

1 **RUNNING TITLE: Genetic basis of local adaptation for indigenous chickens**

2 **Genomic insights into local adaptation of indigenous chickens**

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23        **ABSTRACT**

24        Indigenous chickens are an essential part of biodiversity and a vital protein resource  
25        to humans, yet global warming and environmental changes pose serious threats to their  
26        survival and productivity. Therefore, assessing population adaptive capacity under  
27        shifting environments is crucial for breeding resilient animals, and guiding  
28        conservation strategies. Here, we integrated ecological and whole-genome  
29        resequencing data from 1 022 chickens from 44 Chinese indigenous populations to  
30        reveal genomic signatures of local adaptation. From 87 agroclimatic variables, we  
31        identified eight dominant environmental factors including solar radiation, precipitation,  
32        diurnal temperature range, and five landcover variables (cropland areas, water areas,  
33        trees coverage, bare ground and shrubs coverage) that shape ecological niches of  
34        indigenous chickens. Landscape and comparative genomics analyses revealed both  
35        known and novel candidate genes, such as *UNC80*, *PTPRO*, *NCOR2*, *CSF2RB*, *NXT2*  
36        and *PALLD* for the solar radiation, precipitation, diurnal temperature range, cropland  
37        areas, trees coverage and bare ground, respectively. Particularly, adaptive non-coding  
38        variants harbored in these genes exhibited spatial allelic changes across populations and  
39        acted as regulatory elements via chromatin accessibility and DNA methylation,  
40        influencing adaptation in a tissue-specific manner. Our findings underscore the rich  
41        genetic diversity of Chinese indigenous chickens and provide new insights into  
42        genomic mechanisms of local adaptation, offering valuable references for domestic  
43        animal breeding, conservation, and climate resilience.

44        **Keywords:** Local adaptation; Ecological niche modeling; Landscape genomics;



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46        **INTRODUCTION**

47        Chicken (*Gallus gallus domesticus*) is found almost everywhere providing high-  
48        quality and affordable protein, entertainment, cultural heritage, and scientific research  
49        value (Eda, 2021). Indigenous chicken populations inhabit diverse ecosystems and  
50        serve as valuable biomedical models. Their gene reservoirs are very critical for  
51        conservation biology and for long-term genetic improvement in response to changing  
52        breeding goals, such as adaptation to extreme climate conditions, disease resistance,  
53        and stress tolerance. However, the rapid expansion of commercial breeds has severely  
54        reduced the number of indigenous chickens, increasing the risk of extinction and the  
55        loss of unique genotypes and adaptive traits (Padhi, 2016). This concern is amplified  
56        by the challenges of environment changing, underscoring the need to harness the  
57        genetic diversity of indigenous populations for climate-resilient agriculture (Meek et  
58        al., 2023).

59        Adaptive responses that enable survival and reproduction in extreme environments  
60        are often beyond the range of phenotypic plasticity. Locally adapted populations are  
61        therefore expected to experience strong selection and genomic modifications, resulting  
62        in phenotypic changes in metabolism, physiology, and behavior (Rocha et al., 2021).  
63        Earlier comparative studies focused on single-gene or few-gene polymorphisms  
64        underlying adaptation, such as the heat shock proteins (HSPs) and heat shock factors  
65        (HSFs) related to the heat stress in animals (Gourdine et al., 2021; Hariyono &  
66        Prihandini, 2022; McManus et al., 2022; Balakrishnan et al., 2023). However,  
67        differential expression of candidate genes may evolve neutrally and not necessarily



68 reflect adaptation. Meanwhile, causal variants may reside in distant regulatory elements  
69 or trans-acting factors, making it difficult to directly link genetic variation with  
70 expression data. Moreover, measuring and collecting fitness-related phenotypes is  
71 challenging due to long generation intervals, experimental constraints, and population-  
72 specific limitations (Savolainen & Lascoux, 2013). Advances in genome sequencing  
73 now allow affordable population-scale analyses, providing a powerful complementary  
74 strategy to study local adaptation across a species' distribution range (Ellegren, 2014).  
75 Furthermore, new approaches including genotype-environment association analyses,  
76 landscape genomics, and multi-omics integration are increasingly applied for  
77 conserving species in wildlife (Meek et al., 2023; Wang et al., 2025) and for breeding  
78 in crops (Campbell et al., 2025) and animals (Leng et al., 2024; Lai et al., 2025).

79 China's vast geography spans wide gradients in latitude, altitude and topography,  
80 creating remarkable climatic and environmental diversity. This mosaic of environments  
81 provides a natural laboratory for studying ecological adaptation (Mi et al., 2021).  
82 Archaeological and genomic evidence indicates that domestic chickens originated from  
83 the red junglefowl subspecies (*Gallus gallus spadiceus*) in southwestern China ~10000  
84 years ago (Wang et al., 2020). Since then, more than 100 indigenous chicken breeds  
85 distributed across nearly all ecosystems have been developed across the mainland  
86 (Zhang et al., 2023). These populations represent an exceptional resource for  
87 investigating the molecular mechanisms of environmental adaptation. While prior  
88 studies examined chicken adaptation to high-altitude (Wang et al., 2015; Yuan et al.,  
89 2022), tropical and frigid (Tian et al., 2020; Shi et al., 2023), and desert or arid



90 environment (Gu et al., 2020). However, the specific ecological environment is driven  
91 by many contributing factors, which were rarely investigated in the region-limited or  
92 single-variable studies. How geography and environmental complexity shape genetic  
93 variations in chickens is still fascinating.

94 To address this, we sequenced and retrieved genomes of over 1 000 chickens from  
95 44 indigenous populations across China, for which we characterized the functional  
96 relationship between genomic variants and agroclimatic variables. By integrating  
97 ecological and multi-layer omics analysis, we aim to 1) characterize the spatial patterns  
98 of genetic diversity and structure, 2) identify key environmental drivers of ecological  
99 niche partitioning, 3) dissect genomic signatures of local environment adaptation and  
100 allele frequency shifts across geographical ranges, and 4) elucidate potential regulatory  
101 mechanism linking adaptive variants to candidate genes.

## 102 MATERIALS AND METHODS

### 103 Ethics Statement

104 All animal procedures were approved by the Animal Care and Use Committee of  
105 Institute of Animal Science, Chinese Academy of Agricultural Sciences (No. IAS2021-  
106 46) and performed in accordance with the relevant guidelines and regulations set by  
107 Ministry of Agriculture and Rural Affairs of the People's Republic of China.

### 108 Chicken samples

109 A total of 1 029 individuals from 44 domesticated chicken populations were used  
110 in our study. The 44 chicken populations were distributed over three-quarters of China's  
111 administrative divisions (26/34), representing most agro-ecological zones in China



112 (Figure 1a and Supplementary Table S1). These areas encompassed diverse  
113 environmental conditions, including variations in temperature, solar radiation,  
114 precipitation, land cover and soil properties. Among these populations, a total of 735  
115 blood samples from 20~30 female chickens per population were collected for 28  
116 populations, while another 294 individual sequencing data from 16 chicken populations  
117 were retrieved from previous studies (Gu et al., 2020; Wang et al., 2020; Huang et al.,  
118 2020; Shi et al., 2023; Zhi et al., 2023; Li et al., 2023; Xu et al., 2023). Genomic DNA  
119 was extracted from the blood of the samples using Qiagen DNeasy Blood & Tissue kit.

#### 120 **Genome sequencing, variant calling and quality control**

121 DNA integrity was verified prior to the library construction. Paired-end libraries  
122 with insert sizes of 350 bp were constructed and sequenced on the BGISEQ-500  
123 platform (BGI, Shenzhen, China) to generate 150 bp paired-end reads. Low quality  
124 reads were filtered using fastp (v.0.20.1) (Chen, 2023), and the clean reads were aligned  
125 to the chicken reference genome (GRCg7b) using BWA (v.0.7.17) (Li & Durbin, 2010)  
126 with the default parameters. The Genome Analysis Toolkit (GATK v.4.6.0.0)  
127 ‘MarkDuplicatesSpark’ module was subsequently used to filter out potential PCR  
128 duplicate reads (McKenna et al., 2010). The resulting alignments were reordered using  
129 Picard and then indexed using SAMtools (v.1.13) (Li et al., 2009). SNP calling was  
130 processed according to the best practices for GATK by invoking ‘HaplotypeCaller’,  
131 ‘CombineGVCFs’ and ‘GenotypeGVCFs’ modules. We set a minimum quality score of  
132 30 for both bases and mapped reads to call variants, and then the common SNP dataset  
133 was subjected to filter with the following rigorous criteria using the GATK



134 ‘VariantFiltration’ module: (a) quality by depth < 5.0, (b) mapping quality score < 40.0,  
135 (c) strand odds ratio > 4.0, (d) Fisher strand > 60.0, (e) MQRankSum < -12.5, (f)  
136 ReadPosRankSum < -8.0, and (g) any three SNPs clustered in a 10 bp window. The  
137 high-quality SNP sets of 1 029 birds was filtered using PLINK v.1.90 software (Chang  
138 et al., 2015) with the following parameters: sample call rate > 90%, SNP call rate >  
139 90%, minor allele frequency (MAF) > 0.05 and Hardy–Weinberg equilibrium *p*-value  
140 < 1e-5. After these steps, a total of 7 276 708 SNPs distributed across 39 autosomes in  
141 1 022 chickens (seven chickens were filtered out due to low sample call rate) were  
142 obtained for downstream analyses. Genotypes were subsequently phased and imputed  
143 using Beagle (v.4.1) (Browning et al., 2021) with default parameters to obtain  
144 genotyping rate and accuracy of 100%.

#### 145 **Population genomic analysis**

146 The imputed genome data were first pruned with the “indep-pairwise 25 5 0.2”  
147 using PLINK v.1.90, yielding 1 415 317 independent SNPs for population structure  
148 analysis. Principal components (PC) analysis was carried out with the pruned SNPs  
149 using the “pca” in PLINK v.1.90, and the first two PCs were extracted and visualized  
150 using R software. We used ADMIXTURE v.1.3.0 (Alexander et al., 2009) with default  
151 parameters to investigate population structure across all samples, with the number of  
152 clusters (K) being set from 2 to 45. By using pruned SNPs. We also constructed the  
153 Neighbor-Joining (NJ) phylogenetic tree based on the distance matrix using FastME  
154 2.0 software (Lefort et al., 2015), and the visualization of tree was performed using  
155 Interaction Tree Of Life (iTOL, <https://itol.embl.de>). Linkage disequilibrium (LD)



156 decay was assessed using PopLDdecay (Zhang et al., 2019). For the isolation-by-  
157 distance (IBD) analysis, VCFtools (v.0.1.15) (Danecek et al., 2011) was applied to  
158 calculate the population differentiation coefficient ( $F_{ST}$ ) using 50 kb sliding windows  
159 with 10 kb increments at each step. The matrix of  $F_{ST}/(1-F_{ST})$  and the matrix of  
160 geographic distance (km) among populations were used for performing the Mantel tests,  
161 implemented in the vegan R package (Oksanen et al. 2018) with the significance being  
162 determined based on 9 999 permutations.

### 163 **Environmental data acquisition and analysis**

164 For each of the 44 chicken populations, the central coordinates of their original  
165 habitats were recorded, based on conservation farms or marketplaces. To better capture  
166 the local environmental conditions, nine additional geographic coordinates were  
167 selected within 2 km grids surrounding each population site using Google Earth Pro  
168 v.7.3. This resulted in 440 coordinate points from all populations, which were  
169 considered as “occurrence points” to predict the potential geographic distribution for  
170 chicken populations. Based on the occurrence points, we obtained 87 agroclimatic  
171 variables using the raster R package, including 67 bioclimatic, eight landcover, one  
172 topographical and 11 pedologic variables (**Supplementary Table S2**) from the  
173 WorldClim (Fick & Hijmans, 2017), WorldCover (Zanaga et al., 2022) and ISRIC  
174 (<https://www.isric.org/>) databases at a spatial resolution of 30 arc-seconds. These  
175 variables reflect ecological factors relevant to chicken survival, such as climate and  
176 elevation (physiological tolerance), soil characteristics (food resources), and land cover  
177 (food availability and predation risk). After removing two variables lacking records



178 within the occurrence ranges, the remaining 85 environmental variables were fed to R  
179 package ENMeval for model evaluation (Kass et al., 2021). Models were tuned with  
180 the *maxnet* algorithm and *randomkfold* partitions, testing regularization multipliers  
181 (RM) from 0.5 to 6.0 (increments of 0.5) and six feature class (FC) combinations: L =  
182 linear, Q = quadratic, H = hinge, P = product, T = threshold. The best FC and RM  
183 selected based on  $\Delta AICc$  were applied in the Maxent software (Fourcade et al., 2014)  
184 to estimate the contribution of each variable. To improve the model's robustness and  
185 biological interpretability, variables with contributions  $> 1\%$  were retained for further  
186 analysis. To reduce collinearity, pairwise correlations among variables were calculated,  
187 and the variable with lower contribution was removed for correlated pairs ( $r > 0.6$ )  
188 (Gheyas et al., 2021). Variables with variance inflation factor (VIF)  $< 5$  calculated using  
189 the *usdm* R package, were retained. The relative contribution and permutation  
190 importance of remained variables were re-evaluated by Maxent with best model  
191 parameters output from ENMeval.

192 In the Maxent, 75% of occurrence points were used for the model training and the  
193 rest 25% were used as model testing data according to Guisan and Thuiller (Guisan &  
194 Thuiller, 2005). The remained environmental variables were used for predicting the  
195 suitability of chicken populations. The model was replicated 10 times according to the  
196 subsample method to verify the prediction accuracy, and the area under the receiver  
197 operating characteristic curve (AUC) was used to evaluate the model's performance,  
198 where an AUC value of 0.9~1.0 indicates a perfect prediction and value  $< 0.5$  represent  
199 a random prediction (Elith et al., 2011). The Jackknife test of each environmental



200 variable was used to evaluate its importance. Finally, the environmental variables with  
201 contribution rate larger than 4% were considered as important factors for exploring the  
202 distribution of indigenous chickens (Gheyas et al., 2021). The continuous probability  
203 of distribution was divided into four groups using the reclassify tool in ArcGIS (v.10.2)  
204 according to the previous studies: 0-0.05 (unsuitable due to severe environmental  
205 limitations), 0.05~0.33 (moderate environmental limitations), 0.33~0.66 (suitable  
206 without environmental limitations), 0.66~1.00 (optimal environmental conditions for  
207 local chicken populations) (Yu et al., 2022).

