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Potential for genomic selection on feed efficiency in gilthead sea bream (*Sparus aurata*) based on individual feed conversion ratio, carcass and lipid traits

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14 Abstract

15 Genetic improvement of feed efficiency is key to improve the economic and environmental 16 sustainability of fish farming. However, it requires individual phenotypes of feed efficiency which are 17 difficult to obtain when fish are reared in groups, in tanks or cages. Here, we applied and validated on 18 sea bream a method to evaluate individual feed efficiency based on individual rearing of fish in 19 aquariums under restricted feeding. We also investigated the correlation between carcass and lipid traits with individual feed efficiency. We collected individual phenotypes of feed efficiency in 20 aquariums on 538 sea breams (average weight = 54.50 g). Based on these individual phenotypes, fish 21 22 (average weight = 174.6 g) were reared in groups of divergent phenotypes (high or low feed 23 efficiency) during a period of 63 days in which the feed efficiency of each group was estimated. At the 24 end of this group experiment, fish were harvested and yield traits were measured. All 538 fish, their 25 parents as well as 794 sibs reared in cages in a production environment, were genotyped on a 57k SNP 26 array to estimate genomic heritability and correlations between traits. We showed that feed efficiency 27 was heritable and a GWAS analysis highlighted the polygenic architecture of feed efficiency. We also 28 showed that feed efficiency was genetically correlated to viscera yield indicating that the most 29 efficient fish had less viscera than the least efficient ones. Finally, over the 63 days period in groups, 30 we confirmed that the groups composed of the efficient fish in aquariums were more efficient in group 31 rearing than the groups composed of the least efficient fish in aquariums. Altogether, these results 32 support that measuring individual feed efficiency in aquariums under restricted feeding may be used as 33 a reliable phenotyping method to genetically improve feed efficiency, despite the bias intrinsically 34 linked to individual rearing.

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Keywords: fine phenotyping, selective breeding, aquaculture, genomic, restricted feeding, individualfeed efficiency

38 Introduction

39

40 Improvement of the feed conversion ratio (FCR = Feed intake/bodyweight gain), which 41 quantifies the ability of an animal to convert feed intake into biomass, is an important step in 42 achieving sustainability in the aquaculture industry (Besson et al., 2016). In fish farming, the cost of 43 feed ranges from 30 to 70% of the total production cost (Doupé and Lymbery, 2004; Kolstad et al., 2004). A decrease in the amount of feed needed per ton of fish produced would, therefore, be essential 44 45 in enhancing economic sustainability. An example for Atlantic salmon is given by Kolstad et al. 46 (2004), who state that an improvement in feed efficiency (FE) of 2-5% would save 8-20 million euros 47 on feed costs in the production of salmon in Norway (considering 600 000 tons of feed consumed per year). From an environmental perspective, the improvement of FCR increases the proportion of 48 49 nutrients converted into fish tissues, which reduces the load of nutrients to the environment at similar 50 amount of whole fish produced. The production of feed is also a main contributor to the environmental impacts caused by fish production when analysed within a Life Cycle Analysis framework (Aubin et 51 52 al., 2009). Therefore, improving feed efficiency would reduce the amount of feed needed per ton of 53 fish produced, thus reducing the total environmental impacts per ton of fish produced, either on site 54 with reduced eutrophication, or at a global scale with less resources consumed (Besson et al., 2017, 55 2016).

56

57 Genetic improvement and breeding programs have shown their capacity to improve feed efficiency in livestock production (Knap and Kause, 2018; Willems et al., 2013). However, to be fully 58 efficient, this option requires collecting individual data to estimate genetic parameters of the trait and, 59 60 later on, to estimate breeding values to select the most efficient fish among selection candidates. The 61 problem is that individual data of feed intake are difficult to obtain for fish living in large groups and in water. To solve this issue, we recently developed a method based on the rearing of several hundred 62 63 fish in individual aquariums under restricted feeding (Besson et al., 2019). Indeed, studies on rabbits 64 (Drouilhet et al., 2016, 2013) and pigs (Nguyen and McPhee, 2005) showed that selecting for faster 65 growing animals under restricted feeding was an efficient method to improve feed efficiency in the 66 next generations. With this method, applied on European sea bass (Dicentrarchus labrax), we reported 67 that individual FCR and growth (measured as Daily Growth Coefficient - DGC) obtained in aquariums 68 had a genetic basis ($h^2 = 0.47$ and 0.76 respectively, Besson et al., 2019). Furthermore, we showed that 69 groups of fish consisting of the best fish based on their individual FCR in aquarium (low FCR) were 70 more efficient than groups of fish composed of the worst fish (high FCR) phenotyped in aquarium. 71 These results suggest that selecting for fish based on their individual FCR measured under restricted 72 feeding as proposed as in rabbit or pig would be possible, and would generate an improvement of FCR 73 in fish reared in groups, which is the standard in the production environment.

74 This method of phenotyping fish in individual aquariums is promising but it is extremely tedious. In Besson et al. (2019) the phenotyping of 588 sea bass involved a full-time position 75 dedicated to the daily routine of counting and cleaning uneaten pellets for 200 individually housed fish 76 77 over 6 months. Therefore, finding correlated traits to individual feed efficiency that are easier to 78 measure could enhance or even replace (if the genetic correlation with FCR is high enough) the 79 selection of feed efficiency via individual phenotyping in aquarium. Gilbert et al. (2017) showed that 80 nine generations of divergent selection on Residual Feed Intake (RFI, another measure of feed 81 efficiency) in pigs yielded a favourable correlated response on dressing percentage and higher lean 82 meat content, while showing a reduction in backfat and viscera weight. Therefore, this means that 83 selecting on RFI would in fact select for animals that allocate more resources towards lean tissue (i.e. 84 muscle and/or bones) rather than to fat tissue. This is because deposition of lipids is less efficient in 85 terms of energy used per unit of wet weight gain than the deposition of protein (Knap and Kause, 86 2018). Similarly, in broilers, genetic selection over half a century considerably increased carcass yield 87 while at the same time reducing lipid content and improving feed efficiency (Havenstein et al., 2003a, 88 2003b). Hence, in many breeding programs, selection for feed efficiency is achieved by indirect selection of leanest animals, which can be done using non-invasive technology easier to implement 89 90 than direct measurement of feed intake (Knap and Wang, 2012). This principle has also been 91 demonstrated for rainbow trout by Kause et al. (2016) who showed that the most efficient fish had a 92 lower lipid percentage in the muscle than less efficient fish. Therefore, Knap and Kause (2018) suggested to select fish against lipid deposition to improve feed efficiency such as in Janhunen et al. 93 94 (2017). However, Besson et al. (2019) could not establish any correlation between individual feed efficiency and intramuscular fat percentage measured indirectly by microwaves (Distell Fish 95 96 FatMeter) in sea bass. Still, we know that lipid deposition in different parts of the body are genetically 97 different traits (Kause et al., 2006; Tobin et al., 2006). In the sea bass, visceral fat has a low 98 phenotypic correlation ($r_p=0.31$), and no genetic correlation ($r_g=-0.02 \pm 0.27$) with muscle fat (Saillant 99 et al., 2009). In this species, visceral fat represents 66% of the total visceral weight and the percentage of viscera is highly phenotypically and genetically correlated to the percentage of visceral fat ($r_p =$ 100 0.92 and $r_g = 1.00$, Saillant et al., 2009). A hypothesis therefore would be that selecting for lower 101 102 visceral percentage could effectively improve feed efficiency because more resources would be 103 directed towards muscle growth and because less lipids would be stored by the fish.

