



## CANDIDATE GENES APPLICATIONS IN GENETIC IMPROVEMENT PROGRAMS IN CHICKENS

Khalil, M. H.

Dep. of Anim. Prod., Fac. of Agric. at Moshtohor, Benha Uni., Egypt

**Email:** [maher.khalil@fagr.bu.edu.eg](mailto:maher.khalil@fagr.bu.edu.eg)

**Abstract:** The experimental chicken populations ( $F_0$ ,  $F_1$ ,  $F_2$  and  $F_3$ ) have been constructed all-over the world to be used in gene and quantitative trait loci (QTL) mapping studies in different breeds. The genome-wide QTL are located on seven macro-chromosomes (chromosome 1, 2, 3, 4, 6, 8 and Z) and on one micro-chromosome (chromosome 11) for body weights and gains, on chromosomes 1 and 5 for egg weight, on chromosomes 5 and 7 for number of eggs and on chromosome 1 for age at first egg. The total chromosomal map length for body weight is 1901 cM ranging from 25 cM on chromosome 11 to 568 cM on chromosome 1, while the total chromosomal map length for egg production and egg quality traits was 1949 cM ranging from 52 cM on chromosome 11 to 542 cM on chromosome 1. The majority of molecular markers used nowadays in poultry are microsatellite markers, STRs (short tandem repeats) and SNPs (single nucleated polymorphism). The microsatellites are used as the most widely markers for the analysis of genetic diversity and population structure in poultry. To detect the genetic diversity in poultry, definite number of microsatellite markers covering nine autosomal linkage groups and the sex Z chromosome are considered in genotyping of  $F_0$  grandparents and  $F_1$  and  $F_2$  offspring. Detailed information about selected microsatellites are available at the FAO website ([www.dad.fao.org/en/refer/library/guidelin/marker.pdf](http://www.dad.fao.org/en/refer/library/guidelin/marker.pdf)). Primarily, the chickens' breeds must be characterized on molecular bases in terms of allelic and genotypic frequencies, the effective number of alleles ( $N_e$ ), the observed ( $H_o$ ) and expected ( $H_e$ ) heterozygosity, Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium (HWE), the polymorphism information content (PIC) and the F-statistics of the reduction in heterozygosity due to inbreeding within each population ( $F_{IS}$ ). The candidate genes located on 18 chromosomes (number 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 7, 8, 9, 10, 15, 16, 17, 19, 20, 21, 26, 27 and Z) are associated with growth traits of body weights and gains and feed intakes and conversion in chickens, while the candidate genes located on 11 chromosomes (number 1, 3, 4, 5, 7, 9, 13, 20, 24, 27 and Z) are associated with egg production and egg quality traits. The immune candidate genes located on 15 chromosomes (number 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 14, 15, 16, 17, 19, 24, 26 and 27) are associated with immune responses against Salmonella in chickens. Recently, genome-wide association studies (GWAS) have been used successfully to identify single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) and candidate genes associated with quantitative traits in chickens since a remarkable range of discoveries from GWASs have been detected in production, reproduction and disease resistance traits. To perform a genetic improvement program for the Arabian breeds of chickens using the molecular applications, the following necessary steps are summarized as: 1) Recording the phenotypic data from full pedigree file to evaluate the birds genetically through estimating the breeding values for chicks, hens and cocks, 2) Determining the list of main equipments required and the main list of chemicals for DNA extraction, 3) Collecting the blood samples from birds and performing DNA extraction, 4) Reporting candidate genes from QTLs data base (<http://www.animalgenome.org/QTLdb>), 5) Preparing the genotyping files using SNP markers, 6) Applying SNP association test to detect the genes closely associated with economic traits in poultry, 7) Estimating the genomic breeding values (GBV) to be applied in genomic selection, 8) Applying the Genome-Wide Association Study (GWAS) using PLINK software, 9) Applying genomic selection program (GS) using GBV of cocks and hens to be the parents of the next generation.

**Keywords:** Chickens, Candidate genes, QTL, GWAS, Genomic Breeding Values (GBV), Genomic selection.

## **INTRODUCTION**

Using biotechnology techniques are the best way to achieve fast genetic improvement in chickens particularly in indigenous breeds and/or strains in developing countries. Candidate genes as molecular techniques are considered as one of the primary methods to determine the specific genes related to the economic traits in chickens. Quantitative Trait Loci (QTL) could be used to identify these specific genes or their chromosomal regions. This approach has enabled opportunities to enhance genetic improvement programs in chickens by direct selection based on genes or genomic regions that affect economic traits through marker-assisted selection (MAS). In chickens, selection programs through quantitative genetics are time consuming in case of lowly heritable traits. The identification and utilization of QTL provide more potentiality for rapid genetic improvement in selection programs, especially for traits that are difficult to be improved with traditional selection (Ikeobi *et al.*, 2002). Nassar *et al.* (2013, 2015) detected Cholecystokinin type A receptor gene (CCKAR) that had specific effects on growth traits and fat deposition using QTL in crosses between New Hampshire and White Leghorn chickens. Khalil *et al.* (2016) reported that QTL detected on chromosomes 1, 2, 3, 4, 6, 8, 11 and Z for body weights and those detected on chromosomes 2, 3, 4, 8 and Z for egg production and egg quality traits were significant.

The genes to be used in selection are regarded as candidate genes that affecting economic traits in chickens and these candidate genes have successful approaches in identifying several DNA markers associated with production and reproductive traits. However, several

molecular associations' studies during the decade 2000-2010 have shown the association between candidate genes and growth traits and/or feed conversions in chickens (Amills *et al.*, 2003; Liu and Lamont, 2003; Lei *et al.*, 2005; Qiu *et al.*, 2006; Ye *et al.*, 2006; Cao *et al.*, 2007; Lei *et al.*, 2007; Nie *et al.*, 2008; Leng *et al.*, 2009; Ou *et al.*, 2009; Wei *et al.*, 2009; Zhang *et al.*, 2009; Ahmed, 2010; Fang *et al.*, 2010). In addition, these associations' studies have been confirmed recently during the years of 2011-2021 by other investigators (Uemoto *et al.*, 2011; Niknafs *et al.*, 2012; Rikimaru *et al.*, 2012; Cahyadi *et al.*, 2013; Lim *et al.*, 2013; Seo *et al.*, 2013; El Moujahid *et al.*, 2014; Anh *et al.*, 2015; Ashraf and El-Tarabany, 2015; Molee *et al.*, 2016; Kazemi *et al.*, 2018; Zhao *et al.*, 2015; Yi *et al.*, 2018; Jin *et al.*, 2018; Saleh *et al.*, 2020b). Also, the associations between candidate genes and egg production and egg quality traits have been confirmed in chickens (Cui *et al.*, 2006; Li *et al.*, 2009; Xu *et al.*, 2011a,b; Zhu and Jiang, 2014; Ngu *et al.*, 2015; Vu and Ngu 2016; Charoensook *et al.*, 2016; Osman *et al.*, 2017; Nguyen *et al.*, 2018; Azmal *et al.*, 2019; Bhattacharya *et al.*, 2019). In the last two decades, several studies have reported the associations of immune genes with immune response, bacterial burden and antibody titers against Salmonella in chickens (Zhou *et al.*, 2001; Lamont *et al.*, 2002; Kramer *et al.*, 2003; Liu and Lamont, 2003; Malek and Lamont, 2003; Zhou and Lamont, 2003a; Malek *et al.*, 2004; Ahmed, 2010; Cahyadi *et al.*, 2013; Khatab *et al.*, 2017; Saleh *et al.*, 2020b, 2021).

