Mapping and Functional Characterization of Candidate Genes and Mutations for Chicken Growth

An Approach Combining Computational Genetics and Bioinformatics

Muhammad Ahsan
Faculty of Veterinary Medicine and Animal Science
Department of Clinical Sciences
Uppsala

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Abstract
Knowledge of the genetics related to growth is important for breeding chickens with the desired traits of rapid and efficient growth. A long-term selection experiment in the domestic chicken (*Gallus gallus*) has resulted in two highly divergent lines selected for juvenile body weight. These lines are a great genetic resource to identify the genetic basis of phenotypic variation mainly for growth traits.

The aim of this thesis was to map the relationship between the genotype and phenotype and thereby reveal the genetic architecture of growth in the chicken. To this end, high-density genotyping and whole-genome resequencing of the lines were used to explore the genetics of the body weight difference between these lines. We further fine-mapped previously identified Quantitative Trait Loci (QTLs) for body weight and used bioinformatics approaches to identify the most promising candidate genes, mutations and biological pathways for growth for further functional evaluations. We also studied a previously mapped radial network of interacting QTLs to reveal potential biological interactions by analyzing biological pathways. In addition, we developed new computational genetic method and tools and used them to functionally explore specific genetic variants in selected regions in the genome. To functionally evaluate the effect of identified amino acid substitutions (AAS), we developed and implemented a bioinformatics method in a tool called PASE.

The predictions of PASE, using physicochemical properties of amino acids, were consistent with other widely available homology-based tools. Our mapping strategy successfully fine-mapped the QTLs, and our bioinformatic strategies were efficient in identifying the candidate mutations and biological pathways for growth. The methods we developed could be applied to the genetic dissection of other complex traits.

*Keywords:* SNP, QTL, NGS, Candidate mutations, Association mapping, Imputation, Virginia chicken lines, divergent selection

*Author’s address:* Muhammad Ahsan, SLU, Department of Clinical Sciences, P.O. Box 7078, 750 07 Uppsala, Sweden
*E-mail:* Muhammad.Ahsan@slu.se
Dedication

To my beloved parents, wife and daughters...
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List of Publications

This thesis is based on the work contained in the following papers, referred to by Roman numerals in the text:


II Muhammad Ahsan, Paul B. Siegel and Örjan Carlberg. Evaluation of an imputation-based fine-mapping strategy in an outbred chicken Advanced Intercross Line (AIL). (manuscript)


IV Xidan Li, Muhammad Ahsan, Andreas E Lundberg, Marcin Kierczak, Paul B Siegel, Örjan Carlberg and Stefan Marklund. Revealing candidate biological interactions underlying epistatic QTLs for chicken growth. (manuscript)

Papers I and III are reproduced with the permission of the publishers.
The contribution of Muhammad Ahsan to the papers included in this thesis was as follows:

I Partly planned the study, evaluated the algorithm and contributed towards manuscript drafting and revision.

II Planned the study, performed the whole statistical analysis, compiled the results and wrote the manuscript.

III Partly planned the study, performed majority of the region-targeted computations and analysis, compiled the results and wrote the manuscript.

IV Partly planned the study, performed half of the analysis, compiled the results and revised the drafted manuscript.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Abbreviation</th>
<th>Definition</th>
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<tr>
<td>AAS</td>
<td>Amino Acid Substitution</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AF</td>
<td>Allele Frequency</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AFD</td>
<td>Allele Frequency Difference</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AIL</td>
<td>Advanced Intercross Line</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BW56</td>
<td>Body Weight at 56 days of age</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DAVID</td>
<td>Database for Annotation, Visualization and Integrated Discovery</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DNA</td>
<td>Deoxyribo Nucleic Acid</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FSV</td>
<td>Flanking SNP Value</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GGA</td>
<td>Gallus gallus (chicken) Autosome</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HWS</td>
<td>High-Weight-Selected</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>KEGG</td>
<td>Kyoto Encyclopaedia of Genes and Genomes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LWS</td>
<td>Low-Weight-Selected</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NGS</td>
<td>Next Generation Sequencing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nsSNP</td>
<td>non-synonymous Single Nucleotide Polymorphism</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PASE</td>
<td>Predicting Amino acid Substitutions’ Effect</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>QTL</td>
<td>Quantitative Trait Loci</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RJF</td>
<td>Red Jungle Fowl</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SNP</td>
<td>Single Nucleotide Polymorphism</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VEP</td>
<td>Variant Effect Predictor</td>
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1 Introduction

The hereditary material DNA is structured to carry the genes, the basic unit of heredity, in the chromosomes within the nucleus of all cells. The genetic information is transmitted from parent to offspring. According to the central dogma of molecular biology, the genetic information flows from DNA to RNA and finally to proteins. These proteins play a major role in determining different phenotypes, such as body weight, height and colour. Diploid organisms carry two copies of every chromosome, receiving one copy from each parent, therefore, receiving two copies of every gene, one from each parental chromosome. Different forms of the gene are called alleles. These alleles give rise to a genotype at a particular locus, a location on a chromosome. Same alleles of a gene result in homozygous genotype whereas different alleles give rise to heterozygous genotypes. The adjacent set of alleles of different genes along a chromosome of an individual is characterized as a haplotype and each individual carry two haplotypes owing to homologous chromosomes. Related individuals resemble each other because they carry shared alleles (Lynch & Walsh, 1998).

Two types of traits have been classified in plants and animals, generally based on the number of genes involved in their expression of phenotypes. Qualitative traits are influenced only by a single gene or very few genes and their gene effects can be easily classified into distinct phenotype classes due to their discrete expressions, whereas the quantitative (multifactorial or complex) traits are not only controlled by multiple genes but also by multiple non-genetic environmental factors showing a continuous variation in the trait phenotype (Lynch & Walsh, 1998). Mendelian traits are qualitative where, for instance, the phenotype of seed colour of pea plants can be classed into different colours. Most traits and diseases in human and animals are quantitative in nature and result from an interplay of genetic and environmental
factors, making the genetic architecture of such traits and disease challenging to reveal.

DNA variation (or genetic variation) is an important contributor to the phenotypic differences observed among individuals of a species. Selective breeding for desired phenotypes of animals, such as meat and egg traits in the domestic chicken, has resulted in different genetic makeups of selected individuals and an enrichment of variants essential for the expression of traits. Functional annotation and characterization of the identified DNA variation is necessary to pinpoint the functional variants associated with complex traits. DNA and/or RNA sequencing is conducted in most genome projects for various kinds of functional genomic studies that also generate genetic variation data. Many bioinformatics integrated resources are freely available for researchers to characterize these mutations. The functional characterization of genetic variation enables the researchers to identify putative functional mutations underlying traits of interest.

Lines of animals divergently selected for particular traits in controlled environments are a great genetic resource to identify the genetic basis of phenotypic variation in complex traits and a good model for identifying genes involved in the regulation of related traits in humans (Hill, 2005; Simmons, 2008). The selected populations display greater phenotypic divergence for the selected phenotypes than populations, which are bred commercially for composite phenotypes. Such divergent lines provide opportunities for in-depth research of genetic factors underlying the selection response for the trait (Andersson & Georges, 2004). Many of the important agricultural traits in animals are concerned with metabolism, growth and feeding-behaviour. Therefore, these divergently selected lines of domesticated species of animals ultimately become a good model for translational studies in human medicine for exploring the genetic architecture of related problems of e.g. obesity and diabetes (Andersson, 2001).

Initiated in 1957, a long-term selection experiment in chicken has resulted in two chicken lines divergently selected for either high or low body weight at 56-days of age: the High-Weight-Selected (HWS) and the Low-Weight-Selected (LWS) Virginia lines, which after about 50 generations of selection, display a 12-fold difference in body weight at selection age (Marquez et al., 2010; Dunnington et al., 2013). Genotype data from a SNP-chip with nearly 60,000 genetic markers and SNPs called from whole-genome resequencing of the divergent lines, were used to explore the genetic basis of the differences in body weight between these lines (Ahsan et al., 2013; Marklund & Carlborg, 2010).
Quantitative Trait Loci (QTL) mapping endeavours to statistically associate phenotypic data of a quantitative trait with the genotypic data to explain the variation in the trait phenotype due to genetic variation. QTL mapping reveals chromosomal segments, including a single gene or many genes, which affect the studied phenotypes through their independent additive effects or by gene-gene interaction (epistatic interactions). To reveal the genomic loci underlying different metabolic traits, body-weight and body-stature in Virginia lines, an F2-cross was performed in generation 40 of HWS and LWS lines, and many QTLs with small marginal effects on body weight at 56 days of age (BW56) and a network of interacting QTLs for the same trait were reported (Carlborg et al., 2006; Jacobsson et al., 2005; Park et al., 2006; Wahlberg et al., 2009). From the parents of the same F2-cross, a nine-generation Advanced Intercross Line (AIL) was developed to replicate and fine-map the QTLs reported in the earlier F2-cross studies (Besnier et al., 2011; Pettersson et al., 2011).

