

Scotland's Rural College

A practical approach to detect ancestral haplotypes in livestock populations

Sanchez-Molano, E; Tsiokos, D; Chatziplis, D; Jorjani, H; Degano, L; Diaz, C; Rossoni, A; Schwarzenbacher, H; Seefried, F; Varona, L; Vicario, D; Nicolazzi, EL; Banos, G

Published in:
BMC Genetics

DOI:
[10.1186/s12863-016-0405-2](https://doi.org/10.1186/s12863-016-0405-2)

First published: 24/06/2016

Document Version
Publisher's PDF, also known as Version of record

[Link to publication](#)

Citation for pulished version (APA):

Sanchez-Molano, E., Tsiokos, D., Chatziplis, D., Jorjani, H., Degano, L., Diaz, C., Rossoni, A., Schwarzenbacher, H., Seefried, F., Varona, L., Vicario, D., Nicolazzi, EL., & Banos, G. (2016). A practical approach to detect ancestral haplotypes in livestock populations. *BMC Genetics*, 17(91).
<https://doi.org/10.1186/s12863-016-0405-2>

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1 **TITLE**

2 A practical approach to detect ancestral haplotypes in livestock populations

3

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41 **ABSTRACT**

42 **Background:** The effects of different evolutionary forces are expected to lead to the conservation,
43 over many generations, of particular genomic regions (haplotypes) due to the development of
44 linkage disequilibrium (LD). The detection and identification of early (ancestral) haplotypes can be
45 used to clarify the evolutionary dynamics of different populations as well as identify selection
46 signatures and genomic regions of interest to be used both in conservation and breeding programs.
47 The aims of this study were to develop a simple procedure to identify ancestral haplotypes
48 segregating across several generations both within and between populations with genetic links
49 based on whole-genome scanning. This procedure was tested with simulated and then applied to
50 real data from different genotyped populations of Spanish, Fleckvieh, Simmental and Brown-Swiss
51 cattle.

52 **Results:** The identification of ancestral haplotypes has shown coincident patterns of selection across
53 different breeds, allowing the detection of common regions of interest on different bovine
54 chromosomes and mirroring the evolutionary dynamics of the studied populations. These regions,
55 mainly located on chromosomes BTA5, BTA6, BTA7 and BTA21 are related with certain animal traits
56 such as coat colour and milk protein and fat content.

57 **Conclusion:** In agreement with previous studies, the detection of ancestral haplotypes provides
58 useful information for the development and comparison of breeding and conservation programs
59 both through the identification of selection signatures and other regions of interest, and as indicator
60 of the general genetic status of the populations.

61

62 **KEYWORDS:** Ancestral haplotypes, Population dynamics, Selection signatures, Cattle

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68 **BACKGROUND**

69 The availability of whole-genome genotyping platforms such as the Illumina BovineHD chip
70 containing 777,962 Single Nucleotide Polymorphism (SNP) [1] has facilitated genomic selection and
71 prediction methods for genetic improvement of livestock [2], but also provided useful tools to study
72 the evolution and dynamics of genetic variation [3] and to untangle the history of populations [4].
73 These high density SNP arrays provide a dense coverage of the entire genome, thus allowing the
74 precise detection and mapping of regions associated with traits of interest or regions with specific
75 characteristics such as recombination hotspots or runs of homozygosity.

76 In response to population size reduction, selection, drift and/or other evolutionary processes,
77 particular combinations of alleles can be conserved over many generations more often than
78 expected by chance, leading to the development of linkage disequilibrium (LD) blocks. The length of
79 these co-inherited genetic blocks, known as haplotypes, is proportional to the level of LD across the
80 genome, and their study becomes crucial in order to understand the dynamics and characteristics of
81 populations including selection signatures, recombination hotspots and bottlenecks.

82 However, before haplotypes can be detected, raw genotypes have to be analysed in order to
83 determine which one of the pair of chromosomes holds each allele (phase). Different methods have
84 been developed in this respect using genotypes based on single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNP):
85 Expectation-maximization [5, 6], coalescent models [7], Monte Carlo approaches [8], identity by
86 descent (IBD) probabilities [9], and long range phasing and library imputation methods [10, 11].
87 Although in many of these methods the phasing accuracy depends mainly on the sample size,
88 marker density and population structure[12], in other cases only the sample size affects their
89 performance [10].

90 The interest of ancestral segregating haplotypes is multiple: Regional association mapping
91 studies can be performed in order to detect causative variants related to quantitative animal traits
92 of interest [13], thus providing greater power than simple SNP-based genome-wide association

93 analyses when LD is extensive [14-17]. Furthermore, the study of the frequency distribution of
94 ancestral segregating haplotypes provides information about population dynamics such as
95 bottlenecks and adaptation [18]. Ancestral haplotype frequencies are expected to vary due to
96 perturbations in the population, leading to a potential deficit of some haplotypes after moderate
97 bottlenecks [19] and/or to unusual high frequency of specific haplotypes in certain sub-populations
98 due to genetic drift and/or selection. Selective sweeps resulting from recent intensive selection lead
99 to extended LD patterns and long highly frequent haplotypes [20-23], whereas old selection is
100 expected to lead to shorter haplotypes as a consequence of recombination breaking the original
101 blocks over the generations. Moreover, additional genomic characteristics such as recombination
102 hotspots can also be detected [24, 25], as these genomic regions show a higher haplotype variation
103 than expected under neutral theory.

