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# Abstract

9 In swine breeding programs, it has now become critically important to emphasize selection for resilience to 10 external environmental stress factors that have negatively impacted the productivity of pigs, such as those due to 11 climate change induced temperature increases, or the intensification of housing environments. Secretion of 12 cortisol, a neurophysiological change mediated by the hypothalamic-pituitary-adrenal axis, is a central mechanism 13 in the biological stress response. This hormone is closely related to pig robustness and health and can serve as an 14 informative indicator of stress resistance and robustness in pigs. To identify positional candidate genes and their 15 genetic variants influencing blood cortisol levels, we conducted genome-wide association study (GWAS), joint 16 linkage and linkage disequilibrium (LALD) mapping and Bayesian fine-mapping analysis in an F<sub>2</sub> resource 17 population generated by crossing Duroc pigs with Korean native pigs. The data used in the study included 243  $F_2$ 18 animals. We utilized imputed whole-genome sequencing data for our analyses. GWAS results revealed a genome-19 wide significant quantitative trait locus (q-value < 0.05) located within a  $\sim 2.46$  Mb region between SNPs 20 7:114031215 and 7:116497417 on pig chromosome 7, which accounted for 12.65% of the phenotypic variation. 21 LALD mapping analysis was performed to narrow down the confidence interval (CI) of the quantitative trait locus 22 which resulted in a CI of 2.39 Mb (7:114409266~116803751). Further, to identify candidate causal genes within 23 the 2.39 Mb region, fine-mapping analysis was performed within the region. The fine-mapping analysis identified 24 SERPINA1, ITPK1, CLMN, SERPINA12, and PRIMA1, in addition to SERPINA6, which was previously shown 25 to be associated with blood cortisol levels. Our results identified positional candidate genes and genetic variants 26 associated with serum cortisol concentrations that can be included in marker panels for genomic prediction to 27 improve selection for robustness in pigs 28 29 **Keywords**: Fine-mapping, candidate gene, serum cortisol levels, imputed whole-genome sequence, pig 30 31 32 33 34 35 Introduction 36

37 With the rapid technological advancement and adoption of next-generation sequencing, genotype imputation and 38 Bayesian statistical fine-mapping approaches, it has become feasible to conduct post genome-wide association 39 fine-mapping analysis of quantitative trait loci (QTLs), to identify some of the genetic variants causatively 40 associated with complex quantitative traits, such as blood cortisol levels. The GWAS and fine-mapping 41 complement each other in genetic research. While GWAS is an excellent approach to identify broad genomic 42 regions associated with complex economic traits using a sparse density of DNA markers and conventional p-43 values to declare statistically significant associations, fine-mapping narrows these regions to specific potential 44 causal variants. Fine-mapping employs sophisticated statistical methods that account for LD structure, utilizes 45 denser genotyping of DNA markers, and can compute the posterior probability of causality for each variant in the 46 genomic regions of interest. As an essential post-GWAS analysis, fine-mapping identifies putative causal variants, 47 provides biological insights, facilitates functional studies, and improves effect estimation. By offering higher 48 resolution and more precise identification of causal variants, fine-mapping translates GWAS discoveries into 49 biological insights. [1-3].

50 Although genome-wide association studies (GWAS) were originally developed for population studies, 51 family-based association studies, including outbred crosses, such as F<sub>2</sub> intercrosses, have also become popular 52 due to the implementation of mixed linear models in GWAS [4-6]. Genetic selection for robustness- and health-53 related traits is becoming an important component of swine breeding operations because the current pig production 54 system must cope with environmental stress factors derived from the intensification of housing environments and 55 temperature increase due to climate changes [7]. Alterations in robustness and health can cause neuro-56 physiological changes, including changes in blood cortisol levels. Cortisol secretion is mainly affected by the 57 hypothalamic-pituitary-adrenal (HPA) axis, which are the key organs of biological stress response [8,9]. 58 Hypothalamic corticotropin-releasing hormone stimulates the release of adrenocorticotropic hormone (ACTH) 59 from the pituitary gland, which in turn triggers cortisol production in the adrenal cortex. The sensitivity of the 60 adrenal glands to ACTH is crucial for the regulation of cortisol secretion. Cortisol bioavailability is critically 61 modulated by corticosteroid-binding globulin (CBG). Through its high specific affinity for cortisol, CBG plays a 62 vital role in regulating serum cortisol levels and their access to target cells. The majority of cortisol in the 63 bloodstream is transported bound to CBG, while only a small fraction of the total serum cortisol remains unbound 64 and biologically active [10,11].

