Genetic architecture of individual meiotic crossover rate and distribution in a large Atlantic Salmon (*Salmo salar*) breeding population.

Cathrine Brekke[1,2], Susan E. Johnston[1], Tim M. Knutsen[3], Peer Berg[2]

[1]Institute of Ecology and Evolution, School of Biology, University of Edinburgh, Edinburgh, EH9 3FL, United Kingdom

[2]Department of Animal and Aquacultural Sciences, Faculty of Biosciences, Norwegian University of Life Sciences, Post Box 5003, 1433, Ås, Norway

[3]AquaGen AS, Post Box 1240, 7462, Trondheim, Norway

*Corresponding author: cathrine.brekke@ed.ac.uk

Abstract

Meiotic recombination through chromosomal crossovers ensures proper segregation of homologous chromosomes in meiosis, while also breaking down linkage disequilibrium and shuffling alleles at loci located on the same chromosome. Rates of recombination can vary between species, but also between and within individuals, sex and chromosomes within species. Indeed, the Atlantic salmon genome is known to have clear sex differences in recombination with female biased heterochiasmy and markedly different landscapes of crossovers between males and females. In male meiosis, crossovers occur strictly in the telomeric regions, whereas in female meiosis crossovers tend to occur closer to the centromeres. However, little is known about the genetic control of these patterns and how this differs at the individual level. Here, we investigate genetic variation in individual measures of recombination in >5000 large full-sib families of a Norwegian Atlantic salmon breeding

population with high-density SNP genotypes. We show that females had 1.6× higher

crossover counts (CC) than males, with autosomal linkage maps spanning a total of 2174 cM

in females and 1483 cM in males. However, because of the extreme telomeric bias of male

crossovers, female recombination is much more important for generation of new haplotypes

with 8x higher intra-chromosomal genetic shuffling than males. CC was heritable in females

($h^2 = 0.11$) and males ($h^2 = 0.10$), and shuffling was also heritable in both sex but with a

lower heritability in females ($h^2 = 0.06$) than in males ($h^2 = 0.11$). Inter-sex genetic

correlations for both traits were close to zero, suggesting that rates and distribution of

crossovers are genetically distinct traits in males and females, and that there is a potential for

independent genetic change in both sexes in the Atlantic Salmon. Together, these findings

give novel insights into the genetic architecture of recombination in salmonids and contribute

to a better understanding of how rates and distribution of recombination may evolve in

eukaryotes more broadly.

Introduction

Meiotic recombination is a fundamental part of sexual reproduction, where chromosomal

crossing-over between the maternal and paternal chromosomes during synapsis in the early

prophase of meiosis, leads to novel combinations of alleles in the gametes transmitted to the

next generation. It is of large interest in studies of both wild and domestic species, as it

breaks up linkage between loci located on the same chromosome and in turn affects the speed

and degree of responses to selection (1,2). Recombination also has a mechanistic role in the

proper segregation of chromosomes during meiosis; a lack of crossovers can lead to harmful

outcomes, such as aneuploidy (i.e. the incorrect number of chromosomes in gametes); (3–6),

whereas high rates of recombination can be associated with increased mutation rates at

crossover sites (7). Yet, there is large variation in recombination rates within and between

species, populations, sexes, individuals, and chromosomes across sexually reproducing

eukaryotes (8,9), suggesting a combination of mechanistic and evolutionary processes in

driving this variation.

Studies of individual crossover counts in mammals and birds often show that it is variable

and heritable, with a conserved, oligogenic architecture (10–18). Genes including *RNF212,*

REC8, SPO11 and *RNF212B* are repeatedly associated with recombination rate in mammal

and bird studies (19–24) whereas the locus *PRDM9* has been identified as a gene that

determines recombination hotspot positioning in mammals (25). Furthermore, most species

studied show sex differences in the degree and direction of recombination rates and

landscapes (known as heterochiasmy) and underlying genetic architectures often differ

between the sexes, through sex-limited or sex-differential effects of associated loci (9,12–

17,21,26,27)). The causes and consequences of this sexual dimorphism has been of interest

for decades, with arguments often centring around sex differences in the fitness consequences

of preserving beneficial linked alleles ("haplotypes") or generating novel haplotypes that

increase gamete and/or offspring fitness (28–31). However, understanding the broader scale

evolution of heterochiasmy remains to be fully understood, due to a lack of suitable empirical

data to test hypotheses (30,32–36). Notably, these previous comparative studies have mainly

focussed on differences in linkage map lengths and/or crossover counts, yet the evolutionary

arguments above centre around the preservation/generation of haplotypic variation. However,

theoretical work has shown that the rate of allelic shuffling (i.e. the uncoupling of linked

allelic variation on chromosomes) is influenced by crossover positioning, where a crossover

on the middle of a chromosome will lead to higher rates of allelic shuffling than a crossover

on distal regions (37). Therefore, studies of heterochiasmy should consider not only sex-

differences in crossover counts, but also in rates of allelic shuffling within chromosomes, to

better disentangle processes related to chromosome disjunction and genetic linkage.

The Salmonidae family (salmon, char, trout, whitefish and grayling) share an ancestor that

underwent a whole genome duplication (WGD) event some 50-100 million years ago (38).

Studies in salmonids find that chromosome arms that still show high sequence similarity

exchange genetic material during meiosis in a quadrivalent formation (39), which appears to

be almost exclusive to male meiosis (40,41), and therefore may lead to different

recombination patterns between the sexes. Indeed, studies in Atlantic salmon (*Salmo salar*)

have shown extreme and distinct differences in recombination landscapes between males and

females (42,43). An early linkage analysis in Atlantic salmon with 442 markers showed little

to no recombination in male linkage groups, implying that female recombination was 5 times

higher than that of males (44). However, as marker densities increased (to 5650 markers), it

was discovered that males do recombine with an overall rate relatively close to females in

most chromosomes, but almost exclusively in the telomeric regions (42), a pattern which

could not be picked up by lower-density arrays. These stark differences in landscape indicate

the presence of large sex-differences in allelic shuffling between linked loci in these species,

but the causes and consequences of variation in meiotic crossovers remain unknown. In this

study, we investigated individual-, sex- and population-level variation in meiotic crossover

rates and landscapes in a large breeding population of Atlantic salmon. We use data from

more than 5000 full sib families with genotypes on ~35,000 SNP markers to: (a) construct

sex-specific linkage maps; (b) quantify individual crossover counts and rates of intra-

chromosomal allelic shuffling; (c) determine their heritabilities and genetic architectures

within each sex; and (d) investigate cross-sex genetic correlations.

