

Asian-Aust. J. Anim. Sci.

Vol. 21, No. 3: 331-339
March 2008

# Assessment of Population Structure and Genetic Diversity of 15 Chinese Indigenous Chicken Breeds Using Microsatellite Markers 

Guohong Chen ${ }^{1}$, Wenbin Bao ${ }^{1}$, Jingting Shu ${ }^{1}$, Congliang Ji' ${ }^{2}$, Minqiang Wang ${ }^{3}$<br>Herwin Eding, Farai Muchadeyi and Steffen Weigend*<br>Institute for Animal Breeding, Federal Agricultural Research Centre, Mariensee. 31535 , Neustadt. Germany


#### Abstract

The genetic structure and diversity of 15 Chinese indigenous chicken breeds was investigated using 29 microsatellite markers. The total number of birds examined was 542 , on average 36 birds per breed. A total of 277 alleles (mean number 9.55 alleles per locus, ranging from 2 to 25 ) was observed. All populations showed high levels of heterozygosity with the lowest estimate of 0.440 for the Gushi chickens, and the highest one of 0.644 observed for Wannan Three-yellow chickens. The global heterozygote deficit across all populations ( $\mathrm{F}_{\mathrm{IT}}$ ) amounted to $0.180(\mathrm{p}<0.001)$. About $16 \%$ of the total genetic variability originated from differences between breeds, with all loci contributing significantly to this differentiation. An unrooted consensus tree was constructed using the NeighbourJoining method and pair-wise distances based on marker estimated kinships. Two main groups were found. The heavy-body type populations grouped together in one cluster while the light-body type populations formed the second cluster. The STRUCTURE software was used to assess genetic clustering of these chicken breeds. Similar to the phylogenetic analysis, the heavy-body type and light-body type populations separated first. Clustering analysis provided an accurate representation of the current genetic relations among the breeds. Remarkably similar breed rankings were obtained with all methods. (Key Words : Chicken, Microsatellites, Genetic Differentiation, Genetic Structure)


## INTRODUCTION

With its long history of animal husbandry and diversified geographical conditions, China has a wide variety of indigenous poultry resources. There are 108 native chicken breeds recorded in China (Chen et al. 2004a). The majority of these chickens are local and fancy breeds characterized by medium to low performances. They are usually maintained in small populations. Many of these local chicken varieties have valuable genetic features. Taihe Silkies in Taihe county of Jiangxi province, for instance, are not only used for entertainment. but are also used as an important source of traditional Chinese medicine (Li, 1983). However, the population sizes of some indigenous chicken breeds have been rapidly decreasing. According to the

[^0]report of the Ministry of Agriculture, Beijing Fatty chickens, Lingkun chickens, Pudong chickens, Ningjing chickens and Zhangmu chickens are even facing extinction (The State of Animal Genetics Resource in China, Ministry of Agriculture of China. 2004). The decrease in population sizes of indigenous chickens is mainly attributed to the introduction of modern commercial chicken breeds and the limited resources available for conservation measures.

Genetic variation is the basic material for animal breeding and influences the viability of populations. Further loss of local chicken breeds will reduce the overall chicken diversity. Conservation measures are however expensive to implement and as a result not all breeds or populations will be included. Unique and genetically diverse populations should therefore be identified in order to cover the widest range of genetic variability. The accurate evaluation of populations with regard to their contribution to national and overall genetic diversity is an important step in determining priorities for conservation (Weigend et al., 1995).

In the process of developing strategies to conserve genetic diversity in domestic chickens, it is important to assess the genetic uniqueness of a given population, which may be deduced from genetic distances (Hillel et al., 2003).

Table 1. Description of the 15 indigenous Chinese chicken breeds

| Breed (Abbreviation) | Main original area | Specific features | $\begin{gathered} \text { Number of } \\ \text { animals studied } \end{gathered}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Xianju chicken (XIA) | Xianju county, Zhejiang | Three yellow**, light-sized, layer breed | 38 |
| Chahua chicken (CHA) | Xishuangbanna, Yunnan | Light-sized, meat and egg dual-purpose breed | 38 |
| Luyuan chicken (LUY) | Zhangiiagang city, Jiangsu | Heavy-sized, meat and egg dual-purpose breed | 34 |
| Gushi chicken (GUS) | Gushi county, Henan | Three yellow, medium-sized, meat and egg dual-purpose breed | 40 |
| Tibetan chicken (TIB) | Ganzi and Aba Tibetan autonomous region | Light-sized, selected for yellow plumage, meat and egg dual-purpose breed | 38 |
| Baier chicken (BAI) | Shangrao city, Jiangxi | Three yellow*, light-sized, layer breed, white earlobe | 34 |
| Dagu chicken (DAG) | Zhuanghe county, Liaoning | Heavy-sized, meat and egg dual-purpose breed | 35 |
| Henan game (DOU) | Zhengzhou city, Henan | Heavy-sized, fancy breed | 33 |
| Langshan chicken (LAN) | Rudong county, Jiangsu | Heavy-sized, meat and egg dual-purpose breed | 40 |
| Taihe silkies (WUG) | Taihe county, J iangxi | Light-sized, medicine and entertainment breed | 40 |
| Xiaoshan chicken (XIS) | Xiaoshan county, Zhejiang | Heavy-sized, meat and egg dual-purpose breed | 40 |
| Beijing fatty chicken (YOU) | Chaoyang, Beijing | Heavy-sized, meat and egg dual-purpose breed | 38 |
| Huainan partridge (HP) | Huainan city, Anhui | Heavy-sized, meat and egg dual-purpose breed | 32 |
| Gallus gallus spadiceus (RJF-SC) | Shimao county, Yunnan | Red Jungle Fowl (wild) | 30 |
| Wannan Three-yellow (WTY) | Qinyan county, Anhui | Medium-sized, ege purpose breed | 32 |

* Three yellow features (plumage yellow, beak yellow and shank yellow).

