

## **Detection of quantitative trait *loci* affecting carcass traits and internal organs on chromosome 3 in an F<sub>2</sub> intercross of Japanese quail**

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Molecular technologies based on markers indicating differences among individuals at the DNA level can play an important role in genetic improvement of carcass traits through marker or gene assisted selection. The purpose of this study was to map quantitative trait *loci* (QTL) of chromosome 3 affecting carcass traits on Japanese quail using microsatellite markers. Two white and wild strains of Japanese quail were crossed reciprocally and the F<sub>1</sub> generation was created. The F<sub>2</sub> generation was generated by intercrossing F<sub>1</sub> birds. Phenotypic data including weights of hot and cold carcasses, carcass parts and internal organs were collected from 422 F<sub>2</sub> birds. The total mapping population (472 birds) was genotyped for microsatellite markers. QTL analysis was performed using the least squares regression interval mapping method. Significant QTL were identified for hot and chilled carcass weights, liver weight, head percentage, uropygial gland percentage, intestine percentage, ovary weight, uropygial gland weight, pancreas percentage (0-36 cM with an additive effect), proventriculus percentage, head weight (6-20 cM with a dominance effect), and gizzard percentage (0 cM with an imprinting effect).

**KEY WORDS:** Japanese quail / carcass traits / chromosome 3 / internal organs / microsatellite markers / QTL mapping

Positioning *loci* associated with quantitative trait *loci* (QTL) is the first step toward identification of genes responsible for variation in quantitative traits. Detecting genomic regions regulating economically important traits can increase the response

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of breeding programs, especially for those that are difficult to improve by phenotypic selection. A number of tools for genome analyses developed during the last decade have facilitated identification of genes controlling complex traits. This has opened promising prospects for predictive medicine in humans and marker-assisted selection (MAS) in plants and animals of economic interest [Knott *et al.* 1998, Ober *et al.* 2001].

The Japanese quail (*Coturnix japonica*) belong to the class of Aves, order: Galliformes, family: Phasianidae, genus: *Coturnix*. The number of chromosomes for this species is 78, including 27 mini pairs, 6 medium pairs, and 6 big pairs. Domestic quails, derived from the Japanese quail (*Coturnix japonica*) as laying, meat, and laboratory animals have produced a flourishing industry. At present there are about 1,050 million quails worldwide, including 200 million quails in China alone. Quail ranks second to chicken in the Chinese poultry industry [Chang *et al.* 2007].

QTL have been mapped in pigs [Knott *et al.* 1998, Walling *et al.* 1998], mice [Flint *et al.* 1995, Brockman *et al.* 1998], and chickens [Vallejo *et al.* 1998, van Kaam *et al.* 1998, van Kaam *et al.* 1999a, van Kaam *et al.* 1999b]. Many studies have also successfully detected numerous QTL for economically important traits such as growth and body composition in chickens using crossbred experimental populations [Wang *et al.* 2012]. The chicken QTLdb (<http://www.animalgenome.org>) contains 2451 QTL involving 248 different traits from 125 publications. Numerous QTL affecting growth and fat traits were identified on chicken chromosomes 3, 5 and 7 [Wang *et al.* 2012].

Rosário *et al.* [2006] identified markers associated with chicken performance and carcass traits on chromosomes 1 (GGA1), 3 (GGA3) and 4 (GGA4). Atzmon *et al.* [2006] used single-marker analyses and found 44 significant associations out of the 456 marker-trait combinations of associations with traits related to growth and fatness in a commercial chicken line. Applying a single marker approach to a multi-generational population Atzmon *et al.* [2008] identified 729 associations with egg production, body weight and carcass traits, 150 of which were significant. In chickens previous studies identified QTL affecting feed intake, body weight, organ weights and carcass traits on four regions of chromosome 1 [Nones *et al.* 2006], and on chromosomes 2, 3, 4, and 5 [Baron *et al.* 2011, Ruy *et al.* 2005]. Quantitative trait loci affecting lung, spleen, and bursa weights were identified on chicken chromosomes 3, 10 and 17 by Park *et al.* [2006]. In chickens previous studies identified QTL affecting body weight, feed intake, carcass traits and organ weights on four regions of chromosome 1 [Nones *et al.* 2006], and on chromosomes 2, 3, 4, and 5 [Baron *et al.* 2011, Ruy *et al.* 2005].

Despite many efforts to construct linkage maps and identification of QTL in the chicken genome, very little information is available on mapping of genomic regions underlying quantitative traits in the Japanese quail. Minvielle *et al.* [2005] found QTL for body weight at 5 and 70 weeks of age and for feed intake on chromosome 1 in an F<sub>2</sub> population of the Japanese quail. Esmailizadeh *et al.* [2012] have recently identified highly significant QTL for live weights (weight at 3, 4, 5, and 6 weeks of age) in a half-sib population of a commercial strain of the Japanese quail. However, to

our knowledge, there have been no published reports on QTL associated with carcass traits in the Japanese quail. Thus, the objective of this study was to map QTL for carcass traits and internal organs on Japanese quail chromosomes 3 in an F<sub>2</sub> resource population.