208 The environmental values for each population were calculated by the raster R  
209 package. By ranking the value of each environmental variable, populations ranking in  
210 the top three or bottom three for each variable were designated as “extremely high” and  
211 “extremely low” groups, respectively. For some variables, all populations with zero  
212 values of the variable were divided into “extremely low” group. Then, the niche  
213 differentiation analyses were performed between two groups using the ENMTools  
214 (v1.0.4) R package (Warren et al., 2021). Niche overlap was quantified by Schoener’s  
215 *D* and Hellinger’s *I*, where a value of 0 suggests no overlap and 1 indicates complete  
216 overlap.

### 217 **Genotype-environment association analysis**

218 In this study, we applied two different methods to identify genomic variants  
219 associated with environmental variables. Firstly, we conducted redundancy analysis  
220 (RDA) to identify genomic variants showing significant relationships with multiple  
221 environmental axes. RDA has been shown to be one of the best genotype-environment



222 association analysis (GEA) approaches for large SNP sets and exhibits low false  
223 positive rates (Capblancq & Forester, 2021). Herein, the partial RDA analyses was  
224 implemented using the R package *vegan*, with environmental variables specified as  
225 explanatory factors and genotypes as response variables, while controlling for latitude,  
226 longitude, and the first three principal components (PCs) derived from PCA. The  
227 significance of model constraints was assessed by using ANOVA like permutation test  
228 (*anova.cca*). Then, we selected SNPs that distributed in the two-tails of normal  
229 distribution of SNP loadings using a standard deviation cutoff of 3 along each  
230 significant RDA axis as significant environment-associated variants, which were  
231 further screened out based on largest third-quantile value among all variables. Second,  
232 we employed a univariate latent-factor linear mixed model (LFMM) to detect  
233 associations between whole genomic variants and the eight environmental variables.  
234 The method is good at controlling type I errors by estimating residual structure. LFMM  
235 analysis was implemented in the R package *LEA* (v.3.3.2) (Caye et al., 2019). By setting  
236 the number of ancestry clusters inferred from *ADMIXTURE* as latent factors, we  
237 computed regularized least squares estimates for LFMM to account for population  
238 structure using a ridge penalty. Then, significance values for the associations were  
239 calibrated by using the genomic control method. The calibrated *P*-values of each variant  
240 were adjusted for multiple tests using a false discovery rate (FDR) correction, with FDR  
241 < 0.01 considered significant.

242 The associated SNPs that detected by both RDA and LFMM for each variable were  
243 united as the adaptive variants, which were used to investigate the role of geography



244 and environment in shaping spatial genetic variations, compared to neutral (the 1 415  
245 317 LD-pruned SNPs) variants according to Sang et al (Sang et al., 2022). Mantel tests  
246 were used to test for correlations among  $F_{ST}(F_{ST}/1-F_{ST})$ , geographic distance  
247 (isolation-by-distance) and environmental distance (isolation-by-environment), in  
248 which environmental distance was represented by Euclidean distance of all scaled  
249 environmental variables. The significance of correlations was determined using 9 999  
250 permutations performed in the R package vegan.

### 251 **Selection signature analysis for chicken populations from extremely high and** 252 **low environmental conditions**

253 Selection signature analysis (SSA) was performed by using two complementary  
254 approaches, in which fixation index ( $F_{ST}$ ) analysis compared the frequency of  
255 differential alleles between population groups in extremely high versus extremely low  
256 environmental conditions (Sang et al., 2022), and cross population extended haplotype  
257 homozygosity (XP-EHH) was designed to identify genomic regions under selection by  
258 comparing haplotype homozygosity between two groups (Sabeti et al., 2007).  $F_{ST}$  value  
259 was calculated in VCFtools (v0.1.15) using the Weir and Cockerham method (Weir &  
260 Cockerham, 1984), with a 50 kb sliding window and a 10 kb step size. The weighted  
261  $F_{ST}$  were then standardized to  $zF_{ST}$ , and genomic regions within top 1%  $zF_{ST}$  values  
262 were retained for further analysis. Prior to the XP-EHH analysis, genotypes of high-  
263 and low-environmental value groups were phased using beagle (v4.1) software,  
264 respectively. XP-EHH analyses were carried out using selscan (v2.0.3) software  
265 (Szpiech & Hernandez, 2014) to obtain the XP-EHH score for each SNP, and then the



266 standardized XP-EHH (XPEHH\_std) and its absolute value of XPEHH\_std  
267 ( $|s\_XPEHH|$ ) were calculated. In order to integrate the results of the two methods,  
268  $|s\_XPEHH|$  were averaged across the same windows used in the  $F_{ST}$  analysis, and  
269 genomic regions within top 1%  $|s\_XPEHH|$  values were considered as selected regions  
270 for further analysis. Based on the  $zF_{ST}$  and  $|s\_XPEHH|$ , the correlations between  $F_{ST}$   
271 and XP-EHH were calculated using Pearson correlation method. To mitigate potential  
272 confounding effects of population structure and demographic history on SSA outcomes,  
273 we combined three chicken populations each in high and low-environment value group  
274 (Gheyas et al., 2021). Furthermore, the SHRUBS and WATER were excluded from  
275 SSA due to that the environmental values between two groups were very similar, and  
276 the number of populations with extreme values exceeded three per group.

### 277 **Function annotation for candidate genes**

278 For the genotype-environment association analysis (GEA), the adaptive SNPs were  
279 annotated using SnpEff (v.4.3) (Cingolani, 2022). Genomic regions located in the 100  
280 kb upstream and downstream of adaptive SNPs were annotated using Bedtools (v2.30.0)  
281 with the GRCg7b genome annotation. For SSA, genomic regions identified by  $F_{ST}$  and  
282 XP-EHH analysis were annotated using Bedtools (v2.30.0) with GRCg7b genome  
283 annotation. Finally, the common genes identified by both GEA and SSA were  
284 considered as candidate genes that associated with environmental adaptation. Function  
285 annotation and enrichment analysis of genes were performed with Gene Ontology (GO)  
286 knowledge base and Kyoto Encyclopedia of Genes and Genomes (KEGG) pathway  
287 database using clusterProfiler package (Wu et al., 2021) implemented in R. False



288 discovery rate (FDR) method was used to adjust the  $P$ -values from the hypergeometric  
289 test. GO terms and KEGG pathways with  $FDR < 0.05$  were significantly enriched.

### 290 **Identification of functional SNPs**

291 To further characterize adaptive genomic regions, we used VCFtools (v0.1.15) to  
292 calculate nucleotide differences ( $\theta\pi$ ), genetic diversity (Tajima's  $D$ ) and fixation index  
293 ( $F_{ST}$ ) statistics. The basic parameters were set to a 15 kb sliding window with a 15 kb  
294 step for calculating  $\theta\pi$ . Tajima's  $D$  was calculated in a 15 kb window and  $F_{ST}$  was  
295 calculated for every single SNP harbored in candidate genomic region. Linkage  
296 disequilibrium (LD) and haplotype block structure were evaluated with  $r^2$  statistic and  
297 visualized with LDBlockShow (Dong et al., 2021) for SNPs and R package locuszoomr  
298 for genomic regions (Lewis & Wang, 2025), respectively. The haplotype network  
299 analysis was performed by using R package geneHapR by removing individuals with  
300 heterozygous sites in the region (Zhang et al., 2023).

301 To investigate the tissue-specific regulatory pattern of selected variants, we  
302 integrated 15 chromatin states including promoters (TssA, TssAHet, and TssBiv), TSS-  
303 proximal transcribed regions (TxFlnk, TxFlnkWk, and TxFlnkHet), enhancers (EnhA,  
304 EnhAME, EnhAWk, EnhAHet, and EnhPois), repressed regions (Repr and ReprWk),  
305 quiescent regions (Qui), and accessible but did not coincide with any other measured  
306 epigenetic marks (ATAC islands) which covered 23 tissues including adipose, burse,  
307 bone marrow, cecum, cerebellum, colon, cortex, duodenum, gizzard, hypothalamus,  
308 ileum, jejunum, liver, lung, muscle, proventricular, spleen, eggshell gland, testis,  
309 trachea and thymus from publicly available database (Pan et al., 2023). The selected



310 SNPs were also annotated with signal peaks including four histone modifications  
311 (H3K4me3, H3K4me1, H3K27ac and H3K27me3), CTCF, ATAC-seq and DNase-seq.  
312 Meanwhile, gene expression profiles across tissues were retrieved from ChickenGTEx  
313 database (Hou et al., 2025). To ensure consistency with our genomic dataset, the  
314 genomic coordinates of regulatory elements and functional features were converted  
315 from GRCg6a reference genome to GRCg7b reference genome using LiftOver with  
316 custom chain files, which were generated through whole-genome alignment using the  
317 transanno toolkit (<https://github.com/informationsea/transanno>) with minimap2chain  
318 module.

## 319 RESULTS

### 320 Population structure and genetic diversity of local chicken populations

321 In the present study, a total of 1 029 chickens from 44 populations were investigated  
322 across China, with sampling sites categorized into six agroclimatic areas including the  
323 North (N), Northwest (NW), Middle (M), Southeast (SE), Southwest (SW) and Tibet  
324 (T) (**Figure 1a**). Whole-genome resequencing data of these chickens were generated  
325 using next generation sequencing (NGS) techniques on BGI and Illumina platform. By  
326 aligned onto the chicken reference genome (GRCg7b), average > 99% of the clean  
327 reads were mapped with an average depth of  $14.40 \times$  and coverage of 96.23%  
328 (**Supplementary Table S3**). Among 35 739 816 high-quality SNPs across the 1 029  
329 samples, the majority of substitutions were A/G (37.20%) and C/T (37.19%) transitions  
330 (**Supplementary Figure S1a**). Rare SNPs that with MAF < 5% accounted for 60.41%  
331 of total variants, with most ranging between 0.01 and 0.05 (**Supplementary Figure**



332 **S1b**), suggesting population-specific pattern of SNPs distribution. we performed  
333 principal component analysis (PCA) for the 1 022 qualified samples based on 1 415  
334 317 pruned autosomal SNPs. Along the first PC, the clusters were changed from  
335 negative to positive values with geographic regions ordered as Southwest (SW),  
336 Southeast (SE), Middle (M), North (N), Northwest (NW) and Xizang (T). The PC2  
337 largely reflected the difference between chicken populations in North and South China  
338 (**Figure 1b**). Through deep inspection, we found chicken populations in SE could be  
339 separately clustered, whereas several chicken populations were overlapped with each  
340 other in other regions, such as the LDC, DGC and BSC in N; HDC and NYC in NW;  
341 LSC, GSC and MCL in M; NDC, HTC, GXS, HXC and WCC in SE; XZJ and LZC in  
342 Xizang (**Supplementary Figure S2**). The neighbor-joining (NJ) tree revealed similar  
343 results (**Supplementary Figure S3**).

344 To investigate population structure, we inferred ancestry proportions for all  
345 samples using ADMIXTURE. The number of ancestors that ADMIXTURE converged  
346 with minimum cross-validation (CV) error was 27. We found that BJC, BYC and JYC  
347 (N), LHC and XHC (M), PDC, LYC, XSC, JHW and HTC (SE), LSF, DWS and GZC  
348 (SW), and RKC (T) showed high genetic purity, whereas all NW chicken populations  
349 exhibited high admixture. Interestingly, populations in central China (LSC, GSC, MCL,  
350 HJC, DAC, and HLC) also showed similar admixture patterns, suggesting that  
351 extensive gene exchange existed throughout the history of these breeds (**Figure 1c**). We  
352 also assumed six agroclimatic areas as the six ancestries for all chickens and found that  
353 LHC (M), WBD (M), XSC (SE), DWS (SW) and RKC (T) were genetically



354 independent. The remaining ancestry was showing significant different patten between  
355 chicken populations in Southwest China and that in other part of China  
356 (**Supplementary Figure S4**). Moreover, the substantial admixture increased the  
357 genetic diversity of chicken populations, among which the physical distance that  
358 linkage disequilibrium (LD) decreased to half value (half-life) for pure populations (254  
359 nt) were higher than that of populations with high admixture (194 nt) (**Supplementary**  
360 **Figure S5**).

361 The genetic differentiation among the 44 populations was assessed using weighted  
362  $F_{ST}$ . The  $F_{ST}$  value ranging from 0.01 to 0.25 (mean = 0.09) indicated a moderate  
363 genetic differentiation among populations. As showing in the **Figure 1d**, the highest  
364  $F_{ST}$  (0.25) was found between LHC and WBD. We detected that populations with high  
365 purity were significantly divergent with other populations (average  $F_{ST}$  = 0.07-0.16),  
366 and the divergence among admixed populations showed area-specific differentiation.  
367 For example, the LDC and DGC (0.04), the NYC and XWC (0.04), the LSC, GSC,  
368 MCL, HJC, DAC and HLC (0.01-0.06), the HXC, GXS and WCC (0.01-0.03), the PDG  
369 and CSL (0.04) and the XZJ and LZC (0.03) were slightly divergent ( $F_{ST}$  = 0.01-0.06)  
370 within each area compared to that among areas ( $F_{ST}$  = 0.01-0.19). This was consistent  
371 with the clusters identified in the PCA. Notably, although CLZ exhibited an admixed  
372 genetic structure, it was highly divergent with all other populations with  $F_{ST}$  ranging  
373 from 0.09 to 0.22, exceeding divergence seen in some purebreds like JYC, LYC, JHW,  
374 HTC, LSF and RKC from other populations. This suggested that CLZ represented an  
375 independent genetic lineage shaped by human migration and unique environmental



376 conditions in the edge of the Qinghai–Xizang Plateau. Furthermore, the genome-wide  
377 estimates of nucleotide diversity ( $\pi$ ) revealed that the  $\pi$  of CLZ was lower than almost  
378 all populations except for WBD and XSC (**Supplementary Figure S6**). Combined with  
379 high half-life LD decay of CLZ, it is highly recommended that CLZ is a potentially new  
380 genetic resource undergone a long-term natural selection and domestication.

