

Fast Transcriptional Responses to Domestication in the Brook Charr *Salvelinus fontinalis*

Christopher Sauvage,^{*,1} Nicolas Derôme,^{*} Eric Normandeau,^{*} Jérôme St.-Cyr,^{*} Céline Audet[†]
and Louis Bernatchez^{*}

^{*}Institut de Biologie Intégrative et des Systèmes, Département de Biologie, Université Laval, Québec, Québec G1V 0A6, Canada
and [†]Institut des Sciences de la Mer de Rimouski, Université du Québec, Rimouski, Québec G5L 3A1, Canada

Manuscript received February 2, 2010
Accepted for publication February 17, 2010

ABSTRACT

Domestication has been practiced for centuries yet directed toward relatively few terrestrial crops and animals. While phenotypic and quantitative genetic changes associated with domestication have been amply documented, little is known about the molecular changes underlying the phenotypic evolution during the process. Here, we have investigated the brook charr (*Salvelinus fontinalis*) responses to artificial selection by means of transcriptional analysis of ~32,000 cDNA features performed in both selected and control populations reared under identical environmental conditions during four generations. Our results indicate that selective breeding led to significant changes in the transcription of genes at the juvenile stage, where we observed 4.16% (156/3750) of differentially expressed genes between the two lines. No significant genes were revealed at the earlier life stage. Moreover, when comparing our results to those of previous studies on Atlantic salmon that compared lines that were selected for five to seven generations for similar traits (*e.g.*, growth), genes with similar biological functions were found to be under selection in both studies. These observations indicate that (1) four generations of selection caused substantial changes in regulation of gene transcription between selected and control populations and (2) selective breeding for improving the same phenotypic traits (*e.g.*, rapid growth) in brook charr and Atlantic salmon tended to select for the same changes in transcription profiles as the expression of a small and similar set of genes was affected by selection.

DOMESTICATION has been practiced for centuries but applied to relatively few terrestrial crops and animals (GIUFFRA *et al.* 2000; DIAMOND 2002; BURT 2005; POZZI and SALAMINI 2007; KOVACH *et al.* 2007). One of the main consequences of the domestication is the rapid phenotypic changes that wild species undergo through the process of artificial selection (DUARTE *et al.* 2007). These substantial phenotypic changes are commonly referred to as the “domestication syndrome” (HAMMER 1984). Phenotypic changes caused by domestication have been abundantly documented in many species and can be interpreted as fast human-induced evolutionary changes.

The quantitative genetic basis (*e.g.*, heritability) underlying the variance of traits of interest has also been largely investigated and used in artificial selection programs. However, little is known about the molecular changes underlying the phenotypic evolution induced by domestication (YAMASAKI *et al.* 2007). Such knowledge should reveal far more about the genes contribut-

ing to agronomic traits than has been learned to date (ROSS-IBARRA *et al.* 2007). In wheat for example, this revealed that the domestication syndrome originates in “sudden” genetic events, controlled by few major pleiotropic genes (for review see POZZI and SALAMINI 2007). Thus, the Q gene, conferring the free-threshing character, has been identified as largely responsible for the widespread cultivation of this crop (SIMONS *et al.* 2006). Knowledge about the genomic basis of domestication could be directly implemented in marker assisted selection (MAS) and also help to better predict the impact of the interaction of domesticated lines with their wild counterparts.

In animals, the number of newly domesticated species has, on average, grown by 3% annually since the early 1950s (DUARTE *et al.* 2007). Yet, relatively speaking, domestication of freshwater and marine fishes is still in its infancy. The oldest directed selective breeding programs were initiated in 1971 on Atlantic salmon, *Salmo salar*, and rainbow trout, *Oncorhynchus mykiss* (GJEDREM 2000). However, production and economic importance of those species have increased very quickly. Worldwide Atlantic salmon production was estimated to 1.3×10^6 tons in 2006, for a value of \$6.5 billion. Improvement programs of fish species have generally concentrated on growth rate and pathogen resistance

Supporting information is available online at <http://www.genetics.org/cgi/content/full/genetics.110.115071/DC1>.

¹Corresponding address: Institut de Biologie Intégrative et des Systèmes, Département de Biologie, Université Laval, Pavillon Charles Eugene Marchand, 1030 Avenue de la Médecine, Québec City, Québec G1V 0A6, Canada. E-mail: christopher.sauvage.1@ulaval.ca

as traits of highest economic importance. Here, the main objective is to reach higher yields by producing strains that grow faster under intensive rearing conditions and show better resistance to pathogens (ROUGEOT *et al.* 2007; SILVERSTEIN *et al.* 2009), as exemplified in the case of Atlantic salmon culture (GJEDREM 2000).

Selection of breeders in such domestication programs has led to rapid evolutionary changes at the phenotypic level (ALLARD and WILEY 1999; FLEMING *et al.* 2000; FLEMING *et al.* 2003; GLOVER *et al.* 2009). For instance ROBERGE *et al.* (2006) compared changes in gene transcription profiles between farmed Atlantic salmon (*S. salar*) fish and their wild counterparts. Results demonstrated that five to seven generations of artificial selection led to heritable changes in gene transcription. Moreover, evolutionary changes in domesticated lines lead to gene misregulation following the introgression of domestic genetic material in wild populations (ROBERGE *et al.* 2008; NORMANDEAU *et al.* 2009). More recently, GLOVER *et al.* (2009) have compared several production and flesh quality traits between wild, farmed, and hybrid Atlantic salmon reared under farming conditions. They concluded that the differences observed were of genetic origin and that these were either the direct or indirect result of artificial selection. Finally, DEVLIN *et al.* (2008) showed in coho salmon (*Oncorhynchus kisutch*) that domestication and growth hormone transgenesis cause similar changes in expression for genes involved in energy metabolism of carbohydrates and lipids, protein synthesis, stress and immune functions, and cellular structure.

Brook charr, *Salvelinus fontinalis*, is one of the most economically important species for freshwater aquaculture in Canada, where it is farmed both for food and population stocking purposes (PAGE and BURR 1991). In Quebec in particular, domestication of two wild populations of brook charr from the Rupert and Laval rivers has been initiated with the aim of increasing growth rates and delaying sexual maturation of these strains (MARTIN *et al.* 1997; AUDET and BERNATCHEZ 2004). For the Laval river population, the domestication program also included an experimental selection regime whereby “control” families have been maintained up to four generations under the same environmental conditions as the selected ones. Mating random individuals, while still avoiding the cross of closely related individuals, generated these control individuals. This system thus represents a rare opportunity to rigorously assess the early steps of evolutionary changes induced by domestication.

