

Genomic selection in agriculture

An overview of recent publications featuring Illumina® technology



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This document highlights recent publications that demonstrate the use of Illumina technologies in immunology research. To learn more about the platforms and assays cited, visit www.illumina.com.

INTRODUCTION

Agriculture, the science of breeding in crops and animals, has been vital to the evolution of *Homo sapiens* and their nourishment. Given the environmental changes, population expansion, and the increasing demand for nutrition, the need to optimize food production is and will be of fundamental importance in the coming years.¹

Genomic selection (GS) is based on the principle that information from a large number of markers distributed across the genome can be used to capture diversity in that genome, sufficient to estimate breeding values without having a precise knowledge of where specific genes are located. It was first described in 2001 by Meuwissen and colleagues² and hinges on developing a breeding equation using a training population with known favorable (and unfavorable) traits. Breeders have been using molecular markers for decades, but working on unknown genomes has been challenging.³ Genetic information consisted of linkage maps with a few hundred markers, at most, which did not fully represent the desirable traits. Furthermore, a priori knowledge about a species' genome and markers' loci was necessary in order to use them.

Advances in genetics, bioinformatics, and biotechnology present breeders with powerful tools to advance agriculture beyond the early days of these limited marker sets.⁴ Databases characterizing diversity within species are essential for driving breeding decisions. Sequence data and well-characterized marker sets can now be used to study phenotypes of interest. These data allow us to sequence new species, perform meta-analyses among large datasets, unravel complex traits, and empower our abilities in both marker-assisted selection (MAS) and GS. In the last few years, these technologies have revolutionized breeding of both livestock and crops in a field known as agrigenomics, the science of accelerating breeding decisions using whole genome information. Agrigenomics is enabling and revolutionizing how breeding decisions are made.

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 2. Meuwissen T. H., Hayes B. J. and Goddard M. E. (2001) Prediction of total genetic value using genome-wide dense marker maps. *Genetics* 157: 1819-1829
 3. Barabaschi D. T., A; Desiderio, F; Volante, A; Vaccino, P; Valè, PG; Cattivelli, L (2015) Next Generation Breeding. *Plant Science* In press:
 4. McCouch S., Baute G. J., Bradeen J., Bramel P., Bretting P. K., et al. (2013) Agriculture: Feeding the future. *Nature* 499: 23-24
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Figure 1. Agriculture, the science of breeding crops and animals, is the keystone of the global economy and health.

GENERAL CONCEPTS

Understanding the Basics: DNA, Genes, and Chromosomes

Anything that lives, from the simplest forms of life to more complex organisms, has a genome. Deoxyribonucleic acid (DNA) is the molecule containing the information, often described as a blueprint that encodes and regulates genes. In turn, genes will be translated into proteins (by way of ribonucleic acid [RNA]) or contain regulatory elements and make an organism what it is.

From a chemical point of view, DNA is the same in all species. It is the combination of two polymeric strands coiled around each other, forming the well-known double-helix structure (Figure 2). Each strand of DNA is a sequence of nucleotides, and each nucleotide is composed of a phosphate group, a monosaccharide, and a variable nitrogen-containing base. DNA has four possible bases: adenine (A) and guanine (G) are purines, while cytosine (C) and thymine (T) are pyrimidines. The double-helix structure is maintained by the hydrogen bonds between 1 purine and 1 pyrimidine, which are very specific: A only binds with T, and G only binds C. For this binding to be possible, the two strands need to be reverse and complementary to each other (for this reason, they are also called reverse complements).

Genes are regions (or a stretch or multiple stretches) of sequence in DNA that encode for proteins or regulatory RNAs. Genes are at the basis of the traits that characterize an organism, including those of agricultural interest.

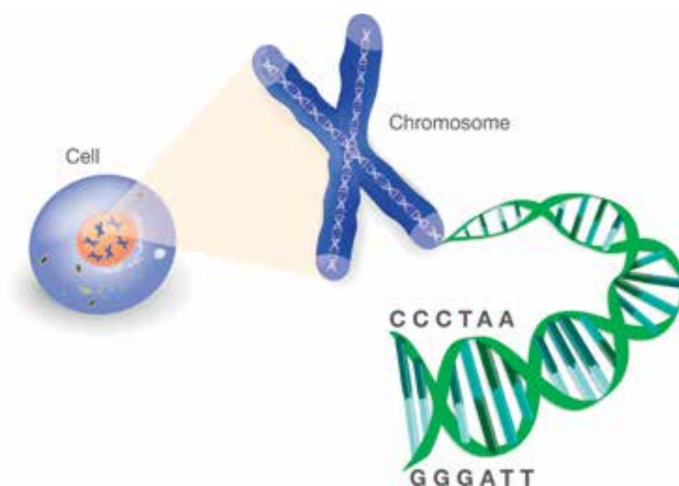


Figure 2. DNA has the form of a double helix. The 2 complementary strands of DNA are sequences of nucleotides that carry 1 of 4 possible nitrogen-containing bases. Base pairing is a specific hydrogen bond between 1 purine and 1 pyrimidine: adenine (A) will always bind thymine (T), and cytosine (C) will always bind guanine (G). These bonds maintain DNA in the double-helix structure that is widely known.

The genome is packed and organized in structures called chromosomes (Figure 2). Most animals inherit 1 chromosome from each parent and are called diploids (i.e. they have 1 homologous pair of chromosomes, Figure 3). Some animals, and many plants, have multiple homologous pairs of chromosomes and are defined as polyploid.

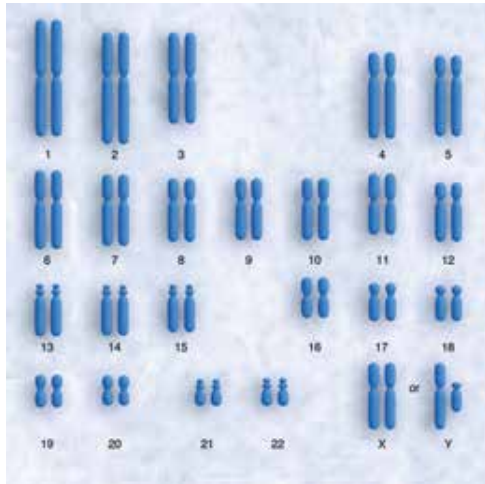


Figure 3. Organization of the diploid human genome in 23 condensed structures called chromosomes.

Available Resources

National DNA Day webpage: www.genome.gov/DNADay/

Understanding the Basics: Genetic Variation and Polymorphisms

A DNA sequence is made up of building blocks called nucleotides. For each gene, diploid individuals will each have two alleles, which are alternative forms of the same gene that can differ in 1 or more variations in the 4 bases A, G, C, or T. The combination of these alleles is what defines a genotype for an individual organism (Figure 4).

Although a high percentage of the genome is the same for most individuals belonging to the same species, there are some positions in which there is inter-individual variability. These positions are called polymorphisms, or DNA variations. Many polymorphisms are neutral, and likely have no phenotypic effect; however, some are at the basis of what differentiates one individual from the other. Polymorphisms can involve base substitutions, insertions, deletions, or repeats. Generally, they are distinguished by sequence and length polymorphisms (Figure 4). The functional effect of any given DNA polymorphism on a phenotype can range from fully penetrant (1 mutation, 1 effect) to none. For most traits of agricultural interest, which are mostly complex or multifactorial traits, the penetrance is intermediate to low.

Advances in DNA sequencing technologies now allow us to isolate DNA (or RNA) from multiple sample types, amplify and sequence regions of the genome, and sequence whole genomes. Agriculture is one of the many fields in which genomics is having a substantial impact.