### 381 **Environmental variables contribute to ecological niche of chicken populations**

382 Ecological niche model (ENM) was applied to predict the distribution of each  
383 chicken population, following the conceptual model of environmental factors  
384 governing species distributions (Soberón & Osorio-Olvera, 2023). Firstly, we built the  
385 models with different tuning parameters and evaluated their performance and detected  
386 that the  $\Delta\text{AICc}$  reached zero, when the feature class (FC) was set as linear, quadratic  
387 and hinge (LQH) with  $\text{RM} = 1$  (**Supplementary Figure S7**). Then, based on the  
388 contribution rate for each variable, we selected a total of 22 environmental variables  
389 with contribution rate larger than 1% for the further analysis (**Figure 2a**). After  
390 removing variables highly correlated ( $r > 0.6$ ) and  $\text{VIF} > 5$ , nine variables including  
391 BARE (areas with minimal vegetation), BIO\_2 (mean diurnal range), CLAY  
392 (proportion of clay particles), CROPLAND (land used for crops), SRAD\_11 (solar  
393 radiation in November), PREC\_08 (precipitation in August), TREES (land covered by  
394 tree foliage), SHRUBS (woody plants) and WATER (areas covered by lakes and rivers)  
395 were fed to the ENMeval for automated tuning and evaluations of ENM. The optimal  
396 settings for ENM included five FCs (linear, quadratic, hinge, product and threshold)  
397 and a regularization multiplier value of 0.5 (**Supplementary Figure S8**), suggesting



398 that the optimized model had a better fit and transferability to reduce overfitting of the  
399 chicken distribution model compared to the default parameters (FC =LQHPT, RM =1).  
400 After running 10 replicates under the optimized parameter settings, the average AUC  
401 values for Chinese local chicken reached 0.95, and average omission rate was closed to  
402 the predicted omission (**Supplementary Figure S9**), indicating the high accuracy and  
403 effectiveness of the optimized MaxEnt model in predicting the suitability of local  
404 chickens. The Jackknife test revealed that BARE, BIO\_2, CROPLAND, PREC\_08 and  
405 SRAD\_11 that with test gain > 0.4 were the primary variables influencing the  
406 distribution of local chickens, whereas the CLAY contributed little in both regularized  
407 gain and AUC (**Supplementary Figure S10**). The relative contributions of each  
408 variable to the Maxent model showed that SRAD\_11 contributed largest to the  
409 ecological niche of chicken populations (28%), followed by the CROPLAND (27%),  
410 WATER (12.5%), PREC\_08 (9.1%), BIO\_2 (6.5%), TREES (5.2%), BARE (4.7%),  
411 SHRUBS (4.2%), and the CLAY possessed the smallest contribution (2.9%) and  
412 permutation importance (1.7%) (**Figure 2b**).

413 Based on the nine environmental variables, we found the highly suitable regions  
414 for chicken populations were located in the Southwest and Southeast China (**Figure 2c**),  
415 where rich biodiversity and a long history of traditional poultry farming were  
416 previously recognized and inferred for survival and formation of diverse local breeds  
417 (Zhuang et al., 2023). Moreover, we explored the suitability map for each chicken  
418 population by excluding the CLAY due to its negligible effect. The AUC values of all  
419 distribution models exceeded 0.9 in the suitability analysis, and we found that the eight



420 remained environmental variables exerted different impacts on the chicken distributions  
421 (**Supplementary Figure S11**). For example, the ecological niche of BJC (N) and XSC  
422 (SE) was mainly affected by BIO\_2, which make them adapted to the north China (high  
423 diurnal range) and the east coast of China (low diurnal range), respectively (**Figure 2d**  
424 **and 2g**). CLZ (NW), LHC (M), DWS (SW) and RKC (T group) adapted to mountain  
425 areas, north China plain, south humid-hot areas and Xizang environment, respectively,  
426 driven by dominant environment factors (**Figure 2e, 2f, 2h and 2i**).

427 By focusing on the eight remained variables, we selected three populations each  
428 with extremely high and low value, respectively (**Supplementary Figure S12**),  
429 between which niche differentiation were tested. For the BIO\_2, the H group included  
430 NYC, XWC and SNC with average value of 15.59, and the GXS, PDC and WCC with  
431 average value of 7.07 were selected as L group. Similarly, we extracted H and L group  
432 for the BARE (0.68 vs. 0.01), CROPLAND (0.62 vs. 0.003), PREC\_08 (292.87 vs.  
433 3.33), SRAD\_11 (14389.97 vs. 8199.07), TREES (0.92 vs. 0), SHRUBS (0.04 vs. 0)  
434 and WATER (0.23 vs. 0), respectively. For all variables, the empirical values of  
435 Hellinger's I and Schoener's D were significantly lower than those expected from 100  
436 pseudo-replicated simulations (**Figure 2j**), suggested a clear niche differentiation  
437 affected by selected environmental variables. However, observed I and D of SHRUBS  
438 and WATER were larger than that of other variables, indicating smaller differentiation.  
439 Overall, ENM revealed the environmental diversity of Chinese indigenous chicken  
440 habitats and identified eight important environmental drivers of local adaptation. The  
441 significant niche difference was in consistent to the genomic divergence between



442 chicken populations with extremely high and low environmental variables.

### 443 **Genotype-environment associations analysis**

444 By integrating eight environmental variables with genomic data from 1 022  
445 individuals, we performed genotype-environment association (GEA) analyses to detect  
446 the environment-associated genetic variants using RDA and LFMM methods. In the  
447 RDA, the overall model was significant ( $P < 0.01$ ) under 500 permutations, explaining  
448 3.04% of the total genetic variance (**Supplementary note 1**). This result was consistent  
449 with previous findings in Ethiopia indigenous chickens (Gheyas et al., 2021),  
450 supporting the polygenic inheritance of adaptive traits since only a small proportion of  
451 genomic variants are expected to be associated with several environmental predictors  
452 (Forester et al., 2018). The eight RDA axes in the model were significant with  
453 permutation  $P$ -value  $< 0.05$ , explaining all the variance captured by the RDA model  
454 (**Supplementary Figure S13, Supplementary note 1**). The PCoA showed that first  
455 two RDAs explained 36.75% (RDA1, 19.12%; RDA2, 17.63%) of the variation of  
456 environmental variables. The RDA1 was positively correlated with most variables,  
457 including BARE, CROPLAND, PREC\_08, SHRUBS, SRAD\_11 and WATER,  
458 whereas RDA2 was correlated with and TREES. BIO\_2 and CROPLAND were pointed  
459 to opposite direction, in which BJC was positively correlated with high BIO\_2, whereas  
460 PDC was positively correlated with CROPLAND. BARE and TREES were pointed to  
461 opposite direction, in which TGC was positively correlated with BARE, whereas CLZ  
462 was positively correlated with TREES. XHC was found in the areas with highly covered  
463 with water land (**Figure 3a**). We identified 35 688 outlier SNPs (1 862~6 549 SNPs per



464 environmental variable), with correlations ranging from 0.03 to 0.41 (**Supplementary**  
465 **Figure S13, Supplementary Table S4**). Using  $r > 0.2$  as threshold, we obtained 307,  
466 812, 510, 613, 113, 883, 1 693 and 1 436 SNPs for BARE, BIO\_2, CROPLAND,  
467 PREC\_08, SHRUBS, SRAD\_11, TREES and WATER, respectively. LFMM was a  
468 complementary univariate landscape genomic method to test associations between  
469 genomic variants and environment variables, while accounting for background  
470 population structure (Frichot et al., 2013). We identified a total of 205~19 126 SNPs  
471 were significantly ( $FDR < 0.01$ ) associated with one or more environmental factors.  
472 The largest number of associated SNPs was found in BIO\_2, whereas the BARE and  
473 SHRUBS were associated with only ~ 200 each. Moreover, a total of 1 190 SNPs  
474 affected two or more environmental factors (**Supplementary Figure S14,**  
475 **Supplementary Table S5**).

476 By overlapping SNPs detected by both RDA and LFMM, we identified 13, 276, 66,  
477 69, 39, 19, 307 and 500 SNPs, corresponding to 90, 1 860, 546, 578, 315, 110, 2 167  
478 and 2 865 genes for BARE, BIO\_2, CROPLAND, PREC\_08, SHRUBS, SRAD\_11,  
479 TREES and WATER, respectively (**Figure 3b, c, Supplementary Table S6**). Gene  
480 enrichment analysis showed that BARE-associated genes were overrepresented in  
481 cytokine-cytokine receptor interaction and metabolic pathways including amino acid  
482 metabolism (xenobiotics by cytochrome P450, tyrosine, retinol and pyruvate),  
483 glycolysis and fatty acid degradation. CROPLAND-associated genes were  
484 overrepresented in biological processes, such as cellular response to chemical stimulus,  
485 response to bacterium and chemotaxis. Interestingly, WATER-associated genes were



486 overrepresented in four same biological processes that identified in the CROPLAND,  
487 involving same genes including AvBD (avian  $\beta$ -defensin) gene family (1, 6, 8, 9, 10,  
488 11, 13), *DEFB4A* and *SBDS*. (**Figure 3d, Supplementary Table S7**). The AvBD  
489 represented a key family of antimicrobial host defense peptides in birds and might also  
490 influence nutrient metabolism under varying nutrient availability, as indicated by  
491 CROPLAND (Fu et al., 2023).

492 We used the 1 283 variable-associated SNPs that were regarded as adaptive variants  
493 to explore patterns of isolation-by-distance (IBD) and isolation-by-environment (IBE)  
494 compared to neutral variants (excluding adaptive SNPs). We found that genetic  
495 divergence calculated by both adaptive and neutral SNPs were not correlated with  
496 geographic distance (**Figure 3e**). In contrast, adaptive SNPs showed a significant IBE  
497 indicated by partial Mantel tests (**Figure 3f**), whereas the neutral SNPs was not  
498 significant, indicating that genetic variation of the adaptive variants was mainly  
499 influenced by the environment. Our results suggested that the adaptive SNPs were  
500 relatively robust to the confounding effects of population structure and highlight the  
501 central role of ecological factors in shaping genomic variation across landscapes.

### 502 **Selection signatures associated with environmental extremes in indigenous** 503 **chickens**

504 The niche differential analysis for BARE, BIO\_2, CROPLAND, PREC\_08,  
505 SRAD\_11 and TREES suggested that the significant environmental divergence  
506 prompted the genomic changes between chicken populations with extremely high and  
507 low environmental variables. Given that smaller niche differentiation and more than



508 three populations in the extreme group, the SHRUBS and WATER were discarded  
509 before the selection signature analysis and candidate gene analysis. For the six retained  
510 drivers, we applied two methods to detected the potential genomic regions and variants  
511 that associated with the environmental changes. First, we performed  $F_{ST}$  analysis and  
512 extracted top 1% selected regions (N =935) with  $zF_{st}$  threshold larger than 3.34, 3.44,  
513 3.29, 3.34, 3.37 and 3.42 for BARE, BIO\_2, CROPLAND, PREC\_08, SRAD\_11 and  
514 TREES, respectively. These regions were annotated with 548-679 Ensembl genes per  
515 variable, the gene sets of which were independent with few overlaps (**Supplementary**  
516 **Figure S15a, Supplementary Table S8**). Function annotation revealed that about half  
517 (41.97%~49.30%) of genes lacked with gene symbols. GO and KEGG enrichment  
518 showed that MAPK signaling pathway, calcium signaling pathway were significantly  
519 (FDR < 0.05) enriched by BARE-associated genes (**Supplementary Figure S15b**). In  
520 the XP-EHH analysis, the signatures of individual SNP were merged into 935 windows,  
521 in which top 1% selected regions were obtained with  $|s_{XPEHH}|$  threshold exceeding  
522 2.82, 2.89, 2.86, 2.79, 2.80 and 2.83 for the six variables, respectively. These genomic  
523 regions were annotated with 425-510 Ensembl genes for 6 variables (**Supplementary**  
524 **Figure S15c, Supplementary Table S9**), in which the BARE-associated genes and the  
525 CROPLAND-associated genes were significantly (FDR < 0.05) overrepresented in  
526 eight and four KEGG pathways, respectively (**Supplementary Figure S15d**). Among  
527 these pathways, alpha-linoleic acid metabolism, linoleic acid metabolism and GnRH  
528 signaling pathway were shared by two variables. Similarly, the gene sets of the six  
529 variables from XP-EHH were independent with few overlaps, and 41.39%~53.18%



530 genes lacked gene symbol annotation.

531 Notably, we observed a modest but significant positive correlation ranging from  
532 0.23 to 0.39 between the  $F_{ST}$  and the XP-EHH results ( $P < 2.2e-16$ ) across the six  
533 environmental variables (**Supplementary Figure S16**), consistent with previous  
534 studies and confirming the robustness of our analysis (Ma et al., 2015). However, the  
535 overlap between the top 1% signatures detected by both methods was low, with  
536 significant correlations observed only for BIO\_2 and PREC\_08 (**Figure 4a**). This  
537 highlighted the complementary roles of two methods in detecting significant selection  
538 signatures. We further screened top genes defined as those annotated to the top 0.1%  
539 selection signatures in either method or top 1% selected genes shared by two methods  
540 (**Supplementary Table S10**). This yielded 168, 194, 107, 214, 126 and 184 top genes  
541 for BARE, BIO\_2, CROPLAND, PREC\_08, SRAD\_11 and TREES, respectively  
542 (**Figure 4b, Supplementary Table S11**). Unlike to the distribution pattern in  $F_{ST}$  and  
543 XP-EHH, we found that top genes were common to two or more variables, with overlap  
544 proportion ranging from 46.26% to 71.73% (**Figure 4b-c**). Spearman correlation  
545 analysis indicated that this overlap was not owing to the number of shared chicken  
546 populations used in the SSA (**Figure 4d**). Functional enrichment revealed that calcium  
547 signaling pathway was significantly enriched by BARE-associated genes including  
548 *CHRM2*, *CAMK2G*, *CAMK2D*, *CYSLTR2*, *CACNA1B* and *FLT1*. (**Figure 4e**).  
549 Moreover, we mapped these genes to the chicken QTL database and revealed  
550 associations with 66 traits, covering growth, health, feeding, fatness, exterior, digestion,  
551 egg and meat quality traits, physiology and reproduction traits (**Figure 4f**,



552 **Supplementary Table S12**). Notably, only a small proportion of genes (9-39) were  
553 overlapped with known QTLs, suggested that the candidate genes were more potential  
554 to affect traits, such as adaptation, since the QTLs mapping was generally conducted  
555 for economic traits and those associated with environment changes were rarely reported  
556 in chickens (Hu et al., 2022). Few environment-associated genes were overlapped with  
557 QTLs, together with few enriched pathways by environment-associated genes  
558 confirmed polygenic nature of adaptation in local chicken populations, which were a  
559 complex combination of multiple minor gene effects (Sang et al., 2022).

