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**Genome-wide identification of signatures of positive selection in African
admixed zebu cattle**

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**Thesis submitted to the University of Nottingham for the degree of Doctor
of Philosophy**

March 2015



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Declaration

I hereby declare that this thesis has not been previously presented or submitted for examination to this or any other university. References to other people's work are duly acknowledged. The work described herein has been carried out by me except otherwise stated.

Hussain Bahbahani
University of Nottingham
March 2015

Abstract

The small East African shorthorn zebu (EASZ) is one of the cattle types in East Africa. It is an ancient, stabilised zebu-taurine admixed cattle population. In comparison to the recently introduced, highly productive, exotic taurine cattle, EASZ are preferred by local farmers due to their superior adaptability to the local tropical African environment. They require minimal veterinary care, may sustain themselves on poor feed quality and are thermotolerant. Understanding the genetic control of their adaptations will help sustainable breeding improvement programs, both within populations and through crossbreeding. An important step to achieve this goal is characterising the genome of this indigenous cattle population and identifying signatures of positive selection.

Several advanced tools are now available for genomic studies in cattle, including genome-wide single nucleotide polymorphism (SNP) arrays and next-generation sequencing of the full genome and the exome. Here, low- and high-density, genome-wide SNP data were first analysed to identify candidate signatures of positive selection in EASZ using allele frequencies, linkage disequilibrium and composite tests. Because of limited genome coverage and SNPs' ascertainment bias issues, the full genome (ABI SOLiD sequence data) of 10 pooled EASZ samples was also investigated for candidate sweep regions by assessing the pooled heterozygosity (H_p) of 100 kb sliding genome windows. The full exome sequences of an additional 10 EASZ were also explored to identify signals of copy number variants (CNVs) in their coding sequences and to estimate the allele frequencies of specific candidate causative mutations. Mitochondrial DNA (mtDNA) sequences of African cattle, including 13 EASZ samples, were also analysed to investigate their diversity, as well as to identify signatures of positive selection.

Analysing the EASZ genome with the Illumina BovineSNP50 BeadChip v.1, using two Extended Haplotype Homozygosity (EHH)-based (intra-population iHS and inter-population Rsb) analyses and an inter-population F_{ST} approach,

identified 24 candidate genome regions under positive selection. Genes associated with adaptation to the African environment (e.g., reproduction and fertility and immune response) were found within these regions. A total of 18 regions had previously been identified in tropical-adapted cattle, while four regions were shown to be under positive selection in commercial breeds. Out of these 24 regions, six showed a substantial ($\geq \pm 1$ standard deviation from the mean) excess (one region) or deficiency (five regions) in the Asian zebu ancestry, thereby inferring the possible origin of the selected haplotypes.

The genome coverage and the SNPs' ascertainment bias issues were addressed in Chapters 3 and 4 by using the Illumina BovineHD BeadChip and the full EASZ genome sequence to detect signatures of positive selection on EASZ autosomes and the BTA X sex chromosome. A total of 101 and 165 autosomal candidate sweep regions were identified via genome-wide SNP analyses and full genome Hp analysis, respectively. Out of these regions, 35 were common between the two groups. The analyses of high-density, genome-wide SNP data of zebu cattle populations from Uganda and Nigeria allowed us to classify 15 and seven regions as East African zebu-sharing and East and West African zebu-sharing candidate regions, respectively. Furthermore, the sizes of these regions were fine mapped up to ~ 93 kb. In the EASZ BTA X sex chromosome (Chapter 4), 20 candidate regions (six by Rsb, two by iHS, and twelve by Hp) were identified. Four of these regions were also detected in zebu cattle populations from Uganda or Nigeria (two in each population). Seven regions demonstrated a substantial deviation from the mean zebu ancestry, thereby suggesting the possible origins of the selected haplotypes (three indicine and four taurine origins).

Genes and quantitative trait loci (QTL) associated with adaptive traits (e.g., reproduction, immunity and heat stress) were found within the identified candidate regions. Several SNPs and indels (insertion/deletion) were detected using the 10 pooled EASZ full genome sequences. Four autosomal and five BTA X non-synonymous variants were considered as possible candidate causative mutations targeted by selection, although none were fixed in our

population. Qualitative signals of CNV (multiple copies) in 17 autosomal and two BTA X genes within the candidate regions were identified using the EASZ exome sequences.

The full mtDNA sequences of 13 EASZ samples were affiliated to three T1 sub-haplogroups (T1a, T1b and T1b1). Overall, no selective advantage was found to be associated with taurine mtDNA over the zebu type, which is in agreement with a male-mediated introgression of Asian zebu cattle into African taurine cattle; this explains the sole presence of taurine mtDNA in African cattle. Purifying selection was found to be the main selective pressure on bovine mtDNA, with less selective constraints on the ATP6 and ATP8 genes. Interestingly, in the Cox-2 gene of the T1b/ T1b1 sub-haplogroups (together the most common sub-haplogroups in African cattle), a single nucleotide mutation leading to an amino acid change may confer a selective advantage, which calls for further data and analyses.

Brought into Africa and shaped by their environment, African cattle represent a unique livestock genetic resource for sustainable food production on the continent. This thesis has revealed that selection pressures have uniquely shaped the genome of African cattle. It is just a first milestone. Now, we need to identify the causative mutation(s), which will require full and targeted genome sequencing of a large number of animals and populations. Then, the door will be opened to use the traditional marker-assisted introgression approach and/or genetic engineering techniques, such as transcription activator-like effector nucleases (TALENs) and CRISPR (clustered, regularly interspaced, short, palindromic repeats)/Cas9 (CRISPR-associated) system, to introduce the favourable mutations into new 'composite' cattle for the benefit of farmers and inhabitants of the African continent.

Published papers

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Acronyms and abbreviations

AG	Adamawa Gudali
AO	Ankole
AZ	Azawak
BC	Before Christ
BJ	Bunaji
BP	Before present
bp	Base pair
BTA	Bos taurus taurus chromosome
CNV	Copy number variation
CRISPR/Cas	Clustered, regularly interspaced, short, palindromic repeats/ CRISPR-associated
EASZ	East African shorthorn zebu
GATK	Genome Analysis Toolkit
GIR	Gir
HD	High density
HOL	Holstein-Friesian
IBS	Identity-by-state
iHS	Integrated Haplotype Score
indel	insertion/deletion
ILRI	International Livestock Research Institute
JER	Jersey
kb	Kilo base pair
KR	Karamojong zebu
LD	Linkage disequilibrium
MAF	Minor allele frequency
Mb	Mega base pair
MT	Muturu
mtDNA	Mitochondrial DNA
NDM	N'Dama
NEL	Nellore
NG	Nanda
NGR	Nigeria
OR	Red bororo
QC	Quality control
qRT-PCR	Quantitative real-time polymerase chain reaction
QTL	Quantitative trait loci
SD	Standard deviation
SDOC	Standardised depth of coverage
SNP	Single nucleotide polymorphism
SO	Sokoto Gudali
TALENs	Transcription activator-like effector nucleases
UGN	Uganda
WD	Wadara
YK	Yakanaji
ZS	Serere zebu

Chapter one

Opening scene

History of cattle

Cattle types and their geographical distribution

Bos is one of the five genera of the Bovidae family, which also contains *Bubalus*, *Syncerus*, *Bibos* and *Bison*. Ten species are currently recognized within the *Bos* genus, including *Bos taurus*, which is divided into two subspecies: *Bos taurus taurus* (taurine cattle) and *Bos taurus indicus* (zebu or indicine cattle) (Epstein, 1971, Epstein and Mason, 1984, Loftus et al., 1994, MacHugh et al., 1997) (Figure 1.1).

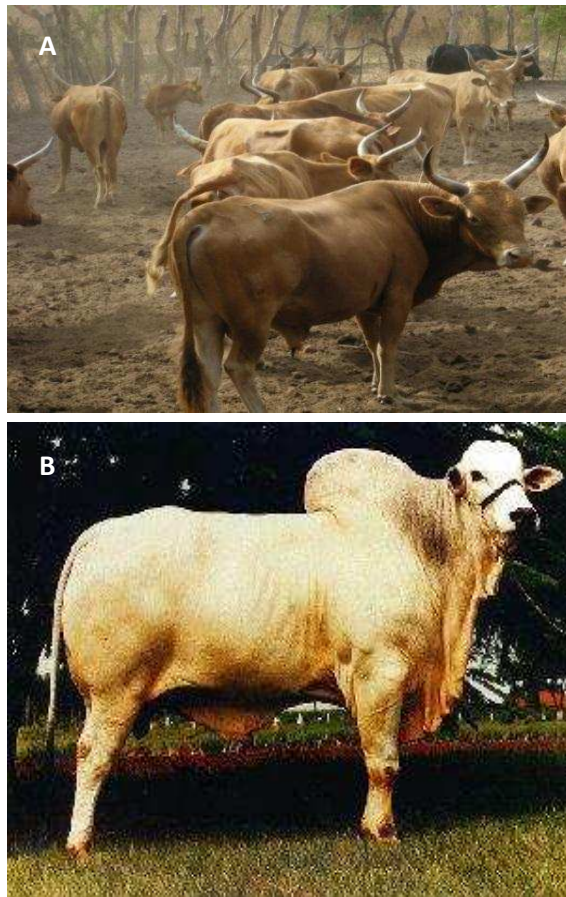


Figure 1.1: The humpless *Bos taurus taurus* cattle (African taurine: N'Dama) (A). The humped *Bos taurus indicus* cattle (Asian zebu: Nellore) (B).

Morphologically, these two cattle types are mainly differentiated by the presence of a thoracic hump and large dewlap in zebu cattle. Based on horn size, cattle have been divided into long-horned and short-horned cattle. Examples of long-horned cattle include the African taurine (N'Dama) and African zebu (Ankole). The European taurine (Holstein-Friesian) and Asian zebu (Nellore) are both two examples of the short-horned type (Epstein, 1971). The taurine and zebu karyotypes are identical, with 29 autosomal pairs and one sex chromosome pair, with the exception of the Y chromosome, which is sub-metacentric in taurine cattle and acrocentric in zebu cattle (Kieffer and Cartwright, 1968). In Africa, ancient zebu-taurine crossbreeds are often called sanga (Epstein, 1971). This type of cattle, which includes Sheko, Tuli and Nguni cattle, are mainly characterized by their small cervico-thoracic hump (Epstein, 1971, Frisch et al., 1997).

Excluding commercial breeds that often have a worldwide distribution (e.g., Holstein-Friesian) (FAO, 2007b), indigenous cattle types/populations show specific geographic distributions (Figure 1.2) (FAO, 2007a). They are found in all habitats, except in extreme environments such as deserts (e.g., the Sahara), polar and circumpolar areas.

A distinct geographic distribution pattern shaped by human history (e.g., centres of domestication, human migration and trading) and environmental adaptation is observed in the two main cattle types (zebu and taurine). The Indian subcontinent, South America, and most of Africa are mostly populated with zebu cattle. In the more temperate conditions between Western Europe and Eastern Asia, taurine cattle are widespread (Bradley et al., 1998). Taurine cattle (e.g., Baladi, N'Dama and Muturu) are also present in Northern Africa and the humid and sub-humid regions of West Africa (Epstein, 1971, Rege and Tawah, 1999, Porter, 2002).

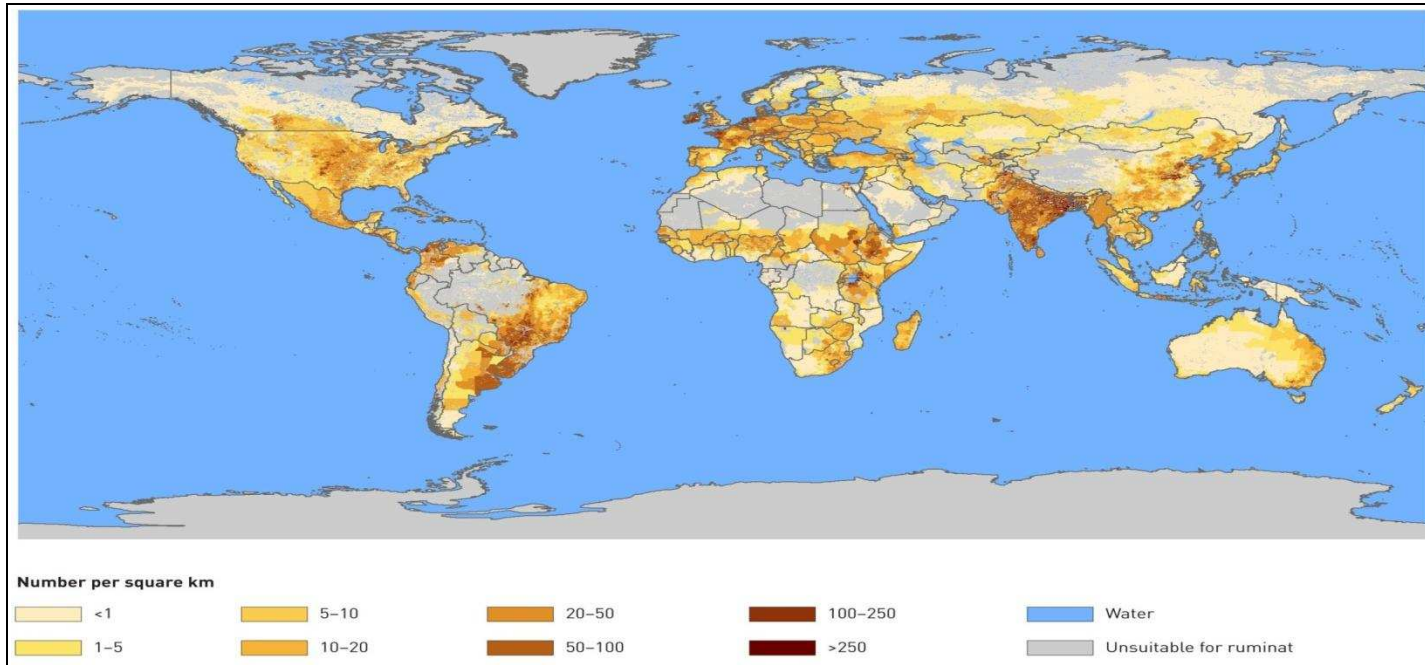


Figure 1.2: The worldwide distribution of cattle and their densities (FAO, 2007a).

Cattle domestication and genetic variation

The geographic origin and the number of centre(s) of domestication for cattle are still debated. Molecular and archaeological evidence supports two or three domestication centres for cattle (the Near East, the Indian subcontinent and North Africa) (Adametz, 1920, Grigson, 1991, Loftus et al., 1994, Bradley et al., 1996, MacHugh et al., 1997, Stock and Gifford-Gonzalez, 2013).

The two cattle subspecies were domesticated from different ancestral auroch *Bos primigenius* populations. They have been divided into three continental subspecies: *Bos primigenius namadicus* (Asia), *Bos primigenius opisthonomus* (Africa) and *Bos primigenius primigenius* (Europe). The last auroch was killed in 1627 in Poland (Epstein, 1971).

Initially, it was proposed that both taurine and zebu cattle arose from the wild ancestor *Bos primigenius namadicus* via a single domestication event around 10,000 years BP in the Near East (Epstein, 1971, Epstein and Mason, 1984, Payne, 1991). This was disproved by Loftus et al. (1994) through mtDNA analysis of taurine and zebu cattle from three different continents (Europe, Africa and Asia). In this study, there was a clear sequence dichotomy between Indian zebu and taurine cattle from Africa and Europe, with an estimated divergence date of at least 200,000 years BP, well before the Neolithic period. This clearly indicates that zebu and taurine cattle were domesticated separately.

A subsequent mtDNA analysis by Bradley et al. (1996) indicated that within the taurine, European and African continental-specific mtDNA D-loop lineages are present with a divergence dated to 22,000–26,000 years BP. Therefore, these two domesticated lineages could have expanded from two different putative centres of domestication in the Near East (5,000 BP) and in North Africa (9,000 years BP). Autosomal microsatellite analysis (MacHugh et al., 1997) further supported a divergence between the zebu and taurine genomes about 700,000 years BP, as well as a divergence between African and European taurine cattle 200,000 years BP.

More recently, mtDNA analyses of several Asian zebu cattle populations have shown that the previously defined zebu haplogroups I1 and I2 (Baig et al., 2005, Lai et al., 2006) demonstrated higher nucleotide diversity in Indian subcontinent populations than in other parts of Asia (Chen et al., 2010). In parallel with previous archaeological evidence (Meadow, 1993), this supports the hypothesis that modern zebu cattle were domesticated from their ancestor auroch *Bos primigenius namadicus* on the Indian subcontinent, likely in the Indus Valley.

The Near East as the centre of domestication for taurine cattle has been supported archeologically by the discovery of ancient faunal remains of domestic and wild cattle at Çatal Hüyük in Anatolia by 7,800 years BP (Perkins, 1969). Additionally, higher mtDNA diversity has been observed in taurine cattle from the Near East, with several haplogroups (T, T2, T3 and, rarely, T1), than in European (haplogroup T3) and African (haplogroup T1) cattle (Troy et al., 2001) (Figure 1.3). The phylogenetic topology of these haplogroups, i.e., the star-like pattern, suggests a past population expansion. This further validates the view that taurine cattle were domesticated in the Near East from the wild auroch *Bos primigenius* and subsequently migrated to Europe and Africa.

The scarcity of the African mitochondrial haplogroup (T1) in the putative taurine domestication centre, the Near East (Figure 1.3), has raised the question of a separate African taurine domestication event in North Africa. This hypothesis was introduced previously by some archaeological studies (Adamez, 1920, Wendorf, 1998) and discussed later by Bradley et al. (1996) based on mtDNA analysis.

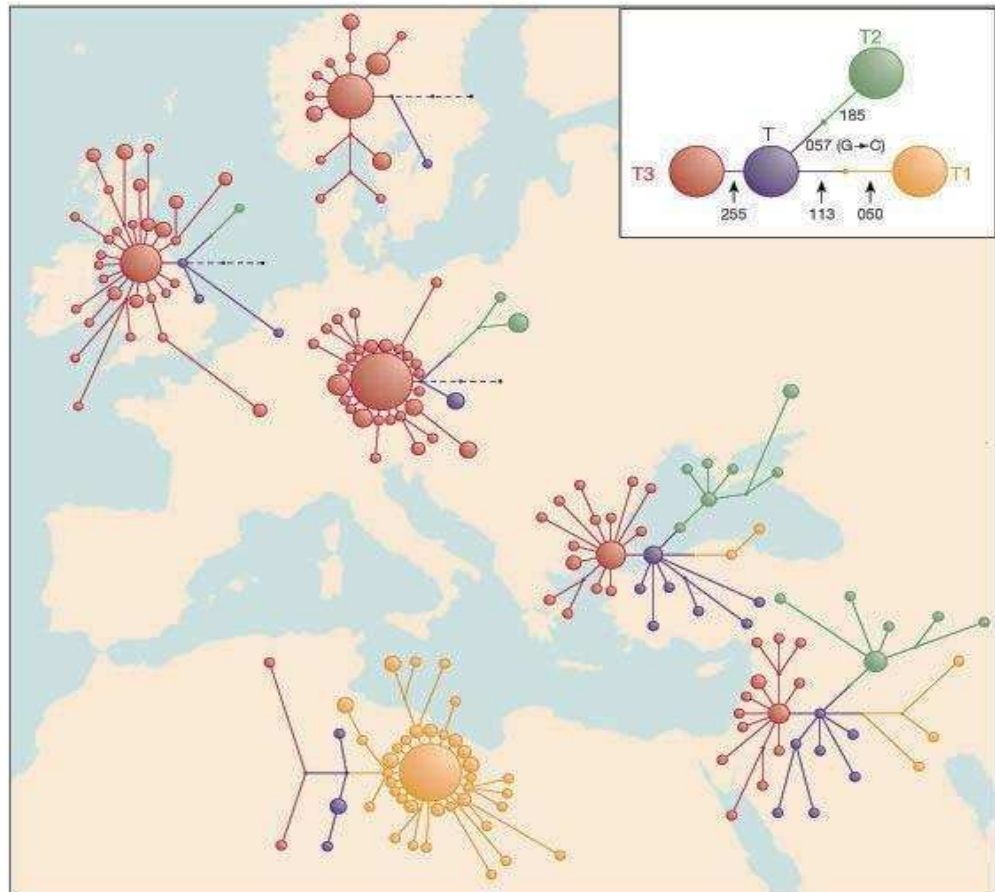


Figure 1.3: The pattern of domestic taurine cattle mtDNA haplogroup diversity in Africa, Europe and the Near East (Troy et al., 2001).

However, recent molecular evidence has cast doubt on a possible African centre of origin for domestic cattle (Achilli et al., 2008, Bonfiglio et al., 2012). Indeed, a full mtDNA analysis has shown that not only a small number of mutations separate the European and African D-loops, but also the full African mtDNA variation is embedded within the diversity of European and Near East mtDNA variation.

African cattle and East African shorthorn zebu

The history of African cattle started with the migration of taurine populations from their centre(s) of domestication in the Near East to Northeast Africa through Egypt about 5,000 year BC, as supported by pictorial representations

and archaeological remains (Gifford-Gonzalez and Hanotte, 2011). Following this introduction, these taurine moved westward and southward across the African continent (Hanotte et al., 2002). Subsequent to this migration, zebu cattle were introduced to Africa from the east, through the Horn of Africa, from their centre of domestication on the Indian subcontinent. This introduction took place in two waves (~2000 BC and ~700 AD), the second of which was likely associated with Arab trading and the Islamization of the continent (Hanotte et al., 2002). Due to the sole presence of taurine mtDNA in African zebu cattle (Loftus et al., 1994, Bradley et al., 1996, Salim et al., 2014), and the spread of an indicine Y chromosome allele in several African taurine populations (Hanotte et al., 2000), it is proposed that the introgression of zebu cattle to Africa was mainly male-derived. More recently, after the second wave of zebu introduction to Africa (~700 AD), the movement of cattle with a predominantly zebu genetic background was accelerated towards the western and southern parts of the continent. This was likely facilitated by rinderpest outbreaks that occurred in Africa at the end of the 19th century, and for which Asian zebu cattle are believed to be more resistant (compared with taurine cattle) (Epstein and Mason, 1984, MacHugh et al., 1997, Hanotte et al., 2002). Some African taurine populations inhabiting high tsetse fly challenge areas, e.g., N'Dama from Guinea, have not shown any zebu introgression (Bradley et al., 1994, Hanotte et al., 2000). This is due to the susceptibility of zebu cattle to the disease transmitted by these flies, trypanosomosis, to which African taurine cattle are more tolerant (Murray et al., 1982). The influx of zebu ancestry into the local African taurine cattle peaks at the zebu entry point to Africa, i.e., East Africa, while demonstrating a gradual decline westward and southward (MacHugh et al., 1997, Hanotte et al., 2002, Decker et al., 2014).

Several cattle populations have been recognised in East Africa, e.g., Boran from Ethiopia, Kenana and Butana from Sudan, Karamajong from Uganda and Nandi from Kenya. They are phenotypically zebu, while genetically they have been shown to be of a zebu-taurine admixture (MacHugh et al., 1997, Hanotte et al., 2000, Rege et al., 2001, Gibbs et al., 2009). These cattle show a degree of adaptation to the different environmental pressures in East Africa, such as

resistance to *Rhipicephalus appendiculatus* tick infestation (Latif et al., 1991a, Latif and Pegram, 1992), tolerance to poor forage and water (Western and Finch, 1986), and the ability to cope with thermal stress (Gaughan et al., 1999, Hansen, 2004).

East African indigenous zebu cattle are classified into small East African shorthorn zebu (SEASZ) and large East African shorthorn zebu (LEASZ). The SEASZ are the most common, and they are distributed across the humid and sub-humid agro-ecological zones of East Africa, whilst the LEASZ are generally restricted to drier areas (Rege et al., 2001). In Kenya, EASZ are differentiated into various populations according to tribal boundaries and socio-economic cultures, e.g., Kavirondo zebu in the Luo and Luhya communities, and Teso zebu in the Teso community (Rege et al., 2001). These cattle are mainly used for draft purposes, manure and milk production (Rege et al., 2001). A recent genome-wide autosomal single nucleotide polymorphism (SNP) analysis of Kenyan SEASZ revealed an even genomic admixture of around 84% zebu and 16% taurine ancestry across animals, believed to be partially shaped by selection and genetic drift (Mbole-Kariuki et al., 2014).

Characterisation of the cattle genome

Development of genomic tools

Evaluating the diversity and the genetic structure of various cattle populations has evolved over multiple stages until reaching today's full genome coverage stage. Initially, scientists relied on chromosome karyotypes to classify cattle. Because of the distinct Y chromosome karyotypes in the two cattle subspecies, acrocentric on zebu and sub-metacentric in taurine cattle (Kieffer and Cartwright, 1968, Stranzinger et al., 1987), some African zebu cattle were either defined as having zebu male ancestry, e.g., Malawi zebu, or taurine male ancestry, e.g., Tuli cattle (Meghen et al., 1994, Frisch et al., 1997).

Other markers have been used to study the population structures of different cattle populations, e.g., protein electrophoresis and Restriction Fragment

Length Polymorphism (RFLP). Both of these classes of genetic markers show low variation to effectively conduct population genetic analyses (Baker and Manwell, 1980, Theilmann et al., 1989).

Microsatellites, tandem repeats of very short (one to six base pair) nucleotide motifs, are widely used genomic markers in cattle population studies. Because of the high level of polymorphisms typically observed at microsatellite loci, they have been used to define the evolutionary relationships between cattle subspecies, the population levels of genomic admixture, migration history, as well as to map genomic quantitative trait loci (QTL), within species (MacHugh et al., 1997, Hanotte et al., 2002, Hanotte et al., 2003). Although microsatellite markers have demonstrated great success in increasing our understanding of the population structure and history of cattle, their relatively limited coverage of the bovine genome is a drawback.

Integrating recent advances in genomic tools into the bovine full genome characterization has opened new avenues for scientists to further analyse the genetic background of cattle populations. One of these advances is genotyping of the bovine genome with SNPs. These variants are arranged in customised arrays that are commonly referred to as DNA SNP chips. Two examples of these arrays for cattle, which are designed by Illumina, are the low SNP density array (BovineSNP50 Genotyping BeadChip, versions 1 and 2), which genotypes more than 54,000 SNPs (Matukumalli et al., 2009), and the higher density array (BovineHD Genotyping BeadChip), which genotypes more than 777,000 SNPs (Rincon et al., 2011). Both of these arrays genotype SNPs based on the dual-colour, single-base extension Infinium HD assay (Matukumalli et al., 2009). SNPs genotyped by these two arrays were validated mainly in commercial taurine cattle breeds for the purpose of genome-wide association analyses. This ascertainment bias to European taurine breeds, which is more substantial in the lower density array (Matukumalli et al., 2009), can make this tool less powerful in analysing the genome of zebu cattle and non-European indigenous taurine cattle populations. However, several research groups have successfully utilised this tool in different types of genomic analyses, such as the detection of genome regions with signatures of selection in several non-

commercial indigenous cattle populations (Gautier et al., 2009, Gautier and Naves, 2011, Utsunomiya et al., 2013, Perez O'Brien et al., 2014), the identification of genetically differentiated genome regions between zebu and taurine cattle (Porto-Neto et al., 2013), or to determine the genomic structure of indigenous EASZ cattle (Mbole-Kariuki et al., 2014). In addition to the Illumina version of these SNP arrays, Affymetrix has also designed equivalent SNP arrays, the Axiom Genome-Wide BOS 1 Array and the ultra-high-density Affymetrix BOS 1 pre-screening assay (AFFXB1P). Both of these arrays are based on an assay called molecular inversion probe hybridization (Fan et al., 2010, Rincon et al., 2011, Ramey et al., 2013).

DNA sequencing is now considered to be the optimum tool that can be used to fully characterise the bovine genome. The automated Sanger DNA sequencing process (Sanger et al., 1977) is highly efficient for sequencing targeted regions of the bovine genome, e.g., the D-loop of bovine mtDNA (Loftus et al., 1994, Bradley et al., 1996, Troy et al., 2001, Chen et al., 2010). However, the lengths of the obtained DNA sequences are relatively small (typically less than 1,000 bp).

Several next-generation sequencing platforms, such as Roche/454, Illumina and SOLiD, have been developed since 2008. Each of these platforms implements a specific sequencing chemistry and pipeline, as reviewed by Metzker (2010). The on-going improvement of these platforms, in terms of read length, sequencing speed and genotyping accuracy, is opening the door to the re-sequencing and de novo sequencing genomes at the population level in a cost-effective manner. These recently advanced technologies have been used in different livestock populations to identify genome regions bearing footprints of selection (Rubin et al., 2010, Rubin et al., 2012, Liao et al., 2013), regions with copy number variation (CNV) (Rubin et al., 2012, Bickhart et al., 2012), and to understand their demographical history (Groenen et al., 2012).

In addition to full genome sequencing, it is also possible to narrow down the sequencing target to the protein-coding regions of the genome, i.e., exome sequencing. This helps to reduce the cost associated with sequencing the whole

genome, while increasing the depth of sequence coverage for the targeted regions (Teer and Mullikin, 2010, Singleton, 2011, Cosart et al., 2011). This approach has led to substantial progress in identifying causative mutations associated with different genetic defects, e.g., ocular birth defects in humans (Raca et al., 2010) and hereditary perinatal weak calf syndrome in Japanese Black cattle (Hirano et al., 2013). Recently, exome sequencing in Brown Swiss and Holstein cattle identified a single non-synonymous causative mutation in the structural maintenance of chromosome 2 (SMC2) gene associated with a recessive fertility defects haplotype, Holstein Haplotype 3 (HH3) (McClure et al., 2014).

Genomic approaches to detect signatures of positive selection

Different approaches at the genome-wide level are commonly used to identify footprints of selection, particularly positive selection and, to a lesser extent, balancing selection (Biswas and Akey, 2006, Oleksyk et al., 2010). Some are implemented within populations (intra-population approaches), while others require the comparison of genome-wide data from two populations (inter-population approaches). They are also varied in terms of the type of genomic signals they investigate, as well as the age of selection they detect (Table 1.1).

Table 1.1: Examples of approaches used to identify genomic signatures of positive selection, their population level, and their estimated time of selection. *All estimates are for human lineages, assuming a generation interval of 25 years (adopted from Olyksyk et al., 2010).

Type of genomic signal	Genomic analysis	Population level	Estimated age of selection (generation)*
Increased function-altering mutation rate	$\omega = Dn/Ds$ (Neilsen and Yang, 1998)	Intra-population	> 40,000
Genetic diversity reduction (selective sweep)	ZHp (Rubin et al., 2010), SNP heterozygosity (Olyksyk et al., 2008)	Intra-population	< 8,000
Change in allele frequency spectrum	Tajima's D (Tajima, 1989), Fu and Li's D-test (Fu and Li, 1993), Fay and Wu's H-test (Fay and Wu, 2000)	Intra-population	< 8,000
Population genomic differentiation	F_{ST} (Wright, 1951)	Inter-population	< 3,000
Extended haplotype homozygosity (EHH)	LRH (Sabeti et al., 2002), XP-EHH (Sabeti et al., 2007), iHs (Voight et al., 2006), Rsb (Tang et al., 2007)	Intra-population and Inter-population	< 1,200

Fixation index (F_{ST})

This statistic was initially introduced by Sewall Wright alongside two other statistics, F_{IT} and F_{IS} (Wright, 1951). Wright's F_{ST} , which is a measure of the degree of genetic differentiation between two populations, is defined as “the correlation between gametes chosen randomly from within the same subpopulation relative to the entire population”. This is equivalent to a reduction in heterozygosity within subpopulations relative to the entire total population (Holsinger and Weir, 2009). This statistic can be calculated for each locus using its allele frequency and, hence, heterozygosity, based on the following equation: $(H_T - H_S) / H_T$, where H_T is the heterozygosity of the total population and H_S is the average heterozygosity of the two subpopulations.

Under the condition of differential selective pressures, two populations may favour alternative alleles at the loci under selection. This, in turn, will reduce the heterozygosity in the two populations and, hence, increase their genetic differentiation at these loci (high F_{ST}).

Dn/Ds (ω ratio)

The Dn/Ds ratio (ω ratio) is defined as the ratio of the number of non-synonymous substitution per non-synonymous site (Dn) to the number of synonymous substitution per synonymous site (Ds). If non-synonymous substitutions in a gene are subjected to positive selection and, hence, are not eliminated, the ω ratio will be greater than 1, i.e., $Dn > Ds$. Conversely, under purifying selection on deleterious non-synonymous substitutions, Dn will be lower than Ds and, hence, the ω ratio is less than 1. In neutrality, Dn and Ds are expected to be the same and the ω ratio is equal to 1 (Nielsen and Yang, 1998, Biswas and Akey, 2006).

Extended haplotype homozygosity (EHH)-based approaches

The term Extended Haplotype Homozygosity (EHH) was defined by Sabeti et al. (2002) as “the probability that two randomly chosen chromosomes carrying the core haplotype of interest are identical by descent for the entire interval from the core loci to the point x”. This can be observed when positive selection causes a rapid increase in the frequency of a favourable allele in a short time period, thereby leading to an unusually long haplotype.

Subsequently, Voight et al. (2006) developed a statistic based on EHH called the integrated haplotype score iHS. This SNP-based statistic compares the observed decay of EHH with genomic distance for the ancestral allele to that of the derived allele for a core SNP within a specific population.

The iHS algorithm lacks the power to detect a selective sweep when the selected allele is at a high frequency or complete fixation (Biswas and Akey, 2006, Tang et al., 2007, Gautier and Naves, 2011). To address this, the Rsb

statistic (Tang et al., 2007) was developed. This statistic compares the observed decay of EHH for a specific SNP (EHHS), rather than an allele, with genomic distance between two populations. EHHS is calculated by averaging the EHH for the two alternative alleles weighted by their squared allele frequencies.

Δ DAF and Δ AF

Δ DAF was first described by Grossman et al. (2010) to indicate whether there is a difference in the derived allele frequency of each genotyped SNP between two populations (Δ DAF). This test has been combined with four other statistical approaches in a single composite test to identify signals and causal variants of positive selection in the human genome. In contrast to F_{ST} and R_{sb} , Δ DAF is superior in distinguishing the causative, favourable, variants in the positively selected regions rather than narrowing down the candidate region intervals (Grossman et al., 2010). Δ AF is an extension of this method, which investigates the absolute allele frequency difference between two populations (Carneiro et al., 2014).

Selective sweep analysis (H_p)

This type of analysis has been used to detect genomic signatures of selection in chickens (Rubin et al., 2010), pigs (Rubin et al., 2012) and cattle (Liao et al., 2013) using full genome sequence data. The purpose of this analysis is to assess pooled heterozygosity (H_p) in pre-specified windows along the genome to identify regions with low heterozygosity relative to the entire genome. As positive selection usually leads to a reduction in genomic diversity, i.e., high homozygosity, these regions are likely to be indicative of selective sweeps.

Identifying genomic signatures of positive selection in livestock

Detecting signatures of positive selection in the genomes of different livestock species is considered to be one of the main goals in population genetics. Several studies have been published that address this issue intensively. In

chicken, analysing pooled full genome sequences of domestic chicken populations has identified sweep regions harbouring genes possibly selected during domestication, e.g., thyroid stimulating hormone receptor (TSHR) (Rubin et al., 2010). Another study on broiler chicken lines using genome-wide SNP genotyping has identified regions showing signatures of positive selection that carry genes associated with abdominal fat deposition, e.g., retinoblastoma 1 (RB1) and Bardet-Biedl syndrome 7 (BBS7) (Zhang et al., 2012). Sweep regions linked to fat deposition have also been characterized in thin- and fat-tailed sheep breeds using genome-wide SNP genotyping (Moradi et al., 2012). In domestic pig populations, regions with genes associated with coat colour (KIT), muscle development (MAPK1), brain development and neuronal function (PPP1R1B) and body length (PLAG1) have been shown to be under strong positive selection (Amaral et al., 2011, Rubin et al., 2012). In Rubin et al. (2012), non-synonymous variants within the identified sweep regions have been proposed to be the candidate loci subjected to selection. However, these putative causative mutations require further investigation.

Signatures of positive selection in cattle

The identification of candidate signatures of selection in cattle has been conducted in both artificially selected commercial breeds (beef and dairy) and in indigenous cattle populations. Several genes associated with the immune system, male reproduction, and skin and hair development have been shown to be under positive selection in tropical-adapted cattle from West Africa (Gautier et al., 2009), Caribbean (Creole) cattle (Gautier and Naves, 2011), a synthetic European taurine x Asian zebu crossbreed, the Senepol cattle (Flori et al., 2012), and in Gir cattle (Liao et al., 2013). Sweep regions harbouring, or in vicinity to, genes associated with milk and meat production and composition have been identified in commercial dairy and beef cattle breeds (Hayes et al., 2009, Stella et al., 2010, Qanbari et al., 2010, Qanbari et al., 2014). Some of these sweep regions have also been found to overlap with previously identified milk-production QTL (Larkin et al., 2012). These signatures of selection have been defined using either full genome sequence data or genome-wide SNP genotyping.

The identified candidate regions might also be caused by other demographic factors that yield genomic patterns that are similar to those resulting from selection, e.g., genetic drift. Validating these regions in different livestock populations and using different statistical tests will reduce the probability of false positives.

Why is identifying genomic signatures of positive selection in indigenous African cattle important?

Indigenous African cattle show a high degree of adaptability to the African environment in terms of disease challenge, forage quality and thermal stress (Western and Finch, 1986, Latif et al., 1991b, Gaughan et al., 1999, Rege et al., 2001, Hanotte et al., 2010). These genetic adaptations are threatened by the introgression of exotic cattle to Africa from commercial breeds with the aim of increasing the short-term productivity of indigenous African cattle (Hanotte et al., 2010). The introduction of the European milk-producing Holstein-Friesian and Jersey cattle, which do not possess any adaptation to the African environment, has been reported in many parts of Africa, including Kenya (Weir et al., 2009) and Ethiopia (Haile et al., 2011). Based on genome-wide SNP genotyping, some EASZ cattle from Kenya have been shown to exhibit European genomic introgression into their genome (Mbole-Kariuki et al., 2014). This exotic introgression has a negative impact on the adaptability of African cattle to various disease challenges (Murray et al., 2013).

Defining candidate genome regions, i.e., those showing signatures of positive selection, associated with indigenous African cattle adaptations is an important first step to conserve and utilise these unique genetic resources. This will help livestock breeders to select cattle for breeding purposes aiming to improve their productivity while conserving their valuable adaptations.

Objectives

The main objectives of this thesis are to characterize the genome of indigenous EASZ cattle from Kenya and to identify candidate regions showing signatures

of positive selection at the autosomal, X chromosome and mtDNA levels. For this purpose, we have analysed genome-wide SNP genotyping using commercially available SNP arrays (Illumina BovineSNP50 Genotyping BeadChip and Illumina BovineHD Genotyping BeadChip), full genome sequencing using the next-generation SOLiD platform and exome data.

Chapter Two is a first attempt to identify signatures of positive selection in the genome of EASZ. This was addressed using a low-density SNP array (Illumina BovineSNP50 Genotyping BeadChip) to genotype 425 EASZ samples. Genome-wide SNP data from different reference cattle populations (Holstein-Friesian, Jersey, N'Dama and Nellore cattle) were also used for this purpose. Different statistical approaches were implemented; namely, two EHH-based approaches (iHS and Rsb) and an inter-population F_{ST} analysis.

Chapter Three extends the preceding chapter with the implementation of a higher density SNP array (the Illumina BovineHD Genotyping BeadChip) to improve the EASZ genome representation. In this chapter, more indigenous East and West African zebu-aurine admixed cattle populations were included to validate the identified candidate regions in other admixed populations. Full genome and exome sequence data of 10 EASZ cattle were used in our analyses to help define the most interesting candidate regions and the putative causative genomic variants under selection, e.g., SNPs, indels and CNV.

Chapter Four aims to identify candidate regions with signatures of positive selection on the EASZ sex chromosome (BTA X). In this chapter, high-density SNP genotyping (using the Illumina BovineHD Genotyping BeadChip), the full chromosome SOLiD sequences and the exome sequence data were analysed.

Chapter Five investigates the mtDNA of EASZ cattle. Having defined the mtDNA haplogroup(s) that is affiliated with this indigenous cattle population using full mtDNA sequencing data, it aims to provide an alternative explanation to the classical male-mediated zebu introgression hypothesis to

explain the unique presence of taurine mtDNA in African cattle. It also attempts to identify signatures of selection in the mtDNA of African cattle.

Chapter Six is a final conclusion of the whole thesis that summarises the main key outcomes from the previous chapters and their possible implications in cattle breeding programmes. Finally, possible future directions are considered to improve the conducted analyses and refine the resulting outputs.

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Chapter two

Signatures of positive selection in East African shorthorn zebu: A genome-wide single nucleotide polymorphism analysis¹

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Abstract

The small EASZ is a type of cattle populating East Africa. Following the introduction of the Asian zebu to the African continent through the Horn of Africa, historical crossbreeding with the local African taurine resulted in the formation of EASZ populations. These cattle demonstrate adaptive characteristics to the tropical sub-humid environment of East Africa, and their crossbreed nature (Asian zebu x African taurine) has recently been revealed based on genome-wide single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNP) data. The main purpose of this chapter is to scan the whole genome of EASZ cattle from Western Kenya with the Illumina BovineSNP50 BeadChip v.1 to identify genomic signatures of positive selection. Following two Extended Haplotype Homozygosity (EHH)-based analyses (intra-population iHS and inter-population Rsb), and a single F_{ST} -based inter-population approach, 24 genome regions were considered as possible candidates for positive selection. Five of these regions showed substantial deficiencies in the Asian zebu ancestry, while a single region exhibited a substantial excess in this ancestry, suggesting possible origins of the selected haplotypes. A total of 409 genes, including candidate genes associated with tropical adaptation (e.g., male reproduction-related, immunological-related genes, and heat shock proteins), and 340 bovine quantitative trait loci (QTL), including trypanotolerant QTL, were identified within the candidate regions. Several biological pathways related to signalling, immunity, growth and development were enriched in these genes, suggesting the possibility that the admixed genomic background acts as an additional selective pressure.

Introduction

The humped *Bos taurus indicus* (zebu or indicine cattle) and humpless *Bos taurus taurus* (taurine cattle) are two recognized cattle subspecies. They were independently domesticated from the extinct wild aurochs, *Bos primigenius*, about 10,000 years BP (Loftus et al., 1994, Bradley et al., 1996, Chen et al., 2010). Although, an African centre of domestication for taurine cattle has been proposed (Bradley et al., 1996), it is now widely thought that these cattle might

be an exclusive legacy of the Near East centre of livestock domestication (Loftus et al., 1999, Troy et al., 2001, Achilli et al., 2008, Bonfiglio et al., 2012). Loftus et al. (1994) have suggested, based on mtDNA analysis, two separate centers of domestication for taurine and zebu cattle. Later, a mtDNA analysis by Chen et al. (2010) indicated that the Indus valley, specifically, is the more likely domestication centre of zebu cattle, excluding the previously proposed domestication centres, the Ganges regions and South India (Allchin, 1963, Fuller, 2006).

The first cattle present on the African continent were of the taurine types, with undisputed domestic cattle becoming present from as early as ~ 5,000 BC (Gifford-Gonzalez and Hanotte, 2011). The first evidence of humped cattle, based on tomb paintings of the XIIth Dynasty, dates from 2,000 BC in Egypt, but the main entry point of Asian zebu cattle was the Horn of Africa (Hanotte et al., 2002). This introduction was followed by inland dispersion to the western and southern parts of the continent, as well as by cross-breeding with the local African taurine (Hanotte et al., 2002). Two waves of zebu introgression have been revealed, with the more recent one, ~ 700 AD, having likely been favoured by the rinderpest epidemics of the late 19th century (Hanotte et al., 2002).

Microsatellite diversity studies have revealed a background of zebu and taurine genetic admixture in modern East African indigenous zebu cattle (MacHugh et al., 1997, Rege et al., 2001). Although 100% taurine at the mtDNA level, these cattle are predominantly zebu at the autosomal level (Bradley et al., 1996, MacHugh et al., 1997, Rege et al., 2001), and they are nearly exclusively zebu at the Y chromosome (Hanotte et al., 2000). More recently, Decker et al. (2014) have revealed, using genome-wide single nucleotide polymorphism (SNP) data, on average, a 70% zebu genomic background in East African indigenous zebu cattle, with a gradual decline in indicine ancestry from east to west and central to south.

Indigenous EASZ cattle are classified into small and large types. The small EASZ are the most common type of East African cattle. They are found throughout Ethiopia, Uganda and Kenya across the humid and sub-humid agro-ecological zones, whereas the large EASZ are generally restricted to drier areas (Rege et al., 2001). Recently, the genetic admixture of Kenyan small EASZ has been studied in detail through genome-wide SNP genotyping, revealing an admixture level of around 84% zebu and 16% African taurine (Mbole-Kariuki et al., 2014). Interestingly, this study also shows that the small EASZ is a stabilized population with an even proportion of zebu and taurine genomic backgrounds across animals.

Artificial selection for productivity traits, such as cattle body size, milk yields and carcass traits, is common in livestock (Flori et al., 2009, Qanbari et al., 2010, Utsunomiya et al., 2013, Rothhammer et al., 2013, Perez O'Brien et al., 2014, Fan et al., 2014). However, in indigenous livestock from the tropics and at the smallholder farmer level, natural environmental pressures (natural selection) continue to play a major role in shaping their genomes (e.g., thermotolerance and disease resistance) (Rege et al., 2001, Gautier et al., 2009, Gautier and Naves, 2011, Flori et al., 2012, Flori et al., 2014).

For example, zebu cattle are thought to be better adapted to dry and hot environments than taurine cattle, specifically European cattle (Turner, 1980, Western and Finch, 1986, Chan et al., 2010). Studies have indicated that zebu have a greater tolerance to *Rhipicephalus microplus* tick-burden, an ectoparasite typically found in dry and wet tropical environments across the world (Estrada-Pena et al., 2006), than taurine cattle (O'Kelly and Spiers, 1976, Utech et al., 1978). Zebu cattle have also been found to be better able to thermoregulate their body temperature in heat stress conditions than taurine cattle (Gaughan et al., 1999, Hansen, 2004). This thermotolerance might explain their superior fertility, semen quality and growth rate under heat stress when compared with taurine (Cartwright, 1955, Lampkin and Kennedy, 1965, Skinner and Louw, 1966, Hansen, 2004). The adaptation of African taurine cattle to the sub-humid and humid agro-ecological zones of the continent is also well documented, particularly their resistance/tolerance to parasitic

diseases, e.g., trypanotolerance (Mattioli et al., 1998, Naessens et al., 2002, Bahbahani and Hanotte, 2015).

Several studies, using genome-wide genetic markers and full genome sequencing data, have explored the genomes of horses, sheep, pigs, dogs, chickens and cattle to identify signatures of selection following domestication (Rubin et al., 2010, Kijas et al., 2012, Rubin et al., 2012, Axelsson et al., 2013, Wilkinson et al., 2013, Petersen et al., 2013, Ramey et al., 2013, Yang et al., 2014, Flori et al., 2014). For example, the genomes of different horse breeds, including thoroughbred racing horses, have been investigated using microsatellite and SNP markers. Loci associated with enhanced exercise-related physiology, muscle strength, sexual reproduction, coat colour and style of locomotion have been revealed to be under strong positive selection (Gu et al., 2009, Petersen et al., 2013). Studies of sheep breeds have also revealed that genome regions linked to coat pigmentation, skeletal morphology, growth rate and fat deposition are under positive selection (Kijas et al., 2012, Moradi et al., 2012). Genomic loci related to reproduction, brain development and immunity have shown signatures of positive selection in dogs (Akey et al., 2010, Olsson et al., 2011, Axelsson et al., 2013) and pigs (Amaral et al., 2011, Rubin et al., 2012, Wilkinson et al., 2013) as well.

Studies involving cattle have analysed different breeds, ranging from the tropically adapted to dairy and beef breeds. Several genes associated with the immune system, male reproduction and skin and hair structure have been shown to be under positive selection in tropically adapted cattle from West Africa (Gautier et al., 2009, Flori et al., 2014, Xu et al., 2015), Caribbean (Creole) cattle (Gautier and Naves, 2011) and in a synthetic European taurine x Asian zebu crossbreed - Senepol cattle (Flori et al., 2012). Studies on artificially selected dairy and beef cattle have revealed signatures of selection on genome regions carrying genes associated with milk yield and composition (Hayes et al., 2009, Qanbari et al., 2010, Mancini et al., 2014, Xu et al., 2015) and carcass production and quality (Rothhammer et al., 2013, Kemper et al., 2014).

We report here the identification of signatures of positive selection in the genome of EASZ, an indigenous zebu-aurine admixed cattle population from East Africa, through three genome-wide SNP analyses. Candidate genome regions for signatures of positive selection were identified through the analysis of genetic differentiation between EASZ and four reference populations (Holstein-Friesian, Jersey, N'Dama and Nellore), as well as through the identification of regions showing extended haplotype homozygosity within EASZ, as well as between EASZ and the combined reference populations. These regions include candidate genes associated with innate and acquired immunity, sexual reproduction and skin and hair development.

Materials and Methods

SNP genotyping and quality control

Non-European taurine introgressed EASZ ($n = 425$) from 20 different randomly selected sublocations that cover four distinct ecological zones in the Western and Nyanza provinces of Kenya (de Clare Bronsvort et al., 2013, Mbole-Kariuki et al., 2014) were genotyped using the Illumina BovineSNP50 BeadChip v.1 that includes 55,777 SNPs, covering the 29 bovine autosomes, the sex chromosome (BTA X) and three unassigned linkage groups (Matukumalli et al., 2009). Genotyped SNP data from the same SNP array for four reference cattle populations, Holstein-Friesian ($n = 64$), Jersey ($n = 28$), N'Dama ($n = 25$) and Nellore ($n = 21$), were obtained from the Bovine HapMap consortium (Gibbs et al., 2009). Analyses were conducted on autosomes and BTA X separately to avoid any potential bias resulting from differences in effective population size. SNPs on unassigned linkage groups were excluded, as they are not annotated in the bovine reference genome UMD3.1 (Elsik et al., 2009), leaving a total of 55,675 markers. Quality control (QC) analysis for the 54,334 autosomal and 1,341 BTA X markers was implemented through the `check.marker` function of the GenABEL package (Aulchenko et al., 2007) for R software version 2.15.1 (R Development Core Team, 2012). The QC criteria included a minor allele frequency (MAF) threshold of 0.5% and a SNP call rate threshold of 95%. A total of 2,433

autosomal and 47 BTA X SNPs failed to pass the minor allele frequency criterion only, whilst 1,180 autosomal and 21 BTA X SNPs only failed the call rate criterion. An additional 5,471 autosomal and 352 BTA X SNPs failed to pass both the MAF and the SNP call rate criteria. In total, 45,250 autosomal (mean gap size = 55 kb, median gap size = 40 kb, standard deviation (SD) = 53 kb) and 921 BTA X SNPs (mean gap size = 161 kb, median gap size = 76 kb, SD = 276 kb) were retained for downstream analyses.

Additional QC criteria included a minimum sample call rate of 95% and a pairwise identity-by-state (IBS) of less than 95%, with the lower call rate animal eliminated. From the autosomal SNPs, one EASZ sample was excluded for having a low call rate, whilst one EASZ and one Holstein-Friesian sample were excluded following the IBS criterion. For the BTA X, only the criterion of low call rate was applied, which excluded two EASZ samples, as possible duplicate samples had already been removed based on autosomes quality control steps.

