous or missing parental genotypes were re-called using the “ParentCall2”
169 module. Linkage groups were identified using the “SeparateChromosomes2” module
170 using a LodLimit = 31 and distortionLod = 1. Data were then filtered to remove
171 markers from families showing significant segregation distortions
172 (“dataTolerance=0.001”) and the “OrderMarkers2” module was applied to order the
173 markers within the linkage groups. Individuals showing excessive recombination were
174 also removed from the data as this indicated a potential problem with genotyping or
175 family assignment for this individual. Additionally, markers that could not be assigned
176 were positioned according to our previously developed linkage map (Gutierrez *et al.*
177 2018a).

178 *Estimation of genetic parameters for OsHV-1 resistance*

179 Genetic parameters for the OsHV-1 resistance traits were estimated using a linear
180 mixed model approach fitting animal as a random effect and tank as fixed effect, using
181 ASReml 4 (Gilmour *et al.* 2014) with the following model, but adjusted to the logit-link
182 function:

183

184 **$\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{X} + \mathbf{Zu} + \mathbf{e}$**

185

186 where **\mathbf{y}** is the observed trait, **\mathbf{u}** is the vector of additive genetic effects, **\mathbf{e}** is the
187 residual error, and **\mathbf{X}** and **\mathbf{Z}** the corresponding incidence matrices for fixed effects and
188 additive effects, respectively. The (co)variance structure for the genetic effect was
189 calculated either using pedigree (**\mathbf{A}**) or genomic (**\mathbf{G}**) matrices (i.e. $\mathbf{u} \sim N(0, \mathbf{A}\sigma_a^2)$ or
190 $N(0, \mathbf{G}\sigma_a^2)$), where **\mathbf{G}** is the genomic relationship matrix and σ^2 is the genetic

191 variance. The heritability of the traits was estimated using the additive genetic
192 variance and total phenotypic variance, as follows:

193

194
$$h^2 = \sigma^2_a / \sigma^2_p$$

195

196 where σ^2_a is the additive genetic variance and σ^2_p is the total phenotypic variance
197 which is a sum of $\sigma^2_a + \sigma^2_e$. To account for the binary nature of the trait i.e. 0
198 (mortality) or 1 (survival), heritability was adjusted to the underlying liability scale using
199 the logit-link function which implies a correction of the residual variance by the factor
200 $\pi^2/3$. The genomic relationship matrix required for the analysis was obtained
201 according to (VanRaden 2008) using the BLUPF90 software (Misztal *et al.* 2002)
202 based on the final set of 17,919 filtered SNPs.

203 *Genome-wide association studies*

204 Association analyses were run using the BLUPF90 software (Misztal *et al.* 2002) using
205 a GBLUP approach and taking tank as a fixed effect. In this case, association
206 analyses were performed for single SNPs and also for moving windows of 10, 20 and
207 50 adjacent SNPs (based on the linkage map position) that were created using
208 POSTGSF90 (Aguilar *et al.* 2010).

209 *Genomic Selection*

210 For the estimation of genomic prediction values, the genotype data used
211 corresponded to the same 17,919 SNPs used for the GWAS analyses. Estimated
212 breeding values were obtained using either pedigree-based BLUP (PBLUP) or
213 Genomic best linear unbiased prediction (GBLUP) using the linear model described

214 above. The accuracy of genomic selection was estimated by fivefold cross validation
215 (training set 80%, validation set 20%), which were each repeated 10 times.
216 Phenotypes (binary survival) from the validation population were masked and
217 breeding values were estimated using ASReml 4 using the linear mixed model
218 described above. Prediction accuracy was calculated as the correlation between the
219 predicted EBVs of the validation set and the actual phenotypes divided by the square
220 root of the heritability estimated in the validation population [$-\sqrt{r(y_1, y_2)/h}$]. Mean
221 prediction accuracy values obtained from the different sets were compared between
222 the pedigree and genomic approaches.