GWAS results have been shown that this GWAS approach could be useful in selection for phenotypic performance using customized gene chips (Moser *et*

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*al.*, 2009; Xu *et al.*, 2013; Sun *et al.*, 2015; Yuan *et al.*, 2015; Gianola *et al.*, 2016; Psifidi *et al.*, 2016; Fan *et al.*, 2017; Pértille *et al.*, 2017; Azmal *et al.*, 2019; Kudinov *et al.*, 2019; Liu *et al.*, 2019; Qu *et al.*, 2019). The SNP of innate immune genes, such as natural resistance associated macrophage protein 1 (Nramp1; Beaumont *et al.*, 2003), *CD28* and *MD2* genes (Malek *et al.*, 2004) and *TLR4* gene (Li *et al.*, 2010) could be used to enhance *Salmonella Pullorum* resistance in chicken. The expression of *TLR4* and some immune related genes, such as *Gal 1*, *Gal 2*, *IL-8*, *IL-18* and *IFN- $\gamma$*  could be also used to establish different degrees of correlation against salmonella in chickens (Sadeyen *et al.*, 2006). Ahmed (2010) demonstrated that the novel *IFNG* promoter SNP was associated with antibody kinetics for *Brucella abortus* (BA) in laying hens, suggesting that this cytokine may play a pivotal role in the relationship between immune function and growth. Dehkordi *et al.* (2015) have been performed some studies to detect the gene structure of *Salmonella* and its ability to resist against antibiotics. Liu *et al.* (2015) suggesting that *MyD88* gene may be one of the major *Salmonella Pullorum* resistant genes in innate immune system in chickens.

Genomic selection using the SNP markers is a powerful new tool for genetic selection (Purcell *et al.*, 2007); this is because: 1) SNPs can be detected by a number of techniques such as PCR-RFLP, 2) SNP can be used for large scale screening of numerous samples in a minimal time, 3) SNP is the most recent contribution to study DNA sequence variation, and 4) SNP represents the most innovative molecular marker in genotyping studies.

### The Objectives

The main objectives of this article are dealing with the following items: 1) To identify the chromosomal QTL mapping and their positions in chicken genome, 2) To apply a fine chromosomal mapping for localizing the QTL affecting economic traits in F<sub>2</sub> population using specific microsatellite markers or SNPs in chickens and possibly to identify the candidate genes associated with economic traits, 3) Determining the molecular markers to be used for evaluating the genetic variability among poultry breeds, 4) Characterizing the candidate genes to be used in genetic improvement programs, 5) Detecting the SNP genotypes and identifying the molecular associations between candidate genes and body weights and gains, feed intakes and conversions, egg production, egg quality, and disease resistance responses, 6) Defining the genetic model for detecting the molecular associations between SNP genotypes of candidate gene and economic traits, 7) Performing genome wide association study (GWAS) in order to detect the potential causative mutations and genomic regions affecting productive and reproductive traits in chickens, 8) Applying genomic selection program based on Genomic Breeding Values (GBV), and 9) Suggesting a genetic improvement program to improve the Arabian' breeds and/or strains of chickens using recent molecular approaches.

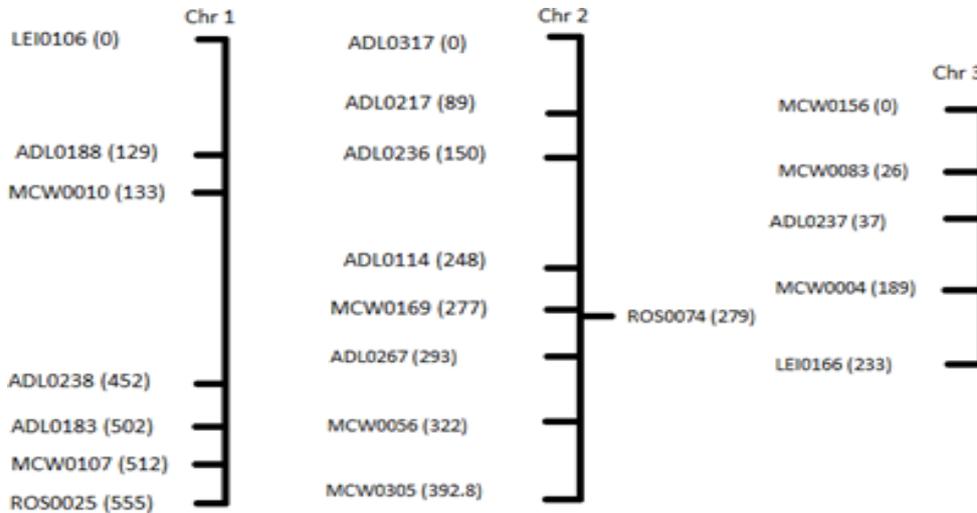
### 1.The chromosomal QTL mapping and their positions in chicken genome:

QTL mapping was the perfect approach to identify genes related to complex traits at genome-wide level. The chicken genome consists of 38 pairs of autosomal chromosomes and sex Z and W chromosomes. The chromosomes can be

classified into two size groups, nine macro-chromosomes and 30 micro-Recent development of statistical methods and comprehensive linkage maps of the chicken genome has provided tools for mapping loci affecting quantitative traits (Mackay *et al.*, 2009). In the last 15 years, several experimental chicken populations (F<sub>0</sub>, F<sub>1</sub>, F<sub>2</sub> and F<sub>3</sub>) have been constructed from different breeds for use in gene and QTL mapping studies (Jacobsson, 2005; Liu *et al.*, 2008; Bulut *et al.*, 2013; Abdel A'al *et al.*, 2016,2017). However, several studies have been investigated to detect the chromosomal regions affecting phenotypic performance of many growth and egg production traits in different chicken breeds (Tatsuda and Fujinaka 2001; Sewalem *et al.*, 2002; Li *et al.*, 2003; Sasaki *et al.*, 2004; Siwek *et al.*, 2004; Nones *et al.*, 2006; Nassar *et al.*, 2013; Abdel A'al *et al.*, 2016,2017). In

