

1 **Genomic prediction using low density marker panels in aquaculture: performance
2 across species, traits, and genotyping platforms**

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15 **ABSTRACT**

16 Genomic selection increases the rate of genetic gain in breeding programmes, which results
17 in significant cumulative improvements in commercially important traits such as disease
18 resistance. Genomic selection currently relies on collecting genome-wide genotype data
19 across a large number of individuals which requires substantial economic investment.
20 However, global aquaculture production predominantly occurs in small and medium sized
21 enterprises for whom this technology can be prohibitively expensive. For genomic selection
22 to benefit these aquaculture sectors more cost-efficient genotyping is necessary. In this study
23 the utility of low and medium density SNP panels (ranging from 100 to 9000 SNPs) to
24 accurate predict breeding values was tested and compared in four aquaculture datasets with
25 different characteristics (species, genome size, genotyping platform, family number and size,
26 total population size, and target trait). A consistent pattern of genomic prediction accuracy
27 was observed across species, with little or no reduction until SNP density was reduced below
28 1,000 SNPs. Below this SNP density, heritability estimates and genomic prediction
29 accuracies tended to be lower and more variable (93 % of maximum accuracy achieved with
30 1,000 SNPs, 89 % with 500 SNPs, and 70% with 100 SNPs). Now that a multitude of studies
31 have highlighted the benefits of genomic over pedigree-based prediction of breeding values
32 in aquaculture species, the results of the current study highlight that these benefits can be
33 achieved at lower SNP densities and at lower cost, raising the possibility of a broader
34 application of genetic improvement in smaller and more fragmented aquaculture settings.

35 **Keywords:** breeding, disease resistance, growth, GBLUP, fish, oyster, salmon

36

37 **BACKGROUND**

38 Aquaculture is the fastest growing food industry worldwide (FAO2018). While capture
39 fisheries production has stagnated since the late 90s, aquaculture production has been
40 consistently increasing 5.8 % per year since 2001 (FAO 2018), and this trend is expected to
41 continue in the coming years to cope with the food demands of a growing human population.
42 Nonetheless, aquaculture is still a relatively young industry, and although technological
43 advances have been rapidly implemented to improve production volume and efficiency for
44 some high-value species, these are slower to reach the lower-value, high-volume species that
45 underpin most of global production. This is typified by genetic improvement technologies,
46 where species such as Atlantic salmon have large and well-managed breeding programmes
47 akin to those for pigs and poultry, while most aquaculture species lag significantly behind. In
48 part, this is due to the wide diversity of aquaculture species, with the top 20 animal species
49 accounting for less than 80 % of the total production (FAO 2019) in contrast to terrestrial
50 livestock, where four species are the source of > 90 % of the world meat production. In
51 addition, the majority of aquaculture takes place in small to medium-sized farms, primarily
52 situated in low to medium income countries. This context hinders the implementation of
53 emerging technologies to help improve production, primarily due to their prohibitive cost.

54 One such technology is genomic selection, which utilises genetic markers to identify the
55 animals with the highest breeding values to select for producing the next generation
56 (Meuwissen et al. 2001). Selective breeding programmes are being increasingly utilised for
57 aquaculture species, and have been shown to be highly effective in improving production
58 traits, especially growth (Gjedrem and Rye, 2018). Genomic selection consistently
59 outperforms family-based selection based on pedigree only (Zenger et al. 2018), leading to
60 cumulative genetic gains over generations that incrementally enhance the performance of
61 farmed species. One of the main reasons underlying the slow uptake of genomic selection in
62 aquaculture is genotyping costs. Genotyping usually relies on high-density SNP array
63 platforms, which can be prohibitively expensive for routine application for most aquaculture
64 breeding programmes, due to the need to genotype thousands of performance tested fish (i.e.
65 the reference population) and the selection candidates. One avenue to democratise genomic
66 selection for smaller-scale, more fragmented aquaculture sectors is to exploit low-density
67 SNP panels for which per-sample genotyping costs can be a fraction of the cost of SNP
68 arrays.