104 In cattle, intense selective breeding over the past decades has led to a severe reduction of the
105 effective population size [26] and, therefore, to an increase in inbreeding. This has led to certain
106 phenotypic uniformity within breeds, but has also proven to be related to negative effects such as an
107 increase in fertility and health problems due to inbreeding depression [27]. This intensive selection
108 has also increased the frequency of favourable alleles for the traits of interest, leading to the
109 establishment of strong but different LD patterns across breeds [28, 29]. Such breeds may have
110 diverged based on their appearance, performance and/or geographical origin, and have been
111 maintained through within-breed selection or with different degrees of admixture in order to further
112 increase their performance. Due to their extended LD, the analysis of the ancestral haplotype
113 diversity is expected to clarify the evolutionary history of these breeds. Ancestral haplotypes may
114 also allow the identification of possible introgressed genomic regions related to conservation and of
115 common regions under selection potentially affecting production or fitness related traits.

116 Therefore, the main objective of this study was to develop a procedure to detect ancestral
117 haplotypes based on whole-genome SNP scanning that are segregating across several generations,
118 both within and between breeds with genetic links. Previous studies have searched for specific

119 ancestral haplotypes as candidate regions associated with particular traits. A genome-wide approach
120 was taken in the present study with no trait or regional restriction applied. The developed algorithm
121 was tested on simulated data and then applied to real data from Fleckvieh, Simmental, Brown Swiss
122 and Spanish cattle breed populations. Examination of real data led to the detection of common
123 selected regions among breeds and demonstrated haplotype diversity patterns concordant with the
124 evolutionary history of the different populations.

125

126 **METHODS**

127 Simulated data: Simulated data was created using a modified version of the simulation software
128 GenoSim [30], to include the possibility to simulate multiple populations with variable selection
129 intensity, but all coming from a common (base) population [31]. A base population of 400 animals
130 (200 males and 200 females) was simulated for 40,000 generations under random mating and equal
131 contributions to achieve the mutation-drift balance, as in the Fisher-Wright population model [32],
132 with expected allelic frequencies of 0.5. In generation 40,000, two breeds, each with 200 animals
133 (100 males and 100 females), were created from this base population sharing 50% of ancestors in
134 the base generation (G_0). In later generations (G_1 - G_{10}), each breed was independently maintained
135 under phenotypic selection, with 30% of males and 80% of females being selected as parents of the
136 next generation [31].

137 Simulated genomes consisted of 30 chromosomes of equal length (1 Morgan) with 52,830
138 evenly distributed SNPs. All polymorphisms had been generated during the 40,000 generations of
139 the Fisher-Wright population model, assuming a mutation rate of 10^{-4} per nucleotide and a number
140 of recombination events per chromosome and generation sampled from a Poisson distribution with
141 mean of 1. Using the formula described by Goddard [33] and based on the number of independent
142 chromosome segments and the effective size, a proportion (30%) of the non-monomorphic SNPs
143 (Minimum Allele Frequency >0.05) was randomly assigned to be a functional gene (QTL).

144 Three different traits with heritabilities $h_1^2=0.1$; $h_2^2=0.25$; $h_3^2=0.8$ and phenotypic variances
145 equal to 1 were simulated, being genetically correlated ($r_{12}=0.5$; $r_{13}=-0.5$). The assumed parameters
146 render the simulated traits representative of a wide range of economically important animal traits.
147 Simulated additive QTL effects for these traits were drawn from a normal distribution $N \sim (0, \alpha^2)$ with
148 α being the average effect of allelic substitution ($\sqrt{Va/2npq}$, where n is the number of loci affecting
149 the trait, Va is the genetic variance of the trait and p and q are the allelic frequencies with starting
150 value of 0.5 [32]).

151 Real data: Three different datasets were studied including, i) seven Spanish beef breeds, ii) two
152 Fleckvieh/Simmental dual purpose cattle populations and iii) five Brown Swiss dual purpose cattle
153 populations. In all cases, animals were genotyped with the Illumina BovineHD chip containing
154 777,962 SNPs [1]. Quality control (Additional file 1) was applied independently to each dataset using
155 PLINK 1.07 [34] in order to assure sample and marker quality. Genomic quality control was applied
156 by considering only autosomic loci with a call rate higher than 0.95. In addition, sample quality
157 control was applied by removing animals with a call rate lower than 0.95. As suggested in other
158 relevant studies [3], alleles with low frequency can provide useful information on diversity, and
159 therefore, no Minor Allele Frequency threshold was applied in the present study.