65 Cortisol, a crucial hormone for facilitating adaptive stress responses, ensures the body's energy supply 66 in dynamic environmental conditions. This hormone influences multiple physiological processes, including 67 appetite regulation, glucose metabolism, and fatty acid metabolism. Additionally, cortisol suppresses 68 inflammation, modulates immune function, and mobilizes energy resources. It also affects energy storage. However, to be beneficial, cortisol levels must be maintained within an optimal concentration range [12]. In pigs,
cortisol levels correlate with various economically important traits. Higher cortisol is associated with reduced
growth and feed efficiency, and influences body weight, carcass characteristics, immune function, leanness, and
meat quality [13,14]. The association between cortisol levels and various economically important traits has been
well documented across species. For instance, studies in chickens and sheep have linked cortisol release to growthrelated traits [15,16].

75 The secretion of cortisol regulated by the HPA axis is individually variable to stress responsiveness and 76 is influenced by genetic determinants – heritability estimates of cortisol levels range between medium to high 77 which makes it amenable to selection in breeding programs [17,18]. Hence, it is important to identify the genetic 78 factors underlying blood cortisol levels and develop DNA markers to improve of the robustness and health of pigs, 79 which are tightly linked to their welfare and productivity. Despite the importance of cortisol, only a limited number 80 of GWAS and RNA seq analysis have been conducted to identify candidate genes that affect blood cortisol levels 81 [19]. For example, previous GWA studies have identified SERPINA6 and SERPINA1 genes, which encode 82 corticosteroid-binding globulin, implicated in the regulation of blood cortisol levels in humans and pigs [20-22]; 83 Crawford et al. reported strong evidence that genetic variants in the SERPINA6/SERPINA1 locus primarily affect 84 SERPINA6 gene expression in the liver, which likely influences cortisol levels and its delivery to other tissues [21]. In goats, an RNA-seq experiment aimed at identifying genes and pathways associated with increased cortisol 85 86 levels due to transportation stress revealed significant enrichment of genes involved in inflammation and apoptosis 87 pathways [23].

Here, we present the results of GWAS and post-GWAS fine-mapping analyses in which we aimed to identify positional candidate genes and genetic variants affecting serum cortisol concentrations that are involved in the mechanisms of stress response in pigs. Our findings could provide insights into stress response mechanisms and targets for improving pig welfare and productivity through genomic information enabled accurate genetic evaluation.

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# **Materials and Methods**

95 Animals and phenotype measurement

We generated an F<sub>2</sub> resource population by crossing Duroc and Korean Native Pig (KNP) pigs from Jeju Island [24-13]. There are two types of indigenous pigs in Korea: those living on the main peninsula of Korea and those living on Jeju Island. The Jeju Island indigenous pigs are particularly interesting as they have unique genetic properties that are very distinct from those of pigs raised on the Korean Peninsula since they have been largely isolated on Jeju Island for more than 1,000 years [25,26]. Hereafter, the Jeju native pig will be referred to as KNP. 101 The coat color of KNP is black, and similarly to most indigenous breeds, their growth performance is stunted in 102 comparison to modern commercial pig breeds. They possess however excellent meat quality attributes, such as a 103 solid fat structure, a darker red meat color, and high levels of marbling [27-29]. In this study, nine purebred Duroc 104 pigs were mated with five purebred KNP pigs to produce 36  $F_1$  animals. Subsequently, the  $F_1$  animals were 105 intercrossed to produce  $345 F_2$  animals. From the  $F_2$  progeny comprised 31 full-sib families, high-quality serum 106 cortisol level data from 243 F<sub>2</sub> animals (133 males and 110 females) were obtained as phenotypic data, and the 107 corresponding genotypic data were included for this study. All animals were raised at the experimental farm of 108 the National Institute of Animal Science, Rural Development Administration, Jeju, Republic of Korea. They were 109 fed *ad libitum*, and the males were not castrated. All experimental procedures were performed in accordance with 110 national and institutional guidelines and were approved by the Ethical Committee of the National Institute of 111 Animal Science (No. 2020-446).

112 Blood samples (10 ml) were collected at 140 days of age from the jugular veins of the 243 F<sub>2</sub> offspring. 113 This specific age was chosen based on the ease of blood collection, taking into account the body size of pigs at 114 this stage of development. The 140 days of age provided a balance between the pigs being sufficiently mature for 115 straightforward blood sampling and not being too large to handle safely and efficiently. To minimize sampling 116 variance, the blood sampling was conducted in the morning as soon as the research farm staffs were present at the 117 farm. Serum cortisol levels were measured using a commercially available enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay 118 kit (Endocrine Technologies, USA). Descriptive statistics are presented in Table 1. The cortisol phenotype showed 119 significant deviation from normality and was transformed using a natural logarithm to remove skewness.