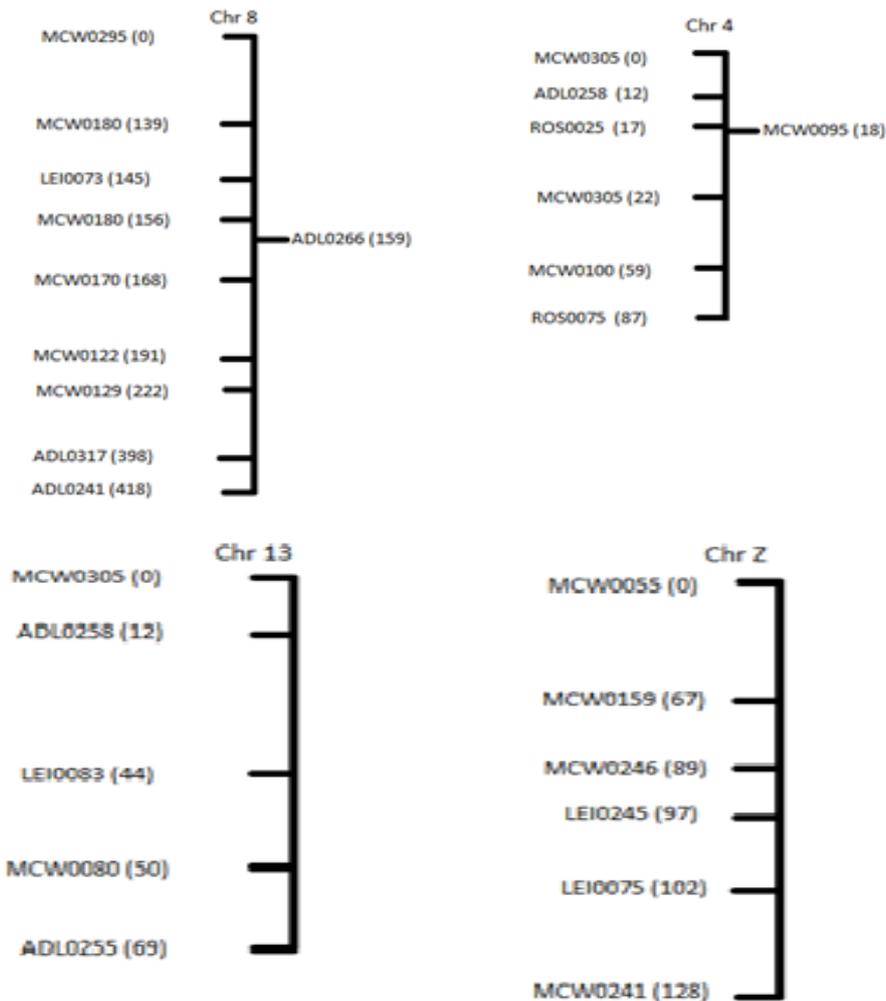
chromosomes (Bloom *et al.*, 1993).

Germany, Goraga *et al.* (2012) reported highly significant QTL region on chromosome 4 for egg production traits, on chromosomes 1, 5 and 9 for egg weight, on chromosomes 5 and 7 for number of eggs, on chromosome 1 for age at first egg. In Egypt, the chromosomal map to be used for detecting growth and egg traits in F<sub>2</sub> population is presented in Figure 1 as cited by Abdel A'al *et al.* (2016) who reported a total of 19 significant genome QTL located on seven macro-chromosomes (chromosome 1, 2, 3, 4, 6, 8 and Z) and one micro-chromosome (chromosome 11) affecting growth traits, on chromosomes 1 and 5 for egg weight, on chromosomes 5 and 7 for number of eggs, on chromosome 1 for age at first egg.



**Chickens, Candidate genes, QTL, GWAS, Genomic Breeding Values (GBV), Genomic selection.**

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**Figure (1):** QTL mappings in chickens, including positions and names of the markers as cited by the Egyptian study (Abdel A'al *et al.*, 2016&2017).

For QTL mapping and their positions detected for growth and egg production and egg quality traits, Abdel A'al *et al.* (2016, 2017) have been illustrated the chromosomal group, number of informative microsatellite markers and chromosomal map length (*cM*) for the whole genome scan of growth traits in  $F_2$  cross (Table 1). This study has reported that: 1) The total chromosomal map length for body weights was 1901 *cM* ranging from 25 *cM* on chromosome 11 to 568 *cM* on chromosome 1, with marker spacing ranging from 7.8 *cM* on chromosome 8 to 24.3 *cM* on chromosome 1, 2) The total chromosomal map length for egg production and egg quality traits was 1949 *cM* ranging from 52 *cM* on chromosome 11 to 542 *cM* on chromosome 1, with marker spacing ranging from 15.3 *cM* on chromosome 4 to 71.5 *cM* on chromosome 6.

**Table (1):**Chromosome group, number of microsatellite markers and map length (cM), that was used for a whole genome scan of growth and egg traits in F<sub>2</sub> cross

Chromosome	Number of microsatellite markers		Chromosome map length (cM)		Average marker spacing by the chromosome (cM)	
	Growth	Egg	Growth	Egg	Growth	Egg
1	10	9	568	542	24.3	60.2
2	8	8	298	401	18.7	50.1
3	2	6	273	144	11.6	24
4	7	4	198	286	17.6	15.3
6	4	3	111	123	10.4	71.5
8	3	2	97	88	7.8	44
9	1	2	123	112	20.1	56
11	5	3	25	52	8.3	17.3
13	2	2	71	69	14.5	34.5
Z	5	6	137	132	11.5	22
Total	47	45	1901	1949		

Source: Abdel A'al *et al.* (2016, 2017)

**1. Identifying the molecular markers to be used for evaluating the genetic variability among chickens' breeds:**

Molecular markers can be used to evaluate genetic variability, either within or among individuals, families, and populations. Genetic markers provide information as bioinformatics indicators about polymorphism in allelic frequency at a given locus. In the last two decades, DNA sequencing, and PCR technique have helped in increasing the application of molecular markers (Weigend, 2004) and the majority of molecular markers could involve microsatellite markers, STRs (short tandem repeats) and SNPs (single nucleated polymorphism). Among all types of the molecular markers, the microsatellites are used as the most widely markers for the analysis of genetic diversity and population structure in

poultry (Erhardt and Weimann, 2007). Nowadays, DNA molecular marker techniques are widely applied in the fields of germplasm identification, phylogenetic tree, and genetic structural analysis (Yang *et al.*, 2013). Accordingly, the microsatellite has been used to develop the markers from genes and they have been referred as genic molecular markers (GMMs) or functional markers (FMs). Definite number of microsatellite markers covering nine autosomal chromosomal groups and the sex Z chromosome are considered in genotyping F<sub>0</sub> grandparents and F<sub>1</sub> and F<sub>2</sub> offspring. These markers were selected based on the degree of polymorphism and the genome coverage recommended in the molecular genetic characterization of animal genetic resources (FAO, 2011). However, the detailed information about selected microsatellites are available at the FAO

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website ([www.dad.fao.org/en/refer/library/guidelin/marker.pdf](http://www.dad.fao.org/en/refer/library/guidelin/marker.pdf)). The assessment of markers was based on their positions on the consensus map. A target for marker spacing of 10 cM was used to test markers across the genome (<http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/mapview> and <http://www.thearkdb.org>).