223 To assess the utility of low density SNP panels for breeding value prediction, two
224 strategies for *in silico* selection of the SNPs were used. First, the low density SNP
225 panel for use in the computing the genomic relationship matrix was selected by a
226 progressive increase of the MAF threshold from 0.01 to 0.475 resulting in a
227 progressive reduction in number of markers; Secondly, the low density SNP panel was
228 selected using a strategy of random “thinning” of SNPs from the full dataset (15K,
229 10K, 5K, 2.5K, 1K, and down to 500 SNPs).

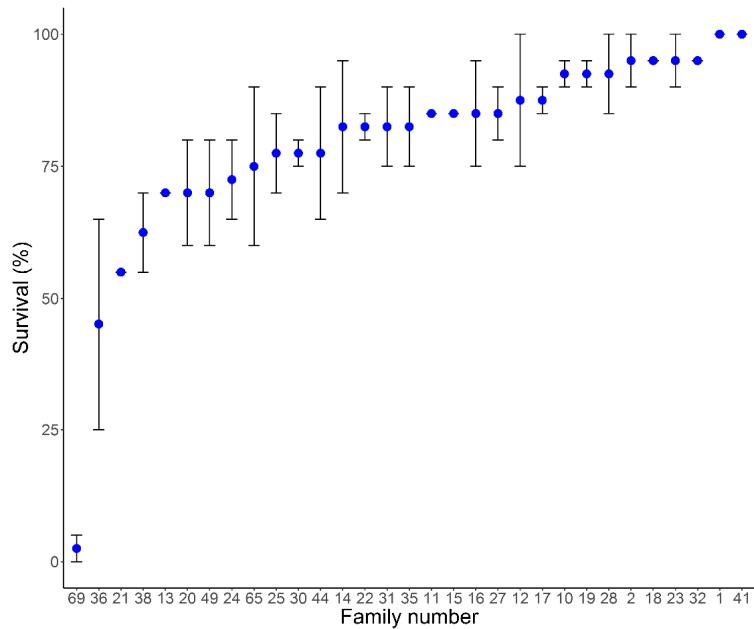
230 **Results**

231 *Challenge survival and heritability*

232 After the seven days of the disease challenge the average mortality per family for the
233 entire challenge was 16.8 % and 24.7% for the LV and HV conditions, respectively,
234 but with substantial variation in mortality levels between families (Table S2). High
235 phenotypic correlations were observed between the family-level mortality rates in
236 these two scenarios ($R = 0.8$; $r^2 = 0.64$) as can be observed in (Figure 1 and Figure

237 S1). Within the 718 genotyped samples (progenies) that were part of the challenge,
238 the mortality level was 33 %.

239



240

241 Figure 1. Average survival (s.e) for the 31 families included in the disease challenge

242

243 There were 762 individuals (718 progenies + 44 parents) with genotype data that
244 passed QC and had accurate pedigree as confirmed by the family assignment
245 software. Based on these data 30 families were consistent with the expected pedigree
246 (although a small number of erroneously assigned individuals were identified and
247 corrected based on genotype information. Only one family (id = 24) could not be
248 assigned to both parents, suggesting that the dam was not included within the
249 genotyped candidate parents, probably due to miss-labelling during the crosses.

250 Making use of the updated pedigree information, the estimated heritability for the
251 binary survival trait was 0.25 ± 0.05 . These estimates were higher when using the
252 genomic kinship matrix, with 0.37 ± 0.05 . This gives evidence that there is a significant
253 genetic component involved in the resistance to OsHV in Pacific oyster in these
254 populations.

