# Important candidate genes for abdominal fat content identified by linkage disequilibrium and fixation index information

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ABSTRACT Selection for rapid growth in chickens has always been accompanied by increased fat deposition and excessive fat deposition, especially abdominal fat, cannot only decrease feed efficiency but also cause many diseases. Finding the candidate genes associated with abdominal fat deposition is essential for breeding. To identify these candidate genes, we applied linkage disequilibrium and selection signature analysis using chicken 60 k single nucleotide polymorphism (SNP) chips in two broiler lines divergently selected for abdominal fat content for 11 generations. After quality control, 46,033 SNPs were left for analysis. Using these SNPs, we found that  $r^2$  was 0.06 to 0.14 in the lean line and 0.07 to 0.13 in the fat line for all 28 chromosomes (except GGA16). Pairwise SNP distances <25 kb showed a mean  $r^2 = 0.33$  in the lean line and  $r^2 = 0.32$  in the fat line. The fixation index

 $(F_{\rm ST})$  analysis was carried out and 46 SNPs with the top 0.1% of the  $F_{\rm ST}$  value was detected as the loci with selection signatures. Besides  $F_{ST}$ , hapFLK was also used to detect selection signatures for abdominal fat content. A total of 11 genes, including transient receptor potential cation channel subfamily C member 4, estrogen related receptor gamma, fibroblast growth factor 13, G-protein-signaling modulator 2. RAR related orphan receptor A, phospholipase A2 group X, mitochondrial ribosomal protein L28, metadherin, calcitonin receptor like receptor, serine/threonine kinase 39, and nuclear factor I A, were detected as the important candidate genes for abdominal fat deposition based on their basic functions. The results of the present study may benefit the understanding of genetic mechanism of abdominal fat deposition in chicken.

Key words: chicken, abdominal fat, linkage disequilibrium,  $F_{\rm ST}$ , hapFLK

2019 Poultry Science 98:581–589 http://dx.doi.org/10.3382/ps/pey426

#### INTRODUCTION

The chicken (Gallus gallus) is an important model organism that bridges the evolutionary gap between mammals and other vertebrates (International Chicken Genome Sequencing Consortium, 2004). Selection for rapid growth in chickens has always been accompanied by an increased fat deposition (Havenstein et al., 1994; Nones et al., 2006). Excessive fat deposition can decrease feed efficiency and cause consumer rejection of the meat (Kessler et al., 2000), and increase difficulties in meat processing (Chambers, 1990). Knowledge of the genetic factors associated with fatness will facilitate genetic selection using genetic markers. Linkage disequilibrium (LD) is the nonrandom association of alleles at two or more loci (Qanbari et al., 2010). Generally speaking, selection could affect the extent of dis-

Received February 27, 2018.

Accepted August 21, 2018.

equilibrium (Ardlie et al., 2002). The allele frequency that related with a favored variant had important effects on the traits of interest can rapidly increase or even fix after several generations of selection (Parsch et al., 2001; Verrelli and Eanes, 2001; Wang et al., 2002). There are several methods to detect this kind of selection signatures in domestic animals, including fixation index  $(F_{ST})$ , which was originally proposed by Wright (1922).  $F_{\rm ST}$  approach was most frequently used in comparing between two or more breeds to detect selection signatures (Flori et al., 2009; Kijas et al., 2009; MacEachern et al., 2009; Pintus et al., 2014).  $F_{\rm ST}$  core could also be used as an external source of information in genomics selection analysis (Chang et al., 2018). In the present study, the Northeast Agricultural University broiler lines divergently selected for abdominal fat content (**NEAUHLF**) for 11 yr was used. Therefore, we proposed that the structure of the genome may affected by the selection for abdominal fat content and the regions containing single nucleotide polymorphism  $(\mathbf{SNPs})$  with a high  $F_{\mathrm{ST}}$  value may harbor genes that important for abdominal fat deposition. The aims of

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the present study were to construct a high-resolution LD map of broilers and to detect the important genes for abdominal fat deposition in chicken based on the LD and  $F_{\rm ST}$  results.