Results

Linkage mapping.

The sex-specific linkage maps spanned a total of 2173.80 cM in females and 1482.96 cM in

males, with the female map 1.47 times than in males (Table 1, Fig 1). In agreement with Lien

et al. (2011), the biggest sex differences were on chromosomes 2, 8 and 17, where the female

maps were 5.34, 28.13 and 16.09 times longer than the male maps, respectively. In these

three chromosomes, we detected very few crossover events in males, with male maps only 2-

20 cM long. Obligate crossing-over results in a minimum predicted map length of 50cM;

therefore, we assume that we are unable to pick up all crossovers in males on their

chromosomes, perhaps either due to lower marker coverage in the telomeric regions on these

chromosomes or due to multivalent pairing and crossing over with a different pair of

chromosomes (39). For the remaining chromosomes, the genetic map length is 1 to 2.1 times

longer in females. Chromosome-level results from the linkage mapping for all chromosomes

are provided in Table 1, and Marey maps showing the relationship between the physical and

genetic length of the chromosomes are shown in Fig 1. The full linkage map can be found in

Table 1. Summary of linkage mapping results by sex and chromosome

Chr	Number of markers	Chr length (Mb)	Male cM	Female cM	Female/male ratio	Male rate (cM/Mb)	Female rate (cM/Mb)
ssa1	2828	174.50	101.15	130.32	1.29	0.58	0.75
ssa2	749	95.48	19.54	104.45	5.34	0.20	1.09
ssa3	1417	105.78	59.92	107.26	1.79	0.57	1.01
ssa4	1485	90.54	56.88	101.11	1.78	0.63	1.12
ssa5	1246	92.79	62.60	103.35	1.65	0.67	1.11
ssa6	1255	96.06	54.88	115.71	2.11	0.57	1.20
ssa7	852	68.86	67.55	101.37	1.50	0.98	1.47
ssa8	300	28.86	2.01	56.40	28.13	0.07	1.95
ssa9	2333	161.28	55.68	97.65	1.75	0.35	0.61
ssa10	1881	125.88	56.54	80.23	1.42	0.45	0.64
ssa11	1392	111.87	50.92	78.75	1.55	0.46	0.70
ssa12	1485	101.68	55.15	79.27	1.44	0.54	0.78

ssa13	1611	114.42	60.33	76.21	1.26	0.53	0.67
ssa14	1557	101.98	60.94	69.79	1.15	0.60	0.68
ssa15	1524	110.67	55.84	70.27	1.26	0.50	0.63
ssa16	1302	96.49	48.83	64.02	1.31	0.51	0.66
ssa17	681	87.49	3.79	60.96	16.09	0.04	0.70
ssa18	1067	84.08	45.04	63.04	1.40	0.54	0.75
ssa19	1157	88.11	52.57	59.48	1.13	0.60	0.68
ssa20	1331	96.85	53.81	61.61	1.14	0.56	0.64
ssa21	962	59.82	49.88	54.37	1.09	0.83	0.91
ssa22	1122	63.82	52.31	56.56	1.08	0.82	0.89
ssa23	949	52.46	55.52	55.48	1.00	1.06	1.06
ssa24	925	49.35	52.75	54.53	1.03	1.07	1.10
ssa25	888	54.39	50.67	54.06	1.07	0.93	0.99
ssa26	593	55.99	48.91	53.05	1.08	0.87	0.95
ssa27	825	45.31	48.75	53.57	1.10	1.08	1.18
ssa28	606	41.47	48.55	56.60	1.17	1.17	1.36
ssa29	709	43.05	51.66	54.34	1.05	1.20	1.26
Total	35032	2499.33	1482.96	2173.80	1.47	0.59	0.87

115 Mb is the physical length of the chromosomes in megabases. cM is the estimated genetic
116 length of the chromosomes in centiMorgan. Male and female rate is the recombination rate in
117 cM/Mb. Total is the the total lengths and rates of the 29 chromosomes. Physical length of the
118 chromosomes are from reference genome Ssal_v3.1(GenBank accession GCA_905237065.1)
119

120
121
122 **Fig 1. Male and female Marey maps for the 29 Atlantic salmon chromosomes.**
123 The physical position in Mb is plotted against the genetic position in cM for the SNP markers
124 within each linkage group. Female positions in red and male in blue. The dashed vertical
125 lines in yellow are the centromere positions from the reference genome Ssal_v3.1 (GenBank
126 accession GCA_905237065.1).
127

Fine-scale recombination rates along the genome

Patterns of recombination rates across the genome were strikingly different between males and females, in agreement with previous studies (42,43). Male recombination rates were highly elevated in the sub-telomeric regions (e.g. up to ~10Mb from telomeres) and almost non-existent in the rest of the genome (Fig 2). Conversely, female recombination rates were elevated in peri-centromeric regions and reduced in telomeric regions (Fig 2). In immediate proximity to the centromere, both male and female recombination rates are close to zero in most chromosomes, indicating that the centromere itself has a suppressive effect on recombination (Fig 2).

Fig 2. Fine-scale sex-specific recombination rate along the 29 Atlantic salmon chromosomes.
The recombination rate in cM/Mb within each 1Mb bin for males in blue and females in red.
The dashed vertical lines in yellow are the centromere positions from the reference genome
Ssal_v3.1 (GenBank accession GCA_905237065.1).

Individual recombination rates

The total numbers of observations (i.e. individual gametes) were 287,063 from 1,580 unique

females, and 287,111 from 889 unique males. Crossover count (CC) was approximately

normally distributed in both males and females (Fig 3), with a mean of 19.6 (± 3.7 SD) in

152 females and 12.1 (± 2.9 SD) in males (Table 2). Intra-chromosomal genetic shuffling ($\bar{r}$) was

153 normally distributed in males and females (Fig 4), with a mean of 8.06×10^{-3} (± 1.87×10^{-3} SD)

154 in females and 1.01×10^{-3} (± 0.56×10^{-3} SD) in males, representing 8-fold higher levels of

155 shuffling in females (Table 2).

157
158 **Fig 3. Distribution of crossover count (CC).**
159 for paternal gametes in blue (top) and maternal gametes in red (bottom).
160

161
162
163 **Fig 4. Distribution of intrachromosomal genetic shuffling $\bar{r}$.**
164 Maternal gametes in red and paternal gametes in blue.