104

The gilthead sea bream (*Sparus aurata*) is the most important species of Mediterranean aquaculture, with 228.000 tonnes produced in 2018 (FAO, 2020). Feed efficiency is a key driver of profitability in this production, and several breeding programs are being operated in Europe, but none of them directly targets feed efficiency (Chavanne et al., 2016). Given the promising results recently obtained about selective breeding for individual feed efficiency in sea bass in aquariums (Besson et al., 2019), we also explore the feasibility of such selection in gilthead sea bream. Testing and validating this method on sea bream would allow to confirm its interest to be more broadly applied in the aquaculture sector, as it would increase the genericity of this approach. Therefore, the aim of the present study was to evaluate the genetic basis of individual feed efficiency in gilthead sea bream, and to investigate the relationships between individual feed efficiency and carcass and adipose traits in this species.

116

To do so, we applied to gilthead sea bream the same method developed by Besson et al. (2019) 117 118 on Europeans sea bass to phenotype fish for their individual feed efficiency in individual aquaria. The 119 animals were genotyped on a 60k SNP array. Then, we could estimate genetic parameters, identify 120 potential quantitative trait loci (QTL) and assess the efficiency of genomic selection compared to pedigree-based selection for feed efficiency, when only few animals can be phenotyped. After 121 collecting individual phenotypes of feed efficiency, we verified that these individual estimations were 122 well linked to group feed efficiency. At the end of the experiment, the animals were finally harvested 123 124 to estimate carcass yield and to estimate genetic correlations with feed efficiency. Finally, to estimates 125 genetic correlations with the growth and yield performance of fish reared in commercial conditions in sea cages, a sib group was reared in a sea cage in Greece and harvested at commercial weight. 126

127 Material and methods

128 Ethics statement

The experiment was evaluated by the Ethical Committee n° 036 and authorized by the French Ministry of Higher Education, Research and Innovation (Authorization number APAFIS#12550-2015071718471859v9). All experimental procedures were conducted following the guidelines for animal experimentation established by Directive 2010-63-EU of the European Union and the corresponding French legislation.

134

135 Animals, maintenance and summary of trials

The sea bream originated from a partial full factorial mating design performed on the selected line of 136 137 Les Fermes Marine du Soleil breeding company (La Brée-les-Bains, France). The general protocol to 138 produce the families was similar that reported by Aslam et al. (2018). Artificial mating was performed 139 within a day in September 2018, using 61 sires and 28 dams. Eggs from each dam were fertilized by 140 10 to 11 different sires and each the semen of each sire fertilized oocytes from 4 to 5 dam. Maternal half-sib families were incubated separately between dams. After hatching, an equivalent number of 141 larvae per dam were transferred in a single tank and reared in common environmental conditions. At 142 91 days post-hatching, about 800 randomly selected sea bream (average body weight= 2.7 g) were 143 144 tagged with Passive Integrated Transponders (PIT-tag) and individual fin sampling was performed for further DNA extraction, genotyping and parentage assignment. The fish were transferred at 108 dph to 145 Ifremer in Palavas-les-Flots (France) and randomly split in 2 tanks of 1.5 m³ in a recirculation system 146 with natural salinity water kept at 20 °C. They were first individually weighed at 136 dph (BW 136, 147 148 mean weight = 17.21 g) and then at 161 dph (BW_161, mean weight = 27.65 g). At 161 dph, we started the individual feed efficiency experiment in aquariums (details in "Evaluation of individual 149 feed efficiency"). Then, at 323 dph, we started the group feed efficiency experiment (details in 150 151 "Evaluation of group feed efficiency"). Finally, at 420 dph, fish were euthanized to measure 152 production and yield traits (details in "Harvest traits"). The timeline of the experiment and a summary 153 of traits measured are given in figure 1. For the entire experiment, we used a sea bream feed made by Sparos LDA (Olhão, Portugal). The composition of the feed is given in Appendix 1. The experimental 154 155 feed was formulated to fulfil the sea bream nutritional requirements while minimizing the use of fish meal and fish oil in the diet. 156





158 Figure 1. Timeline of the experiment. Time is express in days post hatching (dph). BW refers to body weights, IFI is the

159 individual feed intake, BWG is the individual body weight gain, TFI is the feed intake of tanks, TWG is the weight gain of

160 tanks. FBW = final body weight, avg Fat = average muscle fat content using Distell Fatmeter, FW = fillet weight, HW = head

161 weight, VW = viscera weight (except liver), LW = liver weight, CW = carcass weight.

In addition, a group of 1530 sibs was transferred to a 150 m³ cage in Greece at 128 dph. These fish were fed a standard feed (SMART from Irida S.A.). They were reared until 432 dph, when they were harvested, and individual fin sampling was performed for further molecular-based parentage assignment.