## **Material and methods**

### **Experimental population and data recording**

Two strains of the Japanese quail, Pharaoh (meat type) and white (layer type), were used to create an F<sub>2</sub> resource population designated for QTL mapping studies. Both strains originated in Japan and were imported from Canada to Iran in 1990. The white (W) and Pharaoh (P) founder strains were intercrossed to produce 34 F<sub>1</sub> parents (9 males and 25 females). The F<sub>1</sub> birds included 17 WP and 17 PW reciprocal progeny. The WP males were intercrossed to PW females, while the PW males were intercrossed to both WP and PW females generating 422 F<sub>2</sub> offspring (245 males and 177 females) including 153 WPPW, 230 PWWP and 39 PWPW birds, respectively. The F<sub>2</sub> population was created in five consecutive hatches. The total resource mapping population consisted of 472 birds.

The parents were kept in group cages and fed a layer diet *ad libitum*. The F<sub>2</sub> progeny were raised for 5 weeks on a floor covered with wood shavings in an environmentally controlled room with continuous artificial lighting and at a temperature which was decreased gradually from 37 to 25°C. The progeny received water and a mash starter diet (0-21 days) and a mash growing diet (22-35 days) *ad libitum*. The F<sub>2</sub> birds were not fed in the 12-hour period *prior to slaughter*, while they had free access to water. Before slaughter of the F<sub>2</sub> progeny, all the birds were weighed. After slaughter, defeathering and evisceration, the hot carcass weight and the head weight with skin were obtained using a digital balance accurate to 0.01 g. The internal organs including heart, gizzard, liver, proventriculus, intestine, pancreas, spleen, ovary and testes were separated and weighed during evisceration. Carcasses were refrigerated at a temperature of +4°C for 24 hours and chilled carcass weight was recorded. The uropygial gland and bursa of fabricius were separated from the chilled carcass and weighed. The chilled carcass was dissected into five parts including the breast muscle, wings with skin, leg muscles (thigh and lower thigh), the neck and back. The weights of these five carcass parts were recorded and the percentages of the carcass parts relative to the carcass weight were calculated. The weight of the total separable fat from whole carcass was also recorded.

### **DNA Markers and Genotyping**

Blood samples of all the animals (i.e. 16 parents, 34 F<sub>1</sub>, and 422 F<sub>2</sub> birds) were collected at slaughter using 2.5 mL blood collection tubes containing EDTA as an anticoagulant and stored at -20°C. DNA was extracted from 500 µL of the blood using a modified salting-out technique, where proteins and other contaminants were

precipitated from the cell lysate using high concentrations of ammonium acetate. The precipitates were removed by centrifugation and the DNA was recovered by alcohol precipitation. Three microsatellite markers covering 100% of the map of chromosome 3 were used to genotype 16 parental, 34 F<sub>1</sub>, and 422 F<sub>2</sub> birds. Three primer pairs of microsatellite markers were designed according to the literature [Kayang *et al.* 2002], as shown in Table 1.

**Table 1.** Summary of general characteristics of microsatellite markers on Japanese quail chromosome 3

Marker	Position (cM) <sup>A</sup>	Oligo sequence Reverse	Forward	TA <sup>B</sup>
GUJ0099	0	5'-TTTAAAGTTTCCCCAGGCAG-3'	5'-CTCTTATCCATCCTTCCTTC-3'	55
GUJ0035	27	5'-GGGCAATAAAAGAAAGACTG-3'	5'-AATACTGGTTTTGTGATGGC-3'	55
GUJ0041	38	5'-TGAAACATACCTGAGTGCTA-3'	5'-AAAATGTCTGCAAATGGGC-3'	57

<sup>A</sup>Marker position on chromosome based on the Japanese quail sex averaged linkage map [Kayang *et al.* 2004].

<sup>B</sup>TA, annealing temperature.

Polymerase chain reaction (PCR) was performed for genotyping all birds for each marker. The reactions contained 2 mL of template DNA, 2.5 mL PCR buffer, 1 mL MgCl<sub>2</sub>, 0.5 mL dNTP mix, 0.3 mL Taq DNA polymerase, and 16.5 mL sterile water. The amplification conditions for PCR were 94°C for 4 minutes, 30 cycles of 94°C for 30 s, annealing at the temperature set for each primer (55-57°C) (Tab. 1) for 45 s and 2 minutes at 63°C, followed by a final extension step of 4 minutes at 72°C. The PCR products were then separated on 8% denaturing polyacrylamide gels with a molecular weight marker on an electrophoresis system at 200 V for 3 to 4 hours. Individual PCR product fragment sizes for the microsatellite markers were determined by visualizing the band pattern via the silver nitrate staining method.