Inter-population genome-wide F_{ST} analysis

Inter-population F_{ST} analyses, based on Wright's fixation index (Wright, 1951), were conducted between the EASZ and each continental reference (European (Holstein-Friesian and Jersey), African (N'Dama) and Asian (Nellore)) population. F_{ST} values (weighted by population sample sizes) were calculated on sliding windows of 10 SNPs, overlapping by 5 SNPs. The upper 0.2% and 3% of the distribution of F_{ST} values were arbitrarily chosen as thresholds for the autosomes and BTA X analyses, respectively, taking into account the difference (9,032 versus 184) in the number of windows analysed between the two datasets. A genome region was defined as being a candidate for selection if at least two overlapping windows passed the upper distribution threshold. If this criterion was met, the window with the highest F_{ST} value was used as the candidate region interval.

Extended Haplotype Homozygosity-derived statistics

The method of calculating Extended Haplotype Homozygosity (EHH) was first introduced by Sabeti et al. (2002), and defined as the probability that two randomly chosen chromosomes, both carrying the same allele at a given focal SNP (the core allele), are identical by descent (homozygous at all SNPs) from the focal SNP to a distance x . A high value for EHH indicates the presence of an allele that has risen to fixation faster than expected under neutral evolution, allowing less opportunity for recombination at adjacent alleles. Two EHH-derived statistics, the Integrated Haplotype Score (iHS) (Voight et al., 2006) and R_{sb} (Tang et al., 2007b), have been applied in this study to identify signatures of positive selection in the genome of EASZ .

As a prerequisite for these two statistics, haplotypes were reconstructed by phasing the genotyped SNPs via fastPHASE software version 1.4 (Scheet and Stephens, 2006) using K10 and T10 as in Utsunomiya et al. (2013) as criteria to reduce the computation time. Population label information was used to estimate the phased haplotypes population background.

Another prerequisite, specifically for the EHH-based iHS analysis, is the need to determine the derived and ancestral allele of each SNP. These were inferred in two ways: i) the ancestral allele was inferred as the most common allele within a dataset of 13 Bovinae species genotyped with the same SNP chip used by Decker et al. (2009); ii) for SNPs with no genotyping data available in Decker et al. (2009), the ancestral allele was inferred as the most common allele within our dataset, consistent with the observation that, in humans, the SNP allele with the higher frequency was likely to represent the ancestral allele (Hacia et al., 1999).

The iHS analysis starts by computing the integral of the observed decay of EHH, which is the area under the EHH curve plotted against the physical genomic position (Figure S2.1a), as one moves away from a core SNP for both the ancestral and derived alleles until it reaches an arbitrary value of 0.05. These integrals, which are summed over both directions from the core SNP,

are called iHH_A and iHH_D for the ancestral and derived alleles, respectively. The natural log of the ratio (iHH_A/iHH_D) is standardised to generate an iHS value for each SNP, as described by Voight et al. (2006) (Equation 1). The expectation (E_p) and standard deviation (SD_p) of $\ln(iHH_A/iHH_D)$ were estimated from the empirical distribution at SNPs whose allele frequency p matches the frequency at the core SNP.

$$iHS = \frac{\ln\left(\frac{iHH_A}{iHH_D}\right) - E_p\left[\ln\left(\frac{iHH_A}{iHH_D}\right)\right]}{SD_p\left[\ln\left(\frac{iHH_A}{iHH_D}\right)\right]} \quad (\text{Equation 1})$$

Large negative values indicate unusually long haplotypes carrying the derived allele, while large positive values point to long haplotypes carrying the ancestral allele relative to the whole genome. The analysis was implemented using the R package *rehh* (Gautier and Vitalis, 2012) on SNPs showing a within-population MAF $\geq 0.5\%$. This additional MAF criterion was used because the iHS algorithm is not optimal for calculating statistics on fixed allele SNPs (Voight et al., 2006). As the iHS values followed a normal distribution (Figure S2.2a), a two-tailed Z-test was applied to identify statistically significant SNPs under selection with either an extended haplotype of ancestral or derived alleles. With iHS values already standardized, the results were transformed directly to $-\log_{10}(1-2|\Phi(iHS)-0.5|)$, where $\Phi(iHS)$ represents the Gaussian cumulative distribution function. The resultant values of this transformation may also be interpreted as $-\log_{10}$ (P-value), where the P-value is the two-sided value. A threshold of 4, equivalent to a P-value of 0.0001, was used to define a significant iHS value.

The R_{sb} statistic was applied to provide a pairwise comparison of EHH measures for each SNP between EASZ and each continental reference (European (Holstein-Friesian and Jersey), African (N'Dama) and Asian (Nellore)) population, as well as all the reference populations combined, using the R *rehh* package. In these analyses, the EHH for the two alleles of a SNP was averaged and weighted by their squared allele frequencies, which provided the site-specific EHH (EHHS). As with EHH, the observed decay of EHHS for each core SNP was integrated and summed over both directions in both

populations (iES) (Figure S2.1b). The natural log of the ratio (iES_{pop1}/iES_{pop2}) was standardized to generate an Rsb value for each core SNP, as described by Tang et al. (2007b) (Equation 2).

$$Rsb = \frac{\ln(Rsb) - median(\ln(Rsb))}{SD(\ln(Rsb))} \quad (\text{Equation 2})$$

Positive results were representative of a high EHHS in the EASZ compared with the other populations, and they were subsequently applied to a one-tailed Z-test due to the normal distribution of the Rsb values (Figure S2.2b). This involved the direct transformation of the Rsb values to $-\log_{10}(1 - \Phi(Rsb))$, where once again, the resultant values could be interpreted as $-\log_{10}(P\text{-value})$, where the P-value is the one-sided value. As before, a significance threshold of 4 was used. The Z-test was not applied to BTA X Rsb values due to their non-normal distribution (Shapiro–Wilk test; $P\text{-value} < 2.2 \times 10^{-16}$) (Figure S2.2b ii). In both the iHS and Rsb analyses, a genome region was considered to be a candidate for selection if two SNPs separated by ≤ 1 Mb passed the threshold.

Functional characterization of the candidate regions

The level of linkage disequilibrium (LD) between pairs of markers was calculated across each chromosome by applying the r^2 statistic (Ardlie et al., 2002) to determine the maximum distance from the most significant SNP within a candidate region, as identified by the iHS and Rsb analyses, from which to retrieve candidate genes’ “candidate region interval”. This was implemented in R through the r2fast function of the GenABEL package. The EASZ genotype data was divided into 11 bins of different sizes, and pairwise r^2 values were calculated and averaged for each bin size (Figure S2.3). Based on the rate of change in mean r^2 binned over distance, a distance of 0.5 Mb in both directions from the most significant SNP was used for gene retrieval. Indeed, at larger distances, we reached the r^2 plateau. This extent of LD has been confirmed in eight cattle breeds (taurine and zebu) in a previous study (McKay et al., 2007). For the interpopulation F_{ST} analysis, genes were retrieved within the most significant window of the candidate regions. The

Ensembl Genes 73 database (Flicek et al., 2013) was used for gene retrieval, utilizing the *Bos taurus taurus* genome assembly UMD 3.1. The derived gene list was processed using the functional annotation tool implemented in DAVID Bioinformatics resources 6.7 to define enriched functional annotation clusters (Huang da et al., 2009a, Huang da et al., 2009b). As recommended by the software, an enrichment score of 1.3, equivalent to a Fisher exact test P-value of 0.05, was used as the threshold for the identification of enriched clusters.

A list of all the bovine Quantitative Trait Loci (QTL) and their coordinates were downloaded from the cattle QTL database (<http://www.animalgenome.org/cgi-bin/QTLdb/BT/index>). Using the intersectBed function from the BedTools software (Quinlan and Hall, 2010), the overlapping QTL for the candidate regions were obtained.

Estimating zebu and African taurine ancestry proportions on BTA X

Admixture analysis via a Bayesian clustering method implemented in STRUCTURE software (Pritchard et al., 2000) was conducted on the BTA X for the whole dataset. An admixed model with independent allele frequencies was run with a burn-in period of 25,000 iterations and 50,000 Markov Chain Monte Carlo steps for $K=3$.

Estimation of excesses-deficiencies in zebu ancestry at candidate regions

LAMP software version 2.4 (Sankararaman et al., 2008) was used to estimate the Asian zebu and African taurine ancestry proportions of the genotyped SNPs. A genome-wide autosomal zebu ancestry proportion of 0.84 and an African taurine ancestry proportion of 0.16 were used as the averaged admixture proportions α (Mbole-Kariuki et al., 2014). For the BTA X, zebu and African taurine ancestry proportions of 0.89 and 0.11, respectively, were used, as estimated by the STRUCTURE analysis. An estimated number of 500 generations was set for the admixture in light of our current knowledge of zebu arrival on the continent, assuming a generation time of six years (Keightley and Eyre-Walker, 2000). A uniform recombination rate of $1 \text{ cM} = 1 \text{ Mb}$ was

set as a pre-requisite of LAMP. The average excess/deficiency in Asian zebu ancestry at each SNP (ΔAZ) was calculated by subtracting the average estimated Asian zebu ancestry of the SNP from the average estimated Asian zebu ancestry of all SNPs. This calculation was conducted for autosomal and BTA X SNPs separately. Because of possible inter-marker variation in the Asian zebu ancestry proportion caused by genetic drift (Long, 1991, Tang et al., 2007a), we decided to consider the median of ΔAZ for an arbitrary 5-SNP window, two SNPs on each side of the iHS and Rsb most significant candidate SNP under selection, to represent the ΔAZ of the iHS and Rsb candidate regions. For the identified F_{ST} candidate regions, the median ΔAZ s for the SNPs within these regions were considered.

Results

Candidate genome region identification

The F_{ST} -based analysis performed between EASZ and the different continental-specific reference populations identified 13 regions that might be subjected to diversifying selective pressures between EASZ and these reference populations: one on BTA 2; two on BTA 4; one on BTA 7; two on BTA 13; one on BTA 14, BTA 19, BTA 22 and BTA 24, and three on BTA X (Figure 2.1, Figure 2.2, Table 2.1 and Table S2.1).

The iHS analysis on EASZ indicated that three candidate regions present on BTA 5, 23 and 29 demonstrated long EHH (Figure 2.3 and Table 2.1). These regions contained SNPs with significantly differentiated EHH between the two alleles relative to the whole genome.

The Rsb analysis revealed eight genome regions with differential EHH between EASZ and the combined reference populations: One on BTA 3, two on BTA 5, one on BTA 11, three on BTA 12 and one on BTA 19 (Figure 2.4 and Table 2.1). These are possible regions of positive selection on the EASZ genome. Six of these eight candidate regions showed significant SNPs in the European taurine and/or African taurine pairwise Rsb analyses (Figure 2.4 and

Table S2.1). The most remarkable region detected by the Rsb analysis was a region on BTA 12, with the most significant SNP at base pair 29,217,254.

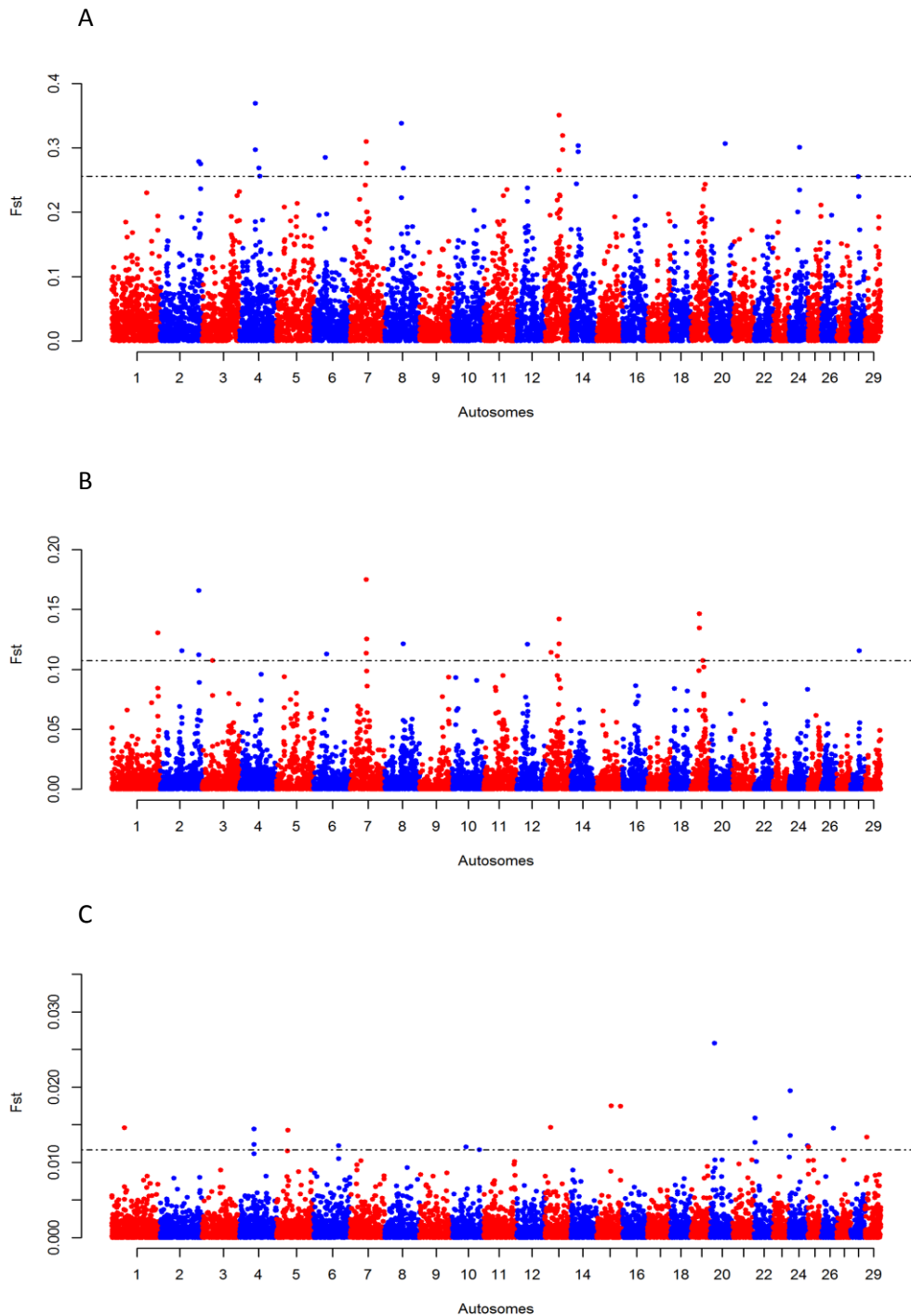


Figure 2.1: Manhattan plots of the pairwise genome-wide autosomal F_{ST} analyses. (A) EASZ with European taurine (Holstein-Friesian, Jersey), (B) EASZ with African taurine (N'Dama), and (C) EASZ with Asian zebu (Nellore). Significance thresholds (dashed lines) are set at the top 0.2% of the F_{ST} distribution.

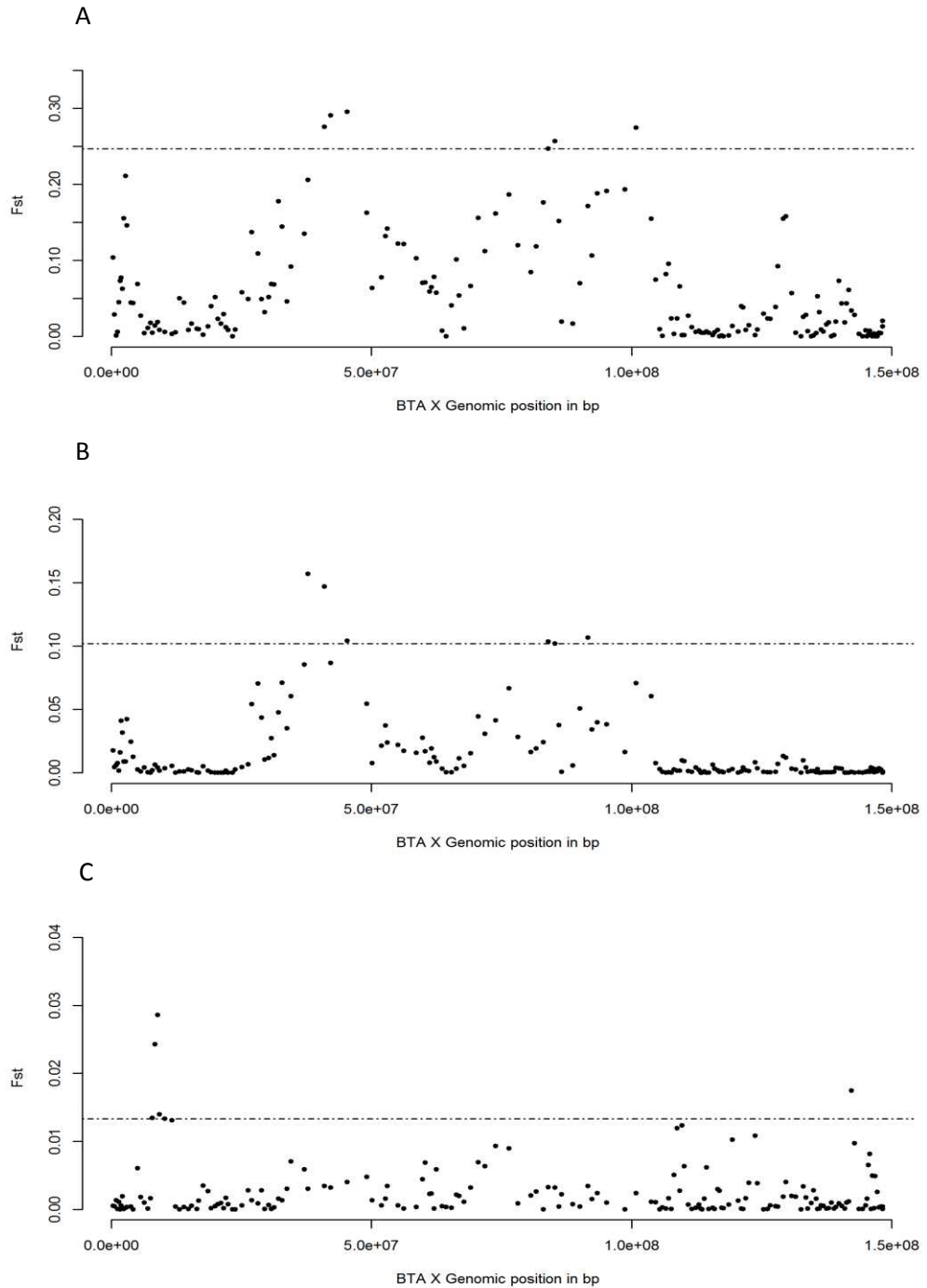


Figure 2.2: Manhattan plots of the pairwise BTA X F_{ST} analyses. (A) EASZ with European taurine (Holstein-Friesian, Jersey), (B) EASZ with African taurine (N'Dama), and (C) EASZ with Asian zebu (Nellore). Significance thresholds (dashed lines) are set at the top 3% of the F_{ST} distribution.

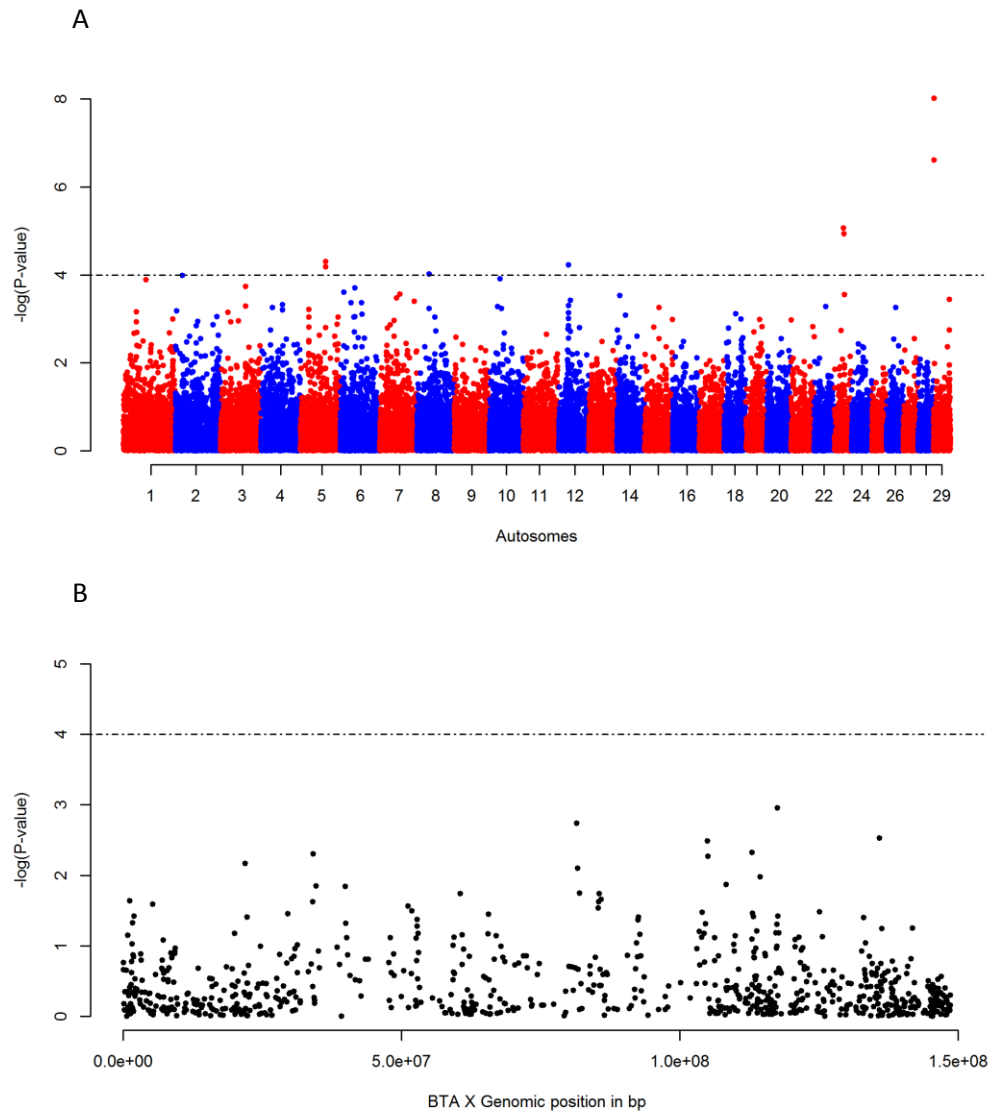


Figure 2.3: Manhattan plots of the genome-wide iHS analysis on EASZ, applied to a two-tailed Z-test. The plot in (A) shows the autosomal analysis, whilst (B) shows the BTA X analysis. Significance thresholds (dashed lines) are set at a $-\log_{10}$ (two-tailed P-value) of 4.

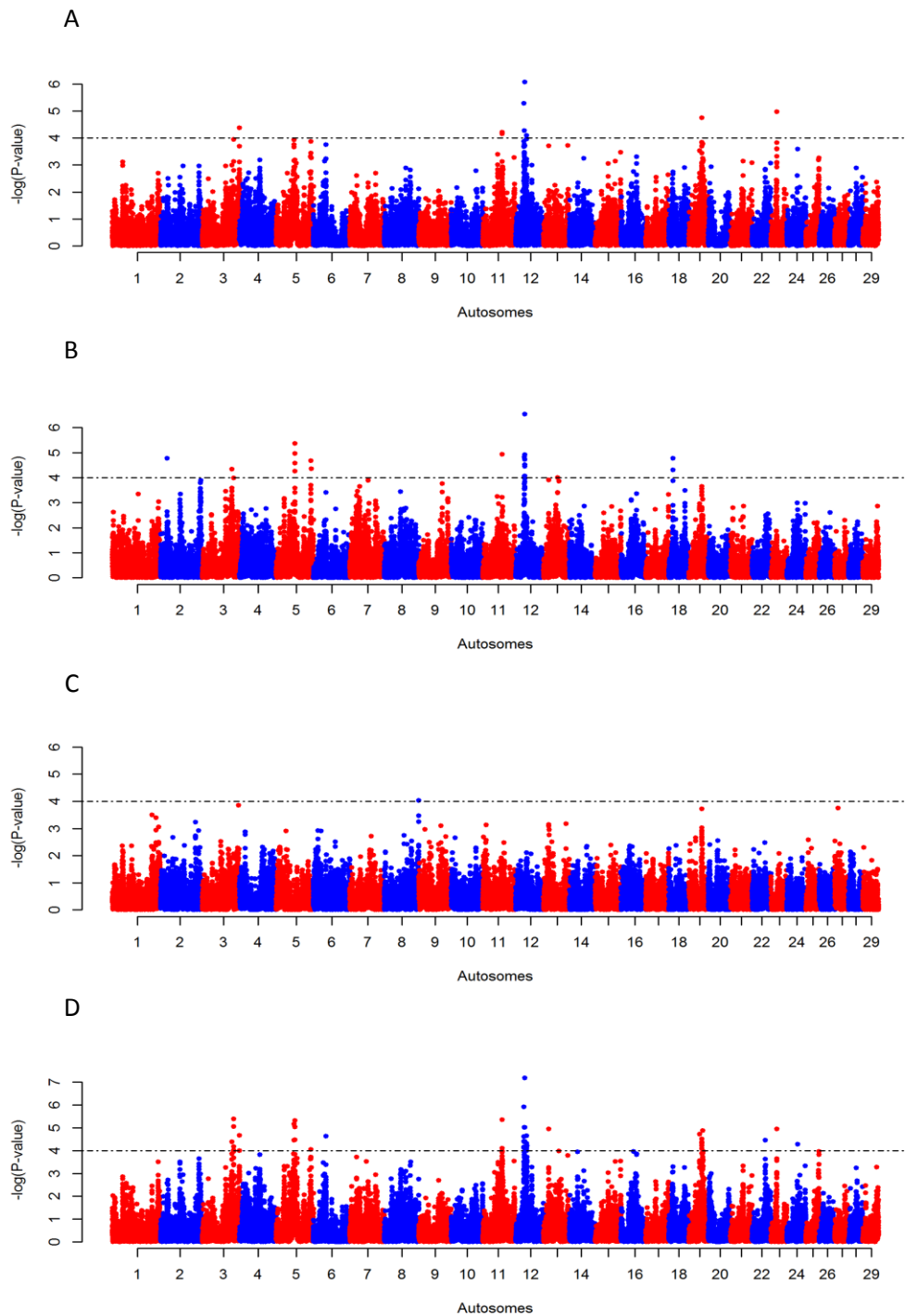


Figure 2.4: Manhattan plots of the genome-wide autosomal Rsb analyses. (A) EASZ with European taurine (Holstein-Friesian, Jersey), (B) EASZ with African taurine (N'Dama), (C) EASZ with Asian zebu (Nellore), and (D) EASZ with all reference populations (Holstein-Friesian, Jersey, N'Dama and Nellore) combined applied to one-tailed Z-tests. Significance thresholds (dashed lines) are set at a $-\log_{10}$ one-tailed P-value = 4.

Table 2.1: Candidate regions for signatures of positive selection in EASZ. Ref: previous studies on tropical adapted cattle and commercial breeds overlap with the identified candidate regions. * Commercial breeds studies. ** $-\log_{10}(\text{P-value})$ for iHS and Rsb; F_{ST} value of the window.

BTA	Position of the most significant SNPs/windows within candidate regions (bp)	Test	Value**	Ref
2	125,585,810 – 126,058,677	F_{ST}	0.17	Gautier and Naves (2011)
3	101,942,771	Rsb	5.06	Gautier et al. (2009) Gautier and Naves (2011)
4	47,195,467 - 47,539,595	F_{ST}	0.014	Gautier et al. (2009) Chan et al. (2010) Gautier and Naves (2011)
4	51,927,595 - 52,308,430	F_{ST}	0.37	Gautier et al. (2009) Chan et al. (2010) Larkin et al., (2012)* Qanbari et al., (2014)*
5	57,977,594	Rsb	5.15	Gautier et al. (2009) Flori et al. (2014) Kemper et al. (2014)*
5	60,556,520	Rsb	5.3	Gautier et al. (2009) Gautier and Naves (2011) Flori et al. (2014)
5	76,286,670	iHS	4.5	
7	52,224,595 - 52,720,797	F_{ST}	0.31	Gautier et al. (2009) Porto Neto et al. (2013)
11	62,629,106	Rsb	5.34	
12	27,181,474	Rsb	5.9	Gautier et al. (2009)
12	29,217,254	Rsb	7.17	Gautier et al. (2009) Gautier and Naves (2011) Porto Neto et al. (2013) Flori et al. (2014)
12	35,740,174	Rsb	4.64	
13	46,433,697-46,723,493	F_{ST}	0.35	Flori et al. (2014)
13	57,848,276-58,207,174	F_{ST}	0.32	Flori et al. (2014) Kemper et al. (2014)*
14	24,482,969-25,254,540	F_{ST}	0.29	Kemper et al. (2014)* Porto Neto et al. (2013)
19	27,369,763 - 27,763,447	F_{ST}	0.15	Gautier et al. (2009)
19	42,696,815	Rsb	4.51	Chan et al. (2010)
22	2,314,019 - 2,788,566	F_{ST}	0.02	
23	28,281,915	iHS	5.13	Gautier et al. (2009) Flori et al. (2014)
24	4,118,163 - 4,474,760	F_{ST}	0.02	
29	1,898,171	iHS	7.74	Flori et al. (2014)
X	8,582,093 - 9,248,137	F_{ST}	0.03	
X	39,942,044 - 43,999,854	F_{ST}	0.29	Porto Neto et al. (2013)
X	84,566,018 - 85,993,719	F_{ST}	0.26	Porto Neto et al. (2013)

Identification of candidate genes

Within the total 24 candidate region intervals obtained from the inter-population F_{ST} analysis and the two EHH-based analyses (iHS and Rsb), 192, 72 and 145 genes were identified, respectively (Table S2.2). Following DAVID analysis, these genes grouped into 53 functional term clusters (Table S2.3). Five of these clusters were significantly enriched relative to the whole bovine genome (Table 2.2). A total of 340 bovine QTL, e.g., tick resistance QTL and sperm motility QTL, were also found within these intervals (Table S2.4). Three of these QTL are linked to trypanotolerance in African cattle (Hanotte et al., 2003) (Table S2.5). Other production traits QTL were also found, e.g., milk fat percentage and milk yield QTL.

Table 2.2: Significantly enriched functional term clusters of genes mapped within the candidate region intervals.

Functional term cluster	Enrichment score
Intermediate protein filaments and keratin	2.11
Immune response and antigen processing and presenting	1.88
Ribosome structure	1.62
Regulation of cell adhesion and mammary gland development	1.55
Regulation of steroid and growth hormone signalling pathways	1.53

Estimation of excesses-deficiencies of Asian zebu ancestry at the candidate regions – SNPs

LAMP software 2.4 (Sankararaman et al., 2008) was used to investigate any excesses/deficiencies of Asian zebu ancestry (ΔAZ) in the candidate regions identified. This analysis, in addition to the F_{ST} analyses between EASZ and the putative parental populations, African taurine (N'Dama) and Asian zebu (Nellore), might help to define the ancestral origin of the selected haplotypes.

The average Asian zebu ancestries of all the SNPs over the EASZ samples were estimated to be 0.93 (SD = 0.07) and 0.95 (SD = 0.05) for the autosomes and BTA X, respectively. These estimations were higher than equivalent

estimations (0.84 for autosomes calculated by Mbole-Kariuki et al. (2014) and 0.89 for BTA X) obtained using STRUCTURE software. This discrepancy might be due to the difference in the algorithms each software uses to estimate the admixture proportion. The mean ΔAZ s for all the SNPs in EASZ were 0 for autosomes (SD = 0.07) and 0 for BTA X (SD = 0.05).

Candidate regions identified in this study exhibited a degree of balance in the number of regions with excesses and deficiencies in Asian zebu ancestry (10 regions showed excesses and fourteen regions showed deficiencies) (Table 2.3). Some of these regions showed substantial, $\geq \pm 1$ SD from the mean, ΔAZ (five regions with substantial deficiencies and one region with a substantial excess). One of the five “zebu deficient” regions (BTA X 8.58–9.25 Mb) was also genetically differentiated from Nellore, supporting a possible taurine origin of the selected haplotype. These five regions contained genes involved in different biological pathways, such as the bovine acquired immune response (IL-17D and IRAK1) (O'Neill and Greene, 1998, Chang and Dong, 2011), mRNA processing regulation (U5 and U6) (Lamond, 1991) and cell cycle regulation (HECTD3) (Yu et al., 2008).

Although the ancestral origins of most of these candidates were not clearly defined based on the F_{ST} analyses, seven regions were suggested to be of zebu origin, while four were of taurine origin (Table 2.3). The candidate region in BTA 7 (52.2–52.7 Mb), which showed genetic differentiation when EASZ was compared with N'Dama cattle but not to Nellore, also revealed a substantial excess of zebu ancestry, thereby supporting the possible zebu origin of the selected haplotype. Interestingly, an overlapping region (BTA 7: 50.95–53.75 Mb) was also found to be highly divergent between zebu and taurine cattle in a previous study (Porto-Neto et al., 2013). This region contains genes associated with critical biological pathways suggested to be under selection in tropical-adapted cattle (Gautier and Naves, 2011), such as protein folding and the heat shock response (DNAJC7) (Kampanja and Craig, 2010) and male reproduction and fertility (SPATA24) (Brancorsini et al., 2008).

Table 2.3: Defining the possible ancestral origin of the EASZ candidate regions, and their median excess/deficiency of Asian zebu ancestry (ΔAZ).

	EASZ most significant SNPs/windows with candidate regions	EASZ vs. N'Dama	EASZ vs. Nellore	ancestral origin*	median ΔAZ
BTA	Chromosomal position (bp)				
2	125,585,810 – 126,058,677	125,585,810 - 126,058,677	–	zebu	-0.003
3	101,942,771	–	–	unclear	-0.132
4	47,195,467 - 47,539,595	–	47,195,467 - 47,539,595	taurine	0.016
4	51,927,595 - 52,308,430	–	–	unclear	-0.051
5	57,977,594	–	–	unclear	-0.003
5	60,556,520	–	–	unclear	0.049
5	76,286,670	–	–	unclear	0.043
7	52,224,595 - 52,720,797	52,224,595 - 52,720,797	–	zebu	0.07
11	62,629,106	–	–	unclear	0.008
12	27,181,474	–	–	unclear	-0.188
12	29,217,254	–	–	unclear	-0.038
12	35,740,174	–	–	unclear	-0.084
13	46,433,697 - 46,723,493	46,433,697 - 46,723,493	–	zebu	0.022
13	57,848,276 - 58,207,174	–	–	unclear	0.051
14	24,482,969- 25,254,540	–	–	unclear	-0.042
19	27,369,763 - 27,763,447	27,369,763 - 27,763,447	–	zebu	-0.012
19	42,696,815	42,660,383 - 43,068,079*	–	zebu	-0.004
22	2,314,019 - 2,788,566	–	2,314,019 - 2,788,566	taurine	0.035
23	28,281,915	–	–	unclear	-0.004
24	4,118,163 - 4,474,760	–	4,118,163 - 4,474,760	taurine	0.006
29	1,898,171	–	–	unclear	0.022
X	8,582,093 - 9,248,137	–	8,582,093 - 9,248,137	taurine	-0.113
X	39,942,044 - 43,999,854	39,942,044 - 42,024,368	–	zebu	-0.050
X	84,566,018 - 85,993,719	84,566,018 - 85,993,721	–	zebu	-0.034

Bold (deviation by more than +/- 1 SD from the genome-wide mean ΔAZ).

*Based on F_{ST} analyses

Discussion

Overlap between candidate selected regions

In this study, we used three types of analysis that can detect different patterns of signatures of selection. In contrast with the *iHS* statistic, which is optimal for intermediate frequency haplotypes within a population (Voight et al., 2006), *Rsb* and F_{ST} can identify fixed haplotypes under selection (Akey et al., 2002, Tang et al., 2007b). The choice of the EASZ population is particularly pertinent given the genetics of this population, which has been shaped by centuries of natural and human selection in East Africa (Rege et al., 2001). Additionally, the zebu-taurine admixture of EASZ offers an opportunity to address biological questions (e.g., the impact on fertility and development) related to the admixture of two cattle lineages that shared a common ancestor perhaps as long as 0.5 million years ago (Bradley et al., 1996, MacHugh et al., 1997).

Because we are interested in detecting signatures of selection on the admixed EASZ genome, we pooled all the non-admixed “pure” cattle breeds into a single reference population and compared them against EASZ in the *Rsb* analysis. As shown in Figure 2.4, the pooling approach increased the signals of selection in the *Rsb*-specific candidate regions compared with their signals in the non-pooled analyses. Such an empirical haplotype pooling approach has been suggested by Gautier and Naves (2011) to “smooth out” population-specific LD that probably results from genetic drift.

The lack of any overlap in the results between the *iHS* and *Rsb* analyses can be accounted for by (i) the reduced power of *iHS* to detect regions in which alleles have almost reached fixation, and (ii) that candidate genome regions identified by *iHS* within EASZ might also be subjected to selection in the reference population. The latter will affect the ability of the *Rsb* analysis to detect these regions. Although both the *Rsb* and F_{ST} statistics are optimal to detect signatures of selection reaching fixation, the absence of overlaps between them

is likely a consequence of the selection time-scale, with *Rsb* being more suitable for detecting recent selection (Oleksyk et al., 2010).

A total of 18 candidate genome regions/SNPs were identified in this study that overlap with genome regions previously found to be under positive selection in other tropical-adapted cattle populations (Table 2.1). These studies focused on West African cattle (Gautier et al., 2009, Flori et al., 2014), admixed Creole cattle (Gautier and Naves, 2011) or zebu cattle (Chan et al., 2010, Porto-Neto et al., 2013). Additionally, four of the identified candidates overlap with regions under positive selection in beef and dairy cattle breeds, e.g., BTA 5: 52.8-64.75 Mb in Charolais cattle (Kemper et al., 2014), BTA 5: 40.65-61.8 Mb in Murrey Grey cattle (Kemper et al., 2014), BTA 13: 57.45-66.45 Mb in Shorthorn cattle (Kemper et al., 2014), BTA 4: 48.06-58.35 Mb in Holstein (Larkin et al., 2012) and BTA 4: 52.2-52.28 Mb in Fleckvieh cattle (Qanbari et al., 2014). This overlapping, in parallel with the intersected production trait QTL, might suggest prior selection for production traits in EASZ and/or LD between loci involved in different metabolic pathway.

Candidate regions: signature of selection or spurious effect?

It may be expected that the pattern of diversity in the genome of EASZ has been influenced by demographic events in a way similar to natural selection, i.e., a reduction in genetic diversity and the persistence of introgressed LD blocks, particularly in the context of our understanding of the history of African zebu cattle that likely has exhibited founding events and introgression. Distinguishing between genomic signatures of selection and/or demographics is difficult (Akey et al., 2002, Qanbari and Simianer, 2014).

It is also worth noting that the SNP chip used in this analysis includes mainly polymorphic variants in European taurine breeds (Matukumalli et al., 2009). This may have led to lower SNP diversity and, hence, increased haplotype homozygosity in zebu cattle in comparison with European taurine breeds. However, the overlap identified between our candidate selected genome regions and those identified in previous studies (Table 2.1) provides some

support to the fact that these regions have been selected by natural selection, as opposed to resulting from genetic drift events.

Interestingly, we have successfully detected substantial excesses-deficiencies of Asian zebu ancestry at some of the identified candidate regions (Table 2.3), which allows one to infer the origin of the selected haplotypes. This, by itself, supports the role that natural selection played on these regions (Tang et al., 2007a). Given that the overall African taurine ancestry proportion in the EASZ genome is only ~ 0.07 (autosomes) and 0.04 (BTA X), as estimated by LAMP 2.4, the presence of “zebu deficient” regions might be the consequence of selection of taurine-specific alleles in the EASZ.

Both of the two approaches used in tackling the ancestral origin issue of the identified candidate regions, LAMP and the inter-population F_{ST} analysis, are based on analysing the allele frequencies of the genotyped SNPs. This may be a major issue for the Illumina Bovine SNP50 BeadChip v.1. The nature of ascertainment bias towards European taurine cattle in the SNP chip used may result in false inferences when attempting to address questions relating to ancestry outside of these breeds. Specifically, lower diversity in zebu than in taurine cattle might be expected, which can lead to lower genetic differentiation between EASZ and Nellore cattle than between EASZ and African taurine cattle (Matukumalli et al., 2009). Inferring the origin of the selected haplotypes in EASZ will be easier and more accurate once the indicine reference genome becomes available.

Potential selection pressures on the candidate regions

We stated in Table 2.2 that various functional term clusters “biological pathways” are enriched in the genes mapped within the candidate region intervals. Selection pressures on these biological pathways would be expected to contribute towards maintaining proper development and growth, as well as an effective immune system in EASZ, in accordance with African environmental constraints. However, it is also important to understand that the

admixed genetic background of these cattle might have been another important selective pressure on the genome of this crossbred population.

A literature survey of the individual genes indicates that several biological pathways/functions could have been targeted by selection pressures associated with the African tropical environment and/or the admixed genetic background. Specific examples of these pathways include: innate and adaptive immunity, male reproduction and fertility, and heat stress tolerance (Table 2.4).

Table 2.4: Candidate genes considered in this chapter. (1) F_{ST}. (2) iHS. (3) Rsb.

Biological role	Candidate region interval	Gene ID	Gene name
Immunological-related	BTA 5: 60,056,520 - 61,056,520	LTA4H ⁽³⁾	Leukotriene a-4 hydrolase
	BTA 5: 75,786,670 - 76,786,670	RAC2 ⁽²⁾	Ras-related c3 botulinum toxin substrate 2
		IL2RB ⁽²⁾	Interleukin 2 receptor, beta
	BTA 11: 62,129,106 - 63,129,106	PELI1 ⁽³⁾	Pellino homolog 1
	BTA 12: 35,240,174 - 36,240,174	IL17D ⁽³⁾	Interleukin 17D
	BTA 23: 27,781,915 - 28,781,915	BOLA ⁽²⁾	MHC class I heavy chain isoform 1
		JSP.1 ⁽²⁾	MHC class I jsp.1
		BOLA-NC ⁽²⁾	MHC, class I
BTA X: 39,942,044 - 43,999,854	IRAK1 ⁽¹⁾	Interleukin-1 receptor-associated kinase 1	
BTA X: 84,566,018 - 85,993,719	IL2RG ⁽¹⁾	Interleukin 2 receptor, gamma	
Muscle function and structure-related	BTA 5: 57,477,594 - 58,477,594	MYL6 ⁽³⁾	Myosin light polypeptide 6
		MYL6B ⁽³⁾	Myosin light chain 6b
	BTA 5: 75,786,670 - 76,786,670	SYT10 ⁽²⁾	Synaptotagmin 10
Hair structure	BTA 19: 42,196,815 - 43,196,815	KRT ⁽³⁾	Members of keratin gene family
Male reproduction-related	BTA 5: 57,477,594 - 58,477,594	OR ⁽³⁾	Members of olfactory receptor family
	BTA 7:52,224,595 - 52,720,797	SPATA24 ⁽¹⁾	Spermatogenesis-associated protein 24
	BTA 12: 28,717,254 - 29,717,254	RXFP2 ⁽³⁾	Relaxin/insulin-like family peptide receptor 2
	BTA 19: 27,369,763 - 27,763,447	SPEM1 ⁽¹⁾	Spermatid maturation 1
	BTA X: 84,566,018-85,993,719	TEX11 ⁽¹⁾	Testis expressed 11
Heat stress response	BTA 2: 125,585,810 – 126,058,677	BNAJC8 ⁽¹⁾	DnaJ (Hsp40) homolog, subfamily c, member 8
	BTA 5: 57,477,594 - 58,477,594	DNAJC14 ⁽³⁾	DnaJ (Hsp40) homolog, subfamily c, member 14
	BTA 7:52,224,595-52,720,797	DNAJC18 ⁽¹⁾	DnaJ (Hsp40) homolog, subfamily c, member 18
	BTA 19: 42,196,815 - 43,196,815	DNAJC7 ⁽³⁾	DnaJ (Hsp40) homolog, subfamily c, member 7
		HSPB9 ⁽³⁾	Heat shock protein beta-9
	BTA 23: 27,781,915 - 28,781,915	PPP1R10 ⁽²⁾	Serine/threonine-protein phosphatase 1 regulatory subunit 10
Coat colour	BTA 5: 57,477,594 - 58,477,594	PMEL17 ⁽³⁾	Premelanosome protein

Indigenous cattle from the tropical environment are affected by several infectious diseases, e.g., babesiosis, tropical theileriosis, East Coast Fever (ECF) (uniquely in Africa) and anaplasmosis (Glass, 2001, Di Giulio et al., 2009, de Clare Bronsvort et al., 2013, Thumbi et al., 2014). It may be expected that these cattle have developed tolerance or resistance to these diseases and their vectors, as shown by the improved resistance to tick burden observed in zebu cattle compared with European taurine cattle (O'Kelly and Spiers, 1976, Porto Neto et al., 2010, Bahbahani and Hanotte, 2015). For these reasons, genes with immunological-related functions are potential hotspots for positive selection in the genome of EASZ.

Several candidate immunological-related genes have been mapped on the candidate genome regions identified, including, for instance, the *Rac2* (Ras-related C3 botulinum toxin substrate 2) gene. *Rac2* has been found to be involved in the differentiation of myeloid precursor cells to a type of innate immune cell (neutrophils) (Didsbury et al., 1989). *IL2RB* (interleukin 2 receptor beta) and *IL2RG* (interleukin 2 receptor gamma) also fall into this category. The IL-2 receptor is a heterotrimeric molecule composed of alpha, beta and gamma subunits. This receptor is expressed on the membrane of T-lymphocytes, and interacts with the IL-2 cytokine to mediate its function in activating antigen-activated T-cells (Malek and Castro, 2010, Wuest et al., 2011). Several Major Histocompatibility Complex (MHC) class I genes have been identified in an iHS-specific candidate region on BTA 23. MHC class I molecules play a crucial role in initiating the immune response upon infection. These molecules are responsible for presenting antigen peptides to cytotoxic T-cells to induce their immunological response (Raghavan et al., 2008). A member of the interleukin 17 cytokine superfamily (*IL17D*) was identified on BTA 12, and although the function of *IL17D* is poorly understood (Chang and Dong, 2011), other members of this cytokine family were shown to play a role in inducing the secretion of proinflammatory cytokines, e.g., IL-6 and IL-8 (Fossiez et al., 1996), and in promoting a Th2-type response (Pappu et al., 2008). A gene identified in the candidate region on BTA 11, *PELI1*, expresses a scaffold protein associated with regulating the immune response induced by Toll-like receptor (TLR) and interleukin 1 receptor (IL-1R) signalling. This

protein is specifically involved in transmitting the TLR/IL-1R intracellular signal to activate the NF- κ B transcription factor and, hence, regulate the expression of proinflammatory genes (Schauvliege et al., 2007). IRAK1 (Interleukin-1 receptor-associated kinase 1) is another gene identified in one of the candidate regions on BTA X, and it is also involved in the IL-1R signalling pathway (O'Neill and Greene, 1998). Finally, the candidate gene leukotriene A-4 hydrolase (LTA4H) has been found to be associated with immune response regulation and inflammation in mammals (Thunnissen et al., 2001).

Another category of genes mapped within the identified candidate genome regions relates to skeletal muscle function and structure. Two of the major purposes of zebu cattle in Kenya are ploughing and transportation (Rege et al., 2001). Consequently, genes improving these activities might have been subjected to positive selection.

The synaptotagmin 10 gene (SYT10) has a role in controlling skeletal muscle contraction. The expressed protein of this gene is a synaptic vesicle-specific protein that has been found to be involved in regulating Ca⁺-dependent neurotransmitter release (Littleton et al., 1993). Littleton et al. (1993) reported, following a *Drosophila* knockout experiment, that this gene is important in coordinating muscle contraction by regulating the release of neurotransmitters in synapses. Members of the myosin light chain are also potential candidate genes due to their associated role in skeletal muscle function, specifically actin filament sliding velocity (Lowey et al., 1993).

Compared with the relatively low temperature in temperate environments, the tropical conditions of the EASZ environment are characterized by a warm climate (20–23°C) (Schmidt et al., 1979) and high humidity (60–80%) (<http://www.weather-and-climate.com/average-monthly-Rainfall-Temperature-Sunshine-in-Kenya>). Previous studies in zebu and taurine cattle have confirmed the expected tolerance (thermotolerance) to heat stress of zebu cattle, which may be characterized by better growth and reproduction rates in these harsh conditions compared with European taurine cattle (Cartwright,

1955, Lampkin and Kennedy, 1965, Skinner and Louw, 1966, Gaughan et al., 1999, Hansen, 2004).

Members of the heat shock protein family were identified in both inter-population F_{ST} and EHH-based Rsb approaches. This gene family plays a critical role in maintaining protein folding and structure under stress (Parsell and Lindquist, 1994, Coleman et al., 1995). Members of the DnaJ family (DNAJC7, DNAJC 8, DNAJC 14 and DNAJC18), which act as cofactors for the heat shock protein 70 (Hsp70) (Kampinga and Craig, 2010), were also found within the candidate regions identified in this study.

Serine/threonine-protein phosphatase 1 (PPP1) regulatory subunit 10 (PPP1R10) is another example of a stress response protein. A previous *in vitro* study by Shi and Manley (2007) has indicated a role of PPP1 in the heat shock response. This study deduced that PPP1 dephosphorylates and, hence, activates a splicing repressor (SRp38) in response to heat shock. Gautier and Naves (2011) detected another PPP1 regulatory subunit (PPP1R8) in a positively-selected genome region in Creole cattle.

Previous studies on zebu cows and bulls have demonstrated superior fertility and semen quality compared with European taurine breeds under similar heat stress conditions (Lampkin and Kennedy, 1965, Skinner and Louw, 1966, Hansen, 2004). SPATA24 and SPEM1, which are mapped within the candidate regions in BTA 7 and BTA 19, play critical roles during spermatogenesis by mediating chromatin remodelling and cytoplasm removal in developing sperm (Zheng et al., 2007, Brancorsini et al., 2008).

An important gene located in the most significant Rsb candidate genome region in BTA 12 is the relaxin/insulin-like family peptide receptor 2 (RXFP2). The role of this gene in testicular descent development has been demonstrated to impact male fertility (Gorlov et al., 2002, AgoulNIK, 2007, Feng et al., 2009). Because testicular descent is an important adaptation to maintaining proper spermatogenesis when the core body temperature reaches 34–35°C (Park et al., 2008), selection on RXFP2 may, therefore, be of importance for

the adaptation of EASZ to warm conditions, thereby allowing EASZ to maintain normal male reproductive function. Interestingly, the genome region harbouring RXFP2 has also been shown to be under positive selection in tropically adapted Creole cattle (Gautier and Naves, 2011) and West African admixed Borgou cattle (Flori et al., 2014), as well as under diversifying selection between zebu and taurine cattle (Porto-Neto et al., 2013). Recently, this gene has been linked to reproductive success and survival rate in a Soay sheep population (Johnston et al., 2013).

The olfactory receptor family genes identified in the candidate region (BTA 5: 57,977,594 bp) can be classified as reproduction-related genes. Members of this gene family have been found to be expressed in human and dog testes (Parmentier et al., 1992), and more specifically in mature sperm cells (Vanderhaeghen et al., 1993, Spehr et al., 2003). It has been suggested that this receptor family plays a role during the guidance of sperm to the oocyte during fertilization via an interaction with various chemoattractants secreted by the oocyte-cumulus cells complex in a phenomenon called “chemotaxis” (Spehr et al., 2003, Fukuda et al., 2004, Guidobaldi et al., 2012).

