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4	A copy number variant is associated with a spectrum of pigmentation patterns in
5	the rock pigeon (Columba livia)
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18 ABSTRACT

19 Rock pigeons (Columba livia) display an extraordinary array of pigment pattern variation. 20 One such pattern, Almond, is characterized by a variegated patchwork of plumage colors that are 21 distributed in an apparently random manner. Almond is a sex-linked, semi-dominant trait controlled by the classical *Stipper* (St) locus. Heterozygous males ($Z^{St}Z^+$ sex chromosomes) and 22 hemizygous Almond females ($Z^{St}W$) are favored by breeders for their attractive plumage. In 23 contrast, homozygous Almond males $(Z^{St}Z^{St})$ develop severe eye defects and lack all plumage 24 25 pigmentation, suggesting that higher dosage of the mutant allele is deleterious. To determine the 26 molecular basis of Almond, we compared the genomes of Almond pigeons to non-Almond pigeons 27 and identified a candidate St locus on the Z chromosome. We found a copy number variant (CNV) 28 within the differentiated region that captures complete or partial coding sequences of four genes, 29 including the melanosome maturation gene *Mlana*. We did not find fixed coding changes in genes 30 within the CNV, but all genes are misexpressed in regenerating feather bud collar cells of Almond 31 birds. Notably, six other alleles at the St locus are associated with depigmentation phenotypes, and 32 all exhibit expansion of the same CNV. Structural variation at St is linked to diversity in plumage 33 pigmentation and gene expression, and thus provides a potential mode of rapid phenotypic 34 evolution in pigeons.

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36 AUTHOR SUMMARY

The genetic changes responsible for different animal color patterns are poorly understood, due in part to a paucity of research organisms that are both genetically tractable and phenotypically diverse. Domestic pigeons (*Columba livia*) have been artificially selected for many traits, including an enormous variety of color patterns that are variable both within and among different

41 breeds of this single species. We investigated the genetic basis of a sex-linked color pattern in 42 pigeons called Almond that is characterized by a sprinkled pattern of plumage pigmentation. 43 Pigeons with one copy of the Almond allele have desirable color pattern; however, male pigeons 44 with two copies of the Almond mutation have severely depleted pigmentation and congenital eye 45 defects. By comparing the genomes of Almond and non-Almond pigeons, we discovered that 46 Almond pigeons have extra copies of a chromosome region that contains a gene that is critical for 47 the formation of pigment granules. We also found that different numbers of copies of this region 48 are associated with varying degrees of pigment reduction. The Almond phenotype in pigeons bears 49 a remarkable resemblance to Merle coat color mutants in dogs, and our new results from pigeons 50 suggest that similar genetic mechanisms underlie these traits in both species. Our work highlights 51 the role of gene copy number variation as a potential driver of rapid phenotypic evolution.

52

53 INTRODUCTION

54 In natural populations of animals, pigment colors and patterns impact mate choice, 55 signaling, mimicry, crypsis, and distraction of predators [1, 2]. In domestic animals, pigmentation 56 traits are often selected by humans based on colors and patterns they find most attractive. Despite 57 longstanding interest in the spectactular variation in color and pattern among animals, we know 58 little about the molecular mechanisms that mediate color patterns. Understanding the genetic basis 59 of the stunning array of animal color patterns benefits from the study of genetically tractable 60 species; however, progress is hampered, in part, by a limited number of traditional model 61 organisms that show limited variation in color and color patterning.

62 The domestic rock pigeon (*Columba livia*) is a striking example of variation shaped by
63 artificial selection, with a multitude of colors and color patterns within and among more than 350

64 breeds. Because breeds of domestic pigeon belong to the same species and are interfertile, pigeons 65 offer an exceptional opportunity to understand the genetic basis of pigmentation traits using 66 laboratory crosses and genomic association studies [3]. Previously, we identified several genes 67 involved in determining the type and intensity of plumage melanins in pigeons [4, 5], but 68 considerably less is known about the molecular determinants of pattern deposition [6]. The 69 molecular basis of pattern variation is an exciting frontier in pigmentation genetics, and recent 70 work in other vertebrates reveals several genes that contribute to this process. Still, the genetic 71 basis of pigment pattern is decidedly less well understood than the genes controlling pigment types 72 [7–16].

73 The classical pigmentation pattern in C. livia known as Almond is caused by a semi-74 dominant mutation (St allele) at the sex-linked Stipper (St) locus [17] (Fig. 1). Unlike most other 75 pigmentation pattern traits in pigeons, the variegated or sprinkled patchwork of plumage colors in 76 Almond is apparently random within and among individuals [18]. Furthermore, the color pattern 77 changes in an unpredictable manner with each molt [19–21]. The number of pigmented feathers in 78 Almond pigeons also increases with each successive molt, and this effect is more pronounced in 79 males [22, 23]. Notably, this phenomenon is the opposite of what is typically observed with 80 pigmentation traits that change throughout the lifespan of an individual, such as vitiligo and 81 graving, which result in a decrease in pigment over time [24–28]. In addition to Almond, at least 82 six other alleles at St lead to varying degrees of depigmentation in pigeons, suggesting that the St 83 locus might be a mutational hotspot [21, 29].

