

1 **X-treme loss of sequence diversity linked to neo-X chromosomes in**
2 **filarial nematodes**

3 **Short Title: *Brugia* Genetic Diversity**

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30 **Abstract**

31 The sequence diversity of natural and laboratory populations of *Brugia pahangi* and *Brugia*
32 *malayi* was assessed with Illumina resequencing followed by mapping to identify single
33 nucleotide variants and insertions/deletions. In natural and laboratory *Brugia* populations,
34 there is a lack of sequence diversity on chromosome X relative to the autosomes ($\pi_X/\pi_A = 0.2$),
35 which is lower than the expected $\pi_X/\pi_A = 0.75$). A reduction in diversity is also observed in other
36 filarial nematodes with neo-X chromosome fusions in the genera *Onchocerca* and *Wuchereria*,
37 but not those without neo-X chromosome fusions in the genera *Loa* and *Dirofilaria*. In the
38 species with neo-X chromosome fusions, chromosome X is abnormally large, containing a third
39 of the genetic material such that a sizable portion of the genome is lacking sequence diversity.
40 Such profound differences in genetic diversity can be consequential, having been associated
41 with drug resistance and adaptability, with the potential to affect filarial eradication.

42 **Author Summary**

43 Almost a billion people receive >7.7 billion doses of treatment aimed at eliminating lymphatic
44 filariasis, which is caused by three filarial nematodes: *Wuchereria bancrofti*, *Brugia malayi*, and
45 *Brugia timori*. Drug resistance and adaptation are both associated with pathogen success as
46 well as higher levels of genetic diversity. In an examination of genetic diversity in *Brugia malayi*
47 and *Brugia pahangi*, we observed a lack of genetic diversity over a third of the genome that is
48 found on chromosome X. These species have neo-X chromosomes where a chromosome X
49 fused with an autosome. Using publicly-available published data, the other filarial nematodes
50 of greatest human significance are also found to have a similar lack of genetic diversity on their

51 neo-X chromosomes. The two filarial nematodes with publicly-available data that lack neo-X
52 chromosomes did not have this lack of genetic diversity. This lack of sequence diversity in *B.*
53 *malayi*, *W. bancrofti*, and *O. volvulus* could have profound effects on all traits encoded on
54 chromosome X.

55 **Introduction**

56 *Brugia malayi*, *Wuchereria bancrofti*, and *Brugia timori* are filarial nematodes (roundworms)
57 that are responsible for lymphatic filariasis in humans with almost a billion people receiving
58 >7.7 billion doses of treatment through lymphatic filariasis elimination efforts [1]. All filarial
59 nematodes undergo a complex reproductive cycle that includes multiple larval stages within an
60 arthropod vector followed by more larval stages, sexual development, and reproduction in
61 vertebrate hosts [2]. Of the three filarial species responsible for human lymphatic filariasis, only
62 a subset of *B. malayi* strains can be maintained in small animals in the laboratory, a prerequisite
63 for rigorous laboratory-based studies. These laboratory populations are critical to our
64 understanding of filarial biology, and are commonly used for anti-filarial drug trials [3]. *Brugia*
65 *pahangi* can also be maintained in a laboratory life cycle, infects cats and dogs, and is
66 occasionally zoonotic. *B. pahangi* and *B. malayi* use mosquito insect vectors and can co-infect
67 dogs and cats [4]. Male *B. malayi* and female *B. pahangi* can produce viable offspring following
68 mating in laboratory conditions [5, 6], but the extent to which this happens successfully in
69 nature is unknown. In addition to lymphatic filariasis, filarial nematodes are responsible for
70 other diseases of medical and veterinary importance, including human onchocerciasis [7] caused
71 by the filarial nematode *Onchocerca volvulus*, human loiasis [8] caused by *Loa loa*, and dog and
72 cat heartworm caused by *Dirofilaria immitis* [9].

73 *Onchocerca volvulus* [10], *Brugia malayi* [11-13], and *Brugia pahangi* [14] all have nearly
74 complete genomes with chromosome-level assemblies of autosomes and chromosome X, while
75 chromosome Y has yet to be resolved in any filarial nematode. Draft genomes are available for
76 many other filarial nematodes [15], including *W. bancrofti* [16], *L. loa* [17], and *D. immitis* [18].

77 The genomes of all filarial nematodes are represented by six Nigon elements [12, 19, 20] that
78 reflect conserved chromosomal segments that likely reflect the ancestral chromosome state in
79 many nematodes, similar to Muller elements in *Drosophila* species [21]. In the case of filarial
80 nematodes, the composition of these elements was primarily determined through homology to
81 the completed genomes of *O. volvulus*, *Caenorhabditis elegans*, and/or *B. malayi* [12, 19, 20].

82 An important resource for filarial nematode research is the Filariasis Research Reagent
83 Resource Center, better known as FR3, which maintains both *B. malayi* and *B. pahangi* worms
84 across the life cycle in both Mongolian gerbils (jirds; *Meriones unguiculatus*) and cats [3]. At
85 FR3, *B. malayi* and *B. pahangi* are passaged in cats via a mosquito vector. First, blood containing
86 microfilariae is drawn from multiple cats, and pooled together. Then, this pooled blood is fed to
87 mosquitos to allow microfilariae to develop to infective third-stage larvae (L3) which are
88 extracted from mosquitos and introduced into an uninfected cat. Not all mosquitos survive
89 infection with microfilariae, and not all infective L3 worms that are introduced into cats mature
90 into viable adults. Infective L3s are also used to inoculate Mongolian gerbils that are used as a
91 source of much of the material that is distributed by FR3. There are several steps where
92 bottlenecks could occur, and different labs that maintain the life cycle have their own methods
93 to prevent bottlenecks.