Several members of the keratin gene family have been found in a candidate Rsb genome region interval on BTA 19. Keratin is the key protein involved in the process of regulating skin pigmentation and hair follicle growth (Gu and Coulombe, 2007). Moreover, PMEL17 was identified in a candidate region on BTA 5 and it has a role in regulating coat colour via eumelanin formation (Theos et al., 2005, McGlinchey et al., 2009). Variants in this gene have been linked to the silver coat colour phenotype in horses (Brunberg et al., 2006) and hypopigmentation in chickens (Kerje et al., 2004). This gene has also been considered to be a candidate for positive selection in West African admixed Borgou cattle (Flori et al., 2014). In a recent study by Porto-Neto et al. (2014), a large overlapping interval on BTA 5 (20–60 Mb) in Brahman and tropical composite cattle has been associated with several traits, such as coat colour, penile sheath and parasite resistance.

Hair colour and structure are associated with tick-resistance and thermotolerance in cattle. Martinez et al. (2006) stated that short-straight hair and light coat colour conferred more tick-burden resistance in Gir x Holstein cattle than long hair and dark coats. In another study, short-smooth hair was also linked to thermoregulation in Holstein cattle under heat stress conditions (Dikmen et al., 2008). Tropical-adapted cattle, e.g., Senepol, are characterized by the short sleek hair coat “Slick phenotype” to maintain low body temperature under heat stress (Hammond et al., 1998, Olson et al., 2003). Given that EASZ cattle are mainly have brown, short hair coats (Mbole-Kariuki, 2012), these genes might be considered to be targets of selection to confer some level of resistance to tick infestation and thermotolerance.

Trypanotolerance QTL

Interestingly, the tolerant alleles of the trypanotolerance QTL identified on BTA 7 are of taurine origin, whilst the parasite detection rate QTL on BTA 13 was found to be of zebu origin. The remaining trypanotolerant QTL on BTA 13 and BTA 29 demonstrate an overdominance inheritance mode (Hanotte et al., 2003). This explains the adaptive role of the zebu-aurine admixture in EASZ. It is likely that a degree of trypanotolerance in EASZ is conferred by these QTL, given that other East African cattle have also been shown to have the same adaptation (e.g., Orma Boran and Mursi cattle) (Dolan, 1987, Mwangi et al., 1993, Bahbahani and Hanotte, 2015). It has been shown that the introgression of the trypanotolerance QTL from African N'Dama cattle into Kenyan Boran cattle increased the level of trypanotolerance in this zebu cattle population (Orenge et al., 2012).

Conclusion

In this chapter, the whole genome of an EASZ cattle population has been explored to define regions harbouring signatures of positive selection using the low-density Illumina BovineSNP50 BeadChip v.1. After conducting three different signature selection analyses using more than 40,000 genome-wide

SNP genotypes, 24 genome regions were defined to be candidates for positive selection on the genome of EASZ.

Because of the confounding effect of natural demographic events in the EASZ genome diversity pattern, it is important to validate the role of natural selection at these candidate regions in other admixed cattle populations living under similar environmental conditions. Moreover, the ascertainment bias and low genome coverage issues associated with this SNP chip are additional directions that require improvement to fine map these selection signatures. All of these issues have been considered more carefully in the next two chapters of this thesis.

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Chapter three

**Signatures of positive selection in East African shorthorn zebu:
Autosomal high-density genome-wide single nucleotide
polymorphism and full genome sequence analyses**

Abstract

Genome-wide identification of signatures of positive selection requires high genome coverage with informative markers and linkage disequilibrium over short distances. These requirements were only partly met by the Illumina BovineSNP50 BeadChip (Chapter 2) given the relatively low number and the ascertainment bias of the markers. Here, we genotyped East African Shorthorn Zebu (EASZ) with the Illumina BovineHD BeadChip, which includes more than 770,000 SNP markers to identify candidate regions of signatures of positive selection across all EASZ autosomes. To increase power, we combined SNP genotyping information from two Extended Haplotype Homozygosity (EHH)-based (Rsb and iHs) tests and one inter-population allele frequency (ΔAF) test in a single composite analysis. We identified 101 candidate regions of positive selection. The full genome of 10 pooled EASZ was also sequenced, and pooled heterozygosities (Hp) of 100 kb sliding windows were calculated, leading to the identification of 165 candidate sweep regions for positive selection. Thirty-five candidate regions were common to both analyses. Fourteen showed substantial zebu ancestral deviations from the mean of the genome, suggesting a possible origin for the selected haplotypes. We assessed the presence of these 35 candidate regions in zebu-taurine admixed cattle populations from Uganda (East Africa) and Nigeria (West Africa). Fifteen regions are present in East African zebu cattle, and seven are shared between East and West African zebu cattle. Furthermore, the identification of candidate regions common to East and West African zebu cattle populations allows us to fine map these regions up to ~ 94 kb. Genes and QTL associated with adaptive traits, e.g., reproduction, immunity and heat stress, were found within the regions, indicating possible selection for adaptation to the African environment, and/or the intrinsic zebu-taurine admixed genome background. Four non-synonymous variants were found in three candidate genes as possible causative mutations under selection. The results of this chapter are paving the way for the identification of the functional autosomal causative mutations linked to the adaptation of the EASZ.

Introduction

In Chapter 2, we used the Illumina BovineSNP50 BeadChip to successfully identify the candidate signatures of positive selection in East African Shorthorn Zebu. However, our approach had several methodological limitations, including insufficient genome coverage and SNP ascertainment bias towards European taurine breeds (Matukumalli et al., 2009). The subsequent development of the high-density Illumina BovineHD BeadChip addresses to a large extent these issues (Rincon et al., 2011). It has been estimated that at least 300,000 evenly distributed SNPs are required to adequately represent the entire cattle genome and demonstrate a consistent LD phase between markers across breeds (Goddard and Hayes, 2009). The Illumina BovineHD genotyping BeadChip contains more than 700,000 SNPs with an average inter-marker space of 3.43 kb. Also, a substantial number of zebu cattle (a total of 104 samples from Brahman, Gir and Nellore) were used in the process of SNP validation, thereby addressing the European taurine SNP ascertainment bias typically observed in the Illumina BovineSNP50 BeadChip(http://res.illumina.com/documents/products/datasheets/datasheet_bovinehd.pdf). Thus, the use of this new tool may prove to be particularly informative for our comprehensive search of the signatures of positive selection in EASZ.

Already, a few studies have demonstrated its usefulness in zebu and taurine cattle. Santana et al. (2014) and Utsunomiya et al. (2013a) performed association studies between SNP markers and feed efficiency and birth weight, respectively. The same tool has also been used in Holstein and Red Dairy cattle for the prediction of genomic breeding values for protein yield, fertility and udder health traits (Su et al., 2012). However, the utilization of this high-density SNP chip in the detection of signatures of positive selection has only been reported hitherto in two studies, dealing with improved dairy and/or beef cattle breeds (Utsunomiya et al., 2013b, Perez O'Brien et al., 2014). Utsunomiya et al. (2013b) have reported for the first time in cattle the use of a composite mapping index “Meta-analysis of Selection Signals” to define footprints of positive selection related to beef and milk production traits, with

the anticipation that “If each signature provides distinct information about selective sweeps, combining the signals should have greater power for localizing the source of selection than any single test” (Grossman et al., 2010). More specifically, in this study the SNP-specific P-values of four genome-wide analyses, *iHS*, *Rsb*, ΔDAF (difference in derived allele frequency between two populations) and a SNP-specific local heterozygosity depression analysis (*SHp*), were combined into a single value. The approach uses the Z-transformation method “Stouffer’s method” (Stouffer et al., 1949), which can be used to combine the SNP-specific P-values from multiple genome-wide tests (Whitlock, 2005).

In addition to high-density SNP chips, the full genome sequence data have also been analysed in livestock for the detection of candidate signatures of positive selection. Indeed, several next-generation sequencing platform manufacturers have been established in recent years, including Roche/454, Illumina, SOLiD, etc. (Metzker, 2010). They are now routinely in use, while new platforms are being developed. The continuous improvement of these platforms in terms of read length, sequencing speed and accuracy, and reduction in sequencing cost means that full genome sequences may be increasingly investigated for the detection of signatures of positive selection in livestock.

Already, by assessing pooled heterozygosity in sliding windows within the chicken genome, several selective sweep regions in broiler and layer chicken breeds have been found to be associated with growth rates and reproduction (Rubin et al., 2010). Based on the same approach, positively selected genome regions carrying genes linked to coat colour, muscle development, growth and body composition have been identified in domestic pig breeds (Amaral et al., 2011, Rubin et al., 2012). In cattle, the detection of signatures of selection through full genome sequencing has been reported in the commercial Holstein-Friesian breed, where Larkin et al. (2012) detected positive selection signals in genome regions overlapping with previously identified milk-production QTL and genes related to milk production, e.g., *Plasminogen*. Recently, the genome of the *Bos taurus indicus* cattle (*Gir*) has also been fully sequenced, and characterised for selective sweeps (Liao et al., 2013). Genes associated with

heat tolerance, innate immunity and brain function have been identified. These may have contributed to the Gir adaptability and resistance to parasites in tropical climates (Berman, 2011, Liao et al., 2013).

Following the detection of candidate regions and genes under positive selection, identification of the putative causative variants has also been attempted in livestock. These variants can be classified into SNPs and copy number variants (CNV), e.g., small (≤ 10 bp) insertions/ deletion (indels) and large-scale (> 1 kb) CNV. For example, a single glycine to arginine non-synonymous mutation at residue 558 on TSHR has been considered as a candidate causal variant for the TSHR sweep during chicken domestication (Rubin et al., 2010). Moreover, in commercial European domestic pig breeds, a non-synonymous substitution at residue 192 (proline to leucine) in the NR6A1 protein has been proposed as the causative mutation for the QTL associated with increased number of vertebrae in the comparison of domestic pigs to the wild boar ancestor (Mikawa et al., 2007).

Beside non-synonymous mutations, several CNV have been shown to be associated with different phenotypes in livestock. For example, a deletion in all but the first exon of the SH3RF2 is highly associated with increased growth rate in domestic chicken (Rubin et al., 2010). In pigs, four duplication events (one encompasses the entire KIT gene, one upstream and two downstream of the same gene) are responsible for the white coat colour (Rubin et al., 2012). Similarly, the same phenotype in sheep has been attributed to a duplication of the entire ASIP gene (Norris and Whan, 2008).

Here, we report for the first time an autosomal-wide analysis for signatures of positive selection in the EASZ using high-density genome-wide SNP genotyping and full genome (autosomal) sequencing. Regions revealed by these two tools were considered candidate regions for positive selection, and they were functionally characterized to define biological pathways. These regions were further validated by comparing them with candidate regions identified in different indigenous zebu-taurine admixed cattle from East (Uganda) and West (Nigeria) Africa through high-density genome-wide SNP

analysis. Putative causative mutations (SNPs and CNV) were investigated within candidate genes located in the EASZ full genome and genome-wide SNP analyses' overlapping regions.

Materials and Methods

SNP genotyping and quality control

A total of 92 non-European introgressed EASZ from 20 different randomly selected sublocations covering four distinct ecological zones in the Western and Nyanza provinces of Kenya (de Clare Bronsvort et al., 2013, Mbole-Kariuki et al., 2014), which were genotyped for 777,962 SNPs mapped to the UMD3.1 bovine reference genome (Elsik et al., 2009) using the Illumina BovineHD Genotyping BeadChip (Rincon et al., 2011). Genotypes from 105 Nigerian (NGR) zebu (25 Adamawa Gudali (AG), 2 Azawak (AZ), 22 Bunaji (BJ), 22 Red bororo (OR), 19 Sokoto Gudali (SO), 3 Wadara (WD) and 12 Yakanaji (YK)), 8 Muturu (MT) (NGR taurine), 77 Ugandan (UGN) zebu (25 Ankole (AO), 16 Karamojong zebu (KR), 23 Nanda (NG), 13 Serere zebu (ZS)), 24 N'Dama (NDM) from Guinea (African taurine), 63 Holstein-Friesian (HOL) (European taurine), 36 Jersey (JER) (European taurine), 35 Nellore (NEL) (Asian zebu) and 30 Gir (GIR) (Asian zebu) were provided by Dr Tad Sonstegard and Dr Heather Huson (USDA-ARS, Maryland), Dr Oyekanmi Nash (NABDA, Nigeria) and Dr Christopher Mukasa (Ahmadu Bello University, Nigeria).

The quality control (QC) was conducted on the autosomal SNPs with known mapping coordinates (735,297 SNPs) in all the cattle samples using check.marker function implemented in the GenABEL package (Aulchenko et al., 2007) for the R software (R Development Core Team, 2012). SNPs with a minor allele frequency (MAF) of less than 5% ($n = 68,731$) or call rate of less than 95% ($n = 18,667$) were filtered out from the dataset. These included a small number ($n = 1,712$) of SNPs found to fail both criteria. In total, 649,611 SNPs were therefore retained. The ancestral allele for 373,005 SNPs of these SNPs has been reported previously by Utsunomiya et al. (2013b) following the

genotyping of three non-cattle Bovinae species: two *Bos gaurus* (gaur), six *Bubalus bubalis* (water buffalo) and two *B. grunniens* (yak), with fixed allele in the three species considered as ancestral. These SNPs only were included in the signatures of selection analyses (mean genome gap size = 6.7 kb, median genome gap size = 4.4 kb, SD = 12.1 kb).

QC also excluded samples with a genotyping call rate below 95%, or in which pairwise identity-by-state (IBS) was greater than 95%, with the lower call rate animal eliminated. One ZS sample did not pass the genotyping call rate criterion, while 15 samples (2 GIR, 1 NEL, 4 HOL, 4 JER, 2 AG, 1 AZ and 1 WD) were excluded due to the IBS criterion.

Extended Haplotype Homozygosity (EHH)-based statistics (Rsb and iHS)

Rsb (Tang et al., 2007) analyses were performed between each of the African stable zebu-taurine admixed cattle populations (Tijjani, 2013, Mbole-Kariuki et al., 2014) (EASZ, combined UGN zebu cattle populations (AO, KR, NG, ZS) and combined NGR zebu cattle populations (AG, AZ, BJ, OR, SO, WD, YK)) and the combined reference cattle populations (NEL, GIR, NDM, MT, HOL, JER) using the rehh package (Gautier and Vitalis, 2012) for the R software (R Development Core Team, 2012). Additional Rsb analyses were also performed between EASZ and the continental-specific cattle reference populations, namely European taurine (HOL and JER), African taurine (NDM and MT), and Asian zebu (NEL and GIR). The standardized Rsb values were normally distributed (Figure S3.1), so a one-tailed Z-test was applied to identify statistically significant SNPs under selection on the African stable admixed cattle genome. One-sided upper-tail P-values were derived as $1 - \Phi(Rsb)$ from the Gaussian cumulative density function Φ . Candidate regions were defined as having five adjacent SNPs not separated by more than 500 kb (the average extent of LD in cattle (McKay et al., 2007)) passing the threshold of $-\log_{10}$ P-value = 4, which corresponds to P-values equal to 0.0001.

iHS (Voight et al., 2006) analyses were conducted on EASZ, combined UGN zebu cattle and combined NGR zebu cattle populations using the rehh package

(Gautier and Vitalis, 2012) for the R software (R Development Core Team, 2012). This statistic was calculated for SNPs that passed the QC criteria and exhibit a within-population MAF of at least 0.05, since the algorithm of iHS is not optimal for the calculation of the statistic on fixed allele SNPs. As with Rsb, the standardized iHS values followed a normal distribution (Figure S3.1), so a two-tailed Z-test was applied to identify statistically significant SNPs under selection with either an unusual extended haplotype of ancestral or derived alleles relative to the autosomes. Two-sided P-values were derived as $1-2|\Phi(iHS)-0.5|$ from the Gaussian cumulative density function Φ . Candidate regions were defined as in Rsb.

As a prerequisite to the Rsb and iHS analyses, fastPHASE 1.4 (Scheet and Stephens, 2006) was used to phase the genotyped SNPs into the corresponding haplotypes using K10 and T10 criteria (Utsunomiya et al., 2013b). Population label information was used to estimate the phased haplotype background.

Inter-population change in SNP allele frequency (ΔAF)

Grossman et al. (2010) described a method called ΔDAF to assess if there is a difference in derived allele frequency between two populations at a SNP. ΔAF is a derivation of ΔDAF , which investigates absolute allele frequency difference between two populations (Carneiro et al., 2014). In this analysis, the mean frequency of allele 1 was estimated for EASZ, combined UGN zebu cattle and combined NGR zebu cattle populations, separately (AF_{pop1}). Likewise, the mean frequency of allele 1 for each SNP was calculated for the reference cattle populations, combined and separated (AF_{pop2}). The values of ΔAF ($AF_{pop1} - AF_{pop2}$) were normally distributed (Figure S3.1). These values were standardized using the distribution mean and standard deviation (SD) (standardized $\Delta AF = (\Delta AF - \text{mean } \Delta AF) / \text{SD } \Delta AF$) and a two-tailed Z-test was applied to identify statistically significant SNPs showing higher allele frequency in population 1. Two-sided P-values were derived as $1-2|\Phi(\text{standardized } \Delta AF)-0.5|$ from the Gaussian cumulative density function Φ . Candidate regions were defined as having five adjacent SNPs not separated by more than 500 kb passing the threshold of $-\log_{10}$ P-value = 4.

Meta-analysis of Selection Signals (meta-SS)

The Stouffer method was used to combine the P-values obtained from the three tests, R_{sb} , iHS and ΔAF , for each analysed set of populations, i.e., EASZ, UGN and NGR, in meta-SS analyses as in Utsunomiya et al. (2013b). Each value, for every SNP in each test, was transformed to a Z-score via the quantile function `qnorm` in R software. Then, the SNP-specific Z-scores were combined together according to the following equation: $Z_i = (Z_{R_{sb}} + Z_{iHS} + Z_{\Delta AF}) / \sqrt{k}$, where i and k are numbers of SNPs and tests, respectively. The resulting Z-scores were referred back to the standard normal distribution to obtain combined P-values. Candidate regions were defined as having five adjacent SNPs not separated by more than 500 kb passing the threshold of $-\log_{10} P\text{-value} = 4$.

EASZ whole genome sequencing

Two pools of five unrelated EASZ DNA samples were sequenced using an ABI SOLiD 4 genetic analyser. One pool included five animals that survived one year on farm from their date of birth, while the other pool included five animals that died within one year following infection episode(s) (Table S3.1). SOLiD 2 x 50 bp mate-paired libraries (1.5 kb average insertion) were constructed and sequenced at the Deep Seq facility at the University of Nottingham according to the manufacturer's instructions. Reads were mapped to the UMD3.1 bovine reference genome (Elsik et al., 2009) using the LifeScope Genomic Analysis software 2.5.1 re-sequencing mapping pipeline (<http://www.lifetechnologies.com/lifescopel>). The sequences of the two pools were combined into a single pool of 10 EASZ samples. SNPs and indels were called using the diBayes package implemented in LifeScope. A minimum coverage of two uniquely mapped reads and two non-reference allele counts were required. Additionally, a minimum read mapping quality of 20 ($MAPQ \geq 20$) and base quality of 20 were also implemented.

Selective sweep analysis (pooled heterozygosity H_p)

Pooled heterozygosity H_p of SNPs detected in the pooled 10 EASZ full genome SOLiD sequences were calculated on 100 kb sliding windows with 10 kb incremental steps. Window sizes were extended by the number of uncovered bases to improve the accuracy of the calculation and consistency across windows. For each SNP in the window, the number of reads for the most and least frequent allele was counted (n_{MAJ} and n_{MIN} , respectively). H_p values were calculated using the following formula: $H_p = 2 \sum n_{MAJ} \sum n_{MIN} / (\sum n_{MAJ} + \sum n_{MIN})^2$ (Rubin et al., 2010). The H_p values were Z-transformed ($ZH_p = H_p - \text{mean } H_p / \text{SD } H_p$). A $ZH_p \leq -4$ was applied as a threshold to specify windows carrying a selective sweep as in Liao et al. (2013). Overlapping candidate windows were merged into a single region as described by Rubin et al. (2010) and Liao et al. (2013).

Candidate regions characterization

Protein-coding and RNA genes mapped within the candidate regions were processed using the functional annotation tool implemented in DAVID Bioinformatics resources 6.7 to determine the over-represented (enriched) functional terms (Huang da et al., 2009a, Huang da et al., 2009b). An enrichment score of 1.3, which is equivalent to the Fisher exact test P-value = 0.05, was used as a threshold to define the significantly enriched functional terms in comparison to the whole bovine reference genome background. The list of genes mapped on the UMD3.1 reference bovine genome was obtained from the Ensembl Genes 73 database (Flicek et al., 2013) using the BioMart tool (Kinsella et al., 2011). The coordinates of the genes were intersected with the candidate sweep regions using intersectBed function from the BedTools software (Quinlan and Hall, 2010).

Variants (SNPs and indels) in the genes were annotated using the variant effect predictor tool on the Ensembl website (Flicek et al., 2013). Comparisons with the previously discovered bovine variants listed in the dbSNP database (Sherry et al., 2001) (<http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/SNP/>) classified these variants into

EASZ-specific and general bovine variants. The biological effects of the candidate non-synonymous variants were predicted by PolyPhen-2 online tool (Adzhubei et al., 2010).

The bovine Quantitative Trait Loci (QTL) and their genome coordinates (UMD 3.1) were downloaded from the cattle QTL database (<http://www.animalgenome.org/cgi-bin/QTLdb/BT/index>). The intersectBed function from the BedTools software (Quinlan and Hall, 2010) was used to overlap these QTL with the identified candidate regions for positive selection.

EASZ exome enrichment and sequencing

The Agilent SureSelect^{XT} target enrichment kit (cat no. G7530-90004) was used for bovine exome sequence enrichment. It covers the coding regions in the UMD3.1 reference genome (coding regions from Refseq and Ensembl, no UTR “untranslated regions”) and microRNA, or a total of ~ 45 Mb of the bovine sequence. The exomes of 10 EASZ samples (Table S3.1) were sequenced at the Deep Seq facility at the University of Nottingham using an ABI SOLiD 5500 genetic analyser.

Using the LifeScope Enrichment Sequencing Pipeline, the generated 75 bp reads were mapped to the UMD3.1 bovine reference genome (Elsik et al., 2009). Only those reads with MAPQ ≥ 30 were considered for depth of coverage analysis. Table S3.2 summarizes the number of aligned reads, average depth of coverage and percentage of reference exome for each sample. The same SNP calling criteria used in the EASZ whole genome sequence were implemented for the exome analysis except that reads with MAPQ ≥ 30 and base quality of 28 were used.

Copy Number Variation (CNV) analysis

To identify putative CNV (multiple copies), we identified regions in the 10 sequenced EASZ exomes that have different sequence depth coverage compared to the average depth coverage for the whole exome. The depth of

coverage (DOC) was calculated using the Genome Analysis Toolkit (GATK) (McKenna et al., 2010). For each EASZ sequence, these values were normalized against the total number of reads divided by 1,000,000 for comparison between samples. As the distributions of these normalized values were positively skewed (Figure S3.2), they were standardised based on their median and standard deviation (SD) using the following equation: $SDOC = (DOC - \text{median } DOC) / SD - DOC$. SDOC value of three was arbitrarily chosen to define targeted regions with multiple copies. The GC content of the 10 EASZ exome sequences was calculated using GATK (McKenna et al., 2010).

Estimating Asian zebu ancestry proportion in EASZ (admixture analysis)

Admixture analysis via a Bayesian clustering method implemented in STRUCTURE software version 2.3 (Pritchard et al., 2000) was conducted on the autosomes for the EASZ, NDM, MT, NEL, GIR. Three independent replicates of an admixed model with independent allele frequencies were run for a burn-in period of 25,000 iterations and 50,000 Markov Chain Monte Carlo steps for $K = 2$. The mean output file was generated using CLUMPP software version 1.1.2 (Jakobsson and Rosenberg, 2007) and graphically displayed by Distruct software version 1.1 (Rosenberg, 2004).

Estimation of excesses-deficiencies in Asian zebu ancestry at candidate regions

LAMP software version 2.4 (Sankararaman et al., 2008) was used to estimate the Asian zebu and African taurine ancestry proportions of the genotyped SNPs in EASZ samples. The genome-wide autosomal zebu ancestry proportion (71%) and the African taurine ancestry proportion (29%) in EASZ were obtained from the admixture proportions α of the STRUCTURE analysis (Pritchard et al., 2000). An estimated number of 500 generations was set for the beginning of the zebu-taurine admixture in light of our current knowledge of zebu arrival on the continent, assuming a generation time of six years (Keightley and Eyre-Walker, 2000). A uniform recombination rate of $1 \text{ cM} = 1 \text{ Mb}$ was assumed. The average excess/deficiency in Asian zebu ancestry at

each SNP (ΔAZ) was calculated by subtracting the average estimated Asian zebu ancestry of the SNP from the average estimated Asian zebu ancestry of all SNPs across autosomes. The median ΔAZ for the significant SNPs of EASZ meta-SS analysis within candidate regions were considered.

Results

Genome-wide SNP analyses

Results of iHS , Rsb and ΔAF analyses between EASZ and the combined reference populations are presented in Figure 3.1 with the genome position of the significant regions presented in Table S3.3. A single candidate region in BTA 7 was identified by the iHS analysis, while 19 and six regions were considered as candidates by the Rsb and ΔAF analyses, respectively.

As the results of the three tests followed a normal distribution (Figure S3.1), and their genome-wide average P-values were weakly correlated (Pearson correlation coefficient $r \leq 0.228$, Table S3.4), the P-values of each SNP for the three tests were combined in a meta-SS analysis. A total of 98 autosomal candidate regions were defined by this analysis (Figure 3.1 and Table S3.3). All candidate regions revealed by each individual test were identified as candidate regions in the meta-SS analysis, with the exception of three regions on BTA 13 identified by the ΔAF analysis only. Seventy-seven new candidate regions were detected after combining the P-values of the three tests.

Of the total 98 candidate regions, 58 and 60 were identified when the EASZ population was analysed against European taurine (HOL and JER) and African taurine (NDM and MT) populations, respectively, in separate meta-SS analyses (Figure S3.6 and Table S3.5). However, only 15 regions were identified upon comparison against the Asian zebu (Figure S3.3 and Table S3.5).

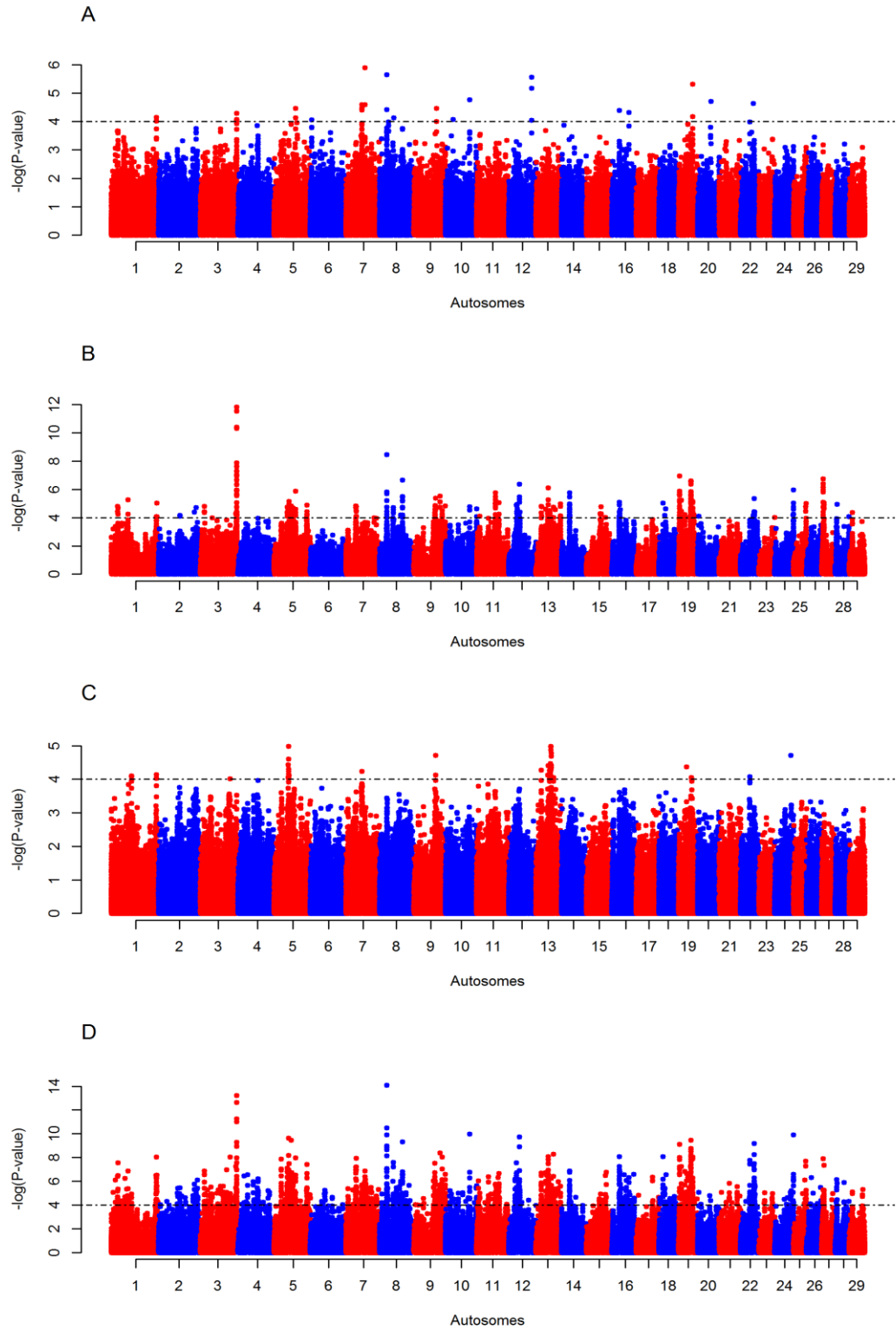


Figure 3.1: Manhattan plots of the genome-wide autosomal (A) EASZ iHS, (B) Rsb, (C) ΔAF and (D) meta-SS analyses between EASZ and combined reference populations (Holstein-Friesian, Jersey, N'Dama, Muturu, Nellore and Gir). Threshold set as $-\log_{10} P\text{-value} = 4$.

Results of analyses between the zebu cattle populations of Uganda or Nigeria with the combined reference populations are presented in Figures 3.2 and 3.3 with the genome position of the significant regions presented in Tables S3.6 and S3.7. In zebu cattle populations from Uganda (UGN), the three tests (iHS, Rsb and ΔAF) revealed 6, 25 and 3 autosomal candidate regions, respectively. The analyses with zebu cattle from Nigeria (NGR) showed 4, 22 and 4 autosomal candidate regions for the iHS, Rsb and ΔAF tests, respectively. After combining the tests P-values, 86 and 97 autosomal regions were considered as candidate regions for positive selection in UGN and NGR zebu cattle populations, respectively (Figure 3.2, Figure 3.3, Table S3.6, and Table S3.7).

Of the 101 identified autosomal candidate regions from EASZ comparisons, 32 candidate regions were identified in the zebu cattle populations from Uganda (East African zebu-sharing candidate regions). Fourteen regions were found to overlap between the EASZ and the NGR zebu cattle candidate regions (Table S3.8). Whilst, 22 regions were shared across the three comparisons (East and West African zebu-sharing candidate regions) (Figure 3.4).

The genome coordinates of East African zebu-sharing and East and West African zebu-sharing candidate regions are indicated in Table 3.1. Comparisons between EASZ, UGN and NGR allowed us to narrow down the size of 18 candidate regions. As indicated in Table 3.2, these regions now range in size from ~ 94 kb to ~ 894 kb with the largest reduction in size (~ 1.9 Mb) observed for the candidate region on BTA 12.

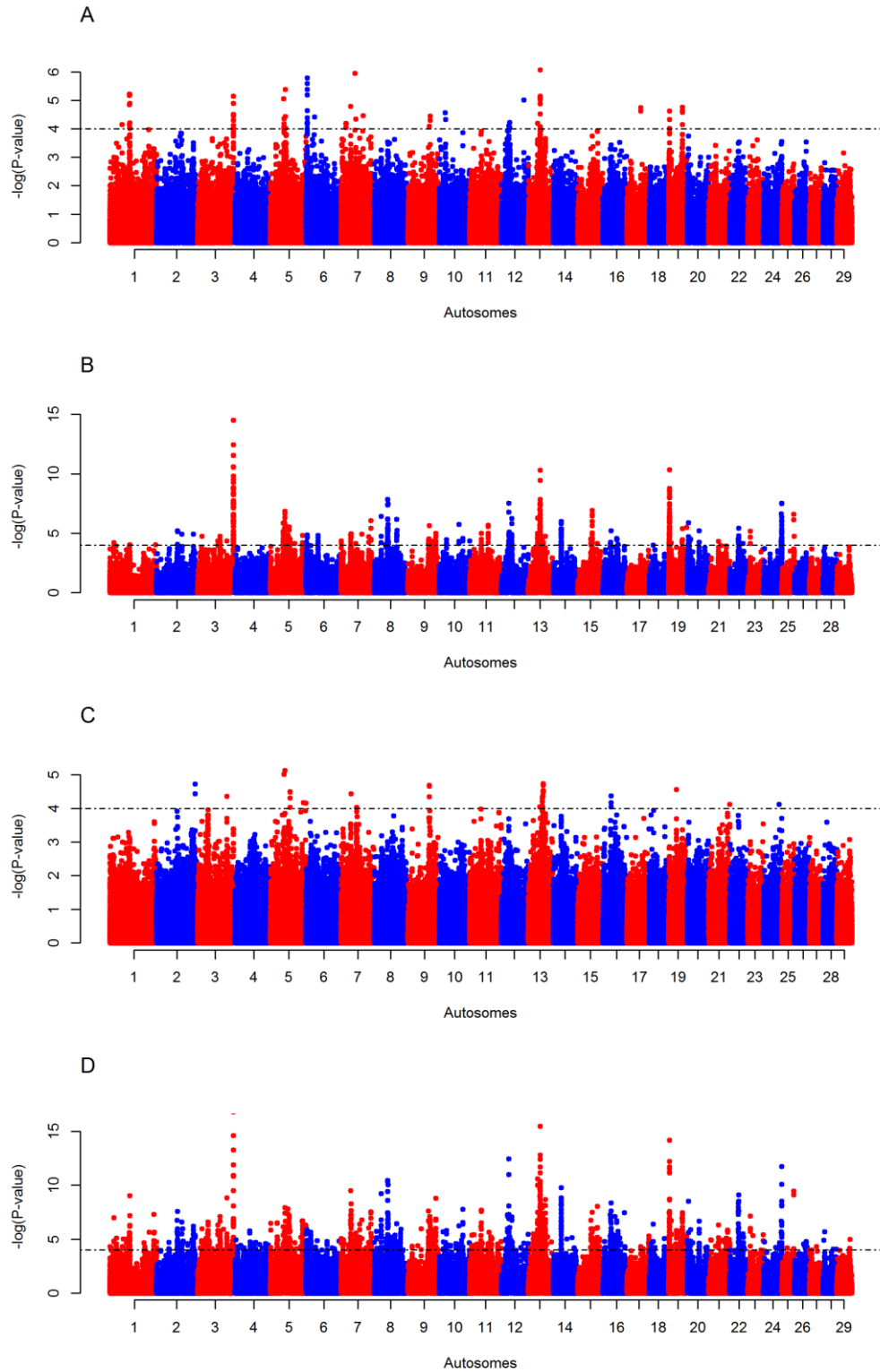


Figure 3.2: Manhattan plots of the genome-wide autosomal (A) iHS on zebu cattle populations from Uganda (UGN), (B) Rsb, (C) ΔAF and (D) meta-SS analyses between UGN and combined reference populations (Holstein-Friesian, Jersey, N'Dama, Muturu, Nellore and Gir). Threshold set as $-\log_{10} P\text{-value} = 4$.

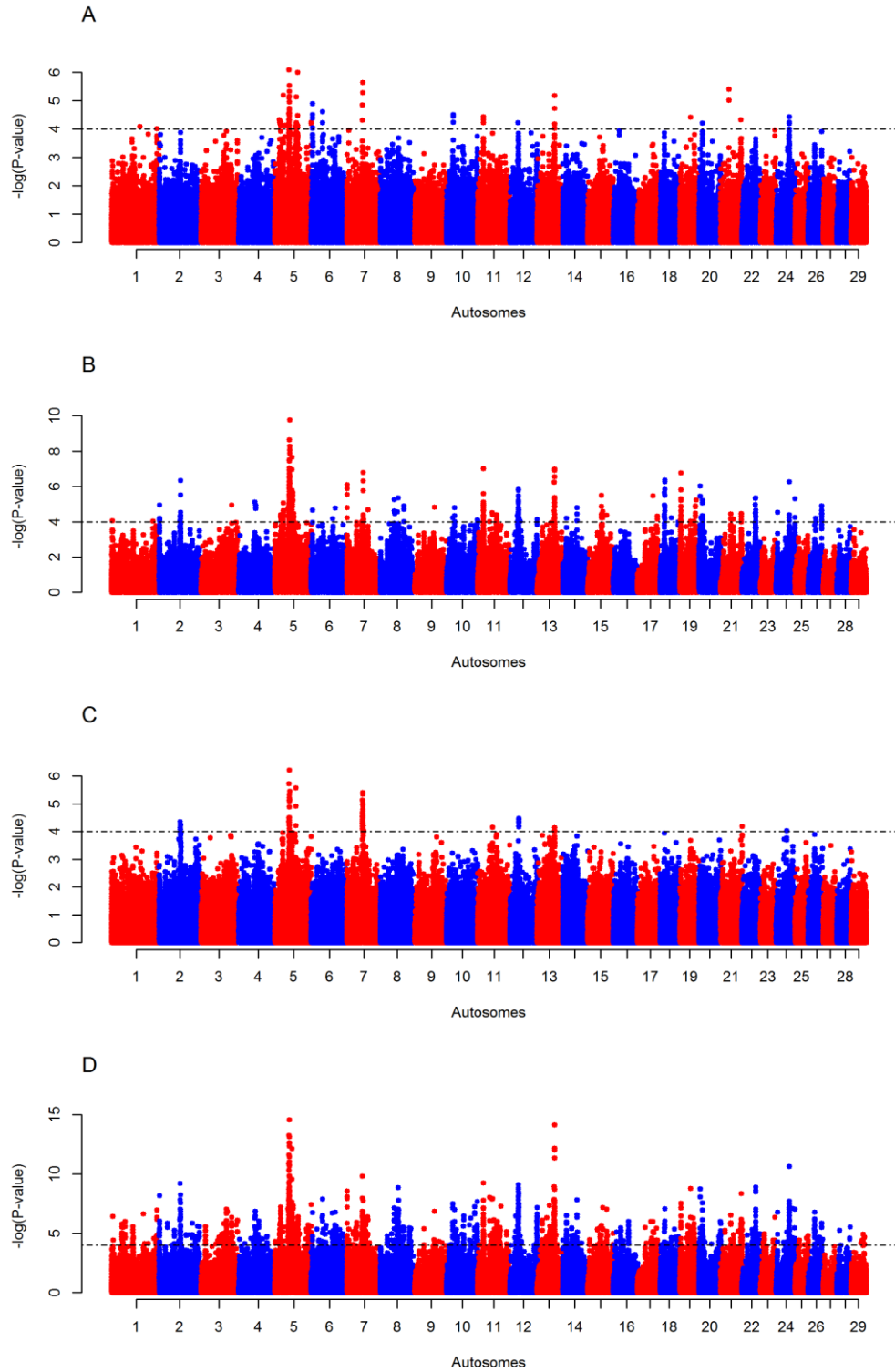


Figure 3.3: Manhattan plots of the genome-wide autosomal (A) iHS on zebu cattle populations from Nigeria (NGR), (B) Rsb, (C) ΔAF and (D) meta-SS analyses between NGR and combined reference populations (Holstein-Friesian, Jersey, N'Dama, Muturu, Nellore and Gir). Threshold set as $-\log_{10} P\text{-value} = 4$.

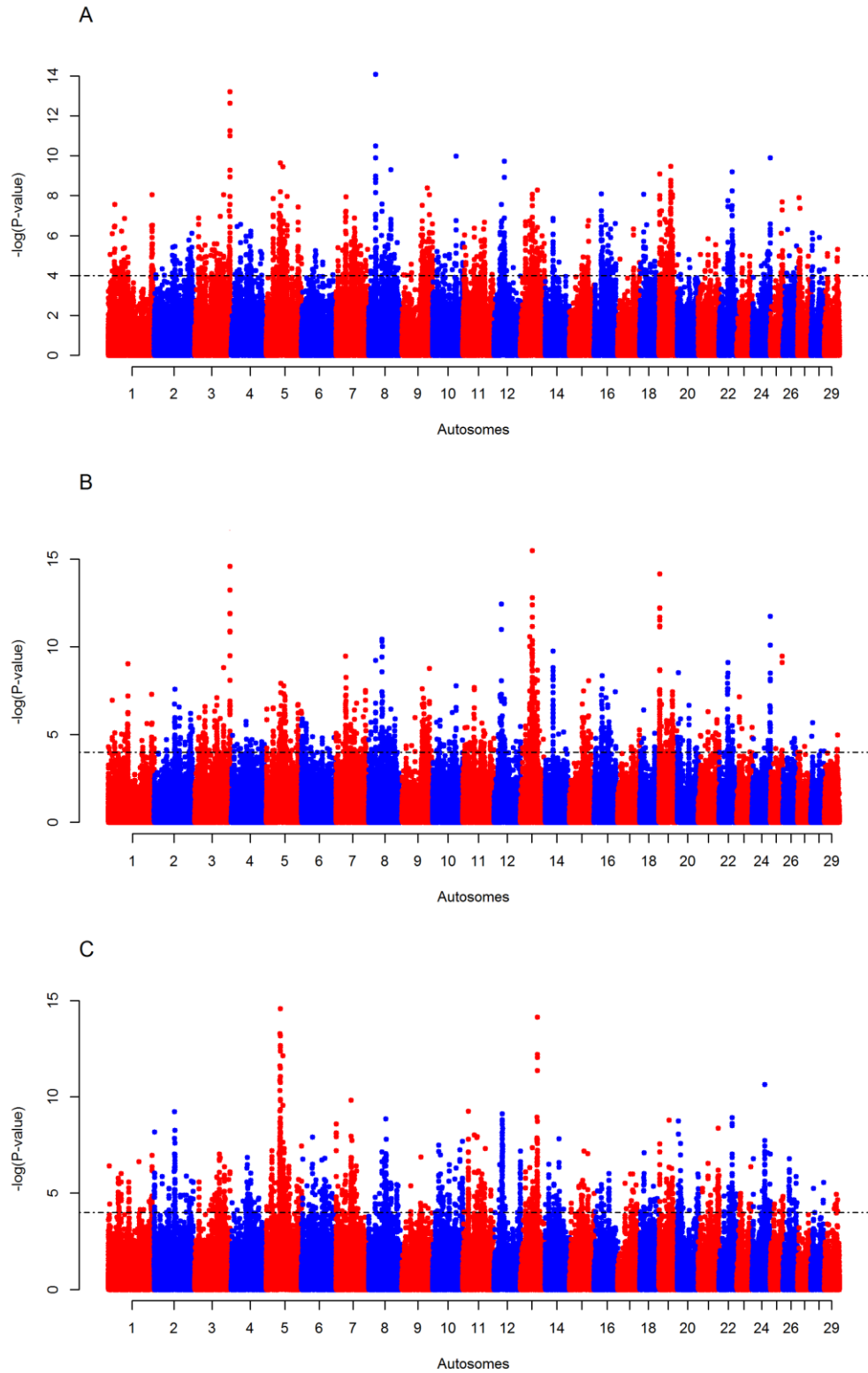


Figure 3.4: Manhattan plots of the genome-wide autosomal meta-SS analyses between (A) EASZ, (B) Uganda, (C) Nigerian zebu cattle populations and combined reference populations (Holstein-Friesian, Jersey, N'Dama, Muturu, Nellore and Gir). Threshold set as $-\log_{10} P\text{-value} = 4$.

Table 3.1: Shared candidate regions obtained by the autosomal genome-wide SNP analyses. (A) East African zebu-sharing candidate regions (EASZ and Uganda (UGN) zebu cattle) (B) East and West African zebu-sharing candidate regions (EASZ, Uganda (UGN) and Nigeria (NGR) zebu cattle populations)

A	EASZ and UGN				Other Studies ²	B	EASZ, UGN and NGR				Other Studies ²
	Position (UMD 3.1)		value ³	ΔAZ^1			Position (UMD 3.1)		value ³	ΔAZ^1	
	BTA	start					stop	BTA			
2	125,159,084	125,994,861	5.17	0.07390136	Gautier and Navas, 2011	1	149,547,998	149,960,460	6.50	0.1771624	
3	34,254,043	34,727,876	5.52	0.09020536		2	70,314,631	71,161,113	5.45	0.1119444	Gautier et al., 2009; Liao et al., 2013
3	120,601,191	121,238,836	13.22	0.07390136		3	76,084,701	76,413,468	6.6	-0.1652296	Kemper et al., 2014*
5	23,652,016	24,338,695	7.86	0.09020536	Gautier et al., 2009	3	98,862,402	99,283,161	8.05	0.1200969	
5	109,303,999	109,688,098	7.43	0.07933636		5	43,834,751	44,574,214	7.12	0.1065094	
7	61,232,987	61,396,966	5.90	-0.1217506	Gautier et al., 2009	5	48,477,903	49,212,943	9.64	0.1282494	Gautier et al., 2009; Ramey et al., 2013; Perez O'Brien et al., 2014; Xu et al., 2015
8	23,344,221	23,663,852	14.08	-0.0402296		5	62,272,683	62,587,423	5.69	-0.0837076	Kemper et al., 2014*
8	65,373,897	65,634,601	5.55	0.05487936		7	32,640,500	33,093,884	7.17	0.0956404	
9	69,198,185	69,406,467	7.53	0.07933636		7	50,281,923	50,670,070	4.49	0.1336834	
9	73,280,867	74,185,868	5.73	0.10107536		7	62,551,178	62,782,874	6.89	0.0793364	
9	76,289,561	76,853,587	5.06	0.13911836		11	62,343,547	62,548,419	5.76	0.1662924	
9	94,121,197	94,242,831	8.06	0.11194436	Larkin et al., 2012*	12	28,949,354	29,151,436	4.23	-0.2141426	Gautier et al., 2009 & Gautier and Navas, 2011 & Porto Neto et al., 2013 & Flori et al., 2014; Liao et al., 2013

10	80,515,703	80,796,559	9.99	0.07118386		13	18,132,557	18,320,265	6.7	0.1662924	
11	38,402,190	39,743,107	6.37	-0.0076206	Gautier et al., 2009 Kemper et al., 2014*	16	25,389,029	25,540,339	8.09	0.1173794	
11	71,387,248	72,221,099	6.33	-0.1299031		16	50,610,769	50,762,363	4.69	0.0412924	Gautier and Navas, 2011
12	21,086,969	21,254,061	6.17	-0.0565336		19	2,568,979	2,765,065	9.1	-0.0619686	
12	24,843,013	25,658,768	7.56	0.11194486		19	27,004,483	27,143,239	6.66	0.1228144	
12	35,689,908	36,746,504	9.74	0.05759636		19	44,788,419	44,924,467	6.3	0.1336834	
13	39,579,929	41,356,847	8.07	0.08748786	Perez O'Brien et al., 2014	19	46,580,102	46,673,984	8.05	0.1391184	
13	47,532,424	48,142,997	4.22	0.14455335		21	33,590,777	33,696,403	5.03	-0.0021856	
13	49,433,476	49,762,965	4.99	0.12281436	Porto Neto et al., 2013	22	45,231,901	46,126,149	9.20	0.1119444	Gautier et al., 2009 & Flori et al., 2014
13	50,616,630	50,837,529	5.68	0.18259636		24	61,972,128	62,530,799	9.90	0.0032489	
13	58,273,562	58,599,491	8.29	0.06846636	Flori et al., 2014 Kemper et al., 2014*						
14	28,186,226	28,430,215	6.86	0.08477036							
16	26,979,772	27,160,301	5.77	0.18259636							
16	46,869,577	47,614,377	6.08	0.18803136	Liao et al., 2013 Kemper et al., 2014*						
19	3,337,282	3,823,638	5.19	-0.1815336							
19	9,515,063	9,780,078	7.24	-0.0945776							

19	39,330,233	39,519,992	4.68	0.10107536							
19	40,045,779	40,808,559	9.48	0.03585736	Gautier et al., 2009						
21	60,026,698	60,449,172	5.55	0.17716236							
22	29,533,544	30,366,810	7.76	0.15542236							

¹ Δ AZ = estimated excess/deficiency of the Asian zebu ancestry proportion.

²The candidate regions were cross-referenced with the ones obtained previously on tropical-adapted cattle and commercial breeds.

³ - log(P-value) of highest EASZ SNP within the region.

Bold (deviation by more than +/- 1 standard deviation from the autosomal mean Δ AZ).

*Commercial breeds studies

Table 3.2: Comparing genomic coordinates of EASZ candidate regions with East and West African zebu-sharing candidate regions (EASZ, Uganda and Nigeria).

EASZ candidate regions (UMD3.1)				African zebu candidate regions (UMD3.1)				reduction in size (bp)
BTA	start	stop	size	BTA	start	stop	size	
1	149,241,884	149,992,523	750,639	1	149,547,998	149,960,460	412,462	338,177
2	70,314,631	71,161,113	846,482	2	70,314,631	71,161,113	846,482	0
3	76,084,701	76,781,970	697,269	3	76,084,701	76,413,468	328,767	368,502
3	98,862,402	99,422,213	559,811	3	98,862,402	99,283,161	420,759	139,052
5	43,230,619	44,574,214	1,343,595	5	43,834,751	44,574,214	739,463	604,132
5	48,477,903	49,268,610	790,707	5	48,477,903	49,212,943	735,040	55,667
5	62,272,683	62,659,987	387,304	5	62,272,683	62,587,423	314,740	72,564
7	31,748,136	33,875,610	2,127,474	7	32,640,500	33,093,884	453,384	1,674,090
7	50,281,923	50,809,190	527,267	7	50,281,923	50,670,070	388,147	139,120
7	62,415,406	63,117,931	702,525	7	62,551,178	62,782,874	231,696	470,829
11	61,877,437	62,548,419	670,982	11	62,343,547	62,548,419	204,872	466,110
12	27,050,192	29,151,436	2,101,244	12	28,949,354	29,151,436	202,082	1,899,162
13	18,130,223	18,421,481	291,258	13	18,132,557	18,320,265	187,708	103,550
16	24,517,859	25,540,339	1,022,480	16	25,389,029	25,540,339	151,310	871,170
16	50,610,769	50,762,363	151,594	16	50,610,769	50,762,363	151,594	0
19	2,568,979	2,765,065	196,086	19	2,568,979	2,765,065	196,086	0
19	26,909,816	27,143,239	233,423	19	27,004,483	27,143,239	138,756	94,667
19	44,788,419	45,414,418	625,999	19	44,788,419	44,924,467	136,048	489,951
19	46,031,543	46,786,391	754,848	19	46,580,102	46,673,984	93,882	660,966
21	33,590,777	33,696,403	105,626	21	33,590,777	33,696,403	105,626	0
22	45,102,551	46,400,273	1,297,722	22	45,231,901	46,126,149	894,248	403,474
24	61,008,938	62,530,799	1,521,861	24	61,972,128	62,530,799	558,671	963,190

Candidate regions characterization

A total of 94 EASZ candidate regions contain genes based on UMD3.1 reference genome annotation, while the remaining seven were considered as gene desert regions (Table S3.9). The gene regions include 1024 genes (Table S3.10). Based on DAVID functional cluster analysis, these genes were clustered into 110 functional clusters (Table S3.11). Six of these clusters were significantly enriched relative to the bovine genome as indicated in Table 3.3. A total of 309 genes are within the candidate regions common to EASZ and cattle populations from Uganda (Table S3.10). These genes were grouped into 33 functional term clusters (Table S3.11), in which three were significantly enriched (Table 3.3). The regions shared between EASZ and Nigerian zebu cattle populations include 217 genes. A total of 19 functional term clusters were identified (Table S3.11), in which two were significantly enriched (Table 3.3). For candidate regions shared across all populations (EASZ, UGN and NGR), 87 genes were identified (Table S3.10). They were grouped into 10 functional term clusters (Table S3.11), in which a single cluster, associated with immune response to bacterial infection, was significantly enriched (Table 3.3).

