The wild species genome ancestry of domestic chickens

Authors:
Raman Akinyanju Lawal[1,2,#], Simon H. Martin[3,4,#], Koen Vanmechelen[5], Addie Vereijken[6], Pradeepa Silva[7], Raed Mahmoud Al-Atiyat[8], Riyadh Salah Aljumaah[9], Joram M. Mwacharo[10], Dong-Dong Wu[11,12], Ya-Ping Zhang[11,12], Paul M. Hocking[13†], Jacqueline Smith[13], David Wragg[14] & Olivier Hanotte[1, 14,15*]

Affiliations:
[1]Cells, Organisms and Molecular Genetics, School of Life Sciences, University of Nottingham, NG7 2RD, Nottingham, United Kingdom
[2,#]The Jackson Laboratory, 600 Main Street, Bar Harbor, ME 04609, USA
[3, #]Institute of Evolutionary Biology, University of Edinburgh, EH9 3FL, Edinburgh, United Kingdom
[4]Department of Zoology, University of Cambridge, CB2 3EJ, Cambridge, United Kingdom
[5]Open University of Diversity - Mouth Foundation, Hasselt, Belgium
[6]Hendrix Genetics, Technology and Service B.V., P.O. Box 114, 5830, AC, Boxmeer, The Netherlands
[7]Department of Animal Sciences, Faculty of Agriculture, University of Peradeniya, Sri Lanka
[8]Genetics and Biotechnology, Animal Science Department, Agriculture Faculty, Mutah University, Karak, Jordan
[9]Department of Animal Production, King Saud University, Saudi Arabia
[10]Small Ruminant Genomics, International Centre for Agricultural Research in the Dry Areas (ICARDA), P.O. Box 5689, ILRI-Ethiopia Campus, Addis Ababa, Ethiopia
[11]Center for Excellence in Animal Evolution and Genetics, Chinese Academy of Sciences, 650223 Kunming, China
[12]State Key Laboratory of Genetic Resources and Evolution, Kunming Institute of Zoology, Chinese Academy of Sciences, 650223 Kunming, China.
[13]The Roslin Institute and Royal (Dick) School of Veterinary Studies, University of Edinburgh, Easter Bush Campus, Midlothian, EH25 9RG, UK
[14]Centre for Tropical Livestock Genetics and Health, The Roslin Institute, EH25 9RG, Edinburgh, UK
[15]LiveGene, International Livestock Research Institute (ILRI), P. O. 5689, Addis Ababa, Ethiopia

†Deceased
#Present address
Correspondence: lawalakinyanju@yahoo.com and olivier.hanotte@nottingham.ac.uk

Short title: Chicken genome ancestry

Abstract

Hybridization and/or introgression play a key role in the evolutionary history of animal species.
It is commonly observed in several orders in wild birds. The domestic chicken *Gallus gallus*
domesticus is the commonest livestock species exploited for the benefit of mankind. The origin
of its diversity remains unsettled. Here, we report a genome-wide analyses for signatures of
introgression within domestic village chicken. We first established the genome-wide
phylogeny and divergence time across the genus *Gallus*, showing the sister relationships
between Grey junglefowl *G. sonneratii* and Ceylon junglefowl *G. lafayettii* and that the Green
junglefowl is the first diverging lineage within the genus *Gallus*. Then, by analysing the whole-
genome sequences of geographically diverse chicken populations, we reveal extensive
bidirectional introgression between Grey junglefowl and domestic chicken and to a much less
extent with Ceylon junglefowl. A single case of Green junglefowl *G. varius* introgression was
identified. These introgressed regions include biological functions related to the control of gene
expression. Our results show that while the Red junglefowl is the main ancestral species,
introgressive hybridization episodes have impacted the genome and contributed to the diversity
of domestic chicken, although likely at different level across its geographic range.

Keywords: *Chicken introgression, genetic diversity, chicken domestication, chicken*
migration, livestock, divergence time, Gallus species, interspecies hybridization, Galliformes,
Speciation, Evolution, ABBA BABA

Introduction
62
Despite the importance of domestic chicken *Gallus gallus domesticus* to human societies with
more than 65 billion birds raised annually to produce meat by the commercial sector [1] and
more than 80 million metric tons of egg produced annually for global human consumption, the
origin and history of the genetic diversity of this major domesticate is only partly known. The
Red junglefowl is the recognized maternal ancestor of domestic chicken [2, 3], with evidence
from mitochondrial DNA (mtDNA) supporting multiple domestication centres [4] and the
likely maternal contribution of several of its subspecies with the exception of *G. g. bankiva* (a
subspecies with a geographic distribution restricted to Java, Bali and Sumatra).
71
However, the genus *Gallus* comprises three others wild species which may have contributed
to the genetic background of domestic chicken. In South Asia, the Grey junglefowl *G.*
sonneratii is found in Southwest India and the Ceylon junglefowl *G. lafayettii* in Sri Lanka. In
South-East Asia, the Green junglefowl *G. varius* is endemic to Java and neighbouring islands
[5] (Fig. 1*A*). Hybridization between the Red and the Grey junglefowls in their sympatric zones
on the Indian subcontinent has been documented [5]. In captivity, hybridization between
different *Gallus* species has been reported [6, 7], with Morejohn (1968) successfully producing
F1 Red junglefowl x Grey junglefowl fertile hybrids in subsequent backcrossing with both
species. Red junglefowl/domestic chicken mtDNA has been found in captive Grey junglefowls
[8, 9] and the yellow skin phenotype is likely the result of the introgression of a Grey
junglefowl chromosomal fragment into domestic chicken [10]. Captive F1 hybrids between
female domestic chicken and male Green junglefowl, prized for their plumage colour and
distinct voice, are common in Indonesia where they are known as Bekisar [5]. More generally,
inter-species hybridization and introgression is an evolutionary process that plays a major role
in the genetic history of species and their adaptation [11]. It may occur in the wild, when
species live in sympatry, or in captivity following human intervention. While unravelling how

it happens and detecting its signatures at the genome level is central to our understanding the
speciation process, inter-species hybridizations are commonly practiced in agricultural plants
and livestock for improving productivity [12] with hybridization also known to occur between
domestic and wild species in several taxa [13]. Hybridization and introgression are relatively
common in wild birds, including in Galliformes [6, 14-17]. For example, the genetic integrity
of the rock partridge *Alectoris graeca* is being threatened in its natural habitat through
hybridization with the introduced red-legged partridge *A. rufa* [18], and the presence of
Japanese quail alleles in the wild migratory common quail *Coturnix coturnix* reveals
hybridization between domestic quail and the wild relative [19]. Additionally, mtDNA and
nuclear microsatellite analysis indicate gene flow between Silver Pheasant *Lophura*
nycthemera and Kalij Pheasant *L. leucomelanos* [20]. Infertile F1 hybrids between the common
Pheasant *Phasianus colchicus* and domestic chicken have also been reported in captivity [21].

Here, we report whole genomes analysis of indigenous domestic village chickens from
Ethiopia, Saudi Arabia, and Sri Lanka, together with domestic breeds from Indonesia and
China, European fancy chickens and the four wild junglefowl species to infer the genetic
contributions of different *Gallus sp.* to the domestic chicken genome. Our results show for the
first time the presence of introgressed alleles in domestic chicken from the three non-red
junglefowls species (Grey, Ceylon and Green). We also observed extensive introgression from
domestic chicken/Red junglefowl into Grey junglefowl, some introgression from domestic
chicken into Ceylon junglefowl but no introgression from domestic chicken to Green
junglefowl. While our findings support the Red junglefowl as the primary ancestor of domestic
chicken worldwide, they also indicate that the genome diversity of domestic chicken
population was subsequently reshaped and enhanced following introgression from other *Gallus*
species.

Results

Sampling, genetic structure and diversity

We analysed 87 whole genome sequences from domestic chickens (n = 53), Red junglefowls
(Red (n = 6) and Javanese red (n = 3)), Grey junglefowl (n = 3), Ceylon junglefowl (n = 8),
and Green junglefowl (n = 12)) and common Pheasant (n = 2)). Our dataset was made up of
newly-sequenced genomes at an average depth of 30X, together with publicly available
sequence data, which ranged from 8X to 14X. Across all the 87 genomes, a total of 91,053,192
autosomal single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) were called with more than 50% of the
polymorphisms found in common Pheasant (Supplementary Table S1). Summary statistics for
read mapping and genotyping are provided in Supplementary Table S1.

To understand the genetic structure and diversity of the four *Gallus* species, we ran principal
component (PC) and admixture analyses based on the autosomal SNPs filtered from linkage
disequilibrium. PC1 clearly separated the Green junglefowl from the other *Gallus sp*, while
PC2 distinguished Red, Grey and Ceylon junglefowls as well as slightly the Javanese red
junglefowl subspecies from the other Red junglefowl (Fig. 1*B*), with the Grey and Ceylon
junglefowls being positioned closer to each other than to any other junglefowls. The admixture
analysis recapitulates these findings, providing some evidence for shared ancestry between the
Red and Grey junglefowls at $K = 3$, but at the optimal $K = 5$ the ancestry of each junglefowl
species is distinct (Fig. 1*C*).