Heterozygous Almond males $(Z^{St}Z^+)$ and hemizygous Almond females $(Z^{St}W)$; males are the homogametic sex in birds), each of which have one copy of the *St* allele, are valued by breeders for their attractive color patterns. However, homozygous Almond males $(Z^{St}Z^{St})$ almost always

87 lack pigmentation in the first set of pennaceous feathers and have severe congenital eye defects 88 [19, 30, 31] (Fig. 1B, C). The pattern of inheritance of Almond suggests that dosage of the mutant 89 allele, rather than absence of the wild type allele, is responsible for the pigment and eve phenotypes 90 in homozygous males. Eye defects are also associated with pigmentation traits in other vertebrate 91 species, including dogs and horses, yet the molecular basis of these linked effects remains poorly 92 understood [9, 32–37]. Therefore, Almond pigeons can illuminate links between pigmentation and 93 eye defects, including whether pleiotropic effects of a single gene or linked genes with separate 94 effects control these correlated traits.

95 In this study, we investigate the genomic identity of the St locus in domestic pigeons. 96 Whole-genome sequence comparisons of Almond and non-Almond birds reveal a copy number 97 variant (CNV) in Almond birds that includes the complete coding sequences of two genes, and 98 partial coding sequences of two others. One of the complete genes, *Mlana*, plays a key role in the 99 development of the melanosome (the organelle in which pigment granules are produced), making 100 it a strong candidate for the pigmentation phenotype observed in Almond pigeons. We also find 101 that different alleles at St are correlated with different degrees of expansion of the same CNV, 102 thereby linking a spectrum of pigmentation variants to changes at one locus.

103

104 **RESULTS**

105 A sex-linked genomic region is associated with Almond pigmentation pattern

To determine the genomic location of the sex-linked *St* locus, we compared the genomes of 12 Almond pigeons to a panel of 109 non-Almond pigeons from a diverse set of breeds, using a probabilistic measure of allele frequency differentiation (pFst) [38] (see S1 Table for sample details). This whole-genome scan identified several significantly differentiated regions, but one

exceeded the others by several orders of magnitude and was located on a Z-chromosome scaffold (ScoHet5_227), as predicted from classical genetics studies (Fig. 2A). The differentiated region of ScoHet5_227 (position 5,186,219-5,545,482; peak SNP, p=1.1 e-16, genome wide significance threshold p = 5.5 e-10) contained eight annotated protein-coding genes, none of which had fixed coding changes in Almond compared to non-Almond genomes (VAAST [39]). Therefore, the Almond pigmentation pattern probably does not result from non-synonymous changes to proteincoding genes.

117 Several other scaffolds contained sequences that were significantly differentiated between 118 Almond and non-Almond pigeons (Fig. 2A). All of these regions are autosomal, and we speculate 119 that they are linked to other color traits that are often co-selected with Almond to give the most 120 desirable sprinkled patchwork of colors, including T-check (a highly melanistic wing pattern), kite 121 bronze (a deep reddening of the feathers), and recessive red (a pheomelanic color trait) [18, 21, 122 29]. However, because Almond is a sex-linked trait [17], we focused our attention on the Z-linked 123 scaffold ScoHet5 227.

124

125 A copy number variant is associated with the Almond pigment pattern

In the absence of fixed coding changes between Almond and non-Almond birds, we next asked if birds with different phenotypes had genomic structural differences in the candidate region. We examined sequencing coverage on ScoHet5_227 and found that all 12 Almond genomes had substantially higher coverage in the Almond candidate region relative to non-Almond genomes, indicating the presence of a copy number variant (CNV) (Fig. 2B, C). The CNV captures a 77-kb segment of the reference genome (ScoHet5_227: 5,181,467-5,259,256), with an additional increase in coverage in a nested 25-kb segment (ScoHet5_227: 5,201,091-5,226,635). Read-depth

analysis confirmed 7 copies of the outer 77-kb segment and 14 copies of the inner 25-kb segment in the genomes of female ($Z^{St}W$) Almond pigeons, which have an *St* locus on only one chromosome. We used PCR to amplify across the outer and inner CNV breakpoints of Almond pigeons and determined that the CNV consists of tandem repeats of the 77-kb and nested 25-kb segments (Fig. 3B).

138 We then genotyped the CNV region in a larger sample of Almond pigeons and found a 139 significant association between the number of tandem repeats and the Almond phenotype (TaqMan 140 assay; pairwise Wilcoxon test, p=2.0 e-16). Almost all Almond birds have more than one copy of 141 the CNV per Z-chromosome (n=78 of 80) (Fig. 4). Conversely, nearly all non-Almond birds had 142 only one copy per Z-chromosome (n=55 of 57). The two non-Almond birds with >1 copy per 143 chromosome had a maximum of one additional copy of the CNV, indicating that small increases 144 in copy number do not necessarily cause the Almond phenotype. Overall, these analyses suggest 145 that expansion of CNV on ScoHet5 227 is associated with the Almond phenotype.

146

147 Genes within the CNV are misexpressed in Almond feather buds

148 We next asked if the CNV was associated with gene expression changes between 149 developing Almond and non-Almond feathers. To address this question, we compared expression of genes in the CNV region among birds with $(Z^{St}Z^+, Z^{St}W, Z^{St}Z^{St})$ and without $(Z^+Z^+ \text{ and } Z^+W)$ 150 151 Almond alleles. We analyzed Almond feather buds with dark and light pigmentation separately to 152 assess whether expression differed between qualitatively different feather pigmentation types, both of which are present in $Z^{St}Z^+$ and $Z^{St}W$ Almond individuals. The CNV contains the complete 153 154 coding sequences of two genes, Mlana and Slc16a7, and partial coding sequences of two additional genes, Ermp1 and Kiaa2026 (Fig. 3A). Mlana is predicted to have up to 14 total copies per ZSt 155

chromosome based on sequencing coverage in ZStW Almond birds (Fig. 3B). *Mlana* is expressed
almost exclusively in melanocytes (melanin-producing cells), and encodes a protein that is critical
for melanosome maturation through interactions with the matrix-forming protein Pmel [40–42].
Thus, the combination of the biological role of *Mlana* and its location in the Almond CNV makes *Mlana* a strong candidate gene for the Almond phenotype.