120

#### 121 SNP marker data

122 Genomic DNA was isolated from the blood samples using a standard sucrose-proteinase K method. Genotyping 123 was conducted using the Porcine SNP 60K BeadChip technology (Illumina, USA), which contained 61,565 SNPs 124 across the whole genome. The SNPs were filtered for a minor allele frequency < 1%, genotype call rate < 95%, 125 and *P*-value of  $\chi^2$ -test for Hardy–Weinberg equilibrium  $\leq$  0.000001. Additionally, Mendelian inconsistencies in 126 the F<sub>2</sub> pedigree were assessed using the SNP marker information. The quality control procedures were performed 127 using the PLINK v 1.90 [30]. In total, 39,463 SNP markers were retained and used for further analysis.

128

### 129 Whole genome sequencing and genotype imputation

To scale up the information obtained from the Porcine SNP 60K BeadChip data of the study population to wholegenome sequence (WGS) level, genotype imputation was performed. As a reference panel for imputation, we collected whole-genome sequence data from 56 pigs, including 7 Duroc, 19 KNP, and 30 Duroc  $\times$  KNP F<sub>2</sub> (DK 133  $F_2$ ) individuals. Among them, some of the Duroc (7) and KNP (5) pigs were the parental animals of the  $F_2$  resource 134 population. The 30 DK  $F_2$  pigs were sampled from the  $F_2$  progeny of the resource population. Whole-genome 135 sequencing was performed using the Illumina HiSeq platform (Illumina, USA). DNA libraries were prepared 136 according to the manufacturer's instructions and sequenced using the paired-end 150 bp sequencing protocol. The 137 sequencing coverage for these individuals was approximately 30×. In addition, whole-genome resequencing data 138 from 14 Korean Native pigs were obtained from the NCBI Sequence Read Archive (SRA). These sequencing data 139 were accessed under the BioProject accession number PRJNA254936. These data were also included in the 140 subsequent procedures for preparing the reference sequence dataset for genotype imputation.

141 The raw sequencing data were processed and analyzed using a standard bioinformatics pipeline. Briefly, the 142 quality of sequencing reads assessed using FastOC raw was 143 (http://www.bioinformatics.babraham.ac.uk/projects/fastqc). The cleaned reads were then mapped to the Sus 144 scrofa reference genome (Sscrofa11.1) using Burrows-Wheeler Aligner (BWA) with default parameters [31]. Duplicate reads were marked and removed using Picard MarkDuplicates (http://broadinstitute.github.io/picard). 145 146 Variant calling was performed using Genome Analysis Toolkit (GATK), following the best practices for variant 147 discovery [32]. The resulting variants were filtered based on quality scores, depth of coverage, and other standard 148 parameters using GATK VariantFiltration to retain high-confidence genetic variants, ultimately leading to the 149 acquisition of a total of 23,308,271 DNA markers.

150 Because of the substantial difference in genome coverage between the 60 K SNP data and WGS data, a two-151 step imputation strategy was employed to obtain WGS markers from the 60K SNP data. Initially, a subset of SNPs 152 was extracted at regular intervals (window size of approximately 28 variants) from the WGS data obtained from 153 the reference samples, resulting in 824,938 genetic variants. Subsequently, 1-step imputation was performed for 154 the test sample, consisting of nine Duroc, five KNP, and 243 DK  $F_2$  pigs. This 1-step imputation yielded a total 155 of 578,493 DNA markers. Using these marker data from the test sample, a 2-step imputation was conducted to 156 obtain the WGS data, resulting in a total of 15,542,014 genetic variants. Haplotyping at the whole-genome level 157 for both the reference and test samples was performed using Beagle version 2.4.1 [33]. Beagle was strictly used 158 for haplotype construction. Genotype imputation was then performed using Minimac4 based on chromosome-159 wise constructed haplotype information (https://github.com/statgen/Minimac4). An imputation accuracy was 160 evaluated using the correlation coefficient ( $r^2$ ), with a filtering criterion set at an  $r^2$  value of 0.6 or higher. The imputed genetic variants were further filtered for a minor allele frequency < 1% and P-value of  $\chi^2$ -test for Hardy– 161 Weinberg equilibrium  $\leq 0.000001$ . In total, 13,720,525 DNA markers were retained and used for further analyses. 162

