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Genome-wide detection of copy number variants in European autochthonous and commercial pig breeds by whole-genome sequencing of DNA pools identified breed-characterising copy number states

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15 **Genome-wide detection of copy number variants in European autochthonous and commercial**
16 **pig breeds by whole genome sequencing of DNA pools identified breed-characterising copy**
17 **number states**

18

19 Samuele Bovo¹, Anisa Ribani¹, Maria Muñoz², Estefania Alves², Jose P. Araujo³, Riccardo Bozzi⁴,
20 Rui Charneca⁵, Federica Di Palma⁶, Graham Etherington⁶, Ana I. Fernandez², Fabián García², Juan
21 García-Casco², Danijel Karolyi⁷, Maurizio Gallo⁸, Kristina Gvozdanović⁹, José Manuel Martins⁵,
22 Marie-José Mercat¹⁰, Yolanda Núñez², Raquel Quintanilla¹¹, Čedomir Radović¹², Violeta Razmaite¹³,
23 Juliette Riquet¹⁴, Radomir Savić¹⁵, Giuseppina Schiavo¹, Martin Škrlep¹⁶, Graziano Usai¹⁷, Valerio
24 J. Utzeri¹, Christoph Zimmer¹⁸, Cristina Ovilo², Luca Fontanesi¹

25

26 ¹ Department of Agricultural and Food Sciences, Division of Animal Sciences, University of
27 Bologna, Viale Fanin 46, 40127 Bologna, Italy.

28 ² Departamento Mejora Genética Animal, INIA, Crta. de la Coruña, km. 7,5, 28040, Madrid, Spain.

29 ³ Centro de Investigação de Montanha (CIMO), Instituto Politécnico de Viana do Castelo, Escola
30 Superior Agrária, Refóios do Lima, 4990-706 Ponte de Lima Portugal.

31 ⁴ DAGRI – Animal Science Section, Università di Firenze, Via delle Cascine 5, 50144 Firenze, Italy.

32 ⁵ MED – Mediterranean Institute for Agriculture, Environment and Development & Universidade de
33 Évora, Pólo da Mitra, Apartado 94, 7006-554 Évora, Portugal.

34 ⁶ Earlham Institute, Norwich Research Park, Colney Lane, Norwich, NR47UZ, United Kingdom

35 ⁷ Department of Animal Science, Faculty of Agriculture, University of Zagreb, Svetošimunska c. 25,
36 10000 Zagreb, Croatia.

37 ⁸ Associazione Nazionale Allevatori Suini (ANAS), Via Nizza 53, 00198 Roma, Italy.

38 ⁹ Faculty of Agrobiotechnical Sciences Osijek, University of Osijek, Vladimira Preloga 1, 31000,
39 Osijek, Croatia.

40 ¹⁰ IFIP Institut du porc, La Motte au Vicomte, BP 35104, 35651, Le Rheu Cedex, France.

41 ¹¹ Programa de Genética y Mejora Animal, IRTA, Torre Marimon, 08140 Caldes de Montbui,
42 Barcelona, Spain.

43 ¹² Department of Pig Breeding and Genetics, Institute for Animal Husbandry, 11080 Belgrade-
44 Zemun, Serbia.

45 ¹³ Animal Science Institute, Lithuanian University of Health Sciences, Baisogala, Lithuania.

46 ¹⁴ GenPhySE, Université de Toulouse, INRA, Chemin de Borde-Rouge 24, Auzeville Tolosane,
47 31326 Castanet Tolosan, France.

48 ¹⁵ Faculty of Agriculture, University of Belgrade, Nemanjina 6, 11080, Belgrade-Zemun, Serbia.

49 ¹⁶ Kmetijski Inštitut Slovenije, Hacquetova 17, SI-1000 Ljubljana.

50 ¹⁷ AGRIS SARDEGNA, Loc. Bonassai, 07100 Sassari, Italy.

51 ¹⁸ Bäuerliche Erzeugergemeinschaft Schwäbisch Hall, Schwäbisch Hall, Germany.

52

53 * Corresponding author

54 E-mail addresses:

55 LF: luca.fontanesi@unibo.it

56

57 **Short title:** CNV in European pig breeds

58 **Summary**

59 In this study we identified copy number variants (CNVs) in 19 European autochthonous pig breeds
60 and in two commercial breeds (Italian Large White and Italian Duroc) that represent important genetic
61 resources for this species. The genome of 725 pigs was sequenced using a breed specific DNA pooling
62 approach (30-35 animals per pool) obtaining an average depth per pool of 42×. This approach
63 maximized CNV discovery as well as the related copy number states characterizing, on average, the
64 analysed breeds. By mining more than 17.5 billion reads, we identified a total of 9592 CNVs (~683
65 CNVs per breed) and 3710 CNV regions (CNVRs; 1.15% of the reference pig genome), with an
66 average of 77 CNVRs per breed that was considered as private. A few CNVRs were analysed in more
67 details, together with other information derived from sequencing data. For example, the CNVR
68 encompassing the *KIT* gene was associated with coat colour phenotypes in the analysed breeds,
69 confirming the role of the multiple copies in determining breed specific coat colours. The CNVR
70 covering the *MSRB3* gene was associated with ear size in most breeds. The CNVRs affecting the
71 *ELOV6* and *ZNF622* genes were private feature observed in the Lithuanian Indigenous Wattle and in
72 the Turopolje pig breeds, respectively. Overall, genome variability here unravelled can explain part
73 of the genetic diversity among breeds and might contribute to explain their origin, history and
74 adaptation to a variety of production systems.

75

76 **Keywords:** CNV; *ELOV6*; Genetic resource; *KIT*; *MSRB3*; Next generation sequencing; *Sus scrofa*;
77 *ZNF622*.

78 **Introduction**

79 Livestock genomes have been shaped by natural and artificial selection, leading to the
80 accumulation of a broad range of phenotypic and genetic variability that have largely contributed to
81 differentiate populations and constitute modern breeds. As a result, livestock populations and breeds
82 represent a reservoir of genetic diversity, harbouring genetic variants that span from single nucleotide
83 polymorphisms (SNPs) to more complex structural variants, some of which with small to large
84 phenotypic effects on a variety of exterior and economically relevant traits (Andersen *et al.* 2011).
85 Copy number variants (CNVs) are a type of structural variants in the form of large DNA segments,
86 usually more than 1kb of length, which are present in a variable copy number within a species as
87 compared to its reference genome (Feuk *et al.* 2006).

88 CNVs represent an important source of genetic variability, by influencing phenotypes through
89 a variety of molecular mechanisms such as gene dosage effect, disruption or alteration of coding and
90 regulatory regions among several other modifications (Redon *et al.* 2006, Zhang *et al.* 2006, Bickhart
91 & Liu 2014). Detection of CNVs is technically challenging when applied on genome-wide scale and
92 different technologies have been applied to this aim. Among them, the most commonly used are array
93 comparative genome hybridization (aCGH), high density SNP chip high-throughput sequencing
94 (HTS) platforms (Winchester *et al.* 2009; Alkan *et al.* 2011; Pirooznia *et al.* 2015; Pollard *et al.* 2018).
95 However, due to the decreased cost of HTS analyses and the advantage that this approach has to
96 obtain more precise information on CNVs, whole genome resequencing is becoming a standard
97 approach to discover and characterize CNVs in complex genomes.

98 Genetic diversity described by CNVs and CNV regions (CNVRs; i.e. CNVs present in different
99 individuals in the same or overlapping genome regions) has been extensively studied in livestock,
100 including, for example, cattle (Fadista *et al.* 2010; Bickhart *et al.* 2012), sheep (Fontanesi *et al.* 2011;
101 Yang *et al.* 2018), goats (Fontanesi *et al.* 2010b; Liu *et al.* 2019a), rabbits (Fontanesi *et al.* 2012) and
102 chickens (Yi *et al.* 2014), among other species. Several studies investigating CNVs and CNVRs have
103 been also reported in pigs, including also an interspecies survey within the genus *Sus* (Paudel *et al.*

104 2015). Studies have been focused on the main commercial European breeds (i.e. Duroc, Landrace,
105 Large White, Hampshire, Yorkshire, Piétrain) (e.g. Fadista *et al.* 2008; Li *et al.* 2012; Chen *et al.*
106 2012; Fowler *et al.* 2013; Wang *et al.* 2014, 2015a, c, 2019b; Jiang *et al.* 2014; Wiedmann *et al.* 2015;
107 Revay *et al.* 2015; Long *et al.* 2016; Revilla *et al.* 2017; Stafuzza *et al.* 2019) and Asian breeds
108 (Meishan, Erhualian) (Wang *et al.* 2012, 2014, 2015b, c; Li *et al.* 2012; Chen *et al.* 2012; Jiang *et al.*
109 2014). Other studies screened commercial pig populations in the attempt to capture part of the missing
110 heritability (expected to be explained by CNVs) on economically important traits, including number
111 of piglets born alive (Stafuzza *et al.* 2019), fertility (Revay *et al.* 2015), meat quality traits (Wang *et*
112 *al.* 2015c), fatty acid composition and growth traits (Revilla *et al.* 2017), fat deposition (Fowler *et al.*
113 2013; Schiavo *et al.* 2014), among other traits.