Figure 4. Genetic sequences, strands, and genetic variability.

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Agriculture and Quantitative Traits

Both animals and plants evolve in complex environments, gradually acquiring the ability to cope with elements in that environment such as predators, adverse soil conditions, or adverse climates. Most (but not all) of the traits, or phenotypes, that are desirable in agriculture are defined as complex quantitative traits. When locations in the genome are found to be correlated to these traits, we call these quantitative trait loci^{5, 6} (QTL) (Table 1). To give an example, dairy traits were originally thought to be regulated by 50–100 genes,⁷ but they are now known to be regulated by 1000–2000 genes.⁸

Selection for breeding has historically been made using estimated breeding values (EBV), without identifying genes involved in phenotypes. EBVs were simply estimated from the study of pedigrees and phenotypic records with the knowledge of the heritability of each trait (Figure 5). However, the efficiency of this method decreases as its use is expanded to traits that are difficult to measure, have low heritability, or can be measured only after several years and/or generations.⁹ For this reason, the identification and knowledge of the genes underlying these traits in animals and plants is of great value in agrigenomics.

Table 1. Examples of phenotypic traits of agricultural values that are genetically regulated by QTLs, published in the last 2 years.

Trait	Species	References
Adiposity	Chicken, pig	10, 11
Birth survival	Cattle	12
Birth weight	Cattle	13, 14
Feed efficiency	Chicken	15, 16
Fertility	Cattle, boar	17, 18, 19
Growth and morphometric traits	Cattle, horse, Asian sea bass, turbot, oyster, pig, boar, chicken	20, 21, 22, 23, 24, 25, 26, 27, 28, 29, 30, 31
Meat quality	Pig	32, 33, 34
Milk production	Cattle	35
Obesity and metabolic traits	Pig	36
Resistance to disease	Salmon	37
Response to infection	Pig	38, 39
Sex determination	Sea bass	40
Sex maturation	Salmon	41, 42
Wool opacity	Ovine	43
Agronomics traits	Oil palm, soybean, wheat	44, 45, 46
Drought tolerance	Barley, potato, rice, rapeseed, chickpea	47, 48, 49, 50, 51, 52
Flash thickness	Cucumber	53
Fungicide resistance	<i>Zymoseptoria tritici</i> (wheat pathogen)	54
Heat tolerance	Rice	55
Photosynthetic efficiency	Potato	56
Resistance to pathogens	Norway spruce, cowpea, maize, soybean	57, 58, 59, 60
Response to hormones	Rice	61
Root growth	Rice, apple	62
Salt tolerance	Soybean, rice	63, 64
Seed length/weight	<i>Brassica</i>	65
Stem height	Oil palm	66
Vigor and flowering traits	Pear tree	67
Water stress resistance	Sunflower	68

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Figure 5. Heritability is defined as the proportion of a phenotypic trait that can be attributed to genetic factors rather than environment.

Available Resources

Animal QTLdb:⁶⁹ www.animalgenome.org/cgi-bin/QTLdb

Online Mendelian Inheritance in Animals (OMIA): omia.angis.org.au/home/

1000 bull genomes project:⁷⁰ www.1000bullgenomes.com/

Gramene QTL Database:⁷¹ archive.gramene.org/qlt/

Marker-Assisted Selection and Genomic Selection

In MAS, breeders use a marker that has been correlated to a trait of interest to select the genetic determinant, or determinants, of a trait indirectly. Since the early 1990s, efforts to improve these methods have been intensive, but their implementation has been limited and, therefore, overall genetic improvement of bred species has been limited.⁷²

The advances in genomic technologies, the development of genome arrays, and the advent of NGS platforms have boosted the ability of researchers to search for mutations that underlie variation in complex traits. The results obtained from large-scale studies on large populations can be used to direct animal and plant breeders in the implementation of GS.^{73, 74, 75, 76, 77, 78}

GS is based on the principle that information from a large number of markers can be used to estimate breeding values without having a precise knowledge of where specific genes are located.⁷⁹ It is similar to conventional MAS in that genetic information is being used, but rather than introducing a single trait (as in MAS), markers can be selected that are in common with the training population showing multiple favorable traits. In GS, EBVs (also called gEBVs) are calculated from the cumulative effect of large numbers of genetic markers covering the whole genome,⁸⁰ and these values are used to score new potential breeding candidates.

In GS, all QTLs are in linkage disequilibrium (LD) with at least 1 marker.

25. Prasongsook S., Choi I., Bates R. O., Raney N. E., Ernst C. W., et al. (2015) Association of Insulin-like growth factor binding protein 2 genotypes with growth, carcass and meat quality traits in pigs. *J Anim Sci Technol* 57: 31
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37. Gonen S., Baranski M., Thorland I., Norris A., Grove H., et al. (2015) Mapping and validation of a major QTL affecting resistance to pancreas disease (salmonid alphavirus) in Atlantic salmon (*Salmo salar*). *Heredity (Edinb)* 115: 405-414
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Figure 6. Large GS programs are being currently implemented both in Europe and USA to help breeders select superior stock for breeding.

Marker-Assisted Selection in Action

The Use of Genomics and the Return on Investment (ROI)

North Florida Holsteins LLC is the largest Holstein cattle-breeding farm in USA. It has used genomic technologies since the very beginning in 2008 and is currently using the Illumina BovineHD Array. Figure 7 shows the genetic progress of the North Florida Holsteins herd (blue) compared with the breed's average (in black) in terms of the net merit economic index. As evident from the trend lines, the appropriate implementation of the genomic technologies in 2008 resulted into a significantly faster genetic progress of the North Florida Holsteins LLC compared to the breed's average.

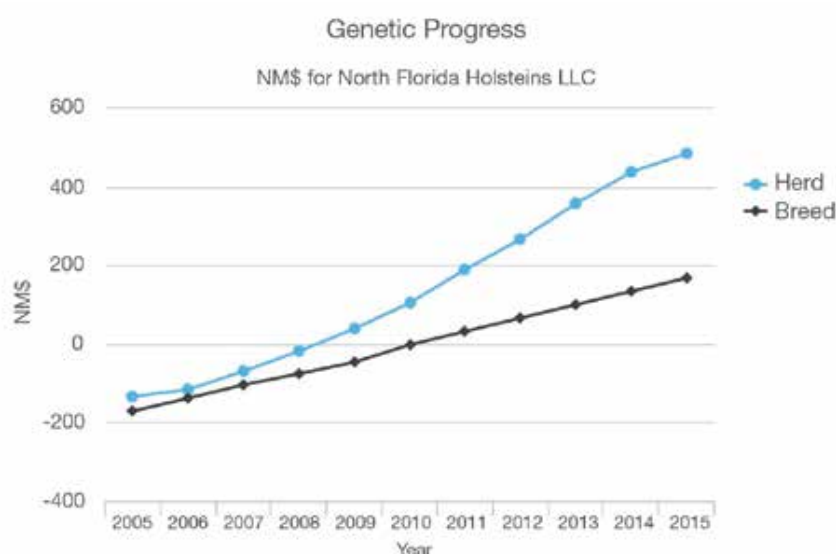


Figure 7. Comparison of genetic progress between the North Florida Holstein LLC herd and the breed average (kindly provided by Don Bennink, North Florida Holsteins LLC).