The aim of this study was to document the effects of domestication in brook charr by measuring changes in gene expression to identify biological processes targeted by the selection regime and to elucidate their patterns of transcription. Our main goals were (1) to study the impact of artificial selection during domestication in the species at two-life stages to determine

whether selective pressures act mostly in the early or later stage; (2) to identify potential targets of this artificial selection; and (3) to analyze the expression pattern of candidate genes involved in multifactorial traits and regulatory pathways between the selected and the control lines. We also compared our results to previous studies of gene expression that documented rapid evolutionary changes in the Atlantic salmon (ROBERGE *et al.* 2008; NORMANDEAU *et al.* 2009). Here the goal was to identify candidate genes associated with domestication in salmonids and to test if the same candidate genes can be detected in distinct species under domestication.

MATERIAL AND METHODS

Fish crosses and sampling: A selective breeding program was initiated using wild brook charr from the Laval River (Québec, 48°44' N, 68°05' W; MARTIN *et al.* 1997; SAVARIA 1998). In 1994, wild fish (F₀) were used to perform 12 crosses between 6 females and 8 males, which produced 12 families at the F₁ population. On the basis of selection protocol explained below, F₁ individuals were retained to produce the F₂ generation of the selected population. Thus, 11 pairs of selected F₁ individuals were mated to produce 11 full-sib families at the F₂ generation. On the basis of the same selection protocol, 10 pairs of selected individuals were mated to produce 12 full-sib families at the F₃. At all generations, fish from different families were distinctively tagged and reared in a common environment.

We applied a combined between- and within-family selection protocol (FALCONER and MACKAY 1996) on the basis of the absence of precocious sexual maturation at 22 months and growth performance. The number of fish selected by family (NS_{*i*}) was determined according to

$$NS_i = [(x_i - X) X^{-1} \times (NK^{-1})] + (NK^{-1}),$$

where x_i is the mean of weight for family i , X is the general mean for the population, N is the number of breeders considered necessary, and K is the number of families. The proportion of fish selected in this way for each family varied between 4.1 and 14.2%.

A control group was created and maintained over the same period at the F₂ and F₃ selection generations. First, 10 fish from each family in the F₁ population were randomly chosen before selection to create the F₁ control population. Mixed breedings were performed using 11 pairs of individuals from different families selected randomly within each family to produce 11 full-sib F₂ families. This same procedure was repeated to produce 11 full-sibs control families at the F₃ generation. Observations after three generations clearly illustrate the pronounced phenotypic effect of the selective breeding program: the average weight gain of fish in the selected population relative to the control one was 34.7% while a substantial reduction in sexually mature fish at 1 year old has also been observed (61.4%; BASTIEN 2010).

For this study, we used progeny of F₄ generation. From both control and selected F₃ populations, we produced five sets of half-sib families: a total of 10 dams and 5 sires per population; 5 paired of families issued from different dams but sharing the same sire. For each F₄ progeny, sire and dam were issued from different F₃ families. Fish were sampled at two life stages: (1) sexually undifferentiated fry were sampled ($n = 2$ individuals per family) at the yolk-sac resorption stage between March 14

and 19, 2007, before exogenous feeding and (2) at the juvenile stage ($n = 2$ individuals per family), 10 weeks later. Experiments were conducted on whole individual yolk-sac resorption stage fry and on entire liver and *pyloric caecum* of individual fish at the juvenile stage. These two tissues are the seats of most metabolic pathways and therefore represent a target of choice in the “genomewide” study of genes expression. Fish of both life stages were killed prior to sampling and tissues were individually stored at -80° .

RNA extraction and cDNA hybridization: All RNA extractions were performed on ice (4°) and following the same protocol to reduce technical biases in genes expression measures. Entire “control” and “selected” fry were individually homogenized in a mixture composed of 4 ml Trizol reagent (Sigma) and 20 μ l isopropanol (Sigma), using a Qiagen homogenizer, whereas approximately 150 mg of liver and *pyloric caeca* of individual juveniles were treated in the same way. Total RNA was extracted using the Purelink Micro to midi total RNA purification system kit (Invitrogen), according to the manufacturer’s recommendations. Subsequently, RNA integrity and quantity were controlled using a Nanodrop instrument (ND-1000, Nanodrop). Messenger RNA from each sample was reverse transcribed and labeled using the Genisphere 3DNA Array 50 kit provided by Invitrogen, using the Superscript II retrotranscriptase enzyme and Cy3/Cy5 dyes (Genisphere), according to the manufacturer’s recommendations (Invitrogen protocol: <http://web.uvic.ca/grasp/microarray/array.html>). Then, cDNA was purified using Microcon YM30 (Millipore, Bedford, MA).

Microarrays (32k cDNA array) were provided by the cGRASP (Consortium for Genomics Research on All Salmonids Project; RISE *et al.* 2004). These 32,000 cDNAs resulted from the assembly of more than 700,000 expressed sequences tags (EST) obtained from a variety of cDNA libraries and should comprise the majority of all cDNA expressed, at least in Atlantic salmon. Gene annotation is provided in the cGRASP database for a proportion of these transcripts (<http://web.uvic.ca/grasp/>). Moreover, the cGRASP microarray has been applied successfully in a previous study on brook charr (MAVAREZ *et al.* 2009). Microarray were hybridized using Cy3/Cy5 dyes (Genisphere) as detailed in ST-CYR *et al.* (2008).

To analyze gene expression at both the post-yolk-sac resorption stage and juvenile stage, two individuals were randomly chosen from each of the 10 control and the 10 selected families for a total of 40 individuals analyzed at each life stage. Experiments were conducted on whole (unpooled) individuals at the yolk-sac resorption stage and on entire liver and *pyloric caecum* of individual (unpooled) fish at the juvenile stage. For a given life stage, one individual of a control family was hybridized on a same array with one individual of a selected family and compared directly. This was repeated for all 20 control and 20 selected individuals at each life stage for a total of 40 paired, direct comparisons of microarray hybridizations. Dyes were swapped between the 2 individuals of a same family. Such direct comparison of gene expression between two groups is one of the most powerful experimental designs in microarray studies (CHURCHILL 2002).