## 164 Estimation of heritability and GWAS of serum cortisol levels

165 The EMMA (efficient mixed-model association) option of the rMVP package was used to estimate the heritability 166 of the serum cortisol levels recorded in this study [34], and the following linear mixed model was used for the 167 analysis:

168 y = Xb + Zu + e (1)

169 where y is the vector of the log transformed serum cortisol levels; b is the vector of fixed effects, including the 170 intercept, the effect of sex, the effect of slaughtering batch (with nine levels), and body weight at 140 days of age; 171 u is the vector of random additive effects following a normal distribution  $\mathbf{u} \sim N(0, \mathbf{G}\sigma_a^2)$ , in which **G** is the genomic 172 relationship matrix constructed using 13,720,525 DNA markers and  $\sigma_a^2$  is the additive genetic variance; e is the 173 vector of random residual effects following a normal distribution  $\mathbf{e} \sim N(0, \mathbf{I}\sigma_e^2)$ , in which I is the identity matrix 174 and  $\sigma_e^2$  is the residual variance; **X** and **Z** are the incidence matrices for **b** and **u**, respectively.

A GWAS adjusted for the familial relatedness within the F<sub>2</sub> intercross was performed using the MLM
(mixed linear model) option of the rMVP program [34]. The following linear mixed linear model was used to
assess the association between SNP markers and the serum cortisol levels:

178 
$$y = Xb + Z_{1a} + Z_{2u} + e$$
 (2)

179 where, **y** is the vector of the serum cortisol levels; **b** is the vector of fixed effects including sex, the effect of 180 slaughtering batch (with nine levels), and body weight at 140 days of age; a is the SNP marker effects; **u** is the 181 vector of random additive effects with a distribution **u** ~N(0,  $\mathbf{G}\sigma_a^2$ ), where **G** is the genomic relationship matrix 182 that was constructed using the 39,463 SNP markers;  $\sigma_a^2$  is the additive genetic variance; **e** is a vector of random 183 residuals following a distribution **e** ~N(0,  $\mathbf{I}\sigma_e^2$ ), in which **I** is the identity matrix and  $\sigma_e^2$  is the residual variance. 184 **Z**<sub>1</sub> is the incidence vector for **a**. **X** and **Z**<sub>2</sub> are the incidence matrices for **b** and **u**. The percentage of phenotypic 185 variance explained by a marker (%*Var*<sub>SNP</sub>) was computed as follows [35]:

$$\% Var_{SNP} = 100 \times \frac{2p(1-p)\alpha^2}{\sigma_p^2} \quad (3)$$

186

187 where *p* is the minor-allele frequency of the SNP marker; 
$$\alpha$$
 is the additive genetic effect of the DNA marker;  $\sigma_p^2$   
188 is the phenotypic variance for each meat quality-related trait. The *p*,  $\alpha$  and  $\sigma_p^2$  were estimated using the rMVP  
189 program. The *q*-value adjusted genome-wide suggestive (*q*-value < 0.10) and significant (*q*-value < 0.05)  
190 thresholds were used to address the multiple testing issues [36].

191

#### 192 Joint linkage and linkage disequilibrium (LALD) mapping analysis

193 Initial fine-mapping of QTL identified by the GWAS was performed by exploiting LALD using a haplotype-194 based approach: 1) We used CRI-MAP version 2.503, developed by Evans and Maddox (URL: 195 http://www.animalgenome.org/bioinfo/tools/share/crimap), to establish a genetic linkage map of SSC7 using 899 196 SNP markers. These makers were selected from the Porcine SNP 60K BeadChip genotype data. 2) The founder 197 haplotypes were then reconstructed using the DualPHASE program [37] which combines LALD information 198 through a Hidden Markov Model setting. 3) The haplotypes then were incorporated into the following linear 199 mixed-effect model including fixed effects (sex, slaughtering batch, and body weight at 140 days of age), random 200 effects (i.e., the effects of the founder haplotypes and the additive polygenic effect), and random residual terms to 201 perform high-resolution OTL mapping using OxPAK version 5.05 [38]. A 1.0-LOD drop support interval was 202 employed to estimate the confidence interval at the location of QTL location [39].

203

## 204 Further Bayesian fine-mapping analyses for identifying candidate causal gene(s) for serum cortisol levels

To refine the critical region identified by the LALD analyses, a further fine-mapping approach based on the FINEMAP program was conducted [40]. The FINEMAP program uses a shotgun stochastic search algorithm that incorporates summary statistics (i.e., Z-score) from GWAS and the LD correlation structure calculated from the SNP markers in the region of interest to calculate the posterior probability of each SNP marker being a candidate causal variant. A threshold of 5% for the posterior probability was applied to select markers associated with candidate causal variants from the FINEMAP analyses [41]. A regional association plot with LD information was drawn using IntAssoPlot (https://github.com/whweve/IntAssoPlot).