#### 560 **Geographic distribution of genomic variants in the candidate genes** 561 **underlying adaptive responses to climate changes**

562 According to previous analysis results, SRAD\_11, PREC\_08 and BIO\_2 are three  
563 most important climatic factors contributing to the ecological niche of local chicken  
564 population (**Figure 2b**). SRAD\_11, representing total solar radiation in November, was  
565 strongly correlated with annual solar radiation ( $r = 0.59$ ,  $p = 2.6e-5$ ; **Supplementary**  
566 **Figure S17a**), making it a robust indicator of adaptation to ultraviolet and heat stress.  
567 We identified *PRMT3*, *EPC2* and *TPK1* associated with SRAD\_11 were involved in the  
568 regulation of DNA damage and repair, which are crucial in how organisms respond to  
569 the solar radiation (Jessulat et al., 2021; Angrand, 2022; Brobbey et al., 2022) (**Figure**  
570 **5a**). The common genomic regions identified by SSA and GEA included *MAML2*,  
571 *C20H20ORF112*, *POU6F2* and one gene cluster (**Supplementary Table S13**). The  
572 gene *MAML2* encoded the Mastermind-like proteins that acted as a vital transcriptional  
573 coactivator in the Notch signaling, which was responded to high-dose radiation



574 (Banerjee et al., 2020). Within *MALM2*, we identified 11 SNPs with  $F_{ST} > 0.5$  in high  
575 LD (**Supplementary Figure S18a, b**). We selected an index SNP *rs15536665* ( $F_{ST} =$   
576 0.65) to show the alleles frequency pattern and found that chicken populations  
577 originated from high SRAD\_11 in Xizang and Southwest areas possessed more G allele  
578 (**Supplementary Figure S18c**). In the gene cluster, we firstly identified index SNP  
579 *rs316099750* that was divergently selected between high and low group (grey shadow).  
580 Given that the negative Tajima's D value suggested an excess of rare genetic variants in  
581 a population compared to that under neutral evolution, we further focused on two  
582 genomic regions with -0.57 and -0.36 of Tajima'D in the low SRAD\_11 group in the  
583 gene cluster, among which the genomic region ranging from 2 745 001 bp to 2 760 000  
584 bp (red shadow in **Figure 5b**) contained significant divergent values across three  
585 statistics. The region was located in *UNC80* gene and harbored an index intronic SNP  
586 *rs316174149* ( $F_{ST} = 0.56$ ). The allele frequency patterns showed that chicken  
587 populations originated from areas with high SRAD\_11 possessed more A allele,  
588 whereas the T allele was dominant in chicken populations originated from areas with  
589 low SRAD\_11 (**Figure 5c, Supplementary Figure S19**). Notably, the Sichuan basin  
590 was exposed to less solar radiation, as shown in **Figure 5c**. We then investigated the  
591 gene frequency of *rs316174149* for chicken breeds in Sichuan basin including Miyi  
592 chicken (MYC), Pengxian Yellow chicken (PXC), Emei Black chicken (EMB), Jiuyuan  
593 Black chicken (JYB) and Jinyang silky chicken (JYS) (Li et al., 2019), frequency of  
594 which was consistent with pattern that T allele was dominant in these chicken  
595 populations in contrast to that A allele was dominant in the Xizang fowl (TF) and Red



596 jungle fowl (RJF) in tropical areas (**Figure 5d**). Given that most non-coding variants  
597 were located in regulatory elements, we further annotated the SNP based on the atlas of  
598 chicken regulatory elements (Pan et al., 2023). Five regulatory elements including  
599 EnhAWk, ATAC, Repr, ReprWk and Qui were annotated for *rs316174149* across 23  
600 tissues (**Figure 5e**). Correspondingly, we also found significant H3K27me3 signals for  
601 hypothalamus, duodenum, and eggshell gland, as well as ATAC-seq signals for kidney  
602 (**Figure 5f**). Moreover, the expression data from Chicken GTEx (Guan et al., 2025)  
603 showed that the *UNC80* was highly expressed in the hypothalamus (**Figure 5g**). *UNC80*  
604 encodes a key component of the NALCN sodium channel complex that regulates  
605 neuronal excitability and is actively expressed in the nervous systems (Chua et al., 2020;  
606 Wie et al., 2020). These suggested that the *rs316174149* might act as a repressor to alter  
607 gene expression within the hypothalamus, mediating the long-term adaptation to solar  
608 radiation (Vrettos et al., 2025).

609       PREC\_08, an indicator of monthly precipitation, was strongly correlated with  
610 annual precipitation ( $r = 0.75$ ,  $p = 5.8e-9$ ; **Supplementary Figure S17b**), making it a  
611 robust marker of adaptation to humid versus arid environments. We identified SSA  
612 genes including *ABCB10*, *ANK2*, *KCNA1*, *PRMT1*, *SLC22A15* and *TRAPPC11*  
613 associated with PREC\_08 were involved in the matter transportations to enhanced  
614 utilization of metabolic water in arid-dwelling animals (Rocha et al., 2021) (**Figure 6a**).  
615 The common genomic regions identified by SSA and GEA were annotated with *PTPRO*,  
616 *SOX5*, *SPOCK1* and four gene clusters (**Supplementary Table S14**). In *PTPRO*,  
617 Tajima'D and  $F_{ST}$  analyses identified a region (62 835 001 bp ~ 62 840 000 bp) with



618 negative Tajima's D (-0.18) for the high PREC\_08 group, contrasting with a positive  
619 Tajima's D (1.64) in low PREC\_08 group (**Figure 6b**), indicated that an excess of low  
620 frequency SNPs was under putative selective sweep in the chickens originated from  
621 areas with high precipitation. In this region, 10 SNPs with  $F_{ST} > 0.25$  were detected.  
622 The most divergent SNP was an intronic SNP *rs15292135*, which was in a LD block  
623 with nearby 6 SNPs (**Figure 6c**). The allele frequency of *rs15292135* showed that C  
624 allele was dominant in the chicken populations adapted to the arid environment,  
625 whereas T allele was dominant in the chicken populations adapted to the humidity  
626 environment (**Figure 6d**). The chromatin state analyses showed that *rs15292135* lied  
627 in short regions for most tissues annotated by ATAC, Repr, ReprWk and Qui (**Figure**  
628 **6e**). Notably, the key roles of kidney and trachea were confirmed by the significant  
629 signals identified in the ATAC-seq data (**Figure 6f**), suggesting that *rs15292135*  
630 affected the chromatin accessibility, altering gene regulation and contributed to the  
631 adaptation of humid or arid environment. Among four gene clusters, we scanned  
632 genomic regions with large difference among  $\theta\pi$ , Tajima's D and  $F_{ST}$  value on the  
633 chromosome 1. In the region, the index SNP *rs3384544359* that possessed highest  $F_{ST}$   
634 (0.46) was located in the region ranging from 64 545 001 bp to 64 560 000 bp. However,  
635 the MAF of *rs3384544359* was low (0.13), resulting in almost fixed A allele in many  
636 chicken populations (**Supplementary Figure S20**). Therefore, we focused on another  
637 region ranging from 64 590 001 bp to 64 605 000 bp (red shadow in **Supplementary**  
638 **Figure S21a**), in which we identified a set of SNPs with high  $F_{ST}$  were under putative  
639 selection sweeps. The index SNP *rs312280416* with a MAF of 0.4 was in high LD with



640 surrounding SNPs, locating in the *AEBP2* (**Supplementary Figure S21b**). The allele  
641 frequency pattern showed that the frequency of G allele was growing up when the  
642 precipitation increased across chicken populations, suggested that the function of SNP  
643 and candidate gene *AEBP2* were involved in the adaptation of humidity  
644 (**Supplementary Figure S21c**).

645 For the BIO\_2, we also identified a number of genes that previously reported to be  
646 associated with temperature adaptation (**Supplementary Figure S22a**). For example,  
647 the gene *DIO3* identified for the BIO\_2 was a deiodinase enzyme that converts the  
648 inactive thyroid hormone T4 to its active form T3. Cold exposure decreases hepatic  
649 *DIO3* activity in chicks, leading to less T3 degradation. The increased T3 levels  
650 contribute to enhanced metabolic rate and heat production, which are essential for  
651 thermoregulation in cold environments (Amaz and Mishra, 2024). Using same pipeline,  
652 we obtained 2 intersected genes (*EVL*, *NCOR2*), 1 lncRNA (*ENSGALG00010004931*)  
653 and 6 gene clusters (**Supplementary Table S15**). We identified a 30 kb genomic region  
654 in the *NCOR2* was differentially selected between high and low groups across three  
655 indices, with Tajima'D =-0.71 in low BIO\_2 group (**Supplementary Figure S22b**).  
656 Accompanied with  $F_{ST}$  value of single SNP, we detected that an intronic SNP  
657 *rs316512683* possessed the highest  $F_{ST}$  (0.31) and was in a medium LD (0.46~0.66)  
658 with surrounding SNPs with  $F_{ST} > 0.25$  (**Supplementary Figure S22c**). The A allele  
659 of *rs316512683* was mainly distributed in the north region that is characterized by large  
660 diurnal temperature difference, whereas the G allele was almost fixed in other chicken  
661 populations (**Supplementary Figure S22d, e**). Moreover, we detected SNP



662 *rs316512683* as a repressor in the heart via H3K27me3 modification, contributing to  
663 the thermal adaptation (**Supplementary Figure S22f, g**). Among gene clusters, we  
664 identified candidate SNP *rs14836021* was harbored in the intron of *EPS8*. As a  
665 signaling adaptor, it was involved in the EGFR pathway that promote cell survival and  
666 tissue repair under temperature-induced damage (Tito et al., 2025). The A allele of  
667 *rs14836021* was almost fixed in the region that is characterized by small diurnal  
668 temperature difference, while the G allele increased in the north region  
669 (**Supplementary Figure S23**). Another SNP *rs317631326* was an index SNP located  
670 in the *DSEL* and was in high LD with surrounding SNPs. The A allele of *rs317631326*  
671 was dominant in NYC, XWC, SNC and BJC with extremely high BIO\_2  
672 (**Supplementary Figure S24**). *DSEL* encoded enzymes for dermatan sulfate  
673 biosynthesis, a key extracellular matrix component influencing cell behavior,  
674 metabolism, and homeostasis (Mizumoto & Yamada, 2022).

### 675 **Geographic distribution of genomic variants underlying local landcover** 676 **adaptation**

677 For the landcover, we identified three physical materials at the land surface  
678 including CROPLAND, TREES and BARE non-negligibly affect the animal local  
679 adaptations (**Figure 2b**). For the CROPLAND, a few top genes were annotated in the  
680 selection signatures analysis (**Figure 7a, Supplementary Table S11**), which were  
681 rarely reported to be associated with cropland coverage and availability. However,  
682 genes including *TPK1*, *COA3*, *G6PCI* and *LEPROT* were demonstrated to play  
683 important role in metabolism, digestion and energy homeostasis. For example, *G6PCI*



684 encodes glucose-6-phosphatase, crucial for maintaining blood glucose levels between  
685 meals (Claxton et al., 2022). After overlapping with associated genes identified in  
686 landscape genomic analysis, we detected a continuous genomic regions ranging from  
687 51 548 866 bp to 51 626 768 bp on chromosome 1 (**Supplementary Table S16**). The  
688  $\theta\pi$  and Tajima's D indicated that chicken populations located in the areas with high  
689 CROPLAND were under intensive selection (**Figure 7b**). We further screened a 10 kb  
690 region with most significant value across three indices. Within this region, an index  
691 SNP *rs794437951* with highest  $F_{ST}$  (0.65) was in high LD with eight surrounding SNPs  
692 with  $F_{ST} > 0.5$ . The allele frequency pattern showed that the index SNP was almost  
693 fixed to T allele for most chicken populations (**Supplementary Figure S25**), which  
694 probably due to the low minor allele frequency (MAF). Therefore, we profiled the MAF  
695 of nine SNPs, among which an intronic SNP *rs732137070* harbored in  
696 *ENSGALG00010014829* carried highest MAF (0.26), and the surrounding SNPs were  
697 in high LD with *rs732137070* ( $r^2 = 0.53\sim 0.74$ ) (**Figure 7c, d**). The chicken populations  
698 originated from areas with high CROPLAND possessed more G allele of *rs732137070*,  
699 while the A allele of *rs732137070* was dominant in chicken populations originated from  
700 mountain areas with few croplands (**Figure 7e, f**). The chromatin state annotation  
701 revealed that *rs732137070* lied in the EnhAWk of hypothalamus and testis, suggested  
702 transcriptional activation at this site in two organs (**Supplementary Figure S26**).  
703 However, no any regulatory peak was detected for the SNP.

