



Identification of genomic regions involved in the phenotypic differences between original and modern Brown populations

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Keywords:	Brown cattle, FST, runs of homozygosity, SNPs, candidate genes

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3 1 **Identification of genomic regions involved in the phenotypic differences between original and**
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5 2 **modern Brown populations**
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20 **Summary**

21 Identifying genomic regions involved in the differences between breeds can provide information on
22 genes that are under the influence of both artificial and natural selection. The aim of this study was
23 to identify genomic regions involved in phenotypic differentiation among four different Brown
24 populations (original *vs* modern) and to characterize the distribution of runs of homozygosity
25 (ROHs) islands using the Illumina Bovine SNP50 BeadChip genotyping data. After quality control,
26 34,735 SNPs and 106 animals were retained for the analyses. **Larger heterogeneity was highlighted**
27 **for the original breeds. Patterns of genetic differentiation, multidimensional scaling, and the**
28 **neighboring joining tree** distinguished the modern breeds from the original populations. **The F_{ST} -**
29 **outlier identified several genes involved in many phenotypic differences between the two groups,**
30 **such as stature and growth, behavior and adaptability to local environments.** The ROH islands
31 within both the original and the modern groups overlapped with QTL associated with relevant traits.
32 In modern Brown, ROH islands harbored candidate genes associated with milk production traits, in
33 evident agreement with the artificial selection conducted to improve this trait in these populations.
34 In original Brown, we identified candidate genes related with fat deposition, confirming that
35 breeding strategies for the original Brown populations aimed to produce dual-purpose animals. Our
36 study highlighted the presence of several genomic regions which vary between Brown populations,
37 in line with their different breeding histories.

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39 **Keywords** Brown cattle, **genetic diversity**, F_{ST} , runs of homozygosity, candidate genes

41 **Introduction**

42 In cattle, natural and artificial selection has resulted in divergent breeds. In fact, the continuously
43 increasing demand for work, milk and meat has enhanced between-population differences over the
44 centuries (Zhao *et al.*, 2015). An interesting situation regarding this divergence among populations
45 is represented by the Brown cattle. The Brown cattle is derived from populations used in valleys

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and mountain slopes of Switzerland since before historic records began. One theory says that this breed goes back to oriental origins, having been introduced into Central Europe from the steppes and valleys of Western Asia. Moreover, cattle bones found in the ruins of the Swiss Lake Dwellers indicate that a type of cattle, apparently closely related to actual Brown cattle, existed during the Bronze Age in Switzerland (Del Bo *et al.*, 2002). Nowadays, the Brown cattle reared in Europe can be grouped into three different populations: the Original Braunvieh, the Braunvieh, and the Brown Swiss (Hagger, 2005). The Original Braunvieh is a dual-purpose cattle breed reared in Switzerland and it represents the original population of Brown cattle (Bhati *et al.*, 2020). This population is ancestral to the Brown Swiss; in fact, few individuals of the Original Braunvieh (about 170) originating from the mountain tops of Northeast Switzerland had been imported in the USA during the end of the 19th century giving rise to the current Brown Swiss, which is today one of the most widespread dairy breed in the world (Yoder & Lush 1937). Between 1967 and 1998, a crossbreeding between Original Braunvieh and the American Brown Swiss was conducted through artificial insemination, leading to the current Braunvieh population; this is mainly spread over the Alpine regions of Austria, Germany, Italy, and Switzerland.

Genetic drift, geographical barriers, different environments, and local management practices have affected the divergences among the original and modern Brown populations. Moreover, natural selection and modern breeding approaches, while acting on adaptation, morphological and production traits, also contributed to shape the genetic structure of these populations.

The availability of single nucleotide polymorphism (SNP) panels, consisting of thousands of markers, has greatly improved the power of genome-wide studies for a deep investigation of genetic diversity between and within population(s), allowing the identification of highly differentiated genomic regions between cattle breeds (Flori *et al.*, 2009; Qanbari *et al.*, 2011; Signer-Hasler *et al.*, 2017; Mastrangelo *et al.*, 2018a). The analytical approach, using the allele frequency-based inter-population genetic differentiation (F_{ST}) and intra-population runs of homozygosity (ROHs), has been recently applied in several livestock species for the identification of genomic regions involved

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3 72 in phenotypic differences (Cesarani *et al.*, 2018; Onzima *et al.*, 2018; Elbeltagy *et al.*, 2019;
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5 73 Hulsegge *et al.*, 2019; Szmatoła *et al.*, 2019). Finding links between phenotypic and genotypic
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7 74 differences is of great importance in order to gain a better understanding of genetic mechanisms
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10 75 underpinning traits of interest, and it offers the opportunity to improve the efficiency of animal
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12 76 breeding through directed selection on favorable alleles (Rothhammer *et al.*, 2013). Therefore, the
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14 77 objective of the present study was to identify differentiated genomic regions among the Brown
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16 78 populations (original *vs* modern) and to characterize the distribution of runs of homozygosity
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18 79 islands using the Illumina Bovine SNP50 BeadChip genotyping data, which may provide insights
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20 80 into the mechanisms underlying their genomic differences. We also checked if the genomic regions
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22 81 that were most associated with ROHs overlapped with reported quantitative traits loci (QTL).
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28 83 **Materials and methods**

31 84 *Sampling, genotyping and quality control*

34 85 Overall, 106 animals belonging to four different Brown cattle populations were used: Original
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36 86 Braunvieh (ORBR), Braunvieh (BRHV), Brown Swiss (BRSW) and Italian Brown (ITBR).

38 87 *These breeds present differences in both phenotypic and production traits. For example, in the*
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40 88 *ORBR, selection breeding schemes are almost absent, whereas the Brown Swiss is the second*
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42 89 *largest producer of milk after the Holstein breed. Nevertheless, the original populations, such as the*
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44 90 *BRHV, are adapted to the harshness of mountain areas because of their good grazing*
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46 91 *characteristics, and are resistant to environmental conditions. These populations shows also a*
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48 92 *smaller body size compared to selected breeds.*

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53 93 Detailed information about the breeds, the samples and the grouping into original and modern cattle
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55 94 are reported in Table 1. All individuals were genotyped using the Bovine SNP50K BeadChip. SNPs
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57 95 were mapped using the *Bos taurus* ARS-UCD1.2 genome assembly. The markers were filtered
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60 96 using PLINK 1.07 (Purcell *et al.*, 2007) and considering only SNPs mapped in autosomal

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3 97 chromosomes. SNPs with a minor allele frequency (MAF) lower than 0.01 and call rate lower than
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5 98 95%, as well as individuals with missing genotyping rate lower than 90%, were removed.

8 99 *Comparison of breeds*

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11 100 Pairwise genetic relationships were estimated to evaluate population substructure using identity-by-
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13 101 state (IBS) genetic distances calculated by PLINK 1.07 (Purcell *et al.*, 2007) and graphically
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15 102 represented by multidimensional scaling (MDS). PLINK was also used to estimate observed (H_o)
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17 and expected (H_e) heterozygosity, and the genomic inbreeding, which is based on the difference
18 103 between the observed and expected numbers of homozygous genotypes (F_{HOM}). The ARLEQUIN
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20 104 version 3.5.2.2 (Excoffier & Lischer, 2010) was used to estimate population relatedness using
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22 105 pairwise estimates of F_{ST} among all four breeds. A neighbor-joining tree was constructed based on
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24 106 individual allele-sharing distances (--distance 1-IBS in PLINK) and visualized using SPLITSTREE
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26 107 (Huson & Bryant, 2006).
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32 109 *F_{ST} -outlier analysis*

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35 110 The F_{ST} -outlier approach implemented in the BayeScan software (Foll, 2012) was adopted to
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37 111 identify loci involved in the differentiation between the considered groups. BayeScan analyses
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39 112 comprised 20 pilot runs of 5,000 iterations, a burn-in of 50,000 iterations, a thinning interval of 10
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41 (5,000 iterations were used for the estimation of posterior odds) with a resulting total number of
42 113 100,000 iterations. To control the number of false positives, significant markers were defined by
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44 114 applying a q -value threshold of 0.05 and using the 0.999 SNPs of F_{ST} percentile distribution.
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49 116 *Runs of homozygosity islands*

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52 117 Runs of homozygosity (ROHs) were estimated for each sample using PLINK 1.07 (Purcell *et al.*,
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54 118 2007). The minimum length that constituted the ROH was set to 1 Mb. The following criteria were
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56 used to define the ROHs: (i) one missing SNP was allowed in the ROH and up to one possible
57 119 heterozygous genotype; (ii) the minimum number of consecutive SNPs that constituted the ROH
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59 120 was set to 30; (iii) minimum density of 1 SNP every 100 kb; (iv) maximum gap between
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3 122 consecutive SNPs of 1 Mb. The average length of ROH (L_{ROH}) was estimated. ROH were grouped
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5 123 into five classes of length (1 to ≤ 2 Mb, 2 to ≤ 4 Mb, 4 to ≤ 8 Mb, 8 to ≤ 16 Mb and >16 Mb) (Marras
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8 124 *et al.*, 2014). The number and frequency of ROH within each ROH length category for the two
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10 125 groups were also determined. The percentage of SNPs residing within the ROH was estimated by
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12 126 counting the number of times that each SNP appeared in a ROH and by dividing that number by the
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15 127 number of animals in each group. To identify the genomic regions of “high homozygosity”, also
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17 128 called ROHs islands, the top 0.999 SNPs of the percentile distribution of the locus homozygosity
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19 129 range within each group were selected.

22 130 *Gene ontology enrichment*

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25 131 Genomic regions detected by the two statistical approaches were interrogated for genes annotated to
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27 132 the *Bos taurus* genome assembly ARS-UCD1.2 using Genome Data Viewer
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29 133 (https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/genome/gdv/browser/genome/?id=GCF_002263795.1) provided by
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32 134 NCBI.

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34 135 The genes within ROH islands were further analyzed with the PANTHER Classification System
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36 136 (Mi *et al.*, 2013) to identify significant ($P \leq 0.05$) gene ontology (GO) terms. Moreover, to
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39 137 investigate the biological function of the annotated genes, an accurate literature search was also
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41 138 conducted.

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43 139 Finally, using “JBrowse” (Buels *et al.*, 2016), an open source JavaScript-based genome browser,
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45 140 available on National Animal Genome Research Program
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48 141 (<https://www.animalgenome.org/jbrowse/>), we checked if the genomic regions of high
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50 142 homozygosity overlapped with reported quantitative traits loci (QTL).

54 144 **Results**

57 145 *Comparison of breeds*

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3 146 After quality control, 34,735 SNPs and 106 animals were retained for the analyses. Genetic
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5 147 diversity indices (H_o and H_e) and inbreeding coefficient (F_{HOM}), which are key parameters in the
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8 148 genetic management of populations, were used to determine the levels of genetic variability in the
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10 149 four Brown breeds. The original populations (ORBR and BRHV) displayed the highest genetic
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12 150 diversity, whereas the lowest value was found in modern populations (BRSW and ITBR) (Table 2).