212

# 213 Positional candidate gene analyses

A list of genes annotated within the QTL region was extracted from the NCBI database release 85 based on *Sus scrofa* 11.1 assembly (NCBI accession ID: NC\_010454.4). A list of genes in each QTL region was obtained from the NCBI database. A comparative analysis with previously reported QTL locations for the trait was conducted using the Animal QTLdb [19]. The candidate causal variants identified using the FINEMAP program were annotated using the ENSEMBL pig genome database (https://asia.ensembl.org/).

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# **Results and Discussion**

221 Descriptive summary statistics and estimated heritability of the serum cortisol trait in the DK  $F_2$  pigs are presented 222 in Table 1. The mean value and range of serum cortisol levels were 21.18 ng/mL and 61.6 ng/mL (2.30~63.90 223 ng/mL) in the  $F_2$  population. The estimate of heritability for the cortisol traits was 0.32, indicating that a 224 considerable contribution of genetic effects to the phenotypic variation in the trait of interests is considerable. A

- total of 23,129,957 genetic variants were imputed using Beagle and Minimac4. The average imputation accuracy
- 226 (r<sup>2</sup>) for the entire set of genetic variants was 0.67. A total of 7,587,919 variants had an imputation accuracy below
- the threshold of 0.6 (r<sup>2</sup>). After filtering out these low-accuracy variants, the final average imputation accuracy (r<sup>2</sup>)
- 228 increased to 0.968 (Table 2). After an additional QC filtering step with PLINK for MAF and Hardy-Weinberg
- equilibrium deviations, a total of 13,720,525 DNA markers remained for subsequent analyses.
- 230

### 231 GWAS

- To investigate the genetic structure underlying the cortisol trait in pigs, we used an  $F_2$  intercross between the Duroc and KNP pigs. Using this  $F_2$  intercross population, we detected a single genome-wide significant QTL (*q*value<0.05), comprising 34 DNA markers with extremely tight linkage disequilibrium among these markers. The QTL spans a ~2.46 Mb region between 7:114031215 and rs326739326 (7:116497417), for serum cortisol levels on SSC7 (Figure 1). However, a single most significant DNA marker associated with the phenotype of interest was not detected (Table 3). This significant QTL accounted for 12.65% of the phenotypic variance of the serum cortisol levels in the pig population (Table 3).
- 239

## 240 LALD mapping analysis

We performed integrated LALD mapping to reduce the confidence interval (CI) of the QTL using the 899 markers
(from the Porcine SNP 60K BeadChip genotype data) located across the SSC7. The 1-LOD drop method was used
to estimate the CI of the QTL in SSC7 (Figure 2A). The CI was reduced to 2.39 Mb (7:114,409,266~116,803,751).
This region overlaps with a previously reported QTL region that influences pig blood cortisol levels [42-46]. The
2.39 Mb region in SSC7 encompassed 24 annotated genes with 14,337 DNA markers in the *Sus scrofa* 11.1
genome and imputed genotype dataset (Figure 2B, 2C).

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# 248 Further Bayesian fine-mapping for identifying novel positional candidate gene(s) for serum cortisol levels

249 To further refine the critical region harbouring causative genes, we conducted fine-mapping of the 2.39 Mb region 250 identified by the LALD analysis using the FINEMAP program. To enhance the fine-mapping accuracy for 251 identifying putative causal genes, we first selected DNA markers located within the 24 positional candidate genes 252 in the critical region based on the GWAS results. For each positional candidate gene, we retained only the DNA 253 marker with the lowest *p*-value. Subsequently, we manually chose 297 DNA markers evenly distributed across 254 the 2.39 Mb region. We then pruned these DNA markers using the linkage disequilibrium (LD) pruning option in 255 the PLINK program, resulting in 17 DNA markers evenly distributed throughout the 2.39 Mb critical region. 256 Hence, a total of 41 DNA markers were included in the Bayesian fine-mapping analysis. No single DNA marker