704 For the TREES, we identified *ITGB2* that belonged to integrin-beta gene family  
705 (**Figure 8a, Supplementary Table S11**), in which *ITGB1* was previously reported to



706 associated with land use pattern by RDA analysis in chickens (Gheyas et al., 2021),  
707 suggesting that the cell-to-cell and cell-to-extracellular matrix interactions regulated by  
708 integrin-beta were essential for individuals adapted to the specific environment. Using  
709 same pipeline, we identified six genes and four gene clusters distributing on the  
710 chromosome 1, 4, 10 and 23 (**Supplementary Table S17**). Some genes were involved  
711 in the neural development and signaling transduction (*FOXP2*, *TRPA1*, *PRKCE*, and  
712 *NRXN3*), which contribute to the ability in sensor, communicating, mating and seeking  
713 in the dense tree areas. For example, *TRPA1* was demonstrated to be participates in  
714 sensory processes, such as cold sensation (Zhang et al., 2022) and hearing (Vélez-  
715 Ortega et al., 2023), which were essential for living in the forest. In the *TRPA1*, we  
716 identified SNP *rs317006675* in the intron was under selection (**Supplementary Figure**  
717 **S27a**). The C allele of *rs317006675* was significantly dominant in chicken populations  
718 from high TREES group and significantly decreased in chicken populations from areas  
719 with few trees (**Supplementary Figure S27b**). We then refined the four gene clusters,  
720 in which we identified most divergently selected regions on the chromosome 4  
721 (**Supplementary Figure S28**). By focusing on genomic region with highest  $F_{ST}$  (red  
722 shadow in **Figure 8b**), we found a large divergence ( $\Delta\theta\pi = 0.0023$  and  $\Delta T_{ajima}'s D =$   
723  $2.81$ ) between high and low TREES group. The region harbored 17 SNPs with  $F_{ST} >$   
724  $0.25$ . The index SNP *rs314594662*, a synonymous variant in the *NXT2*, was in high LD  
725 with surrounding eight SNPs. Chicken populations originated from high trees coverage  
726 possessed more G allele, while the A allele was dominant in chicken populations  
727 originated from northwest areas with few trees (**Figure 8c, d**). Given that the nine SNPs



728 located in the gene *NXT2* were in high LD, we further analyzed the haplotypes between  
729 high and low TREES group. The 9 SNPs formed 5 unique haplotypes across 62 samples.  
730 Among these haplotypes, the haplotype *CCGTGAGGA* (H001) was dominant in terms  
731 of total amount and frequency in high TREES group, whereas the SNP sites in low  
732 TREES group were heterozygous and haplotypes were sporadic (**Figure 8e**), confirmed  
733 that *NXT2* was under intensive selection in chickens to adapted to the environment with  
734 dense coverage of trees. Moreover, the chromatin state and regulatory annotation  
735 revealed that candidate SNPs might be active enhancers within chromatin accessibility  
736 and DNA methylation region in bone marrow, trachea, kidney, liver, heart, gizzard,  
737 ileum, colon and cecum (**Supplementary Figure S29**).

738 For the BARE, we identified a bunch of top genes like *CACNA1B*, *COL11A1*,  
739 *MGAT4C*, *SLC4A10*, *SLC25A20* was associated with starvation and dehydration that  
740 usually happened in BARE environment (Rocha et al., 2021; Rocha et al., 2023) in the  
741 SSA (**Supplementary Figure S30a**, **Supplementary Table S11**). However, no  
742 common genes were screened across four methods, whereas a total of 31 genes were  
743 identified by any three of four methods (**Supplementary Figure S30b**). Notably, the  
744 common genes identified in the GEA were rarely under intensive selection by  $F_{ST}$  ( $n=6$ )  
745 and XPEHH ( $n=1$ ), indicated polygenic inheritance of chicken adaption to the BARE  
746 environment. Nevertheless, the genomic regions under intensive selection were from  
747 natural and artificial interventions. We further focused on common SSA genes that  
748 overlapped with RDA or LFMM, from which we obtained three genes and one gene  
749 cluster in the RDA and one gene, one lncRNA and two gene clusters in the LFMM,



750 respectively (**Supplementary Table S18**). By scanning individual SNP among these  
751 candidates, we found significant selection signatures in *PALLD* across three indices in  
752 RDA. The intronic SNP *rs313027723* harbored in the *PALLD* was divergently selected  
753 between extremely high and low BARE group (**Supplementary Figure S30c**). The  
754 SNP was in a completed LD block with surrounding SNPs ( $F_{ST} > 0.25$ ), and the  
755 haplotype analysis showed that 2 haplotypes were existed in the populations. The  
756 haplotype CCAATAG was abundant and dominant in low BARE group, whereas the  
757 haplotype TGGCGA was less belonging to the high group (**Supplementary Figure**  
758 **S30d, e**). The G allele of *rs313027723* was increasingly important in the chicken  
759 located in the areas with extremely high bare ground (**Supplementary Figure S30f**).  
760 For LFMM, the candidate region was mapped in the chromosome 3. An intronic SNP  
761 *rs316823963* located in the *GPR63* was screened out and in high LD ( $r^2 = 0.61$ ) with  
762 an index SNP *rs15388384* that located in the 3'UTR (**Supplementary Figure S31a**).  
763 Functionally important, we further showed the allele frequency pattern of *rs15388384*,  
764 where the C allele was increased with increased bare ground (**Supplementary Figure**  
765 **S31b**). Furthermore, the two SNP *rs313027723* and *rs15388384* were annotated as  
766 regulatory SNPs in the brain and heart, respectively (**Supplementary Figure S32**),  
767 suggested the distinct tissue-specific regulatory patterns.

## 768 DISCUSSION

769 Coping with environmental changes is common to all species. Unlike studies that  
770 focus on intraspecific adaptive variation to mitigate extinction risks in wildlife (Sang et  
771 al., 2022), we leveraged the abundant genetic diversity and adaptive variations to



772 cultivate environment-resilient livestock and poultry for sustainable global food supply  
773 (Boettcher et al., 2014). Compared to commercial chicken strains used in the intensive  
774 farming, indigenous populations exhibit superior adaptive traits, such as environmental  
775 resilience, foraging ability, welfare living (free range and organic product) and disease  
776 resistance, providing valuable resources for new breeding goals that met changes in  
777 climate, husbandry environment and customer demand (Gheyas et al., 2021). In this  
778 study, we collected and generated genomic variants data for over 1 000 Chinese  
779 indigenous chickens, representing the largest population dataset spanning all  
780 agroclimatic zones of China to date. Based on the large-scale population genomic data,  
781 we systematically analyzed the genetic diversity and structure of 44 chicken  
782 populations, which confirmed the purity of some populations like BYC (Wang et al.,  
783 2023), JYC (Yue et al., 2025), LHC (Wang et al., 2023), as well as the admixed  
784 genomic component of populations like CSL (Xu et al., 2023), WCC (Qi et al., 2024)  
785 previously reported by using whole genome resequencing data. The large-scale  
786 population genomic analysis also enlarged the admixture of NDC (Huang et al., 2020),  
787 CHC (Zhong et al., 2022). Regionally, Xizang populations (SNC and RKC) formed a  
788 genetically distinct cluster, likely shaped by prolonged geographic isolation and  
789 independent domestication history (Li et al., 2023). In addition, chicken populations  
790 from central China (LSC and GSC in Henan province, MCL and HJC in Hubei province,  
791 DAC and HLC in Hunan province) displayed similar genomic structure, consistent with  
792 findings in local pig populations (Du et al., 2024), indicated that local pig and chicken  
793 populations experienced similar demographic histories and human interventions, such



794 as selective breeding, migration and ecologically diverse habitats (Wiener & Wilkinson,  
795 2011).

796 Animal adaptation was a long-term systematic process to cope with local stressors  
797 like heat, drought, disease and nutritional challenges, through a combination of genetic  
798 selection and physiological changes over generations. Traditionally, it is difficult to  
799 dissect the genetic basis of environmental adaptation due to the complexity of  
800 environment posing as selection pressures. With aid of ecological methods, we firstly  
801 disentangle and identify the important environmental factors of adaptation from a large  
802 array of environmental variables. Then, by integrating large-scale genomic data, we  
803 focused on the important factors to identify the associated genomic regions using  
804 multiple complementary genomic approaches. These were effectively and robustly  
805 applied in plant and animal, avoiding false positive errors and offering more reliable  
806 and explainable results (Gheyas et al., 2021; Wu et al., 2024; Teng et al., 2025). Notably,  
807 our analysis refined solar radiation (SRAD\_11), cropland use (CROPLAND), rainfall  
808 (PREC\_08), temperature difference (BIO\_2), trees coverage (TREES) and bare ground  
809 (BARE) as most important environmental drivers, which was more representative and  
810 significant than other similar studies based on only climate variables (Niu et al., 2024;  
811 Liu et al., 2025; Liu et al., 2025; Zhao et al., 2025) or a smaller geographical region  
812 (Gheyas et al., 2021). These variables were further demonstrated to be key factors for  
813 comparative genomic analysis by niche difference test, which was a result of genetic  
814 selection over centuries by environmental conditions and human purposes within  
815 livestock species (Velado-Alonso et al., 2022). Moreover, the genetic divergence



816 calculated by adaptive SNPs showed a significant association with environmental  
817 distances based on these variables, reinforcing the important and independent selection  
818 of environmental variables in shaping adaptive differentiation, as also reported in  
819 livestock like sheep (Lv et al., 2014) and pig (Liu et al., 2025). Among a bunch of  
820 adaptive genes, the function annotation confirmed their roles in environmental  
821 adaptation, such as BARE-associated genes that were overrepresented in energy  
822 metabolism (amino acid, fatty acid and glycolysis) pathways that help animals manage  
823 energy stores to survive periods of food and water scarcity (Rocha et al., 2021; Cheng  
824 et al., 2023; Rocha et al., 2023).

825 Environmental adaptation within species generally accompanied by micro-  
826 evolution happened in the genome (Bomblies & Peichel, 2022). By leveraging genomic  
827 data using multiple methods, we presented robust evidence for adaptive genes including  
828 well-known gene *PTPRO* and *NCOR2* for precipitation and diurnal temperature  
829 difference, respectively, as well as novel gene *UNC80*, *CSF2RB*, *NXT2*, and *PALLD* for  
830 solar radiation, cropland use, trees coverage and bare ground, respectively. *NCOR2* was  
831 a nuclear receptor corepressor that played a crucial role in regulating thermogenesis in  
832 brown adipose tissue and maintaining body temperature functionally associated with  
833 *BIO\_2* (Richter et al., 2022). *PTPRO* modulates the glomerular pressure and filtration  
834 rate in the kidney, affecting conservation and loss of water to adapted the humid and  
835 dry environments (Wharram et al., 2000; Ozaltin et al., 2011). *CSF2RB* encoded  
836 receptors that bound to ligands of colony stimulating factor (CSF), which was  
837 conserved in the vertebrates (Mun et al., 2020). The knockout of CSF receptors



838 significantly caused fatty changes in the liver in the zebrafish (Meng et al., 2021),  
839 suggested that the alteration of gene modified the metabolism of chickens to adapted  
840 different crops availability. In addition, the pleiotropic genes associated with BIO2,  
841 SRAD\_11 and BARE indicated that interaction of climatic and landcover factors at  
842 genomic level shaped the local adaptation, which need more investigation by  
843 considering human-mediated management. The variants suffered from intensive  
844 selection in the candidate genes were mostly located in non-coding region, which  
845 implied that the regulatory elements played dominant role allowing more subtle and  
846 fine-tuned evolutionary changes with fewer negative side effects (Haygood et al., 2010;  
847 Bomblies & Peichel, 2022). By integrating Chicken GTEx data, we found these SNPs  
848 possessed different chromatin state across tissues, for example, acting as repressor in  
849 hypothalamus through H3K27me3 modification to respond the solar radiation;  
850 adaptation to the humidity/arid through altering chromatin accessibility (ATAC-seq) in  
851 kidney and trachea. These indicated that the non-coding SNPs generally regulated gene  
852 function in a tissue-specific manner (Albert & Kruglyak, 2015; Khurana et al., 2016),  
853 on the other hand, the rapid adaptation controlled by these variants were prevalent  
854 across local chicken populations (Agrawal & Hastings, 2023; Henschen et al., 2023;  
855 Durkin et al., 2024; Nair et al., 2024). Therefore, the corresponding interactions  
856 between key genes and genomic variants explained their potential regulatory  
857 mechanism for environmental adaptation.

858 Specifically, our findings provide genomic resources to further understand the  
859 genetic basis and regulatory mechanisms of adaptations in domestic animals and lays a



860 foundation for future research with potential application in genetic resource  
861 conservation and animal breeding under environmental change, as well as may  
862 accelerate comparative studies on adaptation in other species. Nevertheless, several  
863 limitations should be acknowledged. First, we found substantial adaptive genes lacked  
864 gene symbols, which limited the function interpretation. A more well-assembled  
865 genome and completed genome annotation were needed for the function annotations.  
866 Second, the relatively low sequencing depth and the presence of modest breed  
867 admixture may reduce the statistical power, potential leading to the omission of some  
868 causal variants. Third, our study lacked more comprehensive experiment, such as  
869 CRISPR-based functional validation and population-specific regulatory omics data for  
870 investigating SNP-specific regulatory mechanisms. In addition, we should recognize  
871 that adaptive signals are generally not stable and shifting rapidly due to the climate  
872 change and modern genomic breeding practices. Future studies incorporating higher-  
873 depth sequencing, larger sample size and field experiment areas, complementary multi-  
874 omics technologies, and validation experiment could strengthen the applicability of the  
875 conclusions, and enhance the translational relevance for agricultural and biomedical  
876 research.

877 In conclusion, we dissected the agroclimatic factors and identified key environment  
878 factors driving the ecological niche partitioning of Chinese indigenous chickens. By  
879 incorporating landscape genomic analysis, comparative genomic analysis and atlas of  
880 chicken regulatory elements, we proposed candidate genes and SNPs that affected the  
881 environmental adaptation in a tissue-specific manner. Furthermore, we compiled a



882 comprehensive list of potential variant-gene associations to serve as a valuable resource  
883 for future functional studies and breeding programs.

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892

#### 893 **COMPETING INTERESTS**

894 The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or  
895 personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this  
896 paper.

#### 897 **ETHICS STATEMENT**

898 All animal procedures were approved by the Animal Care and Use Committee of  
899 Institute of Animal Science, Chinese Academy of Agricultural Sciences (No. IAS2021-  
900 49) and performed in accordance with the relevant guidelines and regulations set by  
901 Ministry of Agriculture and Rural Affairs of the People's Republic of China.