160 The seven Spanish breeds included Asturiana (as), Avileña (av), Bruna (br), Morucha (mo),
161 Pirenaica (pr), Retinta (re) and Rubia Gallega (rg). Each breed provided 25 trios (sire-dam-offspring.
162 75 animals per breed) genotyped 735,239 SNPs after quality control and some trios removed due to
163 bad DNA quality (Additional file 1). In this case, SNPs with Mendelian errors greater than 0.095 were
164 removed from further analyses. These breeds are autochthonous populations of beef cattle. After
165 domestication, three main bovine groups (Turdetanus trunk, Iberian trunk and Cantabrian trunk)
166 were established in Spain according to geographical preferences and phenotypic characteristics
167 mostly related to coat colour. The Turdetanus trunk, including the Bruna, Pirenaica and Rubia
168 Gallega breeds of the present study, originated in Asia Minor, was introduced to Africa and Europe
169 via Egypt and is currently distributed across Andalusia, Galicia and Pyrenees. The Iberian trunk,

170 including the Morucha and Avileña breeds, was introduced from the north of Europe through Celtic
171 migrations and is mainly distributed in the centre of the Iberian Peninsula. The Cantabrian trunk,
172 including Asturiana, probably descended from the ancient local bovine populations existing before
173 the arrival of the indoeuropean cattle and is mainly distributed in the north of Spain. Retinta has
174 been suggested to be an intermediate breed between the Iberian and the Turdetanus trunks.

175 The Fleckvieh/Simmental dataset consisted of 490 genotyped bulls from Austria, Italy,
176 Germany and Switzerland, of which 473 bulls and 714,759 SNPs remained after quality control. In
177 this dataset, Fleckvieh and Simmental were considered to be two independent populations with
178 their own pedigree structures and including 315 and 158 genotyped bulls, respectively. Simmental
179 cattle is a dual-purpose breed that was originated in western Switzerland as a result from the
180 crossing between German and indigenous Swiss stocktracing back to the Middle Ages. This breed
181 has been gradually exported globally, reaching Italy in the XV century, Eastern Europe and Africa in
182 the XIX century, and the American continent in the XX century. Crossings of Simmental with
183 autochthonous cattle has led to other synthetic breeds. This is the case of Fleckvieh, resulting from
184 the cross of Swiss Simmental cattle with local Bavarian breeds in the XIX century. Fleckvieh, is
185 considered a dual-purpose breeds and may be found in several countries such as Germany, Spain,
186 Belgium, Hungary, Paraguay and Peru.

187 The Brown-Swiss dataset consisted of a total of 417 genotyped bulls from five different
188 countries, of which 412 bulls and 714,759 SNPs remained after quality control. In this dataset, each
189 country was considered as an independent population with its own pedigree structure: Austria (21
190 bulls), Germany (54 bulls), Italy (77 bulls), Switzerland (184 bulls) and USA (77 bulls). The Brown-
191 Swiss breed is one of the oldest breeds, originating in Swiss Alps about 4000 B.C. Records from the
192 Einsiedeln Monastery (Schwyz canton in Switzerland) indicate that Brown-Swiss breeding was
193 already performed in the XIV century, being extended to Germany and other areas of the Alps. In the
194 late XIX century, a few animals from this breed were exported to USA from the Schwyz canton, with
195 subsequent exportations being performed and with the first cow and bull being recorded in the

196 American herd book in 1880. In 1906, Brown-Swiss was declared a breed in USA and started to be
197 heavily selected for milk production and other dairy characteristics, while in Switzerland little
198 selection was done at the time, with no herd books being maintained until 1911. In the 1960s, the
199 improved genetics of the American Brown-Swiss were exported back into Europe and crossed with
200 the existing herds of European Brown-Swiss, leading to the establishment of upgraded Brown-Swiss
201 populations in Germany, Italy and Austria.

202 Genotype phasing and cluster definition: After quality control, genotypes were phased within each
203 dataset (simulated and real). Genotype phasing and cluster definition were performed using
204 AlphaPhase 1.1 [35], a software based on the Extended Long Range Phasing and haplotype Library
205 Imputation methods [11, 36]. Genotypes were partitioned in clusters, using cores (haplotypes) of
206 100 SNPs with additional tails of 100 SNPs to each side of the core in order to properly define
207 surrogates (i.e. relatives that share a region IBD with the animal and can be considered parents
208 when carrying parental haplotypes of the animal [11]). These cores were not allowed to overlap and
209 general parameters were set up as recommended [35], with the requirement that 10 surrogates
210 should be considered before declaring a phase. A maximum of 10% of surrogate conflict and 1% SNP
211 errors (including both inconsistencies and missing SNP) were allowed per core.

212 Analysis within population: Based on the phased genotypes, haplotypes of the base generation (*GO*
213 in the simulated data or the oldest generation with genotypes in the real data) were identified in
214 every cluster and considered to be ancestral, estimating their frequency. In subsequent generations,
215 the frequency of ancestral haplotypes and their similarity matrix (based on their SNP genotypes) was
216 computed in every cluster. Ancestral haplotype frequencies and similarities were then averaged
217 across all clusters, thus providing the average frequency of ancestral haplotypes and the average
218 similarity between ancestral haplotypes across the entire genome. The latter is also an estimate of
219 the molecular co-ancestry.

220 Analysis among populations: In order to investigate the evolutionary history of Fleckvieh/Simmental
221 and Brown-Swiss (Spanish breeds were not considered given the lack of pedigree depth), the

222 ancestral haplotypes identified in every cluster within a given population were also traced in the
223 other populations of the same dataset to estimate the percentage of haplotypes shared between
224 populations.

225 Observed trends for co-ancestry and proportion of segregating ancestral haplotypes through
226 generations were analysed using simple linear regression on number of generations.