257 showed a substantial posterior probability (greater than 0.5) in the critical region (Table 4). DNA markers 258 demonstrated low to medium levels of posterior probability, ranging from 0.066 to 0.116. This was most likely 259 due to the modest sample size (N=243) of the  $F_2$  cohort. Nevertheless, our Bayesian fine-mapping approach 260 allowed us to prioritize potential causal genes. While we acknowledge the limitations of our study, including the 261 moderate sample size and the inability to pinpoint specific causal variants, the fine-mapping approach has enabled 262 us to create a prioritized list of potential causal candidate genes. This list provides valuable direction for 263 subsequent studies, demonstrating the usefulness of fine-mapping even in situations where definitive causal 264 variant identification is not achieved. For example, the most significant QTL region, explained by 34 variants in 265 Table 3, spans only 9.083 bp. This narrow region contains just two genes: SERPINA6 and SERPINA1. Based 266 solely on the *p*-values obtained from the conventional GWAS, it would be challenging to determine which of 267 these genes should be prioritized for further investigation. However, as shown in Table 4, the posterior 268 probabilities derived from our fine-mapping analysis allow us to distinguish between SERPINA6 and SERPINA1, 269 providing a basis for prioritization. Recently, Uemoto et al. reported results of GWAS and LALD analysis on 270 Landrace pigs [22]. While our study shares similarities with their study, employing both GWAS and LALD 271 approaches, major differences underscore the novelty of our work. We used whole-genome imputed sequence 272 variants instead of a conventional 60K SNP chip, providing comprehensive genomic coverage including rare and 273 novel variants. In addition, we applied Bayesian fine-mapping to prioritize potential causal candidate genes, rather 274 than presenting a conventional list of positional candidates. This approach allowed for more precise localization 275 and prioritization of potential causal genes and variants.

276 In this critical region, SERPINA6, a gene encoding corticosteroid-binding globulin (CBG), has been 277 proposed as a putative causal gene accounting for this QTL effect [34]. A p.Arg307Gly (c.919T>C) substitution 278 in SERPINA6 was previously shown to increase CBG capacity and decrease CBG affinity for cortisol in vitro 279 [47,48]. These findings suggest that SERPINA6 is a positional and functional candidate gene for the QTL 280 associated with blood cortisol levels in pigs. However, the fine-mapping results based on posterior probability 281 ranked the top five genes as SERPINA1, ITPK1, CLMN, SERPINA12, and PRIMA1 genes, all with higher posterior 282 probability than SERPINA6 (Table 4). In this study, we could not evaluate the p.Arg307Gly (c.919T>C) 283 substitution in SERPINA6 because the corresponding variant at position 7:115541678 was not present among the 284 14,337 DNA markers initially considered for the fine-mapping.

*SERPINA1*, which encodes alpha-1 antitrypsin, inhibits neutrophil elastase and regulates cortisol secretion by influencing CBG cleavage and subsequent reconfiguration of the reactive center loop [49]. Heterozygosity of *SERPINA1* mutations leads to alpha-1 antitrypsin deficiency and CBG cleavage, thereby increasing the free cortisol fraction [50]. Intracellular inositol triphosphate (IP<sub>3</sub>) is involved in various signal 289 transduction pathways that affect cellular metabolisms [51]. Increased IP<sub>3</sub> levels can trigger cortisol secretion by 290 the adrenal zona fasciculate cells [52].  $IP_3$  is produced by PIP<sub>2</sub> hydrolysis, and ITPK1 synthesizes  $IP_4$ ,  $IP_5$ , and 291 IP<sub>6</sub>. Hence, *ITPK1* polymorphisms could potentially affect inositol metabolism, which may be associated with 292 cortisol secretion via the inositol pathways. CLMN, which encodes a calponin-like transmembrane domain protein, 293 regulates cell cycle exit and neurite outgrowth in murine neuroblastoma cells. Genetic variants of CLMN may 294 influence synaptic function and organization, resulting in the HPA axis [53,54]. SERPINA12, also known as 295 VASPIN, is an adipokine belonging to the serpin protein family. Cortisol plays an important role in adipose tissue 296 by influencing adipokine expression, insulin sensitivity, and fatty acid metabolism [55]. PRIMA1 encodes Proline-297 Rich Membrane Anchor 1 protein, which is required for anchoring of acetylcholinesterase to neuronal synapses. 298 Acetylcholin, a product of acetylcholinesterase, is released in response to stress, and activates the HPA axis, which 299 is linked to cortisol production [56]. However, there is still a paucity of direct genetic evidence on the effects of 300 CLMN and PRIMA1 on blood cortisol levels.