Table 3.3: Significantly enriched functional term clusters in EASZ, East African zebu (EASZ and zebu cattle populations from Uganda (UGN)), EASZ and Nigerian zebu cattle populations (NGR), and African zebu (EASZ, UGN and NGR zebu cattle populations) candidate regions.

EASZ		East African zebu		EASZ and NGR		African zebu	
Functional term cluster	Score*	Functional term cluster	Score*	Functional term cluster	Score*	Functional term cluster	Score*
Intermediate protein filaments and keratin	4.2	nucleoplasm and nuclear lumen	1.8	Lysozyme activity and defence response to bacterial infection	1.6	Lysozyme activity and defence response to bacterial infection	1.8
Cytoskeleton	2.4	cell-cell junction	1.6	oxidation reduction process and glucose dehydrogenase	1.4		
Enzyme inhibitor activity	2.2	Lysozyme activity and defence response to bacterial infection	1.5				
cell-cell junction	1.7						
cell-substrate (e.g., extracellular matrix) junction	1.5						
Immune response and antigen processing and presenting	1.3						

*Enrichment score following DAVID analysis. A score = 1.3, equivalent to Fisher exact test P-value = 0.05, was used as a significant threshold.

Identification of sweep regions using EASZ full genome sequence

Pooling the 10 EASZ full autosomal sequences generated a total of 615,413,240 reads with MAPQ ≥ 20 (0.1% probability of incorrect alignment) mapped on the UMD3.1 bovine reference genome. These reads covered $\sim 97\%$ of the reference autosomes with, on average, 11 times depth coverage. SNP calling using LifeScope diBayes package identified a total of 10,466,699 autosomal SNPs (8,114,664 heterozygotes and 2,352,035 homozygotes). In addition, 288,099 autosomal indels (154,002 deletions, 133,897 insertions, and a further 200 representing a combination of these two features) were identified.

Regions with signatures of selective sweep were defined by assessing the pooled SNP heterozygosity H_p of 100 kb windows incremented by 10 kb. To determine the most appropriate window size to calculate H_p values, two window sizes were initially tested (50 kb and 100 kb). The 100 kb window size was chosen due to the low fraction of windows with ≤ 20 SNPs, 48 windows out of total 250,931 autosomal windows ($\sim 0.01\%$) compared to those of 50 kb, which yielded 1,705 windows ($\sim 0.3\%$) with SNP number ≤ 20 SNPs. Windows with low SNP number can lead to spurious fixation (Rubin et al., 2010). The 100 kb window size has also been used to detect sweep regions in the Gir cattle genome using the same approach (Liao et al., 2013).

Figure S3.4a shows the distribution of SNPs in the 100 kb autosomal windows with a mean of 297 SNPs per window. The resulting mean autosomal H_p value was 0.42 with (SD = 0.025). The H_p value of each window was Z-transformed to quantify its degree of deviation from the mean autosomal H_p value. Of the total 250,930 windows, 1,825 ($\sim 0.73\%$) had a ZHp score of ≤ -4 (Figure 3.5, Figure S3.4b and Table S3.12), resulting in 165 candidate sweep regions (Table S3.13). The largest sweep region, ~ 2 Mb in size, was on BTA 7 (51.4 – 53.4 Mb). This region contained windows with the lowest ZHp value (ZHp = -16.6).

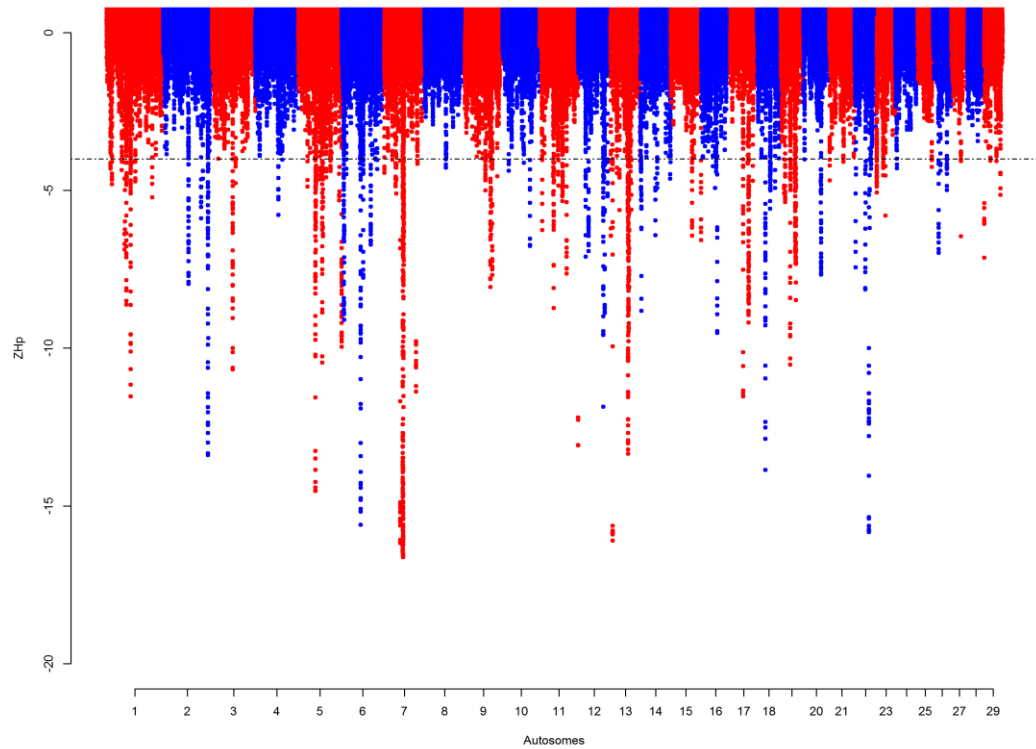


Figure 3.5: Manhattan plot of the genome-wide autosomal Hp analysis on EASZ. Each point represents a 100 kb window. The significant threshold is $Z_{Hp} = -4$.

Following the Ensembl-annotated UMD3.1 bovine reference genome database, 518 genes were found within 133 of these sweep regions (Table S3.14). The remaining 32 regions are gene desert islands with no coding regions identified so far (Table S3.9). DAVID analyses were conducted in two levels including; i) genes within EASZ Hp candidate regions and ii) genes within all EASZ candidate regions from SNPs and Hp analyses. The first DAVID analysis identified 57 functional term clusters (Table S3.11) with seven significantly enriched clusters (Table 3.4), whilst the second one defined 148 clusters (Table S3.11) with seven significantly enriched clusters (Table 3.4).

Table 3.4: Significantly enriched functional term clusters of the genes mapped within (A) Hp candidate sweep regions (B) all EASZ candidate regions (SNPs and Hp analyses).

A		B	
Functional term cluster	Score*	Functional term cluster	Score*
Cell-cell adhesion	4.52	Intermediate protein filaments and keratin	3.23
Response to hormones stimuli (e.g., growth hormones)	1.63	Enzyme inhibitor activity	2.34
Regulation of cell cycle and differentiation	1.42	Protein transport and localization	1.98
Regulation of growth and development	1.34	Cell-cell adhesion	1.98
Chemotaxis and locomotory behaviour	1.34	Cytoskeleton	1.45
Regulation of T and B cells proliferation and activation	1.32	Cell-cell junction and connexin	1.42
Regulation of myeloid leukocyte differentiation	1.31	Nuclear lumen and nucleoplasm	1.34

*Enrichment score following DAVID analysis (a score equals to 1.3, equivalent to Fisher exact test P-value = 0.05, was used as a significant threshold).

Overlapping candidate sweep regions between genome-wide SNPs and Hp sequence analyses

Among the 165 autosomal candidate sweep regions, 35 regions overlapped with the genome-wide SNP analyses candidate regions identified in EASZ. These include 22 regions also revealed in the SNP analyses in cattle populations from Uganda, in which seven regions shared between the East and West (Nigeria) African zebu populations (Table 3.5).

Within the 35 overlapping candidate regions, 185 genes were identified (Table S3.15). DAVID analysis revealed 23 functional clusters (Table S3.11) with two significantly enriched functional clusters: response to hormone stimulus and signalling pathway (enrichment score = 2.07), and transcription regulation (enrichment score = 1.3). Also worth mentioning is a functional cluster associated with the immune system development and regulation, although it does not reach the 1.3 threshold (enrichment score = 1.24). For the 22 East African overlapping sweep regions, 98 genes were identified (Table S3.15); these were grouped into four functional clusters: GTPase regulator activity (enrichment score = 1.17), protein complexes assembly (enrichment score =

0.76), regulation of transcription (enrichment score = 0.45), and nucleotides and ribonucleotides binding (enrichment score = 0.13), but none are significant. A total of 24 genes are within the seven overlapping regions across the East and West African populations (Table S3.15). These genes were grouped into a single cluster associated with ion binding (enrichment score = 0.14).

Table 3.5: The overlapping candidate sweep regions between EASZ Hp and genome-wide SNP analyses.

BTA	Start	Stop	Mean ZHp	ΔAZ^1	Other studies ²	BTA	Start	Stop	Mean ZHp	ΔAZ^1	Other studies ²
1	54,880,001	55,141,728	-6.56	0.139118		12**	29,110,001	29,438,417	-5.83	-0.21414	Gautier et al., 2009; Gautier and Navas, 2011; Liao et al., 2013; Porto Neto et al., 2013; Flori et al., 2014
1	55,150,001	55,253,859	-4.12	NA		13*	47,980,001	48,164,495	-4.99	0.204336	
2**	70,570,001	70,811,366	-6.68	0.114662	Gautier et al., 2009; Liao et al., 2013; Kemper et al., 2014¥	13	48,650,001	49,056,444	-10.07	0.20977	Porto Neto et al., 2013
2**	70,990,001	71,191,313	-5.27	0.111944	Gautier et al., 2009; Liao et al., 2013; Kemper et al., 2014¥	13*	49,340,001	49,551,378	-5.80	-0.00762	Porto Neto et al., 2013
2*	125,300,001	125,620,820	-8.12	0.144553	Gautier et al., 2009	13*	49,590,001	49,844,283	-6.78	0.182596	Porto Neto et al., 2013
2*	125,640,001	126,083,262	-7.66	0.073901	Gautier et al., 2009	13*	50,240,001	50,852,056	-7.32	0.182596	
5**	48,610,001	49,021,113	-5.01	0.125531	Liao et al., 2013; Kemper et al., 2014¥; Xu et al., 2015; Perez O'Brien et al., 2014	13	55,510,001	55,623,671	-4.48	0.128249	
5**	49,120,001	49,241,076	-4.47	0.128249	Liao et al., 2013; Kemper et al., 2014¥; Perez O'Brien et al., 2014	13	82,010,001	82,111,606	-4.06	0.09564	
7	31,740,001	31,897,059	-4.54	0.08477	Flori et al., 2014	19*	9,500,001	9,631,079	-4.72	-0.09458	
7	33,100,001	33,293,306	-4.43	-0.00219		19**	26,890,001	27,154,002	-7.60	0.122814	Gautier et al., 2009
7	51,360,001	53,362,761	-10.79	0.198901	Gautier et al., 2009; Liao et al., 2013; Porto Neto et al., 2013; Qanbari et al., 2014¥	19*	39,270,001	39,422,844	-4.42	0.014119	

9*	73,890,001	74,081,863	-5.45	0.188031		19*	40,490,001	40,714,976	-4.60	0.035857	
9*	76,600,001	76,876,188	-6.12	0.09564		19	40,960,001	41,450,870	-5.98	0.144553	
11*	39,240,001	39,530,799	-5.93	0.106509	Gautier et al., 2009; Kemper et al., 2014 ¥	19	42,890,001	43,122,753	-6.09	0.149988	Chan et al., 2010
11*	39,550,001	39,683,044	-4.38	NA	Gautier et al., 2009; Kemper et al., 2014 ¥	19	43,140,001	43,341,262	-6.53	0.141836	Chan et al., 2010
11	75,230,001	75,441,012	-6.40	0.054879		22*	30,030,001	30,260,687	-6.05	0.188031	
12	20,870,001	21,021,506	-5.64	0.079336	Gautier et al., 2009	22**	45,220,001	45,370,457	-4.17	0.149988	Gautier et al., 2009; Chan et al., 2010; Flori et al., 2014
12*	21,130,001	21,320,859	-4.63	-0.05653	Gautier et al., 2009						

¹ Δ AZ = estimated excess/deficiency of the Asian zebu proportion.

²The candidate regions were cross-referenced with the ones obtained previously on tropical-adapted cattle and commercial breeds.

Bold (deviation by more than +/- 1 standard deviation from the autosomal mean Δ AZ).

¥ Commercial breeds studies.

NA: No SNPs passed – \log_{10} (P-value) = 4 of EASZ meta-SS analysis.

* shared between East African zebu populations (EASZ and Uganda). ** Shared between East (EASZ and Uganda) and West (Nigeria) African zebu populations.

Candidate genes and their polymorphisms

Twelve genes were selected as examples of interesting candidates within the EASZ genome-wide SNP and Hp overlapping candidate regions based on their biological roles (Table 3.6). These genes have functional roles directly linked to crucial traits for adaptation to the African environment, e.g., reproduction-related traits and immunological-related traits.

Table 3.6: Candidate genes considered in this chapter

Biological role	Candidate genome region	Gene ID	Gene name
Immunity	BTA 19: 40,960,001-41,450,870	GM-CSF	colony stimulating factor 3 (granulocyte)
	BTA 19: 40,960,001-41,450,870	CCR7	chemokine (C-C motif) receptor 7
Reproduction and fertility	BTA 12: 29,110,001-29,438,417	RXFP2	relaxin/insulin-like family peptide receptor 2
	BTA 19: 40,960,001-41,450,870	RARA	retinoic acid receptor, alpha
	BTA 7: 51,360,001-53,362,761	SPATA24	spermatogenesis associated 24
	BTA 19: 26,890,001-27,154,002	SPAG7	sperm associated antigen 7
Heat stress	BTA 2: 125,640,001-126,083,262	DNAJC8	DnaJ (Hsp40) homolog, subfamily C, member 8
	BTA 7: 51,360,001-53,362,761	DNAJC18	DnaJ (Hsp40) homolog, subfamily C, member 18
	BTA 7: 51,360,001-53,362,761	HSPA9	heat shock 70kDa protein 9
	BTA 19: 42,890,001-43,122,753	HSPB9	heat shock protein, alpha-crystallin-related, B9
Anatomical development	BTA 5: 48,610,001-49,021,113	Man-1	inner nuclear membrane protein
	BTA 7: 33,100,001-33,293,306	LOX	lysyl oxidase
	BTA 12: 29,110,001-29,438,417	RXFP2	relaxin/insulin-like family peptide receptor 2

A total of 986 SNPs and 41 indels were detected within these candidate genes (Table S3.16). After annotating these variants, four non-synonymous variants (one in Man-1, one in SPAG7 and two in RXFP2) were identified (Table 3.7 & S3.16). The remaining variants were classified into different groups, e.g., synonymous, intron variants, 5' UTR variants, etc. The positions of most of these variants have not been reported as polymorphic in other cattle populations, i.e., not detected previously as variants in the dbSNP database, and hence they were considered as

EASZ-specific variants. They were 830 SNPs, including the four non-synonymous variants mentioned above, and 36 indels. Based on the exome data of the 10 EASZ samples, none of the non-synonymous variants were found to be fixed for the alternative allele (Table 3.4).

Table 3.7: The reference and alternative allele frequencies for the four non-synonymous variants of the 10 EASZ exome sequences. Location (BTA: position in bp), amino acid substitution (reference amino acid, residue, alternative amino acid).

SNP location	Gene	Amino acid substitution	Reference allele frequency	Alternative allele frequency	Biological effect*
BTA 5: 48,781,846	Man-1	T 665 I	G = 95%	A = 5%	Probably damaging
BTA 12: 29,243,223	RXFP2	C 459 G	A = 60%	C = 40%	Probably damaging
BTA 12: 29,280,777	RXFP2	N 19 S	T = 85%	C = 15%	Benign
BTA 19: 27,072,057	SPAG7	R 144 Q	G = 100%	A = 0%	Benign

*Based on PolyPhen-2 online tool (Adzhubei et al., 2010)

Overlaps with known QTL

The Hp candidate sweep regions were within 1336 bovine QTL related to several biological roles, such as feed behaviour, reproduction and immunity. Examples of these QTL include the following: residual feed intake QTL, sperm motility QTL, and general disease susceptibility (Table S3.17). Six trypanotolerance QTL, defined by Hanotte et al. (2003), were also found (Table S3.18). Moreover, several production traits QTL intersected with these candidate regions, e.g., marbling score, milk fat percentage and milk protein yield. The EASZ genome-wide SNP and Hp overlapping candidate regions were within 316 QTL (Table S3.17), in which two are trypanotolerance QTL (Table S3.18). Candidate regions specific to East African zebu and African zebu cattle intersected with 138 QTL each (Table S3.17).

Identification of putative CNVs

The median depth of coverage for the regions captured by the SureSelect XT target enrichment system ranged from 36.33 reads/bp to 69.31 reads/bp (SD= 55 reads/bp to 93.99 reads/bp) for the 10 EASZ exome sequences. Their normalized values showed intervals of smaller range from 0.87 reads/bp to 0.92 reads/bp (SD= 1.2 reads/bp to 1.28 reads/bp) (Table S3.19).

A total of 17 EASZ genome-wide SNP analyses and Hp analysis overlapping candidate regions contained signals of CNV (multiple copies). These signals were within 31 targeted exons in 17 genes (Table S3.20). The two highest standardised values for depth of coverage were the 10th exon of HBS1L and the 13th exon of Man-1. The 9th, 14th and 15th exons of Man-1 and the 5th exon of RXFP2 also showed signals of CNV.

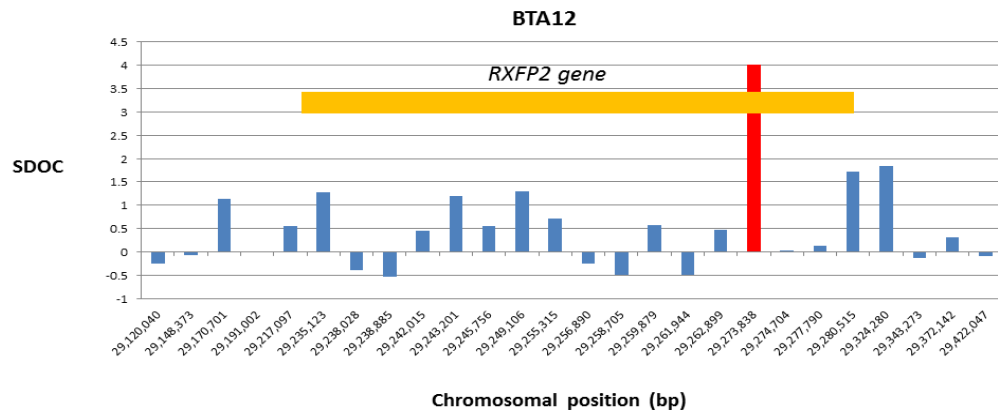


Figure 3.6: A plot showing the putative CNV within the regions captured by exome sequencing in the BTA12 candidate sweep region (29.1 – 29.4 Mb). Bar in red demonstrates a high standardized depth of coverage (SDOC) in comparison to the median depth of coverage for the whole EASZ autosomal exome.

Estimation of excesses-deficiencies in Asian zebu ancestry

The admixture analysis conducted on EASZ estimated an average genetic proportion of 0.71 ± 0.009 SD and 0.29 ± 0.009 SD of Asian zebu and African taurine ancestries. As observed in Figure 3.8, the EASZ showed low variation in the Asian zebu ancestry proportions across animal ranging from 0.69 to 0.74. This type of within-population homogeneity has been previously observed by Mbole-Kariuki et al. (2014) using lower density SNP array.

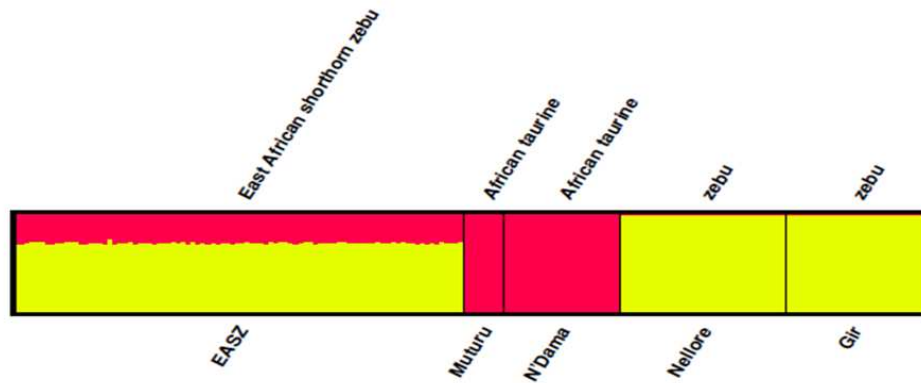


Figure 3.8: STRUCTURE bar plot of African taurine (Muturu and N'Dama) and Asian zebu (Nellore and Gir) genetic membership proportions for EASZ autosomes (K=2).

LAMP software 2.4 (Sankararaman et al., 2008) estimated the mean Asian zebu ancestry proportion for all SNPs in EASZ samples to be 0.76 (SD = 0.14). Based on this estimation, the mean ΔAZ in this analysis was 0 (SD = 0.14).

The majority of the candidate sweep regions showed high zebu ancestry proportion, but similar to the mean autosomal Asian zebu ancestry proportion ($< \pm 1$ SD) estimated by LAMP. In the 22 East and West African zebu-sharing candidate regions, six demonstrated substantial ΔAZ ($\geq \pm 1$ SD from the mean ΔAZ). Two of these regions showed deficiencies while four showed excesses of Asian zebu ancestry. For the 35 East African zebu-sharing candidate regions, eight

revealed substantial ΔAZ , a single region showed deficiency and seven showed excesses (Table 3.1). When the genome-wide SNP and Hp analyses overlapping candidate regions were considered, 14 regions demonstrated substantial ΔAZ , one deficiency and 13 excesses (Table 3.5).

Discussion

Candidate genomics regions under positive selection

There are now several examples of genome-wide analyses for detection of signatures of selection in human, livestock and domestic animal populations (Sabeti et al., 2002, Gautier et al., 2009, Grossman et al., 2010, Rubin et al., 2010, Gautier and Naves, 2011, Petersen et al., 2013, Carneiro et al., 2014). These selection signals may be related to adaptation to environmental constraints (e.g., altitude and pathogens) (Flori et al., 2012, Ai et al., 2015), response to human selection pressures (Hayes et al., 2008, Flori et al., 2009, Qanbari et al., 2014), or even speciation and its consequence on the genome (Baker and Bradley, 2006, Nei and Nozawa, 2011). For African livestock, there have been few studies (Gautier et al., 2009, Flori et al., 2014), and until now, no East African zebu populations have been investigated.

In this chapter, we have attempted to comprehensively identify, in an ancient zebu-taurine crossbreed, candidate signatures of selection. For this purpose, we used genome-wide high-density SNP analyses, high coverage full genome sequence analysis and targeted exome sequence analysis. As mentioned in Chapter 2, the choice of EASZ population is of interest given the known history of the population's enduring natural and human selective forces in East African cattle (Rege et al., 2001). Also, the admixed zebu-taurine genome of this population (Mbole-Kariuki et al., 2014) may be another selective pressure influencing different biological pathways, e.g., immunity, fertility and development.

We have successfully identified many candidate regions of positive selection. A major issue in such studies is the presence of false positives randomly resulting from genetic drift (Akey et al., 2002, Qanbari and Simianer, 2014). As in Chapter 2, we attempted to minimize the effect of this issue through the comparison of our results with other previous studies in tropical-adapted admixed cattle populations, e.g., Creole cattle from Guadeloupe (Gautier and Naves, 2011), zebu-taurine admixed cattle from West Africa (Gautier et al., 2009, Flori et al., 2014, Xu et al., 2015), and in zebu cattle, e.g., Brahman (Ramey et al., 2013, Xu et al., 2015) and Gir (Liao et al., 2013, Perez O'Brien et al., 2014). Most importantly, analysing new zebu-taurine populations from East (Uganda) and West (Nigeria) Africa and identifying overlapping candidate regions is adding further support to our findings. This cross-validation has allowed us to narrow down the sizes of the identified candidate genome regions (Table 3.2), which may facilitate the identification of the selected causative genomic variants under selection.

Our composite statistical approach followed that of Utsunomiya et al. (2013b), which combines the power of the different genome-wide SNP analyses into a single test. The higher number of candidate regions defined by the EASZ meta-SS analysis in comparison to the individual tests supports the approach followed here (Table S3.3). This meta-SS analysis is different from that of the Composite of Multiple Signals (CMS) method used by Grossman et al. (2010), which gives a composite likelihood statistic to each variant by combining the P-values from five different tests. CMS was applied to simulated and empirical human genomic data from HapMap II (Grossman et al., 2010). Although CMS is an effective tool to localize candidate regions and to identify causal variants under selection in human genome, the method requires coalescent simulation and, hence, accurate calibrated demographic models to compute the likelihood tables (Qanbari and Simianer, 2014) that are deficient for our EASZ population.

As in Chapter 2, the reference cattle populations were pooled into a single population. Here we want to increase the reference population sample size and,

hence, develop more robust EHH and allele frequency estimations as well as to breakdown population-specific LD resulting from genetic drift. A major improvement in this chapter is the analysis of the EASZ full genome sequence for signatures of selection. This provides high SNP coverage and addresses any breed ascertainment bias associated with commercially available SNP chips (Matukumalli et al., 2009).

Interestingly, a subset of the identified candidate regions demonstrated substantial ΔAZ (see results section). Most of these regions show excesses of Asian zebu ancestry indicating that the indicine haplotypes are more likely to be under selection in the African admixed cattle populations. This is perhaps not surprising considering the predominant zebu genomic background in the EASZ (Mbole-Kariuki et al., 2014; Figure 3.8), but also considering that zebu cattle were initially domesticated in the northern part of the Indian subcontinent (Chen et al., 2010) in an environment likely sharing more similarities with the African environment than the centre of domestication of taurine cattle in the Near East does (Loftus et al., 1994, Bradley et al., 1996). The pre-adaptation of zebu cattle may have facilitated its introgression into the local taurine populations. However, the haplotype origin assignment using the SNP array utilized in this study was only partly successful. This issue of the zebu or taurine origin of the selected SNPs or haplotypes will likely be better approached once a full indicine de novo reference genome is available.

Finally, it should not be forgotten that while we analysed the signatures of selection shared across three sets of populations here, many candidate signatures are population (e.g., EASZ) or geographic regions (e.g., East African)-specific. Whether or not these signals are the legacy of local selective forces remains unknown.

Potential biological functions under positive selection

The functional enrichment analyses performed using DAVID on the genes within the candidate regions emphasises the significantly enriched biological pathways under selection in EASZ. They are related to e.g., bovine adaptive and innate immunity, response to hormone stimuli, intermediate filaments and keratins, growth and development (Tables 3.3 and 3.4). Additionally, genes related to regulation of bovine immunity, fertility and reproduction, anatomical development and heat stress have also been found within these candidate regions.

Genes related to the innate and adaptive immune responses may be expected to be primary targets of selection in African tropical cattle that are exposed to a diversity of diseases and associated physiological stresses in their surrounding environment, e.g., endoparasites, haemoparasites and bacteria (de Clare Bronsvort et al., 2013, Murray et al., 2013, Thumbi et al., 2014). Examples of these genes include the following: C-C chemokine receptor type 7 precursor (CCR7) and granulocyte macrophage-colony stimulating factor (GM-CSF), which are both identified within an EASZ candidate region on BTA 19 (40.96-41.45 Mb).

C-C chemokine receptor type 7 (CCR7) is sensitive to two types of chemo-attractants: CCL19 and CCL21. This receptor is involved in maturing antigen-presenting cells (dendritic cells). The mature dendritic cells will, in turn, activate T lymphocytes upon infection (Marsland et al., 2005, Forster et al., 2008). Moreover, this receptor has also demonstrated a role in regulating innate immunity by attracting macrophages to sites of infection (van Zwam et al., 2010). GM-CSF is a multifunctional cytokine with an important role in regulating innate immunity. This molecule acts as a positive regulator for macrophages to induce their antimicrobial and tumoricidal effects (Grabstein et al., 1986, Tarr, 1996).

It is interesting to point out that this functional category is being reported as significantly enriched in our three comparisons (EASZ, UGN, NGR zebu populations) as well as in other studies (Gautier et al., 2009, Flori et al., 2014), indicating that the immune response is an adaptation to the environment. Having a generic signal does not mean that the selected polymorphisms will be the same across populations, but rather and perhaps more likely that the same regions and network may be under parallel selection in different populations.

Genes related to fertility and reproduction may also be subjected to selection in African cattle populations. Examples of these candidate genes include the following: the retinoic acid receptor α (RARA) in an EASZ candidate region within BTA 19 (40.96-41.45 Mb). The retinoic acid receptor, which is expressed in sertoli cells in the seminiferous tubules, plays a role in transducing retinoic acid signal to maintain spermatogonia differentiation. Knocking out this receptor in experimental mice has led to defects in spermatogenesis and male sterility (Wolgemuth and Chung, 2007).

Members of the olfactory receptor gene family have been identified within Hp candidate regions BTA1: 42.1-42.22 Mb and BTA5: 59.5-59.6 Mb. This gene family, which is expressed in mammalian male germ cells (Vanderhaeghen et al., 1993, Spehr et al., 2003), might play a role in directing sperm to the oocyte during fertilization (Spehr et al., 2003, Fukuda et al., 2004, Guidobaldi et al., 2012).

More examples of genes in this category are spermatogenesis-associated 24 (SPATA24) within the BTA 7 (51.4 – 53.4 Mb) and sperm-associated antigen 7 (SPAG7). The SPAG7 is mapped within one of the East and West African zebu-sharing candidate regions (BTA 19: 26.89-27.15 Mb). Here we are dealing with genes directly involved with male fertility. It may be argued that fertility may be linked to climatic adaptation (Hansen, 2004). Alternatively, we cannot exclude that such a signal may be the consequence of the hybridization between two cattle lineages (zebu and taurine). This requires further investigation.

Also, several examples of candidate genes identified within the candidate sweep regions are linked to biological roles associated with anatomical development. This type of gene can be considered as a target of selection to maintain optimum growth and development for an admixed cattle population. They could have been selected by human and/or the environment. Man-1 (inner nuclear membrane protein 1) presents on an East and West African zebu-sharing candidate region (BTA 5: 48.61-49.02 Mb), which has demonstrated a critical role in heart development as discovered via knock-out experimental mice (Ishimura et al., 2008). This candidate genome region was also detected to be under selection in Brahman (Ramey et al., 2013) and Gir (Perez O'Brien et al., 2014) cattle. This region is located within a larger genomic interval associated with several traits, such as coat colour and penile sheath, in Brahman and tropical composite cattle (Porto-Neto et al., 2014). Moreover, a gene mapped within an EASZ candidate region within BTA 7 (33.1-33.29 Mb) LOX (Lysine-6-oxidase precursor) has also been linked to the development of various tissues, such as lung tissue and blood vessels (Maki et al., 2005).

The RXFP2 (relaxin/insulin-like family peptide receptor 2) within an EASZ candidate region (BTA12: 29.11 – 29.44 Mb) may be classified as a candidate gene for anatomical development, fertility and reproduction categories. RXFP2 has a role in testicular descent development, which is an adaptive physiology to maintain optimum reproduction and sperm quality when the core body temperature reaches about 34°C (Gorlov et al., 2002, Agoulnik, 2007, Park et al., 2008, Feng et al., 2009). Interestingly, this gene has also been mapped within a candidate region in admixed Creole cattle (Gautier and Naves, 2011) and Gir zebu cattle (Liao et al., 2013). Although the gene has mainly been associated with the horn phenotype in sheep (Johnston et al., 2011, Kijas et al., 2012), a study by Johnston et al. (2013) has demonstrated an association between variants of this gene and reproductive success and survival rate in Soay sheep from St. Kilda.

Interestingly, the median ΔAZ value of this candidate region demonstrates a substantial deficiency of zebu ancestry (Table 3.5), a detailed investigation of the SNP-specific local zebu ancestry proportions within this region indicates different genomic fragments with substantial excesses or deficiencies of zebu ancestry, which is a good representation of the complexity we face when trying to define the selective haplotype origins in these candidate regions.

Genes related to the heat shock protein family have also been mapped in two EASZ candidate regions: BTA 7: 51.36-53.36 Mb and BTA 19: 42.89-43.12 Mb, e.g., HSPA9 and HSPB9 (heat shock proteins A9 and B9). This gene family has demonstrated a critical role in maintaining proteins folding and structure under stress (Parsell and Lindquist, 1994, Coleman et al., 1995). Members of the DnaJ family (DnaJ homolog subfamily C members 8 and 18), which act as cofactors for the heat shock protein 70 (Kampinga and Craig, 2010), were also found within an East African zebu-sharing candidate region (BTA 2: 125.64-126.08 Mb) and an EASZ candidate region (BTA 7: 51.36-53.36 Mb). The candidate region within BTA 7 (51.36-53.36 Mb) is the largest size sweep region showing a substantial excess of Asian zebu ancestry (Table 3.5). This region overlaps with sweep regions identified in tropically adapted Gir cattle (Liao et al., 2013) and West African cattle (Gautier et al., 2009), and showed high divergence between zebu and taurine (Porto-Neto et al., 2013).

Gene desert candidate regions

About 15% of the identified candidate regions were gene desert regions, i.e., no reported protein-coding or RNA genes; for example, in the East and West African zebu-sharing candidate region within BTA19 (2.5-2.7 Mb). Because of the incomplete annotation of the bovine genome, these regions may harbour transcription factor-binding sites or genes, which are not yet annotated in the UMD3.1 bovine reference genome.

Overlapping with QTL

Several QTL were located within the defined candidate sweep regions (Table S3.16). On addition to fertility and reproduction, and immune system regulation QTL, which are discussed above, interestingly we have observed some overlaps between candidate regions for positive selection in EASZ and some previously reported trypanotolerance QTL (Hanotte et al., 2003). The level of trypanotolerance displayed by the EASZ is unknown and undocumented. Our results might suggest some level of trypanotolerance in EASZ, as it has already been shown in other East African cattle populations (e.g., Orma Boran, Shoko and Mursi cattle) (Dolan, 1987, Mwangi et al., 1993, Bahbahani and Hanotte, 2015). The tolerant alleles of the BTA 7, 26 and 27 QTL are of taurine origins, whilst the parasite detection rate QTL on BTA 13 is of zebu origin (Hanotte et al., 2003). This may indicate the adaptive role of the EASZ admixed genome.

Also, several of the identified candidate regions overlapped with regions under positive selection in commercial dairy and beef breeds (Table 3.1, Table 3.5 and Table S3.13) (Larkin et al., 2012, Qanbari et al., 2014, Kemper et al., 2014). In addition, various production traits QTL, e.g., marbling score, milk fat percentage and milk fat yield, have also been found within the candidate regions. Perhaps an illustration that human selection for some production traits, e.g., milk yield, has taken place in EASZ at least in the past. It is also possible that positive selection on genes with a pleiotropic effect and/or linkage disequilibrium between loci involved in different metabolic pathways, rather than a common selection pressure, explains the overlapping candidate genome regions observed between EASZ and commercial breeds.

Putative causative variants of the candidate genes

The candidate genes selected in this chapter harbour many variants (SNPs and indels) that can be considered as causative mutations under selection.

Interestingly, 84.5% of the SNPs and 61% of the indels were specific to EASZ. Moreover, CNVs may be considered as clear targets of selection. However, the conducted depth of coverage analysis only indicates qualitative signals of CNVs that need to be further validated experimentally.

The identification of four non-synonymous putative causative variants, with two of them have probable damaging effects (Table 3.7), within three candidate genes is highly interesting. These variants, which have not been identified in other cattle breeds based on data available in the dbSNP database, could be the target of selection within the genome of EASZ. Although none of these variants exhibit fixation for the alternative alleles (Table 3.7), further experimental study of these variants is critical; for example, checking their frequencies in larger EASZ samples and in different cattle populations. Variants in the non-selected genes within the candidate regions (i.e., not candidate genes) should also be considered in future work as possible targets of selection. Other type of variants, such as variants at the 5' and 3' UTR of a gene or in non-coding regions, are also important and can play a role in regulating the expression of protein-coding genes. These variants may be argued as the probable sites under selection, as suggested by Carneiro et al. (2014).

Because of the different genomic affects, i.e., alteration of gene dosage and/or disrupting regulation of gene expression (Schuster-Bockler et al., 2010, Zhou et al., 2011), CNVs might be considered as targets of selection (Grossman et al., 2013). This type of polymorphism has been found to cover ~ 2.1% of the bovine genome (~55.6 Mb) (Bickhart et al., 2012), and has been linked to different traits, e.g., susceptibility to gastrointestinal nematodes in Angus cattle (Hou et al., 2012).

The depth of coverage analysis performed on the 10 EASZ exome sequences revealed signals of multiple copies at 17 genes within 17 candidate sweep regions overlapping between EASZ genome-wide SNP analyses and Hp analysis (Table S3.20). Interesting examples are *Man-1* and *RXFP2* previously linked to tropical

adaptation in African cattle through their roles in anatomical development and male fertility. The putative CNVs observed on their exons, across all 10 EASZ samples, could be the result of selection besides the previously mentioned non-synonymous variants (Table 3.7). Moreover, signal of CNV was also found at HBS1L, a member of the GTP-binding elongation factor family, which might also be under selection in EASZ.

Genome coverage enrichment bias might result in some exome targets when the libraries were prepared for sequencing. This issue may produce false signals of CNV. Therefore, all putative CNVs will need to be confirmed by qRT-PCR analyses in different EASZ samples. Our approach in defining CNVs also did not correct for possible GC content bias in the genome that can lead to high read coverage in GC-rich regions (Dohm et al., 2008). However, it is unlikely that this is an issue here, as our exome data did not show any GC bias signal with a mean GC content of 48% and 10% standard deviation (Figure S3.8).

A single CNV region (multiple copies) (BTA19: 42.97 Mb–42.98 Mb) specific to the Nellore cattle genome detected by Bickhart et al. (2012) is overlapping with a selective sweep region identified on EASZ. This CNV is within a transcription factor (STAT5B). Our depth of coverage analysis did not reveal any signal of multiple copies on this gene indicating that any CNV, if present in the EASZ genome as well, might be in this case in the intronic region of the gene.

Origin of the selection signatures

Undoubtedly, the genome of EASZ has been shaped throughout its history by different selection pressures. The first cause of selection was stoked by the effects of domestication on the wild aurochs *Bos primigenius*, around 10,000 year BP (Loftus et al., 1994, Bradley et al., 1996) at the origins of the two ancestral genomes (taurine and zebu). This was followed by selection pressure during the

formation of this admixed cattle population and adaptation to its local environment. The former may have started as early as 2000-3000 years ago.

The statistical methods applied here identify selective sweep originating from different time points (R_{sb} and $iHS < 30,000$ years, while $H_p < 200,000$ years) (Oleksyk et al., 2010, Utsunomiya et al., 2013b) (See Table 1.1 in the introduction chapter). This timeframe spans the domestication period for cattle (~ 10,000 years BP). So it possible that some of the signatures of selection will be of ancient origin, dating perhaps even from the ancestral auroch populations. Given the unavailability of the *Bos primigenius* genome, this hypothesis remains difficult to test. Other signatures of selection may be more recent. Some might date from the African taurine population present on the continent prior the arrival of zebu, others may have followed the arrival of zebu, the zebu-taurine admixture and the subsequent adaptation to the local environment.

Conclusion

The analysis of genome-wide SNP data and the full genome sequence in EASZ has revealed 101 and 165 candidate regions for positive signatures of selection. Thirty-five were detected by both approaches. The study of other African zebu x taurine admixed cattle from Uganda and Nigeria has further confirmed the candidate signatures within East African cattle and among East and West African cattle populations. The majority of these regions show similar proportions of Asian zebu ancestry, as the average estimated autosomal zebu ancestry (71%), but in a few cases ΔAZ values suggest taurine or indicine origin for the selected haplotypes. These regions harbour genes and QTL associated to different selective pressures.

Unfortunately, we were not able to identify any causative variants under selection in EASZ. Further studies are needed in this context. These will need to include sequencing and/or genotyping of more cattle populations indigenous to different

environments (tropical and temperate-adapted, admixed and pure). Also, it is possible that most of the causative variants may be present in regulatory regions and/or be the results of chromosomal rearrangements. The characterization of CNV in the exome of EASZ is the first step in this direction.

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Chapter four

Signatures of positive selection in the East African shorthorn zebu sex chromosome (BTA X)

Abstract

The lower effective population size, recombination and mutation rates of the sex chromosome X in comparison to the autosomes are the main reasons to analyse this chromosome separately from the autosomes. In this chapter, 22,778 single nucleotide polymorphisms on the X chromosome and the full chromosome sequence of 10 pooled EASZ were analysed with two Extended Haplotype Homozygosity (EHH)-based (Rsb and iHS) indices and a pooled heterozygosity (Hp) index, respectively, to identify candidate signatures of positive selection. Admixture analysis indicated a similar zebu–taurine ancestry compared to autosomes, though within-population homogeneity is significantly lower (Mann-Whitney U test; P-value < 2.2×10^{-16}). A total of 20 candidate regions (six by Rsb, two by iHS, and twelve by Hp analysis) were identified. Two were also present in zebu cattle populations from Uganda, while two additional were found in Nigerian zebu cattle. None are shared across all populations. Seven regions showed substantial deviation from the mean chromosome X zebu ancestry (≥ 1 standard deviation from the mean), indicative of an indicine (n = 3) or a taurine (n = 4) origin. A total of 49 genes were identified within the 20 candidate regions and five considered as candidate genes based on their biological roles (e.g. immune response and fertility). Five non-synonymous variants and two putative copy number variants represent possible causative polymorphisms. These potential targets of positive selection might be related to the adaptation of EASZ to their surrounding environment and/or the admixed genomic structure of EASZ.

Introduction

In Chapter 3, the bovine sex chromosome (BTA X) was not analysed with the autosomes, given its genetic characteristics, particularly its lower effective population size (N_e), three quarters of bovine autosomal N_e (Schaffner, 2004), and its lower recombination rate compared to autosomes (e.g., two thirds of the genome average in humans (Kong et al., 2002)). Additionally, since BTA X

spends two thirds of its history in females, which show a lower mutation rate than males (Bohossian et al., 2000), the genetic diversity in this chromosome is expected to be lower than in autosomes (Schaffner, 2004). Apart from the pseudoautosomal region (PAR) shared between the X and Y chromosomes, no recombination occurs in this chromosome in males (Van Laere et al., 2008, Graves, 2010). All of these factors mean that population genetic forces (selection, genetic drift and population structure) acting on the BTA X will have different dynamics compared to autosomes (Harris and Hey, 1999, Ebersberger et al., 2002, Schaffner, 2004, Amato et al., 2009, Yang et al., 2014).

BTA X contains genes with different biological roles. Some of these genes are associated with bovine immunity (e.g., interleukin 13 receptor alpha 2 (IL13RA2) and interleukin 2 receptor gamma (IL2RG)), cattle reproduction and fertility (e.g., foetal and adult testis expressed 1 (FATE1)) and brain development (e.g., brain expressed X-linked 2 (BEX2)). Due to the difference in number of X chromosome copies between sexes, genes demonstrate dosage compensation, i.e., doubling expression in somatic tissues with random inactivation of a single copy in females, to balance the expression of autosomal genes (Nguyen and Disteché, 2006, Graves, 2006, Graves, 2010).

Several studies on different livestock species have defined candidate regions on their genomes subjected to positive selection (natural and artificial) (Gautier et al., 2009, Chan et al., 2010, Gautier and Naves, 2011, Flori et al., 2012, Rubin et al., 2012, Ai et al., 2013, Yang et al., 2014). However, the sex chromosome has rarely been investigated by these studies. Recently, in pigs, several genome regions on chromosome X were identified to be under positive selection (Yang et al., 2014, Ma et al., 2014), with candidate genes associated with haematological traits, reproduction, immunity and meat quality reported in a study by Ma et al. (2014). In cattle, Chan et al. (2010) have identified three candidate genome regions on BTA X with signatures of positive selection in zebu and taurine cattle. Several genes related to immunity, e.g., IL2R2 and IL2RG, solute carriers, e.g., SLC35A2

and SLC7A3, were considered candidates. IL2RG has also been reported to be under diversifying selection when zebu cattle were compared to taurine breeds (Porto-Neto et al., 2013).

In this chapter, we aim to understand the genetic structure of the EASZ BTA X. We also try to detect candidate genome regions with signatures of positive selection on this chromosome and to identify putative causative mutations (SNPs and CNVs) for the detected signatures.

Materials and Methods

Genotyped SNPs and cattle samples quality controls

SNPs mapped on BTA X (39,367 SNPs) in the Illumina BovineHD Genotyping BeadChip (Rincon et al., 2011) were filtered out via the `check.marker` function of the GenABEL package (Aulchenko et al., 2007) in R software version 2.15.1 (R Development Core Team, 2012). Prior to quality control (QC), possibly duplicate samples based on the autosomal identity-by-state (IBS) QC step (see Materials and Methods section in Chapter 3) were eliminated. SNPs with minor allele frequency (MAF) less than 5% (2,043 SNPs) and genotyping call rate less than 95% (1,194 SNPs) were excluded. Some of the pruned out SNPs (104 SNPs) did not pass both of the two criteria, so we ended up with 36,234 SNPs. From this final SNP list, we included only markers with their ancestral allelic status determined previously by Utsunomiya et al. (2013), leaving a total of 22,778 SNPs (mean gap size = 6.5 kb, median gap size = 3.6 kb, SD = 19.3 kb). Based on the genotyping data of reference cattle populations, about 1,000 SNPs might be in the PAR.

Cattle samples genotyped with less than 95% of the SNPs (two Red bororo samples) were also excluded from the analyses. Thus, the total number of samples analysed were EASZ (n = 92), Ugandan (UGN) zebu cattle (n = 77) (25 Ankole (AO), 16 Karamojong zebu (KR), 23 Nanda (NG), 13 Serere zebu (ZS)), Nigerian

(NGR) zebu cattle (n = 99) (23 Adamawa Gudali (AG), 1 Azawak (AZ), 22 Bunaji (BJ), 20 Red bororo (OR), 19 Sokoto Gudali (SO), 2 Wadara (WD) and 12 Yakanaji (YK)), 8 Muturu (MT), 24 N'Dama (NDM), 59 Holstein-Friesian (HOL), 32 Jersey (JER), 34 Nellore (NEL) and 28 Gir (GIR).

EASZ BTA X admixture analysis

Admixture analysis via a Bayesian clustering method implemented in STRUCTURE software version 2.3 (Pritchard et al., 2000) was conducted on BTA X for the EASZ, NDM, MT, NEL and GIR. Three independent replicates of an admixed model with independent allele frequencies were run for a burn-in period of 25,000 iterations and 50,000 Markov Chain Monte Carlo steps for $K = 2$. The mean output file was generated using CLUMPP software version 1.1.2 (Jakobsson and Rosenberg, 2007) and graphically displayed by Distruct software version 1.1 (Rosenberg, 2004).

Extended Haplotype Homozygosity (EHH)-based methods (Rsb and iHS)

Rsb analyses (Tang et al., 2007) were performed on each of the African zebu-aurine admixed cattle populations (Tijjani, 2013, Mbole-Kariuki et al., 2014) (EASZ, combined UGN zebu cattle populations and combined NGR zebu cattle populations) and on the combined reference cattle populations using the rehh package (Gautier and Vitalis, 2012) of the R software (R Development Core Team, 2012). iHS (Voight et al., 2006) analyses were carried on EASZ, combined UGN zebu cattle and combined NGR zebu cattle populations using the rehh package of the R software.

Given the normal distribution of the standardised values of the tests (Figure S4.1), one- and two-tailed Z tests were applied as described in Chapter 3 (Materials and Methods section) considering $-\log_{10}(\text{P-value}) = 3$, which corresponds to a P-value equal to 0.001, as a significant threshold. At least three consecutive

significant SNPs (not separated by more than 500 kb) were required to specify candidate region intervals.

Selective sweep analysis (pooled heterozygosity H_p)

The pooled heterozygosity (H_p) of the SNPs identified in the EASZ pooled BTA X sequence (see Material and Methods section in Chapter 3) were calculated on 100 kb sliding windows with 10 kb incremental steps. A $Z_{H_p} \leq -4$ was applied as a threshold to specify windows carrying a selective sweep as in the study by Liao et al. (2013). Overlapping candidate windows were merged into a single region as described (Rubin et al., 2010, Liao et al., 2013).

Functional characterization of the candidate regions

Genes within the identified candidate regions (BTA X only and autosomal with BTA X combined), obtained from the Ensembl Genes 73 database (Flicek et al., 2013), were processed using the functional annotation tool implemented in DAVID Bioinformatics resources 6.7 to determine the over-represented (enriched) functional terms (Huang da et al., 2009a, Huang da et al., 2009b). An enrichment score of 1.3, which is equivalent to the Fisher exact test P-value = 0.05, was used as a threshold to define the significantly enriched functional terms in comparison to the whole bovine reference genome background.

Variants (SNPs and indels) in the genes were annotated using the variant effect predictor tool on the Ensembl website (Flicek et al., 2013). Comparisons with the previously discovered bovine variants listed in the dbSNP database (Sherry et al., 2001) (<http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/SNP/>) classified these variants into EASZ-specific and general bovine variants. The biological effects of the candidate non-synonymous variants were predicted by the PolyPhen-2 online tool (Adzhubei et al., 2010).

The bovine Quantitative Trait Loci (QTL) (<http://www.animalgenome.org/cgi-bin/QTLdb/BT/index>) spanning the candidate regions were also identified using the intersectBed function from the BedTools software (Quinlan and Hall, 2010).

Copy Number Variation (CNV) analysis

Putative CNVs (multiple copies) were identified in the 10 sequenced EASZ BTA X exome using the same approach described previously (Chapter 3). Figure S4.2 demonstrates the positive skew of the normalized depth of coverage values. An SDOC value equal to three was arbitrarily chosen to define targeted exons with multiple copies. The GC content of the ten EASZ BTA X exome sequences was calculated using GATK (McKenna et al., 2010).

Estimation of excess or deficiency in Asian zebu ancestry at candidate regions

LAMP software version 2.4 (Sankararaman et al., 2008) was used to estimate the Asian zebu and African taurine ancestry proportions of the genotyped SNPs on EASZ samples as in Chapter 3. The BTA X zebu ancestry proportion (68%) and African taurine ancestry proportion (32%) of EASZ were obtained from the admixture proportions α of the STRUCTURE analysis. The median ΔAZ for the significant SNPs of EASZ iHS and Rsb analyses within candidate regions were considered. For the Hp sequence candidate regions, the median ΔAZ of all the SNPs within these regions were considered.