166 **Phenotyping individual feed efficiency**

For the measurement of individual feed efficiency two hundred 10 L aquariums were used in a 167 recirculation system where natural salinity sea water was kept at a temperature of 20 °C. Before the 168 start of individual rearing, at 161 dph, the length and weight of all sea bream were measured. At 161 169 170 dph, a first batch of 150 fish was randomly split in the aquariums. After 14 days of acclimation in isolation, the fish were weighed again in a "go, no go" step. Fish that lost weight during this 171 acclimation period were removed from the aquariums and returned to the 1.5 m³ communal tanks, 172 173 considering they were not adapted to the individual evaluation system. The fish that gained weight during the acclimation period were kept in aquariums for two more periods of 14 days each. In total, a 174 175 "successful" fish stayed 42 days in aquarium and was weighed four times (Figure 2). To reach the 176 maximum capacity of the facility (200 fish), new batches of fish were introduced in the aquariums 177 every two weeks to replace the fish that did not pass the "go, no go" biometry or the ones that 178 completed the 42 days trial. The phenotyping of the first batch of fish started at the age of 161 dph 179 (mean weight = 38.41 g for this 129 first fish) while the last batch started at 273 dph (mean weight = 61.99 g). Before and after the trial in aquariums, the fish were kept in the 1.5 m³ communal tanks. 180



181

182 Figure 2. Timeline of the individual feed efficiency experiment. BW refers to body weights.

183 Individually reared sea breams were fed once in the morning with an automatic feeder. Each day, 3 184 mm feed pellets were delivered at a rate of 1.54% (corresponding to 70% of a standard feeding rate) of 185 an individual's body weight (fish body weight range: 9.4 - 114.9g), re-evaluated at the beginning of 186 each 14 days period. Fish were fed once in the morning with an automatic feeder. One and a half hours 187 after feed delivering, uneaten pellets were counted and removed from the aquariums. Each day, for 188 each fish, the total number of uneaten pellets eaten was converted into grams (1 pellet ≈ 0.01814 g) 189 and subtracted to the fixed ration to estimate daily individual feed intake.

Among the 669 fish tested in the aquariums, 103 fish lost weight during the acclimation period. The
remaining 566 sea bream completed the 42 days of individual evaluation. For these fish, the cumulated
FCR (FCR), and the cumulated DGC (daily growth coefficient) were calculated:

193

194
$$FCR = \frac{IFI}{BWG}$$

195

196
$$DGC = \frac{BW3^{\frac{1}{3}} - BW1^{\frac{1}{3}}}{N_{-}DAYS} \cdot 100$$

197

Where BWG is the body weight gain measured over periods 1 and 2 (BW3-BW1) and IFI the cumulated individual feed intake in periods 1 and 2. N_DAYS is the number of feeding days of periods 1 and 2 (23 or 24 days). Due to the skewed distribution of the data, DGC and FCR were log transformed to obtain log(DGC) and log(FCR). Additionally, we calculated the residual body weight gain (rBWG) as:

- 203
- 204

$$rBWG = BWG - (\beta_0 + \beta_1 \times MBW_i + \beta_2 \times IFI)$$

205

206 MBW_i is the initial metabolic body weight (BW1^{0.8}). β_0 is the regression intercept, β_1 is the partial 207 regression coefficient of animal's BWG on metabolic weight and β_2 is the partial regression 208 coefficient of animal's BWG on total feed intake.

210 Evaluation of group feed efficiency

211 *Group constitution*

- Among the 538 fish well phenotyped in aquarium, we excluded fish with strong spinal malformations
- 213 (N=80), with a negative cumulated FCR or FCR higher than 2.8. The 458 remaining fish were grouped
- following the procedure of Besson et al., (2019) in two steps:
- First, we made 7 groups of each 64 or 66 fish based on their relative daily feed intake
 (relative_DFI) calculated as:

relative_DFI =
$$\frac{IFI}{BW1 \times N_{DAYS}} \cdot 100$$

218

Second, within each group of 64-66 fish with similar DFI we divided the fish into two
 subgroups of 32 or 33 individuals, depending on the fact that their relative BWG ((BW3 BW1)/BW1) was higher (subgroup A) or lower (subgroup B) than the median of that group.
 Thus, the fish in subgroups A had a better (lower) FCR than their counterparts from subgroup
 B.

224

The aim of this grouping strategy was to compare groups of efficient fish to groups of less efficient fish at the same relative feed intake in aquarium. In total, 14 groups of 32 or 33 fish were distributed in 14 tanks of 2 m² covered by black plastic to reduce the amount of stress.

228

229 *Experimental protocol*

230 The group feed efficiency experiment started at the age of 323 dph (average weight = 176.4 g) and lasted a total of 77 days in a recirculation system where water temperature was set between 22 and 231 232 23°C, with a 12L:12D photoperiod. First, 14 days were used for acclimation to the new environment, 233 followed by one recording period of 21 days and 3 periods of 14 days. In each period, fish were not fed on the day of the biometry and two days before, and thus received 18 or 11 meals. On feeding 234 235 days, fish were fed ad libitum with an automatic feeder delivering the daily ration in 20 portions 236 between 5.30 a.m. and 8.35 a.m. The frequency of delivery was every 4 min for the first 10 portions, 237 every 10 min for the following 5 portions, and then every 20 min for the last 5 portions. We used 4 238 mm pellet size for this experiment. All uneaten pellets were collected in a faecal trap. At the end of the automatic delivery, if no pellets were found, additional feed was given via a manual trigger until first 239 240 pellets were collected in the faecal trap, meaning ad libitum was reached. Then, 60 minutes after feeding, all uneaten pellets were recovered, washed, photographed and analysed with the program 241 ImageJ and the function "analyze particles" (Abràmoff et al., 2004). The picture was taken using 242 243 backlighting with a 60x60 cm LED panel. This procedure allowed us to estimate the total surface 244 covered by pellets on each photo measured in number of pixels. We chose to work with surface of pixels covered rather than the number of pellets because, after few hours in water, some pellets were 245

too soft and tented to break. Counting pellets would have resulted in an overestimation of the numberof uneaten pellets, and then an underestimation of feed intake and feed conversion ratio.

248 The downside of working with surface of pixels is that the estimation depends on the focus of the 249 camera which, in our case, was adapted every day. Hence, to avoid bias in the counting of pixels, we 250 included a 5 cents euro coin on every photo (21.25 mm of diameter). Then, the surface of pixels occupied by pellets was divided by the number of pixels occupied by the coin to measure the surface 251 of pellets in unit of coin surface. To convert a unit of coin surface into number of pellets, we took 252 253 photos of eight batches of 200 pellets which gave us the average number of pellets per unit of coin 254 surface. Finally, given the average weight of a single pellet, we could estimate the amount of uneaten 255 feed per day and per period. Feed intake per tank (TFI) was calculated as the difference between the 256 quantity of feed distributed and the quantity of uneaten feed over a certain period of time. All feeders 257 were filled with a known quantity of feed at the start of a period, and were emptied to weigh the 258 remainder feed at the end of each period, thus the amount of feed distributed per tank over the period 259 could be precisely recorded.