#### 902 **AUTHORS' CONTRIBUTIONS**

903 J. Y. and X. J. contributed equally to this work. J. Y., W. H. and J. C.:  
904 Conceptualization, Supervision, Project administration and Writing – review & editing.  
905 J. Y., X. J. and X. H.: Formal analysis, Methodology, Validation, Visualization,  
906 Software, Data curation, Writing – original draft. J. Y., X. J., Y. Li, A. Ni, G. C., W. H.,  
907 N. Z., S. H., Y. S., G. Y. and J. C.: Investigation, Materials collection and preparation.



908 **DATA AVAILABILITY**

909 The genomic data of indigenous chickens has been deposited in National Genomics

910 Data Center (NGDC, <https://www.cncb.ac.cn/>) at PRJCA046667.

Accepted



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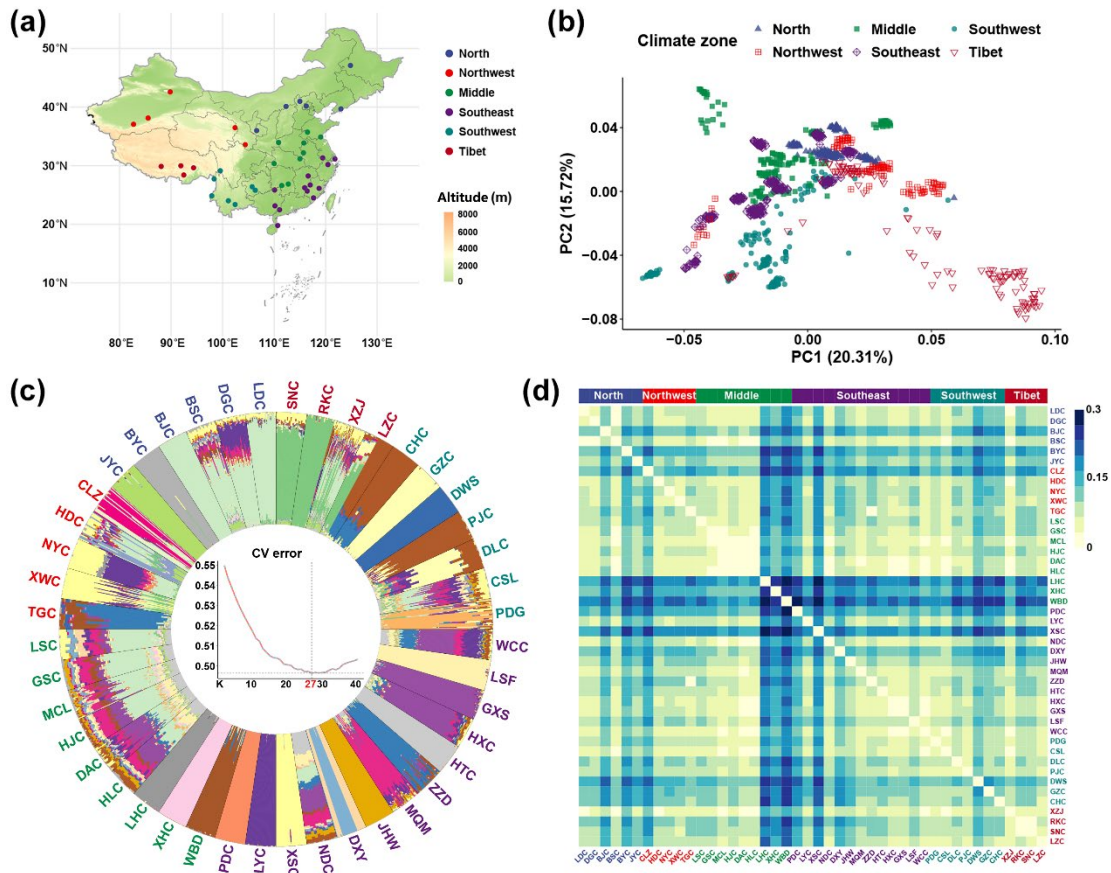
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- 1194 .



1195 **Figure Legend**



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1197 **Figure 1. Geographic location and genetic structure of Chinese indigenous chicken**

1198 **populations. (a)** Geographic origin of 44 chicken populations. Populations are grouped

1199 into six agroclimatic zones: North, Northwest, Middle, Southeast, Southwest, and Tibet.

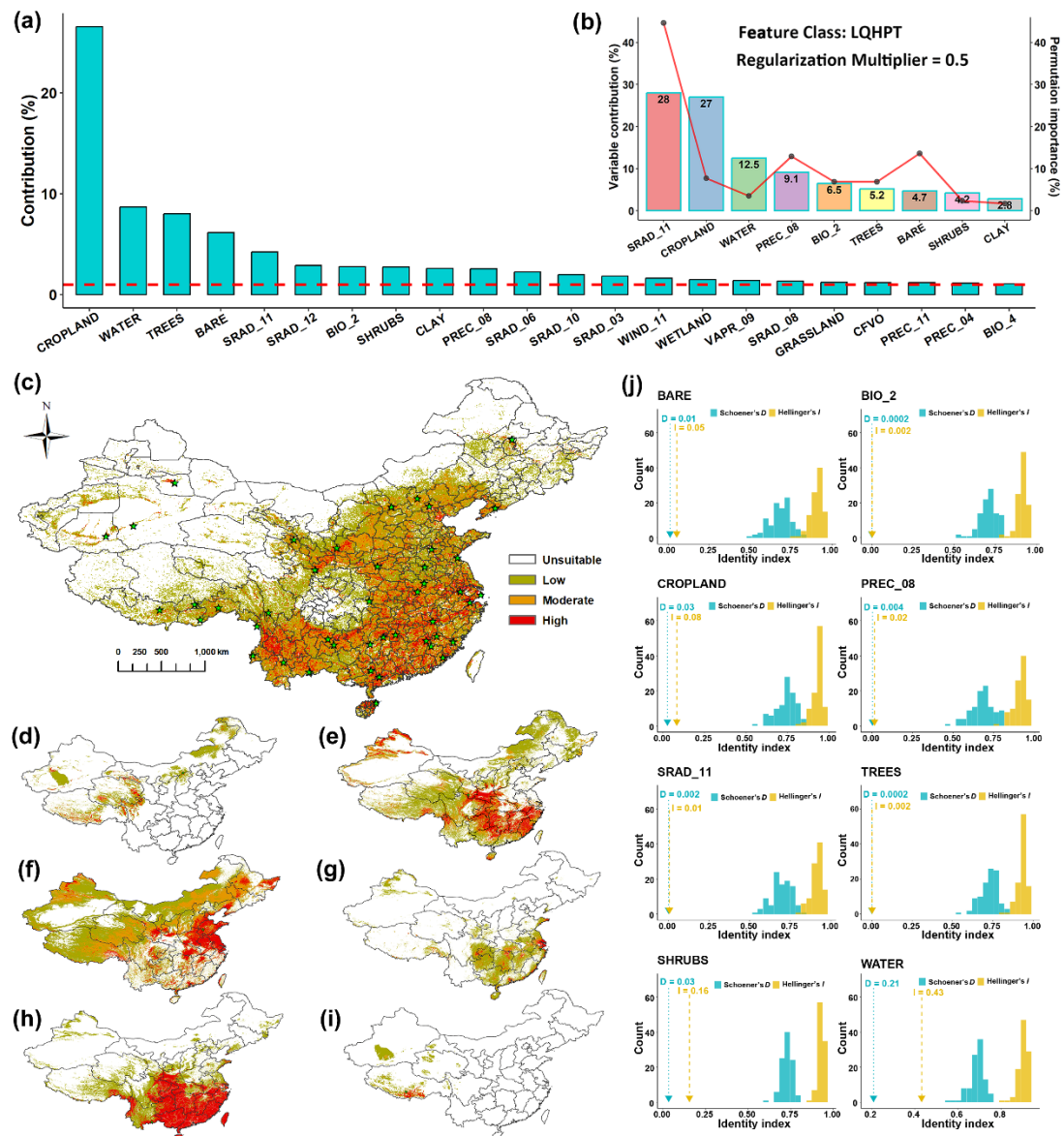
1200 **(b)** Principal component analysis (PCA) of the 44 chicken populations based on 1 415

1201 317 pruned SNPs. **(c)** Ancestry composition of 44 chicken populations inferred by

1202 ADMIXTURE analysis (K = 2-45), with the optimal K as 27. **(d)** Genetic divergence

1203 among populations measured by pairwise  $F_{ST}$ . The chicken populations are ordered by

1204 agroclimatic zone.



1205

1206 **Figure 2. Ecological niche modeling (ENM) for Chinese indigenous chicken**

1207 **populations. (a).** Twenty-two environmental variables that contribute more than 1% to

1208 the distribution of indigenous chickens predicted by ENM using all 87 environmental

1209 variables. **(b).** Relative contribution and permutation importance of nine environmental

1210 variables selected based on correlation ( $r \leq 0.6$ ) and variance inflation factor ( $VIF \leq$

1211 5). **(c).** The suitability maps of indigenous chicken populations in China generated by

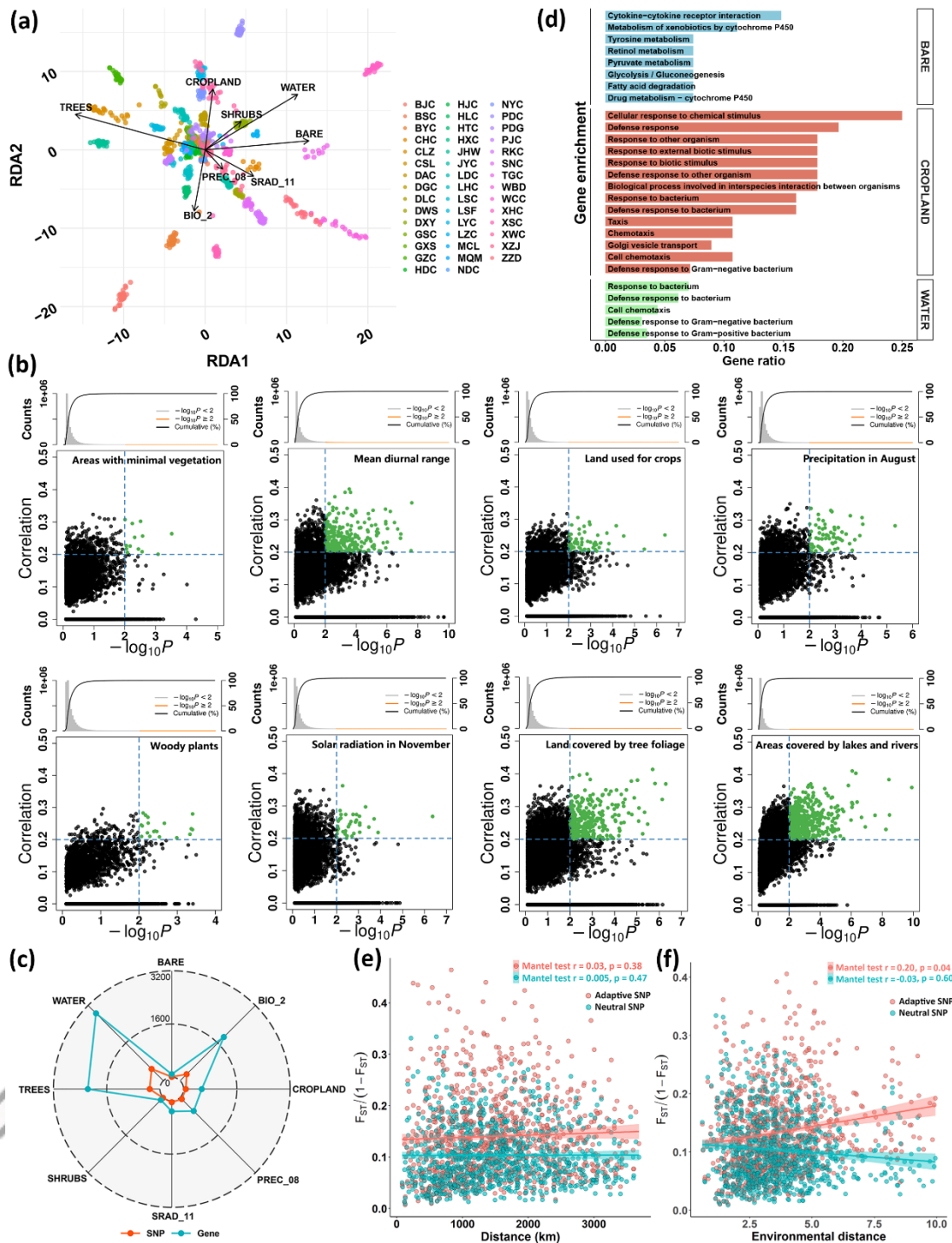
1212 ENM using the nine selected environmental variables. **(d-i).** Suitability maps for

1213 representative chicken population: BJC **(d)** in the North, CLZ **(e)** in the Northwest,

1214 LHC **(f)** in the Middle, XSC **(g)** in Southeast, DWS **(h)** in the Southeast and RKC **(i)**  
1215 in Tibet, predicted from eight key variables (SRAD\_11, CROPLAND, WATER,  
1216 PREC\_08, BIO\_2, TREES, BARE and SHRUBS). The details of the variables, refer to  
1217 Supplemental Table 2. Green star denotes sampling location. **(j)**. Niche identity tests  
1218 between groups of populations from extremes (high vs. low) for each environmental  
1219 variable. In each group, three or more chicken populations are included based on the  
1220 value of environmental variable. The arrows indicate the observed niche equivalency,  
1221 and the histograms represent the simulated (expected) equivalency. All differences  
1222 between the observed index and the expected index rejected the hypothesis that  
1223 environmental niches between regions were identical ( $p < 0.01$ ).