227

228 RESULTS

229 Simulated data: A total of 528 clusters were obtained during phasing and analysed. The two
230 simulated breeds presented similar haplotype variability (i.e. number of haplotypes per cluster
231 across all generations) with averages of 344.35 and 342.42 haplotypes observed per cluster
232 respectively. The change of the molecular co-ancestry for ancestral haplotypes through generations
233 (Figure 1) showed an increasing trend concordant with the expected effects of selection and drift.
234 However, the trend magnitude (i.e. regression slope) differed in the two populations ($b_A = 2.20 \times 10^{-4}$
235 and $b_B = 4.12 \times 10^{-5}$), probably due to the random sampling of haplotypes caused by genetic drift.
236 Similarly, the proportion of ancestral haplotypes persisting across generations (Figure 2) is
237 concordant with the expected decrease due to genetic drift, and was of similar magnitude in the two
238 populations ($b = -6\%$).

239 -Figure 1-

240 -Figure 2-

241 Real data -Pedigree: Table 1 describes the quality and depth of all pedigrees used in the analyses of
242 real data. At least 6 complete generations were used in each case except for the Spanish breeds,
243 where only one complete generation was available.

244 -Table 1-

245 Real data - Spanish breeds: In this dataset, a total of 7,352 clusters were analysed. Results are
246 presented in table 2.

247 -Table 2-

248 The general haplotype variability (average number of different haplotypes per core across all
249 generations) observed per breed was similar in all cases (average of 33.17) but slightly lower for
250 Pirenaica (27.5) and greater for Asturiana (41.7). Given that only one generation was available (only
251 parent-offspring), a high proportion of ancestral haplotypes were segregating in the total population
252 (93.72%), and no computation of haplotype similarity across the two generations was performed.

253 Real data - Fleckvieh/Simmental populations: A total of 7,147 clusters were analysed in the breed
254 populations. Although Fleckvieh presented a greater haplotype variability (71.55) than Simmental
255 (44.98), both breeds showed a similar proportion of segregating ancestral haplotypes in the total
256 population (69.90% for Fleckvieh and 74.18% for Simmental).

257 Similarly to the results obtained with simulated data, an increasing trend in the molecular co-
258 ancestry across generations was observed (Figure 3). The trend was much slower in Fleckvieh
259 ($b_A=7.43 \times 10^{-5}$) compared to Simmental ($b_B=4.18 \times 10^{-4}$).

260 -Figure 3-

261 In Fleckvieh, the change in the proportion of ancestral haplotypes persisting in the subsequent
262 generations (Figure 4) followed an initial decrease consistent with the results from the simulated
263 data analysis, which may be attributed to strong genetic drift.

264 An increase in later generations was also observed, which may be a consequence of either the
265 small sample size and/or strong selection leading to an increase in frequency of positively selected
266 haplotypes. Considering only the decrease observed in the first three generations, both breeds
267 showed a similar trend magnitude ($b=-20\%$). However, considering all available generations, the
268 trend diverged between the two breeds, being slower in Simmental ($b_B=-2.86\%$) than in Fleckvieh
269 ($b_A=-6.27\%$).

270 -Figure 4-

271 The analysis of ancestral haplotypes across breeds revealed a 13.57% of the ancestral
272 haplotypes in Simmental also segregating in Fleckvieh across all generations.

273 Real data - Brown-Swiss: A total of 7,147 clusters were analysed in the five populations. The Swiss
274 population had no genotypes available for the first two pedigree generations and, therefore, the
275 base generation for this population was considered to be generation 2 of the pedigree. Similarly, no
276 genotypes were available for generation 1 of the pedigree in the Austrian, Italian and German
277 populations.

278 Table 3 summarises the haplotype variability and the proportion of ancestral haplotypes
279 segregating in each population. Similar values were derived in all populations with the exception of
280 Switzerland, which also presented the highest variability and proportion of ancestral haplotypes, and
281 Austria (lowest variability).

282 -Table 3-

283 The progress of the molecular co-ancestry for ancestral haplotypes across generations is
284 shown in Figure 5, with increasing trends of different magnitude for all countries ($b_A=3.14 \times 10^{-4}$;
285 $b_B=6.05 \times 10^{-4}$; $b_C=5.88 \times 10^{-5}$; $b_D=3.09 \times 10^{-4}$; $b_E=5.69 \times 10^{-4}$).

286 -Figure 5-

287 As was observed in the simulated and the Fleckvieh/Simmental data analyses, the initial
288 change of the proportion of ancestral haplotypes (Figure 6) was consistent with the expected
289 decrease due to strong genetic drift emanating from the finite population sizes. Nevertheless, and
290 also in concordance with the results observed in the Fleckvieh/Simmental analysis, small to modest
291 increases were observed in the later generations in all cases. The trend rates in proportion of
292 ancestral haplotypes segregating were similar in all countries except Switzerland, either considering
293 all generations ($b_A=-9.15\%$; $b_B=-8.75\%$; $b_C=-10.02\%$; $b_D=-9.11\%$) or only the first three generations
294 ($b_A=-40.03\%$; $b_B=-40.41\%$; $b_C=-36.22\%$; $b_D=-37.72\%$). In the Swiss population, trends were much
295 slower ($b_E=-6.36\%$ and $b_F=-32.51\%$).