# MATERIALS AND METHODS

# Ethics Statement

All animal work was conducted according to the guidelines for the Care and Use of Experimental Animals established by the Ministry of Science and Technology of the People's Republic of China (approval number: 2006–398), and approved by the Laboratory Animal Management Committee of Northeast Agricultural University.

# Animals

In total, 475 birds (203 from the lean line and 272 from the fat line) from the eleventh-generation population of NEAUHLF were used. Detailed information about NEAUHLF has been previously published (Zhang et al., 2012). After 11 generations of divergent selection for abdominal fatness, the abdominal fat percentage of the fat broiler line at 7 wk was 3.59 times higher than the lean line. All birds were kept in similar environmental conditions and had free access to feed and water.

#### Genotyping and Quality Control

Genomic DNA samples were extracted from blood using a standard phenol/chloroform method, and DNA sample quality was determined using spectrophotometry and agarose gel electrophoresis. Illumina chicken 60 k SNP chip containing 57,636 SNPs was used. Genotyping data were generated using BeadStudio (Version 3.2.2). We used only SNPs with assigned positions on autosomes (galGal 5). The SNPs were filtered with the call rate <95%, and individuals with pedigree error or 5% or more missing SNP genotypes were removed.

# LD Estimation

Pairwise  $r^2$  estimation was used to measure LD between pairs of SNPs using Haploview v4.1 (Barrett et al., 2005) for SNPs on autosomal chromosomes 1–28 that had passed the quality controls described above. The  $r^2$ , defined as squared correlation coefficient of alleles at two loci, was measured (Lu et al., 2012). To visualize LD patterns in the two lines,  $r^2$  values were placed in ascending order based on physical distances between corresponding SNP pairs. A rolling average of LD was calculated as the arithmetic mean of all  $r^2$  values for SNP pairs in 25-kb intervals and plotted against physical distance between SNPs. The average  $r^2$  of the lean and fat lines was compared using t-test, and P < 0.05 means significant different.

# Genome Scans for Selection Signatures Using FST and hapFLK

In the present study, the Genepop v4.2 was used to calculate  $F_{\rm ST}$  using the 46,033 SNPs in the lean and fat lines. The top 0.1% and 1% of the SNPs according to the  $F_{\rm ST}$  value were selected as harbor selection signatures at two threshold levels.

The hapFLK software, which could potentially account for population structure and reduce the number of false positives, was also used to detect selection signatures for abdominal fat deposition (Fariello et al., 2013; Gholami et al., 2015). The number K of haplotype clusters was set to 10 according to cross-validation procedure implemented in the fastPHASE software. Significant level was adjusted by false discovery rate (**FDR**), which was calculated using the formula FDR =  $m^*P(i)i$ , where m was the total number of tests and p(i) was the P-value at rank i when the P-values were ranked from least to highest (Benjamini and Hochberg 1995; Weller et al., 1998).

Annotated genes related to the SNPs identified with selection signatures were obtained from the UCSC Genome Browser Gateway (http://genome.ucsc.edu/) using the chicken genome galGal 5. Functional annotation of genes was performed using DAVID bioinformatics resources 6.8 (http://david.abcc.ncifcrf.gov/summary.jsp) for Gene Ontology terms and Kyoto Encyclopedia of Genes and Genomes pathway analysis. Statistical significance was determined using a P-value < 0.05.

#### RESULTS

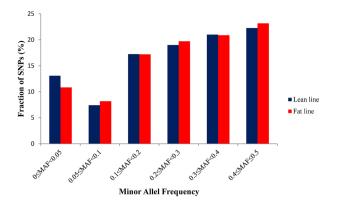
### **Marker Statistics**

The number of SNPs that remained after quality control that were used in subsequent analyses was 46,033 for the lean and fat lines (Table 1). These SNPs were distributed on 28 autosomes and covered about 950 Mb with an average SNP interval of 23 kb.

Distributions of minor allel frequency (MAF) for SNPs for the lean and fat lines are shown in Figure 1. More than 60% of SNPs for both lines had a MAF > 0.2.

 Table 1. Characteristics of marker panels used in lean and fat lines.

