

1 *CREBBP* and *WDR 24* Affects Quantitative Variation in Red

2 Colouration in the Chicken

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8

9 Abstract

10 Plumage colouration in birds is important for a plethora of reasons, ranging from  
11 camouflage, sexual signaling, and species recognition. The genes underlying  
12 colour variation have been vital in understanding how genes can affect a  
13 phenotype. Multiple genes have been identified that affect plumage variation, but  
14 research has principally focused on major-effect genes (such as those causing  
15 albinism, barring, and the like), rather than the smaller effect modifier loci that  
16 more subtly influence colour. By utilizing a domestic x wild advanced intercross  
17 with a combination of classical QTL mapping of red colouration as a quantitative  
18 trait and a targeted genetical genomics approach, we have identified five  
19 separate candidate genes (*CREBBP*, *WDR24*, *ARL8A*, *PHLDA3*, *LAD1*) that  
20 putatively influence quantitative variation in red colouration in chickens. Such  
21 small effect loci are potentially far more prevalent in wild populations, and can  
22 therefore potentially be highly relevant to colour evolution.

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26 Introduction

27 The presence of feathers is one of the most defining characteristics of birds.

28 Feathers are not only specialized for flight but also to relay a plethora of visual

29 signals to both friends and foes alike through specific visual patterns, such as

30 camouflage (GLUCKMAN AND CARDOSO 2010), sexual signaling and displays which

31 can influence sexual selection (WILKINS *et al.* 2016) and species recognition

32 (SEDDON *et al.* 2013). One of the most striking aspects of the pattern is the

33 colouration of the plumage, which can range from pure black or white to metallic

34 greens and purples as well as oranges and reds. The colour of the feathers can be

35 sourced from the environment,(LOPES *et al.* 2016) or synthesized internally with

36 genetic regulation. The most common colours are produced by the melanins.

37 These pigments come in two forms: eumelanin, which produces blacks and

38 browns (GALVÁN AND SOLANO 2016) and pheomelanin, which produces reds,

39 oranges and yellows that are similar in appearance to the carotenoid

40 pigments(GALVÁN AND SOLANO 2016)

41

42 Domesticated animals are a classical example of extreme variability in

43 pigmentation within species. A reduction in pigmentation and colouration

44 complexity is usually considered as one of the key components of the

45 domestication syndrome (WILKINS *et al.* 2014), however artificial selection has

46 also led to novel colour phenotypes in domesticated animals (LUDWIG *et al.* 2009;

47 LINDERHOLM AND LARSON 2013; WRIGHT 2015). In the case of coat colouration,

48 domestic animals are generally speaking lighter versions of their wild ancestors.

49 This is for instance the case with chickens, where the wild ancestor the Red

50 Junglefowl has a wide range of plumage colours ranging from dark red to light

51 orange. Several of the domesticated chicken breeds such as the white leghorn  
52 layer and commercial broiler breeds provide a stark contrast to the colourful  
53 Red Junglefowl as they are completely white and display no sexual  
54 dichromatism.

55

56       There are several genes implicated in plumage colour variation. We can  
57 subdivide colour genes into three distinct classes depending on their mechanism.  
58 Intra-individual patterning genes determine the patterns we can observe across  
59 an individual. Intra-feather patterning genes determine the pattern within each  
60 feather (e.g barred feathers(SCHWOCHOW THALMANN *et al.* 2017)). Finally we have  
61 the colour determinants. These are genes that set the colour for each position  
62 within the observed pattern. This can be either in a single feather or across an  
63 individual. As an example of the independence of these types of colour loci, a  
64 recent study in a hemimetabolous insect (LIU *et al.* 2016), concluded that the  
65 genes influencing the patterning of the colours did not alter the intensity of the  
66 pigmentation. This suggests that coat colour patterns are achieved through a  
67 combination of patterning genes coupled to the genes that determine the  
68 intensity of each colour.

69

70 Examples of causative genes for pigmentation include well studied colour  
71 determining genes such as *MC1R* (involved in the melanin pathway where its  
72 activation leads to the production of black eumelanin (HEARING 2011)) and *MITF*,  
73 which activates the enzyme Tyrosinase (YASUMOTO *et al.* 1994), a rate limiting  
74 step in the melanin synthesis pathway. These variants can all be considered of  
75 major effect, in that they cause albinism, black plumage, etc in a binary fashion

76 (though often a variety of epistatic interactions also occur). However to the best  
77 of our knowledge, smaller effect loci that have less extreme modifier effects, in  
78 essence quantitative trait loci for plumage colour, have yet to be identified. In  
79 wild individuals it may be of greater importance to more subtly modify coat  
80 colouration, which is why many of the genes with more extreme phenotypic  
81 effects are identified in laboratory or domestic populations.