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15 151 To examine and visualize the genetic relationships among the four Brown cattle populations, we
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17 152 used an MDS plot of the pairwise identity-by-state distance (Figure 1). The results showed that the
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19 153 populations formed two different clusters. The first dimension (C1) separated BRSW and ITBR
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21 154 from ORBR and BRHV. In agreement with MDS results, the neighbor joining (NJ) tree based on
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24 155 allele sharing distance (ASD) separated individuals according to their population of origin (Fig. S1).
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26 156 Genetic differentiation between all pairs of populations estimated by F_{ST} statistics are also reported
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28 157 in Table S1, and substantially confirms results from MDS and NJ tree. In particular, F_{ST} was low
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31 158 between BRSW and ITBR (0.006) or between ORBR and BRHV (0.016).

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33 159 All these results were used to categorize the four Brown populations into two contrasting groups for
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35 160 comparative analysis: original (ORBR and BRHV) *versus* modern (BRSW and ITBR) cattle.

38 161 F_{ST} analysis

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41 162 Results from the Bayesian population differentiation approach identified a total of 35 outlier SNPs
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43 163 between ORBR-BRHV and BRSW-ITBR (Table 3). These SNPs were identified on 15 different
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45 164 chromosomes (BTA). Most of these markers were located far apart from each other. Manhattan
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48 165 plots of F_{ST} values are reported in Figure 2. The locus with the highest value (0.305) was ARS-
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50 166 BFGL-NGS-40251 on BTA02. Only three outlier genomic regions showed adjacent SNPs on
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52 167 BTA02, BTA06, BTA17, in which *NYAP2*, *GRID2* and *TMEM132D* are mapped, respectively
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55 168 (Table 3). Among the outlier SNPs, 11 markers (31%) were located on BTA6. A total of 17 markers
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57 169 that exceeded the significance threshold were mapped within 14 protein-coding genes.

60 170 *Runs of homozygosity*

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3 171 The total number of detected ROHs exhibited variation between groups, with the modern group
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5 172 having the highest value (1,725). Moreover, the modern Brown group had also the highest average
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8 173 length of ROHs (8.54 Mb vs 7.17 Mb). The frequency and the distribution of the number of ROHs
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10 174 in the different classes was similar (Table S2 and Fig. S2). The most represented ROH classes in
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12 175 both groups was that of length ranging from 4 to ≤ 8 Mb, representing 48% and 44% in original and
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15 176 modern groups, respectively. The largest number of ROH in the class of highest length (>16 Mb)
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17 177 was observed in modern (BRSW and ITBR) cattle (Fig. S2). To identify the genomic regions that
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19 178 were most associated with ROHs, the top 0.999 SNPs of the percentile distribution of the locus
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22 179 homozygosity range were chosen as an indicator of a possible ROH hotspot in the genome. The
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24 180 analysis was carried out within the same two groups of the pairwise comparison reported above for
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26 181 the F_{ST} -outlier approach. Table 4 provides the chromosome position, the start and the end of ROH
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29 182 regions and the relative genes list. Although the distribution of the ROHs was relatively balanced
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31 183 and the signals were moderate in height, we found a few outstanding peaks with a high occurrence
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33 184 of ROHs (Figure 3). In total, five genomic regions that frequently appeared in the ROHs were
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35 185 identified in the two Brown groups (Table 4). The ROHs islands were found on BTA11 and BTA26
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38 186 in the ORBR/BRHV group (Figure 3A), and on BTA05 and BTA06 in the BRSW/ITBR group
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40 187 (Figure 3B), ranging in length from 0.90 Mb (BRSW/ITBR; 9 consecutive SNPs on BTA05) to
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42 188 5.58 Mb (ORBR/BRHV; 68 consecutive SNPs on BTA11).

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45 189 Within the ROHs islands reported above, we identified several known genes, together with
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47 190 uncharacterized genes (LOC) (Table 4). Some of the detected islands, such as on BTA5 in the
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49 191 modern Brown breeds, contained only three annotated genes. Moreover, some of these genomic
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52 192 regions overlapped with ROHs islands found in other studies (Table S3).

53 193 *Gene ontology enrichment*

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56 194 The results of the GO enrichment analysis (Table S4) showed multiple categories that were
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59 195 statistically significant ($P \leq 0.05$). The genes within ROHs islands encompass a wide spectrum of
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196 molecular functions, biological processes, and cellular components. A PANTHER gene list analysis

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3 197 revealed a high percentage of genes involved in the following categories: cellular process
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5 198 (GO:0009987), catalytic activity (GO:0003824), binding (GO:0005488), metabolic process
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8 199 (GO:0008152), biological regulation (GO:0065007), localization (GO:0051179), response to
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10 200 stimulus (GO:0050896). Finally, we also checked if the ROHs overlapped with previously reported
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12 201 quantitative traits loci (QTL). Overall, the ROHs islands overlap with known QTL regions
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15 202 associated with several traits (Table S5). We identified QTL associated with milk composition and
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17 203 milk fat content, life history traits, energy efficiency association and intramuscular fat. For example,
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19 204 the ROH island in BTA06 overlap with QTL associated with somatic cell score, clinical mastitis,
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22 205 length of productive life and calf size.

23 24 25 206 **Discussion**

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27 207 Identifying genomic regions involved in the differences between breeds can provide information on
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30 208 genes that are under the influence of both artificial and natural selection, and thus, can help the
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32 209 identification of beneficial mutations and underlying biological pathways for economically
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34 210 important traits (Zhao *et al.*, 2015). Notably, the inter-population F_{ST} -outlier test compares the
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37 211 variation of allele frequencies within and between groups, and the locus that shows the largest
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39 212 differences in allele frequencies between populations is assumed to be a signal of selection (Qanbari
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41 213 *et al.*, 2011). Intra-population ROHs analysis has been used to identify regions that have an
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44 214 unfavorable effect on a phenotype when they are in the homozygous state but also to detect
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46 215 associations between traits of economic interest and genes present in these regions (e.g. Zhang *et*
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48 216 *al.*, 2015; Mastrangelo *et al.*, 2018b). In this study, we applied the two above-mentioned genome-
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51 217 scan analytical approaches to identify differentiated genomic regions between original and modern
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53 218 Brown cattle populations and to characterize the distribution of runs of homozygosity islands within
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55 219 these populations.

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57 220 Several studies investigated the genomic diversity and population structure of the Brown
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60 221 populations using either pedigree (Hagger, 2005) or microarray data (Signer-Hasler *et al.*, 2017;

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3 222 Senczuk *et al.*, 2020), but to the best of our knowledge, this is the first study on the identification of
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5 223 differentiated genomic regions between original and modern Brown cattle populations.

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8 224 **Patterns of genetic differentiation, multidimensional scaling, and the neighboring joining tree**
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10 225 **showed a marked divergence between the Brown populations investigated here, and clearly**
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12 226 **distinguishing the modern breeds from the original populations.** Similar patterns were also observed
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14 227 in previous studies (e.g. Del Bo *et al.*, 2011; Signer-Hasler *et al.*, 2017; Senczuk *et al.*, 2020). The
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17 228 observed genetic differentiation among breeds was in accordance with their geographical and
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19 229 historical origins. Moreover, genetic drift and the different selective schemes to which these
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21 230 populations have been subjected could have further contributed to the observed scenario. **We also**
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24 231 **found that modern Brown cattle present lower values of genetic diversity, related with the high**
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26 232 **selection pressure on these breeds for dairy traits. Moreover, this group showed the highest**
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28 233 **frequency of ROH > 16 Mb (Fig. S2) as also reported by Cesarani *et al.* (2018), and related to a**
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30 234 **more recent inbreeding (Mastrangelo *et al.*, 2016). On the other hand, the original populations**
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32 235 **consists of traditional pure-bred animals and has maintained substantial genetic diversity, due to the**
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34 236 **use of a relatively high number of natural service sires and relatively weak genetic selection for**
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36 237 **milk yield (Hagger, 2005).**

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40 238 The genome-wide distribution of pair-wise F_{ST} values was used to identify highly differentiated
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42 239 SNPs between the two groups of Brown cattle considered in this study. In general, the F_{ST} -outlier
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44 240 approach confirmed what already observed based on phenotypic differences between original and
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46 241 modern Brown cattle: the main genetic differences between the two groups lie in morphological
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48 242 traits and adaptability to local environments. Indeed, the results highlighted growth-related
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50 243 candidate genes such as *NYAP2* (Meng *et al.*, 2017), *CACNA2D1* (Hou *et al.*, 2010), *GRID2* (Lee *et*
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52 244 *al.*, 2012), *STIM2* and *CPEB4* (Mudadu *et al.*, 2016), while the outlier SNP in the BTA28 mapped
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54 245 on *PTPN20*, a candidate gene involved in the genetic determinism of udder conformation in cattle,
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56 246 an important trait under selection in the specialized dairy cattle breeds (Marete *et al.*, 2018). These
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58 247 results are consistent with the knowledge that breeding strategies, for the original Brown
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3 248 populations, aimed to produce dual-purpose animals. Moreover, this comparison identified a gene
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5 249 related with a local adaptation trait, i.e. exposure to UV radiation (*DKK2*) (Pausch *et al.* 2012). In
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8 250 transhumant systems, the animals belonging to the original Brown populations graze at alpine
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10 251 pastures (between 1000 and 2400 m above sea level) during the summer months and return to the
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12 252 stables for the winter months (Bhati *et al.*, 2020). Therefore, genes related with solar radiation are
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15 253 important for these breeds, that are exposed to increased summer solar ultraviolet radiation. In
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17 254 addition, on BTA17, *TMEM132D* was retrieved, a gene involved in behavioral traits such as
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19 255 reduced fear in humans and aggressiveness, consequently to human-driven selection (Qanbari *et al.*,
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21 256 2014; Vallée *et al.*, 2016). All the above genes may very well explain some of the phenotypic
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24 257 difference between the two Brown groups. In our study, the genetic differentiation analysis between
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26 258 groups did not detect SNPs located in genomic regions known to contain genes associated with milk
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28 259 production traits, probably because under selection within both groups, even if with different
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31 260 selection pressure. Consistently with our results, Signer-Hasler *et al.* (2017), in a study on selection
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33 261 signatures with the same SNP array, which also involved original and modern Brown populations,
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35 262 reported that potential candidate genes based on phenotypic evidence, such as *DGATI* or casein
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37 263 clusters, have not left any recognizable signal in these populations. The authors interpreted they
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40 264 results as the consequence of a low SNP density of the adopted SNP array in these regions.
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42 265 As mentioned above, another method to identify candidate genomic regions, based on intra-
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44 266 population analysis, is the identification of runs of homozygosity islands. Since ROHs are normally
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47 267 abundant in regions under positive selection, their accumulation at specific loci has been used to
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49 268 identify genomic regions that reflect directional selection in livestock species (Mastrangelo *et al.*,
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51 269 2018b; Purfield *et al.*, 2017; Metzger *et al.*, 2015). Moreover, several studies reported the
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54 270 occurrence of ROHs islands within QTLs for important production traits in cattle (Purfield *et al.*
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56 271 2012; Szymatola *et al.*, 2019). In this study, the ROH islands detected in the Brown populations
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58 272 overlapped with reported QTLs associated with relevant traits, such as milk composition and milk
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60 273 fat content, growth, body size, and length of productive life. Since ROH islands spanned many

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3 274 candidate genes displaying several functions, in our analysis of the published literature, we mainly
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5 275 focused on genes related to livestock breeding traits.