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Beef Data and Genomics Program, Irish Cattle Breeding Federation (ICBF)

ICBF aims to genotype 1 million cattle by the project mid-point of 2017 and expects to genotype over 2 million animals over the course of the entire project (2015–2020).⁸¹

Using Genomics to Improve Drought Tolerance in Corn Hybrids

Syngenta is using genomic technologies to understand the biology underlying these complex drought-tolerance traits and to establish a breeding strategy for a new “Agrisure Artesian” corn hybrid.⁸²

A Ray of Sunshine for Sunflower Breeding

A recent multi-institutional collaboration led to the sequencing of the sunflower genome to obtain a reference sequence and to the development of the iSelect Sunflower array.⁸³

Bloom J. S., Kotenko I., Sadhu M. J., Treusch S., Albert F. W., et al. (2015) Genetic interactions contribute less than additive effects to quantitative trait variation in yeast. *Nat Commun* 6: 8712.

Complex quantitative traits are determined by a multiplicity of environmental and genetic factors. These traits are of high interest in the fields of both health care and agriculture. Efforts are being made to understand how multiple factors contribute to the determination of phenotypes. One hypothesis is that the different genetic factors interact with each other, having an epistatic effect as opposed to an additive effect. In large crosses between 2 strains of yeast, pairwise QTL–QTL interactions explained an average of 9% of the phenotypic variability for 20 quantitative traits. This result was significantly lower than the contribution of additive QTLs, which is on average 43%.

Illumina Technology: Nextera DNA Sample Prep Kit, HiSeq 2500

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IMPLEMENTATION OF GENOMIC SELECTION

The implementation of GS relies on genetic markers that represent the complete genome, the availability of large cohorts of individuals belonging to the same species, and genomic prediction algorithms that combine genetic information with phenotypic and pedigree data.

Establishing a Reference Genome

To date, hundreds of species have been sequenced at high coverage, and these data are available in public databases.⁸⁴ It may require a *de novo* sequencing project when a reference genome is unavailable, or if the current reference is of poor quality. The substantial efforts invested in DNA sequencing technologies over the last decades, and the introduction of NGS, have resulted in a 100 million-fold decrease in the cost per genome since 1990.⁸⁵ To date, the cost for a raw megabase (Mb) of DNA sequence is less than \$0.1, and *de novo* sequencing projects have become relatively routine.

Plants and animals can have very different genomes. Plants generally have more complex genomes, often polyploid and containing high percentages of repetitive sequences, compared to most animals. With the exception of certain fish, the genomes of animals of agricultural interest are diploid.

One way to characterize complex genomes is to construct a pan-genome or comparative analysis of multiple closely related species. Often, this is done through sequence-based genotyping methods of multiple genomes of individuals belonging to the same species (Figure 8). The development and use of specific algorithms is also essential to these analyses.⁸⁶

To better understand polyploid crops, researchers can deconstruct the genomes to look only at 1 component genome of the polyploidy. For example, bread wheat is made up of 3 genomes (hexaploid, since it has 6 sets of chromosomes, 3 from one parent and 3 from the other parent). For this reason, more polyploids have diploid/haploid reference sequences described. This is true for many crop species like *Brassica*, Emmer wheat (tetraploid), and Chinese spring wheat (hexaploid). In most of the heterozygous genomes (those genomes whose chromosomal copies are different), only 1 haplotype has been sequenced.⁸⁷

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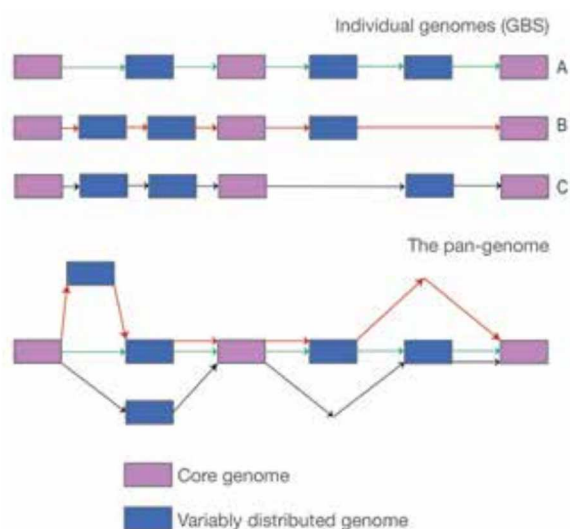


Figure 8. A pan-genome summarizes the information of a genome's structural variability. It includes a core genome that is present in all sequences, and a variably distributed genome that represents diversity. It is constructed comparing multiple genomes derived from *de novo* assembly.

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Lu F., Romay M. C., Glaubitz J. C., Bradbury P. J., Elshire R. J., et al. (2015) High-resolution genetic mapping of maize pan-genome sequence anchors. *Nat Commun* 6: 6914

Copy-number variations (CNVs) are frequent in plant genomes. Nearly 85% of the most recent version of the maize (B73) genome consists of repetitive sequences. The authors used genotyping by sequencing (GBS) to screen a broad collection of maize inbred lines on which they mapped 26 million tag locations. They then used machine-learning models and 4.4 million tags as genetic anchors to build an ultra-high density pan-genome that finely characterizes and represents the structural variation of diverse maize varieties.

Illumina Technology: GA, HiSeq 2000 and 2500, MiSeq

Li Y. H., Zhou G., Ma J., Jiang W., Jin L. G., et al. (2014) De novo assembly of soybean wild relatives for pan-genome analysis of diversity and agronomic traits. *Nat Biotechnol* 32: 1045-1052.

In crop breeding, wild relatives are important reservoirs of genetic biodiversity. For this reason, the study of their genomes is important. The authors sequenced and assembled 7 representative accessions of *Glycine soja*, a wild relative of cultivated soybean, *Glycine max*. They then assembled a pan-genome, containing the core genome (shared across all cultivar sequences) and the variably distributed genome of the species. Due to these comparisons, the authors were able to identify several genes that potentially contribute to phenotypic variability of agronomical traits, some of which show evidence of selective pressure. Furthermore, they established that the core genome in soybean constitutes ~80% of the whole genome.

Illumina Technology: HiSeq 2000

Chapman J. A., Mascher M., Buluc A., Barry K., Georganas E., et al. (2015) A whole-genome shotgun approach for assembling and anchoring the hexaploid bread wheat genome. *Genome Biol* 16: 26.

The wheat genome is one of the most complex genomes known, with a high percentage of repetitive sequences and a hexaploid chromosomal organization. Whole-genome shotgun (WGS) sequencing consists of breaking long DNA into fragments and sequencing them. Bioinformatics algorithms are then used to create overlapping ends of the reads and assemble them into a continuous sequence. In general, it is thought that polyploid genomes are not tractable with a technique such as WGS. The authors of this study combined high-throughput sequencing and parallel computing to obtain a *de novo* sequence assembly for *Triticum aestivum* wheat, covering 9.1 Gbp out of 16 Gbp, and assigning 7.1 Gbp to chromosomal locations. The accuracy of the resulting draft was comparable to—or, in some aspects exceeded—that obtained from chromosome-by-chromosome assemblies.

Illumina Technology: TruSeq, HiSeq 2500

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Figure 9. Wheat has one of the most complex genomes known.

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Available resources

DeNovoMagic Web Page: <http://nrgene.com/genomic-product/denovo-magic/>

The Genome OnLine Database (GOLD):⁸⁸ <https://gold.jgi.doe.gov/index>

Phytozome:⁸⁹ <http://phytozome.jgi.doe.gov/pz/portal.html>

PlantGDB:⁹⁰ <http://omia.angis.org.au/home/>

Genotyping

Once the effort of assembling a genome is completed, it is necessary to find an efficient method for obtaining data on large cohorts of the species of interest.