Single nucleotide polymorphism (SNP) marker information	Lean line	Fat line	
Number of SNPs used	46,033	46,033	
Genome coverage (Mb)	950.43	950.95	
Mean adjacent marker spacing (kb)	23.75	23.17	
Mean MAF	0.25	0.26	
Mean $F_{\rm ST}$	0.12		



**Figure 1.** Distribution of MAF of single nucleotide polymorphism (SNPs) after quality control for the lean and fat lines.

**Table 2.** Average  $r^2$  for each chromosome.

	$r^2$		
Chromosome	Lean line	Fat line	
1	0.13	0.13	
2	0.14	0.12	
3	0.14	0.11	
4	0.14	0.12	
5	0.13	0.12	
6	0.12	0.10	
7	0.13	0.12	
8	0.12	0.11	
9	0.11	0.10	
10	0.11	0.11	
11	0.15	0.11	
12	0.13	0.10	
13	0.12	0.11	
14	0.11	0.11	
15	0.11	0.09	
16	0.67	0.19	
17	0.09	0.08	
18	0.09	0.09	
19	0.07	0.08	
20	0.10	0.11	
21	0.10	0.07	
22	0.08	0.08	
23	0.08	0.07	
24	0.08	0.08	
25	0.10	0.07	
26	0.06	0.08	
27	0.07	0.07	
28	0.07	0.07	

The lean and fat lines had similar patterns of MAF distributions.

# Linkage Disequilibrium

The extent of LD in the lean and fat lines was examined using Haploview software. LD was calculated as  $r^2$ for the two lines. In the lean line,  $r^2$  ranged from 0.06 to 0.14 for every chromosome except GGA16 ( $r^2 = 0.67$ ), which contained few SNPs. In the fat line,  $r^2$  ranged from 0.07 to 0.13 for every chromosome except GGA16 ( $r^2 = 0.19$ ), which also contained few SNPs (Table 2).

LD patterns were similar for the lean and fat lines. In both lines, LD declined as the distance between markers increased (Figure 2). The relationship between LD and physical distance of SNPs in the lines is in Table 3. In

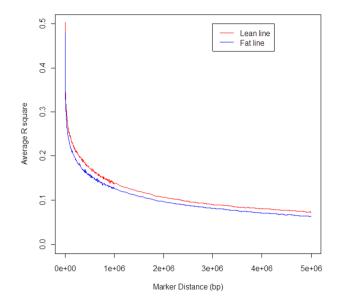


Figure 2. Decay of linkage disequilibrium (LD) with distance over the entire genome.

**Table 3.** Comparison of linkage disequilibrium (LD) strengthvs. physical distance.

Distance (kb)	$r^2$		
	Lean line	Fat line	
<25	0.33	0.32	
25-50	0.29	0.27	
50 - 75	0.26	0.24	
75-100	0.25	0.23	
100-200	0.23	0.21	
200-500	0.19	0.17	
500-1500	0.14	0.13	
1500-3000	0.10	0.09	
3000-5000	0.08	0.07	

the lean line, mean  $r^2 = 0.33$  was observed for pairwise distances <25 kb, dropping to  $r^2 = 0.25$  for 75 to 100 kb. In the fat line, overall mean  $r^2 = 0.32$  was observed for SNPs <25 kb apart, dropping to 0.23 at 75 to 100 kb (Table 3). Overall, the fat line had significant lower LD than the lean line (Table 3), indicating that selection led to different changes in genetic structure in the lean and fat lines.

# Genome Scans for Selection Signatures Using FST and hapFLK

 $F_{\rm ST}$  was estimated between the two lines using the common 46,033 SNPs after quality control (Figures 3 and 4). Overall, the average  $F_{\rm ST}$  was 0.12, suggesting substantial genetic differentiation between the lean and fat lines. There were 460 SNPs with top 1%  $F_{\rm ST}$ scores detected (Table S1, Supplementary Information). The 46 SNPs with the top 0.1%  $F_{\rm ST}$  value were identified as the selection signatures (Table 4). The nearest genes of these 46 SNPs were detected and a total of 37 genes were identified (Table 4). Three Gene Ontology terms, including heterophilic cell-cell adhesion via plasma membrane cell adhesion molecules, intercalated

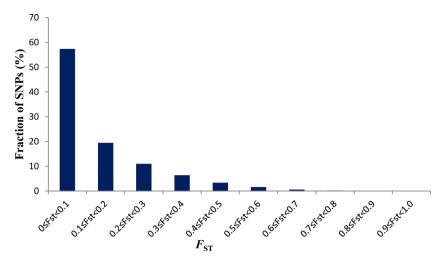


Figure 3. Distribution of  $F_{\rm ST}$  scores in the lean and fat lines.