94 Genetic diversity can be influenced by bottlenecks, polyandry, population size, sex-biased
95 population size, sex-biased or sex-exclusive inheritance, the rate of recombination, the
96 mutation rate, and selection [22, 23]. Bottlenecks occur when there is a rapid reduction in the
97 population size such that allele frequencies shift dramatically [24] and have been studied in
98 other parasite species [25-27]. These bottlenecks can significantly reduce genomic variation,

99 but the presence of alleles that confer survival advantages can also generate selective sweeps
100 that produce similar reductions in genomic variation [28]. Sex chromosomes add additional
101 complexity to genetic diversity. For instance, in heteromorphic sex chromosomes like those in
102 X-Y sex determination systems (which includes some filarial nematodes), the X chromosome
103 has reduced genetic diversity by virtue of reduced effective population size. In a population
104 with random mating (e.g. one without polyandry), this results in ~ 0.75 variance on
105 chromosome X and ~ 0.25 variance on chromosome Y relative to the autosomes, but in species
106 with multiple mating, this variance can be reduced even further [29].

107 Though multiple centers across the globe maintain *B. malayi* in laboratories, many of these
108 laboratory populations are derived from the same initial population. Several cats were
109 experimentally infected in the early 1960s with a sub-periodic zoophilic *B. malayi* strain that is
110 reported to be derived from a human patient from Malaysia [30] and distributed to numerous
111 places by Prof. Dr. C. P. Ramachandran [31, 32]. Recipients included the Central Drug Research
112 Institute, Lucknow, India, and the University of California Los Angeles (UCLA), among others.
113 Most modern *B. malayi* laboratory lines are descended from this latter line at UCLA [3],
114 including populations maintained and distributed by TRS labs and the NIAID-funded Filariasis
115 Research Reagent Resource Center (FR3). FR3 and TRS supply one another worms when either
116 laboratory has issues with their populations. In addition, investigators acquire worms from FR3
117 and/or TRS to establish their own culture collections and replenish with worms as needed,
118 including the laboratories of Prof. Mark Taylor and Dr. Joseph Turner in the Liverpool School of
119 Tropical Medicine and Dr. Gary Weil and Dr. Ramakrishna Rao at Washington University in St.
120 Louis. A further *B. malayi* line was established independently from an infected woman in

121 Narathiwat Province, southern Thailand, and has been maintained at The Faculty of Tropical
122 Medicine, Mahidol University, Bangkok, then Chiang Mai University, Thailand, for ~40 years
123 with no mixing with the other laboratory lineages [33].

124 The *B. pahangi* lineage at FR3 is thought to have been established in the 1970s [34] from a
125 green leaf monkey. Because *B. pahangi* and *B. malayi* share very similar life cycles, the
126 procedure for laboratory maintenance for both species at FR3 is similar.

127 Using samples of *B. malayi* and *B. pahangi* from multiple laboratory centers as well as natural
128 samples of *B. pahangi* that were acquired from wild cats [35], we sought to investigate the
129 genomic diversity within these *Brugia* populations. Given the potential for frequent bottlenecks
130 both in nature and the laboratory, there is the repeated and significant risk of a founder effect
131 that we sought to examine. To this end, we have employed public data from other filarial
132 nematodes, including *W. bancrofti*, *L. loa*, *O. volvulus* and *D. immitis* in order to place this
133 population diversity in the context of the broader filarial nematode family.

134 **Materials and Methods**

135 *B. malayi* Library Preparation and Sequencing

136 Adult male worms were provided from the following *B. malayi* centers: Washington University
137 in St. Louis, MO, USA; Liverpool School of Tropical Medicine, UK; TRS Laboratories, Athens, GA,
138 USA; FR3, Athens, GA, USA; Central Drug Research Institute, Lucknow, India; and Chiang Mai
139 University, Chiang Mai, Thailand (**S1 Text**). Adult male worms were sequenced, since females
140 are typically gravid precluding obtaining their individual genome. While virgin females would be
141 a viable alternative, the difficulties in isolating them would have precluded us from obtaining

142 many of the samples used here. Frozen single adult males recovered from the host gerbil were
143 homogenized separately in 50 µl Buffer G2 from the genomic DNA buffer set (Qiagen)
144 supplemented with RNase A (Qiagen) to 200 µg/mL. Homogenization was performed in a 1.5
145 mL microcentrifuge tube using a disposable micro pestle (Kimble-Chase). The homogenate was
146 removed to a fresh tube and then the pestle and original tube were washed with an extra 0.95
147 mL of G2 buffer with RNase which was then added to the sample. The homogenized sample
148 was then processed according to the protocol for tissue samples described in the genomic DNA
149 handbook (Qiagen) and using genomic-tip 20/G gravity flow columns (Qiagen) except 80 U
150 proteinase K (New England Biolabs) were used. Elution buffer QF was prewarmed to 50 °C to
151 increase DNA recovery. The DNA was precipitated by centrifugation as recommended, but in
152 the presence of 20 µg glycogen (Invitrogen). Genomic DNA was sheared to ~380 bp with an
153 ultrasonicator (Covaris) and used to construct indexed PE Illumina libraries using the NEBNext
154 Ultra DNA kit (New England Biolabs). All samples were sequenced on the Illumina HiSeq 2500
155 with a read length of 100 bp, except for W_male_2 and W_male_6, which were sequenced on
156 the Illumina HiSeq 4000 with a read length of 150 bp. While the data was generated specifically
157 for this study, the data from a subset of samples were used in a previously published study to
158 aid in identification of sex chromosomes and as such these methods are previously described
159 for those samples [12].

160 *B. pahangi* Library Preparation and Sequencing

161 Adult *B. pahangi* male worms were provided from the following locations: FR3 laboratories, at
162 both University of Georgia, Athens, GA, USA; University of Wisconsin, OshKosh, WI, USA (**S1**
163 **Text**) and University of Malaya, Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia [35]. Adult females were obtained from

164 FR3 laboratories and pooled for the purposes of this analysis. Pooled adult female samples
165 were prepared as described in Mattick et al [14]. Endemic isolates from Malaysia were
166 prepared in an identical fashion to the *Brugia malayi* samples described above. Frozen single
167 adult males obtained from FR3 and recovered from the same host gerbil were separately
168 homogenized under liquid nitrogen in 1.5 mL microcentrifuge tubes. The samples were
169 processed according to the Qiagen DNeasy blood and tissue insect protocol using 180 µl buffer
170 ATL and 20 µL proteinase K. The samples were processed according to the manufacturer's
171 recommendations and eluted in 200 µL of buffer AE. After DNA isolation, the pooled adult
172 female sample and the *B. pahangi* male FR3_UWO_Bp1AM_09 sample were sequenced on the
173 Illumina HiSeq2500 from KAPA Hyper libraries with 150 bp paired-end reads. For all other *B.*
174 *pahangi* samples, genomic DNA was sheared to ~380 bp with an ultrasonicator (Covaris) and
175 prepared into an indexed, paired-end Illumina library using the NEBNext Ultra DNA kit. These
176 samples were sequenced on the Illumina HiSeq 4000 with 150 bp paired end reads.