ACCEPTED





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1225 **Figure 3. Genotype-environment associations analysis for eight important**

1226 **environmental variables. (a).** Principal coordinate analysis (PCoA) for eight

1227 important environmental variables based on the RDA1 and RDA2. Arrow length

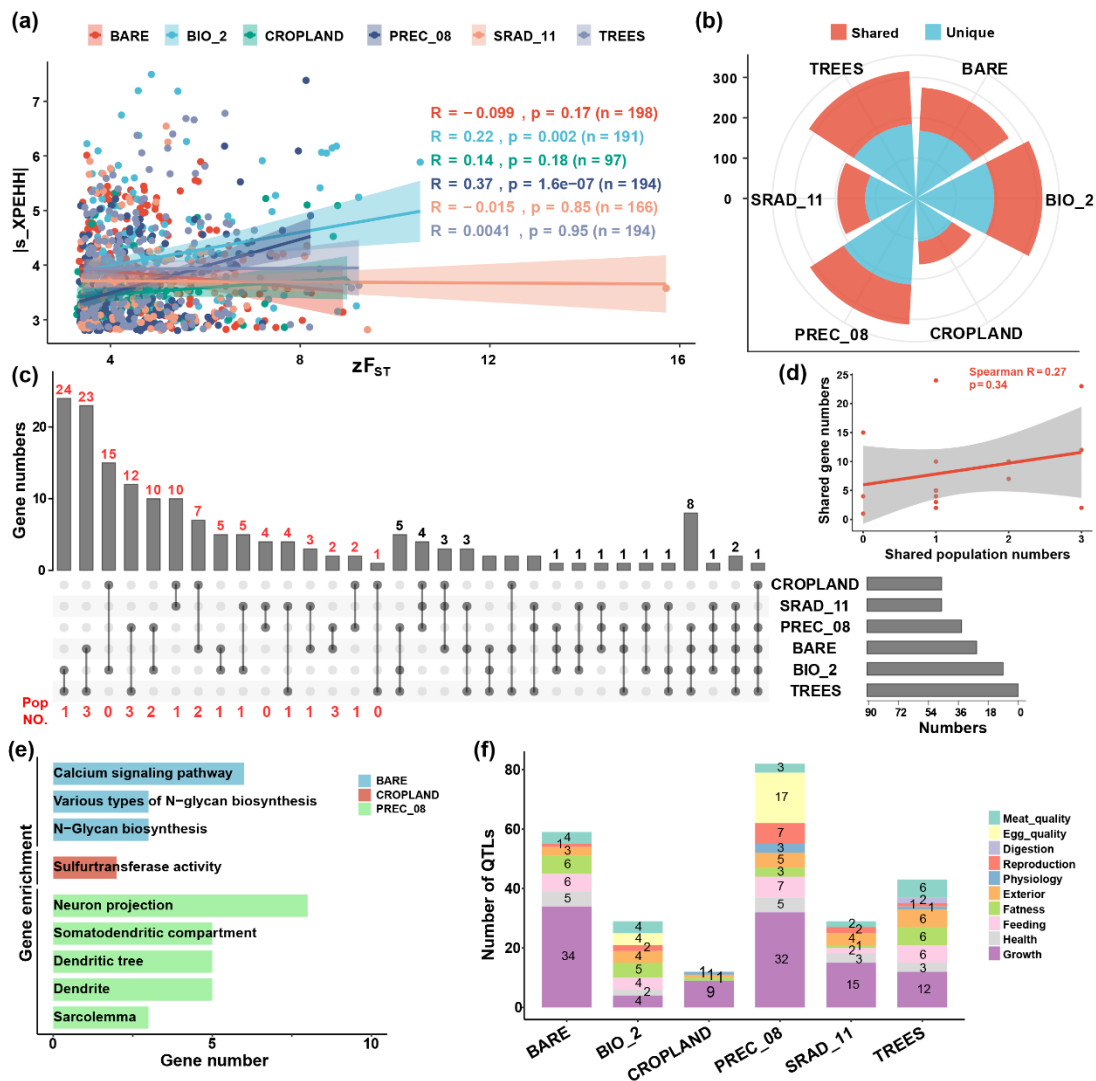
1228 denotes the relative contribution of each environmental factor to the principal

1229 components. **(b).** Scatter plot for SNP statistics of RDA correlation coefficients (y-axis)

1230 and LFMM  $P$ -value (x-axis) for each environmental variable. Dashed lines denote the  
1231 threshold ( $r \geq 0.2$  and  $FDR \leq 0.01$ ). Green points indicate candidate SNPs identified  
1232 by both RDA and LFMM. **(c)**. The number of environment-associated SNPs and the  
1233 number of annotated genes for each environmental variable. **(d)**. Significantly enriched  
1234 GO biological processes and KEGG pathways for genes associated with each  
1235 environmental variable. **(e)**. Isolation-by-distance analyses for local chicken  
1236 populations based on neutral and adaptive variants, respectively. The shadow of linear  
1237 regression denotes the 95% confidence interval. **(f)**. Isolation-by-environment analyses  
1238 for local chicken populations based on neutral and adaptive variants, respectively. The  
1239 shadow of linear regression denotes the 95% confidence interval.

ACCEPTED





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1241

**Figure 4. Selection signature analysis between high and low group for six key**

1242

**environmental variables. (a).** Correlations between top 1% standardized values of  $F_{ST}$

1243

(x-axis) and XPEHH (y-axis). The number of top 1% regions is listed in the parentheses.

1244

**(b).** Shared and unique top genes, defined as the top 0.1% selection signatures in either

1245

method and top 1% selected genes shared by  $F_{ST}$  and XPEHH for each environmental

1246

variable. **(c).** Upset plot for top genes across environmental variables. Red numbers

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mark the shared genes and chicken populations between two environmental variables,

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used in the correlation analysis **(d)** using Spearman method. **(e).** Significantly enriched

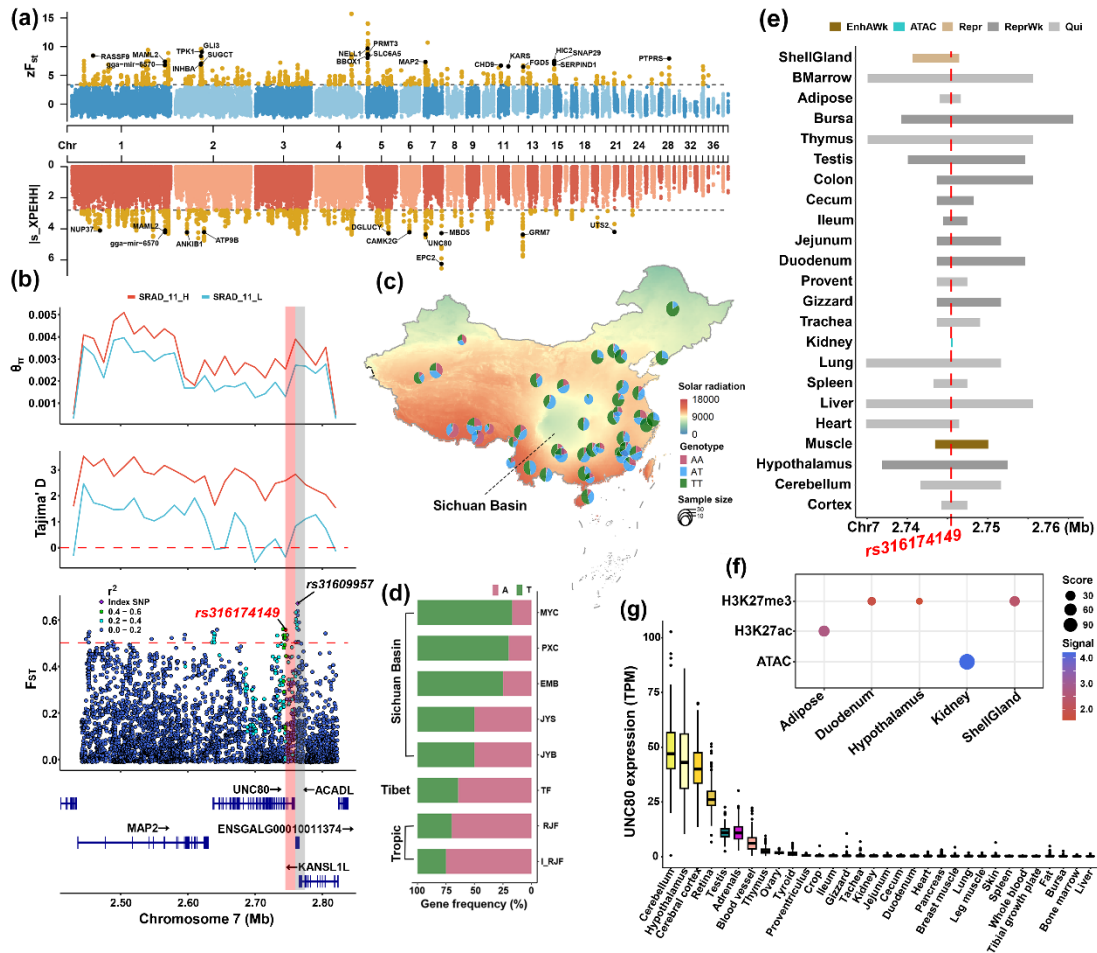
1249

GO biological processes and KEGG pathways for top genes associated with each

1250 environmental variable. **(f)**. QTL annotation for top genes based on the chicken QTLdb.

Accepted





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1252 **Figure 5. Functional SNPs associated with adaptation to the solar radiation. (a).**

1253 Genome-wide selective signals of standardized  $F_{ST}$  and XP-EHH for chicken

1254 populations from high versus low solar radiation regions. Grey dashed lines highlight

1255 the top 1% threshold. Orange points represent candidate regions, and black points mark

1256 top annotated genes associated with solar radiation. (b). Selection signatures for the

1257 gene cluster on Chromosome 7 that identified by both gene-environment association

1258 analysis and selection signature analysis.  $\theta_{\pi}$  and Tajima's D are calculated in a 15 kb

1259 window with a 15 kb step.  $F_{ST}$  is calculated for each individual SNP. Grey shadow

1260 highlights genomic region harbored the index SNP, while the red shadow highlights

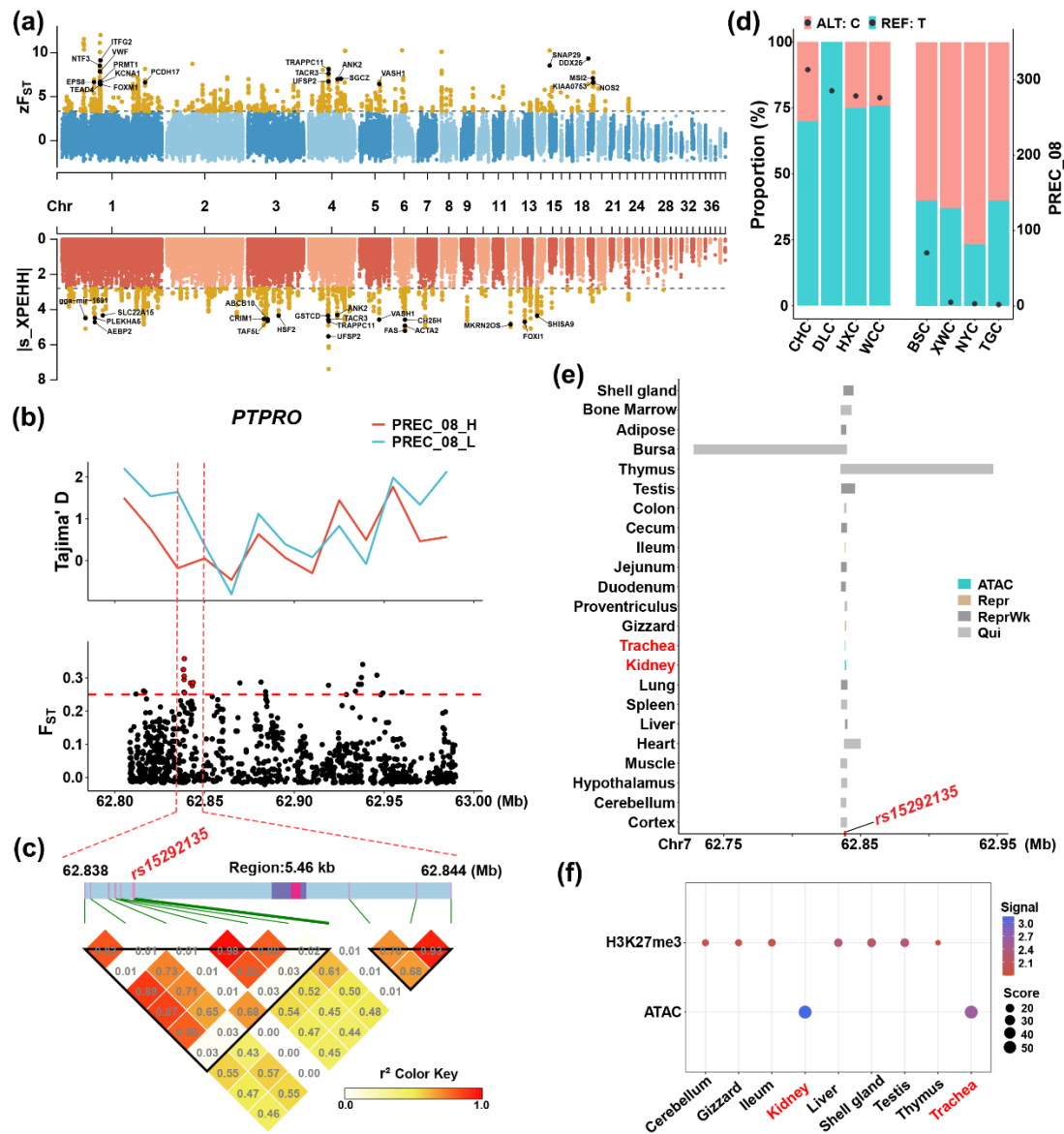
1261 candidate region harbored SNP *rs316174149* used for the next analysis. (c). Genotype

1262 frequencies of *rs316174149* across 44 chicken populations. (d). Allelic frequencies of

1263 *rs316174149* across eight chicken populations distributed in Sichuan basin, Tibet and  
1264 tropical area. A and T represent the alleles of this SNP. MYC, PXC, EMB, JYS, JYB,  
1265 TF, RJF and I\_RJF denote Miyi chicken, Pengxian yellow chicken, Emei black chicken,  
1266 Jinyang silky chicken, Jiuyuan black chicken, Tibetan fowl, Red jungle fowl and Red  
1267 jungle fowl in Indonesian. **(e)**. Regulatory activity across 23 different tissues annotated  
1268 for *rs316174149*. **(f)**. Epigenomic annotation for *rs316174149* based on the H3K4me3,  
1269 H3K4me1, H3K27ac, H3K27me3, CTCF, ATAC-seq and DNase-seq. **(g)**. Expression  
1270 profile of gene *UNC80* across 32 chicken tissues.