82

83 To identify genes that regulate quantitative variation in the intensity of red  
84 colouration, we utilized an advanced intercross between wild Red Junglefowl  
85 and domestic White Leghorn chickens. The Red Junglefowl are elaborately  
86 coloured, with feathers ranging from dark red to light orange, whereas the White  
87 Leghorn birds are fixed for the dominant white locus and are pure white in  
88 colour. The intercross birds display an enormous range of plumage colouration,  
89 whilst genetically the advanced intercross gives far smaller confidence intervals  
90 for detected QTL than standard  $F_2$  intercrosses(DARVASI AND SOLLER 1995). The  
91 study presented here utilizes multiple generations for this analysis. A large scale  
92 QTL scan was performed using the  $F_8$  generation, whilst further targeted  
93 expression QTL (eQTL) studies were performed using the  $F_{10}$  and  $F_{12}$  generations  
94 to assess candidate genes identified in the QTL scan. By using a combination of  
95 targeted genetical genomics (whole genome transcriptomics of targeted  
96 individuals) to simultaneously map eQTL and correlate gene expression with  
97 intensity of red colouration, we identify 5 putatively causal genes affecting  
98 quantitative variation in red plumage colouration in the chicken.

99

100

## 101 MATERIALS AND METHODS

102

### 103 Study animals

104 The animals used in this study come from three separate generations ( $F_8$ ,  $F_{10}$  and  
105  $F_{12}$ ) of an intercross between a Red Junglefowl male and three females from a  
106 White leghorn selection line. Food and water was supplied ad libitum, see  
107 (JOHNSON *et al.* 2012) for further details of housing and the intercross. Each  
108 generation typically consists of around 100 individuals, with the exception of the  
109  $F_8$  mapping population with 572 individuals reared in 6 batches. The  $F_{10}$  and  $F_{12}$   
110 generations were also of approximately 100 individuals each, with 12  $F_{10}$  and 12  
111  $F_{12}$  individuals used in this study.

112

### 113 Colour phenotyping

114 Wings were removed post-mortem from individuals after slaughter at 212 days  
115 in the case of the  $F_8$  individuals. Each wing was photographed using a tripod  
116 mounted NIKON D5500 with a 40mm lens using a LF-PB-3 (Falcon Eyes) light  
117 tent and two fixed 24Watt DULUX L (Osram) lights mounted to brackets to  
118 ensure identical lighting conditions were used for each wing. A standardized blue  
119 background was used for each shot, whilst an X-rite colour checker chart (with  
120 both pure white and red coloured squares) was included in each photograph to  
121 normalize colour levels. Wing photos were taken on the blue background, and a  
122 corresponding image was taken of the blank background without the wing  
123 present. Raw image quality was used for subsequent calculations. Two separate  
124 phenotypes were extracted from each wing, peak and overall red intensity. Peak  
125 intensity was measured by selecting an area of approximately  $1\text{cm}^2$  ( $\sim 14000$

126 pixels) in the area with the strongest representative red intensity observed by  
127 eye in Adobe Photoshop CS6 and recording the median value from the red RGB  
128 channel. This value was then divided by the value measured from the 'true' red  
129 on the colour chart, to give a normalized peak red intensity for each wing. It is  
130 worth noting that since white is composed of full saturation in all channels this  
131 red value is negatively correlated with red colour, ie the darker red the feather is  
132 the lower the relative colour score will be and vice versa. The second phenotype  
133 uses the average red intensity measured across each wing. This was performed  
134 using the following steps:

135

136 1. Colour correction:

137 The raw sensor measurements (pixel values without any of the usual processing  
138 of the camera) were extracted from the image file using the program dcraw (see  
139 <http://www.cybercom.net/~dcoffin/dcraw/> for the original version of the  
140 program and [http://www.guillermoluijk.com/tutorial/dcraw/index\\_en.htm](http://www.guillermoluijk.com/tutorial/dcraw/index_en.htm) for a  
141 tutorial describing the program). For each of the images the location of the white  
142 patch of the colour checker with the highest intensity was automatically detected  
143 and the mean RGB vector over all pixels in this patch was computed. The colour  
144 vectors of all pixels in the image were then scaled (and converted to 16-bit  
145 unsigned integer) such that the resulting pixels in the white patch had all the  
146 same gray values. After this step all colour variations due to varying illumination  
147 and camera conditions were eliminated and all images could be compared.

148

149 2. Geometric correction and compilation of the wing mask:

150

151 After normalization, colour correction registration points (essentially two  
152 crosshairs on the left and the right side of the blue background) were  
153 automatically detected in both images of an image pair. The locations of these  
154 registration points were then used to compute the geometric transformation that  
155 aligned the images without the wing with the image with the wing. Pixelpairs  
156 with blue colour in the background image and non-blue colour in the wing image  
157 define a mask indicating the location of the wing.