Kumar *et al.* (2007) examined the genetic relationships among the indigenous chickens' populations in India using 10 genotyped SNP markers of the Myostatin gene (*GDF-8*) by PCR-RFLP. Another application of SNPs in chickens was applied by Twito *et al.* (2007) who used 25 SNPs for different genes and chromosomes to examine the genetic relationships among 20 chicken populations using the STRUCTURE software program and they compared the SNP results with the analysis using microsatellites and concluded that: 1) Microsatellites provide high clustering success due to high polymorphic nature, 2) SNPs provide broader genome coverage and reliable estimates of genetic relatedness in the genome, and 3) SNP considered to be an efficient and cost-effective genetic tool.

### **2. Characterizing the genetic diversity of candidate genes to be used in improvement programs in chickens' breeds:**

The candidate genes in local chickens' breeds must be characterized in terms of the following genetic diversity parameters:

- 1) Calculating the allelic and genotypic frequencies.
- 2) Calculating the effective number of alleles ( $N_e$ ), the observed ( $H_o$ ) and expected ( $H_e$ ) heterozygosity for candidate genes using GENALEX

software, version 6.5 (Peakall and Smouse, 2012).

- 3) Estimating Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium (HWE) within each population using GENEPOP program (Raymond, 1995 ; <http://genepop.curtin.edu.au/>) and performing the Chi-square test for each genetic group studied.

- 4) Calculating the polymorphism information content (PIC) using CERVUS software, version 3 (Kalinowski *et al.*, 2007):

- 5) Calculating the F-statistics of the reduction in heterozygosity due to inbreeding within each population ( $F_{IS}$ ) using GENEPOP software, version 3.4 (Raymond, 1995 ; <http://genepop.curtin.edu.au/>).

### **3. Molecular associations between candidate genes and growth and feeding traits in chickens:**

The genetic associations' studies cited in literature have been investigated to clarify the relationship between candidate genes and growth and feeding traits in chickens. In this concept, there are several genes located on 18 chromosomes (number 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 7, 8, 9, 10, 15, 16, 17, 19, 20, 21, 26, 27 and Z) to be associated with growth and/or feed intakes and conversion in chickens (Table 2). Regarding SNP genotypes for candidate genes and their associations with economic traits in chickens, chicks with TT genotype of *Pit-1* gene had significantly heavier body weight than those of CT and CC genotypes, while AA genotype had heavier body weight and favorable feed conversion than those of AT and TT genotypes.

Zhou *et al.* (2005) found significant associations ( $P < 0.05$ ) between *IGF1*-SNP and average daily gains in  $F_2$

generation of hybrids (Leghorn×broiler and Fayoumi×broiler). Also, the *IGF-1* gene is associated with growth in chickens as reported by others (Seo *et al.*, 2001; Kita *et al.*, 2005; Li *et al.*, 2009). Nie *et al.* (2005) found that SNP had significant associations with almost growth traits in F<sub>2</sub> cross of White Recessive Rock Xinghua Chinese chicken. Ahmed (2010) found that body weight at 12 weeks of age was associated with *IFNG* SNP in Fayoumi chickens. Gouda and Essawy (2010) reported significant effects of *IGF-1* gene on growth traits of Egyptian chicken breeds. Ashraf and El-Tarabany (2015) found that SNP of Bone morphogenetic protein receptor 1B gene (*BMPR-1B*) was associated significantly with body weight at 2<sup>nd</sup> to 8<sup>th</sup> weeks of age ( $P=0.01$ ). Lim *et al.* (2013) found that the SNP of Inducible nitric oxide synthase gene (*INOS*) had a significant association with body weight at 270 days of age ( $p<0.05$ ) in both Korean Native Black and Rhode Island Red chickens. El-Moujahid *et al.* (2014) reported that four SNPs of leptin receptor gene (*LEPR*) were significantly associated with body weight at 49 and 70

day of age ( $P < 0.05$ ) and feed intake ( $P < 0.05$ ) in yellow N202 strain, and feed conversion ( $P < 0.01$ ) in yellow N301 strain. Zhao *et al.* (2015) detected the association between *IGFBP-2* gene and body weight in Jinghai Yellow, Arbor Acre, Youxi and Bian chickens. Molee *et al.* (2016) identified seven SNPs of Major Histocompatibility Complex class II gene (C125T, A126T, C209G, C242T, A243T, C244T and A254T) and recorded significant associations between all SNPs and body weights. Kazemi *et al.* (2018) reported significant associations between *IL-2* gene at promoter region and body weight at 8 weeks of age in Mazandaran native fowls ( $P\leq 0.05$ ). Yi *et al.* (2018) found that SNP of Cholecystokinin type A receptor gene (*CCKAR*) was associated with feed intake ( $P < 0.01$ ) and significantly associated with daily gain traits ( $P < 0.05$ ) in Chinese local chicken Ianlu Black pure-line N416. Jin *et al.* (2018) reported that SNP of Pituitary-specific transcription factor-1 gene (*Pit-1*) was associated significantly with feed intake, feed conversion and body weight at 70 days of age ( $p<0.05$ ).

**Chickens, Candidate genes, QTL, GWAS, Genomic Breeding Values (GBV), Genomic selection.**

**Table (2):** Candidate genes associated with body weights and gains and/or feed intakes and conversions as cited in literature.