In this thesis, my aim was to use genetic variation in Virginia lines to elucidate the underlying genetic mechanism responsible for enormous body weight difference between these lines, and to reveal genes and mutations that can be considered as candidates for further functional studies of their effects on growth. Specific genetic variants in coding regions of genes may cause amino acid substitutions (AAS) in proteins. Therefore, we started by developing a bioinformatics method to functionally evaluate the effect of these AAS. This bioinformatics method was developed and implemented in a tool to evaluate all these potentially functional variants based on the physicochemical properties of the substituted amino acids.

Previously identified QTLs for BW56 in the Virginia chicken lines were so spread out along the chromosomes that it included millions of basepairs for further bioinformatic investigations for candidate genes and mutations for growth. It was imperative, therefore, to further fine-map the reported QTLs. Starting from a previously reported fine-mapping experiment using AIL, the QTLs were further fine-mapped through an imputation-based association-mapping based approach utilizing data from 60K individual SNP-chip genotyping from these lines. Fine-mapped regions were analysed bioinformatically to identify the most promising candidate genes, mutations and biological pathways for body weight for further functional evaluations. A previously mapped radial-network of interacting QTLs (Carlborg et al., 2006; Pettersson et al., 2011) was also studied in detail to reveal potential biological interactions by analysing pathways including genes and mutations from the genomic regions harbouring the interacting QTLs.

The results and methods are important for future animal improvement programmes, but that can be generalized to study related traits in any species.
including humans. In this way, this thesis presents an important insight into complex trait genetics.
2 Background

The central dogma of molecular biology describes the flow of genetic information from genetic material DNA (Deoxyribonucleic acid) to RNAs (Ribonucleic acid) to proteins. Specifically, a protein-coding gene is transcribed into mRNA (messenger RNA) and that, in turn, is translated into a protein. These proteins carry out a number of cellular functions thereby play an important role in determining phenotypes within a living organism. The field of quantitative genetics endeavours to find the relationship between genotype i.e. the genetic makeup of the organisms and their complex phenotypes.

In this thesis the prime aim was to reveal the relationship of the growth, in terms of juvenile body weight in chicken, and the genetic variations present in outbred Virginia chicken lines, selected for divergent body weight at 8-weeks of age. These lines show an enormous difference (12-fold) in body weight at selection age after about 50 generations of selection (Marquez et al., 2010, Dunnington et al., 2013). We were particularly interested in understanding how this large phenotypic difference for body weight between these divergent lines occurred and which is the most candid underlying genetic variation contributing to this phenotypic variation. To achieve this aim, we, first, developed and implemented a bioinformatics method in a tool, called PASE (Prediction of Amino Acid’s Substitution Effect). The PASE uses physicochemical properties of amino acids to predict the effects of amino acid substitutions (AAS) on protein structure and function. The PASE software was used to evaluate the genetic variations that led to AASs in proteins in the selected genomic regions in these chicken lines. Second, a previous study mapped QTLs (Quantitative Trait Loci) of large confidence interval for body weight at 8-weeks of age using linkage analysis approach (Jacobsson et al., 2005; Besnier et al., 2011). As the bioinformatic analysis of the genomic regions for identifying phenotype-contributing genes and mutations is more efficient for smaller regions including fewer genes, therefore, we developed a
strategy to use the information on the historical recombination of markers to further fine-map previously identified QTLs in a nine-generations Advanced Intercross Line (AIL) pedigree. Third, we developed a bioinformatics strategy to analyse the fine-mapped QTL regions using genotype data from 60k individual SNP-chip and SNPs-called on resequenced Next Generation Sequencing (NGS) data from these lines. This allowed us to investigate genes and mutations for body weight that may be contributing to the phenotypic variation between the lines. Fourth, a previously reported network of interacting loci mapped in these lines for body weight (Carlborg et al., 2006; Pettersson et al., 2011), was thoroughly investigated for underlying biological interactions given the observed QTL interactions. For further molecular studies for functional validation, we, finally, presented candidate genetic contributors in form of genes and mutations, and biological pathways for body weight in chicken.

2.1 Animal Models

Animals have been domesticated and kept by humans since ancient times for various reasons, such as food, company animals, transportation and protection etc. (Clutton-Brock, 1995) Humans preferred some individuals over other given a phenotypic trait and has led to selective breeding in a number of different species. Nowadays, this continues in commercial breeding programs that are improving the performance of animals through the selection of best individuals for particular traits. The selection of individuals of a population for many generations results in the enrichment of variation important for the specific phenotypic trait in selected individuals.

There are many important traits in animals that are related to metabolism and growth. This makes these animals a great model for translational studies to dissect the genetic architecture of related traits in human medicine, including eating disorders, diabetes and obesity (Andersson, 2001).

Animal selection lines may thus be developed through selection of individuals in a population that display a certain trait or disease. A selection line would be expected to get enriched for mutations affecting particular traits or diseases over generations and can be considered as animal models for genetic studies. In humans these models are impossible to design due to many ethical and social concerns. The genetic research using these animal models would be expected to identify genetic elements for traits and diseases.
2.2 Research into the Genetics of Growth: Virginia Chicken Lines

To study and understand the genetic effects of divergent selection for body weight, a selection experiment was started in 1957 at Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University (USA). Two divergent chicken lines were established i.e., High-Weight-Selected (HWS) and Low-Weight-Selected (LWS) Virginia lines. Seven partially inbred lines of White Plymouth Rock breed were crossed to compose a single founder base population of these lines. HWS and LWS have been under selection only for high and low body weight at 8-weeks of age, respectively, for more than 50 generations and now display direct effects of this selection with a 12-fold difference at selection age (Dunnington & Siegel, 1996; Marquez et al., 2010; Dunnington et al., 2013; Figure 1). The selected lines currently also exhibit correlated selection responses for many other metabolic and behavioural traits, such as body composition, appetite, anorexia and antibody response (Dunnington & Siegel, 1996).

Different experimental crosses were set up in Virginia lines to extensively study the genetic framework of body weight and different other metabolic traits (Jacobsson et al., 2005; Park et al., 2006; Carlborg et al., 2006; Le Rouzic et al., 2007; Le Rouzic & Carlborg, 2008; Wahlberg et al., 2009; Johansson et al., 2010; Besnier et al., 2011; Pettersson et al., 2011). The AIL has been developed from HWS and LWS individuals in generation 40, to fine-map QTLs (Besnier et al., 2011; Pettersson et al., 2011). In Paper II we used genotype data of founder and AIL individuals, along with body weight and pedigree information of the AIL. In Paper III and IV we used genotype data of founders and genetic variation obtained from whole-genome resequencing of both lines, to identify candidate genes and mutations.

2.3 Chicken Karyotype

The chicken haploid genome is about 1.07 Gbps, including 38 pairs of autosomes and a pair of sex chromosomes. There are nine pairs of macrochromosomes while the rest of the genome consists of cytologically distinct microchromosomes (Burt, 2002; Figure 2; Table 1). Chickens, like other birds show a different pairing of sex chromosomes than mammals. Male birds are homogametic (ZZ) while females are heterogametic (ZW). Currently, the Gallus_gallus-4.0 genome assembly of Red Jungle Fowl (galGal4) is the most recent assembly and is available on Ensembl (release 75.4; Refer to page 25; Flicek et al., 2014). The assembly consists of 31 chromosomes and 2 linkage groups. There are 14,093 unplaced scaffolds. About 95% of the genome is
anchored to Chromosome 1-28, 32, sex chromosomes and two linkage groups (Ensembl release 70; Refer to page 25; Flicek et al., 2014). Table 1 summarizes the genomic information for galGal4.

Figure 1. The figure shows a LWS bird on the back of an HWS bird, both at the selection age of 8-weeks at generation 49 of selection (Photo: Paul B. Siegel). Note the difference in size.