114 Although the modern pig industry relies on few commercial pig breeds, autochthonous pig
115 populations subsist in many different regions, mainly associated with local and traditional niche
116 markets (Čandek-Potokar and Nieto 2019). These breeds represent genetic resources adapted to local
117 agro-climatic and environmental conditions. Up to date, the genome architecture of CNVs has been
118 studied mainly in Asian autochthonous populations/breeds (Li *et al.* 2012; Wang *et al.* 2014, 2015b,
119 2019a; Jiang *et al.* 2014; Dong *et al.* 2015; Xie *et al.* 2016). European autochthonous pig breeds have
120 been mainly investigated by exploring their genetic variability using SNP data (e.g. Ovílo *et al.* 2002;
121 Tomás *et al.* 2011; Wilkinson *et al.* 2013; Silió *et al.* 2016; Yang *et al.* 2017; Muñoz *et al.* 2018,
122 2019; Schiavo *et al.* 2018, 2019, 2020a, b; Ribani *et al.* 2019). A few studies, using SNP arrays,
123 analysed CNVs in European autochthonous pig breeds (e.g. Iberian, Swallow-Bellied Mangalitsa)
124 (Ramayo-Caldas *et al.* 2010; Fernández *et al.* 2014; Molnár *et al.* 2014).

125 Results of CNV studies in pigs showed a limited degree of agreement in terms of CNVRs
126 number and size ranges. Even if part of these discrepancies may be attributed to breed-specific
127 genome features, the remaining discrepancies may derive from the different technologies and
128 algorithms used to unravel CNVs, which mainly used aCGH and SNP arrays. Few other studies
129 analysed CNV and CNVRs in the pig genome using HTS platforms (e.g. Rubin *et al.* 2012; Jiang *et*

130 *al.* 2014; Paudel *et al.* 2015; Wang *et al.* 2015c, 2019b; Long *et al.* 2016; Revilla *et al.* 2017; Keel *et*
131 *al.* 2019).

132 In this study, we provide a detailed survey of CNVs and CNVRs in the pig genome by whole
133 genome resequencing of DNA pools constituted from 21 European pig breeds: 19 autochthonous
134 breeds and belonging to nine different countries and two Italian commercial breeds. These breeds,
135 some of them untapped, stem from different production systems and breeding programmes in Europe.
136 Therefore, dissection of their genome architecture at the level of CNVs could provide new insights
137 into their histories, origin, potential selection signatures and adaptation to different local agro-climatic
138 and environmental conditions.

139

140 **Materials and methods**

141 **Animals**

142 Blood samples were collected from a total of 30 or 35 animals from each of the 21 pig breeds
143 included in the study, distributed in nine European countries (from West to East and then North; Fig.
144 1): Portugal (Alentejana and Bísara); Spain (Majorcan Black); France (Basque and Gascon); Italy
145 (autochthonous: Apulo-Calabrese, Casertana, Cinta Senese, Mora Romagnola, Nero Siciliano and
146 Sarda; and commercial breeds: Italian Large White and Italian Duroc); Slovenia (Krškopolje pig,
147 hereafter indicated as Krškopolje); Croatia (Black Slavonian and Turopolje); Serbia (Moravka and
148 Swallow-Bellied Mangalitsa); Germany (Schwäbisch-Hällisches Schwein); and Lithuania
149 (Lithuanian indigenous wattle and Lithuanian White old type). Selection of individuals for sampling
150 was performed by avoiding highly related animals (no full- or half-sibs), balancing between sexes,
151 and prioritizing adult individuals or at least animals with adult morphology. All animals were
152 registered to their respective Herd Books and presented standard breed characteristics. Details on the
153 analysed animals and investigated breeds, including geographical distribution and phenotypic
154 description, are reported in Table S1.

155

156 **DNA samples and sequencing**

157 Genomic DNA was extracted from 8–15 mL of peripheral blood for each pig, collected in
158 Vacutainer tubes containing 10% 0.5 M EDTA (ethylenediaminetetraacetic acid, disodium dihydrate
159 salt) at pH 8.0. The extraction was performed using either a standardized phenol-chloroform
160 (Sambrook *et al.* 1989) or the NucleoSpin® Tissue commercial kit (Macherey-Nagel, Düren,
161 Germany). A total of 21 DNA pools were constructed, including in each pool 30 or 35 individual
162 DNA samples pooled at equimolar concentration (Table S2).

163 A sequencing library was generated for each DNA pool by using the Truseq® Nano DNA HT
164 Sample preparation Kit (Illumina, CA, USA), following the manufacturer's recommendations.
165 Briefly, DNA was randomly sheared to obtain 350 bp fragments which were end polished, A-tailed,
166 and ligated with the full-length adapter for Illumina sequencing with further PCR amplification. PCR
167 products were purified (AMPure XP system) and libraries were analysed for size distribution by
168 Agilent 2100 Bioanalyzer and quantified using real-time PCR. The qualified libraries were then fed
169 into an Illumina Hi-Seq sequencer for paired-end sequencing, obtaining 150 bp length reads.

170

171 **Quality controls and sequence alignment**

172 Obtained reads underwent several cleaning and filtering steps including removal of (i) adapters,
173 (ii) reads containing more than 10% unknown bases (N) and (iii) reads containing low quality bases
174 ($Q \leq 5$) over 50% of the total sequenced bases. FASTQ files were sub-sequentially inspected with
175 FASTQC v.0.11.7 (<https://www.bioinformatics.babraham.ac.uk/projects/fastqc/>) that highlighted
176 very high-quality reads.

177 Reads were mapped on the latest version of the *Sus scrofa* reference genome (Sscrofa11.1) with
178 BWA tool 0.7.17 (Li & Durbin, 2009) (function: MEM) and the parameters for paired-end data.
179 Picard v.2.1.1 (<https://broadinstitute.github.io/picard/>) was used to remove duplicated reads. Whole
180 genome sequencing data statistics are reported in Table S2.

181

182 **Detection of CNVs and CNVRs from sequencing data**

183 The cn.Mops v.1.32 tool (Klambauer *et al.* 2012) was used to identify autosomal CNVs.
184 cn.Mops was run with default parameters except for the window size that was lowered to 750 bp.
185 Since three consecutive genome windows positive for copy number are required by cn.Mops to assert
186 the presence of a CNV, the minimum size of a detected CNV was 2250 bp. The 750 bp window size
187 allowed us to detect short CNVs (CNV \geq 3 kbp with default parameters) with a length fitting the
188 definition of CNV (usually more than 1 kbp). Smaller window sizes were tested resulting in longer
189 computational times without any specific indication on their reliability. CNVs identified in the
190 different breeds were merged into CNVRs with Bedtools v.2.17.0 (Quinlan & Hall 2010) (function:
191 merge) whenever overlapping genome windows, constituting the different CNVs, were encountered.

192 CNVRs were then compared with previous studies. The comparison was carried out remapping
193 CNVRs on the Sscrofa11.1 using the NCBI genome remapping tool
194 (<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/genome/tools/remap>) looking for CNVRs sharing at least one
195 nucleotide, as proposed by Keel *et al.* (2019).

196

197 **Cluster analysis of breeds based on CNVRs**

198 Pig breeds were clustered based on the read count ratio of each genome window covered by a
199 CNVR. This ratio was defined as $\frac{RC}{RC_g}$, where RC and RC_g indicate the exact number and the average
200 number of reads in a genome window for a specific pig breed, respectively. Hierarchical clustering
201 was computed in R v.3.6 (R Core Team, 2018) (function: hclust) using the Ward.D2 distance (we
202 excluded genome windows presenting a ratio \geq 50 in at least one pig breed).

203

204 **Genomic analysis of repeated elements in CNVs/CNVRs and flanking regions**

205 The GFF file reporting the location of repeated elements interspersed in the *S. scrofa* genome
206 was downloaded from the UCSC Genome Browser (<https://genome.ucsc.edu/>). For CNVs/CNVRs

207 and the related 1-kb flanking regions, we counted the number of bases overlapping each repeated
208 element (Bedtools; function: intersect), assessing their enrichment via Fisher's exact test as
209 implemented in Python 2.6 (Scipy library; function: stats.fisher_exact; alternative hypothesis:
210 greater). We considered statistically enriched classes of repeated elements presenting a $P < 0.05$,
211 Bonferroni corrected.