Detecting the true *Gallus* species phylogeny

We constructed a neighbour-joining tree and a NeighorNet network using autosomal sequences of 860,377 SNPs filtered to sites separated by at least 1 kb from the total 91 Million SNPs and a maximum likelihood tree on 1,849,580 exon SNPs extracted from the entire autosomal whole-genome SNPs. The trees were rooted with the common Pheasant as an outgroup (Fig. 2*A* and 2*B*; Supplementary Fig. S1*A*). Our results show that Grey and Ceylon junglefowls are sister species and form a clade that is sister to the clade of Javanese red junglefowl, Red junglefowl, and domestic chicken, with the latter two being paraphyletic. Green junglefowl is outside of this clade, making it the most divergent junglefowl species. We also observe the same relationships for the Z chromosome as well as for the mitochondrial (mt) genome (Fig. 2*C* and 2*D*). However, the latter show that the Grey junglefowl samples in this study do carry a domestic/red junglefowl mitochondrial haplotype. All the trees show the Javanese red junglefowl lineage at the base of the domestic/red junglefowl lineages.

Next, we investigated the extent to which other topologies are represented in the autosomal genome using topology weighting by iterative sampling of sub-trees (*Twisst*) [22] based on windows of 50 fixed SNPs [22]. To limit the number of topologies, the analysis was performed twice using either the Red junglefowl or the Javanese red junglefowl along with the Grey, Ceylon and Green junglefowls and the common Pheasant (outgroup). *Twisst* estimates the relative frequency of occurrence (i.e. the weighting) of each of the 15 possible topologies for these five taxa for each window and across the genome.

The most highly weighted topology genome-wide (T12), accounting for ~ 20% of the genome, supports the autosomal species genome phylogeny: (((((Red or Javanese red junglefowl), (Grey junglefowl, Ceylon junglefowl)), Green junglefowl), common Pheasant) (Fig. 3), while the second highest topology (T9, ~ 18%) rather places the green junglefowl at the basal of the monophyly Grey and Ceylon junglefowls: ((((Grey junglefowl, Ceylon junglefowl), Green junglefowl), Red or Javanese red junglefowl), common Pheasant). There are also weightings for other topologies. In particular, topologies 3 (2.9%), 10 (7.7%) and 15 (4.2%) show sister relationships between the Red junglefowl and the Grey junglefowl; topologies 6 (2.2%) and 11 (6%) show sister relationships between the Ceylon junglefowl and the Red junglefowl and topologies 1 (3.2%), 4 (3.1%) and 13 (9.7%) show sister relationships between the Green junglefowl and the Red junglefowl.

The result of TreeMix shows similar trends in phylogenetic relationships (as above) but it indicates multiple histories of admixture, namely from Red junglefowl to Grey junglefowl, Ceylon junglefowl to Red junglefowl, and from the root of the monophyly Grey and Ceylon junglefowls to Green junglefowl (Supplementary Fig. S1*B*), with the latter being consistent with the observation on topology 9 in Fig. 3*A*.

Species divergence time from autosomal genome

To estimate the divergence time between lineages, we first inferred the average coalescence times (CT) from the autosomes, which represents the sum of the accumulated divergence since the split and the standing divergence among the average pair of individuals that was present in the ancestral population at the time of the split. To estimate the split times, we subtracted the estimated nucleotide diversity in each ancestral population from the CT (see materials and methods for details). Among the junglefowls, the divergence times span a few million years.

Namely, ~ 1.1 MYA (Million Years Ago), between the Red and Javanese red junglefowls, ~
1.7 MYA between the Ceylon and Grey junglefowls, 2.6 to 2.8 MYA between the
Red/Javanese Red and Grey/Ceylon junglefowls, ~ 4 MYA between Green and the other
junglefowls species, while the junglefowls and common Pheasant lineages diverge ~ 21 MYA
(see Table 1 for details of all the pairwise divergence calculations). These split times agree
with autosomal and Z chromosome species trees relationships (Fig. 2). Using the same
approach, we estimate 8,093 (CI: 7,014 - 8,768) years for the accumulated divergence time
(domestication) between the domestic chicken and Red junglefowl (Table 1).

Genome-wide tests for introgression between junglefowls and domestic chicken

Having established a general pattern for the evolutionary history and relations of the
junglefowls, we next assess the presence of shared alleles between the domestic chicken and
the junglefowl species. We used D-statistics [23, 24] to test for a genome-wide excess of shared
alleles between the domestic chicken and each of non-red junglefowl species, relative to the
Red junglefowl. D is significantly greater than zero with strong Z-scores in all three cases
(Table 2), implying possible introgression between domestic chicken and the Grey, Ceylon and
Green junglefowls. However, because the Grey and Ceylon junglefowls are sister species,
introgression from just one of these species into domestic chicken could produce significantly
positive D values in both tests. Accordingly, the estimated admixture proportion (f) is similar
in both cases, ~ 12% and ~ 14% for Grey and Ceylon junglefowls, respectively. The estimated
admixture proportions are lower for the Z chromosome, ~ 6% with the Grey junglefowl and
~10% for Ceylon junglefowl. The estimated admixture proportions between the domestic
chicken and the Green junglefowl are ~ 9% for the autosomes and ~ 7% for the Z chromosome.

Genome scans for introgressed regions

To identify specific loci harbouring introgressed variation, we calculated f_d [25] which estimate
local admixture proportion within a defined 100 kb windows size. This window size was
chosen because it is much greater than the expected size of tracts of shared ancestry from
incomplete lineage sorting (ILS) between these species. Given their estimated divergence time
and a recombination rate of 3×10^{-8}, tracts of shared variation across the species that resulted
from ILS would be expected to be very small, on the order of ~ 8 bp (95% CI: 7 – 10 bp) on
average (see methods). Next, we separated the domestic chicken into three groups based on
their geographic origin and in relation to the geographic location of the junglefowl species: (*i*)
Ethiopian and Saudi Arabian domestic chicken at the West of the Grey and wild Red
junglefowl geographic distributions (*ii*) Sri Lankan chicken inhabiting the same island as the
Ceylon junglefowl, and (*iii*) South-East and East Asian chickens, which include two breeds
(Kedu Hitam and Sumatra) from the Indonesian Islands, a geographic area where the Red and
the Green junglefowl are found, and Langshan, a breed sampled in the UK but originally from
China.

For introgression between domestic chicken and Grey junglefowl, we first selected the three
most extreme f_d peaks that are consistent across all three domestic chicken groups for further
investigation (Fig. 4): a 26 Mb region on chromosome 1 at chromosomal position 141287737
- 167334186 bp, a 9 Mb region on chromosome 2 at position 11022874 - 19972089 bp, and a
2.8 Mb region on chromosome 4 at position 76429662 - 79206200 bp (Supplementary Table
S2*A*; Supplementary Fig. S2*A* – S4*A*). Both the haplotype tree and network show nesting of
some Grey junglefowl haplotypes within the domestic chicken lineage, consistent with

introgression from domestic chicken/Red junglefowl into Grey junglefowl (Supplementary
Fig. S2 – S4 (*B – C*)). A result further supported by *Twisst* which indicates localised reductions
in the weighting of the species topology and increases in the weightings for both the topologies
(((Grey junglefowl, domestic), Red junglefowl), common Pheasant) and (((Grey junglefowl,
Red junglefowl), domestic), common Pheasant) (Supplementary Fig. S2*D* – S4*D*).
Furthermore, at the candidate introgressed region, *dxy* and *Fst* are reduced between domestic
chicken and Grey junglefowl, but not between domestic chicken and Red junglefowl
(Supplementary Fig. S2 – S4 (*E – F*)). These large tracts therefore show all the signals
expected of recent introgression from domestic chicken/Red junglefowl into the Grey
junglefowl.

Next, we investigated candidate introgression signals that are not consistent across the three
domestic chicken group comparisons, i.e. peaks present in one or two comparisons but absent
in the other(s). Eight candidate regions were randomly analysed and reported here
(Supplementary Table S2*B*). These regions are characterised by fragment sizes ranging from
100 kb to 500 kb. Haplotype trees and networks reveal that, unlike the large tracts introgressed
into Grey junglefowl, these shorter tracts show some domestic chicken haplotypes (referred to
here as targetDom) nested within or close to the Grey junglefowl, indicating introgression from
Grey junglefowl into domestic chicken (Fig. 5*A*; Supplementary Fig. S5 – S11). *Twisst* results
indicate localised increases in the weighting for the topology (((Grey junglefowl, targetDom),
Red Junglefowl), common Pheasant) with proportions ranging from 61% to 80%, much higher
than the species topology (((Red junglefowl, targetDom), Grey junglefowl), common
Pheasant) ranging from 14% to 28%, and the other alternative topology (((Grey junglefowl,
Red junglefowl), targetDom), common Pheasant) ranging from 6% to 11%. These loci are also
characterised by reduced *dxy* and *Fst* values between Grey junglefowl and domestic chicken
and by increased *dxy* and *Fst* between Red junglefowl and domestic chicken (Fig. 5;
Supplementary Fig. S5 – S11 (*E – F*)). These Grey junglefowl introgressed haplotypes are most
commonly found in Ethiopian chickens, where all eight candidate genomic regions show signal
of introgression, followed by Sri Lankan chicken (4 regions), Saudi Arabian chicken (3
regions), Sumatran chicken (2 regions) and chicken from one region in Kedu Hitam and in Red
junglefowl (Supplementary Table S2*B*). The introgression found on chromosome 5 was also
present in two European fancy chicken breeds (Poulet-de-Bresse and Mechelse-koekoe,
Supplementary Fig. S8). No Grey junglefowl introgression was observed in the Langshan
chicken. Across these eight regions, a single candidate for bidirectional introgression was
observed in the 100 kb region of chromosome 12, where a single Grey junglefowl haplotype
is nested within the domestic/Red junglefowl lineage (Supplementary Fig. S11).

