



Gene regulation underlies environmental adaptation in house mice

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23 Abstract

24 Changes in *cis*- regulatory regions are thought to play a major role in the genetic basis of
25 adaptation. However, few studies have linked *cis*- regulatory variation with adaptation in
26 natural populations. Here, using a combination of exome and RNA-seq data, we performed
27 expression quantitative trait locus (eQTL) mapping and allele-specific expression analyses
28 to study the genetic architecture of regulatory variation in wild house mice (*Mus musculus*
29 *domesticus*) using individuals from 5 populations collected along a latitudinal cline in
30 eastern North America. Mice in this transect showed clinal patterns of variation in several
31 traits, including body mass. Mice were larger in more northern latitudes, in accordance
32 with Bergmann's rule. We identified 17 genes where *cis*-eQTL were clinal outliers and for
33 which expression level was correlated with latitude. Among these clinal outliers, we
34 identified two genes (*Adam17* and *Bcat2*) with *cis*-eQTL that were associated with adaptive
35 body mass variation and for which expression is correlated with body mass both within
36 and between populations. Finally, we performed a gene co-expression network analysis to
37 identify expression modules associated with measures of body size variation in these mice.
38 These findings demonstrate the power of combining gene expression data with scans for
39 selection to identify genes involved in adaptive phenotypic evolution and also provide
40 strong evidence for *cis*- regulatory elements as essential loci of environmental adaptation
41 in natural populations.

42 **Introduction**

43 Understanding the genetic basis of adaptation is a major goal in evolutionary biology. *Cis-*
44 regulatory mutations, which can change the expression of proximal genes, have long been
45 predicted to be important targets for adaptive phenotypic evolution (King and Wilson
46 1975, Wray 2007, Stern and Orgogozo 2008, Wittkopp and Kalay 2013). One reason for this
47 is that *cis-* regulatory mutations may have fewer deleterious pleiotropic effects than
48 protein-coding changes. While protein-coding mutations may affect protein products
49 across tissues and developmental stages, *cis-* regulatory mutations can affect the
50 expression of genes in spatially and temporally specific ways. In apparent support of this
51 idea, several studies have identified positive selection on non-coding regions (e.g., Jenkins
52 et al. 1995, Crawford et al. 1999, Kohn et al. 2004; Andolfatto 2005; MacDonald and Long
53 2005; Holloway et al. 2007; Jeong et al. 2008; Torgerson et al. 2009) and an important role
54 for non-coding variation in local adaptation (e.g., Jones et al. 2012, Fraser 2013).

55

56 Despite the accumulating evidence that regulatory loci play an important role in adaptive
57 evolution, there are still only a handful of cases where *cis-* regulatory mutations have been
58 linked to ecologically important traits. Among the best examples are adaptive coat color
59 differences in deer mice (Linnen et al. 2013), the ability to digest lactose in humans
60 (Tishkoff et al. 2007), and pelvic reduction in sticklebacks (Chan et al. 2010). Most
61 examples of adaptive gene expression have been identified through candidate gene
62 approaches, which typically favor traits for which components of a pathway are already
63 known and the genetic basis of the trait is relatively simple. However, most traits are
64 influenced by many loci of small to modest effect. Thus, identifying genetic variants

65 associated with adaptation at complex traits is key to understanding the genetic basis of
66 adaptation.

67

68 One avenue for linking adaptive non-coding variation to either molecular or organismal
69 phenotypes is through gene expression. In expression quantitative trait loci (eQTL)
70 mapping, gene expression levels are tested for associations with genetic markers to
71 identify variants that contribute to expression phenotypes. Expression quantitative trait
72 mapping is an effective method for identifying regulatory variants because gene expression
73 is frequently influenced by nearby *cis*-eQTL (Nica and Dermitzakis 2013). *Cis*-eQTL have
74 been successfully detected with small sample sizes (Montgomery and Dermitzakis 2011,
75 Tung et al. 2015) and in wild individuals from natural populations (Tung et al. 2015).
76 Combining eQTL mapping with genomic scans for selection can be a powerful method for
77 identifying the gene targets of adaptive genetic variation (Fraser 2013, Ye et al. 2013) and
78 potentially linking this variation to adaptive organismal phenotypes.

79

80 House mice (*Mus musculus domesticus*) provide a useful model for studying the genetic
81 basis of adaptation. House mice are an important biomedical model and have a distribution
82 that mirrors that of human populations (Phifer-Rixey and Nachman 2015). In the eastern
83 United States, house mice show latitudinal variation consistent with local adaptation. Mice
84 collected at northern latitudes are heavier than mice at southern latitudes and their
85 progeny also show differences in a common laboratory environment, indicating that this
86 difference is genetic (Lynch 1992; M Phifer-Rixey, Bi K, KG Ferris, MJ Sheehan, D Lin, KL
87 Mack, SM Keeble, TA Suzuki, JM Good, MW Nachman, *in press*). This observation conforms

88 to the classic ecogeographic observation known as Bergmann's rule that animals in colder
89 climates have larger mass to reduce heat loss (Bergmann 1847). While Bergmann's rule has
90 been observed in many groups, including humans (Ashton 2000, Ruff 2002, Foster 2013),
91 no study so far has linked this pattern to variation at specific genes. Consistent with
92 energetic adaptation of mice from eastern North America, laboratory strains founded from
93 northern and southern locations also show differences in aspects of blood chemistry,
94 including leptin, glucose, and triglyceride levels (M Phifer-Rixey, K Bi, KG Ferris, MJ
95 Sheehan, D Lin, KL Mack, SM Keeble, TA Suzuki, JM Good, MW Nachman, *in press*).

96
97 Recent work with these populations identified hundreds of genes with environmental
98 associations in North American (M Phifer-Rixey, K Bi, KG Ferris, MJ Sheehan, D Lin, KL
99 Mack, SM Keeble, TA Suzuki, JM Good, MW Nachman, *in press*). Here we combine a genomic
100 scan for selection with expression quantitative trait (eQTL) mapping to identify regulatory
101 variants that contribute to gene expression differences and show signals of selection in
102 these populations, identifying two strong candidate genes for adaptive phenotypic
103 variation. To our knowledge, this study represents the first case where genomic scans have
104 been combined with eQTL mapping to identify regulatory variants in natural populations
105 that underlie an adaptive organismal phenotype.