158

### 159 3. Extraction of red pixels:

160 The mask computed in the previous step is used to set all non-wing pixels to a  
161 black background colour. Next the colour vectors in the masked image are  
162 converted from the RGB colour space to the HSV colour space using the Matlab  
163 function `rgb2hsv`. In this HSV the colour of a pixel is described by three values: H  
164 is the hue (described by an angle), S is the saturation described by an interval  
165 and finally V is the value, which is a non-negative number describing the  
166 lightness. In the application only reddish pixels are of interest. The  
167 corresponding region in colour space was defined as the region where the hue  
168 value was between 0.6 and 0.7 and the saturation value was greater than 0.75.  
169 Both the hue and the saturation values are located in the [0,1] interval. This  
170 procedure thus isolates all the red patterned feathers from the rest of the wing.  
171 After the pattern isolation, the red channel of the entire resulting trimmed image  
172 was measured in Photoshop. Therefore this second phenotype takes the median  
173 red intensity of every red area of the wing into consideration. The average value  
174 for this second phenotype is 184.4 with a standard deviation of 42.4 compared to



175 the average value of 0.71 with a standard deviation of 0.18 for the single feather  
176 analysis used for the eQTL analysis (see below).

177

178 A separate eQTL fine mapping population was used for expression  
179 analyzes of budding feather tissue for candidate gene assessment in the  
180 previously detected QTL regions identified in the F<sub>8</sub> generation. These birds  
181 were individuals from both the F<sub>10</sub> and F<sub>12</sub> generations from the advanced  
182 intercross (n=12 F<sub>10</sub> and 12 F<sub>12</sub> birds). Multiple generations were required to  
183 obtain a broad spectrum of red colour phenotypes. For these birds, growing  
184 feather buds were selected from adult wings for use in both phenotyping and  
185 gene expression assays. The feathers from each growing bud were removed and  
186 used in the phenotyping assay, to ensure that the gene expression and colour  
187 phenotype would match as closely as possible. These feathers were removed  
188 from the bud and stacked in 3 layers to mimic the wing (where feathers are  
189 overlapping). Red colour intensity was then measured using the same technique  
190 as for the F<sub>8</sub> birds, with only the peak intensity measured. The developing basal  
191 root of the feather follicle (calami) was then used for RNA extraction and  
192 microarray analysis for eventual eQTL analysis.

193

194 RNA extraction

195 5-6 growing feathers of 2-3 cm length were collected from each individual. The  
196 calamus was immediately cut from each feather and snap frozen in liquid  
197 nitrogen for RNA extraction, the rest of the feather was kept at -30 and used for  
198 colour measurements. RNA was extracted from a pooled sample of three to four  
199 calami per individual which had been homogenized in Lysing matrix D tubes(MP

200 Biomedicals) in a FastPrep(MP Biomedicals) using TRIzol (Sigma Aldrich)  
201 reagent and following the manufacturers instructions. After quality checking the  
202 RNA with RNA Nano Chips(Agilent Technologies) in an Agilent 2100 Bioanalyzer  
203 to ensure that RNA was not degraded, the RNA was treated with DNase I  
204 (Thermo scientific) followed by cDNA synthesis using a RevertAID KIT from Life  
205 technologies, and following the instructions provided with the kit. The cDNA was  
206 again quality checked using a Bioanalyzer 2100 and RNA Nano chips(Agilent  
207 Technologies) and subsequently labeled with a NimbleGen One colour labeling  
208 kit(Roche) according to the manufacturers instructions. Finally the cDNA was  
209 hybridized to NimbleGen 12x135k custom gene expression microarrays (Roche)  
210 and scanned using a NimbleGen MS200 Microarray scanner (Roche). The custom  
211 Microarrays have been used in previous publications by the group and contain  
212 all known Ensembl and RefSeq genes as well as EST probes (for microarray  
213 details see Johnsson et al. 2016). Microarrays were first preprocessed using  
214 DEVA software to normalize the data and all arrays were processed together.

215

## 216 Genotyping, QTL mapping

217 DNA preparation was performed by Agowa GmbH (Berlin, Germany), using standard  
218 salt extraction. A total of 652 SNP markers were genotyped using an Illumina  
219 GoldenGate system, and gave a map of length ~92675cM, with an average marker  
220 spacing of ~ 16cM. QTL analysis was performed in R (R DEVELOPMENT CORE TEAM  
221 2008) using the R/Qtl software package (BROMAN *et al.* 2003), with standard interval  
222 mapping and epistatic analyzes performed. Interval mapping was performed using  
223 additive and additive+dominance models. In the colour phenotyping QTL analysis  
224 batch and sex were always included as fixed effects. To control for potential family