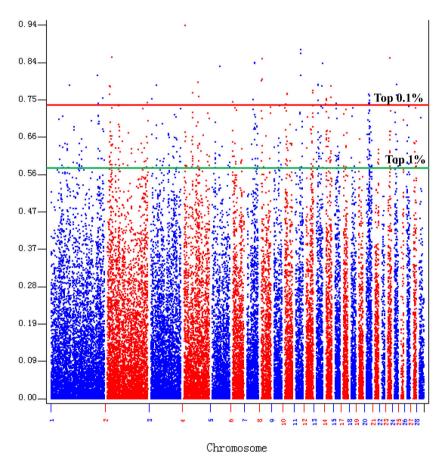


Figure 4. Manhattan plot of  $F_{\text{ST}}$  value between the lean and fat lines. The red and green lines means  $F_{\text{ST}}$  scores at top 0.1% and top 1% levels, respectively.

disc, and calcium ion binding, reached the significant level (P < 0.05). The Kyoto Encyclopedia of Genes and Genomes pathway, regulation of actin cytoskeleton, reached the significant level (P < 0.05). Seven genes, including transient receptor potential cation channel subfamily C member 4 (**TRPC4**), estrogen related receptor gamma (**ESRRG**), fibroblast growth factor 13 (**FGF13**), G-protein-signaling modulator 2 (**GPSM2**), RAR related orphan receptor A (**RORA**), phospholipase A2 group X (**PLA2G10**), and mitochondrial ribosomal protein L28 (**MRPL28**), were detected as the important candidate genes for abdominal fat deposition in chicken based on their basic functions.

The hapFLK was also used to detect selection signatures and a total of 23 SNPs reached the FDR < 0.05 level (Figure 5); however, these SNPs were not identified by  $F_{\rm ST}$  analysis. The nearest genes of these 23 SNPs were detected and a total of 20 genes were