260

261 Individual and group data available in the group experiment

All fish were weighed at the start of the experiment and at the end of each period. Thus, five body weight measurements were available for each fish. The measurements of all fish in a tank were added to calculate total weight gain for each tank and for each period of test (TWG). Then, from TWG we could calculate the TFCR per tank per period of test as:

- 266
- 267

$$TFCR = \frac{TFI}{TWG}$$

- 268 Where TFI is the feed intake of a given tank.
- 269

270 Statistical analysis

To test potential difference in TFCR between subgroups A and B we used a two-sided paired t-test. This was done within each of the four periods and for the combined period. Then, as the mean weight of fish in a tank could affect TFCR, we also analysed body weight gain in each tank, corrected for feed intake and metabolic body weight in an ANCOVA analysis:

- 275
- 276 277

$$\operatorname{avg}_{TWG_{ij}} = \beta_0 + \operatorname{subg}_i + \beta_1 \times \operatorname{avg}_{MBW_{ij}} + \beta_2 \times \operatorname{avg}_{FI_{ij}} + \varepsilon_{ij}$$

Where avg_TWG_{ij} is the average body weight gain of a fish (TWG divided by the number of fish in the tank) from subgroup i in tank j during a predefined period. $subg_i$ is the effect of subgroup A or B (i=1, 2). avg_MBW_{ij} is the mean metabolic body weight of the fish in the same tank at the start of the period, avg_FI_{ij} is the average feed intake of one fish in the same tank (TFI divided by the number of

282	fish in the tank) and ϵ_{ij} is the random residual. $\beta 0$ is the regression intercept, $\beta 1$ is the partial regression				
283	coefficient of avg_TWG _{ij} on avg_MBW _{ij} and $\beta 2$ is the partial regression coefficient of avg_TWG _{ij} on				
284	avg_FI _{ij} .				
285					
286	Phenotyping harvest traits				
287	Harvest traits on experimental fish				
288	After the group experiment, at the age of 420 dph, fish were euthanized with an overdose of				
289	benzocaine (150 mg/l). Then, we measured several harvest traits:				
290	- Harvest weight (Harvest_W)				
291	- Average muscle fat content from one measure on both sides of the fish using a Distell fatmeter				
292	(avg_Fat) according to Haffray et al. (2005)				
293	- Left fillet weight (ribs and skin on)				
294	- Half headless carcass weight (weight of the headless carcass after the left fillet was removed)				
295	- Head weight (Head_W)				
296	- Viscera weight (Viscera_W without liver)				
297	- Liver weight (Liver_W)				
298	From those base data, we calculated:				
299	- Fillet weight (Fillet_W), calculated by multiplying the weight of left fillet by two				
300	- Headless carcass weight (HC_W) representing the sum of the weight the left fillet and of the				
301	half carcass.				
302					
303	Harvest traits on sea-caged reared sibs				
304	Additionally, 1112 fish from the same families reared in cages in Greece were harvested at 432 dph				
305	using ice. We measured:				
306	- Harvest weight (Harvest_W_cage)				
307	- Fat content (avg_FAT_cage) as reported above				
308	- Viscera weight (Viscera_W_cage)				

309 - Headless carcass weight (HC_W_cage)

310 Genetic analysis

311 *Genotyping and parentage assignment*

We genotyped the 89 parents and 750 offspring of sea bream of the "individual feed efficiency" 312 groups using the Thermofisher SaurChip sea bream array of 60k SNP markers (Griot et al., 2021). 313 SNP calling was done using ThermoFisher software AxiomAnalysisSuite[™]. Preliminary quality 314 controls were applied with threshold values of 95% for SNP call rate and 90% for sample call 315 rate. We could keep 50,417 effective SNP on 740 sea bream and their 89 parents. Then, we used a 316 subset of 1,000 highly polymorphic SNP to retrieve the pedigree of the individuals using the R 317 package APIS (Griot et al., 2020). 719 fish out of 740 could successfully be linked to a single parental 318 pair (97.2%). For the group of fish sent to cages, among the 1112 fish harvested, 794 were genotyped 319 320 on the same SNP array and all (100%) were successfully assigned to their parents.

321

322 *Genetic parameters*

Variance components for all traits were computed based on multivariate linear mixed animal models.
In these multivariate models, three traits were included and we always included BW_136 as a

325 "reference trait" as it has been measured on all animals of the individual feed efficiency group at the 326 same time.

For traits measured in aquariums (log(FCR), log(DGC) and rBWG), fixed effects were the initial rearing tank (A or B), the batch (referring to the group of fish which started the phenotyping in aquarium together, 9 batches) and the deformities (presence or absence).

For all yield traits measured at harvest on experimental fish (Fillet_W, Head_W, Viscera_W and HG_W) and on cage-reared sibs (Viscera_W_cage and HC_W_cage), final body weight was always included (Harvest_W or Harvest_W_cage) as covariable in the model following practice from

Kennedy et al. (1993) and Vandeputte et al. (2020). To highlight the fact that these regressed traits
were representative of yields (weight of the body part adjusted to body weight), they were noted as

rFillet_W, rViscera_W, rHC_W, with r standing for "residual".

The models were fitted by restricted maximum likelihood in AIREMLF90 (Misztal et al., 2002) to compute the classical heritabilities using pedigree and the genomic heritabilities using SNP data. We considered significant all correlations with an associated standard error lower than half the absolute value of the correlation. We applied the same rule for heritabilities.

340

341 Breeding values

342 The breeding values were also computed with classical pedigree-based BLUP (PBLUP) and genomic

343 BLUP (GBLUP) using the genomic relationship matrix. The conventional pedigree-based EBVs were

344 estimated using the following model:

$$y = Xb + Zu + e$$

346 Where y is the vector of phenotypes, \mathbf{b} is the vector of fixed effects (batch, rack, line and column for 347 the phenotypes measured in aquariums) and \mathbf{X} an appropriate incidence matrix, \mathbf{u} is the vector of 348 random additive genetic animal effects, \mathbf{Z} the appropriate incidence matrix and \mathbf{e} is vector of random 349 error variance. The additive (animal) genetic effects were assumed to follow $N(0, V \otimes A)$, with V the 350 genetic (co) variance matrix between traits and A the numerator relationship matrix relating all 351 animals in the pedigree, while the residual effects were assumed to follow $N(0, R \otimes I)$, **R** the residual 352 (co) variance matrix between traits and I an appropriate identity matrix. To estimate the SNP based 353 EBV (GEBV) we used GBLUP method where the relationships between fish are based on the genomic 354 relationship matrix described by VanRaden (2008) (G matrix) instead of the classical pedigree-based 355 relationship matrix (A matrix).

356

357 *GWAS*

We used the BLUPF90 suite of programs to perform GWAS under multi-marker linear regression models using GBLUP for individual feed efficiency traits (rBWG, log(FCR) and log(DGC)). The breeding values were estimated with BLUPF90 using the linear model described in the previous section. The p-values were obtained from POSTGSF90 (Aguilar et al., 2019). The –log10 of the pvalues were compared to the chromosome-wide significance threshold and to the genome-wide significance threshold at 5% after Bonferroni correction for the average number of markers per chromosome and the total number of markers, respectively.