Genetic variation in measures of recombination

The heritability (h^2) for CC was 0.11 (SE = 0.01) in females and 0.10 (SE = 0.02) in males.

Genetic shuffling ($\bar{r}$) was also significantly heritable in both sex, but lower in females ($h^2 =$

0.06, SE = 0.01) than in males ($h^2 = 0.11$, SE = 0.03). Results from the variance component

estimations for both traits is presented in table 2. The genetic correlations between CC and $\bar{r}$

was 0.86 (0.01) in females, but only 0.42 (0.05) in males. The corresponding phenotypic

correlations were 0.68 (0.00) for females and 0.43 (0.00) for females, i.e. phenotypic

correlation between CC and $\bar{r}$ was lower than the genetic correlations for both sex. The

genetic correlations between male and female CC and $\bar{r}$ were 0.10 (0.06) and -0.10 (0.06),

respectively (Table 3).

178
179
180 **Table 2. Results from variance component estimation of CC and $\bar{r}$.**

Trait	sex	N_{FIDs}	N_{obs}	mean (sd)	h^2(SE)	V_p	V_e
CC	female	1580	287 063	19.6 (3.7)	0.11 (0.01)	14.2	11.7
CC	male	889	287 111	12.1 (2.9)	0.10 (0.02)	8.9	6.9
$\bar{r}$	female	1580	287 063	8.06 (1.87) $e10^{-3}$	0.06 (0.01)	3.8 $e10^{-3}$	3.1 $e10^{-3}$
$\bar{r}$	male	889	287 111	1.01 (0.56) $e10^{-3}$	0.11 (0.03)	0.4 $e10^{-3}$	0.2 $e10^{-3}$

181 N_{FIDs} are the total number of FIDs (with repeated observations), N_{obs} is the total number of
182 observations (meiosis) for each sex. Mean is the mean CC or $\bar{r}$ with standard deviations in
183 parenthesis. h^2 is the heritability estimate with standard errors in parenthesis. Effect f is the
184 estimated effect of inbreeding (f) for each trait and sex.

Table 3. Genetic and phenotypic correlations.

	Male shuffling	**Female shuffling**	**Male CC**	**Female CC**
Male shuffling		-	0.426 (0.003)	-
Female shuffling	-0.104 (0.060)		-	0.679 (0.002)
Male CC	0.646 (0.022)	-		-
Female CC	-	0.892 (0.008)	0.102 (0.060)	

In the lower triangle are genetic correlations between males and females for both traits with standard errors in parenthesis. Phenotypic Pearson's correlations between the two traits for each sex is in the upper triangle.

Genome wide association studies.

Genome wide association studies did not identify any significant quantitative trait loci for

either crossover count or shuffling in males or females. In the GWA analysis for female CC

and shuffling, there were one and three markers, respectively, that reached the significance

threshold, but they were not supported by other markers in the same region and there were no

clear candidate genes close to any of these markers (Fig 5 and 6). The top ten SNP markers

for each GWAS are reported in Supplementary Table 1.

Female

Male

Fig 5. Manhattan plots of genome-wide association between markers and crossover count (CC). The red line is the genome-wide significance threshold using a Bonferroni correction. The Y axis is the negative logarithm of the p-values, and the x-axis is the physical positions of the markers with alternating colours for chromosomes 1-29 for males (A) and females (B).

Female

Male

209
210
211
Fig 6. Manhattan plots of genome-wide association between markers and
intrachromosomal shuffling ($\bar{r}$).
The red line is the genome-wide significance threshold = 0.05/Number of markers per
analysis. The Y axis is the negative logarithm of the p-values, and the x-axis is the physical
positions of the markers with alternating colours for chromosomes 1-29 for males (A) and
females (B).
218
219
220
221

Discussion

In this study, we confirm substantial sex-differences in genome-wide recombination rates and

landscapes in Atlantic salmon, as previously reported by Lien et al (42) and Gonen et al. (43).

Our study is the first to investigate this variation at the individual level, both in terms of

crossover count (CC) and the degree to which alleles are shuffled on chromosomes to create

new haplotypes ($\bar{r}$). We showed that CC is heritable in both males and females, but with a

low inter-sex genetic correlation, suggesting that the genetic architecture of CC is sex

specific. Similarly, $\bar{r}$ is heritable in females, but not in males. Our findings show that whilst

females have ~1.6 times more crossovers than males, they have eight times more genetic

shuffling of alleles from one generation to the next, due to the extreme sex differences in

crossover locations. We do not find any quantitative trait loci for either trait or sex,

suggesting that the genetic variation in the two measures of recombination is polygenic. Here,

we explore the results in more detail and discuss how the findings may be relevant in the

breeding work on Atlantic Salmon, as well as how they contribute to the understanding of

variation in rates and patterns of recombination in general.

Extreme sex-differences in crossover landscapes.

The sex-specific linkage map showed a female-biased heterochiasmy in salmon, but more

striking was the large differences in the distribution of crossovers along the chromosomes.

Male crossovers occured strictly in the telomeric regions, while female crossovers tend to

occur closer to the centromeres, leaving regions in the middle of the acrocentric

chromosomes (ssa8 to ssa29) with very low rates in both males and females (Fig 2). The total

length in cM of the male and female linkage maps was shorter than previously published

maps (42,43). This may be due to more accurate inference of physical marker positions

relative to the assembled genome, rather than *de novo* inference of marker loci based on

genetic linkage; incorrectly placed markers can often lead to inflation in map lengths. Also,

the number of families and individuals used to create the linkage maps in this study is much

higher than in previous published maps, with our full-sib family structures well suited for

linkage mapping. Nevertheless, the relative difference between the sexes was similar to both

studies, with females showing ~1.38 and ~ 1.5 times longer maps than males in Lien et al.

(2011) and Gonen et al. (2014), respectively.

On the chromosomes with the largest sex differences in total genetic length (ssa2, ssa8 and

ssa17), the male maps had little to no recombination in one or both telomeric regions of the

chromosome (Fig 1). These regions coincide with regions reported in the paper by Lien et al

(45) to have blocks of > 90% sequence similarity with blocks on other chromosomes.