### Statistical analysis

Prior to statistical analyses of QTL the residuals of single traits were checked for normality. The QTL analysis was carried out by the linear regression method [Haley *et al.* 1994] for F<sub>2</sub> outcross pedigrees. The genetic model at the QTL assumed that the original strains were fixed for different alleles, although genes could be segregating elsewhere. Hence, it was possible to combine information about the QTL across the families as pointed by Knott *et al.* [1998]. At the first stage of the analysis the probability of an F<sub>2</sub> offspring being each of the four QTL genotypes (QQ, Qq, qQ, and qq) at each position in the genome was calculated conditionally upon the marker genotype. Subsequently, the following three linear models for the additive (a), dominance (d), and imprinting (i) effects of the QTL at a given position were analyzed by least squares for each trait:

$$\begin{aligned}
 [1] \quad y_{ijkl} &= \mu + H_i + S_j + aP_{ak} + e_{ijkl} \\
 [2] \quad y_{ijkl} &= \mu + H_i + S_j + aP_{ak} + dP_{dk} + e_{ijkl} \\
 [3] \quad y_{ijkl} &= \mu + H_i + S_j + aP_{ak} + dP_{dk} + gP_{gk} + e_{ijkl}
 \end{aligned}$$

where:

- $y_{ijkl}$  – observed phenotype of individual  $l$ ;
- $\mu$  – overall mean of the population;
- $H_i, S_j$  – fixed effects of hatch and sex;
- $a, d, g$  – additive, dominance and parental imprinting effects of QTL, respectively;
- $P_{ak}$  – conditional probability of animal  $k$  to carry the allele of wild strain;
- $P_{dk}$  – conditional probability of animal  $k$  to be heterozygous;
- $P_{ik}$  – conditional probability of animal  $k$  being heterozygous and inheriting the wild strain allele from its sire;
- $e_{ijkl}$  – random residual error.

To investigate whether the putative QTL was different in male vs. female  $F_2$  offspring, the QTL by sex interaction effect was also included in model 3. The additive QTL effect by hatch interaction was also analyzed. The GridQTL portal under an  $F_2$  module at <http://www.gridqtl.org.uk/> [Seaton *et al.* 2002] was used for QTL analyses. Applying the above mentioned models, the F-statistic profiles were generated at 1-cM intervals along the chromosome to identify the most likely QTL position. Significance thresholds for analyses were calculated using a permutation test [Churchill *et al.* 1994]. Data permutation with 10000 replicates was used to determine the empirical distribution of the test statistic under the null hypothesis of no QTL. QTL effects that exceeded the chromosome-wide F-critical threshold at a  $P < 0.05$  and the F-critical threshold of  $P < 0.01$  were considered evidence for a significant QTL effect.

The percentage of the variance explained by the detected QTL ( $V_{QTL}$ ) was calculated as:

$$V_{QTL} = 100 \times (RMS - FMS)/RMS$$

where RMS is the residual mean square from the reduced model, omitting the desired effect of QTL, and FMS is the residual mean square from the full model, including the desired effect of QTL.

## **Results and discussion**

The number of records (N), means, minimum and maximum, standard deviation, the range and coefficient of variation for the traits studied are given in Table 2. In this study all the marker loci were polymorphic and the average number of alleles per locus was 3. The allele sizes ranged from 114 to 284 bp. The information content (IC) shows useful information provided by a marker on the genome. The IC values vary among the markers, with some markers being fully informative and others with  $IC < 0.5$ . Values for the polymorphism information content (PIC) were 0.539, 0.697 and 0.590 for markers GUJ0035, GUJ0041 and GUJ0099, respectively. Based on