296 -Figure 6-

297 The analyses of shared ancestral haplotypes among populations revealed a close relationship
298 between the USA and Swiss bulls, with a 33.19% of Swiss ancestral haplotypes segregating in the US

299 population. Lower proportions were shared between the USA population and the other European
300 populations (Italy, Austria and Germany), with an average of $11.58\% \pm 1.98$ of ancestral USA
301 haplotypes segregating in the latter. Finally, although the Italian, Austrian and German populations
302 shared similar proportions of common ancestral haplotypes ($9.33\% \pm 1.76$ on average), only an
303 average of $5.8\% \pm 1.09$ of Swiss ancestral haplotypes were segregating in the other populations, thus
304 indicating a lower relationship between them.

305

306 **DISCUSSION**

307 The present study has developed and applied a simple procedure to detect ancestral haplotypes
308 based on whole-genome SNP genotypes. The procedure was tested in simulated and real datasets
309 aiming to assess the potential for uncovering the evolutionary history of the populations and
310 detecting common selective patterns among them. Simulated data was designed to mirror the
311 evolutionary process of cattle after the establishment of breed standards, thus providing results that
312 would help understand the outcomes of the real data analyses. Although it would have been of
313 interest to track haplotypes even before the separation of the populations, this would require the
314 availability of older genotypes before the population secession and, in real data, these genotypes are
315 not available.

316 Higher haplotype variability was observed in the simulated data than in the real datasets
317 because no selection was applied before generation *G0* in the former. On the contrary, genetic drift
318 and selection were present in the real dataset, especially before the oldest available generation (*G0*)
319 of this study, leading to a reduced variability.

320 Both selection and genetic drift are expected to lead to particular patterns in molecular co-
321 ancestry and frequencies of segregating ancestral haplotypes. In the simulated data, where selection
322 is relatively weak, genetic drift increases the molecular coancestry and reduces the frequencies up
323 to an equilibrium (mutation-drift balance). On the contrary, selection is relatively stronger in the real
324 data, leading to a steadier increase in molecular coancestry due to the combined action of selection

325 and drift. In this case, genetic drift causes an early reduction in the frequencies of ancestral
326 haplotypes but, in later generations, directional selection overcomes the effect of drift. Therefore,
327 the frequencies of positively selected ancestral haplotypes will increase in later generations, leading
328 to slower increases in the average frequency.

329 Another possible cause of the later increase in frequency observed in the real data could be
330 the effect of a smaller sample size in the most recent generations. However, sample size effects are
331 expected to be random and unbiased and, therefore, frequencies of ancestral haplotypes would be
332 equally likely to increase or decrease. On the contrary, all analysed populations in the real data
333 showed consistent increases, thus supporting the hypothesis of directional selection. Additional
334 evidence of this selection can be obtained from the study of the genomic regions where the most
335 common ancestral haplotypes were segregating in Fleckvieh, Simmental and Swiss-Brown
336 (Additional file 2). These ancestral haplotypes are related (closer than 0.3 Mb) to particular regions
337 in chromosomes 5, 6, 7 and 21 under known selection pressure both in Fleckvieh/Simmental and in
338 Brown-Swiss: Haplotypes located on BTA5 (*Bos taurus* Autosome 5) are mainly close to the gene
339 SYT10, which has been related with fitness traits (longevity and maturity) [37] or to the genes PMEL
340 and ERBB3, related to coat colour and facial markings [38]. Similarly, ancestral haplotypes detected
341 on BTA6 correspond to genes related to milk protein and fat percentages such as MEPE, IBSP, LAP3
342 and MED28 [39] as well as the KIT gene, related to coat colour [38]. In the case of BTA7, no known
343 genes have been yet reported but our ancestral haplotypes are close to previously detected QTLs
344 related to milk production [40] and also close to genes related to pre-ovulatory events (EGR-1),
345 whereas haplotypes in BTA21 contained the gene MEF2A, which has been found to be related to
346 signatures of selection in cattle breeds for milk production [41].

347 Only two generations (parent-offspring) were available for the Spanish breeds. Therefore,
348 results cannot be conclusive. However, it is noticeable that the most frequent common haplotypes
349 (Additional file 3) were found on autosomes BTA2, BTA7 and BTA11. On BTA2, haplotypes were
350 mainly detected within a region (6-8 Mb) previously found to be associated with a pleiotropic QTL

351 related to marbling, birth weight and calving easy [42] and close to the Myostatin gene (6.2 Mb). On
352 BTA7, haplotypes corresponded to the region found in Fleckvieh that was related to milk production
353 and pre-ovulatory events. On BTA11, haplotypes were detected in a region (66-70 Mb) close to
354 previously detected regions associated with fertility traits in other cattle breeds [43].

355 Furthermore, the presence of common selective patterns among populations can be
356 confirmed by the existence of frequent ancestral haplotypes segregating in more than one dataset.
357 As example, ancestral haplotypes on BTA6 close to genes associated with protein and fat percentage
358 in milk or genes related to coat colour were detected in both the Fleckvieh/Simmental as well as the
359 Brown-Swiss data. Specifically, regions in BTA6 controlling protein and fat percentage in milk (mainly
360 genes LAP3 and MED28) were detected in all Brown-Swiss populations and in Fleckvieh but not in
361 Simmental. However, no regions common to all breeds and countries were found. This could be the
362 result of a sampling effect and, as only the top five most common haplotypes were studied, there is
363 the possibility that less frequent haplotypes could be segregating in more breeds and countries.