The sequencing and comparison of multiple individuals of different lines or breeds is an extensive source of genomic markers.⁹¹ Once a reference sequence is available, the assembly of multiple genomes is based on their alignments with the reference, which makes it a feasible task.

However, even though the cost of whole-genome sequencing has declined significantly in the last decades, it is still prohibitive to sequence the whole genome of broad populations in a study or breeding program.

Genotyping Arrays and Imputation

DNA arrays (also called microarrays) leverage oligonucleotide probes that allow for genotyping up to hundreds of thousands of genomic markers at the same time (Figure 10). Arrays are best designed to select representative single-nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) that cover all genetic variation in a population. Using arrays, researchers achieve these results by sequencing a representative diversity set of individuals to identify haplotypes, defined as a collection of alleles that are likely to be inherited all together (Figure 11). Because of their lower costs, simplified analysis, and strong parallel-processing and automation capabilities, the use of DNA arrays and whole-genome SNP imputation is instrumental in analyzing multiple samples (Figure 12).⁹²

Imputation relies on a reference database of fully sequenced genomes to predict genotypes that are not assayed in a larger sample of individuals.⁹³ The approach consists of first reconstructing haplotypes for the samples of interest using the haplotypes from the reference set (haplotype phasing) and then estimating genotypes (Figure 12).

The use of arrays and imputation is well established in human,^{94, 95, 96} animal,⁹⁷ and plant studies.⁹⁸ Several algorithms have been designed to these methods (Table 2).⁹⁹

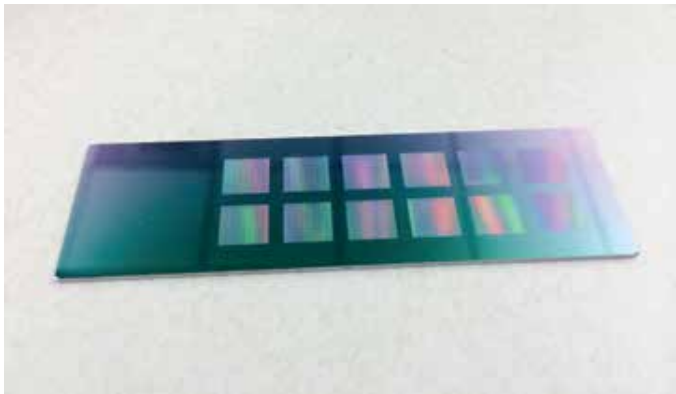


Figure 10. An array is a platform containing multiple probes that allow the hybridization of DNA or cDNA. Arrays can be used to study DNA polymorphisms or RNA expression.

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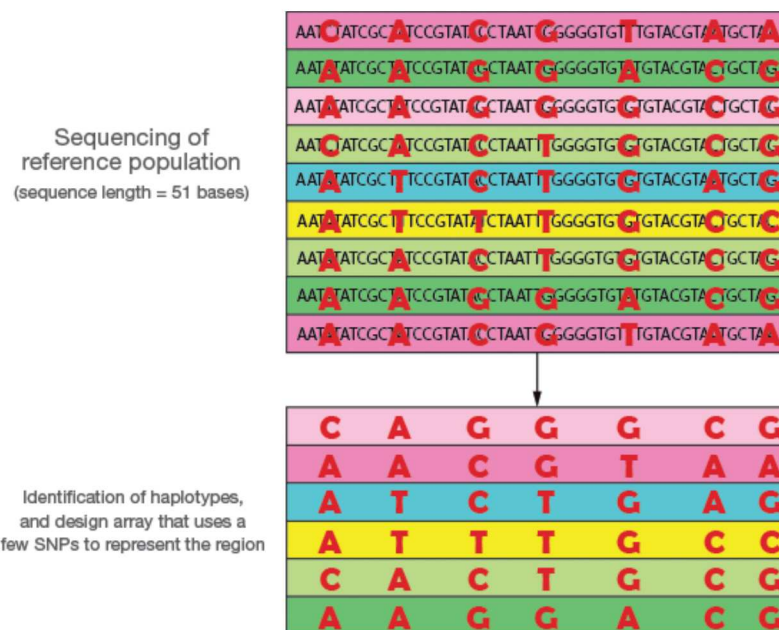


Figure 11. Haplotypes are groups of multiple alleles that are likely to be inherited together because of linkage disequilibrium. They can be identified through the sequencing of multiple individuals and can provide representative (tag) SNPs to implement on arrays.

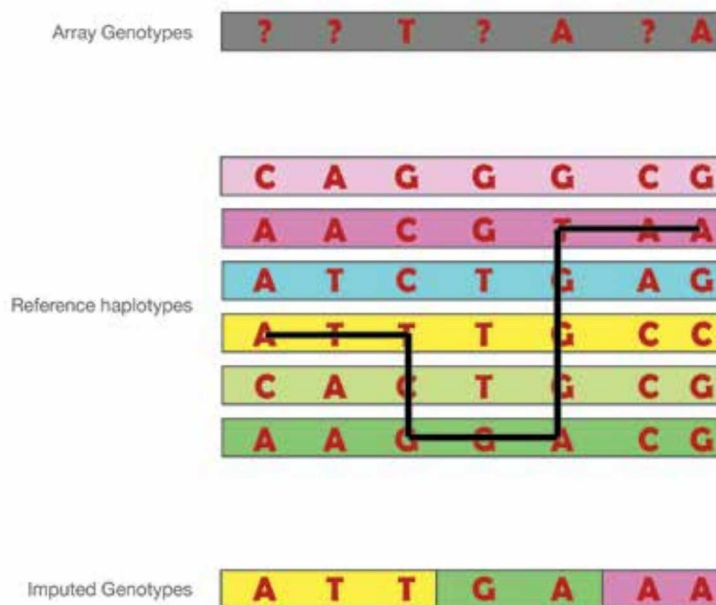


Figure 12. The process of imputation estimates the missing genotypes of an individual by first estimating the haplotypes (a process known as haplotype phasing) from the available genotype data.

Table 2. Examples of arrays designed for agricultural purposes and published applications in the last 2 years.

Species	Array	References
Cattle, zebu, buffalo	Illumina Bovine50K BeadChip array, Illumina BovineHD770K BeadChip array	100, 101, 102, 103, 104, 105, 106
Chickpea	Illumina GoldenGate Genotyping Technology	107
Dog	Illumina CanineHD array	108
Horse	Illumina EquineSNP70 Infinium BeadChip	109
Goat	Cattle, boar	110
Maize	MaizeSNP50 BeadChip, Illumina Maize SNP3K BeadChip	111, 112
Oilseed rape	6K Illumina Infinium HD array	113, 114
Peach	9K Illumina Infinium II array	115
Perennial grass	Illumina Infinium array	116
Pig	Illumina Porcine 60K BeadChip array	117, 118, 119, 120, 121
Potato	Potato Illumina Infinium array	122
Rapeseed	Illumina BrassicaSNP60 Bead Chip	123
Rice	Illumina RiceSNP50 array	124
Salmon	Atlantic Salmon Illumina 7K SNP chip	125
Sheep	OvineSNP50 Genotyping BeadChip	126, 127
Soybean	Illumina BeadArray platform	128
Tomato	Tomato Infinium array	129
Wheat	90K iSelect assay, Illumina Infinium 90K Wheat SNP chip	130, 131, 132, 133

Genotyping in Action

Growing Better Cotton for Future Generations

The International Cotton SNP Consortium designed the CottonSNP63K BeadChip.¹³⁴

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Daetwyler H. D., Capitan A., Pausch H., Stothard P., van Binsbergen R., et al. (2014) Whole-genome sequencing of 234 bulls facilitates mapping of monogenic and complex traits in cattle. *Nat Genet* 46: 858-865.

