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Tese

**Associações de mutações genéticas com a fertilidade, produção de leite,
metabolismo e saúde de vacas leiteiras**

Pedro Augusto Silva Silveira

Pelotas, 2018

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metabolismo e saúde de vacas leiteiras**

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Resumo

SILVEIRA, Pedro Augusto Silva. **Associações de mutações genéticas com a fertilidade, produção de leite, metabolismo e saúde de vacas leiteiras.** 2018. 97f. Tese (Doutorado em Ciências) - Programa de Pós-Graduação em Veterinária, Faculdade de Veterinária, Universidade Federal de Pelotas, Pelotas, 2018.

A seleção genética de bovinos leiteiros muito tem contribuído para o aumento dos índices produtivos da pecuária leiteira no Brasil e no mundo. Por outro lado, o incremento na produção leiteira tem aumentado alguns transtornos metabólicos do periparto das vacas, reduzindo a fertilidade após o parto. Além disso, a magnitude das respostas imune e algumas citocinas inflamatórias podem impactar negativamente o retorno das vacas a ciclicidade no início da fase de lactação. Neste sentido, os polimorfismos de nucleotídeo único (SNPs) são mutações genéticas causadoras de diferenças biológicas, sendo comumente associados a alterações de interesse produtivo e econômico para o melhoramento animal. Sendo assim, buscou-se avaliar a associação de mutações genéticas com a fertilidade, produção de leite, metabolismo e saúde de vacas da raça Holandês. No primeiro estudo foi avaliada a associação de mutações no promotor do gene da Paraoxonase 1 (*PON1*) com a atividade plasmática desta enzima, fertilidade, ingestão de matéria-seca, metabolismo, produção leiteira e saúde no periparto. Em seguida, foi avaliada a associação de mutações em genes do sistema imune e ligados ao transporte de energia celular com a fertilidade, produção leiteira e ingestão alimentar, metabolismo e saúde de vacas leiteiras. Por fim, foi avaliada a associação de mutações em genes relacionados ao eixo somatotrópico com a fertilidade, produção leiteira e metabolismo pós-parto. Os SNPs no promotor do gene da *PON1* tiveram efeito sobre a atividade da enzima no plasma, assim como SNPs nos genes do receptor do hormônio do crescimento (*GHR*) e fator de crescimento semelhante a insulina (*IGF-I*) impactaram os níveis de IGF-I no sangue. Os SNPs *PON1* -221, *PON1* -392, fator de necrose tumoral alfa (*TNF- α*), receptor tipo toll 4 (*TLR-4*), coenzima 9 (*COQ9*), *IGF-I* e a interação entre *GHR/IGF-I* tiveram efeito no intervalo parto-concepção. Além disso os SNPs *PON1* -22, *PON1* -221 e *COQ9* tiveram efeito na contagem de células somáticas e o SNP *TNF- α* teve efeito sobre os níveis circulantes de ácidos graxos não-esterificados (NEFA). Ainda, o SNP *COQ9* foi associado com a ingestão de matéria-seca pré-parto e a mutação no *IGF-I* teve efeito nos níveis circulantes de beta-hidroxibutirato (BHBA). Portanto, as mutações nos genes *PON1*, *TNF- α* , *TLR-4*, *COQ9* e *IGF-I*, relacionadas a maior atividade da *PON1*, maiores níveis plasmáticos de IGF-I e menores níveis de NEFA e BHBA tiveram impacto no intervalo parto-concepção, sem afetar a produção de leite.

Palavras-chave: balanço energético negativo; inflamação; SNP

Abstract

SILVEIRA, Pedro Augusto Silva. **Association between genetic mutations and fertility, milk production, metabolism and health of dairy cows.** 2018. 97f. Thesis (Doctor degree in Sciences) - Programa de Pós-Graduação em Veterinária, Faculdade de Veterinária, Universidade Federal de Pelotas, Pelotas, 2018.

The genetic selection of dairy cattle has greatly contributed to the increase of the productive indexes of dairy cattle in Brazil and around the world. On the other hand, the increase in milk production has contributed to some metabolic disorders in peripartum of cows, reducing fertility after calving. In addition, the magnitude of immune responses and inflammatory cytokine may negatively impact the return to early cyclicity lactation of dairy cows. In this sense, single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) are genetic mutations that cause biological differences of productive and economic interest for animal breeding. Thus, we aimed to evaluate the association of genetic mutations with fertility, milk production, metabolism and health of Holstein cows. In the first study, the association of mutations in the Paraoxonase 1 (*PON1*) gene promoter with the plasma activity of this enzyme, fertility, dry matter intake, metabolism, milk production and health in the peripartum were evaluated. Next, we evaluated the association of mutations in genes of the immune system and linked to the transport of cellular energy with fertility, milk production, feed intake, metabolism and health of dairy cows. Finally, we evaluated the association of mutations in genes related to the somatotropic axis with fertility, milk production and postpartum metabolism. SNPs in the *PON1* gene promoter had an effect on the activity of the enzyme in plasma, as well as SNPs in the growth hormone receptor (*GHR*) and insulin like growth factor I (*IGF-I*) genes impacted blood IGF-I levels. The SNPs *PON1* -221, *PON1*-392, tumor necrosis factor alpha (*TNF- α*), toll-like receptor 4 (*TLR-4*), coenzyme 9 (*COQ9*), *IGF-I* and the interaction between *GHR/IGF-I* had an effect on the calving conception interval. In addition, the SNPs *PON1* -22, *PON1* -221 and *COQ9* had an effect on milk somatic cell count and the *TNF- α* SNP had an effect on serum non-esterified fatty acids (NEFA) levels. Also, *COQ9* SNP was associated with prepartum dry matter intake and the *IGF-I* mutation had an effect on serum beta-hidroxibutirate (BHBA). Therefore, the mutations in the genes *PON1*, *TNF- α* , *TLR-4*, *COQ9* and *IGF-I*, related to higher *PON1* activity, higher plasma levels of IGF-I and lower levels of NEFA and BHBA had an impact on the calving to conception interval, without affecting milk production.

Keywords: negative energy balance; inflammation; SNP

Lista de Figuras

Figura 1	Ativação do sistema imune por ácidos graxos não-esterificados, lipopolissacarídeos de membrana e citocinas (adaptado de BRADFORD et al., 2015)	16
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Artigo 1

Figura 1	Schematic presentation of the tetra-primer ARMS-PCR method.....	40
Figura 2	Survival analysis of the effects on calving to conception interval (CCI) for the three genotypes of <i>PON1</i> -221 (A), <i>PON1</i> -221 AA + AG vs GG (B) and <i>PON1</i> -392 (C).....	41
Figura 3	Survival analysis of the effect of cows with high or low <i>PON1</i> in the postpartum (A) and prepartum (B) period on calving to conception interval (CCI).....	42
Figura 4	Effect of <i>PON1</i> -22 and <i>PON1</i> -221 on SCC in periparturient Holstein dairy cows	43
Figura 5	SNP <i>PON1</i> -221 Genotyping by ARMS-PCR.....	44
Figura 6	SNP <i>PON1</i> -221 Genotyping by <i>Bsll</i>	44

Artigo 2

Figura 1	Survival analysis of the effect of SNPs in TNF- α , TLR-4 and COQ9 genes on calving to conception interval (CCI).....	62
Figura 2.	Effect of TNF- α genotypes on NEFA in periparturient Holstein dairy cows.....	63
Figura 3.	Effect of COQ9 genotypes on SCC in periparturient Holstein dairy cows	63

Artigo 3

Figura 1	Days until ovulation for <i>IGF-I SnaBI</i>	79
Figura 2	Pregnancy rate for <i>IGF-I SnaBI</i>	79

Lista de Tabelas

Artigo 1

Tabela 1	Single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) identified in the promoter region of the bovine paraoxonase 1 (<i>PON1</i>) gene and their association with serum PON1 activity in periparturient Holstein dairy cows.....	36
Tabela 2	Association of single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) in the <i>PON1</i> promoter region with calving to conception interval (CCI) postpartum in Holstein dairy cows	38

Artigo 2

Tabela 1	Association of single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) in <i>TNF-α</i> , <i>TLR-4</i> and <i>COQ9</i> genes with fertility postpartum and feed intake in the pre-and postpartum period in Holstein dairy cows.....	61
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Artigo 3

Tabela 1	Parameters evaluated for <i>IGF-I SnaBI</i> genotypes.....	76
Tabela 2	Parameters evaluated for <i>STAT5A BstEII</i> genotypes.....	77
Tabela 3	Reproductive parameters, blood concentrations metabolites and milk production and composition for cows with combined genotypes (<i>GHR</i> and <i>IGF-I</i>). 0, 1, 2 and 3 + 4 indicate the presence of neither or a growing combination of favorable alleles for this two genes.....	78

Lista de Abreviaturas e Siglas

AI	Inseminação artificial
ApoAI	Apolipoproteína AI
ARMS	Amplification refractory mutation system
BHBA	Beta-Hidroxibutirato
bp	Pares de bases nitrogenadas
CCI	Intervalo parto-concepção
COQ9	Coenzima Q9
DIM	Dias em lactação
dL	Decilitros
DNA	Ácido desoxirribonucleico
DTO	Dias até a ovulação
EDTA	Etilenodiaminotetracético
ESR1	Receptor do estradiol
FAO	Organização das Nações Unidas para Agricultura e Alimentação
g	Gramas
GH	Hormônio do Crescimento
GHR	Receptor do hormônio do crescimento
GnRH	Hormônio liberador de gonadotrofina
h	Horas
HCl	Ácido clorídrico
HDL	Lipoproteína de alta densidade
IGF-I	Fator do crescimento semelhante a insulina
IGFIR	Receptor do IGF-I
IL	Interleucina
IVF	Fertilização in vitro

JAK	Tirosina quinases da família Janus Kinase
kg	Quilos
L	Litros
LH	Hormônio luteinizante
LPS	Lipopolissacarídeos de membrana
mg	Miligramas
min	Minutos
ml	Mililitros
mmol	Milimolar
mRNA	Ácido ribonucleico mensageiro
NEFA	Ácidos graxos não esterificados
ng	Nanogramas
NGS	Next generation system
P4	Progesterona
PCR	Reação em cadeia da polimerase
PFA	Proteína de fase aguda
PON1	Paraoxonase 1
QTL	Quantitative trait loci
RFLP	Restriction fragment length polymorphism
ROS	Espécies reativas de oxigênio
SCC	Contagem de células somáticas do leite
secs	Segundos
SEM	Erro padrão da média
SNP	Single nucleotide polymorphism
STAT5A	Signal transducers and activators of transcription 5A
TAE	Tampão tris borato EDTA
TLR-4	Receptor tipo toll 4
TNF- α	Tumor necrosis factor α
Tris	Trisaminometano
U	Unidades internacionais
umol	Micromolar
USA	Estados Unidos da América
USDA	Departamento de agricultura dos Estados Unidos

Sumário

1 Introdução.....	12
2 Objetivos.....	19
2.1 Objetivo geral.....	19
2.2 Objetivos específicos.....	19
3 Artigos.....	20
3.1 Artigo 1.....	20
3.2 Artigo 2.....	45
3.3 Artigo 3.....	64
4 Considerações finais.....	80
Referências.....	81

1 Introdução

A produção mundial de alimentos lácteos vem aumentando com o passar dos anos, acompanhando o crescimento da população mundial. O leite, além de ser considerado fonte de nutrientes essenciais para a alimentação humana, também tem impacto sobre a economia da maioria dos países, principalmente países considerados em desenvolvimento e baseados na agricultura familiar. A produção mundial de leite aumentou mais de 50% nas últimas três décadas, alcançando a marca de 831 milhões de toneladas em 2017 (FAO, 2017). No Brasil, a produção de leite esteve em sintonia com o desenvolvimento econômico do país.

O Brasil possui o maior rebanho comercial de bovinos do mundo, contando com aproximadamente 220 milhões de animais em 2017, dos quais 23% (52 milhões) constituem o efetivo da pecuária leiteira (USDA, 2017). Cerca de 24 milhões de vacas, pertencentes a 1,4 milhão de produtores, produziram cerca de 34 bilhões de litros de leite, em 2017, colocando o país na quinta colocação no ranking mundial de produção leiteira (USDA, 2017). Contudo, a pecuária leiteira nacional ainda é caracterizada pela baixa produtividade dos rebanhos, visto que o aumento do volume de leite produzido ao longo dos anos ocorreu, em grande parte, devido ao aumento do número de vacas ordenhadas e não por melhoria de produtividade. Porém, fatores como a elevação do valor da terra, fim da fronteira agrícola e aumento nos custos de produção da pecuária leiteira nos últimos anos têm conduzido a cadeia produtiva do leite à um cenário de alternativas e novas tecnologias para o aumento da produtividade por vaca e por hectare.

A seleção genética de bovinos, que historicamente vem sendo realizada através da manutenção de indivíduos com fenótipo desejável como pais para as gerações subseqüentes, cada vez mais abre espaço para novas tecnologias de seleção genética como a genotipagem, mapeamento genético e seleção assistida por marcadores. Marcadores moleculares ou genéticos são alterações do DNA que surgem com a própria evolução da espécie, como efeito de mutações, ou por introgressão de genes de outras raças ou linhagens na população, podendo acarretar mudanças de algumas de suas características fenotípicas.

Os primeiros trabalhos para desenvolver e caracterizar marcadores moleculares para espécies de interesse zootécnico datam do início dos anos 80. As primeiras publicações relatam resultados de estudos de caracterização de marcadores RFLP em suínos e bovinos (BECKMANN et al., 1986; GEORGES et al., 1987).

Nos últimos 25 anos, o estudo dos marcadores genéticos tem ajudado a mapear um grande número de loci de características quantitativas (QTLs, do inglês *Quantitative Trait Loci*), ou seja, as regiões do genoma responsáveis por uma fração da variância genética de uma característica. Isto abre caminho para a seleção assistida por marcadores genético/moleculares. Um marcador genético é uma sequência polimórfica facilmente identificada no genoma, sendo amplamente utilizados em estudos genéticos. Recentemente, com o desenvolvimento de novos equipamentos e processos de análises, novas metodologias de alto desempenho e acurácia, e baixo custo e mão-de-obra para prospecção, caracterização e genotipagem de polimorfismos de um nucleotídeo (SNP, do inglês, Single Nucleotide Polymorphism) têm se tornado disponíveis. Essas tecnologias trouxeram novas implicações para técnicas já solidificadas, possibilitando a seleção genômica de animais mais eficientes, além de facilitar o entendimento da relação entre genética e as diferentes subáreas da produção animal. Os marcadores SNP têm como base as alterações mais elementares da molécula de DNA, ou seja, mutações em bases únicas da cadeia de bases nitrogenadas (Adenina, Citosina, Timina e Guanina). A maioria das características de interesse econômico em bovinos é controlada por vários genes. Entretanto, alguns desses genes apresentam um maior controle sobre o fenótipo expresso. A presença de SNPs nesses genes candidatos pode estar associada com fenótipos de interesse ou características indesejáveis.

Desde a conclusão do projeto genoma humano em 2003, observa-se um enorme progresso nas tecnologias de sequenciamento do genoma, levando a uma diminuição do custo por megabase e ao aumento do número e da diversidade dos genomas sequenciados. Uma complexidade surpreendente da arquitetura do genoma foi revelada, trazendo à tona novos enfoques para a predição de efeitos biológicos atrelados às diferenças individuais no DNA (GOODWIN et al., 2016). Algumas abordagens maximizam o número de bases sequenciadas na menor quantidade de tempo, gerando uma riqueza de dados que podem ser usados para entender fenômenos cada vez mais complexos. Alternativamente, algumas metodologias agora

visam o sequenciamento de partes contíguas mais longas, que são essenciais para a resolução de regiões estruturalmente complexas. Estas e outras estratégias apresentam uma variedade de ferramentas para investigar os genomas em maior profundidade, levando a uma compreensão aprimorada de como as variantes da sequência do genoma estão subjacentes ao fenótipo e às características produtivas de interesse (GOODWIN et al., 2016).

O lançamento da primeira plataforma de sequenciamento verdadeiramente de alto rendimento, conhecido como next generation system, em meados dos anos 2000, anunciou uma queda de 50.000 vezes no custo do sequenciamento do genoma humano (KIRCHER e KELSO, 2010). A partir daí, passou a ser possível a avaliação do genoma inteiro de diversas espécies. Além disto, a introdução da seleção genômica tornou viável a avaliação de animais, quanto ao seu mérito genético, logo após o nascimento. As decisões de seleção tomadas no início da vida do animal, em vez de testes de progênie prolongados, reduzem o intervalo de geração e, portanto, levam ao aumento significativo do ganho genético anual. Atualmente, é possível a genotipagem de dezenas de milhares até um milhão de SNPs em um único ensaio, levando os custos de geração de dados de US\$0,10 a US\$0,001 por SNP genotipado. Chips de genotipagem de alta densidade já foram gerados e validados para humanos, bovinos, ovinos, equinos, suínos e caninos, contendo até 777,000 SNPs para genotipagem de bovinos. Em algumas espécies, novos chips, contendo maiores números de SNPs já estão em desenvolvimento, refletindo o uso extenso que a tecnologia tem alcançado. Porém, a despeito de todo o avanço no potencial de avaliação do DNA, estudos que avaliem os efeitos de genes candidatos sobre características econômicas de interesse são cada vez mais necessários, assim como a identificação de SNPs com potencial de melhorar o potencial preditivo da seleção por marcadores genômicos. É possível que diferenças genéticas entre os animais interfiram na melhor adaptação ao fim da fase de gestação e início do processo de lactação, período marcado por grandes alterações metabólicas com impacto sobre a produção leiteira e reprodução de vacas leiteiras (BUTLER, 2000).