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# CONCLUSION

303 The intensification of housing environments and the impact of climate change on current production systems have 304 negatively impacted the breeding and growth of pigs. The cortisol level is an important indicator of stress 305 resistance and robustness in pigs. This hormone levels in pigs could indicate environmental stress, potentially 306 intensified by climate change. Rising temperatures and erratic weather patterns increase heat stress, alter food and 307 water availability, and expose livestock to new pathogens, elevating cortisol and affecting animal health and 308 productivity. Studying cortisol levels in pig populations like the KNP and its crossbreeds can provide insights into 309 their adaptation to changing environments [57]. To elucidate the molecular genetic basis of breeding robustness, 310 we identified QTLs affecting basal serum cortisol levels using imputed whole-genome sequencing data-based 311 GWAS, LALD analysis, and Bayesian fine-mapping approaches. This study identified novel positional candidate 312 genes (SERPINA1, ITPK1, CLMN, SERPINA12, and PRIMA1) in addition to the previously known SERPINA6. 313 Our results provide a basic understanding for the development of genetic markers to improve the robustness of 314 pigs. 315 Acknowledgments

316

#### 317 Not applicable

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# **Tables and Figures**

477	Table 1. Basic statistics for the phenotypic data in the DK $F_2$ pig
477	Table 1. Basic statistics for the phenotypic data in the DK F <sub>2</sub> pig

Phenotype	Total	Ν	*N	Mean	StDev	Min	Max	$h^2$
Cortisol (ng/mL)	243	234	9	21.18	12.46	2.30	63.90	0.32

478	*Number of individuals with missing phenotypes; $h^2$ : heritability.

Chromosome	Total variants	Mean r <sup>2</sup>	Pass	Pass mean r <sup>2</sup>
1	2,144,560	0.629	1,357,945	0.963
2	1,478,956	0.653	974,485	0.962
3	1,393,829	0.591	832,824	0.960
4	1,366,608	0.701	967,277	0.971
5	1,098,829	0.656	728,091	0.965
6	1,566,762	0.652	1,033,019	0.965
7	1,323,022	0.669	893,604	0.966
8	1,515,476	0.719	1,100,848	0.970
9	1,578,875	0.607	965,412	0.968
10	1,004,923	0.725	735,704	0.971
11	978,320	0.667	658,497	0.971
12	755,615	0.636	484,594	0.968
13	1,781,238	0.706	1,268,266	0.971
14	1,358,977	0.674	922,556	0.968
15	1,263,992	0.663	844,095	0.970
16	1,034,235	0.712	743,793	0.969
17	805,850	0.653	530,034	0.968
18	679,890	0.731	500,994	0.969
Total	23,129,957	0.669	15,542,038	0.968

482 Table 2. Evaluation of the genotype imputation accuracy.

483 Total\_variants: total number of imputed and genotyped variants per chromosome; Mean r<sup>2</sup>: average r<sup>2</sup> of all SNPs; Pass:

1

 $484 \qquad \text{number of variants with } r^2 > 0.6; \text{ Pass mean } r^2: \text{ average } r^2 \text{ of variants after filtering out genotypes with } r^2 < 0.6; \text{ Pass mean } r^2: \text{ average } r^2 \text{ of variants after filtering out genotypes with } r^2 < 0.6; \text{ Pass mean } r^2: \text{ average } r^2 \text{ of variants after filtering out genotypes with } r^2 < 0.6; \text{ Pass mean } r^2: \text{ average } r^2 \text{ of variants after filtering out genotypes } r^2 < 0.6; \text{ Pass mean } r^2: r^2 \text{ of variants after filtering out genotypes } r^2 < 0.6; \text{ Pass mean } r^2: r^2 \text{ of variants after filtering out genotypes } r^2 < 0.6; \text{ Pass mean } r^2: r^2 \text{ of variants after filtering out genotypes } r^2 < 0.6; \text{ Pass mean } r^2: r^2 \text{ of variants after filtering out genotypes } r^2 < 0.6; \text{ Pass mean } r^2: r^2 \text{ of variants after filtering out genotypes } r^2 < 0.6; \text{ Pass mean } r^2: r^2 \text{ of variants after filtering out genotypes } r^2 < 0.6; \text{ Pass mean } r^2: r^2 \text{ of variants after filtering out genotypes } r^2 < 0.6; \text{ Pass mean } r^2: r^2 \text{ of variants after filtering out genotypes } r^2 < 0.6; \text{ Pass mean } r^2: r^2 \text{ of variants after filtering out genotypes } r^2 < 0.6; \text{ Pass mean } r^2: r^2 \text{ of variants after filtering out genotypes } r^2 < 0.6; \text{ Pass mean } r^2: r^2 \text{ of variants after filtering out genotypes } r^2 < 0.6; \text{ Pass mean } r^2: r^2 \text{ of variants after filtering out genotypes } r^2 < 0.6; \text{ Pass mean } r^2: r^2 \text{ of variants after filtering out genotypes } r^2 < 0.6; \text{ Pass mean } r^2: r^2 \text{ of variants after filtering out genotypes } r^2 < 0.6; \text{ Pass mean } r^2: r^2 \text{ of variants after filtering out genotypes } r^2 < 0.6; \text{ Pass mean } r^2: r^2 \text{ of variants after filtering out genotypes } r^2 < 0.6; \text{ Pass mean } r^2: r^2 \text{ of variants after filtering out genotypes } r^2 < 0.6; \text{ Pass mean } r^2: r^2 \text{ of variants after filtering out genotypes } r^2 < 0.6; \text{ Pass mean } r^2 > 0.6$ 