Results

EASZ BTA X admixture analysis

The admixture analysis conducted on EASZ BTA X estimated an average genetic proportion of 0.68 ± 0.085 SD and 0.32 ± 0.085 SD for Asian zebu and African taurine ancestries, respectively. As observed in Figure 4.1, the EASZ showed high

variation in the Asian zebu ancestry proportions across animals, ranging from 0.43 to 0.84 in males and 0.49 to 0.79 in females. This variation is significantly higher than the within-population variation in zebu ancestry proportions observed in EASZ autosomes (see Results section in Chapter 3) (Mann-Whitney U test; P-value $< 2.2 \times 10^{-16}$).

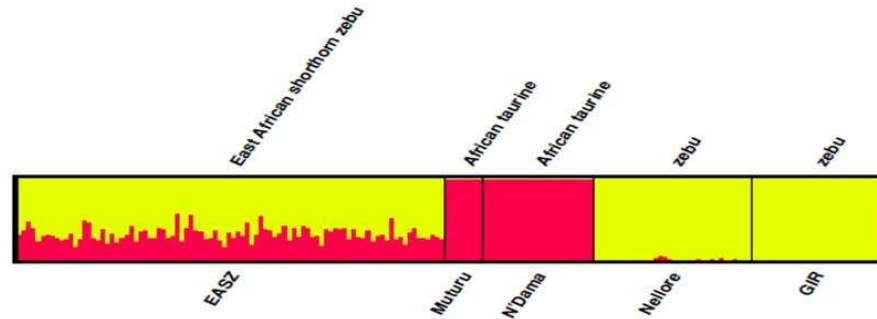


Figure 4.1: STRUCTURE bar plot of African taurine (Muturu and N’Dama) and Asian zebu (Nellore and Gir) genetic membership proportions for EASZ BTA X (K = 2).

Rsb and iHS analyses

The Rsb analyses resulted in six, two and five candidate regions on EASZ, UGN and NGR zebu cattle, respectively (Figure 4.2, Table 4.1 and S4.1). Whilst the iHS analyses indicated two, three and no candidate regions in EASZ, UGN zebu cattle and NGR zebu cattle (Figure 4.3, Table 4.1 and Table S4.1). Out of the total eight EASZ candidates, two were characterised as East African zebu-sharing (86.75 – 87.1 Mb and 64.64 – 64.8 Mb) (Table S4.1). A single region (68.41 – 68.49 Mb) was shared between EASZ and NGR zebu cattle.

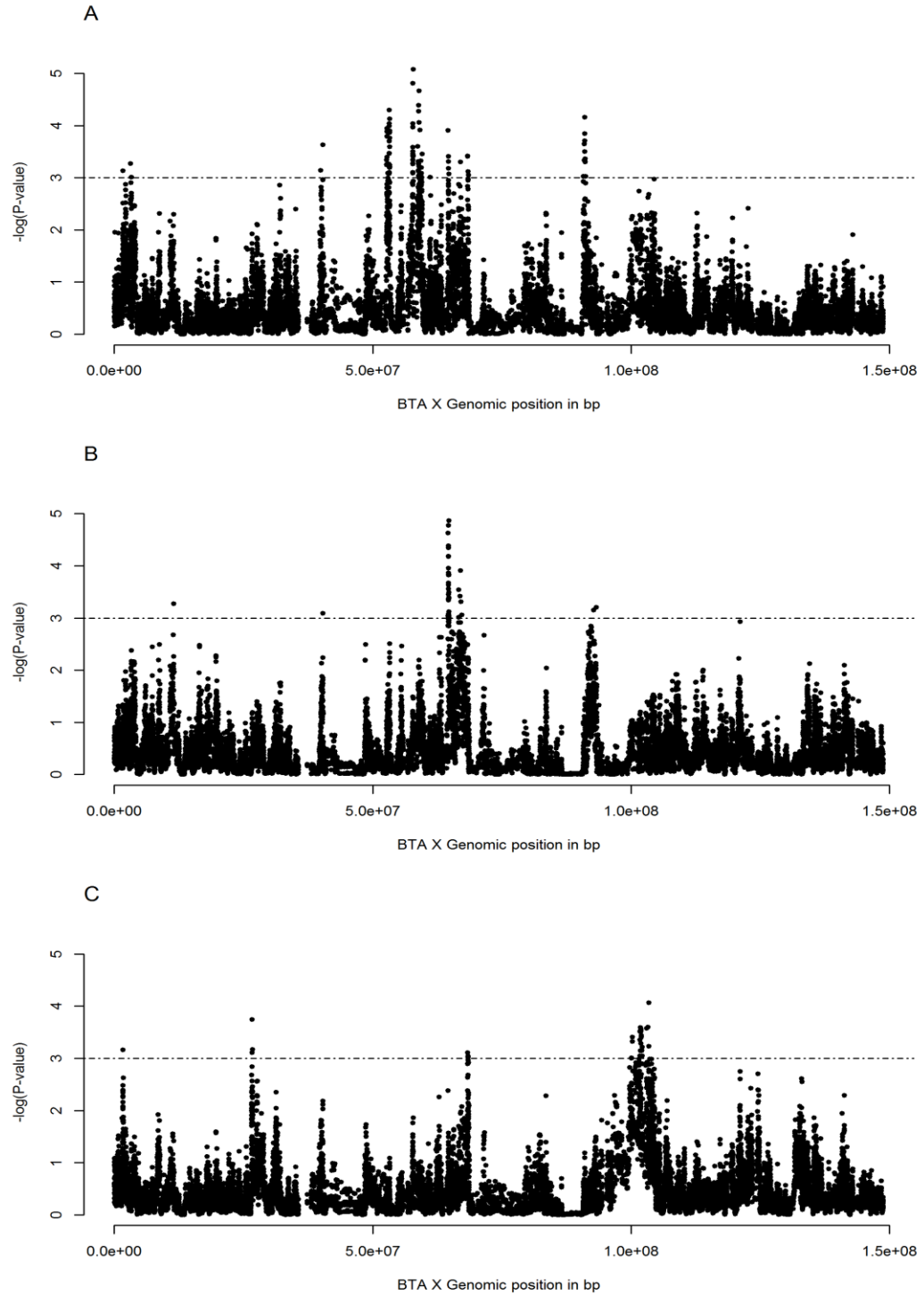


Figure 4.2: Manhattan plots of BTA X Rsb analyses between (A) EASZ, (B) zebu cattle from Uganda, (C) zebu cattle from Nigeria and all combined reference cattle populations combined (HOL, JER, NDM, MT, NEL and GIR) The significant threshold is at $-\log_{10} P\text{-value} = 3$ (one-tailed Z-test).

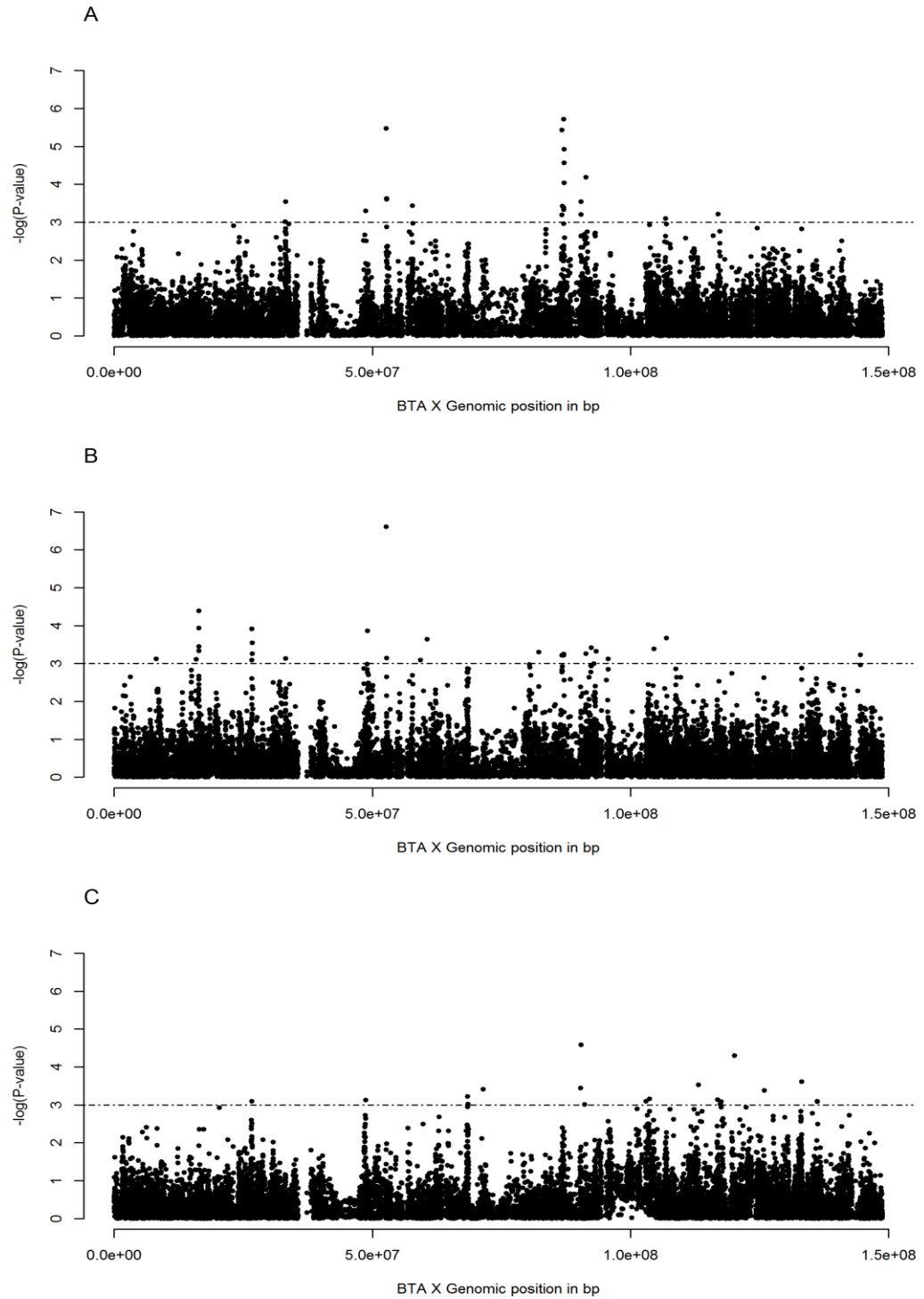


Figure 4.3: Manhattan plots of BTA X iHS analyses on (A) EASZ, (B) zebu cattle from Uganda, (C) zebu cattle from Nigeria. The significant threshold at $-\log_{10} P\text{-value} = 3$ (two-tailed Z-tests).

Hp sweep analysis

Sequencing the full EASZ BTA X generated 27,925,062 reads with MAPQ ≥ 20 . These reads covered $\sim 95\%$ of the reference UMD 3.1 BTA X with an average depth of coverage ~ 9 folds. A total of 309,050 SNPs (205,530 heterozygotes and 103,520 homozygotes) were identified. The distribution of the number of SNPs in the 100 kb windows (Figure S4.3a) was similar to the one obtained for the autosomal SNPs (Figure S3.7), with a mean of 183 SNPs per window. The resulting mean Hp value was 0.386 (SD = 0.073). A total of 205 windows out of 14,870 windows passed the ZHp threshold of -4 ($\sim 1\%$ tail of the ZHp distribution) (Figure 4.4, S4.3b, and Table S4.2). These windows were merged into 12 candidate sweep regions. None of these regions overlapped with the EASZ candidate regions obtained by the Rsb and iHS analyses (Table 4.1). However, a single sweep region (100.11 – 100.37 Mb) overlapped with an Rsb candidate region identified in zebu cattle from Nigeria (Table S4.1).

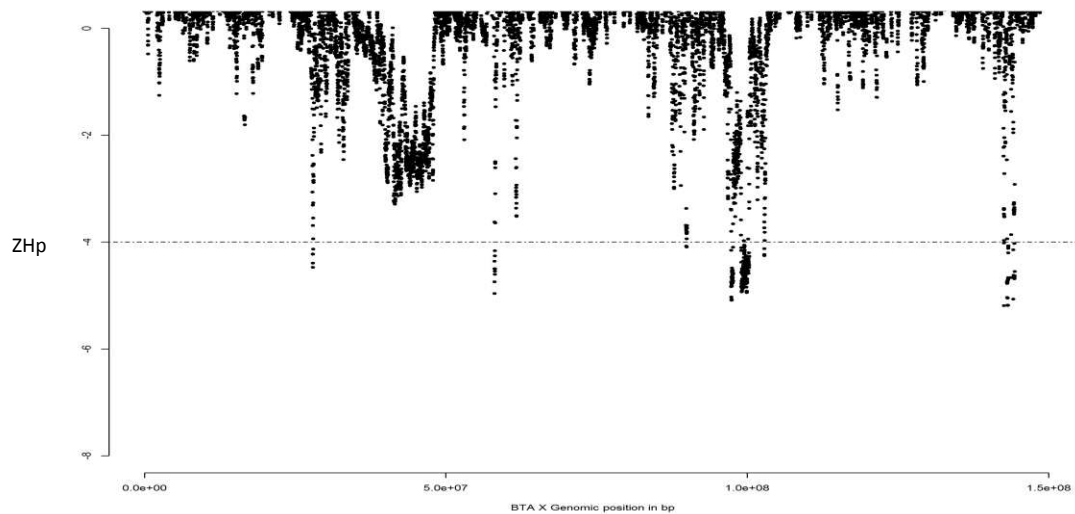


Figure 4.4: Manhattan plot of EASZ BTA X Hp analysis. Each point represents a 100 kb window. Threshold ZHp = -4.

Table 4.1: Candidate regions on BTA X of EASZ defined by Rsb, iHS and Hp analysis. Δ AZ: excess/deficiency of Asian zebu ancestry.

start	end	Value ¹	Median Δ AZ	start	end	Value ¹	Median Δ AZ	start	end	Value ¹	Median Δ AZ	Ref ²
iHS				Rsb				Hp				
52,724,365	52,831,886	5.47	-0.016	52,724,365 ¥	53,286,404	4.3	-0.152	27,900,001	28,042,935	-4.29	-0.141	
86,750,029 *	87,174,478	5.71	0.114	57,753,489	57,862,192	5.07	-0.158	58,030,001	58,239,841	-4.52	NA	
				58,699,877 ¥	59,561,015	4.67	-0.147	89,870,001 ¥	89,983,990	-4.08	0.087	
				64,636,360 *	64,803,846	3.4	-0.049	97,300,001 ¥	97,720,659	-4.67	0.12	Porto-Neto et al. (2013)
				68,399,979 ⌘	68,541,416	3.42	0.147	98,950,001	100,085,162	-4.55	0.114	Porto-Neto et al. (2013)
				90,841,068	91,235,638	4.1	-0.049	100,110,001 ⌘	100,366,965	-4.42	0.114	Porto-Neto et al. (2013)
								102,800,001	102,926,979	-4.21	0.174	
								142,500,001	142,633,019	-4.61	NA	
								143,050,001	143,390,762	-4.78	NA	
								143,730,001	143,845,721	-4.67	0.054	
								144,080,001	144,257,602	-4.61	-0.0162	
								144,260,001	144,424,871	-4.54	NA	

¹ – \log_{10} (P-value) of the most significant SNP in iHS and Rsb candidate regions. Mean ZHp value for the Hp candidate windows.

² previous studies identifying signatures of selection in bovine BTA X.

* East African zebu-sharing regions

⌘ Overlap with candidate regions in zebu cattle populations from Nigeria

¥ Overlap with CNVs identified on Nellore by Bickhart et al., 2012.

Bold (deviation by more than +/- 1 SD from the mean Δ AZ)

NA: No genotyped SNPs on Illumina BovineHD Bead chip (after QC).

Functional characterization of the candidate regions

All the identified EASZ candidate regions, except four identified by Hp analysis (Table S4.3), contain genes based on the UMD3.1 reference genome annotation. A total of 49 genes were identified; 22 genes in iHS and Rsb candidate regions and 27 genes in Hp candidate regions (Tables 4.2 and S4.4). DAVID functional cluster analysis revealed three non-significantly enriched functional clusters: nucleotide binding (enrichment score = 0.99), non-membrane-bounded organelle (enrichment score = 0.46) and ion binding (enrichment score = 0.29). No enriched functional clusters were identified within the genes in the East African zebu-sharing regions and EASZ-Nigerian zebu cattle overlapping regions. No bovine QTL overlapped with any of the identified candidate regions. DAVID analyses were also conducted on genes i) within EASZ autosomal and BTA X candidate regions combined and ii) within EASZ BTA X and autosomal SNPs and Hp analyses overlapping candidate regions. A total of 149 functional term clusters were identified in the first analysis (Table S4.5), with seven significantly enriched (Table 4.3). The second analysis identified 25 functional term clusters (Table S4.5) with three significantly enriched (Table 4.3).

Table 4.2: Genes mapped within the identified EASZ iHS, Rsb and Hp BTA X candidate regions.

Gene Start (bp)	Gene End (bp)	Gene Name
iHS and Rsb		
52,793,107	52,794,418	ENSBTAG00000009457
53,200,774	53,201,043	ENSBTAG00000045756
57,744,030	57,756,166	MORF4L2
57,773,646	57,798,407	GLRA4
58,699,812	58,706,139	ESX1
58,997,460	58,998,076	ENSBTAG00000047884
59,131,168	59,134,535	ENSBTAG00000034644
64,404,549	64,659,083	PAK3*
64,684,214	64,708,869	CAPN6*
64,755,904	64,861,282	DCX*
68,428,002	68,491,176	LHFPL1 ^{tr}
86,944,028	86,956,186	EFNB1*

87,050,780	87,083,091	STARD8*
90,831,727	90,850,346	UBA1
90,853,944	90,865,344	CDK16
90,868,233	90,882,828	USP11
90,997,109	91,000,794	ZNF157
91,031,761	91,044,478	ZNF41
91,141,062	91,141,158	5S_rRNA
91,180,863	91,191,308	ARAF
91,223,900	91,228,056	SYN1
91,232,235	91,236,073	TIMP1
Hp		
89,907,348	89,908,678	ENSBTAG00000047411
97,359,957	97,364,910	TSR2
97,364,883	97,402,545	FGD1
97,425,377	97,426,021	RAB21
97,432,890	97,461,194	GNL3L
97,604,641	97,605,063	RPL39
98,958,218	98,960,092	UBQLN2
99,440,294	99,442,061	SPIN2
99,507,839	99,509,617	SPIN2B
99,522,364	99,529,359	ENSBTAG00000038387
99,529,831	99,530,700	ENSBTAG00000045616
99,588,579	99,589,450	ENSBTAG00000047279
99,644,622	99,768,588	HEPH
99,894,566	99,933,646	VSIG4
99,936,305	99,936,412	bta-mir-223
100,070,406	100,162,454	MSN α
100,346,827	100,366,716	LAS1L α
102,851,711	102,885,917	ZNF674
143,103,987	143,315,918	ENSBTAG00000046123
143,125,004	143,125,384	ENSBTAG00000046518
143,364,826	143,375,658	DDX3Y
143,378,430	143,385,607	ENSBTAG00000047068
143,736,738	143,800,954	ENSBTAG00000048102
143,750,456	143,750,560	U6
143,779,555	143,779,660	U6
143,827,184	143,930,209	ENSBTAG00000000211
144,159,056	144,234,222	ENSBTAG00000045544

*in East African zebu-sharing candidate regions

α in EASZ-Nigerian zebu cattle overlapping candidate regions

Table 4.3: Significantly enriched functional term clusters of genes mapped within (A) EASZ autosomal and BTA X candidate regions combined (B) EASZ BTA X and autosomal SNPs and Hp analyses of overlapping candidate regions.

A		B	
Functional term cluster	Score*	Functional term cluster	Score*
Intermediate protein filaments and keratin	3.13	Response to hormones stimuli (e.g., growth hormones)	1.87
Enzyme inhibitor activity	2.38	Regulation of lymphocytes activation and proliferation	1.39
Cell-cell adhesion	1.94	Cell-cell junction	1.35
Protein transport and localization	1.88		
Nuclear lumen and nucleoplasm	1.63		
Cytoskeleton	1.53		
Cell-cell junction	1.49		

*Enrichment score following DAVID analysis (a score equals to 1.3, equivalent to Fisher exact test P-value = 0.05, was used as a significant threshold).

Potential causative variants under selection

A total of 3,273 SNPs (1,971 EASZ-specific) and 153 indels (124 EASZ-specific) were detected within the genes in the candidate regions. After annotation, 31 non-synonymous mutations were identified in 15 genes (17 EASZ-specific mutations in 11 genes) (Table S4.6). Five genes (MSN, ESX1, VSIG4, SPIN2 and SPIN2B) were considered as candidates given their functions putatively linked to adaptation to the African environment (see Discussion). Five EASZ-specific non-synonymous variants were identified within two of these candidate genes (Table 4.4). Based on the exome data of the 10 EASZ samples, none of the non-synonymous variants were completely, or even nearly, fixed for the alternative allele (Table 4.4)

Table 4.4: The reference and alternative allele frequencies for the non-synonymous variants at candidate genes. Exome data from 10 unrelated EASZ. Location (variant position in bp on BTA X), amino acid substitution (reference amino acid, residue, alternative amino acid).

Location (UMD 3.1)	Gene	Amino acid substitution	Reference allele frequency (%)	Alternative allele frequency (%)	Biological effect*
BTA X: 99522547	SPIN2B	V 255 M	T = 100%	C = 0%	Possibly damaging
BTA X: 99522715	SPIN2B	E 199 K	C = 80%	T = 20%	Benign
BTA X: 99523015	SPIN2B	H 99 N	T = 100%	G = 0%	Benign
BTA X: 99523039	SPIN2B	D 91 H	C = 100%	G = 0%	Probably damaging
BTA X: 99927182	VSIG4	T 160 A	A = 67%	G = 33%	Possibly damaging

*Based on PolyPhen-2 online tool (Adzhubei et al., 2010)

Putative CNVs in candidate regions

The median depth of coverage for the BTA X exome regions captured by the SureSelect XT target enrichment system ranged from 25.9 reads/bp to 43.63 reads/bp (SD = 38.3 reads/bp to 68.17 reads/bp) for males and 44.45 reads/bp to 59.8 reads/bp (SD= 69.29 reads/bp to 97 reads/bp) for females. The normalised depth of coverage showed similar values in each sex: 1.1 reads/bp (SD= 1.7 reads/bp) for females and 0.58 reads/bp (SD = 0.87 reads/bp to 0.95 reads/bp) for males (Table S4.7).

Two candidate Hp sweep regions (89.87 – 89.98 Mb and 97.3 – 97.72 Mb) showed signals of CNV. These signals were within two targeted regions in two genes: the first exon of an uncharacterised gene (ENSBTAG00000047411) and the 3' end of FGD1 (Table S4.8). Moreover, four of the EASZ candidate regions overlapped with CNV regions (multiple copies) on Nellore BTA X (Bickhart et al., 2012) (Table 4.1).

Excess/deficiency of Asian zebu ancestry

LAMP software 2.4 (Sankararaman et al., 2008) estimated the mean Asian zebu ancestry proportion for all the QC-filtered BTA X SNPs on EASZ

samples to be 0.76 (SD = 0.12). Based on this estimation, the mean ΔAZ for all of these SNPs was 0 (SD = 0.12). A total of seven regions (four showed deficiencies and three showed excesses) revealed substantial ΔAZ (define as more than ± 1 SD from the mean ΔAZ) (Table 4.1).

Discussion

This chapter focuses on assessing the genetic structure of EASZ BTA X. Following the work conducted in the previous two chapters, we aimed to identify signatures of positive selection and candidate putative causative mutations for these signals.

EASZ BTA X genetic admixture

EASZ is likely the outcome of male-mediated Asian zebu introgression into Africa and crossbreeding with the native African taurine (Hanotte et al., 2002) (see also Chapter 5). Sex ratio in adult domestic cattle is highly skewed with more cows than bulls. Consequently, it may be expected that the process of zebu introgression on the X chromosome was slower compared to that of autosomes. Our results indicate that EASZ BTA X shows Asian zebu and African taurine genetic admixture at comparable proportions to what has been estimated in autosomes (Figure 4.1 and Figure 3.8), supporting an ancient admixture (Decker et al., 2014). However, in contrast to autosomes, EASZ BTA X indicates a lower level of admixture homogeneity across animals (Mann-Whitney U test; P-value $< 2.2 \times 10^{-16}$), perhaps a consequence of a lower recombination rate in sex chromosome in comparison to autosomes (Schaffner, 2004). It means that more time might be needed for fixation of the beneficial introgressed genomic blocks.

Signatures of selection on EASZ BTA X

As for the EASZ autosomes, the sex chromosome also shows signatures of positive selection with a total of 20 candidate regions identified. Three out of these regions overlap with genetically differentiated regions between taurine

and zebu cattle on BTA X (Porto-Neto et al., 2013), while four regions were also identified in zebu cattle from Uganda and Nigeria (Table 4.1). These observations support the role of positive selection, rather than genetic drift, in shaping the diversity of these candidate regions.

Only a single candidate region overlaps between iHS and Rsb results. The lack of overlap between the three conducted analyses (iHS, Rsb and Hp) might be explained as further detailed in the discussion sections of Chapters 2 and 3, based on the different algorithms used for each test, as well as the different selection time-scales targeted by these approaches.

A critical issue that needs to be considered in this type of analysis is the inaccurate assembly of the bovine BTA X. Previous observations have demonstrated male heterozygosity in multiple locations on BTA X, suggesting more than one pseudoautosomal region (PAR) (personal communication with Dr. Tad Sonstegard, USDA-ARS Maryland). Given that only a single PAR is confirmed to be present on BTA X (Van Laere et al., 2008, Das et al., 2009), these observations may indicate that the BTA X assembly has portions of its genome region misplaced; in other words, the BTA assembly is not fully correct.

Interestingly, we have noted a close balance between the numbers of candidate regions with substantial excesses (three regions) and deficiencies (four regions) in Asian zebu ancestry. Therefore, both indicine and taurine haplotypes might be under selection here, supporting the hypothesis of adaptive admixture in EASZ.

The potential biological pathways under selection

The functional annotation clustering analyses conducted on the genes within the BTA X candidate regions alone did not indicate significantly enriched functional clusters. However, five candidate genes related to the regulation of the immune system (e.g., VSIG4 and MSN) and cattle reproduction and fertility (e.g., ESX1, SPIN2 and SPIN2B) were found.

VSIG4 (V-set and Ig domain-containing 4) is a macrophage complement receptor, which has a role in regulating innate immunity via the suppression of inflammatory responses (Helmy et al., 2006), and adaptive immunity by reducing T-cell response induction (Vogt et al., 2006). This gene has been previously considered as a candidate gene under diversifying selection between taurine and zebu cattle (Porto-Neto et al., 2013). MSN (moesin) is a member of the ERM domain in the protein tyrosine phosphatase (PTP). This protein plays a role in regulating lymphocyte activity (Mustelin et al., 2005).

Positive selection on favourable advantageous variants within immunity-related genes (innate and adaptive) is very important for EASZ cattle to face the pathological challenges in their surrounding environment (Di Giulio et al., 2009, Thumbi et al., 2014, de Clare Bronsvort et al., 2013, Bahbahani and Hanotte, 2015). We have identified a single EASZ-specific non-synonymous variant with a possible damaging effect on VSIG4, based on PolyPhen-2 prediction. Although the alternative allele frequency in the 10 EASZ exome sequences is not high (0.33), further genotyping of this variant in EASZ and other African cattle populations is required before drawing any conclusion regarding the putative adaptive role of this variant.

The two spindlin family member genes (SPIN2 and SPIN2B) are associated with gamete generation and sexual reproduction following the gene ontology specified in DAVID Bioinformatics resources 6.7. More specifically, these encoded proteins regulate the progression of the oocyte cycle after fertilization (Oh et al., 1997). These genes were also previously considered as candidates under selection by Porto-Neto et al. (2013). Another gene that may be classified into the cattle fertility and sexual reproduction category is the ESX homeobox 1 (ESX1) gene, initially called Spx1. This gene is expressed in adult mice and human testes (Branford et al., 1997, Li et al., 1997, Fohn and Behringer, 2001). Although ESX1 is not essential for spermatogenesis in mice (Li and Behringer, 1998), it is involved in controlling spermatogenesis in primates by regulating male germ cell division (Ozawa et al., 2004). This explains the signature of positive selection identified on this gene during primate evolution (Wang and Zhang, 2007). Four EASZ-specific non-

synonymous variants were identified in SPIN2B, with two predicted to have damaging effects on gene function (Table 4.4). As for the VSIG4 non-synonymous variant, they need to be validated in a large number of samples and populations prior to consideration as targets of positive selection.

Several housekeeping genes associated with cell cycle progression, e.g. CDK16 (cyclin-dependent kinase 16) (Grana and Reddy, 1995), and mRNA splicing processing, e.g. U6 (Lamond, 1991), have also been found within the candidate regions. These genes may have been targeted by selection to optimize the cellular machinery in EASZ.

Last but not least, several uncharacterised genes were found within the candidate regions, e.g. 143.05 – 144.42 Mb, which covers the bovine PAR (Van Laere et al., 2008, Das et al., 2009). These genes need to be further characterised to understand their biological roles. Moreover, due to the limited annotation of the bovine reference genome, gene desert regions (Table S4.3) might also reveal valuable unknown features under selection, e.g. unannotated genes and transcription factor binding sites.

Putative CNVs in the candidate regions

The depth of coverage analysis showed qualitative signals of CNV regions overlapping with the identified candidate selection regions. This is clearly noticed on the Hp candidate region 89.87 – 89.98 Mb (Table S4.8). This signal spans a very large exon (856 bp) in an uncharacterised gene. The size of this targeted region is larger than the mean size of the regions targeted by the Agilent SureSelect^{XT} target enrichment kit (~ 250 bp). Because of the possible enrichment bias associated with the sequencing of this exon, this signal needs to be further validated experimentally using qRT-PCR. Although the BTA X exome sequence does not show a signal of GC content bias with a mean GC content of 46% and 9% standard deviation (Figure S4.4), the above-mentioned region demonstrates higher GC content (59%) than the mean, questioning the validity of the CNV (Dohm et al., 2008). For unknown reasons, both signals

identified show higher standardised depth of coverage in females than in males (Table S4.8).

Although four of the identified candidate regions overlap with CNV regions identified by Bickhart et al. (2012) on the BTA X of Nellore, these regions did not show clear CNV signals here. Thus, CNV may not be present in EASZ or was not present in the coding regions analysed here.

Conclusion

To our knowledge, this is the first time the BTA X of an indigenous African cattle population has been analysed for signatures of selection leading to the identification of 20 candidate regions, in which two are East African zebu-sharing. The logical follow-up of this chapter is to define the causative mutations under selection in BTA X. This will need, as a first step, genotyping of more cattle populations for the identified variants. Moreover, the availability of the zebu reference genome will be a great opportunity to accurately define the ancestral origin of the candidate haplotypes as well as to analyse sequence contigs not mapped on the reference taurine genome. Analysing the depth of coverage in separate EASZ full genome sequences, in parallel with qRT-PCR, will fully characterise the genome of EASZ for CNVs and validate the putative ones defined here.

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Chapter five

Mitochondrial DNA (mtDNA) of East African shorthorn zebu: Haplotype diversity and signatures of selection¹

¹ The EASZ mitochondrial DNA sequences were generated by Dr. Joram Mwacharo, University of Nottingham, and have been included to main text.

Abstract

Mitochondrial DNA (mtDNA) is a marker commonly used in population diversity studies. The complete sequences of domestic cattle mtDNA divide them into two major haplogroups: the T (taurine) and I (indicine). Given the importance of mitochondria in energy production, mtDNA protein-coding genes may be subjected to purifying and positive natural selection. Here, we report the comparison of the full mtDNA sequences of 13 indigenous EASZ cattle with 63 worldwide domestic cattle (Europe, $n = 28$; Africa, $n = 19$; and Asia, $n = 16$), two yaks and a single European auroch. This work addresses three issues: i) the extent of EASZ mtDNA genetic diversity; ii) the presence of signatures of selection in taurine mtDNA compared to zebu mtDNA; and iii) within African cattle. Neighbour-joining and median-joining network analyses indicate that EASZ mtDNA belongs to the taurine T1a, T1b and T1b1 sub-haplogroups. Nineteen taurine-zebu non-synonymous variants were detected, but none seem to be associated with a selective advantage for taurine mtDNA. Averaged and site-specific ω ratio analyses indicate that purifying selection is the main selection pressure on taurine mtDNA, with less selective constraint on the *ATP6* and *ATP8* genes. Interestingly, within African cattle, we identified a signal of positive selection in the *Cox-2* gene in the T1b/T1b1 sub-haplogroups, together the most common sub-haplogroups in the continent. We conclude that male-mediated introgression of zebu cattle into African taurine cattle remains the most likely explanation for the absence of zebu mtDNA on the continent.

Introduction

This chapter completes the picture regarding signatures of selection in the EASZ genome investigated in previous chapters. Mammalian mitochondrial DNA (mtDNA), which is an ~ 16 kb, maternally transmitted, small circular molecule, contains 37 genes (RNA and protein-coding), in addition to the hypervariable control region (D-loop). The encoded proteins are part of the electron transport chain (Complex I – Complex V) embedded in the inner-membrane of each mitochondrion, which conducts several oxidation-reduction

(redox) reactions in an oxidative phosphorylation pathway to meet two primary physiological functions: i) producing ATP molecules as an energy source; and ii) generating heat to maintain body temperature (Figure 5.1) (Blier et al., 2001, Castellana et al., 2011). Most of the mitochondrial-encoded genes are RNA genes, including two ribosomal RNA (rRNA) and 22 transfer RNA (tRNA) genes. Seven of the remaining 13 protein-coding genes (ND1–ND6 and ND4L) encode subunits of the NADH-ubiquinone oxidoreductase complex, the “NADH dehydrogenase complex” (Complex I), which is responsible for the oxidation of NADH molecules and the reduction of ubiquinone to ubiquinol. This reaction initiates an electrochemical proton gradient by pumping protons (H^+) from the mitochondrial matrix into the inter-membrane space. The mitochondrial-encoded cytochrome b (Cytb) is a subunit of the ubiquinol-cytochrome c oxidoreductase complex, the “cytochrome bc complex” (Complex III). In this part of the pathway, cytochrome c molecules are reduced upon oxidation of ubiquinol molecules. MtDNA also encodes three proteins (Cox1, Cox2 and Cox3) that are subunits of the fourth complex, “cytochrome c oxidase”, in which cytochrome c molecules are oxidized and O_2 molecules are reduced to H_2O . Finally, the generated H^+ gradient is utilized to generate the required energy to phosphorylate ADP molecules to ATP. This step is catalysed by a transmembrane complex called ATP synthase, which is composed of two units, F_0 and F_1 . The transmembrane F_0 unit pumps the protons across the membrane to the F_1 catalytic unit to generate ATP molecules. Two subunits of F_0 , ATP6 and ATP8, are encoded by the mtDNA (da Fonseca et al., 2008). In addition to the mtDNA protein-encoding genes, several nuclear-encoded proteins participate in this pathway. For example, complex II (succinate dehydrogenase), which reduces ubiquinone molecules upon succinate oxidation, is solely composed of nuclear-encoded proteins. The ATP synthase complex is also composed of different nuclear-encoded subunits that interact with ATP6 and ATP8 (Scarpulla, 2008).

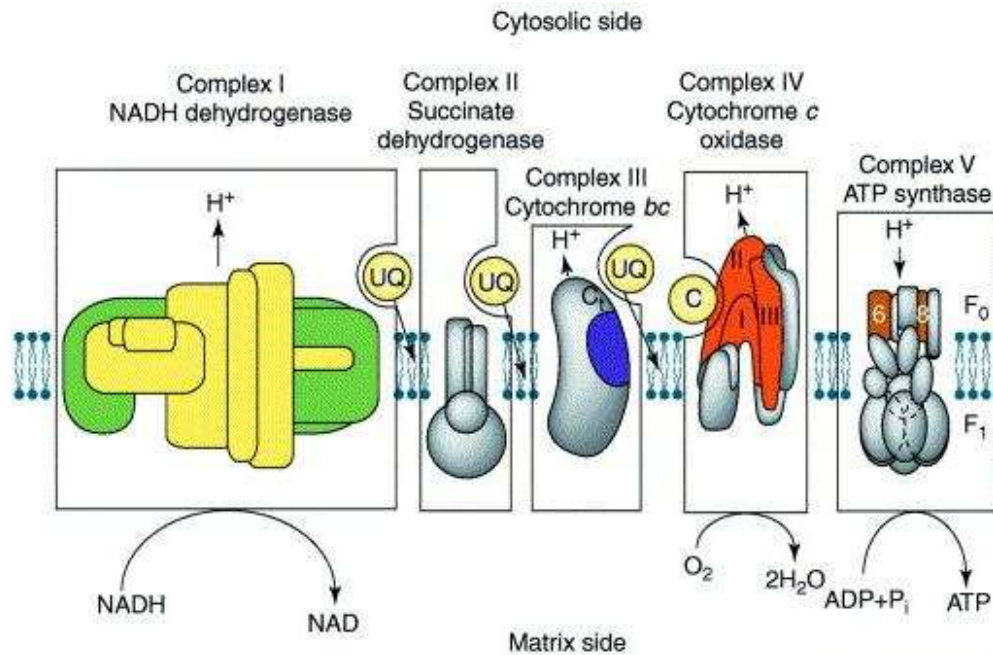


Figure 5.1: A diagram representing the electron transport chain embedded in the inner membrane of mitochondria (Blier et al., 2001).

Bovine mtDNA diversity

The uniparental inheritance, non-recombining nature and high substitution rate of mtDNA have made this marker a promising tool for evolutionary studies in different mammalian species, including livestock, to infer the domestication process and subsequent dispersion of domesticates (Bruford et al., 2003).

Studies on bovine mtDNA have clarified the differences between the two main types of cattle (taurine and zebu), revealing that they originated from different domestication events (Loftus et al., 1994, Bradley et al., 1996). This mtDNA dichotomy was further classified upon D-loop sequencing into zebu I haplogroups (I1 and I2) (Baig et al., 2005, Lai et al., 2006) and taurine T macro-haplogroups composed of the T1, T2, T3 and T4 haplogroups (Troy et al., 2001, Mannen et al., 2004). The T4 haplogroup is actually nested within the T3 haplogroup (Achilli et al., 2008). The T2 and T3 haplogroups are mostly in European taurine cattle, while the T1 haplogroup has been found mainly in African cattle (Troy et al., 2001). In Egyptian and Northwest African cattle, T2 and T3 haplogroups were also found in small proportions (Lenstra et

al., 2014). Subsequently, analyses of the complete mtDNA sequences from different European, African and Asian cattle populations has further divided the T macro-haplogroup into a rare T5 haplogroup found in Italian and Iraqi cattle and the T1'2'3 haplogroup, which were shown to have a common ancestry and likely originated in the Near East (Achilli et al., 2008). With an increasing number of available sequences, the T1 haplogroup has been subdivided into six sub-haplogroups (T1a, T1b, T1c, T1d, T1e and T1f), with the T1b, T1c and T1d sub-haplogroups further subdivided into minor haplogroups (T1b1, T1c1 and T1d1) (Bonfiglio et al., 2012). Two rare non-T haplogroups have been discovered in some modern Italian taurine cattle breeds (haplogroups Q and R), perhaps the result of local auroch introgression in the case of the R haplogroup (Achilli et al., 2009, Bonfiglio et al., 2010), while haplogroup P has been found in the European wild auroch *Bos primigenius* (Edwards et al., 2010) as well as in modern Korean taurine beef cattle (Achilli et al., 2008).

Signatures of selection in mtDNA

Early studies have indicated the unique presence of taurine mtDNA on the African continent, even in African zebu cattle (Loftus et al., 1994, Bradley et al., 1996). Today, despite a large number of African mtDNA studies (e.g., Bonfiglio et al. (2012), Horsburgh et al. (2013), Salim et al. (2014)), zebu mtDNA has still not been detected on the African continent. These observations are attributed to a predominantly male-mediated Asian zebu introgression into local African taurine cattle (Bradley et al., 1996, Hanotte et al., 2002), leaving the alternative hypothesis of selection in favour of taurine mtDNA on the African continent thus far unexplored.

Given the critical role of mitochondria as energy providers to eukaryotic cells, selective pressures on mtDNA may be expected. Analyses on mtDNA protein-encoding genes indicate footprints of purifying and adaptive (positive) selection in different mammalian (Mishmar et al., 2003, Elson et al., 2004, Stewart et al., 2008, Shen et al., 2010, Melo-Ferreira et al., 2014) and non-mammalian species (Castoe et al., 2008, Garvin et al., 2011, Parmakelis et al.,

2013). Moreover, the predominant role of purifying selection in shaping the distribution of mammalian mtDNA variations has been supported experimentally using a genetically engineered mouse line (a mtDNA mutator mouse line) (Stewart et al., 2008).

An interesting example is the possible link between mtDNA protein-coding polymorphisms and temperature. Mishmar et al. (2003) and Ruiz-Pesini et al. (2004) revealed that human mtDNA is mainly the target of purifying selection, while the study of Ruiz-Pesini et al. (2004) indicated that tropical and subtropical African mtDNA haplogroups might have been under greater purifying selection than temperate and arctic Eurasian haplogroups. They also identified signatures of adaptive selection in different mitochondrial genes, e.g., ND2, ND4 and ATP6, in human populations living within the arctic zone, as the maintenance of such mtDNA variants may be beneficial in cold environments (Ruiz-Pesini et al., 2004). Indeed, similar signatures of positive selection at eight mtDNA genes (including ATP8, CYTB and ND4) were identified in mtDNA lineages of different hare species living in the arctic (Melo-Ferreira et al., 2014). Moreover, although not linked to temperature, codons in different mtDNA genes, such as ND5 in the Pacific salmon (genus *Oncorhynchus*) (Garvin et al., 2011) and Cox 1 and Cytb in different land snail species (Parmakelis et al., 2013), were also found to be under positive selection.

This chapter focuses on three issues using full mtDNA sequence information from EASZ and worldwide cattle breeds. Firstly, we assess the mtDNA diversity in EASZ in relation to the known cattle mtDNA haplogroups. Secondly, we investigate whether there is any evidence of selection pressure in taurine mtDNA compared to zebu mtDNA. Finally, we investigate the possible presence of signatures of positive selection in African taurine mtDNA protein-coding genes.

Materials and methods

EASZ sample collection and DNA extraction

Blood samples were collected from 13 genetically unrelated EASZ calves from 13 sub-locations in the Busia district in western Kenya (Table S5.1). The calves were sampled as part of a study examining infectious diseases of African livestock (the IDEAL project at the International Livestock Research Institute (ILRI)). Blood was collected from each calf via jugular veni-puncture. Genomic DNA was extracted using a Nucleon DNA extraction kit (GE Healthcare Life Sciences, Buckinghamshire UK) at ILRI laboratories in Nairobi and shipped to the University of Nottingham. Upon arrival, DNA samples were stored at -80°C.

PCR amplification and Sanger sequencing

The full mtDNA of cattle (16,346 bp) was amplified via PCR using 11 pairs of primers (see Table S3 in Achilli et al., 2008). PCR amplifications were conducted using a DNA engine Dyad Peltier Thermal Cycler in 20 µl reaction volumes containing 40 ng of genomic DNA, 1x GoTaq Flexi buffer (Promega, Madison, WI, USA), 1.5 mM MgCl₂, 0.2 mM dNTPs, 0.5 µM of each primer and 1.25 units of GoTaq Flexi DNA Polymerase (Promega). Thermo-cycling conditions included an initial denaturation step at 95°C for 3 minutes, then 35 cycles of the following: 1 minute at 95°C, 30 seconds at 58°C and 90 seconds at 72°C. This was followed by a final extension phase at 72°C for 5 minutes. Successfully amplified PCR products were purified using a QIAGEN QIAquick PCR Purification Kit (QIAGEN, West Sussex, UK). All purified PCR products were sequenced directly using 32 primers (see Table S4 in Achilli et al., 2008) using an Applied Biosystems BigDye® Terminator v3.1 Cycle Sequencing Chemistry (Applied Biosystems) on an ABI prism 3730xl DNA analyser (Applied Biosystems) following the manufacturer's recommendations. The 32 sequenced fragments were edited manually using BioEdit v7.0 (Hall, 1999). Fragments were then joined to reconstitute the full

mtDNA genome using GAP software (Bonfield et al., 1995). Overlaps containing mismatches were corrected in BioEdit.

Downloaded mtDNA sequences

Full mtDNA sequences of 63 domestic cattle samples were downloaded from the NCBI database. These samples were from six Asian populations (16 samples), 10 European populations (28 samples) and eight African populations (19 samples) (Table S5.1). The full mtDNA of two yak samples *Bos grunniens* (GenBank IDs: GQ464267.1 and GQ464246.1) (Qiu et al., 2012) and a single European auroch *Bos primigenius* (GenBank ID: NC_013996.1) (Edwards et al., 2010) were also included. The UMD3.1 taurine reference mtDNA sequence was downloaded from the Ensembl genome browser (Flicek et al., 2013).

Mitochondrial DNA sequence alignment and phylogeny construction

MEGA 5.05 software (Tamura et al., 2011) was used to align all mtDNA sequences. The alignment was based on the ClustalW (Larkin et al., 2007) function implemented in MEGA 5.05 using the default settings. A neighbour-joining (NJ) tree was constructed for the full mtDNA based on a maximum composite likelihood substitution model (default model). The substitution rates of the codon positions were gamma distributed (gamma parameter = 0.07) to account for variation in the substitution rate between the different codon positions. To estimate the reliability of the internal branches of the tree, 1,000 bootstrap resamplings were performed.

Median-joining network

A median-joining network was constructed using Network 4.6 software (Bandelt et al., 1999) to identify the T1 mtDNA sub-haplogroups (Bonfiglio et al. (2012) present in EASZ and N'Dama cattle. The full mtDNA sequences of these samples, in addition to the African cattle samples from different T1 sub-haplogroups (Bonfiglio et al., 2012) were aligned with the UMD3.1 mtDNA

sequence using MEGA 5.05. DnaSP 5.1 software (Rozas et al., 2003) was used to generate the haplotypes file required for the network calculation.

Taurine-zebu differentiation mtDNA variants

Non-synonymous variants and variants in RNA genes that differentiate between the taurine and zebu haplogroups were identified from the mtDNA sequence alignment. Possible biological effects of the non-synonymous variants were predicted using PolyPhen-2 online tool (<http://genetics.bwh.harvard.edu/pph2/>) (Adzhubei et al., 2010). The interspecies conservation of these non-synonymous variants was explored in 11 different species: *Homo sapiens* (human), *Mus musculus* (mouse), *Canis lupus* (dog), *Oryctolagus cuniculus* (rabbit), *Pan troglodytes* (chimpanzee), *Gorilla gorilla gorilla* (gorilla), *Equus caballus* (horse), *Sus scrofa* (pig), *Ovis aries* (sheep), *Bos primigenius* (auroch) and *Bos grunniens* (yak).

Signatures of selection analysis

The ratio of the number of non-synonymous substitutions per non-synonymous sites (D_n) to the number of synonymous substitutions per synonymous sites (D_s) (the ω ratio) was used to identify signatures of selection in the mtDNA protein-encoding genes. The wild yak *Bos grunniens* mtDNA was used as the reference sequence. The numbers of non-synonymous and synonymous sites and substitutions were estimated using DnaSP 5.1 software (Librado and Rozas, 2009). Both the D_n and D_s ratios were corrected for multiple hits using the Jukes and Cantor model as suggested by Nei and Gojobori (1986). ω ratio analyses were conducted on three datasets: i) taurine and zebu mtDNA together (54 samples), ii) taurine mtDNA (52 samples), and iii) African taurine mtDNA (22 samples). For details of the samples used in these analyses see Table S5.1.

As the calculated ω ratios averaged selective pressure over all coding sites, this method is considered to be highly conservative and stringent for the identification of signatures of positive selection (Crandall et al., 1999,

Anisimova et al., 2001). Therefore, site models, implemented in the CODEML package of Phylogenetic Analysis by Maximum Likelihood (PAML) version 4.6 software, were used to determine ω ratio variation between the codons of the mtDNA protein-coding genes using maximum likelihood estimation (Yang, 1997, Nielsen and Yang, 1998, Yang et al., 2000, Yang, 2007). Different models explaining the distribution of ω ratios between codons were implemented in this analysis. Some of them assume only neutrality, while others allow positive selection. The one ratio (M0) model allows a single ω for all codons. The nearly neutral model (M1a) assumes two classes of codons: one with $0 \leq \omega_0 < 1$ and a proportion of codons p_0 , while the second class assumes $\omega_1 = 1$ and a proportion of codons $p_1 = 1 - p_0$. Model M2a (positive selection) is an extension of the M1a model that contains a third class that allows $\omega_2 > 1$ and a proportion of codons $p_2 = 1 - p_1 - p_0$. Model M3 (discrete) uses discrete classes to model the heterogeneity of ω between codons. By default, three classes were used in this model. Both the M7 and M8 models assume a beta distribution of ω over codons with two beta function parameters (p and q). The M7 model does not allow codons under positive selection by constraining ω to be in the interval (0, 1). In contrast, the model M8 allows codons with $\omega_1 > 1$ with a proportion of codons p_1 .

After calculating the log likelihood value (L) of each model to fit our data, likelihood ratio tests (LRT) were conducted between the M1a–M2a and M7–M8 models to test for positive selection. A third LRT was conducted between the M0 and M3 models to test for variations in ω ratios between sites. The statistic for each LRT is defined as twice the log likelihood difference between the two models ($2\Delta L$). This statistic was compared to a χ^2 distribution with a degree of freedom (d.f.) equal to the difference in the number of parameters between the two models. In the LTRs between M1a–M2a and M7–M8, the d.f. is 2, while in the third LRT, between M0–M3, it is 4 (Yang et al., 2000, Wong et al., 2004).

A Bayes Empirical Bayes (BEB) approach was used to identify codons under positive selection if the LRT was significant. This was done by assigning a posterior probability for each codon to be under positive selection and

accounting for sampling error to reduce the rate of false positives (Yang et al., 2005). The analyses were conducted in the three cattle datasets described above.

Branch-site models of positive selection, implemented in the CODEML package of PAML version 4.6 software (Zhang et al., 2005), were also tested on the mtDNA genes to detect whether a codon was subjected to positive selection in a specific lineage of the tree (foreground lineage = African taurine), but remained neutral or under purifying selection in the other lineages (background lineages).

Model A assumes positive selection by defining four classes of codons. Class 0 includes codons with $0 \leq \omega_0 < 1$ throughout the tree. Class 1 includes codons with $\omega_1 = 1$ throughout the tree. Class 2a includes codons with $0 \leq \omega_0 < 1$ in the background lineages, and $\omega_2 \geq 1$ in the foreground lineage. Class 2b includes codons with $\omega_1 = 1$ in the background lineages, and $\omega_2 \geq 1$ in the foreground lineages. The null model, which does not assume positive selection, is the same as Model A, but fixes $\omega_2 = 1$. As in the site models, the log likelihood value (L) was calculated for each model to fit our data, and LRTs were conducted between Model A and the null model to test for positive selection. The calculated log likelihood statistic for the LRT was compared to a χ^2 distribution (d.f. = 1) (Yang et al., 2000, Wong et al., 2004). A BEB approach was used to identify codons under positive selection if the LRT was significant.