161 Compared to non-Almond feather buds, Mlana expression is increased in dark feather buds, but not in light feather buds, from $Z^{St}Z^+$ and $Z^{St}W$ Almond birds or the unpigmented feather 162 buds of homozygous Almond ($Z^{St}Z^{St}$) birds (Fig. 5A; see S2 Table and S3 Table for raw data for 163 164 all qRT-PCR experiments). We noticed that the variance of expression observed for *Mlana* in both 165 dark and light Almond feather buds, though not statistically significant (Kolmogorov-Smirnov 166 test), trends higher than in non-Almond samples. This data distribution might reflect the variability 167 of the phenotype itself, which is characterized by different quantities and intensities of feather pigmentation both within and between $Z^{St}Z^+$ and $Z^{St}W$ Almond pigeons. 168

Other genes completely or partially within the CNV show increased expression in feathers from birds with at least one Almond allele relative to non-Almond birds. *Slc16a7* encodes a monocarboxylate transporter, and is predicted to be amplified to six full-length copies in Almond pigeons (Fig. 3B). We observed a 40-fold increase in expression of *Slc16a7* in Almond feather buds compared to non-Almond (Fig. 5A). *Slc16a7* is not known to be important in pigmentation; however, this gene is expressed in the mammalian, where it is involved in lactic acid transport and osmotic balance [43–47].

In addition to the two genes fully contained within the CNV, a novel fusion of *Ermp1* (a
metallopeptidase gene) and *Kiaa2026* (unknown function) is predicted to span the outer CNV
breakpoints (Fig. 3C). Neither gene is known to play a role in pigmentation or eye development.

179 The predicted Ermp1/Kiaa2026 fusion protein is a truncated version of Ermp1, including the 180 peptidase domain and 3 of the 6 transmembrane domains (Fig. 3B). The 22 amino acids from 181 Kiaa2026 at the C-terminus of the fusion protein do not include a known protein domain [48]; 182 thus, the fusion protein is unlikely to create a novel combination of functional domains. As 183 expected, the *Ermp1/Kiaa2026* fusion gene is not expressed in feathers of non-Almond birds, but 184 is expressed in birds with Almond alleles (Fig. 5A). When we analyzed the expression of the exons 185 of Kiaa2026 and Ermp1 located outside the CNV, we did not observe expression differences 186 among genotypes (Fig. 5B). Therefore, the Almond CNV is associated with expression of the novel 187 fusion gene, but not with expression differences in the full-length transcripts of either contributing 188 gene. Similarly, *Ric1*, a gene immediately outside the CNV, shows a modest (less than two-fold) 189 expression increase in light Almond feathers relative to other feather types (Fig. 5B). In summary, 190 genes inside CNV show variable or increased expression in feathers from Almond birds, whereas 191 genes adjacent to the CNV show little or no expression change.

192

193 Gene expression changes suggest melanocyte dysfunction in Almond feather buds

Plumage pigmentation patterns in $Z^{St}Z^+$, $Z^{St}W$, and $Z^{St}Z^{St}$ Almond birds are radically 194 195 different than non-Almond birds, which led us to predict that other components of the 196 melanogenesis pathway might differ as well. The production of melanin by melanocytes is a multi-197 step process that begins with activation of several pathways, including Wnt and Mc1r signaling, 198 via extracellular ligands and agonists [49–52]. Subsequently, expression of transcription factors, 199 including Mitf, activates a genetic cascade that ultimately promotes the maturation of a functional 200 melanocyte [53]. Within the melanocyte itself, a series of enzymatic reactions and assembly of the 201 melanosome leads to the production and deposition of pigments. Melanosomes are then transferred

to skin cells and epidermal appendages, including feathers. In pigeons and other birds with
melanin-based pigments, the balance of pheomelanin (reds, yellows) and eumelanin (blacks,
browns) deposition determines plumage color [54].

205 To determine if pigment production signals diverge between Almond and non-Almond 206 feather buds, we measured expression of several marker genes for melanocyte maturation and 207 function by qRT-PCR. We first examined genes involved in melanocyte survival and 208 differentiation, both of which are critical early events in melanin production. Sox10, which 209 encodes a transcription factor that activates expression of many downstream genes including Mitf, 210 *Tyrosinase*, and *Tyrp1* expression [55], is downregulated only in light Almond and homozygous 211 Almond feather buds (Fig. 5B). Because Sox10 regulates Mitf and other melanocyte genes, this 212 result indicates that melanocyte dysfunction occurs early in the lightly pigmented Almond feathers, 213 but not in dark Almond feathers. A second melanocyte differentiation and survival marker gene, 214 Mitf, encodes a transcription factor that activates expression of Tyrosinase, Tyrp1, Pmel, and 215 *Mlana* [40, 53, 56, 57]. Unlike *Sox10*, *Mitf* is not differentially expressed in any of the phenotypes 216 we tested (Fig. 5C). This result suggests that melanocytes are present in the feathers of all 217 phenotypes, even in severely depigmented feathers [9]. Two genes that activate Mitf expression 218 (Sox10 and Mc1r, see below; Fig. 5C) are downregulated, which implies that Mitf would be 219 downregulated as well. However, the persistence of high *Mitf* expression could be the result of 220 activation by other pathways such as Wnt and c-Kit signaling [56]. Together, our gene expression 221 results indicate that melanocytes are present in all feather buds of Almond pigeons (*Mitf* is 222 expressed), but decreased Sox10 expression in light and homozygous Almond feathers suggests 223 multiple copies of the Almond CNV are associated with dysfunction early in melanogenesis in 224 light and homozygous Almond feathers (Sox10 expression is decreased).