69 However, it may be expected *a priori* that this cost-reduction due to reduced genotype
70 density comes at the expense of reduced prediction accuracy in a breeding programme. The
71 improved accuracy of genomic selection compared to pedigree-based approaches is primarily
72 derived from an improved estimation of the genomic similarity between each pair of
73 individuals. In most family-based aquaculture breeding programmes, a procedure known as
74 sib-testing (short for sibling testing) is performed, whereby trait records are obtained from
75 full siblings of the selection candidates – a process enabled by the high fecundity of
76 aquaculture species. With pedigree-based selection, the genomic similarity between full-sibs
77 is assumed to be 50 %, but the reality is that it can vary substantially around this value as a
78 consequence of Mendelian sampling and linkage disequilibrium (Hill and Weir, 2011). In
79 theory, the accuracy of estimating this genomic similarity should decrease as the density of
80 genetic markers employed reduces, which would have a negative impact on prediction
81 accuracy and consequently on genetic gain. However, in empirical studies of aquaculture

82 species to date this decrease in accuracy seems to be relatively small and only observable
83 once SNP densities drop to a few hundred markers (e.g. Tsai et al. 2016; Correa et al. 2017;
84 Robledo et al. 2018; Yoshida et al. 2018; Vallejo et al. 2018; Gutierrez et al. 2018;
85 Palaiokostas et al. 2019; Tsairidou et al. 2019), which is likely a consequence of the large full
86 sibling family sizes, such that long haplotypes are shared between many individuals in the
87 reference and test population.

88 Therefore, low density genotyping appears to be a promising solution for enabling access to
89 the benefits of genomic selection to a broader range of aquaculture species and sectors.
90 However, the optimal SNP density to use is unclear, and may be expected to vary depending
91 on the species, population history and trait of interest. The goal of this study was to assess if
92 those variables affect the performance of low-density SNP panels, and to determine if an
93 optimal genotyping density can be identified as a practical, broad recommendation for
94 aquaculture breeding programmes. To do so, the performance of SNP panels of varying
95 densities in estimating genetic parameters and breeding values was tested using previously
96 published datasets for diverse aquaculture species, phenotyped for different traits and
97 genotyped with different platforms.

98

99 MATERIALS AND METHODS

100 Datasets and phenotypes

101 Genotypes and phenotypes were obtained from four previously published studies in four
102 different species, briefly: i) Atlantic salmon (*Salmo salar*) challenged with amoebic gill
103 disease (AGD) were phenotyped for mean gill score (subjective 0 - 5 scoring system,
104 commonly used as a measure of gill damage) and amoebic load (real-time PCR), and
105 genotyped using a combined salmon-trout 17K SNP array (Robledo et al. 2018); ii) Common
106 carp (*Cyprinus carpio*) were measured for growth traits (standard length and weight), and
107 genotyped using RAD sequencing for ~12K SNPs (Palaiokostas et al. 2018); iii) Sea bream
108 (*Sparus aurata*) challenged with *Photobacterium damsela*e (causative agent of pasteurellosis)
109 were measured for time to death, and genotyped using 2b-RAD sequencing for ~12K SNPs
110 (Palaiokostas et al. 2016); and iv) Pacific oyster (*Crassostrea gigas*) challenged with ostreid
111 herpesvirus (OsHV-1-μvar) were measured for time to death, and genotyped using a SNP
112 array with ~27K informative Pacific oyster SNPs (Gutiérrez et al. 2019).

113 Quality control and low density SNP panel design

114 Genotypes from the four datasets were filtered with PLINK v.1.9 (Purcell et al. 2007),
115 excluding individuals with > 20 % missing genotypes, and SNPs with > 10 % missing
116 genotypes, deviating significantly from Hardy-Weinberg (p-value < 10⁻⁶) and with minor
117 allele frequencies < 0.05. A summary of the genetic marker and trait data used for the four
118 different datasets used in this study after quality control is shown in Table 1.