225 substructure, a Principal Component Analysis (PCA) of the genotype data was  
226 performed, and the first ten PCs fitted as covariates in the model, with all significant  
227 PCs retained in the final model (see (JOHANSSON *et al.* 2016) for further details). A sex  
228 interaction was also added, where significant. Digenic epistatic analysis was  
229 performed as per the guidelines provided in (BROMAN AND SEN 2009). Initially a  
230 global model was used that incorporated standard main effects and sex interactions.  
231 Epistasis was then built on this model, starting with the most significant loci and  
232 working down for each trait. Significance thresholds were calculated by permutation  
233 (CHURCHILL AND DOERGE 1994; DOERGE AND CHURCHILL 1996), with thresholds of  
234 20% and 5% genome wide significance being the cut-offs for suggestive and  
235 significant loci respectively. This corresponded to approximately LOD cut offs of 3.6  
236 and 4.4. Confidence intervals were calculated using a 1.8 LOD drop method  
237 (MANICHAIKUL *et al.* 2006). Epistasis thresholds were calculated in a similar manner,  
238 with 20% and 5% genome-wide thresholds used.

239

#### 240 eQTL Mapping

241 The individuals in the F<sub>10</sub> and F<sub>12</sub> fine mapping eQTL population were genotyped  
242 for sixteen SNP markers which had been identified in the F8 mapping population  
243 as being flanking markers for the QTL with the two colour phenotypes (see  
244 supplementary table 1 for locations and primers). Five were located on chr2,  
245 three on chr10 and chr14 respectively, and two markers on chr 15 and chr 11  
246 and finally one marker on chr26, for a total of 16 markers. These SNP markers  
247 were all genotyped by pyrosequencing on a QIAGEN pyromark q24 using  
248 QIAGEN GOLD reagents. DNA was extracted from blood using a standard salt  
249 extraction protocol, except for a small number of individuals where blood samples

250 were missing and DNA was instead extracted from feathers using a modified  
251 protocol for the Qiagen DNEasy kit with dithiothreitol(DTT) added to the lysis  
252 step.  
253  
254 Analysis was performed using a three-step procedure. Initially, all genes that  
255 were present in the colour QTL regions detected in the F<sub>8</sub> analysis were selected  
256 as candidates (n=875, Reference genome version GalGal4). These probes were  
257 then correlated with the specific red colour phenotype obtained for each feather  
258 sample (see above), using a linear model to fit gene expression levels and colour  
259 score using the lmFit function in the limma R package (RITCHIE *et al.* 2015; R  
260 STUDIO TEAM 2016). All probes that had a significant association between gene  
261 expression and colour score at a FDR significance level of 0.05 were retained (n=  
262 76, see supplementary table 2). The last step was to perform eQTL mapping in  
263 R/qtl, using standard interval mapping, with sex and batch (F<sub>10</sub> or F<sub>12</sub>) included  
264 as fixed factors. All the genes from stage 2 were tested against the regions  
265 genotyped using the 16 SNP markers mentioned above (on chromosomes 2, 10,  
266 11, 14, 15 and 26). Permutation testing was used to set an experiment-wide  
267 threshold for each gene (1000 permutations per gene), with a 5% significance  
268 and a 20% suggestive threshold obtained (LOD values of ~3.0 and ~2.2  
269 respectively). To control for the total number of genes (n=76), a principal  
270 component analysis was first performed on these 76 genes. 7 significant  
271 eigenvalues accounted for 97% of the total variation in the data. Thus, as it is  
272 only required to control for the number of independent tests, a multiple testing  
273 correction of 7 was added to each LOD threshold. Using a log<sub>10</sub> transformation to  
274 convert this to a LOD score, this gives an increase of 0.85 LOD to each threshold,

275 meaning an eQTL was suggestive with a LOD score of  $\sim 3.05$ , and significant with  
276 a LOD score of  $\sim 3.85$ .

277

278

279 RESULTS

280 QTL analysis

281 QTL analyzes were performed using both peak red intensity and overall red  
282 intensity in the F<sub>8</sub> birds (n= 380). Three separate QTL were identified for peak  
283 intensity on chromosomes 2 at 149cM, chromosome 10 at 176cM, and  
284 chromosome 14 at 207cM. In the case of the loci on chromosomes 2 and 10, the  
285 RJF genotype led to an increase in red intensity, whilst for the chromosome 14  
286 locus the WL genotype led to an increase in red intensity. Four separate QTL  
287 were identified for overall red intensity on chromosomes 2 (at 81cM), 11 (at  
288 73cM), 15 (at 148cM) and 26 (at 0cM). Once again, for two of the loci (on  
289 chromosomes 2 and 15) the RJF genotype led to an increase in red intensity. The  
290 other loci on chromosomes 11 and 26 mainly acted through dominance rather  
291 than additive variation.

292

293 Targeted Expression Analyses

294 The loci that were identified using the initial genome-wide F<sub>8</sub> scan were then  
295 assessed using gene expression data from the F<sub>10</sub> and F<sub>12</sub> generations. We  
296 correlated the expression levels to the relative intensity of red colouration with  
297 all genes (a total of 875 probesets) located within the confidence intervals of the  
298 seven QTL regions. After multiple testing corrections (FDR, p=0.05) were applied

299 we found 76 probesets that were correlated with the peak intensity of red  
300 colouration. (FDR adjusted p-value < 0.05).