Figure 2. Chicken karyotype (Ensembl database version: 75.4)
Table 1. Summary statistics of Genome assembly of galGal4 (Ensembl database version: 75.4; Flicek et al., 2014)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>galGal4, Nov 2011</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Base Pairs</td>
<td>1,072,544,763</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Coding genes</td>
<td>15,508</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Short non coding genes</td>
<td>1,558</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pseudogenes</td>
<td>42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gene transcripts</td>
<td>17,954</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Genscan gene predictions</td>
<td>40,572</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Short Variants</td>
<td>9,456,218</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2.4 Gene Mapping and Association Studies

To study the underlying genetic basis of different traits, gene-mapping methods attempt to find the link between the genotypes of individuals and the phenotypes of interest. Simple Mendelian traits that show discrete phenotypes, such as blood groups, are exhibited by only a single or very few genes. But complex quantitative traits that show continuous phenotypes, such as growth, metabolic traits and many diseases, are affected not only by many contributing loci across the genome that have usually small effects on the phenotype but also by environmental factors. These contributing loci have different magnitudes of genetic effects on traits. These genetic effects from different loci may be additive and contribute the most in phenotype expression. But in some other instances, some loci release their genetic effects only under the control of other genetic loci, giving rise to a non-additive gene-gene interaction, a.k.a epistasis.

I would briefly discuss two different gene-mapping strategies for complex traits, i.e., QTL analysis and Genome-Wide Association Studies (GWAS). The major difference between these methods is in the experimental designs. QTL analysis requires related individuals where the inheritance of linked alleles in pedigrees can be associated to similarities in phenotypes. The principle for QTL analysis is the use of long linkage blocks in pedigrees, whereas in GWAS we analyse general populations, most often unrelated individuals, where very dense markers are needed to tag the LD blocks.

2.4.1 QTL Analysis

QTL analysis attempts to identify chromosomal regions that are associated with complex traits, through linkage analysis of the marker and QTL alleles across the genome after recombination events take place. The analysis is
performed often on a crossed population originating from crosses of two or more founder populations. The founder populations differ in phenotype of interest. There are two common types of experimental crosses that are used in QTL mapping analysis, i.e., \( F_2 \)-cross and Backcross design. The \( F_2 \)-cross is advantageous over backcross in that the parents that are homozygous for alternative alleles produce all three genotypes in the \( F_2 \) generation, i.e., heterozygotes and both homozygous genotypes. This allows the estimation of additive, dominance and epistatic genetic effects. On the other hand, a single-backcross design would produce heterozygotes and only one homozygous genotype from the same parental populations. Backcrossing to both homozygous parental populations is therefore needed to produce all three genotypes. The prerequisites of QTL mapping are, therefore, (1) two or more founder populations that differ distinctly in the trait of interest, to produce an \( F_2 \) or a Backcross generation and (2) genetic markers (SNPs, microsatellites etc.) that tags the DNA at different position preferably evenly spread through the genome in all three generations of the experimental cross. Parental lines are often assumed to be fixed for alternative alleles at QTL when they are crossed and produce heterozygous \( F_1 \) individuals. Intercrossing of \( F_1 \) individuals would recombine these marker and QTL alleles in \( F_2 \). Through linkage analysis in \( F_2 \) individuals, the linked markers and QTLs segregating together with trait values can be traced and only the linked markers would show significant association with the phenotype.

The simplest statistical method for QTL mapping is a single factor Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) modelled with different genotypes of a single marker at each marker loci (Broman, 2000; Model 1). A significant difference in phenotypes between marker genotypes indicates a marker linked to a QTL.

\[
y_{ij} = \mu + b_j + \epsilon_{ij} \quad \text{(Model 1)}
\]

where \( y_{ij} \) is the phenotype value of the \( i^{th} \) individual with marker genotype \( j \), \( \mu \) is the overall mean, \( b_j \) is the effect of marker \( j \) and \( \epsilon_{ij} \) is the residual error term which is assumed to be normally distributed.

A genome-wide significance threshold is needed to cater for multiple testing and is usually calculated using permutation testing.

The currently used technique for QTL analysis is Interval mapping (modified from Lander & Botstein, 1989), which estimates the QTL position in the interval between two adjacent markers and their associations with the trait. Test statistics of Logarithms of the Odds (LOD) score or Likelihood ratios are calculated to represents statistical support for QTL in this method (Figure 3). QTL mapping using \( F_2 \)-crosses results in the identification of long QTL
regions between very distant markers owing to only one generation of recombination. More generations of intercrossing (for instance, Advanced Intercross Lines) are needed to allow more recombinations to happen between linked alleles at marker and QTL in individuals. Genotyping of individuals in every generation at higher marker resolution may be needed to detect these recombination events for fine-mapping of regions with smaller confidence intervals.

2.4.2 Genome-Wide Association Analysis

GWAS require general populations, usually of unrelated individuals. Sampling could be from random mating populations but experimental crosses are not precluded from GWAS. Large sample size to increase power in association analysis is, however, often considered an important factor in GWAS (Wang et al., 2005; Liu et al., 2014). The F_{2}-cross individuals exhibit large LD blocks and require fewer markers to map QTLs but in GWAS there are usually no such large blocks when individuals are randomly sampled from a natural population. Therefore, a very high-density marker map is needed to detect very small LD blocks in these individuals. The simplest way to test for association is single marker analysis. All markers can be modelled as in Model 1 for association analysis. A Manhattan plot represents the test statistics for all the tested markers along the genome to detect the associations with the phenotype (Figure 4). A group of markers linked to a specific chromosomal region would show association that could be significant. To correct for multiple testing
Bonferroni correction or permutation testing can be chosen to set a genome-wide significance threshold.

Nowadays, GWAS is the method of choice in most genetic association studies in humans as well as in other species due to the availability of high-density genotyping of markers. Humans can be phenotyped for traits of interest and genotyped on high-density SNP arrays to carry out GWAS.

![Manhattan plot](image-url)

*Figure 4. A Manhattan plot of markers tested for association in a GWAS along the genome. X-axis shows the tested markers on each chromosome (coloured differently to delimit markers on adjacent chromosomes). Y-axis represents the transformed value of the test statistic (P-value) for each marker in the study. Only the markers that show values greater than the genome-wide significance threshold (red line) are considered significantly associated with the phenotype. The plot is not based on a real dataset.*

### 2.5 Genome Resequencing and High-Density SNP Genotyping

With the advent of the Next Generation Sequencing (NGS), more and more genomes are being sequenced generating data at an unprecedented scale. Many biologically important species have their complete genomes sequenced and are available as a reference for resequencing of interesting populations in different
studies. It has now become affordable to resequence interesting sub-
populations as well as individuals to mine virtually every genetic
polymorphism. Currently, there are several NGS platforms available and any
of these may be chosen according to the specific needs of the research projects.

To study the phenotypic evolution of the body weight differences, we
resequenced whole-genomes of Virginia lines of chickens in two separate
experiments to reveal polymorphism in their genomes (Ahsan et al., 2013;
Marklund & Carlborg, 2010; Rubin et al., 2010). In both experiments, pooled
DNA samples from HWS and LWS lines from generation 40 were sequenced
separately with SOLiD sequencing technology. For the first experiment, pooled
DNAs represented by seven males and four females from each line were
sequenced to produce genomic fragment library of 35bp reads. The genome
assembly for each line was generated with ~5X depth coverage using the
reference genome assembly of Red Jungle Fowl (RJF; WUGSC 2.1/galGal3,
May 2006; Hillier et al., 2004; Rubin et al., 2010, Marklund & Carlborg, 2010)
and SNPs were called at the time. In the second experiment, two new pools of
DNA represented by 8 individuals in each line were used to generate mate pair
library of 50 bp reads that produced assemblies of ~7X depth coverage in each
line, also by using the same reference assembly of RJF.

To enhance the sensitivity of SNP detection in these lines, we merged the
data from two experiments both in HWS and LWS line and aligned against the
reference RJF producing a genome assembly of ~12X depth coverage in each
line. For SNP-calling a threshold of three non-reference reads at every SNP
position was set including the reads from both lines (~24X depth coverage)
(Ahsan et al., 2013).

High-density individual SNP-chip genotyping of 20 individuals each of
HWS and LWS in generation 40 was carried out to assay about 60,000 SNPs in
chromosome 1-28. 59% of the assayed SNPs were polymorphic within or
between HWS and LWS lines (Marklund & Carlborg, 2010; Johansson et al.,
2010).

High-density SNP genotyping and SNPs called on whole-genome
resequencing data present nearly all the polymorphism in these lines. In this
thesis the identified genetic variation in the lines was analysed further for their
potential functional effects on growth in selected regions of genome. In Paper
II the untyped markers in AIL were imputed in QTL regions using this high-
density SNP genotyping as a reference panel. In paper III and IV, we used
SNPs called on resequenced NGS data to identify the regions in the QTLs that
have diverged significantly between HWS and LWS lines after 40 generations
of selection. Allele frequency difference (AFD) of these mutations between the
lines was also an indicator in inferring regions of divergence in the QTLs. All
these mutations were annotated using Variant Effect Predictor (VEP; McLaren et al., 2010) to identify their locations relative to genes in chicken genome and their potential functional effects on proteins. Identified AASs, resulting from non-synonymous SNPs, were scored using PASE software to estimate their potential impact on protein structure and/or function.

