

CAROLINA FILARDI DE CAMPOS

**GENOMIC SELECTION FOR BOAR TAIN AND CARCASS TRAITS IN
A COMMERCIAL PIG LINE**

Dissertação apresentada à
Universidade Federal de
Viçosa, como parte das
exigências do Programa de
Pós-Graduação em
Zootecnia, para obtenção do
título de *Magister Scientiae*.

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“A gratidão é o único tesouro dos humildes.”

William Shakespeare

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BIOGRAFIA

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SUMÁRIO

RESUMO.....	vi
ABSTRACT.....	viii
CAPÍTULO1.....	1
INTRODUÇÃO.....	2
REVISÃO	3
REFERÊNCIAS.....	9
CAPÍTULO 2	15
GENOMIC SELECTION FOR BOAR TAIN T AND CARCASS TRAITS IN A COMMERCIAL PIG LINE.....	16
APÊNDICE.....	33

RESUMO

CAMPOS, Carolina Filardi de, M.Sc. Universidade Federal de Viçosa, Julho de 2012. **Seleção genômica para características relacionadas ao odor da carne e características de carcaça em uma linhagem comercial de suínos.** Orientadora: Simone Eliza Facioni Guimarães. Co-orientadores: Fabyano Fonseca e Silva e Paulo Sávio Lopes.

A partir do início do século XXI, avanços na genotipagem permitiram o desenvolvimento de novas classes de marcadores, entre os quais se destacam os polimorfismos de nucleotídeos simples (SNPs). Devido à disponibilidade desses marcadores, foi proposta a Seleção Genômica, que consiste em uma análise simultânea de um grande número de marcadores distribuídos ao longo do genoma, cujo sucesso depende do método utilizado de predição de valores genéticos genômicos. O objetivo deste estudo foi comparar os métodos RR-BLUP e LASSO Bayesiano para cálculo dos valores genéticos genômicos estimados (GEBVs) e determinar qual método apresenta resultados mais acurados para a seleção genômica em suínos. Foram genotipados 622 suínos machos não castrados para 2.500 SNPs, e fenotipados para as seguintes características: concentração de androstenona, concentração de skatol, espessura de gordura subcutânea e profundidade de lombo. Os pacotes rrBLUP e BLR do software R foram utilizados respectivamente para a implementação do método RR-BLUP e LASSO Bayesiano. As correlações genéticas entre as características foram calculadas por meio da correlação entre os vetores de GEBVs. O método LASSO Bayesiano apresentou valores mais elevados de acurácia em três características: concentração de androstenona (0,65), concentração de skatol (0,58), e profundidade de lombo (0,33), e o RR-BLUP foi mais acurado para espessura de gordura subcutânea (0,61). As correlações genéticas calculadas, mostram que existe uma pequena correlação genética entre espessura de gordura subcutânea e profundidade de lombo (0,03). Entre as concentrações de androstenona e skatol também existe correlação genética (0,24) que é consistente com os resultados de outros estudos. Assim, com relação às estimativas de efeitos de marcadores, para todas as características os

picos encontrados estão em regiões onde se encontram QTLs relatados no PIGQTLdatabase e em outros estudos.

ABSTRACT

CAMPOS, Carolina Filardi de, M.Sc. Universidade Federal de Viçosa, July 2012. **Genomic selection for boar taint and carcass traits in a commercial pig line.** Adviser: Simone Eliza Facioni Guimarães. Co-advisers: Fabyano Fonseca e Silva and Paulo Sávio Lopes.

From the beginning of the century, advances in genotyping enabled the development of new classes of markers, among which stand out single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs). Due to the availability of these markers it has been proposed genomic selection, consisting of simultaneous analysis of large number of markers distributed throughout the genome; its success depends on the method used for prediction of genomic breeding values. The objective of this study was to compare the methods RR-BLUP and Bayesian LASSO to calculate estimated genomic breeding values (GEBVs) and also to determine which method provides more accurate results for genomic selection in pigs. A total of 622 boars were genotyped for 2,500 SNPs, and phenotyped for the following traits: concentration of androstenone, concentration of skatole, backfat thickness and loin depth. The R software packages rrBLUP and BLR were used respectively for the implementation of the RR-BLUP method and Bayesian LASSO method. Genetic correlations between the traits were calculated by the correlation between the vectors of GEBVs. The Bayesian LASSO method reached higher accuracy values in three traits: concentration of androstenone (0.65), concentration of skatole (0.58) and loin depth (0.33), and RR-BLUP was more accurate (0.61) for backfat thickness. Genetic correlations calculated, show that exists a small genetic correlation (0.03) between backfat thickness and loin depth. Between the concentrations of androstenone and skatole also exists a genetic correlation (0.24) that is consistent with results from other studies. Thus, concerning to the estimates of effects of markers, for all traits the found peaks were in regions where are reported QTLs in PIGQTL database and other studies.

CHAPTER 1

1. INTRODUCTION

Traditional genetic breeding, using information on phenotypes and pedigrees to predict breeding values, has been used over the years successfully. In contrast, the marker-assisted selection (MAS) emerged with the aim of improving accuracy of these values, but implementation has been limited and increases in genetic gain have been small (Dekkers 2004). Trying to solve some problems as the fact that the polygenic effect depends on the linkage disequilibrium and on the confidence interval of the QTL, Meuwissen et al. (2001) proposed a different approach, the genomic selection. One justification for molecular genetics research on livestock and crop species is the expectation that information at the DNA level will lead to faster genetic gain than that achieved, based on phenotypic data only.

Genomic selection refers to selection decisions based on estimated genomic breeding values (GEBVs) which are calculated as the sum of the effects of genetic dense markers or haplotypes of these markers in the whole genome, trying to capture all the quantitative trait loci (QTL) contributing to the variation of the characteristic (Hayes & Goddard, 2008). The large number of markers required and the cost of genotyping were the limitations to genomic selection (Goddard & Hayes, 2007), but nowadays these problems are solved as most species have thousands of single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNP) genotyped. In the pig, for instance, significant progress on genetics and genomics research has been achieved in recent years due to the integration of advanced molecular biology techniques, bioinformatics and computational biology, and the collaborative efforts of researchers in the swine genomics community (Fan et al., 2011).