212

213 **Annotation of CNVRs**

214 Annotated genes overlapping the identified CNVRs were retrieved from the Sscrofa11.1
215 NCBI's GFF file by using Bedtools (function: intersect). Functional analysis was carried out with
216 PANTHER (Mi *et al.* 2019) via Fisher's exact test. Analyses were run over a subset of the Gene
217 Ontology – Biological Process resource (PANTHER GO-slim v.14.1; release 2019-03-12; no. = 2004
218 biological processes) and the Reactome database (Reactome v.65; release 2019-03-12; no. = 1569
219 pathways). We made use of pig specific gene annotations. We considered statistically enriched terms
220 presenting a $P < 0.05$, FDR corrected.

221 The presence of QTLs in CNVRs was evaluated and tested via Fisher's exact test. QTLs were
222 downloaded from the Pig Quantitative Trait Locus Database (Pig QTLdb; release 39) (Hu *et al.* 2019)
223 and checked. Distribution of QTL size pointed out a fraction of long QTLs (> 2 Mbp) probably due
224 lack of resolution derived by the information retrieved from several QTL studies. These QTLs were
225 discarded. We noted that for a given QTL class (i.e. trait) several DNA markers, defining the QTL in
226 different breeds, were close to each other. Thus, QTLs that were less than 500 kbp of distance were
227 merged with Bedtools (function: merge) to obtain QTL regions. The final dataset presented a total of
228 295 traits and 1978 QTL regions. For each trait, the fraction of CNVR nucleotides overlapping QTLs
229 was retrieved with Bedtools (function: intersect). Fisher's exact test was run in Python, retrieving
230 statistically enriched traits presenting a $P < 0.05$, Bonferroni corrected.

231

232 **Results**

233 **Sequenced reads and genome wide identification of CNVs**

234 About 17.5 billion reads were produced from the sequencing of the 21 pig DNA pools. On
235 average, each DNA pool presented about 417.7 million of mapped reads spanning 98.5% of the *S.*
236 *scrofa* reference genome, with an average read depth of about 42×. Summary statistics of sequencing
237 data are reported in Table S2.

238 Using cn.Mops we identified a total of 9592 CNVs (14344 events) across the 21 analysed
239 breeds. On average, each pig breed had 683 CNVs (median = 601; min. = 209, Sarda; max. = 1440
240 Turopolje) covering 0.18% (s.d. = 0.09%) of the reference genome, with the smallest fraction in Sarda
241 (0.04%) and the largest coverage in Turopolje (0.40%), reflecting the lowest and highest number of
242 CNVs, respectively (Table 1). For each pig breed, CNVs were divided in losses (copy number < 2,
243 as inferred by cn.Mops) and gains (copy number > 2, as inferred by cn.Mops) that represented the
244 most frequent copy number (CN) state characterizing the animals analysed in the pools. On the whole,
245 we identified a total of 3492 losses, 5012 gains and 638 showing a mix of copy number loss and gain.
246 The losses/gains ratio was around 0.79. Stratified by chromosome, this value ranged from 0.57 to
247 1.02, for SSC12 and SSC1, respectively (Table S3). Considering the CNVs detected in each breed,
248 the number of losses and gains strongly correlated ($r = 0.93$). CNV length ranged from 2250 to
249 560250 bp. The longest CNV (560250 Mbp) was detected on SSC8 in the Italian Large White and
250 Lithuanian White Old Type pig breeds (Table 1). The number of CNVs and the chromosome length
251 had a medium-high Pearson's correlation coefficient ($r = 0.69$; $P < 0.05$).

252

253 **Identification of CNVRs**

254 CNVs were merged across breeds resulting in a total of 3710 CNVRs (Table S4). The
255 distribution of CNVRs along each chromosome is presented in Fig. 2. SSC1, SSC2 and SSC3 had the
256 largest number of detected CNVRs (no. = 359, no. = 361 and no. = 307, respectively; Table 2). The
257 number of CNVRs and the chromosome length highly correlated ($r = 0.87$; $P < 0.05$). Positive
258 correlation ($r = 0.92$, $P < 0.05$) was observed also between the number of CNVRs and their total

259 length. On average, each pig breed had 586 CNVRs (min. = 180 in Sarda; max. = 1257 in Turopolje;
260 Table S5). Among the 3710 CNVRs, 1615 (43.5%) were breed specific (and indicated as private
261 CNVRs; Table S5). Size of CNVRs ranged from 2250 bp up to 560250 bp (the same of CNVs), with
262 an average length of 7038 bp and a median value of 3750 bp (Table 2). Distribution of CNVR size
263 showed a decrease in CNVR counts while increasing their size. CNVRs occupied a total of 26.1 Mbp,
264 equal to 1.15% of the Sscrofa11.1 reference genome. Among the CNVRs, based on the copy number
265 state (i.e. the number of copies; CN state) provided by cn.MOPS, 1305 (35.2%) had only copy number
266 gains (duplication), 1323 (35.6%) had only copy number losses (deletion), and 1082 (29.2%) showed
267 a mix of copy number losses and gains from different pig breeds.

268 The 3710 detected CNVRs encompassed a total of 34821 genome windows. After filtering, the
269 read count ratio of each genome window was used to cluster pig breeds (Fig. 3), which grouped breeds
270 in agreement to their main specific phenotypes or their geographic origin. A first group encompassed
271 breeds that have a coat colour with white background or white patterns (Lithuanian Indigenous
272 Wattle, Italian Large White, Krškopolje, Bísara and Lithuanian White Old Type). This may be due to
273 the strong signals of genome windows encompassing the *KIT* gene, that accounts for ~15% of the
274 total positive windows for CNVs. The two reddish brown coloured breeds (Mora Romagnola and
275 Italian Duroc) were on the same branch. Three autochthonous Italian breeds (Casertana, Nero
276 Siciliano and Sarda) constituted a cluster whereas one Portuguese and one Spanish breed (Alentejana
277 and Majorcan Black, respectively) constituted another cluster. The Turopolje pig breed was the only
278 one that clustered apart from all other breeds.

279

280 **Repeated elements within and flanking CNVs and CNVRs**

281 Highly repetitive sequences were investigated for their co-occurrence with CNVs and CNVRs
282 (Table S6). The following classes of repeated elements were statistically over-represented within
283 CNVs: long interspersed nuclear elements (LINE), long terminal repeats (LTR), satellites, rolling-
284 circle (RC/Helitron) and pseudogenes (tRNAs, snRNAs, srpRNAs, and rRNAs). Additionally, CNV

285 flanking regions (1-kbp per side) were enriched for the following classes: short interspersed nuclear
286 elements (SINE), simple repeat and low complexity. CNVRs differed for the absence of RC elements
287 and the absence of SINE and srpRNAs in the 1-kbp flanking regions. However, SINE were over-
288 represented when the flanking region size was extended to 10-kbp.

289

290 **QTLs in CNVRs**

291 A total of 1978 QTL regions, associated to 554 phenotypic traits, were retrieved from the pig
292 QTL database. CNVRs overlapped a total of 336 QTL regions representing 295 phenotypic traits.
293 Enrichment analysis identified 126 traits (~ 43%) significantly over-represented ($P < 0.05$, Bonferroni
294 corrected). These traits spanned different classes, including meat quality, body shape and
295 conformation, reproduction, disease susceptibility, haematological and metabolism related traits
296 (Table S7).

297

298 **Functional annotation of CNVRs and detailed analysis of selected genes**

299 A total of 1571 genes overlapped the identified CNVRs, including 1296 protein coding genes,
300 261 lncRNAs, 3 miRNAs and 11 tRNAs. The number of overlapped genes correlated with the number
301 of CNVRs ($r = 0.99$). A total of 993 protein-coding genes were annotated by PANTHER and used
302 for functional enrichment over the GO slim Biological process resource. A total of 17 terms were
303 over-represented (Table S8), encompassing different biological processes such as sensory perception,
304 nervous system process, fatty acid metabolic process, gene expression and biological adhesion. Over
305 the Reactome database, PANTHER over-represented the olfactory signalling pathway and the related
306 mechanism of transduction mediated by G protein-coupled receptors (Table S8). Analysis of genes
307 located in private CNVRs did not identify any over-represented process/pathway.

308 The *v-kit Hardy-Zuckerman 4 feline sarcoma viral oncogene homolog (KIT)* and the *methionine*
309 *sulfoxide reductase B3 (MSRB3)* genes were two important genes presenting variable copies among
310 breeds. CNVs affecting the *KIT* gene are responsible for different coat colour phenotypes (Johansson

311 Moller *et al.* 1996; Marklund *et al.* 1998; Johansson *et al.* 2005; Rubin *et al.* 2012) whereas variable
312 copies of the *MSRB3* have been associated with ear size in pigs (Chen *et al.* 2018).