Mais do que uma fase de repouso entre lactações, o período seco nas vacas leiteiras cursa com um crescimento fetal considerável, remodelação do tecido mamário e altas demandas nutricionais. O reconhecimento da importância do período desde o final da gestação até a fase inicial da lactação levou ao desenvolvimento do conceito de período de transição, que é comumente definido como o período de três

semanas antes a três semanas após o parto (DRACKLEY, 1999). A demanda nutricional do feto atinge níveis máximos três semanas antes do parto, porém a ingestão de matéria seca diminui em 10 a 30% neste período (BELL, 1995). Dentro de três semanas após o início da lactação ocorre um rápido aumento na produção leiteira, além do aumento na produção de proteínas, gordura e lactose do leite, excedendo o aporte de nutrientes via ingestão alimentar (BERTONI et al., 2008). Além disso, a dieta da maioria das vacas leiteiras muda bruscamente no parto, sendo principalmente de dietas à base de forragem no pré-parto para dietas a base de concentrados no pós-parto. A produção de leite pós-parto e as adaptações nutricionais necessárias induzem um estado fisiológico de balanço energético negativo (BEN) (BEAM e BUTLER, 1998; BUTLER et al., 2003). Nos últimos tempos, o melhoramento genético e a melhoria da nutrição aumentaram a produção de leite por vaca. No entanto, o aumento da produção de leite foi acompanhado por uma diminuição da fertilidade em muitos países (BUTLER, 1998). As taxas de prenhez após a inseminação diminuíram de 0,45% a 1% anualmente nos rebanhos do Reino Unido e da América do Norte (BUTLER, 1998; ROYAL et al., 2000; DOBSON et al., 2007). Isto indica uma relação de antagonismo entre produção leiteira e reprodução (VANRADEN et al., 2004; CHAGAS et al., 2007; LUCY, 2007; MCCARTHY et al., 2007; MEE, 2007).

A produção de leite e desempenho reprodutivo são os barômetros econômicos da atividade leiteira. A eficiência reprodutiva determina o descarte de vacas e doenças como infecção uterina contribuem indiretamente para as elevadas taxas de descarte involuntário (GROHN et al., 2003). Compreender o papel-chave da resposta imune de vacas em transição pode ajudar a explicar os vínculos entre essas diversas condições. A nível molecular, a ativação de mecanismos locais e sistêmicos de defesa do hospedeiro induzem inflamação. Além disso, alterações significativas da expressão gênica ocorrem como uma adaptação às demandas de lactação, manutenção e involução uterina. Uma série de moléculas de sinalização são liberadas por células imunes ativadas, incluindo mediadores inflamatórios, como prostaglandinas e citocinas (Figura 1). Normalmente, as vacas demonstram sinais de alterações inflamatórias típicas antes do parto (BIONAZ et al., 2007; TREVISI et al., 2012). As citocinas desempenham um papel fundamental na estimulação das respostas inflamatórias sistêmicas, incluindo aumento da temperatura corporal e frequência cardíaca, e diminuição da ingestão alimentar (DANTZER e KELLEY, 2007). Além disso, dada a interação entre os sistemas imune, endócrino e metabólico

(STOFKOVA, 2009; PITTMAN, 2011), a diminuição da competência imune no parto aumenta a susceptibilidade ao hospedeiro em relação a infecções (TREVISI et al., 2012).

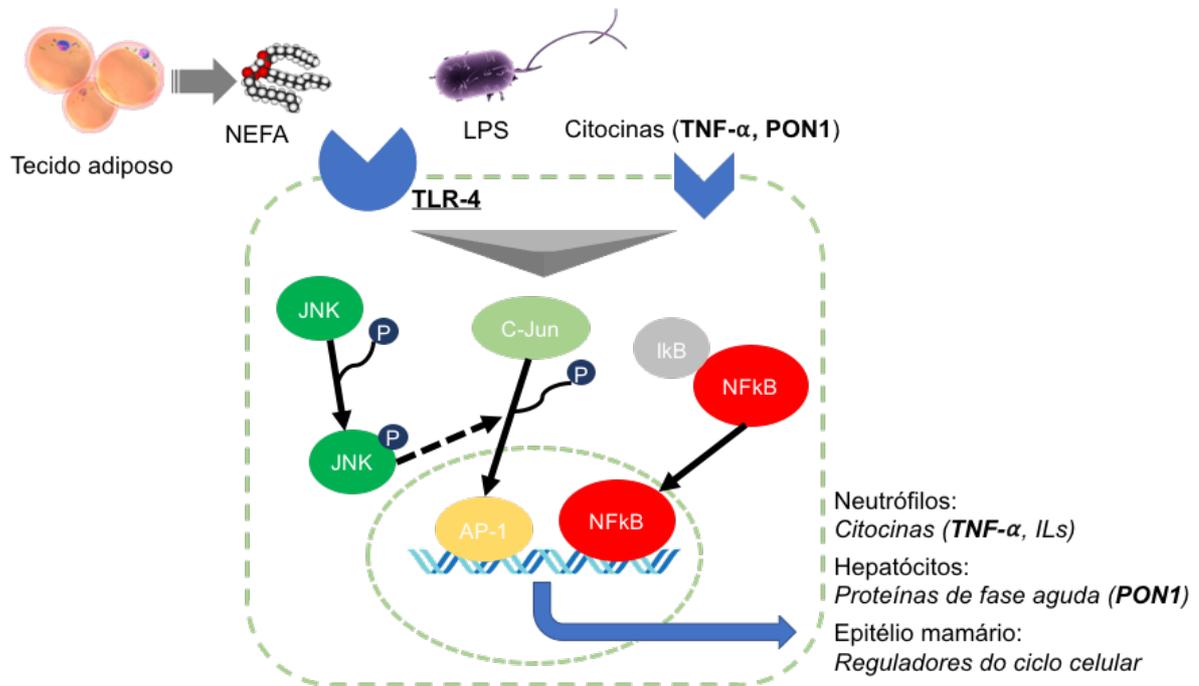


Figura 1. Ativação do sistema imune por ácidos graxos não-esterificados, lipopolissacarídeos de membrana e citocinas (adaptado de BRADFORD et al., 2015).

As condições fisiológicas das vacas ao parto associadas a um fornecimento de energia insuficiente predis põem esses animais a doenças metabólicas e microbianas, como febre do leite, endometrite, cetose, deslocamento de abomaso e retenção de placenta (DRACKLEY, 1999; DUFFIELD, 2000). O papel da resposta inflamatória no declínio da fertilidade ainda não é totalmente conhecido, dada a variedade de efeitos em vários processos fisiológicos envolvidos. Uma melhor compreensão das vias inflamatórias que desempenham um papel importante na função imune normal, metabolismo e reprodução pode melhorar a capacidade de prever e prevenir distúrbios da transição da vaca.

O processo inflamatório, iniciado através de uma agressão tecidual localizada, pode evoluir até uma resposta sistêmica mediada por citocinas como TNF-α, IL-1 e IL-6. A partir dessas mudanças, algumas proteínas de fase aguda (PFA) irão apresentar atividade aumentada enquanto outras terão sua síntese e atuação reduzidas. Devido a estes eventos ocorrerem antes mesmo da resposta específica ao

agente causador ou ao início dos sinais clínicos, as PFAs são consideradas marcadores metabólicos, auxiliando na detecção antecipada de processos patológicos e doenças subclínicas, de difícil diagnóstico. A Paraoxonase 1 (PON1), uma PFA negativa, reduz os seus níveis circulantes após danos teciduais e quebra de lipopolissacarídeos de membrana (LPS) (CAMPOS et al., 2017). O estresse oxidativo e a peroxidação lipídica também reduzem os níveis circulantes de PON1 (TURK et al., 2013). Além disto, animais com baixos níveis de PON1 no periparto apresentaram maior ocorrência de metrite e laminite e vacas com maiores níveis de PON1 nesta fase reduziram os riscos de apresentarem quadros graves de inflamação nos primeiros 30 dias em lactação (BIONAZ et al., 2007). Neste mesmo trabalho, os animais doentes já apresentavam níveis reduzidos de PON1 desde o pré-parto, o que sugere que, mais do que um marcador metabólico precoce, a menor atividade desta enzima pode contribuir no desencadeamento de distúrbios patológicos.

Vacas sofrendo de problemas de saúde são as principais candidatas a uma menor fertilidade. Claramente, vacas com uma série de problemas, incluindo parto distócico ou cesariana, manqueiras, endometrites, retenção de placenta, mastite, febre do leite, e baixos escores de condição corporal, têm maiores intervalos parto-concepção ou podem falhar em ficar prenhes (BUTLER, 2000; CHEBEL et al., 2004; BICALHO et al., 2007; DE BOER et al., 2015). Em muitos casos, esses problemas se apresentam de forma combinada. Os receptores do tipo Toll (TLRs) são responsáveis pelo reconhecimento dos patógenos e estimulação da resposta imune (KAWAI e AKIRA, 2010). Já foram identificados vários SNPs em diversos genes TLR, alguns deles sugerem um efeito sobre doenças do trato reprodutivo como metrite, endometrite clínica e endometrite citológica (PINEDO et al., 2013). Além dos efeitos diretos no útero, bactérias, produtos bacterianos ou mediadores imunológicos produzidos em resposta à infecção bacteriana, também suprimem a secreção pituitária de LH e estão associados com a inibição da foliculogênese, com a redução da esteroidogênese ovariana e com fases luteais anormais.

A recuperação da atividade ovariana após o parto apresenta um papel crítico na subsequente fertilidade da vaca (DARWASH et al., 1997). Na maioria das vacas leiteiras os folículos de tamanho médio aparecem 5 dias após o parto e os folículos grandes aparecem 10 dias após o parto (SAVIO et al., 1990). Aproximadamente metade de todas as vacas ovulam dentro de 3 semanas após o parto. Mas na outra metade, o folículo dominante da primeira onda folicular regride e a primeira ovulação

é adiada (MCDUGALL et al., 1995). Formado pelos genes que codificam para a síntese do hormônio do crescimento (GH), fator de crescimento semelhante à insulina I (IGF-I) e seus receptores (GHR e IGF-IR), o eixo GH/IGF-I atua na regulação do metabolismo e fisiologia de mamíferos (JONES e CLEMMONS, 1995).

Logo após o parto, o aumento da utilização de glicose para a síntese de lactose na glândula mamária causa uma redução drástica nos níveis sanguíneos de insulina (BUTLER et al., 2003), com a queda nos níveis de insulina ocorre uma redução na expressão hepática dos receptores do GH (GHRs), especialmente o GHR 1A (BUTLER et al., 2003), que compreende 50% do GHR hepático (JIANG e LUCY, 2001b; JIANG e LUCY, 2001a). Isso irá causar a redução nos níveis séricos de IGF-I (FENWICK et al., 2008) e a dissociação do eixo GH/IGF-I, pois a síntese de IGF-I é dependente da ativação do GHR pelo GH (JONES e CLEMMONS, 1995). Isto leva ao aumento nos níveis circulantes de GH (BUTLER et al., 2003), uma vez que o feedback negativo exercido pelo IGF-I sobre o GH estará diminuído (MULLER et al., 1999).

Esta elevação do nível de GH é benéfica para a produção de leite, pois estimula a lipólise e aumenta a disponibilidade de glicose para a síntese de leite pela glândula mamária (BELL, 1995). Por outro lado, estas moléculas estão relacionadas à ocorrência da primeira ovulação, pois as vacas que apresentam níveis mais altos de IGF-I e níveis mais baixos de GH são as que irão ovular antecipadamente (KAWASHIMA et al., 2007). Desta forma, os genes que codificam para proteínas do eixo somatotrópico têm sido estudados como marcadores para a seleção de animais de produção (BARTKE, 2008). A maior parte do IGF-I sérico é sintetizada no fígado em resposta ao GH agindo através de seu receptor (JIANG e LUCY, 2001b). O IGF-I estimula a proliferação das células da teca e granulosa dos folículos ovarianos (ARMSTRONG e WEBB, 1997), inibindo a atresia folicular (EL-ROEIY et al., 1994). Além disso o IGF-I estimula a resposta das células foliculares à ação das gonadotrofinas (ARMSTRONG e WEBB, 1997). Assim, vacas de leite com atraso no retorno à ciclicidade possuem uma menor concentração sérica de IGF-I em comparação às vacas que ovularam mais precocemente (KAWASHIMA et al., 2007).

2 Objetivos

2.1 Objetivo Geral

Avaliar a associação de mutações genéticas com a fertilidade, produção de leite, metabolismo e saúde de vacas leiteiras.

2.2 Objetivos específicos

Avaliar a associação de mutações no promotor do gene da PON1 com a atividade sérica da PON1, fertilidade, produção leiteira, ingestão alimentar e saúde.

Avaliar a associação de mutações relacionadas ao sistema imune e ao transporte de energia celular com a fertilidade, produção leiteira e ingestão alimentar no periparto.

Avaliar a associação de mutações no eixo somatotrópico com a fertilidade, produção leiteira e metabolismo pós-parto.

3 Artigos

3.1 Artigo 1

Association of polymorphisms in the promoter region of paraoxonase 1 (*PON1*) gene with reproductive performance, health and milk production of Holstein dairy cows

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Association of polymorphisms in the promoter region of paraoxonase 1 (*PON1*) gene with reproductive performance, health and milk production of Holstein dairy cows

Running title: polymorphisms in the promoter of *PON1* gene of dairy cows

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Abstract

The aim of this study was to evaluate the association of single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) in the paraoxonase 1 (*PON1*) promoter region with serum PON1 activity, fertility, energy status, feed intake, occurrence of peripartum diseases and milk production of Holstein dairy cows. Eighty four Holstein cows were used in this study, blood samples were collected weekly before calving, twice a week in the first two weeks of lactation and once a week thereafter for β -hydroxybutyrate (BHBA), non-esterified fatty acids (NEFA) and serum PON1 activity analysis. Daily dietary intake of each cow was measured from 40 days prepartum up to 60 days in milk (DIM) and clinical data and milk production were evaluated up to 60 DIM. Cows were pre-synchronized with two injections of prostaglandin F₂ α followed by timed AI after an Ovsynch program. The pregnancy was confirmed after rectal palpation and reproductive performance data was recorded until 210 DIM. DNA was extracted from the whole blood samples for the PCR reaction and a fragment of 828 bp from the *PON1* gene promoter was sent for sequencing. Also, the SNP -221 genotyping was validated by ARMS-PCR and restriction fragment length polymorphism reaction using the *BsII* enzyme. Seven SNPs were identified in the promoter region of the *PON1* gene, located at positions -22, -105, -176, -221, -392, -611 and -676, considering 1 as the first nucleotide of *PON1* gene first exon, and six of them were associated with serum PON1 activity. The SNPs -221 and -392 were associated with the calving to conception interval (CCI, $P < 0.05$), and the genotypes associated to higher serum

PON1 activity were also associated with shorter CCI. Additionally, the SNPs -22 and -221 had an effect on somatic cell count (SCC) during the first six weeks of lactation ($P < 0.05$). It was possible to identify the three SNP-221 genotypes by ARMS-PCR and by digestion with the *Bs*/I enzyme. Thus, The SNPs -105, -176, -221, -392, -611 and -676 were associated with serum PON1 activity. SNPs in the -221 associated to higher serum PON1 activity, were also associated with shorter CCI and reduced milk SCC.

Keywords: fertility; inflammation; single nucleotide polymorphisms

1. Introduction

In the postpartum period, dairy cows are metabolically challenged, as energy demands exceed dietary intake and cows undergo negative energy balance (NEB) [1], resulting in several metabolic changes [2, 3]. The NEB severity and duration impairs the recovery of postpartum ovarian cyclicity and increases the calving conception interval, where cows with higher levels of non-esterified fatty acids (NEFA), β -hydroxybutyrate (BHBA) and greater loss of body condition score (BCS) have reduced fertility [2, 4]. In a scenario of increased serum levels of NEFA and BHBA from lipolysis, the hepatic metabolism is essential for adaptation to NEB [2, 5]. Intensification of the NEFA oxidation process in the liver results in increased production of reactive oxygen species (ROS) [6] leading to an inflammatory response. Therefore, the antioxidative and antiinflammatory response are essential to improved reproductive performance.

In the final weeks of gestation, the dairy cow already experiences reduced hepatic function associated with an increased inflammatory response [7, 8]. During this period, it is possible to observe an increase in serum concentrations of positive acute phase proteins, such as ceruloplasmin, serum amyloid A and haptoglobin, as well as a reduction of negative acute phase proteins, such as albumin and paraoxonase 1 (PON1) [8, 9]. PON1 is an enzyme with hydrolase activity synthesized in the liver and released into the circulation [10]. PON1 acts as an indicator of liver function, allowing the early diagnosis of several conditions that cause liver damage [10]. PON1 is also considered a negative acute phase protein, reducing circulating levels in response to cytokines released during inflammation [8]. The effective response to inflammatory processes and recovery of affected cows is dependent on the resumption of normal serum PON1 activity [11]. Several studies in early postpartum dairy cows suggest an important role of PON1 on susceptibility to postpartum disorders [8, 12-14].

The recovery of postpartum ovarian cyclicity and reproductive performance is also dependent on the magnitude of the oxidative stress and the cow response to this challenge [15].

In this sense, PON1 is transferred from serum to the ovarian dominant follicle in cattle along with HDL [16], and when added to the maturation media during *in vitro* production of bovine embryos can improve the blastocyst rates [17], suggesting its importance in the reproductive process. PON1 has cytoprotective properties reducing oxidative damage against cellular membranes [18-20]. The oxidative stress appears to be responsible for damaging the embryo, which can result in embryonic death [21, 22], therefore pointing to a role of PON1 in this process. On the other hand, a greater reduction in the prepartum levels of PON1 is predictive of higher incidence of uterine infections in the early postpartum period in dairy cows [13], which could affect ovulation, increasing the calving to conception interval. In this sense, a lower percentage of polymorphonuclear cells was observed in the uterus of cows that ovulated earlier in the postpartum period and this was associated with lower serum PON1 activity [14]. Dairy cows with low peripartum levels of PON1 had increased incidence of metritis and laminitis, while cows with higher levels of PON1 had a reduced risk of severe inflammation during the first 30 days in milk [8]. Therefore, it is hypothesized that changes in peripartum PON1 activity can reflect in the health and fertility of the dairy cow.