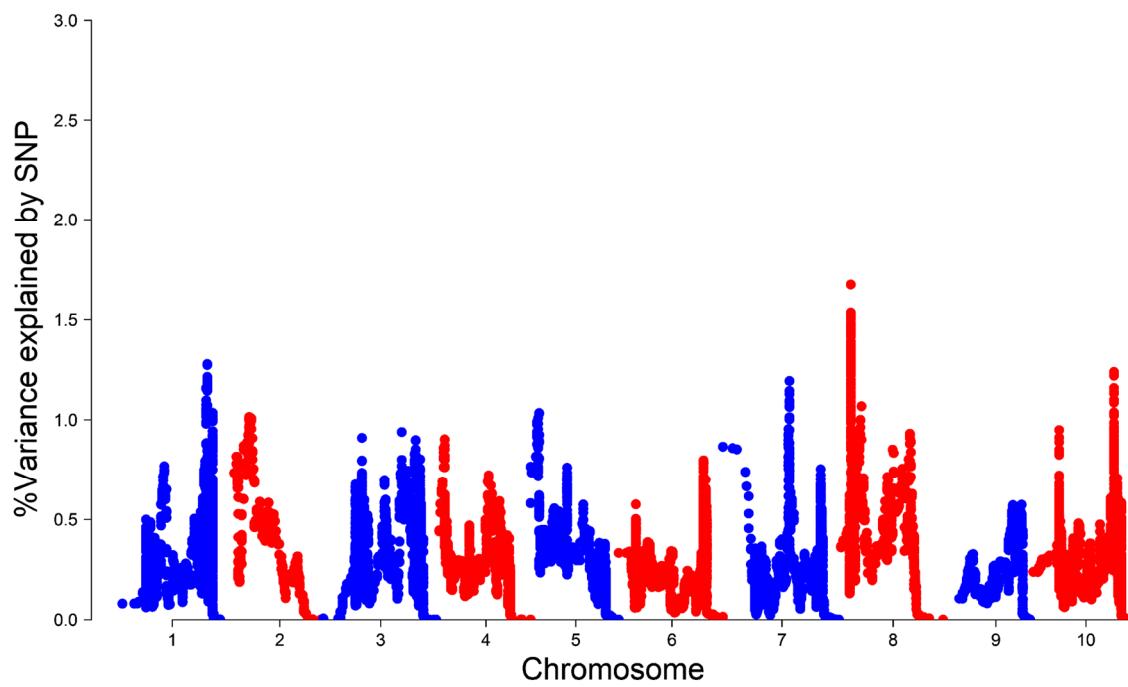
255 *Linkage map*

256 The linkage mapping was performed using 30 full sibling families comprising 691
257 progenies and 43 parents (one family was discarded as both parents were not
258 assigned). The linkage map contains 19,926 SNPs distributed on 10 LGs (in
259 accordance with the Pacific oyster karyotype), with a length of 941 cM for the male
260 map and 992 cM for the female map. 18,554 SNPs were mapped on the analysed
261 families while the position of 1,372 SNPs was estimated from our previously published
262 linkage map. Additionally, 14,058 SNPs are shared between the current and the
263 previously published map obtained from a different population (Gutierrez *et al.* 2018a).
264 The ~20 K mapped SNPs correspond to 1,880 scaffolds and 133 contigs, according to
265 the latest oyster genome assembly (GCA_000297895.1, Zhang *et al.* 2012). We
266 observed that approximately 38 % (719 out 1,880) of the scaffolds with informative
267 markers show evidence of errors in the assembly, due to assignment to at least two
268 distinct LGs in our map, following similar pattern described in our previous linkage
269 map (Gutierrez *et al.* 2018a; Hedgecock *et al.* 2015).

270 *Association analyses*

271 GWAS performed using the BLUPF90 software did not detect any single SNPs
272 showing a major association with the trait, shown as % of genetic variance explained

273 by the SNP (Figure S2A). A similar situation was observed when a floating SNP
274 window approach was taken, where variance values increased but not showing
275 evidence of a major QTL (Figure 2 & Figure S2B-C). Particularly, regions on LG1,
276 LG7, LG8 and LG10 seem to explain higher percentage of the genetic variance
277 (between 1.2 and 1.67) although not high enough to suggest major-effect QTL, which
278 implies a polygenic architecture to host resistance.