364 The utility of ancestral haplotype detection is not only limited to the identification of selection
365 signatures. They also provide information about population dynamics and the evolutionary history of
366 different breeds. In the case of the Spanish breeds, the lack of pedigree depth depth in the present
367 study limited the extent of this information. However, recent studies have shown some degree of
368 admixture among these breeds except for Pirenaica, which has been shown to be distanced from
369 other populations [3]. Therefore, in concordance with our results, it was expected that Pirenaica
370 would present a lower genetic variation compared to other breeds, being also concordant with
371 previous studies that show a greater average relatedness in this breed compared to the other
372 Spanish breeds [44].

373 In the case of the Fleckvieh/Simmental data, at least 6 complete generations were available,
374 providing more information on the segregating patterns of ancestral haplotypes. The Fleckvieh
375 breed was formed in 1830 when Simmental cattle was exported from Switzerland to Germany and
376 Austria in order to improve local breeds. Since then, both Simmental and Fleckvieh have been

377 selected as dual-purpose breeds in similar breeding programmes. Given the close relationship
378 between the breeds, similar signatures of selection could be expected in both. This has led to similar
379 trends in the proportion of ancestral haplotypes segregating through generations. However, given
380 the bottleneck occurring during its origin, a lower haplotype variability and a steadier trend in co-
381 ancestry might have been expected in Fleckvieh. On the contrary, our results showed a higher
382 haplotype variability and a reduced trend in co-ancestry in Fleckvieh when compared to Simmental.
383 Two possible causes could underpin the observed results: i) The enrichment of Simmental
384 haplotypes with haplotypes from local breeds during the establishment and development of the
385 Fleckvieh breed and ii) an unbalanced genetic flow between the two breeds, with strong genetic
386 flow from Simmental into Fleckvieh and a much weaker flow from Fleckvieh to Simmental. Although
387 the first possibility seems more plausible given the relatively small observed proportion of ancestral
388 haplotypes from Simmental segregating in Fleckvieh (only 13.57% in spite of their expected common
389 selection objectives as dual-purpose breeds), the explanations are not mutually exclusive, and a
390 detailed study would be warranted.

391 Regarding Brown-Swiss, the breed was originated in Switzerland and exported in 1869 to USA,
392 where it was intensively selected for milk production and then exported back to Europe (Italy,
393 Germany and Austria). Therefore, it is expected that the Swiss population would present a higher
394 variability given the lower selection pressure, while the other populations are expected to have
395 similar levels of variability. However, as no heavy admixture with other breeds is expected, all
396 populations should present similar coancestry (all originated from Switzerland) with maybe
397 Switzerland presenting a slightly lower one (due again to lower selection intensity). The results
398 obtained in the present study reflect these expected dynamics, with the Swiss population showing
399 the highest haplotype variability and the highest proportion of ancestral haplotypes persisting across
400 generations. At the same time, the USA population showed a decrease in both variability and
401 proportion of segregating ancestral haplotypes, which is consistent with the original bottleneck
402 characterised by intensive selection of the imported population. Similar results pertained to the

403 German, Italian and Austrian populations, concordant with their USA origin. In fact, 11.58% of USA
404 ancestral haplotypes were segregating in these three population compared to the 5.8% haplotypes
405 of Swiss origin. Although, the Austrian population showed a much lower haplotype variability than
406 other European populations, the proportion of ancestral haplotypes segregating was similar,
407 therefore suggesting that the observed low variability in this population is due to a sample size
408 effect (only 20 Austrian animals were genotyped).

409 A possible caveat in the present study could be the haplotype size chosen (100 SNPs) when
410 performing the genotype phasing, which should be dependent on the extent of LD across the entire
411 genome. If the haplotype blocks are very small, it is expected an overestimate of the proportion of
412 segregating ancestral haplotypes across time, as small sequences will be easily conserved from one
413 generation to the next. On the contrary, if haplotype blocks are too large, it is expected an
414 underestimate of the proportion of segregating haplotypes, as too large sequences will be rarely
415 conserved from one generation to the next. However, previous studies have already shown that
416 short cores of 100 SNPs similar to the used in this study provide the best phasing results [35]. In
417 future studies, it would be interesting to test different haplotype sizes that could potentially provide
418 information about different selection events. The concept of breed as we know it is very recent, with
419 most breeds being properly established in the last two centuries. Therefore, between species
420 domestication and the formal establishment of breeds there was a period of time where cattle was
421 maintained as a “unique” (non-breed specific) population but with semi-restricted admixture due to
422 geographical and cultural barriers. During that period, animals were likely selected unsystematically
423 according to local preferences and, therefore, ancestral haplotypes linked to these preferences
424 could have been segregating in different breeds at the time of their formation. Old selection
425 signatures related to pre-breed formation would be probably related to small size haplotypes
426 conserved across breeds, whereas most recent selection signatures would be expected to be related
427 to longer haplotypes. In the present study, common selection signatures were found across the
428 breed groups (e.g. in BTA6 related to fat and protein content in milk). With the available

429 information, it is difficult to know if these haplotypes were the result of selection in the pre-breed
430 formation period or directional selection after the breeds were established. Most likely it is a
431 combination of both factors but, given the increase in selection pressure imposed on cattle in the
432 last century, it is more plausible that the increase in frequency of the related haplotypes is mostly
433 the result of recent selection.