Candidate gene associated with both body weights and gains and/or feed intakes and conversions	Chromosome number	Reference
Pituitary-specific transcription factor-1 ( <i>Pit-1</i> ), Inhibitor of apoptosis protein-1 ( <i>IAP1</i> ), Chicken-B-cell marker ( <i>CHB6</i> ), Insulin-like growth factor 1 ( <i>IGF1</i> ),	1	Amills <i>et al.</i> (2003), Liu and Lamont, (2003), Ye <i>et al.</i> (2006), Cao <i>et al.</i> (2007), Nie <i>et al.</i> (2008) , Wei <i>et al.</i> (2009), Ahmed (2010), Jin <i>et al.</i> (2018)
Insulin-like growth factor ( <i>IGF2</i> ), Insulin-like growth factor binding, protein 1 and 3 ( <i>IGFBP</i> ), Protein of toll like receptor 4 ( <i>TLR4</i> )	2	Amills <i>et al.</i> (2003), Ye <i>et al.</i> (2006), Ou <i>et al.</i> (2009), Zhao <i>et al.</i> (2015)
Ornithine decarboxylase ( <i>ODC</i> ), Gallinacins 2 to 5 ( <i>Gal 2 to Gal 5</i> )	3	Ye <i>et al.</i> (2006), Uemoto <i>et al.</i> (2011), Cahyadi <i>et al.</i> (2013), Saleh et al (2020b)
Cholecystokinin type A receptor ( <i>CCKAR</i> ), Interleukin-2 ( <i>IL-2</i> ), Tumor necrosis factor-related apoptosis-inducing ligand ( <i>TRAIL</i> ), Bone morphogenetic protein receptor 1B (BMPR-1B)	4	Ye <i>et al.</i> (2006), Niknafs <i>et al.</i> (2012), Rikimaru <i>et al.</i> (2012), Ashraf and El-Tarabany (2015), Kazemi <i>et al.</i> (2018), Yi <i>et al.</i> (2018)
Calpain 3, Transforming growth factor- $\beta$ 3 ( <i>TGF-<math>\beta</math>3</i> ), Insulin ( <i>INS</i> )	5	Qiu <i>et al.</i> (2006), Ye <i>et al.</i> (2006), Lei <i>et al.</i> (2007), Zhang <i>et al.</i> (2009)
Insulin-like growth factor binding protein-2 ( <i>IGFBP-2</i> )	7	Lei <i>et al.</i> (2005), Leng <i>et al.</i> (2009)
Leptin receptor gene ( <i>LEPR</i> )	8	El Moujahid <i>et al.</i> (2014)
Growth hormone secretagogue receptor (GHSR)	9	Fang <i>et al.</i> (2010)
Insulin-like growth factor 1 receptor (IGFR1)	10	Lei <i>et al.</i> (2008)
Macrophage migration inhibitory factor ( <i>MIF</i> )	15	Ye <i>et al.</i> (2006)
Major histocompatibility complex <i>MHC Class II</i>	16	Ye <i>et al.</i> (2006), Molee <i>et al.</i> (2016)
Toll-like receptor 4 ( <i>TLR4</i> )	17	Lim <i>et al.</i> (2013)
Inducible nitric oxide synthase ( <i>INOS</i> ), Caspase-1 ( <i>CASP1</i> )	19	Liu and Lamont (2003), Ye <i>et al.</i> (2006), Lim <i>et al.</i> (2013)
Bone morphogenetic protein-7 ( <i>BMP7</i> )	20	Ye <i>et al.</i> (2006)
PR domain containing 16 ( <i>PRDM16</i> )	21	Cahyadi <i>et al.</i> (2013)
Thyroid-stimulating hormone beta subunit( <i>TSH-<math>\beta</math></i> )	26	Lei <i>et al.</i> (2007), Seo <i>et al.</i> (2013)
Growth hormone (GH and <i>GHI</i> )	27	Nie <i>et al.</i> (2005), Anh <i>et al.</i> (2015)
Growth hormone receptor (GHR)	Z	Lei <i>et al.</i> (2007)

**4. Molecular associations between candidate genes and egg production and quality traits in chickens:**

The molecular associations' studies given in Table 3 illustrated that there are several candidate genes located on chromosome 1, 3, 4, 5, 7, 9, 13, 20, 24, 27 and Z associated with egg production and egg quality traits in chickens (Table 3). Many studies have been confirmed recently the associations between candidate genes and egg production and egg quality traits in poultry (e.g. Osman *et al.*, 2017; Nguyen *et al.*, 2018; Azmal *et al.*, 2019; Bhattacharya *et al.*, 2019). These molecular associations' studies cited in Table 3 could be outlined as follows:

- 1) Genes located on chromosome 1: Insulin-like Growth Factor I (*IGF-I*) (Li *et al.*, 2009; Ngu *et al.*, 2015), Melatonin Receptor 1B (*MTNR1B*) (Li *et al.*, 2013), Matrix metalloproteinase 13 (Yuan *et al.*, 2016),
- 2) Genes located on chromosome 2: Neuropeptide Y (*NPY*) (Xu *et al.*, 2011b; Nguyen *et al.*, 2015), Gonadotropin releasing hormone I (*GnRHI*) (Bhattacharya *et al.*, 2019), Prolactin (*PRL*) (Cui *et al.*, 2006; Kulibaba 2015; Osman *et al.*, 2017; Nguyen *et al.*, 2018), Vasoactive intestinal peptide receptor- 1 (*VIPR1*) (Xu *et al.*, 2011b; Nguyen *et al.*, 2018),
- 3) Genes located on chromosome 3: Vasoactive intestinal peptide (*VIP*) (Zhou *et al.*, 2010; Nguyen *et al.*, 2018),

Follicle-stimulating hormone receptor (*FSHR*) (Li *et al.*, 2011),

- 4) Genes located on chromosome 4: Melatonin Receptor 1A and 1C (*MTNR1A*) and (*MTNR1C*) (Li *et al.*, 2013), Gonadotropin releasing hormone II (*GnRHII*) (Bhattacharya *et al.*, 2019),
- 5) Genes located on chromosome 5: gremlin (*GREM1*) and (*GREM2*) (Tyasi *et al.*, 2018),
- 6) Genes located on chromosome 7: Inhibin  $\alpha$  (*INHA*) (Cui *et al.*, 2019),
- 7) Genes located on chromosome 9: Ovocalyxin-32 Fulton *et al.* (2012),
- 8) Genes located on chromosome 13: Growth Differentiation Factor 9 Gene (*GDF9*) (Liu *et al.*, 2018), Dopamine receptor D1 (*DRD1*) (Tempfli *et al.*, 2015), Rap guanine nucleotide exchange factor 6 (*RAPGEF6*) (Azmal *et al.*, 2019),
- 9) Genes located on chromosome 20: Matrix metalloproteinases (*MMP9*) (Zhu and Jiang, 2014),
- 10) Genes located on chromosome 24: Dopamine D2 Receptor (*DRD2*) (Xu *et al.*, 2011a; 2011b; Ngu *et al.*, 2015),
- 11) Genes located on chromosome 27: Growth hormone (*GH*) (Su *et al.*, 2014; Kulibaba, 2015; Vu and Ngu 2016), Single transducers and activators of transcriptions 5B (*STAT5B*) (Charoensook *et al.*, 2016)
- 12) Genes located on chromosome Z: Prolactin receptor gene (*PRLR*) (Kulibaba, 2015), growth hormone receptor (Kulibaba, 2015).