Therefore, a potential explanation for the lack of crossovers between homologs in these

regions is that these chromosomes are experiencing delayed rediploidization and are forming

quadrivalents during meiosis (45). Cytological studies in different salmonid species find that

multivalent pairing happens between the chromosomes with high sequence similarity and that

the phenomena occur primarily in males (39,41). The high sequence similarity and tetrasomic

inheritance makes these areas difficult to map, and these regions are indeed characterised by

low marker density in our dataset. This means that there might be crossovers occurring in

these regions that we are unable to pick up. In addition, if there is homeologue pairing in

these regions, recombination events occurring between the two homeologue chromosomes

may lead to an underestimation of genome-wide recombination rates in male Atlantic salmon;

removing these three chromosomes reduces the sex difference in map lengths from 1.47 times

higher in females to 1.33 times higher. Mechanistic explanations for the extreme difference in

crossover distribution in males and females remain unresolved. One compelling avenue for

further study in Salmonids, is that in other autotetraploid species such as *Arabidopsis*

arenosa, recombination rates are reduced, and crossover interference appears to increase (46–

48). Therefore, increased homeologue pairing in males may benefit from reduced

recombination combined with telomeric crossing-over in order to mitigate issues arising from

quadrivalent formation and/or mispairing of chromosomes during the crossover process.

Considering the evolutionary consequences of our findings, male recombination at the very

end of the chromosomes leaves the haplotypes almost intact, which may be beneficial in a

successful male to preserve their advantageous allelic combinations, particularly if males

experience stronger diploid and/or haploid selection (28,31). However, the same could be

argued for other species that do not share the same recombination patterns, yet may have

stronger differences in selection between the sexes (e.g. with stronger sexual dimorphism

and/or differential investment in gametes and offspring; (33,49). However, we cannot rule out

similar importance of purely mechanistic suggestions, such as difference in timing of meiosis,

chromatin structure and synaptonemal complex length between males and females resulting

in sex-specific regions accessible for the recombination machinery at the time of meiosis or

differences in the strength of crossover interference (49,50).

Genetic variation in individual measures of recombination

To the best of our knowledge, these are the first results on genetic variation for individual

measures of recombination in Atlantic salmon. Heritability for CC is moderate, 0.10 in males

and 0.11 in females. This is consistent with estimates in other vertebrate species, which range

from around 0.05 – 0.18 in pigs (16,51), sheep (12,13), cattle (15,21,52) and red deer (20), to

as high as 0.41 and 0.46 in some *Drosophila* strains (17) and mouse lines (10), respectively.

The genetic correlation between male and female CC in our study was very low at 0.10

(0.06). Despite the relatively large confidence interval, this estimate indicates that different

loci affect CC in males and females. Intra-chromosomal shuffling $\bar{r}$ was also significantly

heritable in females ($h^2 = 0.06$) and males ($h^2 = 0.11$). Considering the genetic correlation

between CC and $\bar{r}$ within each sex, we showed that this correlation was substantially lower in

males than in females, 0.43 and 0.68 respectively.

We did not find any QTLs in either sex for either trait in the genome-wide association

analysis, suggesting that these traits are polygenic in Atlantic salmon. This is in contrast to

studies of individual recombination rates in mammals, where most studies point to a

conserved oligogenic architecture of the trait (13,14,16,22). However, we cannot rule out

that our dataset has reduced power to detect loci with a modest effect on recombination.

Compared to other studies in livestock (51) and human (27), the number of FIDs in our study

are lower, impacting our ability to detect significant trait loci.

What are the implications for breeding?

Our results suggest that there is the genetic potential to increase or decrease the amount of

allelic shuffling and/or crossover counts within Atlantic salmon, and that this can be achieved

independently in males and females, due to low genetic correlations between the sexes.

However, the relatively low heritabilities and polygenic nature of these traits suggest that

genetic change may be slow because the many small effect loci can be pleiotropic and/or

linked with genes affecting other traits prioritised in selection, and that a corresponding

phenotypic change will be modest (53). Previous focus on the relevance of recombination for

animal breeding has been local or genome-wide rates of crossovers (53–55). In our study, the

striking difference between male and female shuffling in Atlantic salmon demonstrates the

critical importance of crossover for shuffling and creation of novel haplotypes that may have

previously been overlooked. There are considerable differences in the probability of shuffling

between linked loci in male and female meiosis, with males transmitting haplotypes to

offspring that are relatively unchanged. However, we must also consider that each offspring

will always inherit exactly one paternal and one maternal gamete and in the subsequent

generations, alleles will segregate independently of which sex they were transmitted from in

previous generations, so the population level effect of the conserved haplotypes in male

salmon may be limited. Furthermore, little is known about the potential biological and fitness

consequences of altering rates or distribution of crossovers. The mechanisms leading to the

observed variation in shuffling are likely associated with the mechanisms that control

crossover location and rate. For example, if low rates of crossovers in both males and females

in chromosome centres is associated with chromosome fusions following the whole genome

duplication, attempting to select for crossover location closer to chromosome centres may

cause reduction in fertility (56). Similarly, despite some evidence for a potential to increase

genetic gain with higher recombination rates (53), selecting for higher recombination rates is

not likely to be beneficial or even possible with crossover interference. The negative

consequences of extensive recombination rates remain to be understood, although higher

mutagenic load is likely (14), combined with the fact that there seems to be an upper limit for

number of crossovers per chromosome shared among species across a broad selection of taxa

(8),

Conclusions and future directions.

In conclusion, this study shows that there is genetic variation in genome-wide rates and

distribution of recombination in Atlantic salmon. Consistent with previous studies, Atlantic

salmon show extreme levels of heterochiasmy, especially in the distribution of crossover

events along the chromosomes. We show that the genetic correlation between male and

female rates and distribution of crossovers is very low, suggesting that they behave and may

be altered as different traits in males and females. Future studies should aim to include the

multivalent pairing in male meiosis to get the full picture of male crossover rates and

distribution. Overall, these findings provide a basis to better understand the causes and

consequences of recombination rate variation in general, and the genetic architecture of the

trait in Atlantic salmon specifically.

Methods

Atlantic salmon genetic dataset.

Genotypes from a total of 375,381 individuals were available from the Norwegian AquaGen

Atlantic Salmon (*Salmo salar*) breeding population for this study. The breeding work in this

population started in 1970 and it has founders from 41 Norwegian rivers. The individuals in

this dataset were born between year 2008 and 2020. Individuals were genotyped on two

different customized SNP arrays, Affymetrix custom 49K and Affymetrix custom 70K.

