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Contrasting patterns of isotype-1 ^β-tubulin allelic diversity in *Haemonchus*

contortus and Haemonchus placei in the southern USA are consistent with a

37 Abstract

The benzimidazoles are one of the most important broad-spectrum anthelmintic drug classes 38 for parasitic nematode control in domestic animals and humans. They have been widely used in 39 livestock, particularly in small ruminants for over 40 years. This has resulted in widespread 40 resistance in small ruminant gastrointestinal nematode parasite species, especially *Haemonchus* 41 contortus. Benzimidazole resistance mutations have also been reported in *Haemonchus placei*, but 42 only at low frequencies, suggesting resistance is at a much earlier stage of emergence than is the 43 case for *H. contortus*. Here, we investigate the haplotype diversity of isotype-1 β -tubulin 44 benzimidazole resistance mutations and the population genetic structure of *H. contortus* and *H.* 45 placei populations from sheep and cattle from the southern USA. Microsatellite genotyping 46 revealed a low level of genetic differentiation in six *H.placei* and seven *H. contortus* populations 47 examined. This is consistent with several previous studies from other regions, mainly in H. 48 *contortus*, supporting a model of high gene flow between parasite populations. There was a single 49 F200Y(TAC) haplotype present in all six H. placei populations across Georgia, Florida and 50 Arkansas. In contrast, there were at least two different F200Y(TAC) haplotypes (up to four) and 51 52 two different F167Y(TAC) haplotypes across the seven *H. contortus* populations studied. These results provide further evidence to support a model for benzimidazole resistance in Haemonchus 53 spp, in which resistance mutations arise from a single, or the small number of locations, in a region 54 during the early phases of emergence, and subsequently spread due to animal movement. 55

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Keywords: *Haemonchus contortus, Haemonchus placei*, benzimidazole resistance, isotype-1 βtubulin, resistance emergence and spread.

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66 **1. Introduction**

Gastrointestinal nematode parasites are a major cause of disease in grazing ruminants, resulting 67 in billions of US dollars of annual production loss in the livestock industry worldwide (Stromberg 68 and Gasbarre, 2006). Anthelmintic resistance is an ever-increasing threat and understanding the 69 70 patterns of its emergence is an important goal. Haemonchus contortus most commonly infects sheep and goats, causing significant economic losses worldwide, whereas Haemonchus placei 71 72 predominantly infects large ruminants and its economic importance is generally restricted to warmer regions (Hoberg et al., 2004; Lichtenfels et al., 1994; Lichtenfels JR, 1994). 73 Benzimidazole resistance is at an advanced stage in H. contortus in many parts of the world and 74 multiple studies have shown regional importance of single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) at 75 codons F167Y(TTC-TAC), E198A(GAA-GCA) and F200Y(TTC-TAC) of the isotype-1 β-76 tubulin gene (Brasil et al., 2012; Ghisi et al., 2007; Hoglund et al., 2009; Kotze, 2012; Kwa et al., 77 1994; Redman et al., 2015; Rufener et al., 2009; Silvestre and Cabaret, 2002; Silvestre and 78 Humbert, 2002). Although benzimidazole resistance is now emerging in *H. placei* in cattle, it is 79 generally at a much earlier stage than for *H. contortus* and is much less studied (Ali et al., 2019; 80 Avramenko et al., 2020; Brasil et al., 2012). The F200Y(TAC) isotype-1 β-tubulin resistance 81 mutations have been described in *H. placei* populations in the USA, Pakistan and Brazil (Ali et al., 82 2019; Avramenko et al., 2020; Brasil et al., 2012) and the F167Y(TAC) mutation has only been 83 recorded in Brazil (Brasil et al., 2012). 84

85 In the present study, we have compared the population genetic structure and the isotype-1 β tubulin haplotype diversity of H. contortus and H. placei from sheep, goats and cattle sampled 86 87 from the Arkansans, Florida and Georgia regions of the southern USA. For *H. contortus*, where resistance is at an advanced stage, we find multiple resistance haplotypes across the seven locations 88 89 sampled. In contrast, for *H. placei*, where resistance is at an early stage of emergence, we find just a single resistance haplotype on all six locations surveyed. These results add to evidence from our 90 previous work suggesting the importance of the spread of resistance from a single, or relatively 91 small number of locations, during the early stages of its emergence. 92