The central process of the genomic selection is the calculation of GEBVs for individuals having only genotypic data using a model that was trained from individuals presenting both phenotypic and genotypic data. The population with both phenotypic and genotypic data is known as the training population as it is used to estimate model parameters that will

subsequently be used to calculate GEBVs of selection candidates (Meuwissen et al., 2001).

According to Soldberg et al. (2009) several methods have been suggested to estimate marker effects in the prediction of the estimated genomic breeding values for Genomic Selection like ridge regression BLUP (RR-BLUP) and Bayesian methods, in which a separate variance is estimated for each marker, and the variances are assumed to follow a specified prior distribution (Meuwissen et al., 2001).

2. REVIEW

2.1 Carcass traits

Carcass traits are very important for the development of pig industry, especially those related to higher meat yield and lower fat deposition (Pires et al., 2006). Taking this into account, several studies were developed with the aim of identifying QTL related to carcass traits in pigs (Vidal et al., 2005; Stearns et al., 2005, Silva et al., 2009).

Due to the large number of carcass traits such as backfat thickness in different regions, quality prime cuts (depth and loin eye area), classification systems and others, the direct application of multivariate models for QTL detection can be frustrated due to convergence problems (singularity of matrices of (co) variances of random effects) and interpretation of results. Therefore, multivariate methods related to the size reduction of the number of variables present as an important statistical tool to encourage the analysis of QTL. Two of these techniques have been used successfully for detection of QTL in pigs: major components (Stearns et al., 2005) and factor analysis (Silva et al., 2009).

2.2 Boar taint traits

Boar taint is defined as a sexual odor, especially noticeable during cooking and tasting, present in uncastrated male pigs. It is widely associated with higher concentrations of androstenone and skatole inside the carcass. Castration prevents sexual odor, but not castrated males have improved feed efficiency, nitrogen retention and lean tissue gain compared

with castrated males, which could result in significant economic gains for producers(Lundström et al., 2009).In addition, several European Union countries will ban surgical castration in the coming years (even with anesthesia) and some of the leading traders in the Netherlands have decided not to sell meat from barrows(Squires &Schenkel, 2010).

Two promising alternatives to deal with boar taint is the use of an immunocastration vaccine (Pauly et al., 2009) and the use of genetic markers to select pigs which have reduced propensity to produce sexual odor(Varona et al. 2005, Moe et al. 2009, Duijvesteijn et al., 2010).

2.3 Pig Breeding

Pork is the most consumed meat in the world, rich in essential nutrients, contributing to achieving a balanced diet. It has softness and flavor characteristics, and a source of vitamins and minerals, but also of proteins of high biological value (as it has all the essential amino acids) and high digestibility (MAGNONI, 2007). In Brazil, the pork industry has undergone numerous advances in recent years. Technologies such as artificial insemination, breeding, biosecurity, health, nutrition, among others, have been increasingly incorporated in pig farms, contributing to the growth of the herd and increase productivity (Miele, 2007). The Brazilian pork market is very important for economic and social development of many cities, generating jobs in the field, in industry, trade and services besides the fact that the country is the fourth largest world exporter(<http://www.abipecs.org.br>)(2012).Moreover, the wide variety of products originated from pigs and used in human medicine, and especially the use of organs such as skin and heart valves for transplantation, should be interpreted as a result of the similarity between human and pigorganisms.

To date, most genetic progress for quantitative traits in pigs has been made by selection on phenotype or on estimates of breeding values (EBV) derived from phenotype, without knowledge of the number of genes that affect the trait or the effects of each gene (Dekkers and Rothschild, 2007).

In contrast of the use of phenotypes for selection of the individuals, many theoretical studies have been conducted over the past several decades to evaluate strategies for the use of molecular genetic information in selection programs. The extra responses to selection have resulted in great optimism for the use of molecular genetic information in industry breeding programs (Dekkers, 2004). The marker-assisted selection was initiated and was the first tool proposed for the inclusion of information from some major genes or QTLs in non-biased linear prediction (BLUP) of breeding values (Lund et al., 2009).

Thus, it became possible to add functional genomics to a range of options available for understanding the molecular basis of pork quality. With the marker associated with variation in the trait of interest, it can be used for pre-selection of young animals prior to performance testing (Plastow et al., 2005).

2.4 Genomic Selection

The selection for quantitative traits of economic importance in animals and plants is traditionally based on phenotypic measures of the individual and their relatives (Meuwissen et al., 2001). Breeding values, based on these phenotypic data, are commonly calculated by non-biased linear prediction (BLUP, Henderson 1984). The inclusion of marker information into BLUP for breeding values was demonstrated by Fernando and Grossman (1989) and was predicted to provide 8-38% extra genetic gain (Meuwissen and Goddard, 1996).

Whereas DNA polymorphisms are the sources of variation in genetic merit, SNP markers in linkage disequilibrium with QTL can be used as additional criteria for identifying individuals who are candidates for selection, which would increase the accuracy in genetic evaluation.

Recently, the massive individual genomic information become increasingly abundant for livestock, with dozens or hundreds of thousands of markers (Goddard & Hayes, 2007). The availability of this information has encouraged the development of models that use it not for individual

identification of QTL, which according to Dekkers(2004) presents several practical problems, but rather to assist and directly improve the prediction of breeding value for traits of interest. This approach has become feasible due to the large number of SNPs discovered by genome sequencing and new methods to efficiently genotype a large number of SNPs (Goddard, 2009). These markers in disequilibrium with the QTL, presenting both large and small effects, explain almost the entire genetic variation of a quantitative character (Resende et al., 2008).

Meuwissen et al. (2001) proposed a variant of MAS called genomic selection. The key features of this method are that markers covering the whole genome are used so that potentially all the genetic variance is explained by markers. Predictions using genomic selection are based on associations between markers and not for pedigree information, the requirement to have phenotypes in the selection candidates or their close relatives is diminished and a breeding value can be obtained by available genotypes (Lund et al., 2009). This is also excellent for characters of low heritability (Resende et al., 2008).

2.5 Methods for genomic selection

The challenge of genomic selection is to identify the most powerful statistical method to predict phenotype values through markers effect estimates. Up until now several studies (Moser et al., 2009; Heslot et al., 2012) have been conducted in order to compare the efficiency of simple methods, like the RR-BLUP (Random Regression BLUP) proposed by Meuwissen et al. (2001), with most sophisticated ones, like Bayesian LASSO (BL) proposed by de los Campos et al. (2009).