Nucleotide diversity and inter-population divergence of cattle populations

DnaSP 5.1 software was used to calculate nucleotide diversity (the average number of nucleotide substitutions per site) for the taurine and zebu cattle populations used in the selection analyses for each protein-coding gene. Inter-population nucleotide divergence (the average number of nucleotide substitutions per site between two populations) was also calculated between taurine and zebu cattle, as well as between the taurine populations.

Mitochondrial-related genes in autosomal candidate sweep regions

Nuclear genes related to mitochondria were explored in the autosomal candidate sweep regions identified in Chapters 3 and 4. Variants (SNPs and indels) were investigated within the identified genes (see the Materials and Methods section in Chapter 3).

Results

Phylogenetic analysis

A neighbour-joining tree of the full mtDNA sequences groups the 13 EASZ with the other African cattle, including a single N'Dama sequence, and some South European taurine cattle. The tree shows that the EASZ mtDNA sequences belong to the main taurine cattle branch (T macro-haplogroup) and, more specifically, to the T1 haplogroup (Figure 5.2 and Figure S5.1). All of the EASZ samples carry the diagnostic polymorphisms 16050 (C/T) and 16113 (T/C) that define the T1 haplogroup (Anderson et al., 1982). The tree also confirms the separation between the taurine and zebu haplogroups, and within the taurine haplogroups (T, P, Q and R). The separation of the T macro-haplogroup into its haplogroups (T1, T2, T3, T4 and T5) is also visible, but the relationships between the taurine haplogroup were not always supported by high bootstrap values (Figure 5.2).

Median-joining network

The median-joining network divides the EASZ samples between the T1a (n = 6), T1b (n = 1) and T1b1 (n = 6) sub-haplogroups. These samples also carried the corresponding diagnostic polymorphisms 2055+C (T1a), 7542 (G/A) (T1b) and 16022 (G/A) (T1b1). Additionally, the previously unassigned N'Dama sample was affiliated to the T1a sub-haplogroup (Figure 5.3 and Figure S5.2).

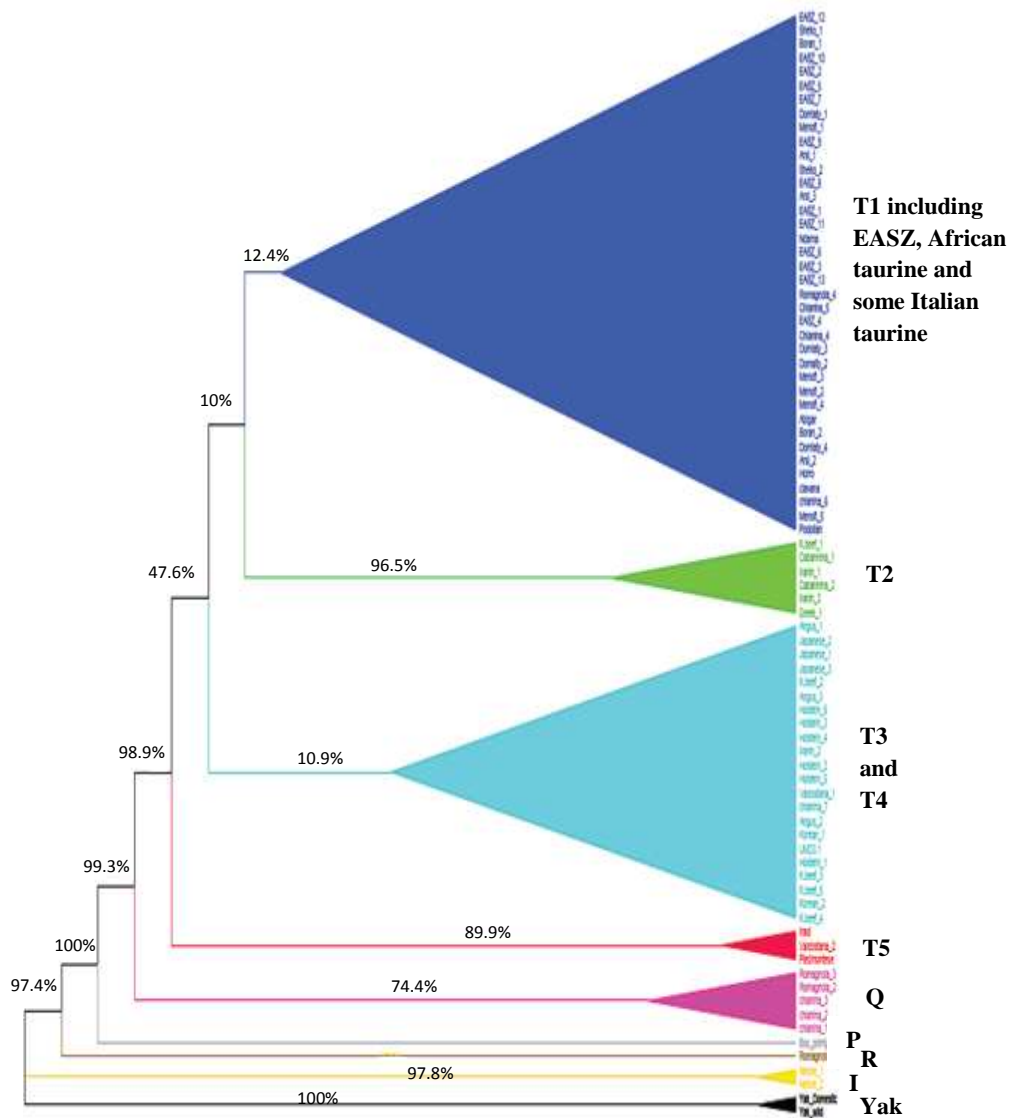


Figure 5.2: Unrooted neighbour-joining (NJ) tree of all mtDNA sequences included in this chapter, with 1,000 bootstrap replications. Dark blue: T1 sub-haplogroup (EASZ, African taurine and some Italian taurine cattle). Green: T2 sub-haplogroup. Light blue: T3 and T4 sub-haplogroups. Red: T5 sub-haplogroup. Pink: Q haplogroup. Grey: P haplogroup. Brown: R haplogroup. Yellow: I haplogroup (Nellore). Black: yak mtDNA. Equal branch lengths are for the purpose of illustration only. Please see also Figure S5.1 for the rooted NJ tree.

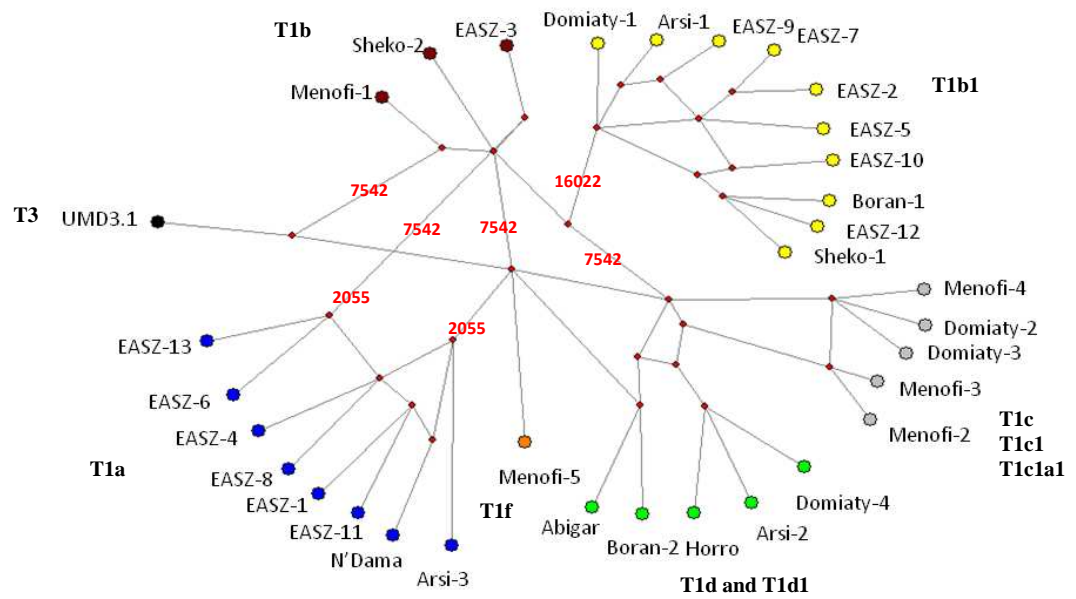


Figure 5.3: Median-joining network analysis including 13 EASZ, 1 N’Dama and 18 African cattle with known mtDNA sub-haplogroup types (refer to Bonfiglio et al., 2012 and Table S5.1). Each node represents one haplotype. Black (T3). Blue (T1a). Green (T1d and T1d1). Grey (T1c, T1c1 and T1c1a1). Yellow (T1b1). Brown (T1b). Orange (T1f). Branch lengths are unscaled. Branches are labelled with the diagnostic polymorphisms of the T1a (2055), T1b (7542) and T1b1 (16022) sub-haplogroups. Positions correspond to the UMD3.1 reference sequence, excluding indels. Please see also Figure S5.2 for full polymorphic sites.

Taurine-zebu diagnostic variants

No unique polymorphisms in African taurine mtDNA were identified. However, 19 non-synonymous polymorphisms and 29 mtDNA RNA polymorphisms, 21 in rRNA and 8 in tRNA genes, which differentiate between taurine and zebu mtDNA (Table 5.1 and 5.2) were found. All of the non-synonymous variants indicated a benign effect on the biological function of the corresponding genes following the analyses conducted on PolyPhen-2 (Adzhubei et al., 2010). Moreover, none of the positions of these polymorphisms were conserved among the mammalian species investigated or were unique to taurine mtDNA (Table 5.3).

Table 5.1: Position (UMD3.1 reference sequence excluding indels) of the taurine-zebu non-synonymous variants

Full mtDNA position	Gene	Nucleotide position (bp)	Taurine nucleotide	Zebu nucleotide	Amino acid residue	Taurine amino acid	Zebu amino acid	Variant sites' annotation in the protein
3600	ND1	500	C	T	167 *	T	I	unknown
8210	ATP8	82	G	A	28 ♂	V	I	unknown
8285	ATP8	157	A	G	53	T	A	unknown
8308	ATP6	19	A	G	7	T	A	unknown
8494	ATP6	205	A	G	69	T	A*	unknown
8749	ATP6	460	A	G	154	M	V	unknown
9480	Cox3	511	G	A	171	V	I*§	subunit III/nuclear encoded subunit via interface helix
10066	ND3	244	G	A	82	A	T	unknown
10590	ND4	62	A	G	21	N	S	NADH-ubiquinone oxidoreductase chain 4, N-terminus
10691	ND4	163	C	G	55	L	V*	NADH-ubiquinone oxidoreductase chain 4, N-terminus
12178	ND5	70	T	C	24	F	L	not in an active domain
12377	ND5	269	T	C	90	I	T	NADH-ubiquinone oxidoreductase, chain 5, N-terminus
12622	ND5	514	A	G	172	I	V*	NADH-ubiquinone, various chains
12923	ND5	815	A	T	272	Y	F¥	NADH-ubiquinone , various chains
13433	ND5	1325	A	G	442	N	S	NADH dehydrogenase subunit 5, C terminus
13628	ND5	1520	T	C	507	M	T	NADH dehydrogenase subunit 5, C terminus
13908	ND5	1800	C	A	600	I	M	NADH dehydrogenase subunit 5, C terminus
15579	CYTB	1066	G	A	356	V	I	not in an active domain
15629	CYTB	1116	C	T	372	I	V	not in an active domain

These zebu diagnostic amino acids were found in one Romagnola (*), one Korean taurine (♂), one Iranian taurine (§) and one European Angus (¥).

Table 5.2: Taurine-zebu diagnostic polymorphisms in mtDNA RNA genes.
Polymorphism: (taurine, nucleotide position (UMD3.1 excluding indels), zebu)

Polymorphism	Gene	Polymorphism	Gene
A 518 G	rRNA	T 2637 C	rRNA
C 722 T	rRNA	C 2953 T	rRNA
C 740 T	rRNA	T 2979 C	rRNA
T 761 C	rRNA	C 2988 T	rRNA
A 816 G	rRNA	T 2989 C	rRNA
C 1158 T	rRNA	G 2990 A	rRNA
C 1482 T	rRNA	A 3051 G	tRNA
C 1492 T	rRNA	T 3071 C	tRNA
T 1677 C	rRNA	C 7304 T	tRNA
A 1824 G	rRNA	G 7358 A	tRNA
T 1860 A	rRNA	C 7361 T	tRNA
C 1869 T	rRNA	T 9767 C	tRNA
T 2016 C	rRNA	C 15741 T	tRNA
T 2099 C	rRNA	A 15751 G	tRNA
A 2575 G	rRNA		

Table 5.3: Amino acid status of the taurine-zebu non-synonymous variants in different mammalian species.

Gene	Amino acid residue	Nellore	Taurine	Human	Mouse	Rabbit	Chimpanzee	Gorilla	Dog	Horse	Pig	Sheep	B. primigenius	Wild Yak
ND1	167	I	T	T	T	T	T	M	I	I	T	I	T	I
ATP8	28	I	V	M	V	F	M	V	I	I	I	I	V	I
ATP8	53	A	T	P	L	T	P	S	N	S	M	T	T	T
ATP6	7	A	T	A	A	S	A	A	A	A	A	A	T	A
ATP6	69	A	T	S	T	S	S	S	A	T	S	A	T	T
ATP6	154	V	M	M	M	M	M	M	M	V	V	V	M	M
Cox3	171	I	V	L	L	I	L	L	V	V	V	V	V	V
ND3	82	T	A	T	I	N	A	T	N	T	N	A	A	T
ND4	21	S	N	H	K	H	R	H	N	N	N	S	N	N
ND4	55	V	L	T	M	T	P	S	M	M	T	T	V	M
ND5	24	L	F	V	S	T	I	I	T	F	S	F	F	L
ND5	90	T	I	I	T	T	I	I	V	V	I	V	T	V
ND5	172	V	I	I	I	I	I	I	V	I	I	I	I	V
ND5	272	F	Y	L	F	T	L	L	T	T	L	F	Y	H
ND5	442	S	N	N	S	V	N	N	L	S	L	N	N	N
ND5	507	T	M	L	L	L	L	L	T	M	T	T	M	M
ND5	600	M	I	L	I	F	L	L	L	L	T	T	I	I
CYTB	356	I	V	V	I	V	V	V	I	I	I	I	V	I
CYTB	372	V	I	I	I	I	I	I	I	I	I	I	V	I

Signatures of selection analyses

The average ω ratios for all 13 mtDNA protein-coding genes were less than 1 in the three analysed data sets: i) taurine and zebu mtDNA together (54 samples), ii) taurine mtDNA (52 samples), and iii) African taurine mtDNA (22 samples) (Figure 5.4). These results supported purifying selection as the main type of selection at these genes. Interestingly, the ATP6 and ATP8 genes showed lower conservation, i.e., higher ω ratios, than the other genes, whilst the Cox-1, Cox-2 and ND3 genes showed a high degree of conservation (Figure 5.4).

None of the positive selection models (M2a and M8) in PAML fitted any of the analysed data sets significantly better than the neutral models (M1a and M7) for any of the mtDNA protein-coding genes. Different amino acid substitutions were proposed to be under positive selection by the BEB approach, but with a posterior probability < 95% (Tables S5.2). Exceptionally for Cox-2, model M8 fitted the data significantly better than M7 (P-value = 0.04), and the BEB approach proposed that the non-synonymous variant (D57N) is under positive selection, with a posterior probability > 95%, when the African cattle samples were analysed separately. The outputs of the branch-site tests for positive selection did not indicate any evidence of positive selection acting on the foreground lineage specified (African taurine cattle) (Table S5.3).

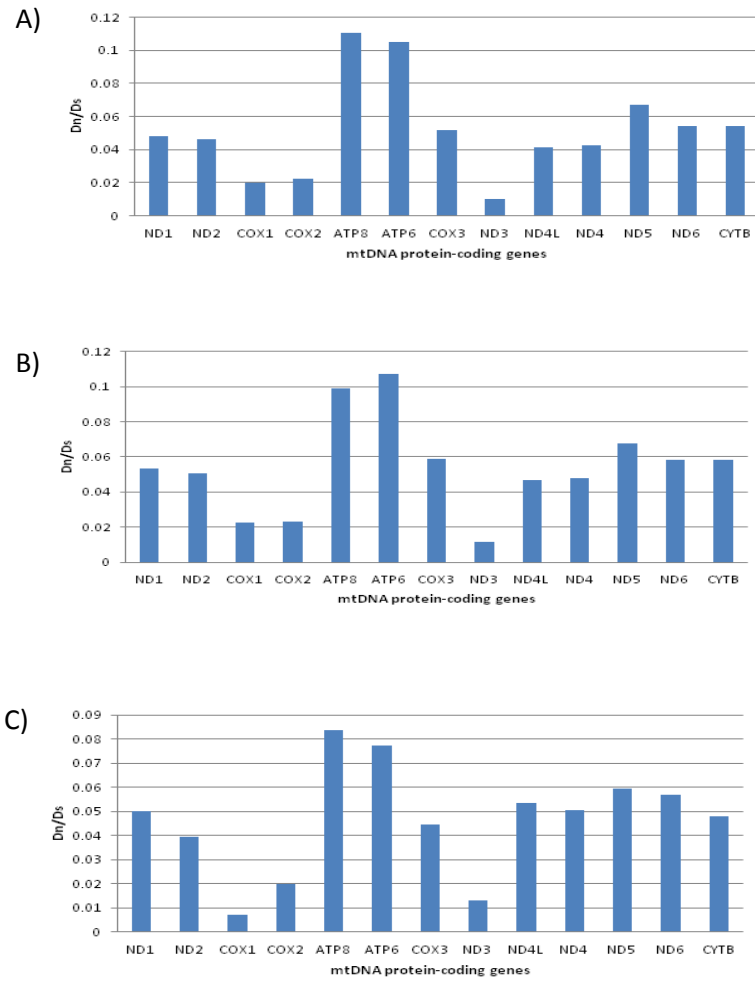


Figure 5.4: Dn/Ds (ω ratio) calculation corrected by the Jukes and Cantor model for the 13 mtDNA protein-coding genes using the wild yak mtDNA sequence as a reference sequence. (A) All cattle. (B) All taurine cattle. (C) African taurine cattle.

Nucleotide diversity and inter-population divergence

The average nucleotide diversities for the taurine and zebu cattle populations over all the protein-coding genes were 0.001 and 0, respectively. Additionally, the mean divergences between the different taurine populations analysed (European, African and Asian) and between the taurine and zebu populations over all mtDNA protein-coding genes were 0.001 and 0.016, respectively (Table S5.4).

Mitochondrial-related genes in autosomal and BTA X candidate sweep regions

A total of 15 mitochondrial-related genes were identified within the candidate sweep regions in Chapters 3 and 4 (Table 5.4). Two genes, ATP5B and GLS2, were selected as likely candidates to be under positive selection due to their obvious roles in ATP generation (see the Discussion section). Within the 15 genes, 1,109 SNPs (276 EASZ-specific) and 40 indels (10 EASZ-specific) were identified. Ten of these SNPs, located on seven genes, were non-synonymous (three were EASZ-specific in three genes). Within the ATP5B and GLS2 genes, 102 SNPs and seven indels were found (Table S5.5). Interestingly, a single non-synonymous variant was identified in amino acid 53 (G 53 A) in GLS2. Based on the 10 EASZ exome sequences (see the Materials and Methods section in Chapter 3), the frequency of the non-reference amino acid of this variant was 35%. PolyPhen-2 predicted a benign effect for this variant.

Table 5.4: A list of mitochondrial-related genes identified within the EASZ autosomal and BTA X candidate sweep regions in Chapters 3 and 4.

BTA	Start (bp)	End (bp)	Gene ID	Gene Name	Gene Description
5	57,119,917	57,125,290	ENSBTAG00000013315	ATP5B	ATP synthase, H ⁺ transporting, mitochondrial F1 complex, beta polypeptide
5	57,241,073	57,253,590	ENSBTAG00000009284	GLS2	glutaminase 2 (liver, mitochondrial)
6	100,006,745	100,011,712	ENSBTAG00000018155	MRPS18C	mitochondrial ribosomal protein S18C
7	33,311,979	33,313,090	ENSBTAG00000005779	FTMT	ferritin mitochondrial (FTMT)
7	62,740,774	62,749,742	ENSBTAG00000019950	GRPEL2	GrpE-like 2, mitochondrial (E. coli)
11	72,315,287	72,324,567	ENSBTAG00000018269	MPV17	MpV17 mitochondrial inner membrane protein
12	35,840,400	35,841,483	ENSBTAG00000003315	MRP63	mitochondrial ribosomal protein 63
13	38,546,389	38,554,838	ENSBTAG00000003425	MGME1	mitochondrial genome maintenance exonuclease 1
13	51,797,279	51,809,475	ENSBTAG00000013545	MAVS	mitochondrial antiviral signaling protein
16	24,976,175	24,998,201	ENSBTAG00000047287	MARC1	mitochondrial amidoxime reducing component 1
16	56,660,856	56,688,617	ENSBTAG00000004358	DARS2	aspartyl-tRNA synthetase 2, mitochondrial
18	36,598,368	36,600,210	ENSBTAG00000001663	PDF	peptide deformylase (mitochondrial)
18	36,674,604	36,696,376	ENSBTAG00000002412	CYB5B	cytochrome b5 type B (outer mitochondrial membrane)
19	27,089,299	27,092,026	ENSBTAG00000004910	SLC25A11	solute carrier family 25 (mitochondrial carrier; oxoglutarate carrier), member 11
X	38,362,070	38,383,556	ENSBTAG00000011648	TMLHE	Trimethyllysine dioxygenase, mitochondrial

Discussion

In this chapter, we explored EASZ mtDNA diversity and affiliated it to the known cattle mtDNA haplogroups. Then, we investigated whether selective pressures might have shaped the diversity of African cattle mtDNA, and more specifically, whether the presence of taurine mtDNA in all types of African cattle (taurine and zebu) presently on the continent is the result of selective pressures, rather than the consequence of a male-mediated zebu introgression. For this purpose, we analysed, for the first time, the full mtDNA of EASZ cattle from Kenya, an indigenous population of cattle from the Horn of Africa, which is the main entry point of Asian zebu cattle (Hanotte et al., 2002).

East African Shorthorn Zebu mtDNA diversity

As for other African cattle (Loftus et al., 1994, Bradley et al., 1996, Bonfiglio et al., 2012, Horsburgh et al., 2013), only taurine mtDNA was identified in EASZ. More specifically, we identified 13 new taurine T1 haplotypes. Therefore, it seems that the T2 and T3 haplogroups observed in Egyptian and Northwest African cattle (Lenstra et al., 2014) might not be present in Kenya, but this will need to be confirmed by analysing a large number of samples and populations.

In agreement with previous studies (Achilli et al., 2009, Bonfiglio et al., 2010, Bonfiglio et al., 2012), we also showed here that sequencing information from the full mtDNA allows the identification of different T sub-haplogroups using diagnostic sites outside the D-loop.

A selective advantage for taurine mtDNA in African zebu cattle?

The presence of only taurine type mtDNA in African cattle is primarily attributed to a male-mediated introgression of Asian zebu cattle into African taurine cattle (Bradley et al., 1996, Hanotte et al., 2002). Alternatively, taurine mtDNA may

have been preferably selected on the continent. To address this issue, we first analysed non-synonymous variants differentiating between taurine and zebu mtDNA using PolyPhen-2. This online tool indicated that they have benign effects. However, PolyPhen-2 does not consider the possible effects from the interaction between the different mutations in a specific gene; thus, it remains possible that these variants may have been selected collectively. Moreover, none of the non-synonymous variants identified were unique to taurine mtDNA when the mtDNAs of other mammalian species were investigated. It might also be possible that the target of selection is not the coding sites, but one or several of the 29 taurine-zebu polymorphisms identified in mtDNA RNA genes (tRNA and rRNA).

Thus far, only one study has investigated the possible selective advantage of taurine/zebu mtDNA in zebu cattle (Guzerat dairy cattle) by comparing production and reproduction traits between the mtDNA types (Paneto et al., 2008). Their results did not indicate any apparent selective advantage of any mtDNA type in association with the studied phenotypes.

Signatures of selection in taurine mtDNA

While there is no evidence for positive selection favouring taurine mtDNA over zebu mtDNA, it is still possible that taurine mtDNA is under selection due to the exposure to the African environment. Following the averaged ω -ratio and PAML analyses, we found evidence of purifying selection acting on the mtDNA of the analysed data sets (Figure 5.4 and Tables S5.2 and S5.3). This is consistent with the selection pattern observed in other mammalian, e.g., humans (Mishmar et al., 2003, Ruiz-Pesini et al., 2004, Elson et al., 2004), mice (Stewart et al., 2008), whales (Soares et al., 2013) and pigs (Soares et al., 2013), and non-mammalian mtDNA, e.g., Pacific salmon (Garvin et al., 2011) and tits (Zink, 2005).

It is important to note that although the ω ratio categories supporting positive selection have been indicated by PAML in some of the analysed genes (Table S5.2), and the BEB approach demonstrated several of their variants to be under positive selection, these results are not conclusive given that none of the positive selection models significantly fitted the analysed data sets better than the non-positive selection models implemented in PAML.

An exception is the identification of a candidate positively selected non-synonymous variant in Cox-2 (D 57 N) in African cattle only. It may indicate that this site is under recurrent selection, i.e., it is not fixed yet. This mutated site is the diagnostic marker of the T1b sub-haplogroup (7542 G/A). This sub-haplogroup was the most common one reported by Bonfiglio et al. (2012) in African cattle (63.8%), as well among our EASZ cattle (54%). Therefore, T1b and its derived sub-haplogroup (T1b1) may be considered to be an advantageous mtDNA type in African cattle.

We also observed higher averaged ω ratios for ATP6 and ATP8 than for the other mtDNA protein-coding genes. Given that these two encoded subunits are parts of a multi-subunit complex (F_0), it is possible that their interactions with the nuclear-encoded subunits of F_0 mask any deleterious mutation from purifying selection. In other words, the nuclear subunits may acquire compensatory mutations that restore the function of the mutated ATP6 and ATP8 subunits (Castellana et al., 2011). This is called cyto-nuclear coevolution (Rand et al., 2004).

Alternatively, it indicates a possible weak signal of positive selection on these two genes. ATP6 and ATP8 subunits are mainly involved in stabilizing the oligomerization of the ATP synthase complex to efficiently generate ATP (Jonckheere et al., 2012). Mutations in these two genes can affect the assembly and the functionality of the overall complex, and, hence, they will be expected to be targeted by positive selection, as has been observed in humans (Ruiz-Pesini et al., 2004), hare species from the arctic regions (Melo-Ferreira et al., 2014), snakes

(Castoe et al., 2008), the parasitic wasp *Nasonia* (Oliveira et al., 2008) and bats (Shen et al., 2010). Elson et al. (2004) have also reported a signal of positive selection, or a relaxation of purifying selection, in ATP6, especially in European and Asian human mtDNA sequences.

Signatures of selection in mitochondrial-related nuclear genes

Selection in nuclear-encoded mitochondrial proteins may also be of importance. For example, natural selection may result in the fixation of beneficial variants to optimize the interactions between nuclear-encoded and mitochondrial-encoded proteins, or to maintain variants that improve mitochondrial functionality, e.g., ATP production.

Interestingly, 15 nuclear-encoded genes associated with mitochondria were found within the sweep regions obtained by the high-density SNP genotypes and the EASZ full genome sequence data in Chapters 3 and 4. Although most of these genes have an unclear role in maintaining proper mitochondrial functionality, two of them may be considered to be candidates for selection. Glutaminase 2 (GLS2) has a role in regulating energy metabolism by increasing the production of glutamate via the hydrolysis of glutamine. This will lead to an increase in ATP production in mitochondria (Hu et al., 2010). ATP5B has a role in maintaining efficient mitochondrial ATP production. This gene encodes the β subunit of the ATP synthase F1 complex, which is the catalytic unit responsible for ATP production.

Although the non-synonymous variant in GLS2 exhibited a low non-reference amino acid frequency and a benign effect, genotyping more cattle samples for this variant is highly desirable. Moreover, variants in the other identified genes should also be considered as candidates in future work.

Limitations in detecting positive selection on mtDNA

Several limitations associated with our data may have affected the power of the signatures of selection analyses conducted here, especially the PAML analysis. Firstly, taurine and zebu cattle are subspecies of domestic cattle, showing a low level of divergence in mtDNA protein-coding genes (Table S5.4). This low inter-population divergence and intra-population diversity observed in our data are major factors that can reduce the power of the site-specific ω ratio test (Anisimova et al., 2001). This method is, indeed, more suitable to detect recurrent selection, not directional selection that derives an advantageous mutation to fixation (Wong et al., 2004). Another problem, present more specifically in ATP8, is the size of the sequence analysed (only 66 amino acids). Anisimova et al. (2001) have indicated, based on simulated data, that short sequences are associated with lower LRT power to detect adaptive evolution. Moreover, the non-recombining nature of mtDNA is also an obstacle in defining positively selected sites. This is due to the high LD level between variants and, hence, the resulting sweep will mask a favourable site by reducing diversity.

Conclusion

In this chapter, we have shown that our EASZ samples belong to the taurine T1 haplogroup, more specifically to the T1a, T1b and T1b1 sub-haplogroups. Unfortunately, we could not define any selective advantage specific to this type of mtDNA in African zebu cattle, leaving the “male-mediated introgression of Asian zebu” as the more likely explanation. We have also shown that purifying selection is predominantly influencing mtDNA sequence diversity in cattle, with ATP6 and ATP8 showing lower conservation than the other mtDNA protein-coding genes. However, a mutated site within the Cox-2 gene leads us to propose that the T1b, and its derived sub-haplogroup T1b1, might represent an advantageous mtDNA type in African cattle. We also cannot exclude that mtDNA RNA and mitochondrial-related nuclear genes can be considered to be targets of positive

selection. Increasing the number of EASZ samples and including more African cattle populations from across the continent will be required to better characterise African cattle mtDNA diversity and the selection pressures by which it has been shaped.

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Chapter six

General discussion and future prospects

This thesis has investigated the full genome (autosomes, chromosome X and mtDNA) of an ancient, stabilised zebu-aurine admixed African cattle population, the small East African shorthorn zebu (EASZ), with the aim to identify candidate genome regions with signatures of positive selection. These regions might be associated with African environmental challenges, human selection and/or adaptive admixture that lead to reproductive fitness. We cannot confidently separate these different selective forces, as they have likely acted together, leading to the selection of the favourable haplotypes in the EASZ genome. We also aimed to define the origins of the selected regions and to determine the candidate genes/variants under positive selection, both for nuclear and the mtDNA.

The identified regions harbour different candidate genes associated with various biological functions, e.g., innate and adaptive immunity, reproduction and fertility, and physiological development, which are crucial for ensuring the survival of these cattle in their local environment. Several EASZ candidate regions have been confirmed to show signatures of positive selection in separate zebu-aurine admixed African cattle populations from Uganda and Nigeria (data from this thesis), and in other African and non-African tropical-adapted admixed cattle analysed in previous studies (Gautier and Naves, 2011, Flori et al., 2014). Although EASZ are not considered to be highly productive breeds, the possibility of past selection for production traits in this indigenous cattle population cannot be excluded, as illustrated by the overlap between production QTL and some candidate regions under positive selection.

Chapter 2 is our starting point to explore the genome of EASZ. However, covering the full genome of EASZ with low-density genotyped SNPs (< 50,000 SNPs after quality control), using the Illumina Bovine SNP50 BeadChip v.1, does not represent a full characterisation of the EASZ genome. Increasing the SNP density to > 300,000 SNPs has been suggested for cattle; in particular, for between breed analyses (Goddard and Hayes, 2009). The target is to have SNPs in high linkage disequilibrium (LD) with the candidate regions under selection in populations with

different breeding histories. In addition to the genome coverage issue, SNP arrays will inevitably display an ascertainment bias, as these polymorphic markers are selected in a restricted number of breeds at the array design phase (Matukumalli et al., 2009).

In Chapters 3 and 4, we tried to overcome the above limitations using the high-density Illumina BovineHD Genotyping BeadChip and full EASZ genome sequence information. As shown in Table 6.1, not surprisingly, most of the candidate regions identified using the low-density SNP chip (Chapter 2) were also revealed by the high-density SNP chip and/or the full genome sequence analyses. About 42% (10 out of 24 regions) of the candidate regions identified in Chapter 2 were not detected by the high-density SNP chip and/or the full EASZ genome sequence. This might be attributed to the different types of analysis conducted in these chapters, as each test has its own strengths in detecting a specific selection pattern at a specific time-scale (reviewed in Oleksyk et al. (2010)). Alternatively, because of the aforementioned limitations associated with the Illumina Bovine SNP50 BeadChip v.1, these 10 regions might have been identified as possible false-positives. In contrast, analyses of the high-density genotyped SNPs and full EASZ genome sequence led to the identification of an additional 272 candidate regions (253 in autosomes and 19 in the BTA X sex chromosome). This illustrates the superiority of the utilised genomic tools in comparison with the low-density SNP array used in Chapter 2. However, we should also emphasise that a *Bos taurus taurus* reference genome was used to align the EASZ sequence reads. Given that EASZ are zebu-taurine admixed cattle with predominantly zebu background, new candidate regions might be identified by using the, yet unavailable, *Bos taurus indicus* genome as a reference.

Table 6.1: Candidate regions identified in Chapter 2 and their overlapping regions in Chapters 3 and 4.

Chapter 2			Chapter 3 and 4	
BTA	Chromosomal Position	Identifying Statistic	SNP array (meta-SS)	Sequence (Hp)
2	125,585,810 – 126,058,677	F _{ST}	125,159,084 – 125,994,861	125,640,001 – 126,083,262
3	101,942,771	Rsb	–	–
4	47,195,467 – 47,539,595	F _{ST}	–	–
4	51,927,595 – 52,308,430	F _{ST}	–	–
5	57,977,594	Rsb	56,651,062 – 57,515,653	–
5	60,556,520	Rsb	–	60,610,001 – 60,721,361
5	76,286,670	iHS	–	–
7	52,224,595 – 52,720,797	F _{ST}	52,183,599 – 53,001,042	51,360,001 – 53,362,761
11	62,629,106	Rsb	61,877,437 – 62,548,419	62,810,001 – 62,971,604
12	27,181,474	Rsb	27,050,192 – 29,151,436	–
12	29,217,254	Rsb	27,050,192 – 29,151,436	29,110,001 – 29,438,417
12	35,740,174	Rsb	35,445,176 – 36,965,854	–
13	46,433,697 – 46,723,493	F _{ST}	–	–
13	57,848,276 – 58,207,174	F _{ST}	58,273,562 – 58,599,491	57,990,001 – 58,122,843
14	24,482,969 – 25,254,540	F _{ST}	–	–
19	27,369,763 – 27,763,447	F _{ST}	26,909,816 – 27,143,239	27,490,001 – 27,674,039
19	42,696,815	Rsb	43,023,638 – 43,692,285	42,890,001 – 43,122,753
22	2,314,019 – 2,788,566	F _{ST}	–	2,890,001 – 30,5754,9
23	28,281,915	iHS	–	–
24	4,118,163 – 4,474,760	F _{ST}	–	4,660,001 – 4,771,543
29	1,898,171	iHS	–	–
X	8,582,093 – 9,248,137	F _{ST}	–	–
X	39,942,044 – 42,024,368	F _{ST}	–	–
X	84,566,018 – 85,993,719	F _{ST}	86,750,029 – 87,174,478*	–

* identified by iHS

We also explored the possible presence of signatures of positive selection in the same candidate regions in other cattle populations. Our primary objective was to cross-validate the EASZ candidate regions in other tropically adapted zebu-aurine admixed cattle from Uganda and Nigeria. Assuming these populations had different breeding histories, such an approach should reduce the probability of identifying false-positive candidate regions following genetic drift. It may also help fine mapping the regions of interest. The approach assumes that the same selection pressures will act on cattle populations in different geographic areas. We addressed the latter by comparing crossbred zebu-aurine populations from three geographic areas along roughly the same latitudes. Importantly, we also identified specific candidate regions for positive selection in the three populations examined. There is definitely room for further analysis, keeping in mind that this thesis primarily focused on EASZ.

Among all the identified candidate genes, several have been recently investigated by different research groups. One example is RXFP2. This gene, which is mapped within a candidate region on BTA 12 in EASZ, has been associated with male fertility (Gorlov et al., 2002, Agoulnik, 2007, Feng et al., 2009) and horn development in sheep (Johnston et al., 2011). The available pooled EASZ genome sequence revealed three exonic SNPs, two non-synonymous and one synonymous, in this gene. In addition to these SNPs, other genomic variants, such as mutations in non-coding regions (e.g., transcription factor binding sites) and structural chromosomal variants, may regulate the expression of RXFP2. This will require further investigation to accurately define the causative mutations under selection.

It is important to realise that while our bioinformatics tools are increasingly being refined, they are not yet perfect. For example, defining the biological effect of variants on the expression of a candidate gene is an important step to qualify them as candidate mutations under selection. In this thesis, the effects of the non-synonymous variants in RXFP2 were predicted using the available online tool PolyPhen-2 (Adzhubei et al., 2010). However, this tool does not predict the effects of possible interactions between these mutations on gene function. Importantly, any candidate mutation will need to be validated

experimentally, using not only model organisms (e.g., mice) and/or experimental cell lines, as in Carneiro et al. (2014), but also with the development of targeted mutations in cattle using different biotechnology techniques, such as TALENs (Carlson et al., 2012) and CRISPR/Cas9 (Wang et al., 2013).

Additionally, several CNV detection algorithms are now available to analyse full genome (e.g., CNVnator (Abyzov et al., 2011), CNV-seq (Xie and Tammi, 2009) and cnMOPS (Klambauer et al., 2012)) and exome data (e.g., CoNIFER (Krumm et al., 2012), ExomeCNV (Sathirapongsasuti et al., 2011), ExomeDepth (Plagnol et al., 2012) and cnMOPS (Klambauer et al., 2012)). Although we followed a customised approach to detect signals of CNV, it will be noteworthy to use these algorithms on our exome data to accurately define CNV regions, i.e., correcting for any sources of bias that might lead to false-positives (e.g., GC-content biased) (Dohm et al., 2008, Benjamini and Speed, 2012). The depth of the coverage analysis conducted in Chapters 3 and 4 was confined to the coding regions (exome) of the EASZ genome. This analysis should be widened to include un-pooled full EASZ genome sequence data, as this will allow us to define CNV regions in non-coding regions and to calculate the frequency of the CNVs in EASZ (Abyzov et al., 2011, Bickhart et al., 2012, Hou et al., 2012). A comparative analysis with a non-EASZ genome is also important to define CNVs specific to EASZ. Analysing our genotyped SNPs data for CNV regions is another area that can be further investigated (Hou et al., 2011, Hou et al., 2012).

The last chapter of this thesis (Chapter 5) has clarified the diversity and phylogeny of EASZ mtDNA, affiliating them with the domestic cattle T1 macro-haplogroup, more specifically, T1a, T1b and T1b1. We only analysed 13 EASZ samples; thus, more data will be required to accurately characterise the diversity of mtDNA in this population. We aimed to address the question of whether positive selection for taurine mtDNA explains its unique presence on the continent. Our results revealed no specific signature of positive selection in taurine versus zebu mtDNA. However, a signal of positive selection has been identified in a non-synonymous variant in Cox-2 in the

T1b/T1b1 sub-haplogroups. Although the available data indicate that T1b and its derived haplotypes are the most common haplotypes on the African continent, this will need to be further investigated via the analysis of more animals. It is possible that the unique presence of taurine mtDNA on the African continent is the result of two concomitant factors, a predominantly male-derived zebu introgression (Bradley et al., 1996, Hanotte et al., 2002), as well as some selection acting on specific taurine variants.

Future prospects

Climate change is a major issue that has direct consequences for livestock health. Given the continuous emission of greenhouse gases, e.g., CO₂, it is estimated that the global mean surface temperature will increase by 3.7°C to 4.8°C in 2100 (IPCC, 2014). In Africa, the Atmospheric Oceanic General Circulation Model (AOGCM) predicts an average increase in temperature of 1.4°C in 2020, 2.6°C in 2060 and 4.4°C in 2100, whilst it has been estimated that there will be an average increase in rainfall of 0.6% in 2020, followed by 4.2% and 12% decreases in 2060 and 2100, respectively (Seo and Mendelsohn, 2008). This will, in turn, affect the distribution of vector-borne diseases, e.g., bluetongue (Wittmann et al., 2001), reduce the cattle reproduction rate (Hansen, 2007) and it may decrease milk yield and quality (Bernabucci and Calamari, 1998, Nardone et al., 2010).

High attention is now given to conserve genetic resources that are adapted to harsh environmental challenges, e.g., heat stress. Indigenous African cattle populations are mainly selected, naturally and artificially, for survival in the African environment (drought, heat stress and parasitic diseases) (Murray and Trail, 1984, Norval et al., 1992, Rege et al., 2001). They are used as multi-purpose livestock species for ploughing, transport, milk production, as well as a source of fertilizers, while fulfilling many socio-economic roles. The genome of indigenous African cattle is full of valuable genetic material (Rege et al., 2001, Hanotte et al., 2010). These adaptive traits are in danger of being eroded due to the continuous introgression of exotic European cattle genomes to increase productivity, e.g., milk yield (Hanotte et al., 2010). Although high

productivity is a requirement to maintain sufficient income for farmers, it is a short-term, unsustainable solution in the local production system.

The results obtained in this thesis, as well as those in other studies of African cattle populations (Gautier et al., 2009, Flori et al., 2014), can be considered to be the first step towards conserving this valuable genetic material. Here, we have defined key genome regions that need to be maintained in future composite African cattle populations to sustain survival and productivity in their local environment. To achieve this, informed selective crossbreeding between indigenous and exotic cattle is required to ensure the inheritance and fixation of these genome regions in the resulting composite population. This type of marker-assisted introgression (MAI) crossbreeding involves the introgression of a chromosomal fragment of interest into a different breed or population from which it originates (Lecomte et al., 2004). The MAI approach requires identifying genetic markers in high LD with the haplotype of interest. Although no studies on cattle have yet been published, MAI has been successfully used for the introgression of three trypanotolerance QTL in mice (Koudande et al., 2005), and two intramuscular fat QTL in pigs (Sato et al., 2014). This approach is associated with several drawbacks: i) it is a time-consuming process due to the long generation time (e.g., ~ 6 years in cattle (Keightley and Eyre-Walker, 2000)), ii) the possible introgression of unselected haplotypes and iii) the outcome of this introgression may be dependent on the genetic background of the recipient population (Sato et al., 2014, Bahbahani and Hanotte, 2015).

Alternatively, gene modification techniques, such as TALENs (Carlson et al., 2012) and CRISPR/Cas9 (Wang et al., 2013), may be used in cattle breeding to genetically engineer calves carrying favourable allele(s). These techniques have successfully introduced several SNPs and indels in large (cattle) and small (sheep and goats) ruminants, as well as in pigs (e.g., T 1591 C in the porcine P65 gene and 11 bp deletion in the bovine and ovine GDF8 gene) (Carlson et al., 2012, Tan et al., 2013, Hai et al., 2014, Proudfoot et al., 2015). However, causative mutations under selection in indigenous African cattle need to be identified first, a prerequisite not needed for MAI.

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Supplementary Tables

Chapter Two

Table S2.1: Candidate regions identified by pairwise and combined reference Rsb analyses and pairwise F_{ST} analyses.

Rsb	EASZ vs European taurine	EASZ vs N'Dama	EASZ vs Nellore	EASZ vs combined references
BTA	Chromosomal position (bp)			
3	–	–	–	101,942,771
5	–	–	–	57,138,952
5	–	60,513,092	–	60,556,520
5	–	113,737,833	–	–
11	62,629,106	62,629,106*	–	62,629,106
12	27,181,474	–	–	27,181,474
12	29,217,254*	29,217,254	–	29,217,254
12	35,740,174*	–	–	35,740,174
18	–	13,238,432	–	–
19	42,252,751*	–	–	42,696,851
F_{ST}				
BTA	Chromosomal position (bp)			
2	–	125,585,810 - 126,058,677	–	–
4	–	–	47,195,467 - 47,539,595	–
4	51,927,595 - 52,308,430	–	–	–
7	52,224,595 - 52,720,797	52,224,595 - 52,720,797	–	–
13	46,433,697 - 46,723,493	46,433,697 - 46,723,493	–	–
13	57,848,276 - 58,207,174	–	–	–
14	24,482,969-25,254,540	–	–	–
19	–	27,369,763 - 27,763,447	–	–
22	–	–	2,314,019 - 2,788,566	–
24	–	–	4,118,163 - 4,474,760	–
X	–	–	8,582,093 - 9,248,137	–
X	40,319,976 - 43,999,854	39,942,044 - 42,024,368	–	–
X	84,566,018 - 85,993,719	84,566,018 - 85,993,719	–	–

* Single SNP passed significant threshold.

Table S2.2: Genes within the candidate regions intervals

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Table S2.3: Functional term clusters of genes within the identified candidate region intervals.

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Table S2.4: Bovine QTL spans the identified candidate regions intervals.

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Table S2.5: Trypanotolerance QTL identified by (Hanotte et al., 2003) spanning the candidate regions intervals

BTA	start	stop	QTL_ID
7	38,332,974	59,135,155	PCVF minus PCVM QTL (10516)
7	38,332,974	59,135,155	Body weight (mean) QTL (10517)
7	38,332,974	59,135,155	Percentage decrease in body weight up to day 150 after challenge QTL (10518)
7	38,332,974	59,135,155	Parasites natural logarithm of mean number QTL (10519)
7	38,332,974	59,135,155	Parasite detection rate QTL (10520)
13	29,549,346	71,827,292	Percentage decrease in PCV up to day 150 after challenge QTL (10524)
13	29,549,346	71,827,292	Percentage decrease in PCV up to day 100 after challenge QTL (10525)
13	29,549,346	71,827,292	Parasite detection rate QTL (10526)
29	1,568,804	25,983,377	BWF scaled by BWI QTL (10559)
29	1,568,804	25,983,377	Parasites natural logarithm of mean number QTL (10560)

Chapter Three

Table S3.1: The EASZ samples of the full genome sequence pool, and the ten exome sequences. Their sublocations, sex and alive/dead status after one year from their date of birth.

Full genome sequence			
Sample ID (DEDG number)	Sublocation	Sex	Alive/ Dead
354	Namboboto	male	Alive
90	Bukati	male	Alive
500	Bujwanga	female	Alive
341	Kidera	female	Alive
364	Otimong	female	Alive
352	Magombe East	male	Dead
378	Bumala	male	Dead
70	Mabusi	male	Dead
194	Kokare	female	Dead
18	Bujwanga	female	Dead
Exome sequence			
Sample ID (DEDG number)	Sublocation	Sex	Alive/ Dead
289	Kidera	female	Dead
1693	Otimong	male	Alive
524	MagombeEast	female	Dead
915	SimurEast	female	Alive
1148	Bujwanga	female	Dead
2025	Bujwanga	male	Alive
2063	OjwandoB	male	Dead
1401	OjwandoB	male	Dead
923	Ikonzo	female	Dead
2183	Ikonzo	male	Alive

Table S3.2: A summary of the exome sequence reads mapped to the UMD3.1 bovine reference genome for each sequenced EASZ sample.

Sample ID (DEDG number)	289	524	915	923	1148	1401	1693	2025	2063	2183
Total Raw Reads	60,521,890	61,886,159	76,115,987	71,041,457	54,406,488	70,583,687	75,825,024	97,926,144	56,892,642	81,334,699
Mapped Reads (MAPQ0)	58,123,736	59,259,487	72,520,518	67,565,041	52,179,782	67,757,017	72,357,186	93,087,864	54,589,349	77,623,887
Total MAPQ30 Aligned Reads	52,530,808	53,401,659	65,074,820	60,547,213	47,286,573	61,153,497	65,090,879	84,299,461	49,335,902	69,825,532
Reads In Targets:	46,060,296	47,152,655	56,371,737	52,981,396	41,868,685	54,020,004	57,191,616	75,303,053	43,725,770	61,038,375
Reads Off Targets:	6,470,512	6,249,004	8,703,083	7,565,817	5,417,888	7,133,493	7,899,263	8,996,408	5,610,132	8,787,157
Percent of Target Bases Not Covered	8.58%	8.68%	7.77%	7.56%	9.23%	8.30%	7.90%	6.31%	8.83%	7.26%
Percent of Target Bases Covered	91.42%	91.32%	92.23%	92.44%	90.77%	91.70%	92.10%	93.69%	91.17%	92.74%

Table S3.3: Candidate regions from each genome-wide SNP analysis (iHS, Rsb, Δ AF and meta-SS) conducted on EASZ with the combined reference populations (Holstein-Friesian, Jersey, N'Dama, Muturu, Nellore and Gir).

iHS	Rsb	ΔAF	meta-SS
BTA 7:52824870-52929978	BTA 3:120604441-121240490	BTA 5:48603538-49209163	BTA 1:21156402-22526511
	BTA 5:43269121-44220056	BTA 7:52183599-52265269	BTA 1:54859494-55507566
	BTA 5:48585608-49161124	BTA 13:47508061-48142997	BTA 1:149241884-149992523
	BTA 5:62467698-62644905	BTA 13:48796718-48911554	BTA 1:150577829-151624225
	BTA 7:32972540-33427191	BTA 13:49433476-49762965	BTA 2:70314631-71161113
	BTA 8:23344221-23663852	BTA 13:50524278-50890135	BTA 2:125159084-125994861
	BTA 8:75877341-76036999		BTA 2:129113592-129923930
	BTA 9:70621641-70687691		BTA 3:12494224-12881786
	BTA 11:62482731-62765277		BTA 3:34007860-34727876
	BTA 12:35689908-35743087		BTA 3:76084701-76781970
	BTA 13:40486503-40909800		BTA 3:84969287-85118197
	BTA 14:28205941-28430215		BTA 3:98862402-99422213
	BTA 16:24578091-25533972		BTA 3:117829869-118619968
	BTA 19:2568979-2765065		BTA 3:119780513-121238836
	BTA 19:40668949-42066750		BTA 4:31365784-31765553
	BTA 19:46361364-46602836		BTA 4:63641280-63815686
	BTA 22:45134706-46239607		BTA 4:66591996-67082312
	BTA 24:61972128-62488062		BTA 5:23652016-24473786
	BTA 27:4653655-4975928		BTA 5:43230619-44574214
			BTA 5:48477903-49268610
			BTA 5:56651062-57515653
			BTA 5:58604207-58841085
			BTA 5:62272683-62659987
			BTA 5:109303999-110096347
			BTA 7:31748136-33875610
			BTA 7:50281923-50809190
			BTA 7:52183599-53001042
			BTA 7:61232987-61658196
			BTA 7:62415406-63117931
			BTA 7:65078295-65614779
			BTA 7:72421285-72514475
			BTA 7:84899824-85607137
			BTA 8:22905793-24288281
			BTA 8:44479612-44734659
			BTA 8:54926810-55060853
			BTA 8:64248747-64461984
			BTA 8:65301113-65634601
			BTA 8:70046025-70695580

		BTA 8:75162283-76369374
		BTA 9:69198185-69475040
		BTA 9:70454678-70753715
		BTA 9:73280867-74185868
		BTA 9:76289561-76853587
		BTA 9:85550547-85655401
		BTA 9:87580569-87599592
		BTA 9:94121197-95380876
		BTA 9:104535674-105668863
		BTA 10:80515703-80833218
		BTA 10:103294561-104290655
		BTA 11:38402190-39743107
		BTA 11:61877437-62548419
		BTA 11:71346519-72547901
		BTA 11:73807783-75446726
		BTA 12:20989169-21254061
		BTA 12:24843013-25658768
		BTA 12:27050192-29151436
		BTA 12:33250917-34546381
		BTA 12:35445176-36965854
		BTA 13:18130223-18421481
		BTA 13:38040277-38561478
		BTA 13:39430011-41356847
		BTA 13:42225984-43136553
		BTA 13:45350218-45772147
		BTA 13:50616630-50837529
		BTA 13:55428804-55542599
		BTA 13:58273562-58599491
		BTA 13:81265605-82376453
		BTA 14:28186226-28430215
		BTA 15:42536074-43195359
		BTA 16:24517859-25540339
		BTA 16:26979772-27160301
		BTA 16:40523561-41395850
		BTA 16:46869577-47614377
		BTA 16:50610769-50762363
		BTA 16:56620669-57041236
		BTA 18:13483509-14050131

			BTA 18:19446425-20061183
			BTA 19:2568979-2765065
			BTA 19:3337282-3823638
			BTA 19:9515063-10250080
			BTA 19:20622520-21225583
			BTA 19:26909816-27143239
			BTA 19:30826413-31463726
			BTA 19:39330233-39519992
			BTA 19:40045779-42066750
			BTA 19:43023638-43692285
			BTA 19:44788419-45414418
			BTA 19:46031543-46786391
			BTA 21:33590777-33696403
			BTA 21:60026698-60449172
			BTA 22:29533544-30366810
			BTA 22:42705202-44541377
			BTA 22:45102551-46400273
			BTA 24:61008938-62530799
			BTA 25:41769025-42283544
			BTA 27:4494286-5052515
			BTA 27:6938210-7107679
			BTA 28:4635419-5123022

Table S3.4: Pearson correlation coefficients (r) between the P-values of the three genome-wide SNP analyses (iHs, Rsb and Δ AF) conducted on EASZ and the zebu cattle populations from Uganda and Nigeria.