The *PON1* gene is located on chromosome four in the bovine and has approximately 33 kbp in length. In humans, several polymorphisms found in this gene have proved to interfere directly in the expression of the protein, and these changes, in addition to modifying PON1 activity in the circulation, are associated with a series of diseases in humans [23]. However, little is known about the interference of the genotype on PON1 activity in cows. In a recent study, we found seven single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) in the promoter region of the *PON1* gene in Holstein dairy cows from Southern Brazil, and five of them were associated to changes in serum PON1 activity [24]. Among these SNPs, one located in the -221 position (A/G) is located in a transcription factor binding site linked to the acute phase response [24]. However, there are still no reports of the association of these *PON1* genetic polymorphisms with fertility, health and productive parameters in dairy cows.

2. Methods

2.1. Animals, milk collection and feed intake

All experimental procedures were approved by the Cornell University Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee. Multiparous lactating Holstein cows (n = 84 cows) were provided with *ad libitum* access to a total mixed ration fed twice daily. Weekly samples of the feed offered were composited on a monthly basis for nutrient analysis (Dairy One Cooperative,

Ithaca, NY, USA). The cows were housed in individual pens 40 days before the expected calving date and the individual daily feed intake were measured and recorded until 60 days in milk (DIM). Cows were milked twice daily and milk yield for each cow was averaged by week. Milk samples were collected twice a week in the first two weeks of lactation and once a week thereafter. Milk composition was analyzed in the using mid-NIR techniques (Barbano Lab at Cornell University [25]).

2.2 Blood analyses

Blood collections were performed by puncture of the coccygeal vein weekly before calving, twice a week in the first two weeks after calving and once a week up to 42 DIM. To measure serum PON1 activity, a 20 mM Tris/HCl buffer, pH 8.0, containing 1 mmol/L of CaCl₂ and 4 mmol/L phenyl acetate was used as substrate. Samples were diluted in a 20 mM Tris/HCl Buffer in the ratio 1:3. The reading was performed in a spectrophotometer, after addition of 3.3 µL of the diluted sample to 500 µL of the working solution, at 270 nm during one minute interval. BHBA was measured in whole blood samples, prior to centrifugation and plasma separation, using the NovaVet (Nova Biomedical, Billerica, MA, USA) handheld ketone meter. Plasma was separated into three aliquots for further measurement of NEFA by an autoanalyzer (Boehringer Mannheim Hitachi 104, Diagnostic Laboratory Systems, Indianapolis, IN, USA).

2.3 *PON1* promoter SNPs

DNA was extracted from the whole blood samples according previous described [26], and used for the PCR reaction, using primers forward: 5'-CGGTAATCCCTGAAGAATGC-3' and reverse: 5'-GCACTTCCTACCCTGCTTTG-3' to obtain a fragment with 828 bp of the *PON1* promoter gene region. The primers were constructed using the Primer3 Plus program (<http://www.bioinformatics.nl/cgi-bin/primer3plus/primer3plus.cgi>). The PCR reaction was performed with a commercial kit (Roche®) and used temperatures of 94°C for 5 min, 40 cycles of 1 min at 94°C, 1 min at 57°C and 1 min at 72°C, and a final step at 72°C for 10 min. An electrophoresis with 1% agarose gel was performed, from which the DNA band was cut in the position equivalent to 828 bp. This gel fragment was purified using a commercial kit (Promega, Madison, Wisconsin, USA) and the purified samples were sent for DNA sequencing by the Sanger method (Biotechnology Resource Center, Cornell University Institute of Biotechnology). Sequences were aligned using the BioEdit software (<http://www.mbio.ncsu.edu/BioEdit/bioedit.html>), based on the published sequence of the

bovine *PON1* gene (NCBI accession number: AC_000161.1) as the reference for alignment, and the SNPs were manually identified.

2.4 SNP *PON1*-221 Genotyping by ARMS-PCR

The *PON1* -221 SNP had been previously associated with serum PON1 activity and it had a stronger linkage disequilibrium with other SNPs at this region [27]. For easier identification of the *PON1*-221 genotype an amplification refractory mutation system (ARMS-PCR) containing four primers was also developed and validated against the sequencing results. Two of these primers anneal on the outside region of the PCR product (forward, CAGACGCACAGACGGGAGAA; reverse, CAGTGATGCCTCCCTGGACA), generating a 701 bp fragment (Fig. 1). The other two internal primers (forward, AACTAGCTGCCTAGAGCGAG; reverse, TGCCATTCTCCCCTTTCTGCCC), annealed inside the fragment of 701 bp, forming allele specific fragments of 516 bp (allele A) or 224 bp (allele G) (Fig. 1). For the PCR reaction using the *GOTaq* Green Master Mix (Promega, Madison, WI, USA) DNA Polymerase, the following conditions were used: 94°C for 5 min, 35 cycles of 94°C for 1 min, 66°C for 45 secs and 72°C for 1 min, and a final step at 72°C for 10 min. Electrophoresis was performed in a 1.5% agarose gel (UltraPure™ Agarose, Life Technologies), using a 100 bp DNA marker.

To validate the accuracy of genotyping by tetra-primer ARMS-PCR, after electrophoresis, nine previously known samples (three from each genotype AA, AG and GG) were submitted to sequencing. For this, a PCR for amplifying the entire promoter region was performed with specific primers (sense: 5'-CGGTAATCCCTGAAGAATGC-3' and antisense: 5'-GCACTTCCTACCCTGCTTTG-3'; 57°C annealing temperature). After the agarose gel electrophoresis, a single amplicon was observed around 828 bp, the fragment was excised from the gel, purified using a commercial kit (Bio Basic, Ludwig, Alvorada, RS, Brazil) and submitted for sequencing (HELIXXA, São Paulo, SP, Brazil). The sequences obtained were aligned using BioEdit software (Ibis Biosciences, Carlsbad, CA, USA), using the published sequence of bovine PON1 (NCBI accession number: AC_000161.1) as the reference for alignment purposes.

2.5 SNP *PON1*-221 Genotyping by RFLP

As another alternative genotyping method, restriction fragment length polymorphism, using the enzyme (*BsII*) which has a *PON1*-221 SNP compatible binding site (Webcutter, New England Biolabs, Ipswich, Massachusetts, USA) was used. The restriction fragment length

polymorphism method was used for *PONI*-221 SNP genotyping. The primers used were the same described for sequencing samples (Forward: 5'-CGGTAATCCCTGAAGAATGC-3' and Reverse: 5'-GCACTTCCTACCCTGCTTTG-3') as well as the PCR protocol. The PCR amplified DNA (828 bp) was digested with 10 U of *Bs**II* (New England) at 37°C for 2 h. Restriction fragments were separated by electrophoresis in 2.5% agarose in TAE buffer (Promega) containing 0.5 µg/mL ethidium bromide and visualized under UV light. The enzyme recognition sequence is CCNNNNN/NNGG, which is consistent with the SNP at position -221 (A or G). For the G allele, the enzyme cut the PCR fragments into 6 sites (positions 65, 171, 201, 291, 512 and 576). As for the allele A, there is no cut of the enzyme at position 291. Then, for the genotype AA six fragments with 30, 64, 65, 106, 252 and 311 bp were identified. For the GG genotype, seven fragments of 30, 64, 65, 90, 106, 221 and 252 bp and for the AG genotype eight fragments of 30, 64, 65, 90, 106, 221, 252 and 311 bp were identified.

2.6 Reproductive Management

Cows were presynchronized with two injections of prostaglandin F2 α (PGF2 α ; 25 mg im; Lutalyse, Pfizer Animal Health, New York, NY, USA) given at 30 and 44 DIM. Ten days after the second injection of PGF2 α , the Ovsynch program [28] was initiated in all cows. The initial GnRH dose (100 mg im; Cystorelin, Merial Ltd, Duluth, GA, USA) was followed 7 days later by an injection of PGF2 α and 48 h later cows received the second dose of GnRH with timed AI 12 h thereafter. Cows that were previously inseminated but showed visual signs of estrous behavior before pregnancy diagnosis were re-inseminated. Additionally, cows not pregnant at the time of any subsequent pregnancy diagnosis (32 days post-AI) were re-enrolled in the Ovsynch program. Confirmation of pregnancy by rectal palpation of the reproductive tract was made twice at 42 and 60 days post-AI. The reproductive performance of the cows enrolled in the study was recorded until 210 DIM. The day of insemination resulting in pregnancy was used to calculate the calving to conception interval (CCI).

2.7 Clinical data

Cows were monitored for development of disease incidence or clinical signs in the postpartum period. The definitions used on farm were the following: retained placenta, retention of fetal membranes for longer than 24 h; metritis, abnormal vaginal discharge for 2 days and fever in the first 3 weeks postpartum; displaced abomasum, presence of abdominal ping requiring surgical correction; ketosis, no appetite and presence of ketone bodies in the urine;

lameness, difficulty to walk plus visual inspection; mastitis, abnormal milk, and/or high somatic cell count (SCC); and milk fever, subnormal body temperature and recumbency.

2.8 Statistical analysis

The results are presented as mean values \pm standard error of the mean (SEM). All the statistical analyses were performed using SAS 9.2 (SAS Institute Inc., Cary, NC, USA). Analyses involving repeated measures over time (e.g., plasma PON1 activity, NEFA, BHBA, milk production, and SCC) were compared by analysis of variance for repeated measures using the MIXED procedure to evaluate the main effects of time, genotype and the interaction time vs. genotype. In addition, the average PON1 activity for pre- and postpartum period was calculated and along with the CCI and feed intake were evaluated using polynomial models for the linear or quadratic effects of having none, one or two *PON1* SNPs alleles. Disease incidence and conception rate on the first postpartum AI were evaluated by Chi-square analysis. Pregnancy rate were evaluated by Kaplan-Meier survival analysis using GraphPad Prism 5 (GraphPad Software Inc., La Jolla, CA, USA). A *P*-value lower or equal than 0.05 was considered significant and between 0.05 and 0.10 as a tendency.

3. Results

3.1 SNPs affecting serum PON1 activity

Seven SNPs were identified in the promoter region of the *PON1* gene, located at positions -22, -105, -176, -221, -392, -611 and -676, considering 1 as the first nucleotide of the first exon. The nucleotides identified at position -22 were C and G, -105 were A and G, -176 were T and G, -221 were A and G, -392 were A and C, -611 were C and T and -676 were A and T. The data of the observed genotypes and their frequency is summarized in Table 1. The serum activity of PON1 was assessed among the different genotypes found for each SNP. The SNPs found at positions -105, -176, -221, -392, -611 and -676 had a significant effect on the peripartum mean PON1 activity ($P < 0.05$) and the SNP -22 had a tendency to affect PON1 activity ($P < 0.10$) (Table 1). In addition, the SNPs -105, -176, -221, -611 and -676 were associated ($P < 0.05$) with changes in PON1 activity in the postpartum period. The SNPs -105, -176, -221 and -611 were also associated with prepartum PON1 activity ($P < 0.05$). Cows that were homozygote for adenine at positions -221 and -676, and homozygote cows for thymine at position -176 had the highest serum PON1 activity. Adenine allele and cytosine allele at

positions -105 and -611, respectively, were also associated with higher PON1 activity. Additionally, cows with at least one C allele for SNP -392 had the highest PON1 activity.

3.2 SNPs affecting fertility

The SNPs -221 and -392 were associated with the CCI ($P < 0.05$). Cows that were homozygote for guanine at position -221 and for adenine at position -392, had the lowest PON1 activity and the longest CCI ($P < 0.05$) (Table 2).

In the survival analyses, when cows having at least one A allele for the -221 SNP were grouped, an effect on the CCI was observed, with GG cows having higher CCI ($P < 0.05$) (Fig. 2). For the SNP-392 an effect in the CCI was observed, with carriers of the C allele having a shorter CCI compared to AA cows ($P < 0.05$) (Fig. 2).

3.3 SNPs affecting feed intake, milk yield, NEFA, BHBA, diseases and SCC

There was no significant effect of the identified SNPs on feed intake, milk yield, NEFA, BHBA and occurrence of diseases. There was tendency for cows of the GG genotype for the -221 SNPs to have higher SCC during the first six weeks of lactation than cows of the AG genotype ($P = 0.057$) (GG: 6.1 ± 0.4 , AG: 4.9 ± 0.3 , AA: 5.2 ± 0.2 log₂ cells/mL).

3.4 SNP PON1-221 Genotyping by ARMS-PCR and RFLP

Using the tested techniques it was possible to accurately identify the three SNP-221 genotypes (AA, AG and GG) by ARMS-PCR (Fig. 5) and by RFLP, using the enzyme *Bs*II (Fig. 6). The techniques were further validated by sequencing confirming 100% of the results observed in the electrophoresis.

4. Discussion

Seven SNPs were identified in the promoter region of the *PON1* gene, located at positions -22, -105, -176, -221, -392, -611 and -676, considering the first nucleotide of the *PON1* mRNA. Previously we had found the same SNPs in a population of Holstein cows from Southern Brazil [24], which further validates the importance of our findings. In our previous study, using less than 50 cows, it was not possible to observe the presence of GG genotypes for the PON1 -22 and -176 SNPs. In this study 5 cows had the GG genotype for the -22 SNP, but no GG cows at position -176 were found. It is possible that the distribution of this genotype in the bovine populations is even rarer or deleterious. Evaluations of larger populations may confirm the existence of this genotype. Although it is not possible to calculate linkage

disequilibrium in unphased genotyping data, we could observe that all 37 cows homozygous for the A allele (highest PON1 activity) in the -221 position, were also homozygous for the genotypes associated with higher PON1 activity in SNPs -22, -105, -176, -611 and -676. This indicates a strong linkage between SNPs in these positions and it is expected given the close proximity. However, only 90% of the AA cows for the -221 SNP were carriers of the C allele (associated with higher PON1 activity) in the -392 position, with half of them being heterozygotes for this position. Therefore, this indicates that any these SNPs could be consistently used as marker for serum PON1 activity in dairy cows. Although the PON1 activity was slightly different from our previous study, the effects of the genotypes were consistent between studies [24].

PON1 is a negative acute phase protein and reduces its circulating levels after tissue damage and membrane lipopolysaccharide (LPS) breakdown [8, 9, 29]. Cows with lower serum PON1 activity in the peripartum have higher occurrence of metritis and laminitis, whereas cows with higher PON1 levels at this stage have a reduced risk of presenting severe inflammation during the first 30 days of lactation [8]. In the same study, sick cows already had reduced serum activity of PON1 in the prepartum period, suggesting that more than an early metabolic marker, the lower activity of this enzyme can contribute to trigger pathological conditions. In this sense, evaluation of peripartum of dairy cows showed that cows with the highest incidence of uterine infections in the postpartum period had a more drastic reduction in PON1 activity during the prepartum period [13]. Furthermore, we previously found a lower percentage of polymorphonuclear cells in the uterus of cows that ovulated earlier in the postpartum period, which was associated with a tendency of higher PON1 activity in the peripartum period [14]. These collective evidence points to PON1 as involved in the pathogenesis of earlier postpartum disorders and that is why is important to understand its genetic variability. Although most of the SNPs had an effect on serum PON1 activity, no effect of the SNPs was observed on the occurrence of diseases and this may be related to number of cows used in this study. Thirty-six cows were diagnosed with at least one disease in the study period with no significant relationship with the different genotypes. Milk production, feed intake, NEFA and BHBA also were not affected by the genotypes, further suggesting no effect of these SNPs in the health of transition dairy cows during this period.

The SNPs at positions -221 and -392 had an effect on fertility. The shortest CCI was observed for the genotypes with highest PON1 activity (SNPs -221AA and -392CC). In the transition period, high producing cows usually have higher concentrations of NEFA [30], as a result of insufficient feed intake during the beginning of lactation, increasing the risk of

metabolic and uterine diseases, and decreased reproductive performance. The acute inflammatory response from clinical and subclinical postpartum disorders reduces serum PON1 activity and may affect the expression of key enzymes involved in steroidogenesis, with a negative impact on final follicular development, especially if the inflammatory process persists for longer periods [31, 32]. As mentioned before, cows that ovulated earlier in the postpartum period tended to have higher serum PON1 activity [14]. In addition, previous studies suggest that PON1 bound to HDL is transferred from plasma to follicular fluid in bovines [16] and humans [18]. This intrafollicular PON1 may have an important role in fertility, which was confirmed as the addition of PON1 during bovine *in vitro* oocyte maturation is able to increase blastocyst development rates [17]. Moreover, women with higher serum PON1 activity produced embryos with higher number of blastomers when submitted to IVF [18]. In this sense, the higher activity of PON1 observed in the different genotypes from this study may be quickly reflected in the composition of the follicular fluid of the preovulatory follicle affecting steroidogenesis and oocyte competence. The SNP -221 is located in a region identified as potential binding site for transcription factors that modulate the acute phase response [27, 33], therefore suggesting a link between this mutation, the inflammatory status and PON1 activity. It is important to mention that the effects of the PON1 SNPs on fertility occurred independently of any changes in DMI, milk production, NEFA or BHBA concentrations, classically know to be involved in regulation of energy balance and reproduction [2].