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8 276 In the original Brown group (ORBR/BRHV), at the beginning of the island on BTA11, we found
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10 277 the *ETAA1* gene, also reported within a ROH island in Sardo-Bruna cattle (Cesarani *et al.*, 2018), a
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12 278 local Italian Brown-derived population, thus confirming previously reported data. In fact, the
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14 279 overlapping ROHs islands among studies (Table S3) provided good evidence that they are not
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16 280 artifacts, but potential genomic regions affected by selection (Mastrangelo *et al.*, 2018). The island
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18 281 on BTA11 also included some known candidate genes (*CID*, *WDR92*, *PNO1*, *PPP3R1*,
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20 282 *ARHGAP25*) related with fat deposition (Zhang *et al.*, 2019; Sorbolini *et al.*, 2015; Pant *et al.*,
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22 283 2014), associated with high-altitude adaptation (*PPP3R1*) (Wei *et al.*, 2016), involved in immune
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24 284 and inflammatory response (*PLEK*) (Cremonesi *et al.*, 2012) and influencing the expression of
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26 285 flight speed (*ANTXR1*), used as a measure of temperament (Valente *et al.*, 2016). Based on these
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28 286 functions, some of these genes could be related with adaptation to cold climate, a characteristic of
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30 287 the original Brown populations, that commonly display better ability to adapt to harsh environments
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32 288 compared with the specialized modern breeds. These results confirmed the importance of the local
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34 289 populations as reservoirs of biodiversity and as models for studying the genetic basis of adaptability
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36 290 (Cesarani *et al.*, 2018). Moreover, this island on BTA11 identified several candidates genes
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38 291 associated with fertility traits (*EHD3* and *PCBP1*). This may explain, at least partly, why local
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40 292 populations are generally characterized by high longevity. Finally, this island showed genes related
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42 293 with meat quality (*CAPNI4*, *CAPNI3*, *LBH* and *LCLAT1*), as previously reported within a
43
44 294 significant selection signature in Original Braunvieh (Bhati *et al.*, 2020; Rothammer *et al.*, 2013;
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46 295 Signer-Hasler *et al.*, 2017) and in line with the dual-purpose characteristics of these animals.
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48 296 Similarly, the ROH island on BTA26, also identified in the Italian Holstein cattle (Gaspa *et al.*,
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50 297 2014), showed genes involved in bovine leg conformation (*BTRC* and *LBXI*) (Van den Berg *et al.*,
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52 298 2014), related with lipid metabolism pathway (*FGF8* and *GBF1*) (Marques *et al.*, 2009; Iso-Touru
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54 299 *et al.*, 2016) and with milk protein and fat traits in cattle (*MGEA5*) (Lin *et al.*, 2019). Moreover, a

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3 300 strong signature of selection (21-23 Mb) was reported in literature on this genomic region in
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5 301 Original Braunvieh (Signer-Hasler *et al.*, 2017). On the other side, in the ROH island on BTA5 of
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8 302 modern Brown, several candidate genes associated with milk production traits in cattle (*CSF2RB*,
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10 303 *NCF4* and *MPST*) (Lopdell *et al.*, 2019; Raven *et al.*, 2015) and in dairy buffaloes (*TMPRSS6*,
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12 304 *CIQTNF6*, *SSTR3*, *RAC2*, *CYTH4*) (De Camargo *et al.*, 2015) are mapped, in evident agreement
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15 305 with the artificial selection conducted to improve this traits in these populations. In the smallest
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17 306 ROH island in BTA5 we detected two genes, *TMTCl* and *ERIC2* associated with the
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19 307 *Mycobacterium avium* spp. *paratuberculosis* infection status (Pant *et al.*, 2010). Finally, of interest
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21 308 is the ROH island on BTA6 between about 86 and 87 Mb, a genomic region known to be
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24 309 functionally associated with traits related with mastitis, the disease that causes the greatest
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26 310 economic losses to the dairy industry worldwide. In fact, within this region, several candidate genes
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28 311 related with this disease, such as *SLC4A4* (Wu *et al.*, 2015), *GC* and *NPFFR2* (Sahana *et al.*, 2014)
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31 312 were retrieved.

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36 314 **Conclusion**

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39 315 Through the present study, we described some genetic differences between original and modern
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41 316 Brown populations. The different approaches used gave a picture of genetic relationships between
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44 317 original and modern breeds. As expected, larger heterogeneity was highlighted for the original
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46 318 breeds. Our study highlighted the presence of several genomic regions which vary between Brown
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48 319 populations, in line with their different breeding histories, and demonstrating that selection, other
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51 320 than genetic drift, contributed to the genetic differentiation among the original and modern breeds.
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53 321 The modern Brown has undergone the influences of intense artificial selection for milk production,
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55 322 losing some typical characteristics of the original Brown, like the dual purpose attitude, establishing
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58 323 itself as a cosmopolitan breed for milk production. The original Brown maintains dual-purpose
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60 324 attitude, and have genetic characteristics linked to the marginal environments in which they are

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3 325 reared and where continues to represent an important genetic resource for breeders. Most of the
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5 326 genes that were detected in our study were consistent with the phenotypic traits of these
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8 327 populations. Several genes and genomic regions here identified corroborate with previously
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10 328 reported studies carried out in other cattle breeds. However, further studies using the high-density
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12 329 array data, an increase in the number of genotyped animals and the collection of phenotypic records
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15 330 would be particularly relevant to refine and validate these results.
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19 332 **Conflict of interest**

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21 333 There are no known conflicts of interest associated with this publication and there has been no
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23
24 334 significant financial support for this work that could have influenced its outcome.
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For Peer Review

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Table 1. Population type, name and code, number of animals (N), country of origin and source for the genotypic data of the Brown breeds used in the contrasted groups.

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Group	Breed	Breed code	N	Country	Data source
1	Original Braunvieh	ORBR	20	Switzerland	Decker <i>et al.</i> , 2014
	Braunvieh	BRHV	35	Switzerland/Germany	Ramljak <i>et al.</i> , 2018
2	Brown Swiss	BRSW	19	Americas	Gautier <i>et al.</i> , 2010
	Italian Brown	ITBR	32	Italy	Mastrangelo <i>et al.</i> , 2018

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Table 2. Genetic diversity indices in the four Brown populations: observed (H_o) and expected (H_e) heterozygosity, the genomic inbreeding (F_{HOM}) and standard deviation (SD).

Breed	$H_o \pm SD$	$H_e \pm SD$	$F_{HOM} \pm SD$
ORBR	0.360 ± 0.151	0.353 ± 0.134	0.014 ± 0.018
BRHV	0.359 ± 0.165	0.351 ± 0.137	0.020 ± 0.048
BRWS	0.343 ± 0.179	0.328 ± 0.153	0.055 ± 0.040
ITBR	0.332 ± 0.173	0.323 ± 0.155	0.085 ± 0.035

Table 3. Results of the BayeScan analysis showing outlier SNPs identified between original (ORBR and BRHV) and modern (BRSW and ITBR) Brown cattle populations.

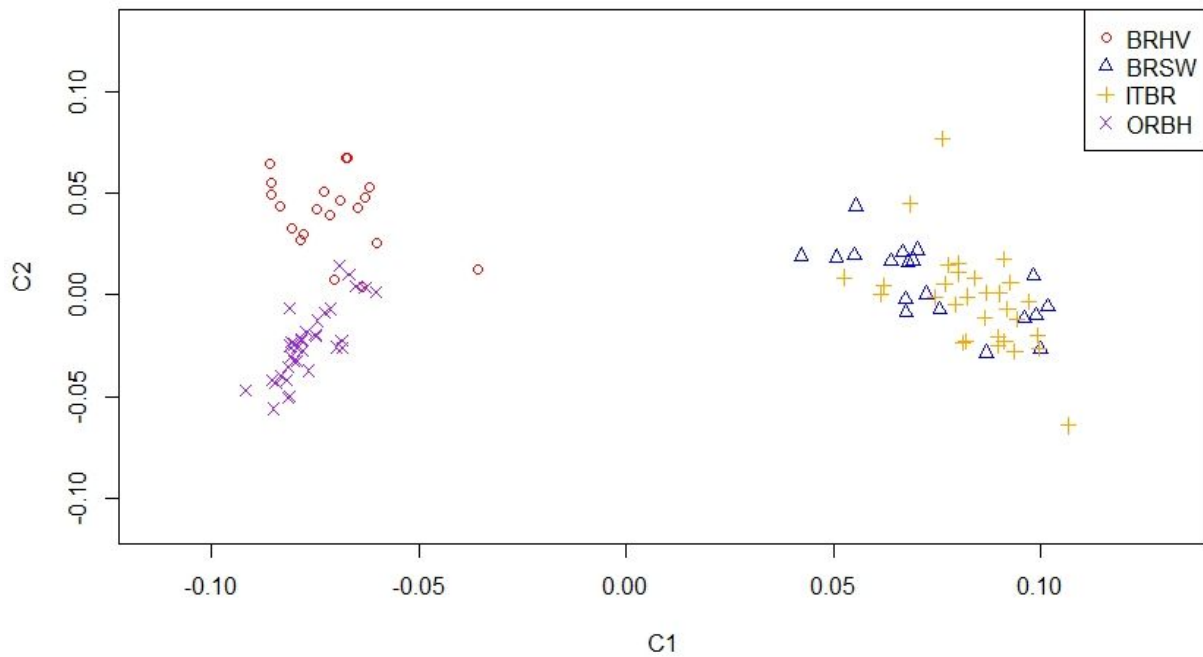
BTA	Pos	SNP name	F_{ST}	Gene
2	113,621,322	ARS-BFGL-NGS-40251	0.305	
2	113,650,536	Hapmap51816-BTA-20000	0.296	<i>NYAP2</i>
2	130,360,932	ARS-BFGL-NGS-43912	0.285	<i>ZBTB40</i>
4	38,606,134	BTB-00178575	0.266	<i>CACNA2D1</i>
4	75,566,919	ARS-BFGL-NGS-2431	0.279	-
5	15,943,853	ARS-BFGL-NGS-20187	0.251	<i>MGAT4C</i>
5	96,563,734	Hapmap28380-BTA-74649	0.245	-
6	18,195,932	ARS-BFGL-NGS-91848	0.262	<i>DKK2</i>
6	31,738,269	Hapmap33117-BTC-032493	0.253	<i>GRID2</i>
6	31,761,997	Hapmap30962-BTC-032558	0.248	<i>GRID2</i>
6	39,437,165	Hapmap33744-BTC-050901	0.245	-
6	39,573,948	BTB-00252917	0.275	-
6	39,667,998	BTB-00406718	0.273	-
6	46,364,510	ARS-BFGL-NGS-31387	0.271	<i>STIM2</i>
6	47,983,800	Hapmap52342-rs29016265	0.254	<i>STIM2</i>
6	70,387,975	Hapmap32219-BTC-042322	0.249	-
6	90,103,125	BTA-86242-no-rs	0.248	-
6	109,282,605	Hapmap32834-BTA-149103	0.255	-
8	111,318,888	ARS-BFGL-NGS-89567	0.258	-
11	27,312,691	Hapmap23233-BTA-88497	0.257	-
13	22,505,137	Hapmap35027-BES1_Contig330_454	0.284	-
14	4,534,257	Hapmap30091-BTC-005211	0.244	<i>FAM135B</i>
14	48,435,848	ARS-BFGL-NGS-70879	0.253	-
17	47,697,987	Hapmap38389-BTA-17091	0.284	<i>TMEM132D</i>
17	47,740,843	Hapmap42713-BTA-87646	0.283	<i>TMEM132D</i>
18	41,475,285	Hapmap42198-BTA-39980	0.246	-
18	54,783,476	ARS-BFGL-NGS-70161	0.246	-
20	5,665,364	BTB-01104222	0.295	<i>CPEB4</i>
20	70,694,677	ARS-BFGL-NGS-98971	0.255	-
22	11,818,533	ARS-BFGL-NGS-24627	0.252	<i>XYLB</i>
22	32,711,432	Hapmap51256-BTA-54100	0.282	<i>FAM19A4</i>
27	43,602,071	Hapmap47470-BTA-101224	0.268	<i>ZNF385D</i>
28	17,475,241	BTA-63612-no-rs	0.286	-
28	42,481,492	ARS-BFGL-NGS-81842	0.259	<i>PTPN20</i>
29	13,770,679	BTB-01423078	0.247	-

Table 4. List of genomic regions of extended homozygosity (ROHs islands) identified in original (ORBR and BRHV) (group 1) and modern (BRSW and ITBR) (group 2) Brown cattle populations.