119 SNP panels of varying densities were tested by taking subsets of the full QC-filtered SNP
120 panel for each dataset. Panels of the following densities were tested in every species: 100,
121 200, 300, 400, 500, 600, 700, 800, 900, 1000, 1200, 1400, 1600, 1800, 2000, 2250, 2500,
122 2750, 3000, 3500, 4000, 4500 and 5000. Additionally, 6,000, 7,000 and 9,000 SNP panels
123 were tested depending on the total number of SNPs remaining after quality control (carp
124 6,000 SNPs; sea bream 7,000 SNPs; salmon and oyster 7,000 and 9,000 SNPs). The SNPs

125 for each panel were selected using two different strategies (R package CVrepGPAcalc v1.0,
126 <https://github.com/SmaragdaT/CVrep/>): i) random selection of SNPs within each
127 chromosome (or linkage group for sea bream and oyster), where the number of SNPs selected
128 from each chromosome / linkage group was proportional to its length; and ii) random
129 selection of SNPs across the genome, where SNPs were randomly chosen irrespective of their
130 genomic position. For each SNP density, five different SNP panels were selected to account
131 for potential bias arising from SNP sub-set selection.

132 **Estimation of genetic parameters**

133 Heritabilities of the measured traits in each dataset were estimated using ASReml 3.0
134 (Gilmour et al. 2014) fitting the following linear mixed model:

135
$$y = \mu + Xb + Za + e$$

136

137 where y is a vector of observed phenotypes, μ is the overall mean of phenotype records, b is
138 the vector of fixed effects, a is a vector of additive genetic effects distributed as $\sim N(0, G\sigma^2_a)$
139 where σ^2_a is the additive (genetic) variance and G is the genomic relationship matrix. X and
140 Z are the corresponding incidence matrices for fixed and additive effects, respectively, and e
141 is a vector of residuals. The identity-by-state genomic relationship matrix (G) was calculated
142 using the GenABEL R package (“gkins” function; Aulchenko et al. 2007) kinship matrix
143 (Amin et al., 2007), multiplied by two and inverted.

144 The different fixed effects included in the model for each species were i) tank (2 levels) in
145 Atlantic salmon, ii) factorial-cross group (4 levels) in carp, iii) none in sea bream, and iv)
146 tank (2 levels) in oyster.

147 **Genomic prediction**

148 The accuracy of genomic prediction was estimated by ten replicates of fivefold cross-
149 validation analysis (training set 80 %, validation set 20 %; R package CVrepGPAcalc v1.0,
150 <https://github.com/SmaragdaT/CVrep>). The phenotypes recorded in the validation population
151 were masked, and genomic best linear unbiased prediction (GBLUP) was applied to predict
152 the breeding values of the validation sets in ASReml 3.0, using the linear mixed model
153 described above. Prediction accuracy was calculated as the correlation between the predicted
154 EBVs of the validation set and the actual phenotypes divided by the square root of the
155 heritability estimated from the full dataset [$r(y_1, y_2) / \sqrt{h^2}$].

156

157 **RESULTS**

158 **Trait summary**

159 In total six traits were studied. Two traits related to Atlantic salmon resistance to AGD were
160 used, gill score (subjective values 0 - 5) and amoebic load (qPCR, Ct values), with means of
161 2.79 ± 0.85 and 31.36 ± 3.24 , respectively. The estimated genomic heritabilities values were
162 moderate for both phenotypes, $0.22 (\pm 0.04)$ for gill score and $0.24 (\pm 0.04)$ for amoebic load.
163 Two growth traits were studied in carp, length and body weight, with means of 77.01 ± 7.11
164 mm and 16.33 ± 4.58 g respectively. Length showed a skewed distribution, deviating
165 significantly from normality, and therefore was log-transformed. The heritability estimates
166 were $0.27 (\pm 0.04)$ for log-transformed length, and $0.19 (\pm 0.04)$ for carp weight. Days to
167 death were measured in pasteurellosis infected sea bream. The mean and standard deviation

168 of surviving days for sea bream was 10.40 ± 4.08 , and the heritability was $0.20 (\pm 0.06)$. The
169 same trait, days to death, was measured in oyster infected with OsHV-1- μ var. Survivors were
170 assigned a value of 8 for the variable “days to death”. The mean for this trait was 6.76 ± 1.91
171 days, and the heritability $0.49 (\pm 0.05)$.