EASZ	Rsb	iHs	ΔAF
Rsb	1	0.228	0.098
iHs	0.228	1	0.133
ΔAF	0.098	0.133	1

Uganda	Rsb	iHs	ΔAF
Rsb	1	0.22	0.08
iHs	0.22	1	0.116
ΔAF	0.08	0.116	1

Nigeria	Rsb	iHs	ΔAF
Rsb	1	0.22	0.077
iHs	0.22	1	0.122
ΔAF	0.077	0.122	1

Table S3.5: Candidate regions identified by the separate meta-SS analyses of EASZ with the combined reference cattle populations (Holstein-Friesian, Jersey, Guinean N'Dama, Muturu, Nellore and Gir), European taurine (Holstein-Friesian and Jersey), African taurine (N'Dama and Muturu) and Asian zebu (Nellore and Gir).

EASZ vs. combined reference	EASZ vs. European taurine	EASZ vs. African taurine	EASZ vs. Asian zebu
BTA 1:21156402-22526511	BTA 1:43720640-43985755	BTA 1:21273311-22733168	BTA 1:21858918-22046473
BTA 1:54859494-55507566	BTA 1:54859494-55507566	BTA 1:149241884-149992523	BTA 1:119051755-119624353
BTA 1:149241884-149992523	BTA 1:149187317-149992523	BTA 1:150701102-151801139	BTA 1:131228416-131797328
BTA 1:150577829-151624225	BTA 1:150701102-151546627	BTA 2:63595920-63786435	BTA 2:38756568-38949731
BTA 2:70314631-71161113	BTA 2:70314631-71185300	BTA 2:70314631-71185300	BTA 2:89312957-89889861
BTA 2:125159084-125994861	BTA 2:125435695-125994861	BTA 2:120552241-120684646	BTA 2:124919532-125201684
BTA 2:129113592-129923930	BTA 3:12387203-12856963	BTA 2:125159084-125994861	BTA 2:128258499-129103667
BTA 3:12494224-12881786	BTA 3:57647858-57821484	BTA 2:127257140-128368124	BTA 3:15357241-15448231
BTA 3:34007860-34727876	BTA 3:66396281-66830763	BTA 3:12427792-12856963	BTA 3:118235551-118619968
BTA 3:76084701-76781970	BTA 3:75903912-76781970	BTA 3:57647858-57955899	BTA 3:120514654-120933064
BTA 3:84969287-85118197	BTA 3:84969287-85118197	BTA 3:66396281-66684875	BTA 5:101216012-101377388
BTA 3:98862402-99422213	BTA 3:94387038-94651204	BTA 3:75879604-76825243	BTA 6:4876731-5213570
BTA 3:117829869-118619968	BTA 3:98862402-99422213	BTA 3:84984361-85159851	BTA 7:72421285-72514475
BTA 3:119780513-121238836	BTA 3:120239456-121336001	BTA 3:93932193-94651204	BTA 8:23393589-23705690
BTA 4:31365784-31765553	BTA 4:31365784-31901772	BTA 3:98862402-99422213	BTA 8:43890714-44734659
BTA 4:63641280-63815686	BTA 4:66591996-66981450	BTA 3:102077605-102677147	BTA 8:45522131-46530833
BTA 4:66591996-67082312	BTA 5:23652016-24473786	BTA 3:117382593-117829869	BTA 8:48413463-48996862
BTA 5:23652016-24473786	BTA 5:43377141-44220056	BTA 3:120604441-120933064	BTA 8:75323318-76140060
BTA 5:43230619-44574214	BTA 5:47583595-47889976	BTA 4:63641280-63815686	BTA 9:75528881-75644797
BTA 5:48477903-49268610	BTA 5:48477903-49268610	BTA 4:66717413-67074925	BTA 9:77427348-77608380
BTA 5:56651062-57515653	BTA 5:56716286-57504991	BTA 4:70466113-70980770	BTA 9:87513863-88558239
BTA 5:58604207-58841085	BTA 5:62483017-62659987	BTA 5:23652016-24338695	BTA 9:94121197-94202901
BTA 5:62272683-62659987	BTA 5:66466104-66839402	BTA 5:25696803-25956523	BTA 13:19230559-19283084
BTA 5:109303999-110096347	BTA 5:109303999-109917484	BTA 5:43269121-43928536	BTA 13:34447404-34673102
BTA 7:31748136-33875610	BTA 5:112892862-113026417	BTA 5:48409250-49268610	BTA 15:44861498-44957064
BTA 7:50281923-50809190	BTA 6:107869349-108180993	BTA 5:58604207-58841085	BTA 15:47056199-47426249
BTA 7:52183599-53001042	BTA 7:33085021-33427191	BTA 5:62483017-62659987	BTA 19:2473530-3880072
BTA 7:61232987-61658196	BTA 7:52183599-53104028	BTA 5:109457734-109948881	BTA 19:30788891-31093921
BTA 7:62415406-63117931	BTA 7:62551178-63113709	BTA 5:112892862-113062786	BTA 19:40342087-41622554
BTA 7:65078295-65614779	BTA 7:84899824-85607137	BTA 6:107869349-108053301	BTA 20:14483323-14769267
BTA 7:72421285-72514475	BTA 8:22898801-23663852	BTA 7:6194849-6324756	BTA 20:39393926-39441079
BTA 7:84899824-85607137	BTA 8:25186672-25251326	BTA 7:32640500-33478056	BTA 24:4549374-4741755

BTA 8:22905793-24288281	BTA 8:54926810-54967023	BTA 7:52183599-53001042	BTA 28:4636092-4743614
BTA 8:44479612-44734659	BTA 9:69198185-69434969	BTA 7:62415406-63113709	
BTA 8:54926810-55060853	BTA 9:70454678-70753715	BTA 7:84821734-84942326	
BTA 8:64248747-64461984	BTA 9:104535674-105573011	BTA 7:92566598-93032329	
BTA 8:65301113-65634601	BTA 10:80571881-80833218	BTA 8:7045806-7220044	
BTA 8:70046025-70695580	BTA 10:103224277-104290655	BTA 8:22898801-23703357	
BTA 8:75162283-76369374	BTA 11:61842250-62548419	BTA 8:54926810-54967023	
BTA 9:69198185-69475040	BTA 11:71321015-71959918	BTA 8:96511836-96607609	
BTA 9:70454678-70753715	BTA 11:74590729-75446726	BTA 9:61515334-61560160	
BTA 9:73280867-74185868	BTA 12:20903217-21254061	BTA 9:69083365-69406467	
BTA 9:76289561-76853587	BTA 12:24843013-26501234	BTA 9:70454678-70996872	
BTA 9:85550547-85655401	BTA 12:27050192-27481578	BTA 9:95243509-95398119	
BTA 9:87580569-87599592	BTA 12:27998214-29572256	BTA 9:104535674-105668863	
BTA 9:94121197-95380876	BTA 12:35445176-35920785	BTA 10:79699073-79969610	
BTA 9:104535674-105668863	BTA 13:18087066-18401050	BTA 10:80571881-80833218	
BTA 10:80515703-80833218	BTA 13:38077663-38561478	BTA 10:103224277-104290655	
BTA 10:103294561-104290655	BTA 13:40486503-41356847	BTA 11:62198651-62410583	
BTA 11:38402190-39743107	BTA 14:28186226-28371763	BTA 11:64392003-65111327	
BTA 11:61877437-62548419	BTA 16:24517859-25561046	BTA 11:73897030-75446726	
BTA 11:71346519-72547901	BTA 16:47310187-47946214	BTA 12:21105889-21364886	
BTA 11:73807783-75446726	BTA 16:50589449-50936489	BTA 12:25020864-25753544	
BTA 12:20989169-21254061	BTA 16:56614124-57126487	BTA 12:27159435-27294344	
BTA 12:24843013-25658768	BTA 18:13570777-14050131	BTA 12:27998214-29572256	
BTA 12:27050192-29151436	BTA 19:2631478-2748282	BTA 12:31767663-31856909	
BTA 12:33250917-34546381	BTA 19:9515063-9866038	BTA 12:35711647-36163614	
BTA 12:35445176-36965854	BTA 19:24020434-24240860	BTA 13:18130223-18401050	
BTA 13:18130223-18421481	BTA 19:26909816-27113818	BTA 13:40260771-41328969	
BTA 13:38040277-38561478	BTA 19:31260078-31463726	BTA 13:50578262-51056217	
BTA 13:39430011-41356847	BTA 19:40277088-41570503	BTA 13:57900251-58599491	
BTA 13:42225984-43136553	BTA 19:44701807-45606680	BTA 13:81326857-82765411	
BTA 13:45350218-45772147	BTA 19:46427077-46786391	BTA 16:24517859-25616669	
BTA 13:50616630-50837529	BTA 21:60108089-60449172	BTA 16:27045486-27160301	
BTA 13:55428804-55542599	BTA 21:67053720-67771364	BTA 16:40938961-41888513	
BTA 13:58273562-58599491	BTA 22:29992570-30416885	BTA 16:47516943-47949171	
BTA 13:81265605-82376453	BTA 22:42705202-44541377	BTA 16:50589449-50762363	
BTA 14:28186226-28430215	BTA 22:45102551-46400273	BTA 16:56606500-56887107	

BTA 15:42536074-43195359	BTA 23:18307738-18594576	BTA 18:13411086-14050131	
BTA 16:24517859-25540339	BTA 24:43869361-43952239	BTA 18:41782002-41883323	
BTA 16:26979772-27160301	BTA 24:61008938-62172371	BTA 19:9515063-9866038	
BTA 16:40523561-41395850	BTA 25:41715836-42452921	BTA 19:23766690-24240860	
BTA 16:46869577-47614377		BTA 19:26909816-27131960	
BTA 16:50610769-50762363		BTA 19:31242346-31463726	
BTA 16:56620669-57041236		BTA 19:39342925-41700252	
BTA 18:13483509-14050131		BTA 19:42808886-43406339	
BTA 18:19446425-20061183		BTA 19:44836581-45134496	
BTA 19:2568979-2765065		BTA 19:46487440-46786391	
BTA 19:3337282-3823638		BTA 20:71168947-71977818	
BTA 19:9515063-10250080		BTA 21:67360105-67771364	
BTA 19:20622520-21225583		BTA 22:29654676-30237259	
BTA 19:26909816-27143239		BTA 22:43706894-44292266	
BTA 19:30826413-31463726		BTA 22:45102551-46400273	
BTA 19:39330233-39519992		BTA 23:18307738-18594576	
BTA 19:40045779-42066750		BTA 24:42318083-43053802	
BTA 19:43023638-43692285		BTA 24:43641560-43952239	
BTA 19:44788419-45414418		BTA 25:37361829-37759374	
BTA 19:46031543-46786391		BTA 25:41769025-42061192	
BTA 21:33590777-33696403		BTA 26:22075366-22274137	
BTA 21:60026698-60449172		BTA 26:30849958-30917539	
BTA 22:29533544-30366810		BTA 28:28503464-28838715	
BTA 22:42705202-44541377		BTA 29:43412008-44067968	
BTA 22:45102551-46400273			
BTA 24:61008938-62530799			
BTA 25:41769025-42283544			
BTA 27:4494286-5052515			
BTA 27:6938210-7107679			
BTA 28:4635419-5123022			

Table S3.6: Candidate regions from each genome-wide SNP analysis (iHS, Rsb, ΔAF and meta-SS) performed on zebu cattle populations from Uganda with the combined reference populations (Holstein-Friesian, Jersey, N'Dama, Muturu, Nellore and Gir).

iHS	Rsb	ΔAF	meta-SS
BTA 1:67180060-67313350	BTA 3:75775876-76364422	BTA 13:48796718-48911554	BTA 1:58355682-58612631
BTA 3:120559807-121238836	BTA 3:120604441-121247679	BTA 13:49433476-49762965	BTA 1:65792291-66240276
BTA 5:47121805-47437350	BTA 5:43829015-44574214	BTA 13:50524278-50742202	BTA 1:66748211-67328094
BTA 6:4964608-5141190	BTA 5:48149086-49174693		BTA 1:149241884-149960460
BTA 13:40360159-41102866	BTA 5:60390408-60627450		BTA 2:70314631-71185300
BTA 19:46606725-46706542	BTA 5:62457573-62644905		BTA 2:125159084-125994861
	BTA 5:66758715-66864425		BTA 3:33458232-33531571
	BTA 6:4837150-4876731		BTA 3:34254043-34727876
	BTA 6:40303148-40934693		BTA 3:67940307-68128218
	BTA 7:32640500-33427191		BTA 3:75391246-76825243
	BTA 8:45762230-46406194		BTA 3:98563369-99283161
	BTA 9:70649533-70687691		BTA 3:120601191-121300696
	BTA 11:62482731-62765277		BTA 5:23652016-24338695
	BTA 12:25490082-25676204		BTA 5:43834751-44574214
	BTA 12:26945295-27085108		BTA 5:47143913-49212943
	BTA 12:35689908-35886159		BTA 5:49857890-49993761
	BTA 13:31691092-31787896		BTA 5:50952073-51113065
	BTA 13:39579929-41328969		BTA 5:60390408-60699053
	BTA 14:28164594-28430215		BTA 5:62045272-62587423
	BTA 15:44849752-45106327		BTA 5:63555403-64334857
	BTA 15:48585759-48841386		BTA 5:65268314-66966194
	BTA 19:2473530-3913240		BTA 5:109303999-109688098
	BTA 20:3206730-3568975		BTA 6:4876731-5065951
	BTA 22:29533544-30218613		BTA 6:16514162-16839617
	BTA 24:61968531-62570516		BTA 7:680008-814340
			BTA 7:31130800-35059248
			BTA 7:50029472-50809190
			BTA 7:61232987-61396966
			BTA 7:62551178-62782874
			BTA 7:100845937-102014448
			BTA 8:23344221-23663852
			BTA 8:45755851-46530833
			BTA 8:60315332-60591587

		BTA 8:65373897-65634601
		BTA 9:69198185-69406467
		BTA 9:72738853-74253900
		BTA 9:75053662-76853587
		BTA 9:88390838-88469911
		BTA 9:94121197-94242831
		BTA 10:25708993-25852549
		BTA 10:76573284-77211431
		BTA 10:80515703-80796559
		BTA 11:6784799-6924499
		BTA 11:37968468-39743107
		BTA 11:61868285-62784490
		BTA 11:71387248-72221099
		BTA 11:94562083-95050103
		BTA 12:21086969-21306618
		BTA 12:24813715-26180618
		BTA 12:28949354-29572256
		BTA 12:35689908-36746504
		BTA 12:90591899-90828989
		BTA 13:18130223-18421481
		BTA 13:31639422-32688842
		BTA 13:39579929-41363364
		BTA 13:47532424-49197290
		BTA 13:50490155-50837529
		BTA 13:51339718-51522874
		BTA 13:58270096-58599491
		BTA 14:27987402-28430215
		BTA 15:44843650-45012875
		BTA 15:48555721-48841386
		BTA 15:52859008-52964463
		BTA 15:63854687-64454641
		BTA 16:25241257-25540339
		BTA 16:26807748-27160301
		BTA 16:46869577-47614377
		BTA 16:50138923-50762363
		BTA 19:1831783-3880072
		BTA 19:9515063-9780078

		BTA 19:26704580-27154113
		BTA 19:39330233-40808559
		BTA 19:44438549-47446995
		BTA 19:50168911-50624183
		BTA 20:3206730-4121521
		BTA 20:39393926-39537515
		BTA 21:33590777-33696403
		BTA 21:60026698-60449172
		BTA 21:64366520-64391303
		BTA 21:70668775-71102609
		BTA 22:29533544-30366810
		BTA 22:31696964-32034690
		BTA 22:45231901-46400273
		BTA 23:8124702-8664162
		BTA 24:61972128-62573437
		BTA 26:39451175-39523027

Table S3.7: Candidate regions from each genome-wide SNP analysis (iHS, Rsb, ΔAF and meta-SS) performed on zebu cattle populations from Nigeria with the combined reference populations (Holstein-Friesian, Jersey, N'Dama, Muturu, Nellore and Gir).

iHS	Rsb	ΔAF	meta-SS
BTA 5:47241942-48399194	BTA 2:572692-997590	BTA 5:47143913-49209163	BTA 1:33254585-33443559
BTA 5:48930543-49018256	BTA 2:70314631-71209253	BTA 7:51259460-53502939	BTA 1:36856368-37557262
BTA 5:76084996-76200813	BTA 5:27274794-27335812	BTA 7:54290110-55300310	BTA 1:43720640-43985755
BTA 6:4964608-5090033	BTA 5:47112945-49253605	BTA 12:29227227-29572256	BTA 1:70234565-70425655
	BTA 5:56716286-57930050		BTA 1:147319412-147434939
	BTA 5:58516607-58841085		BTA 1:149547998-150039543
	BTA 5:60374628-60444745		BTA 1:150701102-151399165
	BTA 5:62045272-62379266		BTA 2:307743-1038299
	BTA 7:773076-814340		BTA 2:70296102-71292148
	BTA 7:54054385-54422398		BTA 3:14111392-14659428
	BTA 11:18685487-18979192		BTA 3:75903912-76413468
	BTA 12:27816136-29615976		BTA 3:84683280-85159851
	BTA 13:57490777-57902524		BTA 3:98750825-99483458
	BTA 15:46020475-46333987		BTA 3:101308813-102471446
	BTA 18:13404310-13925544		BTA 4:49962548-50223466
	BTA 18:15396378-15517277		BTA 4:53809476-54112087
	BTA 19:2506362-2748282		BTA 4:55085910-57531310
	BTA 19:51832293-51964299		BTA 4:63669888-63915653
	BTA 20:11164837-11338515		BTA 4:66698519-67082312
	BTA 22:44480638-44553450		BTA 5:15612090-16031807
	BTA 24:43936586-44060913		BTA 5:17855007-18400249
	BTA 26:45869170-45878388		BTA 5:19585877-20210838
			BTA 5:43230619-44574214
			BTA 5:46938597-49993761
			BTA 5:56006965-57930050
			BTA 5:58604207-58874619
			BTA 5:60250896-60610616
			BTA 5:62146394-63255485
			BTA 5:71095194-71137918
			BTA 5:72195598-72290257
			BTA 5:77640688-78095336
			BTA 5:120826563-121179132
			BTA 6:4782814-4876731
			BTA 6:36964005-37577335
			BTA 6:48105787-49139974
			BTA 6:78353035-78490912

		BTA 6:79803715-81241492
		BTA 6:83529875-84200299
		BTA 6:95134468-95192633
		BTA 7:680008-814340
		BTA 7:20376230-20479996
		BTA 7:32640500-33093884
		BTA 7:50029472-50670070
		BTA 7:51252285-52178639
		BTA 7:52865974-54497796
		BTA 7:56112647-56311087
		BTA 7:62415406-62941787
		BTA 8:21615512-21733252
		BTA 8:45755851-46131855
		BTA 8:53262721-53965241
		BTA 8:54724271-55231867
		BTA 8:58080010-58601842
		BTA 8:60004919-60608370
		BTA 8:96337832-96616451
		BTA 10:20524518-20813721
		BTA 10:26735446-27036997
		BTA 10:57626493-57815351
		BTA 10:93813158-93886902
		BTA 10:101246708-101611132
		BTA 10:103171282-103846097
		BTA 11:18497556-19272280
		BTA 11:47991402-49439232
		BTA 11:62343547-62919865
		BTA 12:27998214-29572256
		BTA 12:89754107-91041467
		BTA 13:18132557-18320265
		BTA 13:55428804-55616661
		BTA 13:56893876-58090472
		BTA 14:13392060-14313552
		BTA 14:30997027-31287089
		BTA 14:49149502-49374173
		BTA 15:41920165-42568640
		BTA 15:63026020-63383174
		BTA 16:25389029-25889912
		BTA 16:50138923-50936489
		BTA 18:13878200-14454853

			BTA 19:2555043-2765065
			BTA 19:27004483-27435200
			BTA 19:34613439-35140272
			BTA 19:44788419-44924467
			BTA 19:46580102-46673984
			BTA 20:3435820-3704975
			BTA 20:9913289-11170115
			BTA 20:12988915-13274192
			BTA 20:70125037-71797830
			BTA 21:33590777-33696403
			BTA 21:42271864-42565638
			BTA 21:67360105-67771364
			BTA 21:68524346-69408187
			BTA 21:70885995-71196532
			BTA 22:43706894-46126149
			BTA 24:42979783-44160038
			BTA 24:53024005-53605996
			BTA 24:61259888-62530799
			BTA 25:42193923-42561781
			BTA 26:21612594-22894146
			BTA 26:45869170-45929906

Table S3.8: the genome coordinates (UMD3.1) of the overlapping genome-wide SNP candidate regions of EASZ and zebu cattle populations from Nigeria.

BTA	start	stop
1	150,701,102	151,399,165
3	84,969,287	85,118,197
4	63,669,888	63,815,686
4	66,698,519	67,082,312
5	56,651,062	57,515,653
5	58,604,207	58,841,085
7	52,865,974	53,001,042
8	54,926,810	55,060,853
10	103,294,561	103,846,097
13	55,428,804	55,542,599
15	42,536,074	42,568,640
18	13,878,200	14,050,131
22	43,706,894	44,541,377
25	42,193,923	42,283,544

Table S3.9: Gene desert candidate regions identified by EASZ genome-wide SNP analyses and Hp analysis.

Genome-wide SNP analyses	Hp analysis
BTA 1:54,859,494-55,507,566	BTA 1:11,070,001-11,251,624
BTA 3:76,084,701-76,781,970	BTA 1:54,880,001-55,141,728
BTA 9:87,580,569-87,599,592	BTA 1:55,150,001-55,253,859
BTA 13:50,616,630-50,837,529	BTA 2:70,570,001-70,811,366
BTA 19:2,568,979-2,765,065	BTA 5:78,060,001-78,184,292
BTA 21:60,026,698-60,449,172	BTA 5:89,980,001-90,101,800
BTA 13:48,796,718-48,911,554	BTA 5:90,160,001-90,264,128
	BTA 6:51,030,001-51,137,831
	BTA 6:52,270,001-52,381,282
	BTA 6:52,810,001-53,302,557
	BTA 6:53,400,001-53,537,934
	BTA 9:57,340,001-57,441,269
	BTA 9:71,980,001-72,171,785
	BTA 9:72,890,001-72,991,383
	BTA 9:90,910,001-91,013,212
	BTA 11:39,240,001-39,530,799
	BTA 11:39,550,001-39,683,044
	BTA 12:70,760,001-71,243,560
	BTA 12:74,990,001-75,109,791
	BTA 12:82,290,001-82,473,041
	BTA 13:49,590,001-49,844,283
	BTA 13:82,010,001-82,111,606
	BTA 14:46,100,001-46,252,557
	BTA 16:38,780,001-38,881,005
	BTA 16:41,730,001-41,885,996
	BTA 17:63,070,001-63,185,472
	BTA 18:37,400,001-37,541,995
	BTA 20:49,370,001-49,599,936
	BTA 21:40,100,001-40,201,502
	BTA 23:18,980,001-19,091,451
	BTA 24:4,660,001-4,771,543
	BTA 29:34,280,001-34,380,825

Table S3.10: Genes within genome-wide SNP candidate regions: EASZ, East African zebu-sharing candidate regions, East and West African zebu-sharing candidate regions and EASZ-Nigerian zebu-sharing candidate regions.

The file is an electronic version

Table S3.11: Functional term clusters of the genes within the different types of candidate regions identified.

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Table S3.12: The coordinates of the autosomal 100 kb candidate sweep windows, number of uncovered bases within window, number of SNPs within window, window's Hp and ZHp values.

The file is an electronic version

Table S3.13: Genome coordinates (UMD3.1), size and mean ZHp value of candidate sweep regions in EASZ autosomes identified by the Hp analysis.

BTA	start	stop	Other studies*	size (bp)	mean ZHp
1	11,070,001	11,251,624		181,623	-4.21
1	14,910,001	15,065,189		155,188	-4.54
1	42,100,001	42,221,164		121,163	-4.20
1	42,520,001	42,621,530		101,529	-4.10
1	50,440,001	50,622,427		182,426	-5.81
1	54,880,001	55,141,728		261,727	-6.56
1	55,150,001	55,253,859		103,858	-4.12
1	56,220,001	56,392,319		172,318	-4.53
1	66,910,001	67,064,443		154,442	-4.58
1	67,310,001	67,710,526		400,525	-6.98
1	71,180,001	71,283,103		103,102	-4.11
1	80,510,001	80,660,409		150,408	-4.37
1	127,270,001	127,400,871		130,870	-4.71
2	70,570,001	70,811,366	Liao et al., 2013; Kemper et al., 2014; Gautier et al., 2009	241,365	-6.68
2	70,990,001	71,191,313	Liao et al., 2013; Kemper et al., 2014; Gautier et al., 2009	201,312	-5.27
2	106,240,001	106,412,107		172,106	-5.22
2	111,340,001	111,461,100		121,099	-4.46
2	125,300,001	125,620,820	Gautier et al., 2009	320,819	-8.12
2	125,640,001	126,083,262	Gautier et al., 2009	443,261	-7.66
3	57,450,001	57,872,320	Kemper et al., 2014	422,319	-7.01
3	65,990,001	66,121,297		131,296	-4.30
4	64,060,001	64,231,634		171,633	-4.91
4	75,050,001	75,152,011		102,010	-4.02
5	24,980,001	25,100,643		120,642	-4.54
5	47,540,001	48,083,606	Liao et al., 2013; Kemper et al., 2014; Xu et al., 2015, Perez O'Brien et al., 2014	543,605	-8.12

5	48,610,001	49,021,113	Liao et al., 2013; Kemper et al., 2014; Xu et al., 2015, Perez O'Brien et al., 2014	411,112	-5.01
5	49,120,001	49,241,076	Liao et al., 2013; Kemper et al., 2014; Perez O'Brien et al., 2014	121,075	-4.47
5	59,510,001	59,637,265	Liao et al., 2013; Kemper et al., 2014; Gautier et al., 2009; Chan et al., 2010	127,264	-4.59
5	60,610,001	60,721,361	Liao et al., 2013; Kemper et al., 2014; Flori et al., 2014; Gautier et al., 2009; Gautier and Navas, 2011; Chan et al, 2010	111,360	-4.33
5	66,500,001	67,010,316	Chan et al., 2010	510,315	-6.20
5	68,800,001	68,992,941		192,940	-5.32
5	78,060,001	78,184,292	Larkin et al., 2012	124,291	-4.43
5	89,610,001	89,721,081		111,080	-4.31
5	89,980,001	90,101,800		121,799	-4.22
5	90,160,001	90,264,128		104,127	-4.02
5	114,370,001	114,544,924	Liao et al., 2013; Perez O'Brien et al., 2014	174,923	-4.97
5	120,800,001	121,199,019	Liao et al., 2013	399,018	-8.21
6	5,470,001	5,842,010		372,009	-4.70
6	5,930,001	6,706,107		776,106	-7.02
6	12,760,001	12,881,667		121,666	-4.27
6	51,030,001	51,137,831		107,830	-4.15
6	52,270,001	52,381,282		111,281	-4.30
6	52,810,001	53,302,557		492,556	-10.34
6	53,400,001	53,537,934		137,933	-6.01
6	60,120,001	60,321,420		201,419	-6.34
6	60,480,001	60,622,934		142,933	-4.30
6	81,600,001	81,925,350	Perez O'Brien et al., 2014	325,349	-5.70
6	94,070,001	94,177,765		107,764	-4.01
6	99,890,001	100,008,555		118,554	-4.17
7	440,001	561,436		121,435	-4.34
7	22,910,001	23,012,434		102,433	-4.02
7	31,740,001	31,897,059	Flori et al., 2014	157,058	-4.54
7	33,100,001	33,293,306		193,305	-4.43
7	44,180,001	44,474,576	Liao et al., 2013; Kemper et al., 2014	294,575	-13.65
7	51,360,001	53,362,761	Liao et al., 2013; Qanbari et al., 2014; Porto Neto et al., 2013; Gautier et al., 2009	2,002,760	-10.79

7	53,720,001	54,521,446	Gautier et al., 2009; Perez O'Brien et al., 2014; Gautier and Navas, 2011	801,445	-6.95
7	54,550,001	54,831,282	Gautier et al., 2009; Gautier and Navas, 2011	281,281	-5.70
7	89,130,001	89,324,444		194,443	-10.42
7	93,190,001	93,311,412		121,411	-4.11
7	93,400,001	93,502,562		102,561	-4.12
8	59,900,001	60,020,644		120,643	-4.15
9	57,340,001	57,441,269		101,268	-4.21
9	57,570,001	57,761,240		191,239	-4.48
9	71,170,001	71,419,135		249,134	-5.98
9	71,980,001	72,171,785		191,784	-6.20
9	72,890,001	72,991,383		101,382	-4.06
9	73,890,001	74,081,863		191,862	-5.45
9	76,600,001	76,876,188		276,187	-6.12
9	90,910,001	91,013,212	Larkin et al., 2012	103,211	-4.55
10	17,100,001	17,251,035		151,034	-4.25
10	59,110,001	59,210,489	Liao et al., 2014	100,488	-4.12
10	76,650,001	76,840,921		190,920	-5.41
11	7,110,001	7,261,196		151,195	-5.24
11	37,550,001	37,720,588	Kemper et al., 2014; Gautier et al., 2009	170,587	-4.57
11	39,240,001	39,530,799	Kemper et al., 2014; Gautier et al., 2009	290,798	-5.93
11	39,550,001	39,683,044	Kemper et al., 2014; Gautier et al., 2009	133,043	-4.38
11	51,480,001	51,661,703		181,702	-4.30
11	62,810,001	62,971,604		161,603	-4.89
11	64,380,001	64,590,513	Gautier and Navas, 2011; Flori et al., 2014	210,512	-4.69
11	75,230,001	75,441,012		211,011	-6.40
11	107,180,001	107,323,262		143,261	-12.65
12	20,870,001	21,021,506	Gautier et al., 2009	151,505	-5.64
12	21,130,001	21,320,859	Gautier et al., 2009	190,858	-4.63
12	29,110,001	29,438,417	Liao et al., 2013; Porto Neto et al., 2013; Flori et al., 2014; Gautier et al., 2009; Gautier and Navas, 2011	328,416	-5.83
12	70,760,001	71,243,560		483,559	-6.58
12	72,510,001	72,644,371		134,370	-4.40
12	74,730,001	74,973,069		243,068	-7.40
12	74,990,001	75,109,791		119,790	-4.17
12	82,290,001	82,473,041		183,040	-4.69
13	350,001	497,233		147,232	-5.50

13	5,280,001	5,574,912	Liao et al., 2013	294,911	-10.45
13	17,480,001	17,590,581		110,580	-4.37
13	24,480,001	24,623,450	Gautier and Navas, 2011	143,449	-4.71
13	47,980,001	48,164,495		184,494	-4.99
13	48,330,001	48,460,640		130,639	-4.96
13	48,650,001	49,056,444	Porto Neto et al., 2013	406,443	-10.07
13	49,340,001	49,551,378	Porto Neto et al., 2013	211,377	-5.80
13	49,590,001	49,844,283	Porto Neto et al., 2013	254,282	-6.78
13	50,240,001	50,852,056		612,055	-7.32
13	51,310,001	51,521,330		211,329	-4.73
13	51,600,001	51,800,737	Liao et al., 2013	200,736	-6.18
13	52,040,001	52,141,150		101,149	-4.04
13	55,510,001	55,623,671		113,670	-4.48
13	55,710,001	55,833,923		123,922	-4.43
13	57,990,001	58,122,843	Kemper et al., 2014; Flori et al., 2014	132,842	-4.89
13	82,010,001	82,111,606		101,605	-4.06
14	660,001	1,085,829		425,828	-4.43
14	2,190,001	2,405,393		215,392	-6.33
14	41,390,001	41,563,443	Flori et al., 2014	173,442	-5.30
14	46,100,001	46,252,557	Gautier et al., 2009	152,556	-4.51
14	83,120,001	83,233,061		113,060	-4.56
14	83,380,001	83,483,495		103,494	-4.10
15	59,500,001	59,741,560		241,559	-5.22
15	85,090,001	85,272,412		182,411	-5.36
16	33,120,001	33,222,179		102,178	-4.24
16	38,780,001	38,881,005	Kemper et al., 2014; Chan et al., 2010	101,004	-4.92
16	41,730,001	41,885,996	Kemper et al., 2014; Chan et al., 2010	155,995	-4.24
16	44,660,001	44,861,757	Liao et al., 2013; Kemper et al., 2014; Chan et al., 2010	201,756	-7.59
17	35,600,001	35,745,362		145,361	-5.19
17	35,760,001	36,031,948	Liao et al., 2013	271,947	-7.68
17	49,010,001	49,134,618	Perez O'Brien et al., 2014	124,617	-4.12
17	50,750,001	51,039,324		289,323	-7.79
17	51,130,001	51,676,138		546,137	-6.30
17	51,840,001	52,101,083		261,082	-6.02
17	63,070,001	63,185,472		115,471	-4.46
18	23,180,001	23,634,981		454,980	-8.03
18	36,500,001	36,700,717		200,716	-4.64
18	37,010,001	37,390,731		380,730	-4.40
18	37,400,001	37,541,995		141,994	-4.43
18	50,540,001	50,663,542	Gautier et al., 2009	123,541	-4.66
19	9,500,001	9,631,079		131,078	-4.72

19	12,460,001	12,671,997		211,996	-4.80
19	26,890,001	27,154,002	Gautier et al., 2009	264,001	-7.60
19	27,490,001	27,674,039	Gautier et al., 2009; Liao et al., 2013	184,038	-4.46
19	27,970,001	28,092,385	Gautier et al., 2009; Liao et al., 2013	122,384	-4.39
19	39,270,001	39,422,844		152,843	-4.42
19	40,490,001	40,714,976		224,975	-4.60
19	40,960,001	41,450,870		490,869	-5.98
19	42,890,001	43,122,753	Chan et al., 2010	232,752	-6.09
19	43,140,001	43,341,262	Chan et al., 2010	201,261	-6.53
20	2,790,001	2,895,925	Kemper et al., 2014	105,924	-4.02
20	48,720,001	49,031,220		311,219	-5.35
20	49,370,001	49,599,936		229,935	-6.83
21	1,830,001	1,955,744		125,743	-4.31
21	40,100,001	40,201,502		101,501	-4.09
22	2,890,001	3,057,549		167,548	-5.84
22	30,030,001	30,260,687		230,686	-6.05
22	39,720,001	40,077,687	Liao et al., 2013	357,686	-12.27
22	41,820,001	41,970,661	Gautier et al., 2009; Chan et al., 2010	150,660	-5.09
22	45,220,001	45,370,457	Gautier et al., 2009; Chan et al., 2010; Flori et al., 2014	150,456	-4.17
23	350,001	644,988	Perez O'Brien et al., 2014	294,987	-4.55
23	18,520,001	18,691,851		171,850	-4.36
23	18,790,001	18,890,398		100,397	-4.28
23	18,980,001	19,091,451		111,450	-4.12
23	24,460,001	24,580,718		120,717	-4.85
24	4,660,001	4,771,543		111,542	-4.24
25	39,250,001	39,406,618		156,617	-4.10
26	16,070,001	16,291,986		221,985	-5.72
26	21,070,001	21,194,173		124,172	-4.24
26	39,260,001	39,481,524		221,523	-4.35
27	26,310,001	26,453,084		143,083	-4.85
29	90,001	300,385		210,384	-5.95
29	17,780,001	17,880,857		100,856	-4.06
29	34,280,001	34,380,825		100,824	-4.07
29	45,320,001	45,462,334		142,333	-4.69

*The candidate sweep regions were cross-referenced with the ones obtained previously on tropical-adapted cattle and commercial breeds.

Table S3.14: Genes within EASZ candidate Hp sweep regions.

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Table S3.15: Genes within the genome-wide SNP analyses and Hp overlapping candidate regions for EASZ, East African zebu (EASZ and Uganda), and East and West African zebu (EASZ, Uganda and Nigeria).

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Table S3.16: Annotation of variants (SNPs and indels) within the 12 candidate genes mapped on EASZ genome-wide SNP analyses and Hp analysis overlapping candidate regions.

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Table S3.17: Bovine QTL spanning the candidate Hp sweep regions, EASZ genome-wide SNP analyses and Hp analysis overlapping candidate regions, East African zebu-sharing, and East and West African zebu-sharing candidate regions.

The file is an electronic version

Table S3.18: Trypanotolerance QTL spanning the candidate Hp sweep regions.

BTA	start	stop	QTL_ID
7*	38,332,974	59,135,155	PCVF minus PCVM QTL (10516)
7*	38,332,974	59,135,155	Body weight (mean) QTL (10517)
7*	38,332,974	59,135,155	Percentage decrease in body weight up to day 150 after challenge QTL (10518)
7*	38,332,974	59,135,155	Parasites natural logarithm of mean number QTL (10519)
7*	38,332,974	59,135,155	Parasite detection rate QTL (10520)
13*	29,549,346	71,827,292	Percentage decrease in PCV up to day 150 after challenge QTL (10524)
13*	29,549,346	71,827,292	Percentage decrease in PCV up to day 100 after challenge QTL (10525)
13*	29,549,346	71,827,292	Parasite detection rate QTL (10526)
23	12,487,278	18,536,147	Parasite detection rate QTL (10543)
26	10,723,763	25,449,045	Percentage decrease in PCV up to day 150 after challenge QTL (10548)
26	10,723,763	25,449,045	Percentage decrease in PCV up to day 100 after challenge QTL (10549)
26	10,723,763	25,449,045	BWF scaled by BWI QTL (10550)
26	10,723,763	25,449,045	Body weight (mean) QTL (10551)
26	10,723,763	25,449,045	Percentage decrease in body weight up to day 150 after challenge QTL (10552)
27	21,255,822	32,724,672	PCVI minus PCVM QTL (10553)
27	21,255,822	32,724,672	PCV variance QTL (10554)
27	21,255,822	32,724,672	Percentage decrease in PCV up to day 150 after challenge QTL (10555)
27	21,255,822	32,724,672	Percentage decrease in PCV up to day 100 after challenge QTL (10556)
29	1,568,804	25,983,377	BWF scaled by BWI QTL (10559)
29	1,568,804	25,983,377	Parasites natural logarithm of mean number QTL (10560)

*span EASZ genome-wide SNP analyses candidate regions. The BTA 13 QTL also cover candidate region identified in zebu cattle from Uganda

Table S3.19: The median and standard deviation of the average depth of coverage and the normalised depth of coverage (reads/bp) for the ten EASZ autosomal exome sequences.

	EASZ samples									
Average coverage	289	524	915	923	1148	1401	1693	2025	2063	2183
median	40.67	41.67	49.16	47	36.33	48.26	51.1	69.31	39.46	55.09
Standard deviation	56.1	57.6	68.5	63.7	52.37	69.21	71.4	93.99	55	75.47
Normalised coverage	289	524	915	923	1148	1401	1693	2025	2063	2183
median	0.88	0.88	0.87	0.88	0.87	0.89	0.89	0.92	0.9	0.9
Standard deviation	1.21	1.22	1.2	1.2	1.25	1.28	1.25	1.25	1.26	1.24

Table S3.20: Signals of multiple copies (represented as standardised depth of coverage (SDOC)), identified on the ten EASZ exome sequences, within EASZ genome-wide SNP analyses and Hp analysis overlapping candidate regions. SDOC value = 3 set as a threshold.

Exome regions			Genes	Candidate regions	289	524	915	923	1148	1401	1693	2025	2063	2183
BTA	start (BP)	stop (BP)												
9	74,028,868	74,029,044	HBS1L	BTA 9:73890001-74081863	6.671368	5.621976	5.526219	4.779615	5.654543	6.145115	5.494708	5.996021	5.451463	5.873202
5	48,775,936	48,776,118	Man1	BTA 5:48610001-49021113	5.915964	5.431604	5.702516	6.507744	6.209973	5.13598	5.984377	5.168023	5.88899	5.338395
11	39,664,144	39,664,359	_	BTA 11:39550001-39683044	4.738119	4.398525	4.332418	4.623824	4.385016	4.778073	4.405201	4.427803	4.478111	4.531415
5	48,773,871	48,774,151	Man1	BTA 5:48610001-49021113	4.431358	4.212838	4.404367	4.130095	4.585497	4.692389	4.328629	4.763599	4.173041	4.227306
13	48,777,935	48,778,137	_	BTA 13:48650001-49056444	4.17825	3.818036	3.834466	2.756535	4.244678	3.837716	3.851559	3.955284	4.431415	4.257783
13	48,097,307	48,097,529	GPCPD1	BTA 13:47980001-48164495	4.137967	4.306549	4.01193	3.201785	4.338236	3.56217	4.12747	3.862079	3.799471	3.895503
12	29,273,838	29,274,045	RXFP2	BTA 12:29110001-29438417	4.071303	3.868016	4.335337	4.899948	4.359239	4.55252	4.114592	3.723334	4.055665	4.019532
2	125,417,834	125,417,954	TAF12	BTA 2:125300001-125620820	3.958295	4.643736	3.902474	4.228308	3.778988	3.150366	4.005963	5.819505	4.137247	4.415602
22	45,223,999	45,224,176	ERC2	BTA 22:45220001-45370457	3.852952	3.877213	3.907144	4.230661	3.612492	3.893635	4.046559	4.046575	4.123256	3.520635
19	27,050,600	27,050,799	INCA1	BTA 19:26890001-27154002	3.829424	3.388353	3.790683	4.962076	3.728199	2.823669	3.522733	3.950284	3.479866	3.360431
19	41,305,767	41,305,990	TOP2A	BTA 19:40960001-41450870	3.768107	3.665669	3.850665	4.725331	3.75493	3.421001	4.049358	3.797282	3.585796	3.802217
9	74,011,926	74,012,131	HBS1L	BTA 9:73890001-74081863	3.701265	3.743935	3.398538	3.201	3.596072	3.526769	3.55353	3.617361	2.922782	3.263965
2	125,705,828	125,706,057	SESN2	BTA 2:125640001-126083262	3.620877	3.27295	3.328341	3.844087	3.301268	2.393949	3.008847	3.056318	2.701293	3.26211
11	39,635,629	39,635,758	_	BTA 11:39550001-39683044	3.501631	3.787493	2.930796	3.038464	3.160549	3.683977	2.721177	3.521495	3.929203	2.9368
7	33,171,236	33,171,457	_	BTA 7:33100001-33293306	3.499135	3.40241	3.298715	2.541283	3.686193	3.528647	3.178649	3.286459	3.825636	2.947931
7	52,347,974	52,348,181	ECSCR	BTA 7:51360001-53362761	3.443701	2.971686	3.390658	3.947163	3.151766	2.794048	2.854863	3.538625	3.180247	3.08468
13	49,655,060	49,655,283	_	BTA 13:49590001-49844283	3.43158	3.272255	3.253473	2.959078	3.151002	3.472006	3.196147	3.205489	3.477141	3.184989
19	27,083,610	27,083,739	PFN1	BTA 19:26890001-27154002	3.386306	3.370305	2.968303	3.847696	3.221839	2.654902	3.286578	3.847928	2.989465	3.466306
2	126,036,792	126,036,912	RPA2	BTA 2:125640001-126083262	3.385058	2.890643	3.22122	3.995171	3.309096	3.169873	3.17291	3.083556	3.082676	3.431059
7	52,239,216	52,239,336	MATR3	BTA 7:51360001-53362761	3.379354	2.766215	3.005956	4.051337	3.749965	3.620544	3.240103	2.974071	3.322516	3.744178

12	20,891,040	20,891,245	INTS6	BTA 12:20870001-21021506	3.305739	3.778643	3.40423	3.746659	3.230622	3.627914	3.367769	3.846332	3.25438	3.236403
1	55,150,444	55,150,620		BTA 1:55150001-55253859	3.192731	4.169106	2.641686	2.070147	4.32869	4.423777	3.120415	3.162185	2.916423	2.979998
12	20,889,198	20,889,406	INTS6	BTA 12:20870001-21021506	3.151378	2.701311	2.931818	2.548971	2.986225	2.65548	2.750994	3.010353	2.801045	2.478716
5	48,781,810	48,781,936	Man1	BTA 5:48610001-49021113	3.1512	3.753133	3.786597	2.713704	3.956557	3.643952	3.74181	5.083967	4.458124	3.845017
13	48,129,311	48,129,526	GPCPD1	BTA 13:47980001-48164495	3.06279	2.565257	2.738737	2.09164	3.148902	2.569074	3.215465	2.740844	2.690391	3.722844
7	53,252,865	53,253,052	SLC4A9	BTA 7:51360001-53362761	2.977411	2.854373	2.937655	3.27615	2.55643	2.473853	2.761213	2.968325	2.842109	3.086005
13	48,093,369	48,093,600	GPCPD1	BTA 13:47980001-48164495	2.957804	3.110517	3.076446	2.43507	3.339837	2.738419	3.308976	3.221875	3.069775	2.742144
13	48,107,101	48,107,276	GPCPD1	BTA 13:47980001-48164495	2.935167	2.589379	2.675836	1.836539	2.707842	2.627449	2.998488	2.768188	2.607901	2.653495
7	52,449,674	52,449,803	UBE2D2	BTA 7:51360001-53362761	2.537858	3.358852	3.187653	3.242262	3.595117	3.460447	3.308556	2.974709	3.67083	2.868425
11	39,477,126	39,477,254		BTA 11:39240001-39530799	2.464064	2.724913	2.594109	1.832617	2.140001	2.20004	2.59379	2.649447	3.139365	2.063565
7	33,151,917	33,152,132	SRFBP1	BTA 7:33100001-33293306	2.435545	3.182015	2.942617	2.533596	3.029185	2.78509	3.313315	3.02078	3.532377	2.906058

Chapter Four

Table S4.1: Candidate regions on BTA X of EASZ, African zebu cattle from Uganda and Nigeria defined by the Rsb and iHS analyses, and the sharing candidate regions for East African zebu cattle.

EASZ			Uganda			Nigeria			East African zebu-sharing		
BTA	start	stop	BTA	start	stop	BTA	start	stop	BTA	start	stop
Rsb			Rsb			Rsb					
X	52,724,365	53,286,404	X	64,636,360	64,803,846	X	26,640,020	26,726,577	X	64,636,360	64,803,846
X	57,753,489	57,862,192	X	66,692,636	67,237,062	X*	68,409,400	68,493,120	X	86,752,071	87,096,922
X	58,699,877	59,561,015				X**	100,112,923	100,285,092			
X	64,636,360	64,803,846				X	101,717,122	102,147,368			
X	68,399,979	68,541,416				X	103,073,067	103,499,632			
X	90,841,068	91,235,638									
iHS			iHS			iHS					
X	52,724,365	52,831,886	X	15,898,277	16,419,921						
X	86,750,029	87,174,478	X	26,637,789	26,730,011						
			X	86,752,071	87,096,922						

*Overlap with EASZ candidate region identified by Rsb analysis

** Overlap with EASZ candidate region identified by Hp analyses.

Table S4.2: The coordinates of the BTA X 100 kb windows, number of uncovered bases, number of SNPs within window, Hp and ZHp values.

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Table S4.3: Gene desert BTA X candidate genome regions identified by EASZ Hp analyses.

BTA	Start (bp)	End (bp)
X	27,900,001	28,042,935
X	58,030,001	58,239,841
X	142,500,001	142,633,019
X	144,260,001	144,424,871

Table S4.4: Genes mapped on the EASZ (Rsb, iHS and Hp analyses), East African zebu-sharing, and EASZ-Nigerian zebu cattle-sharing candidate regions.

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Table S4.5: Functional term clusters of the genes mapped within (A) EASZ autosomal and BTA X candidate regions combined (B) EASZ BTA X and autosomal SNPs and Hp analyses overlapping candidate regions.

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Table S4.6: Annotation of variants (SNPs and indels) within the genes in the EASZ BTA X candidate regions.

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Table S4.7: The median and standard deviation of the average depth of coverage and the normalised depth of coverage (reads/bp) for the ten EASZ BTA X exome sequences

	Female					Male				
Average coverage	289	524	915	923	1148	1401	1693	2025	2063	2183
median	50.5	52.5	59.8	54.9	44.45	32.25	32.85	43.63	25.9	35.19
Standard deviation	79	80.4	97	89.1	69.29	51.58	53.57	68.17	38.3	56.35
Normalized coverage	289	524	915	923	1148	1401	1693	2025	2063	2183
median	1.1	1.1	1.1	1	1.1	0.59	0.57	0.58	0.59	0.58
Standard deviation	1.7	1.7	1.7	1.7	1.7	0.95	0.94	0.91	0.87	0.92

Table S4.8: Signals of multiple copies (represented as standardised depth of coverage (SDOC)), identified on the ten EASZ exome sequences, within EASZ BTA X candidate regions. SDOC value = 3 set as a threshold.

Exome regions					Female					Male				
BT	start	stop	Genes	Candidate regions	289	524	915	923	1148	1401	1693	2025	2063	2183
X	89,907,781	89,908,637	uncharacterised gene	BTA X:89,870,001-89,983,990	67.6275	60.2594	67.7323	68.6099	57.9021	32.6209	36.1586	34.3549	27.3356	36.7127
X	97,403,427	97,403,604	FGD1	BTA X:97,300,001-97,720,659	3.4653	3.3669	4.1077	4.1824	3.2495	1.4498	1.3097	1.4163	1.5885	1.3635

Chapter Five

Table S5.1: List of all domestic cattle included in the study and the corresponding references (if downloaded from NCBI database).