Genotype calls were generated using the Thermo Fisher Best Practices Genotyping Analysis

Workflow. Markers in the categories PolyHighResolution and NoMinorHom were kept for

further analysis, i.e SNPs with well-separated genotype clusters and two or more alleles in the

genotype calls, and where one cluster is homozygous, and one is heterozygous for biallelic

SNPs and only one homozygous cluster and one or more heterozygous cluster appear for

multiallelic SNPs (57). Finally, only markers common to both SNP arrays were kept for

further analysis. resulting in a set of 35,033 markers and a total genotyping call rate of 0.997

in the final dataset. The physical positions of the SNPs were determined based on the Atlantic

salmon reference genome assembly Ssal_v3.1 (GenBank accession GCA_905237065.1). This

data set is referred to hereafter as the 35K dataset. All focal individuals (see section three

generation full-sib families below) were also imputed to the 49.087 SNP markers on the

customized Affymetrix 49K chip; this dataset was used for the genome wide association

analysis only.

Three generation full-sib families.

The pedigree was ordered into full-sib families as follows: for each unique sire – dam mating

pair, hereafter referred to as the focal individuals or FIDs, we constructed a three-generation

family that included their offspring and potentially genotyped parents (see Fig 7 for

illustration of the family structure). This enables phasing of the gametes transmitted from the

FIDs to the offspring, in turn identifying the crossover positions that occurred during meiosis

in the FIDs. Therefore, recombination phenotypes (i.e. crossover count and intra-

chromosomal shuffling) are assigned to the FIDs. An FID can be in several families if the

individual is mated with several individuals in the pedigree, or as an offspring or grandparent,

but our study design means that each meiosis was only counted once. The 35K set had a total

of 5568 unique full-sib families with number of offspring ranging from 1 to 537. Because the

number of full-sibs were high in most of the families, genotyped grandparents were not vital

for proper phasing of the offspring gametes and therefore not set as a strict criteria for

inclusion.

389
390

391
392 Fig 7. Illustration of the full sib family structures.
393 This structure is used to phase gametes that are transmitted from focal individuals (FIDs, in
394 grey) to their offspring. In cases where parents in the FIDs are known, they are included to
395 improve phasing accuracy.

396
397

Linkage mapping.

Linkage mapping was conducted in LepMap3 (58) assuming marker orders were the same as on the Atlantic salmon genome and that each chromosome constituted a linkage group. The *filtering2* module was run as suggested for multi-family datasets with a *datatolerance* = 0.01 to filter markers based on segregation distortion. The *separatechromosomes2* module was run within linkage group and markers that were not assigned to the main group (LOD score < 5) were excluded, as suggested in species where chromosome-level assemblies and marker positions are well established. The *ordermarkers2* module was run with the option to evaluate the given marker order, i.e. to calculate the centimorgan (cM) positions using the Haldane mapping function option. A total of 35,032 markers across 29 chromosomes were included in the final linkage map. These data were then used to calculate approximate fine-scale recombination rates across the genome. SNPs were assigned to bins of 1Mb based on their genomic positions, and the cM/Mb rate was measured as the difference in cM divided by the difference in Mb between the first and last SNP marker within each bin. Finally, it should be noted that Atlantic salmon do not have distinct sex chromosomes but have an autosomal sex-determining region on Ssa3 (59).

Estimation of individual recombination rates.

Crossover count (CC) was determined for each gamete transmitted from an FID to their offspring from gamete-phased output of the *orderMarkers2* module in LepMap3, and assigned to the FID in which the meiosis took place. Intra-chromosomal genetic shuffling, $\bar{r}$, was calculated as the probability that a randomly chosen pair of loci on the same chromosome was unpaired during gamete production (in meiosis) following the method suggested by Veller et al. (37):

$$\mathbb{E}[\bar{r}] = \sum_{k=1}^{n} 2p_k(1-p_k) L_k^2$$

where k is the chromosome number 1-29, p is the proportion of paternally inherited alleles, $1-p$ is the proportion of maternally inherited alleles, and L is the length of the chromosome as a fraction of the total length of the genome. This method determines $\bar{r}$ for each gamete and is assigned as a phenotype of the FID in which meiosis took place.

Genetic variation in measures of recombination.

Variance components for individual CC and $\bar{r}$ were estimated in DMU v6 (60) with a repeatability model using the Restricted Maximum Likelihood (REML) and average information (AI) algorithm. The model was:

$$Y = sex + id1 + id2 + b_2*het + e$$

where Y is the response variable (CC or $\bar{r}$), **sex** is the fixed effect of sex, **id1** is the random additive genetic effect of the FID (N= 2,469) with a covariance matrix proportional to the genomic relationship matrix, **id2** is the random effect of the FIDs permanent environment (i.e. environmental effects that are constant across repeated measures on an FID), **het** is the individual inbreeding coefficient (method-of-moments F) calculated with the --*het* function in PLINK v1.9 (61), **b$_2$** is the regression of CC or $\bar{r}$ on **het** of the FID, and **e** is the residual effect. The narrow-sense heritability (h^2) was defined as the proportion of phenotypic variance explained by the additive genetic effect **id1** (i.e. the estimated additive genetic variance divided by the sum of variances estimated for all random effects) and was estimated separately for each sex. Repeatability was measured as the sum of the genetic variance and

permanent environment variance divided by the sum of all variances estimated for all random

effects.

Genome wide association studies (GWAS).

We conducted GWAS for CC and $\bar{r}$ using the 49K SNP dataset using a mixed linear model-

based analysis in GCTA version 1.93.2a_beta (62), where the chromosome that the focal SNP

is located on is left out of the genomic relationship matrix as implemented in the *--mlma-loco*

module. The model was structured as follows:

$$\bar{y}_n = a + bx + g + e$$

Where $\bar{y}_n$ is the mean CC or $\bar{r}$ for n observations on the individual, a is the trait mean, b is

the fixed additive effect of the SNP tested for association and x is the SNP genotypes 0, 1 and

2 for the homozygote, heterozygote and opposite homozygote respectively, g is a vector of

random effects assumed to $\sim N(0,G\sigma_a^2)$ where G is the genomic relatedness matrix calculated

with SNP markers on all the autosomes except the chromosome of the SNP currently tested

for association and σ_a^2 is the genetic variance, and e is the residual term $\sim N(0,I\sigma_e^2)$. To

account for n multiple observations per FID, $\bar{y}_n$ was weighted based on the number of

observations, and trait and sex-specific heritabilities (h^2) and repeatabilities (t) estimated

following the method from Garrick et al., (63). The significance threshold for association was

determined using a Bonferroni correction at $\alpha = 0.05$, determined as $P = 0.05/49,087 = 1.02$

$\times 10^{-6}$.