313 The detailed analysis of the *KIT* gene indicated the presence of the four duplicated regions
314 (DUP1-4; Fig. 4a) previously described by Rubin *et al.* (2012). Structural variants as well as the
315 presence of the splice mutation at the first base in intron 17 (g.41486012G>A, rs345599765) are all
316 required for manifesting a solid white coat colour (Marklund *et al.* 1998). Using sequence data, we
317 estimated the allele frequencies of this SNP (Fig. 4a; Table S9) to complement CNV results. Pools
318 from colored pigs did not show any CNV and the splice mutation. White pigs (Italian Large White
319 and Lithuanian White Old Type) had DUP1-4 and the splice mutation (allele A). However, allele
320 frequencies were divergent (Table S9) suggesting a different structure of the CNV (different gene
321 copies with the the A or G nucleotides). The Sarda (not fixed for any coat colour and including many
322 spotted animals) and Lithuanian Indigenous Wattle breeds presented DUP1, did not have DUP2-4
323 and had allele A (the only two other breeds having the splice mutation). Bísara, another spotted breed,
324 had also DUP2-3. The piebald breed Basque and the belted breed Cinta Senese had DUP2-4, whereas
325 the other two belted breeds (Krškopolje and Schwäbisch-Hällisches Schwein) had only DUP2 and
326 DUP4.

327 The detailed analysis of the *MSRB3* gene region revealed the presence of the 38.4-kbp
328 duplication (SSC5:29826981-29865653; Fig. 4b) previously described by Chen *et al.* (2018). Copy
329 number gains encompassing the *MSRB3* exons 6 and 7 have been associated with large ear size in
330 Chinese pig breeds and with half-floppy ears in Landrace pigs (Chen *et al.* 2018). Alentejana, Cinta
331 Senese, Mora Romagnola, Italian Duroc and Italian Large White that are breeds characterized by
332 small/medium ear size, had a normal copy number state (that means no gain of copies). The remaining
333 pig breeds showed variable copy number which seems to be correlated to ear size (Fig. 4c).
334 Regression analysis between the average CN state and the ear size (coded as follows: small = 1,
335 medium = 1.5, medium/large = 1.75 and large = 2) resulted in a positive association ($P = 0.0001$).
336 However, other breeds characterized by small ears (i.e. Nero Siciliano and Sarda) had variable copy

337 numbers. Variability in ear size was also analysed by estimating the allele frequency of two SNP in
338 the 5' flanking region (g.29695369C>T; rs340841870) and in the 3'-untranslated region
339 (g.29862412C>T; rs326411202) of the *MSRB3* gene, that Zhang *et al.* (2015) reported to be
340 associated with ear size. These SNP positions are not included in the CNVR of this gene. For each
341 SNP, the regression analysis pointed out a significant association between allele frequencies and ear
342 size ($P < 0.0001$). Additionally, allele frequencies of these two SNPs (Table S9) correlated with the
343 average CN state ($|r| > 0.8$; $P < 0.0001$; Fig. 4d).

344 We further explored genomic regions harbouring private information on CNVRs. Among them,
345 we identified two interesting examples. The first one, characterizing Lithuanian Indigenous Wattle
346 pigs, encompassed the intron 10 of the *ELOVL fatty acid elongase 6 (ELOVL6)* gene (Fig. 5a).
347 Variants in this gene has been associated with fatty acid composition in pigs (Corominas *et al.* 2013).
348 The second one, characterizing Turopolje pigs, was the *Zinc finger protein 622 (ZNF622)* gene, a
349 regulator of early embryonic development (Hasegawa *et al.* 2015). The CNV affecting this gene was
350 quite complex. Copy number gains were in the correspondence of the exonic regions but also included
351 the complete intron 1, intron 2 and intron 5. Most of introns 3 and 4 were not affected by CN gains
352 (only small and contiguous intronic segments to the exonic regions were included in the CN gains)
353 (Fig. 5b). The regions with CN gains were clearly evidenced in all breeds except Turopolje, which
354 did not have any copy number and, in part, in Krškopolje and Italian Duroc, that had CN higher than
355 that of Turopolje but lower than that of all other breeds (Fig. 5b).

356

357 **Comparison with other studies**

358 The positions of CNVRs we detected were compared with the CNVRs reported by previous
359 studies, which analysed different pig breeds and other species of the *Sus* genus using whole genome
360 sequencing. A total of five datasets, which investigated Asian pig breeds, commercial and European
361 pig breeds, and five species of the genus *Sus*, were considered for this comparison (Table S4). The

362 overlap ranged from about 10 to 25% (Table S10). Overall, a total of 595 CNVRs detected in our
363 work (16%) overlapped with CNVRs reported by the considered studies (Table S4).

364

365 **Discussion**

366 In this study we carried out a genome-wide CNV/CNVR analysis in 19 European
367 autochthonous and two Italian commercial pig breeds. Breeds were analysed by using a whole
368 genome sequencing strategy from breed specific DNA pools to maximize CNV discovery. CNVs
369 were detected via cn.MOPS, a tool that implements a Bayesian approach that models depth of
370 coverage across samples by decomposing its variability in a part coming from copy numbers and the
371 remaining part due to noise, in order to reduce false discoveries (Klambauer *et al.* 2012). Other
372 software based on different assumptions have been also developed and used for CNV detection from
373 HTS datasets. However, there is no consensus in the literature on the strategy and methodology that
374 might be applied for this purpose.

375 As our study was based on DNA pools from a large number of populations, we maximized the
376 power of cn.MOPS in reducing the false discovery rate, as this tool is specifically designed to deal
377 with multiple samples.

378 Even if this design could not precisely define the exact number of copy gains or losses for all
379 animals in the sequenced pools, the obtained results made it possible to capture within breed averaged
380 states. This was supported by the agreement among the different coat colour phenotypes and the
381 expected CN states, rightly detected at the *KIT* locus which indirectly confirmed and validated CNV
382 calls from cn.MOPS. This approach demonstrated that CNVs detected using whole genome
383 sequencing can be useful to identify breed specific features (including in this definition the most
384 frequent breed features) and describe genetic diversity across pig breeds, complementing SNP based
385 studies.

386 We confirmed a high correspondence between CNV data detected from sequenced DNA pools
387 and SNP information using Pearson's correlation calculated considering the fraction of the pig

388 genome covered by CNVRs detected for each breed (Table 1) and SNP based diversity measured on
389 the same animals genotyped with the GeneSeek® GGP Porcine HD Genomic Profiler (Muñoz *et al.*
390 2019). Among these SNP averaged variability parameters, correlation with the above mentioned
391 CNVR parameter was highly negative with both the minor allele frequency (MAF; $r = -0.90$) and
392 expected heterozygosity ($r = -0.90$), whereas highly positive correlation with the Fixation Index (F_{ST} ;
393 $r = 0.96$) values. These correlations mean that when within breed variability was low, it increased the
394 possibility to identify losses/gains at variable CN state and that the fraction of the genome covered
395 by CNVRs detected in DNA pools is a good indicator of the diversity among breeds.

396 With few differences, these breeds were clustered resembling the relationships that we already
397 reported using array SNP datasets obtained from individually genotyped pigs and SNPs detected from
398 whole genome sequencing (Muñoz *et al.* 2018, 2019; Bovo *et al.*, in preparation). Geographical and
399 some major morphological features (i.e. coat colour) mainly determined breed clusters obtained from
400 CN states. Turopolje, the breed that accounted for the largest number of CNVs (with the largest
401 fraction of the genome covered by CNVRs), was clustered apart, as also reported with SNP data
402 (Muñoz *et al.* 2018, 2019; Bovo *et al.*, in preparation).

403 Some CNVRs were considered as breed specific or identified in a few breeds, suggesting that
404 this variability might contribute to determine several phenotypic characteristics that distinguish
405 autochthonous and commercial European breeds. In addition, considering the whole patterns of
406 CNVRs that we detected, a quite high frequency of these events was classified as mixed CNVs
407 (including both gains and losses). This indicates that despite breeds share genome regions affected
408 by CNV, the single breed carries a gain or a loss specific for the breed itself.

409 In the current study, an average of 77 CNVRs (~16% of all breed reported CNVRs) was
410 considered as private for each analysed breed, highlighting the power of the DNA pooling strategy in
411 capturing distinctive breed features. However, as the sequencing depth is not so high, for a given
412 private CNVR we cannot completely exclude the possibility that few animals of the other investigated
413 breeds could carry the same alleles in these regions. The remaining CNVRs were shared among two

414 or more breeds, indicating that admixture and crossbreeding events or a common origin might have
415 contributed to spread this variability. However, further studies are needed to clarify their allelic status
416 or their common origin, as in our first survey we did not characterize into detail the precise breakdown
417 positions and structure of all identified CNVRs.

418 CNVRs we detected overlapped genes involved in different biological processes including
419 nervous system and sensory perception such as olfactory signalling. Brain functions control several
420 behaviours, including feeding, habitat selection, reproduction and social interaction that strongly
421 depend on the genetics architecture of an individual (Bendesky & Bargmann 2011). Several studies
422 in mammals including pigs reported CNVs in genes involved in the olfactory signalling pathway,
423 linking gene variability to food foraging and mate recognition abilities (Paudel *et al.* 2015; Keel *et*
424 *al.* 2019). In addition, considering the overlapping of CNVRs and QTL regions, the main traits
425 associated with changes in CN state were meat quality, body shape and conformation, reproduction
426 and metabolism. Variability in chromosome regions harbouring functionally relevant genes or QTL
427 may reflect the adaptation of these breeds to different production systems and environments.