The main difference between these two very popular methods for genomic selection is that the first assumes a priori that all loci explain an equal amount of genetic variation, while the second assume that each locus explains its own amount of variation.

The model for the method of RR-BLUP proposed by Meuwissen et al. (2001):

$$y_i = \mu + \sum_{k=1}^m x_{ik}\beta_k + e_i$$

where μ is the general mean, β_k is the effect of marker k and e_i is the residual term, $e_i \sim N(0, \sigma_e^2)$. In this model, x_{ik} is the indicator function that take the values 1, 0, -1 for the SNP genotypes AA, Aa and aa at each loci, respectively. In this method, which β_k is considered a random marker effect, $\beta_k \sim N(0, \sigma_{\beta_k}^2)$ assuming that $\sigma_{\beta_1}^2 = \sigma_{\beta_2}^2 = \dots = \sigma_{\beta_{2500}}^2 = \sigma_{\beta}^2$ (i.e. all loci explain an equal amount of the genetic variation). This method can be implemented in the R software (R Development Core Team, 2011) by package *rrBLUP* (Endelman, 2011) using the function *mixed.solve*, which solves a mixed model equation of the form:

$$\begin{bmatrix} N & \mathbf{1}' \\ \mathbf{1} & I + \sigma_e [\text{var}(\mathbf{u})]^{-1} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \hat{\mu} \\ \hat{\mathbf{u}} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{1}'\mathbf{y} \\ \mathbf{y} \end{bmatrix}$$

where $\mathbf{u} = \sum_{k=1}^{2500} X_k \beta_k$ is the vector of genomic breeding values. Thus, admitting the additive genetic variance σ_a^2 is given by $\sigma_a^2 = \sigma_{\beta}^2 \sum_{k=1}^{2500} 2p_k(1 - p_k)$ (Habier et al., 2007) it is demonstrated that:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{var}(\mathbf{u}) &= \text{var}\left(\sum_{k=1}^{2500} X_k \beta_k\right) = \sum_{k=1}^{2500} \text{var}(X_k \beta_k) = \sum_{k=1}^{2500} X_k X_k' \sigma_{\beta}^2 = \sigma_a^2 \left(\frac{\sum_{k=1}^{2500} X_k X_k'}{\sum_{k=1}^{2500} 2p_k(1 - p_k)}\right) \\ &= \sigma_a^2 G \end{aligned}$$

being G the so called genomic relationship matrix. In this way, it is possible to work under the well-known Henderson's mixed model equation using REML (Henderson, 1984) estimation method, and the heritability calculated directly

$$\text{by } h^2 = \sigma_a^2 / (\sigma_a^2 + \sigma_e^2).$$

Since $\hat{\mathbf{u}} = \sum_{k=1}^{2500} X_k \hat{\beta}_k = X \hat{\beta}$ with $X = [X_1 | X_2 | \dots | X_{2500}]_{622 \times 2500}$ and $\hat{\beta} = [\hat{\beta}_1, \hat{\beta}_2, \dots, \hat{\beta}_{2500}]'_{2500 \times 1}$ the estimated marker effects vector can be obtained by the simple normal equation system $\hat{\beta} = (X'X)^{-1}(X'\hat{\mathbf{u}})$.

The Bayesian regression (Meuwissen et al., 2001) was used to solve multicollinearity problems and may also be used in situations where there

are more markers (covariates) than observations. An interesting approach is the use of the LASSO (*Least Absolute Shrinkage and Selection Operator*) regression method, which combines good features of subset-selection (i.e., variable selection) and regularization via shrinkage of the regression coefficients. This method was applied in GWS by de los Campos et al. (2009) and ever since, the success of this methodology has been reported by de los Campos et al. (2009) and Mutshinda & Sillanpää (2010).

The Bayesian LASSO method (de los Campos et al. 2009), which is a more general method, because allows assuming that each locus explains its own amount of this variation, and furthermore, has been used to solve multicollinearity problems and may also be used to work in situations where there are more markers (covariates) than observations. The Bayesian LASSO is a penalized Bayesian regression procedure, whose general estimator is given by $\hat{\beta} = \operatorname{argmin}_{\beta} \{(\hat{y} - X\beta)'(\hat{y} - X\beta) + \lambda \sum_{k=1}^m |\beta_k|\}$, where λ is the regularization parameter. When $\lambda = 0$ there is no regularization, and when $\lambda > 0$ there is a shrinkage of the marker effects toward zero with the possibility of setting some identically equal to zero, resulting in a simultaneous estimation and variable selection procedure. The package BLR (de los Campos et al., 2009; Pérez et al., 2010) of R software was used, which assumes that the joint prior distribution of marker effects $(\beta_1, \beta_2, \dots, \beta_m)$ is $\prod_{k=1}^m N(0, \sigma_{\beta_k}^2)$, being $\sigma_{\beta_k}^2 = \sigma_e^2 \tau_k^2$, where σ_e^2 is the residual variance, with scale inverse X^2 prior distribution, and τ_k^2 the scale parameter related to each marker. In turn, the BLR assumes also that the joint prior distribution for the scale parameters $(\tau_1^2, \tau_2^2, \dots, \tau_m^2)$ is the product of Exponential distributions, $\prod_{k=1}^m \operatorname{Exp}(\lambda)$, and the λ prior distribution is Gamma(v_1, v_2).

Once the Bayesian LASSO provides the posterior mean ($\hat{\beta}_k$) as marker effect estimates, the vector of genomic estimated breeding values (GEBVs) was obtained as $\hat{u} = \sum_{k=1}^m X_k \hat{\beta}_k = X\hat{\beta}$.

These estimates and the mean $\hat{\mu}$ were obtained using the BLR package (Bayesian Linear Regression) available in the R software (R Development Core Team, 2011). The Bayesian implementation of LASSO regression contained in this package was adapted for genomic selection by de los Campos et al. (2010).