177 Sample Variant Calling and Processing for All Individual Nematode Species

178 Each individual *B. pahangi*, *B. malayi*, *O. volvulus*, *D. immitis*, *C. elegans* and *Drosophila*
179 *melanogaster* sample was mapped against its respective genome(GCA_000002995.5,
180 GCA_012070555.1, GCA_000002985.3, GCA_001077395.1, GCA_000499405.2,
181 GCA_000001215.4) [14, 36-40] using BWA MEM [41] with the following settings: -M -a. The
182 resulting BAM files were all sorted and de-duplicated using the Picard tools SortSam and
183 MarkDuplicates, respectively [42] using default parameters for both. Single Nucleotide Variants
184 (SNVs) were jointly called for each sample using Genomic Variant Call Format (GVCF) files
185 generated using the Genome Analysis Tool kit (GATK) [43] with the HaplotypeCaller with the --

186 read-filter MappingQualityReadFilter setting. The resulting GVCF files were merged and jointly
187 called for SNVs using the GATK GenomicsDBImport and GenotypeGVCFs functions, then filtered
188 using a manual filter with the following settings: --filter-name "QD" --filter-expression "QD <
189 5.0" --filter-name "QUAL" --filter-expression "QUAL < 30.0" --filter-name "DP" --filter-expression
190 "DP < 14.0" --filter-name "MQ" --filter-expression "MQ < 30.0" --filter-name "MQRankSum" --
191 filter-expression "MQRankSum < -12.5" --filter-name "ReadPosRankSum" --filter-expression
192 "ReadPosRankSum < -8.0" --filter-name "FS" --filter-expression "FS > 60.0". For male samples
193 from species where chromosome structure was known (*B. malayi*, *B. pahangi*), the autosomes
194 were called with a ploidy of 2, while the X chromosome was called at a ploidy of 1. For female
195 samples from species where chromosome structure was known (*O. volvulus*), the autosomes
196 and X chromosome were called with a ploidy of 2. Filtration in samples called with a ploidy of 1
197 were filtered with --filter-name "DP" --filter-expression "DP < 7.0" to reflect the reduced
198 sequencing depth on those sequences. Putative known pseudoautosomal regions from *B.*
199 *malayi*, *B. pahangi*, and *O. volvulus* were excluded from variant analysis.

200 Sample Variant Calling and Processing for Multi-Individual Samples

201 Each multi-individual *W. bancrofti* sample was mapped against its respective genome
202 (GCA_000002995.5, GCA_012070555.1) [14, 37] using BWA MEM [44] with the following
203 settings: -M -a. The resulting BAM files were all sorted and de-duplicated using the Picard tools
204 SortSam and MarkDuplicates respectively [42] using default parameters for both. SNVs were
205 called using the Freebayes software, specifically the freebayes-parallel feature using default
206 parameters.

207 SNV Density and Pi Analysis

208 SNV density can allow for the identification of regions of the genome that are under- or over-
209 represented in variants relative to the entire genomic sequence. SNV density across each of the
210 chromosomes was calculated over 10-kbp sliding non-overlapping windows, considered as
211 20,000 possible variant sites with homozygous variants counting for 2 site changes and
212 heterozygous variants counting as 1 site change. Pi was calculated using VCFtools over 10 kbp
213 non-overlapping windows for all samples with a genomic coverage > 80% (**S1 Table**) for samples
214 with a ploidy of 2. Because VCFtools requires diploid sites, the R package PopGenome [45] was
215 used with default parameters to calculate Pi for *B. malayi*, *B. pahangi* and *O. volvulus* X
216 chromosomes. Plots of SNV density and Pi were generated using the ggplots2 package in R [46],
217 with the 10-kbp regions as the X-axis and Pi as the Y-axis. A density plot for Pi for each species
218 was generated using the geom_density function of ggplots with default settings on the 10-kbp
219 values of Pi across each chromosome. SNV density and Pi were assigned to Nigon elements,
220 which were determined as previously described [12]. Briefly, contigs were mapped against *B.*
221 *malayi*, *O. volvulus* and *C. elegans* using the NUCmer tool from the MUMmer package v. 3.23
222 [47], and contigs were assigned to a specific Nigon element based on the largest match against
223 each specific Nigon element. Principal component analysis was conducted on all autosomal
224 variants in *Brugia malayi* and *Brugia pahangi* individuals using PLINK v.1.9 [48] with the --pca
225 parameter. The resulting primary two principal components for each species were plotted using
226 the geom_point function of ggplots with default settings in R.

227 Phylogenetic Relationships

228 Phylogenetic relationships for chromosome X and the autosomes were developed by first
229 obtaining current genomes for *B. timori*, *W. bancrofti* and *O. volvulus* from WormBase [49].
230 Conserved nematode genes from these genomes, in addition to *B. malayi* and *B. pahangi*, were
231 predicted using BUSCO v. 4.06 package and its nematoda_odb10 database [50]. To ensure
232 orthology, the genomes that were not in chromosome form (i.e. *B. timori* and *W. bancrofti*)
233 were aligned against *B. malayi* using the NUCmer tool from the MUMmer package v. 3.23 [47].
234 Contigs were binned to a chromosome based on maximum match length, and genes were
235 assigned to chromosome X or the autosomes based on their contig matches. Genes present in
236 all 5 species were aligned using TranslatorX [51] and filtered to include only those that were
237 <15% dissimilar (>85% similarity) at the amino acid level and had at most a difference of 10% in
238 gene length amongst all 5 orthologues. This left a total of 38 genes on chromosome X, and 228
239 genes on the autosomes. Trees were generated for these sequences using IQ-TREE with default
240 parameters [52], and plotted using iTOL [53]. Mitochondrial sequences (NC_004298.1,
241 CM022469.1, NC_016186.1, AP017686.1) for each species were obtained from GenBank, and
242 aligned at the nucleotide level using MAFFT v.7.427 [54]. The mitochondrial tree was generated
243 and plotted in an identical manner to the autosome and chromosome X trees.