Dairy cows during the transition period undergo physiological changes which increase the demand for cellular oxygen and cause oxidative stress [34]. Therefore, during the early postpartum there is excessive production of ROS [8] and concomitant damage at cellular and tissue levels which are managed by cellular antioxidant defense systems, such as the HDL-ApoAI-PON1 complex [8, 35]. The excess ROS are associated with uterine diseases and can have a negative impact on fertility [36]. It was observed that infertile women do not necessarily develop a proinflammatory status, but had an increase in total serum peroxides along with a slight decrease in HDL and ApoAI concentrations [37]. PON1 activity was not affected in these women [37], suggesting a protective role for this enzyme in ovary structures against oxidative stress. In our study, cows with genotypes resulting in higher PON1 activity in the postpartum period conceived earlier postpartum than cows with lower PON1 activity. However, when evaluating postpartum beef cows with high or low serum PON1 activity, no effect on the conception rate was observed [38]. This suggests that the positive effects of PON1 on fertility observed in dairy cows, may be the result of the more challenged environment during the transition period, where PON1 can have a protective effect against the damage caused by

oxidative stress. This better recovery from the oxidative stress is directly related to the transition cow health [8]. Therefore, the observation of higher SCC in cows from the SNP -221 GG genotype, the same associated with lower serum PON1 activity, may be related to this fact. As low antioxidant status and increased oxidative stress in cows with mastitis were previously described [39]. Although, changes in acute phase proteins during clinical and subclinical mastitis seems to be highly variable [40].

Based on this study, the SNP -221 had an equilibrated distribution in the studied herd, along with a significant effect on serum PON1 activity and the calving conception interval. Additionally, as mentioned before, there was a strong alignment of the homozygous AA cows from this genotype with the genotypes for higher PON1 activity in the other positions identified. In an attempt to develop alternative rapid, simple, low cost and high throughput method, we have tested SNP-221 genotyping by ARMS-PCR and RFLP. The tetra-primer amplification refractory mutation system PCR is a fast and economical means of assaying SNPs, requiring only PCR amplification and subsequent electrophoresis for the determination of genotypes. This technique has been used in some studies to genotype several SNPs, presenting good results for the identification of mutations [41, 42]. Additionally, the availability of a variety of restriction endonuclease enzymes that cleave DNA at specific sites has made it possible to identify the presence of polymorphic regions in the isolated fragments. The RFLP technique has been used to investigate several mutations related with dairy production and reproduction [43, 44]. Using the ARMS-PCR method, it was possible to observe the difference between the AA (701 and 516 bp), AG (701, 516 and 224 bp) and GG (701 and 224 bp) genotypes for the SNP-221, after electrophoresis. Also, using the RFLP technique with the *Bs**II* enzyme, we identified cows of the genotypes AA (106, 252 and 311 bp), AG (90, 106, 221, 252 and 311 bp) and GG genotype (90, 106, 221 and 252 bp). The alternative sequencing techniques demonstrated the ability to correctly identify the different genotypes of the SNP-221 after confirmation by sequencing and may help in the use of the SNP-221 as a novel molecular marker for genetic selection in dairy cows, considering the strong linkage among SNPs in this short promoter region evaluated.

In conclusion seven SNPs were identified in the promoter region of the *PON1* gene, from which six of them affected serum PON1 activity. The genotypes associated with higher serum PON1 activity in the SNPs located at positions -221 and -392 also were associated with a reduced calving to conception interval. Using the ARMS-PCR and RFLP techniques we were able to accurately genotype the SNP at the -221 position. It is important to mention that no

effects of the genotypes were observed on milk production, dry matter intake or NEFA and BHBA concentrations.

Conflicts of interest

The authors declare no conflicts of interest.

Acknowledgements

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TABLES**Table 1.** Single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) identified in the promoter region of the bovine paraoxonase 1 (*PON1*) gene and their association with serum PON1 activity* in periparturient Holstein dairy cows.

	Genotypes			P value		
				CC vs CG and GG	Linear effect	Mixed models
	CC	CG	GG			
<i>PON1</i> -22	66.7% (56/84)	27.4% (23/84)	5.9% (5/84)			
Prepartum	90.3 (±3.1)	85.5 (±4.9)	92.9 (±10.6)	0.8733	0.8151	
Postpartum	104.0 (±4.0)	86.7 (±6.2)	95.2(±13.4)	0.1242	0.5297	
Overall	99.6 (±3.1)	86.5 (±4.9)	94.5 (±10.5)			0.0861
	AA	AG	GG	AA vs AG and GG	Linear effect	Mixed models
<i>PON1</i> -105	76.2% (64/84)	20.2% (17/84)	3.6% (3/84)			
Prepartum	92.8 (±2.8)	81.2 (±5.4)	54.6 (±12.9)	0.0015	0.0052	
Postpartum	102.1 (±3.7)	92.2 (±7.2)	65.1 (±17.3)	0.0231	0.0402	
Overall	99.2 (±2.8) ^a	88.8 (±5.6) ^{ab}	61.6 (±13.3) ^b			0.0109
	TT	GT		TT vs GT	Linear effect	Mixed models
<i>PON1</i> -176	91.7% (77/84)	8.3% (7/84)				
Prepartum	90.8 (±2.6)	70.2 (±8.7)		0.0264		
Postpartum	101.7 (±3.3)	66.4 (±11.0)		0.0029		
Overall	98.3 (±2.6) ^a	68.0 (±8.6) ^b				0.0012

	AA	AG	GG	AA vs AG and GG	Linear effect	Mixed models
<i>PONI -221</i>	44% (37/84)	38.1% (32/84)	17.9% (15/84)			
Prepartum	95.7 (±3.6)	89.8 (±3.9)	71.5 (±5.7)	0.0040	0.0007	
Postpartum	110.5 (±4.5)	97.6 (±4.8)	72.1 (±7.1)	0.0001	<.0001	
Overall	105.8 (±3.5) ^a	95.1 (±3.8) ^b	72.2 (±5.5) ^c			<.0001
	AA	AC	CC	AA vs AC and CC	Linear effect	Mixed models
<i>PONI -392</i>	34.6% (29/84)	45.2% (38/84)	20.2% (17/84)			
Prepartum	83.7 (±4.3)	91.7 (±3.8)	92.5 (±5.7)	0.1365	0.2263	
Postpartum	87.4 (±5.5)	104.7 (±4.8)	104.8 (±7.2)	0.0155	0.0585	
Overall	86.4 (±4.3) ^b	100.5 (±3.7) ^a	101.0 (±5.6) ^a			0.0335
	CC	CT	TT	CC vs CT and TT	Linear effect	Mixed models
<i>PONI -611</i>	76.2% (64/84)	20.2% (17/84)	3.6% (3/84)			
Prepartum	92.8 (±2.8)	81.2 (±5.4)	54.6 (±12.9)	0.0015	0.0052	
Postpartum	102.1 (±3.7)	92.2 (±7.2)	65.1 (±17.3)	0.0231	0.0402	
Overall	99.2 (±2.8) ^a	88.8 (±5.6) ^{ab}	61.6 (±13.3) ^b			0.0109
	AA	AT	TT	AA vs AT and TT	Linear effect	Mixed models
<i>PONI -676</i>	61.9% (52/84)	28.6% (24/84)	9.5% (8/84)			
Prepartum	91.3 (±3.2)	87.3 (±4.8)	80.8 (±8.3)	0.2209	0.2494	
Postpartum	106.4 (±4.0)	88.2 (±5.9)	80.9 (±10.3)	0.0034	0.0247	
Overall	101.5 (±3.2) ^a	88.0 (±4.7) ^b	81.1 (±8.2) ^b			0.0127

* PON1 activity (U/mL) is expressed as the mean ± SEM in serum samples taken prepartum, postpartum or overall. $P < 0.05$ was considered to be statistically significant.

Table 2. Association of single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) in the *PON1* promoter region with calving to conception interval (CCI) postpartum in Holstein dairy cows.

	Genotypes			P value	
	CC	CG	GG	CC vs CG and GG	Linear effect
<i>PON1</i> -22	66.7% (56/84)	27.4% (23/84)	5.9% (5/84)		
CCI (days)	95.1 (±5.9)	107.5 (±9.4)	103.5 (±20.5)	0.4208	0.6976
	AA	AG	GG	AA vs AG and GG	Linear effect
<i>PON1</i> -105	76.2% (64/84)	20.2% (17/84)	3.6% (3/84)		
CCI (days)	96.1 (±5.5)	103.0 (±10.4)	143.5 (±28.7)	0.1010	0.1107
	TT	GT		TT vs GT	Linear effect
<i>PON1</i> -176	91.7% (77/84)	8.3% (7/84)			
CCI (days)	97.8 (±5.1)	111.0 (±16.7)		0.4555	
	AA	AG	GG	AA vs AG and GG	Linear effect
<i>PON1</i> -221	44% (37/84)	38.1% (32/84)	17.9% (15/84)		
CCI (days)	92.5 (±7.1)	95.0 (±7.6)	124.3 (±11.4)	0.0892	0.0218
	AA	AC	CC	AA vs AC and CC	Linear effect
<i>PON1</i> -392	34.6% (29/84)	45.2% (38/84)	20.2% (17/84)		
CCI (days)	129.0 (±7.1)	86.1 (±6.0)	76.0 (±9.6)	<.0001	<.0001

	CC	CT	TT	CC vs CT and TT	Linear effect
<i>PONI -611</i>	76.2% (64/84)	20.2% (17/84)	3.6% (3/84)		
CCI (days)	96.1 (±5.5)	103.0 (±10.4)	143.5 (±28.7)	0.1010	0.1107
	AA	AT	TT	AA vs AT and TT	Linear effect
<i>PONI -676</i>	61.9% (52/84)	28.6% (24/84)	9.5% (8/84)		
CCI (days)	95.8 (±6.1)	99.3 (±9.3)	117.8 (±15.4)	0.2489	0.1910

$P < 0.05$ was considered to be statistically significant.

FIGURES

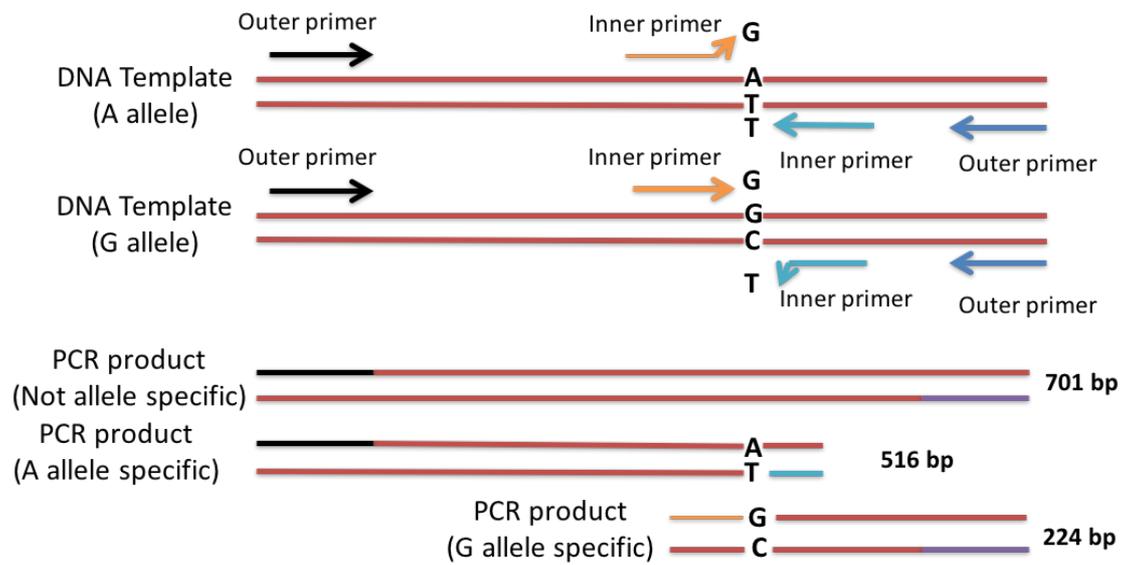


Fig. 1. Schematic presentation of the tetra-primer ARMS-PCR method.

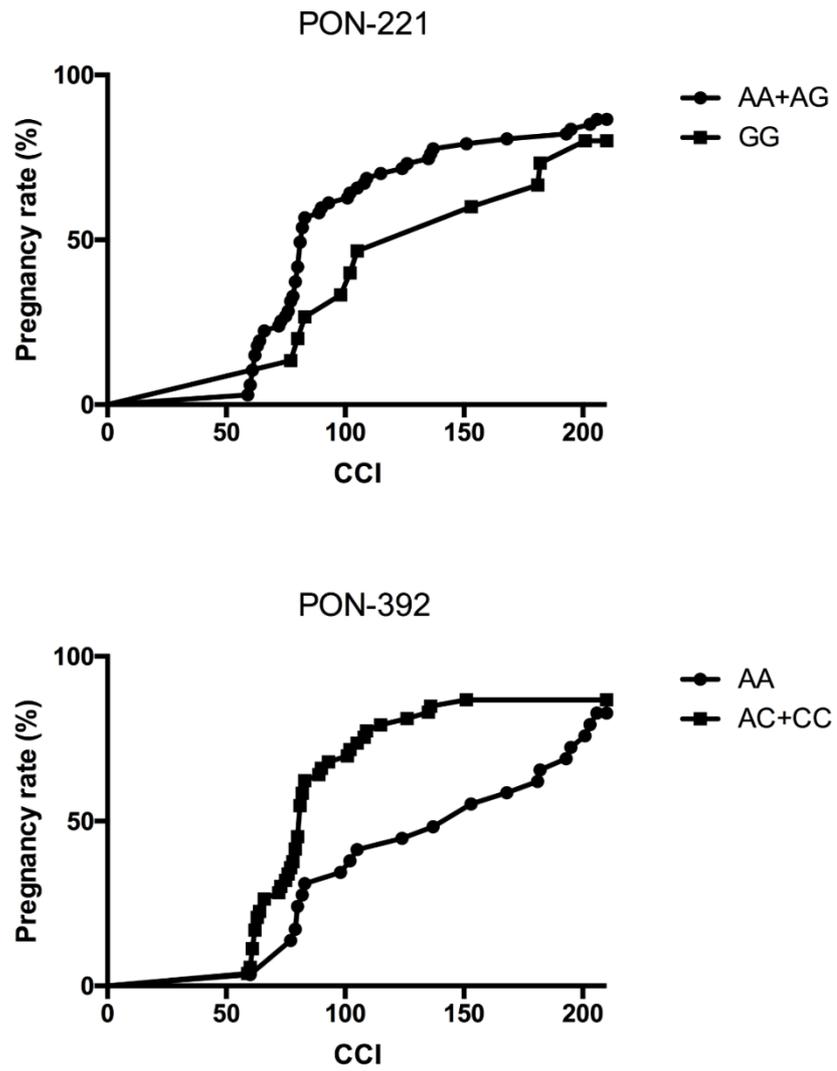


Fig. 2. Survival analysis of the effects on calving to conception interval (CCI) for the three genotypes of *PONI* -221 (A), *PONI* -221 AA + AG vs GG (B) and *PONI* -392 (C).

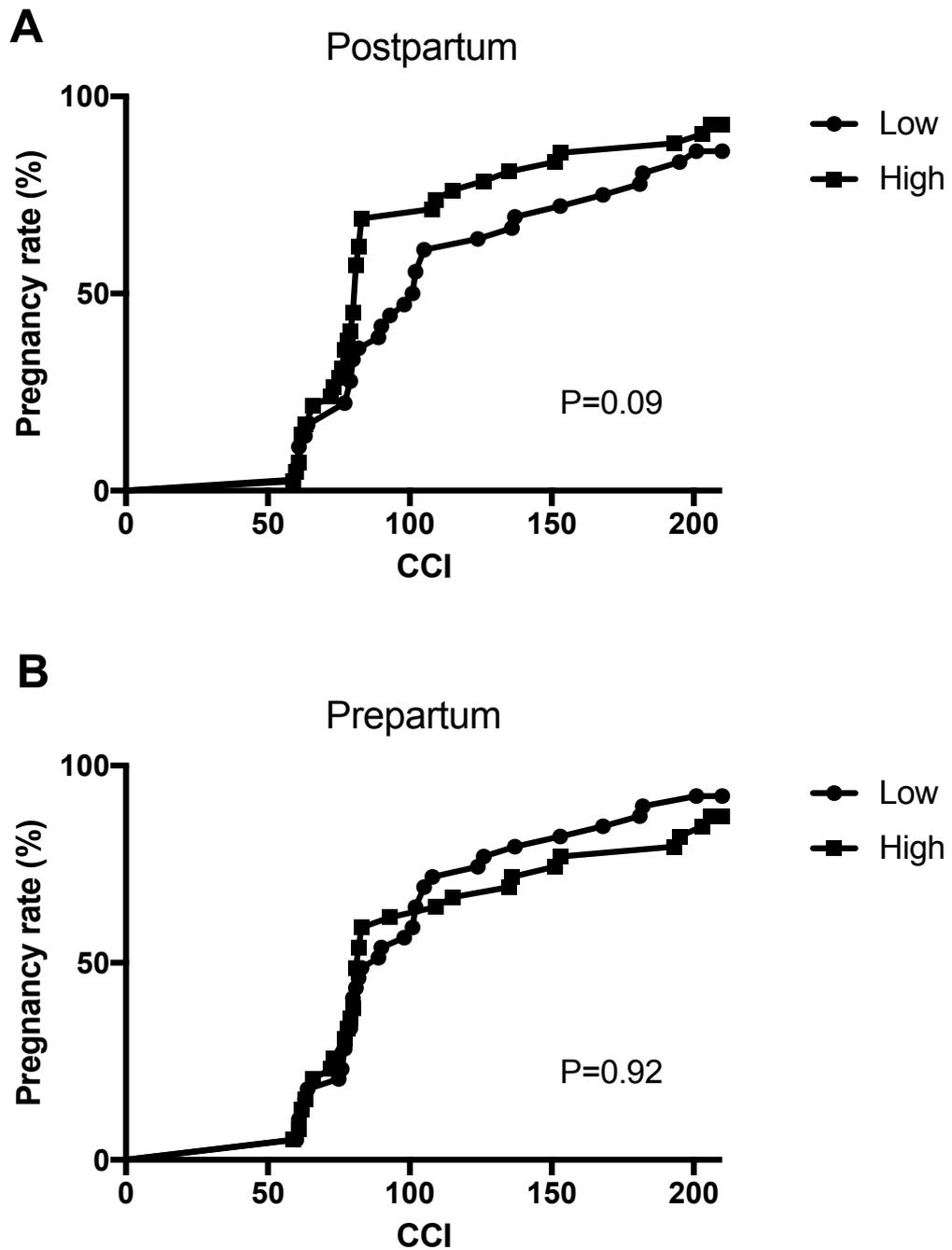


Fig. 3. Survival analysis of the effect of cows with high or low PON1 in the postpartum (A) and prepartum (B) period on calving to conception interval (CCI).