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**Table (3):** Candidate genes associated with egg production and/or egg quality traits in chickens as cited in literature

<b>Candidate gene associated with egg production and/or egg quality traits</b>	<b>Chromosome number</b>	<b>Reference</b>
Insulin -like Growth Factor I ( <i>IGF-I</i> ), Melatonin Receptor 1B ( <i>MTNR1B</i> ), Matrix metalloproteinase 13 ( <i>MMP13</i> )	1	Li <i>et al.</i> (2009), Li <i>et al.</i> (2013), Ngu <i>et al.</i> (2015), Yuan <i>et al.</i> (2016)
Vasoactive Intestinal Peptide ( <i>VIP</i> ), Follicle Stimulating Hormone Receptor ( <i>FSHR</i> )	3	Zhou <i>et al.</i> (2010), Li <i>et al.</i> (2011), Nguyen <i>et al.</i> (2018)
Melatonin Receptor 1A and 1C ( <i>MTNR1A</i> and <i>MTNR1C</i> ), Gonadotropin Releasing Hormone II ( <i>GnRHII</i> )	4	Li <i>et al.</i> (2013), Bhattacharya <i>et al.</i> (2019)
Gremlin 1 ( <i>GREMI</i> ) and Gremlin 2 ( <i>GREM2</i> )	5	Tyasi <i>et al.</i> (2018)
Inhibin $\alpha$ ( <i>INHA</i> )	7	Cui <i>et al.</i> (2019)
Ovocalyxin-32	9	Fulton <i>et al.</i> (2012)
Growth Differentiation Factor 9 ( <i>GDF9</i> ), Dopamine receptor D1 ( <i>DRD1</i> ), Rap Guanine Nucleotide Exchange Factor 6 ( <i>RAPGNEF6</i> )	13	Tempfli <i>et al.</i> (2015), Liu <i>et al.</i> (2018), Azmal <i>et al.</i> (2019)
Matrix Metalloproteinases 9 ( <i>MMP9</i> )	20	Zhu and Jiang (2014)
Dopamine D2 Receptor ( <i>DRD2</i> )	24	Xu <i>et al.</i> (2011a; 2011b)
Growth Hormone ( <i>GH</i> ), Single Transducers and Activators of Transcriptions 5B ( <i>STAT5B</i> )	27	Su <i>et al.</i> (2014), Kulibaba (2015), Ngu <i>et al.</i> (2015), Charoensook <i>et al.</i> (2016), Vu and Ngu (2016) ,
Prolactin Receptor ( <i>PRLR</i> ), Growth Hormone Receptor ( <i>GHR</i> )	Z	Kulibaba (2015)

**5. Molecular associations between candidate genes and immune traits in chickens:**

The research conducted on candidate genes associated with immunity traits as cited in literature could be summarized in Table 4. In Iowa State University USA, Malek *et al.* (2004) stated that the SNP of

*CD28* gene was associated with both bacterial load and vaccine antibody response ( $P < 0.05$ ), while the SNP of *MD2* gene was associated with the bacterial load ( $P < 0.003$ ). Ghebremicael *et al.* (2008) also in Iowa State University USA, showed that SNP of *MAPKAPK2* and *IL10* genes were strongly associated

**Khalil, M. H.**

with *Salmonella enteritidis* burden ( $P < 0.001$ ) and may be valuable in generating resistant birds by marker-assisted selection. In Malaysia, Tohidi *et al.* (2013) reported that *NRAMP1*, *TGFβ3*, *TGFβ4*, and *TRAIL* genes are potential candidates genes to be used in selection programs for increasing genetic resistance against *Salmonella Enteritidis* burden in

native Malaysian chickens. In Egypt, Saleh *et al.* (2020b) stated that the SNP genotypes of gallinacin genes (*GAL 3*, *GAL 4* and *GAL 5*) are significantly associated with the caecal *Salmonella typhimurium* count and antibodies in Fayoumi (F), Rhode Island Red (R) ad their crosses ( $p < 0.05$ ).

**Table (4):** Genes associated with immunity traits in terms of bacterial load and antibody response to *Salmonella* in chickens as cited in literature

Candidate gene with immunity traits	Chromosome number	Reference
Dual Specificity tyrosine-(Y), Phosphorylation Regulated Kinase1A ( <i>DYRK1A</i> ), Cluster of Differentiation 28 ( <i>CD28</i> ), Inhibitor of Apoptosis Protein-1 ( <i>IAP1</i> ), Interferon- $\gamma$ ( <i>IFN-<math>\gamma</math></i> )	1	Kaiser and Lamont (2002), Liu and Lamont (2003), Malek <i>et al.</i> (2004), Sadeyen <i>et al.</i> (2006), Ghebremicael <i>et al.</i> (2008), Tohidi <i>et al.</i> (2013), Kazemi <i>et al.</i> (2018)
Myeloid Differentiation Primary Response 88 ( <i>MYD88</i> ), Accessory protein of the toll like receptor 4 ( <i>MD-2</i> )	2	Malek <i>et al.</i> (2004), Liu <i>et al.</i> (2015)
Transforming growth factor $\beta$ 4 ( <i>TGF-<math>\beta</math>4</i> ), Transforming growth factor $\beta$ 2 ( <i>TGF-<math>\beta</math>2</i> ), Gallinacins 1 to 13 ( <i>Gal 1 to Gal 13</i> )	3	Kramer <i>et al.</i> (2003), Hasenstein <i>et al.</i> (2006), Hasenstein and Lamont (2007), Tohidi <i>et al.</i> (2013), Psifidi <i>et al.</i> (2016), Muhsinin <i>et al.</i> (2017), Saleh <i>et al.</i> (2020b)
TNF-related apoptosis-inducing ligand ( <i>TRAIL</i> ), Interleukin 2 ( <i>IL2</i> ), Interleukin 8 ( <i>IL8</i> )	4	Kramer <i>et al.</i> (2003), Malek and Lamont (2003), Tohidi <i>et al.</i> (2013), Kazemi <i>et al.</i> (2018)
Tumor necrosis factor-related apoptosis-inducing ligand ( <i>TRAIL</i> ), Transforming growth factor $\beta$ 3 ( <i>TGF<math>\beta</math>3</i> )	5	Kramer <i>et al.</i> (2003), Tohidi <i>et al.</i> (2013)
Prosaposin ( <i>PSAP</i> )	6	Kramer <i>et al.</i> (2003), Tohidi <i>et al.</i> (2013)
Natural resistance-associated protein 1 ( <i>NRAMP1</i> )	7	Lamont <i>et al.</i> , 2002, Liu <i>et al.</i> (2015), Psifidi <i>et al.</i> (2016)
Lipopolysaccharide- induced tumor necrosis $\alpha$ factor ( <i>LITAF</i> )	14	Malek <i>et al.</i> (2004) , Tohidi <i>et al.</i> (2013)
Macrophage migration inhibitory factor ( <i>MIF</i> ), Immunoglobulin lambda-like polypeptide 1 ( <i>IgL</i> )	15	Kramer <i>et al.</i> (2003), Malek <i>et al.</i> (2004)
Major histocompatibility complex <i>MHC Class I</i>	16	Lamont <i>et al.</i> (2002), Zhou and Lamont (2003b)
Toll like receptor 4 ( <i>TLR4</i> )	17	Yunis <i>et al.</i> ( 2002), Malek <i>et al.</i> (2004),