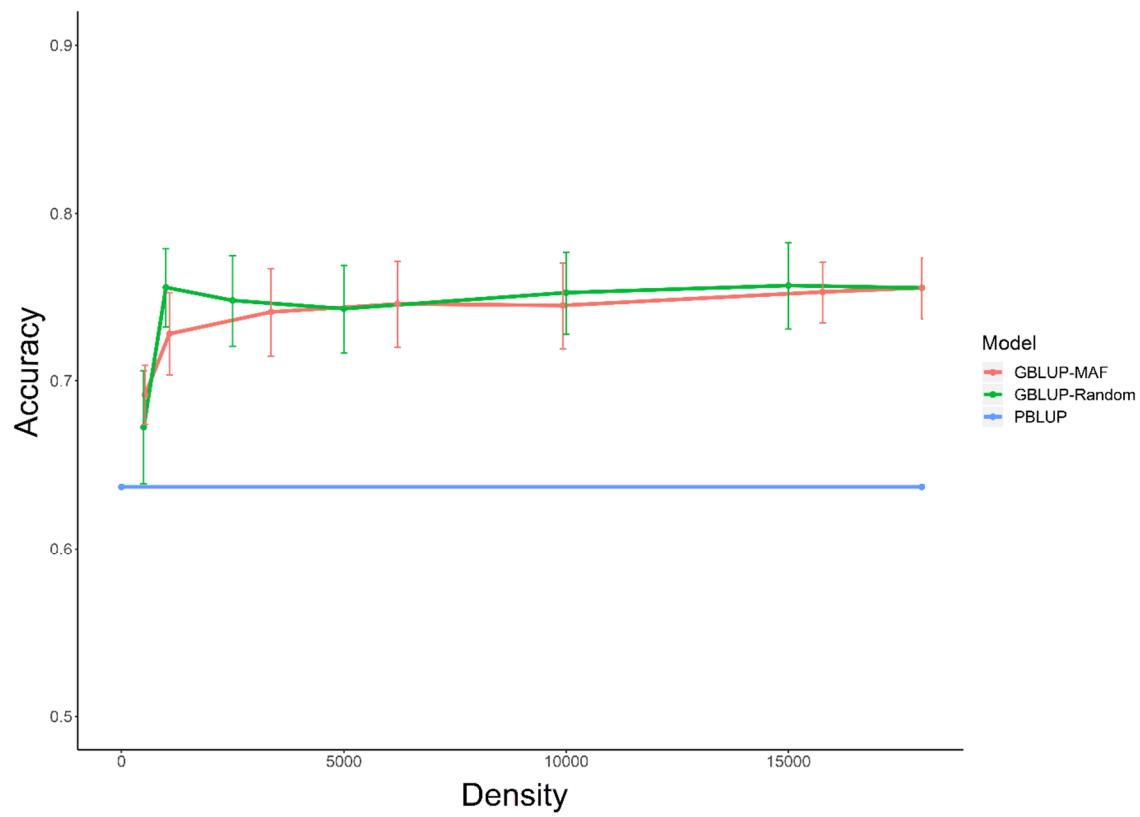


279
280 Figure 2. GWAS performed using moving windows of 50 SNPs, according to position
281 on the linkage map.

282 *Genomic Prediction*

283 Genomic prediction accuracy for the binary survival trait was analysed by randomly
284 splitting the samples into training (80 %) and validation (20 %) sets for cross-
285 validation, and this was repeated ten times. The genomic prediction accuracy results
286 show that prediction accuracies obtained using genomic information (G-matrix) are

287 higher than using the pedigree information (A-matrix) (Figure 3 & Table S3), with
288 values ranging from 0.637 using pedigree to 0.758 using genomic information
289 (increase of ~19 %). Two approaches were taken to evaluate the effect of marker
290 density on genomic prediction accuracy. The first used progressive increase of minor
291 allele frequency (MAF) threshold, resulting in progressive decrease in SNP number.
292 The second involved choosing subsets of SNPs for the low density panels at random.
293 Both thinning approaches showed little impact on prediction accuracy until marker
294 densities dropped below ~2,500 SNPs. With the MAF approach, the genomic
295 prediction accuracies obtained using the lower density SNP panels ranged from 0.755
296 to 0.693 (MAF>0.475 530 SNPs), while using the random subsets accuracies ranged
297 from 0.758 to 0.678 (500 SNPs).