The aim of the 1000 bull genomes project is to build a database of key ancestor individuals used in cattle breeding and to use the data to identify mutations and genetic variations related to traits of interest. In the first phase, the whole genomes of 129 Holstein-Friesian, 43 Fleckvieh, and 15 Jersey breeds were sequenced. The results led to the identification of 28.3 million variants, a surprisingly high number considering the low effective population size (small number of breeding animals) of cattle. The use of this database has already resulted in the identification of 2 Mendelian mutations (a recessive mutation causing embryonic death and a dominant mutation causing lethal chondrodysplasia). These data were also used for imputation to sequence data on a larger cohort (several thousand bulls) previously typed using medium- and high-density genotype arrays. A genome wide association study (GWAS) on this larger cohort led to the identification of different genomic regions associated with curly coat and early-lactation milk fat content.

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Village dogs are free-breeding human commensal populations of dogs that are much more genetically diverse, numerous, and geographically distributed as compared to purebreds. For these reasons, they are fundamental to the study of dogs' ancestry and origin. The authors used a semicustom array of 185,805 markers to analyze autosomal, mitochondrial, and Y chromosome diversity in 549 village dogs from 38 countries and compared it with multiple purebred dogs belonging to 161 breeds, for a total of 4,676 purebred dogs. The results showed that some populations (such as those found in the Neotropics and the South Pacific) have European origins, some are admixtures between European dogs and indigenous dogs, while some populations from Asia and the Middle East (such as India, Vietnam, and Egypt) have very little admixture with Europeans. This last group also showed linkage disequilibrium patterns that suggest a Central Asian origin for domestication of dogs.

Illumina Technology: TruSeq DNA Sample Prep Kit, HiSeq 2000

Hulse-Kemp A. M., Lemm J., Plieske J., Ashrafi H., Buyyarapu R., et al. (2015) Development of a 63K SNP Array for Cotton and High-Density Mapping of Intraspecific and Interspecific Populations of *Gossypium* spp. *G3 (Bethesda)* 5: 1187-1209.

Cotton provides both textile fiber and oilseed, and represents an important crop for both these reasons. However, genetic studies on cotton are challenging, given the complexity of the genome. This study aimed to develop a standardized large-scale genotyping platform for cotton. To do so, they combined results from 9 intraspecific and 4 interspecific studies to obtain SNP data and develop the CottonSNP63K array, containing 45,104 putative intraspecific SNPs and 17,954 putative interspecific SNPs. They then validated the array on 1,156 samples to generate cluster positions. Thus, they enabled use of the array across a diverse germplasm to facilitate breeding decisions on a global scale.

Illumina Technology: iSelect Infinium Array

Genotyping by Sequencing

GBS (as defined by Buckler et al, 2010)¹³⁵ is a method that allows researchers to obtain sequencing data at a reasonable price and to use it for genotyping purposes.

Because GBS does not need a priori knowledge of the sequence being studied, it has some advantages over array-based methods in cases where the spacing of markers along chromosomes is unavailable. It is widely used in species where a reference genome is unknown.

GBS reduces the complexity of the genome by using reduced representation libraries (RRL).¹³⁶ These libraries are constructed by fragmenting the genome under study through the use of restriction enzymes (REs). As REs cut specific sequence motifs, RRL targets a specific region of the genome. The resulting fragments can be used for high-coverage sequencing. The use of barcoded adapters also allows the study of multiple sequences at the same time, a process called multiplexing.¹³⁷

Genotyping by Sequencing in Action

Restoring and Managing Historical Columbia River Basin Fish Populations using Genomics

A team of geneticists from the University of Idaho's Hagerman Fish Culture Experiment Station for the Columbia River Inter-Tribal Fish Commission (CRITFC) is working to help Native American tribes to repopulate the Columbia River Basin salmon. To do this, they developed a GBS application that they called genotyping-in-thousands by sequencing (GT-Seq).¹³⁸

114. Cai G., Yang Q., Yi B., Fan C., Zhang C., et al. (2015) A bi-filtering method for processing single nucleotide polymorphism array data improves the quality of genetic map and accuracy of quantitative trait locus mapping in doubled haploid populations of polyploid *Brassica napus*. *BMC Genomics* 16: 409
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Slavov G. T., Nipper R., Robson P., Farrar K., Allison G. G., et al. (2014) Genome-wide association studies and prediction of 17 traits related to phenology, biomass and cell wall composition in the energy grass *Miscanthus sinensis*. *New Phytol* 201: 1227-1239.

The tropical undomesticated C4 grass *Miscanthus* is broadly adaptable and can be potentially cultivated in high yields. For this reason, it is a promising crop for energy production. In this study, the authors aimed at assessing the potential of GWAS and GS in breeding this crop. They applied RAD-Seq and generated 100,000 SNPs in 138 plant lines, and studied the association of these SNPs for 17 phenotypes. Genomic predictions were generally high but varied significantly among different phenotypes. The authors suggest that *Miscanthus* is a good candidate species for GS.

Illumina Technology: HiSeq

Rutledge L. Y., Devillard S., Boone J. Q., Hohenlohe P. A. and White B. N. (2015) RAD sequencing and genomic simulations resolve hybrid origins within North American *Canis*. *Biology Letters* 11: .

The disappearance of top predators, such as the wolf, is having a catastrophic effect in changing ecosystems that depend upon top-down regulation. At the moment, there are 2 competing models for North American *Canis* species. The first is a 2-species model where the gray wolf and coyotes are distinct species that have given rise to numerous hybrids, such as the Great Lakes boreal wolf, the eastern coyote, the red wolf, and the eastern wolf. The second is a 3-species model that sees the grey wolf, the western coyote, and the eastern wolf as three different species; the Great Lakes boreal wolf as a hybrid between the grey wolf and the eastern wolf; eastern coyotes as hybrids between eastern wolf and western coyotes; and red wolves as originally the same species as the eastern wolf that has undergone a genetic bottleneck. In this work, the authors used RAD-Seq to identify 127,235 SNPs and combined it with simulation analyses to test the hybrid origin of *Canis* types. The simulation analyses were consistent with a hybrid origin of the Great Lakes boreal wolf and the eastern coyotes.

Illumina Technology: HiSeq 2000

For more information: <http://ngs-expert.com/2014/02/06/rad-seq-for-genome-wide-association-studies/>

Campbell N.R., Harmon S.A., and Narum S.R. (2015) Genotyping-in-Thousands by sequencing (GT-seq): A cost effective SNP genotyping method based on custom amplicon sequencing. *Molecular Ecology Resources* 15: 855-867

SNPs are valuable markers in many kinds of studies. In this study, the authors present a multiplex amplicon sequencing method aimed at SNP genotyping. In a 2-thermal-cycle reaction of unlabeled oligos with a PCR master mix, targeted SNPs are amplified and sequencing adapters and barcodes are incorporated in the resulting amplicons. This allows the pooling of thousands of individuals in single sequencing library. Individual samples are then divided and analyzed after sequencing by use of barcodes. The authors applied the method to a population of 2068 steelhead trout (*Oncorhynchus mykiss*), successfully genotyping 192 SNPs in a single Illumina HiSeq lane. Results were comparable to those previously obtained through Taqman® assays.