- 94 2. Materials and Methods
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- 96 *2.1. Parasite material*

97 Parasite material was obtained from three regions of the southern USA, where we anticipated a high prevalence of *Haemonchus*. Adult *Haemonchus* worms were harvested from the abomasa of 98 10 cattle, 2 sheep and 4 goats immediately following their slaughter at three different locations of 99 Arkansas, Florida, and Georgia. Details of the 10 cattle parasite populations have been described 100 101 in a previous report (Chaudhry et al., 2014). Briefly, three populations were obtained from Georgia (Pop86C, Pop87C, and Pop88C), one population from Florida (Pop85C) and six populations from 102 Arkansas/Northeast Oklahoma (Pop9C, Pop67C, Pop76C, Pop80C, Pop81C, and Pop84C). In the 103 case of Georgia, population Pop86C was collected from an animal pastured on a farm that also 104 raised sheep, population Pop87C was from an animal on a farm where only cattle were pastured 105 and a third population (Pop88C) was collected from an abattoir and so the grazing history was 106 unknown. In the case of Arkansas, population Pop9C was collected from calves that were grazed 107 on a single pasture at the University of Arkansas for 2 months before necropsy. Five populations 108 (Pop67C, Pop76C, Pop80C, Pop81C and Pop84C) were collected from cattle purchased from a 109 sale barn that were derived from different sources in Northwest Arkansas/Northeast Oklahoma and 110 slaughtered immediately after purchase. A final population (Pop85C) was collected from a calf 111 112 experimentally infected with L₃ derived from several calves in Florida.

Two and three *Haemonchus* populations of sheep and goats, respectively, were collected from Arkansas (Pop1S, Pop2S, Pop10G, Pop11G, Pop12G) and one goat-derived *Haemonchus* population was collected from Georgia (Pop1G). In the case of Arkansas, four populations (Pop2S, Pop10G, Pop11G, and Pop12G) were collected directly from an abattoir, hence the host grazing history was unknown. The Pop1S population was collected from a farm, where sheep had been grazed on a single pasture for 6 months before necropsy. In the case of Georgia, population Pop1G was collected directly from the abattoir, with no grazing history.

Overall, the dataset was composed of 319 individual worms from 10 cattle, 64 individual worms
from 2 sheep and 125 individual worms from 4 goats (Supplementary Table S1).

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123 2.2. gDNA extraction and pyrosequence genotyping

Adult worms were fixed in 80% ethanol immediately following removal from the host abomasum. The heads of individual worms were dissected and lysed in a single 0.5ul tube containing 40 µl of lysis buffer and stored at -80°C as previously described by Chaudhry et al. (2016). 1 µl of neat single worm lysate was used as a PCR template and identical dilutions of lysis buffer, made in parallel, were used as negative controls. To prepare pooled lysates of each population, 1 μ l aliquots of individual neat adult worm lysate were pooled, and 1 μ l was used as a PCR template. Pyrosequence genotyping of 10 cattle, 2 sheep and 4 goat derived lysates was performed to target the rDNA ITS-2 and codons F167Y (TAC), E198A (GCA) and F200Y (TAC)

132 of isotype-1 β-tubulin of *H. placei* and *H. contortus* was described in our previous studies

- 133 (Chaudhry et al., 2014; Chaudhry et al., 2015b).
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135 *2.3. Microsatellite genotyping*