428 The impact of this type of variability on exterior characteristics of the pigs has been already
429 demonstrated for the CNVs in the *KIT* gene region affecting coat colours and patterns, which
430 characterize the *Dominant white* phenotype (Rubin *et al.* 2012). Other evidences came for the CNVs
431 in the *MS3B3* gene region, involved in ear size as mainly reported in Chinese breeds (Chen *et al.*
432 2018). These CNVRs were also detected in our study with some interesting new information for some
433 of the analysed breeds.

434 The complexity of the *Dominant white KIT* locus has been explained by the presence of six
435 main allele groups (in addition to a few other potential variants; Fontanesi & Russo 2013): (i) a
436 recessive wild-type allele *i* (that is carried by wild boar and coloured pigs), (ii) the *Patch* allele I^P
437 (determining spotted patterns), (iii) the *Belt* allele I^{Be} (determining the belted phenotype), (iv) the
438 *Roan/Gray* allele I^{Rn} or I^d (causing the grey-roan phenotype), (v) the dominant white alleles *I*,
439 comprising several forms (e.g. I^1 , I^2 and I^3) and causing the white solid phenotype that mainly

440 characterize Large White and Landrace breeds and (vi) the I^L allele, a null and lethal allele (Johansson
441 Moller *et al.* 1996; Marklund *et al.* 1998; Johansson *et al.* 2005; Rubin *et al.* 2012). Variants in this
442 chromosome region are mainly associated with a 450-kbp duplication encompassing the entire *KIT*
443 gene (DUP1; the only CN of the I^P allele), including also another 4.3-kbp duplication (DUP2) located
444 ~100 kbp upstream of *KIT* gene, and a 23-kbp duplication (DUP3) ~100 kbp downstream from *KIT*,
445 which in turn resulted to contain another 4.3-kbp duplication (DUP4; Rubin *et al.* 2012). The *I* alleles
446 presented variable copy numbers of DUP1/2/3/4, whereas DUP2/3/4 were identified in pigs with the
447 I^{Be} allele (Rubin *et al.* 2012). Moreover, a recent whole genome resequencing study uncovered new
448 *KIT* alleles conferring different coat colour phenotypes (Wu *et al.* 2019). The CN state states that we
449 identified in our study encompassed all four duplicated regions, describing for the first time the
450 structure of the *KIT* gene in several autochthonous pig breeds (Fig. 4a).

451 In addition, analysis of sequencing data let us to estimate the frequency of the splice mutation
452 g.41486012G>A (rs345599765) that distinguish the CN state of the I^P from the *I Dominant white*
453 allele series (Marklund *et al.* 1998). As expected, all breeds that did not show any duplicated regions
454 are characterized by solid coat colours and did not have the splice mutation. They are considered to
455 carry only the *i* wild-type at the *Dominant white* locus. Sarda, which is a breed not fixed for any coat
456 colours and that includes also white and white spotted pigs, showed the presence of DUP1, with some
457 faint signs at the DUP4 position (with a low frequency of the splice mutation). Several alleles at the
458 *KIT* gene might be present in this breed, including I^P , *I* variants and I^{Be} forms. A similar pattern was
459 observed in the Lithuanian Indigenous Wattle breed, which includes mainly spotted pigs. According
460 to the CN state observed in this breed, I^P might be the most frequent allele, even if other and I^{Be} and
461 *I* forms (including also DUP4) might be present. A more marked copy number pattern was evidenced
462 for the Bísara breed (which has mainly heterogeneous coats: grey or black and white or spotted) that
463 reported DUP1 copy number status similar to Sarda and Lithuanian Indigenous Wattle) in addition to
464 DUP2-3 (without signals indicating the presence of DUP4).

465 The analysis of the *KIT* gene region in breeds characterized by a belted phenotype, even if not
466 homogeneous, indicated that more alleles at this locus might produce belted pigs even if with some
467 different phenotypic effects. Cinta Senese and Basque had equal CN state at DUP2-3 but differed in
468 DUP4 (higher in Basque and lower in Cinta Senese). Cinta Senese is a classical belted breed whereas
469 Basque pigs are usually black and white with heterogenous patterns but usually with black head and
470 rump. Other breeds having white belts of varying size and shape (Krškopolje and Schwäbisch-
471 Hällisches Schwein) showed only DUP2 and DUP4. The connection between the two breeds might
472 be derived by ancestral origins (not clearly defined), that preserved the same structure at the *Dominant*
473 *white* locus. Wu *et al.* (2019) observed that the presence of DUP2 together with DUP4 can produce
474 a belted phenotype in Duroc × (Landrace × Large White) hybrid pigs. The presence of multiple alleles
475 conferring a belted phenotype is also confirmed by the results of the analysis of the rs328592739 SNP
476 in the *KIT* gene that was associated with the belted pattern in Cinta Senese pigs (Fontanesi *et al.* 2016)
477 but not in Krškopolje and Schwäbisch-Hällisches Schwein pigs (Ogorevc *et al.* 2017).

478 White breeds (Italian Large White and Lithuanian White Old Type) had a classical copy number
479 pattern in DUP1-4 and the splice mutation already described for completely white pigs carrying *I*
480 alleles (Fontanesi *et al.* 2010a). Heterogeneity on the presence of the splice mutation suggested that
481 *Dominant white* alleles having different G/A ratios at this position. In Lithuanian White Old Type,
482 gene copies at this position carried G only in 1 out of 5 copies (as estimated from its 0.20 frequency).
483 In Italian Large White, about 2 out of 3 gene copies carried the G nucleotide (G = 0.68), suggesting
484 that the CNV structure in this breed might be determined by different *Dominant white* alleles than
485 those frequently present in the Lithuanian White Old Type breed.

486 Interesting copy number patterns were also observed in the region of SSC5 encompassing the
487 last exons of the *MSRB3* gene (Fig. 4b), which is associated with ear size (Chen *et al.* 2018). These
488 authors proposed that large ear size is due to the increased CN state in this region, which affects the
489 expression of the nearby miR-584-5p that in turn inhibits the expression of its target gene *MSRB3*.
490 Our CNV analysis for the *MSRB3* gene across autochthonous European pig breeds indicated, with

491 the exception of some breeds, a significant correlation between ear size and the average CN state
492 (Fig. 4c). The latter also correlated with allele frequencies estimated for the rs340841870 and
493 rs326411202 SNPs (outside this CNVR), which suggested the presence of linkage between these two
494 types of variants: allele C at both positions is associated with a normal copy state whereas the
495 alternative allele at both sides (T) is associated with the presence of 5 or 6 copies (of the linked
496 multiple copy region), as estimated from the sequencing data in the CNVR. Even if pigs of the studied
497 breeds were in general described to have breed-specific traits, heterogeneity for ear size has been
498 already reported in some breeds which might not actually have fixed ear size shape (Schiavo *et al.*
499 2019). Therefore, correlation between CN state and ear size might not precisely estimated by the
500 DNA pooling approach (Fig. 4b). It is also worth mentioning that ear size and position have been
501 already shown to be under polygenic control with a few major genes affecting these traits (e.g. Wei
502 *et al.* 2007; Ma *et al.* 2009; Ren *et al.* 2011). Thus, other genomic regions and polymorphisms could
503 be responsible for the ear size phenotype in some of the analysed breeds.

504 The CNV in the *ELOVL6* gene might interesting to explain economically relevant traits,
505 considering the role of this gene in affecting fatty acid composition in pigs (Corominas *et al.* 2013).
506 Other studies reported that variability in this gene or variability in its expression level might explain,
507 at least in part, differences of intramuscular fat accumulation and lipid metabolism among breeds,
508 which are relevant for meat quality, considering also genotype-feeding interactions to design
509 appropriate fatty-acid diets in pigs to maximize this aspect (e.g. Benítez *et al.* 2016; Muñoz *et al.*
510 2018; Revilla *et al.* 2018). Association studies and functional analysis of the CNV in this gene are
511 needed to understand if this variability could be involved in affecting meat quality traits in pigs.
512 Targeted analyses are also needed to detect with more precision if this variability segregates within
513 the analysed breeds as well as in other breeds in which meat quality parameters are important factors
514 determining the quality of their products.

515 Detailed analyses of CN states of some chromosome regions can also identify (or suppose) the
516 occurrence of other or more complex mutational events that might not be properly considered as

517 derived by CNVs. The case of the *ZNF622* gene that reported three distinct copy number gains
518 (mainly in the correspondence of exonic regions) might raise a few hypotheses on the occurrence of
519 this strange pattern. The three divided copy number gains might be due to the presence of a
520 pseudogene derived by the *ZNF622* gene (inserted somewhere into the genome) or that the
521 duplication of the gene subsequently underwent other mutational events that eliminated most of the
522 sequence of introns 3 and 4 (Fig. 5b). Other studies are needed to clarify these hypotheses. After a
523 preliminary analysis, CN states reported in the correspondence of this gene appeared to produce a
524 private condition in the Turopolje breed that did not have any copy number gain (common in all other
525 breeds). Inspection of the clustering analysis for the CN at this gene in all breeds, indicated that two
526 other breeds (Krškopolje and Italian Duroc) might not have fixed copy number gains, mainly in the
527 correspondence of the annotated exons of the *ZNF622* gene.