2.6 Genotype Imputation

A number of factors may contribute to the lack of signal in association studies including no association at all, sparseness of typed SNPs and false negatives etc. Genotype imputation has been shown to enhance power, fine-map association signals and enable meta-analysis studies to be conducted after combining results from different studies (Marchini & Howei, 2010). The association signals may be boosted through testing for association at imputed SNPs (Figure 5). The genotype imputation methods are used mainly to impute untyped as well as missing SNP genotypes using reference marker data. This is also used to correct genotype errors that may help control false positives. In human studies reference data could be any of these datasets: (1) HapMap data, (2) 1000 genomes data, (3) SNP array data etc., but for non-human species only resequencing and SNP array data may be available as reference data. Knowledge about the haplotype structure in the population is required for imputation. Imputation methods usually phase individuals at all typed SNPs before the haplotypes from the dense reference data can be used to impute untyped and missing SNPs into the haplotypes of individuals that are genotyped for a subset of SNPs (Marchini & Howei, 2010; Daetwyler et al., 2011).

The fine-mapping study in this thesis (Paper II) took advantage of the genotype imputation to boost power and resolution of the QTLs. ChromoPhase software (Daetwyler et al., 2011) utilizes pedigree information to gain the knowledge about the haplotype structure in the population. We used ChromoPhase to phase and impute genotypes in a nine-generation AIL pedigree (1529 individuals) by using high-density SNP-chip genotypes from founders as a reference panel. The individuals in the pedigree are from closely related subsequent generations, sharing relatively long and similar haplotypes to help efficient and precise phasing and imputation.
Figure 5. Comparison of association signals from hypothetical different marker sets: The plot on the left shows typed (coloured green) markers only, whereas the plot on the right shows both typed (coloured green) and imputed (coloured orange) markers that boost the association signal.

2.7 Functional Annotation

Most genomic projects use DNA and/or RNA sequencing to carry out different kinds of functional studies. In these studies reference genomic databases are useful for annotation of identified genomic elements. Nowadays, many integrated bioinformatic resources are available online for researchers to utilize genomic information in their own projects. The most popular genomic resources include Ensembl (Flicek et al., 2014) and UCSC (Karolchik et al., 2014) genome browsers (Barnes, 2010). Several sources of information including known EST, mRNAs, genes and protein information are used to annotate new genes in different species. The \textit{ab initio} tools for gene identification, such as GenScan (Burge & Karlin, 1997) and N-Scan (Gross & Brent, 2006), are also used for newly sequenced species. These genome browsers deliver fundamental information for genomes including e.g. genes, genetic variation, regulatory elements and conservation. They also supply different levels of annotation in several species, from a single base to full chromosomes and by that address many problems in genomics (Pevsner, 2009).

To functionally characterize genes and gene products, Gene Ontology database (GO; Ashburner et al., 2000) is widely used in life sciences. This database provides consistent biological ontology that can be widely applied to any species. The structured and controlled vocabulary of GO terms makes it possible to consistently describe the biological functions of gene products (Yu & Hinchcliffe, 2011).

Biological pathways are involved in metabolism, gene regulation and signal transduction. These pathways are comprised of interacting biological molecules to perform different functions. Many of these pathways are curated in Kyoto Encyclopaedia of Genes and Genomes (KEGG; Kanehisa et al., 2012,
Papers III and IV in this thesis used KEGG pathways. The genes in selected genomic regions within QTLs were mapped to several KEGG pathways to reveal biological interaction networks that underlie interacting loci.

There are many bioinformatic resources available for genomics research and investigating them individually for annotation of a large set of genes is laborious and very time consuming. The Database for Annotation, Visualization and Integrated Discovery (DAVID; Huang et al., 2009a, 2009b) provides functional analysis tools for batches of genes. A gene list can be submitted to DAVID for annotation enrichment analysis. There are almost 40 categories to which the annotations for the submitted genes can be combined and analysed. These categories include e.g. GO terms, biological pathways, protein-protein interactions, homology, disease associations and literature mining. The functional analysis provides a consistent and organized annotation originating from several biological angles for all the genes in the batch. DAVID also provides the Pathway Viewer tool to visualize genes in the batch on pathway maps useful to decipher biological interaction networks. In Paper III and IV we analysed genes in selected regions of fine-mapped QTLs using DAVID and presented candidate genes associated with body weight in chicken.
3 Aims of the thesis

This thesis aims at revealing the genetic architecture of complex trait of growth in the chicken using computational and bioinformatics methods.

This involves mapping genetic associations of the trait of growth and further exploring the genetic elements involved in this complex trait efficiently, utilizing data both from high-throughput Next Generation Sequencing (NGS) and high-density individual SNP-chip genotyping. This also requires the development of new bioinformatics methods to identify and characterize mutations that cause highly divergent growth phenotype in Virginia chicken lines.
4 Summaries of the investigations

To study the effects of long-term divergent selection for juvenile body weight, the Virginia lines have previously been used extensively to map the genetic regions underlying huge body weight differences between these lines after 40 generations of selection. We were interested in understanding how the lines have diverged phenotypically for body weight. Since we knew that polymorphisms in the mapped QTL regions existed across the genome, which could contribute to the differences between lines, we resequenced the HWS and LWS lines to identify all polymorphisms in these regions. We devised efficient bioinformatic strategies to prioritize and identify the candidate causative polymorphism. To do this, we first developed a method (Paper I) to evaluate which coding mutations were most likely to alter protein function. As the QTL regions were spread out over megabases even after fine-mapping, we also developed a method to narrow down the QTL regions using an association mapping approach that utilizes historical recombinations to increase resolution compared to the earlier-used linkage mapping approach (Besnier et al., 2011). Papers III & IV describe how such information is implemented in bioinformatics pipelines where multiple sources of information are integrated to prioritize the most interesting polymorphisms for further molecular studies.

4.1 Paper I

PASE: A novel method for functional prediction of amino acid substitutions based on physicochemical properties

High-throughput Next Generation Sequencing (NGS) data of DNA from the resequenced individuals, when compared with genome sequence of the reference individuals of the same species, provides millions of DNA bases that
**Figure 6. Algorithm of PASE**

1. The query sequence
2. The mSNP coordinate
3. Substituting amino acid

- Perform blastp for the query sequence
- Make MSA via Clustalw
- Calculate the conservation score of AAS ($C = r (1 - 0.95^k)$)

- Identify the original and substituting amino acid
- Calculate each of seven physicochemical properties changes of AAS
- Calculate the total property changes of AAS ($P = \sum_{i=1}^{7} (au_i - av_i)^2$)

- Calculate the combined functional prediction score ($S = PC$)
do not match each other and are termed as Single Nucleotide Polymorphism (SNP). This enormous number of SNPs presents a big challenge to actually characterize through molecular methods every SNP for its function. Thus, there is a need for efficient bioinformatic methods to predict the effects of these SNPs on proteins before their functional validation through molecular methods. Non-synonymous SNPs (nsSNP) in coding regions of genes lead to amino acid substitutions (AAS) in translated proteins. Such altered protein with a new substituted amino acid could be different in structure and/or function from the unaltered protein. The potential effects of these AASs on protein functions range from being deleterious to moderate or benign. There are many species-specific tools widely used, such as SIFT (Ng & Henikoff, 2003, 2006) and PolyPhen (Ramensky et al., 2002; Adzhubei et al., 2010) that use information on homology and evolutionary conservation of amino acids to predict functional effects of AASs in protein. Highly conserved amino acids are thought to be important for maintaining protein functions and when substituted deleterious effects are expected. To develop a tool that can be used in the absence of homology information and for any species, we started with the idea of using physicochemical properties of amino acids because of their importance for protein structure as well as for protein-protein interactions. A change in physicochemical profile at a position in protein due to an AAS may change the protein structure and/or function. This idea led us to develop a method we call PASE (Prediction of Amino Acid Substitutions\’ Effect). It uses the physicochemical properties of amino acids at the substituted position in the protein to predict their effects on protein function. In addition, evolutionary conservation of unsubstituted amino acids across species was calculated using homologous proteins available in NCBI databases, which is another indicator of their functional importance. This further improved the functional prediction of AASs (Figure 6).