Six previously published microsatellites (Hcms3561, Hcms53265, Hpms43, Hpms52, Hpms53, 136 Hpms102) were selected as potentially useful markers based on our previous data (Chaudhry et 137 al., 2015a; Chaudhry et al., 2016; Santos et al., 2017). These studies produced clear unambiguous 138 genotypes with either a single or double Genescan peaks on single worms, as anticipated for single 139 140 copy markers in both H. placei and H. contortus. Individual worm genotyping was performed from 6 H. placei populations (Pop76C, Pop9C, Pop80C, Pop85C, Pop88C, Pop87C) and 4 H. contortus 141 populations (Pop1G, Pop10G, Pop11G, Pop12G) that contained the F200Y(TAC) and 142 F167Y(TAC) resistance-associated SNPs. A summary of primer sequences, allele ranges, PCR 143 amplification, and bioinformatic analysis was described in our previous studies (Chaudhry et al., 144 2016; Santos et al., 2017). 145

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147 2.4. Phylogenetic analysis of the isotype-1 β -tubulin locus

For the isotype-1 β -tubulin gene, a fragment encompassing parts of exons 4 and 5, including 148 codons F167Y(TTC-TAC), E198A(GAA-GCA) and F200Y(TTC-TAC), for *H. placei* (325bp) 149 and H. contortus (328bp) were amplified. Pooled lysates were made from 6 H. placei populations 150 (Pop9C, Pop76C, Pop80C, Pop87C, Pop88C, Pop85C), in which F200Y (TAC) was detected and 151 7 H. contortus populations (Pop1S, Pop2S, Pop10G, Pop11G, Pop12G, Pop1G, Pop86C) in which 152 F200Y(TAC) and F167Y(TAC) were detected. Amplicons were cloned into PJET 1.2/BLUNT 153 154 vector (Thermo Scientific) and sequenced using standard procedures were described by Chaudhry et al. (2015b). For the phylogenetic analysis, sequences were aligned with H. placei and H. 155 156 contortus isotype-1 ß-tubulin reference sequences (Acc No KJ598498, Acc. No. X67489) and edited using Geneious Pro 5.4 software (Drummond AJ, 2012). A previously described approach 157 was used to filter the isotype-1 β-tubulin sequences to remove SNPs occurring only once in the 158

159 dataset and ensure PCR-induced mutations were not included in the analysis (Chaudhry et al., 160 2015a; Chaudhry et al., 2016; Redman et al., 2015). The aligned sequences were then imported 161 into the CD-HIT software (Huang et al., 2010) to calculate the number of unique haplotypes 162 present in each population (Table 4). Construction of a network tree of the isotype-1 β -tubulin 163 haplotypes was performed as described in our previous studies (Chaudhry et al., 2015a; Chaudhry 164 et al., 2016).

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166 **3. Results**

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168 *3.1.* Confirmation of *H.* placei and *H.* contortus species

169 In our previous study, ITS-2 rDNA pyrosequence genotyping identified Haemonchus populations in 7 out of the 10 cattle hosts as comprising of 100% H. placei (P24; G genotype), one 170 population (Pop86C from Georgia) comprising of 100% H. contortus (P24 A genotype), one 171 population (Pop9C) comprising 97% H. contortus (P24 A genotype) and 3% H. placei (P24; G 172 genotype) and one population (Pop85C) comprising of 100% H. placei (P24; G genotype) except 173 for a single worm with a heterozygous $\underline{A}/\underline{G}$ at position P24, suggesting that it may be a *H. placei* 174 / H. contortus hybrid (Supplementary Table S1 & Fig. 1) (Chaudhry et al., 2014). In the present 175 study, between 29 and 32 individual Haemonchus worms were pyrosequence genotyped for the 176 rDNA ITS-2 P24 SNP (64 worms form sheep and 125 worms from goats) and all worms identified 177 as H. contortus (P24 A genotype) (Supplementary Table S1 & Fig. 1). 178

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3.2. Allele frequencies of the F167Y, E198A, F200Y polymorphisms in the H. placei and H.
contortus isotype-1 β-tubulin locus