106

107 **Results**

108 ***Cis- regulatory variation in wild house mice***

109 To characterize regulatory variation in wild mice, we sequenced liver transcriptomes from
110 50 mice collected from five populations along a latitudinal transect on the east coast of

111 North America (Figure 1)(Table S1, File S1). Mice were collected from 29-44°N degrees in
112 latitude. Liver was collected in RNAlater and body mass and length were recorded for each
113 individual. From these individuals, we produced a total of ~1.2 billion RNA-seq reads with
114 an average of 15,473,949 uniquely mapped exonic reads per sample, which were used to
115 quantify gene-wise mRNA abundance (hereafter, gene expression). We also analyzed DNA
116 sequence data generated from exome-capture of the same individuals (M Phifer-Rixey, K Bi,
117 KG Ferris, MJ Sheehan, D Lin, KL Mack, SM Keeble, TA Suzuki, JM Good, MW Nachman, *in*
118 *press*). Exome and RNA-seq data were used to identify variants segregating in *M. m.*
119 *domesticus* (see Methods).

120

121 We identified *cis*- regulatory variation using two complementary approaches, expression
122 quantitative trait loci (eQTL) mapping and allele-specific expression (ASE). To identify *cis*-
123 eQTLs, we tested for associations between variants within 200-kb of a gene and expression
124 level using a linear mixed model. Variants near a gene are more likely to act in *cis* to affect
125 gene expression. *Cis*-eQTL typically have larger effect sizes than *trans*-eQTL, making them
126 easier to detect in small sample sizes (Montgomery and Dermitzakis 2011). After filtering, a
127 total of 406,999 variants were identified using exome data and tested for associations with
128 expression at 13,080 genes. We identified *cis*-eQTL for 849 of these genes (6.5% of genes
129 surveyed). Reflecting the probe set, the majority of *cis*-eQTL were identified in gene bodies
130 (57%) and introns (18%)(Figure S1).

131

132 Allele-specific expression (i.e. differences in expression between parental alleles) can also
133 be used to infer epigenetic or genetic variation acting in *cis* (Cowles et al. 2002). As the two

134 parental alleles are exposed to the same *trans*- acting environment within an individual,
135 differences in expression at heterozygous sites can be used to infer *cis*- regulatory
136 variation. A total of 28,234 exonic heterozygous sites, corresponding to 6,738 genes, could
137 be tested for ASE. Across all individuals, we found evidence for ASE for 442 genes at a false
138 discovery rate of 5% (6.7% of genes surveyed)(Table S2).

139

140 In investigating the power to detect *cis*- regulatory variation, we found that *cis*-eQTL were
141 more likely to be detected when SNP density is higher near and within the gene of interest
142 (Mann-Whitney *U* test, $p < 2.2 \times 10^{-16}$)(Figure S2). We were more likely to detect ASE for
143 genes with higher expression and higher SNP density (Mann-Whitney *U* test, $p = 3.1 \times 10^{-11}$
144 and $p < 2.2 \times 10^{-16}$, respectively)(Figures S2,S3). While differences in the power to detect
145 ASE and *cis*-eQTL can lead to the identification of different gene sets, we found significant
146 overlap between the gene sets identified with these analyses (hypergeometric test, $p = 5 \times$
147 10^{-6} , Table S2).

148

149 ***Evidence for adaptive regulatory variation***

150 To assess whether the regulatory variation documented above underlies adaptive
151 difference among populations, we studied sequence and gene expression variation along a
152 latitudinal cline (Figure 1a). Clinal patterns of variation can reflect local adaptation as a
153 response to spatially varying selection (Endler 1977). Regulatory variants with clinal
154 frequencies that mediate clinal patterns of gene expression would be strong candidates for
155 adaptive regulatory evolution. To identify such variants, we searched for cases where (1)
156 gene expression is clinal, (2) gene expression is associated with a *cis*-eQTL, and (3) allele

157 frequencies of the *cis*-eQTL vary clinally (Figure 2). While geographic clines may
158 alternatively be explained by isolation by distance, there is no evidence for isolation by
159 distance for these populations (see Supplemental material and methods).

160

161 To identify clinal patterns of gene expression, we tested for correlations between latitude
162 and expression levels in the liver transcriptomes of the 50 wild individuals. We identified
163 1,488 genes for which expression was significantly correlated with latitude ($P < 0.05$), 132
164 of which were associated with a *cis*-eQTL (Figure 2). We also tested for differential
165 expression between the most northern population (New Hampshire/Vermont) and the
166 most southern population (Florida) and identified 458 genes with differential expression
167 between the ends of the cline (Figure S4), 48 of which were associated with a *cis*-eQTL (at
168 $q < 0.1$) (Table S3).

169

170 To connect these patterns to clinal sequence variation, a genome scan using the program
171 Latent Factor Mixed Models (LFMM) was performed to test for correlations between
172 latitude and genetic variation while accounting for population structure (Frichot et al.
173 2013)(see methods). For this study, LFMM has an advantage over other methods because it
174 does not assume a specific demographic model, but still accounts for demographic history
175 by estimating genome-wide co-variance among allele frequencies. We focused on SNPs in
176 the 5% tail of the distribution and considered these clinal outliers ($|z\text{-scores}| > 2$) (Figure
177 2a). Blocks of linkage disequilibrium (LD) (Gabriel et al. 2002) (Figure S5) were then
178 inferred to identify co-localization between outlier SNPs and *cis*-eQTL. Of *cis*-eQTL that fell
179 within the same LD block as an outlier, 17 were associated with genes that also show

180 significant clinal patterns of gene expression (Tables 1,S4)(Figure 2). When comparing the
181 latitudinal extremes, average estimates of F_{st} for these candidate loci were significantly
182 higher than that of the full list of loci (Full list average $F_{st}=0.10$, candidate average $F_{st}=0.34$;
183 Permutation test, $p=0.0014$). Eight of these genes were also significantly differentially
184 expressed between the ends of the cline (Table S5). These 17 genes represent cases where
185 *cis*-eQTL contribute to expression differences between populations and show signals of
186 local adaptation, making them strong candidates for adaptive regulatory variation.