365

366 Estimation of accuracy via cross validation

To assess the potential interest of using genomic information for the genetic selection of feed efficiency traits, we performed cross-validation tests and estimated the accuracies of PBLUP and GBLUP models. These accuracies were assessed using a cross validation scheme which followed four steps:

- 371
- First, we estimated the corrected phenotypes (Y). In this step, all performances recorded for rBWG were corrected for fixed effects using the PREDICTF90 software.
- Second, we estimated the EBV for rBWG of all 516 fish while masking the phenotypes of a validation group composed of 20% of the fish (103 fish with phenotypes set missing). The EBVs were estimated with a bivariate model including rBWG and BW_136 (weight at 136 dph) using the BLUPF90 program. Here, on the same validation group set, we estimated GEBVs with genomic information in a GBLUP model and the EBVs (only with pedigree information) in a PBLUP model.
- 3) Then, we calculated the correlation between corrected phenotypes (Y) and predicted EBV
 (*r*_{EBV,Y}) for the 103 fish of the validation group.

382 4) The accuracies ($R_{EBV,BV}$) of PBLUP and GBLUP models was estimated using the following 383 formula:

$$R_{EBV,BV} = \frac{r_{EBV,Y}}{\sqrt{h_{ped}^2}}$$

385 Where h_{ped}^2 is the heritability of rBWG estimated using pedigree including all fish with phenotypes.

- 5) Finally, all steps from 2) were repeated 50 times to get 50 estimates of accuracy for GBLUP
- and PBLUP models. Each time, another 103 fish were randomly picked with phenotypes set to

388 missing. We reported the average accuracy and its standard error.

389 **Results**

390 Individual feed efficiency in aquarium

391 *Phenotypic and genetic parameters*

We could obtain 538 reliable phenotypes from fish in the experiment in individual aquariums. The fish with reliable phenotypes were all fish with an FCR_tot below 2.8. This number includes fish with deformities (N = 74). Among those 538 fish, 520 were successfully assigned to their parents and used to estimate phenotypic and genetic parameters. Basic phenotypic statistics are given in table 1.

396

Table 1. Summary of individual phenotypes measured in aquariums on the 537 fish with reliable phenotypes. ADG refers to
 average daily gain during P2 and P3 periods of individual phenotyped. FCR_tot is the feed conversion ratio over P2 and P3.
 DGC is the daily growth coefficient over P2 and P3.

Trait	Mean	Median	s.d.	CV
ADG_P2 (in % of body weight per day)	0.94	0.97	0.27	29.2 %
ADG_P3 (in % of body weight per day)	0.94	0.98	0.28	30.5 %
FCR_tot	1.3	1.19	0.35	26.8 %
DGC	1.17	1.22	0.28	24.0 %

400

The genomic heritabilities estimated for individual feed efficiency traits were moderate, ranging from 0.17 to 0.25 (table 2). It was also clear that, in these conditions of restricted feeding in individual aquarium log(FCR) and log(DGC) were strongly negatively correlated (r = -0.93). A similar strong negative phenotypic correlation was also observed between log(FCR) and rBWG (r = -0.86). These results at phenotypic level were confirmed by the strong genomic correlations between all three traits (table 2).

407 Table 2. Heritabilites and genomic correlations between individual feed efficiency traits. Heritabilites are on the diagonal,

408 genomic correlations above the diagonal and phenotypic correlations below the diagonal. Standard error of estimates 409 between brackets.

	log(FCR)	log(DGC)	rBWG
log(FCR)	0.20 (0.07)	-0.93 (0.56)	-0.95 (0.16)
log(DGC)	-0.93	0.17 (0.06)	0.90 (0.17)
rBWG	-0.86	0.70	0.25 (0.07)

411 *GWAS*

In the GWAS performed by GBLUP analysis, there were no markers with a p-values above the
genome-wide significance threshold nor above the chromosome-wide threshold for log(FCR),
log(DGC) or (rBWG) (Figure 3).



415

416 Figure 3. Manhattan plot of -log10(p-value) obtained by GWAS for log(FCR), log(DGC) and rBWG (from top to bottom). The 417 horizontal full black line represents the genome-wide significance threshold while the dashed black line represents the

418 chromosome-wide significance threshold calculated with the Bonferroni correction.

- 419 Accuracy of GBLUP VS PBLUP
- 420 The correlations between corrected phenotypes and predicted EBV $(r_{EBV,Y})$ for rBWG were 0.25 for
- 421 the GBLUP model and 0.20 for the PBLUP model. Consequently, as the pedigree heritability for
- 422 rBWG was 0.22, the corresponding accuracies were 0.53 for the GBLUP model and 0.42 for the
- 423 PBLUP model (Figure 4). A pairwise t-test showed that the difference in accuracy between GBLUP
- 424 and PBLUP models was significant ($t_{49} = 6.1896$, p < 0.001).



425

426 Figure 4. Boxplot of accuracy of GBLUP and PBLUP models for rBWG considering 50 runs with a validation group of 103 fish.

427 Feed efficiency in groups and growth rates across experiments

First, we compared the TFCR of the tanks from subgroup A and of the tanks from subgroup B for the five periods (four single periods and the full period) using a paired sample t-test. We showed a significant difference for the first period ($t_6 = -3.035$, p = 0.023). In that period, subgroup B (composed of individuals with bad FCR in aquarium) had a higher FCR than subgroup A (composed of individuals with good FCR in aquarium). It meant that tanks of subgroups B were less efficient than tanks of subgroup A (Figure 5). We did not find significant differences for the other periods (period 2:



434 $t_6 = -0.14$, p = 0.89, period 3: $t_6 = -0.011$, p = 0.99, period 4: $t_6 = -1.50$, p = 0.18). In those periods,

Figure 5. Results of TFCR for each tank for the four period of test plus the full period of 9 weeks. On the x-axis is the group of the tanks and the colors refers to the subgroups A (in red, tanks composed of fish with good FCR in aquariums) or B (in green, tanks composed of fish with bad FCR in aquariums).

there was always at least one tank of subgroup B that had better FCR than the corresponding tank of subgroup A (Figure 5). When all periods were combined, we also did not find significant differences $(t_6 = -1.68, p = 0.14)$ in TFCR between subgroup A and subgroup B.