244 Ethics Statement

245 All animals in the US were handled in accordance with guidelines defined by the Animal
246 Welfare Act (A3381-01), Association for Assessment and Accreditation of Laboratory Care
247 International (AAAALAC), PHS Policy for the Humane Care and Use of Laboratory Animals, and
248 the Guide for the Care and Use of Laboratory Animals. Animal work for FR3 was approved

249 under the University of Georgia Athens Institutional Animal Care and Use protocol A2010 12-
250 005 and A2013 11-009 or the University of Wisconsin Oshkosh under IACUC protocol number
251 0026-000246-R2-01-12-17. All animal research at TRS was approved under Institutional Animal
252 Care and Use Protocol 13-03 or 14-03. All animal work at WUSM was approved under WUSM
253 Institutional Animal Care and Use Protocol 20120025.

254 The study in Lucknow India bears IAEC approval number 129/08/Para/IAEC/renew (84/09)
255 dated April 27, 2009.

256 All experiments on animals at Liverpool School of Tropical Medicine were approved by the
257 ethical committees of Liverpool School of Tropical Medicine and the University of Liverpool and
258 were conducted according to Home Office Legislation, the revised Animals (Scientific
259 Procedures) Act of 1986 (project license numbers 3002974, P86866FD9).

260 Approval for using gerbils for sample work in Malaysia was granted by the University of Malaya
261 Animal Care and Use Committee (Ref. No. PAR/29/06/2012/RM [R]).

262 The protocol for samples obtained from Thailand was approved by the Institutional Animal Care
263 and Use Committee (Protocol Number 15/2562) of the Faculty of Medicine, Chiang Mai
264 University, Chiang Mai province, Thailand.

265 **Results**

266 **Genomic Variation in *B. malayi* Laboratory Populations**

267 Between 4-6 individual adult male *B. malayi* worms were sequenced from each of 6 laboratory
268 populations, which are from three primary *B. malayi* population groups: (a) FR3 and FR3
269 derived lines, including the continually maintained FR3 line, the line maintained by TRS labs,
270 and the lines at Washington University in St. Louis and the Liverpool School of Tropical
271 Medicine; (b) those from a life cycle established at the same time as the FR3-derived lines, but
272 maintained independently for decades in Lucknow, India; and (c) those from the life cycle in
273 Chiang Mai, Thailand, established from a completely independent human infection and
274 maintained in the laboratory independently for ~40 years. Paired-end Illumina sequencing
275 reads were generated to an average of 85× sequencing depth from individual adult male *B.*
276 *malayi* worms (**S1 Table**). These adult male worms from each site were collected from the same
277 gerbil, with the exception of TRS, where half of the worms were obtained from a different host
278 gerbil (**S2 Table**). All of the reads were mapped to the reference *B. malayi* genome [11-13] that
279 was obtained with worms from FR3 and TRS. The *B. malayi* samples had an average of 105,264
280 SNVs per sample, and 21,227 insertions/deletions per sample identified with the GATK
281 HaplotypeCaller called jointly on all samples. The *B. malayi* samples also had a
282 transition/transversion ratio (ts/tv) ranging from 2.10-2.60 (**S2 Table**).

283 **SNV Density and Pi Across the *B. malayi* Genome**

284 The analysis of SNV distribution using Pi was calculated over the Nigon elements associated
285 with each chromosome. Nigon elements are regions of nematode genomes that likely reflect

286 the ancestral five autosomes and a single sex chromosome. Nigon elements persist despite
287 genome rearrangements because of the infrequency of recombination between chromosomes
288 in nematodes [12, 19, 20]. These are similar to Muller elements in *Drosophila* [21] with Nigon
289 elements being denoted as Nigon-A, Nigon-B, Nigon-C, Nigon-D, Nigon-E, and Nigon-X. The
290 gene content on Nigon elements remains largely conserved even following neo-X chromosome
291 evolution, like the fusion of Nigon-D and Nigon-X in *Brugia* spp. and Nigon-D and Nigon-E in *O.*
292 *volvulus* [12].

293 The average SNV density across all samples (**S1 Fig**) and the amount of allelic diversity (π) for all
294 26 *B. malayi* samples (**Fig 1**) were similar when calculated in 10-kbp windows across each of the
295 Nigon elements for each sample. For species where chromosome X and the pseudo-autosomal
296 region were defined and the samples were known to be male (*B. malayi* and *B. pahangi*), π for
297 this chromosome was calculated using a ploidy value of 1, while the remaining chromosomes
298 were calculated using the standard ploidy of 2. In these cases, X-specific will refer to the region
299 of chromosome X that is not shared with chromosome Y, while the pseudo-autosomal region
300 will refer to the shared sequence between the X and Y chromosomes. After excluding the
301 pseudo-autosomal region of chromosome X, the average π across the X specific Nigon-D and
302 Nigon-X are 5-fold lower ($\pi_X/\pi_A = 0.19$) when compared to similar regions of the autosomes (**Fig**
303 **2**).

304 A principal component analysis identified that while populations recently supplemented from
305 the FR3 lineage are very similar, the Thai samples and the Indian samples are significantly
306 different, despite those from Lucknow, India, sharing a common background with the FR3 lines
307 (**Fig 3A**).