ACCEPTED





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1272 **Figure 6. Functional SNPs associated with adaptation to the rainfall. (a).** Genome-

1273 wide selective signals of standardized  $F_{ST}$  and XP-EHH for chicken populations from

1274 high- and low-precipitation areas. Grey dashed lines highlight the top 1% quantiles.

1275 Orange points represent candidate regions, and black points mark top genes associated

1276 with precipitation. **(b).** Selection signatures for gene *PTPRO*, identified by both gene-

1277 environment association analysis and selection signature analysis.  $\theta\pi$  and Tajima's D

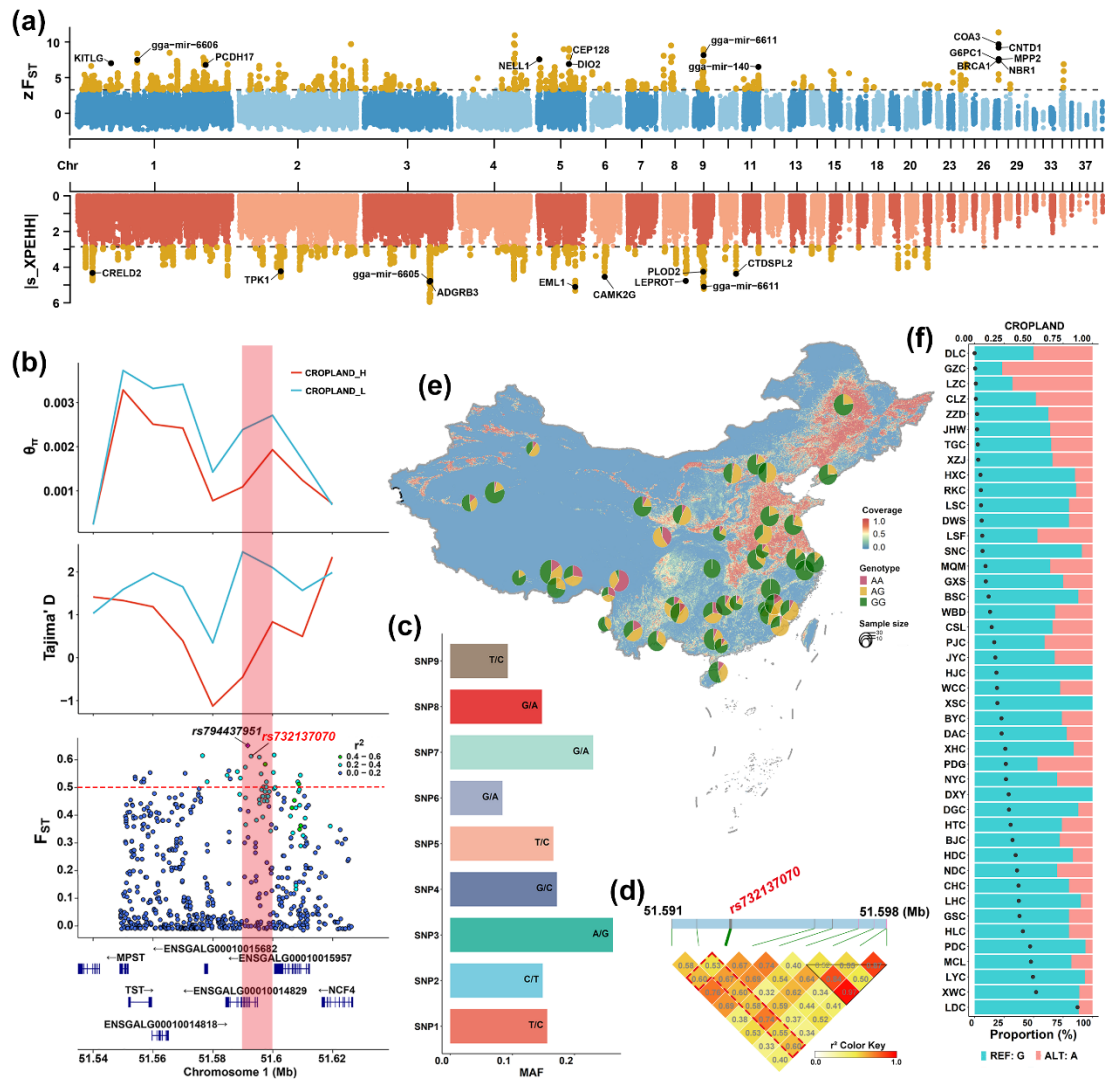
1278 are calculated in a 15 kb window with a 15 kb step.  $F_{ST}$  is calculated for each individual

1279 SNP. **(c).** Linkage disequilibrium (LD) block for SNPs with  $F_{ST} \geq 0.25$  in the selected

1280 region, shown as mean  $r^2$  for paired SNPs. **(d)**. Allelic frequencies of the associated  
1281 SNP *rs15292135* across chicken populations from areas with extremely high and low  
1282 precipitation. **(e)**. The regulatory activity across 23 different tissues annotated for  
1283 *rs15292135*. **(f)**. Epigenomic annotation for *rs15292135* based on the H3K4me3,  
1284 H3K4me1, H3K27ac, H3K27me3, CTCF, ATAC-seq and DNase-seq.

Accepted





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1286 **Figure 7. Functional SNPs associated with adaptation to the cropland coverage.**

1287 **(a).** Genome-wide selective signals of standardized  $F_{ST}$  and XP-EHH for chicken

1288 populations from areas with extremely high and low cropland use. Grey dashed lines

1289 highlight the top 1% threshold. Orange points represent candidate regions, and black

1290 points mark top genes associated with cropland coverage. **(b).** Selection signatures for

1291 gene cluster that identified by both gene-environment association analysis and selection

1292 signature analysis.  $\theta_{\pi}$  and Tajima's D are calculated in a 15 kb window with a 15 kb

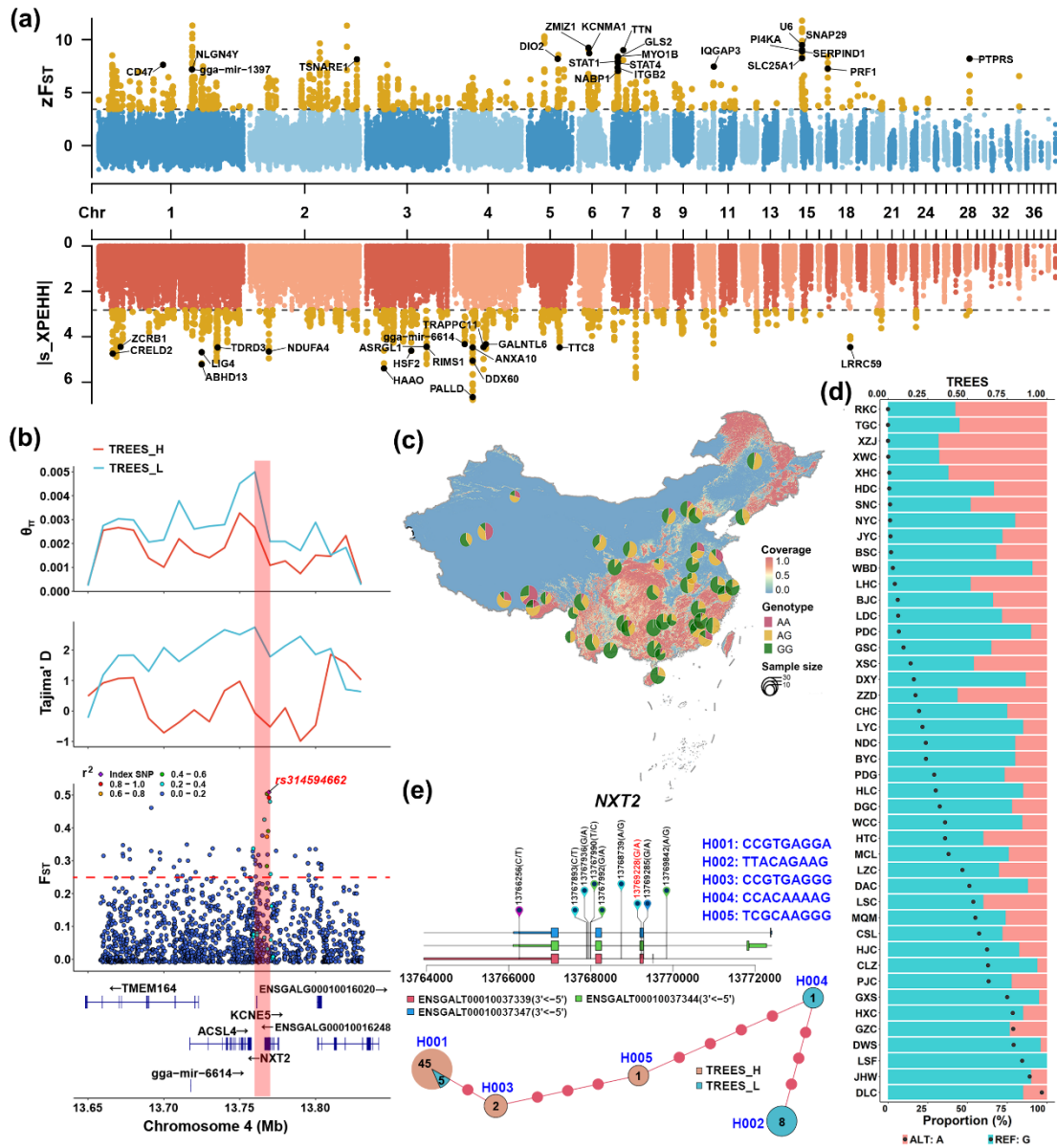
1293 step.  $F_{ST}$  is calculated for each individual SNP. **(c).** The minor allele frequency of SNPs

1294 surrounding the index SNP *rs794437951*. **(d).** Linkage disequilibrium (LD) block for

1295 SNPs with  $F_{ST} \geq 0.5$  in the selected region, shown as mean  $r^2$  for paired SNPs. The  
1296 selected SNP *rs732137070* is in high LD with surrounding SNPs. (e). SNP genotype  
1297 frequencies of *rs732137070* across 44 chicken populations in China. (f). Allelic  
1298 frequencies of *rs732137070* across 44 chicken populations.

Accepted





**Figure 8. Functional SNPs associated with adaptation to tree coverage environment.** (a). Genome-wide selection signals of standardized  $F_{ST}$  and XP-EHH for chicken populations from areas with high and low tree coverage. Grey dashed lines highlight the top 1% quantiles. Orange points represent candidate regions, and black points mark top genes associated with tree coverage. (b). The selection signatures for gene cluster that identified by both gene-environment association analysis and selection signature analysis.  $\theta_{\pi}$  and Tajima's D are calculated in a 15 kb window with a 15 kb

step.  $F_{ST}$  is calculated for each individual SNP. The red shadow highlight genomic region under extensive selection with an index SNP *rs314594662* located in gene *NXT2*.

**(c).** Genotype frequencies of *rs314594662* across 44 chicken populations. **(d).** Allelic frequencies of *rs314594662* across 44 chicken populations in China. **(e).** Genomic position of candidate SNPs and a haplotype network in gene *NXT2*. The symbols on the line between haplotypes represent number of variants.

Accepted



## 中文摘要

### 地方鸡品种环境适应性的遗传基础

袁经纬<sup>1</sup>, 贾晓旭<sup>2</sup>, 黄晓隆<sup>1</sup>, 李云雷<sup>1</sup>, 倪爱心<sup>1</sup>, 陈国宏<sup>3</sup>, 郑嫩珠<sup>4</sup>, 和胜<sup>5</sup>, 孙研研<sup>1</sup>, 易国强<sup>6</sup>, 韩威<sup>2</sup>, 陈继兰<sup>1\*</sup>

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地方鸡遗传资源丰富, 是生物多样性的重要组成部分, 也是人类重要的优质蛋白来源。然而, 不断变化的饲养环境正对它们的生存和生产性能构成严重影响。因此, 评估不同环境下的种群适应特定环境的能力, 对于培育环境友好型畜禽品种和保护珍稀濒危遗传资源至关重要。本研究中, 我们整合了来自 44 个不同地理位置的中国地方鸡品种群体, 共计 1022 只鸡的生态学数据和全基因组重测序数据, 来揭示局部适应的基因组特征。应生态位建模方法, 我们首先从 87 个农业气候变量中, 筛选出 8 个重要的环境因子影响地方鸡的生态位, 这其中包括太阳辐射、降水、温差, 以及 5 个土地覆盖指标(农田面积、水域面积、森林覆盖率、裸地和灌木覆盖率)。通过群体景观基因组和比较基因组学分析, 我们挖掘到 *UNC80*、*PTPRO*、*NCOR2*、*CSF2RB*、*NXT2* 和 *PALLD* 等候选基因, 分别与太阳辐射、降水、昼间温度范围、农田面积、树木覆盖和裸地环境适应性关联。进一步对候选 SNP 的调控功能注释, 发现这些基因中与适应性选择关联的非编码 SNP 的基因频率在群体中表现出地理空间的规律变化。他们通过染色质可及性(ATAC)和 DNA 甲基化来充当调节元件, 以组织特异性的方式影响地方鸡对特定环境的适应性。研究结果揭示中国地方鸡品种的丰富遗传多样性, 阐明了地方鸡适应特定环境的基因组学分子机制, 为畜禽遗传资源保护和育种提供了理论参考和研究范式。

关键词: 环境适应性; 生态位建模; 景观基因组学; 群体遗传学; 地方鸡