438

439 To account for a possible effect of mean metabolic body weight on TFCR, body weight gain in each 440 tank was evaluated for each subgroup, after adjustment for feed intake and metabolic body weight, in 441 an analysis of covariance. This showed that there was a significant effect of subgroup on body weight gain during the first period ($F_{1,10} = 6.09$, p = 0.033) and the full period of 9 weeks ($F_{1,10} = 6.26$, p =442 443 0.031). For those periods, the fish in tanks from subgroups A showed a higher body weight gain than 444 fish from subgroups B, once corrected for the effect of feed intake and metabolic body weight (Figure 445 6). Hence, tanks of subgroups A were more efficient over the period of nine weeks. However, for periods 2, 3 and 4, there was no significant effect of subgroups on TFCR. 446

447

Figure 6. Regression of observed body weight gain on expected body weight gain (estimeatdestimated from feed intake and metabolic body weight) in tanks with fish from subgroups A (low individual FCR) and B (high individual FCR). The left panle show the regression for the first period of the experiment while de the right panel show the regression for the full experimental period of 9 weeks. The solid line is the linear regression and the color refers to the subgroups of each tanks.



Finally, we calculated the phenotypic and genomic correlations between DGC measured between 136 and 161 dph (log(DGC_juv)), DGC measured in aquariums (log(DGC)) and DGC measured during the 9 weeks of the group experiment (log(DGC_group)). First, the heritabilities of the three growth

rates where moderate (Table 3). Second, due to high standard error, none of the genomic correlations were significant, although they were much higher than the phenotypic correlations, which were all close to zero (Table 3). Only the phenotypic correlation between DGC_juv and DGC_group was found significant, but was surprisingly negative (r = -0.17, $F_{1,427}$ = 4.521, p = 0.0003).

457

Table 3. Heritabilities and genomic correlations between growth rates across experiments. Heritabilities are on the diagonal
 and genomic correlation are above the diagonal.

log(DGC_juv)	log(DGC)	log(DGC_group)
0.15 (0.05)	-0.02 (0.38)	-0.44 (0.32)
	0.17 (0.06)	0.76 (0.48)
		0.21 (0.07)
-	og(DGC_juv) 0.15 (0.05)	og(DGC_juv) log(DGC) 0.15 (0.05) -0.02 (0.38) 0.17 (0.06)

466 Harvest traits and individual feed efficiency on experimental fish

467 Harvest traits could be measured on 451 fish previously phenotyped for their individual feed468 efficiency performances in aquarium. The phenotypic results for each trait are presented in table 4.

469

470 Table 4. Summary of phenotypes measured at harvest.

Fish group	Trait	Mean	CV
	Harvest_W	363.0 g	20.2 %
Fich with individual	avg_FAT	9.5%	26.3 %
fish with mulvidual	Fillet_W	207.1 g	22.2 %
nhonotypos (n = 451)	HC_W	251.9 g	21.7%
phenotypes (II – 451)	Head_W	81.3 g	17.5 %
	Viscera_W	14.9 g	28.9%
	Harvest_W_cage	330.8 g	22.5 %
Casa reared sibs	avg_FAT_cage	12.8%	27.7%
Cage-reared SIDS	Viscera_W_cage	28.5 g	31.1%
	HC_W_cage	232.4 g	24.0 %

471

Among harvest traits measured on experimental animals in sea cage, the strongest phenotypic correlations were observed between Harvest_W and avg_fat (r = 0.58, $F_{1,432} = 224.1$, p < 0.001), rFillet_W and rHead_W (r = -0.70, $F_{1,432} = 451.1$, p < 0.001) and between rCarcass_W and rViscera_W (r = -0.74, $F_{1,432} = 528.1$, p < 0.001). All harvest traits displayed moderate to high heritability (table 5).

478 Table 5. Heritabilities and genomic correlations between harvest traits measured on the experimental fish. Heritabilities are

479 underlined on the diagonal and genomic correlation are above the diagonal. In bold only are the genetic correlations close

480 to significance.

	rBWG	BW_136	Harvest_W	avg_FAT	rFillet_W	rHC_W	rHead_W	rViscera_W
rBWG	<u>0.25 (0.07)</u>	0.11 (0.22)	0.41 (0.25)	-0.17 (0.34)	-0.04 (0.35)	0.13 (0.26)	0.25 (0.30)	-0.41 (0.22)
BW_136	-0.10	<u>0.43 (0.06)</u>	0.56 (0.13)	0.32 (0.21)	-0.29 (0.23)	-0.18 (0.20)	0.35 (0.21)	0.07 (0.15)
Harvest_W	0.23	0.60	<u>0.26 (0.07)</u>	0.21 (0.32)	-0.49 (0.32)	-0.51 (0.25)	0.81 (0.23)	0.23 (0.21)
avg_FAT	0.007	0.36	0.59	<u>0.24 (0.08)</u>	0.03 (0.46)	0.24 (0.41)	0.14 (0.68)	0.26 (0.24)
rFillet_W	-0.15	-0.08	0	0.32	<u>0.21 (0.07)</u>	0.95 (0.12)	-0.99 (0.12)	-0.29 (0.24)
rHC_W	0.03	0.03	0	0.03	0.40	<u>0.29 (0.08)</u>	-0.92 (0.70)	-0.51 (0.22)
rHead_W	0.17	0.11	0	-0.31	-0.70	0.03	<u>0.25 (0.07)</u>	0.24 (0.35)
rViscera_W	-0.11	-0.06	0	0.01	-0.19	-0.75	-0.1	<u>0.44 (0.07)</u>

Furthermore, weak but significant phenotypic correlations were observed between Harvest_W and 481 rBWG (r = 0.23, $F_{1,432} = 23.94$, p < 0.001), rFillet_W and rBWG (r = -0.15, $F_{1,432} = 9.808$, p = 0.001), 482 rHead_W and rBWG (r = 0.17, $F_{1,432}$ = 11.54, p < 0.001) and between rViscera_W and rBWG (r = -483 484 0.11, $F_{1,432} = 5.686$, p = 0.017) (table 5). However, only few genomic correlations were not statistically 485 different to zero. For the first time in this species, we report a very high genetic correlation between 486 rFilet W and rHC_W ($r_g = 0.95 \pm 0.12$). We found a close to significance negative genetic correlation 487 between rBWG measured in aquariums and rViscera_W ($r_g = -0.41 \pm 0.22$). It means that the most 488 efficient fish had less viscera (and hence less visceral fat) than less efficient fish at the same weight. Although not significant, the genetic correlation between rBWG and muscle fat measured with the 489 Distell fatmeter was also negative ($r_g = -0.17 \pm 0.34$). Finally, the genomic correlation between 490 491 Harvest_W and rBWG ($r_g = 0.41 \pm 0.25$) was positive and close to significance.