225 We next assayed genes involved in pigment production, an indicator of melanocyte 226 function. Mc1r, which encodes a G-protein-coupled receptor necessary for eumelanin production 227 [58], and *Tyrosinase*, which encodes a critical enzyme for both eumelanin and pheomelanin 228 production, were downregulated only in homozygous Almond feather buds (Fig. 5C). Therefore, 229 expression of two key determinants of pigment production is affected only in the most severe 230 depigmentation phenotype. Typ1, which encodes another enzyme important for eumelanin but 231 not phenomelanin production [59], was downregulated in all Almond feather buds, with the most 232 severe effects in light and homozygous Almond feather buds (Fig. 5C). Thus, the eumelanin 233 synthesis pathway is affected in all Almond feathers, but pigment generation and melanocyte 234 function genes are more impacted in light Almond and homozygous Almond feather buds, with 235 the most severe downregulation observed in homozygotes (Fig. 5C).

236 Finally, we measured expression of the melanosome structure gene Pmel. Melanosome 237 structure is thought to be necessary for eumelanin but not pheomelanin production [60]. Pmel is 238 an amyloid protein that forms part of the melanosome matrix, an important structural component 239 of the mature melanosome [60–62]. Our candidate gene *Mlana* encodes a protein that interacts 240 with Pmel and is also critical for melanosome matrix formation. We found that *Pmel* is 241 downregulated in all Almond feather buds, and most severely in the two most depigmented types, 242 light Almond and homozygous Almond (Fig. 5C). As described above, Mlana expression 243 increased in dark Almond feathers but was similar to non-Almond in light Almond and 244 homozygous Almond feather buds. These results are difficult to reconcile because these two genes 245 are regulated by Mitf. Nevertheless, our results show that even the pigmented feathers in Almond 246 birds show altered expression of pigmentation genes.

In summary, in homozygous Almond feather buds, the pigmentation production pathway is altered at an early stage of eumelanogenesis. In birds with one copy of the Almond allele ($Z^{St}Z^+$ and $Z^{St}W$) light feathers show downregulation of more eumelanin production genes than do dark feathers. Thus, phenotypically different Almond feathers have distinct pigmentation gene expression profiles.

252

253 Other alleles at the *St* locus are copy number variants

254 Classical genetic studies point to multiple depigmentation alleles at the St locus [20, 29, 255 63, 64]. To determine if the Almond CNV is associated with these other alleles as well, we 256 genotyped pigeons with other St-linked phenotypes and found significant increases in copy number in Qualmond (St^Q ; N=10, p=8.3e-06), Sandy (St^{Sa} ; N=3, p=3.2 e-02), Faded (St^{Fa} ; N=11, p=5.0e-257 07), and Chalky (St^{C} : N=6, p=2.7e-04) pigeons compared to birds without St-linked phenotypes 258 (Fig. 4, S4 Table). Another allele, Frosty (St^{fr}), showed a trend of copy number increase that did 259 260 not reach significance (N=6, p=1). Together, these results demonstrate that copy number increase 261 is associated with a variety of depigmentation alleles at the St locus.

We next asked whether different *St* alleles share the same CNV breakpoints. We amplified and sequenced across the Almond CNV breakpoints in Qualmond (N=4), Sandy (N=2), Faded (N=2), and Chalky (N=4) pigeons and found that the breakpoints are identical in all phenotypes tested. Therefore, a single initial mutational event was probably followed by different degrees of expansion in different *St* alleles. Notably, the breakpoints of the 77-kb segment (ScoHet5_227: 5,181,467 and 5,259,256) are enriched for CT repeats. These repeat sites could facilitate nonallelic homologous recombination, which could have generated the *St* allelic series [65].

270 DISCUSSION

271 *Mlana* is a strong candidate gene for the Almond phenotype

We identified a CNV associated with plumage pigmentation variation and an eye defect in domestic pigeons. Different numbers of copies of this structural variant are associated with a series of depigmentation alleles at the same locus. In the feathers of Almond birds, the CNV is associated with changes in the expression of genes within its bounds.