Illumina Technology: HiSeq2000, HiSeq1500



Figure 13. Sequence-based genotyping methods are allowing researchers to help Native American tribes repopulate the fish of the Columbia River Basin.

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Implementation of Genomic Selection

The implementation of GS relies on the existence of breeding programs in which both pedigree and genomic information are collected and recorded.¹³⁹ Breeders can use this information to select and breed the most promising animals. The advantages of GS are that it can be implemented very early in life (therefore shortening the generation intervals), it is not limited to 1 sex, and it is of particular usefulness for those traits that are not easy to improve.¹⁴⁰

The process of GS includes the following steps, also outlined in Figure 14:

- Collection and documentation of phenotype and genotype data for each marker of interest in the reference sample (or discovery dataset)
- Representation of each genotype by a variable, x , that can have 3 values: 0 (homozygote for one allele), 1 (heterozygote), and 2 (homozygote for the second allele)
- Statistical analysis on a reference population to estimate the effect of each marker (w) on the phenotype
- Generation of a prediction equation for the gEBV that combines all the marker genotypes with their effects on the predictive value of each animal (see below)
- Application of the prediction equation to a group of animals for which genotypes (but not phenotypes) are available. Breeding values are estimated and the best animals are selected for breeding.¹⁴¹

The prediction equation for the gEBV is under constant refinement as breeding programs progress and results are collected. Its estimation from genomic markers can be summarized in the following 3 steps:

1. Use of the markers to deduce the genotype of each animal/plant at each QTL
2. Estimation of the effects of each QTL genotype on the trait
3. Sum of all the QTL effects to finally obtain the gEBV for each individual and select candidates¹⁴²

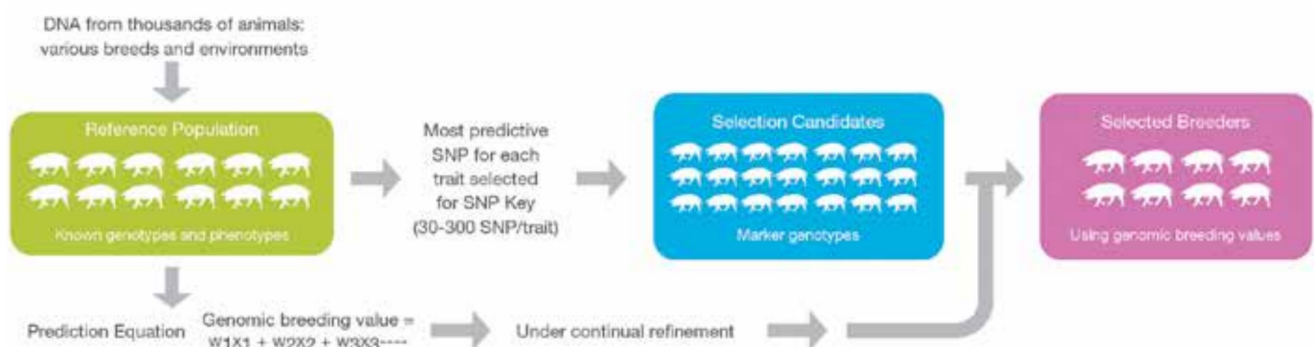


Figure 14. The implementation of GS consists of: 1) the estimation of a prediction equation from a discovery dataset; and 2) its application to large numbers of selection candidates to identify and select the best breeders.

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Genomic Selection in Action

Genotyping Cattle for More Efficient Breeding and Higher-Quality Food Supply

GeneSeek is the leading provider of genetic diagnostics for identity and trait evaluation in the agricultural biotechnology industry.¹⁴³

143. https://www.illumina.com/content/dam/illumina-marketing/documents/icomunity/article_2014_12_geneseek_bovinesnp50.pdf

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Muranty H., Troggio M., Sadok I. B., Rifai M. A., Aukwerken A., et al. (2015) Accuracy and response of genomic selection on key traits in apple breeding. *Horticulture Research* 2: 15060.

The cultivation of fruit trees is a long process. The length of the juvenile phase of the development of trees delays the collection of phenotype information, and breeding programs last several years. The use of GS has the great potential of reducing this time while also increasing prediction accuracy and selection intensity. In this study, the authors assessed the utility of GS for key traits in several breeding programs. They analyzed a training population of 977 individuals derived from 20 pedigreed full-sib families, for which phenotypic data had been historically recorded for 10 traits related to productivity and fruit quality. They obtained genotypic data for 7829 SNPs by using an Illumina 20K SNP array. Using these data, they built a genomic prediction model that they then applied to estimate genomic breeding values for 5 application sib-families, for which data on 364 SNPs were available. Next, the authors phenotyped these additional 5 families prospectively for 1 year and compared the observations with the predicted breeding values. The accuracy of genomic prediction across the tested phenotypes ranged from 0.19 to 0.5, where the lower values were obtained for phenotypes with low heritability and/or for which phenotype distribution was skewed. These results highlight the potential of genomic selection in the cultivation of fruit trees.

Illumina Technology: BovineSNP50 BeadChip

ECONOMIC CONSIDERATIONS

Starting in the early 2000s, several studies demonstrated the economic advantages of genomic selection in animal breeding.¹⁴⁴ This approach is also emerging for crop selection.¹⁴⁵

Traditional breeding and MAS had already remarkably improved animal and crop productivity. For example, before the start of quantitative breeding, the average cow produced a few thousand pounds of milk in its lifetime. The advent of quantitative breeding, 70 years ago, raised this to about 20,000 lb.¹⁴⁶

The advent of MAS has given a second boost to both livestock and crop productivity. For example, the use of this technique in rice cultivars to develop disease-resistant strains generated profit and, more importantly, saved thousands of lives.¹⁴⁷

However, MAS has several limitations, for 2 main reasons:¹⁴⁸

- Most of the traits of agricultural value are complex, and single markers are able to explain only a small fraction of the genetic variance. As a result, the accuracy of estimates for genotype-phenotype effects is low.
- For certain traits, the search for markers would require large sample sizes and long selection cycles.

GS has overcome both these limitations. It applies whole-genome prediction models, potentially covering enough markers to explain all the variation. GS can also accelerate breeding cycles, reducing the time and costs for phenotyping. Both factors lead to a higher rate of annual genetic gain (Figure 15).

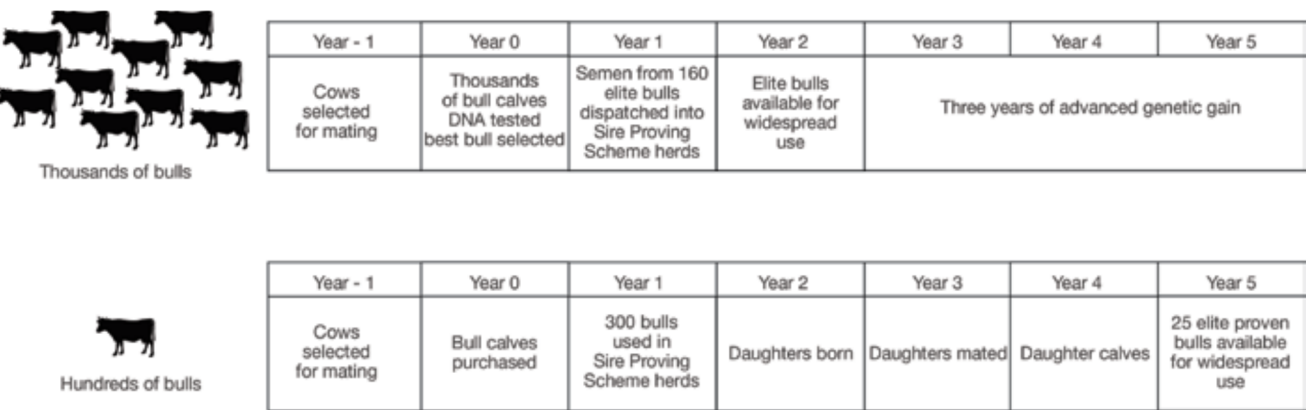


Figure 15. Examples of how GS dramatically reduces the times and costs that are required to breed individuals having the desired traits (modified with permission from <http://www.lcnz.com/>).