187

188 ***Linking adaptive regulatory variation to specific traits***

189 The liver plays a central role in metabolic processes in the body, and regulatory changes in
190 this tissue may contribute to latitudinal variation in traits related to metabolism. Body
191 mass varies clinally (Figure 1a) and lab born progeny from populations at the ends of the
192 transect also show differences in blood glucose, triglyceride, adiponectin, and leptin levels
193 (Lynch 1992; M Phifer-Rixey, K Bi, KG Ferris, MJ Sheehan, D Lin, KL Mack, SM Keeble, TA
194 Suzuki, JM Good, MW Nachman, *in press*). Four of the 17 candidate genes identified as
195 strong candidates also have mutant phenotypes related to body weight and metabolism.
196 Laboratory mutants for *Cox7c*, and *Hmgb1* are associated with changes in glucose levels
197 (Blake et al. 2017) and mutants for *Adam17* and *Bcat2* are also associated with changes in
198 body mass (She 2007, Wu et al. 2004, Gelling et al. 2008, Blake et al. 2017), glucose (She et
199 al. 2007,24,36), leptin (She et al. 2007, Gelling et al. 2008), and adiponectin levels (Blake et
200 al. 2017, Serino et al. 2007). Another gene identified in this analysis, *lah1*, transcriptionally
201 regulates genes with important roles in lipid metabolism and triglyceride synthesis and
202 falls under a QTL for fatty liver in mice (Kobayashi et al. 2016, Suzuki et al. 2016).

203

204 ***Adam17 and Bcat2 are candidates for adaptive differences in body mass***

205 While knockout models can provide a link between genotypes and putative phenotypes,
206 these models may not reflect the phenotypic consequences of mutations found in natural
207 populations (Palopoli 1996). Changes in body weight are also among the most common
208 effects of gene knockouts in mice, and may often reflect downstream consequences of other
209 phenotypic changes (Reed et al. 2008, White et al. 2013). While identifying the genetic
210 basis of complex adaptive traits is challenging, gene expression provides an intermediate
211 phenotype that may link sequence variants to organismal traits. To connect adaptive
212 variation in body mass in these populations to genetic variation, we asked whether body
213 mass differences were associated with gene expression differences in the set of candidate
214 genes (Table 1). Since latitude and body mass co-vary in this sample (Figure 1b), we
215 controlled for latitude by regressing it out as a variable. We identified two genes, *A*
216 *disintegrin and metalloproteinase domain 17* (*Adam17*) (Figure 3A-F) and *branched chain*
217 *amino acid transaminase 2* (*Bcat2*), for which expression was significantly correlated with
218 body mass, after accounting for latitude as a co-variable (*Adam17*: Pearson's correlation,
219 $p=4.6 \times 10^{-4}$, $R^2=0.22$; *Bcat2*: $p=4.5 \times 10^{-3}$, $R^2=0.17$; see also Table S6, Figure S6). To further
220 account for the possible confounding effects of population structure, we also looked at the
221 correlation between expression level and body mass within each of the five populations.
222 Replicating the pattern seen across populations, *Adam17* expression was negatively
223 associated with body mass in 4 of the 5 populations, and *Bcat2* expression was positively
224 associated with body mass in 4 of the 5 populations (Figure S7,S8). Despite a lack of power
225 for within-population comparisons, the association between *Adam17* expression and body

226 mass was significant in New Hampshire/Vermont (Pearson's correlation, $p=3.5 \times 10^{-3}$) and
227 the association between *Bcat2* expression and body mass was significant in Pennsylvania
228 (Pearson's correlation, $p=0.03$) and Georgia (Pearson's correlation, $p=1.8 \times 10^{-3}$).

229
230 The *cis*-eQTL for *Adam17* and *Bcat2* explain 34% and 29.7% of the variance in expression
231 for these genes, respectively. Genotypes at these sites were also associated with
232 differences in body mass (Mann-Whitney *U* test, *Bcat2*, TT>CC, $p=0.024$; *Adam17*, CC>TT,
233 $p=0.036$)(Figure S9). Again, co-variation between latitude and body mass can confound
234 relationships between body mass and candidate genes. After regressing latitude from body
235 mass to control for co-variation between these variables, the *Adam17 cis*-eQTL was
236 significantly associated with body mass (Figure 3G)(Cochran-Armitage trend test,
237 $p=0.034$), although the *Bcat2 cis*-eQTL was not (Cochran-Armitage trend test, $p=0.14$). The
238 *Adam17* and *Bcat2 cis*-eQTLs explain an estimated 8.35% and 1.51% of the variation in
239 body mass, respectively. These estimates should be treated as approximations since they
240 may be influenced by (1) unmeasured environmental differences between populations, (2)
241 population structure (even when population structure is accounted for using principle
242 components, as was done here; see Browning and Browning 2011, Dandine-Roulland
243 2011), (3) imperfect linkage disequilibrium between the surveyed SNPs and causal
244 variants (Wray et al. 2013), and small sample size (Xu 2003). Nonetheless, it is likely that
245 the effect size for the *Adam17 cis*-eQTL is large compared to what is seen in most human
246 GWAS for complex traits (Stranger 2011). Large-effect mutations may be favored in
247 situations where populations are initially far from an optimum (Orr 1998, Dittmar et al.
248 2016). For example, variation at one gene accounts for a >2 kg weight difference between

249 Europeans and Inuits (Fumagalli et al. 2015), and a single IGF1 allele in dogs accounts for
250 15% of variance in dog skeletal size (Sutter et al. 2007). House mice in this transect
251 descended from mice in Western Europe adapted to a Mediterranean climate, and thus
252 likely experienced strong selection pressures in a novel environment, potentially favoring
253 some mutations of large effect.

254

255 To investigate regulatory variation at *Adam17* in Western Europe, we retrieved available
256 liver RNA-seq and genomic data from European mice (Harr et al. 2016). We found that the
257 *Adam17* cis-eQTL is segregating within European populations (Figure S10A) and is
258 significantly associated with liver expression in European individuals (Figure S10B, $P=3.2 \times$
259 10^{-6} ; see Supplemental material and methods). This suggests that adaptation by the large-
260 effect regulatory variation at *Adam17* in the United States is a product of selection on
261 standing genetic variation.