2.6 Cross-validation

The technique of Jack-knife consists on dividing the training population, which have marker and phenotype information for all the individuals (Resende et al., 2010), in different validation sets each time without the phenotype of a specific individual. In these analyses, the predicted genomic breeding value of animal i can be calculated by $\hat{u}_i = X_i \hat{\beta}_{-i}$, where X_i denotes the SNP genotype vector of animal i and $\hat{\beta}_{-i}$ denotes the estimated marker effects vector from the analysis that considered all animals, except the animal i . The vector containing all predicted values is $\hat{u} = [\hat{u}_1, \dots, \hat{u}_{622}]$, and the accuracy (r) used to measure the efficiency of RR-BLUP and BL was given by $r = r_{y\hat{u}}/\sqrt{h^2}$, where $r_{y\hat{u}}$ is the correlation between observed phenotype y and \hat{u} , and h^2 is the estimated heritability from fitting each method to the full dataset.

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CHAPTER 2

Genomic selection for boar taint and carcass traits in a commercial pig line¹

ABSTRACT:The present study aimed to compare two different methods (RR-BLUP and Bayesian LASSO) and also to determine which method provides more accurate results for genomic selection in a pig line considering two boar taint traits, concentration of androstenone (andro) and concentration of skatole (ska) and two carcass traits, backfat thickness (fat) and loin depth (loin). A total of 622 boars from the same farm were genotyped for 2,500 SNPs selected, non informative markers with minor allele frequency (MAF) <0.05 and call rate < 0.95 at least. The estimated genomic breeding values (GEBVs) and their accuracy based on Jack-knife cross-validation were calculated in both methods using the R software (packages rrBLUP and BLR). The Bayesian LASSO method reached values of accuracy respectively equal to 0.65, 0.58 and 0.33 for andro, ska and loin, and heritabilities equal to 0.46, 0.26 and 0.08. RR-BLUP accuracy was equal to 0.61 and heritability equal to 0.32 for fat. The genetic correlations estimates between the four traits were computed by the correlations between the GEBVs vectors. These estimates were 0.24, 0.03 respectively between andro and ska, and fat and loin. Due to the fact that the Bayesian LASSO has been more accurate for three traits when compared with RR-BLUP, it was possible to conclude that the genomic selection of the animals could be made with higher accuracy using this method.

Keywords: accuracy; breeding; genotype; genetic correlation; heritability

¹ Article written in the Livestock Science Journal format

INTRODUCTION

Most of the progress obtained in quantitative traits has been due to selection based on phenotypes or by estimation of genetic value of derived phenotype. However, with the development of the biotechnology molecular markers became available, mainly single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs), enabling the proposal genome wide selection (GWS) (Meuwissen et al., 2001), which consists of the simultaneous analysis of large number of markers widely distributed throughout the genome.

In the pig, studies are still being developed in this context, like Ramos et al. (2009) that idealize a high density porcine SNP genotyping Beadchip using the next generation sequencing technologies for the mass identification of genetic variation, including identification of SNPs in regions of the genome that have not been previously sequenced. Harlizius et al. (2011) presented a set of SNPs for paternal identification aiming to reduce the costs of trait recording. Duijvesteijn et al. (2010) presented an association study to find out SNPs associated with androstenone, which together with skatole represent the major components related to boar taint. Furthermore, Ramos et al. (2011) reported another association study to identify SNPs related to skatole levels in the pig carcass.

Evaluation of the quality of a model for prediction of genomic breeding values is typically done using cross-validation technique (Pérez-Cabal et al., 2012), which has been shown to be useful to evaluate predictive ability and it is widely used (Goddard and Hayes, 2007). However, due to varying degrees of relationships in animal breeding applications is difficult to obtain independent training and testing sets. In this context, the manner in which training–testing partitions is constructed has an important effect on cross-validation results, and the level of relatedness among individuals is a factor (Pérez-Cabal et al., 2010). Some studies have already investigated the impact of genetic relationships among animals in the cross-validation design on the accuracy of predictions (Pérez-Cabal et al., 2010).

Boar taint is the undesirable smell and taste of pork meat derived from some entire male pigs. The main causes of boar taint are the two compounds androstenone and skatole (Gregersen et al., 2012). Genomic selection for the traits concentration of androstenone, concentration of skatole, backfat thickness and loin depth (carcass traits) has not yet been proposed.

The aim of the present study was to compare the methods RR-BLUP and Bayesian LASSO to calculate estimated genomic breeding values (GEBVs), and to determine which method provides more accurate results for the genomic selection for boar taint and carcass traits in the pig.

MATERIAL AND METHODS

Animals and phenotype collection

The field experiment was conducted strictly in a white commercial line with the Dutch law on the protection of animals. In the present study, 622 boars from a farm in the Netherlands were phenotyped for the following traits: concentration of androstenone and concentration of skatole, backfat thickness (HGP backfat), loin depth (HGP loin).

For measurements of backfat thickness and loin depth, Hennessy Grading Probe (HGP) was used. The generated profiles were scanned to identify tissue interfaces, from which phenotypic measurements were produced according to the site (<http://www.hennessy-technology.com/grading.html>). Samples were taken from the fat of the neck of the animal carcass left side, then samples were stored under vacuum at -20 °C, till the date of phenotypic analysis, when concentrations of androstenone and skatole were measured. More information about the collection and phenotype processing are found in Duijvesteijn et al. (2010).

The phenotypic values for concentration of androstenone and skatole were not normally distributed, hence they were subjected to a logarithmic transformation, as described by Duijvesteijn et al. (2010) and Ramos et al. (2011).

SNPs selection

According to the methodology used by Lopes (2011), 2,500 SNPs represent an optimal number for the estimation of genomic relatedness. So that, this was the number of SNPs used in this study for the calculations of estimated genomic breeding values (GEBVs). The SNPs were distributed throughout the chromosomes, with an average of 131 SNPs per chromosome and an average distance between the SNPs equal to 1,038Kb.

Computation of estimated genomic breeding values (GEBVs)

Two methods for genomic selection were used in the study to calculate the estimated genomic breeding values (GEBVs): the ridge regression BLUP (RR-BLUP) and Bayesian LASSO, both using the Rsoftware (R Development Core Team, 2011).