A smaller number of candidate regions are detectable in f_d between domestic chicken and
Ceylon junglefowl (Supplementary Fig. S12). In most of the candidate regions investigated,
haplotype trees and networks indicate unresolved relationships, whereas, some show
introgression from Grey rather than Ceylon junglefowl into domestic chicken. By further
analysing every peak in the plot, we identified four candidate introgressed regions from Ceylon
junglefowl into domestic chicken: three on chromosome 1, spanning 6.52 Mb, 3.95 Mb and
1.38 Mb; and one on chromosome 3, spanning 600 kb (Supplementary Table S2*B*). Both the
haplotype trees and networks show introgression of one haplotype into the two different
domestic chicken from Sri Lanka for the three candidate regions on chromosome 1
(Supplementary Fig. S13), and two haplotypes into two Sri Lankan domestic chicken for the
chromosome 3 region (Fig. 6*B*; Supplementary Fig. S14). The 1.38 Mb region on chromosome
1 also shows introgression from domestic/Red junglefowl into Grey junglefowl

(Supplementary Fig. S13*C*). For the four introgressed regions, *Twisst* shows the highest
weighting for a topology grouping the target domestic samples with Ceylon junglefowl
(Supplementary Fig. S13). Only one candidate region of 100 kb on chromosome 5 shows
evidence of introgression from domestic/Red junglefowl into Ceylon junglefowl, supported by
both the haplotype network and topology weightings (Fig. 6*C*).

There were several peaks of elevated f_d between Green junglefowl and one or more groups of
domestic chicken (Supplementary Fig. S15). However, both the haplotype tree and network
clearly support introgression only in a single case, from the Green junglefowl into domestic
chicken in a 100 kb region on chromosome 5 at position 9538700 - 9638700 bp (Fig. 6*D*).
Here, the Green junglefowl is introgressed into 10 of 16 Langshan domestic chicken haplotypes
(Supplementary Table S2*B*). As for the candidate regions described above, this case is
supported by strong weighting for the topology grouping the target domestic samples with the
Green junglefowl, as well as reduced d_{XY} and F_{ST} between domestic chicken and Green
junglefowl (Supplementary Fig. S16).

Functional annotations for the enriched genes within the introgressed regions

We identified gene classes that are overrepresented in the regions affected by introgression
(Fisher's exact test, $P < 0.05$). These genes, their gene ontology (GO) terms, functions and
their *P*-values are catalogued in Supplementary Table S3. The overrepresented GO terms
include some which are linked to the immune responses (e.g. 'Positive regulation of B cell
proliferation' for the domestic chicken introgression into Grey junglefowl) but also to the
regulation of gene expression (e.g. 'Double-stranded RNA binding' for the introgression of
Grey junglefowl to domestic chicken; 'Post-embryonic development and Alternative mRNA
splicing, *via* spliceosome' for the introgression of Ceylon junglefowl into domestic chicken).

Discussion

The Red junglefowl has long been known to be the ancestor of domestic chicken [2-4].
However, one molecular study has shown the presence of an autosomal DNA fragment from
the Grey junglefowl in the genome of some domestic chicken [10], and Red junglefowl –
domestic chicken mitochondrial DNA have been found in Grey junglefowl [8, 9]. Also, F1
crossbreeding of domestic birds with Green junglefowl is common [5] and captive breeding
experiments have reported, although at a very low rate, hatching of eggs and survival of chicks
from F1 female Grey x Red junglefowl birds backcrossed to male parental birds from each
species [6, 7]. These studies suggest that other species within the genus *Gallus* may have
contributed to the diversity of the domestic chicken gene pool. Here, we report for the first
time an analysis of the full genomes of the four wild junglefowl species to assess their level of
contribution to the domestic chicken.

We first established the species phylogeny of the genus *Gallus.* Both autosomes and Z
chromosomes places the Red/Javanese red junglefowl equally close to the Grey and Ceylon
junglefowls, which show a sister species relationship. Both also indicate that the Green
junglefowl lineage was the first to separate from the common ancestry of the genus.
Interestingly, the separation of the Javanese red junglefowl occurs at the root of other Red
junglefowl samples studied here, noting that the latter did not include any representative of *G.*
gallus murghi, the Red junglefowl subspecies with the largest geographic distribution on the
Indian subcontinent. The *Gallus* phylogeny (autosomal) supports a South-East Asian origin of

the genus, with a first speciation event separating the Green junglefowl lineage on the present-
day Indonesian Islands, occurring ~ 4 MYA, at the time boundary between the Pliocene and
early Pleistocene. Then, a North and North-West dispersion of the continental Red junglefowl
ancestral population led to the separation, possibly on the Indian subcontinent, of the lineages
leading to the Grey and Ceylon junglefowls ~ 2.6 to 2.8 MYA. This was followed by the
speciation of Grey and Ceylon junglefowls ~ 1.7 MYA. The South-East Indonesian Islands
saw a second arrival of ancestral Red junglefowl ~ 1.1 MYA, which led to the separation of
the Javanese red junglefowl lineage. Using the same approach, we estimated that the
domestication of chicken from Red junglefowl likely occurred ~ 8,000 years ago (95% CI:
7,014 - 8,768 years), earlier than the archaeological evidence (at least 4,000 BP) on the North
of the Indian subcontinent [26] but within the Neolithic time and in agreement with the dating
of the early chicken remains found from 16 Neolithic sites in China (6,000 BC) [27].

The phylogeny of the genus *Gallus* reported here differ from some other studies [28-30], which
are based on short fragments of the genome. In particular, we show here a sister relationship
between Grey and Ceylon junglefowls, rather than between Grey and Red junglefowls [28, 30]
or between Green and Red junglefowls [29]. A sister relationship between the Grey and Ceylon
junglefowls agrees with the today geographic distribution of these two species in South India
and Ceylon, respectively. Other studies also indicate more ancient divergence times between
the different *Gallus* lineages than the ones reported here (see TimeTree, www.timetree.org).
For example, the separation between Grey and Ceylon junglefowl ~ 1.7 MYA (CI: 1.52 – 1.91
MYA) in this study is more recent than the 8.05 MYA (CI: 3.94 - 12.15 MYA) reported in
TimeTree. Several reasons for such discrepancy may be advocated here, e.g. the use of full
genome information rather than fragmentary ones as well as different mean Galliformes neutral
mutation rates between studies.
333
Topology weighting analysis, while supporting the same species tree as the primary also show
considerable discordance in relationships across the genome, with weightings for topologies
that group Red junglefowl/domestic chicken alleles closely with other *Gallus* species. Also,
we observe high weighting in *Twisst* analysis for the topology showing relationship between
the sister species Grey - Ceylon junglefowls and Green junglefowl, although lower compared
to the relation for these two-former species with the Red junglefowl All these results are
indicative of presence of incomplete lineage sorting and/or introgression during the history of
the genus. Interestingly, while the three non-red junglefowls (i.e. Grey, Ceylon and Green) are
allopatric, the fluctuating climatic changes of the Pliocene and early Pleistocene geological era
may have not only triggered speciation events within the genus but could have also led to
subsequent geographic contact between incipient species, providing opportunities for
hybridization at the time. Also, these topologies are supporting introgression resulting from
intentional crossbreeding among the genus including between domestic chicken and the Grey,
Ceylon and Green junglefowl in modern times.

Several lines of evidence support recent introgression into domestic chicken from other *Gallus*
species. Comparison of the *D*-statistic for the autosomes and the Z chromosome show higher
levels of admixture on the former than the latter. This trend is not unusual for introgression
between species, as species barriers to introgression are often stronger on the sex-chromosomes
compared to the autosomes [31].We also report larger genomic tracts showing evidence of
introgression than expected under incomplete lineage sorting considering the times for
common ancestry reported in this study. This is consistent with recent introgression events
where the introgressed haplotypes have not yet been fully broken down by recombination [32].

Typically, haplotypes subject to ILS will be expected to be of smaller size given their antiquity
[33]. Obviously, the timeframe of introgression between domestic chicken and the non-red
junglefowl species cannot be more ancient than the domestication time and the subsequent
dispersion time of domestic birds. At candidate introgressed fragments, we also show excess
sequences shared variation between the donors and recipient species, low absolute divergence
index with the donor species and genealogical nesting of the candidate introgressed haplotypes
within or close to the donor species in both the phylogenies and networks analyses. Together,
all the evidence strongly support that these haplotypes represent true introgressed regions from
the three non-red junglefowl species into domestic chicken.