301

302 In order to further narrow down the list of potential candidate genes we  
303 performed an eQTL analysis using the probesets that correlated with colour  
304 using a set of targeted markers within colour QTL. We detected six eQTLs  
305 covering 5 genes that were genome-wide suggestive (including a multiple testing  
306 correction for the total number of genes tested), two for genes associated with  
307 overall red intensity and four that are associated with the peak red intensity (see  
308 table 2). All were trans-eQTLs, being controlled from a region on chromosome 10  
309 (15Mb).

310

311

312 A network of trans-eQTL between colour QTL

313 We see a trans regulation of candidate gene expression, with a locus on  
314 chromosome 10 controlling multiple target sites. The most significant trans-  
315 eQTL effect originates from chromosome 10 and controls two genes on  
316 chromosome 14 (*CREBBP* and *WDR24*), and three genes on chromosome 26  
317 (*ARL8A*, *PHLDA3*, and *LAD1*), see figure 2. There is also a selective sweep (RUBIN  
318 *et al.* 2010) located within the chromosome 10 QTL region around 500kb  
319 downstream from our eQTL marker location and within the confidence interval  
320 for the colour QTL identified in the F<sub>8</sub> population.

321

322

323 DISCUSSION

324 The aim of this study was to identify genes and genetic loci that affect red  
325 colouration in the chicken. By treating colour as a quantitative trait, as opposed  
326 to looking for solely discrete classes, we have identified a total of seven small  
327 effect QTL that until now have been overlooked. Furthermore, by combining this  
328 with a targeted genetical genomics approach in an additional population we have  
329 identified five candidate genes affecting the intensity of red colouration. These  
330 genes would be unlikely to have been identified using more classical (presence/  
331 absence of major genes) linkage methods. This is unsurprising given that the  
332 average effect size was around 7% in our study, whilst the high degree of epistasis  
333 between loci would have meant they would have been extremely hard to  
334 pinpoint using single scan approaches. In particular chromosome 10 appears to  
335 have a strong effect, controlling loci on chromosomes 14 and 26. It therefore  
336 appears that this locus has trans acting effects in combination with epistasis.  
337 This locus also contains a selective sweep that is fixed in domestic layer birds  
338 (the majority of which are white), yet segregating in wild RJF. The presence of  
339 this selective sweep adds weight to the evidence that this locus truly affects  
340 colour intensity.

341

342 Several genes have been identified as affecting colour in the chicken,  
343 however these are all major-effect genes that have been identified using a  
344 classical linkage/ single gene approach. In the chicken, the Dominant White locus  
345 (on chromosome 33, an allele of the *PMEL* gene) (KERJE *et al.* 2004), the classic  
346 extended phenotype (E) linked to *MC1R* on chromosome 11 at 19Mb (TAKEUCHI *et*  
347 *al.* 1996; KERJE *et al.* 2003), and the Dark Brown (Db) locus on chromosome 1  
348 (linked with *SOX10*) (GUNNARSSON *et al.* 2007) all affect pigmentation (white/

349 black in the case of Dominant White and E, and red in the case of Dark brown),  
350 whilst sex-linked barring (on chromosome Z) and the *EDNRB2* (panda) locus in  
351 quails (MIWA *et al.* 2007) primarily affect patterning. Despite these examples,  
352 studies of pigmentation inheritance in crosses imply that many more genes have  
353 yet to be identified. Specifically, to examine buff, brown and red colouration,  
354 crosses have been made with a variety of breeds, including Junglefowl x Buff  
355 Minorca and Rhode Island Red breeds (BRUMBAUGH AND HOLLANDER 1966), Brown  
356 and Light Brown Leghorn breeds (SMYTH JR 1965), Dark Cornish and Black  
357 breasted Red (KIMBALL 1955), and Villafranquina birds (CAMPO AND ALVAREZ  
358 1988). These studies revealing a complex pattern of inheritance and multiple  
359 modifier loci exist that affect pheomelanine. For example with the buff  
360 phenotype, four autosomal factors were proposed, named ginger, mahogany,  
361 dilute and champagne blond (BRUMBAUGH AND HOLLANDER 1966), whilst many  
362 studies noted many variations in the intensity of the red colouration present,  
363 even when segregating for a known major effect gene (SMYTH JR 1965) (CAMPO  
364 AND ALVAREZ 1988). The wide variety of phenotypes that rapidly emerge indicate  
365 that multiple epistatic interactions and numerous genes of small effect is the  
366 norm, yet such modifier loci have yet to be identified.