For the ridge regression BLUP (RR-BLUP), Meuwissen et al. (2001), the model used was:

$$y = 1\mu + \sum_j X_i g_i + e$$

where y is the vector of phenotypes, 1 is the same vector y with dimension of all the inputs equal to 1, μ is the average of the parameter evaluated, g_i is the SNP marker effect ($i = 1, 2, \dots, p$), X_i is the incidence matrix of each marker i , and e is the vector of residuals of the model that considers random effects of the markers with normal distribution and homogeneous variance. This variance as the residual variance, is considered unknown and can be estimated along with the effects of the markers by solving equations of mixed models via Restricted Maximum Likelihood method (REML). The following general linear mixed model is adjusted to estimate the effects of markers:

$$y = Wb + Xg + e$$

Where: y is a vector of phenotypic observations, b is a vector of fixed effects, g is the vector of effects of the markers assumed to be random and e refers to the vector of random errors. W and X are the incidence matrices for b and g , respectively. The incidence matrix contains the values 0, 1 and

2, respectively, for aa, Aa and AA. Thus, the mixed model equations to predict GEBVs by the method RR-BLUP are equal to:

$$\begin{bmatrix} W'W & W'X \\ X'W & X'X + I \frac{\sigma_e^2}{(\sigma_g^2/n)} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \hat{b} \\ \hat{g} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} W'y \\ X'y \end{bmatrix}$$

Where: σ_g^2 refers to the genetic variance of the trait, σ_e^2 refers to the residual variance and n is function of the total number of markers weighted by its allele frequencies, given by $n = 2 \sum_i p_i (1 - p_i)$ where p_i is the allele frequency of the allele i . In this method it is assumed that each locus explains $(1/n)\sigma_g^2$, meaning that equal parts of the genetic variance are attributable to all loci. Furthermore, the estimated genomic breeding value (GEBV) of the individual j is given by:

$$GEBV_j = \hat{y}_j = \hat{\mu} + \sum_i x_{ij} \hat{g}_i = \hat{\mu} + x_{1j} \hat{g}_1 + x_{2j} \hat{g}_2 + \dots + x_{pj} \hat{g}_p$$

Where: $\hat{\mu}$ is the average of the population, x_{ij} refers to the incidence matrix of each marker i , \hat{g}_i is the vector of SNP marker effect.

For the RR-BLUP method, it was used the `rrBLUP` package (Endelman, 2011) via `mixed.solve` function.

The regression LASSO (Least Absolute Shrinkage and Selection Operator, Tibshirani, 1996), combines variable selection and regularization via shrinkage of the regression coefficients. The implementation of Bayesian LASSO regression (Park & Casella, 2008) was adapted for genomic selection by de Los Campos et al. (2009). In this adaptation, information from relatives and other covariates that do not suffer the effect of regularization are considered in the model. For this last method the R package `BLR` (de Los Campos, 2010) was used. The Bayesian LASSO is a penalized Bayesian regression procedure (Silva et al., 2011), whose general estimator is given by the following equation where λ is the regularization parameter.

$$\hat{g} = \underset{\beta}{\operatorname{argmin}} \left\{ (\hat{y} - Xg)'(\hat{y} - Xg) + \lambda \sum_{k=1}^m |g_k| \right\}$$

When $\lambda = 0$ there is no regularization, and when $\lambda > 0$ there is a shrinkage of the marker effects toward zero with the possibility of setting some identically equal to zero, resulting in a simultaneous estimation and variable selection procedure. When this last parameter is equal to zero, there is no adjustment. In the Bayesian LASSO, this parameter controls the precision of prior distribution assigned to the regression coefficients.

For both methods, hot carcass weight was used as a linear covariate for backfat thickness and loin depth. For the concentrations of androstenone and skatole, hot carcass weight and age were used as linear covariates. A fixed effect for all traits, contemporary groups were used (month and year of slaughter).

Cross-validation

The training population consisted of 622 animals and the validation population consisted of its subgroups, using the technique of Jack-knife where the predicted genomic breeding value of animal i was calculated by $\hat{u}_i = X_i \hat{\beta}_{-i}$, where X_i denotes the SNP genotype vector of animal i and $\hat{\beta}_{-i}$ denotes the estimated marker effects vector from the analysis that considered all animals, except the animal i . The vector containing all predicted values was $\hat{u} = [\hat{u}_1, \dots, \hat{u}_{622}]$, which was used to calculate the accuracy (Resende Júnior et al., 2012), by the following equation:

$$r = r_{y\hat{u}} / \sqrt{h^2}$$

where: r is the accuracy, $r_{y\hat{u}}$ is the Pearson's correlation between the phenotypes of the animals and the predicted GEBVs calculated disregarding their phenotype and taking into account the genomic kinship with animals from the training population and $\sqrt{h^2}$ is the square root of the heritability of the trait.

Heritability and correlations

The heritability of each trait was calculated with the following equation:

$$h^2 = \hat{v}_a / (\hat{v}_a + \hat{v}_e)$$

where: h^2 is the heritability, \hat{v}_a is the estimated additive genetic variance calculated by $v_a = \sum_{i=1}^{2500} 2p_i(1-p_i)\sigma_{\beta_i}^2$ assuming that in RR-BLUP method $\sigma_{\beta_i}^2$ is constant and Bayesian LASSO method has one variance for each marker, and \hat{v}_e is the estimated residual variance.

The genetic correlations across the four traits were computed by their Spearman's correlation of the GEBVs in the most accurate method (RR-BLUP or Bayesian LASSO).

The correlation across the effects of the markers were calculated also by the Spearman's correlation of the vectors effects of each trait in the best method.

The effects of the markers were distributed throughout the chromosomes for each trait and Manhattan plots were built with package gap in the R software.

RESULTS

The accuracy of the methods was used to support the choice of the best one for genomic selection. For three traits, the Bayesian LASSO reached higher accuracy than RR-BLUP method. For the traits: concentration of androstenone (andro), concentration of skatole (ska) backfat thickness and loin depth (loin) the accuracy values with the Bayesian LASSO were equal to 0.65, 0.58, 0.56 and 0.33, respectively, in contrast of the RR-BLUP that reached the values of accuracy 0.63, 0.57, 0.61 and 0.26, for the four traits respectively.

The heritability of each trait was calculated considering the estimated additive genetic variance computed using the allele frequencies and the estimated residual variance. The values of the heritabilities are presented in Table 1, on its diagonal. Genetic correlations across the four traits were computed by the Spearman's correlation of the GEBVs of the traits in the best method and the outcome is shown above the diagonal of

Table 1. The correlations between the effects of the markers were calculated by the Spearman's correlation of the vectors of effects of each trait in the best method and the results are shown below the diagonal of Table 1.