Our results also show extensive introgression from domestic chicken/Red junglefowl into Grey
junglefowl with introgressed tracts at least as long as 26 Mb in size. It supports recent
introgression events into the Grey junglefowl examined here, which originated form captive
breed population. The close relationship between domestic chicken and Red junglefowl makes
it difficult to pinpoint the source (domestic or red junglefowl) of these introgressed alleles in
Grey junglefowl. Specifically, the introgression of Grey junglefowl might have originated in
the wild from the Red junglefowl or following the domestication and the dispersion of domestic
chicken, considering the long history of sympatry between domestic chicken and the Grey
junglefowl across India. Detailed genome analysis of candidate introgressed regions in the wild
Grey junglefowl as well as the inclusion in further studies of the Red junglefowl subspecies
from the Indian subcontinent *G. g. murghi* may further clarify these issues. Interestingly,
amongst the introgressed haplotype regions in the Grey junglefowl, we found several
previously proposed chicken domestication genes (e.g. *DACH1, RAB28*) [34, 35] favouring
domestic chicken introgression events. Our results highlight the need for further studies of wild
Grey junglefowl populations to assess whether their genetic integrity is being threatened by
domestic chicken introgression.
381
We identified introgression from the Grey junglefowl into all domestic chicken populations
except in the Langshan, a breed originating from China. It supports the Indian subcontinent as
a major centre of origin and dispersion of domestic chicken towards Africa (Ethiopia), the
Arabian Peninsula (Saudi Arabia), Sri Lanka, Indonesia and Europe. Interestingly, Ethiopia is
the region with the largest proportion of introgressed Grey junglefowl haplotypes in domestic
chicken (Supplementary Table S2*B*), possibly a consequence of direct trading routes between
the Southern part of the Indian subcontinent and East Africa. It requires further investigation.
Surprisingly, we also find evidence of Grey junglefowl introgression into one of the wild Red
junglefowl. This Red junglefowl sample originated from the Yunnan Province in China [36],
well outside the geographic distribution of the Grey junglefowl confined to India. Here this
signature of introgression is likely the result of crossbreeding between domestic chicken and
local wild Red junglefowl. Introgression between domestic chicken and wild Red junglefowl
has been shown in the past using microsatellite loci in Vietnam [37]. By extension, this result
supports a movement of domestic chicken from the centre of origin on the Indian subcontinent
towards East and South-East Asia. This hypothesis is also supported by mtDNA analysis which
indicates the presence at low frequency of a mtDNA haplogroup in East Asia likely originated
from the Indian subcontinent [4].

Our results also highlight the limitations of the current approaches for introgression analysis
when dealing with closely related species, the need to include all candidate donor species for
the correct interpretation of the introgression patterns, and the importance to complement
genome-wide analysis of introgression with locus specific analyses including phylogenetic

analysis of haplotypes. The *Gallus* species phylogeny indicates that the Grey and the Ceylon junglefowls are sister species, which speciated after the separation of the Red junglefowl/domestic chicken lineages. Signatures of shared variation suggest that both species have introgressed domestic chicken. However, detailed analysis of candidate introgressed regions reveal that a majority of the Ceylon junglefowl candidate f_d correspond to introgression events involving the Grey junglefowl. This highlights a limitation of both genome wide *D*-statistics and local admixture proportions estimates when there are multiple closely-related donor species. Only a detailed assessment of all the significant f_d candidates using phylogenetic analyses allowed us to identify regions showing introgression from Ceylon junglefowl into domestic chicken. It should also be noted that the genome-wide estimated admixture proportions observed here between the domestic chicken and the Grey, Ceylon and Green junglefowls are likely underestimation following reference genome bias, with all samples aligned against Red junglefowl and in the case of the Grey junglefowl, the use of introgressed reference samples.

At the scale of individual candidate regions, we also observe a different pattern of introgression for Grey and Ceylon junglefowls. While we identify several strong cases of introgression from Grey junglefowl into domestic chicken, evidence for Ceylon junglefowl introgression are limited to one or two Sri Lankan domestic haplotypes at each introgressed region. Similarly, we only reveal one case of introgression from domestic into wild Ceylon junglefowl, a somewhat surprising result considering the potential for introgression in Sri Lanka and the sister relationship between the Ceylon and Grey junglefowls. While we cannot exclude a sampling artefact, the findings suggest that the effect of introgression from Ceylon junglefowl into domestic chicken is likely limited to Sri Lankan domestic birds only. Ceylon junglefowl produce fertile hybrids in captivity with both the Red and Grey junglefowls [5], and there is also anecdotal evidence of human-mediated crosses between male Ceylon junglefowl and female domestic chicken in Sri Lanka (Pradeepa Silva personal communication) to increase the cockfighting vigour of roosters [9].

Crosses between the Green junglefowl and domestic chicken are common in Indonesia [5] suggesting that introgression may have occurred in either direction between these species. The autosomal estimated admixture proportion (*f*) between the domestic chicken and the Green junglefowl is ~9%. It is ~7% for the Z chromosome (Table 2). However, our results support only a single compelling example of introgression from the Green junglefowl into domestic chicken. This signal is limited to the Langshan, a Chinese chicken breed. It may represent a legacy of movement of domestic birds from the Indonesian Islands to the East Asian continent. No candidate introgressed regions were detected in the Indonesian domestic chickens (Kedu Hitam and Sumatra). Introgression between the Green junglefowl and domestic chicken may be impeded by genetic barriers, given the greater time since divergence compared to that between Red junglefowl/domestic chicken and the Grey and Ceylon junglefowls.

There is increasing evidence for "adaptive" cross-species introgression amongst mammalian domesticates [38] as well as in humans [33]. A previous study suggests that the chicken yellow skin phenotype is the consequence of introgression event(s) from the Grey junglefowl into domestic chicken [10], a phenotype favoured by some chicken breeders and now fixed in several fancy and commercial breeds [10, 35]. Here, besides some traditional breeds (Langshan, Kedu Hitam Sumatra) with fixed morphological phenotypes, we analysed village chicken populations that are typically characterized by a high level of phenotypic diversity (e.g. plumage colour and pattern, morphology). Introgressed regions were not found fixed or

approaching fixation in any of the indigenous village chicken populations examined. Gene
ontology (GO) analysis reveals several biological functions related to the control of gene
expression (see Supplementary Table S3). Undoubtedly, these candidate introgressed regions
are contributing to the genome diversity of the domestic chicken and while we have no
evidence of positive selection at these introgressed regions [34], other selection pressures (e.g.
heterozygote advantage - balancing selection) may possibly be acting. Whether or these
introgression events influence the phenotypic diversity in village chickens is unclear, but it is
likely that variation in expression during post embryonic development as revealed by GO
analysis contributes to the wide variety of morphological phenotypes observed within and
across domestic chickens. For example, among several genes within haplotypes introgressed
from Grey junglefowl are *NOX3* and *GSC* involved in ear development and biogenesis of
otoconia supporting balance and gravity detection [39, 40]. Moreover, *CPEB3,* which is
associated with thermoception and enhancing memory [41, 42] could play central roles in
adaptation to new environmental challenges. *MME,* which plays a role in stimulating cytokine
production [43] and *RAP2B,* which is mainly expressed in the neutrophils for platelet activation
and aggregation [44] might also affect the immune system of introgressed chickens. Other
genes of interests include *CDC5L* and *FOXP2* introgressed from Ceylon junglefowl. The
former is a key mitotic progression regulator involved in DNA damage response [45] and the
latter is a gene involved in song learning in birds [46]. *IPO7* which is introgressed from Green
junglefowl is involved in the innate immune system [47].

In conclusion, our study reveals a polyphyletic origin of domestic chicken diversity with major
contributions from the Red junglefowl, but also introgression from the Grey, Ceylon and Green
junglefowls. These findings provide new insights into the domestication and evolutionary
history of the species. Considering the present geographic distributions of the non-red
junglefowl species and the dispersal history of domestic chickens, it is unsurprising that the
level of introgression amongst domestic populations varies from one geographic region to the
other as it will likely reflect their genetic histories. Similarly, analysis of more domestic
populations on a wider geographic scale may provide us with a detailed geographic map of the
presence and frequency of introgressed regions across the domestic chicken distribution. Our
results shed new light on the origin of the diversity of our most important agricultural livestock
species and illustrates the uniqueness of each local domestic chicken population across the
world.

Materials and Methods

Sampling and DNA extraction

Details of the 87 samples studied here and their geographic location of sampling distributions
are provided in Supplementary Table S1. Blood samples were collected from the wing vein of
27 indigenous village domestic chickens from three countries (i.e. Ethiopia (n = 11), Saudi
Arabia (n = 5) and Sri Lanka (n = 11)) [9, 34, 48], eight Chinese Langshan chicken sampled in
the United Kingdom, and 11 non-red junglefowl *Gallus* species (i.e. Grey (n = 2), Ceylon (n =
7) and Green (n = 2) junglefowls). Blood samples from five of the Ceylon junglefowls were
obtained from the wild in Uva province of Sri Lanka while the remaining two Ceylon
junglefowls blood were sampled from Koen Vanmechelen collection. The two common
Pheasants, *Phasianus colchicus* were sampled from the wild in the United Kingdom. Genomic
DNA was extracted following the standard phenol-chloroform extraction procedure method

[49]. For all, genome sequencing was performed on the Illumina HiSeq 2000/2500/X platforms
with an average depth of 30X coverage.
495
This dataset was complemented with genome sequences from two domestic fancy chicken
breeds (Poule de Bresse and Mechelse Koekoek), one Mechelse Styrian, a 16th generation
crossbred bird from the Cosmopolitan Chicken Research Project (CCRP:
https://www.koenvanmechelen.be/) and as well as one Red, Grey, Ceylon and Green
junglefowls sequences also from Koen Vanmechelen collection (www.koenvanmechelen.be/).
The publicly retrieved genome sequences of 15 Indonesian indigenous chickens (Sumatra, n =
5 and Kedu Hitam, n = 10) [50], three Javanese red junglefowl *G. g. bankiva* and nine Green
junglefowls [50], and five Red junglefowls, sampled in Yunnan or Hainan Provinces (People's
Republic of China)[36] were also included in our dataset. Genome sequence depth for these
birds ranges from 8X to 14X.