172

173 **Table 1. Summary of the datasets.**

Species	Individuals before and after QC		SNPs before and after QC		Full-sib families	Phenotypes
<i>Cyprinus carpio</i>	1,214	1,211	12,311	6,966	195	Log length, weight
<i>Crassostrea gigas</i>	718	718	21,338	14,028	23	Days to death
<i>Salmo salar</i>	1,481	1,481	16,582	9,866	85	Gill score, amoebic load
<i>Sparus aurata</i>	777	741	12,085	7,598	73	Days to death

174

175

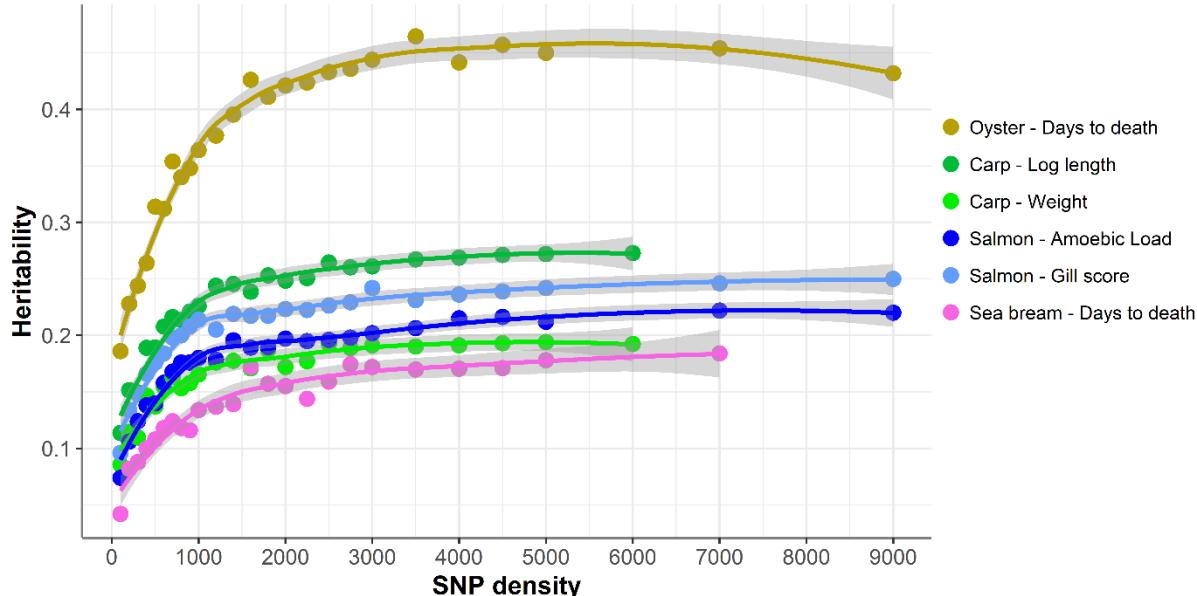
176 **Reduced SNP panel densities decrease the precision of genomic heritability estimates**

177 Low-density panels were designed from the full set of SNPs that passed the QC filters in each
178 species using two different strategies: (i) randomly selected across the genome and (ii)
179 randomly selected within chromosome. The results obtained with both selection strategies
180 were similar, therefore only the results of the panels randomly selected across the genome are
181 shown.

182 Heritabilities for the six traits were re-calculated using the reduced density SNP panels
183 (Figure 1). In general, decreasing marker density led to progressively lower heritability
184 estimates, however a clear downwards trend is only observed \sim 1000 bp onwards. The
185 heritability estimates obtained for 100 SNPs decreased to 23 to 41 % of the values obtained
186 for the full density panel, while for 200 SNPs the decrease was on average \sim 50 %.