4.1.1 Method implementation

We considered seven biologically important physicochemical properties of 20 directly-encoded amino acids previously selected by Rudnicki and Komorowski (2004) from amino acid index (AAindex; Kawashima et al., 1999, 2008; Table 2). These seven properties were selected from five major groups of amino acid properties, which are (1) Polarity, (2) Size, (3) Hydrophobicity, (4) Electrostatic properties and (5) Tendency to form a particular secondary structure. The low pair-wise correlation within these selected properties preserved each amino acid’s unique identity (Kierczak et al., 2009).
Table 2. Physicochemical properties of amino acids as described in AAindex (Kawashima et al., 1999)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Descriptions</th>
<th>Terms from AAindex</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Transfer of free energy from octanol to water</td>
<td>RADA880102</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Normalized van der Waals volume</td>
<td>FAUJ880103</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Isoelectric point</td>
<td>ZIMJ680104</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Polarity</td>
<td>GRAR740102</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Normalized frequency of turn</td>
<td>CRAJ730103</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Normalized frequency of alpha-helix</td>
<td>BURA740101</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Free energy of solution in water</td>
<td>CHAM820102</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The physicochemical substitution score \( (P) \) due to an AAS was calculated using the Euclidean distance formula given by the following equation 1.

\[
P = \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^{7}(aa^i_0 - aa^i_1)^2},
\]  

(Equation 1)

where \( P \) is the physicochemical substitution score, \( aa^i_0 \) and \( aa^i_1 \) are the seven physicochemical property scores of original and substituted amino acid, respectively.

To calculate the conservation score of the original amino acid in a protein, its homologous and orthologous polypeptides were obtained using NCBI-blastp (Thompson et al., 1994) and were aligned using ClustalW (Larkin et al., 2007). The fraction of polypeptides in the multiple sequence alignment that carry the original amino acid was calculated and was used for the conservation score. Finally the conservation score \( (C) \) of the amino acid was calculated using the formula given by the following equation 2.

\[
C = r(1 - 0.95^N)
\]  

(Equation 2)

where \( C \) is the conservation score of amino acid, \( N \) is the number of assessed polypeptide sequences in the alignment (p-value threshold of 0.01), \( r \) is the fraction of polypeptides carrying original (non-substituted) amino acid in \( N \). The term \( (1 - 0.95^N) \) comes from Pei and Grishin (2001) and it implies that when \( N=1 \) the probability of each of the 20 amino acids is 1/20 at a particular position.

A combined score \( S \) is also calculated by multiplying the \( P \) (from equation 1) and \( C \) (from equation 2) scores.
4.1.2 Results and discussion

The algorithm was tested on the already published and validated functional mutations in human Cx50 and porcine PRKAG3 genes. Higher PASE scores for AAS in these genes were consistent with the published deleterious effects of these substitutions as well as with SIFT predictions. AASs on human chromosome 22 were also scored with PASE, SIFT and PolyPhen to compare their predictions. The comparison among these tools showed that the higher scores of P, C and S were consistent with the severity of the predicted effects in SIFT and PolyPhen (Table 3; Figure 7). This shows that PASE is a good alternative for predicting functional effects of AASs, especially in the absence of or little information about their homology and conservation. This tool was used to characterizing AASs in paper III & IV for identifying candidate mutations for growth using resequenced NGS data from LWS and HWS.

Table 3. Functional predictions of AASs in Human chromosome 22

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tools</th>
<th>Classifications</th>
<th>AAS</th>
<th>C&lt;sup&gt;a&lt;/sup&gt;</th>
<th>P&lt;sup&gt;b&lt;/sup&gt;</th>
<th>S&lt;sup&gt;c&lt;/sup&gt;</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>SIFT</td>
<td>Tolerated</td>
<td>1987</td>
<td>0.47</td>
<td>0.39</td>
<td>0.18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Deleterious</td>
<td>1351</td>
<td>0.6</td>
<td>0.51</td>
<td>0.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PolyPhen</td>
<td>Benign</td>
<td>1637</td>
<td>0.44</td>
<td>0.37</td>
<td>0.16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Possibly damaging</td>
<td>539</td>
<td>0.56</td>
<td>0.43</td>
<td>0.24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Probably damaging</td>
<td>1162</td>
<td>0.63</td>
<td>0.53</td>
<td>0.33</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<sup>a</sup> Conservation score, <sup>b</sup> Physicochemical properties change score and <sup>c</sup> Combined score of PASE
4.2 Paper II

Evaluation of an imputation-based fine-mapping strategy in an outbred chicken Advanced Intercross Line (AIL)

In previous studies, QTLs for weight differences between divergent Virginia chicken lines were mapped in an F$_2$-cross of founders in generation 40 of the selection experiment (Jacobsson et al., 2005). In a follow-up study these QTLs were replicated and fine-mapped in a nine generation Advanced Intercross Line (AIL) that was developed from the crosses of HWS and LWS parents in generation 40 but genotyped with higher resolution of markers (~1 marker/cM)
across nine QTLs (Besnier et al., 2011). In this study the aim was to evaluate the possibilities of further increasing marker resolution and of further improvements downstream the fine-mapping analysis. The strategy included the use of high-density 60K SNP-chip genotyping of markers in founders in the AIL pedigree for imputing founder markers in all AIL individuals and finally evaluating single marker association analysis for body-weight at 56 days of age (BW56) of individuals.

4.2.1 Materials and methods
The nine generation AIL pedigree, developed from the reciprocal crosses of 29 HWS and 30 LWS founders in generation 40, comprised 1529 individuals which were genotyped for 304 markers across nine evaluated QTL regions and phenotyped for BW56. 20 founders each from both the lines were previously high density genotyped for almost 60,000 markers across the whole genome. The nine QTL regions being evaluated here represented 6607 of these markers from high-density genotyping. 304 AIL markers and 6607 founder markers across nine QTL regions were physically ordered according to the base pair positions in the reference genome assembly of May 2006 (galGal3) for imputing founder markers in all the AIL individuals. After imputation and phasing of genotypes in nine QTL regions in AIL, 6911 markers were available for the following single marker association analysis for BW56. A general linear model for factorial Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) was used here (Model 2). Three distinct marker genotypes, two distinct sexes and seven distinct phenotyped generations of the AIL were fitted in Model 2 for the response variable BW56 in an overparameterized model using indicator variable approach of categorical variables. This additive genetic effects model estimates the allele substitution effects by replacing a high weight allele with the low weight allele, and the heterozygotes exhibit an intermediary phenotypic value between the values of two homozygotes. R language and environment (R Core Team, 2012) was used for the whole statistical analysis.

\[ y_{ijkl} = \mu_{ij} + \alpha_i + \beta_j + \gamma_k + \epsilon_{ijkl} \]  
(Model 2)

where \( y_{ijkl} \) is the BW56 of individuals, \( \mu_{ij} \) is the intercept, \( \alpha_i \), \( \beta_j \) and \( \gamma_k \) are fixed effects of marker genotype, sex and AIL-generation, respectively, and \( \epsilon_{ijkl} \) is the residual error term which is normally and independently distributed, and \( i, j \) and \( k \) are the levels of the three fixed effects, respectively, and \( l \) is the total number of individuals.
4.2.2 Results and discussion

The imputation of markers in all the AIL individuals through high density genotyping increased the marker density 20 times across the nine QTL regions being evaluated here (Table 4).

Table 4. Genotyped and imputed markers across the nine analysed QTL regions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>GGA</th>
<th>QTL</th>
<th>Start (Mb)</th>
<th>End (Mb)</th>
<th>QTL Size (Mb)</th>
<th>Markers AIL</th>
<th>Markers 60k</th>
<th>Markers Total</th>
<th>Marker Density</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Growth1</td>
<td>169.6</td>
<td>181.1</td>
<td>11.5</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>504</td>
<td>531</td>
<td>46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Growth2</td>
<td>47.9</td>
<td>65.5</td>
<td>17.6</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>667</td>
<td>703</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Growth3</td>
<td>124.3</td>
<td>133.6</td>
<td>9.3</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>395</td>
<td>414</td>
<td>45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Growth4</td>
<td>24.0</td>
<td>68.1</td>
<td>44.0</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>1885</td>
<td>1946</td>
<td>44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Growth5</td>
<td>1.3</td>
<td>13.6</td>
<td>12.2</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>514</td>
<td>538</td>
<td>44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Growth6</td>
<td>85.4</td>
<td>89.8</td>
<td>3.4</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>141</td>
<td>156</td>
<td>46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Growth7</td>
<td>33.6</td>
<td>39.1</td>
<td>5.4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>221</td>
<td>226</td>
<td>42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Growth8</td>
<td>10.9</td>
<td>35.5</td>
<td>24.6</td>
<td>88</td>
<td>1397</td>
<td>1485</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Growth9</td>
<td>7.1</td>
<td>13.9</td>
<td>6.8</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>883</td>
<td>912</td>
<td>134</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Growth10</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* QTL names as in Jacobsson et al. (2005); * Base pair position according to Chicken genome assembly of May 2006; * Markers as in Besnier et al. (2011); * Markers as in Johansson et al. (2010a); * Total markers in 1 and 2; * Markers/Mb