In total, these 87 genomes include 53 domestic chicken, 6 Red junglefowl, 3 Javanese red
junglefowl, 3 Grey junglefowl, 8 Ceylon junglefowl, 12 Green junglefowl and 2 common
Pheasants. The newly sequence reads of these birds are accessible at
https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/sra/PRJNA432200 or in the NCBI with the accession number
PRJNA432200.
511
Sequence mapping and variants calling

Raw reads were trimmed of adapter contamination at the sequencing centre (i.e BGI/Edinburgh
Genomics) and reads that contained more than 50% low quality bases (quality value ≤ 5) were
removed. Reads from all genomes were mapped independently to the *Galgal* 5.0 reference
genome [51] using the Burrows-Wheeler Aligner bwa mem option version 0.7.15 [52] and
duplicates were marked using Picard tools version 2.9.0
(http://broadinstitute.github.io/picard/). Following the genome analysis toolkit (GATK)
version 3.8.0 best practises [53], we performed local realignment around INDELs to minimize
the number of mismatching bases across all reads. To apply a base quality score recalibration
step to reduce the significance of any sequencing errors, we used a bootstrapping approach
across both the wild non-red junglefowls species and common Pheasants that has no known
sets of high-quality database SNPs. We applied same approach to the red junglefowl for
consistency. To do this, we ran an initial variant calling on individual unrecalibrated BAM files
and then extracted the variants with highest confidence based on the following criteria: --
filterexpression "QD < 2.0 || FS > 60.0 || MQ < 40.0". We then fed this initial high-quality
SNPs as input for known set of database SNPs. Finally, we did a real round of SNPs calling on
the recalibrated data. We ran these steps in a loop for multiple times until we reach convergence
for each sample.

To improve the genotype likelihoods for all samples using standard hard filtering parameters,
we followed the multi-sample aggregation approach, which jointly genotypes variants by
merging records of all samples using the '-ERC GVCF' mode in 'HaplotypeCaller'. We first
called variants per sample to generate an intermediate genomic (gVCF) file. Joint genotype
was performed for each species separately using 'GenotypeGVCFs' and then subsequently
merged with BCFtools version 1.4 [54]. Variants were called using Hard filtering "--
filterExpression "QD < 2.0 || FS > 60.0 || MQ < 40.0 || MQRankSum < -12.5 ||
ReadPosRankSum < -8.0". All downstream analyses were restricted to the autosomes, the Z
chromosome and the mitochondrial DNA.

The percentage of the mapped reads and read pairs properly mapped to the same chromosome
were calculated using SAMtools "flagstat" version 1.4 [54] while the number of SNPs per
sample were identified using VCFtools "vcf-stats" version 0.1.14 [55]. Summary statistics for
read mapping and genotyping are provided in Supplementary Table S1.

Population genetic structure

544 Principal component analysis was performed on the SNPs identified across the autosomes,
545 filtered with "--indep-pairwise 50 10 0.3", to visualise the genetic structure of the junglefowl
546 species using PLINK version 1.9 (http://pngu.mgh.harvard.edu/purcell/plink/) and was
547 complemented with analysis using ADMIXTURE version 1.3.0 [56], performed unsupervised
548 with default (folds = 5) for cross-validation in 5 runs with different number of clusters (K).

Species tree

To unravel the species tree of the genus, we constructed an autosomal Neigbour-Joining
phylogenetic tree using Phyml version 3.0 [57] and network using NeigborNet option of
SplitsTree version 4.14.6 (*splitstree.org*). First, the dataset was filtered to sites separated by at
least 1 kb and then converted to a phylip sequence file using scripts from
https://github.com/simonhmartin. We also constructed maximum likelihood tree on the exon
variants. This was done by first annotating the entire whole-genome vcf file with SnpEff and
then extracted different variants effect within the exons using SnpSift [58]. As with the above,
all trees including the Z chromosome were based on polymorphic sites but not for the mtDNA
(i.e. all consensus sequences were used). All trees were plotted using the General Time
Reversible (GTR) model of nucleotides substitution following its prediction by jModeltest
2.1.7 [59] and then viewed in MEGA 7.0 [60].

After phasing all the autosomal SNPs using SHAPEIT[61], we next performed "Topology
Weighting by Iterative Sampling of Sub-Trees" (*Twisst*) [22] which summarized the
relationships among multiple samples in a tree by providing a weighting for each possible sub-
tree topology. Neighbour-joining trees were generated for fixed 50-SNP windows using Phyml
3.0 [57]. Topologies were plotted in R using the package "APE" version 5.1 [62]. We ran the
TreeMix [63] in a block size of 1000 SNPs per window after having filtered the vcf file with
"maf 0.01" using PLINK version 1.9 (http://pngu.mgh.harvard.edu/purcell/plink/).

Species divergence time

To estimate the divergence time between the junglefowl species as well as with the common
Pheasant, we first estimated the approximate coalescence time, which include the divergence
that has accumulated from the present to the period of split and the divergence among the
average pair of individuals that was present in the ancestral population at the time of split,
using the equation:

$T = K/2r$ [64]

where K is the average sequence divergence for pairwise species. We included both the variant
and non-variant sites in the analysis of K which was run in every 100 kb region of the genome
with 20 kb step size. r is the Galliformes nucleotide substitution rate per site per year 1.3 (1.2
$- 1.5) \times 10^{-9}$ [65], T is the time in year.

Assuming the average diversity (π) across the descendant of junglefowl species is similar to
the diversity present in their ancestral population before each split, we estimated the divergence
time as below:

$T = (K - \pi)/2r$

Using the commonest species topology, the average $\pi = (\pi_{Pheasant} + (\pi_{Green} + ((\pi_{Grey} + \pi_{Ceylon})/2$
$+ (\pi_{Javanese\ Red} + \pi_{Red})/2)/2)/2$

Estimating tract lengths for shared haplotypes under incomplete lineage sorting

Using the approach of Huerta-Sánchez et al [66], we estimated the likely length of shared
haplotypes across the genome following incomplete ancestral lineage sorting. This was done
with the equation

$L = 1/(r \times t)$

where L is expected length of a shared ancestral sequence, r is recombination rate per
generation per bp (3×10^{-8} for chicken on the autosomes) [67] and t is the expected divergence
time across the junglefowls (~ 4 MYA), assuming one year generation time.

Detecting introgression

First, we computed D-statistics [23, 24] to test for a genome-wide excess of shared derived
allele(s) between two in-groups using the outgroup as representative of the ancestral state.
Considering the three in-groups, P_1 (Red junglefowl), P_2 (domestic chicken) and P_3 (Grey or
Ceylon or Green junglefowls), and an out-group O (common Pheasant), the expected
phylogeny is $(((P_1, P_2), P_3), O)$. ABBA denotes sites where the derived allele 'B' is shared
between the domestic chicken 'P_2' and the Grey or Ceylon or Green junglefowls 'P_3', while
the Red junglefowl 'P_1' shares the ancestral allele 'A' with the common Pheasant 'O'. BABA
denotes sites where the Red junglefowl 'P_1' shares the derived allele 'B' with 'P_3' while the
domestic chicken 'P_2' shares the same ancestral state with the outgroup 'O'. The majority of
ABBA and BABA patterns are due to incomplete lineage sorting but an excess of one over the
other can be indicative of introgression [23-25]. D is the relative excess computed as the
difference in the number of ABBA and BABA sites divided by the total number of ABBA and
BABA sites. Under the assumption of no gene flow and a neutral coalescent model, count of
both ABBA and BABA should be similar and D should tend to zero. We used the approach of
Durand et .al [24] to compute ABBA and BABA counts from allele frequencies, in which each
SNP contributes to the counts even if it is not fixed. We used the jackknife approach, with a
block size of 1 Mb to test for a significant deviation of D from zero (i.e consistent with
introgression), using a minimum Z score of 4 as significant. We then estimated the proportion
of admixture, f [23, 24]

Identifying introgression at particular loci and inferring the direction of introgression

614 To identify specific regions showing introgression between the domestic chicken and the non-
615 red junglefowl species, we used a combination of analyses. First, we estimated f_d [25], which
616 is based on the four-taxon ABBA-BABA statistics and was designed to detect and quantify
617 bidirectional introgression at particular loci [25], f_d was computed in 100 kb windows with a

20 kb step size. Each window was required to contains a minimum of 100 SNPs. The strongest candidate regions of introgression (highest elevated fd values) were visually assessed to determine the introgression size. We avoided the use of extreme tail end or cut-off approach to prevent losing out peaks harbouring introgression into domestic chicken as the majority of candidate introgression signals supports introgression from domestic chicken into Grey junglefowl. These fd regions were then extracted and further investigated using *Twisst* [22] to test for a deviation in topology weightings in the candidate regions. Here, we used only four taxa: domestic chicken, Red junglefowl, common Pheasant, and either the Grey, Ceylon or Green junglefowl.

Next, we constructed haplotype-based gene trees and networks to make inferences about the direction of gene flow. The expectation is that introgressed regions in domestic chicken from any of the non-red junglefowls will be indicated by finding chicken haplotypes nested within the donor species, or with the donor species haplotypes at the root of the introgressed ones. For regions in non-red junglefowls that are introgressed from domestic chicken, the expectation is that the introgressed haplotypes will be nested within the domestic chicken clade. To do this, sequences from the candidate introgressed regions were phased using SHAPEIT [61]. The phased haplotypes were converted into a variant call format file and subsequently formatted in Plink 1.9 [68] with the 'beagle recode' option, the output from which was provided as an input to a custom bash script to generate a FASTA file. The optimal molecular evolutionary model was inferred using jModeltest 2.1.7 [59] based on the Akaike information criterion (AIC). Phyml 3.0 [57] was used to compute the approximate likelihood ratio score for each branch using the best predicted model. For the network, we used the NeigborNet option of SplitsTree version 4.14.6 (*splitstree.org)*. The input file for the network was a distance matrix created using 'distMat.py' accessible at https://github.com/simonhmartin/genomics_general.