187

188 **Figure 1. Heritability estimates using low-density panels.** The heritability was calculated
189 using a linear mixed model with the genomic relationship matrix obtained with each low-
190 density panel. For each density we used five different low-density panels, and the average of
191 the heritabilities of the five panels is shown. The trend line was calculated using a Loess
192 regression (local polynomial regression, span = 0.75), and the shadow represents the
193 confidence intervals.



194

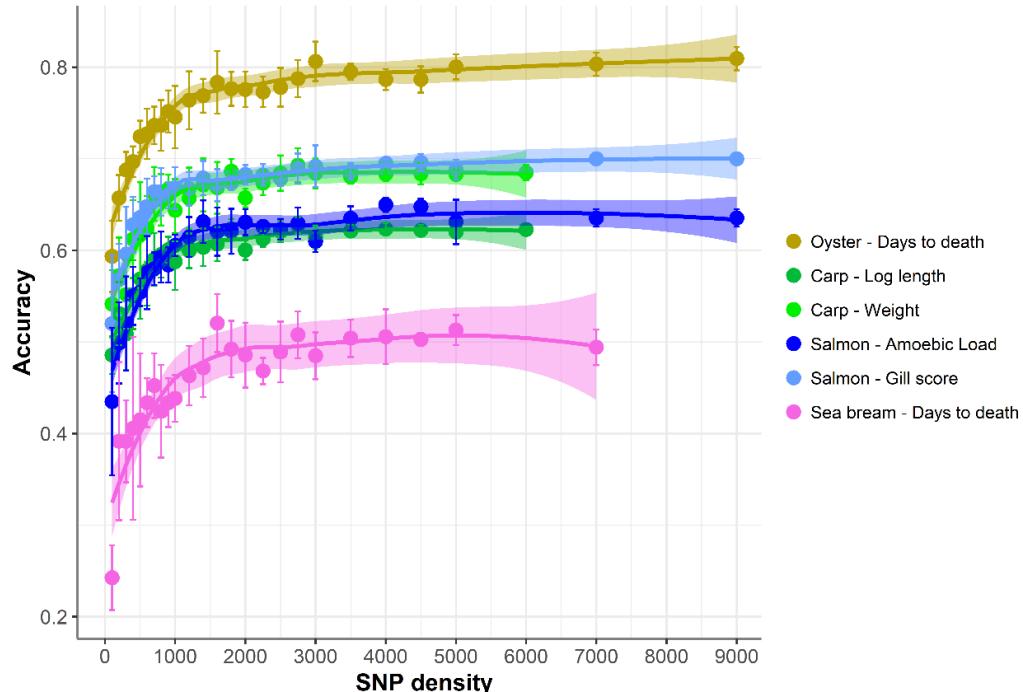
195

196 Genomic prediction using reduced SNP panels

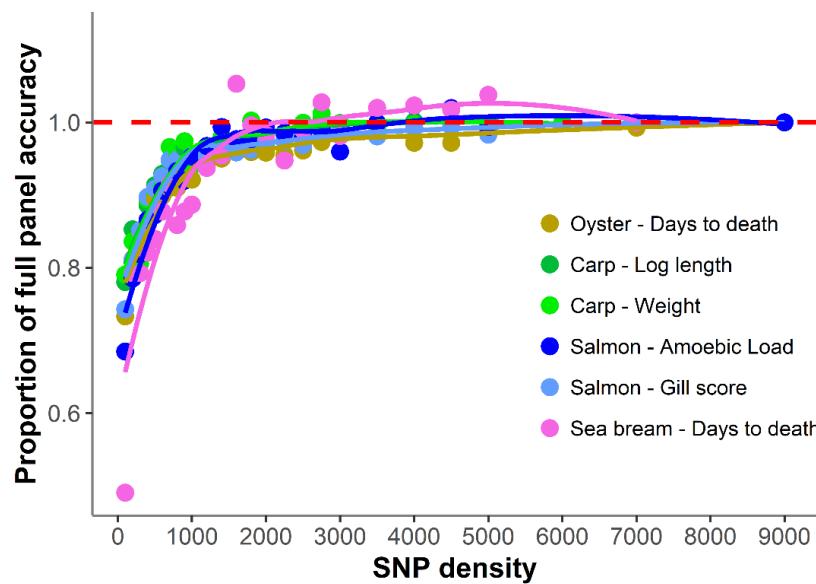
197 The accuracy of genomic selection was evaluated using ten replicates of five-fold cross-
198 validation (training set 80%, validation set 20%) for five different panels per SNP density
199 (Figure 2). Since the heritabilities decrease substantially with lower panel densities, the
200 accuracy of genomic selection for all cross-validation analyses was calculated using the
201 heritability obtained with the whole SNP panel, considered to be the most accurate
202 heritability for the trait. Genomic selection accuracy remained practically unchanged for
203 every dataset until marker density was reduced below ~ 2,000 SNPs, and a steep decrease
204 was observed only for $\leq 1,000$ SNPs. The common trend observed across the different