Gene expression measurement and data analysis: Transcription profiles from selected and control lines were measured using the Scanarray laser instrument (Packard Bioscience). Pictures were analyzed and gene expression levels quantified using the Quantarray software with the histogram quantification method. Data from the two life stages were exported in text format and were separately analyzed using a mixed model ANOVA and the R/MAANOVA package (KERR and CHURCHILL 2000; WU *et al.* 2002). On each array, genes showing a mean intensity lower than control empty features plus twice their standard deviations in both channels were

removed from the analysis. Moreover, over the 20 arrays of each life stage, expression data of a feature were discarded if two or more measures did not shown reliable or intense enough data.

Missing data were imputed using the K nearest neighbor algorithm with 10 neighbors and then transformed by a base 2 logarithm. A regional LOWESS correction was used to correct for intensity distortions as well as spatial variation in signal level across the array. Given that the same amounts of mRNA were used in every sample, the total quantity of expressed transcripts should be the same in all of them. The terms “dye” and “line” were included in the ANOVA model as fixed whereas the “array” and “sample” terms were included as random factors to assess the presence of significant differences in expression level between the two lines. Permutation-based *F*-tests with 1000 sample-based permutations were performed to solve the mixed-model equations for each of the analyzed genes. For each gene differentially expressed between the two lines, the average normalized intensity data of each line were back transformed (unlogged) to compute the fold change ratio.

A false discovery rate (FDR) procedure was used to correct for multiple testing before obtaining the list of candidate transcripts differentially regulated between the control and domesticated lines at the two stages. The Q-value R package (STOREY *et al.* 2004) was used to obtain the list of transcripts containing an estimated 10% of false positives (FDR = 0.10).

Gene ontology: Among the differentially expressed genes between the two lines for each life stage, those possessing a Unigene number were used to evaluate the overrepresentation of biological processes. Unigene numbers were converted to Entrez GeneID numbers using the online David Gene ID Conversion tool (<http://david.abcc.ncifcrf.gov/conversion.jsp>). Then, the online Panther Classification System gene list comparison tool (<http://www.pantherdb.org/tools/compareToRefListForm.jsp>) was used to identify biological processes that were overrepresented in the two comparisons. The proportional representation of all biological processes in expressed transcripts was used as an expected proportion under a random sampling hypothesis. Biological processes represented by only one transcript were discarded from the analysis to minimize the occurrence of false positives. The biological processes presented in the results are those for which the proportion of genes with differences in expression between the lines was significantly different than expected by chance, within at least one of the two life stages being compared (Fisher’s exact proportion test, $\alpha = 0.05$).

Cluster analysis: Using the averaged unlogged LOWESS-corrected data, a cluster tree was built by using the average linking method (EISEN *et al.* 1998) with pairwise distances estimated from the Pearson correlation coefficient (QU and XU 2006) using the Genesight software (Biodiscovery). To reduce the bias introduced by differential array fluorescence that systematically tends to group individuals paired on the same array, we applied the conservative approach detailed in ST-CYR *et al.* (2008). Briefly, data were normalized by dividing expression values from one individual by expression values on its paired individual. In this way, gene expression values represent relative gene expression levels and not absolute levels.

RESULTS

Analysis of variance: A total of 3481 cDNA features were used for the analysis of the post-yolk-sac resorption life stage, whereas 3750 features were retained in the juvenile stage. The ANOVA revealed that 248 (7.12%)

TABLE 1

Biological processes that are overrepresented relative to chance expectation and showing differentially expressed genes at the juvenile stage between control and selected line of Laval River brook charr

Biological process	Reference list (<i>n</i> = 295)	List of differentially expressed genes (<i>n</i> = 52)	Expected frequency in the set of differentially expressed genes	Genes representation (over +/under -)	Associated <i>P</i> value
Immunity and defense	59	3	11.11	—	3.20×10^{-03}
Nucleoside, nucleotide, and nucleic acid metabolism	80	9	15.06	—	2.70×10^{-02}
G-protein-mediated signaling	7	4	1.32	+	4.38×10^{-02}
Other coenzyme and prosthetic group metabolism	2	1	0.38	+	4.51×10^{-02}
Protein metabolism and modification	130	35	24.48	+	4.59×10^{-02}

The reference list was built using the list of the analyzed transcript (*n* = 3750) that belonged to the five significantly over- and underrepresented biological processes.

and 523 (13.9%) genes were differentially expressed in the two populations respectively. The *P*-values were imported in the Q-value R package to obtain the list of transcripts containing an estimated 10% of false positives (FDR = 0.10). Following this procedure, 0 and 156 (4.16%) genes were differentially regulated between controlled and selected population at the post-yolk-sac resumption and the juvenile stages, respectively. As a result, further investigations were conducted only on the data obtained from the juvenile life stage. Here, the maximum *P*-value associated to a FDR correction of 0.10 was *P* = 0.0049. The list of differentially regulated transcripts was then statistically compared to a reference list to look for under- and overrepresented functional categories, which consisted of the set of analyzed transcripts in the ANOVA.

Gene ontology and genes representation: Unigene numbers were obtained for 21.7% (816) of all the analyzed genes. Of these 816 genes, 156 (19%) were differentially expressed between control and selected populations at the juvenile stage. The gene ontology analysis using Panther classified 52 genes into five biological processes shown to be significantly under- or overrepresented between the control and selected groups (*P* < 0.05) compared to chance expectation (Table 1). Further analyses only consider those 52 as it was too hazardous to interpret the results obtained for the other 104 differentially expressed genes, given the total absence of annotation information. Overrepresented biological processes included: (1) G-protein mediated signaling (GPCRs), also known as seven-transmembrane domain receptors (*n* = 4); (2) other coenzyme and prosthetic group metabolism (*n* = 1); and (3) protein metabolism and modification (*n* = 35). Underrepresented biological processes corresponded to (1) immunity and defense (*n* = 3) and (2) nucleoside, nucleotide, and nucleic acid metabolism (*n* = 9). Detailed gene functions and associated *P*-values are

reported in Table 1. The minimal and maximal fold change ratios in expression values for these 52 genes were 0.688 and 1.595, respectively (supporting information, Table S1). The lowest fold change was observed for the 40S ribosomal protein S5 clone whereas the highest ratio was found for the activator of 90-kDa heat shock protein ATPase homolog 1 clone.