Finally, we examined levels of divergence between species to further validate our candidate regions. Introgression between domestic chicken and either the Grey, Ceylon or Green junglefowls is expected to reduce genetic divergence between the two species, regardless of the direction of introgression. Introgression into domestic chicken is expected to also increase divergence between domestic chicken and Red junglefowl, whereas introgression from domestic chicken into the Grey, Ceylon or Green junglefowl should not affect divergence between domestic chicken and Red junglefowl. We therefore computed relative (F_{ST}) and absolute (d_{XY}) measures of divergence between pairs using the script popgenWindows.py available at https://github.com/simonhmartin/genomics_general.

Remapping of candidate introgressed regions to GRCg6a

Following the recent release of new reference genome (GRCg6a), all candidate introgressed regions obtained from *Galgal* 5.0 were remapped using the NCBI remapper tool. All remapping options were set to the default threshold. The GRCg6a coordinates for the candidate introgressed regions and genes are reported here throughout the manuscript.

Gene ontology analysis

All candidate genes within the introgressed regions for different pairwise comparison and in different introgressed directions were used to determine their biological cluster functions using DAVID version 6.8 (https://david.ncifcrf.gov/summary.jsp). Only gene ontology with Fisher exact $P < 0.05$ default threshold were retained in this study.

Acknowledgements and Funding

This study was conducted during Raman Akinyanju Lawal PhD programme, supported by the University of Nottingham Vice Chancellor's Scholarship (International) award. Financial support for sampling and/or genome sequencing were obtained from the University of Nottingham, Biotechnology and Biological Sciences Research Council (BBSRC), the UK Department for International Development (DFID) and the Scottish Government (CIDLID program, BB/H009396/1, BB/H009159/1 and BB/H009051/1), BMGF Grant Agreement OPP1127286, the National Plan for Science, Technology and Innovation (MAARIFAH), King Abdulaziz City for Science and Technology, Kingdom of Saudi Arabia.

Author contributions

O.H. and R.A.L. designed and supervised the project with major contributions from S.H.M for the data analysis. P.S. contributed the DNA of five Ceylon junglefowls and domestic birds from Sri Lanka. R.M.A., R.S.A., and J.M.M. collected the samples and provided the DNA of the Saudi Arabian birds. All the captive junglefowl blood samples were collected from K.V. farm while their DNA preparation was performed by R.A.L., D.W. and O.H. The DNA preparation of the Ethiopian chickens were performed by J.M.M. The genome sequences of the fancy birds, one Red, Grey, Ceylon and Green junglefowls were contributed by K.V. and A.V. Langshan samples were collected by P.M.H with genome sequences information provided by D.D.W. and Y-P.Z. The genome sequence of Pheasant was provided by J.S. All data analyses were performed by R.A.L. The manuscript was prepared by R.A.L and substantially revised by O.H and S.H.M. All other authors reviewed and accepted the final draft of the manuscript.

Competing interests: All authors declare no competing interests

References

1.	Bennett CE, Thomas R, Williams M, Zalasiewicz J, Edgeworth M, Miller H, et al. The broiler chicken as a signal of a human reconfigured biosphere. Royal Society Open Science. 2018;5(12):180325.

2.	Darwin C. The variation of animals and plants under domestication. 2 ed: John Murray, United Kingdom; 1868.

3.	Fumihito A, Miyake T, Takada M, Shingu R, Endo T, Gojobori T, et al. Monophyletic origin and unique dispersal patterns of domestic fowls. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences. 1996;93(13):6792-5.

4.	Liu Y-P, Wu G-S, Yao Y-G, Miao Y-W, Luikart G, Baig M, et al. Multiple maternal origins of chickens: out of the Asian jungles. Molecular phylogenetics and evolution. 2006;38(1):12-9. doi: 10.1016/j.ympev.2005.09.014.

5.	Delacour J. The pheasant of the world. 2 ed: Saiga Publishing Co. Ltd. Surr GU26 GTD. England; 1977.

6.	Morejohn GV. Breakdown of isolation mechanisms in two species of captive junglefowl (*Gallus gallus* and *Gallus sonneratii*). Evolution. 1968;22(3):576-82.

7.	Danforth C. *Gallus sonnerati* and the domestic fowl. Journal of Heredity. 1958;49(4):167-70.

8. Nishibori M, Shimogiri T, Hayashi T, Yasue H. Molecular evidence for hybridization of
species in the genus *Gallus* except for *Gallus varius*. Animal Genetics. 2005;36(5):367-75. doi:
10.1111/j.1365-2052.2005.01318.x.
9. Lawal RA. Signatures of selection and introgression in the genus *Gallus* [PhD thesis].
Nottingham: University of Nottingham; 2018.
10. Eriksson J, Larson G, Gunnarsson U, Bed'hom B, Tixier-Boichard M, Strömstedt L, et al.
Identification of the yellow skin gene reveals a hybrid origin of the domestic chicken. PLoS
Genetics. 2008;4(2). doi: https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pgen.1000010.
11. Barton N. The role of hybridization in evolution. Molecular Ecology. 2001;10(3):551-
68.
12. Mina-Vargas AM, McKeown PC, Flanagan NS, Debouck DG, Kilian A, Hodkinson TR, et
al. Origin of year-long bean (*Phaseolus dumosus Macfady, Fabaceae*) from reticulated
hybridization events between multiple Phaseolus species. Annals of Botany. 2016;118(5):957-
69. doi: 10.1093/aob/mcw138.
13. Anderson TM, Candille SI, Musiani M, Greco C, Stahler DR, Smith DW, et al. Molecular
and evolutionary history of melanism in North American gray wolves. Science.
2009;323(5919):1339-43.
14. Shaklee WE, Knox C. Hybridization of the pheasant and fowl. Journal of Heredity.
1954;45(4):183-90. doi: https://doi.org/10.1093/oxfordjournals.jhered.a106471.
15. Rheindt FE, Edwards SV. Genetic introgression: an integral but neglected component
of speciation in birds. The Auk. 2011;128(4):620-32.
16. Ottenburghs J, Ydenberg RC, Van Hooft P, Van Wieren SE, Prins HH. The Avian Hybrids
Project: gathering the scientific literature on avian hybridization. Ibis. 2015;157(4):892-4.
17. Ottenburghs J, Kraus RH, van Hooft P, van Wieren SE, Ydenberg RC, Prins HH. Avian
introgression in the genomic era. Avian Research. 2017;8(1):30.
18. Barilani M, Bernard-Laurent A, Mucci N, Tabarroni C, Kark S, Garrido JAP, et al.
Hybridisation with introduced chukars (*Alectoris chukar*) threatens the gene pool integrity of
native rock (*A. graeca*) and red-legged (*A. rufa*) partridge populations. Biological
Conservation. 2007;137(1):57-69. doi: https://doi.org/10.1016/j.biocon.2007.01.014.
19. Chazara O, Minvielle F, Roux D, Bed'hom B, Feve K, Coville J-L, et al. Evidence for
introgressive hybridization of wild common quail (*Coturnix coturnix*) by domesticated
Japanese quail (*Coturnix japonica*) in France. Conservation Genetics. 2010;11(3):1051-62. doi:
10.1007/s10592-009-9951-8.
20. Dong L, Heckel G, Liang W, Zhang Y. Phylogeography of Silver Pheasant (*Lophura
nycthemera L*.) across China: aggregate effects of refugia, introgression and riverine barriers.
Molecular Ecology. 2013;22(12):3376-90. doi: 10.1111/mec.12315.
21. Castillo A, Marzoni M, Pirone A, Romboli I. Histological observations in testes of
hybrids of *Gallus gallus x Phasianuns colchicus*. Avian Biology Research. 2012;5(1):21-30.
22. Martin SH, Van Belleghem SM. Exploring evolutionary relationships across the
genome using topology weighting. Genetics. 2017;205(4).
23. Green RE, Krause J, Briggs AW, Maricic T, Stenzel U, Kircher M, et al. A draft sequence
of the Neandertal genome. Science. 2010;328(5979):710-22. doi: 10.1126/science.1188021.
24. Durand EY, Patterson N, Reich D, Slatkin M. Testing for ancient admixture between
closely related populations. Molecular Biology and Evolution. 2011;28(8):2239-52. doi:
10.1093/molbev/msr048.