470
471

References

1. Hill WG, Robertson A. The effect of linkage on limits to artificial selection. Genet Res. 1966;8(3):269–94.

2. Felsenstein J. The Evolutionary Advantage of Recombination. Genetics. 1974 Oct 1;737–56. Available from: https://academic.oup.com/genetics/article/78/2/737/5991150

3. Fledel-Alon A, Wilson DJ, Broman K, Wen X, Ober C, Coop G, et al. Broad-scale recombination patterns underlying proper disjunction in humans. PLoS Genet. 2009 Sep;5(9).

4. Sherman SL, Takaesu N, Freeman SB, Grantham M, Phillips C, Blackston RD, et al. Trisomy 21: Association between Reduced Recombination and Nondisjunction. Vol. 49, Am. J. Hum. Genet. 1991.

5. Hassold T, Merrill M, Adkins K, Freeman S, Sherman2 S. Recombination and Maternal Age-Dependent Nondisjunction: Molecular Studies of Trisomy 16. Vol. 57, Am. J. Hum. Genet. 1995.

6. Koehler KE, Hawley RS, Sherman S, Hassold T. Recombination and nondisjunction in humans and flies [Internet]. Vol. 5, Human Molecular Genetics. Oxford University Press; 1996. Available from: https://academic.oup.com/hmg/article/5/Supplement_1/1495/663563

7. Halldorsson B V., Palsson G, Stefansson OA, Jonsson H, Hardarson MT, Eggertsson HP, et al. Human genetics: Characterizing mutagenic effects of recombination through a sequence-level genetic map. Science (1979). 2019 Jan 25;363(6425).

8. Ritz KR, Noor MAF, Singh ND. Variation in Recombination Rate: Adaptive or Not? Vol. 33, Trends in Genetics. Elsevier Ltd; 2017. p. 364–74.

9. Stapley J, Feulner PGD, Johnston SE, Santure AW, Smadja CM. Variation in recombination frequency and distribution across eukaryotes: Patterns and processes. Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society B: Biological Sciences. 2017 Dec 19;372(1736).

10. Dumont BL, Broman KW, Payseur BA. Variation in genomic recombination rates among heterogeneous stock mice. Genetics. 2009 Aug;182(4):1345–9.

11. Wang RJ, Gray MM, Parmenter MD, Broman KW, Payseur BA. Recombination rate variation in mice from an isolated island. Mol Ecol. 2017 Jan 1;26(2):457–70.

12. Petit M, Astruc JM, Sarry J, Drouilhet L, Fabre S, Moreno CR, et al. Variation in recombination rate and its genetic determinism in sheep populations. Genetics. 2017 Oct 1;207(2):767–84.

13. Johnston SE, Bérénos C, Slate J, Pemberton JM. Conserved genetic architecture underlying individual recombination rate variation in a wild population of soay sheep (Ovis aries). Genetics. 2016 May 1;203(1):583–98.

14. Halldorsson B V., Palsson G, Stefansson OA, Jonsson H, Hardarson MT, Eggertsson HP, et al. Human genetics: Characterizing mutagenic effects of recombination through a sequence-level genetic map. Science (1979). 2019 Jan 25;363(6425).

15. Ma L, O'Connell JR, VanRaden PM, Shen B, Padhi A, Sun C, et al. Cattle Sex-Specific Recombination and Genetic Control from a Large Pedigree Analysis. PLoS Genet. 2015 Nov 1;11(11).

16. Johnsson M, Whalen A, Ros-Freixedes R, Gorjanc G, Chen CY, Herring WO, et al. Genetic variation in recombination rate in the pig. Genetics Selection Evolution. 2021 Dec 1;53(1).

17. Hunter CM, Huang W, Mackay TFC, Singh ND. The Genetic Architecture of Natural Variation in Recombination Rate in Drosophila melanogaster. PLoS Genet. 2016 Apr 1;12(4).

18. McAuley JB, Servin B, Peters L, Hagen IJ, Niskanen AK, Ringsby H, et al. Sex-differences in the genetic architecture of individual recombination rates in 1 wild house sparrows (Passer domesticus). [Internet]. bioRxiv. 2023. Available from: https://doi.org/10.1101/2023.01.26.525019

19. Johnston S, Stoffel M, Pemberton J. Variants at RNF212 and RNF212B are associated with recombination rate variation in Soay sheep (Ovis aries). 2020;

20. Johnston SE, Huisman J, Pemberton JM. A genomic region containing REC8 and RNF212B is associated with individual recombination rate variation in a wild population of red deer (Cervus elaphus). G3: Genes, Genomes, Genetics. 2018 Jul 1;8(7):2265–76.

21. Kadri NK, Harland C, Faux P, Cambisano N, Karim L, Coppieters W, et al. Coding and noncoding variants in HFM1, MLH3, MSH4, MSH5, RNF212, and RNF212B affect recombination rate in cattle. Genome Res. 2016 Oct 1;26(10):1323–32.

22. Sandor C, Li W, Coppieters W, Druet T, Charlier C, Georges M. Genetic variants in REC8, RNF212, and PRDM9 influence male recombination in cattle. PLoS Genet. 2012 Jul;8(7).

23. Kong A, Thorleifsson G, Stefansson H, Masson G, Helgason A, Gudbjartsson DF, et al. Sequence Variants in the RNF212 Gene Associate with Genome-Wide Recombination Rate. Science (1979). 2008 Mar 7;319(5868):1398–401.

24. Weng Z, Wolc A, Su H, Fernando RL, Dekkers JCM, Arango J, et al. Identification of recombination hotspots and quantitative trait loci for recombination rate in layer chickens. J Anim Sci Biotechnol. 2019 Feb 26;10(1).

25. Baudat F, Buard J, Grey C, Fledel-Alon A, Ober C, Przeworski M, et al. PRDM9 Is a Major Determinant of Meiotic Recombination Hotspots in Humans and Mice. Science (1979). 2010 Feb 12;327(5967):836–40.

26. Johnston SE, Huisman J, Ellis PA, Pemberton JM. A high-density linkage map reveals sexual dimorphism in recombination landscapes in red deer (Cervus elaphus). G3: Genes, Genomes, Genetics. 2017;7(8):2859–70.

27. Halldorsson B V., Hardarson MT, Kehr B, Styrkarsdottir U, Gylfason A, Thorleifsson G, et al. The rate of meiotic gene conversion varies by sex and age. Nat Genet. 2016 Nov 1;48(11):1377–84.