Our approach of imputation-based association analysis showed seven regions with experiment-wide significant signals in nine QTLs. The resolution of the associated regions was also increased in the imputation-based analysis as compared to previously used linkage-based analysis by Besnier et al., (2011), mostly to 2-3 Mb (~1 cM) (Figure 8). The strongest experiment-wide significant markers in each QTL region with their estimated genotypic effects are summarized in Table 5. Further, We found multiple associated regions in several QTLs, revealing the complex nature of their genetic architecture and showing that the combined effects are probably due to multiple, linked causal loci on independent haplotypes that segregate among the founders of the population. We concluded that imputation-based association analysis is a promising approach for the fine-mapping of outbred AIL, but to validate the approach, further analyses based on genotyping of selected markers in the newly-detected associated regions will be necessary.
Figure 8. Comparison between linkage- and association-based fine-mapping analyses of nine QTL regions in an Advanced Intercross Line chicken population. Green lines show the statistical support curve (score statistics from model A) for the linkage-based mapping study of Besnier et al. (2011) and the red dots show associations to each analyzed marker in the new imputation-based association analysis. The green and red horizontal dotted lines indicate, respectively the significance thresholds for linkage-analysis and experiment-wide Bonferroni threshold in the imputation-based association analysis.
Table 5. Summary of the most significant markers in the regions with experiment-wide significance markers in the imputation-base association analysis

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>GGA</th>
<th>QTL</th>
<th>Position (bp)</th>
<th>Marker</th>
<th>Marker Origin</th>
<th>Genotypic effects of pp (mean ± SE)</th>
<th>Genotypic effects of qq (mean ± SE)</th>
<th>p-value</th>
<th>p HWS</th>
<th>p LWS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Growth1</td>
<td>173709608</td>
<td>rs14916997</td>
<td>AIL</td>
<td>CC: 656.4 ± 11.0</td>
<td>AA: 582.7 ± 16.3</td>
<td>2.5 x 10^{-11}</td>
<td>0.94</td>
<td>0.08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Growth1</td>
<td>170511169</td>
<td>Gga_rs15489327</td>
<td>60K</td>
<td>AA: 718.9 ± 20.3</td>
<td>GG: 613.1 ± 15.0</td>
<td>2.3 x 10^{-8}</td>
<td>0.50</td>
<td>0.19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Growth4</td>
<td>37724193</td>
<td>GGaluGA216762</td>
<td>60K</td>
<td>AA: 718.9 ± 20.3</td>
<td>GG: 640.2 ± 10.6</td>
<td>1.8 x 10^{-8}</td>
<td>0.84</td>
<td>0.33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Growth4</td>
<td>25844633</td>
<td>GGaluGA212678</td>
<td>60K</td>
<td>AA: 718.9 ± 20.3</td>
<td>GG: 646.8 ± 10.4</td>
<td>1.3 x 10^{-8}</td>
<td>0.79</td>
<td>0.30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Growth6</td>
<td>87617364</td>
<td>GGaluGA269058</td>
<td>60K</td>
<td>AA: 718.9 ± 20.3</td>
<td>GG: 648.8 ± 10.3</td>
<td>3.1 x 10^{-8}</td>
<td>0.43</td>
<td>0.43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Growth7</td>
<td>13511203</td>
<td>rs15500313</td>
<td>AIL</td>
<td>AA: 718.9 ± 20.3</td>
<td>GG: 657.4 ± 11.0</td>
<td>9.9 x 10^{-8}</td>
<td>0.90</td>
<td>0.16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Growth8</td>
<td>36291277</td>
<td>rs13585490</td>
<td>AIL</td>
<td>AA: 652.4 ± 10.8</td>
<td>GG: 586.1 ± 16.7</td>
<td>1.3 x 10^{-6}</td>
<td>0.74</td>
<td>0.32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Growth9</td>
<td>23748014</td>
<td>Gga_rs13595487</td>
<td>60K</td>
<td>AA: 633.1 ± 11.0</td>
<td>GG: 561.8 ± 17.1</td>
<td>1.3 x 10^{-6}</td>
<td>0.74</td>
<td>0.33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>Growth12</td>
<td>11668906</td>
<td>GGaluGA181027</td>
<td>60K</td>
<td>AA: 652.4 ± 10.8</td>
<td>GG: 650.4 ± 10.9</td>
<td>1.0 x 10^{-6}</td>
<td>0.56</td>
<td>0.20</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* QTL names as in Jacobsson et al. (2005); Base pair position according to Chicken genome assembly of May 2006; p-value here shows the significance of the difference in mean genetic effects of weight-increasing homozygotes (pp) from the weight-decreasing homozygotes (qq). All the markers in the table show highly significant differences between genetic effects of two homozygote classes; Allele frequency of weight-increasing allele (p) in founders (HWS and LWS)
4.3 Paper III

Identification of candidate genes and mutations in QTL regions for chicken growth using bioinformatic analysis of NGS and SNP-chip data

This study describes the development and use of a bioinformatic strategy to efficiently utilize various genomic information to determine the most divergent regions between chicken lines in fine-mapped QTLs for the identification of candidate genes and mutation for phenotypes of interest. In previous studies several QTLs were mapped for growth in an F\textsubscript{2}-cross of outbred and divergently selected Virginia chicken lines for high or low body-weight at 56 days of age (Dunnington et al., 2013; Marquez et al., 2010) and these QTLs were subsequently replicated and fine-mapped in an AIL pedigree (Besnier et al., 2011). In this study the aim was to identify candidate genes and mutations for growth in chicken for further functional validation studies but the QTL regions to be investigated were spread out across many megabases even after fine-mapping and presented a large set of genes to begin with the identification of the candidates. It was expected that the divergent lines had been nearing fixation for functional

Figure 9. Bioinformatic analysis method used here to identify candidate genes and mutations
allelles after 40 generations of selection. We developed a strategy to identify the most divergent regions in terms of allele frequency differences in the QTLs between the HWS and LWS lines using whole genome NGS and high-density individual SNP-chip genotyping data from these lines.

4.3.1 Materials and methods

A bioinformatic strategy was devised here to identify the most likely candidate mutations for growth in chicken in previously fine-mapped QTLs (Figure 9). First, we used a method called the Flanking SNP Value (FSV; Marklund & Carlborg, 2010), which uses the SNP information from resequenced NGS data from both of the chicken lines together to identify the most divergent regions between lines using the below equation below (Equation 3). High FSV scores indicate high allele frequency differences between the lines and vice versa.

$$FSV = \left( \frac{S_{c_i}^H - S_{c_i}^L}{N_H} \right) \times \left( \frac{S_{d_j}^L - S_{d_j}^H}{N_L} \right).$$ (Equation 3)

where $S_{c_i}^H$ and $S_{c_i}^L$ are the resequencing scores in the HWS and LWS line, respectively, for SNP $i$ detected in the HWS at position coordinate $c$. Likewise, $S_{d_j}^L$ and $S_{d_j}^H$ are the corresponding scores for SNP $j$ detected in the LWS at position coordinate $d$. $N_H$ and $N_L$ are the total number of HWS SNPs and LWS SNPs, respectively, scored within the flanking regions. (Marklund & Carlborg, 2010)

Whole genome resequencing of HWS and LWS lines was performed using a pooled DNA approach in two separate experiments, and data from both experiments were combined separately for each line to maximize the sensitivity of SNP detection in both lines against the reference Red Jungle Fowl assembly of May 2006 (galGal3).

We combined three sources of information in each QTL region, which were FSV estimates from NGS-SNP data, allele frequencies from individual SNP-chip genotyping and QTL score statistics of model B from the fine-mapping study of Besnier et al. (2011) so that a combined data score (CDS, equation 4) was calculated for every SNP position in the nine QTLs. Model B (Besnier et al., 2011) takes into account the random polygenic effect for detecting QTLs, whereas model A does not. The CDS was used to identify the most promising divergent regions between lines.
Identified divergent regions were investigated for genes and mutations using the Ensembl (version 70; Flicek et al., 2014). To identify growth relevant genes, the DAVID bioinformatics resource (Huang et al., 2009, 2009a) was used to extensively annotate the genes in these regions. The Variant Effect Predictor tool (VEP; McLaren et al., 2010) was used to annotate mutations found in the regions, which were detected through SNP-calling on the whole genome resequenced NGS data of the lines. The in-house developed software, PASE, (Li et al., 2013) was used to functionally evaluate the amino acid substitutions (resulting from non-synonymous mutations) on protein functions.