Table 4. A total of 46 SNPs with the to	$0.1\%$ $F_{\rm ST}$ value and the nearest genes.
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SNPs	$\operatorname{Chr}$	Position	$F_{ m st}$	Nearestigene	Gene_position
Gga_rs13881527	1	67,479,454	0.79	RASSF8	chr1:67,608,332-67,626,872
GGaluGA055731	1	171,747,812	0.81	TRPC4	chr1:171,847,349-171,936,293
GGaluGA062629	1	190,848,717	0.75	WASL	chr1:190,601,144-190,603,560
Gga_rs14136449	2	9,139,060	0.78	PTPRN2	chr2:8,821,479-9,227,096
Gga_rs14136834	2	9,485,744	0.76	NCAPG2	chr2:9,476,880-9,502,645
GGaluGA133725	2	12,538,017	0.78	FZD8	chr2:12,831,550-12,834,103
Gga_rs14145514	2	17,766,808	0.86	COMMD3	chr2:17,759,601-17,762,528
GGaluGA173682	2	146,676,331	0.74	PTP4A3	chr2:146,364,086-146,370,748
Gga_rs14257243	2	146,790,299	0.74	PTP4A3	chr2:146,364,086-146,370,748
Gga_rs14309924	3	3,850,143	0.75	CFAP61	chr3:3,832,234-3,919,806
Gga_rs14323526	3	20,357,481	0.79	ESRRG	chr3:19.997,648-20,358,375
GGaluGA243716	4	4,737,670	0.94	FGF13	chr4:4,777,547-5,001,590
Gga_rs16382928	4	31,042,985	0.77	HHIP	chr4:31,101,428-31,170,692
GGaluGA258424	4	49,999,945	0.79	SEPT11	chr4:49.984,873-50,010,401
Gga_rs15579302	4	52,578,552	0.76	$FAT_4$	chr4:52,850,935-52,987,324
Gga_rs14524001	5	24,477,980	0.83	INO80	chr5:24,449,297–24,509,836
GGaluGA293376	6	1,259,178	0.74	CCSER2	chr6:966,437–1,018,487
Gga_rs14613595	7	19,684,964	0.75	SCN4A	chr7:19,601,197–20,062,564
Gga_rs14618849	7	25,335,729	0.84	MRAS	chr7:25,370,032–25,403,821
Gga_rs14618860	7	25,340,862	0.84	MRAS	chr7:25,370,032–25,403,821
GGaluGA322085	8	1,322,382	0.80	GPSM2	chr8:1,316,627–1,333,182
GGaluGA322243	8	1,921,864	0.80	MIR181A1	chr8:2,005,169–2,005,272
Gga_rs15895615	8	1,987,987	0.85	MIR181A1	chr8:2,005,169–2,005,272
Gga_rs14943917	10	4,689,608	0.76	RORA	chr10:4,626,225–4,975,286
Gga_rs15569316	10	5,739,811	0.77	MCEE	chr10:5,733,315–5,743,137
Gga_rs14965369	10	13,417,788	0.87	MIR6595	chr11:13,466,650–13,466,759
Gga_rs13613944	11	13,426,811	0.87	MIR6595	chr11:13,466,650–13,466,759
Gga_rs15619912	11	13,508,154	0.87	MIR6595	chr11:13,466,650–13,466,759
Gga_rs14965441	11	13,500,104 13,571,160	0.81	MIR6595	chr11:13,466,650–13,466,759
GGaluGA089576	12	18,696.098	0.81	EDEM1	chr12:18,660,231–18,670,248
Gga_rs15672675	12	18,713,152	0.77	EDEM1 EDEM1	chr12:18,660,231–18,670,248
Gga_rs14054257	12	4,829,719	0.79	TENM2	chr13:4,820,043–5,306,069
Gga_rs14990229	13	5,194,596	0.79	TENM2 TENM2	chr13:4,820,043–5,306,069
Gga_rs14990174	13	5,292,872	0.75	TENM2 TENM2	chr13:4,820,043–5,306,069
Gga_rs15707857	13	16,155,589	0.73	C13H5orf15	chr13:16,135,944–16,141,737
Gga_rs14065195	13	10,100,000 17,196.636	0.73	AFF4	chr13:17,168,014–17,216,698
GGaluGA098657	13	843.034	0.84	PLA2G10	chr14:838,542–848,893
Gga_rs14069730	14	1,612,717	0.75	FAM20C	chr14:1,727,496–1,779,810
Gga_rs13815452	14	1,012,717 11,682,756	0.75	GSG1L	
0					chr14:11,877,677–11,919,087
GGaluGA104264	$ \begin{array}{c} 14\\ 20 \end{array} $	12,185,673	$0.76 \\ 0.76$	MRPL28 R3HDML	chr14:12,187,984–12,191,135 chr20:5 504,252, 5 506,876
Gga_rs16165606	20 20	5,598,435		R3HDML Fam217b	chr20:5,594,252–5,596,876
Gga_rs14274693		7,122,530	0.75		chr20:7,064,875–7,065,282
Gga_rs16167541	20	7,252,909	0.76	CDH4 EDUA 10	chr20:7,427,589–7,840,327
Gga_rs14290576	23	3,613,622	0.85	EPHA10	chr23:3,602,279–3,630,295
GGaluGA192499	24	3,854,003	0.76	OAF TRIM00	chr24:3,833,146–3,843,905
Gga_rs15221004	24	3,893,861	0.79	TRIM29	chr 24:3,869,163-4,216,162

identified (Table 5). The basic functions of these genes indicated that metadherin (*MTDH*), calcitonin receptor like receptor (*CALCRL*), serine/threonine kinase 39 (*STK39*), and nuclear factor I A (*NFIA*) may be important for abdominal fat deposition in chicken.

