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The undersigned, appointed by the dean of the Graduate School, have examined the dissertation entitled EVOLUTIONARY RELATIONSHIPS AND SIGNATURES OF SELECTION IN CATTLE ESTABLISHED USING GENOME-WIDE SINGLE NUCLEOTIDE POLYMORPHISMS

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#### Abstract

Although high-throughput single nucleotide polymorphism (SNP) microarray assays were primarily developed for association studies, they are a powerful tool in the study of evolution and population genetics. The applications of SNP genotypes to phylogenomics and population genetics were extended in this dissertation. Using SNP probes designed in a single species, a well-resolved phylogeny of 61 species was produced. Ancestral relationships between cattle breeds were analyzed using parsimony analysis of homozygous genotypes, parsimony analysis of all genotypes, network analysis using $\mathrm{F}_{\text {ST }}$ estimates, principal component analysis, and admixture analysis. A novel method to identify molecular signatures of selection was deployed. In this method, birth date was analyzed as the dependent variable in a mixed model framework to identify SNP loci which predict birth date. It was shown that predictive loci changed in allele frequency much more than theoretically expected due to genetic drift alone; thus, these loci are in linkage disequilibrium with selected casual variants. In addition to identifying loci under artificial selection, loci putatively responding to natural selection were also identified.


## 1. INTRODUCTION: UNDERSTANDING ANCESTRAL RELATIONSHIPS AND GENETIC FORCES IN DOMESTIC CATTLE

Nothing in Evolution Makes Sense Except in Light of Population Genetics.

- Michael Lynch

Lynch's quote, a play on the more famous quote of Dobzhansky, captures the spirit and scope of this dissertation, as macro-evolutionary relationships to familial relationships are analyzed in the presented research. The second chapter of this dissertation describes results from a study applying a population level molecular tool, the Illumina BovineSNP50 BeadChip, to study relationships at the macro-evolution level, the phylogeny of species within the infraorder Pecora. Population genetic forces such as selection, drift, migration and admixture are also considered. In addition to providing background and context, this introduction will discuss why it is important to understand ancestral relationships and the genetic forces which have shaped modern cattle. This understanding is important for two central reasons. First, there is an intrinsic link between cattle domestication and human success. Second, this understanding allows us to predict the genetic architecture of economically valuable phenotypic traits.

One of the concerns when utilizing single nucleotide polymorphism markers (SNPs) in evolutionary studies is the bias introduced by the ascertainment of the SNPs (Clark et al. 2005; Rosenblum and Novembre 2007). In the site frequency spectrum, rare variants should be observed more frequently than are common variants. However,
when commercial SNP genotyping assays are developed, SNPs with larger minor allele frequencies are selected to be included on the assay (Matukumalli et al. 2009). This ascertainment of SNPs causes the site frequency spectrum of genotyped SNPs to become uniform with approximately the same proportion of SNPs in each minor allele frequency class. This nonrandom selection of SNPs leads to biases in genetic analyses including the estimation of genetic parameters such as $\mathrm{F}_{\text {ST }}$ values (Clark et al. 2005). In the phylogenomic analysis of the Pecorans, this bias was avoided by refraining from using analyses which depend on allele frequency estimates. Rather, SNP genotypes were treated as discrete characters and analyzed using a parsimony model. As demonstrated in Chapter 2, this approach proved to be extremely effective leading to a resolved phylogeny with extremely high bootstrap support for almost all branches.

Previous phylogenetic analyses of the Ruminants and Pecorans have yielded unresolved phylogenies (Marcot 2007). Although this is common in phylogenetic analyses (Swenson 2009), the situation was particularly dire for Ruminant systematics. For the rooted relationship between Moschidae, Antilocapridae, Giraffidae, Cervidae, and Bovidae, 11 of the 15 possible phylogenies have been published (Gatesy et al. 1992). Even in recent molecular studies with 3,823 informative characters, many clades, such as Reduncinae, Caprinae, Alcelaphinae, and Antilopinae, remained unresolved. Our analysis was able to resolve these relationships. However, even after the publication of our Pecoran cladogram, questions still remain. Using a different approach, MacEachern et al. proposed different relationships within the Bovini (MacEachern et al. 2009); see Figure 1.1. Among other sources, we point out two
possible causes for this incongruity. First, our data and the data of MacEachern and colleagues were based upon different ascertainment strategies, leading to different possible systematic biases. If there is systematic bias in our data it is most likely to affect the relationship of Bos taurus and Bos indicus to the rest of the Bos genus. Second, our data had many more informative characters, thus the nodes in our cladogram had much greater support than those in the work of MacEachern and colleagues. As Bibi and Vrba aptly point out, although consensus has been reached for many clades, many important genera and species remain unplaced (Bibi and Vrba 2010).

It is likely that increased species and sequence sampling (Wiens 2003; Wiens 1998;

Rokas and Carroll 2005), and improved sequence evolution models (Baurain, Brinkmann, and Philippe 2007) will resolve these issues.


Figure 1.1. Comparison of phylogram from MacEachern et al. on left with cladogram from Decker et al. on right.
Common names are on the left and scientific names on the right. Black lines denote agreement, red lines denote disagreement.

Chapter 2 also highlights the utility of phylogenetic networks in evolutionary and biogeographic studies. In Figure 2.2A one may question the placement of the American Criollo breeds such as Texas Longhorn and Corriente. Likewise, in Figure 2.2B one may question the placement of Jersey cattle. Why are these breeds placed at different locations in the phylogeny when the data are coded differently? The answer lies in the admixed nature of modern cattle populations. Ancestral populations do not generally discretely divide to form new populations; rather, new populations often represent a mixture of multiple ancestral populations. From the previous examples, it is hypothesized that American Criollo cattle received chromosomes from both European and African ancestors and that Jersey cattle received chromosomes from both Iberian and British ancestors. The networks in Figures 2.3 and 2.5 properly place admixed breeds showing their dual ancestry. Though important patterns can be recognized using bifurcating phylogenies, networks provide the most accurate depiction of relationships between admixed populations and hybrid species. It is encouraging that recent work in livestock domestication and population genetics has recognized the utility of networks (Blackburn et al. 2011).

The domestication of plant and animal species enabled the success and growth of human populations (Diamond 2002; Ajmone-Marsan et al. 2010). Contrastingly, domestication events which decreased the genetic diversity among cattle spurred the increase of genetic diversity among humans. To investigate the severity of the bottleneck associated with domestication, researchers have recently used simulations to infer the effective population size $\left(N_{e}\right)$ of animals domesticated in the Fertile Crescent
(Bollongino et al. 2012). Although this research is informative and valuable, these investigators made several questionable assumptions. Most glaring is their assumption of the effective population size of modern cattle. They assumed that the modern cattle $\mathrm{N}_{\mathrm{e}}$ was $1,007,170$ and denote this as $\mathrm{NM}_{\text {ef }}$. They came to this estimate by multiplying the census population counts by 0.806 , the proportion of females in herds, and then they divided this number by 10 for an approximation of the ratio of effective population size to census population size. In Chapter 4, we analyze 3,570 Angus animals and estimate an effective population size of contemporary registered Angus to be 94. In 2011, nearly 300,000 Angus cattle were registered (Anon. 2012). With a 5 year generation interval, there may be more than 1,500,000 living registered Angus cattle in the United States. Similar estimates of $\mathrm{N}_{\mathrm{e}}$ were found by the Bovine HapMap consortium for 18 other breeds (Gibbs et al. 2009). Thus the approximate census to effective population size ratio of 10 to 1 is simply not appropriate for domestic cattle. The 26 modern mitochondrial sequences used in the Bollongino et al. study also came from animals belonging to only 6 breeds. The maximum effective population size of the breeds analyzed in the Bovine HapMap dataset was 228 (Gibbs et al. 2009). By multiplying 228 by 6 breeds, an $\mathrm{NM}_{\text {ef }}$ assumption of 1,368 is approximated for the data set analyzed by Bollongino and colleagues. When Bollongino et al. decreased their assumption from $1,007,170$ to 100,717 their estimated $N D_{\text {ef }}$, the effective size of cattle at the time of domestication, rose from 80 ( $95 \%$ credible interval of 23 to 452) to 128 (95\% credible interval of 44 to 628). Using the analysis published by the Bovine HapMap Consortium, if one assumes that domestication occurred 10,000 years before the
present and the generation interval is 6 years (same assumptions as Bollongino et al., corresponding to 3.22 on the Bovine HapMap Figure 2 x -axis), one would estimate a domestication effective population size of more than 1,500 (Gibbs et al. 2009). The $\mathrm{N}_{\mathrm{e}}$ estimate of 1,500 includes diversity introduced by putative introgressions from wild aurochs in Europe, but the effective population size of animals domesticated in the Fertile Crescent was surely much larger than 80. Additionally, the media confused effective and census population sizes when reporting the Bollongino et al. study. Using the $\mathrm{ND}_{\text {ef }}$ estimate of 80 and reversing the researchers' census size to effective size calculations, we would expect a census size of 992 animals to have been domesticated ( $80 * 10 / 0.806=992$ ). Reporting a census population would be much easier for a lay audience to understand. The study of domestication remains an active and contested research area. As more genetic and archeological data are collected, the domestication of cattle will become better understood, although complete resolution may be intractable.

Identifying relationships between populations and individuals has also become important for functional studies. The development of tools which facilitate populationbased genome-wide association studies has necessitated the identification of population structure for large cohorts. In an ideal setting, except for affected status, controls would match all of the characteristics of cases, such as race, ancestry, sex, and age. But even mild deviations from this ideal setting can cause inflated test statistics (Devlin, Bacanu, and Roeder 2004). Initially, a method referred to as genomic control was developed to account for this inflation (Devlin and Roeder 1999; Bacanu, Devlin,
and Roeder 2000; Devlin, Bacanu, and Roeder 2004). This method requires a set of neutral markers to estimate the inflation of test statistics, denoted as $\lambda$, due to population substructure or cryptic relatedness. Test statistics at all markers are then uniformly adjusted (Price et al. 2006). Another approach to handle population structure is to assign individuals to different clusters (subpopulations) and then test associations within clusters (Pritchard et al. 2000). Initially, identifying clusters was computationally demanding and time consuming, but later implementations such as the computer program ADMIXTURE (Alexander, Novembre, and Lange 2009) reduced this burden. However, identifying the proper number of clusters and handling individuals of mixed ancestry remains a problem for these methods (Price et al. 2006).

If the population structure can be measured or described, the stratification can be fit within the applied statistical model. Geneticists initially used principal component analysis to analyze population allele frequencies to describe population structure (Cavalli-Sforza, Menozzi, and Piazza 1993). Principal component analysis was later applied to the genotypes of individuals and tests for statistical significance of principal components were established (Patterson, Price, and Reich 2006). Significant principal components explicitly describe variation due to population structure for individuals rather than for populations. These principal components are then used to adjust genotypes coded as counts of minor alleles and phenotypes to account for differences in ancestry. This approach removes associations due to confounding population structure; see Figure 1 in Price et al. (2006).

Methods which correct for population stratification generally assume that the sampled individuals are unrelated. This assumption is always violated in many model organisms and agricultural species in which thousands of samples often belong to a single pedigree. In this situation, relationships between all pairs of individuals need to be fit within the statistical model. Building upon the mixed model equations developed by animal breeders decades earlier (Henderson 1963; Quaas and Pollak 1980), statisticians developed two slightly different approaches to account for kinship between samples. Animal breeders were concerned with predicting the genetic merit of individuals and wanted to incorporate DNA markers into the estimation process. It was proposed that dense marker genotypes would be in sufficiently strong linkage disequilibrium with causal variants to predict breeding values for genotyped individuals (Meuwissen, Hayes, and Goddard 2001). In simulations, genomic best linear unbiased prediction (BLUP) and Bayesian methods were found to have the greatest accuracy in predicting genetic merit (Meuwissen, Hayes, and Goddard 2001). This approach soon became known as genomic selection. The development of a high-density genome-wide cattle SNP assay made genomic selection possible (Matukumalli et al. 2009), and in 2008 the first genomic predictions were released (VanRaden et al. 2008). Genomic selection methods treat markers as random effects and predict allele substitution effects (ASEs) at each fit locus. The single locus breeding values of an animal, which are a function of ASEs and allele frequencies, are then summed across all fit loci to estimate the animal's genetic merit. The ASEs at individual loci can be used to map quantitative trait loci; regions containing larger ASEs likely contain causal mutations of large effect.

Unfortunately, because the ASEs are predictions and not parameter estimates, statistical tests of significance are not straightforward (Bolker et al. 2009). However, because all pair-wise relationships are fit in the model, kinship between samples is appropriately modeled.

Rather than predicting the genetic merit of individuals, plant breeders and model organism researchers are interested in identifying the causal genes and mutations underlying the genetic variation in important phenotypes. Thus, SNP effects are usually fit as fixed effects in their mixed model equations, and tests of statistical significance become relatively uncomplicated. Several algorithms, such as TASSELL (Yu et al. 2006), ROADTRIPS (Thornton and McPeek 2010), EMMA (Kang et al. 2008), and EMMAX (Kang et al. 2010), have been implemented to identify genomic regions harboring causal variants while accounting for kinship between genotyped samples.

Mixed model equations have now become more widely used in genome-wide association studies as researchers have realized that most genes have small additive effects. In a news feature (Maher 2008) and a review article (Manolio et al. 2009), authors have made the genomics community aware of the issue coined as "missing heritability." The predicament of "missing heritability" is the inability of markers with statistically significant associations with the analyzed trait to account for a large portion of the trait's heritability. The model trait that revealed this issue is human height. As of 2009, the 40 variants associated with height (which met stringent significance criteria) explained only 5\% of the phenotypic variance (Manolio et al. 2009). However, when researchers fit all SNP genotypes simultaneously in a BLUP additive linear model, 45\% of
the phenotypic variance was explained (Yang et al. 2010), much closer to the 80\% heritability estimated by classical methods and identical by descent haplotype sharing (Manolio et al. 2009; Visscher et al. 2006). It has become clear that much of the genetic variation is not missing, but is due to genes of individually small effect. Thus, we see that classical population genetic theory (Fisher 1918) has been supported by modern genome-wide results (Hill, Goddard, and Visscher 2008).

To handle the issue of small individual additive effects, some researchers have simply lowered the statistical significance threshold required to identify predictive SNPs and have used a Bayesian polygenic framework to model the combined effect of the identified SNPs (Stahl et al. 2012). They found that $65 \%$ of the heritability of rheumatoid arthritis, $83-100 \%$ of the heritability for celiac disease, $80-100 \%$ of the heritability for myocardial infarction and coronary artery disease, and 70-100\% of the heritability for type 2 diabetes could be explained by common SNPs. These heritability estimates were in close agreement with those estimated from genomic linear mixed models. Notably, Stahl et al. also demonstrated that a model with a mixture of common and rare causal variants gave the best fit to the posterior distribution of associated GWAS SNPs, but in this model 536 causal variant loci would be common and 62 causal variant loci would be rare (Stahl et al. 2012). It is important to note that Yang and colleagues and Stahl and colleagues analyzed data sets containing only people of European descent. As has been pointed out, variants that are rare in a species as a whole, can be common within individual populations (Kenny et al. 2012).

What predictions regarding the genetic architecture of economically relevant traits can be made from knowledge of the demographic history of cattle breeds? Of course, genetic architecture varies between traits (Hayes et al. 2010), but population genetic information can be used to predict the genetic architecture of a single trait. For example, population bottlenecks and founder events cause some rare variants in the ancestral population to become common in the new population while many others are lost. Any variants for which the founders are not segregating are lost. Events that have led to decreases in a cattle breed's effective population size, such as domestication, breed formation, and the utilization of artificial insemination, have caused rare variants to either be lost or to increase in frequency. Additionally, new mutations drift to higher frequency or are lost more easily in populations with small effective sizes (Kimura 1983). Animal breeders positively select beneficial mutations causing them to increase in frequency while natural and artificial selection decrease the frequency of detrimental mutations. Furthermore, variants with minor allele frequencies close to 0.5 will have the largest additive genetic variances (Figure 1.2). Conversely, in human populations in which the census and effective population sizes are increasing and selection pressure is decreasing (Lynch 2010), researchers are discovering de novo mutations (i.e., very rare), which putatively cause autism spectrum disorders and epilepsy (Neale et al. 2012; O'Roak et al. 2012; Sanders et al. 2012; Poduri et al. 2012). However, because of drastically different demography, it can be inferred that most of the influential functional variation in production traits within a single cattle breed will be common.


Figure 1.2. Plot of additive genetic variance by allele frequency.
Adapted from (Falconer and Mackay 1996). The additive genetic variance is:

$$
2 p q[a+d(q-p)]^{2}
$$

Here, the additive effect, $a$, is set to 0.05 and the dominance deviation, $d$, is set to 0 .

The reductions in effective population sizes that are due to separate domestication events, breed formation, and artificial insemination have caused breeds to diverge. For the 113 Bos t. taurus and Bos t. indicus breeds sampled in Chapter 4, the $\mathrm{F}_{\text {ST }}$ values used to create the phylograms and networks ranged from 0.005 to 0.540 , with an average of 0.203 . Thus, on average, $20 \%$ of the genetic diversity among individuals is due to the genetic differentiation among cattle breeds (Holsinger and Weir 2009). For some breeds that share very recent ancestry, such as Angus and Red Angus ( $\mathrm{F}_{\text {sT }}=0.034$ ), across-breed genomic predictions may be feasible if both populations are included in the design of the genomic prediction equations. However, in most instances acrossbreed genomic predictions will be problematic. Between Holstein and Jersey, two popular dairy breeds, the $\mathrm{F}_{\mathrm{ST}}$ is 0.157 . Even for Angus and Hereford cattle, which are both British breeds and are typically assumed to be similar, the $F_{\text {ST }}$ value is 0.143 . Thus, about $15 \%$ of the genetic diversity is breed specific for these pairs of breeds. Even though these $\mathrm{F}_{\text {ST }}$ values are biased due to the ascertainment of the SNPs, they reflect the divergence for the data that are used for genomic prediction, because the BovineSNP50 BeadChip is currently the most widely used assay in the design and implementation of genomic selection programs. When prediction equations were trained in Jersey and validated in Holsteins, or vice versa, the predictions had very low accuracies (Hayes, Bowman, Chamberlain, Verbyla, et al. 2009). When a combined reference population was used, accuracies were equivalent to those from the single breed reference populations, even though the reference set was 37\% larger (Hayes, Bowman, Chamberlain, Verbyla, et al. 2009). These results do not bode well for across-
breed genomic predictions within taurine cattle and are even less favorable for acrossbreed genomic predictions among taurine and indicine cattle. However, for variants that segregate in multiple populations, across-breed association studies with dense genotyping will be more effective at identifying regions harboring causal variants, because linkage disequilibrium will extend over shorter distances (Hayes, Bowman, Chamberlain, Verbyla, et al. 2009; Goddard and Hayes 2009; McClure et al. 2012).

Generally, it has been accepted that in cattle most genes are of small effect. Traditional pedigree-based methods for genetic prediction have assumed that genes are of small effect. This assumption is justified by the fact that breeders have successfully used these predictions to substantially change breed means (Hill 2010). Strictly linear genomic BLUP models have been nearly as accurate as nonlinear Bayesian models, providing further support for the conclusion that most genes are of small effect (Hayes, Bowman, Chamberlain, and Goddard 2009). The most effective genomic selection models have fit thousands of SNPs in the prediction equations; if a large number of SNPs are fit then, on average, each must have a small effect (Goddard and Hayes 2009). Furthermore, in addition to the results in Chapter 3, genome-wide scans for causal genes have identified mostly small effects (McClure et al. 2012).

The production of genome-wide SNP microarrays has also fostered the development of statistical methods to identify molecular signatures of selection. Although these methods are quite varied, they can be split into three general classes: those which utilize FsT statistics (Akey et al. 2002; Shriver et al. 2004; Weir et al. 2005), those based on shifts in the site frequency spectrum (Carlson et al. 2005; Kelley et al.
2006), and those which identify haplotype homozygosity (Sabeti et al. 2007; Voight et al. 2006; Wang et al. 2006). Chapter 3 of this dissertation describes a new method to identify selected loci. In this method we analyze birth date as the dependent variable to find SNP markers strongly associated with birth date. Markers strongly associated with birth date have changed in frequency over time and are in linkage disequilibrium with selected causal mutations. Using appropriate statistical models, the method is able to account for population structure and kinship within the sample of genotyped individuals. Selection mapping has a unique property as it identifies genomic regions harboring functional variants even when the selected phenotype is not measured. Thus, selection mapping is complementary to traditional genome-wide association studies of phenotypes.

The research in Chapters 2 and 3 has spawned several questions. To what extent are Iberian cattle admixed between European and African cattle? What is the population structure of cattle in Asia? In 2009, ancient cattle teeth were discovered in the bottom of an old Spanish well in St Augustine, Florida. Are these teeth from ancestors of the modern semi-feral cattle in Florida known as Pineywoods or Florida Crackers? Are the signatures of selection on chromosome 23 observed in Angus cattle common to multiple breeds and are they due to natural selection for disease resistance? Can we identify signatures of selection by performing a genome-wide association study contrasting dairy, dual purpose, and beef cattle breeds? The aims of Chapter 4, where possible, were to answer these questions.

In conclusion, it can be asserted that nothing in bovine genomics makes sense except in the light of population genetics. Sequencing innovations enable the production of a wealth of genomic data, even if some consider this a deluge (Pollack 2011; Editorial 2008). Population genetics will be essential to interpret observations from these genomic data and to identify the processes which produced these observations.

## Publication Outline

The following publications are presented as chapters in this dissertation:
2. Decker, Jared E., J. Chris Pires, Gavin C. Conant, Stephanie D. McKay, Michael P. Heaton, Kefei Chen, Alan Cooper, et al. 2009. "Resolving the evolution of extant and extinct ruminants with high-throughput phylogenomics." Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A 106 (44) (November 3): 18644-18649. doi:10.1073/pnas.0904691106. http://www.pubmedcentral.nih.gov/articlerender.fcgi?artid=2765454\&tool=pmc entrez\&rendertype=abstract.
3. Decker, Jared E., Daniel A. Vasco, Stephanie D. McKay, Matthew C. McClure, Megan M. Rolf, JaeWoo Kim, Sally L. Northcutt, Stewart Bauck, Brent W. Woodward, Robert D. Schnabel, Jeremy F. Taylor. 2012. A novel analytical method detects response of the Angus (Bos taurus) genome to artificial selection on complex traits. BMC Genomics (under review).
4. Decker, Jared E., Kefei Chen, Alan Cooper, Carl Halbirt, Allan Roberts, Stephanie D. McKay, Megan M. Rolf, JaeWoo Kim, Antonio Molina, Tad S. Sonstegard, Olivier Hanotte, Anders Götherström, Christopher M. Seabury, Lisa Praharani, Masroor Ellahi Babar, Mehmet Ali Yildiz, Michael P. Heaton, Wansheng Lui, James M. Reecy, Muhammad Saif-Ur-Rehman, Robert D. Schnabel, Jeremy F. Taylor. 2012. Worldwide patterns of exportation, admixture and selection in domesticated cattle. (Under preparation).

## 2. RESOLVING THE EVOLUTION OF EXTANT AND EXTINCT RUMINANTS WITH HIGH-THROUGHPUT PHYLOGENOMICS

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G.A.W. contributed new reagents/analytic tools; J.E.D., J.C.P., G.C.C., J.C.M., R.B., R.D.S., and J.F.T. analyzed data; and J.E.D. and J.F.T. wrote the paper.


#### Abstract

The Pecorans (higher ruminants) are believed to have rapidly speciated in the MidEocene, resulting in five distinct extant families: Antilocapridae, Giraffidae, Moschidae, Cervidae, and Bovidae. Due to the rapid radiation, the Pecoran phylogeny has proven difficult to resolve, and 11 of the 15 possible rooted phylogenies describing ancestral relationships among the Antilocapridae, Giraffidae, Cervidae, and Bovidae have each been argued as representations of the true phylogeny. Here we demonstrate that a genome-wide single nucleotide polymorphism (SNP) genotyping platform designed for one species can be used to genotype ancient DNA from an extinct species and DNA from species diverged up to 29 million years ago and that the produced genotypes can be used to resolve the phylogeny for this rapidly radiated infraorder. We used a high-throughput assay with 54,693 SNP loci developed for Bos taurus taurus to rapidly genotype 678 individuals representing 61 Pecoran species. We produced a highly resolved phylogeny for this diverse group based upon 40,843 genome-wide SNP, which is five times as many informative characters as have previously been analyzed. We also establish a method to amplify and screen genomic information from extinct species, and place Bison priscus within the Bovidae. The quality of genotype calls and the placement of samples within a well-supported phylogeny may provide an important test for


validating the fidelity and integrity of ancient samples. Finally, we constructed a phylogenomic network to accurately describe the relationships between 48 cattle breeds and facilitate inferences concerning the history of domestication and breed formation.

## Keywords

ancient DNA, Pecorans, domestication

## Introduction

The Pecorans are one of the most diverse groups of mammals, ranging in size from the diminutive duiker (adult weight 9-24 kg, shoulder height $0.45-0.51 \mathrm{~m}$ ) to the giant giraffe (adult weight $500-1,250 \mathrm{~kg}$, shoulder height 4.5-5.8 m). They are indigenous to all continents except South America and Australia (Foss and Prothero 2007) and live in a wide variety of environments. The ruminants are believed to have rapidly radiated in the Mid-Eocene (Foss and Prothero 2007), and due to this rapid radiation, the Pecoran phylogeny has proven difficult to resolve, with 11 of the 15 possible rooted phylogenies describing relationships among the Antilocapridae, Giraffidae, Cervidae, and Bovidae having been argued as representations of the true phylogeny (Gatesy et al. 1992; Marcot 2007). A supermatrix analysis of nucleotide sequence data from 16 genes has resolved some of the nodes within the Pecoran "Tree of Life (Marcot 2007)" and has provided the most strongly supported available phylogeny to which we compare the results of our analyses. However, many of the nodes within this phylogeny either have little support or are completely unresolved
(e.g., the genus Caprinae), and extinct taxa have yet to be phylogenetically placed with confidence (e.g., aurochs). These weakly supported phylogenies have hampered evolutionary studies and conservation efforts for this intriguingly diverse group.

The number and location of prehistoric domestication events for the extinct aurochs (Bos primigenius) has also been controversial (Beja-Pereira et al. 2006; Bradley et al. 1996; Gotherstrom et al. 2005; Loftus et al. 1994; Mannen et al. 2004), and the ancestry of many of the derived modern breeds of cattle is unknown. Genome-wide single nucleotide polymorphism (SNP) data captured using high-throughput assays provide a method to perform rapid genomic surveys and have recently been used to resolve the history of human populations (Li et al. 2008; Jakobsson et al. 2008). However, these studies were restricted to a single species, and the remarkable power of these analyses (with 500,000 informative sites) was not fully captured because population relationships depicted using neighbor-joining trees fail to identify multiple ancestral relationships for historically admixed populations. We report an inter-generic, large-scale phylogenomic analysis which applied a genome-wide SNP assay developed for one species to many distantly related species. We also report the application of a genome-wide SNP assay to capture data for ancient DNA samples.

## Results

Genotype Fidelity. We have genotyped 16,353 animals representing 61 cattle breeds and 70 species, as divergent from Bos taurus as the Savannah elephant (Table 2.S1), with the Illumina BovineSNP50 BeadChip (Van Tassell et al. 2008; Matukumalli et al.
2009) according to Illumina protocols (Steemers et al. 2006). To examine the quality of genotype calls in these outgroup species, we first sequenced the SNP site and flanking regions for rs17871403 in 14 species, with pronghorn the most divergent of the sequenced species (Table 2.S2). This SNP was chosen because it has been well characterized in cattle and is a member of a SNP panel that is widely used for parentage analysis (Heaton et al. 2002). Of the genotypes produced by the BovineSNP50 assay (Illumina) for this SNP in these species, $99.13 \%$ were concordant with the sequence when we allowed for genotype ambiguity (i.e., WW and SS) (see Methods). One of the six genotyped North American mountain goats and one of the eight genotyped caribou had discordant BovineSNP50 and sequence-based genotype calls (Table 2.S2). This analysis of a single SNP across multiple species suggests a genotyping error rate for BovineSNP50 loci of only $0.87 \%$.

We next aligned all 40,843 SNP probe sequences, which are 50 bases in length, to the international sheep genomics consortium (www.sheephapmap.org) genome assembly (available at https://isgcdata.agresearch.co.nz/ and in an annotated form at http://www.livestockgenomics.csiro.au/sheep/oar1.0.php) and found that only 26,098 (63.9\%) could be uniquely aligned, primarily due to the incomplete status of the assembly. Of these SNP, 829 had an unknown base ( $N$ ) identified at the position of the SNP, and for the remaining 25,269 SNPs, there were 308,518 genotypes called in 17 sheep. Genotype calls were in agreement with the genotype predicted from the respective sequence base for 298,311 genotypes (96.7\%). There were 1,834 heterozygous genotypes and 8,373 genotypes that were homozygous for an allele not
predicted by the sequence assembly. This suggests a BovineSNP50 genotyping error rate of between 2.7 and $3.3 \%$ in the outgroup species.

Finally, when minor allele frequencies (MAF) averaged over 40,843 SNPs were plotted against average genotype call rates, samples from outgroup species with the lowest call rates had higher than expected MAF (Fig. 2.4). This appears to be indicative of DNA quality issues since, for example, DNA for the Capra ibex samples was extracted from irradiated blood samples that had been stored under refrigeration for several years. On removing these samples, there was almost no correlation between MAF and call rate (Fig. 2.4). This indicates that as genetic distance from cattle increases and call rate decreases, spurious heterozygote and alternate homozygote genotype calls rarely arise, indicating support for the quality of these data.

Resolution of the Pecoran Phylogeny. Using genotypes for 40,843 SNPs scored with the BovineSNP50 BeadChip (see Methods), we produced a completely bifurcating tree with highly supported nodes for 61 Pecoran species, that contains species that diverged up to 29 million years ago (Fig. 2.1) (Hassanin and Douzery 2003). There were 39,695 parsimony-informative characters using all 678 animals and, remarkably, 21,019 with cattle excluded. Within the Bovidae, only nine nodes had support <100\%. We propose 17 relationships and increase the support for 16 previously proposed nodes within the infraorder, when compared to the supermatrix phylogeny of Marcot (Marcot 2007). A striking observation from the phylogeny is that taxonomic classifications of families and subfamilies mirror the topology of the cladogram, since higher taxa form monophyletic


Figure 2.1 Strict consensus cladogram (no branch lengths) of 17 most parsimonious trees based on 40,843 SNP genotypes.
*, Denotes paraphyletic group.
groups. This is an improvement over earlier phylogenies, as previously questionable groupings are now shown to be monophyletic.

Ancient DNA Samples. Currently, PCR-based and non-PCR-based multiple strand displacement amplification (MDA) approaches are used to perform whole genome amplification (Dean et al. 2002; Iwamoto et al. 2007). MDA requires high-quality DNA over 2 Kbp in length and was found to be inefficient for the ancient bison DNA. Consequently, we used a universal linker-based PCR amplification performed with the GenomePlex Whole Genome Amplification kit (Sigma-Aldrich) to amplify the minute amounts of damaged DNA preserved in bone samples from two ancient Russian Bison priscus specimens and test whether the Illumina iSelect platform could be used to analyze samples derived from extinct species. The first, sample BS662, was collected from permafrost deposits at Alyoshkina Zaimka, Siberia, and is approximately 20,000 years old (Shapiro et al. 2004). The second, ACAD012, was collected from Sur'ya 5 cave in the Ural Mountains and has been accelerator mass spectrometry radiocarbon dated to $34,460 \pm 290$ years BP. Due to the low amounts of DNA from the ancient specimens and the short DNA fragment lengths produced in the whole genome amplification of degraded ancient samples, the genotype call rates for these samples were much lower than for modern bison (Table 2.S1). However, when these ancient samples were included in the Bovini phylogeny (Fig. 2.1), BS662 was basal to the modern Bison bison clade as expected, but ACAD012 fell within the modern Hereford cattle clade. When we sequenced several overlapping fragments that had been individually amplified from the hypervariable mitochondrial control region of sample ACAD012, we identified variability
within the overlapping regions. This is consistent with the sample having been contaminated with modern DNA or being extremely degraded, as also suggested by our genotype data and consequently the sample was removed from the study. A replicate whole genome amplification (library identification KCMUO2) was produced from the $B$. priscus sample used to generate BS662, and when this sample was included in the data set, it was sister to BS662, and both remained sister to modern bison within the phylogeny. However, in the preparation of this library, we avoided the initial DNA fragmentation step within the amplification protocol that appeared to greatly improve the quality and quantity of produced genotypes, as KCMU02 produced a higher genotype call rate ( 54.9 vs. $45.8 \%$ ) and far lower heterozygosity ( 11.5 vs. $39.6 \%$ ) than did BS662 (Table 2.S3). While only $76.1 \%$ of the 12,279 genotypes that were called in both samples were identical, $99.7 \%$ of the homozygous genotypes, the only genotype class that has the potential to be phylogenetically informative (see Methods), were identical between the replicates.

Relationships Among Cattle Breeds. Phylogenetic relationships were also inferred for 48 cattle breeds ( $n=372$ animals) (Table 2.S1) using parsimony, with most nodes being highly supported (bootstrap values >70\%). To accommodate heterozygotes, data were first coded with heterozygotes as polymorphic (noninformative) and then as an independent character state (see Methods). When coded as polymorphic, the topology of the cladogram corresponded to the known geographic origins of breeds (Fig. 2.2A). Interestingly, however, when heterozygotes were coded as distinct characters, the
topology changed and no longer clearly reflected the biogeography of breed origins (Fig. 2.2B).

To further resolve the issue of breed origins, we constructed phylogenetic networks which can reveal conflicting signals in the data (Fig. 2.3 and Fig. 2.5). In Fig. 2.5, Bos taurus indicus and Bos taurus taurus are distinct groups with long edges between the subspecies. Within B. t. taurus, using the Reynolds et al. (Reynolds, Weir, and Cockerham 1983) distance metric and parsimony cladograms (Fig. 2.2), African taurine cattle were inferred to be more divergent from European cattle than are the Asian B. t. taurus breeds, with $100 \%$ bootstrap support in cladograms (Fig. 2.2 and Figs. 2.5 and 2.6). Because SNP were almost exclusively discovered from European B. t. taurus samples (Matukumalli et al. 2009), there is a strong ascertainment bias toward SNP common within European B. t. taurus on the BovineSNP50 BeadChip, leading to severe biases in estimates of genetic distance that have prevented us from accurately dating the nodes separating European, African, and Asian cattle (Figs. 2.6 and 2.7). Furthermore, the data were recalcitrant to correction for ascertainment (see Methods). The network with individuals at node tips (Fig. 2.3) appears to accurately depict the admixed nature of many populations, for example, the relationship of Belgian Blue to Holsteins and Shorthorns, and Jersey to Iberian and British breeds. The network also reveals pedigree relationships, with sire $\mathrm{HOO2O740}$ being an interior node to son HOO20879.

## Discussion

The genotype validation results suggest that BovineSNP50 genotype errors are uncommon, are randomly distributed, and are independent of call rate in the outgroup species. While Ovis aries and B. taurus are not the most distantly related species surveyed in this study (Fig. 2.1), their most recent common ancestor was at the base of


Figure 2.2 Consensus of most parsimonious cladograms of 48 cattle breeds.
(A) Most parsimonious cladogram of 48 cattle breeds with heterozygotes coded as polymorphic. Geographic origins were retrieved from the literature (Porter 1991). (B) Most parsimonious cladogram of 48 cattle breeds with heterozygotes coded as a third and separate character state. Values at nodes are percent bootstrap support from 1,000 pseudoreplicates. Dotted lines connect clades of a breed between the two cladograms. B. t. indicus is represented by the Gir, Sahiwal, Nelore, and Guzerat breeds, with all other breeds being B. t. taurus (Table 2.S1). *, Denotes paraphyletic group.


Figure 2.3 Phylogenetic network depicting common ancestry for 372 animals representing 48 cattle breeds.
the Bovidae clade. The use of $O$. aries as a representative for the other species is supported by its $67.2 \%$ genotype call rate (Table 2.S1), which was similar to ( $\pm 7 \%$ ), or lower than, that for all species and breeds, with the exceptions of Axis deer, Ibex, and Pronghorns, which had call rates <60\%.

Despite large amounts of missing data within outgroup species or for the ancient DNA samples, by constructing a larger initial data matrix, which includes more taxa and data than used in previous analyses (Rokas and Carroll 2005; Wiens 1998; Wiens 2003; Heath et al. 2008), we have produced a highly-resolved phylogeny for a rapidly radiated infraorder, which includes extant and extinct species and in which relationships between and within families have been unresolved. Common ancestry can confound studies of speciation and the evolutionary origins and importance of particular traits; the highly resolved phylogeny presented here can control for this issue by allowing the use of phylogenetically independent contrasts (Felsenstein 1985). Further, it facilitates informed conservation efforts, as both ancestral relationships and diversity are clearly defined (Moritz 1995), allowing the identification of species and populations within species to target for preservation. With small data sets, the estimated bootstrap support values can be biased due to the presence of a strong correlation between the samples. Large data sets, such as reported here, accurately estimate the support for internal nodes, since nearly independent pseudosamples can be generated for the construction of bootstrap trees.

We demonstrate that reliable genotypes can be produced from ancient DNA samples, but that more work is needed to optimize amplification and genotyping
protocols. We suspect that the much higher than expected heterozygosities for these samples are due either to template damage or the nonspecific binding of small, possibly exogenous, DNA fragments to the SNP probes. Despite challenges in library optimization, we placed replicate B. priscus samples as sister to modern bison with strong support and have therefore established the feasibility of high-throughput genotyping of ancient samples. Our results also suggest that the fidelity of the produced genotypes may be assessed by their incorporation into a well-resolved phylogeny and that samples producing unreliable genotypes may be identified and removed from further analysis by this process.

Incongruence between the two breed phylogenies occurred as a result of persistent signatures of admixture, which has been well documented in the histories of several breeds. Thus, the conflicting breed phylogenies oversimplify the complex relationships that exist among populations due to geographic isolation, introgression, migration, and admixture. Networks were effective in revealing both geographic isolation and admixture. There were long branches between B.t.taurus and B.t. indicus, indicating divergence long before domestication. The networks are also consistent with the biogeography of breeds, with European, East Asian, and African taurine cattle forming separate clusters reflecting a predomestication or early postdomestication divergence for these lineages. The West African B. t. taurus N'Dama breed diverges from edges shared with B. t. indicus in Fig. 2.3, and admixture proportions from $0.2-8.6 \%$ with African B. t. indicus have previously been estimated for N'Dama populations (MacHugh et al. 1997). Fig. 2.3 also reveals the biogeographical
history of European cattle, which is based upon migrations out of the Fertile Crescent, with domesticated cattle moved sequentially through Turkey, the Balkans, and Italy (Pellecchia et al. 2007), then radiating through Central Europe and France, and finally into the British Isles (Figs. 2.2 and 2.3 and Figs. 2.5 and 2.6). These data also support a second route to the Iberian peninsula by sea from Africa or the Fertile Crescent leading to subsequent admixture with European cattle (Beja-Pereira et al. 2006), as the Spanish breeds found in the New World are basal to German and French breeds (Figs. 2.2 and 2.3). This pattern of geographic dispersal is interrupted only in a few cases in which breed histories document admixture, such as the Belgian Blue, which was formed between 1840 and 1890 by the crossing of local cattle with Friesian and Shorthorn imported from the Netherlands and England, respectively (Porter 1991) (Fig. 2.3). Fig. 2.3 reveals numerous breed relationships, such as the relationship of the Jersey to both Iberian and British breeds (Porter 1991), indicating that many exportations and crossbreeding experiments were performed by early pastoralists. Importantly, this figure reveals that the history of breed formation in cattle has been complicated and has involved bottlenecks, evolution in isolation, coancestry, migration, and admixture.

In all analyses, African cattle were the earliest diverged taurine cattle. Consequently, our results now confine the domestication debate to two distinct hypotheses: (i) The occurrence of major domestication events in the Fertile Crescent and Indus Valley (Loftus et al. 1994) were followed by minor captures of aurochs in Africa, East Asia, and Europe (Beja-Pereira et al. 2006; Gotherstrom et al. 2005) or (ii) three separate domestication events occurred in the Fertile Crescent, Indus Valley, and

Africa, with a fourth independent domestication in East Asia less likely (Bradley et al. 1996; Mannen et al. 2004).

The largest previous supermatrix analysis of artiodactyls included 3,823 parsimony-informative characters and required several years of data collection (Marcot 2007). We produced 21,019 parsimony-informative characters at a rate of 1,152 samples in 6 days for $\$ 100$ per sample. Where high-density SNP assays are available for sister species, our approach could affordably be applied to the analysis of other orders and families. Such rapid and inexpensive data generation will transform studies of evolution and domestication through the creation of highly resolved phylogenies, including both extant and extinct species. Genome-wide SNP genotyping assays developed for one species can be used for rapid phylogenomic analysis across a broad taxonomic range and are powerful tools for population and evolutionary studies.

## Methods

Whole Genome Amplification of Ancient DNA. Ancient DNA was extracted from fossil bison bone specimens using the standard phenol/chloroform/Amicon Ultra-4 method (Iwamoto et al. 2007). DNA extractions, omniplex library preparations, and PCRs were set-up and performed in a geographically isolated, dedicated ancient DNA facility at the University of Adelaide, Australia. To generate a library of genomic fragments from limited ancient DNA extract, DNA was amplified using the PCR-based GenomePlex Whole Genome Amplification kit (WGA2; Sigma-Aldrich) according to the following protocol: $10 \mu \mathrm{~L}$ DNA were thoroughly mixed with $2 \mu \mathrm{~L}$ library preparation buffer and 1
$\mu \mathrm{L}$ library stabilization solution, and denatured at $95^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ for 2 min . After denaturation, 1 $\mu \mathrm{L}$ library preparation enzyme was added to generate omniplex libraries, followed by a series of incubations at $16^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ for $20 \mathrm{~min}, 24^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ for $20 \mathrm{~min}, 37^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ for 20 min , and $75^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ for 5 min in a thermal cycler (Corbett Life Science). The omniplex libraries were next amplified using a limited number of genomic amplification cycles. PCR amplification was conducted in a $75-\mu \mathrm{L}$ reaction volume containing $14 \mu \mathrm{~L}$ omniplex library, $7.5 \mu \mathrm{~L}$ amplification master mix, $48.5 \mu \mathrm{~L}$ nuclease-free water, and $5 \mu \mathrm{~L}$ WGA DNA polymerase. The PCR amplification conditions were initial denaturation at $95^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ for 3 min , followed by 15 cycles of $94^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ for 15 s and $65^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ for 5 min . GenomePlex-amplified ancient DNA products were finally purified using the GenElute PCR Clean-Up kit (Sigma-Aldrich). Ancient DNA libraries were verified by PCR amplification and sequencing of the hypervariable mtDNA control region before analysis with the BovineSNP50 BeadChip (Illumina). A second amplification, labeled KCMU02, of the sample that produced BS662 was constructed using the same protocol as above, except the genomic fragmentation step within the WGA2 protocol was omitted.

Sample Selection. Table 2.51 shows the numbers of animals genotyped from each species or cattle breed. In taxa or breeds where <10 animals were genotyped, all animals were sampled. If >10 animals were genotyped, animals with the highest genotype call rates and earliest birth dates were selected. When pedigree information was available, closely related animals were avoided, except in Angus and Holstein where 10 old animals (born in the 1950s, 1960s, and 1970s) and 10 recently born animals (born in the late 1990s and 2000s) were selected. When more than 50 animals within a breed
had call rates of at least $98 \%$ and no pedigree information was available, 10 animals were sampled at random. Samples belonging to recently formed crossbred breeds were removed from the analysis, as these samples distort parsimony phylogenies. Genotypes for the two ancient Bison samples were included despite their much lower genotype call rates, which were expected due to DNA degradation and fragmentation, and the use of whole genome amplification, which affect the fidelity of the Infinium assay. The provenance of all samples included in the analyses is provided in Table 2.4.

SNP Selection. The BovineSNP50 BeadChip (Illumina) consists of SNP primarily discovered by the sequencing of reduced representation libraries (Van Tassell et al. 2008), the alignment of random shotgun reads from six cattle breeds to the Hereford assembly, or from the draft assembly of the bovine genome (Matukumalli et al. 2009). To improve genotype quality for B. $t$. indicus and the outgroup species, we manually adjusted genotype call clusters in Illumina BeadStudio to improve genotype calls. Where pedigree information was available, such as in $O$. aries and $B$. bison, the rate of misinheritances was minimized. A set of 40,843 SNP was selected from the 54,693 loci queried by the assay. Loci selected for analysis were all located on autosomes, had a call rate of at least $80 \%$ in 36 (75\%) B. t. taurus breeds, and were not monomorphic in all breeds. This strategy was effective in selecting informative SNP with few genotype errors (Table 2.S5). Data are available at http://animalsciences.missouri.edu/animalgenomics/publications/php.

Genotype Calls in Outgroup Species. Almost 96\% of the beads on the BovineSNP50 BeadChip query Infinium II SNP, in which adenine and thymine share a fluorescent
probe and guanine and cytosine share a different fluorescent probe. For samples in which all four bases are present at a single locus, $A A, A T$, and $T T$ genotypes produce indistinguishable fluorescence intensities, as do $G G, G C$, and $C C$. Thus, $A / T$ or $C / G$ SNP discovered in B. t. taurus were limited in the assay design (1.8 and 2.2\%, respectively, and use Infinium I chemistry). However, in species diverged from B. t. taurus where all four bases could be present, genotypes are $W W$ ( $W$ is the IUPAC code for $A$ or $T$ bases) for one homozygote class, $S S$ ( $S$ is the IUPAC code for $G$ or $C$ bases) for the alternate homozygote, and $N N$ (ambiguous) for the heterozygote class. This ambiguity is evident when sequences and genotypes for outgroup species were compared (Table 2.S2). The $W W$ and $S S$ genotypes were identified in BeadStudio as $A A$ and $B B$ genotype calls.

Phylogenetic Analysis. Most parsimonious trees were inferred from the genotypes using TNT version 1.1 (Goloboff, Farris, and Nixon 2008). In the analyses involving the outgroup species, phylogenetic signal was obtained only from the homozygous genotypes, and $A A$ homozygotes were coded as " 0, ," $B B$ homozygotes were coded as "1," heterozygotes were coded as a polymorphic character state (i.e., "[0,1]"), and missing genotypes were coded as "?." However, in the analyses of the cattle breeds, an additional data set was created in which heterozygotes were identified by a unique character state (i.e., $A A=0, A B=1, B B=2$ ). A heuristic search was conducting using the search technology in TNT, and the search level was initially set to 20 . Specifically, we used the SPR-TBR algorithm followed by random sectorial searches, constrained sectorial searches, exclusive sectorial searches, and 10 rounds of tree-drifting. The complete search was replicated 20 times, with 10 rounds of tree fusing at the conclusion
of these 20 replicates. A subset of the samples from the tribe Bovini was independently analyzed along with the ancient bison samples to validate the quality of the data generated from these ancient samples. A data set with 714 samples from all taxon groups was first used to construct the most parsimonious trees. After excluding samples with low quality DNA, low bootstrap support, and/or nonsensical placement in the cladogram (i.e., elephant and horse as sister to B. taurus), a final data set with 678 samples was used to construct most parsimonious trees. The cladogram was rooted with Antilocapra americana. Using these 678 samples, bootstrap support was calculated using 1,000 pseudoreplicates, and for expediency, the SPR-TBR heuristic search was used.

Allele frequencies were estimated for 40,843 SNP in 22 breeds (Table 2.S6), and these frequencies were used to estimate pairwise Reynolds distances (Reynolds, Weir, and Cockerham 1983) among the breeds (Fig. 2.6). Several attempts were made to correct estimates of genetic distance for SNP ascertainment bias. First, distances were calculated from haplotype frequencies. Haplotypes were inferred for the autosomes of all genotyped animals in our collection within each breed group (Table 2.S6) using fastPhase (Scheet and Stephens 2006). From these haplotyped samples, haplotypes were extracted for the study animals for 885 nonoverlapping loci, each comprising six SNP for which the intermarker distance was <50 Kbp for contiguous SNP. Haplotype frequencies were estimated for each of the 885 loci within each breed group and were used to estimate Reynolds distances between breeds. Next, we formed weighted distances by averaging individual SNP distances weighted according to the frequency of
unascertained SNP (Gibbs et al. 2009) possessing the MAF observed in each of the two populations. Finally, we also subsampled approximately 3,000 or approximately 8,000 SNP such that the resulting MAF distribution conformed to the unascertained distribution of bovine SNP (Gibbs et al. 2009) in Angus or Holstein, respectively. The subsample size was determined by the severity of underrepresentation of SNP within the MAF range 0.005-0.015 and indicates that ascertainment bias was more severe for Angus than for Holstein. Reynolds and Nei genetic distances corrected for sample size (Table 2.S6) were estimated for each subsample and were averaged across 1,000 bootstrap replicates. Distances were used to construct neighbor-joining and UPGMA trees with Phylip (Felsenstein 1989). None of the approaches taken to correct for ascertainment bias were able to establish a tree in which branch lengths were clock-like. Biases in the allele frequency spectrum differ within B. t. taurus breeds (Fig. 2.7) causing the distances between breeds to not be clock-like.

Figures of phylogenies and cladograms were produced in MrEnt3 (A. Zuccon and Zuccon 2008), and phylogenetic networks were constructed using SplitsTree version 4.10 (Huson and Bryant 2006). Distances based upon allele frequencies at 40,843 SNP were used to construct a network of 22 breeds. Due to memory limitations in SplitsTree, genotypes at 14,023 SNP were used to construct a network of 372 individuals belonging to 48 breeds. Default settings in SplitsTree were used to construct the networks.

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## Supplementary Information



Figure 2.4 Plot of genotype call rate ( $\mathrm{CR}_{40,843}$ ) versus average minor allele frequency (MAF) averaged over 40,843 SNP for all animals within each group in the phylogeny. A weak linear relationship exists between call rate and MAF for the outgroup species. However, when the 8 outgroups with higher MAF were excluded (labeled with scientific name), almost no relationship exists between call rate and MAF. The lack of a linear relationship among utilized outgroup species supports our conclusion that genotyping errors are few and random, as SNP are assumed to be predominantly monomorphic in these outgroups. This figure also demonstrates the effects of ascertainment bias, with higher MAF in B. t. taurus than in B. t. indicus breeds.
Fig. S1 in publication.


Figure 2.5 Network of 22 breeds using Reynolds genetic distances (Reynolds, Weir, and Cockerham 1983) estimated from 40,843 SNP for 5,813 animals (Table 2.S5).
Fig. S2 in publication.


Figure 2.6 Neighbor-joining tree for 22 cattle breeds using Reynolds genetic distances (Reynolds, Weir, and Cockerham 1983) estimated from allele frequencies for 40,843 SNP. Bootstrap support was estimated from 1,000 pseudo-replicates and was 100\% except where indicated.
Fig. S3 in publication.


Figure 2.7 Distribution of SNP by MAF illustrates the effects of ascertainment bias.
There is a smaller proportion of low MAF SNP in B. t. taurus breeds compared to B. t. indicus breeds, and there is a higher proportion of high MAF SNP in B. t. taurus breeds compared to B. t. indicus breeds. Furthermore, there is variation among the frequency spectra within B. t. taurus breeds, with Hereford (the sequenced breed) possessing the greatest bias towards high MAF. Trend lines are power functions of the form: SNP proportion $=\alpha \mathrm{MAF}^{\beta}$.
Fig. S4 in publication.

Table 2.1. List of species and cattle breeds showing the number of genotyped individuals, genotype call rate (total genotypes as a percentage of total possible genotypes) for all animals within a group averaged across all 54,693 SNP ( CR $_{54,693}$ ), the number of animals included in the phylogeny, and genotype call rate for all animals included in the phylogeny within a group averaged across the 40,843 analysed SNP (CR $\mathrm{CR}_{4,843}$ ).
The two subspecies of bison, Bison bison (Plains bison) and Bison bison athabascae (Wood bison) were not reciprocally monophyletic and were combined into one Bison bison clade in the phylogeny. Species shaded in grey were excluded from the final phylogeny (see text).

| Family | Subfamily | Scientific Name | Common Name/ Breed | Number Genotyped (\%CR ${ }_{54,693}$ ) | Number in Phylogeny (\%CR ${ }_{40,843}$ ) |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Antilocapridae | Antilocapridae | Antilocapra americana | Pronghorn | 8 (56.2) | 8 (57.3) |
| Bovidae | Aepycerotinae | Aepyceros melampus | Impala | 6 (67.8) | 5 (69.5) |
| Bovidae | Alcelaphinae | Alcelaphus buselaphus jacksoni | Jackson's hartebeest | 3 (70.8) | 3 (72.2) |
| Bovidae | Alcelaphinae | Alcelaphus lichtensteinii | Lichtenstein's hartebeest | 2 (69.3) | 2 (70.7) |
| Bovidae | Alcelaphinae | Connochaetes gnou | Black wildebeest | 3 (70.3) | 3 (71.6) |
| Bovidae | Alcelaphinae | Connochaetes taurinus | Blue wildebeest | 4 (68.6) | 4 (70.0) |
| Bovidae | Alcelaphinae | Damaliscus korrigum jimela | Topi | 1 (71.2) | 1 (72.7) |
| Bovidae | Alcelaphinae | Damaliscus lunatus | Topi | 2 (70.2) | 2 (71.6) |
| Bovidae | Alcelaphinae | Damaliscus pygargus phillipsi | Blesbok | 5 (67.6) | 4 (71.0) |
| Bovidae | Antilopinae | Antidorcas marsupialis | Springbok | 6 (65.1) | 5 (68.0) |
| Bovidae | Antilopinae | Antilope cervicapra | Blackbuck | 9 (68.3) | 9 (69.6) |
| Bovidae | Antilopinae | Gazella dorcas | Dorcas gazelle | 1 (74.6) | 0 |
| Bovidae | Antilopinae | Gazella spekei | Speke's gazelle | 1 (67.8) | 1 (68.9) |
| Bovidae | Antilopinae | Gazella subgutturosa | Persian gazelle | 1 (67.1) | 1 (68.6) |
| Bovidae | Antilopinae | Gazella thomsoni | Thomson's gazelle | 1 (66.2) | 1 (67.6) |
| Bovidae | Antilopinae | Litocranius walleri | Gerenuk | 1 (28.5) | 0 |
| Bovidae | Antilopinae | Nanger dama | Dama gazelle | 1 (68.1) | 1 (69.4) |
| Bovidae | Antilopinae | Nanger granti | Grant's gazelle | 2 (51.5) | 0 |
| Bovidae | Antilopinae | Nanger granti | Grant's Roosevelt gazelle | 1 (68.2) | 1 (69.3) |
| Bovidae | Antilopinae | Nanger soemmerringii | Soemmerring's gazelle | 1 (66.3) | 1 (67.4) |
| Bovidae | Antilopinae | Oreotragus oreotragus | Klipspringer | 1 (67.1) | 0 |
| Bovidae | Antilopinae | Ourebia ourebi | Oribi | 1 (66.0) | 1 (67.4) |


| Bovidae | Antilopinae | Raphicerus campestris | Steenbok | 2 (66.1) | 2 (67.4) |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Bovidae | Bovinae | Bison bison | Plains Bison | 135 (93.8) | 25 (94.7) |
| Bovidae | Bovinae | Bison Bison athabascae | Wood Bison | 36 (87.9) | 30 (94.3) |
| Bovidae | Bovinae | Bison sp. | European Wisent | 1 (42.7) | 0 |
| Bovidae | Bovinae | Bison priscus | Steppe Wisent | 1 (44.8) | 1 (45.8) |
| Bovidae | Bovinae | Bos gaurus | Gaur | 47 (95.1) | 10 (97.5) |
| Bovidae | Bovinae | Bos grunniens | Yak | 2 (93.4) | 2 (96.8) |
| Bovidae | Bovinae | Bos javanicus | Banteng | 4 (95.4) | 4 (97.2) |
| Bovidae | Bovinae | Bos taurus indicus | Gir | 30 (96.0) | 10 (99.3) |
| Bovidae | Bovinae | Bos taurus indicus | Guzerat | 3 (96.0) | 3 (99.2) |
| Bovidae | Bovinae | Bos taurus indicus | Nelore | 78 (93.7) | 10 (99.4) |
| Bovidae | Bovinae | Bos taurus indicus | Sahiwal | 12 (96.2) | 10 (99.4) |
| Bovidae | Bovinae | Bos taurus taurus | Angus | 6124 (98.3) | 20 (99.9) |
| Bovidae | Bovinae | Bos taurus taurus | Belgian Blue | 4 (98.8) | 4 (100.0) |
| Bovidae | Bovinae | Bos taurus taurus | Belted Galloway | 4 (98.8) | 4 (100.0) |
| Bovidae | Bovinae | Bos taurus taurus | Blonde d'Aquitaine | 5 (98.8) | 5 (100.0) |
| Bovidae | Bovinae | Bos taurus taurus | Brown Swiss | 74 (81.8) | 10 (99.9) |
| Bovidae | Bovinae | Bos taurus taurus | Charolais | 135 (98.4) | 11 (98.8) |
| Bovidae | Bovinae | Bos taurus taurus | Chianina | 10 (96.2) | 8 (97.0) |
| Bovidae | Bovinae | Bos taurus taurus | Corriente | 5 (98.7) | 5 (100.0) |
| Bovidae | Bovinae | Bos taurus taurus | Devon | 4 (98.7) | 4 (100.0) |
| Bovidae | Bovinae | Bos taurus taurus | Dexter | 4 (96.4) | 4 (98.8) |
| Bovidae | Bovinae | Bos taurus taurus | Finnish Ayrshire | 444 (98.2) | 10 (99.9) |
| Bovidae | Bovinae | Bos taurus taurus | Galloway | 4 (98.5) | 4 (100.0) |
| Bovidae | Bovinae | Bos taurus taurus | Gelbvieh | 8 (98.5) | 8 (99.8) |
| Bovidae | Bovinae | Bos taurus taurus | Guernsey | 23 (97.2) | 10 (99.9) |
| Bovidae | Bovinae | Bos taurus taurus | Hanwoo | 48 (96.0) | 7 (99.9) |
| Bovidae | Bovinae | Bos taurus taurus | Hereford | 143 (97.7) | 10 (96.3) |
| Bovidae | Bovinae | Bos taurus taurus | Holstein | 5770 (98.1) | 20 (99.7) |
| Bovidae | Bovinae | Bos taurus taurus | Jersey | 93 (90.5) | 10 (99.9) |
| Bovidae | Bovinae | Bos taurus taurus | Kerry | 3 (98.6) | 3 (100.0) |
| Bovidae | Bovinae | Bos taurus taurus | Limousin | 1621 (97.3) | 10 (99.9) |
| Bovidae | Bovinae | Bos taurus taurus | Longhorn | 4 (84.1) | 3 (99.9) |
| Bovidae | Bovinae | Bos taurus taurus | Maine Anjou | 5 (98.8) | 5 (100.0) |
| Bovidae | Bovinae | Bos taurus taurus | Marchigiana | 5 (86.5) | 5 (90.2) |
| Bovidae | Bovinae | Bos taurus taurus | Montbeliard | 5 (98.6) | 5 (100.0) |
| Bovidae | Bovinae | Bos taurus taurus | Murray Grey | 5 (94.9) | 5 (96.9) |
| Bovidae | Bovinae | Bos taurus taurus | N'Dama | 59 (98.3) | 10 (99.9) |
| Bovidae | Bovinae | Bos taurus taurus | Normande | 1 (98.8) | 0 |
| Bovidae | Bovinae | Bos taurus taurus | Norwegian Red | 21 (97.2) | 10 (99.9) |
| Bovidae | Bovinae | Bos taurus taurus | Piedmontese | 29 (98.7) | 10 (99.9) |


| Bovidae | Bovinae | Bos taurus taurus | Pinzgauer | 5 (98.0) | 5 (100.0) |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Bovidae | Bovinae | Bos taurus taurus | Red Angus | 15 (97.2) | 10 (99.9) |
| Bovidae | Bovinae | Bos taurus taurus | Red Poll | 5 (97.6) | 5 (100.0) |
| Bovidae | Bovinae | Bos taurus taurus | Romagnola | 29 (98.6) | 10 (99.9) |
| Bovidae | Bovinae | Bos taurus taurus | Romosinuano | 8 (98.2) | 8 (99.6) |
| Bovidae | Bovinae | Bos taurus taurus | Salers | 5 (98.8) | 5 (100.0) |
| Bovidae | Bovinae | Bos taurus taurus | Scottish Highland | 9 (89.8) | 8 (99.0) |
| Bovidae | Bovinae | Bos taurus taurus | Shorthorn/Lincoln Red | 108 (97.4) | 19 (99.0) |
| Bovidae | Bovinae | Bos taurus taurus | Simmental | 777 (97.5) | 10 (99.8) |
| Bovidae | Bovinae | Bos taurus taurus | South Devon | 4 (93.8) | 4 (95.9) |
| Bovidae | Bovinae | Bos taurus taurus | Sussex | 4 (98.5) | 4 (100.0) |
| Bovidae | Bovinae | Bos taurus taurus | Tarentaise | 5 (98.7) | 5 (100.0) |
| Bovidae | Bovinae | Bos taurus taurus | Texas Longhorn | 32 (98.2) | 10 (99.9) |
| Bovidae | Bovinae | Bos taurus taurus | Wagyu | 49 (97.9) | 10 (99.6) |
| Bovidae | Bovinae | Bos taurus taurus | Welsh Black | 2 (98.7) | 2 (100.0) |
| Bovidae | Bovinae | Bos taurus taurus | White Park | 5 (98.7) | 4 (100.0) |
| Bovidae | Bovinae | Boselaphus tragocamelus | Nilgai | 8 (74.9) | 8 (76.5) |
| Bovidae | Bovinae | Bubalus bubalis | Asian water buffalo | 12 (83.9) | 10 (86.4) |
| Bovidae | Bovinae | Syncerus caffer | African buffalo | 8 (85.1) | 8 (86.9) |
| Bovidae | Bovinae | Syncerus caffer nanus | African forest buffalo | 3 (79.9) | 3 (82.2) |
| Bovidae | Bovinae | Taurotragus oryx | Eland | 5 (75.2) | 4 (77.0) |
| Bovidae | Bovinae | Tragelaphus angasii | Nyala | 6 (74.2) | 5 (75.5) |
| Bovidae | Bovinae | Tragelaphus imberbis | Lesser Kudu | 2 (65.1) | 2 (66.3) |
| Bovidae | Bovinae | Tragelaphus scriptus | Bushbuck | 6 (73.8) | 5 (76.5) |
| Bovidae | Bovinae | Tragelaphus strepsiceros | Greater Kudu | 7 (75.1) | 6 (76.6) |
| Bovidae | Caprinae | Capra ibex | Ibex | 13 (52.8) | 10 (58.9) |
| Bovidae | Caprinae | Oreamnos americanus | North American mountain goat | 8 (58.7) | 7 (60.6) |
| Bovidae | Caprinae | Ovibos moschatus | Muskox | 7 (69.5) | 7 (71.0) |
| Bovidae | Caprinae | Ovis aries | Sheep | 17 (63.9) | 10 (67.2) |
| Bovidae | Caprinae | Ovis canadensis | Bighorn sheep | 8 (65.2) | 8 (66.6) |
| Bovidae | Caprinae | Rupicapra rupicapra | Chamois | 1 (70.4) | 1 (72.0) |
| Bovidae | Cephalophinae | Sylvicapra grimmia | Common duiker | 3 (69.0) | 3 (70.2) |
| Bovidae | Hippotraginae | Addax nasomaculatus | Addax | 1 (71.5) | 1 (72.9) |
| Bovidae | Hippotraginae | Hippotragus equinus | Roan antelope | 1 (69.0) | 1 (70.7) |
| Bovidae | Hippotraginae | Hippotragus niger | Sable antelope | 1 (72.2) | 1 (73.7) |
| Bovidae | Hippotraginae | Oryx beisa | East African oryx | 1 (66.1) | 1 (67.5) |
| Bovidae | Hippotraginae | Oryx dammah | Scimitar oryx | 1 (72.0) | 1 (73.5) |
| Bovidae | Hippotraginae | Oryx gazella | Gemsbok | 7 (65.0) | 7 (66.1) |
| Bovidae | Hippotraginae | Oryx leucoryx | Arabian oryx | 1 (71.9) | 1 (73.3) |


| Bovidae | Reduncinae | Kobus ellipsiprymnus | Waterbuck | 5 (69.1) | 5 (70.5) |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Bovidae | Reduncinae | Kobus leche | Lechwe | 1 (64.9) | 1 (66.1) |
| Bovidae | Reduncinae | Pelea capreolus | Rhebok | 1 (68.1) | 1 (69.5) |
| Bovidae | Reduncinae | Redunca arundinum | Southern Reedbuck | 1 (69.4) | 1 (70.8) |
| Bovidae | Reduncinae | Redunca fulvorufula | Mountain Reedbuck | 3 (67.4) | 3 (69.0) |
| Camelidae |  | Vicugna pacos | Alpaca | 11 (34.5) | 0 |
| Cervidae | Capreolinae | Alces alces | North American moose | 16 (58.1) | 10 (64.7) |
| Cervidae | Capreolinae | Odocoileus virginianus | White-tailed deer | 8 (61.9) | 8 (62.9) |
| Cervidae | Capreolinae | Rangifer tarandus | Caribou | 8 (60.0) | 7 (61.2) |
| Cervidae | Cervinae | Axis axis | Axis deer | 8 (54.9) | 8 (55.8) |
| Cervidae | Cervinae | Cervus elaphus nelson | Rocky mountain elk | 8 (64.9) | 8 (66.1) |
| Cervidae | Cervinae | Cervus nippon | Sika deer | 8 (60.7) | 8 (62.0) |
| Cervidae | Cervinae | Dama dama | Fallow deer | 8 (63.7) | 8 (64.8) |
| Elephantidae |  | Loxodonta africana | Savanna elephant | 4 (52.7) | 0 |
| Equidae |  | Equus caballus | feral horse | 1 (55.2) | 0 |
| Giraffidae |  | Giraffa camelopardalis tippelskirchi | Masai Giraffe | 1 (64.7) | 1 (66.0) |

Table S1 in publication.

Table 2.2. The region harboring SNP rs17871403 was sequenced in 14 species to identify the nucleotides present at the SNP site.
In most cases, the sequenced samples include those that were genotyped with the BovineSNP50 BeadChip.

| Species | Common <br> Name or <br> Breed | Sequence SNP Call | Ambiguous Genotypes from BovineSNP50 |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  |  | Frequency of W Allele | Call Rate | Number of Genotyped Animals | WW | NN | SS | Frequency of Incorrect Genotype Calls |
| Bos taurus taurus | Angus | T/G | 0.551 | 0.998 | 6124 | 1868 | 2997 | 1246 | 0.000 |
| Bos taurus taurus | Holstein | T/G | 0.374 | 0.999 | 5769 | 788 | 2732 | 2246 | 0.000 |
| Bos gaurus | Gaur | T/G | 0.234 | 1.000 | 47 | 3 | 16 | 28 | 0.000 |
| Bison bison | Plains bison | G | 0.000 | 0.978 | 89 | 0 | 0 | 87 | 0.000 |
| Bos grunniens | Yak | G | 0.000 | 1.000 | 2 | 0 | 0 | 2 | 0.000 |
| Bubalus bubalis | Asian water buffalo | A | 1.000 | 0.917 | 12 | 11 | 0 | 0 | 0.000 |
| Ovis Canadensis | Bighorn sheep | A | 0.000 | 0.000 | 8 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0.000 |
| Oreamnos americanus | North American mountain goat | A | 0.833 | 0.750 | 8 | 5 | 0 | 1 | 0.125 |
| Rangifer tarandus | Caribou | A | 0.875 | 1.000 | 8 | 7 | 0 | 1 | 0.125 |
| Odocoileus viginianus | Whitetailed deer | A | 1.000 | 1.000 | 8 | 8 | 0 | 0 | 0.000 |
| Alces aices | North American moose | A | 1.000 | 0.813 | 16 | 13 | 0 | 0 | 0.000 |
| Cervus Nippon | Sika deer | A | 1.000 | 1.000 | 8 | 8 | 0 | 0 | 0.000 |
| Dama dama | Fallow deer | A | 1.000 | 1.000 | 8 | 8 | 0 | 0 | 0.000 |
| Axis axis | Axis deer | A | 1.000 | 1.000 | 8 | 8 | 0 | 0 | 0.000 |
| Antilocapra Americana | Pronghorn | A | 1.000 | 1.000 | 8 | 8 | 0 | 0 | 0.000 |
| Outgroup Total |  |  |  |  | 230 | 79 | 16 | 119 | 0.0087 |

Table S2 in publication.

Table 2.3. Comparison of genotypes produced from replicate Bison priscus ancient DNA libraries BS662 and KCMU02.
For the SNP used in the phylogenetic analyses, BS662 and KCMU02 produced heterozygosities of $39.6 \%$ and $11.5 \%$, respectively. When all 54,693 SNPs scored on the BovineSNP50 BeadChip were compared, $74.7 \%$ of 15,947 genotypes called in both samples were identical but $99.5 \%=100 \% \times(1004+8994) /(1004+24+29+8994)$ of the parsimony informative genotypes (homozygotes) were identical between the replicates. When only the SNPs used in the phylogenetic analyses were compared, $76.1 \%$ of the 12,279 genotypes called in both samples were identical but $99.7 \%$ of the parsimony informative genotypes were identical between the replicates.

| All SNP | KCMU02 genotypes (call rate: 0.542) |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | AA | AB | BB | No Call | Totals |
| BS662 genotypes (call rate: 0.451) | 1004 | 96 | 24 | 865 | 1989 |
|  | 818 | 1915 | 2561 | 5102 | 10396 |
|  | 29 | 506 | 8994 | 2778 | 12307 |
|  | 3969 | 2098 | 7632 | 16302 | 30001 |
|  | 5820 | 4615 | 19211 | 25047 | 54693 |
| SNP used in phylogeny | KCMU02 genotypes (call rate: 0.549) |  |  |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | AA | AB | BB | No Call | Totals |
| BS662 genotypes (call rate: 0.458) | 725 | 42 | 9 | 556 | 1332 |
|  | 631 | 1155 | 1956 | 3656 | 7398 |
|  | 16 | 279 | 7466 | 2201 | 9962 |
|  | 3022 | 1101 | 6029 | 11999 | 22151 |
|  | 4394 | 2577 | 15460 | 18412 | 40843 |

Table S3 in publication.
Table 2.4 Provenance for all samples included in the analyses.

| Group | Common Name | UMC Sample ID | Provider Sample ID | Sample Location | Primary Contact | Secondary Contact |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Addax nasomaculatus | Addax | Anas278200 | SAZ 19 | San Antonio Zoo, Texas, USA | CSM ${ }^{1}$ | JEW ${ }^{2}$ |
| Aepyceros melampus | Impala | Amel278230 | SAZ 26 | San Antonio Zoo, Texas, USA | CSM | JEW |
| Aepyceros melampus | Impala | Amel329740 | 200760001 | Port Alfred, South Africa | MPH ${ }^{3}$ |  |
| Aepyceros melampus | Impala | Amel329750 | 200760002 | Kimberley, South Africa | MPH |  |
| Aepyceros melampus | Impala | Amel330140 | 200760003 | South Africa | MPH |  |
| Aepyceros melampus | Impala | Amel330150 | 200760004 | South Africa | MPH |  |
| Alcelaphus buselaphus jacksoni | Jackson's hartebeest | Abus278150 | SAZ 09 | San Antonio Zoo, Texas, USA | CSM | JEW |
| Alcelaphus buselaphus jacksoni | Jackson's hartebeest | Abus329860 | 200756001 | South Africa | MPH |  |
| Alcelaphus buselaphus jacksoni | Jackson's hartebeest | Abus329870 | 200756002 | South Africa | MPH |  |
| Alcelaphus lichtensteinii | Lichtenstein's hartebeest | Slic329800 | 200757001 | Tanzania | MPH |  |
| Alcelaphus lichtensteinii | Lichtenstein's hartebeest | Slic329810 | 200757002 | Tanzania | MPH |  |
| Alces alces | North American moose | Aalc276790 | 200124003/21 | Wyoming, USA | MPH | DAH ${ }^{4}$ |
| Alces alces | North American moose | Aalc276800 | 200124004/71 | Wyoming, USA | MPH | DAH |
| Alces alces | North American moose | Aalc276810 | 200124005/72 | Wyoming, USA | MPH | DAH |
| Alces alces | North American moose | Aalc276840 | 200124008/115 | Wyoming, USA | MPH | DAH |
| Alces alces | North American moose | Aalc277570 | $\begin{gathered} \text { 200324002/AF7304/UA } \\ 53755 \end{gathered}$ | Alaska, USA | MPH | JIS ${ }^{5}$ |
| Alces alces | North American moose | Aalc277580 | $\begin{gathered} \text { 200324003/AF7311/UA } \\ 32983 \end{gathered}$ | Alaska, USA | MPH | JIS |
| Alces alces | North American moose | Aalc277590 | 200324004/AF10475/U | Alaska, USA | MPH | JIS |

Cont. Table 2.4 Provenance for all samples included in the analyses

| Group | Common Name | UMC Sample ID | Provider Sample ID | Sample Location | Primary Contact | Secondary Contact |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Alces alces | North American moose | Aalc277600 | 200324005/AF10482/U | Alaska, USA | MPH | JIS |
| Alces alces | North American moose |  | $\begin{gathered} \text { A33007 } \\ \text { 200324006/AF18708/U } \end{gathered}$ | Alaska, USA | MPH | JIS |
| Alces alces | North American moose | Aalc277610 | A44530 | Alaska, USA | MPH | Jis |
| Alces alces | North American moose | Aalc277620 | A53788 | Alaska, USA | MPH | JIS |
| Antidorcas marsupialis | Springbok | Amar329890 | 200751002 | Kimberley, South Africa | MPH |  |
| Antidorcas marsupialis | Springbok | Amar329900 | 200751001 | Port Alfred, South Africa | MPH |  |
| Antidorcas marsupialis | Springbok | Amar329940 | 200751003 | South Africa | MPH |  |
| Antidorcas marsupialis | Springbok | Amar329950 | 200751004 | South Africa | MPH |  |
| Antidorcas marsupialis | Springbok | Amar329970 | 200751006 | South Africa | MPH |  |
| Antilocapra americana | Pronghorn | Aame 276870 | 200125001/2 | Wyoming, USA | MPH | DAH |
| Antilocapra americana | Pronghorn | Aame276880 | 200125003/80 | Wyoming, USA | MPH | DAH |
| Antilocapra americana | Pronghorn | Aame276890 | 200125004/422 | Wyoming, USA | MPH | DAH |
| Antilocapra americana | Pronghorn | Aame 276900 | 200125005/437 | Wyoming, USA | MPH | DAH |
| Antilocapra americana | Pronghorn | Aame276910 | 200125006/648 | Wyoming, USA | MPH | DAH |
| Antilocapra americana | Pronghorn | Aame 276920 | 200125008/1111 | Wyoming, USA | MPH | DAH |
| Antilocapra americana | Pronghorn | Aame276930 | 200325001/1151 | Wyoming, USA | MPH | DAH |
| Antilocapra americana | Pronghorn | Aame276940 | 200325002/1159 | Wyoming, USA | MPH | DAH |
| Antilope cervicapra | Blackbuck | Acer278070 | Bb-s | Texas, USA | CSM |  |
| Antilope cervicapra | Blackbuck | Acer277090 | 200750001 | Kerr County, Texas, USA | MPH |  |

Cont. Table 2.4 Provenance for all samples included in the analyses

| Group | Common Name | UMC Sample | Provider Sample ID | Sample Location | Primary Secondary |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Contact |  |  |  |  |  |
| Contact |  |  |  |  |  |

Cont. Table 2.4 Provenance for all samples included in the analyses

| Group | Common Name | UMC Sample ID | Provider Sample ID | Sample Location | Primary Contact | Secondary Contact |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Bison bison | Plains Bison | BB200780 | 8010 | Arrowhead Ranch, Ohio, USA | RDS |  |
| Bison bison | Plains Bison | BB200790 | 8011 | Arrowhead Ranch, Ohio, USA | RDS |  |
| Bison bison | Plains Bison | BB200990 | 8044 | Arrowhead Ranch, Ohio, USA | RDS |  |
| Bison bison | Plains Bison | BB201010 | 8046 | Arrowhead Ranch, Ohio, USA | RDS |  |
| Bison bison | Plains Bison | BB201110 | 8072 | Arrowhead Ranch, Ohio, USA | RDS |  |
| Bison bison | Plains Bison | BB201290 | 8112 | Arrowhead Ranch, Ohio, USA | RDS |  |
| Bison bison | Plains Bison | BB049850 | AVID*076*109*828 | Custer State Park, South Dakota, USA | RDS | GCB ${ }^{7}$ |
| Bison bison | Plains Bison | BB050640 |  | Custer State Park, South Dakota, USA | RDS | GCB |
| Bison bison | Plains Bison | BB050790 |  | Custer State Park, South Dakota, USA Custer State Park, South Dakota, | RDS | GCB |
| Bison bison | Plains Bison | BB052300 |  | Custer State Park, South Dakota, USA | RDS | GCB |
| Bison bison | Plains Bison | BB052440 |  | Custer State Park, South Dakota, USA | RDS | GCB |
| Bison bison | Plains Bison | BB052460 |  | Custer State Park, South Dakota, <br> USA | RDS | GCB |
| Bison bison | Plains Bison | BB052470 |  | USA | RDS | GCB |
| Bison bison | Plains Bison | BB052480 |  | Custer State Park, South Dakota, USA | RDS | GCB |
| Bison bison | Plains Bison | BB052510 |  | Custer State Park, South Dakota, USA | RDS | GCB |
| Bison bison | Plains Bison | BB054350 |  | Custer State Park, South Dakota, USA | RDS | GCB |
| Bison bison | Plains bison | FNBB331730 |  | Fort Niobrara NatI Wildlife Refuge, Nebraska, USA | RDS | $\mathrm{KMM}^{8}$ |
| Bison bison | Plains bison | FNBB331740 |  | Fort Niobrara Natl Wildlife <br> Refuge, Nebraska, USA | RDS | KMM |

Cont. Table 2.4 Provenance for all samples included in the analyses

| Group | Common Name | UMC Sample ID | Provider Sample ID | Sample Location | Primary Contact | Secondary Contact |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Bison bison | Plains bison | FNBB331750 |  | Fort Niobrara NatI Wildlife Refuge, Nebraska, USA | RDS | KMM |
| Bison bison | Plains bison | FNBB331760 |  | Fort Niobrara Nat Wildlife Refuge, Nebraska, USA | RDS | KMM |
| Bison bison | Plains bison | FNBB331770 |  | Fort Niobrara NatI Wildlife Refuge, Nebraska, USA | RDS | KMM |
| Bison bison | Plains bison | FNBB331780 |  | Fort Niobrara NatI Wildlife Refuge, Nebraska, USA | RDS | KMM |
| Bison bison athabascae | Wood Bison | EINP196490 | W83003 | Elk Island National Park, Alberta, Canada | GAW ${ }^{9}$ |  |
| Bison bison athabascae | Wood Bison | EINP196500 | W81026 | Elk Island National Park, Alberta, Canada | GAW |  |
| Bison bison athabascae | Wood Bison | EINP196510 | W85024 | Elk Island National Park, Alberta, Canada | GAW |  |
| Bison bison athabascae | Wood Bison | EINP196520 | W85020 | Elk Island National Park, Alberta, Canada | GAW |  |
| Bison bison athabascae | Wood Bison | EINP196550 | W83018 | Elk Island National Park, Alberta, Canada | GAW |  |
| Bison bison athabascae | Wood Bison | EINP196560 | W81010 | Elk Island National Park, Alberta, Canada | GAW |  |
| Bison bison athabascae | Wood Bison | EINP196570 | WR890100061 | Elk Island National Park, Alberta, Canada | GAW |  |
| Bison bison athabascae | Wood Bison | EINP196580 | WR89005 | Elk Island National Park, Alberta, Canada | GAW |  |
| Bison bison athabascae | Wood Bison | EINP196590 | WR87029 | Elk Island National Park, Alberta, Canada | GAW |  |
| Bison bison athabascae | Wood Bison | EINP196600 | WR87001 | Elk Island National Park, Alberta, Canada | GAW |  |
| Bison bison athabascae | Wood Bison | HL196640 | Y98 | Hook Lake, Northwest Territories, Canada | GAW |  |
| Bison bison athabascae | Wood Bison | HL196650 | Y96 | Hook Lake, Northwest Territories, Canada | GAW |  |
| Bison bison athabascae | Wood Bison | HL196660 | Y86 | Hook Lake, Northwest Territories, Canada | GAW |  |
| Bison bison athabascae | Wood Bison | HL196670 | Y82 | Hook Lake, Northwest Territories, | GAW |  |

Cont. Table 2.4 Provenance for all samples included in the analyses
Cont. Table 2.4 Provenance for all samples included in the analyses

| Group | Common Name | UMC Sample ID | Provider Sample ID | Sample Location | Primary Secondary Contact Contact |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Group | Common Name | ID | Provider Sample ID | Sample Location | Contact Contact | Hook Lake, Northwest Territories,

Canada GAW Hook Lake, Northwest Territories, GAW Hook Lake, Northwest Territories, GAW Canada
Hook Lake, Northwest Territories, GAW Canada
Hook Lake, Northwest Territories, GAW Canada
Wood Buffalo National Park, GAW GAW
GAW Canada
Wood Buffalo National Park, GAW $\begin{array}{cc}\begin{array}{c}\text { Canada }\end{array} & \text { GAW } \\ \text { Wood Buffalo National Park, } & \text { GAW }\end{array}$ Wood Buffalo National Park, GAW Wood Buffalo National Park, GAW Canada
Wood Buffalo National Park, GAW Canada GAW Wood Buffalo National Park, Canada
Wood Buffalo National Park,
GAW
 Canada GAW
Canada
Alyoshkina Zaimka 운 Henry Doorly Zoo, Nebraska, USA RAB ${ }^{11}$
 Canada
Wood Buffalo National Park, Wood Buffalo National Park,
Canada
 Y68 Contact Contact
Cont. Table 2.4 Provenance for all samples included in the analyses

| Group | Common Name | $\begin{gathered} \text { UMC Sample } \\ \text { ID } \\ \hline \end{gathered}$ | Provider Sample ID | Sample Location | Primary Contact | Secondary Contact |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Bos gaurus | Gaur | GAUR081370 | 5429 | Henry Doorly Zoo, Nebraska, USA | RAB |  |
| Bos gaurus | Gaur | GAUR081390 | 5443 | Henry Doorly Zoo, Nebraska, USA | RAB |  |
| Bos gaurus | Gaur | GAUR081410 | 4934 | Henry Doorly Zoo, Nebraska, USA | RAB |  |
| Bos gaurus | Gaur | GAUR081610 | 5359 | Henry Doorly Zoo, Nebraska, USA | RAB |  |
| Bos gaurus | Gaur | GAUR081650 | 12915 | Henry Doorly Zoo, Nebraska, USA | RAB |  |
| Bos gaurus | Gaur | GAUR081690 | 11498 | Henry Doorly Zoo, Nebraska, USA | RAB |  |
| Bos gaurus | Gaur | GAUR081710 |  | Henry Doorly Zoo, Nebraska, USA | RAB |  |
| Bos gaurus | Gaur | GAUR081730 | 12926 | Henry Doorly Zoo, Nebraska, USA | RAB |  |
| Bos gaurus | Gaur | GAUR081750 | 4431 | Henry Doorly Zoo, Nebraska, USA | RAB |  |
| Bos grunniens | Yak | YAK339149 | WG0042000DNAG12_OYK000001 | USA | MPH |  |
| Bos grunniens | Yak | YAK339159 | WG0042000DNAH12_OYK000002 | USA | MPH |  |
| Bos javanicus | Banteng | Bjav334499 | WG0042000- <br> DNAC12 OBJ000001 <br> WG0042000- | Henry Doorly Zoo, Nebraska, USA | RAB |  |
| Bos javanicus | Banteng | Bjav334509 | DNAD12_OBJ000002 | Henry Doorly Zoo, Nebraska, USA | RAB |  |
| Bos javanicus | Banteng | Bjav276510 | $\begin{gathered} 200710003 / 1848 / \text { KB107 } \\ 24 \end{gathered}$ | San Diego Zoo, USA | MPH | LGC ${ }^{12}$ |
| Bos javanicus | Banteng | Bjav276520 | $\begin{gathered} 200710004 / 1851 / \text { KB106 } \\ 23 \end{gathered}$ | San Diego Zoo, USA | MPH | LGC |
| Bos taurus indicus | Gir | GIR335349 | WG0041999- <br> DNAB04_GIR000002 | Brazil | $\mathrm{CAG}^{13}$ | ARC ${ }^{14}$ |
| Bos taurus indicus | Gir | GIR335359 | WG0041999- <br> DNACO4_GIR000003 | Brazil | CAG | ARC |
| Bos taurus indicus | Gir | GIR335369 | WG0041999DNAD04_GIR000004 | Brazil | CAG | ARC |

Cont. Table 2.4 Provenance for all samples included in the analyses

| Group | Common Name | $\begin{gathered} \text { UMC Sample } \\ \text { ID } \\ \hline \end{gathered}$ | Provider Sample ID | Sample Location | Primary Contact | Secondary Contact |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Bos taurus indicus | Gir | GIR335379 | WG0041999DNAEO4 GIR000005 | Brazil | CAG | ARC |
| Bos taurus indicus | Gir | GIR335399 | WG0041999- <br> DNAGO4 GIR000007 | Brazil | CAG | ARC |
| Bos taurus indicus | Gir | GIR335409 | WG0041999- <br> DNAH04 GIR000008 | Brazil | CAG | ARC |
| Bos taurus indicus | Gir | GIR335469 | WGOO-41999- <br> DNAFO5 GIRO00014 | Brazil | CAG | ARC |
| Bos taurus indicus | Gir | GIR335479 | WG0041999- <br> DNAG05 GIR000015 | Brazil | CAG | ARC |
| Bos taurus indicus | Gir | GIR335489 | WG0041999- <br> DNAH05_GIR000016 | Brazil | CAG | ARC |
| Bos taurus indicus | Gir | GIR333119 | 227 | Brazil | $\begin{aligned} & \text { CVT \& } \\ & \text { TSS }^{15} \end{aligned}$ | LLC ${ }^{16}$ |
| Bos taurus indicus | Guzerat | GUZ333199 | 1971 | Brazil | CVT \& TSS | LLC |
| Bos taurus indicus | Guzerat | GUZ333209 | 2826 | Brazil | $\begin{gathered} \text { CVT \& } \\ \text { TSS } \end{gathered}$ | LLC |
| Bos taurus indicus | Guzerat | GUZ333219 | 2827 | Brazil | CVT \& TSS | LLC |
| Bos taurus indicus | Nelore | NEL202860 | NEL2 | Brazil | ARC |  |
| Bos taurus indicus | Nelore | NEL202870 | NEL3 | Brazil | ARC |  |
| Bos taurus indicus | Nelore | NEL203040 | NEL20 | Brazil | ARC |  |
| Bos taurus indicus | Nelore | NEL203100 | NEL26 | Brazil | ARC |  |
| Bos taurus indicus | Nelore | NEL203260 | NEL42 | Brazil | ARC |  |
| Bos taurus indicus | Nelore | NEL337729 | WG0041998- DNADO7_NELOOOOO1 | Brazil | CAG | ARC |
| Bos taurus indicus | Nelore | NEL337789 | WG0041998DNAB08_NEL000007 | Brazil | CAG | ARC |
| Bos taurus indicus | Nelore | NEL337809 | WG0041998- <br> DNAD08 NEL000009 | Brazil | CAG | ARC |

Cont．Table 2．4 Provenance for all samples included in the analyses

| Group | Common Name | UMC Sample | Provider Sample ID | Sample Location | Primary Secondary <br> Contact |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Contact |  |  |  |  |  |



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USA $\stackrel{\pi}{3}$ ふ ふ $\stackrel{\pi}{n}$ ふ $\begin{array}{cr}\text { ID } & \\ \text { NEL337839 } & \text { WG0041998－} \\ \text { DNAG08＿NELOOO }\end{array}$ NEL337939 DNAA10＿NELOOOO22 SAHW333289 1675 1676 $\stackrel{\infty}{\infty}$ $\stackrel{ \pm}{\infty}$ 1686 1689 1690 1691 1693 $9.82 \mathrm{E}+14$ ！！zeля Qadirabad，Punjab，Pakistan Qadirabad，Punjab，Pakistan
 Qadirabad，Punjab，Pakistan uezs！yed＇qelund＇peqen！peo ueqs！yed＇qe！und＇peqea！peo芯 芹 芹 芹 芹

Cont．Table 2．4 Provenance for all samples included in the analyses | Group | Common Name | UMC Sample | Provider Sample ID | Sample Location | $\begin{array}{c}\text { Primary Secondary } \\ \text { Contact }\end{array}$ |
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ANO23790
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Cont. Table 2.4 Provenance for all samples included in the analyses

| Group | Common Name | UMC Sample ID | Provider Sample ID | Sample Location | Primary Contact | Secondary Contact |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Bos taurus taurus | Belted Galloway | BGAL328210 | BG-5227 | Great Britain | PW ${ }^{19}$ |  |
| Bos taurus taurus | Belted Galloway | BGAL328220 | BG-5230 | Great Britain | PW |  |
| Bos taurus taurus | Belted Galloway | BGAL328230 | BG-5232 | Great Britain | PW |  |
| Bos taurus taurus | Belted Galloway | BGAL328240 | BG-5233 | Great Britain | PW |  |
| Bos taurus taurus | Blonde d'Aquitaine | BDAQ275100 | 15 | USA | CSM |  |
| Bos taurus taurus | Blonde d'Aquitaine | BDAQ275110 | 16 | USA | CSM |  |
| Bos taurus taurus | Blonde d'Aquitaine | BDAQ275120 | 17 | USA | CSM |  |
| Bos taurus taurus | Blonde d'Aquitaine | BDAQ275130 | 18 | USA | CSM |  |
| Bos taurus taurus | Blonde d'Aquitaine | BDAQ275520 | 57 | USA | CSM |  |
| Bos taurus taurus | Brown Swiss | BSW334769 | WG0041997DNAAO1_BSW000001 | USA | CAG | CVT \& TSS |
| Bos taurus taurus | Brown Swiss | BSW334779 | WG0041997- <br> DNABO1_BSW000002 WG0041997- | USA | CAG | CVT \& TSS |
| Bos taurus taurus | Brown Swiss | BSW334789 | DNACO1_BSW000003 | USA | CAG | CVT \& TSS |
| Bos taurus taurus | Brown Swiss | BSW334799 | WG0041997- <br> DNADO1_BSW000004 | USA | CAG | CVT \& TSS |
| Bos taurus taurus | Brown Swiss | BSW334829 | WG0041997- <br> DNAG01_BSW000007 WG0041997- | USA | CAG | CVT \& TSS |
| Bos taurus taurus | Brown Swiss | BSW334839 | DNAHO1 BSW000009 WG0041997- | USA | CAG | CVT \& TSS |
| Bos taurus taurus | Brown Swiss | BSW334899 | DNAFO2_BSW000015 | USA | CAG | CVT \& TSS |
| Bos taurus taurus | Brown Swiss | BSW334909 | WG0041997- <br> DNAGO2_BSW000016 | USA | CAG | CVT \& TSS |
| Bos taurus taurus | Brown Swiss | BSW334929 | WG0041997- <br> DNAAO3 BSW000018 | USA | CAG | CVT \& TSS |

Cont．Table 2．4 Provenance for all samples included in the analyses
Cont．Table 2．4 Primary Secondary
Primary Secondary

 $\stackrel{ \pm}{\Sigma}$
 s BSW334949 $\begin{array}{lr}\text { WG0041997－} \\ & \text { DNAC03＿BSW0000 }\end{array}$ $\begin{array}{cc}\text { CHA335229 } & \begin{array}{c}\text { WGOO41996－} \\ \text { DNAFO5＿CHLO00023 }\end{array} \\ \text { CHA208210 } & 18 \\ \text { CHA208200 } & 17\end{array}$ $\stackrel{\infty}{-}$ 17 ᄂて6L $\stackrel{\infty}{\stackrel{~}{7}}$ ूNN $\stackrel{7}{7}$ $\wedge$ 15 $\stackrel{\square}{1}$ sz 65 $\stackrel{\rightharpoonup}{6}$ 68 19307293 19307295 19307300 UMC Sample
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Cont. Table 2.4 Provenance for all samples included in the analyses

| Group | Common Name | UMC Sample ID | Provider Sample ID | Sample Location | Primary Contact | Secondary Contact |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Bos taurus taurus | Chianina | CHIA328690 | 19999916 | USA | MPH |  |
| Bos taurus taurus | Chianina | CHIA328700 | 19999923 | USA | MPH |  |
| Bos taurus taurus | Corriente | CORR275530 | 58 | USA | CSM |  |
| Bos taurus taurus | Corriente | CORR329110 | 19202900 | USA | MPH |  |
| Bos taurus taurus | Corriente | CORR329120 | 19202901 | USA | MPH |  |
| Bos taurus taurus | Corriente | CORR329130 | 19202902 | USA | MPH |  |
| Bos taurus taurus | Corriente | CORR329140 | 19202903 | USA | MPH |  |
| Bos taurus taurus | Devon | DEV328250 | DEV-2089 | Great Britain | PW |  |
| Bos taurus taurus | Devon | DEV328260 | DEV-2090 | Great Britain | PW |  |
| Bos taurus taurus | Devon | DEV328270 | DEV-2091 | Great Britain | PW |  |
| Bos taurus taurus | Devon | DEV328280 | DEV-2093 | Great Britain | PW |  |
| Bos taurus taurus | Dexter | DEX328290 | DEX-15 | Great Britain | PW |  |
| Bos taurus taurus | Dexter | DEX328300 | DEX-18 | Great Britain | PW |  |
| Bos taurus taurus | Dexter | DEX328310 | DEX-19 | Great Britain | PW |  |
| Bos taurus taurus | Dexter | DEX328320 | DEX-21 | Great Britain | PW |  |
| Bos taurus taurus | Finnish Ayrshire | AYR207260 | MAHL_88 | Finland | JFT | $M A^{22}$ |
| Bos taurus taurus | Finnish Ayrshire | AYR207520 | MAHL_135 | Finland | JFT | MA |
| Bos taurus taurus | Finnish Ayrshire | AYR331570 | MAHLB21 | Finland | JFT | MA |

Cont. Table 2.4 Provenance for all samples included in the analyses

| Group | Common Name | UMC Sample ID | Provider Sample ID | Sample Location | Primary Contact | Secondary Contact |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Bos taurus taurus | Finnish Ayrshire | AYR331710 | MAHLD4 | Finland | JFT | MA |
| Bos taurus taurus | Finnish Ayrshire | AYR197170 | FI_238 | Finland | $\mathrm{JV}^{23}$ |  |
| Bos taurus taurus | Finnish Ayrshire | AYR197900 | FI_338 | Finland | JV |  |
| Bos taurus taurus | Finnish Ayrshire | AYR198070 | FI_136 | Finland | JV |  |
| Bos taurus taurus | Finnish Ayrshire | AYR198130 | FI_144 | Finland | JV |  |
| Bos taurus taurus | Finnish Ayrshire | AYR198960 | FI_79 | Finland | JV |  |
| Bos taurus taurus | Finnish Ayrshire | AYR199400 | FI_16 | Finland | JV |  |
| Bos taurus taurus | Galloway | GALL328330 | GA-2006 | Great Britain | PW |  |
| Bos taurus taurus | Galloway | GALL328340 | GA-2162 | Great Britain | PW |  |
| Bos taurus taurus | Galloway | GALL328350 | GA-2341 | Great Britain | PW |  |
| Bos taurus taurus | Galloway | GALL328360 | GA-2346 | Great Britain | PW |  |
| Bos taurus taurus | Gelbvieh | GEL275540 | 59 | USA | CSM |  |
| Bos taurus taurus | Gelbvieh | GEL275640 | 69 | USA | CSM |  |
| Bos taurus taurus | Gelbvieh | GEL275650 | 70 | USA | CSM |  |
| Bos taurus taurus | Gelbvieh | GEL275660 | 71 | USA | CSM |  |
| Bos taurus taurus | Gelbvieh | GEL335309 | WG0042007DNAF05_GBV000001 WG0042007 | USA | MPH |  |
| Bos taurus taurus | Gelbvieh | GEL335319 | WG0042007DNAG05_GBV000002 | USA | MPH |  |
| Bos taurus taurus | Gelbvieh | GEL335329 | WG0042007DNAH05_GBV000003 | USA | MPH |  |

Cont. Table 2.4 Provenance for all samples included in the analyses

| Group | Common Name | UMC Sample | Provider Sample ID | Sample Location | Primary Secondary |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Contact |  |  |  |  |  |
| Contact |  |  |  |  |  |

Cont. Table 2.4 Provenance for all samples included in the analyses
Primary Secondary



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 HFD183300 HFD208420



 H0242419 H0242869 HO242889 но242909 H0244459 HO245109 но245209


Cont. Table 2.4 Provenance for all samples included in the analyses

| Group | Common Name | UMC Sample | Provider Sample ID | Sample Location | Primary Secondary |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Contact |  |  |  |  |  |

Cont. Table 2.4 Provenance for all samples included in the analyses

| Group | Common Name | UMC Sample ID | Provider Sample ID | Sample Location | Primary Contact | Secondary Contact |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Bos taurus taurus | Jersey | JER336849 | WG0041997- | USA | CAG | CVT \& TSS |
| Bos taurus taurus | Jersey | JeR336929 | DNAE08_JEROOOO11 WGOO41997- | USA | CAG | CVT \& TSS |
| Bos taurus taurus | Jersey | JER336929 | DNAEO9 JER000019 | USA | CAG | CVT \& TSS |
| Bos taurus taurus | Jersey | JER336939 | WG0041997- | USA | CAG | CVT \& TSS |
| Bos taurus taurus |  | JeR33693 | DNAFO9_JEROOOO20 WGOOL1997- | USA | CAG | CVT\&TSS |
| Bos taurus taurus | Jersey | JER336969 | DNAA10_JER000023 | USA | CAG | CVT \& TSS |
| Bos taurus taurus | Kerry | KERR328410 | KE-2112 | Great Britain | PW |  |
| Bos taurus taurus | Kerry | KERR328420 | KE-2114 | Great Britain | PW |  |
| Bos taurus taurus | Kerry | KERR328430 | KE-2115 | Great Britain | PW |  |
| Bos taurus taurus | Limousin | LM183340 | 1489 | USA | JFT | HDD |
| Bos taurus taurus | Limousin | LM183360 | 2717 | USA | JFT | HDD |
| Bos taurus taurus | Limousin | LM183390 | 1411 | USA | JFT | HDD |
| Bos taurus taurus | Limousin | LM183460 | 1406 | USA | JFT | HDD |
| Bos taurus taurus | Limousin | LM100770 | 3877 | USA | JFT |  |
| Bos taurus taurus | Limousin | LM127780 | 10520 | USA | JFT |  |
| Bos taurus taurus | Limousin | LM073800 |  | USA | JFT |  |
| Bos taurus taurus | Limousin | LM074261 |  | USA | JFT |  |
| Bos taurus taurus | Limousin | LM074360 |  | USA | JFT |  |
| Bos taurus taurus | Limousin | LM074420 |  | USA | JFT |  |
| Bos taurus taurus | Lincoln Red | SH274500 |  | USA | JFT |  |

Cont. Table 2.4 Provenance for all samples included in the analyses

| Group | Common Name | $\begin{gathered} \text { UMC Sample } \\ \text { ID } \\ \hline \end{gathered}$ | Provider Sample ID | Sample Location | Primary Secondary Contact Contact |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Bos taurus taurus | Lincoln Red | SH274510 |  | USA | JFT |
| Bos taurus taurus | Lincoln Red | SH274520 |  | USA | JFT |
| Bos taurus taurus | Lincoln Red | SH274530 |  | USA | JFT |
| Bos taurus taurus | Lincoln Red | SH274540 |  | USA | JFT |
| Bos taurus taurus | Lincoln Red | SH274550 |  | USA | JFT |
| Bos taurus taurus | Lincoln Red | SH274560 |  | USA | JFT |
| Bos taurus taurus | Lincoln Red | SH274710 | Lincoln Red | USA | JFT |
| Bos taurus taurus | Lincoln Red | SH274720 | Tao Lincoln Red | USA | JFT |
| Bos taurus taurus | Longhorn | LH328440 | LH-1966 | Great Britain | PW |
| Bos taurus taurus | Longhorn | LH328450 | LH-1968 | Great Britain | PW |
| Bos taurus taurus | Longhorn | LH328470 | LH-1973 | Great Britain | PW |
| Bos taurus taurus | Maine Anjou | MAAN275760 | 81 | USA | CSM |
| Bos taurus taurus | Maine Anjou | MAAN275770 | 82 | USA | CSM |
| Bos taurus taurus | Maine Anjou | MAAN275780 | 83 | USA | CSM |
| Bos taurus taurus | Maine Anjou | MAAN329300 | 19999902 | USA | MPH |
| Bos taurus taurus | Maine Anjou | MAAN329310 | 19999903 | USA | MPH |
| Bos taurus taurus | Marchigiana | MCHI328760 | 19360406 | USA | MPH |
| Bos taurus taurus | Marchigiana | MCHI328770 | 19360425 | USA | MPH |

Cont. Table 2.4 Provenance for all samples included in the analyses

| Group | Common Name | $\begin{gathered} \hline \text { UMC Sample } \\ \text { ID } \\ \hline \end{gathered}$ | Provider Sample ID | Sample Location | Primar Contac | Secondary Contact |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Bos taurus taurus | Marchigiana | MCHI328780 | 19360430 | USA | MPH |  |
| Bos taurus taurus | Marchigiana | MCHI328790 | 19360441 | USA | MPH |  |
| Bos taurus taurus | Marchigiana | MCHI328800 | 19360459 | USA | MPH |  |
| Bos taurus taurus | Montbeliard | MONT328810 | 19360918 | USA | MPH |  |
| Bos taurus taurus | Montbeliard | MONT328820 | 19360921 | USA | MPH |  |
| Bos taurus taurus | Montbeliard | MONT328830 | 19360932 | USA | MPH |  |
| Bos taurus taurus | Montbeliard | MONT328840 | 19360938 | USA | MPH |  |
| Bos taurus taurus | Montbeliard | MONT328850 | 19360960 | USA | MPH |  |
| Bos taurus taurus | Murray Grey | MUGR328860 | 19204503 | USA | MPH |  |
| Bos taurus taurus | Murray Grey | MUGR328870 | 19204506 | USA | MPH |  |
| Bos taurus taurus | Murray Grey | MUGR328880 | 19204509 | USA | MPH |  |
| Bos taurus taurus | Murray Grey | MUGR328890 | 19204535 | USA | MPH |  |
| Bos taurus taurus | Murray Grey | MUGR328900 | 19204536 | USA | MPH |  |
| Bos taurus taurus | N'Dama | NDAM337479 | WG0041998- <br> DNACO4_NDA000001 <br> WG0041998- | Guinea | CAG | $\mathrm{OH}^{25}$ |
| Bos taurus taurus | N'Dama | NDAM337539 | DNAA05 NDA000012 WG0041998- | Guinea | CAG | OH |
| Bos taurus taurus | N'Dama | NDAM 337599 | $\begin{aligned} & \text { DNAGO5_NDAOO0021 } \\ & \text { WGO041998- } \end{aligned}$ | Guinea | CAG | OH |
| Bos taurus taurus | NDama | NDAM337619 | DNAA06_NDA000024 WG0041998- | Guinea | CAG |  |
| Bos taurus taurus | N'Dama | NDAM337699 | DNAA07 NDA000041 | Guinea | CAG | OH |

Cont. Table 2.4 Provenance for all samples included in the analyses

| Group | Common Name | UMC Sample <br> ID | Provider Sample ID | Sample Location | Primary Secondary |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Contact |  |  |  |  |  |

Cont. Table 2.4 Provenance for all samples included in the analyses

| Group | Common Name | UMC Sample ID | Provider Sample ID | Sample Location | Primary Contact | Secondary Contact |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Bos taurus taurus | Piedmontese | PIED338319 | WG0042000DNAA08 PMT000015 WG0042000- | Italy | CAG | PAM |
| Bos taurus taurus | Piedmontese | PIED338369 | DNAFO8_PMT000020 WGŌ042000- | Italy | CAG | PAM |
| Bos taurus taurus Bos taurus taurus | Piedmontese | PIED338379 PIED338389 | DNAG08_PMT000021 WG0042000- | Italy | CAG | PAM PAM |
| Bos taurus taurus | Piedmontese | PIED338399 | DNAH08_PMT000022 WG0042000DNAAO9_PMT000023 | Italy | CAG | PAM |
| Bos taurus taurus | Piedmontese | PIED328910 | 19310110 | USA | MPH |  |
| Bos taurus taurus | Piedmontese | PIED328950 | 19899802 | USA | MPH |  |
| Bos taurus taurus | Pinzgauer | PINZ275840 | 89 | USA | CSM |  |
| Bos taurus taurus | Pinzgauer | PINZ329190 | 19360705 | USA | MPH |  |
| Bos taurus taurus | Pinzgauer | PINZ329200 | 19360724 | USA | MPH |  |
| Bos taurus taurus | Pinzgauer | PINZ329210 | 19360742 | USA | MPH |  |
| Bos taurus taurus | Pinzgauer | PINZ329220 | 19360769 | USA | MPH |  |
| Bos taurus taurus | Red Angus | ANR334049 | WG0041998DNAF10 RGU000003 WG0041998- | USA | CAG | RDG ${ }^{28}$ |
| Bos taurus taurus | Red Angus | ANR334059 | DNAG10 RGU000004 WG0041998- | USA | CAG | RDG |
| Bos taurus taurus | Red Angus | ANR334069 | DNAH10_RGU000005 WG0041998- | USA | CAG | RDG |
| Bos taurus taurus | Red Angus | ANR334079 | DNAA11 RGU000006 WG0041998- | USA | CAG | RDG |
| Bos taurus taurus | Red Angus | ANR334089 | DNAB11_RGU000007 | USA | CAG | RDG |
| Bos taurus taurus | Red Angus | ANR334099 | WG0041998- <br> DNAC11_RGU000008 | USA | CAG | RDG |

Cont. Table 2.4 Provenance for all samples included in the analyses

| Group | Common Name | UMC Sample | Provider Sample ID | Sample Location | Primary Contact | Secondary Contact |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Bos taurus taurus | Red Angus | ANR334119 | WG0041998- DNAE11 RGU000010 WG0041998- | USA | CAG | RDG |
| Bos taurus taurus | Red Angus | ANR334129 | DNAF11 RGU000011 WG0041998 | USA | CAG | RDG |
| Bos taurus taurus | Red Angus | ANR334139 | DNAG11 RGU000012 | USA | CAG | RDG |
| Bos taurus taurus | Red Angus | ANR334149 | DNAFO6_RGU000013 | USA | CAG | RDG |
| Bos taurus taurus | Red Poll | REDP275910 | 96 | USA | CSM |  |
| Bos taurus taurus | Red Poll | REDP329230 | 19214256 | USA | MPH |  |
| Bos taurus taurus | Red Poll | REDP329240 | 19214259 | USA | MPH |  |
| Bos taurus taurus | Red Poll | REDP329250 | 19214264 | USA | MPH |  |
| Bos taurus taurus | Red Poll | REDP329260 | 19214265 | USA | MPH |  |
| Bos taurus taurus | Romagnola | RMG338469 | WG0042000- <br> DNAH09 RMG000006 WGŌ042000- | Italy | CAG | PAM |
| Bos taurus taurus | Romagnola | RMG338479 | DNAA1O RMG000007 WG0042000- | Italy | CAG | PAM |
| Bos taurus taurus | Romagnola | RMG338489 | DNAB10 RMG000008 WGOO042000- | Italy | CAG | PAM |
| Bos taurus taurus | Romagnola | RMG338499 | DNAC10 RMGG000009 WGOOO42000- | Italy | CAG | PAM |
| Bos taurus taurus | Romagnola | RMG338509 | DNAD10 RMG000010 | Italy | CAG | PAM |
| Bos taurus taurus | Romagnola | RMG338519 | DNAE1O RMG000011 WG0042000- | Italy | CAG | PAM |
| Bos taurus taurus | Romagnola | RMG338529 | DNAF10 RMG000012 WG0042000- | Italy | CAG | PAM |
| Bos taurus taurus | Romagnola | RMG338569 | DNAB11 RMG000016 WG0042000- | Italy | CAG | PAM |
| Bos taurus taurus | Romagnola | RMG338589 | DNAD11 RMG000018 | Italy | CAG | PAM |

Cont. Table 2.4 Provenance for all samples included in the analyses

| Group | Common Name | $\begin{gathered} \hline \text { UMC Sample } \\ \text { ID } \\ \hline \end{gathered}$ | Provider Sample ID | Sample Location | Primary Contact | Secondary Contact |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Bos taurus taurus | Romagnola | RMG338619 | WG0042000- DNAG11_RMG000021 | Italy | CAG | PAM |
| Bos taurus taurus | Romosinuano | ROMO321660 | - 83 | US, parents imported from Venezuela \& Costa Rica US, parents imported from | JFT | $\begin{aligned} & \text { CCC \& } \\ & \text { SWC }^{29} \end{aligned}$ |
| Bos taurus taurus | Romosinuano | ROMO321670 | 88 | Venezuela \& Costa Rica | JFT | CCC \& SWC |
| Bos taurus taurus | Romosinuano | ROMO321680 | 169 | US, parents imported from <br> Venezuela \& Costa Rica | JFT | CCC \& SWC |
| Bos taurus taurus | Romosinuano | ROMO321690 | 246 | US, parents imported from Venezuela \& Costa Rica | JFT | CCC \& SWC |
| Bos taurus taurus | Romosinuano | ROMO321700 | 378 | US, parents imported from Venezuela \& Costa Rica US, parents imported from | JFT | CCC \& SWC |
| Bos taurus taurus | Romosinuano | ROMO321710 ROMO321720 | 381 389 |  | JFT JFT | CCC \& SWC CCC \& SWC |
| Bos taurus taurus | Romosinuano | ROMO321730 | 389 390 | Venezuela \& Costa Rica US, parents imported from Venezuela \& Costa Rica | JFT | CCC \& SWC |
| Bos taurus taurus | Salers | SAL275480 | 53 | USA | CSM |  |
| Bos taurus taurus | Salers | SAL275490 | 54 | USA | CSM |  |
| Bos taurus taurus | Salers | SAL329270 | 19999875 | USA | MPH |  |
| Bos taurus taurus | Salers | SAL329280 | 19999876 | USA | MPH |  |
| Bos taurus taurus | Salers | SAL329290 | 19999880 | USA | MPH |  |
| Bos taurus taurus | Scottish Highland | SCHL275570 | 62 | USA | CSM |  |
| Bos taurus taurus | Scottish Highland | SCHL329150 | 19361120 | USA | MPH |  |
| Bos taurus taurus | Scottish Highland | SCHL329160 | 19361156 | USA | MPH |  |
| Bos taurus taurus | Scottish Highland | SCHL329170 | 19361158 | USA | MPH |  |

Cont. Table 2.4 Provenance for all samples included in the analyses

| Group | Common Name | UMC Sample ID | Provider Sample ID | Sample Location | Primary Contact | Secondary Contact |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Bos taurus taurus | Scottish Highland | SCHL328370 | HI-2215 | Great Britain | PW |  |
| Bos taurus taurus | Scottish Highland | SCHL328380 | HI-2221 | Great Britain | PW |  |
| Bos taurus taurus | Scottish Highland | SCHL328390 | HI-2223 | Great Britain | PW |  |
| Bos taurus taurus | Scottish Highland | SCHL328400 | HI-2225 | Great Britain | PW |  |
| Bos taurus taurus | Shorthorn | SH330660 |  | USA | JFT |  |
| Bos taurus taurus | Shorthorn | SH330700 |  | USA | JFT |  |
| Bos taurus taurus | Shorthorn | SH330720 |  | USA | JFT |  |
| Bos taurus taurus | Shorthorn | SH330780 |  | USA | JFT |  |
| Bos taurus taurus | Shorthorn | SH330800 |  | USA | JFT |  |
| Bos taurus taurus | Shorthorn | SH330840 |  | USA | JFT |  |
| Bos taurus taurus | Shorthorn | SH330850 |  | USA | JFT |  |
| Bos taurus taurus | Shorthorn | SH330880 |  | USA | JFT |  |
| Bos taurus taurus | Shorthorn | SH330900 |  | USA | JFT |  |
| Bos taurus taurus | Shorthorn | SH330980 |  | USA | JFT |  |
| Bos taurus taurus | Simmental | SIM173550 | M990926 | USA | JFT |  |
| Bos taurus taurus | Simmental | SIM183650 | 3210 | USA | JFT | HDD |
| Bos taurus taurus | Simmental | SIM183660 | 3207 | USA | JFT | HDD |
| Bos taurus taurus | Simmental | SIM183680 | 8298 | USA | JFT | HDD |

Cont. Table 2.4 Provenance for all samples included in the analyses

| Group | Common Name | UMC Sample ID | Provider Sample ID | Sample Location | Primary Secondary Contact Contact |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Bos taurus taurus | Simmental | SIM209060 | 105 | USA | JFT |
| Bos taurus taurus | Simmental | SIM088430 |  | USA | JFT |
| Bos taurus taurus | Simmental | SIM088450 |  | USA | JFT |
| Bos taurus taurus | Simmental | SIM088460 |  | USA | JFT |
| Bos taurus taurus | Simmental | SIM088470 |  | USA | JFT |
| Bos taurus taurus | Simmental | SIM088500 |  | USA | JFT |
| Bos taurus taurus | South Devon | SDEV328480 | SD-3354 | Great Britain | PW |
| Bos taurus taurus | South Devon | SDEV328490 | SD-4090 | Great Britain | PW |
| Bos taurus taurus | South Devon | SDEV328500 | SD-5290 | Great Britain | PW |
| Bos taurus taurus | South Devon | SDEV328510 | SD-5972 | Great Britain | PW |
| Bos taurus taurus | Sussex | SUSS328560 | SU-2151 | Great Britain | PW |
| Bos taurus taurus | Sussex | SUSS328570 | SU-2152 | Great Britain | PW |
| Bos taurus taurus | Sussex | SUSS328580 | SU-2153 | Great Britain | PW |
| Bos taurus taurus | Sussex | SUSS328590 | SU-2154 | Great Britain | PW |
| Bos taurus taurus | Tarentaise | TARE329010 | 19293035 | USA | MPH |
| Bos taurus taurus | Tarentaise | TARE329020 | 19293032 | USA | MPH |
| Bos taurus taurus | Tarentaise | TARE329030 | 19293033 | USA | MPH |
| Bos taurus taurus | Tarentaise | TARE329040 | 19293034 | USA | MPH |

Cont. Table 2.4 Provenance for all samples included in the analyses

| Group | Common Name | UMC Sample <br> ID | Provider Sample ID | Sample Location | Primary Secondary <br> contact <br> Contact |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Bos taurus taurus | Tarentaise | TARE329050 | 19293129 | USA | MPH |
| Bos taurus taurus | Texas Longhorn | TXLH275450 | 50 | USA | CSM |
| Bos taurus taurus | Texas Longhorn | TXLH329350 | 19999872 | USA | MPH |
| Bos taurus taurus | Texas Longhorn | TXLH329390 | 19330046 | USA | MPH |
| Bos taurus taurus | Texas Longhorn | TXLH329410 | 19330055 | USA | MPH |
| Bos taurus taurus | Texas Longhorn | TXLH329430 | 19330061 | USA | MPH |
| Bos taurus taurus | Texas Longhorn | TXLH329500 | 19330081 | USA | MPH |
| Bos taurus taurus | Texas Longhorn | TXLH329520 | 19330086 | USA | MPH |
| Bos taurus taurus | Texas Longhorn | TXLH329540 | 19330091 | USA | MPH |
| Bos taurus taurus | Texas Longhorn | TXLH329590 | 19330105 | USA | MPH |
| Bos taurus taurus | Texas Longhorn | TXLH329600 | 19859870 | USA | MPH |
| Bos taurus taurus | Wagyu | WAGY206270 | 686 | USA | HLN ${ }^{30}$ |
| Bos taurus taurus | Wagyu | WAGY206280 | 1615 | USA | HLN |
| Bos taurus taurus | Wagyu | WAGY206290 | 2101 | USA | HLN |
| Bos taurus taurus | Wagyu | WAGY206300 | 2126 | USA | HLN |
| Bos taurus taurus | Wagyu | WAGY206310 | 2127 | USA | HLN |
| Bos taurus taurus | Wagyu | WAGY206340 | 2892 | USA | HLN |
| Bos taurus taurus | Wagyu | WAGY206360 | 4210 | USA | HLN |

Cont. Table 2.4 Provenance for all samples included in the analyses

| Group | Common Name | UMC Sample | Provider Sample ID | Sample Location | Primary Secondary <br> Contact <br> Contact |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | 로 롳 론 3 3 3 3 Md PW

MPH MPH
MPH MPH MPH MPH MPH $\stackrel{\text { I }}{\text { I }}$ $\stackrel{\text { I }}{\Sigma}$
 $\underset{\propto}{\underset{\propto}{\circledR}}$


 | Bos taurus taurus | Wagyu |
| :--- | :---: |
| Bos taurus taurus | Wagyu |
| Bos taurus taurus | Wagyu |
| Bos taurus taurus | Welsh Black |
| Bos taurus taurus | Welsh Black |
| Bos taurus taurus | White Park |
| Bos taurus taurus | White Park |
| Bos taurus taurus | White Park |
| Bos taurus taurus | White Park |
| Boselaphus tragocamelus | Nilgai |
| Boselaphus tragocamelus | Nilgai |
| Boselaphus tragocamelus | Nilgai |
| Boselaphus tragocamelus | Nilgai |
| Boselaphus tragocamelus | Nilgai |
| Boselaphus tragocamelus | Nilgai |
| Boselaphus tragocamelus | Nilgai |
| Boselaphus tragocamelus | Nilgai |
| Bubalus bubalis | Asian water buffalo |

Cont. Table 2.4 Provenance for all samples included in the analyses

| Group | Common Name | UMC Sample |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| ID | Provider Sample ID | Sample Location | Primary Secondary |
| Contact |  |  |  |
| Contact |  |  |  |

Cont. Table 2.4 Provenance for all samples included in the analyses

| Common Name | UMC Sample |  |  |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Group | ID | Provider Sample ID | Sample Location | Primary Secondary |
| Contact |  |  |  |  |
| Contact |  |  |  |  |

Cont. Table 2.4 Provenance for all samples included in the analyses

| Group | Common Name | $\begin{gathered} \hline \text { UMC Sample } \\ \text { ID } \\ \hline \end{gathered}$ | Provider Sample ID | Sample Location | Primar Contac | Secondary Contact |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Connochaetes gnou | Black wildebeest | Cgno330090 | 200758006 | South Africa | MPH |  |
| Connochaetes gnou | Black wildebeest | Cgno330100 | 200758007 | South Africa | MPH |  |
| Connochaetes taurinus | Blue wildebeest | Ctau329930 | 200758001 | Kimberley, South Africa | MPH |  |
| Connochaetes taurinus | Blue wildebeest | Ctau330050 | 200758002 | South Africa | MPH |  |
| Connochaetes taurinus | Blue wildebeest | Ctau330060 | 200758003 | Zimbabwe | MPH |  |
| Connochaetes taurinus | Blue wildebeest | Ctau330070 | 200758004 | Tanzania | MPH |  |
| Dama dama | Fallow deer | Ddam276310 | 200620004 | Candor, New York, USA | MPH |  |
| Dama dama | Fallow deer | Ddam276320 | 200620005 | Candor, New York, USA | MPH |  |
| Dama dama | Fallow deer | Ddam276330 | 200620006 | Candor, New York, USA | MPH |  |
| Dama dama | Fallow deer | Ddam276340 | 200620007 | Candor, New York, USA | MPH |  |
| Dama dama | Fallow deer | Ddam276350 | 200720008 | Edwards County, Texas, USA | MPH |  |
| Dama dama | Fallow deer | Ddam276360 | 200720009 | Kerr County, Texas, USA | MPH |  |
| Dama dama | Fallow deer | Ddam276370 | 200720010 | Kerr County, Texas, USA | MPH |  |
| Dama dama | Fallow deer | Ddam276380 | 200720011 | Kerr County, Texas, USA | MPH |  |
| Damaliscus korrigum jimela | Topi | Dkor278160 | SAZ 13 | San Antonio Zoo, Texas, USA | CSM | JEW |
| Damaliscus lunatus | Topi | Dlun329910 | 200754001 | South Africa | MPH |  |
| Damaliscus lunatus | Topi | Dlun329990 | 200754002 | Mpumalanga, South Africa | MPH |  |
| Damaliscus pygargus phillipsi | Blesbok | BLES329610 | 200759001 | Port Alfred, South Africa | MPH |  |

Cont. Table 2.4 Provenance for all samples included in the analyses

| Group | Common Name | UMC Sample | Provider Sample ID | Sample Location | Primary Secondary |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Contact | Contact |  |  |  |  |

Cont. Table 2.4 Provenance for all samples included in the analyses

| Group | Common Name | UMC Sample <br> ID | Provider Sample ID | Sample Location |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Primary Secondary |  |  |  |  |
| Contact |  |  |  |  |

Cont. Table 2.4 Provenance for all samples included in the analyses

| Group | Common Name | UMC Sample | Provider Sample ID | Sample Location | Primary Secondary <br> Contact |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Contact |  |  |  |  |  |

Cont. Table 2.4 Provenance for all samples included in the analyses

| Group | Common Name | UMC Sample | Provider Sample ID | Sample Location | Primary Secondary <br> Contact |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Contact |  |  |  |  |  |

Cont. Table 2.4 Provenance for all samples included in the analyses

| Group | Common Name | UMC Sample ID | Provider Sample ID | Sample Location | Primary Contact | Secondary Contact |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Rangifer tarandus | Caribou | Rtar276550 | $\begin{gathered} \text { 200323003/AF324/UA7 } \\ 3310 \end{gathered}$ | Alaska, USA | MPH | JIS |
| Rangifer tarandus | Caribou | Rtar276560 | 200323004/AF1204/UA 30592 | Alaska, USA | MPH | JIS |
| Rangifer tarandus | Caribou | Rtar276580 | $\begin{gathered} \text { 200323006/AF12971/U } \\ \text { A31862 } \end{gathered}$ | Alaska, USA | MPH | JIS |
| Rangifer tarandus | Caribou | Rtar276590 | $\begin{gathered} \text { 200323007/AF24825/U } \\ \text { A69489 } \end{gathered}$ | Alaska, USA | MPH | JIS |
| Rangifer tarandus | Caribou | Rtar276600 | 200323008/AF33766/U A53736 | Alaska, USA | MPH | JIS |
| Raphicerus campestris | Steenbok | Rcam330390 | 200775001 | Namibia | MPH |  |
| Raphicerus campestris | Steenbok | Rcam330400 | 200775002 | South Africa | MPH |  |
| Redunca arundinum | Southern Reedbuck | Raru329880 | 200771001 | Port Alfred, South Africa | MPH |  |
| Redunca fulvorufula | Mountain Reedbuck | Rful330330 | 200771002 | South Africa | MPH |  |
| Redunca fulvorufula | Mountain Reedbuck | Rful330340 | 200771003 | South Africa | MPH |  |
| Redunca fulvorufula | Mountain Reedbuck | Rful330350 | 200771004 | South Africa | MPH |  |
| Rupicapra rupicapra | Chamois | Rrup278090 | Rr 6389 | San Diego Zoo, Texas, USA | CSM | JEW |
| Sylvicapra grimmia | Common duiker | Sgri329670 | 200768001 | Namibia | MPH |  |
| Sylvicapra grimmia | Common duiker | Sgri330270 | 200768002 | South Africa | MPH |  |
| Sylvicapra grimmia | Common duiker | Sgri330280 | 200768003 | South Africa | MPH |  |
| Syncerus caffer | African buffalo | Scaf278240 | SCM 451 | San Antonio Zoo, Texas, USA | CSM | JEW |
| Syncerus caffer | African buffalo | Scaf338659 | WG0042000DNAE12_OCB000001 | Henry Doorly Zoo, Nebraska, USA | RAB |  |
| Syncerus caffer | African buffalo | Scaf338669 | WG0042000- <br> DNAF12_OCB000002 | Henry Doorly Zoo, Nebraska, USA | RAB |  |

Cont. Table 2.4 Provenance for all samples included in the analyses

| Group | Common Name | UMC Sample |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| ID |  |  | Provider Sample ID $\quad$ Sample Location | Primary Secondary |
| :---: |
| Contact |
| Contact |

Cont. Table 2.4 Provenance for all samples included in the analyses

| Group | Common Name | UMC Sample |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| ID |  |  | Provider Sample ID $\quad$ Sample Location | Primary Secondary |
| :---: |
| Contact |
| Contact |

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Table S4 in publication.

Table 2.5. Average MAF for all 54,693 SNP and the 40,843 SNP used in phylogenomic analysis for all species and breeds (excluding groups with only 1 sample).
The difference shows that we effectively increased the proportion of informative characters within cattle breeds and simultaneously reduced possible genotype errors in species outside of Bos taurus using our SNP selection criteria. Species in grey were excluded from the final phylogeny (see text).

| Scientific Name | Common Name/Breed | Average MAF (54,693 SNP) | Average MAF (40843 SNP) | Difference |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Antilocapra americana | Pronghorn | 0.048 | 0.035 | -0.013 |
| Aepyceros melampus | Impala | 0.033 | 0.018 | -0.016 |
| Alcelaphus buselaphus jacksoni | Jackson's hartebeest | 0.021 | 0.014 | -0.006 |
| Alcelaphus lichtensteinii | Lichtenstein's hartebeest | 0.016 | 0.010 | -0.006 |
| Connochaetes gnou | Black wildebeest | 0.020 | 0.014 | -0.006 |
| Connochaetes taurinus | Blue wildebeest | 0.036 | 0.027 | -0.009 |
| Damaliscus pygargus phillipsi | Blesbok | 0.068 | 0.018 | -0.050 |
| Damaliscus korrigum jimela | Topi | 0.012 | 0.007 | -0.005 |
| Damaliscus lunatus | Topi | 0.018 | 0.012 | -0.006 |
| Antidorcas marsupialis | Springbok | 0.053 | 0.022 | -0.031 |
| Antilope cervicapra | Blackbuck | 0.027 | 0.018 | -0.009 |
| Gazella dorcas | Dorcas gazelle | 0.016 |  |  |
| Nanger granti | Grant's Roosevelt gazelle | 0.016 | 0.012 | -0.005 |
| Gazella spekei | Speke's gazelle | 0.011 | 0.007 | -0.004 |
| Gazella subgutturosa | Persian gazelle | 0.021 | 0.013 | -0.008 |
| Gazella thomsoni | Thomson's gazelle | 0.023 | 0.015 | -0.009 |
| Litocranius walleri | Gerenuk | 0.249 |  |  |
| Nanger dama | Dama gazelle | 0.010 | 0.006 | -0.004 |
| Nanger granti | Grant's gazelle | 0.090 |  |  |
| Nanger soemmerringii | Soemmerring's gazelle | 0.010 | 0.006 | -0.004 |
| Oreotragus oreotragus | Klipspringer | 0.011 |  |  |
| Ourebia ourebi | Oribi | 0.021 | 0.014 | -0.007 |
| Raphicerus campestris | Steenbok | 0.029 | 0.021 | -0.007 |
| Bison bison | Plains Bison | 0.015 | 0.014 | -0.001 |
| Bison Bison athabascae | Wood Bison | 0.018 | 0.009 | -0.009 |
| Bison sp. | European Wisent |  |  |  |
| Bison priscus | Steppe Wisent |  |  |  |
| Bos gaurus | Gaur | 0.016 | 0.013 | -0.003 |
| Bos grunniens | Yak | 0.006 | 0.006 | 0.000 |
| Bos javanicus | Banteng | 0.012 | 0.012 | -0.001 |
| Bos taurus indicus | Gir | 0.109 | 0.111 | 0.002 |
| Bos taurus indicus | Guzerat | 0.095 | 0.098 | 0.003 |
| Bos taurus indicus | Nelore | 0.125 | 0.111 | -0.014 |


| Bos taurus indicus | Sahiwal | 0.106 | 0.111 | 0.005 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Bos taurus taurus | Angus | 0.219 | 0.219 | 0.000 |
| Bos taurus taurus | Belgian blue | 0.193 | 0.203 | 0.010 |
| Bos taurus taurus | Belted Galloway | 0.178 | 0.188 | 0.010 |
| Bos taurus taurus | Blonde d'Aquitaine | 0.198 | 0.207 | 0.010 |
| Bos taurus taurus | Brown Swiss | 0.192 | 0.186 | -0.006 |
| Bos taurus taurus | Charolais | 0.232 | 0.222 | -0.010 |
| Bos taurus taurus | Chianina | 0.205 | 0.209 | 0.004 |
| Bos taurus taurus | Corriente | 0.196 | 0.205 | 0.010 |
| Bos taurus taurus | Devon | 0.177 | 0.186 | 0.009 |
| Bos taurus taurus | Dexter | 0.180 | 0.189 | 0.009 |
| Bos taurus taurus | Finnish Ayrshire | 0.209 | 0.202 | -0.007 |
| Bos taurus taurus | Galloway | 0.176 | 0.185 | 0.009 |
| Bos taurus taurus | Gelbvieh | 0.206 | 0.216 | 0.010 |
| Bos taurus taurus | Guernsey | 0.192 | 0.192 | 0.000 |
| Bos taurus taurus | Hanwoo | 0.199 | 0.198 | -0.001 |
| Bos taurus taurus | Hereford | 0.225 | 0.213 | -0.012 |
| Bos taurus taurus | Holstein | 0.221 | 0.229 | 0.007 |
| Bos taurus taurus | Jersey | 0.187 | 0.181 | -0.006 |
| Bos taurus taurus | Kerry | 0.181 | 0.191 | 0.010 |
| Bos taurus taurus | Limousin | 0.220 | 0.215 | -0.005 |
| Bos taurus taurus | Longhorn | 0.144 | 0.139 | -0.005 |
| Bos taurus taurus | Maine Anjou | 0.187 | 0.196 | 0.009 |
| Bos taurus taurus | Marchigiana | 0.195 | 0.201 | 0.006 |
| Bos taurus taurus | Montbeliard | 0.186 | 0.195 | 0.009 |
| Bos taurus taurus | Murray Grey | 0.194 | 0.203 | 0.009 |
| Bos taurus taurus | N'Dama | 0.160 | 0.160 | 0.000 |
| Bos taurus taurus | Normande | 0.141 |  |  |
| Bos taurus taurus | Norwegian Red | 0.218 | 0.219 | 0.002 |
| Bos taurus taurus | Piedmontese | 0.220 | 0.224 | 0.004 |
| Bos taurus taurus | Pinzgauer | 0.198 | 0.207 | 0.009 |
| Bos taurus taurus | Red Angus | 0.209 | 0.217 | 0.008 |
| Bos taurus taurus | Red Poll | 0.185 | 0.193 | 0.008 |
| Bos taurus taurus | Romagnola | 0.201 | 0.205 | 0.003 |
| Bos taurus taurus | Romosinuano | 0.191 | 0.201 | 0.010 |
| Bos taurus taurus | Salers | 0.195 | 0.204 | 0.009 |
| Bos taurus taurus | Scottish Highland | 0.193 | 0.190 | -0.003 |
| Bos taurus taurus | Shorthorn | 0.196 | 0.192 | -0.004 |
| Bos taurus taurus | Simmental | 0.233 | 0.213 | -0.020 |
| Bos taurus taurus | South Devon | 0.183 | 0.190 | 0.007 |
| Bos taurus taurus | Sussex | 0.173 | 0.181 | 0.008 |


| Bos taurus taurus | Tarentaise | 0.195 | 0.204 | 0.009 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Bos taurus taurus | Texas Longhorn | 0.213 | 0.217 | 0.005 |
| Bos taurus taurus | Wagyu | 0.164 | 0.173 | 0.009 |
| Bos taurus taurus | Welsh Black | 0.176 | 0.184 | 0.009 |
| Bos taurus taurus | White Park | 0.170 | 0.151 | -0.019 |
| Boselaphus tragocamelus | Nilgai | 0.024 | 0.016 | -0.008 |
| Bubalus bubalis | Asian water buffalo | 0.025 | 0.013 | -0.012 |
| Syncerus caffer | African buffalo | 0.014 | 0.011 | -0.003 |
| Syncerus caffer nanus | African forest buffalo | 0.026 | 0.018 | -0.008 |
| Taurotragus oryx | Eland | 0.021 | 0.011 | -0.009 |
| Tragelaphus angasii | Nyala | 0.023 | 0.011 | -0.012 |
| Tragelaphus imberbis | Lesser Kudu | 0.028 | 0.020 | -0.008 |
| Tragelaphus scriptus | Bushbuck | 0.029 | 0.013 | -0.016 |
| Tragelaphus strepsiceros | Greater Kudu | 0.019 | 0.009 | -0.009 |
| Capra ibex | Ibex | 0.142 | 0.104 | -0.039 |
| Oreamnos americanus | North American mountain goat | 0.100 | 0.070 | -0.030 |
| Ovibos moschatus | Muskox | 0.027 | 0.018 | -0.009 |
| Ovis aries | Sheep | 0.004 | 0.004 | 0.000 |
| Ovis canadensis | Bighorn sheep | 0.056 | 0.044 | -0.012 |
| Rupicapra rupicapra | Chamois | 0.016 | 0.009 | -0.007 |
| Sylvicapra grimmia | Common duiker | 0.022 | 0.015 | -0.007 |
| Addax nasomaculatus | Addax | 0.009 | 0.005 | -0.004 |
| Hippotragus equinus | Roan antelope | 0.018 | 0.012 | -0.006 |
| Hippotragus niger | Sable antelope | 0.009 | 0.006 | -0.004 |
| Oryx beisa | East African oryx | 0.031 | 0.022 | -0.009 |
| Oryx dammah | Scimitar oryx | 0.008 | 0.005 | -0.003 |
| Oryx gazella | Gemsbok | 0.038 | 0.028 | -0.011 |
| Oryx leucoryx | Arabian oryx | 0.009 | 0.006 | -0.004 |
| Kobus ellipsiprymnus | Waterbuck | 0.024 | 0.017 | -0.007 |
| Kobus leche | Lechwe | 0.038 | 0.027 | -0.011 |
| Pelea capreolus | Rhebok | 0.019 | 0.014 | -0.005 |
| Redunca arundinum | Southern Reedbuck | 0.011 | 0.008 | -0.003 |
| Redunca fulvorufula | Mountain Reedbuck | 0.038 | 0.029 | -0.008 |
| Vicugna pacos | Alpaca | 0.168 |  |  |
| Alces alces | North American moose | 0.088 | 0.019 | -0.069 |
| Odocoileus virginianus | White-tailed deer | 0.036 | 0.027 | -0.009 |
| Rangifer tarandus | Caribou | 0.068 | 0.041 | -0.027 |
| Axis axis | Axis deer | 0.088 | 0.077 | -0.012 |
| Cervus canadensis | Rocky mountain elk | 0.022 | 0.014 | -0.008 |
| Cervus nippon | Sika deer | 0.049 | 0.037 | -0.012 |
| Dama dama | Fallow Deer | 0.027 | 0.018 | -0.010 |


| Loxodonta africana | Savanna elephant | 0.107 |  |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Equus caballus | feral horse | 0.041 |  |  |
| Giraffa camelopardalis <br> tippelskirchi | Masai Giraffe | 0.012 | 0.007 | -0.004 |

Table S5 in publication.

Table 2.6. List of samples used to estimate allele and haplotype frequencies for the estimation of Reynolds genetic distances.

| Breed | Number of Animals |
| :--- | ---: |
| Angus |  |
| Red Angus | 2056 |
| Murray Grey | 15 |
| Red Poll | 4 |
| Shorthorn | 5 |
| Lincoln Red | 76 |
| Ayrshire | 8 |
| Holstein | 440 |
| Hereford | 1308 |
| Guernsey | 122 |
| Jersey | 23 |
| Simmental | 78 |
| Brown Swiss | 78 |
| Limousin | 24 |
| Charolais | 1210 |
| Piedmontese | 54 |
| Romagnola | 29 |
| Hanwoo | 29 |
| Wagyu | 48 |
| N'Dama | 49 |
| Nelore | 59 |
| Gir | 68 |
| Total | 30 |

Table S6 in publication.

# 3. A NOVEL ANALYTICAL METHOD DETECTS RESPONSE OF THE ANGUS (BOS TAURUS) GENOME TO ARTIFICIAL SELECTION ON COMPLEX TRAITS 

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#### Abstract

\section*{Background}

Several methods have recently been developed to identify selective sweeps within genomes. However, recent theoretical and empirical work suggests that polygenic models are required to identify the genomic regions that have responded to selection on complex traits. Using DNA samples from US registered Angus beef bulls born over a 50 year period, we examine the effects of selection on the genome of this breed. We


present results from the application of a quantitative genetic model to identify signatures of recent ongoing selection.

## Results

We show that US Angus cattle have been selected to systematically alter their mean additive genetic merit for almost all of the 16 production traits routinely recorded by breeders. We further estimate the time-dependency of allele frequency for 44,817 SNP loci using genomic best linear unbiased prediction, $\operatorname{Bayes} \mathrm{C} \pi$, and generalized least squares. Finally, we reconstruct the primary phenotypes that have historically been exposed to selection from a genome-wide analysis of the 16 production traits and gene ontology enrichment analysis.

## Conclusions

We demonstrate that polygenic quantitative genetic models correct for sampling effects which lead to time-dependent pedigree stratification and reveal genomic signatures of ongoing selection. Because multiple traits have historically been simultaneously selected and most quantitative trait loci have small effects, selection has incrementally altered allele frequencies throughout the genome. Two QTL of large effect were not among the most strongly selected loci due to their antagonistic pleiotropic effects on strongly selected phenotypes. Our method may readily be extended to temporallystratified human or model organism populations.

## Keywords

selective sweep, polygenic model, pleiotropy, cattle, phenotype, genotype

## Background

Several statistical tests have recently been developed to identify the genomic regions that have been subjected to strong recurrent selection. Most have been based on extreme population differentiation (Akey et al. 2002; Shriver et al. 2004; Weir et al. 2005), the enrichment of rare mutations in the site frequency spectrum (Carlson et al. 2005; Kelley et al. 2006), or patterns of extended haplotype homozygosity (Sabeti et al. 2007; Voight et al. 2006; Wang et al. 2006). See (Akey 2009; Hancock, AlkortaAranburu, et al. 2010) for further review. These tests have now been used to detect molecular signatures of selection in cattle (Gautier and Naves 2011; Gibbs et al. 2009; Hayes et al. 2009; Hayes et al. 2008; Qanbari et al. 2011; Qanbari et al. 2010). However, recently, there has been a call to employ polygenic models to simultaneously identify loci responding to selection but that do not fit the typical "hard sweep" paradigm (Pritchard and Di Rienzo 2010; Pritchard, Pickrell, and Coop 2010).

Concurrent with the development of new approaches for the detection of selective sweeps, the statistical models employed for genome-wide association studies have been improved. Some of the refinements deal with the effects of population structure and kinship between sampled individuals, since not accounting for these effects can significantly increase the number of false positive associations; see (Price et al. 2010) for review. Furthermore, there has also been a shift toward the application of
polygenic models for the identification of genetic risk factors and variants associated with complex phenotypes (McClure et al. 2012; Yang et al. 2010).

In this study, we merge the search for loci responding to selection with advanced genome-wide association models to quantify the genome-wide response to selection in US registered Angus cattle. By so doing, we answer the call for the application of polygenic models for the detection of genomic imprints of selection.

## Results

## Evidence of selection

Deregressed estimated breeding values (EBV) (Garrick, Taylor, and Fernando 2009) for 16 production traits (see Supplementary Information for definitions) were regressed on birth date (measured as a continuous variable with month and day converted to a decimal fraction of a year) for 3,570 registered Angus cattle (Table 3.7, Figure 3.1 and Figures 3.7-3.20). For traits that can easily be appraised and for which expected progeny differences (EPD, one half of the EBV) were implemented earlier in the development of the breed (e.g., growth and stature), selection has significantly changed the breed additive genetic mean over time. For traits for which increased production has been consistently desirable, such as weaning weight, yearling weight, and milk, additive genetic means have increased linearly (Table 3.7; Figures 3.1b, 3.8, and 3.14). However, additive genetic means for birth weight, yearling height, mature weight, and mature height increased until the mid-1980s when breeders recognized the detrimental effects of large birth weights on calving difficulty and large mature size on cow
maintenance requirements and fertility, and these traits were subsequently selected to decrease (Figures 3.1a, 3.9, 3.15, and 3.16). For these traits, the quadratic regression models have a much smaller Akaike Information Criteria (AIC), larger adjusted $R^{2}$ values, and smaller p-values (Table 3.7). Traits for which EPDs have only recently been developed and made available to breeders, such as docility and heifer pregnancy rate, show little change in mean additive genetic merit over time (Figures 3.11 and 3.12). Docility and heifer pregnancy rate had among the smallest of $R^{2}$ values of all the fitted linear and quadratic regression models. Mean additive genetic merit for all of the growth traits (WW, YW, and CW) and for the incidence of unassisted births (CED and CEM) has increased annually. Weaning weight has increased, on average, by 2.81 pounds per year and the rate of unassisted births (CED) has increased by $0.56 \%$ per year - remarkable achievements by Angus breeders considering the 50 year span of these data.

## Signatures of Selection

Here we introduce a novel method for identifying loci that are responding to ongoing selection. Selection induces changes in allele frequency for the selected mutation, as well as for neighbouring loci which hitchhike along with the selected loci due to the presence of linkage disequilibrium between the loci. Accordingly, individual allele frequencies ( $1,0.5$, or 0 for $A A, A B$, and $B B$ individuals) could simply be regressed on birth date to identify loci that have rapidly changed in frequency over time. However, in the presence of any sampling bias that manifests as a nonrandom ascertainment of
family members in time, this approach suffers from a high false-positive rate of detection of loci subject to selection (data not shown). The bias results from a pedigreebased stratification in the depth of sampling of DNA on individuals within different families and differences in allele frequencies between families such that the differences in allele frequencies between families are partially confounded with differences in allele frequencies in time. In other words, this approach is confounded by pedigree relationships and the nonrandom sampling of families at different time points. In our approach, rather than regressing allele frequencies on birth year, we invert the relationship and fit birth year to a model that includes individual additive genetic merits and simultaneously estimate allele substitution effects (ASEs) for all fitted single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) (McClure et al. 2012). With the analysis framed from this perspective, we can identify the SNPs most strongly associated with differences in birth date while accounting for kinship within the sample through the use of the genomic relationship matrix in the mixed model equations (Price et al. 2010).

We estimated ASEs for 45,073 SNPs that predict birth date for 3,570 registered Angus cattle using genomic best linear unbiased prediction (GBLUP) (McClure et al. 2012; VanRaden 2008; Saatchi et al. 2011), but do not report results for the 256 SNPs that map to unassigned contigs in the UMD3.1 reference assembly (Zimin et al. 2009). Allele substitution effects were converted to estimates of additive genetic variance associated with each SNP (See Methods). Although selection has caused only small changes in allele frequency at most loci, some loci, in particular on chromosomes 1, 10,

23 and 29, have achieved strong selection responses (Figure 3.2). The two peaks on chromosome 23 contain the MHC (BoLA) and numerous olfactory receptors.

We also used the generalized least squares mixed model framework implemented in EMMAX to analyse birth date. EMMAX estimates SNP ASEs as fixed effects for each marker individually for which p-values can also be estimated, whereas GBLUP simultaneously fits all markers as random effects and does not estimate pvalues. This analysis also predicted that most of the loci had small responses to selection. However, after correcting for multiple testing using FDR procedures (Storey and Tibshirani 2003), loci on chromosomes $1,2,3,6,20,21,22,23,24$ and 29 were significant at FDR $<0.1$ and loci on chromosomes $1,2,5,7,10,14,25,26,27,28$ and $X$ were suggestive at $\operatorname{FDR}<0.25$ in their statistical significance for response to selection (Figure 3.3).

Finally, we used GenSel (Fernando and Garrick 2012) to fit a non-linear BayesC $\pi$ model (Habier et al. 2011) in which the parameter $\pi$ estimates the proportion of SNPs that are not associated with the trait. We estimated $\pi$ to be 0.978856 , and thus $2.11 \%$ (948) of the SNPs were predictive of birth date and therefore putatively exposed to strong selection. BayesC $\pi$ employs a MCMC approach in which 1- $\pi$ of the SNPs are sampled for inclusion in the model in each chain and estimated SNP ASEs are finally shrunken according to the proportion of times each SNP is retained in the selected model. Thus, SNPs that are rarely retained in the model have their ASEs strongly
regressed towards zero. This analysis revealed large peaks on chromosomes 1, 2, 3, 7, 8, 10, 11, 14, 15, 17, 19, 22, 23, 24, 25, 26, 28, 29 and $X$ (Figure 3.4).

The SNP ASEs estimated with GBLUP and with EMMAX were quite similar with a Spearman correlation of 0.9238 and a Pearson correlation of 0.7782 . The difference in ASE magnitude identified by the Pearson correlation reflects the difference in fitting SNPs as random or fixed effects. The SNP ASEs estimated by GBLUP and BayesC $\pi$ also ranked similarly with a Spearman correlation of 0.8507, but had a Pearson correlation of only 0.5553 likely due to the strong shrinkage of small effect SNPs in BayesC $\pi$. The EMMAX and BayesC $\pi$ ASEs had a Spearman correlation of 0.8280 and Pearson correlation of 0.4624 . The GBLUP and EMMAX analyses estimated the heritability of birth date to be 0.5336 and 0.5314 , respectively, using restricted maximum likelihood estimation of variance components. The BayesC $\pi$ analysis estimated the heritability of birth date to be 0.7169 .

## Effective Population Size and Drift

To demonstrate that drift has a very limited effect on allele frequency changes in time within the artificially selected US Angus breed, we estimated the effective population size, under the neutral model, and modelled the effects of drift on neutral loci. Using a pedigree of up to 63 generations and which comprised 91,001 Angus animals including the 3,570 genotyped cattle and all known ancestors, we estimated the generation interval for US Angus sires to be 4.99 years, which was the average age of sires born between 1941 and 1990 at the birth of their male and female registered progeny. From
this pedigree, we also estimated inbreeding coefficients (denoted as $F$ ) for all animals from which we estimated effective population size from the regression of $F$ on generation. From a principal component analysis of the SNP genotypes, we identified two distinct subgroups within our sample. In Figure 3.21, we identified the Wye Angus herd (Anon.) which was formed from an importation of bulls from the British Isles and then closed to new germplasm in 1958 as a group that was distinct from the remaining US registered Angus cattle. The inbreeding effective population size for the Wye herd was estimated to be $36.41 \pm 0.03$, whereas the effective population size for the remaining North American Angus was estimated to be $267.59 \pm 0.02$ using animals born after 1930 and $116.15 \pm 0.04$ using animals born after 1980 (Figure 3.5a and Table 3.1). For each of the 44,817 SNPs, we constructed a test (see Methods) to determine whether the observed change in allele frequency could be explained by drift or was due to selection. From this analysis, we found that the observed allele frequency changes exceeded the likely changes due to drift for $84.60 \%$ of the 44,817 SNPs.

We also compared genomic with pedigree estimates of $F$. The realized genomic $F$ have a larger variance $\left(s^{2}=0.0023\right)$ than the pedigree $F\left(s^{2}=0.0014\right)$ and the two measures of $F$ were only weakly correlated with a Pearson correlation of 0.648 (Figure 3.5b) which is consistent with the underestimation of pedigree $F$ due to the assumption that $F$ is zero for all animals in the base generation, pedigree errors, and incomplete pedigree information. We regressed pedigree $F$ on genomic $F$, and found the slope of the regression to be $0.49 \pm 0.01$. Separate regressions for the Wye and North American

Angus revealed pedigree and genomic $F$ coefficients to be more similar for the Wye herd than for the remaining North American Angus cattle (see Figure 3.5b and Table 3.2).

Because genomic $F$ estimates require fewer assumptions, we also calculated $N_{e}$ using the genomic F coefficients of North American Angus born after 1980. This resulted in a $N_{e}$ of $94.18 \pm 0.10$ (Table 3.1). Using this $N_{e}$ in our drift test, we estimated that allele frequency changes exceeded the likely changes due to drift for $82.41 \%$ of the 44,817 SNPs.

## Connecting Selected Phenotype to Selected Genotype

Using GBLUP, additive genetic variation is partitioned into contributions from individual loci accounting for the extent of linkage disequilibrium between the loci. We analysed deregressed EBVs in a weighted analysis (Garrick, Taylor, and Fernando 2009) for 16 production traits (Supplementary Information) using data provided by the American Angus Association (AAA) under an animal model which incorporated a genomic relationship matrix and from which we estimated the proportion of additive genetic variance explained by the SNP markers (Table 3.3). Genetic correlations between traits were estimated as the correlations between SNP ASEs for pairs of traits (Table 3.4). With the exception of two QTL on chromosomes 7 and 20, most genes influencing variation in growth traits in Angus cattle are of small effect (Figures 3.6, 3.22-3.36). The most likely location of the pleiotropic QTL on chromosome 7 was found to be at 93.22 Mbp in the GBLUP analyses. However, the largest effect birth date QTL on this chromosome was found at 99.02 Mbp (Figure 3.2) by GBLUP, at 100.02 Mbp by BayesC $\pi$
(Figure 3.4), and a small, but not significant, birth date QTL was found at 99.02 Mbp in the EMMAX results (Figure 3.3). The SNP at 93.22 Mbp on chromosome 7 was ranked 11,224 out of the 44,817 SNP effects for birth date ( $74^{\text {th }}$ sample percentile, i.e. the ASE for this SNP was larger than 74\% of all SNP ASEs). The most likely location of the pleiotropic QTL on chromosome 20 was estimated to be at 4.62 Mbp and QTL signals were detected at 5.1 Mbp in the GBLUP and at 5.9 Mbp in the EMMAX analyses of birth date. The SNP at 4.62 Mbp on chromosome 20 was ranked 5,168 of the 44,817 SNP effects for birth date ( $88^{\text {th }}$ ASE percentile).

To assess the identity of the trait or combination of traits that have historically been under selection in Angus cattle and that produced the molecular signals of selection, we simultaneously regressed the SNP ASEs for birth date on the corresponding standardized SNP ASE multiplied by the allele frequencies ( $p q A S E / \sigma_{A S E}$ ) for all 16 production traits for which the AAA routinely produces EPDs (Table 3.5). This model yielded an adjusted $R^{2}$ of 0.3148 and the partial regression coefficients yield estimates of relative selection intensities for which those for weaning weight, calving ease direct, and milk were the largest. The relative selection intensities for mature weight, mature height, fat thickness, and ribeye muscle area were not significant (Bonferroni corrected $\mathrm{P}>0.0029$ ). We also fit this model for the 948 SNPs with the largest birth date ASEs, and which yielded an adjusted $R^{2}$ of 0.7268 (Table 3.6). Again, weaning weight, milk, and calving ease direct had the largest relative selection intensities. However, the partial regression coefficients for yearling weight, fat thickness, carcass weight, scrotal circumference, heifer pregnancy, mature weight,
mature height, docility, and ribeye area were not significant (Bonferroni corrected $\mathrm{P}>$ 0.0029). Table 3.4 shows that ASEs for weaning weight, yearling weight, milk, calving ease maternal, carcass weight, marbling and calving ease direct had the largest pairwise correlations with ASEs for birth date.

Finally, to elucidate the biological processes associated with the genes located in the genomic regions detected to be under selection, we estimated the gene ontology term enrichment for the annotated genes within these regions (See Additional Files 2 and 3). From the GBLUP results we queried 4,216 genes within 250 Kbp of the top ranked 948 SNPs for their birth date ASEs, and from the Bayes $C \pi$ results we queried 4,033 genes within 250 Kbp of the top 948 SNPs. There were 1,223 genes shared between the two lists. Various biological processes appear to be under selection based on the GBLUP results - notably growth and metabolic processes at level 1 ; regulation of cellular component biogenesis, biosynthetic processes, organ growth, cell proliferation, and molting cycle at level 2; and organic acid metabolic processes, protein metabolic processes, and vitamin metabolic processes at level 3; antigen processing and presentation of peptide or polysaccharide antigen via MHC class II, lymphocyte activation, and leukocyte activation at level 4 (Additional File 2 contains the complete list). The GBLUP results also found the MHC class II protein complex to be an enriched cellular component, olfactory receptor activity to be an enriched molecular function, and olfactory transduction to be an enriched KEGG pathway. The BayesC $\pi$ analysis found the enriched biological processes to include developmental processes, cellular processes, and biological regulation at level 1; embryonic development, anatomical
structure development, and anatomical structure morphogenesis at level 2; lipid transport, response to oxidative stress, embryonic morphogenesis, appendage morphogenesis, palate development, and cellular response to stress at level 3; and spermatid development, and eating behaviour at level 4. The MHC class II protein complex and PML body (viral infections induce changes in PML (Anon.)) were also found to be enriched cellular components, somatotropin/prolactin gene family members were enriched, and placenta and fetal muscle were found to be enriched tissues. The following heat shock genes were inferred to be under selection: HSP90AB1, HSPA12A, HSPA1A, HSPA1B, HSPA1L, HSPA4L, HSPB3, HSPD1, HSPE1, and HSPBAP1.

## Discussion

Most of the phenotypes routinely recorded in Angus cattle have been under directional selection in the recent history of the breed. Artificial selection has increased the weights at which cattle are marketed either at weaning or yearling ages (Figures 3.2, 3.8, and 3.17) while simultaneously decreasing the incidence of assisted births (Figures 3.7 and 3.13). Larger birth weights and yearling heights are both strongly associated with increased calving difficulty (Table 3.4) and genetic trend in both traits increased until about the mid-1980s, after which both began to decrease (Figures 3.2 and 3.9). Birth weight was not directly selected by breeders to increase, but increased as a correlated response to selection for increased weaning and yearling weights. However, yearling height was actively selected to increase by some breeders to make Angus cattle more comparable in frame size to the Continental European breeds which were imported into
the US during the 1970s. Once the undesirable correlated response in calving ease became appreciated by breeders, selection was practised to increase weaning and yearling weights while maintaining birth weight and yearling height constant.

Using EMMAX, only eleven loci were found to be significantly associated with birth date, but all loci simultaneously explained $53 \%$ of the variation in birth date. BayesC $\pi$ estimated that $2.11 \%$ of the SNPs were associated with birth date, and produced an estimated heritability of 0.72 . The difference in heritability estimates between the GBLUP and EMMAX analyses compared to the BayesC $\pi$ analysis is likely due to the fact that GBLUP and EMMAX assume the infinitesimal model in which all SNP ASEs are drawn from a distribution with constant variance and, thus, regress all effects equally towards the mean of zero. On the other hand, BayesC $\pi$ begins with a distribution with constant variance but shrinks variance for SNPs rarely fit in the model. This results in much less of a regression for large ASEs which may lead to larger estimates of the additive genetic variance - as was found here - when there are large effect loci underlying variation. In the absence of selection, genotype should be independent of time provided that the effects of drift are negligible. In this case, the infinitesimal model should apply with all SNP ASEs being small leading to a small estimate of heritability. However, this was not the case in US registered Angus cattle and we conclude that a few variants are rapidly responding to selection (our results suggest $2.11 \%$ ) and that most of the genome ( $82.4 \%$ from the drift analysis) is responding more slowly to selection. Therefore, these analyses strongly support the
infinitesimal model under which selection is expected to produce small changes in allele frequency at a large number of loci, all of small individual effect.

The SNP ASEs for the 16 analysed traits indicate that, with the exception of the two large effect QTL on BTA7 and 20, the vast majority of QTL underlying quantitative traits in beef cattle are of small effect. Of considerable interest, neither of these QTL was found to be under strong selection and this seems to be because of their large antagonistic pleiotropic effects on growth and calving difficulty. When multiple traits are simultaneously selected, the genetic architecture of the population defined by the chromosomal organization of QTL alleles constrains both the phenotypic and genotypic response to selection.

For selection to be effective, the selection intensity and effective population size must be sufficiently large to overcome the effects of genetic drift. We demonstrate that US registered Angus cattle have a sufficiently large effective population size to enable successful artificial selection, but more importantly, that large generational changes in allele frequency are unlikely to occur due to drift alone. Furthermore, we found a considerable disparity between pedigree and genomic estimates of inbreeding coefficients. While others have argued that genomic relationship matrices should be adjusted to more closely resemble pedigree relationship matrices (Powell, Visscher, and Goddard 2010), we assert that genomic relationship matrices provide a more accurate description of the realized relationships among individuals which result from the Mendelian sampling of parental gametes and selection. The use of genomic relationship matrices in place of pedigree relationship matrices avoids the assumption of neutrality
of loci both in the estimation of inbreeding coefficients and the mean value of gametes inherited by progeny - both of which are assumed for the computation of the numerator relationship matrix (Quaas, Anderson, and Gilmour 1984). The disagreement between genomic $F$ and pedigree $F$ is likely to be due to the assumption that base animals are not inbreed, errors in the pedigrees, and missing pedigree information likely due to the large-scale importation of Canadian Angus cattle in the 1940s and 1950s which were not carriers of dwarfism alleles which had been driven to high frequency due to selection at the time (Baker, Blunn, and Plum 1951). This is supported by the closer agreement between pedigree and genomic $F$ coefficients for the Wye herd derived from British stock and with more complete pedigree records than the remaining US registered Angus animals (Table 3.2 and Figure 3.5b).

We attempted to identify the relative selection intensities placed on each selected trait via the imprints that multi-trait selection had left on the Angus genome. Although this analysis assumed no change in relative selection intensities in time, an assumption that is clearly violated in view of the genetic trends in birth weight and yearling height, we were able to confirm that growth traits have historically been under the most strongly selected in US registered Angus cattle. Because Angus is considered to be a maternal breed (i.e., motherly, used as dams in commercial beef production), it is logical that loci which influence calving ease, growth to weaning and milking ability should have been found to be under selection. Angus breeders have successfully selected to increase calving ease and body weight by selecting for body shapes that allow a calf's easy passage through the dam's pelvis. This is supported by the finding of
an enrichment of gene ontology terms related to skeletal development, skeletal morphogenesis, limb development, limb morphogenesis, and palate development within regions of the genome detected as responding to selection. We note that palate development is closely related to face and skeletal system morphogenesis (Anon. 2011). It has previously been shown that calving ease is negatively correlated with several body measures, such as head circumference, head width, hip width, hip height, heart girth, and cannon bone circumference (Bureš et al. 2008; Nugent, Notter, and Beal 1991; Wall et al. 2005). We also observed that the somatotropin/prolactin family of genes was enriched, due to selection for increased growth and milk production (Additional File 3). Conversely, traits such as fat thickness, mature height, ribeye muscle area, docility, and heifer pregnancy rate have not been as intensely selected as growth traits, probably due to the breeding objectives of beef producers, genetic antagonisms constraining selection response in these traits, and the historic difficulty in collecting field data to allow the development of EPDs for these traits.

There is also strong evidence that natural selection has occurred in this population. The regression of birth date ASEs on $p q A S E / \sigma_{A S E}$ coefficients for each trait suggests that natural selection was responsible for $27 \%$ of the variation in the response of the 948 loci most rapidly changing SNPs. Hair growth and shedding are under selection in Angus cattle, likely due to their introduction into new climates (Anon.). The gene ontology enrichment results also indicated that genes affecting immune response, such as the major histocompatibility complex, have strongly responded to selection
(Figures 3.2, 3.3, and 3.4, Additional Files 2 and 3), presumably due to the exposure of

Angus cattle to novel pathogens following their introduction to the US in 1873 (Anon.) and a continuous co-evolutionary "arms race" with bovine pathogens (Stavrinides, McCann, and Guttman 2008; Walker and Roberts 2009). We also observed that olfactory receptor loci have strongly responded to selection. The Bovine Genome Sequencing and Analysis Consortium (Elsik et al. 2009) found that olfactory receptors were commonly duplicated in the bovine genome. Our results suggest that many of these retained duplications remain under direct selection. Furthermore, the Bovine HapMap Consortium (Gibbs et al. 2009) found that ZNF187, which is expressed in olfactory tissues, and the MHC had some of the lowest $\mathrm{F}_{\text {st }}$ values in the entire genome when compared between breeds. Our BayesC $\pi$ results identify ZNF187 as a positively selected gene, and all analyses identified the MHC as being under selection. Thus, the response to selection on BTA23 may be common across cattle populations, causing small $\mathrm{F}_{\text {st }}$ values between breeds (convergence) but large changes in allele frequency over time (divergence).

Furthermore, natural selection may be buffering against the deleterious effects of inbreeding. We found that seminal plasma proteins, spermatid development and related gene ontology terms were enriched within the strongly selected regions of the genome (Additional Files 3). Seminal plasma proteins have been associated with bull fertility (Killian, Chapman, and Rogowski 1993). Selection may have acted on these loci to offset inbreeding depression in fertility. Genes involved in response to oxidative stress were also identified (Kristensen et al. 2010). We inferred that 10 heat shock proteins are under selection in Angus. It is hypothesized that heat shock proteins help
the organism cope with protein instability and misfolding caused by nonsynonymous mutations which occur as homozygotes at elevated rates due to inbreeding (Kristensen et al. 2010; Ayroles et al. 2009; K. S. Pedersen, Kristensen, and Loeschcke 2005; Sorensen, Kristensen, and Loeschcke 2003; Cheng et al. 2006). One of the difficulties encountered in identifying genomic signatures of selection is in distinguishing changes that have occurred due to demographic forces as opposed to selective forces. Our mixed model approach specifically accounts for pedigree relationships and explicitly deconvolutes their confounding effects on time-dependent allele frequency changes, which are due to the fact that not all pedigrees are sampled equally deeply in terms of the numbers of genotyped individuals. However, one of the limitations of our approach is the requirement of a temporally stratified sample of genotyped individuals. This will currently limit its application in human populations due to a lack of preserved samples across multiple generations. However, this limitation may be alleviated as it becomes more practical to extract quality DNA from formalinfixed, paraffin-embedded tissue section samples and ancient remains. Nevertheless, the approach is clearly most easily applied to model organisms for which temporally stratified samples are available. In addition to birth date, environmental variables such as diet composition, latitude, rainfall and temperature measures, could be fit as the dependent variable in a mixed model analysis to identify loci associated with environmental adaptation (Hancock, Alkorta-Aranburu, et al. 2010; Hancock, Witonsky, et al. 2010; Hancock et al. 2008). Phenotypes similar to those used in the works of

Hancock et al. could be analysed, but the statistical model would differ and populations would need to be more closely related.

Using the estimated ASEs as informative priors in the development of genomic selection programs (Eggen 2012) is another interesting application of our method. The loci with smaller ASEs for birth date are either of small effect on the selection objective or have undesirable pleiotropic effects. Loci that have larger ASEs for birth date have larger effects on the selection objective which are less constrained by antagonistic pleiotropic effects or closely linked loci with antagonistic phase relationships allowing them to more rapidly respond to selection.

## Conclusions

We demonstrate that selection on polygenic traits that approximate the infinitesimal model leaves detectable signatures of selection in the genome that also are polygenic and infinitesimal in nature. If genes with large antagonistic pleiotropic effects exist, they respond to selection as if they were of small effect. By relating the detected signatures of selection to phenotype, we infer that artificial selection in US registered Angus cattle has historically focused primarily on growth and maternal traits including calving ease, weaning weight and milking ability. This result is directly confirmed by the response to selection in these traits estimated directly using EPDs estimated by the AAA. Finally, we show that natural selection has acted in this domesticated population to increase immunity and possibly buffer against inbreeding depression.

## Methods

## DNA extraction and SNP genotyping

Cryopreserved semen was obtained from semen distributors, the National Animal Germplasm Program, and individual Angus breeders including the University of Maryland who own the Wye herd. DNA was extracted using a proteinase $K$ digestion, Phenol:Chloroform alcohol extraction, and ethanol precipitation (Sambrook, Fritsch, and Maniatis 1989). Single nucleotide polymorphisms were assayed using the Illumina BovineSNP50 BeadChip (Matukumalli et al. 2009) and genotyped using the Illumina GenomeStudio software. Genotypes were filtered using a SNP call rate cut off of 90\%, animal call rate cut off of $95 \%$, and minor allele frequency threshold of 0.01 . Autosomal and pseudoautosomal SNPs that had a Hardy-Weinberg Chi-square statistic with 1 degree of freedom greater than 300 were also filtered - primarily to remove polymorphisms detected in CNVs rather than remove loci that were under selection (Saatchi et al. 2011). Filtered data were processed through FastPHASE version 1.4.0 (Scheet and Stephens 2006) to impute the $0.49 \%$ of missing genotypes. Parameter values were set at $\mathrm{T}=10, \mathrm{~K}=20$, with -eo flags set. The resulting dataset consisted of genotypes for 45,073 SNPs scored in 3,570 animals with no missing values.

## Response to selection

Expected progeny differences for 16 production traits along with their accuracies were provided by the AAA for 103,816 animals including the 3,570 genotyped bulls and all identified ancestors in their pedigrees. These values were doubled to obtain estimated
breeding values that were deregressed for the 3,570 bulls as previously described (Garrick, Taylor, and Fernando 2009). The deregression of estimated breeding values removes parent average information and converts the information available on the individual back to the scale of the underlying phenotype - that is, it removes the "shrinkage" that was applied to convert phenotypes into estimated breeding values. In the statistical package R (R Development Core Team 2011), trait breeding values were plotted against birth date measured as a continuous variable. Linear and quadratic regressions were fit for each trait.

## Principal component analysis of Angus genotypes

We used the smartpca program, part of EIGENSOFT (Patterson, Price, and Reich 2006), for principal component analysis of the Angus genotypes. We plotted principal component 1 by principal component 2 to visualize the largest elements of population substructure. Figure 3.21 revealed that the primary substructure detected in the population was the largest families - the linearly related members of the Wye herd and the ancestors and sons of $N$ Bar Emulation EXT, a popular bull within the breed that generated numerous sons who were employed in AI.

## Estimation of effective population size

The inbreeding effective population size $N_{e}$ was estimated from the regression of inbreeding coefficients on pedigree generation number using the individual animal data. This requires inverting the relationship $\Delta F=1 / 2 N_{e}$, in which $\Delta F$ is the increase in mean inbreeding coefficient between adjacent generations (Falconer and Mackay 1996) and is
estimated as the slope of the regression across all generations if $N_{e}$ is assumed constant in time. A Taylor series expansion leads to an estimate of the standard error of $N_{e}$ as $\operatorname{SE}\left(N_{e}\right) \approx 2 N_{e} S E(\Delta F)$, in which $S E(\Delta F)$ is the standard error of the estimated slope of the regression. Because the depth of available pedigree information varied substantially for the 3,570 sampled Angus animals (animals within the pedigree that were assigned to generation 0 varied in birth year from 1838 to 1954) we considered the estimates of pedigree generation to be unreliable from the perspective of estimating $N_{e}$. Accordingly, we estimated generation number for each of the 3,570 genotyped animals by subtracting 1950 from birth year and dividing by the generation interval of 5 years. Because of the closed nature of the Wye herd and complete pedigree information back to foundation animals, we fit separate models for the Wye and remaining North American Angus animals. For the North American Angus subset we fit two models using generation number estimated from birth year for animals born after 1930 and for animals born after 1980 where there appeared to be an inflection in the rate of increase in inbreeding. This corresponds to the point in time at which the uptake in use of Al became significant within the breed.

For each of the 44,817 SNPs, we directly estimated the change in allele frequencies that occurred between the 460 individuals assigned to pedigree generation 58 and the 450 individuals assigned to pedigree generation 59 using PLINK (Purcell 2009; Purcell et al. 2007). These pedigree generations were chosen because they represent the individuals with the deepest pedigrees which are therefore not significantly
influenced by missing pedigree information and also because they are among the most recent generations and are likely to represent all of the families present within the sample. Furthermore, the sample sizes for these generations are sufficiently large to obtain precise estimates of allele frequencies. We compared the allele frequency changes between generations 58 and 59 to the bounds of the 99.999999\% $\left(-\log _{10}(p-\right.$ value) $=8$ ) confidence interval for the change in allele frequency due to drift (estimated under the assumption of normality assuming a mean of 0 and the drift variance for the ith SNP to be $p_{i}\left(1-p_{i}\right) / 2 N_{e}$, for $p_{i}$ the frequency of the $A_{i}$ allele in generation 58 and $N_{e}=$ 116.15 (Falconer and Mackay 1996)). For SNP on the X chromosome, the drift variance for the ith SNP is $p_{i}\left(1-p_{i}\right) / 1.5 \mathrm{~N}_{\mathrm{e}}$. Loci for which the allele frequency change exceeded the boundaries of the confidence interval were concluded to be changing in frequency due to selection rather than drift.

## Genomic BLUP of phenotypic traits

In a weighted analysis using deregressed EBVs as previously described (Garrick, Taylor, and Fernando 2009), genomic BLUP (VanRaden 2008) was used to estimate ASEs for 16 different traits using 45,073 SNPs genotyped in 3,570 animals. Allele substitution effects were converted to additive genetic variances by squaring the ASE and multiplying by $2 p_{i} q_{i}$, in which $p_{i}$ and $q_{i}=1-p_{i}$ are the base generation allele frequencies at the $i^{\text {th }}$ SNP (VanRaden 2008). Base generation allele frequencies at each SNP were estimated using the 59 animals born between 1955 and 1974, excluding animals from
the Wye herd. Results are presented only for the 44,817 SNPs that mapped to autosomes or the X chromosome in the UMD3.1 bovine assembly.

## Signatures of selection analysis

Genomic BLUP was also used to estimate ASEs for birth date. SNPs with the greatest changes in allele frequency over time will have the largest ASEs for birth date. The ASE reflects the amount of response to selection realized by the genomic region tagged by a SNP.

Genome-wide associations with birth date were also analysed using EMMAX (Kang et al. 2010). A Balding-Nichols matrix (Balding and Nichols 1995) was computed and used in EMMAX as the kinship matrix. Resulting $p$-values were adjusted to $q$-values using the method of Benjamini and Hochberg (Benjamini and Hochberg 1995) as implemented by the GenABEL package in $R$ (Aulchenko et al. 2007).

GenSel (Fernando and Garrick 2012) was used to fit a BayesC $\pi$ model (Habier et al. 2011) to estimate $\pi$ and the allele substitution effects for each SNP. The additive genetic variance and residual variance estimated from GBLUP were used as priors in GenSel. The $\pi$ prior was set at 0.9 . GenSel was run for 160,000 iterations, with 1,000 iterations as burn-in.

From Falconer and MacKay (Falconer and Mackay 1996), the change in allele frequency resulting from selection is $\Delta q=-i p q a / \sigma_{p}$, where $i$ is the selection intensity, $a$ is one half the phenotypic difference between homozygote mean phenotypes, $\sigma_{p}$ is the trait variance, and $p$ and $q$ are allele frequencies. Assuming the dominance deviation is
zero, the ASE $\alpha$ is equal to the genotypic value $a$. Thus, we use the ASE as a proxy for $a$ which we then scaled as $p q A S E / \sigma_{A S E}$ to form the independent variables for each of the 16 production traits which were jointly regressed on the birth date ASEs to provide estimates of the relative selection intensity $i$ for each trait (the sign is included in the realized estimate). For each trait the ASEs were standardized by dividing by the ASE standard deviation ( $\sigma_{\text {ASE }}$ in the equation above). A model was also fit which included birth date ASEs for only the top ranked 948 SNPs.

## Functional annotation

Due to the significant extent of linkage disequilibrium within the bovine genome (Gibbs et al. 2009; McKay et al. 2007), we identified all genes within 250 Kbpof the 948 SNP (top 2.11\% of the 44,817 SNP, equal to $1-\pi$ estimated from GenSel) with the largest additive genetic variances for birth date estimated from the linear GBLUP and nonlinear BayesC $\pi$ analyses. We used the DAVID bioinformatics resources (Huang, Sherman, and Lempicki 2009b; Huang, Sherman, and Lempicki 2009a) to identify enriched GO terms in the list of 4,214 genes identified from the GBLUP results and 4,033 genes from the BayesC $\pi$ results. We used annotations from Bos taurus, Homo sapiens, Mus musculus, Rattus norvegicus, Canis lupus, Pan troglodytes, Macaca mulatta, Equus caballus, Pongo abelii, Sus scrofa, Ovis aries, and Oryctolagus cuniculus for GO enrichment analysis.

## List of Abbreviations

List of Abbreviations are included in the Supplementary Material or are defined in text.

## Competing interests

The authors declare that they have no competing interests.

## Authors' contributions

JFT and JED designed the experiment. DAV, JED and JFT analyzed data. SDM, MCM, MMR, JWK, and RDS extracted DNA. MMR and SDM prepared samples for genotyping, SDM ran the Illumina assay, and RDS genotyped samples and managed the genotype database. SLN provided pedigree and estimated genetic merit data and SB and BW provided genotypes on about 900 Angus bulls. JED and JFT wrote the manuscript and other authors provided feedback.

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Mention of trade names or commercial products in this article is solely for the purpose of providing specific information and does not imply recommendation or endorsement by the U.S. Department of Agriculture.

## Figures



Figure 3.1 Deregressed estimated breeding values for birth and weaning weight plotted against birth date.
Deregressed estimated breeding values plotted against birth date for 3,570 Angus animals. The blue lines represent linear and red lines represent quadratic regressions.
a. Deregressed birth weight EBV.
b. Deregressed weaning weight EBV.


Figure 3.2 Manhattan plot of additive genetic variances explained by each SNP estimated from the GBLUP analysis of birth date.
For each SNP $2 p_{i}\left(1-p_{i}\right) \alpha_{i}^{2}$ is plotted where $p_{i}$ is allele frequency and $\alpha_{i}$ is the ASE for birth date for the ith SNP.


Figure 3.3 Manhattan plot of $-\log _{10}(q$-values) for SNP effects on birth date estimated in the EMMAX analysis.
Each $q$-value is the expected proportion of false positives among all SNP effects that are at least as extreme as that observed for the current SNP.


Figure 3.4 Manhattan plot of additive genetic variances explained by each SNP estimated from the BayesC $\pi$ analysis of birth date.


Figure 3.5 Analysis of inbreeding coefficients.
a. Plot of average pedigree $F$ by birth year for 91,001 animals in the pedigree of the 3,570 genotyped bulls. Averages for the Wye herd animals and their ancestors are in red; averages for the remaining North American Angus and their ancestors and are in black. The red line represents the regression of pedigree $F$ on birth year for Wye pedigree animals born after 1950. The green line is the regression of pedigree $F$ on birth year for animals in the North American pedigree born after 1930. The blue line is the regression of pedigree $F$ on birth year for animals in the North American pedigree born after 1980. See Table 3.1 for regression parameter estimates.
b. Plot of pedigree against genomic $F$ coefficients. Wye herd animals are plotted in red, all other North American animals are plotted in black. The red line represents the regression of pedigree $F$ on genomic $F$ for Wye herd animals and the black line is for the remaining North American animals. See Table 3.2 for regression parameter estimates.


Figure 3.6 Manhattan plot of additive genetic variances explained by each SNP estimated from the GBLUP analysis of deregressed weaning weight EBVs.
For each SNP $2 p_{\mathrm{i}}\left(1-p_{\mathrm{i}}\right) \alpha_{\mathrm{i}}^{2}$ is plotted where $p_{\mathrm{i}}$ is allele frequency and $\alpha_{\mathrm{i}}$ is the ASE for weaning weight for the ith SNP.

## Tables

Table 3.1. Estimates of inbreeding effective population size for registered Angus cattle.

Birth year generations were calculated by subtracting 1950 from the birth year and dividing by the generation interval of 5 .

$$
\text { Birth year generation }=(\text { birth year }-1950) / 5 .
$$

| Data set | Intercept | $\boldsymbol{\Delta F} /$ generation | $\boldsymbol{N}_{\boldsymbol{e}}$ |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Wye pedigree, <br> pedigree F | -0.00594 | $0.01373 \pm 0.00046$ | $36.41836 \pm 0.03378$ |
| North American pedigree <br> born after 1930, <br> pedigree F | 0.00724 | $0.00187 \pm 3.51153 \mathrm{e}-05$ | $267.59478 \pm 0.01879$ |
| North American pedigree <br> born after 1980, <br> pedigree F | -0.02694 | $0.00430 \pm 0.00015$ | $116.14951 \pm 0.03528$ |
| North American pedigree <br> born after 1980, <br> genomic F | 0.05291 | $0.00523 \pm 0.00048$ | $94.18147 \pm 0.09546$ |

Table 3.2. Regression of pedigree $F$ on genomic $F$

| Sample | $\underset{\mathbf{R}^{2}}{\text { Adjusted }}$ | Model p-value | Parameter | Estimate | Standard Error | t-value | p -value |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| All | 0.4178 | <2.2e-16 | Intercept | -0.01446 | 0.00116 | -12.46 | <2e-16 |
|  |  |  | Slope | 0.491216 | 0.00971 | 50.61 | <2e-16 |
| Wye | 0.7077 | <2.2e-16 | Intercept | -0.03538 | 0.00597 | -5.93 | 1.18e-08 |
|  |  |  | Slope | 0.681299 | 0.02963 | 23.00 | <2e-16 |
| North American | 0.2829 | <2.2e-16 | Intercept | -0.00699 | 0.00127 | $-5.528$ | 3.48e-08 |
|  |  |  | Slope | 0.410011 | 0.01128 | 36.364 | <2e-16 |

Table 3.3 - Summary statistics for deregressed estimated breeding values (EBV) and accuracies ( $r^{2}$ ) produced by the American Angus Association for the 3,570 genotyped animals

| Trait ${ }^{1}$ | Units | Heritability ${ }^{2}$ | No Observations ${ }^{3}$ | Mean EBV $\pm$ SD ${ }^{4}$ | $\begin{gathered} \text { Mean } \\ \text { Acc } \pm S D \end{gathered}$ | $\mathrm{C}_{\text {max }}{ }^{5}$ | $\mathrm{C}^{6}$ | $\mathrm{V}_{\mathrm{g}}{ }^{7}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Birth Weight | lb | 0.42 | 3241 | $4.03 \pm 5.95$ | $0.78 \pm 0.24$ | 0.796 | 0.77 | 23.42 |
| Weaning Weight | lb | 0.2 | 3229 | $86.69 \pm 45.98$ | $0.68 \pm 0.32$ | 0.822 | 0.704 | 690.86 |
| Maternal Milk | lb | 0.14 | 2067 | $33.79 \pm 30.01$ | $0.70 \pm 0.27$ | 0.862 | 0.709 | 373.15 |
| Yearling Weight | lb | 0.49 | 2776 | $154.03 \pm 78.15$ | $0.69 \pm 0.29$ | 0.827 | 0.78 | 1961.6 |
| Yearling Height | in | 0.45 | 2250 | $0.74 \pm 1.22$ | $0.70 \pm 0.25$ | 0.796 | 0.796 | 0.6165 |
| Carcass Weight | lb | 0.4 | 2457 | $30.93 \pm 84.08$ | $0.41 \pm 028$ | 0.914 | 0.627 | 1438.9 |
| Marbling | units | 0.45 | 3237 | $0.64 \pm 1.14$ | $0.43 \pm 0.25$ | 0.913 | 0.913 | 0.3542 |
| Ribeye Muscle Area | in ${ }^{2}$ | 0.51 | 3269 | $0.16 \pm 1.04$ | $0.47 \pm 0.23$ | 0.914 | 0.914 | 0.3775 |
| Fat Thickness | in | 0.34 | 3189 | $0.027 \pm 0.162$ | $0.40 \pm 0.23$ | 0.914 | 0.914 | 0.0072 |
| Mature Weight | lb | 0.55 | 1321 | $67.28 \pm 135.26$ | $0.64 \pm 0.25$ | 0.849 | 0.559 | 5818.8 |
| Mature Height | in | 0.82 | 1291 | $1.08 \pm 2.25$ | $0.64 \pm 0.25$ | 0.843 | 0.56 | 1.504 |
| Scrotal Circumference | in | 0.43 | 2479 | $0.55 \pm 1.83$ | $0.69 \pm 0.25$ | 0.818 | 0.698 | 1.641 |
| Calving Ease Direct | \% | 0.18 | 3217 | $8.30 \pm 19.77$ | $0.62 \pm 0.26$ | 0.868 | 0.706 | 154.7 |
| Calving Ease Maternal | \% | 0.12 | 1966 | $12.14 \pm 23.77$ | $0.59 \pm 0.27$ | 0.903 | 0.421 | 146 |
| Docility | \% | 0.37 | 698 | $15.52 \pm 21.44$ | $0.48 \pm 0.27$ | 0.927 | 0.343 | 126.94 |
| Heifer Pregnancy | \% | 0.13 | 1366 | $15.81 \pm 47.64$ | $0.50 \pm 0.27$ | 0.905 | 0.712 | 711.45 |
| Birth Date | yr | 0.53 | 3570 | $1998.93 \pm 8.98$ | $1.00 \pm 0.00$ | NA | NA | 25.83 |

Cont. Table 3.3 - Summary statistics for deregressed estimated breeding values (EBV) and accuracies ( $r^{2}$ ) produced by the American Angus Association for the 3,570 genotyped animals
${ }_{2}^{1}$ See Supplementary Information for trait definitions.
${ }^{2}$ Narrow sense heritability used by the American Angus Association to compute estimates of additive genetic merit or as estimated from the birth date data.
${ }^{3}$ Number of breeding values that could successfully be deregressed or birth dates.
${ }^{4}$ Deregressed estimated breeding values or birth dates.
${ }^{5}$ Largest possible value of $C$ imposed by the constraint $\left(1+F_{i}\right) / r_{i}^{2}>C \times G_{i i}$ which ensures that weights for all animals' deregressed EBV are strictly positive. $\mathrm{F}_{\mathrm{i}}$ is the pedigree inbreeding coefficient, $r_{i}{ }^{2}$ is the accuracy of the deregressed breeding value, and $\mathrm{G}_{\mathrm{ij}}$ is the diagonal of the genomic relationship coefficient matrix for the $i^{\text {th }}$ animal.
${ }^{6}$ Proportion of additive genetic variation explained by 45,073 SNPs computed as $\mathrm{V}_{\mathrm{m}} / \mathrm{V}_{\mathrm{g}}$.
${ }^{7}$ Estimated additive genetic variance from the analysis of deregressed breeding values or birthdates.
Table 3．4－Genetic correlations between traits estimated from correlations between allele substitution effects for 45，073 SNP．
Birth
WW Milk YW YH CW MARB REA FT MW MH SC CED CEM DOC HP Date
$\begin{array}{lllllllllllllllllllllllll}0.321 & -0.134 & 0.312 & 0.395 & 0.305 & -0.024 & 0.084 & -0.091 & 0.268 & 0.266 & 0.024 & -0.835 & -0.35 & 0.021 & 0.029 & 0.01\end{array}$







$-0.104-0.096 \quad 0.054 \quad 0.1 \quad 0.06 \quad 0.001-0.0010 .063$



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Calving Ease Direct（CED） Calving Ease Maternal （CEM）
Docility（DOC）
Heifer Pregnancy（HP）

Table 3.5 Relative selection intensities for 16 production traits estimated from the regression of birth date ASEs on standardized SNP ASE coefficients.
ASEs were standardized by conversion to coefficients of $p q A S E / \sigma_{A S E}$. The $F$-statistic for the model was 1,288 on 16 and 44800 degrees of freedom ( p -value $<2.2 \mathrm{e}-16$ ), with an $R^{2}$ of 0.3151 and an adjusted $R^{2}$ of 0.3148 .

| Model Term | Estimate | Std. Error | t-value | p-values |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Intercept | -0.0002202 | 0.0039108 | -0.056 | 0.95510 |
| Weaning weight (WW) | 1.8158248 | 0.0418758 | 43.362 | $<2 \mathrm{e}-16$ |
| Calving ease direct (CED) | 1.1348654 | 0.0402923 | 28.166 | $<2 \mathrm{e}-16$ |
| Maternal milk (Milk) | 0.8445815 | 0.0200755 | 42.07 | $<2 \mathrm{e}-16$ |
| Birth weight (BW) | 0.8199081 | 0.03781 | 21.685 | $<2 \mathrm{e}-16$ |
| Yearling height (YH) | -0.5286214 | 0.0245651 | -21.519 | $<2 \mathrm{e}-16$ |
| Calving ease maternal (CEM) | 0.4618728 | 0.0231311 | 19.968 | $<2 \mathrm{e}-16$ |
| Yearling weight (YW) | 0.3618465 | 0.0453856 | 7.973 | $1.59 \mathrm{e}-15$ |
| Marbling (MARB) | 0.3617341 | 0.0194656 | 18.583 | $<2 \mathrm{e}-16$ |
| Heifer Pregnancy (HP) | 0.1743628 | 0.0190981 | 9.13 | $<2 \mathrm{e}-16$ |
| Carcass weight (CW) | -0.1119094 | 0.0267417 | -4.185 | $2.86 \mathrm{e}-05$ |
| Mature weight (MW) | 0.0961186 | 0.0334404 | 2.874 | 0.00405 |
| Scrotal Circumference (SC) | 0.0957338 | 0.019623 | 4.879 | $1.07 \mathrm{e}-06$ |
| Docility (DOC) | -0.0586487 | 0.0189689 | -3.092 | 0.00199 |
| Mature height (MH) | -0.0341907 | 0.0352666 | -0.969 | 0.33230 |
| Fat thickness (FT) | 0.0339062 | 0.0200513 | 1.691 | 0.09085 |
| Ribeye area (REA) | 0.0035452 | 0.0221618 | 0.16 | 0.87291 |

Table 3.6. Relative selection intensities for 16 production traits estimated from the regression of the top 948 birth date ASEs on standardized SNP ASE coefficients.
The 948 SNPs with the largest absolute birth date ASEs were fit in the model. ASEs were standardized by conversion to coefficients of $p q A S E / \sigma_{A S E}$. The $F$-statistic for the model was 158.5 on 16 and 931 degrees of freedom ( $p$-value $<2.2 e-16$ ), with an $R^{2}$ of 0.7314 and an adjusted $R^{2}$ of 0.7268 .

| Model Term | Estimate | Std. Error | t-value | p-values |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Intercept | 0.00722 | 0.0171 | 0.422 | 0.67301 |
| Weaning weight (WW) | 2.16434 | 0.24754 | 8.744 | $<2 \mathrm{e}-16$ |
| Calving ease direct (CED) | 1.25094 | 0.18103 | 6.91 | $8.97 \mathrm{E}-12$ |
| Maternal milk (Milk) | 0.92228 | 0.09211 | 10.013 | $<2 \mathrm{e}-16$ |
| Birth weight (BW) | 0.90145 | 0.16459 | 5.477 | $5.56 \mathrm{E}-08$ |
| Yearling Weight (YW) | 0.59972 | 0.27136 | 2.21 | 0.02734 |
| Yearling Height (YH) | -0.48315 | 0.09853 | -4.903 | $1.11 \mathrm{E}-06$ |
| Calving Ease Maternal (CEM) | 0.45156 | 0.10451 | 4.321 | $1.72 \mathrm{E}-05$ |
| Marbling (MARB) | 0.25746 | 0.0833 | 3.091 | 0.00206 |
| Fat thickness (FT) | 0.23892 | 0.08309 | 2.875 | 0.00413 |
| Carcass Weight (CW) | -0.21418 | 0.12389 | -1.729 | 0.08418 |
| Scrotal Circumference (SC) | 0.17662 | 0.08355 | 2.114 | 0.03478 |
| Heifer Pregnancy (HP) | 0.14334 | 0.07967 | 1.799 | 0.07231 |
| Mature Weight (MW) | 0.12468 | 0.14685 | 0.849 | 0.3961 |
| Mature Height (MH) | 0.07 | 0.14968 | 0.468 | 0.64012 |
| Docility (DOC) | -0.04387 | 0.07843 | -0.559 | 0.57604 |
| Ribeye area (REA) | 0.00954 | 0.09876 | 0.097 | 0.92306 |

## Supplementary Material

## Supplementary Information

The following definitions and abbreviations include excerpts from: http://www.angus.org/Nce/Definitions.aspx.
Expected Progeny Difference (EPD). Expected performance of future progeny relative to the progeny of other animals. EPDs are one half of the Estimated Breeding Values (EBVs) of each animal and are predicted in mixed linear model analyses which incorporate numerator relationship matrices determined by pedigree information. EPDs are expressed in the units of measurement for the trait.
Accuracy (ACC). The American Angus Association reports accuracy as ACC =1-$\sqrt{1-\mathrm{r}_{\mathrm{TI}}^{2}}$ where $\mathrm{r}_{\mathrm{TI}}^{2}$ is squared correlation between predicted breeding value and true breeding value. These values were transformed in this study to obtain the $r_{T I}^{2}$ values necessary to obtain deregressed EBVs and weights for mixed model analyses.

Birth Weight (BW). Birth weight in pounds of a bull's progeny.
Weaning Weight (WW). Weaning weight in pounds of progeny at $\sim 305 \mathrm{~d}$ of age.
Maternal Milk (MILK). Bull's genetic merit for the milk and mothering ability of his daughters. It is that part of a calf's weaning weight in pounds that is attributed to milk and mothering ability.
Yearling Weight (YW). Weight in pounds of progeny at 12 months of age.
Carcass Weight (CW). Hot carcass weight in pounds of progeny when slaughtered at $\sim 15$ mo of age.

Mature Weight (MW). Mature weight in pounds of a bull's daughters.
Yearling Height (YH). Height in inches of a bull's progeny measured at the hip at 12 months of age.
Mature Height (MH). Mature height in inches of a bull's daughters measured the hip. Fat Thickness (FAT). External fat thickness measured between the $12^{\text {th }}$ and $13^{\text {th }}$ ribs. Expressed in inches.
Marbling (MARB). Intramuscular fat content of the longissimus dorsi muscle measured between the $12^{\text {th }}$ and $13^{\text {th }}$ ribs.

Ribeye Muscle Area (RE). Longissimus dorsi cross-sectional area measured between the $12^{\text {th }}$ and $13^{\text {th }}$ ribs. Expressed in square inches.

Calving Ease Direct (CED). Percentage of unassisted births, with a higher value indicating greater calving ease in first-calf females. It predicts the average ease with which a bull's calves will be born when he is bred to first-calf females.

Calving Ease Maternal (CEM). Percentage of unassisted births with a higher value indicating greater calving ease in first-calf daughters. It predicts the average ease with which a bull's daughters will calve as first-calf heifers.
Scrotal Circumference (SC). Bull's scrotal circumference used as an indirect measure of female fertility. Expressed in centimeters.

Heifer Pregnancy Rate (HP). Percentage of a bull's daughters expected to become pregnant during a breeding season.

Docility (DOC). Percentage differences between bulls' progeny in temperament with higher values being more docile.


Figure 3.7 Deregressed calving ease direct EBV by birth date.
Figure S1 in publication.


Figure 3.8 Deregressed yearling weight EBV by birth date.
Figure S2 in publication.


Figure 3.9 Deregressed yearling height EBV by birth date.
Figure S3 in publication.


Figure 3.10 Deregressed scrotal circumference EBV by birth date.
Figure S4 in publication.


Figure 3.11 Deregressed docility EBV by birth date.
Figure S 5 in publication.


Figure 3.12 Deregressed heifer pregnancy EBV by birth date.
Figure S 6 in publication.


Figure 3.13 Deregressed calving ease maternal EBV by birth date.
Figure S 7 in publication.


Figure 3.14 Deregressed maternal milk EBV by birth date.
Figure S 8 in publication.


Figure 3.15 Deregressed mature weight EBV by birth date.
Figure 59 in publication.


Figure 3.16 Deregressed mature height EBV by birth date.
Figure S10 in publication.


Figure 3.17 Deregressed carcass weight EBV by birth date.
Figure S11 in publication.


Figure 3.18 Deregressed marbling EBV by birth date.
Figure S12 in publication.


Figure 3.19 Deregressed ribeye area EBV by birth date.
Figure S13 in publication.


Figure 3.20 Deregressed fat thickness EBV by birth date.
Figure S14 in publication.


Figure 3.21 Principal component analysis of Angus animal genotypes.

From this analysis we identified two subgroups within our data. The first, denoted by red, is the Wye herd developed from imports from the British Isles and managed as a closed herd. The second is the rest of North American Angus. The blue triangles are a prominent AI sire (lower right corner), his sire, grandsire, progeny, and grandprogeny. Principal components 3 through 3570 break apart family structure in a similar fashion to principal component 2. We correct for population structure and kinship by utilizing a genomic relationship matrix in our analyses.
Figure S15 in publication.


Figure 3.22 Manhattan plot of SNP variances for calving ease direct.
Figure S16 in publication.


Figure 3.23 Manhattan plot of SNP variances for birth weight.
Figure S17 in publication.


Figure 3.24 Manhattan plot of SNP variances for yearling weight.
Figure S18 in publication.


Figure 3.25 Manhattan plot of SNP variances for yearling height.
Figure S19 in publication.


Figure 3.26 Manhattan plot of SNP variances for scrotal circumference.
Figure S20 in publication


Figure 3.27 Manhattan plot of SNP variances for docility.
Figure S 21 in publication.


Figure 3.28 Manhattan plot of SNP variances for heifer pregnancy.
Figure S22 in publication.


Figure 3.29 Manhattan plot of SNP variances for calving ease maternal.
Figure S 23 in publication.


Figure 3.30 Manhattan plot of SNP variances for milk.
Figure S24 in publication.


Figure 3.31 Manhattan plot of SNP variances for mature weight.
Figure S25 in publication.


Figure 3.32 Manhattan plot of SNP variances for mature height.
Figure S26 in publication.


Figure 3.33 Manhattan plot of SNP variances for carcass weight.
Figure S 27 in publication.


Figure 3.34 Manhattan plot of SNP variances for marbling.
Figure S28 in publication.


Figure 3.35 Manhattan plot of SNP variances for ribeye area.
Figure $\mathbf{S} 29$ in publication.


Figure 3.36 Manhattan plot of SNP variances for fat thickness.
Figure S30 in publication.
Table 3.7. Regression of deregressed EBV on birth date for 16 production traits

| Trait | Model Type | AIC | $\begin{gathered} \text { Adjusted* } \\ \mathbf{R}^{2} \end{gathered}$ | Model $p$-value | Term | Estimate | Std. Error | t-value | p-value |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| CED | Linear | 28124.6 | 0.0627 | <2.2e-16 | Int | -1113 | 76.3 | -14.6 | <2e-16 |
|  |  |  |  |  | BD | 0.5611 | 0.0382 | 14.7 | <2e-16 |
|  | Quadratic | 28120.2 | 0.0643 | <2.2e-16 | Int | 28375.6 | 11609.6 | 2.44 | 0.0146 |
|  |  |  |  |  | BD | -29.04 | 11.65 | -2.49 | 0.0128 |
|  |  |  |  |  | $\mathrm{BD}^{2}$ | 0.007426 | 0.00292 | 2.54 | 0.0111 |
| BW | Linear | 20751.9 | 0.0017 | 0.0125 | Int | 63.03 | 23.61 | 2.67 | 0.0076 |
|  |  |  |  |  | BD | -0.02952 | 0.01181 | -2.5 | 0.0125 |
|  | Quadratic | 20664.1 | 0.0286 | <2.2e-16 | Int | -33791.9 | 3549.5 | -9.52 | <2e-16 |
|  |  |  |  |  | BD | 33.95 | 3.56 | 9.53 | <2e-16 |
|  |  |  |  |  | $\mathrm{BD}^{2}$ | -0.00853 | 0.00089 | -9.54 | <2e-16 |
| WW | Linear | 32780.7 | 0.2909 | <2.2e-16 | Int | -5518.5 | 154 | -35.8 | <2e-16 |
|  |  |  |  |  | BD | 2.805 | 0.077 | 36.4 | <2e-16 |
|  | Quadratic | 32771.5 | 0.2931 | <2.2e-16 | Int | 73231.1 | 23447.4 | 3.12 | 0.0018 |
|  |  |  |  |  | BD | -76.23 | 23.53 | -3.24 | 0.0012 |
|  |  |  |  |  | $\mathrm{BD}^{2}$ | 0.01983 | 0.0059 | 3.36 | 0.0008 |
| YW | Linear | 31056.9 | 0.3085 | <2.2e-16 | Int | -9752.4 | 281.4 | -34.7 | <2e-16 |
|  |  |  |  |  | BD | 4.9598 | 0.1409 | 35.2 | <2e-16 |
|  | Quadratic | 31055.9 | 0.309 | <2.2e-16 | Int | 64038.7 | 42599.6 | 1.5 | 0.1329 |
|  |  |  |  |  | BD | -69.13 | 42.77 | -1.62 | 0.1061 |
|  |  |  |  |  | $\mathrm{BD}^{2}$ | 0.0186 | 0.01074 | 1.73 | 0.0833 |
| YH | Linear | 7284.51 | -0.0003 | 0.5274 | Int | 4.4965 | 5.9446 | 0.76 | 0.4495 |
|  |  |  |  |  | BD | -0.00188 | 0.00298 | -0.63 | 0.5274 |
|  | Quadratic | 7221.19 | 0.0279 | 5.59e-15 | Int | -7278.5 | 895.2 | -8.13 | 6.97e-16 |
|  |  |  |  |  | BD | 0.315 | 0.899 | 8.13 | $6.81 \mathrm{e}-16$ |
|  |  |  |  |  | $\mathrm{BD}^{2}$ | -0.00184 | 0.00023 | -8.14 | $6.69 \mathrm{e}-16$ |

Cont. Table 3.7 - Regression of deregressed EBV on birth date for 16 production traits

| Trait | Model Type | AIC | $\begin{gathered} \text { Adjusted } \\ \mathbf{R}^{2} \end{gathered}$ | Model pvalue | Term | Estimate | Std. Error | t-value | p-value |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| SC | Linear | 9875.76 | 0.0548 | <2.2e-16 | Int | -99.82 | 8.34 | -11.96 | <2e-16 |
|  |  |  |  |  | BD | 0.0503 | 0.0042 | 12.03 | <2e-16 |
|  | Quadratic | 9873.41 | 0.0561 | <2.2e-16 | Int | 2556.3 | 1273.2 | 2.01 | 0.0448 |
|  |  |  |  |  | BD | -2.617 | 1.278 | -2.05 | 0.0408 |
|  |  |  |  |  | $\mathrm{BD}^{2}$ | 0.00067 | 0.00032 | 2.09 | 0.0371 |
| DOC | Linear | 14425.1 | 0.0079 | 0.0006 | Int | -1202.2 | 352.6 | -11.96 | 0.0007 |
|  |  |  |  |  | BD | 0.6095 | 0.1765 | 3.45 | 0.0006 |
|  | Quadratic | 14426.9 | 0.0073 | 0.0024 | Int | 23515.7 | 59954.3 | 0.39 | 0.695 |
|  |  |  |  |  | BD | -24.19 | 60.14 | -0.4 | 0.6876 |
|  |  |  |  |  | $\mathrm{BD}^{2}$ | 0.006218 | 0.01508 | 0.41 | 0.6802 |
| HP | Linear | 6261.8 | 0.0029 | 0.0821 | Int | 455.72 | 252.83 | 1.8 | 0.0719 |
|  |  |  |  |  | BD | -0.2205 | 0.1267 | -1.74 | 0.0821 |
|  | Quadratic | 6263.68 | 0.0016 | 0.2087 | Int | -17220.1 | 52512.4 | -0.33 | 0.7431 |
|  |  |  |  |  | BD | 17.52 | 52.7 | 0.33 | 0.7397 |
|  |  |  |  |  | $\mathrm{BD}^{2}$ | -0.00445 | 0.01322 | -0.34 | 0.7365 |
| CEM | Linear | 17952.7 | 0.0436 | <2.2e-16 | Int | -1167 | 123.9 | -9.42 | <2e-16 |
|  |  |  |  |  | BD | 0.5912 | 0.0621 | 9.52 | <2e-16 |
|  | Quadratic | 17951.2 | 0.0448 | $<2.2 \mathrm{e}-16$ | Int | -38160 | 19856.5 | -1.92 | 0.0548 |
|  |  |  |  |  | BD | 37.79 | 19.97 | 1.89 | 0.0586 |
|  |  |  |  |  | $\mathrm{BD}^{2}$ | -0.00935 | 0.00502 | -1.86 | 0.0626 |
| MILK | Linear | 19571.3 | 0.1602 | <2.2e-16 | Int | -2819.6 | 143.6 | -19.64 | <2e-16 |
|  |  |  |  |  | BD | 1.4304 | 0.072 | 19.88 | <2e-16 |
|  | Quadratic | 19572.4 | 0.1601 | <2.2e-16 | Int | -24577.3 | 22918.4 | -1.07 | 0.2837 |
|  |  |  |  |  | BD | 23.31 | 23.04 | 1.01 | 0.3119 |
|  |  |  |  |  | $\mathrm{BD}^{2}$ | -0.0055 | 0.00579 | -0.95 | 0.3425 |

Cont. Table 3.7 - Regression of deregressed EBV on birth date for 16 production traits

| Trait | Model <br> Type | AIC |  | Adjusted <br> $\mathbf{R}^{2}$ | Model p- <br> value | Term | Estimate | Std. Error | t-value |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | p-value

Cont. Table 3.7 - Regression of deregressed EBV on birth date for 16 production traits

| Trait | Model Type | AIC | $\underset{\mathbf{R}^{2}}{\text { Adjusted }}$ | Model pvalue | Term | Estimate | Std. Error | t-value | p-value |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| FAT | Linear | -2720.33 | 0.0074 | 7.22e-07 | Int | -3.32 | 0.67 | -4.93 | 8.81e-07 |
|  |  |  |  |  | BD | 0.001676 | 0.000338 | 4.97 | 7.22e-07 |
|  | Quadratic | -2732.61 | 0.0115 | $3.73 \mathrm{e}-09$ | Int | 381.9 | 101.9 | 3.75 | 0.0002 |
|  |  |  |  |  | BD | -0.3848 | 0.1022 | -3.76 | 0.0002 |
|  |  |  |  |  | $B^{2}$ | 0.000097 | 0.000026 | 3.78 | 0.0002 |

Table S1 in publication.

## Additional file 2 - GBLUP_DAVID.xls

Chart of enriched GO terms in Excel xls format. We included charts for DAVID's GOTERM_BP_FAT, GOTERM_BP_ALL, GOTERM_BP_1, GOTERM_BP_2, GOTERM_BP_3, GOTERM_BP_4, GOTERM_BP_5, GOTERM_CC_FAT, GOTERM_MF_FAT, KEGG_PATHWAY, UP_TISSUE, SP_comment, and SP_PIR_KEYWORDS with each as an individual tab in the file. We supplied the DAVID resources with a list of 4,216 genes annotated in the UMD 3.1 assembly. See the publication's online supporting material for this file.

## Additional file 3 - GenSel_DAVID.xls

Chart of enriched GO terms in Excel xls format. We included charts for DAVID's GOTERM_BP_FAT, GOTERM_BP_ALL, GOTERM_BP_1, GOTERM_BP_2, GOTERM_BP_3, GOTERM_BP_4, GOTERM_BP_5, GOTERM_CC_FAT, GOTERM_MF_FAT, KEGG_PATHWAY, UP_TISSUE, SP_comment, and SP_PIR_KEYWORDS with each as an individual tab in the file. We supplied the DAVID resources with a list of 4,033 genes annotated in the UMD 3.1 assembly. See the publication's online supporting material for this file.

# 4. WORLDWIDE PATTERNS OF EXPORTATION, ADMIXTURE AND SELECTION IN DOMESTICATED CATTLE 

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#### Abstract

Using genotypes from 47,282 autosomal single nucleotide polymorphism markers, we evaluate the population structure of 114 domesticated bovid breeds. Patterns of geographic dispersal resulting from cattle exportation are recognizable in phylograms and phylogenetic networks calculated from $\mathrm{F}_{\text {ST }}$ values. Hybridization occuring after exportation is evident from principal component and admixture analysis. We also identify a cline of Bos taurus taurus/Bos taurus indicus hybridization in Asia. Iberian, Anatolian, Italian, and East Asian cattle are shown to have introgression from African taurine. Additionally, we demonstrate that three 400 year old teeth found in a Spanish well in St. Augustine, Florida come from an animal with Iberian ancestry and that are closely related to American Criollo breeds. Finally, we show that selection has acted on


the same seven genomic regions in four separate beef and dairy breeds. We argue that exportation, admixture, and selection have all been important forces in shaping bovine genomic variation.

## Keywords

migration, admixture, domestication, selection, cattle

## Introduction

High-throughput genotyping assays have allowed population geneticists to use genomewide markers to analyze the histories of many species, including human (Jakobsson et al. 2008; Li et al. 2008), cattle (Gibbs et al. 2009; Decker et al. 2009), sheep (Kijas et al. 2009), dog (Vonholdt et al. 2010), grape (Myles et al. 2011), and horse (McCue et al. 2012). In previous work, we described the structure of domestic bovine populations using their genetic variation inferred from a sample of roughly 41,000 single-nucleotide polymorphisms (Decker et al. 2009). Although we sampled 48 cattle breeds in this previous work, we did not have samples from key areas such as China and Southeast Asia, Anatolia, the Baltic States, southern Africa, and the Iberian Peninsula. As a result of those gaps in geographic sampling, several questions remained. What is the population structure of cattle in central and Southeast Asia? Are Iberian cattle admixed with introgression from African cattle? Also, how has selection shaped the genomes of domestic cattle?

Further, we report some of the earliest archaeological and genetic evidence of cattle in the Americas. Essentially, we have discovered the direct remnants of Iberian
cattle transported across the Atlantic Ocean by the early Spanish settlers. We evaluate the relationship of ancient cattle teeth to modern Criollo cattle using mitochondrial DNA sequences.

We also have assembled a genomic dataset which represents the largest population sampling of any mammalian species. This allows for an extremely detailed description of the population structure of domesticated cattle worldwide. Using this data set, we accurately establish the patterns of exportation, admixture, and selection for domesticated cattle.

## Results and Discussion

We describe the phylogenetic relationships between 114 breeds of domesticated bovids (Figures 4.1, 4.2, and 4.3 and Table 4.1). These breeds split into three main clades corresponding to three domesticated (sub)species: Bos javanicus, Bos taurus indicus and Bos taurus taurus. The principal source of SNP genotype variation is between Bos t. taurus and Bos t. indicus breeds (Figures 4.4 and 4.5). This split corresponds to the cattle which originated from the two separate major centers of domestication in the Fertile Crescent and Indus Valley. The second principal component splits Bali and Shorthorn cattle versus N'Dama, an African taurine breed. Although Bos javanicus has a more distant common ancestor compared to Bost. indicus and Bost. taurus (Decker et al. 2009), the uneven sample sizes and SNP ascertainment (McVean 2009) cause the Bos t. indicus/Bos t. taurus split to be the main source of variation.

Despite our deep sampling, it remains unclear whether cattle were independently domesticated in western Africa. Principal component (Figure 4.4) and admixture analyses (Figure 4.6) show that African taurine animals (the N'Dama breed in our dataset) represent the most divergent of the taurine populations. N'Dama also have distinctive patterns of linkage disequilibrium, causing them to have different ancestral effective population size estimates than either Bos $t$. taurus or Bos $t$. indicus breeds (Gibbs et al. 2009). However, the admixture results for the Anatolian breeds (Figures 4.5, 4.6, 4.7, and 4.8) complicate the interpretation of the African taurine results. Anatolian animals share a large portion of ancestry with African taurine. Is this because cattle domesticated in the Fertile Crescent are the source of African Bos t. taurus? Or, were there separate domestications in the Fertile Crescent, the Indian subcontinent and Africa, with modern Anatolian breeds being a mixture of cattle domesticated in these three regions? The placement of Anatolian breeds along principal component 1 in Figure 4.4 (McVean 2009) and their extremely short branch lengths in Figure 4.3 lead us to believe that modern Anatolian breeds are indeed admixed. However, because this issue is not conclusively resolved, we will refer to three ancient population centers (regardless of whether they were domestication centers) as being India, Anatolia, and Africa.

Early farmers expanded their range because of the advantage of a reliable supply of food and likely displaced the indigenous hunter-gatherer populations by introducing new diseases (Diamond 2002). The genomes of modern cattle reflect the history of animal exportations out of ancient cattle population centers by these migratory farmers.

In addition to the routes previously described from the Fertile Crescent to Europe (Decker et al. 2009), here we show imprints resulting from exportations out of the Indian subcontinent to China and southeast Asia, India to Africa, India to the Americas, Africa to the Iberian peninsula and Italy, and Europe to the Americas (Figure 4.9). Subsequent to these initial exportations, there have been countless exportations and importations of cattle worldwide. When domesticated cattle were present and new germplasm was imported, the new cattle were often crossed with the local cattle resulting in an admixed population. Admixed populations are most readily identified when Bos t. indicus and Bos t. taurus animals were crossed, such as in China, Africa, and the Americas (crosses in Figures 4.4 and 4.9).

In the late 18th and 19th centuries, cattlemen began forming closed herds termed breeds (Felius 1995). Because breeds are typically discrete units with little or no interbreeding, as we continue to subdivide the data with our admixture analysis (e.g., increasing $K$ ), the cross-validation error estimates continued to decrease (Table 4.2). This reflects the large differences in allele frequencies between breeds due to separate domestication events, geographic dispersal and isolation, breed formation and artificial insemination.

Cattle breeds in Asia were derived from cattle imported from the Fertile Crescent and the Indian subcontinent. In addition to typical cattle domesticated from aurochs (Bos primigenius), bovids were also domesticated from water buffalo (Bubalus bubalis), gaur (Bos gaurus), and banteng (Bos javanicus), which comprise the Bali breed, which we have sampled (Cockrill 1974; Felius 1995). Although other bovid species have
been domesticated in Asia, most cattle are of Bos t. taurus or Bos $t$. indicus descent. Cattle in the north and northeast are primarily of Bos t. taurus ancestry (Figure 4.5; HANW, WAGY, and MG). Cattle in Pakistan, India, southern China and Indonesia are predominantly Bos $t$. indicus (Figure 4.5; ONG, MAD, BRE, HN, ACE, PES, ACH, HAR, BAG, GUZ, SAHW, GBI, CHO, GIR, KAN, THA, RSIN, HIS, LOH, ROJ, DHA, and DAJ). Cattle located between these two geographical regions are Bos $t$. taurus/Bos $t$. indicus hybrids (Figures 4.5 and 4.9; QC and LX).

Cattle in Africa also have a gradient of indicine ancestry. N'Dama cattle in the west range from $0 \%$ to $17.6 \%$ indicine ancestry. Moving from west to east and from south to central, the percent indicine rises from $19.6 \%$ to $71.8 \%$ (Figure $4.6, \mathrm{AFR}, \mathrm{TULI}$, ANKW, SHK, ZEB, and BOR). These figures likely result from two known waves of indicine importations to Africa: the first occurring in the second millennium $B C$ and the second during and after the Islamic conquests (Ajmone-Marsan et al. 2010; Felius 1995; Hanotte et al. 2002).

Cattle were imported into Europe from the southeast to the northwest. Breeds formed in the British Isles separate into two clades (Figure 4.1), probably representing two distinct importations into the British Isles, one from the south and one from the north (Figure 4.9). The descendants of Durham Shorthorns are the most distinct group of European cattle as they cluster at the extremes of principal component 2 (upper left hand corner of Figure 4.3), and they form a separate cluster when $K=4$ and $K=5$
(Figures 4.6 and 4.7). This is for two reasons. First, as shown in Figure 4.7, many breeds share ancestry with Shorthorn cattle, including Milking Shorthorn, Beef Shorthorn,

Lincoln Red, Maine-Anjou, Belgian Blue, Holstein, Charolais, Santa Gertrudis, and Beefmaster (Felius 1995). Second, Shorthorn cattle have higher levels of inbreeding causing them to have longer branch lengths in Figures 4.1, 4.2, and 4.3.

From the previous placement of American Criollo breeds such as Romosinuano, Texas Longhorn, and Corriente, we hypothesized that Iberian cattle were admixed as a result of introgression of cattle from Africa with the local European cattle (Decker et al. 2009). Genotyping individuals from 11 Spanish breeds supported, but clarified, this hypothesis. On average, Spanish cattle have $8.7 \%$ of African ancestry, with a minimum of $0 \%$ and a maximum of $15.8 \%$. These results are supported by previous analyses of mitochondrial DNA (Mirol et al. 2003; Liron et al. 2006). The remaining Spanish cattle had no indicine ancestry. In addition, Italian cattle (PIED, MCHI, CHIA, and RMG) share ancestry with African taurine (See Figure 4.6). These data show that the reason the American Criollo breeds were found to be more basal in our previous work is their higher percentage of indicine ancestry. For the 5 sampled American Criollo breeds, they had, on average, $4.6 \%$ African ancestry (minimum of $0 \%$ and maximum of $12.1 \%$ ) and $7.0 \%$ indicine ancestry (minimum of 0\% and maximum of 19.6\%).

In 2009, three teeth were found inside an old Spanish well in St. Augustine, Florida. They were subsequently identified as cattle teeth, and, because the teeth were found together, we assume they are from the same individual. These teeth are a remarkable finding in the United States due to their antiquity. They were dated to approximately 1600 AD using pottery and other debris found with the samples and samples from all three teeth were radiocarbon dated. Two of the teeth had extremely
wide calibrated date confidence intervals, but the third tooth was dated as originating in 1564 (see Figure 4.10). This date is remarkably close to the settlement of St. Augustine by Pedro Menéndez de Avilés in 1565 (Deagan 1985; Bushnell 1978). The animal from which the teeth originated could have belonged to the hacienda de la chua operated by the Menéndez Marquéz family, who were related to Pedro Menéndez de Avilés (Bushnell 1978). Regardless of the animal's true identity, in essence, we have caught Spanish settlers "in the act" of exporting cattle to Florida.

To determine if this ancient animal is related to modern Florida Crackers, we compared its DNA to that from 9 extant Florida Cracker samples. These modern Florida Cracker samples come from a single herd with a closed pedigree that can be traced back for over 100 years with no evidence of introgression from other breeds during this time. In a clean, dedicated ancient DNA laboratory, DNA was extracted from each of the three teeth. Primers were designed to sequence an approximately 600 base pair fragment of the mitochondrial D-loop, resulting in ancient DNA sequences, the longest of which was a 627 base pair fragment from the third sample. All three teeth possessed identical Dloop sequences supporting our conjecture that they originated from the same animal. We also attempted to genotype six ancient DNA libraries (two from each tooth) with the BovineSNP50 BeadChip, but, due to wet and warm environment in Florida, the DNA was too degraded to produce reliable genotypes. For the modern Florida Cracker samples, a 930 base pair fragment from the mitochondrial D-loop was sequenced. In addition to the mtDNA sequences for each of the 9 Florida Cracker samples and the ancient teeth, we downloaded 327 D-loop sequences primarily from Spanish, Portuguese, and

American Criollo breeds from GenBank (Table 4.3) and aligned these sequences using CLUSTALW and CodonCode (Figure 4.11). We calculated a median joining network for these sequences in NETWORK 4.5.16 (Figures 4.12 and 4.13). The ancient teeth haplotype clustered with the most common haplotype, which contained mostly Iberian and Criollo samples. Four of the Florida Cracker haplotypes were one step away in the second most common haplotype, and three more were two steps away. Another two Florida Cracker samples clustered with Canaria, Criollo Poblano, Criollo Nayarit, Criollo Chihuahua, and Ramo Grande samples. The final Florida Cracker sample clustered with two Shorthorn samples and one Holstein sample. This along with their position in Figure 4.1 indicates that modern Florida Cracker cattle have been stongly influenced by crossing with British cattle prior to efforts 100 years ago to conserve the breed.

To further interrogate the relationship between the ancient St. Augustine teeth and modern Florida Crackers, we analyzed the mitochondrial sequences with PhyML to produce a maximum likelihood phylogeny. Figure 4.14 shows the clade containing the ancient teeth haplotype. This clade also contains 3 of the Florida Cracker samples and several Criollo samples. These results suggest that the ancient St. Augustine and Florida Cracker cattle share a very recent ancestor, but the small amount of available DNA data makes it difficult to determine if Florida Cracker cattle are linear descendants of the animal from which the ancient teeth originated.

We have shown that patterns of exportation and admixture have shaped the genomes of domesticated cattle. However, how exactly does selection modify the genome? After cattle are exported to a new environment does natural selection
strongly favor animals that are better suited to that environment? From our genomewide analysis of 3,570 Angus cattle, we hypothesized that natural selection has altered the innate immunity of Angus cattle. To investigate whether other breeds are experiencing selection at the same loci, we performed a genome-wide association analysis with birth date (measured as a continuous variable with month and day expressed as a fraction of a year) as the dependent variable in a joint data set of 811 Herefords, 1,209 Holsteins, 2,228 Limousins, and 921 Simmental, all belonging to their respective North American breed registries. This analysis identifies genomic loci which are predictive of birth date and that have changed rapidly in frequency due to selection. To identify significant associations with birth date in this across-breed analysis the selected variants must be segregating in most, if not all, of the four breeds, loci must be exposed to similar selection pressures due to the breed being exposed to the same selection criteria and must respond similarly in all 4 breeds, and SNP markers must be in close proximity to the selected variants as linkage disequilibrium extends only over short distances across breeds (Goddard and Hayes 2009; Gibbs et al. 2009).

To account for the population structure between the sampled breeds we identified the principal components for the sample genotype covariance matrix using SMARTPCA (Patterson, Price, and Reich 2006). The first three principal components identified differences between breeds (see Figure 4.15); subsequent principal components identified variation within breeds. Thus, we choose the first three principal components to fit as covariates in our statistical model. To account for pedigree relationships within each of the breeds we fit a Balding-Nichols matrix in a generalized
least squares model as implemented in EMMAX (Kang et al. 2010). Hereford birth years ranged from 1953 to 2008, Holstein birth years ranged from 1952 to 2004, Limousin birth years ranged from 1968 to 2006, and Simmental birth years ranged from 1978 to 2008. The birth date heritability estimated by EMMAX was 0.615 , indicating that $61.5 \%$ of the variation in birth dates could be explained by the SNP genotypes. As seen in the Q-Q plot in Figure 4.16, our approach effectively accounted for population stratification and relatedness within the data set. In Figure 4.17, we identified significant associations on chromosomes $4,8,11,16,20,21$, and 23 ; Table 4.4 contains a list of candidate genes within 100 Kbp of each of these significant SNPs. One of the suggestive SNPs on chromosome 23 at 6,760,915 base pairs is 250 Kbp away from the BOLA-DYA gene, which is part of the major histocompatibility complex in cattle.

The immune system is responding to natural selection in these breeds as mutations in genes involved in phagocytosis and inflammatory response pathways are changing in frequency (Table 4.4). However, loci are also responding to common artificial selection criteria as processes such as limb development, palate development and skeletal muscle tissue development, and possibly appetite are under selection. Limb and palate development may be under artificial selection to decrease the incidence of dystocia, an important trait in both beef and dairy production. As producers seek to increase the production of meat and milk, cattle are required to consume more feed, explaining the putative molecular signal of selection for appetite.

To identify loci that have been selected to significantly different allele frequencies in beef versus dairy cattle, we performed a genome-wide association
analysis contrasting beef and dairy cattle. We coded beef cattle as 0 , multiple-purpose breeds as 1 , and dairy cattle as 2 . We were unable to identify breed type in the literature for 6 of the breeds and we excluded Bali cattle since they were domesticated from Bos javanicus. Finally, we analyzed 1,064 samples in EMMAX and fit the first 2 principal components (Figure 4.4) as covariates. We identified only one significant region on chromosome 18 comprising SNPs at 14,401,871 and 14,503,218 base pairs associated with differences between beef and dairy cattle (Figure 4.18). There are probably several reasons why we found only a single locus that was predictive of beef versus dairy type. For a genome-wide association study of a complex trait, our sample size was relatively small. Further, within a type, breeds are exposed to selection on diverse criteria. Within beef breeds, some breeds have been selected for increased intramuscular fat (marbling) while other breeds have been selected for extreme muscling. Within dairy breeds, some breeds have been selected for increased milk fat percentage while others have been selected for increased total milk volume. Lastly, there may be very little causal trait variation segregating in common among these 107 cattle breeds due to independent bottlenecks including separate domestication events and breed formations (Figure 4.1, $\mathrm{F}_{\text {ST }}$ values range from 0.005 to 0.540 ). To evaluate the influences of common versus private variation, we split the data set into those samples with more than $50 \%$ taurnine ancestry and those with more than $50 \%$ indicine ancestry and repeated the genome-wide association analysis in these two subsets. In the taurine subset, again the significant association on chromosome 18 was observed and an additional significant association on chromosome 16 was detected (Figure 4.19). In the
indicine subset, significant associations on chromosomes 16 and 18 were not observed, but a significant association on chromosome 14 was identified (Figure 4.20). These results support the hypothesis that little causal trait variation is segregating among breeds and subspecies. However, the genomic region on chromosome 18 identified in the beef/dairy genome-wide association analysis contains biologically relevant variation. The candidate gene, ANKRD11, is involved in bone development and skeletal system morphogenesis, reflecting the different body types selected in beef and dairy cattle.

## Conclusions

Domestication, exportation, admixture, and breed formation have had tremendous impacts on the variation present within and between cattle breeds. In Asia, Africa, North and South America, cattle breeders have crossbred Bost.taurus and Bos t. indicus cattle to produce hybrids which are well suited to the environment and production system. The ancient teeth found in St. Augustine, Florida can only be of Iberian descent and are closely related to the modern Criollo breeds. Even when selected to produce different products, breeds in the same environment are exposed to similar natural and artificial selection pressures. When common variation exists among breeds, common signatures of selection may be identified. However, selection criteria are diverse within a production type and a moderate amount (on average 20\%) of variation is breed specific.

## Methods

## Sample selection

We used 236 samples from Decker et al. (2009), see Table 4.1. We selected samples that had fewer than $10 \%$ of missing genotypes and for breeds with fewer than 20 genotyped samples, we used all available samples which passed the genotype call rate filter. For breeds for which we had no pedigree information, the 20 samples with the highest genotype call rates were selected. For breeds for which we had pedigree information, we filtered any animals whose sire or dam was genotyped. For identified half-siblings, we sampled the sibling with the highest genotype call rate. After removing related genotyped animals, we selected the 20 animals with the highest genotype call rate for that breed.

For the birth date analysis we selected all registered animals from within the sampled breeds with genotype call rates higher than $90 \%$.

## Genotyping

Samples from both the worldwide breed and the birth date selection analyses were genotyped with the Illumina BovineSNP50 BeadChip. Because the pseudoautosomal region is not well defined in cattle, we defined from 137 Mbp to the end of the X chromosome to represent the pseudoautosomal region of the bovine sex chromosomes. We filtered all SNPs which mapped to "chromosome unknown" of the UMD 3.1 assembly (Zimin et al. 2009). In PLINK (Purcell et al. 2007; Purcell 2009), we removed SNPs with greater than $10 \%$ of missing genotypes and with minor allele frequencies less
than $0.0005(1 /[$ Number of Samples*2]=0.00044). The average total call rate in the remaining individuals was 0.990383 .

## Principal component analysis and $F_{S T}$ calculation

The sample covariance matrix was decomposed using SMARTPCA, part of EIGENSOFT 4.2 (Patterson, Price, and Reich 2006). To limit the effects of linkage disequilibrium on the estimation of principal components, for each SNP the residual of a regression on the previous two SNPs was input to the principal component analysis (see EIGENSOFT POPGEN README). We also estimated $\mathrm{F}_{\text {ST }}$ values using SMARTPCA. A neighbor-joining tree was constructed using the NEIGHBOR program of PHYLIP 3.69 (Felsenstein 1989). A NeighborNet network was also created from Fst values using SPLITSTREE 4.12.3 (Huson and Bryant 2006).

## Admixture analysis

ADMIXTURE 1.21 was used to evaluate ancestry proportions for $K$ ancestral populations (Alexander, Novembre, and Lange 2009). We ran ADMIXTURE using penalizedlikelihood with cross-validation for values of $K$ from 1 through 26 .

## Ancient teeth analysis

Three ancient cattle teeth were discovered in a Spanish well in St. Augustine, Florida along with 75 European pottery fragments that weighed 845.8 grams. Three dates were estimated for the trash deposit using the counts and weights for the potshards. A ceramic date of 1613 was estimated when ceramic counts were considered. A mean ceramic date of 1596 was estimated when ceramic weight was the variable. Using a
ceramic weight to number ratio (wt./no.) a date of 1600 was estimated. Tooth samples were sent to the NSF Arizona AMS Facility at the University of Arizona for radiocarbon dating. Radiocarbon dates were calibrated using OxCal version 4.1.5 (Christopher Bronk Ramsey 2009; P. J. Reimer et al. 2009). Ancient DNA was extracted from teeth using the standard phenol/chloroform/Amicon Ultra-4 method (Iwamoto et al. 2007). DNA extractions, PCRs, and Sanger sequencing were set-up and performed in a geographically isolated, dedicated ancient DNA facility at the University of Adelaide, Australia. A ~600 base-pair (bp) fragment of the mitochondrial control region was amplified in one to four (overlapping) fragments, depending on the quality of the specimen. Two-step multiplex PCR amplifications were performed using primers designed for the bovid mitochondrial control region. Multiplex primer sets $A$ and $B$ were set up separately (see Table 4.5). Multiplex PCR was performed in a final volume of $25 \mu \mathrm{l}$ containing $2 \mu \mathrm{l}$ of aDNA extract, $1 \mathrm{mg} / \mathrm{ml}$ rabbit serum albumin (RSA; Sigma, fraction V), 6 mM MgSO4, $0.2 \mu \mathrm{M}$ of each primer, $500 \mu \mathrm{M}$ of each dNTP, 2 U Platinum Taq HiFidelity and $1 \times$ PCR buffer (Invitrogen Ltd., UK). Multiplex PCR conditions were initial denaturation at $95{ }^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ for 2 min , followed by 35 cycles of $94{ }^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ for $15 \mathrm{sec}, 55^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ for 20 sec and $68^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ for 30 sec , and a final extension at $68^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ for 10 min at the end of the 35 cycles. Multiplex PCR products were then diluted to 1:10 as template for the second step of simplex PCR. The second step simplex PCR using Amplitaq Gold (Applied Biosystems) or Hotmaster ${ }^{\text {TM }}$ Taq DNA polymerase (5Prime, Milton, Qld) was conducted in a final volume of $25 \mu \mathrm{l}$ containing $1 \mu \mathrm{l}$ of diluted multiplex PCR product, 2.5 mM $\mathrm{MgCl}_{2}, 0.4 \mu \mathrm{M}$ of each primer, $200 \mu \mathrm{M}$ of each dNTP, 1 U Amplitaq Gold/ Hotmaster Taq
polymerase and $1 \times$ PCR buffer. The second step simplex PCR conditions were initial denaturation at $95{ }^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ for 2 min , followed by 35 cycles of $94^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ for $20 \mathrm{sec}, 55^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ for 15 sec and $72{ }^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ for 30 sec , and a final extension at $72^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ for 10 min at the end of the 35 cycles. Samples were also independently replicated.

One-step simplex PCR amplifications using Platinum Taq Hi-Fidelity polymerase were performed on a DNA Engine Tetrad2 Peltier Thermal Cycler (Bio-Rad) in a final volume of $25 \mu \mathrm{l}$ containing $1 \mu \mathrm{l}$ of aDNA extract, $1 \mathrm{mg} / \mathrm{ml}$ rabbit serum albumin (RSA; Sigma, fraction V), 2 mM MgSO4, $0.6 \mu \mathrm{M}$ of each primer, $250 \mu \mathrm{M}$ of each dNTP, 1.25 U Platinum Taq Hi-Fidelity and $1 \times$ PCR buffer (Invitrogen Ltd., UK). The conditions for PCR amplification were initial denaturation at $95{ }^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ for 2 min , followed by 50 cycles of $94^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ for $20 \mathrm{sec}, 55^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ for 20 sec and $68^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ for 30 sec , and a final extension at $68^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ for 10 min at the end of the 50 cycles. Negative extraction controls as well as non-template PCR controls were used throughout all experiments. PCR products were then checked by electrophoresis on 3.5-4.0\% agarose TBE gels, and visualized after ethidium bromide staining on an UV transilluminator. PCR amplicons were purified using AMPure magnetic beads (Agencourt , Beckman Coulter) according to manufacturer's instruction.

To sequence the hypervariable mitochondrial control region in extant Cracker cattle, DNA was extracted from blood of 9 extant Cracker cattle (Sambrook and Fritsch 1989). The PCR reactions contained 10-20 ng of template DNA, 10 pmol of primers A1125 and A1208 (see Table 2), 2 mM MgSO 1 U Platinum Taq Hi-Fidelity (Invitrogen Ltd., UK) in a total reaction volume of $25 \mu$ I. The

PCR reaction was performed on a DNA Engine Tetrad2 Peltier Thermal Cycler (Bio-Rad) using a touchdown-PCR profile: initial denaturation for 2 mins at $95^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$, followed by 35 cycles of $30 \sec$ denaturation ( $94^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ ), 30 sec annealing, and 1 min 20 sec extension ( 68 ${ }^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ ), and a final extension at $68^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ for 10 mins at the end of the 35 cycles. The annealing temperature was $68{ }^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ for the first cycle, decreasing by $1{ }^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ per cycle until $58^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ was reached, then continuing at $58^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ in the annealing step of the remaining cycles. PCR products were then checked by electrophoresis on 1\% agarose TBE gels, and visualized after ethidium bromide staining on an UV transilluminator. PCR amplicons were purified using AMPure magnetic beads (Agencourt , Beckman Coulter) according to manufacturer's instruction.

All purified PCR products were bi-directionally sequenced with the ABI Prism ${ }^{\circ}$ BigDye ${ }^{\text {TM }}$ Terminator Cycle Sequencing Kit version 3.1 (Applied Biosystems). The sequencing reactions were performed in a final volume of $10 \mu \mathrm{l}$ containing 3.2 pmol of primer, $0.25 \mu$ l Bigdye terminator premixture, $1.875 \mu \mathrm{l}$ of $5 \times$ sequencing buffer. The reaction conditions contained initial denaturation at $95^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ for $2 \mathrm{~min}, 25$ cycles with $95^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ for $10 \mathrm{sec}, 55^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ for $15 \mathrm{sec}, 60^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ for 2 min 30 sec . Sequencing products were purified using Cleanseq magnetic beads (Agencourt ${ }^{\oplus}$, Beckman Coulter) according to the manufacturer's protocol. All sequencing reactions were analyzed on an ABI 3130 DNA capillary sequencer (Applied Biosystems, Foster, CA).

Additionally, mitochondrial D-loop sequences were also retrieved for Iberian, American Criollo, and other common North American breeds from GenBank (Benson et
al. 2009). Sequences were preliminarily aligned using CLUSTALW version 2.0.12 (Larkin et al. 2007). Alignments were adjusted by hand in CodonCode (version 3.7.1, Codon Code Corporation). FASTA files were converted to Fluxus NETWORK input using Fluxus' DNA Aligner (Fluxus 2010a). In NETWORK version 4.5.16 (Fluxus 2012), mitochondrial haplotypes were consolidated using star contraction (Forster et al. 2001). Haplotype networks were constructed using the median-joining method (Bandelt, Forster, and Röhl 1999) followed by maximum parsimony post-processing (Polzin and Daneshmand 2003). Figures were generated in NETWORK PUBLISHER (Fluxus 2010b).

Mitochondrial D-loop sequences were also analyzed using PhyML version 3.0 (Guindon and Gascuel 2003). A general time reversible with invariant sites model was used to model sequence evolution. An initial tree was estimated using BioNeighborJoining, and Nearest Neighbor Interchange and Subtree Pruning Regrafting were used for searching tree topologies.

## Birth date selection analysis

Birth dates were expressed as a continuous variable by subtracting 1950 from the birth year and expressing month and day as fractions of a year. In PLINK (Purcell et al. 2007; Purcell 2009), SNPs which mapped to chromosome unknown, had call rates less than $90 \%$, or minor allele frequencies less than 0.01 were removed. SMARTPCA was run on all 5,139 samples, again using regression on the previous two SNPs to correct for linkage disequilibrium. With EMMAX, we calculated a Balding-Nichols matrix (Balding and Nichols 1995) as it takes into account population structure. Furthermore, we fit the first
three principal components as covariates in the analysis of birth date using EMMAX. Manhattan plots were created in R ( $R$ Development Core Team 2011), with $R$ source code from (Turner 2011) which was altered to allow 31 chromosomes on the $x$-axis. Genomic regions 100 Kbp on either side of significant SNPs were visualized on the UCSC Genome Browser (Kent et al. 2002; Genome Bioinformatics Group of UC Santa Cruz 2012), using UMD3.1 as the reference sequence assembly. Gene ontology and pathways were retrieved from human and cattle databases on the NCBI Entrez Gene website (Maglott et al. 2007).

## Breed type GWAS

Breed type information was obtained from (Felius 1995). A Balding-Nichols matrix and the first two principal components were used to correct for kinship and population structure within the data set. Associations with breed type were estimated using EMMAX. Gene information for SNP associated with breed type was retrieved as described for the birth date selection analysis.

## Acknowledgments

We gratefully acknowledge the provision of samples and genotypes from breed associations, cattle breeders, semen distributors and the Bovine HapMap Project.

## Figures



Figure 4.1. Neighbor joining tree calculated from $\mathrm{F}_{\text {ST }}$ distances.


Figure 4.2. A cluster network drawn as a rectangular phylogram. Splits were calculated using NeighborNet from F ${ }_{\text {ST }}$ distances.


Figure 4.3. Equal angle NeighborNet network calculated from $\mathrm{F}_{\text {ST }}$ values for 114 cattle breeds.


Figure 4.4. Principal component analysis of 1,143 animals genotyped for 47,282 autosomal SNPs.
Principal component 1 separates Bos t. taurus from Bos $t$. indicus and Bos t. javanicus animals. Principal component 2 separates Bos $t$. javanicus and Shorthorn breeds from N'Dama. In addition to the hybrid breeds, 4 of the Angole grade animals, several of the Anatolian animals, and 3 of the Bali (Bos javanicus) animals appear to be hybrids. Samples in green are from Asia, black are from Africa, blue are from Europe, orange are from Australia, and red are from the Americas.


Figure 4.5. Plot of ancestry fractions for $\mathbf{1 , 1 4 3}$ animals with $K=\mathbf{2}$.
Breed key is in Table 4.1.


Figure 4.6. Plot of ancestry fractions for $\mathbf{1 , 1 4 3}$ animals with $K=3$.


Figure 4.7. Plot of ancestry fractions for $\mathbf{1 , 1 4 3}$ animals with $K=4$.


Figure 4.8. Plot of ancestry fractions for $\mathbf{1 , 1 4 3}$ animals with $K=5$.



Figure 4.10. Radiocarbon date calibration for one of the ancient bovine teeth found in a well in St. Augustine, Florida.
The mean calibrated date for this sample is 1564 AD, with a $95.4 \%$ confidence interval of 1474 to 1655.

CLUSTAL 2.0.12 MULTIPLE SEQUENCE ALIGNMENT


Figure 4.11. Multiple sequence alignment of mitochondrial D-loop sequences from the ancient tooth sample and 9 modern Florida Cracker samples.
Ancient tooth haplotype is denoted as FLCRO3_627.


Figure 4.12. Haplotype network of 334 mitochondrial D-loop sequences with nodes colored by geographic origin of sample.


Figure 4.13. Haplotype network of 334 mitochondrial D-loop sequences with nodes colored by breed.


Florida Cracker
Holstein
Shorthorn
Hereford
Florida Cracker
Hereford
Criollo Chiapas Criollo Baja California Shorthorn
Angus
Angus
Criollo Baja California
Criollo Chihuahua
Holstein
Jersey
Criollo Poblano
Ancient Tooth
Ramo Grande
Criollo Baja California Criollo B
Holstein

Figure 4.14. Portion of mitochondrial phylogeny generated by PhyML.
a. Phylogram with branch lengths proportional to distance. Branch widths are proportional to support. b. Cladogram where branches are not drawn to scale.


Figure 4.15. Principal component analysis of $\mathbf{5 , 1 6 9}$ samples used in signature of selection analysis with birth date as the dependent variable.
Points are color coded according to breed, red for Hereford, black for Holstein, yellow for Limousin, and purple for Simmental.


Figure 4.16. Q-Q Plot of $p$-values from analysis of birthdate for the combined data set of Hereford, Holstein, Limousin, and Simmental samples analyzed with EMMAX.


Figure 4.17. Manhattan plot of $-\log _{10}(p$-values) from analysis of combined data set of Hereford, Holstein, Limousin, and Simmental samples using EMMAX.
Red line marks the Bonferroni corrected genome-wide significance cutoff of $-\log _{10}(p)>$ 5.96, and the blue line marks the genome-wide suggestive cutoff of $-\log _{10}(p)>4$.


Figure 4.18. Manhattan plot of $-\log _{10}(p$-values) from analysis of breed type.
Breeds used predominantly for beef were coded as 0 , dairy as 2, and all others, including dual-purpose breeds, were coded as a 1. Red line marks the Bonferroni corrected genome-wide significance cutoff of $-\log _{10}(p)>5.98$, and the blue line marks the genome-wide suggestive cutoff of $-\log _{10}(p)>4$.


Figure 4.19. Manhattan plot of $-\log 10(p$-values) from analysis of breed type for animals with greater than $\mathbf{5 0 \%}$ Bos $t$. taurus ancestry.
Breeds used predominantly for beef were coded as 0 , dairy as 2 , and all others, including dual-purpose breeds, were coded as a 1. Red line marks the Bonferroni corrected genome-wide significance cutoff of $-\log 10(p)>5.98$, and the blue line marks the genome-wide suggestive cutoff of $-\log 10(p)>4$.


Figure 4.20. Manhattan plot of $-\log 10$ ( $p$-values) from analysis of breed type for animals with greater than $\mathbf{5 0 \%}$ Bos $t$. indicus ancestry.
Breeds used predominantly for beef were coded as 0 , dairy as 2 , and all others, including dual-purpose breeds, were coded as a 1. Red line marks the Bonferroni corrected genome-wide significance cutoff of $-\log 10(p)>5.98$, and the blue line marks the genome-wide suggestive cutoff of $-\log 10(p)>4$.

## Tables

Table 4.1. List of breeds, breed codes, numbers of samples, (sub)species, country, continent, type and type code for the 114 breeds used in the analysis.
Breed type was retrieved from (Felius 1995) and the breed type in bold is the primary use.

| breed | breed code | Number <br> of <br> Samples | Number from Decker et al. 2009 | (sub) species | country | continent | type | type code |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Brahman | BR | 20 |  | Bos indicus | United States | Americas | beef | 2 |
| Nelore | NEL | 20 | 5 | Bos indicus | Brazil | Americas | beef | 2 |
| Aceh | ACE | 12 |  | Bos indicus | Indonesia | Asia | work/ beef | 2 |
| Achai | ACH | 12 |  | Bos indicus | Pakistan | Asia | NA | NA |
| Bhagnari | BAG | 10 |  | Bos indicus | Pakistan | Asia | work | 1 |
| Brebes | BRE | 9 |  | Bos indicus | Indonesia | Asia | NA | NA |
| Cholistani | CHO | 11 |  | Bos indicus | Pakistan | Asia | dairy/ <br> beef | 0 |
| Dajal | DAJ | 10 |  | Bos indicus | Pakistan | Asia | dairy/ work | 1 |
| Dhanni | DHA | 12 |  | Bos indicus | Pakistan | Asia | dairy/ work/ beef | 1 |
| Gabrali | GBI | 10 |  | Bos indicus | Pakistan | Asia | dairy/ beef | 1 |
| Gir | GIR | 20 | 9 | Bos indicus | India | Asia | dairy/ <br> work | 1 |
| Guzerat | GUZ | 3 | 3 | Bos indicus | India | Asia | dairy/ beef | 2 |
| Hariana | HAR | 10 |  | Bos indicus | India | Asia | dairy/ work | 1 |
| Hissar | HIS | 10 |  | Bos indicus | Pakistan | Asia | dairy/ <br> work | 1 |
| Hainan | HN | 4 |  | Bos indicus | China | Asia | work/ <br> beef | 2 |
| Kankraj | KAN | 10 |  | Bos indicus | India | Asia | dairy/ work | 1 |


| Lohani | LOH | 10 |  | Bos indicus Pakistan | Asia | dairy/ <br> work/ | 1 |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| beef |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |


| Mongolian | MG | 5 |  | Bos taurus | Mongolia | Asia | dairy/ work/ beef | 1 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Wagyu | WAGY | 12 | 6 | Bos taurus | Japan | Asia | fighting/ beef | 2 |
| Murray Grey | MUGR | 4 | 4 | Bos taurus | Australia | Australia | beef | 2 |
| Anatolian Black | AB | 8 |  | Bos taurus | Turkey | Europe | dairy/ work/ beef | 1 |
| Angus | AN | 20 | 1 | Bos taurus | Scotland | Europe | beef | 2 |
| Anatolian Southern Yellow | ASY | 8 |  | Bos taurus | Turkey | Europe | NA | NA |
| Finnish Ayrshire | AYR | 20 | 2 | Bos taurus | Scotland/ <br> Finland | Europe | dairy/ beef | 0 |
| Belgian Blue | BBLU | 4 | 4 | Bos taurus | Belgium | Europe | dairy/ beef | 0 |
| Berrenda en Colorado | BC | 5 |  | Bos taurus | Spain | Europe | work/ beef | 2 |
| Blonde d'Aquitaine | BDAQ | 5 | 5 | Bos taurus | France | Europe | beef | 2 |
| Belted Galloway | BGAL | 4 | 4 | Bos taurus | Great <br> Britian | Europe | beef | 2 |
| Berrenda en Negro | BN | 5 |  | Bos taurus | Spain | Europe | work/ beef | 2 |
| Braunvieh | BRVH | 20 |  | Bos taurus | Switzerland | Europe | dairy/ beef | 0 |
| Cardena <br> Andaluza | CAR | 5 |  | Bos taurus | Spain | Europe | work/ beef | 2 |
| Charolais | CHA | 20 |  | Bos taurus | France | Europe | beef | 2 |
| Chianina | CHIA | 9 | 7 | Bos taurus | Italy | Europe | beef | 2 |
| Devon | DEV | 4 | 4 | Bos taurus | England | Europe | beef | 2 |
| Dexter | DEX | 4 | 4 | Bos taurus | Ireland | Europe | hobby/ dairy/ beef | 1 |
| East Anatolian Red | EAR | 8 |  | Bos taurus | Turkey | Europe | dairy/ beef | 1 |
| Ehringer | EHR | 2 |  | Bos taurus | Switzerland | d Europe | cow-to- <br> cow <br> fighting/ <br> dairy/ <br> beef | 0 |


| Galloway | GALL | 4 | 4 | Bos taurus | Scotland | Europe | beef | 2 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Gelbvieh | GEL | 20 | 5 | Bos taurus | Germany | Europe | dairy/ beef | 2 |
| Guernsey | GNS | 21 | 10 | Bos taurus | Guernsey Island | Europe | dairy/ beef | 0 |
| Groningen Whitehead | GW | 2 |  | Bos taurus | Netherland S | Europe | dairy/ beef | 0 |
| Hereford | HFD | 20 | 1 | Bos taurus | Wales | Europe | beef | 2 |
| Holstein | HO | 20 |  | Bos taurus | Netherland S | Europe | dairy | 0 |
| Jersey | JER | 20 | 7 | Bos taurus | Jersey Island | Europe | dairy/ beef | 0 |
| Kerry | KERR | 3 | 3 | Bos taurus | Ireland | Europe | dairy/ beef | 0 |
| Longhorn | LH | 3 | 3 | Bos taurus | England | Europe | beef | 2 |
| Lincoln Red | LINC | 9 | 9 | Bos taurus | England | Europe | beef | 2 |
| Lakenvelder | LKV | 1 |  | Bos taurus | Netherland s | Europe | hobby/ dairy/ beef | 1 |
| Lithuanian Light Grey | LLG | 2 |  | Bos taurus | Lithuania | Europe | NA | NA |
| Limousin | LM | 20 |  | Bos taurus | France | Europe | beef | 2 |
| Lithuanian White Backed | LWB | 3 |  | Bos taurus | Lithuania | Europe | NA | NA |
| Maine-Anjou | MAAN | 14 | 5 | Bos taurus | France | Europe | dairy/ beef | 2 |
| Marchigiana | MCHI | 2 | 2 | Bos taurus | Italy | Europe | beef | 2 |
| Menorquina | MEN | 3 |  | Bos taurus | Spain | Europe | dairy/ beef | 0 |
| Montbeliard | MONT | 5 | 5 | Bos taurus | France | Europe | dairy/ beef | 0 |
| Morucha | MOR | 5 |  | Bos taurus | Spain | Europe | beef | 2 |
| Mostrenca | MOST | 5 |  | Bostaurus | Spain | Europe | beef | 2 |
| Meuse-Rhineljjsel | MRI | 3 |  | Bos taurus | Netherland S | Europe | dairy/ beef | 0 |
| Milking <br> Shorthorn | MSH | 9 | 1 | Bos taurus | England | Europe | dairy/ beef | 0 |
| Negra <br> Andaluza | NA | 5 |  | Bos taurus | Spain | Europe | work/ beef | 2 |
| Normande | NORM | 1 |  | Bos taurus | France | Europe | dairy/ beef | 0 |


| Norwegian Red | NRC | 20 | 9 | Bos taurus | Norway | Europe | dairy/ <br> beef | 0 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Piedmontese | PIED | 20 | 9 | Bos taurus | Italy | Europe | dairy/ beef | 2 |
| Pinzgauer | PINZ | 5 | 5 | Bos taurus | Austria | Europe | dairy/ beef | 1 |
| Pirenaica | PIR | 5 |  | Bos taurus | Spain | Europe | dairy/ beef | 2 |
| Red Poll | REDP | 5 | 5 | Bos taurus | England | Europe | dairy/ beef | 1 |
| Rendena | REN | 3 |  | Bos taurus | Central A | Europe | dairy/ beef | 0 |
| Retinta | RET | 4 |  | Bos taurus | Spain | Europe | work/ beef | 2 |
| Romagnola | RMG | 20 | 10 | Bos taurus | Italy | Europe | beef | 2 |
| Salers | SAL | 20 | 4 | Bos taurus | France | Europe | dairy/ beef | 2 |
| South <br> Anatolian Red | SAR | 8 |  | Bos taurus | Turkey | Europe | dairy/ work/ beef | 1 |
| Scottish <br> Highland | SCHL | 8 | 8 | Bos taurus | Scotland | Europe | beef | 2 |
| South Devon | SDEV | 3 | 3 | Bos taurus | England | Europe | beef | 2 |
| Beef Shorthorn | SH | 17 | 7 | Bos taurus | England | Europe | beef | 2 |
| Simmental | SIM | 20 |  | Bos taurus | Switzerla | Europe | beef | 2 |
| Simmentaler | SMR | 4 |  | Bos taurus | Switzerland | Europe | dairy/ beef | 1 |
| Sussex | SUSS | 4 | 4 | Bos taurus | England | Europe | beef | 2 |
| Tarentaise | TARE | 5 | 5 | Bos taurus | Central France | Europe | dairy/ beef | 0 |
| Toro Bravo | TB | 5 |  | Bos taurus | Spain | Europe | beef/ fighting | 2 |
| Terrana | TER | 5 |  | Bos taurus | Spain | Europe | work/ beef | 2 |
| Turkish Grey | TG | 8 |  | Bos taurus | Turkey | Europe | dairy/ work/ beef | 1 |
| Toro de Lidia | TL | 5 |  | Bos taurus | Spain | Europe | fighting/ beef | 2 |
| Welsh Black | WEBL | 2 | 2 | Bos taurus | Wales | Europe | beef | 2 |


| White Park | WHPK | 5 | 4 | Bos taurus | Wales | Europe | hobby/ beef | 2 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Zavot | ZVT | 5 |  | Bos taurus | Turkey | Europe | dairy/ beef | 1 |
| Africander | AFR | 4 |  | Hybrid | South Africa | Africa | beef | 2 |
| AnkoleWatusi | ANKW | 5 |  | Hybrid | Ruanda | Africa | dairy/ beef | 0 |
| Boran | BOR | 20 |  | Hybrid | Ethiopia | Africa | dairy/ beef | 0 |
| Sheko | SHK | 17 |  | Hybrid | Ethiopia | Africa | beef | 2 |
| Tuli | Tuli | 4 |  | Hybrid | Botswana | Africa | beef | 2 |
| East African Shorthorn Zebu | ZEB | 25 |  | Hybrid | Kenya | Africa | NA | NA |
| Beefalo | BEF | 1 |  | Hybrid | United States | Americas | beef | 2 |
| Beefmaster | BEFM | 20 |  | Hybrid | United States | Americas | beef | 2 |
| Canchim | CANC | 20 |  | Hybrid | Brazil | Americas | beef | 2 |
| Santa <br> Gertrudis | SGT | 20 |  | Hybrid | United States | Americas | beef | 2 |
| Luxi | LX | 5 |  | Hybrid | China | Asia | work/ beef | 2 |
| Qinchuan | QC | 4 |  | Hybrid | China | Asia | work/ beef | 2 |

Table 4.2. Statistics for values of $\boldsymbol{K}$ from 1 to $\mathbf{2 6}$ in admixture analysis.
The cross-validation for $K=24$ did not complete, and the model with $K=26$ did not converge.

| K | Log-likelihood | Cross-validation error |
| ---: | ---: | ---: |
| 1 | -53287029.32 | 0.64255 |
| 2 | -47327863.47 | 0.53243 |
| 3 | -46816462.23 | 0.52395 |
| 4 | -46593631.78 | 0.52117 |
| 5 | -46211036.26 | 0.51521 |
| 6 | -46058392.79 | 0.51352 |
| 7 | -45819581.14 | 0.51011 |
| 8 | -45379764.38 | 0.50254 |
| 9 | -45502881.19 | 0.50719 |
| 10 | -44951163.18 | 0.49719 |
| 11 | -44832728.08 | 0.49602 |
| 12 | -44606313.36 | 0.49331 |
| 13 | -44460359.93 | 0.49085 |
| 14 | -44417063.93 | 0.49214 |
| 15 | -44309111.63 | 0.49102 |
| 16 | -44130433.61 | 0.48980 |
| 17 | -44004428.99 | 0.48774 |
| 18 | -44008394.93 | 0.48946 |
| 19 | -43775241.16 | 0.48647 |
| 20 | -43696255.70 | 0.48584 |
| 21 | -43562305.66 | 0.48567 |
| 22 | -43530663.81 | 0.48566 |
| 23 | -43442397.70 | 0.48536 |
| 24 | -43300588.02 | Did not complete |
| 25 | -43244973.60 | 0.48432 |
| 26 | Did not converge | Did not converge |

Table 4.3. Sample information for the 337 mitochondrial D-loop sequences.

| (Sub)Species | Breed | Country | GenBank GI | Analysis Identifier | GenBank Accession \# |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Bost.taurus | Ancient teeth | United States |  | FLCR03_627_1 |  |
| Bost.taurus | Angus | NA | 443737 |  | L27712.1 |
| Bost.taurus | Angus | NA | 443738 |  |  |
| Bost.taurus | Angus | United States | 256041669 |  |  |
| Bost.taurus | Angus | United States | 256041670 |  |  |
| Bost.taurus | Angus | United States | 256041671 |  |  |
| Bost.taurus | Angus | United States | 256041672 |  |  |
| Bost.taurus | Angus | United States | 256041673 |  |  |
| Bost.taurus | Angus | United States | 256041674 |  |  |
| Bost.taurus | Angus | United States | 256041675 |  |  |
| Bost.taurus | Angus | United States | 256041676 |  |  |
| Bost.taurus | Angus | United States | 256041677 |  |  |
| Bost.taurus | Angus | United States | 256041678 |  |  |
| Bost.taurus | Angus | United States | 256041679 |  |  |
| Bost.taurus | Angus | United States | 256041680 |  |  |
| Bost.taurus | Angus | United States | 256041681 |  |  |
| Bost.taurus | Angus | United States | 256041682 |  |  |
| Bost.taurus | Angus | United States | 256041683 |  |  |
| Bost.taurus | Ayrshire | NA | 2655345 |  | AF034440.1 |
| Bost.taurus | Ayrshire | NA | 36143095 |  |  |
| Bost.taurus | Betizuak | Spain | 157778271 |  | EU177833.1 |
| Bost.taurus | Betizuak | Spain | 157778285 |  | EU177834.1 |
| Bost.taurus | Brown Swiss | NA | 2655343 |  | AF034438.1 |
| Bost.taurus | Canaria | Spain | 256041412 |  |  |
| Bost.taurus | Canaria | Spain | 256041413 |  |  |
| Bost.taurus | Canaria | Spain | 256041414 |  |  |
| Bost.taurus | Canaria | Spain | 256041415 |  |  |
| Bost.taurus | Canaria | Spain | 256041416 |  |  |
| Bost.taurus | Canaria | Spain | 256041417 |  |  |
| Bost.taurus | Canaria | Spain | 256041418 |  |  |
| Bost.taurus | Canaria | Spain | 256041419 |  |  |
| Bost.taurus | Canaria | Spain | 256041420 |  |  |
| Bost.taurus | Canaria | Spain | 256041421 |  |  |
| Bost.taurus | Canaria | Spain | 256041422 |  |  |
| Bost.taurus | Canaria | Spain | 256041423 |  |  |
| Bost.taurus | Canaria | Spain | 256041424 |  |  |


| Bos t.taurus | Canaria | Spain | 256041425 |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Bos t.taurus | Caracu |  |  |
| Bos t.taurus | Caracu |  |  |
| Bos t.taurus | Caracu | Brazil | 256041464 |
| Bost.taurus | Caracu | Brazil | 256041465 |
| Bos t.taurus | Caracu | Brazil | 256041466 |
| Bost.taurus | Caracu | Brazil | 256041467 |
| Bos t.taurus | Caracu |  |  |
| Bos t.taurus | Caracu |  |  |
| Bost.taurus | Caracu | Brazil | Brazil |


|  | Criollo |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Bost.taurus | Argentino Criollo | Argentina | 256041460 |
| Bost.taurus | Argentino Criollo | Argentina | 256041461 |
| Bost.taurus | Argentino Criollo | Argentina | 256041462 |
| Bost.taurus | Argentino Criollo Baja | Argentina | 256041463 |
| Bost.taurus | California Criollo Baja | Mexico | 256041474 |
| Bost.taurus | California Criollo Baja | Mexico | 256041475 |
| Bost.taurus | California Criollo Baja | Mexico | 256041476 |
| Bost.taurus | California Criollo Baja | Mexico | 256041477 |
| Bost.taurus | California Criollo Baja | Mexico | 256041478 |
| Bost.taurus | California Criollo Baja | Mexico | 256041479 |
| Bost.taurus | California Criollo Baja | Mexico | 256041480 |
| Bost.taurus | California Criollo Baja | Mexico | 256041481 |
| Bost.taurus | California Criollo Baja | Mexico | 256041482 |
| Bos t.taurus | California Criollo Baja | Mexico | 256041483 |
| Bost.taurus | California Criollo Baja | Mexico | 256041484 |
| Bost.taurus | California Criollo Baja | Mexico | 256041485 |
| Bost.taurus | California Criollo Baja | Mexico | 256041486 |
| Bos t.taurus | California Criollo Baja | Mexico | 256041487 |
| Bost.taurus | California Criollo Baja | Mexico | 256041488 |
| Bost.taurus | California Criollo Baja | Mexico | 256041489 |
| Bost.taurus | California Criollo Baja | Mexico | 256041490 |
| Bost.taurus | California Criollo Baja | Mexico | 256041491 |
| Bos t.taurus | California | Mexico | 256041492 |


| Bost.taurus | Criollo Baja | Mexico | 256041493 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | California Criollo |  |  |
| Bost.taurus | Chiapas | Mexico | 256041513 |
|  | Criollo |  |  |
| Bost.taurus | Chiapas | Mexico | 256041514 |
|  | Criollo |  |  |
| Bos t.taurus | Chiapas | Mexico | 256041515 |
|  | Criollo |  |  |
| Bos t. taurus | Chiapas | Mexico | 256041516 |
|  | Criollo |  |  |
| Bos t.taurus | Chiapas | Mexico | 256041517 |
|  | Criollo |  |  |
| Bost.taurus | Chiapas | Mexico | 256041518 |
|  | Criollo |  |  |
| Bost.taurus | Chiapas | Mexico | 256041519 |
|  | Criollo |  |  |
| Bost.taurus | Chiapas | Mexico | 256041520 |
|  | Criollo |  |  |
| Bost.taurus | Chiapas | Mexico | 256041521 |
|  | Criollo |  |  |
| Bost.taurus | Chiapas | Mexico | 256041522 |
|  | Criollo |  |  |
| Bost.taurus | Chiapas | Mexico | 256041523 |
|  | Criollo |  |  |
| Bost.taurus | Chiapas | Mexico | 256041524 |
|  | Criollo |  |  |
| Bost.taurus | Chiapas | Mexico | 256041525 |
|  | Criollo |  |  |
| Bost.taurus | Chiapas | Mexico | 256041526 |
|  | Criollo |  |  |
| Bost.taurus | Chiapas | Mexico | 256041527 |
|  | Criollo |  |  |
| Bos t.taurus | Chihuahua | Mexico | 256041494 |
|  | Criollo |  |  |
| Bost.taurus | Chihuahua | Mexico | 256041495 |
|  | Criollo |  |  |
| Bost.taurus | Chihuahua | Mexico | 256041496 |
|  | Criollo |  |  |
| Bost.taurus | Chihuahua | Mexico | 256041497 |
|  | Criollo |  |  |
| Bost.taurus | Chihuahua | Mexico | 256041498 |
|  | Criollo |  |  |
| Bost.taurus | Chihuahua | Mexico | 256041499 |
|  | Criollo |  |  |
| Bost.taurus | Chihuahua | Mexico | 256041500 |


|  | Criollo |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Bost. taurus | Chihuahua Criollo | Mexico | 256041501 |
| Bost. taurus | Chihuahua Criollo | Mexico | 256041502 |
| Bost. taurus | Chihuahua Criollo | Mexico | 256041503 |
| Bost.taurus | Chihuahua Criollo | Mexico | 256041504 |
| Bost.taurus | Chihuahua Criollo | Mexico | 256041505 |
| Bost. taurus | Chihuahua Criollo | Mexico | 256041506 |
| Bost.taurus | Chihuahua Criollo | Mexico | 256041507 |
| Bost.taurus | Chihuahua Criollo | Mexico | 256041508 |
| Bost.taurus | Chihuahua Criollo | Mexico | 256041509 |
| Bost. taurus | Chihuahua Criollo | Mexico | 256041510 |
| Bost. taurus | Chihuahua Criollo | Mexico | 256041511 |
| Bost.taurus | Chihuahua Criollo | Mexico | 256041512 |
| Bost. taurus | Nayarit Criollo | Mexico | 256041528 |
| Bost.taurus | Nayarit <br> Criollo | Mexico | 256041529 |
| Bost. taurus | Nayarit Criollo | Mexico | 256041530 |
| Bost. taurus | Nayarit Criollo | Mexico | 256041531 |
| Bost.taurus | Nayarit Criollo | Mexico | 256041532 |
| Bost. taurus | Nayarit Criollo | Mexico | 256041533 |
| Bost.taurus | Nayarit Criollo | Mexico | 256041534 |
| Bost. taurus | Nayarit <br> Criollo | Mexico | 256041535 |
| Bost. taurus | Nayarit Criollo | Mexico | 256041536 |
| Bost.taurus | Nayarit Criollo | Mexico | 256041537 |
| Bost. taurus | Nayarit | Mexico | 256041538 |


| Bos t. taurus | Criollo | Mexico | 256041539 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Nayarit |  |  |
|  | Criollo |  |  |
| Bost.taurus | Nayarit | Mexico | 256041540 |
|  | Criollo |  |  |
| Bost.taurus | Nayarit | Mexico | 256041541 |
|  | Criollo |  |  |
| Bost.taurus | Nayarit | Mexico | 256041542 |
|  | Criollo |  |  |
| Bost.taurus | Nayarit | Mexico | 256041543 |
|  | Criollo |  |  |
|  | Pampa |  |  |
| Bost.taurus | Chaqueno | Paraguay | 256041560 |
|  | Criollo |  |  |
|  | Pampa |  |  |
| Bost.taurus | Chaqueno | Paraguay | 256041561 |
|  | Criollo |  |  |
|  | Pampa |  |  |
| Bost.taurus | Chaqueno | Paraguay | 256041562 |
|  | Criollo |  |  |
|  | Pampa |  |  |
| Bost.taurus | Chaqueno | Paraguay | 256041563 |
|  | Criollo |  |  |
|  | Pampa |  |  |
| Bost.taurus | Chaqueno | Paraguay | 256041565 |
|  | Criollo |  |  |
|  | Pampa |  |  |
| Bost.taurus | Chaqueno | Paraguay | 256041566 |
|  | Criollo |  |  |
|  | Pampa |  |  |
| Bost.taurus | Chaqueno | Paraguay | 256041567 |
|  | Criollo |  |  |
|  | Pampa |  |  |
| Bost.taurus | Chaqueno | Paraguay | 256041568 |
|  | Criollo |  |  |
|  | Pampa |  |  |
| Bost.taurus | Chaqueno | Paraguay | 256041569 |
|  | Criollo |  |  |
|  | Pampa |  |  |
| Bost.taurus | Chaqueno | Paraguay | 256041570 |
|  | Criollo |  |  |
|  | Pampa |  |  |
| Bost.taurus | Chaqueno | Paraguay | 256041571 |
|  | Criollo |  |  |
|  | Pampa |  |  |
| Bost.taurus | Chaqueno | Paraguay | 256041572 |


| Bost.taurus | Criollo | Paraguay | 256041573 |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Pampa |  |  |  |
|  | Chaqueno |  |  |  |
|  | Criollo |  |  |  |
| Bost.taurus | Pampa | Paraguay | 256041574 |  |
|  | Chaqueno |  |  |  |
|  | Criollo |  |  |  |
| Bost.taurus | Pampa | Paraguay | 256041575 |  |
|  | Chaqueno |  |  |  |
| Bos t.taurus | Criollo |  |  |  |
|  | Poblano | Mexico | 256041544 |  |
|  | Criollo |  |  |  |
| Bost.taurus | Poblano | Mexico | 256041545 |  |
|  | Criollo |  |  |  |
| Bost.taurus | Poblano | Mexico | 256041546 |  |
|  | Criollo |  |  |  |
| Bost.taurus | Poblano | Mexico | 256041547 |  |
|  | Criollo |  |  |  |
| Bost.taurus | Poblano | Mexico | 256041549 |  |
|  | Criollo |  |  |  |
| Bost.taurus | Poblano | Mexico | 256041550 |  |
|  | Criollo |  |  |  |
| Bost.taurus | Poblano | Mexico | 256041551 |  |
|  | Criollo |  |  |  |
| Bost.taurus | Poblano | Mexico | 256041552 |  |
|  | Criollo |  |  |  |
| Bost.taurus | Poblano | Mexico | 256041553 |  |
|  | Criollo |  |  |  |
| Bost.taurus | Poblano | Mexico | 256041554 |  |
|  | Criollo |  |  |  |
| Bost.taurus | Poblano | Mexico | 256041555 |  |
|  | Criollo |  |  |  |
| Bost.taurus | Poblano | Mexico | 256041556 |  |
|  | Criollo |  |  |  |
| Bost.taurus | Poblano | Mexico | 256041557 |  |
|  | Criollo |  |  |  |
| Bost.taurus | Poblano | Mexico | 256041558 |  |
|  | Criollo |  |  |  |
| Bost.taurus | Poblano | Mexico | 256041559 |  |
|  | Florida |  |  |  |
| Bost.taurus | Cracker | United States |  | FLCR_bull_1 |
|  | Florida |  |  |  |
| Bost. taurus | Cracker | United States |  | FLCR13_932_1 |
|  | Florida |  |  |  |
| Bost.taurus | Cracker | United States |  | FLCR17_932_1 |
| Bost. taurus | Florida | United States |  | FLCR23_933_1 |


| Bost.taurus | Cracker |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Florida | United States |  | FLCR26_933_1 |
|  | Cracker |  |  |  |
|  | Florida |  |  |  |
| Bost.taurus | Cracker | United States |  | FLCR36_933_1 |
|  | Florida |  |  |  |
| Bost.taurus | Cracker | United States |  | FLCR38_933_1 |
|  | Florida |  |  |  |
| Bost.taurus | Cracker | United States |  | FLCR45_933_1 |
|  | Florida |  |  |  |
| Bost.taurus | Cracker | United States |  | FLCR8_933_1 |
| Bost.taurus | Hereford | NA | 443747 |  |
| Bost.taurus | Hereford | NA | 443748 |  |
| Bost.taurus | Hereford | United States | 256041696 |  |
| Bost.taurus | Hereford | United States | 256041697 |  |
| Bost.taurus | Hereford | United States | 256041698 |  |
| Bost.taurus | Hereford | United States | 256041699 |  |
| Bost.taurus | Hereford | United States | 256041700 |  |
| Bost.taurus | Hereford | United States | 256041701 |  |
| Bost.taurus | Hereford | United States | 256041702 |  |
| Bost.taurus | Hereford | United States | 256041703 |  |
| Bost.taurus | Hereford | United States | 256041704 |  |
| Bost.taurus | Hereford | United States | 256041705 |  |
| Bost.taurus | Hereford | United States | 256041706 |  |
| Bost.taurus | Hereford | United States | 256041707 |  |
| Bost.taurus | Hereford | United States | 256041708 |  |
| Bost.taurus | Hereford | United States | 256041709 |  |
| Bost.taurus | Holstein | France | 45643620 |  |
| Bost.taurus | Holstein | France | 45643622 |  |
| Bost.taurus | Holstein | France | 45643623 |  |
| Bost.taurus | Holstein | France | 45643624 |  |
| Bost.taurus | Holstein | France | 45643625 |  |
| Bost.taurus | Holstein | NA | 23429502 |  |
| Bost.taurus | Holstein | NA | 23452308 |  |
| Bost.taurus | Holstein | NA | 23452309 |  |
| Bost.taurus | Holstein | NA | 256041426 |  |
| Bost.taurus | Holstein | NA | 33321712 |  |
| Bost.taurus | Holstein | NA | 33321713 |  |
| Bost.taurus | Holstein | NA | 33321714 |  |
| Bost.taurus | Holstein | NA | 46404117 |  |
| Bost.taurus | Holstein | NA | 62363164 |  |
| Bost.taurus | Holstein | NA | 62363165 |  |
| Bost.taurus | Holstein | NA | 62363169 |  |


| Bost. taurus | Holstein | NA | 62363170 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Bost.taurus | Holstein | NA | 85375977 |
| Bost.taurus | Holstein | NA | 85375978 |
| Bost.taurus | Jersey | United States | 256041731 |
| Bost.taurus | Jersey | United States | 256041732 |
| Bost.taurus | Jersey | United States | 256041733 |
| Bost.taurus | Jersey | United States | 256041734 |
| Bost.taurus | Jersey | United States | 256041735 |
| Bost.taurus | Jersey | United States | 256041736 |
| Bost.taurus | Jersey | United States | 256041737 |
| Bost.taurus | Jersey | United States | 256041738 |
| Bost.taurus | Jersey | United States | 256041739 |
| Bost.taurus | Jersey | United States | 256041740 |
| Bost.taurus | Jersey | United States | 256041741 |
| Bost.taurus | Jersey | United States | 256041742 |
| Bost.taurus | Jersey | United States | 256041743 |
| Bost.taurus | Jersey | United States | 256041744 |
| Bost.taurus | Jersey | United States | 256041745 |
| Bost.taurus | Jersey | United States | 256041746 |
| Bost.taurus | Jersey | United States | 256041747 |
| Bost.taurus | Jersey | United States | 256041748 |
| Bost.taurus | Limousin | NA | 56410908 |
| Bost.taurus | Limousin | Portugal | 256041624 |
| Bost.taurus | Limousin | Portugal | 256041625 |
| Bost.taurus | Limousin | Portugal | 256041626 |
| Bost.taurus | Limousin | Portugal | 256041627 |
| Bost.taurus | Limousin | Portugal | 256041628 |
| Bost.taurus | Limousin | Portugal | 256041629 |
| Bost.taurus | Limousin | Portugal | 256041630 |
| Bost.taurus | Limousin | Portugal | 256041631 |
| Bost.taurus | Limousin | Portugal | 256041632 |
| Bost.taurus | Limousin | Portugal | 256041633 |
| Bost.taurus | Limousin | Portugal | 256041634 |
| Bost.taurus | Limousin | Portugal | 256041635 |
| Bost.taurus | Limousin | Portugal | 256041637 |
| Bost.taurus | Limousin | Portugal | 256041638 |
| Bost.taurus | Limousin | Portugal | 256041639 |
| Bost.taurus | Mirandesa | Portugal | 256041358 |
| Bost.taurus | Mirandesa | Portugal | 256041359 |
| Bost.taurus | Mirandesa | Portugal | 256041360 |
| Bost.taurus | Mirandesa | Portugal | 256041361 |
| Bost.taurus | Mirandesa | Portugal | 256041362 |

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| Bos $t$. taurus | Mirandesa | Portugal | 256041363 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Bost.taurus | Mostrenca | Spain | 256041396 |
| Bost.taurus | Mostrenca | Spain | 256041397 |
| Bost.taurus | Mostrenca | Spain | 256041398 |
| Bost.taurus | Mostrenca | Spain | 256041399 |
| Bost.taurus | Mostrenca | Spain | 256041400 |
| Bost.taurus | Mostrenca | Spain | 256041401 |
| Bost.taurus | Mostrenca | Spain | 256041402 |
| Bost.taurus | Mostrenca | Spain | 256041403 |
| Bost.taurus | Mostrenca | Spain | 256041404 |
| Bost.taurus | Mostrenca | Spain | 256041405 |
| Bost.taurus | Mostrenca | Spain | 256041406 |
| Bost.taurus | Mostrenca | Spain | 256041407 |
| Bost.taurus | Mostrenca | Spain | 256041408 |
| Bost.taurus | Mostrenca | Spain | 256041409 |
| Bost.taurus | Mostrenca | Spain | 256041410 |
| Bost.taurus | Mostrenca | Spain | 256041411 |
| Bost.taurus | Preta | Portugal | 256041364 |
| Bost.taurus | Preta | Portugal | 256041365 |
| Bost.taurus | Preta | Portugal | 256041366 |
| Bost.taurus | Preta | Portugal | 256041367 |
| Bost.taurus | Preta | Portugal | 256041368 |
| Bost.taurus | Preta | Portugal | 256041369 |
| Bost.taurus | Preta | Portugal | 256041370 |
| Bost.taurus | Preta | Portugal | 256041371 |
| Bost.taurus | Preta | Portugal | 256041372 |
| Bost.taurus | Preta | Portugal | 256041373 |
| Bost.taurus | Preta | Portugal | 256041374 |
| Bost.taurus | Preta | Portugal | 256041375 |
| Bost.taurus | Preta | Portugal | 256041376 |
| Bost.taurus | Preta | Portugal | 256041377 |
| Bost.taurus | Preta | Portugal | 256041378 |
| Bost.taurus | Preta | Portugal | 256041379 |
|  | Ramo |  |  |
| Bost.taurus | Grande | Portugal | 256041380 |
|  | Ramo |  |  |
| Bost.taurus | Grande | Portugal | 256041381 |
|  | Ramo |  |  |
| Bost.taurus | Grande | Portugal | 256041382 |
|  | Ramo |  |  |
| Bost.taurus | Grande | Portugal | 256041383 |
|  | Ramo |  |  |
| Bost.taurus | Grande | Portugal | 256041384 |


|  | Ramo |  |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | ---: |
| Bost.taurus | Grande | Portugal | 256041385 |
|  | Ramo |  | 256041386 |
| Bost.taurus | Grande | Portugal |  |
|  | Ramo |  | 256041387 |
| Bost.taurus | Grande | Portugal | 256041388 |
|  | Ramo |  |  |
| Bost.taurus | Grande | Portugal | 256041389 |
|  | Ramo |  |  |
| Bost.taurus | Grande | Portugal | 256041390 |
|  | Ramo |  |  |
| Bost.taurus | Grande | Portugal | 256041391 |
|  | Ramo |  |  |
| Bost.taurus | Grande | Portugal | 256041392 |
|  | Ramo |  |  |
| Bost.taurus | Grande | Portugal | 256041393 |
|  | Ramo |  |  |
| Bost.taurus | Grande | Portugal | 256041394 |
|  | Ramo |  | 256041395 |
| Bost.taurus | Grande | Portugal | 25372310 |
| Bost.taurus | Ramo | Grande | Portugal |


| Bost. indicus | Brahman | Mexico | 256041655 |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Bost. indicus | Brahman | Mexico | 256041656 |  |
| Bost. indicus | Brahman | Mexico | 256041657 |  |
| Bost. indicus | Brahman | Mexico | 256041658 |  |
| Bost. indicus | Brahman | Mexico | 256041659 |  |
| Bost. indicus | Brahman | NA | 27462350 |  |
| Bost. indicus | Brahman | NA | 27462351 |  |
| Bost. indicus | Brahman | United States | 256041640 |  |
| Bos t. indicus | Brahman | United States | 256041641 |  |
| Bost. indicus | Brahman | United States | 256041642 |  |
| Bost. indicus | Brahman | United States | 256041643 |  |
| Bos t. indicus Bubalus | Brahman | United States | 256041644 |  |
| bubalis |  |  | 126742614 | EF464392.1 |
| Bubalus |  |  |  |  |
| bubalis |  |  | 126742662 | EF464440.1 |
| Bubalus |  |  |  |  |
| bubalis |  |  | 126742653 | EF464431.1 |

Table 4.4. Coordinates of significant associations from the genome-wide analysis of birth date for the combined data set of Herefords, Holsteins, Limousins, and Simmentals.
Genes within 100 Kbp of the significant SNP were identified and biological processes and pathways were acquired from NCBI Gene information for cow and human.

| Chromosome | UMD 3.1 <br> Position p-value | Candidate <br> gene <br> symbol | Gene Ontology <br> Biological Process | Pathways |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 4 | 24,004,871 1.04E-25 | MEOX2 | angiogenesis; blood circulation; limb development; multicellular organismal development; palate development; skeletal muscle tissue development; somite specification |  |
| 8 | 77,546,886 1.92E-30 | RASEF | protein transport; small GTPase mediated signal transduction |  |
| 11 | 49,473,033 7.70E-27 | ELMOD3 | phagocytosis |  |
| 16 | 65,669,824 1.20E-27 | LAMC1, LAMC2 |  | Amoebiasis; ECM-receptor interaction; Focal adhesion; Prion diseases; Small cell lung cancer; Toxoplasmosis; Inflammatory Response Pathway |
| 16 | 74,158,269 1.61E-21 | KCNH1 | ion transport; potassium ion transport; regulation of transcription, DNAdependent; transmembrane transport |  |
| 20 | 63,865,337 1.30E-09 | $\begin{aligned} & \text { SNORD123, } \\ & \text { SEMA5A, } \\ & \text { AGRP2 } \end{aligned}$ | appetite stimulation? |  |
| 21 | 10,087,575 4.72E-07 |  |  |  |
| 23 | 24,667,121 1.21E-25 | TRAM2, $E F H C 1$ | protein transport; collagen biosynthetic process |  |

Table 4.5. Primers used in aDNA amplification and sequencing.

|  | Primer | Primer Sequence (5' --- 3') | Length ${ }^{\text {(c) }}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Set_A1 | BovCR-16351F | CAACCCCCAAAGCTGAAG | ~96bp |
|  | BovCR-16457R | TGGTTRGGGTACAAAGTCTGTG |  |
| Set_B1 | BovCR-16420F | CCATAAATGCAAAGAGCCTCAYCAG | ~172bp |
|  | BovCR-16642R | TGCATGGGGCATATAATTTAATGTA |  |
| Set_A2 | BovCR-16507F | AATGCATTACCCAAACRGGG | ~184bp |
|  | BovCR-16755R | ATTAAGCTCGTGATCTARTGG |  |
| Set-B2 | BovCR-16633 ${ }^{\text {(a) }}$ | GCCCCATGCATATAAGCAAG | ~132bp |
|  | BovCR-16810R ${ }^{\text {(a) }}$ | GCCTAGCGGGTTGCTGGTTTCACGC |  |
| Set_A3 | BovCR-16765F ${ }^{\text {(a) }}$ | GAGCTTAAYTACCATGCCG | $\sim 125 \mathrm{bp}$ |
|  | BovCR-16998R | CGAGATGTCTTATTTAAGAGGAAAGAATGG |  |
| Set_B3 | BovCR-16960F | CATCTGGTTCTTTCTTCAGGGCC | ~110bp |
|  | BovCR-80R ${ }^{\text {(a) }}$ | CAAGCATCCCCCAAAATAAA |  |

Two pairs of PCR primers derived from hypervariable control region and 12S-rRNA region of the mitochondrial genome were used for one-step simplex PCRs.

|  | Primer | Primer Sequence (5'--- 3') | Length $^{\text {(c) }}$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Frag1 | BovCR_16738MF $^{(b)}$ | CACGACGTTGTAAAACGACATYGTACATAGYACATTATGTCAA | 67 bp |
|  | BovCR_16810TR $^{\text {(b) }}$ | TACGACTCACTATAGGGCGAGCCTAGCGGGTTGCTGGTTTCACGC |  |
|  | Mamm_12SE | CTATAATCGATAAACCCCGATA | 96 bp |
|  | Mamm_12SH | GCTACACCTTGACCTAAC |  |
|  |  |  |  |

(a): Primers (BovCR-16633F, BovCR-16810R, BovCR-16765F, BovCR-80R) were published in Shapiro et al., 2004.
(b): To obtain good quality sequences for short fragment from directly sequencing, M13 (CAC GAC GTT GTA AAA CGA C) and T7 (TAC GAC TCA CTA TAG GGC GA) primer sequences were tagged at the primers BovCR_16738F and BovCR_16810R, respectively.
(c): Length of PCR amplicon is primer-excluded.

Table 4.6. Primers for sequencing mitochondrial control region from modern DNA.

| Primer | Primer Location | Primer Sequences (5'--- $\mathbf{3}^{\prime}$ ) |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| A149 | Bov_CR_113R | GTCCAGCTACAATAGATGCTC |
| A1125* | Bov_CR_L15737F | CTGCAGTCTCACCATCAACC |
| A1127 | Bov_CR_L16161F | AATTACCATGCCGCGTGA |
| A1208* | Bov_CR_498R | ACTGGGGTGTAGATGCTTGC |
| A1453 | Bos_CR_298R | GCTAAATTGAGTATTGAAAGYGTG |

*Primers A1125 and A1208 were used for PCR amplification of mitochondrial control region (with an amplicon of 1.1 Kbp ) from extant cracker cattle DNA. Primers A149, A1125, A1127, and A1453 were used to sequence the control region from modern cracker cattle DNA.

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## VITA

Jared Egan Decker was born in 1982 in Durango, Colorado. Jared has known since he was 6 years old that he wanted to be a scientist; he just didn't know if he wanted to study dinosaurs, birds, or airplanes. In 1990, his family moved to a small farm in La Plata, New Mexico, and in 1995 they moved to a larger farm. It was Jared's competitive nature and love of cattle that sparked his interest in genetics. Jared wanted to win at the fair, so he was always searching the next great bull to breed to his Hereford heifers. In 2001, the summer after graduating from Farmington High School, Jared completed his goal and won grand champion heifer with a heifer he bred and raised.

In May of 2007, Jared graduated with Highest Honors from the College of Agriculture at New Mexico State University. During his time at New Mexico State, Jared worked in a nutritional toxicology laboratory and a physiological genetics laboratory. As part of his studies he also completed an Honors Thesis on scrotal growth in beef bulls. Most importantly, he was a summer undergraduate research intern at the University of Missouri working in Dr. Jeremy F. Taylor's animal genomics laboratory.

In August of 2007, Jared rejoined the Taylor group as a Ph.D. student. During his time in the Taylor lab, Jared has presented at international meetings, published in top tier journals, and received numerous awards.

In 2008, Jared married his lovely wife Mary. In addition to his step-daughter, Jared is the father of two boys born in 2009 and 2010.