Sample ID	Genebank ID	Breed	Source	Reference	Haplogroup	used in selection (ω ratio) analyses
Angus-1	AY676873.1	Angus mix	Scotland	unpublished	unknow	*
Angus-2	AY676872.1	Angus mix	Scotland	unpublished	unknow	*
Angus-3	AY676871.1	Angus mix	Scotland	unpublished	unknow	*
Iranian-1	EU177859.1	Iranian	Iran	Achilli et al., 2008	T2	*
Iranian-2	EU177838.1	Iranian	Iran	Achilli et al., 2008	T3	*
Iranian-3	EU177860.1	Iranian	Iran	Achilli et al., 2008	T2	*
Chianina-1	HQ184030.1	Chianina	Italy	Bonfiglio et al., 2010	Q2	*
Chianina-2	HQ184031.1	Chianina	Italy	Bonfiglio et al., 2010	Q2	*
Chianina-3	HQ184032.1	Chianina	Italy	Bonfiglio et al., 2010	Q2	*
Chianina-4	JN817313	Chianina	Italy	Bonfiglio et al., 2012	T1a	
Chianina-5	JN817316	Chianina	Italy	Bonfiglio et al., 2012	T1a	
Chianina-6	EU177841	Chianina	Italy	Achilli et al., 2008	T1e	*
Chianina-7	EU177816	Chianina	Italy	Achilli et al., 2009	T3	
K.beef-1	DQ124396.1	Beef cattle	Korea	unpublished	T2	*
K.beef-2	DQ124397.1	Beef cattle	Korea	unpublished	T3	*
K.beef-3	DQ124392	Beef cattle	Korea	unpublished	T4	
K.beef-4	DQ124400	Beef cattle	Korea	unpublished	T4	
K.beef-5	DQ124401	Beef cattle	Korea	unpublished	T4	
Holstein-1	DQ124412.1	Holstein-Friesian	England	unpublished	T4	*
Holstein-2	DQ124413.1	Holstein-Friesian	England	unpublished	T3	*

Holstein-3	DQ124406.1	Holstein-Friesian	England	unpublished	T3	*
Holstein-4	DQ124407.1	Holstein-Friesian	England	unpublished	T3	*
Holstein-5	DQ124408.1	Holstein-Friesian	England	unpublished	T3	*
Holstein-6	DQ124409.1	Holstein-Friesian	England	unpublished	T3	*
Japan-1	AB074968.1	Japanese Black	Japan	unpublished	unknow	*
Japan-2	AB074967.1	Japanese Black	Japan	unpublished	unknow	*
Japan-3	AB074966.1	Japanese Black	Japan	unpublished	unknow	*
Korean-1	DQ124386.1	Korean cattle	Korea	unpublished	T3	*
Korean-2	DQ124372.1	Korean cattle	Korea	unpublished	T3	*
Nelore-1	AY126697.1	Nellore	Asia	unpublished	unknow	*
Nelore-2	NC_005971.1	Nellore	Asia	unpublished	I1	*
Romagnola-1	HQ184041.1	Romagnola	Italy	Bonfiglio et al., 2010	R1	*
Romagnola-2	HQ184033.1	Romagnola	Italy	Bonfiglio et al., 2010	Q2	*
Romagnola-3	HQ184034.1	Romagnola	Italy	Bonfiglio et al., 2010	Q1a	*
Romagnola-4	JN817347	Romagnola	Italy	Bonfiglio et al., 2012	T1a	*
EASZ-1 (S352)	not submitted	EASZ	Kenya (Magombe East)	This study	unknow	*
EASZ-2 (R90)	not submitted	EASZ	Kenya (Bukati)	This study	unknow	*
EASZ-3 (S194)	not submitted	EASZ	Kenya (Kokare)	This study	unknow	*
EASZ-4 (S378)	not submitted	EASZ	Kenya (BumalaA)	This study	unknow	*
EASZ-5 (S479)	not submitted	EASZ	Kenya (Simur East)	This study	unknow	*
EASZ-6 (S666)	not submitted	EASZ	Kenya (Luanda)	This study	unknow	*
EASZ-7 (R341)	not submitted	EASZ	Kenya (Kidera)	This study	unknow	*
EASZ-8 (R354)	not submitted	EASZ	Kenya (Namboboto)	This study	unknow	*
EASZ-9 (R364)	not submitted	EASZ	Kenya (Otimong)	This study	unknow	*

EASZ-10 (R944)	not submitted	EASZ	Kenya (Ojwando B)	This study	unknow	*
EASZ-11 (R500)	not submitted	EASZ	Kenya (Bujwanda)	This study	unknow	*
EASZ-12 (S70)	not submitted	EASZ	Kenya (Mabusi)	This study	unknow	*
EASZ-13 (S294)	not submitted	EASZ	Kenya (Kamunuoit)	This study	unknow	*
N'Dama	ERR022967	N'Dama	Gambia	Roslin Institute	unknow	*
Arsi-1	JN817302	Arsi	Ethiopia	Bonfiglio et al., 2012	T1b1	
Arsi-2	JN817304	Arsi	Ethiopia	Bonfiglio et al., 2012	T1d1	
Arsi-3	JN817303	Arsi	Ethiopia	Bonfiglio et al., 2012	T1a	*
Sheko-1	JN817349	Sheko	Ethiopia	Bonfiglio et al., 2012	T1b1	*
Sheko-2	JN817348	Sheko	Ethiopia	Bonfiglio et al., 2012	T1b	
Boran-1	JN817305	Boran	Ethiopia	Bonfiglio et al., 2012	T1b1	
Boran-2	JN817299	Boran	Ethiopia	Bonfiglio et al., 2012	T1d	
Domiaty-1	JN817324	Domiaty	Egypt	Bonfiglio et al., 2012	T1b1	*
Domiaty-2	JN817323	Domiaty	Egypt	Bonfiglio et al., 2012	T1c1	*
Domiaty-3	JN817322	Domiaty	Egypt	Bonfiglio et al., 2012	T1c1a1	
Domiaty-4	JN817321	Domiaty	Egypt	Bonfiglio et al., 2012	T1d1	
Menofi-1	JN817327	Menofi	Egypt	Bonfiglio et al., 2012	T1b	*
Menofi-2	JN817326	Menofi	Egypt	Bonfiglio et al., 2012	T1c	*
Menofi-3	JN817235	Menofi	Egypt	Bonfiglio et al., 2012	T1c	*
Menofi-4	JN817238	Menofi	Egypt	Bonfiglio et al., 2012	T1c	
Menofi-5	JN817329	Menofi	Egypt	Bonfiglio et al., 2012	T1f	
Horro	JN817330	Horro	Ethiopia	Bonfiglio et al., 2012	T1d1	
Abigar	JN817298	Abigar	Ethiopia	Bonfiglio et al., 2012	T1d	*
Podolian	JN817343	Italian_Podolian	Italy	Bonfiglio et al., 2012	T1f	*

Clavana	JN817306	clavana	Italy	Bonfiglio et al., 2012	T1e	*
Valdostana-1	EU177817	Valdostana	Italy	Achilli et al., 2008	T3	
Valdostana-2	EU177862	Valdostana	Italy	Achilli et al., 2008	T5	
Greek-1	EU177849	Greek	Greece	Achilli et al., 2008	T2	
Cabannina-1	EU177850	Cabannina	Italy	Achilli et al., 2008	T2	
Cabannina-2	EU177851	Cabannina	Italy	Achilli et al., 2008	T2	
Piedmontese	EU177863	Piedmontese	Italy	Achilli et al., 2008	T5	
Iraqi	EU177864	Iraqi	Iraq	Achilli et al., 2008	T5	

* Samples used in signatures of selection (ω ratio) analyses.

Table S5.2: Likelihood values and parameter estimates of the different site models implemented in CODEML package for the 13 mtDNA protein-coding genes. (A) taurine and zebu cattle. (B) taurine. (C) African taurine. Sites considered as positively selected using Bayes Empirical Bayes (BEB) approach. * posterior probability > 95%.

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Table S5.3: Branch-site tests for positive selection on the 13 mtDNA protein-coding genes. African taurine cattle set as foreground lineage. Negative $2\Delta L$ values indicate higher log likelihood for the null model. Sites considered as positively selected using Bayes Empirical Bayes (BEB) approach.

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Table S5.4: mtDNA protein-coding gene intra-population nucleotide diversity and inter-population nucleotide divergence for the taurine and zebu cattle used in the selection analyses.

	ND1	ND2	Cox1	Cox2	ATP8	ATP6	Cox3	ND3	ND4L	ND4	ND5	ND6	CYTb	mean
Taurine diversity	0.00108	0.00055	0.00088	0.00123	0.00183	0.0014	0.00097	0.00044	0.00039	0.0019	0.00155	0.00139	0.00167	0.0011754
European-Asian taurine	0.00131	0.00045	0.00126	0.00089	0.00224	0.00184	0.0012	0.00087	0.00034	0.0016	0.00182	0.0017	0.00182	0.0013338
European-African taurine	0.00134	0.00058	0.00081	0.00156	0.00222	0.00166	0.00092	0.00029	0.00049	0.00139	0.00193	0.00167	0.00196	0.0012938
African- Asian taurine	0.00045	0.00048	0.00085	0.0012	0.00097	0.00071	0.00098	0.00058	0.00015	0.00067	0.00064	0.00072	0.001	0.0007231
mean taurine divergence	0.001033	0.000503	0.000973	0.001217	0.00181	0.001403	0.001033	0.00058	0.000327	0.00122	0.001463	0.001363	0.001593	0.0011169
taurine-zebu	0.01927	0.00987	0.01053	0.00792	0.03042	0.01209	0.01188	0.02323	0.01353	0.01123	0.02031	0.01734	0.01623	0.0156808
zebu diversity	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0

Table S5.5: Annotation of variants (SNPs and indels) within the mitochondrial-related nuclear genes mapped on the specified candidate sweep regions in chapter 3 and 4.

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Supplementary Figures

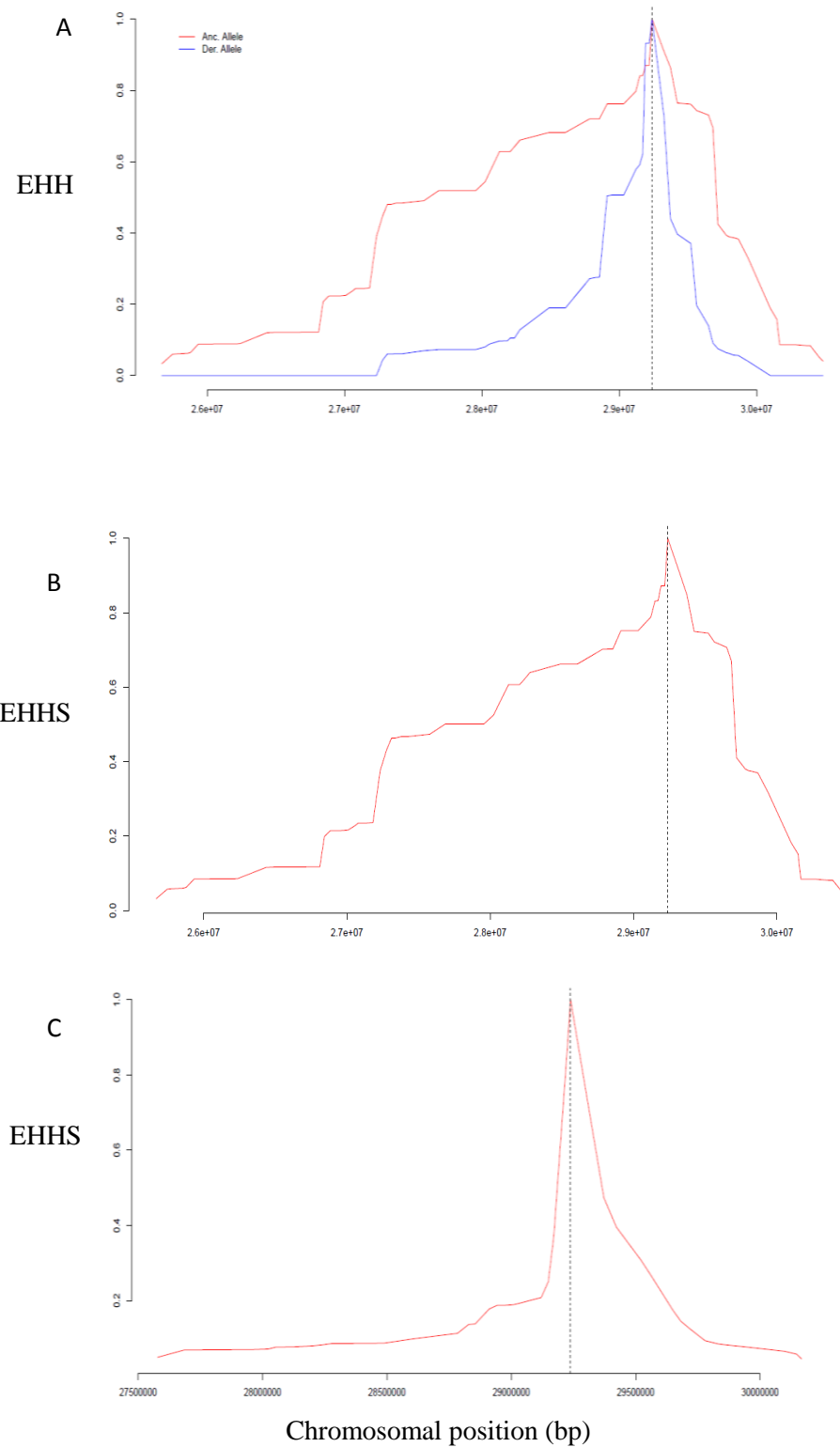


Figure S2.1: Example of an EHH decay plot with calculation for the ancestral allele in red and for the derived allele in blue; and example of an EHHS decay plot in EASZ (B) and in the combined reference populations (C). Both calculated for a selected core SNP “Hapmap23766.BTA.152495” on chromosome 12 at chromosome position 29,217,254 bp (indicated by the dashed line). In both plots, EHH and EHHS are calculated until they decay below the arbitrary value of 0.05.

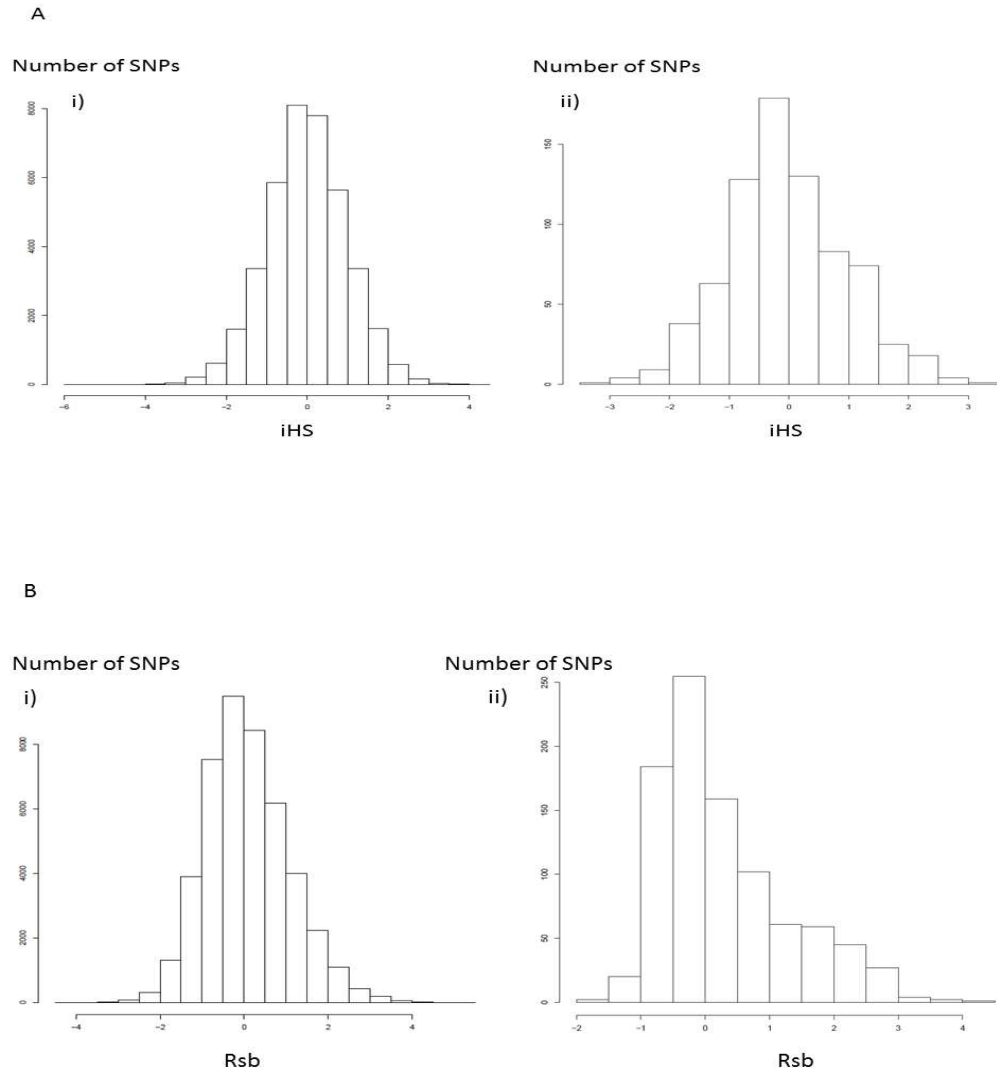


Figure S2.2: Histogram plots for the genome-wide (i) autosomal and (ii) BTA X (A) *iHS* values in EASZ, and (B) *Rsb* values between EASZ and the combined reference populations (Holstein-Friesian, Jersey, N'Dama and Nellore).

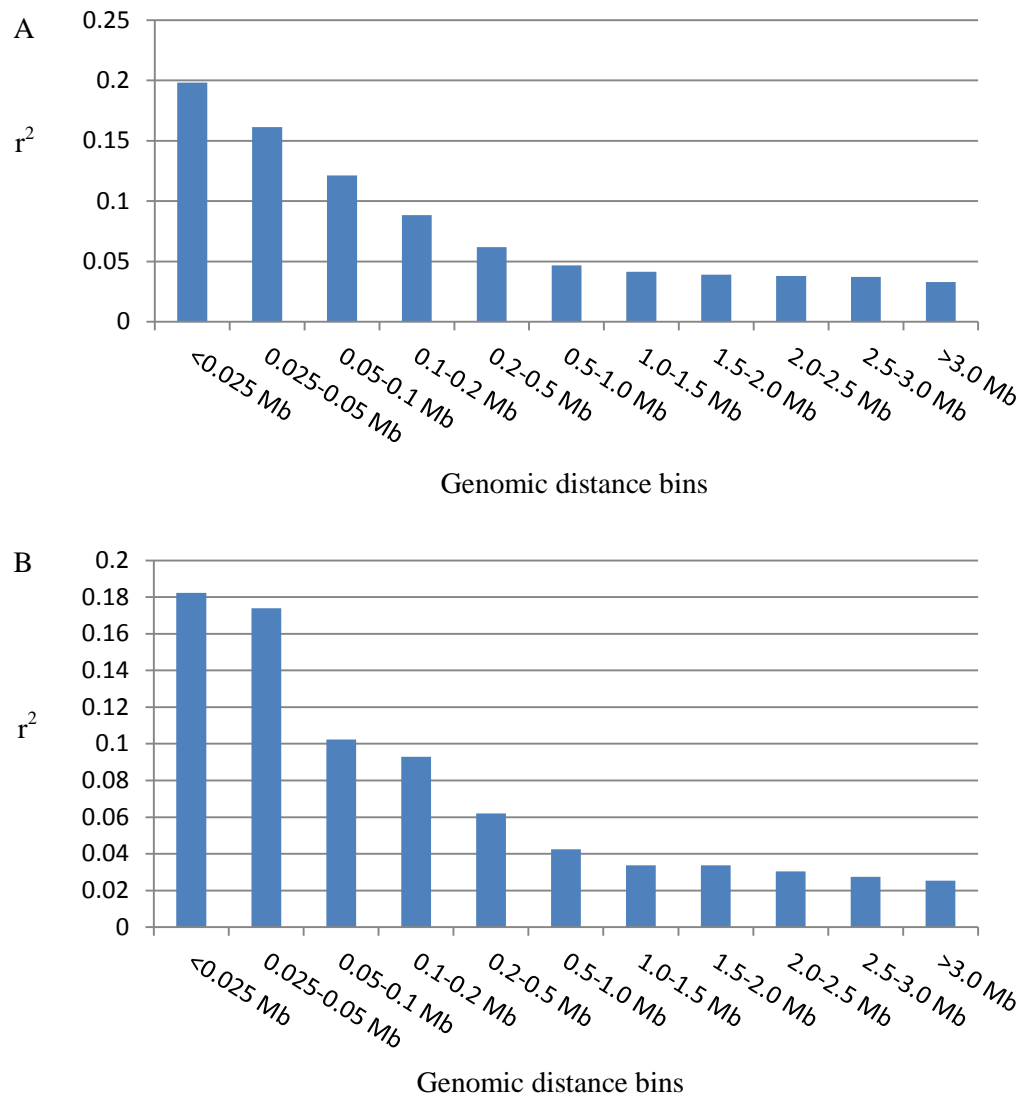


Figure S2.3: Mean r^2 values over increasing distances across (A) EASZ autosomes and (B) EASZ BTA X. In (A) values averaged across all the autosomes for each bin size.

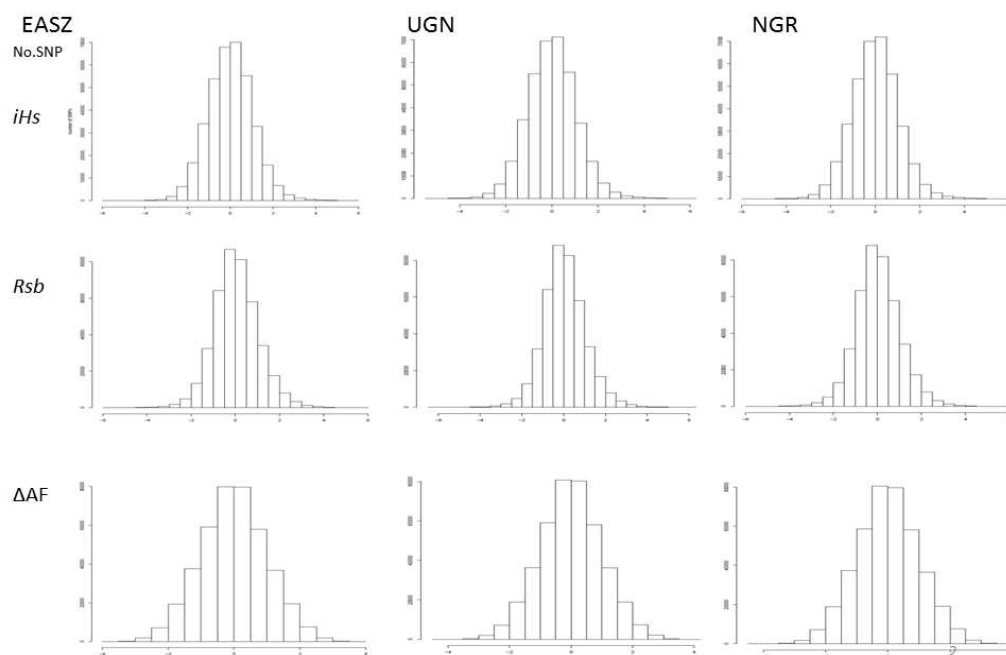


Figure S3.1: Histogram plots of Rsb , iHs and ΔAF standardized values performed on the autosomal SNPs indicating normal distribution. EASZ: East African shorthorn zebu. UGN: zebu cattle from Uganda. NGR: zebu cattle from Nigeria.

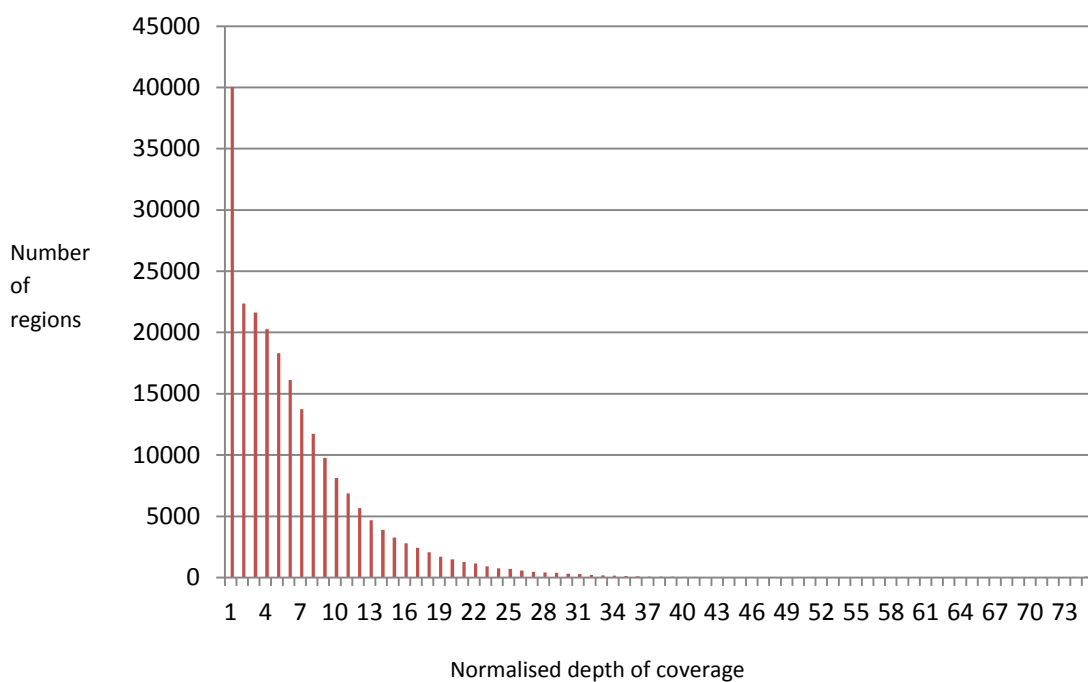


Figure S3.2: Distribution of the normalized depth of coverage values for the captured target exome regions. This distribution is for sample 289 which resembles the distribution obtained in the other samples.

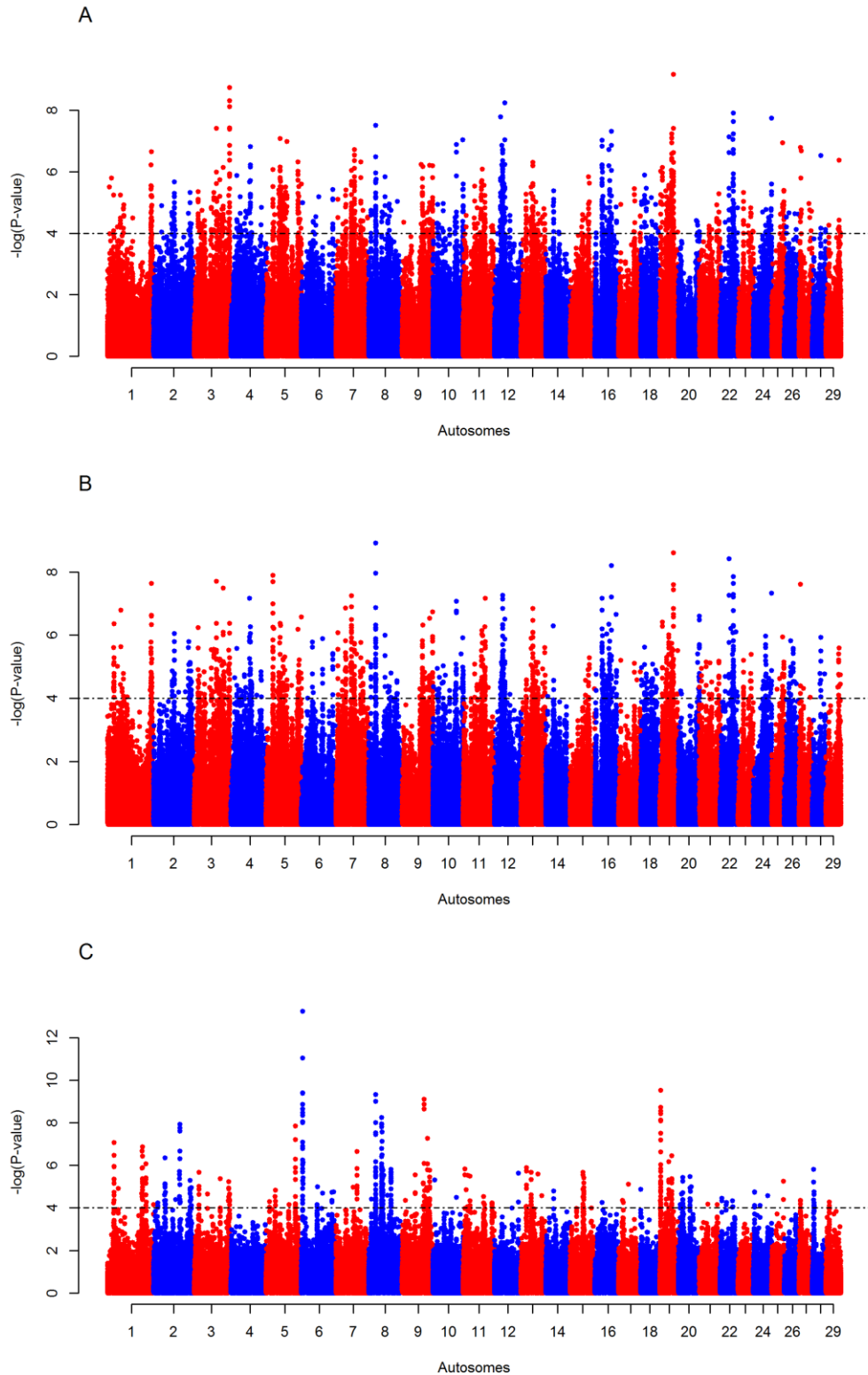


Figure S3.3: Manhattan plots of the genome-wide autosomal meta-SS analyses between EASZ and (A) European taurine (Holstein-Friesian and Jersey), (B) African taurine (N'Dama and Muturu) and (C) Asian zebu (Nellore and Gir). Threshold set as $-\log_{10} P\text{-value} = 4$.

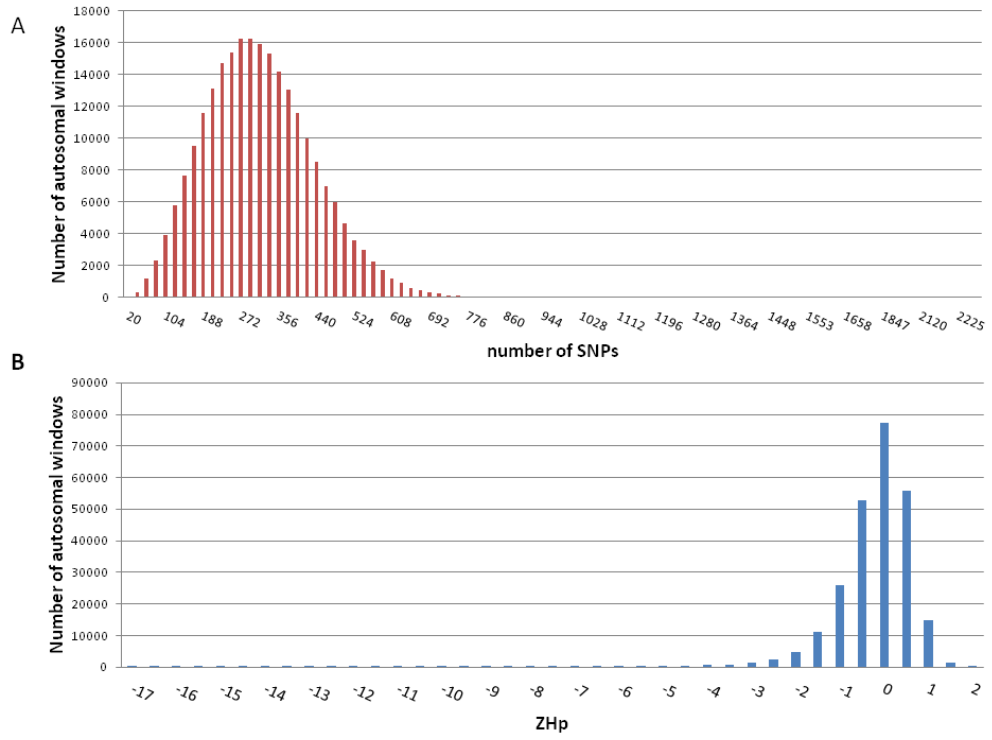


Figure S3.4: Distribution of the (A) SNPs and (B) ZHp values in the 100 kb autosomal windows on EASZ.

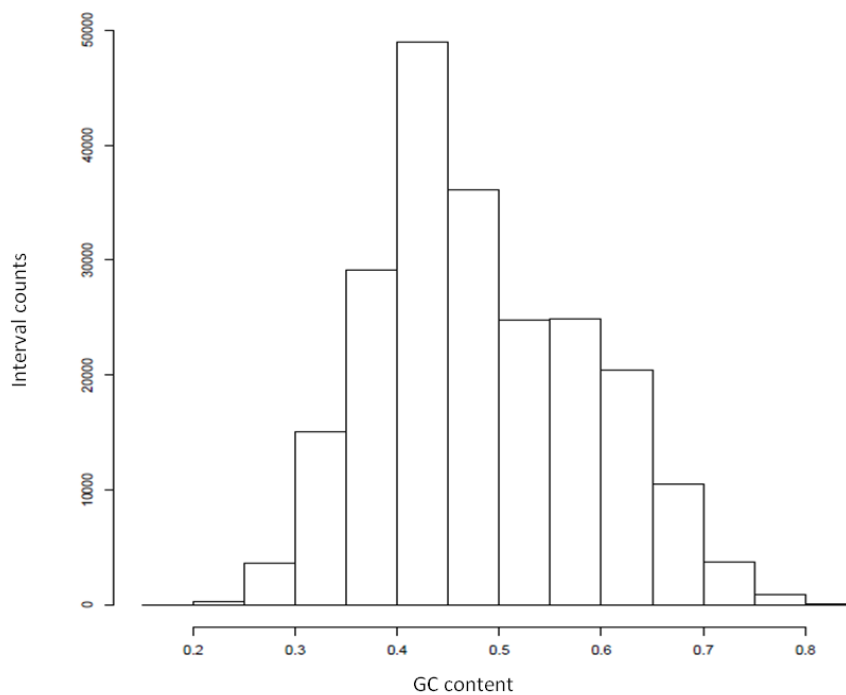


Figure S3.5: GC content histogram plot of the captured autosomal exome by Agilent SureSelect XT target enrichment system.

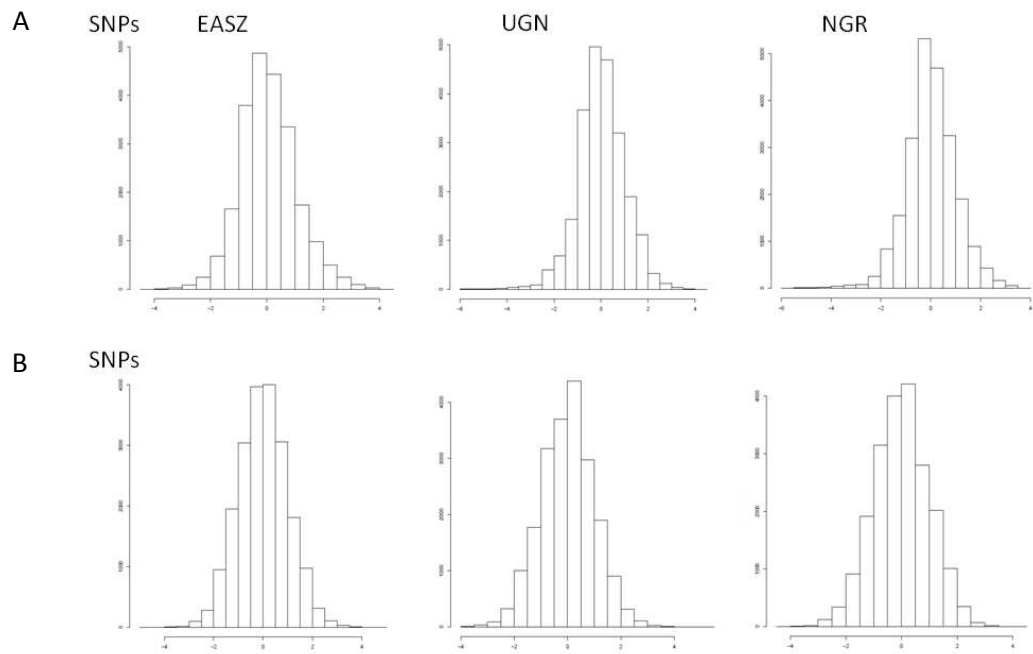


Figure S4.1: Histogram plots of (A) Rsb and (B) iHS standardized values performed on the BTA X SNPs indicating normal distribution.

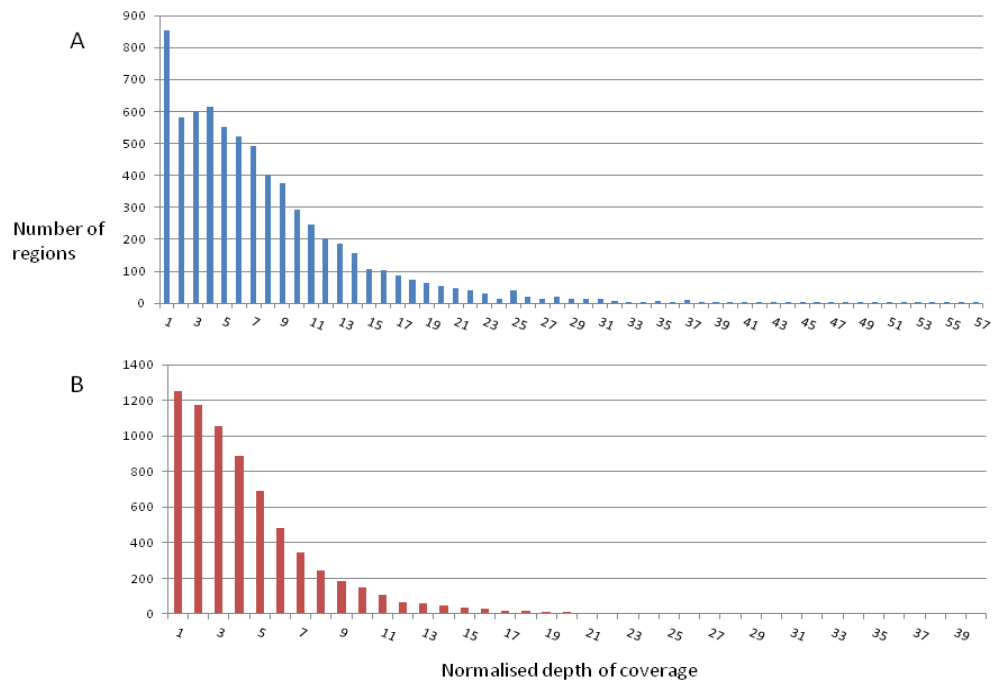


Figure S4.2: Distribution of the normalised depth of coverage values for the captured target exome on BTA X. (A) Sample 289 (female). (B) Sample 2063 (male).

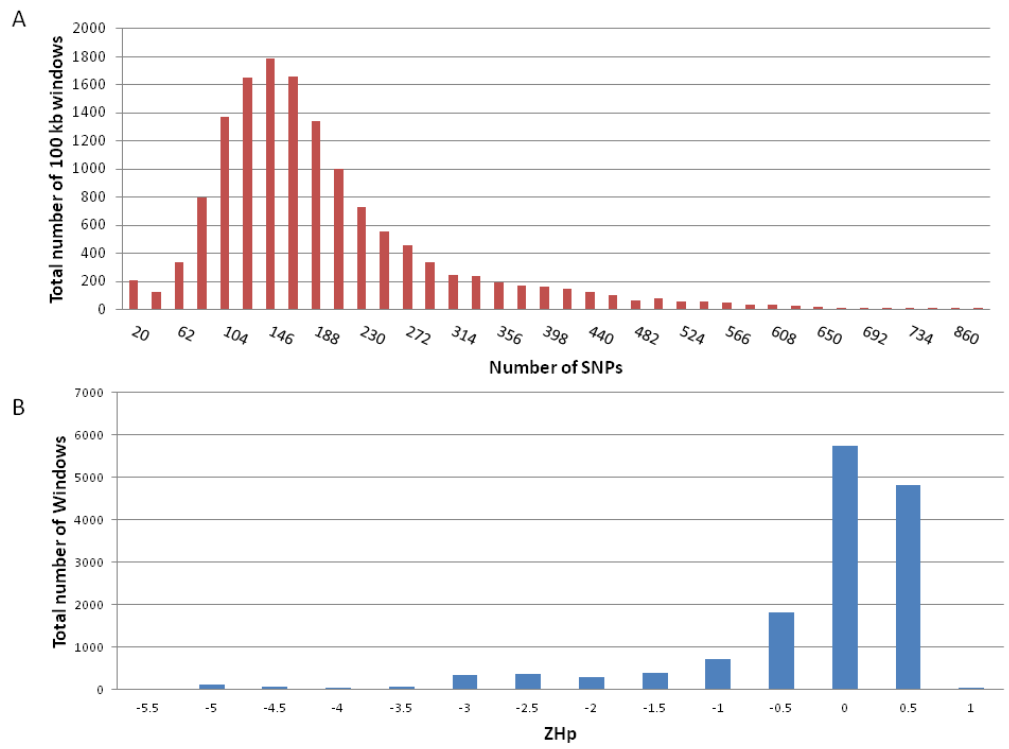


Figure S4.3: Distribution of the (A) SNPs and (B) ZHp values in the 100 kb BTA X windows on EASZ.

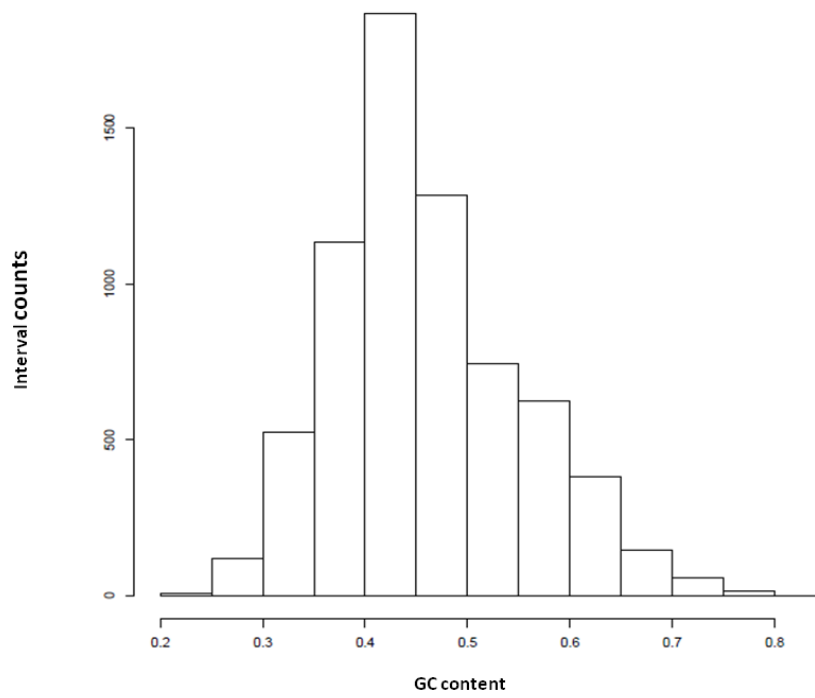


Figure S4.4: : The GC content histogram plot of the captured BTA X exome regions by the Agilent SureSelect XT target enrichment system.

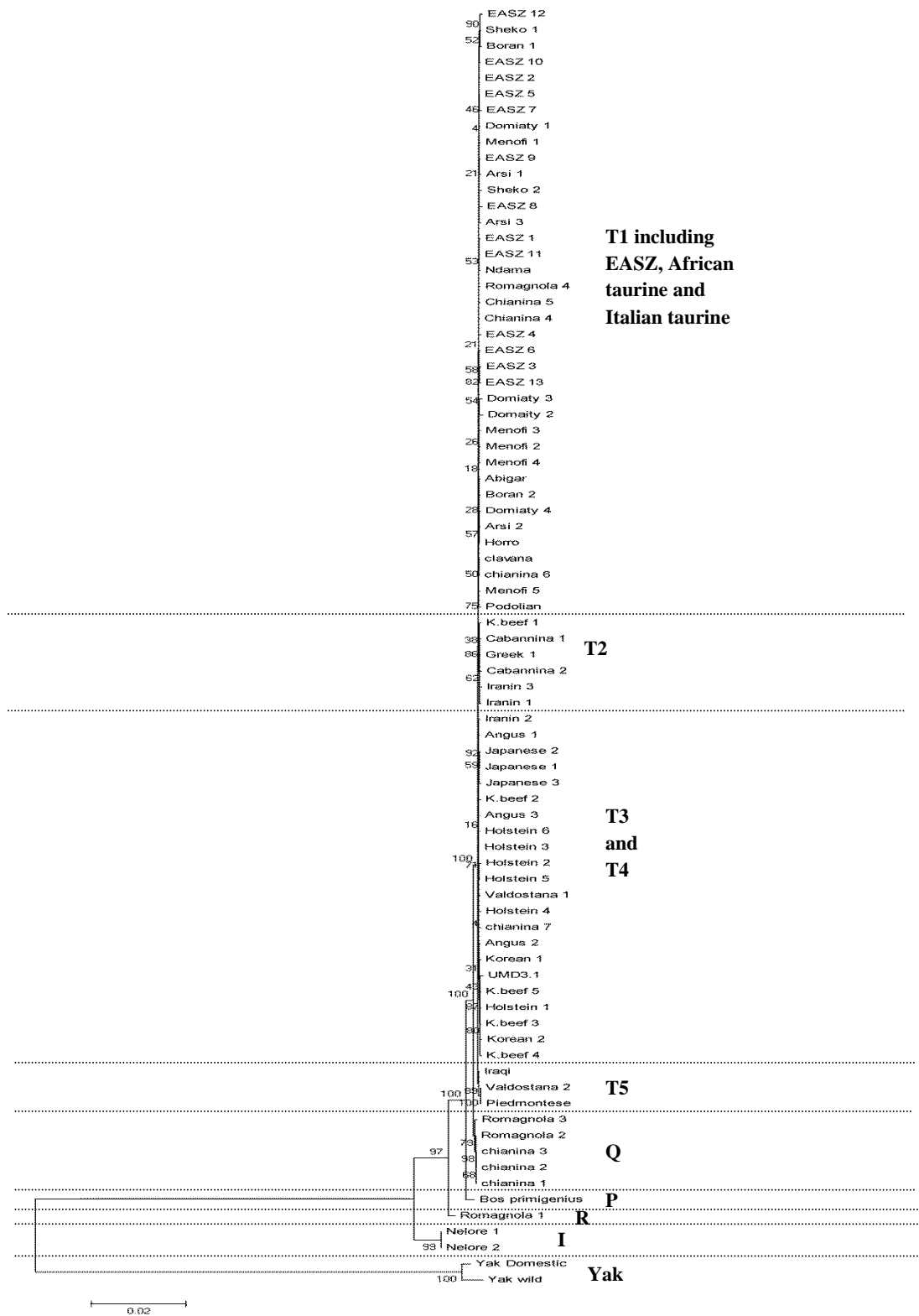


Figure S5.1: Rooted neighbour-joining (NJ) tree of all mtDNA included in Chapter 5 with 1000 bootstrap replication. Yak mtDNA was used as outgroup to root the tree. A scale bar (divergence of 0.02) is shown.

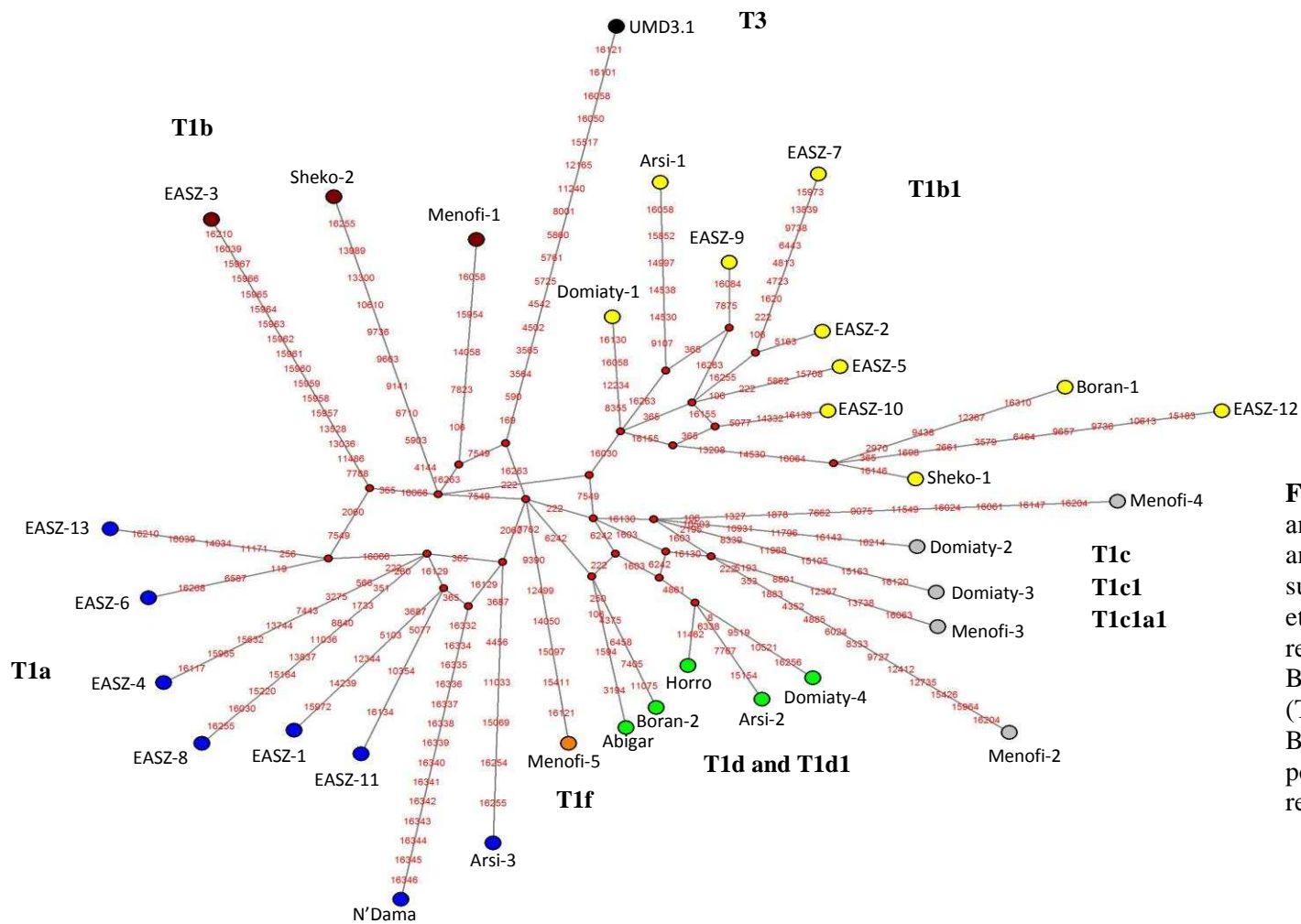


Figure S5.2: Median-joining network analysis including 13 EASZ, 1 N'Dama and 18 African cattle with known mtDNA sub-haplogroup types (refer to Bonfiglio et al., 2012 and Table S5.1). Each node represents one haplotype. Black (T3). Blue (T1a). Green (T1d and T1d1). Grey (T1c, T1c1 and T1c1a1). Yellow (T1b1). Brown (T1b). Orange (T1f). Polymorphic positions correspond to UMD3.1 reference sequence including indels.