298

299 Figure 3. Genomic prediction results showing mean accuracies (s.d) obtained from
300 both pedigree A-matrix (PBLUP) and genomic matrix G-matrix (GBLUP)

301

302 **Discussion**

303 ***Disease challenge and heritability of OsHV-1 resistance***

304 The disease challenge set-up was consistent for both the low and high virus
305 conditions showing high phenotypic correlation between family level mortality in the
306 two challenges. This suggests that the variation in family level mortality is likely to be
307 genetic, and the absence of mortality in the control group suggests that the challenge
308 group mortality is due to OsHV-1 (Table S2). Moderate levels of heritability of OsHV
309 resistance were observed in this study (0.25 - 0.37), which is similar to what has been
310 described in previous studies (Dégremont *et al.* 2015b; Azéma *et al.* 2017; Camara *et*
311 *al.* 2017), and higher than showed in our previous study in a different population with
312 lower overall mortality rate (Gutierrez *et al.* 2018a). Heritability estimates were higher
313 when using the genomic relationship matrix (GRM) compared to estimates obtained
314 using the pedigree-based relationship matrix. A possible reason for this is
315 overestimation of the additive genetic variance using a GRM due to high levels of
316 linkage disequilibrium generated by recent selective breeding (Palaiokostas *et al.*
317 2018a; Fernando *et al.* 2017).

318 ***Genome-wide association study***

319 The linkage map construction resulted in ~20K SNPs distributed across 10 linkage
320 groups in similar positions as previously described in a different population (Gutierrez
321 *et al.* 2018a). As with previous linkage maps, the mapping of SNPs located within
322 single reference genome contigs to multiple linkage groups highlighted putative

323 reference genome assembly errors (Hedgecock *et al.* 2015; Zhang *et al.* 2012). It is
324 worth noting that 99.8% of the markers were located on the same LG as positioned in
325 our previous map, which highlights the utility of the SNP chip across multiple
326 populations, and the reliability of both maps.

327 The association analyses for OsHV-1 survival suggest that OsHV resistance in the
328 Pacific oyster is likely controlled by multiple genomic regions in this population. Both
329 the single SNP and moving window approach did not show evidence of a major region
330 involved in the resistance. When the SNP window size was 50 the variance explained
331 by some regions located on LG1, LG7, LG8 and LG10 was higher but no region
332 explained more than 2 % of the genetic variance in the trait (Figure 2). Previous
333 research into the genetics of OsHV resistance has also suggested an oligogenic or
334 polygenic architecture of the trait which is consistent with our findings. In particular, a
335 previous study found that LG V, VI, VII & IX (which correspond to LG 6, LG 7, LG 8 &
336 LG 10 in our map) contain genomic regions associated to summer mortality resistance
337 (Sauvage *et al.* 2010). Additionally, we recently described that regions on multiple LGs
338 are likely involved in the resistance to OsHV in a Pacific oyster population from
339 Guernsey (Gutierrez *et al.* 2018a). When taken together, these studies suggest that
340 host resistance to OsHV in Pacific oyster is consistently a polygenic trait. .

341 **Genomic selection**

342 Genomic predictions (GBLUP) of breeding values for host resistance to OsHV are
343 likely to be more accurate than those based on pedigree (PBLUP) in this population.
344 The prediction accuracy values ranged from 0.678 to 0.758 for GBLUP (with SNP
345 densities ranging from 500 to 18K), while PBLUP only reached an accuracy of 0.637.
346 This result has been mirrored in other studies of genomic versus pedigree-based