262

263 Notably, *Adam17* and *Bcat2* are the two candidate genes from Table 1 with known lab
264 mouse mutants that affect body mass (Wu et al. 2004, She et al. 2007, Gelling et al. 2008,
265 Blake et al. 2017). *Bcat2* encodes a protein that catalyzes the first step of branched-chain
266 amino acid (BCAA) metabolism, which affects metabolism and body mass in humans and
267 rodents (Newgard et al. 2009). *Adam17* encodes a protein that regulates several signaling
268 pathways. Adult *Adam17* heterozygous and null mutants show differences in metabolic
269 phenotypes including body mass, susceptibility to diet induced obesity, and energy
270 homeostasis (Serino et al. 2007, Gelling et al. 2008). ADAM17 and its physiological
271 inhibitor, TIMP3, have also been reported to be involved in the glucose homeostasis and

272 adipose, hepatic, and vascular inflammation in both genetic and nutritional models of
273 obesity in mice (Fiorentino et al. 2010, Menghini 2012, Matsui 2014). In addition to its
274 association with body mass and metabolism in mice, in humans variation at *ADAM17* has
275 been linked to differences in body weight, BMI, waist circumference, and obesity risk
276 (Junyent et al. 2010) and shows signatures of selection (Pickrell 2009, Parnell et al. 2010,
277 Fumagalli 2011).

278
279 One target of ADAM17 activity is the epidermal growth factor receptor (EGFR) signaling
280 pathway (Lee et al. 2003). Phenotypes observed in mice with mutant EGF receptors
281 (including changes in body weight [Blake et al. 2017]) suggest that changes in EGFR
282 signaling as a consequence of deficit ADAM17 activity may contribute to the metabolic
283 phenotypes seen in *Adam17* mutants (Gelling et al. 2008). We tested for an
284 overrepresentation of genes in the EGFR signaling pathway in the set of genes with clinal
285 expression by annotating genes to pathways using the PANTHER database (Thomas et al.
286 2003). We saw a 1.57-fold enrichment of genes in this pathway compared to a background
287 set of genes expressed in the liver (hypergeometric test, $p=0.018$). We also find that the
288 gene that encodes the only known physiological inhibitor of *Adam17*, *Timp3* (Le Gall et al.
289 2010), is differentially expressed between the northern and southern populations (Figure
290 S11, $q=0.09$) and has expression that is correlated with that of *Adam17* (Figure S11,
291 Pearson's correlation, $p=0.02$, $R^2=0.09$). Unlike *Adam17*, *Timp3* expression is not associated
292 with body mass (Pearson's correlation, $p=0.054$), although our sample size may not be
293 sufficient to detect an association.

294

295 The data above clearly suggest that regulatory variation at *Adam17* and *Bcat2* underlies
296 adaptive differences in body mass, but they do not identify the specific causal mutations. To
297 identify candidate casual mutations, we used annotations from the mouse ENCODE project
298 (Mouse ENCODE Consortium et al. 2012) to search for putative regulatory elements near
299 the *Adam17* and *Bcat2* *cis*-eQTLs. The *Adam17* *cis*-eQTL is in LD with SNPs through a
300 proximal enhancer and in the *Adam17* promoter, both of which are active in the livers of
301 adult mice. Low-coverage whole genome data show that there are variants segregating
302 within this enhancer in these populations (Figures S12,S13)(whole genome data from [(M
303 Phifer-Rixey, Bi K, KG Ferris, MJ Sheehan, D Lin, KL Mack, SM Keeble, TA Suzuki, JM Good,
304 MW Nachman, *in press*]). Two of the *Adam17* promoter variants are also clinal outliers
305 (Figure S14). The *Bcat2* *cis*-eQTL is within an intronic region and is not in LD with
306 annotated regulatory elements that are active in liver tissue.

307

308 ***Expression modules are correlated with body size variation in natural populations of***
309 ***house mice***

310 Next, we used a gene co-expression network approach to identify biologically related gene
311 sets associated with phenotypic variation in these populations. Weighted Gene Co-
312 expression Network Analysis (WGCNA) was used to identify groups of genes with highly
313 correlated expression, called co-expression modules (Langfelder et al. 2008)(see Methods).
314 Expression modules were assigned for male and female mice separately, and then male-
315 female consensus modules were created to identify co-expression patterns shared across
316 sexes.

317

318 Co-expression modules were then tested for correlations with measures of body size
319 (Figures S15,S16,S17). Five expression modules in males and five expression modules in
320 females were correlated with trait variation (Figure S18). Trait-associated modules were
321 enriched for a number of Gene Ontology (GO) categories compared to the background set
322 of genes expressed in the liver, including growth factor binding ($q=5.3 \times 10^{-8}$) and lipid
323 metabolic process ($q=1.2 \times 10^{-2}$). None of the male-female consensus modules were
324 significantly correlated with organismal traits, indicating that associations between co-
325 expression modules and traits are sex-specific (Figure S17).

326
327 Focusing on the modules with the highest trait correlations (royalblue module in females,
328 $\text{corr}=0.92$, $p=2 \times 10^{-8}$ and black module in males, $\text{corr}=0.8$, $p=5 \times 10^{-8}$, for body mass
329 index), we annotated genes with mutant phenotypes collected from Mouse Genome
330 Informatics (MGI)(Blake et al. 2017). Supporting the association between these expression
331 modules and phenotypic variation, we found that many of the genes with high connectivity
332 in these modules have mutant phenotypes related to body size or metabolism (Figure 4).
333 For example, the most connected gene in the female royalblue module is *Nr2c2*. Mutant
334 phenotypes for *Nr2c2* include changes in eating behavior, energy homeostasis, body mass,
335 size, and blood chemistry. Similarly, highly connected genes in the male black module (e.g.,
336 *Col3a1*, *Col1a1*, *Col1a2*, *Col5a2*, *Sparc*, *Bcam*, *Fstl1*, *Igfbp5*, *Cpe*, *Cav1*, *Lamc1*, *Ltbp3*, *Krt7*)
337 show mutant phenotypes related to body mass and body size. Four of these genes
338 (*Adamts2*, *Col1a1*, *Col1a2*, *Sparc*) were also identified as hub genes in the module most
339 highly correlated with mouse body weight in another study utilizing an F2 laboratory cross
340 (Ghazalpour et al. 2009).