According to FAO recommendations (FAO, 2004), determination of genetic distances using neutral. highly polymorphic microsatellite markers is currently the method of choice for investigating genetic relationships and breed differentiation. This methodology also provides information for establishing preservation priorities for livestock breeds (Barker, 1999)

Studies on chicken biodiversity based on microsatellite marker included estimation of genetic diversity in commercial broiler and layer lines (Crooijmans et al., 1996), assessment of conversation efficiency of Dagu chicken and Beijing Fatty chicken (Qu et al., 2004), and analysis of genetic relationships among highly inbred chicken lines (Zhou et al., 1999), among African. Asian and South American local chickens (Wimmers et al., 2000), between various populations of domestic and jungle fowl (Romanov and Weigend. 2001). in 52 clicken populations (Hillel et al., 2003), and in Chinese native chicken populations (Du et al., 2004: Qu et al.. 2006).

Chen et al. (2004b) did a preliminary study on 12 of the 15 breeds in this study, using a panel of seven microsatellite markers. Since more markers and more sophisticated methods are available nowadays, this study aims to more reliably assess genetic diversity and estimate the genetic stnucture of these Chinese indigenous chicken breeds. The results may help to understand genetic differentiation of local breeds in China and contribute to more efficient conversation strategies.

## MATERIALS AND METHODS

## Chicken population

A total of 542 individuals originating from 15 Chinese
indigenous chicken breeds were analysed in this study. Information about breeds, main original area of their distribution in China. specific features. and number of individuals sampled are presented in Table 1. All breeds except for Wannan Three-yellow chickens, Huainan Partridges and Red Jungle Fowls were kept at the Poultry Institute, Academy of Chinese Agricultural Sciences, Yangzhou. P. R. China. The Wannan Three-yellow clickens were kept at the Centre of Poultry Resource in Qinyan County, Anhui Province. The Huainan Partridges were maintained at the Institute of Agricultural Science in Huainan city, Anhui Province. The Red Jungle Fowl (Gallus gallus spadiceus) was collected from Wild Animal Conservation Centre. Yunnan Province P. R. China.

## DNA isolation

Per individual, 0.4 ml whole blood was collected from the ulnar vein with heparin as anticoagulant. Then, 4 ml of DNA lysate solution ( 2 M urea, 100 mM Tris $-\mathrm{HCl}(\mathrm{pH} 8.0$ ), $1 \%$ SDS. 100 mM EDTA) was added, and the mixture was stored at $4^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$. DNA was isolated by using a phenol/ chloroform based method (Sambrook et al., 2001).

## Genotyping

The DNA polymorphism was assessed at 29 microsatellite loci (Table 2). These markers are randomly distributed across the chicken genome, and 28 of these markers are part of the set of 30 microsatellites recommended by FAO (2004). Several multiplex PCR were carried out including two to five pairs of primers per reaction. Each PCR tube contained 20 ng of genomic DNA, 10 pmol of each forward primer labeled with either IRD700 or IRD800 (MWG-Biotech, Ebersberg. Germany), 10 pmol

Table 2. Number of alleles, range of allele sizes (bp), and F-statistics, for each of the 29 microsatellite markers in 15 Chinese chicken breeds

| Markers | Total No. of alleles | Range of allele sizes (bp) | $\mathrm{F}_{\text {IT }}=F$ | $\mathrm{F}_{\mathrm{ST}}=\theta$ | $\mathrm{F}_{\text {IS }}=f$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| MCW0103 | 2 | 266-270 | 0.323*** | $0.205^{* * *}$ | 0.148** |
| MCW0216 | 8 | 137-149 | $0.306^{* * *}$ | $0.190^{* * *}$ | $0.144^{* * *}$ |
| MCW0295 | 12 | 88-110 | 0.178*** | $0.136 * * *$ | 0.049* |
| ADL0278 | 12 | 114-129 | $0.261^{* * *}$ | $0.255^{* * *}$ | 0.009 |
| MCW0222 | 4 | 220-226 | $0.212^{* * *}$ | $0.130 * * *$ | 0.094*** |
| MCW0037 | 6 | 154-159 | 0.301*** | 0.205*** | $0.120^{* * *}$ |
| ADL0268 | 8 | 104-118 | 0.152** | $0.218^{* * *}$ | -0.085 |
| MCW0183 | 14 | 296-324 | 0.217** | $0.217^{* * *}$ | -0.001 |
| MCW0014 | 11 | 160-186 | $0.225 * * *$ | $0.172 * * *$ | 0.064* |
| MCW0067 | 6 | 178-186 | 0.071** | $0.108^{* * *}$ | -0.042 |
| MCW0098 | 2 | 263-265 | 0.107** | $0.116^{* * *}$ | -0.010 |
| LEI0166 | 6 | 356-376 | $0.230^{* * *}$ | $0.222^{* * *}$ | 0.010 |
| MCW0069 | 9 | 158-176 | 0.137*** | $0.161^{* * *}$ | -0.028 |
| MCW0081 | 6 | 114-135 | 0.319*** | $0.319^{* * *}$ | -0.000 |
| ADL0112 | 4 | 124-132 | $0.145^{* * *}$ | $0.224^{* * *}$ | -0.101 |
| MCW0034 | 17 | 212-246 | 0.112*** | $0.138 * * *$ | -0.030 |
| MCW0111 | 12 | 96-120 | $0.117^{* * *}$ | $0.128 * * *$ | -0.013 |
| MCW0078 | 5 | 135-143 | $0.145^{* * *}$ | $0.160^{* * *}$ | -0.018 |
| MCW0206 | 11 | 221-247 | $0.133^{* * *}$ | $0.114^{* * *}$ | 0.021 |
| LEI0094 | 20 | 247-289 | 0.232*** | 0.142*** | 0.105*** |
| MCW0248 | 5 | 215-223 | 0.177*** | $0.137^{* * *}$ | 0.047 |
| LEI0234 | 25 | 216-380 | $0.213^{* * *}$ | $0.163^{* * *}$ | $0.060^{* * *}$ |
| MCW0330 | 7 | 258-290 | 0.204*** | $0.184^{* * *}$ | 0.025 |
| MCW0016 | 11 | 162-188 | $0.164^{* * *}$ | 0.172*** | -0.010 |
| MCW0104 | 19 | 190-232 | 0.102*** | $0.160^{* * *}$ | -0.069 |
| MCW0020 | 4 | 179-185 | $0.125^{* * *}$ | $0.101^{* * *}$ | 0.027 |
| MCW0165 | 3 | 114-118 | 0.226*** | $0.111^{* * *}$ | 0.129*** |
| MCW0080 | 17 | 265-281 | 0.139*** | 0.120*** | 0.021 |
| MCW0123 | 11 | 76-98 | 0.068*** | $0.107^{* * *}$ | -0.044 |
| Mean (std. dev.) | $\begin{gathered} 9.55 \\ (5.82) \\ \hline \end{gathered}$ |  | $\begin{aligned} & 0.180 \\ & (0.013)^{* * *} \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 0.164 \\ & (0.009)^{* * *} \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{gathered} 0.020 \\ (0.012)^{* * *} \\ \hline \end{gathered}$ |