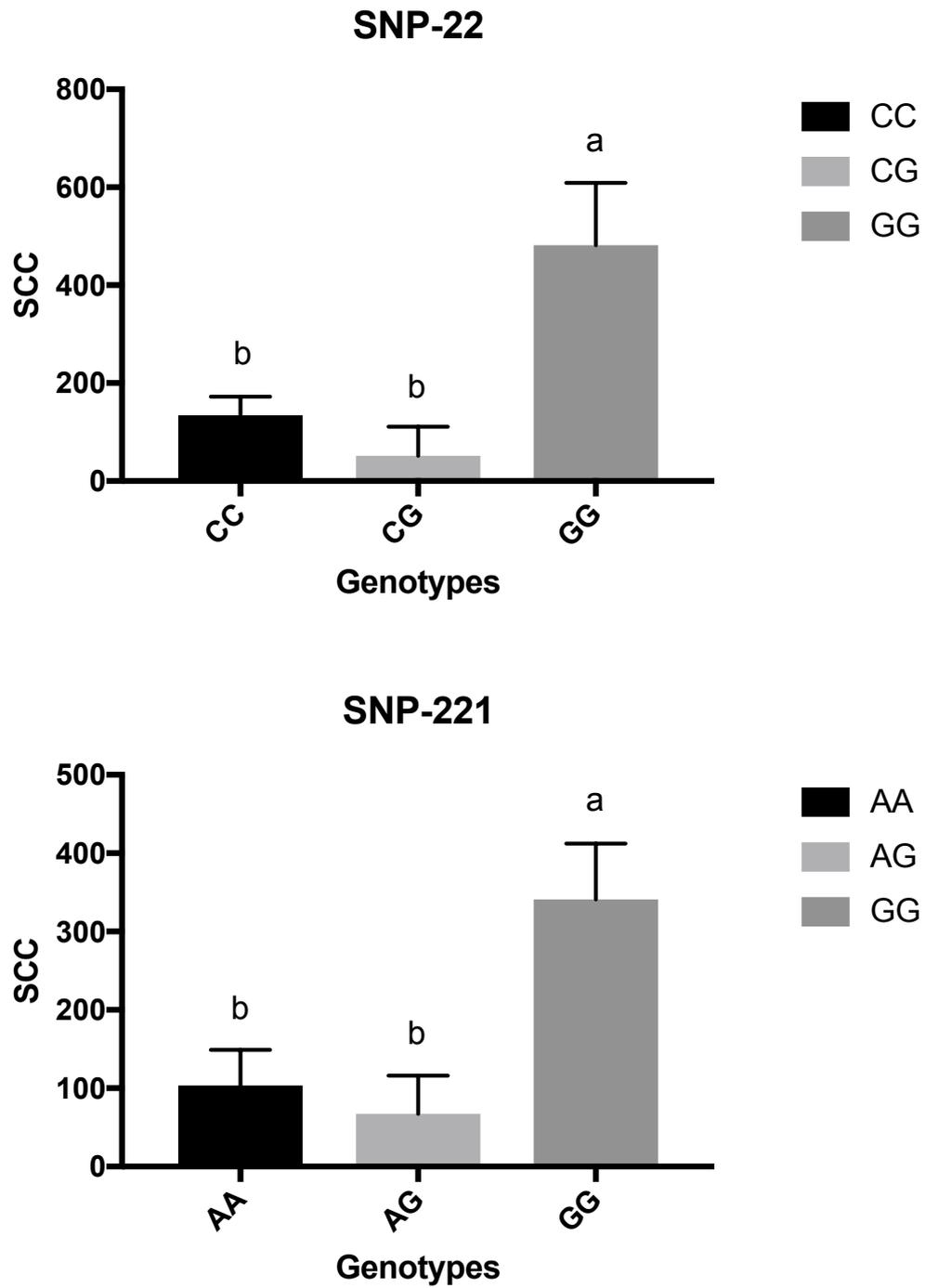


Fig. 4. Effect of *PON1* -22 and *PON1* -221 on SCC in periparturient Holstein dairy cows. ^{a,b} $P < 0.05$.

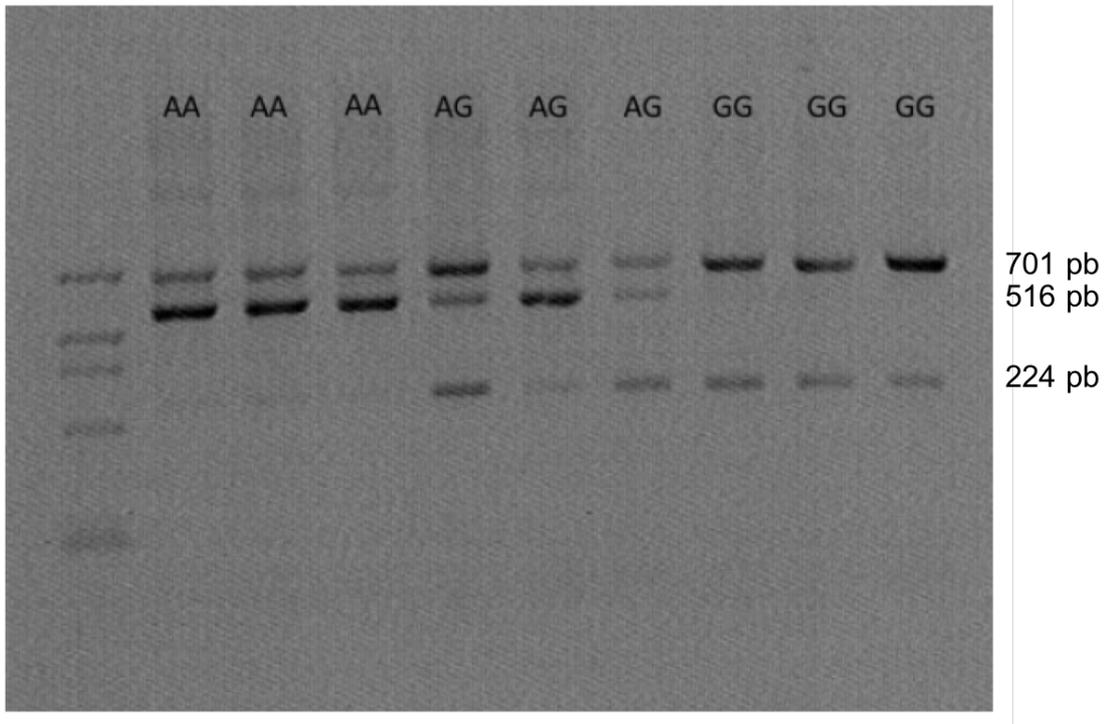


Fig. 5. SNP *PON1*-221 Genotyping by ARMS-PCR.

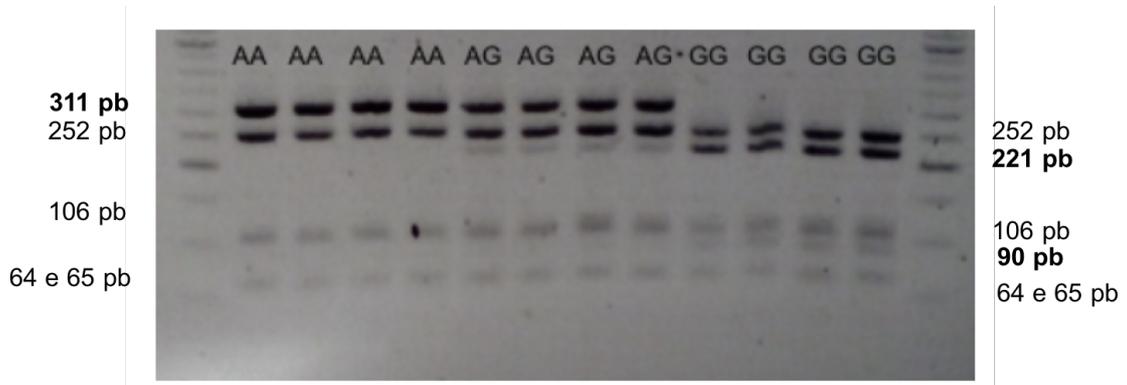


Fig. 6. SNP *PON1*-221 Genotyping by *BsI*.

3.2 Artigo 2

Association of polymorphisms in the *TNF- α* , *TLR-4* and *COQ9* genes with reproductive performance, feed intake, metabolism and health of Holstein dairy cows

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Running title: Polymorphisms in the *TNF- α* , *TLR-4* and *COQ9* genes of dairy cows

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Abstract

The aim of this study was to investigate the association of single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) in tumor necrosis factor alpha (*TNF- α*), toll-like receptor 4 (*TLR-4*) and coenzyme 9 (*COQ9*) genes with fertility, feed intake and health of Holstein dairy cows. For this, 84 multiparous Holstein cows were used in the study. Daily dietary intake of each animal was measured from 40 days prepartum up to 60 days postpartum and clinical data was evaluated. The milk samples were collected twice a week in the first two weeks of lactation and once a week thereafter to milk composition analysis. Blood samples were collected weekly for β -hydroxybutyrate (BHBA) and non-esterified fatty acids (NEFA) measurement. DNA was extracted from the whole blood samples for the PCR reaction. Genotyping was determined by electrophoresis of the PCR product after digestion with the enzymes *Rsa* I (*TNF- α*), *Alu* I (*TLR4*) and *Tfi* I (*COQ9*). Cows were pre-synchronized with two injections of prostaglandin F2 α followed by timed AI after an Ovsynch program. The pregnancy was confirmed after rectal palpation and reproductive performance data was recorded until 210 days in milk (DIM). The SNP on *TNF- α* gene had a quadratic effect on the calving to conception interval (CCI) ($P < 0.05$), with the homozygous TT and CC groups conceiving 32 days earlier than the heterozygote group ($P < 0.05$). There was an effect of the *TNF- α* gene on NEFA concentrations ($P < 0.05$). Also, there was an effect of the *TLR-4* gene on the CCI, with cows from the CC group

conceiving later compared to the TT and CT groups ($P < 0.05$) The SNP in the *COQ9* gene had a linear effect CCI, where the GG group conceived 33 days earlier than the AA group ($P < 0.05$). In addition, the SNP in the *COQ9* gene had a quadratic effect ($P < 0.05$) on prepartum feed intake, and the GG group intake was lower than the AA and AG groups during the same period. The GG genotype of the *COQ9* gene had increased milk somatic cell count ($P < 0.05$). In summary, the SNPs in the *TNF- α* , *TLR4* and *COQ9* were associated with fertility postpartum. Also, the *TNF- α* SNP was associated with NEFA and the *COQ9* SNP was associated with SCC and prepartum feed intake.

Keywords: fertility; inflammation; single nucleotide polymorphisms

1. Introduction

In recent years, dairy cows milk production has increased dramatically due to improvements in management, nutrition and genetic selection [1, 2]. Even so, the transition from gestation to lactation is a volatile period in the dairy cow health, greatly due to changes in energy demands and nutrient partitioning that occur after calving [3, 4]. In the postpartum period, there is a reduction in dry matter intake, although the energy demand increases dramatically for milk synthesis. The result is a negative energy balance (NEB) that precedes a series of health complications depending on its intensity [5]. Furthermore, an association with NEB severity and decreased immune response has been reported in cows that developed uterine disease [6, 7]. Thus, the ability of the immune system at calving and in early postpartum weeks may determine the success to prevent diseases impacting on the reproductive performance. Cytokines play a key role in stimulating systemic inflammatory responses, including increased body temperature and heart rate, and decreased feed intake [8], but its effects in the fertility of the dairy cow remains unclear.

Tumor necrosis factor (TNF- α) is a pleiotropic polypeptide cytokine produced by macrophages, neutrophils, lymphocytes, smooth muscle, fibroblasts, and endothelium [9]. TNF- α is a proinflammatory cytokine that is stimulated at the onset of inflammatory processes and when levels of non-esterified fatty acids (NEFA) and ketone bodies are elevated [10, 11]. In uterine infections, the role of TNF- α is to stimulate the expression of *IL-8*, which in turn increases phagocytosis and bacterial death [12, 13]. In dairy cows, anovulatory anoestrus, long and short luteal phases appear to be linked to uterine diseases [14, 15], therefore the duration of the inflammatory response can affect fertility. In addition, when TNF- α antiserum was injected into the intrafollicular fluid of sheep, ovulation was blocked [16], suggesting an

important role of this cytokine in the normal reproductive physiology. TNF- α is constitutively expressed in ovary follicle endothelial cells intended for ovulation and the localized release of this cytokine is a prelude to programmed cell death and follicular rupture [16]. In addition to all that, inflammatory cytokines as TNF- α may reduce feed intake and glucose production, causing hypoglycemia and increasing the mobilization of adipose tissue and metabolic disorders in the beginning of lactation [10, 17, 18], which can impair the reproductive performance. The severity of NEB [19], as well as postpartum inflammatory processes, have a negative impact on fertility [20]. In humans, single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) of the *TNF* gene are associated with several diseases [21] and involved in the regulation of *TNF- α* mRNA expression [22]. In dairy cows, some studies demonstrate that SNPs in the *TNF- α* gene are associated with reproductive performance and immune functions [23], suggesting that *TNF- α* could be a potential genetic marker for immune response and reproductive performance in dairy cattle.

Toll-like receptors (TLRs) are transmembrane proteins that play a key role in innate immunity by recognizing pathogens and subsequently activating appropriate responses. TLR4 activation can lead to the induction of proinflammatory genes, such as the one encoding TNF- α . Recently, free fatty acids also have been identified as ligands of TLR4 [24], linking lipolysis, TLR4 and inflammation, which are recurrent events in the early postpartum dairy cow. In humans, polymorphisms in the *TLR-4* gene may reduce the efficiency of the immune response to bacterial membrane lipopolysaccharides [25]. Moreover, polymorphisms that induce the amino acid change of *TLR-4* reduce the signaling potential of the receptor, altering the resulting inflammatory response [26]. A recent study found effects of a polymorphism in the exon 3 of *TLR-4* gene in dairy cows on the number of artificial insemination (AI) per conception and days open, suggesting that this mutation may be a target factor for studying the reproductive potential of individual cows by considering immune cell activation [27].

A novel SNP in the bovine coenzyme Q9 (*COQ9*) gene has been associated with altered mitochondrial function and modulation of reproductive parameters in dairy cattle [28]. This SNP is an example of a mutation that changes the predicted protein structure. The missense mutation causes a change from G to A which induces an amino acid change from aspartic acid to asparagine at position 53 of the protein [29]. The A allele, which has a frequency of 49.1% in Holsteins, is associated with the reduced calving to conception interval (CCI) and the increased conception rate of cows, with no significant effects on milk production [30]. *COQ9*, along with other COQ proteins (*COQ2-COQ8*), is involved in the biosynthesis of COQ10 [31, 32], which is a component of the mitochondrial electron transport system and is required for

the synthesis of mitochondrial adenosine triphosphate [31]. Therefore, *COQ9* is critical for the metabolism of cellular energy.

Based on all these evidences, we hypothesized that mutations in genes related to the immune response, as well as genes enrolled with efficiency in cellular energy utilization, could be used as molecular markers with impact on postpartum fertility, feed intake and health. Therefore, the aim of this study was to investigate the presence of SNPs in *TNF- α* , *TLR-4* and *COQ9* genes and its association with fertility, feed intake and health of Holstein dairy cows.

2. Methods

2.1 Animals, milk collection and feed intake

All experimental procedures were approved by Cornell University Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee. A total of 84 multiparous Holstein cows were used in the study, with ad libitum access to a total mixed ration fed twice a day. Samples were collected weekly to analyze the nutritional composition of the diet (Dairy One Cooperative, Ithaca, NY, USA). The analyzes were carried out monthly using a sample of the mixture of the corresponding weekly collections. Forty days before the expected calving time the cows were housed in individual stalls to measure the daily dietary intake of each animal, performed up to 60 days in milking (DIM). The cows were milked twice a day and the milk production for each cow was calculated each week. The milk samples were collected twice a week in the first two weeks of lactation and once a week thereafter. The composition of the milk was analyzed in Barbano's laboratory, at Cornell University, using medium NIR techniques.

2.2 Blood analyses

Blood samples were collected weekly through puncture of the coccygeal vein before calving. From the beginning of lactation, the samples were collected twice a week in the first two weeks postpartum and once a week up to 42 DIM. BHBA was determined in whole blood samples prior to centrifugation and plasma separation using NovaVet portable ketone meter (Nova Biomedical, Billerica, MA, USA). Plasma was divided into three aliquots for further measurement of NEFA by an autoanalyzer (Boehringer Mannheim Hitachi 104, Diagnostic Laboratory Systems, Indianapolis, IN, USA).

2.3 Determination of genetic polymorphisms

DNA was extracted from the whole blood samples using QuickGene DNA whole blood kit S (Quick gene-810, Fujifilm), for the PCR reaction, using primers forward: 5'-GGGTGACTTGCTCTAACACTCATC -3' and reverse: 5'-AGGCCTCACTTCCCTACATCCCTA -3' to obtain a fragment with 1,233 bp of the *TNF- α* exons 2, 3 and 4 [33]. The PCR reaction, with the Roche® kit, used temperatures of 95°C for 9 min, 39 cycles of 30 secs at 95°C, 30 secs at 63°C and 90 secs at 72°C, and a final step at 72°C for 7 min. PCR-amplified DNA was digested with 10 U *Rsa* I (Biolabs, Linden, NJ, USA) at 37 °C for 2 h. Electrophoresis with 2.5% agarose gel was performed, containing 0.5 U μ g/mL ethidium bromide and visualized under UV light. The expected restriction fragments in the gel were at positions 928 bp + 305 bp (TT genotype); 1,233 bp + 928bp + 305 bp (CT genotype); 1233 bp (CC genotype).