Cluster analysis: Cluster analysis performed on the subset of 52 genes associated with one of the five under- or overrepresented biological processes is presented in Figure 1. The heat map obtained almost completely separated the fish into two different groups corresponding to the two populations (control/selected), except for 8 of 40 individuals, which showed transcription profiles similar to the opposite population. Second, the genes also grouped into two distinct clusters. The 28 genes composing cluster 1 showed lower level of expression in the selected fish relative to the control fish, whereas the 24 genes composing cluster 2 showed higher level of expression in the selected fish relative to the control fish. Genes from the five biological processes were present in both gene clusters, except for “other coenzyme and prosthetic group metabolism,” for which the two related clones belong to cluster 2. However, genes that are involved in growth pathways were generally expressed at higher levels in the selected population, whereas genes associated with other biological functions were generally expressed at lower levels in the selected population relative to the control populations. For example, in cluster 1, genes related to growth (*e.g.*, precursors of Meprin A subunits α , capable of cleaving growth factors) were grouped together and highly expressed in control population, showed opposite transcriptional patterns to other genes with antagonistic role and related to the same trait, in cluster 2 (*e.g.*, transforming growth factor β early inducible response). Moreover, genes associated to the mechanisms of translation (eukaryotic translation initiation

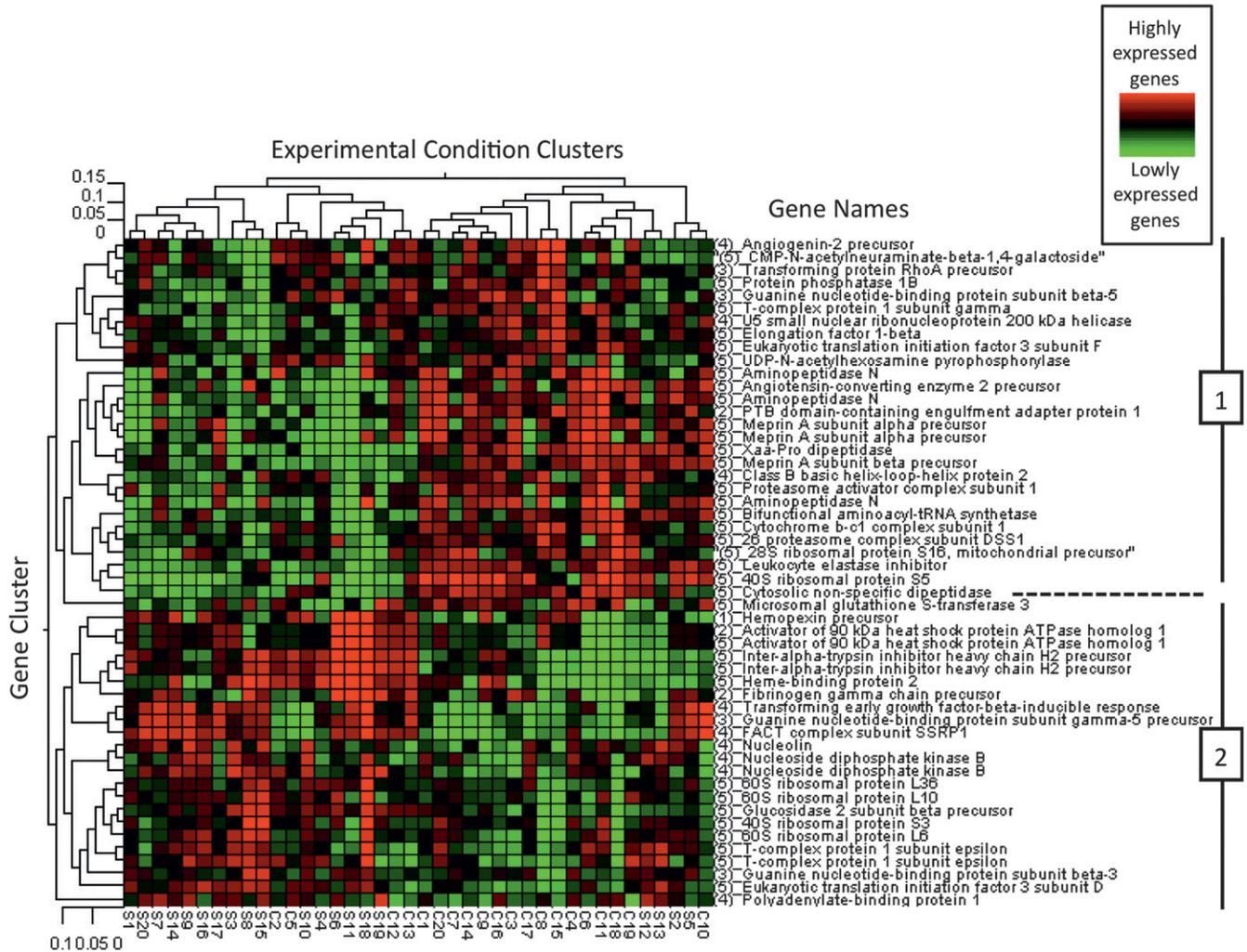


FIGURE 1.—Cluster tree for 52 genes showing the patterns of regulation between control (C1–C20) and selected animals (S1–S20). Genes names are reported on the right of the figure. The dendrogram on top (Experimental Condition Clusters) groups individuals based on similar patterns of transcription. Each individual is named according to its group: C for control individual and S for selected. On the left side, the dendrogram (Gene Cluster) represents the clustering of genes showing similar patterns of regulation. Red represents higher expression values whereas values shown in green are relatively lower in the experimental pairwise comparison. Hierarchical clustering was performed using the average linking method (EISEN *et al.* 1998), while pairwise distances were calculated using the Pearson correlation coefficients (QU and XU 2006).

factor 3 subunit D; 28S, 40S, and 60S ribosomal subunits; elongation factor 1 β , EF1b) were grouped together in cluster 2 (Figure 1). Also, three genes associated to protection against oxidative stress (precursor of hemopexin, heme-binding protein 2, precursor of fibrinogen γ chain, and precursor of the inter- α trypsin inhibitor heavy chain H2), were upregulated in selected fish and closely clustered together.