276 One of these genes, Mlana, is a strong candidate for Almond due to its role in melanosome 277 maturation. *Mlana* and *Pmel* are co-regulated by Mitf and their protein products physically interact 278 with each other during the process of matrix formation in the melanosome [41, 66]. Notably, *Pmel* 279 mutations cause pigmentation phenotypes in cattle, chicken, and mouse [67–70]. *Pmel* mutations 280 in horse, dog, and zebrafish result in both pigmentation phenotypes and eye defects, similar to 281 Almond pigeons [37, 71-75]. For example, the merle coat pattern in dogs is associated with a 282 transposon insertion in an intron of the *PMEL* gene, resulting in a non-functional PMEL protein 283 and a phenotype that is remarkably similar to the Almond phenotype in pigeons [37, 72]. Dogs 284 homozygous for the *PMEL* mutation, much like homozygous Almond pigeons, are severely 285 hypopigmented. Additionally, homozygous PMEL mutant dogs have various eye defects, such as 286 increased intraocular pressure, ametropia, microphthalmia, and coloboma [76]. The observation 287 that Pmel, which interacts directly with Mlana, is repeatedly connected to both pigmentation and 288 eye defects makes *Mlana* a strong candidate for similar correlated phenotypes in Almond pigeons. 289 Likewise, in humans and mice, mutations in melanosome genes (e.g., Oca2, Slc45a2, Slc24a5) 290 produce both epidermal depigmentation and eye defects, thereby further demonstrating a shared 291 developmental link between these structures [77–79].

292 The other full-length gene within the CNV, Slc16a7, does not have a known role in 293 pigmentation. However, this gene is a member of a class of monocarboxylate transporters that are 294 necessary to efficiently remove lactate from photoreceptor cells to prevent intracellular acidosis, 295 and to maintain a high glycolysis rate and proper cellular metabolism [44–46, 80, 81]. We 296 speculate that irregular expression of this gene could lead to cell death or dysfunction by causing 297 toxic lactic acid concentrations or by preventing lactic acid transport to nearby cells. In 298 regenerating Almond feathers, Slc16a7 expression increases substantially (40-fold) relative to 299 non-Almond feathers, raising the possibility that this gene is somehow involved in pigmentation. 300 In short, changes in *Slc16a7* expression could drive components of the Almond phenotype in 301 feathers, eyes, or perhaps both. However, given the linked pigment and eye phenotypes observed 302 in *Pmel* mutants in other species, *Mlana* alone could be sufficient to induce both pigmentation and 303 eye defects in Almond pigeons. Future work will explore these various possibilities.

304

305 Gene expression is altered in Almond birds

In other organisms, copy number variation can result in gene expression changes in the same direction as the copy number change (i.e., the presence of more copies is correlated with higher expression) [82–84]. We observed a similar trend of higher expression of genes captured in the Almond-linked CNV (Fig. 5A). In contrast to this trend, however, *Mlana* showed an increase in expression in dark Almond feathers, but not in light Almond or homozygous Almond (unpigmented) feathers. *Mlana* is also the gene with the greatest copy number increase, with up to 14 copies in hemizygous Almond genomes and 28 copies in the homozygous Almond genome.

With the above observations of gene expression in mind, why might homozygous Almond birds lack *Mlana* expression in feather buds when they have 28 copies of the gene? One possibility

315 is epigenetic silencing. High copy numbers in tandem arrays induce gene silencing in several 316 organisms [85–89]. In fruit flies, for example, tandem arrays lead to variegated gene expression of 317 the white eve gene [86]. This change in expression, in turn, leads to mosaic eve color, a scenario 318 reminiscent of the color mosaicism in the feathers of Almond pigeons. In mouse, experimentally 319 reducing the number of copies of *lacZ* in a tandem array causes an increase in gene expression, 320 indicating that reducing copy number may relieve gene silencing [88]. Likewise, it is possible that 321 somatic copy number decrease could relieve gene silencing and restore higher expression of Mlana 322 in dark Almond feather buds.

323 Another potential explanation for the lack of *Mlana* expression in homozygous Almond 324 feathers is cell death or immunity-mediated destruction of melanocytes. Overexpression of Mlana 325 could have a toxic effect on cells, leading to cell death before melanocyte maturation. Similarly, 326 in humans, overexpression of genes is often associated with disease [90-92], and in yeast, 327 overexpression of genes can reduce growth rate [93]. Alternatively, Almond melanocytes might 328 elicit an autoimmune response, similar to the destruction of melanocytes in human pigmentation 329 disorders. MLANA is a dominant antigenic target for the T cell autoimmune response in human 330 skin affected by vitiligo [94, 95], and perhaps the presentation of Mlana antigens in Almond 331 pigeons elicits a response that depletes melanocytes in the developing feather buds. A potentially 332 analogous autoimmune response depletes the melanocyte population and mimics vitiligo in Smyth 333 line chickens [96].

If genes in the CNV are being randomly silenced in Almond pigeons, or cells with high expression are escaping cell death in a random manner, then we might expect to see high variance in gene expression among Almond feather samples. Consistent with this prediction, the variance in expression of *Mlana* in both dark and light Almond feather buds trends higher than in non-

Almond samples (Fig. 5A). This variance might also explain the random pattern of pigmentation and de-pigmentation observed in the feathers of these birds. If each cell population is affected differently due to stochastic events resulting in differential expression, then random pigmentation patterns could be the outcome.

342

343 CNVs as mechanisms for the rapid generation of new phenotypes

344 In addition to finding a CNV at the St locus in Almond birds, we found quantitative 345 variation in copy number among other alleles at this locus. Variation at this CNV may have a 346 quantitative effect on de-pigmentation, with the degree of copy number increase correlating with 347 degree of depigmentation and eye defects. For example, pigeon breeders report that Sandy and 348 Whiteout – two phenotypes with among the highest numbers of copies of the CNV (Fig. 4) – have 349 associated eye defects similar to Almond (Tim Kvidera, personal communication) [29, 63]. 350 Although we currently have a small sample size of other St-linked phenotypes, we see a trend that 351 other alleles produce milder pigment phenotypes and have less CNV expansion than the Almond 352 allele. Similar quantitative effects of CNVs occur in other organisms as well, including a 353 correlation between comb size and copy number of Sox5 intron 1 in chickens [97].