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Consider the following breeder's equation:¹⁴⁹

$$\Delta G = i r \sigma_A / L$$

ΔG , genetic gain; i , selection intensity (directly proportional to population size and proportion selected); r , accuracy (proportional to the reference population size); σ_A , genetic variation within a population; L , generational interval

The use of GS allows the breeder to:

- increase i through the use of larger breeding populations
- increase r through the use of larger reference populations
- increase σ_A due to a more robust quantification of variation
- decrease L due to the reduction of the time required to obtain individuals carrying the trait or traits of interest, as shown in Figure 15

All these factors contribute to a higher genetic gain and, consequently, a better yield of an individual carrying the desired qualities.



Figure 16. The use of GS enhances yield and quality of the bred populations.

Marker-Assisted Breeding in Action

Genomics Powers Development of Higher-Yielding, More Nutritious Orphan Crops in Africa

Stunting is an irreversible syndrome that reduces a child's chance of survival and impairs cognitive abilities. It is estimated that 35%–40% of children under the age of 5 in sub-Saharan Africa are stunted. The African Orphan Crops Consortium (AOCC) aims at identifying crops in Africa that display desirable qualities with the use of DNA markers.^{150, 151}

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149. Falconer D. S. and Mackay T. (1996) Introduction to Quantitative Genetics.
150. https://www.illumina.com/content/dam/illumina-marketing/documents/icomunity/article_2015_04_greatergood_aocc.pdf
151. http://data.unicef.org/corecode/uploads/document6/uploaded_pdfs/corecode/NutritionReport_April2013_Final_29.pdf
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Genomic Data Adds Value in Marketing Holstein Sires Globally

The implementation of genomic tools in Holstein cattle breeding is helping farmers assess animals through the analysis of a combination of genotypic and phenotypic data to make more informed decisions.¹⁵²

Breeding the Best Angus Cattle Begins With the Best Genomics Tools

Three Trees Ranch in Coweta County Georgia has replaced imaging with genomic technologies since 2010.¹⁵³

GE-EPDS and Accuracy Powered by Genomic Tools

Expected progeny differences (EPD) are evaluations of an animal's genetic merit as a breeder if compared to other individuals of the same breed. These values are estimated looking at pedigrees and phenotypes. Genomic information (GE-EPD) adds, for the traits listed in Table 3, anything between 9 and 22 progeny equivalents to the EPD. This means that genomic data adds information to the estimates and increases the accuracy as if the specific animal for which it is calculated had between 9 and 22 calves, depending on the trait. Thus, GE-EPD saves the time and money that it would have taken to breed and evaluate between 9 and 22 descendants for that individual. The concept is also shown in Figure 17.

Table 3. List of 15 traits and relative progeny equivalents provided by genomic technologies in Angus cattle, calculated on recorded observations of genomics and phenotypes from 57,000 purebred cows (data provided by Ken Anderson, Zoetis).

Trait	Progeny Equivalents
Heifer Pregnancy (HP)	10
Calving Ease Direct (CED)	21
Birth Weight (BW)	13
Milk	14
Docility (Doc)	12
Scrotal Circumference (SC)	14
Weaning Weight (WW)	19
Yearling Weight (YW)	22
Dry Matter Intake (RADG)	18
Yearling Height (YH)	11
Mature Weight (MW)	13
Carcass Weight (CW)	19
Marbling (Marb)	9
Ribeye Area (RE)	11
Fat Thickness (Fat)	12

152. http://www.illumina.com/content/dam/illumina-marketing/documents/icomunity/article_2014_08_jetstreamgenetics.pdf

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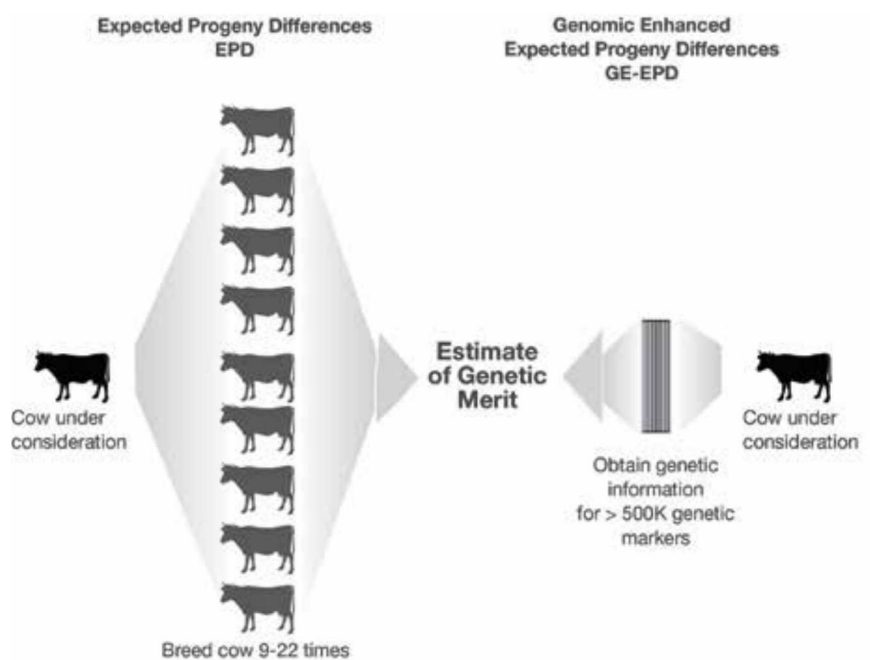


Figure 17. Example of the progeny equivalents from Table 3. The use of genomic information yields an estimation of a cow's genetic merit that is equivalent to what would be obtained by breeding that cow 9–22 times, depending on the trait under consideration.

In general, it is safe to assume that greater accuracy can be added to a young female's EPDs through genomic testing than could be achieved in her lifetime through progeny data, unless embryo transfer is applied.

For more applications of GS and ROI, see: <http://www.thebullvine.com/breeder-profiles/genomic-testing-discovers-new-cow-family>.

OTHER USES OF GENOMICS

The current levels at which GS is currently applied is variable from species to species. Cows are the species on which this technique has been focused mostly, with many other farm animals following quickly.

GS, however, is not the only application of genetics and genetic tools to agriculture. With the increase of awareness on food security, parentage testing and traceability are also issues of current major importance. Besides the obvious application to the food industry, parentage and traceability also have important applications in those species for which genomic selection and breeding is not yet a reality but a close goal.

Other applications of GS include the analysis of host-pathogen interactions and the use of genetic variation to preserve biodiversity, to personalize the management of an animal or plant, and to understand whether genome variability in a species has been shaped by selective pressure. In the long term, all this information can be used for the design of better breeding programs.¹⁵⁴

154. http://www.illumina.com/content/dam/illumina-marketing/documents/community/article_2014_06_three_trees_ranch_bo-vinesnp50_beadchip.pdf



Figure 18. Eucalyptus is a useful tree for the production of timber and pulp, as well as biomass.