4.3.2 Results and discussion

Nine QTL regions, which are being evaluated here, are taken from Besnier et al. (2011). The bioinformatics method applied here to find highly divergent regions between lines identified 37% (~45 Mb) of the original fine-mapped QTL regions (Table 6; Figure 10). Because these regions are found to be divergent, we believe that the genetic variation underlying the observed QTL effects on body weight lies in these sub-regions. Finally combining all the information for growth-relevant genes along with allele frequency differences between lines and predicted functional effects for their mutations, we present a prioritised subset of mutations for growth in chicken to be used in further functional validation studies (Table 7).
Figure 9. Two of the fine-mapped growth QTL regions (A: Growth1, B: Growth12) based on QTL model B (QTL Support), and their significance threshold (QTL Sign.Threshold as in Besnier et al. (2011)). The FSV curve represents FSV computations from resequenced NGS data from the HWS and LWS lines (Marklund and Carlborg, 2010), the SNP chip curve represents allele frequency differences between HWS and LWS from SNP genotyping, and the combined data score curve represents the CDS from all of the above stated dataset curves. The Selected Region line represents the selected candidate regions for bioinformatic analysis of genes and mutations.
Table 6. Candidate regions selected based on QTL data and allele frequency differences between the lines inferred from SNP chip genotyping and FSV computation from resequencing.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>GGA</th>
<th>QTL Name</th>
<th>Start (Mbp)</th>
<th>End (Mbp)</th>
<th>Size (Mbp)</th>
<th>QTL Support</th>
<th>Ensembl Genes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Growth1</td>
<td>169.6</td>
<td>175.0</td>
<td>5.4</td>
<td>5.4</td>
<td>97</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Growth2</td>
<td>59.7</td>
<td>65.4</td>
<td>5.7</td>
<td>2.1</td>
<td>52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Growth4</td>
<td>24.1</td>
<td>35.8</td>
<td>11.7</td>
<td>10.3</td>
<td>142</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Growth6</td>
<td>10.6</td>
<td>12.9</td>
<td>2.3</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Growth8</td>
<td>34.2</td>
<td>36.8</td>
<td>2.6</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Growth9</td>
<td>38.2</td>
<td>39.0</td>
<td>0.8</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Growth12</td>
<td>20.4</td>
<td>35.4</td>
<td>15.0</td>
<td>4.3</td>
<td>209</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>Growth12</td>
<td>8.3</td>
<td>9.5</td>
<td>1.2</td>
<td>1.2</td>
<td>38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td>44.7</td>
<td>23.3</td>
<td>636</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*QTL names as in Jacobsson et al. (2005); *Base pair position according to Chicken genome assembly of May 2006; *Size of the selected regions significant with QTL model B (Besnier et al., 2011); *Number of Ensembl genes in the initial list in the selected regions
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>QTL Region</th>
<th>SNP (bp)</th>
<th>Gene</th>
<th>SNP location/type</th>
<th>AA coverage</th>
<th>Qual</th>
<th>AFD</th>
<th>PC</th>
<th>EC</th>
<th>PE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Growth1</td>
<td>174634021</td>
<td>asparagine-linked glycosylation 11 homolog (ALG11)</td>
<td>CpG island, upstream</td>
<td>7 ; 10</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>0.97</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Growth2</td>
<td>63823523</td>
<td>endothelin 1 (EDN1)</td>
<td>CpG island, upstream</td>
<td>3 ; 13</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>0.95</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Growth4</td>
<td>33678270</td>
<td>cysteine rich transmembrane BMP regulator 1 (CRIM1)</td>
<td>Protein NS coding, K/I</td>
<td>10 ; 19</td>
<td>182</td>
<td>0.97</td>
<td>0.67</td>
<td>0.63</td>
<td>0.42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Growth6</td>
<td>12044024</td>
<td>similar to receptor tyrosine kinase (VEGFR-2)</td>
<td>CpG island, upstream</td>
<td>4 ; 8</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>0.97</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Growth6</td>
<td>12902414</td>
<td>fibroblast growth factor 16 (FGF16)</td>
<td>CpG island, downstream</td>
<td>8 ; 16</td>
<td>175</td>
<td>0.95</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Growth8</td>
<td>38316301</td>
<td>sorting nexin 6 (SNX6)</td>
<td>CpG island, upstream</td>
<td>8 ; 14</td>
<td>142</td>
<td>0.97</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Growth9</td>
<td>21686625</td>
<td>growth factor receptor-bound protein 14 (GRB14)</td>
<td>CpG island, downstream</td>
<td>3 ; 12</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>0.97</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Growth9</td>
<td>22711910</td>
<td>Glucagon (GCG)</td>
<td>CpG island, downstream</td>
<td>3 ; 9</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>0.87</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Growth9</td>
<td>24802616</td>
<td>insulin-like growth factor binding protein 2 (IGFBP2)</td>
<td>Protein SN coding, CpG island</td>
<td>4 ; 8</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>0.95</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Growth12</td>
<td>8715398</td>
<td>baculoviral IAP repeat-containing 7 (BIRC7)</td>
<td>Protein code, NS 1/V</td>
<td>5 ; 8</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>0.97</td>
<td>0.29</td>
<td>0.14</td>
<td>0.04</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*QTL names as in Jacobsson et al. (2005); Coordinates based on the Chicken (Gallus gallus) assembly v 2.1/gaGa3; Location of the SNP in gene and also amino acid substitution in case of non-synonymous (NS) and synonymous (SN) SNP; Total number of reads in both lines representing the alternate allele (AA) versus the total depth coverage across the SNP position (AA/reads/depth coverage); The Phred-scaled probability that a REF/ALT polymorphism exists at this site given sequencing data. Because the Phred scale is $-10 \times \log(1-p)$, a value of 10 indicates a 1 in 10 chance of error, while a 100 indicates a 1 in 10^10 chance; Allele frequency difference between the chicken lines as estimated using the GigaBayes software given that a total of 19 individuals from each line were included in the pools; Physico-chemical score of amino acid substitution calculated using PASE (Li et al., 2013); Evolutionary conservation score of amino acid substitution calculated using PASE (Li et al., 2013); Combined score of PC and EC of amino acid substitution calculated using PASE (Li et al., 2013).
4.4 Paper IV

**Revealing candidate biological interactions underlying epistatic QTLs for chicken growth.**

The aim of this paper is to explore genetic elements underlying the radial network of interacting QTLs for body-weight at 56 days of age (BW56) in Virginia chicken on chromosomes 2, 3, 4, 7 and 20, previously mapped in an $F_2$-cross of outbred divergent Virginia chicken lines and subsequently replicated in a follow-up study in an AIL pedigree (Carlborg et al., 2006; Pettersson et al., 2011). We assumed that the pathways that carried strong mutations within growth-relevant genes, of many interacting QTLs simultaneously, might be considered as candidate pathways for the observed QTL interaction effects to be validated further. Therefore, to get a biological interpretation of the interaction found in radial-network of interacting QTLs in replication study, the genes and mutations in these QTLs need to be explored extensively for interactions in the available biological pathways databases.

**4.4.1 Materials and method**

In the replication study of Pettersson *et al.* (2011) replicated interacting QTLs were screened for evaluating the pairwise interactions, using the conditioned subset of data where each growth QTL, in turn, served as a conditioning locus for the screening of the rest of growth QTLs. We analysed these QTL screening data to extract significantly
associated regions in these QTLs. These regions are not independent QTLs but represent only the significant regions within replicated growth QTLs. The imputation-based fine-mapping study (Paper II) provided higher resolution of mapped QTLs that are interacting in the radial network of loci. The significantly associated regions from Paper II in the replicated interacting QTLs (Pettersson et al., 2013) were also analysed. We investigated these regions here for candidate biological pathways including candidate genes and mutations from interacting QTLs for growth trait in chicken (Figure 11).

The Ensembl genes (version 70; Flicek et al., 2014) in these regions were extracted and extensively annotated with DAVID bioinformatics resources (Huang et al., 2009a, 2009b). Growth-relevant genes were identified in each region. SNPs from resequencing NGS data in these regions were characterized using Variant Effect Predictor (VEP; McLaren et al., 2010). The PASE was employed here to predict functional effects of AASs on proteins in the regions. Allelic differences between HWS and LWS lines were investigated at each SNP position. Biological pathways from Kyoto Encyclopaedia of Genes and Genomes (KEGG; Kanehisa et al., 2012, 2014) database were analysed with annotated genes and mutations in these fine-mapped regions. Finally, taking into account all the extracted information about genes and pathways, growth-related pathways carrying growth-related genes and mutations represented from interacting QTLs were presented as candidates for further functional validation.