**Table 2.** Summary statistics for phenotypic traits of the F2 population

Trait	N	Mean <sup>A</sup>	Minimum	Maximum	RSD <sup>B</sup>	CV (%)
Live body weight prior to slaughter	422	152.40	83.70	199.20	17.58	11.6
Hot carcass weight	422	112.00	48.30	166.00	14.33	12.8
Chilled carcass weight	421	104.50	141.00	460.30	13.22	12.6
Head weight	422	5.90	4.06	7.53	0.29	5.0
Neck weight	422	4.20	2.12	6.91	0.46	11.1
Breast weight	422	36.90	14.39	54.08	3.10	8.4
Back weight	422	17.30	8.54	30.95	1.83	10.6
Wings weight	422	9.80	4.69	13.52	1.09	11.1
Legs weight	422	21.40	9.91	30.08	1.64	7.7
Carcass fat weight	422	0.70	0.05	5.54	0.70	100.0
Heart weight	422	1.30	0.59	2.01	0.16	13.2
Gizzard weight	422	4.00	1.86	6.05	0.45	11.3
Liver weight	422	3.40	1.85	9.64	0.55	15.8
Proventriculus weight	421	0.60	0.05	0.92	0.10	15.5
Intestine weight	422	7.00	3.46	15.14	1.14	16.2
Pancreas weight	422	0.50	0.05	0.94	0.10	21.3
Spleen weight	416	0.10	0.02	0.23	0.03	32.4
Uropygial gland weight	400	0.30	0.03	0.65	0.07	26.0
Bursa of fabricius weight	410	0.10	0.03	0.33	0.04	32.7
Ovary weight	177	0.16	0.10	6.40	0.45	286.4
Testes weight	245	0.26	0.10	3.20	0.36	138.5
Head percentage	421	5.22	3.64	8.67	0.93	18.0
Neck percentage	421	4.02	2.53	6.93	0.43	10.8
Breast percentage	421	35.29	3.90	47.63	2.91	8.2
Back percentage	421	16.72	10.01	35.53	1.63	9.8
Wings percentage	421	9.43	5.64	13.06	1.04	11.1
Legs percentage	421	20.55	13.09	24.10	1.24	6.0
Carcass fat percentage	421	0.64	0.60	4.10	0.64	100.0
Heart percentage	421	1.09	0.61	1.99	0.44	41.0
Gizzard percentage	420	3.50	2.24	7.56	0.46	13.4
Liver percentage	421	3.08	1.75	8.93	0.55	18.1
Proventriculus percentage	419	0.56	0.60	1.12	0.96	173.1
Intestine percentage	421	6.21	3.36	13.83	1.15	18.5
Pancreas percentage	421	0.43	0.50	0.88	0.97	225.5
Spleen percentage	415	0.78	0.20	0.20	0.86	110.3
Uropygial gland percentage	399	0.26	0.30	0.60	0.74	285.2
Bursa of fabricius percentage	409	0.11	0.30	0.37	0.38	352.1
Ovary percentage	177	0.13	0.10	3.90	0.90	692.3
Testes percentage	245	0.22	0.10	2.38	0.91	416.6
Carcass efficiency	417	73.50	27.46	97.73	3.13	4.2

<sup>A</sup>Trait mean adjusted for fixed effects included in the model.

<sup>B</sup>Residual standard deviation after fitting basic fixed effects (see the text).

the classification of Botstein et al. [1980] (highly informative  $PIC > 0.50$ ; reasonably informative  $0.50 > PIC > 0.25$  and slightly informative  $PIC < 0.25$ ), these contents of the polymorphic markers were highly informative. The useful information contents across chromosome 3 of the Japanese quail are presented in Figure 1.

In model 1, which only accounts for additive effects of QTL, eight chromosome-wide significant QTL underlying cold carcass weight, hot carcass weight, ovary weight, intestine %, gizzard %, pancreas %, liver % and uropygial gland % were found at 9, 7, 32, 24, 19, 36, 0 and 23 cM of the linkage map, respectively. The additive effects

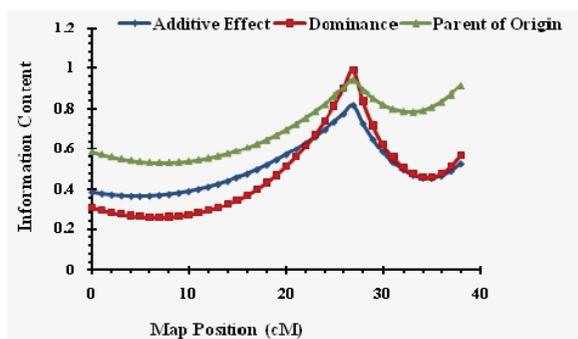


Fig. 1. Useful information contents of markers used in this study in different parts of chromosome 3 of Japanese quail for additive, dominance and imprinting effects.

of both QTL were position and the closest marker locus to four of the detected QTL (QTL for ovary weight, intestine %, gizzard % and uropygial gland %) was GUJ0035 and the nearest markers to the other QTL (QTL for pancreas % and chilled carcass weight, hot carcass weight, liver %) were GUJ0041 and GUJ0099, respectively.

In model 2, which includes additive and dominance effects of QTL, ten chromosome-wide significant QTL underlying chilled carcass weight, hot carcass weight, head weight, head %, back %, liver weight, ovary weight, liver %, proventriculus % and uropygial gland % were found at 0, 0, 20, 1, 1, 0, 31, 0, 6, and 15 cM of the linkage map, respectively. The additive and dominance effects of all the detected QTL were negative except for chilled and hot carcass weights. The closest marker locus to the QTL for ovary weight and uropygial gland % was GUJ0035, while the nearest marker to the QTL for liver weight, liver %, proventriculus %, chilled and hot carcass weight was GUJ0099.