205 species, traits, and genotyping platforms is clearly observed by plotting the proportion of the
206 full SNP panel accuracy achieved with each low-density panel (Figure 3). Despite the
207 significant differences between datasets and traits, the genomic selection accuracies obtained
208 with low-density panels were remarkably similar. The average proportion of the full panel
209 accuracy achieved with 2,000 SNPs was 0.97, with 1,000 SNPs 0.93, and with 500 SNPs
210 0.89. With 100 SNPs the accuracy was reduced to 0.70 of that obtained with the whole
211 density panel.

212

213 **Figure 2. Genomic selection accuracy using low-density panels.** Mean accuracy and
214 standard deviation of genomic selection for five different SNP panels per density. The trend
215 line was calculated using Loess regression (local polynomial regression, span = 0.75), and the
216 shaded areas represent the confidence intervals.



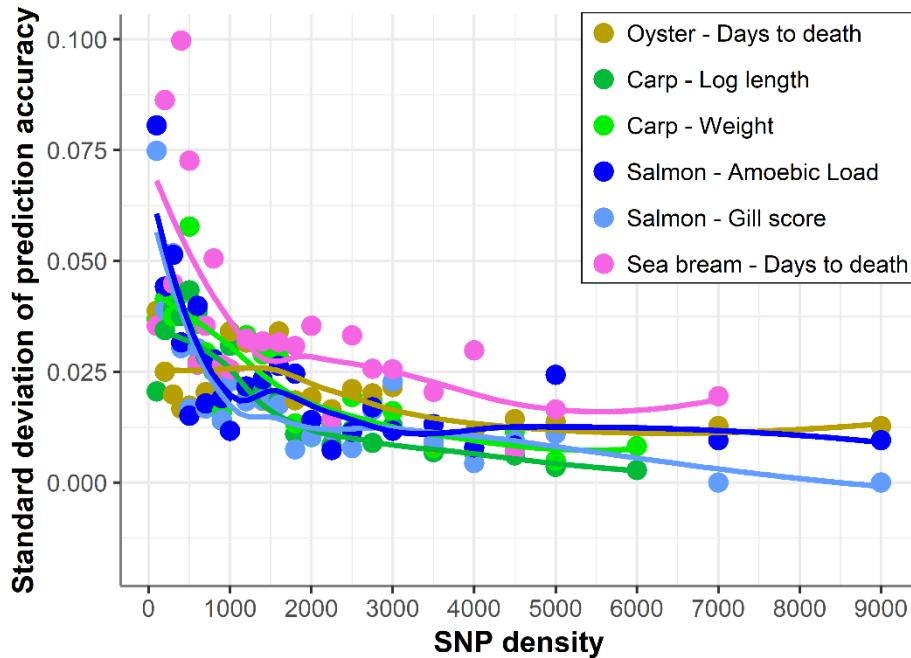
219 **Figure 3. Proportion of genomic selection accuracy achieved with low-density panels.**
220 The proportion of accuracy achieved by each SNP density was calculated by dividing the
221 mean accuracy at that density by the mean accuracy obtained using the full high density SNP
222 panels. The trend line was calculated using a Loess regression (local polynomial regression,
223 span = 0.75), and the shadow represents the confidence intervals.