Table 1. Heritabilities on the diagonal, genetic correlations on the upper, right triangle and correlations of estimated effects on the lower left triangle.

	T1	T2	T3	T4
T1	0,46	0,24 (p<0,01)	-0,01 (p>0,05)	-0,02 (p>0,05)
T2	0,36 (p<0,01)	0,26	0,03 (p>0,05)	-0,13 (p>0,05)
T3	0,10 (p<0,01)	0,03 (p>0,05)	0,32	0,03 (p>0,05)
T4	-0,09 (p<0,01)	-0,07 (p<0,01)	0,01 (p>0,05)	0,10

T1= concentration of androstenone; T2= concentration of skatole;
T3= backfat thickness; T4= loin depth.

The effects of the markers were distributed throughout the chromosomes for the traits and Manhattan plots were built in the R software and it can be seen in Figure 1 and Figure 2.

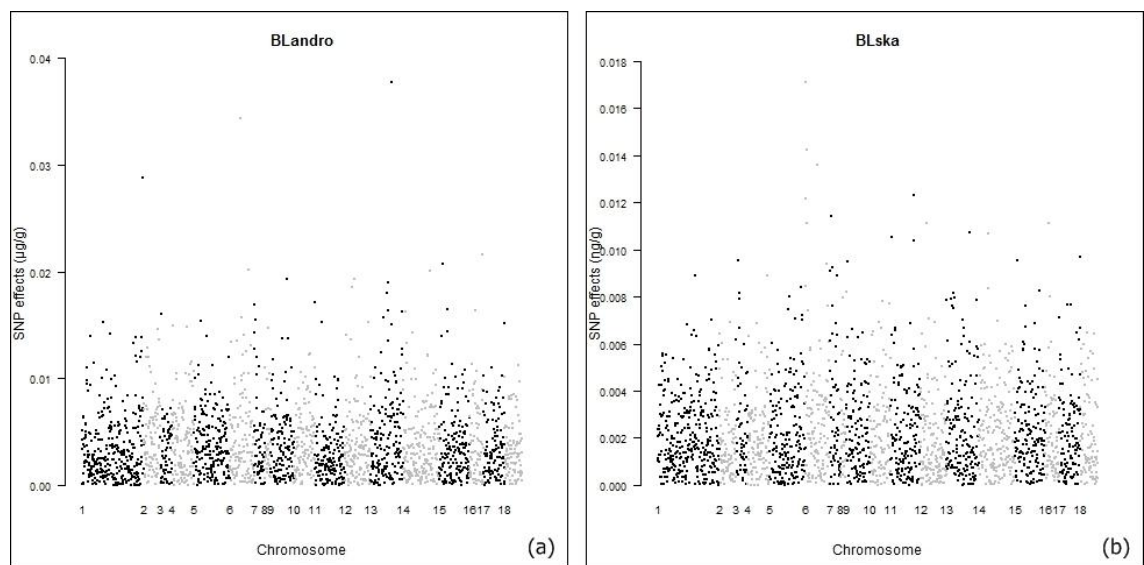


Figure 1. Distribution and plot of effects of the markers in boar taint traits:

(a) concentration of androstenone, (b) concentration of skatole.

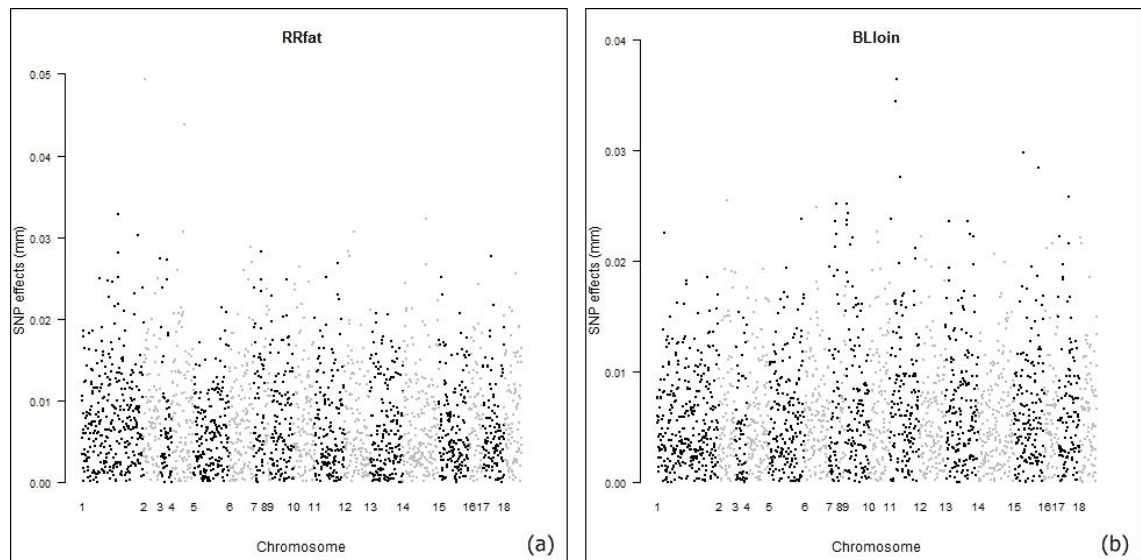


Figure 2. Distribution and plot of effects of the markers in carcass traits: (a) backfat thickness, (b) loin depth.

DISCUSSION

Heritability plays an important role in the study of quantitative traits, as it expresses the proportion of total variance that is attributable to differences of breeding values (Falconer & Mackay, 1996). It measures the degree of correspondence between phenotype and genetic value. Since the value of heritability depends on the magnitude of all components of variance, a change in any of the components may affect it (Falconer & Mackay, 1996). Analyzing backfat thickness, the heritability estimate in this study is consistent with estimates found in the literature by van Wijk et al. (2005), in which the population was very similar with the population in this study, using traditional restricted maximum likelihood (REML) and they observed a value of 0.45, but one thing that should be considered that values found in other populations under other circumstances will be the same according to similarity of the structure of the population and environmental conditions. For loin depth, the heritability value found in this study is in accordance with the value of 0.13 found in a work done by Wijk et al. (2005). In the case of boar taint traits, the value found for heritability of androstenone concentration is consistent with the estimates

ranging from 0.25 to 0.88 according to Selier et al. (2000) and 0.54 reported by Windig et al. (2012). Lower heritabilities have been reported for skatole concentration, between 0.19, 0.41 and 0.55 found respectively by Pederson (1998), Windig et al. (2012) and Tajet et al. (2006). The value found in this study agrees with them. It is worth of mentioning, that all reported studies used only phenotypic data for the estimations.