In the third analysis, where the additive, dominance and imprinting (parent-of-origin) effects of QTL were jointly modeled, fourteen chromosome-wide significant QTL underlying hot carcass weight, chilled carcass weight, head weight, head %, back %, ovary weight, uropygial gland weight, intestine %, gizzard %, pancreas %, liver %, and proventriculus % were found.

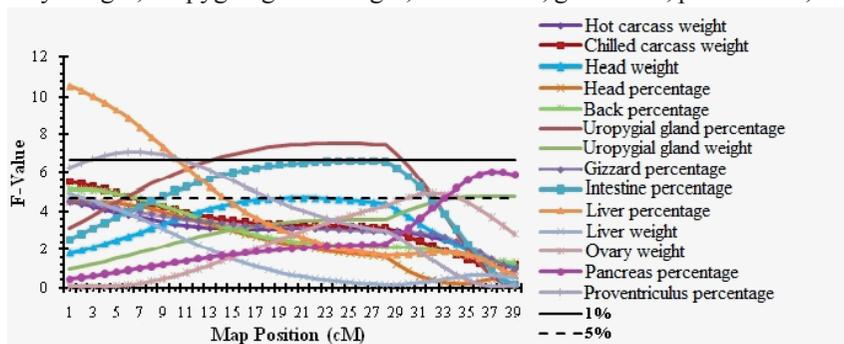


Fig. 2. Test statistic curve resulted from the additive quantitative trait loci model on chromosomes 3 using an intercross between two Japanese quail strains.

urophygial gland %, proventriculus % and liver weight were found at 0, 0, 20, 1, 1, 31, 35, 24, 0, 36, 0, 23, 6 and 0 cM of the linkage map, respectively. QTL that surpassed the suggestive or significant linkage thresholds are summarized in Tables 3, 4 and 5.

Table 3 shows the location of significant QTL, their positions on the chromosome, the maximum F values obtained at this position, their genetic effects, and the reduction of the residual variance obtained by fitting a QTL at this location (Fig. 2).

The additive QTL effects for chilled and hot carcass weights were significant (Tab. 3). The maximum F-statistics for hot carcass and chilled carcass weights were detected at 4.5 and 5.5 cM, respectively, from the beginning of the linkage group. The F<sub>2</sub> phenotypic variance percentage explained by the detected QTL for additive effects was 1.4 and 1.6 for both carcass weights, respectively. QTL for head weight were mapped at 20 cM, while the other two QTL affecting head % and back % were detected at 1 cM on chromosome 3 (Tab. 3). The type of action for the detected QTL for head weight was dominance, while the effect of the QTL for head % was additive. The dominance QTL effect for head weight was positive, while the additive QTL effect for head % was negative. The peak value of the test statistic (F = 5.1) of the detected QTL for back % on chromosome 3 was very close to the GUV0035 marker. Additionally, this QTL explained 1.2% of the F<sub>2</sub> phenotypic variance for back % (Tab. 3).

The interaction of the additive QTL effect and hatch was significant for intestine %, pancreas %, liver %, gizzard %, ovary %, back weight and back % (Tab. 4 and Fig. 3). Additive QTL effects for pancreas %, liver %, urophygial gland %, pancreas weight, back weight and back % showed a significant interaction with sex (Tab. 5 and

Table 3. Quantitative trait loci associated with carcass traits in F<sub>2</sub> population of Japanese quail

Trait	Position (cM) <sup>A</sup>	F-value	QTL effect <sup>B</sup>		V <sub>QTL</sub> <sup>C</sup>		Closest marker	
			additive (SE)	dominance (SE)	additive	dominance imprinting		
Intestine percentage	24	6.6*	0.20(0.07)	-	-	1.4	-	GUJ0035
Pancreas percentage	36	6.0*	0.20(0.009)	-	-	1.1	-	GUJ0041
Urophygial gland percentage	23	7.5*	0.01(0.008)	-	-	1.6	-	GUJ0035
Liver weight	0	4.8*	0.52(0.10)	-0.38(0.16)	-	1.0	-	GUJ0099
Ovary weight	31	4.9*	0.42(0.15)	-0.35(0.20)	-	3.3	1.3	GUJ0035
Liver percentage	0	10.5**	0.41(0.10)	-0.52(0.16)	-	2.5	2.0	GUJ0099
Proventriculus percentage	6	7.0**	0.02(0.01)	-0.06(0.01)	-	1.1	2.2	GUJ0099
Hot carcass weight	0	4.5*	-0.30(0.11)	0.30(0.18)	-	1.4	0.4	GUJ0099
Chilled carcass weight	0	5.5*	-0.31(0.11)	0.38(0.17)	-	1.6	0.7	GUJ0099
Head weight	20	4.7*	-0.03(0.06)	-0.37(0.10)	-	0.3	1.6	GUJ0035
Head percentage	1	4.5*	0.10(0.04)	-0.20(0.70)	-	0.7	1.1	GUJ0099
Back percentage	1	5.1*	0.20(0.11)	-0.51(0.17)	-	0.8	1.2	GUJ0099
Urophygial gland weight	35	4.7**	0.57(0.10)	-0.28(0.14)	-0.14(0.07)	0.0	2.0	GUJ0041
Gizzard percentage	0	4.5*	0.28(0.11)	-0.19(0.17)	-0.26(0.08)	1.4	0.0	GUJ0099