For *TLR-4* SNP genotyping, the same DNA samples were used for the PCR reaction. We used the primers forward: 5'-AGACAGCATTTCCTCCCTC -3' and reverse: 5'-ACCACCGACACACTGATGAT -3' to obtain a fragment with 382 bp of the *TNF- α* exons 3 [34]. The PCR reaction, with the Roche® kit, used temperatures of 95°C for 9 min, 35 cycles of 30 secs at 95°C, 30 secs at 55.5°C and 90 secs at 72°C, and a final step at 72°C for 7 min. PCR-amplified DNA was digested with 10 U *Alu* I (Biolabs, Linden, NJ, USA) at 37 °C for 2 h. Electrophoresis with 2.5% agarose gel was performed, containing 0.5 U μ g/mL ethidium bromide and visualized under UV light. The expected restriction fragments in the gel were at positions 260 bp + 77 bp + 32 bp (not shown) + 13 (not shown) (TT genotype); 260 bp + 142 bp + 118 bp + 77 bp + 32 bp (not shown) + 13 (not shown) (CT genotype); 142 bp + 118 bp + 77 bp + 32 bp (not shown) + 13 (not shown) (CC genotype).

A similar procedure was used to genotype the *COQ9* SNP. We used the primers forward: 5'-TTGTTTGAGCCTCACAGCATTC -3' and reverse: 5'-ACAGATTCACCCAGGCACTT -3' to obtain a fragment with 556 bp from *COQ9* gene. The primers were constructed using the Primer3 Plus program (<http://www.bioinformatics.nl/cgi-bin/primer3plus/primer3plus.cgi>). The PCR reaction, with the Roche® kit, used temperatures of 95°C for 9 min, 35 cycles of 30 secs at 95°C, 30 secs at 56.5°C and 90 secs at 72°C, and a final step at 72°C for 7 min. PCR-amplified DNA was digested with 10 U *Tfi* I (Biolabs, Linden, NJ, USA) at 37 °C for 2 h. Electrophoresis with 2.5% agarose gel was performed, containing 0.5 U μ g/mL ethidium bromide and visualized under UV light. The expected restriction fragments in the gel were at positions 407 bp + 142 bp + 7 bp (not shown) (AA genotype); 549 bp + 407 bp + 142 bp + 7 bp (not shown) (AG genotype); 549 bp + 7 bp (not shown) (GG genotype). In

order to confirm the genotyping procedure by restriction fragment length polymorphism, we sent 15 samples for sequencing, five of each genotype. A PCR was performed with the same primers and protocol as described above and an electrophoresis with 1% agarose gel, from which the DNA band was cut in the position equivalent to 556 bp. This gel aliquot was purified using a commercial kit (Promega, Madison, Wisconsin, USA). The purified samples were sent for DNA sequencing by the Sanger method (Biotechnology Resource Center, Cornell University Institute of Biotechnology). Sequences were aligned in the BioEdit program (<http://www.mbio.ncsu.edu/BioEdit/bioedit.html>), using the published sequence of bovine COQ9 (NCBI accession number: AC_000161.1) as the reference for alignment purposes, and the SNPs were manually identified.

2.4 Reproductive Management

Cows were pre-synchronized with two injections of prostaglandin F₂ α (PGF₂ α ; 25 mg, Lutalyse, Pfizer Animal Health, New York, NY, USA) for the first postpartum AI, 14 days apart on days 28 and 44 after parturition. The Ovsynch program [35] was started in all cows ten days after the second injection of PGF₂ α . The initial GnRH dose (100 mg im; Cystorelin, Merial Ltd, Duluth, GA, USA) was followed 7 days later by an injection of PGF₂ α and 48 h later cows received the second dose of GnRH with timed AI 12 h thereafter. Cows that were previously inseminated but showed visual signs of estrous behavior before pregnancy diagnosis were re-inseminated. Additionally, cows not pregnant at the time of any subsequent pregnancy diagnosis (32 days post-AI) were re-enrolled in the Ovsynch program. Confirmation of pregnancy by rectal palpation of the reproductive tract was made twice at 32 and 60 days post-AI. The reproductive performance of the cows enrolled in the study was recorded until 210 DIM.

2.5 Clinical data

After calving, the cows were monitored for the development of diseases incidence or pathological clinical signs. The definitions used on farm were the following: retained placenta, retention of fetal membranes for longer than 24 h; metritis, abnormal vaginal discharge for 2 days and fever in the first 3 weeks postpartum; displaced abomasum, presence of abdominal ping requiring surgical correction; ketosis, no appetite and presence of ketone bodies in the urine; lameness, difficulty to walk plus visual inspection; mastitis, abnormal milk, and/or high somatic cell count (SCC); and milk fever, subnormal body temperature and recumbency.

2.6 Statistical analysis

The results are presented as mean values \pm SEM. All the statistical analyses were performed using SAS 9.2 (SAS Institute Inc., Cary, NC, USA). Analyses involving repeated measures over time (e.g., NEFA, BHBA, milk production, and SCC) were compared by analysis of variance for repeated measures using the MIXED procedure to evaluate the main effects of time and genotype. In addition, the CCI and feed intake were evaluated using polynomial models for the linear effects, quadratic effects of having none, one or two *TNF C*, *TLR-4 C* and *COQ9 A* alleles. Disease incidence was evaluated by Chi-square analysis. Pregnancy rate were evaluated by Kaplan-Meier survival analysis using GraphPad Prism 5 (GraphPad Software Inc., La Jolla, CA, USA). A probability value of $P < 0.05$ was considered significant and probability between 0.05 and 0.10 as a tendency.

3. Results

3.1 Effect of genetic polymorphisms on fertility, feed intake and milk production

The genotypic frequencies of the 84 cows used in the study on SNPs in *TNF- α* , *TLR-4* and *COQ9* genes are described in Table 1. The SNP on *TNF- α* gene showed a quadratic effect on CCI ($P < 0.05$), with the group homozygous TT getting pregnant 32 days before the heterozygote group ($P < 0.05$). There was no difference between the CC homozygous group and the TT and CT groups ($P > 0.05$). Cows in the CT group showed a tendency to have a higher feed intake in the prepartum period than cows in the both homozygous groups (quadratic effect, $P < 0.10$). There was no effect of *TNF- α* SNP on postpartum feed intake (Table 1).

The SNP in the *TLR-4* gene had no effect on CCI ($P > 0.05$). There was also no difference between feed intake in the pre-or postpartum period related to the 3 genotypes of this SNP (Table 1).

The SNP in the *COQ9* gene presented a linear effect on CCI, where the GG group with a mean CCI 33 days shorter compared to the AA group ($P < 0.05$). In addition, the SNP in the *COQ9* gene had a quadratic effect ($P < 0.05$) on prepartum feed intake, and the AA group intake was lower than the AG and GG groups during the same period (Table 1). In the postpartum period, just a tendency ($P < 0.10$) of quadratic effect on feed intake was observed.

In the survival analysis, it was also possible to observe an effect of SNP on the *TNF- α* gene on postpartum fertility, with a greater CCI for cows in the CT group ($P < 0.05$) (Fig. 1). In addition, there was an effect of the SNP on the *TLR-4* gene in the CCI, with cows from the

CC group getting pregnant later compared to the TT and CT groups ($P < 0.05$) (Fig. 1). SNP in the *COQ9* gene had no effect on postpartum CCI ($P > 0.05$).

Despite the effects of SNPs on dry matter intake, there was no difference from any of the genotypes presented on milk production in this period ($P > 0.05$).

3.2 Effect of genetic polymorphisms on NEFA and BHBA

There was an effect of the SNP on *TNF- α* gene on NEFA concentrations, which were 412.7, 357.6 and 315.7 $\mu\text{mol/L}$, for the CC, CT and TT groups respectively (Fig. 2). The NEFA concentration from group CC was higher than group TT ($P < 0.05$). None of other SNPs had any effect on NEFA ($P > 0.05$). Also, there was no effect from the 3 SNPs that have been evaluated on BHBA.

3.3 Effect of genetic polymorphisms on somatic cell count and health

A significant effect of the SNP on *COQ9* gene was observed on milk SCC ($P < 0.05$). GG cows presented higher SCC (294,700) when compared to AA (65,700) and AG (69,300) cows (Fig. 3). There was no statistical difference between the groups AA and AG ($P > 0.05$) regarding SCC. SNPs in the *TNF- α* and *TLR-4* genes had no effect on SCC ($P > 0.05$). Also, there was no effect of genetic polymorphisms on the occurrence of postpartum diseases ($P > 0.05$).

4. Discussion

The three SNPs had an impact on postpartum fertility. The *TNF- α* gene was associated with NEFA levels and *COQ9* gene was associated with SCC. For the SNP in the *TNF- α* gene the genotype distribution found for the CC, CT and TT genotypes was, respectively, 17.8, 41.7 and 40.5%, very different from previous studies conducted in Japan, where higher frequencies of CC and lower frequencies of TT cows were found [23, 36] compared with our study. We found a quadratic effect of this SNP on CCI, and the heterozygote group presented an impaired postpartum reproductive performance, with the highest CCI among the three genotypes. In addition, the CC group presented higher levels of NEFA compared to the TT group. Polymorphisms of immune function-related genes, especially *TNF- α* , have been associated with the first postpartum ovulation [36]. Moreover, the resumption of ovarian cyclicity prior to the first AI is one of the most important factor related to postpartum fertility, especially in high-producing cows [37]. We did not evaluate the first ovulation postpartum, but contrary to our expectation, other studies have found lower rates of the first postpartum ovulation for the TT

genotype [23, 36]. These studies did not evaluate the postpartum NEFA levels, which in our study were lower for the TT group compared to the CC group, which seems to have positively influenced the CCI in the TT homozygote group observed in our study. Despite the difference in ovulation in favor of CT and CC genotypes, there was no difference on days open [23, 36]. Cows with a more severe NEB, and consequent more dramatic loss of body condition have increased NEFA levels, during the peripartum period, having delayed resumption of ovarian activity compared with cows with less severe body condition loss [38, 39]. On the other hand, TNF- α already has an established important role in ovulation both systemically and locally in the follicle. Injections of TNF- α together with luteinizing hormone (LH) have increased LH-induced ovulation rate in rats [40], and TNF- α antiserum injection intrafollicularly in sheep has blocked ovulation [16]. Interestingly, mRNA expression of *TNF- α* in leukocytes was higher in cows of the ovulatory types compared with anovulatory types, which suggest that polymorphisms of *TNF- α* gene may affect the transcriptions levels of TNF- α and favor ovulation [36]. Furthermore, TNF- α directly regulates 66 genes associated with heifer fertility [41] and promotes cytokine reaction with systemic and local functions that are elicited in response to infection and inflammation, which are important signaling events to maintain a receptive postimplantation uterine environment. Therefore, the *TNF- α* exon mutation may impair the TNF- α functions, in animals with the T alleles, due to direct effects, but the NEFA levels seems to be higher in animals with C alleles. Together, these might explain the low reproductive performance in the heterozygotes cows (CT) observed in the current study.

For the SNP in the *TLR-4* gene the genotype frequencies observed was very similar to data found in Holstein, Sanhe and Simental cattle in a study carried out in China [34]. An effect of this SNP on postpartum fertility was observed. The CC homozygous cows had mean values for CCI 20 days longer than TT cows, which was different in the survival analysis. The *TLR-4* exon polymorphism has been associated with the number of AI and days open in dairy cows, since it modulates the apoptosis and migration of polymorphonuclear leukocytes (PMNs) and IL-1 β production in the peripheral blood mononuclear cells (PBMCs) [27]. The CC homozygous cows had a higher number of AI per pregnancy and greater days open compared to CT cows [27], which agree with our current results. Ovarian function such as follicular development and corpus luteum formation are regulated by immune cells, as neutrophils, macrophages, and T-lymphocytes [42]. The inflammatory process of the reproductive tract or mammary gland with gram-negative bacteria can perturb ovarian function, follicular growth, and fecundity in cattle [43, 44], mediated by TLR4 recognition of lipopolysaccharides (LPS), even in granulosa cell [45], which will be very important in the first few weeks after calving.

LPS induces the release of cytokines such as IL-1 β and TNF- α from PBMCs [46]. However, LPS induce the expression of cytokines genes in PBMCs depending on the genotype, with the CT genotype possessing higher ability to release IL-1 β and the migration of PMNs with the CT genotype may be enhanced [27] compared to CC. Moreover, the levels of NEFA were the same for the three genotypes and the free fatty acids can bind to TLR-4, potentiating the effects caused by inflammatory cytokines [24, 47]. So, it is possible that cows with the CC genotype presented a different response to NEFA levels, with a negative impact on postpartum fertility.

The genotype frequencies of the SNP in the *COQ9* gene found in our study were very similar to those found by other researches evaluating lactating Holstein cows in the southeastern USA [28]. For the first time this SNP on *COQ9* gene was evaluated by a restriction fragment length polymorphism using the *Tfi* I enzyme, as described in the methods. The SNP on the *COQ9* gene had an effect on postpartum period. Furthermore, there was an effect of this SNP on prepartum feed intake, with cows with the AA genotype eating less than cows with the AG and GG genotypes, until the calving. Prepartum dry matter intake is related with metabolic parameters such as liver triglycerides, NEFA, plasma insulin, postpartum dry matter intake, and metabolic disorders such as ketosis [48, 49], affecting the reproductive performance. During the last 3 weeks of pregnancy, nutrient demands by the fetus and placenta are at their greatest [50] and cows should be able to meet these requirements from the diet. In our study, the cows that presented the lowest dietary feed intake (AA) had higher CCI, even though there was no difference in postpartum feed intake, milk production and NEFA levels between the three genotypes. Despite few information about polymorphisms in the *COQ9* in dairy cows, this SNP was associated with the reproductive function in an earlier study [28]. However, the cows of genotype AA presented the best performance, contrary to our current findings. There was an additive effect of the A allele on the pregnancy rate, services per conception and days open [28]. In addition, the AA genotype required less substrate to maintain basal cellular function, and displaying a reduced leak respiration, or the respiration that is not associated with energy production [28]. In the other hand, the AG genotype showed greater expression of *COQ9* in oocytes than either homozygote, and the transcript abundance for *COQ9* was also greater for AG than other genotypes, despite this genotype being intermediate in fertility, what evidence that fertility is not determined to a large extent by amount of mRNA for *COQ9* in the oocyte [28]. We did not evaluate the effect of *COQ9* SNP in the mitochondrial function, but it was hypothesized that GG genotype improve the cellular energy metabolism, affecting the prepartum feed intake, which seemed to impact on reproductive performance. Interestingly, the *COQ9* SNP showed a significant effect on somatic cell count, with the GG group presenting

higher SCC than AA and AG. The relation between *COQ9* and mammary immune function is not clear. A consequence of electron transport through mitochondrial oxidative phosphorylation complexes is the generation of reactive oxygen species (ROS) [51]. ROS have been implicated as both positive and negative modulators, acting on immune reaction [51]. Thus, the *COQ9* SNP may have an effect on ROS production, with a negative impact on SCC and an improvement on ovulation process. Also, it is possible that the SNP in *COQ9* is in linkage disequilibrium with a causative mutation located elsewhere in *COQ9* or in other nearby genes, and more studies are needed to better elucidate that.

Milk production and health parameters did not present any association with these three SNPs. The transition period is recognized as the most critical time of the lactation cycle for both the production and reproduction of dairy cows [4, 52]. Genetic selection and improved nutrition increased milk yield per cow, however, increased milk production was accompanied by a decrease in fertility in Holstein cows. In this scenario, the search for genetic markers that improve postpartum reproductive performance (*TNF- α* , *TLR-4* and *COQ9*) without increasing the achievement of genetic merit for milk production has increased and may represent one benefit of the current markers presented in this study, which positively affected reproductive efficiency without reducing milk production.

In conclusion the SNPs in the *TNF- α* , *TLR4* and *COQ9* were associated with postpartum fertility. Also, the *TNF- α* SNP was associated with NEFA and the *COQ9* SNP was associated with SCC and with prepartum feed intake. These results suggest the three SNPs as new targets for large studies aiming to select cows for reproductive efficiency, with no negative impact on milk production.

Conflicts of interest

The authors declare no conflicts of interest.

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TABLES

Table 1. Association of single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) in *TNF- α* , *TLR-4* and *COQ9* genes with fertility postpartum and feed intake^a in the pre-and postpartum period in Holstein dairy cows.