226 In addition, with decreasing SNP density the differences in prediction accuracy between
227 different replicates of SNP panels of the same density increased (Figure 4). Therefore, SNP
228 selection seems to be more relevant for the design of low-density panels than for higher
229 density panels. On average, the difference between the maximum and minimum accuracies
230 achieved by 100 density SNP panels was 0.11; salmon mean gill score showed the largest
231 difference (0.19) and carp Log standard length the lowest (0.05).

232

233 **Figure 4. Standard deviation of selection accuracy using low-density panels.** Variation in
234 genomic selection accuracy across the different SNP panels of the same density. The trend
235 line was calculated using a Loess regression (local polynomial regression, span = 0.75).



236
237

238 DISCUSSION

239 Genomic selection has clear potential for improving selection accuracy and genetic gain in
240 aquaculture breeding programmes, but the cost of genotyping can be prohibitive for many
241 species and sectors. Therefore, since the price of per sample genotyping is generally
242 associated with SNP density, knowledge of the lowest SNP density at which optimal genetic
243 parameter estimation and genomic prediction can be performed is valuable. It may be
244 expected that the optimal SNP density for genomic prediction would be species, traits, and
245 genotyping platform-specific. In the current study, genotype and trait datasets from four
246 diverse aquaculture species (Atlantic salmon, common carp, gilthead sea bream, and Pacific
247 oyster), genotyped using different genotyping platforms (SNP array and RAD sequencing)
248 were evaluated to search for common patterns of the impact of reducing SNP marker density
249 on genomic prediction accuracy. The results were consistent across the different datasets,
250 suggesting that a SNP panel between 1,000 and 2,000 SNPs would be sufficient for near-
251 maximal prediction accuracy for most polygenic traits in aquaculture populations. These
252 results and their consistency are encouraging for lower-cost genotyping, and therefore
253 improved affordability of genomic selection across different species and aquaculture sectors.

254 The uniformity of the results is relatively surprising considering the notable background
255 differences between the four datasets. The trait, genotyping platform, family structure,
256 population size or genome size seem to be relatively unimportant factors for the performance
257 of low density SNP panels, since genomic prediction accuracy trends were consistent across
258 the four species. The large family sizes observed in most aquaculture species might partially
259 explain these results. The genetic distance between training and validation populations has a
260 large impact on the efficacy of genomic selection (accuracy decreases with increasing genetic
261 distance; Scutari et al. 2016; Tsai et al. 2016; Tan et al. 2017; Palaiokostas et al. 2019). The

262 underlying cause is that related individuals tend to share long haplotypes, which can be
263 accurately captured with relatively sparse numbers of SNPs; however as genetic distance
264 increases between training and validation populations haplotype length is reduced, and higher
265 density panels are required to accurately capture the genomic similarity between animals.
266 Most aquaculture species are highly fecund, and each pair of animals frequently produces
267 thousands of offspring, meaning that inclusion of multiple full and half siblings in training
268 and validation sets is common practice. Consequently, we consider that these results are
269 generally applicable to polygenic traits in most aquaculture breeding schemes where close
270 relatives of the selection candidates are routinely phenotyped.