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Telfer E. J., Stovold G. T., Li Y., Silva-Junior O. B., Grattapaglia D. G., et al. (2015) Parentage Reconstruction in *Eucalyptus nitens* Using SNPs and Microsatellite Markers: A Comparative Analysis of Marker Data Power and Robustness. *PLoS One* 10: e0130601.

Eucalyptus is a vigorous species that is useful for the production of both timber and pulp, and it is also a productive biomass producer. It is a preferentially outcrossed insect-pollinated species, which suffers considerable inbreeding depression if it undergoes related mating. The analysis of inbreeding for this species can be achieved efficiently by the use of molecular markers to reconstruct pedigrees and identify plants belonging to the same genetic line, a process known as parentage testing. This approach can be used to replace controlled pollination efficiently, a method that is both time-consuming and expensive. Traditionally, parentage studies used microsatellite panels. In this study, the authors used a panel of 106 SNPs to compare it with 2 microsatellite panels of 13 and 16 markers. They used these platforms in 26 open-pollinated offspring trees and 47 putative parents to test for parentage. In general, the SNP panel gave better quality results than both of the microsatellite markers, and it had a better resolution power in the reconstruction of pedigrees.

Illumina Technology: Illumina Infinium SNP Chip

Heaton M. P., Leymaster K. A., Kalbfleisch T. S., Kijas J. W., Clarke S. M., et al. (2014) SNPs for parentage testing and traceability in globally diverse breeds of sheep. *PLoS One* 9: e94851.

The implementation of parentage testing is important in the study of pedigrees. As it refines pedigree accuracy, parentage testing increases genetic improvement. This study aimed to identify SNPs that could be used in diverse breeds of sheep, and also to identify a subset of SNPs that could be used in North American sheep. To do so, the authors studied 47,693 genotypes from 2915 sheep and 74 breed groups provided by the Sheep Genomics Consortium and previously genotyped with the Illumina Ovine SNP50 Bead Array. Of these, they selected 163 SNPs that were suitable for parentage testing. They demonstrated that each SNP was informative in average for 48 ± 5 breed groups, and identified nearby polymorphisms that could confound genotyping by Sanger sequencing of 166 from 54 breed groups. They then developed a matrix-assisted laser desorption ionization time-of-flight (MALDI TOF) genetic test with 109 of the initially identified SNPs that had scoring rates and accuracy above 99%. Next, the authors tested the developed panel in a blinded set of 96 families and estimated that the median estimates for probability of a coincidental match between two animals was 1.1×10^{-39} , and the fraction of potential adults excluded from parentage was 0.999987. In this case, the use of a higher-density genetic panel allowed the development of a smaller panel of SNPs with a well-defined utility.

Illumina Technology: Illumina Ovine SNP50 Bead Array

GLOSSARY

Allele: One of several forms of a gene, usually arising due to a mutation in one of the possible nucleotides (A, C, G, or T) that could be found at a genomic position.

Chromosome: A packaged structure made of proteins and containing significant condensed fractions of the genome that is found in the nucleus. A species' chromosomal asset contains the whole nuclear genome.

Complex trait: Traits, or phenotypes, that depend on the additive or epistatic effect of multiple genetic and environmental factors.

Diploid: An organism whose genome contains 2 paired chromosomes, each one inherited from one of the parents.

Deoxyribonucleic acid (DNA): The molecule that contains information necessary to encode and regulate genes. These genes are either transcribed into RNA and translated into proteins, or constitute regulatory elements of a living organism.

DNA sequence: A polymer of multiple nucleotides. The human genome, as well as any of its fraction, is DNA sequence.

Estimated breeding value (EBV): The estimate of a breeder's genetic value.

Gene: Region of DNA that is actively transcribed and encodes proteins or contains regulatory elements. Genes are the building blocks of an organism.

Genetic improvement: Genetic change in a population of a domestic species bred by artificial selection with the aim of making it more suitable for the purpose for which it is bred.

Genomic selection (GS): Based on the principle that information from a large number of markers can be used to estimate breeding values, without having a precise knowledge of where specific genes are located.

Genotype: An individual's combination of alleles at one specific locus.

Haplotype: A set of alleles that tends to be inherited together.

Haplotype phasing: Reconstructing an individual's haplotype by looking at a smaller number of variants and comparing them to haplotypes from a larger dataset.

Heritability: The proportion of phenotypic variance caused by genetic variations. It has values that can range from 0.0, where the trait is fully determined by the environment (e.g. trauma), to 1, where the trait's variability is determined solely by genetics (eg, Mendelian traits such as albinism and other coat color traits, or dwarfism).

Homologous pair: Two homologous chromosomes, each one inherited from one of the parents.

Linkage Disequilibrium (LD): A measure of how often 2 alleles are inherited together compared to what would be expected by chance. A high LD can either be a result of linkage, or it can be an effect of nonrandom mating, selection, and/or population structure.

Locus: A particular position on the genome.

Marker: A genetic polymorphism where one of the alleles is associated with a trait of interest, and the others are not.

Marker-assisted selection (MAS): The use of a marker to indirectly select the genetic determinant, or determinants, of a trait.

Multiplex: Analysis of multiple regions of the DNA at the same time.

Nitrogen-containing base: Molecules that are found in DNA nucleotides containing the element nitrogen. DNA has 4 possible bases: cytosine (C), guanine (G), adenine (A), and thymine (T). A and G are purines, while C and T are pyrimidines.

Nucleotide: Building block of a DNA sequence. It is composed of a phosphate group, a monosaccharide, and a variable nitrogen-containing base.

Parentage: The identity of an individual's natural parents.

Penetrance: The extent to which a variant contributes to a specific trait. When penetrance equals 0, the variant has no effect. If penetrance equals 1, the variant has complete penetrance, and the trait will manifest in every carrier.

Phenotype: A combination of traits that results in an observable feature of an organism.

Polymorphism: A region of the genome that can have different alleles in different individuals.

Polyploid: An organism whose genome contains more than 2 paired chromosomes.

Quantitative trait locus (QTL): A “quantitative” trait is a phenotype that can be measured, as opposed to a discrete trait where only the presence or absence of a phenotype can be assessed. A quantitative trait locus is a region of DNA that includes genetic polymorphisms that are statistically associated with a quantitative trait.

Restriction enzyme: A protein that is capable of cutting DNA at a specific sequence of nucleotides. Different restriction enzymes recognize different sequences.

Traceability: The capability of identifying where an organism originates by using specific DNA polymorphisms.

Trait: A specific physical or behavioral characteristic of an organism that is either inherited or determined by the environment.

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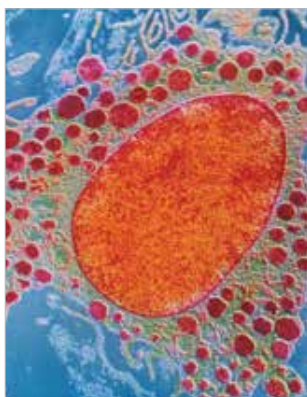
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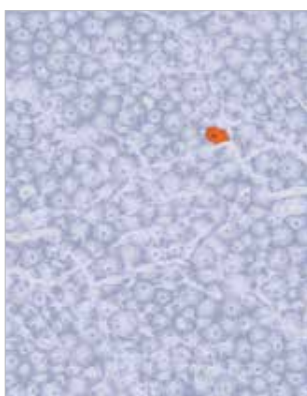
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