528 On the whole, our survey on European pig breeds reported that CNVRs occupy 26.1 Mbp,
529 representing 1.15% of the reference genome size. Compared to other whole genome sequencing based
530 studies, this genome fraction is similar to what was reported by Paudel *et al.* (2015) and Keel *et al.*
531 (2019) (17.83 and 22.9 Mbp, respectively). Other two studies (Paudel *et al.* 2013; Jiang *et al.* 2014)
532 identified larger fractions of the pig genome covered by CNVRs (39.2 and 102.8 Mbp, respectively).
533 Although this divergence could be attributed in part to the algorithms used to detect CNVs and the
534 sequencing approaches (single pigs vs pools of individuals), it might be also due to differences among
535 the studied pig populations. Distribution of CNVR sizes showed a decrease in CNVR counts while
536 increasing their size, as also described by Jiang *et al.* (2014). Differences among breeds were also
537 clearly shown in our study, as detailed above. Some of the CNVRs we detected in our study
538 overlapped with CNV events reported by the other whole genome sequencing mentioned studies (on
539 average, ~13% of overlap), pointing out that they could exist also in other breeds that we did not
540 survey. However, they represent just fraction a small fraction, strengthening the evidence that CNV
541 are breed-specific genome features. Additional studies are needed to obtain a global overview of
542 CNVs segregating in the *Sus scrofa* species, by comparing more breeds and populations.

543 As CNVs mutate about 2-3 times faster than SNPs, some of the CNVRs that we detected across
544 several breeds could eventually also be derived from recurrent mutational events through nonallelic
545 homologous recombination, potentially driven by the presence of repeated regions within or in
546 flanking positions (Liu *et al.* 2012). Analyses of CNVRs and their flanking regions identified
547 enrichments of different classes of repeated elements, confirming what other studies reported this
548 species (e.g. Paudel *et al.* 2013; Wang *et al.* 2015b). This further suggest that these sequence features
549 might contribute to chromosome instability and mutational mechanisms promoting these structural
550 changes also in *Sus scrofa*.

551 Our study investigated CNVs in the porcine genome over a large number of pig breeds that
552 represent important European genetic resources for this species. This variability can explain part of
553 the genetic diversity among breeds and might contribute to explain their origin, history and adaptation
554 to a variety of production systems. Further studies are needed to better understand how CNVs could
555 be considered in defining conservation programmes of these autochthonous genetic resources.

556

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565

566 **Availability of data**

567 Sequence data generated and analysed in the current study are available in the EMBL-EBI European
568 Nucleotide Archive (ENA) repository (<http://www.ebi.ac.uk/ena>), under the study accession

569 PRJEB36830. CNVRs are available as Supplementary Table S4 and from the corresponding author
570 on reasonable request.

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573

574 **Competing interests**

575 The authors declare they do not have any competing interests.

576

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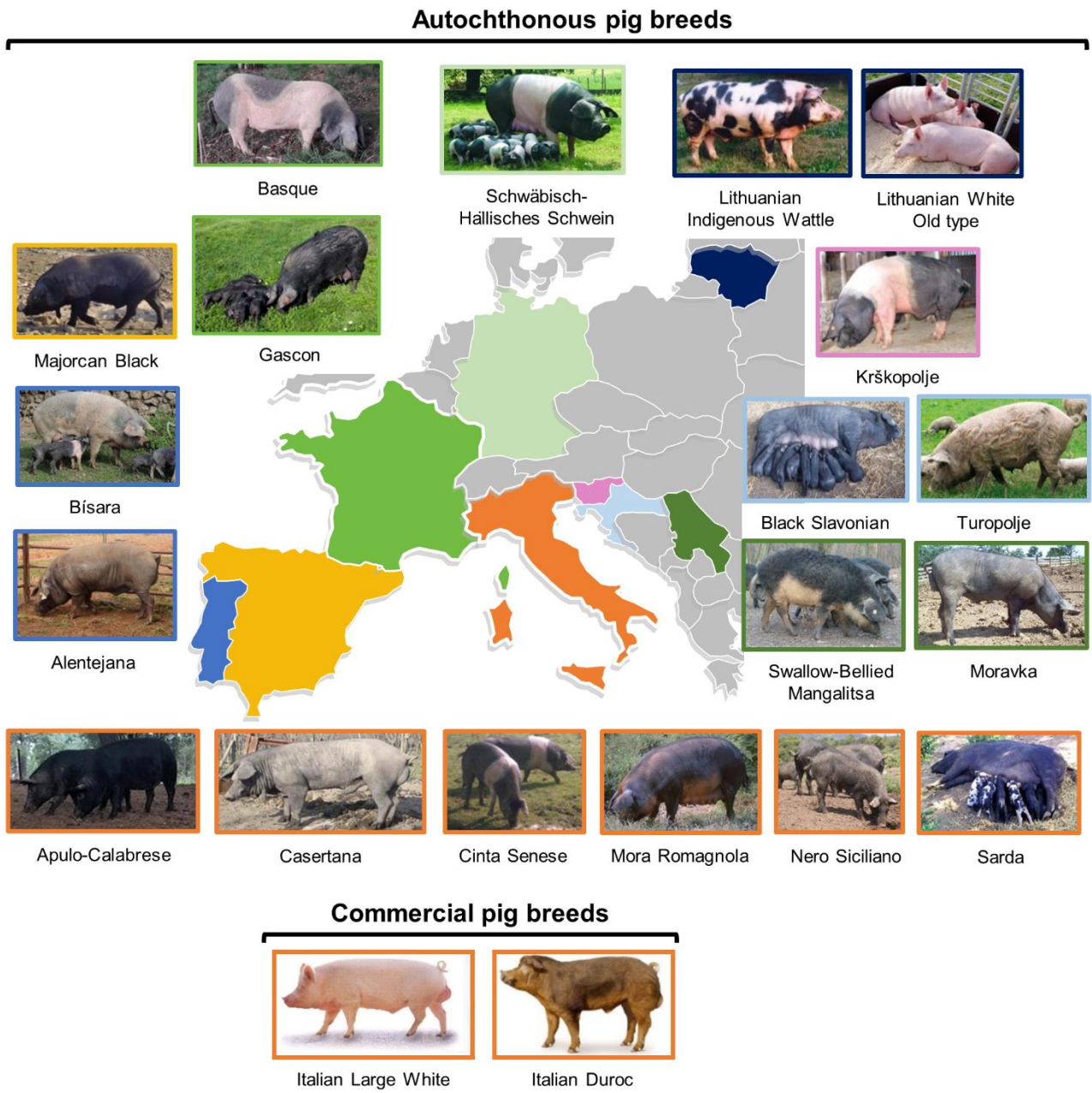
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834

836 **Fig. 1.** Phenotypes and geographical origin of the 21 analysed pig breeds.

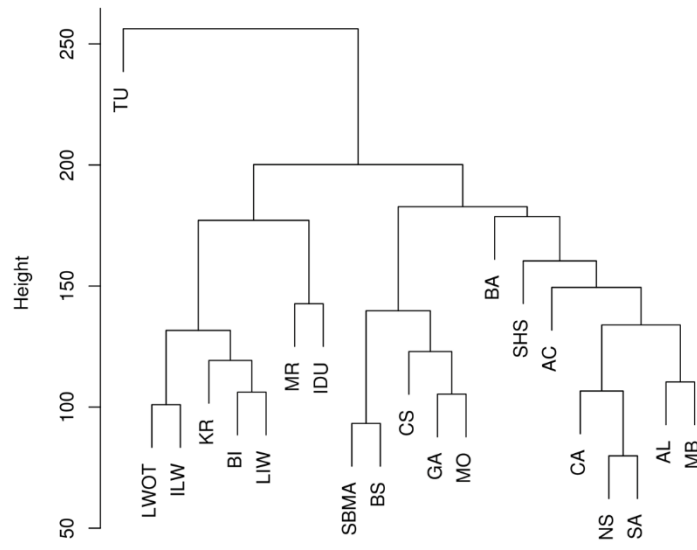


838 **Fig. 2.** Distribution of CNVRs along each autosomal chromosome.