#### DISCUSSION

We constructed a genome-wide LD map of lean and fat broiler lines divergently selected for abdominal fat content. The genotyping data were from chicken 60k SNP chips covering 28 autosomal chromosomes. LD was calculated using 28 of 38 chicken autosomal chromosomes represented on chips. The 10 autosomes not used for analysis were microchromosomes not included in the design of the 60k SNP chip, as they are not yet covered by the genome build *Gallus gallus* v2.1 (Groenen et al., 2011). SNPs on linkage groups, sex chromosomes, and unknown marker positions were excluded from analysis. SNPs with MAF < 0.05 were also excluded from LD analysis in accordance with other studies (Qanbari et al., 2010; Fu et al., 2015). The high density of markers and the large number of animals in this study gave a better estimate of genome-wide LD.

We determined that different chromosomes had different LD, ranging from 0.06 to 0.14 in the lean line and from 0.07 to 0.13 in the fat line (except GGA16). The chromosomal difference in LD supports observations from other studies (Axelsson et al., 2005; Andreescu et al., 2007; Qanbari et al., 2010; Fu et al., 2015; Khanyile et al., 2015). The difference in LD for different chromosomes may be because of evolutionary, natural, and artificial selection (Axelsson et al., 2005; Megens et al., 2009). Our results showed a significant LD decay with increased marker interval:  $r^2 = 0.33$  in the lean line and  $r^2 = 0.32$  in the fat line in pairwise distances < 25 kb dropped to  $r^2 = 0.25$  for the lean line and  $r^2 = 0.23$  for the fat line at 75 to 100 kb; this is

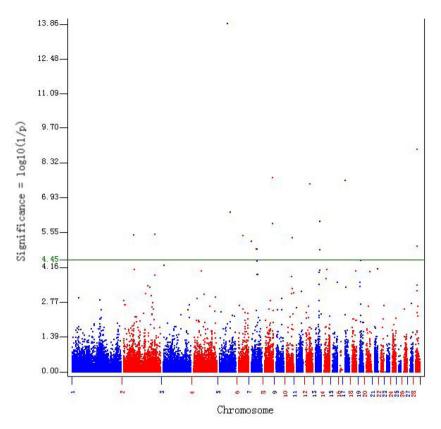


Figure 5. Manhattan plot of hapFLK result in the lean and fat lines. The green line mean false discovery rate (FDR) < 0.05 level.

Table 5. A total of 23 SNPs detected by hapFLK analysis and the nearest genes.

SNPs	$\operatorname{Chr}$	Position	<i>P</i> -value	Nearest_gene	Gene_position
Gga_rs15962679	2	41,566,664	3.59E-06	METTL6	chr2:41,549,975-41,556,164
GGaluGA168014	2	127,803,767	3.33E-06	MTDH	chr2:127,839,203-127,883,278
Gga_rs14527165	5	27,745,682	1.37E-14	SMOC1	chr5:27,724,356-27,795,694
Gga_rs14535900	5	39,248,439	4.49E-07	TMED8	chr5:39,245,129-39,250,750
Gga_rs16548338	6	17,197,430	3.76E-06	PAX2	chr6:17,099,350-17,178,107
Gga_rs15825209	7	1,175,317	6.19E-06	CALCRL	chr7:1,121,860-1,148,432
Gga_rs14611806	7	17,826,186	1.24E-05	ITGA6	chr7:17,799,938-17,838,370
Gga_rs15854475	7	17,967,155	1.24E-05	HAT1	chr7:17,979,544-17,997,798
Gga_rs14612642	7	18,754,459	1.24E-05	FASTKD1	chr7:18,741,873-18,753,403
GGaluGA314742	7	19,182,027	1.24E-05	STK39	chr7:19,181,467-19,265,132
GGaluGA314767	7	19,243,329	1.24E-05	STK39	chr7:19,181,467-19,265,132
GGaluGA332283	8	27,283,865	1.23E-06	NFIA	chr8:27,133,855-27,365,767
GGaluGA332288	8	27,297,098	1.83E-08	NFIA	chr8:27,133,855–27,365,767
Gga_rs15588563	10	16,591,461	4.6E-06	MIR1813-2	chr10:16,597,656–16,597,729
Gga_rs14042969	12	12,919,551	3.22E-08	PTPRG	chr12:12,750,103–13,124,192
Gga_rs14741569	13	13,618,657	1.05E-06	RUFY1	chr13:13,595,281–13,608,782
GGaluGA096397	13	$13,\!657,\!155$	1.05E-06	ADAMTS2	chr13:13,665,209–13,805,685
Gga_rs14998681	13	13,710,332	1.05E-06	ADAMTS2	chr13:13,665,209–13,805,685
GGaluGA096558	13	14,075,053	1.35E-05	RASGEF1C	chr13:14,051,308–14,115,158
Gga_rs14104760	17	1,265,213	2.39E-08	EXD3	chr17:1,149,946-1,308,298
Gga_rs15034738	17	1,533,422	2.39E-08	LOC100216141.S	chr17:1,534,629–1,539,805
Gga_rs14305753	28	2,069,358	9.52E-06	DOT1L	chr28:2,040,052-2,094,693
Gga_rs13545963	28	2,122,854	1.38E-09	AP3D1	chr28:2,096,479-2,123,705