Pigeon breeders have reported that parents with one *St*-linked phenotype can produce offspring of another phenotype in the *St* series [29, 98]. Specifically, Faded, Qualmond, and Hickory pigeons have produced Almond offspring. These classical breeding studies suggest that allelic conversion can occur rapidly and, based on our finding of copy number variation among *St* alleles, may result from simple expansion or contraction of a CNV. In another striking similarity between Merle dogs and Almond pigeons, germline expansions or contractions of the *Merle* allele of *PMEL* result in a spectrum of coat pattern phenotypes that can differ between parents and offspring [72, 99]. Thus, unstable CNVs like the one we found at the *St* locus may provide a
 mechanism for extraordinarily rapid phenotypic diversification in pigeons and other organisms
 [100–103].

364

365 MATERIALS & METHODS

366 Animal husbandry

Animal husbandry and experimental procedures were performed in accordance with protocols approved by the University of Utah Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee (protocols 10-05007, 13-04012, and 16-03010).

370

371 DNA sample collection and extraction

372 Blood samples were collected in Utah at local pigeon shows, at the homes of local pigeon 373 breeders, and from pigeons in the Shapiro lab. Photos of each bird were taken upon sample 374 collection for our records and for phenotype verification. Breeders outside of Utah were contacted 375 by email to obtain feather samples. Breeders were sent feather collection packets and instructions, 376 and feather samples were sent back to the University of Utah along with detailed phenotypic 377 information and genetic relatedness. DNA was then extracted from blood, as previously described 378 [4]. DNA from feathers was extracted using the user developed protocol for Purification of total 379 DNA from nails, hair, or feathers using the DNeasy Blood & Tissue Kit (Qiagen Sciences, 380 Germantown, MD).

381

382 Genomic analyses

383 BAM files from a panel of previously resequenced birds were combined with BAM files 384 derived from new sequences from 11 Almond females and 16 non-Almond birds aligned to the 385 Cliv 2.1 genome assembly [104] (new sequence accessions: SRA SRP176668, accessions 386 SRR8420387-SRR8420407 and SRR9003406-SRR9003411; BAM files created as described 387 previously [6]). SNVs and small indels were called using the Genome Analysis Toolkit (Unified 388 Genotyper and LeftAlign and TrimVariants functions, default settings [105]). Variants were 389 filtered as described previously [38] and the subsequent variant call format (VCF) file was used 390 for downstream analyses.

391 Whole genomes of 12 Almond and 96 non-Almond birds were tested for allele frequency 392 differentiation using pFst (VCFLIB software library, https://github.com/vcflib; see S1 Table for 393 sample information) [38]. For analysis of fixed coding changes, VAAST 2.0 [39] was used to 394 conduct an association test and to search for putative disease-causing genetic variants common to 395 all Almond individuals but absent from non-Almonds. Annotated variants from affected 396 individuals were merged by simple union into a target file. The background file included variants 397 from 66 non-Almond birds, while the target file contained variants from the 12 Almond birds. This 398 VAAST analysis revealed that there were no fixed genetic variants among the Almond individuals 399 that were absent in the background dataset.

400

401 CNV breakpoint identification and read-depth analysis

402 Read depth in the CNV-containing region was analyzed in 12 Almond and 118 non403 Almond resequenced whole genomes. Scaffold ScoHet5_227 gdepth files were generated using
404 VCFtools [108]. Read depth was normalized using a region (scaffold ScoHet5_227: 1-5,000,000)
405 that did not show an increase in sequencing coverage in Almond genomes.

406	To determine the CNV breakpoints, we first identified the region of increased sequencing
407	coverage in Almond genomes using the depth function in VCFtools [108]. Next, we examined
408	BAM files of Almond genomes in IGV [110] in the region of coverage increase, and identified
409	locations at which reads were consistently split (did not map contiguously). These locations were
410	the putative breakpoints. We then designed PCR primers that amplify 1-kb products spanning the
411	putative breakpoints (see S5 Table for primer sequences). Finally, we used PCR to amplify across
412	the putative breakpoints. PCR products were purified and sequenced, and aligned to the pigeon
413	genome assembly using Blast+ version 2.7.1 [109]. The CNV breakpoint primers (see Fig. 3B)
414	successfully amplified products in 40 of 43 Almond pigeons tested.

415

416 **Fusion gene analysis**

The putative mRNA sequence of the *Ermp1/Kiaa2026* fusion gene was determined by concatenating the mRNA sequence of the exons on one side of the outer breakpoint with the exons that map to the outer breakpoint. The fusion of these exons was confirmed using exon spanning primers and qPCR (See S5 Table for primer sequences). The putative mRNA sequence was translated, and then analyzed for domains using HMMER searches in SMART (Simple Modular Architecture Research Tool) [48]. We searched for domains in the SMART database, and also searched for outlier homologs, PFAM domains, signal peptides, and internal repeats.