* $\mathrm{p}<0.05 ; * * \mathrm{p}<0.01 ;{ }^{* * *} \mathrm{p}<0.001$.
of each unlabeled reverse primer, and 1 mM tetramethylammoniumclloride. The amplification protocol comprised of an initial denaturation and enzyme activation phase at $95^{\circ} \mathrm{C}(15 \mathrm{~min})$, followed by 35 cycles of denaturation at $95^{\circ} \mathrm{C}(1 \mathrm{~min})$, primer annealing at temperature varying between $58^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ and $64^{\circ} \mathrm{C}(1 \mathrm{~min})$, and extension at $72^{\circ} \mathrm{C}(1 \mathrm{~min})$, and a final extension at $72^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ for 10 minutes. DNA fragments were visualized as bands on $8 \%$ polyacrylamide gel performed on a LI-COR DNA analyzer (LI-COR Biotechnology Division, Lincoln. NE). Electrophoregram processing and allele-size scoring was performed with the RFLPscan software package (Scanalytics, Division of CSP, Billerica. USA).


## Statistical analysis

Genetic diversity : Total number of alleles. allele frequencies, average number of alleles per locus, observed (Ho) and expected heterozygosity ( He ) for each population across the loci. were estimated with Microsatellite-Toolkit for Excel (Park, 2001).

Genetic differentiation : Population differentiation was
estimated by Wright's (1978) fixation indices $F_{I T}, F_{S T}$ and $F_{\text {IS }}$ in the form of $F, \theta$, and $f$, respectively, for each locus across populations according to the variance based method of Weir and Cockerham (1984) using FSTAT software (Version 2.9.3, Goudet. 2002). The significance of the Fstatistics was determined by permutation tests with the sequential Bonferroni procedure applied over loci (Hochberg. 1988). The extent of inbreeding was further studied with GENEPOP software (Raymond and Rousset, 1995) by estimating the $\mathrm{F}_{\text {IS }}$ values and their significance level within each of the populations.

Pair-wise $F_{S T}$ values were computed for all combinations of the 15 populations using GENEPOP. Gene flow between populations, defined as the number of reproductively successful migrants per generation (Nm), was estimated based on the $n$ island model of population structure (Slatkin and Barton 1989). The estimate was based on the relationship $\mathbf{F}_{S T}=1 /(4 N m+1)$, where $N$ is the effective population size, $m$ is the migration rate, and $\mathbf{F}_{\text {ST }}$ is calculated as mean over loci.

Clustering of breeds : The program STRUCTURE

Table 3. Mean number of alleles per locus, mean estimates of expected ( He ) and observed (Ho) heterozygosity and $\mathrm{F}_{\text {IS }}$ estimates of 15 Chinese chicken population

| Breed | Alleles/locus $\pm$ SD | $\mathrm{F}_{\text {IS }}$ | He $\pm$ SE | Ho $\pm$ SE |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| XIA | $4.00 \pm 2.19$ | $0.059^{* * *}$ | $0.533 \pm 0.035$ | $0.501 \pm 0.015$ |
| CHA | $4.62 \pm 2.27$ | $0.083^{* * *}$ | $0.553 \pm 0.041$ | $0.502 \pm 0.015$ |
| LUY | $4.41 \pm 2.03$ | $0.085^{* * *}$ | $0.574 \pm 0.032$ | $0.527 \pm 0.016$ |
| GUS | $3.41 \pm 1.45$ | 0.015 | $0.440 \pm 0.041$ | $0.434 \pm 0.015$ |
| TIB | $5.52 \pm 2.77$ | $0.019^{* *}$ | $0.614 \pm 0.035$ | $0.603 \pm 0.015$ |
| BAI | $4.21 \pm 2.34$ | $0.073^{* * *}$ | $0.537 \pm 0.032$ | $0.498 \pm 0.016$ |
| DAG | $5.17 \pm 2.27$ | -0.011 | $0.634 \pm 0.032$ | $0.640 \pm 0.015$ |
| DOU | $3.83 \pm 1.83$ | 0.004 | $0.531 \pm 0.035$ | $0.529 \pm 0.016$ |
| LAN | $4.17 \pm 1.93$ | -0.134 | $0.542 \pm 0.031$ | $0.613 \pm 0.014$ |
| WUG | $4.59 \pm 1.99$ | $0.022^{*}$ | $0.577 \pm 0.030$ | $0.564 \pm 0.015$ |
| XIS | $4.48 \pm 1.86$ | $0.000^{*}$ | $0.608 \pm 0.023$ | $0.608 \pm 0.014$ |
| YOU | $4.41 \pm 1.76$ | -0.036 | $0.553 \pm 0.027$ | $0.572 \pm 0.015$ |
| HP | $5.55 \pm 2.86$ | $0.076^{* * *}$ | $0.618 \pm 0.031$ | $0.572 \pm 0.016$ |
| RJF-SC | $3.79 \pm 1.37$ | $0.004^{* *}$ | $0.538 \pm 0.033$ | $0.536 \pm 0.017$ |
| WTY | $6.28 \pm 3.18$ | $0.061^{* * *}$ | $0.644 \pm 0.027$ | $0.605 \pm 0.016$ |