347 prediction of disease resistance breeding values for other important farmed fish
348 species, e.g Atlantic salmon (Tsai *et al.* 2015; Yoshida *et al.* 2017; Ødegård *et al.*
349 2014; Robledo *et al.* 2018), rainbow trout (Vallejo *et al.* 2017; Yoshida *et al.* 2018),
350 sea bream (Palaiokostas *et al.* 2016) and sea bass (Palaiokostas *et al.* 2018a).
351 Further, in shellfish similar findings have been observed for prediction of breeding
352 values for growth traits in scallop (Dou *et al.* 2016) and Pacific oyster (Gutierrez *et al.*
353 2018b). Therefore, the technical potential of genomic selection for expedited genetic
354 improvement in shellfish has been shown. However, the economic viability remains an
355 open question. The cost of genotyping is a key consideration for the commercial
356 implementation of genomic selection in shellfish. In the current study, <1000 SNPs
357 was a sufficient density to provide ~19 % increase in prediction accuracy versus
358 PBLUP. This raises the possibility of a low density genomic selection approach for
359 OsHV-1 resistance in oyster breeding, since low density genotyping can be
360 substantially cheaper than high density SNP arrays. It is worth noting that the training
361 and validation sets in the current study contain closely related animals, including full
362 siblings. As a result, these individuals will share large genomic segments, which can
363 be captured by the low density SNP panels. As the genetic distance between the
364 training and validation sets increased, genomic prediction accuracy is likely to
365 decrease markedly, as has been shown in other aquaculture species (Palaiokostas et
366 al., 2019). In addition, it has been demonstrated some populations of Pacific oysters
367 exhibit rapid decay of linkage disequilibrium (Gutierrez *et al.* 2017). As such, regular
368 testing on close relatives of breeding candidates is required to maintain prediction
369 accuracy, otherwise accuracy will decrease with successive generations of a breeding
370 programme. Having that said, this scenario is typical for aquaculture breeding
371 programs where testing of full-siblings of selection candidates is performed.

372 Historically, the breeding programme for Pacific oysters run by the Cawthron Institute
373 has used broodstock which are put through grow-out in field environments and are
374 brought back into the hatchery for reproduction. As such, when OsHV outbreaks
375 occur, it has been common practice to breed from survivors of the highest performing
376 families. Genomic selection is best-suited to traits that are not measurable on the
377 selection candidates themselves, and helps selection of individuals from within a full
378 sibling family. When survivors are used as breeding candidates, these benefits are
379 somewhat negated. However, in the event that broodstock cannot be brought back
380 into a hatchery (e.g. due to a biosecurity issue) the practical value of genomic
381 selection would be much higher.

382 The Cawthron breeding programme found no evidence for the vertical transmission of
383 OsHV-1 in the hatchery, and the existing presence of OsHV-1 in wild populations
384 meant that the biosecurity implications of breeding from survivors were manageable.
385 Therefore the ability to select broodstock from large on-farm progeny trials exposed to
386 OsHV-1 enabled the benefits of within-family selection to be captured, rather than
387 relying only on among-family selection. Where vertical transmission occurs in the
388 hatchery or biosecurity is constraining, the option to breed from survivors may not be
389 available. In this case, genomic selection provides the opportunity for within family
390 selection even though the phenotype (e.g. survival) cannot be measured directly on
391 broodstock candidates.

392

393 **Conclusion**

394 The results from the current study provide evidence indicating that OsHV resistance is
395 polygenic in Pacific oyster, consistent with current literature and analyses across

396 different populations. Due to the polygenic nature of the resistance, genomic selection
397 is a well-placed methodology for the improvement of current pedigree-based selection
398 schemes. Indeed results show that genomic prediction of OsHV-1 resistance is more
399 accurate than pedigree-based prediction even with a reduced number of SNPs (down
400 to less than 1,000 SNPs). These results suggest that low cost genotyping solutions
401 could be within reach to provide a G-matrix capable of generating accurate GEBV
402 values. The use of genomic data is likely to bring significant improvement to Pacific
403 oyster breeding programmes, particularly to improve selection of challenging traits that
404 rely on sib-testing (e.g. disease resistance) where genomic selection can more
405 effectively capture within-family variation.

406

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415

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