generally a function of increased recombination events with increased genetic distance (Megens et al., 2009). The decay in LD showed a clear exponential trend with physical distance typically found in other data sets and in agreement with previous results (Heifetz et al., 2005; Aerts et al., 2007; Andreescu et al., 2007; Abasht et al., 2009; Megens et al., 2009; Qanbari et al., 2010; Fu et al., 2015; Khanyile et al., 2015). In the present study, LD was moderately high and remained well above 0.2 at marker distances of up to 200 kb when using genomewide SNP data. This result indicated that LD of the broilers we used remained high over long distances. In contrast, LD decayed to relatively lower values of about 0.07 at marker distances of up to 5 Mb. The relatively high average LD that started at very short marker distances of 25 kb and persisted over long

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distances could reflect artificial selection for abdominal fat content for more than 10 yrs. The decay of LD in a genome determines the resolution of quantitative trait locus (QTL) detection in QTL mapping studies, in particular fine-mapping studies. LD for chromosomes that extends over large genomic regions leads to a higher chance of finding associations between genes affecting a particular phenotype and a marker at a given distance. Our study showed an average  $r^2 > 0.3$  for distances of <25 kb in both the lean and fat lines and a SNP density of one SNP per 23 kb. This result implied that the 60 k SNP chip used had a density that may be adequate for GWAS to identify genes important for traits of interest. However, for populations for which no selection is implemented, LD analysis should be carried out to determine if marker density is sufficient for GWAS. We found an average  $r^2 > 0.3$  for distances < 25 kb in both the lean and fat lines. This result indicated that detected LD extent in the fat and lean lines was longer than other studies in both layer and broiler chickens. For example, using the same chicken 60 k SNP chip, Fu et al. found an average LD (measured by  $r^2$ ) between SNPs markers of 0.24 in crossbred populations (2015). The higher LD in the present study indicated that selecting for abdominal fat content for more than 10 yr could affect the genome structure of chickens. This result indicated that the LD regions could harbor important genes or other elements for abdominal fat-related traits.