341
342 Finally, we used the co-expression dataset to identify regulatory variation within modules
343 associated with body size. Within the body size associated modules (Figure S18), we
344 associated 189 genes with a *cis*-eQTL, including several highly connected genes in the sex-
345 specific modules with the highest trait correlations (Figure 4). As in the previous analysis,
346 we then searched for genes with a *cis*-eQTL that co-localized with a clinal sequence variant.
347 We identified 15 genes with clinally varying *cis*-eQTL in the body size associated modules
348 (Table S7). We found that gene expression for 4 of these 15 genes was significantly
349 correlated with BMI in one sex (Females: *Ube2q2*, $p=0.0002$; *3110082117Rik*, $p=0.0027$;
350 *Cep85*, $p=0.017$; Males: *Pygb* $p=0.035$). *Cis*-eQTL associated with these genes were not
351 significantly associated with BMI, however, our study is also underpowered for identifying
352 sex-specific associations. The correlation between gene expression and BMI and the
353 presence of clinal *cis*-eQTL make these genes of interest for future study.

354

355 Discussion

356 Identifying loci and genes that underlie adaptive variation within and between populations
357 is a major goal in evolutionary biology. One method used to identify such variants are
358 genomic scans for selection. While many genomic scans attempt to link sequence variants
359 to phenotypes through gene annotations and knockout models, most fail to connect
360 genotypes to phenotypes in natural populations. Here, we used expression data from
361 natural populations of house mice collected along an environmental gradient to link
362 regulatory variation at two genes (*Adam17* and *Bcat2*) with body mass variation. We have
363 linked these genes to body mass variation by 1) associating *cis*-eQTL with the expression of

364 *Adam17* and *Bcat2*, 2) associating the *Adam17* and *Bcat2* cis-eQTL with body mass
365 variation, and 3) the associating the expression of these two genes with body mass
366 variation. Supporting the association we see between these genes and body mass, mutant
367 alleles for *Adam17* and *Bcat2* in laboratory mice are associated with changes in body mass
368 and metabolism (Wu et al. 2004, She et al. 2007, Serino et al. 2007, Gelling et al. 2008, Blake
369 et al. 2017). Interestingly, these two genes account for a substantial proportion of
370 phenotypic variation in body mass among the mice studied here, with large effect sizes
371 compared to those measured in GWAS for most complex traits. For traits under stabilizing
372 selection within populations (as in virtually all human GWAS) effect sizes are expected to
373 be much smaller than in comparisons between populations experiencing strong divergent
374 selection, as is the case here. The effect size of mutations underlying traits under stabilizing
375 selection within populations is expected to be smaller than the effect sizes of mutations in
376 the early stages of an adaptive walk (Orr 1998, Remington 2015).

377

378 In addition to identifying regulatory variation at specific genes associated with body mass,
379 we also used a systems biology approach to identify co-expression patterns associated with
380 body size variation in wild mice. Gene co-expression networks capture biologically relevant
381 relationships between genes that can be useful for understanding gene functions and
382 interactions. Here we have used this information to characterize co-expression modules
383 that were associated with body size and identified regulatory variation within these co-
384 expressed gene sets that may play a role in body size variation.

385

386 The tendency for body size to increase with latitude (i.e., Bergmann's Rule) has been
387 documented in many species, including humans (Ashton 2000, Ruff 2002, Foster 2013),
388 and reflects an evolved response to differences in temperature (Bergmann 1847). In
389 humans, many candidate genes for metabolic disorders, such as obesity, also show
390 evidence of climatic adaptation (Hancock et al. 2008). Intriguingly, in humans, both
391 *ADAM17* and *BCAT2* have been implicated in metabolic disease (Arribas et al. 2009,
392 Newgard et al. 2009, Junyent et al. 2010, Menghini et al. 2013), and variation at *Adam17*
393 has been identified in genome scans for selection (Pickrell 2009, Parnell et al. 2010,
394 Fumagalli 2011) in addition to its association with body weight and obesity risk (Junyent et
395 al. 2010).

396

397 Finally, this study provides evidence for the role of *cis*- regulatory variation in
398 environmental adaptation in natural populations. While *cis*- regulatory variation has long
399 been hypothesized to play a major role in adaptive phenotypic evolution, connecting
400 regulatory variation with adaptive organismal phenotypes remains tricky. Combining eQTL
401 mapping with genomic scans, as was done here, may be a fruitful approach for identifying
402 adaptive regulatory variation in other natural systems.

403

404 **Methods**

405 *Sampling*

406 Mice used in this study were collected from 5 sampling locations (Table S1, File S1) along a
407 latitudinal gradient in the eastern United States. Mice were sacrificed in the field and
408 measurements (body weight, total body length, tail length) were taken at time of collection.

409 Body mass index (BMI) was calculated as body weight/length² (g/mm²). Liver tissue was
410 collected in RNAlater and stored at 4°C overnight and then frozen to -80°C until RNA
411 extraction with the Qiagen's RNeasy Mini Kit.

412

413 *mRNA-sequencing and mapping*

414 For each sample, 100 base-pair paired-end reads were sequenced on the Illumina HiSeq
415 4000 platform. RNA-seq reads were mapped with TopHat2 (Kim et al. 2013) to personal
416 reference genomes, created by inserting variants into the mouse reference (GRCm38) and
417 masking indels (see Supplemental material and methods). We removed genes with fewer
418 than 500 reads across samples (i.e., an average of 10 reads per sample). Gene expression
419 was then quantile normalized and corrected for hidden factors and known co-variates
420 (individual sex and the first 6 principle components from genotype data to account for
421 population structure) using a Bayesian approach (Stegle et al. 2010, Stegle et al.
422 2012)(Figure S19,S20).

423

424 *Exome capture sequencing and identification of clinal outliers*

425 The exome-sequence data was used to identify clinal outliers (M Phifer-Rixey, Bi K, KG
426 Ferris, MJ Sheehan, D Lin, KL Mack, SM Keeble, TA Suzuki, JM Good, MW Nachman, *in*
427 *press*)(see also Supplemental material and methods). Libraries were enriched for exonic
428 target regions and subsequently 100-bp paired end reads were sequenced on the Illumina
429 HiSeq 2000 platform, resulting in 2 GB of raw sequence data per individual. Forty-one of
430 the 50 individuals for which there is exome- sequence data have matched RNA-seq libraries
431 (see Table S1). Reads were mapped with Bowtie 2 (Langmead and Salzberg 2012) and

432 allele frequencies were estimated with ANGSD (Korneliussen et al. 2014). LFMM (Frichot et
433 al. 2013) was used to identify covariance between environmental and genetic variation
434 (see Supplemental material and methods).