182 In our previous study, pyrosequence genotyping was applied to individual worms from the 9 *H. placei* populations to genotype the isotype-1 β -tubulin locus at codon F167Y(TTC-TAC), 183 E198A(GAA-GCA) and F200Y(TTC-TAC). Six of the 9 H. placei populations contained the 184 F200Y(TAC) benzimidazole resistance-associated SNP at low frequencies between 2-10% 185 186 (Supplementary Table S2) (Chaudhry et al., 2014). The benzimidazole resistance-associated F167Y(TAC) and E198A(GCA) SNPs were not detected in any of these cattle populations. In the 187 188 present study, pyrosequence genotyping was applied to the pooled worms from 7 H. contortus populations to genotype the isotype-1 β-tubulin locus at codon F167Y (TTC-TAC), E198A (GAA-189

190 G<u>C</u>A) and F200Y(T<u>T</u>C-T<u>A</u>C). Benzimidazole resistance-associated SNPs were found in all 7 191 populations with the F200Y(T<u>A</u>C) mutation at high frequencies between 82-100% and 4 192 populations with the F167Y(T<u>A</u>C) mutation at low frequencies between 7-24% (Supplementary 193 Table S2). The benzimidazole resistance-associated SNP E198A(G<u>C</u>A) was not detected in any 194 of the populations.

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196 *3.3. Population genetic structure of H. placei and H. contortus*

Between 22 and 30 individual worms were successfully genotyped using a panel of six 197 microsatellite markers for each of 6 H. placei and 4 H. contortus populations. To measure the 198 level of genetic diversity between populations, the diversity index value was estimated. All 199 200 populations were polymorphic at all loci, with the overall number of alleles per locus (A) ranging from 3 to 16 in *H. placei* and 2 to 10 in *H. contortus* respectively. Several unique alleles (A_U) were 201 observed in each population (Table 1). There was some significant departure from Hardy-202 Weinberg equilibrium, even after Bonferroni correction, in 4 out of the 36 loci combinations for 203 H. placei and 3 out of the 24 loci combinations for H. contortus, respectively (Table 1). There 204 205 were no major departures from linkage equilibrium for any particular combination of loci across all populations indicating that alleles at these loci were randomly associated. H. placei and H. 206 207 *contortus* showed a high level of overall genetic diversity in all populations, the mean allele richness (A_C) was 7.750 ± 0.603 and 5.292 ± 0.479 respectively and expected heterozygosity (H_e) 208 209 was 0.705 (range: 0.042-0.701) and 0.488 (range: 0.048-0.546) respectively (Table 1).

To measure the level of genetic difference between populations, the AMOVA and fixation index (F_{ST}) value was estimated. The percentage of variation that partitioned between 6 *H. placei* populations was 0.042% and 4 *H. contortus* populations were 0.015%. This was reflected by levels of pairwise F_{ST} estimates with a maximum of 0.09 for 13 out of 15 possible pairwise comparisons in *H. placei*, and a maximum of 0.02 for 4 out of 6 possible pairwise comparisons in *H. contortus*, showing a low level of genetic differentiation (Table 2).

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3.4. Haplotype distribution and the network analysis of isotype-1 β-tubulin locus of H. placei and
H. contortus

A 325bp fragment of the isotype-1 β -tubulin locus was cloned and sequenced from the 6 *H*. *placei* populations containing the F200Y (T<u>A</u>C) SNP. The gDNA template was pooled from 221 between 29 to 36 worms from each population (Supplementary Table S1) and between 6 and 12 clones were sequenced per population (Table 3). A single F200Y(TAC) resistance-conferring 222 223 haplotype (Hr3 F200Y) was present in all six populations (Table 3; Fig. 2A) and five distinct susceptible haplotypes (designated Hs1, Hs2, Hs3, Hs4 and Hs5) were present across the six 224 populations (Table 3, Fig. 2A). All haplotypes, except Hs4, were identified in more than one 225 population supporting their validity (as opposed to PCR or sequencing artefacts). A phylogenetic 226 227 haplotype network revealed that the single F200Y (TAC) resistance haplotype (Hr3 F200Y) was most closely related to the most frequent susceptible haplotype (Hs1) which was also present in 228 all the six cattle populations (Fig. 3A). 229