(Pritchard et al., 2000) which implements a model-based clustering method for inferring population structure using multilocus genotypes was utilized. This program uses a Monte Carlo Markov chain (MCMC) algorithm to assess the presence of a structure underlying the genetic information provided by the genetic markers. We ran STRUCTURE 100 times with 50,000 iterations, after a burn-in period of 20,000 iterations, for each number of genetic clusters (K) chosen a priori. Thereby. we analysed population structure for K values ranging from two to seven. A pair-wise comparison of the hundred solutions for each K value was done using SIMCOEFF software (Rosenberg et al., 2002). Solutions with over $95 \%$ similarity were considered as identical. The most frequent solution for each K was taken as the most probable clustering and visualized using DISTRUCT software (Rosenberg, 2004).

Additional sub-clustering were carried out in those subsets of the populations which did show population differentiation at level $K=7$. The three new subsets analysed comprised Chalua chicken, Tibetan chicken. Xianju chicken. Gushi chicken and Baier chicken as the first one, Wannan Three-yellow chicken, Huainan Partridge clicken. Henan Game clicken and Dagu chicken as the second one, and Luyuan clicken, Xiaoshan chicken and Beijing Fatty chicken as the third subset. We ran STRUCTURE and SIMCOEFF as described above for each subset separately up to $K=5$ for first subset, $K=4$ and $K=$ 3 for second and third subsets respectively.

Marker estimated kinships: Similarity indices between and within populations were calculated from allele frequencies using the Malecot's definition of similarity (Eding and Meuwissen. 2001):

$$
S_{i j}=\sum_{x}\left(p_{i x} p_{j x}\right)
$$

where $p_{i, r}$ is the $\mathrm{x}^{\text {th }}$ allele frequency in population $i$ and $p_{j, x}$ is the $\mathrm{x}^{\text {th }}$ allele frequency in population $j$. These similarity indices were subsequently used to estimate Marker Estimated Kinships (MEK) among populations using a weighted $\log$-linear model (Eding and Meuwissen, 2003). In this model. similarity estimates are decomposed in a mean coefficient of kinship $f$ and the probability of alleles being alike in state and not identical by descent. Per locus similarities are weighted with the inverse of the expected error variance to account for variation in informativeness of different loci.

In order to construct a plylogenetic tree, the MEK were then converted to kinship distance using the formula:

$$
D(i, j)=\hat{f}_{i i}+\hat{f}_{i j}-2 \hat{f}_{i j}
$$

where $\hat{f}_{i i}$ and $\hat{f}_{y}$, are the within kinship estimates of populations $i$ and $j$, and $\hat{f}_{y j}$ is the between population $i$ and population $j$ kinship estimate (Mateus et al., 2004). We obtained an unrooted Neighbor-Joining cladogram (Saitou and Nei, 1987) based on pair-wise kinship distance matrix between populations using the Neighbor-Joining program implemented in PHYLIP (Felsenstein. 1995). A consensus tree, evaluated by 1,000 bootstraps across the set of loci, was constricted.

## RESULTS

## Genetic diversity within and among chicken breeds

A total of 277 alleles were observed in the 15 Chinese indigenous chicken breeds. All microsatellite loci typed were polymorphic (Table 2). The number of alleles per locus ranged from two (MCW0103 and MCW0098) to 25

Table 4. Matrix of gene flow ( Nm ) between breeds (below the diagonal) and marker estimated kinship within (diagonal) and between populations (above the diagonal) using the weighted log-linear model method of estimation

| Breed | XIA | CHA | LUY | GUS | TIB | BAI | DAG | DOU | LAN | WUG | XIS | YOU | HP | RJF-SC | WTY |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| XIA | 0.309 | 0.091 | 0.112 | 0.273 | 0.163 | 0.187 | 0.086 | 0.108 | 0.137 | 0.122 | 0.088 | 0.089 | 0.112 | 0.051 | 0.102 |
| CHA | 1.210 | 0.298 | 0.023 | 0.071 | 0.168 | 0.077 | 0.010 | 0.003 | 0.017 | 0.045 | 0.011 | 0.016 | 0.033 | 0.000 | 0.031 |
| LUY | 1.461 | 0.913 | 0.243 | 0.126 | 0.058 | 0.103 | 0.062 | 0.071 | 0.084 | 0.053 | 0.157 | 0.108 | 0.073 | 0.013 | 0.067 |
| GUS | 1.723 | 0.650 | 0.904 | 0.511 | 0.128 | 0.148 | 0.098 | 0.165 | 0.127 | 0.124 | 0.116 | 0.114 | 0.109 | 0.066 | 0.134 |
| TIB | 4.760 | 4.363 | 1.579 | 1.215 | 0.174 | 0.116 | 0.047 | 0.036 | 0.069 | 0.075 | 0.044 | 0.051 | 0.070 | 0.044 | 0.061 |
| BAI | 2.187 | 1.051 | 1.324 | 0.869 | 2.248 | 0.289 | 0.077 | 0.082 | 0.137 | 0.068 | 0.104 | 0.061 | 0.097 | 0.008 | 0.094 |
| DAG | 1.909 | 1.231 | 1.776 | 1.121 | 2.407 | 1.898 | 0.141 | 0.072 | 0.071 | 0.067 | 0.065 | 0.067 | 0.070 | 0.018 | 0.073 |
| DOU | 1.149 | 0.803 | 1.039 | 0.874 | 1.230 | 1.055 | 1.628 | 0.302 | 0.089 | 0.043 | 0.063 | 0.074 | 0.071 | 0.004 | 0.069 |
| LAN | 1.465 | 0.824 | 1.234 | 0.788 | 1.407 | 1.366 | 1.538 | 1.095 | 0.309 | 0.109 | 0.070 | 0.087 | 0.114 | 0.035 | 0.079 |
| WUG | 1.684 | 1.140 | 1.155 | 1.059 | 1.986 | 1.273 | 2.093 | 1.031 | 1.212 | 0.226 | 0.059 | 0.055 | 0.074 | 0.030 | 0.069 |
| XIS | 1.395 | 0.902 | 5.103 | 0.933 | 1.562 | 1.594 | 2.163 | 1.140 | 1.271 | 1.308 | 0.186 | 0.088 | 0.064 | 0.013 | 0.080 |
| YOU | 1.095 | 0.819 | 1.596 | 0.783 | 1.296 | 0.965 | 1.699 | 1.008 | 1.081 | 1.093 | 1.633 | 0.273 | 0.092 | 0.035 | 0.081 |
| HP | 2.396 | 1.223 | 1.922 | 1.137 | 2.891 | 2.220 | 3.296 | 1.574 | 1.984 | 1.887 | 2.017 | 1.779 | 0.156 | 0.016 | 0.082 |
| RJF-SC | 0.710 | 0.715 | 0.655 | 0.497 | 1.076 | 0.677 | 1.015 | 0.628 | 0.693 | 0.805 | 0.761 | 0.712 | 0.933 | 0.307 | 0.034 |
| WTY | 2.712 | 1.357 | 2.050 | 1.558 | 3.106 | 2.467 | 4.811 | 1.644 | 1.742 | 2.404 | 2.698 | 1.809 | 4.760 | 1.124 | 0.131 |