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487 Table 3. Summary of the QTL affecting serum cortisol identified by the GWAS

<sup>1</sup> SSC	$^{2}N_{snp}$	<sup>3</sup> Interval (Mb)	Centered SNP	Effect	<sup>4</sup> SE	<sup>5</sup> %var	<i>p</i> -value	<sup>6</sup> q-value
7	34	115575190- 115584273	7:115580597	0.3216	0.0643	12.65	1.13E-06	0.0398

 $\frac{488}{489} \frac{^{1}Sus \ scrofa \ chromosome, \ ^{2}number \ of \ SNPs \ included \ in \ interval, \ ^{3}range \ of \ N_{snp}, \ ^{4}standard \ error, \ ^{5}percentage \ of \ phenotypic \ variance \ explained \ by \ the \ centered \ SNPs, \ ^{6}FDR-based \ q-value$ 

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#### Table 4. Positional candidate genes and posterior probabilities for significant variants in SSC7 Bayesian fine-

mapping approach

<sup>1</sup> Marker	Position	Effect	<sup>2</sup> SE	<sup>3</sup> %var	<i>p</i> -value	<sup>4</sup> q-value	<sup>5</sup> Gene	<sup>6</sup> Annotation	<sup>7</sup> P.P
7:115583990	115583990	0.322	0.064	0.127	1.13E-06	0.040	SERPINA1	3' UTR variant	0.116
7:114409265	114409265	-0.289	0.061	0.103	4.02E-06	0.047	ITPK1	intron variant	0.094
7:116490750	116490750	-0.299	0.061	0.111	1.92E-06	0.040	CLMN	intron variant	0.091
7:115727874	115727874	0.307	0.064	0.115	3.07E-06	0.040	SERPINA12	intron variant	0.084
7:115045439	115045439	-0.298	0.062	0.110	2.33E-06	0.040	PRIMA1	intron variant	0.083
7:115802806	115802806	-0.302	0.061	0.113	1.55E-06	0.040	SERPINA5	intron variant	0.077
7:115792190	115792190	-0.302	0.061	0.113	1.55E-06	0.040	SERPINA4	3' UTR variant	0.077
7:115342222	115342222	0.300	0.064	0.110	4.49E-06	0.048	DDX24	intron variant	0.075
7:115280790	115280790	0.300	0.064	0.110	4.49E-06	0.048	CCDC197	5' UTR variant	0.075
7:115023328	115023328	-0.294	0.061	0.107	2.72E-06	0.040	UNC79	intron variant	0.074
7:115667344	115667344	-0.298	0.061	0.110	1.82E-06	0.040	SERPINA11	intron variant	0.074
7:115554168	115554168	-0.298	0.061	0.110	1.82E-06	0.040	SERPINA6	open chromatin	0.073
7:115314601	115314601	-0.292	0.061	0.106	2.61E-06	0.040	OTUB2	intron variant	0.066

<sup>1</sup>Marker ID, <sup>2</sup>standard error, <sup>3</sup>percentage of phenotypic variance explained by the marker, <sup>4</sup>FDR based *q*-value, <sup>5</sup>positional candidate gene,

<sup>6</sup>ENSEMBL variant annotation, <sup>7</sup>posterior probability of the marker to be causal.







502 Figure 1. Whole-genome imputed sequence association analysis for serum cortisol levels in the DK cross. The



504 plot (Genomic inflation factor=1.032)



513 Figure 2. Fine-mapping analysis of QTL for serum cortisol levels on SSC7. A. LALD analyses B. Positional

- 514 candidate genes in the 1-LOD interval (2.39 Mb) region. C. IntAssoPlot for the 1-LOD interval (2.39 Mb)
- 515 region.
- 516