367

368         The QTL that we report here overlap none of these previously identified  
369 major effect loci. The genes and QTL are all novel loci (as affecting colour),  
370 though in the case of the QTL on chromosome 11, this is around 4Mb  
371 downstream of the *MITF* gene. It is possible that this locus is a modest trans  
372 acting factor affecting the *MITF* gene, however no correlation was found between  
373 any of the colour measurements and *MITF* expression. Interestingly, the linkage



374 between this locus and *MITF* may have even caused the effects to be erroneously  
375 ascribed to *MITF* alleles. When considering the classical studies it is perhaps  
376 logical that these modifier loci are discrete to the genes identified previously. For  
377 example Dominant White is known to be ineffective against red pheomelanin,  
378 whilst the silver allele for sex-linked silver (PMEL) has no discernible modifying  
379 effect on red in females (KIMBALL 1955). Our study indicates that by  
380 concentrating solely on such major genes, which are easier to identify, much  
381 variation is missed.

382

383       Of the candidate genes identified, particular interest comes from the  
384 interaction and correlation seen between the gene *CREBBP* and red intensity.  
385 *CREBBP* is controlled by the trans-acting eQTL locus on chromosome 10 that also  
386 contains the selective sweep. *CREBBP* binds to *CREB*, whilst *CREB* itself is a  
387 transcription factor strongly involved in melanin synthesis, principally by  
388 binding and activating *MITF* via the cAMP response element (SAHA *et al.* 2006).  
389 Given this role of *CREB* and its close interplay with *CREBP*, it therefore  
390 represents an excellent candidate as small-effect modifier of red colouration via  
391 melanogenesis to alter pheomelanine. Currently, *CREBBP* has primarily been  
392 found to be involved with neuronal growth and development (SHARMA *et al.*  
393 2010; LOPEZ-ATALAYA *et al.* 2011), so a role in feather colour expression is  
394 relatively novel. Of the other candidate genes identified, *WDR24* is a master  
395 regulator of lysosome function. Given one function of lysosomes is to regulate  
396 and degrade pigment molecules, this also represents another excellent candidate  
397 gene. Similarly, the gene *ARL8A*, an acetylated Arf-like GTPase, is localized to  
398 lysosomes and affects their mobility (HOFMANN AND MUNRO 2006). Of the

399 remaining genes, *PHLDA3* is implicated in tumour suppressor function, is a target  
400 of p53 and also impedes somatic cell reprogramming (QIAO *et al.* 2017), whilst  
401 *LAD1* encodes laminin-1, a collagenous anchoring filament protein that is  
402 involved with the maintenance of cohesion at the dermal-epidermal boundary  
403 (TEIXEIRA *et al.* 2015), and defects in this gene are related to linear IgA disease, an  
404 autoimmune blistering disease (ISHIKO *et al.* 1996).

405

406 In summary, by treating the intensity of red colouration as a purely  
407 quantitative trait and utilising a variety of advanced intercross generations and  
408 targeted gene expression profiling we are able to identify multiple small-effect  
409 loci that interact to determine the red colouration present in RJF. Using a  
410 targeted genetical genomics approach we are able to identify several high quality  
411 candidate genes that appear to have direct relevance to the melanogenesis  
412 pathway and can thus modify overall red intensity. As far as we are aware this is  
413 the first study to identify QTL and candidate genes that can more subtly modify  
414 the intensity of red colouration in feathers, with such small effect loci being  
415 potentially far more prevalent in wild populations.

416

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555 FIGURE LEGENDS

556 Figure 1. Quantitative colour phenotypes used for QTL/eQTL mapping. A) Peak  
557 red intensity. The feathers that we have used in the gene expression  
558 measurements are placed on a blue background and their level of red intensity is  
559 measured relative to a True red colour chart. The darkest red feathers score  
560 between ~0.4-0.5 and the almost pure white feathers score between ~0.9-0.99.  
561 B) Depicts four representative measurements of Average red colour score  
562 measured across the right wing.

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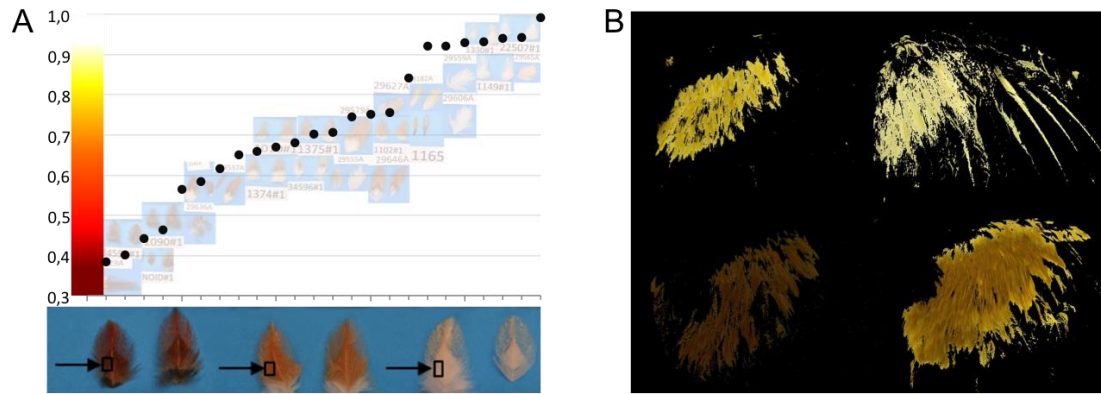
564 Figure 2. Cartoon depicting the genetic regulation of gene expression for the  
565 candidate genes with both a correlation with red intensity and a significant  
566 eQTL.