**Chickens, Candidate genes, QTL, GWAS, Genomic Breeding Values (GBV), Genomic selection.**

		Khatab <i>et al.</i> (2017)
Caspase 1 ( <i>CASP1</i> ), Inducible nitric oxide synthase ( <i>iNOS</i> )	19	Kramer <i>et al.</i> (2003), Tohidi <i>et al.</i> (2013)
Interleukin 18 ( <i>IL-18</i> )	24	Sadeyen <i>et al.</i> (2006), Kazemi <i>et al.</i> (2018)
Polymeric immunoglobulin receptor ( <i>PIGR</i> ), Map kinase activated protein kinase 2 ( <i>MAPKAPK2</i> ), Interleukin 10 ( <i>IL10</i> ), Ligatin ( <i>LGTN</i> )	26	Ghebremicael <i>et al.</i> (2008)

**6. SNP genotypes and their associations with growth, feeding performance, egg production and egg quality, disease resistance responses in chickens:**

Regarding growth traits, Seo *et al.* (2013) found a significant association between SNP of TSH-  $\beta$  gene and body weight at day 150 in Cornish chickens where chicks of CC genotype ( $302 \pm 6.3$  g) were significantly heavier than that of GG genotype ( $294 \pm 4.5$  g) ( $p < 0.05$ ). Anh *et al.* (2015) reported that genotypes of AG and GG showing similar positive effects on chicken growth, while Zhao *et al.* (2015) reported that chicks of AA genotype of *IGFBP-2* gene had significantly heavier body weight at hatch and 12 weeks of age, than that of AB genotype ( $p < 0.05$ ). Jin *et al.* (2018) found that chicks with TT genotype of SNP of *Pit-1* gene had heavier and significant body weight at 70 day than those of CT and CC genotypes ( $p < 0.05$ ), while AA genotype had heavier and significant body weight at 70 day and lower feed conversion than those of AT and TT genotypes.

For egg production traits, Xu *et al.* (2011a,b) reported that SNPs genotypes of *VIPR-1* gene were associated significantly ( $P < 0.001$ ) with age at first

egg, egg number at 300 day and total egg production and hens of genotype CC had lower total egg production compared to TT genotype in Ningdu Sanhuang laying chickens. Li *et al.* (2013) found that two SNPs genotypes of *MTNRIA* and *MTNRIC* genes were significantly associated with egg number at 300 days of age and age at first egg ( $P < 0.01$ ). Kulibaba (2015) stated that chicks with heterozygous genotype AB of *GH* gene in Poltavskaya Glinistaya chickens were characterized by higher egg productivity than chickens with genotype BB. Ngu *et al.* (2015) reported significant associations between genotypes of *IPR-1/TaqI* and *VIPR-1/HhaI* genes and egg numbers at 28-47 weeks of age in Noi chicken of Vietnam ( $P < 0.05$ ). Tempfli *et al.* (2015) found that the genotypes of *PRL* and *DRD1* genes were associated significantly with egg production ( $P < 0.05$ ). Charoensook *et al.* (2016) showed that genotypes of *STAT5B* gene were significantly associated with egg weight, egg height, shell weight, shell thickness and albumen weight ( $p < 0.001$ ) and chicks of genotype GG had better egg quality traits than AA and AG genotypes. Vu and Ngu (2016) found that genotypes of *GH* gene were associated with egg production in Noi chickens. Liu *et al.*

(2018) found that SNP of growth differentiation factor 9 gene was significantly associated with age at first egg and weight at first egg and CC genotype exhibited higher age at first egg and weight at first egg than that of TT genotype. Azmal *et al.* (2019) showed that genotypes of RAPGEF6 gene were significantly associated with egg-laying rate at 60 days in Chinese local Jing Hong layer chickens ( $p < 0.0001$ ).

In terms of immunity and disease-resistance traits, Muhsinin *et al.* (2016) reported that CC genotype of *NMAMP1* gene was significantly lower in *salmonella pullorum* count than TC and TT genotypes in Sentul chickens ( $p < 0.05$ ). Khatab *et al.* (2017) reported that Fayoumi as pure Egyptian conserved breed has one genotype (BB) for *TLR4*-exon 2 in resistant and susceptibility compared with Hy-line strain chickens. Saleh *et al.* (2020a,b) found that SNP genotypes of *GAL 3*, *GAL 4* and *GAL 5* genes were significantly associated with the caecal *Salmonella typhimurium* count and the antibodies produced ( $p < 0.05$ ) in Fayoumi (F), Rhode Island Red (R),  $\frac{1}{2}R\frac{1}{2}F$  and  $\frac{1}{2}F\frac{1}{2}R$  genetic groups.

#### **7. Model for detecting the molecular associations between SNP genotypes of candidate gene and economic traits in chickens:**

To detect the molecular associations between the genotypes of candidate gene and economic traits, the effects of SNP genotype on different traits must be estimated using the PEST software (Groeneveld, 2006) and applying the following multi-trait animal model (defined in matrix notation):

$$y = Xb + Z_a u_a + e$$

Where  $y$  = vector of observed trait on the bird;  $b$  = vector of fixed effects, like sex, genetic group, genotype of candidate

gene (three genotypes);  $X$  and  $Z_a$  = incidence matrices corresponding to the fixed and additive random effects of the bird ( $u_a$ ), respectively;  $e$  = vector of random residual effects.

#### **8. Genome-wide association studies (GWAS) for economic traits in chickens:**

Recently, with advances in technologies of next generation sequencing, genome-wide association studies (GWAS) have been used successfully to identify SNPs and candidate genes associated with production, reproduction and disease resistance traits in chickens (Yuan *et al.*, 2015; Fan *et al.*, 2017). One of the essential elements needed in GWAS is the powerful statistical method that can be employed to identify genetic associations. Methods that using model of population structure by estimating the covariance due to genetic correlation between individuals have been reported to perform better in terms of detecting true associations than models that ignore genomic relationship matrix (Gianola *et al.*, 2016).