492 Harvest traits and individual feed efficiency on cage-reared sibs

The genetic parameters are shown in Table 6. Although none of the traits was significantly genetically correlated with feed efficiency (measured as rBWG), the signs of the correlations of sib traits with rBWG were similar to those of the traits recorded on the feed efficiency animals themselves. The correlation was positive with Harvest_W_cage (0.22) and rHW_cage (0.55), and negative with avg_FAT_cage (-0.20) and rVisceral_W_cage (0.17).

498

Table 6. Heritabilites and genomic correlations of processing traits on cage-reared sibs with individual residual body weight
 gain measured in aquariums. Heritabilites are on the diagonal and genomic correlations are above the diagonal. Genetic
 correlations significantly different from zero in bold.

rBWG	Harvest_W_cage	avg_fat_cage	rHC_W_cage	rVisceral_W_cage
0.23 (0.07)	0.22 (0.56)	-0.20 (0.35)	0.55 (0.44)	-0.17 (0.34)
	0.23 (0.08)	0.59 (0.24)	0.98 (0.12)	0.68 (0.18)
		0.25 (0.08)	0.16 (0.48)	0.002 (0.25)
			0.16 (0.07)	-0.67 (0.31)
				0.48 (0.1)
	rBWG 0.23 (0.07)	rBWG Harvest_W_cage 0.23 (0.07) 0.22 (0.56) 0.23 (0.08)	rBWG Harvest_W_cage avg_fat_cage 0.23 (0.07) 0.22 (0.56) -0.20 (0.35) 0.23 (0.08) 0.59 (0.24) 0.25 (0.08)	rBWG Harvest_W_cage avg_fat_cage rHC_W_cage 0.23 (0.07) 0.22 (0.56) -0.20 (0.35) 0.55 (0.44) 0.23 (0.08) 0.59 (0.24) 0.98 (0.12) 0.25 (0.08) 0.16 (0.48) 0.16 (0.07)

503 **Discussion**

504

Investigating the genetic background of feed efficiency in fish started in the 90s. However, measuring 505 506 individual feed efficiency of fish living in groups in a 3D water column is not an easy task, because 507 phenotyping for individual feed intake in such conditions is not straightforward. If selective breeding 508 for growth rate (which is done in virtually all breeding programs) would generate indirect selection gain in feed efficiency, that would make genetic improvement of feed efficiency feasible without 509 going into complex methods to evaluate individual feed intake. Although all studies performed so far 510 511 on selection for growth agreed that selection for growth rate in fish leads to animals with higher feed 512 intake, the link between the increase in growth rate and the improvement of feed efficiency remains 513 uncertain with some studies showing positive association, while others show no association between 514 growth rate and feed efficiency (Ogata et al., 2002; Sanchez et al., 2001; Silverstein et al., 2005; 515 Thodesen et al., 1999; Yamamoto et al., 2015). It is therefore likely that feed conversion ratio and 516 growth rate are either not correlated or weakly negatively correlated (a negative correlation of growth 517 and FCR implies that selecting for fast growth will reduce FCR and thus improve feed efficiency). 518 When feed conversion ratio and growth rate have a genetic correlation comprised between 0 and -0.45, 519 integrating a specific evaluation of FCR in a breeding program would largely improve economic 520 returns and reduce environmental impacts, while if the correlation is more strongly negative (<0.45), 521 selecting only for growth also provides the benefits of improved feed efficiency (Besson et al., 2020). Developing an efficient method of phenotyping individual feed efficiency is thus essential to breed for 522 more efficient fish without being dependent on the potential correlation that feed efficiency could have 523 524 with growth rate.

525

526 In this regard, the method we developed using restricted feeding of fish in individual aquariums is 527 promising. We were able to phenotype more than 500 sea bream over a period of 5 months. The 528 phenotyping of 500 juvenile European sea bass was already achieved by Besson et al. (2019) in this 529 system, and thus we showed that it was reproducible for another fish species. Individual FCR values 530 measured for sea bream were in the same range as the ones obtained on sea bass, with a mean of 1.30 while it was 1.38 in the sea bass experiment (Besson et al., 2019). The heritability of individual FCR 531 532 was moderate (0.16) but lower than other heritability estimates for individual FCR in aquatic animals, 533 which were 0.32 in Nile tilapia Oreochromis niloticus (de Verdal et al., 2019, 2018), 0.47 in sea bass 534 (Besson et al., 2019) and 0.58 to 0.69 in Pacific white shrimp Litopenaeus vannamei (Dai et al., 535 2017). A reason that could explain this lower heritability is a potential confusion between genetic and environmental effects. Indeed, to avoid phenotyping big fish in the 10L aquariums, we picked the 536 537 biggest fish from the holding tank at the start of each batch, hence generating some confusion between 538 batch and body weight effects. Such confusion could have reduced the apparent genetic variance of 539 FCR and thus reduced the heritability, especially if FCR and growth rate are correlated. From a technical point of view, the experimental procedure could thus be improved by increasing the number
of aquariums allowing to phenotype more fish at the same time, and/or by starting to phenotype earlier
to avoid issues with fish too large for the system.

543

The phenotypic and genetic correlations between log(DGC) and log(FCR) were as strong as in the sea 544 bass experiment with the same system (-0.93 in sea bream vs -0.78 in sea bass for the phenotypic 545 correlation and -0.93 vs -0.98 for the genetic correlation). It confirms that growth in individual tanks 546 547 under restricted feeding is a good proxy of FCR measured in these conditions. However, feed 548 efficiency in aquarium (measured as log(DGC) or rBWG) was not correlated to the ad libitum growth 549 rate measured during the group experiment. Our results may have been different if we have estimated 550 this correlation under restricted feeding regime. However, from harvest data, there was a trend for a 551 positive genetic correlation between harvest weight and rBWG (0.41 \pm 0.25). Nevertheless, it should 552 be noted that harvest weight was measured on the same animals after individual feed efficiency 553 phenotyping. As individual feed efficiency was measured under restricted feeding, the most efficient 554 fish were also necessarily those that grew the most during this individual housing phase. Thus, the 555 positive link between harvest weight and rBWG might also be partly an artefact. In order to avoid such 556 artefacts, we also measured harvest traits on a group of cage-reared sibs and family links enabled the 557 estimation of genetic parameters. In this population, the link between rBWG and harvest weight was not significantly different than zero (0.22 ± 0.56) although correlations were of the same sign as those 558 observed on the fish with individual feed efficiency phenotypes. These results are consistent with the 559 560 results presented in Besson et al. (2019) in sea bass, and rather similar to those of Pang et al. (2017) on crucian carp Carassius auratus, which also found a low (0.15) correlation between initial weight and 561 562 individual feed efficiency. It suggests that feed efficiency measured under restricted feeding in 563 aquariums is not necessarily associated with faster growth under classical rearing condition and 564 individual feed efficiency might be independent of growth rate, which is not the general view (Knap 565 and Kause, 2018; Thodesen et al., 1999). Hence, the phenotyping procedure involving restricted feeding may not select for the animals with the best growth. This was hypothesized by Cameron et al. 566 567 (1994) who suggested that restricted feeding may select for animals with higher partitioning of energy 568 toward protein deposition rather than fat deposition but may not select for animals with the highest 569 overall protein deposition. The results obtained on harvest traits tend to support this hypothesis. 570 Although the genetic correlations between rBWG and harvest traits (measured on the same animals or 571 on sibs reared in cage) were very uncertain due to their high standard error, they showed a trend for a 572 negative correlation between rBWG and viscera yield. The most efficient fish would have lower 573 viscera yield and it was shown in farmed European sea bass that viscera are mostly composed of 574 visceral fat (Saillant et al., 2009). This is in line with the general knowledge on selection of animals 575 for feed efficiency which suggests that selecting for leaner animals would improve feed efficiency 576 (Knap and Kause, 2018). However, the direct genetic correlation between FCR and percentage of intramuscular fat in our experiment was not significant, although again being positive, as expected under that hypothesis. We could not highlight other significant genetic correlations between rBWG and processing traits probably because of the small number of phenotypes collected (n = 451individuals with both efficiency and harvest phenotypes).