424

425 Taqman assay for copy number estimates

426 Copy number variation was estimated using a custom Taqman Copy Number Assay
427 targeted to the *Mlana* region (MLANA_CCWR201) for 150 Almond, 9 Qualmond, 3 Sandy, 14
428 Faded, and 6 Chalky, 5 Frosty, and 56 individuals without *St*-linked phenotypes. Following DNA

429	extraction, samples were diluted to 5 ng/uL and run in quadruplicate according to manufacturer's
430	protocol. Copy number was determined using CopyCaller Software v2.1 (ThermoFisher Scientific,
431	Waltham, MA). An intron in RNaseP was used for normalization of copy number.
432	
433	RNA isolation and cDNA synthesis
434	To assay gene expression, secondary covert wing feathers were plucked to stimulate
435	regeneration and allowed to regenerate for 9 days (see S2 Table for sample details). Nine-day
436	regenerating feather buds were plucked, then the proximal 5 mm was cut and stored in RNA later

438 until RNA isolation. RNA was then isolated and reverse transcribed to cDNA as described439 previously [4].

at 4°C overnight. Feather buds were then dissected and collar cells removed, and stored at -80°C

440

437

441 **qRT-PCR analysis**

cDNA was amplified using intron-spanning primers for the appropriate targets using a CFX96 qPCR instrument and iTaq Universal Sybr Green Supermix (Bio-Rad, Hercules, CA) (S5 Table). Samples were run in duplicate and normalized to β-actin (see S3 Table for raw results). Results were compared in R [111] using ANOVA, followed by a Tukey post hoc test to determine differences between phenotypic groups. Differences were considered statistically significant if *p* < 0.05. Primers used for each gene are included in S5 Table.

448

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461				
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780 FIGURES AND FIGURE LEGENDS

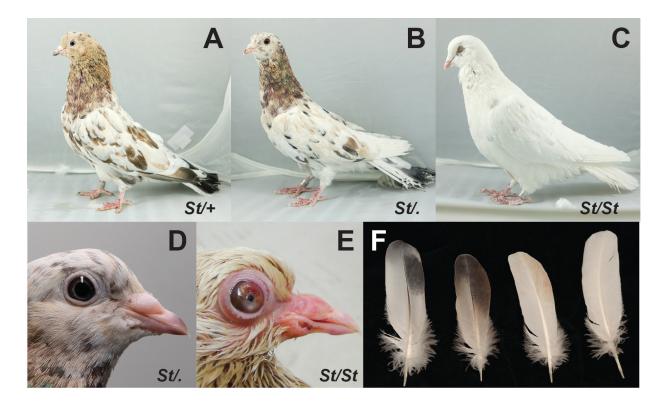
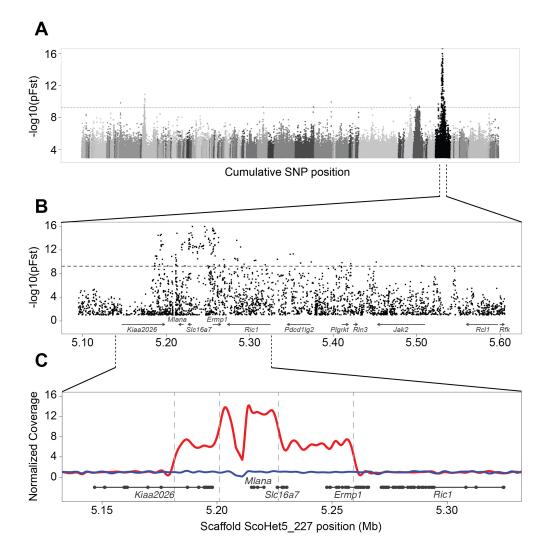
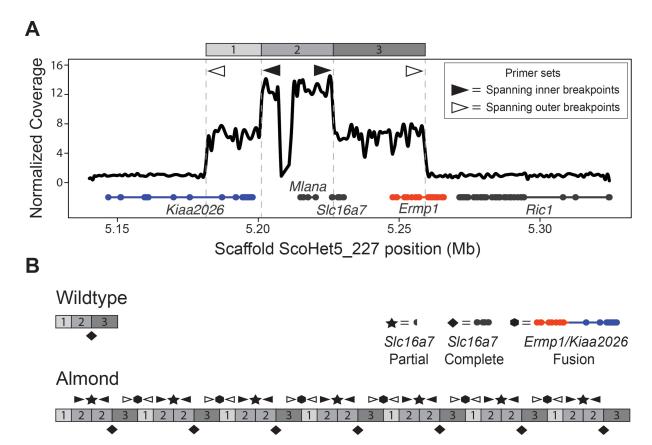


Figure 1. Phenotypes of pigeons carrying Almond alleles (*St*, Almond allele; +, wild type allele).
(A) Heterozygous Almond male. (B) Hemizygous Almond female. (C) Homozygous Almond
male. (D) Almond females have no observable eye defects. (E) Homozygous Almond males often
show severe eye defects. Defects pictured in this juvenile include bloated eyelid and anterior
opacity. (F) Wing feathers from different phenotypes, left to right: non-Almond, dark Almond,
light Almond, homozygous Almond.