DISCUSSION

Our results show that three generations of selective breeding resulted in significant changes in regulation of gene transcription between control and selected brook charr. Of the genes that significantly differed between both lines, those belonging to biological functions that

were overrepresented relative to chance expectations are the most likely to have diverged under the effect of selective breeding, as opposed to random genetic drift effect. However, significant changes were observed at the juvenile stage only. This corroborates the results obtained in a recent transcriptomic study of the limnetic and benthic forms of another salmonid, the lake whitefish, *Coregonus clupeaformis* (NOLTE *et al.* 2009). These authors reported very few genes ($n = 5$) showing difference in expression at the embryonic stage relative to juvenile (16 weeks) for which over 500 genes were differentially expressed. To some extent, this system is analogous to the one used in the present study, given that: (1) the two forms of whitefish have evolved under selective (albeit natural rather than artificial) pressures that mainly affected genes related to energetic metabolism and growth differences between forms and

(2) the fish were sampled at similar life stages in both systems.

A total of 52 differentially regulated genes that were annotated were classified into five biological processes. Arguably, these differences are specific to the two organs analyzed and it is likely that selected and control fish could also differ in other functions being expressed in other tissues. The observed pattern of expression of genes belonging to these biological processes appears congruent with the expected effect of directional selection for faster growth. Namely, there were more genes related to the metabolism of coenzymes, protein signaling, and protein metabolism and modifications that were differentially expressed relative to the number that was expected by chance. Examples of such genes are three RNA subunits (28S, 40S, and 60S), EF1b, and the translation initiation factor 3 (eIF3). The EF1b is a highly conserved protein that catalyzes the exchange of bound GDP for GTP, a required step to ensure continued protein synthesis and cell growth (CARR-SCHMID *et al.* 1999). The three ribosomal subunits and eIF3 are also closely linked in their molecular functions. The eIF3 complex is thought to be composed of essential core subunits required for global protein synthesis and nonessential subunits that may modulate mRNA specificity. This complex of several polypeptides plays at least two important roles in protein synthesis: first, eIF3 binds to the 40S ribosomal subunit and facilitates loading of the Met-tRNA/eIF2 and also apparently assists eIF4 in recruiting mRNAs to the 43S complex, involved in the synthesis of protein related to cell growth (ZHOU *et al.* 2005). Moreover, the C-terminal extension of eIF3 appears to play a role in the dissociation of Met-tRNA bound to 28S subunits in the absence of mRNA (HAQUE *et al.* 2008).

On the other hand, we also identified biological processes for which there were a lower number of genes showing differences in expression between control and selected fish than were expected by chance, as observed for the immune system and defense function. This could be a consequence of the common controlled environmental conditions where fish of both lines were presumably exposed to weak selective constraints compared to natural conditions, resulting in relaxation on expression regulation of the genes related to immunity. Alternatively, this could also reflect a drawback of the selective breeding process. For instance, it has previously been suggested that fish selected for faster growth may suffer from a deficiency in the immune response and reduced adaptive potential to pathogens exposition (GLOVER *et al.* 2006a,b).

The heatmap based on the analysis of the 52 annotated genes that were differentially expressed revealed two distinct gene clusters, one composed of 28 genes generally showing a higher level of transcription in control individuals and a second one composed of 24 genes that were generally overexpressed in

selected fish and belonging to different functional categories. Thus, four genes were involved in oxidative stress protection (hemopexin precursor, heme binding protein, inter- α trypsin inhibitor, and fibrinogen γ chain precursor; STANFORD *et al.* 2003), four others were related to essential proteins in the ribosomal subunits or related to transcription (*e.g.*, eukaryotic translation initiation factor), while other genes were associated to the proliferation and development of cells and include genes such as the transforming early growth factor β and the T complex protein 1. Overexpression of these genes is consistent with a higher growth rate observed in the selected line compared to control fish (BASTIEN 2010).

We also observed several genes of potentially antagonistic functions that were expressed differentially between selected and control lines, which would be more consistent with the expected effect of selection than mere genetic drift. Of particular interest were three clones related to the meprin A subunit precursor gene that were more highly expressed in control relative to selected fish. Meprins are multidomain extracellular metalloproteases and capable of cleaving growth factors and would therefore be expected to have an antagonistic effect on genes related to growth that were more highly expressed in selected fish (*e.g.*, transforming growth factor β early inducible response).

Taken together, our results demonstrate that selection over three generations, in a controlled environment, has led to significant and heritable differences in genes transcription in the brook charr. This also corroborates results observed in a recent study that investigated transcriptional changes induced by domestication in Atlantic salmon (ROBERGE *et al.* 2006). Significantly differentially expressed genes in Atlantic salmon were classified into several biological functions including transcription regulation, protein synthesis, signal transduction, cellular growth, and division (ROBERGE *et al.* 2006). In our study, differentially expressed genes primarily represented very similar biological functions, including protein metabolism and modification, nucleic acids metabolism or protein signaling. Yet, specific genes involved in these biological functions were not the same for both brook charr and Atlantic salmon. This could be mainly attributable to (1) statistical issues, as analytical methods have changed over time to handle microarray data (*e.g.*, introduction of FDR correction; STOREY and TIBSHIRANI 2003), (2) the different microarray version used in both experiments, and (3) the results between the Atlantic salmon and brook charr can simply reflect that different genes are under selection in those two species.

Our results and those on Atlantic salmon clearly show that a small number of generations of selective breeding for improved growth can lead to significant evolutionary change in gene transcription between selected and control fish. The fact that artificially selected brook

charr are intensively used for stocking wild populations raises the issue of potentially negative consequences associated with reduction in genomic integrity and adaptive capacity of wild populations (LEARY *et al.* 1983; GHARRETT *et al.* 1999; GILK *et al.* 2004; ROBERGE *et al.* 2006). For example, it has been shown in Atlantic salmon that genetic introgressive hybridization between farmed and wild fish substantially alters the genetic control of gene transcription within natural populations. In brook charr, it has also been shown that crosses between sympatric anadromous and resident populations that diverged <12,000 years ago cause major disruption of gene expression in the F₁ hybrid progeny concordant with the Dobzhansky–Muller model of genetic incompatibilities (MAVAREZ *et al.* 2009).