<sup>A</sup>QTL location based on the Japanese quail sex averaged linkage map [43].  
<sup>B</sup>Additive and dominance effects were defined as deviation of animals homozygous for the wild allele or heterozygous, respectively, from the mean of two homozygotes.  
<sup>C</sup>QTL variance (reduction in residual variance of the F<sub>2</sub> population obtained by inclusion of a QTL at the given position).  
 \*P<0.05; \*\*P<0.01.

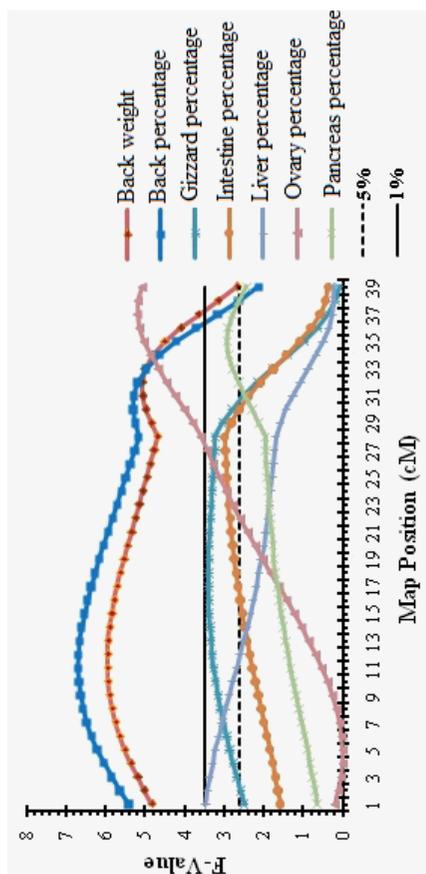


Fig. 3. Test statistic curves resulted from the additive quantitative trait loci by hatch interaction model on chromosome 3 using an intercross between two Japanese quail strains.

Fig. 4).

The peak values of the F-statistics for back weight and back % in this analysis were detected at 4.09 and 4.29 cM, respectively, from the beginning of the linkage group. The  $F_2$  phenotypic variance percentage explained by the detected QTL was 0.8 (Tab. 5).

QTL were detected for carcass traits, which are important traits in poultry breeding. This study adds new important

information from a chromosome wide search for QTL in the Japanese quail and it is the first report on the detection and positioning of loci affecting carcass traits on chromosome 3 in the Japanese quail. The contribution of the detected QTL to the  $F_2$  phenotypic variance ranged from 0.0 to 3.3%. In a comprehensive review of studies

Table 4. Summary of quantitative trait loci (QTL) results obtained from modeling QTL by hatch interaction

Trait	Position (cM) <sup>A</sup>	F value	QTL additive effect							V <sub>QTL</sub> <sup>B</sup>	Closest marker
			H1 (SE)	H2 (SE)	H3 (SE)	H4 (SE)	H5 (SE)	H5 (SE)			
Pancreas percentage	34	2.9*	-0.01(0.02)	0.05(0.02)	0.06(0.02)	-0.01(0.02)	0.008(0.02)	0.008(0.02)	0.008(0.02)	1.1	GUJ0041
Intestine percentage	27	2.9*	0.02(0.16)	0.31(0.16)	0.51(0.17)	-0.09(0.15)	0.26(0.17)	0.26(0.17)	0.26(0.17)	1.4	GUJ0035
Liver percentage	0	3.4*	0.52(0.21)	0.61(0.27)	0.34(0.27)	-0.07(0.21)	0.52(0.23)	0.52(0.23)	0.52(0.23)	2.5	GUJ0099
Ovary percentage	36	5.1**	-0.007(0.13)	-0.03(0.32)	-0.05(0.47)	-0.01(0.21)	1.13(0.22)	1.13(0.22)	1.13(0.22)	3.1	GUJ0041
Gizzard percentage	16	3.3**	0.02(0.19)	0.50(0.21)	0.78(0.23)	0.17(0.19)	-0.13(0.23)	-0.13(0.23)	-0.13(0.23)	1.4	GUJ0035
Back weight	10	5.9**	-5.46(0.19)	-0.10(0.21)	1.18(0.33)	-0.27(0.20)	0.34(0.22)	0.34(0.22)	0.34(0.22)	0.8	GUJ0099
Back percentage	10	6.6**	-0.03(0.22)	-0.09(0.24)	1.41(0.25)	-0.31(0.22)	0.38(0.24)	0.38(0.24)	0.38(0.24)	0.8	GUJ0099