435

436 *cis-eQTL discovery*

437 We performed *cis-eQTL* mapping using variant calls from RNA-seq and exome data (see
438 Supplemental material and methods). One limitation of this method is that the genotyping
439 dataset is limited to sites represented by these data (i.e., variant calls are largely limited to
440 exomic regions of the genome). Consequently, many causal sites may not be typed and
441 variants associated with expression may be tagging causal sites in LD. For the exome
442 dataset, depth per site of the targeted exome was $\sim 15\times$. For genes represented in the
443 analysis, on average per individual we had sufficient coverage for $\sim 32\%$ of bases within
444 gene boundaries and $\sim 15\%$ of bases in the 200-kb boundary used as the cut-off for *cis*-
445 eQTL mapping (Table S8).

446

447 To identify *cis*-acting eQTLs, we used a linear mixed model applied in the program GEMMA
448 (Zhou et al. 2012) on expression residuals to associate expression with sequence variants
449 (see Supplemental material and methods). A relatedness matrix was computed and
450 included as a covariate. We retained the variant with the lowest *p*-value for each gene and
451 then performed a Bonferroni's correction. Variants with Bonferroni corrected *p*-values of $<$
452 0.05 were considered significant.

453

454 *Weighted gene co-expression analysis*

455 We carried out a weighted gene co-expression network analysis (WGCNA) on expression
456 residuals following WGCNA protocols (Langfelder et al. 2008) to create expression
457 modules. Each module is summarized by a representative eigengene, the first principle
458 component of a given module. Each gene's expression was correlated with the module
459 eigengene as a measure of the gene's centrality to the module, called module membership.

460

461 **Data access**

462 Illumina sequencing data from this project has been submitted to the NCBI BioProject
463 (<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/bioproject>) under the accession number PRJNA407812.
464 Museum accession numbers for samples used in this study are available in File S1.

465

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474

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748
749

750 **Figure Legends**

751

752 **Figure 1.** A. Sampling locations along the east coast of North America (climate map
 753 obtained from NOAA, National Weather Service). B. Consistent with Bergmann's Rule, body
 754 mass in mice increases with increasing latitude (Pearson's correlation=0.34, $p=0.018$)(see
 755 Table S9)(See Supplemental material and methods).

756

757 **Figure 2.** Overlap between genomic scans identifies regulatory variants that are candidates
 758 for clinal adaptation. A. The LFMM |z-scores| for each SNP vs. chromosome position. SNPs
 759 with |z-scores|>2 were considered clinal outliers. B. Manhattan plot of *cis*-eQTL. Shown in
 760 red are significant SNPs. C. Manhattan plot of gene starting position vs. the correlation
 761 between gene expression and latitude. Points labeled in orange are genes for which
 762 expression is significantly correlated with latitude ($p<0.05$). On the outside are ideograms
 763 with the location of genes for which these three signals (A,B,C) overlap. Figure created with
 764 Circos (Krzywinski et al. 2009).

765

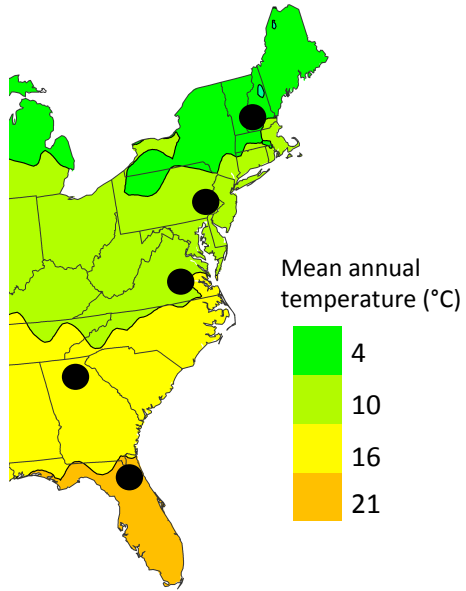
766 **Figure 3.** *Adam17* is a candidate for adaptive differences in body mass among mice in
 767 eastern North America. A. Expression of *Adam17* is correlated with latitude ($p=0.032$,
 768 Pearson's correlation=-0.30). Sex was not a significant predictor of *Adam17* expression. B.
 769 A SNP at Chr12:21332631 was identified as a *cis*-eQTL for *Adam17*. C. Allele frequencies of
 770 Chr12:21332631 in five populations. D. The LFMM |z-scores| for sites on Chromosome 12
 771 versus position. Points above the red line were considered clinal outliers in this study. The
 772 red box represents the peak in which Chr12:21332631 is found. E. Nearby outlier SNPs in
 773 LD with Chr12:21332631. Correlations (r^2 , %) are given in each block. The z-scores for
 774 each site's association with latitude are given in parentheses. F. *Adam17* expression is
 775 significantly associated with body mass when controlling for latitude (Pearson's
 776 correlation, $p=4.6 \times 10^{-4}$, $R^2=0.22$). G. Genotype at Chr12:21332631, the *cis*-eQTL for
 777 *Adam17*, significantly trends with body size when latitude is controlled for (Cochran-
 778 Armitage trend test, $p=0.034$).

779

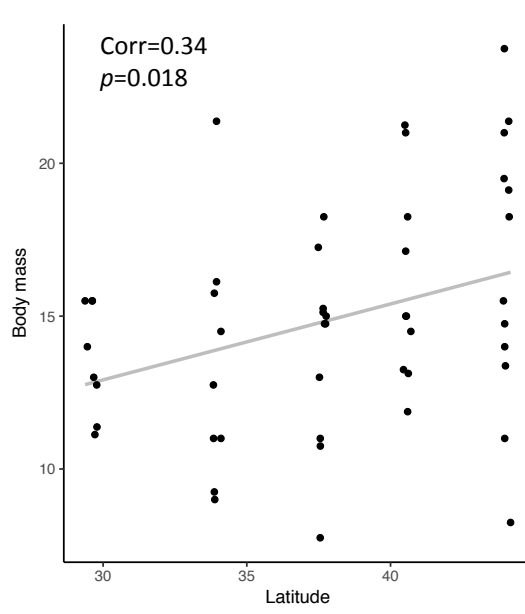
780 **Figure 4.** Visualization of the most connected genes in the female "royalblue" (A) and the
 781 male "black" with co-expression modules with VisANT (Hu et al. 2008) (B). The royalblue
 782 module is associated with BMI ($p=2 \times 10^{-8}$) and body length variation ($p=6 \times 10^{-6}$). The
 783 black module is associated with BMI ($p=5 \times 10^{-8}$), body mass ($p=0.001$), and body length
 784 variation ($p=3 \times 10^{-10}$). Blue circles represent genes for which we identified a *cis*-eQTL that
 785 explains a component of expression variation. Circles with black borders are genes with
 786 mutant phenotypes related to body size or metabolism. Phenotype information was
 787 collected from MGI (Blake et al. 2017).