(LEI0234), and the average number of the alleles observed was 9.55 .

The fixation indices ( $\mathrm{F}_{\mathrm{IT}} . \mathrm{F}_{\mathrm{ST}}, \mathrm{F}_{\mathrm{IS}}$ ) for each locus across all populations are also shown in Table 2. The fixation coefficients of subpopulations within the total population, measured as $\mathrm{F}_{\text {ST }}$ value, for the 29 loci varied from 0.101 (MCW0020) to 0.319 (MCW0081), with a mean of 0.164 ( $\mathrm{p}<0.00 \mathrm{I}$ ). All loci contributed significantly to this differentiation. The global deficit of heterozygotes across populations ( $\mathrm{F}_{\mathrm{IT}}$ ) amounted to 0.180 ( $\mathbf{p}<0.001$ ). Mean $\mathrm{F}_{\text {IS }}$ was found to be 0.020 ( $\mathrm{p}<0.001$ ) within populations. Nine loci showed significant deficit of heterozygotes, while thirteen markers showed excess of heterozygotes.

Average number of alleles per locus ranged from 3.41 in Gushi chicken breed to 6.28 in Wannan Three-yellow chicken breed (Table 3). The lowest estimate of expected heterozygosity ( 0.440 ) was obtained for Gushi breed, while the highest one $(0.644)$ was found in Wannan Three-yellow breed. Furthermore, ten breeds showed an overall significant deficit of heterozygotes, while three breeds showed an excess of heterozygous genotypes with respect to the expected value.

## Genetic distances and clustering of breeds

Estimated gene flow ( Nm ) between each population pair is presented in Table 4. The Nm value ranged from 0.497 (between Red Jungle Fowl and Gushi chicken) to 5.103 (between Xiaoshan and Luyuan clicken). Most Nm values were below 2.0. Table 4 also gives the matrix of Marker Estimated Kinships (MEK) within and between the populations under study. The highest value of within population MEK was 0.511 observed in Gushi population. The lowest estimates were 0.131 and 0.141 , respectively, in the Wannan Three-yellow and Dagu breeds. High between population kinships were observed between Xianju and

Gushi breeds ( 0.273 ), and a very low level of coancestry was found between the Red Jungle Fowl and Chahua breeds (0.000).

The results of the clustering analysis using STRUCTURE are displayed in Figure 1. At $\mathrm{K}=2$, two main groups that generally corresponded to light-body type and heavy-body type chickens were formed. At this K value, the two medium-sized chicken breeds (Gusli and Wannan Three-yellow) grouped into different clusters. Gushi chickens clustered with the light-body type breeds while Wannan Three-yellow breed clustered in the group of heavy-body type chickens. At $K=3$, the most frequent ( $\mathrm{N}=$ 13) solution split Red Jungle Fowl, Chahua chicken and Tibetan chicken from the rest of the light-body type cluster, while the heavy-body type cluster maintained its structure as formed as $K=2$. At $K=4$, the heavy-body type populations clustered into two distinct clusters. separating the Luyuan, Xiaoshan, and Beijing Fatty from the rest. At K $=5$, Red Jungle Fowl made up their own separate cluster. The Langshan chicken split off to form its own cluster at K $=6$. Subsequently the Taihe Silkies split off from the lightbody type populations at $K=7$.

Since the clustering algorithm implemented in STRUCTURE is very computer intensive, we did not proceed with higher K values in the total set of populations. Instead, we analyzed subsets of populations which did not show population separation at level $K=7$. In the first subset encompassing breeds Chahua, Tibetan, Xianju. Gushi and Baier, the Gushi breed separated from the remaining populations first. In contrast, Chalua and Tibetan did not split until $K=5$. In the second subset including Wannan Three-yellow, Huainan Partridge, Henan Game and Dagu, Henan Game birds formed a distinct cluster first ( $\mathrm{K}=2$ ) followed by Dagu chicken ( $K=3$ ). In the third subset encompassing Luyuan, Xiaoshan and Beijing Fatty, Beijing


Figure 1. STRUCTURE clustering of 15 Chinese indigenous chicken breeds. Numbers in parenthesis indicate the number of identical solutions at $95 \%$ threshold. RJF-SC = Red Jungle Fowl; CHA = Chahua; TIB = Tibetan; XIA = Xianju; GUS = Gushi; BAI = Baier, WUG = Taihe silkies; $\mathrm{WTY}=$ Wannan Three-yellow; $\mathrm{HP}=$ Huainan Partridge; $\mathrm{DAG}=$ Dagu; DOU $=$ Henan game; LAN $=$ Langshan; YOU $=$ Bejijing Fatty; LUY = Luyuan; XIS = Xiaoshan,

Fatty chicken formed its own cluster first, followed by Luyuan chicken. Tibetan always appeared as a mixture population.