A 328bp fragment of the isotype-1 β -tubulin locus was cloned and sequenced from 7 H. 230 contortus populations. The gDNA template was pooled from between 29 to 32 worms from each 231 population (Supplementary Table S1) and between 6 and 15 clones were sequenced per population 232 (Table 3). A total of four H. contortus F200Y(TAC) resistance haplotypes (Hr12, Hr16, Hr22and 233 Hr23) and two F167Y(TAC) resistance haplotypes (Hr20 and Hr29) were were identified in more 234 than one population supporting their validity (Table 3; Fig. 2B), but no susceptible haplotypes 235 were identified among 85 sequences of 7 H. contortus populations. A phylogenetic haplotype 236 network was produced to examine the phylogenetic relationship between the six isotype-1 β -237 238 tubulin haplotypes (Fig. 3B). Hr12 was by far the most frequent and widely distributed haplotype, being identified in all 7 farms, followed by Hr29 (6 farms), and Hr23(2 farms) (Fig. 3B). Although 239 240 Hr16, Hr22, and Hr20 haplotypes were at low frequency and only identified on a single farm each, they differed from the other haplotypes by multiple substitutions making them, more likely to be 241 242 valid haplotypes rather than the result of PCR-induced mutation or sequencing error (Fig. 3B).

243

244 4. Discussion

Benzimidazole drugs have been intensively used in small ruminants worldwide for over 40 years leading to the development of resistance in multiple gastrointestinal nematode species including *H. contortus*. In the USA, most *H. contortus* populations in sheep and goats have extremely high levels of benzimidazole resistance (Kaplan and Vidyashankar, 2012). In the case of cattle in the USA, benzimidazoles have not been heavily used due to the predominance of macrocyclic lactone use in parasite control. Although there have been no published studies conclusively demonstrating phenotypic benzimidazole resistance in *H. placei* in North America, 252 benzimidazole resistance mutations have been reported by Chaudhry et al. (2014) and Avramenko 253 et al. (2020). Indeed, despite the relatively limited use of benzimidazoles in USA beef cattle, the 254 codon F200Y(TAC) mutation appears to be already widespread being detected in 6 out of 9 H. placei populations examined from Georgia, Arkansas and Florida (Chaudhry et al., 2014) and in 255 15 out of 32 H. placei populations examined from Oklahoma, Arkansas and Nebraska (Avramenko 256 et al., 2020). However, this resistance mutation is at low frequencies in these populations (1.6% -257 258 9.4% and 0.57 - 27.45%); these levels would not be expected to result in detectable loss of drug efficacy. 259

This situation allows us to explore the patterns of resistance mutations relatively early and late 260 stages of emergence in *H. placei* and *H. contortus* respectively. Our previous work in Pakistan, 261 where there is a similar situation, clearly showed that the resistance was much lower in *H. placei* 262 than in *H. contortus* (Ali et al., 2018). Indeed, the F200Y(TAC) mutation in *H. placei* was present 263 on just a single haplotype in the multiple populations sampled, whereas the same mutation in H. 264 *contortus* was present on up to 8 different haplotypes. The presence of just a single F200Y (TAC) 265 haplotype in *H. placei* suggested to the spread of a resistance mutation from a single location 266 267 during the early phases of resistance emergence (Ali et al., 2019). This built on our other previous work on the rarer E198A(GCA) mutation in H. contortus in India, where a similar pattern of 268 haplotype diversity suggesting a single emergence of this mutation was found in the region 269 (Chaudhry et al., 2015a). 270

271 The work presented in this paper was performed to further test the hypothesis that resistance spreads from a single, or a small number of locations, during the early phases of its emergence. 272 We have found that for *H. placei*, where resistance is at a relatively early stage, there is just a 273 single F200Y (TAC) haplotype (Hr3) in all 6 of the *H. placei* populations studied. The dominance 274 275 of the Hs1 susceptible haplotype in the H. placei populations means there is insufficient susceptible allelic diversity to allow us to strongly conclude that the Hr3 haplotype is likely to have arisen just 276 277 once in the region. However, the results are consistent with our previous work and provide further evidence for the genetic model that resistance mutations spread from a single, or a small number 278 279 of locations in a region during the early phases (Ali et al., 2019; Chaudhry et al., 2015a). The H. placei results contrast with those of H. contortus, where resistance is more advanced since we 280 identified at least two different F200Y(TAC) (likely four) and two different F167Y(TAC) 281 haplotypes across the 7 H. contortus populations sampled. The early spread of resistance from one 282

or a small number of locations in a region emphasis the importance of livestock movement in the
spread of benzimidazole resistance mutations in ruminants (Chaudhry et al., 2016).