25.   Martin SH, Davey JW, Jiggins CD. Evaluating the use of ABBA–BABA statistics to locate
introgressed loci. Molecular Biology and Evolution. 2015;32(1):244-57. doi:
10.1093/molbev/msu269.
26.   Fuller DQ. Agricultural origins and frontiers in South Asia: a working synthesis. Journal
of World Prehistory. 2006;20(1):1-86.
27.   West B, Zhou B-X. Did chickens go north? New evidence for domestication. Journal of
Archaeological Science. 1988;15:515-33.
28.   Eo SH, Bininda-Emonds ORP, Carroll JP. A phylogenetic supertree of the fowls
(Galloanserae, Aves). Zoologica Scripta. 2009;38(5):465-81.
29.   Jetz W, Thomas G, Joy J, Hartmann K, Mooers A. The global diversity of birds in space
and time. Nature. 2012;491(7424):444.
30.   Li X, Huang Y, Lei F. Comparative mitochondrial genomics and phylogenetic
relationships of the Crossoptilon species (Phasianidae, Galliformes). BMC genomics.
2015;16(1):42.
31.   Meiklejohn CD, Landeen EL, Gordon KE, Rzatkiewicz T, Kingan SB, Geneva AJ, et al.
Gene flow mediates the role of sex chromosome meiotic drive during complex speciation.
eLife. 2018;7:e35468.
32.   Liang M, Nielsen R. The lengths of admixture tracts. Genetics. 2014:genetics.
114.162362.
33.   Racimo F, Sankararaman S, Nielsen R, Huerta-Sánchez E. Evidence for archaic adaptive
introgression in humans. Nature Reviews Genetics. 2015;16(6):359-71. doi: 10.1038/nrg3936.
34.   Lawal RA, Al-Atiyat RM, Aljumaah RS, Silva P, Mwacharo JM, Hanotte O. Whole-
Genome Resequencing of Red Junglefowl and Indigenous Village Chicken Reveal New Insights
on the Genome Dynamics of the Species. Frontiers in genetics. 2018;9. doi:
10.3389/fgene.2018.00264.
35.   Rubin C-J, Zody MC, Eriksson J, Meadows JR, Sherwood E, Webster MT, et al. Whole-
genome resequencing reveals loci under selection during chicken domestication. Nature.
2010;464(7288):587. doi: https://doi.org/10.1038/nature08832.
36.   Wang M-S, Li Y, Peng M-S, Zhong L, Wang Z-J, Li Q-Y, et al. Genomic analyses reveal
potential independent adaptation to high altitude in Tibetan chickens. Molecular Biology and
Evolution. 2015;32(7):1880-9. doi: 10.1093/molbev/msv071.
37.   Berthouly C, Leroy G, Van TN, Thanh HH, Bed'Hom B, Nguyen BT, et al. Genetic analysis
of local Vietnamese chickens provides evidence of gene flow from wild to domestic
populations. BMC Genetics. 2009;10(1):1. doi: https://doi.org/10.1186/1471-2156-10-1.
38.   Ai H, Fang X, Yang B, Huang Z, Chen H, Mao L, et al. Adaptation and possible ancient
interspecies introgression in pigs identified by whole-genome sequencing. Nature Genetics.
2015;47(3):217-25. doi: https://doi.org/10.1038/ng.3199.
39.   Ueno N, Takeya R, Miyano K, Kikuchi H, Sumimoto H. The NADPH Oxidase Nox3
Constitutively Produces Superoxide in a p22phox-dependent Manner its regulation by
oxidase organizers and activators. Journal of Biological Chemistry. 2005;280(24):23328-39.
doi: 10.1074/jbc.M414548200.
40.   Yamada G, Mansouri A, Torres M, Stuart ET, Blum M, Schultz M, et al. Targeted
mutation of the murine goosecoid gene results in craniofacial defects and neonatal death.
Development. 1995;121(9):2917-22.
41.   Chao H-W, Tsai L-Y, Lu Y-L, Lin P-Y, Huang W-H, Chou H-J, et al. Deletion of CPEB3
enhances hippocampus-dependent memory via increasing expressions of PSD95 and NMDA

receptors. Journal of Neuroscience. 2013;33(43):17008-22. doi: 10.1523/jneurosci.3043-
13.2013.
42. Fong SW, Lin H-C, Wu M-F, Chen C-C, Huang Y-S. CPEB3 deficiency elevates TRPV1
expression in dorsal root ganglia neurons to potentiate thermosensation. PloS one.
2016;11(2):e0148491. doi: https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0148491.
43. Morisaki N, Moriwaki S, Sugiyama-Nakagiri Y, Haketa K, Takema Y, Imokawa G.
Neprilysin is identical to skin fibroblast elastase-its role in skin ageing and UV responses.
Journal of Biological Chemistry. 2010:jbc. M110. 161547. doi: 10.1074/jbc.M110.161547.
44. Greco F, Sinigaglia F, Balduini C, Torti M. Activation of the small GTPase Rap2B in
agonist-stimulated human platelets. Journal of Thrombosis and Haemostasis.
2004;2(12):2223-30. doi: 10.1111/j.1538-7836.2004.01018.x.
45. Mu R, Wang Y, Wu M, Yang Y, Song W, Li T, et al. Depletion of pre-mRNA splicing factor
Cdc5L inhibits mitotic progression and triggers mitotic catastrophe. Cell death & disease.
2014;5(3):e1151. doi: 10.1038/cddis.2014.117.
46. Pfenning AR, Hara E, Whitney O, Rivas MV, Wang R, Roulhac PL, et al. Convergent
transcriptional specializations in the brains of humans and song-learning birds. Science.
2014;346(6215):1256846.
47. Yang IV, Wade CM, Kang HM, Alper S, Rutledge H, Lackford B, et al. Identification of
novel genes that mediate innate immunity using inbred mice. Genetics. 2009. doi:
10.1534/genetics.109.107540.
48. Desta T, Dessie T, Bettridge J, Lynch S, Melese K, Collins M, et al. Signature of artificial
selection and ecological landscape on morphological structures of Ethiopian village chickens.
Animal Genetic Resources. 2013;52:17-29.
49. Bruford M, Hanotte O, Brookfield J, Burke T. Single-locus and multilocus DNA
fingerprinting. 2 ed: ed. Hoelzel AR, IRL Press, Oxford, UK; 1998. 225-69 p.
50. Ulfah M, Kawahara-Miki R, Farajalllah A, Muladno M, Dorshorst B, Martin A, et al.
Genetic features of red and green junglefowls and relationship with Indonesian native
chickens Sumatera and Kedu Hitam. BMC genomics. 2016;17(1):1. doi: 10.1186/s12864-016-
2652-z.
51. Warren WC, Hillier LW, Tomlinson C, Minx P, Kremitzki M, Graves T, et al. A new
chicken genome assembly provides insight into avian genome structure. G3: Genes,
Genomes, Genetics. 2016. doi: https://doi.org/10.1534/g3.116.035923.
52. Li H, Durbin R. Fast and accurate long-read alignment with Burrows–Wheeler
transform. Bioinformatics. 2010;26(5):589-95. doi: 10.1093/bioinformatics/btp698.
53. Auwera GA, Carneiro MO, Hartl C, Poplin R, del Angel G, Levy-Moonshine A, et al. From
FastQ data to high-confidence variant calls: The genome analysis toolkit best practices
pipeline. Current Protocols in Bioinformatics. 2013;43:11.0.1-33. doi:
10.1002/0471250953.bi1110s43.
54. Li H, Handsaker B, Wysoker A, Fennell T, Ruan J, Homer N, et al. The sequence
alignment/map format and SAMtools. Bioinformatics. 2009;25(16):2078-9. doi:
10.1093/bioinformatics/btp352.
55. Danecek P, Auton A, Abecasis G, Albers CA, Banks E, DePristo MA, et al. The variant
call format and VCFtools. Bioinformatics. 2011;27(15):2156-8. doi:
10.1093/bioinformatics/btr330.

56. Alexander DH, Novembre J, Lange K. Fast model-based estimation of ancestry in
unrelated individuals. Genome research. 2009;19(9):1655-64. doi: doi:
10.1101/gr.094052.109.
57. Guindon S, Gascuel O. A simple, fast, and accurate algorithm to estimate large
phylogenies by maximum likelihood. Systematic Biology. 2003;52(5):696-704.
58. Cingolani P, Platts A, Wang LL, Coon M, Nguyen T, Wang L, et al. A program for
annotating and predicting the effects of single nucleotide polymorphisms, SnpEff: SNPs in the
genome of Drosophila melanogaster strain w1118; iso-2; iso-3. Fly. 2012;6(2):80-92.
59. Darriba D, Taboada GL, Doallo R, Posada D. jModelTest 2: more models, new heuristics
and parallel computing. Nature Methods. 2012;9(8):772-.
60. Kumar S, Stecher G, Tamura K. MEGA7: Molecular Evolutionary Genetics Analysis
version 7.0 for bigger datasets. Molecular Biology and Evolution. 2016;33(7):1870-4. doi:
10.1093/molbev/msw054.
61. Delaneau O, Howie B, Cox AJ, Zagury J-F, Marchini J. Haplotype estimation using
sequencing reads. The American Journal of Human Genetics. 2013;93(4):687-96. doi:
https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ajhg.2013.09.002.
62. Paradis E, Schliep K, Schwartz R. APE 5.0: an environment for modern phylogenetics
and evolutionary analyses in R. Bioinformatics. 2018;1:3. doi:
https://doi.org/10.1093/bioinformatics/bty633.
63. Pickrell JK, Pritchard JK. Inference of population splits and mixtures from genome-
wide allele frequency data. PLoS genetics. 2012;8(11):e1002967. doi:
https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pgen.1002967.
64. Kimura M. A simple method for estimating evolutionary rates of base substitutions
through comparative studies of nucleotide sequences. Journal of molecular evolution.
1980;16(2):111-20.
65. Ellegren H. Molecular evolutionary genomics of birds. Cytogenetic and genome
research. 2007;117(1-4):120-30.
66. Huerta-Sánchez E, Jin X, Bianba Z, Peter BM, Vinckenbosch N, Liang Y, et al. Altitude
adaptation in Tibetans caused by introgression of Denisovan-like DNA. Nature.
2014;512(7513):194.
67. Groenen MA, Wahlberg P, Foglio M, Cheng HH, Megens H-J, Crooijmans RP, et al. A
high-density SNP-based linkage map of the chicken genome reveals sequence features
correlated with recombination rate. Genome research. 2009;19(3):510-9.
68. Chang CC, Chow CC, Tellier LC, Vattikuti S, Purcell SM, Lee JJ. Second-generation PLINK:
rising to the challenge of larger and richer datasets. Gigascience. 2015;4(1):7. doi:
https://doi.org/10.1186/s13742-015-0047-8.