The Neighbour-Joining ( NJ ) tree derived from the kinship distances is given in Figure 2. The tree topology revealed two main clusters. although the relationships between breeds were not always supported by high bootstrap values. The heavy-body sized chicken breeds, Luyuan, Xiaoshan. Beijing Fatty. Dagu. Henan Game. Langshan and Huainan Partridge formed one cluster: and the light-body sized chicken breeds, including Xianju, Baier, Taile Silkies. Tibetan, Chahua, and Red Jungle Fowl, formed the second main cluster. The two medium-sized chicken breeds, Gushi and Wannan Three-yellow, clustered with the light-body sized clicken breeds.

## DISCUSSION

The mean number of alleles observed in these 15 Chinese native populations (9.55) was greater than that observed in 11 Chinese native clicken breeds using 20 microsatellite markers (Gao et al., 2004), or in 12 Chinese native chicken breeds, using seven microsatellite markers (Chen et al.. 2004b), but lower than that observed in 78 Chinese native chicken breeds using 27 microsatellite markers (Qu et al.. 2006). Such difference could be
attributed to the number of breeds studied, the variance in sample size and number of loci used. The average expected heterozygosity within populations exceeded the value reported for the 52 European chicken breeds using DNA pools typed at 22 microsatellite loci (Hillel et al.. 2003). and was also higher than the values estimated for commercial breeds (Crooijmans et al., 1996).

On average, the genetic differentiation index. $\mathrm{F}_{\text {ST }}$. among breeds was 0.164 (Table 2). About $16 \%$ of the total genetic variation corresponds to differences between breeds and the remaining $84 \%$ was the result of variation among individuals within breeds. All loci contributed to this differentiation significantly. This level of differentiation value is very similar to the values reported in Swiss goat breeds, $\mathrm{F}_{\mathrm{ST}}=0.170$ (Saitbekova et al., 1999), in European wild rabbits, $F_{S T}=0.150$ (Surridge et al., 1999), but higher than that reported among 78 Chinese indigenous chicken breeds ( $\mathrm{F}_{S T}=0.106, \mathrm{Qu}$ et al., 2006), in African cattle breeds ( $\mathrm{F}_{\text {ST }}=0.060$, Ibeagha-Awemu et al. 2005) and human populations ( $\mathrm{F}_{\mathrm{ST}}=0.054$. Rosenberg et al., 2002).

The overall $\mathrm{F}_{\text {IS }}$ value ( 0.020 ), estimated at the marker level (Table 2). was significantly ligher than zero. Nine loci, MCW0103, MCW0295, MCW0222, MCW0014, LEI0094, LE10234, MCW0165, MCW0037 and MCW0216 showed significant deficit of heterozygotes. A possible explanation of this observation might be genetic drift or that these nine


Figure 2. Neighbour-Joining tree of 15 Chinese indigenous chicken breeds based on Marker Estimated Kinslups. RJF-SC $=$ Red Jungle Fowl; CHA $=$ Chahua; TIB $=$ Tibetan; XIA $=$ Xianju; GUS $=$ Gushi; BAI $=$ Baier, WUG $=$ Taihe silkies; WTY = Wannan Three-yellow, HP = Huainan Partridge; DAG = Dagu; DOU $=$ Henan game; $\mathrm{LAN}=$ Langshan; $\mathrm{YOU}=$ Beijing Fatty; LUY = Luyuan; XIS $=$ Xiaoshan.
loci are linked to loci affecting morphological, productive or adaptive traits of selective interest and have undergone selection (Ibeagha-Awemu et al., 2005). Three breeds, Dagu, Langshan and Beijing Fatty, showed negative $F_{1 S}$ values. Breeding strategies to avoid inbreeding have been applied in the conservation of these breeds. The avoidance of mating between closely related animals might be one reason why a slight excess of heterozygotes was found in these populations.

Wannan Three-yellow chicken had the highest genetic variability in terms of expected heterozygosity and number of alleles (Table 3). This might due to the fact that the Wannan Three-yellow has just been founded in recent years with a large number of individuals and broad distribution area. The genetic basis of the founder population of this breed is complicated. Some gene flow between Wannan Three-yellow and other breeds found in neighbouring regions possibly exist. This would explain the generally ligh Nm values of the Wannan Three-yellow and all other breeds (Table 4).

Tibetan chickens are also distributed across a wide geograplic area in Tibet autonomous region of China. Little selection has been performed on this breed. In contrast, the

Huainan Partridge has just been founded in recent years with low level of selection. Any of these factors might explain why the Huainan Partridge and Tibetan breeds had higher gene diversity and higher numbers of alleles.

The Gushi breed showed the lowest genetic variability (Tables 3 and 4). The special geograplical conditions limit the Gushi breed to a relatively isolated region. The region is surrounded by mountains and these may act as barriers to gene flow. The breed therefore has less opportunity for genetic exchange with other populations as was indicated by the highest within-breed MEK value and lower Nm values (from 0.497 to 1.723 ).

The results from MEK estimates further confirmed the results obtained from STRUCTURE based clustering. In the Neighbour-Joining tree derived from the kinship distances, Tibetan and Chahua chickens clustered together and were supported by high bootstrap value of 98.0 percent, indicating a close genetic relationship between the two populations. Yunnan province (Chahua chicken), is geographically close to Tibet, hence raising the possibility of interbreeding. Moreover, the Tibetan chicken has been bred recently, and some founder animals may have directly come from Chahua breed. The high gene flow ( $\mathrm{Nm}=4.363$ ) and relatively high between populations kinship value ( 0.168 ). between Chahua and Tibetan chicken supported this close clustering of the two populations. STRUCTURE results further imply that there is migration of chickens from Chahua to Tibetan.