308 Genomic Variation in *B. pahangi* Samples

309 Individual adult male *B. pahangi* worms were sequenced from endemic *B. pahangi* from a cat in
310 Malaysia and from the *B. pahangi* FR3 laboratory population. For sequencing of endemic *B.*
311 *pahangi*, *Aedes togoi* mosquitos were allowed to feed on a naturally-infected microfilaremic
312 wild cat, L3s were recovered, and these L3s were used to infect gerbils as previously described
313 by Lau et al. [35]; three of these adult worms from a single gerbil were individually sequenced
314 and used for variant analysis. These three worms were compared to seven adult male *B.*
315 *pahangi* worms from the FR3 laboratory population from two gerbils. All of these samples were
316 sequenced on the Illumina HiSeq platform, resulting in an average 105× sequencing depth
317 (range: 22×-217×) per individual across the genome (**S3 Table**). All samples were mapped to the
318 *B. pahangi* FR3 genome [14]. On average there were 315,514 SNVs and 107,463
319 insertions/deletions identified with the GATK HaplotypeCaller in each *B. pahangi* sample with a
320 consistent ts/tv of 2.67-2.95, which is higher than the ts/tv for *B. malayi* calculated above.

321 SNV Density and Pi Across the *B. pahangi* Genome

322 The average SNV density across all samples (**S2 Fig**) and the amount of allelic diversity (Pi) (**Fig**
323 **1**) for all 10 samples were calculated in 10-kbp windows across each of the Nigon elements for
324 each sample. Based on both the sequencing depth (**S3 Fig**) difference between BP_ChrX_c and
325 other contigs in the *B. pahangi* chromosome X and the decrease in apparent sequence diversity
326 on chromosome X contigs in all but BP_ChrX_c (**S4 Fig**), BP_ChrX_c was determined to be the
327 pseudo-autosomal region and analyses were adjusted accordingly. After excluding the
328 pseudoautosomal region of the X chromosome, the average Pi across Nigon elements D and X is
329 5-fold lower ($\pi_X/\pi_A = 0.21$) when compared to Nigon elements in the autosomes (**Figs 1 and 2**).

330 A principal component analysis using PLINK identified that the FR3 *B. pahangi* samples are
331 distinct from the endemic samples, but that the FR3 samples are also much more closely
332 related to each other than the endemic samples are to one another (**Fig 3B**). The second
333 principal component primarily separates out each endemic sample, suggesting that these
334 worms have significantly more diversity than those from the FR3 lineage.

335 Introgression

336 In each *Brugia* nematode, there are three genomes—the mitochondrial genome, the *Wolbachia*
337 endosymbiont genome, and the nuclear genome. Because of the similarities in nucleotide
338 identity, chromosome structure (including a largely shared X chromosome and similar
339 pseudoautosomal region) and genome size between *B. pahangi* and *B. malayi*, as well as the
340 documented ability for these species to successfully cross [5], we tested if there was
341 introgression between *B. pahangi* and *B. malayi*. If an introgression occurred that resulted in
342 the transfer of a chromosome X from one *Brugia* species to the other, one would expect that a
343 phylogenetic tree drawn from chromosome X would look different than that of the autosomes.
344 However, phylogenetic trees of a subset of conserved genes on the autosomes of these agents
345 of lymphatic filariasis and a related filarial parasite, *Onchocerca volvulus*, are similar in topology
346 and relative distance when compared to those on chromosome X and the mitochondria, while
347 the rates of variation are different (**Fig 4**). These phylogenetic patterns between *B. malayi* and
348 *B. pahangi* that are the same for chromosome X, the autosomes, and mitochondrial sequences
349 suggest that the decreased variation on chromosome X did not result from introgression. The
350 conserved phylogenetic topology suggests that this lack of sequence diversity predates the
351 origins of *Brugia* spp.

352 Other Filarial Genomes

353 To examine the loss of sequence diversity on chromosome X more widely, particularly with
354 respect to the two neo-X chromosomes, we compared the sequence diversity across exemplar
355 filarial nematodes that have sequence data from multiple samples, including *B. malayi*, *B.*
356 *pahangi*, *O. volvulus* [10], *W. bancrofti* [16], *L. loa* [17], and *D. immitis* [18]. These analyses
357 capitalized on the organization of nematode genomes that allows for the attribution of contigs
358 to Nigon elements even in the highly fragmented genomes like *W. bancrofti* [16], *L. loa* [55] and
359 *D. immitis* [56]. *W. bancrofti* is predicted to have a Nigon-D and Nigon-X fused neo-X
360 chromosome like *Brugia* spp., *O. volvulus* has a Nigon-D and Nigon-E fused neo-X chromosome,
361 and *D. immitis* and *L. loa* are predicted to have just Nigon-D as their X chromosome [12]. If the
362 loss of sequence diversity in chromosome X of *Brugia* is associated with neo-X chromosome
363 evolution, we would expect there to be a similar loss in the phylogenetically distinct *O. volvulus*
364 that we do not see in *D. immitis* or *L. loa*. In addition, the results were compared to similar data
365 [57, 58] for the model organisms *C. elegans* and *D. melanogaster* that have complete genomes
366 [59, 60], and a large amount of available population data. *C. elegans* is a free-living nematode
367 with an XO reproductive system, while *D. melanogaster* is an arthropod with an XY reproductive
368 system.