There have been several studies on the population genetics of *H. contortus* but much less is
known for *H. placei* (Chaudhry et al., 2015a; Chaudhry et al., 2016; Hunt et al., 2008; Redman et

al., 2015; Silvestre et al., 2009). Microsatellite genotyping revealed a high level of genetic diversity

among *H. placei* (allele richness 7.750 ± 0.603 , expected heterozygosity 0.705) and *H. contortus*

(allele richness 5.292 ± 0.47 , expected heterozygosity 0.488) populations and a low level of genetic

290 differentiation between the populations; *H. placei* (F_{st} estimates a maximum of 0.09) and *H.*

291 *contortus* (F_{st} estimates a maximum of 0.02). This population genetic structure is consistent with

that expected when high levels of gene flow occur between parasite populations and further

- supports the likelihood of the spread of resistance alleles in the southern USA.
- 294

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388 Figure Legends

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Fig. 1. Distribution of *Haemonchus* spp. identified in from several locations in the southern USA. 390 391 Geographic locations of abattoirs/farms are indicated with small black circles in three states (A) Arkansas (B) Georgia (C) Florida. Each pie chart represents a single parasite population taken 392 from an individual host. The final letter of the parasite population name indicates the host species 393 of origin (S, sheep; G, goat; C, cattle). Black shading represents worms identified as H. placei 394 (Homozygous G at ITS-2 rDNA P24), vertical line shading represents worms identified as H. 395 contortus (Homozygous A at ITS-2 rDNA position P24) and the light dot represents worms 396 397 identified as putative hybrids (heterozygous $\underline{A/G}$ at ITS-2 rDNA P24).

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Fig. 2. Frequency histograms showing resistant and susceptible isotype-1 β-tubulin haplotypes identified from six *H. placei* populations in panel A and seven *H. contortus* populations in (panel B). F200Y(TTC)/F167Y(TTC)/E198A(GAA) susceptible haplotypes are shown in blue, F200Y (T<u>A</u>C) resistant haplotypes in red colour and F167Y(T<u>A</u>C) resistant haplotypes in green colour. The number of clones sequenced corresponding to each haplotype is shown above each bar (n).

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Fig. 3. Median-joining network of the *H. placei* (panel A) and *H. corturtus* (panel B) isotype-1 β tubulin sequences generated in Network 4.6.1. A full median network containing all possible shortest trees was generated by setting the epsilon parameter equal to the greatest weighted distance (epsilon = 10). All unnecessary median vectors and links are removed with the MP option (Polzin and Daneschmand, 2003). The size of the circle representing each haplotype is proportional

to its frequency in the dataset and the colours in the circles reflect the spread of this haplotype in 410 411 each population as indicated on the colour key on the inset map. The number of mutations separating adjacent sequence nodes or median vectors is indicated along connecting branches and 412 413 the length of the lines connecting the haplotypes is proportional to the number of nucleotide changes. The most probable ancestral node is determined by rooting the network to a closely 414 related outgroup H. contortus (Hc) against H. placei network (GenBank accession number 415 416 X67489) and outgroup H. placei (Hp) against H. contortus network (GenBank accession number 417 KJ598498). The text providing the name of each haplotype is colour coded as follows; susceptible

- 418 haplotypes F200Y(TTC)/ F167Y(TTC)/E198A(G<u>C</u>A) is in black text; F200Y(TAC) resistant
- haplotype is in blue text; F167Y(TAC) resistant haplotype is in green text.