Chahua chickens, which are an original native breed between Red Jungle Fowl and modern breeds have had gene exchange with local Red Jungle Fowls and have retained many primitive features (Liu et al., 1996). This breed history explains why the Chahua chickens cluster together with the Red jungle fowl at lower K values.

In the Neighbour-Joining tree, Luyuan and Xiaoshan chicken clustered together with 98.0 percent bootstraps. During the STRUCTURE runs. they could not be distinguished until the number of clusters, $K$, equalled the number of breeds in the third subset. Thus. these two populations can be considered as genetically very similar. The main area of origin, Xiaoshan city and Zhangjiagang city for Xiaoshan chicken and Luyuan chicken respectively. are located very close to each other. Furthermore, the similar culture between these two places makes interbreeding of the Xiaoshan and Luyuan breed likely as confirmed by the high estimates of gene flow ( $\mathrm{Nm}=5.103$; Table 4) and the high between-breed kinship estimates (0.157; Table 4).

It is noteworthy that three breeds, Xianju, Baier and Gushi chicken clustered together in the Neighbour-Joining tree. The three breeds did not separate during the STRUCTURE runs from K equals two to seven. This close genetic association may point to a common genetic
background. There are also similarities in morphological features among these three populations: All the three breeds have yellow plumage beak and shanks (three yellow).

Cluster analysis can resolve effectively the genetic similarity of a group of highly diverged breeds and has great potential to help identify individuals with different or similar multilocus genotypes (Ibeagha-Awemu et al., 2005). In our study, the STRUCTURE analysis clustered individuals into separate populations or groups of closely related populations, and suggested that the Tibetan and Wannan Three-yellow breeds are mixture populations (Figure 1). The apparent mixed nature of both Tibetan and Wannan Three-yellow chicken is consistent with results from previous studies ( Qu et al.. 2004). The management practices for Tibetan chicken are characterized by no defined breeding goals and no controlled mating. Moreover, some gene flow between Tibetan chicken and other breeds may still be ongoing. This may be the reason why Tibetan clicken clustered as a mixture breed. Wannan Three-yellow clicken has been established only recently and may have intermixed origin, which can also be seen from the ligh estimates of gene flow with other chicken breeds. This population also appeared as a mixture population during STRUCTURE based clustering.

Chen et al. (2004b) applied a fuzzy clustering algorithm on a dataset comprising 12 of the 15 breeds in this study. However, the three clusters reported by Chen et al. (2004b) did not agree with the clustering of breeds obtained in the STRUCTURE analysis at $K=3$ (Figure 1). Nor did the clustering agree with the consensus tree obtained from MEK estimates (Figure 2). Whereas breed history of geographical distribution cannot explain the clustering results reported by Chen et al. (2004b), the present results correspond to known breed history and geographical distribution. Thus, the differences in results are most probably attributable to the larger number of marker loci used (7 vs. 29) and the more sophisticated analysis methods. These have generated more accurate estimates of genetic diversity and structure of Chinese indigenous poultry breeds.

In conclusion based on the various genetic diversity measures used in this study, high genetic diversity was observed in the 15 Chinese indigenous chicken breeds. The genetic relationships between these breeds were also clarified. Management of populations, in this study specifically tailored towards conservation, influences the genetic diversity within populations. Additionally. geograplic distribution and geograplic proximity seem to determine genetic relations between breeds as well as genetic diversity within breeds. Therefore, genetic diversity information, evaluated by integrating within and between population analyses may allow conservation priorities to be better established.

## ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

We are indebted to Professor X. Y. Zhang and Assistant Professor K. H. Wang of Institute of Poultry Science, Academy of Agriculture of China, for their constructive suggestions and help in preparing the chicken DNA samples. Thanks are also given to Mrs. A. Weigend and A. Flörke for their teclnnical help.

## REFERENCES

Barker, J. S. F. 1999. Conservation of livestock breeds diversity. Anim. Genet. Res. Inf. 25:33-43.
Chen, G. H., K. H. Wang, J. Y. Wang, C. Ding and N. Yang. 2004a. Poultry Genetic Resources in China. lst edn. Shanghai Scientific and Technological Press, Shanghai, China.
Chen, G. H., X. S. Wu, D. Q. Wang, J. Qin, S. L. Wu, Q. L. Zhou, F. Xie, R. Cheng, Q. Xu, B. Lin, X. Y. Zhang and O. Olowofeso. 2004b. Cluster analysis of 12 Chinese native chicken populations using microsatellite markers. Asian-Aust. J. Anim. Sci. 17:1047-1052.