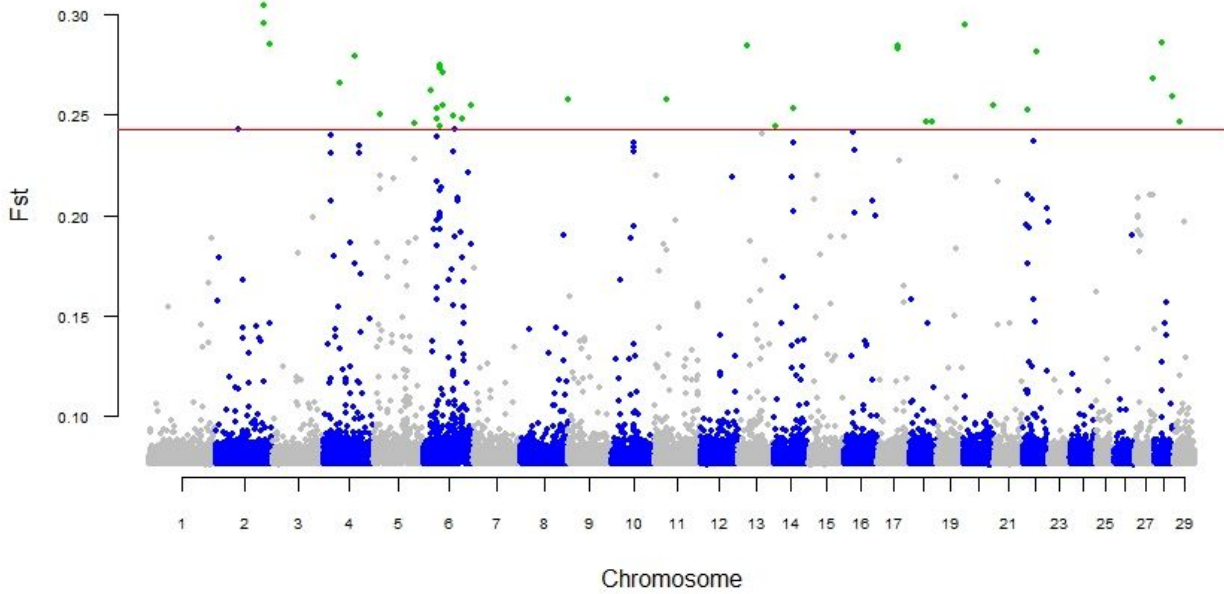
Group	BTA	n of SNPs	n of Genes	Start bp	End bp	Length (Mb)	Genes
1	11	68	59	65,681,864	71,263,018	5.58	<i>ETAA1, LOC101904865, CID, WDR92, PNO1, PPP3R1, CNRIP1, LOC104973409, PLEK, FBXO48, APLF, PROKR1, ARHGAP25, BMP10, LOC509961, LOC104973410, GKN2, GKN1, ANTXR1, GFPT1, NFUI, AAK1, LOC787229, LOC104973411, ANXA4, GMCL1, SNRNP27, MXD1, ASPRV1, LOC104973412, LOC101905499, PCBP1, LOC107132938, C11H2orf42, TIA1, PCYOX1, LOC107132939, SNRPG, EHD3, CAPN14, GALNT14, CAPN13, LCLAT1, LOC101905676, LBH, YPEL5, LOC101905873, LOC104968430, ALK, CLIP4, C11H2orf71, FAM179A, LOC107132940, WDR43, TRMT61B, SPDYA, PPP1CB, PLB1</i>
	26	17	36	21,539,987	22,954,453	1.41	<i>LOC104975965, PAX2, SLF2, SEMA4G, MRPL43, C26H10orf2, LZTS2, PDZD7, SFXN3, KAZALD1, TLX1, LOC107131879, LBX1, LOC100847491, BTRC, LOC104975969, LOC783067, POLL, DPCD, FBXW4, LOC101908075, FGF8 NPM3, MGEA5, KCNIP2, C26H10orf76, HPS6, LOC104975987, LDB1, PPRC1, NOLC1, LOC101902227, LOC785229, ELOVL3, PITX3, GBF1</i>
2	5	56	43	75,086,818	78,560,464	3.49	<i>CACNG2, IFT27, LOC101906363, LOC101906435, PVALB, LOC107132513, NCF4, CSF2RB, LOC788541, TEX33, TST, MPST, KCTD17, TMPRSS6, IL2RB, LOC510185, CIQTNF6, SSTR3, RAC2, MIR1835, CYTH4, LOC107132508, ELFN2, LOC107132514, MFNG, CARD10, USP18, ALG10, SYT10, LOC107132509, PKP2, YARS2, DNML, LOC101907810, FGD4, BICD1, LOC782092, KIAA1551, LOC100137780, LOC104972515, AMNI, ETFBKMT, DENND5B</i>
	5	9	3	79,334,574	80,235,852	0.90	<i>TMTCI, LOC518980, ERGIC2</i>
	6	21	7	86,399,795	87,818,793	1.42	<i>LOC112447099, SLC4A4, LOC782958, GC, NPFFR2, ADAMTS3, TRNAC-GCA</i>

511 **Figures**

512 **Figure 1** Principal components analysis for the genetic differentiation among the four Brown cattle
513 breeds. Original Braunvieh = ORBR; Braunvieh = BRHV; Brown Swiss = BRSW; Italian Brown =
514 ITBR.

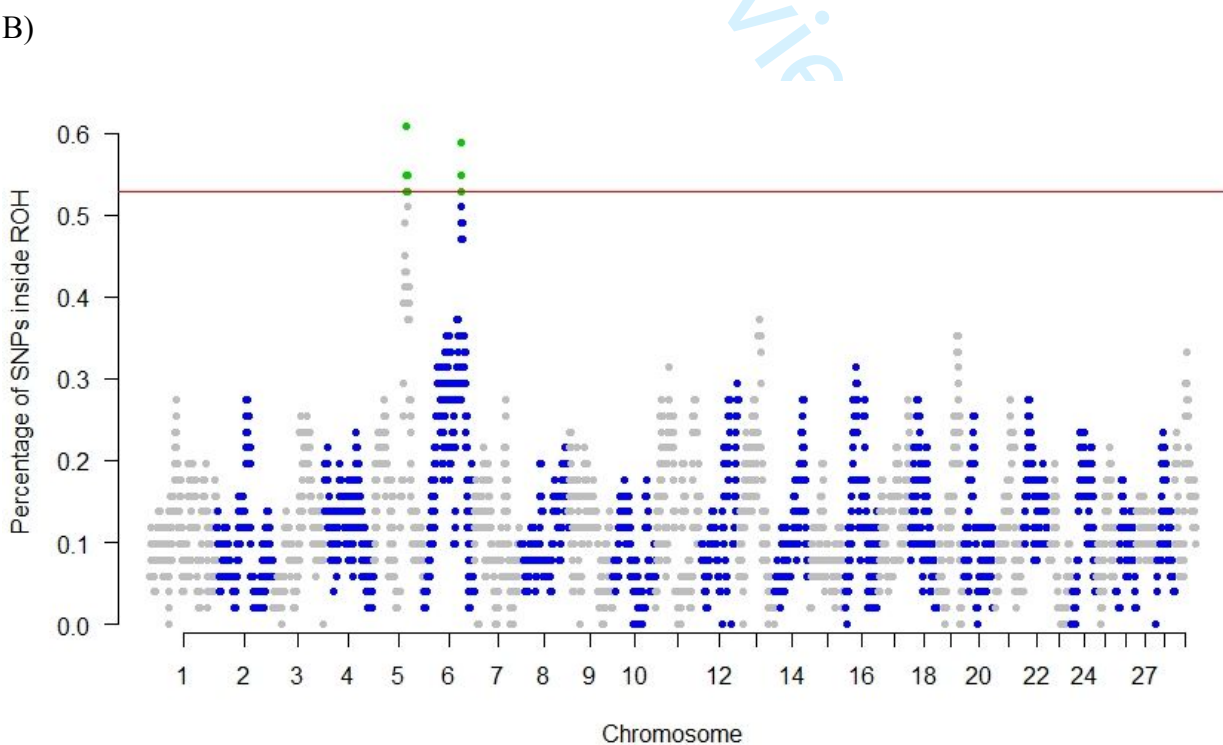
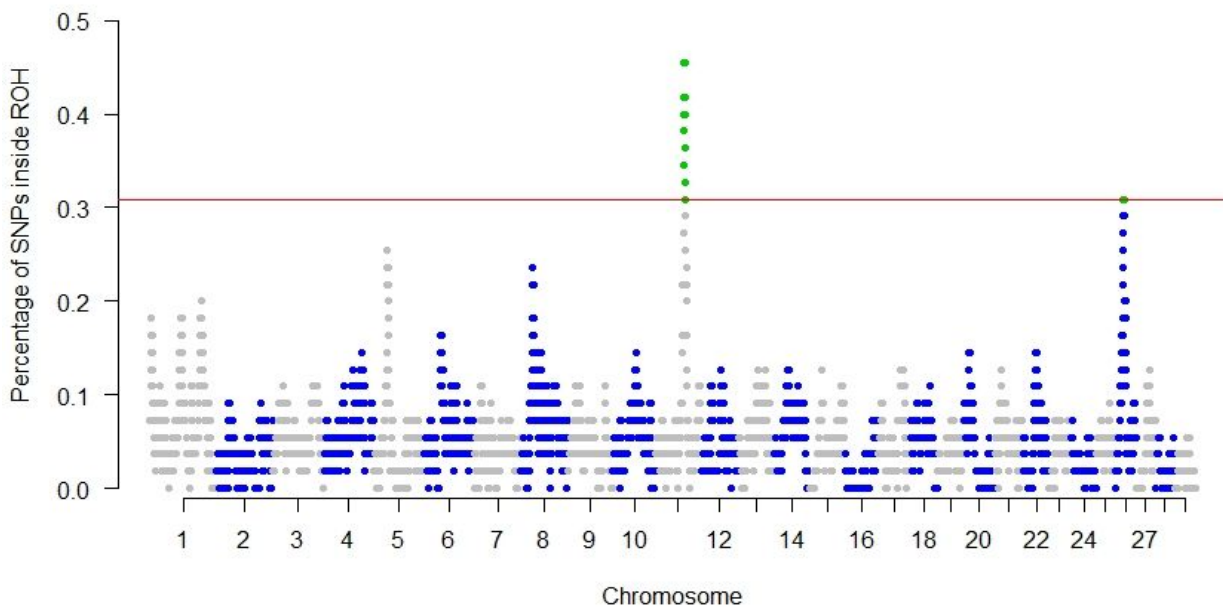


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2
3 517 **Figure 2** Manhattan plot of the pairwise genome-wide autosomal F_{ST} analysis generated by
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5 518 BayeScan between group 1 (ORBR/BRHV) and group 2 (BRSW/ITBR). The red line indicates the
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8 519 threshold of F_{ST} value (0.243) corresponding to 0.999 of the F_{ST} percentile distribution.
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3 523 **Figure 3** Manhattan plots of regions of homozygosity for (A) the group 1 (ORBR/BRHV) and (B)
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5 524 the group 2 (BRSW/ITBR). Thresholds used to detect high-homozygosity regions are indicated with
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8 525 a red line.

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530 **Supporting information**

531 **Figure S1** Neighbor-Joining tree relating all the individuals. The tree was constructed using allele-
532 sharing distances.

533 **Figure S2** Box plots of the distribution of ROH into five classes of length (1 to ≤ 2 Mb, 2 to ≤ 4 Mb,
534 4 to ≤ 8 Mb, 8 to ≤ 16 Mb and >16 Mb) for the two Brown cattle groups.

535 **Table S1.** Genetic differentiation among the four Brown cattle breeds measured using F_{ST}

536 **Table S2.** Descriptive statistics of the number and the frequency distribution of runs of
537 homozygosity (ROH) in five different size classes (Mb) for the two Brown cattle groups.

538 **Table S3.** Comparison among overlapped runs of homozygosity (ROHs) islands here detected and
539 those reported in previous studies.

540 **Table S4.** Gene ontology (GO) terms enriched ($P < 0.05$) based on runs of homozygosity islands and
541 number of involved genes (n) in the two Brown cattle groups.

542 **Table S5.** Bovine QTL mapped within the ROHs islands identified within the two Brown cattle
543 groups.

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3 1 **Identification of genomic regions involved in the phenotypic differences between original and**
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5 2 **modern Brown populations**
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12 5 S. Mastrangelo^{1*}
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20 **Summary**

21 Identifying genomic regions involved in the differences between breeds can provide information on
22 genes that are under the influence of both artificial and natural selection. The aim of this study was
23 to identify genomic regions involved in phenotypic differentiation among four different Brown
24 populations (original vs modern) and to characterize the distribution of runs of homozygosity
25 (ROHs) islands using the Illumina Bovine SNP50 BeadChip genotyping data. After quality control,
26 34,735 SNPs and 106 animals were retained for the analyses. **Larger heterogeneity was highlighted**
27 **for the original breeds. Patterns of genetic differentiation, multidimensional scaling, and the**
28 **neighboring joining tree** distinguished the modern breeds from the original populations. **The F_{ST} -**
29 **outlier identified several genes involved in many phenotypic differences between the two groups,**
30 **such as stature and growth, behavior and adaptability to local environments.** The ROH islands
31 within both the original and the modern groups overlapped with QTL associated with relevant traits.
32 In modern Brown, ROH islands harbored candidate genes associated with milk production traits, in
33 evident agreement with the artificial selection conducted to improve this trait in these populations.
34 In original Brown, we identified candidate genes related with fat deposition, confirming that
35 breeding strategies for the original Brown populations aimed to produce dual-purpose animals. Our
36 study highlighted the presence of several genomic regions which vary between Brown populations,
37 in line with their different breeding histories.

38
39 **Keywords** Brown cattle, **genetic diversity**, F_{ST} , runs of homozygosity, candidate genes

41 **Introduction**

42 In cattle, natural and artificial selection has resulted in divergent breeds. In fact, the continuously
43 increasing demand for work, milk and meat has enhanced between-population differences over the
44 centuries (Zhao *et al.*, 2015). An interesting situation regarding this divergence among populations
45 is represented by the Brown cattle. The Brown cattle is derived from populations used in valleys

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3 46 and mountain slopes of Switzerland since before historic records began. One theory says that this
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5 47 breed goes back to oriental origins, having been introduced into Central Europe from the steppes
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7 48 and valleys of Western Asia. Moreover, cattle bones found in the ruins of the Swiss Lake Dwellers
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10 49 indicate that a type of cattle, apparently closely related to actual Brown cattle, existed during the
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12 50 Bronze Age in Switzerland (Del Bo *et al.*, 2002). Nowadays, the Brown cattle reared in Europe can
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14 51 be grouped into three different populations: the Original Braunvieh, the Braunvieh, and the Brown
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16 52 Swiss (Hagger, 2005). The Original Braunvieh is a dual-purpose cattle breed reared in Switzerland
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18 53 and it represents the original population of Brown cattle (Bhati *et al.*, 2020). This population is
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20 54 ancestral to the Brown Swiss; in fact, few individuals of the Original Braunvieh (about 170)
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22 55 originating from the mountain tops of Northeast Switzerland had been imported in the USA during
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24 56 the end of the 19th century giving rise to the current Brown Swiss, which is today one of the most
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26 57 widespread dairy breed in the world (Yoder & Lush 1937). Between 1967 and 1998, a
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28 58 crossbreeding between Original Braunvieh and the American Brown Swiss was conducted through
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30 59 artificial insemination, leading to the current Braunvieh population; this is mainly spread over the
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32 60 Alpine regions of Austria, Germany, Italy, and Switzerland.
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34 61 Genetic drift, geographical barriers, different environments, and local management practices have
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36 62 affected the divergences among the original and modern Brown populations. Moreover, natural
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38 63 selection and modern breeding approaches, while acting on adaptation, morphological and
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40 64 production traits, also contributed to shape the genetic structure of these populations.
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42 65 The availability of single nucleotide polymorphism (SNP) panels, consisting of thousands of
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44 66 markers, has greatly improved the power of genome-wide studies for a deep investigation of genetic
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46 67 diversity between and within population(s), allowing the identification of highly differentiated
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48 68 genomic regions between cattle breeds (Flori *et al.*, 2009; Qanbari *et al.*, 2011; Signer-Hasler *et al.*,
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50 69 2017; Mastrangelo *et al.*, 2018a). The analytical approach, using the allele frequency-based inter-
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52 70 population genetic differentiation (F_{ST}) and intra-population runs of homozygosity (ROHs), has
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54 71 been recently applied in several livestock species for the identification of genomic regions involved

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3 72 in phenotypic differences (Cesarani *et al.*, 2018; Onzima *et al.*, 2018; Elbeltagy *et al.*, 2019;
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5 73 Hulsegge *et al.*, 2019; Szmatoła *et al.*, 2019). Finding links between phenotypic and genotypic
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7 74 differences is of great importance in order to gain a better understanding of genetic mechanisms
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10 75 underpinning traits of interest, and it offers the opportunity to improve the efficiency of animal
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12 76 breeding through directed selection on favorable alleles (Rothhammer *et al.*, 2013). Therefore, the
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14 77 objective of the present study was to identify differentiated genomic regions among the Brown
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16 78 populations (original *vs* modern) and to characterize the distribution of runs of homozygosity
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18 79 islands using the Illumina Bovine SNP50 BeadChip genotyping data, which may provide insights
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20 80 into the mechanisms underlying their genomic differences. We also checked if the genomic regions
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22 81 that were most associated with ROHs overlapped with reported quantitative traits loci (QTL).
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28 83 **Materials and methods**

31 84 *Sampling, genotyping and quality control*

34 85 Overall, 106 animals belonging to four different Brown cattle populations were used: Original
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36 86 Braunvieh (ORBR), Braunvieh (BRHV), Brown Swiss (BRSW) and Italian Brown (ITBR).

38 87 *These breeds present differences in both phenotypic and production traits. For example, in the*
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40 88 *ORBR, selection breeding schemes are almost absent, whereas the Brown Swiss is the second*
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42 89 *largest producer of milk after the Holstein breed. Nevertheless, the original populations, such as the*
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44 90 *BRHV, are adapted to the harshness of mountain areas because of their good grazing*
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46 91 *characteristics, and are resistant to environmental conditions. These populations shows also a*
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48 92 *smaller body size compared to selected breeds.*

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53 93 Detailed information about the breeds, the samples and the grouping into original and modern cattle
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55 94 are reported in Table 1. All individuals were genotyped using the Bovine SNP50K BeadChip. SNPs
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57 95 were mapped using the *Bos taurus* ARS-UCD1.2 genome assembly. The markers were filtered
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60 96 using PLINK 1.07 (Purcell *et al.*, 2007) and considering only SNPs mapped in autosomal

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3 97 chromosomes. SNPs with a minor allele frequency (MAF) lower than 0.01 and call rate lower than
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5 98 95%, as well as individuals with missing genotyping rate lower than 90%, were removed.
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8 99 *Comparison of breeds*

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11 100 Pairwise genetic relationships were estimated to evaluate population substructure using identity-by-
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13 101 state (IBS) genetic distances calculated by PLINK 1.07 (Purcell *et al.*, 2007) and graphically
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15 102 represented by multidimensional scaling (MDS). PLINK was also used to estimate observed (H_o)
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17 and expected (H_e) heterozygosity, and the genomic inbreeding, which is based on the difference
18 103 between the observed and expected numbers of homozygous genotypes (F_{HOM}). The ARLEQUIN
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20 104 version 3.5.2.2 (Excoffier & Lischer, 2010) was used to estimate population relatedness using
21
22 105 pairwise estimates of F_{ST} among all four breeds. A neighbor-joining tree was constructed based on
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24 106 individual allele-sharing distances (--distance 1-IBS in PLINK) and visualized using SPLITSTREE
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26 107 (Huson & Bryant, 2006).
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31 109 *F_{ST} -outlier analysis*

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35 110 The F_{ST} -outlier approach implemented in the BayeScan software (Foll, 2012) was adopted to
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37 111 identify loci involved in the differentiation between the considered groups. BayeScan analyses
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39 112 comprised 20 pilot runs of 5,000 iterations, a burn-in of 50,000 iterations, a thinning interval of 10
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41 (5,000 iterations were used for the estimation of posterior odds) with a resulting total number of
42 113 100,000 iterations. To control the number of false positives, significant markers were defined by
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44 114 applying a q -value threshold of 0.05 and using the 0.999 SNPs of F_{ST} percentile distribution.
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49 116 *Runs of homozygosity islands*

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52 117 Runs of homozygosity (ROHs) were estimated for each sample using PLINK 1.07 (Purcell *et al.*,
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54 118 2007). The minimum length that constituted the ROH was set to 1 Mb. The following criteria were
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56 119 used to define the ROHs: (i) one missing SNP was allowed in the ROH and up to one possible
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58 heterozygous genotype; (ii) the minimum number of consecutive SNPs that constituted the ROH
59 120 was set to 30; (iii) minimum density of 1 SNP every 100 kb; (iv) maximum gap between
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3 122 consecutive SNPs of 1 Mb. The average length of ROH (L_{ROH}) was estimated. ROH were grouped
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5 123 into five classes of length (1 to ≤ 2 Mb, 2 to ≤ 4 Mb, 4 to ≤ 8 Mb, 8 to ≤ 16 Mb and >16 Mb) (Marras
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8 124 *et al.*, 2014). The number and frequency of ROH within each ROH length category for the two
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10 125 groups were also determined. The percentage of SNPs residing within the ROH was estimated by
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12 126 counting the number of times that each SNP appeared in a ROH and by dividing that number by the
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15 127 number of animals in each group. To identify the genomic regions of “high homozygosity”, also
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17 128 called ROHs islands, the top 0.999 SNPs of the percentile distribution of the locus homozygosity
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19 129 range within each group were selected.

22 130 *Gene ontology enrichment*

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25 131 Genomic regions detected by the two statistical approaches were interrogated for genes annotated to
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27 132 the *Bos taurus* genome assembly ARS-UCD1.2 using Genome Data Viewer
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29 133 (https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/genome/gdv/browser/genome/?id=GCF_002263795.1) provided by
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32 134 NCBI.

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34 135 The genes within ROH islands were further analyzed with the PANTHER Classification System
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36 136 (Mi *et al.*, 2013) to identify significant ($P \leq 0.05$) gene ontology (GO) terms. Moreover, to
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39 137 investigate the biological function of the annotated genes, an accurate literature search was also
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41 138 conducted.

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43 139 Finally, using “JBrowse” (Buels *et al.*, 2016), an open source JavaScript-based genome browser,
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45 140 available on National Animal Genome Research Program
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48 141 (<https://www.animalgenome.org/jbrowse/>), we checked if the genomic regions of high
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50 142 homozygosity overlapped with reported quantitative traits loci (QTL).

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54 144 **Results**

57 145 *Comparison of breeds*

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3 146 After quality control, 34,735 SNPs and 106 animals were retained for the analyses. Genetic
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5 147 diversity indices (H_o and H_e) and inbreeding coefficient (F_{HOM}), which are key parameters in the
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8 148 genetic management of populations, were used to determine the levels of genetic variability in the
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10 149 four Brown breeds. The original populations (ORBR and BRHV) displayed the highest genetic
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12 150 diversity, whereas the lowest value was found in modern populations (BRSW and ITBR) (Table 2).

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15 151 To examine and visualize the genetic relationships among the four Brown cattle populations, we
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17 152 used an MDS plot of the pairwise identity-by-state distance (Figure 1). The results showed that the
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19 153 populations formed two different clusters. The first dimension (C1) separated BRSW and ITBR
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21 154 from ORBR and BRHV. In agreement with MDS results, the neighbor joining (NJ) tree based on
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24 155 allele sharing distance (ASD) separated individuals according to their population of origin (Fig. S1).
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26 156 Genetic differentiation between all pairs of populations estimated by F_{ST} statistics are also reported
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28 157 in Table S1, and substantially confirms results from MDS and NJ tree. In particular, F_{ST} was low
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31 158 between BRSW and ITBR (0.006) or between ORBR and BRHV (0.016).

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33 159 All these results were used to categorize the four Brown populations into two contrasting groups for
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35 160 comparative analysis: original (ORBR and BRHV) *versus* modern (BRSW and ITBR) cattle.

38 161 F_{ST} analysis

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41 162 Results from the Bayesian population differentiation approach identified a total of 35 outlier SNPs
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43 163 between ORBR-BRHV and BRSW-ITBR (Table 3). These SNPs were identified on 15 different
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45 164 chromosomes (BTA). Most of these markers were located far apart from each other. Manhattan
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48 165 plots of F_{ST} values are reported in Figure 2. The locus with the highest value (0.305) was ARS-
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50 166 BFGL-NGS-40251 on BTA02. Only three outlier genomic regions showed adjacent SNPs on
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52 167 BTA02, BTA06, BTA17, in which *NYAP2*, *GRID2* and *TMEM132D* are mapped, respectively
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55 168 (Table 3). Among the outlier SNPs, 11 markers (31%) were located on BTA6. A total of 17 markers
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57 169 that exceeded the significance threshold were mapped within 14 protein-coding genes.

60 170 *Runs of homozygosity*

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3 171 The total number of detected ROHs exhibited variation between groups, with the modern group
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5 172 having the highest value (1,725). Moreover, the modern Brown group had also the highest average
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8 173 length of ROHs (8.54 Mb vs 7.17 Mb). The frequency and the distribution of the number of ROHs
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10 174 in the different classes was similar (Table S2 and Fig. S2). The most represented ROH classes in
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12 175 both groups was that of length ranging from 4 to ≤ 8 Mb, representing 48% and 44% in original and
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15 176 modern groups, respectively. The largest number of ROH in the class of highest length (>16 Mb)
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17 177 was observed in modern (BRSW and ITBR) cattle (Fig. S2). To identify the genomic regions that
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19 178 were most associated with ROHs, the top 0.999 SNPs of the percentile distribution of the locus
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22 179 homozygosity range were chosen as an indicator of a possible ROH hotspot in the genome. The
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24 180 analysis was carried out within the same two groups of the pairwise comparison reported above for
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26 181 the F_{ST} -outlier approach. Table 4 provides the chromosome position, the start and the end of ROH
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29 182 regions and the relative genes list. Although the distribution of the ROHs was relatively balanced
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31 183 and the signals were moderate in height, we found a few outstanding peaks with a high occurrence
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33 184 of ROHs (Figure 3). In total, five genomic regions that frequently appeared in the ROHs were
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35 185 identified in the two Brown groups (Table 4). The ROHs islands were found on BTA11 and BTA26
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38 186 in the ORBR/BRHV group (Figure 3A), and on BTA05 and BTA06 in the BRSW/ITBR group
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40 187 (Figure 3B), ranging in length from 0.90 Mb (BRSW/ITBR; 9 consecutive SNPs on BTA05) to
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42 188 5.58 Mb (ORBR/BRHV; 68 consecutive SNPs on BTA11).

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44 189 Within the ROHs islands reported above, we identified several known genes, together with
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47 190 uncharacterized genes (LOC) (Table 4). Some of the detected islands, such as on BTA5 in the
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49 191 modern Brown breeds, contained only three annotated genes. Moreover, some of these genomic
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52 192 regions overlapped with ROHs islands found in other studies (Table S3).

53 193 *Gene ontology enrichment*

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56 194 The results of the GO enrichment analysis (Table S4) showed multiple categories that were
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59 195 statistically significant ($P \leq 0.05$). The genes within ROHs islands encompass a wide spectrum of
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196 molecular functions, biological processes, and cellular components. A PANTHER gene list analysis

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3 197 revealed a high percentage of genes involved in the following categories: cellular process
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5 198 (GO:0009987), catalytic activity (GO:0003824), binding (GO:0005488), metabolic process
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8 199 (GO:0008152), biological regulation (GO:0065007), localization (GO:0051179), response to
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10 200 stimulus (GO:0050896). Finally, we also checked if the ROHs overlapped with previously reported
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12 201 quantitative traits loci (QTL). Overall, the ROHs islands overlap with known QTL regions
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15 202 associated with several traits (Table S5). We identified QTL associated with milk composition and
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17 203 milk fat content, life history traits, energy efficiency association and intramuscular fat. For example,
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19 204 the ROH island in BTA06 overlap with QTL associated with somatic cell score, clinical mastitis,
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22 205 length of productive life and calf size.

23 24 25 206 **Discussion**

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27 207 Identifying genomic regions involved in the differences between breeds can provide information on
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30 208 genes that are under the influence of both artificial and natural selection, and thus, can help the
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32 209 identification of beneficial mutations and underlying biological pathways for economically
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34 210 important traits (Zhao *et al.*, 2015). Notably, the inter-population F_{ST} -outlier test compares the
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37 211 variation of allele frequencies within and between groups, and the locus that shows the largest
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39 212 differences in allele frequencies between populations is assumed to be a signal of selection (Qanbari
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41 213 *et al.*, 2011). Intra-population ROHs analysis has been used to identify regions that have an
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44 214 unfavorable effect on a phenotype when they are in the homozygous state but also to detect
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46 215 associations between traits of economic interest and genes present in these regions (e.g. Zhang *et*
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48 216 *al.*, 2015; Mastrangelo *et al.*, 2018b). In this study, we applied the two above-mentioned genome-
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51 217 scan analytical approaches to identify differentiated genomic regions between original and modern
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53 218 Brown cattle populations and to characterize the distribution of runs of homozygosity islands within
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55 219 these populations.

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57 220 Several studies investigated the genomic diversity and population structure of the Brown
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60 221 populations using either pedigree (Hagger, 2005) or microarray data (Signer-Hasler *et al.*, 2017;

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Senczuk *et al.*, 2020), but to the best of our knowledge, this is the first study on the identification of differentiated genomic regions between original and modern Brown cattle populations.

Patterns of genetic differentiation, multidimensional scaling, and the neighboring joining tree showed a marked divergence between the Brown populations investigated here, and clearly distinguishing the modern breeds from the original populations. Similar patterns were also observed in previous studies (e.g. Del Bo *et al.*, 2011; Signer-Hasler *et al.*, 2017; Senczuk *et al.*, 2020). The observed genetic differentiation among breeds was in accordance with their geographical and historical origins. Moreover, genetic drift and the different selective schemes to which these populations have been subjected could have further contributed to the observed scenario. We also found that modern Brown cattle present lower values of genetic diversity, related with the high selection pressure on these breeds for dairy traits. Moreover, this group showed the highest frequency of ROH > 16 Mb (Fig. S2) as also reported by Cesarani *et al.* (2018), and related to a more recent inbreeding (Mastrangelo *et al.*, 2016). On the other hand, the original populations consists of traditional pure-bred animals and has maintained substantial genetic diversity, due to the use of a relatively high number of natural service sires and relatively weak genetic selection for milk yield (Hagger, 2005).

The genome-wide distribution of pair-wise F_{ST} values was used to identify highly differentiated SNPs between the two groups of Brown cattle considered in this study. In general, the F_{ST} -outlier approach confirmed what already observed based on phenotypic differences between original and modern Brown cattle: the main genetic differences between the two groups lie in morphological traits and adaptability to local environments. Indeed, the results highlighted growth-related candidate genes such as *NYAP2* (Meng *et al.*, 2017), *CACNA2D1* (Hou *et al.*, 2010), *GRID2* (Lee *et al.*, 2012), *STIM2* and *CPEB4* (Mudadu *et al.*, 2016), while the outlier SNP in the BTA28 mapped on *PTPN20*, a candidate gene involved in the genetic determinism of udder conformation in cattle, an important trait under selection in the specialized dairy cattle breeds (Marete *et al.*, 2018). These results are consistent with the knowledge that breeding strategies, for the original Brown

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3 248 populations, aimed to produce dual-purpose animals. Moreover, this comparison identified a gene
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5 249 related with a local adaptation trait, i.e. exposure to UV radiation (*DKK2*) (Pausch *et al.* 2012). In
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8 250 transhumant systems, the animals belonging to the original Brown populations graze at alpine
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10 251 pastures (between 1000 and 2400 m above sea level) during the summer months and return to the
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12 252 stables for the winter months (Bhati *et al.*, 2020). Therefore, genes related with solar radiation are
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15 253 important for these breeds, that are exposed to increased summer solar ultraviolet radiation. In
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17 254 addition, on BTA17, *TMEM132D* was retrieved, a gene involved in behavioral traits such as
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19 255 reduced fear in humans and aggressiveness, consequently to human-driven selection (Qanbari *et al.*,
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21 256 2014; Vallée *et al.*, 2016). All the above genes may very well explain some of the phenotypic
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24 257 difference between the two Brown groups. In our study, the genetic differentiation analysis between
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26 258 groups did not detect SNPs located in genomic regions known to contain genes associated with milk
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28 259 production traits, probably because under selection within both groups, even if with different
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31 260 selection pressure. Consistently with our results, Signer-Hasler *et al.* (2017), in a study on selection
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33 261 signatures with the same SNP array, which also involved original and modern Brown populations,
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35 262 reported that potential candidate genes based on phenotypic evidence, such as *DGATI* or casein
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38 263 clusters, have not left any recognizable signal in these populations. The authors interpreted they
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40 264 results as the consequence of a low SNP density of the adopted SNP array in these regions.

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42 265 As mentioned above, another method to identify candidate genomic regions, based on intra-
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44 266 population analysis, is the identification of runs of homozygosity islands. Since ROHs are normally
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47 267 abundant in regions under positive selection, their accumulation at specific loci has been used to
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49 268 identify genomic regions that reflect directional selection in livestock species (Mastrangelo *et al.*,
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51 269 2018b; Purfield *et al.*, 2017; Metzger *et al.*, 2015). Moreover, several studies reported the
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54 270 occurrence of ROHs islands within QTLs for important production traits in cattle (Purfield *et al.*
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56 271 2012; Szymatka *et al.*, 2019). In this study, the ROH islands detected in the Brown populations
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58 272 overlapped with reported QTLs associated with relevant traits, such as milk composition and milk
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60 273 fat content, growth, body size, and length of productive life. Since ROH islands spanned many

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3 274 candidate genes displaying several functions, in our analysis of the published literature, we mainly
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5 275 focused on genes related to livestock breeding traits.
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8 276 In the original Brown group (ORBR/BRHV), at the beginning of the island on BTA11, we found
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10 277 the *ETAA1* gene, also reported within a ROH island in Sardo-Bruna cattle (Cesarani *et al.*, 2018), a
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12 278 local Italian Brown-derived population, thus confirming previously reported data. In fact, the
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15 279 overlapping ROHs islands among studies (Table S3) provided good evidence that they are not
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17 280 artifacts, but potential genomic regions affected by selection (Mastrangelo *et al.*, 2018). The island
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19 281 on BTA11 also included some known candidate genes (*CID*, *WDR92*, *PNO1*, *PPP3R1*,
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21 282 *ARHGAP25*) related with fat deposition (Zhang *et al.*, 2019; Sorbolini *et al.*, 2015; Pant *et al.*,
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23 283 2014), associated with high-altitude adaptation (*PPP3R1*) (Wei *et al.*, 2016), involved in immune
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25 284 and inflammatory response (*PLEK*) (Cremonesi *et al.*, 2012) and influencing the expression of
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27 285 flight speed (*ANTXR1*), used as a measure of temperament (Valente *et al.*, 2016). Based on these
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30 286 functions, some of these genes could be related with adaptation to cold climate, a characteristic of
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33 287 the original Brown populations, that commonly display better ability to adapt to harsh environments
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35 288 compared with the specialized modern breeds. These results confirmed the importance of the local
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38 289 populations as reservoirs of biodiversity and as models for studying the genetic basis of adaptability
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40 290 (Cesarani *et al.*, 2018). Moreover, this island on BTA11 identified several candidates genes
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42 291 associated with fertility traits (*EHD3* and *PCBP1*). This may explain, at least partly, why local
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45 292 populations are generally characterized by high longevity. Finally, this island showed genes related
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47 293 with meat quality (*CAPNI4*, *CAPNI3*, *LBH* and *LCLAT1*), as previously reported within a
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49 294 significant selection signature in Original Braunvieh (Bhati *et al.*, 2020; Rothammer *et al.*, 2013;
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51 295 Signer-Hasler *et al.*, 2017) and in line with the dual-purpose characteristics of these animals.
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54 296 Similarly, the ROH island on BTA26, also identified in the Italian Holstein cattle (Gaspa *et al.*,
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56 297 2014), showed genes involved in bovine leg conformation (*BTRC* and *LBXI*) (Van den Berg *et al.*,
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58 298 2014), related with lipid metabolism pathway (*FGF8* and *GBF1*) (Marques *et al.*, 2009; Iso-Touru
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60 299 *et al.*, 2016) and with milk protein and fat traits in cattle (*MGEA5*) (Lin *et al.*, 2019). Moreover, a

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3 300 strong signature of selection (21-23 Mb) was reported in literature on this genomic region in
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5 301 Original Braunvieh (Signer-Hasler *et al.*, 2017). On the other side, in the ROH island on BTA5 of
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8 302 modern Brown, several candidate genes associated with milk production traits in cattle (*CSF2RB*,
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10 303 *NCF4* and *MPST*) (Lopdell *et al.*, 2019; Raven *et al.*, 2015) and in dairy buffaloes (*TMPRSS6*,
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12 304 *CIQTNF6*, *SSTR3*, *RAC2*, *CYTH4*) (De Camargo *et al.*, 2015) are mapped, in evident agreement
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15 305 with the artificial selection conducted to improve this traits in these populations. In the smallest
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17 306 ROH island in BTA5 we detected two genes, *TMTCl* and *ERIC2* associated with the
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19 307 *Mycobacterium avium* spp. *paratuberculosis* infection status (Pant *et al.*, 2010). Finally, of interest
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21 308 is the ROH island on BTA6 between about 86 and 87 Mb, a genomic region known to be
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24 309 functionally associated with traits related with mastitis, the disease that causes the greatest
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26 310 economic losses to the dairy industry worldwide. In fact, within this region, several candidate genes
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28 311 related with this disease, such as *SLC4A4* (Wu *et al.*, 2015), *GC* and *NPFFR2* (Sahana *et al.*, 2014)
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31 312 were retrieved.

36 314 **Conclusion**

39 315 Through the present study, we described some genetic differences between original and modern
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41 316 Brown populations. The different approaches used gave a picture of genetic relationships between
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44 317 original and modern breeds. As expected, larger heterogeneity was highlighted for the original
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46 318 breeds. Our study highlighted the presence of several genomic regions which vary between Brown
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48 319 populations, in line with their different breeding histories, and demonstrating that selection, other
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51 320 than genetic drift, contributed to the genetic differentiation among the original and modern breeds.
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53 321 The modern Brown has undergone the influences of intense artificial selection for milk production,
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55 322 losing some typical characteristics of the original Brown, like the dual purpose attitude, establishing
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58 323 itself as a cosmopolitan breed for milk production. The original Brown maintains dual-purpose
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60 324 attitude, and have genetic characteristics linked to the marginal environments in which they are

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reared and where continues to represent an important genetic resource for breeders. Most of the genes that were detected in our study were consistent with the phenotypic traits of these populations. Several genes and genomic regions here identified corroborate with previously reported studies carried out in other cattle breeds. However, further studies using the high-density array data, an increase in the number of genotyped animals and the collection of phenotypic records would be particularly relevant to refine and validate these results.

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Conflict of interest

There are no known conflicts of interest associated with this publication and there has been no significant financial support for this work that could have influenced its outcome.

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For Peer Review

Table 1. Population type, name and code, number of animals (N), country of origin and source for the genotypic data of the Brown breeds used in the contrasted groups.

Group	Breed	Breed code	N	Country	Data source
1	Original Braunvieh	ORBR	20	Switzerland	Decker <i>et al.</i> , 2014
	Braunvieh	BRHV	35	Switzerland/Germany	Ramljak <i>et al.</i> , 2018
2	Brown Swiss	BRSW	19	Americas	Gautier <i>et al.</i> , 2010
	Italian Brown	ITBR	32	Italy	Mastrangelo <i>et al.</i> , 2018

Table 2. Genetic diversity indices in the four Brown populations: observed (H_o) and expected (H_e) heterozygosity, the genomic inbreeding (F_{HOM}) and standard deviation (SD).

Breed	$H_o \pm SD$	$H_e \pm SD$	$F_{HOM} \pm SD$
ORBR	0.360 ± 0.151	0.353 ± 0.134	0.014 ± 0.018
BRHV	0.359 ± 0.165	0.351 ± 0.137	0.020 ± 0.048
BRWS	0.343 ± 0.179	0.328 ± 0.153	0.055 ± 0.040
ITBR	0.332 ± 0.173	0.323 ± 0.155	0.085 ± 0.035

Table 3. Results of the BayeScan analysis showing outlier SNPs identified between original (ORBR and BRHV) and modern (BRSW and ITBR) Brown cattle populations.

BTA	Pos	SNP name	F_{ST}	Gene
2	113,621,322	ARS-BFGL-NGS-40251	0.305	
2	113,650,536	Hapmap51816-BTA-20000	0.296	<i>NYAP2</i>
2	130,360,932	ARS-BFGL-NGS-43912	0.285	<i>ZBTB40</i>
4	38,606,134	BTB-00178575	0.266	<i>CACNA2D1</i>
4	75,566,919	ARS-BFGL-NGS-2431	0.279	-
5	15,943,853	ARS-BFGL-NGS-20187	0.251	<i>MGAT4C</i>
5	96,563,734	Hapmap28380-BTA-74649	0.245	-
6	18,195,932	ARS-BFGL-NGS-91848	0.262	<i>DKK2</i>
6	31,738,269	Hapmap33117-BTC-032493	0.253	<i>GRID2</i>
6	31,761,997	Hapmap30962-BTC-032558	0.248	<i>GRID2</i>
6	39,437,165	Hapmap33744-BTC-050901	0.245	-
6	39,573,948	BTB-00252917	0.275	-
6	39,667,998	BTB-00406718	0.273	-
6	46,364,510	ARS-BFGL-NGS-31387	0.271	<i>STIM2</i>
6	47,983,800	Hapmap52342-rs29016265	0.254	<i>STIM2</i>
6	70,387,975	Hapmap32219-BTC-042322	0.249	-
6	90,103,125	BTA-86242-no-rs	0.248	-
6	109,282,605	Hapmap32834-BTA-149103	0.255	-
8	111,318,888	ARS-BFGL-NGS-89567	0.258	-
11	27,312,691	Hapmap23233-BTA-88497	0.257	-
13	22,505,137	Hapmap35027-BES1_Contig330_454	0.284	-
14	4,534,257	Hapmap30091-BTC-005211	0.244	<i>FAM135B</i>
14	48,435,848	ARS-BFGL-NGS-70879	0.253	-
17	47,697,987	Hapmap38389-BTA-17091	0.284	<i>TMEM132D</i>
17	47,740,843	Hapmap42713-BTA-87646	0.283	<i>TMEM132D</i>
18	41,475,285	Hapmap42198-BTA-39980	0.246	-
18	54,783,476	ARS-BFGL-NGS-70161	0.246	-
20	5,665,364	BTB-01104222	0.295	<i>CPEB4</i>
20	70,694,677	ARS-BFGL-NGS-98971	0.255	-
22	11,818,533	ARS-BFGL-NGS-24627	0.252	<i>XYLB</i>
22	32,711,432	Hapmap51256-BTA-54100	0.282	<i>FAM19A4</i>
27	43,602,071	Hapmap47470-BTA-101224	0.268	<i>ZNF385D</i>
28	17,475,241	BTA-63612-no-rs	0.286	-
28	42,481,492	ARS-BFGL-NGS-81842	0.259	<i>PTPN20</i>
29	13,770,679	BTB-01423078	0.247	-

Table 4. List of genomic regions of extended homozygosity (ROHs islands) identified in original (ORBR and BRHV) (group 1) and modern (BRSW and ITBR) (group 2) Brown cattle populations.

Group	BTA	n of SNPs	n of Genes	Start bp	End bp	Length (Mb)	Genes
1	11	68	59	65,681,864	71,263,018	5.58	<i>ETAA1, LOC101904865, CID, WDR92, PNO1, PPP3R1, CNRIP1, LOC104973409, PLEK, FBXO48, APLF, PROKR1, ARHGAP25, BMP10, LOC509961, LOC104973410, GKN2, GKN1, ANTXR1, GFPT1, NFUI, AAK1, LOC787229, LOC104973411, ANXA4, GMCL1, SNRNP27, MXD1, ASPRV1, LOC104973412, LOC101905499, PCBP1, LOC107132938, C11H2orf42, TIA1, PCYOX1, LOC107132939, SNRPG, EHD3, CAPN14, GALNT14, CAPN13, LCLAT1, LOC101905676, LBH, YPEL5, LOC101905873, LOC104968430, ALK, CLIP4, C11H2orf71, FAM179A, LOC107132940, WDR43, TRMT61B, SPDYA, PPP1CB, PLB1</i>
	26	17	36	21,539,987	22,954,453	1.41	<i>LOC104975965, PAX2, SLF2, SEMA4G, MRPL43, C26H10orf2, LZTS2, PDZD7, SFXN3, KAZALD1, TLX1, LOC107131879, LBX1, LOC100847491, BTRC, LOC104975969, LOC783067, POLL, DPCD, FBXW4, LOC101908075, FGF8 NPM3, MGEA5, KCNIP2, C26H10orf76, HPS6, LOC104975987, LDB1, PPRC1, NOLC1, LOC101902227, LOC785229, ELOVL3, PITX3, GBFI</i>
2	5	56	43	75,086,818	78,560,464	3.49	<i>CACNG2, IFT27, LOC101906363, LOC101906435, PVALB, LOC107132513, NCF4, CSF2RB, LOC788541, TEX33, TST, MPST, KCTD17, TMPRSS6, IL2RB, LOC510185, CIQTNF6, SSTR3, RAC2, MIR1835, CYTH4, LOC107132508, ELFN2, LOC107132514, MFNG, CARD10, USP18, ALG10, SYT10, LOC107132509, PKP2, YARS2, DNMI1, LOC101907810, FGD4, BICD1, LOC782092, KIAA1551, LOC100137780, LOC104972515, AMN1, ETFBKMT, DENND5B</i>
	5	9	3	79,334,574	80,235,852	0.90	<i>TMTCI, LOC518980, ERGIC2</i>
	6	21	7	86,399,795	87,818,793	1.42	<i>LOC112447099, SLC4A4, LOC782958, GC, NPFFR2, ADAMTS3, TRNAC-GCA</i>

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511 **Figures**

512 **Figure 1** Principal components analysis for the genetic differentiation among the four Brown cattle
513 breeds. Original Braunvieh = ORBR; Braunvieh = BRHV; Brown Swiss = BRSW; Italian Brown =
514 ITBR.

515 **Figure 2** Manhattan plot of the pairwise genome-wide autosomal F_{ST} analysis generated by
516 BayeScan between group 1 (ORBR/BRHV) and group 2 (BRSW/ITBR). The red line indicates the
517 threshold of F_{ST} value (0.243) corresponding to 0.999 of the F_{ST} percentile distribution.

518 **Figure 3** Manhattan plots of regions of homozygosity for (A) the group 1 (ORBR/BRHV) and (B)
519 the group 2 (BRSW/ITBR). Thresholds used to detect high-homozygosity regions are indicated with
520 a red line.

522 **Supporting information**

523 **Figure S1** Neighbor-Joining tree relating all the individuals. The tree was constructed using allele-
524 sharing distances.

525 **Figure S2** Box plots of the distribution of ROH into five classes of length (1 to ≤ 2 Mb, 2 to ≤ 4 Mb,
526 4 to ≤ 8 Mb, 8 to ≤ 16 Mb and >16 Mb) for the two Brown cattle groups.

527 **Table S1.** Genetic differentiation among the four Brown cattle breeds measured using F_{ST}

528 **Table S2.** Descriptive statistics of the number and the frequency distribution of runs of
529 homozygosity (ROH) in five different size classes (Mb) for the two Brown cattle groups.

530 **Table S3.** Comparison among overlapped runs of homozygosity (ROHs) islands here detected and
531 those reported in previous studies.

532 **Table S4.** Gene ontology (GO) terms enriched ($P < 0.05$) based on runs of homozygosity islands and
533 number of involved genes (n) in the two Brown cattle groups.

534 **Table S5.** Bovine QTL mapped within the ROHs islands identified within the two Brown cattle
535 groups.

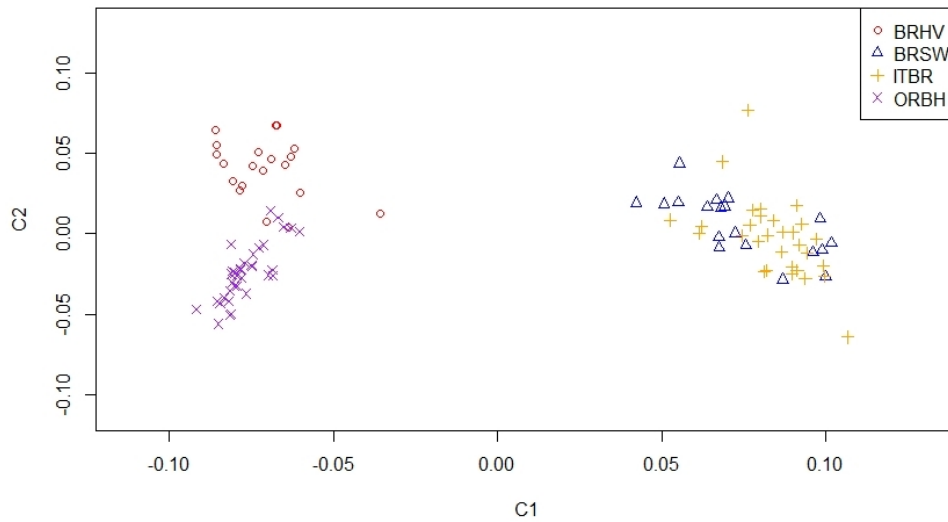


Figure 1

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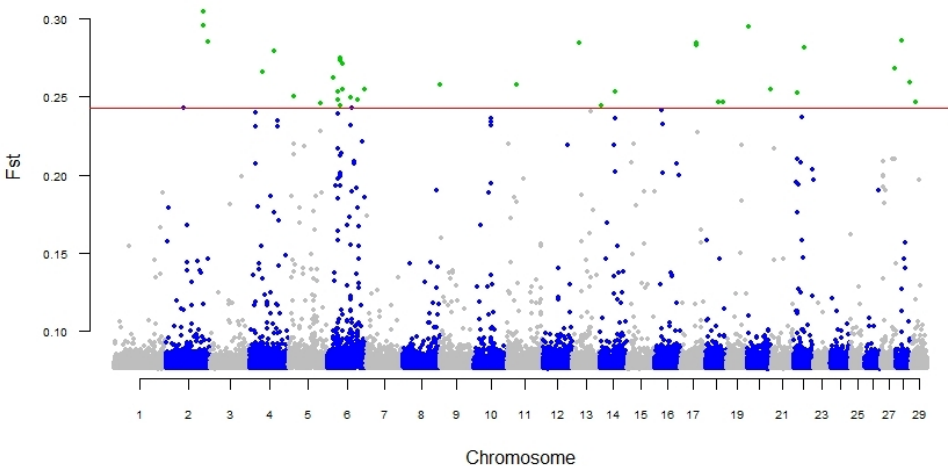


Figure 2

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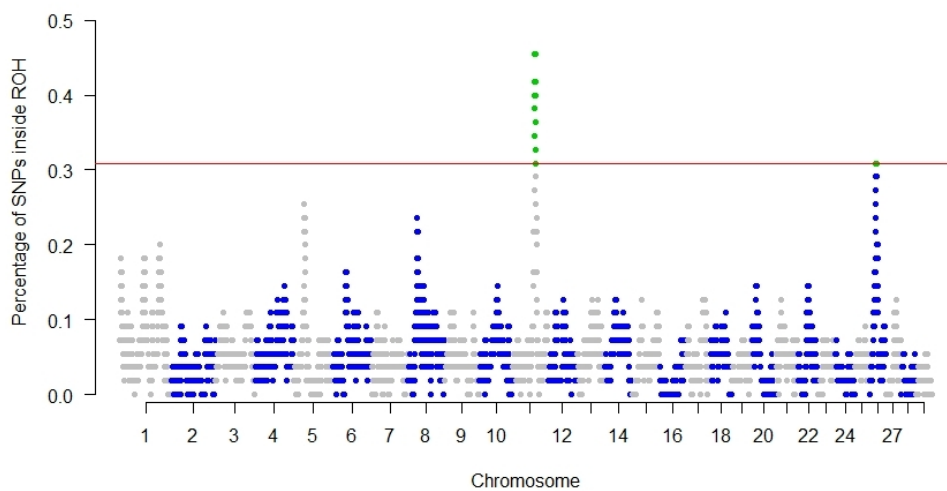


Figure 3 A

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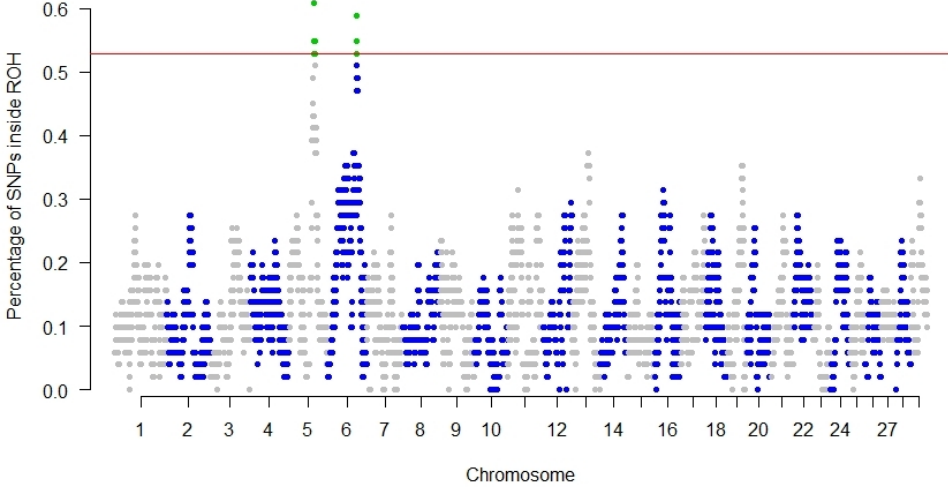


Figure 3 B

229x142mm (96 x 96 DPI)