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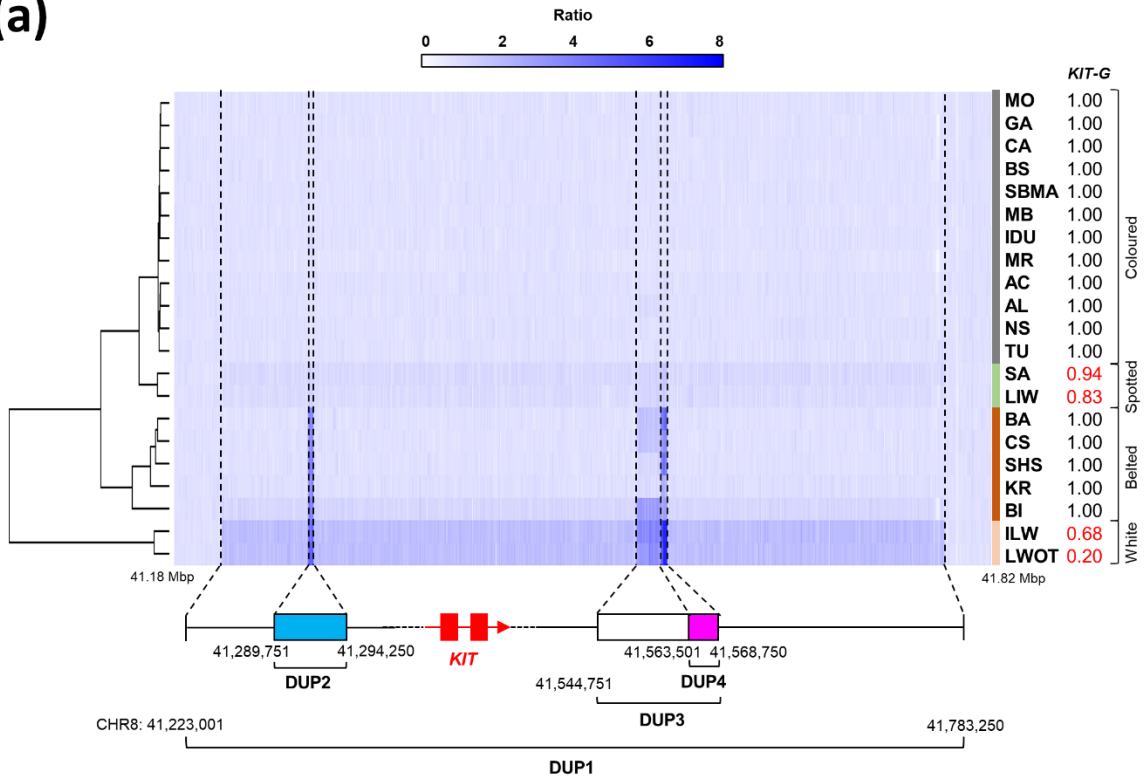
840 **Fig. 3.** Dendrogram representing the hierarchical clustering of the copy number state. Acronyms of
841 the breed name are explained in Table 1.



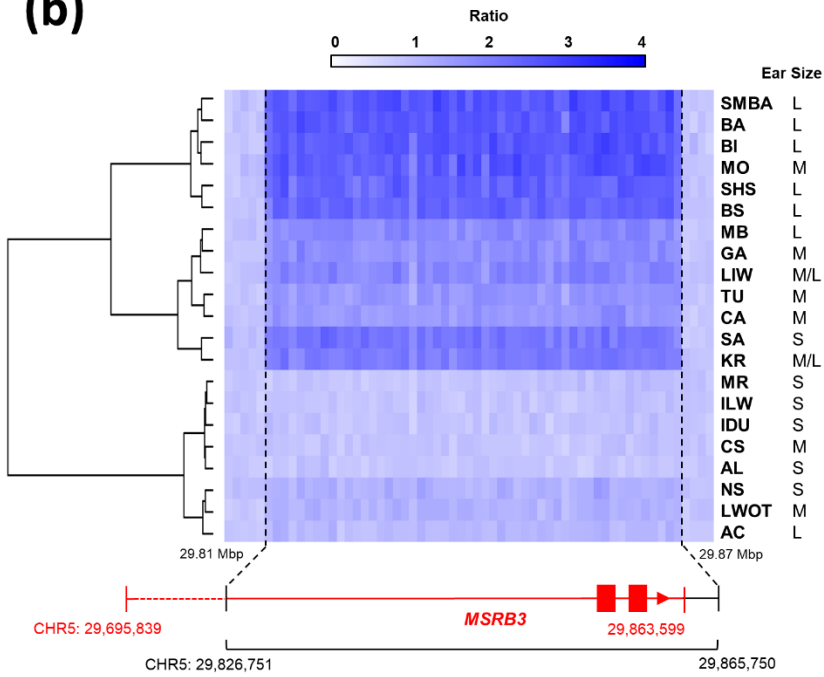
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843 **Fig. 4. (a)** Heatmap of the read count ratios over the *KIT* gene. Coat colour reported in the
844 correspondence of the breeds indicates breed main characteristics. SA (Sarda) has heterogeneous and
845 not-fixed patterns. It was included among the spotted based on the frequency of this phenotype in the
846 breed and according to the copy number (CN) state at this locus. Basque (BA) has spotted/belted
847 heterogeneous patterns but was included among the belted breeds according to the CN state at this
848 locus – (see text and Table S1 for details). KIT-G: frequency of the allele G of the single nucleotide
849 polymorphism (SNP) rs345599765 (splice mutation of the intron 17; Marklund *et al.* 1998). **(b)** Heatmap
850 of the read count ratios over the *MSRB3* gene. Ear size indicated in (b): L = large; M = medium; S =
851 small (see text and Table S1 for details). The light-dark blue bar at the top of (a) and (b) indicates the
852 CN ratio (1 = normal state without any gain or loss). For each breed, the read count ratio was
853 computed in 750-bp consecutive genome windows. Acronyms of the breed name are explained in
854 Table 1. **(c)** Average CN state of the *MSRB3* gene in relation to ear size. **(d)** Relationship between
855 the average CN state of the *MSRB3* gene and the SNPs rs340841870 (green) and rs326411202 (blue).
856 Pearson's correlation coefficient (r) are reported.

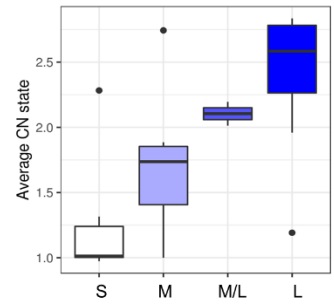
(a)



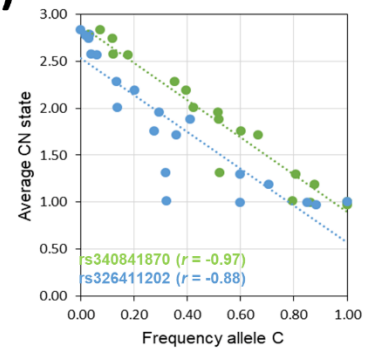
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(c)



(d)