877
878

Figures and Tables

884
885
886
Fig. 1: (**A**) The geographic distribution of the four junglefowl species. The sympatric zones
where Indian red junglefowl (*Gallus gallus murghi*) overlap with the Grey junglefowl on the
Indian subcontinent and Javanese red junglefowl (*Gallus gallus* bankiva) overlap with the
Green junglefowl on the Indonesian Islands are annotated with red dots on the map. The map
was drawn by overlaying the distribution map of each species obtained from the Handbook of
the Birds of the World (consulted in December 2018). Junglefowl species photo credits: Peter
Ericsson (Red junglefowl), Clement Francis (Grey junglefowl), Markus Lilje (Ceylon
junglefowl), Eric Tan (Green junglefowl). (**B**) Principal component and (**C**) Admixture
analysis to establish the species relatedness and genetic structures from the autosomal
sequences. ◆: Red junglefowl, ◆: Javanese red junglefowl, ◆: Grey junglefowl, ◆: Ceylon
junglefowl, ◆: Green junglefowl

898
899
Fig. 2. The genome-wide phylogeny of the genus *Gallus.* The figures (***A***), (***C***) and (***D***) are
based on Neighbour-Joining phylogenetic trees on the autosomes, Z chromosome and
mitochondrial DNA, respectively. The figure (***B***) is the distance matrix of the autosomes
constructed from the NeighbourNet network of SplitsTree4. The three Grey junglefowl
mtDNA haplotypes in (***D***) are embedded within the domestic/Red junglefowl lineage,
indicated with the black arrow. All the trees were rooted with the common Pheasant
Phasianus colchicus. The colours defining each species are; ◆: Domestic chicken, ◆: Red
junglefowl, ◆: Javanese red junglefowl, ◆: Grey junglefowl, ◆: Ceylon junglefowl, ◆:
Green junglefowl, ◆: common Pheasant.

909
910
Fig. 3. Topology weighting by iterative sampling of sub-trees (*Twisst*) for all the (*A*) 15
possible topologies (T1 – T15) from five taxa: Red junglefowl 'or' Javanese red junglefowl
(RoJ), Grey junglefowl (Gy), Ceylon junglefowl (Cy), Green junglefowl (Gn) and Common
Pheasant (CP). As the number of possible topologies work best for maximum of five taxa
(Martin & Van Belleghem, 2017) and with the presence of six taxa in this study, we ran the
analysis twice; one with (*B*) Red junglefowl (R) 'or' with (*C*) Javanese Red junglefowl (J).
(see materials and methods for detail on how this was done). The average weighting (%) for
each of the 15 topologies is included in each bar and as well indicated on the *Y* axis.
919
920

921
Fig. 4. The f_d plots test for the comparison between Grey junglefowl and domestic chicken
populations from (**A**) Ethiopia and Saudi Arabia, (**B**) Sri Lanka (**C**) South-East and East Asia.
The candidate introgressed regions reported here and their sizes are indicated above each
peak (see also Supplementary Table S2). Bold values are introgressed regions from domestic
chicken/Red junglefowl into Grey junglefowl, plain values are introgressed regions from
Grey junglefowl into domestic chicken. *Y* axis: f_d value spanning 0 to 1, *X* axis: autosomal
chromosomes numbers from 1 - 28. See Supplementary figures S12 and S15 for the domestic
– Ceylon comparison and domestic – Green junglefowl comparison, respectively.

931
932
Fig. 5. A 120 kb (Chr 6: 21729370 – 21849500 bp) introgressed region from Grey junglefowl
into domestic chicken. (*A*) f_d plot for the zoom region, (*B*) *Twisst* plot, its topologies and their
proportions. The most consistent topology (80%) has monophyletic relationship between
targetDom (introgressed domestic haplotypes) and Grey junglefowl. (*C*) *dxy* and (*D*) *Fst* for
the zoom region. Eth, Sau, SriLanka, Lang, Ked and Sum are domestic chickens from
Ethiopia, Saudi, Sri Lanka and Langshan, KeduHitam and Sumatra breeds, respectively.
targetDom are the introgressed domestic chicken haplotypes from Grey junglefowl (GreyJ)
denoted as (*) in (*E*) haplotype-based network and (*F*) maximum likelihood tree for the
region. The colours defining each population in (*E*) and (*F*) are: ◆: domestic chicken; ◆:
Red junglefowl, ◆: Javanese red junglefowl, ◆: Grey junglefowl, ◆: Ceylon junglefowl,
◆: Green junglefowl, ◆: common Pheasant.

944
945
946

Fig. 6. Topologies (*Twisst*), their estimated proportions and network analyses for the introgression from (*A*) domestic chicken to Grey junglefowl (2.8 Mb, Chr 4: 76429662 - 79206200 bp), (*B*) Ceylon junglefowl to domestic chicken (600 kb, Chr 3: 108325801 - 108925700 bp), (*C*)) domestic chicken/Red junglefowl to Ceylon junglefowl (100 kb, Chr5: 49333700 - 49433700 bp), and (*D*) Green junglefowl to domestic chicken (100 kb, Chr 5: 9538700 - 9638700 bp). (*) introgressed haplotypes. The targetGreyJ, targetDom and targetCeylon in the *Twisst* are the introgressed Grey junglefowl, domestic chicken and Ceylon junglefowl haplotypes, respectively as revealed by the network.

954   **Table 1.** Divergence time estimates between junglefowl species and with the Common Pheasant. Time in "years". CT is the coalescence
955   time (i.e. sum of time before and after split), DT is the divergence time (i.e. time from the split to the present).
956

Pairwise species comparison	CT (years)	95% confidence interval (years)	DT (years)	95% confidence interval (years)
Domestic chicken - Red junglefowl	2,060,419	1,785,697 ≥ CT ≤ 2,232,121	8,093	7,014 ≥ DT ≤ 8,768
Red junglefowl - Javanese red junglefowl	2,679,697	2,322,404 ≥ CT ≤ 2,903,005	1,164,612	1,009,331 ≥ DT ≤ 1,261,663
Red junglefowl - Grey junglefowl	4,072,106	3,529,159 ≥ CT ≤ 4,411,448	2,557,021	2,216,085 ≥ DT ≤ 2,770,106
Javanese red junglefowl - Grey junglefowl	4,161,441	3,606,582 ≥ CT ≤ 4,508,228	2,646,356	2,293,509 ≥ DT ≤ 2,866,886
Grey junglefowl - Ceylon junglefowl	3,282,030	2,844,426 ≥ CT ≤ 3,555,533	1,766,945	1,531,352 ≥ DT ≤ 1,914,191
Red junglefowl - Ceylon junglefowl	4,357,225	3,776,262 ≥ CT ≤ 4,720,327	2,842,140	2,463,188 ≥ DT ≤ 3,078,985
Javanese red junglefowl - Ceylon junglefowl	4,379,681	3,795,723 ≥ CT ≤ 4,744,654	2,864,596	2,482,650 ≥ DT ≤ 3,103,312
Red junglefowl - Green junglefowl	5,211,015	4,516,213 ≥ CT ≤ 5,645,266	4,057,810	3,516,769 ≥ DT ≤ 4,395,961
Javanese red junglefowl - Green junglefowl	5,212,814	4,517,772 ≥ CT ≤ 5,647,215	4,059,609	3,518,328 ≥ DT ≤ 4,397,910
Grey junglefowl - Green junglefowl	5,145,901	4,459,781 ≥ CT ≤ 5,574,726	3,992,696	3,460,337 ≥ DT ≤ 4,325,421
Ceylon junglefowl - Green junglefowl	5,150,532	4,463,794 ≥ CT ≤ 5,579,743	3,997,328	3,464,351 ≥ DT ≤ 4,330,438
Red junglefowl - Common Pheasant	21,885,883	18,967,766 ≥ CT ≤ 23,709,707	20,736,660	17,971,772 ≥ DT ≤ 22,464,715
Javanese red junglefowl - Common Pheasant	22,083,637	19,139,152 ≥ CT ≤ 23,923,940	20,934,414	18,143,159 ≥ DT ≤ 22,678,949
Grey junglefowl - Common Pheasant	22,136,134	19,184,649 ≥ CT ≤ 23,980,812	20,986,911	18,188,656 ≥ DT ≤ 22,735,820
Ceylon junglefowl - Common Pheasant	22,174,484	19,217,886 ≥ CT ≤ 24,022,357	21,025,261	18,221,892 ≥ DT ≤ 22,777,366
Green junglefowl - Common Pheasant	22,510,922	19,509,466 ≥ CT ≤ 24,386,832	21,361,699	18,513,472 ≥ DT ≤ 23,141,840

957
958

959   **Table 2.** Patterson's D statistics and quantification of admixture proportion
960

Domestic	Junglefowls	Patterson's *D*-statistics			Admixture proportion (*f*)	
		D	**Jackknife SD**	**Z score**	***f* estimates**	**95% confidence interval**
Autosomes (chromosomes 1 – 28)						
Domestic	Grey junglefowl	0.069	0.056	37.854	0.124	$0.107 \geq f \leq 0.141$
Domestic	Ceylon junglefowl	0.055	0.046	36.776	0.142	$0.134 \geq f \leq 0.150$
Domestic	Green junglefowl	0.052	0.047	34.236	0.086	$0.081 \geq f \leq 0.091$
Z chromosome						
Domestic	Grey junglefowl	0.041	0.089	4.177	0.059	$0.031 \geq f \leq 0.086$
Domestic	Ceylon junglefowl	0.042	0.086	4.514	0.099	$0.056 \geq f \leq 0.141$
Domestic	Green junglefowl	0.041	0.088	4.246	0.071	$0.038 \geq f \leq 0.103$