Crooịmans, R. P. M. A., A. F. Groen, A. I. A. van Kampen, J. I. van der Poel and M. A. M. Groenen. 1996. Microsatellite polymorphism in commercial broiler and layer lines estimated using pooled blood samples. Poult. Sci. 75:904-909.
Du, Z. Q., L. J. Qu, X. Y. Li, X. X. Hu, Y. H. Huang, N. Li and N. Yang. 2004. Genetic diversity in Tibetan Chicken. HEDITAS (Beijing). 26:167-171.
Eding, H. and T. H. E. Meuwissen. 2001. Marker-based estimate of between and within population kinships for the conservation of genetic diversity. J. Anim. Breed. Genet. 118:141-159.
Eding, H. and T. H. E. Meuwissen. 2003. Linear methods to estimate kinships from genetic marker data for the construction of core sets in genetic conservation schemes. J. Anim. Breed. Genet. 120:289-302.
FAO. 2004. Guidelines for development of national management of farm animal genetic resources plans. http://dad.fao.org/en/ refer/library/guidelin/marker.pdf.
Felsentein, J. 1995. PHYLIP (Phylogeny inference package) version 3.57 c . Department of Genetics, University of Washington, Seattle, USA.
Gao, Y. S., N. Yang, H. F. Li, K. H. Wang and H. B. Tong. 2004. Analysis of genetic diversity of preserved population of native chicken breeds by microsatellites and tile foundation of markers. HEDITAS (Beijing). 26:859-864.
Goudet, J. 2002. FSTAT version 2.9.3.2. Department of ecology and evolution, University of Lausanne, LAUSANNE, Switzerland.
Hillel, J., A. M. M. Groenen, M. Tixier-Boichard, A. B. Korol, L. David, V. M. Kirzhner, T. Burke, A. Barre-Dirie, R. P. M. A. Crooijmans, K. Elo, M. W. Feldman, P. J. Freidlin, A. MäkiTanila, M. Oortwijn, P. Thomson, A. Vignal, K. Wimmers and S. Weigend. 2003. Biodiversity of 52 chicken populations assessed by microsatellite typing of DNA pools. Genet. Sel. Evol. 35:533-557.
Hochberg, Y. 1988. A sharper Bonferroni procedure for multiple test of signuficance. Biometrika. 75:800-802.
Ibeagha-Awemu, E. M. and G. Erhardt. 2005. Genetic structure
and differentiation of 12 African Bos indicus and Bos Taurus cattle breeds, inferred from protein and microsatellite polymorphisms. J. Anim. Breed. Genet. 122:12-20.
Li, S. Z. 1983. Compendium of material medica. People's Medical Publishing House, Beijing, China.
Liu, R. S., Q. Yu, G. C. Cheng and K. F. Liu. 1996. Studies on the origin of fowl breeds. Acta Zoologica Sinica. 42 (Suppl.):165167.

Mateus, J. C., H. Eding, M. C. T. Penedo and M. T. RangelFigueiredo. 2004. Contributions of Portuguese cattle breeds to genetic diversity using marker-estimated kinships. Anim. Genet. 35:305-313.
Ministry of Agriculture of China. 2004. The state of animal genetics resource in China. China Agricultural Publishing House, Beijing, China.
Park, S. D. E. 2001. The Excel Microsatellite Toolkit (version 3.1). Animal Genomics Laboratory, UCD, Ireland. http://animal genomics.ucd.ie/sdepark/ms-toolkit/
Pritchard, J. K., M. Stephens and P. Donnely. 2000. Inference of population structure using multilocus genotype data. Genetics. 155: 945-959.
Qu, L. J., G. Q. Wu, X. Y. Li and N. Yang. 2004. Conservation efficiency of local chicken breeds in different farms as revealed by microsatellite markers. ACTA GENETICA SINICA. 31:591-595.
Qu, L. J., X. Y. Li, G. F. Xu, K. W. Chen, H. J. Yang, L. C. Zhang. G. Q. Wu, Z. C. Hou, G. Y. Xu and N. Yang. 2006. Evaluation of genetic diversity in Chinese indigenous chicken breeds using microsatellite markers. Sci. China C Life Sci. 49(4):33241.

Raymond, M. and F. Rousset. 1995. GENEPOP (version 1.2): Population genetics software for exact test and ecumenicism. I. Hered. 86:248-249.
Romanov, M. N. and S. Weigend. 2001. Analysis of genetic relationships between various populations of domestic and jungle fowl using microsatellite markers. Poult. Sci. 80:10571063.

Rosenberg, N. A. 2004. Distruct: a program for the graphical display of population structure. Molecular Ecology Notes 4: 17-138.
Rosenberg, N. A., J. K. Pritchard, J. L. Weber, H. M. Cann, K. K. Kidd, L. A. Zhivotovsky and M. W. Feldman. 2002. Genetic structure of human populations. Sci. 298:2981-2985.
Saitbekova, N., C. Gaillard, G. Obexer-Ruff and G. Dolf. 1999. Genetic diversity in Swiss goat breeds based on microsatellite analysis. Anim. Genet. 30:36-41.
Saitou, N. and M. Nei. 1987. The neighbour-joining method: a new method for reconstructing phylogenetic trees. Mol. Biol. Evol. 4:406-425.
Sambrook, J. and D. W. Russell. 2001. Molecular Cloning: A Laboratory Manual. 3rd Ed. Cold Spring Harbor Laboratory, New York, USA.
Slatkin, M. and N. H. Barton. 1989. A comparison of three indirect methods of estimating average levels of gene flow. Evol. 43:1349-1368.
Surridge, A. K., D. J. Bell, K. M. Iberhim and G. T. Hewitt. 1999. Population structure and genetic variation of European wild rabbits (Onyctolagus cuniculus) in East Angle. Heredity. 82: 479-487.
Weigend, S., E. Vef, G. Wesch, E. Meckenstock, R. Seibold and F. Ellendorff. 1995. Conception for conserving genetic resources in poultry in Germany. Archiv für Gefiggelkunde. 59:327-334.
Weir, B. S. and C. C. Cockerham. 1984. Estimation F-statistics for the analysis of population structure. Evol. 38:1358-1370.
Wimmers, K., S. Ponsuksill, T. Hardge, A. Valle-Zarate, P. K. Mathur and P. Horst. 2000. Genetic distinctness of Afican, Asian and South American local chickens. Anim. Genet. 31: 159-165.
Wright, S. 1978. Evolution and the genetics of populationsvariability within and among natrual populations. 4th Ed . University of Chicago press, Chicago, IL, USA.
Zhou, H. and S. J. Lamond. 1999. Genetic characterisation of biodiversity in highly inbred chicken lines by microsatellite markers. Anim. Genet. 30:256-264.


[^0]:    * Corresponding Author: Steften Weigend. Tel: +49-0-5034-871-

    180, Fax: +49-0-5034-871-143, E-mail: weigend@tzv.fal.de
    ${ }^{1}$ Animal Science and Technology College, Yangzhou University, Yangzhour, 225009, Jiangsu, China.
    ${ }^{2}$ Guangdong Wen's Group, Ximxing, 527439, China.
    ${ }^{3}$ Chemical Biology and Physics College, Yantai University, Yantai, 264005, Shandong, China.
    Received February 21, 2007; Accepted October 12, 2007