	Genotypes			P value			
	CC	CT	TT	CC vs CT and TT	CT vs TT	Linear effect	Quadratic effect
<i>TNF-α</i>	17.8% (15/84)	41.7% (35/84)	40.5% (34/84)				
CCI (days)	100.7 (\pm 10.3)	116.2 (\pm 7.7)	84.3 (\pm 6.9)	0.9690	0.0033	0.1947	0.0205
Intake Pre	13.9 (\pm 0.3)	14.6 (\pm 0.2)	14.1 (\pm 0.4)	0.3097	0.1734	0.6858	0.0899
Intake Post	22.0 (\pm 0.7)	22.4 (\pm 0.4)	22.1 (\pm 0.4)	0.8119	0.6099	0.9838	0.5827
	<i>CC</i>	<i>CT</i>	<i>TT</i>	CC vs CT and TT	CT vs TT	Linear effect	Quadratic effect
<i>TLR-4</i>	36.9% (31/84)	42.9% (36/84)	20.2% (17/84)				
CCI (days)	109.7 (\pm 8.6)	95.9 (\pm 6.9)	89.4 (\pm 10.8)	0.2764	0.2214	0.1496	0.7157
Intake Pre	14.4 (\pm 0.3)	14.3 (\pm 0.2)	13.9 (\pm 0.4)	0.3291	0.7302	0.3087	0.7570
Intake Post	21.9 (\pm 0.4)	22.7 (\pm 0.4)	21.6 (\pm 0.6)	0.3752	0.2715	0.7247	0.1527
	<i>AA</i>	<i>AG</i>	<i>GG</i>	AA vs AG and GG	AG vs GG	Linear effect	Quadratic effect
<i>COQ9</i>	17.8% (15/84)	53.6% (45/84)	28.6% (24/84)				
CCI (days)	115.0 (\pm 11.5)	102.0 (\pm 6.3)	82.5 (\pm 9.1)	0.0797	0.0862	0.0306	0.7441
Intake Pre	13.3 (\pm 0.4)	14.6 (\pm 0.2)	14.3 (\pm 0.3)	0.02	0.4493	0.0897	0.0355
Intake Post	21.7 (\pm 0.6)	22.7 (\pm 0.3)	21.6 (\pm 0.5)	0.5614	0.1028	0.9014	0.0778

^a Feed intake (kg of dry matter/day) is expressed as the mean \pm SEM considering prepartum (Intake Pre) and postpartum (Intake Post) periods. *P* < 0.05 was considered to be statistically significant.

FIGURES

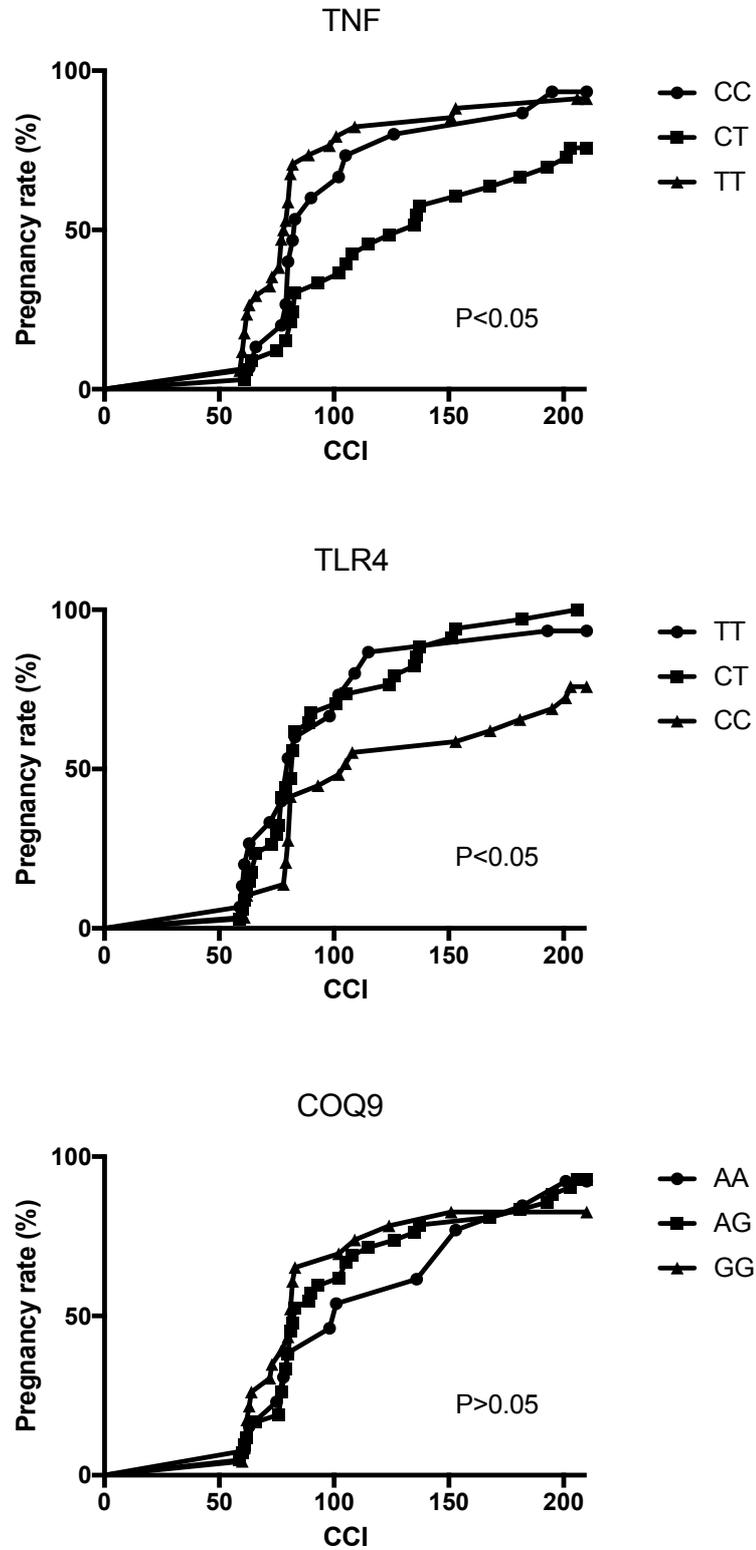


Fig. 1. Survival analysis of the effect of SNPs in *TNF- α* , *TLR-4* and *COQ9* genes on calving to conception interval (CCI).

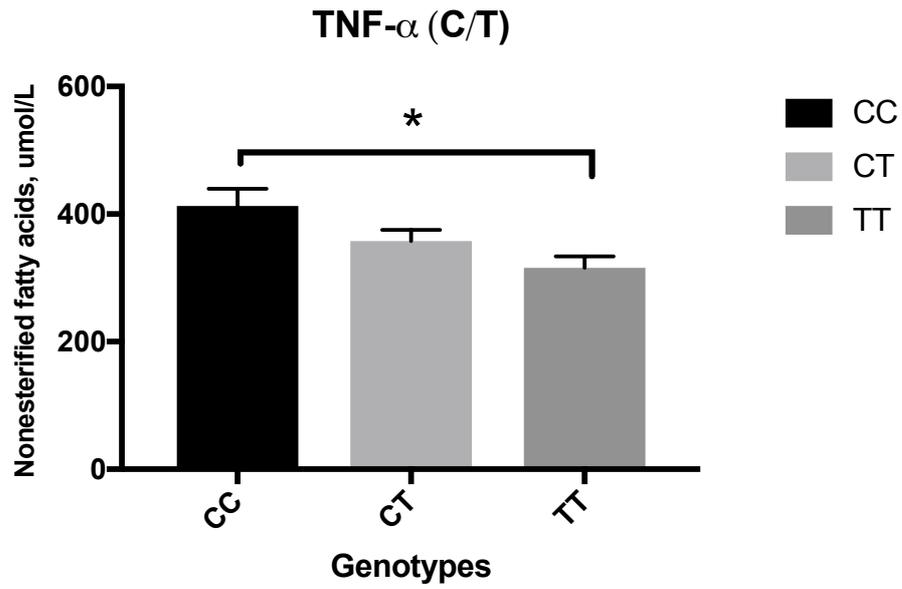


Fig. 2. Effect of *TNF- α* genotypes on NEFA in periparturient Holstein dairy cows. * $P < 0.05$.

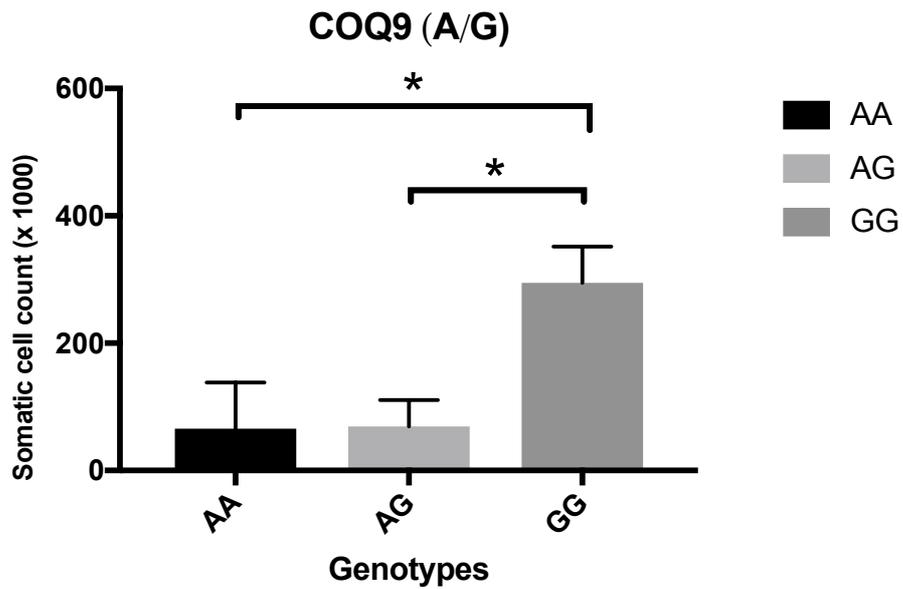


Fig. 3. Effect of *COQ9* genotypes on SCC in periparturient Holstein dairy cows. * $P < 0.05$.

3.3 Artigo 3

Association of polymorphisms in the *IGF-I*, *GHR* and *STAT5A* genes with reproductive performance, metabolism and milk production of Holstein dairy cows

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Association of polymorphisms in the *IGF-I*, *GHR* and *STAT5A* genes with reproductive performance, metabolism and milk production of Holstein dairy cows

Running title: Polymorphisms in the *IGF-I*, *GHR* and *STAT5A* genes of dairy cows

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Abstract

The objective of this study was to evaluate the association of polymorphisms in the genes growth hormone receptor (*GHR*), insulin-like growth factor I (*IGF-I*) and signal transducer and activator of transcription 5A (*STAT5A*) with plasma concentrations of IGF-I, and the impact on reproductive performance and milk production of postpartum Holstein dairy cows. For this, 75 Holstein cows were used from 21 days prepartum up to 210 days in milk (DIM). These cows were submitted to a OvSynch-TAI protocol when they were 55 DIM. Milk samples were collected for determining ovulation. Progesterone levels above 1 ng/mL on two consecutive samples were ovulation indicators. Days from calving to first ovulation (DTO) and the calving conception interval (CCI) were evaluated. Serum concentrations of IGF-1 and β -hydroxybutyrate (BHBA) were obtained after blood collection. Genotyping was determined by electrophoresis of the PCR product after digestion with the enzyme *AluI* (*GHR*), *SnaBI* (*IGF-I*) and *BstEII* (*STAT5A*). For the IGF-I polymorphism, eleven cows were found (14.7%) TT, 36 cows (48%) CT and 28 cows (37.3%) CC. IGF-1 levels in circulation were 79.2 ± 9.9 , 66.5 ± 5.2 and 56.6 ± 5.9 ng/mL for groups TT, CT and CC, respectively, with a tendency to linear effect between genotypes ($P = 0.0512$). The average DTO for TT, TC and CC cows were,

respectively, 19.9 ± 4.2 , 30.6 ± 2.3 and 30.4 ± 2.5 days, showing a linear effect ($P < 0.05$) between genotypes. The same linear effect ($P < 0.05$) was observed among genotypes TT, CT and CC compared to the average of the CCI, which were, respectively, 76.9 ± 12.6 , 96.9 ± 6.8 and 111.7 ± 7.8 . The TT cows showed serum BHBA values lower than cows TC and CC, respectively, 5.0 ± 1.4 , 8.2 ± 0.7 and 8.1 ± 0.8 mg / dL ($P < 0.05$). There were no effects of *STAT5A BstEII* on plasma IGF-I or reproductive parameters ($P > 0.05$). The *GHR AluI T* allele and *IGF-I SnaBI T* had an additive effect on plasma IGF-I, number of services per conception, DTO and CCI. Milk production was not different between groups ($P > 0.05$). Thus, the IGF-1 *SnaBI TT* appears to reduce the interval from calving to first ovulation and conception of dairy cows also reducing the severity of postpartum negative energy balance (NEB) and *GHR AluI T* and *IGF-I SnaBI T* had an additive effect regarding the reproductive performance of cows.

Keywords: fertility; somatotropic axis; single nucleotide polymorphisms

1. Introduction

Growth hormone (GH), or somatotropin, is synthesized and secreted by the anterior pituitary and stimulates the production of liver insulin-like growth factor I (IGF-I), that mediates most biological actions in target tissues [1]. The GH-IGF axis includes GH, the GH receptor, the GH binding proteins (GHBP), IGF-I, IGF-II, IGF receptors and the six IGF binding proteins (IGFBPs). The expression of *GH* and *IGF-I* receptors is observed in several tissues in bovine, with variations in the different stages of fetal development and in adult animals [2]. After binding to its receptor on the cell membrane, GH activates intracellular tyrosine kinases of the Janus Kinase (JAK) family. Then members of the signal transducer and activator of transcription (STAT) family, in particular STAT5, become phosphorylated. Phosphorylated STAT5 will promote *IGF-I* gene expression [3], and it is an important pathway in cell growth, differentiation and development in various tissues, and in the modulation of gonadotrophin actions during follicular growth in the ovary [4].

Negative energy balance, is associated with loss of postpartum body condition, a delay in the return of cows to postpartum cyclicity and reduces conception rate in the first service. These effects are proportional to the degree of loss of body condition score (BCS) at the beginning of lactation [5, 6]. Moreover, liver expression of *GHR* and *IGF-I* is reduced after calving due to the intense negative energy balance [7], accounting for low levels of serum IGF-I in the early post-partum period [8]. This reduction is associated with delayed ovulation and

return to postpartum cyclicity, increased interval-conception, and reduced embryonic development *in vitro* [9-11].

The *AluI* and *SnaBI* polymorphisms in genes encoding *GHR* and *IGF-I*, respectively, are related to the hepatic expression of *IGF-I* mRNA and IGF-I plasma concentration in Holstein steers [12]. *GHR-AluI* and *IGF-I SnaBI* polymorphisms had no significant effect on productive parameters, although *IGF-I* genotype affected calving to first service interval in primiparous cows [13]. We have confirmed the association of the *GHR AluI* polymorphism with a higher serum concentration of IGF-I, and in addition, with a reduction of 13 to 32 days in the conception calving interval in Holstein dairy cows [14]. Moreover, some studies have found an effect of *STAT5A* on fertilization and embryonic survival rates in cattle [15, 16].

Based on this evidence, the hypothesis of this study is that polymorphisms in the genes *GHR*, *STAT5A* and *IGF-I* are related to different plasma concentrations of IGF-I, influencing the reproductive performance, metabolism and milk production of postpartum Holstein dairy cows.

2. Methods

2.1 Animals and reproductive management

Seventy-five Holstein dairy cows were evaluated from 21 days before calving to 210 days in milk (DIM). With 55 DIM these cows were subjected to an OvSynch-IATF protocol that was repeated in cows diagnosed as non-pregnant at 30 and 60 days after AI. The number of inseminations per conception, the pregnancy rate at the first postpartum insemination and calving to conception interval (CCI) were evaluated from the calving day until 210 days in milk (DIM).

2.2 Sample collection and analyses

For determination of the genotype and biochemical/hormonal parameters, blood collection of the coccygeal vein was performed on days -21, 0, 7, 21 and 60. The samples were collected in vacutainer tubes containing EDTA. Part of the whole blood was centrifuged and the plasma separated and frozen at -20°C for analysis of IGF-I and β -hydroxybutyrate (BHBA). Blood metabolites [nonesterified fatty acids (NEFA), beta-hydroxybutyrate (BHB), albumin, blood urea nitrogen, and aspartate aminotransferase (AST)] were analyzed by an autoanalyzer (Boehringer Mannheim Hitachi 104, Diagnostic Laboratory Systems, Indianapolis, IN, USA).

Milk samples were collected twice a week and progesterone concentrations in unextracted milk samples were assayed following published procedures [17, 18]. Progesterone levels above 1 ng/mL in two consecutive samples were indicators of ovulation and the days from calving to ovulation (DTO) were calculated.

2.3 Genotyping

DNA extraction was performed using Wizard Genomic DNA Purification Kit (Promega Corporation) and quantified by measuring the absorbance of 260 nm in a spectrophotometer. For determination of the *GHR* alleles an 836 bp fragment was amplified using the primers: forward, TGCGTGCACAGCAGCTCAACC; reverse, AGCAACCCCACTGCTGGGCAT [14] and these data have been published before [14]. For determination of the *IGF-I* alleles a 249-bp fragment was amplified using the primers: forward, ATTACAAAGCTGCCTGCCCC; reverse, ACCTTACCCGTATGAAAGGAATATACGT [13]. We determined the *STAT5A* alleles using the primers: forward, GAGAAGTTGGCGGAGATTATC; reverse, CCGTGTGTCCTCATCACCTG [15]. The annealing of the primers was performed at 66, 64 and 58°C for *GHR*, *IGF-I* and *STAT5A*, respectively. The amplified fragments were digested in a reaction containing 5 µL of PCR product and 3 U of restriction enzyme *AluI* to *GHR*, 5 U of restriction enzyme *SnaBI* to *IGF-I* and 3 U of restriction enzyme *BstEII* to *STAT5A*. The digestion was performed in the thermocycler at 37°C for 2-3 hours. After digestion of the amplified products, the DNA fragments were separated on a 2% agarose gel. A standard molecular weight of 100-bp was used on each gel to control the size of the digested fragments. The DNA fragments were labeled with SYBR Safe (Life technologies) and visualized on the agarose gel by ultraviolet light. Gels were photographed for data analysis.

Individual genotypes were determined by analysis of the fragment size of the digestion products. The different *GHR* genotypes formed the following fragments: *AluI* (AA): 602 bp, 145 bp, 75 bp; *AluI* (TT): 747 bp, 75 bp; and *AluI* (AT): 747 bp, 602 bp, 145 bp, 75 bp. The different *IGF-I* genotypes formed the following products: *SnaBI* (TT): 223 and 26 bp; *SnaBI* (CT): 249, 223 and 26 bp; *SnaBI* (CC): 246 bp (undigested). For *STAT5A* different genotypes we observed the following fragments: *BstEII* (GG): 676 bp; *BstEII* (CG): 820 and 676 bp; *BstEII* (CC): 820 bp.