788

A

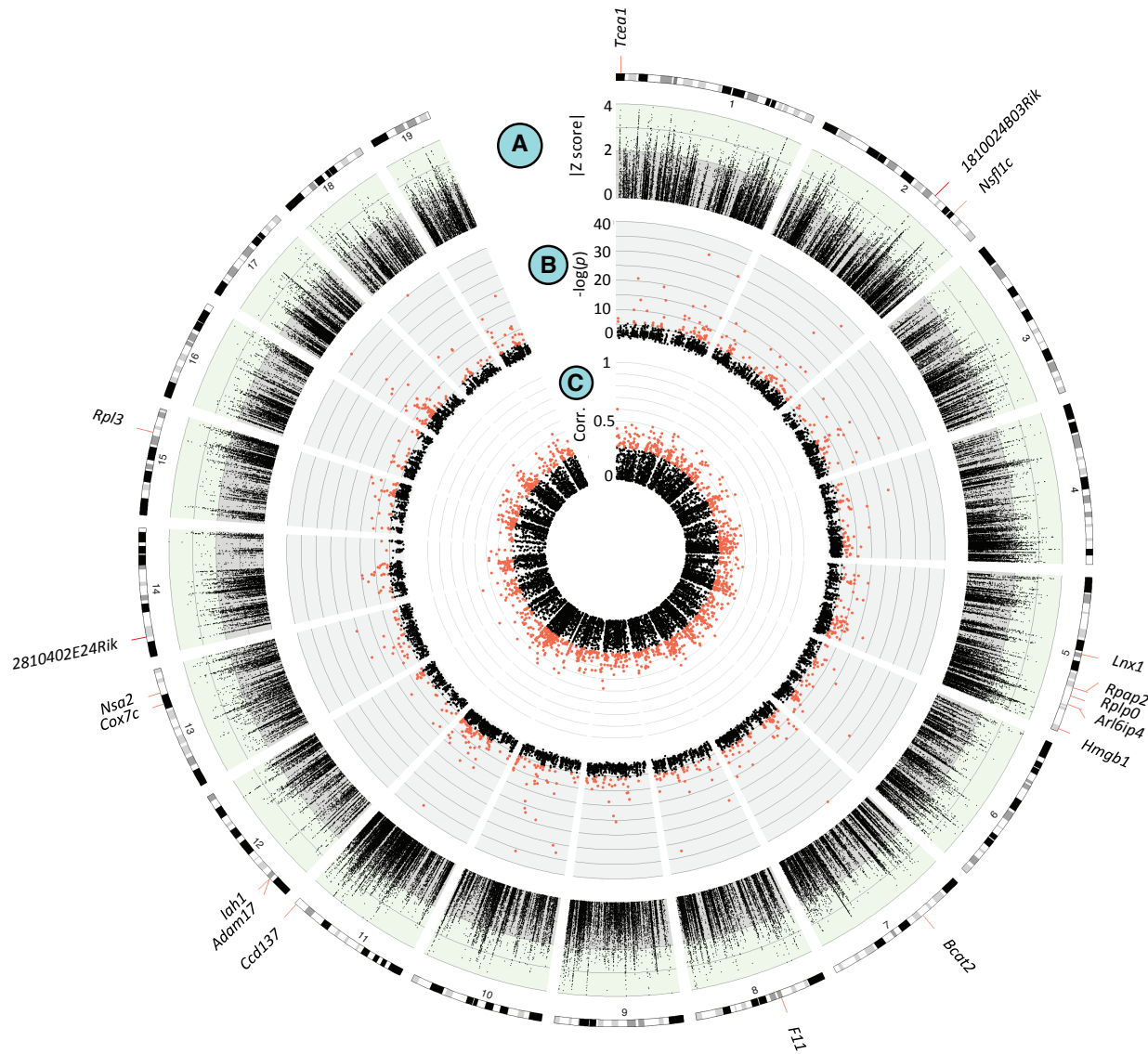


B

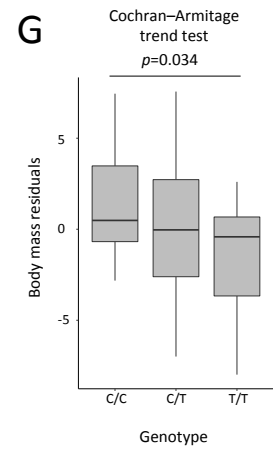
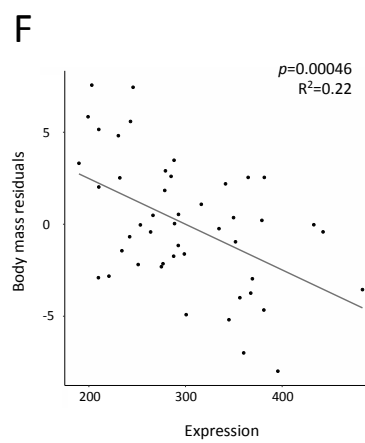
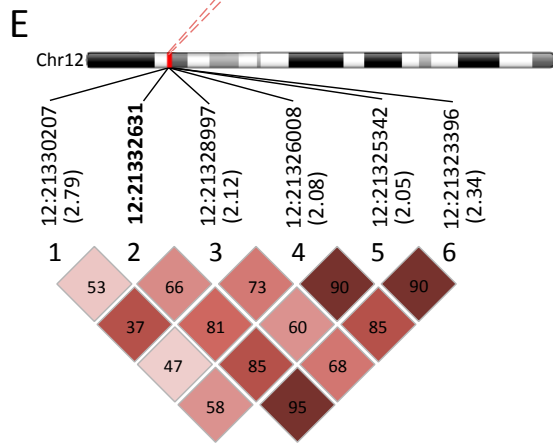
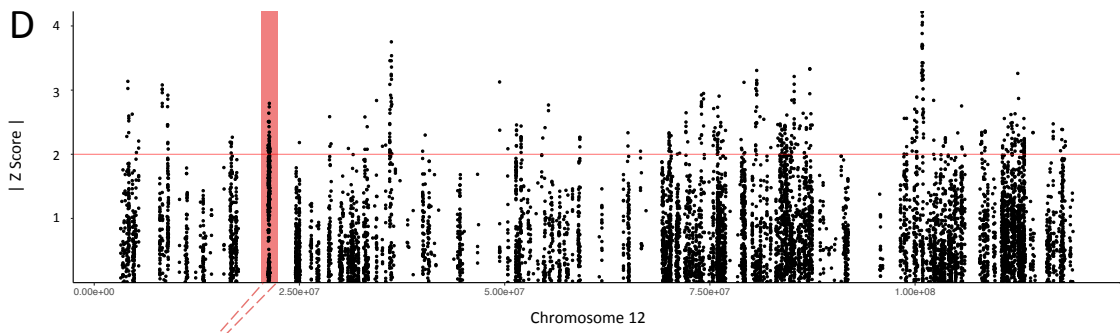
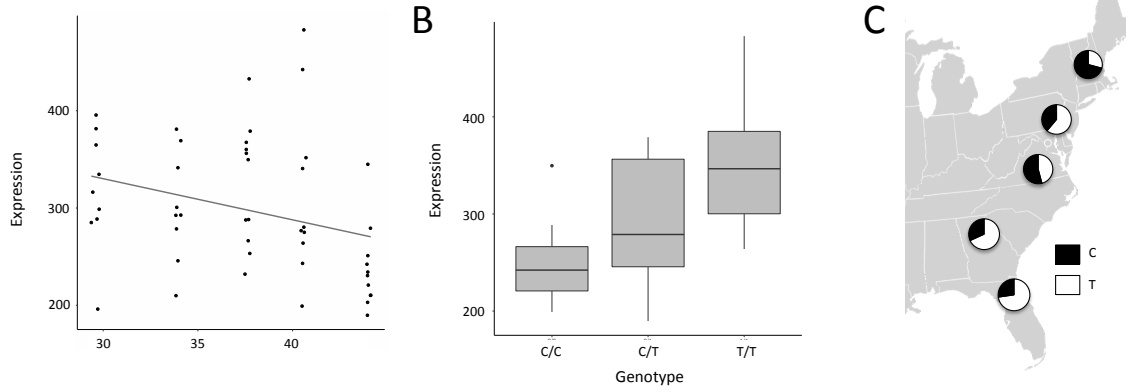


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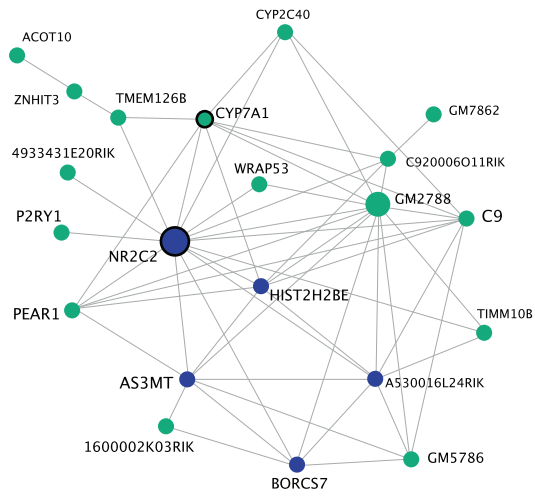
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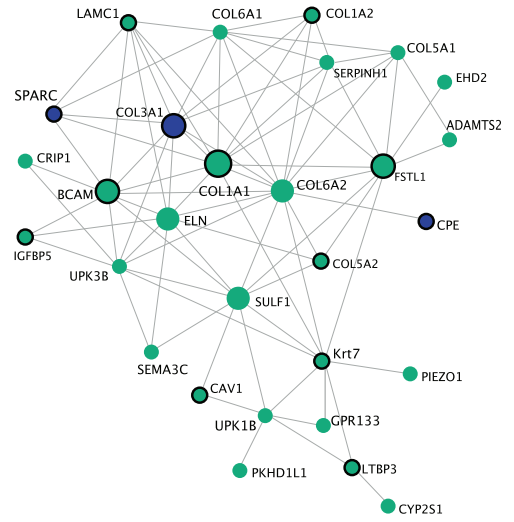
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A Female royalblue module



B Male black module



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797 **Table 1.** *cis*-eQTL that co-localize or are within the same LD block as a clinal outlier that
 798 also show expression changes correlated with latitude.

Symbol	Correlation with latitude	<i>p</i> -value	Phenotypes ¹
<i>Tcea1</i>	0.6	3.66E-06	cardiovascular, embryo, growth/size/body, hematopoietic, homeostasis, limbs/digits/tail, liver/biliary, mortality/aging
<i>Iah1</i>	-0.43	0.0018	cardiovascular, limbs/digits/tail, skeleton