789 Figure 2. Almond is associated with a CNV on a sex-linked genomic scaffold. (A) Whole-genome 790 pFst comparisons between Almond and non-Almond pigeons. Each dot represents a SNP position, 791 with shades of gray indicating different genomic scaffolds. The horizontal dashed grey line 792 indicates genome-wide significance threshold. (B) Detail of pFst plot for candidate region on 793 ScoHet5 227, a sex-linked scaffold [104]. Gene models are depicted at the bottom of the plot. (C) 794 Detail view of the CNV region. Solid red line represents the mean normalized read depth for 10 795 female Almond birds in this region. The blue line is a single representative of non-Almond female 796 coverage. Vertical dashed lines indicate positions of CNV breakpoints. Gene models are depicted 797 below the coverage plot in grey (thick lines, exons; thin lines, introns).



798

799 Figure 3. The Almond-associated CNV has a complex structure that results in duplicated, 800 truncated, and fused genes. (A) Coverage diagram showing different regions of the CNV 801 normalized to a non-CNV region on the same scaffold. Two outer regions (1 and 3, above plot) 802 have an approximately 7-fold coverage increase, while one inner region (2) has an approximately 803 14-fold coverage increase. Gene models are depicted below the coverage plot in grey, orange and 804 blue (thick lines, exons; thin lines, introns). (B) Schematic of the non-Almond (top) and inferred 805 Almond (bottom) structures of the CNV. Gene structural changes resulting from the Almond CNV 806 include a fusion of *Ermp1* and *Kiaa2026* at the segment 3/1 junction (hexagon), and a truncated 807 version of *Slc16a7* at the segment 2/2 junction (star). A complete copy of *Slc16a7* occurs at each 808 2/3 junction (diamond).

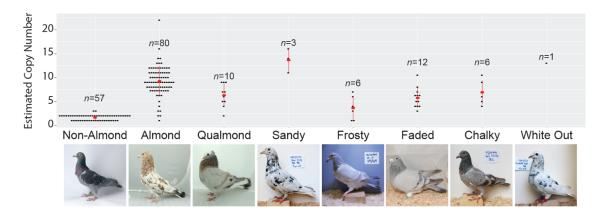




Figure 4. *St*-linked pigmentation phenotypes show quantitative variation in the Almond CNV. Black dots represent results of a TaqMan copy number assay. Mean copy numbers for each phenotype are shown as red dots. Most individuals without *St*-linked phenotypes have the expected 1 or 2 copies (because *St* is a sex-linked locus, females have a minimum of 1 copy and males have a minimum of 2). All other *St*-linked phenotypes are associated with an expansion of the CNV in the Almond candidate region on scaffold ScoHet5_227, indicating an allelic series at *St*. Numbers above each phenotype indicate number of individuals sampled.

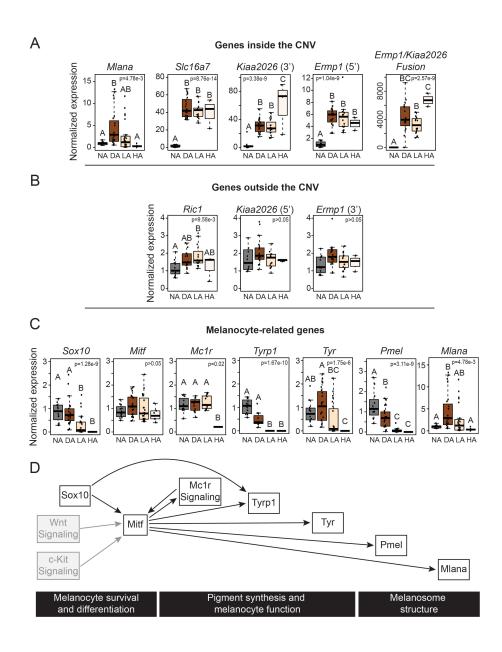




Figure 5. Almond and non-Almond feather buds have distinct gene expression profiles. (A) Exons assayed within the CNV show expression differences in Almond feather buds compared to non-Almond. Boxplots show the results of qRT-PCR assays designed to assess gene expression of exons located in the CNV region. Fusion gene expression results are from qPCR primers spanning exon 7 of *Ermp1* into exon 5 of *Kiaa2026*. (B) Exons assayed outside the CNV show no expression differences in Almond feather buds compared to non-Almond. This indicates expression

827 differences are specific to exons inside the CNV. (C) Expression of melanocyte-related genes. 828 qRT-PCR results indicate a decrease in expression of several genes involved in melanin production 829 in Almond feather buds. (D) Model of interactions among genes and signaling pathways involved 830 in different aspects of pigment synthesis. Gray boxes indicate pathways discussed in the text but 831 not directly represented in our expression analyses. NA, feather buds from non-Almond 832 individuals with wild type alleles at St; DA, dark Almond feather buds from hemizygous and 833 heterozygous Almond individuals; LA, light Almond feather buds from hemizygous and 834 heterozygous Almond individuals; HA, feather buds from a homozygous Almond individual. Bar 835 in each box represents the median, box ends indicate upper and lower quartiles, whiskers indicate 836 the highest and lowest value excluding outliers. Different letters indicate groups with statistically 837 significant differences in gene expression determined by ANOVA and post-hoc Tukey test 838 (p<0.05).

840 SUPPORTING INFORMATION LEGEND

Supporting_Information.xlsx. S1-S5 Tables. Individual tables are separate worksheets within the file and contain the following information: S1, NCBI SRA submission numbers and breed information for birds used for genomic analysis in this study. S2, Sample sizes and Identifiers of birds included in each phenotypic category for qPCR analysis. S3, Raw qRT-PCR results for Figure 4. S4, Copy number results from Taqman assay of *Mlana* region. S5, Primer Sequences Used in This Study. S2: