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Copy number variation profiling in the genome of crossbred dairy cattle from Pakistan

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Abstract

The investigation of structural variants that may govern complex traits has significant importance. This is particularly true for the crossbred dairy cattle of Pakistan, which are deemed ideal for achieving optimal milk production and enhanced environmental adaptability in tropical conditions. This research detected and described copy number variation regions (CNVR) within the crossbred cattle genome. A GGP_HDv3_C chip containing 139,376 SNPs was utilized to genotype a cohort of 81 animals. In this study, 1055 CNVs were obtained after quality control, distributed across animals and encompassing all autosomes. From these, 268 CNVRs were detected, which covered 31.03 megabases, representing approximately 1.24% of the bovine genome. Functional analysis of these regions yielded 97 genes primarily associated with the immune and defense systems. Additionally, other observed categories encompassed production, health and reproduction. These findings enhanced the CNV map of bovines, offering the variant identification linked to traits subject to selection in both crossbred and indicine breeds of cattle.

Introduction

Copy number variations (CNVs) allude to genetic modifications that include deletions, duplications and insertions surpassing a size threshold of 50 base pairs (bp). These modifications intricately reshape the Deoxyribonucleic acid (DNA) architecture, exerting a profound influence on genomic diversity, a phenomenon readily apparent both within specific breeds and across diverse populations (Letaief *et al.*, 2017). CNVs have been observed to influence a greater proportion of genomic sequences compared to other types of genomic variations, such as single-nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) (Geistlinger *et al.*, 2018; Zhou *et al.*, 2016; Zhao *et al.*, 2013; Liu and Bickhart, 2012; Hou *et al.*, 2011; Zhang *et al.*, 2009). They can also affect the expression of adjacent genes, even when they may not be inherently connected through linkage disequilibrium (LD). CNVs and CNV regions (CNVRs) have been linked to both qualitative and quantitative traits across various animal species (da Silva *et al.*, 2016). Changes within CNVRs can appear as either copy number gains, copy number losses, or mixed types, involving both gain and loss simultaneously (Butty *et al.*, 2021).

CNVs have the potential to induce significant phenotypic variations through a diverse array of mechanisms, that is, through gene dosage effect, alterations in gene expression levels, gene blocking effects, gene fusion events, positional effects, the activation of previously dormant alleles, functional polymorphisms and the possibility of compounded effects (Zhang *et al.*, 2018b). They might represent the basis upon which evolutionary mechanisms can exert their influence (Emerson *et al.*, 2008). About 50% of recognized CNVs from humans involve protein coding regions, acknowledged for their roles in fundamental cellular processes, overall metabolism and the initiation of various diseases and disease susceptibility (Sebat *et al.*, 2004; Gupta *et al.*, 2015; Cooper *et al.*, 2011; Casey *et al.*, 2012; Almal and Padh, 2012; El-Sayed Moustafa *et al.*, 2012; Conrad *et al.*, 2010; Park *et al.*, 2015; Pinto *et al.*, 2010). Modifications in CNVs are identified in cancerous tissues (Gupta *et al.*, 2015; Park *et al.*, 2015; Ouyang *et al.*, 2014; Malek, 2013; Verma *et al.*, 2013) and have been linked to different other traits (Park *et al.*, 2015; Zarrei *et al.*, 2015; Butty *et al.*, 2021; Kang *et al.*, 2020; Di Gerlando *et al.*, 2019; Zhou *et al.*, 2018; da Silva *et al.*, 2016; Jakobsson *et al.*, 2008).

Historically, the identification of CNVs at the cytogenetic level utilized techniques such as Fluorescent In Situ Hybridization (FISH) and chromosomal karyotyping (Zhao *et al.*, 2013). The majority of extensive population-based studies for CNV detection primarily utilize two approaches: SNP genotyping panels and comparative genomic hybridization arrays (CGH) (Zhang *et al.*, 2014; Cicconardi *et al.*, 2013; Xu *et al.*, 2016). The merits and drawbacks linked to them are thoroughly discussed in the literature (Pinto *et al.*, 2011; Ionita-Laza *et al.*, 2009; Curtis *et al.*, 2009). Among these methods, the use of SNP arrays with varying densities is advantageous

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in diverse livestock species because of their high-throughput nature and cost-effectiveness. Additionally, the incorporation of the B-allele frequency (BAF) and Log R Ratio (LRR) parameter further aids in result interpretation (Fadista *et al.*, 2008). Numerous computational tools and methods have been developed for the exhaustive analysis of CNVs on a genome-wide scale. Notably, the Hidden Markov Model (HMM) utilized in PennCNV stands out as a highly accurate approach for CNV detection, recognized for its heightened specificity and sensitivity (Pierce *et al.*, 2018; Geistlinger *et al.*, 2018; Zhang *et al.*, 2014).

Studies focused on identifying CNVs have been successfully conducted in economically significant animal species. These species encompass cattle (Jiang *et al.*, 2013; Xu *et al.*, 2014a; Bickhart *et al.*, 2012; Hou *et al.*, 2012a; Hou *et al.*, 2012b; Jiang *et al.*, 2012; Liu and Bickhart, 2012; Liu *et al.*, 2011; Liu *et al.*, 2010; Liu *et al.*, 2009), goat (Fontanesi *et al.*, 2010), sheep (Fontanesi *et al.*, 2011; Liu *et al.*, 2013) and buffalo (Ahmad *et al.*, 2023; Dash *et al.*, 2023; Kumar *et al.*, 2023; Liu *et al.*, 2019; Strillacci *et al.*, 2021; Yang *et al.*, 2023; Zhang *et al.*, 2022). A substantial quantity of CNVs have been observed in both indicine and taurine cattle breeds, particularly within genes and genomic regions influencing complex and quantitative traits (Zhang *et al.*, 2014; Cicconardi *et al.*, 2013; Bickhart *et al.*, 2012; Hou *et al.*, 2012c; Jiang *et al.*, 2012; Jiang *et al.*, 2013). Notably, there is a stronger overlap of CNVs reported among different taurine breeds compared to the overlap seen when indicine and taurine cattle are compared. Interestingly, indicine breeds displayed the greatest CNV diversity among all (Bickhart *et al.*, 2012).

In the context of cattle, CNVs have been associated with diverse traits, including parasite resistance (Hou *et al.*, 2012c), growth characteristics (Zhang *et al.*, 2018b; Xu *et al.*, 2014b), reproduction (Yue *et al.*, 2014; Sasaki *et al.*, 2016), milk production and composition (da Silva *et al.*, 2016; Gao *et al.*, 2017), milk somatic cell scores (Durán Aguilar *et al.*, 2017), meat quality (da Silva *et al.*, 2016; de Lemos *et al.*, 2018) and feed conversion ratios (de Almeida Santana *et al.*, 2016).

The identification of CNVs and CNVRs within crossbred cattle populations holds the potential to unveil specific genetic segments responsible for variations in critical economic traits (Liu *et al.*, 2024). A lot of CNV-related literature is available; however, only a few studies have been conducted to explore the crossbred cattle genomics of tropical regions like Pakistan (Chen *et al.*, 2024). The primary focus of the current study was to construct a comprehensive genome-wide CNV map for crossbred cattle employing SNP genotyping techniques, aiming to facilitate genetic enhancements and delve into the genetic foundations of improved production and environmental adaptability.

Previously, the signatures of selection and LD parameters were done using the same dataset (Nisa *et al.*, 2023; Nisa *et al.*, 2024). Sahiwal, a tropical dairy cattle, is well recognized for disease resistance and heat tolerance (Iqbal *et al.*, 2019), but the lower production is of great concern. The import of high-yielding dairy animals, like HF, is rising in Pakistan to mitigate the production-related issues. Crossbreeding Sahiwal and HF is a highly efficient method to bolster livestock productivity with improved sustainability and reproductive ability (Leroy *et al.*, 2016; Mbole-Kariuki *et al.*, 2014; Bebe *et al.*, 2003). This crossbreeding yields progeny that harness the benefits of hybrid vigour (Kumar *et al.*, 2018). It may combine the high production yield of HF and the adaptability and heat tolerance of Sahiwal into a single individual, with improved production and adaptability.

Material and methods

Ethics statement

To guarantee the ethical and compassionate treatment of animals, the investigation outlined here received approval from the research ethics committee of the National Institute for Biotechnology and Genetic Engineering (NIBGE), Faisalabad, Pakistan, on 10 June 2020. A qualified veterinarian supervised the blood collection process to minimize discomfort to the animals. Before sample collection, the researchers conducted a meeting with the farmers to elaborate on the objective of the investigation and secured verbal acknowledgment of consent.

Sample collection and data generation

The study sample comprised 81 crossbred cattle. The animals were selected based on varying proportions of HF and Sahiwal genetics across different lactations. Due to the inherent variability in crossbreeding, breed composition differed among individuals, with some possessing approximately 50% HF and 50% Sahiwal inheritance, while others had up to 31/32 HF ancestry, with the remainder from Sahiwal. Genotyping was done using the GGP_HDv3_C chip (GeneSeek® Genomic Profiler™) and commercially available services at GeneSeek (Neogen Corporation, Lincoln, NE, United States). The details about the blood sample collection, crossbred composition, DNA extraction, its qualitative and quantitative assessment and genotyping detail is mentioned in previous studies on the same dataset (Nisa *et al.*, 2024; Nisa *et al.*, 2023). The genotypes were originally discerned utilizing Illumina, Inc.'s Genome Studio. The examination was conducted based on the ARS-UCD1.2 bovine genome assembly.

Quality control (QC)

After genotyping, raw data consisted of 139,376 SNPs. QC was performed utilizing the PLINK v1.9 software as outlined by Purcell *et al.* (2007). This involved eliminating SNPs with a call rate of < 95%, a minor allele frequency (MAF) of < 0.02 and a Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium (HWE) of < 10E−05. Downstream analysis considered autosomal SNPs only.

Calling copy number variations (CNVs) and copy number variation regions (CNVRs)

In this study, the Genome Studio v2.0.5 software developed by Illumina was utilized to extract pertinent information, including BAF and LRR, from the signal intensity data of the genotyped samples. Notably, the genotyping data exhibited a minimal rate of missing values, boasting an impressive genotyping rate of 99.7%.

For the crucial task of CNV detection, the PennCNV programme was used (Wang *et al.*, 2007). This programme leverages the power of HMM for the accurate identification of CNVs. To facilitate the analysis, the Compile_pfb script within PennCNV was utilized. This script allowed the generation of a comprehensive genome-wide Population Frequency of B Allele (PFB) file, primarily derived from the BAF associated with each SNP.

To further refine the data analysis, Kcolumn, a Perl script within PennCNV, was employed. This script was instrumental in the segmentation and organization of the information pertaining to LRR, BAF and PFB. It is noteworthy that, due to the unavailability or incompleteness of complete pedigree information, the '–test' option was chosen for the CNV calling process,

ensuring the robustness of the analysis in situations where pedigree information was lacking or not fully utilized in the study.

CNVs were identified using the intensity files in the Perl script `detect_cnv` supplied by the PennCNV. QC for CNVs adhered to stringent criteria, necessitating a low LRR standard deviation (SD) of less than 0.3, with a minimal BAF drift of less than < 0.01 and a GC wave factor of less than 0.05.

It is important to highlight that although the PennCNV was basically designed for humans, essential modifications were incorporated while analysing to accommodate the extra chromosomes of the bovine genome. All other parameters and settings of PennCNV were retained at their default values during CNV calling.

The identified CNVs were subsequently categorized into discrete intervals, referred to as CNVRs. This choice was made to define CNVRs more naturally, encompassing intervals with overlapping CNVs that did not surpass the average size of the CNV+1SD. CNVRs were constructed using the CNVRuler programme with default parameters, as outlined by Kim *et al.* (2012b).

It is important to note that CNVRuler offers three distinct methods for defining CNVRs: CNVR, Reciprocal Overlap (RO) and Fragment. In this study, the CNVR method was selected. To ensure accuracy, a recurrence value of 0.3 was set to trim sparse regions of overlap, preventing the overestimation of CNVR size and frequency.

For validation purposes, the same CNVRs were also obtained using the HandyCNV package within R (Zhou *et al.*, 2021). Three categories of CNVRs were identified specifically: loss, gain and mixed.

Functional annotation

The automated annotation of genes located in the identified CNVs and CNVRs was conducted using the handyCNV package in R, specifically employing the `call_gene` function. However, before utilizing this function, the preparation of gene lists against the correct reference genome, namely ARS-UCD1.2, was imperative. This preparatory step was accomplished through the `get_refgene` function.

Two distinct gene lists were compiled. The first one drew upon data from UCSC, while the second was created using information sourced from the Ensembl Genome browser. After individually extracting information from both browsers, a comparative analysis was undertaken between the results to identify a set of consensus genes. Additionally, the Ensembl database, specifically Ensembl gene 110, was accessed via Biomart for the same annotation purpose.

Quantitative trait loci (QTL) detection within CNVRs

CNVRs were additionally scrutinized for their potential association with significant QTLs affecting various economically important traits. This evaluation utilized the CattleQTLdb (<https://www.animalgenome.org/cgi-bin/QTLdb/BT/index>). Genomic coordinates were employed to identify QTLs and genes that exhibited spatial overlap within CNVRs.

Additionally, annotation using Gene Ontology (GO) was performed using the DAVID platform (<https://david.ncifcrf.gov/tools.jsp>) (Huang *et al.*, 2021). This approach offered insights into the biological functions and pathways associated with the genes located within CNVs and CNVRs.

Comparison of CNVR with previous studies

To compare CNVRs found in this study with previously reported studies, autosomal CNVs from eight studies were retrieved from the Database of Genomic Variants Archive (DGVa) at EMBL-EBI (accessed on 30 September 2023). They were juxtaposed with CNVRs identified in this study. The study populations in these studies are mainly of taurine breeds; however, in 3 datasets, we got some samples from indicine breeds as well (Liu *et al.*, 2010; Hou *et al.*, 2011; Karimi *et al.*, 2017). One study detected CNV using CGH (Liu *et al.*, 2010), three studies used SNP Chip data (Hou *et al.*, 2011; Karimi *et al.*, 2017) and four studies used WGS data (Bickhart *et al.*, 2012; Boussaha *et al.*, 2015; Keel *et al.*, 2017; Mesbah-Uddin *et al.*, 2018). The studies encompassed a variable number of breeds, ranging from 1 to 21, with sample sizes ranging from 6 to 539. To compile the DGVa CNVR set, information including study details, type of CNV, chromosome, start and end position was extracted.

CNVs in these studies were identified using UMD3.1 and UMD3.1.1 assemblies of bovines. The coordinates from different assemblies were first converted to ARS-UCD1.2 using the LiftOver tool of UCSC Genome Browser (Navarro Gonzalez *et al.*, 2021). The minimum threshold for the ratio of bases requiring remapping was established at 0.4 (Butty *et al.*, 2020) and for all other LiftOver parameters, default values were applied.

After translation to ARS-UCD1.2 positions, CNVs that shared a minimum overlap of 1bp were merged. The DGVa CNVR set resulted in a total of 9243 CNVRs. CNVRs from our dataset were considered equivalent to those from the DGVa if the RO between them was at least 50%.

Results

In the current study, GGP_HDv3_C array data from 81 crossbred animals were employed to detect CNVs and CNVRs. The HMM within the PennCNV program was applied for this purpose. Initially, a total of 1206 CNVs were identified within the crossbred dataset. After a rigorous filtering process, 1055 CNVs were retained, distributed across animals and encompassing all autosomes (Supplementary File 1).

The observed CNV count per animal ranged from a minimum of 3 to a maximum of 37, with an average of 13.88 CNVs per animal. Btau11 displayed the highest number of CNVs, occurring at 97 distinct genomic locations. Conversely, Btau23 and Btau27 in the bovine genome exhibited the lowest number of CNVs, each containing only three CNVs.

The total regions displaying losses and gains in relation to the normal copy number (CNV = 2) amounted to 129 and 926, respectively. The size of the filtered CNVs displayed considerable variation, ranging from 2.9 kilobases (kb) to 1108.7 kb. The average CNV length was approximately 184.502 kb, with a median length of 133.472 kb. The relationship between CNV types and their respective lengths in kb was estimated (Figure 1), providing a visual representation of CNV distribution across the genome (Supplementary File 2). The box plot illustrates the distribution of CNV lengths across four CNV types (0, 1, 3 and 4). Notably, types 3 and 4 exhibit a broader range of CNV lengths and a higher number of outliers compared to types 0 and 1, indicating greater variability. The median CNV length is higher for type 3, while type 0 shows the least variability and few outliers, suggesting a more consistent CNV length distribution.

The distribution of CNV sizes is summarized (Table 1). Notably, nearly half (44%) of the CNVs fell within the size range of

Figure 1. Box plot showing CNV lengths (kb) across four categories (0, 1, 3, 4). The boxes represent the interquartile range (IQR), with medians marked as horizontal lines; whiskers extend to 1.5×IQR and dots represent outliers. CNV categories vary in data distribution, with category 0 showing fewer data points and higher outliers compared to categories 3 and 4.

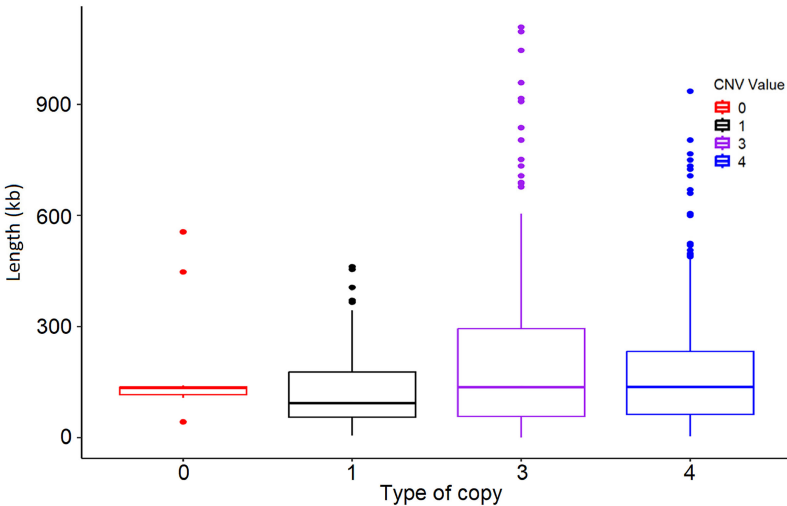


Table 1. Summary of CNV based on size in kilobases (kb)

Size (kb)	No. of CNVs	Percentages (%)	No. of CNVRs	Percentages (%)
0–100	463	43.96	176	65.67
101–200	241	22.88	45	16.79
201–300	137	13.01	20	7.46
301–400	90	8.54	14	5.22
401–500	61	5.79	11	4.10
>500	61	5.79	2	0.74

CNVs, copy number variations; CNVRs, copy number variation regions.

0 to 100 kb. CNVs in the 300–400 kb range were less common, while those exceeding 400 kb in size were relatively rare.

A summary plot of CNVs, displaying results categorized by length group, CNV type and chromosome, was generated using the HandyCNV tool (Figure 2). It depicts the distribution of CNVs across different chromosomes, categorized by CNV types (0, 1, 3, 4). Each line represents the number of CNVs for each chromosome, with different colours corresponding to distinct CNV values. The data show notable peaks in CNV counts for chromosomes 5, 14, 24 and 26, particularly for CNV types 3 (purple) and 4 (blue), suggesting a higher prevalence of these CNVs on these chromosomes. Meanwhile, CNV types 0 (red) and 1 (black) are less frequent and display lower variation across chromosomes (Supplementary File 3).

Likewise, each copy plot is differentiated based on its specific copy number (Figure 3). In it, the frequency and length distribution of CNVs across chromosomes for each CNV type (0, 1, 3, 4) using box plots is mentioned. The top panel (CNV type 0, red) shows a significant peak in frequency on chromosome 12. For CNV type 1 (second panel, black), chromosomes 12 and 25 exhibit elevated CNV frequencies and lengths. CNV type 3 (third panel, purple) displays a widespread distribution, with higher frequencies on chromosomes 5, 10 and 24, while CNV type 4 (bottom panel, blue) highlights chromosomes 5, 14, 24 and 26 as hotspots for CNV occurrence. The range of CNV lengths is greater for types 3 and 4, as indicated by the larger spread in the box plots (Summary plots are indicated in Supplementary File 4).

CNVRs are defined as genomic segments containing one or more CNVs that exhibit at least a single base pair of overlap. Consequently, CNVRs do not overlap with one another. We performed the merging of overlapping CNVs using two distinct approaches: CNVRuler and the HandyCNV package in R (Supplementary Files 5 and 6). As minor modifications were observed therefore in this study the CNVRs obtained using CNVRuler were mainly under consideration.

When employing the CNVRuler software (Kim *et al.*, 2012a), a total of 268 CNVRs were identified (Supplementary File 5). The majority of these CNVRs (65.67%) fell within the size range of 0 to 100 kb, with 16.79% ranging from 100 to 200 kb. Overall, the CNVRs ranged in size from 3.801 kb to 915.979 kb, with an average size of approximately 115.7949 kb. Among the 268 identified CNVRs, 212 represented gain events, 44 were indicative of loss events and 14 CNVRs comprised a combination of both gain and loss events. Detailed distributions of autosomal CNVRs are presented in Table 2 and Figure 4.

The cumulative length of the identified CNVRs amounted to 31.03 megabases (Mb), representing approximately 1.24% of the entire genome. It is important to note that the chromosome sizes were sourced from the most recent cattle assembly, ARS-UCD1.3.

The distribution of CNVRs across chromosomes exhibited variability, with the number of CNVRs per chromosome ranging from 0 on BTA23 and BTA24 to 20 on BTA7 and BTA19. The proportion of CNVRs as a fraction of the total chromosome length displayed a spectrum, ranging from 4.72% on BTA25 to 0% on BTA23 and BTA24.

Figure 5 is showing the CNVR map showing the distribution of CNVR across chromosomes (Supplementary File 7).

CNVR annotation

Annotations were performed separately using information sourced from both the Ensembl genome browser (Supplementary Files 8 and 9) and UCSC (Supplementary Files 10 and 11). Upon comparing the results, it became apparent that the outcomes from the two reference gene lists exhibited slight disparities. This divergence can likely be attributed to variations in methodologies and potential data sources employed by the custodians of each database when generating their gene annotations. Consequently, the position and quantity of genes may vary between different gene builds, even when referencing the same reference genome.

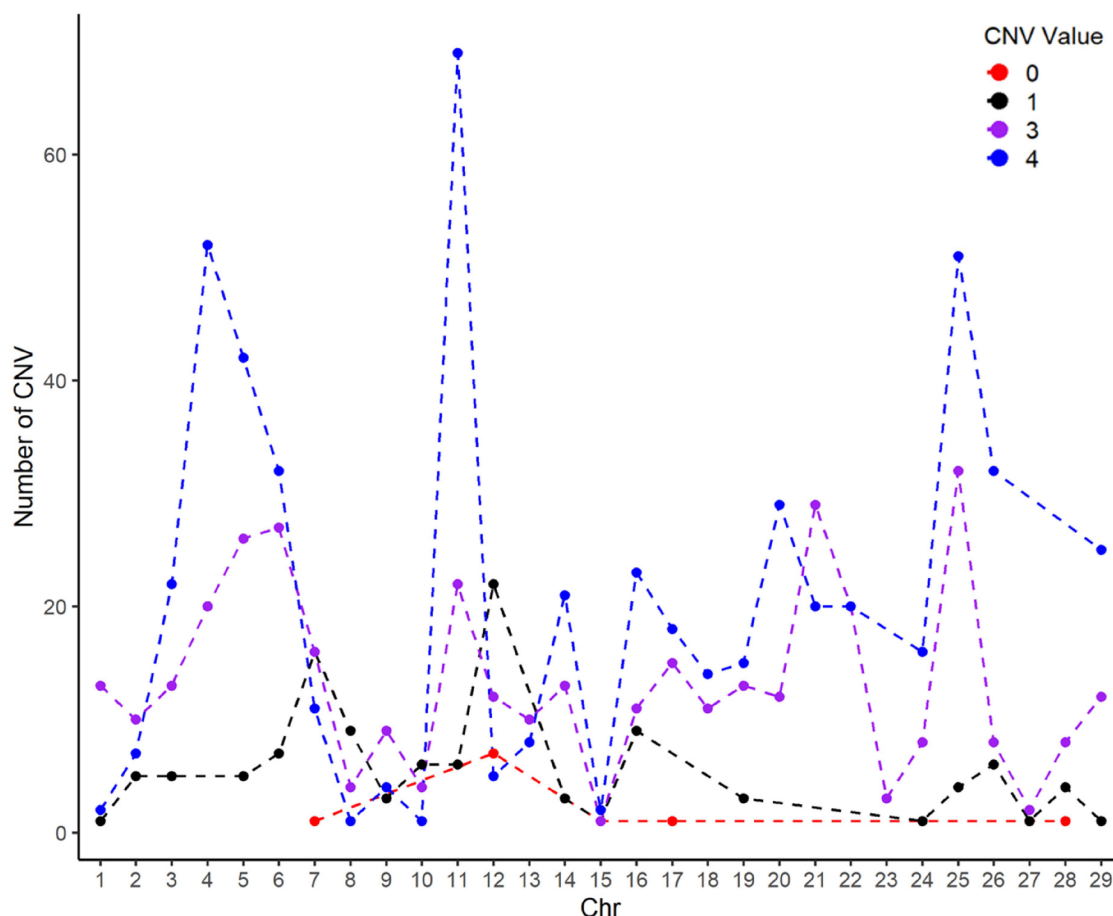


Figure 2. Line plot showing the distribution of CNVs across chromosomes, categorized by CNV types (0, 1, 3, 4). Each line represents the number of CNVs per chromosome, with distinct colours indicating different CNV values. The plot highlights variation in CNV counts across chromosomes and types.

Therefore, it is advisable to validate genes of interest by cross-referencing them in more than one database to ensure their reliability and robustness.

After comparing the annotation results from two different approaches, the list of consensus genes was obtained (Supplementary Files 12 and 13). The set of consensus genes common to both CNV results based on the common-gene-threshold criterion is 5%. A total of 97 genes were considered as the 'common high' that are present in both approaches more than 5% while the 637 genes were fell among the 'common low' that were present in both approaches but not crossing the threshold. The top 10 genes were searched in the cattle literature and found to be associated with relevant traits (Table 3). It can be observed here that the CNVs in our study are highly enriched with immune and defense genes, and the same findings can also be observed in other CNV studies in cattle populations (Liu and Bickhart, 2012; Goyache *et al.*, 2022; Jang *et al.*, 2021; Braga *et al.*, 2023).

For confirmation and validation, Ensemble Biomart (Ensemble Genes 110) was also used for the gene annotation. A total of 268 CNVRs containing 249 annotated genes, which can be classified further. Among annotated genes, 233 were protein coding, 2 as pseudogenes, 6 as microRNA, 3 as snRNA and rRNA ($n = 1$). While annotating these genes with GO terms, biological process components revealed that genes under CNVRs have reported functions related to immune response, production, reproduction, growth, heat stress and more. Many well-defined contrasting traits

between indicine and taurine cattle, subject to natural and artificial selection for production, are governed by genes participating in diverse biological processes. These processes encompass reproduction, such as fertility, age of first oestrous, calving interval, (Sartori *et al.*, 2011), resilience against ecto- and endo-parasites (Piper *et al.*, 2009), adaptation to high temperatures (Beatty *et al.*, 2006), immunity to diseases (Brunelle *et al.*, 2008), as well as traits related to growth, carcass and meat quality (Bolormaa *et al.*, 2013).

Comparison of CNVR with previous studies

Upon comparison, only a limited number of overlapping CNVRs were observed between the CNVRs identified in this study and the DGVa CNVR set. Eleven overlapping CNVRs are identified. Five CNVRs from this study were overlapped with the study conducted by Hou *et al.* (2011), followed by three CNVRs overlapped from the studies of Mesbah-Uddin *et al.* (2018), Keel *et al.* (2017), Bickhart *et al.* (2012) and Karimi *et al.* (2017). Two overlapping CNVRs were observed with Liu *et al.* (2010), and only one overlapping CNVR with Boussaha *et al.* (2015) was observed.

Discussion

CNVs are key contributors to genomic structural variation, affecting gene function through changes in gene structure, dosage and regulation, with a larger impact on phenotypes than SNPs

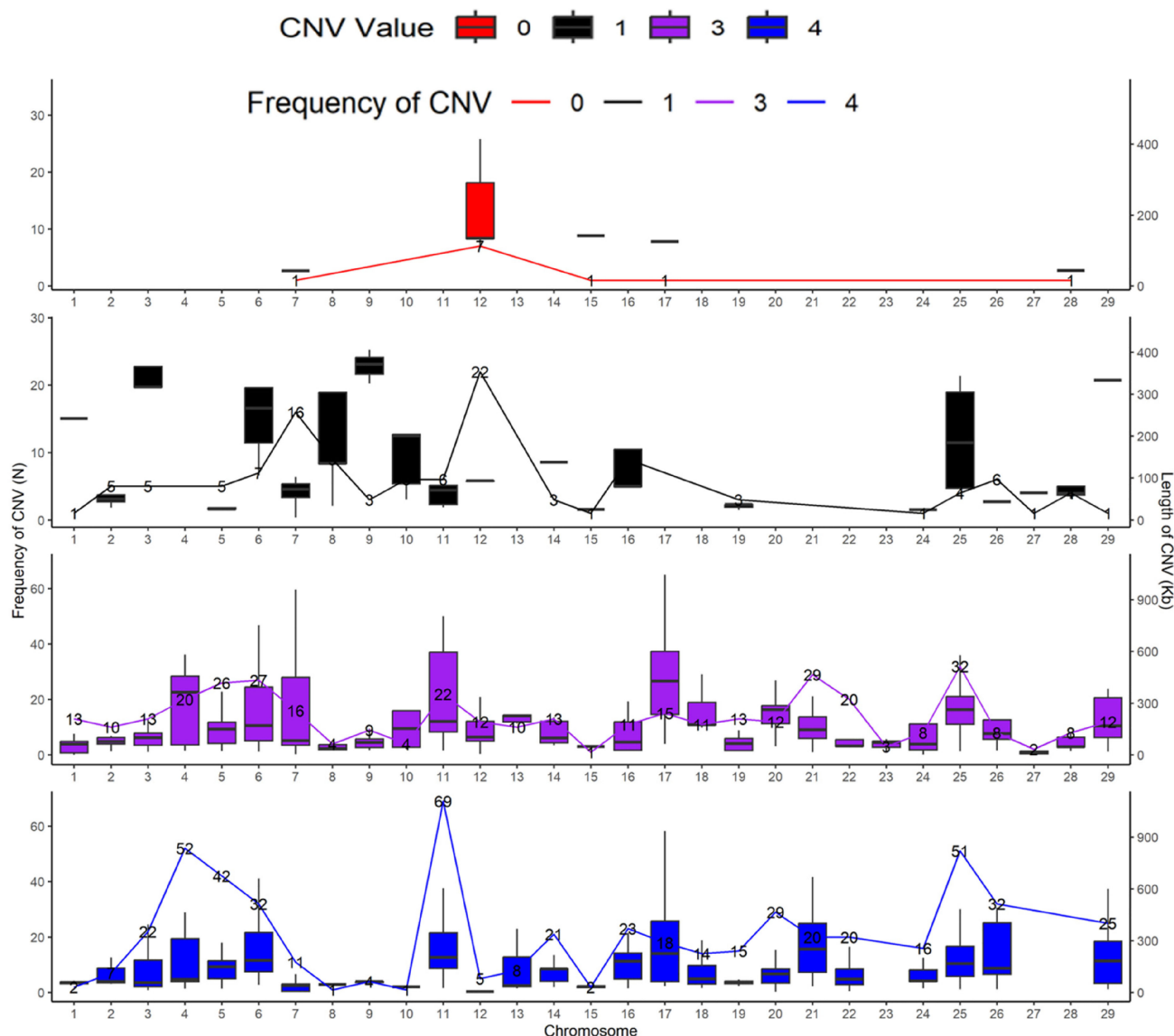


Figure 3. Prevalence and type of CNVs across autosomes for four types (0, 1, 3, 4) represented as boxplots (lengths in kb) and lines with points (frequency per chromosome). Boxplots show medians, interquartile ranges and whiskers, while numbers on points indicate CNV counts.

(Dang *et al.*, 2024; Xu *et al.*, 2014b; Zhang *et al.*, 2009). In livestock, CNVs influence economically important traits and disease conditions, making them valuable molecular markers (Cheng *et al.*, 2020; Liu *et al.*, 2011). Recent studies have extensively explored CNV diversity in both *Bos taurus*, *Bos indicus* and their hybrids (Benfica *et al.*, 2024a; Benfica *et al.*, 2024b; Cai *et al.*, 2024; Dang *et al.*, 2024; Delledonne *et al.*, 2024; Du *et al.*, 2024; Liu *et al.*, 2024; Maezawa *et al.*, 2024; Oliveira *et al.*, 2024; Wang *et al.*, 2024).

The present study aimed to generate a genome-wide CNV map of crossbred dairy cattle in Pakistan. Our results revealed widespread CNVRs, with 1055 CNVs and 268 CNVRs detected using the PennCNV software (Wang *et al.*, 2007). PennCNV was chosen for its ability to utilize all available information for each SNP, including the LRR, BAF, PFB and the distance between neighbouring SNPs. Dang *et al.* (2024) detected 16,507 CNVs and 3,728 CNVRs, accounting for 0.61% of the reference genome in Yunling cattle and Benfica *et al.* (2024b) found 3,161 CNVs and 561 CNVRs covering 3.99% of the Nellore autosomal genome.

A similar study on Nellore cattle also indicated 14,914 CNVs and 1,884 CNVRs (Benfica *et al.*, 2024a). 870 CNVRs were reported in Holstein cattle (Oliveira *et al.*, 2024), 755 CNVRs, accounting for approximately 3.24% of the genome in Pingliang Red Cattle (Wang *et al.*, 2024). Similarly the Delledonne *et al.* (2024) reported 123,814 CNVs and 1,397 CNVRs in Holstein cattle.

The observed CNV count per animal is 3–37, with an average of 13.88 CNVs. There are variations in these values in the literature, ranging from 13 to 51 with an average of 32.5 (Delledonne *et al.*, 2024). The crossbred cattle exhibited a relatively high number of CNVs per individual compared to breed groups from other regions. Several factors may contribute to this observation, such as the inadequate representation of Sahiwal or indigenous cattle in the utilized SNP chips for bovines. This lower resolution could potentially introduce bias into the results, especially when compared to studies that did not include indicine cattle in their analysis. Differences in the abundance of CNVs across diverse cattle populations have been previously noted. Specifically,

Table 2. No. of CNVRs, proportional length of CNVRs on each autosome using HandyCNV and CNVRuler

Chr	Length of chromosome (bp)	Using HandyCNV R package			Using CNVRuler software		
		Number of CNVR	Total length	Percentages	No of CNVRs	Length of CNVR (bp)	Percentage (%)
1	158,534,110	11	825674	0.5208	11	825663	0.5208
2	136,231,102	12	1049179	0.7701	12	942570	0.6918
3	121,005,158	15	2199660	1.8178	16	1464406	1.2102
4	120,000,601	7	957035	0.7975	7	754556	0.6287
5	120,089,316	15	2703362	2.2511	16	1622408	1.3510
6	117,806,340	12	2955760	2.5089	13	2150648	1.8255
7	110,682,743	16	2829493	2.5563	20	1834475	1.6574
8	113,319,770	9	807918	0.7129	9	807909	0.7129
9	105,454,467	10	1383083	1.3115	11	1325965	1.2573
10	103,308,737	5	740258	0.7165	5	740253	0.7165
11	106,982,474	12	2763340	2.5829	13	1857848	1.7365
12	87,216,183	7	3101114	3.5556	8	1247488	1.4303
13	83,472,345	7	976205	1.1694	7	751223	0.8999
14	82,403,003	11	1130045	1.3713	11	992346	1.2042
15	85,007,780	5	282879	0.3327	5	282874	0.3327
16	81,013,979	10	1687131	2.0825	10	1039649	1.2832
17	73,167,244	4	1760103	2.4055	4	826996	1.1302
18	65,820,629	8	1568565	2.3830	8	1426884	2.1678
19	63,449,741	20	1505495	2.3727	20	1505475	2.3727
20	71,974,595	11	1433422	1.9915	11	972810	1.3516
21	69,862,954	6	1593890	2.2814	7	946613	1.3549
22	60,773,035	7	1311229	2.1575	7	1079395	1.7761
23	52,498,615	2	133721	0.2547	0		0
24	62,317,253	8	912841	1.4648	0		0
25	42,350,435	11	2601858	6.1436	11	2002098	4.7274
26	51,992,305	8	901651	1.7342	8	814694	1.5669
27	45,612,108	3	94299	0.2067	3	94296	0.2067
28	45,940,150	7	1323741	2.8814	7	1323734	2.8814
29	51,098,607	10	2341046	4.5814	10	1399748	2.7393
	2,489,385,779	269	43873997	1.7624	270	31033024	1.2466

CNVs, copy number variations; CNVRs, copy number variation regions.

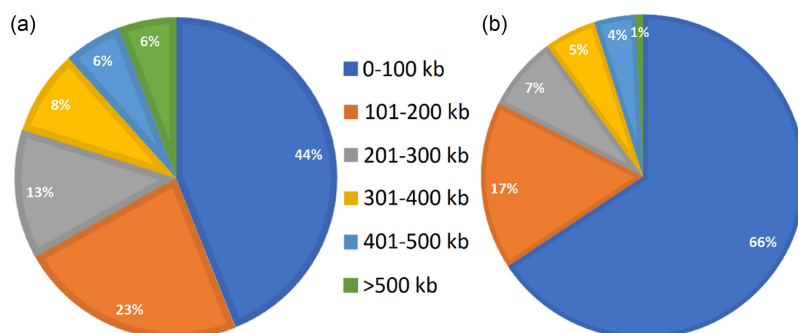


Figure 4. Distribution of CNVs (a) and CNVRs (b) in different distance categories (0–100 kb, 101–200 kb, 201–300 kb, 301–400 kb, 401–500 kb and >500 kb) across autosomes. (a) The majority of CNVs (44%) fall within the 0–100 kb range. (b) Detailed breakdown of CNVR size ranges, highlighting that 65.67% of the CNVRs are within the 0–100 kb category, followed by 16.79% in the 101–200 kb range.

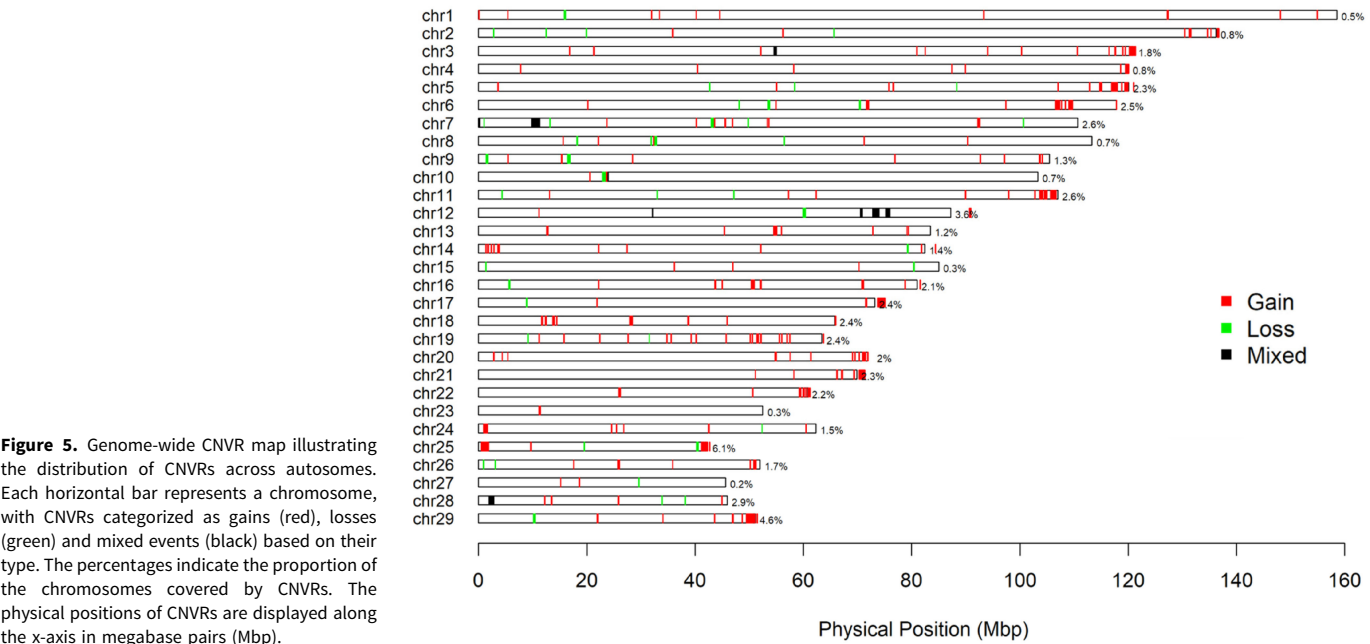


Figure 5. Genome-wide CNVR map illustrating the distribution of CNVRs across autosomes. Each horizontal bar represents a chromosome, with CNVRs categorized as gains (red), losses (green) and mixed events (black) based on their type. The percentages indicate the proportion of the chromosomes covered by CNVRs. The physical positions of CNVRs are displayed along the x-axis in megabase pairs (Mbp).