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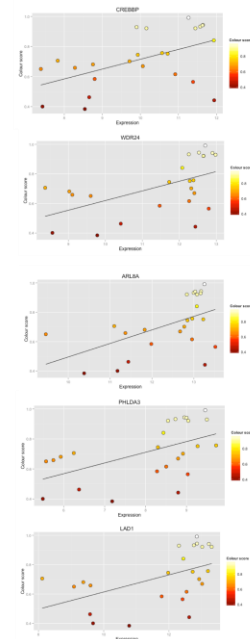
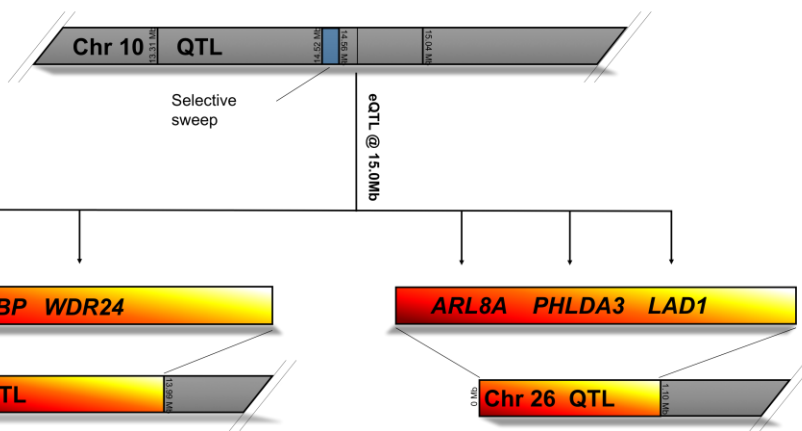
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trait	chr	position	LOD	R2	add+/-s.e.	dom+/-se	lower CI	upper CI	lower_marker	upper_marker	covariates	interaction
overall_red_intensity	2	81	9.0		6.8 7.5+/-3.2	11.2+/-4.6	70	93	rs14133982	rs14139143	sex, batch, PC2, PC3	2@81.0:11@73.0
overall_red_intensity	11	73	9.9		5.6 1.4+/-8.1	15.4+/-11.9	61	80	rs14961831	rs14025092	sex, batch, PC2, PC3	2@81.0:11@73.0, sex:11@73.0
overall_red_intensity	15	148	6.5		4.8 7.2+/-4.2	8.8+/-9.1	125	169	rs15023850	rs15025752	sex, batch, PC2, PC3	15@148.0:26@0.0
overall_red_intensity	26	0	8.7		6.5 -7.4+/-2.8	12.7+/-3.8	0	5	rs13724830	rs15466096	sex, batch, PC2, PC3	15@148.0:26@0.0
spot_red_intensity	2	149	6.1		5.6 0.05+/-0.01	0.02+/-0.02	94	162	rs15060526	rs15069282	sex, batch, PC1, PC3	<a href="#">2@149.0:10@176.0</a>
spot_red_intensity	10	176	6.3		5.8 0.12+/-0.04	0.05+/-0.05	161	206	rs14947769	rs14951592	sex, batch, PC1, PC3	2@149.0:10@176.0, 10@176.0:sex
spot_red_intensity	14	207	5.7		5.2 -18+/-3.5	-11.2+/-6.1	171	223	rs14076550	rs15002638	sex, batch, PC1, PC3	

Table 1.

Results from the QTL scan of the two phenotypes (red spot intensity and average red red) in the initial F8 mapping population. QTL locations (in cM), Lod scores, effect sizes ( $r^2$ ), additive and dominance values, confidence intervals (as per a 1.8 lod drop method), covariates and interactions are all shown.