434 Further to the size of the haplotypes, other parameters during phasing and haplotype
435 identification could represent additional considerations. Pedigree information was used in the
436 present study although its effect has been proven to be marginally positive when used in other
437 studies [10]. The length of the core tails is also important, as short tails could lead to a low
438 combinatorial power and, therefore, to false surrogate parents, whereas too long tails would lead to
439 the removal of parents that could have been used as surrogated. Similar issues could rise when
440 stringent error thresholds or a strong overlapping of cores are applied to the identification of
441 surrogates, as too strict parameters would lead to removal of good surrogated parents and,
442 therefore, to a lower number of haplotypes being detected. The parameters used in the present
443 study, with no overlapping but relatively long tails are in accordance with the recommended
444 parameters for the identification of haplotypes proposed by Hickey et al. [36].

445 Finally, and beyond the scopes of the present study, the detection of ancestral haplotypes can
446 also be used to identify additional important genomic regions for conservation as well as breeding
447 programs. For example, in natural populations under strong natural selection, it is expected that
448 fitness-related genomic regions will be conserved across many generations. Therefore, an approach
449 like the one presented in this study would detect these regions without the need of relevant
450 phenotypes and a follow-up detailed study (e.g. through pathway analysis) could reveal interesting
451 genes located in these regions. Furthermore, studies on livestock populations under artificial
452 selection will reveal genomic regions associated with the breeding goal traits that have been
453 maintained across generations by selection (as shown in this study), thereby leading to the
454 identification of genes of interest (e.g. in Gene Assisted Selection) [45]. Additional examples can be

455 related to other relevant genomic regions: for example, it is expected that genomic regions with a
456 high haplotype variability across different populations and breeds could be indicative of possible
457 recombination hotspots.

458

459 **CONCLUSIONS**

460 This study presents a simple procedure to detect ancestral haplotypes in cattle populations.
461 Signatures of selection were detected in various cattle breeds, demonstrating potential to uncover
462 the population dynamics of these breeds. The existence of common selective goals across breeds is
463 concordant with the detection of common segregating haplotypes and the increase in frequency of
464 some ancestral haplotypes being selected through generations. Furthermore, the evolutionary
465 history of the studied populations is mirrored by the population specific patterns of variability,
466 frequency and co-ancestry of ancestral haplotypes, thus reflecting not only the evolution of each
467 particular population but also the relationship among them.

468

469 **DECLARATIONS**

470 Abbreviation list:

471 LD: Linkage disequilibrium.

472 SNP: Single Nucleotide Polymorphisms.

473 QTL: Quantitative Trait Loci.

474 IBD: Identity by descent.

475 BTA: *Bos taurus* autosome.

476 Ethics:

477 Real data was provided by animal breeding companies such as ANAPRI, ANARB, FEAGAS, and
478 ZuchtData within the framework of the Gene2farm European Project (www.gene2farm.eu).
479 Therefore, data recording followed the International Committee for Animal Recording (ICAR)
480 approved guidelines.

481 Consent to publish:

482 Not applicable.

483 Competing interests:

484 The authors declare that they have no competing interests.

485 Funding:

486 The research leading to these results has received funding from the European Union's
487 Seventh Framework Program for research, technological development and demonstration under
488 grant agreement n° 289592 - Gene2Farm. Support from the Institute Strategic Programme Grant
489 BB/J004235/1 of the Biotechnology and Biological Sciences Research Council and from the
490 Ministerio de Ciencia e Innovación under grant AGL 2010-15903 is also acknowledged.

491 Authors' contributions:

492 ESM, DT, ELN, DC and GB participated in the study design, analyses of both simulated and real
493 data and manuscript preparation. ESM and LV were responsible of the preparation of the real data.
494 DT, DC and ELN were responsible of the generation of the simulated data. HJ was responsible for the
495 initial base program to generate the simulated data and ELN was responsible of its further
496 modification. DC and GB were responsible for the conception, funding, study design and
497 implementation of the project. LD, CD, AR, HS, FS, LV and DV have contributed in the design,
498 identification and selection of key animals to be genotyped for the purposes of the project. All
499 authors have read and approved the final manuscript.

500 Availability of data and material:

501 Data will not be publicly shared. Genomic data of all animals was part of the Gene2farm
502 European Project (www.gene2farm.eu) within the framework of the European Union's Seventh
503 Framework Program for research, technological development and demonstration under grant
504 agreement n° 289592. All data was provided and belongs to ANAPRI, ANARB, FEAGAS, Qualitas and
505 ZuchtData within the framework of this project, being stored in the Gene2farm servers. Therefore,

506 any particular data request should be addressed directly to the Gene2farm project coordinator E. L.
507 Nicolazzi (ezequiel.nicolazzi@ptp.it).