Table 3. Top 10 highly common genes and their association with economic traits

Gene	Reported functions
NOXA1	Role in hypoxic adaptation (Zhang et al., 2020)
VIPR2	Candidate genes affecting fat percentage with an important role in milk synthesis (Zhang et al., 2018a; Capomaccio et al., 2015).
TUBB4B	encodes different sub-families of tubulin (Laskowski et al., 2017)
PDGFA	Increased expression in bovine tuberculosis (Meade et al., 2007)
ARSA	Involved in different reproductive traits (Forde et al., 2013)
MAPK8IP2	Involved in different reproductive traits (Fayad et al., 2007)
NDOR1	Suggested to play a role in the bioreduction of anti-cancer drugs in humans (Paine et al., 2000; Froese et al., 2008)
CHKB	Growth traits (Goshu et al., 2018)
CPT1B	Involved in lipid metabolism and Bovine Respiratory Disease Susceptibility (He et al., 2022)
ODF3B	Lymphoblastoid cells (Ryu et al., 2014)
SCO2	Downregulation of this gene is associated with fat gain and increased insulin resistance (Hill et al., 2017; Gershoni et al., 2021).

indicine and African taurine breeds exhibit a higher CNV abundance compared to European taurine breeds, a characteristic attributed to their breed divergence and population history (Liu et al., 2011). These findings highlight the impact of factors such as changes in historical effective population size, gene flow and selection processes on the varying CNV abundance observed in distinct populations.

Thus, it is reasonable to posit that the sustained small effective population size over numerous generations in this group may have prompted a relaxation of purifying selection against mildly deleterious CNVs. Consequently, such relaxation could contribute

to the accumulation of a substantial number of CNV events. This aligns with findings from Upadhyay et al. (2017) suggesting that genetically isolated small populations may accumulate an abundance of CNVs. However, it is noteworthy that in different studies, deletions were primarily observed (Upadhyay et al., 2017, Oliveira et al., 2024, Tao et al., 2007), whereas the current study predominantly identified gain events. Nevertheless, it is essential to acknowledge that the present study is limited by a low sample size, and larger samples from other indigenous breeds are necessary to further explore this hypothesis.

CNVRs were generated using the two available in silico molecular techniques, that is, CNVRuler and HandyCNV package of R. Some differentiating points were observed within the two (Table 2). The contributing reason to this may be the type of algorithms used for the detection, as well as the technology. These methodologies vary in coverage range and their capabilities to identify and pinpoint CNV breakpoints (Zhan et al., 2011). The functional analysis of the regions encompassed by CNVRs unveiled genes linked to complex traits.

In our analysis of CNVs within the dataset, we observed a notable prevalence of gain events. Here, it is essential to consider the influence of biological variation. Gain events can naturally occur more frequently than loss events in certain genomic regions or within specific populations due to inherent biological diversity. In some instances, these gain events might offer a selective advantage, thus driving their increased occurrence.

Furthermore, genomic regions that undergo duplication or gain events may contain genes or sequences that confer advantageous traits, such as enhanced disease resistance or improved adaptability. This phenomenon could be attributed to positive selective pressure acting on these regions, thereby leading to a higher frequency of gain events.

Annotations were performed separately using information sourced from both Ensembl genome browser (Birney et al., 2004) and UCSC (Karolchik et al., 2003) using the HandyCNV package of R. Upon comparison of the gene list from both genome browsers, 97 common-high and 637 common-low genes were obtained. The top 10 major genes are found to be involved in

different economically important traits like milk production, growth traits, adaptation, disease resistance and immunity (Table 3). This may explain the increased production, heat tolerance and disease resilience abilities of crossbreds, which is the underlying reason for their production. Gene enrichment and QTLs play crucial roles in major functional regions of the genome. Gene Ontology analyses for the detected CNVRs revealed enrichment in important GO terms, highlighting some relevant traits. For instance, GO:0030879 is involved in mammary gland development, directly influencing the milk production of the animals. Similarly, GO:0051879 is mainly linked with heat shock proteins, playing a crucial role in multiple types of stresses, including heat stress. Another intriguing term is GO:0071456, related to hypoxic adaptation, suggesting that these animals can effectively adapt to environments with limited oxygen supply, such as high elevations or hypoxic conditions (Table 3).

FISH and quantitative Polymerase Chain Reaction are well-acknowledged methods for the confirmation and validation of CNVs, offering high specificity and accuracy (Bickhart *et al.*, 2012). However, these analyses are recognized for being expensive, time-demanding and consuming a substantial amount of biological material. Therefore, this study opted for an *in silico* method to identify CNVRs while minimizing the reliance on extensive laboratory resources (Bickhart *et al.*, 2012).

The CNVs and CNVRs discovered in this study lay the groundwork for future research on CNVs in other Pakistani cattle breeds and Zebu cattle worldwide. Subsequent investigations should explore the impact of incorporating CNV information in genomic selection for crossbred dairy cattle in Pakistan. Furthermore, it is highly recommended to conduct CNV-based Genome-Wide Association Studies focusing on critical traits in these cattle. This holistic approach will contribute valuable insights to the field of cattle genomics and enhance our understanding of the genetic basis of important traits in diverse cattle populations.

Conclusion

This study marks the inaugural genome-wide detection of CNVs in crossbred dairy cattle in Pakistan. The genes identified within these CNV regions illuminate potential biological processes that may underlie indigenous cattle's adaptability and disease resistance. QTL analyses revealed significant overlaps between many CNVRs and QTLs associated with economically important traits in cattle, including lactation, fertility, stimulus recognition and health. These findings present viable candidates for further validation in the population. Given the preliminary nature of this report, it is strongly recommended that high-density SNP arrays, whole-genome sequencing, or resequencing data from key indigenous cattle breeds with larger sample sizes be collected and utilized to construct a comprehensive genome-wide map of CNVs in indigenous cattle.

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Supervision: Zahid Mukhtar. Visualization: Fakhar un Nisa. Writing – original draft: Fakhar un Nisa. Writing – review and editing: Zahid Mukhtar, Muhammad Saif Ur Rehman.

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Competing interests. The authors declare that they have no competing interests.

Ethical standards. To guarantee the ethical and humane treatment of animals, the investigation outlined in this research paper received approval from the Research Ethics Committee of the National Institute for Biotechnology and Genetic Engineering (NIBGE), Faisalabad, Pakistan on 10 June 2020. A qualified veterinarian supervised the blood collection process to minimize distress and harm to the animals. Prior to collecting any samples, the researchers conducted a meeting with the farm owners where the animals were housed. During this meeting, they explained the study's purpose and obtained verbal informed consent.

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