In summary, this study provided a list of candidate genes for which the control of expression has been altered by artificial selection and deserving further investigations. Namely, allelic variation in genetic markers linked to the variation of traits of economic interest provides information about the inheritance of the considered traits that can then be used in a marker-assisted selection program. Consequently, one of the next logical steps in the study of brook charr selection is the identification and mapping of molecular markers (*e.g.*, SNP) linked to the candidate genes identified in this study. These markers could then be linked to phenotypic traits of interest through quantitative trait loci. This study is currently underway. Finally, they could be implemented in a marker-assisted selection program to enhance a sustainable production capability for the brook charr aquaculture.

The authors are very grateful to staff of the Station aquicole de l'Institut des sciences de la mer de Rimouski for their invaluable help in rearing the fish used in this experiment. We thank Guillaume Côté for his help with the fish sampling process. We also thank D. Grunwald and two anonymous reviewers for their most useful and constructive comments. This work was financially supported by a Partnership grant (Strategic program) of the Conseil de Recherches en Sciences Naturelles et en Génie (CRSNG) to L.B., N.D., and C.A. This is a contribution to the research program of Réseau Aquaculture Québec (RAQ).

LITERATURE CITED

- ALLARD, R. W., 1999 *Principles of Plant Breeding*, Ed. 2. Wiley, New York.
- AUDET, C., and L. BERNATCHEZ, 2004 La souche Laval, le pourquoi et le comment. *L'Aquicole*, Bulletin Assoc Aquaculteurs Québec **10**: 9–11.
- BASTIEN, A., 2010 Evaluation of a selection program and identification of physiological traits linked to anadromous in the brook trout (*Salvelinus fontinalis*). Ph.D. Thesis, Université du Québec à Rimouski, Canada
- BURT, D. W., 2005 Chicken genome: current status and future opportunities. *Genome Res* **15**: 1692–1698.
- CARR-SCHMID, A., L. VALENTE, V. I. LOIK, T. WILLIAMS, L. M. STARITA *et al.*, 1999 Mutations in elongation factor 1beta, a guanine nucleotide exchange factor, enhance translational fidelity. *Mol. Cell. Biol.* **19**: 5257–5266.
- CHURCHILL, G. A., 2002 Fundamentals of experimental design for cDNA microarrays. *Nat. Genet.* **32**(Suppl.): 490–495.
- DEVLIN, R., H. D. SAKHRANI, W. TYMCHUK, E., M. L. RISE and B. GOH, 2008 Domestication and growth hormone transgenesis cause similar changes in gene expression in coho salmon (*Oncorhynchus kisutch*). *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA* **106**: 3047–3052.
- DIAMOND, J., 2002 Evolution, consequences and future of plant and animal domestication. *Nature* **418**: 700–707.
- DUARTE, C. M., N. MARBA and M. HOLMER, 2007 Rapid domestication of marine species. *Science* **316**: 382–383.
- EISEN, M. B., P. T. SPELLMAN, P. O. BROWN and D. BOTSTEIN, 1998 Cluster analysis and display of genome-wide expression patterns. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA* **95**: 14863–14868.
- FALCONER, D. S., and T. F. C. MACKAY, 1996 *Introduction to Quantitative Genetics*. Longman Group, Essex, UK.
- FLEMING, I. A., S. EINUM, B. JONSSON and N. JONSSON, 2003 Comment on “rapid evolution of egg size in captive Salmon.” *Science* **302**: 59.
- FLEMING, I. A., K. HINDAR, I. B. MJØLNERØD, B. JONSSON, T. BALSTAD *et al.*, 2000 Lifetime success and interactions of farm salmon invading a native population. *Proc. R. Soc. B. Biol. Sci.* **267**: 1517–1523.
- GHARRETT, A. J., W. W. SMOKER, R. R. REISENBICHLER and S. G. TAYLOR, 1999 Outbreeding depression in hybrids between odd- and even-broodyear pink salmon. *Aquaculture* **173**: 117–129.
- GILK, S. E., I. A. WANG, C. L. HOOVER, W. W. SMOKER, S. G. TAYLOR *et al.*, 2004 Outbreeding depression in hybrids between spatially separated pink salmon, *Oncorhynchus gorbuscha*, populations: marine survival, homing ability, and variability in family size. *Environ. Biol. Fish* **69**: 287–297.
- GIUFFRÀ, E., J. M. H. KIJAS, V. AMARGER, O. CARLBORG, J.-T. JEON *et al.*, 2000 The Origin of the domestic pig: independent domestication and subsequent introgression. *Genetics* **154**: 1785–1791.
- GJEDREM, T., 2000 Genetic improvement of cold-water fish species. *Aquaculture Res.* **31**: 25–33.
- GLOVER, K. A., Y. BERGH, H. RUDRA and Y. SKAALA, 2006a Juvenile growth and susceptibility to *Aeromonas salmonicida* subsp. *salmonicida* in Atlantic salmon (*Salmo salar* L.) of farmed, hybrid and wild parentage. *Aquaculture* **254**: 72–81.
- GLOVER, K. A., C. SKÅR, K. E. CHRISTIE, J. GLETTE, H. RUDRA *et al.*, 2006b Size-dependent susceptibility to infectious salmon anemia virus (ISAV) in Atlantic salmon (*Salmo salar* L.) of farm, hybrid and wild parentage. *Aquaculture* **254**: 82–91.
- GLOVER, K. A., H. OTTERÅ, R. E. OLSEN, E. SLINDE, G. L. TARANGER *et al.*, 2009 A comparison of farmed, wild and hybrid Atlantic salmon (*Salmo salar* L.) reared under farming conditions. *Aquaculture* **286**: 203–210.
- HAMMER, K., 1984 Das Domestikationsyndrom. *Kulturpflanze* **32**: 11–34.
- HAQUE, M. E., D. GRASSO and L. L. SPREMULLI, 2008 The interaction of mammalian mitochondrial translational initiation factor 3 with ribosomes: evolution of terminal extensions in IF3mt. *Nucleic Acids Res.* **36**: 589–597.
- KERR, K. M., and G. A. CHURCHILL, 2000 Analysis of variance for gene expression microarray data. *J. Comp. Biol.* **7**: 819–837.
- KOVACH, M. J., M. T. SWEENEY and S. R. MCCOUCH, 2007 New insights into the history of rice domestication. *Trends Genet.* **23**: 578–587.
- LEARY, R. F., F. W. ALLENDORF and K. L. KNUDSEN, 1983 Developmental stability and enzyme heterozygosity in rainbow trout. *Nature* **301**: 71–72.
- MARTIN, S., J.-Y. SAVARIA, C. AUDET and L. BERNATCHEZ, 1997 Microsatellites reveal no evidence for inbreeding effects but low-inter-stock genetic diversity among brook charr stocks used for production in Québec. *Bull. Aquaculture Assoc. Canada* **97**: 21–23.
- MAVAREZ, J., C. AUDET and L. BERNATCHEZ, 2009 Major disruption of gene expression in hybrids between young sympatric anadromous and resident populations of brook charr (*Salvelinus fontinalis* Mitchill). *J. Evol. Biol.* **22**: 1708–1720.
- NOLTE, A., S. RENAULT and L. BERNATCHEZ, 2009 Divergence in gene regulation at young life history stages of whitefish (*Coregonus* sp.) and the emergence of genomic isolation. *BMC Evol. Biol.* **9**: 59.
- NORMANDEAU, E., J. A. HUTCHINGS and D. J. FRASER, 2009 Population specific gene-expression responses to hybridization between farm and wild Atlantic salmon. *Evol. Appl.* **2**: 489–503.
- PAGE, L. M., and B. M. BURR, 1991 *A Field Guide to Freshwater Fishes of North America North of Mexico*. Houghton Mifflin, Boston.
- POZZI, C., and F. SALAMINI, 2007 Genomics of wheat domestication, pp. 453–481 in *Genomics-Assisted Crop Improvement*. Volume 2:

- Genomics Applications in Crops*, edited by R. K. VARSHNEY and R. TUBEROSA. Springer-Verlag, New York.
- QU, Y., and S. XU, 2006 Quantitative trait associated microarray gene expression data analysis. *Mol. Biol. Evol.* **23**: 1558–1573.
- RISE, M. L., K. R. VON SCHALBURG, G. D. BROWN, M. A. MAWER, R. H. DEVLIN *et al.*, 2004 Development and application of a salmonid EST database and cDNA microarray: data mining and interspecific hybridization characteristics. *Genome Res.* **14**: 478–490.
- ROBERGE, C., S. EINUM, H. GUDERLEY and L. BERNATCHEZ, 2006 Rapid parallel evolutionary changes of gene transcription profiles in farmed Atlantic salmon. *Mol. Ecol.* **15**: 9–20.
- ROBERGE, C., E. NORMANDEAU, S. EINUM, H. GUDERLEY and L. BERNATCHEZ, 2008 Genetic consequences of interbreeding between farmed and wild Atlantic salmon: insights from the transcriptome. *Mol. Ecol.* **17**: 314–324.
- ROSS-IBARRA, J., P. L. MORRELL and B. S. GAUT, 2007 Plant domestication, a unique opportunity to identify the genetic basis of adaptation. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA* **104**(Suppl. 1): 8641–8648.
- ROUGEOT, C., C. BERVILLERS, C. PRIGNON, D. GUSTIN, M. DEL GIUDICE *et al.*, 2007 Growth improvement of Eurasian perch (*Perca fluviatilis*) using domesticated strains under intensive rearing conditions. *Aquaculture* **272**: S306.
- SAVARIA, J.-Y., 1998 Amorce d'un programme de sélection génétique chez deux souches d'ombles de fontaine en fonction des critères de croissance et de l'âge à la maturation sexuelle. M.Sc. Thesis, Université du Québec à Rimouski, Canada.
- SILVERSTEIN, J. T., R. L. VALLEJO, Y. PALTÍ, T. D. LEEDS, C. E. REXROAD, III *et al.*, 2009 Rainbow trout resistance to bacterial cold-water disease is moderately heritable and is not adversely correlated with growth. *J. Anim. Sci.* **87**: 860–867.
- SIMONS, K. J., J. P. FELLERS, H. N. TRICK, Z. ZHANG, Y.-S. TAI *et al.*, 2006 Molecular characterization of the major wheat somestication Gene Q. *Genet.* **172**: 547–555.
- ST-CYR, J., N. DEROME and L. BERNATCHEZ, 2008 The transcriptomics of life-history trade-offs in whitefish species pairs (*Coregonus* sp.). *Mol. Ecol.* **17**: 1850–1870.
- STANFORD, S. J., M. J. WALTERS and A. A. HISLOP, 2003 Heme oxygenase is expressed in human pulmonary artery smooth muscle where carbon monoxide has an anti-proliferative role. *Eur. J. Pharmacol.* **473**: 135–141.
- STOREY, J. D., and R. TIBSHIRANI, 2003 Statistical significance for genomewide studies. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA* **100**: 9440–9445.
- STOREY, J. D., J. E. TAYLOR and D. SIEGMUND, 2004 Strong control, conservative point estimation and simultaneous conservative consistency of false discovery rates: a unified approach. *J. R. Statist. Soc. Ser. B. Statist. Methodol.* **66**: 187–205.
- WU, H., K. M. KERR and G. A. CHURCHILL, 2002 MAANOVA: a software package for the analysis of spotted cDNA microarray experiments, pp. 313–316 in *The Analysis of Gene Expression Data: Methods and Software*, edited by H. WU, K. KERR, X. CUI and G. A. CHURCHILL. Springer-Verlag, New York.
- YAMASAKI, M., S. I. WRIGHT and M. D. McMULLEN, 2007 Genomic screening for artificial selection during domestication and improvement in maize. *Ann. Bot.* **100**: 967–973.
- ZHOU, C., F. ARSLAN, S. WEE, S. KRISHNAN, A. IVANOV *et al.*, 2005 PCI proteins eIF3e and eIF3m define distinct translation initiation factor 3 complexes. *BMC Biol.* **3**: 14.