In the last decade, a remarkable range of discoveries from GWASs have been detected in chickens. In this concern, Xu *et al.* (2013) reported that chromosome 1 and 4 are the two critical chromosomes influencing growth traits particularly body weight in chickens. Pértille *et al.* (2017) observed that twenty significant SNPs were associated with feed conversion at 35 days and one significant SNP associated with body weight at 35 days of age. Sun *et al.* (2015), Yi *et al.* (2015) and Qu *et al.* (2019) identified candidate genes that provide strong association with egg weight and egg shell traits. GWAS results of Azmal *et al.* (2019) showed that five identified SNPs in chromosome 13 were associated with

**Chickens, Candidate genes, QTL, GWAS, Genomic Breeding Values (GBV), Genomic selection.**

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egg production traits. Kudinov *et al.* (2019) observed significant associations for age at first egg, body weight and egg weight in genotyping of 146 birds in GWASs and reported that there was an association with immune resistance on chromosome 2. Liu *et al.* (2019) found that genes some identified by annotating sixteen genome-wide significant SNPs that can be considered as candidate genes associated with egg numbers.

**9. Suggested genetic improvement program to be applied to improve the Arabian chickens using molecular approaches:**

Using traditional selection for genetic improvement in poultry will cause slow and low genetic progress and using biotechnology techniques are the best way to achieve fast genetic improvement. The necessary steps to perform a genetic improvement program in the Arabian breeds of chickens using the molecular applications could be summarized as follows:

**Chickens, Candidate genes, QTL, GWAS, Genomic Breeding Values (GBV), Genomic selection.**

Step No	Procedure and Executable Approach
1.	<p><b>Recording the phenotypic data from full pedigree file to evaluate the birds genetically by estimating PBV for chicks, hens and cocks:</b>  Adequate number of birds will be used. Not adequate records must be discarded to ensure a homogenous data set. The pedigreed birds will be used to estimate the breeding value (EBV) for the economic traits in local breeds of chickens using an animal model applying BLUPF90 software (Misztal et al., 2018) fitting univariate the following approach:</p> $y = Xb + Za + e$ <p>where, y= vector of observations, b= vector of fixed effects with an incidence matrix X, a= vector of random bird effects with incidence matrix Z, and e= vector of random residual effects</p>
2.	<p><b>Determine the main equipments and chemicals list required for DNA extraction:</b>  The necessary equipments and chemicals are: PCR machine, Real-time PCR, Gel electrophoresis, Gel Documentation System, Vortex, Centrifuge 30000 rpm under cooling, Biosafety cabinet, EDTA, Ethidium Bromide, Magnesium chloride, dNTPs, PCR Master Mix (2X), Sybr green master mix kits, PFU Taq DNA Polymerase, Agarose, Phenol (nucleic acid grade), DNA isolation Kit from animal tissues, Micropipettes set, Eppendorf.</p>
3.	<p><b>Collecting the blood samples and performing DNA extraction (Abdel A'al et al., 2016; 2017):</b>  The blood samples will be collected under sterile conditions by jugular vein puncture using 5-ml vacuum tubes of polypropylene containing EDTA. The samples will transfer to the laboratory in iceboxes containing ice packs and stored at -20° C until extract the genomic DNA. Genomic DNA extraction: genomic DNA will extract using a standard phenol-chloroform extraction protocol and ethanol precipitation methods.</p>
4.	<p><b>Reporting the candidate genes from QTLs data base:</b>  For bovine genome, a list of previously reported QTL for economic traits was obtained from animal QTL data base release 30 (Hu et al., 2016) (<a href="http://www.animalgenome.org/QTLdb">http://www.animalgenome.org/QTLdb</a>).</p>
5.	<p><b>Preparing the genotyping files (Liu et al., 2019) and genotyping the birds:</b>  The birds will be genotyped using SNPs markers.</p>
6.	<p><b>Applying SNP association test:</b>  The National Center for Biotechnology Information (NCBI) database will be used to detect the genes closely associated with economic traits in poultry.</p>
7.	<p><b>Estimating the genomic breeding values (GBV) to be applied in genomic selection:</b>  The genomic breeding values (GBV) will be estimated as the sum of the effects of dense genetic markers, or haplotypes of these markers, across the entire genome capturing all the quantitative trait loci (QTL) that contribute to</p>

**Chickens, Candidate genes, QTL, GWAS, Genomic Breeding Values (GBV), Genomic selection.**

variation in a trait. The QTL effects detected from individual single nucleotide polymorphism (SNP) markers, are first estimated in a large reference population with phenotypic information (Abdel A'al *et al.*, 2016; 2017). In subsequent generations or in related populations, only marker information is required to calculate GBV.

The mixed model will be used to estimate the breeding values and best linear unbiased (GBLUP). These models must include the fixed effects such as sex and SNPs and the random effects for a given quantitative phenotype. The proposed mixed model and its solution are presented as follows (Lee *et al.*, 2014):

$$y = Xb + Zu + e$$

Where  $y$  is the vector of phenotypic values,  $X$  and  $Z$  are the design matrices;  $b$  and  $u$  are vectors of fixed and random effects, respectively.

**8. Applying the Genome-Wide Association Study (GWAS):**

The birds with more than 20% missing marker genotype will be excluded from the analysis. A SNP will be removed from the analysis if it had a minor allele frequency less than 0.02. Filtration of the marker data was performed with Plink software (Purcell *et al.*, 2007). A genome wide association study will be performed using a linear regression model in the way of regressing the average daily deviations on SNP alleles and will be implemented by Plink software. The PLINK software will be used for analyzing the GWAS using the following model:

$$y = xb + e$$

Where,  $y$  is a vector of each genomic breeding value (GBV) of the genotyped individuals,  $x$  is each SNP information and  $b$  is the coefficient value for the  $x$  vector.

**9. Evaluating the prediction accuracy of EBV vs GBV:**

The correlation between traditional predicted breeding values (PBV) using phenotypic data and pedigree) and the genomic breeding values (GBV) using GWAS procedure must be estimated. The reliability of GBV and the correlation between EBV and GBV were used to evaluate the prediction accuracy (Moser *et al.*, 2009).

**10. Applying genomic selection program (GS) using the genomic breeding values (GBV):**

The genomic selection (GS) is a form of marker assisted selection in which genetic markers covering the whole genome are used, i.e. all quantitative trait loci (QTL) for cocks and hens are used. This approach has become feasible due to the revolution in SNP discovery methods like gene sequencing and SNP genotyping on DNA chips. The genomic breeding values (GBV) and their reliabilities for the genotyped birds will be used to select the best cocks and hens based on their GBV to be the parents for the next generation (genomic selection).

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