<sup>A</sup>QTL location based on the Japanese quail sex averaged linkage map [43].

<sup>B</sup>QTL variance (proportion of phenotypic variance of the  $F_2$  population explained by QTL).

\*P<0.05; \*\*P<0.01.

**Table 5.** Summary of quantitative trait loci (QTL) results obtained from modeling QTL by sex interaction

Trait	Position (cM) <sup>A</sup>	F-value	QTL additive effect		V <sub>QTL</sub> <sup>B</sup>	Closest marker
			male A (SE)	female A(SE)		
Pancreas weight	37	5.09*	-0.60(0.10)	0.40(0.10)	1.00	GUJ0041
Pancreas percentage	36	5.69**	-0.003(0.01)	-0.04(0.01)	1.10	GUJ0041
Liver percentage	0	8.01**	0.09(0.16)	0.56(0.12)	2.50	GUJ0099
Uropygial gland percentage	26	4.23*	0.01(0.01)	0.02(0.00)	1.60	GUJ0035
Back weight	27	4.09*	0.32(0.10)	0.32(0.08)	0.80	GUJ0035
Back percentage	27	4.29*	0.36(0.12)	0.03(0.09)	0.80	GUJ0035

<sup>A</sup>QTL location based on the Japanese quail sex averaged linkage map [43].

<sup>B</sup>QTL variance (proportion of phenotypic variance of the F2 population explained by QTL).

\*P<0.05; \*\*P<0.01.

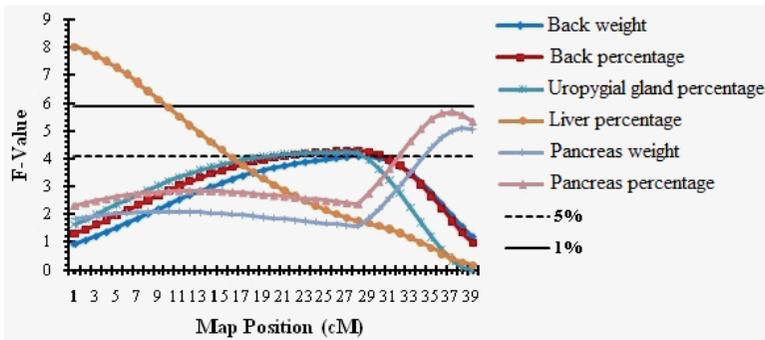


Fig. 4. Test statistic curves resulted from the additive quantitative trait loci by the sex interaction model on chromosomes 3 using an intercross between two Japanese quail strains.

conducted to identify QTL in chickens [Sazanov *et al.* 2010], no QTL for growth or carcass traits was mapped between LEI0143 and ROS0308 (0-69 cM according to the Chicken Consensus Map, [Schmid *et al.* 2005] on GGA11, but a suggestive linkage for length of intestine at 9 weeks of age between ROS0111 and ADL0308 (37-69 cM, Consensus Map) was found in this region by Navarro *et al.* [2005]. The additive effects of these QTL were positive for chilled and hot carcass weight, while the dominance effects for head weight and back % were negative. Van Kaam *et al.* [1999a, 1999b] performed a genome scan for growth and carcass composition using a crossing between two broiler lines and only one QTL reached the genome-wide significance level. This carcass QTL was located on the chicken chromosome 3 at 0 cM.

A QTL by sex interaction was assessed to investigate whether the effect differed between the two sexes. Significant QTLs by sex interactions were found for both back weight and back %. This QTL explained 0.8% of the phenotypic variance (Tab. 5 and Fig. 4). Generally, a QTL by sex interaction can be considered as a genotype by environment interaction, considering sex as an organismal environment for gene expression [Sazanov *et al.* 2010]. Conducting a full genome scan with a QTL using the sex interaction model or conducting the analysis separately for each sex could

facilitate detection of such interactions. However, a larger number of tests conducted could also lead to an increase in false positive results. Further experiments are needed to confirm QTL by sex interactions detected in our experiment before their application in selection. In a number of studies the QTL by sex interaction was tested only for locations that were significant in the initial analysis using models without sex interaction [Ikeobi *et al.* 2002, Ikeobi *et al.* 2004, Nones *et al.* 2006], which does not detect QTL with sex-antagonistic effects and has less power to detect QTL with sex-specific and sex-biased effects.