In the current study, the values of accuracy are consistent with the values reported by Resende et al. (2008) in a simulation study, that showed accuracies ranging from 0.71 to 0.95 for a training population containing 100 and 1,000 individuals, respectively. The accuracy of the genomic selection depends on the factors: heritability of the trait, number of loci controlling the trait and distribution of their effects, number of individuals in the training population, effective size of the population and spacing between markers (Hayes et al., 2009). Considering the third factor, in the present study, as the validation and the training populations were the same, despite the small size of the population and the high kinship across the animals due to their same origin, the value of accuracy of the methods could have been affected by that, moreover, the accuracy could be raised up, increasing the number of individuals. Opportunities for increasing genetic gain through MAS on a given QTL differ depending on whether the QTL is marked by LE, LD, or direct markers. (Dekkers, 2004). Taking into account that in this study, the 2,500 SNPs were in LE between each other, but the linkage between the markers and the QTLs were unknown, if a larger number of markers was used in the analysis, it was expected an increase of accuracy, once the reduction on the markers distance would enhance the chance of a marker being in LD with the QTL.

In relation to methods comparisons, the Bayesian LASSO showed higher accuracy values than RR-BLUP for all evaluated phenotypes, indicating that in a real data set with known larger effect for one locus, really the Bayesian LASSO property of to assume different variance for markers ensures a higher genomic selection efficiency. Furthermore, even though the both methods presented overprediction, once the regression coefficient estimates between observed and predicted phenotypes were

slightly higher than unit, these coefficients from Bayesian LASSO method were most close to unit for all phenotypes, providing a low bias in comparison with RR-BLUP. These results are in agreement with those obtained by Ogutu et al. (2012), which using a simulated data set, indicated that LASSO type regressions were more efficient than RR-BLUP for genomic selection, since provided more accurate and less biased predictions.

Although there is no comparison between regression penalized and RR-BLUP breeding pigs, the higher accuracy of LASSO has been reported in other studies Ogutu et al. (2012).

The genomic selection for boar taint traits becomes viable due to the fact that castration of male piglets is a practice that has been banned in some countries because of welfare concerns and reduction of feed conversion efficiency as well as in carcass trait values (Claus et al., 1994). In the near future, if uncastrated males will be finished, boar taint traits need to be prevented (Duijvestijn et al., 2010). The possibility of increasing the number of markers and consequently the accuracy, genomic selection can be an alternative to the costly determination of boar taint compounds.

It is known that the quantitative traits can be controlled by a large number of genes with minor effects, and thus having polygenic effect or by genes with minor and major effects, the effect of including or ignoring the polygenic effect on the accuracy of total genomic breeding values must be considered, as described by Calus & Veerkamp (2007) and the importance of the polygenic effect might differ for high and low heritability traits, and might depend on the design of the reference dataset. Despite of the RR-BLUP have been chosen for the trait backfat thickness, certain assumptions must be made as the trait can have a polygenic effect, due to the linear prediction associated with the RR-BLUP which assumes that all markers contribute equally to genetic variation (no major effect genes) as described by Hayes et al. (2009). In contrast of this, the other traits have the Bayesian LASSO method chosen, supported by the statement that the Bayesian methods are associated with systems of non-linear equations and the non-linear prediction can be better, when the effects are not

normally distributed, due to the presence of genes of larger effects (Usai et al., 2009).

The genetic correlations were computed across the GEBVs of the four traits. In the present study, it was shown that the genetic correlation between the traits backfat thickness and loin depth is equal to zero, but its value was not in accordance with the literature. For instance, Tomiyama et al. (2009) reported an estimate of the genetic correlation between loin eye area and backfat thickness of -0.40 in pigs and van Wijk et al. (2005) described a genetic correlation between backfat thickness and loin weight equal to -0.60 in pigs. Between the traits concentration of androstenone and skatole, the results showed a genetic correlation equal to 0.24 , which is consistent with the study made by Tajet et al. (2006) which reported values equal to 0.36 for Landrace pigs, 0.37 found by Windig et al. (2012).

The correlations calculated between the vector of effects of the traits (shown in Table 1) were useful to demonstrate the relevance of the markers for each trait, thereby it can be assumed that the markers which explain boar taint traits (concentration of androstenone and skatole) had a high positive correlation between their vectors of effects as shown in Table 1.

Taking notice of the distribution of the effects throughout the chromosomes, the markers that had higher peak can be considered the most important markers controlling the traits. Thus, for concentration of androstenone the highest peaks were found on chromosomes SSC1, SSC6, SSC13 and SSC15. PIGQTLdatabase (<http://www.animalgenome.org/cgi-bin/QTLdb/SS/index>) reports 31, 5, 1 and 1 QTLs in these chromosomes respectively, associated with this trait. Moreover, Duijvesteijn et al. (2010) described 37 SNPs affecting androstenone levels, located on pig chromosomes SSC1 e SSC6. In the latter, a larger region or candidate genes were shown to be associated with or potentially involved with androgens. Even for SSC6, Szyda et al. (2003) described a QTL for smell intensity of meat. There are no reports in literature about QTLs in SSC1 or SSC13 for this trait.

For the trait concentration of skatole, the highest peaks were found on chromosomes SSC6, SSC7 and SSC12, and PIGQTLdatabase reports 7 QTLs associated with this trait. Ramos et al. (2011) reported a genome-wide association study revealing 16 SNPs located on the proximal region of SSC6 significantly associated with skatole levels. For the chromosome SSC7, Grindflek et al. (2001) reported a QTL associated with smell intensity. For SSC12 there are no reports for the trait concentration of skatole.