<i>Lnx1</i>	-0.41	0.0035	hematopoietic, immune
<i>2810402E24Rik</i>	0.38	0.0073	
<i>Arl6ip4</i>	0.36	0.0096	
<i>Nsa2</i>	-0.36	0.011	
<i>Rpl3</i>	0.35	0.014	
<i>Bcat2</i>	0.34	0.016	adipose, behavior, growth/size/body, homeostasis, renal/urinary
<i>1810024B03Rik</i>	-0.32	0.023	
<i>Rplp0</i>	0.32	0.023	hematopoietic, immune
<i>Rpap2</i>	-0.32	0.023	
<i>F11</i>	0.31	0.027	hematopoietic, homeostasis, nervous system
<i>Hmgb1</i>	0.31	0.031	endocrine/exocrine, homeostasis, immune, cellular, hematopoietic, mortality/aging, behavior, growth/size/body, mortality/aging, respiratory, vision/eye
<i>Adam17</i>	-0.3	0.032	cardiovascular, cellular, digestive/alimentary, embryo, growth/size/body, hematopoietic, homeostasis, immune, integument, mortality/aging, muscle, nervous system, pigmentation, respiratory, vision/eye
<i>Cox7c</i>	-0.3	0.035	homeostasis, mortality/aging
<i>Ccdc137</i>	0.29	0.041	
<i>Nsfl1c</i>	0.28	0.0496	

799 ¹Abnormal phenotypes in targeted gene mutants, collected from Mouse Genome Informatics database (MGI)
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