The selection for abdominal fat content of the population used in the present study may affect the LD structure and we supposed that the chromosome regions that harbor important genes for abdominal fat deposition may showed significant difference in allele or haplotype frequencies. Therefore, in the present study,  $F_{\rm ST}$  and hapFLK were used to detect the important genes for abdominal fat content, and the results showed that a total of 11 genes, including TRPC4, ESRRG, FGF13, GPSM2, RORA, PLA2G10, MRPL28, MTDH, CALCRL, STK39, and NFIA, would be the candidate genes for abdominal fat deposition based on their basic functions. The TRPC4 gene encodes a member of the canonical subfamily of transient receptor potential cation channels. TRPC4 was differentially expressed in preadipocytes and adipocytes suggesting its significance in adipogenesis (Bishnoi et al., 2013). It was also differentially expressed in white and brown adipose tissues (Bishnoi et al., 2013). ESRRG belongs to an orphan nuclear receptor subfamily, which expressed mainly in brain, heart, kidney, skeletal muscle, and brown adipose tissue (Mangelsdorf et al., 1995; Heard et al., 2000). The previous results indicated that ES-*RRG* could enhance the expression of uncoupling protein 1, and improve fatty acid oxidation in differentiating white pre-adipocytes and/or brown adipose tissue (Dixen et al., 2013). FGF13 belongs to the fibroblast growth factor (FGF) family, which was a candidate obesity gene (Morton et al., 2011). The result of a genome wide association study identified that there was a locus, including three SNPs (rs193139, rs7523050, and rs1761621), near GPSM2 and syntaxin-binding protein 3 were significantly associated with the lower body subcutaneous adipose tissue depots (Irvin et al., 2011), which mean that GPSM2 may have an important effect on lipid metabolism. RORA can inhibit the differentiation of adipocyte (Duez et al., 2009) and also can regulate the expression level of gene that controls lipid metabolism in diet-induced obesity mice (Lau et al., 2008). PLA2G10 significantly differently expressed between visceral adipose tissue and subcutaneous adipose tissue in human (Liesenfeld et al., 2015). In mice, there were 12 sex-dependent and also diet-dependent QTLs for dietary obesity on chromosome 7 and MRPL28 was located in these QTL regions (Lin et al., 2013), which mean that MRPL28 may be an obesity-related gene in mice. MTDH, also known as astrocyte elevated gene-1 (AEG-1), and AEG-1 knock-out (AEG-1KO) mouse were significantly leaner with prominently less body fat compared with wild type (Robertson et al., 2015). The wild-type mice could rapidly gain weight when fed a high fat and cholesterol diet; however, AEG-1KO mice did not gain any weight, because the mice could decrease intestines fat absorption (Robertson et al., 2015). CALCRL was identified as a candidate gene in the etiology of obesity by using genome-wide expression analysis in obese prepubertal children visceral adipose tissue (Aguilera et al., 2015). STK39 was suggested as one candidate gene for hypertension and obesity (Kim et al., 2012; Torre-Villalvazo et al., 2018). NFIA was identified as a transcriptional regulator of brown fat and exerted its effects by co-localizing with peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor gamma at celltype-specific enhancers (Hiraike et al., 2017).

In our previous study, long-range allele frequency differences between the lean and fat lines were mainly used to detected selection signatures (Zhang et al., 2012). The long-range AFD and heterozygosity were measured using 0.5 Mb sliding windows of SNPs as the genome length, which was rough and only 10 genomics regions were detected as harboring important genes for abdominal fat content on the genome-wide level (Zhang et al., 2012). In the present study, we carried out all analysis based on every single SNP, which may obtain much more precise results and we aim to capture some other genes important for abdominal fat deposition compared with our previous study.  $F_{\rm ST}$  statistic was most widely used approach to detect loci with outstanding genetic differentiation between different populations (Barreiro et al. 2008; Myles et al. 2008). And hapFLK statistic was a haplotype-based extension of the FLK statistic that accounts for both hierarchical structure and haplotype information (Fariello et al., 2013). The present study used both  $F_{\rm ST}$  and hapFLK to detect selection signature and some genes were identified as important candidate genes for abdominal fat deposition in chicken. However, there was no overlap between the results of  $F_{\rm ST}$  and hapFLK, which indicated that using different methods, single marker test for  $F_{\rm ST}$  and haplotype based for hapFLK, may capture different aparts of the whole selection signature map. Therefore, different methods were needed to get the details of selection signatures map for chicken abdominal fat content.

In summary, this was a comprehensive study of LD based on high-density SNP panels and two broilers lines divergently selected for abdominal fat content. An average  $r^2 > 0.3$  for a distance of <25 kb was detected for both the lean and fat lines. The average marker density of the chicken 60k SNP chip was about 23 kb/SNP. Therefore, using a high-density SNP chip for association mapping or implementing genomic selection in lean and fat lines could achieve comparable resolution and accuracy. 11 genes, including *TRPC4*, *ESRRG*, *FGF13*, *GPSM2*, *RORA*, *PLA2G10*, *MRPL28*, *MTDH*, *CALCRL*, *STK39*, and *NFIA*, were detected as important genes for abdominal fat deposition.

#### SUPPLEMENTARY DATA

Supplementary data are available at *Poultry Science* online.

## ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

This research was supported by the National 863 Project of China (No. 2013AA102501), the National Natural Science Foundation (No. 31301960), the China Postdoctoral Science Foundation (No. 2015M581421), Heilongjiang Postdoctoral Financial Assistance (No. LBH-TZ0612), and "Academic Backbone" Project of Northeast Agricultural University (No. 17XG18).

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