With respect to the carcass traits, the highest peaks for backfat thickness were found on SSC1, SSC2, SSC4 and SSC14, and PIGQTLdatabase reports respectively 81, 100, 83 and 11 QTLs associated with this trait at these chromosomes. For the trait loin depth, the highest peaks were found on SSC11, SSC15 and SSC17, PIGQTLdatabase reports respectively 9, 2 and 3 QTLs associated with this trait on these chromosomes.

The presence of these QTLs reported in PIGQTLdatabase and the other studies performed are useful to validate the regions that have markers with minor or major effects on the traits, the size of effects throughout the chromosomes provide information for future studies on candidate genes and support the implementation of genomic selection in the pig.

The Bayesian LASSO method was more accurate for three traits (concentration of androstenone, concentration of skatole and loin depth) and the RR-BLUP method was more accurate for backfat thickness, but despite not having absolute results for all traits, it is possible to conclude that the Bayesian LASSO method proved to be the best choice in comparison with the RR-BLUP method, due to the fact that presents results with higher accuracy in the genomic selection of the pigs.

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APPENDIX

➔ Implementation of RR-BLUP in R

```
setwd("C:\\Users\\Usuario\\Desktop\\Análises_RR\\andro")
```

```
library(rrBLUP)
```

```
#####reading data set#####
```

```
data=read.table("data_novo.txt",h=T) #phenotypes data file
```

```
Z=(read.table("marker_novo1.txt",h=T)) #Markers data file
```

```

Z1=as.matrix(data.frame(Z[,-(1:5)]),622,2500) #keeping just columns
related with markers genotype (0, 1 and 2)

M=matrix(0,nrow(Z1),ncol(Z1))

#transforming 0, 1 and 2 values to -1, 0 and 1

M[Z1==0]<--1

M[Z1==1]<-0

M[Z1==2]<-1 #M is the marker matrix

allele=read.table("allele.txt")

##### andro:general adjustment #####

ym_slg=factor(data$ym_slg) #specifying year-month at slaughter fixed
effect

farm=factor(data$farm) #specifying farm fixed effect

hcw=data$hcw #specifying hot carcass weigth fixed effect (linear
covariate)

age=data$age #specifying age fixed effect (covariate)

f1=noquote(paste(ym_slg,farm,sep="")) #specifying interaction between
year-month at slaughter and farm

f11=factor(f1)

#####

X= model.matrix(~ f11 + hcw + age)

fit_andro=mixed.solve(data$andro, Z=M, X=X)

va=fit_andro$Vu*sum(2*allele[,1]*allele[,2])

h2_andro= va/(va + fit_andro$Ve)

write.table(h2_andro,"h2andro.txt",row.names=FALSE,col.names=FALSE,
quote=FALSE)

GBV1=M%*%fit_andro$u

write.table(GBV1,"GBV1andro.txt",row.names=FALSE,col.names=FALSE,
quote=FALSE)

```

```

##### andro:jack-knife #####

GBV=NULL

for (i in 1:nrow(data))

{

GBV[i]=as.matrix(M[i,]*%mixed.solve(data$andro[-i], Z=M[-i,], X=X[-
i,])$u)

}

write.table(GBV,"GBVandro.txt",row.names=FALSE,col.names=FALSE,qu
ote=FALSE)

##### exporting accuracy #####

GBV=read.table("GBVandro.txt")

h2_andro=read.table("h2andro.txt")

acuracia=cor(data$andro,GBV)/sqrt(h2_andro)

write.table(acuracia,"acuracia_andro.txt",row.names=FALSE,col.names=F
ALSE,quote=FALSE)

    ➔ Implementation of Bayesian LASSO in R

setwd("C:\\Users\\USUARIO\\Desktop\\Resultados__RReBL\\Análises_BL
\\andro")

library(BLR)

#####reading data set#####

data=read.table("data_novo.txt",h=T) #phenotypes data file

Z=(read.table("marker_novo1.txt",h=T)) #Markers data file

Z1=as.matrix(data.frame(Z[,-(1:5)]),622,2500) #keeping just columns
related with markers genotype (0, 1 and 2)

M=matrix(0,nrow(Z1),ncol(Z1))

#transforming 0, 1 and 2 values to -1, 0 and 1

M[Z1==0]<--1

```

```

M[Z1==1]<-0
M[Z1==2]<-1    #M is the marker matrix
allele=read.table("allele.txt")

##### andro:ajustegeral #####

ym_slg=factor(data$ym_slg) #specifying year-month at slaughter fixed
effect

farm=factor(data$farm) #specifying farm fixed effect

hcw=data$hcw #specifying hot carcass weigth fixed effect (linear
covariate)

age=data$age #specifying age fixed effect (covariate)

f1=noquote(paste(ym_slg,farm,sep="")) #specifying interaction between
year-month at slaughter and farm

f11=factor(f1)

X= model.matrix(~ f11 + hcw + age)

#####

nlter=10000

burnIn=4000

thin=2

prior=list(varE=list(S=4.5,df=3),
varBR=list(S=.009,df=3),lambda=list(type="random",value=30,shape=.52,r
ate=2e-5))

fit_andro=BLR(y=data$andro,XF=X,
XL=M,nlter=nlter,burnIn=burnIn,thin=thin, prior=prior)

sig2_m=fit_andro$varE*fit_andro$tau2

va=sum(sig2_m*2*allele[,1]*allele[,2])

h2_andro= va/(va + fit_andro$varE)

write.table(h2_andro,"h2andro.txt",row.names=FALSE,col.names=FALSE,
quote=FALSE)

```

```

GBV1=M%*%fit_andro$bL

write.table(GBV1,"GBV1andro.txt",row.names=FALSE,col.names=FALSE,
quote=FALSE)

##### andro:jack-knife #####

GBV=NULL

for (i in 1:nrow(data))

{

  GBV[i]=as.matrix(M[i,]%*%BLR(y=data$andro[-i],XF=X[-i,],XL=M[-
i,],nlter=nlter,burnIn=burnIn,thin=thin, prior=prior)$bL)

}

write.table(GBV,"GBVandro.txt",row.names=FALSE,col.names=FALSE,qu
ote=FALSE)

##### exporting accuracy #####

acuracia=cor(data$andro,GBV)/sqrt(h2_andro)

write.table(acuracia,"acuraciaBL_andro.txt",row.names=FALSE,col.names
=FALSE,quote=FALSE)

```