The lack of a significant sex by QTL interaction for carcass weight is interesting, as it suggests that detected QTL were segregating in both sexes, although the females were heavier than the males. Moreover, no QTL was detected for carcass fat weight as an important economic trait. This may be due to the fact that the variation in total carcass fat weight among the F<sub>2</sub> birds in this experiment was too large (Tab. 2). Therefore, an analysis of marker-QTL data for carcass fat weight at maturity may help to further elucidate the nature of gene action for fatness in the Japanese quail.

There are a number of QTL studies that identified QTL for liver weight and liver % on chicken chromosomes. For example, Han *et al.* [2012] reported a QTL affecting liver weight positioned at 12 cM on chicken chromosome 21. In addition, d'André Hirwa *et al.* [2010] identified a significant QTL for liver weight at 562 cM on chicken chromosome 1. Moreover, Zhou *et al.* [2006] reported QTL affecting liver weight located at 61.9, 89.4, 40.5 and 26.4 cM on chicken chromosomes 6, 7, 10, and 18, respectively. Several QTL affecting liver % were detected by Zhou *et al.* [2006] at positions 289.2, 229.5, 118.3, 99.4, 89.1, 61.1, 112.6, and 61.7 cM on chicken chromosomes 1, 4, 5, 6, 7, 9, 10, and 26, respectively. The identification of QTL affecting different liver weight and liver % measurements on chromosome 3 in the Japanese quail in the present study is in agreement with the QTL reported for these traits on the systemic regions of chicken chromosomes, suggesting that in addition to the structural genomic conservation, functional genomics conservation also exists between the two species.

We detected significant QTL for gizzard % located at 0 cM on chromosome 3 of the Japanese quail. Gizzard is responsible for grinding the feed, thus facilitating digestion and consequently the absorption of nutrients. Quantitative trait loci for gizzard weight were detected in several chromosomes in the chicken. Gao [2009] and Tercic [2009] detected a QTL for the same trait on chromosomes 1 and 5. Moreover, Navarro *et al.* [2005] reported QTL affecting gizzard weight located at 187, 116 and 143 cM on chicken chromosome 1, 2, and 5, respectively. Few reports are available for QTL associated with intestine length or weight in chicken, while no QTL study on intestine % in the Japanese quail and chicken has been reported. However, significant QTL affecting intestine length were found in other chromosomal regions of the chicken in other studies [Gao *et al.* 2009, Ambo *et al.* 2009, Zeng *et al.* 2011]. In this study we identified one QTL affecting intestine % in the Japanese quail (Tab. 3).

Genomic imprinting is a process, through which the expression of a gene is dependent on the sex of the parent from which it was inherited, with the repressed allele generally considered to be the imprinted one [John *et al.* 1996]. The design of our study allowed us to search for potential imprinting effects. In this study the imprinting effect (parent-of-origin effect) of QTL located at 35 and 0 cM on chromosome 3 were significant for uropygial gland weight and gizzard %.

We identified five QTL located at 0 - 20 cM and flanked by GUJ0099 and GUJ0035 for carcass and carcass parts. The high association between the weights of body parts and whole body weight could confound the identity of genes controlling variability in body weight with those involved in carcass composition variability [Lagarrigue *et al.* 2006]. Since there are high genetic correlations between chicken body weights and carcass traits, direct selection for live body weight could produce indirect genetic gains for carcass, weight and carcass parts [Gaya et al. 2006, Sandercock *et al.* 2009]. The detected QTL for carcass weight had a positive dominance effect, while this QTL had a negative dominance effect on back weight. The so-called cryptic QTL is believed to be caused by no or limited selection for the trait, drift, and pleiotropic effects of the QTL allele on other traits that are under selection, or a close linkage and linkage disequilibrium with QTL that are under selection [Sazanov *et al.* 2010].

In conclusion, a number of QTL were detected across the Japanese quail chromosome 3, which affected carcass weight and carcass parts. Our results point out to candidate regions affecting traits of great economic relevance to the Japanese quail breeding. Although this paper adds value to our current understanding of the inheritance of carcass traits in the Japanese quail, it should be noted that the results from the initial QTL studies cannot be implemented directly to the breeding programs, especially when experimental designs such as backcross or F<sub>2</sub> populations are employed. The comparative analysis regarding the location of QTL on different Japanese quail and the syntenic chicken chromosomes, in combination with their association with phenotype may improve our ability to understand the genetic complexity of economically important traits in the Japanese quail.

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