Communicating editor: D. J. GRUNWALD

GENETICS

Supporting Information

<http://www.genetics.org/cgi/content/full/genetics.109.115071>

Fast Transcriptional Responses to Domestication in the Brook Charr *Salvelinus fontinalis*

Christopher Sauvage, Nicolas Derôme, Eric Normandeau, Jérôme St.-Cyr,
Céline Audet and Louis Bernatchez

Copyright © 2010 by the Genetics Society of America
DOI: 10.1534/genetics.109.115071

TABLE S1

Classification into biological processes of the 52 genes significantly under- or over-represented between the control and selected groups and their respective fold changes ratio

Biological Process ^(a)	cGRASP Accession Number ^(b)	Genes names and description ^(c)	Fold change ratio ^(d) (selected/control)	<i>p</i> Values ^(e) (ANOVA)	<i>q</i> Values ^(f) (FDR)
Coenzyme and prosthetic group metabolism	CA039497	Hemopexin precursor	1,312	0,001209146	0,05803355
G-protein mediated signalling	CA047661	Guanine nucleotide-binding protein subunit beta-3	1,112	0,000378958	0,02814848
	CA054457	Transforming protein RhoA precursor	0,928	0,002480333	0,08231818
	CA054762	Guanine nucleotide-binding protein subunit beta-5	0,818	6,75E-05	0,01931199
	CK990501	Guanine nucleotide-binding protein subunit gamma-5 precursor	1,313	0,004095939	0,09224477
Immunity and defense	CB489865	Activator of 90 kDa heat shock protein ATPase homolog 1	1,595	0,003430445	0,08785386
	CB494635	Fibrinogen gamma chain precursor	1,256	0,001828909	0,07222355
	CB504470	PTB domain-containing engulfment adapter protein 1	0,779	0,001989127	0,07567673
Nucleic acid metabolism	CA037733	Angiogenin-2 precursor	0,843	0,003220339	0,08785386
	CA040315	Nucleolin	1,145	0,00411001	0,09224477
	CA056776	Class B basic helix-loop-helix protein 2	0,899	0,003116725	0,08785386
	CA057379	Polyadenylate-binding protein 1	1,095	0,000746083	0,04391619
	CB491722	Nucleoside diphosphate kinase B	1,098	0,000150304	0,02131381
	CB500560	U5 small nuclear ribonucleoprotein 200 kDa helicase	0,914	0,00028174	0,02659636
	CB516494	Transforming growth factor-beta-inducible early growth response protein 3	1,291	0,00026543	0,02659636
	CK991305	Nucleoside diphosphate kinase B	1,154	0,001115766	0,05614293
	CX282117	FACT complex subunit SSRP1	1,279	0,00189095	0,0737401
	CA041737	Aminopeptidase N	0,809	0,000150304	0,02131381

Protein metabolism and modification	CA041737	Aminopeptidase N	0,809	0,000150304	0,02131381
	CA043541	Angiotensin-converting enzyme 2 precursor	0,843	0,004161497	0,0927332
	CA044420	Aminopeptidase N	0,85	0,002341222	0,0811547
	CA045314	Bifunctional aminoacyl-tRNA synthetase	0,884	0,001775504	0,07193571
	CA046196	60S ribosomal protein L36	1,133	0	0
	CA053670	Glucosidase 2 subunit beta precursor	1,149	0,004702271	0,09816123
	CA055382	Xaa-Pro dipeptidase	0,848	8,67E-05	0,01931199
	CA056693	T-complex protein 1 subunit gamma	0,88	0,001828909	0,07222355
	CA059107	Leukocyte elastase inhibitor	0,886	0,001209146	0,05803355
	CA060895	60S ribosomal protein L6	1,135	0,000939879	0,05055422
	CA063220	T-complex protein 1 subunit epsilon	1,107	0,00028174	0,02659636
	CA383562	Protein phosphatase 1B	0,871	0,000572753	0,03697356
	CB486904	40S ribosomal protein S3	1,223	0,002543972	0,08354153
	CB488504	CMP-N-acetylneuraminate-beta-1,4-galactoside alpha-2,3-sialyltransferase	0,867	0,004846498	0,0991538
	CB489865	Activator of 90 kDa heat shock protein ATPase homolog 1	1,595	0,003430445	0,08785386
	CB492698	Microsomal glutathione S-transferase 3	0,888	0,001257755	0,05945191
	CB494221	Inter-alpha-trypsin inhibitor heavy chain H2 precursor	1,349	0,000101695	0,01982864
	CB496657	Meprin A subunit alpha precursor	0,82	0,001508155	0,06534722
	CB496763	Cytochrome b-c1 complex subunit 1, mitochondrial precursor	0,799	0,000667413	0,04082612
	CB496864	Eukaryotic translation initiation factor 3 subunit F	0,914	0,000541733	0,03595848
	CB496891	40S ribosomal protein S5	0,688	0,00226511	0,07939864
	CB502646	Meprin A subunit alpha precursor	0,846	0,001023345	0,05411078
	CB503356	Meprin A subunit beta precursor	0,905	0,00411001	0,09224477
	CB505595	UDP-N-acetylhexosamine pyrophosphorylase	0,918	0,004257115	0,09392829
	CB506140	Proteasome activator complex subunit 1	0,858	0,002233451	0,07917852
	CB510131	Inter-alpha-trypsin inhibitor heavy chain H2 precursor	1,389	0,001071634	0,0554605
	CB510252	60S ribosomal protein L10	1,171	0,002118324	0,07753138

CB515548	Heme-binding protein 2	1,477	0,00165558	0,06870778
CB516915	Eukaryotic translation initiation factor 3 subunit D	1,137	0,000592581	0,03697356
CB517828	Elongation factor 1-beta	0,856	8,67E-05	0,01931199
CK990470	28S ribosomal protein S16, mitochondrial precursor	0,808	0,000698433	0,04190203
CK990553	Aminopeptidase N	0,803	0,000101695	0,01982864
CK990720	26 proteasome complex subunit DSS1	0,839	0,001146146	0,0567562
CK991357	T-complex protein 1 subunit epsilon	1,137	0,001084426	0,0554605
EG851637	Cytosolic non-specific dipeptidase	0,817	0,000592581	0,03697356

(a) Results of biological process classification obtained by the comparison to the reference list using a binomial test (Cho & Campbell, TIGs 2000) for each biological process in Panther (<http://www.pantherdb.org>)

b) Gene annotation information based on the cGRASP microarray

(c) Gene name and description based on the classification results from Panther

(d) Gene expression level fold changes between selected and control strains. A ratio >1 means that the gene is over expressed in the selected fish and vice versa.

(e) p-values associated to differentially regulated transcripts between control and selected families

(f) q-values (FDR-corrected p-values)