271 Nonetheless, there will be situations where genomic prediction across generations or across
272 populations is necessary. In these scenarios the shared haplotypes between pairs of
273 individuals will be shorter, and therefore capturing genomic relatedness (if it exists; i.e.
274 relatedness between unrelated populations will be zero and therefore of no use for prediction)
275 is much more challenging and is likely to require higher SNP densities (Tsai et al. 2016). An
276 avenue to increase the accuracy of low-density panels across sets of distantly related
277 individuals could be the prioritization of variants that have a higher likelihood of directly
278 effecting the trait in question, rather than linked markers. For example, SNPs which fall in
279 genes or other genomic features with a direct biological effect on the trait of interest, and the
280 utilization of selection models that exploit biological priors (MacLeod et al. 2016). However,
281 establishing causal relations between genotypes and phenotypes is not trivial and will require
282 extensive efforts in functional annotation of genomes (e.g. Macqueen et al. 2017), and
283 collection of genotype and phenotype datasets across very large reference populations
284 (Hickey 2013). Consequently, low-density panels are not likely to be a feasible option for
285 prediction across datasets without a high degree of relationship, which would require a large
286 number of genome-wide distributed genetic markers. Nonetheless, this scenario is rare, and in
287 the ample majority of aquaculture breeding programmes full-sibs of the selection candidates
288 are routinely phenotyped.

289

290 SNP panels consisting of <1,000 SNPs show a steep decline in genomic prediction accuracy,
291 as does the estimated heritability, and the variation between replicate SNP panels of the same
292 density increases. This suggests that low density panels are not accurately capturing the
293 genetic relationship between animals, and that the performance of low-density SNP panels
294 could be highly dependent on SNP choice. While leveraging additional layers of information
295 might enable the design of high-performing low-density SNP panels, these would have to be
296 tailored to specific breeding programmes and might require substantial investment, i.e. an
297 initial large-scale genotyping effort and extensive time commitment to determine the best
298 panel, or potential functional experiments to establish marker function. Further, the
299 performance of extreme low-density panels could fluctuate across generations as allelic
300 frequencies vary. On the contrary, genotype imputation from very low-density panels (i.e.
301 100-200 SNPs) to medium density (i.e. 1 K - 5 K) might be a more generally applicable
302 strategy to achieve the optimal balance between economic cost and genetic gain. Previous
303 studies have shown the potential of imputation to achieve near-maximal accuracies in
304 aquaculture populations (Tsai et al. 2017; Yoshida et al. 2018); and a recent study by our
305 group reported that imputation from 200 (offspring) to 5,000 SNPs (parents) results in
306 selection accuracies similar to those obtained with 75K SNP panels for sea lice resistance in
307 Atlantic salmon (Tsairidou et al. 2019). In aquaculture, studies of imputation for genomic
308 selection have been limited to salmonid species to date, however it shows great potential and
309 is likely to be a staple component of modern aquaculture breeding programmes.

310

311 CONCLUSIONS

312 The patterns of loss of genomic prediction accuracy with reduced density SNP panels are
313 strikingly consistent across datasets of different aquaculture species, despite their differences
314 in population and family structure, phenotype and trait definition, and genotyping platform.
315 These results suggest that SNP densities between 1,000 and 2,000 SNPs will frequently result
316 in selection accuracies very similar to those obtained with high-density genotyping,
317 irrespectively of the specifics of the breeding programme design or population structure,
318 assuming the presence of close relatives in the training and validation sets. Further, the higher
319 variance between SNP panel replicates observed with decreasing density suggests that non-
320 random SNP selection can increase the selection accuracy of low-density panels. In summary,
321 this study suggests that low-density SNP panels offer a cost-effective solution for broadening
322 the impact of genomic selection in aquaculture, leading to improved enhanced performance of
323 stocks and improved global food security.

324

325 Data availability

326 All data used in this study has been previously published and is available in the
327 corresponding manuscripts, namely Palaiokostas et al. 2016 (Sea bream), Palaiokostas et al.
328 2018 (Carp), Robledo et al. 2018 (Atlantic salmon), and Gutiérrez et al. 2019 (Oyster).

329 Author's contributions

330 RH and DR were responsible for the concept and design of this work. CK and ST designed
331 and performed the genetic analyses. CK, RH and DR drafted the manuscript. All authors read
332 and approved the final manuscript.

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348 Conflict of Interest Statement

349 The authors declare that the submitted work was carried out in the absence of any personal,
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352

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