2.4 Statistical analysis

Data from this experiment were analyzed in the SAS statistical program (SAS Institute Inc., Cary, USA). Genotypes were classified as 0, 1 and 2 for *GHR* (T), *IGF-I* (T) and *STAT5A*

(C), and 2 indicated the presence in homozygous of the favorable allele (*GHR* T, *IGF-I* T and *STAT5A* C). Besides, we combined the effect of the presence of the favorable *GHR* and *IGF-I* polymorphisms. Thus, the combined presence of the beneficial alleles in the two genes was indicated by 0, 1, 2 and 3 + 4, indicating the presence of neither or a growing combination of favorable alleles. The averages were analyzed using the GLM method, evaluating the linear, quadratic and cubic effects of the presence of the alleles. Values of $P < 0.05$ were considered significant.

3. Results

For the *IGF-I SnaBI*, 11 cows (14.7%) TT, 36 cows (48%) CT and 28 cows (37.3%) CC were found (Table 1). The IGF-I levels in the circulation were 79.2 ± 9.9 , 66.5 ± 5.2 and 56.6 ± 5.9 ng/mL for the TT, CT and CC groups, respectively, with a tendency of linear effect among genotypes ($P = 0.0512$). The mean DTO for TT, CT and CC cows were, respectively, 19.9 ± 4.2 , 30.6 ± 2.3 and 30.4 ± 2.5 days, presenting a linear effect ($P < 0.05$) between the genotypes. The same linear effect ($P < 0.05$) was observed between the TT, CT and CC genotypes in relation to the CCI means, which were, respectively, 76.9 ± 12.6 , 96.9 ± 6.8 and 111.7 ± 7.8 . It is possible to observe that TT cows anticipated the interval between calving and first ovulation around 10 days compared to CT and CC cows ($P < 0.05$). The BHBA was lower in the TT cows compared with both CT and CC ($P < 0.05$) (Table 1). In Figures 1 and 2, it can be observed that cows with the genotype TT ovulated earlier and had a shorter calving to conception interval compared to cows with the CC genotype.

No differences were observed between *STAT5A* genotypes for the parameters evaluated (Table 2). Since the T allele for *GHR AluI* and T allele for *IGF-I SnaBI* had the best results regarding the reproductive performance of cows, we evaluated the additive effect of the presence of these alleles on the two genes in which they appeared (Table 3).

4. Discussion

The *IGF-I* SNP and the interaction of favourable *GHR/IGF-I* SNPs were associated with plasma IGF-I and postpartum fertility, with no changes on milk production. There was a tendency of linear effect among genotypes on plasma IGF-I and animals with the TT genotype tended to have higher levels of plasma IGF-I than the other genotypes. The higher levels of IGF-I were related with shorter intervals between calving to first ovulation and calving to conception for cows of the TT genotype. In addition, these cows presented low levels of BHBA compared with both CT and CC groups, with no difference on milk production. The energy

balance is considered the main nutritional factor that regulates the reproductive function, having a greater impact on the reproductive efficiency than the ingestion of any specific class of nutrients [19, 20]. In dairy cattle, both the duration and severity of early postpartum negative energy balance (NEB) are correlated with the interval to resumption of ovulatory activity following parturition [21]. Several putative hormones, growth factors, and metabolites have been identified that are stimulatory or inhibitory to the reproductive axis. Reduced circulating concentrations of IGF-I and elevated concentrations of BHBA and NEFA are all associated with impaired reproductive performance [22]. The ability of follicles to produce sufficient estradiol for ovulation seems to depend on the availability of insulin and IGF-I, mainly at the beginning of NEB [21]. Plasma estradiol concentrations were highly correlated with plasma IGF-I levels [23]. Moreover, a bidirectional interaction between estrogen receptor α (ESR1) and the IGF-I receptor (IGFIR) signaling pathways was reported [24, 25], which support the important role of IGF-I and gonadotropins in the ovulation process.

The *IGF-I* genotype affected calving to first service interval and had an effect on BHBA. *IGF-I SnaBI* SNP occurs in the promoter region of the *IGF-I* gene [26], which suggest a difference in the transcription of *IGF-I* reflecting in the IGF-I function on reproductive performance. Cows with late resumption (>45 days postpartum) had lower levels of IGF-I compared with early or medium resumption cows [27]. In our study, cows with the TT genotype had higher IGF-I, ovulated earlier, and as result had a shorter CCI. It well established that earlier ovulation results in earlier conception [28]. However, the studies evaluating the effects of IGF *SnaB* on fertility are controversial. There are studies with no association between the genotypes of *IGF-I SnaBI* and fertility of Holstein cows [29]. Despite other studies showing an association of *STAT5A BstEII* polymorphism with fertility in Holstein cows [29], we did not find any statistical difference in our study. This can be related to the fact that *STAT* mutations did not affect serum IGF concentrations and DTO. It suggests a stronger effect of mutations direct in *IGF-I* or *GHR* genes, instead to alterations in molecules that regulate the intracellular signaling pathways.

Furthermore, the presence of the *GHR AluI* T allele in lactating dairy cows is associated with higher circulating IGF-I concentrations and with fewer number of services per conception and a shorter calving to conception interval, in a former study conducted with the same group of samples [14]. When we combine the results obtained by the evaluation of the two SNPs, the simultaneous presence of the *GHR AluI* T allele and *IGF-I SnaBI* T allele seems to be related to the improve reproductive performance of postpartum dairy cows. IGF-I is mainly synthesized by the liver in response to GH [1] and this relationship forms the basis of the GH–IGF axis. GH

receptors (GHRs) are found in many tissues and the liver is the site of greatest abundance [30-32]. Expression of *GHR* and *IGF-I* genes in liver is acutely responsive to nutritional status [32], and during the NEB the liver becomes refractory to GH and circulating IGF-I concentrations are dramatically reduced [33]. The GH and IGF system play an important role in the metabolic transition that favors high milk production after calving [34], and It has been well established that hepatic GHR concentration is positively correlated with plasma IGF-I and the level of nutrition [35]. Indeed, high producing dairy cows had increased GH and reduced IGF-I and insulin concentrations during early lactation [36], and this is in part due the fact that genetic selection for high milk production can decrease the reproductive efficiency [37-39]. In addition, it is well established that the resumption of postpartum cyclicity and ovulation of the first follicular wave up to three weeks postpartum are related to higher pregnancy rates in the first postpartum AI and shorter days open [19, 21, 40]. We found an effect of *IGF-I SNP* on DTO, and that decreased the calving to conception interval. In our previous study [14], GHR SNP had an effect on circulating IGF-I concentrations, in the number of services per conception and on calving to conception interval, which agree with the literature [13]. This is the first time that the additive effect of the presence of the T allele, the one related with the best results on fertility in both *IGF-I* and *GHR* SNPs, is described. In fact, animals with at least three T alleles distributed in both genes had higher levels of plasma IGF-I, a lower interval from calving to first ovulation, a fewer number of services per conception and a shorter calving to conception interval. Also, these cows had a tendency to have lower BHBA levels and better body condition score, which suggest a less intense NEB after calving. This supports the hypothesis that the mutations may decrease the IGF-I levels, through decrease the IGF-I synthesis in case of *IGF SnaBI* or decrease the GH signaling in case of *GHR AluI*, and the presence of the allele with poor reproductive results in just one of the genes evaluated have enough power to impair the postpartum fertility.

In conclusion, the presence of *IGF-I SnaBI* T allele in lactating dairy cows is associated with higher circulating IGF-I concentrations, fewer days from calving to first ovulation, shorter calving to conception interval and lower levels of BHBA. In addition, the simultaneous presence of T allele in the GHR *AluI* and in the *IGF-I / SnaBI* seems to be related to the better reproductive performance of postpartum dairy cows. Together, these results suggest that the Increasing of *IGF-I SnaBI* T and *GHR AluI* T alleles frequency in the population may be a goal in order to increase reproductive efficiency in dairy cattle.

Conflicts of interest

The authors declare no conflicts of interest.

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TABLES

Table 1. Parameters evaluated for *IGF-I SnaBI* genotypes.

Parameter	Genotype <i>IGF-I SnaBI</i>			Linear	<i>P</i> TT vs CT and CC
	TT	CT	CC		
Cows (%)	14.7 (11/75)	48 (36/75)	37.3 (28/75)	-	-
Days to 1 st ovulation	19.9 ± 4.2	30.6 ± 2.3	30.4 ± 2.5	0.03	0.02
Days to conception	76.9 ± 12.6	96.9 ± 6.8	111.7 ± 7.8	0.02	0.05
Milk (kg/day)	34.2 ± 1.8	33.7 ± 0.9	34.1 ± 1.1	0.86	0.96
IGF-I, ng/mL	79.2 ± 9.9	66.5 ± 5.2	56.6 ± 5.9	0.05	0.1
β-Hydroxybutyrate, mg/dL	5.0 ± 1.4	8.2 ± 0.7	8.1 ± 0.8	0.06	0.04

P < 0.05 was considered to be statistically significant.

Table 2. Parameters evaluated for *STAT5A* *BstEII* genotypes.

Parameter	<i>STAT5A</i>			Linear	<i>P</i>
	CC	CG	GG		CC vs CG and GG
Cows (%)	26 (19/73)	43.8 (32/73)	30.2 (22/73)	-	-
Days to 1 st ovulation	28.4 ± 3.1	29.5 ± 2.5	29.4 ± 2.9	0.96	0.86
Days to 1 st AI	69.7 ± 0.3	69.7 ± 0.4	70.3 ± 0.7	0.82	0.45
Days to conception	101.3 ± 9.4	102.7 ± 7.6	93.9 ± 9.4	0.58	0.78
IGF-I, ng/mL	66.3 ± 7.2	61.8 ± 5.8	65.6 ± 6.7	0.94	0.75

P < 0.05 was considered to be statistically significant.

Table 3. Reproductive parameters, blood concentrations metabolites and milk production and composition for cows with combined genotypes (*GHR* and *IGF-I*). 0, 1, 2 and 3 + 4 indicate the presence of neither or a growing combination of favorable alleles for this two genes.

Parameter	GHR/IGF-I				P		
	0	1	2	3 + 4	Linear	Quadratic	Cubic
Cows (%)	17.4(13/75)	40 (30/75)	21.3 (16/75)	21.3 (16/75)	-	-	-
Days to 1 st ovulation	32.1 ± 3.8	28 ± 2.6	35.7 ± 3.3	20.1 ± 3.8	0.10	0.09	0.01
Days to 1 st AI	69.3 ± 0.5	69.6 ± 0.4	70.3 ± 0.5	70.2 ± 0.5	0.13	0.70	0.51
Days to conception	122 ± 11.4	106.2 ± 7.2	92.5 ± 9.3	76.2 ± 10.1	0.00	0.98	0.9
No. Of AI/conception	3.5 ± 0.4	2.9 ± 0.3	2.3 ± 0.4	1.8 ± 0.4	0.01	0.91	0.97
Pregnancy rate at 1 st AI, % (n)	23.1 (3/13)	23.3 (7/30)	25 (4/16)	56.2 (9/16)	-	-	-
IGF-I, ng/mL	77.5 ± 7.0	83.1 ± 4.7	71.6 ± 6.3	105.7 ± 6.7	0.02	0.02	0.02
Nonesterified fatty acids, mmol/L	0.45 ± 0.05	0.36 ± 0.03	0.41 ± 0.04	0.32 ± 0.04	0.12	0.99	0.11
β-Hydroxybutyrate, mg/dL	7.2 ± 0.6	6.4 ± 0.4	7.7 ± 0.6	5.1 ± 0.6	0.07	0.10	0.01
Blood urea nitrogen, mg/dL	7.2 ± 0.3	6.9 ± 0.2	7.1 ± 0.3	6.9 ± 0.3	0.72	0.87	0.48
Albumin, g/L	3.19 ± 0.7	3.16 ± 0.4	3.2 ± 0.6	3.32 ± 0.6	0.16	0.25	0.97
Aspartate aminotransferase, U/L	92.2 ± 5.4	100.7 ± 3.5	90.1 ± 4.9	84.0 ± 5.0	0.13	0.12	0.23
BCS	3.57 ± 0.05	3.52 ± 0.04	3.41 ± 0.05	3.6 ± 0.05	0.89	0.01	0.05
Milk, (kg/day)	34.4 ± 1.5	34.2 ± 1.0	33.2 ± 1.4	33.4 ± 1.5	0.55	0.86	0.72
ECM, (kg/day)	38.6 ± 1.9	39.6 ± 1.3	36.6 ± 1.7	38.1 ± 1.8	0.59	0.88	0.23
Fat, (%)	4.6 ± 0.2	4.6 ± 0.1	4.4 ± 0.2	4.5 ± 0.2	0.48	0.86	0.28
Protein, (%)	6.6 ± 0.1	6.6 ± 0.1	6.7 ± 0.1	6.9 ± 0.1	0.17	0.36	0.89
Lactose, (%)	4.69 ± 0.03	4.77 ± 0.02	4.75 ± 0.03	4.81 ± 0.03	0.02	0.8	0.12

$P < 0.05$ was considered to be statistically significant.

FIGURES

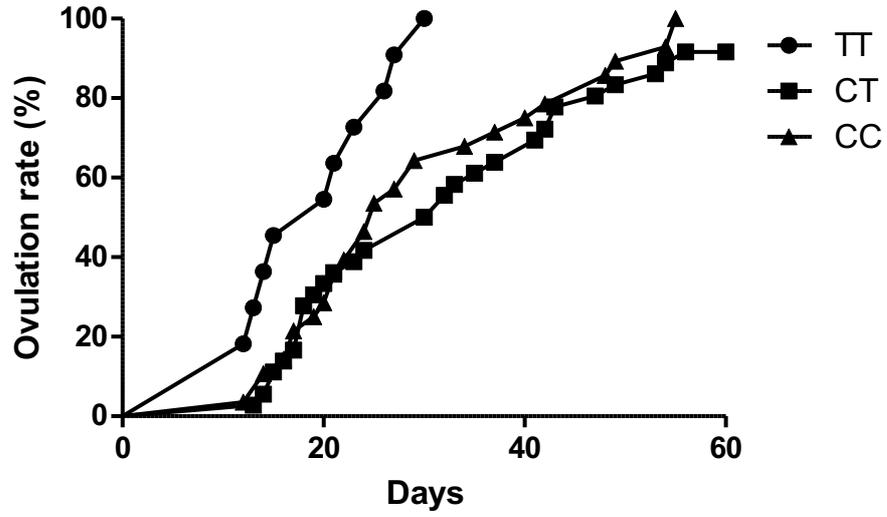


Fig. 1. Days until ovulation for *IGF-I SnaBI*.

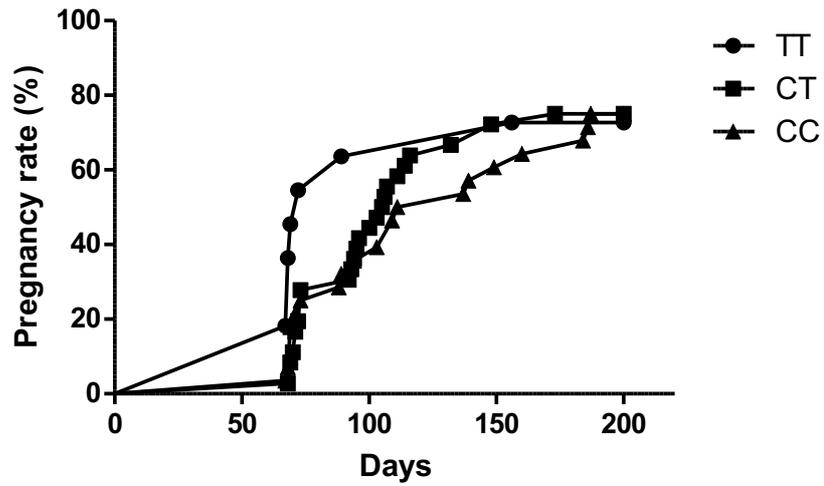


Fig. 2. Pregnancy rate for *IGF-I SnaBI*

4 Considerações Finais

Nosso trabalho avaliou os efeitos de mutações em genes ligados a resposta imune, ao transporte de energia celular e ao eixo somatotrópico sobre a fertilidade de vacas leiteiras da raça Holandês no pós-parto. Essas mutações tiveram efeito sobre a fertilidade, sendo que os SNPs no promotor do gene da *PON1* e nos genes *GHR* e *IGF-I* também impactaram, respectivamente, a atividade da *PON1* e do *IGF-I* no plasma. Isso sustenta a hipótese de que o impacto destas mutações ocorre através de mudanças na transcrição do mRNA sintetizado nesses genes, com efeito na ação dessas proteínas na fisiologia reprodutiva das vacas.

Por outro lado, o SNP no gene do *TNF- α* teve impacto sobre os níveis de NEFA, o SNP no gene *COQ9* foi associado com a ingestão de matéria-seca pré-parto e a mutação no *IGF-I* teve impacto no BHBA. Isso sugere um efeito dessas mutações sobre a adaptação das vacas ao balanço energético negativo que ocorre no periparto, podendo representar uma via indireta da ação desses SNPs com a fertilidade no pós-parto.

Além disso os SNPs -22, -221 e *COQ9* tiveram impacto na contagem de células somáticas e nenhuma mutação teve impacto na produção leiteira. Portanto, foram identificados SNPs com impacto positivo na reprodução sem reduzir o mérito genético para produção de leite. Somados, esses resultados indicam que mutações em genes ligados a resposta imune, ao transporte de energia celular e ao eixo somatotrópico podem ser utilizados como marcadores moleculares para a seleção genética de vacas leiteiras, com foco na fertilidade pós-parto.

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