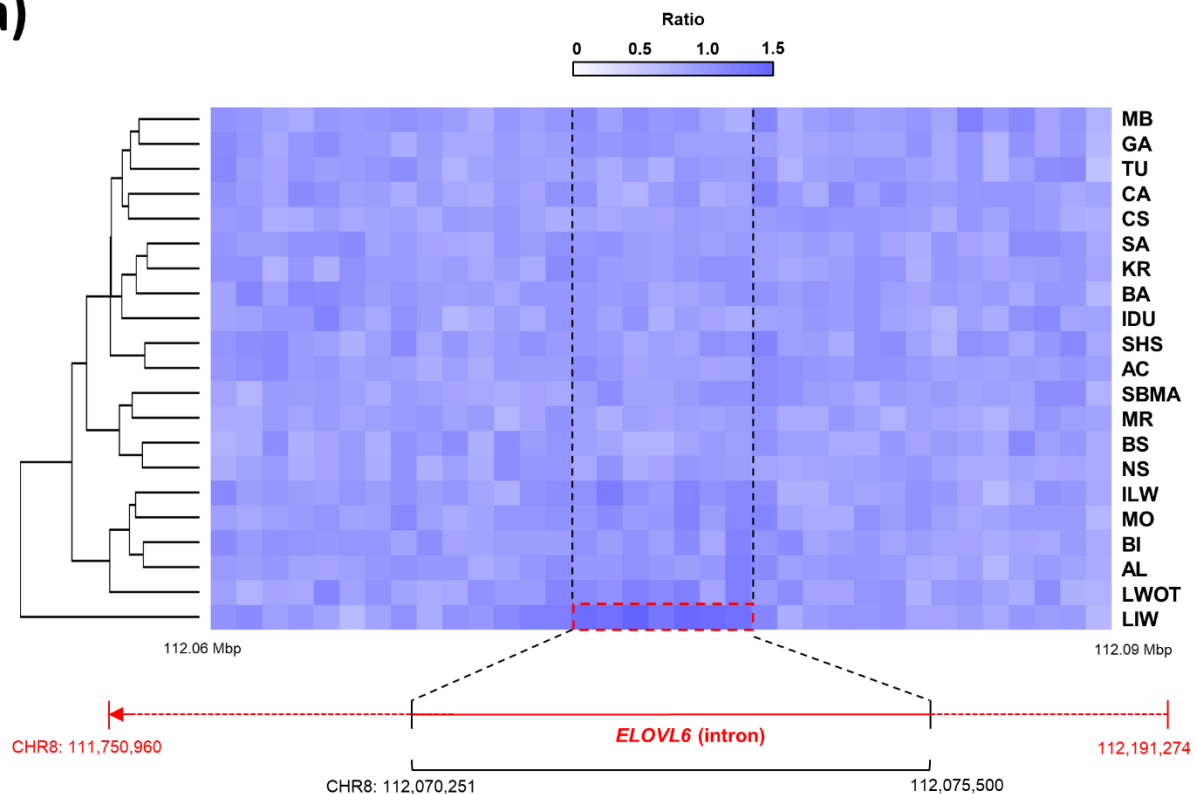


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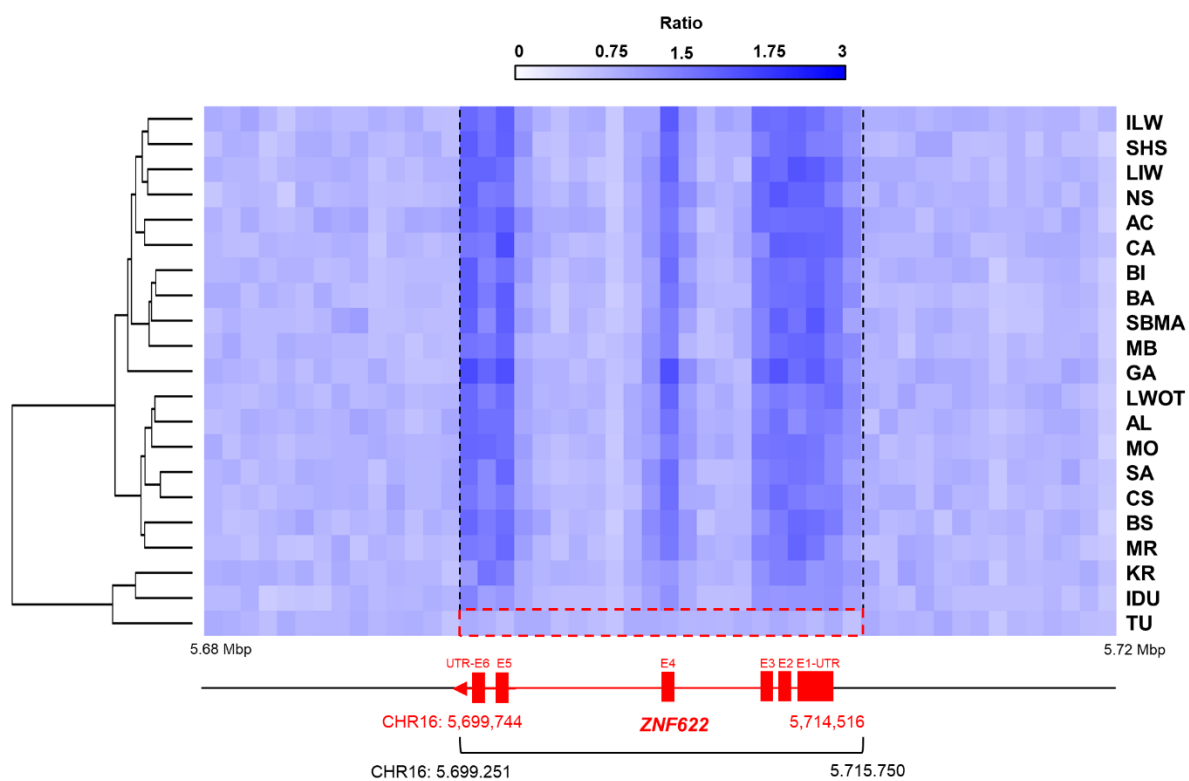
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859 **Fig. 5.** Heatmap of the read count ratios over the *ELOVL6* (**a**) and *ZNF622* (**b**) genes. Exons below
860 the heatmap for the *ZNF622* gene are numbered (E1-E6) according to the annotation in the
861 Sscrofa11.1 genome version. Untranslated regions (UTR) are also reported. The light-dark blue bar
862 at the top of (A) and (B) indicates the copy number (CN) ratio (1 = normal state without any gain or
863 loss). For each breed, the read count ratio was computed in 750-bp consecutive genome windows.
864 Acronyms of the breed name are explained in Table 1.

(a)



(b)



865

866

867 **Tables**868 **Table 1.** Summary of CNVs of the 21 analysed pig breeds. Data are stratified by breed.

Breed	Short name	CNV¹	CNL²	CNG³	Length_{Min}⁴	Length_{Max}⁵	Length_{Median}⁶	% length in CNV⁷
Autochthonous								
Alentejana	AL	601	345	256	2250	69750	3000	0.17
Apulo-Calabrese	AC	676	313	363	2250	142500	3000	0.18
Basque	BA	1122	626	496	2250	99750	3750	0.29
Bísara	BI	437	162	275	2250	63000	3000	0.11
Black Slavonian	BS	504	225	279	2250	142500	3000	0.13
Casertana	CA	596	272	324	2250	113250	3000	0.16
Cinta Senese	CS	662	352	310	2250	89250	3750	0.19
Gascon	GA	781	379	402	2250	126000	3000	0.20
Krškopolje	KR	510	152	358	2250	101250	3000	0.13
Lithuanian Indigenous Wattle	LIW	710	295	415	2250	90750	3750	0.19
Lithuanian White Old Type	LWOT	711	308	403	2250	560250	3750	0.21
Majorcan Black	MB	546	328	218	2250	101250	3750	0.15
Mora Romagnola	MR	1255	647	608	2250	137250	3000	0.34
Moravka	MO	391	159	232	2250	100500	3000	0.10
Nero Siciliano	NS	298	149	149	2250	42750	3000	0.07
Sarda	SA	209	72	137	2250	38250	3000	0.04
Schwäbisch-Hällisches Schwein	SHS	576	277	299	2250	147000	3000	0.15
Swallow-Bellied Mangalitsa	SBMA	757	433	324	2250	121500	3000	0.22
Turopolje	TU	1440	845	595	2250	99750	3750	0.40
Commercial								
Italian Duroc	IDU	1111	249	862	2250	116250	3000	0.28
Italian Large White	ILW	451	148	303	2250	560250	3000	0.14

869 ¹ Total no. of copy number variants; ² Total no. of copy number losses; ³ Total no. of copy number gains; ⁴ Minimum length (bp) of CNVs; ⁵ Maximum
870 length (bp) of CNVs; ⁶ Median length (bp) of CNVs; ⁷ Percentage of the *S. scrofa* genome occupied by CNVs.

871 **Table 2.** Summary of CNVRs of the 21 analysed pig breeds stratified by chromosome.

Chromosome	CNVR¹	Length_{Min}²	Length_{Max}³	Length_{Median}⁴	% length in CNVR⁵
SSC1	359	2250	137250	3760	0.88
SSC2	361	2250	43500	3760	1.54
SSC3	162	2250	147750	3010	0.82
SSC4	227	2250	81000	3760	0.99
SSC5	215	2250	46500	3760	1.45
SSC6	302	2250	120750	3760	1.07
SSC7	167	2250	96750	3760	1.16
SSC8	244	2250	560250	3760	1.37
SSC9	259	2250	159000	3760	1.86
SSC10	114	2250	85500	3010	0.96
SSC11	159	2250	153750	3760	1.54
SSC12	110	2250	108000	3385	1.33
SSC13	307	2250	91500	3760	1.05
SSC14	212	2250	195750	3760	1.34
SSC15	196	2250	63000	3760	0.86
SSC16	138	2250	41250	3010	0.88
SSC17	132	2250	80250	3010	1.27
SSC18	46	2250	16500	3010	0.35

872 ¹ Total no. of copy number variant regions; ² Minimum length (bp) of CNVs; ³ Maximum length (bp)
873 of CNVs; ⁴ Median length (bp) of CNVs; ⁵ Percentage of the chromosome occupied by CNVRs.
874

875 **Supporting information**

876 **Table S1.** Details on the analysed animals and investigated breeds, including geographical
877 distribution and phenotypic description.

878 **Table S2.** Summary statistics of whole-genome sequencing.

879 **Table S3.** Summary statistics of detected CNVs stratified by chromosome.

880 **Table S4.** CNVRs detected over all analysed breeds.

881 **Table S5.** Summary statistics of detected CNVRs, stratified by pig breed.

882 **Table S6.** Over-represented repeated element classes.

883 **Table S7.** Within CNVRs over-represented QTLs.

884 **Table S8.** Within CNVRs over-represented biological functions.

885 **Table S9.** Allele frequency of the single nucleotide polymorphisms at the *KIT* and *MSRB3* genes
886 estimated from sequencing data.

887 **Table S10.** Summary statistics of CNVRs previously identified in other studies.