508 Acknowledgements:

509 Real data was provided by ANAPRI, ANARB, FEAGAS, Qualitas and ZD within the framework of
510 this project.

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TABLE LEGENDS AND FIGURE CAPTIONS

Table 1: Description of pedigrees: Number of genotyped animals (N_g), number of animals in the pedigree (N_p), average number of maximum generations (MMG), average number of complete generations (MCG) and average number of equivalent generations ($MEG = \sum (1/2)^n$ computed across all known ancestors, where n is the number of generations separating the individual to each known ancestor). Effective sizes (N_e) were computed using the equivalent generations.

Table 2: Haplotype results for Spanish breed analyses: Average number of haplotypes per cluster across all generations (Haplotype Variability) and the proportion of ancestral haplotypes segregating in the total population across generations.

Table 3: Haplotype results for Brown Swiss analyses: Average number of haplotypes per cluster across all generations (Haplotype Variability) and the proportion of ancestral haplotypes segregating in the total population across generations.

Figure 1: Similarity (co-ancestry) between ancestral haplotypes across generations in simulated dataset: Solid line corresponds to population 1 and dashed line to population 2.

Figure 2: Proportion of ancestral haplotypes segregating per generation in simulated dataset: Solid line corresponds to population 1 and dashed line to population 2.

658 **Figure 3: Similarity (co-ancestry) between ancestral haplotypes through generations in Fleckvieh**
659 **(solid line) and Simmental (dashed line).**

660 **Figure 4: Proportion of ancestral haplotypes segregating per generation in Fleckvieh (solid line)**
661 **and Simmental (dashed line).**

662 **Figure 5: Similarity (co-ancestry) between ancestral haplotypes through generations in Brown-**
663 **Swiss.** Figure 5A for USA (dashed line) and Switzerland (solid line) and figure B for non-Swiss
664 European countries: Austria (solid line), Italy (dashed line) and Germany (dotted line).

665 **Figure 6: Proportion of ancestral haplotypes segregating per generation in Brown-Swiss.** Figure 5A
666 for USA (dashed line) and Switzerland (solid line) and figure B for non-Swiss European countries:
667 Austria (solid line), Italy (dashed line) and Germany (dotted line).

668 **ADDITIONAL FILES**

669 **Additional file 1.xlsx: QC summary performed for real datasets.** As the Spanish breeds dataset was
670 provided by other study, no information can be found on the original number of animals.

671 **Additional file 2.xlsx: Five most common ancestral haplotypes per breed/population in Fleckvieh,**
672 **Simmental and Brown-Swiss.** Information presented for each haplotype (Hap) pertain to
673 chromosome (Chr), genomic coordinates of the haplotype (starting SNP and ending SNP base pair
674 positions), frequency (as provided by AlphaPhase), relative frequency to other haplotypes
675 (frequency of the haplotype divided by the sum of the frequencies of all haplotypes detected in the
676 cluster for the total population), genes of interest (closer than 0.3 Mb of the haplotype) and closest
677 gene with its coordinates. Coordinates are given according to the Genome assembly UMD3.1.

678 **Additional file 3.xlsx: Five most common ancestral haplotypes per breed in the Spanish breeds**
679 **dataset.** Information presented for each haplotype (Hap) pertain to chromosome (Chr), genomic
680 coordinates of the haplotype (starting SNP and ending SNP base pair positions), frequency (as
681 provided by AlphaPhase) and relative frequency to other haplotypes (frequency of the haplotype
682 divided by the sum of the frequencies of all haplotypes detected in the cluster for the total
683 population). Coordinates are given according to the Genome assembly UMD3.1.

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TABLE 1

Breed	Population	Ng	Np	MMG (range)	MCG (range)	MEG (range)	Ne
Fleckvieh	-	315	8,137	4.7 (0-22)	1.3 (0-6)	2.2 (0-9.1)	239.0
Simmental	-	158	5,341	4.3 (0-21)	1.3 (0-7)	2.2 (0-10.5)	174.6
Brown-Swiss	Austria	20	1,257	3.9 (0-18)	1.3 (0-6)	2.1 (0-9.7)	124.9
	Germany	54	2,677	4.9 (0-20)	1.4 (0-6)	2.4 (0-10.2)	127.6
	Italy	77	3,482	4.0 (0-20)	1.3 (0-7)	2.1 (0-9.9)	122.5
	Switzerland	184	5,307	4.6 (0-20)	1.5 (0-7)	2.4 (0-10.45)	111.0
	USA	77	1,906	4.3 (0-19)	1.5 (0-7)	2.3 (0-10.19)	93.5

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TABLE 2

Population	Haplotype Variability	Proportion of ancestral haplotypes to total population (%)
Asturiana (as)	41.73	90.88
Avileña (av)	31.84	94.79
Bruna (br)	34.41	93.04
Morucha (mo)	34.82	93.50
Pirenaica (pr)	27.52	94.66
Retinta (re)	30.54	95.86
Rubia Gallega (rg)	31.32	93.33

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733 **TABLE 3**

Population	Haplotype Variability	Proportion of ancestral haplotypes to total population (%)
Austria	11.42	32.46
Germany	22.32	42.45
Italy	21.38	26.65
Switzerland	37.22	66.29
USA	17.9	32.12

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