28. Trivers R. Sex differences in rates of recombination and sexual selection. In: Michod RE, editor. Evolution of sex: An Examination of Current Ideas. Sunderland. Massachusetts: Sinauer Associates Inc; 1988. p. 270–86.

29. Felsenstein J. Sex and the Evolution of Recombination. In: Michod RE, editor. Evolution of Sex: An Examination of Current Ideas . Sunderland, Massachusetts: Sinauer Associates Inc.; 1988. p. 74–86.

30. Burt A, Bell G, Harvey PH. Sex differences in recombination. Vol. 4, J. evol. Biol. 1991.

31. Lenormand T, Dutheil J. Recombination difference between sexes: A role for haploid selection. In: PLoS Biology. 2005. p. 0396–403.

32. Lenormand T, Dutheil J. Recombination difference between sexes: A role for haploid selection. In: PLoS Biology. 2005. p. 0396–403.

33. Mank JE. The evolution of heterochiasmy: The role of sexual selection and sperm
competition in determining sex-specific recombination rates in eutherian
mammals. Genet Res (Camb). 2009 Oct;91(5):355–63.

34. Barton NH, Charlesworth B. Why Sex and Recombination? [Internet]. 1998.
Available from: http://science.sciencemag.org/

35. Dunn LC, Bennett D. Sex differences in recombination of linked genes in
animals. Genet Res. 1967;9(2):211–20.

36. Nei M. Linkage modification and sex difference in recombination. 1969
Nov;681–9.

37. Veller C, Kleckner N, Nowak MA. A rigorous measure of genome-wide genetic
shuffling that takes into account crossover positions and Mendel's second law.
Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences [Internet]. 2019 Jan 29 [cited
2021 Oct 15];116(5):1659–68. Available from:
https://www.pnas.org/content/116/5/1659

38. Ohno S, Wolf U, Atkin NB. Evolution from fish to mammals by gene D.
Hereditas [Internet]. 1968 [cited 2022 Jan 2];59(1):169–87. Available from:
https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1601-5223.1968.tb02169.x

39. Allendorf FW, Bassham S, Cresko WA, Limborg MT, Seeb LW, Seeb JE. Effects
of crossovers between homeologs on inheritance and population genomics in
polyploid-derived salmonid fishes. Vol. 106, Journal of Heredity. Oxford
University Press; 2015. p. 217–27.

40. Waples RK, Seeb LW, Seeb JE. Linkage mapping with paralogs exposes regions
of residual tetrasomic inheritance in chum salmon (Oncorhynchus keta). Mol Ecol
Resour. 2016 Jan 1;16(1):17–28.

41. Timusk ER, Ferguson MM, Moghadam HK, Norman JD, Wilson CC, Danzmann
RG. Genome evolution in the fish family salmonidae: Generation of a brook charr
genetic map and comparisons among charrs (Arctic charr and brook charr) with
rainbow trout. BMC Genet. 2011 Jul 28;12.

42. Lien S, Gidskehaug L, Moen T, Hayes BJ, Berg PR, Davidson WS, et al. A dense
SNP-based linkage map for Atlantic salmon (Salmo salar) reveals extended
chromosome homeologies and striking differences in sex-specific recombination
patterns. BMC Genomics. 2011 Dec 19;12.

43. Gonen S, Lowe NR, Cezard T, Gharbi K, Bishop SC, Houston RD. Linkage maps
of the Atlantic salmon (Salmo salar) genome derived from RAD sequencing.
BMC Genomics. 2014 Feb 27;15(1).

44. Moen T, Hayes B, Baranski M, Berg PR, Kjøglum S, Koop BF, et al. A linkage
map of the Atlantic salmon (Salmo salar) based on EST-derived SNP markers.
BMC Genomics. 2008 May 15;9.

45. Lien S, Koop BF, Sandve SR, Miller JR, Kent MP, Nome T, et al. The Atlantic
salmon genome provides insights into rediploidization. Nature. 2016 Apr
18;533:200–5.

46. Carvalho A, Delgado M, Barão A, Frescatada M, Ribeiro E, Pikaard CS, et al.
Chromosome and DNA methylation dynamics during meiosis in the
autotetraploid Arabidopsis arenosa. Sex Plant Reprod. 2010 Feb;23(1):29–37.

47. Yant L, Hollister JD, Wright KM, Arnold BJ, Higgins JD, Franklin FCH, et al.
Meiotic Adaptation to Genome Duplication in Arabidopsis arenosa. Current
Biology. 2013 Nov 4;23(21):2151–6.

48. Lloyd A, Bomblies K. Meiosis in autopolyploid and allopolyploid Arabidopsis.
Vol. 30, Current Opinion in Plant Biology. Elsevier Ltd; 2016. p. 116–22.

49. Sardell JM, Kirkpatrick M. Sex differences in the recombination landscape.
American Naturalist. 2020 Feb 1;195(2):361–79.
50. Otto SP, Payseur BA. Annual Review of Genetics Crossover Interference:
Shedding Light on the Evolution of Recombination. 2019; Available from:
https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev-genet-040119-
51. Brekke C, Berg P, Gjuvsland AB, Johnston SE. Recombination rates in pigs differ
between breeds, sexes and individuals, and are associated with the RNF212,
SYCP2, PRDM7, MEI1 and MSH4 loci. Genetics Selection Evolution. 2022 Dec
1;54(1).
52. Brekke C, Johnston SE, Gjuvsland AB, Berg P. Variation and genetic control of
individual recombination rates in Norwegian Red dairy cattle. J Dairy Sci. 2023
Feb 1;106(2):1130–41.
53. Battagin M, Gorjanc G, Faux AM, Johnston SE, Hickey JM. Effect of
manipulating recombination rates on response to selection in livestock breeding
programs. Genetics Selection Evolution. 2016;48(1).
54. Gonen S, Battagin M, Johnston SE, Gorjanc G, Hickey JM. The potential of
shifting recombination hotspots to increase genetic gain in livestock breeding.
Genetics Selection Evolution. 2017 Jul 4;49(1).
55. Charlesworth B, Barton NH. Recombination load associated with selection for
increased recombination. Genet Res. 1996;67(1):27–41.
56. Yoshida K, Rödelsperger C, Röseler W, Riebesell M, Sun S, Kikuchi T, et al.
Chromosome fusions repatterned recombination rate and facilitated reproductive
isolation during Pristionchus nematode speciation. Nat Ecol Evol. 2023 Mar
1;7(3):424–39.
57. Fisher Scientific T. Axiom ™ Genotyping Solution Data Analysis. 2023.
58. Rastas P. Lep-MAP3: Robust linkage mapping even for low-coverage whole
genome sequencing data. Bioinformatics. 2017 Dec 1;33(23):3726–32.
59. Yano A, Nicol B, Jouanno E, Quillet E, Fostier A, Guyomard R, et al. The
sexually dimorphic on the Y-chromosome gene (sdY) is a conserved male-
specific Y-chromosome sequence in many salmonids. Evol Appl. 2013
Apr;6(3):486–96.
60. Madsen P, Jensen J, Labouriau R, Christensen OF, Sahana G. DMU - A Package
for Analyzing Multivariate Mixed Models in quantitative Genetics and Genomics.
In: Journal of Applied Statistics. Routledge; 2014. p. 1286–306.
61. Chang CC, Chow CC, Tellier LCAM, Vattikuti S, Purcell SM, Lee JJ. Second-
generation PLINK: Rising to the challenge of larger and richer datasets.
Gigascience. 2015 Feb 25;4(1).
62. Yang J, Lee SH, Goddard ME, Visscher PM. GCTA: A tool for genome-wide
complex trait analysis. Am J Hum Genet. 2011 Jan 7;88(1):76–82.
63. Garrick DJ, Taylor JF, Fernando RL. Deregressing estimated breeding values and
weighting information for genomic regression analyses. Genetics Selection
Evolution. 2009;41(1).
661
662
663