369 Publicly-available WGS data from populations of *O. volvulus* (mixed sex individuals), *W.*
370 *bancrofti* (mixed samples), *L. loa* (mixed samples), *D. immitis* (individual males), *C. elegans*
371 (mixed sex individuals), and *D. melanogaster* (mixed sex individuals) were analyzed to ascertain
372 whether the loss of diversity observed in *B. malayi* and *B. pahangi* was present in other filarial
373 nematodes. Given the fragmented nature of some of the filarial nematode genomes and the

374 lack of Y chromosomes in some species, the pseudo-autosomal region could only be excluded
375 from *O. volvulus* and *D. melanogaster*. Contigs from the nematode genomes were assigned to
376 Nigon elements based on their homology to *B. malayi*, *C. elegans*, and *O. volvulus*. The
377 distribution of Pi across Nigon elements was non-normal with a mean outside the interquartile
378 range such that the data violates many of the assumptions of common statistical tests.
379 However, visual inspection of the box plots reveals that in nematodes with neo-X chromosomes
380 (i.e. *Brugia* spp., *W. bancrofti*, and *O. volvulus*) chromosome X can clearly be delineated with a
381 lower Pi (**Fig 2**), despite the difference in the Nigon-composition of those neo-X chromosomes.
382 In contrast, in nematodes without neo-X chromosomes (i.e. *D. immitis*, *L. loa*, and *C. elegans*) as
383 well as in *D. melanogaster*, chromosome X cannot be clearly delineated (**Fig 2**), and Pi on
384 chromosome X is in line with Pi on the autosomes. This indicates that this profound lack of
385 sequence diversity on Pi is not due solely to the life cycle and lifestyle of filarial nematodes, but
386 instead to creation of neo-X chromosomes through fusion with an autosome.

387 **Discussion**

388 *B. malayi* and *B. pahangi* filarial nematodes populations have genetic diversity that is consistent
389 with the known separation over time of these populations (**Fig 3**). The greatest difference is
390 seen between endemic nematodes and laboratory populations in the case of *B. pahangi*, or
391 between independently derived laboratory populations in the case of *B. malayi*. To a lesser
392 extent there are differences between nematodes that were derived from the same human
393 sample but have been maintained separately for decades reflected in the differences between
394 Lucknow and the FR3 samples.

395 Lack of access to clinical samples precluded their inclusion in this study. While the passage of
396 laboratory populations through non-native hosts could impact the genetic diversity, introducing
397 new bottlenecks and selective pressures, the lack of diversity on neo-X chromosomes was
398 found in at least two populations for each of four species with known neo-X fusions (*B. malayi*,
399 *B. pahangi*, *W. bancrofti*, and *O. volvulus*) and was absent from the two filarial nematodes that
400 lack such fusions (*L. loa* and *D. immitis*). Further population level data and the completion of
401 filarial nematode genomes will likely shed further light on the factors influencing genetic
402 diversity in filarial nematodes as well as parasitic nematodes more broadly.

403 A significant difference in genetic diversity was observed between autosomes and chromosome
404 X. Genetic diversity can be influenced by bottlenecks, polyandry, rate of recombination,
405 mutation rate, selection, and effective population size [22, 23]. The loss of genetic diversity on
406 chromosome X is not limited to just laboratory populations (and the bottlenecks associated
407 with laboratory propagation) since natural populations of *W. bancrofti* and *B. pahangi* have the
408 same loss of diversity. Although polyandry and population shrinkage may also contribute to loss
409 of diversity in filarial nematodes, it is quite likely to be similar for all of the examined filarial
410 nematodes given their life history.

411 The rate of recombination is expected to be suppressed in sex chromosomes relative to
412 autosomes [61], which is supported by the significantly reduction in intrachromosomal
413 inversions observed in the *Brugia* chromosome X relative to its autosomes [12]. In addition,
414 chromosome Y has an abundance of repeats and transposable elements that prevented its
415 assembly [12], and these repetitive elements are predicted to play a critical role in the further
416 suppression of recombination [62].

417 In mammals and birds, the higher mutation rate in males over females leads to differences in
418 the mutation rate between autosomes and sex chromosomes [63], while in at least one plant
419 [64] the autosome and sex chromosome mutations are approximately equal. Differences in
420 mutation rate on the sex chromosomes in mammals are associated with more rounds of
421 replication in male gametes, which is likely also the case in filarial nematodes. However, we
422 expect male gametogenesis to be similar between all examined filarial nematodes, such that
423 the differences we observe are not likely attributed to the mutation rate.

424 Genetic diversity can also be influenced by sex-biased effective population size, sex-biased
425 inheritance, and sex-exclusive inheritance [22, 23]. While we cannot rule out the effects of sex-
426 biased inheritance or sex-exclusive inheritance, we suggest that they would likely be the same
427 across all examined filarial nematodes.

428 Across nematodes and even filarial nematodes, there is a diversity of sex chromosomes, with
429 XO sex determination being common, but XY being present, and even some nematodes having
430 three sexes [65]. Among the filarial nematodes examined, *L. loa* and *D. immitis* are thought to
431 be XO [66], with *Brugia* spp. and *Onchocerca* spp. being XY [66] resulting from different neo-X
432 fusions [12]. In the absence of selection and no sex bias in reproduction, the expected
433 population size for an organism with heteromorphic XY chromosomes, like *Brugia* and
434 *Onchocerca* filarial nematodes, the autosome:(chromosome X):(chromosome Y) allelic
435 frequency is 4:3:1. As a consequence, a reduction of nucleotide diversity is expected on
436 heteromorphic sex chromosomes, with $\pi_X/\pi_A \sim 0.75$ [10, 22]. Similarly, nematodes with XO sex
437 determination would have an expected autosome:(chromosome X):(chromosome Y) allelic
438 frequency is 4:3:0 with $\pi_X/\pi_A \sim 0.75$. However, we observe $\pi_X/\pi_A \sim 0.2$ for both *Brugia* species.

439 Upon examination of other filarial nematodes, a reduction in π_X/π_A similar to that in *Brugia* spp.
440 was observed for *W. bancrofti* and *O. volvulus*, all four of which have neo-X chromosomes that
441 emerged after fusion of chromosome X with an autosome. In the case of filarial worms,
442 different neo-X chromosomes were formed at least twice by the fusion of two Nigon elements
443 [12, 19, 20]. The common Nigon element in these fusion events appears to be Nigon-D, which is
444 likely the ancestral sex chromosome of filarial nematodes [12, 19, 20]. The chromosomal fusion
445 event in the ONC3 clade, containing *Onchocerca* spp., joined Nigon-D and Nigon-E, while the
446 chromosomal fusion in the ONC5 clade, containing *Brugia* spp. and *Wuchereria* sp., joined
447 Nigon-D and Nigon-X (**Fig 5**). Both times that there is a loss in diversity on chromosome X in this
448 study, there is a concomitant neo-X fusion. And conversely, where there is not a neo-X fusion,
449 there is not the loss of diversity (i.e. *L. loa* and *D. immitis*). As such this lack of genetic diversity
450 on chromosome X seems consistent with the formation of the neo-X chromosomes prior to
451 several speciation events, like that of *Brugia* spp. and *W. bancrofti* (**Fig 5**). Chromosomal fusion
452 events are known to reduce genomic diversity in species as the effective population size of the
453 sex chromosome is reduced and novel genes and dosage mechanisms must be generated to
454 compensate for the fusion [67, 68]. For example, in *Sylvoidea* bird species, a loss of diversity on
455 chromosome Z (the equivalent of chromosome X in ZW systems) is attributed to a neo-sex
456 chromosome fusion [69].