Gene	colour correlation				eQTL						
	logFC	t	adj.P.Val	B	eQTL origin	eQTL marker snp	additive effect (+/- SE)	dominance effect (+/- SE)	% of variation	lod	Gene location
WDR24	4.52	3.20	0.05	-1.83	Chr 10	Gg_rs14949856	0.9190 (0.3162)	1.9981 (0.4790)	51.12	3.73	14
PHLDA3	4.04	3.12	0.05	-1.97	Chr 10	Gg_rs14949856	0.8264 (0.2938)	1.7414 (0.4451)	48.37	3.45	26
LAD1 (ensgal31450)	2.87	2.85	0.05	-2.51	Chr 10	Gg_rs14949856	0.6549 (0.2196)	1.2526 (0.3327)	48.06	3.41	26
CREBBP	4.24	3.06	0.05	-2.13	Chr 10	Gg_rs14949856	0.8353 (0.3221)	1.8305 (0.4879)	45.71	3.18	14
ARL8A	3.04	2.99	0.05	-2.23	Chr 10	Gg_rs14949856	0.5042 (0.2297)	1.3767 (0.3480)	45.82	3.19	26
LAD1 (ensgal0410)	4.39	2.90	0.05	-2.40	Chr 10	Gg_rs14949856	0.9748 (0.3519)	1.8517 (0.5331)	44.18	3.04	26

Table 2 Summary of candidate genes with both a significant correlation with red intensity and a significant eQTL. The table includes the log of Fold change for the probe in question, t value of the gene expression, the adjusted p-value and the B value for the correlation between expression levels and colour score. In addition, it has the chromosomal location of the eQTL marker (plus the marker name), the additive and dominance effects of the eQTL, the % of variation explained by the eQTL (r-squared value), lod score and the location of the gene itself.



Marker	Chromosome	Position cM	Position Mb	Forward primer	Reverse primer	Sequencing primer
Gg_rs15065217	2	127,2	14516677	*-TGTCTGCAGATCTTGCTGTATA	AGGCCTGTCTACATTGAGAGATAC	TCTACTGCTCAGAAATGGA
rs15067636	2	145,0	16687105	CCGCTTCTGTGGTTTCAATT	*-AACAGAAAACCAAGCAGAACTAT	CTTCTGTTTTCATCTGAG
Gg_rs15069282	2	162,1	18391048	CCCTGTTGTTAGGAGAACTGC	*-GGTTGAAAAGACCTCTCAGATC	GGTACAGTTGTCATCCC
Gg_rs14947769	10	147,8	13319695	*-GTCCTTCAAATCACTGGGAATAA	ATTCAAATCCATTTCTCCTATC	CCATTTCTCCTATCTT
rs14008254	10	176,0	14402662	*-CAGAAAAGAGGAGTTGCTACTGAA	GAGTGCCTGATGAGTGTTC	TTGGGTAAGTGTGAAAAG
Gg_rs14949856	10	185,0	15038239	*-TTGTCTTACCCCTGTGTTCCAT	GCCATACTTTCTCTCCAGCAGAC	TATCTGTCCAAGATA
Gg_rs14076550	14	177,0	8716372	AGGACTGGATAAGGCAATTAGGT	*-ACACAATTACCCATTCTCTACCT	CAAAATCACTGTGGTATGT
rb 1499	14	205,0	12196898	*-CTCCCCAACCTCTAAAGTTT	ACTCCGCTCAGATCAGAAAAGCA	TCAGATCAGAAAAGCAAAT
Gg_rs15002638	14	216,0	13991134	GGAAACTGACAGCTCCTGTACAT	*-TTCCCATCACACAGCTCTCCT	CTGACAGCTCCTGTACAT
Gg_rs14132382	2	32,4	5800398	*-CCTGTCCCTGTGCCACTGTTT	TGGGGCTCTGCTTCTACCT	GAAAGATCTTACTACTCTCC
Gg_rs14139143	2	112,2	11674795	ATCCATAACTACCAGGCAATTCTT	*-CAAACGATCAAAGTGGGTCATAC	CCAGGCAATTCTTTATTT
Gg_rs14961831	11	35,8	8056008	*-ATCAGCAACCACCTGTGTTTAGT	TACTCCAGCTCTCTATTGTGTTT	GCTCTCTCATTGTGTTT
Gg_rs14025092	11	88,0	11351200	*-TCAGAACCCTGCATGAAGATG	TGCTCTTCTAGTGGATCCTTAG	TCTGTCCTGAATAGACAAT
Gg_rs15023850	15	89,7	9174305	*-TGGCACCCGTCCTTTTT	ACAAAGCGATCTCTATTGCCAGAC	GCCAGACTGGGCAAC
Gg_rs15025752	15	187,9	11183710	*-GAGCAGCTATGGAGGATG	CAGAGAGGCAATGAACCAAGT	GCAATGAACCAAGT
Gg_rs13724830	26	0,0	0	*-CATGCCCTGGGCTTTAGA	ATCCTAGCTCATAACAGGCAGTCC	AGTCCCTGGCTTCC

\* indicates that the primer is biotinylated

Supplementary table 1. The table contains relevant information about the SNP markers and their respective primers used in the eQTL analysis. Position is both given in cM which relates to the QTL intervals, the Mb position is from the chicken reference genome(GALGAL4) and the position is given for the focal SNP.