Acknowledgments

We want to thank Aquagen for providing the data for this study. Special thanks to Pasi Rastas who gave advice about the lepmap3 software used for linkage mapping. We thank Sigbjørn Lien, Nicola Barson, Arne B. Gjuvsland and John McAuley for helpful discussions. Most of the analyses in this study have been executed on the Orion cluster at NMBU (https:// orion. nmbu. no).

Author contribution

Conceptualization: PB, SEJ, CB
Data curation: CB, TMK
Formal analysis: CB
Writing – original draft: CB
Writing – review and editing: SEJ, CB, TMK, PB.
Visualization: CB
Funding acquisition: PB
Investigation: CB, SEJ, TMK, PB
Methodology: SEJ**,** CB, TMK
Project administration: PB
Supervision: PB, SEJ

Table S1. Linkage map. Male and female genetic positions in cM for all SNP markers in the 35K dataset. See additional file.

Table S2. Top 10 SNPs from GWAS on shuffling and crossover count in both sex

Trait	Sex	Chr	SNP name	bp	Freq	b	SE	p
CC	Male	10	Affx-87165681	97158781	0.216	0.936	0.197	2.00E-06
		19	Affx-986688163	80841039	0.209	-0.844	0.179	2.58E-06
		24	Affx-517031085	33571077	0.286	0.778	0.173	6.79E-06
		4	Affx-87621822	40639301	0.177	0.890	0.199	8.01E-06
		10	Affx-86913301	83219166	0.176	0.850	0.193	1.04E-05
		15	Affx-87001560	44530526	0.517	0.651	0.148	1.09E-05
		15	Affx-87481996	44534054	0.517	0.651	0.148	1.09E-05
		15	Affx-87658641	44541415	0.483	-0.651	0.148	1.09E-05
		15	Affx-98990447	44543717	0.483	-0.651	0.148	1.09E-05
		15	Affx-517023952	70320171	0.407	-0.656	0.149	1.10E-05
CC	Female	3	Affx-87260986	71736893	0.286	-0.643	0.129	6.00E-07
		26	Affx-517021201	3373590	0.327	-0.567	0.121	3.01E-06
		26	Affx-87324563	2403259	0.221	0.662	0.145	5.06E-06
		12	Affx-93396222	10860972	0.349	-0.538	0.120	7.09E-06
		26	Affx-86915404	2971226	0.450	0.498	0.115	1.52E-05
		21	Affx-86977045	32739741	0.192	-0.626	0.146	1.69E-05

		25	Affx-86916185	14361093	0.181	0.628	0.147	1.81E-05
		26	Affx-87723009	2274470	0.285	0.582	0.136	1.85E-05
		26	Affx-87775881	2569233	0.267	-0.552	0.129	1.91E-05
		3	Affx-87597243	71065500	0.498	-0.496	0.116	2.01E-05
		7	Affx-87702070	30082074	0.177	0.253	0.053	2.08E-06
		15	Affx-87438278	97920722	0.201	0.208	0.049	1.94E-05
		10	Affx-87814965	96995476	0.399	0.180	0.042	1.94E-05
		10	Affx-87169893	17900600	0.567	-0.179	0.042	2.34E-05
Shuffling	Male	9	Affx-87137995	63788953	0.370	0.197	0.047	2.37E-05
		15	Affx-87191200	95892936	0.239	0.194	0.047	3.65E-05
		15	Affx-87285851	101670539	0.192	0.215	0.052	3.70E-05
		15	Affx-87285853	101671231	0.192	0.215	0.052	3.70E-05
		28	Affx-87026689	35657626	0.198	0.218	0.053	4.24E-05
		15	Affx-87320647	97937595	0.315	0.176	0.043	4.27E-05
		29	Affx-87275877	17198796	0.200	0.252	0.049	2.32E-07
		9	Affx-87805131	11090861	0.539	-0.198	0.040	5.58E-07
		7	Affx-87197793	30511902	0.196	-0.256	0.051	6.68E-07
		24	Affx-87658020	15513356	0.339	-0.182	0.040	4.46E-06
		14	Affx-87347934	62926154	0.440	-0.175	0.039	5.71E-06
Shuffling	Female	11	Affx-87566793	14623343	0.219	0.209	0.046	6.33E-06
		5	Affx-87225703	10195400	0.290	0.193	0.043	7.59E-06
		12	Affx-87008423	14255690	0.218	0.214	0.048	8.24E-06
		11	Affx-86997783	9768960	0.491	0.178	0.040	8.65E-06
		14	Affx-87808468	33998757	0.132	-0.242	0.055	9.73E-06

bp is the basepair position of the SNP marker, **Freq** is the allele frequency of the effect allele, **b** is the the effect estimate and **SE** the subsequent standard error of the effect estimate, **p** is the p value.

Financial Disclosure Statement
CB was funded by a PhD grant from the Norwegian University of Life Sciences when most of the analysis were carried out. SEJ is supported by a Royal Society University Research Fellowship (UF150448).

Competing interests
TMK is employed in Aquagen. All authors declare that the results are presented in full and as such present no conflict of interest. The other authors declare that they have no competing interests for this study.