457 Chromosomal fusions may not be the only source of diversity loss on chromosome X. For
458 example, *Haemonchus contortus*, a parasitic nematode, does not show evidence of a recent
459 chromosomal fusion. Yet the *H. contortus* π_X/π_A is 0.36 [70], which is also lower than neutral
460 expectation of $\pi_X/\pi_A \approx 0.75$. This decrease in *H. contortus* was attributed to host sex biases due

461 to reproductive fitness being over-dispersed between males and females from polyandry and
462 high fecundity [70]. However, filarial nematodes only seem to have this lack of genetic diversity
463 on neo-X chromosomes despite likely polyandry and high fecundity across many or most filarial
464 nematodes.

465 In nematodes, there has also been a transition in the sex chromosomes. Nigon-D is likely the
466 ancestral chromosome for all Rhabditida nematodes, with a conversion of Nigon-X to
467 chromosome X in Rhabditina nematodes, which includes *C. elegans* [12]. This transition does
468 not appear to be associated with a difference in genetic diversity for chromosome X upon
469 comparisons of *C. elegans* and the filarial nematodes without neo-X fusions, like *D. immitis* and
470 *L. loa*. (**Fig 2**). It is possible that altering the sex determining Nigon element is not enough to
471 cause diversity loss, and that it is specifically associated with chromosomal fusion. Alternatively,
472 it is possible that enough time has elapsed to eliminate the signature associated with that
473 transition at least with the resolution with which it was examined here.

474 The same processes that subject chromosome X to decreased genetic diversity and Muller's
475 ratchet also affect chromosome Y to a much larger degree [63, 71]. In filarial nematodes, we do
476 not have an assembled chromosome Y, and are limited to male-specific contigs attributed to
477 chromosome Y. But the high repetitiveness of the sequences [12] suggests that filarial
478 nematode Y chromosomes are undergoing a degeneration consistent with neo-Y formation.

479 Although chromosomal fusions appear to be associated with diversity loss in filarial worms, it is
480 not yet clear if this will be found universally in other parasitic nematodes. This lack of
481 chromosome X genetic diversity is important since most medically important filarial nematodes

482 have neo-X fusions with a third of all genetic material being on chromosome X, representing a
483 substantial loss of sequence diversity. Genetic material on chromosome X also undergoes
484 recombination at a lower rate than the rest of the genome [61] . Thus the sex chromosome is
485 more susceptible to Muller’s Ratchet [72], which is a process whereby deleterious mutations
486 accumulate in the absence of recombination. This loss of diversity on such a large portion of the
487 genome could have significant consequences. In other parasites, drug resistance and
488 adaptability are associated with a higher level of genetic diversity, and its absence can prevent
489 an organism from developing strategies of coping with adverse events [73].

490 **Conclusions**

491 Populations were examined that were derived from two independent isolates of *B. malayi* and
492 *B. pahangi*. For *B. malayi* this includes several populations derived from a human from Malaysia
493 and a population from an infected woman in Thailand. For *B. pahangi* this includes the
494 populations derived from a green leaf monkey from Malaysia and from naturally infected
495 Malaysian cats. We observe a profound lack of sequence diversity on chromosome X in all
496 independent populations of *B. malayi* and *B. pahangi* that is consistent with reduced
497 chromosome X diversity in other sequenced filarial nematodes with neo-X chromosomes. Given
498 the importance that sequence diversity has with respect to adaptability and the size of
499 chromosome X, which is a third of the genome, this lack of sequence diversity in a third of the
500 genome in medically important filarial nematodes is likely to have a large effect on the
501 evolutionary trajectory of these species.

502 **Supporting Information**

503

504 **Acknowledgments**Adult *B. malayi* and *B. pahangi* males were obtained through
505 **the NIH Biodefense and Emerging Infections Research Resources Repository,**
506 **NIAID, NIH, which procures material from the NIH/NIAID Filarial Research**
507 **Reagent Resource Center (FR3) with morphological voucher specimens stored at**
508 **the Harold W. Manter Museum at University of Nebraska, accession numbers**
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512

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746

747 **Figure Legends**

748 **Fig 1. Pi across *B. malayi* and *B. pahangi* samples from multiple laboratory backgrounds.** Pi
749 was calculated across each of the *B. malayi* and *B. pahangi* contigs/scaffolds using VCFTools on
750 a combined VCF file containing all samples. The results are organized by chromosome and
751 Nigon elements. Chromosome X shows a distinct lack of nucleotide diversity relative to the
752 autosomes. The lack of diversity on chromosome X appears to be present in nematodes from all
753 laboratory centers for *B. malayi* and in both endemic and laboratory populations for *B. pahangi*.
754 The plots for chromosome X are larger reflecting the increased size of chromosome X which is
755 approximately twice the size of the autosomes. Chromosome Y is not resolved in either
756 organism, and as such Pi could not be calculated.