4.4.2 Results and discussion

The joint analysis of results from the replicated interacting QTLs (Pettersson et al., 2011) and the fine-mapped QTLs from imputation-based analysis (Paper II) revealed that many regions of association from both studies either overlapped or were in close proximity. Table 8 shows the positions of strongly associated markers in the interacting QTLs from imputation-based analysis and also the significant regions from replication study. The significant regions both from the replication study and the imputation-based analysis overlap in Growth4 and Growth9, whereas, the imputation-based analysis could not find any significant region in Growth2. Moreover, imputation-based analysis revealed strongly associated markers only 1.6 and 2.3 Mb downstream of the significant regions of the replication analysis, in Growth6 and Growth12, respectively. The strategy of finding growth-relevant biological pathways represented by growth-related genes, which are represented from interacting QTLs revealed 11 candidate pathways for further validation (Table 9). Most importantly, these pathways were represented from at least one gene from Growth9 because the genotype at this QTL always determines the release of
genetic effect from other QTLs in the radial network of interacting loci (Carlborg et al., 2006). Growth4 was represented in 10 of these pathways implying an important interaction between this QTL and Growth9 for a good proportion of phenotypic variation. Furthermore, most of the mutations in all the genes are regulatory in nature and only a few are non-synonymous SNPs. The MAPK signalling pathway (gga0401), focal adhesion pathway (gga04510), ECM-receptor interaction pathway (gga04512), notch-signalling pathway (gga04330) and Jak-STAT pathway (gga04630) are the most interesting candidates for growth in the chicken due to the presence of comparatively many regulatory and nsSNPs from many genes in the replicated interacting QTLs.

Table 8. QTL regions for bioinformatics investigation for candidate mutations and biological pathways

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>GGA</th>
<th>QTL</th>
<th>Start ( (\text{Mbp}) )</th>
<th>End ( (\text{Mbp}) )</th>
<th>Marker Position ( (\text{Mb}) )</th>
<th>Start ( (\text{Mbp}) )</th>
<th>End ( (\text{Mbp}) )</th>
<th>Size ( (\text{Mb}) )</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Growth2</td>
<td>47.9</td>
<td>65.5</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>57.7</td>
<td>60.1</td>
<td>2.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Growth4</td>
<td>24.0</td>
<td>68.0</td>
<td>25.8, 37.7</td>
<td>24.5</td>
<td>39.0</td>
<td>14.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Growth4</td>
<td>24.0</td>
<td>68.0</td>
<td>44.5</td>
<td>63.1</td>
<td>18.6</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Growth4</td>
<td>24.0</td>
<td>68.0</td>
<td>66.7</td>
<td>68.0</td>
<td>1.3</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Growth6</td>
<td>1.3</td>
<td>13.5</td>
<td>13.5</td>
<td>1.4</td>
<td>11.9</td>
<td>10.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Growth9</td>
<td>10.9</td>
<td>35.5</td>
<td>23.7</td>
<td>16.9</td>
<td>37.4</td>
<td>20.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>Growth12</td>
<td>7.1</td>
<td>13.9</td>
<td>11.6</td>
<td>7.1</td>
<td>9.3</td>
<td>2.2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\( ^a \) QTL names as in Jacobsson et al. (2005); \( ^b \) Base pair position according to Chicken genome assembly of May 2006; \( ^c \) Coordinates of the Growth QTLs; \( ^d \) Positions of the strongly associated markers in imputation-based fine-mapping analysis (Ahsan et al., unpublished); \( ^e \) Coordinates of significant regions from replicated interacting QTLs of Pettersson et al., 2011; \( ^f \) Size of the significant regions calculated from.
Table 9. Candidate KEGG pathways with important mutations in significant QTL regions and with genes represented from different QTLs

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>KEGG pathway name</th>
<th>CpG island</th>
<th>UTR</th>
<th>Splicing sites</th>
<th>msSNP</th>
<th>Growth2</th>
<th>Growth4</th>
<th>Growth6</th>
<th>Growth9</th>
<th>Growth12</th>
<th>Total genes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>gga04010: MAPK signaling pathway</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>gga04020: Calcium signaling pathway</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>gga04115: p53 signaling pathway</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>gga04310: Wnt signaling pathway</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>gga04330: Notch signaling pathway</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>gga04510: Focal adhesion</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>gga04512: ECM-receptor interaction</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>gga04514: Cell adhesion molecules (CAMs)</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>gga04530: Tight junction</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>gga04630: Jak-STAT signaling pathway</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>gga04910: Insulin signaling pathway</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>229</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>47</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*a Number of mutations in important regions of represented genes; b Non-synonymous single nucleotide polymorphism; c QTL names as in Jacobsson et al. (2005)
5 Future Research Strategies

There are many aspects regarding future research strategies from my work. Here I mention some of them:

It would be appropriate that the QTL results could be replicated to validate their genetic effects in other populations. We have developed a multi-locus Introgression Line using the High-Weight-Selected (HWS) and Low-Weight-Selected (LWS) lines to replicate these genetic effects in a more homogeneous background (Ek et al., 2011). We are currently analysing the data from this line.

Fine-mapping study (Paper II) in this thesis used the nine-generation Advanced Intercross Line (AIL) pedigree to evaluate the marker imputation strategy. Intercrossing in AIL is ongoing and we have the data for seven more generations. The data for all the generations can be combined to increase the power in an analysis to validate the identified associations. Moreover, highly significant imputed markers can be typed in future generations of AIL to validate their genetic effects. This will also confirm whether the imputation strategy is precise and efficient.

The candidate mutations presented in paper III and IV need to be further investigated in molecular studies to elucidate their presumed effects on growth in the chicken. So far, all our focus in dissecting the genetic basis underlying growth trait is at the DNA level. Tissue sampling, on the other hand, can provide information at RNA level, which would enable us to unravel the genetic mechanisms further. Tissue samples from HWS, LWS, AIL and Introgression Line are at currently at our disposal. Using these samples RNA-seq analysis can be planned to study the gene expression of the candidate genes presented in Paper III & IV. Moreover, the candidate mutations can also be confirmed through RNA-seq analysis.
6 Conclusions

To understand the genetic control of the phenotypic diversity is one of the most challenging problems in biology. Genetic association studies have shown to be fruitful in mapping genomic regions, which anchor mutations that contribute to the expression of polygenic traits of interest (Stranger et al., 2011). Typically, the identified regions harbour a huge number of mutations and not all are equally functional in contributing their effects in the expression of such traits. However, the task of actually pinpointing the functionally most important mutations has proved to be much more challenging (Stranger et al., 2011). With the advances in Next Generation Sequencing and being able to afford resequencing of populations for their complete genomes, and the availability of high-density genotyping methodologies, we are now well set to evaluate all the mutations in the identified regions and predict their functional roles through the development of bioinformatics algorithms, methods and tools.

In this thesis I developed a strategy to fine-map genomic regions associated with juvenile body weight in chicken, devised a set of bioinformatics pipelines to identify first and then predict the functional effects of all mutations in these regions that are made available through high-density genotyping and resequencing of studied populations. These methods identified and functionally characterized most likely candidate genes, mutations and biological pathways underlying the observed QTL effects on juvenile body weight. Therefore, this thesis provides an important insight into the understanding and dissecting genetic basis of complex traits. The specific conclusions from each study are presented below.

6.1 Paper I

The PASE software we developed and described here is a useful tool to predict functional effects of amino acid substitutions on proteins. Changes in
physicochemical properties at an amino acid position due to a substitution in a protein may have effects ranging from being neutral to deleterious with regards to functional effect on a protein. The PASE not only uses these properties but also includes the degree of conservation of original amino acid in homologs and orthologs to predict these effects efficiently. Its results are consistent with widely used homology-based tools.

6.2 Paper II

The strategy to further increase marker resolution in AIL pedigree through imputation of genotypes from densely genotyped founders was shown to be effective. The following single marker association analysis approach for mapping has produced results that have replicated and fine-mapped many of the studied QTLs. But a further genotyping of the markers in the newly identified associated regions in subsequent generations would be necessary to validate these markers and associations in further analyses.

6.3 Papers III and IV

The aim of these two studies was to untangle the underlying biological mechanisms of the observed QTL effects on growth in Virginia chicken lines using NGS and high-density genotyping data in fine-mapped QTL regions. In paper III the additive QTLs were investigated bioinformatically to detect highly divergent regions between lines and a subset of highly prioritized candidate mutations in growth-related genes in the chicken were presented for further molecular characterization. In paper IV the radial network of epistatic QTLs was investigated for underlying biological interactions in terms of the presence of mutations of genes from interacting loci in biological pathways related to growth. Biological pathways with growth-related genes and mutations contributing from interacting loci were presented as the most interesting candidates for further functional validation.
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