581

In this context, where a limited number of animals can be phenotyped, genomic data showed their 582 583 advantages compared to pedigree to estimate breeding values. Indeed, the prediction of EBV was more 584 accurate using GBLUP models (using SNP data) than PBLUP models (using only pedigree) by 26%. 585 This result is in line with previous results on fish for several other traits such as disease resistance 586 (Aslam et al., 2020; Aslam et al., 2020; Vallejo et al., 2017; Yoshida et al., 2019), growth and quality 587 traits (Blay et al., 2021; Palaiokostas et al., 2018; Tsai et al., 2016) or reproduction traits (D'Ambrosio 588 et al., 2020). With GBLUP, the improvement of the accuracy was however lower than the 48% 589 increase in accuracy we obtained for feed efficiency in European sea bass (Besson et al., 2019), but 590 was in the range of the values in the previously cited studies. Our results therefore confirm the major 591 potential benefits of genomics for improving genetic gain in complex traits for which only few 592 animals can be phenotyped. These results are all the more important as we could not identify any QTL 593 associated to individual feed efficiency traits, suggesting a highly polygenic architecture of those 594 traits. These results differs however from previous results from Pang et al. (2017). In their study, they were able to highlight several QTL for feed efficiency of individually reared carp. Such QTL were 595 also found for terrestrial farmed animals such as pig (Delpuech et al., 2021) or cattle (Seabury et al., 596 597 2017). In our case, the lack of QTL detection could be caused by the low number of animals phenotyped and genotyped and also by the family structure: among the 112 full-sib families present in 598 599 our dataset, 31 were represented by only one individual.

600

601 To be applicable in a commercial breeding program this phenotyping method in aquarium should be 602 able to identify fish that would be the most efficient when reared in group conditions, as group rearing 603 is the normal way of farming fish. A validation experiment in groups is therefore essential. With such 604 validation in groups, for instance, Rodde et al. (2020) showed that individual measurements of feed 605 efficiency in aquarium for Nile Tilapia Oreochromis niloticus were not correlated to feed efficiency in 606 groups. Hence, phenotyping feed efficiency in aquarium is probably not an efficient method to 607 improve feed efficiency of Nile tilapia. Conversely, in shrimp, Dai et al. (2019) found a good genetic 608 correlation (0.79 ± 0.11) between feed efficiency measured in isolated shrimp or in small groups of 10 609 shrimp. Our results for sea bream showed a link between individual and group feed efficiency but the 610 results were less straightforward than those in sea bass (Besson et al., 2019). A significant difference 611 in TFCR between subgroups A (most individually efficient fish) and B (least individually efficient 612 fish) was only found for the first period of 2 weeks (out of 4 periods) and for the full period of 9 613 weeks. Several reasons that may explain this result. First, when looking at short time periods, TFCR 614 could fluctuate between periods due to social dynamics within the tanks or due to environmental 615 conditions. This variance at small scale would be smoothed when looking at longer time periods such 616 as 9 weeks. The lack of difference could also be due to health issues that affected the fish. During 617 group experiments, fish suffered from an unexplained occurrence of bulging eyes, that could neither be related to nitrogen supersaturation nor to pathogens by veterinarians. This may have caused welfare 618 issues, and perturbed their feeding pattern, as shown by the sharp increase in FCR, from 1.13 to 1.4, 619 between periods 1 and 2 of the group feed efficiency experiment. Although the results are not 620 621 straightforward, it still seems reasonable to consider that in sea bream, variation in individual feed 622 efficiency under restricted feeding can be at least partly reflected in differences in feed efficiency 623 when fish are reared in groups with ad libitum feeding.

624 Conclusion

625

626 The present study confirms the potential of phenotyping individual feed efficiency of fish in individual 627 aquariums under restricted feeding. With this method, similar to what was previously shown in sea 628 bass, several feed efficiency traits were shown to be heritable in sea bream, suggesting that genetic 629 improvement for individual feed efficiency is feasible. Considering a selection index pressure of 10% 630 and an accuracy of 0.53, the genetic gain could enable reduction of FCR of 1% per generation, from 631 1.29 to 1.276 in the first generation. At the Mediterranean scale, where 228,000 tonnes of sea bream 632 were produced in 2018, such reduction of FCR would decrease the use of feed by 3,192 tonnes per 633 year, with a direct impact on economic and environmental sustainability of sea bream production. The 634 accuracy estimated in this research is however only an estimate and, ideally, the true response to selection should be measured with an experimental approach. 635

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Appendices 644 645

Appendix 1. Composition of the feed 646

Ingredients	%
Fishmeal Super Prime	5.00
Soy protein concentrate	25.00
Wheat gluten	7.50
Corn gluten	25.00
Rapeseed meal	11.00
Wheat meal	2.00
Pea starch	1.80
Fish oil	10.90
Rapeseed oil	5.70
Soy lecithin	1.65
PERFORMFISH WP1 Premix 1%	1.00
Guar gum	0.20
Monocalcium phosphate	2.10
L-Lysine	0.90
DL-Methionine	0.01
L-Taurine	0.24
Total	100.00
Analysis results	
Moisture (g/100g)	8.2
Crude protein (g/100g)	42.5
Fat (g/100g)	20.3
Crude ash (g/100g)	6.2
Crude fibre (g/100g)	2.1
Total phosphorus (g/100g)	1.1

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