757 **Fig 2. Pi across filarial nematode species and model organisms.** Pi was calculated across *B.*
758 *malayi*, *B. pahangi*, *W. bancrofti*, *O. volvulus*, *L. loa*, *D. immitis*, *D. melanogaster* and *C. elegans*
759 using VCFTools on a combined VCF file containing all samples for each of those species. For all
760 nematode species, contigs were assigned to a Nigon element based on their homology to *B.*
761 *malayi*, *O. volvulus* and *C. elegans*. Values of Pi were log₁₀-transformed to more readily visualize
762 the distributions. Filarial nematodes with neo-X chromosomes (Nigon-D/Nigon-X in *Brugia* spp.
763 and *W. bancrofti* and NigonD/Nigon-E in *O. volvulus*) have a significantly depressed Pi compared
764 to autosomal Nigon elements or X chromosomes in other species (Nigon-D in *L. loa* and *D.*
765 *immitis*, Nigon-X in *C. elegans*, and chromosome X in *D. melanogaster*). This suggests that the
766 loss of diversity observed in *B. malayi* and *B. pahangi* are not limited to those species and
767 related to the formation of the neo-X chromosome. Chromosome 4 in *D. melanogaster* also has

768 a decrease in Pi; it is a small chromosome sometimes referred to as the dot chromosome that is
769 largely heterochromatic and may formerly have been a sex chromosome [74].

770 **Fig 3. Principal component analysis of *B. malayi* and *B. pahangi* samples.** Principal component
771 analyses of the *B. malayi* (A) and *B. pahangi* (B) samples were conducted using PLINK with
772 default parameters on each individual sample for each population, and the resulting outputs
773 were imported into R and plotted using `geom_point` from `ggplots`. All of the FR3-derived *B.*
774 *malayi* samples cluster very tightly together, except for those derived from the Lucknow strain,
775 which are separated by principal component 2. Principal component 1 primarily divides the 4
776 samples from Thailand, which not only are distinct from FR3-derived worms, but are much
777 more distinct from each other than FR3-derived worms are from each other. The FR3 single
778 adult male *B. pahangi* all cluster together, while samples from wild infected cats from Malaysia
779 appear to dominate the variation along both principal components.

780 **Fig 4. Phylogenetic trees of conserved nematode BUSCO genes and mitochondria between**
781 **filarial species.** Conserved genes predicted by BUSCO in *B. malayi*, *B. pahangi*, *W. bancrofti*, *B.*
782 *timori* and *O. volvulus* were separated out by their location and divided based on their presence
783 on chromosome X of *B. malayi* and *B. pahangi* (A) or the autosomes of those species (B). These
784 gene sets were used to construct phylogenetic trees using IQ-TREE (bootstrap=1000) that were
785 midpoint rooted in IQ-TREE (<https://itol.embl.de/>). (C) Mitochondrial genome sequences of
786 these organisms were aligned via MAFFT, and trees were generated via IQ-TREE. The
787 relationships between filarial species consistently show *B. malayi* and *B. timori* as more closely
788 related to each other than to *B. pahangi* such that any loss of chromosome X diversity likely
789 predates the divergence of the three organisms.

790 **Fig 5. Phylogenetic relationships related to sex chromosome Nigon content.** The phylogenetic
791 relationship of filarial nematodes is shown as adapted from Lefoulon et al. [75]. Nigon element
792 assignments for the sex chromosomes are shown when known or inferred previously [12]. The
793 loss of diversity on the sex chromosome co-occurs with the instances of chromosomal fusions
794 between Nigon-IV and Nigon-X in ONC5 and between Nigon-IV and Nigon-V in ONC3, but does
795 not appear to be present in species that do not contain the chromosomal fusion in either the
796 ONC3 or ONC5 clades.

797 **Supporting Information**

798 **S1 Fig. *B. malayi* variant distribution across samples from multiple laboratory backgrounds.**

799 SNV density was calculated across each of the *B. malayi* chromosomes and averaged across all
800 samples using 10 kbp windows across each contig and normalized to the total sample number
801 (n=26). Heterozygous variants were considered as half of the value of homozygous variants for
802 the purposes of density calculations. There is a significant loss of variants in chromosome X that
803 is consistent across all individual samples and is displayed here in aggregate, and the
804 pseudoautosomal region of chromosome X is indicated by a red bar.

805 **S2 Fig. *B. pahangi* variant density.** SNV density was plotted across each of the *B. pahangi*
806 chromosomes averaged across all samples. Density was calculated using 10 kbp windows across
807 each contig using R and normalized to the total sample number (n=10). Heterozygous variants
808 were considered as half of the value of homozygous variants for the purposes of density
809 calculations. Similar to *B. malayi*, chromosome X of all of the *B. pahangi* samples show a

810 significant lack of variation in the central region that is in contrast to the autosomes and the
811 rest of chromosome X.

812 **S3 Fig. *B. pahangi* sequencing depth across all samples.** Depth plots were calculated over 10
813 kbp non overlapping regions across the *B. pahangi* chromosomes. The predicted
814 pseudoautosomal region (**S4 Fig**) has depth that is consistent with autosomal depth while the
815 rest of chromosome X appears to be at half depth. This is consistent with a pseudo-autosomal
816 profile in this contig.

817 **S4 Fig. Heterozygous *B. pahangi* SNV density across chromosome X.** Density plots were
818 generated for heterozygous SNV density values calculated over 10 kbp non-overlapping regions
819 across the *B. pahangi* chromosome X. Pseudo-autosomal regions in chromosome X of *B. malayi*
820 have been previously described [12], and an analysis of heterozygous SNVs in chromosome X of
821 adult *B. pahangi* males (which should only be possible in pseudoautosomal regions) reveals that
822 a similar region of the chromosome has an enriched value of Pi, indicating that *B. pahangi* has a
823 similar pseudoautosomal region to *B. malayi*.

824 **S1 Table. Coverage and Sequencing Depth Metrics for all Samples in Figure 2.**

825 **S2 Table. Metadata, Mapping statistics, and Variant Calls for *Brugia malayi*.**

826 **S3 Table. Metadata, Mapping statistics, and Variant Calls for *Brugia pahangi*.**

827 **S1 Text. Standard operating procedure for *Brugia* rearing in jirds across all Centers.** This
828 document includes all standard operating procedures for maintaining the laboratory life cycle

829 for *B. malayi* and/or *B. pahangi* for the different laboratories that provided samples from their
830 collections.